

Chapter Two

Background

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I. The Endocrine System as it Relates to the Endocrine Disruptor Screening and Testing Program

The purposes of this section are: to provide a brief overview of the issue of endocrine disruption; to explain the scientific, regulatory, and societal concerns related to this issue; and to explain why the EPA created the Endocrine Disruptor Screening and Testing Advisory Committee (EDSTAC). The evidence for endocrine disruption as an ecological and/or public health issue was reviewed by EPA in a February 1997 report (U.S. EPA, 1997). The National Academy of Sciences is preparing a more definitive report on the scientific evidence for endocrine disruption at the request of the Agency, and should be available in late 1998. This section reflects the EDSTAC member's views on the science of the endocrine system as it is relevant to the design of a screening and testing program.

The endocrine system – also referred to as the hormone system – is made up of glands located throughout the body, hormones which are synthesized and secreted by the glands into the bloodstream, and receptors in the various target organs and tissues which recognize and respond to the hormones. The function of the system is to regulate a wide range of biological processes, including: control of blood sugar (through the hormone insulin from the pancreas); growth and function of reproductive systems (through the hormones testosterone and estrogen and related components from the testes and ovaries); regulation of metabolism (through the hormones cortisol from the adrenal glands, and thyroxin from the thyroid gland); development of the brain and the rest of the nervous system (estrogen and thyroid hormones); and development of an organism from conception through adulthood and old age. Normal functioning of the endocrine system, therefore, contributes to homeostasis (the body's ability to maintain itself in the presence of external and internal changes), and to the body's ability to control and regulate reproduction, development, and/or behavior. An endocrine system is found in nearly all animals, including mammals, non-mammalian vertebrates (e.g., fish, amphibians, reptiles, and birds), and invertebrates (e.g., snails, lobsters, insects, and other species). In humans, the system is comprised of more than 50 different hormones, and the complexity in other species would appear to be comparable.

There are four chemical classes of hormones: (1) steroids derived from cholesterol (e.g., the sex hormones estrogen and androgen); (2) amines synthesized from amino acids (e.g., tyrosine and histidine), giving rise to thyroid hormones and catecholamines (e.g., adrenalin and nonaldrenalin); (3) peptides and proteins consisting of chains of amino acids (e.g., growth hormone); and (4) eicosanoids which are derived from a 20-carbon fatty acid called arachidonic acid (e.g., prostaglandins and leukotrienes).

There also are three major classes of receptors to which hormones might bind: (1) receptors found on the surface of cells (to which the peptide hormones bind); (2) receptors found in the cytoplasm of cells (to which the steroid hormones bind); and (3) receptors found in the nuclei of cells (to which the thyroid hormones bind). There are two major mechanisms of hormone action: activation of plasma membrane receptors either via binding or catecholamines, peptides, or

protein hormones; and activation of intracellular receptors as illustrated in Figure 2.1. Steroid hormones and thyroid hormones operate in this latter manner.

A vast array of receptor proteins and genes are associated with the cells of the body. Cells may contain as many as 10,000 protein receptors for a single steroid hormone, and as many as 50 to 100 genes in a cell may be controlled by the binding of a single type of hormone to the various receptors in a cell. Also, some genes are affected by more than one receptor-hormone complex.

The focus of the EDSTAC is on identifying disruptors of estrogen, androgen, and thyroid hormones in terms of interference with their functioning by one or more of the following mechanisms of action:

- synthesis;
- release into the blood stream;
- transport and serum binding;
- cell receptors (at cell surface to allow entry into cell);
- nuclear receptors (receptor binding);
- signal transduction (which causes activation of a gene);
- transcription (to generate messenger RNA);
- translation (to generate proteins, e.g., enzymes, regulatory proteins, structural proteins, other receptors, etc.); and/or
- metabolism (in general, to form more polar metabolites by oxidation for urinary excretion, conjugation, activation/inactivation, etc.).

Below is a description of the biochemical events of a steroid (estrogen/androgen) hormone action, as depicted in Figure 2.1:

1. Estrogens and androgens (EA) are synthesized in the gonad (i.e., ovary or testis).
2. EA are secreted into the blood and transported in free form or bound to a transport protein (i.e., steroid hormone binding globulin [SHBG]). (As an aside, after EA binds to the SHBG, it cannot diffuse into the cell.)
3. Free EA diffuses passively, through the cell membrane, into the cytoplasm of the target cell and then,
4. through the nuclear membrane, into the nucleus which contains the genetic machinery and the EA receptors.
5. EA hormones bind to their receptor (R).
6. Two receptors, each bound to an EA hormone molecule, bind to one another forming a dimer. The receptor dimer binds to a protein transcription factor (TF). This entire complex then binds to a hormone response element (HRE) on a gene (Gene A).
7. Gene A is subsequently activated such that the DNA (Gene A) is transcribed and messenger ribonucleic acid (mRNA) is synthesized.
8. mRNA is transported out of the nucleus into the cytoplasm.

9. The mRNA is “translated,” by the ribosomes (r) and additional translational machinery, into protein A by linking together the amino acids (aa) specified by the mRNA code (which reflects the DNA, or gene A, code).
10. Protein A can be one of the following kinds of proteins, including, but not limited to, an enzyme, peptide hormone, hormone receptor, or growth factor.

Each of the steps listed above offers an opportunity for a substance to alter the way hormones exert control over the essential processes in an animal. There also are feedback systems in the body which control the actions of the hormones, increasing hormone production when the amount in the body is too low and decreasing production when the amount is too large. While in adult organisms, these control mechanisms may help to blunt mild to moderate fluctuations in hormone or hormone-like actions or stresses produced from the environment, feedback systems are less well-developed in developing organisms, making these organisms potentially more vulnerable. In addition, it is worth noting that changes in the endocrine system may take place at any point in time during the conception, development, birth, growth, and eventual reproduction of the organism or its parents. Such changes may appear as effects in the individual organism and/or in the population.

The following text box contains an example in more technical language that certain audiences may find helpful, describing how the estrogen, androgen, and thyroid hormone systems function.

***An Example of How Estrogen, Androgen, and
Thyroid Hormone Systems Function***

An excellent example of the process by which EAT hormone systems act is the neuroendocrine control of the development of the male reproductive system *in utero*, beginning at 4-6 weeks in humans and at the end of the second week (of three) of gestation in rodents. Initially in rodents (and presumably in humans), the indifferent gonads begin to differentiate into testes triggered by products from male-determining genes on the y chromosome (male determining chromosome in mammals). Within a few days in rodents, the hypothalamus in the brain begins to produce and secrete gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) which travels via the blood to the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland (just under the brain). In a receptor-mediated process, GnRH stimulates the production and secretion of two gonadotropins – luteinizing hormone (LH), and follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) – which travel via the blood to the developing testes. In the testes, in receptor-mediated processes, LH stimulates cells (Leydig cells) to produce testosterone, some of which is converted to dihydrotestosterone (DHT), in the fetal testis by the enzyme 5-alpha-reductase. Testosterone and DHT in receptor-mediated processes, within and outside the developing testis, induce the formation of male reproductive structures. FSH stimulates other cells in the testis (Sertoli cells) which act as “nurse cells” to the developing germ cells in the presence of high concentrations of testosterone. The same processes at puberty in males release FSH and LH which again act within and outside the testes, this time to initiate spermatogenesis (formation of sperm) and to trigger development of male secondary sex characteristics.

EPA originally charged the EDSTAC with designing a screening and testing program to identify substances and common mixtures capable of altering the way estrogen, androgen, and thyroid hormones exert control over the essential processes described above. As discussed in Section II of this chapter, the decision to create such a program was based both on requirements specified by the Food Quality Protection Act and the Safe Drinking Water Act, and on the EPA review of scientific evidence for the presence of endocrine disrupting substances in the environment.

Knowledge of the endocrine system has grown sufficiently for scientists to believe they can improve their methods of screening and testing chemical substances and mixtures for toxicity to the endocrine system. The EDSTAC believes it is important to acknowledge the rapidly evolving state-of-the-science surrounding the issue of endocrine disruption while, at the same time, recognizing there are still many unanswered questions yet to be resolved. (For additional information see the following references: Kavlock et al., 1996; Ankley et al., 1998; Colborn and Clement, 1992; Rolland et al., 1997; Kendall et al., 1998). Regardless of whether and how widespread endocrine disruption is at present, an important way to help protect human health and the environment against possible endocrine disruption, is to screen and test chemical substances and mixtures for their ability to interact with and disrupt the endocrine system. For this reason, the EDSTAC has devised the screening and testing program for endocrine disruption that is described in the remainder of this report.

II. Statutory Basis for Endocrine Disruptor Screening and Testing

A. FQPA and SDWA Endocrine Disruptor Screening and Testing Provisions

As noted above, the 1996 Food Quality Protection Act (FQPA) and the 1996 Amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) require the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to:

develop a screening program, using appropriate validated test systems and other scientifically relevant information, to determine whether certain substances may have an effect in humans that is similar to an effect produced by a naturally occurring estrogen, or other such endocrine effect as the Administrator may designate.

The laws require EPA to develop a screening program by August 1998, to implement the program by August 1999, and to report on the program's progress by August 2000.

The two laws target different sets of chemical substances. Section 304 of the FQPA states that in carrying out the program, the Administrator shall:

(A) provide for the testing of all pesticide chemicals; and (B) may provide for the testing of any other substance that may have an effect that is cumulative to an effect of a pesticide chemical if the Administrator determines that a substantial population may be exposed to such a substance.

Section 136 of the SDWA Amendments states that:

in addition to the substances referred to in (FQPA), the Administrator may provide for testing under the screening program authorized by (FQPA) for any other substance that may be found in sources of drinking water if the Administrator determines that a substantial population may be exposed to such substance.

B. Additional Chemical Screening and Testing Authorities

The FQPA and the SDWA did not arise in a vacuum. Rather, the FQPA and SDWA requirements for endocrine disruptor screening and testing place another layer of screening and testing activity on an extensive regulatory system to which new and existing pesticide and industrial chemicals are already subjected. These include:

- Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act (1938) as amended (1958) – As it applies to EPA, FFDCFA regulates the use of pesticides as food-additives. Pesticide tolerances for food are established under the Act. A tolerance is defined as the maximum amount of residue allowed to remain on an agricultural commodity at the time of harvest.
- Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act (1947) as amended – FIFRA provides a regulatory framework for the registration and use of pesticides.
- Clean Water Act (Federal Water Pollution Control Act, 1972, as amended) – The CWA regulates toxic water pollutants.
- Safe Drinking Water Act (1974) – The SDWA sets enforceable standards for substances in drinking water.
- Toxic Substances Control Act (1976) – TSCA requires notification before new chemicals can be placed into commerce and gives authority for testing, information reporting, and for controlling new and existing industrial chemicals.

C. Scope of the EDSTAC

In convening the EDSTAC, EPA did not limit the Committee to the narrow set of chemicals and the single hormonal system explicitly mentioned in the FQPA and SDWA endocrine disruptor screening and testing provisions. Nor did the EDSTAC limit its recommendations to the protection of human health. Rather, as described more fully in Chapter Three, the EDSTAC strongly recommends that EPA's endocrine disruptor screening and testing program should:

- address both human health and ecological effects;
- initially emphasize identifying and characterizing effects that enhance, mimic, or inhibit estrogen, androgen, and thyroid hormone-related processes; and
- be capable of evaluating the endocrine disrupting properties of both chemical substances and common mixtures.

The EDSTAC believes that this scope properly reflects a broad concern about the potential human health and ecological effects of endocrine disruption. Given the recommended scope of the program, the EDSTAC discussed additional testing authorities. These included FIFRA and FFDCA (as amended in FQPA), TSCA, and SDWA. An overview of FQPA and TSCA is provided below. A very brief summary of other key components of the FQPA is also provided. These overviews are provided for informational purposes only. They do not represent any interpretation of statutory authority by either the EDSTAC or EPA.

1. Other Key FQPA Provisions

The FQPA revised the Federal Food, Drug and Cosmetic Act (FFDCA) and the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA). The major FQPA amendments to the FFDCA include: (1) health based safety standards for pesticide residues in food; (2) special provisions for infants and children; (3) limits on “benefits” considerations; (4) review of all existing pesticide tolerances by the year 2006; (5) uniformity of tolerances; and (6) screening and testing for endocrine disruptors. Specific FQPA amendments to FIFRA include: (1) pesticide re-registration is required every 15 years; (2) EPA is required to develop procedures for expedited review of safer pesticides; (3) provisions to facilitate “minor use” registrations; and (4) requires EPA to expedite the review and registration of anti-microbial pesticides.

2. FIFRA Testing Provisions and Universe of Chemicals

Under FIFRA, EPA regulates pesticides – a group of chemicals which includes insecticides, herbicides, fungicides, rodenticides, disinfectants, plant growth regulators, biological agents, and other pest control agents. FIFRA gives EPA the authority to register pesticides to ensure no unreasonable adverse effects to human health or the environment exist, taking into account the economic, social, and environmental costs and benefits of the pesticide use. As such, FIFRA is a cost-benefit statute. In other words, the determination of what constitutes an “unreasonable adverse effect” must account for socioeconomic factors as well as scientific judgments. The primary regulatory vehicle under FIFRA is the pesticide label (“the label is the law”). Every registered pesticide product must bear a label that includes the producer number, product registration number, active ingredient statement, warning or precautionary statements, and directions for use.

Registration and re-registration decisions are based in part on the evaluation, synthesis, and integration of pesticide studies conducted by registrants and others and submitted to the Agency. The data requirements, and the Agency’s ability to require special studies when deemed necessary, are substantial. Studies are routinely conducted in mammalian toxicology, occupational and residential exposure, residue chemistry, environmental fate and transport, and ecological effects. Individual studies are evaluated by EPA scientists, and subsequently used in human health and ecological risk assessments. The risk assessments are then used by regulatory decision-makers who make the final risk management decisions.

Until FQPA was passed, risk assessments for pesticide registration characterized estimates of risk only for single active ingredients. Dietary risk assessments included an estimate of risk from all use-sites (e.g., corn, cotton, wheat, ornamental plants, etc.), but non-dietary (e.g., occupational or residential) risk assessments addressed each exposure scenario separately. Ecological risk assessments continue to be done only for single uses of single chemicals. However, EPA's Office of Pesticide Programs (OPP) is evaluating the feasibility and appropriateness of conducting more complex assessments. The scope and complexity of any specific pesticide risk assessment varies with the specific chemical and use pattern(s), but a tiered, iterative approach is common. In the initial tier assessment for human health, reasonable worst case assumptions are utilized as estimates of exposure (e.g., residues in food are at the tolerance level, and all of the crop is treated). If the risk estimate exceeds the level of concern, additional empirical or surrogate data are used to refine the exposure assessment, until such time as it can be shown that the level of concern is not really exceeded, or the decision is made that risk reduction measures should be taken. For ecological assessments, the tiers progress through simple risk quotients derived from laboratory fate, transport, and toxicity data in early tiers, to a "weight-of-evidence" approach in later tiers.

When a pesticide undergoes evaluation for registration, re-registration, or Special Review (see below), the scientific disciplines review and evaluate registrant-submitted and other studies in a comprehensive manner to ensure the studies meet scientific and regulatory policy standards established for carrying out risk assessments. The studies are evaluated and integrated in such a manner that routes of dissipation, significant environmental degradates, residue levels, and residence time of persistent degradates in the various environmental compartments are elucidated. This information along with the hazard profile of the pesticide, as determined in the required studies and available incident data, is used to determine risk in aquatic and terrestrial environmental compartments. If a high level of concern is identified, risk mitigation options are identified and considered for inclusion on the pesticide label. If the available options are not adequate to reduce the level of concern to an acceptable level, the use of the pesticide may not be approved or may be rescinded.

OPP currently reviews approximately 5,000 pesticide registration submissions annually. The scope of the submissions ranges from simple label amendments to registration of new active ingredients. Since 1947, thousands of pesticide products have been registered. Not surprisingly, perhaps, standards for approval and test data requirements reflect changes in science and pesticide regulatory policy over time. To ensure compliance with current scientific and regulatory standards, FIFRA now requires the review and re-registration of existing pesticides every 15 years. At any time, registrants may delete pesticide uses or voluntarily withdraw products or uses that are not economically feasible to maintain. Further, EPA has the authority to cancel registrations for pesticide products that do not meet the requirements for re-registration (or registration, for that matter). The number of registered products subjected to re-registration in response to the 1988 amendments to FIFRA was approximately 50,000. The total number of products remaining on the market is now approximately 20,000.

Presently, there are approximately 900 registered pesticide active ingredients and 2500 inert ingredients. Inert ingredients used in pesticide formulations are subjected to test requirements

that are less comprehensive than those for active ingredients. Under the FQPA screening and testing program, both active and inert ingredients are to be included. Many of the pesticide “inerts” are also listed in the TSCA Inventory, which is described below, as are a number of the active ingredients (because they also have non-pesticidal uses).

In the registration or re-registration process, problems that arise during the review of a particular pesticide may be investigated under the Special Review Process. Special Review is a formal scientific and legal process in which EPA presents its case that the use(s) of a currently registered pesticide may be presenting risks of concern and, thus, risk reduction or cancellation of the use(s) may be warranted. Special Review is conducted by notice and comment rulemaking. The science issues are developed and must be presented to the FIFRA Scientific Advisory Panel for review. Additionally, the U.S. Food and Drug Administration, the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and congressional committees are invited to provide formal comments. Once a decision is made, the registrant may appeal the decision through administrative procedure or judicial review.

The FQPA amendments to FIFRA require EPA to reassess all existing pesticide tolerances of food use pesticides by the end of the year 2006. The data requirements for pesticide registration are substantial, and the burden of proof to demonstrate safety lies with the registrant. As such, the EPA has significant authority to issue a “data-call-in” requiring the registrant to conduct studies to rebut a presumption of risk identified by EPA. Nevertheless, the databases for any given pesticide may vary substantially. The types and minimum amounts of data that registrants are required to submit or cite in support of an application are listed in 40 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) Part 158. The data requirements vary according to use patterns (e.g., terrestrial food crop, indoor domestic, etc.) and physicochemical properties (e.g., gas, volatile liquid, dust, chemical class, etc.). As such, for purposes of priority setting, it is important that each pesticide be critically examined on a case-specific basis with respect to the adequacy of existing data for the evaluation of endpoints due to endocrine disruption, as well as for evaluation of exposure potential.

3. TSCA Testing Provisions and Universe of Chemicals

TSCA was signed into law in 1976 and most of its provisions became effective on January 1, 1977. TSCA requires EPA to “compile, keep current, and publish a list of each chemical substance which is manufactured or processed in the United States.” TSCA exempts chemicals used only in small quantities (as defined by EPA by rule) for research purposes from this listing.

Chemical regulation under TSCA is quite different than that described above for FIFRA. Under the New Chemical Review Program, manufacturers must submit Pre-Manufacture Notification (PMN) for new chemicals. By statute, EPA must review the submission within 90 days. Because there is no obligation on the part of the manufacturer to develop toxicity data prior to notification, the main tools the Agency uses in this review are Structure Activity Relationship (SAR) models. In practice, EPA often drops review and gives approval for most chemicals. Where appropriate, the Agency prohibits or limits manufacture, processing, distribution, use, or disposal when it judges the chemical may present an unreasonable risk and data are inadequate. The Agency can require testing for chemicals that will have substantial production, significant exposure, or

substantial release. Testing may also be required for chemicals that pose significant risk. Testing is tied to affordability.

Testing of existing chemicals under TCSA is conducted differently than for new chemicals. Test requirements for existing chemicals are determined by a rule-making or through a negotiated Enforceable Consent Agreement (ECA). To require testing of existing chemicals, the Agency must make a finding that the chemical may present an unreasonable risk to human health or the environment or, alternatively, that it is produced in substantial quantities and there is substantial or significant human exposure or substantial environmental release. These findings which EPA makes under TSCA 4(a)(1)(A) and 4(a)(1)(B) are discussed in the following paragraph. In addition, EPA must find that there are inadequate data to reasonably determine or predict the effects of the chemical on human health or the environment and that testing, therefore, is necessary. This testing may include health effects, environmental effects, chemical fate in the environment, and exposure.

Under TSCA Section 4(a)(1)(A), EPA must have a suggestion of hazard and there must be an exposure to the chemical for EPA to require testing data. Under TSCA Section 4(a)(1)(B) data may be required when there is substantial production (one million pounds per year threshold value) and: (a) substantial release (the lessor of one million pounds per year or 10% of production); (b) substantial human exposure (widespread human exposure indicated by 1,000 workers, 10,000 consumers, or 100,000 members of the general population); or (c) significant human exposure under special high exposure scenarios.

EPA's initial listing of chemicals in commerce, commonly called the "Initial Inventory" or the "1977 Inventory," consisted of those chemicals manufactured in the U.S. or imported into the U.S. on or after January 1, 1975 and before the end of the initial reporting period. This period varied depending on the chemical/company circumstances and certain allowances were made for later additions and corrections. The Initial Inventory was published in 1979 and contained about 60,000 chemicals. This represented the initial set of "existing chemicals" and the basis for distinguishing between "new" and "existing" chemicals under TSCA. Chemicals not on the Inventory are considered "new" and are subject to the PMN requirements of TSCA. After EPA completes the pre-manufacture review of a new chemical, and when the manufacturer or importer of the chemical notifies the Agency that manufacture or importation has commenced, EPA adds the new chemical to the Inventory.

As of August 18, 1997, based on a search performed by EPA for the EDSTAC, there were about 75,500 chemicals in the TSCA Inventory. Of the 75,500 chemicals, 2,643 are inorganics, 24,160 are polymers, 48,697 are organics, and about 500 are complex substances from petroleum refining streams. The "metals" are distributed among the inorganics, polymers, and organics.

At the time the Initial Inventory was compiled, production data were also collected for those chemicals. Production data have been updated three times for a subset of Inventory chemicals. The Inventory Update Rule (IUR) has required reporting of the quantities of subject chemicals produced in 1985, 1989, and 1993. Categories of chemicals exempted from IUR reporting are polymers, inorganics, microorganisms, and naturally occurring substances. Additionally, the IUR

has a reporting threshold of 10,000 pounds per site for each chemical (i.e., reporting is required for a chemical only if a company manufactured or imported at least 10,000 pounds of the chemical at any single site during the year covered by the rule). Of the organics, approximately 12,340 have been produced or imported in excess of 10,000 pounds in 1985, 1989, or 1993. Of these, approximately 11,037 are organics that are non-petroleum fractions. Available recent production or importation data on inorganics or polymers are not easily accessible.

EPA estimates that a total of approximately 15,000 non-polymeric chemicals are manufactured or imported at levels above 10,000 pounds per year (the 12,000 IUR chemicals plus an estimated 3,000 chemicals from exempt categories (primarily inorganics)). Within this set of 15,000 non-polymeric chemicals, there are approximately 3,000 chemicals produced in amounts greater than 1 million pounds per year. Approximately 25,000 chemicals potentially subject to the IUR have never been reported on the IUR, indicating they are manufactured or imported in amounts less than 10,000 pounds per year and, in some cases, may no longer be produced at all.

Although EPA has authority to order testing of chemicals under TSCA, in the nearly 20 years of TSCA's existence, this authority has been used for only 121 chemicals. This is not an indication of how much more information might really be needed but, rather, the administrative challenges of mounting an information request. Because of the expense in justifying and preparing test rules, and due to concern over litigation, EPA tends to rely on negotiated consent orders and voluntary testing which have resulted in testing of an additional 443 chemicals.

4. Relevance of the FFDCA and Universe of Chemicals

In addition to the chemicals regulated by EPA under TSCA, FIFRA, and FFDCA, there are a large number of chemicals that are regulated under FFDCA and other statutes by other agencies that may present significant exposures to humans and for which there are essentially no data on the potential for endocrine disruption. The EDSTAC is recommending that ingredients in cosmetics, food additives (including those Generally Regarded As Safe (GRAS), under the FFDCA), and nutritional supplements also receive serious consideration for priority setting within the endocrine disruptor screening and testing program. This recommendation is made even though it is understood that FQPA and SDWA do not confer on any other agency the regulatory authority to require screening and testing for endocrine disruption potential.

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