

1 *National Conversation on Public Health and Chemical Exposures*
2 **Draft Scientific Understanding Work Group Report**

3 **I. Introduction**

4 The *National Conversation on Public Health and Chemical Exposures* is a collaborative project,
5 supported by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the Agency for Toxic Substances
6 and Disease Registry (ATSDR). The *National Conversation* vision is that chemicals are used and
7 managed in ways that are safe and healthy for all people. The project's goal is to develop an action
8 agenda with clear, achievable recommendations that can help government agencies and other
9 organizations strengthen their efforts to protect the public from harmful chemical exposures. The *National*
10 *Conversation* Leadership Council will author the action agenda, utilizing input from six project work
11 groups, and members of the public who choose to participate in web dialogues and community
12 conversations.

13
14 *National Conversation* work groups were formed to research and make recommendations on the
15 following six cross-cutting public health and chemical exposures issues: monitoring, scientific
16 understanding, policies and practices, chemical emergencies, serving communities, and education and
17 communication. This report is the product of the Scientific Understanding work group's deliberations.
18 While issued to the *National Conversation* Leadership Council, the work group hopes that this report will
19 be of value to others in a position to act on the recommendations contained herein.

20
21 CDC and ATSDR worked with several groups to manage the *National Conversation*, including
22 RESOLVE, a nonprofit organization dedicated to advancing the effective use of consensus building in
23 public decision making, the American Public Health Association, the Association of State and Territorial
24 Health Officials, and the National Association of County and City Health Officials. These organizations
25 and others helped ensure that a broad range of groups and individuals were engaged throughout this
26 collaborative process, including government agencies, professional organizations, tribal groups,
27 community and non-profit organizations, health professionals, business and industry leaders, and
28 members of the public.

29
30 For more information on the *National Conversation* project, please visit
31 www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation.

32
33 **Membership**

34 Work groups were formed in 2009 following an open nomination process. Work group members were
35 selected based on a three stage process designed to ensure that each work group would have the capacity
36 to address and reflect different individual and organizational perspectives.¹

37
38 In addition to seeking members representing a diverse range of sectors, the following additional skill sets
39 were sought in selecting members of the Scientific Understanding work group: technical expertise,
40 experience in various routes of chemical exposure, ability to engage in technical and scientific discussions
41 with a group of individuals with diverse perspectives and expertise, and reputation in the individual's
42 field and ability to reach out to others in the sector. Furthermore, to achieve overall balance, the team
43 sought to compose a diverse work group in terms of discipline, perspective, gender, and geographic
44 region.

45
46 The Scientific Understanding work group is chaired by Kevin Teichman, Deputy Assistant Administrator

¹ For additional information on the work group member selection process, see
http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation/docs/membership_selection_process_report.pdf

47 for Science in the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)'s Office of Research and Development. The
48 work group is comprised of 24 members representing a broad range of experience and expertise.
49 Members are affiliated with 23 organizations and groups including local, state and federal government
50 agencies; professional organizations; tribes; community and nonprofit organizations; industry; and
51 academia. Ed Murray, Director of ATSDR's Division of Toxicology and Environmental Medicine, serves
52 as the Senior Liaison from the National Center for Environmental Health (NCEH)/ATSDR to the work
53 group. Abby Dilley and Gail Bingham, from RESOLVE, have shared responsibility for facilitating the
54 work group and Kim DeFeo from NCEH/ATSDR, staffs the work group. A list of the work group
55 members can be found in Appendix A².

56
57 This report is being submitted by the Scientific Understanding work group for consideration by the
58 *National Conversation Leadership Council* as it develops its action agenda.

59
60 In this report, the Scientific Understanding work group recommends improvements in scientific
61 understanding in order to:

- 62 A. Achieve a more complete understanding of chemicals and their health effects
- 63 B. Gain a better understanding of variations in individual susceptibility, factors that increase the
64 vulnerability of certain communities, and the impacts of low-dose, multiple, and cumulative
65 chemical exposures, including exposures to naturally occurring toxins
- 66 C. Improve the effectiveness of the scientific methods used by ATSDR and other public health
67 agencies to investigate the public health impacts in communities and increase community
68 participation in scientific research and decision making
- 69 D. Develop the scientific knowledge needed for decision making to improve public health protection

70 **Work group charge, scope and objectives**

71 The Scientific Understanding work group's charge is to (a) identify shortcomings in our current scientific
72 understanding that limit, and (b) make recommendations to fill knowledge gaps that could enhance, our
73 ability to assess health effects and to inform decisions at all levels to minimize the health risks of
74 chemicals.

75 Research related to many scientific disciplines is needed to fill the large gaps in knowledge about the
76 causes and consequences of human exposure to toxic chemicals (including chemicals emitted by
77 biological sources). Recent scientific advances provide the opportunity to address some of these gaps.

78

79 **Caveats and limitations**

80 While the Scientific Understanding work group drew upon the wide expertise and experience of its
81 members, the group acknowledges the limitations of its expertise and experience and its impact on this
82 report. A second limitation was the limit of twelve recommendations that each of the workgroups could
83 put forward for the Leadership Council's consideration. There are certainly additional actions that could
84 be taken to advance our scientific understanding than are included in Section IV.

85

86 Lastly, the work group found it difficult to separate "scientific understanding" from "policies and
87 practices." The recommendations that follow are intended to provide the scientific basis for, but be
88 neutral with respect to, various policy approaches. It is also anticipated that policy direction will be
89 reflected in the report from the Policies and Practices work group.

² This report is a draft document. This list of work group members does not yet reflect endorsement by any individual.

90 **II. Current status of issues under consideration**

91
92 Chemicals are ubiquitous in our society; they are dispersed throughout our environment, in our water, air,
93 soil, and food. Data show that chemical manufacturers in the United States reported producing or
94 importing about 27 trillion pounds of 6,200 chemicals, or about 74 billion pounds per day, in 2005
95 (Wilson & Schwarzman, 2009). In addition, global chemical production is projected to continue
96 growing—about 3% per year, with a doubling rate of 24 years. While our society welcomes the benefits
97 of chemical use, we also bear the burden of harm that exposures to some of these chemicals can bring.
98

99 **Evaluating the Potential of Chemicals for Toxicity**

100
101 The Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) serves as a statutory foundation for the science of chemical
102 risk assessment. TSCA has created a standard of substantiation, which has led the EPA to collect large
103 quantities of data—both through the general advance of toxicology and risk assessment as well as through
104 voluntary programs with industry. At the same time, TSCA has many weaknesses. Of the approximately
105 62,000 chemicals existing at the time of passage of TSCA in 1976, EPA was able to review the risks of
106 about 1,200 (2%) within the first 15 years (GAO, 1994). Based upon production volume and chemical
107 properties, EPA estimated that approximately 16,000 (26%) were potentially of concern. However, the
108 lack of requirement for toxicity data on these existing chemicals has fostered an environment hindering
109 the development of newer and potentially less hazardous chemicals. For new chemicals, over 95% of the
110 pre-manufacturing notices (PMNs) claimed some of the information as confidential (GAO, 2005a), 85%
111 lacked data on health effects, and 67% lacked general environmental data (EPA, 2007). Of the 2,863
112 chemicals that the U.S. either produced or imported in quantities of over 1 million pounds per year in
113 1990, EPA determined in 1998 that only 7% (just 202 chemicals) had publicly available results for all
114 eight of the standard, basic screening tests. Almost half of these chemicals (43%) had no publicly
115 available data in any test category (EPA, 1998). TSCA's provisions place a high standard for proof of
116 harm on EPA before regulatory action can be taken to limit use of, or ban, a chemical from commerce.
117 Since TSCA was enacted in 1979, the EPA has used its formal rule-making authority to restrict only 5
118 chemicals or chemical classes (GAO, 2005a).
119

120 The successes in the regulation and substitution of chemicals are based on extensive and targeted research
121 efforts examining the health effects of heavy metals, such as lead and mercury. While the human health
122 effects of these chemicals were initially identified through cases of poisoning, data sufficient for
123 regulatory guidelines were based upon extensive epidemiological studies on childhood exposure to lead
124 and the establishment of experimental animal models of neurodevelopmental deficits. Over time,
125 improved scientific understanding of lead's developmental toxicity resulted in acceptance that levels of
126 lead exposure previously deemed to be safe posed significant health risks (Gilbert & Weiss, 2006). The
127 subsequent removal of lead from paints and gasoline resulted in the reduction in air pollution and a
128 decrease in blood lead levels by 70% in children (Browner, 1996).
129

130 The overwhelming number of chemicals used in manufacturing with the potential for environmental
131 contamination and human exposure has driven the direction of toxicity testing. The procedures used for
132 acute toxicity screening assays have been extended to chronic exposure assays. The challenge lies in
133 coordinating observations within a community of exposures and health effects, identifying a chemical's
134 potential for toxicity, understanding the impacts of multiple and cumulative chemical exposures,
135 developing test methods that will detect more subtle adverse effects or populations that may be more
136 susceptible, translating such effects back to the human, acting upon that information for assessing risk,
137 and communicating potential hazards to the community for action.

138 **Evaluating and Communicating Public Health Impacts**

139 Addressing the impact of the myriad of chemicals to which the public is exposed poses many challenges
140 to government and private industry. The government's efforts to regulate potentially harmful chemicals
141 have been constrained by TSCA which grandfathered over 60,000 chemicals in use and placed the burden
142 of proof on EPA, a task that, as described earlier, has resulted in few chemicals being regulated. On
143 September 29, 2009, EPA Administrator Lisa Jackson released a set of core principles to strengthen U.S.
144 chemical management laws. In parallel with this announcement, EPA is initiating a comprehensive
145 approach to enhance the Agency's current chemicals management program within the limits of existing
146 authorities (EPA, 2010a).

147 One possible model that may be useful in updating TSCA comes from the European Union (EU). In 2006,
148 the EU issued a sweeping new regulation, known as the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and
149 Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), which requires producers to disclose some hazard and exposure
150 information on an estimated 30,000 industrial chemicals. Chemical manufacturers must also gain
151 government authorization to use certain "substances of very high concern" (REACH, 2007). These new
152 requirements—both for providing data and for proving safe use—are expected to improve knowledge and
153 promote the development and use of safer chemical substances, closing the technology gap by fueling
154 new investment in green chemistry science, technology, and education (Wilson & Schwarzman, 2009).

155
156 The treaty that establishes the European Union calls for "community policy on the environment" to be
157 "based on the precautionary principle" (European Union, 1992), a framework that people from multiple
158 sectors and perspectives have argued our nation also needs to move towards. Support has grown for use of
159 a decision making approach rooted in precaution – one in which risk assessment is seen as a useful tool in
160 the appropriate context but is not the scientific paradigm for decision making. For example, in its recently
161 released report entitled *Reducing Environmental Cancer Risk: What We Can Do Now*, the President's
162 Cancer Panel calls for a shift away from our current risk management approach toward one based on the
163 precautionary principle (Reuben, 2010).

164
165 Current methods for evaluating the impact of exposures to low levels of toxic chemicals rely on
166 traditional quantitative risk assessment that has many limitations and uncertainties. Improvements to risk
167 assessment methods, such as proposed by the National Research Council (NRC) in 2009 in their
168 publication *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*, are clearly needed. The NRC report
169 acknowledged that risk assessment is "at a crossroads," facing "a number of substantial challenges," that
170 "its credibility is being challenged," and that the "regulatory risk assessment process is bogged down." If
171 critical improvements can be made, then information collected as part of a quantitative risk assessment
172 can be useful when considering exposure and adverse health information as part of a precautionary
173 analysis. Mechanisms for assessing confidence in comparative risks among alternatives that incorporate
174 life cycle understandings of chemical use will be important to achieving this goal.

175
176 The challenge to evaluating the impact of exposure to toxic chemicals is especially difficult in
177 communities where large numbers of people are exposed to low levels of mixtures of toxic chemicals.
178 Community groups across the country have criticized the lack of scientific rigor and effectiveness of
179 Public Health Assessments (PHAs) and Health Consultations (HCs), epidemiological studies, and disease
180 cluster investigations conducted by ATSDR and other public health agencies, in particular charging that
181 these investigations and studies "...lack the ability to properly attribute illness to toxic exposures, and the
182 methodologies used [by ATSDR] to identify suspected environmental exposures to hazardous chemicals
183 are doomed from the start" (Majority Staff of the Subcommittee on Investigations and Oversight of the
184 Committee on Science and Technology, 2009).

185

186 The coordination of comprehensive databases providing information on individual- and community-level
187 exposures, underlying biological conditions, and health outcomes is necessary to identify and evaluate
188 adverse health effects of chemical exposure. Without accurate health data, well-matched to exposure data
189 by time and place, correlating exposures with health outcomes is difficult. An improved data collection
190 system is necessary to identify and reduce unhealthy chemical exposures and improve public health. The
191 access to such information by the community is critical.

192
193 Community involvement is critical in all phases of research and decisions that are made regarding
194 chemical exposures. Early involvement helps ensure that research efforts address critical concerns raised
195 by those most affected, that local knowledge is taken into account in such research, and that collaboration
196 between stakeholders leads to improvements in research methods, study design, and interpretation of
197 findings. Such preemptive interactions will serve to address concerns of the communities, identify
198 resources to provide data and information to databases and affected populations, as well as aid in the
199 translation and communication of risk back to the community for intervention to minimize health effects.

200
201

202 **III. Vision of a Successful System**

203

204 The Scientific Understanding work group recognizes every person's right to health and the obligation of
205 our nation to provide its residents with a clean and healthy environment ("International Covenant," 1966;
206 WHO, 2008). This ideal has been operationalized in statutes like the Occupational Safety and Health
207 Administration (OSHA) General Duty Clause, which directs employers to furnish its employees with a
208 workplace "free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical
209 harm" (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970); the Clean Air Act, which authorizes EPA to regulate
210 hazardous air pollutants (1970); and the Clean Water Act, which permits EPA to set water quality
211 standards (1972).

212
213 The Scientific Understanding work group understands that achieving this vision is predicated on
214 expanding our knowledge and understanding of chemicals: their sources of exposure, toxicity, modes of
215 action, and the adverse health impacts they can cause. In addition, chemical information needs to be
216 easily accessible to the public and to decision makers so that they can make informed decisions on how to
217 best protect public health. Therefore, our vision of a successful system includes developing, where
218 needed, greener chemicals that provide the same desirable properties that existing chemicals do but that
219 are less toxic to human health and informed decision makers at all levels that understand the chemical
220 lifecycle and effectively manage the selection, use, and disposal of waste chemicals to minimize
221 exposures and potential attendant risks.

222

223 There is much important research that needs to be done to minimize the consequences of chemical
224 exposures. We need further research into the connection between chemical exposures and multiple health
225 outcomes (including neurobehavioral, developmental and reproductive endpoints). We also need to
226 investigate the impacts of low-dose, multiple, and cumulative exposures to chemicals and to understand
227 the role non-chemical stressors play in combination with chemical exposures. Understanding emerging
228 concerns, including mold, nanotechnology, and chemical intolerance are other areas that merit research.
229 Attention also needs to be focused on the interplay between genes and the environment, individual
230 susceptibility, and disproportionate community risks. All of these research areas will draw upon recent
231 technological advances in both the traditional sciences (e.g., biology, chemistry, and toxicology) and new
232 cross-cutting technologies (e.g., computational toxicology, "-omics," and bioinformatics).

233

234

235 **IV. Action Recommendations**

236
237 The Scientific Understanding work group makes the following recommendations for consideration by the
238 *National Conversation Leadership Council.*

239
240 **A. Recommendations to achieve a more complete understanding of chemicals and their health**
241 **effects**

242
243 ***Recommendation 1. Fill data gaps in the scientific knowledge of the health risks of chemicals and***
244 ***prioritize all chemicals of concern for further assessment of hazard and risk.***

245
246 *Recommended Action:* U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) should define a targeted set of
247 toxicologic, epidemiologic, clinical, chemical use, chemical transport, and exposure data as appropriate
248 for a robust assessment of chemical hazard and risk, and EPA should develop a prioritization method for
249 further assessment. Specific suggested actions include:

250
251 In the near term, EPA should define a targeted set of toxicologic and exposure data, along with all
252 available information (e.g. epidemiologic, mechanisms of action, pharmacokinetics, expected routes of
253 exposure, chemical use and chemical transport), necessary for a robust assessment of chemical hazard and
254 risk. To protect human health and the environment, EPA needs to assess the safety and risk of new and
255 existing chemicals. EPA and other regulatory agencies should identify a targeted data set for all chemicals
256 in use. The targeted data set must be adequate to allow determinations that new and existing chemicals in
257 commerce pose an acceptable level of risk and do not endanger the public or the environment. The
258 targeted data set should be reviewed periodically and adjusted by EPA and other regulatory agencies to
259 incorporate new scientific understanding of data necessary to assess critical health endpoints.

260
261 In the medium term, EPA should develop a prioritization method focused on chemical safety and health,
262 with special emphasis on sensitive subpopulations. Based on the prioritization method, EPA should
263 identify those chemicals posing the greatest potential hazards and risks, as well as those contaminants
264 requiring more toxicological information (including naturally occurring contaminants, such as
265 mycotoxins). Results of the prioritization method should trigger additional appropriate analysis for
266 chemicals posing a substantial hazard or risk, such as alternatives assessments; research to determine
267 effective exposure-reduction strategies, including the adoption of inherently safer technology and “green
268 chemistry;” and additional testing. EPA should reassess a chemical’s prioritization when there is a change
269 that may affect public health risk, such as increased production volume, new uses, or new information on
270 potential hazards or exposures.

271
272 *Current status of issue under consideration:* While the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) has
273 enabled many successes, the legislation also limits our ability to protect human health and the
274 environment. It has been observed that TSCA has produced three major barriers to action. The first is the
275 “Data Gap,” because the great majority of chemicals in commerce have been incompletely assessed for
276 risk, and this information, where it exists, has been insufficiently communicated (Wilson & Schwarzman,
277 2009). A quality and scientific risk assessment must be based on a sound, comprehensive set of data. The
278 second barrier, the “Safety Gap,” contends that “[g]overnment lacks the legal tools it needs to efficiently
279 identify, prioritize, and take action to mitigate the potential health and environmental effects of hazardous
280 chemicals.” The third barrier, the “Technology Gap,” posits that incentives are lacking for industry to
281 develop cleaner and safer chemical alternatives.

282
283 As a first priority, the federal government needs to close the “Data Gap.” EPA and other key research
284 agencies should have access to information about the potential risks of existing chemicals (as soon as
285 possible) and new chemicals (before they enter commerce). Federal access should include chemical

286 toxicity, use, storage and manufacture, transport, disposal, exposure, as well as the chemicals
287 incorporated into consumer products. If this information is unavailable or incomplete, it should be
288 provided to the federal government by manufacturers, downstream processors, and users. At a minimum,
289 manufacturers should provide a targeted set of information on the acute and chronic effects of the
290 chemical necessary for a robust assessment of that chemical's risk, which could include profiles for
291 persistence/bio-accumulation/toxicity (PBT), carcinogenic/mutagenic/reproductive (CMR) effects and
292 endocrine disruption, as necessary.

293
294 The availability of sufficient data, information, and third-party assessments will enable EPA and others to
295 identify, screen, and prioritize all contaminants for further scientific assessment and regulatory review.
296 Improved scientific understanding will inform actions to protect human health and the environment
297 ("States' Principles," 2009).

298
299 *Desired outcomes and implementation*

300 Outcomes of efforts to fill data gaps in the scientific understanding of health effects from chemicals used
301 in commerce should be evaluated on an ongoing basis and reported periodically (annually at a minimum),
302 by EPA and other federal agencies. Evaluation reports should be publicly available online and presented
303 to Congress.

304
305 Finally, an online public database should be created and maintained that identifies each chemical used in
306 commerce, identifies the chemical manufacturer(s), and indicates whether each element of the required
307 targeted toxicological and exposure data set has been adequately provided by the manufacturer(s). EPA
308 should disclose all data provided by manufacturers on chemical toxicity, storage and manufacture, use,
309 transport, disposal, exposure, as well as the chemicals incorporated into products, as soon as possible after
310 receipt of information from chemical manufacturers, taking steps to protect information that can
311 legitimately be claimed to be confidential business information. In addition to review by EPA and other
312 federal agencies, public comment opportunities should be created to allow citizens, researchers, and other
313 stakeholders to provide input on the adequacy and quality of scientific data provided by chemical
314 manufacturers.

315
316 ***Recommendation 2. Improve knowledge of existing databases and increase the accessibility of***
317 ***information across multiple databases.***

318
319 *Recommended actions:* The federal government should lead the establishment of a National Data
320 Management Advisory Committee, the creation of a National Registry of significant databases, and the
321 development of a knowledge-based search engine to access data across multiple agencies' and
322 organizations' databases.

323
324 In the short term, the U.S. federal government should establish a National Data Management Advisory
325 Committee. This Committee would include knowledgeable representatives from major government
326 agencies, industry, academia, non-governmental organizations, and the general public. The Committee
327 would need to be appropriately funded and given access to the managers of all relevant sources of data
328 within various agencies and organizations. This Committee would facilitate development of a strategy and
329 process for the collection of information for a National Registry of significant databases. It would address
330 issues of confidential or non-public information, working closely with the managers of the databases. The
331 Committee would also identify relationships between independent databases and opportunities for
332 synthesis. To ensure performance and accountability, the Committee would need to establish targets and
333 publicly report its progress.

334
335 In the medium term, the federal government should create a National Registry of significant databases on
336 chemicals and other contaminants. There is a need to understand what information currently exists in the

337 various databases maintained by various federal and state agencies as well as other organizations. There is
338 also a need to determine how much of this data is unique and how much is duplicated from another
339 source. This effort should expand beyond the borders of the United States to include the European Union,
340 Canada, and Asia-Pacific sources.

341
342 In the long term, the federal government should lead the development of a knowledge-based search
343 engine to access data across multiple agencies' and organizations' databases. In order to navigate the
344 databases contained in the National Registry, a search engine is needed that is capable of accessing
345 multiple data sources across federal, state, and international sources. The intent would be to develop a
346 knowledge-based system, rather than an information-based one, capable of fielding detailed questions that
347 would allow a user to find relevant data and sources. This effort will require a focus on identifying
348 interrelationships of data between chemical toxicity, exposure, and human health fields. This effort will
349 require significant resources and should be directed by the Advisory Committee.

350
351 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Government agencies at all levels have made significant
352 efforts to collect various data, and numerous databases exist both inside and outside of the government. In
353 many cases, data has been collected to answer specific needs. Hence, accessibility and interoperability of
354 data are all challenges. When data are not easily accessible to researchers and the public, our ability to
355 understand chemicals and their impacts on public health is hampered. When data are not compiled in a
356 consistent manner or entered into databases that have harmonized platforms, locating and integrating data
357 from various databases is tedious and time consuming. Risk assessments could be expedited and
358 enhanced if the breadth of existing information were more fully available and useful to researchers.

359
360 Therefore, there is a need for a comprehensive strategy to register existing data sources and to make the
361 data represented in this registry accessible to all stakeholders.

362
363 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* It is expected that these actions will lead to incremental
364 improvements that will range from being very visible to improvements that are procedural changes within
365 agencies with limited visibility. Regardless, data and database management has the potential to
366 significantly enhance our knowledge of contaminant risks and improve the quality and timeliness of risk
367 assessments.

368
369 ***Recommendation 3. Identify relevant biological signaling pathways from in vitro screening***
370 ***technologies.***

371
372 *Recommended actions:* Reevaluate and refine approaches for toxicity evaluation to develop targeted
373 testing approaches in the whole organism (*in vivo*) and to determine the validity of cell culture (*in vitro*)
374 and alternative model systems to predict *in vivo* toxicity.

375
376 In the near term, convene working groups of national and international scientific experts to generate a
377 series of guidance documents for *in vitro* toxicity screening within the framework of predictive validity
378 for *in vivo* toxicity. These documents would focus on specific organ systems and/or types of cellular
379 toxicity. They would identify and focus efforts toward promising endpoints using the *in vitro* toxicity
380 pathways approach. Concurrently, a reevaluation of *in vivo* toxicity testing approaches to screen for
381 toxicity should be conducted to evaluate sensitivity, relevance, and translation to the potential for human
382 health effects.

383
384 Utilization of new technologies and advances in systems biology are necessary to integrate a tiered and
385 targeted approach for examining the potential toxicity of chemicals and human health impact. Over the
386 medium to long term, efforts should be undertaken to foster collaborations between basic biomedical
387 researchers and toxicologists to update *in vivo* methods for detecting exposure-related toxicities, identify

388 biological processes associated with toxicity, develop methods of greater sensitivity for evaluating target
 389 organ specific toxicities, develop approaches to examine interrelationships between biological systems in
 390 toxicity (e.g., immune and nervous, respiratory, or reproductive systems), and understand underlying
 391 mechanisms of toxicity to advance the identification of biomarkers of effect.

392
 393 For the utilization of culture or alternative models, it is important to identify data sets and opportunities to
 394 evaluate the predictive validity of *in vitro* assays for determining toxicity relevant to human health and
 395 environmental effects (e.g., U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [EPA] Endocrine Disruptor Screening
 396 Program of drinking water contaminants). This effort would lead to the design of a series of coordinated
 397 interdisciplinary experiments to determine the predictive validity of a targeted group of *in vitro* assays
 398 with specific *in vivo* organ system toxicities and identification of subgroups of assays having a greater
 399 likelihood of detecting toxic effects of biological relevance. It would also serve to eliminate
 400 underperforming assays.

401
 402 Eventually, assays and pathways relevant to toxicity in specific organ systems need to be identified and
 403 methods to identify chemicals or classes of chemicals based upon biomonitoring of exposure and internal
 404 tissue burden need to be developed. From these analyses, testing efforts can be focused on either target
 405 organs or translated to relevant human exposure levels. A coordinated program also is needed across
 406 multiple federal, state, and local health agencies and academic or private groups to utilize tissue to
 407 determine internal organ-specific human chemical exposures, consistent with ethical protocols for human
 408 studies research.

409
 410 *Current status of issue under consideration:* The large number of chemicals in commerce today, along
 411 with problems posed by many environmental and biological contaminants, requires new technologies to
 412 assess potential human health hazards. One approach has been high-throughput screening of human cell
 413 lines to evaluate biologically significant perturbations in key toxicity pathways using computational
 414 biology. The expectation is that cell-specific pathways can characterize target organ toxicity in humans.
 415 However, the current cell culture (*in vitro*) testing approach raises important questions about the
 416 underlying biological processes being tested, the predictive validity of the *in vitro* cell based systems to
 417 whole animal (*in vivo*) toxicity, and ultimately the relevance of these findings to human health.
 418 Additionally, questions remain as to how data from *in vitro* assessment of toxicity pathways can be used
 419 in risk assessment given several uncertainties (e.g., defining “adverse effect,” extrapolation at the low end
 420 of the dose-response curve, susceptible subpopulations, developmental status [critical windows of
 421 susceptibility], application of uncertainty factors).

422
 423 *Desired outcomes and implementation:*

- 424 • Define, characterize, and confirm critical cellular pathways as causative of *in vivo* toxicity on a
 425 target organ basis.
- 426 • Identify specific high-throughput and high content assays validated for examination of each
 427 pathway.
- 428 • Enhance the ability to detect and characterize *in vivo* toxicity with the incorporation of new
 429 technologies.
- 430 • Incorporate biomonitoring of exposure and target organ concentrations into *in vivo* studies.
- 431 • Identify and validate tests systems (using comparative *in vitro* and *in vivo* models) sufficient to
 432 detect adverse effects of exposure on an organ or biological system basis, including effects that have
 433 no known cellular response pathway.
- 434 • Develop approaches that allow for the evaluation of susceptible subpopulations.

435
 436 Important products of this initiative would be the identification of test systems with predictive validity for
 437 adverse human health effects. Initially this would focus on identification of human target organ/systems

438 for which the *in vitro* screening approach would be successful and those systems for which an *in vivo*
439 approach is still required. Additionally, the evaluation of the signaling pathways and receptor activation,
440 as they are relevant to specific *in vivo* organ systems, will contribute to the refinement and focus of
441 subsequent *in vivo* assessments. The inclusion of new technologies in toxicity testing and chemical
442 evaluation will increase the sensitivity to detect adverse effects and foster the identification of specific
443 and critical pathways for inclusion into the *in vitro* high-content analysis effort. In the near term, this
444 activity will help bolster our current datasets for future use. As an example, *in vivo* imaging of the heart
445 may identify changes in cardiac function related to ion channel signaling. This observation could then be
446 used to develop *in vitro* systems to detect the relevant ion channels and their function and to compare
447 results back to the *in vivo* system, thus validating the *in vitro* endpoint approach for subsequent studies.
448

449 Inclusion of chemical body burden and target organ concentration will identify relevant exposure levels
450 for *in vitro* evaluation. The increased level of sensitivity and refinement in the *in vivo* models will
451 translate into a decrease in the use of animals and the inclusion of more relevant *in vitro* test assays,
452 which are likely to increase acceptance by the public, as well as the regulatory community.
453

454 The 2007 National Research Council report *Toxicity Testing in the Twenty-First Century: A Vision and a*
455 *Strategy* recommended that research programs directed to this strategy would be assessed every 3-5 years
456 by well-recognized scientific experts in both *in vivo* and *in vitro* testing models, independent of vested
457 interests in the public and private sectors. Evaluation criteria shall include the identification of assays with
458 predictive validity, the establishment of more sensitive *in vivo* test methods to detect for toxicity, and,
459 more importantly, the integration of data from both *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays to provide a basis for
460 inclusion into the risk assessment process.
461

462 Determining the predictive validity of *in vitro* systems falls under the auspices of the National Institutes
463 of Health (NIH), National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS) and the National
464 Toxicology Program (NTP), and the EPA (e.g., EPA Endocrine Disruptor Screening Program [EDSP],
465 EPA's National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory, EPA's National Center for
466 Computation Toxicology). The effort would be facilitated by a coordinated effort across granting agencies
467 of NIH, National Science Foundation, Department of Defense, and the Department of Energy.
468

469 Target organ/system exposure would fall under the auspices of the Centers for Disease Control and
470 Prevention and National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, and could be facilitated by the
471 involvement of NIH/NIEHS and NTP for either tissue collection or chemical analysis support. Access to
472 tissue sample collection would be fostered by the assistance of local health departments, state coroner's
473 offices, private physicians, hospitals, and patient advocacy groups, as relevant.
474

475 ***Recommendation 4. Identify and improve scientific knowledge of adverse health effects from indoor***
476 ***air pollutants, such as mold and mycotoxins, including the increased susceptibility to chemical***
477 ***exposures, and the possibility of developing neurologic, mental health, and immunologic diseases***
478 ***(such as autism and multiple sclerosis).***
479

480 ***Recommended actions:*** Improve the scientific understanding of the effects of indoor air pollutants and
481 their impact on identifying individual susceptibilities. Specific suggested actions include:
482

483 In the near term, exposure assessments for indoor air quality should incorporate multiple endpoints for
484 assessing the overall contribution of mold and its products, volatile and semi-volatile compounds like
485 pesticides (VOCs and SVOCs), small particles including ultrafine particles (e.g., from combustion), and
486 allergens. These particulates can be categorized by likely exposure routes. Air sampling can subdivide by
487 particle size and shape to identify those most likely to remain in air and, therefore, most likely to be
488 respirable and penetrate deep into the lung. This can be accomplished by providing supplemental

489 resources to existing studies for the expansion of air/dust analysis and by capturing results in databases
490 allowing for cross comparison with health data.

491
492 Given growing concern over prenatal exposures and exposures to children, adults, pregnant women and
493 the elderly, and the fact that Americans spend 90% of their day indoors (Woodcock & Custovic, 1998), an
494 evaluation of the impact of indoor air quality and its various components during development should be
495 conducted by an authoritative group (e.g., National Toxicology Program [NTP] Center for the Evaluation
496 of Risks to Human Reproduction, National Academy of Sciences). Such evaluation should include
497 physician case reports, clinical studies, exposure simulation studies, epidemiology studies, and animal
498 studies. Because childhood exposure may not, in all instances, reflect the most sensitive population, the
499 susceptibility of older populations or individuals with underlying respiratory disease should also be
500 considered. Given an aging population combined with the predominance of indoor activities, an
501 evaluation of exposure and impact of air quality components on the elderly could contribute to health
502 promotion efforts across the life-stages.

503
504 To determine the extent of indoor exposures, biomarkers of exposure for each of the compounds of
505 interest need to be developed and validated. In the case of mold, for example, potential biological markers
506 of exposure such as urinary mycotoxin levels, cytokine and antibody changes, or other specific markers
507 can be tested and validated through exposure simulation studies. The validation of a biomarker of
508 exposure could advance the evaluation of exposure-related adverse effects in human epidemiological and
509 case-control studies and in animal models. Validated biomarkers could then be included in appropriate
510 databases for assessing adverse effects, disease associations, and therapeutic interventions.

511
512 *Current status of issue under consideration:* Efforts to identify subpopulations more susceptible to
513 adverse effects from chemicals should include assessment of the history of indoor environmental
514 exposures of the individual as well as genetic factors. Indoor air quality is a major contributor to
515 respiratory compromise, in general, and asthma in particular (McGwin, Lienert, & Kennedy, 2010). These
516 effects are potentially hazardous throughout the life-span, with possibly greater vulnerability *in utero*
517 (pesticides), in childhood and among women and the elderly.

518
519 Indoor air quality is affected by building materials and choice of consumer products, furnishings, and
520 cleaning habits. In addition, the quality of indoor air is affected by dampness, moisture, and mold (IOM,
521 2004) with mold present in 1.5 to 20% of modern homes (Bornehag et al., 2004; 2005).

522
523 Mold exposure can have direct health effects and may also interact with other exposures. Potential health
524 effects due to indoor exposures have contributed to the rising interest in sustainable building design and
525 fostered green technology with the use of low-emitting building products and selection of finishing
526 materials to minimize moisture retention and mold growth. While associations between indoor air quality
527 and health have been demonstrated, the impact of indoor air pollution on individuals who are especially
528 susceptible to chemical exposure has not been adequately addressed (Miller & Ashford, 2000).

529
530 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* The Scientific Understanding work group envisions several
531 aspirational goals. First, a database of indoor air pollutants categorized to interface with health data will
532 be created. Next, the impacts of individual components of indoor air on human health will be defined.
533 Lastly, the influence of exposure to indoor air pollutants (including mold and mycotoxins) on the
534 susceptibility of individuals to other chemicals will be better understood.

535
536 It is expected that these actions will lead to the identification of critical indoor air exposures that can
537 adversely affect human health and productivity. It is also expected that the characteristics of susceptible
538 populations that can inform additional studies on genetic-, gender-, and age-based susceptibilities will be
539 identified and will enhance efforts for identifying green chemistry-based alternatives, thus improving

540 indoor air quality. It is also expected that progress will be made on the development of indoor air quality
541 standards for common indoor air pollutants.

542
543 Federal agencies (e.g. National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences [NIEHS] and Institute of
544 Medicine [IOM]) actively engaged in indoor air quality issues should form a consortium to review and
545 report out on the progress and impacts of the ongoing activities listed above (see “recommended actions”)
546 and research needs.

547
548 Actions can be taken by the NTP/NIEHS with a review conducted by the NTP Center for the Evaluation
549 of Risks to Human Reproduction, EPA indoor air quality divisions for research and monitoring, and
550 ATSDR for population exposure assessments. Specific nominations can be submitted to the National
551 Toxicology Program for consideration of toxicity testing.

552
553

554 **B. Recommendations to gain a better understanding of variations in individual susceptibility,**
555 **factors that increase the vulnerability of certain communities, and the impacts of low-dose,**
556 **multiple, and cumulative chemical exposures, including exposures to naturally occurring toxins**
557 **(e.g., mold and mycotoxins)**

558

559 *Recommendation 5. Identify and define vulnerability characteristics of communities in terms of both*
560 *structure and function, and their influence on increasing the susceptibility to environmental chemical*
561 *exposures.*

562

563 *Recommended actions:* To adequately assess and understand health risks in communities, questions about
564 community-specific situations and vulnerabilities should be incorporated into exposure assessments, risk
565 assessments, and existing surveys. This would lead to developing a more holistic risk management
566 approach that identifies and measures socio-cultural impacts and integrates them with human health and
567 ecological effects.

568

569 As an example of community-specific vulnerabilities, members of Native American, immigrant or ethnic
570 communities often have susceptibilities resulting from traditional cultural practices that increase their
571 exposure to toxic substances. Additionally, some ethnic communities have been forced to change or
572 abandon traditional cultural practices because of contamination or lack of access to traditional foods
573 (Arquette et al., 2002). For example, traditional medicine may not be used by some Native tribes where
574 local plants and trees that grow the medicines become contaminated by nearby air pollution sources.
575 These changes can lead to adverse health effects not considered by traditional risk assessment models.
576 Genetic susceptibilities, compromised immune systems, poverty and language barriers also contribute to
577 individual vulnerabilities, so it is critical that these factors be considered in efforts to protect specific
578 communities.

579

580 Pilot research projects should be undertaken to identify and define “vulnerability characteristics” in
581 appropriate communities. These questions could also be incorporated into some existing surveys (e.g.,
582 National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey [NHANES], Agency for Toxic Substances and
583 Disease Registry [ATSDR], census-derived follow-ups, and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s
584 [EPA] Community Action for a Renewed Environment grants program). They should also be
585 incorporated into traditional risk assessment models, which need to be modified to take these socio-
586 cultural differences into account. Ultimately, based on what is learned in the pilot projects, guidance for
587 including these questions should be developed for all relevant programs.

588

589 Communities need to be involved in describing their specific situations and vulnerabilities. A place to
590 start might be some research initiated within the new National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences

591 (NIEHS) Partnerships for Environmental Public Health. The establishment of this program demonstrates
592 NIEHS' commitment to supporting initiatives for communities and scientists to work together on
593 contemporary issues in environmental public health. This umbrella program is intended to support
594 partnerships between researchers and communities.

595
596 As additional vulnerabilities are identified, toxic site remediation actions and local emergency response
597 planning efforts (e.g., floods, man-made disasters) should be tailored to the specific, empirically derived,
598 vulnerability characteristics of a community.

599
600 *Current status of issue under consideration:* Improving health in contaminated communities is difficult
601 because little is known about how communities differ with regard to factors that may increase the risks
602 posed by toxic chemicals. In addition, risk assessments completed by federal agencies use standardized
603 templates for exposure scenarios in lieu of community-specific scenarios. Risk management decisions are
604 determined independent of the communities' concerns leaving these populations at greater risk due to
605 inadequate characterization of risk and remedial options. This in turn may leave the communities at a
606 greater risk. Traditional risk assessment models need to be modified to take into account socio-cultural
607 differences of communities.

608
609 The recent National Research Council's document *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*
610 (2009) recommended that EPA "develop guidelines and methods for simpler analytical tools to support
611 cumulative risk assessment and to provide for greater involvement of stakeholders. In the short-term, EPA
612 should develop databases and default approaches to allow for incorporation of key non-chemical stressors
613 in cumulative risk assessments in the absence of population-specific data, considering exposure patterns,
614 contributions to relevant background processes, and interactions with chemical stressors." Risk
615 assessment and risk management agencies should also allow the flexibility to incorporate community-
616 specific data in risk assessment and risk management decisions. Holistic models such as those developed
617 by Arquette et al. (2002) should be considered to amend traditional risk assessment models to include
618 socio-cultural information when making risk management decisions. Arquette argues that even the
619 definition of health used by Native people is significantly different than the definition used by risk
620 assessors, which leads to the need to expand current definitions and incorporate traditional knowledge
621 into decision making.

622
623 Research is needed to identify and define "vulnerability characteristics" of communities. Those assessing
624 risks in communities need to understand how community characteristics in both structure (e.g., socio-
625 economic factors, proximity to pollution sources, cultural and religious practices) and function (e.g.,
626 social organization, capacity to address impacts, language barriers) serve as both risk and protective
627 factors for chemical exposures.

628
629 Recommendations made at a recent conference support the need to consider these many variables: "For
630 Agency personnel charged with ameliorating toxic contamination, it is critically important to be aware
631 that the problems confronting contaminated communities are related not only to technical clean-up and
632 physical health, but also to social aspects of the community. In many contaminated communities, a
633 destructive social process develops that exacerbates the psychological and physical health impacts on
634 community residents. If this goes unrecognized, outside agency intervention may make the social process
635 even more destructive. On the other hand, if an agency works in partnership with a community, it is
636 possible to decrease the development of social stresses and increase the social capital and collective
637 efficacy available to a community to respond to contamination" (Tucker, Coles, Couch, & McEwen,
638 2010).

639
640 The major strengths of this recommendation are incorporating empirical data of "real world" community
641 scenarios in cumulative risk assessment approaches and identifying specific cultural/ethnic and traditional

642 practices that may affect risk. The major weaknesses of this recommendation are not being able to
 643 confirm any causal connections between all the variables identified, nor being able to extrapolate
 644 vulnerability characteristics across all communities. Impediments might be privacy concerns, liability
 645 concerning sensitive information being used for adverse insurance decisions or housing resale losses, and
 646 media coverage of the information collection effort jeopardizing its scientific integrity.

647
 648 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* This research improves risk assessments of communities by
 649 helping to identify the influence of vulnerabilities on chemical exposures, identify the influence of
 650 neurological and behavioral impacts on chemical exposures, and develop methods to incorporate
 651 background exposures and thus identify the influence of background exposures on risk.

652
 653 Communities will be better served and protected because cumulative risk assessments will incorporate
 654 key non-chemical stressor data based on the vulnerability characteristics of the community being studied.
 655 Fewer default-based judgments and arbitrary factors are invoked, which translate into risk assessments
 656 reflecting real-world scenarios.

657
 658 Randomize communities receiving cumulative-risk-based interventions designed to reduce community
 659 vulnerability, and contract independent evaluations to determine if the intervention worked and what
 660 lessons were learned to apply to other communities.

661
 662 It is recommended that National Institute of Health/NIEHS, Centers for Disease Control and
 663 Prevention/ATSDR, EPA, state health departments, tribal nations, and the Indian Health Service consider
 664 implementing this recommendation.

665
 666 ***Recommendation 6. Define gene-environment interactions in chemical and other environmentally***
 667 ***exposed groups.***

668
 669 *Recommended actions:* Develop a Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee to foster national
 670 and international collaborations, and develop a Prospective Cohort Study of Genes and the Environment,
 671 which will allow for the definition of gene-environment interactions in many common diseases. Specific
 672 suggested actions include:

673 A Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee should be formed in the near term to foster national
 674 and international collaborations to integrate existing and newly developed clinical databases, registries,
 675 specimen repositories and other resources to allow for the study of large numbers of people with well
 676 characterized phenotypes, with known exposures to environmental risk factors and known genetic risk
 677 factors, to assess gene-environment interactions for more conditions. This Committee would also make
 678 specific recommendations on adding genetic studies to DNA repositories of subjects in investigations of
 679 environmental risk factors for disease (e.g., the Sister Study³) and add environmental studies to genetic
 680 investigations.⁴ The activities of the Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee would expand on
 681 the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Genes, Environment and Health Initiative (GEI)⁵ to include
 682 studies of international groups, those in military and civilian populations with unusually high toxic
 683 environmental exposures, rare diseases, and studies to understand genetic risk factors for adverse events
 684 to drugs and biologic agents (McKeown-Eyssen et al., 2004).

685
 686 Over the longer term, development of a prospective cohort study of genes and the environment will allow
 687 for the definition of gene-environment interactions in many common diseases (Collins, 2004).

³ See <http://www.sisterstudy.org>.

⁴ For example, see <http://www.genome.gov/gwastudies>.

⁵ See <http://www.genome.gov/19518663>

688

689 *Current status of issue under consideration:* Most common human diseases likely arise from a
 690 combination of genetic and environmental risk factors. The understanding of these interactions is critical
 691 to defining risk and focusing preventative measures at the individual level (Chakravarti & Little, 2003).
 692 The familial nature of many complex diseases suggests an underlying genetic susceptibility. At the same
 693 time, factors outside the genome, such as environmental exposures and epigenetic influences, can also be
 694 important.

695

696 The current scientific view is that virtually all health conditions will reveal evidence of interactions
 697 between genes and the environment (GxE) if studied in adequate detail. However, these data are often not
 698 available for adequate numbers of individuals for most diseases. Evidence of statistical interactions
 699 between genetic and environmental risk factors is often used as evidence for the existence of an
 700 underlying mechanistic interaction. GxE interactions may be additive or multiplicative or they may be
 701 negative (or antagonistic) when protective genes or protective environmental exposures interact (Clayton
 702 & McKeigue, 2001).

703

704 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Define additional GxE interactions that lead to disease, as well as
 705 those that are protective for disease, to enhance understanding of molecular pathogenic mechanisms,
 706 increase the safety of drugs, and prevent illness by reducing environmental exposure in genetically
 707 susceptible individuals when possible, or if not, by developing gene therapies or other treatments which
 708 compensate for genetic inadequacies in xenobiotic metabolism (Breton et al., 2007; Wan & Diaz-
 709 Sanchez, 2007).

710

711 Important products of this initiative would be estimates of the specific risk of developing a number of
 712 diseases by individuals with different genotypes after exposure to a wide range of common environmental
 713 factors. Initially the focus would be on environmental risk factors with high associations with particular
 714 diseases that have known genetic risk factors. When possible, environmental and genetic protective
 715 factors would also be studied along with their interactions to allow for informed exposure decisions by
 716 many individuals with varying genotypes and the development of new therapies.

717

- 718 1. Lists of new GxE associations with diseases or phenotypes would be annually compiled and curated
 719 into an interactive and searchable website.
- 720
- 721 2. Studies would be undertaken that would seek to demonstrate how altering environmental exposures in
 722 genetically susceptible individuals would decrease disease incidence over time.

723

724 The Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee could include U.S. and international
 725 representatives from NIH, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S Food and Drug
 726 Administration, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Department of Defense, clinicians trained in
 727 environmental exposure and genomic interpretation, pharmaceutical companies and academic centers to
 728 coordinate and facilitate the proposed action items, develop needed resources and assess the outcomes of
 729 the initiatives.

730

731 ***Recommendation 7. Improve understanding of individual susceptibility to chemical exposures.***

732

733 *Recommended actions:* Improve the understanding of individual susceptibility and chemical intolerance
 734 through improved data collection and research. Specific recommended actions include:

735

736 In the next year:

- 737 1) Investigate the feasibility of incorporating the validated and published Quick Environmental
 738 Exposure and Sensitivity Inventory (QEESI) instrument into Centers for Disease Control and

- 739 Prevention (CDC)/Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) exposure and
 740 community investigations (Miller & Prihoda, 1999)⁶.
- 741 2) Create a trans-National Institutes of Health (NIH) working group on chemical intolerance,
 742 involving CDC/ATSDR, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), National Institutes of
 743 Health (NIH)/National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS)/National Institute for
 744 Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the public,
 745 and practitioners, as a first step toward establishing an NIH office/department/branch focusing on
 746 environmental medicine.
 - 747 3) Establish an interagency taskforce on Toxicant-Induced Loss of Tolerance (TILT).
 - 748 4) Assemble an Environmental Medical Unit (EMU) planning group that includes physicians
 749 experienced in the practice of “exposure medicine,” as a prelude to implementing an EMU.
 - 750 5) Encourage federal agency support of investigations that include the impact of individual choices
 751 (e.g., consumer product selection, diet, etc.) on personal exposures and individuals’ health.

752
 753 In the medium term (next two to three years), recommended actions include: 1) prepare EMU design and
 754 engineering specifications, operations manual, and clinical research protocols; 2) estimate project costs
 755 for construction, staffing, and operation of EMU including direct research cost estimates per patient/day;
 756 and 3) identify private and public sources of support for sustained EMU operations including funding for
 757 EMU-based research.

758
 759 Longer term actions include the construction and staffing of a prototype EMU, followed by EMU-based
 760 research.

761
 762 *Current status of issue under consideration:* Chemical intolerance is disabling for 2-6% of the U.S.
 763 population and results in major medical costs and loss of productivity (Caress & Steinemann, 2004;
 764 Kreutzer, Neutra & Lashuay, 1999). Approximately 15-30% of Americans report adverse reactions to
 765 particular chemical exposures. Groups of individuals in more than a dozen industrialized nations report
 766 experiencing multisystem symptoms and new-onset intolerances to structurally diverse chemicals
 767 following an identifiable exposure event. However, little is known about prevalence, incidence following
 768 exposure events, and individual risk factors for chemical intolerance.

769
 770 Interdisciplinary research that integrates exposure science and medicine is lacking. There are no
 771 appropriate research facilities in the U.S. for the controlled investigation of physiological responses to
 772 low-level chemical exposures. Known as EMUs, these research facilities have been a priority
 773 recommendation from multiple professional and scientific meetings for more than a decade and are
 774 considered critical to advancing our understanding of individual susceptibility (Ashford & Miller, 1998;
 775 Association of Occupational and Environmental Clinics, 1992; Miller et al., 1997; National Research
 776 Council, 1992). An EMU is an inpatient hospital facility designed to reduce exposures by all routes, in
 777 order to allow patients to achieve a “clean” baseline, or “unmasked state.” Researchers can determine the
 778 extent to which illness improves with avoidance of potential environmental triggers, and conduct double-
 779 blind, placebo-controlled challenges using every day, low-level exposures in the absence of background
 780 chemical “noise.”

781
 782 *Desired outcomes and implementation:*

- 783 • A better understanding of individual susceptibility and how it could improve our understanding of
 784 community susceptibility.

⁶ See <http://www.chemicalexposures.org>

- 785 • A unifying explanation/theory/mechanism of disease, TILT is the distillation of world-wide
 786 observations of exposed groups and individuals who develop intolerances following well-
 787 documented exposures (Ashford & Miller, 1998). TILT provides a framework for basic and
 788 translational research on individual susceptibility which may yield targets for prevention and
 789 treatment. These results, obtained through working with chemically-intolerant individuals,
 790 including priority groups such as veterans suffering from Gulf War Illness, have the potential to
 791 benefit groups with more common conditions such as asthma, autoimmune diseases, and
 792 neuropsychological disturbances that may share the same underlying mechanism.
 793

794 Establish prevalence and incidence of chemical intolerance in exposed and unexposed groups and
 795 individuals and pre- and post-illness by using the QEEESI to assess symptoms and intolerances at baseline
 796 and at serial points following exposures. Identify individual risk factors for susceptibility. Foster
 797 collaboration toward interdisciplinary research, including epidemiological, clinical, and animal studies, on
 798 individual susceptibility among relevant governmental agencies. Plan, create, and sustain vanguard
 799 research facilities based in hospitals and clinics for the systematic investigation of individual differences
 800 in response to chemical and mold exposures.
 801

802 Professional evaluation and tracking of this endeavor is necessary and should follow an accepted
 803 framework, e.g., CDC's Framework for Program Evaluation in Public Health (1999), with emphasis on
 804 stakeholder involvement at every phase.
 805

806 Throughout the process, key stakeholders should be involved in an open dialogue to ensure that research
 807 programs are translational, leading to research projects with clinical relevance. This should include
 808 representatives of affected communities and patient groups, experienced occupational and environmental
 809 medicine and other medical practitioners, academic researchers, and various governmental agencies
 810 including CDC/ATSDR, NIH/NIEHS/NIOSH, EPA, FDA, health insurance companies, and others as
 811 relevant.
 812

813
 814 **C. Recommendations to improve the effectiveness of the scientific methods used by ATSDR and**
 815 **other public health agencies to investigate public health impacts in communities and to increase**
 816 **community involvement in scientific research and decision making**
 817

818 *Recommendation 8. Conduct research to identify the limitations, and evaluate the effectiveness, of the*
 819 *scientific methods used by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) and other*
 820 *public health agencies to investigate the public health impacts of contaminated sites and to respond to*
 821 *community health concerns in order to improve the science and public health relevance of ATSDR's*
 822 *Public Health Assessment (PHA) process, epidemiological studies, disease cluster investigations, and*
 823 *exposure investigations.*
 824

825 *Recommended actions:*

826 Improve the methods used to investigate the public health impacts of contaminated sites by establishing
 827 an independent review panel to identify improved approaches. ATSDR should then adopt these
 828 approaches. Specific recommended actions include:
 829

830 In the near term (within 6 months), an independent panel should be established to review the approaches
 831 used by ATSDR and other public health agencies to investigate the public health impacts of contaminated
 832 sites. The panel should then identify and report on best practices within another 12 to 18 months. As
 833 better procedures are identified they should be pilot tested as soon as possible. The ATSDR PHA manual
 834 should be revised and a new protocol for disease cluster investigations should be developed – this could

835 take an additional 12 months. Finally, ATSDR staff and cooperative partners in state health departments
836 should receive training in methods and mechanisms for community involvement including sensitivity
837 training.

838
839 In the long term, better methods should be adopted by ATSDR as they are identified and tested. ATSDR
840 staff and cooperative partners should also be trained in their utilization. All instances where PHAs, Health
841 Consultations (HCs), Exposure Investigations (EIs), epidemiological studies and disease cluster
842 investigations are used should be described in reports such as Superfund Site 5-year Reviews, with
843 particular attention to sites where new methods are implemented.

844
845 *Current status of issue under consideration:* ATSDR conducts PHAs and HCs at toxic waste sites and in
846 other contamination situations (e.g., Superfund sites, industrial plant emissions, spills, leaking
847 underground storage tanks). The objectives of the PHAs and HCs are (1) to determine whether people
848 have been, and/or are currently, exposed to toxic substances, and (2) to assess the likelihood of current
849 and/or future adverse health effects from these exposures. PHAs and HCs may recommend further work,
850 such as EIs or epidemiological studies, to assess the extent of exposures and adverse health effects. In
851 addition, ATSDR and other public health agencies are often asked to conduct disease cluster
852 investigations because of community concerns about high rates of health problems, such as childhood
853 and/or adult cancers and birth defects. Community groups across the country have criticized the lack of
854 scientific rigor and effectiveness of PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster
855 investigations conducted by ATSDR and other public health agencies, in particular charging that these
856 investigations and studies "...lack the ability to properly attribute illness to toxic exposures, and the
857 methodologies used [by ATSDR] to identify suspected environmental exposures to hazardous chemicals
858 are doomed from the start" (Majority Staff of the Subcommittee on Investigations and Oversight of the
859 Committee on Science and Technology, 2009).

860
861 The major policy issue for PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations is
862 the lack of community involvement at the "ground-floor" of these activities, including the planning,
863 design, problem-formulation, scoping and conduction of the investigation or study. This lack of
864 community involvement severely limits the focus and relevance of these activities. Additional policy
865 issues limiting the focus and relevance of PHAs and HCs include rigid adherence ("one shoe fits all") to
866 the PHA guidance manual, lack of necessary expertise among those carrying out the investigations, lack
867 of a "life-cycle" approach involving revised assessments as new information becomes available, and lack
868 of transparency. Moreover, PHAs, HCs, and EIs usually lack external peer review.

869
870 PHAs and HCs can have numerous methodological limitations among which are reliance on already-
871 collected data that are insufficient to characterize exposures or assess health outcome rates, failure to
872 adequately assess past exposures, inadequate assessment of the toxicological and epidemiological
873 literature, inadequate accounting of cumulative health risks from multiple exposures, inadequate
874 accounting of variability in susceptibility, and over-reliance on a risk number to determine the safety of
875 exposures without taking into account the uncertainties in the risk number. Methodological limitations of
876 EIs include inability to assess past exposures, uncertainties about the sources/pathways of exposures, and
877 uncertainty concerning the level of exposure that may result in adverse health effects. Disease cluster
878 investigations and epidemiological studies are limited by methodological problems such as exposure and
879 disease misclassification biases, selection bias, possible confounding bias, lack of statistical power, lack
880 of specific hypotheses, and sparse background toxicological and epidemiological data.

881
882 Research is needed to identify new methods to address exposure and health concerns of communities as
883 well as improve existing methods for conducting PHAs, HCs, EIs, health studies and cluster
884 investigations. The results of this research will provide the scientific basis for adopting new
885 methodologies and improving existing methodologies for assessing health risks in communities.

886
887 A first step would be to convene an independent panel, funded by ATSDR but not led by ATSDR,
888 consisting of researchers, residents from affected communities, and representatives from environmental
889 and public health non-governmental organizations. The National Institute for Environmental Health
890 Sciences (NIEHS) Partnerships for Environmental Public Health, a new research tool, could be utilized
891 for bringing communities and scientists to work together to solve this longstanding problem.

892
893 This panel would be tasked with examining why existing approaches (PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological
894 studies, disease cluster investigations) may not have worked. The panel would be tasked with identifying
895 and reporting on case studies of effective, “best practices” approaches for assessing exposures and health
896 effects at contaminated sites and conducting epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations.
897 The panel would also be tasked with revising the ATSDR PHA Guidance Manual, developing a new
898 protocol for disease cluster investigations, and developing guidelines for community participation in the
899 planning and conducting of PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations.

900
901 The strengths of this approach are a collaborative process, transparency of government actions, gaining
902 community trust for government actions, and improving the scientific integrity and relevance of results.
903 The weaknesses are the time and infrastructure changes needed to revise approaches used for decades.

904
905 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* ATSDR should adopt the following recommendations for all
906 PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies, and disease cluster investigations: (1) the establishment of an
907 appropriate and effective community participation mechanism that is involved at the “ground-floor” of
908 the design process of these activities; (2) the involvement of several disciplines, in particular expertise in
909 epidemiology, biomonitoring, community organizing/community participation, and historical exposure
910 reconstruction modeling; and (3) the requirement that the activity be flexible and tailored to the specific
911 situation at a site.

912
913 ATSDR should also adopt the following recommendations that are specific to PHAs, HCs, and EIs: (1)
914 the requirement of independent peer review, and (2) that an internal panel be established to review the
915 consistency of risk determinations and health activity recommendations that address priority hazardous
916 substances such as TCE, PCE, benzene and other solvents, persistent organic pollutants, and radiation.
917 ATSDR should also develop guidelines that establish minimal requirements for how much environmental
918 sampling data is sufficient to evaluate public health risks in a community and have the authority to collect
919 environmental samples when appropriate to supplement data already collected by the EPA, the state
920 and/or the principal responsible party.

921
922 Some exemplary PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations should be
923 highlighted and examined as potential role models, and the lessons learned from these investigations and
924 studies should be presented in a report by the proposed independent panel. The lessons learned from
925 model PHAs and HCs should be incorporated into a revised PHA Guidance Manual. An activity’s
926 appropriateness for the specific site situation should be taken into account, i.e., the specific site situation
927 should determine which, if any, “tools” (e.g., EI, health study, cluster investigation, etc.) should be
928 recommended by the PHA.

929
930 Aspirational goals are as follows:

- 931 1) Define best practices for investigating increased health problems in communities and improve how
932 PHAs, cluster investigations and health studies are conducted by ATSDR and other health agencies.
933
934 2) Increase public and Congressional confidence in how ATSDR and other health agencies conduct
935 PHAs, cluster investigations and health studies.
936

937 The expected outcomes and improvements for this recommendation are:

- 938 1) improved relevance and quality of PHAs, HCs, EIs, disease cluster investigations and health
939 studies conducted by ATSDR and other health agencies;
- 940 2) revised guidance manual for PHAs and new protocol for disease cluster investigations;
- 941 3) greater involvement of affected community in determining direction and focus of
942 environmental health investigations conducted by ATSDR and other health agencies;
- 943 4) improved public confidence in ATSDR and other health agencies;
- 944 5) the health of citizens impacted by toxic contamination will be improved and cleanup
945 activities will target the greatest health threats;
- 946 6) communities, health practitioners, health agencies and decision makers will be able to make
947 informed decisions about the best ways to investigate and evaluate health problems in a
948 community; and
- 949 7) community members will have confidence in agencies who come to help them.

950
951 ATSDR and other public health agencies that investigate public health impacts in communities should
952 form a consortium that involves stakeholders including community members to review progress and
953 impacts of the ongoing activities listed above (see “recommended actions”).

954
955 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/ATSDR, state and local health departments, state and tribal
956 health agencies, residents from affected communities, representatives from environmental and health non-
957 governmental organizations, and citizen groups concerned about shortcomings of past health
958 investigations should implement this recommendation.

959
960
961 **D. Recommendations to develop the scientific knowledge needed for decision making to improve**
962 **public health protection**

963
964 ***Recommendation 9. Develop scientific criteria for the application of the precautionary approach, in***
965 ***order to better protect human health and the environment.***

966
967 *Recommended actions:* Advancements in scientific understanding will assist in the successful
968 implementation of the precautionary approach. Priority actions include:

- 969 1) conducting research to establish criteria for using the precautionary approach to chemicals
970 and to support a range of precautionary options,
- 971 2) identifying the scientific evidence incorporated into the precautionary approach,
- 972 3) identifying the most important and useful data to include in alternatives assessments to
973 implement precautionary decisions,
- 974 4) identifying what additional scientific data can be obtained readily that can influence
975 precautionary approach decision making, and
- 976 5) refining the analytical methods for integrating the information collected, comparing
977 alternatives, involving the public, and monitoring the consequences of decisions made.

978
979 In the near term, examples of scientific data sets could be developed to show how a broader spectrum of
980 scientific information can be integrated into a precautionary approach. It also will be important to develop
981 a comprehensive list of what types of additional data can be helpful in understanding the existence of a

982 threat. Over a longer term, comprehensive examples of how a precautionary approach could assist in
983 decision making will be needed.

984
985 Conduct research to establish criteria for applying the precautionary approach to chemicals. Research
986 questions may include: What types of empirical evidence or plausible hypotheses would establish a threat
987 of harm? What scientific information gaps exist and need to be filled to help decision makers apply the
988 precautionary approach? Some examples of threats of harm to be evaluated include chemical persistence
989 or bioaccumulation, endocrine disruption, similar in structure to chemicals with known toxic
990 characteristics, and the presence of very susceptible or vulnerable populations. This research should
991 include early warning signs learned from previous environmental examples as well as best practices in
992 trends, scenario, and lifecycle analysis that would inform the application of the Precautionary principle.
993 Implementing the precautionary approach also has implications for improving current practices and
994 methodologies in epidemiology and toxicology research.

995
996 Conduct research to develop criteria to support a range of precautionary options. Decision makers need to
997 understand the range of options that are available to them under the precautionary approach. These
998 options may include filling information gaps with additional research, reducing exposures, or developing
999 alternative chemicals, processes, or products. These options should be proportional to the levels of
1000 potential risk that chemicals may present, and they should be based on scientific criteria, as discussed
1001 above.

1002
1003 *Current status of issue under consideration:* The precautionary approach is a decision and policy making
1004 tool which employs scientific rigor and encourages a common-sense approach in the absence of full
1005 scientific certainty. The most widely used definition of the precautionary approach comes from the
1006 Wingspread Statement on the Precautionary Principle which states that "When an activity raises threats of
1007 harm to human health or the environment, precautionary measures should be taken even if some cause
1008 and effect relationships are not fully established scientifically" (Wingspread Conference on the
1009 Precautionary Principle, 1998). This approach is increasingly becoming an important component of public
1010 policy decision making worldwide (Martuzzi, 2007), in part because of concerns about the limitations and
1011 uncertainties associated with current risk management (RM) approaches that rely primarily on traditional
1012 quantitative risk assessment (RA) (O'Brien, 2000; Tickner, 2007).

1013
1014 While RA can be effective in evaluating a single chemical exposure, the ability to evaluate an individual's
1015 or community's exposure to a complex mixture of substances, as well as multiple exposures and multiple
1016 exposure pathways is extremely difficult due the lack of complete data and the methods to put all the
1017 information together. The RA-RM approach requires environmental improvements to be made when a
1018 prescribed level of risk is exceeded. This process often places the burden of proof of harm on regulatory
1019 agencies or affected communities.

1020
1021 Under a RA paradigm, a lack of toxicity data is often misunderstood as evidence of safety (Thornton,
1022 2000). In contrast, a precautionary approach can shift the burden of proof such that the proponents of a
1023 product or project need to show that a chemical will not make the existing situation worse and that a new
1024 chemical may actually provide benefits in the context of having considered all reasonable alternatives.
1025 Stated another way, the RA-RM paradigm seeks to define how much risk is acceptable while the
1026 precautionary approach seeks to determine how much exposure can reasonably be avoided. The
1027 precautionary approach also asks the "why" questions – "Why do we need this? Can we do without it?
1028 What is the purpose and are there other, safer (less harmful) and more efficient ways to accomplish the
1029 same purpose? What are the values and preferences of those who will be affected, and how can the
1030 consequences of decisions be monitored?" Because the questions asked are different, some of the
1031 scientific information and analytical methods to support the precautionary approach also differ. Lastly, a

1032 precautionary approach engages the people who are directly affected by a decision in an extensive public
 1033 process.

1034
 1035 The precautionary approach strives to integrate all available scientific and other relevant information into
 1036 an understanding of the threat of harm. The information may be quantitative, qualitative or semi-
 1037 quantitative. Examples of information include animal and *in vitro* studies; epidemiological studies;
 1038 biomonitoring; disease registries; community knowledge; air monitoring data; scientific tools to
 1039 determine chemical similarities, such as structure-activity relationships; physical and chemical properties,
 1040 such as persistence, bioaccumulation, and reactivity; toxic chemical release inventories; physician-
 1041 submitted illness reports, such as pesticide exposures and workers' compensation claims; behavioral
 1042 science or psychiatric studies for non-chemical stressors; harm to non-human species; environmental or
 1043 ecological studies or indicators; land use information; other surveillance data such as noise; comparison
 1044 with historical instances; sensitivity and vulnerability of potentially exposed populations; and non-
 1045 chemical stressors that should be considered in the evaluation. The conclusions drawn in the
 1046 precautionary approach are not merely deductive, but can also be based on inference. (Kriebel et al.,
 1047 2001; Smith, 2000).

1048
 1049 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Successful implementation of a precautionary approach, with
 1050 resulting improvements to public health protection, requires establishment of a strong scientific approach
 1051 to determining when to use this approach and with what data, analytical methods, and criteria. This is
 1052 expected to result in a broader spectrum of scientific data being considered in environmental and public
 1053 health decision making, greater protection of public health and the environment from exposures to toxic
 1054 chemicals, and a public that is an informed partner in decision making.

1055
 1056 Precautionary approaches can become part of the environmental decision making process. As a baseline
 1057 evaluation it will be important to identify what current environmental decisions were based on the
 1058 precautionary approach or a RA-RM approach. Future environmental decisions could be based on a
 1059 precautionary or RA-RM approach. The scientific basis for each decision should be summarized,
 1060 evaluated, and maintained for future reference.

1061
 1062 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Agency for Toxic
 1063 Substances and Disease Registry, National Institute for Environmental Health Sciences, state and local
 1064 health and environmental protection agencies, and representatives from environmental and health non-
 1065 governmental organizations are potential actors that should consider implementing this recommendation.

1066
 1067 ***Recommendation 10. Develop standard, scientific protocols for alternatives assessment to support their***
 1068 ***use to promote the development of safer chemicals and products.***

1069
 1070 *Recommended actions:* Advancements in scientific understanding will assist in conducting sound
 1071 alternatives assessments. Priority actions include:

- 1072 1) Evaluate existing methodologies and framework for conducting alternatives assessment in order to
 1073 identify key elements of alternatives assessment and to determine the best practices
- 1074 2) Ranking chemicals that have been fairly well evaluated on the basis of toxicity, use, and exposure. To
 1075 do so, it would be important to establish an initial list of toxicological properties, uses, and exposures
 1076 of concern and to identify chemicals with those known characteristics. Short-term test methods and
 1077 chemical properties can indicate if chemicals may have the toxicological properties of concern. For
 1078 example, if the chemical is positive in many genotoxicity tests, but has not been tested for
 1079 carcinogenicity, there should be concern that the chemical is carcinogenic. If the chemical has not
 1080 been reported to exhibit that toxicity, indicate if it has been evaluated for it. Use and exposure

1081 information can indicate if vulnerable sub-populations are being exposed or if there are sub-
1082 populations with high exposures

1083 3) Establishing scientific principles for identifying safer substitutes (i.e. how to know that a substitute
1084 would be less toxic), including methods to address the lack of chemical toxicity data

1085 4) Establishing a comprehensive database of chemicals, basic toxicities that are known or suspected, and
1086 safer substitutes. Include consideration of designing out the need for a chemical of concern in a
1087 product, rather than just substituting another chemical

1088
1089 In the near term, a number of methodologies and frameworks for evaluating and identifying safer
1090 chemicals, materials, and products are under development and need refinement and standardization.
1091 Washington State Department of Ecology; California Environmental Protection Agency; U.S.
1092 Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Design for the Environment (DfE); Clean Production Action;
1093 businesses such as HP, Apple and IBM; and other interested parties are working to create updated
1094 alternative assessment methodologies. These efforts should be supported, coordinated, and financed to
1095 develop standardized protocols.

1096
1097 Subsequently, alternatives assessment (AA) needs to be integrated into the characterization of chemicals
1098 used in commerce that are identified as potential hazards. AA for hazardous chemicals should be
1099 conducted in parallel to further toxicological analysis and risk assessments (RAs), rather than only
1100 considered once harm from a chemical has been confirmed. Scientific research is needed to understand
1101 how to choose alternatives with the least likely hazards.

1102
1103 *Current status of issue under consideration:* AA provides a systematic, public analysis of the options for
1104 addressing a potentially damaging human activity or social arrangement (O'Brien, 2000). It is a necessary
1105 element of a precautionary approach to managing the production, use, clean up and disposal of hazardous
1106 and toxic chemicals. AA provides a means to consider attractive, feasible, and safer alternatives,
1107 including no action, or designing around the need for a chemical which helps to overcome the gaps in
1108 scientific knowledge and uncertainties associated with the use of RA to estimate public health and
1109 environmental risks.

1110
1111 Other approaches to environmental decision making such as life cycle analysis, health impact assessment
1112 or AA, can be more effective in addressing chemical risks to human health and the environment. AA
1113 focuses more on solutions than problems, stimulates innovation and prevention and can be more efficient
1114 at reducing multiple risks in the long term (EPA, 2003). The fundamental components of an AA include
1115 the following steps: 1) Presentation of a full range of options, 2) Presentation of potential adverse effects
1116 of each option, and 3) Presentation of the potential beneficial effects of each option (O'Brien, 2000).

1117
1118 The Lowell Center for Sustainable Production found that AA would be more effective in addressing
1119 environmental problems and has developed an Alternatives Assessment Framework that consists of three
1120 core elements: AA foundation, AA processes, and AA evaluation modules. To establish the foundation
1121 for AA, guiding principles such as prevention, precaution, substitution and life cycle perspective, along
1122 with the scientific information and analyses to support them, are needed. The shift to an AA approach will
1123 require the development of scientific methods to identify and assess the effectiveness of strategies to
1124 reduce risk. An improved risk assessment process that follows the recommendations of the National
1125 Research Council's 2009 report *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment* should be an integral
1126 part of this AA process. The current RA-RM paradigm focuses in reducing exposures through controls of
1127 current processes. The AA approach suggests rethinking the current processes.

1128
1129 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Establishment of strong scientific principles and strategies to
1130 implement alternatives analysis, along with bringing new scientific information to bear on environmental

1131 decision making processes, will result in environmental and public health decisions that provide greater
1132 protection of public health and the environment from exposures to toxic chemicals than are provided by
1133 current regulatory approaches.

1134
1135 AA would become an important component of decision making. Improved RA methods could be used
1136 most effectively in a comparative scenario, comparing various alternatives and giving decision makers a
1137 more upstream prevention tool and industry clearer expectations and incentives to produce safer products.
1138 One example of an AA approach is the Lowell Center AA Framework, which is “designed to evaluate and
1139 identify environmentally and socially preferable alternatives. ‘Alternatives’ encompass production
1140 processes, chemicals, materials, products, economic systems (such as transportation systems), and
1141 functions, as well as eliminating the need for a current activity or the function of a product.”⁷ Benefits
1142 include “focusing on solutions rather than problems...stimulating innovation and prevention...and multi-
1143 risk reduction.” [Note: The Green Chemistry Principles⁸ may also be consistent with this
1144 recommendation.]

1145
1146 A website to host AAs would provide an opportunity to share the information and invite input. Milestones
1147 for establishing databases of information for the public and industry on the toxicity of chemicals and safer
1148 substitutes will need to be developed.

1149
1150 The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry; EPA; U.S. Food and Drug Administration;
1151 Consumer Product Safety Commission; Washington State Department of Ecology; California
1152 Environmental Protection Agency; Department of Energy; Clean Product Action; businesses such as HP,
1153 Apple, and IBM; and representatives from environmental and health non-governmental organizations
1154 should all consider implementing this recommendation.

1155
1156 ***Recommendation 11. Improve risk assessment as one of many tools to use in decision making.***

1157
1158 *Recommended actions:* Improve and adapt the procedures for conducting quantitative risk assessment by
1159 implementing the recommendations in the National Research Council’s (NRC) 2009 *Science and*
1160 *Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment* report. Research efforts should focus on ways that improved risk
1161 assessment tools could be compatible with and integrated within an overarching precautionary paradigm
1162 for decision making for regulating toxic substances and protecting public health, as well as for other
1163 decision making paradigms.

1164
1165 The enhancements recommended by the NRC’s *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*
1166 report should be implemented by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and other agencies
1167 responsible for risk assessment. These efforts should be undertaken in the context of an open, multi-
1168 stakeholder dialogue that addresses public and private sector methods for making decisions using
1169 information on risks, including but not limited to how the elements of a precautionary approach can be
1170 taken into account. Guidance documents on risk assessment also should be revised as soon as possible. If
1171 necessary, risk assessment staff should receive training in order to implement the revised methodologies,
1172 including training on how to work effectively and compassionately with exposed communities. NRC
1173 recommendations for more stakeholder involvement, especially the involvement (at the “ground floor”
1174 and throughout the risk assessment process) of members of exposed communities, should be implemented
1175 as soon as possible. Research should also focus on improving existing scientific tools and/or developing
1176 new scientific tools that are necessary to complement the risk assessment tool in addressing the
1177 anticipated enormous quantities of data and testing expected to result from REACH and the anticipated
1178 revision of the Toxic Substances Control Act.

⁷ See <http://www.chemicalspolicy.org/downloads/FinalAltsAssess06.pdf>.

⁸ See <http://www.epa.gov/gcc/pubs/principles.html>.

1179
1180 *Current status of issue under consideration:* A growing number of people from multiple sectors and
1181 perspectives have begun to seek more protection from exposure to toxic chemicals than provided by the
1182 traditional risk assessment approach which has many limitations and uncertainties. Improved risk
1183 assessment can play a role in implementing a precautionary approach as well as in other scientific
1184 methods in decision making. Information collected as part of a quantitative risk assessment can be useful
1185 when considering exposure and adverse health information, however, the context within which it is used
1186 can be improved. Towards this end, it would be useful to improve the uncertainties and limitations of risk
1187 assessment, as proposed by the National Research Council in 2009 in their publication *Science and*
1188 *Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*. The NRC report acknowledged that risk assessment is “at a
1189 crossroads” and that “its credibility is being challenged.” The report made a number of recommendations
1190 that focused on improving the methodology of risk assessments (e.g., thorough evaluation and
1191 communication of uncertainties and variability, unified dose-response approach to cancer and non-cancer
1192 endpoints, broadening the assessment of cumulative and interacting health risks and stressors), and
1193 improving the relevance or utility of risk assessments for decision making (e.g., involving all stakeholders
1194 at the earliest stage of the planning, design and scoping of the risk assessment, and increasing the
1195 transparency of the assessment methods and process).

1196
1197 More broadly, the report recommended two major shifts. First, its authors stated “that risk assessment
1198 should be viewed as a method for evaluating the relative merits of various options for managing risk,”
1199 with the risk management questions being “clearly posed, through careful evaluation of the options
1200 available to manage environmental problems at hand, similar to what is done in ecologic risk
1201 assessment,” casting light on “a wider range of decision options than has traditionally been the case.” This
1202 is consistent with placing risk assessments within the context of alternatives assessment and viewing the
1203 results of risk assessments not as absolute risks, but as risks that can be compared and ranked against each
1204 other. Second, the NRC recommends closely aligning technical analyses with the problem at hand so that
1205 the risk assessment will be relevant to the needs of the decision makers and stakeholders who are
1206 addressing the problem. In other words, a “one size fits all” approach to risk assessment will not be
1207 appropriate for such very different problems as regulating a chemical and deciding on a site remediation
1208 approach.

1209
1210 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Adoption of the recommendations in the NRC report should
1211 improve risk assessment as a tool for the systematization of the relevant scientific knowledge concerning
1212 the hazards, contamination levels and population exposures, dose-response relationships, and cumulative
1213 risks (exposures from multiple pathways, complex mixtures, multiple stressors, and factors affecting
1214 vulnerability), of the environmental problem at hand (e.g., regulation of a chemical or remediation of a
1215 site), as well as the evaluation of a wide range of alternative options (e.g., inherently safer approaches or
1216 technologies). Including this information in an alternatives assessment will enhance the choices available
1217 to decision makers. EPA has stated its commitment to implement the framework presented in the NRC
1218 Report *Toxicity-Pathway-Based Risk Assessment: Preparing for Paradigm Change. A Symposium*
1219 *Summary* (2010).

1220
1221 A monitoring group should be established to track the experiences in communities where improved
1222 quantitative risk assessments are used in the context of a precautionary approach, as well as in the context
1223 of other decision making paradigms. Issues to be tracked should include improvements in community
1224 health, reductions in use of toxic chemicals, and the procedures used in switching to the new approach.

1225
1226 Potential actors include: EPA and other regulatory agencies at the federal, tribal, state, and local levels,
1227 National Institute of Environmental Health Science, National Toxicology Program, representatives of
1228 community and national groups, the regulated community, and the scientific community, especially the
1229 scientists who contributed to the two NRC Reports cited.

1230
1231 ***Recommendation 12: Evaluate short- and long-term effectiveness of containment and institutional***
1232 ***controls at Superfund, Brownfields and Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) sites.***
1233

1234 *Recommended actions:* A research project should assess successes and failures at National Priorities List
1235 (NPL) sites that have containment and institutional controls as their primary remedy. Research studies
1236 should begin as soon as possible by U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and/or Agency for
1237 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) or an independent oversight organization. This research
1238 should document the effectiveness of these measures and determine if health impacts to the communities
1239 have occurred. The studies should document any health problems that can be linked to the failures. The
1240 costs of remediation and repairs should also be reported. At all sites, members of the affected community
1241 should be involved in designing and carrying out the research.
1242

1243 *Current status of issue under consideration:* Communities are often placed at risk when the remedies
1244 selected to protect them from toxic contamination include physical containment such as fences and caps
1245 or institutional controls such as deed restrictions and covenants. Reports done by the U.S. Government
1246 Accountability Office (GAO, 2005b), Resources for the Future (Oversight Hearing on the Superfund
1247 Program, 2006), and the Environmental Law Institute (Pendergrass & Probst, 2005) have documented
1248 that these remedies often fail. An understanding of the consequences of such failures, how public health
1249 may have been affected, and the costs of repair could help inform more effective and permanent
1250 treatments as a remedy.
1251

1252 *Desired outcomes and implementation:*
1253 The aspirational goal is to determine the full cost (i.e. engineering and public health) of remedial actions
1254 at Superfund sites, specifically sites that did not treat or remove waste. The expected outcome of this
1255 recommendation is to document the health impacts in communities which have NPL sites at which waste
1256 has not been treated or removed. If health impacts can be documented, it will strengthen efforts to require
1257 permanent treatment at Superfund sites.
1258

1259 Permanent treatment will be more protective of public health and the environment, as well as more cost
1260 effective in the long run. There is also potential for creating well paying jobs. Such an approach would
1261 have several advantages: (1) contaminants would be removed from the basin environment and the
1262 potential for recontamination eliminated, (2) the net cleanup costs would be reduced by the value of the
1263 recovered minerals, and (3) such an approach would be one of the few options that would satisfy the
1264 preference in CERCLA for remedies that reduce the toxicity of the wastes.
1265

1266 EPA, ATSDR or an independent oversight organization should initiate a team to assess NPL Records of
1267 Decision (ROD) in which remedies included containment and institutional controls and assess the
1268 effectiveness of these remedies. ATSDR could simultaneously initiate assessments in these communities
1269 to determine reported or documented health impacts. This information should be made available to the
1270 public and to others who track the effectiveness of toxic waste clean-ups.
1271

1272 EPA, state governments co-managing Superfund sites, independent government oversight entities such as
1273 the Government Accountability Office, tribal nations, Indian Health Service and state health departments
1274 are potential actors and should implement this recommendation.
1275
1276

1277 **V. Conclusion**

1278

1279 With over 83,000 chemicals in production (EPA, 2010b), we are exposed to myriad chemicals every day.
1280 While it is important to understand the impacts of these chemicals throughout their lifecycles, we still

1281 lack critical information about them. In this report, the Scientific Understanding work group has outlined
1282 its vision for expanding our knowledge about chemicals and calls for improved tools to accomplish this
1283 task.

1284
1285 The Scientific Understanding work group recommends taking action in four areas in order to help fill
1286 critical gaps for decision makers. First, we must achieve a more complete understanding of chemicals and
1287 their health effects. We must also gain a better understanding of individual susceptibility, community
1288 vulnerability, and the impacts of low-dose, multiple, and cumulative chemical exposures. In order to
1289 better respond to communities' needs, we must improve the effectiveness of the scientific methods used
1290 by ATSDR and other public health agencies to investigate the public health impacts in communities, and
1291 we must increase community engagement in scientific research and decision making. Finally, we must
1292 develop the scientific knowledge needed for decision making to improve public health protection.

1293
1294 The Scientific Understanding work group hopes this report contributes to efforts to protect public health,
1295 including those people most vulnerable, from harmful chemical exposures.

1296
1297

DRAFT

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Appendix A
Work group membership⁹

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1500 **Leadership Team**
1501 Kevin Teichman, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, *Chair*
1502 Ed Murray, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, *Senior Liaison*
1503
1504 **Members**
1505 George V. Alexeeff, California Environmental Protection Agency
1506 Cherri Baysinger, Missouri Department of Health and Senior Services
1507 Nancy Beck, Physicians Committee for Responsible Medicine
1508 Frank Bove, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
1509 Mark Buczek, Supresta – retired
1510 Doris Cellarius, community activist
1511 Bob Hamilton, Amway Corporation
1512 Susan Hanson, Shoshone-Bannock Tribe
1513 Gaylia Jean Harry, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
1514 Rebecca Head, Monroe County Health Department (MI)
1515 Wade Hill, Alliance of Nurses for Healthy Environments
1516 Jeffrey A. Jacobs, American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine
1517 Stephen Lester, Center for Health, Environment and Justice
1518 Frederick Miller, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
1519 Claudia S. Miller, University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio
1520 Frank Mirer, Hunter College
1521 Lisa Nagy, The Preventive and Environmental Health Alliance
1522 Richard Niemeier, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
1523 Melissa Perry, Harvard University
1524 Stuart Schmitz, Iowa Department of Public Health
1525 Richard Sedlak, American Cleaning Institute
1526 Margaret Shield, Local Hazardous Waste Management Program in King County (WA)
1527
1528 **Staff**
1529 Gail Bingham, RESOLVE, *Facilitator*
1530 Kim DeFeo, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease
1531 Registry, *Staff*
1532

⁹ This report is a draft document. This list of work group members does not yet reflect endorsement by any individual.

Appendix B
Terms and Definitions

- 1533
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- 1536 **Acceptable Risk-** the potential for suffering disease or injury that will be tolerated by an individual,
- 1537 group, or society in exchange for the benefits of using a substance or process that will cause such disease
- 1538 or injury. Acceptability of risk depends on scientific data, social, economic, and political factors, and on
- 1539 the perceived benefits arising from a chemical or process that creates the risk in question.
- 1540 (<http://www.mondofacto.com/facts/dictionary?acceptable+risk>)
- 1541
- 1542 **Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR)** - the principal non-regulatory federal
- 1543 public health agency responsible for addressing health effects associated with toxic exposures.
- 1544
- 1545 From statement by Howard Frumkin, Director, National Center for Environmental Health/ Agency for
- 1546 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, CDC on Scientific Oversight and Management of the Agency for
- 1547 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry before Committee on Science and Technology Subcommittee on
- 1548 Investigations and Oversight United States House of Representatives, March 12, 2009.
- 1549 <http://www.hhs.gov/asl/testify/2009/03/t20090312a.html>
- 1550
- 1551 **Bioaccumulation-** the accumulation of a substance in a living organism.
- 1552 <http://www2.merriam-webster.com/cgi-bin/mwmednlm?book=Medical&va=bioaccumulation>
- 1553
- 1554 **Biomagnification-** increase in concentration of a pollutant from one link in a food chain to another.
- 1555
- 1556 **Biomonitoring-** the overall pollutant load and hazardous exposure of an organism is quantitatively
- 1557 determined by monitoring the pollutants themselves, their metabolic products and/or conjugates with
- 1558 protein or DNA, in either serum, urine or other body fluids, as well as tissue samples (hair and nails).
- 1559 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2695300/>
- 1560
- 1561 **Community-** a group or social class having common characteristics living together within a larger
- 1562 society.
- 1563
- 1564 **Cumulative Risk-** the combined risks from aggregate exposures to multiple agents or stressors.
- 1565 Framework for Cumulative Risk Assessment (EPA/630/P-02/001F). Risk Assessment Forum. U.S.
- 1566 Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, May 2003
- 1567 oaspub.epa.gov/eims/eimscomm.getfile?p_download_id=36941
- 1568
- 1569 **Cumulative Impacts-** exposures, public health or environmental effects from the combined emissions
- 1570 and discharges in a geographic area, including environmental pollution from all sources, whether single or
- 1571 multi-media, routinely, accidentally, or otherwise released. Impacts will take into account sensitive
- 1572 populations and socio-economic factors, where applicable, and to the extent data are available. (Cal/EPA)
- 1573
- 1574 **Environmental Medical Unit (EMU)-** a hospital suite comprised of environmentally controlled rooms
- 1575 for studying chemical and food intolerances. Insofar as practical, an EMU would provide clean air, water
- 1576 and food, allowing patients to avoid their usual background exposures for several days and return to a
- 1577 “clean baseline.” Removing background chemical “noise” that can obscure or “mask” a person’s
- 1578 responses to individual symptom triggers is necessary for performing double-blind, placebo-controlled
- 1579 challenges. Research subjects would benefit by learning, comprehensively, which exposures they may
- 1580 need to avoid.
- 1581
- 1582

1583 **Exposure Assessment**- an exposure assessment attempts to answer the following questions for a
 1584 particular substance or chemical: a) Who or what is exposed (e.g., people, ecosystems)? b) Does the
 1585 exposure occur through breathing air, drinking water, skin contact or any other routes? c) How much
 1586 exposure occurs? e) How often and for how long does exposure occur?

1587 www.epa.gov/oppt/exposure/pubs/exposurerep.htm

1588
 1589 **Minimal Risk Level (MRL)**- an estimate of the daily human exposure to a hazardous substance that is
 1590 likely to be without appreciable risk of adverse noncancer health effects over a specified duration of
 1591 exposure. These substance specific estimates, which are intended to serve as screening levels, are used by
 1592 ATSDR health assessors and other responders to identify contaminants and potential health effects that
 1593 may be of concern at hazardous waste sites.

1594 <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/mrls/>

1595
 1596 **National Priorities List (NPL)**- The list of national priorities among the known releases or threatened
 1597 releases of hazardous substances, pollutants, or contaminants throughout the United States and its
 1598 territories. The NPL is intended primarily to guide the EPA in determining which sites warrant further
 1599 investigation. Also known as Superfund sites.

1600 <http://www.epa.gov/superfund/sites/npl/>

1601

1602 **Public Health Prevention Hierarchy-**

1603

1604 **Primary Prevention**- the prevention of diseases and conditions before their biological onset.

1605

1606 **Secondary Prevention**- the identification and interdiction of diseases that are present in the
 1607 body, but that have not progressed to the point of causing signs, symptoms, and dysfunction.

1608

1609 **Tertiary Prevention**- the prevention of disease progression and attendant suffering after it is
 1610 clinically obvious and a diagnosis established. www.enotes.com/public-health-encyclopedia

1611

1612 **Paradigm**- A set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitute a way of viewing reality
 1613 for the community that shares them, especially in an intellectual discipline. Since the 1960s, paradigm has
 1614 been used in science to refer to a theoretical framework.

1615 <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/paradigm>

1616

1617 **Persistent organic pollutants (POPs)**- Toxic chemicals that adversely affect human health and the
 1618 environment around the world. Because they can be transported by wind and water, most POPs generated
 1619 in one country can and do affect people and wildlife far from where they are used and released. They
 1620 persist for long periods of time in the environment and can accumulate and pass from one species to the
 1621 next through the food chain.

1622 <http://www.epa.gov/international/toxics/pop.htm#pops>

1623

1624 **Reference Dose/ Reference Concentration (RfD/RfC)**- An estimate (with uncertainty spanning perhaps
 1625 an order of magnitude) of a daily oral exposure/continuous inhalation exposure to the human population
 1626 (including sensitive subgroups) that is likely to be without an appreciable risk of deleterious effects
 1627 during a lifetime. It can be derived from a no-observed-adverse-effect-level (NOAEL), lowest-observed-
 1628 adverse-effects-level (LOAEL), or benchmark dose, with uncertainty factors generally applied to reflect
 1629 limitations of the data used. RfD/RfCs are generally used in EPA's noncancer health assessments.

1630 [Durations include acute, short-term, subchronic, and chronic].

1631 http://www.epa.gov/iris/help_gloss.htm#r

1632

1633 **Risk Assessment**- a scientific analysis that uses information about toxic substances to estimate potential
1634 health risks for people who might be exposed to these substances. The four traditional steps of the risk
1635 assessment process are:

- 1636
1637
- 1638 1. Hazard Identification: The determination of whether a particular
1639 chemical is or is not causally linked to particular health effects.
 - 1640 2. Exposure Assessment: The determination of the extent of human
1641 exposure before or after application of regulatory controls.
 - 1642 3. Dose-Response: The determination of the relation between the
1643 magnitude of exposure and the probability of occurrence of the
1644 health effects in question.
 - 1645 4. Risk Characterization: The description of the nature and often the
1646 magnitude of human risk, including attendant uncertainty.

1647 Risk Assessment in the Federal Government: Managing the Process
1648 <http://books.nap.edu/catalog/366.html>, p.3

1649
1650 **Toxicant-induced Loss of Tolerance (TILT)**- a proposed general mechanism for a class of diseases
1651 involving two stages: (1) *Induction*, the loss of former natural or native tolerance following acute, chronic
1652 or repeated exposures (e.g., pesticides, solvents, combustion products), and (2) subsequent *triggering* of
1653 symptoms by everyday exposures such as fragrances, cleaning chemicals, traffic exhaust, and foods that
1654 did not cause problems for the person previously and do not bother most people. Those affected typically
1655 report adverse responses to low levels of multiple, *structurally unrelated* substances, a feature
1656 distinguishing TILT from usual toxicity or allergy. <http://www.chemicalexposures.org>

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