

Polychlorinated Biphenyls

A Report Prepared by the
Committee on the Assessment of
Polychlorinated Biphenyls in the Environment

Environmental Studies Board
Commission on Natural Resources
National Research Council

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES
Washington D.C. 1979

Attachment 1-6

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the project that is the subject of this report was approved by the Governing Board of the National Research Council, whose members are drawn from the members of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Academy of Engineering and the Institute of Medicine. The members of the Committee responsible for the project were chosen for their special competences and with regard for appropriate balance.

This report has been reviewed by a group other than the authors according to procedures approved by a Report Review Committee consisting of members of the National Academy of Sciences, the National Academy of Engineering, and the Institute of Medicine.

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PREFACE

Recognizing the hazards posed to human health and the environment by polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), the Office of Research and Development of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) requested that an assessment of the problem be conducted by the National Research Council. The Environmental Studies Board, given responsibility for the study, appointed the Committee on the Assessment of Polychlorinated Biphenyls in the Environment early in 1978. The charge to the Committee was to provide EPA with a detailed assessment of the nature of the problem and of alternatives for reducing the current substantial level of environmental contamination from PCBs.

Instead of contributing yet another extensive review of the fate of PCBs and the risks to health associated with them, the Committee set itself three objectives: (1) to develop a model of PCB distribution throughout the environment with estimates of current reservoir burdens, (2) to analyze the economic impact of various control options, and (3) using PCB data as the test case, to assess the effectiveness of the proposed EPA guidelines for evaluating toxic substances.

The Committee benefited greatly from discussions with individuals from academia, industry, and government agencies. We are particularly grateful to Frank Versar, Inc., for developing the model of PCB distribution. We also appreciate the assistance of several other persons at various stages of the preparation of the report: David Downer, Arthur Stern, Daniel Page (Office of Toxic Substances), Phil Taylor, Sam Langer (EPA Water Quality Analysis Branch-STORET), Jack Fowler (EPA Scientific Advisory Board), Steven Hutchinson (EPA Office of Planning and Management), Nathan Karch (Council on Environmental Quality), Herman Feltz (U.S. Geological Survey), and Fred Rutz (EPA Office of Pesticides Program).

On behalf of the Committee, I would like to thank Stephen Pirages and Elizabeth Passos of the National Research Council for their contributions in preparing this report. Other staff members providing assistance include Judith Cummings, Nancy Fairfax, Raphael Kesper, Sandra Olson, Connie Regas, William Robertson, and Robert Rooney.

Finally, I wish to express my gratitude to each member of the Committee for his efforts towards the successful completion of the study.

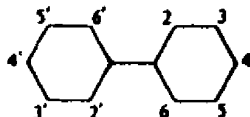
Alfred M. Beaton
Chairman, Committee on
the Assessment of Polychlorinated
Biphenyls in the Environment

INTRODUCTION

Thirty-six years after the introduction of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) into the world market, scientists discovered that the compound was accumulating in tissues of fish taken from the Baltic Sea. Monitoring efforts within several countries subsequently disclosed extensive global environmental contamination from this group of organics, which comprises theoretically more than 200 individual isomers of chlorinated biphenyl. The problem of environmental contamination by PCBs has now been well documented. Comprehensive reviews have reported the existence of significant quantities of PCBs in atmosphere, soil, water, sediment, fish, wildlife, and even in samples of human blood and tissue (NIHNS 1972, Mutzinger et al. 1974, Kimbrough 1974, Durfee et al. 1976, Kornreiss et al. 1976, Nisbet 1976, U.S. EPA 1976, WHO 1976, Roberts et al. 1978).

The term polychlorinated biphenyls refers to a class of organics produced by chlorination of a biphenyl and composed of 10 possible forms. These forms arise from a specified number of chlorine substitutions on the biphenyl molecule, and correspond to the chemical structures monochlorobiphenyl, dichlorobiphenyl, ...

tri- and biphenyl, etc. Several isomers for each PCB molecule are possible, the number depending on available substitution sites on each biphenyl portion (2-6, 2'-6'). However, not all possible isomers are likely to be formed during the manufacturing processes. In general, the most common ones are those that have either an equal number of chlorine atoms on both rings or a difference of only one chlorine atom between rings. More complete information on chemical identity and the manufacturing process is presented in Appendix D.



Commercial PCB mixtures are manufactured under a variety of trade names (Appendix D). The chlorine content of any product may vary from 18 to 79 percent and depends on the extent of chlorination during the manufacturing process or on the amount of isomeric mixture engaged in by individual producers. Each company has a specific system for identifying the chlorine content of its product. For example, Aroclor® 1248, 1254 and 1260 indicate 48 percent, 54 percent and 60 percent chlorine, respectively; Clophen A60, Phenochlor 600 and Kanechlor 600 designate that these products contain mixtures of hexachlorobiphenyls.

The only important U.S. producer of PCBs was Monsanto Industrial Chemicals Co., which had plants at Americus, Alabama, where production of PCBs ended in 1975, and Sauget, Illinois, where production ceased in 1977. Sold under Monsanto's registered trademark of Aroclors, mixtures of PCBs had been used originally as a coolant/dielectric for transformers and capacitors, as heat transfer fluids, and as protective coatings for woods when low flammability was essential or desirable. Producers and users alike, apparently unaware of any potential hazards from exposure to PCBs, initially operated in accordance with earlier results of toxicity tests that indicated no effects (Penning 1930). The expansion of open-ended applications between 1930 and 1960, incorporating PCBs into such commodities as inks, paints, adhesives, sealants, lubricants, hydraulic fluids, inks, dedusting agents, and pesticides, led to the widespread dissemination of which we are now aware. In 1971, toxic effects were noted in occupationally

exposed workers and threshold limit values were imposed at manufacturing sites.

The general pattern of release of PCBs to the environment changed significantly during the early 1970s. Until then, essentially no restrictions were imposed either on the use or on the disposal of PCBs. After evidence became available in 1969 and 1970 that chronic exposure could result in hazards to human health and the environment, Monsanto voluntarily banned sales of PCBs for "open-ended" and "nominally closed" applications (see Chapter 1, Tables 1.1 and 1.2), and the loss rate from industrial use was reduced through stringent control measures. However, significant reservoirs of mobile PCBs (those available for transport among environmental media and biota) still exist along with even larger, currently immobile reservoirs. The latter include those materials containing PCBs that are still in service and those deposited in landfills and dumps. The major factor affecting future release of PCBs from these sources will be regulatory action governing storage and disposal of the chemical.

The new Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA), Public Law 94-469, specifically prohibits production of PCBs within the United States, regulates disposal of materials contaminated by PCBs, and restricts the use of any such materials already in service. The effect of these measures should be to eliminate further releases into the environment and, eventually, to reduce quantities existing in the environment. However, because of the extreme stability of PCBs, environmental levels will not be reduced substantially for many years, and the problem of dealing with existing reservoirs of mobile PCBs will remain.

Cleanup efforts have been initiated in those environments that are heavily contaminated, but complete removal may not be either technically or economically feasible. For this reason, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) commissioned the National Research Council to review the current dimensions of the PCB problem and to recommend future action.

The intent of this report is to provide EPA with an assessment of (1) the current state of the PCB problem, (2) the cost-effectiveness of selected options for controlling continued environmental pollution, and (3) the appropriateness of proposed guidelines for assessing the potential hazard and persistence of PCBs in the environment. The report is organized as follows:

problems. To accomplish its purpose this study has three primary components.

Relevant information on environmental aspects of PCBs was reviewed and summarized with emphasis on transport processes and distribution among environmental compartments. A model of the distribution of PCBs in the environment was constructed.

An economic analysis was performed to determine, to the extent possible, the economic costs and environmental and health benefits that might be derived from implementing various options for controlling indirect PCB release and for reducing the present level of contamination. It should be noted that this analysis used the 1970 EPA published regulations for use and disposal of PCBs (U.S. EPA 1970a,b). New regulations are to be published in 1979 that may reflect different disposal requirements.

Using EPA draft guidelines for testing potential toxicity of new chemicals, an assessment of PCB toxicity was made. An approach that might be used for identifying potential hazards prior to extensive manufacture and use of new chemicals was developed.

The study has a generic aspect in that the model of PCB distribution, the approach to quantifying persistence and toxicity, and the analysis of control options are applicable to studies of other persistent environmental pollutants.

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FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 1. PCB Transport Throughout the Environment

1. A model of the distribution of PCBs throughout the U.S. environment estimates the total cumulative PCB loss from domestic sources through 1975 as 6.1×10^6 kg, with 50 percent representing mono-, di-, and trichlorobiphenyl; 23 percent, tetrachlorobiphenyl; and 27 percent, penta- through decachlorobiphenyl.

2. From production and use data, losses of PCBs from production-use functions and the amounts entering the entire environmental reservoir total 8.2×10^6 kg, distributed as follows:

	Amounts ($\times 10^6$ kg)
mono-, di-, trichlorobiphenyl:	3.1
tetrachlorobiphenyl:	1.8
penta- through decachlorobiphenyl:	3.3

3. The North Atlantic Ocean appears to be the ultimate sink for PCBs, accounting for 50 to 80 percent of losses in the environment, and freshwater sediment is a major continental reservoir.

4. Environmental load estimates for the United States and the Atlantic Ocean are presented for the following compartments:

	Amounts ($\times 10^6$ kg)
Atmosphere	0.018
Hydrosphere	
Fresh water	0.012 - 0.035
Freshwater sediment	1.400 - 7.100
Freshwater biota	0.030
Marine sediment	0.660 - 2.700
Marine water	6.000 - 66.00
Marine biota	0.030
Lithosphere	0.140 - 2.800

5. Biodegradation has been a minor factor in PCB destruction for those isomers of tetra- through decachlorobiphenyls.

Recommendations

1. Because the North Atlantic Ocean appears to be the ultimate sink, further studies are needed to firmly establish PCB concentrations and distribution in the marine environment.

2. Although modeling was useful in assessing large-scale distribution and fate of toxic substances, more adequate data bases are needed to develop transport models of environmental pollutants. For example, further research is needed to determine the processes of transfer between the environmental compartments.

3. EPA should continue to develop better analytical techniques, particularly those enabling assessment of the extent of PCB fractionation. Because of continuing analytical problems it is difficult to determine the extent of ecosystem contamination. For aquatic systems, the most effective indicator of both the degree of PCB pollution and the potential hazards to humans and wildlife is the PCB content of fish. To use this indicator effectively, factors such as age, species, and additional habits of the fish must be taken into account. Detailed information on individual isomers must also be reported together with the specific PCB fractionation.

4. Freshwater sediment is an important continental sink for PCBs, and special attention should be given to monitoring programs and to studies of PCB cycling from sediment through human food chains.

Chapter 2. Policy Assessment

1. Substantial differences exist in the costs of various options for the control of PCBs. Among the alternatives analyzed--which included EPA proposed regulations on disposal and use, options for dredging and disposal of contaminated river sediment, and U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations limiting permissible residues in fish destined for human consumption--average costs varied by as much as five orders of magnitude.

2. Existing EPA regulations on disposal and use are projected to result in the control of 260×10^3 kg of PCBs with average costs of up to \$33/kg of PCBs controlled. Proposed EPA regulations would increase the total quantity of PCBs controlled by about 0.1 percent (up from those controlled by existing regulations) with average costs becoming as high as \$133,000/kg.

3. A case study of the Hudson River indicated that alternatives for dredging sediment could remove a total of about 178×10^3 kg of PCBs from potentially mobile river sediment at costs ranging from \$110/kg to \$1,150/kg.

4. It is estimated that up to 0.25 percent of the total PCBs released to the environment enter the human diet; at least 400 kg of PCBs would have to be removed from the mobile environmental reservoir in order to achieve a reduction of 1 kg of PCBs in food. This figure (400 kg) is derived using data from the Great Lakes, a closed system, and may be too low for more open systems. FDA limitations on PCB concentrations in commercially distributed fish could reduce PCB input to the American diet by about 64 kg at a cost of less than \$293,000/kg. (A reduction of an additional 34 kg would cost less than \$293,000/kg.)

5. Based on the figures used in the analysis in this report, FDA regulation of PCB limits in fish destined for human consumption appears a more cost-effective method of controlling dietary intake and human health effects than some of the most costly EPA proposed

alternatives. However, the relative costs of these options may be preferable to either EPA or FDA regulations.

6. It is difficult to assess the benefits of controlling exposure to PCBs with currently available information. The analysis in this report conservatively estimates the benefits as \$30/kg to \$300/kg of PCBs removed from the environment or withheld from discharge, but notes that even these figures could be high or low by a factor of 100 or more.

Recommendations

1. Policymakers should use available data to calculate the incremental or average costs of PCB control options in conducting economic analyses of proposed regulations.

2. As greater control of PCBs is sought, regulatory efforts should be concentrated on those options which are most cost effective, that is those with the lowest average or incremental costs per comparable effect or benefit.

3. Economic analyses should include cost data on all options--not just those under a single agency's regulatory authority. These analyses could then show--as does the analysis presented in this report--that some options beyond a particular agency's authority are substantially more cost effective than some that lie within the agency's jurisdiction. A comprehensive, coordinated government policy toward control of pollutants should reflect such findings.

Chapter 3. Guidelines for Evaluating the Potential Toxicity of Chemicals

1. Based on the original uses of PCBs, this chemical might have passed toxic substance evaluation as proposed under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA), thus allowing its use on a large scale. Acute toxicity is minimal for all species except some aquatic invertebrates, and intended use patterns may not have warranted additional chronic tests.

2. Results from the proposed TSCA Reference Set tests would require continued testing with the Hazard

evaluation studies leading to detection of some PCB toxic effects.

3. Most health hazards resulting from PCB exposure other than in occupational settings are subtle (e.g., reduced reproductive capabilities, changes in behavioral patterns) and would not be detected with either the LD50 or TSCA scheme.

4. Common laboratory animals do not always respond to PCB exposure in a manner similar to humans. No one test species exhibits "typical" human symptoms of PCB poisoning. Thus, choice of test species becomes an important factor in evaluating the potential toxicity of a substance.

Recommendations

1. Whenever chemical, physical, and environmental chemistry data indicate that a substance is both persistent and lipophilic, its development for large-scale use should be reassessed and alternatives considered.

2. Testing schemes should include models of anticipated release and movement through the environment identifying potential reservoirs, and tests should be performed within these specified environmental ecosystems.

3. Test guidelines should stress assessment of subtle health hazards, such as reproductive alterations and behavioral-learning impairment.

PCB TRANSPORT THROUGHOUT THE ENVIRONMENT

In considering PCB sources, mechanisms of transport through the environment, and mobile or immobile reservoirs, it is often useful to consider global cycles (Nisbet and Serofim 1972). Models of these cycles can provide insights into the general behavior of compounds and can establish a framework for subsequent research. This chapter presents a review of PCB distribution in the major environmental compartments for the United States (i.e., atmosphere, hydrosphere, lithosphere) and the means of transport among and within them.

In any attempt to design a distribution model based on results from a number of different studies, several possible sources of error must be recognized. Lack of uniformity in sampling and analytical techniques is the major problem encountered. Sampling difficulties occur for measurements in air, water, and sediment. In air, the amount of PCBs in the vapor phase relative to that attached to particles still is uncertain, mainly because of problems in sampling techniques. Similar difficulties are encountered in efforts to distinguish between dissolved vs. particle-bound PCBs in water. Measurement of PCBs in sediment also presents problems. Most studies have not used existing, proven techniques

in collecting sediment cores, but instead have analyzed "grab" samples. Grab sample analyses can result in overestimates or underestimates of PCB levels depending on the depth of sample taken, and may not reflect accurately the concentration of the sediment column.

The comparisons of measurements of PCBs in environmental samples have also been complicated by a lack of uniformity in analytical techniques. Because each commercial mixture contains a number of PCB isomers and thus exhibits a wide range of vapor pressures and solubility characteristics, the most common approach to quantifying PCB concentrations is to compare gas chromatographic records of the sample with records of known Aroclor, Clophen, Phenoclor or Kenachlor standards. But this approach is not entirely appropriate, unless both the number of peaks recorded and the interpeak height ratios are identical for the sample and standard being compared (Webb and McCall 1973, Murphy and Rzeszutko 1974). Analytical fractionation techniques make it difficult to identify adequately all peaks on the gas chromatographic record, and it is quite possible that underestimates of the quantities of mono- and di-halobiphenyls have resulted. Because of these problems in identifying the chemical components of a given mixture, PCB concentrations are often reported as "most closely resembling" or calculated as "similar to" a certain known Aroclor standard. Thus, it becomes difficult to discern whether or to what extent individual component fractionations actually occur within the environment.

The ability to understand and assess PCB movement throughout the environment can only remain speculative until the sampling and analytical problems are resolved; the following interpretations of data were made with these limitations in mind.

LEVELS OF CONTAMINATION

Estimates of General PCB Distribution Within the United States

During the period from 1930 to 1975, U.S. commercial sales of PCBs totalled nearly 570×10^6 kg from domestic sources and about 1.4×10^6 kg from imports (Durfee et al. 1976). As of 1975, more than half of this amount, or 340×10^6 kg, was estimated to be in service.

Distribution of the remainder was estimated using 1951 to 1974 production and sales figures supplied by Monsanto, information supplied by other industrial concerns, and analysis of PCB use patterns with respect to losses, waste disposal, and other aspects of environmental entry. The amount and location of PCBs are presented in Table 1.1.

Routes of Entry into the Environment

There is no substantial evidence suggesting that PCBs are produced in the environment, either from natural sources or from chemical transformation of other compounds. Therefore, all environmental contamination by PCBs is inferred to have resulted from the production and use of materials and equipment containing PCBs. It also can be inferred, with some certainty, that PCBs entering the United States through commercial imports or via transnational atmospheric transport have been inconsequential when compared to the amounts entering the U.S. environment via domestic routes.

Major domestic uses of PCBs are indicated in Table 1.2. The voluntary limitation of PCB production imposed by Monsanto in 1971 restricted sales to applications in closed electrical systems. The 1973 estimated imports of PCBs to the United States totalled only 1.0 percent of Monsanto's production for that year, suggesting further voluntary elimination of uses other than for closed systems. The major applications of imported PCBs at that time were for pattern waxes (decachlorobiphenyl) and replacement coolant fluids for mining machines. Further evidence of the decrease in PCB use lies in the

TABLE 1.1 Environmental Distribution of PCBs Not in Service as of 1975

	Amount ($\times 10^6$ kg)
Mobile PCBs in the Environment	68.2
Degraded or Incinerated	25
In Landfills or Equipment Pumps	110

Source: Modified from Durfee et al. (1976).

Table 1.2 Domestic Uses of PCBs

Category	Type of Product	Percent of New Total Use
Open Electrical Systems	Transformer, capacitors, other (minor) electrical insulating/cooling applications	41 until 1971; 100 after 1971
Nominally Closed Systems	Hydraulic fluids, heat transfer fluids, lubricants	13 until 1971; 0 after 1971
Approved Applications	Plasticizers, surface coatings, ink and dye carriers, adhesives, pesticide extenders, carbonless copy paper, dyes	26 until 1971; 0 after 1971

fact that although Monsanto ceased all PCB production in 1971, large-scale increases in imports of these compounds did not occur.

Two important routes of entry into the environment have been losses during the process of manufacture and leakage from electrical equipment and other products containing PCBs. Losses from open-end and nominally closed systems in service undoubtedly have been large and have contributed to contamination of soil, water, and atmosphere.

Mobilization of PCBs located in landfills and freshwater sediment offers significant additional potential for contamination, but few data are available for estimating current or future rates of dispersion. In studies of New York landfills some volatilization of PCBs is noted, but movement of PCBs from these sources into groundwater reservoirs is negligible (Leis and Hetting et al. 1978). Disposal of materials containing PCBs--as for example, through municipal incineration--appears to be one of many minor routes of entry, and application of PCB-contaminated oils as dusting agents may mobilize relatively large quantities of PCBs formerly in service.

A summary estimate of the quantity of PCBs in landfills as of 1975 is shown in Table 1.3. The estimated rate of PCB entry into on-land disposal sites from all sources in 1975 was 5.5×10^6 kg/yr (Durfee et al. 1974). Assuming that this estimate is valid for the

period 1973 through 1977, the total accumulation in landfills by 1978 can be estimated as 140×10^6 kg. However, this total may be an overestimate as disposal on land may have declined with the passage of TSCA and the attention given this aspect of the PCB problem. Some obsolete equipment has been stored instead of dumped in landfills, but the major reduction of PCBs deposited in land sites has resulted through a decrease in production wastes due to diminished domestic manufacture and use of PCBs.

In the future, the primary source of PCB entry to on-land disposal sites is likely to be the obsolescence of electrical equipment, because no regulations are anticipated that could change this situation. Thus, it is not unreasonable to suggest a maximum entry rate of about 5.5×10^6 kg/yr to landfills for at least 10 years and perhaps as many as 20, although by the year 2000 the rate should have decreased somewhat.

PCBs newly deposited in landfills should be much less mobile than those in old landfill sites, because of the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA) requirements for better designed landfills and tighter controls on monitoring site deterioration and chemical leakage. Much of the new deposits will be contained sufficiently to prevent leakage or volatilization and new sites must be designed to reduce mobilization of toxic materials by leaching.

Sources of PCBs

Industrial and Municipal Effluents Recent estimates of industrial and municipal PCB discharges into aquatic systems have been determined through monitoring programs

TABLE 1.3 Reservoir of PCBs in Landfills as of 1975

Source	Estimated Amount ($\times 10^6$ kg)
Production Wastes	58
Obsolete Equipment	36
Other	36
Total	130

PCB: Modified from Durfee et al. (1974).

monitored by EPA. The results indicate that the average PCB content of industrial effluents (five categories) is 8.6×10^3 kg/yr, and the PCB content of discharges from publicly owned wastewater treatment works (POTW) is 110×10^3 kg/yr (Versar, Inc. 1978).

The sampling efforts producing the industrial discharge data, on which these estimates were based, have been far from comprehensive, but they may provide results representative of the five industrial segments covered (i.e., timber processing, nonferrous metals, ore mining, pulp and paper manufacturing, and machinery and mechanical products). The estimate of PCB discharge from POTW is high by perhaps a factor of three and reflects a nonrandom sampling of 66 treatment plants; most of these were in the vicinity of known PCB operations (Versar, Inc. 1978).

Even if the estimated POTW discharge rate is high, the municipal sector apparently releases a significant amount of PCBs into the aquatic environment. The major source is believed to be the mobile environmental reservoir, because the municipal wastes are presumed to have passed from a use cycle to the environment before entering a wastewater stream. Leakage from equipment in use or being serviced accounts for the remainder of PCBs in POTW discharges.

If it is assumed that approximately 40×10^3 kg/yr of total PCBs are discharged from municipal sewage-treatment plants, the release rate of PCBs in sewage sludge that is released to the environment should total about 240×10^3 kg/yr based on an approximate 6:1 ratio for partitioning of PCBs between sludge and water effluent (Sargent et al. 1977). Approximately 85 to 90 percent of PCBs in the portion of sludge that is incinerated (on the order of 15 percent of total sludge) may be destroyed via combustion (Whitmore 1975); the remaining PCBs in sludge represent a potential threat to the environment as well as a substantial but perhaps temporary sink for PCBs that were previously environmentally mobile.

Paper Recycling The use of PCBs in carbonless copy paper from 1957 through 1971 has resulted in the contamination of paper products and foods by recycling practices and entry of contaminated effluents into the environment via paper-recycling facilities. Projections based on available data have indicated that both average concentrations and occurrence of "hot spots" are now

decreasing rapidly and will continue to decrease (Carr et al. 1977). Some fraction of the PCBs in carbonless copy paper and recycled paper is also released to the atmosphere through incineration under conditions that do not destroy PCBs completely.

Release of PCBs to Soil In light of the diminishing use of PCBs in industry, the major routes of future entry into soil apparently will be from disposal sites, in-service equipment, and atmospheric transport. Disposal sites represent a sizable reservoir of PCBs, but little is known about the lifetime of these compounds in a site (for example, a landfill) or their effective rate of release. A recent study of the Hudson River area indicates that negligible groundwater contamination by PCBs has occurred in areas surrounding old landfills (Leis and Metry 1978, Metling et al. 1978), but extrapolation from the local to the national scale is not possible.

Accidental and deliberate releases pose a potential threat of excessive contamination, but only locally. Diminished industrial use should result in a reduction in the number of spills. It is also hoped that application of PCBs or PCB-contaminated oils for dust control will be reduced through public awareness and regulatory actions; but if it is not, such applications will continue to have local impact on concentrations of PCBs in soil.

Incineration The PCB regulations proposed by EPA suggest that ultimately incineration will be the required method of disposal, but at this time it is not clear whether the necessary facilities will be available, or what conditions of burning time and temperature are needed to incinerate large quantities of contaminated wastes (U.S. EPA 1978). Research is in progress on the incineration conditions required to destroy PCBs, but the investigation is not yet complete. One problem needing immediate resolution concerns the effect of applying "combustion efficiency" criteria based strictly on combustion conditions (CO/CO₂ in exhaust) rather than on destruction of PCBs by the incineration process.

Open Landfills The situation is also unclear regarding availability and adequacy of chemical waste sites for disposing of PCBs. At present, four such

which exist in the United States and more are planned. The little information is available about the potential for loss of PCBs from landfills through long periods of residence. Another problem, affecting both incineration and disposal in landfills, is how to assign responsibility for spills or other accidental losses that may occur during transport of contaminated waste across state lines.

ATMOSPHERIC COMPARTMENT

Recently available data indicate that atmospheric transport is an important factor in PCB distribution on both local and global scales (Harvey and Steinhauer 1974a, Risebrough et al. 1976, Fuller et al. 1977, and Erdleman et al. 1978). Quantities of the compound detected in a variety of samples collected at remote areas (e.g., in water, snow, and soil) provide strong evidence for this conclusion, even though the details of atmospheric transport are not well understood. Current data do not permit accurate characterization of such factors as vapor/particulate partitioning, individual component fractionation, spatial and temporal variations in deposition, volatilization or degradation rates, or identification of ultimate sinks. Accurate measurement has been hampered, as stated earlier, mainly by technical problems in sampling and analytical procedures. But despite the problems, it has been possible to reach several important conclusions concerning atmospheric transport of PCBs.

Physical and Chemical Forms of Atmospheric PCBs

Current information about PCB vapor pressures suggests that PCBs should exist both in the vapor form and attached to particles in the atmosphere. Determination of PCB levels in air has indicated that more than 99 percent of the total atmospheric burden of PCBs can pass through a glass-fiber filter and thus must be collected on various adsorbent traps (e.g., silicone oil coated glass fiber chips, polyurethane foam, or XAD-2 resin (Erdleman et al. 1978)). However, it cannot be determined whether PCBs are associated with particles that will be captured by the glass-fiber filter or whether 99 percent of the total burden of PCBs actually

exists as vapors. It is thought that their collection may be further hampered by vaporization of PCBs associated with particulates during the collection process. However, Harvey and Steinhauer (1974) state:

...the observation that only 1 percent or less of the total chlorinated hydrocarbon concentration in the sampled air is on the filter argues strongly against significant particle transport.

Murphy and Rzeszutko (1977) tried to resolve this phase-partitioning question by measuring individual Aroclors in both air and precipitation (Tables 1.4 and 1.5). Two assumptions were made. The first was that all Aroclor 1260 detected in air is associated with particulates; it is likely that this is a valid assumption because the vapor pressure range for Aroclor 1260 compounds is on the order of 10^{-4} cm Hg to 10^{-7} cm Hg. The second assumption, based upon the magnitude of an effective Henry's Law Constant for Aroclor 1260, contended that all PCBs in rain result from particulate scavenging. This assumption might be in error because of the uncertainties involved in calculating and measuring Henry's Law Constant. The value of the partition coefficient calculated from Henry's Law Constant indicates that the concentrations of scavenged vapor in precipitation should be negligible (Packay and Wolkoff 1973). Using their measured Aroclor partitioning and the above assumptions, Murphy and

TABLE 1.4 PCBs in Precipitation

Location (Number of Samples)	Average Concentration (Range) (ng/l)	Percent Dissolved
Norway, Rain (5) ¹	4.7 (1.2 - 7.6)	44
Norway, Snow (11)	4.2 (1.3 - 7.0)	56
Lake Michigan, Rain ²	120 ^a (190 ± 140) ^b	66
Lake Michigan, Snow (4)	210 ± 97	36

¹Weighted mean concentration.
²Arithmetic mean.

^aFrom Lunde et al. (1977).
^bFrom Murphy and Rzeszutko (1977).

TABLE 1.5. PCB CONCENTRATIONS IN CONTINENTAL AIR (1973-1978)

LOCATION AND YEAR	NO. SAMPLES	PCB ^a	COMMENT
Kingston, N.I., 1973-75 ¹	6	1 - 15	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Organ Pipe National Park, 1974 ¹	6	0.02 - 0.41	No reference to Aroclor
Hays, Kansas, 1974 ¹	3	0.03	No reference to Aroclor
Northwest Territories, Canada, 1974 ¹	3	0.002 - 0.07	No reference to Aroclor
La Jolla, Calif., 1974 ¹	6	0.5 - 14	No information on Aroclor
Vineyard Sound, Mass., 1973 ¹	2	4 - 5	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Univ. N.I., 1973 ²		2.1 - 5.8	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Providence, R.I., 1973 ²		9.4	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Chicago, Ill., 1975-76 ³	4	3.6 - 11.0	43 as 1242; 97% as "vapor"
Jacksonville, Fla., 1976 ⁴		3 - 36	
Lake Michigan, 1976-78 ⁵	6	0.57 - 1.6	74% as 1242; 88% as "vapor"
Milwaukee, Wis., 1978 ⁵	2	2.7	59% as 1254; 27% as 1260; 84% as "vapor"

SOURCE:
¹ Modified from Sidleman et al. (1978).
² Modified from Sidleman and Olney (1974).
³ Modified from Murphy and Kneassutho (1977).
⁴ Modified from Fuller et al. (1977).
⁵ Modified from Dostey (1978).

by Sidleman calculated the amount of PCBs on particulates to be 27 percent of the total atmospheric burden.

Calculations based on another method for estimating vapor/particulate partitioning indicate that less than 5 percent of PCBs sampled in oceanic air could be associated with particulates (Junge 1977). Similar calculations for continental urban air indicate that 10 to 45 percent of Aroclor 1254 and 1260 and less than 5 percent of Aroclor 1242 could be associated with particulate matter. These estimates remain speculative because adsorption depends not only on the vapor pressure of individual mixtures, but also on the nature and amount of available surface area of the adsorbent, factors not known for most air masses.

Vapor-pressure data support the expectation that the more volatile isomers should preferentially accumulate in the atmosphere. PCB isomers with chlorine contents above a standard Aroclor 1016 mixture (greater than 41 percent chlorine) have been shown to contain more of the less chlorinated and thus more volatile isomers, for example the mono-, di- and trichlorobiphenyls (Nisire et al. 1975). This finding suggests that an atmospheric sample may bear only a slight resemblance to the composition of the original PCB product composition (Nisire et al. 1975).

Distribution of PCBs in Air

The current state of knowledge about the atmospheric cycle of PCBs is reflected in the summary of data on continental and marine air levels presented in Tables 1.5, 1.6, and 1.7. Relatively few measurements have been made of large-scale, geographically representative areas, comparing changes through time.

Atmospheric PCB concentrations for oceanic and rural continental areas range from 0.002 ng/m³ to 1.6 ng/m³, with more than 99 percent reported as existing in the vapor phase. Data obtained from atmospheric samples taken in the North Atlantic indicate an order of magnitude decrease in PCB levels between 1973 and 1977 (Sidleman, Department of Chemistry, University of South Carolina, personal communication, 1978). But measurements designed to investigate long-term trends in these locations do not exist, and thus it is impossible to determine whether these data reflect a global trend. A concentration of 0.05 ng/m³ is used for calculating

TABLE 1.6 PCB Concentrations in Marine Air (10^{-9} g/m³)

Location and Date	No. Samples	Range	Comments
Bermuda, 1973	4	0.15 - 0.5	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Bermuda, 1973	7	0.19 - 0.66	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Bermuda, 1974	25	0.08 - 0.48	Matched Aroclor 1248 most closely
Bermuda-U.S. Cruise 1972-74	17	<0.05 - 1.6	Matched Aroclor 1248 most closely
Chesapeake Bay, 1973	3	1.0 - 2.0	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Grand Banks, 1973	5	0.03 - 0.16	Calculated as Aroclor 1254
Georges Bank, 1973	5	0.58 - 1.6	Calculated as Aroclor 1254

SOURCE: Modified from Bidleman et al. (1978).

TABLE 1.7 Trends in the Concentration of PCBs in Atlantic-Bermuda Air, Seasonal and Long-Term (Number of Samples)

Sampling Period	PCB - 1248 (10^{-9} g/m ³)
Sept. 1973 - Sept. 1973	0.76 ± 0.55 (5), 4 were < 0.33
Oct. 1973 - March 1974	0.51 ± 0.53 (7), 5 were < 0.24
April 1974 - Sept. 1974	0.20 ± 0.09 (19)
April 1975 - Sept. 1975	0.076 ± 0.063 (6)
April 1976 - Sept. 1976	0.077 ± 0.035 (11) ^a
Oct. 1976 - March 1977	0.074 ± 0.099 (11) ^a

^aThese samples matched Monsanto Aroclor 1254 mixture more closely.

SOURCE: Compiled from Bidleman, Department of Chemistry, University of South Carolina, personal communication (1978).

the atmospheric PCB burden for oceanic and rural areas because the data converge around this value.

Measurements from urban/metropolitan areas also are quite variable, but data indicate concentrations ranging from 0.5 ng/m³ to 36 ng/m³. The average is about 4 ng/m³ or 5 ng/m³. Data on long-term trends do not currently exist for these areas.

Even less information exists about PCB levels in rain and snow, and it is difficult at present to predict levels for various geographically representative areas. The published data are presented in Table 1.4. Two data sets indicate that large variations can exist, both temporally and spatially. Whether the Lake Michigan measurements represent typical urban/metropolitan levels and whether the values measured at Norwegian sites represent those of remote regions is not certain.

Based on the above discussion the PCB burden in the atmosphere is conservatively estimated to be 10×10^3 kg using the following data:

Area of U.S. Atmosphere:	2,500 km x 6,500 km
Height of Assumed Affected Air Column:	2 km
Rural and Oceanic Area:	90 percent of affected area; 0.05 ng/m ³ concentration
Suburban Area:	10 percent of affected area; 5.0 ng/m ³ concentration

Removal of PCBs from the Atmosphere

which are removed from the atmosphere via wet and dry deposition. The relative importance of each has not been resolved, mainly because of difficulties in measuring dry deposition on various surfaces. The most extensive work on wet deposition has been conducted in Lake Michigan (Murphy and Rzeszutko 1977). The applicability of these findings to other geographically representative regions has yet to be confirmed, but several important observations can be made at this time. In Lake Michigan, calculated yearly PCB deposition was found to be relatively uniform, although a large degree of variability was observed in rain and snow samples. The weighted mean concentration of PCBs in rain was 126 ng/l, which indicates a gross flux to the lake of $0.81 \times 10^6 \text{ g/m}^2\text{-yr}$ (4,800 kg/yr).

The relationship between PCB concentrations in air and rain was studied using the concept of washout coefficients (Slinn et al. 1978). The washout coefficient for vapor depends upon the partitioning of PCBs between vapor and water, which is essentially Henry's Law Constant (H), whereas that for a particulate depends upon the collision efficiency of raindrop and particle, which is a function of the processes of diffusion, interception, and impaction. Because the precipitation-capture processes for the two phases are different, it is important to know the vapor/particulate partitioning (see discussion above).

The following relationship has been used to calculate vapor scavenging by rain: $W = \alpha p_a \bar{C}$, where W = wet flux of PCBs, α = washout coefficient (concentration in rain divided by concentration in air, no density correction), p_a = annual amount of rainfall, and $\bar{C}$ = average PCB concentration in air (Murphy and Rzeszutko 1977). Inspection of the Lake Michigan results revealed α to be 6.2×10^4 and 2.5×10^4 for Aroclors 1242 and 1254, respectively. A value of 7.8×10^4 as α , for total PCBs, has been obtained using data for dieldrin and DDT (Bidleman et al. 1978).

Washout coefficients also can be derived from $\alpha = RT/H$, where R = the universal gas constant ($8.2 \times 10^4 \text{ atm-cm}^3/\text{mol-deg}^\circ\text{K}$), T = absolute temperature, and H = Henry's Law Constant (Slinn et al. 1978). This would imply that H represents the effective Henry's Law constant (because PCBs are mixtures) with values of $4 \times$

10^4 atm-cm³/mol for Aroclor 1242 and 1×10^5 atm-cm³/mol for Aroclor 1254.

These results are two to three orders of magnitude lower than those obtained if the effective Henry's Law Constant for various Aroclors is calculated using both solubility and vapor-pressure data (Mackay and Leinonen 1975). In order to determine H , however, the vapor pressure and aqueous solubility must refer to material under similar physical conditions (Mackay, Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Toronto, Canada, personal communication, 1978). Most individual chlorinated biphenyl isomers are solid at room temperature whereas Aroclors, which are complex isomeric mixtures, are viscous fluids. These mixtures will be partitioned into individual components when present in air or water, and therefore, must be treated accordingly (Dosskey 1978). Thus published Aroclor H values may be in error by two or three orders of magnitude (Mackay, Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Toronto, Canada, personal communication, 1978). The calculated α coefficients from rain data (Murphy and Rzeszutko 1977) and volatilization rate experiments (Dosskey 1978) seem to bear this out, but more extensive data are required. Nevertheless, it appears that the equation $W = \alpha p_a \bar{C}$ gives a reasonable approximation for the wet deposition of PCBs (Murphy and Rzeszutko 1977).

Data on dry deposition fluxes, either to water or land surfaces, are not currently available. Measurements of PCB fallout have been made using glass plates covered with mineral oil and nylon or silicon screens coated with oil (Table 1-8). The data obtained using these techniques should not be considered representative of fallout rates, because the collection media do not reflect soil, vegetation, or water surfaces. However, such measurements can be useful in determining distributional patterns for various geographical locations.

HYDROSPHERIC COMPARTMENT

PCB contamination in the aquatic environment originates from several sources including precipitation, land runoff, industrial and municipal waste discharges, and accidental spills. Atmospheric transportation may be a significant factor in the global distribution of PCBs to

Table 1.8 Comparative Monthly Fallout of PCBs

Location and Date	Range (ng/m ² -month)	Comment
Sweden, 1969-71 ¹	550 - 10500	As Clophen A50
Sweden, 1972-73 ²	120 - 2900	As Clophen A50
Sweden, 1971-71 ³	ND - 1050	Limit of Detection = 11
Stockholm, 1972-73 ⁴	120 - 3000	As Clophen A50
Nairobi East, Kenya, 1972-73 ⁵	ND - 20	As Clophen A50
Nairobi, Kenya, 1972-73 ⁶	ND - 15	
Nairobi ⁶	ND	
Nairobi ⁶	ND	
San Diego, Calif., 1972 ⁷	9000	As Aroclor 1254
San Diego Calif., Night, 1971-72 ⁸	3000	As Aroclor 1254

ND = Not detected.

¹ Sodergren

² Modified from Sodergren (1973).

³ Modified from Sodergren (1972).

⁴ Taken from Jonsson and Sodergren (1974).

⁵ Modified from McClure and Lagrange (1977).

⁶ Modified from Young et al. (1975).

⁷ Modified from Sodergren (1975).

in rivers and lakes, but coastal zones and estuaries near urban areas probably receive the major portion of PCB contamination from sources other than air (Young et al. 1977). PCBs initially deposited on land go through successive cycles of evaporation, deposition, and absorption, until eventually these chemicals are carried via water runoff to lake and ocean sediments, the ultimate sinks.

When PCBs are introduced into the aquatic environment, they are dissolved in the water, adsorbed onto solids suspended in the water, or accumulated in different trophic levels (Sodergren 1973, Haque et al. 1974, Bayler and Colwell 1976, and Walter and Johnson 1977). PCBs have low water solubility and high oil/water partition coefficients; thus, these compounds are adsorbed readily onto suspended solids, especially those high in organic carbon (Hamelink et al. 1971, Haque and Schmedding 1975, and Dexter and Pavlou 1976). Adsorption of PCB residues on the organic

content of suspended solids and the subsequent deposition of these particles into the sediment in aquatic systems is considered a major means for immobilizing PCBs (Olloff et al. 1973, Haque et al. 1974, Moen 1976, Moen et al. 1976, and Netling et al. 1978).

Mechanical and biological processes in aquatic systems may result in some recycling of PCBs. Degradation of material in the sediment may change its organic composition and release PCBs to the water column. Redistribution may also occur through erosion (Olsson et al. 1978). PCBs may be transported to the water column and surface film by the movement of sediment-generated bubbles, for example, hydrogen sulfide bubbles (Sodergren and Larsson 1979). It has been observed that a substantial portion (greater than 50 percent) of PCBs in pelagic carnivorous fishes apparently has been recycled through bottom sediment at least once (Heiniger 1978). Marine polychaetes are also able to accumulate PCBs from contaminated sediments (Courtney and Langstone 1978).

Despite major decreases in the influx of PCBs to coastal marine sites, only minor decreases in PCB concentrations can be observed in bottom sediment and flatfish (Young et al. 1977); this observation suggests continued recycling. During periods when contamination of the sediment becomes sufficiently high, PCBs may be released to the water column (Veith and Comstock 1975). If these releases were significantly greater than the rate of deposition, long-term pollution problems may result with the sediment acting as a source of PCB residues rather than a sink.

Data on deposition rates are scarce, and the basis for making estimates comes either from samples of layered sediment or from actual measurements of PCBs on settling particles. More studies are required because the available information is too scattered and incomplete to allow accurate determination of deposition rates.

Analysis of sandy, aerated marine sediment indicates that the less chlorinated isomers of a particular PCB mixture were not present, although this class of isomers could be found in anaerobic sediment samples (Eder 1976). Since it is unlikely that the less chlorinated isomers would be retained differently in sediments, the results suggest preferential decomposition.

Studies in some Wisconsin rivers indicated that

ertain isomers of less chlorinated Aroclors disappeared downstream from the point source and that the proportion of highly chlorinated PCB compounds increased at the same (Veith 1972). This observation may also indicate preferential volatilization of the lighter Aroclor mixtures.

PCBs can be degraded in activated sludge and it has been shown that certain bacteria can metabolize chlorobiphenyls (Ahmed and Focht 1973, Tucker et al. 1975, Tulp et al. 1978, and Furukawa et al. 1978). However, the highly chlorinated isomers are degraded more slowly than the less chlorinated forms. Thus, degradation of chlorobiphenyl isomers below penta- may occur in bottom sediment primarily as a result of microbial metabolism. Verification of this hypothesis is difficult, because field data are fragmentary and most laboratory studies have been conducted under conditions widely different from those of the natural aquatic environment. Available results do suggest, however, that degradation of most pentachlorobiphenyls is extremely slow and that of hexa- and more substituted chlorobiphenyls is practically negligible. The conclusion is that degradation is an insignificant factor in eliminating the highly chlorinated biphenyls from sediment.

PCBs in Fresh Water

The concentration of PCBs in fresh water (including suspended particles) is generally low. Even if the sediment contains appreciable quantities, the concentration in the overlying water may be below limits of detection using available analytical procedures. Median residue levels in the major drainage basins (major rivers) of the United States range from 0.1 µg/l to 1.0 µg/l (measured between 1971 and 1978; see Dennis 1981). Freshwater concentrations of PCBs in large lake systems have been observed to be much lower, probably due to their greater distances from point sources of pollution. For the Great Lakes, the highest value reported in open waters has been for Lake Michigan: 31 ng/l (Table 1.9). The low values reported for Lake Superior and Lake Ontario were used as conservative estimates for the lower levels of PCBs because the Great Lakes represent 98 percent of the total freshwater volume in the United States. The low and high estimates for

TABLE 1.10. PCB concentrations in the Great Lakes, 1972-1976.

	ng/l
Lake Superior (as Aroclor 1254)	
1972-73	0.8 ¹
1976	5.0 ²
Lake Michigan	31.0 ³
	9.0 ⁴
Lake Ontario	1.0-1.0 ⁵
Lake Huron	5.0-7.0 ⁶
Lake Erie	27.0 ⁷

SOURCE:

¹Veith et al. (1977).

²Swain (in press).

³Haile (1977).

⁴Edie, MOA-Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory, Ann Arbor, Michigan (unpublished data).

⁵de Lappe et al. (in press).

⁶Swain, Large Lakes Research Station, Grosse Ile, Michigan (unpublished data).

⁷Glooschenko et al. (1976).

freshwater levels in the four geographical areas used in this report are 1 ng/l and 3 ng/l (Table 1.10).

PCBs in Freshwater Sediment

Results obtained from monitoring sediment concentrations in European and African lakes and rivers are presented in Table 1.11. All PCB levels are reported on a dry weight basis. The lakes are divided into two groups: those subjected only to airborne contamination, and those contaminated with industrial and municipal wastes as well as fallout. The sediment concentration ranged from 4 µg/kg to 320 µg/kg for lakes receiving PCBs from all sources and 2 µg/kg to 20 µg/kg for those contaminated by atmospheric pollution only.

Sediment from the major drainage basins of the United States has been surveyed extensively for chemical contamination. From 1971 through 1974, median residue levels of PCBs in bottom sediment of 17 major rivers are as follows: 1.2 µg/kg to 64.5 µg/kg (1971), 2.0 µg/kg to 6.0 µg/kg (1972), 5.0 µg/kg to 50.0 µg/kg (1973), and 1.1 µg/kg to 160.0 µg/kg (1974). The

Table 1.10 Estimated PCBs in Fresh Water from Four Geographical Areas Across the U.S.

Area	H ₂ O Volume (km ³)	PCB Concentration (ng/l)		Amount of PCB (kg)	
		low	high	low	high
1. Great Continental Divide	27	1	3	27	81
2. Tachien Mountains-Sichuan Corral	100	1	3	100	300
3. Lake Erie Drainage	11,320	1	3	11,320	33,960
4. Gulf of Mexico Drainage	129	1	3	129	387
		Total		11,556	34,720

Highest residue levels were detected in the eastern portion of the United States (Table 1.12).

Bottom sediment from 26 streams discharging into the San Francisco Bay had been collected and analyzed (Law and Corlitz 1974). PCB residues were found in all the streams surveyed with values ranging from 1 µg/kg to 1,000 µg/kg. The values found in two streams not located near industrial or commercial developments were greater than would be expected: 180 µg/kg and 610 µg/kg. No significant differences were found between the average residues of streams discharging into the northern or southern sections of the Bay.

From 1950 to 1977, the Hudson River in New York State received wastewater from two plants that used PCBs in producing transformers and capacitors. The plants appear to have been major contributors to contamination of the river; PCB concentrations in the sediment near the outfall from these plants ranged from 6.6 mg/kg to 20,000 mg/kg (Nadeau and Davies 1974, Hetling et al. 1981). The amount of PCBs stored in the sediment of the Hudson River is estimated to be approximately 300×10^3 kg (Vulfeimire and Quinn, New York State Department of Conservation, personal communication, 1978).

As Figures 1.1 and 1.2 indicate, distribution of PCBs within the Hudson River sediment is not uniform. Highest concentrations occur at depths of 5 cm to 30 cm rather than at the plane where water and sediment meet. Because the samples were collected from areas of high sediment accumulation, the observed depth distribution may reflect the reduction (beginning in 1976) and eventual cessation (in 1977) of PCB discharges from the

Table 1.11 PCB Residues in Sediment of Lakes and Rivers in Europe and Africa (No. Samples)

Atmospheric Sources		µg/kg dry weight
Lake Havardssjon (10)	Sweden	10 ¹
Lake Jynsjo (1)	Sweden	0 ¹
Lake Notsjon (3)	Sweden	20 ¹
Lake Kinerloch (3)	Scotland	2 ⁴
All Sources		
Lake Vettern (20)	Sweden	170 ¹
Lake Malaren (15)	Sweden	40 ²
River Viskan (10)	Sweden	45 ²
Lake Trummen (15)	Sweden	4 ¹
Lake Oresjo (2)	Sweden	117 ¹
River Ravlinge (5)	Sweden	30 ¹
Lake McIlwaine (10)	Rhodesia	120 ⁵
Wartbeespoort Dam (10)	South Africa	320 ⁴
Vaalvlei Dam (10)	South Africa	70 ⁴
Lake Nakuru (10)	Kenya	20 ⁷

SOURCE:

¹Modified from Sakanson (1977).

²Modified from Oden and Ekstedt (1976).

³Modified from Erdreeren (unpublished).

⁴Modified from Greichus et al. (1977).

⁵Modified from Greichus et al. (1970b).

⁶Modified from Wells, Department of Agriculture and Fisheries of Scotland, personal communication.

⁷Modified from Greichus et al. (1970a).

General Electric plants at Hudson Falls and Fort Edward. If so, new, less contaminated sediment must have accumulated over older deposits. The values recorded are undoubtedly affected by erosion during and by the extent of backfilling that occurs after floods. Other factors in PCB deposition may be migration from sediment during water columns and redistribution by wind.

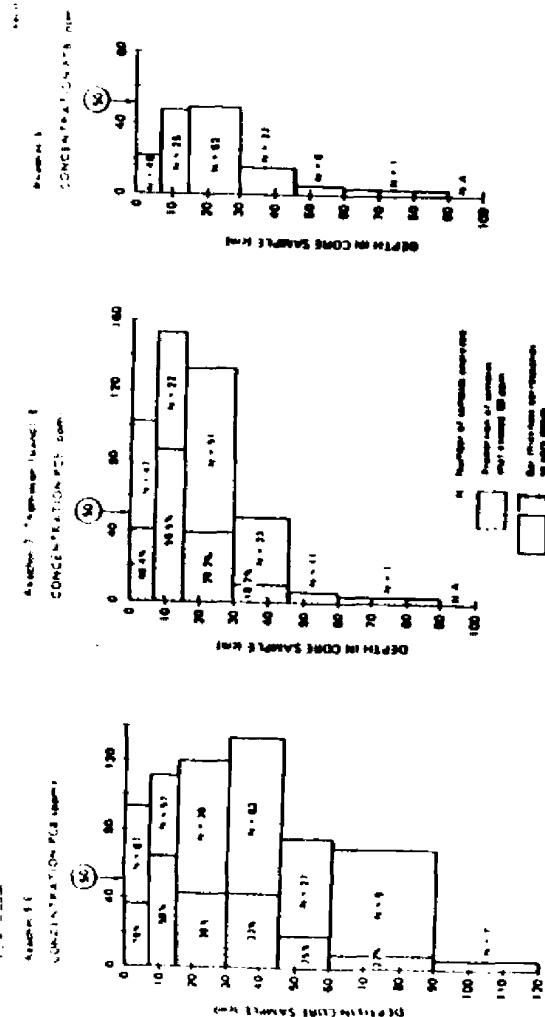
Migration of PCBs has occurred where channels have been cut and the rate of redeposition has been

TABLE 1.12 PCBs in Bottom Sediments in the Major Drainage Basins of the United States and Puerto Rico (Sample Size)

Drainage Basin	1971		1972		1973		1974	
	Median of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Range of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Median of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Range of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Median of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Range of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Median of Positive Detections in ug/kg	Range of Positive Detections in ug/kg
North Atlantic Slope	50 (2)	10 - 100	10 (56)	5 - 800	10 (58)	5 - 8000	11 (99)	2 - 800
South Atlantic Slope and Eastern Gulf of Mexico	64 (19)	10 - 200	30 (181)	5 - 500	10 (123)	5 - 600	11 (171)	2 - 510
Ohio River	9 (12)	9	-	-	20 (4)	20	25 (6)	9 - 61
St. Lawrence River	10 (11)	10	20 (10)	2 - 800	20 (26)	5 - 13000	20 (80)	3 - 180
Chesapeake Bay and Upper Potomac River	-	-	ND (3)	ND	ND (16)	ND	ND (26)	ND
Delaware River	1 (2)	0.3 - 2	2 (22)	2	ND (17)	ND	ND (5)	ND
Choptank River	50 (6)	10 - 80	2 (24)	2 - 2400	20 (57)	20	10.5 (63)	1 - 100
Patuxent River	-	2 - 200	4 (66)	2 - 250	50 (188)	14 - 100	27 (65)	-
Choptank River	-	-	2 (7)	2	ND (4)	ND	ND (1)	-
Choptank River	-	-	2 (9)	2	ND (7)	ND	ND (9)	ND
Choptank River	-	-	20 (6)	2 - 190	ND (14)	ND	2 (26)	2 - 10
Choptank River	-	-	2 (8)	2	ND (12)	ND	ND (5)	ND
Choptank River	-	-	ND (1)	ND	ND (1)	ND	ND (4)	ND
Choptank River	-	-	2 (1)	2	-	-	ND (1)	ND
Choptank River	-	-	-	-	ND (2)	ND	-	-
Choptank River	-	-	ND (1)	ND	ND (1)	ND	-	-
Choptank River	-	-	-	-	5 (6)	5	140 (18)	10 - 180

ND = NO DATA.
- = SAMPLE NOT COLLECTED.

Adapted from Dennis (1976).



SOURCE: Sanders (1979).

FIGURE 1.1 Upper river detailed core network, 1975-1978. Summary of 677 PCB analyses of sediment samples (312 cores) from the upper Hudson River. Core samples were taken from river banks and shallow, not from deep-channel areas. Large pieces of woody debris were abundant in Reaches 1 through 6, but not common in Reaches 5 through 1.

sediment as 30 cm/yr (Figure 1.2, Albany Basin, Bantamtown, and New York Harbor). Short core samples in deep and marginal shallow water areas from Kingston to Round Bay reflect sediment accumulation in areas not dredged.

During the period 1971 to 1972, the Chester River in the Upper Chesapeake Bay was monitored. PCB residues were found with sediment concentrations ranging from nondetectable to 300 µg/kg. The level detected at any one time depended on river flow rates (Clark and Murdock 1972). During 1974, bottom sediment was sampled from various lakes and rivers in Connecticut. The data indicated widespread contamination, particularly in highly developed areas. Levels up to 3,500 µg/kg were recorded (U.S. EPA 1976).

Table 1.13 summarizes the widespread contamination of freshwater bottom sediment throughout the United States (Crump-Wiesner et al. 1973). Samples were taken from lakes and streams remote from industrial centers to represent regional conditions. Twenty percent of the sediment samples taken across the nation contained PCBs with levels ranging from 5 µg/kg to 2,400 µg/kg.

The occurrence and distribution of PCBs in sediment from the Great Lakes have been studied extensively (Veith 1975, Glooschenko et al. 1976, Haile 1977, Veith et al. 1977, PLUARG 1978, Swain 1979, Eisenreich et al. 1979). Table 1.14 illustrates the concentrations detected in specific lake systems. These data seem consistent with sediment data from other sections of the country.

An evaluation of the degree of PCB contamination throughout the United States indicates regional variation. In Table 1.15 residue data from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) are summarized for 1972 through 1974. These data show an increase in the geographical dispersion of PCBs. In 1972, 5 states measured PCBs in bottom sediment; in 1973, 8 states; and in 1974, 13 states reported contamination with these compounds (U.S. EPA 1976). Those states reporting PCB contamination during this period continue to detect levels of the chemical today. Data from U.S. monitoring programs and from reports in the literature through 1977 indicate that the highest level of PCBs in freshwater sediment is found in heavily industrialized, populated areas, particularly in the eastern part of the country. PCBs are found in rural areas.



TABLE 1.2. Single core reconnaissance of the Hudson River. Summary of PCB analyses from eight single-core samples from a reconnaissance traverse of the lower river region from Albany to New York Harbor. Each bar represents two analyses, one for each of two different PCB isomers (Aroclor 1242 and 1254).

TABLE 1.13 Summary of PCB Residue Data for Bottom Sediments January 1971 - June 1972 (Number of Samples)

State	Range ($\mu\text{g/kg}$)	Median Concentration ($\mu\text{g/kg}$)
Alaska (1)	---	---
Alaska (23)	20 - 2,400	60
California (13)	70 - 190	85
Connecticut (1)	40	---
Hawaii (4)	---	---
Georgia (12)	10 - 1,300	300
Maryland (11)	10 - 1,300	30
Mississippi (8)	50; 170	---
New Jersey (12)	0 - 250	20
Oregon (4)	15; 140	---
Texas (16)	10 - 50	20
South Carolina (13)	30 - 200	50
Texas (29)	7.9 - 290	80
Virginia (10)	5 - 80	40
Washington (10)	---	---
West Virginia (2)	10	---

SOURCE: Modified from Crump-Wiesner et al. (1973).

Table 1.16 presents estimates of total PCB burdens in sediment for particular regions throughout the United States: the Pacific Coast to the Continental Divide, the Appalachian Mountain Range to the Atlantic Coast, the St. Lawrence drainage system including the north-central and Great Lakes region, and the Gulf of Mexico drainage system including the south-central region of the United States. When calculating a total PCB burden in sediment, it is necessary to consider possible bioturbation activity of bottom-living organisms. This activity may carry PCB residues deeper into the sediment than would be otherwise anticipated. For that reason, a depth of 15 cm has been used for potential PCB

TABLE 1.14 PCBs in Sediment of the Great Lakes (No. Samples)

	$\mu\text{g/kg}$
Lake Superior	10.0 ¹
(4)	7.0-10.5 ²
(17)	tr - 20.0 ³
Lake Michigan	10.0 ¹
(7)	12.0-25.0 ⁴
Lake Huron	9.0-33.0 ¹
(9)	tr - 20.0 ¹
Lake Erie	74.0-250.0 ¹
Lake Ontario	77.0-89.0 ¹
(7)	63.0-240.0 ⁴

tr indicates trace.

SOURCE:

¹FLUANG (1978).

²Vesth et al. (1977).

³Glooschenko et al. (1976).

⁴Walle (1977).

contamination. With an average sedimentation rate of 3.3 mm/yr (a conservative estimate based on values obtained in the Great Lakes), 15 cm represents the average amount of sediment accumulated during the last 50 years (Edgington and Robbins 1976).

The area from the Pacific Coast to the Continental Divide seems to have the lowest PCB level in sediment. Most recorded values are below 10 $\mu\text{g/kg}$; therefore 2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to 20 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ are chosen as low and high estimates of PCB levels in sediment from this region. Thus, the calculated PCB burden in sediment for the region from the Pacific Coast to the Continental Divide is from 5×10^3 kg to 65×10^3 kg (Table 1.16).

The Appalachian Mountain-Atlantic Coast region and the St. Lawrence drainage basin represent areas where consistently high levels of PCBs have been recorded in various components of the aquatic ecosystem. The Hudson River is the most contaminated water system in the Atlantic Coast area; approximately 300×10^3 kg of PCBs have been deposited in the river sediment (Toffelmire et al., 1978). Low and high estimates of PCB levels in freshwater sediment for the Appalachian

TABLE 1.15 Summary of PCB Residue Data for Bottom Sediments (Means and Ranges in ug/kg)

	1972		1973		1974	
	Mean	No. of Stations	Mean	No. of Stations	Mean	No. of Stations
Arkansas	0	6	0	6	12.8 (<2-29)	15
California	0	1	0	15	33.5 (<2-65)	18
Connecticut	127.5 (<5-E800)	16	14.1 (<5-40)	16	71.5 (<2-350)	40
Florida	93.6 (<5-400)	27	35.8 (<2-600)	64	43.3 (<2-530)	68
Georgia	---	---	0	1	13.6 (<1-51)	9
Illinois	---	---	20 [*]	1	---	---
Indiana	---	---	---	---	35	4
Michigan	2	1	---	---	17.6 (<4-60)	13
Minnesota	---	---	0	1	16.4 (<3-56)	50
New Jersey	---	2	230.2* (<3-4000)	20	172.2 (<1-800)	15
New York	---	---	519* (<2-1300)	17	95.8 (<2-450)	17
Pennsylvania	50.7 (<5-E100)	9	11.7 (<5-20)	5	105.6 (<6-700)	23
Texas	61.7 (<4-120)	41	17.6 (<3-45)	58	45.5 (<1-153)	58
Wisconsin	---	---	10	9	0	21
Puerto Rico	---	---	0	6	242 (<10-640)	16

--- indicates no samples.

E indicates estimated.

* indicates mean figure does not include anomalous values.

SOURCE: Modified from Nisbet (1976).

Table 1.16 Estimated PCB Levels in Sediment from Four Geographical Areas Across the U.S.

Area	Sediment Volume (km ³)	PCB Concentration (µg/kg)		Amount of PCBs (x 10 ³ kg)	
		low	high	low	high
Atlantic Coast - North River	3.2	2	20	5	65
Great Lakes - Lake Erie	5.0	100	500	500	2500
St. Lawrence drainage	23.7	30	150	700	3500
Gulf of Mexico - Tampa Bay	10.5	10	50	100	500

Note: The following assumptions are made - the sediment is 100% organogenic with a water content of approximately 90 percent. The PCB residues are stored within the upper 15 cm of the sediment layer.

Atlantic Coast area are 100 µg/kg and 500 µg/kg, respectively with the associated PCB burden ranging from $10^2 \times 10^3$ kg to $2,900 \times 10^3$ kg (Table 1.16).

The Great Lakes are not only the dominant water mass of the St. Lawrence drainage system, but they also constitute approximately 90 percent of the total freshwater volume of the United States. Based on the results presented in Table 1.14, 30 µg/kg to 150 µg/kg are chosen as low and high estimates for PCBs in sediment. The estimated range of PCB burden in the sediment of the St. Lawrence drainage area amounts to approximately 700×10^3 kg to $3,500 \times 10^3$ kg, thus representing the greatest PCB reservoir in the Continental United States.

The drainage area of the Gulf of Mexico contains sediment with concentrations that range from non-detectable to 530 µg/kg, excluding samples taken in the vicinity of heavy industrial contamination. Samples below 30 µg/kg were in the majority; thus 10 µg/kg and 50 µg/kg are considered reasonable low and high estimates, indicating a PCB load of 100×10^3 kg to 500×10^3 kg stored in the bottom sediments.

PCB Levels in Fish

Accumulation of PCBs in freshwater fish has been of great concern because fish are a major source of PCB contamination in the diet of humans. Concentrations in certain fish species high in fat content have been in excess of the FDA tolerance level of 5 mg/kg.

The occurrence of PCBs in fish differs among species, as would be expected, due to differences in food gathering habits, behavior patterns, and in content of body fat. Even when fish samples are taken from the same environment, PCB concentrations in species with large amounts of fat tissue, such as carp, catfish, lake trout, or coho and chinook salmon, are greater than those in low-fat species, such as yellow perch, walleye, or northern pike. In a 1975 study using fish samples from Green Bay, Lake Michigan, PCB concentrations in the edible tissues ranged from 10.0 mg/kg to 20.0 mg/kg in lake trout, 5.1 mg/kg to 51.6 mg/kg in carp, and 3.2 mg/kg to 5.6 mg/kg in yellow perch (Kleinert 1976). The lake trout and carp had a fat content in excess of 10 percent of body weight, whereas the yellow perch fat content was less than 4 percent.

Large differences in concentrations of PCBs have been reported in fish taken from the Hudson River. For example, yellow perch had PCB levels of 16.0 mg/kg to 38.0 mg/kg and the content in goldfish ranged from 45 mg/kg to 900 mg/kg (New York State Department of Environmental Conservation 1978). Elsewhere in various fresh waters of New York State, the PCB content of fish ranged generally from 0.2 mg/kg to 2.1 mg/kg, although a few species had as much as 14 mg/kg.

PCB concentrations within species can vary geographically. For example, coho salmon samples taken from the Wisconsin portion of Lake Michigan had PCB levels of 0.02 mg/kg to 26.0 mg/kg (Kleinert 1976); those from the New York waters of Lake Erie had 0.9 mg/kg to 5.7 mg/kg of PCBs; 1.7 mg/kg to 7.1 mg/kg of PCBs were detected in samples taken from New York waters of Lake Ontario (New York State Department of Environmental Conservation 1978).

Data from various sources indicate that the PCB concentrations for species in certain environments, such as Lake Michigan, the upper region of the Mississippi River, the Fox River in Wisconsin, and the Hudson River in New York State, exceeded the FDA tolerance level of 5 mg/kg. These areas are known to have the highest levels

of PCBs from industrial wastes in the past, the significant increase in fish in the upper Mississippi River basin, but no such trend is evident in fish from the Great Lakes (Kleinert 1976).

Based on a maximum standing fish crop in the Great Lakes of 5×10^4 kg and a mean PCB level of 1 mg/kg, the amount of freshwater fish in the United States is estimated to be 15×10^3 kg (Veith 1975, Graham 1976, Smith et al. 1977). It seems reasonable that the biota of the Great Lakes biota would carry an amount of PCBs entirely equal to this, giving a high estimate of 15×10^3 kg. Other U.S. freshwater biota and associated PCB levels are negligible in comparison.

PCBs in the Ocean

Although some data exist on samples taken from the North Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, most measurements of PCBs in marine waters have used samples collected in the North Atlantic Ocean. A summary of most of the published data is presented in Table 1.17.

Clear-cut explanations of the observed spatial and temporal trends remains elusive. It is especially difficult to explain measurements which suggest that PCB concentrations in North Atlantic surface waters dropped by a factor of more than 40 between the summers of 1972 and 1973 (Harvey et al. 1974). The data have generated lively debates, but a satisfactory explanation of them has yet to emerge (Duce and Duursma 1977).

Consequently, it is fair to say that we have a poor understanding of historical trends in marine levels of PCBs. This limitation is unfortunate because it prevents accurate predictions of residence times and ultimate fates of PCBs in an important environmental pool.

A review of the data presented in Table 1.17, however, does indicate generally higher levels of PCBs in the North Atlantic than in the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico. Airborne PCBs may enter the North Atlantic Ocean mainly between latitudes 40° and 45° N as a consequence of the southwesterly winds prevailing from the United States (Harvey and Steinhauer 1976b). Calculations have been made on the relative importance of the several ways to distribute PCBs within the oceans (Harvey and Steinhauer 1976a). These include: (1) distributions of PCBs by vertical and horizontal advection

(2) degradation of PCBs with decreasing residence time; (3) evaporative contribution to surface waters in low and mid latitudes; and (4) chemical degradation of PCBs in the mixed layer. Currently, however, no quantitative information is available on the relative importance of each process.

Particle removal is probably the most important pathway for moving PCBs from the mixed layer to bottom sediment. Yet few measurements of PCB accumulation rates have been published (Harvey and Steinhauer 1976a).

For purposes of calculating the oceanic PCB load, an average concentration of 2.6 ng/l was used for estimating the amount of PCBs in the upper 200 m of the North Atlantic Ocean (see Table 1.17: surface values are 2.6 ng/l and mixed layer values are reported as 3.6 ng/l and 1.8 ng/l). A conservative estimate of 1 ng/l was used as the amount of PCBs in water depths below 200 m (Table 1.17 indicates reported values of 2 ng/l and 1.3 ng/l). The area of the North American Basin was taken as 10×10^{12} m² with a depth of 4,200 m (Harvey and Steinhauer 1976a). Calculations using these data suggest that North American Basin waters contain an upper limit of 6.6×10^3 kg of PCBs. Calculations by other investigators suggest a burden of 4.2×10^3 kg (Harvey and Steinhauer 1976a). However, it has been suggested that all measurements of PCBs in oceans have been biased upwards by sampling contamination, and that reported measurements may be too high by at least one order of magnitude (Risebrough et al. 1976). Accordingly, we have adopted as a lower limit of PCB content the value of 6×10^3 kg.

PCBs in Marine Sediment

PCBs are transported to ocean waters adsorbed on suspended organic particles in river water. Sewage sludge dumped along coastal areas also contributes to the concentration as does deposition of polluted dredged spoils. It is estimated that approximately 4×10^3 kg of sewage sludge and 13×10^3 kg of dredged spoils are dumped off the Atlantic and Gulf Coast annually (Council on Environmental Quality 1978). If an average PCB concentration of 400 µg/kg wet weight is assumed (Bryant and Peoples 1977), approximately 7×10^3 kg of PCBs are transferred to the coastal waters. Another

TABLE 1.17 PCB Concentration of Oceanic Water (ng/l)

Date	Location and Type	Range	Mean	Reference
3/73	Sargasso Sea (surface)	<1.9 - 3.6	<1.5	Bidleman and Olney (1974)
9/73	Sargasso Sea - N.Y. (surface)		.8	Harvey et al. (1974)
9/73	Azores-Berbados (surface)		2	Harvey et al. (1974)
1973/74	Gulf of Mexico (surface)		1.8	Giam et al. (1976)
1974	British Coastal waters (surface)	<.15 - .52	0.23	Dawson and Riley (1977)
9/75	Iceland-New England (surface)	1-7	4	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
9/75	South Atlantic (11° S - 35° S) (surface)	0.3 - 3.7	0.9	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
1972	North Central Pacific Gyre (surface)	"	5	Williams and Robertson (1975)
1973	Calif. current (surface)	0.3 - .5		Young (1975)
1974	New England Continental Shelf (surface)	"	0.8	Harvey et al. (1974)

	Atlantic Northeast Trades (surface)	1.5 - 5		Harvey et al. (1976a,b)
1974/75	North Atlantic (surface)	0.3 - 8.0	2.6	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
1975	Pacific offshore waters (surface)	ND ^a		Risebrough et al. (1976)
1973	Western boundary of Southern Calif. light (surface)	0.27 - 0.49	0.4	Risebrough et al. (1976)
5/75	Calif. Coastal waters (surface)	1.1 - 5.9	2.1	Risebrough et al. (1976)
2/75	Atlantic Northeast Trades (mixed layer) ^b	0.9 - 8.7	3.6	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
9/75	North Atlantic (mixed layer)	1.7 - 1.8	1.8	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
2/75	Atlantic Northeast Trades (deep water) ^c	0.8 - 4.2	2.0	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)
9/75	North Atlantic (deep water)	0.7 - 2.4	1.3	Harvey and Steinhauser (1976a,b)

^aLimit of detection ranged from 0.03 - 0.3 ng/l.^bMixed layer is taken as the upper 200 meters.^cDeep water is taken as below a depth of 200 meters.

and transport from U.S. rivers to the oceans is estimated at 2×10^4 kg (Nisbet and Sarofim 1972).

Data on PCB levels in marine sediment are available primarily for coastal areas, estuaries, and harbors. Measurements in sediment deposited on the continental shelves seem to be lacking. Whereas most of the PCBs delivered to the open ocean remain in solution or are adsorbed onto suspended solids, it is likely that most of the PCBs delivered to the coastal regions are deposited in the sediment. The greater abundance of suspended organic solids in coastal waters (100 times the amount in the open ocean) plus a more rapid rate of deposition contribute to the removal of a larger proportion of PCBs from the water column in these areas. Therefore, it is inferred but not yet proven that most of the PCBs deposited in marine sediment will be found within the continental shelves.

The Gulf of Mexico Because the Gulf of Mexico receives sediment runoff from about two-thirds of the U.S. land area and one-half the area of Mexico, the content of PCBs in sediment of the Gulf is representative of the runoff situation for a large area of the continent (Table 1.18). PCB levels from 0.2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to 35 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ have been found in sediment sampled in coastal areas of Texas and Louisiana (U.S. EPA 1976). In Escambia Bay, Florida, where sediment has been sampled since 1969, it has been established that an industrial outfall is responsible for part of the PCB contamination in that area. Sediment sampled near the outfall reached a PCB level of 886 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ in 1969, but the contamination appears to have decreased since then (Table 1.19 and Figure 1.3).

The North Atlantic Ocean In a preliminary survey in 1971 in St. Margaret's Bay, Nova Scotia, investigators were unable to detect any PCB residues (limit of detection 1 $\mu\text{g/kg}$) in sediment samples taken from water depths of 5 m to 20 m and 60 m to 75 m (Hargrave and Phillips 1975). In surface sediment off Long Island and New Jersey, PCB levels were found at 10 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ and 40 $\mu\text{g/kg}$, respectively (West and Hatcher, Atlantic Oceanographic Research Laboratory, NOAA, personal communication, 1978). In a dump site in the Christensen Basin, at the head of Hudson Shelf Valley (lat. 40°27'N, ESE of harbor light entrance to the New York Harbor), one core sample revealed 2,000 $\mu\text{g/kg}$

TABLE 1.18 Residues of Aroclor 1254 in Sediment Samples from the Gulf of Mexico (1976)

	Year of Sampling	Number of Stations	ng/g
Sediment	1971-72	44	56.0
	1971-74	24	26.0
Sediment	1973-75	36	0.3
Water	1973-74	34	1.0
Air	1973-75	0	0.4

SOURCE: Taken from Ginn et al. (1976).

TABLE 1.19 Residues of Aroclor 1254 in Sediment Samples from Escambia Bay and River (mg/kg) (See Figure 1.1 for Station Locations)

Location	Depth	1970	1971	1972
1				
2				
6				
8		ND		
12		1.9		
13		1.4		
14		10.0		
15		4.2		
16		3.3		
17		4.9		
18		0.4		
19		2.5		
20		1.4		
21	0 - 5 cm	70.0	0.1	0.97
	5 - 10 cm	30.0	0.12	5.0
	10 - 15 cm	6.1	ND	---
	15 - 20 cm	0.4	ND	---
22	0 - 5 cm	10.0	0.91	0.14
	5 - 10 cm	11.0	ND	ND
	10 - 15 cm	15.0	ND	ND
	15 - 20 cm	20.0	ND	---
	20 - 25 cm	10.8	ND	---
	25 - 30 cm	1.2	ND	---
23	0 - 5 cm	0.19	0.19	---
	5 - 10 cm	0.00	ND	---
	10 - 15 cm	0.02	ND	---
	15 - 20 cm	ND	ND	---

ND = not detected.

SOURCE: Taken from U.S. EPA (1976).

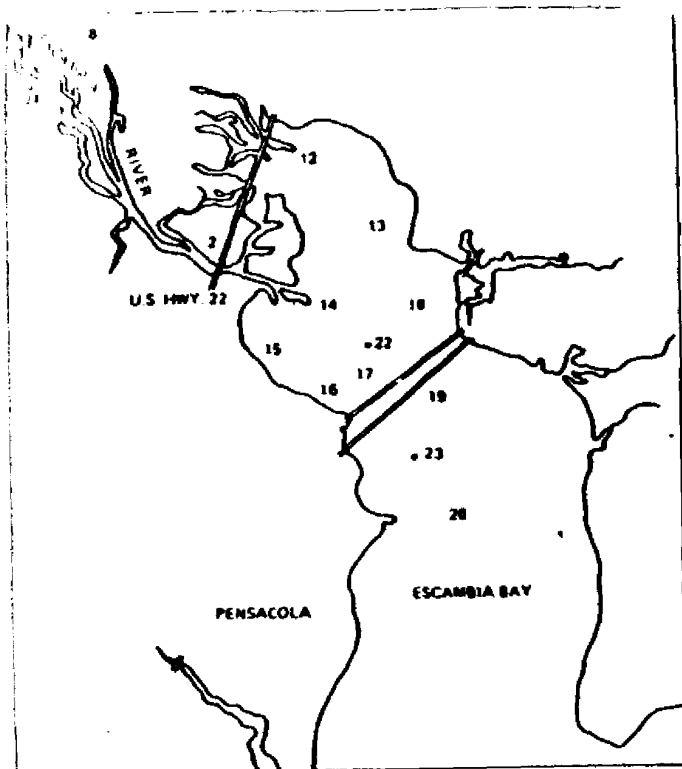


FIGURE 1. Modified from U.S. EPA (1974).

FIGURE 1.2 Escambia Bay sampling stations

in the upper 4 cm and 400 µg/kg in a zone 4 cm to 23 cm below the sediment surface. In coastal sediments off Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and in the Northumberland Strait, PCBs were near or below the detection limit of 5 µg/kg (Leonard 1977). However, in a 1976 survey of four major harbors in the Atlantic Provinces of Canada, levels of PCBs ranged from 10 µg/kg to 2,900 µg/kg

(Pocklington, 1977). In deep water (100 to 110 m) in Canada, no PCBs were found. Detection limit of 1 µg/kg for Baffin Bay at water depths of 71 m to 100 m, Lancaster Sound at depths of 527 m to 570 m, and Smith Sound at 534 m (Pocklington, Bedford Institute, Halifax, Nova Scotia, personal communication, 1978).

Pacific Ocean The coastal waters of southern California have been extensively sampled for evidence of PCB residues. Dated sediment from the Santa Barbara Basin indicate that deposition of PCBs began about 1945 (Hem et al. 1974). Through 1967, the levels of PCBs detected were increasing continuously (Table 1.20). Under anaerobic conditions burrowing organism activity is negligible so that PCBs can remain undisturbed in sediment for at least 30 years.

Despite major decreases in PCB emissions over a 1 year period by a dominant discharger to a coastal marine site in Los Angeles, California, only minor decreases in PCB levels were observed in the bottom sediment (Young et al. 1977). In areas near the outfall, levels varied from 7 mg/kg in the top 5 cm in 1972 to about 4 mg/kg in 1975. In areas 12 km from the outfall, the corresponding values were 0.5 mg/kg in both 1972 and 1975.

Sediment samples taken off the Peruvian Coast at depths of 510 m and 915 m did not have detectable PCB residues; the limit of detection was 5 µg/kg (Pocklington, Bedford Institute, Halifax, Nova Scotia, personal communication, 1978).

That PCBs can be transported to considerable water depths is indicated by their presence in the

TABLE 1.20 PCB Levels in Dated Sediments from the Santa Barbara Basin (µg/kg, dry weight)

1940 - 1945	11
1947 - 1952	49
1957 - 1960	66
1962 - 1967	100

Reprinted with modification from Leonard, R. J., and J. R. Leonard, eds., 1977. PCBs in the Environment. U.S. EPA Publication 600/3-77/010. Environmental Monitoring Systems Laboratory, U.S. EPA, Research Triangle Park, North Carolina 27711.

large, universal fish, *Antimora rostrata*, a permanent resident of the lower continental slope in Pacific waters (Risebrough et al., 1976). These fish swim slowly over the bottom, crop benthic epifauna, and root in the sediment for infauna. The PCB residues found in tissue samples taken from these fish are believed to originate from the sediment.

The North Sea Sediment from the central North Sea and the Norwegian Depression has been sampled (Edar 1976) at water depths of about 50 m and 150 m, respectively. In the upper 20 cm of the sediment, PCB levels averaged 28 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ in the North Sea; in the anaerobic sediment of the Norwegian Depression, levels of 56 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ were noted (Table 1.21). The sampling sites in the North Sea are sufficiently remote from any point sources of direct pollution suggesting that atmospheric transport of PCB residues must have been the source. It also was observed that the percentage of less chlorinated PCBs was higher in the anaerobic sediment of the Norwegian Depression than in the well-aerated sand sites in the North Sea. If the ratios of high to low chlorine numbers were identical for both areas at the time of deposition, this observation would suggest that biological degradation may have occurred in the sand

TABLE 1.21 PCB Concentrations in the Central North Sea and Norwegian Depression

Site Number	I	II	III	IV
Latitude	55°30'N	55°30'N	57°40'N	57°49'N
Longitude	04°10'E	04°54'E	07°10'E	06°29'E
Depth below sea level	50 m	45 m	420 m	505 m
Sediment Type	Homogeneous silty fine sand	Fine to medium sand	Clay and silt	Viscous clay and silt
PCB (ppm) (background average, $\mu\text{g/kg}$ dry sediment)				
Depth 10 cm	20.4-1.6	14.0-2.8	28.0-11.9	21.7-6.3
Depth 10 cm	11.5-2.8	10.5-12.3	40.5-30.9	19.1-6.7

Source: Reprinted (with modifications) with permission from reference 2:101-104, Edar, G., PCBs and compounds of the DDT group in sediments of the central North Sea and the Norwegian Depression], Copyright (1976), Pergamon Press, Ltd.

Physical factors related to solubility and partitioning may be important also and could result in PCB being lost from sediment.

The Baltic Sea From 1972 through 1973, sediment taken from various areas and depths in the Baltic Sea was sampled and analyzed for PCB residues (Oden and Ekstedt 1976). Only surface sediments were studied (0 to 2 cm). In the northern part of the Baltic Sea, the PCB content was fairly low (about 20 $\mu\text{g/kg}$) and without large geographical variation (Figure 1.4). Similarly low

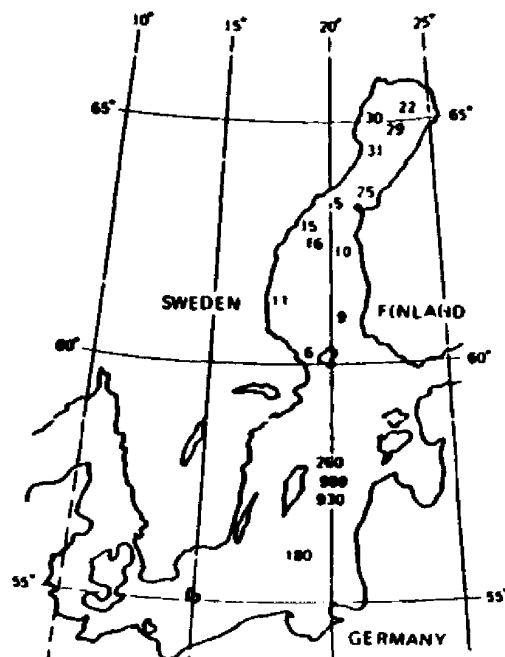


FIGURE 1.4 PCB concentrations in sediment samples taken in the Baltic Sea.

Source: Oden and Ekstedt, 1976, p. 101.

had been observed in earlier studies (Binko et al. 1974). The high contamination (about 500 $\mu\text{g/kg}$) found in the central and southern portions was most probably the result of waste disposal practices.

The marine sediment data presented in the above subsections were used to estimate the quantity of PCBs stored in coastal areas of the United States. We have estimated that most PCBs are accumulated in sediment within 10 km from the coast (within 2 km on the Pacific coast). The PCB burdens indicated in Table 1.22 were calculated for the upper 5 cm of the sediment layer.

PCBs in Marine Biota

The mass of marine biota over the eastern continental shelf of North America is taken to be 10 percent of the total marine biota, or about 1.5×10^{11} kg (National Research Council 1977). Using a concentration of 0.2 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ (Risebrough et al. 1972, Graham 1976), a plausible upperbound estimate of PCBs in North Atlantic marine biota is 3×10^4 kg.

Removal from the Hydrosphere

In the course of determining the mass distribution of PCBs in the Lake Michigan ecosystem, transport

TABLE 1.22 Estimated PCB Levels in U.S. Coastal Sediments

	Sediment Volume (km ³)	PCB Concentration ($\mu\text{g/kg}$)		Amount of PCBs ($\times 10^3$ kg)	
		low	high	low	high
Pacific Coast	10	10	50	24	120
Atlantic Coast	10	10	40	590	2400
Gulf of Mexico	4	5	25	20	90
			Total	634	2610

The following assumptions are made - the sediment has a mass density of 2. The PCBs are stored in the upper 5 cm of the sediment layer within a distance of 10 km from the shoreline for Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico and 2 km for the Pacific Coast.

removal from the hydrosphere by deposition of PCBs was estimated (Helm et al. 1977). A fractionation of the PCBs in the water indicated that nearly 60 percent were associated with heavy particles. The mean settling rate was estimated to be 0.25×10^4 g/m²-yr. Dated sediment samples from the Santa Barbara Basin in California, showed that deposition of PCBs began about 1945 (Helm et al. 1974). The rate of deposition in this study was calculated to be 1.2×10^4 g/m²-yr. PCB deposition rates in sediment from the northwestern Mediterranean region had been estimated also (Elder and Fowler 1977). These calculations were based on PCB contents in a series of cores taken at a water depth of about 400 m. The values ranged from 0.5×10^4 g/m²-yr to 1.2×10^4 g/m²-yr over a period of 15 to 20 years. Fecal pellets from Euphausiids were found to contain PCB residues in the range of 1,000 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ to 30,000 $\mu\text{g/kg}$ dry weight, and it was suggested that sinking zooplankton fecal pellets could have contributed to deposition of PCB compounds in deep ocean sediment.

The results of these studies are in remarkably close agreement, considering the different techniques employed. The findings suggest that PCB deposition rates are similar in both lakes and marine coastal areas. Based on these data, a mean deposition rate of 1.0×10^4 g/m²-yr is proposed.

Rate of Release of PCBs Several studies indicate that PCBs may be released from the site of deposition in the sediment by biotic or abiotic processes. After such release, PCBs can be incorporated in the food web or reintroduced into the water column (Veith and Corstock 1975, Young et al. 1977, Courtney and Langston 1978, Olsson et al. 1978, Sodergren and Larsson 1979, and Weiniger 1978). However, the results reported are only qualitative and do not provide estimates of the quantity being released.

LITHOSPHERIC COMPARTMENT

The estimated distribution and amount of PCBs in the lithosphere are summarized in Table 1.23. The data used to derive the estimates are discussed in the following subsections. The uncertainty involved in attempting to estimate the distribution and amount of PCBs in the

TABLE 1.21 Estimated PCB Levels in the Lithosphere

Compartment	Biomass (kg)	PCB Concentration (mg/kg)		Amount of PCB (kg)	
		low	high	low	high
Soil	6.35×10^{14}	2×10^{-1}	2×10^{-1}	2.7×10^5	2.7×10^5
Plants	6.35×10^{13}	2×10^{-1}	6×10^{-2}	1.3×10^5	2.5×10^4
Livestock	6.35×10^8	2×10^{-2}	4×10^{-1}	1.3×10^4	2.5×10^4
Fish	6.35×10^{10}	2×10^{-3}	10^{-1}	1.3×10^3	6.3×10^3
Wet	1.4×10^{10}	1.5×10^{-1}		6.5×10^3	4.9×10^3
Total				3.4×10^5	2.0×10^4

It must be noted, particularly in the two largest compartments, soil and plants,

PCBs in Soil

Little information is available on the concentration of PCBs in soil. These compounds generally are not detectable in agricultural soil. Although many "hot spots" with high PCB levels exist in some industrialized locations, the estimated average soil concentration for metropolitan areas in the United States is about 0.002 mg/kg (Carey and Gowen 1976). In Japan, the average concentration is 0.08 mg/kg (Fujiwara 1975).

Whereas the pattern of PCB pollution in lakes appears to be controlled by atmospheric fallout, results from a nationwide network of sampling stations indicate that PCB concentrations in stream sediment are the result of accumulation downstream from known point sources of PCB discharge or from industrialized urban areas (TONET-U.S. EPA Water Quality Analysis Branch, Monitoring and Data Support Division). The contrast in patterns suggests that PCBs in rainfall make negligible contributions to sediment in streams. A possible explanation for this is that the primary source of water in stream flow is water that seeps out of the ground (defined as the base flow of streams). Only rural contributions to streams come via rain that falls on the surface in the channel. (Appendix A, Table A.1, shows that the aggregate surface area of streams is only one quarter that of lakes and large reservoirs.) The estimated lack of PCBs from groundwater discharge is

consistent with estimates that only 1% of PCBs are available for losses from landfill to ground water (Harris and Mety 1970, Hettling et al. 1978). But if PCBs are widely dispersed in rainfall yet virtually absent from ground water, one must conclude that PCBs are accumulating in the soil and near-surface sediment underlying the soil. As already noted, data are scarce, therefore it appears to be important to monitor PCB levels in soil to find out how much enters from rainfall and what their fate is after entering.

The compartmental biomass and estimated PCB concentrations are presented in Table 1.23. Using these values plus a land area of $9 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$, soil depth of 1 cm and soil density of 1.5 g/cm^3 , the range of PCB burden was calculated as $2.70 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}$ to $2.7 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}$.

Plants

An average PCB concentration in vegetation has been reported only for remote areas of Germany (0.02 mg/kg, from Klein and Weisgerber 1976). The high and low estimates in Table 1.23 were based on ranges given in the German study and represent mg/kg fresh weight. The biomass for plants was estimated in relation to livestock biomass ($6.35 \times 10^{13} \text{ kg}$, from Robinson 1975), and the PCB burden was calculated as $1.3 \times 10^5 \text{ kg}$ to $2.5 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$.

Wildlife

Most of the available data on PCB concentrations found in birds deal with predators. The level in tissue samples generally depends on the type of diet for each species studied. Avian species feeding mainly on small birds and mammals have PCB concentrations in liver samples that range from nondetectable to 50 mg/kg fresh weight; those feeding on fish have concentrations ranging from nondetectable to 900 mg/kg fresh weight (Prestt et al. 1976). The data indicate that liver concentrations are approximately 1.5 to 2 times the concentrations found in whole body samples. Results in birds that feed on worms and insects are considerably lower compared to the above values. PCB tissue levels of 0.55 mg/kg fresh weight have been reported for starlings (Soderstrom and Ulfstrand 1972), and 0.1 mg/kg

0.06 mg/kg fresh weight reported for robins (White 1974). PCB levels in tissue of herbivorous birds average 0.2 mg/kg fresh weight (calculated for mourning doves, Fieztzer 1974).

Little information is available on PCB levels in small mammals. Mice in Iceland contained tissue levels of 0.2 mg/kg fresh weight (Bengtsson and Sodergren 1973). Lipid samples from foxes and polar bears in Greenland contained 2.8 mg/kg and 21 mg/kg of PCBs, respectively (Clausen and Berg 1975).

PCB levels in wildlife were investigated during an extensive study of the Hudson River. Muscle and liver samples from snapping turtles in the Hudson Estuary had concentrations ranging from 0.05 μ g/kg to 174 μ g/kg (Manning et al. 1978). Samples of liver tissue of captured animals indicated PCB ranges of nondetectable to 0.26 μ g/kg in raccoons, 0.18 μ g/kg to 0.90 μ g/kg in otters, and 0.44 μ g/kg to 1.70 μ g/kg in otters (New York State Department of Environmental Conservation 1978).

It is difficult to derive an average PCB concentration for wildlife. For the purpose of Table 1.24, low and high PCB concentrations are estimated as 0.02 mg/kg and 0.4 mg/kg fresh weight, and the biomass value was estimated in relation to livestock biomass (1.3×10^5 kg, Robinson 1975). The range for PCB burden in wildlife is calculated to be 1.3×10^4 kg to 2.6×10^4 kg.

Livestock

Levels of PCBs in livestock may be derived from data on PCB concentrations in meat. In Japan, average concentrations in wet weight are 0.02 mg/kg in beef, 0.04 mg/kg in pork, 0.004 mg/kg in mutton, and 0.06 mg/kg in chicken (Fujiwara 1975). Because similar values have been reported from other countries, a concentration range of 0.002 mg/kg to 0.1 mg/kg was used in Table 1.23. The biomass was estimated using USDA Agricultural Statistics 1972 and 1974 for the number and average weight of livestock on U.S. farms. The estimated burden for this compartment ranges from 1.3×10^4 kg to 6.3×10^4 kg.

PCBs in Humans

Levels of PCBs in human adipose tissue have been well documented. A summary of the data is presented in Table 1.24. In those cases in which the original data were not presented in mg/kg of lipid, the values were recalculated assuming that adipose tissue contains 76 percent lipid.

The concentrations detected in adipose tissue can be converted into whole body levels, assuming that lipid constitutes 30 percent of body weight. Accordingly, a PCB concentration of 0.35 mg/kg body weight has been suggested. A population size of 2×10^8 with an average weight of 70 kg per person was used for calculating biomass (1.4×10^8 kg) in Table 1.23. The PCB burden associated with humans is 4.9×10^4 kg.

Transport Between Lithosphere and Atmosphere

Volatilization rates for PCBs appear to depend on experimental conditions. A loss of 40 to 50 percent was observed for Aroclor 1254 in either dry or wet sand, at 26°C over a period of 4 weeks. In contrast, loss of Aroclor 1254 from a soil containing 3.1 percent organic

TABLE 1.24 PCBs in Human Adipose Tissue

Country	Mean Concentration (mg/kg)
Denmark ¹	5.0
Japan	4.7
West Germany ²	7.9
Austria ²	4.6
U.K. ³	1.3
Norway ¹	0.9
Canada ⁴	1.2
East Germany ⁵	6.4
Israel ³	3.6
New Zealand ⁶	8.9
U.S.A. ¹	1.2

SOURCE:

- ¹Modified from Braul and Rarlog (1976).
- ²Modified from Fujiwara (1975).
- ³Modified from Acker and Schulte (1970).
- ⁴Modified from Nes et al. (1977).
- ⁵Modified from Wassermann et al. (1974).
- ⁶Modified from Solly and Shanks (1974).
- ⁷Modified from Jutz and Strassman (1975).

PCBs are regarded as negligible. PCBs in other soils with higher organic content may undergo some volatilization. When allowance is made for differences in experimental conditions, the rate of vaporization of Aroclor 1254 from sand appears to be of the same order of magnitude as the volatilization loss of Aroclor 1254 from itself which is 2.0×10^{-4} g/cm²-day at 26°C (Haque et al. 1974). If a linear relationship is assumed between PCB concentration in the top 1 cm of soil and the rate of vaporization, the expected vaporization rate from a typical sandy soil concentration of 2 µg/kg (Carey and Gowen 1976) would be 4 µg/m²-day, or on the same order as the atmospheric deposition rate in the Great Lakes area (Murphy and Rzeszutko 1977).

The results indicate that PCBs deposited by atmospheric fallout onto sand, and presumably other inorganic materials (such as rock or concrete), will not accumulate but will reenter the atmosphere via volatilization at a rapid rate ($2.0 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2\text{-day}$). PCBs deposited onto high-organic soils will reenter the atmosphere at a slower rate. However, the low concentrations observed in soils (Carey and Gowen 1976) compared with the estimated rate of deposition (Table 1) indicate that the residence time would be on the order of one month or less.

High organic soils in the United States are typically covered--at least partially--with vegetation. Forage and grasses may be efficient collectors of those PCBs associated with either particulate matter or precipitation fallout, and the vegetation probably would not easily release PCBs via volatilization; this assumption is supported by data from a study in New York. PCB levels were measured in or on foliage samples taken at control sites, upwind of facilities that commonly used PCBs. Ranges of 0.2 µg/kg to 0.8 µg/kg were reported (Leis and Metry 1978). PCBs would be introduced to the upper soil layer through leaf litter decomposition processes, but the average concentration in soil would be diluted by the additional presence of non-contaminated plant materials.

PCBs deposited on agricultural lands may never accumulate in the top layer of soil if the food crop is removed totally. Lands supporting row crops, grains, and other similar plants are typically turned under each year, so that the PCBs are spread throughout a greater depth than the 1 cm mentioned above. Crop foliage and

plant growth typically are removed and used as food or bedding for livestock.

Until more experiments are conducted studying processes of transfer between the atmosphere and the lithosphere, many questions regarding the net flux between these major environmental compartments cannot be answered.

DISTRIBUTION MODEL FOR PCBs FROM DOMESTIC SOURCES

This section of the report uses estimates of domestic PCB usage from 1930 to 1977 to derive a Mobile Environmental Reservoir (MER). The MER is defined as that portion of PCBs existing in a form that can be accumulated in the environmental media and biota, including amounts detected in air, water, sediment, upper levels of soil, and biota trophic levels. Material in landfills is specifically excluded as PCBs within these sites are considered generally to be immobile.

The composition of the MER derived from data on domestic production and use, is categorized by chlorine content of the biphenyl molecule. These categories are described below in descending order of biodegradability:

- Category I: PCBs containing one to three chlorine atoms per molecule (mono-, di-, tri-isomers).
- Category II: PCBs containing four chlorine atoms per molecule (tetra-isomers).
- Category III: PCBs containing five or more chlorine atoms per molecule (penta- through deca-isomers).

Magnitude and Composition of the MER

Data on PCB production and sales, including information on domestic sales by category of use and Aroclor designation, were obtained for the period 1957 to 1974 (Durfee et al. 1976). Using these data and known distributions of chlorine atoms per molecule for each Aroclor (Hutzinger et al. 1974) the yearly domestic sales can be calculated for each of three categories over the specified period.

The available data were extended to cover the entire period through 1977 by deriving best-fit empirical equations from Categories I, II and III of PCBs used in electrical equipment (closed systems) and non-electrical applications (open-end and nominally closed systems). The resulting equations are:

Electrical Applications (units are kg/yr)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Category I Usage}^a &= 2.4 \times 10^3 e^{0.097t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1930) \\ \text{Category II Usage} &= 1.16 \times 10^3 e^{0.098t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1930) \\ \text{Category III Usage} &= 2.24 \times 10^3 e^{0.102t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1930)\end{aligned}$$

^aIn order to establish a zero base (i.e. start of production), subtract 3×10^6 kg.

Nonelectrical Applications (kg/yr)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Category I Usage} &= 2.41 \times 10^3 e^{0.177t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1950) \\ \text{Category II Usage} &= 2.21 \times 10^3 e^{0.155t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1950) \\ \text{Category III Usage} &= 7.35 \times 10^4 e^{0.105t} \quad (t = 0 \text{ at } 1950)\end{aligned}$$

In these equations, time (t) is measured in years from the initial dates of production (t = 0) as specified for each equation. Nonelectrical applications became significant around 1950 and correlates approximately with commercialization of Aroclor 1248. After 1971, sales for nonelectrical applications effectively became zero.

The model described above results in a total cumulative use of PCBs from domestic sources through 1977 of 1.1×10^8 kg, 7 percent higher than the value of 1.02×10^8 kg previously estimated (Durfee et al. 1976). The production percentages, extended through 1977 for each of the three PCB categories, are:

Category I: 38 percent
Category II: 23 percent
Category III: 39 percent

The assumed loss factors for production and use of PCBs summarized in Table 1.25 are based on engineering judgment applied to the available information (Durfee et al. 1976). The factors are assumed to apply to all PCBs, as noted, through the cessation of domestic production in 1977.

Table 1.26 summarizes the cumulative losses to the environment by applying loss factors from Table 1.25 to the production use model above. For Category I cumulative losses in electrical use, the basic equation

TABLE 1.25 Assumed Loss Factors for Production and Use of PCBs (1930-1977)

Function	Percent of Overall Loss Factor	Percent of fraction Entering the MER
Primary Production	2 ^a	50
Transport/Handling	0.5 ^a	100
First Tier Usage	2 ^b	50
In-Service Electrical Equipment	0.1 of material in service per year ^c	100
Material in Nonelectrical Applications	10 of material in service per year ^d	100

^aApplicable to total domestic production.

^bApplicable to material used in each of two general applications (electrical and nonelectrical).

^cUseful service life of 40 years.

^dUseful service life of 6 years.

without zero correction was used, and the result corrected by subtracting 0.2×10^7 kg. A similar zero correction, by subtracting 9.05×10^7 kg, is required for Category II losses from electrical service. These corrections are required because of the extrapolations made for the period from 1930 to 1957; however, the factors are small when compared to the total cumulative amounts in the MER for each category.

The results in Table 1.26 indicate that, as of 1977, a total of about 8.25×10^7 kg of PCBs had entered the MER. The amounts by PCB category were:

Amounts
(in 10^7 kg)

Category I: 3.12
Category II: 1.83
Category III: 3.30

The estimate of 8.25×10^7 kg is directly comparable with the 1972 estimate of 8.2×10^7 kg (Gibbs and Sarofim 1972), as well as the value derived in 1975 for all PCBs available to the biota (ignoring degradation processes) of 7.8×10^7 kg (Durfee et al. 1975). The M2 model suggests that the cumulative amount of PCBs

TABLE 1.26 Estimated Cumulative Losses of PCBs to the Mobile Environmental Reservoir as of 1977 by PCB Category (Chlorine Content) and Production/Use Function

PCB Losses to the MER as of 1977 ($\text{kg} \times 10^3$)				
Production/Use Function	Category I	Category II	Category III	Total
Primary Production	0.30	0.18	0.31	0.79
Transportation/Handling	0.15	0.09	0.16	0.40
First Tier Usage	0.37	0.23	0.38	0.98
In-Service Elec. Equip.	0.14*	0.13*	0.19	0.46
Non-Electrical Applications	2.16	1.20	2.26	5.62
	3.12	1.83	3.30	8.25

*zero-corrected (see text).

in the mobile environment as of 1972 and 1975 were significantly less than previously estimated.

Removal of PCBs from the MER

The major identified process for removal of PCBs from the MER (as defined above) is land disposal of sewage sludge. Using the estimate of $2.4 \times 10^4 \text{ kg/yr}$ of PCBs in sewage sludge (see the subsection on "Industrial and Municipal Effluents" above), and applying this value over a 20-year period, it is estimated that about $4.8 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$ of PCBs have been removed from the MER via sewage treatment and subsequent sludge disposal.

SUMMARY COMPARISON OF INVENTORY

The environmental inventory is summarized in Table 1.27. The total estimated range of domestically derived PCBs in or removed from the environment is between $1.3 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$ and $8.4 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$. These values compare favorably to the estimated MER of $8.25 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$.

The major portion of the environmentally available PCBs is contained in marine waters, accounting for 50 to 80 percent of the total inventory. The total amount of PCBs in the North American Basin is estimated to be $0.6 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$ to $6.6 \times 10^4 \text{ kg}$. In comparison to these values, water concentrations from the Pacific Ocean and Gulf of Mexico attributable to domestically produced PCBs can be considered negligible. It should be noted that the values in Table 1.27 are based on measurements referring mainly to PCBs in Category III and that the high estimate is greater than the estimate of environmental releases of Category III materials. It is possible that some of the oceanic PCBs originate from European as well as North American sources. This compartment appears to be a dominant reservoir for PCBs even if the oceanic inventory is high by a factor of two. The rate at which PCBs will eventually reach land and perhaps become bound to deep ocean sediment, however, cannot be estimated on the basis of current knowledge.

The close agreement between environmental measurements and the results of the model obtained in this analysis should not be interpreted as an indication that biodegradation and other processes of destruction do not occur in the environment. Biodegradation

TABLE 1-7. Summary of Environmental Inventory of Marine-Derived PCBs

Environment	Estimate* (kg)	
	Low	High
Total	1.8×10^5	
Air		
Atmosphere	1.4×10^5	2.8×10^6
Fresh Water Sediments	1.4×10^6	7.1×10^6
Fresh Waters	1.2×10^4	3.5×10^4
Fresh Water Biota		1.8×10^4
Marine Sediments	6.6×10^5	2.7×10^6
Marine Waters	6.0×10^6	6.6×10^{10}
Marine Biota		3.0×10^4
Waste Sludge		4.8×10^6
Waste	1.3×10^7	8.4×10^7
Percentage of Total in Marine Waters	50%	79%

* Because only one estimate was made it is placed between the low and high columns; only two significant digits are used for the numbers and totals.

These values in this estimate may be derived from European sources.

As to the ultimate fate of the PCBs now in the MER, the results, however, do indicate that biodegradation and other processes resulting in chemical alteration of the molecules has not destroyed a major fraction of environmental PCBs at this time.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Because the North Atlantic Ocean appears to be the ultimate sink, further studies are needed to determine PCB concentrations and distribution in the marine environment.

2. Although modeling was useful in assessing large-scale distribution and fate of toxic substances, more complete data bases are needed to develop transport models of environmental pollutants. For example,

further research is needed to determine the problems of transfer between the environmental compartments.

3. EPA should continue to develop better analytical techniques, particularly those enabling assessment of the extent of PCB fractionation. Because of continuing analytical problems it is difficult to determine the extent of ecosystem contamination. For aquatic systems, the most effective indicator of both the degree of PCB pollution and the potential hazards to humans and wildlife is the PCB content of fish. To effectively use this indicator, factors such as age, species, and nutritional habits of fish must be considered. Detailed information on the individual PCB isomers should also be reported together with the specific Aroclor designation.

4. Freshwater sediments are important continental sinks for PCBs and special attention should be given to monitoring programs and studies of PCB cycling from sediment through human food chains.

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2

POLICY
ASSESSMENT

The data presented in Chapter 1 indicate the extensive environmental distribution of PCBs and the existence of several localized hot spots for which removal or cleanup action may be justified. State and federal officials have been coordinating efforts to reduce PCB levels at the hot spots and to prevent future contamination (U.S. EPA 1978a,b; Hetling et al. 1978). This chapter will attempt to determine the costs of alternative control and cleanup policies and the potential benefits to human health and the environment.

CONCEPTS OF BENEFIT-COST ANALYSIS

Benefit-cost analysis evaluates beneficial and adverse effects of a proposed action in terms of a common monetary unit, like dollars. (For detailed discussions of benefit-cost analysis and its relationship to the underlying principles of welfare evaluation, see Prest and Turvey 1965, and Hareman and Weisbrod 1975.) Alternative actions are ranked according to net benefits, that is, benefits minus costs. Social good is measured in terms of the monetary value of net benefits.

without regard to whom the benefits accrue. The bulk of the practice of benefit-cost analysis involves the development and implementation of rules for estimating or inferring monetary values for beneficial and adverse effects where these are not directly measurable.

Measuring Benefits

Many benefits are a measure of changes in utilities or satisfaction of individuals. It has been said that to economists, "Man is the measure of all (economic) things"; thus, human preferences provide the basis for measuring and measuring economic benefits. Only those benefits that individuals use either directly or indirectly can be included in a measure of benefits. It means that some effects cannot be measured in economic terms, e.g., certain ecological effects, such as variations in the size of species populations, or changes that affect freshwater or marine trophic systems. However, where such ecological changes affect economically exploitable resources, such as fisheries or the use of ecological systems for outdoor recreation, these effects can be expressed in economic measures of benefits.

The benefits of controlling chemicals such as PCBs accrue to individuals and society either directly in the form of increases in the availability of goods and services (e.g., improved health or improved recreation opportunities), or indirectly through increases in production efficiency. Assigning monetary values to benefits resulting from chemical control policies involves three distinct stages, each of which must be understood if the benefits are to be measured.

1. Stage One: Reduction in the quantities of chemicals released into the environment leads to reduction in the concentration found in various environmental reservoirs.
2. Stage Two: Understanding the functional relationships between changes in chemical releases and changes in ambient chemical levels is a complex matter, yet these processes must be understood before the benefits of chemical regulation can be estimated.

Stage Three: Changes in ambient chemical concentrations lead to changes in human use of the environment.

Stage Three: The effects of changes in ambient quality have their counterpart in changes in an aggregate willingness to pay for uses of the environment. Here the economic concepts of demand and value are central to the analysis. However, the successful implementation of the valuation process of Stage 3 must often await the development of a better knowledge of the physical, ecological, and other processes governing Stages 1 and 2.

Costs

The costs of a regulatory action are defined and measured by determining which utility or benefit opportunities are foreclosed by the action. The control of chemical contamination involves the use of scarce resources that might otherwise have been put into different activities. Costs associated with these "new" uses are called "opportunity costs" and can be measured in monetary terms by society's or the aggregate willingness to pay for those items that must be given up.

How can the opportunity cost of regulation be measured? When regulation requires producers to use real resources such as labor, capital, and materials for the installation of treatment and control equipment, special handling of materials, or development of special disposal methods, the market values of these resources can be taken as measures of opportunity cost. For example, under certain conditions wages are a measure of the marginal productivity of labor in the economy and therefore reflect the value of other goods foregone when labor is diverted from one sector of the economy to another to control chemicals.

Regulatory actions may also reduce the availability of goods and services to consumers in a more direct manner. For example, regulation may take the form of a ban on a particular chemical or the

production of particular goods using the chemical as an input, or it may involve restrictions on allowable chemical tolerances in food (e.g., the FDA maximum PCB concentrations in fish). Such policies do not absorb resources directly, but they do impose costs in the form of losses in consumer welfare. In some cases, the cost of substituting alternative goods for those banned by regulation provides a basis for an estimate of true economic cost. A well developed economic methodology exists for making estimates of this sort.

Economic Impacts

Other types of economic impact associated with regulatory decisions can be described and quantified in monetary terms, but they are not commensurate with the efficiency benefits and costs described earlier. The incommensurability arises because the measures of impact are usually based on changes in the total volume of a particular class of economic production rather than on changes in the quantities of goods and services available to consumers. The distinction is similar to the one often made in the public cost literature between real and pecuniary costs (Haveman and Weisbrod 1975).

To illustrate the point, consider the case of a chemical plant that closes because of regulatory action, thus terminating an annual million-dollar payroll. This closing has economic impact on a region, but it is not necessarily a real cost in the sense of a reduction in available goods and services. The relationship between the measure of impact and the measure of cost depends on the ability of the labor force and other resources and how speedily adjustments can be made. These factors vary widely from case to case. Where a firm or an industry reduces output because of governmental regulations, there is a cost in economic efficiency only to the extent that, for a time, resources remain unemployed or underemployed. Lost output is an appropriate measure of cost in this case. The cost of resources absorbed in relocation or other activities required to speed the adjustment process (e.g., labor training programs) should be taken into account. If workers laid off from a plant find alternative employment immediately and at the same wage, there is no cost other than the expense of relocation. If the

labor force can find alternative employment, there is a cost in the form of lost output, and the lost payroll may be used as a measure of this cost.

COST-EFFECTIVENESS ANALYSIS

A cost-effectiveness analysis can be used in circumstances where a desired level of beneficial effect has been established and where the policy has been set to achieve that level at minimum cost. A cost-effectiveness criterion ranks alternative policies in terms of the cost required to achieve the given level. Because all the policies being evaluated achieve the same level, the beneficial effect will be the same and the various options will differ only in terms of their costs. One advantage of cost-effectiveness analysis is that problems created by the noncommensurability of benefits and costs are avoided. It should be noted, however, that whereas this type of analysis can be useful in evaluating alternative options for achieving a specific goal, it cannot be used to determine the choice of the goal itself.

EFFECTS ON HUMAN HEALTH AND THE ENVIRONMENT

As the data presented in Chapter 3 and Appendix D indicate, the major effects on human health and the environment resulting from exposure to PCBs take the form of subtle impairments rather than gross morphological or pathological changes. Acute exposure of either humans or wildlife rarely occurs, and those effects that have been observed are the result of cumulative contacts over long periods of time. The section entitled "Assessment of PCB Hazard" in Chapter 3 presents the scientific evidence relating to PCB toxicity and illustrates some adverse effects of unintentional release of the chemical to the environment.

Effects on Human Health

Exposure of humans to PCBs can occur through a number of different routes--occupational exposure, ingestion of contaminated foods or fish, exposure to contaminated

ground water, and transmission from mother to child through breast feeding. The levels of contamination are generally low, except where occupational exposure or direct contact occurs. Because of the low concentrations and the subtle nature of the toxic effects, it is extremely difficult to assess precisely the modifications that may have arisen in the health of human and animal populations as a result of environmental exposure to PCBs (see Table 3.6, Chapter 3). Well-documented cases of PCB intoxication in the human population have been limited to industrial accidents involving workers directly responsible for PCB production, excessive exposure to manufactured products containing PCBs, and consumption of edible products contaminated with PCBs during processing (Matthews et al. 1978).

Some of the nonspecific effects on health that may be attributed to low-level exposure to PCBs are abnormal fatigue, abdominal pain, numbness of limbs, swelling of joints, chronic cough, menstrual irregularity, and headache. Abnormal tooth development, hyperpigmentation, and low weight in newborn children also may be complications resulting from PCB exposure. Abnormalities in blood lipids, anemia, lymphocytosis, and adrenocortical hypofunction have been recorded in a number of chronic diseases associated with PCB intoxication. In addition to dermatological abnormalities, such as acne and hyperpigmentation, there have been suggestions of increased incidence of cancer in some of the Japanese who were exposed to PCB through contamination of cooking oil (Urabe 1977, Umeda et al. 1978).

Other potential nonspecific abnormalities that may occur as a result of chronic exposure to PCBs have been suggested by controlled experiments using nonhuman primates. In addition to alterations in the menstrual cycle and births of abnormally small infants, nonhuman primates experienced a greater frequency of early abortions following low-level exposure to PCBs (see Table 3.6, Chapter 3). Infants born to mothers exposed to PCBs during gestation and lactation also show some loss of immunological competence as well as learning and behavioral deficiencies. These abnormalities persist indefinitely.

Even though a large percentage of the human population has been exposed to varying amounts of PCBs, primarily through the food chain (i.e., contaminated

fish, livestock, vegetation, and human milk), no well-documented cases of health problems associated with such environmental exposures exist. Thus, a detailed evaluation of the effects on human health in the general population is not currently available, although there are indications that even limited exposure to PCBs may produce injurious effects that will be difficult to detect even with close scrutiny.

Effects on the Environment

Assessment of effects on the environment is even less clear-cut than analyses of problems associated with health. The data in Chapter 1 suggest that PCBs are found in many places. However, as the results in Chapter 1 indicate, the toxic effects are subtle and difficult to detect. Reduced reproductive capability is the most common result of exposure to PCBs among many species. But other morphological and functional changes are noted as well, particularly in the livers of test animals. PCBs accumulate in adipose tissue, and it has been suggested that severe effects could arise when the animal is under sufficient stress to mobilize the PCB-containing lipids. Because PCB concentrations are magnified as the compound moves through food chains (see Appendix D, Bioaccumulation), the most pronounced toxic effects are noted in the upper trophic levels. Excessive accumulations may lead to reduction in the size of populations and to consequent alterations in the composition of communities and, ultimately, of the ecosystem.

ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF PCB CONTROL STRATEGIES

In principle there are three categories of options for controlling or reducing potentially adverse effects of PCBs on health and the environment. They are:

- reducing the flow of additional PCBs into the environment (reducing or eliminating direct discharge of PCBs as an industrial waste product or controlling the use and disposal of materials currently in service that are contaminated with PCBs);
- controlling the exposure of populations
- regulatory measures, such as limiting consumption of

discouraging the practice of breast feeding, or imposing strict limits on permissible levels of PCBs in milk and

including stocks of PCBs in environmental reservoirs (dredging river sediment, cleaning or reopening existing landfills previously used for disposal of products containing PCBs, or enhancing biodegradation rates).

It is possible to assess, if only approximately, the cost and effectiveness of specific control strategies drawn from one or all of these three categories.

Cost Effectiveness of Control Strategies

The following specific control options have been considered for this report.

1. Governmental Regulations on Disposal of PCBs. EPA has published final regulations on the disposal of substances containing PCBs (U.S. EPA 1978a) and is currently considering revisions and additions to the regulations (U.S. EPA 1978b).

2. Dredging and Disposal of Contaminated River Sediment. The Department of Environmental Conservation in New York State has evaluated proposals to dredge sediment contaminated with PCBs from the upper Hudson River as a means of controlling further flow of PCBs into the estuary. Analyses are underway to determine the technological feasibility of effectively reducing PCB levels in various localized "hot spots" (Hetting et al. 1978).

3. Limitations of Permissible Residues in FDA Regulated Products. The FDA has implemented a temporary set of tolerances for PCB residues in several classes of food and currently has under consideration a proposal for further reductions (U.S. FDA 1977b). These limits apply to milk and dairy products (current limitation--1.5 mg/kg, proposed level--1.5 mg/kg fat basis), poultry (current limitation--5.0 mg/kg, proposed level--1.0 mg/kg fat basis), eggs (current limitation--0.5 mg/kg, proposed level--0.3 mg/kg), and fish and shellfish (current limitation--5.0 mg/kg, proposed level--2.0 mg/kg). The FDA reports that in all categories, except fish and shellfish, the observed contamination levels are well below the proposed limits. Therefore, the only

portion of the proposed regulation would be concerned with commercial distribution of fish and shellfish.

For each option we assess effectiveness in terms of the quantities of PCBs removed from the environment and destroyed or immobilized, or as in the case of the FDA regulations, the quantity of PCBs prevented from entering the human diet. In each case, we assure perfect compliance with the regulations. We also provide estimates of the cost-per-kg affected for each option. These estimates do not include administrative costs or the costs of inspection, policing and other enforcement activities.

Controlling Use and Disposal. Table 2.1 summarizes the available information on costs of existing and proposed regulations governing use and disposal of PCBs. The values were derived from two reports commissioned by EPA (Versar, Inc. 1977, Westin et al. 1978), and from additional information provided by the Agency's Office of Toxic Substances. The data upon which the costs are based are presented in Appendix B.

The first column of Table 2.1 presents the quantities of PCBs that would be prevented from reaching the environment, either through destruction or immobilization, for each policy option. The second column gives the total cost of each policy option. The third column provides the average cost of each option in dollars per kilogram of PCB controlled. If within each option there were no variation in the cost-per-kg removed under different circumstances, then this figure could be taken as representing the incremental or marginal cost of removal for that option. Table 2.1 does not address all the EPA regulations, because some data on costs are not available. Also the proposed EPA regulations would impose no special requirements on disposal of small appliance capacitors or high intensity and fluorescent lighting ballasts, although estimates indicate that nearly 81.8×10^6 kg of PCBs are contained in these items and are currently in service (Westin et al. 1978). The Committee does not at present have estimates of the cost of controls on these PCB materials.

The ranking of options in Table 2.1 is based on the assumption that PCB releases prevented by each regulation would have resulted in equivalent

TABLE 2.1 Costs and Quantities Controlled for EPA Regulations on Use and Disposal

Policy	Quantity Controlled (kg)	Control Costs ^b	Average Cost Per kg
A. Incinerate fluids from PCB transformers (required)	123,000,000	\$ 75,000,000	\$.61
B. Shred and incinerate high voltage capacitors (required)	90,900,000	\$350,000,000	\$ 3.85
C. Shred and incinerate low voltage capacitors (required)	31,800,000	\$143,000,000	\$ 4.49
D. Flush and drain transformers after A. (required)	12,300,000	\$105,000,000	\$ 8.50
E. Place transformers in chemical waste land-fill (required) ^a	1,360,000	\$ 45,100,000	\$ 33.16
F. Replace PCB-containing electromagnets and incinerate fluid (proposed)	100,000-150,000	\$ 2,800,000-3,400,000	\$ 18.67-24.00
G. Replace PCB-containing			
fluids in mining equipment (proposed)			
(1) Loaders	13,000	\$ 2,000,000	\$ 155.00
(2) Continuous Miners	1,136	\$ 640,000-2,240,000	\$ 561.00-1,970.00
H. Drain and incinerate mineral oil transformer fluids if contaminated by more than 50 ppm PCBs (proposed) ^c	10,900	\$612,000,000-769,000,000	\$70,000.00-70,500.00
I. Flush and replace contaminated hydraulic fluids in die casting (proposed)	data incomplete ^d	data incomplete ^d	\$133,000

^aIt is assumed that transformers will be disposed of in chemical waste landfills rather than by incineration.

^bOptions A through E will be undertaken as PCB-containing equipment is taken out of service. For example, some PCB-containing transformers may remain in service for up to forty years. The control costs here will be incurred over the useful life of the equipment in question. These costs have not been discounted to the present. Discounting would reduce computed control cost, and would have the greatest effect on control options affecting transformers and transformer fluids. Discounting would have relatively little effect on options F through I, since these options would have to be undertaken shortly after the effective date of the proposed regulations.

^cFluids with greater than 500 ppm are covered by Policy A.

^dIncremental costs are estimated from average costs per die-casting machine. Aggregate costs and quantity controlled are not known because of lack of data on the number of affected machines.

SOURCE: Modified from Vorsatz (1977), Weston et al. (1978).

environmental and health risks. However, some forms of release could be potentially more threatening than others, especially to health. For example, continued release of PCBs in mining equipment (option G) could subject workers to significant risk of severe contamination. Even with this qualification, the data of Table 2.1 indicate a classic pattern of increasing marginal costs of control, rising to extremely high levels for the last increments of material controlled. The options listed could, if implemented, control a total of 260×10^3 kg of PCBs. Virtually all control is accomplished with options A through E at average costs of \$33/kg or less. The remaining options listed (F through I) would contribute less than 0.1 percent to further control PCBs and would add significantly to the total cost: marginal costs of the last option rise to more than \$100,000/kg of PCBs.

Dredging Hudson River Sediment The New York State Department of Environmental Conservation has examined several options for dredging contaminated sediment in the upper Hudson River and encapsulating it in special landfill sites. Information on these options is presented in Table 2.2. Maintenance dredging refers to routine maintenance of river channels. Although some PCBs would be removed by this dredging, the only portion of the cost that can be properly attributed to PCB control is that associated with encapsulation of the dredge spoils. During the summer of 1978, the state removed portions of the remnant deposits and stabilized the remainder. This appears as option B in Table 2.2. Each of the remaining policy options (C through E) involves more comprehensive and extensive dredging operations than option A, and thus greater costs.

Incremental costs and quantities of PCBs removed have been calculated from data presented by the New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (Hettinger et al. 1978). These control costs are computed on the basis of encapsulation of the dredge spoils rather than destructive incineration of sediment contaminated with PCBs. If incineration were employed, costs would be higher. The data show increasing incremental costs as larger quantities of PCBs are removed. These dredging costs are higher than the least costly use and disposal regulations of EPA (options A through E, Table 2.1), but well below the most costly EPA proposed regulations. The cost-effectiveness measures for the Hudson River

Policy	Quantity Controlled (kg)	Incremental Control Costs (\$)	Average Cost (\$/kg)
A. Maintenance dredging	21,190	\$ 2,300,000	\$ 110
B. Partial removal of remnant and stabilization of remainder (performed during summer of 1978) ^a	7,700	\$ 570,000	\$ 65
C. Remove remaining stabilized remnant deposits	15,130	\$ 3,300,000	\$ 219
D. Not spot dredging	77,000	\$ 27,400,000	\$ 357
E. Remove all river sediments	55,400	\$175,300,000	\$1,150
Cumulative Total	176,500	\$284,000,000	

^aQuantity controlled is based on revised data received from Officerine and Quinn, New York State Department of Conservation, personal communication, 1978.

^bRemnant refers to sediment exposed by removal of the Fort Edward Dam in the summer of 1973.

SOURCE: Modified from New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (1978).

dredging options are based on the assumption that dredging and disposal of spoils do not of themselves pose significant environmental hazards (Hettinger et al. 1978).

Maximum PCB Content of Fish for Human Consumption If a limit on the amount of PCBs in fish were imposed, the economic productivity of fisheries would be reduced. Fish with PCB content exceeding the limit would have to be destroyed, and it is likely that fishing for certain species in contaminated areas would cease.

The cost of imposing a maximum limit on allowable PCBs in fish would be the value of the reduction in the economic productivity of fisheries. Precise measurement of this loss is difficult in practice. For simplicity, it can be assumed that the effect of the limitation on the total output of fisheries would be so small that there would be no change in the price of fish. The EPA (1977) economic analysis is based on this assumption, which seems plausible. At one extreme, the

assumption would be that fishing activity continues at the same level, but that catches contaminated by PCBs in excess of the limit would be confiscated and destroyed. The resulting reduction in sales revenue at the dock (lost value) can be taken as a measure of the economic cost at the limitation. It has been estimated that the proposed 2 mg/kg temporary limit for fish would result in a loss in landed value of \$1 million for marine fisheries and \$7 million for freshwater fisheries, the latter located primarily in the Great Lakes region (U.S. FGA 1977a). However, landed values are likely to overestimate real net losses because at least some of the capital and labor, whose productivity is impaired, could be deployed elsewhere.

The assumption at the other extreme would be that particular fishing activities are decreased, but that capital and labor in this fishery would be able to move without productivity losses to other activities, such as fishing for other species or moving to other waters. In this case, the loss in output of fisheries would be exactly offset by the increase in output of other areas as resources would be diverted from one use to another.

Neither extreme is likely to be an accurate representation of the real world. There will be changes in levels of activity and movements of resources in response to any limitation on PCBs. But capital and labor in fisheries are specialized resources and not perfectly mobile. Shifts in resources will occur, but only with a time lag and some reduction in productivity. Rough estimates of cost associated with limiting PCB concentrations in fish would require better data and more careful analysis than we are able to provide. Therefore, for purposes of this study, \$8 million is taken as an upper-bound estimate of the economic cost to commercial fisheries resulting from the FDA limit on PCB levels in fish.

The economic impact can be translated into a crude estimate of the cost-per-kg of PCBs avoided in the human diet as a result of the regulation. If, as a first approximation, it is assumed that the average landed price of PCB-contaminated fish is \$0.44/kg, an \$8 million loss in landed value is equivalent to a reduction of 18.2×10^6 kg in the catch. Since the FDA proposal would lower the allowable PCB content from 5 mg/kg to 2 mg/kg, we assume that the average concentration in affected fish would be 3.5 mg/kg. Thus, the limitation would reduce total PCB input to the

human diet by 18.2 x 10⁶ kg. \$18,200 would be the estimated cost-per-kg of the cost-per-kg avoided in the human diet. The FDA also estimated that the incremental loss in landed value from lowering the tolerance from 5 mg/kg to 2 mg/kg would be \$10 million. By similar calculations, the cost for avoiding an additional 24 kg of PCBs in the human diet would be \$293,000/kg.

The FDA limitation applies only to fish entering interstate commerce. If individual states also imposed effective limitations on PCB content of fish caught and consumed by sportsmen, the total cost of controlling the intake of PCBs from fish would be higher but not necessarily the cost-per-kg.

The cost of regulating sports fisheries could take two forms. If the regulation applied only to consumption of fish and not to the fishing activity itself, the utility and value of time spent fishing would be reduced. Even with no change in total sports fishing activity, this reduction in value would constitute a regulatory cost. To the extent that recreational fishing activities were reduced, there would be a further loss equal to their value per day multiplied by the number of days of lost activity. Quantitative estimates of the magnitude of these costs are not available. Total spending on sports fishing activities (for such items as food and lodging during trips, gear, boats, or bait) is not a measure of the potential economic cost of a sports fishing ban, because reduced spending on fishing probably would be offset by increases in other categories of expenditure. Productive resources would be reallocated, and if resources were perfectly mobile, there would be no net loss in the output of the national economy in goods and services.

Cost-Effectiveness of Alternatives

The preceding sections provide estimates of cost-effectiveness for three different categories of control policy, using different measures of effectiveness and allowing for a ranking of options within each control category. The cost-effectiveness measures would be more useful, however, if they could be made comparable across categories. If a kilogram of PCBs released through unregulated disposal were equivalent in environmental impact to a kilogram of chemical process

in the sediment, the cost effectiveness of measures for destroying PCBs and for dredging would be commensurable. If that assumption were to hold, the first six EPA regulations (options A through F) in Table 2.1 could be more cost effective than any of the dredging options. But if EPA were to approve all the proposed regulations (options F through I, Table 2.1), including those dealing with contaminated transformers and die-casting fluids, removal of all Hudson River sediment also would be economically justified. Dredging activities would produce equivalent results in terms of PCB control at costs considerably below those expected of the most expensive EPA regulation.

However, the control of PCBs through dredging operations may not be fully equivalent to regulating PCB use and disposal. The New York State Department of Conservation estimates that about one-third of the mass of PCBs in sediment in the Upper Hudson is subject to erosion by river currents (Netling et al. 1978). Given this estimate and assuming that dredging could not be selectively applied to the most mobile sediment containing PCBs, it would be necessary to remove perhaps 3 kg of sediment for an effect equivalent to destroying 1 kg of PCBs presently in service. To make the costs of dredging comparable to values in Table 2.1, incremental measures of cost for complete dredging would be increased by perhaps a factor of 3. Removal of remnants and hot spot dredging are more selective operations, and measures of cost effectiveness for these options are probably closely comparable to those for regulation of use and disposal.

To make the measures of cost-effectiveness for dredging and regulations of disposal commensurable with the food tolerance proposals, it is necessary to estimate what fraction of PCBs released to the environment would eventually accumulate in fish and shellfish destined for human consumption. The following calculation was used to estimate this fraction. In the Great Lakes, the total quantity of PCBs in sediment is on the order of 3.5×10^4 kg (Table 1.16; St. Lawrence 1974, upper bound estimate). Fishing removes about 2.7×10^4 kg/yr (about 9.0×10^4 kg contaminated at typical PCB levels of about 3 mg/kg). Assuming that such levels will be maintained for 30 years before PCBs are buried or dissipated, about 8×10^4 kg of PCBs would be incorporated in fish and consumed by humans. Hence, eliminating 1 kg of PCBs from the human diet would

require the removal of about 4×10^4 kg from the environment. The figure could be reduced if the largest deposits most likely to contribute to residue in fish could be removed selectively, as discussed above for the Hudson River.

On the basis of these admittedly rough calculations, a conservative estimate is made that 0.25 percent of all PCBs released to the environment enter the diet. This figure was derived from data on the Great Lakes, a relatively closed system; similar calculations for the Hudson River biota indicates roughly 0.30 percent of PCBs released into the environment might enter the diet (Netling et al. 1978). It may be expected that in more open areas, such as estuaries and oceans, a smaller fraction of PCBs would enter the human diet. Thus, the measures of cost effectiveness for the regulation of regulating PCB use and dredging can be made commensurate with the FDA food tolerance proposals by raising them by 400 or more. In other words, removing 1 kg from the human diet at a cost of \$125,000/kg is equivalent to removing 400 kg or more from the environment at a cost of \$312/kg. (It should be noted that this adjustment implies that there are no beneficial effects of dredging and regulation other than impacts on the human diet.)

On the basis of these computations, either of the FDA food tolerances (2 mg/kg or 1 mg/kg) is more cost effective in protecting humans against exposure to PCBs in the diet than the more costly of the EPA proposed regulations for use and disposal. However, hot spot dredging may be a preferred option both because of slightly lower estimated costs-per-kg removed and because of the possibility of preventing other diseases in addition to those to human health. This is not to say that the FDA regulations should be approved or that incinerating contaminated transformer fluids is too costly for policy consideration. Cost-effectiveness data do not constitute an adequate basis for making policy decisions about control options. Although a ranking of options by effectiveness per dollar of resource committed is possible, these data do not tell us how far out and up along the incremental cost curve we should go. To make such determinations, further information is needed on the beneficial effects of controlling PCBs.

It should be noted that it is desirable to establish a hierarchy of options for removal of PCBs from the

including releases of PCBs (Table 2.1) or of existing PCBs already released (Table 2.2). Major estimates of benefits derived from control options include: reduced risks to human health, enhanced economic benefits to commercial and recreational fishing activities, and reduction in pollution damage to the environment. We are not able to make any quantitative assessments of the last two categories, and even a rough estimate of benefits to human health is incomplete and subject to uncertainty.

Many of the risks to human health resulting from PCB exposure are perceived as subtle physical and behavioral changes. Recently it has also been suggested that exposure to PCBs poses a threat of cancer to humans (Nash et al. 1978, Urabe 1977). Numerical estimates are available for the latter type of risk only.

The National Academy of Sciences' Safe Drinking Water Committee (National Research Council 1977) estimated that the lifetime carcinogenic risk to a person ingesting p micrograms of PCBs daily (in drinking water) would be approximately $3 \times 10^{-6} p$. The estimate is derived by linear extrapolation of results from a bioassay for carcinogenesis using rats exposed to Aroclor 1260 at 100 mg/kg in the diet. This estimate has a high degree of uncertainty, for three reasons.

1. The estimate was derived by extrapolating over an unusually wide range of exposures (3 orders of magnitude down for highly exposed persons);

2. No scaling factors were incorporated for extrapolation from potential risks of cancer for rats exposed to low doses to expected risks of cancer for humans exposed to corresponding levels of PCBs; and

3. The estimate was derived only for pure grade Aroclor 1260, without detectable impurities; environmental residues of technical grade PCBs may be more or less hazardous. (See the discussion of PCB impurities in Appendix D.)

The daily ingestion of p micrograms of PCBs would result in a lifetime intake of about $2.5 \times 10^{-6} p$ micrograms. Using the above relationship between exposure and risk, the incremental cancer risk per microgram of PCBs is approximately 1.2×10^{-16} . If the linear risk relationship is assumed to be linear (at least at the margin), the estimate of individual risk may be extended to a population. Neither the

distribution of exposures within the population nor its distribution with age can be ascertained. Assuming a constant, one additional cancer case would only be expected to result from an incremental intake of 2×10^{17} μ g of PCBs; however this intake may be distributed among the U.S. population.

We assume that the economic benefits to society of reducing a general risk of cancer range from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000 per cancer death avoided. (The basis for this is discussed in Appendix C.) Given this assumption, the benefits assigned to the reduction of PCB intake are in the range of \$12/g to \$120/g ($\$12 \times 10^3/\text{kg}$ to $\$120 \times 10^3/\text{kg}$).

To reduce human intake by 1 g, a larger quantity of PCBs must be removed from the environment or withheld from discharges. As discussed above, roughly 400 g or more of PCBs must be withheld to reduce dietary intake by 1 g. Thus, the marginal benefits to be gained from removing PCBs from the environment would be in the range of \$30/kg to \$300/kg.

In addition to the major qualifications stated above, several uncertainties about this estimate should be emphasized.

• The estimate refers only to carcinogenic risks, although other types of risks to health and other forms of benefits may be more important (see Hazard Evaluation, Appendix D for PCB toxicity).

• The costs of PCB removal are compared with putative benefits that might not be realized for 30 to 80 years. If it is considered appropriate to discount benefits over such lengthy periods (0.1 to 0.3 a year), the amount discounted might be in the order of a factor of 100 or more.

• The assumption is made that PCBs released to the environment now will continue to accumulate in fish for approximately 30 years (potential residence time of PCBs in sediment; see Chapter 1). If this estimate is too long, benefits resulting from control options would be correspondingly overestimated. If the estimate is too short, the calculated benefits would be diminished, primarily by the discount rate and not by persistence of the PCBs.

For these reasons, the benefits of controlling PCBs might be overestimated or underestimated by a factor of 10 or more. Accordingly, although the estimate was

range of \$10/kg to \$100/kg for benefits derived from removal of PCBs, it is not possible to state with confidence that these costs are not much higher or much lower.

Considering the great uncertainties in these estimates, health benefits of \$10/kg to \$100/kg of PCBs removal would economically justify only the least costly EPA disposal regulations on strict benefit-cost grounds (Table 2.1). The FDA proposed food tolerance limit may also be justified at this benefit level because the cost involved, adjusted for the ratio of environmental to dietary levels, is only \$312/kg. If we recall that the benefit estimate is only for one category of health effects and that it may underestimate expected benefits by two orders of magnitude, economic justification for incurring incremental costs of \$30,000/kg may be possible on the basis of potential benefits. Several of the EPA proposed regulations and the selective Hudson River dredging options also may be justified since their costs lie within the estimated range of benefits. However, given the range of uncertainty, we cannot rule out the possibility that costs may exceed benefits for all control options considered.

When regulatory decisions such as those assessed here must be made in the face of substantial uncertainty, the final choices involve value judgments and implicit trade-offs by the responsible public officials (see National Research Council 1975 for a more comprehensive discussion of this point). But one additional set of calculations can be made in an effort to illustrate some of the value implications of alternative choices.

In 1968 more than 1,000 people in Japan were exposed to high dietary levels of PCBs from the accidental contamination of rice oil in what has become known as the Yusho incident. The average cumulative dose was estimated to be 1 g/person. (See Chapter 3 for a description of this incident.) The cost of preventing 1 kg of dietary intake (sufficient to provide a Yusho dose to 1,000 people) by lowering PCB limits in fish would be \$15,000, or \$125 per person.

If this were judged as a reasonable price for preventing the magnitude of effects observed in the Yusho victims, the EPA policy as well as maintenance dredging and the other lower cost EPA control options might be economically justified. But by this time of dredging, a justification for the highest cost EPA

disposal regulations would require a value of health benefits of \$30,000 per person to justify the cost of disposal of the Yusho dose. However, there qualitative issues should be made.

1. The PCB levels observed in fish would not provide the Yusho dose to small numbers of people at currently typical levels of fish consumption. Rather larger numbers of people would receive only 1 to 2 percent of the Yusho dose. Thus, the above comparison would be valid only if the dose-damage relationship were linear throughout this range.

2. The Kanechlor involved in the Yusho incident was contaminated with unusually high levels of polychlorodibenzofurans; these may have been responsible for some portion of the observed effects on health (Miyata et al. 1977).

3. Accumulation of the 1 g dose by the Yusho victims occurred over a shorter period than would be typical for a person whose diet contained fish contaminated with PCBs.

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 indicate high average or incremental costs with some options for recovering PCBs already discharged or capturing those currently in use to prevent their eventual discharge to the environment. This raises the question of whether it might have been less costly for society to have avoided these problems by preventing the initial production and use of PCBs.

The cost of such an initial prospective ban is measured by the additional cost of achieving equivalent product performance through redesigning equipment and substituting other materials. For these examples where redesign and substitutions are not feasible, we must assess cost factors related to reduced product performance or the maintenance of safety. We cannot accurately estimate these costs, but we can provide an illustrative calculation.

The range of the current cost estimate for banning the use of PCBs in transformers and capacitors is \$14.7 million to \$32.6 million per year (Heston et al. 1974). This represents primarily the costs of substituting materials, redesigning products, and increasing safety factors. Since the upper limit, we assume for precautionary reasons, that the total cost for all redesign of equipment and PCBs is 4 times this amount. There are 100,000 transformers and capacitors in use in the United States. If we assume that the total cost for all redesign of equipment and PCBs is 4 times this amount, there are 100,000 transformers and capacitors in use in the United States.

present value of a time stream of costs evaluated, hypothetically, at the time of the first introduction of PCBs into commercial use. If we assume infinite time and a discount rate of 8 percent, the current value of costs to ban PCBs would have been \$1.6 billion. Cumulative production of PCBs has amounted to about 650 x 10³ kg since 1930 (Westin et al. 1978). Thus the cost per kilogram of avoiding that production and its subsequent damage to the environment would have been about \$2/kg. This is at the low end of the range of cost effectiveness measures.

The calculation suggests that prevention can be more cost effective than control and cleaning up measures. But this should not be interpreted as justifying a decision not to have allowed PCB production to begin for any reasons. First, the costs of such a ban would have to be compared with its anticipated benefits. Second, it is not appropriate to think of the choices as being limited to the two alternatives of no production versus production and use in the current patterns. Instead one should attempt to perform separate benefit-cost calculations for each type of use. Use of PCBs in closed systems with strict controls to prevent distribution of PCBs in the environment might be feasible in benefit-cost terms, especially for those uses where PCBs are particularly valuable. As Table 2.1 shows, costs of collection and destruction for closed system uses are relatively low. The high control costs are associated with recovery of those PCBs that have contaminated other materials or escaped to the environment.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Substantial differences exist in the costs of various options for the control of PCBs. Among the alternatives analyzed--which included EPA proposed regulations on disposal and use, options for dredging and disposal of contaminated river sediment, and FDA regulations limiting permissible residues in fish destined for human consumption--average costs varied by as much as 5 orders of magnitude.

2. Existing EPA regulations on disposal and use are projected to result in the control of 260 x 10³ kg of PCBs with average costs of up to \$11/kg of PCBs controlled. Proposed EPA regulations would increase the

amount of PCBs controlled to 1,000 x 10³ kg.

3. EPA's estimate of the cost of dredging and disposal of contaminated sediment is about \$111/kg.

4. A recent study of the Hudson River indicated that various alternatives for dredging sediment could remove a total of about 178 x 10³ kg of PCBs from potentially mobile river sediment at costs ranging from \$100/kg to \$1,150/kg.

5. It is estimated that up to 0.25 percent of the total PCBs released to the environment enter the human diet; thus at least 400 kg of PCBs would have to be removed from the mobile environmental reservoir in order to achieve a reduction of 1 kg of PCBs in food. This figure (400 kg) is derived using data from the Great Lakes, a closed system; it may be too low for more open systems. FDA limitations on PCB concentrations in commercially distributed fish could reduce PCB input to the American diet by about 64 kg at a cost of less than \$125,000/kg. (A reduction of an additional 34 kg would cost less than \$293,000/kg.)

6. Based on the figures used in the analysis in this report, FDA regulation of PCB limits in fish destined for human consumption appears a more cost-effective method of controlling dietary intake and human health effects than some of the most costly EPA proposed regulations on use and disposal. Some dredging options may be preferable to either EPA or FDA regulations.

7. It is difficult to assess the benefits of controlling exposure to PCBs with currently available information. The analysis in this report estimates the benefits as \$30/kg to \$300/kg of PCBs removed from the environment or withheld from discharge, but notes that even these figures could be high or low by a factor of 100 or more.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Policy makers should use available data to estimate the incremental or average costs of the control options and conducting economic analyses of proposed regulations.

2. As greater control of PCBs is sought, regulations and efforts should be concentrated on those options which are most effective, that is those with the lowest average incremental costs per kilogram of PCBs controlled.

3. Economic analyses should include cost data on all alternatives, not just those under a single agency's

regulatory authority. The analysis could then show--as does the analysis presented in this report--that some options beyond a particular agency's authority may be substantially more cost effective than some that lie within the agency's jurisdiction. A comprehensive, coordinated government policy toward control of pollutants should reflect such findings.

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GUIDELINES FOR EVALUATING THE POTENTIAL TOXICITY OF CHEMICALS

After passage of the Toxic Substances Control Act, a concerted effort was made by various governmental agencies and nongovernmental groups to develop testing guidelines. The guidelines describe the type of data required for an agency evaluation of the potential adverse effects resulting from the manufacture and use of new chemicals. The purpose of this chapter is to determine whether the data required by the guidelines are sufficient for and relevant to making an adequate assessment of potential hazards to human health and the environment.

Draft guidelines were examined that had been prepared by three different sources: the Office of Pesticide Programs (FIFRA, U.S. EPA 1978a), the Office of Toxic Substances (TSCA, U.S. EPA 1978b), and the Environmental Foundation (1978). Basic data requirements were consistent among these drafts; variations generally depended on the intended use of the chemical (e.g., pesticide versus commercial chemical). A summary of the environmental requirements was prepared, and PCB data were compiled accordingly (Appendix D).

The evaluation was performed as though PCBs were new chemicals. Thus, when the requirements for particular

uses of PCBs were considered, the following information was used:

Protective coatings, including coatings for pipes, to prevent die-casting (to replace natural forest heat-transfer agents).

SOURCE: Taken from Penning (1970).

data depended on anticipated exposure or use patterns (e.g., teratogenic, reproduction, or some chronic testing), decisions about whether to include chronic data in the assessment were made based upon information regarding the original uses of PCBs (Table 3.1), rather than upon our knowledge of the ultimate exposure and environmental distribution. By 1930 commercial PCBs were being considered for use in protective coatings, such as varnishes and lacquers, in investment die-castings, and as heat-transfer agents (Penning 1930). Testing was under way to determine suitability for other uses, such as waterproofing, textile flame-retardant, and artificial leather finishing, but full-scale expansion of PCB use did not occur until much later.

GENERAL TESTING REQUIREMENTS FOR EVALUATING TOXIC SUBSTANCES

A comparison of the proposed EPA testing guidelines was made to identify those elements common among drafts. Test protocols were similar for most required data. TSCA guidelines followed FIFRA requirements rather closely. The major differences between the guidelines involved the prescribed sequences of hazard evaluation tests and criteria for the choice of particular tests. Summaries of the guidelines data requirements are presented below followed by comments of the Committee wherever appropriate.

Chemical Identity

Product Identity and Disclosure of Ingredients. Complete information on the components of the product is required. It should include, to the extent possible, the chemical, trade names of manufacture and distribution, and that can reasonably be identified. The following information is included:

3. the chemical name from the Chemical Abstracts Index of Nomenclature, or other well-known names;
4. the Chemical Abstracts (CAS) registry number;
5. the product name, trade name, and common name (if published);
6. the experimental or internal code number;
7. the molecular (empirical) formula and the weight or molecular weight range for each ingredient; and
8. the structural formula for each organic ingredient.

Committee's Comments: It is uncertain whether a fixed order of presentation will be established for this information. However, because many substances submitted for approval will be mixtures such as PCBs, the following sequence may be most appropriate for identifying a product:

1. the product name, trade name, and common name;
2. the experimental or internal code number;
3. for each ingredient:
 - the chemical name from the Chemical Abstracts Index of Nomenclature;
 - the Chemical Abstracts (CAS) registry number;
 - the molecular formula and structural formula (for organic, organo-inorganic, and inorganic compounds whenever appropriate); and
 - the molecular weight or weight range.

Description of Manufacturing Process Guidelines require that application for approval of manufacture or new use, in both, include information regarding the basic manufacturing process as well as information on the composition of the starting and intermediate materials.

Declaration of Unintentional Ingredients An indication of whether unintentional ingredients are formed is required along with information on intentionally added ingredients; identification of components that might reasonably be detected as present in amounts of 0.01 percent or more of product weight are to be included.

Committee's Comments: A variety of chemical contaminants is present in manufactured products in amounts less than 0.01 percent of product weight.

For example, as shown in Table 3.2, the amount of chlorodibenzofurans (CDFs) reported in analytical samples of commercial PCB products is substantially below this limit, and low-level exposures to CDFs have been reported to produce toxic effects in animals (Zitko et al. 1973, Nisbet 1976, Oishi and Hiraoka 1978, Oishi et al. 1978, International Agency for Research on Cancer/IARC, in press). Thus a listing of all identifiable "contaminants" or unintentionally added ingredients should be required to make possible a proper evaluation of the potential toxicity of new compounds. For those ingredients known to be or suspected of being hazardous, an expected maximum limit within the product should be stated, even if this limit is less than 100 $\mu\text{g/g}$ of product weight.

Declaration and Certification of Ingredient Limits

Estimates of upper and lower limits should be established for each ingredient as well as for any impurities known to be present. The limits should be presented as percentages of the total product.

Committee's Comments: In addition, quantities should be established for impurities that may be expected to arise during normal use of the product and under specified disposal conditions.

TABLE 3.2 Amounts of Chlorodibenzofurans Detected in Commercial PCB Mixtures

		$\mu\text{g/g}$
Aroclor	1248	2.0
	1254	1.7
	1260	1.9
	1015	ND (less than 0.01)
Clophen		
A-60		3.4
Phenoclor		
DP-6		11.5
Kanechlor	307	1.9
	400	11.9
	500	1.0
	693	1.6

ND indicates not detected.

Source: Modified from Nisbet, 1978.

Analytical Methods. General requirements include descriptions of analytical methods (or references to commonly recognized analytical techniques in the published scientific literature) for detecting and measuring the concentration of ingredients or impurities. The techniques should include extraction procedures, confirmatory methods, and validation procedures, including background (or blank) values and recovery values; and they should be capable of detecting and measuring ingredients or impurities in quantities of 0.01 percent or more of total product weight.

Committee's Comments: In addition to methods for product analysis, methods for detecting and determining ingredient or impurity levels in environmental media should be required for frequent use in monitoring programs. Detection and measuring capabilities must be in the range of biologically significant quantities, if they are known, rather than at a limit of 0.01 percent of product weight.

Physical and Chemical Data

Data are required on the physical and chemical properties of the technical grade of each active ingredient present in the product. These must include color, odor, melting point, solubility, stability, octanol/water partition coefficient, physical state, density or specific gravity, boiling point, vapor pressure, pH, storage stability, flammability, oxidizing or reducing action, explosiveness, miscibility, toxicity, corrosion characteristics, and dielectric constant voltage. The FIFRA guidelines apparently require data on all these properties for each new chemical. TSCA requirements are more flexible, depending on use of the chemical, testing condition, and number of measurable parameters.

Committee's Comments: Required data should be relevant to assessing the hazard potential of the substance. They should be presented for known impurities as well as active ingredients. In the context of assessment of the chemical's environmental fate, the reactions of interest are those that determine the stability of a compound

in the environment. These include hydrolysis, photolysis, biodegradation, and reactions with soil, sediment, or biota, as well as reactions with oxygen, light, or other environmental factors.

The stability assessment may be qualitative, based on a comparison of physical and chemical properties of the substance with those of other chemicals whose environmental properties and effects are known, or the analysis may be quantitative, based on models and quantitative structure-activity relationships.

Mobility of the substance in the environment can be judged qualitatively from its physical properties, such as water solubility, boiling point or vapor pressure, or octanol/water partition coefficient. Quantitative estimates may be possible also, based on physical and chemical properties as well as additional data, such as the volatilization rate constant/re-aeration rate constant ratio, and partition coefficients for natural sediments (Smith et al. 1977).

A variety of reactions including oxidation, reduction, hydrolysis, elimination or substitution may affect the substance in the environment. The science of reactions and reactivities is still largely in the empirical stage, but it is generally possible to predict appropriate pathways by considering functional groups present in the molecule. When reaction rates have been measured for suitable model compounds, correlations of reactivity based on electronic and steric factors can be used to estimate reactivity values. Although physical-organic chemistry provides tools for making predictions, more data on model compounds are needed to increase the reliability of the predictions.

A more complex situation occurs with photochemical reactions. Here again, photochemists can generally predict from the functional groups present in a molecule and from the visible and ultraviolet spectrum (which is generally less predictable from the structure), whether the molecule will absorb actinic light and therefore be photoreactive. On the other hand, there are no predictive correlations regarding quantum yield, and several reaction paths are available to a photoreactive molecule, there is little or no available

information regarding the relative importance

of the various reaction channels. Whereas many photochemical reactions have quantum yields less than unity (and most are accompanied by considerable energy wastage, so that a large fraction of the light absorbed is simply degraded to thermal energy), there are some that produce free radicals and may thus involve light-induced chain reactions. Chain lengths in such reactions are complicated functions of initiation, propagation, and termination rates and therefore, are not predictable with any degree of confidence in uncontrolled environments. For these reasons it generally will be necessary to do experimental work on the assessment of persistence and the hazards posed by new chemicals in the environment.

Environmental Data

The proposed guidelines require a variety of data with which to evaluate the potential environmental fate of a new chemical. Both FIFRA and TSCA require the types of data described below; differences between the proposed guidelines are noted wherever appropriate.

Chemical Degradation. Degradation studies are required to determine the rate of decomposition and to identify chemical residues that may adversely affect nontarget organisms. Oxidation and hydrolysis tests noting pH- and temperature-dependent properties must be made in both soil and aquatic environments. The TSCA requirements specify that only acid- or base-catalyzed reactions need to be considered. Atmospheric oxidation tests are to be performed only on organic chemicals with vapor pressures greater than 10 mm Hg at 30°C. Oxidation tests in aqueous solutions are required for water-soluble chemicals (solubility ≥ 1 mg/l at 20°C).

Photolysis should indicate intensity and wavelength of radiation. Data must include a material balance, half-life estimate, and the identification of each degradation product present in amounts greater than 10 percent of the product weight. TSCA exempts from photochemical degradation testing those chemicals that have extinction coefficients of less than 0.1 M/cm² at wavelengths greater than 290 nm.

Qualitative predictions of the environmental fate of a chemical must be based on the degradation data. Data on hydrolysis, oxidation, reduction, and photodegradation should be presented as applicable. Qualitative predictions of potential degradation and toxicity of new chemicals are possible through (1) identification of functional groups in the molecule, (2) knowledge of general degradation processes, and (3) toxic properties of similar chemicals. The confidence of such predictions will improve with a better data base. However, although they will prove valuable in determining priorities in the sequence of toxicity tests, the predictions cannot replace the toxicological tests themselves.

The fate of the chemicals undergoing reaction also must be considered. The environmental problem does not end when the chemical itself is transformed, unless it is completely mineralized or converted to species available for normal biological utilization. Transformation products may be more persistent and more hazardous than the parent compound, and thus must be dealt with in any analysis.

Biodegradation. Microbial metabolic transformation may be the major route of degradation in soils and in the aquatic environment. Transformation data must be obtained under aerobic and anaerobic conditions in both soil and water. Information regarding the chemical's effect on microorganism development (bacteria, algae, diatoms, etc.) is required. Data concerning the disruption of such activities as cellulose decomposition, nitrogen fixation, sulfur transformation, and CO₂ efflux are particularly important. In addition, an assessment of potential disruption of wastewater treatment systems must be made.

Committee's Comments: Microbial degradation is probably the major chemical transformation route in soils and aquatic sediment. In addition to the required data, estimates should be made of the biodegradability index (biological oxygen demand [5 days]/chemical oxygen demand $\times 100$, BOD₅/COD) and compatibility with biological waste treatment (i.e., ≥ 50 percent inhibition of activated sludge under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, detailed

studies of biodegradation intermediates should be required for compounds with a low biodegradability index or a low compatibility with waste treatment, or both.

Ecology. Movement of a product through the environment may cause contamination of food webs, loss of usable soil and water resources, and loss of wildlife habitats; test requirements include information on leaching, volatility, adsorption/desorption, and water-dispersal properties.

Bioaccumulation. Data must indicate the extent of accumulation and potential adverse effects on nontarget organisms (in particular, agricultural systems and wildlife). Residue levels and rate of uptake in plants must be determined according to the TSCA guidelines. Fish bioaccumulation studies should use flow-through and closed systems with sunfish and catfish as the FIFRA recommended test species. TSCA requirements specify that fish bioaccumulation should be assessed when octanol/water partition coefficients are greater than 10,000, when solubility in water is less than 0.9×10^{-3} M at 20°C and degradation data indicate persistence. Minnows and sunfish are preferred species for the TSCA guidelines.

Committee's Comments: At least two accounts of relationships between octanol/water partition coefficient and solubility in water have been published. The relationships derived by Chiu et al. (1977) and Morikuchi et al. (1976) give solubilities of 0.966×10^{-3} M and 0.621×10^{-3} M, respectively, for a partition coefficient of 1,000. The solubilities correspond to an accumulation coefficient of 80 to 100 (Chiu et al. 1977). The guidelines could be modified to require bioaccumulation tests with fish only for those compounds with a partition coefficient of 10,000, corresponding to a solubility of 0.02×10^{-3} M to 0.03×10^{-3} M, and an accumulation coefficient of about 500.

Table 3.3. Proposed Testing Levels for Hazard

Level I Tests	Level II Tests	Level III Tests
A. Acute Toxicity	A. Chronic Toxicity	A. Environmental Simulation
B. Short-term Screening	B. Reproductive Tests	B. Metabolic Tests
C. Environmental Chemistry	C. Bioaccumulation	C. Long-term Chronic Toxicological Tests

Hazard Assessment

The FIFRA proposed guidelines of June 1979 contain a hierarchical testing scheme for hazard assessment. Table 3.3 summarizes the anticipated movement through the various tests. The extent to which advancement through the hierarchy is required would depend on two factors:

- results from tests in the previous level (e.g., if there is acute toxicity, proceed to level II; if there is no acute toxicity, no further testing will be required unless environmental chemistry suggests persistence, in which case reproductive tests should be performed); and
- anticipated use patterns (e.g., if use does not indicate repeated human exposure, tests are not required for long-term toxicity, teratogenicity, or reproductive impairment).

The guidelines drafted under TSCA offer a basis for assessing potential risk associated with anticipated use of new chemicals. TSCA proposed recommendations do not include a rigid testing sequence. Manufacturers are given the responsibility for determining which tests should be performed to develop the essential "effortless data" with which scientifically sound assessments of risk may be made. Two sets of studies are described: reference studies and hazard evaluation studies. Reference studies are suggested for all new chemicals unless the manufacturer can show that some are not relevant to a particular substance (e.g., chemical intermediates and substances that are produced and used entirely in closed systems). The reference studies

- acute toxicity studies,
- subchronic toxicity studies,
- reproduction studies,
- teratogenic studies,
- mutagenic studies, and
- short-term predictive oncogenic studies.

Field evaluation studies include chronic toxicity and carcinogenicity tests. Draft guidelines recommend these data from reference studies are not adequate to predict potential toxicity of the new chemical, or when extensive hazard evaluation is considered essential.

The difference between FIFRA and TSCA proposed requirements can be summarized as follows:

- FIFRA establishes a set sequence of tests with specific points for movement through the sequence;
- TSCA allows the manufacturer to determine the extent and sequence of testing deemed necessary for scientifically sound hazard evaluation; exemptions or departures from recommended tests may be permitted if adequate justification can be provided.

General descriptions of the tests specified in both guidelines are presented in Table 3.4.

Tests within the FIFRA scheme proceed from basic laboratory tests to applied field tests. Beyond tests of acute toxicity, wildlife data are required only when use patterns of use suggest exposure in the habitat. When use patterns indicate no anticipated exposure or a minimal level of risk, data from chronic tests are not required.

As with the hazard evaluation tests for wildlife exposure risk, the data required for assessing risk to domestic animals and humans also would depend largely upon anticipated use patterns and results of acute toxicity tests.

In addition to the FIFRA tests for animal toxicity evaluation, TSCA requires assessments of effects on plants, both monocotyledons and dicotyledons. The recommended tests determine effects on plant growth and reproduction. The TSCA guidelines concentrate testing efforts on assessment of risk to human health and do not consider risk to domestic or commercial animals.

There are two basic problems in the FIFRA evaluation scheme:

1. Physical and chemical properties apparently are not used to determine the appropriate testing route for each chemical except for deciding whether reproductive toxicity tests should be performed; and
2. Use patterns combined only with results of acute toxicity tests are inadequate means for selecting further appropriate tests of new chemicals. For example, in this evaluation format chronic data are required for human health assessment only if use patterns suggest repeated exposure over a significant portion of the human lifespan and acute toxicity results are positive; similarly, teratogenicity and reproductive studies are necessary only if significant exposure to humans is expected. The problems associated with these two points are discussed in the following pages using PCBs as the test case.

The relative flexibility of the TSCA guidelines reflects the fact that no single, rigid testing scheme is suitable for the evaluation of all chemicals. In the opinion of this Committee, the flexibility is good. However, the decision to allow exemptions from the test requirements or to require additional testing should not be left to an individual but should be made by a group of experts with backgrounds in chemistry, toxicology, ecology, and agriculture.

ASSESSMENT OF PCB HAZARD

An analysis of PCB data (Appendix D) compiled following the criteria of FIFRA and TSCA proposed guidelines leads to the conclusion that PCBs are persistent, are likely to accumulate. PCBs do not appear particularly toxic for short term exposure, but results are subject to interpretation (Roberts et al. 1977). Based on anticipated patterns of use (Table 3.1), the expected PCB distribution in the environment and the risk for humans through use of lacquers and coatings (PCBs).

[illegible][illegible]

Test	Category	Remarks	Comments
Toxicity Studies	Acute	Toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Chronic	Chronic toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Chronic toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Subacute	Subacute toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Subacute toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Reproductive	Reproductive toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Reproductive toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Developmental	Developmental toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Developmental toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Genotoxicity	Genotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Genotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Carcinogenicity	Carcinogenicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Carcinogenicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Immunotoxicity	Immunotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Immunotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Neurotoxicity	Neurotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Neurotoxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Hepatic	Hepatic toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Hepatic toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Renal	Renal toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Renal toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Respiratory	Respiratory toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Respiratory toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Cardiovascular	Cardiovascular toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Cardiovascular toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Endocrine	Endocrine toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Endocrine toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Immunomodulatory	Immunomodulatory studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Immunomodulatory studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.
Toxicity Studies	Other	Other toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.	Other toxicity studies are required for all chemicals that require TSCA notification.

FIFRA Testing Results

The conclusion reached regarding the potential hazard posed to the environment by PCBs based on FIFRA requirements is questionable. Acute toxicity is observed only for some aquatic invertebrates, but these species are not required test animals in the FIFRA guidelines. Based on anticipated use patterns, the expected human and environmental exposure to the chemical would be primarily from protective coatings. Some risk would be anticipated in occupational situations, but these exposures could be carefully controlled. If the anticipated use had been limited to heat-exchangers and closed electrical equipment, the testing data might not have suggested potential hazard to human health or the environment. In such a case PCBs might have "passed" the toxic substance evaluation. The aggregate data presented in Appendix D and the "real world" experience of more than 40 years of use of this chemical indicate widespread environmental exposure and possible serious health problems. The discrepancy is due to the fact that the current FIFRA protocols for hazard evaluation relate the degree of required testing to proposed uses. The PCB experience provides a useful test of the appropriateness of relating test requirements to projections of chemical uses.

The question of whether projected use patterns give an adequate indication of environmental exposure is complex. The use patterns anticipated prior to manufacture clearly do not give an adequate impression of the hazards associated with accidental release to the environment during manufacture and use, or of the extended problems of environmental release from disposal of equipment containing PCBs. The expanded uses of PCBs after 1970, illustrated in Table 1.5, may suggest increased exposure through disposal of products containing PCBs, but these uses still do not suggest the

TABLE 1.4 Uses of Aroclor 1248

Current Uses since 1970	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Capacitors	X	X		X*		X*			
Transformers				X			X*		
Die casting -- Fenecolor-791C1									
Former Uses									
Heat transfer				X					
Hydraulic/Lubricants							X		
• Hydraulic fluids				X			X		
• Vacuum pumps				X			X		
• Gas-transmission turbines									
Plasticizers									
• Rubbers				X			X		
• Synthetic resins				X			X		
• Carbonless paper									
Miscellaneous									
• Adhesives				X			X		
• Wax extenders				X			X		
• Dewatering agents				X			X		
• Inks				X			X		
• Cutting oils				X			X		
• Pesticide extenders				X			X		
• Sealants and caulking compounds				X			X		

*Discontinued use of these types.

Source: Modified from IARC (in press).

sterility in Mink in North Central United States and Canada (Aulerich and Birkett 1977). In early 1960's, mink ranchers began noticing reproductive complications and excessive kit mortality among their stock. An acute problem was evident by 1967, resulting in an unprecedented 80 percent increase in newborn mortality. Subsequent investigation indicated a strong relationship between kit mortality and the percentage of coho salmon in the mother's diet, as well as the duration of feeding with a salmon diet. Factors such as rancidity, pesticide contamination and mercury poisoning were suspected but were thought not to contribute to the problem.

Experiments with the mink diet were conducted, and the results indicated that diets of 30 percent salmon produced the reproductive problems. Further investigation ruled out salmon per se as the cause, because other species of Great Lakes fish caused similar adverse effects. The following evidence strongly implicated PCBs as the causative factor:

- high PCB residue levels of Lake Michigan coho salmon;
- sensitivity of mink to PCBs;
- similarity of reproductive complications in mink fed coho salmon and those fed diets contaminated with PCBs;
- similarity of clinical signs and lesions observed in mink that died while on diets containing coho salmon and diets containing PCBs; and
- accumulation of PCB residues in mink tissues.

Rice Oil Contamination in Japan (Kuratsune et al. 1972, World Health Organization 1976). In June 1968, Japanese patients suffering from chloracne began appearing at the Kyushu University Hospital. By October of that year the disease was of epidemic proportions, involving more than 1,000 people in 21 prefectures in the western section of Japan. The exposure factor common to these patients was consumption of rice oil produced in February, 1968. Investigation of the manufacturing process identified a leak in a heat exchanger, which resulted in oil contaminated with Kanechlor 400, a 48 percent

contaminated biphenyl. In addition to symptoms associated with chloracne, clinical signs included a decrease in serum transaminases and alkaline phosphatase, respiratory symptoms and chronic bronchitis-like conditions, decrease in conduction velocity in peripheral sensory nerves, diminished growth in young males, and discolored skin on newborns.

Between February and March of 1968, a disease occurred in chickens in the same section of Japan. More than 500,000 animals died. Clinical signs included labored breathing, droopiness, and decreased egg production. Autopsy indicated subcutaneous edema, pericardium, ascites, pulmonary edema, muscular degeneration, and a mottled appearance of the liver. Investigations revealed that the chicken feed had been contaminated with the rice oil contaminated with Kanechlor 400. Subsequent study of the Kanechlor indicated large amounts of chlorodibenzofurans present. The extent of Kanechlor's involvement in the Yusho syndrome is not fully resolved.

Sewage Sludge Problem in Bloomington, Indiana (McCloskey et al. 1978) Residents of Bloomington, Indiana, had been using sewage sludge in fertilizing their gardens. High concentrations of PCBs were reported in the sludge in 1976. An investigation to locate the source revealed that a local electrical firm was using PCBs as an insulator in capacitors. The company had been discharging wastes contaminated with PCBs into the municipal sewage system. By January 1976, sludge samples had mean PCB levels of 479 mg/kg and samples of soil treated with the sludge had mean concentrations of 10 mg/kg.

Health officials conducted clinical evaluations on workers in the electrical firm, their families, and Bloomington residents who had used the PCB-contaminated sludge for fertilizer. Serum PCB levels, alteration in cellular function, and plasma triglyceride levels were examined. Although mean serum levels were relatively high compared to U.S. population groups (workers 72 mg/kg; families 34 mg/kg; residents 18 mg/kg; U.S. population 5 mg to 20 mg/kg) no correlation was detected between the serum levels and the number of years using sludge, total pounds used, or time since the last use. Serum levels of selected liver enzymes increased significantly with PCB levels in serum and plasma triglyceride levels.

Contamination of the Hudson River by PCBs The Hudson River had been contaminated between 1942 to the mid 1970s by PCB effluent from General Electric manufacturing plants at Fort Edward and Hudson Falls, averaging about 16 kg per day. The long-term contamination has polluted virtually the entire river bed for many miles downstream. Bottom sediment below Fort Edward reportedly contains 540 µg/kg to 2,980 µg/kg. The average concentration of PCBs in bass, perch, and sucker is 62 mg/kg to 135 mg/kg.

Contamination of Fish Meal at a Palston Purina Plant (Jaroslovsky 1978) In 1977, a poultry firm began noticing high chemical levels in tissue samples taken from their chickens. The feed supplier was asked to help in pinpointing the cause, and the culprit was found to be fish meal contaminated by PCBs that had been used in formulating the chicken feed.

The fish meal had been prepared and stored in Puerto Rico at a Palston Purina plant warehouse where two electrical transformers containing PCBs were stored also. Contamination of the meal occurred during a fire in April 1977, which damaged the electrical equipment and allowed PCBs to leak out. Water from fire hoses evidently mixed with the PCB fluid and soaked into the stored fish meal. The contamination was not detected and the fish meal was subsequently sold. As a consequence, 400,000 chickens and 15,000 dozen eggs were destroyed. Some of the contaminated feed did not actually contain the PCB fish meal, but the feed had been processed with the same machinery as the fish meal.

It is clear from these illustrations that projected patterns of use may not provide an adequate indication of the eventual distribution of PCBs in the environment or the extent of the hazard this distribution can pose. These incidents were the result of manufacturing and disposal procedures--factors not considered in proposing guidelines for testing new chemicals.

Toxic effects of PCBs in workers exposed in their occupations were noted as early as 1937 and might have been anticipated even earlier from the effects of chlorinated naphthalenes detected during World War I (Jaroslovsky 1949). Had the awareness of toxic chemicals been as widespread as it is currently, the incidents would have been more than sufficient to have prompted the manufacture and use of PCBs or, at least,

... demanded detailed testing that would have provided the chemical's chronic and more subtle toxic effects.

Concluding Results

Physical and chemical properties of PCBs indicate the tendency of these compounds to persist as well as their bioaccumulation potential. The data compiled regarding the Reference Set requirements and the proposed use of PCBs in protective coatings, which would result in some exposure of humans, justify the requirement for Hazard Evaluation Studies. These studies probably would detect at least some of the toxic effects of PCBs. However, it should be noted that most of the chronic tests proposed to assess human health hazards require use of species (rodent plus one other animal) that would not adequately reflect the human body response to PCB exposure. The common laboratory test animals (rats and dogs) do not always respond to PCB exposure in the same manner as humans, and Table 3.6 suggests that no one species exhibits "typical" human symptoms of PCB poisoning except in the case of reproductive tests. Thus proper choice of the test species becomes important when evaluating the potential hazard of any substance.

Although PCBs have been detected in the U.S. human population (Kutz and Strassman 1975, Humphrey 1977), there have been no documented cases of PCB intoxication in humans other than those related to industrial exposure. Effects, when detectable, have been subtle rather than overt. For the most part, the proposed sets of tests for FIFRA and TSCA are designed to detect only overt intoxication. Subtle effects are not considered at all in the scheme proposed for TSCA and only peripherally in those drafted by FIFRA.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Perhaps the two most important properties of a chemical that relate to potential hazards to health and the environment are its persistence and lipophilicity. High scores in these tests that identify these properties should alert officials to the inevitability of environmental contamination and health problems.

TABLE 3.6 Summary of the Reference Set of Tests

Test	Reference
<u>Chronic Feeding</u>	
Aquatic Species	Threshold effects in high bioavailability of vertebrates and invertebrates at levels of 2-5 $\mu\text{g/l}$ Embryo toxicity evident at 50 $\mu\text{g/l}$
Terrestrial Species	Mouse - some liver change with exposure to high chlorine containing products, 100-500 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Rat - some liver changes, minimal reproductive effects, 100-500 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Monkey - Yusho symptoms, altered reproduction cycles, hyperplastic gastritis and ulceration, 2.5-5 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Chicken - some morphologic deformities, reproduction decline, subcutaneous edema, 20-50 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Mink - dose response relationship in growth and reproduction, 10 $\mu\text{g/g}$ Pelican - some hepatocellular changes, 100 μg Duck - reduced growth, some liver changes, 100 μg Mildfowl - some reproduction changes, varies with species, 50-200 $\mu\text{g/g}$
<u>Teratogenicity</u>	Effects seen in avian species, 50-200 $\mu\text{g/g}$
<u>Mutagenicity</u>	Chromosomal aberrations - negative results Dominant lethal mutations - negative results Ames test - 1221, 4 chlorinated compounds significantly mutagenic
<u>Oncogenicity</u>	High chlorinated compounds induce tumors in rats and mice, but not in mice with high fat diet

It should be emphasized, however, that evidence of nonpersistence or nonlipophilicity does not suggest lack of hazard potential.

Physical, chemical, and environmental chemistry data are sufficient to determine persistence and lipophilic properties of chemicals and can be used to predicate potential bioaccumulation and environmental distribution. Therefore, the Committee recommends a multistep evaluation scheme as illustrated in Figure 3-1. This scheme requires first:

- chemical identification of the parent compound, impurities, metabolites, and degradation products;
- determination of physical and chemical properties; and
- assessment of environmental and bioscreening (short-term toxicity) test results for parent compound and metabolites.

At this point, if the data indicate that the chemical is highly persistent or lipophilic, or both, its development for large-scale use should be scrutinized carefully and possible alternatives considered. On the basis of the scrutiny, the chemical may be either rejected or subjected to additional testing. If the data indicate that the chemical is not highly persistent or lipophilic but there are indications of potential hazards, the chemical should be subjected to additional testing. If there are no indications of potential hazards, the chemical may be approved for manufacture and use.

Additional assessment of hazard potential for all suspect substances should include:

- development of a mass balance model of the potential movement of the substance through the environment using data regarding physical and chemical properties and anticipated source function parameters;
- identification of "problem areas" or sites of potential chemical accumulation (e.g., agricultural lands, urban areas, marine or freshwater sources, or combinations of these);
- specification of tests to assess toxic effects within the "problem areas."

Test guidelines should be formulated specifying representative species for each environmental medium and

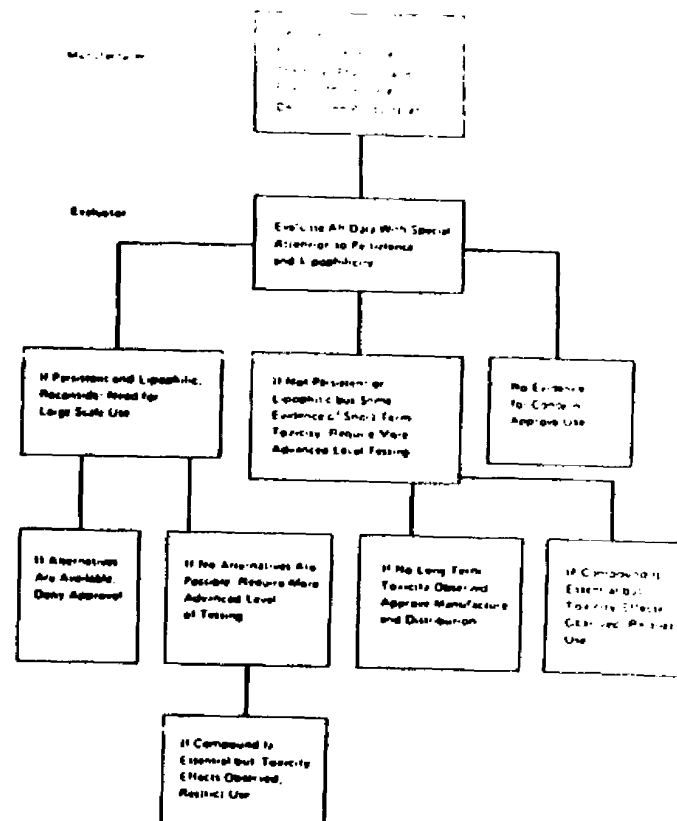


FIGURE 3-1. Evaluation scheme for assessing potential hazards to health and the environment.

those species most appropriate for assessing toxicity to humans. Specified tests should include assessment of:

1. reproductive alterations;
2. pathological effects; and
3. behavioral and learning impairment.

Using such an approach, industry could concentrate its monitoring efforts on identifying effects in specific systems. For example, if the model predicts primary sediment accumulation in the sediment of rivers and streams, the manufacturer could concentrate on assessment of chemicals within these systems, using quick screening tests for other media when results indicated possible contamination of land or air. Monitoring after a product has been marketed should be required to keep industry and government alert to unexpected accumulations, and additional tests and the implementation of appropriate control measures could be initiated as necessary.

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APPENDIX A

AREAS, VOLUMES, AND
MISCELLANEOUS QUANTITIES FOR
CHAPTER 1 CALCULATIONS

The values in this table were used in calculating
the total burdens of PCBs.

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APPENDIX B

COMPUTATION OF INCREMENTAL
COSTS PER KILOGRAM
CONTROLLED FOR EXISTING
AND PROPOSED
EPA REGULATIONS

This Appendix provides computations for each of the average cost figures of Table 2.1. The sources for the data are Versar, Inc. (1977), Weatin et al. (1978), and Steven Malkenson, Office of Planning and Management, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency.

A. Drain and Incinerate Aqueous Fluids from PCB Transformers.

Each transformer contains approximately 1,354 kg of fluid of which 977 kg are PCBs. Draining is 90 percent effective, yielding 1,228 kg of fluid (890 kg of PCBs) for handling and processing. A cost of \$536 or \$0.61/kg of PCB is derived based on the following:

Transportation charge, \$0.07/kg	\$ 81
Incineration charge, \$9.33/kg	401
Handling charge per unit	54
	\$ 436

F. Shred and Incinerate High Voltage Capacitors.

Each capacitor weighs 55 kg and contains 11 kg of PCBs. The cost per-kg destroyed is \$3.86.

Handling and transportation charge, \$0.13/kg	\$ 7.15
Incineration charge, \$0.55/kg	30.35
Handling charge per unit	<u>5.00</u>
	\$42.50

G. Shred and Incinerate Low Voltage Capacitors.

Each capacitor weighs 9.1 kg and contains 1.6 kg of PCBs. A cost of \$7.19 or \$4.49/kg is derived.

Handling and transportation charge, \$0.13/kg	\$1.10
Incineration charge, \$0.55/kg	5.00
Handling charge per unit	<u>1.00</u>
	\$7.19

H. Flush and Drain Transformers and Incinerate Fluid.

Each transformer uses 1,022 liters of solvent at \$0.10/l. Contaminated solvent weighing 1,350 kg must be shipped and incinerated at a cost of \$0.40/kg (see A). In the process removes 90 percent (or 88 kg) of the PCBs remaining after draining. The cost-per-kg of PCBs destroyed will be \$8.50/kg.

Solvent	\$108.00
Transportation and incineration	540.00
Handling charge per unit	<u>100.00</u>
	\$748.00

I. Place Transformer Carcasses in Chemical Waste Landfill.

Disposal costs are estimated at \$3/ft³ or \$0.07/kg with transportation costs of \$0.04/kg. The average weight of the transformer is 2,955 kg and cost per unit is \$325. If each unit contains 9.8 kg of PCBs, the cost-per kg of PCBs immobilized will be \$33.16.

J. Replace Motors Containing PCBs in Mining Equipment.

Westin et al. (1978) estimates that 1.7 units containing 500 kg to 750 kg of PCBs per unit would require fluid replacement at a total cost of \$2.8 million to \$1.6 million or \$18.67/kg to \$35.00/kg.

K. Replace Motors Containing PCBs in Mining Equipment.

The following estimates are based on Westin et al. (1978). The regulations would force the rebuilding of 652 loader motors containing 20 kg of PCBs each at a cost of \$3,100 or \$155/kg. Equipment in service contains a total of 1,145 kg of PCBs. Costs of premature scrapping or replacement of these machines would range from \$640,000 to \$2,240,000 or \$560/kg to \$1,955/kg.

L. Drain and Incinerate Mineral Oil Transformer Fluids if Contaminated by More Than 50 mg/kg PCBs.

Westin et al. (1978) estimates that the cost of testing transformer fluids and subsequent incineration if necessary would range from \$613 million to \$769 million. It is estimated that transformer fluids may be contaminated by 175,000 kg of PCBs. If all of the PCBs were detected and removed, the average cost would be \$3,560/kg to \$1,400/kg. However, this calculation may underestimate the average cost of destruction of PCBs. In the absence of regulation, contaminated fluids were normally used as utility boiler fuel, some fraction of the PCBs would be destroyed in any event. If 65 percent of the PCBs are destroyed when combustion occurs in utility boilers, then the average destruction attributable to the regulation is only 2,750 kg (0.05 x 175,000), in which case the average cost of destruction of PCBs is \$70,000/kg to \$88,000/kg. It should be noted however that the evidence on effective destruction of PCBs in utility boilers is scanty. If for example the destruction rate were as low as 50 percent, the average cost in Table 2.1 would be lower by an order of magnitude.

1. Flush and Replace Contaminated Hydraulic Fluids in Die Casting.

Costin et al. (1973) estimate a cost per machine of \$14,870 and an average PCB contamination of 0.11 lb./machine or \$133,000/kg. However, there may be substantial variation in the degree of contamination in different machines. True average costs would be much lower for a policy directed only at the most contaminated machines, but would rise as the policy was extended to machines with lesser contamination.

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APPENDIX C

THE BASIS FOR THE VALUE OF STATISTICAL LIFE

A number of approaches to assigning monetary values to the loss of life have been proposed or used in the literature on the economics of health and safety. The approaches can be broadly categorized by the way they determine values, i.e., either according to individual preferences (willingness to pay) or according to resource or opportunity costs. The following is a brief evaluation of the two approaches. (For more extensive discussions of alternative concepts of the value of life or safety, see Schelling 1968, Mishan 1971, Acton 1973, and Jones-Lee 1976.)

Willingness to Pay

Conceptually, the more attractive approach is to value increases in longevity or reductions in the probability of death due to accident or illness according to what an individual is willing to pay to achieve them. Individuals often act as if life expectancy were part of a "good", that is, they are willing to trade time and money for goods and services that they value more than the loss of life. Individuals make decisions that

...result in reductions in life expectancy or increased probability of death in return for increases in income, other goods and services, and perceive themselves to be better off because of these choices. Examples would be accepting risky or hazardous jobs because of higher wages, or travelling by air instead of on the ground because air travel is quicker and more convenient.

As these examples make clear, the question is not how much an individual would be willing to pay to avoid certain death tomorrow, but rather how much he would be willing to pay to achieve a small decrease in the probability of death during a given period. This willingness to pay can be translated into a more useful figure for policy evaluation, namely, the value of statistical life or the value of a statistical death avoided. Suppose that in a group of 1,000 similar individuals, each would be willing to pay \$1,000 for a policy that would reduce the probability of death by 1/100. This policy is a form of collective good for the individuals involved. The benefit to the group is found by adding across all individuals. Thus, the aggregate willingness to pay would be \$1 million ($1,000 \times \$1,000$), and the expected number of deaths avoided would be 10. The statistical value per life would be \$1 million divided by 10 or \$100,000.

Two approaches to the empirical measurement of willingness to pay have been used in the literature. One is to observe market transactions where individuals actually purchase or sell changes in their risk levels. For example, if wage differentials among occupations are related to differences in occupational risk levels, these differences might be interpreted as reflecting, at the margin, the individuals' trade-off between risk/safety and money. The other approach is to conduct surveys that ask individuals a series of questions about hypothetical situations involving risk/money trade-offs. If the questions are carefully designed, and if individuals are truly capable of predicting how they would act if placed in these hypothetical situations, their answers may reveal the monetary values they attach to reductions in risk.

There have been two major studies using wage rates to estimate willingness to pay. Both studies are based on the same wage data but they employ different sets of occupational risk data and thus present quite different results. Thaler and Rosen (1976) concluded that the statistical value of life lies between \$140,000 and

\$200,000. Jones-Lee (1976) found a value of \$100,000. There are also differences in the methods used. Jones-Lee used the survey approach to determine values for statistical life. Acton (1973) obtained 186 responses from a stratified random sample of residents in the Boston area. The survey instrument contained a number of questions about attitudes and values pertinent with respect to efforts to save lives in emergency situations. The question of greatest interest concerned the willingness of the individual to pay for a program of emergency coronary care that would reduce the probability of his death from heart attack. Two different forms of the question implied values for statistical life of \$10,000 and \$40,000. Jones-Lee (1976) asked a similar small sample of individuals several questions about their willingness to accept higher air fares to travel on lines that had lower probabilities for a fatal crash. The value of statistical life implied by the respondents was about \$5 million. The disparities suggest that substantially more research is required before reliable estimates of the value of life can be obtained with such techniques. But the results may suggest order of magnitude bounds on appropriate figures.

Opportunity Cost/Human Capital

The more common approach to the valuation of life is the opportunity cost, productivity, or human capital approach which values each life lost at the present level of the earnings that an individual could have expected had the death not occurred. The approach is based on the assumption that earnings reflect the individual's marginal productivity, or the individual's contribution to total economic output.

There are three criticisms of this approach. First, it has no necessary relationship to individual willingness to pay. Second, it allows no role for the probabilistic nature of death and the avoidance of death in the health and safety areas, or for different individual attitudes or preferences toward risk and its consequences. By definition an individual could pay no more than the current value of his earnings to avoid death, although the statistical value of life

the person's willingness to pay for small probability losses could be several times the discounted expected loss stream. Third, the implicit judgment underlying the approach is that an individual is worth what he or she does, or that productivity is the measure of worth.

Because of variation in patterns of earnings over a lifetime and differences among individuals in their experiences in the labor market (including the factor of discrimination), values derived from this approach are crucially to age, sex, and race. For example, at a 6 percent discount rate and 1972 patterns of earnings, saving the life of a white male between 30 and 40 years of age would prevent the loss of about \$180,000 in discounted lifetime earnings. For a nonwhite woman of the same age, the earnings loss prevented would be only about \$70,000 (Cooper and Rice 1976). Some cost-benefit analyses using productivity values have attempted to adjust for these factors. Others have used averages for the population as a whole, while still others studies have added estimates of the direct costs of illnesses as represented by such items as doctors' fees and hospital bills.

Judgmentally Derived Shadow Prices

As indicated above, empirical estimates of the value of statistical life vary within two orders of magnitude, and many of them can be questioned on statistical and conceptual grounds. An alternative to the empirical estimate is the judgmentally determined value or range of values. There are several instances of this approach in the literature on the evaluation of health and safety programs.

The earliest official use of an explicit value of life in the analysis of proposed governmental strategies appeared in the RECAT report (Office of Science and Technology 1972) in which a life was valued at \$140,000 by estimating the costs of fatalities associated with automobile accidents. The figure represents the average foregone participation in the personal income of the victim; it is the product of per capita personal income of \$14,000 times the estimated reduction of the expected earnings of the average accident victim. Another use of a value of life occurred in a report by the National Research Council (1974) where the value of improved

air quality was derived from reducing gasoline residues in the human food chain. Automobiles was arrived at on the basis of \$100,000 per death avoided. Another report by the National Research Council (1978) used a range of \$100,000 to \$1,000,000 per death avoided. Most of the more broadly based empirically derived estimates cited above reside within this range. For these reasons we chose to use this range for the calculations in the text.

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APPENDIX D

CHEMICAL AND TOXICITY DATA AS REQUIRED BY FIFRA AND TSCA GUIDELINES

CHEMICAL IDENTITY

Product Identity

The PCB product contains a mixture of chlorinated biphenyls; each biphenyl can be present as any one of a number of isomers. Table D.1 lists the chemical name and registry number for the most common (IARC, in press).

Synonyms for PCBs include chlorinated biphenyl, chlorinated diphenyl, chlorobiphenyl, polychlorinated biphenyl, and polychlorobiphenyl.

The following trade names have been used:

USA: Aroclor	France: Phenoclor	Italy: Fenclor
Chloreto		
Dykanol	Japan: Kinochlor	USSR: Sovol
Inerteon	Sentotherm	
Noflimal		
Pyranol	FRG: Clorphen	

The molecular formula and weight, percent chlorine, and number of isomers are shown in Table D.2. Further

[illegible]

2.1.3.1-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 1844-28-9
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,3,4,5-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.6'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 13025-41-1
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,3,4,4'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.5'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 4164-19-5
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,5'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.4,3'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 4164-46-8
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',4,5'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.5,4'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 12900-10-8
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,3',4,6'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.5,3'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 12949-90-3
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',5,6'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.6,4'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 13390-11-1
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,3',4,6'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.4,6'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 13390-13-3
Chem. Abstr. Name: 3,3',4,6'-Tetrachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.3,4,6'-Pentachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 13390-14-4
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,3,3',4,6'-Pentachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2.1.3.3,4,5'-Pentachlorobiphenyl

Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No. 18120-43-8
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,4,5'-Pentachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',6-Pentachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33641-64-7
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',6-Pentachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,4',6-Pentachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: none available
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,4',6-Pentachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,4,6,6'-Hexachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33945-78-3
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,4,6,6'-Hexachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',4,6,8'-Hexachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33411-27-2
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',4,6,8'-Hexachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',4,4',5,9'-Hexachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 35065-27-1
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',4,4',5,9'-Hexachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',4,6,8'-Hexachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33365-64-6
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',4,6,8'-Hexachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',4,4',5,8'-Heptachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33265-64-6
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',4,4',5,8'-Heptachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',4,4',5,9'-Heptachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 34411-27-2
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',4,4',5,9'-Heptachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

2,2',3,3',4,4',5,5'-Octachlorobiphenyl
Chem. Abstr. Services Reg. No.: 33945-78-3
Chem. Abstr. Name: 2,2',3,3',4,4',5,5'-Octachloro-1,1'-biphenyl

Table D.2 Composition of Chlorinated Biphenyls

Chemical Formula	Molecular Weight ^a	Percent Chlorine ^a	No. of Isomers
$C_{12}H_{10}$	154	0	1
$C_{12}H_9Cl$	180	18	3
$C_{12}H_8Cl_2$	222	31	12
$C_{12}H_7Cl_3$	256	41	24
$C_{12}H_6Cl_4$	290	48	42
$C_{12}H_5Cl_5$	320	54	46
$C_{12}H_4Cl_6$	358	58	42
$C_{12}H_3Cl_7$	392	62	24
$C_{12}H_2Cl_8$	426	65	12
$C_{12}HCl_9$	460	68	3
$C_{12}Cl_{10}$	494	79	1

^aBased on Cl^{35} .

SOURCE: Modified from Durfee et al. (1976).

(1976). The composition of some commercial mixtures from the United States, Italy, Germany, and Japan are summarized in Table D.3 (IARC, in press; Durfee et al., 1976; Nisbet 1976).

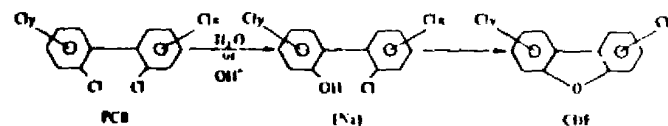
Manufacturing Process

PCBs are produced by chlorination of biphenyl. The process, illustrated in Figure D.1, requires biphenyl, gaseous chlorine, a catalyst such as iron filings or iron(III) chloride, and elevated temperatures. The crude product is purified by alkali wash, sometimes followed by steam distillation (Durfee 1976; IARC, in press; Nisbet 1976; Durfee et al. 1976). A detailed discussion of the manufacturing process of Monsanto (the U.S. producer) is given by Durfee.

The chemical composition of the final product varies with the degree of chlorination and with the length of the alkyl chain employed. Batches of PCBs with the same nominal chlorine content may vary in composition and

in the amount of chlorodibenzofurans (CDFs) present. Chlorination of biphenyls can lead to the formation of CDFs, which are ingredients considerable at 50-100 ppm in some batches of product (Nisbet 1976). In fact, the amount of CDFs (see Table 3.2) of chlorodibenzofurans are detected in PCB mixtures, and quantities may vary from batch to batch.

The fact that different batches of PCBs, even from the same manufacturer, have different amounts of chlorodibenzofurans (CDFs) appears to be a reflection of variabilities in the production process. Whereas the primary process in the production of PCBs by the chlorination of biphenyl would not give CDFs, the aqueous alkaline washes and steam distillations could be anticipated to give the small amounts of CDFs observed, as shown in the following example.



Such a scheme could have been involved in the Japanese "Kanemi Yusho" incident, where the PCB-contaminated rice oil was heated with steam at 200°, and where a relatively high ratio of CDFs to PCBs was observed, although Japanese investigators of the problem suggested an alternative route of contamination (Miyata et al. 1977).

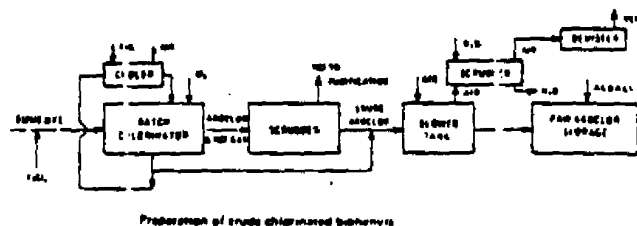
PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL DATA

These data have not been reported in a consistent manner in the scientific literature. Chemical and physical properties have been investigated for individual chlorobiphenyls in some instances and in others for the general product or mixture. An additional problem is that because two grades of PCBs existed, for example, the one mentioned, a higher, less pure grade was used. The physical and chemical characteristics of the two technical grades were about the same, but

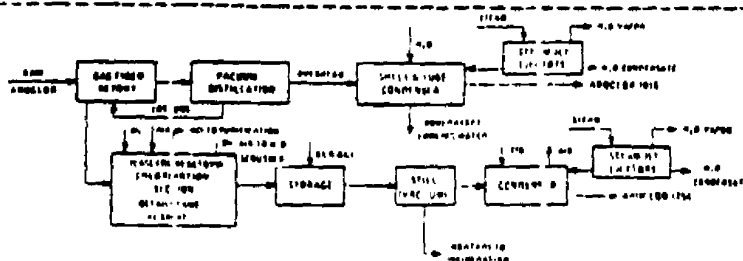
TABLE D.3 Approximate Percent Composition of Some Commercial PCB Products

Chlorophenyl	Isomer Type or Grade								Kanechlor			Fenclor	C. Chlor
	1018	1231	1232	1242	1248	1254	1260	RC-100	RC-400	RC-500	DE		
$C_{12}H_{10}$	<0.1	14	6	<0.1	-	<0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}H_9Cl$	1	51	26	1	-	<0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}H_8Cl_2$	20	32	39	16	3	0.3	-	17	3	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}H_7Cl_3$	57	4	24	49	19	3	-	66	33	5	-	-	-
$C_{12}H_6Cl_4$	21	2	15	23	40	21	-	23	66	27	-	-	55
$C_{12}H_5Cl_5$	1	0.3	0.3	6	36	40	12	0.4	16	50	-	-	35
$C_{12}H_4Cl_6$	<0.1	-	-	1	4	23	38	-	5	13	-	-	3
$C_{12}H_3Cl_7$	-	-	-	<0.1	-	6	41	-	-	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}H_2Cl_8$	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}HCl_9$	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
$C_{12}Cl_{10}$	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	-	-

Source: IARC (in press), Nisbet (1976), Durfee et al. (1976).



Production of crude chlorinated biphenyls



Distribution of crude products

Source: Durfee (1976).

TABLE D.4 Mainstream manufacturing process for PCBs

4081 000000

Technical grades Aroclor 1248 and Aroclor 1254 (Monahan and Bullen 0/11-106A). Purities in lower grades have not been determined, nor have these grades been characterized toxicologically. It is not known what percentage of total Aroclor usage in the United States was represented by the technical grade products. As far as we know, all toxicological studies have been done with the purified grades, and therefore data on technical grades are not available. Thus it is not possible to assess the toxicological effects that can be realized from exposure to technical grades of PCBs. (See Tables D.4-D.7.)

ENVIRONMENTAL CHEMISTRY DATA

Natural Chemical Degradation

PCBs may enter natural water through industrial discharge or as a result of disposal and leakage of equipment. However, they are inert to hydrolysis except under extreme conditions (Hutzinger et al. 1974, Nisbet 1976).

Natural Degradation PCBs are extremely stable compounds, not reactive chemically under environmental conditions. Oxidation, reduction, nitration, nitrosation and nucleophilic reactions (reactions with alcohols, alkoxides, amines) have been described (Hutzinger et al. 1974). The conditions required for these reactions make it unlikely that they will take place in the environment at any significant rate.

Some applications of PCBs, such as quenching of molten metals, heat-transfer media, and transformer oil, may lead to the formation of degradation products which can escape into the environment. The formation of chlorinated dibenzofurans on heating of PCBs to 500-

600°C is one example (Buser et al. 1978). Polymeric degradation products of unknown composition, possibly incorporating PCBs, are also formed from PCBs upon heating (Zitko et al. 1971). Chemical contaminants (penta- to nonachlorobiphenyls, hepta- to nonachloro

di- to triphenyl ethers, and penta- to nonachlorodibenzofurans) considered to be a result of degradation were identified in Kanemi (Yusho) rice oil (Miyazaki et al. 1977). About 90 percent of this mixture consisted of the quaterphenyls, and their concentrations

in rice oil were 10-100 times the concentrations of PCBs. For the analyses and identification, a series of chemical and physical experiments, and further verification of the results is required.

Photodegradation Photoreaction of PCBs produces a variety of products. Loss of chlorine, with replacement by hydrogen or hydroxyl groups, rearrangement, condensation, and "polar" products have been observed (Hutzinger et al. 1974).

One of the reaction products of sunlight irradiation of PCB mixtures is the replacement of chlorine by hydroxy groups at the ortho positions. This allows oxygen to bind in a similar position on the other ring and to produce chlorodibenzofurans. Both heat and light can accelerate the transformation of PCBs to CDFs (Hutzinger et al. 1974).

It is not possible to assess quantitatively the importance of photodegradation of PCBs in the environment. A major portion of PCBs in the environment is not accessible to sunlight and, consequently, the amount of PCBs decomposed by photodegradation is likely to be very small. Table D.8 provides extinction coefficients and quantum yield data for the loss of a given PCB isomer (i.e., transformation by loss of a chlorine atom and formation of a PCB molecule with one less chlorine).

Biodegradation

Microbial degradation of PCBs depends on the degree of chlorination and the position of the chlorine atom on the biphenyl molecule. Lower chlorinated biphenyls are readily transformed by bacteria, but the higher chlorinated compounds are not (Nisbet 1976).

Achromobacter isolated from sewage sludge rapidly degrades PCBs (Ahmed and Focht 1973). Palmer and Olsen (1974) also established microbial degradation using a bacterial culture isolated from lake water. Bacterial growth was not affected adversely until up to 50 percent Aroclor was added to the culture (Wong and Foster 1974). (See Table D.9.)

Biodegradation rates of chlorobiphenyls may be inferred from the data of Furukawa et al. (1973) using a strain of Alcaligenes and Agrobacterium. From these

Receives: See also

	1016	1100	1170	1240	1310	1380	1450	1520
Color (APHA)	-	100	100	100	100	100	100	150
Physical state	mobile oil	mobile oil	mobile oil	mobile oil	mobile oil	mobile oil	viscous liquid	sticky resin
Stability	inert	inert	inert	inert	inert	inert	inert	inert
Density (lb/gal 75°C)	11.40	9.85	10.55	11.50	12.04	12.82	13.50	13.50
Specific gravity x-25° x-45°	1.16-1.17 x-25° x-45°	1.18-1.19 x-25° x-45°	1.27-1.28 x-25° x-45°	1.30-1.31 x-25° x-45°	1.40-1.41 x-45°	1.49-1.50 x-61°	1.55-1.56 x-90°	1.55-1.56 x-90°
Distillation range (°C)	323-356	275-320	290-325	325-366	340-375	365-390	385-420	385-420
Acidity mg KOH/g maximum	-	.014	.014	.015	.010	.010	.014	.014
Fire point (°C)	none to boiling point	176	238	none to boiling point	none to boiling point	none to boiling point	none to boiling point	none to boiling point
Viscosity (100°F)	31-61	38-41	44-51	82-92	185-240	1400-2500	-	-

SOURCE: Duffon et al. (1976).

• • • Impact (??) for Some PCB Issues

Fenchylchlorobiphenyls	
2,4	2,1,3',4,4'-
112-110.5	
2,5	2,2',3,4,5'-
111.5-113	
	2,2',3,3',6'-
2,6	2,2',3,4',6'-
	2,2',3,5',6'-
98.5-100	
2,2'	2,3,3',4',6'-
60.5	
2,3'	2,2',3',4,5'-
	81-82
2,4'	2,2',4,4',5'-
40.5-46	
4,4'	2,2',4,5,5'-
149-150	
	76.5-77.5
	112-113
Trichlorobiphenyls	
2,2',3-	20.1-20.8
2,3',4-	
2,6,6'-	57-58
2,2',5-	63-68
2,4',5-	67
2',3,4-	65-66
Tetrachlorobiphenyls	
2,3,4,4'-	142
2,2',3,5'-	49-50
2,2',4,5'-	66-68.5
2,3',6,6'-	127-127.5
2,2',5,5'-	87-88
2,3',4',5-	106-108
3,3',6,6'-	102-106
Pentachlorobiphenyls	
2,2',3,4,4',5-	77-78
2,2',3,3',4,6'-	
2,2',3,4,4',5'-	78.5-80
2,2',3,3',6,6'-	110-110.5
2,2',3,4,5,5'-	102-104
2,2',3',4,5,6'-	
Hexachlorobiphenyls	
2,2',3,3',4,4',5-	134.5-135.5
2,2',3,3',4,5,6'-	130.5-130.7
2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-	107-110
Heptachlorobiphenyls	

SOURCE: Modified from IARC lin preest.

data, the mean primary biodegradation rates were calculated (Table D.10).

Considerable differences exist between the primary biodegradation rates of isomers (Furukawa et al. 1978b). Those substituted "in 2 and 6 positions" are degraded much more slowly than others, but the rates given in Table D.10 would probably be useful in designing a model.

According to Baughman and Lessiter (1978), representative concentrations of microbes in different water bodies are:

Water Body	Cellular
Pond	19%
Stream	17%
Eutrophic Lake	15%
Oligotrophic Lake	10%
Sediments	10%

Table D.11. Solubility of Chlorobiphenyl Isomers and Aroclors in Water (mg/l)

Dibiphenyls		Pentachlorobiphenyls	
1,2	5.90	2,2',3,4,5'-	2.2×10^{-2}
1,3	3.50	2,2',4,5,5'-	1.1×10^{-2}
1,4	1.19		
Trichlorobiphenyls		Hexachlorobiphenyl	
1,2,3	1.40	2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-	4.4×10^{-2}
1,2,4	1.50		
1,3,4	1.40	Octachlorobiphenyl	
1,2,3,4	0.08	2,2',3,3',4,4',5,5'-	4.7×10^{-2}
Tetrachlorobiphenyls		Decachlorobiphenyl	
1,2,3,4	8.5×10^{-2}		1.5×10^{-2}
1,2,3,5	7.8×10^{-2}		
Aroclors		Aroclors	
1242	4.6×10^{-2}	1242	0.24
1248	1.4×10^{-2}	1248	5.40×10^{-2}
1254	17.0×10^{-2}	1254	1.20×10^{-2}
1260	6.8×10^{-2}	1260	8.10×10^{-2}
1260	5.8×10^{-2}		
1260	4.1×10^{-2}		
1260	10.3×10^{-2}		

Modified from Durfee et al. (1976).

Attempts to extrapolate the rates to environmental conditions introduce considerable uncertainty. The rates were measured under optimum conditions for the microorganism, at cell concentrations from 4.4×10^8 to 1.1×10^9 cells/ml and chlorobiphenyl concentrations of 50 to 100 µg/l, which is 11 mg/l to 15 mg/l for mono- to pentachlorobiphenyls, respectively, well above the solubility of di- through tetrachlorobiphenyls (Weil et al. 1975).

It is assumed that the rate depends linearly on the concentration of chlorobiphenyls, extrapolation to the ambient concentration in the ng/l range would require multiplication by 10^4 . About 10 percent of the chlorobiphenyls may be degrading PCBs (Hong and Kaiser 1975).

Therefore, the rates should be multiplied by 10 percent to obtain final cell concentration. The results of these calculations are given in Table D.11.

It is noted that the biodegradation of most

chlorobiphenyls may be extremely slow, and that of the most substituted chlorobiphenyls practically

negligible. These are comparable to the rates of biodegradation of dieldrin (illustrated in Figure 1).

Effects of PCBs on microorganisms have been studied by many investigators and results are presented in Table D.12 (Pourquain and Cassidy 1975, Ewald et al. 1975, Nisbet 1976, Powers et al. 1977, Blakemore 1978, Blakemore and Carey 1978, Furukawa et al. 1978a).

PCBs may induce changes in the ecological role of microorganisms because of different sensitivities. Thus, community composition may change depending on level of PCBs, temperature, and the ability of the organisms to metabolize these compounds (O'Connors et al. 1978).

Mobility Through the Environment

Adsorption and Leaching Laboratory tests indicate that Aroclor 1254 is adsorbed most efficiently on soils with a high organic content and on clays. Aroclor 1242 was adsorbed strongly on silty clay loam soil and could be leached only with difficulty from silt and sandy loams. Less than 0.05 percent was leached after 4 months, and it consisted of mainly mono- and dichlorobiphenyls (Haque et al. 1974, Muto et al. 1974, Tucker et al. 1975a, Haque and Schmedding 1976, Nisbet 1976).

Transfer of PCB isomers from soil to water follows closely their physical properties, especially water solubility and partition coefficients as indicated in Table D.13 (Halter and Johnson 1977).

Volatility Monsanto Technical Bulletin 0/24-30-A gives a graph of vapor pressure (VP, mm Hg) of Aroclors 1242, 1248, 1254, and 1260 over the temperature range 150° to 300°C. From the graph, the logarithm of vapor pressure is a linear function of $1/T$ (T = temperature, °K):

$$\log(VP) = A - B/T$$

Aroclor	A	B	VP extrapolated to 20°C, mm Hg
1242	8.8	1,500	9.0×10^{-4}
1248	8.4	1,400	8.1×10^{-4}
1254	8.8	1,300	1.9×10^{-4}
1260	8.5	1,700	9.9×10^{-5}

TABLE D.7 Electrical Properties of Some Aroclors

Aroclor	Dielectric constant at 100°C	Volume resistivity, $\Omega \cdot \text{cm}$ at 100°C	Dielectric strength, kV/cm	Power factor at 100°C, 1000 cycles, %
	75°C	100°C		
1232	5.7	4.6		
1242	5.8	4.9	above 500×10^9	<0.1
1248	5.6	4.6	above 500×10^9	<0.1
1254	5.0	4.3	above 500×10^9	<0.1
1260	4.3	3.7	above 500×10^9	<0.1
1268	2.5			

SOURCE: Modified from Durfee et al. (1976).

TABLE D.8 Physicochemical Data for Selected PCBs in Acetonitrile

Compound	Molecular Extinction Coefficients	Quantum Yield
4-Cl	120	0.0037
2,4-Cl ₂	25	0.22
2,4,6-Cl ₃	7	0.25
2,2',5,5'-Cl ₄	30	0.017
Cl ₁₀	1200	>0.21
Aroclor 1232	60	0.036
Aroclor 1248	770	0.14

SOURCE: Reprinted (with modifications) with permission from [Chemosphere 2:155-164, Bunce, R.J., G. Fisher and B.G. Brownlee, An assessment of the impact of solar degradation of polychlorinated biphenyls in the aquatic environment]. Copyright [1978], Pergamon Press, Ltd.

TABLE D.9 Microbial Species Used in Degradation Experiments

Species	Time	Degradation of PCB
Achromobacter		• (unsubstituted ring)
Mycardia	20 days	• (low chlorinated)
		• (tetra CB)
Aspergillus		-
Pseudomonas	73 days	• (tetra CB)
Arizobacter		•

• indicates degradation.
- indicates no effect.

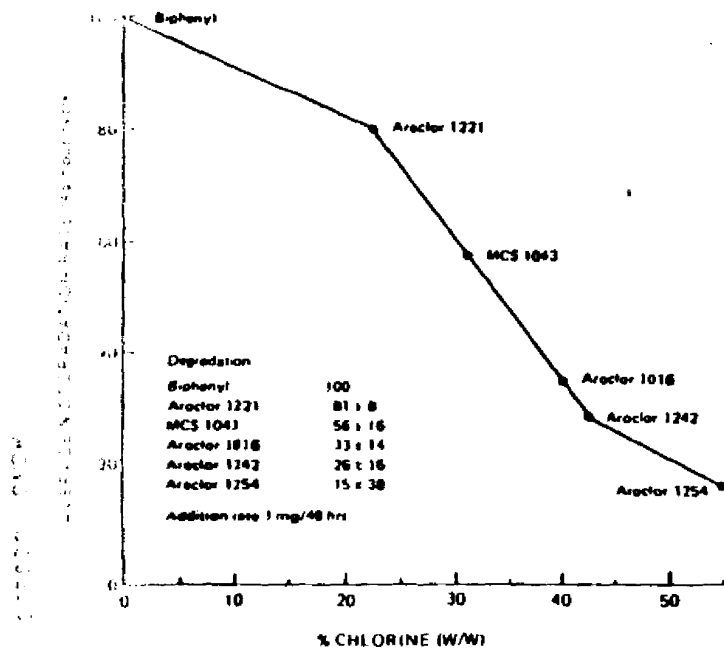
TABLE D.10 Chlorobiphenyls Primary Biodegradation Rate

	mg/L/100 h
Mono	7×10^{-3}
Di-(both rings subst.)	6×10^{-3}
Tri-(both rings subst.)	5×10^{-3}
Tetra-(both rings subst.)	2.5×10^{-3}
Penta-(both rings subst.)	1.5×10^{-3}

*Only one isomer, 2,4,5,2',5'-substituted.

Table D.11 Primary Biodegradation Rate (ng/ml-hr)

Polychlorinated Biphenyls	Eutrophic Lake	Oligotrophic Lake	Sediment
Monochloro	1.3×10^{-11}	1.3×10^{-15}	1.3×10^{-10}
Dichloro (rings subst.)	1.3×10^{-11}	1.3×10^{-15}	1.3×10^{-10}
Trichloro (rings subst.)	1.3×10^{-11}	1.3×10^{-15}	1.3×10^{-10}
Tetrachloro (rings subst.)	7.2×10^{-11}	7.3×10^{-17}	7.3×10^{-14}
Pentachloro (rings subst.)	$<5 \times 10^{-14}$	$<5 \times 10^{-18}$	$<5 \times 10^{-13}$
Nonchlorinated			



Source: M. C. Tucker et al. (1975b)

FIGURE D.12. Semi-continuous aerated sludge primary biodegradation rates of common PCBs as a function of the weight percent chlorine.

Table D.12 PCBs and Selected Microorganisms

Microorganism	Approximate PCB Concentration	Effect
<i>Pseudomonas</i>		inhibits growth
<i>Microthrix</i>		inhibits growth
<i>Microthrix</i> / <i>Aerobacter</i>		modified growth rate (reversible condition)
<i>Sorococcus</i>	100-800 µg/l	inhibit growth
<i>Euglena</i>	100-800 µg/l	inhibit growth
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	10-100 µg/l	reduced rate of cell division, reduced total amount and synthetic rate of nucleic acids
<i>Cyclosterium</i>	.1 µg/l	reduced growth rate and chlorophyll levels
<i>Thalassiosira</i>	10 µg/l	suppressed growth rate and photosynthesis

Dispersal through Water PCBs are strongly adsorbed to sediment and their dispersal through water depends on the movement of the sediment. (See discussion of the PCBs in Sediment in Chapter 1.)

Bioaccumulation

PCBs are remarkable among organic industrial chemicals for their low solubility in water (Table D.6), their high octanol/water partition coefficients, accumulation coefficients, (Tables D.10-D.16), and their resistance

TABLE D.13 Equilibrium PCB Concentrations and Distribution Coefficients (Kd) for Aroclor 1254

	Soil Concentration (mg/g)	H ₂ O Concentration (µg/l)	Mean K _d
Static Condition	500	7.60	5.6 x 10 ⁴
	350	3.10	
	200	1.90	
	100	1.70	
Continuous Flow	500	.50	9.0 x 10 ⁴
	350	.37	
	200	.21	
	100	.11	

Source: Modified from Darling and Johnson (1977)

TABLE D.14 Octanol/Water Partition Coefficients and Ecological Magnification Values for Selected PCBs

	Octanol/Water Partition Coefficient	Ecological Magnification Value
4-chloro	390	480
4,4'-dichloro	5,700	1,700
2,5,2'-trichloro	7,000	6,400
2,5,2',5'-pentachloro	8,100	12,000
2,4,5,2',4',5'-hexachloro	17,000	12,000
decachloro	38,000	42,000
	198,000	97,000

to in vivo degradation (Table D.17). As a result, they exhibit extraordinarily high values for bioaccumulation in animal tissues, especially in fish and other aquatic organisms. For example, the average concentration of PCBs in Lake Michigan is about 0.008 µg/kg, yet mature lake trout, *Salvelinus namaycush*, contain an average of 28 µg/kg, equivalent to a bioconcentration factor of 3.41×10^4 (Metcalf 1977, U.S. EPA 1972).

Bioaccumulation of PCBs by fish and other aquatic organisms may take place either through ingestion of contaminated food organisms or by direct absorption through the integument. Coho salmon, *Oncorhynchus kisutch*, were fed food pellets contaminated with 1,4,3',4'-tetrachlorobiphenyl, 2,4,6,2',4',6' and 2,4,5,2',4',5'-hexachlorobiphenyl. After 108 days, the salmon contained an average of 1.4 µg/kg of each of the two hexachlorobiphenyls and 0.65 µg/kg of the tetrachlorobiphenyl. From 30 to 60 percent of the

TABLE D.15 PCB Accumulation Coefficients in Selected Animals

Animal	Accumulation Coefficients
Oysters (Aroclor 1254) ¹	$101 \times 10^3 - 165 \times 10^3$
Shrimp (Aroclor 1254) ¹	26×10^3
Fish testuacini (Aroclor 1254) ¹	37×10^3
Amphipods (dichloro-1)	$3 - 100$
Trout (tetrachloro-1)	9×10^3

NOTE: 1.

From data from Hansen (1976).

From data from McNeught (1978).

From data from Branson et al. (1975).

TABLE D.16 Accumulation Coefficient of Aroclor 1254 by Aquatic Invertebrates

Organism	Organism Sample	Water Concentration ^a (µg/kg)	Organism Concentration ^b (1-day exposure) (µg/kg)	Accumulation Factor (x 10 ³)			
				1-day	1-day	1-day	1-day
Oligochaete	60	1.1 ± 0.2	52.0 ± 2.0	21.0	47.0	---	---
Amphipod	5	1.3 ± 0.1	30.0 ± 1.4	21.0	22.0	26.0	25.0
Amphipod	6	1.0 ± 0.1	39.0 ± 3.0	11.0	24.0	26.0	28.0
Amphipod	16	1.5 ± 0.3	27.0 ± 2.0	12.0	18.0	20.0	---
Amphipod	3	1.3 ± 0.1	16.0 ± 1.6	10.0	12.0	14.0	17.0
Amphipod	3	2.0 ± 0.6	7.0 ± 0.3	2.1	2.5	2.8	2.9
Amphipod	3	1.1 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.2	1.4	4.6	5.7	6.8
Amphipod	7	1.2 ± 0.1	0.2 ± 0.2	0.53	1.7	3.8	5.1

^a Mean ± standard error (n = 10).

^b Mean ± standard error (n = 10).

--- indicates no data available.

From data from Branson et al. (1975).

TABLE D.17 Ecological Magnification (EM) and Bioconcentration Index (BI) Compared with Water Solubility and Partition Coefficients

Chemical	Water Solubility (ppm)	Partition Coefficient Octanol/water	EM ($\times 10^{-3}$)			BI ($\times 10^{-3}$)		
			Algae	Snail	Mosquito	Fish	Algae	Snail
Trichlorobiphenyl (2,3,5,2')	14	2,800	7.7	3.8	.8	6.4	10.0	13.0
Tetrachlorobiphenyl (2,3,5,2')	16	8,180	10.0	39.0	18.6	12.0	1.5	8.2
Pentachlorobiphenyl (2,3,5,2')	19	16,000	5.5	49.0	17.0	12.0	2.9	2.7
Hexachlorobiphenyl (2,3,5,2')	9	30,000	9.4	101.0	105.0	45.0	0.9	0.7
Decachlorobiphenyl		180,000	100.0	920.0	22.0	97.0	---	---

The direct uptake of ^{14}C -2,5,2'-trichlorobiphenyl, 2,5,2',5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl, and 2,4,5,2',5'-pentachlorobiphenyls by the green sunfish, *Lepomis cyanellus*, was studied by Sarborn et al. (1975). After the fish had spent 15 days in static water, the bioconcentration factors were determined as trichlorobiphenyl 400, tetrachlorobiphenyl 1,510, and pentachlorobiphenyl 1,510.

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Model ecosystem studies. Bioaccumulation and biodegradation studies with a series of ^{14}C -labeled chlorobiphenyls have been made using the terrestrial/aquatic model ecosystem involving both food-chain transfer and direct absorption in aquatic organisms, including the snail, *Physa* sp., and the fish *Gambusia affinis* (Metcalf et al. 1975; Metcalf and Lu 1976). The degree of bioaccumulation, as determined from the ratio of amount of parent compound in snail or fish to amount in water, increased in proportion to the degree of chlorination; and it reached high values for hexachlorobiphenyl-- 42×10^3 in fish and $10^3 \times 10^3$ in snail--and for decachlorobiphenyl-- 97×10^3 in fish and 930×10^3 in snail.

Correspondingly, the higher chlorobiphenyls were more stable in the tissues of the organisms, as determined by biodegradability index or ratio of amount of polar compound stored. The biodegradability index in the fish decreased from 0.60 for trichlorobiphenyl to 0.005 for decachlorobiphenyl.

HAZARD EVALUATION

Acute Toxicity Tests

Lethal Dose Studies. LD₅₀ and LD₀₁ for aquatic and terrestrial wildlife are presented in Tables D.18 and D.19. Oral doses range from 1,000 mg/kg to 11,000 mg/kg, and this level is required to obtain LD₅₀ for the fish.

TABLE D.18 Toxicity of PCBs and DDT in Continuous Flow Tests

Aroclor	Species	LC ₅₀ (µg/l)					
		5 days	10 days	15 days	20 days	25 days	30 days
1254	Rainbow Trout	150.0	8.0	----	----	----	----
1260		----	240.0	94.0	21.0	----	----
DDT		2.3	0.9	0.3	----	----	----
1242	Bluegill	150.0	72.0	54.0	----	----	----
1248		310.0	160.0	76.0	10.0	----	----
1254		----	440.0	200.0	140.0	54.0	----
1260		----	----	----	140.0	210.0	150.0
1242	Channel Catfish	----	170.0	110.0	----	----	----
1248		----	230.0	130.0	----	----	----
1254		----	----	740.0	300.0	110.0	----
1260		----	----	----	300.0	170.0	140.0
1248 ^a	Bluegill	140.0	76.0	----	----	----	----
1248	Channel Catfish	----	94.0	57.0	----	----	----

^aTemperature, 27°C.

SOURCE: Stalling and Mayer (1972).

TABLE D.19 Toxicity of PCBs and DDT to Invertebrates

Compound	Organism	Bioassay Type ^a	Exposure (days)	LC ₅₀ (µg/l)
Aroclor 1242	Crayfish	static	7	30
Aroclor 1254	Crayfish	static	7	100
Aroclor 1254	Crayfish	continuous-flow	7	80
DDT	Crayfish	static	4	100
Aroclor 1242	Scud	continuous-flow	4	10
Aroclor 1242	Scud	continuous-flow	10	5.0
Aroclor 1248	Scud	static	4	52
Aroclor 1254	Scud	static	4	2,400
DDT	Scud	static	4	3.2
DDT	Scud	continuous-flow	5	0.6
Aroclor 1254	Glass Shrimp	continuous-flow	7	3.0
DDT	Glass Shrimp	static	5	2.0
DDT	Glass Shrimp	continuous-flow	5	1.3
Aroclor 1242	Dragonfly	static	7	800
Aroclor 1254	Dragonfly	static	7	1,000
Aroclor 1242	Damselfly	continuous-flow	4	400
Aroclor 1254	Damselfly	continuous-flow	4	200
DDT	Damselfly	static	4	50

^aTemperature, 15.0°C; alkalinity, 150µm; pH, 7.1.

SOURCE: Stalling and Mayer (1972).

4040 020400

TABLE D.20 Toxicity of PCBs to Rats and Rabbits, LD₅₀ (mg/kg of body weight)

	Aroclor 1221	Aroclor 1232	Aroclor 1242	Aroclor 1248	Aroclor 1254	Aroclor 1260	Aroclor 1268
Rat (oral)	4000	4500	8700	11,000	-----	10,000	11,300
Adult rats (oral)					4000-10,000	4000-10,000	
Weaning rats (oral)					1200	1300	
Adult rats (i.v.)					400		
30-day old rats (oral)					1400		
120-day old rats (oral)					2000-2500		
Rabbit (skin)	>2000 <3200	>1300 <2000	>800 <1300	>800 <1300		>1300 <2000	<2500

SOURCE: Modified from IARC (in press).

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TABLE D.21 Acute Oral and Dermal Toxicity Effects of PCB Exposure

Exposure	Animal	Treatment	Percent Mortality	Liver Effects	Skin Effects
Oral					
Unknown	Mouse	Single dose 1030mg/kg			
5000	Rat	Single dose 580mg/kg	0	Increase of weight and lipid; penetration of CCl ₄ tested	
12,500, 40, and 1000	Wallaby	Single dose 2000mg/kg	0		
5000	Rat	20 daily doses 150mg	0 in 3 months	Myelin bodies in liver cells	
4250	Guinea Pig	2 doses (1 week apart) 69mg	100 between 11 and 29 days	Fatty yellow phosia; central atrophy	
1000	Rat	6 daily doses 300mg	70 in 14 days	Increase of weight; cell swelling; myelin granules	
4250	Rat	5mg every second day	60 in 5 weeks	10% weight increase; cell swelling; myelin granules	
12,500 12,500	Guinea Pig	11 daily, 34.5mg	100 between 11 and 21 days	Fatty central atrophy; perinuclear lipophilic granulations; focal necrosis in 2 live animals	Occasional thickening of the epidermis
4250	Rabbit	Alternate days: 1000 mg (10-14 days in 100mg)	100 between 17 and 29 days	Fatty degeneration; central atrophy	Thinning of epidermis and thickening of outer cornified layer
Acute	Rabbit	Orally, 4 J, 0.4, and 0.9g	High dose dead before liver necrosis developed	Moderate to severe fatty liver; some low atrophy; focal necrosis seen but not in 100%	Reddening, formation of small pustules and ulcers; limited degeneration of epidermis epithelial layer

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TABLE D-22 LC₅₀ Comparisons of Aroclors in Diets (mg PCB/kg Diet) of 2-Week-Old Birds

	Yallard	Phasant	Sabonits Quail	Japanese Quail
Aroclor 1232	----	1200	3000	>5000
Aroclor 1242	3200	2100	2100	>5000
Aroclor 1248	2800	1300	1200	4800
Aroclor 1254	2700	1100	800	2900
Aroclor 1260	2000	1100	750	2200
Aroclor 1262	3000	1200	870	2300

SOURCE: Modified from Nisbet (1976).

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Reproductive Data Tests using *Daphnia*, fathead minnow, *Chironella*, and *Gammarus* indicated that the larval stage is most sensitive to PCB effects (Nebeker et al. 1977). (See Tables D.19, D.23, and D.24.) Life-cycle effects on birds are given in Table D.25.

Metabolic and Chronic Feeding Studies The predominant route of PCB metabolism is hydroxylation (Table D.26). Some chlorobiphenyls may be hydroxylated via arene oxide intermediates which suggests potential carcinogenicity and mutagenicity. The hydroxylated chlorobiphenyls are more toxic than the parent compounds. The toxicological significance of the recently discovered chlorobiphenyl methyl sulfones is not known. Results of chronic feeding studies are presented in Table D.27.

Mutagenicity For Aroclors 1242 and 1254 no statistical evidence has been presented for mutagenic effects in bone marrow or spermatogonial cells, for mutagenic effects in dominant lethal assays, or for chromosomal aberrations in human lymphochromosomal cultures. Ames test results with Aroclor 1221 and 4-chlorobiphenyl indicated significant mutagenicity (Wyndham et al. 1976).

Oncogenicity Tests Data indicate that Keneclor 500, Aroclor 1260, and perhaps Aroclor 1254 are carcinogenic in mice and rats (Table D.27).

Table 10-13 Spawning and Egg Production of Fathead Minnow Exposed to PCBs

Concentration (ug/l)	Spawns/female	Eggs/spawning	Eggs/female	Percent hatched
<u>Control 1254</u>				
0	0	0	0	0
0.1	0	0	0	0
0.4	2.5	30	150	81
0.8	1.9	43	200	30
1.3	1.3	20	35	84
4.6	4.6	90	440	53
<u>Control 1254</u>				
0	0	0	0	0
0.1	0	0	0	0
0.4	1.0	63	110	79
0.8	5.2	100	560	63
1.3	3.0	64	220	55
4.6	2.4	100	250	75

SOURCE: Modified from Hisbet (1976).

Table 10-14 Incubation Times and Hatchabilities of Fathead Minnow Eggs, and Survival and Sizes of Alevins 12 Weeks After Hatching, After Exposure to Aroclor 1254 for 5 and 2 Weeks at 12-14°C

Incubation			Mean Alevin Size		
PCB (ug/kg)	Days	Percent Hatchability	Percent Survival	Length (mm)	Weight (g)
<u>Exposure for 6 weeks (2 before and 4 after hatching)</u>					
0	510	96	91	36	0.30
5	490	88	76	35	0.30
10	490	78	64	34	0.30
15	490	30	24	32	0.27
25	460	96	77	30	0.26
55	460	63	7	28	0.24
<u>Exposure for 2 weeks (to 2 days before hatching)</u>					
0	500	93	93	35	0.30
5	880	96	70	35	0.30
10	490	90	40	35	0.30
15	490	92	84	33	0.26
25	480	90	75	35	0.29
55	490	66	40	34	0.26

SOURCE: Modified from Hisbet (1976).

TABLE D.25 Life Cycle Effects of Aroclor 1254

Species	Dose mg/kg	Effects
Parentals	56 and 208	reduced egg production; increase in no. of eggs piped but not hatched; reduced survival of chicks and overall reproductive success
Mallards	25	no reproductive effects; PCB residue in eggs equalled 33 ppm wet weight
Mourning Dove	50	no reproductive effects
Ring Doves	10	high embryonic mortality in 2nd generation; chromosomal aberrations; abnormal incubation behavior seen in parents
M. Neotoma	10	slight increase in egg shell thickness
Japanese Quail	70	slight reduction in egg production; 12% reduction in egg shell thickness
	50	non significant reproductive effects

* required test species in proposed guidelines.

TABLE D.26 Metabolism of Polychlorinated Biphenyl Isomers

Species	Parent Compound	Products
rat	4-chlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative dihydroxylated derivative
rat	4-chlorobiphenyl	4'-chloro-3-methoxy-4-biphenyldiol 4'-chloro-4-methoxy-3-biphenyldiol 4'-chloro-4-methoxy-3,5-biphenyldiol
rat	¹⁴ C-2,3-dichlorobiphenyl	2',5'-dichloro-4-biphenyl
rat	¹⁴ C-2,4,6-trichlorobiphenyl	4'-hydroxylated derivative 3',4'-dihydroxylated derivative 3'-hydroxy-4'-methoxylated derivative 4'-hydroxy-3'-methoxylated derivative
rat microsomes	2,2',4-trichlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
rat	³ H-2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	3-monohydroxylated derivative
rat	³ H-2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	2,2',5,5'-tetrachloro-3-biphenyldiol trans-3,4-dihydro-2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl-3,4-biphenyldiol
rat	3,3',4,4'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	2 and 5-hydroxylated derivative 3 and 5-hydroxylated derivative
rat	¹⁴ C-2,3,4,5,6-pentachlorobiphenyl	3' and 4'-hydroxylated derivative 3',4'-dihydroxylated derivative
rat	2,2',4,5,5'-pentachlorobiphenyl	2,2',4,5,5'-pentachloro-3'-biphenyldiol 3',4'-dihydro-3,4'-diol 2,2',4,5,5'-pentachloro-3,4-biphenyldiol
rat	2,2',4,4',6-pentachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
rat	2,2',4,5,6-pentachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
rat	2,2',4,5,6-pentachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
rat	2,2',3,4,6-pentachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative

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TABLE D.26 continued

Species	Parent Compound	Products
rat	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated products
rat	¹⁴ C-2,4,6,2',4',4'-hexachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
rat	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachloro-3-biphenylol
rabbit	4-chlorobiphenyl	4-chloro-4'-biphenylol
rabbit (liver microsomes)	4-chlorobiphenyl	4-chloro-4'-biphenylol 4'-chloro-3,4-biphenyldiol
rabbit	4,4'-dichlorobiphenyl	4,4'-dichloro-3-biphenylol 3,4'-dichloro-4-biphenylol 4'-chloro-4-biphenylol
rabbit	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	2,2',5,5'-tetrachloro-3-biphenylol 2,2',5,5'-tetrachloro-4-biphenylol trans-3,4-dihydro-2,2',5,5'-tetrachloro-3,4-biphenyldiol
rabbit	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative monohydroxy with chlorine shift monohydroxy methoxylated derivative
pigeons	4-chlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
pigeons	4,4'-dichlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
pigeons	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivative
pigeons	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated products
chickens	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	methoxyhydroxylated derivative pentachlorobiphenyl derivative pentachloro trihydroxylated derivative
trout	4-chlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated products
trout	4,4'-dichlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated products
trout	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated products
trout	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	conjugated metabolites 4-hydroxy-2,2',5,5'-TCB
trout	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	no hydroxylated metabolites
goat	4-chlorobiphenyl	4'-chloro-4-biphenylol 4'-chloro-3,4-biphenyldiol
goat	4,4'-dichlorobiphenyl	4,4'-dichloro-3-biphenylol
cow	4-chlorobiphenyl	4'-chloro-4-biphenylol
rhhesus monkey	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	monohydroxylated derivatives dihydroxylated derivatives trans-3,4-dihydro-3,4-TCB diol hydroxy-3,4-dihydro-3,4-TCB diol
mouse	2,2',5,5'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	methylsulfone derivative
mouse	pentachlorobiphenyl	methylsulfone derivative
mouse	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachloro-3-biphenylol

SOURCE: Modified from IARC (in press).

TABLE D.27 Results of Chronic Feeding Studies Using Various PCB Mixtures

Species	Dose	PCB	Time	Effect
Mouse	500 µg/g or less	Kanechlor 500	32 weeks	Hepatocellular carcinomas: some widespread nodular hyperplasia (Nagasaki et al. 1972, Ito et al. 1973)
	500 µg/g	Kanechlor 300, 400	32 weeks	No effect (Nagasaki et al. 1972)
	300 µg/g	Aroclor 1254	11 months	Adenofibrosis of liver (Kimbrough and Linder 1974)
	300 µg/g	Aroclor 1254	6 months	No effect (Kimbrough 1974)
Rat	100 & 500 µg/g	Aroclor 1254	8 months	Adenofibrosis (Kimbrough et al. 1972)
	38 - 616 µg/g	Kanechlor 400	57 weeks	Females developed neoplastic nodules in liver (Kimura and Baba 1973)
	100 µg/g	Aroclor 1260	21-23 months	Increased number of stillborns and reduction of fetal weight; neoplastic nodules of liver (Burke and Fitzhugh 1970)
	100 µg/g	Aroclor 1254 & 1260	1 year	No illness; increases in total serum lipids & cholesterol; slight increase in triglycerides; liver hypertrophy and focal areas of hepatocellular degeneration (IARC [in press])
Monkey	20 - 100 µg/g	Kanechlor 500	2 weeks (gestation)	Offspring with reduced learning ability (Shiots 1976)
	2.5 - 5.0 µg/g	1248	6 months	Females developed acne, alopecia, erythema and swelling of eyelids; alteration of menstrual cycles; increased frequency of abortion (IARC [in press])
			14 months	Males developed only slight periorbital edema and erythema (Bersotti et al. 1976)
			1 month	Infants with evidence of severe hyperplastic gastritis and hyperplasia of hair follicle epithelium and epidermis (IARC [in press])
Chickens	50 µg/g	1254	39 weeks	Reduced egg production and decline in fertility (Piatonou and Reinhart 1973)
	50 mg/l in H ₂ O	1254	6 weeks	Deformities in neck and toe (Bush et al. 1974)
	100 µg/g	1254		Decrease hatchability (Keplinger et al. 1971)
	20 µg/g		6 weeks	Subcutaneous edema; atrophy of the spleen; mild necrosis; congestion and fatty infiltration of the liver 30% mortality (Bird et al. 1978)
Mink	10 µg/g	1254	4 months	Dose response relationship in depressed weight gain reduced reproduction (Aulerich and Ringer 1977)
			5.5 months	Mortality occurred (Aulerich and Ringer 1977)
Pelican	100 mg		10 weeks	Increased size of hepatocytes; number of vacuoles per hepatocyte and number of mitochondria (Storz and Greichus 1978)
Loos	1000 µg/g	1260	12 months	Males - reduced growth rate; increased liver weights; elevated serum alkaline phosphatase (Keplinger et al. 1971)

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