December 16, 2005

Public Information and Records Integrity Branch (PIRIB) (7502C)
Attention: Docket ID Number OPP-2005-0174
Office of Pesticide Programs (OPP)
Environmental Protection Agency, 1200 Pennsylvania Ave., NW.
Washington, DC 20460-0001

James J. Jones
Director, Office of Pesticide Programs
U.S. EPA
1200 Pennsylvania Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20460-0001

Re: Docket ID Number OPP-2005-0174
Objections and Request for a Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances

Dear Director Jones,

This is in response to your letter of June 4, 2005, to Fluoride Action Network and Beyond Pesticides.

Of the issues delineated in your letter, we consider "Issue 9. EPA has failed to protect [certain] subpopulations" relevant to our Objections. We have expanded on our reasons in the attached submission.

We will not pursue issues 1 through 8 as stated in your letter.

Jonathan Fleuchaus suggested to us that EPA would prefer to combine the two "Objections and Request for Hearing" submitted in March 2004 and September 2005. We agree to this.

Due to the fact that we have not received a copy of the Health Risk Assessment that was used to set tolerances in the July 15, 2005, Final Rule, we request that we be given the opportunity to submit more issues, or amend the issues we have identified, that require adjudication.

Having reviewed our 2004 and 2005 appeals and the comments contained in your letter, we are satisfied that the vast bulk and core of the evidence we have presented to the EPA qualifies us for an evidentiary hearing on this matter.

We believe that each of the issues we have identified in the attached submission raises material issues of fact, which, if resolved in our favor would compel revocation of each of the tolerances identified in our objections.
In conjunction with each of these issues we have described our factual contentions in detail. In each instance, our contentions are at odds with the positions of the Agency. We believe that each of these issues can only be resolved by means of an evidentiary hearing as contemplated by FFDCA Section 408(g)(2)(B). At such hearing it is our intention to present factual evidence in the form of documents and expert testimony to support each of the factual contentions identified in this submission.

Sincerely,

Paul Connett, Director
Fluoride Action Network

Richard Wiles, Sr. Vice President
Environmental Working Group
1436 U Street NW, Suite 100
Washington, DC 20009

Jay Feldman, Executive Director
Beyond Pesticides/National Coalition Against the Misuse of Pesticides
701 E Street, SE
Washington DC 2003

CC:

Jonathan Fleuchaus (2333A)
Office of General Counsel
Environmental Protection Agency
1200 Pennsylvania Ave., NW
Washington, DC 20460-0001

ATTACHMENTS

Submission: Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances

Appendix A. Deaths from fumigation using sulfuryl fluoride “Vikane®”

Appendix B. FAN Drinking Water Analysis #1

Appendix C. FAN Drinking Water Analysis #2

References

Hard copies of references

NOTE: THE COPIES OF THE REFERENCES ARE BEING SENT UNDER SEPARATE MAIL
## INTRODUCTION

1. **History of sulfuryl fluoride use and proposed use.**

Dow has marketed sulfuryl fluoride (SO$_2$F$_2$) as a fumigant in closed structures to control numerous insect pests and rodents since the 1950s. Since receiving approval from EPA in January 2004, Dow AgroSciences (Dow) is now using sulfuryl fluoride as a fumigant on raw and processed foods in warehouses and in food and feed processing plants as an alternative fumigant to methyl bromide (which Dow also manufactures) because of the latter’s ozone layer depleting properties.

The following is the timeline for the first-time use of sulfuryl fluoride on food:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 15, 2001</td>
<td>Notice of Dow’s request to EPA for an Experimental Use Permit (EUP) for sulfuryl fluoride. Dow petitions EPA to establish a temporary tolerance for fluoride in/on walnut and sulfuryl fluoride in/on raisins. Dow requests EPA to establish an exemption from the requirement of a tolerance for fluoride in/on raisins (US EPA, 2001a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 5, 2001</td>
<td>EPA denies Dow’s request for a tolerance exemption for fluoride in/on raisins, and instead propose the following temporary tolerances: fluoride at 30 ppm in/on raisins and 12 ppm in/on walnut, and a tolerance for sulfuryl fluoride in/on walnut at 2 ppm and in/on raisins at 0.004 ppm (US EPA, 2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 19, 2001</td>
<td>Comments submitted to EPA on Sept 5th proposed temporary tolerances (Connett E, 2001).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 15, 2002</td>
<td>Dow petitions EPA for tolerances for more than 40 raw and processed food commodities (US EPA, 20002a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 27, 2002</td>
<td>EPA approves Dow’s request for an EUP (US EPA, 2002b).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan 23, 2004</td>
<td>EPA establishes the first-time food tolerances for residues of sulfuryl fluoride from post-harvest fumigation. EPA approves the highest food tolerances for fluoride residues in its history. EPA sets a precedent by allowing a dosage of fluoride for infants that is five times higher than for adults. EPA announces that Dow withdrew the EUP because &quot;the California Department of Pesticide Regulation has not issued the necessary state authorization to allow the EUP to proceed...&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EPA also states that because the EUP has been withdrawn by Dow, the Objections and Request for Hearing submitted by FAN are moot. However, EPA publishes 5 documents in response to FAN's objections (US EPA, 2004).

| March 23, 2004 | Objections and a Request for Hearing submitted to EPA on the January 2004 tolerances from FAN and Beyond Pesticides (Connett P et al., 2004). |
| March 4, 2005 | Dow petitions EPA for tolerances for over 600 food commodities (US EPA 2005a). |
| April 19, 2005 | FAN submits comments to EPA on Dow’s March 4, 2005, petition for tolerances (Connett E, 2005). |
| June 2, 2005 | EPA’s first response to the March 2004 Objections and Request for Hearing submitted by FAN and Beyond Pesticides (Jones JJ, 2005). |
| July 15, 2005 | EPA issues new tolerances for 219 processed food commodities, and a 70 ppm fluoride tolerance for all processed food not specifically cited. At this time they issue the highest- ever tolerance for fluoride residues: 900 ppm in/on dried egg (US EPA, 2005). |
| September 11, 2005 | Objections and Request for Hearing submitted to EPA on July 2005 tolerances from FAN, the Environmental Working Group, and Beyond Pesticides (Neurath et al., 2005). |

At each and every stage in the process to use sulfuryl fluoride as a food fumigant, FAN has engaged EPA on the problems inherent with increased fluoride exposure. In 2004, Beyond Pesticides joined FAN in submitting Objections and a Request for Hearing, and in September 2005 the Environmental Working Group joined with FAN and Beyond Pesticides in a formal appeal of the tolerances set by EPA.

2. Why FAN has intervened

FAN has intervened because it is concerned about the introduction of a major source of fluoride into the food supply.

Fluoride is the main product of sulfuryl fluoride degradation and that is why EPA has given two tolerances for its use: fluoride and sulfuryl fluoride. In so doing, EPA has set the highest tolerances for residues of fluoride in its history.

Putting another new source of fluoride into the daily lives of Americans is extremely unwise because it is clear that many children, and adults, are already overexposed (see issues 1 & 2), and because, based on a growing body of scientific research, this overexposure can not be considered safe (see issues 3-26).

3. Background on the toxicity of sulfuryl fluoride.

Sulfuryl fluoride is an odorless, colorless gas at room temperature (boiling point –55 °C) and relatively unreactive chemically. It is slowly hydrolyzed by water to yield the sulfate and fluoride ions. Its stability and its ability to absorb infrared radiation makes it a candidate for a global warming gas. In fact, Californian authorities have stated:

“It is entirely possible that sulfuryl fluoride has a long or very long atmospheric lifetime and should therefore be considered a greenhouse gas: (CA EPA, 2005 b, page 8)

Sulfuryl fluoride is moderately water soluble (0.075 grams per 100 grams) and about ten times more soluble in vegetable oil.
Most of the toxicological studies have been conducted on the inhalation exposure pathway. Little toxicological testing has been done in which animals are given sulfuryl fluoride in their diet.

The most disturbing toxicological finding from the inhalation studies on four different animal species (rats, mice, rabbits, and dogs) is damage to the brain. According to a 2005 Health Risk Assessment on Vikane performed by the California EPA:

“At non-lethal concentrations, neurotoxicity was observed in rats, mice, rabbits, and dogs. With acute to 2 weeks of exposures, clinical signs observed in these species included tremors, lethargy, respiratory effects, incapacitation, tetany, and convulsion. At the lowest-observed effect level, animals treated with sulfuryl fluoride for two weeks showed tissue damage in the kidney (rats), brain (rabbits, mice), and respiratory tract (rabbits and dogs). After 13 weeks of inhalation exposure, the brain was the primary target for sulfuryl fluoride toxicity in all species studied (rats, mice, rabbits, and dogs). The most common lesion was vacuoles in the cerebrum. Other effects reported were nasal tissue inflammation (rats and rabbits), kidney hyperplasia (rats), lung histiocytosis (rats), thyroid hypertrophy (mice), and fluorosis (rats).

After chronic exposure, the primary target tissue for sulfuryl fluoride was the brain and the respiratory tract in rats, mice, and dogs. As with subchronic exposure, brain vacuoles were observed in the cerebrum.” (CA EPA, 2005, page 3)

It is generally accepted that the main cause of sulfuryl fluoride’s toxicity is the generation of fluoride ion when sulfuryl fluoride is metabolized in biological systems or hydrolyzed in water. 

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Sulfuryl fluoride} & \rightarrow \text{Fluorsulfate} & \rightarrow \text{Sulfate} \\
F_2O_2S & \rightarrow \text{release of F}^- & \rightarrow \text{SO}_4^-
\end{align*}
\]

A key question is how sulfuryl fluoride enters the brain. It may simply enter because it is more soluble in fat than water; it may enter via an interaction with a protein within the blood barrier, since it is known to have a high affinity for protein or it may enter via the sulfate ion transport mechanism. While it is uncharged (the sulfate ion has two negative charges) it has a very similar size and shape to this essential nutrient. Whatever the mechanism, however, it is clear that sulfuryl fluoride does enter the brain and, when there, can cause problems. Of key concern is that it can introduce the fluoride ion into the brain.

In 1962, Rachel Carson wrote her book ‘The Silent Spring’ which dealt largely with the problems posed to wildlife and human health by persistent organochlorine pesticides. The upshot of the book was the banning of DDT in 1972, followed by the banning of PCBs in 1979. This signaled a shift in the design of pesticides from long lasting and bio-accumulating substances with a relatively low toxicity to short lived compounds with high toxicity. Generally, this approach has had the result of lowering the long-term impacts on the environment but increased the health damage to applicators and local residents. Sulfuryl fluoride seems to combine the worst of both approaches. On the one hand it is highly and acutely toxic, responsible for several deaths, and on the other, it produces not just a persistent, but a permanent, toxic and bio-accumulating metabolite.

The production of fluoride by sulfuryl fluoride when used as a fumigant for buildings and structures (i.e. as Vikane) has far less significance than when it is applied as a fumigant on food (i.e. as ProFume).
4. Background on the toxicity of fluoride.

It has been known since the first half of the twentieth century that fluoride, while being fairly benign from a chemical perspective (unlike its parent element fluorine), is extremely active biologically. It inhibits enzymes and forms numerous complexes with metal ions. The latter property means it has the potential to interfere with metal ions we need as well as getting toxic metal ions to places where they would not otherwise go. More recently it has been shown that the fluoride ion in the presence of a trace amount of aluminum ion can switch on G-proteins, a key step in the signaling mechanism of many water soluble hormones, neurotransmitters and growth factors (for a review see Li 2003).

While fluoride is still commonly assumed to be an “essential nutrient”, the National Academies of Science has confirmed in 1989, 1993 and most recently in 1998, that this is not the case (NAS 1989; NRC 1993; Alberts 1998). Also, while it is still commonly assumed that fluoride’s main benefits to teeth come from ingestion, the majority of dental researchers – as acknowledged by CDC in 1999 and 2001 – have confirmed that fluoride’s primary, if not only, benefit to teeth comes from topical contact with the surface of the tooth.

Perhaps, however, the most revealing fact about fluoride is its near exclusion from mothers’ milk. As noted by Ekstrand (1981), there appears to be a “physiological plasma-milk barrier against fluoride” which limits the transfer of fluoride from the bloodstream into milk. As a result, the level of fluoride in mother’s milk is very low (0.005-0.011 ppm; IOM 1997), suggesting that “the newborn is actively protected against fluoride” (Ekstrand 1981). A number of scientists are therefore concerned about exposing infants – via formula made with fluoridated water – to doses of fluoride that greatly exceed (by a factor of 100 to 200) what they would otherwise receive from human milk (Carlsson, 1978; Fomon 2000; Brothwell 2003).

5. Relevant EPA Regulations on Fluoride

The Maximum Contaminant Level Goal (MCLG). The MCLG is a non-enforceable drinking water standard. It is based on the best available science, and robust safety factors, so as to protect against all known or anticipated adverse effects among all members of the population. In 1985, EPA established an MCLG for fluoride of 4 ppm.

The Secondary Maximum Contaminant Level (SMCL). The SMCL is another non-enforceable drinking water standard developed to protect against any adverse “aesthetic” effects. In the case of fluoride, the SMCL was set at 2 ppm because a significant percentage of children drinking water with more than 2 ppm will develop moderate and severe forms of dental fluorosis. (The EPA requires water suppliers to warn their consumers that children should not drink water if it contains more than 2 ppm fluoride.

The Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL). The MCL differs from the MCLG and SMCL in that it is a federally enforceable standard. Unlike the MCLG, the MCL takes into account the economic costs of reducing the concentration of a contaminant to the desired level. A good example of the difference between an MCLG and MCL is the case of arsenic. Because arsenic is a known human carcinogen there is assumed to be no safe level of exposure, thus arsenic’s MCLG is set at zero. However, since arsenic occurs naturally in some water supplies, and since it is expensive for communities to filter all of the arsenic out of water, the MCL is set at 10 parts per billion. The MCL, therefore, represents a compromise between health and economics. The MCL for fluoride was set at 4 ppm by the EPA in 1985.
How the MCL is determined. The MCL is established in four steps:

1) First, the lowest observable adverse effect level (LOAEL) is determined for the pollutant from available animal or human studies. In the case of fluoride, the LOAEL was assumed to be 20 mg per day based on evidence of crippling skeletal fluorosis among adult cryolite workers exposed to this dose for 11 to 25 years.

2) After the LOAEL is determined, it is divided by a safety factor to yield a dose not anticipated to cause any known or anticipated effect in any subset of the population. In the case of fluoride, the EPA used a safety factor of 2.5 (rather than the more commonly used factor of 10) to produce a purported safe dose of 8 mg of fluoride per day.

3) After the safe dose is determined, it is divided by the number of liters of tap water humans are assumed to drink. In the case of fluoride, the EPA assumed that people drank two liters of water per day, thus giving an MCL of 4 mg per liter (8 mg/day / 2 Liters = 4 mg/Liter, or 4 ppm).

OPP’s Derivation of a Reference Dose for its Risk Assessment of Fluoride Tolerances

Because of the unique statutory requirements under FQPA (Food Quality Protection Act), EPA’s Office of Pesticide Programs (OPP) typically develops its own reference dose for a particular chemical, using its own methodology. The OPP, however, chose not to do this with fluoride. Instead, it has opted to derive its reference dose from the Office of Drinking Water’s 1985 MCL.

Initially, OPP derived its reference dose from the MCL in the following manner:

- It calculated the dose of fluoride an adult would receive if they consumed 2 liters of water per day with 4 ppm fluoride. They then divided this dose (8 mg/day) by the average weight of an adult (70 kg) in order to express the dose in terms of milligrams per kilogram of bodyweight. The resulting calculation is as follows: 8 mg / 70 kg = 0.114 mg/kg. Hence, OPP’s reference dose for fluoride was 0.114 mg/kg/day.

The OPP utilized the 0.114 mg/kg reference dose for all of its risk assessments on fluoride tolerances up until 2004. However, after FAN pointed out to OPP that many children in the US are currently exceeding this reference dose (a fact which typically disenables any further addition of a chemical to food), OPP announced that it was no longer going to use the 0.114 mg/kg reference dose for children. Instead, OPP made the rather incredible announcement that – in the absence of any new evidence - it was increasing the reference dose for children by up to a factor of 5. Hence, for infants (the age group considered to be the most vulnerable to environmental toxins), EPA announced a new reference dose of 0.571 mg/kg.

OPP obtained this new reference dose by changing the starting point of their calculation. Instead of basing the reference dose on the mg/kg dose of an adult drinking 2 liters of 4 ppm water, the OPP now bases its reference dose on the mg/kg dose of a child drinking 1 liter of 4 ppm water.

In making this change to the reference dose, OPP has violated a key component of EPA’s drinking water standard for fluoride. As discussed above, the EPA Office of Drinking Water (ODW) recommends that children not consume water containing more than 2 ppm fluoride. EPA’s ODW made this recommendation because many children drinking water with >2 ppm will develop moderate and severe dental fluorosis. Moderate/severe dental fluorosis is a disfiguration of teeth (e.g. brown staining, pitting, and erosion of enamel) that a panel of mental health experts concluded would cause an “impaired self-image’ or ‘loss of self-esteem’” to the developing child (Federal Register, November 14, 1985, p. 47144.)
As noted by one scientist involved in the establishment of the MCL:

“You would have to have rocks in your head, in my opinion, to allow your child much more than 2 ppm” (Surgeon General Committee, 1983, p. 416).

Thus, in contrast to EPA’s earlier recommendation that children not consume water with more than 2 ppm, OPP has issued a new reference dose based on the assumption that it is safe and acceptable for children to drink 4 ppm fluoride in their water from the first day of life through to adolescence.

6. Criteria needed to qualify issues for an evidentiary hearing on pesticide tolerances.

The criteria, established is in 40 C.F.R. § 178.32(b), for EPA’s granting of a public evidentiary hearing, is as follows:

(1) There is genuine and substantial issue of fact for resolution at a hearing. An evidentiary hearing will not be granted on issues of policy or law.

(2) There is a reasonable possibility that available evidence identified by the requestor would, if established, resolve one or more of such issues in favor of the requestor, taking into account uncontroverted claims or facts to the contrary. An evidentiary hearing will not be granted on the basis of mere allegations, denials, or general descriptions of positions and contentions, nor if the Administrator concludes that the data and information submitted, even if accurate, would be insufficient to justify the factual determinations urged.

(3) Resolution of the factual issue(s) in the manner sought by the person requesting the hearing would be adequate to justify the action requested. An evidentiary hearing will not be granted on factual issues that are not determinative with respect to the action requested. For example, a hearing will not be granted if the Administrator concludes that the action would be the same even if the factual issues were resolved in the manner sought.

Having reviewed our appeal for an evidentiary hearing on the fluoride tolerances granted by the EPA in January 2004 (Connett P et al., 2004), we are satisfied that the central core and the bulk of our Objections meet the criteria established in 40 C.F.R. § 178.32(b)

In September 2005, a second set of “Objections and Request for Hearing” to new tolerances (US EPA, 2005) was submitted to EPA from FAN, the Environmental Working Group and Beyond Pesticides (Neurath et al., 2005). As noted in our attached letter, we support the combining of these two appeals for one evidentiary hearing.

Below we have merged and amplified the issues presented in our March 2004 and September 2005 appeals for evidentiary hearings. In our view, any one of the 48 issues we have identified should lead to the revocation of the tolerances.

THE FLAWS WITH EPA’S RISK ASSESSMENT

Introduction

The Federal Food and Drug Certification Act (FFDCA) Section 408(b)(2)(A)(ii) requires the EPA, when setting pesticide chemical residues on food, to have a “reasonable certainty that no harm will result”. Furthermore, in Section 408(b)(2)(C) this same Act requires that the EPA “give special consideration to exposure of infants and children (US EPA, 2005).”
Again and again in the issues we present below, the EPA fails to provide adequate and factual scientific evidence that they “have certainty that no harm will result” from the sulfuryl fluoride and fluoride tolerances that they have approved.

Further, as far as giving “special consideration to exposure of infants and children” we have shown that the EPA has done the very opposite, and has actually given LESS consideration to children than adults!

A fundamental flaw in the approach of the US EPA in its estimation of the risks posed by fluoride exposure –whether in its derivation of the MCLG or in the HRA used to establish fluoride tolerances on various foodstuffs – is the agency’s focus on the impacts of fluoride on the average person and not on sensitive subsets of consumers. Under FIFRA, the agency is supposed to consider the sensitivity of different populations. We will point out, therefore, the failure of EPA to consider more sensitive, or more exposed, subpopulations on each occasion where it occurs.

**ISSUE 1**
Published data shows that some children are already exceeding the reference dose. There is no room for additional exposures.

Before addressing the glaring problems with the science underpinning EPA’s tolerances, we wish to start by emphasizing that – even if one assumes that the method used by the EPA to determine these reference dosages is acceptable, the tolerances for sulfuryl fluoride still need to be rejected because many Americans are already receiving daily doses in excess of the reference dose.

For example, Levy (2003) found that some children aged 3-5 years old living in ≤1 ppm areas already receive more fluoride than EPA’s reference dose for this age group. Indeed, Levy found some children of this age to be receiving up to 0.283 mg/kg/day, which is over 50% higher than the new reference dose (0.182 mg/kg/day), and 150% higher than EPA’s previous reference dose (0.114 mg/kg/day).

Based on Levy’s data, it can be estimated that 1 in 500 children in the general population are already receiving more than EPA’s new reference dose. With about 11.8 million children 3-5 years of age in the US, this translates into more than 23,500 children currently receiving more than EPA currently considers safe. (Levy’s data also shows that 5-10% of children under the age of 4 are exceeding EPA’s previous safe limit of 0.114 mg/kg.)

Because some children are already receiving more fluoride than EPA’s new reference dose, there is no safe room for additional exposures. Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 2**
EPA’s Exposure Analysis has Greatly Underestimated Current Fluoride Exposures

Despite the fact that Levy (2003) was studying children living in ≤1 ppm areas (with no exposure to sulfuryl fluoride), 10-25% of the 3 to 5 year olds studied by Levy had fluoride exposures which exceeded EPA’s estimates for children of this age consuming water with 2 ppm fluoride.

Levy’s study, therefore, indicates that something was wrong with the exposure analysis underlying EPA’s risk assessment for sulfuryl fluoride. Indeed, as we will demonstrate below, there are several major errors and non-conservative assumptions that led EPA to greatly underestimate the current extent of fluoride exposure in the US. When these errors and incorrect assumptions are corrected, it becomes apparent (as demonstrated below) that many people in the US are currently exceeding EPA’s reference dose.

The two most important errors with EPA’s fluoride exposure analysis concern its estimates of fluoride intake from drinking water and toothpaste.
ISSUE 2a) Errors with EPA’s Drinking Water Exposure Analysis

As part of the exposure analysis, EPA attempted to determine the average fluoride concentration of US water supplies. EPA’s method for deriving an average fluoride concentration was incorrectly weighted leading to an obvious error in EPA’s exposure analysis. According to EPA’s estimates, only 57 million or just 20% of Americans consume water with > 0.7 ppm fluoride (EPA 2003a; Table c.33). This, of course, is incorrect since, according to the CDC (2005), 170 million Americans drink fluoridated water (0.7–1.2 ppm). EPA’s estimate, therefore, of the number of Americans exposed to fluoridated water was off by a factor of 3. This, in turn, led to a significant under-estimation of the average fluoride content of US water supplies. According to EPA, the average fluoride content of US water is 0.4 ppm. Proof that this is incorrect can be found in a recent national analysis of US water supplies by USDA. According to USDA (2004), the average fluoride content of US water supplies (municipal + well) is 0.71 ppm – almost twice as high as EPA’s estimate.

In addition to this error, there is another glaring problem with EPA’s drinking water exposure analysis. Namely, in only using the chronic exposure model in the DEEM software, EPA was only able to determine the average fluoride exposure from water based on the average daily intake of water. This is a limitation inherent in the DEEM software. In a recent EPA OPP Dietary Exposure Assessment the output of DEEM-FCID 2.03 is described:

“For chronic exposure assessments, consumption data are averaged for the entire U.S. population and within population subgroups” (US EPA 2004b).

As FAN has verified using the DEEM software, the chronic exposure model computes only the average exposure for the entire US population and designated subpopulations. The subpopulations are based only on age and sex, not water consumption. Thus, the software and the underlying food consumption database do not allow for any breakdown of exposure by the varying percentiles of water intake. Hence, there is no way to determine the water fluoride intake among the top 25%, top 10%, top 5%, or top 1% of water consumers.

EPA’s failure to obtain this vital information represents a major failure of due diligence, and probably the most significant sources of fluoride exposure in the US population, and – as highlighted by the Food and Nutrition Board (2004) - its consumption varies greatly across the spectrum of the population. To restrict, therefore, an analysis of water fluoride exposure to simply the average, or 50th percentile, water consumer, provided a fatal blow to EPA’s ability to detect the true extent of fluoride exposure in the US among sizeable subsets of consumers.

As is amply documented, there exists a wide variability in both food and water consumption habits among the population. Therefore, the only way to obtain an accurate dietary exposure assessment is to determine the variability in consumption from individual to individual and use the resulting consumption distribution for the population. The FDA has found that, as a rule of thumb, the top 10% consumers of any food eat about twice as much as the average. The top 5% consume about four times as much as average (FDA 1995). In the case of water consumption, numerous studies have documented an even wider range in total water consumption within the US population. The CFSII studies by USDA show a greater than 10-fold range of consumption, from less than 1 liter/day to more than 10 liter/day. When adjusted for body weight, there is still a 7-fold range from lowest to highest consumers.

Had EPA conducted an analysis, therefore, that addressed the intake of high-end water consumers they would have found that many Americans are currently exceeding the reference dose from water sources alone. To demonstrate this fact, we produce below the results of 2 sets of analyses we have recently conducted:

*Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances 12-16-05, Submission to US EPA from FAN, EWG, Beyond Pesticides.*
ANALYSIS #1:

Our first set of analyses utilized the 1988-1994 NHANES water intake data as reproduced in Appendix D of the Food and Nutrition Board’s 2004 report. Since the NHANES data is divided into percentiles of exposure, it was possible to determine the water intake of the top 1%, top 5%, top 10%, and top 15% of water consumers. We then applied this water intake data to US populations residing in areas with 2 to 4 ppm areas. In order to determine how many people live in such areas, we used the CDC’s 1993 Fluoridation Census (which may well be an underestimate of today’s population.)

As can be seen in the following table, this analysis indicates that between 1 and 15% of individuals living in 2 to 4 ppm areas in the US will exceed the reference dose from their intake of water. (For more details about this analysis, see Appendix B).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Water Fluoride</th>
<th>No. of Americans living in area (CDC 1993)</th>
<th>% of People in area exceeding reference dose (8 mg/day)</th>
<th># of People in area exceeding reference dose (8 mg/day)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.0 – 2.4 ppm</td>
<td>~565,000</td>
<td>≥1</td>
<td>≥5,650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 - 2.9 ppm</td>
<td>~209,500</td>
<td>≥5</td>
<td>≥10,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0 – 3.4 ppm</td>
<td>~230,000</td>
<td>≥10</td>
<td>≥23,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 – 3.9 ppm</td>
<td>~68,000</td>
<td>≥15</td>
<td>≥10,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≥ 4 ppm</td>
<td>~210,000</td>
<td>≥15</td>
<td>≥31,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total:</td>
<td>~1,282,500</td>
<td>&gt;6%</td>
<td>≥80,850</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANALYSIS #2:

For our second analysis we utilized the DEEM software. We sought to conduct an analysis that would correct the three key problems with EPA’s DEEM analysis, namely:

- For all analyses we utilized USDA’s (2004) data on the average fluoride level of US water supplies (0.71 ppm) for the non-tap water categories. We used this figure to correct EPA’s mistaken 0.4 ppm estimate.
- For the tap water categories, we didn’t limit our analysis to only those individuals drinking 2 ppm fluoride in water. We also performed analyses for people drinking water with 1 ppm and at various intervals between 2 and 4 ppm.
- In order to get an indication of fluoride exposure among high-end water consumers, versus simply the average consumer, we utilized DEEM’s acute model, rather than the chronic model. We predicated this decision on the assumption that the range of water consumption reported among individuals in the USDA’s 2 day survey provides a rough surrogate for the distribution of chronic water consumption across the population.

The results of these DEEM analyses are summarized in Table 2. As with the analysis above, the DEEM analyses clearly show that many high-end water consumers living in 2 to 4 ppm areas will exceed the reference dose. Moreover, the DEEM analyses also indicate that a subset of
individuals living in 1 ppm areas (about 0.25% to 0.5% of the population) will exceed the reference dose as well. With well over a 100 million Americans living in 1 ppm areas, a figure of 0.25-0.5% translates into hundreds of thousands of people. (For the full DEEM analyses, see appendix C).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tap Water F level</th>
<th>90th</th>
<th>95th</th>
<th>99th</th>
<th>99.9th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0 ppm</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.0 ppm</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.088</td>
<td>0.157</td>
<td>0.338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 ppm</td>
<td>0.077</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.186</td>
<td>0.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 ppm</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td><strong>0.125</strong></td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>0.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 ppm</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 ppm</td>
<td><strong>0.128</strong></td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>0.622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.0 ppm</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.671</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bold** indicates dose exceeds EPA’s reference dose.

It is therefore clear that, at water fluoride levels, many consumers are exceeding the reference dose simply by drinking their daily mixture of tap water and processed beverages. This fact was obfuscated by EPA, via its decision to focus strictly on the average consumer, and to limit its analysis to only 2 ppm fluoride. Since this method is at fundamental odds with EPAs mandate to protect susceptible subsets of consumers, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 2b): Errors with EPA’s Toothpaste Exposure Analysis**

As with its drinking water analysis, EPA also made important errors and unacceptable assumptions in its toothpaste analysis as well.

According to EPA:

“Despite the variability in the estimates of ingested toothpaste, maximum exposures to fluoride observed in those studies appear to converge to approximately 0.3 mg/day (assuming 2 brushings per day)... The exposure estimates range from 0.004 to 0.04 mg/kg/day and should be considered conservative in nature...” (US EPA 2004a, page 34).

EPA’s assertion that 0.3 mg/day fluoride represents the “maximum” exposure from toothpaste is not supported by the scientific literature. Indeed, not only is 0.3 mg/day significantly lower than most reported maximum exposures from toothpaste, it is also lower than many of the reported average exposures!

For example, in 1999, Levy compiled data from studies which measured the quantity of toothpaste ingested by children (see Table 3). Levy compiled published data for 11 groupings of children ≤ 5 years old – the age range most susceptible to swallowing excess toothpaste. Of these 11 groups of children, data on maximum intake was presented for 4 groups. All 4 of these maximum intakes (range = 0.66 - 2.55 mg/day) exceed (by a factor of 2 to 9) EPA’s purported “conservative” maximum.

Perhaps more notable, however, is the fact that the average fluoride exposures in 9 of these 11 groups (range = 0.24 – 0.86 mg/day) also exceed EPA’s purported maximum exposure (by up to a factor of 3).
Based on this data, it is clear that EPA has made a significant underestimation of the fluoride exposure children receive from toothpaste.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Average F Intake from Toothpaste</th>
<th>% of EPA’s Estimated Max Intake</th>
<th>Maximum F Intake from Toothpaste</th>
<th>% of EPA’s Estimated Max Intake</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.73 mg</td>
<td>243%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Naccahe ’87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 1/2</td>
<td>0.59 mg</td>
<td>196%</td>
<td>1.83 mg</td>
<td>610%</td>
<td>Bentley 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>0.62 mg</td>
<td>207%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Simard ’84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>0.66 mg</td>
<td>220%</td>
<td>1.61 mg (90th percentile)</td>
<td>&gt;537%</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Barnhart ’76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>0.84 mg</td>
<td>280%</td>
<td>2.55 mg</td>
<td>850%</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Hargreaves ’75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.40 mg</td>
<td>133%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Naccahe ’85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.48 mg</td>
<td>160%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Naccahe ’87)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.86 mg</td>
<td>287%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Simard ’84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.29 mg</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>0.66 mg</td>
<td>220%</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Ericsson ’74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.48 mg</td>
<td>160%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Simard ’84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.24 mg</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Naccahe ’85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>0.59 mg</td>
<td>197%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Levy 1999 (Baxter ’79)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not only did EPA underestimate the amount of toothpaste ingested by children, but – by focusing solely on average-weighted children – it underestimated the body-burden of fluoride exposure experienced by children who weigh less than the average. As can be seen in Table 4, if children weighing less than the average are taken into account, then EPA’s reference dose for fluoride can be exceeded by toothpaste ingestion alone. Average weighted children, meanwhile, will exceed the reference dose if other sources of fluoride exposure (e.g. water) are added to their intake from toothpaste.
TABLE 4
Comparison of EPA’s estimated Maximum Dose from Fluoride Toothpaste with Maximum Dose Reported in the Literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Max Daily Dose from Toothpaste (avg weight child*)</th>
<th>% of EPA Reference Dose (avg wt) (0.182mg/kg)</th>
<th>Max Daily Dose (underweight child**)</th>
<th>% of EPA Reference Dose (0.182mg/kg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EPA 2004</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.0136 mg/kg</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hargreaves '75 (Cited by Levy 99)</td>
<td>~3</td>
<td>0.181 mg/kg</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>0.21 mg/kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bentley 1999</td>
<td>~3</td>
<td>0.130 mg/kg</td>
<td>71%</td>
<td>0.149 mg/kg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnhart '76 (Cited by Levy 99)</td>
<td>~3</td>
<td>0.114 mg/kg (90th percentile dose)</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>0.131 mg/kg (90th percentile dose)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Data for the average weight of 3 year old children was obtained from NHANES, the same data source used by EPA. See: http://www.cdc.gov/nchs/about/major/nhanes/growthcharts/charts.htm#Set%201
- Underweight children are defined here as the 10th percentile weight in the age group.

Another way that EPA has underestimated the fluoride exposure problem from toothpaste is to assume that the instructions on the labeling will “significantly limit” ingestion. According to EPA:

"Regarding exposure to fluoride via dental products, the Agency believes that warning labels on these products provide explicit direction on how to significantly limit dietary exposure to fluoride-containing dental products for children." (US EPA, 2002)

There are two major problems with this assumption.

First, while the instructions warning children not to swallow toothpaste are available in the fine print on the back of the tube, toothpaste manufacturers continue to make child-friendly toothpastes with appealing flavors like bubble-gum and watermelon. Such flavors will undoubtedly tempt kids to use more, and swallow more, of the paste – a fact supported by published research (Levy 1992, as cited in Levy 1999).

Another problem with EPA’s assumption: it does not take into consideration the MILLIONS of people who do not have the literacy skills to read the warning label on toothpaste. According to the National Institute for Literacy (NIFL),

“Almost all adults in Level 1 can read a little but not well enough to fill out an application, **read a food label**, or read a simple story to a child... Between 21 and 23 percent of the adult population or **approximately 44 million people**, according to the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS), scored in Level 1 (NIFL, 2005).”

Also, we are not aware of any toothpaste sold in the US that have warnings in any language other than English.

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12-16-05, Submission to US EPA from FAN, EWG, Beyond Pesticides.
Thus, by A) misrepresenting published data on toothpaste ingestion, by B) focusing only on average-weighted children, and by C) assuming that ingestion of toothpaste will not be a problem due to the presence of instructions in fine print, the EPA has greatly underestimated the extent of childhood fluoride exposure from toothpaste. When correcting these problems in EPA’s analysis, it becomes clear that some children may come very close, and in some cases exceed, the reference dose from toothpaste use alone. There is therefore no safe margin for additional exposures to fluoride. Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 3: EPA’S altered reference violates FQPA

Because it is commonly accepted that infants and young children are more susceptible to toxic exposure than adults, the Food Quality Protection Act (FQPA), passed into law on August 3, 1996, has mandated that EPA design its regulatory decisions on pesticides to be MORE protective for children. This mandate for extra protection for children, when considering pesticide exposure, is very clearly spelled out in the FQPA. To quote:

“When setting new tolerances, or reassessing existing tolerances or tolerance exemptions, EPA must now focus explicitly on exposures and risks to children and infants. EPA must, 1) explicitly determine that the tolerance, or exemption from tolerance, is safe for children; 2) consider the need for an additional safety factor of up to ten-fold to account for uncertainty in the data base relative to children unless there is evidence that a different factor should be used; and 3) consider children’s special sensitivities and often unique exposure patterns to pesticides.” (US EPA, 1997)

Despite this mandate by FQPA, and the widely acknowledged fact that growing children are more sensitive to toxins than adults, the EPA Pesticide Division took the unusual – and scientifically indefensible – step of deriving a higher reference dosage for children than adults. Despite the fact that EPA had been using a reference dose of 0.114 mg/kg for children up through 2004, and despite the fact that no new evidence was cited to justify a weakening of this standard, EPA announced in 2004 that it was increasing this reference dose to as high as 0.571 mg/kg for infants and 0.308 mg/kg for 1-2 year olds.

In developing its new reference dose, EPA has utilized data derived from adult male workers and applied it directly to children without issuing any safety factor. Further, in increasing the reference dose for children, EPA’s Pesticide Division has disregarded EPA’s own explicit recommendation (as expressed in the SMCL) that children should not drink water with 4 ppm fluoride, due to the clear risk it presents of developing moderate and severe dental fluorosis (a risk unique to children and not adults). Hence, in contradiction to the clear intent of FQPA, EPA has abandoned a safety factor specifically recommended for children by the Office of Drinking Water. As one scientist involved in the establishment of EPA’s MCL stated:

“You would have to have rocks in your head, in my opinion, to allow your child much more than 2 ppm" (Surgeon General Committee on Non-Dental Health Effects of Fluoride, 1983, p. 416).

By establishing a reference dose, therefore, which is known to produce moderate and severe dental fluorosis in 30-40% of children (Dean 1942; NRC 1993), the burden of proof was on EPA’s Pesticide Division to explain with “reasonable certainty” that moderate and severe fluorosis is not associated with any adverse effect on a child’s health, including emotional health. EPA did not fulfill this burden.

For example, EPA’s Pesticide Division has not demonstrated that severe dental fluorosis (brown and black stained teeth with pitting and crumbling enamel) will not harm the emotional and mental well being of a child (e.g. self esteem, social behavior, etc). Since teeth with widespread brown or
black staining can be anticipated to have an adverse effect on a child’s emotional development (a conclusion reached by a panel of experts at the National Institute of Mental Health - Federal Register, November 14, 1985, p. 47144; Grossman 1990), it was imperative for EPA to provide evidence showing that this is not the case. EPA Pesticide Division did not do this. EPA also failed to demonstrate that moderate/severe fluorosis (and the underlying toxic effect on enamel-forming cells) is not associated with any harm to the body – as has been suggested by recent research indicating:

- Severe fluorosis makes teeth more susceptible to caries (Kimm 1984; Manji 1986; Mann 1987, 1990; Cortes 1996; Wondwossen 2004; Cunha-Cruz 2005);
- Cells in other mineralized tissues, e.g. the pinealocytes in the pineal gland, can be impacted in a similar fashion, and at the same time, as the amelobasts (Luke 1997); and
- Children with moderate/severe fluorosis are at an increased risk for bone fracture (Alarcon-Herrera 2001).

Hence, EPA’s failure decision to take data derived from adult workers and apply it directly to children without using a safety factor; to increase the reference dose without citing any new data to justify the change; to ignore the safety factor explicitly recommended for children under EPA’s SMCL; and to forego proving with “reasonable certainty” that moderate and severe dental fluorosis is safe, represents a clear violation of the goals and mandate of FQPA. Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

Three Flawed Assumptions Underlying New Reference Dosage

Instead of citing new data, EPA attempted to justify its new reference dosage for children by relying on 3 assumptions that are readily contradicted by available scientific evidence.

Before detailing these 3 flawed assumptions, we start first by quoting EPA’s argument:

“HED has not applied an additional FQPA safety factor to the fluoride assessment. Skeletal fluorosis is an effect that requires chronic (15-20 years) high exposures in order to be manifested. As such, infants and children will not exhibit this effect and an additional factor to account for potential enhanced sensitivity is not necessary” (US EPA 2004a, p 17).

ISSUE 4. Flawed Assumption #1: Skeletal fluorosis requires at least 15 years exposure.

EPA’s contention that skeletal fluorosis will only develop after 15 years of exposure is incorrect. According to Roholm (1937), and most other reviewers (NRC 1993, ATSDR 2003), crippling fluorosis can be caused after just 10/11 years, while according to Roholm the earlier stages of clinical fluorosis can be caused after just 2 years of exposure.

The fact that Roholm found clinical fluorosis after just 2 years is particularly significant considering that EPA's new MCL will allow children during their first 5 years of life a greater daily dosage of fluoride (mg per kg of body weight) than the dosage allowed for adults. Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.
ISSUE 5. Flawed Assumption #2: Children do not develop skeletal fluorosis

EPA’s contention that children do not develop skeletal fluorosis – a contention based on a study (Roholm 1937) that only examined adults - is also incorrect. Peer reviewed research in the scientific literature has existed for over 20 years demonstrating that debilitating fluorosis can occur in children, as early as the ages of 2 and 4 (Christie 1980; Teotia 1998). Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 6. Flawed Assumption #3: Children’s bones are not more sensitive to fluoride than adults

The most important error underlying EPA’s alteration of the childhood reference dose is its contention that “an additional factor to account for potential enhanced sensitivity is not necessary.”

In contrast to EPA’s contention, the scientific evidence does not support the assumption that children’s bones react in the same manner to fluoride as adults’ bones. Indeed, a Public Health Service (PHS) committee convened at the request of EPA to examine the “non dental health effects of fluoride”, concluded that children would be more vulnerable to fluoride-induced bone damage than adults, not less (Shapiro 1983a,b; Surgeon General 1983). In fact, because of their concern that fluoride could interfere with bone development during childhood, a majority of the PHS panel members voted to recommend that children not ingest more than 2 ppm fluoride in water before the age of 9 – not just to protect their teeth, but to protect their bones (Shapiro 1983a).

The panel’s concern that fluoride may exert its most damaging effect on bone during childhood, directly contradicts OPP's claim that there is no recognized need for a safety factor to protect the skeletal health of children.

Moreover, EPA’s contention that rapidly growing bones are no more susceptible to fluoride toxicity than mature bones, runs counter to the recently established fact that children’s bones can accumulate a much higher percentage of fluoride than adults – thereby exposing developing bone cells to a significantly higher concentration of fluoride (Teotia 1998; Whitford 1999). For instance, whereas the adult skeleton accumulates roughly 50% of an absorbed dose, the infant skeleton accumulates up to 87% of an absorbed dose (Ekstrand 1994). This fact provides a clear biological basis why it can not be assumed that children’s bones will respond to fluoride in an identical manner as adults.

As noted, for instance, by Teotia & Teotia (the scientists who first documented skeletal fluorosis in children):

"Fluoride toxicity afflicts children more severely and over a shorter period of exposure (about 6 months) as compared to adults. This is because the rapidly growing bones of children are metabolically active and more vascular and thus absorb and accumulate fluoride faster and in greater amounts than older bones, particularly at the sites of bone growth and physiological calcifications" (Teotia 1998).

The Teotia team’s conclusion that increased metabolic activity makes children’s bones more vulnerable to fluoride is supported by research on animals. According to Johnson 1965:

"Mottling was the result of the action of fluoride on osteoblasts during bone formation. Young bones undergoing extensive remodeling showed extensive mottling, while old bones with scant remodeling showed little mottling" (Johnson 1965).

Similar to Johnson, Kierdorf (1997, 2000) concluded that an increased rate of growth makes a bone more susceptible to fluoride poisoning. According to Kierdorf:

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"It is concluded that increased fluoride exposure of deer leads to reduced mineral content and mineral density of antler bone and that it is the rapidity of their growth and mineralization that makes antlers especially susceptible to fluoride action" (Kierdorf 1997).

EPA’s assumption, therefore, that a child’s skeleton – with its more rapid rate of growth and its higher accumulation of fluoride - will respond to fluoride in the same manner as an adult is without scientific basis and thereby devoid of “reasonable certainty.” Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUES 7–24. Flawed Assumptions Inherited from 1986 MCLG

There are yet further flawed assumptions underlying EPA’s reference dosage for children, but these flawed assumptions arise from the Office of Drinking Water’s 1985 MCLG – which the Pesticide Division used uncritically as the foundation for its tolerance risk assessment.

The flawed assumptions underlying the 1986 MCLG include the following:

• 20 mg/day is an adequate LOAEL for all subsets of consumers;
• Skeletal fluorosis is not a problem in the US
• 20 mg/day LOAEL, derived from 1930s’ data, is still up to date;
• Crippling fluorosis is only found in other countries at >10 ppm;
• Crippling fluorosis is the only adverse effect that fluoride has on bone;
• Fluoride has no adverse chronic effects on soft tissues.
• A safety factor of 2.5 is adequate to protect all members of society
• People drink only two liters of water per day
• People get no exposure to fluoride other than water

We will now discuss these assumptions one at a time.

ISSUE 7. MCLG Flawed Assumption #1: 20 mg/day is an adequate LOAEL for all major identifiable sensitive sub groups.

EPA’s 1986 MCLG was based on the assumption that the only way an individual could be harmed by fluoride is if they consumed at least 20 mg/day for at least 10 years. EPA assumed that this 20 mg/day threshold applied equally to every one in the population, irrespective of the presence of factors (e.g. kidney disease, dietary deficiencies, etc) well known to increase an individual’s susceptibility to fluoride. Hence, a person with severe kidney disease was assumed to be equally susceptible to fluoride toxicity as an individual with healthy function. This, of course, is an absurd and scientifically indefensible assumption.

It is even more absurd when considering that the study from which the 20 mg/day figure was derived (Roholm 1937; Brun 1941) was based on a small group of adult cryolite workers. Hence, the subset of the population Roholm studied (adult male workers) disallows any conclusions to be drawn about major identifiable sensitive sub groups. It is entirely inappropriate, for instance, for EPA to have applied this 20 mg/day LOAEL, derived from well-nourished adults (with healthy kidney function), to susceptible populations including children, individuals with kidney disease, and individuals with dietary deficiencies.

Another problem with the 20 mg/day LOAEL from Roholm’s study is that it only applies to 11 to 25 years of exposure. Since skeletal fluorosis is dependent both on dose and duration of exposure, it is not possible - based on Roholm's research - to determine the LOAEL for people exposed to fluoride for longer periods of time than the workers in Roholm’s study. It is inappropriate, therefore, for EPA to have based its MCL on a dose that is based on people who had only been exposed for as little as 11 years. Needless to say, humans live for more than 11 years, and as a result, an appropriate MCL would be based on lifetime exposure to fluoride, not...
11 years. EPA cannot, therefore, say with reasonable certainty that lifetime doses lower than the 20 mg/day "LOAEL" are safe and that no harm will occur to any major identifiable sensitive sub groups. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 8. MCLG Flawed Assumption #2: Skeletal fluorosis is not a problem in the US**

One of the arguments utilized by EPA in 1985 to justify the 4 ppm MCLG was the agency's contention that skeletal fluorosis is extremely rare in the US. To quote:

> "The fact that only two cases of crippling skeletal fluorosis have been observed in the US associated with the consumption of drinking water provides convincing evidence that the population at risk at 4 mg/L is negligible" (Federal Register, November 14, 1985, p 47144).

While there are many problems with this contention, we will focus here on just one: As of 1985, there had yet to be (and still has yet to be) one systematic study in the scientific literature studying the prevalence of fluorosis in the key susceptible group in the population: patients with kidney disease (Groth 1973; Johnson 1979). According, for instance, to Groth (1973):

> "It seems probable that some people with severe or long-term renal disease, which might not be advanced enough to require hemodialysis, can still experience reduced fluoride excretion to an extent that can lead to fluorosis, or aggravate skeletal complications associated with kidney disease... It has been estimated that one in every 25 Americans may have some form of kidney disease; it would seem imperative that the magnitude of risk to such a large sub-segment of the population be determined through extensive and careful study. To date, however, no studies of this sort have been carried out, and none is planned" (emphasis added).

Thus, EPA’s discussion on the prevalence of fluorosis in the US was predicated on data incapable of determining the prevalence among the very population most susceptible to developing the disease. To this date, the absence of systematic research on fluorosis in patients with kidney disease remains one of the most glaring gaps in the literature (Hileman 1988).

Not only did EPA fail to acknowledge this research gap, but it also failed to discuss or even reference a key study – published in 1979 by Mayo Clinic scientists - demonstrating the existence of symptomatic skeletal fluorosis in kidney patients drinking water with less than half of the MCLG (Johnson 1979).

In a group of 4 kidney patients drinking water with just 1.7 – 2.0 ppm, Johnson (1979) found several key indications of fluorosis, including: histological evidence of fluorotic changes to bone; accumulations of fluoride in the bone and blood known to be associated with bone damage in humans and animals; and the successful alleviation of bone pains following the provision of fluoride-free water.

The blood fluoride levels in Johnson’s kidney patients were particularly noteworthy. They averaged 10.3 umol/L, and reached as high as 14.3 umol/L in the patient with the severest case of the disease. To put these concentrations in perspective, they exceed:

- The blood fluoride levels (5 - 9 umol/L) found in human populations with skeletal fluorosis (Li 1986, Li 1990; Savas 2001; Singla 1976);
- The blood fluoride levels (7.6 umol/L) found to increase bone osteoid volume in rats (Turner 1996, see figure 5).
- The blood fluoride levels (9-10.6 umol/L) found to reduce bone strength in Turner’s animal studies (Turner 1995, 1996, 2001; see also: Dunipace 1995, 1998);
• The blood fluoride levels (10 umol/L) which Pak (1989) considers toxic to bone mineralization in short term exposures (< 5 years), especially in the absence of major calcium supplementation.

Based on their findings, Johnson (1979) concluded that 2 ppm fluoride in water presents a probable risk to the bones of people with advanced kidney disease and that the effect may also be experienced in 1 ppm areas as well. To quote:

“The available evidence suggests that some patients with long-term renal failure are being affected by drinking water with as little as 2 ppm fluoride... The finding of adverse effects in patients drinking water with 2 ppm of fluoride suggests that a few similar cases may be found in patients inbibing 1 ppm, especially if large volumes are consumed, or in heavy tea drinkers and if fluoride is indeed a cause” (Johnson 1979).

In light of Johnson’s findings, and in light of EPA’s mandate under the Safe Drinking Water Act “to protect the most sensitive subgroup of the population”, it amazes us that EPA could have established an MCLG of 4.0 ppm in 1985.

EPA, in fact, actually acknowledged that the MCLG could not be relied on to protect the most sensitive subgroup of the population. To quote:

“The Agency feels that this RMCL provides an adequate margin of safety except in those very extreme cases involving severely renally impaired individuals who consume unusually high levels of fluoride due in part to polydipsia and other confounding factors” (emphasis added; Federal Register, Nov 14, 1985, p. 47152).

“Except” is the key word here, as it openly contradicts EPA’s mandate to protect “the most sensitive subgroup of a population” (Federal Register, Nov 14, 1985, p. 47151). Further, EPA’s attempt to downplay this contradiction by highlighting the “unusual” amounts of water consumed, obfuscates the fact that excessive thirst (polydipsia) is a common medical feature of kidney disease. Thus, the argument that excessive thirst is an unusual confounding factor that somehow relieves the EPA of having to protect individuals with kidney disease, is an invalid argument and a violation of EPA’s mandate under the Safe Drinking Water Act to protect the most sensitive subsets of consumers.

Research, meanwhile, published since 1985 has raised yet further concerns about the safety of the MCLG for people with kidney disease.

Of particular concern are a series of studies showing that dialysis patients have an extremely impaired ability to clear fluoride from their body (Warady 1989; Huraib 1993; Tanimura 1994; Takahashi 1995; Cohen-Solal 1996; Al-Wakeel 1997; Usuda 1997; Torra 1998 Marumo 2001; Cohen-Solal 2002; Ng 2004).

Even when the dialysis unit filters the fluoride content to less than 0.05 ppm (as most now do), dialysis patients have still been found to accumulate strikingly high fluoride levels in their bones and blood – presumably from the fluoride in their drinking water and food.

For example, Torra (1998) found that a dialysis patient living in a 0.2 ppm area had a blood fluoride level of 185 ppb. This exceeds the concentration of fluoride found in humans with skeletal fluorosis (Li 1986, Li 1990; Savas 2001; Singla 1976) and the fluoride concentration found to weaken the bones of animals (Turner 1996).
Because of the marked inability of dialysis patients to excrete fluoride, researchers such as Usuda (1997) have advised that:

“HD (hemodialysis) patients need to practice dietary control for the restriction of oral F intake. Namely, they should not take F-rich foodstuffs such as tea or marine products.”

Torra (1998) made a similar recommendation, advising that:

“it is important to control the intake of this element and the prolonged use of fluoridated dental products in the subjects with chronic renal insufficiency, to avoid a risk of fluorosis.”

In light of these findings and recommendations, and the fact that over 400,000 Americans are on dialysis (NIH 2004), we find it completely unacceptable that EPA is continuing to rely on a LOAEL that has never taken into account individuals with kidney disease.

To further underscore the problem of assuming a 20 mg/day LOAEL for kidney patients, we have reproduced recent comments from Dr. Georges Boivin, a noted bone researcher from France who spent nearly two decades studying the impact of fluoride on bone:

CONNETT: In the US, they've created this safe standard of 10 milligrams a day for life. This is from the age of 8 through for the rest of your life. Do you think that for a kidney patient, what would you say about 10 milligrams a day for a kidney patient?

BOIVIN: For a patient with bad kidney function?

CONNETT: Yes.

BOIVIN: It is 10 milligrams of fluoride ion?

CONNETT: Yes, per day.

BOIVIN: Ah, it is too much. It is definitely too much. During all the life? I would be very surprised if you do not obtain skeletal fluorosis after some years of treatment with such a dose in patients suffering from a bad, a poor renal function.

CONNETT: So you think that's too high a level for the kidney patients?

BOIVIN: Absolutely. 1 milligram is perhaps correct, but 10 milligram is too much. It is half the therapeutic dose, and the therapeutic dose is for two years only...

CONNETT: Even getting it from little bits each day, not in one bolus dose?

BOIVIN: I think that a total of 10 milligrams per day is too much, whatever the source, whether it is one source or multiple sources. I think it is too much.

CONNETT: Do you think it is too much for just the everyday person, not just the kidney patient?

BOIVIN: It is too much because in the population you can not
say what patient is, or will be, suffering from renal insufficiency in the future. *(Video-taped interview with Michael Connett, October 7, 2005).*

The fact that doses lower than 20 mg/day can not – with reasonable certainty – be considered safe for individuals with kidney disease underscores the inadequacy of the 20 mg/day LOAEL, and its corresponding reference dose, for susceptible subsets of consumers. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 9. MCLG Flawed Assumption #3: The 20 mg/day LOAEL, based on 1930’s data, is still up to date**

A further problem with EPA’s use of the 20 mg/day LOAEL in deriving its 1985 MCL, was the fact that the 20 mg/day LOAEL was already outdated by the time EPA wrote the standard.

The scientist who had derived the 20 mg/day LOAEL from Roholm’s research was Harold C. Hodge, a prominent pro-fluoridation scientist *(Hodge 1950).* Hodge first published this estimate in 1950, and repeated it continuously throughout the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s. In 1979, however, Hodge revised his estimate, conceding that doses as low as 10 mg/day could cause crippling fluorosis *(Hodge 1979).*

Although Hodge revised his estimate in 1979, 6 years before EPA issued its MCL, the EPA chose to use Hodge’s original estimate from 1950.

Data published since 1985 supports Hodge’s 1979 estimate.

In 2003, Cao published a careful analysis of the doses causing crippling skeletal fluorosis in Tibet. According to Cao’s analysis, the average dose causing crippling fluorosis was just 12 mg/day. A more recent study from Sun *(2005)* found advanced fluorosis among Chinese brick tea drinkers who consumed an average of just 6.4 mg fluoride a day.

While nutritional factors likely amplify the toxicity of fluoride in Tibet, India, and China, it should be born in mind that there are many malnourished individuals living in the US as well *(NCCNHR 2000; USDA 2003)*, and their susceptibility may be quite similar to the situations in some of the Asian communities studied. As noted, for instance, in a recent review of malnourishment in elderly populations of the US:

> “the level of malnutrition and dehydration in some American nursing homes is similar to that found in many poverty-stricken developing countries where inadequate food intake is compounded by repeated infections” *(NCCNHR 2000).*

Further, the findings from Asia are consistent with the 1993 estimates from the National Research Council. In 1993, the NRC estimated that crippling skeletal fluorosis may be caused by exposure to as little as 10 mg/day.

Based on this data, it is completely inappropriate for the EPA in 2004 to still be using 20 mg/day as the LOAEL for crippling fluorosis. Accordingly, EPA’s risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.
ISSUE 10. MCLG Flawed Assumption #4: Crippling fluorosis is only found in communities with >10 ppm fluoride in water.

In EPA’s January 20, 2004 risk assessment, they stated: “the typical 100x factor used by the HED to account for inter- and intra-species variability have been removed due to the large amounts of human epidemiological data surrounding fluoride and skeletal fluorosis” (US EPA, 2004a; p. 16).

The problem with this assertion by EPA is that it is based again on incorrect assumptions made in 1985 – namely the ODW’s demonstrably incorrect characterization of epidemiological data on skeletal fluorosis.

In its November 14, 1985 Final Rule, EPA’s ODW made a profoundly incorrect assumption about the epidemiological data on skeletal fluorosis. To quote:

"EPA notes that crippling skeletal fluorosis, rheumatic attack, pain and stiffness have been observed in a large number of individuals in other countries chronically exposed to fluoride in drinking water at levels of 10 mg/L to 40 mg/L" (Federal Register, Nov 14, 1985, p. 47144).

ODW’s contention that crippling fluorosis was only found in other countries when the water supply exceeded 10 ppm fluoride, while fitting conveniently with EPA’s desired 4 ppm MCLG + 2.5 safety factor, was incorrect.

Prior to 1985, there were at least 6 studies, published in the peer-reviewed literature, documenting crippling fluorosis in communities with less than 10 ppm fluoride (see Table 5). 2 of these 6 studies were from the U.S.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Water F Content Mean, ppm (range)</th>
<th>Crippling Skeletal Fluorosis?</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singh 1961</td>
<td>1.2 &amp; 1.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siddiqui 1970</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sauerbrunn 1965</td>
<td>(2.2-3.5)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krishnamachari 1973</td>
<td>(3.5-6.0)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goldman 1971</td>
<td>(4.1-8.0)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siddiqui 1955</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is puzzling and unacceptable, therefore, for EPA to have concluded in 1985 that the minimum water fluoride level producing crippling fluorosis was 10 ppm. Indeed, one of the most thorough and widely-cited studies on fluorosis in India, conducted by a scientific advisor to the WHO (Jolly), clearly showed crippling fluorosis to occur at levels well below 10 ppm. Jolly published this data in 1970 (see Table 6), and thus there is little excuse for the EPA to have ignored it in 1985 - and for other EPA agencies to perpetuate this oversight. Indeed, the burden is on EPA pesticide’s division to clearly show why this information is not relevant.
If there was no justification for EPA to cite a 10 ppm threshold for crippling fluorosis in 1985, there is even less justification to do so today since more data is now available confirming that crippling fluorosis does indeed occur in communities with less than 10 ppm (see Tables 7 and 8). The EPA Pesticide Division’s vague reference, therefore, to a large body of epidemiological data to support the MCLG is extremely misleading. Being that much of this epidemiological data contradicts the premise of EPA’s MCLG, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

### TABLE 6: Relation between Water Fluoride & Skeletal Fluorosis in Punjab, India (1970)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Village</th>
<th>Fluoride Content of Water</th>
<th>Skeletal Fluorosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean (ppm)</td>
<td>Range (ppm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gharachon</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.9-2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laluwala</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.0-5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhapai</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.1-5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhodipura</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>1.3-5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rajthai</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.5-6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhikti</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.0-5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanghera</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.1-5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramuana/Ganjigulab</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.5-11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singh</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>3.7-14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khara</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>6.0-16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### TABLE 7: Documented Cases, Post-1985, of Crippling Skeletal Fluorosis in Humans Consuming Water with < 10 ppm Fluoride

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Water F Content Mean, ppm (range)</th>
<th>Crippling Skeletal Fluorosis?</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Misra 1988</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cao 2003*</td>
<td>(3.2-4.5)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Tibet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher 1989</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haimanot 1990</td>
<td>(4.0-7.0)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misra 1988</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misra 1988</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brouwer 1988</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Caño’s data refers to the F content of brick tea, the sole significant source of F (99% of total intake) in the area studied.
### TABLE 8: Relation between Water Fluoride & Skeletal Fluorosis in Rajasthan India (2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District/Village</th>
<th>Fluoride Content of Water</th>
<th>Skeletal Fluorosis</th>
<th>Crippling Fluorosis?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Banswara</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deolya</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.0-2.8</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isarwada</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.2-2.1</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gangertalai</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.2-3.0</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vassioda</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.2-2.9</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mangala</td>
<td><strong>3.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.7-4.1</strong></td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borda</td>
<td><strong>3.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.6-4.2</strong></td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chhotipadel</td>
<td><strong>3.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.9-4.6</strong></td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dungarpur</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatehpura</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.0-2.3</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mewadi</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.1-1.8</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhariyana</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.7-2.0</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indora</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.1-3.1</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deotalab</td>
<td><strong>2.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.5-4.1</strong></td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dad</td>
<td><strong>3.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.8-3.9</strong></td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bokedsal</td>
<td><strong>3.2</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.9-3.5</strong></td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Udaipur</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matasula</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.2-1.7</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amlu</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.3-1.6</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagar</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.2-3.0</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thada</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.2-5.1</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhbrana</td>
<td><strong>3.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.6-3.5</strong></td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dhamodar</td>
<td><strong>3.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.0-4.7</strong></td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jhalara</td>
<td><strong>4.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.5-4.7</strong></td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While it is true that nutritional deficiencies, and elevated water consumption, in India and China can exacerbate the impact of waterborne fluoride, these conditions can also be found in the US as well (NCCNHR 2000; USDA 2003). It would not be surprising therefore if malnourished individuals in the US exhibit a similar susceptibility to fluoride toxicity as found in India and elsewhere. This possibility, in fact, was articulated by the Surgeon General’s 1983 panel reviewing – at the request of the EPA - the “Non-Dental Health Effects of Fluoride.” To quote:

**DR. KLEEREKOPER:** The reports outside of the United States, taking everything into consideration, do get clinically observable adverse effects certainly at four (ppm) or above. There are plenty of papers.

**DR. SPENCER:** I don't believe that we can compare a report in India which is a tropical country, where you don't know how much water you take in, where the nutritional status is very poor, where they don't have any milk and little meat; therefore, no calcium, no phosphorus and magnesium and one cannot compare this to the high fluoride areas in this country.

**DR SMITH:** I think you are going to find some populations of that sort in this country too.
DR. SPENCER: Then we should see more pathologic indication of myelopathy and fluorosis in this country. Why don't we see it in the areas of four ppm?

DR. KLEEREKOPER: I think that you have to conclude that we haven't looked for it and we really don't know. (Surgeon General, 1983, p 412-413).

Thus, given the established fact that dietary deficiencies increase an individual’s susceptibility to fluoride toxicity, and given the fact that there has yet to be any systematic study to examine the relationship between malnourishment, fluoride exposure, and fluorosis in the US, EPA can not state with reasonable certainty that susceptible subsets of consumers will not be harmed at doses lower than the 20 mg/day LOAEL, and its respective reference dose. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 11. MCLG Flawed Assumption #5: Crippling fluorosis is the only adverse effect fluoride has on bone.

Yet another incorrect assumption made by ODW was their assumption that crippling fluorosis is the only adverse effect fluoride can have on bone. As we will demonstrate below, this assumption is blatantly incorrect. Fluoride can cause other adverse effects on bone and it produces these effects before it produces crippling fluorosis. Two key pre-crippling bone effects ignored by EPA are:

• Arthritic symptoms
• Bone fracture

We will discuss these effects one at a time.

ISSUE 11a. MCLG Flawed Assumption #5 (continued). Arthritic Symptoms: A pre-crippling effect of fluoride ignored by EPA

One of the most significant errors made by EPA in 1985, was their conclusion that the pre-crippling clinical stages of skeletal fluorosis (osteosclerotic changes in bone structure) are not associated with any adverse symptoms. To quote:

"the Agency can find no evidence that fluoride induced increases in bone density, osteosclerosis, result in bodily harm or impaired functioning of the body. No new evidence or argument on this point was received in public comment. Therefore, the EPA reaffirms its conclusion that fluoride induced osteosclerosis is not an adverse health effect within the meaning of the SDWA" (EPA 1985).

EPA’s contention that the pre-crippling, osteosclerotic phase of fluorosis is asymptomatic, is incorrect.

According to the US Public Health Service (1991), fluoride-induced osteosclerosis can cause, depending on its severity, “sporadic pain”, “stiffness of joints,” “chronic joint pain,” and “arthritic symptoms.” Further, the PHS concluded that these arthritic effects occur before the crippling stage of fluorosis.

This ability of the pre-crippling osteosclerotic stage of fluorosis to cause joint pains should have been well known by EPA in 1985, as all of the studies cited by the Public Health Service were published prior to 1980.
While not everyone with pre-crippling clinical fluorosis will experience arthritic pain (Franke 1975), the evidence is clear that some people will (Singh 1963; Singh & Jolly 1970; Vischer 1970; Cook 1971; Schlegel 1974; Franke 1975; Teotia 1976; Czerwinski 1977; Boillat 1980; Carnow 1981; Czerwinski 1988; PHS 1991; Roschger 1995; Savas 2001; Eichmiller 2005).

Thus, if skeletal fluorosis is EPA's endpoint of concern, it is imperative that EPA set its MCLG to protect against the arthritic symptoms encountered in the pre-crippling, clinical stage of the disease. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 11b. MCLG Flawed Assumption #5 (continued). Bone fracture: A pre-crippling effect of fluoride ignored by EPA**

In addition to its ability to produce arthritic symptoms in the pre-crippling phase of fluorosis, fluoride can also reduce the strength of bone thereby increasing the risk of fracture. This is another issue that EPA ignored when setting its 1985 standard, although to be fair to EPA's ODW, most of the research on fluoride and fracture has been published after 1985. While this fact may excuse ODW's 1985 staff, it raises serious questions about the due diligence employed by the Pesticide Division in 2004 when they chose to rely on crippling fluorosis as the sole endpoint of concern.

Indeed, based on the scientific research published after 1985, the evidence on fluoride and bone fracture is amply clear that fluoride can cause bone fracture well before it causes a crippled skeleton.

There are three lines of evidence supporting this conclusion: human clinical trials, epidemiological studies of communities with varying levels of waterborne fluoride, and animal studies. We'll discuss each in turn.

**Fluoride & Bone Fracture: Clinical Trials**

Since 1985, a series of well-controlled clinical trials - including the much anticipated NIH-sponsored 4 year double-blind trial (Riggs 1990) - have reported that osteoporotic patients treated with fluoride experience a higher rate of bone fractures, particularly hip fracture and other types of non-vertebral fracture (Dambacher 1986; Hedlund 1989; Bayley 1990; Orcel 1990; Riggs 1990; Schnitzler 1990; Haguenauer 2000; Gutteridge 2002). Two studies published before 1985, including a double-blind trial – had also found this effect (Inkovaara 1975; Gerster 1983).

Of particular interest are the clinical trials of Inkovaara (1975), Gerster (1983), Hedlund (1989); Bayley (1989), Orcel (1990), and Gutteridge (2002), as the doses used in these trials ranged from just 21 to 25 mg per day. Perhaps more important, however, was the short duration of these trials, and the fact that fractures were seen in some patients within just 8 and 11 months of exposure (Inkovaara 1975; Gerster 1983). Thus, at doses virtually identical to EPA's LOAEL, clear evidence of toxicity was experienced in less than a year of exposure – much less than the 10-year minimum duration necessary to cause an adverse effect according to EPA.

While EPA attempted to dismiss the relevance of these trials by pointing out that the doses greatly exceed the current LOAEL of 20 mg/day, EPA's argument was based on the elementary error of failing to convert the dose of sodium fluoride into the respective dose of fluoride ion. Hence, EPA stated that the doses used by Hedlund (1989), Bayley (1990), and Gutteridge (2002) ranged from 50 to 60 mg/day, when in fact they ranged from 21 to 25 mg/day – or just a hair higher than the LOAEL.

EPA's dismissal also overlooked the fact that the fractures in these trials occurred before crippling fluorosis developed, and developed over a notably shorter duration. Hence, it is simply not appropriate for EPA to continue pretending that 1) crippling fluorosis is the first adverse effect that...
fluoride can have on bone, and that 2) an adverse effect on bone requires at least 10 to 15 years of exposure. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**Fluoride & Bone Fracture: Epidemiology**

Just as most clinical research reporting increased fracture rates in fluoride-treated patients was published after 1985, the same is true for epidemiological studies finding an increased fracture rate in communities with elevated fluoride in water. Indeed, all of the important studies on waterborne fluoride and fracture have been published since 1985.

A year after EPA issued its MCL, Sowers (1986) reported a statistically significant increase in bone fractures in a 4 ppm community versus a control community with 1 ppm. In 1991, Sowers updated her findings, and noted that in addition to an increase in bone fractures, there was also a statistically significant reduction in bone mass in the 4 ppm community.

A year earlier, Phipps (1990) reported the results of a separate study which also looked at bone mass in a 4 ppm community. As with Sowers, Phipps found that the 4 ppm community had significantly less bone density than the 1 ppm community in the bone that she measured (the forearm).

While Phipps' study did not investigate bone fracture rates, a later study by Li (2001) did. As with Sowers, Li found a statistically significant increase in bone fracture rates, particularly hip fractures, in communities with excess fluoride. In a community with 4.3-8 ppm, Li found that the hip fracture rate was 3 times higher than the hip fracture rate in the control 1 ppm community. Li also found a doubling of hip fractures at 1.5+ ppm, however, this effect was not statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval.

Following closely on Li (2001), a study by Alarcon-Herrera (2001) showed that, in a high endemic area for fluoride in Mexico (1.5 – 5.5 ppm), bone fractures in children increased linearly with the severity of dental fluorosis. Of note with Alarcon-Herrera’s study, is the fact that an increase in fracture rate was present in the group of children exhibiting only mild fluorosis. According to the CDC(2005) dental fluorosis now impacts over 30% of American children, and not all of it in its very mild form. However, no attempt has been made in the US to see if this correlation exists among American children.

A more recent study by Sowers (2005), again looking at a 4 ppm versus 1 ppm community, has again reported significantly higher osteoporotic fractures in the 4 ppm area, although the significance of this finding was lost when the authors controlled for other covariates, including bone density.

When taken together as a whole, the studies by Sowers (1986, 1991, 2005), Phipps (1990), Li (2001), Alarcon-Herrera (2001) as well as Arnala (1985) disallow the EPA from having any semblance of “reasonable certainty” that fracture rates are not increased at the 4 ppm MCLG.

It is, therefore, completely unacceptable that the EPA Pesticide Division continues to rely on ODW’s 1985 outdated assumption that crippling fluorosis is the only adverse effect of fluoride on bone. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**Fluoride & Bone Fracture: Animal Studies**


Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances 12-16-05, Submission to US EPA from FAN, EWG, Beyond Pesticides.
One of the important observations from these studies is that fluoride was able to reduce the strength of bone before any evidence of fluorosis was detectable on the microscopic level (Fratzl 1996; Turner 1995, 1997). This finding again underscores the negligence of EPA’s continued focus on crippling fluorosis as the only bone effect to protect against.

Another important result from the animal studies is Turner’s 1996 finding of increased osteomalacia and reduced bone strength in rats with kidney disease drinking water with the estimated human equivalent concentration of 3 ppm fluoride (Turner 1996). Further, the blood fluoride levels (9-10.8 umol/L) consistently associated with reduced bone strength in Turner’s studies (Turner 1995, 1996, 2001; see also: Dunipace 1995, 1998), are blood fluoride levels known to occur in humans with kidney disease living in communities with less than 2 ppm fluoride in water (Johnson 1979; Waterhouse 1980; Warady 1989; Torra 1998).

Turner’s repeated finding that fluoride reduces bone strength at blood fluoride levels seen in humans with kidney disease drinking less than <2 ppm, further undermines the premise that the MCLG is safe for all susceptible subsets of consumers. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUES 12-21. MCLG Flawed Assumption #6: Fluoride has no chronic adverse effects on soft tissues.**

In a similarly egregious manner as the EPA MCLG ignores all bone effects except crippling fluorosis, the EPA MCLG also ignores all soft tissue effects. Indeed, EPA’s standard is based on the assumption that an intake of 20 mg/day of fluoride for an entire lifetime will not produce any adverse effect on any soft tissue in the body.

Even if one were to accept that the evidence supported this assumption in 1985, it is simply no longer possible to maintain this assumption today – as there now exists an overwhelming body of evidence showing that fluoride can damage soft tissues, sometimes at remarkably low concentrations. This fact makes the 1985 MCLG yet more obsolete and antiquated.

Non-skeletal tissues and functions impacted by fluoride include:

- Brain
- Kidney
- Insulin Secretion
- Endocrine disruption (reproductive system, g-proteins, pineal gland, thyroid gland)

EPA cannot state with certainty that fluoride does not affect soft tissues. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 12: Fluoride’s Impact on the Brain**

- Brain Damage in Animals.

When the EPA issued its MCLG in 1985, there was hardly any research yet available on fluoride and the brain. This is no longer the case. Starting with a 1986 study from Guan, there have been over 30 studies indicating that fluoride can damage animal brain. In some cases brain damage has been caused at very low doses. For example, Varner et al. (1998) fed rats with 1 ppm fluoride in doubly distilled and de-ionized water (1 ppm is the same level used in water fluoridation programs) for 1 year and showed kidney damage, brain damage and uptake of aluminum into the brain. In addition, the studies by Dr. Guan and colleagues (Guan 1998; Long 2002; Shen 2004) have consistently found neurotoxic effects among rats drinking water with 30 ppm fluoride in water. When considering that blood fluoride levels are typically 5 times lower in rats than in...
humans when exposed to the same dose of fluoride (Turner 1992), the Guan studies are probably more indicative of human exposure to ~6 ppm fluoride in water.

- **Fluoride crosses the blood brain barrier**

Research has shown that fluoride is able to pass through the blood brain barrier. While some, such as Whitford have questioned whether it can accumulate in the tissue, it is now abundantly clear that – at the very least – the fluoride circulating in the bloodstream will enter the brain. (Zhai et al. 2003; Inkilewicz & Krechniak 2003; Vain and Reddy 2000; Long 2002; Guan et al 1998; Mullenix et al. 1995; Gerents et al. 1986; Tomomatsu 1981).

- **Fluoride and the hippocampus.**

Several published papers on fluoride’s effect on the hippocampus should raise concern (Zhai JX et al. 2003; Bhatnagar et al. 2002; Shivarajashankara YM et al. 2002; Chen J et al. 2002; Zhang Z et al. 2001; van der Voet et al. 1999; Varner et al. 1998; Mullenix et al. 1995; Kay et al. 1986). Damage to the hippocampus usually results in profound difficulties in forming new memories and affects access to memories prior to the damage. In Alzheimer's disease, the hippocampus becomes one of the first regions of the brain to suffer attack; causing memory problems and disorientation.

- **Lowering of IQ in children.**

There have been several studies from China indicating a lowering of IQ associated with exposure to fluoride. Some of these studies have not controlled for some key variables, but the latest study by Xiang et al. (2003 a and b) did control for both lead and iodine exposure, and found a lowering of IQ children estimated to occur at 1.8 ppm fluoride. Of added concern is the potential for fluoride to exacerbate the neural developmental effects on the fetus in situations where the pregnant woman has low iodine intake (Lin Fa-Fu, 1991). The ability of fluoride to exacerbate the neurological lesions induced by iodine deficiency (a major cause of low IQ) has since been established in repeated animal experiments (Zhao 1998; Wang 2004a,b; Ge 2005).

- **Pre-natal effects: fluoride crosses the placenta.**

The placenta does not prevent the passage of fluoride from maternal blood to the fetus (WHO 2002). As a result, pre-natal exposure to fluoride may present risks to the child. According to a 1992 paper (Du) presented results of an examination of brains of 15 aborted fetuses at 5-8th gestation month from an endemic fluorosis area compared with those from a non-endemic area. Fetal brains from the endemic fluorosis area revealed a significant reduction in the density of mitochondria and a reduction in the mean volume of neurons.

- **Fluoride helps aluminum cross the blood-brain barrier**

Fluoride elevates the aluminum level in brain (Varner et al. 1998, Isaacson et al. 1997) and the formation of beta amyloid deposits (Varner 1998) which are the classic brain abnormality of Alzheimer’s disease. Varner et al. (1998) discussed the reason why rats in the NaF group had detectable levels of aluminum in their brain. They postulated that fluoride enables the aluminum in the rat chow to cross the blood brain barrier.

- **Fluoride ions are well-known activators of G-proteins.**

G-proteins are considered the most important signal transducing molecules in cells. Fluoride’s interaction with G-proteins is thought to explain its well done activation of adenylate cyclase. In neurons, adenylate cyclases are located next to calcium ion channels for faster reaction to Ca2+ influx; they are suspected of playing an important role in learning processes. Recent data (Borasio et al. 2004) suggest a NaF-sensitive G protein “involvement of the inhibitory regulatory
subunit of the cAMP system in inducing presynaptic inhibition by interaction with calcium-
sensitive structures.”

EPA cannot state with certainty that fluoride will cause no harm to the brain of vulnerable age
groups, such as the fetus, infant, child, and elderly. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting
the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 13: Fluoride’s Impact on the Kidney**

With the exception of the pineal gland, the kidney accumulates more fluoride than all other soft
tissues in the body (Hongslo 1980; Ekstrand 1996; Whitford 1996). It is well known that high
doses of fluoride can damage the kidney after short periods of exposure, e.g. anesthesia (Mazze
1977). There is also evidence that low doses of fluoride, taken over longer periods of time,
can also damage the kidney. For example, both Varner (1998) and Ramseyer (1957) found
kidney damage in rats drinking water with just 1 ppm. Manocha (1975) found kidney damage in
monkeys drinking water with just 5 ppm F, while Borke & Whitford (1999) found kidney damage in
rats drinking water with just 10 ppm. In the latter study, the average blood fluoride levels of
the rats with kidney damage was just 38 ppb – a concentration commonly exceeded in people

Complementing this animal research, many studies have found kidney disease to be a common
feature of human skeletal fluorosis (Ando 2000; Derryberry 1963; Jolly 1980; Kumar 1963; Lantz
1987; Reggabi 1984; Shortt 1937; Siddiqui 1955; Singh 1963; Singla 1976).

Also, and perhaps most significantly, a recent human study from China, has found a dose-
dependent relationship between fluoride ingestion and kidney damage in children (Liu 2005). The
study found evidence of kidney damage among children drinking water with as little as 2.6 ppm.
This is well below EPA’s MCLG.

EPA cannot state with certainty that fluoride will cause no harm to the kidney. Accordingly, the
risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 14: Fluoride’s Impact on the Insulin Secretion**

A new study published this year (Menoyo 2005) has confirmed earlier animal, human, and in-vitro
findings (Rigalli 1990, 1995; Trivedi 1993) that fluoride can impair the secretion of insulin at
remarkably low levels. The concentration of fluoride repeatedly found capable of inhibiting the
secretion of insulin was only 5 umol/L (95 ppb), with a non-significant reduction found study at a
concentration as low as 2 umol/L (Rigalli 1995; see Table 1).

Based on this research, spanning over 15 years, (Rigalli 1990, 1995), the authors conclude that:

> "The overall information afforded by present experiments indicate that
extracellular concentrations of fluoride above 5 umol/L [95 ppb] affect the
insulin excretion. The results suggest that fluoride affects some stage of
insulin secretion situated below the cascade of events that include the
participation of calmodulin, protein-kinase C and cyclic AMP" (Menoyo
2005).

What’s remarkable about this finding is that 5 umol/L is a concentration of fluoride that many
individuals with kidney disease, even those living in ≤1 ppm areas, will attain in their bloodstream
(Johnson 1979; Waterhouse 1980; Warady 1989; Torra 1998). Even some individuals without
kidney disease living in <4 ppm areas will attain this concentration (Parkins 1974; Singer 1979;
Jackson 1997; Sowers 2005).

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*Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances
12-16-05, Submission to US EPA from FAN, EWG, Beyond Pesticides.*
With published evidence repeatedly finding that fluoride can inhibit insulin secretion at concentrations produced in humans by drinking water with ≤ 4 ppm fluoride, EPA cannot state with reasonable certainty that the MCLG is safe for all subsets of consumers. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 15: Fluoride’s Impact on the Endocrine System**

Dow AgroSciences makes the incorrect claim that there is no evidence that fluoride causes any damage to the endocrine system (US EPA 2001a, 2002a, 2005a). In fact, there is a substantial body of scientific literature indicating that fluoride impacts the male reproductive system; interacts with G-proteins; accumulates in the pineal gland and lowers thyroid function. We discuss each of these in more detail below.

EPA did not correct this false assertion by Dow, which was published three times in the Federal Register (US EPA 2001a, 2002a, 2005a), the most accessible document to the public on pending tolerance issues. However, EPA did state in a docket document,

“… The Agency is aware of potential endocrine effects of fluoride being noted in the open literature. From a preliminary review of this literature (Baetcke, et al., 2003), there does not appear to be a sufficient science foundation to permit confident conclusions regarding the ability of fluoride to produce endocrine effects… The National Academy of Sciences is currently in the process of reviewing the toxicological data for fluoride. When their review is available, EPA will reexamine this conclusion.” (US EPA, 2004a, page 18)

The public deserves more than a “preliminary review” from EPA on this important issue. In stating that the “Agency is aware of potential endocrine effects of fluoride” EPA was negligent not to wait for the National Academy of Sciences review (if that is who they were relying on to resolve this issue) before issuing the tolerance. EPA cannot state with certainty that no harm will be done by fluoride to the endocrine system. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 16: Fluoride’s Impact on the Male Reproductive System:**

There is a substantive body of published papers that detail fluoride's adverse effects on the male reproductive system (see Neurath et al., 2005a). The predominant effect reported in animal studies is fluoride's potential to affect male fertility.

**Sperm abnormalities**

**Decrease in Sperm Count**

**Decrease in Sperm Motility:**

**Decline in Testosterone Levels:**
Chinoy et al. 2004; Susheela & Jethanandan 1996; Chubb 1985; Kanwar et al. 1983; Araibi
et al. 1989. (See attachment: Table 6)

**Decrease in Fertility:**
Elbetieha et al. 2000; Chinoy & Sharma 2000; Chinoy & Sharma 1998; Pinto et al. 1998;
Chinoy et al. 1995; Chinoy, Reddy, Michael 1994; Chinoy & Sequeira 1992; Chinoy,

**Leydig cell damage:**

**Effects on spermatogenesis:**
Jiang CX et al. 2005; Chinoy, Tewari, Jhala 2004; Song K et al. 1991; Susheela & Kumar

**Fluoride accumulation in rodent testis:**
Kiang CX et al. 2005; Inkielewicz & Krechniak 2003; Krasowska & Wlostowski 1996;
Tomomatsu 1991)

With the numerous studies that demonstrate an effect on the male reproductive system, EPA
cannot state with reasonable certainty that no harm will be done. Accordingly, the risk
assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 17: Biological Plausibility of a Fluoride/Endocrine Effect:**

In doing a weight of analysis of whether a pollutant has an undesired effect on a tissue it is
always important to see if a biological mechanism of action can be proffered to help resolve
mixed animal and human findings. With respect to fluoride’s potential for impacting the endocrine
system its activation of G-proteins demands careful attention. G-proteins are involved in
transmitting signals across membranes from water soluble messengers at the outside of the cell
in order to activate an enzyme or some other process inside the cell. Such water soluble
messengers include many hormones.

There are thousands of biochemical experiments which document fluoride’s ability in the
presence of a trace amount of aluminum ion to activate G-proteins in the absence of the
messenger. This offers a general mechanism whereby fluoride, if it reaches a sufficient
concentration, could interfere with MANY hormonal systems. Of particular concern would be at
the interface of soft and hard tissues.

EPA scientists did not respond to concerns of fluoride’s impact on G-proteins. Everything is in its
biological place for potential harm to occur from G-proteins when the fluoride enters the body.
This important issue needed to be resolved prior to granting the tolerance. EPA cannot state with
a reasonable certainty that harm will not occur via a G-protein mechanism. Accordingly, the risk
assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 18: Fluoride’s Impact on the Pineal Gland**

Another place where fluoride concentrations are such that they could interfere with G-proteins, as
well as enzymes, is the pineal gland.

In the 1990s, Jennifer Luke from the UK discovered that the human pineal gland accumulates
fluoride. This gland, which is a calcifying tissue like the teeth and the bones, produces
concentrations (average 9000 ppm) in the calcium hydroxy apatite crystals which is higher than
either found in tooth enamel or the bone, except for those with crippling skeletal fluorosis (Luke,
2001).
In her PhD thesis Luke showed that the accumulation of fluoride in the pineal gland can reduce the gland’s synthesis of melatonin, a hormone that helps regulate the onset of puberty. Fluoride-treated animals were found to have reduced levels of circulating melatonin and an earlier onset puberty than untreated animals (Luke, 1997). Luke concluded:

"The safety of the use of fluorides ultimately rests on the assumption that the developing enamel organ is most sensitive to the toxic effects of fluoride. The results from this study suggest that the pinealocytes may be as susceptible to fluoride as the developing enamel organ (Luke 1997, page 7)."

The fact that fluoride’s impact on the pineal gland was never studied, or even considered, before the 1990s, highlights a major gap in knowledge underpinning current policies on fluoride and health.

The fact that Luke found in her animal studies that fluoride lowered melatonin levels AND shortened the time the animals took to reach puberty, puts into interesting light a finding from the Newburgh-Kingston fluoridation trial. The authors reported that on average the girls in Newburgh started menstruation 5 months earlier than the girls in the non-fluoridated city of Kingston. However, they did not consider the result significant at the time (Schlesinger et al. 1956)

One of the risks we may be taking by exposing our whole population to fluoride is interfering with delicate regulatory timing processes, from the onset of puberty to the aging process.

In every comment we submitted to EPA (E Connett 2001, 2002, 2005a; P Connett 2002, 2004; Neurath 2005) on sulfuryl fluoride we noted our concerns of fluoride’s potential to accumulate in the pineal gland. (In October 2001 we sent Luke’s thesis to EPA’s Dennis McNeilly who was then coordinating responses to the tolerances.) While EPA dismisses these concerns, it cannot dismiss the scientific plausibility that fluoride’s ability to concentrate in the pineal has the potential to cause adverse effects. At the very least the EPA should have flagged this issue and directed Dow to do an analysis of the fluoride levels in the pineal glands of rats used in the developmental neurotoxicity studies. Also, EPA should have initiated a study to analyze archived human (including fetal) pineal glands for the levels of fluoride. Without such elementary data, EPA cannot say with certainty that more human fluoride exposure from these tolerances will do no harm. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 19: Fluoride’s Impact on the Thyroid Gland:**

For a long period in Europe (from the 1930s through to the 1970s) doctors used sodium fluoride to lower the activity of the thyroid gland of patients who suffered from hyperthyroidism. The doses used were remarkably low - 2-10 mg fluoride /day (Galletti and Joyet, 1958).

The response by promoters of fluoridation has been that while fluoride lowers the activity of the thyroid gland of patients with hyperthyroidism it has no effect on those with normal thyroid function.

For example, in 1970, Demole dismissed concerns about water fluoridation and its impact on the thyroid gland. He argued, based largely on animal studies, that fluoride, like some other drugs “which act upon the sick organism” is “inactive in the healthy organism.”

However, Bachinskii et al. (1985) showed that normal thyroid function was lowered at 2.3 ppm fluoride in drinking water. This Russian study was not referenced by the EPA in 1986 or the National Research Council in 1993.

Meanwhile, in September 2005, at the 26th conference of the International Society for Fluoride Research, Dr. Alma Ruiz-Payan from the University of South Texas, presented her findings of a...
study conducted in Mexico. This researcher found a significant reduction in thyroid function in adolescents drinking water at 1 ppm (Ruiz-Payan et al., 2005).

Lastly, research – in both animals and humans - has shown that fluoride’s impact on the thyroid and brain is exacerbated when coupled with an iodine deficiency (Guan 1998; Li-Lu 1991; Wang 2004a,b, Ge 2005) – a fact that may explain some of the contradictory findings in the literature on fluoride and thyroid. The CDC has recently estimated that 12% of the US population has an iodine deficiency (CDC 1998). This represents an extremely large subset of consumers that are potentially at increased risk from fluoride exposure.

Considering the significant problem of hypothyroidism in the United States, and the widespread and increasing exposure to fluoride, this issue needs urgent attention. Being that no research has ever been conducted in the US to examine the combined impact of fluoride exposure and iodine deficiency, EPA can not state with reasonable certainty that individuals with iodine deficiency will be not be harmed by current fluoride exposures. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances are scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 20: Fluoride and Osteosarcoma in Boys**

EPA’s failure to consider the evidence that fluoride may cause osteosarcoma represents a major problem with its risk assessment. In light of the acknowledged biological plausibility of a fluoride osteosarcoma connection (NTP 1990), and in light of new epidemiological research (Bassin 2001) finding a statistically significant, “remarkably robust”, and age-specific association between fluoride and osteosarcoma in young males, it is simply not possible for EPA to claim “reasonable certainty” that fluoride does not cause osteosarcoma. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

(For an extensive review of the scientific literature on fluoride/osteosarcoma, we refer EPA to our recent two-part submission submitted to the National Research Council earlier this year. We have included copies of this submission with the attached documentation (P Connett et al, 2005 a, b).)

**ISSUE 21: Fluoride’s Teratogenic Effects**

The possibility that fluoride is a teratogen is supported by at least four published studies showing that it can reduce crown-rump length (one study referred to it as head-tail length). This effect was found in FOUR species exposed to either sulfuryl fluoride (rat and rabbit) or to sodium fluoride (frog and screech owl).

**FROG:** In 2003, Goh & Neff published the most definitive study and concluded that fluoride “is a direct acting teratogen on developing embryos” The authors stated:

... The most prominent malformations caused by sodium fluoride are reduction in the head-tail lengths and dysfunction of the neuromuscular system of the tadpoles. The values for LC50, EC50, and minimal concentration to inhibit growth (MCIG) of sodium fluoride met the limits established for a teratogen in frog embryos, showing that sodium fluoride is a direct acting teratogen on developing embryos. Since FETAX has a high degree of success in identifying mammalian teratogens, the observed teratogenic action of sodium fluoride on frog embryos would indicate a strong possibility that sodium fluoride may also act directly on developing mammalian fetuses to cause malformation (Goh & Neff, 2003).

Note: Dow’s studies for teratogenicity were performed in 1980 and 1981.
RAT: 2001: Collins & Sprando et al. reported

The single statistically significant decrease in crown-rump length of F2 females at 175 ppm [sodium fluoride] was considered random. (Collins et al. August 2001)

RAT: 1989: TR Hanley and other Dow Chemical scientists reported:

Groups of 35-36 bred rats were exposed via inhalation to sulfuryl fluoride for 6 hr/day on Days 6 through 15 of gestation and exposed to levels of 25, 75, and 225 ppm. "Mean fetal body weights and crown-rump lengths among litters exposed to 225 ppm were statistically elevated when compared to controls; however these values were only 3.7 and 1.5% above the control values, respectively, and were not considered toxicologically significant. (Hanley et al. 1989)

RABBIT: 1989: TR Hanley and other Dow Chemical scientists reported:

Groups of 28-29 inseminated rabbits were exposed via inhalation to sulfuryl fluoride for 6 hr/day on days 6 through 18 of gestation and exposed to levels of 25, 75, and 225 ppm. "At 225 ppm, the average body weight was significantly lower (14%) than in the control group, and there was a trend toward decreased fetal crown-rump length." (Hanley et al. 1989)

SCREECH OWL: 1985: Researchers at the Patuxent Wildlife Research Center reported:

The effects on reproduction in screech owls (Otus asio) of chronic dietary sodium fluoride administration of 0, 40, and 200 ppm were examined. Fluoride at 40 ppm resulted in a significantly smaller egg volume, while 200 ppm also resulted in lower egg weights and lengths. Day-one hatchlings in the 200 ppm group weighed almost 10% less than controls and had shorter crown-rump lengths. (Hoffman et al. 1985)

Fetal growth is critical to a person's eventual height. Before birth, the key measure is the crown-rump length. The teratogenic effect found in the four species cited above has a distinct possibility of translating to the human in the following, but not exclusive, way. Ruiz-Payal et al. (2005) reported the results of a study of 201 adolescents exposed to chronic exposure to various water fluoride concentrations (0.3, 1.0, 5.3 mg/L) in three communities in northern Mexico. The authors stated,

In Villa Ahumada [water fluoride average of 5.3 mg/L] a significant inverse relationship was found between urine fluoride levels and stature; this association suggests that fluoride exposure may affect the teeth but also the growth of adolescents… These findings show that high fluoride ingestion has a definite relationship with the prevalence of dental fluorosis, decrease of stature, and decrease of thyroid hormone secretion…

EPA has not adequately assessed fluoride’s potential for inducing teratogenic effects. EPA cannot state with a reasonable certainty that no harm will occur. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 22. MCLG Flawed Assumption #7. A safety factor of 2.5 is adequate to protect major identifiable sensitive sub groups.

The EPA should have used the standard safety factor of 10 to allow for the range of vulnerability in a human population to any toxic substance (intra-species variation). This was an especially serious error because the data used to derive the 20 mg/day LOAEL (Roholm 1937) was based on a small sample of otherwise healthy industrial workers. One needs a safety factor, therefore, to cover the extra vulnerability of the very young, the very old, the malnourished, and those with...
kidney dysfunction. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 23. MCLG Flawed Assumption #8. People only drink 2 Liters of Water a Day.**

EPA’s assumption that people only drink 2 liters of tap water a day ignores the fact that - according to EPA’s own data (EPA 2004c) - 10% of the population drink more than 2 liters of tap water a day.

Moreover, EPA’s MCLG incorrectly assumes that tap water is the only source of water intake. According to data cited by FNB (2004), tap water comprises less than 50% of an individual’s total water intake – a fact that is confirmed when comparing the difference between total water intake and total tap-water intake in the CSFII database.

EPA’s failure to account for other sources of water intake besides tap water is significant because most non-tap water beverages in the US now contain elevated fluoride levels due to the widespread practice of water fluoridation. Hence, an individual drinking 2 liters of tap water in a 4 ppm community will exceed the reference dose the moment they drink any additional processed beverage. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 24. MCLG Flawed Assumption #9. There are no other sources of fluoride besides water.**

Just as EPA’s MCLG incorrectly assumes that tap water is the only source of water intake, it also incorrectly assumes that tap water is the only source of fluoride (USDA 2004).

Hence, if a person living in a 4 ppm area consumes 2 liters of water a day, they will exceed the reference dose as soon as they drink one cup of tea, one can of soda, or consume any other additional source of fluoride (which may now include certain fluorinated pharmaceuticals that metabolize into fluoride ion – see: Rimoli 1991; Pradhan 1995).

EPA’s failure to account for other sources of fluoride besides tap water was a terrible omission. What EPA should have done was subtract from their reference dose (8 mg/day) their best estimate of exposure from all other sources (X mg/day). The safe drinking water standard would then have been derived as follows (for the sake of this specific argument we will use the EPA’s inaccurate assumption that no one drinks more than 2 liters of tap water per day):

\[
8 - X / 2 \text{ liters} = < 4 \text{ ppm}.
\]

If EPA had accounted for other sources of fluoride in such a manner, it might have been possible to protect individuals drinking water at the MCLG from exceeding the reference dose when they are exposed to additional sources of fluoride. But EPA didn’t do this and thus the fluoride tolerances must be rescinded, otherwise people drinking 2 liters of water at the MCLG will exceed the reference dose the moment they get their first bite of sulfuryl fluoride fumigated food. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 25. EPA’s attempt to use a new reference dose of 10 mg/day is not scientifically based.**

In response to FAN’s critique that the 1985 MCLG is an outdated and inadequate standard on which to derive a safe reference dose, EPA has suggested it may use the Institute of Medicine’s “Tolerable Upper Intake Level” of 10 mg/day as an alternative reference dose. The Institute of Medicine’s (IOM) standard, however, is as scientifically indefensible as EPA’s MCLG, and thus not an acceptable alternative.

*Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances 12-16-05, Submission to US EPA from FAN, EWG, Beyond Pesticides.*
According to IOM’s standard, it is safe for every individual in society (regardless of any health condition they may have, such as kidney disease) to ingest 10 mg of fluoride every day of life from 8 years of age to death. This is not a scientifically defendable statement. As noted, for instance, by Dr. Boivin in Issue 8 above, 10 mg/day can not be considered safe for people with kidney disease.

Furthermore, as detailed in section 12 of our September 2005 submission, the IOM issued an “uncertainty factor” of 1, despite the fact that a key author of the IOM report (Gary Whitford) had one year earlier stated that a dose of 10 mg/day could cause crippling fluorosis (Whitford 1996). The fact that a dose of 10 mg/day could go from a dose estimated to cause crippling fluorosis in 1996 to a dose assumed to be safe for every single member of the population in 1997 – without ANY new data published in the interim period – is a disgrace to science.

Underscoring the uncertainty of Whitford’s and IOM’s “certainty” in the safety of 10 mg/day for every member of the population, is the WHO’s recent assessment that bone damage may occur at daily doses of 6 mg/day (WHO 2002). To quote:

“studies from China and India indicate that for a total intake of 14 mg/day, there is a clear excess risk of skeletal adverse effects; and there is suggestive evidence of an increased risk of effects on the skeleton at total fluoride intakes above about 6 mg/day” (emphasis added, WHO 2002).

For these reasons, the use of 10 mg/day as a potential new reference dose for EPA’s risk assessment is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**DIETARY EXPOSURE TO FLUORIDE FROM NEW FOOD COMMODITY TOLERANCES**

**ISSUE 26. ACUTE EXPOSURE.** The US EPA has failed to consider any acute toxic health effects, resulting from exposure to the new tolerances, besides death (US EPA 2005a, 2005).

The EPA lists sub-lethal acute health effects such as vomiting but then cites only those dosages associated with death. For example, they extrapolate from the Certainly Lethal Dose by dividing by four to get what they call a “safely tolerated dose” (8-16mg/kg-bw), meaning it is unlikely to cause death. However, not only is the EPA’s “safely tolerated dose” higher than the dose (5 mg/kg) estimated to cause death in some people (Whitford 1987, 1990, 1996), it is also far higher than the doses documented to produce gastrointestinal distress (e.g. nausea and vomiting). Doses as low as 0.1 to 0.3 mg/kg-bw can result in acute gastrointestinal symptoms (Akiniwa 1997, Gessner et al. 1994). Such symptoms may not be life threatening but it is certainly unacceptable for a pesticide residue to result in vomiting for many people consuming average portions of the fumigated food.

Thus the EPA cannot claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result” and that they are giving “special consideration to exposure of infants and children” if they have not examined these non-lethal but acute affects. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ACUTE EXPOSURE.**

The EPA’s failure to examine non-lethal acute effects, can be shown to be serious.

FAN will demonstrate how the new fluoride tolerance residues will lead to such acute poisoning episodes (see ISSUES 41-44). We shall take the examples of dried eggs and wheat flour, both commonly consumed items in most people’s diets. The fluoride tolerance for dried eggs is 900 ppm and for wheat flour is 125 ppm (FAN 2005, Table 1).
ISSUE 27. ERROR. The US EPA, in a response to comments has apparently made a mistake in their calculations of how many milligrams of F would be contained in one reconstituted dried egg made up from 900 ppm dried egg powder (US EPA 2005b). We do not know where their mistake arose, but we note they used recipes supposedly based on teaspoons and may have confused these with tablespoons. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 28. ACUTE EXPOSURE. FAN’s correction of EPA’s calculations on the risks posed by powdered egg consumption.

We used recipes and conversion factors from several sources, including the American Egg Board and the USDA to determine how many grams of dried egg is mixed with water to make one egg equivalent. Both sources gave conversions by weight, not by volume, so there was no possibility of errors when converting volumes and densities to weights. Using both of these independent conversion factors returned the same result which provides reassurance that the methods are correct. We here document and reference all our calculations. In contrast, the EPA does not reference any of their calculations and makes many unsubstantiated claims in their assessment of the likely exposure levels from consuming fumigated dried eggs.

Our calculations for acute fluoride dose from dried eggs:

- F residue level in dried eggs: 900 ppm or 900 mg/kg
- Average weight of one large fresh egg: 50 g (American Egg Board 2005)
- Conversion factor from dried egg to fresh egg: 1 part by weight dried egg to 3 parts by weight water (USDA 2003; American Egg Board 2005)
- USDA standard serving size: 2 eggs
- 90th percentile large serving: 4 eggs (FDA 1995; 90th percentile is double the mean)

12.5 g dried egg mixed with 37.5 g water gives 50 g reconstituted egg

12.5 g X 900 mg/kg X 0.001 kg/g = 11.25 mg per fresh egg equivalent

2 egg equivalents X 11.25 mg/egg equivalent = 22.5 mg fluoride per serving

4 egg equivalents X 11.25 mg/egg equivalent = 45 mg fluoride per meal

This is based on whole dried eggs. These are the types of eggs most likely to be used as a direct replacement for fresh eggs in recipes like scrambled eggs and omelets.

We note that the EPA has calculated a much lower dose of only 3.1 mg/egg equivalent (US EPA 2005b). Since they do not reference their conversion factors it is not possible to determine where their mistake is made. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 29. UNCERTAINTY. EPA assumes a limitation of use of sulfuryl fluoride on powdered eggs but it has no provision for enforcing this limitation.

The EPA has no provision for enforcing a restriction on the number of times a year a processing facility will be fumigated (40 CFR Part 180.145; US EPA 2005). Therefore, without better supporting evidence for the number of times fumigations will take place using ProFume and the amount of food fumigated (PCT), there can not be a reasonable assurance that the exposure assessment is sufficiently conservative to reduce the chance of acute exposure a RfD exceedance. The EPA has still not provided their HRA supporting the July 2005 ruling so we can not assess the strength of their information underlying their PCT assumptions.
A higher real world PCT would also produce higher chronic exposures which would increase the number of people who would then exceed the chronic RfD. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 30. ACUTE EXPOSURE.** EPA incorrectly assumes that an individual will only consume one egg equivalent of powdered egg at any one meal.

In the EPA’s response to the issue of dried egg tolerances, the EPA claims that it is highly unlikely for any individual to ever consume more than a single egg’s worth of dried eggs (US EPA 2005b). They base this on their claim that dried eggs will only be used in mixes such as baking mixes. They apparently don’t realize that dried eggs are a standard USDA food item supplied to schools, Indian Reservations, prisons, food banks, disaster relief agencies, and other low budget end-users where they may frequently be used instead of fresh eggs to prepare dishes such as scrambled eggs or omelets (USDA 2005). The USDA purchased 4 million pounds of dried eggs in 2003 (USDA 2004). Dried eggs are also commonly found in lightweight foods for campers. Approximately 1/3 of all eggs consumed in the US are dried eggs. (American Egg Board 2005a)

Moreover, two eggs is considered a single serving of eggs by the USDA. Almost everyone would consume at least a single serving, and many would consume two servings worth or four eggs. As shown above, a four-egg meal prepared with 900 ppm residue dried eggs would give an acute dose of 45 mg F. Depending on the weight of the individual, this could range from 1.5 mg/kg-bw for a 30 kg child to 0.5 mg/kg-bw for a large adult weighing 90 kg. These dosages range from 2x to 15x greater than the dosages found to cause acute gastrointestinal symptoms including vomiting.

As a check on the reasonableness of these calculations, we can compare this outcome to the fluoride overdose warning on toothpaste. This warning is mandated by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA 1997). Fluoridated toothpastes contain between 1000 and 1500 ppm fluoride so they have only a slightly greater concentration than may be found in fumigated dried eggs. The FDA warning states that if a child ingests more than a pea-sized portion of toothpaste that a poison control center should be contacted immediately. A pea sized portion of dried eggs, or even several pea sized portions of dried eggs, would represent not even a single mouthful of scrambled eggs. This independently derived determination of the acute toxicity of fluoride ingestion by the FDA reinforces the accuracy of our calculations. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 31. ACUTE EXPOSURE.** Many acute poisonings will ensue with a tolerance level of 900 ppm on powdered eggs.

An acute poisoning scenario could occur in as many as 1% of meals prepared from dried eggs even if EPA is correct in assuming only 1% of all dried eggs will be fumigated. We have not been able to determine the total number of institutional meals where scrambled eggs made from dried eggs will be served per year in the US. However, the 4 million pounds of USDA dried eggs purchased each year (USDA 2003) represents 36 million four-egg servings per year. If 1% of these servings were made from 900 ppm egg powder that could result in 360,000 acute poisoning cases per year. In USDA pesticide residue surveys, typically 0.3% of all tested samples exceed the legal tolerance (USDA 2003a [PDP 2003]). A European Union wide pesticide residue testing program has found that more than 5% of all tested samples exceeded the legal tolerances (European Commission 2004). Therefore, even if we assume that most fumigated dried eggs will contain less than 900 ppm, it is probable that 0.1 to 1% will contain the full tolerance level. This translates into 400 to 4000 very likely cases of acute fluoride poisoning per year. The USDA has never tested for fluoride pesticide residues in foods so no better estimates can be made.

It is clearly unacceptable for even a small number of institutions to have poisoning incidents about once every 100 days of serving egg dishes. At each such incident people consuming even a single serving could be vomiting from the fluoride they ingested.

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But in fact, the situation is likely to be worse. Dried eggs are commonly sold in bulk containers up to 200 lbs. An institution might well purchase up to a year’s supply of dried eggs which have a long shelf life. One out of a hundred such purchases would be of a batch which was fumigated. For this school, prison, nursing home, or food bank, every egg meal made from this fluoride contaminated batch would produce widespread acute illness. Even if this scenario only plays out in a few dozen institutions a year in the US, affecting only several thousand people, this is clearly unacceptable.

Conclusion. The failure of the EPA to do justice to the full potential of harm from acute exposure to these fluoride tolerances undermines their claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result”. As we have shown above some Americans will be exposed to levels of fluoride (from ProFume) from consumption of dried egg which will exceed a dose at which we can anticipate acute effects.

As an independent check on our acute exposure analysis, we have employed the same DEEM software and food consumption database as used by EPA for their chronic exposure assessment. As noted earlier, EPA did not consider any sub-lethal acute health effect endpoints for fluoride. The results of the DEEM acute model analysis confirm our findings above. The acute DEEM Monte Carlo analysis model, using as assumed normal distribution of fluoride residues in dried eggs, with a mean of 300 ppm, found that Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 32. ACUTE EXPOSURE The EPA was remiss in failing to consider sub-lethal doses of fluoride resulting from the tolerances on other commonly consumed foods.

The above analysis considered fluoride exposure from only a single commodity, dried eggs. At this time we are unable to expand the analysis to consider all foods which will be fumigated because the list includes all processed foods. Even using DEEM software, the ability to do a full assessment is hampered by the difficulty in defining every category of processed food and its individual exposure contribution. But difficulty in performing an analysis does not relieve EPA from the requirement to perform an acute toxicity analysis taking into account exposures from all food items with tolerances. A failure to do so indicates that they cannot sustain the claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result” The omitted analysis should have included all processed foods with tolerances of 70 ppm, wheat and other grains with tolerances from 40 ppm to 125 ppm, and a wide range of commonly consumed fruits, vegetables, nuts, dairy, and meat products. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 33. ACUTE EXPOSURE. In addition, the ProFume pesticide label approved by US EPA on July 15, 2005 (Dow 2005) has been changed so that a 1:10 diluting of fumigated food products with non-fumigated products (blending) is no longer required. It is possible the EPA exposure assessment was based on the earlier labeling requirement (Dow 2004) rather than the current label. If this is the case then the EPA would underestimate the acute levels of exposure by a factor of 10. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 34. EXPOSURE. The US EPA’s health risk assessment for F residues may further underestimate chronic doses of fluoride, because not all foods are considered.

The July 15, 2005, Final Rule for fluoride tolerances (US EPA 2005) appears to address only some of the food tolerances requested by Dow in March 2005 (US EPA 2005a). On July 15, 2005, EPA approved tolerances for processed foods and a small number of raw agricultural commodities. The current EPA exposure may be based solely on these food tolerances and may fail to account for the exposures that will result if Dow receives tolerances for the Raw Agricultural Commodities (RAC) that are pending (FAN 2005, Table 3). These RAC foods include Group 16

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(grains, forage etc.) and Group 17 (both Groups with proposed tolerances of 130 ppm F); animal feed at 130 ppm; and flour, post harvest at 98 ppm. By incrementally approving sets of tolerances, all for the same residues, EPA has failed to account for the total potential residues from all foods which are likely to be treated. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 35. EXPOSURE.** Changes in labeling requirements lead to an EPA underestimate of fluoride exposure from fluoride tolerances.

It is not clear whether EPA's underestimates has used the most current pesticide label requirements on which to base their exposure assumptions. The label for ProFume was just changed as of July 15, 2005 (Dow 2005). The changes in conditions of use were substantial. Three pages of specific restrictions were removed. Requirements for blending after fumigation to dilute concentrations of fluoride are eliminated. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 36. EXPOSURE.** Eliminating blending requirements leads to another underestimate of exposure by EPA.

It may be relevant to note that the only comment on the pesticide petition received by the EPA other than those opposed to the petition was from the North American Millers’ Association representing 95% of the industry. Their one request was to alter the ProFume registration by eliminating the blending requirement:

“The current label for sulfuryl fluoride requires that wheat flour that is exposed to the compound must be blended into flour that has not been fumigated in a 10:1 ratio. This restriction severely limits or, depending on the location, could prevent its use as a tool to ensure that milled grain products are produced in a sanitary environment.” (Bair 2005)

They strongly requested the EPA to eliminate this label restriction and the EPA seems to have complied, without any explanation or request for public input.

If the EPA based their exposure assessment on the pre July 15, 2005 label (Dow 2004) requirements, then they would have severely underestimated the possible levels and amounts of food affected. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 37. UNCERTAINTY.** Health Risk Assessment used to set tolerances in July 15, 2005, was not made public.

The failure of the EPA to make the FULL Health Risk Assessment and supporting documents used in the July 15 Final Rule (US EPA 2005) publicly available prior to issuing the Final Rule does not give us confidence that the EPA is proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result”. If they can’t or won’t make a final HRA freely available to the public we, and other independent observers, have no way of checking their assumptions or methods which makes the Final Ruling incomplete.

This failure of the EPA to make the FULL Health Risk Assessment used in the July 15 Final Rule (US EPA 2005) publicly available prior to issuing the Final Rule, partially explains the uncertainties inherent in issues 45-50.

The Final Rule for these tolerances should be rescinded, at least until such time as the EPA can resolve these uncertainties. Any claim they make about the safety of these tolerances is moot until they have done so. With these uncertainties still in place the EPA cannot claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

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ISSUE 38. EXPOSURE. The failure of the EPA to require ProFume’s registration label to specifically prohibit fumigation of any quantity of flour because of the risks of residue accumulation (as is required in the UK).

The label for ProFume use in the United Kingdom in food processing facilities specifically prohibits fumigation of any flour that will be used for human or animal consumption. Any incidentally fumigated flour must be destroyed and the non-fumigated flour must be run through the equipment to flush out remaining fumigated material. This flush material must also be discarded. The UK label says this requirement is to prevent the risk of ProFume residue accumulation in food.

The UK decided the risks of allowing fumigated flour to be consumed was too great. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 39. EXPOSURE. The failure of the EPA to require that the first run out of the equipment following fumigation of flour must be discarded and that the succeeding 50 minutes of run must be blended 10:1 with unfumigated flour (Dow 2005a). This failure will lead to further unacceptable exposure to fluoride.

This label requirement in the 2004 label was dropped in the current label (Dow 2005a). Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 40. EXPOSURE. The EPA also failed to take into account those significant sub-populations which will receive the highest exposures.

This is a result of the EPA’s failure to even consider the highest exposure groups. The EPA has only considered age and sex groups, not diet groups. In particular, those who consume high amounts of particular food types. The US FDA (FDA 1995) has found that the 90th percentile of heavy consumers of a food type eat twice as much as the average consumer. The highest 95th percentile typically eats four times as much. The EPA only considered the average consumer. This leads to an underestimate of exposure of half in about 10% of the population, and of four in about 5% of the population. The 99th percentile and the 99.9th percentile are likely to consume considerable more. Considering the entire population of the US, even the 99.9th percentile is a very large number of people: 300,000. For the EPA to not consider the many-fold higher exposure to this large subpopulation reveals that their HRA has no assurance of protecting these people from harm. This failure again undermines the EPA’s claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result” from these tolerances. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 41. EXPOSURE. The EPA’s use of a “processing factor” in its analysis of exposure to the tolerance levels on wheat is non-conservative and thus underestimates the potential for exposure to fluoride from this important source of fluoride exposure.

We believe that application of this “processing factor” is not likely to be protective of a significant portion of the American population. Increasing numbers of people are consuming more whole grain products based on medical findings of significant health benefits from eating whole grains. In fact, the USDA recommends that Americans switch to whole grains as much as possible (USDA 2005b). This trend is exemplified by General Mills Corporation’s recent announcement that it plans to change the recipe of all it’s cereals to whole grain over the next few years (USA Today 2004). It would be ironic if people switching to whole grains for their established health benefits would be faced with the prospect of consuming unacceptably high fluoride residues due to fumigation by sulfuryl fluoride. This is analogous to the difficult trade-off between health
benefits of eating fish while trying to avoid excessive mercury exposure. However, it is much easier to solve by simply preventing the use of sulfuryl fluoride as a food fumigant.

The use of this non-conservative “processing factor” again undermines the EPA’s claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result” from these tolerances. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 42.** EPA made a gross mathematical error in their response to public comments.

While trying to explain their estimates for the percentage of food items that might be fumigated twice, they state: “about 5% of 1% fumigated products could be fumigated twice or 0.0005% of foods” (US EPA 2005b, p. 7). They are off by a factor of 100x! Five percent of 1% equals 0.05%, not 0.0005%. If this error was used in the EPA’s exposure analysis it would lead to a gross underestimate of chronic exposure to these food tolerances. In any case, if this error is indicative of the lack of care with which EPA prepared their health risk assessment, then it raises concerns they have made errors elsewhere.

With such gross errors it again puts into question the EPA’s claim that they are proceeding with “A reasonable certainty that no harm will result” from these tolerances and the problems which arise when Final Rulings are made prior to the final HRA being made available to the public. Often public and independent scrutiny reveals errors which in-house review does not.

Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 43.** **EXPOSURE.** Chronic exposure to tolerances becomes much worse if EPA had considered major identifiable sensitive sub groups.

For food exposure, the critical sub-population is those who consume more than the average quantity of wheat and grain products. The FDA has found that a good approximation can be made to determine the 90th and 95th percentile of food consumption for most categories of food. They find that the upper 10% of consumers eat about twice as much of a food type as the average. They have also found that the top 5% eat about 4 times the average (FDA 1995). For the US population 10% represents about 30 million people, and 5% represents about 15 million. These are very large subpopulations which certainly qualify as “significant” by anyone’s definition. They are larger than some of the subpopulations which the EPA considered.

Therefore, 30 million Americans are likely to eat larger than average portions of bread, pasta, and other grain products. EPA’s failure to account for these populations makes its risk assessment supporting the tolerances scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 44.** **EXPOSURE.** EPA failed to correct the “processing factor” for dried fruit, including raisins, even after FAN pointed this out in our submission of 2004.

As acknowledged in their “Corrected” HRA, EPA did apply the correction to the fluoride residues from cryolite. However, they did not apply the correction to fluoride residues from ProFume use. Drying fruits results in a 5 or more fold increase in concentration of fluoride per unit weight due to the removal of water. Therefore, the EPA’s HRA’s exposure assessment will underestimate exposure from raisins and other dried foods by a factor of approximately 5 fold. The subgroup of the population which are heavy consumers of raisins and other dried foods are likely to consume many fold more of these items than the average. The corrected exposure from dried foods will lead to particularly high exposures to this subgroup, enough to potentially push some of them over the RfD when aggregate exposure from all sources is considered.
ISSUE 4 The July 2005 tolerance decision granted tolerances to hundreds of food items under the catch-all heading “processed foods”. This is everything from Cheerios to Hamburger Helper to Macaroni and Cheese. Yet only a tiny fraction of these food items have had even a minimal number of residue tests conducted on them. If the properties of the commodity itself are what largely determine the amount of residues which are absorbed from fumigation, then there can be no reasonable assurance that EPA has sufficient data from real testing of a wide variety of these food products to vouch for the accuracy of the assumed residue levels in the HRA. For example, one of the very few foods which apparently has had residue tests conducted on it is dried eggs. Apparently, these tests produced extraordinarily high residue levels of fluoride as the tolerance was set at 900 ppm.

We can not know what the test results actually were because, as mentioned at the outset, the full HRA and its supporting documents for the July 2004 decision have yet to be made publicly available.

If dried eggs absorb massive quantities of fluoride from fumigation, ostensibly because of their high protein or fat content, then it is reasonable to expect other processed foods to similarly exhibit very high residue levels.

Without substantially more residue data from a wide variety of food storage and processing facilities and a wide range of food commodities, the safety of the tolerances can not be established. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 45. EXPOSURE. Deficiencies with Residue Data

The HRA of October 2004 states that the pesticide applicant has supplied only marginally sufficient residue data from fumigation trials to allow for tolerances to be set. It lists six “residue chemistry deficiencies” on page 4. To date, none of these deficiencies have been remedied to our knowledge. Any one of them is significant enough that the granted tolerance residues could be underestimated to a degree that significant numbers of Americans could be put above the EPA’s RfD. When the actual data upon which the tolerances were determined is examined in detail it can be seen that it is not even marginally sufficient to be assured that the limited data will adequately reflect real world fumigation practices and resulting residues. For example, for the critical commodity wheat flour, the range of fluoride residues found was 15 ppm to 82 ppm and most of this data was not from fumigation at the approved application rate. All this data is from a single flour mill facility, so there is no way to know how residues will vary under the unique fumigation conditions found at each facility. Fumigation is a complicated process involving many variables of temperature, ventilation rates, building leakage rates, fumigant injection sites, outside wind, shielding foods from exposure, etc. To base tolerances on data from only a single site is highly presumptuous. Even within this single facility the HRA reports there was “a fairly high degree of variability across treatment replicates” [EPA HRA Oct. 2004 p 13]. The HRA goes on to state there was even more variability due to the properties of the food commodities themselves. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

ISSUE 46. EXPOSURE. EPA has failed to account for increased exposure from deboned meat.

One of the six residue chemistry deficiencies cited in the HRA is the lack of livestock feeding studies to assess the degree to which secondary residues, through eating the meat, will increase human exposures [HRA p. 4]. The HRA states that no such studies have been provided. Yet there is a strong probability that this route of exposure will be significant. The HRA notes that cereal grain commodities are a major portion of livestock feed. Tolerances as high as 125 ppm fluoride were granted to cereal grain commodities. Fluoride bioconcentrates very aggressively in animals. In humans approximately 50% of all ingested fluoride becomes sequestered in the bones and calcified tissues. The bone concentrations are known to increase steadily throughout
the lifetime of animals, reaching levels of thousands of parts per million. The bones and possibly other tissues of animals fed high levels of fluoride contaminated feed will increase rapidly, reaching higher levels by the time of slaughter. Studies show that mechanically de-boned meat already contains high levels of fluoride (Field 1976; Dolan 1978; Fein 2001). If ProFume treated grain products are fed to animals the levels in these frequently consumed meat products are likely to raise significantly higher. By not considering this exposure pathway, the HRA significantly underestimates exposures to the population. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 47. EXPOSURE.** EPA OPP has failed to properly validate the analytical chemistry methods for measuring levels of sulfuryl fluoride and fluoride in cereal grain commodities.

Cereal grain commodities dominate the exposure source in most people’s diets due to the relatively high levels of residues and the high consumption rates of these foods. The OPP recommended that the methods have validation studies conducted using radioisotope labeling because of concern that the methods may not be able to measure “incurred fluoride”. To quote:

“The petitioner has not demonstrated that either method is capable of extracting incurred residues from cereal grain commodities.” [EPA Oct 2004 HRA Corrected p. 20]

The HRA goes on to paradoxically state that the EPA’s Analytical Chemistry Branch recommended:

“Both methods have been reviewed by the Agency’s Analytical Chemistry Branch, which recommended that (1) the petitioner radiovalidate both methods and (2) OPP accept the analytical methods without a laboratory validation based on the submitted data” (Method Review Memorandum, D.Wright, D282408, 8/14/03).

This self-contradictory recommendation to both validate the methods and to skip validation has resulted in these methods never being properly validated.

Therefore the methods can not be considered reasonably certain to provide accurate levels of residues. Furthermore, the concern by OPP is that they may specifically underestimate the levels. These analytical chemistry methods are the foundation of the HRA’s exposure assessment. All trial fumigation interpretations and all future monitoring and regulatory enforcement depends on the ability to accurately determine residue levels in foods. If the trial fumigation results under-measured the actual residue levels, then all the input levels into the DEEM model are suspect. The final output of the model would likewise underestimate the true exposure people would receive. Without an acceptable validation of the methods, the tolerances must be rejected, as the methods by which they were determined can not be reasonably certain of accuracy. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

**ISSUE 48.** EPA’s failure to obtain ORAL Developmental Neurotoxicity (DNT) Studies on sulfuryl fluoride and fluoride before issuing its Final Rule on the tolerances.

There is a dearth of oral exposure animal studies for sulfuryl fluoride and a significant lack of data from the few studies that were performed. Yet, EPA set first-time tolerances for sulfuryl fluoride on the most common foods consumed by the American public. And when they set these tolerances, EPA approved the highest fluoride residues for food in its history. For example, in July 2005, EPA set a fluoride tolerance of 70 ppm for all processed foods not otherwise specifically cited, and a sulfuryl fluoride tolerance of 2.0 ppm for this category.

The animal studies available to the public are inhalation studies. This is of some convenience to Dow, as the majority of these studies were performed for the non-food fumigation uses of sulfuryl...
Issues for an Evidentiary Hearing Concerning Sulfuryl Fluoride Tolerances

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fluoride. The brain was a major target organ in all the inhalation animal studies performed. All these studies were performed by Dow, and some are quite dated.

EPA behaved unscientifically by not directing Dow to perform, at a minimum, three developmental neurotoxicity (DNT) studies, prior to the granting of any tolerance for sulfuryl fluoride. The DNT studies that needed to be performed before tolerances were approved:

1. An oral DNT for fluoride
2. An oral DNT for sulfuryl fluoride
3. An oral DNT for simultaneous fluoride + sulfuryl fluoride exposure.

EPA has only directed Dow to perform an inhalation DNT study for sulfuryl fluoride. This study should have been performed years ago as sulfuryl fluoride has been used as a structural fumigant in the US since at least 1959. A more poignant reason why this study should have been conducted years ago comes from a 1998 study on structural fumigation workers. The authors state:

“Occupational sulfuryl fluoride exposures may be associated with subclinical effects on the central nervous system, including effects on olfactory and some cognitive functions. However, no widespread pattern of cognitive deficits was observed...” (Calvert 1988).

This study is an example for the need for the right study at the right time. For food consumers, the right study are oral DNT studies, and the right time was before tolerances were granted.

By not ordering Dow to perform the appropriate DNT studies, and by not waiting for the results of these studies that would have allowed an informed decision as to tolerances (especially in regards to children, with significant ongoing brain development) EPA cannot, with any reasonable certainty, say that no harm will occur. Accordingly, the risk assessment supporting the tolerances is scientifically, factually and legally inadequate.

CONCLUSION

We believe that each of the issues we have identified in this submission raises material issues of fact, which, if resolved in our favor would compel revocation of each of the tolerances identified in our objections. In conjunction with each of these issues we have described our factual contentions in detail. In each instance, our contentions are at odds with the positions of the Agency. We believe that each of these issues can only be resolved by means of an evidentiary hearing as contemplated by FFDCA Section 408(g)(2)(B). At such a hearing it is our intention to present factual evidence in the form of documents and expert testimony to support each of the factual contentions identified in this submission.

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ATTACHMENTS

Appendix A. Deaths from fumigation using sulfuryl fluoride “Vikane®”
Appendix B. FAN Drinking Water Analysis #1
Appendix C. FAN Drinking Water Analysis #2

References

Hard copies of references
# APPENDIX A
Fluoride Action Network Pesticide Project
December 2005.

Deaths from fumigation using sulfuryl fluoride “Vikane®”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>March 10, 2005</th>
<th>Excerpt from newspaper report:</th>
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<tr>
<td>CALIFORNIA</td>
<td>… An employee of D&amp;S Fumigation had returned to the 30-unit complex around 2 p.m. to check toxicity levels around the building when he heard someone screaming for help and noticed a rustling inside the tent. The employee found Williams and pulled her out, D&amp;S owner Dawn Charrette said.</td>
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<td>Newspaper report</td>
<td>Williams, the mother of five children, died later that day at a San Diego hospital.</td>
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<td>... State officials said it was apparently the third such death in recent years…</td>
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**Update:** In August 2005, the California San Diego Medical Examiner’s Office stated cause of death as **pesticide poisoning**. Residential/commercial fumigation. Manner of death accidental. Ref: Ellen Connett’s telephone inquiry to the San Diego Medical Examiner’s Office, California, on December 12, 2005.

See

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<th>From Minutes of a Structural Pest Control Board meeting in Austin, TEXAS. 2002</th>
<th>(page 15) ... Otis Woods, Pioneer Pest Services. “I have a pest control business here or in San Juan up in Dallas, but the situation coming that’s up right now about fumigation, we lost a guy who was using Sulfuryl Fluoride, Vikane. It is very dangerous.</th>
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<td>(page 23) … Mr. Burnett: Otis, you had mentioned you &quot;lost a guy&quot;. <strong>He is deceased?</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Mr. Woods:</strong> Yes. Mr. Burnett: If I could ask some follow-up questions to you with that. What kind of training had the deceased received?</td>
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<td>Mr. Woods: Really the training that he had was just for putting the tarps up. Knowing how to roll the tarps, you know, and sealing the house. He didn't deal with the gases at all.</td>
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<td>Mr. Burnett: Okay, and how long had this person been on this type of work?</td>
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<td>Year</td>
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<td>------</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Germany</td>
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<td>1991</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>Virginia</td>
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Information on the number of human deaths as a result of fumigation with Vikane® is not accessible to the public. Nor is any information available to the public on the number of people who became sick, but didn’t die, from exposure to sulfuryl fluoride. It is also unknown to the public if there is any long-term follow-up with workers involved in sulfuryl fluoride fumigation.
APPENDIX B

FAN’s ANALYSIS #1 – Drinking Water Exposure Analysis; NHANES/USDA/CDC Data
ANALYSIS A – Water Fluoride Exposure in ≥4 ppm Areas.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Population Size:

Fact #1: 210,000 people live in communities identified by CDC Fluoridation Census (1993) as ≥4 ppm fluoride in the water.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Water Intake

Fact #2: According to the FNB (2004, p. 496-97):

- Approximately 15% of the population consumes ≥ 4.15 Liters/day

Fact #3: According to data cited by FNB (2004, p.86), water intake comes from 3 sources:

- 28% comes from plain water;
- 28% comes from food;
- 44% comes from processed beverages.

Assumptions Underlying Analysis:

Assumption #1: The fluoride concentration of the 3 water-intake sources are assumed as follows:

- F Content of Plain Water = F content of town water supply.
- F Content of Water from Food = F content of town water + processed beverages / 2.
- F Content of Processed Beverages = 0.71 ppm (average F content of water in US, USDA 2004).

Results of Analyses for ≥4ppm areas

Based on Facts 1 & 2: 31,500 people in ≥ 4 ppm areas will be consuming ≥4.15 Liters/day.

Based on Fact #4, and Assumption #1:

Plain Water: 28% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.16 Liters/day = 4.64 mg/day (at 4 ppm)
Foods: 28% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.16 Liters/day = 2.73 mg/day (at 2.35 ppm)
Processed Beverages: 44% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.83 Liters/day = 1.3 mg/day (at 0.71 ppm)
Total Intake from WATER = ≥ 8.67 mg/day

Conclusions of Analysis:

>15% of the population living in ≥ 4 ppm areas -- or 31,500 people in the US -- are consuming 8.7 mg/day of fluoride from water sources. This exceeds the EPA’s reference dose of 8 mg/day.
ANALYSIS B – Water Fluoride Exposure in 3.5-3.9 ppm Areas.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Population Size:

Fact #1: 67,974 people live in communities identified by CDC Fluoridation Census (1993) as having 3.5-3.9 ppm fluoride in the water.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Water Intake

Fact #2: According to the FNB (2004, p. 496-97).

- 15% of the population consumes ≥ 4.15 Liters/day

Fact #3: According to data cited by FNB (2004, p.86), water intake comes from 3 sources:

- 28% comes from plain water;
- 28% comes from food;
- 44% comes from processed beverages.

Assumptions Underlying Analysis:

Assumption #1: The fluoride concentration of the 3 water-intake sources are as follows:

- F Content of Plain Water = 3.7 ppm (median of 3.5-3.9 ppm range)
- F Content of Water from Food = F content of town water + processed beverages / 2.
- F Content of Processed Beverages = 0.71 ppm (average F content of water in US, USDA 2004).

Results of Analyses for 3.5-3.9 ppm areas

Based on Facts #1 & #2: 10,196 people in 3.5-3.9 ppm areas will be consuming ≥ 4.15 Liters/day.

Based on Fact #3, and Assumption #1:

- Plain Water: 28% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.16 Liters/day = 4.29 mg/day (at 3.7 ppm)
- Foods: 28% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.16 Liters/day = 2.55 mg/day (at 2.2 ppm)
- Processed Beverages: 44% of 4.15 Liters/day = 1.83 Liters/day = 1.3 mg/day (at 0.71 ppm)

Total Intake from WATER = ≥ 8.14 mg/day

Conclusions of Analysis:

15% of the population living in 3.5-3.9 ppm areas -- or 10,196 people -- are consuming at least 8.1 mg/day of fluoride from water sources. This exceeds the EPA’s reference dose of 8 mg/day.
ANALYSIS C – Water Fluoride Exposure in 3.0-3.4 ppm Areas.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Population Size:


Facts Underlying Analysis – Water Intake

Fact #2: According to the FNB (2004, p. 496-97).

• 10% of the US population consumes more than 4.66 Liters/day

Fact #3: According to data cited by FNB (2004, p.86), water intake comes from 3 sources:

• 28% comes from plain water;
• 28% comes from food;
• 44% comes from processed beverages.

Assumptions Underlying Analysis:

Assumption #1: The fluoride concentration of the 3 water-intake sources are as follows:

• F Content of Plain Water = 3.2 ppm (median of 3.0-3.4 ppm range)
• F Content of Water from Food = F content of town water + processed beverages / 2.
• F Content of Processed Beverages = 0.71 ppm (average F content of water in US, USDA 2004).

Results of Analyses for 3.0-3.4 ppm areas

Based on Facts #1 & #2: 23,013 people in 3.0-3.4 ppm areas will be consuming ≥ 4.15 Liters/day.

Based on Fact #3, and Assumption #1:

Plain Water: 28% of 4.66 Liters = 1.3 Liters = 4.16 mg/day
Foods: 28% of 4.66 Liters = 1.3 Liters = 2.54 mg/day (at 1.95 ppm)
Processed Beverages: 44% of 4.66 Liters = 2.05 Liters = 1.46 mg/day (at 0.71 ppm)
Total Intake from Water = 8.16 mg/day

Conclusions of Analysis:

10% of the population living in 3.0-3.4 ppm areas -- or 23,000 people -- are consuming at least 8.1 mg/day of fluoride from water sources. This exceeds the EPA’s reference dose of 8 mg/day.
ANALYSIS D – Water Fluoride Exposure in 2.5-2.9 ppm Areas.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Population Size:

Fact #1: 209,467 people live in communities identified by CDC Fluoridation Census (1993) as having 2.5-2.9 ppm fluoride in the water.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Water Intake

Fact #2: According to the FNB (2004, p. 496-97).

• 5% of the US population consumes more than 5.4 Liters/day

Fact #3: According to data cited by FNB (2004, p.86), water intake comes from 3 sources:

• 28% comes from plain water;
• 28% comes from food;
• 44% comes from processed beverages.

Assumptions Underlying Analysis:

Assumption #1: The fluoride concentration of the 3 water-intake sources are as follows:

• F Content of Plain Water = 2.7 ppm (median of 2.5-2.9 ppm range)
• F Content of Water from Food = F content of town water + processed beverages / 2.
• F Content of Processed Beverages = 0.71 ppm (average F content of US water, USDA 2004).

Results of Analyses for 2.5-2.9 ppm areas

Based on Facts #1 & #2: 10,473 people in 2.5-2.9 ppm areas will be consuming 5.4 Liters/day.

Based on Fact #3, and Assumption #1:

Plain Water: 28% of 5.4 Liters = 1.51 Liters = 4.08 mg/day
Foods: 28% of 5.4 Liters = 1.51 Liters = 2.57 mg/day (at 1.7 ppm)
Processed Beverages: 44% of 5.4 Liters = 2.4 Liters = 1.68 mg/day (at 0.71 ppm)
Total Intake from Water = 8.33 mg/day

Conclusions of Analysis:

5% of the population living in 2.5-2.9 ppm areas -- or 10,473 people -- are consuming at least 8.3 mg/day of fluoride from water sources. This exceeds the EPA’s reference dose of 8 mg/day.
ANALYSIS E – Water Fluoride Exposure in 2.0–2.4 ppm Areas.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Population Size:

Fact #1: 565,000 people live in communities identified by CDC Fluoridation Census (1993) as having 2.0-2.4 ppm fluoride in the water.

Facts Underlying Analysis – Water Intake

Fact #2: According to the FNB (2004, p. 496-97).

• 1% of the US population consumes more than 7.25 Liters/day

Fact #3: According to data cited by FNB (2004, p.86), water intake comes from 3 sources:

• 28% comes from plain water;
• 28% comes from food;
• 44% comes from processed beverages.

Assumptions Underlying Analysis:

Assumption #1: The fluoride concentration of the 3 water-intake sources are as follows:

• F Content of Plain Water = 2.2 ppm (median of 2.0-2.4 ppm range)
• F Content of Water from Food = F content of town water + processed beverages / 2.
• F Content of Processed Beverages = 0.71 ppm (average F content of US water, USDA 2004).

Results of Analyses for 2.0–2.5 ppm areas

Based on Facts #1 & #2: 5,650 people in 2.0-2.4 ppm areas will be consuming 7.24 Liters/day.

Based on Fact #3, and Assumption #1:

Plain Water: 28% of 7.24 Liters = 2.03 Liters = 4.47 mg/day
Foods: 28% of 7.24 Liters = 2.03 Liters = 2.94 mg/day (at 1.45 ppm)
Processed Beverages: 44% of 7.24 Liters = 3.19 Liters = 2.26 mg/day (at 0.71 ppm)
Total Intake from Water = 9.7 mg/day

Conclusions of Analysis:

1% of the population living in 2.0-2.4 ppm areas -- or 5,650 people -- are consuming at least 9.7 mg/day of fluoride from water sources. This exceeds the EPA’s reference dose of 8 mg/day.
APPENDIX C: FAN’S ANALYSIS #2 – DEEM, DRINKING WATER

2-day exposures at various tap water fluoride concentrations. Other water is 0.71 ppm F. Exposures (mg/kg-bw/day) at selected percentiles for several subpopulations.

Residue file for 1.0 ppm tap water and 0.71 ppm other water showing the 8 forms of water available in DEEM.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EPA Code</th>
<th>Crop Grp</th>
<th>Food Name</th>
<th>Def Res (ppm)</th>
<th>Adj.Factors #1</th>
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Reference dose (aRfD) = 0.114 mg/kg bw/day
Comment: 1.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day
Summary calculations -- users:

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<tr>
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<th>95th Percentile</th>
<th>99th Percentile</th>
<th>99.9th Percentile</th>
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<td>Exposure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adults 20-49 yrs:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adults 50+ yrs:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Custom demographics 1:</td>
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</table>
Acute Reference Dose (aRfD) = 0.114000 mg/kg body-wt/day

Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "1.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

U.S. Population 2-Day Avg Exposure Analysis /a (mg/kg body-weight/day) per User
--------- ----------
Mean 0.019677
Standard Deviation 0.016674
Standard Error of mean 0.000118
Percent of aRfD 17.26

Percent of Individuals that are Users (over two days) = 99.26%

Estimated percentile of user-days falling below calculated exposure in mg/kg body-wt/day with Percent of aPAD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% aRfD</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% aRfD</th>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>

---
a/ Analysis based on all two-day participant records in CSFII 1994-98 with 2 days of valid drinking water records.
Chris Neurath  
DEEM-FCID ACUTE PLOT FILE for FLUORIDE  
(1994-98 data) 
Residue file: DEEM tap water 100 ppm.R98  
Adjustment factor #2 NOT used. 
Analysis Date: 12-15-2005/10:05:32  
Residue file dated: 12-13-2005/05:01:41/88 
Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports 
Two-Day Average Results Reported 
Run Comment: "1.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day" 

Number of populations included in this file: 10 
Populations: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pop</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>U.S. Population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>All infants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Non-nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Children 3-5 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Children 6-12 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Youth 13-19 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Adults 20-49 yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Adults 50+ yrs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Custom demographics 1: All over age 18</td>
</tr>
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</table>

| Pops: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, |
| Pops: | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, |
| Means: | 0.019677, 0.074266, 0.038979, 0.082713, 0.018818, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.019318, 0.018568, |
| PADS: | 0.114000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, |
| Pctl(Users): | 0.005699, 0.009728, 0.003755, 0.003755, 0.003755, 0.003755, 0.003755, 0.003755, 0.003755, |
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| 99.00, | 0.073091, 0.073091, 0.073091, 0.001147, 0.073091, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.018568, |
| 99.50, | 0.082788, 0.082788, 0.082788, 0.000545, 0.082788, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.018568, |
| 99.75, | 0.096826, 0.096826, 0.096826, 0.000000, 0.096826, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.018568, |
| 99.90, | 0.120789, 0.120789, 0.120789, 0.000000, 0.120789, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.018568, |
| 100.00, | 0.378972, 0.378972, 0.378972, 0.000000, 0.378972, 0.014253, 0.018322, 0.018568, |

1.0 ppm mg/kg-bw/day all percentiles all subpops
Residue file: DEEM tap water 200 ppm.R98 Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.
Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "2.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other water; EPA PADs 2-day"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>95th Percentile</th>
<th>99th Percentile</th>
<th>99.9th Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exposure % aPAD</td>
<td>Exposure % aPAD</td>
<td>Exposure % aPAD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Population</td>
<td>0.088332 77.48</td>
<td>0.157344 138.02</td>
<td>0.337515 296.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>All infants:</td>
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<td>0.497586 436.48</td>
<td>0.749559 657.51</td>
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<td>Non-nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old):</td>
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<td>Children 1-6 yrs:</td>
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<td>0.079215 69.49</td>
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<td>0.207012 181.59</td>
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2.0 ppm
% of PAD
High percentiles
Acute Reference Dose (aRfD) = 0.114000 mg/kg body-wt/day

Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "2.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other water; EPA PADs 2-day"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
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<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% aRfD</th>
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<td>80.00</td>
<td>0.050195</td>
<td>44.03</td>
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</table>

Percent of Individuals that are Users (over two days) = 99.26%

Estimated percentile of user-days falling below calculated exposure in mg/kg body-wt/day with Percent of aPAD

---

a/ Analysis based on all two-day participant records in CSFII 1994–98 with 2 days of valid drinking water records.
### Number of populations included in this file: 10

**Populations:**

1. **U.S. Population**
2. **All infants**
3. **Nursing infants (<1 yr old)**
4. **Non-nursing infants (<1 yr old)**
5. **Children 1–6 yrs**
6. **Children 7–12 yrs**
7. **Youth 13–19 yrs**
8. **Adults 20–49 yrs**
9. **Adults 50+ yrs**
10. **Custom demographics 1: All over age 18**

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<th>Pop</th>
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<td>PAD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pctl</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports**

---

**Two-Day Average Results Reported**

- **Run Comment:** "2.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other water; EPA PADs 2-day"

---

**2.0 ppm mg/kg-bw/day all percentiles all subpops**
Residue file: DEEM tap water 2o2 ppm.R98  Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.
Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "2.2 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>95th Percentile</th>
<th>99th Percentile</th>
<th>99.9th Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>% aPAD</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Population:</td>
<td>0.096950</td>
<td>85.04</td>
<td>0.172886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All infants:</td>
<td>0.373793</td>
<td>65.46</td>
<td>0.545117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old):</td>
<td>0.231202</td>
<td>40.49</td>
<td>0.516282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old):</td>
<td>0.379174</td>
<td>66.41</td>
<td>0.569512</td>
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<tr>
<td>Children 3-5 yrs:</td>
<td>0.139896</td>
<td>76.87</td>
<td>0.205144</td>
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<td>Children 6-12 yrs:</td>
<td>0.094312</td>
<td>94.31</td>
<td>0.155390</td>
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<tr>
<td>Youth 13-19 yrs:</td>
<td>0.072599</td>
<td>54.59</td>
<td>0.124479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults 20-49 yrs:</td>
<td>0.089261</td>
<td>78.30</td>
<td>0.145674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults 50+ yrs:</td>
<td>0.082589</td>
<td>72.45</td>
<td>0.119031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Custom demographics 1: All over age 18:</td>
<td>0.086969</td>
<td>76.29</td>
<td>0.139172</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
```
Residue file: DEEM tap water 202 ppm R98  Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.
Acute Reference Dose (ARfD) = 0.114000 mg/kg body-wt/day
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "2.2 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>U.S. Population</th>
<th>2-Day Avg Exposure Analysis /a (mg/kg body-weight/day) per User</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.038672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>0.035284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error of mean</td>
<td>0.000250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of ARfD</td>
<td>33.92</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Percent of Individuals that are Users (over two days) = 99.26%

Estimated percentile of user-days falling below calculated exposure in mg/kg body-wt/day with Percent of aPAD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% ARfD</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% ARfD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>0.009312</td>
<td>8.17</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>0.073642</td>
<td>64.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>0.014929</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>0.096950</td>
<td>85.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>0.019972</td>
<td>17.52</td>
<td>97.50</td>
<td>0.125378</td>
<td>109.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>0.024879</td>
<td>21.82</td>
<td>99.00</td>
<td>0.172886</td>
<td>151.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>0.030397</td>
<td>26.66</td>
<td>99.50</td>
<td>0.215596</td>
<td>189.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>0.036469</td>
<td>31.99</td>
<td>99.75</td>
<td>0.273094</td>
<td>239.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>0.044331</td>
<td>38.89</td>
<td>99.90</td>
<td>0.370443</td>
<td>324.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>0.054870</td>
<td>48.13</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a/ Analysis based on all two-day participant records in CSFII 1994-98 with 2 days of valid drinking water records.
### 2.2 ppm

**mg/kg-bw/day**

**all percentiles**

**all subpops**

---

**Number of populations included in this file: 10**

**Populations:**

1. U.S. Population
2. All infants
3. Nursing infants (<1 yr old)
4. Non-nursing infants (<1 yr old)
5. Children 3-5 yrs
6. Children 6-12 yrs
7. Youth 13-19 yrs
8. Adults 20-49 yrs
9. Adults 50+ yrs
10. Custom demographics 1: All over age 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pop</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Means</td>
<td>0.038672</td>
<td>0.139701</td>
<td>0.072425</td>
<td>0.155806</td>
<td>0.053609</td>
<td>0.037081</td>
<td>0.027996</td>
<td>0.036012</td>
<td>0.038263</td>
<td>0.036625</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAD</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.571000</td>
<td>0.571000</td>
<td>0.182000</td>
<td>0.100000</td>
<td>0.133000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pctl(Users)</td>
<td>0.009312</td>
<td>0.015820</td>
<td>0.005644</td>
<td>0.024794</td>
<td>0.012151</td>
<td>0.009025</td>
<td>0.008910</td>
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<td>0.019289</td>
<td>0.014474</td>
<td>0.014474</td>
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<td>20.00</td>
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<td>0.072513</td>
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<td>0.023242</td>
<td>0.020227</td>
<td>0.019564</td>
<td>0.019564</td>
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<tr>
<td>30.00</td>
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<td>0.034419</td>
<td>0.023743</td>
<td>0.023743</td>
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<td>40.00</td>
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<td>0.042012</td>
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<td>0.043792</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0.312917</td>
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<td>0.073137</td>
<td>0.075046</td>
<td>0.070041</td>
<td>0.069192</td>
<td>0.069192</td>
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<tr>
<td>90.00</td>
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<td>0.231202</td>
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<td>0.094312</td>
<td>0.092599</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.086969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97.50</td>
<td>0.172886</td>
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<td>0.516282</td>
<td>0.569512</td>
<td>0.205144</td>
<td>0.155390</td>
<td>0.124479</td>
<td>0.145674</td>
<td>0.119031</td>
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<tr>
<td>99.00</td>
<td>0.215596</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Number of populations included in this file: 11

Populations:

1 = U.S. Population
2 = All infants
3 = Nursing infants (<1 yr old)
4 = Non-nursing infants (<1 yr old)
5 = Children 1-2 yrs
6 = Children 3-5 yrs
7 = Children 6-12 yrs
8 = Youth 13-19 yrs
9 = Adults 20-49 yrs
10 = Adults 50+ yrs
11 = Custom demographics 1: All over age 18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pops</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.046586</td>
<td>0.166966</td>
<td>0.086361</td>
<td>0.186261</td>
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<td>0.044149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAD</td>
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<td>0.571000</td>
<td>0.571000</td>
<td>0.571000</td>
<td>0.308000</td>
<td>0.182000</td>
<td>0.100000</td>
<td>0.133000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
<td>0.114000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pctl(Users):

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20.00, 0.017165, 0.038533, 0.013157, 0.054819, 0.021599, 0.022734, 0.015325, 0.022676, 0.027276, 0.023724
30.00, 0.023322, 0.062029, 0.018710, 0.030624, 0.012395, 0.013732, 0.010481, 0.006833, 0.010021, 0.013738, 0.010945
40.00, 0.029478, 0.085120, 0.031650, 0.110591, 0.042274, 0.040566, 0.027775, 0.019877, 0.028046, 0.033565, 0.029788
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60.00, 0.043620, 0.173053, 0.061533, 0.198400, 0.067624, 0.062961, 0.043507, 0.031747, 0.041807, 0.047411, 0.043436
70.00, 0.053801, 0.219586, 0.085800, 0.244527, 0.085739, 0.077399, 0.052470, 0.039490, 0.051093, 0.055674, 0.052833
80.00, 0.066630, 0.281344, 0.131444, 0.303017, 0.096876, 0.064728, 0.048977, 0.062284, 0.067421, 0.064372, 0.064372
90.00, 0.089882, 0.363590, 0.209242, 0.376852, 0.140919, 0.130107, 0.089397, 0.069692, 0.085676, 0.084696, 0.085190
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DEEM-FCID ACUTE PLOT FILE for FLUORIDE (1994-98 data)
Residue file: DEEM tap water 3.0 ppm.R98
Analysis Date: 12-15-2005/09:49:01
Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "3.2 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"
===============================================================================
Number of populations included in this file: 10
Populations:
  1 = U.S. Population
  2 = All infants
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  5 = Children 3-5 yrs
  6 = Children 6-12 yrs
  7 = Youth 13-19 yrs
  8 = Adults 20-49 yrs
  9 = Adults 50+ yrs
 10 = Custom demographics 1: All over age 18
Pops: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,
Means: 0.054501, 0.194231, 0.100297, 0.216716, 0.075515, 0.052300, 0.039448, 0.050754, 0.054051, 0.051673,
PAD: 0.114000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.182000, 0.100000, 0.133000, 0.114000, 0.114000, 0.114000,
Pctl(Users) 10.00, 0.011606, 0.017477, 0.006797, 0.028808, 0.014603, 0.011631, 0.007544, 0.011119, 0.014833, 0.012036,
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30.00, 0.026475, 0.065823, 0.021573, 0.082832, 0.034426, 0.025384, 0.017507, 0.011472, 0.027050,
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97.50, 0.181386, 0.661984, 0.551472, 0.664459, 0.243550, 0.172930, 0.134628, 0.166562, 0.142484, 0.154698,
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100.00, 1.199393, 1.199393, 0.951154, 1.199393, 0.680239, 0.351438, 0.513879, 0.663083, 0.433964, 0.663083,
DEEM-FCID ACUTE Analysis for FLUORIDE (1994-98 data)
Residue file: DEEM tap water 3.7 ppm.R98 Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.
Acute Reference Dose (aRfD) = 0.114000 mg/kg body-wt/day
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "3.7 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

Acute Reference Dose (aRfD) = 0.114000 mg/kg body-wt/day

Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "3.7 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>U.S. Population</th>
<th>2-Day Avg Exposure Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>per User</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.062415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>0.059686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error of mean</td>
<td>0.000423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of aRfD</td>
<td>54.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of Individuals that are Users (over two days) = 99.26%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Estimated percentile of user-days falling below calculated exposure in mg/kg body-wt/day with Percent of aPAD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% aRfD</th>
<th>Percentile</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
<th>% aRfD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>0.012571</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>0.122429</td>
<td>107.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>0.021309</td>
<td>18.69</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>0.161076</td>
<td>141.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>0.029758</td>
<td>26.10</td>
<td>97.50</td>
<td>0.209042</td>
<td>183.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>0.038563</td>
<td>33.83</td>
<td>99.00</td>
<td>0.258490</td>
<td>250.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>0.048001</td>
<td>42.11</td>
<td>99.50</td>
<td>0.306186</td>
<td>316.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>0.059269</td>
<td>51.99</td>
<td>99.75</td>
<td>0.356982</td>
<td>400.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>0.072641</td>
<td>63.72</td>
<td>99.90</td>
<td>0.401744</td>
<td>545.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>0.090590</td>
<td>79.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---
a/ Analysis based on all two-day participant records in CSFII 1994-98 with 2 days of valid drinking water records.
Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports

Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "3.7 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

Number of populations included in this file: 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Populations</th>
<th>1 = U.S. Population</th>
<th>2 = All infants</th>
<th>3 = Nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old)</th>
<th>4 = Non-nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old)</th>
<th>5 = Children 3-5 yrs</th>
<th>6 = Children 6-12 yrs</th>
<th>7 = Youth 13-19 yrs</th>
<th>8 = Adults 20-49 yrs</th>
<th>9 = Adults 50+ yrs</th>
<th>10 = Custom demographics 1: All over age 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pops:</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10</td>
<td>Meann:</td>
<td>0.062415, 0.221495, 0.114233, 0.247171, 0.086468, 0.059909, 0.045174, 0.058125, 0.058125, 0.061945, 0.059196, 0.059196</td>
<td>PAD:</td>
<td>0.114000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.182000, 0.100000, 0.100000, 0.133000, 0.114000, 0.114000, 0.114000, 0.114000</td>
<td>Pctl(Users)</td>
<td>0.012571, 0.003905, 0.000608, 0.003110, 0.015539, 0.012681, 0.008143, 0.012075, 0.012075, 0.015744, 0.015744, 0.015744</td>
<td>3.7 ppm mg/kg-bw/day all percentiles all subpops</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Residue file: DEEM tap water 400 ppm.R98  
Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.

Analysis Date: 12-15-2005/10:00:13  

Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "4.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

Summary calculations--users:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>95th Percentile</th>
<th>99th Percentile</th>
<th>99.9th Percentile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>% aPAD</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. Population</td>
<td>0.174087</td>
<td>152.71</td>
<td>271.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All infants</td>
<td>0.678818</td>
<td>118.88</td>
<td>174.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old):</td>
<td>0.423782</td>
<td>74.22</td>
<td>164.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-nursing infants (&lt;1 yr old):</td>
<td>0.686978</td>
<td>120.31</td>
<td>180.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children 3-5 yrs:</td>
<td>0.251184</td>
<td>138.01</td>
<td>203.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children 6-12 yrs:</td>
<td>0.170920</td>
<td>170.92</td>
<td>282.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth 13-19 yrs:</td>
<td>0.131672</td>
<td>99.00</td>
<td>170.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults 20-49 yrs:</td>
<td>0.160820</td>
<td>141.07</td>
<td>231.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adults 50+ yrs:</td>
<td>0.149956</td>
<td>131.54</td>
<td>188.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Custom demographics 1: All over age 18:</td>
<td>0.156012</td>
<td>136.85</td>
<td>220.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.0 ppm

% of PAD

high percentiles
DEEM-FCID ACUTE PLOT FILE for FLUORIDE (1994-98 data)
Residue file: DEEM tap water 400 ppm.R98
Adjustment factor #2 NOT used.
Analysis Date: 12-15-2005/10:00:13

Acute Pop Adjusted Dose (aPAD) varies with population; see individual reports
Two-Day Average Results Reported
Run Comment: "4.0 ppm tap water, 0.71 ppm other; EPA PADs 2-day"

Number of populations included in this file: 10
Populations:
1 = U.S. Population
2 = All infants
3 = Nursing infants (<1 yr old)
4 = Non-nursing infants (<1 yr old)
5 = Children 3-5 yrs
6 = Children 6-12 yrs
7 = Youth 13-19 yrs
8 = Adults 20-49 yrs
9 = Adults 50+ yrs
10 = Custom demographics 1: All over age 18

Means: 0.067164, 0.237854, 0.122594, 0.265444, 0.093040, 0.064475, 0.048610, 0.062547, 0.066681, 0.063711
PAD: 0.114000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.571000, 0.182000, 0.100000, 0.133000, 0.114000, 0.114000, 0.114000
Pctl(Users)
10.00, 0.013113, 0.022473, 0.031642, 0.041371, 0.051604, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285
20.00, 0.022473, 0.045358, 0.069997, 0.041371, 0.051604, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285
30.00, 0.031642, 0.069997, 0.092496, 0.041371, 0.051604, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285
40.00, 0.041371, 0.103402, 0.116566, 0.041371, 0.051604, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285
50.00, 0.051604, 0.163566, 0.215598, 0.051604, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285, 0.174087
60.00, 0.063925, 0.246256, 0.289662, 0.063925, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285, 0.174087, 0.225780
70.00, 0.078290, 0.318753, 0.360117, 0.078290, 0.097699, 0.132285, 0.174087, 0.225780, 0.291083
80.00, 0.097699, 0.414060, 0.447087, 0.097699, 0.132285, 0.174087, 0.225780, 0.291083, 0.391466
90.00, 0.132285, 0.534568, 0.553499, 0.132285, 0.174087, 0.225780, 0.291083, 0.391466, 0.506328
95.00, 0.174087, 0.678818, 0.686978, 0.174087, 0.225780, 0.291083, 0.391466, 0.506328, 0.670958
99.00, 0.225780, 0.826957, 0.894496, 0.225780, 0.309580, 0.414900, 0.670958, 0.991406, 1.499241
100.00, 0.493131, 1.253942, 1.186456, 1.499241, 1.499241, 1.499241, 1.499241, 1.499241, 1.499241
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and Reregistration Division.


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