

*National Conversation on Public Health and Chemical Exposures*

**Scientific Understanding Work Group Report  
December 2010**

1 **I. Introduction**

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

11  
12 *National Conversation* work groups were formed to research and make recommendations on the  
13 following six cross-cutting public health and chemical exposures issues: monitoring, scientific  
14 understanding, policies and practices, chemical emergencies, serving communities, and education and  
15 communication. This report is the product of the Scientific Understanding work group's deliberations.  
16 While issued to the *National Conversation* Leadership Council, the work group hopes that this report will  
17 be of value to others in a position to act on the recommendations contained herein.<sup>1</sup>

18  
19 CDC and ATSDR worked with several groups to manage the *National Conversation*, including  
20 RESOLVE, a nonprofit organization dedicated to advancing the effective use of consensus building in  
21 public decision making, the American Public Health Association, the Association of State and Territorial  
22 Health Officials, and the National Association of County and City Health Officials. These organizations  
23 and others helped ensure that a broad range of groups and individuals were engaged throughout this  
24 collaborative process, including government agencies, professional organizations, tribal groups,  
25 community and non-profit organizations, health professionals, business and industry leaders, and  
26 members of the public.

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28 For more information on the *National Conversation* project, please visit  
29 [www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation](http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation).

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<sup>1</sup> This report was developed as part of the *National Conversation on Public Health and Chemical Exposures*. This is a voluntary, independent process involving multiple sectors, which was facilitated by RESOLVE, a neutral non-profit consensus building organization. This report represents the work of one of six *National Conversation* work groups and reflects the consensus of the work group members. Consensus is defined as each member being able to "live with" the report taken as a whole, rather than as agreement with each recommendation. Members were asked to participate as individuals, rather than on behalf of their organizations or constituencies. Recommendations for action are directed to a wide range of public and private actors, who have full latitude to consider them through the appropriate decision making procedures for implementing changes within their organization. While federal participants were involved with their agencies' knowledge and provided important insights into the role of the federal government in addressing chemical exposures, their membership on the work group does not constitute agency endorsement of the recommendations. In particular, the role of work group chairs was to ensure that diverse perspectives were considered and that common ground was found rather than to take a position, particularly on issues that might be considered by their agency or organization. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's National Center for Environmental Health and the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry provided funding for the facilitation, member travel, meetings, Web dialogues, community conversations, and other costs associated with the *National Conversation*. This report does not necessarily reflect the views of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, RESOLVE, or other organizations involved in the *National Conversation*.

31 **Membership**

32 Work groups were formed in 2009 following an open nomination process. Work group members were  
33 selected based on a three stage process designed to ensure that each work group would have the capacity  
34 to address and reflect different individual and organizational perspectives.<sup>2</sup>

35  
36 In addition to seeking members representing a diverse range of sectors, the following additional skill sets  
37 were sought in selecting members of the Scientific Understanding work group: technical expertise,  
38 experience in various routes of chemical exposure, ability to engage in technical and scientific discussions  
39 with a group of individuals with diverse perspectives and expertise, and reputation in the individual's  
40 field and ability to reach out to others in the sector. Furthermore, to achieve overall balance, the team  
41 sought to compose a diverse work group in terms of discipline, perspective, gender, and geographic  
42 region.

43  
44 The Scientific Understanding work group is chaired by Kevin Teichman, Deputy Assistant Administrator  
45 for Science in the Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Office of Research and Development. The  
46 work group is comprised of 24 members representing a broad range of experience and expertise.  
47 Members are affiliated with 23 organizations and groups including local, state and federal government  
48 agencies; professional organizations; tribes; community and nonprofit organizations; industry; and  
49 academia. Ed Murray, Director of ATSDR's Division of Toxicology and Environmental Medicine, serves  
50 as the Senior Liaison from the National Center for Environmental Health (NCEH)/ATSDR to the work  
51 group. Abby Dilley and Gail Bingham, from RESOLVE, have shared responsibility for facilitating the  
52 work group and Kim DeFeo from NCEH/ATSDR, staffs the work group. A list of the work group  
53 members can be found in Appendix A.<sup>3</sup>

54  
55 This report is being submitted by the Scientific Understanding work group for consideration by the  
56 *National Conversation* Leadership Council as it develops its action agenda.

57  
58 In this report, the Scientific Understanding work group recommends improvements in scientific  
59 understanding in order to:

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

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

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

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<sup>2</sup> For additional information on the work group member selection process, see  
[http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation/docs/membership\\_selection\\_process\\_report.pdf](http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/nationalconversation/docs/membership_selection_process_report.pdf)

<sup>3</sup> As noted in footnote 1, members were asked to participate as individuals, rather than on behalf of their organizations or constituencies. Consensus is defined as each member can "live with" the report taken as a whole, rather than as agreement with each recommendation.

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

### 77 **Caveats and limitations**

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

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

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

91  
92 Chemicals are ubiquitous in our society; they are dispersed throughout our environment, in our water, air,  
93 soil, and food. Data show that chemical manufacturers in the United States reported producing or  
94 importing about 27 trillion pounds of 6,200 chemicals,<sup>4</sup> or about 74 billion pounds per day, in 2005  
95 (Wilson & Schwarzman, 2009). In addition, global chemical production is projected to continue  
96 growing—about 3% per year, with a doubling rate of 24 years. While our society welcomes the benefits  
97 of chemical use, we also bear the burden of harm that exposures to some of these chemicals can bring.  
98

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

100  
101 The Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) serves as a statutory foundation for the science of chemical  
102 risk assessment. TSCA has created a standard of substantiation, which has led the EPA to collect large  
103 quantities of data—both through the general advance of toxicology and risk assessment as well as through  
104 voluntary programs with industry. At the same time, TSCA has many weaknesses. Of the approximately  
105 62,000 chemicals existing at the time of passage of TSCA in 1976, EPA was able to review the risks of  
106 about 1,200 (2%) within the first 15 years (GAO, 1994). Based upon production volume and chemical  
107 properties, EPA estimated that approximately 16,000 (26%) were potentially of concern. However, the  
108 lack of requirement for toxicity data on these existing chemicals has fostered an environment hindering  
109 the development of newer and potentially less hazardous chemicals. For new chemicals, over 95% of the  
110 pre-manufacturing notices (PMNs) claimed some of the information as confidential (GAO, 2005a), 85%  
111 lacked data on health effects, and 67% lacked general environmental data (EPA, 2007). As of 2010,  
112 EPA's TSCA Chemical Substance Inventory shows there are over 84,000 chemicals substances in  
113 commerce (EPA, 2010a). In 1998, EPA reported that 2,863 of the substances in this inventory were high  
114 production volume (HPV) chemicals, chemicals that the U.S. either produces or imports in quantities of  
115 over 1 million pounds per year (EPA, 1998). EPA determined that only 7% (just 202 chemicals) of these  
116 HPV chemicals had publicly available results for all eight of the standard, basic screening tests. Almost  
117 half of these chemicals (43%) had no publicly available data in any test category. Companies have  
118 sponsored approximately 1,400 chemicals through the HPV Challenge Program and over 860 chemicals  
119 through international efforts (EPA, 2010b). Other chemicals, however, remained unsponsored in the  
120 voluntary program (EPA, 2006).

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<sup>4</sup> Numbers of “chemicals” mentioned throughout this report may vary due to differing terminology, as defined by the supporting references. Refer to the supporting references for clarification.

121  
122 Although basic hazard data for these unsponsored chemicals can be obtained through regulatory efforts  
123 such as TSCA Section 4 Test Rules and TSCA Section 8(a)/8(d) Rules (EPA, 2010c), TSCA's provisions  
124 place a high standard for proof of harm on EPA before regulatory action can be taken to limit use of, or  
125 ban, a chemical from commerce. Since TSCA was enacted in 1976, the EPA has used its formal rule-  
126 making authority to restrict only 5 chemicals or chemical classes (GAO, 2005a).

127  
128 The successes in the regulation and substitution of chemicals are based on extensive and targeted research  
129 efforts examining the health effects of heavy metals, such as lead and methylmercury. While the human  
130 health effects of these chemicals were initially identified through cases of poisoning, data sufficient for  
131 regulatory guidelines were based upon extensive epidemiological studies on childhood exposure to lead  
132 and the establishment of experimental animal models of neurodevelopmental deficits. Over time,  
133 improved scientific understanding of lead's developmental toxicity resulted in acceptance that levels of  
134 lead exposure previously deemed to be safe posed significant health risks (Gilbert & Weiss, 2006). The  
135 subsequent removal of lead from paints and gasoline resulted in the reduction in air pollution and a  
136 decrease in blood lead levels by 70% in children (Browner, 1996). A similar protective effort has been  
137 successful for methylmercury as a result of epidemiological studies of childhood poisoning and  
138 experimental animal studies (EPA, 2010d).

139  
140 The overwhelming number of chemicals used in manufacturing with the potential for environmental  
141 contamination and human exposure has driven the direction of toxicity testing. The procedures used for  
142 acute toxicity screening assays have been extended to chronic exposure assays. An individual's overall  
143 exposure to environmental factors begins before birth and continues throughout the full lifespan.<sup>5</sup> An  
144 individual's underlying physiological condition also can significantly influence the impact of exposure  
145 and the manifestation of an adverse health effect. The challenge lies in protecting our health and our  
146 environment, and identifying underlying physiological conditions such as age, disease state, and impact of  
147 prior exposure, that identify vulnerable populations, including children, the elderly and the health  
148 compromised. Steps to do so include coordinating observations within a community of exposures and  
149 health effects, identifying a chemical's potential for toxicity, understanding the impacts of multiple and  
150 cumulative chemical exposures, developing test methods that will detect more subtle adverse effects or  
151 populations that may be more susceptible, translating such effects back to the human, acting upon that  
152 information for assessing risk, communicating potential hazards to the community for action, and taking  
153 action to protect public health.

## 154 **Evaluating and Communicating Public Health Impacts**

155 Addressing the impact of the myriad of chemicals to which the public is exposed poses many challenges  
156 to government and private industry. These challenges include addressing the impact of chemicals, both  
157 individually and in combination, on vulnerable populations such as children and the elderly. The  
158 government's efforts to regulate potentially harmful chemicals have been constrained by TSCA which  
159 grandfathered over 60,000 chemicals in use and placed the burden of proof on EPA, a task that, as  
160 described earlier, has resulted in few chemicals being regulated. On September 29, 2009, EPA  
161 Administrator Lisa Jackson released a set of core principles to strengthen U.S. chemical management  
162 laws. In parallel with this announcement, EPA is initiating a comprehensive approach to enhance the  
163 Agency's current chemicals management program within the limits of existing authorities (EPA, 2010e).

164 One possible model that may be useful in updating TSCA comes from the European Union (EU). In 2006,  
165 the EU issued a sweeping new regulation, known as the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and

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<sup>5</sup> EPA's Office of Children's Health Protection provides information about unique susceptibilities at different life stages. See <http://yosemite.epa.gov/ochp/ochpweb.nsf/content/homepage.htm>

166 Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), which requires producers to disclose some hazard and exposure  
167 information on an estimated 30,000 industrial chemicals. Chemical manufacturers must also gain  
168 government authorization to use certain “substances of very high concern” (REACH, 2007). These new  
169 requirements—both for providing data and for proving safe use—are expected to improve knowledge and  
170 promote the development and use of safer chemical substances, closing the technology gap by fueling  
171 new investment in green chemistry science, technology, and education (Wilson & Schwarzman, 2009).

172  
173 The treaty that establishes the European Union calls for “community policy on the environment” to be  
174 “based on the precautionary principle” (European Union, 1992), a framework that people from multiple  
175 sectors and perspectives have argued our nation also needs to move toward. Support has grown for use of  
176 a decision making approach rooted in precaution – one in which risk assessment is seen as a useful tool in  
177 the appropriate context but is not the scientific paradigm for decision making. For example, in its recently  
178 released report entitled *Reducing Environmental Cancer Risk: What We Can Do Now*, the President’s  
179 Cancer Panel calls for a shift away from our current risk management approach toward one based on the  
180 precautionary principle (Reuben, 2010).

181  
182 Current methods for evaluating the impact of exposures to low levels of toxic chemicals rely on  
183 traditional quantitative risk assessment that has many limitations and uncertainties. Improvements to risk  
184 assessment methods, such as proposed by the National Research Council (NRC) in 2009 in their  
185 publication *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*, are clearly needed. The NRC report  
186 acknowledged that risk assessment is “at a crossroads,” facing “number of substantial challenges,” that  
187 “its credibility is being challenged,” and that the “regulatory risk assessment process is bogged down.” If  
188 critical improvements can be made, then information collected as part of a quantitative risk assessment  
189 can be useful when considering exposure and adverse health information as part of a precautionary  
190 analysis. Mechanisms for assessing confidence in comparative risks among alternatives that incorporate  
191 life cycle understandings of chemical use will be important to achieving this goal.

192  
193 The challenge to evaluating the impact of exposure to toxic chemicals is especially difficult in  
194 communities where large numbers of people are exposed to low levels of mixtures of toxic chemicals.  
195 Community groups across the country have criticized the lack of scientific rigor and effectiveness of  
196 Public Health Assessments (PHAs) and Health Consultations (HCs), epidemiological studies, and disease  
197 cluster investigations conducted by ATSDR and other public health agencies, in particular charging that  
198 these investigations and studies “lack the ability to properly attribute illness to toxic exposures, and the  
199 methodologies used [by ATSDR] to identify suspected environmental exposures to hazardous chemicals  
200 are doomed from the start” (Majority Staff of the Subcommittee on Investigations and Oversight of the  
201 Committee on Science and Technology, 2009).

202  
203 The coordination of comprehensive databases providing information on individual- and community-level  
204 exposures, underlying biological conditions, and health outcomes is necessary to identify and evaluate  
205 adverse health effects of chemical exposure. Without accurate health data, well-matched to exposure data  
206 by time and place, correlating exposures with health outcomes is difficult. An improved data collection  
207 system is necessary to identify and reduce unhealthy chemical exposures and improve public health. The  
208 access to such information by the community is critical.

209  
210 Community involvement is critical in all phases of research and decisions that are made regarding  
211 chemical exposures. Early involvement helps ensure that research efforts address critical concerns raised  
212 by those most affected, that local knowledge is taken into account in such research, and that collaboration  
213 between stakeholders leads to improvements in research methods, study design, and interpretation of  
214 findings. Such preemptive interactions will serve to address concerns of the communities, identify  
215 resources to provide data and information to databases and affected populations, as well as aid in the  
216 translation and communication of risk back to the community for intervention to minimize health effects.

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### III. Vision of a Successful System

The Scientific Understanding work group recognizes every person’s right to health and the obligation of our nation to provide its residents with a clean and healthy environment (“International Covenant,” 1966; WHO, 2008). This ideal has been operationalized in statutes like the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) General Duty Clause, which directs employers to furnish its employees with a workplace “free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical harm” (Occupational Safety and Health Act, 1970); the Clean Air Act, which authorizes EPA to regulate hazardous air pollutants (1970); the Clean Water Act, which permits EPA to set water quality standards (1972); and the Safe Drinking Water Act, which gives EPA the authority to regulate contaminants found in drinking water (1974).

The Scientific Understanding work group understands that achieving this vision is predicated on expanding our knowledge and understanding of chemicals: their sources of exposure, toxicity, modes of action, and the adverse health impacts they can cause, along with differences in people’s susceptibilities based on age, health, where they live, and other social and physiological factors. In addition, chemical information needs to be easily accessible to the public and to decision makers so that they can make informed decisions on how to best protect public health. Therefore, our vision of a successful system includes developing, where needed, greener chemicals and informing decision makers at all levels so that they understand the chemical life cycle, enabling them to safely and effectively manage the selection, use, and disposal of chemicals.

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

### IV. Action Recommendations

The Scientific Understanding work group makes the following recommendations for consideration by the *National Conversation Leadership Council*. The work group particularly wishes to call attention to the overarching importance of considering children as a uniquely susceptible population. This permeates our recommendations. The work group also notes the relevance of ongoing studies being conducted to examine physiological differences associated with normal development and with normal behaviors that can cause special exposure concerns. As childhood does not represent all components of susceptibility, a similar level of attention should be given to the elderly and those with health conditions that affect their vulnerability to harmful chemical exposures.

264 **A. Recommendations to achieve a more complete understanding of chemicals and their health**  
265 **effects**

266  
267 ***Recommendation 1. Fill data gaps in the scientific knowledge of the health risks of chemicals and***  
268 ***prioritize all chemicals of concern for further assessment of hazard and risk.***  
269

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

274  
275 In the near term, EPA should define a targeted set of toxicologic and exposure data, along with all  
276 available information necessary for a robust assessment of chemical hazard and risk. This effort should  
277 build upon previous efforts, such as the Screening Information Data Set for high production volume  
278 chemicals developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, n.d.). To  
279 protect human health and the environment, EPA needs to assess the safety and risk of new and existing  
280 chemicals. EPA and other regulatory agencies should identify a targeted data set for all chemicals in use.  
281 The targeted data set must be adequate to allow determinations that new and existing chemicals in  
282 commerce pose an acceptable level of risk and do not endanger the public or the environment. The  
283 targeted data set should be reviewed periodically and adjusted by EPA and other regulatory agencies to  
284 incorporate new scientific understanding of data necessary to assess critical health endpoints.

285  
286 In the medium term, EPA should develop a prioritization method focused on chemical safety and health,  
287 with special emphasis on sensitive subpopulations, e.g., children, the aged, and the health compromised.  
288 Based on the prioritization method, EPA should identify those chemicals posing the greatest potential  
289 hazards and risks, as well as those contaminants requiring more toxicological information (including  
290 naturally occurring contaminants, such as mycotoxins). Results of the prioritization method should trigger  
291 additional appropriate analysis for chemicals posing a substantial hazard or risk, such as alternatives  
292 assessments; research to determine effective exposure-reduction strategies, including the adoption of  
293 inherently safer technology and “green chemistry;” and additional testing. EPA should reassess a  
294 chemical’s prioritization when there is a change that may affect public health risk, such as increased  
295 production volume, new uses, or new information on potential hazards or exposures.

296  
297 *Current status of issues under consideration:* While the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA) has  
298 enabled many successes, the legislation also limits our ability to protect human health and the  
299 environment. It has been observed that TSCA has produced three major barriers to action. The first is the  
300 —**Dat Gap,**” because concerns have been raised that the great majority of chemicals in commerce have  
301 been incompletely assessed for risk, and this information, where it exists, has been insufficiently  
302 communicated (Wilson & Schwarzman, 2009). A quality and scientific risk assessment must be based on  
303 a sound, comprehensive set of data. The second barrier, the —**Safty Gap,**” contends that —[g]overnment  
304 lacks the legal tools it needs to efficiently identify, prioritize, and take action to mitigate the potential  
305 health and environmental effects of hazardous chemicals.” The third barrier, the —**Technology Gap,**”  
306 posits that incentives are lacking for industry to develop cleaner and safer chemical alternatives.

307  
308 As a first priority, the federal government needs to close the —**Dat Gap.**” EPA and other key research  
309 agencies should have access to information about the potential risks of existing chemicals (as soon as  
310 possible) and new chemicals (before they enter commerce). Federal access should include chemical  
311 toxicity, use, storage and manufacture, transport, disposal, exposure, as well as the chemicals  
312 incorporated into consumer products. If this information is unavailable or incomplete, it should be  
313 provided to the federal government by manufacturers, downstream processors, and users. At a minimum,  
314 manufacturers should provide a targeted set of information on the acute and chronic effects of the

315 chemical necessary for a robust assessment of that chemical's risk, which could include profiles for  
316 persistence/bio-accumulation/toxicity (PBT), carcinogenic/mutagenic/reproductive (CMR) effects,  
317 developmental effects, and endocrine disruption, as necessary.

318  
319 The availability of sufficient data, information, industry assessments, assessments done by other  
320 governments, and third-party assessments will enable EPA and others to identify, screen, and prioritize all  
321 contaminants for further scientific assessment and regulatory review. Improved scientific understanding  
322 will inform actions to protect human health and the environment (—States' Principles," 2009).

323  
324 *Desired outcomes and implementation*

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

329  
330 Finally, an online public database should be created and maintained that identifies each chemical used in  
331 commerce, identifies the chemical manufacturer(s), and indicates whether each element of the required  
332 targeted toxicological and exposure data set has been adequately provided by the manufacturer(s). EPA  
333 should disclose all data provided by manufacturers on chemical toxicity, storage and manufacture, use,  
334 transport, disposal, exposure, as well as the chemicals incorporated into products, as soon as possible after  
335 receipt of information from chemical manufacturers, taking steps to protect information that can  
336 legitimately be claimed to be confidential business information. In addition to review by EPA and other  
337 federal agencies, public comment opportunities should be created to allow citizens, researchers, and other  
338 stakeholders to provide input on the adequacy and quality of scientific data provided by chemical  
339 manufacturers.

340  
341 ***Recommendation 2. Improve knowledge of existing databases and increase the accessibility of***  
342 ***information across multiple databases.***

343  
344 *Recommended actions:* The federal government should lead the establishment of a National Data  
345 Management Advisory Committee, the creation of a National Registry of significant databases, and the  
346 development of a knowledge-based search engine to access data across multiple agencies' and  
347 organizations' databases.

348  
349 In the short term, the U.S. federal government should establish a National Data Management Advisory  
350 Committee. This Committee would include knowledgeable representatives from major government  
351 agencies, industry, academia, non-governmental organizations, and the general public. The Committee  
352 would need to be appropriately funded and given access to the managers of all relevant sources of data  
353 within various agencies and organizations. This Committee would facilitate development of a strategy and  
354 process for the collection of information for a National Registry of significant databases. It would address  
355 issues of confidential or non-public information, working closely with the managers of the databases. The  
356 Committee would also identify relationships between independent databases and opportunities for  
357 synthesis. To ensure performance and accountability, the Committee would need to establish targets and  
358 publicly report its progress.

359  
360 In the medium term, the federal government should create a National Registry of significant databases on  
361 chemicals and other contaminants. There is a significant amount of information available in various  
362 databases maintained by the Environmental Protection Agency, the Centers for Disease Control and  
363 Prevention, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the National Library of  
364 Medicine, and many other federal and state agencies. There is a need to understand the information that  
365 currently exists in the various databases. There is also a need to determine how much of this data is

366 unique and how much is duplicated from another source. This effort should expand beyond the borders of  
367 the United States to include the European Union, Canada, and Asia-Pacific sources.

368  
369 In the long term, the federal government should lead the development of a knowledge-based search  
370 engine to access data across multiple agencies' and organizations' databases. This search engine will  
371 build on the efforts already taken by several of the agencies to expand their capabilities. In order to  
372 navigate the databases contained in the National Registry, a search engine is needed that is capable of  
373 accessing multiple data sources across federal, state, and international sources. The intent would be to  
374 develop a knowledge-based system, rather than an information-based one, capable of fielding detailed  
375 questions that would allow a user to find relevant data and sources. This effort will require a focus on  
376 identifying interrelationships of data between chemical toxicity, exposure, and human health fields. This  
377 effort will require significant resources and should be directed by the Advisory Committee.

378  
379 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Government agencies at all levels have made significant  
380 efforts to collect various data, and numerous databases exist both inside and outside of the government. In  
381 many cases, data has been collected to answer specific needs. Hence, accessibility and interoperability of  
382 data are all challenges. When data are not easily accessible to researchers and the public, our ability to  
383 understand chemicals and their impacts on public health is hampered. When data are not compiled in a  
384 consistent manner or entered into databases that have harmonized platforms, locating and integrating data  
385 from various databases is tedious and time consuming. Risk assessments could be expedited and  
386 enhanced if the breadth of existing information were more fully available and useful to researchers.

387  
388 Therefore, there is a need for a comprehensive strategy to register existing data sources and to make the  
389 data represented in this registry accessible to all stakeholders.

390  
391 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* It is expected that these actions will lead to incremental  
392 improvements that will range from being very visible to improvements that are procedural changes within  
393 agencies with limited visibility. Regardless, data and database management has the potential to  
394 significantly enhance our knowledge of contaminant risks and improve the quality and timeliness of risk  
395 assessments.

396  
397 ***Recommendation 3. Evaluate the translational relevance of in vitro screening technologies utilized in***  
398 ***toxicity testing to the impact on human health.***

399  
400 *Recommended actions:* Reevaluate and refine approaches for toxicity evaluation to develop targeted  
401 testing approaches in the whole organism (*in vivo*) and to determine the validity of cell culture (*in vitro*)  
402 and alternative model systems to predict *in vivo* toxicity.

403  
404 In the near term, convene working groups of national and international scientific experts to generate a  
405 series of guidance documents for *in vitro* toxicity screening within the framework of predictive validity  
406 for *in vivo* toxicity. These documents would focus on specific organ systems and/or types of cellular  
407 toxicity. They would identify and focus efforts toward promising endpoints using the *in vitro* toxicity  
408 pathways approach. Concurrently, a reevaluation of *in vivo* toxicity testing approaches to screen for  
409 toxicity should be conducted to evaluate sensitivity, relevance, and translation to the potential for human  
410 health effects.

411  
412 Utilization of new technologies and advances in systems biology are necessary to integrate a tiered and  
413 targeted approach for examining the potential toxicity of chemicals and human health impact. Over the  
414 medium to long term, efforts should be undertaken to foster collaborations between basic biomedical  
415 researchers and toxicologists to update *in vivo* methods for detecting exposure-related toxicities, identify  
416 biological processes associated with toxicity, develop methods of greater sensitivity for evaluating target

417 organ specific toxicities, develop approaches to examine interrelationships between biological systems in  
418 toxicity (e.g., immune and nervous, respiratory, or reproductive systems), and understand underlying  
419 mechanisms of toxicity to advance the identification of biomarkers of effect.

420  
421 For the utilization of culture or alternative models, it is important to identify data sets and opportunities to  
422 evaluate the predictive validity of *in vitro* assays for determining toxicity relevant to human health and  
423 environmental effects (e.g., U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [EPA] Endocrine Disruptor Screening  
424 Program of drinking water contaminants). This effort would lead to the design of a series of coordinated  
425 interdisciplinary experiments to determine the predictive validity of a targeted group of *in vitro* assays  
426 with specific *in vivo* organ system toxicities and identification of subgroups of assays having a greater  
427 likelihood of detecting toxic effects of biological relevance. It would also serve to eliminate  
428 underperforming assays.

429  
430 Eventually, assays and pathways relevant to toxicity in specific organ systems need to be identified and  
431 methods to identify chemicals or classes of chemicals based upon biomonitoring of exposure and internal  
432 tissue burden need to be developed. From these analyses, testing efforts can be focused on either target  
433 organs or translated to relevant human exposure levels. A coordinated program also is needed across  
434 multiple federal, state, and local health agencies and academic or private groups to utilize tissue to  
435 determine internal organ-specific human chemical exposures, consistent with ethical protocols for human  
436 studies research.

437  
438 *Current status of issues under consideration:* The large number of chemicals in commerce today, along  
439 with problems posed by many environmental and biological contaminants, requires new technologies to  
440 assess potential human health hazards. One approach has been high-throughput screening of human cell  
441 lines to evaluate biologically significant perturbations in key toxicity pathways using computational  
442 biology. The expectation is that cell-specific pathways can characterize target organ toxicity in humans.  
443 However, the current cell culture (*in vitro*) testing approach raises important questions about the  
444 underlying biological processes being tested, the predictive validity of the *in vitro* cell based systems to  
445 whole animal (*in vivo*) toxicity, and ultimately the relevance of these findings to human health.  
446 Additionally, questions remain as to how data from *in vitro* assessment of toxicity pathways can be used  
447 in risk assessment given several uncertainties (e.g., defining “adverse effect,” extrapolation at the low end  
448 of the dose-response curve, susceptible subpopulations, e.g., children, the aged, and the health  
449 compromised, developmental status [critical windows of susceptibility], application of uncertainty  
450 factors).

451  
452 *Desired outcomes and implementation:*

- 453 • Define, characterize, and confirm critical cellular pathways as causative of *in vivo* toxicity on a  
454 target organ basis.
- 455 • Identify specific high-throughput and high content assays validated for examination of each  
456 pathway.
- 457 • Enhance the ability to detect and characterize *in vivo* toxicity with the incorporation of new  
458 technologies.
- 459 • Incorporate biomonitoring of exposure and target organ concentrations into *in vivo* studies.
- 460 • Identify and validate tests systems (using comparative *in vitro* and *in vivo* models) sufficient to  
461 detect adverse effects of exposure on an organ or biological system basis, including effects that have  
462 no known cellular response pathway.
- 463 • Develop approaches that allow for the evaluation of susceptible subpopulations.

464  
465 Important products of this initiative would be the identification of test systems with predictive validity for  
466 adverse human health effects. Initially this would focus on identification of human target organ/systems

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

477  
478 Inclusion of available data obtained from 1) biomonitoring of biological samples (blood, urine, hair), 2)  
479 chemical body burden as it refers to the total amount of chemicals that are present in the body at a given  
480 time as calculated across multiple biological samples (e.g., blood, urine, fat, hair, tissues samples), and 3)  
481 target organ concentration will identify relevant exposure levels for *in vitro* evaluation. The increased  
482 level of sensitivity and refinement in the *in vivo* models will translate into a decrease in the use of animals  
483 and the inclusion of more relevant *in vitro* test assays, which are likely to increase acceptance by the  
484 public, as well as the regulatory community.

485  
486 The 2007 National Research Council report *Toxicity Testing in the Twenty-First Century: A Vision and a*  
487 *Strategy* recommended that research programs directed to this strategy would be assessed every 3-5 years  
488 by well-recognized scientific experts in both *in vivo* and *in vitro* testing models, independent of vested  
489 interests in the public and private sectors. Evaluation criteria shall include the identification of assays with  
490 predictive validity, the establishment of more sensitive *in vivo* test methods to detect for toxicity, and,  
491 more importantly, the integration of data from both *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays to provide a basis for  
492 inclusion into the risk assessment process.

493  
494 Determining the predictive validity of *in vitro* systems falls under the auspices of various agencies  
495 including the National Institutes of Health (NIH), National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences  
496 (NIEHS) and the National Toxicology Program (NTP), and the EPA (e.g., EPA Endocrine Disruptor  
497 Screening Program [EDSP], EPA's National Health and Environmental Effects Research Laboratory,  
498 EPA's National Center for Computational Toxicology). The effort would be facilitated by a coordinated  
499 effort across granting agencies of NIH, National Science Foundation, Department of Defense, and the  
500 Department of Energy.

501  
502 Target organ/system exposure would fall under the auspices of the Centers for Disease Control and  
503 Prevention, and could be facilitated by the involvement of NIH/NIEHS and NTP (of which the National  
504 Institute for Occupational Safety and Health is an integral part) for either tissue collection or chemical  
505 analysis support. Access to tissue sample collection would be fostered by the assistance of local health  
506 departments, state coroners' offices, private physicians, hospitals, and patient advocacy groups, as  
507 relevant.

508  
509 ***Recommendation 4. Identify and improve scientific knowledge of adverse health effects from indoor***  
510 ***air pollutants, including mold and mycotoxins, with a focus on the linkage to neurologic, mental***  
511 ***health, endocrine and immunologic diseases.***

512  
513 *Recommended actions:* Improve the scientific understanding of the effects of indoor air pollutants and  
514 their impact on identifying individual susceptibilities. Specific suggested actions include:

515  
516 In the near term, exposure assessments for indoor air quality should incorporate multiple endpoints for  
517 assessing the overall contribution of mold and its products, volatile and semi-volatile compounds like

518 pesticides (VOCs and SVOCs), small particles including ultrafine particles (e.g., from combustion), and  
519 allergens. These particulates can be categorized by likely exposure routes. Air sampling can be  
520 subdivided by particle size and shape to identify those most likely to remain in air and, therefore, most  
521 likely to be respirable and penetrate deep into the lung. This can be accomplished by providing  
522 supplemental resources to existing studies for the expansion of air/dust analysis and by capturing results  
523 in databases allowing for cross comparison with health data.

524  
525 Given growing concern over prenatal exposures and exposures to children, adults, pregnant women, the  
526 physically compromised, and the elderly, and the fact that Americans spend 90% of their day indoors  
527 (Woodcock & Custovic, 1998), an evaluation of the impact of indoor air quality and its various  
528 components during development should be conducted by an authoritative group (e.g., National  
529 Toxicology Program [NTP] Center for the Evaluation of Risks to Human Reproduction, National  
530 Academy of Sciences). Such evaluation should include physician case reports, clinical studies, exposure  
531 simulation studies, epidemiology studies, and animal studies. Because childhood exposure may not, in all  
532 instances, reflect the most sensitive population, the susceptibility of older populations or individuals with  
533 differing physiological conditions or underlying respiratory, cardiovascular, and neurological diseases  
534 should also be considered. Given an aging population combined with the predominance of indoor  
535 activities, an evaluation of exposure and impact of air quality components on the elderly could contribute  
536 to health promotion efforts across the life-stages.

537  
538 To determine the extent of indoor exposures, biomarkers of exposure for each of the compounds of  
539 interest need to be developed and validated. In the case of mold, for example, potential biological markers  
540 of exposure such as urinary mycotoxin levels, cytokine and antibody changes, or other specific markers  
541 can be tested and validated through exposure simulation studies. The validation of a biomarker of  
542 exposure could advance the evaluation of exposure-related adverse effects in human epidemiological and  
543 case-control studies and in animal models. Validated biomarkers could then be included in appropriate  
544 databases for assessing adverse effects, disease associations, and therapeutic interventions.

545  
546 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Efforts to identify subpopulations more susceptible to  
547 adverse effects from chemicals should include assessment of the history of indoor environmental  
548 exposures of the individual as well as genetic and physiological factors. Indoor air quality is a major  
549 contributor to respiratory compromise, in general, and asthma in particular (EPA, 1994; McGwin, Lienert,  
550 & Kennedy, 2010). These effects are potentially hazardous throughout the life-span, with possibly greater  
551 vulnerability to the developing organism, *in utero*, in childhood and among women and the elderly.

552  
553 Indoor air quality is affected by building design and construction, materials and furnishings, operations  
554 and maintenance products and practices including selection of cleaning agents and the use of scented  
555 products, and activities and personal care products of building occupants (NIBS, 2006). In addition, the  
556 quality of indoor air is affected by dampness, moisture, and mold (IOM, 2004) with mold present in 1.5 to  
557 20% of modern homes (Bornehag et al., 2004; 2005).

558  
559 Mold exposure can have direct health effects and may also interact with other exposures. Potential health  
560 effects due to indoor exposures have contributed to the rising interest in sustainable building design and  
561 fostered green technology with the use of low-emitting building products and selection of finishing  
562 materials to minimize moisture retention and mold growth. While associations between indoor air quality  
563 and health have been demonstrated (Campbell, Thrasher, Gray, & Vojdani, 2004), the impact of indoor  
564 air pollution on individuals who are especially susceptible to chemical exposures has not been adequately  
565 addressed (Miller & Ashford, 2000). There is emerging data raising the issue of mold exposure and direct  
566 health effects (Thurman, Creasia, & Trotter, 1989; Campbell, Thrasher, Gray, & Vojdani., 2004; Kilburn,  
567 2009) raising the concern of whether such exposure should be considered within the framework of  
568 assessing the health impact of environmental exposures.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

As an example, members of Native American, immigrant or ethnic communities often have greater exposures resulting from traditional cultural practices that have not been factored into standard risk assessments that could lead to adverse health effects. Additionally, some of these communities have been forced to change or abandon traditional cultural practices because of contamination of resources they depended on (Arquette et al., 2002).

Pilot research projects should be undertaken to identify and define “vulnerability characteristics” in appropriate communities. These questions could also be incorporated into some existing surveys (e.g., National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey [NHANES], Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry [ATSDR], census-derived follow-ups, and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency’s [EPA] Community Action for a Renewed Environment grants program). They should also be

620 incorporated into traditional risk assessment models, which need to be modified to take these cultural  
621 differences into account. Ultimately, based on what is learned in the pilot projects, guidance for including  
622 these questions should be developed for all relevant programs.

623  
624 Communities need to be involved in describing their specific situations and vulnerabilities. A place to  
625 start might be some research initiated within the new National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences  
626 (NIEHS) Partnerships for Environmental Public Health. The establishment of this program demonstrates  
627 NIEHS' commitment to supporting initiatives for communities and scientists to work together on  
628 contemporary issues in environmental public health. This umbrella program is intended to support  
629 partnerships between researchers and communities.

630  
631 As additional vulnerabilities are identified, toxic site remediation actions and local emergency response  
632 planning efforts (e.g., floods, man-made disasters) should be tailored to the specific, empirically derived,  
633 vulnerability characteristics of a community.

634  
635 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Improving health in contaminated communities is difficult  
636 because little is known about how communities differ with regard to factors that may increase the risks  
637 posed by toxic chemicals. In addition, risk assessments completed by federal agencies use standardized  
638 templates for exposure scenarios in lieu of community-specific scenarios. Risk management decisions are  
639 determined independent of the communities' concerns leaving these populations at greater risk due to  
640 inadequate characterization of risk and remedial options. This in turn may leave the communities at a  
641 greater risk. Traditional risk assessment models need to be modified to take into account cultural  
642 differences of communities.

643  
644 The recent National Research Council's document *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*  
645 (2009) recommended that EPA —develop guidelines and methods for simpler analytical tools to support  
646 cumulative risk assessment and to provide for greater involvement of stakeholders. In the short-term, EPA  
647 should develop databases and default approaches to allow for incorporation of key non-chemical stressors  
648 in cumulative risk assessments in the absence of population-specific data, considering exposure patterns,  
649 contributions to relevant background processes, and interactions with chemical stressors.” Risk  
650 assessment and risk management agencies should also allow the flexibility to incorporate community-  
651 specific data in risk assessment and risk management decisions. Holistic models such as those developed  
652 by Arquette et al. (2002) should be considered to amend traditional risk assessment models to include  
653 cultural information when making risk management decisions. Arquette argues that even the definition of  
654 health used by Native people is significantly different than the definition used by risk assessors, which  
655 leads to the need to expand current definitions and incorporate traditional knowledge into decision  
656 making.

657  
658 Research is needed to identify and define “vulnerability characteristics” of communities. Those assessing  
659 risks in communities need to understand how community characteristics in both structure (e.g., age, socio-  
660 economic factors, proximity to pollution sources, cultural and religious practices) and function (e.g.,  
661 social organization, capacity to address impacts, language barriers) serve as both risk and protective  
662 factors for chemical exposures.

663  
664 Recommendations made at a recent conference support the need to consider these many variables: —For  
665 Agency personnel charged with ameliorating toxic contamination, it is critically important to be aware  
666 that the problems confronting contaminated communities are related not only to technical clean-up and  
667 physical health, but also to social aspects of the community. In many contaminated communities, a  
668 destructive social process develops that exacerbates the psychological and physical health impacts on  
669 community residents. If this goes unrecognized, outside agency intervention may make the social process  
670 even more destructive. On the other hand, if an agency works in partnership with a community, it is

671 possible to decrease the development of social stresses and increase the social capital and collective  
672 efficacy available to a community to respond to contamination” (Tucker, Coles, Couch, & McEwen,  
673 2010).

674  
675 The major strengths of this recommendation are incorporating empirical data of “real world” community  
676 scenarios in cumulative risk assessment approaches and identifying specific cultural/ethnic and traditional  
677 practices that may affect risk. The major weaknesses of this recommendation are not being able to  
678 confirm any causal connections between all the variables identified, nor being able to extrapolate  
679 vulnerability characteristics across all communities. Impediments might be privacy concerns, liability  
680 concerning sensitive information being used for adverse insurance decisions or housing resale losses, and  
681 media coverage of the information collection effort jeopardizing its scientific integrity.

682  
683 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* This research improves risk assessments of communities by  
684 helping to identify the influence of vulnerabilities on chemical exposures, identify the influence of  
685 neurological and behavioral impacts on chemical exposures, and develop methods to incorporate  
686 background exposures and thus identify the influence of background exposures on risk.

687  
688 Communities will be better served and protected because cumulative risk assessments will incorporate  
689 key non-chemical stressor data based on the vulnerability characteristics of the community being studied,  
690 e.g., children, the aged, and the health compromised. Fewer default-based judgments and arbitrary factors  
691 are invoked, which translate into risk assessments reflecting real-world scenarios.

692  
693 Communities receiving cumulative risk-based interventions designed to reduce community vulnerability  
694 should be randomized, and independent evaluations should be contracted to determine if the intervention  
695 worked and what lessons were learned to apply to other communities.

696  
697 It is recommended that National Institute of Health/NIEHS, Centers for Disease Control and  
698 Prevention/ATSDR, EPA, state health departments, tribal nations, and the Indian Health Service consider  
699 implementing this recommendation.

700  
701 ***Recommendation 6. Identify and define gene-environment interactions as they relate to chemical or***  
702 ***environmental exposure and social and lifestyle factors.***

703  
704 *Recommended actions:* Develop a Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee to foster national  
705 and international collaborations, and develop a Prospective Cohort Study of Genes and the Environment,  
706 which will allow for the definition of gene-environment interactions in many common diseases. Specific  
707 suggested actions include:

708 A Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee should be formed in the near term to foster national  
709 and international collaborations to integrate existing and newly developed clinical databases, registries,  
710 specimen repositories and other resources to allow for the study of large numbers of people with well  
711 characterized phenotypes, with known exposures to environmental risk factors and known genetic risk  
712 factors, to assess gene-environment interactions for more conditions. This Committee would also make  
713 specific recommendations on adding genetic studies to DNA repositories of subjects in investigations of  
714 environmental risk factors for disease (e.g., the Sister Study<sup>6</sup>) and add environmental studies to genetic  
715 investigations.<sup>7</sup> The activities of the Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee would expand on  
716 the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Genes, Environment and Health Initiative (GEI)<sup>8</sup> to include

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<sup>6</sup> See <http://www.sisterstudy.org>

<sup>7</sup> For example, see <http://www.genome.gov/gwastudies>

<sup>8</sup> See <http://www.genome.gov/19518663>

717 studies of international groups, those in military and civilian populations with unusually high toxic  
718 environmental exposures, rare diseases, and studies to understand genetic risk factors for adverse events  
719 to drugs and biologic agents (McKeown-Eyssen et al., 2004).

720  
721 Over the longer term, development of a prospective cohort study of genes and the environment will allow  
722 for the definition of gene-environment interactions in many common diseases (Collins, 2004).

723  
724 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Most common human diseases likely arise from a  
725 combination of genetic and environmental risk factors, which include lifestyle, occupation, exposure to  
726 environmental chemicals, the impact of social communities, and stress-related factors. The understanding  
727 of these interactions is critical to defining risk and focusing preventative measures at the individual level  
728 (Chakravarti & Little, 2003). The familial nature of many complex diseases suggests an underlying  
729 genetic susceptibility. At the same time, factors outside the genome, such as environmental exposures and  
730 epigenetic influences, can also be important.

731  
732 The current scientific view is that virtually all health conditions will reveal evidence of interactions  
733 between genes and the environment (GxE) if studied in adequate detail. However, these data are often not  
734 available for adequate numbers of individuals for most diseases. Evidence of statistical interactions  
735 between genetic and environmental risk factors is often used as evidence for the existence of an  
736 underlying mechanistic interaction. GxE interactions may be additive or multiplicative or they may be  
737 negative (or antagonistic) when protective genes or protective environmental exposures interact (Clayton  
738 & McKeigue, 2001).

739  
740 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Define additional GxE interactions that lead to disease, as well as  
741 those that are protective for disease, to enhance understanding of molecular pathogenic mechanisms,  
742 increase the safety of drugs, and prevent illness by reducing environmental exposure in genetically  
743 susceptible individuals when possible, or if not, by developing gene therapies or other treatments which  
744 compensate for genetic inadequacies in xenobiotic metabolism (Breton et al., 2007; Wan & Diaz-  
745 Sanchez, 2007).

746  
747 Important products of this initiative would be estimates of the specific risk of developing a number of  
748 diseases by individuals with different genotypes after exposure to a wide range of common environmental  
749 factors. Initially the focus would be on environmental risk factors with high associations with particular  
750 diseases that have known genetic risk factors. When possible, environmental and genetic protective  
751 factors would also be studied along with their interactions to allow for informed exposure decisions by  
752 many individuals with varying genotypes and the development of new therapies.

- 753  
754 1. Lists of new GxE associations with diseases or phenotypes would be annually compiled and curated  
755 into an interactive and searchable website.  
756  
757 2. Studies would be undertaken that would seek to demonstrate how altering environmental exposures in  
758 genetically susceptible individuals would decrease disease incidence over time.

759  
760 The Gene-Environment Interaction Steering Committee could include U.S. and international  
761 representatives from NIH, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, U.S Food and Drug  
762 Administration, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Department of Defense, clinicians trained in  
763 environmental exposure and genomic interpretation, pharmaceutical companies and academic centers to  
764 coordinate and facilitate the proposed action items, develop needed resources and assess the outcomes of  
765 the initiatives.

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

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

In the next year:

- 1) Investigate the feasibility of incorporating a scalable, validated and reportable statistical tool, such as the published Quick Environmental Exposure and Sensitivity Inventory (QEESI) instrument into Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)/Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) exposure and community investigations (Miller & Prihoda, 1999).<sup>9</sup>
- 2) Create an interdisciplinary group to develop and implement research on chemical intolerance. This could include CDC/ATSDR, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), National Institutes of Health (NIH)/National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS), National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the public, and practitioners, as a first step toward establishing an NIH office/department/branch focusing on environmental medicine.
- 3) Assemble an Environmental Medical Unit (EMU) planning group that includes physicians experienced in the practice of “exposure medicine,” as a prelude to implementing an EMU.
- 4) Encourage federal agency support of investigations that include the impact of individual choices (e.g., consumer product selection, diet, etc.) on personal exposures and individuals’ health.

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

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

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

Interdisciplinary research that integrates exposure science and medicine is lacking. There are no appropriate research facilities in the U.S. for the controlled investigation of physiological responses to low-level chemical exposures. Known as EMUs, these research facilities have been a priority recommendation from multiple professional and scientific meetings for more than a decade and are considered critical to advancing our understanding of individual susceptibility (Ashford & Miller, 1998; Association of Occupational and Environmental Clinics, 1992; Miller et al., 1997; National Research Council, 1992). An EMU is an inpatient hospital facility designed to reduce exposures by all routes, in

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<sup>9</sup> See <http://www.chemicalexposures.org>

813 order to allow patients to achieve a “clean” baseline, or “unmasked state.” Researchers can determine the  
814 extent to which illness improves with avoidance of potential environmental triggers, and conduct double-  
815 blind, placebo-controlled challenges using every day, low-level exposures in the absence of background  
816 chemical “noise.”

817

818 *Desired outcomes and implementation:*

- 819 • A better understanding of individual susceptibility, e.g., children, the aged, and the health  
820 compromised, and how it could improve our understanding of community susceptibility.
- 821 • A unifying explanation/theory/mechanism of disease, TILT is the distillation of world-wide  
822 observations of exposed groups and individuals who develop intolerances following well-  
823 documented exposures (Ashford & Miller, 1998). TILT provides a framework for basic and  
824 translational research on individual susceptibility which may yield targets for prevention and  
825 treatment. These results, obtained through working with chemically-intolerant individuals,  
826 including priority groups such as veterans suffering from Gulf War Illness, have the potential to  
827 benefit groups with more common conditions such as asthma, autoimmune diseases, and  
828 neuropsychological disturbances that may share the same underlying mechanism.

829

830 Establish prevalence and incidence of chemical intolerance in exposed and unexposed groups and  
831 individuals and pre- and post-illness by assessing symptoms and intolerances at baseline and at serial  
832 points following exposures. Identify individual risk factors for susceptibility. Foster collaboration toward  
833 interdisciplinary research, including epidemiological, clinical, and animal studies, on individual  
834 susceptibility among relevant governmental agencies. Plan, create, and sustain vanguard research  
835 facilities based in hospitals and clinics for the systematic investigation of individual differences in  
836 response to chemical and mold exposures.

837

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

841

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

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849

### 850 **C. Recommendations to improve the effectiveness of the scientific methods used by ATSDR and** 851 **other public health agencies to investigate public health impacts in communities and to increase** 852 **community involvement in scientific research and decision making**

853

854 *Recommendation 8. Conduct research to identify the limitations, and evaluate the effectiveness, of the*  
855 *scientific methods used by ATSDR and other public health agencies to investigate the public health*  
856 *impacts of community-wide exposures to toxic substances and to improve the science and public health*  
857 *relevance of ATSDR’s Public Health Assessment process, epidemiological studies, disease cluster*  
858 *investigations, and exposure investigations.*

859

860 *Recommended actions:* Improve the methods used to investigate the public health impacts of community-  
861 wide exposures to toxic substances by establishing an independent review panel to evaluate existing  
862 approaches and to identify improved approaches. ATSDR should then adopt these approaches. Specific  
863 recommended actions include:

864  
865 In the near term (within 6 months), an independent panel should be established by ATSDR to review the  
866 methods used by ATSDR and other public health agencies to investigate the public health impacts of  
867 community-wide exposures to toxic substances. The panel would be comprised of agency staff,  
868 researchers, residents from affected communities, and representatives from environmental and public  
869 health non-governmental organizations and would examine why existing approaches – Public Health  
870 Assessments (PHAs), Health Consultations (HCs), Exposure Investigations (EIs), epidemiological  
871 studies, disease cluster investigations – may not have worked. Within another 12 to 18 months, the panel  
872 would identify and report on case studies of effective “best practices” for assessing exposures and health  
873 effects in community-wide settings and for conducting epidemiological studies and disease cluster  
874 investigations. In the long term, as better procedures are identified, these best practices should be piloted  
875 and incorporated into the PHA Guidance Manual. A new protocol for disease cluster investigations  
876 should also be developed which could take another 12 months. Finally, ATSDR staff and cooperative  
877 agreement partners in state health departments should receive training and support in implementing these  
878 best practices and in mechanisms for community involvement including sensitivity training.  
879

880 The strengths of this approach are a collaborative process, transparency of government actions, gaining  
881 community trust for government actions, and improving the scientific integrity and relevance of results.  
882 The weaknesses are the time and infrastructure changes needed to revise approaches used for decades.  
883

884 *Current status of issue under consideration:* ATSDR conducts PHAs and HCs, EIs, health studies, and  
885 disease cluster investigations in response to requests from the public and from state and tribal agencies.  
886 The objectives of the PHAs and HCs are primarily (1) to determine whether people have been, and/or are  
887 currently exposed to toxic substances and (2) to assess the likelihood of current and/or future adverse  
888 health effects from these exposures. PHAs and HCs may recommend further work, such as EIs or  
889 epidemiological studies to assess exposures and adverse health effects. In addition, ATSDR and other  
890 public health agencies are often asked to conduct disease cluster investigations because of community  
891 concerns about high rates of health problems, such as childhood or adult cancers and birth defects.  
892 Community groups across the country have criticized the lack of scientific rigor and effectiveness of  
893 PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations conducted by ATSDR and  
894 other public health agencies, in particular charging that these investigations and studies — lack the ability  
895 to properly attribute illness to toxic exposures, and the methodologies used [by ATSDR] to identify  
896 suspected environmental exposures to hazardous chemicals are doomed from the start” (Majority Staff of  
897 the Subcommittee on Investigations and Oversight of the Committee on Science and Technology, 2009).  
898

899 The major scientific issue with these investigations is the limited capacity of the methods used to evaluate  
900 the public health impacts of community-wide exposures to toxic substances. Methodological limitations  
901 include reliance on already-collected data that are insufficient to characterize exposures or assess health  
902 outcome rates, failure to adequately assess past exposures, uncertainty concerning the level of exposure  
903 that may result in adverse health effects, inadequate accounting of cumulative health risks from multiple  
904 exposures, inadequate accounting of variability in susceptibility, and over-reliance on a risk number to  
905 determine the safety of exposures without taking into account the uncertainties in the risk number.  
906 Disease cluster investigations and epidemiological studies are limited by methodological problems such  
907 as exposure and disease misclassification biases, selection bias, possible confounding bias, lack of  
908 statistical power, lack of specific hypotheses, and sparse background toxicological and epidemiological  
909 data. Research is needed to identify new methods to address exposure and health concerns of  
910 communities as well as to improve existing methods for conducting these investigations. The result of this  
911 research will provide the scientific basis for adopting new methodologies and improving existing  
912 methodologies for assessing health risks in communities.  
913

914 The major policy issue with these investigations is the lack of community involvement at the “ground-  
915 floor” of these activities, including the planning, design, problem-formulation, scoping and conduction of  
916 the investigation or study. This lack of community involvement severely limits the focus and relevance of  
917 these activities. Additional policy issues limiting the focus and relevance of PHAs and HCs include rigid  
918 adherence (“one size fits all”) to the PHA guidance manual, lack of necessary expertise among those  
919 carrying out the investigations, lack of a “life-cycle” approach involving revised assessments as new  
920 information becomes available, and lack of transparency. Moreover, PHAs, HCs, and EIs usually lack  
921 external peer review.

922  
923 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* ATSDR would establish an independent panel of researchers,  
924 residents from affected communities, and representatives from environmental and public health non-  
925 governmental organizations to review the methods used by ATSDR and other public health agencies to  
926 investigate the public health impacts of community-wide exposures to toxic substances. This process  
927 would result in the following outcomes:

- 928  
929 1) Best practices for investigating health problems in communities would be identified and adopted  
930 improving the way PHAs, HCs, cluster investigations and health studies are conducted by ATSDR  
931 and other health agencies.  
932  
933 2) Public confidence in how ATSDR and other health agencies conduct PHAs, HCs, cluster  
934 investigations and health studies would be improved.  
935  
936 3) The guidance manual for conducting PHAs would be revised and a new protocol for conducting  
937 diseases cluster investigations would be adopted.  
938  
939 4) There would be greater involvement of affected communities in determining the direction and focus  
940 of environmental health investigations conducted by ATSDR and other health agencies.

941  
942 Some exemplary PHAs, HCs, EIs, epidemiological studies and disease cluster investigations should be  
943 highlighted and examined as potential role models, and the lessons learned from these investigations  
944 should be presented in a report by the independent panel. The lessons learned from model PHAs and HCs  
945 should be incorporated into a revised PHA Guidance Manual. An activity’s appropriateness for the  
946 specific site situation should be taken into account, i.e., the specific site situation should determine which,  
947 if any, “tools” (e.g., EI, health study, cluster investigation, etc.) should be recommended by the PHA.

948  
949 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/ATSDR, state and local health departments, state and tribal  
950 health agencies, residents from affected communities, representatives from environmental and health non-  
951 governmental organizations, and citizen groups concerned about shortcomings of past health  
952 investigations should implement this recommendation.

953  
954  
955 **D. Recommendations to develop the scientific knowledge needed for decision making to improve**  
956 **public health protection**

957  
958 *Recommendation 9. Develop scientific criteria for the application of the precautionary approach, in*  
959 *order to better protect human health and the environment.*

960  
961 *Recommended actions:* Advancements in scientific understanding will assist in the successful  
962 implementation of the precautionary approach. Priority actions include

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

973 In the near term, examples of scientific data sets could be developed to show how a broader spectrum of  
974 scientific information can be integrated into a precautionary approach. It also will be important to develop  
975 a comprehensive list of what types of additional data can be helpful in understanding the existence of a  
976 threat. Over a longer term, comprehensive examples of how a precautionary approach could assist in  
977 decision making will be needed.  
978

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

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

997 *Current status of issue under consideration:* The precautionary approach is a decision and policy making  
998 tool which employs scientific rigor and encourages a common-sense approach in the absence of full  
999 scientific certainty. The most widely used definition of the precautionary approach comes from the  
1000 Wingspread Statement on the Precautionary Principle which states that "When an activity raises threats of  
1001 harm to human health or the environment, precautionary measures should be taken even if some cause  
1002 and effect relationships are not fully established scientifically" (Wingspread Conference on the  
1003 Precautionary Principle, 1998).<sup>10</sup> This approach is increasingly becoming an important component of  
1004 public policy decision making worldwide (Martuzzi, 2007), in part because of concerns about the  
1005 limitations and uncertainties associated with current risk management (RM) approaches that rely  
1006 primarily on traditional quantitative risk assessment (RA) (O'Brien, 2000; Tickner, 2007).

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<sup>10</sup>Please see [www.sehn.org/precaution.html](http://www.sehn.org/precaution.html) for additional definitions and resource information on the precautionary principle.

1007  
1008 While RA can be effective in evaluating a single chemical exposure, the ability to evaluate an individual's  
1009 or community's exposure to a complex mixture of substances, as well as multiple exposures and multiple  
1010 exposure pathways is extremely difficult due the lack of complete data and the methods to put all the  
1011 information together. The RA-RM approach requires environmental improvements to be made when a  
1012 prescribed level of risk is exceeded. This process often places the burden of proof of harm on regulatory  
1013 agencies or affected communities.

1014  
1015 Under a RA paradigm, a lack of toxicity data is often misunderstood as evidence of safety (Thornton,  
1016 2000). In contrast, a precautionary approach can shift the burden of proof such that the proponents of a  
1017 product or project need to show that a chemical will not make the existing situation worse and that a new  
1018 chemical may actually provide benefits in the context of having considered all reasonable alternatives.  
1019 Stated another way, the RA-RM paradigm seeks to define how much risk is acceptable while the  
1020 precautionary approach seeks to determine how much exposure can reasonably be avoided. The  
1021 precautionary approach also asks the —why questions — “Why do we need this? Can we do without it?  
1022 What is the purpose and are there other, safer (less harmful) and more efficient ways to accomplish the  
1023 same purpose? What are the values and preferences of those who will be affected, and how can the  
1024 consequences of decisions be monitored?” Because the questions asked are different, some of the  
1025 scientific information and analytical methods to support the precautionary approach also differ. Lastly, a  
1026 precautionary approach engages the people who are directly affected by a decision in an extensive public  
1027 process.

1028  
1029 The precautionary approach strives to integrate all available scientific and other relevant information into  
1030 an understanding of the threat of harm. The information may be quantitative, qualitative or semi-  
1031 quantitative. Examples of information include animal and *in vitro* studies; epidemiological studies;  
1032 biomonitoring; disease registries; community knowledge; air monitoring data; scientific tools to  
1033 determine chemical similarities, such as structure-activity relationships; physical and chemical properties,  
1034 such as persistence, bioaccumulation, and reactivity; toxic chemical release inventories; physician-  
1035 submitted illness reports, such as pesticide exposures and workers' compensation claims; behavioral  
1036 science or psychiatric studies for non-chemical stressors; harm to non-human species; environmental or  
1037 ecological studies or indicators; land use information; other surveillance data such as noise; comparison  
1038 with historical instances; sensitivity and vulnerability of potentially exposed populations; and non-  
1039 chemical stressors that should be considered in the evaluation. The conclusions drawn in the  
1040 precautionary approach are not merely deductive, but can also be based on inference. (Kriebel et al.,  
1041 2001; Smith, 2000).

1042  
1043 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Successful implementation of a precautionary approach, with  
1044 resulting improvements to public health protection, requires establishment of a strong scientific approach  
1045 to determining when to use this approach and with what data, analytical methods, and criteria. This is  
1046 expected to result in a broader spectrum of scientific data being considered in environmental and public  
1047 health decision making, greater protection of public health and the environment from exposures to toxic  
1048 chemicals, and a public that is an informed partner in decision making.

1049  
1050 Precautionary approaches can become part of the environmental decision making process. As a baseline  
1051 evaluation it will be important to identify what current environmental decisions were based on the  
1052 precautionary approach or a RA-RM approach. Future environmental decisions could be based on a  
1053 precautionary or RA-RM approach. The scientific basis for each decision should be summarized,  
1054 evaluated, and maintained for future reference.

1055  
1056 U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Agency for Toxic  
1057 Substances and Disease Registry, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, state and local

1058 health and environmental protection agencies, and representatives from environmental and health non-  
1059 governmental organizations are potential actors that should consider implementing this recommendation.

1060  
1061 ***Recommendation 10. Develop standard, scientific protocols for alternatives assessment to support their***  
1062 ***use to promote the development of safer chemicals and products.***

1063  
1064 *Recommended actions:* Advancements in scientific understanding will assist in conducting sound  
1065 alternatives assessments. Priority actions include:

- 1066 1) Evaluate existing methodologies and frameworks for conducting alternatives assessment in order to  
1067 identify key elements of alternatives assessment and to determine the best practices.
- 1068 2) Ranking chemicals that have been fairly well evaluated on the basis of toxicity, use, and exposure. To  
1069 do so, it would be important to establish an initial list of toxicological properties, uses, and exposures  
1070 of concern and to identify chemicals with those known characteristics. Short-term test methods and  
1071 chemical properties can indicate if chemicals may have the toxicological properties of concern. For  
1072 example, if the chemical is positive in many genotoxicity tests, but has not been tested for  
1073 carcinogenicity, there should be concern that the chemical is carcinogenic. If the chemical has not  
1074 been reported to exhibit that toxicity, indicate if it has been evaluated for it. Use and exposure  
1075 information can indicate if vulnerable sub-populations, e.g., children, the aged, and the health  
1076 compromised, are being exposed or if there are sub-populations with high exposures.
- 1077 3) Establishing scientific principles for identifying safer substitutes (i.e., how to know that a substitute  
1078 would be less toxic), including methods to address the lack of chemical toxicity data.
- 1079 4) Establishing a comprehensive database of chemicals, basic toxicities that are known or suspected, and  
1080 safer substitutes. Include consideration of designing out the need for a chemical of concern in a  
1081 product, rather than just substituting another chemical.

1082  
1083 In the near term, a number of methodologies and frameworks for evaluating and identifying safer  
1084 chemicals, materials, and products are under development and need refinement and standardization.  
1085 Washington State Department of Ecology; California Environmental Protection Agency; U.S.  
1086 Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Design for the Environment (DfE); Clean Production Action;  
1087 businesses such as HP, Apple and IBM; and other interested parties are working to create updated  
1088 alternative assessment methodologies. These efforts should be supported, coordinated, and financed to  
1089 develop standardized protocols.

1090  
1091 Subsequently, alternatives assessment (AA) needs to be integrated into the characterization of chemicals  
1092 used in commerce that are identified as potential hazards. AA for hazardous chemicals should be  
1093 conducted in parallel to further toxicological analysis and risk assessments (RAs), rather than only  
1094 considered once harm from a chemical has been confirmed. Scientific research is needed to understand  
1095 how to choose alternatives with the least likely hazards.

1096  
1097 *Current status of issues under consideration:* AA provides a systematic, public analysis of the options for  
1098 addressing a potentially damaging human activity or social arrangement (O'Brien, 2000). It is a necessary  
1099 element of a precautionary approach to managing the production, use, clean up and disposal of hazardous  
1100 and toxic chemicals. AA provides a means to consider attractive, feasible, and safer alternatives,  
1101 including no action, or designing around the need for a chemical which helps to overcome the gaps in  
1102 scientific knowledge and uncertainties associated with the use of RA to estimate public health and  
1103 environmental risks.

1104  
1105 Other approaches to environmental decision making such as life cycle analysis, health impact assessment  
1106 or AA, can be more effective in addressing chemical risks to human health and the environment. AA

1107 focuses more on solutions than problems, stimulates innovation and prevention and can be more efficient  
1108 at reducing multiple risks in the long term (EPA, 2003). The fundamental components of an AA include  
1109 the following steps: 1) Presentation of a full range of options, 2) Presentation of potential adverse effects  
1110 of each option, and 3) Presentation of the potential beneficial effects of each option (O'Brien, 2000).

1111  
1112 The Lowell Center for Sustainable Production found that AA would be more effective in addressing  
1113 environmental problems and has developed an Alternatives Assessment Framework that consists of three  
1114 core elements: AA foundation, AA processes, and AA evaluation modules. To establish the foundation  
1115 for AA, guiding principles such as prevention, precaution, substitution and life cycle perspective, along  
1116 with the scientific information and analyses to support them, are needed. The shift to an AA approach will  
1117 require the development of scientific methods to identify and assess the effectiveness of strategies to  
1118 reduce risk. An improved risk assessment process that follows the recommendations of the National  
1119 Research Council's 2009 report *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment* should be an integral  
1120 part of this AA process. The current RA-RM paradigm focuses on reducing exposures through controls of  
1121 current processes. The AA approach suggests rethinking the current processes.

1122  
1123 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Establishment of strong scientific principles and strategies to  
1124 implement alternatives analysis, along with bringing new scientific information to bear on environmental  
1125 decision making processes, will result in environmental and public health decisions that provide greater  
1126 protection of public health and the environment from exposures to toxic chemicals than are provided by  
1127 current regulatory approaches.

1128  
1129 AA would become an important component of decision making. Improved RA methods could be used  
1130 most effectively in a comparative scenario, comparing various alternatives and giving decision makers a  
1131 more upstream prevention tool and industry clearer expectations and incentives to produce safer products.  
1132 One example of an AA approach is the Lowell Center AA Framework, which is designed to evaluate and  
1133 identify environmentally and socially preferable alternatives. "Alternatives encompass production  
1134 processes, chemicals, materials, products, economic systems (such as transportation systems), and  
1135 functions, as well as eliminating the need for a current activity or the function of a product."<sup>11</sup> Benefits  
1136 include "focusing on solutions rather than problems...stimulating innovation and prevention...and multi-  
1137 risk reduction." [Note: The Green Chemistry Principles<sup>12</sup> may also be consistent with this  
1138 recommendation.]

1139  
1140 A website to host AAs would provide an opportunity to share the information and invite input. Milestones  
1141 for establishing databases of information for the public and industry on the toxicity of chemicals and safer  
1142 substitutes will need to be developed.

1143  
1144 The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry; EPA; U.S. Food and Drug Administration;  
1145 Consumer Product Safety Commission; Washington State Department of Ecology; California  
1146 Environmental Protection Agency; Department of Energy; Clean Product Action; businesses such as HP,  
1147 Apple, and IBM; and representatives from environmental and health non-governmental organizations  
1148 should all consider implementing this recommendation.

1149  
1150 ***Recommendation 11. Improve and adapt the procedures for conducting quantitative risk assessment so***  
1151 ***that it is compatible with and integrated within an overarching precautionary paradigm for decision***  
1152 ***making, as well as for other decision making paradigms for regulating toxic substances and protecting***  
1153 ***public health.***

1154

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<sup>11</sup> See <http://www.chemicalspolicy.org/downloads/FinalAltsAssess06.pdf>

<sup>12</sup> See <http://www.epa.gov/gcc/pubs/principles.html>

1155 The enhancements recommended by the NRC's *Science and Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*  
1156 report should be implemented by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and other agencies  
1157 responsible for risk assessment. These efforts should be undertaken in the context of an open, multi-  
1158 stakeholder dialogue that addresses public and private sector methods for making decisions using  
1159 information on risks, including but not limited to how the elements of a precautionary approach can be  
1160 taken into account. Guidance documents on risk assessment also should be revised as soon as possible. If  
1161 necessary, risk assessment staff should receive training in order to implement the revised methodologies,  
1162 including training on how to work effectively and compassionately with exposed communities. NRC  
1163 recommendations for more stakeholder involvement, especially the involvement (at the "ground floor"  
1164 and throughout the risk assessment process) of members of exposed communities, should be implemented  
1165 as soon as possible. Research should also focus on improving existing scientific tools and/or developing  
1166 new scientific tools that are necessary to complement the risk assessment tool in addressing the  
1167 anticipated enormous quantities of data and testing expected to result from REACH and the anticipated  
1168 revision of the Toxic Substances Control Act.

1169  
1170 *Current status of issues under consideration:* A growing number of people from multiple sectors and  
1171 perspectives have begun to seek more protection from exposure to toxic chemicals than provided by the  
1172 traditional risk assessment approach which has many limitations and uncertainties. Improved risk  
1173 assessment can play a role in implementing a precautionary approach as well as in other scientific  
1174 methods in decision making. Information collected as part of a quantitative risk assessment can be useful  
1175 when considering exposure and adverse health information, however, the context within which it is used  
1176 can be improved. Toward this end, it would be useful to improve the uncertainties and limitations of risk  
1177 assessment, as proposed by the National Research Council in 2009 in their publication *Science and*  
1178 *Decisions: Advancing Risk Assessment*. The NRC report acknowledged that risk assessment is "at a  
1179 crossroads" and that "its credibility is being challenged." The report made a number of recommendations  
1180 that focused on improving the methodology of risk assessments (e.g., thorough evaluation and  
1181 communication of uncertainties and variability, unified dose-response approach to cancer and non-cancer  
1182 endpoints, broadening the assessment of cumulative and interacting health risks and stressors), and  
1183 improving the relevance or utility of risk assessments for decision making (e.g., involving all stakeholders  
1184 at the earliest stage of the planning, design and scoping of the risk assessment, and increasing the  
1185 transparency of the assessment methods and process).

1186  
1187 More broadly, the report recommended two major shifts. First, its authors stated "that risk assessment  
1188 should be viewed as a method for evaluating the relative merits of various options for managing risk,"  
1189 with the risk management questions being "clearly posed, through careful evaluation of the options  
1190 available to manage environmental problems at hand, similar to what is done in ecologic risk  
1191 assessment," casting light on "a wider range of decision options than has traditionally been the case." This  
1192 is consistent with placing risk assessments within the context of alternatives assessment and viewing the  
1193 results of risk assessments not as absolute risks, but as risks that can be compared and ranked against each  
1194 other. Second, the NRC recommends closely aligning technical analyses with the problem at hand so that  
1195 the risk assessment will be relevant to the needs of the decision makers and stakeholders who are  
1196 addressing the problem. In other words, a "one-size fits all" approach to risk assessment will not be  
1197 appropriate for such very different problems as regulating a chemical and deciding on a site remediation  
1198 approach.

1199  
1200 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Adoption of the recommendations in the NRC report should  
1201 improve risk assessment as a tool for the systematization of the relevant scientific knowledge concerning  
1202 the hazards, contamination levels and population exposures, dose-response relationships, and cumulative  
1203 risks (exposures from multiple pathways, complex mixtures, multiple stressors, and factors affecting  
1204 vulnerability, e.g., children, the aged, and the health compromised), of the environmental problem at hand  
1205 (e.g., regulation of a chemical or remediation of a site), as well as the evaluation of a wide range of

1206 alternative options (e.g., inherently safer approaches or technologies). Including this information in an  
1207 alternatives assessment will enhance the choices available to decision makers. EPA has stated its  
1208 commitment to implement the framework presented in the NRC Report *Toxicity-Pathway-Based Risk*  
1209 *Assessment: Preparing for Paradigm Change. A Symposium Summary* (2010).

1210  
1211 A monitoring group should be established to track the experiences in communities where improved  
1212 quantitative risk assessments are used in the context of a precautionary approach, as well as in the context  
1213 of other decision making paradigms. Issues to be tracked should include improvements in community  
1214 health, reductions in use of toxic chemicals, and the procedures used in switching to the new approach.

1215  
1216 Potential actors include EPA and other regulatory agencies at the federal, tribal, state, and local levels,  
1217 National Institute of Environmental Health Science, National Toxicology Program, representatives of  
1218 community and national groups, the regulated community, and the scientific community, especially the  
1219 scientists who contributed to the two NRC Reports cited.

1220

1221 ***Recommendation 12: Evaluate short- and long-term effectiveness of containment and institutional***  
1222 ***controls at Superfund, Brownfields and Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) sites.***

1223

1224 *Recommended actions:* A research project should assess successes and failures at National Priorities List  
1225 (NPL) sites that have containment and institutional controls as their primary remedy. Research studies  
1226 should begin as soon as possible by U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and/or Agency for  
1227 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) or an independent oversight organization. This research  
1228 should document the effectiveness of these measures and determine if health impacts to the communities  
1229 have occurred. The studies should document any health problems that can be linked to the failures. The  
1230 costs of remediation and repairs should also be reported. At all sites, members of the affected community  
1231 should be involved in designing and carrying out the research.

1232

1233 *Current status of issues under consideration:* Communities are often placed at risk when the remedies  
1234 selected to protect them from toxic contamination include physical containment such as fences and caps  
1235 or institutional controls such as deed restrictions and covenants. Reports done by the U.S. Government  
1236 Accountability Office (GAO, 2005b), Resources for the Future (Oversight Hearing on the Superfund  
1237 Program, 2006), and the Environmental Law Institute (Pendergrass & Probst, 2005) have documented  
1238 that these remedies often fail. An understanding of the consequences of such failures, how public health  
1239 may have been affected, and the costs of repair could help inform more effective and permanent  
1240 treatments as a remedy.

1241

1242 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* The aspirational goal is to determine the full cost (i.e.,  
1243 engineering and public health) of remedial actions at Superfund sites, specifically sites that did not treat  
1244 or remove waste. The expected outcome of this recommendation is to document the health impacts in  
1245 communities which have NPL sites at which waste has not been treated or removed. If health impacts can  
1246 be documented, it will strengthen efforts to require permanent treatment at Superfund sites.

1247

1248 Permanent treatment will be more protective of public health and the environment, as well as more cost  
1249 effective in the long run. There is also potential for creating well paying jobs. Such an approach would  
1250 have several advantages: (1) contaminants would be removed from the basin environment and the  
1251 potential for recontamination eliminated, (2) the net cleanup costs would be reduced by the value of the  
1252 recovered minerals, and (3) such an approach would be one of the few options that would satisfy the  
1253 preference in CERCLA for remedies that reduce the toxicity of the wastes.

1254

1255 EPA, ATSDR or an independent oversight organization should initiate a team to assess NPL Records of  
1256 Decision (ROD) in which remedies included containment and institutional controls and assess the

1257 effectiveness of these remedies. ATSDR could simultaneously initiate assessments in these communities  
1258 to determine reported or documented health impacts. This information should be made available to the  
1259 public and to others who track the effectiveness of toxic waste clean-ups.

1260  
1261 EPA, state governments co-managing Superfund sites, independent government oversight entities such as  
1262 the Government Accountability Office, tribal nations, Indian Health Service and state health departments  
1263 are potential actors and should implement this recommendation.

1264  
1265 While this recommendation intentionally focuses on the effectiveness of institutional controls at  
1266 Superfund, Brownfields, and RCRA sites as a high priority, it is also appropriate to generalize this  
1267 recommendation to studying the short- and long-term effectiveness of all policies and practices intended  
1268 to reduce chemical exposures and thereby promote public health.

1269  
1270 ***Recommendation 13. Develop standard protocols and tools to characterize potential human exposures***  
1271 ***to chemicals across the life cycle of chemical products and processes, and across the human life stages.***

1272  
1273 *Recommended Actions:* Scientists in all sectors need foundational information and tools to understand the  
1274 impact of chemicals on humans and ecosystems. This includes access to databases, standard protocols,  
1275 and assessment tools that measure or predict human exposures to existing and new chemicals and their  
1276 transformation products. These protocols and assessment tools should address chemical exposures across  
1277 the life cycle of chemical products and processes, as well as interactions with other chemicals and  
1278 substances, transformation, transportation, fate in the environment, potential for human exposures,  
1279 especially in sensitive subpopulations, e.g., children, the aged, and the health compromised, and uptake or  
1280 absorption by multiple exposure pathways. Tools should also identify alternatives for chemical and  
1281 product use as well as novel approaches, which, when linked with green chemistry, can be used to  
1282 minimize risks and promote sustainable chemical use.

1283  
1284 In order to efficiently and effectively address chemical risks, exposure tools must be developed and  
1285 incorporated into integrated evaluation strategies that use tiered approaches ranging from screening-level  
1286 to the most complex assessments. Within these strategies, exposure and toxicity information must be fully  
1287 integrated in a way that directly informs well-defined public health decisions, including risk-management  
1288 approaches.

1289  
1290 Exposure information and tools are needed in several critical areas. For example, models are needed to  
1291 screen chemicals based on exposure. Exposure, dose-response, and biological pathway models must be  
1292 incorporated into a systems framework for understanding risk. Advanced computational approaches are  
1293 required to estimate dose and exposure using biomonitoring data. Monitoring methods are needed that  
1294 easily measure exposure and internal dose of parent compound and metabolites. Internal dose at the target  
1295 tissue may not be reflected in biological fluids. Thus, opportunities to determine internal dose at the target  
1296 tissue or tissue dosimetry should be maximized. This could include evaluation of medical samples such as  
1297 biopsy tissue, surgically obtained tissue, cerebral spinal fluid or autopsy tissue. Finally, novel methods for  
1298 collecting information on chemical use, human activities, and human decisions must be developed and the  
1299 resulting information incorporated into easily accessible knowledge bases.

1300  
1301 Combined with green chemistry and an array of computational approaches, exposure research offers an  
1302 opportunity to maximize chemical benefits—by design—while minimizing chemical risks.

1303  
1304 *Current status of issue under consideration:* According to the Environmental Protection Agency,  
1305 there are over 84,000 chemical substances listed on the TSCA Chemical Substance Inventory

1306 (EPA, 2010a). Of these, although there are significantly fewer for which there is a concern for  
1307 population exposure, only a small fraction has been assessed adequately for potential risks.  
1308

1309 One of the greatest challenges is how to screen chemicals for potential risks so that time and resources  
1310 can be devoted to the chemicals of greatest concern. Existing chemical testing and exposure measurement  
1311 protocols are expensive and time consuming (Anastas, Teichman, & Cohen Hubal, 2010). While these  
1312 testing protocols were designed for hazard identification the current demands for information on subtle  
1313 effects of long-term low dose exposure requires a re-evaluation of the screening and hazard identification  
1314 approaches currently in use. Creative advances in exposure science are needed to effectively evaluate,  
1315 prevent, and manage chemical risks and research is underway to identify and address gaps in required  
1316 exposure information to meet this challenge (Sheldon & Cohen Hubal, 2009).  
1317

1318 For example, researchers have developed tools to predict the inherent properties of chemicals. Research  
1319 will be directed toward using information on these properties to inform product use, exposure, and  
1320 chemical substitution. Interest also lies in developing improved tools to more accurately measure  
1321 exposures. EPA recently implemented its ExpoCast program, which aims to develop novel approaches  
1322 and metrics to efficiently screen and evaluate chemicals on the basis of biologically relevant human  
1323 exposures (i.e., exposures that can be directly linked to key events leading to toxic response) (Cohen  
1324 Hubal, 2009). ExpoCast, combined with information from ToxCast—a battery of rapid screens being  
1325 studied to determine whether they can predict toxicity (Dix et al., 2007)—can be used in the screening  
1326 phase of integrated evaluation strategies. The critical component here is the aspect of biological relevance  
1327 with regards to exposure and to the underlying mechanisms of the toxic response. This integrated link is  
1328 critical for determining successful approaches for assessing exposures that lead to adverse human health  
1329 effects.  
1330

1331 As another example, exposure and dose models have been developed and linked as an approach for  
1332 addressing cumulative risks to pyrethroid pesticides. The longitudinal aspects of exposure models provide  
1333 the ability to estimate not only the magnitude but also the frequency and duration of exposure over the  
1334 same time period. When the exposure models are linked with dose models, the magnitude, frequency, and  
1335 duration of internal dose can be predicted for multiple chemicals simultaneously.  
1336

1337 Two recent activities have been undertaken by the National Academy of Sciences to address the need for  
1338 better tools and approaches for measuring, understanding and predicting exposures. In 2009, the NAS  
1339 initiated a project to develop a long-range vision for exposure science and a strategy to develop an  
1340 integrated approach to assess risk over the next twenty years. The same year, a workshop was convened,  
1341 titled “The Exposome: A Powerful Approach for Evaluating Environmental Exposures and their  
1342 Influences on Human Disease.” The term “exposome” has been defined to represent the long-held concept  
1343 that effects on health encompass the integration of all environmental exposures from conception onwards,  
1344 including exposures from chemicals, diet, lifestyle, and endogenous sources (Wild, 2005). The conference  
1345 highlighted available technologies for establishing methods and advancing this overall approach for  
1346 environmental exposure assessment and the impact on human health.<sup>13</sup>  
1347

1348 *Desired outcomes and implementation:* Accurate exposure information is critical for preventing,  
1349 minimizing, and managing risks associated with the manufacture and use of chemicals. Protocols and  
1350 tools to characterize exposure sources and the pathways of chemicals to unanticipated places are required  
1351 to provide information not only for direct assessment of human exposure but also to facilitate green  
1352 chemical and product design, safe use, and prevention of adverse health consequences to people and to  
1353 the environment. These efforts should include a systems-level understanding of how humans interact with  
1354 environmental chemicals so as to predict unintended consequences. Initially, this effort will require the

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<sup>13</sup> See <http://dels.nas.edu/envirohealth/exposome.shtml>

1355 collection and evaluation of detailed exposure measurement data on existing chemicals and the use of  
1356 these data to develop metrics that can be used to predict use and behavior of proposed and emerging  
1357 chemicals.

1358  
1359 Exposure surveillance is required to proactively identify potential risks from chemicals in commerce.  
1360 Chemicals show up in unexpected places long before their impact on health and the environment is  
1361 understood or evaluated. As we manufacture and release new chemicals, or existing substances are used  
1362 in new ways, we need to develop strategic exposure monitoring programs to provide an early indication  
1363 of a chemical's behavior in our homes, communities, and environment. For example, small-scale  
1364 biosensors should be developed to detect specific sets of environmental agents in air, water, and food, and  
1365 even in our bodies. This kind of surveillance can inform interventions to prevent or eliminate unexpected  
1366 sources of exposure prior to the identification of potential health consequences.

1367  
1368 Clear exposure information is required to make educated personal decisions. Good exposure information  
1369 on chemicals found in the products we use and in our communities enables us, as individuals, to make  
1370 educated decisions to protect our health and the environment. We need to provide publicly available and  
1371 accessible exposure information to empower individuals and communities to choose chemical-based  
1372 products and services that are safe and effective.

1373

1374

## 1375 **V. Conclusion**

1376

1377 People are exposed to myriad chemicals every day. While it is important to understand the impacts of  
1378 these chemicals throughout their life cycles and at different stages in human lives, government agencies  
1379 still lack critical information about both. In this report, the Scientific Understanding work group has  
1380 outlined its vision for expanding our knowledge about chemicals and health effects of exposures to them,  
1381 and calls for improved tools to accomplish this task.

1382

1383 The Scientific Understanding work group recommends taking action in four areas in order to help fill  
1384 critical gaps for decision makers. First, we must achieve a more complete understanding of chemicals and  
1385 their health effects. We must also gain a better understanding of individual susceptibility, community  
1386 vulnerability, and the impacts of low-dose, multiple, and cumulative chemical exposures. In order to  
1387 better respond to communities' needs, we must improve the effectiveness of the scientific methods used  
1388 by ATSDR and other public health agencies to investigate the public health impacts in communities, and  
1389 we must increase community engagement in scientific research and decision making. Finally, we must  
1390 develop the scientific knowledge needed for decision making to improve public health protection.

1391

1392 The Scientific Understanding work group hopes this report contributes to efforts to protect public health,  
1393 including children and others most vulnerable, from harmful chemical exposures.

1394

1395

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**Appendix A**  
**Work group membership<sup>14</sup>**

1665	
1666	
1667	
1668	<b>Leadership Team</b>
1669	Kevin Teichman, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, <i>Chair</i>
1670	Ed Murray, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, <i>Senior Liaison</i>
1671	
1672	<b>Members</b>
1673	George V. Alexeeff, California Environmental Protection Agency
1674	Cherri Baysinger, Missouri Department of Health and Senior Services
1675	Nancy Beck, Physicians Committee for Responsible Medicine
1676	Frank Bove, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
1677	Mark Buczek, Supresta – retired
1678	Doris Cellarius, community activist
1679	Bob Hamilton, Amway Corporation
1680	Susan Hanson, Shoshone-Bannock Tribe
1681	Gaylia Jean Harry, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
1682	Rebecca Head, Monroe County Health Department (MI)
1683	Wade Hill, Alliance of Nurses for Healthy Environments
1684	Jeffrey A. Jacobs, American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine
1685	Kristi Jacobs, Food and Drug Administration
1686	Stephen Lester, Center for Health, Environment and Justice
1687	Frederick Miller, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
1688	Claudia S. Miller, University of Texas Health Science Center at San Antonio
1689	Frank Mirer, Hunter College
1690	Lisa Nagy, The Preventive and Environmental Health Alliance
1691	Richard Niemeier, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
1692	Melissa Perry, Harvard University
1693	Stuart Schmitz, Iowa Department of Public Health
1694	Richard Sedlak, American Cleaning Institute
1695	Margaret Shield, Local Hazardous Waste Management Program in King County (WA)
1696	
1697	<b>Staff</b>
1698	Gail Bingham, RESOLVE, <i>Facilitator</i>
1699	Kim DeFeo, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention/Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease
1700	Registry, <i>Staff</i>
1701	

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<sup>14</sup> As noted in footnote 1, members were asked to participate as individuals, rather than on behalf of their organizations or constituencies. Consensus is defined as each member can “live with” the report taken as a whole, rather than as agreement with each recommendation.

1702 **Appendix B**  
1703 **Terms and Definitions**

1704  
1705 **Acceptable Risk-** the potential for suffering disease or injury that will be tolerated by an individual,  
1706 group, or society in exchange for the benefits of using a substance or process that will cause such disease  
1707 or injury. Acceptability of risk depends on scientific data, social, economic, and political factors, and on  
1708 the perceived benefits arising from a chemical or process that creates the risk in question.  
1709 (<http://www.mondofacto.com/facts/dictionary?acceptable+risk>)

1710  
1711 **Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR)** - the principal non-regulatory federal  
1712 public health agency responsible for addressing health effects associated with toxic exposures.

1713  
1714 From statement by Howard Frumkin, Director, National Center for Environmental Health/ Agency for  
1715 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, CDC on Scientific Oversight and Management of the Agency for  
1716 Toxic Substances and Disease Registry before Committee on Science and Technology Subcommittee on  
1717 Investigations and Oversight United States House of Representatives, March 12, 2009.  
1718 <http://www.hhs.gov/asl/testify/2009/03/t20090312a.html>

1719  
1720 **Bioaccumulation-** the accumulation of a substance in a living organism.  
1721 <http://www2.merriam-webster.com/cgi-bin/mwmednlm?book=Medical&va=bioaccumulation>

1722  
1723 **Biomagnification-** increase in concentration of a pollutant from one link in a food chain to another.

1724  
1725 **Biomonitoring-** the overall pollutant load and hazardous exposure of an organism is quantitatively  
1726 determined by monitoring the pollutants themselves, their metabolic products and/or conjugates with  
1727 protein or DNA, in either serum, urine or other body fluids, as well as tissue samples (hair and nails).  
1728 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2695300/>

1729  
1730 **Community-** a group or social class who lives together within a larger society or who share certain innate  
1731 personal characteristics (e.g., gender, race, or ethnicity) (IOM, 1995), health or disability status, or a  
1732 uniting common interest (HHS, n.d.), occupation, or belief.

1733  
1734 **Cumulative Risk-** the combined risks from aggregate exposures to multiple agents or stressors.  
1735 Framework for Cumulative Risk Assessment (EPA/630/P-02/001F). Risk Assessment Forum. U.S.  
1736 Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, May 2003  
1737 [http://oaspub.epa.gov/eims/eimscomm.getfile?p\\_download\\_id=36941](http://oaspub.epa.gov/eims/eimscomm.getfile?p_download_id=36941)

1738  
1739 **Cumulative Impacts-** exposures, public health or environmental effects from the combined emissions  
1740 and discharges in a geographic area, including environmental pollution from all sources, whether single or  
1741 multi-media, routinely, accidentally, or otherwise released. Impacts will take into account sensitive  
1742 populations and socio-economic factors, where applicable, and to the extent data are available.  
1743 <http://www.calepa.ca.gov/envjustice/ActionPlan/>

1744  
1745 **Environmental Medical Unit (EMU)-** a hospital suite comprised of environmentally controlled rooms  
1746 for studying chemical and food intolerances. Insofar as practical, an EMU would provide clean air, water  
1747 and food, allowing patients to avoid their usual background exposures for several days and return to a  
1748 –clean baseline.” Removing background chemical –noise” that can obscure or –mask” a person’s  
1749 responses to individual symptom triggers is necessary for performing double-blind, placebo-controlled  
1750 challenges. Research subjects would benefit by learning, comprehensively, which exposures they may  
1751 need to avoid.

1753  
1754 **Epigenetics-** the study of heritable changes in gene functions that do not entail a change in DNA  
1755 sequence (Dupont, Armant, & Brenner, 2009).  
1756  
1757 **Exposure Assessment-** an exposure assessment attempts to answer the following questions for a  
1758 particular substance or chemical: a) Who or what is exposed (e.g., people, ecosystems)? b) Does the  
1759 exposure occur through breathing air, drinking water, skin contact or any other routes? c) How much  
1760 exposure occurs? e) How often and for how long does exposure occur?  
1761 [www.epa.gov/oppt/exposure/pubs/exposurerep.htm](http://www.epa.gov/oppt/exposure/pubs/exposurerep.htm)  
1762  
1763 **Green Chemistry-** the utilization of a set of principles that reduces or eliminates the use or generation of  
1764 hazardous substances in the design, manufacture, and application of chemical products (Anastas &  
1765 Warner, 1998).  
1766  
1767 **Minimal Risk Level (MRL)-** an estimate of the daily human exposure to a hazardous substance that is  
1768 likely to be without appreciable risk of adverse noncancer health effects over a specified duration of  
1769 exposure. These substance specific estimates, which are intended to serve as screening levels, are used by  
1770 ATSDR health assessors and other responders to identify contaminants and potential health effects that  
1771 may be of concern at hazardous waste sites.  
1772 <http://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/mrls/>  
1773  
1774 **National Priorities List (NPL)-** The list of national priorities among the known releases or threatened  
1775 releases of hazardous substances, pollutants, or contaminants throughout the United States and its  
1776 territories. The NPL is intended primarily to guide the EPA in determining which sites warrant further  
1777 investigation. Also known as Superfund sites.  
1778 <http://www.epa.gov/superfund/sites/npl/>  
1779  
1780 **Public Health Prevention Hierarchy-**  
1781  
1782 **Primary Prevention-** the prevention of diseases and conditions before their biological onset.  
1783  
1784 **Secondary Prevention-** the identification and interdiction of diseases that are present in the  
1785 body, but that have not progressed to the point of causing signs, symptoms, and dysfunction.  
1786  
1787 **Tertiary Prevention-** the prevention of disease progression and attendant suffering after it is  
1788 clinically obvious and a diagnosis established. [www.enotes.com/public-health-encyclopedia](http://www.enotes.com/public-health-encyclopedia)  
1789  
1790 **Paradigm-** A set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitute a way of viewing reality  
1791 for the community that shares them, especially in an intellectual discipline. Since the 1960s, paradigm has  
1792 been used in science to refer to a theoretical framework.  
1793 <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/paradigm>  
1794  
1795 **Persistent organic pollutants (POPs)-** Toxic chemicals that adversely affect human health and the  
1796 environment around the world. Because they can be transported by wind and water, most POPs generated  
1797 in one country can and do affect people and wildlife far from where they are used and released. They  
1798 persist for long periods of time in the environment and can accumulate and pass from one species to the  
1799 next through the food chain.  
1800 <http://www.epa.gov/international/toxics/pop.htm#pops>  
1801  
1802 **Reference Dose/ Reference Concentration (RfD/RfC)-** An estimate (with uncertainty spanning perhaps  
1803 an order of magnitude) of a daily oral exposure/continuous inhalation exposure to the human population

1804 (including sensitive subgroups) that is likely to be without an appreciable risk of deleterious effects  
1805 during a lifetime. It can be derived from a no-observed-adverse-effect-level (NOAEL), lowest-observed-  
1806 adverse-effects-level (LOAEL), or benchmark dose, with uncertainty factors generally applied to reflect  
1807 limitations of the data used. RfD/RfCs are generally used in EPA's noncancer health assessments.  
1808 [Durations include acute, short-term, subchronic, and chronic].  
1809 [http://www.epa.gov/iris/help\\_gloss.htm#r](http://www.epa.gov/iris/help_gloss.htm#r)

1810  
1811 **Risk Assessment-** a scientific analysis that uses information about toxic substances to estimate potential  
1812 health risks for people who might be exposed to these substances. The four traditional steps of the risk  
1813 assessment process are:

- 1814
- 1815 1. Hazard Identification: The determination of whether a particular  
1816 chemical is or is not causally linked to particular health effects.
  - 1817 2. Exposure Assessment: The determination of the extent of human  
1818 exposure before or after application of regulatory controls.
  - 1819 3. Dose-Response: The determination of the relation between the  
1820 magnitude of exposure and the probability of occurrence of the  
1821 health effects in question.
  - 1822 4. Risk Characterization: The description of the nature and often the  
1823 magnitude of human risk, including attendant uncertainty.
- 1824

1825 Risk Assessment in the Federal Government: Managing the Process  
1826 <http://books.nap.edu/catalog/366.html>, p.3

1827  
1828 **Toxicant-induced Loss of Tolerance (TILT)-** a proposed general mechanism for a class of diseases  
1829 involving two stages: (1) *Induction*, the loss of former natural or native tolerance following acute, chronic  
1830 or repeated exposures (e.g., pesticides, solvents, combustion products), and (2) subsequent *triggering* of  
1831 symptoms by everyday exposures such as fragrances, cleaning chemicals, traffic exhaust, and foods that  
1832 did not cause problems for the person previously and do not bother most people. Those affected typically  
1833 report adverse responses to low levels of multiple, *structurally unrelated* substances, a feature  
1834 distinguishing TILT from usual toxicity or allergy. <http://www.chemical exposures.org>