FINAL

Report on Carcinogens Background Document for

Ethyl Acrylate

December 2 - 3, 1998

**Meeting of the
NTP Board of Scientific Counselors
Report on Carcinogens Subcommittee**

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Summary Statement

Carcinogenicity

Ethyl acrylate was first listed in the National Toxicology Program (NTP) Fifth Annual Report on Carcinogens as *reasonably anticipated to be a carcinogen* based upon a gavage study resulting in dose-related forestomach benign and malignant neoplasms in rats and mice (NTP 1989).

Petition to Delist

In August 1997, the NTP was petitioned to delist ethyl acrylate from the Report on Carcinogens by the Basic Acrylic Monomer Manufactures, Inc. (BAMM), a trade association comprised of manufacturers of acrylic acid and acrylate esters, including ethyl acrylate. The BAMM petition to delist ethyl acrylate is based upon the following assertions: 1) negative tumorigenicity results from chronic studies using routes other than gavage in corn oil; 2) research results suggesting that the forestomach carcinogenicity observed in the gavage studies is secondary to a site-specific and concentration-dependent irritating effect of ethyl acrylate; and 3) that significant human exposure to ethyl acrylate monomer is unlikely in light of current manufacturing practices and patterns of usage.

Animal Studies

While ethyl acrylate is mutagenic in some *in vitro* tests, it is not genotoxic under *in vivo* physiological conditions perhaps due to its rapid metabolism to acrylic acid and ethanol by carboxyesterases and detoxification through binding to non-protein sulfhydryls. Target tissue toxicity, comprized of irritation, has been observed in the skin in a lifetime mouse skin painting study; in the nasal olfactory mucosa, in 27-month inhalation studies in rats and mice; and in the forestomach, in two-year corn oil gavage studies in rats and mice. Only body weight reduction was observed in a two-year dosed-water study in rats. The forestomach carcinogenicity observed in the corn oil gavage studies represents the only treatment-related tumorigenic response in the various animal studies. The irritation, hyperplasia, and tumor responses in the forestomach were related more to target tissue concentration of ethyl acrylate than to delivered dose in the chronic gavage study. Based upon stop-exposure studies, gavage doses of ethyl acrylate in corn oil sufficient to induce sustained mucosal hyperplasia in the forestomach must be administered for longer than six months to induce forestomach neoplasia.

Human Exposure and Cancer Risk

Prolonged consumer exposure to high levels of ethyl acrylate monomer by the oral route is unlikely. Potential significant exposures would most likely occur in an occupational setting where the routes of exposure would be dermal and inhalation. Ethyl acrylate has a strong acrid odor (odor threshold ~ 0.5 ppb) and is a known irritant to the skin, eyes, and mucous membranes, making it unlikely that humans would willingly be chronically exposed to high concentrations. Data provided in the BAMM petition on worker exposure show occupational exposure well below the threshold limit value (TLV=5 ppm for an eight-hour time-weighted average) and the

short-term exposure limit (STEL=15 ppm), although exposure of painters in an unventilated room has been reported as high as 8 ppm in the painter's breathing zone.

An epidemiology study reported on mortality from cancer of the colon and rectum in three separate cohorts of workers from two plants manufacturing and polymerizing acrylate monomers. Workers were exposed to ethyl acrylate and methyl methacrylate monomer between 1933 and 1982. Risks for both types of cancer were associated with exposure in the earliest cohort, although the rectal cancer results are imprecise because of the small number of cases involved. The greatest relative risk was found in workers with the highest level of exposure and a 20 year latency. The other two cohorts, with later dates of hire, showed no excess risk, but very few cases were available for observation. This study, by itself, can neither establish nor rule out a causal relationship of ethyl acrylate with cancer.

Recommendation

It is recommended that ethyl acrylate be *delisted* from the Report on Carcinogens because the forestomach tumors, induced in animal studies, were seen only when the chemical was administered by gavage at high concentrations of ethyl acrylate, that induced marked local irritation and cellular proliferation and because significant chronic human exposure to high concentrations of ethyl acrylate monomer is unlikely.

1 Physical and Chemical Properties

Figure 1-1. Ethyl Acrylate (CH2=CHCOOC2H5)
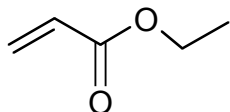
Ethyl acrylate ($C_5H_8O_2$, CASRN 140-88-5, Mol. Wt.=100.12) is also called:

Carbonyl ethylene

1-Propenoic acid ethyl ester

Ethyl propenoate

Acrylic acid ethyl ester

Ethoxycarbonylethylene

2-Propenoic acid ethyl ester

Ethyl 2-propenoate

Ethyl acrylate's RCRA waste number is U113 and, in shipping, its UN number is 1917.

Table 1-1. Physical—Chemical Properties

Property	Information	Reference
Molecular Weight	100.12	Budavari *et al.* (1996)
Color	Colorless	Hawley (1981), Sax (1989), Windholz (1983)
Physical State	Flammable liquid, easily polymerizes on standing	Budavari *et al.* (1996)
Melting Point at, ºC	-71.2	Weast (1985), Dean (1985)
Boiling Point at 760 mm, ºC	99.8	Weast (1986), Sax (1989)
Density at 20ºC/4ºC, g/mL	0.9234	Weast (1986)
Odor	Sharp acrid odor	Hawley (1981)
Solubility In water at 20ºC Organic Solvents Chloroform	10-50mg/mL Soluble	Grasselli and Ritchey (1975), Hawley (1981), Weast (1985, 1986), Windholz (1983)

Property	Information	Reference
Ethanol	Miscible	
Diethyl ether	Miscible	
DMSO	≥ 100mg/mL	
95% Ethanol	≥ 100mg/mL	
Acetone	≥ 100mg/mL	
Vapor pressure at 20°C (mm Hg)	29	Sax (1989), Verschueren (1983)
Partition Coefficient Log octanol/water (Log P)	1.32	Hansch (1995)
Relative Vapor Density (air=1)	3.5	Verschueren (1983)
Flash Point ^{o}C	9	NIOSH (1981)

Ethyl acrylate (EA) spontaneously polymerizes on standing without the presence of an inhibitor. Inhibitors do not function in the absence of air. It is incompatible with oxidizers, peroxides, strong alkalies, acids, and polymerization initiators. Polymerization is accelerated by exposure to heat, peroxides, and light. High temperatures can negate the effects of inhibitors (MSDS 1989; Sittig 1985).

EA vapors form explosive mixtures in air (Hawley 1981; Windholz 1983) and can react vigorously with oxidizing materials. It is sensitive to exposure to moisture, light, and heat (MSDS 1989). EA reacts violently with chlorosulfonic acid (Sax 1989) and is subject to slow hydrolysis.

1.1 Identification of Structural Analogs and Metabolites
The major metabolite of EA is acrylic acid ($C_3H_4O_2$, CASRN 79-10-7, Mol. Wt.= 72.063). It is a clear colorless liquid. It is soluble in water, DMSO, 95% ethanol, and acetone (Miller *et al.* 1981).

The structure for acrylic acid is presented below:

Figure 1-2. Acrylic Acid (CH2=CHCOOH)
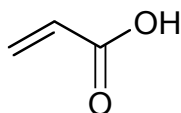
EA is metabolized by carboxylesterases (Silver and Murphy 1981; Stott and McKenna 1985; Udinsky and Frederick 1989) and by conjugation with glutathione (GSH) (Hashimoto and Aldridge 1970; Frederick *et al.* 1992). The mercapturic acid of EA has also been shown to be a minor urinary metabolite (deBethizy *et al*. 1987). It has also been proposed that EA binds to proteins and lipids *in vivo* (Ghanayem *et al*. 1987).

2 Human Exposure

2.1 Uses

Ethyl acrylate (EA) is used in various industries as an intermediate in the production of emulsion-based polymers. The major use for EA is in the manufacturing of acrylic resins, which are then used in paint formulations, industrial coatings, and latex products. EA is also used to manufacture polyacrylate elastomers, acrylic rubber, textile and paper coatings, leather finish resins, acrylic fibers, and in denture materials (HSDB 1997: telnet://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/ ; http://sis.nlm.nih.gov; Radian 1991: http://ehis.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/chem_hs/ NTP_Chem1/ radian 140-88-5.txt).

EA is used to form paint coatings that is resistant to water, sunshine, and weather. These coatings retain flexibility even at low temperatures. EA is also used in industrial finishes and coatings for cans and coils. Fabrics gain texture and durability when EA is added during their manufacture. EA also imparts dirt resistance, improves abrasion, and binds pigments to fabric. Paper is coated with EA to make it water-resistant. Magazines, books, business paper, frozen-food packaging, and folding boxboards have such coatings, making them resistant to water, grease, and oil. EA is also used in adhesives for envelopes, labels, and decals. Caulk, glazing, and various sealants also contain EA. Leather products, such as automotive upholstery, furniture, clothing, and shoes contain EA so that topcoatings do not migrate. EA is also used as a fragrance additive in various soaps, detergents, creams, lotions, perfumes, and as a synthetic fruit essence (IARC 1986). EA is also found in such household items as nail mending kits and in medical items that assist with the binding of tissues, sealing wounds, and ileostomy appliances (Truett 1998: http://www.mc.vanderbilt.edu/vumcdept /derm/contact/ET007.html).

2.2 Production

Three companies in the United States produce EA: Hoechst Celanese Corp., Rohm & Haas, Co., and Union Carbide Corporation. In 1994, these three companies produced 165,515 kg of EA (USITC 1994). Production of EA has steadily increased during the 1990s (136,485 kg in 1990; 138,987 in 1991; and 152,680 kg in 1992) (USITC 1990, 1991, 1992). In 1989, the United States imported over 2.3 million pounds of EA while exporting 145.4 million pounds (USITC 1990, 1991, 1992) (EHIS 1998: http://ehis.niehs.nih.gov/roc/eighth/chemicals/ethacryl.pdf).

2.3 Environmental exposure

EA enters the environment mainly as a result of spills and industrial discharges. Human exposure to EA occurs mostly through inhalation of EA vapors, but it may also result from skin contact or drinking contaminated water. EA is highly soluble in water and is slightly persistent (half-life of 2-20 days). However, the majority of EA will dissipate and mix with the air (91%). EA also bioaccumulates in fish; with fish tissues analyzed having about the same average concentrations as the water they inhabit (U.S. EPA 1998: http://mail.odsnet.com/ TRIFacts/ 108.html).

EA biodegrades faster in air than in water. In the atmosphere, it undergoes photo-oxidative reduction with OH-radicals, and its half-life has been calculated at 13.7 hours. EA has also been qualitatively detected in the air of a landfill in the United States. EA can be readily absorbed into the ground, making it a very mobile compound (BUA 1995).

EA occurs naturally in some fruits: blackberries, raspberries, pineapples, and yellow passion fruit (BUA 1995). EA levels in these fruits are very low, with pineapples having EA concentrations of 0.77 mg/kg (IARC 1986).

2.4 Occupational exposure

In a polystyrene production plant, airborne EA concentrations at the breathing zone of workers and in the atmosphere of various workplaces are described in Table 2-1 and Table 2-2, respectively (Samimi and Falbo 1982).

Table 2-1. Time weighted average (TWA) concentrations of airborne EA at the breathing zone of workers in various job sites

Job Site	Number of Samples	Mean (ppb)	Range (ppb)
Reactor A	11	55	ND-274
Reactor B	9	ND	-
Reactor C	13	15	ND-60
Reactor D	6	ND	-
Unloading Docks	11	211	ND-844

Samimi and Falbo (1982)

ND=Non-detectable (<1ppb)

Table 2-2. Time weighted average (TWA) concentrations of EA in the atmosphere of various workplaces

Job Site	Number of Samples	Mean	Range (ppb)
Reactor A	8	3 ppb	ND-20 ppb
Reactor B	6	ND	-
Reactor C	6	10 ppb	ND-60 ppb
Reactor C (Lower Level)	9	27 ppb	ND-241 ppb
Reactor D	10	ND	-
Unloading Dock	18	3.1 ppm	ND-57 ppm[1]

Samimi and Falbo (1982)

ND=Non-detectable (<1ppb)

[1] EA was dripping due to a leaky hose

The mean TWA concentrations for EA was 0.06-0.2 mg/m^3 for personal breathing zones and 0.012-0.1 mg/m^3 for the work area (IARC 1986).

Data on EA concentrations in other work areas is limited. Table 2-3 summarizes other work environments that have been analyzed for EA concentrations.

Table 2-3. Time weighted average (TWA) concentrations of EA in the atmosphere of other work environments

Work Area	Sampling	Concentration of EA	Reference
Pilot Production and Processing Plant	Air	4-58 mg/m³	Kuzelova *et al.* (1981)[1]
Resin Department of a Paint Manufacturing Facility	Air	<1-24 mg/m³	Belanger and Coye (1981)[1]
Resin Manufacturing Plant	Air (from a scrubber stack)	49-2750 mg/m³	Jones *et al.* (1981)[1]
Production Plant	Exhaust Gas	12,500-25,000 mg/m³	BUA (1995)
Office Building	Indoor Air	0.04-2.1 mg/m³	BUA (1995)

[1] Cited by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) (1986)

2.5 Ethyl Acrylate analysis and sampling

EA vapor sampling is the best method for determining environmental EA concentrations. National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) approves of various collection tubes, with the best being a carbon disulfide tube. The tubes are then analyzed by gas chromatography. Biomarkers are not used because they cannot accurately be analyzed (NIOSH 1981: http://www.cdc.gov/niosh/81-123.html).

2.6 Regulations

EA is regulated by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) under the Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation and Liability Act (CERCLA); the Resource Conversation and Recovery Act (RCRA); and the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA). A reportable quantity (RQ) of 1,000 lb has been established under CERCLA for EA. RCRA has identified EA as a hazardous waste based on its ignitability, and subjects it to handling and report/record keeping requirements. FDA regulates EA as a component of synthetic flavorings and as a component of packaging that comes in contact with food. OSHA has revised the permissible exposure limit (PEL) to ≤5 ppm as an eight-hour time weighted average (TWA) with 25 ppm as the short-term exposure limit (STEL) for EA.

Table 2-4. EPA Regulations

EPA	
Regulatory Action	**Effect of Regulation/Other Comments**
40 CFR 172—Subpart B—Table of Hazardous Materials and Special Provisions. Promulgated: 55 FR 46798, 11/7/90.	Provides control of EA released into the environment. Final rule designates and establishes RQ of 1,000 lb (454 kg).
40 CFR 261—Subpart D—Lists of Wastes. Promulgated: 45 FR 33119, 05/19/80. Subjects waste products, off-specification batches, and spill residues in excess of 1,000 kg to handling and report/record	Designates EA as a hazardous constituent of waste, and subjects wastes known to contain it to the same requirements. As a result of the EPA Carcinogen Assessment Group's listing of EA as a potential carcinogen, it is regulated under the hazardous waste

EPA	
Regulatory Action	**Effect of Regulation/Other Comments**
keeping requirements.	disposal rule of RCRA.
40 CFR PART 302—Designation, Reportable Quantities, and Notification. Promulgated: 50 FR 13474, 04/04/85. U.S. Codes: 42 U.S.C. 9602, 9603, and 9604; 33 U.S.C. 1321 and 1361. EA is a hazardous material with a RQ of 1,000 lb (454 kg).	This regulation, under section 102(a) of the CERCLA of 1980, identifies reportable quantities for EA, and sets forth the notification requirements for releases of these substances. This regulation also catalogs reportable quantities for hazardous substances designated under section 311(b)(2)(A) of the Clean Water Act.
40 CFR PART 372—Toxic Chemical Release Reporting: Community Right-to-Know. Promulgated: 53 FR 4525, 02/16/88. U.S. Codes: 42 U.S.C. 11023 and 11048.	Details reporting and notification requirements for handlers of hazardous materials such as EA. General threshold amounts are 10,000 lb for toxic chemicals used at a facility and 25,000 lb/yr, if manufactured or processed at a facility.

Table 2-5. OSHA Regulations

OSHA	
Regulatory Action	**Effect of Regulation/Other Comments**
29 CFR 1910 SUBPART Z—Toxic and Hazardous Substances. Promulgated: 55 FR 9033 1/90. U.S. Codes: 29 U.S.C. 653, 655(a), and 657.	Sets forth an employee's exposure to EA based on respiratory effects (potential for skin adsorption noted). PEL $\leq$ 5 ppm (20 mg/m^3); STEL $\leq$ 25 ppm for 15 min.
29 CFR 1910.1200—Hazard Communication. Promulgated: 59 FR 6170, 02/09/94. U.S. Codes: 29 U.S.C. 653, 655, and 657.	Requires chemical manufacturers, importers, and all employers to assess chemical hazards and to provide information to employees. Hazard Communication Program will include labels, material safety data sheets, and worker training.
29 CFR 1910.1450—Occupational exposure to hazardous chemicals in laboratories. Promulgated: 01/31/90.	As a select carcinogen (IARC Group 2B), EA is included as a chemical hazard in laboratories. Employers are required to provide employee information and training, and to provide a Chemical Hygiene Plan.
29 CFR 1915 SUBPART Z—Toxic and Hazardous Substances. Promulgated: 58 FR 35514, 07/01/93.	Shipyard exposure to EA should not exceed 25 ppm (100 mg/m^3).
29 CFR 1926 SUBPART D—Occupational Health and Environmental Controls. Promulgated: 61 FR 9250, 03/03/96. U.S. Codes: 40 U.S.C. 333; 29 U.S.C. 653, 655, and 657.	Exposure of employees to inhalation, ingestion, skin absorption, or contact with EA must not exceed 25 ppm (100 mg/m^3) in construction settings.

Table 2-6. FDA Regulations

FDA	
Regulatory Action	**Effect of Regulation/Other Comments**
21 CFR 172.515—Synthetic flavoring substances and adjuvants. Promulgated: 61 FR 14245, 04/01/96.	EA may be used as a synthetic flavoring substance provided it is used in the minimum quantity required to produce its intended effect, and otherwise in accordance with all the principles of good manufacturing practice.
21 CFR 175—Indirect Food Additives: Adhesives and Components of Coatings. Promulgated: 42 FR 14534, 03/15/77. U.S. Codes: 21 U.S.C. 321, 342, 348, 379e.	EA may be safely used in adhesives that are components of articles intended for use in packaging, transporting, or holding food provided the adhesive is either separated from the food by a functional barrier or does not exceed the limits of good manufacturing practice.
21 CFR 176—Indirect Food Additives: Paper and Paperboard Components. Promulgated: 42 FR 14554, 03/15/77. U.S. Codes: 21 U.S.C. 321, 342, 346, 348, 379e.	EA may be safely used as components of the uncoated or coated food-contact surface of paper and paperboard intended for use in producing, manufacturing, packaging, processing, preparing, treating, packing, transporting, or holding aqueous and fatty foods, provided the amounts of EA used does not exceed that necessary to accomplish the technical effect.
21 CFR 177 SUBPART B—Substances for Use as Basic Components of Single and Repeated Use Food Contact Surfaces. Promulgated: 42 FR 14572, 03/15/77.	Semi-rigid and rigid acrylic, modified acrylic plastics, and cellophane made from EA may be safely used as articles intended for use in contact with food.
21 CFR 177 SUBPART C—Substances for Use Only as Components of Articles Intended for Repeated Use. Promulgated: 56 FR 42933, 08/30/91.	Cross-linked polyester resins and resin-bound filters made with EA may be safely used as articles or components of articles intended for repeated use in contact with food.
21 CFR 178 SUBPART D—Certain Adjuvants and Production Aids.	EA may be safely used mixed, alone, or in mixture with other permitted polymers, as modifiers in semi-rigid and rigid vinyl chloride plastic food-contact articles.
21 CFR 181.30—Substances used in the manufacture of paper and paperboard products used in food packaging. Promulgated: 42 FR 14638, 03/15/77. U.S. Codes: 21 U.S.C. 321, 342, 348, and 371.	EA may only be used in the manufacture of waxed paper and paperboard products used in food packaging.

3   Human Studies

No case reports or epidemiological studies were available for review in the IARC Monograph (1986) to evaluate the carcinogenicity of ethyl acrylate (EA) to humans. Similarly, no data were available to evaluate the reproductive effects or prenatal toxicity of ethyl acrylate to humans (IARC 1986).

3.1   Cohort Studies

A more recent study by Walker *et al.* (1991) evaluated the mortality from cancer of the colon or rectum among workers exposed to EA and methyl methacrylate (MMA). Three cohorts were assembled consisting of white male workers associated with acrylic sheet manufacturing facilities at Bristol, Pennsylvania (employed between 1933 and 1945); later at Bristol (hired between 1946 and 1982); and at Knoxville, Tennessee (employed between 1943 and 1982). All cohort members were traced until death or December 1986. The split in the Bristol cohort was due to changes in production methods. Following an explosion in 1943 at the EA production facility, the proportion of EA in the polymerization mixture was changed immediately from 12 to 6%, with a subsequent decline to zero in the following decade. However, EA was used elsewhere in the same buildings in which acrylic sheet was produced, even after its use in acrylic sheet production was discontinued completely.

The two cohorts (later Bristol and Knoxville), with later dates of hire, showed no excess mortality from any cause, including colon cancer or rectal cancer. In the earliest Bristol cohort, excess colon cancer seemed restricted to men employed extensively in the early 1940s in jobs entailing the highest exposures to vapor-phase EA and MMA monomer, and volatile by-products of the EA/MMA polymerization process. The excess mortality appeared 20 years after the equivalent of three years work in jobs with the most intense exposures. A smaller elevation in colon cancer mortality appeared in a low-exposure group in the early Bristol cohort. Rectal cancer mortality was elevated in the same categories that showed excess rates of colon cancer death; however, due to lower rates, the rectal cancer results are less precise.

The EA/MMA exposures of members of the three cohorts were estimated on the basis of job histories and job-specific exposure rating scales. Monitoring data for EA/MMA were available only from the Bristol plant beginning in 1972; earlier levels of exposure to EA/MMA were reconstructed from production records and interviews with plant personnel. The resulting exposure scales were semiquantitative, pertained to vapor exposure only, did not distinguish between EA and MMA, relied on the recollection of long-term employees, were not verifiable, were not mutually comparable across all three cohorts, and did not take into account the presence of other substances in the workplace. These other substances included some which have subsequently been considered as either probable or possible carcinogens by the IARC (lead, ethylene dichloride, methylene chloride, and acrylonitrile) (Walker *et al.* 1991).

3.2   Case-Control Studies

No data available to date.

Table 3-1. Post IARC (1986) Human Studies for Ethyl Acrylate

Design	Population Group	Exposure	Effects	Potential Confounders/Effects	Comments	Reference
cohort	Three cohorts working from 1933-1982 in two plants manufacturing and polymerizing acrylate monomers. Early Bristol: 3934 white males employed as hourly workers at any time between 1 January 1933 and 31 December 1945. Later Bristol: 6548 white males hired as hourly or salaried workers during the period 1 January 1946 to 31 December 1982. Knoxville: 3381 white males employed from 1 January 1943 to 31 December 1982. All cohort members were followed until death or 31 December 1986.	Exposure intensity scores zero (not exposed) to five. Total dose for each job derived by multiplying the exposure intensity by the interval in days from start to end of employment in the job, divided by 365.25.	Evaluation: Early Bristol colon cancer: 1) threshold analysis, 2) mutually exclusive dose categories at 20 years, 3) maximum exposure intensity, 4) date of hire, and 5) characteristics of decedents. Early Bristol rectal cancer: mutually exclusive accumulated dose categories. Later cohorts: accumulated EA/MMA dose at 20 years. Results: Early Bristol colon cancer: Excess colon cancer restricted to men employed in early 1940s in jobs entailing highest exposures to vapor-phase EA and MMA monomer and volatile by-products of the EA/MMA polymerization process. Excess mortality appeared 20 years after equivalent of three years work in jobs with most intense exposures. RR= 2.40 (95% CI 1.33-4.34). Smaller elevation in colon cancer mortality in low-exposure group in early cohort. Early Bristol rectal cancer: observed-to-expected ratio of 1.9	Exposures to other possible carcinogens.	Exposure unit was a cumulative score, such that long-term, low-dose exposure was not differentiated from short-term, high-dose exposure.	Walker *et al.* (1991)

Design	Population Group	Exposure	Effects	Potential Confounders/Effects	Comments	Reference
			(95% CI 0.92-3.4) 10 deaths were observed to 5.23 expected. In the second cohort of later Bristol workers there were few person years in the higher exposure categories. The mid-dose of 5-9 units resulted in RR =1.26 (95% CI 0.18-8.92). (One unit represents exposure for one year in a job with a dose rating of one, or six months in a job with a rating of two, or three months in a job with a rating of four.) Colon cancer showed no association with exposure and there were no rectal cancer cases. The third cohort of Knoxville workers showed an excess in colon cancer at the lowest exposure category RR=1.85 (95% CI 1.15-2.98), but deficits for the three higher exposure categories. There was only one case of rectal cancer with three cases expected.			

4   Experimental Carcinogenesis

The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) assessed the carcinogenic potential of ethyl acrylate (EA) in 1986 (IARC 1986). The IARC Working Group reviewed rodent studies reporting EA exposures via oral, dermal, and respiratory routes.

4.1   Previously reviewed studies

Young Wistar rats (groups of 25 males and 25 females) were administered 0, 6-7, 60-70, or 2000 ppm EA in the drinking water (estimated to be 10, 100, or 3000 ppm in food based on observed fluid and food consumption). Surviving rats were sacrificed at two years of age. Body weights at 2000 ppm EA in water were depressed or significantly depressed throughout the study for females and through the first year for males. Mortality was unaffected. No evidence of systemic toxicity, nor carcinogenicity was observed (Borzelleca *et al.* 1964). The IARC Working Group noted incomplete reporting of this study's findings (IARC 1986).

The National Toxicology Program (NTP 1986: http://ehis.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/chem_ hs/NTP_ Chem1/radian140-88-5.txt) reported EA administered by gavage in corn oil (five doses per week for up to 103 weeks) caused both neoplastic and non-neoplastic lesions in the forestomachs of Fischer 344/N rats and B6C3F$_1$ mice. EA was given at levels of 0, 100, or 200 mg/kg. Non-neoplastic, forestomach lesions in both species included hyperkeratosis, hyperplasia, and inflammation. These changes were associated with dose-related increases in the incidences of squamous cell carcinoma, squamous cell papilloma, and squamous cell carcinoma and papilloma (combined) as shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Comparison of forestomach tumors in rats and mice based on Ethyl Acrylate concentration (a) in the corn oil gavage solution

	Squamous Cell Papilloma				Squamous Cell Carcinoma				Papilloma & Carcinoma			
	0%	1%	2%	4%	0%	1%	2%	4%	0%	1%	2%	4%
Rats												
Males	1/50	--	15/50	29/50	0/50	--	5/50	12/50	1/50	--	18/50	36/50
Females	1/50	--	6/50	9/50	0/50	--	0/50	2/50	1/50	--	6/50	11/50
Mice												
Males	0/48	4/47	9/50	--	0/48	2/47	5/50	--	0/48	5/47	12/50	--
Females	1/50	4/49	5/48	--	0/50	1/49	2/48	--	1/50	5/49	7/48	--

NTP (1986)

0% = vehicle controls; 1% = low dose mice (100 mg/kg); 2% = high dose mice (200 mg/kg) and low dose rats (100 mg/kg); 4% = high dose rats (200 mg/kg).

-- = not applicable

Forty male C3H/HeJ mice (74-79 days of age at start of study) were treated with 25 µL of undiluted EA (approximately 23 mg per application) thrice weekly to the dorsal skin for their complete lifespan. No statistically significant effects on survival were observed. The treatments also failed to influence the incidence of skin tumors in these animals, although histologic

evidence of skin irritation was noted in a few mice. The positive control treatment (0.1% 3-methylcholanthrene) elicited an unequivocally positive skin tumor response (33 confirmed squamous cell carcinomas) in 39/40 mice (DePass *et al.* 1984).

EA was administered by inhalation to Fischer 344 rats and B6C3F$_1$ mice (initial concentrations were 100, 310, and 920 mg/m^3). These animals were exposed to EA six hours a day, five days a week. Exposures to 100 and 310 mg/m^3 continued for 27 months. After six months, exposure to 920 mg/m^3 was terminated due to excessive weight loss in experimental rats and mice. Animals exposed to this highest EA concentration for six months were observed an additional 21 months. Treatment-related carcinogenicity was not evident in either species at the conclusion of the study. Non-neoplastic changes observed in treated rats and mice included olfactory mucosal glandular and basal cell hyperplasia and metaplasia. A follow-up study in which Fischer 344 rats and B6C3F$_1$ mice were exposed to 5 ppm (20 mg/ m^3) EA for 24 months revealed no treatment-related changes in the nasal mucosa (Miller *et al.* 1985).

4.2 Findings of earlier review groups
The IARC's Working Group concluded that there is sufficient evidence for the carcinogenicity of EA in experimental animals (IARC 1986). In the Annual Report on Carcinogens, NTP concluded that EA could reasonably be anticipated to be carcinogenic (ROC 1998: http://ehis.niehs.nih.gov/cgi-bin/roc.cgi).

4.3 Pertinent information developed since earlier reviews
Review of the scientific database on the toxicity and carcinogenicity of EA revealed no new classical carcinogenicity studies. Studies useful in understanding the carcinogenic potential of EA have been reported.

4.3.1 Ethyl Acrylate induced local toxicity at the site of application

The forestomach proliferative response of rats to EA administered by gavage has been shown secondary to local irritation at the site of administration of the chemical (see experimental descriptions in Section 6.1). Prolonged EA exposure (up to 12 months) as a corn oil gavage may result in increased incidences of squamous cell papillomas and/or carcinomas. Shorter regimens of administration, followed by recovery periods, result in time-related regression of proliferative changes of forestomach epithelium.

4.3.2 Testing in transgenic rodents

EA was tested in one transgenic mouse model (Tennant *et al.* 1996). When applied to the shaved dorsal skin of Tg.AC mice (three times per week for 20 weeks), EA did not cause the development of papillomatous lesions. The Tg.AC mouse is believed to respond to dermal applications of either genotoxic or non-genotoxic carcinogens with a rapid production of papillomas in the site of repeated applications.

In this regard, Tice *et al.* (1997) reported that application of EA to the shaved dorsal skin of Tg.AC mice (for up to 20 weeks) did not induce leukocytic DNA damage, nor did it increase the incidence of micronucleated erythrocytes. This absence of evidence of genotoxicity is consistent with a failure of Tg.AC mice to respond to repeated administrations of EA. However, failure of

the Tg.AC mice to respond to EA may also indicate that the dermal absorption of the chemical was simply insufficient to elicit expression of the transgene.

The use of transgenic models for carcinogen identification is in developmental stages. Accordingly, the failure of these animals to respond to EA, although suggestive, cannot be taken as conclusive evidence for a lack of carcinogenic potential.

5   Genotoxicity

5.1   Summary

The genotoxicity of ethyl acrylate (EA) has been investigated extensively in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. The *in vitro* assays demonstrate that EA can induce DNA damage including chromosomal aberrations and gene/point mutations. When tested *in vivo*, EA was found to be nonmutagenic in systems measuring both the induction of chromosomal damage and induction of gene/point mutations. The lack of mutagenicity *in vivo* is consistent with data in rats on its rapid metabolism by hydrolysis to acrylic acid (IARC 1986). Thus, EA has mutagenic potential for the induction of chromosomal damage that is not fulfilled *in vivo* due to its rapid metabolism. In conclusion, the *in vitro* and *in vivo* data on the genotoxity of EA are consistent with the interpretation that EA should be considered non-genotoxic to exposed human populations.

5.2   Prokaryotic systems

5.2.1   Gene mutations

A number of reports have indicated that EA is not mutagenic to *Salmonella typhimurium* strains TA98, TA100, TA1535, TA1537, or TA1538 in the presence or absence of a metabolic activation system (S9) derived from the liver of polychlorinated biphenyl-induced rats and hamsters or phenobarbital-induced rats, when tested in liquid incubation and plate incorporation assays (Ishidate *et al.* 1981; Haworth *et al.* 1983; Tennant *et al.* 1987; Waegemaekers and Bensink 1984; Zeiger *et al.* 1992).

EA induced respiratory-deficient mutations in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Zimmermann and Mohr 1992).

5.2.2   Other effects

EA induced chromosome malsegregation and mitotic recombination in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Zimmermann and Mohr 1992).

5.3   Lower eukaryotic systems

5.3.1   Drosophila melanogaster

EA did not induce sex-linked recessive lethal mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster* (fruit flies) when administered in feed at 40,000 ppm or given at 20 mg/mL by injection (Valencia *et al.* 1985).

5.4   Mammalian systems *in vitro*

5.4.1   Chromosomal aberrations

EA induced a dose-related increase in the incidence of chromosomal aberrations in Chinese hamster lung cells in the absence of any added metabolic activation system (Ishidate 1983).

Chromosome aberrations and sister chromatid exchange were induced by EA in Chinese hamster ovary cells in the presence, but not in the absence, of added metabolic activation (Loveday *et al.* 1990).

EA induced chromosome aberrations in mouse lymphoma cells in the absence of added metabolic activation (Moore *et al*. 1988).

No significant increases in sister chromatid exchange frequency were observed when spleen cells taken from C57BL/6 mice were exposed to EA either during the G^0 stage of the cell cycle or 23 hours after mitogen stimulation during the late G^1 or early S phase of the cell cycle. Significant increases in chromatid-type aberrations were found when the target cells were treated 23 hours after mitogenic stimulation (Kligerman *et al*. 1991).

5.4.2 Gene mutations

EA consistently induced mutations in mouse lymphoma cells in the absence (Moore *et al*. 1988; Ishidate *et al*. 1981; McGregor *et al*. 1988; Moore *et al*. 1991; Tennant *et al*. 1987) or presence (Dearfield *et al*. 1991) of added metabolic activation. However, it did not induce mutations in Chinese hamster ovary cells, in the absence of added metabolic activation (Moore *et al.* 1991).

5.4.3 Cell transformation

EA induced cell transformation in cultured tracheal cells taken from rats (Steele *et al*. 1989).

5.5 Mammalian systems i*n vivo*
5.5.1 DNA damage

The alkaline single cell gel (known as SCG or Comet) assay was used to study peripheral blood leukocyte DNA from groups of female Tg.AC transgenic mice treated dermally with 60, 300, or 600 μM EA, three times per week for 20 weeks. Blood was taken every four weeks during treatment. DNA migration and dispersion in treated groups was not significantly affected by EA exposure as described. The experimental conditions applied (sufficient to induce local keratinocyte proliferation) failed to cause genotoxicity, as defined by the Comet Assay, or micronuclei (mentioned below). The authors suggested that EA is either not genotoxic or not absorbed through the skin sufficiently to cause measurable systemic effects (Tice *et al.* 1997).

No DNA adducts were detected in the forestomach or liver of groups of three male Fisher 344 rats given EA at doses up to 400 mg/kg by stomach tube (Ghanayem *et al*. 1987).

5.5.2 Gene mutations

To date, there are no peer reviewed reports of gene mutations detected after EA exposure in mammalians.

5.5.3 Chromosomal aberrations

No significant increases in chromosomal aberrations or sister chromatid exchange were found in the spleen cells of groups of five male C57BL/6 mice given EA at 125, 250, 500, or 1000 mg/kg by weight, in saline, by intraperitoneal injection (Kligerman *et al*. 1991).

5.5.4 Micronuclei

Groups of four male Balb/c mice were given two intraperitoneal injections (24 hours apart) of EA (total dose, 225-1800 mg/kg bw), and the bone marrow cells were examined six hours after

the second injection. A dose-related increase in the number of micronucleated polychromatic erythrocytes was observed (Przybojewska *et al*. 1984).

A repeat of this experiment, using groups of ten mice of strains C57BL/6 and Balb/c (*i.e.* including the strain used by Przybojewska *et al*. 1984) and two intraperitoneal doses, each up to 738-812 mg/kg, found no increase in the frequency of micronuclei in the bone marrow. The investigators noted that the purity of the material tested by Przybojewska *et al*. was not reported (Ashby *et al*. 1989).

When groups of five male C57BL/6 mice were given a single intraperitoneal injection of EA at 125, 250, 500, or 1000 mg/kg by weight a small but statistically significant increase in micronuclei was found at the highest dose. This was, however, apparently due to an elevated frequency in a single animal (Kligerman *et al*. 1991).

In more recent studies, no increases in micronuclei frequency were observed in the bone marrow of groups of six male BDF1 mice given a single intraperitoneal injection of EA at 375, 500, 750, or 1000 mg/kg. In addition, no positive effects were seen when doses of 188, 375, 750, or 1000 mg/kg were delivered by stomach tube (Morita *et al.* 1997).

The frequency of micronuclei among peripheral blood polychromatic and normochromatic erythrocytes did not increase in groups of female Tg.AC mice treated dermally with EA (as described above in Section 5.5.1) (Tice *et al.* 1997).

5.5.5 Other studies

Female mice of the Tg.AC line failed to respond (*i.e.* skin papillomas did not develop) to the dermal application of EA. Unfortunately, experimental details were not presented in this report (Tennant *et al*. 1996).

6 Other Data Relevant to an Evaluation of Carcinogenicity and its Mechanisms

6.1 Toxic effects of Ethyl Acrylate on forestomach epithelium

Gavage administration of ethyl acrylate (EA) during the National Toxicology Program (NTP) sponsored carcinogenicity studies in Fischer 344/N rats and B6C3F$_1$ mice caused dose-related, non-neoplastic changes in the forestomachs (non-glandular portion) in both sexes of both species (NTP 1986). Non-neoplastic lesions (hyperkeratosis, hyperplasia, and inflammation) were produced in pre-chronic studies by the administration of daily gavage doses of 400-800 mg/kg.

Ghanayem *et al*. (1985) reported that EA produced dose- and time-related stomach lesions after only two to four daily gavage doses of 200 mg/kg each. EA caused mucosal edema associated with vesicle formation, mucosal hyperplasia, submucosal edema and inflammation, and vacuolization of the tunica muscularis of the forestomach. Oral administrations of EA also caused submucosal edema and inflammation in the glandular stomach, and mucosal erosions or ulcers in both portions of the stomach. The administration of equivalent doses of EA by the subcutaneous or intraperitoneal routes did not produce gastric lesions. The absence of systemic toxicity and the dependency of gastric lesions on the gavage route of administration suggests that a localized response to an injurious agent at the site of application mediates the proliferative response.

The same researchers also reported, after repeated oral administrations of EA, the glandular portion of the rat stomach becomes refractory to the local toxicity produced by the chemical. Glandular portions of stomach were normal after 14 consecutive days of repeated administrations of 100 mg/kg. Adaptation of the forestomach, however, was proliferative in nature and featured papillomatous thickening. Cessation of EA administration for two weeks after 14 consecutive daily administrations of 100 mg/kg resulted in normalization of the forestomach epithelium (Ghanayem *et al*. 1986a, 1986b).

Reversibility of forestomach lesions after 13 weeks of oral EA administration has also been demonstrated (Ghanayem *et al*. 1991). Rats killed at the conclusion of 13 weeks of daily dosing with 100 or 200 mg/kg of EA exhibited severe hyperplasia of the forestomach epithelium but no lesions in the glandular stomach. Rats afforded an eight-week recovery period after the 13-week dosing regimen exhibited a significant decline in incidence and severity of mucosal cell hyperplasia relative to animals that had been sacrificed at the end of 13 weeks. Rats given a 19-month recovery period exhibited still more normalization of forestomach epithelium.

The sustainability of forestomach hyperplasia is apparently dependent upon the continued exposure of rats to EA. The authors noted that, although sufficient post treatment time was allowed for the development of forestomach tumors (up to 19 months after 13 weeks of dosing), there was nearly complete normalization of tissues. No increase in incidences of either squamous cell papilloma or carcinoma was observed. The results of this experiment are consistent with the absence of a genotoxic effect of EA in *in vivo* mammalian systems. Finally (Ghanayem *et al*. 1994) assessed the temporal relationship between EA-induced forestomach epithelial proliferation and carcinogenicity. EA was administered at 200 mg/kg, five days per week, to male Fischer 344 rats. Squamous cell proliferation was observed in the forestomachs of all rats

that had received EA for either 6 or 12 months. Cessation of dosing at 12 months followed by a two-month recovery resulted in squamous cell papillomas in 2/5 (40%) rats. In rats dosed for 12 months, then observed for nine months, squamous cell carcinomas or papillomas were observed in 4/13 (31%). In contrast, rats dosed with EA for six months and allowed a 2- or 15-month recovery, exhibited a time dependent regression of cell proliferation. They did not exhibit forestomach neoplasms. Thus, a temporal relationship exists between EA-induced epithelial cell proliferation and forestomach carcinogenicity.

7   References

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Some chemicals used in plastics and elastomers. IARC evalutation of the carinogenic risk of chemicals to humans.