6. POTENTIAL FOR HUMAN EXPOSURE

6.1 OVERVIEW

Endosulfan has been identified in at least 176 of the 1,699 hazardous waste sites that have been proposed
for inclusion on the EPA National Priorities List (NPL) (HazDat 2007). However, the number of sites
evaluated for en sites, 174 are located within the United States, 1 is located in Guam, and 1 is located in the Virgin Islands(not shown).for inclusion on the EPA National Priorities List (NPL) (HazDat 2007). However, the number of sites (not shown).

is released to the environment Endosulfan (consisting of 7:3 ratio of α -endosulfan to β -endosulfan) is released to the environment
mainly as the result of its use as a restricted-use insecticide. It is not authorized for residential use in the
Un mainly as the result of its use as a restricted-use insecticide. It is not authorized for residential use in the

is the major degradation product from biotic metabolism and is considered to be more persistent than the parent isomers. Neither the α - or β - isomers nor the sulfate are expected to be the dominant transformation pathway. Volatilization from soil, water, plant surfaces, and contributes Mountains (known as "cold-mountain air trapping") has been documented in areas of the Sierra Nevada Mountains
and the Canadian Rockies. Long-range transport of endosulfan to Arctic regions has been documented and residues have been detected in various Arctic environmental media and biota. t, be finalized in 2016.
After its release to the environment, endosulfan undergoes a variety of transformation and transport
processes. In soil, endosulfan sulfate is the major degradation product from biotic metabolism and expected to be mobile in soil. Soil erosion, run-off, spray drift, and atmospheric deposition contribute to releases of endosulfan to aquatic ecosystems. In water, hydrolysis to the less toxic endosulfan diol is endosulfan. Even though monitoring data suggest that most atmospheric endosulfan exists in the vaporto its long range transport. Wet deposition of atmospheric endosulfan to remote, high-elevation regions

β-endosulfan, and endosulfan sulfate have been detected in a variety of food products during market basket
monitoring. Residues are generally higher in fruits and vegetables versus processed foods. As a result,
dietary in agricultural activity. Residues have been detected in a variety of media including surface water, β-endosulfan, and endosulfan sulfate have been detected in a variety of food products during market basket monitoring. Residues are generally higher in fruits and vegetables versus processed foods. As a result, Endosulfan residue concentrations are highest and most prevalent in or nearby regions with intense sediments, air, aquatic vertebrates, and invertebrates, terrestrial organisms, and in humans. α-Endosulfan,

 natal exposure may occur. However, farm workers are expected to have the highest levels of exposures. Estimated risk levels were high for almost all occupation exposure scenarios associated with pesticide The presence of endosulfan residues in placenta, cord blood, and breast milk suggests that pre- and posthandlers. Exposures associated with post-application scenarios (e.g., cutting, weeding) are also expected to be high.

6.2 RELEASES TO THE ENVIRONMENT

 facilities are required to report information to the TRI only if they employ 10 or more full-time 1081, and 1094), 12 (except 1241), 20–39, 4911 (limited to facilities that combust coal and/or oil for the purpose of generating electricity for distribution in commerce), 4931 (limited to facilities that combust facilities that combust coal and/or oil for the purpose of generating electricity for distribution in imports, or processes ≥25,000 pounds of any TRI chemical or otherwise uses >10,000 pounds of a TRI The Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) data should be used with caution because only certain types of facilities are required to report (EPA 2005). This is not an exhaustive list. Manufacturing and processing employees; if their facility is included in Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) Codes 10 (except 1011, coal and/or oil for the purpose of generating electricity for distribution in commerce), 4939 (limited to commerce), 4953 (limited to facilities regulated under RCRA Subtitle C, 42 U.S.C. section 6921 et seq.), 5169, 5171, and 7389 (limited S.C. section 6921 et seq.), 5169, 5171, and 7389 (limited to facilities primarily engaged in solvents recovery services on a contract or fee basis); and if their facility produces, chemical in a calendar year (EPA 2005).

 Endosulfan has been released to the environment mainly as a result of its use as an insecticide. There are list of chemicals for which releases are required to be reported to EPA for the SARA Section 313 Toxic no known natural sources of the compound. Endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate are not contained in the Release Inventory (TRI) (EPA 1997).

6.2.1 Air

There is no information on releases of endosulfan to the atmosphere from manufacturing and processing facilities because these releases are not required to be reported (EPA 2005).

 ground spray, and airblast. The direct release to the atmosphere is commonly a result of spray drift, As a result of its use as an insecticide on fruit trees, vegetables, and other crops, endosulfan is released directly to the atmosphere during application. The compound is applied principally by aerial spray,

 suspension occurring from post-application periods can also be a source of endosulfan in air. Atmospheric endosulfan derived from these sources has the potential to contribute to regional and longwhich immediately contaminates the air surrounding the application area. Volatilization and wind range transport (EPA 2010a).

6.2.2 Water

 There is no information on releases of endosulfan to water from manufacturing and processing facilities because these releases are not required to be reported (EPA 2005).

 erosion. Direct release to water bodies is restricted and application restrictions require a buffer distance of 300 feet from surface waters for aerial application and 100 feet for ground application. In California, the buffer is 300 feet for both types of applications (EPA 2010a). Endosulfan is not expected to leach through soil to groundwater based on its low water solubility and its tendency to absorb to soil (EPA Endosulfan is most commonly released to water by atmospheric deposition, spray drift, runoff, and 2010a; HSDB 2010).

6.2.3 Soil

 There is no information on releases of endosulfan to the soil from manufacturing and processing facilities because these releases are not required to be reported (EPA 2005).

 The main routes of release of endosulfan to soils are direct application to crops and atmospheric deposition from spray drift, volatilized material, or from long-range atmospheric transport (EPA 2010a).

6.3 ENVIRONMENTAL FATE

6.3.1 Transport and Partitioning

 Endosulfan isomers and endosulfan sulfate are found throughout the environment in various media due to its widespread use, physical properties, and relative persistence. Figure 6-2 contains a conceptual model of how endosulfan moves between environmental compartments starting from field application to potential ecological receptors (EPA 2010a). However, transport and partitioning of endosulfans can be complex and depends greatly on environmental conditions (Weber et al. 2010).

 available groundwater monitoring data, which indicate very low rates of detection in extensive Endosulfan did not leach from sandy loam soil following incorporation of 6.7 kg/hectare of the compound (Stewart and Cairns 1974). After sampling periods of 503–828 days, 90% of the residues were found in constructed to test the feasibility of treating pesticide wastes, endosulfan exhibited no movement in loamy Endosulfan is applied directly to soil through application to crops by aerial, hand, groundboom, airblast, rights-of-way, or backpack sprays, or by chemigation (EPA 2002). Measured $K_{\rm oc}$ values (average for four soils) for α- and β-isomers were 10,600 and 13,500 mL/g, respectively, indicating limited mobility in soil (EPA 2010a). Therefore, leaching to groundwater is not expected to be a concern. This is supported by groundwater monitoring programs (USGS 2012b). Model field studies also support this conclusion. the top 0–15 cm of soil, 9% at 15–30 cm, and 1% at 30–45 cm. In model soil evaporation beds sand soil beds up to 54 weeks after the start of the tests (Hodapp and Winterlin 1989). Endosulfan is metabolized in soil to endosulfan sulfate, which is also expected to be immobile based on its estimated Koc of 9,800 (EPA 2010a).

 spray drift or atmospheric deposition, or through soil runoff and erosion (EPA 2002, 2010a). Endosulfan to water is expected to eventually partition to sediments (EPA 2010a; Weber et al. 2010). However, 1997). Volatilization of α-endosulfan accounted for 34.5% of total losses from freshly tilled soil during the β-isomer is less volatile than the α-isomer (Rice et al. 2002). Volatilization from plant surfaces is also wind tunnel, 12% of the initial endosulfan application volatilized from a silty sand soil after 24 hours, as equilibrate in the apparatus, the ratio of the β-isomer to the α -isomer in the gas phase became 8:92 at 20 °C, suggesting a β- to α - conversion (Rice et al. 1997). This conversion would also contribute to total volatilization losses of endosulfans from treated fields. Although it is not applied directly or in the vicinity of water bodies, endosulfan is transported to water via has been regularly detected in surface water samples taken from South Florida canals that drain agricultural areas (Harman-Fetcho et al. 2005; Pfeuffer 2011; Scott et al. 2002). Endosulfan transported estimated log air/water partition coefficients for α- and β-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate ranging from -3.56 to -4.78 indicate that volatilization from water to air is expected to occur, and these chemicals can be considered semi-volatile (EPA 2010a). In a field dissipation study, volatilization was considered to be the dominant route of dissipation for endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate in cotton fields of sub-tropical India. High temperatures and low rainfall were likely influential factors for this behavior (Kathpal et al. another field study, while volatilization losses of β-endosulfan were much less (14.5%), indicating that expected to occur, and may be more significant than from soil surfaces. In air sampling studies done in a compared to 60% from plant surfaces in 24 hours (Rudel 1997). When pure β-endosulfan was allowed to

Note: Endosulfan is expected to absorb strongly to soils and is not likely to leach to groundwater.

Source: EPA 2010a

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 sulfate) were estimated in the agricultural intensive Choptank River watershed of the Chesapeake Bay Because of its semi-volatile nature and relative stability in the atmosphere, endosulfan is susceptible to long-range transport in the environment (Weber et al. 2010). These transport and deposition processes can be localized, regional, or long-range. Atmospheric deposition rates of endosulfans ($α$ -, $β$ -, and region. Total wet deposition (± combined absolute and relative error) for α-endosulfan was estimated at 0.96 \pm 0.1 kg/year. Estimated depositions for β-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate were 2.7 \pm 0.3 and 0.5±0.06 kg/year, respectively. Deposition processes can be regional in nature. For example, probabilistic source contribution function (PSCF) modeling performed by Hafner and Hites (2003) suggests that atmospheric endosulfans in the Great Lakes Region are generated in the lower Michigan peninsula, and New York State, and to a lesser extent Pennsylvania.

 National Park, California. West to east atmospheric movement of these residues from the agricultural San deposition was estimated at 1.11 μ g/m² with 72% of the total deposition occurring during this season. dominance of winter deposition is due to the fact most of the precipitation in this region occurs as snow (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b). Long-range transport to remote regions is evident in the numerous studies the spring (April/May) and again in the fall (October/November). This is different from seasonal trends Regional transport of endosulfans to remote, non-agricultural areas has been documented. Endosulfan residues have been detected in air, snow, rain, lichen, surface water, and sediment samples from Yosemite Joaquin Valley is the likely source. Estimated winter and summer deposition rates of endosulfans (α-, β-, and sulfate) were calculated from data collected during the spring and summer of 2009. Winter Summer deposition was estimated at 0.44 μ g/m² making the total annual deposition 1.55 μ g/m². The that have monitored endosulfan in Arctic environmental media (Hageman et al. 2006a; Hung et al. 2005, 2010; Stern et al. 2005; Weber et al. 2010). Like other organochlorine pesticides in Arctic areas, α-endosulfan has been observed to undergo a "spring maximum event", where air concentration peaks in observed in temperate regions where air concentrations peak in the summer months (Hung et al. 2005).

 phenomenon for endosulfan has been noted in the results of monitoring activities in National Parks in Organochlorine pesticides like endosulfan undergo a phenomenon known as "cold mountain trapping" where cold temperatures (leading to condensation) and high precipitation rates of high-elevation areas in temperate regions cause increased deposition (mostly through snow) (Daly et al. 2005). This western United States (Hageman et al. 2006a), in Yosemite National Park (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b), and in National Parks of western Canada (Daly et al. 2007) (see Section 6.4).

minnow for α - and β -isomers) and 2,755 (in striped mullet for α - and β -isomers and endosulfan sulfate). from 12 to 600 (EPA 2010a; Ernst 1977; Rajendran and Venugopalan 1991; Roberts 1972; Schimmel et BCF values ranging from 115 to 1,262 in Bluegill fish, water flea, green algae, oyster, and macrophytes (DeLorenzo et al. 2002; EPA 2010a; Pennington et al. 2004; and unpublished industry studies). BAF is gills. Weber et al. (2010) summarized BAFs based on monitoring data reported for Arctic aquatic fish 5.65 $x10^5$ (male beluga blubber), $2.21x10^5$ (female ringed seal blubber), $2.41x10^5$ (male and female ringed for cod to beluga, 1.5 for salmon to beluga, and 0.77 for cod to seals. BMF values represent the ratio of since they do not account for metabolism. Bioaccumulation and biomagnification potential of endosulfan in organisms varies, but generally suggests that it has the potential to bioaccumulate in organisms and biomagnify in the food webs. This potential has been extensively investigated in aquatic organisms. EPA's Ecological Fate and Risk Assessment for Endosulfan (2010a) extensively summarized experimental bioconcentration factors (BCFs) and bioaccumulation factors (BAFs) for aquatic organisms available in the scientific literature. BCF values ranged from 17.1 to 11,583 in fish species (Hansen and Cripe 1991; Jonsson and Toledo 1993; Schimmel et al. 1977; Toledo and Jonsson 1992; Rajendran and Venugopalan 1991). However, values from Hansen and Cripe (1991) and Schimmel et al. (1977) that met quality screening criteria were 1,146 (in sheepshead Experimental BCF values in aquatic invertebrates (shrimp, mussel, oyster, clam, and crayfish) ranged al. 1977). Mesocosm and microcosm bioaccumulation studies reported BAF values similar in range to similar to BCF except that BAF takes into account multiple routes of exposure and not just intake from and mammals. Wet weight BAF values (for α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) were 1,690 (Arctic char), 7,280 (salmon), and 3,260 (Arctic cod). Lipid weight BAFs (for α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) were $1.45x10^5$ (whole salmon), $3.13x10^5$ (whole Arctic cod), $6.76x10^5$ (female beluga blubber), seal blubber), and $2.98x10^4 - 3.52x10^4$ (Arctic char muscle). Biomagnification factors (BMFs) were 2.2 the level of chemical in the predictor versus the concentration in its diet and BMF values greater than 1 indicate a potential to biomagnify up the food web. However, these BMF values may be overestimated

ranging from 1.75 to 12 may biomagnify given that they are not rapidly metabolized (half-life ~2.5 days). Estimated log K_{oa} values are 6.41 for both isomers and 8.45 for endosulfan sulfate. A measured log K_{oa} Assessing the bioconcentration and biomagnification potential in terrestrial organisms is difficult. Kelly et al. (2007) estimated BMFs for air-breathing organisms ranging from 4.9 to 23 for β-endosulfan. However, this model did account for metabolism. Armitage and Gobas (2007) suggest that application of soil-earthworm-shrew food-chain model illustrates that chemicals with $\log K_{oa} \geq 5.25$ and $\log K_{ow}$ values value for both isomers is reported at 8.64 (EPA 2010a). Analyses of two cases of intentional endosulfan poisoning reported terminal half-lives in blood serum of 15.2 hours (from 35% endosulfan formulation)

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 adipose tissue, placenta, cord blood, and breast milk of women at nanoscale concentrations. It is unclear the role of continuous, low-dose exposures and metabolism play in these concentrations (Cerrillo et al. and 8.8 hours (endosulfan content unknown) (Eyer et al. 2004). These half-lives suggest that metabolism of endosulfan may significantly attenuate biomagnification in the terrestrial food chain, based on the Armitage and Gobas model. Although there is a lack of comprehensive, standard biological monitoring data in humans, a variety of endosulfan metabolites (-sulfate, -ether, -lactone, -diol) have been detected in 2005). At the very least, these data indicate that human metabolism of endosulfan occurs and may be complex.

6.3.2 Transformation and Degradation

6.3.2.1 Air

 The α- and β-isomers of endosulfan are considered to be stable to direct photolysis in the atmosphere has been observed under laboratory conditions using polar solvents and various surface media, but these results are not likely to be relevant in atmospheric conditions. The α-isomer undergoes isomerization to Observations from field studies suggest photolysis may play a role in endosulfan sulfate disappearance. A half-life of about 4 days was estimated for reaction with hydroxyl radicals (EPA 2011). because they do not absorb light at wavelengths >300 nm (EPA 2010a). Photolysis of endosulfan isomers the β-isomer, which is relatively more stable (Dureja and Mukerjee 1982). Both isomers undergo oxidation to endosulfan sulfate via several processes in the environment. Vapor-phase α- and β-endosulfan are expected to be photooxidized by hydroxyl radicals in the atmosphere. The half-life for this reaction has been estimated at about 2 days, assuming a hydroxyl radical concentration of 5x10⁵ molecules per cm³ and 12-hour days for both isomers. Reaction of α- and β-endosulfan isomers with atmospheric ozone has been estimated to have a half-life of about 320 days, assuming an ozone concentration of $7x10^{11}$ molecules per cm³. Direct photolysis data for endosulfan sulfate are conflicting.

6.3.2.2 Water

 Endosulfan undergoes hydrolysis to endosulfan diol in surface water and groundwater. The rate of hydrolysis is influenced by pH, and the values reported in the literature vary somewhat. Under aerobic conditions, both hydrolysis and oxidation of endosulfan can occur, while under anaerobic conditions, only hydrolysis can occur. The hydrolytic half-lives for α- and β-endosulfan under anaerobic conditions at pH 7 were 35.4 and 37.5 days, respectively. At pH 5.5, the half-lives were 151 and 187 days, respectively. In the presence of ferric hydroxide, hydrolysis rates increased at pH 7 and 20 °C (Greve and

 degradation (hydrolysis and oxidation) of both α- and β-endosulfan were 23 and 25 days, respectively. At pH 5, the half-lives were 54 and 51 days, respectively. At 20 °C and pHs of 5.5 and 8.0, the half-lives of α-endosulfan in distilled water were 11.3 and 5.3 days, respectively (Kaur et al. 1998). The hydrolysis half-life of α- and β-endosulfan at pH 5 was >200 days, while the half-life at pH 7 was 11 days for α-endosulfan, 19 days for β-endosulfan, and 184 days for endosulfan sulfate. The major degradation Wit 1971). Under aerobic conditions, the half-lives decreased. At pH 7, the half-lives of the chemical product was endosulfan diol, which is considered to be less toxic than the parent compounds or endosulfan sulfate (EPA 2010a).

 EPA by a registrant. The Ohlau system consisted of water at pH 6.8 and sand sediment at pH 6.1 (0.1% organic carbon) and conducted for 120 days at 20ºC. Despite deficiencies concerning test substance transformation of the endosulfan isomers to the endosulfan diol, presumably by hydrolysis (half-lives ranging from 11 to 16 days). Within a month, the endosulfan parents degraded to about 10% of the nominal amount and the diol reached its maximum formation of 35%. Subsequently, the formation of Endosulfan degradation in a water-sediment system was analyzed in a European study submitted to the purity and stated redox potential, results were considered acceptable in characterizing endosulfan in an aquatic system featuring an aerobic water column and anaerobic sediment. Data indicated relatively rapid degradates is dominated by the hydroxyl carboxylic acid (44% after 120 days) and endosulfan sulfate (25% after 120 days). Endosulfan sulfate was presumed to be formed by oxidation in the anaerobic sediment, and did not appear to decline after 50 days (EPA 2010a).

Cotham and Bidleman (1989). In biotic tests, half-lives for α - and β-endosulfan in seawater-only microcosms (pH≥8) were about 5 and 2 days, respectively. In seawater-only microcosms under sterile conditions at a pH of \geq 8, the half-life for α -endosulfan was 2–3 days, whereas the half-life for β-endosulfan was 1–2 days. Half-lives were longer in seawater/sediment microcosms, possibly because of the lower pHs (7.3–7.7) in these test systems; half-lives were 22 and 8.3 days for α- and β-endosulfan, Biotic and abiotic transformations of endosulfan in seawater/sediment microcosms have been reported by respectively. Endosulfan diol was the main metabolite identified.

6.3.2.3 Sediment and Soil

 Biodegradation of endosulfan isomers to endosulfan sulfate is expected to be the dominant fate pathway microorganisms in numerous studies. Sixteen of 28 species of fungi, 15 of 49 species of soil bacteria, and in soils (EPA 2010a). Endosulfan has been shown to be biodegraded by a wide variety of soil

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 3 of 10 species of actinomycetes metabolized radiolabeled endosulfan in a laboratory study under aerobic conditions (Martens 1976). Endosulfan sulfate was the major product of the fungal metabolism, whereas the bacterial transformation produced endosulfan diol. Degradation of endosulfan by soil fungi and hydroxyether (2–4%). In aqueous nutrient media (20 °C) containing a mixed culture of microorganisms lives of about 1.1 and 2.2 weeks for α- and β-endosulfan, respectively (Miles and Moy 1979). The predominant formation of endosulfan diol in aquatic systems may indicate hydrolytic degradation rather bacteria has also been reported (El Beit et al. 1981). Biotransformation occurs under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Aerobic incubation of soil with endosulfan yielded mainly endosulfan sulfate (30– 60%), some endosulfan diol (2.6%), and endosulfan lactone (1.2%) (Martens 1977). Flooded (anaerobic) incubation produced mainly endosulfan diol (2–18%), endosulfan sulfate (3–8%), and endosulfan isolated from a sandy loam soil, endosulfan was reported to be transformed to endosulfan diol with halfthan biodegradation.

 4 times slower than in culture media; only 50% of the material (initially at 50 ppm) was degraded in A two-membered bacterial coculture was found to aerobically degrade α- and β-endosulfan efficiently without accumulating any of its metabolites. However, the degradation of soil-bound endosulfan was 4 weeks (Awasthi et al. 1997). In an aerobic soil metabolism study using five different soils, half-lives of α-endosulfan ranged from 35 to 67 days and half-lives of β-endosulfan ranged from 104 to 265 days with endosulfan sulfate as the major metabolite. Endosulfan sulfate showed no clear signs of degradation. In a two-phase, two-soil anaerobic study, α-endosulfan anaerobic half-lives were 105 and 124 days and β-endosulfan half-lives were 136 and 161 days (EPA 2010a).

 of 6.7 kg/hectare of the pesticide into sandy loam soil (Stewart and Cairns 1974). The half-lives for α- and β-endosulfan were reported to be 60 and 800 days, respectively. In a field study conducted from to 14 and 28 days in two different soil plots, while β-endosulfan could be detected up to 70 and 238 days. The overall half-life for endosulfan degradation ranged from 39.5 to 42.1 days. Endosulfan residues dissipated to an extent of 92–97% in the first 4-week period of application and by about 99% in 238 days. soil when incubated at 30 °C at field capacity moisture level (Kathpal et al. 1997). In field dissipation A field study report stated that endosulfan was transformed to endosulfan sulfate following incorporation 1989 to 1990 in northern India, dissipation (which can include multiple fate pathways) of endosulfan in sandy loam soil was examined (Kathpal et al. 1997). It was found that α-endosulfan could be detected up A residue half-life of 15 days for endosulfan (unspecified isomer) has been reported in Australian black studies submitted to EPA, the half-life of α -endosulfan (encompassing transport and degradation in the soil surface layer) was 46 days in a Georgia tomato field, 70 days in a California cotton field and 6–

 11 days in a separate California cotton field. The half-life for β-endosulfan was 90 days in a Georgia tomato field, and 103 and 19–63 days in the respective California cotton fields. Endosulfan sulfate was the dominant degradation product (EPA 2010a).

6.3.2.4 Other Media

 and in soils. Initial residues of endosulfan on treated vegetables generally range from 1 to 100 mg/kg. However, residue levels typically decrease to <20% of initial levels within 1 week after treatment (NRCC 1975). Residues of endosulfan isomers are generally negligible after 2–3 weeks; the α-isomer is much less persistent than the β-isomer. In most plant residue studies, endosulfan sulfate residue levels tend to and Dolinger 1982). Numerous studies have demonstrated that endosulfan is oxidized to endosulfan sulfate on plant surfaces increase relative to the parent isomers, and other metabolites and appear to be very persistent (Coleman

α-Endosulfan and β-endosulfan, at concentrations of 1,200–1,400 and 650 µg/kg, respectively, were found to have a half-life of 18.43 days under optimum conditions of temperature, moisture, PH, and enhanced microbial activity during vegetable waste composting using a full-scale continuous rotary drum composter (Ali et al. 2014).

6.4 LEVELS MONITORED OR ESTIMATED IN THE ENVIRONMENT

 Reliable evaluation of the potential for human exposure to endosulfan depends in part on the reliability of endosulfan in unpolluted atmospheres and in pristine surface waters are often so low as to be near the limits of current analytical methods. In reviewing data on endosulfan levels monitored or estimated in the equivalent to the amount that is bioavailable. The analytical methods available for monitoring endosulfan supporting analytical data from environmental samples and biological specimens. Concentrations of environment, it should also be noted that the amount of chemical identified analytically is not necessarily in a variety of environmental media are detailed in Chapter 7.

6.4.1 Air

Endosulfan has been included in air monitoring programs and in many air monitoring studies conducted within the last 10 years. Results from these studies establish endosulfan as an air contaminant not only in agricultural areas, but in rural, mountainous, and Arctic regions.

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 Many studies have established α-endosulfan as one of the most prevalent organochlorine pesticides in the Arctic region (Weber et al. 2010). Results from the Arctic Monitoring and Assessment Program (AMAP) between 1993 and 2006, indicate endosulfan undergoes long-range atmospheric transport. Sampling 2005 averaged 4.8 pg/m³. Similar average concentrations were reported at the Russian Arctic stations. several Arctic sampling stations, where air concentration peaks in the spring (April/May) and again in the concentrations peak in the summer months (Hung et al. 2005). analyses of pesticide concentrations sampled from various sites in the Arctic region at various times stations were located in Canada, Finland, Iceland, Svalbard/Norway, Russia, United States, and Greenland. Endosulfan was measured in Alert, Canada at average air concentrations ranging from 3.3 pg/m3 in 1993 to 6.5 pg/m3 in 2003. Concentrations sampled at Nuuk, Greenland between 2004 and The Yukon region in the Canadian Arctic reported the highest average concentrations of endosulfan at 8.3 pg/m3 at Tagish in 1994 and Little Fox Lake in 2002–2003 (Hung et al. 2010). Like other organochlorine pesticides, α-endosulfan has been observed to undergo a "spring maximum event" at fall (October/November). This is different from seasonal trends observed in temperate regions where air

 detectable at 30 stations, respectively. The highest concentrations were detected in areas of agriculture. Shen et al. (2005) mapped air concentrations of α - and β-endosulfan collected from XAD passive air samplers from 2000 to 2001 located across North America, with 31 stations located in Canada, five in the United States, and four in Central America. α-Endosulfan was detected at higher concentrations than β-endosulfan, ranging from 3.1 to 685 pg/m³, detectable at 39 stations, compared to 0.03–119 pg/m³,

 Alberta. All three areas lay west of land used for agriculture, but the land in the immediate vicinity of the Endosulfans were detected in outdoor air sampled from three mountainous national park locations in Canada. Passive air samples were taken from sites within Mount Revelstoke National Park in British Columbia, Yoho National Park in British Columbia, and Observation Peak in Banff National Park, sampling sites had limited to no agricultural use (Daly et al. 2007).

 In 2001, ground level and mid-troposphere (~4,400 m) air samples were collected from the Fraser Valley, British Columbia and analyzed for endosulfan (α- and β-isomers). Ground level samples were taken from rural and urban areas, and mid-troposphere samples were obtained during flight times in aircraft.

 of endosulfan products. Concentrations in urban areas were less variable and ranged from ~4 to Concentrations of the two isomers in rural areas ranged from \sim 18 to \sim 82 pg/m³, with the exception of a period where concentrations exceeded 250 pg/m3 for several days. This was attributed to high local use

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 \sim 62 pg/m³. Endosulfans were consistently below the detection limits in the high altitude samples, and authors suggested that the low detection may be attributed to the low temperatures $(0 \degree C)$ in the troposphere, which would result in partitioning to particulate matter (Harner et al. 2005). therefore, possible trans-pacific movement of atmospheric endosulfans could not be discussed. The

 Atmospheric Passive Sampling (GAPS) network, which included polar sites (n=4), background sites pg/m³, the geometric mean was 58 pg/m³. The α -isomer was the most abundant in the samples, accounting for ~90% of total endosulfans. Results for β-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate were often below the detection limit. Concentrations were highest in tropical regions where regional applications and greater soil to air exchanges due to temperature may have occurred (Pozo et al. 2006). Total endosulfans ($α$ -, $β$ -, and sulfate) were detected in passive air samplers located within the Global $(n=16)$, urban sites $(n=6)$, and rural/agricultural sites $(n=12)$ located worldwide. Sampling took place between December 2004 and March 2005. Endosulfan concentrations were highest compared to other organochlorine pesticides tested. Concentrations were highly variable, ranging from tens to hundreds of

 was identified. With the exception of Alabama, these results correlated well with known regional use patterns. Modeling results did not indicate any potential sources west of the sampling sites. Concentrations of endosulfans (α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) in air were measured by Hoh and Hites (2004) at four sampling sites located in four states in order to model potential sources. Samples were collected from Sleeping Bear Dunes National Lake Shore in Michigan, Bloomington, Indiana, Rohwer, Arkansas, and Cococrie, Louisiana between 2002 and 2003. Concentrations ranged from 0.56 to 1,200 (mean of 142), from 2.7 to 2,000 (mean of 260), from 4.7 to 390 (mean of 100), and from 3.6 to 480 (mean of 100) pg/m3 for Michigan, Indiana, Arkansas, and Louisiana, respectively. Both Michigan and Indiana sites experienced spikes in endosulfan concentrations during July and August, presumably from local application. Applying the Potential Source Contribution Function (PCSF) model to the results, a large potential source region of endosulfan running from Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Florida

Sun et al. (2006) measured gas phase and particulate phase α - and β -endosulfan in air from seven phase concentrations are included in Table 6-2. Calculated half-lives for gas phase α-endosulfan at these sampling sites in the Great Lakes region between 1996 and 2003. Samples were taken from sites within the Integrated Atmospheric Deposition Network (IADN), with five of the seven sites located in rural areas. Mean gas phase concentrations from these sites are included in Table 6-1 and mean particulate

Table 6-1. Average Concentrations of Gas-Phase α- and β-Endosulfan in Air from the Great Lakes Region

Source: Sun et al. 2006

Table 6-2. Average Concentrations of α- and β-Endosulfan Particulates in Air from the Great Lakes Region

Source: Sun et al. 2006

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 locations ranged from 8.2 to 19 years for four of seven sites (results were not statistically significant for sites (data were not available for the other sites). These half-lives are based on a regression of the temporal trends of the endosulfan levels at these locations and are not to be confused with the estimated during summer months, and were likely due to agricultural use. Results indicated that endosulfan other sites). Particulate phase α -endosulfan half-lives ranged from 3.4 to 8.1 years for five of the seven sites (data were not available for the other sites). Calculated half-lives for gas phase β-endosulfan ranged from 3.2 to 9.7 years and particulate phase half-lives ranged from 3.0 to 8.0 years for five of the seven atmospheric photooxidation half-lives of α- and β-endosulfan. High outlier concentrations were observed concentrations (both isomers) increased from the western Great Lakes Region to the eastern region, possibly due to regional use patterns. Particulate α -endosulfan concentrations declined compared to concentrations recorded in previous years. It was not clear whether usage patterns in the region contributed to this declining trend.

 (n=52) as a part of the Arizona Border Study (NHEXAS-AZ), which collected samples from sites in the Yuma, Nogales/Naco, and Douglas areas. These three testing sites had varied geographies and land use. The Yuma area is highly agricultural with a history of pesticide use. The Douglas area is mountainous with a history of mining and smelting. The Nogales/Naco area is a border town with industrial activity prevalent across the border in Mexico. α-Endosulfan averaged 190 ng per 4 standard semipermeable but a significantly lower detection rate of 5% (Gale et al. 2009). α-Endosulfan, β-endosulfan, and endosulfan sulfate were detected in residential indoor air sampled membrane devices (SMPDs), with a range of 10–1,600 ng per 4 SMPD and an 85% detection rate. β-Endosulfan averaged 87 ng per 4 SMPDs, with a range of 3.7–490 ng per 4 SMPD and an 89% detection rate. Endosulfan sulfate averaged 48 ng per 4 SMPDs, with a range of 19–100 ng per 4 SMPD,

6.4.2 Water

Endosulfan is monitored extensively in surface water and groundwater through various state, regional, and national programs. Studies analyzing rainwater, snow, and runoff from across the United States have also been published.

 quality data from 51 basins nationwide. These basins include approximately 7,300 surface water sites and The USGS National Water Quality Assessment (NAWQA) program began in 1991 and obtains water 9,800 groundwater wells. Consistent with evidence that endosulfan will adsorb to soil, the available NAWQA groundwater samples obtained between 2002 and 2011 revealed an extremely low detection rate (0.12%) for α-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate and no detection of β-endosulfan. Only 10 samples

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 collected during this period reported measured or estimated concentrations at levels above detection limits detection limits are summarized in Table 6-4. It is important to note that endosulfan is expected to hydrolyze in aquatic environments to endosulfan diol, which is not analyzed in these samples. (see Table 6-3). A similarly low rate of detection in surface water and bed sediment was observed for samples obtained between 2006 and 2011. Results from samples containing concentrations above

hydrolyze in aquatic environments to endosulfan diol, which is not analyzed in these samples.
In 2010, EPA published an ecological fate and risk assessment report that summarized the extensive water monitoring data available from NAWQA, EPA's STORET database, California's Department of Pesticide Regulation (CDPR) Surface Water Protection Program Database, and the South Florida Water Management District (SFWMD) DBHydro database, among others. Combining the data from these sources, EPA illustrated regional and national trends of endosulfan presence in U.S. waters over the period of almost 20 years (EPA 2010a).

 concentrations in the extensive canals that drain urban and agricultural areas. These canals are managed In south Florida, endosulfan levels in agricultural runoff were analyzed by sampling surface water by the SFWMD. Samples were collected between 1993 and 1997. Average endosulfan concentrations ranged from 9 to 99 ng/L during this period. Using more sensitive analytical methods for samples obtained between 1996 and 1997, endosulfans were detected at a rate of 100% with a peak concentration of 477 ng/L (Scott et al. 2002).

 basins for this period are summarized in Table 6-5. Endosulfans were detected in sediment samples taken three endosulfans in this basin, with an average of 16 µg/kg (25 detections), and a maximum Dade County agricultural area, but the frequency and magnitude of endosulfan detections have decreased Further analysis of the SFWMD data from 1992 through 2007 by Pfeuffer (2011) revealed several trends concerning endosulfan concentrations in south Florida canals. Surface water concentrations in selected from South Miami-Dade County (n=142). Endosulfan sulfate had the highest concentration among the concentration of 120 μg/kg. α-Endosulfan had an average concentration of 6 μg/kg (17 detections) and a maximum of 30 µg/kg. β-Endosulfan had an average concentration of 5 µg/kg (24 detections) and a maximum of $24 \mu g/kg$. Endosulfan has been identified as a chemical of concern in the South Miamisince the 1994–1995 growing seasons.

 March 2004. These sites were located near ecologically sensitive areas of Everglades National Park and Endosulfans (α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) were detected in water sampled from 13 sites located in the Biscayne Bay canals of southern Florida $(n = 88)$ obtained between November 2002 and

2002 and 2011a,bTable 6-3. α -Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Groundwater ility Assessment Between
. **Table 6-3. α-Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Groundwater
Sampled for the USGS National Water Quality Assessment Between**

aData represent only samples with concentrations above the detection limits tested during this 10-year period. The rate of detection for α-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate between 2002 and 2011 was extremely low (0.12%); the rate of detection for β-endosulfan was 0%.
^bMeasured from filtered water

cEstimated

 $NA = not available$; $RC = residual/commercial$

Source: USGS 2012b

Table 6-4. a-Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Surface Water and iter Quality Assessment **Between 2006 and 2011a,b**Table 6-4. α-Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Surface Water and
Bed Sediment Sampled for the USGS National Water Quality Assessment

Table 6-4. α -Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Surface Water and iter Quality Assessment Table 6-4. α-Endosulfan and Endosulfan Sulfate Detected in Surface Water and
Bed Sediment Sampled for the USGS National Water Quality Assessment **Between 2006 and 2011a,b**

rate of detection for β-endosulfan was 0%. aData represent only samples with concentrations above the detection limits tested during this 5-year period. The rate of detection for α-endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate between 2006 and 2011 was extremely low (0.55%); the

rate of detection for β-endosulfan was 0%.
^bMeasured from filtered water unless otherwise noted.

cEstimated

^dEstimated in bottom sediments (µg/kg)
Source: USGS 2012c

sured from the **Table 6-5. Endosulfan Concentrations (µg/L) in Surface Water Measured from the South Florida Water Management District (SFWMD)a**

aSamples collected between April 1992 and December 2007.

Source: Pfeuffer 2011

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 concentrations were highest towards the end of the growing season (Harman-Fetcho et al. 2005). Biscayne National Park. Many of the canals in these areas drain agricultural or mixed agricultural and urban areas. Concentrations of α-endosulfan ranged from 0.21 to 54 ng/L with an 81% detection rate. β-Endosulfan concentrations ranged from 0.20 to 16 ng/L with a 75% rate of detection. Endosulfan sulfate concentrations ranged from 0.22 to 28 ng/L with a 91% rate of detection. Endosulfan

 Potomac River basin in 2007 and tested for chemical pollutants. β-Endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate A combination of discrete water and passive water samples were collected from six stream sites in the were detected in 20 and 40% of passive water samples collected, respectively. No α- and β-endosulfan or endosulfan sulfate was detected in discrete water samples (Kolpin et al. 2013).

 Delmarva Peninsula of the Chesapeake Bay. This watershed is located in an agricultural area and is vulnerable to pesticide runoff and atmospheric deposition. Samples were collected from 8 stations in only detected in rain from June to early August. Total wet deposition rates were estimated as 0.96±0.1 kg/year for α-endosulfan, 2.7±0.3 kg/year for β-endosulfan, and 0.5±0.06 kg/year for endosulfan sulfate. The authors noted that these estimates are probably low compared to actual rates in areas of high Levels of endosulfans were measured in rain water and air from the Choptank River watershed on the 2000. In rainwater, α-endosulfan had a 13% rate of detection (n=71), an average concentration of 5.1 ng/L, and a range of 1.3–31 ng/L. β-Endosulfan had a rate of detection of 28%, an average concentration of 7.2 ng/L, and a range of 0.27–81 ng/L. Endosulfan sulfate had a rate of detection of 8.5%, an average concentration of 4.1 ng/L, and a range of 0.98–14 ng/L. Endosulfans were generally pesticide usage (Kuang et al. 2003).

 spring and summer of 2008 and 2009 and were analyzed for endosulfan. α-Endosulfan and β-endosulfan Endosulfan sulfate was detected in 85% of the samples with concentrations ranging from 0.06 to 1.5 ng/L. Snow and rain samples collected from 12 sites within Yosemite National Park, California during the were detected in 100% of the snow samples with concentrations ranging from 0.15 to 2.1 ng/L.

 They were also among the most frequently detected current-use pesticides in the rainwater samples. Examination of the 2009 rain samples revealed a strong positive correlation between increasing Examination of the 2009 rain samples revealed a strong positive correlation between increasing Joaquin Valley during the same time. Winter and summer deposition rates were estimated for endosulfans (α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) and are included in Section 6.3.1, Transport and concentrations of endosulfans during the summer months and increasing applications rates in the San Partitioning. α-Endosulfan was the only pesticide present above the method quantitation limit in the

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 surface water samples. The authors concluded that estimated water concentrations were sub-parts per trillion and orders of magnitude lower than aquatic benchmarks. Concentrations may be higher during the snowmelt periods of April and May (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b).

 part of a research project initiated by the U.S. National Parks Service (NPS). Snow pack samples were These parks include Sequoia, Rocky, Rainier, Glacier, Denali, Noatak, and Gates of the Arctic. (2010) estimated the percent concentration due to regional transport for total endosulfans as Endosulfan levels in western National Parks were also analyzed by Hageman et al. (2006a, 2006b) as a collected from alpine, sub-Arctic, and Arctic ecosystems from seven National Parks in the spring of 2003. Concentrations of total endosulfans ranged from <0.0040–1.5 ng/L. Calculated deposition rates ranged from $\langle 0.19-1,400 \text{ ng/m}^2$. In a follow-up study using data collected from 2003 to 2005, Hageman et al. approximately >90%.

6.4.3 Sediment and Soil

 Program. The National Sediment Quality Survey (NSQS) includes sediment monitoring data from Endosulfans are monitored extensively through national programs such as the USGS NAWQA and National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration's (NOAA) National Status and Trends (NS&T) January 1990 to December 1998. Data from this source has been summarized in EPA's ecological fate and risk assessment report for endosulfan, which was published in 2010. Sediment concentrations of endosulfan reported by NAWQA between 2006 and 2011 showed only one sample above the detection limit in Kewaunee, Wisconsin (see Table 6-5).

 The NOAA NS&T Program reported a similarly low rate of detection (5.3%) in sediment samples obtained between 2005 and 2009 (NOAA 2012). Approximately 77 samples reported endosulfan (α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) above detection limits. These concentrations ranged from 0.08 to 12.59 ng/g dry weight. Details are provided in Table 6-6.

 endosulfan form detected. Total endosulfan concentrations ranged from 1.0 to 5.7 ng/g dry weight. Lake sediment samples were collected from 19 lakes within Yosemite National Park, California during the summer of 2008 and 2009 and analyzed for endosulfan. Endosulfan sulfate was the most dominant Concentrations in lichen, lake sediments, and surface water (using SPMDs) displayed a positive correlation between increasing concentrations with rising elevation (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b).

Table 6-6. Sediment Concentrations (ng/g Dry) Obtained by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Status and Trends (NS&T) Program Between 2005 and 2009a

Table 6-6. Sediment Concentrations (ng/g Dry) Obtained by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Status and Trends (NS&T) Program Between 2005 and 2009a

Table 6-6. Sediment Concentrations (ng/g Dry) Obtained by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Status and Trends (NS&T) Program Between 2005 and 2009a

 detection for total endosulfans was 5.3%. aData represent only samples with concentrations above detection limits tested during this period. The rate of

Source: NOAA 2012

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 Bed sediment samples were collected from six stream sites in the Potomac River basin in 2007 and tested concentration of 0.01 µg/kg. No β-endosulfan or endosulfan sulfate was detected (Kolpin et al. 2013). for chemical pollutants. α-Endosulfan was detected in 14% of samples collected at a maximum

 canals, and 2 tailwater ponds located in agricultural areas of California's Central Valley. Samples were March 2003. Peak endosulfan concentrations were limited to ponds adjacent to lettuce fields, but a concentrations were generally below acute toxicity thresholds, but may have contributed to toxicity in a Endosulfan was detected in sediments obtained from 2 major rivers, 11 creeks or sloughs, 8 irrigation obtained during "peak use" periods between July and November 2002, and "winter" samples obtained in concentration of 17 ng/g was reported in Del Puerto Creek. The authors noted that endosulfan few tailwater ponds and irrigation canals with concentrations greater than several hundred ng/g (Weston et al. 2004).

Residential soil samples collected from 11 homes in Atlanta, Georgia in 2006 did not show β-endosulfan in either yard or foundation samples. The method detection limit for this study was 0.60 ng/g (Riederer et al. 2010).

6.4.4 Other Environmental Media

 Endosulfan residues have been detected in a variety of the consumer products, as well as aquatic and terrestrial organisms. terrestrial organisms.
The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) monitors levels of endosulfans and endosulfan sulfate in

 cucumbers, hot peppers, lettuce, mangoes, pears, and sweet bell peppers. The results are summarized in mangoes had very low detection rates (<1% for all three forms of endosulfan). Endosulfan sulfate 0.005 to 0.064 ppm (USDA 2012). Levels of endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate in domestic foodstuffs were determined as part of FDA's Total Diet Studies series (FDA 2005). The results of this monitoring study are summarized in Table 6-8. The highest mean concentrations were reported for endosulfan commodity food items for its Pesticide Data Program. Endosulfan (α- and β-isomers) and endosulfan sulfate were detected in samples collected in 2010 from apples, asparagus, cantaloupe, cilantro, Table 6-7. Cucumbers typically had the highest rates of detection (25.3–38.1%), while asparagus and residues were detected in 44.5% of cantaloupe sampled with a reported concentrations ranging from sulfate in items such as olive oil (0.01363 ppm), fresh/frozen summer squash (0.02050 ppm), peeled

Table 6-7. U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Pesticide Data Program: **Table 6-7. U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) Pesticide Data Program:Distribution of Endosulfan Residues in Fruits and Vegetables (2010)**

aDetected in only one sample.

 $N =$ number; $ND =$ not detected

Source: USDA 2012

BF = baby food; max = maximum; min = minimum; N = number of analyses; ND = not detected; RTF = ready to feed

Source: FDA 2005

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 greater number of samples for each food item compared to FDA's Total Diet Studies. It is important to results from FDA. cucumber (0.01099 ppm), and fresh/frozen spinach (0.03654 ppm). Generally, concentrations were higher in fresh/frozen fruits and vegetables versus processed food products. USDA's program analyzes a note that the residue samples in USDA's Pesticide Data Program tended to be higher when compared to

results from FDA.
Studies of carrot and tomato crops sprayed with endosulfan 2–8 days prior to harvest showed that more pesticide remains in the pulp than in the juices of these vegetables. Washing and peeling the vegetables lowered the endosulfan concentration considerably (Burchat et al. 1998).

 The NOAA's Mussel Watch Program monitors contaminant levels in mussels and oysters in over of 2.0 μ g/kg dry weight and a 90th percentile concentration of 4.9 μ g/kg dry weight. 280 U.S. coastal sites. In EPA's ecological fate and risk assessment report (EPA 2010a), monitoring levels were summarized from samples analyzed between 1994 and 2009 (see Table 6-9). Endosulfans (α- and β-isomers and endosulfan sulfate) were detected in 64% of samples with an average concentration

 contaminants in bass and carp species in southeastern U.S. rivers, endosulfans were detected at low concentrations (<1.2 ng/g wet weight) and mean concentrations were not calculated due to the large reported total endosulfan concentrations of $< 0.02 \mu g/g$, but the largest concentrations $(> 0.07 \mu g/g)$ were Two recent studies monitored endosulfan levels in freshwater fish. In a study monitoring chemical number of samples below the limit of detection. Samples were taken for the Mobile River Basin, Apalachicola-Chattahoochee-Flint River Basin, Savannah River Basin, and Pee Dee River Basin in 2004 (Hinck et al. 2008). Bass, carp, and catfish sampled from the Colorado River basin and tributaries had found in carp and bass from the Gila River near Arlington, Arizona in August 2003 (Hinck et al. 2007).

 USDA's Pesticide Data Program continued its study of pesticide residues in domestic and imported catfish intended for human consumption. The catfish were mostly farm-raised. In 2010, 384 samples detected at the limit of detection $(0.001$ ppm) and β -endosulfan was not detected in any samples. were analyzed for residues of α-endosulfan, β-endosulfan, and endosulfan sulfate. α-Endosulfan was only Endosulfan sulfate was detected in 30 samples with a rate of detection of 7.8% and at concentrations. ranging from the limit of detection (0.001 ppm) to 0.028 ppm (USDA 2012).

 Endosulfan was also detected in the muscle of Pacific cod and Pacific halibut collected from coastal waters of Aleutian Islands, Alaska. Sampling areas were grouped according to their level of military

Table 6-9. Concentration of Total Endosulfans (µg/kg Dry Weight) in Bivalves from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Mussel Watch Databasea

aUnits of µg/kg dry weight (ppb); BDL = below detection limit (~0.2–0.7 ppb). Averages assume 0.0 ppb for concentrations below detection. Data are from 1994–2008.

Source: EPA 2010a

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4.6 ng/g wet weight in Pacific halibut ($n=23$). The reference group concentrations were 3.2 ng/g wet for 4.6 ng/g wet weight in Pacific halibut (n=23). The reference group concentrations were 3.2 ng/g wet for
Pacific cod (n=16) and 3.0 ng/g wet weight for Pacific halibut (n=13). Endosulfan was not detected in any of the fish samples of rock greenling (Miles et al. 2009). activity. In the contemporary military group, the geometric mean concentrations of endosulfan in Pacific cod (n=18) and Pacific halibut (n=26) were 2.5 and 3.3 ng/g wet weight, respectively. In the historical military group, the geometric mean concentration in Pacific cod ($n=13$) was 5.3 ng/g wet weight and

 Canada in the fall of 2004. Measured mean concentrations in spawned pink salmon, spawned sockeye Endosulfan was measured in the major food items of Koeye River grizzly bears in British Columbia, salmon, crab, mussels, fall terrestrial vegetation, and spring terrestrial vegetation were 4.21, 2.18, 0.0410, 2.23, 0.926, and 0.833 ng/g lipid weight, respectively (Christensen et al. 2013).

 China is the world's largest producer and exporter of fishery products. Seafood products including 6 species of shrimp, 2 species of crab, and 14 species of shellfish were collected in June and October 2005 and analyzed for various chemical contaminants. Samples were collected from the Guangdong Province, which borders the South China Sea. α-Endosulfan residues had a frequency rate of 3.8%, arithmetic mean of 0.04 ng/g wet weight and a range of 0.02–1.25 ng/g wet weight. β-Endosulfan residues had a frequency rate of 1.4% and a range of 0.02–0.29 ng/g wet weight. Endosulfan sulfate residues had a frequency rate of 1.4% and a range of 0.01–0.35 ng/g wet weight. Residues were found mostly in shellfish species *Perna uiridis*, *Sinonovacula constricta*, and *Crassostrea gigas* (Guo et al. 2007).

 Indiana (these corks were not used as bottle stoppers). The authors did not specify the origin of the corks trees are harvested. The production steps, which include the produce, the cork retailers, and the winery, may also contribute to these variations. Wine to cork exchanges may also have contributed to variations Endosulfans were detected in wine corks produced from the bark of the cork oak tree (*Quercus suber*), which are grown widely in regions of western Mediterranean. Wine corks were collected in spring 1999 from wines produced in Greece, wines produced in Cleveland, Ohio, and from a winery in Bloomington, used in these wine samples. Total endosulfan levels ranged from 3.8 to 29 ng/g lipid. Concentrations were generally higher in the samples obtained from Bloomington, Indiana. Variation of concentrations was high, and the authors suggested that this was due to differences in pesticide usage where cork oak (Strandberg and Hites 2001).

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and 2009 were analyzed for endosulfans (α - and β -isomers and endosulfan sulfate). They were detected Lichen samples collected from Yosemite National Park, California during the spring and summer of 2008 in 100% of the samples ranging from 2.0 to 24 ng/g dry weight. These concentrations also showed a positive correlation with increasing elevation, suggesting the occurrence of "cold-mountain trapping" (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b).

 from samples taken from coastal sites (used as controls), Lassen Volcanic National Park, Lake Tahoe, Yosemite National Park, and Sequoia National Park. Generally, endosulfan residues were often zero in solely implicated, the authors concluded that there was a mixed but increasing occurrence of endosulfan Sparling et al. (2001) claimed that heavy pesticide use in the San Joaquin Valley is contributing to population decline of certain amphibians in the Sierra Mountains, which lies downwind from this agricultural area. Residue levels in Pacific tree frog (*Hyla regilla*) tadpoles and adults were analyzed the coastal sites and in Lassen Volcanic National Park, which are located west and north, respectively, of the San Joaquin Valley. The maximum concentrations (21.9 ppb) occurred in Sequoia or Yosemite National Park. Endosulfans along with DDx compounds also had the highest frequency of detection (~70–80%) throughout the Lake Tahoe, Sequoia, and Yosemite locations. Although endosulfan was not residues along the west to east gradient, which is consistent with the declining amphibian populations in this area.

 α-hexachlorocyclohexane, comprised the larger proportion of organochlorine residues in the northern Endosulfans were detected in blubber of beluga whales (*Delphinapterus leucas*) collected from 15 sites in the Canadian Arctic at various times between 1993 and 2001. Geometric means for endosulfan (isomers not specified) ranged from 9.7 to 76.3 ng/g wet weight from samples taken from males and females of Resolute Bay (1996, 1999), Grise Fjord (2000), Igloolik (1995, 1997), Coral Harbor (2000), and Arviat (1999). Endosulfan sulfate concentrations (geometric means) ranged from 7.0 to 70.6 ng/g wet weight from sites in Chesterfield Inlet (1997, 1999), Sanikiluaq (1994, 2000), Cape Dorset (1999, 2000), Kimmirut (1994, 1996), Iqaluit (1992, 1996), and Pangnirtung (1996, 1997). Endosulfan along with Hudson Bay areas. Concentration variations between the sites were statistically significant but concentrations between male and female samples were not (Stern et al. 2005).

 (9 females, 13 males), Tampa Bay (17 females, 15 males), Charlotte Harbor (5 females, 5 males), and Endosulfan was also detected in other higher trophic aquatic organisms. A study analyzed pesticide concentrations in Bonnethead sharks (*Sphyrna tiburo*) in the Florida estuaries of Apalachicola Bay Florida Bay (18 females, 13 males). β-Endosulfan and endosulfan sulfate were not detected in liver

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samples from any of the sampling locations. β-Endosulfan geometric mean concentrations ranged from 12.77 to 15.13 ng/g in muscle and 1.55–6.60 ng/mL in serum. Endosulfan sulfate was only detected in liver samples from Charlotte Bay (geometric mean 1.00 ± 0.37 ng/g) and serum samples from Florida Bay (geometric mean 1.93±0.93 ng/mL) (Gelsleichter et al. 2005). Skin and blubber samples (post-mortem) from two blue whales (*Balaenoptera musculus*) stranded off the coast of Baja, California were analyzed for chlorinated hydrocarbons. The two whales were juvenile males, both approximately 18 m long. Endosulfan sulfate was detected at approximately 70 ng/g of lipid in the blubber of whale 1 and at approximately 230 and 380 ng/g of lipid in the skin of whales 1 and 2, respectively (Valdez-Marquez et al. 2004).

6.5 GENERAL POPULATION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE

 residues of endosulfan as a result of application or bioconcentration. A dietary exposure assessment for the CDPR dietary exposure assessment are provided in Table 6-10. The results indicated a chronic consumption) of 1.85 µg/kg/day for the total U.S. population. Three population subgroups were exposures are below levels of concern (Silva and Carr 2010). The main route of exposure to endosulfan for the general population is ingestion of food containing endosulfan (both isomers and sulfate) was conducted by both the EPA and the CDPR using available monitoring data. Results from the two assessments differed in the data and analytical methods, but both assessments concluded that calculated risks of dietary exposure of endosulfan are below protective benchmarks for all subgroups. The CDPR analysis used residue levels from their own residue monitoring data, as well as data obtained from other sources including consumption data from the USDA Continuing Survey of Food Intakes of Individuals (CFSII), other USDA data, and FDA data. Water residues were not considered in the CDPR dietary exposure assessment since available monitoring data in California did not indicate drinking water or groundwater as a significant source of endosulfan exposure. Results from dietary exposure (per capita) of 0.19 μ g/kg/day and an acute dietary exposure (95th percentile identified as groups of concern not only from dietary exposure, but also having the highest risk from occupational exposure and/or exposure to the general public. These subgroups were non-nursing infants (<1 year old), children 1–6 years old, and \geq 13 year-old nursing females. However, calculated margins of exposure (MOE) were >100 for all subgroups in the CDPR assessment, indicating that these dietary

 incorporated drinking water estimated environmental concentrations (EECs) using the DEEM-FCID™ software. Results from the EPA 2007 dietary exposure assessment are provided in Table 6-11. Acute The EPA risk dietary exposure assessment used the USDA CFSII data from 1994 to 1996 and 1998 and

Acute and of Exposure (MOE) from 1989 to 1992 on Raw Agriculture Commodities (RACs) and the Resulting Dietary Table 6-10. California Department of Pesticide Regulation (CDPR) Acute and
Chronic Dietary Exposure (µg/kg/day) to Anticipated Endosulfan Residues
on Raw Agriculture Commodities (RACs) and the Resulting Dietary
Margins of

a95th percentile

Source: Silva and Carr 2010

Chronic Dietary Exposure (µg/kg/day) for EndosulfanaTable 6-11. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Summary of Acute and

^aData for 2007.

^aData for 2007.
^bThe EPA uses the 99.9th percentile of exposure from consumption of food alone (EPA 2000b).
Source: Silva and Carr 2010

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 exposure was reported at 0.003 µg/kg/day. Acute dietary exposure from food was reported at dietary exposures (99.9th percentile) from both food and drinking water was reported at 0.48 µg/kg/day population adjusted dose (%PAD), all of which were below levels of concern. The discrepancies between 0.7 versus 1.5 mg/kg/day) (Silva and Carr 2010). dietary exposure from drinking water for the U.S. population was reported at 0.47 µg/kg/day and chronic 0.11 µg/kg/day and chronic exposure was reported at 0.004 µg/kg/day for the U.S. population. Acute and chronic exposure was reported at 0.007 μ g/kg/day. EPA evaluated risk by calculating the percent the exposure and risk results between these two studies can be attributed to the type of data used in the analysis, software used (TAS, Inc. EX™ versus DEEM-FCID™, risk characterization values (MOE versus %PAD), and acute toxicity values used to calculate risk (no-observed-effect level [NOEL] of

 6.4 m from the eastern edge of the field was calculated. This value was calculated assuming an application rate for apples. This TWA may be an underestimate when compared to fields that have concentration estimate of $2.72 \mu g/m^3$ was calculated. Long- and short-term exposure estimates for child and the associated risks were below health benchmarks (Beauvais et al. 2010a). The CDPR estimated public exposure via non-dietary intake of endosulfan. Under a short-term air, bystander exposure scenario, a time-weighted average (TWA) of 1.63 μ g/m³ at the sampler approximately application rate of 1.5 lb active ingredient (AI)/acre, or 1.7 kg AI/ha, which is below the maximum application rates at the maximum allowed level. Adjusting for the maximum allowable rate, a 24-hour and adult swimmers (incorporating incidental ingestion, dermal, and inhalation exposures) were all low,

 both children and adults, indicating levels that are not a concern. However, HQs were generally higher Lee et al. (2002) estimated endosulfan inhalation hazard quotients (HQs) using CDPR data from 1990 to 2000. HQs were defined as daily intake/reference dose and were calculated for acute, chronic, and subchronic exposures for both adults and children (<12 years old). All HQs for endosulfan were <1 for for children than for adults.

 Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) from 1980 to 1983 estimated that 3,205 workers in the The National Occupational Exposure Survey (NOES) conducted by the National Institute for agricultural services industry were exposed to endosulfan in the workplace in 1980 (NIOSH 1984). The NOES database does not contain information on the frequency, concentration, or duration of exposure of workers to any chemicals; the survey provides only estimates of the number of workers potentially exposed to chemicals in the workplace.

6.6 EXPOSURES OF CHILDREN

 This section focuses on exposures from conception to maturity at 18 years in humans. Differences from adults in susceptibility to hazardous substances are discussed in Section 3.7, Children's Susceptibility.

 larger skin surface in proportion to their body volume. A child's diet often differs from that of adults. or formula to the diet of older children who eat more of certain types of foods than adults. A child's behavior and lifestyle also influence exposure. Children crawl on the floor, put things in their mouths, also are closer to the ground, and they do not use the judgment of adults to avoid hazards (NRC 1993). Children are not small adults. A child's exposure may differ from an adult's exposure in many ways. Children drink more fluids, eat more food, breathe more air per kilogram of body weight, and have a The developing human's source of nutrition changes with age: from placental nourishment to breast milk sometimes eat inappropriate things (such as dirt or paint chips), and spend more time outdoors. Children

 As with the adult general population, the main route of endosulfan exposure for children is through assessments and risks for various child subgroups are provided in Tables 6-10 and 6-11 (Silva and Carr 2010). Calculated risks for all subgroups were below levels of concern, but calculated exposures were generally higher for the child subgroups when compared to the adult sub-groups and the total U.S. were 3.18 µg/kg/day for non-nursing infants (<1 year old) and 3.30 µg/kg/day for 1–6-year-old children were markedly lower than the CDPR results. The dietary exposure for food only was 0.14 µg/kg/day for water were higher for infants and children than from exposures from food intake. It should be noted that $(95th$ vs. $99th$ percentiles) (Silva and Carr 2010). dietary intake. Dietary exposure assessments from the CDPR and EPA-estimated dietary exposure population. This is particularly evident in the CDPR results, where calculated exposures (from food only) compared to 1.85 µg/kg/day for the total U.S. population. The EPA dietary exposure assessment results all infants (<1 year old) and 0.24 μ g/kg/day for children 1–2 years old, compared to 0.11 μ g/kg/day for the total U.S. population. The discrepancy between childhood exposures and total population exposures was larger when taking into account intake from both food and drinking water (1.21 µg/kg/day for all infants $\ll 1$ year old] and 0.48 μ g/kg/day for the U.S. population). Estimated exposures from drinking the exposure assessments from CDPR and EPA differed in several ways including data sets used, approaches (deterministic vs. probabilistic), populations (users only vs. per capita), and reference points

Several studies have been published recently exploring pre-natal and post-natal exposure of endosulfan by analyzing concentrations in breast milk, placenta, and umbilical cord blood. Shen et al. (2007) analyzed

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 samples (n=43 for each group) were 2.28 and 2.52 ng/g lipid, respectively. Placenta concentrations were placenta with a 95% confidence interval of 3.34–4.8 ng/g. The 95th percentile concentration was 27.0 ng/g placenta, and the rate of detection was 95.9%. Cerrillo et al. (2005) also analyzed endosulfan α-endosulfan concentrations in placenta and milk from Danish and Finnish mothers (1997–2001). Geometric mean concentrations in Danish and Finnish breast milk samples (n=43 for each group) were 7.41 and 7.3 ng/g lipid, respectively. Geometric mean concentrations in Danish and Finnish placenta measured in mothers giving birth to males from southern Spain between 2000 and 2002 (n=220) by Freire et al. (2011). Total endosulfan (sum of α- and β-isomers, endosulfan diol, endosulfan ether, endosulfan sulfate, and endosulfan lactone) geometric mean concentration $(n=211)$ was reported as 4.02 ng/g and metabolite levels in mothers and fertile women from Granada and Almeria Provinces in southern Spain. Concentrations were detected in adipose tissue (fertile women), placenta, umbilical cord blood, and breast milk. Results from this study are summarized in Table 6-12. The authors concluded that endosulfan pre- and postnatal exposure between child and mother is a common event, although contributions from environmental and other dietary sources cannot be ruled out.

 reproductive birth defect) in babies, Damgaard et al. (2006) compared milk samples from 62 mothers of male infants with cryptorchidism (cases) and 68 mothers of healthy male infants (controls). The joint was detected in all samples with a median concentration of 6.95 ng/g lipid and range of 1.83–17.84 ng/g was not significantly correlated with cryptorchidism, the study suggested that exposure to more than one pesticide at low concentrations represents a risk factor for congenital cryptorchidism. In a study investigating correlations between prenatal pesticide exposure and cryptorchidism (a male prospective, longitudinal cohort study occurred in Finland and Denmark from 1997 to 2001. α-Endosulfan lipid. Control concentrations were similar with a 6.66 ng/g lipid median and range of 1.19–22.66 ng/g lipid. The authors stated that although singular exposure to α -endosulfan or any other pesticide examined

the case studies (n=48) and 19.7 \pm 29.7 ng/g lipid in the control samples (n=114). Maximum Fernandez et al. (2007) performed a similar study where various organochlorine pesticide concentrations in placenta samples were compared to occurrences of male genital malformations such as cryptorchidism and hypospadias. Samples were obtained from Granada Province in southern Spain from October 2000 to July 2002. Total endosulfan (sum of α- and β-isomers, endosulfan diol, endosulfan ether, endosulfan sulfate, and endosulfan lactone) arithmetic mean concentration (±standard deviation) was 20.8±25.0 ng/g lipid in

Table 6-12. Endosulfan and Metabolite Concentrations in Adipose Tissue, Placenta, Umbilical Cord Blood, and Breast Milk of Fertile Women and Mothers from Southern Spain

 ^aβ-Endosulfan was significantly (p≤0.001) associated with endosulfan lactone. Endosulfan lactone was also associated with endosulfan ether, endosulfan diol, and endosulfan sulfate.

 β-endosulfan was significantly associated with endosulfan diol (p≤0.005). Among the endosulfan metabolites, endosulfan lactone was associated with endosulfan ether (p≤0.005) and endosulfan sulfate (p≤0.001). ^cα-Endosulfan was associated with endosulfan ether, endosulfan lactone, and endosulfan diol (p≤0.001), while β-endosulfan was associated with endosulfan diol and endosulfan sulfate (p≤0.001). There was a significant associated with endosulfan ether, endosulfan diol, and endosulfan sulfate.
^bα-Endosulfan was statistically associated with endosulfan lactone (p≤0.001) and endosulfan sulfate (p≤0.005);

 endosulfan ether (p≤0.05) and endosulfan diol (p≤0.01). There was a statistically significant association between the two commercial products, α-endosulfan and β-endosulfan (p≤0.05). (p≤0.001) association among endosulfan diol, endosulfan ether, and endosulfan lactone.
^dα-Endosulfan was significantly associated with endosulfan sulfate (p≤0.05), while β-endosulfan was associated with

Source: Cerrillo et al. 2005

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 detection for α-endosulfan was 52.4%. As with Damgaard et al. (2006), positive correlations between male genital malformations were not observed for any singular chemical or metabolite. However, the authors noted a 3.5-fold increase in risk for urogenital malformations when the mother reported taking part in agricultural activities. This trend did not appear in the fathers. However, a 2.98-fold increase risk was concentrations were 103 ng/g lipid among the case studies and 189.5 ng/g lipid in the controls. The rate of found when fathers were asked about specific work tasks and chemical exposures. A seasonal trend of births of males with malformations was also observed, with largest occurrences reported in winter. Data from questionnaires were not sufficient enough to correlate this seasonal trend with increased use of organochlorine pesticides during the previous spring.

exposed to as much as $2.72 \mu g/m^3$ of endosulfan (24-hour maximum concentration estimate) if they are Based on a bystander inhalation exposure scenario calculated by Beauvais et al. (2010a), children may be within 6.4 m from the edge a field where it is being applied. Endosulfan exposure to children from swimming is expected to be low.

 defined as daily intake/reference dose and were calculated for acute, chronic, and subchronic exposures Lee et al. (2002) estimated endosulfan inhalation HQs using CDPR data from 1990 to 2000. HQs were for both adults and children (<12 years old). All HQs for endosulfan were <1 for both children and adults, indicating levels that are not a concern. However, HQs were generally higher for children than for adults.

 Since young children spend more time outdoors and have a tendency to ingest soil, it is important to examine child exposure through ingestion. Although no studies have been conducted concerning this subject, exposure through ingestion of soil is not expected to be significant since dietary intake is regarded as the largest source of exposure for endosulfan. However, children may potentially be exposed to endosulfan from oral/dermal exposure if they play in the soil of contaminated areas such as hazardous waste sites. Based on degradation of endosulfan in the environment, child exposures to endosulfan through soil ingestion are not expected to be very significant.

 No studies could be located discussing exposure of children to endosulfan after household use by parents. Likewise, no exposure studies could be located concerning the exposure of children whose parent(s) work Although no documented cases could be located, the possibility exists that endosulfan used in a work with endosulfan on a daily basis. However, many studies suggest that pesticides used in the workplace can be brought home through contaminated clothing, shoes, and other materials (NIOSH 1995).

 setting may be brought home by working parents. It is uncertain what amount of endosulfan exposure a child may encounter under these situations.

6.7 POPULATIONS WITH POTENTIALLY HIGH EXPOSURES

 exposure in fields that were previously sprayed (occupational re-entry). Beauvais et al. (2010b) compared Farm workers are expected to be exposed to higher amounts of endosulfan compared to the general population. These exposures may occur through direct handling and application or through latent the occupational exposure assessments for endosulfan performed by the CDPR and EPA. Dermal, inhalation, and aggregate exposure estimates short-term are summarized in Table 6-13.

 indicating levels of concern. The exceptions were EPA's low-pressure handwand, mixer/loader handling emulsifiable concentrate (LPHW MLA-EC) short-term exposure scenario and CDPR's seasonal and cut flowers, ornamental plants, strawberries, and tomatoes), and cane turning (grapes) (Beauvais et al. Similar to exposure assessments for the general population, CDPR and EPA results differed greatly due to different assumptions regarding exposure. In general, CDPR calculated significantly higher exposures than EPA. The majority of short-term dermal, inhalation, total, and aggregate MOEs were <100, annual LPHW MLA-EC exposure scenario, which had calculated MOEs >100. Exposures from fields previously sprayed were also assessed by CDPR and EPA. Most short-term (2–4 days) and intermediateterm (10–14 days) MOEs for representative re-entry scenarios were <100 from both studies, indicating levels of concern. Representative exposure scenarios included thinning (almonds, peaches), scouting (broccoli, citrus, cotton, lettuce, potatoes), hand harvesting (broccoli, sweet corn, cucumbers, ornamental 2010a).

 β-endosulfan reaching 4,289 and 1,079 pg/mL, respectively. The half-lives for the excretion of α- and β-endosulfan were determined to be 23 and 27 hours, respectively. In one study, the exposure of an individual involved in spraying the compound, while wearing protective overalls, gloves, and breathing mask, was examined (Arrebola et al. 1999). The individual applied 300 L of an endosulfan mixture to plants and later gave 10 urine samples over the course of 3 days. The study found that the highest concentrations occurred 4.3 hours after exposure with concentrations for α- and

 the general population that have potentially high exposures (higher than background levels) to endosulfan. In addition to individuals who are occupationally exposed to endosulfan, there are several groups within

Table 6-13. Dermal, Inhalation, and Aggregate^a Short-term Exposure Estimates **by CDPR and EPA (mg/kg/day)b**

aAggregate exposure is the combined total of dermal, inhalation, and dietary exposure.

bCDPR estimated handler exposures for short-term are defined as acute and up to 1 week; EPA defined short-term

= groundbloom; HPHW = high-pressure handwand; LPHW = low-pressure handwand; MLA-EC = mixer/loader not estimated durations as 1–30 days and therefore overlaps CDPR's short-term and seasonal estimates.
CDPR = California Department of Pesticide Regulation; EPA = Environmental Protection Agency;
GB = groundbloom; HPHW = high-pressure ha

Source: Beauvais et al. 2010b

 These populations include individuals living in proximity to sites where endosulfan was produced or sites where endosulfan was disposed of.

6.8 ADEQUACY OF THE DATABASE

 adequate information on the health effects of endosulfan is available. Where adequate information is not available, ATSDR, in conjunction with NTP, is required to assure the initiation of a program of research Section 104(i)(5) of CERCLA, as amended, directs the Administrator of ATSDR (in consultation with the Administrator of EPA and agencies and programs of the Public Health Service) to assess whether designed to determine the health effects (and techniques for developing methods to determine such health effects) of endosulfan.

The following categories of possible data needs have been identified by a joint team of scientists from ATSDR, NTP, and EPA. They are defined as substance-specific informational needs that if met would reduce the uncertainties of human health assessment. This definition should not be interpreted to mean that all data needs discussed in this section must be filled. In the future, the identified data needs will be evaluated and prioritized, and a substance-specific research agenda will be proposed.

6.8.1 Identification of Data Needs

Physical and Chemical Properties. The physical/chemical properties of endosulfan and the compound (HSDB 2009, 2010; NIOSH 2011; O'Neil et al. 2006; Tomlin 2003). endosulfan sulfate are sufficiently well characterized to enable assessment of the environmental fate of

Production, Import/Export, Use, Release, and Disposal. According to the Emergency to submit substance release and off-site transfer information to the EPA. The TRI, which contains this Planning and Community Right-to-Know Act of 1986, 42 U.S.C. Section 11023, industries are required information for 2009, became available in February of 2011. This database is updated yearly and should provide a list of industrial production facilities and emissions.

 annual use, for which quantitative data are available. The available use trends over the last two decades 1990 and 1999 to only 380,000 pounds per year between 2006 and 2008 (EPA 2002, 2010a). As of Although all U.S. producers of endosulfan must be registered under FIFRA, data concerning quantities of endosulfan produced domestically are limited. Annual production can be estimated by analogy to its indicates use of endosulfan is in decline, based on a reported annual use of 1.38 million pounds between

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 understand the impact and its effects on exposure to the public and to workers. March 2012, there were only four active registrants of endosulfan in the United States. Over the 4-year phase-out schedule, these registrants will be cancelling their endosulfan products according to a voluntary agreement (EPA 2012e). Despite this cancellation, production data and continued recordkeeping of endosulfan use would be valuable during the years of cancellation and the years following, so as to

 Releases and disposal of endosulfan to the environment are well defined based on the regulatory restrictions and the available monitoring data (CDPR 2011; EPA 2001, 2002, 2010a, 2012c, 2012e; NOAA 2012; USGS 2012c).

Environmental Fate. Overall, the environmental fate mechanisms associated with endosulfan are and Hites 2003; Hageman et al. 2006a; Hung et al. 2005, 2010; Kathpal et al. 1997; Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b; Rice et al. 2002; Rudel 1997; Stern et al. 2005; Weber et al. 2010). It is immobile in soils (EPA 2010a; Stewart and Cairns 1974). It is transformed in surface waters and soils via hydrolysis (Greve and Wit 1971; HSDB 2010; Kaur et al.1998) and biodegradation (Cotham and Bidleman 1989; HSDB 2010). well documented. Endosulfan partitions to air and is subject to long-range transport (EPA 2010a; Hafner

 Bioavailability from Environmental Media. Endosulfan can be absorbed following inhalation of contaminated workplace air and ingestion of insecticide-contaminated food (Ely et al. 1967). Dermal contact with or ingestion of endosulfan that is tightly bound to soil particles is an exposure route of concern at hazardous waste sites. No quantitative information is available on the absorption of endosulfan in either adults or children following ingestion or dermal contact with contaminated soils. Therefore, additional information is needed on the uptake of endosulfan from contaminated soil following ingestion or dermal contact. This information would be useful in determining the bioavailability of soilbound endosulfan.

 Food Chain Bioaccumulation. Endosulfan is bioconcentrated by aquatic organisms and supporting Rajendran and Venugopalan 1991; Roberts 1972; Schimmel et al. 1977; Weber et al. 2010). BMFs from data are well established (DeLorenzo et al. 2002; EPA 2010a; Ernst 1977; Pennington et al. 2004; fish to aquatic mammals suggest the potential for biomagnification in aquatic food chains. However, these estimates do not take metabolism into account (Kelly et al. 2007; Weber et al. 2010). Estimating bioconcentration and biomagnification in terrestrial organisms is also difficult due to the lack of biomonitoring data, especially in humans. Recent BMF estimates indicate potential for biomagnification in humans, but understanding of continuous, low-dose metabolism in terrestrial organisms is also lacking

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(Kelly et al. 2007). Acute poisoning cases suggest that metabolism in humans may be rapid (Eyer et al. 2004). Methods for estimating biomagnification in terrestrial organisms based on octanol/air and octagonal/water partition coefficients require an understanding of its metabolic potential (Armitage and Gobas 2007; EPA 2010a). Further investigations into the bioaccumulation, biomagnification, and metabolism of endosulfan in humans and terrestrial organisms are needed.

Exposure Levels in Environmental Media. Reliable monitoring data for the levels of endosulfan in contaminated media at hazardous waste sites are needed so that the information obtained on levels of assess the potential risk of adverse health effects in populations living in the vicinity of hazardous waste endosulfan in the environment can be used in combination with the known body burden of endosulfan to sites.

 ambient air of temperate and Arctic regions (Daly et al. 2007; Gale et al. 2009; Harner et al. 2005; Hoh Studies have also detected endosulfan in rainwater and snow samples (Hageman et al. 2010; Kuang et al. (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b; Riederer et al. 2010; Weston et al. 2004). Endosulfan levels in bivalves are The FDA's Total Diet Studies (2005) and USDA's Pesticide Data Program (USDA 2012) detected for human consumption (Guo et al. 2007; Hinck et al. 2007, 2008; Miles et al. 2009; USDA 2012). They detected in the Pacific tree frog (*H. regilla*) of the Sierra Mountains and California, downwind from the Monitoring data for endosulfan in environmental media are current and extensive. It has been detected in and Hites 2004; Hung et al. 2005, 2010; Pozo et al. 2006; Shen et al. 2005; Sun et al. 2006; Weber et al. 2010). Endosulfan is a monitored in groundwater and surface water samples through the USGS NAWQA program, EPA's STORET database, CDPR Surface Water Protection Database, USDA Pesticide Data Program, and SFWMD DB Hydro database, etc. Altogether, these sources contain over 20 years' worth of monitoring data for endosulfan in the United States (EPA 2010a). Additional studies have also detected endosulfan in surface water (Harman-Fetcho et al. 2005; Pfeuffer 2011; Scott et al. 2002). 2003; Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b). It has been detected in sediment and soil (NAWQA; NOAA NS&T) monitored as part of the NOAA's Mussel Watch Program and have been summarized by EPA (2010a). endosulfan residues in a variety of food products, mostly in fresh and frozen fruits and vegetables. Residues have been detected in fresh and seawater fish and seafood, including catfish caught and raised have been detected in lichen samples from Yosemite National Park, California (Mast et al. 2012a, 2012b) and wine corks made from cork oak tree (*Q. suber*) (Strandberg and Hites 2001). Endosulfans have been agricultural San Joaquin Valley (Sparling et al. 2001). Endosulfans have been detected in high-trophic aquatic organisms such as beluga whales, blue whales, and Bonnethead sharks (*S. tiburo*) (Gelsleichter et al. 2005; Stern et al. 2005; Valdez-Marquez et al. 2004).

Exposure Levels in Humans. Comprehensive biomonitoring studies for endosulfan are not monitoring data for California. However, EPA incorporated drinking water into their assessment and their model results estimated drinking water exposure to be the same as food intake (Silva and Carr 2010). Comprehensive biomonitoring studies using samples collected from the U.S. population that can be used to better assess endosulfan exposure in the general population would be valuable. CDPR evaluated short- swimmers (Beauvais et al. 2010a). Lee et al. (2002) estimated inhalation HQs using CDPR data from available. Exposure levels in the general population have been extensively evaluated using available monitoring data. Dietary intake is expected to be the major source of endosulfan exposure to the general public. Dietary exposures were extensively evaluated for various population subgroups by both EPA and CDPR using different data sets and analytical methods. Although the estimated chronic dietary exposures from these studies were significantly different, both values were below protective benchmarks. The major difference between these exposure assessment deals with the incorporation of drinking water into dietary intake. CDPR assumed that drinking water was not a significant source of exposure based on the term, bystander inhalation exposure and estimated long- and short-term exposures for child and adult 1990 to 2000.

This information is necessary for assessing the need to conduct health studies on these populations.

Exposures of Children. Dietary exposure assessments were conducted by EPA and CDPR, which Damgaard et al. 2006; Fernandez et al. 2007; Freire et al. 2011; Shen et al. 2007). These studies were exposure in children. More data would also be helpful to properly assess endosulfan exposure to children inhalation exposure levels under a bystander scenario, but this analysis incorporated several assumptions (Beauvais et al. 2010a). The possibility that farming parents' work clothes and shoes may carry endosulfan residues into the home also should be studied. included estimates for child subgroups. These assessments used monitoring data in food and drinking water rather than biomonitoring data from urine or blood samples. Results from these assessments indicated that childhood exposures were generally higher compared to exposure estimates for the general adult population (Silva and Carr 2010). Several studies measured endosulfan levels in breast milk, placenta, umbilical cord blood, and maternal adipose tissue, and some explored correlations between elevated endosulfan levels and reproductive malformations in male infants (Cerrillo et al. 2005; conducted in Europe and may not be representative of U.S. exposures. Comprehensive biomonitoring studies using samples collected from the U.S. population would be valuable in assessing endosulfan who live, play, or attend school near farmlands that are treated with endosulfan. CDPR estimated

Child health data needs relating to susceptibility are discussed in Section 3.12.2, Identification of Data Needs: Children's Susceptibility.

 Exposure Registries. Although endosulfan is monitored extensively in food, surface water, tissue, blood, or urine. Endosulfan is not included in the CDC's National Health and Nutrition from the U.S. population. These data would give the best basis for estimating exposures to the general are expected to decrease. As a result, large-scale biomonitoring and environmental monitoring programs groundwater, air, and media, it is not included in comprehensive biomonitoring studies that analyze Examination Survey (NHANES), which monitors chemical concentrations in urine and blood collected population, children, and workers. Endosulfan will be gradually phased-out through 2016 and exposures will likely be decreased or discontinued. Continuing studies would be valuable in understanding the immediate and long-term impacts on the general population.

6.8.2 Ongoing Studies

No ongoing studies sponsored by NIH or EPA were identified for endosulfan.