

APPENDIX A. ATSDR MINIMAL RISK LEVELS AND WORKSHEETS

The Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act (CERCLA) [42 U.S.C. 9601 et seq.], as amended by the Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act (SARA) [Pub. L. 99–499], requires that the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) develop jointly with the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), in order of priority, a list of hazardous substances most commonly found at facilities on the CERCLA National Priorities List (NPL); prepare toxicological profiles for each substance included on the priority list of hazardous substances; and assure the initiation of a research program to fill identified data needs associated with the substances.

The toxicological profiles include an examination, summary, and interpretation of available toxicological information and epidemiologic evaluations of a hazardous substance. During the development of toxicological profiles, Minimal Risk Levels (MRLs) are derived when reliable and sufficient data exist to identify the target organ(s) of effect or the most sensitive health effect(s) for a specific duration for a given route of exposure. An MRL is an estimate of the daily human exposure to a hazardous substance that is likely to be without appreciable risk of adverse noncancer health effects over a specified duration of exposure. MRLs are based on noncancer health effects only and are not based on a consideration of cancer effects. These substance-specific estimates, which are intended to serve as screening levels, are used by ATSDR health assessors to identify contaminants and potential health effects that may be of concern at hazardous waste sites. It is important to note that MRLs are not intended to define clean-up or action levels.

MRLs are derived for hazardous substances using the no-observed-adverse-effect level/uncertainty factor approach. They are below levels that might cause adverse health effects in the people most sensitive to such chemical-induced effects. MRLs are derived for acute (1–14 days), intermediate (15–364 days), and chronic (365 days and longer) durations and for the oral and inhalation routes of exposure. Currently, MRLs for the dermal route of exposure are not derived because ATSDR has not yet identified a method suitable for this route of exposure. MRLs are generally based on the most sensitive chemical-induced end point considered to be of relevance to humans. Serious health effects (such as irreparable damage to the liver or kidneys, or birth defects) are not used as a basis for establishing MRLs. Exposure to a level above the MRL does not mean that adverse health effects will occur.

MRLs are intended only to serve as a screening tool to help public health professionals decide where to look more closely. They may also be viewed as a mechanism to identify those hazardous waste sites that

APPENDIX A

are not expected to cause adverse health effects. Most MRLs contain a degree of uncertainty because of the lack of precise toxicological information on the people who might be most sensitive (e.g., infants, elderly, nutritionally or immunologically compromised) to the effects of hazardous substances. ATSDR uses a conservative (i.e., protective) approach to address this uncertainty consistent with the public health principle of prevention. Although human data are preferred, MRLs often must be based on animal studies because relevant human studies are lacking. In the absence of evidence to the contrary, ATSDR assumes that humans are more sensitive to the effects of hazardous substance than animals and that certain persons may be particularly sensitive. Thus, the resulting MRL may be as much as 100-fold below levels that have been shown to be nontoxic in laboratory animals.

Proposed MRLs undergo a rigorous review process: Health Effects/MRL Workgroup reviews within the Division of Toxicology and Environmental Medicine, expert panel peer reviews, and agency-wide MRL Workgroup reviews, with participation from other federal agencies and comments from the public. They are subject to change as new information becomes available concomitant with updating the toxicological profiles. Thus, MRLs in the most recent toxicological profiles supersede previously published levels. For additional information regarding MRLs, please contact the Division of Toxicology and Environmental Medicine, Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry, 1600 Clifton Road NE, Mailstop F-62, Atlanta, Georgia 30333.

APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (insoluble forms)
CAS Numbers: Multiple
Date: March 2011
Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
Route: Inhalation Oral
Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
Graph Key: 66
Species: Dog

Minimal Risk Level: 0.002 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Rothstein A. 1949b. Uranium dioxide. In: Voegtlin C, Hodge HC, eds. Pharmacology and toxicology of uranium compounds. National Nuclear Energy Series: Manhattan Project Technical Section, Division VI, Vol. 1. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. pp. 614-621.

Experimental design: Groups of 6–19 dogs of unspecified strain and gender were exposed to 1.3, 9.3, or 10.4 mg/m³ uranium dioxide (1.1, 8.2, or 9.2 mg U/m³) 6 days/week for 5 weeks. Based on other studies conducted by this investigator (Rothermel 1949; Rothstein 1949c), it is assumed that the animals were exposed for 6 hours/day. Exposure to 8.2 mg U/m³ was conducted in head-only exposure units and exposure to 1.1 or 9.2 mg U/m³ were performed in full-body exposure units. The median particle size was 0.4 µm with a geometric standard deviation of 2. The following parameters were used to assess toxicity: mortality, body weight changes, standard hematology (except in the 8.2 mg U/m³ group), clinical chemistry (serum nonprotein nitrogen and urea nitrogen levels), urinalysis (protein, amino acid, catalase, phosphate, and ketone levels), and histopathology. Separate control studies were conducted (Sprague 1949) in which animals were exposed in control chambers by full or head-only exposure for a duration similar to study conditions. Body weight, mortality, biochemical, hematological, and histopathological data were collected. Dogs (n = 6–19; unspecified sex and strain) were exposed to uranium dioxide dust at concentrations of 1.1, 8.2, or 9.2 mg U/m³ for 5 weeks, 6 days/weeks, 6 hours/day. (Doses were analytically determined, not estimated.) Studies conducted at 8.2 mg U/m³ were conducted in head exposure units. Studies conducted at the other concentrations were performed in full exposure units. The AMAD for the particles is assumed to be 1.5–2.1 µm; average 1.8 µm (see Pozzani 1949). Mortality, body weight changes, standard hematology (except in the 8.2 mg U/m³ group), blood and urine chemistries, pathology, and uranium distribution in tissues were measured.

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: No dogs died from exposure to uranium dioxide dust. Additionally, no alterations in body weight gain or hematology, serum clinical chemistry, or urinalysis parameters were noted. Histopathological alterations were limited to the kidneys; “very slight” renal tubular degeneration was observed in two of six dogs at 8.2 mg U/m³; no alterations were observed in two dogs examined from the 9.2 mg U/m³ group.

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation:

NOAEL LOAEL

The study identified a NOAEL of 1.1 mg U/m³ and a LOAEL of 8.2 mg/m³ for minimal microscopic lesions in the renal tubules. The NOAEL of 1.1 mg U/m³ was used as the point of departure for the MRL; BMD modeling was not used to estimate the point of departure due to the limited reporting of incidence data.

APPENDIX A

Uncertainty Factors used in MRL derivation:

- [] 10 for use of a LOAEL
- [x] 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans
- [x] 10 for human variability

Was a conversion factor used from ppm in food or water to a mg/body weight dose? Not applicable.

If an inhalation study in animals, list conversion factors used in determining human equivalent concentration: Human equivalent values were not calculated because regional deposited dose ratios are not available for dogs (EPA 1994d); thus, the NOAEL_{ADJ} was used as the point of departure with an uncertainty factor of 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans.

Was a conversion used from intermittent to continuous exposure? The NOAEL was adjusted for intermittent exposure:

$$\text{NOAEL}_{\text{ADJ}} = (1.1 \text{ mg/m}^3) * (6 \text{ hours}/24 \text{ hours}) * (6 \text{ days}/7 \text{ days}) = 0.24 \text{ mg/m}^3$$

Other additional studies or pertinent information that lend support to this MRL: Intermediate-duration inhalation studies in animals have examined the toxicity of various insoluble uranium compounds including uranium dioxide, uranium peroxide, uranium trioxide, and triuranium octaoxide in several animal species (Dygert 1949c, 1949d; Rothstein 1949b, 1949c; Stokinger et al. 1953). The results of these studies suggest that the kidney and the respiratory tract are sensitive targets of uranium toxicity, with the kidney being the most sensitive target. Very slight renal tubular damage was observed in dogs exposed to 8.2 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide for 5 weeks (Rothstein 1949b), moderate tubular necrosis was observed in rabbits exposed to 15.4 mg U/m³ as uranium peroxide for 23 days (Dygert 1949d), moderate necrosis was observed in rats, rabbits, and dogs exposed to 16 mg U/m³ as uranium trioxide for 4 weeks (Rothstein 1949c), and marked tubular necrosis was observed in rabbits exposed to 19.4 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide for 5 weeks (Rothstein 1949b). Although there are limited data to make species comparisons, data for uranium dioxide suggest that rabbits are more sensitive than rats, mice, or guinea pigs; the data do not allow for a comparison between rabbits and dogs. In addition to the renal effects observed in rats, rabbits, and dogs exposed to uranium trioxide, very slight pulmonary lesions were observed in dogs and rats exposed to 16 mg U/m³ and severe effects were observed in rabbits dying early after exposure to 16 mg U/m³ (Rothstein 1949c). Additionally, the results of the Rothstein (1949b) study which is the basis of the MRL are supported by the findings of slight to mild tubular degeneration in dogs exposed to 10 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide for 1 year; no effects were observed at 1 mg U/m³ (Stokinger et al. 1953).

Agency Contacts (Chemical Managers): Sam Keith, Obaid Faroon, Nickolette Roney, Franco Scinicariello, Sharon Wilbur

APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (soluble forms)
CAS Numbers: Multiple
Date: March 2011
Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
Route: Inhalation Oral
Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
Graph Key: 67
Species: Dog

Minimal Risk Level: 0.0001 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Rothstein A. 1949a. Uranyl fluoride. In: Voegtlin C, Hodge HC, eds. Pharmacology and toxicology of uranium compounds. National Nuclear Energy Series: Manhattan Project Technical Section, Division VI, Vol 1. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. pp. 548-560.

Experimental design: Groups of 2–6 dogs per group (strain and gender not specified) were exposed to 0.19, 2.8, or 12.2 mg/m³ of uranyl fluoride dust (0.15, 2.2, or 9.2 mg U/m³) for 6 hours/day, 6 days/week for 5 weeks. (Doses were analytically determined, not estimated.) The AMAD for the particles is assumed to be 1.5–2.1 µm; average 1.8 µm (see Pozzani 1949). Separate control studies were conducted (Sprague 1949) in which animals were exposed in control chambers by full or head-only exposure for a duration similar to study conditions. Clinical signs of toxicity, mortality, body weight changes, hematology, and blood and urine chemistries were monitored. At the termination of the study, the animals were sacrificed, selected organs were histopathologically examined, and uranium levels were determined.

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: Anorexia, rhinitis, and polydipsia were observed in the two dogs exposed to 9.2 mg U/m³; prior to death, vomiting blood, severe muscle weakness, and exhibited lassitude were observed. No deaths or clinical signs were observed at 0.15 or 2.2 mg U/m³. Severe weight loss was also observed at 9.2 mg U/m³; no alterations in body weight gain were observed at 0.15 or 2.2 mg U/m³. At 9.2 mg U/m³, both dogs had increased blood NPN levels with the maximum value over 200 mg%. At 2.2 mg U/m³, blood NPN and urinary amino acid levels were normal while one of three dogs had increased urinary protein levels. At 9.2 mg U/m³, severe renal damage was seen in dogs. Moderate renal damage (no additional information provided) was observed at 2.2 mg U/m³ and very slight damage was observed in about 50% of the dogs at 0.15 mg U/m³.

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation:

NOAEL LOAEL

The study identified a LOAEL of 0.15 mg U/m³ for minimal microscopic lesions in the renal tubules; BMD modeling was not used to estimate the point of departure because incidence data were not available for all groups.

Uncertainty Factors used in MRL derivation:

- 3 for use of a minimal LOAEL
- 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans
- 10 for human variability

APPENDIX A

Was a conversion factor used from ppm in food or water to a mg/body weight dose? Not applicable.

If an inhalation study in animals, list conversion factors used in determining human equivalent concentration: Human equivalent values were not calculated because regional deposited dose ratios are not available for dogs (EPA 1994d); thus, the LOAEL_{ADJ} was used as the point of departure with an uncertainty factor of 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans.

Was a conversion used from intermittent to continuous exposure? The LOAEL was adjusted for intermittent exposure:

$$\text{LOAEL}_{\text{ADJ}} = (0.15 \text{ mg/m}^3) * (6 \text{ hours}/24 \text{ hours}) * (6 \text{ days}/7 \text{ days}) = 0.032 \text{ mg/m}^3$$

Other additional studies or pertinent information that lend support to this MRL: The toxicity of various soluble and poorly soluble uranium compounds has been tested in several animal species (Dygert 1949a, 1949b; Roberts 1949; Rothermel 1949; Rothstein 1949a; Spiegl 1949; Stokinger et al. 1953). These studies identify the kidney and respiratory tract as the most sensitive targets of uranium toxicity. The renal effects consisted of tubular degeneration and necrosis at concentrations of $\geq 0.2 \text{ mg U/m}^3$. Compound and species differences in toxicity were found. The more soluble compounds were more toxic and dogs and rabbits were more sensitive than rats, mice, and guinea pigs.

In addition to the renal effects, pulmonary toxicity has been observed in animals particularly after exposure to uranium hexafluoride. Exposure to 2 mg U/m^3 for 30 days resulted in severe pulmonary edema in rabbits and slight pneumonia in dogs (Spiegl 1949). At higher concentrations (13.3 mg U/m^3), lung edema, hemorrhage, and emphysema were observed in rats, rabbits, and guinea pigs (Spiegl 1949). Since uranium hexafluoride is readily hydrolyzed to uranyl fluoride and hydrogen fluoride and hydrogen fluoride is a strong respiratory irritant resulting in pulmonary edema, it is likely that the observed respiratory effects are due to the hydrogen fluoride exposure. Respiratory effects have also been observed in rabbits and rats exposed to 6.8 mg U/m^3 as ammonium diuranate (Dygert 1949b). In rabbits, ammonium diuranate exposure (6.8 mg U/m^3) resulted in extensive respiratory tract irritation, evidence by nasal bleeding and pulmonary edema, hemorrhage, and necrosis. Respiratory irritation (nasal bleeding and interstitial bronchiopneumonia) was also observed in rats exposed to 6.8 mg U/m^3 . It is possible that these effects were secondary to the release of the ammonium ion, rather than uranium toxicity. Respiratory effects have not been consistently observed following exposure to other uranium compounds.

The kidney effects were observed at lower concentrations than the respiratory effects and the dogs were the most sensitive species. The lowest LOAEL values identified in dogs are 0.13 mg U/m^3 as uranyl nitrate for proteinuria (Roberts 1949) and 0.15 mg U/m^3 as uranyl fluoride for tubular damage (Rothstein 1949a). In the Roberts (1949) study, an increase in urinary protein excretion was observed between days 9 and 12 and then returned to normal; very mild histological changes which the investigator noted was not of sufficient severity to be of concern were observed in the renal cortex in two dogs exposed for 10 days. Since the two LOAEL values are almost identical, the Rothstein (1949a) study was selected as the basis of the MRL because it included histological examination of dogs exposed for an intermediate duration (the one dog examined at the end of the Roberts study had severe chronic nephritis, which masked an uranium-induced renal effects). Although the lowest LOAEL value in rats (0.13 mg U/m^3) was similar to the lowest LOAEL values in dogs, the intermediate and chronic databases for soluble uranium compounds provide strong evidence that dogs are more sensitive than rats.

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APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (insoluble forms)
 CAS Numbers: Multiple
 Date: March 2011
 Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
 Route: Inhalation Oral
 Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
 Graph Key: 93
 Species: Monkey

Minimal Risk Level: 0.0008 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Leach LJ, Maynard EA, Hodge HC, et al. 1970. A five-year inhalation study with natural uranium dioxide (UO₂) dust. I. Retention and biological effects in the monkey, dog, and rat. Health Physics 18:599-612.

Leach LJ, Yuile CL, Hodge HC, et al. 1973. A five-year inhalation study with natural uranium dioxide (UO₂) dust. II. Postexposure retention and biologic effects in the monkey, dog, and rat. Health Physics 25: 239-258.

Experimental design: Rhesus monkeys (5 males, 20 females) were exposed to 5.8 mg/m³ uranium dioxide (5.1 mg U/m³) 5.4 hours/day, 5 days/week for 5 years; the mass median particle diameter was 1.03 μm with a geometric standard deviation of 2.40. Another group of one male and five female monkeys served as controls. Groups of 1–2 monkeys were killed after 1 day, 4 days, 15 days, 1 month, 2 months, 3 months, 5 months, 1 year, 1.5 years, 1.8 years, 1.9 years, 3.6 years, 4.1 years, or 4.7 years; two monkeys were killed at 5 years. Six monkeys were observed for 6.5 years after exposure termination; two were killed after 12 months, one after 6 years, and three after 6.5 years; the results of the recovery period examinations were reported in Leach et al. (1973). The following parameters were used to assess toxicity: general health, body weight, peripheral hematology, blood NPN levels, and histopathology of major tissues and organs. No uranium dioxide-related deaths were observed.

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: No alterations in body weight, hematological parameters, or blood NPN levels were found. Histological alterations were limited to the lungs and tracheobronchial lymph nodes. After 2–3 months of exposure, granular black pigment accumulations were found in the lungs and tracheobronchial lymph nodes. After 3.6 years of exposure, slight fibrosis was observed in the lungs and hyaline fibrosis was observed in the tracheobronchial lymph nodes; the severity of the fibrosis increased with exposure duration and was not observed in the controls. Fibrosis was still present in the lungs and tracheobronchial lymph nodes 6.5 years postexposure.

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation:

NOAEL LOAEL

The study identified a LOAEL of 5.1 mg U/m³ for fibrosis in the lungs and tracheobronchial lymph nodes; BMD modeling was not used due to the small number of animals sacrificed at each time period.

Uncertainty Factors used in MRL derivation:

10 for use of a LOAEL
 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans

APPENDIX A

[x] 10 for human variability

Was a conversion factor used from ppm in food or water to a mg/body weight dose? Not applicable.

If an inhalation study in animals, list conversion factors used in determining human equivalent concentration: Human equivalent values were not calculated because regional deposited dose ratios are not available for monkeys (EPA 1994d). The LOEL_{ADJ} was used as the point of departure with an uncertainty factor of 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans.

Was a conversion used from intermittent to continuous exposure? The LOAEL was adjusted for intermittent exposure:

$$\text{LOAEL}_{\text{ADJ}} = (5.1 \text{ mg U/m}^3) * (5.4 \text{ hours}/24 \text{ hours}) * (5 \text{ days}/7 \text{ days}) = 0.82 \text{ mg U/m}^3$$

Other additional studies or pertinent information that lend support to this MRL: There are limited data available to assess the toxicity of chronic exposure to insoluble uranium compounds. Slight to mild renal tubular degeneration was observed in dogs exposed to 10 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide for 1 year (Stokinger et al. 1953); no alterations were observed at 1 mg U/m³. Although several tissues were examined histologically, significant alterations were only noted for the kidneys. Stokinger et al. (1953) also exposed rats to 1 or 10 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide, but no uranium-related alterations were observed. In a second chronic duration study, no adverse effects were observed in rats or dogs exposed to 5.1 mg U/m³ as uranium dioxide for 1–5 years (Leach et al. 1970). However, fibrosis in the tracheobronchial lymph nodes and fibrosis and metaplasia in the lungs were observed in dogs during a 6.5-year postexposure period (Leach et al. 1973). In monkeys, exposure to 5.1 mg U/m³ resulted in lung fibrosis beginning after 3.6 years of exposure (Leach et al. 1970); the severity of the fibrosis increased with exposure duration. Fibrosis was also present in the lungs and tracheobronchial lymph nodes in monkeys sacrificed during the 6.5-year postexposure period (Leach et al. 1973). The investigators noted that the fibrosis may have been a radiotoxic effect based on the magnitude of the radiation dose, the absence of renal effects, and the similarity of the lesions to those observed following exposure to plutonium dioxide; the alpha-radiation tissue doses were >500 rads (5 Gy) for the lungs and 7,000 rads (70 Gy) for the lymph nodes. However, it is unclear whether the damage was chemically or radiologically induced (or both); similar degenerative effects in the lungs have also been observed following prolonged exposure to diverse inorganic dusts. An elevation of blood nonprotein nitrogen level was also observed in the monkeys during the postexposure period, but no histological alterations were observed in the kidneys (Leach et al. 1973).

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APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (soluble forms)
CAS Numbers: Multiple
Date: March 2011
Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
Route: Inhalation Oral
Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
Graph Key: 101
Species: Dog

Minimal Risk Level: 0.00004 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Stokinger HC, Baxter RC, Dygert HP, et al. 1953. Uranium Tetrachloride: Toxicity following inhalation for 1 and 2 years. In: Voegtlin C, Hodge HC, eds. Pharmacology and toxicology of uranium compounds. National Nuclear Energy Series: Manhattan Project Technical Section, Division VI, Vol 1. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill. pp. 1522-1553.

Experimental design: Dogs of both sexes (11–12 males, 9–10 females) were exposed to uranium tetrachloride in inhalation chambers for 33 hours/week for 1 year at concentrations of 0.05 and 0.20 mg U/m³. (Doses were analytically determined, not estimated.) A control group of five male and seven female dogs were similar exposed to chamber air in a separate experiment. The size-mass median particle size of uranium tetrachloride dust was 1.58 µm (range of 1.19–2.21 µm; geometric standard deviation of 2.24) for the 0.05 mg U/m³ exposures and 1.83 µm (range of 1.07–3.35 µm; geometric standard deviation of 2.25) for the 0.2 mg U/m³ exposures. The animals were monitored for body weight alterations, clinical signs of toxicity, and biochemical alterations in the blood and urine. At the termination of the study, the animals were sacrificed and selected organs were histopathologically examined.

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: All dogs survived the 1-year exposure period. No alterations in body weight gain, hematological parameters, or blood NPN levels were observed. Urinary protein levels were elevated, as compared to controls; however, pre-exposure levels were also elevated, precluding evaluating the clinical significance of the effect. Alterations in bromsulfalein retention test, indicating impaired liver function, were observed in the four dogs tested (0.2 mg U/m³ group); no alterations in blood clotting times were observed. In the absence of histological evidence of liver damage, the change was not considered clinically significant. Renal tubular atrophy was observed in 2/16 dogs exposed to 0.05 mg U/m³ (not statistically significant using Fisher Exact test). Slight tubular atrophy in the inner cortex was observed in 7/14 dogs exposed to 0.2 mg U/m³.

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation:

NOAEL LOAEL BMCL₁₀ 0.019 mg U/m³ for renal toxicity

Data for the incidence of renal tubular atrophy were analyzed using all available dichotomous models in the EPA BMDS (version 2.1.2) using the extra risk option. The multistage model was run for all polynomial degrees up to n-1 (where n is the number of dose groups including control). Adequate model fit was judged by three criteria: goodness-of-fit p-value (p>0.1), visual inspection of the dose-response curve, and scaled residual at the data point (except the control) closest to the predefined benchmark response (BMR). Among all of the models meeting adequate fit criteria, the BMCL from the model with the lowest Akaike Information Criteria (AIC) was chosen. BMCs and lower bounds on the BMC (BMCLs) associated with a BMR of 10% extra risk were calculated for all models and are presented in

APPENDIX A

Table A-1. As assessed by the chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic, all of the models provided adequate fit to the data. The BMCs ranged from 0.032 to 0.082 mg U/m³ and the BMCLs ranged from 0.019 to 0.054 mg U/m³. The quantal-linear and the multistage (1-degree polynomial) had the lowest AIC values; the BMCL₁₀ of 0.019 mg U/m³ estimated for both models was selected as a point of departure. The fit of the quantal-linear model is presented in Figure A-1.

Table A-1. Model Predictions for the Incidence of Renal Tubular Atrophy in Dogs Exposed to Uranium Tetrachloride for 1 Year (Stokinger et al. 1953)

Model	χ^2 Goodness-of-fit	p-value ^a	AIC	BMC ₁₀ (mg U/m ³)	BMCL ₁₀ (mg U/m ³)
Gamma ^b	35.4648	1	35.4648	0.0411568	0.0196557
Logistic	36.7375	0.3616	36.7375	0.0825225	0.054177
Log Logistic	35.4648	1	35.4648	0.0418036	0.0146656
Log Probit	35.4648	1	35.4648	0.0426877	0.00300431
Multistage (1 degree polynomial)	35.4648	0.9485	33.5743	0.0324681	0.019467
Multistage (2 degree polynomial)	33.5743	1	35.4648	0.0402323	0.0196557
Probit	36.5663	0.3921	36.5663	0.0756112	0.0502782
Weibull ^b	35.4648	1	35.4648	0.0409589	0.0196557
Quantal-Linear	33.5743	0.9485	33.5743	0.0324681	0.019467

^aValues <0.10 fail to meet conventional goodness-of-fit criteria.

^bPower restricted to ≥ 1 .

AIC = Akaike Information Criteria; BMC = benchmark concentration associated with the selected benchmark response of 10% extra risk; BMCL = 95% lower confidence limit on the BMC

APPENDIX A

the uranium workers had spent in the yellowcake area. Although urinary uranium levels were reported, atmospheric concentrations were not reported.

Stokinger et al. (1953) examined the chronic toxicity of uranium hexafluoride, uranium tetrachloride, and uranyl nitrate in dogs and rats following a 1-year exposure. Slight to mild renal tubular atrophy was observed in dogs and rats exposed to 0.2 mg U/m³ as uranium hexafluoride or uranium tetrachloride; no effects were observed at 0.05 mg U/m³. Exposure to uranyl nitrate resulted in mild to moderate tubular atrophy in dogs exposed to 0.25 mg U/m³ (NOAEL of 0.15 mg U/m³) and mild to marked tubular atrophy in rats exposed to 2 mg U/m³ (NOAEL of 0.25 mg U/m³).

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APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (soluble forms)
CAS Numbers: Multiple
Date: March 2011
Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
Route: Inhalation Oral
Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
Graph Key: 15
Species: Mouse

Minimal Risk Level: 0.002 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Domingo JL, Paternain JL, Llobet JM, et al. 1989c. The developmental toxicity of uranium in mice. Toxicol 55:143-152.

Experimental design: Groups of 20 pregnant Swiss mice were administered via gavage 0, 5, 10, 25, or 50 mg/kg/day uranyl acetate dihydrate (0, 2.8, 5.6, 14, or 28 mg U/kg/day) on gestation days 6–15. Body weights, food consumption, and general appearance were monitored daily. At termination, maternal liver and kidney weights were measured and uterine contents (number of implantation sites, resorptions, dead fetuses, and live fetuses) were evaluated. Live fetuses were evaluated for body weight, body length, sex, gross morphological abnormalities, visceral malformations, visceral anomalies (evaluated in 1/3 of fetuses), and skeletal defects (evaluated in 2/3 of fetuses).

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: Significant decreases in maternal body weight were observed in all uranium groups; during the exposure period, the dams in the 2.6, 5.6, 14, and 28 mg U/kg/day groups weighed 33, 53, 75, and 88% less than controls, respectively. Significant decreases in food intake were also observed in the dams exposed to ≥ 5.6 mg U/kg/day. A significant decrease in the number of live fetuses was observed at 5.6 mg U/kg/day, but was not observed at the two higher dose levels. No significant alterations in the number of early or late resorptions, number of dead fetuses, or sex ratio were observed. Significant decreases in fetal body weight were observed at ≥ 2.8 mg U/kg/day and decreases in fetal length were observed at ≥ 5.6 mg U/kg/day. Significant increases in the incidences of external defects were observed at 2.8 mg U/kg/day. The alterations included cleft palate (significant at ≥ 5.6 mg U/kg/day) and hematomas (significant at 2.8 and 28 mg U/kg/day). The total number of skeletal defects was significantly increased at 14 and 28 mg U/kg/day; skeletal defects included bipartite sternbrae (significant at 2.8, 14, and 28 mg U/kg/day), some metatarsal of hindlimb poorly ossified (significant at 14 and 28 mg U/kg/day), delayed ossification of skull (significant at 14 and 28 mg U/kg/day), and caudal reduced ossification (significant at 14 and 28 mg U/kg/day).

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation:

NOAEL LOAEL BMDL 0.2 mg U/kg/day for developmental toxicity

The results of the Domingo et al. (1989c) study suggest maternal body weight gain and fetal body weight and external and skeletal alterations as sensitive end points of uranium toxicity. It is possible that the developmental effects were secondary to the maternal toxicity; however, some of these effects may also be primary effects of uranium on the developing fetus. Thus, maternal and fetal end points were considered as the basis of possible points of departure for the acute-duration MRL. Data for the number of litters with total external alterations, cleft palate, total skeletal defects, and bipartite sternbrae (summarized in Table A-2) were analyzed using all available dichotomous models in the EPA BMDS (version 2.1.2) using the extra risk option. The multistage model was run for all polynomial degrees up to

APPENDIX A

n-1 (where n is the number of dose groups including control). Adequate model fit was judged by three criteria: goodness-of-fit p-value ($p > 0.1$), visual inspection of the dose-response curve, and scaled residual at the data point (except the control) closest to the predefined BMR. For a given end point, the BMDL from the model with the lowest AIC (among all of the models meeting adequate fit criteria) was chosen. BMDs and lower bounds on the BMD (BMDLs) associated with a BMR of 5% extra risk for dichotomous data were calculated for all models and are presented in Table A-3.

Table A-2. Fetal Body Weights and Incidence of Litters with External or Skeletal Defects

Dose level (mg U/kg/day)	0	2.8	5.6	14	28
Number of litters	18	17	18	18	18
Fetal body weight (g) \pm standard deviation	1.40 \pm 0.15	1.04 \pm 0.25 ^a	0.93 \pm 0.24 ^a	0.84 \pm 0.11 ^a	0.77 \pm 0.17 ^a
Total external defects	0	8 ^b	14 ^c	14 ^c	17 ^a
Cleft palate	0	2	13 ^c	13 ^c	16 ^c
Total skeletal defects	4	11	15	18 ^b	18 ^b
Bipartite sternebrae	0	6 ^b	3	9 ^c	13 ^c

^aSignificantly different from controls ($p < 0.001$).

^bSignificantly different from controls ($p < 0.05$).

^cSignificantly different from controls ($p < 0.01$).

Source: Domingo et al. 1989c

Table A-3. Model Predictions for Developmental Effects in the Offspring of Mice Administered Uranyl Acetate via Gavage on Gestation Days 6–15 (Domingo et al. 1989c)

Model	AIC	χ^2 Goodness- of-fit	p-value ^a	BMD ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)	BMDL ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)
Total external defects					
Gamma ^b	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Logistic	92.24	14.56	0.0022	ND (LSR)	ND (LSR)
Log Logistic	75.06	1.71	0.6339	0.16	0.08
Log Probit	76.43	6.1	0.1919	0.73	0.54
Multistage (1 degree polynomial)	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (2 degree polynomial)	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (3 degree polynomial)	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (4 degree polynomial)	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Probit	93.38	15.41	0.0015	ND (LSR)	ND (LSR)

APPENDIX A

Table A-3. Model Predictions for Developmental Effects in the Offspring of Mice Administered Uranyl Acetate via Gavage on Gestation Days 6–15 (Domingo et al. 1989c)

Model	AIC	χ^2 Goodness- of-fit	p-value ^a	BMD ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)	BMDL ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)
Weibull ^b	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Quantal-Linear	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Cleft palate					
Gamma ^b	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Logistic	92.12	18.44	0.0004	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Log Logistic	77.98	6.15	0.1047	0.75	0.20
Log Probit	76.56	7.06	0.133	ND (LSR)	ND (LSR)
Multistage (1 degree polynomial)	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (2 degree polynomial)	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (3 degree polynomial)	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (4 degree polynomial)	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Probit	92.80	18.94	0.0003	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Weibull ^b	78.21	8.69	0.0693	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Quantal-Linear	78.58	8.4	0.078	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Total skeletal defects					
Gamma ^b	63.69	0.24	0.889	0.39	0.12
Logistic	61.85	0.46	0.9275	0.37	0.25
Log Logistic	64.42	0.77	0.6808	0.84	0.12
Log Probit	64.02	0.49	0.7828	0.85	0.30
Multistage (1 degree polynomial)	61.87	0.29	0.9617	0.17	0.12
Multistage (2 degree polynomial)	63.54	0.14	0.9326	0.23	0.12
Multistage (3 degree polynomial)	63.45	0.07	0.9653	0.20	0.12
Multistage (4 degree polynomial)	63.40	0.03	0.9848	0.19	0.12
Probit	61.86	0.49	0.9205	0.36	0.26
Weibull ^b	63.64	0.21	0.902	0.33	0.12
Quantal-Linear	61.87	0.29	0.9617	0.17	0.12

APPENDIX A

Table A-3. Model Predictions for Developmental Effects in the Offspring of Mice Administered Uranyl Acetate via Gavage on Gestation Days 6–15 (Domingo et al. 1989c)

Model	AIC	χ^2 Goodness- of-fit	p-value ^a	BMD ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)	BMDL ₀₅ (mg U/kg/day)
Bipartite Sternebrae					
Gamma ^b	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Logistic	97.86	7.44	0.0591	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Log Logistic	93.02	4.37	0.224	0.37	0.42
Log Probit	97.82	8.65	0.0343	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (1 degree polynomial)	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (2 degree polynomial)	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (3 degree polynomial)	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Multistage (4 degree polynomial)	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Probit	97.69	7.43	0.0595	2.80	2.11
Weibull ^b	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)
Quantal-Linear	94.61	7.49	0.0578	ND (GF)	ND (GF)

^aValues <0.10 fail to meet conventional goodness-of-fit criteria.

^bPower restricted to ≥ 1 .

AIC = Akaike Information Criteria; BMD = benchmark dose associated with the selected benchmark response of 5% extra risk; BMDL = 95% lower confidence limit on the BMC ND (GF) = not determined, goodness-of-fit criteria <0.10; ND (LSR) = not determined, largest scaled residual >2

The fetal body weight data (summarized in Table A-2) and maternal body weight gain data were fit to all available continuous models in EPA's Benchmark Dose Software (BMDS, version 2.1.2). The following procedure for fitting continuous data was used: the simplest model (linear) was first applied to the data while assuming constant variance; if the data were consistent with the assumption of constant variance ($p \geq 0.1$), then the fit of the linear model to the means was evaluated and the polynomial, power, and Hill models were fit to the data while assuming constant variance. Adequate model fit was judged by three criteria: goodness-of-fit p-value ($p > 0.1$), visual inspection of the dose-response curve, and scaled residual at the data point (except the control) closest to the predefined BMR. Among all of the models providing adequate fit to the data, the BMDL from the model with the lowest AIC was chosen. If the test for constant variance was negative, then the linear model was run again while applying the power model integrated into the BMDS to account for nonhomogenous variance. If the nonhomogenous variance model provided an adequate fit ($p \geq 0.1$) to the variance data, then the fit of the linear model to the means was evaluated and the polynomial, power, and Hill models were fit to the data and evaluated while the variance model was applied. Model fit and point of departure selection proceeded as described earlier. If the test for constant variance was negative and the nonhomogenous variance model did not provide an adequate fit to the variance data, then the data set was considered unsuitable for modeling. For all fetal body weight models, a BMR of 5% relative deviation was used; a BMR of 10% was used for all maternal body weight gain models. Although the Hill model with constant variance or nonconstant variance

APPENDIX A

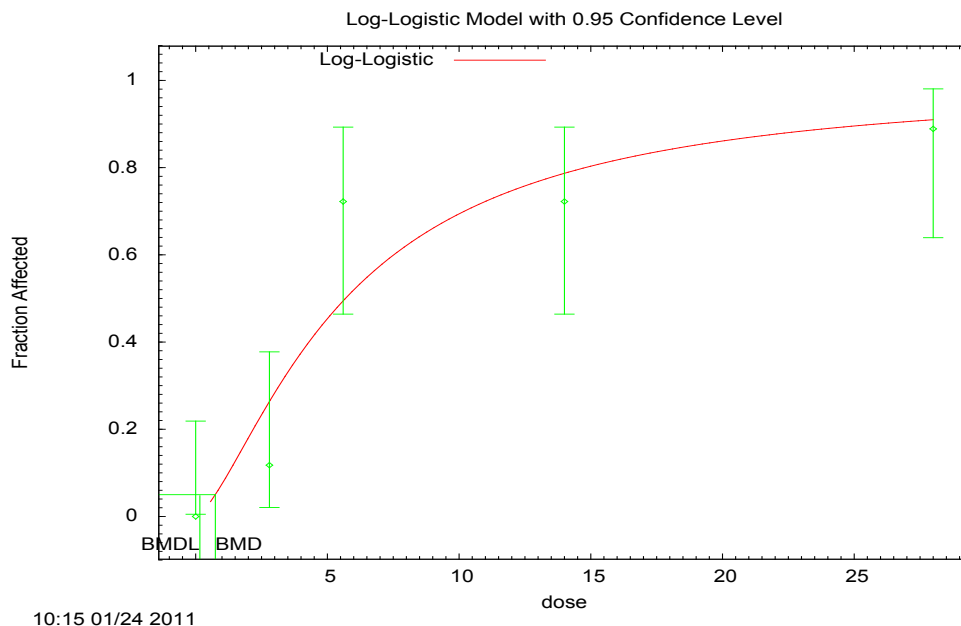
provided an adequate fit to means for the fetal body weight data, the models did not provide adequate fit to the variance and were not considered suitable for identifying a point of departure for an MRL. None of the available models provided adequate fit for the maternal body weight gain data.

Using the benchmark modeling results for external and skeletal defects, several points of departure were considered; these are summarized in Table A-4. The BMDL values ranged from 0.08 to 0.42 mg U/kg/day and the average of these values (0.2 mg U/kg/day) was selected as the point of departure. The fit of the log logistics model to the cleft palate data and the logistic model for the total skeletal defects data are presented in Figures A-2 and A-3, respectively.

Table A-4. Summary of BMDLs Considered for the Point of Departure for an Acute-Duration Oral MRL

Effect	Model	BMDL (mg U/kg/day)
Total external defects	Log logistic	0.08
Cleft palate	Log logistic	0.20
Total skeletal defects	Logistic	0.25
Bipartite sternebrae	Log logistic	0.42

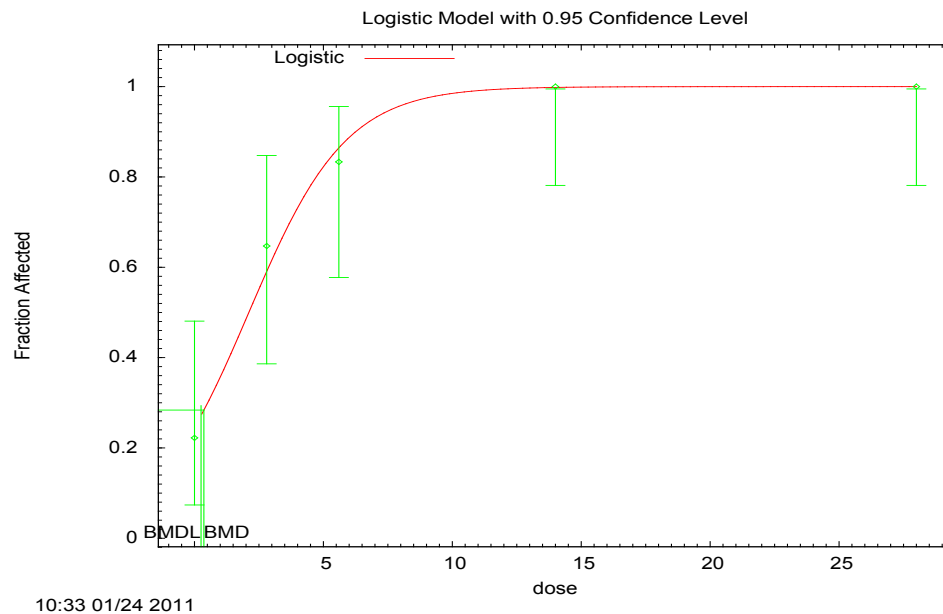
Figure A-2. Predicted (Log Logistic Model) and Observed Incidence of Cleft Palate*



*BMD and BMDL indicated are associated with 5% extra risk and are in units of mg U/kg/day.

APPENDIX A

Figure A-3. Predicted (Logistic Model) and Observed Incidence of Skeletal Defects*



*BMD and BMDL indicated are associated with 5% extra risk and are in units of mg U/kg/day.

Uncertainty Factors used in MRL derivation:

- [] 3 for use of a LOAEL
- [x] 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans
- [x] 10 for human variability

Was a conversion factor used from ppm in food or water to a mg/body weight dose? No.

If an inhalation study in animals, list conversion factors used in determining human equivalent dose: Not applicable.

Was a conversion used from intermittent to continuous exposure? Not applicable.

Other additional studies or pertinent information that lend support to this MRL: There are limited human data on the oral toxicity of uranium. Signs of gastrointestinal irritation (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea) were observed in a subject ingesting 14.3 mg U/kg as uranyl nitrate in drinking water (Butterworth 1955); other potential targets of toxicity were not examined. Acute oral exposure studies in rats and mice have examined the lethality, systemic toxicity, neurotoxicity, and developmental toxicity of uranium. Information on the systemic toxicity is limited to two single-exposure toxicity study in rats (Domingo et al. 1987) and mice (Martinez et al. 2003) administered lethal doses and a repeated exposure study in mice (Ozmen and Yurekli 1998). In the 2 weeks following administration of a single gavage dose of 118 mg U/kg as uranyl acetate to rats, significant increases in urine volume (in the absence of changes in water consumption), plasma creatinine and urea, and urinary total protein and creatinine were observed; hyperemia and microhemorrhagic foci were also observed in the liver and kidneys at the end of the 2-week observation period (Domingo et al. 1987). In mice, administration of 166 mg U/kg as uranyl nitrate resulted in increases in blood urea and creatinine levels and proximal tubular necrosis (Martinez et

APPENDIX A

al. 2003). Similarly, significant increases in BUN and creatinine levels were observed in mice exposed to 508 mg U/kg/day as uranyl acetate in the diet for 5 days (Ozmen and Yurekli 1998); the study did not include a histological examination of the kidney or other tissues. Neurological effects consisted of increased motor activity (Briner and Murray 2005) and increased open field activity (Briner 2009) in mice administered 28 or 6 mg U/kg/day, respectively, as depleted uranyl acetate in drinking water for 2 weeks; exposure to 28 mg U/kg/day also resulted in a 53% decrease in body weight gain. Gestational exposure to ≥ 2.8 mg U/kg/day as uranyl acetate resulted in significant decreases in fetal body weights and increases in the occurrence hematomas in the fetuses of mice exposed on gestation days 6–15 (Domingo et al. 1989a); increases in the incidence of cleft palate were observed at ≥ 5.6 mg U/kg/day. Decreases in maternal body weight gain were observed at ≥ 2.8 mg U/kg/day. Exposure of neonatal rats (1 or 7 days of age) to 42.7 mg U/kg/day as uranyl nitrate administered via gavage in water, resulted in significant reductions in bone formation, increases in bone resorption, and diminished tooth development (Pujadas Bigi et al. 2003).

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APPENDIX A

MINIMAL RISK LEVEL (MRL) WORKSHEET

Chemical Name: Uranium (soluble forms)
CAS Numbers: Multiple
Date: March 2011
Profile Status: Draft for Public Comment
Route: Inhalation Oral
Duration: Acute Intermediate Chronic
Graph Key: 40
Species: Rat

Minimal Risk Level: 0.0002 mg/kg/day ppm mg/m³

Reference: Gilman AP, Villeneuve DC, Secours VE, et al. 1998a. Uranyl nitrate 28-day and 91-day toxicity studies in the Sprague-Dawley rat. Toxicol Sci 41(1):117-128.

Experimental design: Five groups of Sprague-Dawley rats (15/sex/dose, 60 g) were exposed to uranium as uranyl nitrate in drinking water (0, 0.96, 4.8, 24, 120, and 600 mg/L) for 91 days. Time-weighted average doses calculated by the authors from fluid intake data were <0.0001 (control group), 0.06, 0.31, 1.52, 7.54, and 36.73 mg U/kg/day in males and <0.0001 (control), 0.09, 0.42, 2.01, 9.98, and 53.56 mg U/kg/day in females. Clinical signs were monitored daily and body weights were measured weekly; fluid intake and feed consumption were also measured, but the frequency was not reported. Hematological parameters serum clinical chemistry (sodium, potassium, phosphate, bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, aspartate aminotransferase, total protein, calcium, cholesterol, glucose, uric acid, lactate dehydrogenase, sorbitol dehydrogenase), organ weights, and histopathology (tissues examined: adrenal, brain [three sections], bone marrow, bronchi, colon, duodenum, epididymis, stomach [gastric cardia, fundus, and pylorus], heart, kidney, liver, lungs, mesenteric and mediastinal lymph nodes, ovary, pancreas, parathyroid, pituitary, salivary glands, skeletal muscle, spleen, testes, thoracic aorta, thymus, thyroid, trachea, and uterus) were assessed at termination. Uranium residues were measured in samples of brain, liver, spleen, liver, kidney, and bone in the control and two highest dose groups.

Effect noted in study and corresponding doses: Hematological and biochemical parameters were not affected in a significant exposure-related manner. Statistically significant increases in renal lesions included cytoplasmic vacuolization (0/15, 9/15, 7/15, 12/15, 9/15, 7/15), tubular dilation (0/15, 4/15, 5/15, 10/15, 4/15, 5/15), and lymphoid cuffing (0/15, 6/15, 6/15, 2/15, 7/15, 10/15) in males at ≥ 0.06 mg U/kg/day; capsular sclerosis (0/15, 5/15, 4/15, 3/15, 6/14, 5/14), tubular anisokaryosis (0/15, 5/15, 4/15, 3/15, 6/14, 5/14; not significant at 2.01 mg U/kg/day), and interstitial reticulin sclerosis (1/15, 9/15, 8/15, 7/15, 6/14, 5/14) in females at ≥ 0.09 mg U/kg/day; nuclear vesiculation in males (0/15, 6/15, 10/15, 6/15, 8/15) and females (0/15, 6/15, 6/15, 7/15, 4/14, 7/14) at $\geq 0.06/0.09$ mg U/kg/day; and glomerular adhesions (2/15, 4/15, 10/15, 10/15, 10/15, 11/15) and cytoplasmic degeneration (0/15, 2/15, 11/15, 13/15, 7/15, 7/15) in males at ≥ 0.31 mg U/kg/day. Lesions were also observed in the liver at all doses including anisokaryosis, vesiculation, increased portal density, perivenous vacuolation, and homogeneity; the investigators considered these adaptive and likely reversible. Thyroid lesions were observed in both sexes (multifocal reduction of follicular size, increased epithelial height in males at 0.31 mg/kg/day and females at 2.01 mg/kg/day). A decreased amount and density of colloid in the thyroid was observed in males only. Sinus hyperplasia of the spleen was observed in males and females at 36.73/53.56 mg/kg/day.

APPENDIX A

Dose and end point used for MRL derivation: 0.06 mg U/kg/day, renal toxicity. This is considered a minimal LOAEL.

[] NOAEL [X] LOAEL

Uncertainty Factors used in MRL derivation:

- [x] 3 for use of a minimal LOAEL
- [x] 10 for extrapolation from animals to humans
- [x] 10 for human variability

Was a conversion factor used from ppm in food or water to a mg/body weight dose? No, doses were calculated by the authors on the basis of measured water intake.

If an inhalation study in animals, list conversion factors used in determining human equivalent dose: Not applicable.

Was a conversion used from intermittent to continuous exposure? Not applicable.

Other additional studies or pertinent information that lend support to this MRL: No studies have been identified that examined the toxicity of uranium in humans following an intermediate-duration oral exposure. A number of studies have examined the intermediate-duration oral toxicity of uranium in laboratory animals. Most of these studies involved exposure to soluble uranium compounds such as uranyl nitrate and uranyl acetate; there are limited data on moderately soluble or insoluble uranium compounds. The available data suggest that the kidney is the most sensitive target of uranium toxicity; at higher dose levels, neurological, reproductive, and developmental effects have been reported. At lower concentrations, histological alterations have been observed in the proximal tubules, glomerulus, and/or renal interstitium in rats and mice exposed to uranyl nitrate in drinking water (Gilman et al. 1998a, 1998b, 1998c; McDonald-Taylor et al. 1992, 1997). At higher concentrations (40.38 mg U/kg/day), evidence of renal dysfunction (e.g., glycosuria, proteinuria) has also been observed (Gilman et al. 1998c). The Gilman et al. (1998a, 1998b) studies identified the LOAELs of 0.06 and 0.05 mg U/kg/day for renal effects in rats and rabbits, respectively; neither study identified NOAEL values.

The LOAELs for neurological, reproductive, and developmental effects are similar and are about 50-fold higher than the LOAEL for renal effects. Neurological effects such as sleep and behavior alterations and decreased spatial memory were observed in rats exposed to 2.5–2.7 mg U/kg/day as enriched uranyl nitrate (Houpert et al. 2005, 2007b). However, no neurological effects were observed in rats similarly exposed to the same dose of depleted uranyl nitrate (Houpert et al. 2005). The investigators suggest that the observed effects may have been related to radiological activity. The reproductive effects consisted of decreases in male fertility in rats and mice following exposure to ≥ 5.6 mg U/kg/day as uranyl acetate (Linares et al. 2005; Llobet et al. 1991) and alterations in ovarian folliculogenesis in mice at ≥ 1.25 mg U/kg/day as uranyl nitrate (Arnault et al. 2008; Feugier et al. 2008; Kundt et al. 2009). A recent study by Raymond-Whish et al. (2007) also reported alterations in ovarian folliculogenesis in mice, but the effects were at an extremely low dose (0.00039 mg U/kg/day). Additional data are needed to support whether reproductive effects occur at this dose level and to evaluate the toxicological significance of the observed effect (reduced number of small primary follicles, but no effect on primordial, secondary/growing, healthy, or atretic follicle populations). Developmental effects have been observed in rats and mice; most effects occurred at maternally toxic doses. The observed effects included neurobehavioral effects in the offspring of rats exposed prenatally and during gestation and lactation to 4.3 mg U/kg/day as enriched uranyl nitrate (Houpert et al. 2007a), decreases in pup body weight at ≥ 2.8 mg U/kg/day as uranyl acetate (Paternain et al. 1989; Sanchez et al. 2006), decreases in litter size, live fetuses, or viability at ≥ 14 mg

APPENDIX A

U/kg/day as uranyl acetate (Domingo et al. 1989b; Paternain et al. 1989), and altered ovarian folliculogenesis in 3-month-old pups of dams exposed to 1.25 mg U/kg/day as uranyl nitrate (Arnault et al. 2008).

The LOAELs of 0.05 and 0.06 mg U/kg/day for kidney effects in rats and rabbits (Gilman et al. 1998a, 1998b) were considered as possible points of departure for an intermediate-duration oral MRL for soluble uranium compounds. Although the rabbit study identified the slightly lower LOAEL, the rat LOAEL was selected as the point of departure for the MRL due to possible subclinical infection in the rabbits. Gilman et al. (1998b, 1998c) conducted two 91-day studies in rabbits. The kidney uranium levels for the two studies were not comparable; rabbits in the first study (Gilman et al. 1998b) had higher kidney uranium levels than in the second study (Gilman et al. 1998c) even though the dose was lower in the first study (28.70 mg U/kg/day dose and 4.98 µg U/g kidney level in the Gilman et al. 1998b study compared to 40.98 mg U/kg/day dose and 3.48 µg U/g kidney level in the Gilman et al. 1998c study). In the Gilman et al. (1998b) study, the male rabbits were not SPF derived and four animals developed *Pasteurella multocida* infections during the study; Gilman et al. (1998c) suggested that even though the affected rabbits were removed from the study, it is possible that other animals had a subclinical infection and that this may have increased sensitivity. Thus, the rat study was selected as the basis of the MRL; the rats used in the Gilman et al. (1998a) study were SPF derived. The Raymond-Whish et al. (2007) study was not selected as the point of departure because there are no other data to support this extremely low value and the toxicological significance of this slight change in one follicle population is not known.

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APPENDIX B. USER'S GUIDE

Chapter 1

Public Health Statement

This chapter of the profile is a health effects summary written in non-technical language. Its intended audience is the general public, especially people living in the vicinity of a hazardous waste site or chemical release. If the Public Health Statement were removed from the rest of the document, it would still communicate to the lay public essential information about the chemical.

The major headings in the Public Health Statement are useful to find specific topics of concern. The topics are written in a question and answer format. The answer to each question includes a sentence that will direct the reader to chapters in the profile that will provide more information on the given topic.

Chapter 2

Relevance to Public Health

This chapter provides a health effects summary based on evaluations of existing toxicologic, epidemiologic, and toxicokinetic information. This summary is designed to present interpretive, weight-of-evidence discussions for human health end points by addressing the following questions:

1. What effects are known to occur in humans?
2. What effects observed in animals are likely to be of concern to humans?
3. What exposure conditions are likely to be of concern to humans, especially around hazardous waste sites?

The chapter covers end points in the same order that they appear within the Discussion of Health Effects by Route of Exposure section, by route (inhalation, oral, and dermal) and within route by effect. Human data are presented first, then animal data. Both are organized by duration (acute, intermediate, chronic). *In vitro* data and data from parenteral routes (intramuscular, intravenous, subcutaneous, etc.) are also considered in this chapter.

The carcinogenic potential of the profiled substance is qualitatively evaluated, when appropriate, using existing toxicokinetic, genotoxic, and carcinogenic data. ATSDR does not currently assess cancer potency or perform cancer risk assessments. Minimal Risk Levels (MRLs) for noncancer end points (if derived) and the end points from which they were derived are indicated and discussed.

Limitations to existing scientific literature that prevent a satisfactory evaluation of the relevance to public health are identified in the Chapter 3 Data Needs section.

Interpretation of Minimal Risk Levels

Where sufficient toxicologic information is available, ATSDR has derived MRLs for inhalation and oral routes of entry at each duration of exposure (acute, intermediate, and chronic). These MRLs are not meant to support regulatory action, but to acquaint health professionals with exposure levels at which adverse health effects are not expected to occur in humans.

APPENDIX B

MRLs should help physicians and public health officials determine the safety of a community living near a chemical emission, given the concentration of a contaminant in air or the estimated daily dose in water. MRLs are based largely on toxicological studies in animals and on reports of human occupational exposure.

MRL users should be familiar with the toxicologic information on which the number is based. Chapter 2, "Relevance to Public Health," contains basic information known about the substance. Other sections such as Chapter 3 Section 3.9, "Interactions with Other Substances," and Section 3.10, "Populations that are Unusually Susceptible" provide important supplemental information.

MRL users should also understand the MRL derivation methodology. MRLs are derived using a modified version of the risk assessment methodology that the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) provides (Barnes and Dourson 1988) to determine reference doses (RfDs) for lifetime exposure.

To derive an MRL, ATSDR generally selects the most sensitive end point which, in its best judgement, represents the most sensitive human health effect for a given exposure route and duration. ATSDR cannot make this judgement or derive an MRL unless information (quantitative or qualitative) is available for all potential systemic, neurological, and developmental effects. If this information and reliable quantitative data on the chosen end point are available, ATSDR derives an MRL using the most sensitive species (when information from multiple species is available) with the highest no-observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL) that does not exceed any adverse effect levels. When a NOAEL is not available, a lowest-observed-adverse-effect level (LOAEL) can be used to derive an MRL, and an uncertainty factor (UF) of 10 must be employed. Additional uncertainty factors of 10 must be used both for human variability to protect sensitive subpopulations (people who are most susceptible to the health effects caused by the substance) and for interspecies variability (extrapolation from animals to humans). In deriving an MRL, these individual uncertainty factors are multiplied together. The product is then divided into the inhalation concentration or oral dosage selected from the study. Uncertainty factors used in developing a substance-specific MRL are provided in the footnotes of the levels of significant exposure (LSE) tables.

Chapter 3

Health Effects

Tables and Figures for Levels of Significant Exposure (LSE)

Tables and figures are used to summarize health effects and illustrate graphically levels of exposure associated with those effects. These levels cover health effects observed at increasing dose concentrations and durations, differences in response by species, MRLs to humans for noncancer end points, and EPA's estimated range associated with an upper-bound individual lifetime cancer risk of 1 in 10,000 to 1 in 10,000,000. Use the LSE tables and figures for a quick review of the health effects and to locate data for a specific exposure scenario. The LSE tables and figures should always be used in conjunction with the text. All entries in these tables and figures represent studies that provide reliable, quantitative estimates of NOAELs, LOAELs, or Cancer Effect Levels (CELs).

The legends presented below demonstrate the application of these tables and figures. Representative examples of LSE Table 3-1 and Figure 3-1 are shown. The numbers in the left column of the legends correspond to the numbers in the example table and figure.

APPENDIX B

LEGEND**See Sample LSE Table 3-1 (page B-6)**

- (1) **Route of Exposure.** One of the first considerations when reviewing the toxicity of a substance using these tables and figures should be the relevant and appropriate route of exposure. Typically when sufficient data exist, three LSE tables and two LSE figures are presented in the document. The three LSE tables present data on the three principal routes of exposure, i.e., inhalation, oral, and dermal (LSE Tables 3-1, 3-2, and 3-3, respectively). LSE figures are limited to the inhalation (LSE Figure 3-1) and oral (LSE Figure 3-2) routes. Not all substances will have data on each route of exposure and will not, therefore, have all five of the tables and figures.
- (2) **Exposure Period.** Three exposure periods—acute (less than 15 days), intermediate (15–364 days), and chronic (365 days or more)—are presented within each relevant route of exposure. In this example, an inhalation study of intermediate exposure duration is reported. For quick reference to health effects occurring from a known length of exposure, locate the applicable exposure period within the LSE table and figure.
- (3) **Health Effect.** The major categories of health effects included in LSE tables and figures are death, systemic, immunological, neurological, developmental, reproductive, and cancer. NOAELs and LOAELs can be reported in the tables and figures for all effects but cancer. Systemic effects are further defined in the "System" column of the LSE table (see key number 18).
- (4) **Key to Figure.** Each key number in the LSE table links study information to one or more data points using the same key number in the corresponding LSE figure. In this example, the study represented by key number 18 has been used to derive a NOAEL and a Less Serious LOAEL (also see the two "18r" data points in sample Figure 3-1).
- (5) **Species.** The test species, whether animal or human, are identified in this column. Chapter 2, "Relevance to Public Health," covers the relevance of animal data to human toxicity and Section 3.4, "Toxicokinetics," contains any available information on comparative toxicokinetics. Although NOAELs and LOAELs are species specific, the levels are extrapolated to equivalent human doses to derive an MRL.
- (6) **Exposure Frequency/Duration.** The duration of the study and the weekly and daily exposure regimens are provided in this column. This permits comparison of NOAELs and LOAELs from different studies. In this case (key number 18), rats were exposed to "Chemical x" via inhalation for 6 hours/day, 5 days/week, for 13 weeks. For a more complete review of the dosing regimen, refer to the appropriate sections of the text or the original reference paper (i.e., Nitschke et al. 1981).
- (7) **System.** This column further defines the systemic effects. These systems include respiratory, cardiovascular, gastrointestinal, hematological, musculoskeletal, hepatic, renal, and dermal/ocular. "Other" refers to any systemic effect (e.g., a decrease in body weight) not covered in these systems. In the example of key number 18, one systemic effect (respiratory) was investigated.
- (8) **NOAEL.** A NOAEL is the highest exposure level at which no harmful effects were seen in the organ system studied. Key number 18 reports a NOAEL of 3 ppm for the respiratory system, which was used to derive an intermediate exposure, inhalation MRL of 0.005 ppm (see footnote "b").

APPENDIX B

- (9) LOAEL. A LOAEL is the lowest dose used in the study that caused a harmful health effect. LOAELs have been classified into "Less Serious" and "Serious" effects. These distinctions help readers identify the levels of exposure at which adverse health effects first appear and the gradation of effects with increasing dose. A brief description of the specific end point used to quantify the adverse effect accompanies the LOAEL. The respiratory effect reported in key number 18 (hyperplasia) is a Less Serious LOAEL of 10 ppm. MRLs are not derived from Serious LOAELs.
- (10) Reference. The complete reference citation is given in Chapter 9 of the profile.
- (11) CEL. A CEL is the lowest exposure level associated with the onset of carcinogenesis in experimental or epidemiologic studies. CELs are always considered serious effects. The LSE tables and figures do not contain NOAELs for cancer, but the text may report doses not causing measurable cancer increases.
- (12) Footnotes. Explanations of abbreviations or reference notes for data in the LSE tables are found in the footnotes. Footnote "b" indicates that the NOAEL of 3 ppm in key number 18 was used to derive an MRL of 0.005 ppm.

LEGEND**See Sample Figure 3-1 (page B-7)**

LSE figures graphically illustrate the data presented in the corresponding LSE tables. Figures help the reader quickly compare health effects according to exposure concentrations for particular exposure periods.

- (13) Exposure Period. The same exposure periods appear as in the LSE table. In this example, health effects observed within the acute and intermediate exposure periods are illustrated.
- (14) Health Effect. These are the categories of health effects for which reliable quantitative data exists. The same health effects appear in the LSE table.
- (15) Levels of Exposure. Concentrations or doses for each health effect in the LSE tables are graphically displayed in the LSE figures. Exposure concentration or dose is measured on the log scale "y" axis. Inhalation exposure is reported in mg/m³ or ppm and oral exposure is reported in mg/kg/day.
- (16) NOAEL. In this example, the open circle designated 18r identifies a NOAEL critical end point in the rat upon which an intermediate inhalation exposure MRL is based. The key number 18 corresponds to the entry in the LSE table. The dashed descending arrow indicates the extrapolation from the exposure level of 3 ppm (see entry 18 in the table) to the MRL of 0.005 ppm (see footnote "b" in the LSE table).
- (17) CEL. Key number 38m is one of three studies for which CELs were derived. The diamond symbol refers to a CEL for the test species-mouse. The number 38 corresponds to the entry in the LSE table.

APPENDIX B

- (18) Estimated Upper-Bound Human Cancer Risk Levels. This is the range associated with the upper-bound for lifetime cancer risk of 1 in 10,000 to 1 in 10,000,000. These risk levels are derived from the EPA's Human Health Assessment Group's upper-bound estimates of the slope of the cancer dose response curve at low dose levels (q_1^*).
- (19) Key to LSE Figure. The Key explains the abbreviations and symbols used in the figure.

SAMPLE

1 →

Table 3-1. Levels of Significant Exposure to [Chemical x] – Inhalation

	Key to figure ^a	Species	Exposure frequency/ duration	System	NOAEL (ppm)	LOAEL (effect)		Reference
						Less serious (ppm)	Serious (ppm)	
2 →	INTERMEDIATE EXPOSURE							
		5	6	7	8	9		10
3 →	Systemic	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓		↓
4 →	18	Rat	13 wk 5 d/wk 6 hr/d	Resp	3 ^b	10 (hyperplasia)		Nitschke et al. 1981
	CHRONIC EXPOSURE							
	Cancer						11	
							↓	
	38	Rat	18 mo 5 d/wk 7 hr/d			20	(CEL, multiple organs)	Wong et al. 1982
	39	Rat	89–104 wk 5 d/wk 6 hr/d			10	(CEL, lung tumors, nasal tumors)	NTP 1982
	40	Mouse	79–103 wk 5 d/wk 6 hr/d			10	(CEL, lung tumors, hemangiosarcomas)	NTP 1982

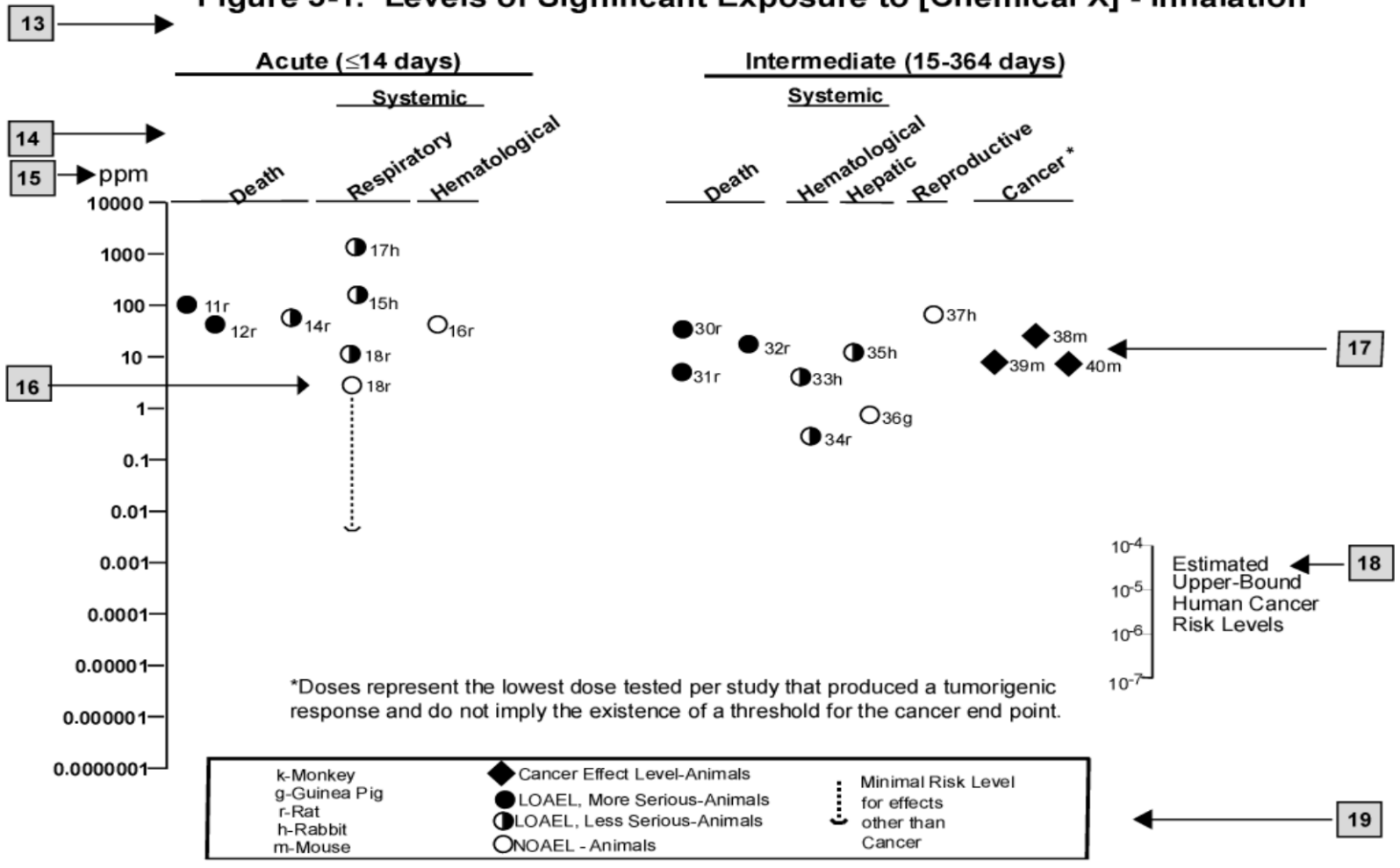
12 →

^a The number corresponds to entries in Figure 3-1.

^b Used to derive an intermediate inhalation Minimal Risk Level (MRL) of 5×10^{-3} ppm; dose adjusted for intermittent exposure and divided by an uncertainty factor of 100 (10 for extrapolation from animal to humans, 10 for human variability).

SAMPLE

Figure 3-1. Levels of Significant Exposure to [Chemical X] - Inhalation



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APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

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APPENDIX C. ACRONYMS, ABBREVIATIONS, AND SYMBOLS

ACGIH	American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
ACOEM	American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine
ADI	acceptable daily intake
ADME	absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion
AED	atomic emission detection
AFID	alkali flame ionization detector
AFOSH	Air Force Office of Safety and Health
ALT	alanine aminotransferase
AML	acute myeloid leukemia
AOAC	Association of Official Analytical Chemists
AOEC	Association of Occupational and Environmental Clinics
AP	alkaline phosphatase
APHA	American Public Health Association
AST	aspartate aminotransferase
atm	atmosphere
ATSDR	Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry
AWQC	Ambient Water Quality Criteria
BAT	best available technology
BCF	bioconcentration factor
BEI	Biological Exposure Index
BMD	benchmark dose
BMR	benchmark response
BSC	Board of Scientific Counselors
C	centigrade
CAA	Clean Air Act
CAG	Cancer Assessment Group of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
CAS	Chemical Abstract Services
CDC	Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
CEL	cancer effect level
CELDS	Computer-Environmental Legislative Data System
CERCLA	Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
Ci	curie
CI	confidence interval
CL	ceiling limit value
CLP	Contract Laboratory Program
cm	centimeter
CML	chronic myeloid leukemia
CPSC	Consumer Products Safety Commission
CWA	Clean Water Act
DHEW	Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
DHHS	Department of Health and Human Services
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DOD	Department of Defense
DOE	Department of Energy
DOL	Department of Labor
DOT	Department of Transportation
DOT/UN/ NA/IMCO	Department of Transportation/United Nations/ North America/Intergovernmental Maritime Dangerous Goods Code

APPENDIX C

DWEL	drinking water exposure level
ECD	electron capture detection
ECG/EKG	electrocardiogram
EEG	electroencephalogram
EEGL	Emergency Exposure Guidance Level
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
F	Fahrenheit
F ₁	first-filial generation
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
FIFRA	Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act
FPD	flame photometric detection
fpm	feet per minute
FR	Federal Register
FSH	follicle stimulating hormone
g	gram
GC	gas chromatography
gd	gestational day
GLC	gas liquid chromatography
GPC	gel permeation chromatography
HPLC	high-performance liquid chromatography
HRGC	high resolution gas chromatography
HSDB	Hazardous Substance Data Bank
IARC	International Agency for Research on Cancer
IDLH	immediately dangerous to life and health
ILO	International Labor Organization
IRIS	Integrated Risk Information System
K _d	adsorption ratio
kg	kilogram
kgg	metric ton
K _{oc}	organic carbon partition coefficient
K _{ow}	octanol-water partition coefficient
L	liter
LC	liquid chromatography
LC ₅₀	lethal concentration, 50% kill
LC _{Lo}	lethal concentration, low
LD ₅₀	lethal dose, 50% kill
LD _{Lo}	lethal dose, low
LDH	lactic dehydrogenase
LH	luteinizing hormone
LOAEL	lowest-observed-adverse-effect level
LSE	Levels of Significant Exposure
LT ₅₀	lethal time, 50% kill
m	meter
MA	<i>trans,trans</i> -muconic acid
MAL	maximum allowable level
mCi	millicurie
MCL	maximum contaminant level
MCLG	maximum contaminant level goal
MF	modifying factor

APPENDIX C

MFO	mixed function oxidase
mg	milligram
mL	milliliter
mm	millimeter
mmHg	millimeters of mercury
mmol	millimole
mppcf	millions of particles per cubic foot
MRL	Minimal Risk Level
MS	mass spectrometry
NAAQS	National Ambient Air Quality Standard
NAS	National Academy of Science
NATICH	National Air Toxics Information Clearinghouse
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NCE	normochromatic erythrocytes
NCEH	National Center for Environmental Health
NCI	National Cancer Institute
ND	not detected
NFPA	National Fire Protection Association
ng	nanogram
NHANES	National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey
NIEHS	National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences
NIOSH	National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
NIOSHTIC	NIOSH's Computerized Information Retrieval System
NLM	National Library of Medicine
nm	nanometer
nmol	nanomole
NOAEL	no-observed-adverse-effect level
NOES	National Occupational Exposure Survey
NOHS	National Occupational Hazard Survey
NPD	nitrogen phosphorus detection
NPDES	National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System
NPL	National Priorities List
NR	not reported
NRC	National Research Council
NS	not specified
NSPS	New Source Performance Standards
NTIS	National Technical Information Service
NTP	National Toxicology Program
ODW	Office of Drinking Water, EPA
OERR	Office of Emergency and Remedial Response, EPA
OHM/TADS	Oil and Hazardous Materials/Technical Assistance Data System
OPP	Office of Pesticide Programs, EPA
OPPT	Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics, EPA
OPPTS	Office of Prevention, Pesticides and Toxic Substances, EPA
OR	odds ratio
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
OSW	Office of Solid Waste, EPA
OTS	Office of Toxic Substances
OW	Office of Water
OWRS	Office of Water Regulations and Standards, EPA
PAH	polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon

APPENDIX C

PBPD	physiologically based pharmacodynamic
PBPK	physiologically based pharmacokinetic
PCE	polychromatic erythrocytes
PEL	permissible exposure limit
pg	picogram
PHS	Public Health Service
PID	photo ionization detector
pmol	picomole
PMR	proportionate mortality ratio
ppb	parts per billion
ppm	parts per million
ppt	parts per trillion
PSNS	pretreatment standards for new sources
RBC	red blood cell
REL	recommended exposure level/limit
RfC	reference concentration
RfD	reference dose
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RQ	reportable quantity
RTECS	Registry of Toxic Effects of Chemical Substances
SARA	Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act
SCE	sister chromatid exchange
SGOT	serum glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase
SGPT	serum glutamic pyruvic transaminase
SIC	standard industrial classification
SIM	selected ion monitoring
SMCL	secondary maximum contaminant level
SMR	standardized mortality ratio
SNARL	suggested no adverse response level
SPEGL	Short-Term Public Emergency Guidance Level
STEL	short term exposure limit
STORET	Storage and Retrieval
TD ₅₀	toxic dose, 50% specific toxic effect
TLV	threshold limit value
TOC	total organic carbon
TPQ	threshold planning quantity
TRI	Toxics Release Inventory
TSCA	Toxic Substances Control Act
TWA	time-weighted average
UF	uncertainty factor
U.S.	United States
USDA	United States Department of Agriculture
USGS	United States Geological Survey
VOC	volatile organic compound
WBC	white blood cell
WHO	World Health Organization

APPENDIX C

>	greater than
≥	greater than or equal to
=	equal to
<	less than
≤	less than or equal to
%	percent
α	alpha
β	beta
γ	gamma
δ	delta
μm	micrometer
μg	microgram
q ₁ *	cancer slope factor
-	negative
+	positive
(+)	weakly positive result
(-)	weakly negative result

APPENDIX C

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APPENDIX D. OVERVIEW OF BASIC RADIATION PHYSICS, CHEMISTRY, AND BIOLOGY

Understanding the basic concepts in radiation physics, chemistry, and biology is important to the evaluation and interpretation of radiation-induced adverse health effects and to the derivation of radiation protection principles. This appendix presents a brief overview of the areas of radiation physics, chemistry, and biology and is based to a large extent on the reviews of Mettler and Moseley (1985), Hobbs and McClellan (1986), Eichholz (1982), Hendee (1973), Cember (1996), and Early et al. (1979).

D.1 RADIONUCLIDES AND RADIOACTIVITY

The substances we call elements are composed of atoms. Atoms in turn are made up of neutrons, protons and electrons: neutrons and protons in the nucleus and electrons in a cloud of orbits around the nucleus. Nuclide is the general term referring to any nucleus along with its orbital electrons. The nuclide is characterized by the composition of its nucleus and hence by the number of protons and neutrons in the nucleus. All atoms of an element have the same number of protons (this is given by the atomic number) but may have different numbers of neutrons (this is reflected by the atomic mass numbers or atomic weight of the element). Atoms with different atomic mass but the same atomic numbers are referred to as isotopes of an element.

The numerical combination of protons and neutrons in most nuclides is such that the nucleus is quantum mechanically stable and the atom is said to be stable, i.e., not radioactive; however, if there are too few or too many neutrons, the nucleus is unstable and the atom is said to be radioactive. Unstable nuclides undergo radioactive transformation, a process in which a neutron or proton converts into the other and a beta particle is emitted, or else an alpha particle is emitted. Each type of decay is typically accompanied by the emission of gamma rays. These unstable atoms are called radionuclides; their emissions are called ionizing radiation; and the whole property is called radioactivity. Transformation or decay results in the formation of new nuclides some of which may themselves be radionuclides, while others are stable nuclides. This series of transformations is called the decay chain of the radionuclide. The first radionuclide in the chain is called the parent; the subsequent products of the transformation are called progeny, daughters, or decay products.

In general there are two classifications of radioactivity and radionuclides: natural and artificial (man-made). Naturally-occurring radioactive material (NORM) exists in nature and no additional energy is necessary to place them in an unstable state. Natural radioactivity is the property of some naturally occurring, usually heavy elements, that are heavier than lead. Radionuclides, such as radium and uranium, primarily emit alpha particles. Some lighter elements such as carbon-14 and tritium (hydrogen-3) primarily emit beta particles as they transform to a more stable atom. Natural radioactive atoms heavier than lead cannot attain a stable nucleus heavier than lead. Everyone is exposed to background radiation from naturally-occurring radionuclides throughout life. This background radiation is the major source of radiation exposure to man and arises from several sources. The natural background exposures are frequently used as a standard of comparison for exposures to various artificial sources of ionizing radiation.

Artificial radioactive atoms are produced either as a by-product of fission of uranium or plutonium atoms in a nuclear reactor or by bombarding stable atoms with particles, such as neutrons or protons, directed at the stable atoms with high velocity. These artificially produced radioactive elements usually decay by

APPENDIX D

emission of particles, such as positive or negative beta particles and one or more high energy photons (gamma rays). Unstable (radioactive) atoms of any element can be produced.

Both naturally occurring and artificial radioisotopes find application in medicine, industrial products, and consumer products. Some specific radioisotopes, called fall-out, are still found in the environment as a result of nuclear weapons use or testing.

D.2 RADIOACTIVE DECAY

D.2.1 Principles of Radioactive Decay

The stability of an atom is the result of the balance of the forces of the various components of the nucleus. An atom that is unstable (radionuclide) will release energy (decay) in various ways and transform to stable atoms or to other radioactive species called daughters, often with the release of ionizing radiation. If there are either too many or too few neutrons for a given number of protons, the resulting nucleus may undergo transformation. For some elements, a chain of daughter decay products may be produced until stable atoms are formed. Radionuclides can be characterized by the type and energy of the radiation emitted, the rate of decay, and the mode of decay. The mode of decay indicates how a parent compound undergoes transformation. Radiations considered here are primarily of nuclear origin, i.e., they arise from nuclear excitation, usually caused by the capture of charged or uncharged nucleons by a nucleus, or by the radioactive decay or transformation of an unstable nuclide. The type of radiation may be categorized as charged or uncharged particles, protons, and fission products) or electromagnetic radiation (gamma rays and x rays). Table D-1 summarizes the basic characteristics of the more common types of radiation encountered.

D.2.2 Half-Life and Activity

For any given radionuclide, the rate of decay is a first-order process that is constant, regardless of the radioactive atoms present and is characteristic for each radionuclide. The process of decay is a series of random events; temperature, pressure, or chemical combinations do not effect the rate of decay. While it may not be possible to predict exactly which atom is going to undergo transformation at any given time, it is possible to predict, on average, the fraction of the radioactive atoms that will transform during any interval of time.

The *activity* is a measure of the quantity of radioactive material. For these radioactive materials it is customary to describe the activity as the number of disintegrations (transformations) per unit time. The unit of activity is the curie (Ci), which was originally related to the activity of one gram of radium, but is now defined as that quantity of radioactive material in which there are:

1 curie (Ci) = 3.7×10^{10} disintegrations (transformations)/second (dps) or 2.22×10^{12} disintegrations (transformations)/minute (dpm).

The SI unit of activity is the becquerel (Bq); 1 Bq = that quantity of radioactive material in which there is 1 transformation/second. Since activity is proportional to the number of atoms of the radioactive material, the quantity of any radioactive material is usually expressed in curies, regardless of its purity or concentration. The transformation of radioactive nuclei is a random process, and the number of transformations is directly proportional to the number of radioactive atoms present. For any pure radioactive substance, the rate of decay is usually described by its radiological half-life, T_R , i.e., the time it takes for a specified source material to decay to half its initial activity. The specific activity is an indirect measure of the rate of decay, and is defined as the activity per unit mass or per unit volume. The higher the specific activity of a radioisotope, the faster it is decaying.

APPENDIX D

The activity of a radionuclide at time t may be calculated by:

$$A = A_0 e^{-0.693t/T_{\text{rad}}}$$

where A is the activity in dps or curies or becquerels, A_0 is the activity at time zero, t is the time at which measured, and T_{rad} is the radiological half-life of the radionuclide (T_{rad} and t must be in the same units of time). The time when the activity of a sample of radioactivity becomes one-half its original value is the radioactive half-life and is expressed in any suitable unit of time.

Table D-1. Characteristics of Nuclear Radiations

Radiation	Rest mass ^a	Charge	Typical energy range	Path length ^b		Comments
				Air	Solid	
Alpha (α)	4.00 amu	+2	4–10 MeV	5–10 cm	25–80 μm	Identical to ionized He nucleus
Negatron (β^-)	5.48x10 ⁻⁴ amu; 0.51 MeV	-1	0–4 MeV	0–10 m	0–1 cm	Identical to electron
Positron (β^+)	5.48x10 ⁻⁴ amu; 0.51 MeV	+1	0–4 MeV	0–10 m	0–1 cm	Identical to electron except for sign of charge
Neutron	1.0086 amu; 939.55 MeV	0	0–15 MeV	b	b	Free half-life: 16 min
X ray (e.m. photon)	–	0	5 keV–100 keV	b	b	Photon from transition of an electron between atomic orbits
Gamma (γ) (e.m. photon)	–	0	10 keV–3 MeV	b	b	Photon from nuclear transformation

^a The rest mass (in amu) has an energy equivalent in MeV that is obtained using the equation $E=mc^2$, where 1 amu = 932 MeV.

^b Path lengths are not applicable to x- and gamma rays since their intensities decrease exponentially; path lengths in solid tissue are variable, depending on particle energy, electron density of material, and other factors.

amu = atomic mass unit; e.m. = electromagnetic; MeV = MegaElectron Volts

The specific activity is a measure of activity, and is fined as the activity per unit mass or per unit volume. This activity is usually expressed in curies per gram and may be calculated by

$$\text{curies/gram} = 1.3 \times 10^8 / (T_{\text{rad}}) (\text{atomic weight}) \quad \text{or}$$

$$[3.577 \times 10^5 \times \text{mass(g)}] / [T_{\text{rad}} \times \text{atomic weight}]$$

where T_{rad} is the radiological half-life in days.

APPENDIX D

In the case of radioactive materials contained in living organisms, an additional consideration is made for the reduction in observed activity due to regular processes of elimination of the respective chemical or biochemical substance from the organism. This introduces a rate constant called the biological half-life (T_{biol}) which is the time required for biological processes to eliminate one-half of the activity. This time is virtually the same for both stable and radioactive isotopes of any given element.

Under such conditions the time required for a radioactive element to be halved as a result of the combined action of radioactive decay and biological elimination is the effective clearance half-time:

$$T_{\text{eff}} = (T_{\text{biol}} \times T_{\text{rad}}) / (T_{\text{biol}} + T_{\text{rad}}).$$

Table D-2 presents representative effective half-lives of particular interest.

Table D-2. Half-Lives of Some Radionuclides in Adult Body Organs

Radionuclide	Critical organ	Half-life ^a		
		Physical	Biological	Effective
Uranium 238	Kidney	4,460,000,000 y	4 d	4 d
Hydrogen 3 ^b (Tritium)	Whole body	12.3 y	10 d	10 d
Iodine 131	Thyroid	8 d	80 d	7.3 d
Strontium 90	Bone	28 y	50 y	18 y
Plutonium 239	Bone surface	24,400 y	50 y	50 y
	Lung	24,400 y	500 d	500 d
Cobalt 60	Whole body	5.3 y	99.5 d	95 d
Iron 55	Spleen	2.7 y	600 d	388 d
Iron 59	Spleen	45.1 d	600 d	42 d
Manganese 54	Liver	303 d	25 d	23 d
Cesium 137	Whole body	30 y	70 d	70 d

^ad = days, y = years

^bMixed in body water as tritiated water

D.2.3 Interaction of Radiation with Matter

Both ionizing and nonionizing radiation will interact with materials; that is, radiation will lose kinetic energy to any solid, liquid or gas through which it passes by a variety of mechanisms. The transfer of energy to a medium by either electromagnetic or particulate radiation may be sufficient to cause formation of ions. This process is called ionization. Compared to other types of radiation that may be absorbed, such as ultraviolet radiation, ionizing radiation deposits a relatively large amount of energy into a small volume.

The method by which incident radiation interacts with the medium to cause ionization may be direct or indirect. Electromagnetic radiations (x rays and gamma photons) are indirectly ionizing; that is, they give up their energy in various interactions with cellular molecules, and the energy is then utilized to produce a fast-moving charged particle such as an electron. It is the electron that then may react with a target molecule. This particle is called a "primary ionizing particle. Charged particles, in contrast, strike the tissue or medium and directly react with target molecules, such as oxygen or water. These particulate radiations are directly ionizing radiations. Examples of directly ionizing particles include alpha and beta

APPENDIX D

particles. Indirectly ionizing radiations are always more penetrating than directly ionizing particulate radiations.

Mass, charge, and velocity of a particle all affect the rate at which ionization occurs. The higher the charge of the particle and the lower the velocity, the greater the propensity to cause ionization. Heavy, highly charged particles, such as alpha particles, lose energy rapidly with distance and, therefore, do not penetrate deeply. The result of these interaction processes is a gradual slowing down of any incident particle until it is brought to rest or "stopped" at the end of its range.

D.2.4 Characteristics of Emitted Radiation

D.2.4.1 Alpha Emission. In alpha emission, an alpha particle consisting of two protons and two neutrons is emitted with a resulting decrease in the atomic mass number by four and reduction of the atomic number of two, thereby changing the parent to a different element. The alpha particle is identical to a helium nucleus consisting of two neutrons and two protons. It results from the radioactive decay of some heavy elements such as uranium, plutonium, radium, thorium, and radon. All alpha particles emitted by a given radioisotope have the same energy. Most of the alpha particles that are likely to be found have energies in the range of about 4 to 8 MeV, depending on the isotope from which they came.

The alpha particle has an electrical charge of +2. Because of this double positive charge and their size, alpha particles have great ionizing power and, thus, lose their kinetic energy quickly. This results in very little penetrating power. In fact, an alpha particle cannot penetrate a sheet of paper. The range of an alpha particle (the distance the charged particle travels from the point of origin to its resting point) is about 4 cm in air, which decreases considerably to a few micrometers in tissue. These properties cause alpha emitters to be hazardous only if there is internal contamination (i.e., if the radionuclide is inside the body).

D.2.4.2 Beta Emission. A beta particle (β) is a high-velocity electron ejected from a disintegrating nucleus. The particle may be either a negatively charged electron, termed a negatron (β^-) or a positively charged electron, termed a positron (β^+). Although the precise definition of "beta emission" refers to both β^- and β^+ , common usage of the term generally applies only to the negative particle, as distinguished from the positron emission, which refers to the β^+ particle.

D.2.4.2.1 Beta Negative Emission. Beta particle (β^-) emission is another process by which a radionuclide, with a neutron excess achieves stability. Beta particle emission decreases the number of neutrons by one and increases the number of protons by one, while the atomic mass number remains unchanged.⁴ This transformation results in the formation of a different element. The energy spectrum of beta particle emission ranges from a certain maximum down to zero with the mean energy of the spectrum being about one-third of the maximum. The range in tissue is much less. Beta negative emitting radionuclides can cause injury to the skin and superficial body tissues, but mostly present an internal contamination hazard.

D.2.4.2.2 Positron Emission. In cases in which there are too many protons in the nucleus, positron emission may occur. In this case a proton may be thought of as being converted into a neutron, and a positron (β^+) is emitted.¹ This increases the number of neutrons by one, decreases the number of protons by one, and again leaves the atomic mass number unchanged. The gamma radiation resulting from the annihilation (see glossary) of the positron makes all positron emitting isotopes more of an external radiation hazard than pure β emitters of equal energy.

⁴ Neutrinos also accompany negative beta particles and positron emissions

APPENDIX D

D.2.4.2.3 Gamma Emission. Radioactive decay by alpha, beta, or positron emission, or electron capture often leaves some of the energy resulting from these changes in the nucleus. As a result, the nucleus is raised to an excited level. None of these excited nuclei can remain in this high-energy state. Nuclei release this energy returning to ground state or to the lowest possible stable energy level. The energy released is in the form of gamma radiation (high energy photons) and has an energy equal to the change in the energy state of the nucleus. Gamma and x rays behave similarly but differ in their origin; gamma emissions originate in the nucleus while x rays originate in the orbital electron structure or from rapidly changing the velocity of an electron (e.g., as occurs when shielding high energy beta particles or stopping the electron beam in an x ray tube).

D.3 ESTIMATION OF ENERGY DEPOSITION IN HUMAN TISSUES

Two forms of potential radiation exposures can result: internal and external. The term exposure denotes physical interaction of the radiation emitted from the radioactive material with cells and tissues of the human body. An exposure can be "acute" or "chronic" depending on how long an individual or organ is exposed to the radiation. Internal exposures occur when radionuclides, which have entered the body (e.g., through the inhalation, ingestion, or dermal pathways), undergo radioactive decay resulting in the deposition of energy to internal organs. External exposures occur when radiation enters the body directly from sources located outside the body, such as radiation emitters from radionuclides on ground surfaces, dissolved in water, or dispersed in the air. In general, external exposures are from material emitting gamma radiation, which readily penetrate the skin and internal organs. Beta and alpha radiation from external sources are far less penetrating and deposit their energy primarily on the skin's outer layer. Consequently, their contribution to the absorbed dose of the total body dose, compared to that deposited by gamma rays, may be negligible.

Characterizing the radiation dose to persons as a result of exposure to radiation is a complex issue. It is difficult to: (1) measure internally the amount of energy actually transferred to an organic material and to correlate any observed effects with this energy deposition; and (2) account for and predict secondary processes, such as collision effects or biologically triggered effects, that are an indirect consequence of the primary interaction event.

D.3.1 Dose/Exposure Units

D.3.1.1 Roentgen. The roentgen (R) is a unit of x or gamma-ray exposure and is measured by the amount of ionization caused in air by gamma or x radiation. One roentgen produces 2.58×10^{-4} coulomb per kilogram of air. In the case of gamma radiation, over the commonly encountered range of photon energy, the energy deposition in tissue for a dose of 1 R is about 0.0096 joules (J) /kg of tissue.

D.3.1.2 Absorbed Dose and Absorbed Dose Rate. The absorbed dose is defined as the energy imparted by the incident radiation to a unit mass of the tissue or organ. The unit of absorbed dose is the rad; 1 rad = 100 erg/gram = 0.01 J/kg in any medium. An exposure of 1 R results in a dose to soft tissue of approximately 0.01 J/kg. The SI unit is the gray which is equivalent to 100 rad or 1 J/kg. Internal and external exposures from radiation sources are not usually instantaneous but are distributed over extended periods of time. The resulting rate of change of the absorbed dose to a small volume of mass is referred to as the absorbed dose rate in units of rad/unit time.

D.3.1.3 Working Levels and Working Level Months. Working level (WL) is a measure of the atmospheric concentration of radon and its short-lived progeny. One WL is defined as any combination of short-lived radon daughters (through polonium-214), per liter of air, that will result in the emission of 1.3×10^5 MeV of alpha energy. An activity concentration of 100 pCi radon-222/L of air, in equilibrium with its daughters, corresponds approximately to a potential alpha-energy concentration of 1 WL. The

APPENDIX D

WL unit can also be used for thoron daughters. In this case, 1.3×10^5 MeV of alpha energy (1 WL) is released by the thoron daughters in equilibrium with 7.5 pCi thoron/L. The potential alpha energy exposure of miners is commonly expressed in the unit Working Level Month (WLM). One WLM corresponds to exposure to a concentration of 1 WL for the reference period of 170 hours, or more generally.

WLM = concentration (WL) x exposure time (months) (one "month" = 170 working hours).

D.3.2 Dosimetry Models

Dosimetry models are used to estimate the dose from internally deposited to radioactive substances. The models for internal dosimetry consider the amount of radionuclides entering the body, the factors affecting their movement or transport through the body, distribution and retention of radionuclides in the body, and the energy deposited in organs and tissues from the radiation that is emitted during spontaneous decay processes. The dose pattern for radioactive materials in the body may be strongly influenced by the route of entry of the material. For industrial workers, inhalation of radioactive particles with pulmonary deposition and puncture wounds with subcutaneous deposition have been the most frequent. The general population has been exposed via ingestion and inhalation of low levels of naturally occurring radionuclides as well as radionuclides from nuclear weapons testing.

The models for external dosimetry consider only the photon doses to organs of individuals who are immersed in air or are exposed to a contaminated object.

D.3.2.1 Ingestion. Ingestion of radioactive materials is most likely to occur from contaminated foodstuffs or water or eventual ingestion of inhaled compounds initially deposited in the lung. Ingestion of radioactive material may result in toxic effects as a result of either absorption of the radionuclide or irradiation of the gastrointestinal tract during passage through the tract, or a combination of both. The fraction of a radioactive material absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract is variable, depending on the specific element, the physical and chemical form of the material ingested, and the diet, as well as some other metabolic and physiological factors. The absorption of some elements is influenced by age, usually with higher absorption in the very young.

D.3.2.2 Inhalation. The inhalation route of exposure has long been recognized as being a major portal of entry for both nonradioactive and radioactive materials. The deposition of particles within the lung is largely dependent upon the size of the particles being inhaled. After the particle is deposited, the retention will depend upon the physical and chemical properties of the dust and the physiological status of the lung. The retention of the particle in the lung depends on the location of deposition, in addition to the physical and chemical properties of the particles. The converse of pulmonary retention is pulmonary clearance. There are three distinct mechanisms of clearance which operate simultaneously. Ciliary clearance acts only in the upper respiratory tract. The second and third mechanisms act mainly in the deep respiratory tract. These are phagocytosis and absorption. Phagocytosis is the engulfing of foreign bodies by alveolar macrophages and their subsequent removal either up the ciliary "escalator" or by entrance into the lymphatic system. Some inhaled soluble particles are absorbed into the blood and translocated to other organs and tissues.

D.3.3 Internal Emitters

An internal emitter is a radionuclide that is inside the body. The absorbed dose from internally deposited radioisotopes depends on the energy absorbed per unit tissue by the irradiated tissue. For a radioisotope distributed uniformly throughout an infinitely large medium, the concentration of absorbed energy must be equal to the concentration of energy emitted by the isotope. An infinitely large medium may be

APPENDIX D

approximated by a tissue mass whose dimensions exceed the range of the particle. All alpha and most beta radiation will be absorbed in the organ (or tissue) of reference. Gamma-emitting isotope emissions are penetrating radiation, and a substantial fraction of gamma energy may be absorbed in tissue. The dose to an organ or tissue is a function of the effective retention half-time, the energy released in the tissue, the amount of radioactivity initially introduced, and the mass of the organ or tissue.

D.4 BIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF RADIATION

When biological material is exposed to ionizing radiation, a chain of cellular events occurs as the ionizing particle passes through the biological material. A number of theories have been proposed to describe the interaction of radiation with biologically important molecules in cells and to explain the resulting damage to biological systems from those interactions. Many factors may modify the response of a living organism to a given dose of radiation. Factors related to the exposure include the dose rate, the energy of the radiation, and the temporal pattern of the exposure. Biological considerations include factors such as species, age, sex, and the portion of the body exposed. Several excellent reviews of the biological effects of radiation have been published, and the reader is referred to these for a more in-depth discussion (Brodsky 1996; Hobbs and McClellan 1986; ICRP 1984; Mettler and Moseley 1985; Rubin and Casarett 1968).

D.4.1 Radiation Effects at the Cellular Level

According to Mettler and Moseley (1985), at acute doses up to 10 rad (100 mGy), single strand breaks in DNA may be produced. These single strand breaks may be repaired rapidly. With doses in the range of 50–500 rad (0.5–5 Gy), irreparable double-stranded DNA breaks are likely, resulting in cellular reproductive death after one or more divisions of the irradiated parent cell. At large doses of radiation, usually greater than 500 rad (5 Gy), direct cell death before division (interphase death) may occur from the direct interaction of free-radicals with essentially cellular macromolecules. Morphological changes at the cellular level, the severity of which are dose-dependent, may also be observed.

The sensitivity of various cell types varies. According to the Bergonie-Tribondeau law, the sensitivity of cell lines is directly proportional to their mitotic rate and inversely proportional to the degree of differentiation (Mettler and Moseley 1985). Rubin and Casarett (1968) devised a classification system that categorized cells according to type, function, and mitotic activity. The categories range from the most sensitive type, "vegetative intermitotic cells," found in the stem cells of the bone marrow and the gastrointestinal tract, to the least sensitive cell type, "fixed postmitotic cells," found in striated muscles or long-lived neural tissues.

Cellular changes may result in cell death, which if extensive, may produce irreversible damage to an organ or tissue or may result in the death of the individual. If the cell recovers, altered metabolism and function may still occur, which may be repaired or may result in the manifestation of clinical symptoms. These changes may also be expressed at a later time as tumors or cellular mutations, which may result in abnormal tissue.

D.4.2 Radiation Effects at the Organ Level

In most organs and tissues the injury and the underlying mechanism for that injury are complex and may involve a combination of events. The extent and severity of this tissue injury are dependent upon the radiosensitivity of the various cell types in that organ system. Rubin and Casarett (1968) describe and schematically display the events following radiation in several organ system types. These include: a rapid renewal system, such as the gastrointestinal mucosa; a slow renewal system, such as the pulmonary epithelium; and a nonrenewal system, such as neural or muscle tissue. In the rapid renewal system, organ

APPENDIX D

injury results from the direct destruction of highly radiosensitive cells, such as the stem cells in the bone marrow. Injury may also result from constriction of the microcirculation and from edema and inflammation of the basement membrane, designated as the histohematic barrier (HHB), which may progress to fibrosis. In slow renewal and nonrenewal systems, the radiation may have little effect on the parenchymal cells, but ultimate parenchymal atrophy and death over several months result from HHB fibrosis and occlusion of the microcirculation.

D.4.3 Low Level Radiation Effects

Cancer is the major latent harmful effect produced by ionizing radiation and the one that most people exposed to radiation are concerned about. The ability of alpha, beta, and gamma radiation to produce cancer in virtually every tissue and organ in laboratory animals has been well-demonstrated. The development of cancer is not an immediate effect. Radiation-induced leukemia has the shortest latent period at 2 years, while other radiation induced cancers have latent periods >20 years. The mechanism by which cancer is induced in living cells is complex and is a topic of intense study. Exposure to ionizing radiation can produce cancer at any site within the body; however, some sites appear to be more common than others, such as the breast, lung, stomach, and thyroid.

DNA is a major target molecule during exposure to ionizing radiation. Other macromolecules, such as lipids and proteins, are also at risk of damage when exposed to ionizing radiation. The genotoxicity of ionizing radiation is an area of intense study, as damage to the DNA is ultimately responsible for many of the adverse toxicological effects ascribed to ionizing radiation, including cancer. Damage to genetic material is basic to developmental or teratogenic effects, as well. However, for effects other than cancer, there is little evidence of human effects at low levels of exposure.

D.5 UNITS IN RADIATION PROTECTION AND REGULATION

D.5.1 Dose Equivalent and Dose Equivalent Rate

Dose equivalent or rem is a special radiation protection quantity that is used, for administrative and radiation safety purposes only, to express the absorbed dose in a manner which considers the difference in biological effectiveness of various kinds of ionizing radiation. The ICRU has defined the dose equivalent, H, as the product of the absorbed dose, D, and the quality factor, Q, at the point of interest in biological tissue. This relationship is expressed as $H = D \times Q$. The dose equivalent concept is applicable only to doses that are not great enough to produce biomedical effects.

The quality factor is a dimensionless quantity that depends in part on the stopping power for charged particles, and it accounts for the differences in biological effectiveness found among the types of radiation. Originally relative biological effectiveness (RBE) was used rather than Q to define the quantity, rem, which was of use in risk assessment. The generally accepted values for quality factors for various radiation types are provided in Table D-3. The dose equivalent rate is the time rate of change of the dose equivalent to organs and tissues and is expressed as rem/unit time or sievert/unit time.

APPENDIX D

Table D-3. Quality Factors (Q) and Absorbed Dose Equivalencies

Type of radiation	Quality factor (Q)	Absorbed dose equal to a unit dose equivalent*
X, gamma, or beta radiation	1	1
Alpha particles, multiple-charged particles, fission fragments and heavy particles of unknown charge	20	0.05
Neutrons of unknown energy	10	0.1
High-energy protons	10	0.1

*Absorbed dose in rad equal to 1 rem or the absorbed dose in gray equal to 1 sievert.

Source: USNRC. 1999. Standards for the protection against radiation, table 1004(b).1. 10 CFR 20.1004. U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission, Washington, D.C.

D.5.2 Relative Biological Effectiveness

RBE is used to denote the experimentally determined ratio of the absorbed dose from one radiation type to the absorbed dose of a reference radiation required to produce an identical biologic effect under the same conditions. Gamma rays from cobalt-60 and 200–250 keV x-rays have been used as reference standards. The term RBE has been widely used in experimental radiobiology, and the term quality factor used in calculations of dose equivalents for radiation safety purposes (ICRP 1977; NCRP 1971; UNSCEAR 1982). RBE applies only to a specific biological end point, in a specific exposure, under specific conditions to a specific species. There are no generally accepted values of RBE.

D.5.3 Effective Dose Equivalent and Effective Dose Equivalent Rate

The absorbed dose is usually defined as the mean absorbed dose within an organ or tissue. This represents a simplification of the actual problem. Normally when an individual ingests or inhales a radionuclide or is exposed to external radiation that enters the body (gamma), the dose is not uniform throughout the whole body. The simplifying assumption is that the detriment will be the same whether the body is uniformly or non-uniformly irradiated. In an attempt to compare detriment from absorbed dose of a limited portion of the body with the detriment from total body dose, the ICRP (1977) has derived a concept of effective dose equivalent. The effective dose equivalent, H_E , is

$$H_E = (\text{the sum of}) W_t H_t$$

where H_t is the dose equivalent in the tissue, W_t is the weighting factor, which represents the estimated proportion of the stochastic risk resulting from tissue, T, to the stochastic risk when the whole body is uniformly irradiated for occupational exposures under certain conditions (ICRP 1977). Weighting factors for selected tissues are listed in Table D-4.

The ICRU (1980), ICRP (1984), and NCRP (1985) now recommend that the rad, roentgen, curie, and rem be replaced by the SI units: gray (Gy), Coulomb per kilogram (C/kg), Becquerel (Bq), and sievert (Sv), respectively. The relationship between the customary units and the international system of units (SI) for radiological quantities is shown in Table D-5.

APPENDIX D

Table D-4. Weighting Factors for Calculating Effective Dose Equivalent for Selected Tissues

Tissue	Weighting factor		
	ICRP60	NCRP115/ ICRP60	NRC
Bladder	0.040	0.05	–
Bone marrow	0.143	0.12	0.12
Bone surface	0.009	0.01	0.03
Breast	0.050	0.05	0.15
Colon	0.141	0.12	–
Liver	0.022	0.05	–
Lung	0.111	0.12	0.12
Esophagus	0.034	0.05	–
Ovary	0.020	0.05	–
Skin	0.006	0.01	–
Stomach	0.139	0.12	–
Thyroid	0.021	0.05	0.03
Gonads	0.183	0.20	0.25
subtotal	0.969	1	0.70
Remainder	0.031	0.05	0.30

ICRP60 = International Commission on Radiological Protection, 1990 Recommendations of the ICRP
 NCRP115 = National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements. 1993. Risk Estimates for Radiation Protection, Report 115. Bethesda, Maryland
 NRC = Nuclear Regulatory Commission, Title 10, Code of Federal Regulations, Part 20

Table D-5. Comparison of Common and SI Units for Radiation Quantities

Quantity	Customary units	Definition	SI units	Definition
Activity (A)	curie (Ci)	3.7×10^{10} transformations s ⁻¹	becquerel (Bq)	s ⁻¹
Absorbed dose (D)	rad (rad)	10^{-2} Jkg ⁻¹	gray (Gy)	Jkg ⁻¹
Absorbed dose rate (\dot{D})	rad per second (rad s ⁻¹)	10^{-2} Jkg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	gray per second (Gy s ⁻¹)	Jkg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹
Dose equivalent (H)	rem (rem)	10^{-2} Jkg ⁻¹	sievert (Sv)	Jkg ⁻¹
Dose equivalent rate (\dot{H})	rem per second (rem s ⁻¹)	10^{-2} Jkg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹	sievert per second (Sv s ⁻¹)	Jkg ⁻¹ s ⁻¹
Linear energy transfer (LET)	kiloelectron volts per micrometer (keV μm^{-1})	1.602×10^{-10} Jm ⁻¹	kiloelectron volts per micrometer (keV μm^{-1})	1.602×10^{-10} Jm ⁻¹

Jkg⁻¹ = Joules per kilogram; Jkg⁻¹s⁻¹ = Joules per kilogram per second; Jm⁻¹ = Joules per meter; s⁻¹ = per second

APPENDIX D

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APPENDIX E. INDEX

absorbed dose.....	107, 222, 234
acetylcholine.....	16, 148
acetylcholinesterase.....	16, 148
active transport.....	232
adenocarcinomas.....	106
adsorbed.....	3, 11, 279, 280, 295
adsorption.....	279, 293, 294, 295, 339, 340
alanine aminotransferase (see ALT).....	137
ALT (see alanine aminotransferase).....	137, 173
ambient air.....	91, 93, 95, 187, 299, 326
anaerobic.....	297
anemia.....	135, 136
antiestrogenic.....	152
aspartate aminotransferase (see AST).....	137
AST (see aspartate aminotransferase).....	137, 173
bioaccumulation.....	295, 326
bioavailability.....	242, 243, 250, 321, 326, 328
bioconcentration factor.....	295
biodistribution.....	332
biokinetic.....	180, 190, 195, 203, 205, 215, 218, 222, 250, 333
biological half-time.....	192, 199, 200, 201
biomarker.....	13, 35, 136, 170, 173, 233, 234, 235, 236, 240, 243, 245, 246, 249, 250, 329, 344, 347
blood cell count.....	89, 98, 147
body weight effects.....	32, 81, 96, 97, 109, 144, 158, 168, 174
breast milk.....	190, 232, 320
cancer.....	6, 18, 41, 42, 83, 103, 104, 105, 107, 155, 156, 157, 169, 231, 249, 251, 363
carcinogen.....	363
carcinogenic.....	18, 39, 40, 227, 244, 364
carcinogenicity.....	103, 156, 177, 240, 244, 364
carcinoma.....	99, 106, 107, 156
cardiovascular.....	44, 81, 87, 109, 133, 134, 158
cardiovascular effects.....	87, 133, 134
chromosomal aberrations.....	178, 179, 182, 228
clearance.....	81, 87, 88, 91, 93, 94, 140, 171, 191, 192, 193, 198, 199, 200, 203, 206, 207, 211, 212, 213, 215, 218, 224, 226, 243, 250
death.....	27, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 83, 84, 98, 103, 153, 176, 177, 178, 182, 185, 227, 244, 245
deoxyribonucleic acid (see DNA).....	177
dermal effects.....	96, 167, 168
developmental effects.....	32, 33, 101, 153, 154, 155, 169, 175, 177, 231, 246, 251, 349
DNA (see deoxyribonucleic acid).....	177, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 227, 234, 245, 247
dopamine.....	147, 148
endocrine.....	44, 81, 96, 109, 143, 158, 228, 229
endocrine effects.....	96, 143, 158, 174
erythema.....	167
estrogen receptor.....	229
estrogenic.....	17, 151, 229, 246
fetus.....	32, 230, 252, 321, 362
follicle stimulating hormone.....	175
fractional absorption.....	188, 232, 321

APPENDIX E

gastrointestinal effects	87, 88, 109, 134, 135
general population.....	11, 245, 246, 247, 320, 327
genotoxic.....	39, 178, 180, 244, 321
genotoxicity.....	170, 178, 180, 182, 244, 252
germinal cell.....	150, 245
groundwater	263, 274, 279, 287, 288, 293, 294, 295, 299, 307, 308, 326, 357
half-life.....	38, 211, 233, 259, 261, 296
hematological effects	44, 88, 90, 109, 135, 170
hematopoietic.....	88, 98, 103, 177
hepatic effects	44, 81, 90, 137, 173
hydrolysis.....	253
immune system	98, 99, 146
immunological	39, 98, 99, 147, 169, 248
immunological effects.....	98, 99
LD ₅₀	108, 109, 147, 157, 158
leukemia.....	88, 103, 105, 106
lymphatic	88, 98, 103, 206
lymphoreticular	146, 169, 248
mass spectroscopy.....	234
melanoma.....	106
metabolic effects	145
micronuclei	151, 180, 182
milk	180, 232, 298, 312
mucociliary	12, 81, 218
musculoskeletal effects	90, 136, 158, 170
neonatal.....	17, 31, 153, 155, 188, 232, 246, 320, 321, 328
neoplastic	182
neurobehavioral.....	5, 16, 33, 147, 149, 175, 176, 229, 231, 247, 248
neurological effects.....	15, 33, 99, 100, 101, 147, 149, 169, 174, 242, 248
neurotransmitter	15, 148
norepinephrine	147
nuclear.....	2, 11, 12, 18, 34, 38, 83, 98, 100, 105, 138, 141, 142, 146, 253, 260, 267, 270, 274, 275, 277, 284, 286, 287, 288, 291, 314, 322, 327, 329, 332, 335, 345, 351, 356, 357, 358, 360, 362
ocular effects.....	81, 96, 109
oxidative phosphorylation.....	227
pharmacodynamic	29, 202
pharmacokinetic.....	29, 92, 185, 202, 203, 204, 230, 232
placenta	190, 232
pulmonary fibrosis	15, 19, 82, 227
renal effects.....	14, 15, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 33, 35, 44, 87, 91, 92, 94, 96, 138, 141, 167, 173, 236, 244, 252, 349, 364
reproductive effects.....	16, 17, 33, 101, 150, 152, 169, 240, 245
respiratory effects.....	25, 39, 81, 82, 85, 109, 225
retention	12, 30, 41, 82, 91, 93, 94, 154, 185, 190, 191, 192, 200, 201, 206, 211, 212, 215, 224, 225, 233, 252, 261, 333, 353, 354
sarcoma	106, 156
solubility	12, 21, 92, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 191, 200, 206, 260, 261, 293
spermatozoa	16, 150, 245
systemic effects.....	44, 81, 97, 109, 158, 240
thyroid.....	35, 143, 191, 193, 275, 360

APPENDIX E

thyroxine 172
toxicokinetic..... 21, 37
tremors 147
tumors 18, 100, 103, 106, 178
weanling..... 252