

**Amended Final Report of the
Cosmetic Ingredient Review
Expert Panel of the**

**Safety Assessment of
Cyclomethicone, Cyclotetrasiloxane,
Cyclopentasiloxane, Cyclohexasiloxane, and
Cycloheptasiloxane**

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The 2009 Cosmetic Ingredient Review Expert Panel members are: Chairman, Wilma F. Bergfeld, M.D., F.A.C.P.; Donald V. Belsito, M.D.; Ronald A. Hill, Ph.D.; Curtis D. Klaassen, Ph.D.; Daniel C. Liebler, Ph.D.; James G. Marks, Jr., M.D., Ronald C. Shank, Ph.D.; Thomas J. Slaga, Ph.D.; and Paul W. Snyder, D.V.M., Ph.D. The CIR Director is F. Alan Andersen, Ph.D. This report was prepared by Wilbur Johnson, Jr., Senior Scientific Analyst/Writer.

Cosmetic Ingredient Review

1101 17th Street, NW, Suite 412 ♦ Washington, DC 20036-4702 ♦ ph 202.331.0651 ♦ fax 202.331.0088 ♦ cirinfo@cir-safety.org

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1101 17th Street, NW, Suite 412
Washington, DC 20036

ABSTRACT

Cyclomethicone (mixture) and the specific chain length cyclic siloxanes (n = 4 to 7) reviewed in this safety assessment are cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds. These ingredients have the skin/hair conditioning agent function in common. Minimal percutaneous absorption was associated with these ingredients and the available data do not suggest skin irritation or sensitization potential. Also, it is not likely that dermal exposure to these ingredients from cosmetics would cause significant systemic exposure. The CIR Expert Panel concluded that these ingredients are safe in the present practices of use and concentration.

INTRODUCTION

A safety assessment of Cyclomethicone was published in 1991 (Elder 1991). On the basis of the available data, the CIR Expert Panel concluded that Cyclomethicone was safe as a cosmetic ingredient in the (then) present practices of use. In that assessment, Cyclomethicone was described as a mixture of cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds. Because new studies are available that address the safety of the individual Cyclomethicones from chain length 3 through 7, the CIR Expert Panel reopened consideration of Cyclomethicone to consider these data and to include each of these individual chain length ingredients now identified as cosmetic ingredients. Accordingly, the following cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds (Cyclomethicones) are reviewed in this safety assessment: Cyclomethicone, Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆), and Cycloheptasiloxane (D₇). These ingredients function as anticaking agents, hair conditioning agents, skin conditioning agents - emollients, and solvents in cosmetic products. The definition of Cyclomethicone has recently been revised to state that it is a mixture of individual chain length cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds from D₄ through D₆. While there is no indication that Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃) is being used as a cosmetic ingredient in products marketed in the United States at this time, it is known to be an impurity of D₄ (and possibly D₅-D₇) and has been detected in cosmetic products. D₃ had been defined as an ingredient in the International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008); however, the International Nomenclature Committee (INC) of the Personal Care Products Council recently approved the deletion of D₃ as an entry in future issues of the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook*.

The ingredients reviewed in this safety assessment account for a minor portion of the composition of silicone gel-filled breast implants for humans, which consist predominantly of higher molecular weight cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds. These higher molecular weight compounds are not cosmetic ingredients and present different exposure-related issues, when compared to their lower molecular weight counterparts in cosmetic products. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved the safety of one silicone gel-filled breast implant with a small percentage of Cyclomethicones of the sizes considered in this assessment.

CHEMISTRY

DEFINITION AND STRUCTURE

Cyclomethicone(s)

In the published CIR Final Report (Elder 1991), Cyclomethicone (CAS No. 69430-24-6) was defined as a mixture of cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds that conform to the formula in Figure 1, where n has an average value that ranges from 3 to 6. Also, according to this final report, the tetramer (n = 4) and pentamer (n = 5) of Cyclomethicone are frequently the predominant polymers found in cosmetic formulations. The tetramer polymer is illustrated in Figure 2 (Dow Corning 1988).

The most recent information indicates that the definition of Cyclomethicone has been revised. It had been given as a generic name for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds that conform to the formula included in Figure 1 in this safety assessment, where n has a value between 3 and 7, but now the range of values for n is between 4 and 6, because this more accurately reflects the current composition of Cyclomethicone that is used in the personal care industry (Personal Care Products Council 2009a). Other names for Cyclomethicone include: Cyclic Decamethyl Cyclopentasiloxane/Octamethyl Cyclotetrasiloxane Resin; Cyclosiloxanes, Di-Me; and Methylcyclopolysiloxane.

The INCI names for labeling specific cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds are: Cyclotetrasiloxane (n = 4), Cyclopentasiloxane (n = 5), Cyclohexasiloxane (n = 6), and Cycloheptasiloxane (n = 7). Cyclomethicone was listed as a technical name for each compound (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008), but, given the new definition of Cyclomethicone, it is no longer considered a technical name for D₃ or D₇. Accordingly, Cyclomethicone is not included among the technical names for Cyclotrisiloxane and Cycloheptasiloxane in chemical definitions under the following subheadings. In common usage and as given in studies provided by the Silicones Environmental, Health and Safety Council (SEHSC), these individual chain length cyclic dimethyl polysiloxanes are also known as D₃, D₄, D₅, D₆, and D₇, respectively, and are identified as such in the report text.

The following chemical definitions refer to the structure in Figure 1.

Cyclotrisiloxane

Cyclotrisiloxane (CAS No. 541-05-9) is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 3, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 5, 6, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Other names for Cyclotrisiloxane include: Cyclotrisiloxane, Hexamethyl-; and Hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008). The most recent information indicates that the monograph for Cyclotrisiloxane in the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook* has been withdrawn by the International Nomenclature Committee (INC) of the Personal Care Products Council (Personal Care Products Council 2009b), presumably because it is not being used as a cosmetic ingredient and the detection of D₃ in cosmetic products is due to its presence as an impurity. In keeping with this decision, this Committee also removed any listing of D₃ as a potential component/impurity of D₄ through D₇ in these respective monographs. Accordingly, D₃ is not listed as a potential component/impurity of Cyclotetrasiloxane, Cyclopentasiloxane, Cyclohexasiloxane, nor Cycloheptasiloxane in chemical definitions under the following subheadings.

Cyclotetrasiloxane

Cyclotetrasiloxane (CAS Nos. 293-51-6 and 556-67-2) is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 4, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 5, 6, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Other names for Cyclotetrasiloxane include: Cyclomethicone; Cyclotetrasiloxane, Octamethyl-; and Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008).

Cyclopentasiloxane

Cyclopentasiloxane (CAS No. 541-02-6) is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 5, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 6, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Other names for Cyclopentasiloxane include: Cyclomethicone; Cyclopentasiloxane, Decamethyl-; and Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008).

Cyclohexasiloxane

Cyclohexasiloxane (CAS No. 540-97-6) is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 6, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 5, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Other names for Cyclohexasiloxane include: Cyclomethicone; Cyclohexasiloxane, Dodecamethyl-; and Dodecamethylcyclohexasiloxane (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008).

Cycloheptasiloxane

Cycloheptasiloxane (no Cas No.) is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 7, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 5, or 6) are present at levels of less than 1%. Other names for this chemical include: Cycloheptasiloxane, Tetradecamethyl-; and Tetradecamethylcycloheptasiloxane (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008).

CHEMICAL AND PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

Cyclomethicone

According to Todd and Byers (1976), Cyclomethicone is a colorless, odorless, transparent, nongreasy, silicon fluid. It has a low viscosity and surface tension and a relatively high vapor pressure, which allows the majority of the silicone portion to evaporate from the surface to which it is applied. Variations in the volatility of Cyclomethicone can be achieved through the blending of its different polymers. Cyclomethicone is soluble in ethanol (99%), isopropanol (99%), mineral oil, paraffin wax, stearyl alcohol, stearic acid, and aliphatic, chlorinated, and fluorinated solvents. It is highly insoluble in water, but hydrolytically stable as to be easily emulsified into most cosmetic preparations.

Since the chemical name "Cyclomethicone" encompasses a number of different polymers, slight variations will exist in calculations of molecular weight, solubility, specific gravity, viscosity, etc. Table 1 includes the physico-chemical properties of 4 Cyclomethicones (trade name mixtures) (Dow Corning (1988; SEHSC 2009a). Data on D₄, D₅, and D₆ appear in Table 2.

ANALYTICAL METHODS

Cyclomethicone

A commonly used analytical method for the identification of Cyclomethicone is gas chromatography (GC) (Nippo Yakuji Ltd 1986, 1987).

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), and Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆)

Ferdinandi and Beattie (1996a) validated a high resolution GC method for the measurement of D₄ in a nose-only inhalation chamber. A linear response over the range from 76.27 to 829.02 ppm was reported with a correlation coefficient of 0.9988.

In a study by Varaprath and Lehmann (1997), D₄, D₅, and D₆ were analyzed using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC/MS). Samples of these siloxanes were obtained pure by distillation of the commercial Dow Corning polydimethylsiloxane fluids.

Varaprath et al. (1998) described a method for extracting D₄ from tissues (using glass beads), so that levels could be measured, in the Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion section (under In Vivo/In Vitro study subheading) later in the report text. In *in vitro* experiments, heparinized blood samples freshly collected from rats were spiked with ¹⁴C-D₄ (specific activity = 1.33 μCi/ml) at 3 different concentrations (21, 210, and 2100 ppm) and then subjected to extraction with tetrahydrofuran. The extraction efficiencies were determined to be ~ 90% at the concentrations of ¹⁴C-D₄

that were tested (21, 210, and 2100 ppm) ^{14}C -D₄. The extraction efficiency was low (~ 40%) when D₄ was present in the blood at nanogram per ml levels (50 to 500 ppb D₄).

In these instances, performing the extractions in the presence of glass beads greatly improved the extraction efficiency. In a single extraction at concentrations as low as 60 ppb D₄, the extraction efficiency was > 80%. The glass beads, coated with blood, provided greater surface area for solvent interaction and greater agitation with the solvent, resulting in improved efficiency. Therefore, it was determined to be advantageous to use glass beads for extraction when the materials were present at low levels. Results indicated that recoveries of D₄ and its unbound metabolites from the plasma were essentially quantitative in 3 extractions. The recoveries were >90%, even in a single extraction. Extraction efficiencies were as follows: lung (98.2 ± 0.3%), liver (95.4 ± 0.4%), fat (99.4 ± 0.8%), urine (98.1 ± 0.2%), and feces (94.1 ± 0.6%) (Varapath et al. 1998).

In more recent studies, D₄ was also analyzed using GC/MS (Flassbeck et al. 2001), and the same was true for D₃, D₄, D₅, and D₆ (Wang et al. 2009).

IMPURITIES

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

According to the Scientific Committee on Consumer Products (SCCP) (2005), the purity of D₄ used in tests is described as unknown or > 95% (maximum of 99.8%). Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D₅) (5% maximum) and Hexamethylcyclotrisiloxane (D₃) (1% maximum) are listed as impurities/accompanying contaminants.

REACTIVITY

Cyclomethicone

According to Todd and Byers (1976), Cyclomethicones are nondegradable, inert polymers. Under normal cosmetic conditions and in formulations, they are nonreactive. Cyclomethicone is compatible with other cosmetic silicones as well as the following other cosmetic ingredients: beeswax, glycerine, isopropyl myristate, isopropyl palmitate, lanolin, mineral oil, paraffin, and stearic acid. Information from Dow Corning (1988) states that the low viscosity of Cyclomethicone allows the silicone portion to evaporate without cooling the skin, like other volatile carrier fluids. By blending Cyclomethicones (mixtures of the n value in the structural formula), the volatility of the compound can be adjusted to correspond to the amount of time that the silicone portion should remain in contact with the skin. At 22 °C, the tetramer component (n = 4) evaporates nearly twice as slowly as water. The pentamer (n = 5) evaporates more slowly than the tetramer.

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Almond et al. (2008) used matrix isolation IR spectroscopy to study the vacuum pyrolysis of D₃, D₄, and D₅. The results were interpreted in the context of various kinetic models. It was shown that the significant pyrolysis products (CH₃, CH₄, C₂H₂, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and SiO) may be accounted for by radical reactions involving dimethylsiloxane (D₁). The authors noted that the evidence is strong that D₁ is formed from D₄. Furthermore, the results of this study indicate that D₃ is formed from both D₄ and D₅ and that the small molecules (CH₃, CH₄, C₂H₂, C₂H₄, C₂H₆, and SiO) are formed from D₃, D₄, and D₅. Thus, it seems likely that the decomposition mechanisms of all 3 oligomers are similar.

The working hypothesis is that each of the oligomers decomposes by elimination of D₁ and that the larger ones depolymerize. Therefore, it seems very likely that all of the smaller products result from the decomposition of D₁, which is not stable at high temperatures. It was concluded that the experiments in this study have established that the 3 cyclic

siloxanes (D₃, D₄, and D₅) produce essentially the same hydrocarbon decomposition products when undergoing vacuum pyrolysis, indicating that a common precursor is involved in the process (Almond et al. 2008).

Finocchio et al. (2008) studied the decomposition of D₃ (at room temperature and in the 473 to 673 K range) over the surface of basic (CaO and MgO) and acidic oxides (Al₂O₃ and SiO₂). All results are based on D₃ data. Results indicate that alumina can be used as an adsorbent for the hot-cleaning of biogas from siloxanes. At 673 K, alumina reacts, producing the hydrolysis of the Si-C bond. Due to this reaction, the alumina surface is silicized and methane is released. Silica, which is an excellent adsorbent for siloxanes at room temperature, shows an adsorption capacity of 0.76 g of adsorbed siloxane per gram of silica and loses its adsorption ability at high temperatures. Basic oxides such as MgO and CaO have strong reactivity in decomposing siloxanes in the absence of CO₂, but lose reactivity when in contact with carbon dioxide because of surface carbonation.

USE

PURPOSE IN COSMETICS

According to the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook* (Gottschalck and Bailey 2008), the following ingredients function as hair conditioning agents, skin-conditioning agents - emollient, and solvents in cosmetics: Cyclomethicone, Cyclotetrasiloxane, Cyclopentasiloxane, and Cyclohexasiloxane. Cycloheptasiloxane functions as an anticaking agent, skin conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent, but not as a hair conditioning agent.

SCOPE AND EXTENT OF USE IN COSMETICS

According to Klykken et al. (1999), the second largest use of Cyclotetrasiloxane is in personal care products, such as, antiperspirants, deodorants, skin creams, and shampoos. In these applications, it is commonly blended with Cyclopentasiloxane and is referred to as Cyclomethicone. Zareba et al. (2002) have stated that some commercially available roll-on antiperspirants have contained up to 60% Cyclotetrasiloxane as a vehicle.

Data submitted to the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 1984 by cosmetic firms participating in the Voluntary Cosmetic Registration Program (VCRP) indicate that Cyclomethicone was being used in a total of 168 products at concentrations ranging from ≤0.1% to > 50%. These data were reported in the published CIR Final Report on Cyclomethicone (Elder 1991) and are also included as historical data in the current safety assessment in Table 3. Current VCRP data (FDA 2009), also given in Table 3 as a function of product category, indicate that Cyclomethicone is being used in a total of 1499 products. For example, Cyclomethicone is reportedly used in 29 mascara products out of a total of 463 mascara products reported in the VCRP, suggesting that less than 10% of mascara products on the market contain Cyclomethicone.

As shown in Table 3, the following other cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds also are being used: Cyclotetrasiloxane (56 products), Cyclopentasiloxane (2459 products), Cyclohexasiloxane (618 products), and Cycloheptasiloxane (4 products).

The 2009 VCRP data also included 6 uses of Cyclotrisiloxane in cosmetics, but these uses were not substantiated by FDA and have been deleted from Table 3.

Of the many product categories reported, all of the ingredients are being used in personal hygiene products and that, except for Cycloheptasiloxane, all are being used in baby products. The results of a survey of current ingredient use concentrations conducted by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 (Personal Care Products Council 2008) are as follows: Cyclomethicone (0.06% to 89%), Cyclotetrasiloxane (0.0007% to 28%), Cyclopentasiloxane (0.0001% to 93%), and Cyclohexasiloxane (0.0004% to 48%). In the example of use of Cyclomethicone in mascara products given earlier,

the use concentration ranged from 2 to 15%.

Use concentration data for Cyclotrisiloxane in cosmetic products were reported in this survey (Personal Care Products Council 2008), but these data were subsequently withdrawn based on the assertion that Cyclotrisiloxane is not specifically added to cosmetic products.

Earlier data from Dow Corning (1999), indicated that, depending on the product type, the concentration of Cyclotetrasiloxane in formulations has varied between 0.1% and 54%.

Using gas chromatography/mass spectrometry, Horii and Kannan (2008) determined concentrations of the following siloxanes (cyclic and linear) in a variety of consumer products, including personal care products: Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D₅), dodecamethylcyclohexasiloxane (D₆), Tetradecamethylcycloheptasiloxane (D₇), and linear siloxanes (L₄ to L₁₄). Both personal care and household products were purchased from retail stores in Albany, New York and in Tsukuba, Japan during 2006. The data for personal care products and a few household products are summarized in Table 4. Data on household products are included in Table 4 because one of the product categories (identified as Other) consisted of personal care and household products. According to a Wang et al. (2009), the results of a survey of 252 cosmetic and personal care products sold in Canada indicated the presence of D₃ in 0.8% of the products. The 2 product types that were listed as containing D₃ were a fragrance (D₃ concentration = 0.12 mg/g wet weight) and a diaper cream (D₃ concentration = 0.45 mg/g wet weight). D₄, D₅, and D₆ were also detected in these products. Product samples were extracted with different organic solvents, depending on the nature of the products, and then subjected to GC-MS.

Cosmetic products containing cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds are applied to most areas of the body, and could come in contact with the oral, ocular, or nasal mucosa. These products may be used on a daily basis, and could be applied frequently over a period of several years.

None of the ingredients included in this safety assessment is included on the list of ingredients that cosmetic products marketed in Japan must not contain or cosmetic ingredient lists with restrictions (Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare 2009). The same is true relative to the absence of these cosmetic ingredients from similar lists of ingredients for cosmetic products marketed in the European Union (European Commission 2009).

The SCCP (2005) did issue the following opinion on D₄:

“On the basis of provided data, the SCCP is unable to assess the risk to consumers when Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) is used in cosmetic products.

Despite the size of the dossier submitted by industry for evaluation, it is unfortunate that the dossier lacked meaningful information/data on actual consumer exposure to D₄.

The following information is required before any further consideration:

- * Adequate information on the use of D₄ in cosmetics in particular in different cosmetic products;
- * Relevant/appropriate percutaneous absorption studies at different use concentrations;
- * Information on the co-use, and hence consumer exposure, of related organosiloxanes, particular decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

NONCOSMETIC USE

Cyclomethicone

According to Dow Corning (1988), noncosmetic applications of Cyclomethicone include glass and specialty cleaners, lubricants, and penetrating oils. In other publications (Todd and Byers 1976; Frant 1983; Mahmoud et al. 1984), nonvolatile silicones are reported as possible barriers in the prevention or recovery of skin damage. Frant (1983) reported that some siloxane oils are used widely for their lubricating properties and water repellency on walls, textiles, leather, in molds, etc. Also, inhaled silicone oil vapor has acted as an antifoaming agent in the treatment of chronic bronchitis. According to Gabel et al. (1987), polydimethylsiloxane, a specific silicone oil, also has been used in intraocular applications for the treatment of complicated retinal detachment.

According to Dow Corning (1999), cyclic siloxanes, including Cyclomethicone, are used as precursors in the production of polydimethylsiloxanes, which are widely used in various industrial and consumer applications, topical pharmaceutical formulations, and as breast implants. Additionally, certain food products are processed using silicone antifoam containing Cyclotetrasiloxane.

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆), and Cycloheptasiloxane (D₇)

According to Varaprath (1998), approximately 80% of all of the D₄ that is produced is used as an intermediate in making polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) polymers for applications such as building sealants, rubber products, and fabric coatings. The remaining 20% of the D₄ that is produced is used in personal products. D₄ is also used as a building block in the industrial synthesis of long chain silicone polymers (Klykken et al. 1999).

The gel of silicone gel-filled breast implants consists of 1% to 2% low molecular weight silicones with structures identified mainly as cyclic compounds such as the following: D₃, D₄, D₅, D₆, and D₇ (Flassbeck et al. 2001).

The results of a GC/MS analysis of breast implant distillate were as follows: D₃ (18%), D₄ (60%), D₅ (20%), and D₆ (2%). Low molecular weight linear siloxanes (< 1%) and platinum (40 mg/kg distillate) were also detected (Lieberman et al. 1999).

The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has approved the safety of one silicone gel-filled breast implant with a small percentage of Cyclomethicones of the sizes considered in this assessment (D₄ through D₇) (FDA 2009).

D₅ is used in the dry cleaning process (United States Environmental Protection Agency [EPA] 2008).

GENERAL BIOLOGY

PERCUTANEOUS ABSORPTION

In Vivo Studies - Animal

Cyclomethicone

Data (Dow Corning 1956) obtained in skin irritation studies (species not stated) indicated that Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) was not absorbed through the skin in toxic amounts.

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Jovanovic (2000) conducted an *in vivo* percutaneous absorption study of D₄ using female Fisher 344 rats (10 to 11 weeks old). [¹⁴C]D₄ was applied at doses of 2, 4, 8, and 10 mg/cm² skin. Each of these levels was a separate experiment with 2 control animals. At 1, 6, or 24 h after continuous exposure to radiolabeled D₄ in metabolism cages, 4 animals per each time point were killed and blood levels of ¹⁴C-D₄ determined. There were 4 rats in each group and 2 animals served as controls for each dose level. Rats that had signs of abrasion or problems with attachment of the skin

depot were replaced by a reserve animal. Skin exposure was done to a shaved area of the skin, to which had been glued a skin depot apparatus. After application of D_4 , a charcoal basket was inserted immediately into the dosing chamber and secured with an open aluminum cap. A hole previously made in the plastic cap of the charcoal basket allowed air to circulate, providing semi-occlusive conditions. Following dosing, the animals were placed in metabolism cages that allowed collection of expired air, urine, feces, and CO_2 . At the appropriate time, the charcoal basket was removed, desorbed in toluene, and the extract was counted for radioactivity content. The surface area was cleaned and wiped with cotton swabs. Animals were killed and blood samples obtained for analysis. Exposure sites were tape stripped and counted. The skin was then excised, digested with tetraethyl-ammonium hydroxide (TEAH), and counted. Animal carcasses were digested with TEAH and counted. After 24 h of exposure, one group of animals at each exposure level was removed from the cages, dose sites were washed, charcoal baskets were replaced, and the animals were returned to metabolism cages for another 6 days; radioactivity in excreta was measured daily.

Six animals were exposed to $10 \text{ mg/cm}^2 D_4$ in normal cages and 2 control animals were not dosed. Blood (200-300 μl) was drawn at 0.5, 2, 4, and 10 h. These animals were killed at 10 h. The levels of radioactivity in all of the blood samples were below the level of quantification and were not tabulated.

The results of the metabolism studies are given in Table 5. The author concluded that less than 1% of applied radiolabel was absorbed, independent of the amount applied, and that the amount absorbed decreased over time (% absorbed at 24 h was statistically significantly less than at 1 h), again independent of the amount applied. The authors suggested that the amount of D_4 that remained in the skin after 24 h may actually have migrated to the skin surface and evaporated over the ensuing 6-day period over which the animals were monitored (Jovanovic 2000).

Zareba et al. (2002) studied the percutaneous absorption of D_4 using the human skin/nude mouse model. Female BALB/C nude mice (weights = 25 to 30 g) were used, and human fetal forearm skin was obtained from aborted fetuses (estimated gestational range = 16 to 22 weeks). Human tissue grafts (10 to 20 mm in diameter) were transplanted subcutaneously (s.c.) on to mice following sodium pentobarbital anesthesia. The mice were maintained for 2 to 4 months to allow graft healing and growth to approximately 25 mm in diameter. Aluminum skin depot chambers were attached to the human skin grafts at 15 min prior to application of D_4 . The first experiment (4 mice) was performed using nonlabeled D_4 . At 15 min after chamber attachment, 15.7 mg of neat unlabeled D_4/cm^2 (volume = 10 μl) were applied using a 50- μl syringe. After dose administration, a charcoal basket was placed in the dosing chamber above the application site. The animals were then placed in metabolism cages, and the experiment was terminated 24 h after D_4 application. The animals were killed by cervical dislocation while under pentobarbital anesthesia. The skin depot chamber was removed and the human skin graft, charcoal baskets, and expired volatile traps were collected. D_4 distribution within whole skin layers was evaluated. D_4 concentrations in the epidermis, dermis, and adipose tissue at the application site were expressed as nanograms of total D_4 and as the percentage of the total measured in tissue at the application site.

To study the percutaneous absorption of D_4 , a second experiment was performed using ^{14}C - D_4 . The dose that was applied to the skin was the same as that described for nonlabeled D_4 . After dosing, the mice were placed in metabolism cages equipped with charcoal tubes as expired volatile traps. After 24 h, application sites were tape stripped to remove any remaining D_4 that was present in the stratum corneum, and the animals were returned to their metabolism cages for an additional 48 h. After 72 h, the mice (under pentobarbital anesthesia) were killed by cervical dislocation and the human skin graft, mouse skin, carcass, and cage wash were collected.

The purpose of the first experiment (nonlabeled D₄, 4 mice) was to determine whether D₄ undergoes accumulation in s.c. adipose tissue. After 24 h, the total concentrations of D₄ in the human epidermis, dermis, and adipose tissue at the application site were 470, 220, and 75 ng of D₄, respectively. The mean distribution of the total D₄ that was recovered in the skin was 61% in the epidermis, 29% in the dermis, and 10% in the adipose tissue.

The results of the *in vivo* percutaneous absorption study (7 mice) indicated that, after 24 h of exposure to ¹⁴C-D₄, a mean of 1.09% ± 0.46% of the applied dose was absorbed through human skin under semioclusive conditions. Approximately 0.02% of the applied dose remained in the skin at 24 h post-application. Most of the applied dose (94.59% ± 12.28%) had evaporated from the application site. The volatile trap that captured D₄ accounted for 42% of the radioactivity that was absorbed, while 49% was excreted in the urine and feces (Zareba et al. 2002).

Plotzke et al. (1996) studied the *in vivo* percutaneous absorption of D₅ using young adult Sprague-Dawley CD male and female rats (weights: 314 to 332 g [12 males], 212 to 239 g [12 females]). ¹⁴C-D₅ was applied to the dorsal surface (clipped free of hair) of males and females over a 24 h period, after which the metabolism cages and exposure site were washed. The animals were then re-wrapped with a fresh non-occlusive bandage and returned to metabolism cages for the continued collection of samples. At 96 h post-initial exposure, the animals were removed from the cages and killed, and the exposure site was excised.

The application site, washed prior to excision at 96 h, contained only 0.35% of the applied dose. Less than 1% of the ¹⁴C dose was recovered in the urine and carcass. Trace levels of ¹⁴C were found in the feces, CO₂ traps, and tissues. The amount of ¹⁴C-D₅ absorbed (i.e., total activity in the excreta, carcass, and dose site) was 0.80 ± 0.62% (n = 11); the total recovery was ~ 89%. Most (~ 85%) of the ¹⁴C-D₅ volatilized from the skin surface (Plotzke et al. 1996).

Jovanovic and Crofoot (2003) studied the *in vivo* percutaneous absorption of D₅ using 4 groups of 4 female Fischer 344 rats (10 to 11 weeks old, test groups) and untreated control rats. ¹⁴C-D₅ was applied topically (10.9 mg/cm² of skin). Of the 4 test groups, 1 group (non-respiring rats euthanized prior to dose application) was included in order to differentiate expired air from ¹⁴C-D₅ that had escaped from the skin depot. Another group (wash group) was included so that the disposition of the residual D₅ following a soap and water wash could be evaluated. During exposure, the animals were housed in Roth-style metabolism cages to allow the collection of urine, feces, and expired or escaped volatiles associated with D₅. All of the animals were exposed in a semi-occlusive manner, using an aluminum skin depot. One group of animals was exposed for 6 h, and the remaining 3 groups were exposed for 24 h. At the end of exposure at 24 h or at 168 h post-exposure, the test animals were killed. The 2 control rats were killed at the 24 h time point. The charcoal baskets were removed and extracted, and the skin was washed, tape stripped, excised and solubilized; carcasses were also solubilized. The radioactivity content in each sample was measured by liquid scintillation counting. The % dose absorbed was defined as the amount of radioactivity in the following: carcasses, feces, urine, skin dosing sites, and cage rinses. Radioactivity found in expired volatile and CO₂ traps was attributed to leakage of D₅ from the dosing chamber and was not included in the total absorption.

The majority of the ¹⁴C-D₅ that escaped from the dosing chamber was trapped in the charcoal tubes within 6 h. It was noted that most of the ¹⁴C-D₅ evaporated from the skin surface and was trapped in an activated charcoal basket that had been placed above the exposure site. The absorption of ¹⁴C-D₅ (± standard error of the mean) in the wash group after 168 h (0.089 ± 0.0302% of applied dose) was significantly lower (p < 0.05) than that observed after 24 h of exposure (0.243 ± 0.0259% of applied dose). The results of this study indicate that the portion of D₅ that remained in the skin (without stratum corneum) after 24 h of exposure (could be considered part of the absorbed dose) migrated to the skin

surface and continued to evaporate, resulting in a significant decrease in the apparent absorption of D₅ to 0.089% of the applied dose (Jovanovic and Crofoot 2003).

Jovanovic et al. (2008) studied the fate of D₄ and D₅ absorbed in the skin *in vivo* using rats. A single dose of ¹⁴C-D₄ (10, 4.8, and 2 mg/cm²) and of ¹⁴C-D₅ (10 mg/cm²) was applied topically inside of a dosing chamber that was attached to the dorsal area. The collection of urine, feces, and expired/escaped volatiles in metabolism cages occurred over a 24 h period. The majority of applied D₄ or D₅ volatilized from the skin surface. Less than 1.0% of applied D₄ and 0.2% of applied D₅ was absorbed. Approximately 60% of absorbed D₄ and 30% of absorbed D₅ reached systemic compartments. The amount absorbed into the skin decreased with time, indicating that residual D₄ and D₅ diffused back into the skin surface and continued to evaporate. Overall, a low tendency to pass through the skin and into systemic compartments was demonstrated for both D₄ ($\leq 0.5\%$ of the applied dose) and D₅ ($< 0.1\%$ of the applied dose) (Jovanovic et al. 2008).

In Vitro Studies - Human

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Looney et al. (2000) conducted a study using normal, healthy volunteers dermally exposed to either 1.4 (3 males) or 1 g (3 females) of C¹³-labeled D₄ by applying the compound to the axilla. Study results are included in Table 8. The dose was split between axilla and applied once. Samples of blood and expired air were collected prior to exposure and at 1, 2, 4, 6, and 24 h post-exposure. Of the subjects tested, there was considerable variation in the amount of D₄ detected in expired air, but this was true to a lesser extent for blood measurements. Peak values were always the 1 h determinations. Female volunteers were exposed to less D₄ than males, nonetheless, they had higher D₄ levels in expired air and blood.

In a study by Reddy et al. (2007), data for the human dermal absorption of D₄ and D₅ through axilla skin *in vivo* were interpreted using pharmacokinetic models of dermal absorption, by adding the dermal exposure route to inhalation PBPK models that were developed previously. Both the D₄ and D₅ experiments involved 3 male and 3 female subjects. Subjects in the D₅ study were asked not to shave the underarms several days prior to the study, and there was uncertainty as to whether these instructions were given to subjects in the D₄ study group. In 2 separate syringes, a total of 1.4 g ¹³C-D₄ or ¹³C-D₅ (men) and 1.0 g ¹³C-D₄ or ¹³C-D₅ (women) was weighed. Subjects were positioned on their sides prior to administration of the applied dose to the axillae. The contents of one syringe were administered to the axilla and allowed to be absorbed and evaporate for approximately 5 minutes. The subject then changed sides, and the second half of the dose was administered to the other axilla. During both studies, the area of the application site was measured and recorded.

In volunteers exposed to either D₄ or D₅, the maximum concentration of chemical in exhaled air was reached at or prior to 1 h post-administration of the test material. According to model calculations, the % of applied dose of D₄ that was absorbed into the systemic circulation of men and women was 0.12% and 0.309%, respectively. For D₅, approximately 0.05% of the applied dose was absorbed in men and women. Model calculations for both D₄ and D₅ indicate that more than 83% of the chemical that reached the systemic circulation was eliminated via exhalation within 24 h (Reddy et al. 2007).

In Vitro Studies

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Jovanovic (2006) conducted a study to evaluate the dermal absorption of ¹⁴C-D₄ (formulated in 3 personal care

applications) following application to swine skin. Skin membranes were prepared from fresh Yucatan miniature swine skin. Each personal care formulation was applied to skin samples prepared from 3 swine that were assessed in 6 replicates. The *in vitro* study was conducted under semi-occluded conditions using the Bronaugh flow-through diffusion cell system. Each formulation (skin moisturizer, roll-on antiperspirant, and cuticle coat) was prepared using radiolabeled D₄ at 2 different concentrations and analyzed for D₄ content by GC with flame ionization detection. The skin moisturizer was formulated with 5.0% and 41.7% ¹⁴C-D₄, and the roll-on antiperspirant was formulated with 10.6% and 62.2% ¹⁴C-D₄. The cuticle coat was formulated with 51.6% and 95.8% ¹⁴C-D₄. The epidermis, with the top layer of dermis, was separated from the remainder of the skin by dermatoming, and each formulation was applied at a targeted dose of 10 mg/cm².

At the end of the 24 h exposure, charcoal baskets were removed, the application site was gently blotted, and the skin was tape-stripped and solubilized. The penetration of applied ¹⁴C-D₄ through the skin was determined by analyzing the receptor fluid for radioactivity content. Percent dose absorbed was calculated from the radioactivity recovered from the skin samples after washing and tape stripping, and receptor fluid samples were collected over a 24 h period.

Study results indicated that, regardless of the D₄ formulation (skin moisturizer, roll-on antiperspirant, or cuticle coat), and applied dose of ¹⁴C-D₄ (between 0.6 and 10 mg D₄ per cm² swine skin), the majority of applied ¹⁴C-D₄ volatilized from the skin surface (> 90% of applied dose) and was captured in the charcoal baskets placed above the exposure site. The volatilized dose represents 99.5% of the total recovered dose from all formulations with ¹⁴C-D₄ at all dose levels tested. A small amount of the applied dose (< 0.5%) was detected on the skin surface following 24 h of exposure. The total percentage of the dose absorbed in the skin and receptor fluid was estimated at ≤ 0.05% of the applied dose in all experiments. Only a small amount of applied ¹⁴C-D₄ (≤ 0.01%) penetrated through the skin into the receptor fluid. The mean cumulative penetration of ¹⁴C-D₄ over a 24 h period was < 0.60 μg equivalents D₄/cm² of skin, regardless of the formulation and dose of ¹⁴C-D₄ applied to the skin. The permeability coefficient was estimated at between 1 x 10⁻⁷ cm/h (skin moisturizer, 5% D₄) and 1.9 x 10⁻⁹ cm/h (antiperspirant, 10.6% D₄) (Jovanovic 2006).

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Jovanovic et al. (2008) studied the *in vitro* percutaneous absorption of ¹⁴C-D₄ and ¹⁴C-D₅ through dermatomed human skin using flow-through diffusion cells. Single doses were applied neat and in antiperspirant formulations to the skin for 24 h. Most of the D₄ and D₅ that was applied (~90%) volatilized before being absorbed. Only 0.5% of applied D₄ was absorbed, and the absorption of D₅ was one order of magnitude lower (0.04%). The greatest percentage of (>90%) of absorbed D₄ and D₅ was found in the skin.

Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Plotzke and McMahon (1996) studied the percutaneous absorption of D₅ through excised split-thickness skin (381 to 629 μm) from young adult Sprague-Dawley rats (7 males, 4 females), using Franz diffusion cells. The male and female rats used were 57 and 65 days old, respectively. Following an initial screening to check for skin barrier integrity, ¹⁴C-D₅ (6.4 mg/cm²) was applied to each skin sample. Over a 24 h period, measurements of the ¹⁴C-D₅ that could be rinsed from the skin, that was associated with the skin, or that penetrated through the skin into the receptor were made. The percentages of radioactivity detected in the skin were 0.67% and 1.19% for males and females, respectively. Values for the total amount of D₅ absorbed (% of radioactivity in the skin and receptor fluid) were 1.08% and 1.54% in males and females, respectively. The vast majority of the radioactivity was said to have volatilized from the test system, having been trapped in either charcoal baskets or volatile expired air traps.

Jovanovic and Plotzke (1999) conducted a study to evaluate the percutaneous absorption of $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$, both neat and formulated in an antiperspirant formulation, when applied to human skin (dermatomed intact abdominal skin from cadavers; semi-occlusive conditions) using the Bronaugh Flow-Through Diffusion Cell System (Bronaugh and Stewart 1985). The epidermis was separated from the dermis and skin discs from 6 donors were mounted in replicate in the flow-through chambers. Following an initial screening to check for barrier integrity, 2 experiments were performed. In the first experiment, dermatomed full thickness skin samples from 3 subjects were placed in diffusion cells in duplicate and dosed with neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$. Dermatomed skin samples from the remaining 3 subjects were placed in diffusion cells in duplicate and dosed with $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ formulated into an antiperspirant formulation.

In the second experiment, the second piece of skin (not previously dosed) from the 3 subjects dosed with neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ in the first experiment was dosed with the antiperspirant formulation containing $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$. The second piece of skin (not previously dosed) from the three subjects dosed with the antiperspirant formulation in the first experiment was dosed with neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$. In both experiments, the target application for D_5 was 6 mg/cm^2 of skin and the target radioactivity for each piece of skin was $6 \text{ } \mu\text{Ci}$. The actual applications of D_5 ranged from 3.28 to 12.97 mg/cm^2 and radioactivity ranged from 2.24 to $8.97 \text{ } \mu\text{Ci}$ per piece of skin. The average dose of neat D_5 was 6.18 mg/cm^2 , and formulated D_5 delivered an average dose of $7.68 \text{ mg D}_5/\text{cm}^2$ of skin. The % dose absorbed was defined as the amount of radioactivity in the receptor fluid (including the radioactivity associated with the Saran wrap that the skin was placed on prior to tape stripping) and the amount that remained on the skin after rinsing and tape stripping.

Based on a statistical analysis of the data, only 0.04% of the applied dose of neat D_5 was absorbed at the end of the assay (standard error of the mean = 0.007% of the applied dose). This value was not significantly different from that observed with formulated D_5 ($0.022\% \pm 0.005\%$ of the applied dose). The % of the applied dose that was recovered from all of the samples of neat D_5 analyzed was $91.45\% \pm 1.60\%$, and 98.80% for D_5 formulated in a generic antiperspirant. The majority of the dose volatilized from the application site and was collected in the charcoal baskets (Jovanovic and Plotzke 1999).

Cyclohexasiloxane (D_6)

Jovanovic (2003) evaluated the percutaneous absorption of neat D_6 radiolabeled with ^{14}C following application to human skin *in vitro*. The test substance was applied under semi-occlusive conditions in a Teflon flow-through diffusion cell system. Human epidermis was prepared from abdominal skin (6 donors). The epidermis with the top layer of dermis was separated from the rest of the skin by dermatoming, and the skin samples were mounted in replicate. Skin samples from 3 donors passed the barrier integrity test. A physiological receptor fluid was pumped beneath the skin samples. Skin samples from each of the 6 donors were dosed with neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_6$ at a target dose of 6 mg/cm^2 during the 24-h exposure period.

At the conclusion of the assay, the majority of the applied dose was located on the skin surface (46.407% of applied dose) or volatilized from the dosing site and collected in charcoal traps (40.057% of applied dose). Practically no $^{14}\text{C-D}_6$ penetrated through the skin and into the receptor fluid. The percentage of applied neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_6$ recovered from all samples that were analyzed was $89.542\% \pm 4.154\%$, which included 3.075% of the applied neat $^{14}\text{C-D}_6$ (standard error of the mean = 0.852% of the applied dose) that was found in the skin. The results of an additional experiment indicated that, after the skin was washed at 24 h, the portion of $^{14}\text{C-D}_6$ observed in the skin did not penetrate through the skin, but continued to evaporate. Thus, it was concluded that, under the conditions of this assay, D_6 was not percutaneously absorbed (Jovanovic 2003).

EFFECT ON CORNEAL PERMEABILITY

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Green et al. (1993) evaluated the effect of D₃, D₄, or D₅ on corneal permeability using adult albino rabbits. Two different chemical sources were reported, Petrarch Systems and Ohio Valley Specialty Chemicals. The eyes were perfused with a purified oil, to which either D₃, D₄, or D₅ was added. *In vitro* endothelial permeabilities to inulin and dextran were determined after 1 week. D₃, D₄, and D₅ induced a modest increase in permeability. However, another series from a different supplier had no effect.

Green et al. (1998) evaluated the effect of D₃, D₄, or D₅ on corneal endothelial permeability using adult albino rabbits. Two different chemical sources were used, United Chemical Technology (source A) and Ohio Valley Specialty Chemicals (source B). The eyes were perfused with a nontoxic oil to which either D₃, D₄, or D₅ was added. At 1 week later, the *in vitro* permeability to inulin and dextran was determined. Dose-response relationships were generated.

The data showed that, where a response is evoked, there is little effect of concentration (from 1 mg/ml to 25 mg/ml) on induced permeability changes. D₃ (from source A) slightly increased permeability, especially at a dose of 1 mg/ml; D₃ (from source B) caused essentially no change. D₄ (from both sources) increased dextran permeability in a consistent manner at all test concentrations, and enhanced inulin permeability at a dose of 1 mg/ml. D₅ (from source A) increased inulin/dextran permeability at doses of 10 and 25 mg/ml, increasing with higher concentrations. However, D₅ (from source B) increased dextran permeability at all concentrations, albeit with a greater increase at 1 mg/ml; D₅ increased inulin permeability at dose of 1 mg/ml.

Generally speaking, a concentration effect was not observed, although lower concentrations tended to cause greater increases in inulin and dextran permeability. However, the exception was D₅ (from source A), where a concentration-dependent permeability increase was noted. Dextran permeability, a measure of a smaller pathway across the endothelium (compared to inulin), tended to be influenced to a greater extent than inulin (Green et al. 1998).

ABSORPTION, DISTRIBUTION, METABOLISM, AND EXCRETION

In Vivo Studies - Oral

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Plotzke (1998) conducted a study to evaluate the effect of carrier on the absorption and disposition of D₄ after oral administration to Fischer 344 rats. The carriers were: corn oil, an over-the-counter antacid product (EmulphorTM emulsifying agent), 35 centistoke polydimethylsiloxane fluid, and a "Simethicone fluid" that was developed to be similar in composition to the polydimethylsiloxane fluid currently found in the commercially available antacid/antiflatulent products. D₄ was also delivered neat.

Following a single oral dose (300 mg/kg) of [¹⁴C]D₄ (neat or in 1 of the above carriers), animals were placed in glass metabolism cages for the collection of expired air, urine and feces. Additional animals were euthanized at predetermined timepoints for the collection of blood. The absorption of radioactivity, expressed as the percentage (mean of 5 animals + SE) of recovered radioactivity in the urine, carcass, expired volatiles, and expired CO₂, was studied using each carrier.

D₄ absorption was 51.95 ± 4.96%, 12.11 ± 1.21 %, and 28.14 ± 5.77% in corn oil, Simethicone, or neat, respectively. The area under the curve (AUC), generated from the blood data, also indicated that the test article was most readily absorbed when delivered in corn oil. The author concluded that the oral absorption of D₄ is significantly influenced by the carrier (Plotzke 1998).

Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Varaprath et al. (1999b) conducted a study to identify urinary metabolites of D₅ in the rat. ¹⁴C-D₅, diluted with unlabeled D₅ to a specific activity of 17.377 mCi/mmol, was administered orally to 2 female Fischer 344 rats [CDF(F-344)/CrIBr, ~7 to 10 weeks old]. The rats received 136.55 or 151.42 μCi of diluted ¹⁴C-D₅. The animals were placed in a glass metabolism cage to facilitate the collection of urine samples over a 24-h period. Dimethylsilanediol [Me₂Si(OH)₂] and methylsilanetriol [MeSi(OH)₃] were the major metabolites. The minor metabolites were as follows: [MeSi(OH)₂-O-Si(OH)₃], [MeSi(OH)₂-O-Si(OH)₂Me], [MeSi(OH)₂-O-Si(OH)Me₂], Me₂Si(OH)-O-Si(OH)Me₂, and [Me₂Si(OH)-OSiMe₂-OSi(OH)Me₂]. The formation of D₄D'OH and MeSi(OH)₃ clearly established some demethylation at the silicon-methyl bonds. Parent D₅ was not present in the urine.

Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆)

Jovanovic (2004) evaluated the disposition of ¹⁴C-Cyclohexasiloxane (¹⁴C-D₆) using 10 groups of Fischer 344 rats (CDF® (Fischer 344)/CrIBR strain). The animals were 8 to 10 weeks old and body weight ranges were as follows: 163 to 219 g (males) and 133 to 155 g (females). A single oral dose of ¹⁴C-D₆ (in corn oil, 1000 mg/kg body weight) was administered to a group of 4 males and 4 females; metabolism cages were used for the collection of urine, feces, and expired air. The animals were killed at 168 h post-dosing, and selected tissues and remaining carcasses collected and analyzed for radioactivity. Expired volatiles and feces were also analyzed for parent D₆ concentration.

A separate group of rats (6 males, 6 females), cannulated via jugular vein, was used to determine radioactivity and parent D₆ concentration in the blood at 15 minutes and at 1, 6, 12, 18, 24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144, and 168 h post-dosing. Whole-body autoradiography (WBA) was used for qualitative *in vivo* assessment of tissue distribution of radioactivity in male and female rats after single oral administration of D₆ (in corn oil). Animals in the WBA groups were killed at 1, 4, 24, 48, 96, and 168 h post-dosing.

In males and females, the majority of the administered dose was excreted in the feces. Based on the recovered radioactivity (urine, expired volatiles, expired CO₂, tissues, and carcass), the absorption of D₆ was 11.88% (males) and 11.83% (females) of the administered dose. For most of the recovered radioactivity, a similar pattern of distribution of the radioactivity was noted in males and females. However, considerable variability in the levels of radioactivity in expired volatiles was reported, which may have been due to off gassing from the fecal pellets that were not collected, as intended, but remained on the inside of the cage. The authors noted that this phenomenon could potentially produce some false high values for expired volatiles and absorption due to partitioning from the fecal matter into the air. All of the radioactivity in the expired volatiles was attributed to parent D₆. Metabolic profile evaluation of the urine and feces indicated that all of the radioactivity in the urine consisted of polar metabolites, whereas, in the feces, the majority was parent D₆, with a trace non-polar metabolite.

Whole body autoradiography data supported mass balance data showing that the majority of administered D₆ in corn oil stayed in the GI tract and was excreted in the feces within 48 h. Low levels of radioactivity were detected in organs and tissues, such as the liver, fat, and bone marrow, indicating some absorption of D₆. Statistical analysis of blood curves indicated the presence of small amounts of metabolites in the blood, based on the difference between radioactivity and parent AUCs ($AUC_{\text{metabolites}} = AUC_{\text{radioactivity}} - AUC_{\text{parent}}$) (Jovanovic 2004).

In Vivo Studies - Animal Inhalation

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Crofoot and Plotzke (1996) conducted a pilot study to determine the absorption and distribution in blood and

tissue, and excretion of [^{14}C]D₄ in male Fischer 344 rats following a single nose-only vapor inhalation exposure to 700 ppm for 6 h. A total of 18 animals was exposed for 6 h and 3 animals served as controls. Immediately post-exposure, 1 group of 3 exposed animals and 1 control animal were killed and the carcasses were solubilized; radioactivity was counted to determine total body burden. Another 12 animals were used in the distribution portion of the study. At each of 4 given times (0, 24, 48, and 96 h post-exposure), 3 animals were killed, and blood, liver, lung, adrenal, kidney, and spleen tissues, and peritoneal fat were collected and radioactivity was counted (a control animal was killed at 168 h). The final group of 3 animals was maintained in a metabolism cage for 168 h, during which time excreta were collected and counted (a control animal was included). At the end of this period, these animals were killed and examined as the 168 h group for the distribution portion of the study.

The total radioactivity in the carcasses (body burden) after exposure was 6.53% of the exposure. Radioactivity in blood decreased exponentially as a function of time after exposure. Up to 24 h, radioactivity in plasma paralleled that in blood, but then decreased exponentially at a much less steep slope up to 168 h. Liver, adrenal, kidney, and spleen tissue followed the same pattern that was noted for the plasma. Radioactivity in lung tissue and fat decreased much less rapidly. At 168 h, only $7.43 \pm 1.97\%$ of the body burden was recovered in the carcasses. In the excretion portion of the study, urine contained $35.75 \pm 1.09\%$, exhalation contained $33.72 \pm 14.72\%$, and feces contained $29.68 \pm 2.84\%$ of radioactivity. Only 1.72% was recovered as expired CO₂. The authors presented only empirical findings, other than to note that exhaled CO₂ was not a major route of excretion (Crofoot and Plotzke 1996).

Ferdinandi and Beattie (1996a) developed methodology for measuring inhalation chamber levels of D₄ and identified a liquid-trapping medium for capturing expired volatile chemicals in inhalation studies. They used these techniques in a preliminary study to determine blood, plasma, and tissue levels, and excreta and expired volatile chemicals of radioactivity after exposure of 42 male Fischer 344 rats to [^{14}C]D₄ in a nose-only inhalation exposure system.

Maximum blood levels were reached in 1 h, and, maximum plasma levels, in 3 h after termination of a 6 h exposure. Most tissues (nasal mucosa, larynx, trachea, lung, liver, kidneys, adrenal glands, pancreas, thymus, bone, and skin) had maximum levels after the 6 h exposure (0 h), except fat tissue which reached maximum levels at 12 h after the exposure, and the large intestine, which reached a maximum level at 6 h after the exposure. Elimination from tissue followed the same pattern as that of the plasma (half-life [$t_{1/2}$] of 59 h), except for fat, which was slower ($t_{1/2}$ of 114 h). Most elimination occurred in expired air ($30.68 \pm 2.26\%$) and urine ($47.01 \pm 2.49\%$). Fecal recovery was $12.33 \pm 0.95\%$. While elimination of D₄ in expired air was high, the amount of radioactivity as $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ was only 1.83%. No unmetabolized D₄ was detected in urine and only a small peak that may have been D₄ was found in the feces (Ferdinandi and Beattie 1996a).

Ferdinandi and Beattie (1996b) measured the pharmacokinetics of D₄ absorption in male and female Fischer 344 rats following single nose-only inhalation exposure to 3 concentrations (50 animals of each sex per group). Exposures (6 h) were at chamber [^{14}C]D₄ concentrations of 716, 70.4, and 7.52 ppm. After exposure, 5 animals/sex were killed and analyzed. Another 5 animals/sex were placed in glass metabolism cages and samples were collected for 168 h. Other groups of 4 animals/sex were killed as a function of time after exposure up to 120 h.

As in the study above, maximum levels of radioactivity in blood, plasma, and tissue were achieved 0 - 3 h post-exposure, except for fat, which remained high up to 48 h post-exposure. There were no gender differences in the levels of radioactivity in blood, plasma, or tissues (lung, nasal mucosa, fat, eye, trachea, pancreas, and spleen), except for fat and adrenal glands in females, which were somewhat higher than in males at each dose level. Except for fat (and, to

a lesser extent, the vagina and uterus), the increases in tissue radioactivity (AUC values) were generally proportional to the increase in dose level.

Elimination was determined to be biphasic, with a rapid initial decline in the first 24 h post-exposure followed by a long terminal phase, independent of gender. Except for fat in both genders and in the testes in males, the elimination profile for tissues, blood, and plasma were similar. The half-life for the testes was calculated to be 273 hours, indicative of the long terminal elimination phase. Excretion of radioactivity was primarily in expired air and urine in both sexes. In a mass balance analysis, radioactivity remaining in animal carcasses at 168 h post exposure ranged from approximately 8 to 12% of the inhaled dose (Ferdinandi and Beattie 1996b).

Varaprath and Beattie (1997) examined the effect of repeated nose-only inhalation exposure of Fischer 344 rats to D₄ on absorption, distribution, and excretion. Male and female (50 each) Fischer 344 rats were exposed (nose-only) for 14 days (6 h/day) to D₄ and, on day 15, to [¹⁴C]D₄ at target exposure levels of 7 and 700 ppm. Because of sampling irregularities in the 700 ppm group, an additional group of 29 animals of each sex was exposed at 700 ppm and an additional group of 45 animals of each sex was exposed to 7 ppm. Background radioactivity levels were determined in 2 animals of each sex from each group that were not exposed to [¹⁴C]D₄.

The calculated level of radioactivity exposure ranged from 35.11 to 40.53 μCi for males and from 27.35 to 33.00 μCi for females. A subset of animals was killed immediately after completion of the day 15 exposure and processed to determine total body burden. Another subset was transferred to glass metabolism cages for determination of radioactivity in urine, feces, expired volatiles and CO₂, and cage rinses up to 168 h post-exposure, at which time these animals were killed and processed to determine radioactivity in the blood and tissues. Other subsets were housed in wire mesh cages after completion of exposure on day 15, killed as a function of time post-exposure (0, 1, 3, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96, and 120 h), and processed to determine radioactivity in the blood and tissues.

The total body retention of radioactivity was between 4.38 and 5.96% in males and between 4.50 and 6.14% in females in the 700 ppm groups, and was 5.23% for males and 5.75% for females in the 7 ppm group. At the end of exposure (0 h) the highest tissue radioactivity levels were seen in the liver (3.6 to 4.4%). Liver values were considerably higher than those for the lung (0.71%) or the testes (0.37%). The largest difference between the 2 exposure groups was seen in the radioactivity levels in the nasal mucosa, at 0.29% for the 7 ppm group and 0.06% for the 700 ppm group. Radioactivity in all other tissues was less than 0.2% at 0 h. When the radioactivity concentrations measured in the fat samples were extrapolated to the total fat content in the animal, the total fat content of radioactivity was larger than in the liver. The extrapolated fat content values were based on an estimated 7.08% fat content, relative to body weight established in male Holtzmann white rats. The total fat content of radioactivity(extrapolated) was 8.57 ± 0.90% for males and 9.04 ± 1.41 for females at 0 h. Levels of radioactivity deposited in the fat of 700 ppm males was over 8%, and > 9% in females. In the 7 ppm group, the fat of males contained over 7.5% and the fat of females over 12% of radioactivity.

Blood and plasma radioactivity levels peaked at 0 h and decreased steadily thereafter. At 24 h post-exposure, radioactivity in the liver was reduced by almost an order of magnitude, mimicking the pattern seen with blood and plasma, whereas radioactivity in fat remained constant. Excretion was primarily via the urine (37.4 - 40.0%), and the remainder excreted as follows: feces (12.6 - 19.1%), expired volatiles (25.9 - 35.4%), CO₂ (2.06 - 4.54%), cage wash (1.31 - 1.86%). There was no gender difference, but there was a dose-effect on the route of elimination. High exposure animals excreted more radioactivity in the expired volatiles and CO₂ than did the low exposure animals, and, correspondingly, high exposure animals had significantly lower excretion in urine and feces compared to low exposure animals. The total elimination,

however, was similar in both exposure groups. Radioactivity remaining in the carcasses at 168 h post-exposure ranged from 6.53 to 8.50%, almost all of which was in fat tissue (Ferdinandi and Beattie 1997).

Tobin (2000) reported the disposition of [^{14}C]D₄ in female Fischer 344 and Sprague Dawley IGS rats following a single (nose-only) vapor inhalation exposure to 700 ppm. The protocol described by Crofoot and Plotzke (1996) was used with the exception that certain animals were jugular- cannulated to ease blood collection.

At the end of the 6 h exposure period, female Fischer 344 rats had a greater body burden ($8.3 \pm 0.22\%$) compared to female Sprague Dawley rats ($5.9 \pm 0.13\%$). Total excretion was similar in both species (amounts in the urine, feces, and expired volatiles of ~30%, ~ 20%, and ~ 25%, respectively), except that excretion was greater in urine and lower in feces for Sprague Dawley rats, compared to Fischer 344 rats. The concentration of radioactivity in blood and lung was similar in the 2 species over the 168 h post-exposure time. Radioactivity levels in the fat and liver were higher for Fischer 344 rats. These authors went on to separately analyze for [^{14}C]D₄ (parent compound) as a basis for determining how much radioactivity was associated with metabolites. Overall, the detection of parent compound was greater in Sprague-Dawley rats, although no parent compound was found in the urine of either strain. The metabolites found in urine included dimethylsilanediol and methylsilanetriol.

The author concluded that female Fischer 344 rats appear to metabolize D₄ more readily than do female Sprague Dawley rats (Tobin 2000).

In a study by Plotzke et al. (2000), the retention, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of [^{14}C]D₄ were evaluated using young adult male and female Fischer 344 rats (weights ~ 125 to 210 g). The animals were exposed to D₄ vapor in a nose-only inhalation chamber; single and multiple exposures to 7, 70, or 700 ppm [^{14}C]D₄ were conducted. There were 4 or 5 male or female animals per group per dose. In multiple exposure studies, the animals were subjected to fourteen 6 h exposures to unlabeled D₄, followed on day 15 by a 6-h exposure to ^{14}C -D₄.

The retention of inhaled D₄ was described as relatively low (5 to 6% of inhaled D₄). It was noted that radioactivity derived from inhaled D₄ was distributed widely to tissues of the rat. Except for fat, maximum concentrations of radioactivity in the plasma and tissues occurred at the end of exposure and up to 3 h post-exposure. In fat, maximum concentrations of D₄ occurred as late as 24 h post-exposure. Compared to the plasma and other tissues, the elimination of radioactivity from the fat was much slower. The excretion of radioactivity was mainly via exhaled breath and the urine, and, to a lesser extent, via the feces. The urinary metabolites included dimethylsilanediol and methylsilanetriol and 5 minor metabolites. The relative abundance of these metabolites was the same for each exposure group. In only female rats subjected to a single exposure, small dose-dependent shifts in elimination pathways were observed. Following multiple exposures, the elimination pathways were dose- and gender-independent. Though the gender difference and dose dependencies noted were statistically significant, they were relatively small in magnitude. Generally speaking, the rates and routes of elimination were similar in males and females (at high and low D₄ concentrations) (Plotzke et al. 2000).

In a study by Siddiqui (2001), male and female Sprague-Dawley rats, CD® mice, Golden Syrian hamsters, New Zealand White rabbits, and Hartley guinea pigs were repeatedly exposed to D₄ (10 or 700 ppm, whole-body exposure) via inhalation 5 days/week (6 h/day) for 5 weeks. Urine samples were collected on days 1, 3, 5, 12, 19, and 25. Urine samples were analyzed for the demethylation of D₄ as an indication of liver enzyme metabolism of D₄.

The amount of demethylated D₄ was less in animals in the 10 ppm exposure group, compared to the 700 ppm group, in all species at days 3 and 25. Demethylated D₄ did not increase uniformly in all species or sexes between days 3 and 25. The amount of demethylated D₄ in the urine of animals of various species roughly follows the order hamster and

mouse > rat > rabbit and guinea pig, with no striking sex differences. The authors suggested that the relatively low levels of demethylated D₄ at 25 days were evidence that D₄ was not being accumulated in the liver. The authors also postulated that the ratio of demethylated D₄ to D₄ would be a better measure of liver enzyme metabolic activity. This ratio was highest for hamsters and mice, and was significantly higher than those reported for rats, rabbits, and guinea pigs (Siddiqui 2001).

Lee (2004) evaluated the potential chronic toxicity and oncogenicity of D₄ in Fischer 344 rats (7 to 8 weeks old) following whole-body inhalation exposure for 24 months (6 h + T₉₀/day, 5 days/week), and details relating to the results of this study are included in the Chronic Inhalation Toxicity and Carcinogenicity sections later in the report text. Five groups of rats (96 males, 96 females/group) were used and the exposure concentrations were as follows: 0, 10, 30, 150, and 700 ppm D₄, respectively. The animals were subdivided into 4 subgroups: A (scheduled for necropsy after 6 months of exposure - tissue level study); B (scheduled for necropsy after 12 months of exposure - chronic toxicity study); C (scheduled for necropsy at 24 months on study, after 12 months of exposure, and a 12-month recovery period - chronic recovery study); and D (scheduled for necropsy after 24 months of exposure - oncogenicity study). Following 6 months of exposure (Subgroup A), D₄ concentrations in the plasma, liver, and fat tissues increased with increasing D₄ exposure concentrations. When compared to male rats, female rats had consistently higher D₄ concentrations in these tissues, except for the 700 ppm exposure group.

Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Mast (2001) conducted a study to evaluate the absorption, distribution, and excretion of radioactivity in female Fischer 344 rats (48 rats; mean weight = 186 ± 2.3 g) after a single, nose-only inhalation exposure to ¹⁴C-D₅. The rats were exposed to 165 ± 4.6 ppm ¹⁴C-D₅ vapor (specific activity = 1.08 ± 0.01 mCi/g) for 6 h. A limited number of male rats was included in the study for the purpose of collecting minute volume data during exposure. Three rats were used as controls in order to establish background radioactivity values. The exposed rats consisted of the following 4 subsets: (1) a body burden group, (2) a distribution group, (3) a distribution and elimination (mass balance) group, and (4) a minute volume group. In the body burden group, 3 of 6 rats were solubilized *in toto* and the remaining 3 of 6 rats were pelted. The pelt and carcass were solubilized and counted separately to evaluate the amount of deposition on the fur. Rats in the distribution subset were killed at specific times during the 6-h exposure period (1.5, 3, and 4.5 h) or after exposure (0, 1, 3, 12, 24, 48, 72, and 120 h). Only whole blood and plasma were collected from rats killed during exposure. For rats killed after exposure, whole blood, plasma, and selected tissues were collected.

Rats in the mass balance group were placed in glass metabolism cages for 168 h, and expired air, urine, and feces were collected at specified intervals. Data from the body burden group were used to determine the estimated dose, and these data were also compared to data from the mass balance group in order to determine a percent recovery for the study. Data from the mass balance and distribution subsets were used to model the rate of tissue distribution and excretion of ¹⁴C-D₅. Minute volume measurements were obtained from 6 rats (3 males, 3 females) during the 6-h exposure period.

The maximum concentration in each tissue (C_{max}) and time of maximum concentration (T_{max}, determined in hours from the end of exposure) were determined by inspection. The AUC from time 0 to the last measurable concentration was calculated using the trapezoid rule. The estimated terminal-phase t_{1/2} was also calculated.

Mean minute volume measurements were 150 ± 13 mL/min and 98 ± 26 mL/min for male and female rats,

respectively. The mean achieved dose of $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ was $88 \pm 2 \mu\text{Ci}$ and the mean body burden dose was $2 \pm 0.6 \mu\text{Ci}$ (~3% of the achieved dose). A mean of $97 \pm 26\%$ of the body burden dose was recovered from the mass balance group. The following plasma toxicokinetic values were calculated: $t_{1/2} = 58.9 \text{ h}$; $\text{AUC} = 77 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{h/g}$; $T_{\text{max}} = 0 \text{ h}$ post-exposure; and $C_{\text{max}} = 3.39 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (Mast 2001).

Mast (2002) conducted a study to evaluate the absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of radioactivity in male and female Fischer 344 rats after a single inhalation exposure (nose-only) to $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ at 2 dose levels. The first group (69 males [weights: $217.0 \pm 7.3 \text{ g}$] and 70 females [weights: $144.6 \pm 3.8 \text{ g}$]) was exposed to a nominal concentration of 7 ppm (actual, $6.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ ppm}$) $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ vapor (specific activity = $18.9 \pm 0.8 \text{ mCi/g}$), and the second group (70 males [weights: $198.7 \pm 5.8 \text{ g}$] and 70 females [weights: $128.2 \pm 3.2 \text{ g}$]) was exposed to a nominal concentration of 160 ppm (actual, $167.3 \pm 3.7 \text{ ppm}$) $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ vapor (specific activity = $0.919 \pm 0.012 \text{ mCi/g}$). Each group was exposed (single exposure) to the test substance for 6 h. The treated rats consisted of the following 3 subsets: (1) a body burden group, (2) a distribution group, and (3) a distribution and elimination (mass balance) group.

In the body burden group, 4 of 8 rats were solubilized *in toto* and the remaining 4 of 8 rats were pelted; the pelt and carcass were solubilized and counted separately. Restraining tube rinses containing feces and urine were also analyzed (both groups). Rats in the distribution subset were killed at specified times (at 3 h) during the 6-h exposure or after exposure (0, 1, 3, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96, 120, and 168 h). Only blood and plasma were collected from rats that were killed during exposure. For rats killed after the exposure period, whole blood, plasma, and selected tissues were collected. Rats in the mass balance group were placed in glass metabolism cages for 168 h. Data from the body burden group were used to determine the estimated dose, and these data were also compared to data from the mass balance group in order to determine a percent recovery for the study. Data from the mass balance and distribution subsets were used to model the rate of tissue distribution and excretion of $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$.

Approximately 2% of inhaled $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$ was retained in males or females, regardless of the exposure concentration. Mean % recovery of the body burden dose for the 7 ppm exposure group was approximately 83% and 72% for males and females, respectively; for the 160 ppm exposure group, these values were 110% and 80% for males and females, respectively.

The highest concentrations of radioactivity ($> 1 \mu\text{g equiv/g}$) immediately following exposure (0 h) in male and female rats exposed to 7 ppm were detected in the following organs: small and large intestines, stomach, thyroid gland (male only), lungs, and adrenal glands. The highest concentrations of radioactivity ($> 30 \mu\text{g equiv/g}$) immediately following exposure in male and female rats exposed to 160 ppm were detected in the following organs: small and large intestines, stomach, lungs, adrenal glands, and liver. The distribution of radioactivity among the tissues and over time was approximately the same for males and females. However, the % of radioactivity cleared as expired volatiles was significantly greater in males than in females for both exposure concentrations ($p \leq 0.01$).

Radioactivity was excreted in approximately equal amounts (in urine and feces) in all groups, with the exception of males exposed to 160 ppm. The excretion of radioactivity was greater in the feces than in the urine in this group. The results of a metabolite profile analysis using HPLC indicated that the major peak in the feces was parent D_5 ; but, the major peak in the urine did not correspond to $^{14}\text{C-D}_5$. Data analyses showed that, for most tissues, C_{max} occurred at 0 h post-exposure; the predominant exceptions were the thyroid gland (160 ppm males and females) at 120 h and the perirenal fat (males and females), where C_{max} varied from 3 to 168 h post-exposure (Mast 2002).

Tobin et al. (2008) evaluated the disposition of D₅ in young adult male and female Fischer 344 rats (weights ≈ 100 to 220 g) after single or repeated inhalation exposures. Single-exposure groups were subjected to a single 6-h, nose-only exposure to 7 or 160 ppm ¹⁴C-D₅. Repeated exposure groups were subjected to fourteen 6-h, nose-only exposures to unlabeled D₅. The 14th exposure was followed by a 6 h exposure to ¹⁴C-D₅ on day 15. Subgroups of exposed animals were used to evaluate body burden, distribution, elimination, and deposition on the fur. The retention of radioactivity after both single and repeated exposures was relatively low (~ 1 to 2% of inhaled D₅). Radioactivity and parent D₅ were widely distributed to tissues of both male and female rats; the maximum concentration of radioactivity was observed in most tissues by 3h post-exposure. Fat was a depot for D₅; elimination was much slower, compared to the plasma and other tissues.

The primary route for elimination of radioactivity was through expired air in all groups. Analyses for parent D₅ indicated that essentially all of the radioactivity in the expired volatiles was unchanged D₅. Compared to a single exposure, repeated exposure gave rise to higher levels of parent D₅ in the lung and fat of males and females and in the liver of females. In fat, immediately after the animals were killed, approximately 50% of the radioactivity was attributed to parent D₅. Five polar metabolites of D₅ were identified in the urine; parent D₅ was not detected. The 2 primary metabolites identified in the urine were methylsilanetriol and dimethylsilanediol. Radiochromatograms demonstrated 2 peaks in the feces. One of the peaks corresponded to the retention time for D₅ and the second has been putatively identified as hydroxylated D₅ (Tobin et al. 2008).

In Vivo Studies - Human Inhalation

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Utell et al. (1997) conducted a study, using subjects ranging in age from 25 to 49 years, to examine the respiratory intake and uptake (absorption), blood levels, and elimination patterns of D₄ following inhalation exposure to 10 ppm D₄. The product of the mean minute ventilation and the inspired D₄ concentration constitutes the intake (amount of D₄ taken into the lungs), and the product of the mean intake and the respective deposition fraction (fractional uptake of D₄) yields the mean uptake. Twelve volunteers (8 males, 4 females) were exposed via a mouthpiece-exposure system (two 1 h exposures) and 8 volunteers were exposed via a nasal device (two 16 h exposures). D₄ blood concentrations (whole blood, 7 volunteers) were measured before, during, immediately after and at 1, 6, and 24 h post-exposure. Plasma D₄ concentrations were measured before and after exposure in 17 subjects.

When the exposure data (mouthpiece exposure, 12 subjects) were pooled, the mean inspired concentration was equal to 123 ± 7.4 μg/ml, with an overall mean intake of 137 ± 25 mg and a mean uptake of 11 ± 3 mg. The mean D₄ elimination in expired air was 2.7 mg, which is equivalent to 24% of the mean uptake. For nasal exposure (8 subjects), the D₄ exposure concentration averaged 123 ± 4.6 μg/ml. When mouthpiece and nasal breathing were compared, the average total intake was 11.5 mg versus 14.8 mg and the estimated uptake was 1.1 mg versus 2.0 mg, respectively. Plasma measurements (17 subjects) indicated a mean peak value of 78 ± 6 ng/g and a non-linear blood clearance. When D₄ levels in whole blood were measured (7 volunteers), the values were similar to those reported for plasma, indicating little or no D₄ in blood cells.

Symptoms were self-reported, including cough, sputum production, shortness of breath, chest pain, throat irritation, nasal congestion, headache, fatigue, nausea, sneezing, chest tightness, and eye irritation. Ratings were scored on a 1 (minimal/not noticeable unless asked) to 5 (incapacitating) scale. Clinical symptoms were minimal and not

different between air and air plus D₄. All respiratory function measurements were within the normal range for mouthpiece and nasal exposures. Blood levels of AST were lower following D₄ exposures, but the results were not statistically significant. No other blood chemistry was different when air and D₄ exposures were compared (Utell et al. 1997).

Utell et al. (1998) conducted a pharmacokinetic study of D₄ using 12 healthy volunteers (8 males, 4 females; 25 to 49 years old). The subjects inhaled 10 ppm D₄ (122 µg/liter, via a mouthpiece) or air (control) for 1h in a double-blind, randomized fashion. Individual D₄ uptakes were measured (under steady-state conditions) during 3 rest periods. These rest periods were 10, 20, and 10 minutes in duration respectively, alternating with 2 10-minute exercise periods. The mean D₄ intake (137 ± 25 mg) and the mean deposition efficiently were equivalent to $0.74/(1 + 0.45 V_E; V_E = \text{minute ventilation})$.

Changes in lung function were not induced by D₄ vapor. Plasma measurements of D₄ revealed a mean peak value of 79 ± 5 ng/g and a nonlinear blood clearance. A model was developed using lung volume and respiratory surface area estimates based on functional residual capacity. Based on this model, the effective mass transfer coefficient for D₄ was determined to be 5.7×10^{-5} cm/s from lung air to blood.

Using an additional 8 subjects (6 males, 2 females), D₄ deposition with mouthpiece and nasal breathing at resting ventilations was compared. For these subjects, deposition was similar for the 2 exposure protocols, averaging 12% after correction for exposure system losses (Utell et al. 1998).

Utell et al. (2001) studied the pharmacokinetics of D₄ using 6 healthy volunteers (ages: 24 to 52 years). The subjects inhaled 10 ppm labeled D₄ (122 µg/l) for 1 h. The 1 h-exposure period included 2 10-minute exercise periods at a workload that tripled V_E. Based on continuously measured inspiratory and expiratory D₄ concentrations, it was determined that the mean D₄ intake was 154 mg. The expired air washout rates indicated a tetra-phasic elimination, amounting to ~25% of the D₄ uptake. Plasma measurements immediately post-exposure revealed a mean peak value of 115 ± 50 for D₄ in ng/g and 161 ± 53 in C-14 activity equivalents, respectively, and indicated a rapid, non-linear clearance from the plasma. Similar relationships were found in the blood, with a mean peak value of 82 ± 35 for D₄ in ng/g and 115 ± 37 in C-14 activity equivalents.

Urine samples were collected until up to 8 days post-exposure. D₄ was not identified in the urine; however, ¹⁴C-labeled metabolites that were equivalent to 30% of the D₄ uptake were recovered. During the first 24 h, a shift in the elimination pattern of complex to simpler metabolites occurred. Chromatographic peaks at 30, 32, and 37 minutes were noted in all of the zero time spot urine samples. Substances at these retention times have been tentatively identified as trimethylsiloxane-1,1,3,3-tetrol; tetramethylsiloxane-1,3-diol; and hexamethyltrisiloxane-1,5-diol. These larger fragments were not detected at times greater than 16 h post-exposure. At post-exposure times greater than 16 h, the metabolites detected in the urine were methylsilanetriol, dimethylsiloxane-1,3,3,3,-tetrol, and dimethylsilanediol (Utell et al. 2001).

Reddy et al. (2003) used data from the preceding study (i.e., D₄ inspiratory and expiratory concentrations, and metabolite concentrations in blood and urine [Utell et al. 2001]) to develop a PBPK model for D₄ in humans. The authors noted that D₄ has the unusual combination of low blood:air and high fat:blood partitioning, giving rise to preferential storage in lipid compartments in the body, including some sequestration in blood, and rapid elimination from all tissues (other than fat) following cessation of exposure.

In Vivo Studies - Intravenous

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Huntington Research Centre, Ltd. (1995) conducted an intravenous (i.v.) injection study of the pharmacokinetics of [¹⁴C]D₄ at 7 and 70 mg/kg, doses designed to mimic those in available inhalation studies. Male and female Sprague-Dawley (CD) rats (195 - 225 g, 7 - 8 weeks of age) were used in a series of 6 experimental protocols.

In experiment 1 (single low dose - blood and tissue analysis), 20 animals (10 of each sex) were administered [¹⁴C]D₄ intravenously via the lateral tail vein (dose volume of 1.1 ml) at a nominal dose level of 7 mg/kg. After dosing, the animals were divided randomly into 2 groups of 5 animals per sex. Blood samples (0.3 ml, from tail vein) were placed in heparinized tubes at 10 and 40 min, and 2, 6, 24 and 30 h post-dosing for 1 group, and at 20 min, 1, 4, 12 and 48 h post dose for the second group. Animals were killed at the end of blood sampling and the liver, kidneys, lungs and samples of fat were obtained from each animal. An additional 2 rats (one of each sex) were dosed in the same fashion, but killed at 0.5 hours post-dosing. Whole blood (for plasma analysis) and tissues (liver, lungs, kidneys) and samples of fat and the tail were taken from each of these animals for analysis.

In experiment 2 (single high dose - blood and tissue analysis), 20 rats (10 of each sex) were administered [¹⁴C]D₄ at a dose of 70 mg/kg, using the dosing procedure from experiment 1. These animals were divided randomly into 2 groups and blood and tissue samples were taken as described for experiment 1, with the exception that the lungs were not sampled after the animals were killed.

In experiment 3 (single low dose - excretion and tissue analysis), 10 rats (5 of each sex) were administered [¹⁴C]D₄ at a dose of 7 mg/kg using the dosing procedure from experiment 1. Animals were immediately placed in separate glass metabolism cages for the separate collection of urine, feces and expired air. Urine was collected separately from each animal at the 0 - 6 h, 6 - 12 h, and subsequent 24 h intervals for up to 5 days. Feces were collected at 24 h intervals for 5 days. Expired air was monitored for 0 - 6 h, 6 - 12 h, 12 - 24 h and subsequent 24 h intervals up to 5 days. The animals were killed at the end of day 5 and the liver, kidneys, lungs, samples of fat, the gastrointestinal tract, and remaining carcasses obtained for measurement of radioactivity. The cages were washed and radioactivity was determined in the wash.

In experiment 4 (repeated low dose - blood and tissue analysis), 20 rats (10 per sex) were administered [¹⁴C]D₄ intravenously (volume 1.1 ml) via the lateral tail vein for 14 consecutive days at a dose of 7 mg/kg day⁻¹. Animals were divided randomly into 2 groups (5/sex). For group 1, blood samples (0.5 ml, from tail vein) were placed in heparinized tubes at 24 hours after days 3 and 9, and at 10 and 40 min and 2, 6, 24 and 30 h after day 14. For group 2, blood samples were taken 24 hours after days 6 and 13 and at 20 minutes and 1, 4, 12 and 48 h after dosing on day 14. The animals were killed on completion of the sampling schedule and the liver, kidneys, and samples of fat were taken from each animal.

In experiment 5 (single low dose - whole body autoradiography), 6 animals (3/sex) were treated with [¹⁴C]D₄, at a dose of 7 mg/kg, as in experiment 1. Two animals (one of each sex) were killed at 6, 24, and 48 h post-dosing and the carcasses were autoradiographed.

In experiment 6 (repeated low dose - whole body autoradiography), 6 animals (3/sex) were administered 14 consecutive daily doses, as in experiment 4. Two animals (one of each sex) were killed at 6, 24, and 48 h post-dosing and the carcasses were autoradiographed.

Results from experiments 1 and 2 indicated that radioactivity in the plasma was highest at 10 min after dosing,

having decreased rapidly over the first 6 h, and, then, more slowly over the remainder of the sampling duration (up to 40 h), independent of the dose. The ratios of AUC during a dosing interval after multiple doses (experiment 4) to AUC to infinite time following a single dose (experiment 1) were 1.25 : 1 and 1.16 : 1 in male and female rats, respectively. This suggested to the authors that there was no plasma accumulation during repeat daily dosing with 7 mg/kg ^{14}C -D₄ in rats.

From experiment 3, the routes and rates of excretion of radioactivity varied between male and female animals. For males, excretion was via the urine (48.1%) and feces (10.4%), compared to females (urine: 28.5%; feces: 7.9%). Correspondingly, the expired air of female animals contained more radioactivity (35.2%) than male animals (22.4%). More radioactivity was found in male CO₂ (6.5%) compared to females (3.2%). The authors suggested that the higher levels of radioactive CO₂ could mean higher D₄ metabolism in males, compared to females. Tissue levels at 5 days following the single low doses were different between males and females. Overall, levels were higher in females, especially in fat. Table 6 compares the levels of radioactivity in different tissues in males and females.

A comparison of the tissue levels from experiments 2 and 4 (single high and low dose, and repeated low doses) was made. Comparing tissue levels after the single low dose with levels after repeated low doses indicates accumulation of D₄ in the fat, liver, and kidney tissue. Tissue levels were higher when measured at 30 or 48 h after the single high dose, compared to measured values at 30 or 48 h after the end of the 14th repeated low dose. Table 7 shows the radioactivity levels (without standard deviations) for fat, liver, and kidney tissue.

The whole-body autoradiography of animals killed at various times after a single dose at 7 mg/kg (experiment 5) confirmed that radioactivity was well-distributed throughout the animals. The main areas of concentration of radioactivity were the fat, liver and kidneys of males and females. The autoradiographs from the repeat dose experiment (experiment 6) showed that substantial accumulation of radioactivity in tissues occurs after repeated i.v. exposure (Huntington Research Centre, Ltd. 1995).

In a study by Varaprath et al. (1999a), D₄ metabolites in urine samples from 2 separate studies were investigated. In the first study, [^{14}C]D₄ was administered intravenously (i.v., dose = 70 mg/kg) as an emulsion to a total of 8 male and female Fischer-344 rats (CDF(F-344)/CrI(Br) rats, 7 to 10 weeks old. The 12 h samples from all of the animals were pooled and centrifuged prior to being analyzed. In the second study, 4 female F-344 rats (jugular vein cannulated) were induced with phenobarbital once a day for 4 consecutive days, and then administered an emulsion (300 μl) of ^{14}C -D₄ (i.v. dose = 70 mg/kg). The 12 h urine samples from all of the animals were pooled and centrifuged in order to obtain a clear fluid prior to analysis.

According to the high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) radiochromatogram, 2 major metabolites and at least five minor metabolites were identified. The 2 major metabolites (75 to 85% of the total radioactivity) were identified as dimethylsilanediol [$\text{Me}_2\text{Si}(\text{OH})_2$] and methylsilanetriol [$\text{MeSi}(\text{OH})_3$]. The authors noted that the formation of $\text{MeSi}(\text{OH})_3$ clearly established demethylation at the silicon-methyl bonds of D₄. No parent D₄ was present in the urine. The minor metabolites were as follows: tetramethyldisiloxane-1,3-diol [$\text{MeSi}(\text{OH})\text{-O-Si}(\text{OH})\text{Me}_2$], hexamethyltrisiloxane-1,5-diol [$\text{Me}_2\text{Si}(\text{OH})\text{-OSiMe}_2\text{-OSi}(\text{OH})\text{Me}_2$], trimethyldisiloxane-1,3,3-triol [$\text{MeSi}(\text{OH})_2\text{-O-Si}(\text{OH})\text{Me}_2$], dimethyldisiloxane-1,1,3,3-tetrol [$\text{MeSi}(\text{OH})_2\text{-O-Si}(\text{OH})_2\text{Me}$], and dimethyldisiloxane-1,1,1,3,3-pentol [$\text{Si}(\text{OH})_3\text{-O-Si}(\text{OH})_2\text{Me}$] (Varaprath et al. 1999a).

In Vivo Studies - Subcutaneous

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆), and Cycloheptasiloxane (D₇)

Kala et al. (1998) studied the distribution of low molecular weight cyclosiloxanes in the organs of female CD-1 mice (ages 8 to 10 weeks old; weights = 25 to 30 g) injected s.c. with breast implant distillate (low molecular weight cyclosiloxane mixture) consisting primarily of D₃, D₄, D₅, D₆, and D₇. Mice in the test group received a single s.c. injection of breast implant distillate (dose = 250 mg) and mice in the corresponding control group were each injected with soy oil (dose = 250 mg). Groups of 6 to 8 control and test mice were killed at 3, 6, 9, or 52 weeks post-exposure. In groups killed at 3, 6, and 9 weeks, the following organs were dissected: brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung, mesenteric lymph nodes, ovaries, spleen, skeletal muscle, and uterus. The adrenal glands, abdominal fat, and perirenal fat were collected from mice killed at 52 weeks. Tissue extracts were analyzed using GC/MS.

Of the individual cyclosiloxanes that were measured in the organs, D₇ was the only one that was not detectable. At 3, 6, and 9 weeks, cyclosiloxanes were detected in every organ that was examined. Of the organs that were studied, the mesenteric lymph nodes, ovaries, and uterus contained the highest levels of cyclosiloxanes. Over a period of 3 to 6 weeks, the levels of total cyclosiloxanes increased in the following organs: heart, kidney, lungs, mesenteric lymph nodes, ovaries, and uterus; at 9 weeks, a slight decline in these levels was noted. It was noted that the relative distribution (from organ to organ) of the cyclosiloxanes varied from mouse to mouse. [In an entirely independent experiment, the 3-week and 6-week cyclosiloxane protocols were completed. Nine mice injected with 250 mg of breast implant distillate and 5 mice injected with 250 mg of soy oil were used for each time point. In the test group, similar levels of total as well as individual cyclosiloxanes in different organs were found at both time points, indicating that results from the first experiment are reproducible.]

D₄, D₅, and D₆ were detected in all of the organs. The organs from mice killed at 3 weeks, contained proportions of D₄, D₅, and D₆ that were similar to those found in the breast implant that was injected. The levels of D₄ at 6 weeks were similar to those noted at 3 weeks. This was not the case for D₅ and D₆, where, compared to the 3-week values, the levels of these 2 were increased. According to the authors, these data are suggestive of a selective retention of D₅ and D₆, relative to D₄.

In light of the significant retention of cyclosiloxanes that was noted in all organs over a 9-week period, another group of mice was killed 1 year after injection. It was noted that, even after a year, most of the organs had measurable levels of the cyclosiloxanes. The highest levels were detected in the mesenteric lymph nodes, abdominal fat, and in the ovaries. Cyclosiloxane levels in the mesenteric lymph nodes at 1 year were similar to those noted at 9 weeks. However, in the ovaries and uterus, cyclosiloxane levels approached values that were 50% of those noted at 9 weeks. It was also noted that the levels of D₅ and D₆ were relatively higher than those of D₄.

The results of this study indicate that low molecular weight cyclosiloxanes persist in the organs of mice for at least 1 year after a single s.c. injection and that D₅ and D₆ appear to persist longer in the organs when compared to D₄ (Kala et al. 1998).

In Vivo Studies - Physiologically Based Pharmacokinetic (PBPK) Modeling

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Andersen et al. (2001) developed a physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model to quantitatively

characterize the retention, distribution, and elimination of parent D₄ and its hydrolysis and oxidation products from the body following controlled inhalation exposures in the rat. Both single-exposure and multiple-exposure inhalation studies were conducted, where male and female F344 rats were exposed to D₄ at concentrations of 7, 70, and 700 ppm (Plotzke et al. 2000). In the single exposure studies, the animals were exposed to ¹⁴C-D₄ vapor for 6 h in a nose-only inhalation chamber. Exposure was initiated following a 4-day conditioning period. Multiple-exposure studies were initiated following a similar conditioning period. In multiple exposure studies, the animals were exposed to unlabeled D₄ 6 h/day for 14 consecutive days. The animals were then exposed to ¹⁴C-D₄ vapor for 6 h on day 15. Immediately after the last exposure, rats were placed in glass metabolism cages for collection of excreta (urine and feces) and expired air.

Following inhalation exposure, radioactivity was distributed widely throughout rat tissues; the highest concentrations were reported for the lung, liver, and fat. Within 1 h post-exposure, the peak concentration of D₄ in most of the solid tissues and plasma was noted. The radioactivity time course in these tissues displayed multiphasic behavior, i.e., a relatively rapid initial decline, up to 24 h post-exposure, followed by a much slower terminal phase. Radioactivity persisted longer in the fat, with peak concentrations noted after several hours (3 to 24 h) post-exposure. The decline in the concentration of D₄ in the fat was nonexponential. The excretion of radioactivity following exposure to radiolabeled D₄ was mainly via exhaled breath and urine, with a lesser extent in the feces. The radioactivity in the expired volatiles was almost all parent D₄; however, the radioactivity that was detected in the urine was entirely due to metabolized D₄. In male and female rats, the radioactivity time courses in the tissues were similar. Also, the disposition of radioactivity in the multiple exposure experiments was similar to that observed in the single exposure studies.

A basic PBPK model was applied to characterize the biological determinants of D₄ kinetics. Blood:air partition coefficients were small (range:1.9 to 6.9, 6 samples); perirenal fat:air partition coefficients were large (range:1400 to 2500). The average fat:blood partition coefficient was determined to be 485. The authors noted that the basic PBPK model failed to describe D₄ tissue kinetics in the post-exposure period, which necessitated expansion by adding deep-tissue compartments in the liver, and lung, a mobile chylomicron-like lipid transport pool in the blood, and a second fat compartment. Model parameters for the refined model were optimized using single-exposure data for male and female rats exposed to 7, 70, and 700 ppm D₄. When the induction of D₄ metabolism at 700 ppm (3-fold in males; 1-fold in females) was included, the parameter that was set from the single exposures successfully predicted PBPK results from the 14-day multiple exposures at 7 and 700 ppm.

Though D₄ is highly lipophilic, it does not have prolonged retention because of the high hepatic and exhalation clearance. The low blood:air partitioning and high fat:blood partitioning led to the incorporation of D₄ into lipid storage compartments that were not equilibrated with free circulating D₄. Despite the unusual transport and storage behavior in lipid compartments, the high pulmonary and hepatic clearance, coupled with the induction of metabolizing enzymes at high exposure concentrations, rapidly remove free D₄ from the body and ensure that there is no accumulation on multiple exposures (Andersen et al. 2001).

Luu and Hutter (2001) developed a PBPK model to predict the target organ doses of D₄ following i.v., inhalation, or implantation exposures. For these modes of exposure, the plasma radioactivity profiles of ¹⁴C-D₄ showed nonlinear kinetics. In the i.v. rat studies, the highest radioactivity accumulated in fat, followed by richly perfused tissues (i.e., lungs, brain), blood, liver, and kidneys. Approximately 60% to 80% of the absorbed D₄ dose was exhaled and excreted in the urine and feces. The animals were placed in metabolism cages and urine, feces, and expired air were collected at 0 to 6

h, 6 to 12 h, and subsequent 24 h intervals for up to 5 days.

In the PBPK model, $^{14}\text{C-D}_4$ i.v. disposition data in rats were used to estimate tissue distribution coefficients, metabolism, and excretion parameters. The model was validated by comparing the predicted blood and tissue concentrations of D_4 after inhalation exposure to experimental results in both rats and humans. The model was then used to simulate D_4 kinetics following single and/or repeated D_4 exposures in rats and humans. This model predicted the bioaccumulation of D_4 in fatty tissues (e.g., breast), especially in women. Due to its high lipid solubility, ($\log P_{\text{oct/water}} = 5.1$), D_4 persisted in fat, with a $t_{1/2}$ of 11.1 days after inhalation and 18.2 days after breast implant exposure. With repeated exposures, larger doses, and/or different routes of exposure, both metabolism and excretion remained constant. The authors noted that the accumulation of D_4 in fatty tissues should play an important role in the risk assessment of D_4 , especially in women exposed daily to multiple personal care products and silicone breast implants (Luu and Hutter 2001).

Meeks (2002) commented on the bioavailability of D_4 following inhalation and implantation exposure. He noted that Luu and Hutter (2001) had developed a PBPK model for exposure to D_4 via the following 2 routes: (1) inhalation in association with daily use of multiple personal care products, and (2) migration of small amounts of silicone fluid from silicone gel breast implants. This PBPK model was based on data generated by i.v. administration of D_4 as a microemulsion (Andersen et al. 2001) that was then modeled for intra-arterial dosing. In this model, it was assumed that all of the radioactivity was parent D_4 , though there is significant conversion of D_4 to hydrophilic metabolites.

Meeks (2002) noted that a more complete PBPK model was developed from an extensive inhalation data set on D_4 (Plotzke et al. 2000), including an evaluation of D_4 metabolism. Meeks concluded that this more comprehensive model and the data from a 6-month inhalation study indicate that there are only modest increases in the concentration of D_4 in fat after repeated exposures to D_4 , compared to the concentrations achieved following single exposures. Meeks (2002) also noted that Luu and Hutter (2001) also overestimated the contributions to daily intake that resulted from the migration of D_4 from a breast implant. However, according to Meeks (2002), this overestimation of the daily intake by Luu and Hutter (2001) did not significantly change the margin of exposure (MOE) for D_4 , and the conservative MOE of > 500 indicates that current use practices with D_4 have adequate safety margins. The MOE of > 500 is based on the following: (1) conservative estimate of daily D_4 intake from personal care products = $78 \mu\text{g/kg/day}$, based on use of D_4 in roll-on antiperspirants; (2) addition of estimated daily intake or exposure by Luu and Hutter (2001) yields an estimated total daily intake of $85 \mu\text{g/kg/day}$ for D_4 ; and (3) the exposure of rats to 300 ppm (v/v) of D_4 for 6 h/day equates to an inhaled dose of $45,000 \mu\text{g/kg/day}$, using an absorption value of 5%, as determined in the inhalation pharmacokinetic studies (Plotzke et al., 2000); and (4) the preceding values yield a margin of safety (or MOE), by dividing the no-observed-adverse effect level (NOAEL) by the estimated daily intake; thus, $\text{MOE} = > 500$.

Andersen et al. (2002) also commented on the publication by Luu and Hutter (2001). Using human modeling, Andersen et al. (2002) found that the structure of the rat PBPK model for D_4 (blood:air partition coefficient = 1) was entirely adequate for describing all of the available data from human volunteers. The authors expressed concern over the inaccurate attribution of conclusions of the modeling efforts by Luu and Hutter (2001). Andersen et al. (2002) emphasized that the kinetics are well described, with a blood:air partition coefficient of 1 in both rats and humans, when sequestration in blood lipids is included in the model structure. It was noted that because of the high rate of metabolism and exhalation of poorly soluble D_4 from the blood, there should be little tendency for D_4 to bioaccumulate in any tissues upon repeated exposures.

Taking into consideration that the inhalation of D₄ induces CYP2B1/2 protein and causes liver enlargement, Sarangapani et al. (2002) developed a pharmacodynamic (PD) extension to a PBPK model to characterize these dose-response behaviors in Fischer 344 rats. It was noted that the PD model simulates interactions of D₄ with a putative receptor, leading to increased production of cytochrome P450 2B1/2. Both a 1- and 5-compartment liver model were evaluated. The authors noted that the PBPK model provided excellent simulations of tissue D₄ and hepatic CYP2B1/2 protein concentrations following 5-day (6 h/day) inhalation exposures to 0, 1, 7, 30, 70, 150, 300, 500, 700, or 900 ppm D₄.

Sarangapani et al. (2003) developed a PBPK model to describe the tissue dosimetry, plasma concentration, and clearance in the F344 rat, after inhalation, dermal, oral, and i.v. exposure to D₄. It was determined that a refined model describing the delivery of D₄ from the GI tract to the nonexchangeable/deep blood compartment provided the best fits to the observed plasma D₄, exhaled D₄, and D₄ metabolites excreted in the urine after oral exposure. The authors noted that pharmacokinetics following i.v. administration was best described by the delivery of D₄ directly into the deep blood compartment, possibly reflecting a kinetically identifiable characteristic of the administration of D₄ as an emulsion for the i.v. route of exposure. The results of this particular model-based analysis indicate that the pharmacokinetics of D₄ delivered by inhalation or dermal routes is similar, and these are different from the i.v. or oral delivery routes (Sarangapani et al. 2003).

Dobrev et al. (2008) conducted a study with the following objectives: (1) to evaluate rate constants for saturable metabolism in the body, (2) to estimate possible presystemic D₄ clearance by respiratory tract tissues, and (3) to assess rate constants for uptake of D₄ after oral dosing. Kinetic parameters for oral uptake and metabolism were evaluated using sensitive closed and open chamber inhalation techniques. Closed chamber exhalation analysis following oral gavage provided an opportunity to verify oral uptake rate constants inferred from blood time-course results at constant concentration inhalation and the estimates of metabolic rate inferred from total amount metabolized in these same studies. The kinetics of oral absorption of D₄ was studied using male Fischer 344 rats that had been dosed by oral gavage (doses of 10, 50, 100, 200, or 300 mg/kg D₄, in corn oil). Immediately after dosing, the rats were transferred to either an open or a closed chamber system. The concentration time course of exhaled D₄ in the chamber air was recorded for up to 10 h. Gas uptake studies were used to independently assess the whole body metabolism of D₄, including the possibility of presystemic clearance by respiratory tissue before reaching the pulmonary blood. These experiments were conducted using male Fischer 344 rats in an all-glass closed chamber system. Chamber concentrations of D₄ ranged from 19 to 1020 ppm. The elimination of D₄ from the chamber atmosphere was monitored for up to 6.7 h.

These experiments provided the opportunity to refine current PBPK models for D₄. The PBPK model could only be fitted to gas uptake results when metabolic capacity was included in the respiratory tract epithelium. The model simulations were highly sensitive to the parameter for total percent of whole-body metabolism allocated to the respiratory tract, with optimal fits observed with this value equal to 5%. Conclusions from the oral uptake studies were also verified by comparisons with independent data sets for blood concentrations of D₄ after oral dosing. The pharmacokinetic analysis of uptake from the gut and release from the blood into chamber air results for oral doses ranging from 10 to 300 mg D₄/kg body weight were consistent with a combination of prolonged and slow uptake of D₄ from the gastrointestinal tract and of reduced absorption at higher doses, as well as the extrahepatic clearance of D₄ in pulmonary tissues. The authors stated that these closed chamber gas uptake studies provide a valuable confirmation of the conclusions reached in other pharmacokinetic studies, and have uncovered a situation whereby closed chamber loss is

highly sensitive to respiratory tract clearance. This sensitivity arises largely from the unusual characteristics of D₄, high-affinity metabolic clearance and low blood:air partitioning.

The authors noted that, in this study, the examination of an independent data set for establishing kinetic parameters for modeling D₄ metabolism and oral uptake has provided fairly good confirmation of the values utilized in previous multidose modeling studies by Saranapani et al. (2003), summarized above (Dobrev et al. 2008).

Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Reddy et al. (2008) developed an inhalation PBPK description for D₅ (using D₄ model structure as a starting point), with the objective of understanding factors that regulate free blood and tissue concentrations of this highly lipophilic vapor after inhalation in rats and humans. The authors noted that the inhalation pharmacokinetics of Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) have been extensively investigated and successfully modeled with a multispecies PBPK model. Compared with D₄, the more lipophilic D₅ required deep compartments in the lung, liver, and plasma to account for slow release from tissues after the exposure period. Simulations of the kinetics of a stable D₅ metabolite, HO-D₅, required diffusion-limited uptake in fat, a deep tissue store in the lung, and its elimination by fecal excretion and metabolism to linear silanols.

The combined D₅/HO-D₅ model described blood and tissue concentrations of parent D₅ and the elimination of total radioactivity in single and repeat exposures in male and female rats at 7 and 160 ppm. In humans, D₅ kinetic data are more sparse and the model structure, though much simplified, still required free and bound blood D₅ to simulate exhaled air and blood time courses from 1 h inhalation exposures at 10 ppm in 5 human volunteers. This multispecies PBPK model for D₅ highlights complications in interpreting kinetic studies where chemical in the blood and tissues represents various pools with only a portion free. The ability to simulate free concentrations is essential for dosimetry based risk assessments for volatile cyclic methyl siloxanes (Reddy et al. 2008).

Andersen et al. (2008) evaluated the extent to which highly cleared, lipophilic vapors are expected to accumulate in blood and tissues. Pharmacokinetic analysis was conducted using both a generic PBPK model for inhalation of volatile compounds and a more detailed PBPK model specifically developed for a highly lipophilic volatile (D₅). The generic PBPK model for inhalation of volatile compounds in humans showed that highly metabolized, lipophilic compounds with a low blood:air partition coefficient do not accumulate in blood or systemic tissues with repeat exposures, although a period of days to weeks may be required for fat to reach periodic steady state. Volatile compounds with higher blood:air partition coefficients (in the hundreds) and lower hepatic extraction accumulate in the blood on repeat exposures. The more detailed PBPK model for D₅ also showed that the lipophilic volatile compound does not accumulate in blood and predictions of the increase in D₅ in fat with repeat exposures in rats agreed with experiments. The authors noted that the term bioaccumulation should be used to refer to cases where repeat exposures lead to increases in the blood (or central compartment) volatile compound concentration. Based on this definition, highly cleared volatile compounds, such as D₅, would not be considered to bioaccumulate on repeat exposures.

In Vivo/In Vitro Study

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Varaprath et al. (1998) obtained biological samples from several pharmacokinetic studies that were being conducted to develop an efficient method for extracting both D₄ and its metabolites. Male and female Fischer-344 rats (CDF(F-344)/CrIBr strain; ~7-10 weeks old) were used. The studies involved the administration of ¹⁴C-D₄ at different dosage levels and collecting samples at specified time points. This means that the test samples contained varying levels

of parent D₄ and metabolites. In the pharmacokinetic investigation of the disposition and metabolism of D₄, an efficient extraction methodology was used to recover the parent D₄ and its metabolites from the following biological matrices: blood, plasma, urine, feces, liver, lung, and fat. There were no qualitative differences in the distribution of radioactivity or metabolite profiles between male and female rats in either of the pharmacokinetic studies. Therefore, the choice of samples from male and female rats was based on availability.

In one of the *in vivo* studies, male F-344 rats were exposed (nose-only) to ¹⁴C-D₄ vapor (mean chamber concentration of 716 ppm) for 6h. Groups of 3 rats were killed and tissues were collected at selected time points. Feces samples were obtained from a subset of 3 rats and placed in all-glass metabolism chambers.

In another *in vivo* study, emulsified ¹⁴C-D₄ was administered i.v. to 4 F-344 male rats at a dose ≈ 130 mg in order to achieve a 20 mg/kg (20 μ Ci) dose of D₄. Blood samples were obtained from male rats at 1, 8, 24, and 48 h. Male rats from another group were dosed i.v. with 245 μl of ¹⁴C-D₄ emulsion (26.1 μCi; D₄ dose = 70 mg/kg). Plasma samples were separated from blood samples obtained at 24 h. Female F-344 rats each received an i.v. dose of ~400 mg of ¹⁴C-D₄ emulsion, and urine samples were collected (at 24 h) from female F-344 rats that each received an i.v. dose.

Following inhalation or i.v. injection, only metabolites of D₄ were present in the urine; parent D₄ was completely absent. For lung tissues collected at 24 h after exposure to a single dose (tail vein) of ¹⁴C-D₄, the parent D₄ silicone moiety predominated. In all of the other matrices, varying proportions of D₄ and its metabolites were present.

Varaprath et al. (1998) described an *in vitro* method for extracting D₄ from tissues (using glass beads), so that levels could be measured in the *in vivo* studies. This method and extraction efficiencies data are included in the section on Analytical Methods earlier in the report text.

In Vitro Study

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Usuki (2001) conducted a study to determine the role of human liver microsomal enzymes in the *in vitro* metabolism of [¹⁴C]-D₄. [¹⁴C]-D₄ was incubated with a pool of liver microsomes obtained from humans, saline-treated (control) rats, or phenobarbital-treated rats to assess species differences and proportionality of metabolite formation with respect to incubation time and protein concentration (determination of the initial rate conditions). Other experiments were conducted to determine the cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes that are involved in the metabolism of [¹⁴C]-D₄ by human liver microsomes. A combination of the following 2 experimental approaches was used: (1) metabolism of [¹⁴C]-D₄ by individual recombinant human CYP enzymes and (2) evaluation of the effects of specific antibodies against selected CYP enzymes on the metabolism of [¹⁴C]-D₄ by human liver microsomes. Study results are included below.

[¹⁴C]-D₄ was metabolized by human liver microsomes *in vitro* to a single metabolite that was named M8. Though the conversion of D₄ to M8 did not exceed 10%, M8 formation was not proportional to protein concentration or the incubation time. The results of the experiment to assess [¹⁴C]-D₄ binding to human liver microsomes suggest that the loss of radioactivity in the incubation sample was not due to the binding of [¹⁴C]-D₄ and its metabolite(s) to the microsomal protein. Considering that D₄ is a volatile chemical, it is possible that one or more of its metabolites is also volatile, making its quantification difficult. The volatility of metabolites is one possible explanation for the lack of proportionality of metabolite formation with incubation time and protein concentration.

With human microsomes (and, possibly, liver microsomes from saline-treated rats), the results (lack of proportionality with incubation time and protein concentration) appear to suggest that only a portion of added D₄ is

available for metabolism, which might occur if D₄ is bound to plastic, formed micelles, or formed a film on the surface of the incubation medium. The observation of extensive metabolism of D₄ with microsomes from phenobarbital-treated rats was not considered an assay artifact, but possibly suggests that microsomal metabolism of D₄ in the uninduced system is a complex blend of enzyme action and inhibition.

Based on the results of experiments with recombinant human CYP enzymes and polyclonal antibodies, it was concluded that [¹⁴C]-D₄ is primarily metabolized to M8 *in vitro*, and that CYP2B6 and CYP3A4 are largely responsible for the formation of M8 (Usuki 2001).

MODIFICATION OF METABOLISM

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Plotzke and Salyers (1997) reported a pilot study to determine whether classical inducing agents alter the metabolic profile of a single i.v. dose of [¹⁴C]D₄ in rats. The authors noted that D₄ has been demonstrated to induce hepatic cytochrome P450 enzymes, but that it was not clear whether cytochrome P450 is involved in the metabolism of D₄. The authors postulated that pretreatment with phenobarbital would increase the endogenous levels of cytochrome P450 and potentiate the metabolism of D₄. To examine if other P450 subfamilies may be involved, pretreatment with 3-methylcholanthrene was performed.

Female Fischer 344 rats (were pretreated for 4 days with either phenobarbital (80 mg/kg day⁻¹, 4 animals intraperitoneally [i.p.]) in saline or with 3-methylcholanthrene (30 mg/kg day⁻¹, 4 animals i.p.) in corn oil or saline (3 animals) or corn oil (2 animals). Each of these pretreated animals was given a single i.v. dose of [¹⁴C]D₄ (70 mg/kg). Another group of 5 animals received a single oral dose [¹⁴C]D₄ (70 mg/kg) only, with no pretreatment of any kind. Urine, feces, and expired air were collected over a 72-h period, at which time the animals were killed and the carcasses solubilized and analyzed for total radioactivity.

Urinary excretion was the primary route of elimination of ¹⁴C-D₄ (injected i.v.) derived radiolabel in rats pretreated with phenobarbital. Within 72 h, approximately 55% of the administered radiolabel was excreted in the urine of phenobarbital-treated rats, while control and 3-methylcholanthrene-pretreated rats excreted approximately 24 to 27% in the urine over the same period. The major route of elimination of radiolabel in control and 3-methylcholanthrene-pretreated rats was via expired volatiles. Following a single i.v. dose of ¹⁴C-D₄, approximately 38% of the dose was excreted as expired volatiles in control rats, while 3-methylcholanthrene -pretreated rats excreted approximately 29% and phenobarbital-pretreated rats excreted 9% over the same period.

After a single oral dose of ¹⁴C-D₄, 22% of the dose was excreted as expired volatiles over a 72 h period. Control rats receiving a single i.v. dose excreted 38% of the administered dose. Urinary excretion was similar for the 2 routes of D₄ administration (i.v. or oral). Control rats dosed i.v. with ¹⁴C-D₄ excreted 24% of the administered dose in the urine over a 72-h period, whereas, control rats dosed orally excreted 31% of the dose.

The elimination of ¹⁴CO₂ appeared to have been independent of the route of administration. Rats dosed orally or i.v. with ¹⁴C-D₄ expired 3% of the administered dose as ¹⁴CO₂ over the 72-h period. Following i.v. dosing, the elimination of ¹⁴C-D₄-derived radioactivity in the feces (< 8%) was a minor route of excretion in control rats. However, after oral dosing with ¹⁴C-D₄, fecal elimination accounted for 29% of the administered dose. At 72 h post-dosing, 18% of the radioactivity remained in the carcass of rats dosed orally with D₄; 29% of the radioactivity remained in the carcass of control rats dosed i.v. with D₄.

An HPLC analysis of urine did not indicate any qualitative change in metabolites in rats pretreated with phenobarbital or 3-methylcholanthrene, when compared to controls. A similar profile of at least 6 D₄ metabolites and absence of the parent compound was associated with all samples, including the rats dosed orally with ¹⁴C-D₄. The results of this study indicated that phenobarbital pretreatment increased both the amount and rate of urinary excretion of radioactivity after a single i.v. dose of ¹⁴C-D₄, and that there were differences in the major route of excretion following different routes of administration (Plotzke and Salyers 1997).

ENZYME EFFECTS

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

McKim et al. (1998) determined the time course for changes in hepatic microsomal cytochrome P450 enzyme expression after repeated inhalation exposure to D₄. Male (weights = 175 to 200 g) and female (weights = 130 to 145 g) Fischer 344 rats were used. Groups of 3 to 6 rats were exposed to 0 ppm, 70 ppm or 700 ppm D₄ 5 days per week (6 h per day) for 4 weeks. The animals were killed on exposure days 3, 7, 14, 21, and 28. Microsomal fractions were prepared and enzyme activity as well as immunoreactive protein levels of several (CYP) enzymes, epoxide hydrolase, and UDP-glucuronosyltransferase (UDPGT) were evaluated. The time course for enzyme induction was monitored by measuring 7-ethoxyresorufin O-deethylase (EROD), and 7-pentoxyresorufin O-depentylase (PROD) activities on days 3, 7, 14, 21, and 28. The detection of immunoreactive proteins was accomplished with polyclonal antibodies raised against rat liver microsomal CYP1A1/2, CYP2B1/2, CYP3A1/2, CYP4A, and epoxide hydrolase.

Results indicated that CYP1A1/2 activity (determined by EROD activity) increased approximately 2- to 3-fold during the exposure period. In consideration of this finding, it was noted that an examination of immunoreactive protein revealed no induction of CYP1A1 and suppression of CYP1A2 in the 700 ppm D₄ exposure group. CYP2B1/2 enzyme activity (determined by PROD activity) was significantly increased, as early as on day 3, in the 70 ppm and 700 ppm exposure groups (male and female rats). On day 28, PROD activity was induced by more than 10-fold in the 70 ppm groups and by more than 20-fold in the 700 ppm exposure groups. A comparable increase in CYP2B1/2 immunoreactive protein paralleled the increase in PROD activity. As determined by 6 β -hydroxylation of testosterone and Western blot analysis, a modest (1.5- to 4-fold) increase in CYP3A1/2 activity and immunoreactive protein was noted. There was no effect on CYP4A activity or protein level.

By day 3 for 700 ppm and day 7 for 70 ppm, the expression of CYP enzymes was at or near maximum and remained relatively constant throughout the exposure period. On day 28, epoxide hydrolase activity and immunoreactive protein were induced (2- to 3-fold) in a dose-dependent manner. The slight changes in the expression and activity of UDPT detected were not found to be dose-related.

It was concluded that repeated inhalation exposure to D₄ induces CYP enzymes and epoxide hydrolase in a manner that is similar to that observed for phenobarbital (PB). D₄ was described as a "PB-like" inducer of hepatic microsomal enzymes in the Fischer 344 rat (McKim et al. 1998).

Madan (1998) evaluated the ability of D₄ to inhibit the following major P450 enzymes in human liver microsomes: CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2B6, CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, CYP3A4/5 and CYP4A9/11. The first experiment was performed to evaluate D₄ as a direct-acting ("metabolism-independent") reversible inhibitor of P450 activity. In this experiment, human liver microsomes from a pool of 7 subjects were incubated with marker substrates at concentrations \approx Km/2, Km, and 4Km, with or without D₄ at concentrations ranging from 0.032 to 2.9 μ M.

In the second experiment, D₄ was evaluated for its ability to function as a metabolism-dependent (mechanism-based) “reversible” inhibitor of P450 activity. Human liver microsomes from a pool of 7 subjects were incubated for 0 or 15 min with D₄ and NADPH prior to addition of the marker substrate at a final concentration \approx Km. The highest concentration of D₄ that resulted in less than 30% inhibition as a reversible inhibitor was the target concentration of D₄ at which the preincubations were carried out, provided that the D₄ concentration was not greater than 3.3 μ M.

A third experiment was performed to evaluate D₄ as an “irreversible” metabolism-dependent inhibitor of P450 activity. Human liver microsomes from a pool of 7 subjects were preincubated with D₄ and NADPH for 15 minutes, to allow the generation of metabolites that could inhibit cytochrome P450 non-competitively. Following the preincubation period, an aliquot of microsomes was removed and added to an incubation mixture containing the marker substrate. Another incubation was carried out to measure the residual P450 activity. The highest concentration of D₄ that resulted in less than 30% inhibition as a reversible inhibitor was multiplied by the dilution factor to give the target concentration of D₄ at which the preincubations were carried out, provided that the D₄ concentration was not greater than 3.7 μ M.

In addition to the use of human liver microsomes, D₄ was evaluated for its ability to inhibit CYP1A1/2 and CYP2B1/2 in liver microsomes from rats treated with 3-methylcholanthrene and phenobarbital, respectively.

Study results are summarized as follows: (1) D₄ appears to be a noncompetitive inhibitor of rat CYP2B1/2, with an estimated K_i value of 0.11 μ M. (2) D₄ appears to be a noncompetitive inhibitor of human CYP2B6, with an estimated K_i value of 3.6 μ M. (3) D₄ appears to be a competitive inhibitor of human CYP1A2, with an estimated K_i value of 12 μ M. (4) D₄ appears to be a noncompetitive inhibitor of human CYP2D6 and CYP3A4/5, with estimated K_i values of 14 and 11 μ M, respectively. (5) D₄ appears to be either a competitive or noncompetitive inhibitor of CYP2C19, with estimated K_i values of 6.4 or 11 μ M, respectively. (6) D₄ has little or no capacity to inhibit rat CYP1A2 and human CYP2A6, CYP2C9, and CYP4A9/11 activity. (7) The K_i value for D₄ as an inhibitor of human CYP2E1 was not estimated because D₄ is an activator, not an inhibitor, of human CYP2E1. (8) D₄ has little or no capacity to function as a metabolism-dependent (reversible or irreversible) inhibitor of any of the P450 enzymes examined, with the possible exception of rat CYP1A1/2 and human CYP3A4/5, which were weakly inhibited by D₄ in a reversible metabolism-dependent manner (Madan 1998).

In an inhalation toxicity study by Siddiqui (2001), summarized later in the report text (Short-Term Inhalation Toxicity section), the enzymes assayed in male and female rats and guinea pigs were glutathione S-transferase (GSHT), epoxide hydrolase (EH), and ethoxycoumarin-0-deethylase (ECOD). Animals were exposed to either 10 or 700 ppm D₄ for 6 h/day for 5 weeks. Microsomal and cytosolic fractions were obtained from all livers following standard procedures and respective enzyme assays were conducted.

All 3 enzymes were significantly activated in treated male rats, compared to controls, but only EH and ECOD were activated in female rats. Activation of these liver enzymes was found in treated guinea pigs (Siddiqui 2001).

McKim et al. (1999a) investigated the effects of D₅ on the expression and activity of selected rat hepatic phase I and phase II metabolizing enzymes. Female Fischer-344 rats (weights: 128 to 138 g) were exposed to 160 ppm D₅ vapors 7 days per week (6 h/day) for 28 days. The animals were exposed via whole body inhalation. Changes in the activity and relative abundance of hepatic microsomal CYPs (CYP1A, CYP2B, CYP3A, and CYP4A), epoxide hydrolase, and UDPGT were measured. By day 28, the repeated inhalation exposure of rats to D₅ increased liver size by 16% relative to controls. During a 14-day post-exposure period, significant recovery from the increased liver size was noted. D₅ exposure did not change total hepatic P450, but increased the activity of hepatic NADPH-cytochrome c reductase by

1.4-fold. An evaluation of CYP enzymes in hepatic microsomes prepared from D₅-exposed rats indicated a slight (1.9-fold) increase in EROD activity, but no change in immunoreactive CYP2B1/2 protein was observed.

Testosterone 6 β -hydroxylase activity was also increased (2.4-fold), as was CYP3A1/2 immunoreactive protein. Although a small increase in 11- and 12-hydroxylation of lauric acid was detected, no change in immunoreactive CYP4A levels was measured. Liver microsomal epoxide hydrolase activity and immunoreactive protein increased 1.7- and 1.4-fold, respectively, in the D₅-exposed group. UDPGT activity toward chloramphenicol was induced 1.8-fold, while no change in UDPGT activity toward 4-nitrophenol was observed. Study results suggest that the profile for enzyme induction following inhalation exposure of female Fischer-344 rats to D₅ vapors is similar to that reported for phenobarbital; therefore, D₅ may be described as a weak "phenobarbital-like" inducer (McKim et al. 1999).

Zhang et al. (2000) conducted a study to characterize the ability of D₄ and D₅ to induce drug metabolizing enzymes in male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (weights = 200 to 230 g). D₄ or D₅ (in corn oil) was administered at doses of 1, 5, 20, or 100 mg/kg daily by gavage for 4 days. Significant increases in the liver-to-body weight ratio were observed in female rats dosed with either D₄ or D₅ at doses \geq 20 mg/kg. In male rats, increases in liver-to-body weight were noted at doses \geq 100 mg/kg D₅, but were not associated with D₄ exposure. With increasing doses of D₄ and D₅, there were relatively large increases in CYP2B1/2 enzymatic activity and immunoreactive protein.

D₄ at doses of \geq 5 mg/kg induced significant increases in PROD activity in male and female rats. Dosing with D₅ induced an increase in PROD activity in male rats (at doses \geq 20 mg/kg) and in female rats (at doses \geq 5 mg/kg). In both male and female rats dosed with \geq 20 mg/kg D₄ or \geq 5 mg/kg D₅, EROD activity was increased. There was no indication of changes in CYP1A1/2 immunoreactive protein levels in male or female rats. Significant increases in CYP3A1/2 immunoreactive protein were noted only in male rats dosed with either D₄ or D₅ at a dose of 100 mg/kg. In female rats, significant increases in CYP3A1/2 immunoreactive protein were observed at doses of \geq 20 mg/kg (D₄) and \geq 5 mg/kg (D₅).

The induction of NADPH cytochrome P-450 reductase immunoreactive protein was observed after female rats were dosed with D₄ and after male and female rats were dosed with D₅. The induction of CYP2B1/2, CYP3A1/2, and NADPH cytochrome P-450 reductase was observed in rats injected i.p. with 50 mg/kg phenobarbital.

The authors noted that both D₄ and D₅ induced CYP2B1/2 in the adult rat liver in a manner that was similar to that observed following dosing with phenobarbital. However, differences between D₄ and D₅ in the ability to induce CYP3A1/2 and NADPH cytochrome P-450 reductase were observed. Additionally, when compared to male rats, female rats were more sensitive to the inductive properties of low doses of both D₄ and D₅; male rats were more responsive to phenobarbital induction (Zhang et al. 2000).

Madan (2000) evaluated the ability of D₅ to inhibit the following major P450 enzymes in human liver microsomes in 3 experiments: CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2B6, CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, CYP3A4/5 and CYP4A9/11. The first experiment was performed to evaluate D₅ as a direct-acting ("metabolism-independent") reversible inhibitor of P450 activity. In this experiment, human liver microsomes from a pool of 7 subjects were incubated with marker substrates at concentrations \approx Km/2, Km, and 4Km, with or without D₅, at concentrations ranging from 0.040 to 3.5 μ M.

In the second experiment, D₅ was evaluated for its ability to function as a metabolism-dependent (mechanism-based) "reversible" inhibitor of P450 activity. Human liver microsomes from a pool of 7 subjects were incubated for 0 or 15 min with D₅ and NADPH prior to addition of the marker substrate at a final concentration \approx Km. The highest concentration of D₅ that resulted in less than 30% inhibition as a reversible inhibitor was the target concentration of

D₅ at which the preincubations were carried out.

A third experiment was performed to evaluate D₅ as an “irreversible” metabolism-dependent inhibitor of P450 activity. Human liver microsomes from a pool of seven subjects were preincubated with D₅ and NADPH for 15 minutes, to allow the generation of metabolites that could inhibit cytochrome P450 non-competitively. Following the preincubation period, an aliquot of microsomes was removed and added to an incubation mixture containing the marker substrate. Another incubation was carried out to measure the residual P450 activity. The highest concentration of D₅ that resulted in less than 20% inhibition as a reversible inhibitor was multiplied by the dilution factor to give the target concentration of D₅, at which the preincubations were carried out.

In addition to the use of human liver microsomes, D₅ was evaluated for its ability to inhibit CYP1A1/2 and CYP2B1/2 in liver microsomes from rats treated with 3-methylcholanthrene and phenobarbital, respectively.

Study results are summarized as follows: (1) D₅ appears to inhibit 7-pentoxoresorufin-O-dealkylation (marker reaction of CYP2B1/2 activity) catalyzed by liver microsomes from rats treated with phenobarbital in a manner that does not conform to prototypical types of inhibition (i.e., competitive, noncompetitive, uncompetitive, or mixed competitive-noncompetitive); this inhibition increases significantly with an increase in marker substrate concentration. (2) D₅ did not inhibit another marker substrate reaction for CYP2B1/2, namely testosterone 16 β -hydroxylation, suggesting that the observed inhibition of 7-pentoresorufin was an experimental artifact. This was attributed to the direct interaction of D₅ with the marker substrate, 7-pentoxoresorufin. (3) D₅ did not directly inhibit rat CYP1A1/2 activity; however, preincubation of D₅ in the presence of microsomes and a NADPH-generating system produced metabolites that appeared to reversibly inhibit CYP1A1/2. (4) D₅ appears to be a weak competitive inhibitor of human CYP3A4/5, with an estimated K_i value of 6.9 μ M. (5) D₅ appears to be a strong reversible (and weak “irreversible”) metabolism-dependent inhibitor of human CYP3A4/5. (6) D₅ has little or no capacity to inhibit rat CYP1A2 and human CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2B6, CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, and CYP4A9/11 activity in a reversible metabolism-independent manner. (7) D₅ has little or no capacity to function as a metabolism-dependent (reversible or irreversible) inhibitor of rat CYP2B1/2 activity or human CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2B6, CYP2C9, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, and CYP4A9/11 activity (Madan 2000).

HORMONAL EFFECTS

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

McKim et al. (2001a) examined the potential estrogenic and antiestrogenic activities of D₄ using Sprague-Dawley (SD) (Cr:CD[®] VAF/Plus[®] strain, 18 days old; weight = 40 g; 12 pups/group) and Fischer 344 rats (COBS[®]CDF[®] (F-344/CrIBR) strain, 21 days old; weight = 30 g; 12 pups/group). These 2 strains were used to address potential differences in sensitivity. Estrogenicity was determined by measuring absolute and relative uterine weights in immature rats and by monitoring uterine epithelial cell height. To place the data obtained for D₄ in perspective, with respect to strong and weak estrogenic compounds, the response produced by D₄ at 0, 10, 50, 100, 250, 500, and 1000 mg/kg/day was compared to responses produced by ethinyl estradiol (EE, 1, 3, 10, or 30 μ g/kg/day), diethylstilbestrol dipropionate (DES-DP, 0.5, 1.5, 5, and 15 μ g/kg/day), and coumestrol (CE, 10, 35, 75, and 150 mg/kg/day). Antiestrogenic effects were studied by co-administering D₄ (500 mg/kg/day) with EE.

D₄, as well as the other substances tested, were administered (in sesame oil, dose volume = 5 ml/kg) by oral gavage. Beginning on postnatal day (PND) 18 (SD rats) or 21 (F-344 rats), each pup (12/group) was given a single oral dose once per day for 4 consecutive days. The pups were killed on the morning after the last dose; uteri were removed

and processed for microscopic examination.

In the 1000 mg/kg/day dose group (SD rats), D₄ caused a statistically significant decrease in absolute body weight on day 21, but not on day 22. In F-344 rats dosed with D₄ (1000 mg/kg/day), a statistically significant decrease in absolute body weight was noted on days 23, 24, and 25.

Both EE and DES-DP induced a significant dose-dependent increase in absolute and relative uterine weights and uterine cell height. The weak phytoestrogen, CE, also induced an increase in both absolute and relative uterine weight as well as epithelial cell height; however, the response was noted over a much higher range of doses.

At doses > 100 mg/kg/day, both absolute and relative uterine weights and uterine epithelial cell height were increased in both SD and F344 rats; these changes were classified as statistically significant. Regarding uterine weight, D₄ was approximately 0.6 million times less potent than EE or DES-DP in SD pups and 3.8 million times less potent than EE or DES-DP in F-344 pups. Compared to controls, the maximal increase in uterine weight induced by D₄ was approximately 160% in SD rats; the maximum increase induced by D₄ in F-344 rats was 86%. It was concluded that D₄ induced weak estrogenic and antiestrogenic activity that was several orders of magnitude less potent than EE, and many times less potent than the weak phytoestrogen CE (McKim et al. 2001a). It is important to note that a similar uterotrophic effect of D₄ was reported in a study by Quinn et al. (2007b), summarized in the section on Receptor Agonist/Binding Activity later in the report text.

Plotzke (2001) conducted a study to evaluate the potential estrogenic properties of D₄. An *in vitro* estrogen responsive reporter gene system was used and D₄ as well as 17β-estradiol (E2), diethylstilbesterol, and bisphenol A were evaluated, using the MCF-7 human cell line (7 experiments). In experiments 1 and 2, the cells were exposed to D₄ (10.0 μM) or E2 (0.3 nM) for 24 or 48 h. An approximate 3- to 6-fold induction of the pS2 reporter gene mRNA, with significant induction during the 24-h exposure period, was reported for D₄ and E2. The results of experiment 3 indicated that, for D₄, the increase in pS2 is a dose-dependent effect in the range of 0.1 μM to 10 μM. E2 (0.03 to 0.3 μM), diethylstilbesterol (0.01 to 1.0 μM), and bisphenol A (1.0 to 10.0 μM) also induced a dose-dependent increase in pS2 expression.

The effect of shorter exposure times on pS2 induction was evaluated in experiment 5. Increased pS2 expression was observed following exposure to D₄ (10 μM) and E2 (0.3 nM) at exposure periods ranging from 15 minutes to 24 h. Maximal expression was observed between 6 h and 24 h; shorter exposures (15 minutes up to 6 h) resulted in increasing levels of mRNA. A rapid loss of D₄ from the medium was noted, reaching a plateau at ~12 h (< 10% D₄ remaining).

In experiment 6, the potential for D₄ to interfere with the action of E2 was evaluated by exposing MCF-7 cells to a combination of E2 and D₄ and then measuring reporter gene activation. When E2 (0.3 nM), in combination with a range of D₄ doses (25 nM to 10 μM) was added, a reduction in E2-induced pS2 expression was absent, with the exception of a slight decrease in one dose group (1 μM). The purpose of experiment 7 was to compare the E2 dose response curve, with and without co-incubation with 1.0 μM D₄. The regression analysis resulted in parallel slopes with statistically indistinguishable y-intercepts, indicating that D₄ was not reducing the potency of E2 under these conditions.

The results of this study indicate that, using the *in vitro* reporter gene system, D₄ appears to have estrogenic potential at an applied dose ranging from 0.1 μM to 10 μM. The combination of a wide range of D₄ concentrations in combination with E2 did not cause a significant reduction in E2 (0.3 nM)-induced pS2 expression, except at a concentration of 1.0 μM; however, D₄ did not alter the regression analysis of the E2 dose response curve. These data suggest that D₄ can elicit an estrogenic effect that is dose-dependent, with no significant anti-estrogenic activity (Plotzke

2001).

Stump (2001a) evaluated the potential of D₄ to affect the preovulatory luteinizing hormone (LH) surge using 5 groups of ovariectomized female Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®(SD)IGS BR rats. Each of 3 groups (groups 1-3) contained ~50 rats and the remaining 2 groups (groups 4 and 5) each contained 5 rats. The target test article concentrations were 700 ppm (group 2) and 900 ppm (groups 3 and 5); the animals were exposed to D₄ for 6 h on day 0. The 2 control groups (groups 1 and 4) were exposed to clean, filtered air according to the same procedure. On day 0, the mean body weights were as follows: 0 ppm (group 1 [49 rats] and group 4 [4 rats]: 267 ± 13.0 g and 269 ± 3.3 g, respectively); 700 ppm (group 2 [49 rats]: 265 ± 14.4 g); and 900 ppm (group 3 [50 rats] and group 5 [4 rats]: 268 ± 12.9 g and 267 ± 3.3 g). In order to synchronize the estrous cycles, the females were ovariectomized and s.c. implanted with E2.

The animals were killed at appropriate intervals following the 6-h exposure period, and blood was collected and analyzed for prolactin, LH, E2, and/or estrone (E1). Rats from groups 1, 2, and 3 were killed by decapitation and blood was collected during this procedure. Blood from anesthetized rats of groups 4 and 5 was collected from the vena cava, after which the animals were killed via exsanguination. There were no significant, exposure-related clinical observations at the conclusion of exposure. In blood samples (from 700 and 900 ppm groups) collected via decapitation, there were no statistically significant effects on LH levels. Statistically significant decreases of prolactin in blood samples collected via decapitation were noted in females exposed to 700 or 900 ppm D₄. Estradiol blood levels were decreased at the end of exposure, but subsequently returned to control levels.

The level of E1 in blood samples collected from the vena cavae of rats in the 900 ppm exposure group (4 rats/group) was similar to that of control rats. The E2:E1 ratio in these samples from the 900 ppm exposure group was decreased (not a statistically significant reduction) when compared to control values.

It was concluded that group mean LH levels in ovariectomized female rats treated with E2 (s.c. implant) were similar to the control group mean after a single 6 h exposure to 700 ppm or 900 ppm D₄ (Stump 2001a).

Quinn et al. (2007a) studied the potential for D₄ to suppress the pre-ovulatory LH surge, to block or delay ovulation, and evaluated potential effects on reproductive hormones in female Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD® (SD) IGS BR rats. The exposure protocol was divided into 2 phases. In phase 1, groups of non-cannulated rats were exposed (whole-body inhalation) to 0 (filtered air), 700, or 900 ppm D₄ (groups of 24, 22, and 27 rats, respectively). The exposure duration was 6 h per day on diestrus days 1 and 2 and a 2.5 h exposure on the day of proestrus. Trunk blood obtained at proestrus was evaluated for levels of the following hormones: follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), E2, E1, and progesterone (P4).

In phase 2 of the experiment, groups of cannulated animals were exposed to 0 (filtered air), 700, or 900 ppm D₄. The duration of exposure was 6 h per day for 3 days (day 3 of diestrus through proestrus). Serial blood samples were collected via a cannula at 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10 p.m. on the day of proestrus, and the plasma was evaluated for LH and prolactin. Trunk blood was also collected during estrus and the plasma was evaluated for levels of FSH, E2, E1, and P4.

During proestrus, significant increases in the levels of E1 in rats of the 700 and 900 ppm exposure groups and in the levels of P4 in the 900 ppm exposure group were noted. During estrus, significant increases in E1, E2, and the E1/E2 ratio, and decreases in FSH were observed in the 700 and 900 ppm exposure groups. Regardless of treatment, there was a correlation between suppression of the LH surge and the blockage of ovulation. The percentages of rats that ovulated were 42% (at 700 ppm) and 31% (at 900 ppm), compared to a control value of 79%. The results of this study

indicate that high exposures to D₄ attenuated the pre-ovulatory LH surge and significantly decreased the proportion of female rats that ovulated (Quinn et al. 2007a).

RECEPTOR AGONIST/BINDING ACTIVITY

Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃), Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

He et al. (2003) conducted a study to characterize the estrogenic potential of D₃, D₄, and D₅ using female estrogen receptor- α knockout (α ERKO) mice. Wild-type control mice of the same genetic background (129/J/C57BL/6j) as the α ERKO mice and female B6C3F1 mice were also used. The mice received a total of seven 1,000 mg/kg doses. Serum E2 concentrations decreased in a dose-dependent manner following exposure to oral doses of D₄ ranging from 100 mg/kg to 1000 mg/kg. The results of studies involving adrenalectomized animals indicated that the decreased serum E2 levels were not caused by elevated levels of serum cortisone. In ovariectomized mice, uterine wet weights were significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner following exposure to oral doses of D₄ ranging from 250 to 1000 mg/kg. However, this was not observed following exposure to D₃ or D₅. Similarly, uterine peroxidase activity (marker for estrogenic activity) was significantly increased in mice dosed orally with D₄, but not in mice dosed orally with D₃ or D₅.

Pretreatment with ICI 182,780 (estrogen receptor agonist) resulted in complete blockage of the increase in uterine weight that was induced by D₄. No increases in uterine weight were observed after ovariectomized estrogen receptor- α knockout mice were dosed orally with D₄ or E2. The results of an *in vitro* estrogen receptor binding assay indicated significant competition between D₄ and ³H-E2 relative to binding to the estrogen receptor- α , but not estrogen receptor- β . The data presented in this study indicate that D₄ has weak estrogenic activity and that these effects are mediated through estrogen receptor- α (He et al. 2003).

Quinn (2004) conducted a study to measure the ability of D₅ to competitively displace tritiated E2 from the estrogen receptor, subtype alpha. Initial experiments measured the ability of radiolabeled ¹⁴C-D₅ vapor (160 ppm) to partition into the aqueous mixture, monitored over a 4-hour incubation period. There was a rapid increase in radiolabeled material in the aqueous mixture that initially reached equilibrium after 3 h. The concentration of D₅ was measured in the 4 h incubation mixture by liquid scintillation counting (LSC) and by GC/MS. The calculated ¹⁴C-D₅ concentration was 0.29 μ M by LSC. The calculated GC/MS D₅ concentration was 0.36 μ M.

Once the optimal incubation time and reaction conditions were established, saturation binding experiments and competition experiments were carried out. The saturation binding experiments were used as an internal control evaluating the state of the receptor and the binding conditions with the natural ligand. In each case, the calculated K_d of the E2 was within the expected range (0.5-5 nM), indicating that the receptor binding assay conditions were appropriate.

The measurement of D₅ binding to the estrogen receptor alpha was carried out using a relative binding affinity (RBA) method. D₅ (160 ppm) was incubated with a limited amount of the alpha receptor in the presence of physiological levels of radiolabeled E2 (3.4 nM). The D₅, delivered as a 160-ppm vapor in the headspace of the aqueous reaction, was unable to displace any of the radiolabeled E2, indicating that, in this *in vitro* system, D₅ is not a direct competitor for the receptor (Quinn 2004).

Quinn (2005) conducted a study to measure the ability of D₅ to competitively displace tritiated E2 from the subtype beta, estrogen receptor. To evaluate the binding potential of D₅ with this receptor system, both saturation binding experiments and competition experiments were carried out. The saturation binding experiments were used as an internal control to evaluating the state of the receptor by E2. In each case, the binding curves indicated that the specific binding of

the receptor by E2 was consistent and that the receptor binding assay conditions were appropriate.

The measurement of D₅ binding to the estrogen receptor beta was carried out using an RBA method. A 160 ppm D₅ vapor was introduced into the 1 ml headspace of 2 ml sealed vials. The test article was incubated for 3 h at 37°C, with gentle inversion in the presence of a limit amount of receptor beta and physiological levels of radiolabeled E2 (3.4 nM). D₅ was unable to displace any of the radiolabeled E2, indicating that, in this *in vitro* system, D₅ is not a direct competitor for the subtype beta, estrogen receptor (Quinn 2005).

You (2005) conducted a study to test the hypothesis that the *in vivo* induction of CYP2B1/2 expression by D₄ and D₅ suggests the possibility that D₄ and D₅ are activators of the constitutive androstane receptor (CAR) in the rat. CAR is a nuclear receptor that has been shown to be a key regulator in phenobarbital-induced, up regulation of CYP2B1/2 gene expression. This study evaluated the potential for D₄ and D₅ to activate CARs representative of rat and human, utilizing reporter gene assays.

The test system comprised HepG2 cells transiently infected with CAR plasmid (coding for rat or human CAR), a luciferase reporter plasmid containing a 1.8 kb human CYP2B6 promoter, and a transfection control plasmid (Renilla luciferase). The transfected cells were exposed to D₄ and D₅ at nominal concentrations of 0, 1, 5, 15, 31, 62.5, 125, 250, 500, and 1000 μ M for 24 h. The siloxane/media dose solutions were replaced after the initial 12 h incubation, in anticipation of decreasing media concentrations related to evaporation and adherence of the cyclic siloxane to the plastic culture plates. Reporter gene expression was determined by the level of luminescence after the second 12 h incubation.

The evaluation of D₄ in the rat CAR assay demonstrated statistically significant induction of reporter gene expression of up to 5-fold. In contrast, the evaluation of D₅ in this assay over the same range of nominal concentrations gave rise to a maximum induction of less than 2-fold. The increased response with increased dose represented a statistically significant trend; however, individual dose responses were not statistically different from the control. Both D₄ and D₅ demonstrated statistically significant induction of reporter gene expression in the human CAR assay, with induction as high as 11-fold and 6-fold, respectively. Maximum induction was observed at the nominal dose level of 62 μ M, with the exception of D₅, in the rat CAR assay. In this case, maximal induction occurred at 250 μ M.

The inclusion of positive and negative assay controls demonstrated that the assay performed as designed. The compound 1,4-bis[2-(3,5-dichloropyridyloxy)] benzene (TCPOBOP), a known rodent CAR activator, was used at a concentration of 250 nM. The compound 6-(4-chlorophenyl)imidazo[2,1-b][1,3]thiazole-5-carbaldehyde O-(3,4-dichlorobenzyl)oxime (CITCO) was used as an activator of human CAR at a concentration of 1 μ M. Transfection with an empty vector plasmid, one not containing the CAR gene rather than the CAR expression plasmid, served as the negative control.

Considering that CAR activity can be repressed by androstenol and that repression can represent CAR activation, D₄ and D₅ were assessed in the presence of an inhibitory concentration of androstenol. D₄ induced reporter gene expression in the rat CAR assay by approximately 6-fold in the presence of androstenol. In contrast, the most effective concentrations of D₅ were only able to reverse the effects of androstenol, returning reporter gene expression to the levels present in the constitutive control. Androstenol did not repress reporter gene expression in the human CAR assay, a finding that is consistent with known species differences.

The induction of reporter gene expression by D₄ in the human CAR assay was not affected by androstenol. Conversely, the presence of androstenol gave rise to a generalized increase in response to CITCO (positive control) and

to D₅. There was an apparent extension of the dose range for D₅, with maximal induction occurring at 250 μM in the presence of androstenediol, versus 62 μM without androstenediol. This unusual response remains unexplained. The stabilization and/or enhancement of effective media concentrations are postulated contributors to the noted effect.

It was concluded that the results of this *in vitro* study identify D₄ and D₅ as functional activators of rat and human CAR. The authors noted that this finding is consistent with *in vivo* hepatic enzyme induction studies in rats (You 2005).

Jean (2005a) investigated the potential for D₄ and D₅ to act as pituitary dopamine receptor agonists using an *in vivo* rat model. Groups of female Fischer 344 rats (6-10 rats/ group, 8 in most groups; weight minimum = 90 g) were used. The model was explained as follows: Female Fischer 344 rats were pretreated with reserpine (depletes dopamine in the brain). Dopamine is a key regulator of serum prolactin levels, because dopamine released from the hypothalamus activates dopamine D₂-receptors on the pituitary gland to inhibit the secretion of prolactin. Thus, reserpine-induced dopamine depletion results in a persistent and marked increase in serum prolactin levels. The administration of bromocriptine (dopamine receptor agonist) under these conditions results in a marked decrease in serum prolactin. However, if the rat is treated with sulpiride (dopamine receptor antagonist) prior to treatment with bromocriptine, the decrease in serum prolactin may be partially or completely blocked. This outcome serves to demonstrate that the actions of each agent are related to their interaction with/competition for the dopamine receptor.

Rats pretreated with reserpine were exposed (nose-only, vapor inhalation) to 700 ppm D₄ or 160 ppm D₅ for 6 h. Ovariectomized rats that were not pretreated with reserpine served as controls. There was also a reserpine-treated control group. Trunk blood was obtained immediately after exposure for prolactin analysis. Two separate experiments were performed. A sulpiride (dopamine receptor antagonist) pretreatment group was added to the second experiment to determine whether D₄ acts at the level of the receptor. In each experiment, exposure to 700 ppm D₄ reduced serum prolactin levels to those of control rats (non-reserpine treated, ovariectomized rats). This reduction amounted to more than 80% relative to the reserpine-treated control group. Sulpiride administration prior to D₄ exposure (experiment 2) blocked the prolactin-lowering activity of D₄, indicating that D₄ is a dopamine D₂-receptor agonist.

The results for D₅ were similar to those reported for D₄. The exposure of reserpine-treated rats to 160 ppm D₅ (nose-only vapor inhalation) for 6 h produced a 34% decrease (average of 2 experiments) in serum prolactin. The administration of sulpiride prior to D₅ exposure blocked the prolactin-lowering activity of D₅, indicating that D₅ acted as a dopamine D₂-receptor agonist. It was concluded that serum prolactin levels were significantly decreased in reserpine-pretreated rats after a single 6 h vapor inhalation exposure to 700 ppm D₄ and 160 ppm D₅ (each independently). This finding was said to be consistent with D₄ and D₅ acting as dopamine D₂-receptor agonists (Jean 2005a).

Jean (2005b) conducted a study to screen for the potential of cyclic siloxanes (D₄ and D₅) as pituitary dopamine D₂-receptor agonists, using an *in vitro* cell line (MMQ cells) derived from rat pituitary tumor. This cell line was selected as the test system because it produces and secretes prolactin and expresses functional dopamine D₂-receptors. The model system used requires an inducer, such as maitotoxin, to elevate prolactin secretion. Maitotoxin-induced prolactin secretion is dopamine D₂-receptor agonist-sensitive, allowing for assessment of test materials as dopamine D₂-receptor agonists.

MMQ cells propagated in the laboratory produced and secreted prolactin, with and without induction by maitotoxin. Maitotoxin (1.5 and 3 ng/ml) induced less than a 2-fold increase in prolactin secretion over the course of a 30-minute

incubation. Pretreatment with 1 μM dopamine reduced (> 70%) the maitotoxin-induced increase in prolactin secretion.

D₄ and D₅ each completely inhibited maitotoxin-induced prolactin secretion at a nominal concentration of 10 μM . Whether or not this action was receptor-mediated has not been confirmed in this system. However, the demonstrated activity in this screening assay provided additional evidence in support of a proposed study designed to assess the potential of D₄ and D₅ to activate pituitary dopamine D₂-receptors and down-regulate pituitary prolactin secretion *in vivo*.

The results of this screening study provide data supporting the hypothesis that D₄ and D₅ are dopamine D₂-receptor agonists (Jean 2005b).

Jean (2005c) evaluated the potential of D₄ and D₅ as progesterone receptor ligands using the following receptor binding assays: those utilizing cell-free, classical radioligand binding assays and a state-of-the-art non-radioligand binding assay. Additionally, the potential for D₄ and D₅ to act as functional progesterone receptor ligands (agonists) was evaluated using an *in vitro* cell-based reporter gene assay. The receptor binding assays utilized calf uterine progesterone receptor and recombinant human progesterone receptor - α and - β . Recombinant human progesterone receptor- β activation was evaluated in the reporter gene assay.

Receptor binding was not apparent in any of the receptor binding experiments involving either D₄ or D₅. This finding suggests that D₄ and D₅ are not progesterone receptor ligands. D₄ and D₅ did not induce reporter gene expression in the cell-based reporter gene assay, suggesting that they are not functionally active progesterone receptor ligands. No evidence of progesterone receptor binding/activation was apparent for D₄ or D₅ in the series of *in vitro* studies presented in this report (Jean 2005c).

Jean (2005d) investigated the potential for D₄ and D₅ to act as functional PXR ligands using the *in vitro* pregnane X receptor (PXR) reporter gene assay. The assay utilized HepG2 cells stably transfected with human PXR and a PXR-Luciferase reporter gene construct. Ethanol was used as the carrier and a wide range of concentrations was evaluated (5, 15, 31, 62, 125, 250, 500, and 1000 μM D₄ and D₅).

Statistically significant increases in reporter gene expression were observed for both D₄ and D₅ at nominal concentrations of ≥ 31 μM and ≥ 5 μM , respectively. Maximal induction of gene expression was observed at concentrations of 125 μM (D₄) and 250 μM (D₅). The response to nominal concentrations below the concentration that yielded maximal expression was generally dose-related.

The results of this study indicate that D₄ and D₅ are functional ligands for human PXR. The authors noted that this finding is consistent with reports in the literature relating to the induction of CYP3A1/2 by D₄ and D₅ in the rat (Jean 2005d).

Quinn et al. (2007b) conducted a study to determine the potential estrogenic, androgenic, and progestagenic activity of D₄ and D₅. Receptor-binding experiments and a luciferase reporter gene assay were used to determine whether D₄ and D₅ can bind and activate the estrogen receptors (ERs) or progesterone receptors (PRs), α or β . Both the *in vivo* rat uterotrophic assay (RUA) for estrogenic activity and the Hershberger assay for androgenic activity were also performed. In the receptor binding experiments, the binding of D₄ to ER α , but not ER β , was demonstrated; D₅ did not bind to either of the 2 receptors. In the luciferase reporter gene assay, D₄ (at 10 μM) activated the receptor gene; results for D₅ were negative. Neither D₄ nor D₅ was a ligand for the PRs.

The uterotrophic assay was conducted using ovariectomized (OVEX) adult Sprague Dawley and Fischer 344 rats. Groups of 10 rats were exposed to D₄ (700 ppm) or D₅ (160 ppm) via whole-body inhalation exposure for 3 days (16

h/day). For comparative purposes (estrogenic activity), additional groups of rats were injected s.c. with ethinyl estradiol (EE at doses of 0.3, 1.0, and 3.0 µg/kg/day, groups of 6 rats) and genistein (10, 25, and 50 mg/kg/day) , followed by control inhalation exposure of filtered air

In the Hershberger assay, castrated male Fischer 344 rats were exposed (groups of 10, whole-body inhalation) to 700 ppm D₄ or 160 ppm D₅ for 10 consecutive days (16 h/day). For comparative purposes (androgenic activity), a dose response for testosterone propionate (TP, 0.1 to 1.6 mg/kg/day) was utilized.

In the uterotrophic assay, D₄ induced a small, but significant (p = 0.0002) increase in both wet and blotted uterine weight, as well as increases in both luminal and glandular epithelial cell height in both Sprague-Dawley and Fischer 344 rats. Results for D₅ were negative in both strains, which means that D₅ does not have estrogenic activity. Significant antiestrogenic activity was not associated with D₄ or D₅. Results were negative for D₄ and D₅ in the Hershberger assay, which means that no significant androgenic activity was associated with D₄ or D₅. The results of this study indicate that D₄ has a low affinity for ER α *in vitro*, and a weakly estrogenic response *in vivo* (Quinn et al. 2007b). It is important to note that a similar uterotrophic effect of D₄ was reported in a study by McKim et al. (2001a), summarized in the section on Hormonal Effects earlier in the report text.

IMMUNOLOGICAL EFFECTS

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Munson (1997) conducted studies to determine the potential effects of D₄ on the immune system, using male and female Fischer 344 rats (6 to 8 weeks old; weights: 120 to 150 g). The vehicle and experimental groups consisted of 10 rats and the positive control groups consisted of 6 rats. Groups of 10 rats were dosed orally (by gavage) with 10, 30, 100, and 300 mg/kg D₄ (in corn oil), respectively, daily for 28 days. The negative control group was dosed with corn oil (0.05 ml/10 g body weight). The positive control group was dosed with cyclophosphamide (25 mg/kg, i.p.) on days 25 through 28. Another positive control (Anti Asialo GM1 [rabbit] antibody), for the natural killer (NK) cell assay, was injected i.v. at a dose of 0.05 ml/10 g body weight. Maleic vinyl ether served as the positive control for modulation of the functional activity of the reticuloendothelial system; it was injected i.v. at a dose of 0.05 ml/10 g body weight. Blood for hematological studies and serum for antibody titers were collected by cardiac puncture.

The rats dosed with D₄ had a normal increase in body weight, with body weight change being equivalent to the vehicle control group. A slight, but dose-dependent decrease in the erythroid elements was noted in male and female rats. Increased liver weights and decreased thymus weights, both as a function of the D₄ dose, were reported. These changes in organ weights were more pronounced in females.

Humoral immunity (measured by IgM responses to the T-dependent antigen sheep erythrocytes [sRBC]) was not altered by D₄ exposure in male rats (measured by the hemolytic antibody plaque assay, a.k.a. the splenic antibody forming cell [AFC] assay, and serum antibody titers). In female rats, a dose-dependent increase in the IgM response to sRBC was observed when assessed by the AFC response, but not with the antibody titers.

No changes in cell-mediated immunity, as measured by the one-way mixed lymphocyte response, were noted. Additionally, there were no changes in NK cell activity. Slight D₄-associated changes in macrophage function were noted. Macrophage function was measured by the vascular clearance and phagocytic uptake of ⁵¹Cr sRBC into the liver, spleen, and lungs. These changes are considered related to liver size, and, thus, liver blood volume associated with D₄. The phenotyping of lymphocytes derived from the blood and spleen indicated no biologically significant alterations that were

associated with D₄ exposure.

In separate studies, D₄ was administered in 4 different vehicles. Liver weight served as an indicator of systemic exposure. The greatest increase in liver weight was induced by D₄ administered in corn oil, followed by 10% emulphor and Maalox. An increase in liver weight was not observed when D₄ was administered in a polydimethylsiloxane vehicle.

Overall, the results of these studies indicate that D₄, when administered in corn oil at doses between 10 and 300 mg/kg, did not induce immune suppression in male or female Fischer 344 rats (Munson 1997).

Klykken et al. (1999) conducted a short-term inhalation toxicity study using groups of 25 Fischer 344 rats per sex, and the results are summarized in the Short-Term Inhalation Toxicity section later in the report text. Both test and control rats were exposed for 4 weeks (6 h per day, weekends excluded) to target concentrations of 0, 7, 20, 60, 180, and 540 ppm D₄. In this study, 10 rats/sex/group were used for the immunotoxicology analyses. These animals were also exposed each of the 4 days between sRBC immunization and spleen harvest. Because a weekend was involved, these animals received 2 additional D₄ exposures. The animals were immunized with sRBC 96 h before the animals were killed. Four additional rats of each sex were assigned to the Cyclophosphamide immunosuppressive control group for the AFC assay and ELISA determinations. Injections (i.p., 5 ml) of 5 mg/ml cyclophosphamide per kg body weight were administered on days 25 to 28, in addition to room air exposure and sRBC immunization.

When the data were analyzed as AFC/spleen or when normalized as AFC/10⁶ splenocytes, there were no differences in immune competence between the D₄ exposed animals and room air controls. ELISA determinations were consistent with these *in vitro* splenocyte data, in that they were also unremarkable. No alterations in circulating anti-sRBC IgM antibodies were noted between the control and test groups. It was noted that the room air control animals were within historical control values for these 2 determinations, and that CYP induced marked immunosuppression in both the ELISA (88%) and AFC (99%) assays.

It was concluded that, under the experimental conditions of this study, D₄ did not cause alterations in immune system function up to the highest level of exposure, 540 ppm (Klykken et al. 1999).

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) and Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Looney et al. (2001) studied the immunological effects of D₄ and D₅ *in vitro* using cultured human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs). In a serum-free medium, D₄ and D₅ inhibited phytohemagglutinin A (PHA)-induced proliferation of PBMCs at concentrations greater than 10 μ M. Also, in cultures with serum-free medium, D₄ and D₅ inhibited the proliferation of PBMCs that was induced by tetanus toxoid or alloantigens. The inhibitory effect of both D₄ and D₅ was completely reversed by the addition of small amounts of serum or plasma to the serum-free medium. The components of serum that were responsible for reversing the effects were present in the lipoprotein fractions of the serum, namely, very low density lipoprotein (VLDL), low density lipoprotein (LDL), and high density lipoprotein (HDL). The inhibition of proliferation in serum-free medium seems to be due to a toxic effect of D₄ and D₅, in that the viability of PBMCs assessed by trypan blue exclusion was less than 20% when cultured with D₄ or D₅ (10 μ M) for 24 h in serum-free medium. Culturing PBMCs and D₄ or D₅ with or without serum was not associated with the production of tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α).

These findings suggest that the exposure of cells to high levels of D₄ or D₅ may be deleterious under conditions in which other lipophilic substances are not also present. However, the toxic effects of D₄ and D₅ described are unlikely to be relevant systematically, in that high levels of lipids in the plasma and tissues would neutralize these potential effects

(Looney et al. 2001).

Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)

Burns-Naas et al. (1998a) assessed the potential toxicity and effect on humoral immunity following short-term (28 days, 6h/day), whole-body inhalation exposure to D₅ in male and female Fischer 344 rats (groups of 25 males and females; 4 to 5 weeks old). Results are summarized in the section on Short-Term Inhalation Toxicity later in the report text. In this study, immunotoxicology-designated rats (10/sex/group) were exposed daily (28 days) to D₅ concentrations of 0 (control - room air), 10, 25, 75, or 160 ppm. On day 25 of exposure, the rats were immunized i.v. with sRBC. Cyclophosphamide was injected i.p. into positive controls on days 24 through 28. The anti-sRBC AFC response (humoral immune response) was evaluated on day 29 using a standard hemolytic plaque assay. Blood samples were also collected for evaluation in the anti-sRBC ELISA.

The AFC responses of the D₅-exposed rats and room air controls were essentially the same. These data were not different when expressed as AFC/spleen, in that there were no significant exposure-related changes in spleen size or cellularity. It is also important to note that the antibody response to sRBC, as measured in the spleen, was consistent with the results obtained from sera using an anti-sRBC ELISA. It was concluded that D₅ did not modulate humoral immunity. However, cyclophosphamide (positive control) induced the expected suppression of the AFC response (Burns-Naas et al. 1998a).

CYTOTOXICITY

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Felix et al. (1996) compared the cytotoxic effects of the following 3 siloxanes *in vitro*: Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄), decamethyltetrasiloxane (M10TS), and 1,3,5,7-tetravinyltetramethyl-cyclotetrasiloxane (TVTM-D₄). D₄ and M10TS are methyl substituted siloxanes and TVTM-D₄ is a vinyl substituted siloxane. Because the siloxanes tested are very hydrophobic, inclusion complexes of γ -cyclodextrin with each were prepared. The action of the 3 siloxanes on B-cell lymphoma lines, peritoneal macrophages, and P388D1 cells were investigated. XRPC 24 and 2-11 plasmacytoma, CH12.LX lymphoma, and P388D1 macrophage-like cells were used as indicator cell lines.

The MTT proliferation test, a colorimetric method to determine the number of viable cells, was used to measure toxicity in XRPC 24 and CH12.LX cells. This test is based on the reduction of a tetrazolium salt to a formazan product by active mitochondrial enzymes. The 50% minimal lethal doses (CD50) for the siloxane compounds were dependent on the cell line that was used and ranged from 30 to 50 μ M. D₄ was less toxic than M10TS and produced a similar dose response curve for all 3 cell lines; TVTM-D₄ was much more potent than either of the 2.

During treatment with the siloxanes, the P388D1 cells were observed under the microscope, and changes in the membrane structure and shape of these cells were observed at 4h after exposure to the highest siloxane concentration. The P388D1 cells were said to have been approximately 3 times less sensitive to the 3 test compounds when compared to the B-lymphocyte-derived tumor cells. Sublethal doses ($\leq 15 \mu$ M) of the test compounds resulted in a striking loss of LDH from XRPC24 cells and a slight decrease in intracellular glutathione (GSH) from the cytosolic compartment of CH12.LX, 2-11 and XRPC24 cells, indicating cytotoxicity. LDH, a cytosolic enzyme, can only be released after permeabilization or disruption of the cell membrane. Cytoplasmic depletion of GSH results in the shift of the oxidative balance of the cell to the prooxidative state, which, in turn, is followed by cellular damage in the form of lipid peroxidation.

The treatment of murine macrophages with siloxanes resulted in a higher production of interleukin-6 (IL-6) than

was exhibited by untreated macrophages. The B9 cell bioassay of the treated cells indicated as much as a 10-fold higher production (500 U/ml) of IL-6, compared to untreated cells. The extent of the increase was dependent upon the test substance and test concentration. Over the range of concentrations tested (6 to 90 μ M D₄) the amounts of IL-6 secreted ranged from 28 to 246 B9 units/ml; i.e., a dose-response was observed.

The results of this study indicate that siloxanes gamma-cyclodextrin complexes in the 25 to 50 μ M range are toxic to B-lymphoma and plasmacytoma cells such as CH12.LX, XRPC24, and 2-11, as well as macrophage-like P388D1 cells (Felix et al. 1996).

EFFECT ON CELL PROLIFERATION

Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Siddiqui (2001) performed cell replication assays using male and female rats (10/sex/group) exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 3 or 5 days for (6 h/day). An additional group of rats was similarly exposed for 5 days and then allowed to recover for 14 days prior to being killed. All animals were administered 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) via an osmotic pump. BrdU labeled cells, mitotic cell and apoptotic cell counts were performed (2,000 cells counted). Cell proliferation (measured by BrdU labeling) or the number of mitotic or apoptotic cells in female rats was increased, compared to controls, but the effect disappeared when exposure was discontinued for 14 days. In male rats, D₄ exposure increased hepatic cell proliferation, as measured using BrdU labeling, but not with mitotic or apoptotic cell counts.

ANIMAL TOXICOLOGY DATA ON CYCLOMETHICONE

ACUTE INHALATION TOXICITY

Dow Corning (1970) performed an acute inhalation toxicity study using albino rats. The 10 rats (5 males, 5 females) were exposed to a 90 mg/l aerosol burst of 10% Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) every 0.5 h for 7.5 h. Physiological and pathological examinations were performed and no adverse effects were found.

In an acute inhalation toxicity study by Dow Corning (1956), rats were exposed to 2 atmospheric saturations of Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) for 7 h. In the 3 rats exposed to an approximate atmospheric saturation of 200 ppm (from a 23°C test material bath temperature), very slight initial weight loss and moderate liver pathology were noted. Three rats exposed to an approximate atmospheric saturation of 1000 ppm (from a 100°C bath temperature) also had slight initial weight loss. Fog was generated in the 1000 ppm setup. The authors concluded that the material should present no problem from a single exposure to vapor at room temperature or when heated (100°C).

ACUTE ORAL TOXICITY

In an acute oral toxicity study involving rats (Dow Corning 1956), 10% Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) in corn oil was fed in 1.0 and 2.0 g/kg doses. In both cases, each group of 2 rats had very slight initial weight loss and slight to moderate liver pathology. No deaths occurred.

SKIN IRRITATION

In a study by Dow Corning (1956), undiluted Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) was applied to intact skin of the ear and abdomen of the rabbit. Little or no response was observed following 10 applications. Three applications of the ingredient to abraded skin of the abdomen produced slight, transitory irritation.

GENOTOXICITY

Dow Corning (1979) evaluated the mutagenicity of Cyclomethicone (n =4; n = 5) in Ames assays, both with and without metabolic activation, using the following *Salmonella typhimurium* strains: TA1535, TA1537, TA1538, TA98, and

TA100. Cyclomethicone was tested at concentrations of 0.5 to 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$. Negative results for all 5 strains were reported, and Cyclomethicone was considered non-mutagenic under the conditions of this test.

CLINICAL ASSESSMENT OF SAFETY

SKIN IRRITATION

Nichols et al. (1998) conducted a study to examine the effects of different ingredients that are present in sunscreens on facial cutaneous irritancy in patients with rosacea. Four different sunscreen preparations were tested. The patients (number not stated) were instructed not to wear any makeup or skin products on the day of testing. Each patient received 2 vials of sunscreen and was instructed to apply 1 on each side of the face. The patients were asked to score stinging at 1 minute post-application according to the following scale: 0 (no symptoms) to 4 (intolerable discomfort, requiring removal of the lotion from the face). Study results indicated that the removal of dimethicone and Cyclomethicone from the sunscreen lotion resulted in a significantly more irritating preparation. The authors noted that sunscreens that contain protective ingredients such as dimethicone and Cyclomethicone may prevent irritation in patients with inflammatory conditions such as rosacea.

CASE REPORT

In a case report by Schianchi et al. (2003), an itchy skin eruption was observed on the face, neck, and hand of a 17-year-old patient at 3 days after using a lipophilic gel. Patch test results for the gel were positive (++) on days 2 and 3. However, patch test results were negative for the individual ingredients (1% in petrolatum) of the gel, including Cyclomethicone.

ANIMAL TOXICOLOGY DATA ON CYCLOTRISILOXANE (D₃)

SHORT-TERM ORAL TOXICITY

Crofoot et al. (1990a) performed a 28-day oral exposure study on D₃ using groups of 12 Sprague-Dawley rats (6 males, 6 females/group). Mean body weights for test animals were 279 g (males) and 226 g (females). The 2 control groups (males: 282 g; females: 226 g - males: 277 g; females: 229 g) received distilled water and sesame oil, respectively. The animals (test and controls) received doses of 1,000 or 1500 mg/kg body weight per day for 28 days, and were observed for signs of local or systemic toxicity, general appearance, behavioral abnormalities, and mortality. No treatment-related deaths, overt signs of toxicity, or changes in behavior were observed in any of the groups.

A statistical comparison of the mean body weight and feed consumption data showed no treatment-related effects between test and control groups, with the exception of D₃-treated males with significant decreases in these parameters. A statistical comparison of organ weight data between test and control groups indicated a significant increase in the relative and absolute liver weights of male and female rats dosed with D₃. No gross pathological changes were observed in any of the organs or tissues of male and female rats in test or control groups. It was concluded that oral administration of D₃ may produce statistically significant increases in liver weight (Crofoot et al. 1990a).

REPRODUCTIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL TOXICITY

The following summary of a reproductive/developmental toxicity study on D₃ was provided by SEHSC (2009b): A combined repeated-exposure toxicity study of D₃ that included reproductive/developmental toxicity screening in Sprague-Dawley rats by whole-body vapor inhalation was conducted at exposure levels of 0 (control), 100, 500 and 2500 ppm (approximately 0, 0.91, 4.5, and 22.7 mg/L). Rats were exposed to the test atmosphere for six hours per day for up to 39 consecutive days. Females in each exposure level were divided into a toxicity group (10 animals/group) and a

reproductive group (10 animals/group). A single group of males (10 animals/group) was used for both the toxicity and reproductive phases of the study. Males and toxicity group females were treated for 28 and 29 days, respectively. Reproductive group females were treated for 14 days prior to the mating period, during the mating period and then up to and including gestation day 19.

No adverse effects attributable to the treatment were noted in female rats for the repeat dose portion of the study; therefore, the NOAEL for systemic toxicity in female rats was 2500 ppm (22.7 mg/L). At 500 and 2500 ppm (4.5 and 22.7 mg/L) in the male rats, there was an increased incidence of protein droplet nephropathy that was considered to be specific to the male rat and not associated with a human health risk. In male rats exposed to 2500 ppm (22.7 mg/L), there was a statistically significant decrease in the absolute and relative weight of the seminal vesicles. There was also slight atrophy of the seminal vesicles in 4 of the 10 animals in the 2500 ppm (22.7 mg/L) exposure group. The NOAEL for systemic toxicity in the male rats was 500 ppm (4.5 mg/L) based on decreased seminal vesicle weight and 100 ppm (0.91 mg/L) based on the protein droplet nephropathy. Within the reproductive/developmental toxicity screening test portion of this study, there was a decrease in litter size and the number of implantation sites at 2500 ppm (22.7 mg/L); therefore the NOAEL for reproductive/developmental was considered 500 ppm (4.5 mg/L) (SEHSC 2009b).

GENOTOXICITY

Isquith et al. (1988) studied the genotoxicity of D₃ in *in vivo* cytogenetic tests using bone marrow cells from male Sprague-Dawley rats (groups of 5). The test substance was injected i.p. at doses of 125, 225, 300, 400, and 515 mg/kg (1 dose per group). The positive and negative controls for each experiment were cyclophosphamide (22 mg/kg) and an equivalent volume of the vehicle, paraffin oil, respectively. Colchicine was injected (1.5 mg/kg) approximately 2 h before the animals were killed, and bone marrow samples were collected at 6, 24, and 48 h. A minimum of 100 metaphases from each animal per group was scored for the incidence of aberrations.

D₃ did not induce a significant, treatment-related increase in chromosome damage. More specifically, the test substance did not induce statistically significant increases in the proportion of cells with chromosome damage. The predominant forms of chromosome damage were simple chromatid gaps and breaks, and the incidences of aberrations were within the expected ranges of variation for rat bone marrow cells noted in previous tests performed at the testing laboratory used in this study. It was concluded that D₃ lacks significant clastogenic potential (Isquith et al. 1988).

Isquith et al. (1988) studied the *in vitro* genotoxicity of D₃ using the following assays: plate incorporation assay by Ames et al. (1975) (*S. typhimurium* strains TA1535, TA 1537, TA1538, TA98, and TA100), mitotic gene conversion assay (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain D4) by Brusick and Andrews (1974), the *E. coli* pol A-repair assay for DNA damage (*E. coli* strain W3110 (pol A⁺) by Slater et al. [1971]), and the mouse lymphoma assays (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), according to the method of Clive and Spector [1975]). The following were evaluated in the mouse lymphoma tissue culture assays: forward gene mutation, SCE, DNA damage, and chromosome aberration potential. All of the assays were performed with and without metabolic activation.

In the plate incorporation, mitotic gene conversion, and DNA damage assays, D₃ was tested at doses of 0.1 to 500 µg/plate. In each of the 3 assays, there was no evidence of increases in the incidence of reverse mutation, mitotic recombination, or DNA damage, respectively, either with or without metabolic activation. Ethanol and hydrochloric acid (control agents; potential organosilane hydrolysis products), also produced no significant endpoint increases in the respective microbial assays.

The following doses of D₃ were tested in the mouse lymphoma assays (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells): forward mutation assay (0.067 to 1.060 mg/ml); SCE assay (0.0975 to 3.129 µg/ml), and chromosome aberrations assay (0.0975 to 3.120 µg/ml). In the forward gene mutation assay, D₃ did not produce a positive response, as measured by a dose-dependent, reproducible highest relative mutation frequency (HRMF) of 2.5 or greater. Absolute ethanol (solvent control, 10 µl/ml) did not induce a significant increase in mutant colonies, compared to values for tissue culture medium that was used as the negative control. Hydrochloric acid also did not induce any significant mutagenic activity at the maximum dose level of 5 µl/ml. The positive control chemicals, EMS and dimethylnitrosamine (DMN), were mutagenic.

In the SCE assay, D₃ was considered genotoxic, and a dose-response was noted with and without metabolic activation. In the chromosome aberrations assay, aberrations in concurrent solvent controls (10 µl/ml ethanol) were noted in 0 to 4% of the cells, with 0 to 2% having 2 or more aberrations. Chemicals that caused aberrations in 8% or more of the cells were classified as having clastogenic (chromosome damaging) potential. EMS (positive control) produced a range of 22 to 40% aberrant cells; 0 to 6% of the cells had 2 or more aberrations. DMN (positive control) produced 13 to 38% aberrant cells; 0 to 20% of the cells had 2 or more aberrations. D₃ was genotoxic (aberrations in 8% or more of the cells) with, but not without, metabolic activation in the chromosome aberrations assay. D₃ did produce a positive response in the DNA/alkaline elution assay; however, the positive control compounds, methylmethane sulfonate and benzo[a]pyrene, induced significant damage (Isquith et al. 1988).

ANIMAL TOXICOLOGY DATA ON CYCLOTETRASILOXANE (D₄)

ACUTE INHALATION TOXICITY

An acute inhalation toxicity study was conducted by Research and Consulting Company, Ltd. (RCC) (1994a) using F-344 rats. Fifteen male and 15 female animals were acclimatized over 5 days, during which feed consumption was measured once to establish a baseline of feed consumption. The feed was a standard rat maintenance diet, provided *ad libitum*, as was water.

Animals were randomly assigned (5 males and 5 females) to each of 3 exposure groups. The composition of the test material was given as 96% D₄, 4% Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), and 0.1% Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃). Exposure concentrations were 20.12, 30.03, and 54.37 mg/L of air for the low, medium, and high exposure groups, respectively, for 4 h in a nose-only, flow-past exposure system. The particle size of the test material was not determined. Food consumption was measured, in those animals that survived, during 4 post-exposure intervals: 1-6 days; 6-9 days, 9-12 days, and 12-15 days.

Feed consumption, compared with baseline data, was decreased in all surviving animals (all exposure groups) at 1-6 days; feed consumption/body weight ratios were also decreased. Feed consumption increased in all animals at post-exposure times longer than 6 days, as did feed consumption/body weight ratios, which returned to baseline levels.

None of the animals in the low exposure group died. One male and 2 females in the medium exposure group died, and 4 males and all females in the high exposure group died. Clinical signs of restlessness/excitement were noted in all animals that died. Hunched posture, stiff gait, and ruffled fur were noted post-exposure in all groups, but all these signs disappeared after 6 days. Organ weights were determined, but there was no control group with which to compare the findings. The lungs of all the animals that died had a dark red discoloration. The authors estimated the LC₅₀ exposure to be 36 mg/L (RCC, Ltd. 1994).

ACUTE INTRAPERITONEAL TOXICITY

In a study by Lieberman et al. (1999), the acute i.p. toxicity of D₄ was evaluated using female CD-1 mice (5 to 12 mice; weights = 25 to 30 g). The i.p. doses of D₄ ranged from 3.5 to 35 g/kg. Control mice were dosed with 1 ml of soy oil (dose = 32 g/kg). The mice were observed for 14 days; moribund and surviving animals were killed. For histopathologic and biochemical studies, separate groups of mice (5 to 6/group) were injected with D₄ and killed at day 4 or day 14. Concentrations of the following enzymes were determined in blood samples: AST, ALT, and LDH. For the studies involving hydroxyl radical measurement (as a marker of free radical activity in the liver and lung), separate groups of mice (4 per group) were injected with D₄ (8.75 g/kg) or soy oil. The animals were killed at day 1 or day 4 post-injection to determine the extent of 2,3-dihydroxybenzoate formation in the liver and lung tissues.

None of the mice receiving the 3.5 g/kg dose died; however, all 6 mice dosed with 35 g/kg died. An LD50 of 6 to 7 g/kg was reported. Histopathologic examination, at day 14, of mice that survived (3.5 and 8.75 g/kg dose groups) revealed lung, liver, and peritoneal changes. An evaluation of acute tissue injury and serum enzyme levels following D₄ injection in a separate experiment revealed severe pulmonary and hepatic lesions at day 4. The severity of the lesions observed was dose-related. Large increases in serum enzyme activities were also reported. At day 4 post-dosing with 8.75 g/kg D₄, results were as follows: ALT (15-fold ↑), AST (6-fold ↑), and LDH (4-fold ↑). Doses as low as 3.5 g/kg caused statistically significant increases in serum enzyme activities. The i.p. injection of soy oil resulted in acute inflammation (mild, focal) on the peritoneal surface of the liver and adjacent superficial parenchyma.

As a marker of free radical activity, hydroxyl radical formation in liver and lung tissues of control (soy oil-injected) mice and mice injected i.p. with D₄ (dose = 8.75 g/kg) was measured. By day 1, there was no increase in hydroxyl radical formation in the liver or lung. A dramatic increase in hydroxyl radical formation in the liver (20-fold increase) and lung (7-fold increase) was observed by day 4.

Study results indicate that D₄ produced significant injury to tissues, as documented by histopathologic changes in the liver and lung and increased serum enzyme activities. Dramatic increases in hydroxyl radical formation in the liver and lungs of mice injected with D₄ were also noted (Lieberman et al. 1999).

SHORT-TERM INHALATION TOXICITY

Kolesar and Hobbs (1988) performed a 14-day range-finding vapor inhalation toxicity study with D₄ in the rat. Male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (~175 to 250 g) were placed into 1 of 3 treatment groups or a control group (5 males and 5 females in each group). Animals were exposed to 0, 100, 200, 400 ppm D₄ for 7 days/week (6h/day) in inhalation chambers. Body weights and feed consumption were measured every 4 days. Each animal was observed during treatment each day for any signs of toxicity.

No signs of toxicity were observed during the study. There were no differences in body weights between control and treatment groups. During the first week of the study, females in the 400 ppm exposure group had significantly reduced food consumption; loss of this effect was noted during week 2. At the end of the study, there was no statistically significant decrease in feed consumption in this group (Kolesar and Hobbs 1988).

Kolesar et al. (1988) conducted a 14-day inhalation toxicity study of D₄ using rats. Adult and young Sprague-Dawley rats (5 males and 5 females per group) were exposed to D₄ at 854 ppm or to room air (control) in inhalation chambers using the same schedule described above. The authors noted that this exposure approaches the saturation limit for D₄, which is 1000 ppm at 20°C and 76 mm Hg. Body weights and feed consumption were determined

at the onset of the study and on every 4th day during the study and for a week after exposures ended.

Young male rats exposed to D₄ had significantly decreased body weights (compared to controls) at days 4, 8, and 12 during treatment and at day 16 during the post-treatment period, but not at day 20. Adult female rats exposed to D₄ had significantly decreased body weights from day 4 through day 20. No other significant body weight differences were reported.

Young male rats exposed to D₄ also consumed significantly less feed (compared to controls) in the 0-4 day, 4-8 day, and 8-12 day ranges, but not in the 12-16 day or 16-20 day ranges. Young and adult female rats exposed to D₄ consumed significantly less feed (compared to controls) in the 0-4 day, 4-8 day, and 8-12 day ranges, but not in the 12-16 day or 16-20 day ranges. No other differences between treatment and control animals were found. The authors stated that the biological significance of the findings could not be determined based on these findings (Kolesar et al. 1988).

Siddiqui et al. (1989a) performed a 28-day inhalation toxicity study of D₄ using hamsters, guinea pigs, rabbits, and mice. Adult male and female Golden Syrian hamsters (10/sex/ group), Hartley guinea pigs (10/sex/group), New Zealand White rabbits (5/sex/group), and CD-1 Swiss mice (10/sex/group) were exposed to 0 or 697 mg/l D₄ 7 days/week (6 h/day) for 28 days. Body weights and feed consumption were measured at the onset, every 4 days thereafter, and before necropsy, except that rabbit feed consumption was measured every 2 days during treatment.

No mortality was observed in either control or treatment groups in any species. No clinical signs, including distress, were noted. Female rabbits had a statistically significant reduction in weight gain in the treatment group, compared to controls. The authors noted a general depression of male weight gain across species in the treatment groups, but this was not significant. While there were some feed consumption values that were lower in the treatment group, compared to control, statistical significance was not consistently observed.

Relative liver weights in treated female hamsters were significantly increased. Male and female mice exhibited the same finding. No difference in organ weights in guinea pigs or rabbits was found. The authors attributed the effect on liver weights in hamsters and mice to the effects of D₄ (Siddiqui et al. 1989a).

RCC (1995a) conducted a 1-month repeated dose inhalation toxicity study of D₄ using rats. Male (weights: 162-198 g) and female (weights: 144-176 g) Fisher 344 albino rats (10 males and 10 females per group) were assigned to either controls (room air), or were exposed to D₄ at target exposures of 2.5 (actual: 2.78 ± 0.52), 5 (actual: 5.13 ± 0.64), and 9 (actual: 8.62 ± 1.66) mg/l for 20 days (males) or 21 days (females). All exposures were carried out 5 days/week (6 h/day) using a flow-past, nose-only exposure system.

An additional group of 20 animals was exposed to D₄ at a target exposure of 16 mg/l (actual: 14.21) for days 1-5, followed by 12 mg/l (actual: 13.25 ± 2.12) for days 6-29. The authors noted that the D₄ vapor concentration at saturation is approximately 13 mg/l, suggesting the presence of D₄ in liquid aerosol form in the last exposure group. The composition of the test material was given as 96% D₄, 4% D₅, and 0.1% D₃.

Animals were observed for morbidity and mortality twice daily, except once per day for 2 days. An ophthalmoscopic exam was done prior to exposure and after exposure for all surviving animals. Body weights were determined before exposure (2x), daily during the first week, and 3x per week for the remainder of the study. Feed consumption was determined for a 4-day period twice before exposure, daily during the first exposure week, then for 2-day or 3-day periods for the remainder of the study. Animals were fasted for 18 hours (water, *ad libitum*) and blood and urine were collected prior to necropsy.

The odd dosing pattern for the high dose group resulted from the deaths of 3 females in this group after the 1st and 5th days of treatment. Thereafter, the dose was decreased, as described above. One male in the 9 mg/l group and 1 female in the control group were found dead on the day of necropsy; the authors offered no explanation for these 2 deaths, but suggested that treatment was unlikely the cause because the death was an isolated finding. No ophthalmoscopic findings were reported.

Body weights and weight gains were generally decreased in the high dose group, compared to lower-dose groups and controls, often reaching statistical significance when compared to controls. Feed consumption and consumption/body weight ratios were decreased on days 1-9 in the high dose group, compared to controls, but the males increased their feed intake to a level comparable to that of the lower-dose groups and the control, and female rats increased their food intake beyond these levels on days 16-23.

Liver weights increased in treated animals in a statistically significant, dose-dependent manner. Thymus and adrenal gland weights were significantly increased in males and females in the high dose group and in females in the 9 mg/l group. No other significant organ weight differences were found.

Histological examination of the lungs revealed changes that were consistent with respiratory tract irritation. In the 2 highest dose groups, slight hepatocellular hypertrophy and an increase in adrenal cortex vacuolation were noted. In the high-dose group, moderate thymic atrophy and vaginal mucification were noted. A decrease in the mean corpora lutea score was noted in all treated females.

Examination of liver tissue using electron microscopy revealed a dose-dependent decrease in hepatocyte mitochondria. Other liver findings were not consistent across dose groups.

Abnormal posture, gait, and ruffled fur were noted in all animals in the high dose group, in most of the females exposed to 9 mg/l, and in 2 females exposed to 5 mg/l during weeks 1-3. Hematologic evaluation revealed several statistically significant changes, such as higher mean corpuscular volume (MCV) in treated animals, but the authors suggested that there was little or no toxicologic significance for these findings. Changes in blood chemistry, such as lower alkaline phosphatase (SAP) activity in treated animals, were considered stress-related and not an effect of D₄ directly. Urinalysis revealed no changes that were of toxicological significance.

The authors considered that treatment at all levels resulted in some treatment-related effect. While most organ changes were not considered of toxicological significance or were directly related to stress, the vaginal effects and reduced ovarian corpora lutea scores suggested a possible effect on the estrous cycle (RCC 1995a).

Klykken et al. (1999) conducted a study to evaluate the dose-response relationship for liver enlargement observed following inhalation exposure, and ascertain whether or not there is evidence of immunosuppression or immunopotentialiation that is associated with this exposure paradigm. The study was conducted using groups of 25 Fischer 344 rats per sex. Both test and control rats were exposed for 4 weeks (6 h per day, weekends excluded) to target concentrations of 0, 7, 20, 60, 180, and 540 ppm D₄. Ten rats/sex/group were killed for the toxicological assessment on day 29 after the initial exposure. An additional 5 rats/sex/group served as recovery animals and were killed 14 days after the final exposure for a similar toxicological assessment. The rats were evaluated daily, during weekdays, for signs of exposure-related effects, and a complete gross pathological examination was performed on all of the general toxicology animals. Tissues were prepared for microscopic examination. Hematological evaluations and urinalyses were also performed. Results relating to immunosuppression or immunopotentialiation are included in the section on Immunological

Effects earlier in the report text.

Of the Fischer 344 rats included in this study, 20% had ocular opacities; this was consistent with the genetic predisposition of Fischer rats for ocular opacities. Other clinical signs included porphyrin staining around the nose and urine staining of the fur. These were random observations and were not concentrated within any one exposure group. No signs of neurotoxicity, such as, stereotypical behavioral changes, changes in respiration, ruffled fur, or modifications in gait were observed in rats treated with D₄. Male and female rats exposed by whole-body inhalation to D₄ exhibited normal weight gain over the course of the study. Additionally, there were no differences in feed consumption between test or control groups throughout the study.

At necropsy (terminal or recovery sacrifice), there was no evidence of microscopic lesions in any of the exposure groups. Except for the liver, there were no statistically significant exposure-related changes in organ weights. For male and female exposure groups, both liver weights and liver-to-body weight ratios were significantly increased over the respective room air control groups. Female rats were more sensitive to the exposure-induced increase in liver weight, with significant increases at 20 to 540 ppm (7.4% to 30%) at terminal sacrifice. Changes in liver weight in male rats became statistically significant at exposure levels of 180 ppm and 540 ppm (16% increase). These changes in male and female rats were fully reversible, in that they were not observed in the 14-day recovery animals. In male or female rats, there were no histopathological findings that were considered treatment-related, either at the end of the 28-day exposure period or at the end of the 14-day recovery period.

Regarding serum chemistry parameters in male rats, the only statistically significant change was a 22% decrease in triglycerides. This effect appeared to have been exposure-related, but was not observed in recovery animals. The following significant changes were reported for female rats: serum alkaline phosphatase (SAP) (14% decrease), ALT (17% increase), blood urea nitrogen (BUN) (12% decrease), globulin (14% increase), and cholesterol (29% increase) at the high dose level. The changes in SAP, ALT, globulin, and cholesterol appeared to have been exposure-related. After the 14-day nonexposure recovery period, significant decreases in SAP, triglycerides, and glucose were noted.

No differences in urinalysis parameters or in urinary sediment microscopic analysis were observed between D₄-exposed and room air control animals. The authors noted that there was little indication that D₄ exposure resulted in any biologically significant changes in hematological parameters. Statistical trends toward an exposure-related effect of D₄ on the percentage of neutrophils and lymphocytes, the MCV, and the total number of platelets were noted. However, statistically significant data were observed, only at the highest concentration, for both the lymphocyte percentage (8% decrease) and MCV (2% increase). There were no exposure-related hematological trends, although a statistically significant decrease in mean corpuscular hemoglobin content (MCHC) was noted for the following exposure groups: 7 ppm (2% decrease), 180 ppm (2% decrease), and 540 ppm (2% decrease). In recovery animals, the only significant hematological finding was a 7% decrease in the total number of red blood cells in female rats. All of the other hematological parameters in male and female rats were equivalent to room air controls.

The results of this study indicate that D₄ exposure did not cause adverse effects on body weight, feed consumption, or urinalysis parameters, and that there were no exposure-related histopathological alterations in either of the exposure groups. Additionally, a statistically significant increase in liver weights and in the liver-to-body weight ratios was observed in both male (180 ppm to 540 ppm exposures) and female (20 ppm to 540 ppm exposures) rats; however, these statistically significant findings were not associated with the 14-day recovery group animals (Klykken et al. 1999).

Plotzke et al. (1999) studied the effects of repeated whole body inhalation exposure to D₄ vapor on hepatic microsomal CYP2B1/2 induction using 11 groups of 10 female Fischer 344 rats (8 to 10 weeks old; weights:130 to 141 g). Ten groups were exposed to 0, 1, 7, 30, 70, 150, 300, 500, 700, and 900 ppm D₄ vapors 6 h per day for 5 days. The positive control group received phenobarbital (0.05% w/v) The animals in one of the groups (group 1) were killed on the morning after the last exposure and changes in liver size and hepatic microsomal enzyme induction were evaluated. Animals from a second group (group 2) were killed immediately after the last exposure; blood, fat, and livers were collected for the analysis of total D₄ content.

For group 1 rats at each exposure concentration, liver-to-body weight ratios, CYP2B1/2 activity (as determined by 7-pentoxoresorufin O-dealkylation [PROD]), and immunoreactive CYP2B1/2 protein were measured. Liver size (expressed as a liver-to-body weight ratio relative to controls) increased with increasing exposure concentrations; a maximum response of 24% over the control value was noted at 900 ppm D₄, with no apparent change in slope (plateau). A dose-related increase in the induction of PROD activity (maximum response between 300 and 500 ppm) was also noted. Changes in the absolute amount of CYP2B1/2 protein conformed to a pattern that was similar to that observed for PROD activity. These data demonstrate that the observed increase in PROD activity was associated with a concomitant increase in CYP2B1/2 protein levels.

Though the maximum increase in PROD activity (1355.9 pmol/min/mg) occurred between 300 and 500 ppm D₄, a slight, but statistically significant, dose-related decrease in PROD activity (between 500 and 900 ppm D₄) was noted. These data suggest that maximum induction of CYP2B1/2 by D₄ was achieved and that hepatic concentrations of D₄ may have reached levels that were capable of saturating CYP2B1/2 activity.

Total D₄ in the plasma, fat, and liver increased with increasing exposure concentration. Overall, the increase in D₄ concentration in each tissue increased with increasing exposure concentrations, with no indication of a plateau under test conditions. At the highest exposure concentration (900 ppm), D₄ content was greatest in fat (1115.0 µg/g), followed by the liver (179.9 µg/g) and plasma (10.9 µg/g). The lowest concentration of D₄ that caused significant liver enlargement and CYP2B1/2 induction were 150 ppm and 7 ppm, respectively. These data demonstrate that the induction of hepatic CYP2B1/2 enzymes is an early and sensitive biochemical response to D₄ exposure in the rat, and that a maximum response can be achieved following 5 days of repeated inhalation exposure to ~500 ppm D₄.

Whether or not exposure to D₄ induces regional expression of CYP2B enzymes was also investigated in this study. CYP2B expression was evaluated immunohistochemically. Liver sections from the control group, all D₄ exposure groups, and the phenobarbital positive control group were stained for CYP2B protein, randomized, and qualitatively evaluated using light microscopy. Very little staining in the centrilobular region was noted in livers from negative control rats. With an increase in the exposure concentrations of D₄, there was an increase in the intensity of CYP2B staining. At an exposure concentration of 70 ppm D₄, the expression intensity was described as moderate, with centrilobular to midzonal expression. Extensive CYP2B staining with expression across all regions was noted in 700 and 900 ppm exposure groups. These data indicate that the expression of CYP2B following exposure to low levels of D₄ is confined to the centrilobular regions, and expands across the hepatic lobule as exposure concentrations increase. The findings in this study provide evidence that D₄ is a phenobarbital-like inducer of rat hepatic cytochrome P450 enzymes (Plotzke et al. 1999).

McKim et al. (2001b) evaluated the effects of repeated inhalation exposure to D₄ vapors on hepatic and thyroid

function and hypertrophy (in relation to exposure time and concentration) using groups of female Fischer 344 rats (weights = 145 to 160 g). In the first experiment, a group of 10 rats was exposed (whole-body inhalation) to 700 ppm (6 h per day; 5 days/week) over a 4-week period, and the control group received control air only. The incorporation of BrdU and the abundance of proliferating cell nuclear antigen were used as indicators of cell proliferation. The positive control group of 10 rats received 0.05% phenobarbital in drinking water over the 4-week period. Phenobarbital produces liver enlargement characteristics that are characterized by transient hyperplasia and sustained hypertrophy. Designated animals from each treatment group were killed on days 6, 13, and 27.

In the second experiment (groups of 10 rats), the effect of exposure to the following concentrations of D₄ on hepatic cell proliferation was evaluated: 0, 7, 30, 70, 150, 300, or 700 ppm. Again, the positive control group received 0.05% phenobarbital in drinking water over a 4-week period. In the 700 ppm exposure group, liver-to-body weight ratios increased by 18, 20, and 22% on days 6, 13, and 27, respectively, when compared to controls. Animals treated with phenobarbital had increases in liver-to-body weight ratios of 33%, 27%, and 27% on days 6, 13, and 27, respectively. The hepatic incorporation of BrdU after exposure to D₄ was highest on day 6 (labeling index = 15% to 22%) and was either at or below control values by day 27. The authors noted that this pattern of hyperplasia was observed in all hepatic lobes that were examined and was similar to the pattern that was observed after treatment with phenobarbital (McKim et al. 2001b).

Siddiqui (2001) noted that previous studies have demonstrated liver weight changes in male and female rats and mice and female hamsters, but not in rabbits or guinea pigs, and conducted a study to further characterize the species differences of liver response to D₄ treatment by studying the following: urinary metabolites in each species, induction of selected liver enzymes in rats and guinea pigs, and cell replication in rats. Groups of male and female Sprague-Dawley rats, C-1 mice, hamsters, guinea pigs, and rabbits were exposed to D₄ (at 10 or 700 ppm, whole-body exposure) 5 days per week (6 h/day) for 5 weeks.

No mortality or overt signs of toxicity were observed in any of the control and treated animals. The author confirmed a statistically significant increase in liver weights in male and female hamsters, mice, and rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄. No statistically significant increase in liver weights was observed in rabbits and guinea pigs exposed to 700 ppm (Siddiqui 2001).

SHORT-TERM ORAL TOXICITY

Siddiqui and Stanton (1988) used microencapsulated D₄ in a solid diet to conduct a 28-day feeding study using rats. Young and adult male and female rats were divided into control and treatment groups, each containing 5 male and 5 female animals. The rats were fed either control diet or diet containing 2.1% D₄ for 4 weeks. Water was provided *ad libitum*. Body weights and feed consumption were determined at the beginning of the study and every 4 days thereafter. Gross necropsies were performed at the end of the study.

Both young and adult male and female animals that ate the diet containing D₄ experienced stress, rough fur, and emaciation, but none of the animals died; they consumed significantly less food than controls. Necropsy demonstrated severely depleted fat reserves in all animals consuming the diet containing D₄; most had watery cecal contents. The testicular changes observed in a few male rats were attributed, possibly, to the overall weight loss (Siddiqui and Stanton 1988).

In a study by Mudgett (1991), the short-term oral toxicity of D₄ was evaluated using groups of 10 male

Sprague-Dawley rats (weights = 250 to 325 g). Groups 1 and 2 received 0.5 weight % methylcellulose in deionized water. Groups 3 and 4 received D₄ (in 0.5% methylcellulose) at doses of 1600 mg/kg day. The animals were dosed daily (by gavage) for at least 14 days, and the dosage volume for each animal was 4.10 ml/kg body weight. During the dosing period, the animals were observed for the following: signs of toxicity, general appearance, behavioral abnormality, signs of local and systemic toxicity, and mortality. All of the animals in groups 1 and 3 were killed following 14 days of dosing. For groups 2 and 4, 2 or 3 animals were killed each day until completion of the life phase of the study.

Adverse clinical signs were not observed in any of the animals during the dosing period. There were no apparent differences in body weights between control and test animals. Terminal sacrifices, performed in order to obtain livers from all of the animals, morphometrics, and DNA assays were performed. It was noted that the results of morphometric and DNA assays would be documented in a separate report (Mudgett 1991). These and other results are summarized below.

Zimmer and Bejarano (1991a) performed morphometric and electron microscopic evaluation of hepatic changes in rats dosed orally (gavage) with D₄ in the preceding study. The purpose of morphometric analysis of the liver was to determine whether increases in liver weight were due primarily to hyperplasia, hypertrophy, or a combination of the 2. The procedure involved determining the relative volume of hepatocytes in a given liver volume (volume fraction), the number of hepatocytes in a given area (NA), and using these values to calculate the absolute number of hepatocytes per given volume of liver (N_v). This value and the liver volume were used to calculate the total number of hepatocytes per liver. For electron microscopy, 1 liver lobe (left lateral) per rat was sampled. At least 5 blocks from each area (centrilobular or peripheral) were prepared.

All of the animals survived to termination of the study. One rat died during anesthesia and was not examined. There was no evidence of gross lesions in livers. The few histopathologic changes observed were not treatment-related, but were considered normal findings in rats of this age and strain. Compared to controls, a statistically significant increase in liver weights was noted. The comparison of N_v supported a finding of hepatocellular hyperplasia.

There were no significant differences in the number of cells per given volume of liver between treated and control rats. The treated livers had a much greater volume; however, a statistically significant increase in the total number of hepatocytes in the livers of treated rats was reported. The results of these 2 analyses indicate that D₄ causes hepatocellular hyperplasia. The mean hepatocyte profile diameter in each of the 3 lobular zones in treated rats was not significantly different from that of control rats. This finding indicates that the hepatomegaly observed was due to hyperplasia. Within group cell size variances did not support a finding of hypertrophy.

The findings in this study indicate that the hepatomegaly observed in rats exposed to D₄ results from hepatocellular hyperplasia, and there was no evidence to support the occurrence of hepatocellular hypertrophy (Zimmer and Bejarano 1991a).

Zimmer and Bejarano (1991b) performed a quantitative analysis of liver nuclear DNA content. The livers examined were from rats exposed to D₄ in the short-term oral toxicity study by Mudgett (1991) described earlier in this section. A sample from each liver was homogenized and the nuclei were isolated via gradient centrifugation. A fraction of the sample was then mixed with diphenylamine and incubated. The DNA concentration was determined spectrophotometrically. The results indicated no significant difference in DNA values between treated and control groups. This finding was said to support the conclusion that hepatomegaly due to D₄ administration resulted from hepatocellular

hyperplasia.

Stanton et al. (1992) studied the short-term oral toxicity of D₄ (suspended in 0.5% Methocel in distilled water) using groups of 6 non-pregnant New Zealand White rabbits (weights = between 2.26 and 2.69 kg). The test substance was administered (oral gavage) at doses of 500 and 1,000 mg/kg/day (dose volume = 3 ml/kg, 7 days/week) for 14 days. Control rabbits were dosed with 0.5% Methocel according to the same procedure. Gross necropsies were performed on all major organs and tissues at the end of the 14-day dosing period; the brain and liver were collected and weighed.

There were no treatment-related deaths, overt signs of toxicity, or changes in behavior during the study. Compared to controls, dosing with D₄ resulted in a marked, significant reduction in body weight and feed consumption. At gross examination, a decrease in the size of the thymus gland was noted in most animals. Also, in some cases, the spleen and lymph nodes appeared smaller. Liver weights relative to body weight were significantly increased in both treatment groups. This finding was not considered treatment-related, in that the absolute liver weight and the liver-to-brain weight ratios were not significantly different from controls. Changes in the liver included an accentuated lobular pattern and areas of pallor, and increased fragility in animals receiving 1,000 mg/kg doses. It was concluded that the oral administration of D₄ resulted in a marked decrease of feed consumption and body weights in treated rabbits (Stanton et al. 1992).

SUBCHRONIC INHALATION TOXICITY

Siddiqui et al. (1989b) conducted a 90-day inhalation toxicity study of D₄ using Sprague-Dawley rats. Groups of 10 male and 10 female rats were exposed to 0, 51, 301, and 700 ppm D₄ vapors 7 days per week (6 h per day) for 13 weeks. An additional control group and 703 ppm exposure group were also exposed for 13 weeks and then held for an additional 28 days. Animals were observed for toxicity and mortality during exposure; feed consumption and animal weights were measured weekly throughout the study. At the end of the study, animals were killed, organs weighed, and gross and histopathological examinations were performed. Hematology, clinical chemistry, and urinalysis were also performed.

No mortality or obvious signs of toxicity were reported. A slight (not statistically significant) reduction in weight gain in females of the high exposure group was reported through 13 weeks, but this effect was no longer observed after the 28-day recovery period. Feed consumption was significantly decreased in the high exposure female group in the first week of the study, but the average feed consumption over the course of the study was not different for control and high exposure females. Statistically significant increases in red blood cell counts, hemoglobin, and hematocrit in high exposure females were seen at 13 weeks, but these decreased significantly in the high exposure females after 28 days of recovery. Potassium and phosphorus levels were increased in high exposure males, but these results were attributed to hemolysis. Overall, the authors stated that no differences of toxicological significance in hematology, clinical chemistry, urinalysis, gross pathology, or histopathology were found.

Significant increases in mean absolute and relative liver weights were observed in both sexes in all but the lowest exposure group of females. In high dose males, this effect disappeared after the 28-day recovery period, but was still evident in high dose female rats after 28 days of recovery. The authors suggested that these liver weight changes were related to exposure, even though no gross pathology or histopathology changes in the liver were reported. Ovarian weights were significantly decreased in high dose females and the authors suggested that this may be related to the overall trend in weight gain in these animals (Siddiqui et al. 1989b).

The International Research and Development Corporation (IRDC 1991) conducted a 13-week inhalation toxicity study on D₄ in rats. Male and female rats were exposed to 0, 5, 10, or 300 ppm D₄ 5 days/week (6 h/day) for 13 weeks; necropsy (10 males and 10 females per group) was performed at the end of the study. An additional 10 males and 10 females in each of the control and high exposure groups were maintained for 4 weeks post-exposure and then necropsied. An additional 20 males exposed to room air (controls), and 20 to 300 D₄, were scheduled for necropsy at 4 weeks. Another 10 males were scheduled for necropsy at 13 weeks, but initial findings in 10 animals necropsied at 4 weeks indicated no changes in liver weight, and this arm of the study was abandoned. Thus, all animals were killed at 13 weeks and discarded.

Animals were observed for signs of toxicity during exposures. Body weights and feed consumption were measured weekly during exposure the post-exposure period. Ophthalmoscopic examinations were done at the onset of the study, at 13 weeks, and after the recovery period. At necropsy, organ weights were determined, tissues evaluated, and blood and urine were analyzed.

No statistically significant differences in body weights were reported. Feed consumption was generally increased in the treatment groups, with some increases in specific time ranges statistically significant, but there was no pattern to these findings. Liver weights were increased significantly over controls in the 300 ppm group. Otherwise, no significant differences in liver weights were found. No changes in blood or urine were reported as a function of D₄ exposure at any level. No pathology was reported in the liver tissue of the female rats in the 300 ppm group, or in any of the exposure groups. No differences between exposed and control animals were found during the ophthalmoscopic examinations (IRDC 1991).

RCC (1995b) conducted a 3-month repeated dose inhalation toxicity study on D₄ using rats; a 1-month recovery period was observed. Male (weights: 173-209 g) and female (weights: 135-155 g) Fisher 344 albino rats (30 males and 30 females per group) were assigned as either controls (room air), or exposed to D₄ at a target exposure of 12 (actual 10.87 ± 0.75) mg/l. Groups of 20 males and 20 females were exposed to D₄ at 0.3 (actual: 0.42 ± 0.08), 1.2 (actual: 1.48 ± 0.27), and 5 (actual: 5.91 ± 1.05) mg/l. All exposures were carried out 5 days/week (6 h/day) for 13 weeks using a flow-past, nose-only exposure system. In the control and the high exposure group, 10 animals of each sex were retained on room air for an additional 29 days.

Animals were observed for morbidity and mortality twice daily on weekdays, and mortality was determined twice daily on weekends and holidays, where feasible. An ophthalmic examination was performed prior to exposure and, on all surviving animals, after exposure. Body weights were determined before exposure, daily during the first week and 3 times per week for the remainder of the study. Feed consumption was determined for a 3- or 4-day period twice before exposure, twice weekly for the first 3 exposure weeks, and, then, once weekly for the remainder of the study. Animals were fasted for 18 hours (water, *ad libitum*) and blood and urine were collected prior to necropsy.

A total of 5 females in the high exposure group died. No other mortality was reported. Clinical signs in the high exposure group included hunched posture and a single incidence of stiff gait, but these observations were not consistently seen. The ophthalmoscopic examinations uncovered only one abnormal finding, unilateral anophthalmus, in a female in the high exposure group. No other ophthalmoscopic findings were reported. Body weights and weight gains were generally decreased in the high exposure group compared to lower-exposure groups and to controls, often reaching statistical significance when compared to controls. During the recovery period, weight gains were comparable to controls.

Compared to controls, a decrease in feed consumption was reported for most data points on days 1 to 10 in the high dose group, followed by an increase that extended into the recovery period.

Liver weights increased in treated females exposed to 1.2, 5, and 12 mg/l, and in males exposed to 12 mg/l. Increased lung weights were reported for both sexes in the high exposure group, but this effect was absent after recovery. Increased adrenal gland and decreased thymus weights were reported for females in the 5 and 12 mg/l groups, but these effects were absent after recovery in the 12 mg/l group. A decrease in ovarian weights was reported for females in the high exposure group, but this effect was absent after the recovery period. No other significant organ weight differences were found.

Histological examination of tissues (adrenal glands, brain, heart, kidneys, liver, lungs, ovaries, spleen, testes, thymus, vagina) obtained during necropsy revealed changes that are consistent with respiratory tract irritation. Ovarian atrophy was observed in 1 rat in the 0.3 mg/l group, 10 rats in the 12 mg/l group, and in 2 rats after the recovery period. Vaginal mucification was reported in 17 rats in the 12 mg/l group and in 1 rat after the recovery period. In the testes, minimal to massive tubular atrophy and oligospermia (epididymides) were reported only in rats exposed to 0.3 or 12 mg/l. The testes findings were also observed in negative control rats, and, thus, were considered unrelated to test substance administration.

Hematologic evaluations revealed several statistically significant changes, such as, slightly decreased erythrocyte counts and hemoglobin concentration in male animals and a higher MCV in male and female animals in the 5 and 12 mg/l dose groups. A decreased MCHC was reported for males and females in the 12 mg/l group. During the recovery phase, these effects mostly disappeared, except for a slightly decreased erythrocyte count in both sexes and a slight increase in MCV in males (recovery examined only in the high exposure group).

Changes in blood chemistry parameters were reported, including: decreased bilirubin and increased cholesterol in females exposed to 1.2, 5, or 12 mg/l; decreased triglycerides in males and females exposed to 1.2, 5, or 12 mg/l; increased ALT activity in males and females exposed to 12 mg/l; decreased creatine kinase activity in males exposed to 0.3, 5, or 12 mg/l, but not in the 1.2 mg/l group; increased γ -glutamyl transferase activity in females in the 5 mg/l group and in males and females in the 12 mg/l group; decreased calcium in females in the 12 mg/l group; increased albumin in males in the 12 mg/l group; and increased total protein in both sexes exposed to 5 or 12 mg/l. On recovery, only the increase in ALT activity in males remained. Urinalysis showed no changes that were of toxicological significance.

The authors considered that the effects of D₄ were restricted to the 2 highest exposure levels. They offered the opinion that the blood chemistry data suggested hepatocellular alterations, that the respiratory tract findings were consistent with irritation, that the ovary and vaginal findings suggested possible reproductive organ effects, but that the effects on the testes likely were related to stress (RCC 1995b).

Burns-Naas et al. (2002) studied the subchronic inhalation toxicity of D₄ using groups of Fischer 344 rats (~9 weeks old). The following groups of rats were exposed (nose-only to D₄ vapor for 3 months (6 h/day, 5 days/week) or to control air: 35 ppm (20/sex/group), 122 ppm (20/sex/group), 488 ppm (20/sex/group), 898 ppm (30/sex/group), and control air (30/sex/group). Exposures were conducted according to the methods of Berstein et al. (1995) and Cannon et al. (1983). The system (nose-only inhalation) was designed to ensure a uniform test article distribution, provided a constant stream of fresh test article to each animal, and precluded rebreathing from exhaled air. Hematology and serum chemistry evaluations, urinalyses, and histopathological evaluations were performed. Results relating to effects on the reproductive

system are included in the section on Reproductive and Developmental toxicity later in the report text. Five female rats in the highest exposure group (898 ppm) died. At gross necropsy, the cause of death was not determined.

In the 898 ppm exposure group, the body weights of male and female rats were slightly less (4% to 6%) than those of controls throughout the course of the study. This finding may have been due to decreased feed consumption during the first 3 days of exposure in male (20% decrease) and female (28% decrease) rats. For the remainder of the study, feed consumption and body weight gain were generally not significantly different. At the end of the 3-month exposure period, minor alterations in the weight of certain organs were reported for male rats. These changes in organ weight were not statistically significant and were not considered exposure-related. At the end of the 1-month recovery period, a statistically significant decrease in absolute lung weight and in both absolute and relative kidney weight was observed in male rats exposed to D₄ (898 ppm). The significance of these changes was described as unknown, considering that they were not present at the end of the 3-month exposure period.

Compared to the control group, female rats of the 488 ppm and 898 ppm exposure groups had a concentration-dependent, statistically significant increase (20% to 25%) in mean absolute liver weight. In female rats exposed to 488 ppm and 898 ppm D₄, exposure-related, statistically significant increases in absolute and relative adrenal weights were noted. Increases in absolute adrenal gland weight ranged from 17% to 29% in the 488 ppm and 898 ppm exposure groups, respectively. In female rats exposed to 898 ppm D₄, ovarian weight (absolute and relative) was significantly decreased (38%). In both 488 ppm and 898 ppm exposure groups, a small, but statistically significant, decrease in mean absolute and relative thymus weights was observed. Female organ weights and organ-to-brain weight ratios were no longer statistically significantly different when compared to the control group after a 1-month recovery period.

Hematological data were reported for male and female rats. In male rats, a slight decrease in red blood cells (5%) and hemoglobin (3% to 4%) was reported. In both the 488 ppm and 898 ppm exposure groups (male rats), an increase in MCV (2% to 8%) was noted. A decrease in MCHC (2%) was also observed in male rats of the 898 ppm exposure group. In female rats (898 ppm group only), the following results were reported: 6% increase in hematocrit (Hct), 4% increase in MCV, and 5% decrease in MCHC. With limited exception (noted by statistical significance), these minor alterations were resolved at the end of the 4-week recovery period. Compared to the control group, red blood cells in males decreased by 3% and the MCV and MCHC were slightly elevated (1.7% and 1.9%, respectively) at the end of the recovery period. It was noted that these hematological changes were within the normal limits for rats of this age and strain and are not thought to be related to D₄ exposure.

In the serum chemistry data, the exposure-related findings that were common to males and females included increases in ALT and gamma-glutamyltransferase (γ -GT) activity, and total protein, and decreases in triglycerides. The most striking increase in γ -GT activity was said to have occurred in female rats exposed to 488 ppm (330% increase) and in males (168% increase) and females (975% increase) exposed to 898 ppm. In male rats, the increase in ALT activity appeared concentration-related at all dose levels (10% to 26% increase). This was not true for female rats; however, the increase in ALT activity attained statistical significance (15% increase) in females from the 898 ppm exposure group. In males, creatine kinase (CK) activity was significantly decreased at all exposure levels.

Decreased activities of CK were noted in female rats from 488 ppm and 898 ppm exposure groups; however, compared to controls, the decrease was not statistically significant. Small, but statistically significant, decreases in

bilirubin (5% to 11%) were noted in female rats exposed to D₄ at concentrations ranging from 122 ppm to 898 ppm. Decreases in bilirubin were not observed in male rats. The results of urinalyses indicated no changes that were of toxicological significance, either at the termination of exposure or at the end of the recovery period.

Except for the lung, the incidence and types of gross observations did not appear to be related to D₄ exposure. Gross lesions in the lungs of dosed rats consisted of multiple gray-white foci (1mm in diameter). These foci generally corresponded to foci of macrophage accumulation and/or interstitial inflammation. It was noted that these observations were generally correlated with the presence of aerosol droplets in the mixed aerosol/vapor test atmospheres of the high-dose group (898 ppm). In both male and female rats exposed to 898 ppm D₄ for 3 months, foci of alveolar macrophage accumulation increased in incidence and severity.

The incidence of these foci was also increased in females of the 122 ppm and 488 ppm groups and severity was slightly increased in 1 female rat in the 488 ppm exposure group. It was noted that interstitial inflammation increased in both incidence and severity in male rats of the 898 ppm exposure group and in female rats exposed to D₄ at concentrations ranging from 122 ppm to 898 ppm. The severity of interstitial inflammation also increased slightly in 1 female rat of the 488 ppm exposure group. The incidence of leukocyte infiltration (i.e., eosinophilic influx) increased in male and female rats exposed to 898 ppm. In female rats exposed to 898 ppm, the incidence and severity of eosinophilic infiltration increased. In male and female rats, the incidence of alveolar macrophage accumulation and interstitial inflammation was decreased at the end of the 1-month recovery period, but was still slightly higher than the background incidence for these changes. Eosinophilic infiltrates were not present at the end of the recovery period.

Increased liver weights occurred in male rats (898 ppm group; 10% increase) and in female rats (488 ppm to 898 ppm groups; 20% to 25% increase) at the termination of exposure. However, there were no histopathological changes in the livers that could be attributed to D₄ exposure. The authors noted that there were also no histological changes that support the alterations in γ -GT and ALT activities that were observed. The infiltrates of mononuclear cells were described as foci of inflammation comprised primarily of macrophages and lymphocytes randomly distributed throughout the liver lobule of most rats in both control and D₄-exposed groups, and were considered incidental findings.

Although increases in the incidence and severity of macrophage accumulation, interstitial inflammation, and eosinophil infiltration were observed in the lungs of male and female rats exposed to D₄, there is uncertainty relating to the toxicological significance of these findings (Burns-Naas et al. 2002).

CHRONIC INHALATION TOXICITY

Lee (2004) evaluated the potential chronic toxicity and oncogenicity of D₄ in Fischer 344 rats (7 to 8 weeks old) following whole-body inhalation exposure for 24 months (6 h + T₉₀/day, 5 days/week). Results relating to carcinogenicity are included in the Carcinogenicity section later in the report text. Five groups of rats (96 males, 96 females/group) were used and the exposure concentrations were as follows: 0, 10, 30, 150, and 700 ppm D₄, respectively. Mean body weights prior to exposure were as follows: controls (males: 157.0 ± 8.4 g; females: 112.7 ± 6.3 g); 10 ppm (males: 157 ± 8.2 g; females: 112.2 ± 6.2 g); 30 ppm (males: 156.0 ± 8.2 g; females: 111.9 ± 6.1 g); 150 ppm (males: 155.8 ± 8.1 g; females: 111.9 ± 6.0 g); and 700 ppm (males: 154.8 ± 7.6 g; females: 111.4 ± 6.2 g). The animals were subdivided into 4 subgroups: A (scheduled for necropsy after 6 months of exposure - tissue level study); B (scheduled for necropsy after 12 months of exposure - chronic toxicity study); C (scheduled for necropsy at 24 months on study, after 12 months of exposure, and a 12-month recovery period - chronic recovery study); and D (scheduled for necropsy after 24 months of exposure -

oncogenicity study). Clinical pathology parameters were measured at 3, 6, 9, and 12 months on study.

With the exception of Subgroup A, a complete necropsy was performed on all rats, including those that died or were killed due to moribund condition. Selected organs were collected and weighed at the scheduled necropsies. Complete histopathology was performed on specified tissues from all early removal rats (except Subgroup A), and for all rats in the control and 700 ppm exposure groups.

Overall, the effects of D₄ exposure on in-life parameters (survival, clinical signs, and body weights) were minimal. One exception was that the male rats in Subgroup D exposed to 700 ppm had a significantly decreased 2-year survival and terminal body weight when compared to concurrent controls. The decreases in survival and body weight observed for male rats exposed to 700 ppm were apparent mainly during the last few months of the study. The in-life parameters of other D₄-exposed Subgroup D male and female rats were comparable to control rats. When the survival of Subgroup C was assessed after 12 months of recovery, there was no significant difference between the exposed and control groups of either sex. There was no incidence of early death in either Subgroup A or B prior to the scheduled terminations. Additionally, there were no adverse clinical signs that were clearly associated with D₄ exposure.

Regarding clinical pathology parameters measured, overall erythrocyte and urinalysis parameters of either sex were not affected by D₄ exposure. Leukocytosis was consistently observed in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ at all time points; this finding resulted from increased lymphocytes. At histopathological examination, the primary target organs that were affected by D₄ exposure included the uterus, respiratory tract, kidney, and liver.

Mean liver weights of D₄-exposed rats killed after 6 months of exposure (Subgroup A rats) were increased, particularly in males exposed to 700 ppm D₄. The absolute liver weights tended to increase with increasing D₄ exposure concentrations. Relative to concurrent controls, the difference was statistically significant at ≥ 30 ppm and at 700 ppm for males and females, respectively. At 12 months, the absolute liver weights in males and females of Subgroup B were significantly increased, compared to controls, following exposure to 150 and 700 ppm D₄. Subgroup B relative liver weights (normalized either to body or brain weight) generally increased with increasing exposure concentrations. It was noted that this increase in liver weights may be associated with the centrilobular hypertrophy of hepatocytes that was diagnosed in Subgroup B male rats, but not females, exposed to 700 ppm D₄. These animals were necropsied after 12 months of exposure to 700 ppm D₄.

The absolute and/or relative kidney weights increased in some of the male and female rats (Subgroup B) at 12 months, but the differences were statistically significant, compared to controls, only for the 700 ppm exposure group. There were no significant changes in urinalysis results that may be indicative of renal pathology.

For Subgroup D (exposure for 24 months), the absolute and/or relative liver and kidney weights were significantly increased, compared to controls, in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄. It was noted that increases in kidney weights may reflect increases in the severity of chronic nephropathy in these groups. In male rats, increased liver weights were associated with increased hypertrophy of centrilobular hepatocytes at an exposure concentration of 700 ppm D₄. However, this liver lesion did not accompany the weight increases that were observed in Subgroup D females.

Compared to concurrent controls, exposure to D₄ for up to 24 months appeared to increase the severity of chronic nephropathy in male and female rats of Subgroup D exposed to 700 ppm D₄. A statistical analysis supported a significant increase in the severity of chronic nephropathy in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄. Though results of the statistical analysis supported significant increases, compared to controls, in recovery Subgroup C males exposed to 30,

150, or 700 ppm D₄ and females exposed to 150 ppm D₄, these differences were not considered toxicologically significant because of the relatively small difference in the mean severity of nephropathy and the lack of evidence of a dose-response relationship. Therefore, the only treatment-related renal effect appeared to have been an increase in the severity of chronic nephropathy observed in male and female rats following 24 months of exposure to 700 ppm D₄.

Compared to controls, exposure to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months (Subgroup D) resulted in a substantial increase in both absolute and relative uterine weights. It was noted that this increase in uterine weights may be related to the endometrial epithelial hyperplasia that was observed microscopically. Also, following exposure to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months, the body weight-normalized testes weight and the body weight-normalized heart weight in female rats increased, compared to controls. However, there were no associated concurrent histopathologic lesions in males or females in these groups.

In Subgroup C, increased weights of the liver, kidney, and/or uterus was noted in a few animals exposed to D₄. However, compared to controls, the weight differences were less than the weight differences in Subgroup D. This was likely due to 12 months of recovery.

A statistically significant increase, compared to controls, in minimal or mild suppurative rhinitis was observed in Subgroup B male rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months. A statistical analysis of the incidence of suppurative rhinitis in male and female rats exposed to D₄ indicated a positive trend that is related to D₄ exposure. In Subgroup D, the incidence of suppurative rhinitis following 24 months of exposure was much lower. This incidence was statistically significant only in females and there was no evidence of a dose-response relationship. The incidence of suppurative rhinitis was also lower in recovery Subgroup C; no statistically significant differences were noted. These results suggest that suppurative rhinitis is related to exposure to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months, but is not related to exposure for 24 months or recovery in Subgroup C.

Eosinophilic globules noted in the nasal epithelium were not considered related to D₄ exposure in Subgroup C, despite statistical indications of differences in incidence. The diagnosis of eosinophilic globules in Subgroup B male rats was treatment-related, but was questionable in female rats. The incidence was also treatment-related in Subgroup D male and female rats. The presence of a dose-related increase and statistical results indicating a significant increase in eosinophilic globules in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ and female rats exposed to 150 ppm D₄ for 24 months provide good evidence that the eosinophilic globules in these groups are related to D₄ exposure for 24 months (Subgroup D).

The centrilobular hypertrophy of hepatocytes that was observed in male rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 or 24 months was considered related to D₄ exposure; a statistical analysis confirmed the significance of this finding. The increased incidence of hematopoietic proliferation in spleens from females exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months was confirmed by statistical analysis. The increase in hematopoietic proliferation in males exposed to 30 ppm, although not statistically significantly different, was considered related to D₄ exposure.

An exposure-related decrease in the following enzyme activities was noted at 3, 6, 9, and 12 months of exposure in male and female rats exposed to D₄: aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), creatine kinase (CK), and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH). Particularly at the 6- and 9-month time points, these decreases in enzyme activity were dose-related. Relative to histopathology findings, there was no clear toxicologic significance of these decreases in serum enzymes.

Exposure to D₄ for up to 24 months induced the following effects in male and female rats in this chronic study: (1) reduced 2-year survival and terminal body weight of male rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄; (2) lymphocytic leukocytosis in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄; (3) increases in absolute and/or relative weight of the liver, kidney, and uterus in rats exposed to D₄, especially at an exposure concentration of 700 ppm; (4) increased incidence of suppurative rhinitis in male rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months; (5) increased incidence and severity of intracytoplasmic eosinophilic globules in the nasal epithelium of male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months; (6) increased severity of chronic nephropathy in male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months; and (7) increased incidence of centrilobular hypertrophy of hepatocytes in male rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 or 24 months (Lee 2004) .

OCULAR TOXICITY/IRRITATION

Nakamura et al. 1991 evaluated the ocular toxicity of D₄ using pigmented rabbits. When D₄ (0.1 to 0.2 ml) was injected into the rabbit anterior chamber, severe corneal edema and opacification were elicited within 1 day; symptoms worsened as time progressed. Marked fibrin formation around the globule of D₄ was observed, and vascularization of the peripheral cornea was prominently developed in eyes injected with D₄.

Lee (2004) evaluated the potential chronic toxicity and oncogenicity of D₄ in Fischer 344 rats (7 to 8 weeks old) following whole-body inhalation exposure for 24 months (6 h + T₉₀/day, 5 days/week), and details relating to the results of this study are included in the Chronic Toxicity and Carcinogenicity sections of this report. Five groups of rats (96 males, 96 females/group) were used and the exposure concentrations were as follows: 0, 10, 30, 150, and 700 ppm D₄, respectively. The animals were subdivided into 4 subgroups: A (scheduled for necropsy after 6 months of exposure - tissue level study); B (scheduled for necropsy after 12 months of exposure - chronic toxicity study); C (scheduled for necropsy at 24 months on study, after 12 months of exposure, and a 12-month recovery period - chronic recovery study); and D (scheduled for necropsy after 24 months of exposure - oncogenicity study). Ocular examination conducted 2 weeks prior to the scheduled sacrifices for Subgroups B and D did not reveal eye lesions that were clearly associated with D₄ exposure.

REPRODUCTIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL TOXICITY

Inhalation Studies

IRDC (1993b) reported the results of a range-finding inhalation developmental toxicity study on Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) using rats. These and other reproductive/developmental toxicity study results are summarized in Table 9. Mated Charles River Crl:CD® VAF/Plus® female rats (6 per group) were exposed to 0, 10, 101, 301 and 700 ppm D₄ vapors for 6 h on each of gestation days (GD) 6 - 15. Dams were observed for signs of toxicity during the exposure period. Maternal body weights were determined on GD 0, 6, 9, 12, 16, and 20. Feed consumption was determined at intervals up to GD 20. At day 20, the animals were killed and the uterus was excised. Gravid uterine weights were recorded and the location of viable and nonviable fetuses, early and late resorptions, and the numbers of total implantations and corpora lutea were recorded.

No signs of maternal toxicity were reported. Significant decreases in body weight gains in dams were reported for the high exposure group and considered treatment-related by the authors. Significant decreases in feed consumption in the high exposure group generally followed the pattern of decreased body weight gain in dams. No differences, between control and exposed animals, in numbers of the following were reported: pregnant animals, viable fetuses, animals with

resorptions, corpora lutea, implantation sites, or post-implantation loss (IRDC 1993b).

IRDC (1993c) reported the results of a D₄ inhalation developmental toxicity study using rats. Mated female Charles River Crl:CD® VAF/Plus® rats (30 per group) were exposed to D₄ vapor for 6 h per day at 0, 100, 300, and 700 ppm on GD 6-15. Dams were observed for signs of toxicity throughout the study. Maternal body weights were determined on GD 0, 6, 9, 12, 16 and 20. Feed consumption was measured on GD 0, 6, 9, 12, 16 and 20, and for the intervals 12-16 and 6-16. Animals were killed on GD 20; gravid uterine weights were recorded and the location of viable and nonviable fetuses, early and late resorptions and the number of total implantations and corpora lutea were recorded. The thoracic cavities and organs of females were examined for grossly evident morphological changes. Individual fetuses were weighed, sexed, tagged and examined for external malformations and variations. Fetuses were dissected, internally sexed, and examined for visceral malformations and variations. For skeletal malformations, fetuses were fixed in alcohol, macerated with potassium hydroxide, stained with Alizarin Red S and cleared with glycerin.

No treatment-related signs of toxicity in the dams were reported. Body weight gains, however, were decreased in dams in the high exposure group, as was feed consumption. The percentage of pregnant animals was not different between control and treated animals.

Fetal death (pre- and post-implantation loss), litter sizes, sex distribution, and fetal body weights were not different between treatment and control groups. A small number of skeletal variations was reported in the control and 100 and 300 ppm exposure groups, but none was reported for the 700 ppm group, suggesting to the authors that there were no treatment-related malformations. Decreased ossification of cervical vertebrae and ischia and bent ribs occurred only in fetuses of exposed animals, but their low frequency, absence of a dose response, and the normal spontaneous occurrence in historical controls suggested to the authors that these findings were not treatment related (IRDC 1993c).

IRDC (1993d) reported the results of a range-finding inhalation developmental toxicity study using female rabbits. New Zealand White SPF rabbits (6 per group) were exposed to 0, 10, 101, 301, and 700 ppm D₄ vapor for 6 h on each of GD 6-18. Animals were observed for signs of toxicity during exposure. Maternal body weights were determined on GD 0, 6, 9, 12, 15, 19, 24 and 29. Feed consumption was determined for at intervals up to GD 29. The animals were killed on GD 29 and the uterus was excised, weighed, and examined, as described above in the preceding study involving rats.

Decreased defecation, soft stools and/or anogenital staining were observed in the 0 (control), 101, 301 and 700 ppm groups. Decreased body weight gains were reported for the high exposure group compared to controls. Animals in this group had increased weight gain (compared to controls) on GD 19-29, suggesting to the authors that the inhibition of body weight gain was treatment-related. Decreased feed consumption paralleled the decreased body weight gains in the high exposure group. There were no treatment-related effects on uterine weight, or in number of: pregnant animals, viable fetuses, with resorptions, corpora lutea, implantation sites, or post-implantation loss (IRDC 1993d).

IRDC (1993e) conducted a D₄ inhalation developmental toxicity study using rabbits. Artificially inseminated female New Zealand White rabbits (20 per group) were exposed to 0, 100, 300, and 501 ppm D₄, 6 h per day, from GD 6 to 18. Dams were observed for signs of toxicity throughout the study and killed on GD 29. Dams were weighed on GD 0, 6, 9, 12, 15, 19, 24 and 29. Feed consumption was determined at intervals up to GD 29. Fetuses were examined as described above in the preceding study.

No significant differences in maternal weight gains between control and treated animals were observed. Statistically significant decreases in feed consumption were observed in the high exposure group on GD 6-9 and 9-12.

Overall, feed consumption in the 501 ppm group was slightly less than in control animals. The authors considered the effects on feed consumption to be treatment related. No difference in either fetal malformations or developmental toxicity were reported between treated and control animals (IRDC 1993e).

Holson and Stump (1996a) reported the results of a range-finding inhalation reproductive toxicity study of D₄ using rats. Three groups (20 F₀ males and 20 F₀ females each) of Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats were exposed to 0, 70, and 700 ppm D₄, 6 h per day, for at least 28 days prior to mating through the end of the study, with the exception that F₀ females were not exposed from GD 21 through lactation day 4. During mating, females and males were returned to the male's cage after daily exposure until evidence of mating, at which point the females were again separately housed. Animals were observed 2x daily for signs of toxicity. Body weights were recorded weekly, and, for dams, on GD 0, 7, 10, 14, and 20 and lactation days 0, 4, 7, 14, and 21. Feed consumption was measured at intervals prior to mating, and during gestation and lactation. F₀ males were killed during week 6 and examined. Pregnant animals were allowed to deliver and rear the pups. F₀ females were killed and examined on lactation day 21.

At the same time, F₁ pups (one of each sex) were selected from each litter in each exposure group, with additional selections of up to 20 animals of each sex per group. Animals not selected were killed and examined. The exposure of selected F₁ offspring continued up to PND 28, at which time all remaining animals were killed.

One female in the control group and 2 in the high exposure group were killed early because they did not deliver litters. All other animals survived until the scheduled necropsy. Dried red material around the nose and dried clear material around the eyes was noted in the 700 ppm group, more so in females than males. Ejaculatory plugs found at the bottom of the cage were statistically significantly increased in the 700 ppm group, compared to controls.

Reproductive toxicity was not observed. Fertility indices for males were 95%, 100%, and 90% for the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, respectively. Fertility indices for females were 95%, 100%, and 95% for the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, respectively. Male mating indices were 95%, 100%, and 95%, and female mating indices were 95%, 100%, and 100%, for the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, respectively. The mean number of days between pairing and coitus was 2.3, 2.5, and 3.5 days for the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, with the historical control mean of 3.3 and a range from 2.3 to 6.1 days.

In the pre-mating period, male body weights were significantly reduced in weeks 3-6 and female body weights were significantly decreased in weeks 1-3 in the 700 ppm group, compared to control animals. No differences between the 70 ppm and control groups were observed. The mean body weight in females was significantly decreased over the gestational period in the 700 ppm group, compared to controls. No differences between the 70 ppm and control groups were observed. Additionally, no differences in weight gain or mean body weights during lactation were reported for any treatment group, compared to controls. Feed consumption patterns were consistent with body weight data. The mean gestation period was not different between treatment and control groups; 21.6, 21.8, and 22 days for the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, respectively, with an historical control value of 21.9 days.

The number of dead pups at lactation day 0 was increased in the treatment groups, compared to the control group; but, because 1 litter in the 70 ppm group (5/8) and 1 litter in the 700 ppm group (5/8) accounted for most of the dead pups, this was not considered a treatment-related effect. Pup survival remained within the historical control values for both treatment groups. No differences in the sex ratio of F₁ animals as a function of treatment were seen. Seven, 14, and 12 pups were found dead and 0, 4, and 4 pups were missing in the 0, 70, and 700 ppm groups, respectively. The mean live litter size was reduced in the 700 ppm group, compared to the control. The only difference in pup body weight

was a slight increase on lactation days 1 and 4 in the 700 ppm group, compared to controls. No clinical signs of toxicity were noted in any group.

Necropsy of F₀ males and F₀ females revealed no findings that were related to exposure, except that the number of implantation sites was reduced in the 700 ppm group, compared to 0 and 70 ppm groups. The authors suggested that this was more related to the abnormally high number of implantation sites in the 0 and 70 ppm groups, than to treatment with 700 ppm. Necropsy of pups revealed only isolated cases of dark red lungs.

The authors concluded that: (1) there were signs of maternal toxicity in the 700 ppm group (decreased weight gain and feed consumption), but not at 70 ppm; (2) possible reproductive toxicity was seen in the 700 ppm group (decreased mean litter size and implantation sites); and (3) no postnatal toxicity was evident (Holson and Stump 1996a).

Holson and Stump (1996b) repeated the above study using 22 F₀ male and 22 F₀ female Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats in each of 2 control groups and one 700 ppm D₄ exposure group. The design was similar to that of the preceding study described above, except that all exposures of F₀ females ended at GD 20, there were no post-natal exposures of pups, and all animals were killed at lactation day 4.

Maternal toxicity, in the form of decreased body weights and feed consumption, was seen in the 700 ppm group, compared to controls. As in the previous study, reproductive parameters of fertility, mating, and days between pairing and coitus were not affected by exposure to 700 ppm D₄. The authors reported a decrease in the mean live litter size and a reduction in pup viability at PND 1 and 4 (where this study was terminated). Exposed females also had a decreased number of implantation sites and corpora lutea, an increase in pre-implantation loss, and a difference in the number of implantation sites and the number of offspring. The authors concluded that the findings of the previous study were confirmed (Holson and Stump 1996b).

Holson and Stump (1997) conducted an inhalation range-finding reproductive toxicity study of D₄ using female rats. Groups of female Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats (22 per group) were exposed to 0, 70, 300, 500, or 700 ppm D₄ for 6 h per day for at least 70 consecutive days prior to mating with unexposed males. The exposure of females was continued through mating up to necropsy, except during GD 21 to lactation day 4. During mating, females were exposed for 6 h and then returned to the male's cage. After mating was confirmed, the females were returned to their cages after daily exposure; the males were killed and discarded. All females were allowed to deliver and rear their pups until lactation day 21. Females were observed for clinical signs throughout the study. Body weights and feed consumption were determined on a regular basis. Necropsies were performed on 10 pups/sex/exposure group at PND 28, and on all pups that died between PND 5 and 28. Microscopic examination of tissue and ovarian follicle counts were performed on control and high exposure females. The mean measured D₄ exposure concentrations were 72, 302, 498, and 700 ppm. All animals survived until their scheduled necropsy.

Dried, red material was seen around the nose and mouth of females in the 300, 500, and 700 ppm exposure groups at 1 h following exposure. Dried, red material was observed around the eyes of females in the high exposure group, as well as wet, red material around the nose at 1 h following exposure.

Mean body weights were decreased in the first week of exposure in females in the 500 and 700 ppm groups. Mean body weight gains were reduced in high exposure females during GD 10-14 and 14-20. Mean body weights were decreased in this group during GD 14-20 and remained decreased through lactation day 14. Feed consumption was not different, however, between exposed and control animals. No gross morphologic differences were noted between control

and exposed females at necropsy. In the females in the high exposure group that delivered, the mean number of implantation sites was decreased and the difference between the number of implantation sites and the number of offspring was increased. Mean liver weights were increased in females in the 300, 500, and 700 ppm groups.

The mean number of pups born and the mean litter size were decreased in the high exposure group. No differences in pup body weight, percentage of males per litter, gross morphology at pup necropsy, and pup organ weights between control and exposed animals were found. The authors concluded that exposure to D₄ was associated with maternal toxicity at levels of 300 ppm and greater based on clinical signs and liver weight increases, and body weight decreases at 500 and 700 ppm. Reproductive toxicity was in the form of decreased litter size and number of pups born, and the decreased numbers of implantation sites and the increased difference between the implantation sites and the number of offspring in the 700 ppm group (Holson and Stump 1997).

Holson and Kaufman (1997) conducted a range-finding inhalation reproductive toxicity study of D₄ (at 70, 300, 500 and 700 ppm). Groups of male Sprague Dawley Crl:CD®(SD)BR rats (22 F₀ males) were exposed 6 h per day for at least 70 days prior to mating with 22 F₀ female rats of the same strain that had been exposed to filtered air for 21 days prior to 1:1 mating. Males continued to be removed from their cages and were exposed to D₄ 6 h each day during mating and females were removed and exposed to filtered air throughout mating. Females were returned to the male's home cage after each exposure for mating. Following evidence of mating (GD 0), females were caged separately. Exposure of males ended and 10 male rats were necropsied at that point. Females were exposed to filtered air daily for 6 h through GD 20. Pregnant females were allowed to deliver and rear their pups until lactation day 4 (pup necropsies performed). Surviving F₀ dams were necropsied (weeks 15-16) after completion of F₁ pup necropsies, and surviving F₀ males were necropsied at week 12 or just prior to necropsy of F₀ females. Body weights, feed consumption, and clinical signs for all animals were recorded weekly prior to mating, then on GD 0, 7, 10, 14, and 20, and on lactation days 1 and 4 (or the equivalent time line for males).

One male in the high exposure group died of septicemia on day 97, but the authors did not relate the death to exposure to D₄. One moribund female, nominally in the "high exposure" group, was killed on lactation day 1. Because females were not exposed to D₄ at any point, the authors did not relate the death to exposure to D₄.

Clinical signs included red material around the nose at 1 h following exposure in the high exposure group males and increased numbers of ejaculatory plugs produced by males in all exposure groups, primarily during the daily 6 h exposure. Both effects were considered treatment-related. Mean body weights, body weight gains, and feed consumption were not different between exposed and control F₀ animals. Reproductive performance, including days between pairing and coitus, mating and fertility indices, and duration of gestation and parturition, were not different between exposed and control animals. At necropsy, macroscopic findings, microscopic examination of tissues, and sperm motility and sperm morphology in males were not different between exposed and control animals. Mean absolute and relative liver, kidney, and thyroid gland weights were increased in high exposure males, and mean absolute and relative liver weights were also increased in males in the 500 ppm group at the first necropsy point (10 animals, as described above). This effect was not seen in the 12 animals necropsied after 1 month without exposure, which the authors suggested was evidence that the effects were reversible.

Decreases in pup survival were reported in the high exposure group at PND 0 and in the birth to PND 4 interval, but the differences were not statistically significant and complicated by the occurrence of pup deaths primarily in 2 litters.

Mean pup body weights in the high exposure group were significantly decreased, compared to controls, but the authors stated that this finding was uncertain because the weights were within the range of historical controls. No clinical signs were reported in pups from birth to PND 4, nor were any findings reported, as a result of pup necropsy, that were different between exposed and control animals.

The authors interpreted the clinical observations in males in the high exposure group as evidence of paternal toxicity and suggested that there was slight paternal toxicity at 500 ppm, as evidenced by the reversible increases in liver weights. Because of the differences between the concurrent and historical pup body weight data, the authors did not offer a conclusion for effects on the F₁ animals (Holson and Kaufman 1997).

Stump and Stump (1997) reported the results of a range-finding inhalation reproductive toxicity study of D₄ (at 500 and 700 ppm) using rats. Groups of 40 male Sprague Dawley CrI:CD[®](SD)IGS BR rats (F₀ males) were exposed 6 h per day for at least 70 days prior to mating with F₀ female rats of the same strain that had been exposed to filtered air only (no D₄ exposure) for 21 days prior to 1:1 mating in each male's home cage. Males continued to be removed from their cages and were exposed to D₄ for 6 h each day during mating, and females were exposed to filtered air throughout the mating for the same 6 h period. Following evidence of mating (GD 0), females were caged separately. Females were not exposed to filtered air from GD 21 through lactation day 4. Male animals continued to be exposed to D₄ for 6h per day through study day 113, followed by a 5-week recovery (non-exposed) period. The 700 ppm group exposure was determined to be 693 ppm.

Body weights, feed consumption, and clinical signs were recorded throughout the study. Pregnant females were allowed to deliver. F₁ pups were observed daily until PND 21, when they were killed and necropsied. F₀ females were killed after the pups and necropsied. At the end of the 5-week recovery period, males were killed and necropsied.

One male in the 700 ppm group died during week 15. All other F₀ animals survived to the scheduled necropsy. Clinical signs (dried red material around the nose) were observed in the 700 ppm group at 1 h after exposure began. Mean body weight gain and feed consumption both were reduced in F₀ males in the first week of exposure to 700 ppm, but not 500 ppm D₄. Overall mean body weights were not different between either treatment group and controls.

A dose-related increase in male produced ejaculatory plugs was observed during the exposure period. The incidence of ejaculatory plugs decreased during the 5-week recovery period. Reproductive parameters of fertility, mating, days between pairing and coitus, and parturition were not affected by exposure.

No adverse effects were seen in F₀ males at necropsy in either exposed group, and organ weights were unaffected by exposure to D₄. The mean live litter size, number of pups born, sex-ratio, pup survival, and pup body weights were the same in all treated and control animals. No treatment related effects were found in pups at necropsy. The authors concluded that exposure to D₄ at 700 ppm did have an effect on F₀ males, based on the clinical signs and on the reduced weight gain and feed consumption in week 1 (Stump and Stump 1997).

Stump (1999) conducted a follow-up inhalation reproductive toxicity study of 700 ppm D₄ using female rats given multiple and single day exposures, from pre-mating day 4 through GD 3. The 700 ppm D₄ exposure groups (pre-mating) were as follows: Group 2 (25 females) exposed for 6 h on pre-mating day 1 only; group 3 (25 females) exposed on pre-mating day 2 only; group 4 (50 females) exposed on pre-mating day 3 only; group 5 (25 females) exposed on pre-mating day 4; group 7 (70 females) exposed from pre-mating day 3 to GD 3; and group 6 (125 females) exposed from pre-mating day 3 to pre-mating day 1. Post-mating group exposures were: group P2 (25 females) on GD 0; group P3 (25

females) on GD 1; and group P4 (25 females) on GD 2. The final post-mating group P5 (25 females) was exposed from GD 0 to GD 2. All males were unexposed.

The pregnancy rate was decreased for the group exposed on pre-mating day 1, but not for any of the other pre-mating days or for any of the post-mating days. Mean body weights in group 6 were reduced on GD 0, but increased during GD 0-4 and 0-8. In group 7, mean body weights decreased from GD 0-4 and increased from GD 4-8, although feed consumption was reduced from GD 0-4 to GD 0-8. In group P5, reduced mean body weights were seen during GD 0-4 and feed consumption was reduced from GD 0-4 to GD 0-8.

Decreased corpora lutea and implantation sites were seen in group 7, but not in groups 2-6. Thus, the study failed to narrow the period of reproductive toxicity sensitivity. No pre-implantation loss was seen in any pre-mating groups, although an increase in small implantation sites (< 3.6 mm) was seen in group 7. All of these parameters were unaffected in post-mating groups P2, P3, P4, or P5. Mean uterine weights were decreased in group 7, but mean ovarian weights were unaffected. Mean uterine and ovarian weights were unaffected by any other exposure regimen (Stump 1999).

Stump (2001b) conducted a 2-generation reproductive toxicity and developmental neurotoxicity study using Crl:CD@ (SD)IGS BR rats (165 males and 165 females). Whole-body vapor inhalation exposure to D₄ (minimum of 70 days, 6 h daily) for F₀ animals (30/sex/group) were at 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm (actual observed mean exposure concentrations were 71 (\pm 1.5), 298 (\pm 7.5), 502 (\pm 6.8), and 700 (\pm 7.2) ppm). Exposures for F₁ animals (minimum of 70 days, 6 h daily) were at the same target concentrations (actual measured mean exposure concentrations were 71 (\pm 1.9), 301 (\pm 6.4), 502 (\pm 8.8), and 702 (\pm 12.2) ppm). A control group of identical design was exposed to clean, filtered air on a comparable regimen. Pregnant animals were not exposed from GD 21 to lactation day 4; exposure was reinitiated on lactation day 5.

Endpoints were the reproductive capabilities of the F₀ and F₁ generations, neonatal survival, growth and development, and functional and morphological changes to the nervous system of the developing F₂ rats. The F₀ parental animals were mated once to produce the F₁ generation. F₁ animals were mated to produce the F_{2a} litters. F₁ parental animals were mated a second time to produce the F_{2b} litters after a minimum of 31 days following weaning of the F_{2a} litters. Following completion of the second mating of the F₁ parental animals, F₁ males were paired with sexually mature, unexposed females from the same strain to produce F_{2c} litters.

All animals were observed twice daily for appearance and behavior. Clinical observations, body weights, and feed consumption were recorded prior to mating and during gestation and lactation. Neurological tests (motor activity, auditory startle test, and Biel maze swimming trials) and functional observational battery (FOB) observations were performed for all F₁ females on GD 10 and lactation day 20, following the first mating. All F₀ and F₁ females were allowed to deliver and rear their pups until weaning on lactation day 21. Thirty pups/sex/group from the F_{2a} generation were selected for developmental landmarks, neurobehavioral testing, neuropathology, brain weights, and/or brain dimension measurements. Surplus F₁ and F_{2a} pups were necropsied on PND 21 or 28, and selected organs were weighed. Spermatogenic evaluations were performed on all F₀ and F₁ males, and ovarian primordial follicle and corpora lutea counts were recorded for F₀ and F₁ females in the control and high-exposure groups, and corpora lutea counts were performed on F₁ females in the 70, 300, and 500 ppm groups

Evaluations of clinical observations and survival of F₀ animals showed that during the first week of exposure,

statistically significant reductions in mean body weight gain were observed in males and females in the 700 ppm group and in females in the 500 ppm group only.

Mean body weight gain was decreased (statistically significantly) during gestation in the 700 ppm group in both the F₀ and F₁ parental animals. Organ weight changes (liver and kidney increases) in both the F₀ and F₁ animals were consistent with the previous study discussed above. Ejaculatory plugs were noted in an exposure-related manner in most of the males throughout the exposure, but, as in the previous study, the significance of this finding was not known to the authors. No other significant clinical signs were noted at any test article concentration. Overall, no developmental neurotoxicity was observed.

Effects of the test article on reproduction were noted in F₀ and F₁ generations. Extended parturition and/or dystocia were observed in 2 and 3 F₀ females in the 500 and 700 ppm groups, respectively, and in 3 F₁ dams, 1 each in the 300, 500, and 700 ppm groups. Two of the 3 F₀ 700 ppm group dams and 1 F₁ 500 ppm group female died as a result of the dystocia. Statistically significant decreases in mean live litter sizes and mean number of pups born were observed in the 500 and 700 ppm groups for F₀ animals. Statistically significant decreases (for 1st mating period) in the F₁ animals related to mean live litter size in the 500 and 700 ppm groups and the mean number of pups born in the 700 ppm group were observed. Other non-statistically significant, non-dose response related effects were noted.

When F₁ males were paired with unexposed females, no effects on reproductive performance were observed. In the F₁ generation, mating indices were decreased in the 700 ppm group for the 1st and 2nd matings (statistically significant for the females in both matings and for males in the 2nd mating). Fertility indices were statistically significantly reduced in the 700 ppm group for the 1st F₁ mating period. In the 2nd F₁ mating period, male and female fertility indices were statistically significantly reduced in the 500 and 700 ppm groups. The authors stated that microscopic evaluation of the ovaries, uterus, vagina, mammary gland and pituitary gland from the 0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm F₁ females revealed a non-dose-related effect that suggested perturbation of the estrous cycle and accelerated reproductive senescence in F₁ (but not F₀) females at 70, 300, and 500 ppm, with a more obvious effect at 700 ppm.

No adverse effects, at any exposure level, on anogenital distance, vaginal patency, and preputial separation were observed. The same was true for male functional reproductive parameters, male spermatogenic endpoints, microscopic evaluation of male reproductive tissue, or when the D₄-exposed F₁ males were mated with the unexposed, nulliparous females. These observations suggested that the reproductive toxicity observed was due to the exposure of females to D₄ (Stump 2001b).

Burns-Naas et al. (2002) studied the subchronic inhalation toxicity of D₄ using groups of 20 male and female Fischer 344 rats (~9 weeks old). The following groups of rats were exposed to D₄ vapor for 3 months (6 h/day, 5 days/week) or to control air: 35 ppm (20/sex/group), 22 ppm (20/sex/group), 488 ppm (20/sex/group), 898 ppm (30/sex/group), and control air (30/sex/group). Exposures were conducted according to the methods of Berstein et al. (1995) and Cannon et al. (1983). Results relating to effects other than those on the reproductive system are included in the section on Subchronic Inhalation Toxicity earlier in the report text.

Compared to controls and intermediate exposure groups, more female rats from the 898 ppm group appeared to be in the diestrous stage of the rat estrus cycle. At the end of the 1-month recovery phase, the estrous cycles for control and 898 ppm exposure groups were similar; this comparison was based on the vaginal changes that were observed. Exposure-related histopathological findings were limited to the ovary and vagina, and these changes were observed only in

the 898 ppm exposure group. Regarding mucification of the vaginal mucosa, the incidence was increased and the thickness of the mucinous cell layer was more prominent in the 898 ppm exposure group. By the end of the 3-month study, the incidence of ovarian hypoactivity in female rats exposed to 898 ppm had increased. A diagnosis of ovarian hypoactivity was made when histological sections of the ovaries contained no corpora lutea or only one or two small, atretic corpora lutea. The increased incidence of ovarian hypoactivity in the 898 ppm exposure group was not present by the end of the 1-month recovery phase.

In summary, nose-only inhalation of a high concentration of D₄ (898 ppm) resulted in reversible histopathological changes in the female rat reproductive tract. However, lower exposure concentrations (35 ppm, 122 ppm, and 488 ppm) did not elicit these same effects (Burns-Naas et al. 2002).

Quinn (2006) conducted a study to evaluate the effect of whole body vapor inhalation of D₄ on estrous cyclicity, E2 levels, and ovarian endpoints in female Fischer 344 rats (13 weeks old; 145-165 g). The animals were exposed to the test substance (concentration = 700 ppm; 20 rats) via whole body inhalation for 35 consecutive days (6 h/day). Another group of animals (20 rats, exposed to filtered air) served as the control group. Food and water were withheld during the 6 h exposure period. For 20 days prior to the initiation of exposure and throughout the exposure period, vaginal lavage was used to monitor the effect of D₄ on estrous cyclicity. The animals were necropsied based on their estrous cycle. If possible, the animals were necropsied in estrus so that the number of ovulated eggs in the oviducts could be counted. Also, trunk blood was collected and E2 levels were measured using radioimmunoassay (RIA).

At necropsy, all of the control animals were in estrus (n = 20) and had ova in the oviducts (mean = 9.4 eggs/animal). Treated animals were divided into the following 2 groups: animals necropsied in estrus (n = 17) and animals that were not necropsied in estrus (n = 3), due to cycle disruption. A mean value of 10.3 eggs/animal (mean number of ova) was reported for the 17 animals necropsied in estrus. Ova were not present in the oviducts of the 3 remaining animals. When control and treated animals that ovulated were compared, there was no significant difference in the number of eggs ovulated.

For the following endpoints, there were no statistically significant differences between the control and 700 ppm exposure group at the end of exposure: body weights, ovarian weights, uterine weights, brain weights, uterine/brain weight ratios, uterine/body weight ratios, ovarian/brain weight, ovarian/body weight, day 1 corpora lutea (Day-1 CL) or atretic antral follicles. There was a statistically significant increase in terminal body weights ($p < 0.05$) in the 700 ppm D₄ exposure group, as well as an increase in the levels of E2 ($p < 0.01$). This significant increase in E2 levels coincided with a significant increase in the number of large follicles in the treatment group ($p < 0.05$).

Prior to the initiation of exposure, the mean cycle length was 4.98 days, with no statistically significant difference in cycle length between treated and control groups. After the initiation of exposure, treated animals began showing deviations in the typical 5-day cycle. Specifically, an increase in the number of days spent in diestrous II was noted. The control animals continued to cycle normally, with no difference in the cycle length over the entire time course. The individual cycle length during exposure was also compared. The control animals had a mean cycle length of 4.98, which was identical to that reported prior to exposure. D₄-treated animals had a statistically significant increase in mean cycle length of 5.70 days during the exposure period.

Study results indicated that D₄ exposure resulted in a lengthening of the typical 5-day estrous cycle in some of the Fischer 344 rats. This coincided with an increase in the circulating E2 levels on the morning of estrus, an increase in the

number of large follicles in the ovaries of treated animals, and an increase in the days spent in diestrous (Quinn 2006).

Crissman (2006) performed a detailed histomorphologic review of the ovaries, uterus, vagina, pituitary and mammary glands from D₄-high-dose exposed and control rats to discover any previously unappreciated evidence for test article-related disruption of the estrous cycle or pituitary-gonadal axis. The basis for this study is stated as follows: In the ultimate 2-year oncogenicity study on D₄, there were exposure-related increases in proliferative lesions of the uterus, including endometrial epithelial neoplasms. While there were significant differences in the incidence and apparent progression of lesions associated with the test material, the similarities suggested that a uniform and detailed expert histopathologic review of reproductive tissues from the entire series of studies with both materials was warranted.

Two series of 3 inhalation toxicology studies on D₄ (F-344 rats used; endpoints at 28 days, 90 days, 6 months, 12 months, and 24 months) were performed over more than a decade [The same is true for D₅ - See Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity subheading in section on Animal Toxicology Data on Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅) later in report text]. Female reproductive effects were re-evaluated from control and high-dose groups in the following 3 inhalation studies. The original hematoxylin and eosin stained slides of the ovary, uterus, vagina, pituitary, and mammary gland from the high-dose and control groups were re-examined. The highest targeted exposure concentration, the exposure method (whole body or nose only), and the targeted number of animals in each study group (N) are stated below.

D₄ Studies:

Study number DC 8256: One-Month Repeated Dose Inhalation Toxicity Study with Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (Cyclotetrasiloxane) in Rats. [initial 16 mg/l (1330 ppm), lowered to 12 mg/l (997 ppm) after 3 exposures because of mortalities; nose only, N = 10] (RCC 1995a)

Study number DC 8257: Three-Month Repeated Dose Inhalation Toxicity Study with Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane (cyclotetrasiloxane) in Rats with One-Month Recovery Period. [12 mg/l (997 ppm); nose only, N = 20] (RCC 1995b)

Study number DC 9106: 24-Month Combined Chronic Toxicity and Oncogenicity Whole Body Vapor Inhalation Study of Octamethylcyclotetrasiloxane [Cyclotetrasiloxane] (D₄) in Fischer 344 Rats. (700 ppm, whole body; 6-month interim, N = 6; 12-month interim, N = 10; 24-month terminal, N = 60) (Lee 2004)

The nose-only exposure method and very high dose levels, theoretically yielding mixed vapor and aerosol exposures, as well as spontaneous deaths and other indicators of significant stress confound assigning effects as test article-related in the 28- and 90-day studies. After a year, 700 ppm D₄ exposure was associated with a small numerical increase in cycle disruptions, primarily extended diestrous (not statistically identified nor attributed to treatment), and vaginal mucification. After 2-years, the ultimate findings of endometrial hyperplasia and benign endometrial tumors with D₄ were confirmed and are consistent with the original reports (Crissman 2006).

Meeks et al. (2007) conducted a study to evaluate the phase of the female rat reproductive cycle that was affected by D₄, using a study design that allowed the complete female reproductive cycle, as well as phases of the cycle (from pre-mating to gestation) to be evaluated. The study was conducted using groups of 24 virgin male and female Crl:CD® (SD) BR rats (age of female rats: 59 to 71 days old). In the overall phase, 4 groups were exposed to target concentrations of 70 ppm, 300 ppm, 500 ppm, or 700 ppm D₄ for 28 days prior to mating and through the mating period and gestation, until GD19.

The ovarian phase, fertilization phase, and implantation phase each consisted of one D₄ exposure group (60, 60, and 24 females, respectively), with a target concentration of 700 ppm. In the ovarian phase, female rats were exposed

from 31 days prior to the start of the mating interval until 3 days prior to the start of the mating interval (total duration of exposure = 28 days). In the fertilization phase, female rats were exposed from 3 days prior to the start of the mating interval and through the mating interval until GD 3. In the implantation phase, female rats were exposed on GDs 2 through 5. Concurrent female control groups of similar design in each phase were exposed to filtered air on comparable regimens.

A second experiment (protocol similar to experiment 1) focused on the fertilization and implantation phases to further define the temporal responsiveness of the effects that were observed after D₄ exposure during these phases. The duration of all exposures (0 or 700 ppm D₄) was 6 h/day. In the pre-mating phase, the rats were exposed to D₄ according to the following protocols: as a single 6 h exposure at 1, 2, 3, or 4 days prior to mating (days 1-4 groups, respectively); or daily for 3 days prior to mating through 1 day prior to mating (days-3-1); or daily, beginning 3 days prior to mating and continuing through GD 3 (day-3 through GD 3). In the post-mating phase, groups were exposed to D₄ as a single 6 h exposure on GD 0, 1, or 2 (GD 0, GD 1, or GD 2 groups, respectively). The last group was exposed from GD 0-2. After exposure, females in the pre-mating phase were mated with unexposed male rats.

In the first experiment, the analyzed mean exposure concentrations for the overall phase were 72, 301, 503, and 698 ppm. The analyzed mean exposure concentrations for the 700 ppm target concentration in the ovarian phase, fertilization phase, and implantation phase were 702, 696, and 702 ppm, respectively. The following results relate to the overall phase. In the 700 ppm exposure group, 1 female delivered 7 pups with no apparent external malformations during exposure on GD 19. This unscheduled delivery was not attributed to D₄ exposure. No treatment-related clinical signs were observed in either of the exposure groups. Mean absolute maternal adrenal gland weight was significantly increased in the 700 ppm group (by 16.8%, relative to the control group).

Regarding other maternal organ weights (brain, ovary, and thyroid), all were unaffected by D₄ exposure. Days between pairing and coitus and mating and fertility indices were not adversely affected by exposure to D₄. Mean numbers of corpora lutea were reduced in the 3 highest exposure groups (300, 500, and 700 ppm). However, statistical significance was achieved only in the 300 and 500 ppm exposure groups. A significant reduction in the mean number of viable fetuses was observed in the 500 and 700 ppm exposure groups. Mean gravid uterine weight was also reduced in both exposure groups, but the decrease was statistically significant only in the 700 ppm exposure group. In the 70 and 300 ppm exposure groups, intrauterine survival (viable fetuses and pre-implantation and post-implantation losses) was unaffected by D₄ exposure.

In the ovarian phase, no exposure-related clinical signs or internal findings were observed. Mean maternal organ weights (brain, ovary, adrenal, and thyroid) in the 700 ppm exposure group were comparable to controls. Days between pairing and coitus, mating indices, and fertility indices were not adversely affected by exposure to D₄. The number of corpora lutea and intrauterine survival were not affected by D₄ exposure.

No exposure-related clinical signs or internal findings were noted following exposure during the fertilization phase. Mean maternal organ weights (brain, adrenal, and thyroid) in the 700 ppm exposure group were comparable to controls. The mean number of corpora lutea in this exposure group was significantly lower when compared to controls, and the mean number of implantation sites was significantly reduced. Due to the lower number of implantation sites and significant increase in the percentage of early resorptions, the mean number of viable fetuses and gravid uterine weight were significantly reduced following exposure to 700 ppm D₄.

In the implantation phase, the number of corpora lutea and intrauterine survival were unaffected by D₄ (700 ppm) exposure, and the same was true for mean maternal organ weights (brain, ovary, adrenal, and thyroid) when compared to controls.

In experiment 2, the analyzed mean exposure concentration for both the pre-mating phase and the post-mating phase was 700 ppm. In an effort to further define the sensitive period for D₄ exposure, a single 6 h exposure to D₄ on the day prior to mating resulted in a significant decrease in fertility.

Study results indicated that D₄ exposure was associated with decreases in implantation sites and litter size in the overall and fertilization phases, but not in the ovarian or implantation phases. The authors noted that these data indicate that there is a very narrow window, around the time of ovulation and fertilization, for D₄ to exert effects on the reproductive cycle of the female rat (Meeks et al. 2007).

In a study by Siddiqui et al. (2007) the reproductive toxicity of D₄ was evaluated using virgin male and female Crl:CD® (SD)IGS BR rats (Sprague-Dawley rats, 165 per sex; 29 to 30 days old). F₀ male and female rats (30/sex/group) were exposed (whole-body vapor inhalation) to D₄ vapor at concentrations of 0 (filtered air), 70, 300, 500, or 700 ppm 7 days per week (6h/day) for at least 70 consecutive days prior to mating. Exposure continued through weaning of the pups on PND 21. Female exposures were suspended from GD 21 through PND 4 to prevent parturition from occurring in the inhalation chamber and to avoid separating the dams from their offspring during early neonatal life.

Beginning on PND 22, F₁ weanlings were exposed to D₄ according to the same procedure that was described for the F₀ generation; F₂ pups were not exposed to D₄ directly. F₀ rats were mated once to produce the F₁ generation, and F₁ parental rats were mated twice in order to produce 2 F₂ litters. Additionally, the F₁ males were mated with unexposed females. In the F₁ generation exposed to D₄ during the first and second matings, prolonged estrous cycles and decreased mating and fertility indices were noted. In the 500 and 700 ppm exposure groups (F₀ and F₁ generations), significant decreases in the mean number of pups born and mean live litter size were observed. Following exposure to 700 ppm D₄ (F₀ and F₁ generations), implantation sites were also reduced. For all exposure groups, there were no adverse effects on anogenital distance, vaginal patency, and preputial separation.

In male rats, there were no adverse effects on the following: functional reproductive parameters, spermatogenic endpoints, and microscopic evaluation of reproductive tissue. Additionally, no adverse effects were observed when D₄-exposed F₁ males were mated with unexposed females; this demonstrated that the reproductive toxicity observed was due to female rats exposed to D₄. The NOAEL for male reproductive toxicity was determined to be 700 ppm, and this was based on the absence of an effect on reproduction when D₄-exposed male rats were mated with naive females. Based on the statistically significant effects on fertility ($p \leq 0.05$) and litter size ($p \leq 0.01$), the NOAEL for female reproductive toxicity was determined to be 300 ppm.

The authors noted that the findings in this study are consistent with suppression of or delaying the LH surge, as well as acceleration of the onset of female reproductive senescence in the rat. It was also noted that though analogous pathways control ovulation in both rats and humans, there are significant differences in the mechanism for the timing and release of LH and resulting changes in the control of ovulation and mating behavior between the 2 species. The authors pointed out that if D₄ delays rather than causing prolonged suppression or ablation of the LH surge, the reproductive mode of action of D₄ would not likely be relevant for humans (Siddiqui et al. 2007).

Oral Studies

IRDC (1993a) conducted a range-finding developmental toxicity study using rabbits. Inseminated New Zealand White SPF female rabbits (6 per group) received 0, 50, 100, 500 or 1,000 mg/kg/day D₄ by gavage (3.0 ml/kg) as a single daily dose on GD 7 through 19. The control group received the Methocel® vehicle only. The animals were observed for signs of toxicity during the exposure. Maternal body weights were determined on GD 0, 7-19 (daily), 23, 26 and 29. Feed consumption was determined for GD 0-7, daily between GD 7 and 19, and for GD 19-23, 23-26, 26-29, 7-19 and 0-29. Animals were killed on GD 29 and the uterus was excised, weighed, and examined. Gravid uterine weights, the number and location of viable and nonviable fetuses, early and late resorptions, and the number of total implantations and corpora lutea were recorded.

A single death was observed at the 500 mg/kg/day level on GD 26. Prior to death, decreased defecation, body surface staining, reduced activity, and moribundity were observed and, at necropsy, thick, dark green material was observed in the intestines, and ulcerated areas were observed in the stomach. No mortalities occurred in the other groups.

Statistically significant decreases in body weights were observed in the 100, 500, and 1000 mg/kg/day groups, and a trend to decreased weight was observed in the 50 mg/kg/day group. These results generally followed a similar pattern of decreased feed consumption. Many animals consumed less than 20 g feed/day.

Abortions were seen in 5 animals in the 500 mg/kg/day group and 4 animals in the 1000 mg/kg/day group. The authors considered these abortions to be treatment-related and suggested that they correlated with decreased feed consumption. With only 2 animals to evaluate at the high dose level, the authors expressed concern about the small numbers. Post-implantation loss was increased at the 1,000 mg/kg/day level when compared to the control group and the number of live fetuses and, correspondingly, gravid uterine weight was reduced; these differences were considered treatment-related. No effects were reported for the 50 or 100 mg/kg/day groups, compared to controls (IRDC 1993a).

GENOTOXICITY

In a study by Dow Corning (1982), D₄ was evaluated in an extended rodent dominant lethal assay. Male rats received D₄ doses of 100, 500, and 1000 mg/kg/day (by gavage) 5 days per week for 8 weeks. Rats given an oral dose of triethylenemelamine (0.05 mg/kg/day), a known clastogen, served as the positive control group; the negative control group received tap water. Fifteen male rats were used in each of the dose and control groups. A 2-week mating period (2 females per male/week) followed, to allow for the expression of any germinal cell damage in pregnant females.

The numbers of corpora lutea and live and dead implantations were counted in females killed 14 days after the midweek of mating. Male body weights were also measured over the dosing period. No statistically significant differences in body weight (males) were found among the D₄-dosed rats and the positive and negative control rats. Compared to the negative control, no significant decrease in fertility or prevalence of dead implants in D₄-dosed rats was found. In the positive control group, statistically significant differences in fertility over the 2-week test period and in the number of dead implants were noted (Dow Corning 1982).

Isquith et al. (1988) studied the *in vitro* genotoxicity of D₄ using the following assays: plate incorporation assay (*S. typhimurium* strains TA1535, TA 1537, TA1538, TA98, and TA100), mitotic gene conversion assay (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain D4), the *E. coli* pol A-repair assay for DNA damage (*E. coli* strain W3110 (pol A⁺), and mouse lymphoma assays (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells). The following were evaluated in the mouse lymphoma tissue culture assays: forward gene mutation, SCE, DNA damage, and chromosome aberration potential. All of the assays were

performed with and without metabolic activation. Details relating to the conduct of these assays and results for the positive/negative controls are included under the the Genotoxicity subheading in an earlier section of this safety assessment that is entitled Animal Toxicology Data on Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃).

In the plate incorporation, mitotic gene conversion, and DNA damage assays, D₄ was tested at doses of 0.001 to 5 µl/plate. In each of the 3 assays, there was no evidence of increases in the incidence of reverse mutation, mitotic recombination, or DNA damage, respectively, either with or without metabolic activation.

The following concentrations of D₄ were tested in the mouse lymphoma assays: forward mutation assay (0.0032 to 0.05 µl/ml); SCE assay (0.0032 to 0.050 [without metabolic activation] and 0.0032 to 0.10 µg/ml [with metabolic activation]); and chromosome aberrations assay (0.0032 to 0.050 [without metabolic activation] and 0.0032 to 0.10 µg/ml [with metabolic activation]). In the forward gene mutation assay, D₄ did not produce a positive response, as measured by a dose-dependent, reproducible highest relative mutation frequency (HRMF) of 2.5 or greater. In the SCE assay, D₄ induced a statistically significant response at one dose level (0.0032 µg/ml, with metabolic activation); a dose-response relationship was not observed. In the chromosome aberrations assay, D₄ was genotoxic with, but not without, metabolic activation. D₄ did not produce a positive response in the DNA/alkaline elution assay (Isquith et al. 1988).

The mutagenicity of D₄ was evaluated in a battery of tests (Vergnes et al. 2000). In the preincubation test, the mutagenicity of D₄ was evaluated at doses up to 5 mg/plate using the following *S. typhimurium* strains: TA98, TA 100, TA 1535, TA 1537, and TA 1538. D₄ was not mutagenic with or without metabolic activation in either of the *S. typhimurium* strains over the range of doses tested.

In the chromosome aberrations test, the treatment of cultured Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells was limited by cytotoxicity at D₄ concentrations > 0.003 mg/ml without metabolic activation and > 0.03 mg/ml with metabolic activation. No significant dose-related increases in chromosomal aberration frequencies were observed in CHO cells treated with doses up to 0.003 mg/ml (without metabolic activation) and up to 0.03 mg/ml (with metabolic activation). Additionally, no significant dose-related increases in sister chromatid exchanges (SCEs) were noted in CHO cells tested with D₄ at concentrations up to 0.003 mg/ml (without metabolic activation) and up to 0.03 mg/ml (with metabolic activation). Thus, the results for D₄ were negative in the SCE assay.

A test for *in vivo* clastogenic potential was conducted using 7-week-old rats. The weight range for male rats was 213 to 242 g, and 135 to 163 g, for female rats. The rats were exposed to 700 ppm D₄ by whole-body vapor inhalation for 5 days (6 h/day). Negative control rats were exposed to filtered air only and positive control rats were exposed to filtered air and, then, cyclophosphamide (30 mg/kg, i.p.) 24 h before exposure was terminated. Animals exposed to D₄ were killed at 6 h and 24 h after the final exposure. Positive and negative control animals were killed at 24 h after the last exposure. The induction of chromosome aberrations in rat bone marrow *in vivo* was evaluated. There were no significant, treatment-related increases in chromosomal aberrations.

The results of the preceding *in vitro* tests indicate that D₄ does not possess significant *in vitro* genotoxic potential. Additionally, no adverse genetic findings were noted in the *in vivo* screen for chromosomal aberrations (Vergnes et al. 2000).

CARCINOGENICITY

Lee (2004) evaluated the potential chronic toxicity and oncogenicity of D₄ in Fischer 344 rats (7 to 8 weeks old) following whole-body inhalation exposure for 24 months (6 h + T₉₀/day, 5 days/week). Five groups of rats (96 males, 96

females/group) were used and the exposure concentrations were as follows: 0, 10, 30, 150, and 700 ppm D₄, respectively. Mean body weights prior to exposure were as follows: controls (males: 157.0 ± 8.4 g; females: 112.7 ± 6.3 g; 10 ppm (males: 157 ± 8.2 g; females: 112.2 ± 6.2 g); 30 ppm (males: 156.0 ± 8.2 g; females: 111.9 ± 6.1 g); 150 ppm (males: 155.8 ± 8.1 g; females: 111.9 ± 6.0 g); and 700 ppm (males: 154.8 ± 7.6 g; females: 111.4 ± 6.2 g). The animals were subdivided into 4 subgroups: A (scheduled for necropsy after 6 months of exposure - tissue level study); B (scheduled for necropsy after 12 months of exposure - chronic toxicity study); C (scheduled for necropsy at 24 months on study, after 12 months of exposure, and a 12-month recovery period - chronic recovery study); and D (scheduled for necropsy after 24 months of exposure - oncogenicity study). Clinical pathology parameters were measured at 3, 6, 9, and 12 months on study. Results relating to ocular irritation are included in the Ocular Toxicity/Irritation section and results relating to effects on enzyme activity are included in the section on Enzyme Effects earlier in the report text. Results relating to chronic toxicity are included in the section on Chronic Inhalation Toxicity earlier in the report text.

With the exception of Subgroup A, a complete necropsy was performed on all rats, including those that died or were killed due to moribund condition. Plasma, fat, and liver samples were obtained from Subgroup A for the determination of D₄ content. [The distribution of D₄ in these tissues is reported in the section on Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion earlier in the report text.]. Histopathology was performed on specified tissues from all early removal rats (except Subgroup A), and for all rats in the control and 700 ppm exposure groups.

At histopathological examination, the primary target organs that were affected by D₄ exposure included the uterus, respiratory tract, kidney, and liver. Endometrial adenomas were present in sections of the uterus from 4 of 60 (7%) female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months. The incidence of this lesion in the concurrent control group was 0 of 59. A statistical analysis of these data indicated a significant (p < 0.05) positive trend. The authors noted that the incidence of this lesion in historical control F344 females is 2/1109 or 0.2%. The historical control data related to the tumor incidence for rats on a vehicle control National Toxicology Program 2000 diet.

A clear increase in the incidence and mean severity of endometrial epithelial hyperplasia was reported for female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for up to 24 months, compared to concurrent controls. Statistical analysis of the incidence of endometrial epithelial hyperplasia in all exposure groups indicated a significant increase (p < 0.01) in female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ and a significant positive trend. This provides further evidence for a proliferative effect of 700 ppm D₄ on the endometrial epithelium. These data are interpreted as evidence for induction of endometrial epithelial hyperplasia and adenomas as a result of exposure to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months.

One endometrial adenoma was diagnosed in a rat from Subgroup C that was necropsied after 12 months of exposure to 30 ppm D₄ and 12 months of recovery. One endometrial adenoma was diagnosed in a rat from the same subgroup that was exposed to 150 ppm D₄. Compared to concurrent controls, the incidence of these tumors was not statistically significant. The incidence of endometrial epithelial hyperplasia was increased in all exposure groups, compared to controls in Subgroup C. However, this increase was not dose-related and was not statistically significant, except for the group that was exposed to 10 ppm D₄. Therefore, the tumors and hyperplasia of the endometrial epithelium in Subgroup C are not considered related to D₄ exposure.

The low incidence of hyperplasia of the squamous epithelium lining the cervical lumen observed in Subgroup D rats exposed for up to 24 months and in the Subgroup C recovery group exposed to 700 ppm D₄ was not considered related to D₄ exposure. Compared to controls, the incidence of endometrial stromal polyps was increased in Subgroup C

rats exposed to D₄; however, the increase was not dose-related or considered related to D₄ exposure. This increase was not observed in Subgroup D rats.

Inhalation exposure to D₄ for 12 or 24 months increased the incidence of goblet cell hyperplasia in the nasal mucosa of male and female rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄. However, the increased incidence in Subgroup C rats exposed to D₄ was small, indicating that goblet cell hyperplasia was related to D₄ exposure. The exposed tissues returned to levels similar to those of controls when exposure was stopped for 12 months. Inhalation exposure to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months induced minimal hyperplasia of the squamous epithelium in the nasal vestibule of male and female rats. This lesion was present at a much lower incidence in D₄ rats necropsied after 24 months of exposure, suggesting that this lesion returns to normal with continued exposure.

Inhalation exposure to D₄ for up to 24 months induced the following effects in male and female rats: increased incidence of endometrial adenomas and endometrial epithelial hyperplasia in the uteri of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months; minimal to mild goblet cell hyperplasia in the nasal mucosa of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 or 24 months; and minimal hyperplasia of squamous epithelium in the nasal vestibule of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months (Lee 2004).

CLINICAL ASSESSMENT OF SAFETY

IMMUNOLOGICAL EFFECTS

In a study by Utell et al. (1997) in the section on Absorption, Distribution, Metabolism, and Excretion (In Vivo Studies - Human) earlier in the report text, immunological evaluations performed on blood samples at the same times that pulmonary function measurements were performed included the following: erythrocyte sedimentation rate, C-reactive protein, IL-6 levels, lymphocyte (CD3, CD4, CD8, CD56/16, and CD19) counts, lymphocyte proliferation and NK cell cytotoxicity in PMBC, and IL-2, γ -interferon, and TNF α production. No immunologic findings were different between air and D₄ exposures. The immunologic screening done at 3 months after the initial study also failed to identify any sensitization that might have occurred with the initial study (Utell et al. 1997).

In a study by Looney et al. (1998), immunological effects of D₄ were investigated following acute inhalation exposure. Twelve human volunteers (12 subjects; 25 to 49 years old) were exposed to 10 ppm D₄ for 1 h via a mouthpiece apparatus. Crossover exposures were separated by at least 1 week, and the order of exposure to D₄ or air was randomized. The assessment of immunotoxicity included enumeration of peripheral lymphocyte subsets and functional assays using PMBC. Because a direct test for the adjuvant effect of respiratory exposure in humans does not exist, proinflammatory cytokines and acute phase reactants in peripheral blood and markers for a systemic inflammatory response, as surrogate markers for adjuvancy, were analyzed. The test protocol (both air and D₄ exposures) was repeated after approximately 3 months to determine whether re-exposure modified immunological endpoints. Blood was obtained prior to exposure, immediately post-exposure, and at 6 and 24 h post-exposure. No immunotoxic or proinflammatory effects of respiratory exposure to D₄ were found.

Looney et al. (1998) studied the immunological effects of D₄ using 12 normal human volunteers (7 females, 5 males; 20 to 52 years old). The subjects ingested either 12 mg D₄ (in corn oil, 1 ml) per day or corn oil alone (placebo) in a double-blind, placebo-controlled crossover study design. Doses were administered for 14 days, after which a 2-week non-dosing period was observed. The non-dosing period was followed by another 14-day dosing period. The first 14-day dosing period involved D₄ and, the second, corn oil or vice versa. Blood was drawn prior to exposure and after 7 and 14

days of exposure. A variety of parameters was followed after oral exposure, including routine laboratory tests to assess toxicity (complete blood count and differential and routine chemical survey), immunological tests, clinical chemistries, and samples of blood and urine for D₄ measurements. Assays for immunotoxicity included enumeration of peripheral lymphocytes subsets and functional assays using PMBC.

Regarding blood chemistry (BUN, creatinine, calcium, phosphorus, total protein, albumin, uric acid, bilirubin, AST, SAP, LDH, and cholesterol), there were no statistically significant differences between D₄ exposure and the placebo. There was also no difference in the total white blood cell count or in the percentage of lymphocytes (determined by complete blood count and differential count) between the D₄-exposed samples and placebo-exposed samples. Additionally, there was no treatment-related effect on PHA- and alloantigen-induced proliferation, nor NK cell cytotoxicity.

The production of IL-2, γ interferon, and TNF- α were measured using the ELISA, where supernatant from human PBMCs was stimulated by PHA for 48 h *in vitro*. There was no significant difference between the placebo and D₄ in these assays, and the same was true for TNF- α production by diluted whole blood and the levels of IL-6 or serum amyloid A (SAA). There were also no significant differences in helper T cells, suppressor T cells, B cells, nor NK cells between the D₄ and placebo groups.

It was concluded that, no immunotoxic or pro-inflammatory/adjuvant effect of D₄ ingestion was observed in this study (Looney et al. 1998).

ANIMAL TOXICOLOGY DATA ON CYCLOPENTASILOXANE (D₅)

ACUTE INHALATION TOXICITY

In a study by RCC (1994b), the acute inhalation toxicity of D₅ was evaluated using 4 groups (5 males, 5 females/group) of F344 albino rats. The rats were subjected to a single 4 h, continuous (nose-only) exposure. The achieved test atmosphere concentrations (sum of the liquid and vapor phase) were as follows: 4.62 mg/l air (group 1), 6.73 mg/l air (group 2), 9.82 mg/l air (group 3), and 15.37 mg/l air (group 4). Exposure was followed by a 15-day observation period. All of the animals were killed and necropsied, and macroscopic abnormalities were recorded. The following organs were weighed and organ-to-body weight ratios determined: lungs, liver, spleen, and thymus.

Four males and 4 females in the 9.82 mg/l air and all animals in the 15.37 mg/l air exposure groups died. There were no mortalities in the 4.62 or 6.73 mg/l air exposure groups. No intergroup differences in organ weights or organ-to-body weight ratios were found. Treatment-related macroscopic observations included grey-white coloration (focal or general) in the eyes (15.37 mg/l group) and incompletely collapsed, reddish/dark red lungs (9.82 and 15.37 mg/l groups). An LC₅₀ of 8.67 mg/l air (both sexes) was reported (RCC 1994b).

SHORT-TERM INHALATION TOXICITY

In a study by Siddiqui et al. (1990), the subchronic inhalation toxicity of D₅ was evaluated using groups of Sprague-Dawley rats (weights = 125 to 175g), and the results of this study are included in the section on Subchronic Inhalation Toxicity later in the report text. In the short-term inhalation toxicity portion of this study, 2 groups of 10 rats were exposed to D₅ at concentrations of 0 and 120 ppm, respectively, for 28 days (6 h/day, 7 days/week). None of the animals died. There were no statistically significant differences in body weight or feed consumption between test and control animals. Treatment-related effects were not observed at necropsy, and the few clinopathologic changes that were of statistical significance were said to have been due to the biological variation that is typical of rats of this age and strain. The results of urinalyses were comparable with control values.

No statistically significant differences in absolute or relative liver weights were observed. The few histopathological changes observed were considered spontaneous changes that were typical of rats of this age and strain and unrelated to treatment (Siddiqui et al. 1990).

Thevanez et al. (1995) conducted a 1-month, repeated dose inhalation toxicity study to assess the toxicological profile of D₅ in Fischer 344 albino rats (body weights: 176 g to 201 g [males] and 117g to 142 g [females]). Four groups of rats (10 males, 10 females/group) were exposed (nose-only exposure chamber) to D₅ during a continuous exposure period of 6 h/day for 20 days (males) and 21 days (females). The control group (group 1) was exposed to filtered, clean air and the following groups were exposed to D₅: 0.44 mg/l air (group 2), 0.65 mg/l air (group 3), 1.50 mg/l air (group 4), and 2.27/3.06 mg/l air (group 5, exposure days 1-6/7-termination, respectively).

Treatment-related effects that were presumed to be of possible toxicological relevance were generally of low incidence and minor severity. These effects were primarily restricted to rats in the 3.06 mg/l air exposure group, and their severity and incidence were more pronounced in female rats. Furthermore, these effects were characterized mainly by various clinical signs and hematological changes that were possibly indicative of a mildly stimulated immunological response.

Morphological alterations were observed in the nasal cavity, lungs, and liver of rats exposed to 2.27/3.06 g mg/l air (Group 5). In group 5 rats, a clear increase in the incidence and severity of goblet cell proliferation in the nasal cavity, regarded as an adaptive response to an irritant, was observed. Minimum to moderate degrees of interstitial inflammation (evidence of minor organ toxicity) was observed in the lungs of group 5 rats. Changes in the liver were described as a slight degree of hepatocellular hypertrophy, also observed in group 5.

It was concluded that inhalation exposure to D₅ at concentrations up to 2.27/3.06 mg/l air was not associated with any treatment-related effects that were considered to be of toxicological relevance (Thevenaz et al. 1995).

Burns-Naas et al. (1998a) assessed the potential toxicity and effect on humoral immunity following inhalation exposure to D₅ in male and female Fischer 344 rats (groups of 25 males and females; 4 to 5 weeks old). Results relating to humoral immunity were included in the section on Immunological Effects earlier in the report text. The animals were exposed to D₅ concentrations (whole body inhalation exposure) of 0, 10, 25, 75, or 160 ppm 7 days per week (6 h/day) for 28 days. On the day after the final exposure, animals were killed (10 rats/group/sex) and complete necropsies were performed (terminal necropsy). After a 14-day non-exposure period, the remaining animals (5/sex/group) were killed and necropsies were performed (recovery necropsy). Tissue samples were collected for microscopic examination.

D₅ exposure did not cause adverse effects on body weight, feed consumption, or urinalysis parameters. A statistically significant decrease in SAP in female rats was noted at terminal necropsy (12% decrease, at 160 ppm) and at recovery necropsy. A statistically significant increase in liver weight (15% increase, female rats) was observed in the 160 ppm exposure group, and appeared to have been exposure-related. A statistically significant increase in the liver-to-body weight ratios at the end of exposure (13% increase, at 160 ppm) was also noted for female rats; this was not noted for recovery animals from the same exposure group.

In male rats, a statistically significant increase in lung weights (15% increase, at 160 ppm) was reported at the end of the exposure period. A slight (4%) increase in liver weight was also noted in this exposure group. When this increase in liver weight was expressed as a percentage of the final body weight, it was considered statistically significant. A statistically significant increase in the thymus-to-body weight ratio was also noted in the 160 ppm exposure group. The

increases in liver-to-body weight and thymus-to-body weight ratios were noted at terminal necropsy, but not at recovery. At recovery, only a significant increase in the spleen-to-body weight ratios (14 and 17% at 25 ppm and 160 ppm, respectively) was reported.

At microscopic examination, an increased incidence and severity of nasal (Level 1) goblet cell proliferation was noted in rats of both sexes exposed to 160 ppm, compared to controls. Only an increased incidence of this finding was associated with the 75 and 10 ppm exposures. An increased incidence of focal macrophage accumulation in the lung, at 160 ppm, was also associated with both sexes. Microscopic examination of the liver did not reveal any signs of treatment-related pathology, in light of the increase in liver weights.

As noted above, exposure-related increases in liver weights were observed at terminal necropsy. The results of serum chemistry analysis, organ weight measurements, and microscopic examination suggest that the slight increase in liver weight observed may not be toxicologically or biologically significant. However, based primarily on the changes in liver weights that were observed, the NOAEL for systemic toxicity was determined to be 75 ppm. The results of microscopic examination indicate that the respiratory tract is the primary target organ for D₅ inhalation exposure, where minimal inflammatory cell infiltration, interstitial inflammation, and goblet cell proliferation in the anterior nasal passages were observed. It should also be noted that, at 14 days after the end of exposure, morphological alterations (excluding goblet cell proliferation) were found to be reversible, and the same was true for the alterations in organ weights.

Overall, these data suggest that high concentration D₅ vapor inhalation provokes a minor reversible pulmonary inflammatory response and did not alter humoral immunity (Burns-Naas et al. 1998a).

SHORT-TERM ORAL TOXICITY

Crofoot et al. (1990a) performed a 28-day oral exposure study on D₅ using groups of 12 Sprague-Dawley rats (6 males, 6 females/group). Mean body weights for test animals were 276 g (males) and 233 g (females). The 2 control groups (males: 282 g; females: 226 g - males: 277 g; females: 229 g) received distilled water and sesame oil, respectively. The animals (test and controls) received doses of 1,000 or 1500 mg/kg body weight per day for 28 days, and were observed for signs of local or systemic toxicity, general appearance, behavioral abnormalities, and mortality. No treatment-related deaths, overt signs of toxicity, or changes in behavior were observed in any of the groups.

A statistical comparison of the mean body weights and feed consumption data showed no treatment-related effects between test and control groups. A statistically significant increase in absolute liver weights was observed in female rats dosed with D₅. No gross pathological changes were observed in any of the organs or tissues of male and female rats in test or control groups. It was concluded that oral administration of D₅ may produce statistically significant increases in liver weight (Crofoot et al. 1990a).

Crofoot et al (1990b) studied the short-term oral toxicity of D₅ using 5 groups of 16 (8 males, 8 females/group) Sprague-Dawley rats. Mean body weights for the 5 groups (control included) ranged from 331.12 to 341.16 g. Four groups received oral doses (via gavage) of 25, 100, 400, and 1600 mg/kg body weight, respectively. The fifth group served as the negative control (distilled water). The animals were dosed daily (5 days/week) for 2 consecutive weeks. Neither treatment-related deaths, overt signs of toxicity, nor changes in behavior were observed in any of the groups.

A statistical comparison of liver weight data between control and test groups indicated significant increases in both the absolute and relative liver weights of female rats in 100, 400, and 1600 mg/kg dose groups. Based on statistics and an interpretation of the biological effect, it was noted that treatment-related increases in liver weights were observed at

doses as low as 100 mg/kg in female rats. The effect at 25 mg/kg was said to have been unclear and it was not possible to make a decision as to the biologic and toxicologic significance of the liver weight increase in female rats. A no-observed-effect-level (NOEL) (for liver weight) of 100 mg/kg was reported for male rats. No significant changes were observed at gross pathological examination. Liver lesions, not treatment-related, were observed in 6 rats. These lesions were scattered between treatment groups and were considered typical and spontaneous for rats of this age and strain.

The results of this study indicate that oral administration of D₅ can produce increases in liver weights at doses of 100, 400, and 1600 mg/kg in female rats, and that the NOEL for D₅ in male rats is 100 mg/kg during a 14-day exposure period (Crofoot et al. 1990b).

SHORT-TERM DERMAL TOXICITY

Stanton et al. (1990) evaluated the dermal toxicity of D₅ in a 28-day study using the following groups of Sprague-Dawley rats (10 males, 10 females/group). The weight ranges were 259 to 286 g (males) and 215 to 263 g (females). The test substance was applied to dorsal skin (clipped free of hair), and the area was then covered with plastic wrap and a cloth bandage. The groups received D₅ doses of 0, 200, 800, and 1600 mg/kg, respectively, 7 days per week for 28 days. Additionally, a control and test group (5 males, 5 females per group) were treated with 0 and 1600 mg/kg body weight, respectively, and both groups were observed for reversibility, persistence, and delayed effects for a duration of 14 days after the treatment period. The animals were observed for 14 days after the cessation of daily application for reversibility, persistence, or the delayed occurrence of toxic effects. After the 28-day application period, blood and urine samples were collected and major organs were collected at necropsy for microscopic examination.

No mortality, overt signs of toxicity, or behavioral changes were observed in any of the dose groups. A statistical comparison of mean body weights and feed consumption between control and test groups indicated no treatment-related effects. There were also no statistically or biologically significant differences in hematology between control and test groups at either the terminal or recovery sacrifices. The few statistically significant differences in clinical chemistry parameters that were observed were considered within the range of normal biological variability. Treatment-related effects were not noted at histopathological examination (terminal and recovery necropsies). The presence of D (Me₂SiO₂) and T (MeSiO₃) silicone species in the urine indicate that D₅ was absorbed and metabolized when applied dermally to rats.

It was concluded that the dermal application of D₅ at doses up to 1600 mg/kg for a period of 28 consecutive days does not produce significant toxicological effects in rats (Stanton et al. 1990).

SUBCHRONIC INHALATION TOXICITY

In a study by Siddiqui et al. (1990), the subchronic inhalation toxicity of D₅ was evaluated using groups of Sprague-Dawley rats (weights = 125 to 175g). The results of a short-term inhalation toxicity experiment from this study are included in the section on Short-Term Inhalation Toxicity earlier in the report text. Four groups of rats were exposed to 0, 60, 120, and 200 ppm D₅ 7 days per week (6h/day) for 13 weeks. With the exception of satellite group (120 ppm recovery group) animals, all rats were necropsied. Complete gross pathological examination was performed, and the following organs were perfused and fixed for possible electron microscopy: liver, brain, heart, kidneys, adrenal glands, testes, ovaries, lungs, and spleen.

None of the animals died, and clinical observations did not indicate any changes that were attributable to D₅ exposure. There were no statistically significant differences in mean body weights or feed consumption between test and control groups, and clinical pathology data were not indicative of treatment-related effects. The results of urinalyses and

hematological evaluations revealed no treatment-related effects. Compared to controls, an increase in relative liver weights was noted in female rats (120 ppm exposure) killed at the end of the study. However, by the end of the recovery period, liver weights had decreased to normal values. Neither gross nor microscopic changes considered treatment-related were observed in any of the tissues/organs of test or control rats. The NOEL for female rats was 60 ppm, based on the increased liver weight data. Under test conditions, D₅ did not appear to have either a biological or toxicologic effect in male rats (Siddiqui et al. 1990).

Burns-Naas et al. (1998b) studied the subchronic inhalation toxicity of D₅ using groups of Fischer 344 rats (~9 weeks old). The rats were exposed (nose-only inhalation) to the following D₅ target concentrations 5 days per week (6h/day) for 13 weeks: 0 (control air exposure, 30/sex/group), 26 ppm (20/sex/group), 46 ppm (20/sex/group), 86 ppm (20/sex/group), and 224 ppm (30/sex/group). The recovery groups (0 and 224 ppm) consisted of 10 rats/sex/group. For pathological examination, 20 rats/sex/group were killed at the end of the 13-week exposure period. Ten rats/sex/group were killed at the end of the recovery period. There were no clinical observations that were attributed to D₅ exposure; the animals were observed for clinical signs daily.

Of the biochemistry parameters studied, an increase in γ -GT activity at 224 ppm in both sexes was most notable. This finding was dose-related (46 to 224 ppm) in female rats and the cessation of exposure did not lead to recovery. It is important to note that other serum chemistry parameters that also reflect the status of the liver (AST and ALT activities) were not adversely affected by D₅ exposure. A decrease in serum LDH activity was also observed in female rats of 86 ppm and 224 ppm exposure groups; cessation of exposure did not lead to recovery.

An increase in absolute and/or relative liver weights was noted in rats of both sexes. Also, in both sexes, exposure-related increases in absolute and relative lung weights were noted at terminal necropsy. These changes in lung weight were observed in females, but not in males, during the recovery phase. The results of microscopic examination indicated that the lung is the primary target organ in rats following D₅ inhalation exposure. An increase in focal macrophage accumulation and interstitial inflammation were observed in the lungs of male and female rats exposed to 224 ppm. These lung changes had not resolved by the end of a 1-month period of nonexposure. The incidence of lung focal macrophage accumulation and interstitial inflammation was also slightly increased in male and female rats exposed to 86 ppm. Though liver weight was increased in both sexes, there were no microscopic findings indicating that the liver is a target organ in this study.

It was concluded that D₅ inhalation exposure (nose-only) induces minimal changes in the lung. These changes were similar in both incidence and severity to the spontaneously occurring changes that were observed in control animals. There appears to be a sex-related difference in observed endpoints, considering that females appeared more sensitive to several exposure-related alterations in toxicological parameters (Burns-Naas et al. 1998b).

CHRONIC INHALATION TOXICITY

A chronic toxicity/carcinogenicity study on Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅) was performed by Smith et al. (2005). Four groups of 96 male and 96 female Fischer 344 rats (SPF quality, CDF(F-344)/CrIBR) each, yielding a total of 768 rats, were used. Results relating to carcinogenicity are included in the Carcinogenicity section later in the report text. The rats were treated with Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅) via whole body exposure. The target exposure levels were: 0 ppm (control group 1), 10 ppm (0.15 mg/l, group 2), 40 ppm (0.6 mg/l, group 3), and 160 ppm (2.42 mg/l, group 4). The rats were exposed for 5 days/week (6 h/day). The subgroup A animals (6 males, 6 females per group) were killed after 6 months and subgroup B

animals (10 males, 10 females/group) were killed following 1 year of exposure. Subgroup C animals (20 males, 20 females/group) were killed after 1 year of exposure and 1 year of recovery. Subgroup D animals (60 males, 60 females/group) were killed following 2 years of exposure.

At all levels of exposure (10, 40, and 160 ppm), there were no test substance-related mortalities, clinical signs, or palpable masses. The results of ophthalmoscopic examinations performed during this study on D₅ are included in the section on Ocular Toxicity/Irritation later in the report text.

Body weights for D₅ treated groups were higher (statistically significant) when compared to controls. These differences occurred in group 3 (40 ppm) and group 4 (160 ppm) females of subgroups C (1 year of exposure/1 year of recovery) and subgroup D (2 years of exposure) and in all D₅-treated male rats of subgroup D (2 years of exposure). However, this finding is considered unlikely to be related to treatment because of the following: (1) no evidence of a dose relationship, (2) the numerical differences were minimal, and (3) there was little evidence of progression and it was not evident in males of subgroup C (1 year of exposure/1 year recovery). Furthermore, the differences remained evident in group 4 (160 ppm) females of subgroup C when exposures had ceased during the second year. In group 3 (40 ppm) and group 4 (160 ppm) females of subgroup D (2 years of exposure), the differences were no longer evident, and were only occasionally evident in males of subgroup D (2 years of exposure), despite continuous exposures in this subgroup.

The only possible effect on the hematological parameters was confined to a decrease in the red blood cell count, with associated changes in the mean cell volume and mean cell hemoglobin values in males at 40 ppm and 160 ppm. However, these changes were temporary and minimal, and, thus, considered to be of no toxicological importance. Furthermore, no evidence of adverse effects on hematopoietic activity was recorded.

The decrease in urea concentration and increase in cholesterol/triglycerides, proteins, and gamma glutamyl transferase in females were possibly related to treatment with D₅. These findings are suggestive of metabolic adaptive changes, primarily related to the liver. The only other treatment-related change was an increased serum calcium level in males and females receiving the 160 ppm dose. No toxicological relevance is associated with these findings, considering that the changes were minimal and not accompanied by any pathological findings.

The urinalysis changes, especially in males after 3 months, were likely treatment-related. However, these changes were small, not present at subsequent measurements, and had no pathological correlates. Thus, they were considered to have been of no toxicological importance.

The determination of D₅ levels in the plasma, fat, and liver after 6 months of exposure indicated dose-related increases, with slightly higher values in the fat and liver of females, compared to males.

The only organ weight changes that were considered possibly related to treatment with D₅ were increased liver weights in females after 6 and 12 months of exposure, and in males after 2 years of exposure. However, this finding was not present in males after 6 and 12 months or in females after 2 years. This finding also was not dose-related (not apparent in females dosed with 40 ppm), and there were no correlated findings at microscopic examination. Therefore, it was noted that this finding could be the consequence of a transient metabolic adaptation without any toxicological relevance.

Microscopic observation identified the nasal cavities, and, possibly, the uterus, as target organs. The statistically significant increased incidence of hyaline inclusions in the nasal respiratory/olfactory epithelium was noted in male and/or female rats of group 4 (160 ppm) killed after 6, 12, and 24 months; this finding was considered a non-specific

exposure-related effect. An increased incidence of hyaline inclusions was also observed in high dose (160 ppm) males following the recovery period. It was not clear from this study whether or not this increase was related to dosing with D₅. Considering that there were no other changes that were associated with a response to an irritant, such as inflammatory cell infiltration or degenerative changes in the epithelium, this finding was considered non-specific and of low toxicological importance.

No intercurrent deaths, considered exposure-related, occurred in this 2-year inhalation toxicity study with Cyclopentasiloxane in Fischer 344 rats. The gross findings observed in the study were considered unrelated to test substance exposure. The increased incidence of hyaline inclusions (statistically significant) in the nasal respiratory/olfactory epithelium of male and/or female rats of group 4 (160 ppm) killed after 6, 12, and 24 months represented a non-specific treatment-related effect. It is not clear from this study whether or not the increased incidence of hyaline inclusions observed in mid-dose (40 ppm) and high dose (160 ppm) rats after the recovery period is related to test substance exposure (Smith et al. 2005).

OCULAR TOXICITY/IRRITATION

Nakamura et al. (1991) evaluated the ocular toxicity of D₅ using pigmented rabbits. After D₅ (0.1 to 0.2 ml) was injected into the rabbit anterior chamber, severe corneal edema and opacification were elicited within 1 day. These symptoms worsened with time.

A combined toxicity/oncogenicity study (Smith et al. 2005) comprised 4 groups of 96 male and 96 female Fischer 344 rats (SPF quality, CDF(F-344)/CrIBR) each, yielding a total of 768 rats. The rats were treated with Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅) via whole body exposure. The target exposure levels were: 0 ppm (control group 1), 10 ppm (0.15 mg/l, group 2), 40 ppm (0.6 mg/l, group 3), and 160 ppm (2.42 mg/l, group 4). The rats were exposed for 5 days/week (6 h/day) over a 1 to 2 year period. No test substance-related abnormal findings were observed at ophthalmoscopic examination. Additional results from this study on D₅ are summarized in the Carcinogenicity section later in the report text.

REPRODUCTIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL TOXICITY

Inhalation Studies

Holson and Stump (1996c) conducted an inhalation range-finding reproductive toxicity study of D₅ in Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats (weight ranges: 290 g to 390 g [~71-day-old males] and 233 g to 302 g [~108-day-old females]). The purpose of this study was to determine the exposure levels that would be appropriate for studying the potential adverse effects of D₅ on male and female reproduction in rats. D₅ was administered via whole body inhalation to 2 groups of 22 F₀ male and 22 F₀ female rats at exposure concentrations of 26 ppm and 132 ppm, respectively, 6 h per day for 28 days. The F₀ animals were exposed prior to mating and through the day of necropsy, except for F₀ females, where exposure was suspended from GD 21 through lactation day 4. The control group was exposed to clean, filtered air.

All of the F₀ females were allowed to deliver and rear their pups to weaning on PND 21. The offspring were potentially exposed in utero (placental transfer), through suckling and/or dermal contact during lactation, and via 6-h exposures after weaning until the animals were killed on PND 28. Surviving F₀ dams were necropsied on lactation day 21 and the F₀ males were necropsied after the breeding period. Reproductive parameters (fertility, mating, days between pairing and coitus, gestation, and parturition) were not adversely affected by D₅ exposure at concentrations of 26 ppm and

132 ppm. For F₀ rats that survived to the scheduled necropsies, there were no exposure-related clinical signs. Mean body weights, body weight gains, and feed consumption in F₀ males and females (during pre-breeding, gestation, and lactation periods) were unaffected by exposure to D₅ at concentrations of 26 ppm and 132 ppm. Also, no internal findings related to exposure to either concentration were noted at necropsy of F₀ males or necropsy of F₀ females on post-mating day 25 (following total litter loss on lactation day 21). At the scheduled necropsy of F₀ females on lactation day 21, the mean numbers of implantation sites and sites unaccounted for (i.e., implantation sites not producing a pup) in exposed groups were similar to control values.

Mean live litter size was unaffected by D₅ exposure (26 or 132 ppm). Except for total litter loss in 2 litters from the 132 ppm exposure group, there were no exposure-related effects on the number of dead pups on PND 0 or on pup viability throughout lactation. There were also no exposure-related signs in pups from the 26 ppm or 132 ppm exposure group. Also, at both exposure concentrations, F₁ pup sex ratios and mean pup weights were unaffected by D₅ exposure. No exposure-related findings were noted at necropsy of F₁ pups on PND 21 and 28 (Holson and Stump 1996c).

Crissman (2006) performed a detailed histomorphologic review of the ovaries, uterus, vagina, pituitary gland and mammary glands from D₅-high-dose exposed and control rats to discover any previously unappreciated evidence for test article-related disruption of the estrous cycle or pituitary-gonadal axis. The basis for this study is stated as follows: In the ultimate 2-year oncogenicity study on D₅, there were exposure-related increases in proliferative lesions of the uterus, including endometrial epithelial neoplasms. While there were significant differences in the incidence and apparent progression of lesions associated with the 2 test materials, the similarities suggested that a uniform and detailed expert histopathologic review of reproductive tissues from the entire series of studies with both materials was warranted.

Two series of 3 inhalation toxicology studies on D₅ (F-344 rats used; endpoints at 28 days, 90 days, 6 months, 12 months, and 24 months) were performed over more than a decade. Female reproductive effects were re-evaluated from control and high-dose groups in the following 3 inhalation studies. The original (except recuts on D₅ uterine tumor slides) hematoxylin and eosin stained slides of the ovary, uterus, vagina, pituitary, and mammary gland from the high-dose and control groups were re-examined. The highest targeted exposure concentration, the exposure method (whole body or nose only), and the targeted number of animals in each study group (N) are stated below.

D₅ Studies:

Number DC 8258: One-Month Repeated Dose Inhalation Toxicity Study with Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (Cyclopentasiloxane) in Rats. [initial 2.2 mg/l [145 ppm], increased to 3.4 mg/l (224 ppm) after 6 exposures; nose only] The high dose was raised because of the lack of apparent toxic effects. N = 10 (Thevanez et al. 1995)

Study Number DC 8259: Three-Month Repeated Dose Inhalation Toxicity Study with Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (Cyclopentasiloxane) in Rats with a One-Month Recovery Period. [3.4 mg/l (224 ppm); nose only; regular study N = 20, recovery group, N = 10] (Burns-Naas et al. 1998b)

Study number: DC 9346: Decamethylcyclopentasiloxane (D5) [cyclopentasiloxane]: A 24-Month Combined Chronic Toxicity and Oncogenicity Whole Body Vapor Inhalation Study in Fischer-344 Rats [160 ppm (2.42 mg/l), whole body, 6-month interim, N = 6; 12-month interim, N = 10; 24-month terminal, N = 60; recovery group, N = 20] (Smith et al. 2005)

The nose-only exposure method and very high dose levels, theoretically yielding mixed vapor and aerosol exposures, as well as spontaneous deaths and other indicators of significant stress confound assigning effects as test article-related in the 28- and 90-day studies. One year of exposure to 160 ppm D₅ resulted in equal percentages of

control and treated groups exhibiting abnormal estrous cycle (60%), with 5 of 6 of the animals in the controls in an estrogenic phase at necropsy as contrasted with 5 of 6 of the animals in the high-exposure group in a progestagenic phase. After 2-years, the ultimate finding of malignant endometrial tumors, without any preceding hyperplasia, with D₅ was confirmed and is consistent with the original reports (Crissman 2006).

GENOTOXICITY

Isquith et al. (1988) studied the *in vitro* genotoxicity of D₅ using the following assays: plate incorporation assay (*S. typhimurium* strains TA1535, TA 1537, TA1538, TA98, and TA100), mitotic gene conversion assay (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain D4), the *E. coli* pol A-repair assay for DNA damage (*E. coli* strain W3110 (pol A⁺), and the mouse lymphoma assays (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells). The following were evaluated in the mouse lymphoma tissue culture assays: forward gene mutation, SCE, DNA damage, and chromosome aberration potential. All of the assays were performed with and without metabolic activation. Details relating to the conduct of these assays and the results for positive/negative controls are included under the Genotoxicity subheading in an earlier section of this safety assessment that is entitled Animal Toxicology Data on Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃).

In the plate incorporation, mitotic gene conversion, and DNA damage assays, D₅ was tested at doses of 0.001 to 5 µl/plate. In each of the 3 assays, there was no evidence of increases in the incidence of reverse mutation, mitotic recombination, or DNA damage, respectively, either with or without metabolic activation. Ethanol and hydrochloric acid (control agents; potential organosilane hydrolysis products), also produced no significant endpoint increases in the respective microbial assays.

The following doses of D₅ were tested in the mouse lymphoma assays: forward mutation assay (0.8 to 12.5 µl/ml [without metabolic activation] and 0.8 to 6.4 µl/ml [with metabolic activation]); SCE assay (0.8 to 25.0 µg/ml), and chromosome aberrations assay (0.8 to 25.0 µg/ml). In the forward gene mutation assay, D₅ did not produce a positive response, as measured by a dose-dependent, reproducible highest relative mutation frequency (HRMF) of 2.5 or greater. In the SCE and chromosome aberrations assays, D₅ was not genotoxic. D₅ also did not produce a positive response in the DNA/alkaline elution assay (Isquith et al. 1988).

In the chromosome aberrations assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), aberrations in concurrent solvent controls (10 µl/ml ethanol) were noted in 0 to 4% of the cells, with 0 to 2% having 2 or more aberrations. Chemicals that caused aberrations in 8% or more of the cells were classified as having clastogenic (chromosome damaging) potential. EMS (positive control) produced a range of 22 to 40% aberrant cells; 0 to 6% of the cells had 2 or more aberrations. DMN (positive control) produced 13 to 38% aberrant cells; 0 to 20% of the cells had 2 or more aberrations. D₅ was not genotoxic.

Sokolowski (2003) conducted a study to investigate the potential of D₅ (in ethanol) to induce gene mutations in the plate incorporation test (experiment 1) and in the pre-incubation test (experiment 2) using *S. typhimurium* strains TA1535, TA1537, TA98, and TA100, and *E. coli* strain WP2 uvrA. The assay was performed with and without metabolic activation at the following test concentrations of D₅: 33, 100, 333, 1000, 2500, and 5000 µg/plate. Sodium azide, 4-nitro-o-phenylenediamine, and methyl methane sulfonate served as positive controls without metabolic activation, and 2-aminoanthracene served as the positive control with metabolic activation. Ethanol served as the solvent control. All strains incubated with D₅ had normal background growth up to 5000 µg/plate, with and without metabolic activation.

There was no evidence of toxic effects, i.e., reduction in the number of revertants, in any of the strains tested

either with or without metabolic activation. No substantial increase in revertant colony numbers was observed in any of the strains over the range of concentrations tested; this was true both with and without metabolic activation. Additionally, there was no tendency toward higher mutation rates with increasing test concentrations in the range below the generally acknowledged border of biological relevance. The positive controls induced a distinct increase in revertant colonies. D₅ did not induce gene mutations by base pair changes or frameshifts in the genome of all of the strains tested, and, thus, was considered nonmutagenic in this assay (Sokolowski 2003).

Schulz (2003) evaluated the genotoxicity of D₅ in Chinese hamster V79 cells using the chromosome aberrations test *in vitro*. Two independent experiments were conducted (with and without metabolic activation), and each involved 2 parallel cultures. D₅ was tested at concentrations up to 5 µl/ml. Ethanol served as the solvent control. Ethylmethane sulfonate (EMS) and cyclophosphamide served as positive controls without and with metabolic activation, respectively. In experiments 1 and 2 without metabolic activation, toxic effects were observed. These toxic effects were indicated by reduced cell numbers and/or mitotic indices of below 50%, compared to the control. In experiments 1 and 2 with metabolic activation, no toxic effects were observed. Compared to the controls, there was no increase in the frequencies of polyploid metaphases. In the cytogenetic experiments, in the absence and presence of metabolic activation, no statistically significant and biologically relevant increase in the number of cells carrying structural chromosome aberrations was observed. The positive controls induced statistically significant increases ($p < 0.05$) in the number of cells with structural chromosome aberrations. It was concluded that D₅ did not induce structural chromosome aberrations, and, thus, was considered non-clastogenic both with and without metabolic activation when tested up to the highest recommended concentrations and up to cytotoxic concentrations, respectively. Toxic effects were observed in the test without activation.

Honarvar (2004) analyzed the genotoxic potential of D₅ in Fischer-344 rats using the *in vivo* unscheduled DNA synthesis (UDS) and micronucleus assays. Groups of 12 Fischer 344 rats (6 males and 6 females per group) of the SPF quality (CDF (F-344)/CrIBR) were used. Male rats were 8 weeks old and female rats were 9 to 12 weeks old. Test animals were exposed to 160 ppm D₅ (whole body vapor inhalation exposure, 6 h/day) for 7 days. Filtered air was used for the negative control groups. The positive control for the UDS assay was 2-acetylaminofluorene (2-AAF) and the positive control for the micronucleus assay was cyclophosphamide. Positive control animals were treated in a manner identical to that of the air control groups. However, after the last exposure, positive control animals were also dosed orally (by gavage) with the positive control substances.

For the analysis of DNA repair (UDS), the respective animals were killed at 5 h or 6h and at 16 h after the final treatment. Primary hepatocytes were obtained by liver perfusion and hepatocyte cultures were established and exposed for 4 h to methyl-³H-thymidine (³HTdR), which is incorporated if UDS occurs. For each experimental group, controls included, hepatocytes from 6 treated animals per sex were assessed for the occurrence of UDS. The viability of the hepatocytes was not substantially affected due to *in vivo* treatment with D₅. Compared to the current air controls, D₅ did not induce UDS induction. Treatment with the positive control (2-AAF) revealed distinct increases in the number of nuclear and net grain counts.

For the micronucleus assay, bone marrow cells of the respective animals were collected for micronuclei analysis at 24 h after the last treatment. For each experimental group, controls included, bone marrow cells from 6 treated animals per sex were assessed for the occurrence of micronuclei. Following treatment with D₅, the number of

polychromatic erythrocytes (PCEs) was not substantially decreased, as compared to the mean value for PCEs in the vehicle control group. This means that D₅ did not exert cytotoxic effects in the bone marrow. Compared to the air controls, there was no biologically relevant or statistically significant enhancement of the frequency of the detected micronuclei following D₅ administration. Treatment with the positive control (CPA) resulted in a substantial increase in the induced micronucleus frequency.

It was concluded that D₅ induced neither DNA damage leading to increased repair synthesis in the hepatocytes of treated rats nor micronuclei (Honarvar 2004).

CARCINOGENICITY

A combined chronic toxicity/oncogenicity study (Smith et al. 2005) comprised 4 groups of 96 male and 96 female Fischer 344 rats (SPF quality, CDF(F-344)/CrIBR) each, yielding a total of 768 rats. Test results other than those relating to carcinogenicity are included in sections on Chronic Inhalation Toxicity and Ocular Toxicity/Irritation earlier in the report text. The rats were treated with Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅) via whole body exposure. The target exposure levels were: 0 ppm (control group 1), 10 ppm (0.15 mg/l, group 2), 40 ppm (0.6 mg/l, group 3), and 160 ppm (2.42 mg/l, group 4). The rats were exposed for 5 days/week (6 h/day). The subgroup A animals (6 males, 6 females per group) were killed after 6 months and subgroup B animals (10 males, 10 females/group) were killed following 1 year of exposure. Subgroup C animals (20 males, 20 females/group) were killed after 1 year of exposure and 1 year of recovery. Subgroup D animals (60 males, 60 females/group) were killed following 2 years of exposure.

The authors noted that the increased incidence (statistically significant) of endometrial adenocarcinomas of the uterus of high-dose (160 ppm) rats following 2 years of exposure (subgroup D) may have been exposure-related, considering that no such neoplasms were diagnosed in control rats of this subgroup. However, it was noted that these neoplasms also occur occasionally in control rats. Therefore, the relationship to exposure is unclear. All of the other findings diagnosed in this study were considered incidental findings that are commonly observed in rats of this age and strain (Smith et al. 2005).

According to the EPA (2008), the final results of the 2-year chronic toxicity and carcinogenicity study on D₅ (in rats) were received from Dow Corning in July of 2005 (see preceding study by Smith et al. 2005). These results confirmed the significant increase in uterine tumors, following inhalation exposure to 160 ppm D₅ (highest concentration tested), that was reported in preliminary study results. A significant increase in uterine tumors was not observed at lower doses of D₅ (10 or 40 ppm). In addition to the 2-year chronic toxicity/carcinogenicity study, EPA received a series of studies that were conducted by Dow Corning to determine the specific mode of action for D₅-induced uterine tumors in rats.

The mode of action studies conducted by Dow Corning, received from the Silicones Environmental, Health and Safety Council of North America, are included in this CIR safety assessment (Jagannath 1978 [published as Isquith et al. 1988]; Sokolowski 2003; Honarvar 2004; You 2005; Jean 2005a,b,c,and d; Crissman 2006; Quinn 2004; Quinn 2005; Quinn 2006; Quinn et al. 2007b). Furthermore, these and other studies were taken into consideration in the safety assessment of D₅ that was completed by Environ International Corporation in 2006 (included in following section on Clinical Assessment of Safety).

CLINICAL ASSESSMENT OF SAFETY

SKIN IRRITATION AND SENSITIZATION

A study was conducted (Anonymous 2007a) to evaluate the skin irritation/sensitization potential of a heat

protection hair spray (leave-on) product containing 90.37% D₅ (undiluted). In the repeated insult patch test (RIPT), 24 h semiocclusive induction patches (test substance, 0.2 ml) were applied to the back (same site) 3 times per week for 3 consecutive weeks. The last induction patch application was followed by a 10- to 17-day non-treatment period. Challenge patches (24 h application) were then applied and reactions were scored at 24 and 72 h post-application. One-hundred ten subjects (ages and sex not stated) completed the study. During the induction/challenge phase, reactions classified as barely perceptible (0.5-level) to mild (1-level) were observed in 22 subjects. The authors noted that the skin reactivity observed was considered neither clinically meaningful irritation nor allergic in nature.

Another study (Anonymous 2007b) was conducted to evaluate the skin irritation/sensitization potential of a heat protection hair spray (leave-on) product containing 89.75% D₅ (undiluted). The RIPT was conducted according to the procedure in the preceding study. One-hundred ten subjects (ages and sex not stated) completed the study. During the induction or challenge phase, barely perceptible reactions (0.5-level) were observed in 15 subjects. The authors noted that the skin reactivity observed was considered neither evidence of clinically meaningful irritation nor allergy.

TKL Research (2008a) conducted an RIPT (occlusive patches) to evaluate the skin sensitization potential of a deodorant containing 56.3% D₅ (undiluted). Patches were applied to the infrascapular area of the back. The 106 subjects (males and females) who completed the study ranged in age from 18 to 66 years. More than 96% of the subjects had self-assessed sensitive skin. The test procedure was similar to that for the preceding 2 studies, with the exception that a 10- to 15-day nontreatment period was observed after the induction phase and challenge reactions were scored at 48 and 72 h post-application. Reactions were scored according to the following scale: 0 (no visible erythema) to 3 (severe erythema [very intense redness]). None of the subjects had reactions during induction or the challenge phase. Thus, there was no evidence of sensitization reactions to the product.

TKL Research (2008b) conducted an RIPT (occlusive patches) to evaluate the skin sensitization potential of an antiperspirant containing 55.76% D₅ (undiluted) according to the procedure in the preceding study. The 105 subjects (males and females) who completed the study ranged in age from 18 to 70 years. Reactions were scored according to the following scale: - (no reaction) to +++ (definite erythema, definite edema and vesication). None of the subjects had reactions during induction or the challenge phase. Thus, there was no evidence of sensitization reactions to the product.

SAFETY ASSESSMENT

Environ International Corporation (2006) conducted a safety assessment to evaluate the potential hazard of D₅ to various populations by defining a level at which no effects would be expected, and then comparing that to the amount of D₅ to which workers, consumers, or the general public may be exposed. Persons who may be exposed to D₅ include: workers in the manufacture of D₅ or personal care products containing D₅; workers in dry cleaning establishments that use D₅ as a replacement for other cleaning solvents; consumers who use personal care products containing D₅, including antiperspirants/deodorants and hair care/skin care products; and the general public living in the vicinity of a plant that produces or processes these materials.

The safety assessment involved a critical review of the available toxicity and oncogenicity studies, as well as supporting information, including toxicokinetic data, mutagenicity and genotoxicity, reproductive/developmental toxicity, and immunotoxicity studies. These data were discussed as part of the hazard assessment. The review of these and other supporting data, in particular those studies designed to elucidate the mode of action (MoA) for observed effects in laboratory animals, was considered as part of a weight-of-evidence evaluation.

Following the hazard assessment, a dose-response assessment was performed to identify the dose associated

with any observed effects that were relevant for extrapolation across species and for quantifying the dose-response relationship in order to define the Point of Departure (POD), as defined by the EPA. The relevance of the MoA of the key findings was a significant determinant of the approach for the dose-response assessment. The dose-response assessment was completed using a PBPK model to convert the experimental concentrations in the bioassay to human equivalent exposures, defined as the internal dose-metric, AUC, in blood.

An exposure assessment was conducted using this PBPK model with human parameter values (for both physiological parameters, such as ventilation rate or cardiac output, and for D₅-specific parameters, such as partition coefficients) to develop estimated internal dose-metrics that were unique to the receptor, route of exposure, and exposure pattern. Characterization of exposure scenarios and estimation of D₅ intake for the selected receptors and modes of exposure (i.e., worker, consumer, general public) were conducted.

Finally, Margins of Safety (MOS) were developed, which compared the AUC for the POD to the AUC for the estimated internal dose metric estimated for each receptor and exposure scenario. The relative magnitude of the MOS estimated for selected receptors exposed by different routes of exposure was evaluated. Assumptions or parameter values (i.e., variables, pathways, or parameter values) contributing most to estimates of risk or to the uncertainty in this assessment were identified, and, where possible, the impact on these assessments was quantified.

Numerical estimates were put into context, and an interpretation of those estimates was made, and conclusions as to the safety to the following populations were drawn: (1) persons who work in the production of D₅, in the formulation of this material into personal care products, in the dry cleaning industry, or in the use of these products in professional settings; (2) consumers who use these personal care products, including antiperspirant/deodorants and hair care/skin care products; and (3) the general public living in the vicinity of a plant that produces or processes these materials and who may be exposed to ambient levels of D₅ released to the environment during manufacturing activities.

The internal dose-metric, AUC, based on the LED10 (lower bound on the dose corresponding to a 10% increase in risk) or the NOAEL, were compared with the internal dose metric based on the various exposure scenarios to determine if typical exposure to D₅ might represent a hazard to human health. Exposure for all 3 populations was considered to occur via dermal and/or inhalation exposure. As with the derivation of the AUC for the LED10 or the NOAEL, a PBPK model was used to estimate the internal dose-metric associated with the dermal or inhalation exposures for each population. These dose-metrics were then compared to that derived for the LED10 or the NOAEL in an MOS. An MOS is the ratio of the internal dose metric or AUC associated the POD to the internal dose metric estimated for each relevant exposure scenario.

Regardless of the POD considered for conducting a safety assessment, the MOS estimated for each exposure scenario was not greater than values that would be deemed acceptable by the appropriate regulatory agency (i.e., Occupational Safety and Health Administration [OSHA] for occupational exposure). Therefore, it could be concluded that typical exposure to D₅, whether occupationally, or through the use of D₅-containing consumer products, or to the general public, would not result in a significant human health hazard (Environ International Corporation 2006).

ANIMAL TOXICOLOGY DATA ON CYCLOHEXASILOXANE (D₆)

ACUTE ORAL TOXICITY

Pels Rijcken (1999a) studied the acute oral toxicity of D₆ using 6-week-old, fasted Wistar rats (CrI: (WI) BR strain (outbred, SPF-Quality); 3 males and 3 females). Mean body weights for males and females were 194 g and 147 g, respectively. A single oral dose of 2000 mg/kg (2.22 ml/kg) was administered, by gavage, to each animal. The animals

were observed daily and macroscopic examination was performed after the terminal sacrifice (on day 15). None of the animals died and no clinical signs of toxicity were observed. Additionally, no abnormalities were noted at macroscopic post mortem examination. Body weight gain during the study was considered normal. The acute oral LD50 was > 2000 mg/kg.

ACUTE DERMAL TOXICITY

Pels Rijcken (1999b) evaluated the acute dermal toxicity of D₆ using ~9-month old Wistar rats (CrI: (WI) BR strain (outbred, SPF-Quality); 5 males and 5 females). Mean body weights for males and females were 356 g and 241 g, respectively. A single dose of the test substance (2000 mg/kg [2.22 ml/kg]) was applied to an area of skin that was ~10% of the total body surface (~ 25 cm² - males; ~ 18 cm² - females). The test substance was maintained in contact with the skin with a dressing consisting of a surgical gauze patch that was covered with aluminum foil and Coban flexible bandage. For females, micropor tape was also used for fixation of the bandages. Dressings were removed after a 24-h contact period. The animals were observed for clinical signs at periodic intervals up until day 15, at which time the animals were killed and subjected to necropsy.

None of the animals died and clinical signs were not noted in any of the animals tested. Additionally, no abnormalities were observed at macroscopic post mortem examination. The mean body weight gain during the observation period was within the range that is expected for rats that are used in this type of study. The acute dermal LD50 for D₆ was > 2000 mg/kg (Pels Rijcken et al. 1999b).

SHORT-TERM ORAL TOXICITY

Crofoot et al. (1990a) performed a 28-day oral exposure study using groups of 12 Sprague-Dawley rats (6 males, 6 females/group). Mean body weights for test animals were 278 g (males) and 229 g (females). The 2 control groups (males: 282 g; females: 226 g - males: 277 g; females: 229 g) received distilled water and sesame oil, respectively. The animals (test and controls) received doses of 1,000 or 1500 mg/kg body weight per day for 28 days, and were observed for signs of local or systemic toxicity, general appearance, behavioral abnormalities, and mortality. No treatment-related deaths, overt signs of toxicity, or changes in behavior were observed in any of the groups.

A statistical comparison of the mean body weight and feed consumption data showed no treatment-related effects between test and control groups. A statistical comparison of organ weight data between test and control groups did not indicate a significant increase in the relative and absolute liver weights of male and female rats dosed with D₆. No gross pathological changes were observed in any of the organs or tissues of male and female rats in test or control groups (Crofoot et al. 1990a).

OCULAR TOXICITY/IRRITATION

Pels Rijcken (1999d) studied the ocular irritation potential of D₆ using male New Zealand albino rabbits (SPF-Quality; 8 weeks old). The test substance (0.1 ml) was instilled into 1 eye of each of the 3 rabbits, and reactions were scored at 1, 2, 48, and 72 h post-instillation. None of the animals died and there were no signs of systemic toxicity. Instillation of the test substance induced conjunctival irritation (redness) in all 3 rabbits, and all reactions had cleared within 24 h. Neither iridial irritation nor corneal opacity was observed. Following treatment of the eyes with 2% fluorescein at 24 h post-instillation, there was no evidence of corneal epithelial damage in any of the animals. The test substance did not induce staining of the periocular tissues.

SKIN IRRITATION

Pels Rijcken (1999c) performed a study to evaluate the skin irritation or corrosion potential of a single dose of D₆,

administered to intact skin of 3 male New Zealand albino rabbits (SPF quality; 6 weeks old; body weights < 35 kg). The test substance (0.5 ml) was applied to clipped skin of the flank of each animal using a Metalline patch that was mounted on Micropore tape. The tape was wrapped around the abdomen and secured with Coban elastic bandage. The dressing was removed at 4 h post-application. Irritation reactions were scored at approximately 1, 24, 48, and 72 h post-removal according to the following scales: 0 (no erythema) to 4 (severe erythema [beet redness]) and 0 (no edema) to 4 (severe edema [raised more than 1 mm and extending beyond area of exposure]). Skin histopathology was not performed. None of the animals died and no signs of systemic toxicity were noted. The 4-h dermal application of D₆ did not induce irritation, corrosion, or staining in any of the animals tested.

SKIN SENSITIZATION

Pels Rijcken (1999e) studied the skin sensitization potential of D₆ using the maximization test. Ten female albino guinea pigs (Himalayan strain, ~4 weeks old, SPF-quality) comprised the test group, and 5 female guinea pigs served as controls (corn oil = control). The test animals were intradermally injected and epidermally exposed to undiluted D₆, and the 5 control guinea pigs were treated similarly with corn oil. Approximately 24 h prior to epidermal induction exposure, all of the animals were treated with 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate. At 2 weeks after epidermal application, all of the animals were challenged with undiluted D₆ and the vehicle. One week later, the animals were subjected to a second challenge with 50% D₆ and 20% D₆.

Following the first challenge, grade 1 skin reactions were observed among 3 test animals and 1 control animal in response to undiluted D₆. After the second challenge, no reactions to 50% D₆ or 20% D₆ were observed. Based on the responses to undiluted D₆ during the first challenge phase, it was not possible to arrive at a conclusion regarding the sensitization rate. Considering that comparable reactions were observed in test and control guinea pigs, these reactions were described as signs of primary irritation. Based on the results of the second challenge phase, it was concluded that there was no evidence that D₆ had caused skin hypersensitivity in guinea pigs. This is based on the observation that no responses to 50% D₆ or 20% D₆ were observed in test animals. These results indicate a sensitization rate of 0% (Pels Rijcken 1999e).

REPRODUCTIVE AND DEVELOPMENTAL TOXICITY

Oral Studies

Siddiqui (2005) conducted a study to evaluate the potential toxicity of Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆) in a combined repeated oral gavage toxicity study that included reproductive/developmental toxicity screening in groups of Sprague-Dawley albino rats (CrI:CD® (SD) IGS BR VaF/Plus® strain, 10 rats/sex/group). Weights ranged from 172.6 to 254.3 g (females) and from 284.9 to 386.2 g (males). The test substance was administered in corn oil daily (7 days/week) at doses of 0, 100, 330, or 1000 mg/kg/day for up to 45 consecutive days. Females were divided into toxicity and reproductive effects groups. The same males were used for both the toxicity and reproductive phases of the study. All males and toxicity group females were treated for 28 and 29 days, respectively. Females of the reproductive effects groups were treated for 14 days prior to mating, during mating, during gestation, and up to and including postpartum day 3.

The animals were observed twice daily for mortality, morbidity, and moribundity. Clinical examinations were performed daily after dosing. Complete necropsy was performed on all males and toxicity group females. Microscopic examination was performed on protocol-specified tissues from the control and 1000 mg/kg dose males and toxicity group females. The thyroid glands and lungs of both sexes and the livers from females were also examined (100 and 330

mg/kg/day groups).

Mating was initiated after 2 weeks of dosing and continued for up to a maximum of 14 days. Both dams and pups were killed on post partum day 4 and examined for external gross lesions. The number of corpora lutea and the number of uterine implantation sites were determined for all reproductive females. The reproductive and developmental parameters evaluated were as follows: evidence of mating, pregnancy, duration of gestation, mean litter size, mean litter weight, mean ratio of live births/litter size, and sex ratio.

The oral gavage dosing of male and female Sprague-Dawley rats with D₆ (in corn oil) at doses up to 1000 mg/kg/day for 28 to 46 consecutive days was generally well-tolerated. There were no effects on clinical signs, body weights, or feed consumption. No treatment-related changes were observed in any FOB or motor activity parameters. There were no changes in hematology; particularly, there were no changes in serum chemistry that were clearly attributable to treatment. In males, prothrombin time was prolonged at the 2 highest dose levels; however, there were no clinical indications of clotting abnormalities. Absolute and/or relative organ weight increases were observed in the liver and kidneys (both sexes) and in the adrenal glands (females only). Except for the liver (in females), dose level effects on organ weight were not apparent. The authors noted that historical Dow Corning laboratory control data cast further doubt on the significance of apparent liver and kidney weight increases.

Histopathological findings included an increase in periportal lipidosis in the liver of females at all doses, but without a dose-related effect on incidence or severity. This finding for the liver was considered of minimal toxicologic significance. Follicular cell hypertrophy of the thyroid gland (both sexes) was also reported, and there was no dose-related effect on the incidence in males and no effect on the severity in either sex. This finding for the thyroid gland was considered to be a secondary and adaptive effect. Granulomatous inflammation of the lungs was observed in 1 to 4 treated rats/group, but not in controls; there was no dose-related effect on incidence or severity. The finding for the lungs was considered an artifact of the route of administration. Though an increase (not statistically significant) in the number of sperm-positive, non-gravid females was observed in the high-dose group, no other effects were identified in any of the reproductive or developmental parameters that were evaluated.

Based on study results for the administration of D₆ by repeated dose oral gavage, the NOAEL was 1000 mg/kg/day for systemic toxicity, reproductive performance, and developmental endpoints (Siddiqui 2005).

GENOTOXICITY

Verspeek-Rip (1999) evaluated the mutagenicity of D₆ in the *S. typhimurium* reverse mutation assay using the following *S. typhimurium* strains: TA 98, TA100, TA1535, and TA1537. The mutagenicity of D₆ was also evaluated in the *E. coli* reverse mutation assay using *E. coli* strain WP₂uvrA. In both assays, D₆ was tested at concentrations up to 1000 µg/plate both with and without metabolic activation. The bacterial background lawn was not reduced at all concentrations tested and there was no increase in the number of revertants.

D₆ did not induce a dose-related increase in the number of revertant (His⁺) colonies in any of the 4 *S. typhimurium* strains either with or without metabolic activation. D₆ also did not induce a dose-related increase in the number of revertant (Trp⁺) colonies in *E. coli* strain WP₂uvrA either with or without metabolic activation. The results of this *E. coli* assay were confirmed in an independently repeated experiment. Based on the results of this study, it was concluded that D₆ is not mutagenic in the *S. typhimurium* reverse mutation assay or in the *E. coli* reverse mutation assay (Verspeek-Rip 1999).

SUMMARY

CYCLOMETHICONE

According to the most recent published version of the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook*, Cyclomethicone is a generic name for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds that conform to the formula included in Figure 1 in this safety assessment, where n has a value between 3 and 7. The INC intends to revise the INCI monograph definition of Cyclomethicone to state that n has a value between 4 and 6, which more accurately reflects the current composition of Cyclomethicone that is used in the personal care industry. This assessment includes Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃) because it is being detected in cosmetic products and because it has been identified as a contaminant of D₄.

Cyclomethicone functions as a hair conditioning agent, skin-conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent in cosmetic products. Frequency of use data provided by FDA in 2009 indicate that this ingredient is being used in 1499 cosmetic products. Data provided by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 indicate that Cyclomethicone has been used at concentrations up to 89%.

Reportedly, the gel of silicone gel-filled breast implants consists of 1% to 2% low molecular weight silicones with structures identified mainly as cyclic compounds such as the following: D₃, D₄, D₅, D₆, and D₇. The results of a GC/MS analysis of breast implant distillate were as follows: D₃ (18%), D₄ (60%), D₅ (20%), and D₆ (2%). Low molecular weight linear siloxanes (< 1%) and platinum (40 mg/kg distillate) were also detected.

After CD-1 mice were injected s.c. with breast implant distillate consisting primarily of low molecular weight cyclosiloxanes (D₃ through D₇), D₇ was the only cyclosiloxane that was not detectable in organs (heart, kidney, and lungs included). Furthermore, study results indicated that low molecular weight cyclosiloxanes persist in the organs of mice for at least 1 year after a single s.c. injection, and that D₅ and D₆ appear to persist longer in the organs when compared to D₄.

The results of 2 acute inhalation toxicity studies indicated no adverse effects (10% Cyclomethicone [average n = 4] aerosol burst) and moderate liver pathology (200 ppm Cyclomethicone [average n = 4]), respectively, in rats.

In a study involving patients with rosacea, the removal of Cyclomethicone from a sunscreen lotion resulted in a significantly more irritating preparation.

Cyclomethicone (n = 4; n = 5) was not mutagenic to *Salmonella typhimurium* strains in the Ames test. Single oral doses of Antifoam A (contained ~10% cyclic oligomers) and Antifoam M (contained < 0.022% of lower molecular weight, cyclic components) were administered to human subjects. Study results indicated that the lower molecular weight cyclosiloxanes could be absorbed to some extent. In RIPTs, Cyclomethicone (average n = 4) was neither an irritant nor a sensitizer in human subjects.

CYCLOTTRISILOXANE (D₃)

Cyclotrisiloxane once was listed in the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook*, but no longer is considered to be a cosmetic ingredient. D₃ has been detected in cosmetic products, but the expectation is that it is present as an impurity.

In ovariectomized estrogen receptor- α knockout (α ERKO) mice, uterine wet weights were not significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner following exposure to oral doses of D₃. Similarly, uterine peroxidase activity (marker for estrogenic activity) was not significantly increased following oral exposure.

No treatment-related deaths or overt signs of toxicity were observed in groups of Sprague-Dawley rats dosed orally with D₃ in a short-term oral toxicity study. However, a statistically significant increase in liver weight was noted.

The results of a repeated dose, inhalation reproductive/developmental toxicity study on D₃ indicated an NOAEL for

systemic toxicity of 2500 ppm in female rats, based on no adverse treatment-related effects at the highest dose tested. The NOAEL for systemic toxicity in male rats was 500 ppm, based on decreased seminal vesicle weight, and 100 ppm, based on protein droplet nephropathy. Because a decrease in both litter size and the number of implantation sites was noted following dosing with 2500 ppm D₃, the NOAEL for reproductive/developmental toxicity was considered to be 500 ppm.

D₃ lacked significant clastogenic activity in *in vivo* cytogenetic tests involving rat bone marrow cells. In the plate incorporation (Ames test) and mitotic gene conversion and DNA damage assays, positive results for D₃ were not observed with or without metabolic activation. In the forward gene mutation assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₃ did not produce a positive response.

In the SCE assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₃ was genotoxic and a dose-response was observed with and without metabolic activation. In the chromosome aberrations assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₃ was genotoxic with, but not without, metabolic activation. D₃ did not produce positive results in the DNA/alkaline elution assay.

CYCLOTETRASILOXANE (D₄)

Cyclotetrasiloxane is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 4, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 5, 6, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Cyclotetrasiloxane functions as a hair conditioning agent, skin-conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent in cosmetic products. Frequency of use data provided by FDA in 2009 indicate that this ingredient is being used in 56 cosmetic products. Data provided by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 indicate that Cyclotetrasiloxane has been used at concentrations up to 28%.

D₃ and D₅ have been listed as impurities/accompanying contaminants of D₄.

The results of *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies indicate that D₄ is percutaneously absorbed to a very small extent. Other results showed that the absorption of D₄ in animals after oral dosing was significantly influenced by the carrier; D₄ in corn oil was readily absorbed. In inhalation studies involving Fischer 344 rats of both sexes, ¹⁴C-D₄ was excreted in the expired air, urine, and feces; the expired air and urine appeared to have been the primary routes of excretion in most of the studies. High exposure animals excreted more radioactivity in the expired volatiles and CO₂ than did low exposure animals in one study, and female Fischer 344 rats appeared to have metabolized D₄ more readily than did female Sprague-Dawley rats in another study.

Following repeated *i.v.* dosing with ¹⁴C-D₄, there was substantial accumulation in tissues; the main areas of concentration of radioactivity were the fat, liver, and kidneys. In another *i.v.* dosing study, administered ¹⁴C-D₄ was excreted in the urine primarily as dimethylsilanediol and methylsilanetriol.

PBPK models that characterize the pharmacokinetics of D₄ following various routes of exposure have been developed. ¹⁴C-D₄ was metabolized by human liver microsomes *in vitro* to a single metabolite, named M8. Though the conversion of D₄ to M8 did not exceed 10%, M8 formation was not proportional to protein concentration or the incubation time.

D₄ induced weak estrogenic and antiestrogenic activity that was several orders of magnitude less potent than ethinyl estradiol, and many times less potent than the weak phytoestrogen coumestrol in a study involving Sprague-Dawley rats and Fischer 344 rats. In ovariectomized estrogen receptor- α knockout (α ERKO) mice, uterine wet weights were significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner following exposure to oral doses of D₄. Similarly, uterine peroxidase activity (marker for estrogenic activity) was significantly increased following oral exposure. Inhalation exposure to D₄ at

high concentrations attenuated the pre-ovulatory surge and significantly decreased the proportion of female rats that ovulated. D₄ was also found to act as a pituitary dopamine receptor agonist (D₂ receptor) using an *in vivo* Fischer 344 rat model.

Sprague-Dawley rats injected with D₄ did not show signs of arthritis; however the incidence of arthritis in rats tested with 1% in silicone oil was 1 in 10 rats.

A study was conducted to determine whether the components of the silicone breast implant (silicone oil, silicone gel, and D₄) potentiate the antibody response to BSA in A/J mice. Results indicated that both D₄ and silicone gel potentiated the production of antibodies to BSA. When data from an inhalation study were analyzed as antibody forming cells (AFC) /spleen or when normalized as AFC/10⁶ splenocytes, there were no differences in immune competence between D₄-exposed Fischer 344 rats and room air controls; therefore, D₄ did not cause alterations in immune system function. In an *in vitro* study, D₄ and D₅ (in a serum-free medium) inhibited phytohemagglutinin A (PHA)-induced proliferation of human peripheral blood mononuclear cells. This inhibitory effect was completely reversed by the addition of small amounts of serum or plasma to the serum-free medium.

In an *in vitro* study, D₄ (in a serum-free medium) inhibited phytohemagglutinin A (PHA)-induced proliferation of human peripheral blood mononuclear cells. This inhibitory effect was completely reversed by the addition of small amounts of serum or plasma to the serum-free medium.

In an acute inhalation toxicity study involving F-344 rats, the LC₅₀ was estimated to be 36 mg/l. In an acute i.p. toxicity study involving CD-1 mice, significant injury to tissues (i.e., histopathologic changes in the liver and lungs, and elevated serum enzymes) was noted.

In a short term inhalation toxicity study, a statistically significant increase in relative liver weight (treatment-related) was reported for female hamsters and male and female mice, but not guinea pigs or rabbits exposed to D₄. In another short-term inhalation study, liver weights (F-344 rats) increased in a statistically significant, dose-related manner; thymus and adrenal gland weights were significantly increased in the highest and second highest dose groups. The results of short-term oral toxicity studies did not reveal any treatment-related adverse effects in rats or rabbits.

In subchronic inhalation toxicity studies, a statistically significant increase in liver weight was observed. This finding was reported for male and female rats, mice, and hamsters, but not for rabbits or guinea pigs, exposed to 700 ppm D₄. Additionally, this finding was reported in a chronic inhalation toxicity study involving Fischer 344 rats. The primary target organs affected by chronic D₄ exposure included the uterus, respiratory tract, kidney, and liver.

Following the injection of D₄ into the anterior chamber in rabbits, severe corneal edema and opacification were elicited within 1 day and the symptoms worsened with time. In a 24-month chronic toxicity study, ocular examinations conducted 2 weeks before the rats were killed did not reveal exposure-related ocular lesions.

In reproductive and developmental toxicity studies, disruption of the female rat reproductive cycle, and a reduction in fertility and litter sizes were noted following inhalation exposure to a high concentration of D₄ (700 ppm) in Sprague-Dawley rats. High oral doses of D₄ (1000 mg/kg/day) in New Zealand White rabbits also resulted in increased post-implantation loss. However, it is important to note that there were no treatment-related malformations at these levels of inhalation/oral exposure. In rats, the prolonged estrous cycles and decreased mating and fertility indices observed following high levels of D₄ inhalation exposure were consistent with suppression of or delaying the LH surge, as well as acceleration of the onset of female reproductive senescence.

In the plate incorporation (Ames test), mitotic gene conversion, and DNA damage assays, positive results for D₄

were not observed with or without metabolic activation. Forward gene mutation assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells) results for D₄ were negative.

In the SCE assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₄ induced a statistically significant response at one dose level, but a dose-response relationship was not obtained. In the chromosome aberrations assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₄ was genotoxic, with, but not without, metabolic activation. D₄ did not produce positive results in the DNA/alkaline elution assay.

Inhalation exposure to D₄ for up to 24 months induced the following effects in male and female rats: increased incidence of endometrial adenomas and endometrial epithelial hyperplasia in the uteri of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 24 months; minimal to mild goblet cell hyperplasia in the nasal mucosa of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 or 24 months; and minimal hyperplasia of squamous epithelium in the nasal vestibule of rats exposed to 700 ppm D₄ for 12 months.

According to model calculations, the % of the applied dose of D₄ that was absorbed into the systemic circulation of male and female subjects following application to the axillae was 0.12% and 0.309%, respectively. More than 83% of the chemical that reached the systemic circulation was eliminated via exhalation within 24 h. Following inhalation exposure to ¹⁴C-D₄, ¹⁴C-labeled metabolites equivalent to 30% of the D₄ uptake, but not D₄, were recovered from the urine. The following urinary metabolites were identified: trimethyldisiloxane-1,1,3,3-tetrol; tetramethylsiloxane-1,3-diol; hexamethyltrisiloxane-1,5-diol; methylsilanetriol; dimethylsiloxane-1,3,3,3-teriol; and dimethylsilanediol.

Inhalation exposure to or oral dosing (in corn oil) with D₄ did not cause immunotoxic or proinflammatory effects in human subjects.

CYCLOPENTASILOXANE (D₅)

Cyclopentasiloxane is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 5, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 6, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Cyclopentasiloxane functions as a hair conditioning agent, skin-conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent in cosmetic products. Frequency of use data provided by FDA in 2009 indicate that this ingredient is being used in 2459 cosmetic products. Data provided by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 indicate that Cyclopentasiloxane has been used at concentrations up to 93%.

The results of *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies indicate that D₅ is percutaneously absorbed to a very small extent. Following oral administration to rats, the major D₅ urinary metabolites were dimethylsilanediol and methylsilanetriol; parent D₅ was not excreted in the urine. In an inhalation study, ¹⁴C-D₅ was excreted in approximately equal amounts in the urine and feces of male and female Fischer 344 rats, except for male rats in the higher exposure group, where excretion was greater in the feces than in the urine. In another study, expired air was the primary route of excretion of ¹⁴C-D₅; methylsilanetriol and dimethylsilanediol were the 2 primary urinary metabolites. PBPK models that characterize the pharmacokinetics of D₅ following inhalation exposure have been developed.

In ovariectomized estrogen receptor- α knockout (α ERKO) mice, uterine wet weights were not significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner following exposure to oral doses of D₅. Similarly, uterine peroxidase activity (marker for estrogenic activity) was not significantly increased following oral exposure. D₅ was found to act as a pituitary dopamine receptor agonist (D₂ receptor) using an *in vivo* Fischer 344 rat model.

In an *in vitro* study, D₅ (in a serum-free medium) inhibited phytohemagglutinin A (PHA)-induced proliferation of human peripheral blood mononuclear cells. This inhibitory effect was completely reversed by the addition of small

amounts of serum or plasma to the serum-free medium.

In an acute inhalation toxicity study of D₅ involving F-344 rats, and LC50 of 8.67 mg/l air was reported. In a short-term inhalation study involving rats at concentrations up to 2.27/3.06 mg/l air, there were no treatment-related effects that were considered to be of toxicological relevance. Short-term inhalation exposure to 120 ppm D₅ did not result in treatment-related gross or microscopic changes in rats. Based on microscopic findings from a short-term inhalation study (rats, concentrations up to 160 ppm), the respiratory tract is the primary target organ for D₅ inhalation exposure. The NOAEL for systemic toxicity was 75 ppm in this study.

No treatment-related deaths or overt signs of toxicity were observed in groups of Sprague-Dawley rats dosed orally with D₅ in a short-term oral toxicity study. However, a statistically significant increase in liver weight was noted. In a short-term dermal toxicity study on D₅ involving Sprague-Dawley rats, no significant toxicological effects were observed. Neither gross nor microscopic treatment-related changes were observed in the tissues/organs of Sprague-Dawley rats following subchronic inhalation exposure to D₅.

Following the injection of D₅ into the anterior chamber in rabbits, severe corneal edema and opacification were elicited within 1 day and the symptoms worsened with time. In a 24-month chronic toxicity study, ocular examinations conducted 2 weeks before the rats were killed did not reveal exposure-related ocular lesions.

No exposure-related findings were noted at necropsy of F₁ pups on postnatal days 21 and 28 in a reproductive toxicity study on D₅ involving Sprague-Dawley Crl:CD®BR rats.

In the plate incorporation (Ames test), mitotic gene conversion, and DNA damage assays, positive results for D₅ were not observed with or without metabolic activation. Forward gene mutation assay (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells) assay results for D₅ were negative.

In the SCE and chromosome aberrations assays (L5178Y mouse lymphoma cells), D₅ was not genotoxic, and did not produce positive results in the DNA/alkaline elution assay. D₅ induced neither DNA damage leading to increased repair synthesis in the hepatocytes of treated rats nor induced micronuclei.

The inhalation carcinogenicity of D₅ was evaluated using Fischer 344 rats. The increased incidence (statistically significant) of endometrial adenocarcinomas of the uterus in high-dose rats following 2 years of exposure may have been exposure-related, in that no such neoplasms were diagnosed in control rats. However, it was noted that these neoplasms also occur occasionally in control rats, making the relationship to exposure unclear.

According to model calculations, the % of the applied dose of D₅ that was absorbed into the systemic circulation of male and female subjects following application to the axillae was approximately 0.05%. More than 83% of the chemical that reached the systemic circulation was eliminated via exhalation within 24 h.

The following products did not induce skin irritation nor sensitization inRIPTs (semioclusive/occlusive patches) involving human subjects: undiluted heat protection hair spray (leave-on) product containing 90.37% D₅; undiluted heat protection hair spray (leave-on) product containing 89.75% D₅; undiluted deodorant containing 56.3% D₅; and an undiluted antiperspirant containing 55.76% D₅.

A safety assessment was conducted to evaluate the potential hazard of D₅ to various populations. This assessment was based on exposures to D₅ via inhalation and dermal routes. It was concluded that typical exposure to D₅, whether occupationally, or through the use of D₅-containing consumer products, or to the general public, would not result in a significant human health hazard.

CYCLOHEXASILOXANE (D₆)

Cyclohexasiloxane is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 6, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 5, or 7) are present at levels of less than 1%. Cyclohexasiloxane functions as a hair conditioning agent, skin-conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent in cosmetic products. Frequency of use data provided by FDA in 2009 indicate that this ingredient is being used in 618 cosmetic products. Data provided by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 indicate that Cyclohexasiloxane has been used at concentrations up to 48%.

The results of an *in vitro* study indicate that D₆ was not percutaneously absorbed. Following oral administration to rats, most of the administered dose was excreted in the feces.

In both acute oral and acute dermal toxicity studies involving Wistar rats, the acute oral LD₅₀ was > 2000 mg/kg.

No treatment-related deaths or overt signs of toxicity were observed in groups of Sprague-Dawley rats dosed orally with D₆ in a short-term oral toxicity study.

Neither iridial irritation nor corneal opacity was observed following the instillation of D₆ into the eyes of albino rabbits. A 4-h dermal application of D₆ to albino rabbits did not induce irritation, corrosion, or staining. In the maximization test, D₆ was not classified as a sensitizer in guinea pigs challenged with undiluted D₆, 50% D₆, or 20% D₆.

In a combined repeated oral gavage toxicity study that included reproductive/developmental toxicity screening, the NOAEL for D₆ was 1000 mg/kg/day.

D₆ was not mutagenic in the Salmonella typhimurium reverse mutation assay or the E. coli reverse mutation assay.

CYCLOHEPTASILOXANE (D₇)

Cycloheptasiloxane is the cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane that conforms to the generic structure for cyclic dimethyl polysiloxane compounds, where n equals 7, and the other components of Cyclomethicone (where n equals 4, 5, or 6) are present at levels of less than 1%. Cycloheptasiloxane functions as an anticaking agent, skin conditioning agent - emollient, and solvent in cosmetic products. Frequency of use data provided by FDA in 2009 indicate that this ingredient is being used in 4 cosmetic products. Data provided by the Personal Care Products Council in 2008 did not include a use concentration for Cycloheptasiloxane.

After CD-1 mice were injected s.c. with breast implant distillate consisting primarily of low molecular weight cyclosiloxanes, D₇ was the only cyclosiloxane that was not detectable in organs (heart, kidney, and lungs included).

DISCUSSION

While the biological activity of individual chain length cyclic dimethyl siloxanes appears to be related to chain length, the CIR Expert Panel recognized that there are data for Cyclomethicone, a mixture of cyclic dimethyl siloxanes, used as an ingredient in cosmetic formulations. Consequently, studies on Cyclomethicone have been included in this review. The Expert Panel considers that the safety test data on the individual chain length siloxanes (D₄ - D₆) can be used to support the safety of that particular chain length cyclic dimethyl siloxane as well as Cyclomethicone, currently defined as a mixture of D₄ - D₆ siloxanes.

The Expert Panel noted that Cycloheptasiloxane (D₇) was no longer included in the definition of Cyclomethicone, but was still listed as a separate cosmetic ingredient in the *International Cosmetic Ingredient Dictionary and Handbook*. The Expert Panel recognizes that Cyclotrisiloxane (D₃) is not a cosmetic ingredient. However, the available data indicate that D₃ may be a low level impurity of other cyclic dimethyl siloxanes. For these reasons, the Expert Panel determined that safety test data on D₃ should be included in this safety assessment. At the level of this impurity that was found, the

Panel determined that there was no safety risk.

The Expert Panel is aware of the voluminous data on rheumatologic effects resulting from the injection/insertion of silicone into the body. However, the Panel noted that these data would not be relevant to the current cosmetic uses of Cyclomethicones. The Expert Panel also noted that the results of a single study on silicone gel showed that Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄, 1% in silicone oil), but not D₄ alone, induced arthritis in rats.

The Expert Panel also noted that the ingredients reviewed in this safety assessment are lipophilic compounds with a low blood:air partition coefficient, and, therefore, that it is not likely that they would accumulate in blood or tissues.

The reproductive toxicity (non-dose-related) that was noted in rats after inhalation exposure to a high concentration of D₄ was attributed to perturbation of the estrous cycle, due to a delay in the LH surge, which is not relevant to humans. Reproductive and developmental toxic effects were observed in rats after inhalation exposure to D₃ at a high concentration. The Expert Panel noted that it would not be expected that these effects would result from exposure to Cyclomethicone, D₄, Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅), Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆), or Cycloheptasiloxane (D₇) in personal care products. Furthermore, dermal exposure to these ingredients during product use would not likely result in any significant systemic exposure.

The Expert Panel is also aware of an inhalation study in which Fischer 344 rats exposed to 160 ppm D₅ over a 2-year period had a statistically significant increase in endometrial adenocarcinomas of the uterus. However, it was noted that these neoplasms occur occasionally in control rats, making the relationship to exposure unclear. The Expert Panel noted the potential ingestion of D₅ from a lipstick. Oral toxicity data were not available, but exposure to D₅ from lipstick would not likely be higher when compared to inhalation and dermal routes. The available inhalation and dermal toxicity data are interpreted to provide a high margin of safety when compared to possible exposures from cosmetic products containing D₅.

In addition to the available inhalation toxicity data, the Panel determined that Cyclomethicone and D₆ can be used safely in hair sprays, because the ingredient particle size is not respirable. The Panel reasoned that the particle size of aerosol hair sprays (~38 µm) and pump hair sprays (>80 µm) is large, compared to respirable particulate sizes (≤10 µm).

CONCLUSION

The CIR Expert Panel concluded that Cyclomethicone, Cyclotetrasiloxane, Cyclopentasiloxane, Cyclohexasiloxane, and Cycloheptasiloxane are safe as cosmetic ingredients in the practices of use and concentration as described in this safety assessment.

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Figure 1: Structure of Cyclomethicone

(Elder 1991)

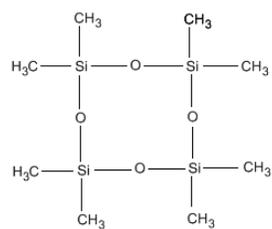


Figure 2: Structure of tetramer (n = 4)

(Dow Corning 1988)

Table 1: Properties of Cyclomethicone Dow Corning Fluids* (Dow Corning 1988; SEHSC 2009)

Property	Dow Corning 244 Fluid	Dow Corning 245 Fluid	Dow Corning 344 Fluid	Dow Corning 345 Fluid
Composition (polymer %)	90% n = 4 (Dow Corning 1988); D4 ≥ 99% (SEHSC 2009)	95% n = 5 (Dow Corning 1988); D5 = 99% (SEHSC 2009)	90% n = 4 and 10% n = 5 (Dow Corning 1988); D4 = 86% and D5 = 14% (SEHSC 2009)	75% n = 5 and 25% n = 6 (Dow Corning 1988); D5 = 66% and D6 = 34% SEHSC 2009)
Refractive index (at 25 °C)	1.394	1.397	1.394	1.398
Viscosity (cs, at 25 °C)	2.5 (Dow Corning 1988); 2.2 (SEHSC 2009)	4.2 (Dow Corning 1988); 3.8 (SEHSC 2009)	2.5 (Dow Corning 1988); 2.6 (SEHSC 2009)	5.0 (Dow Corning 1988); 6.0 (SEHSC 2009)
Specific gravity (at 25 °C)	0.953	0.956 (Dow Corning 1988); 0.95 (SEHSC 2009)	0.950	0.956
Surface tension (dynes/cm, at 25 °C)	17.8	18.0	19.0	20.8
Flash point (closed cup, °C)	55	76 (Dow Corning 1988); 77 (SEHSC 2009)	52 (Dow Corning 1988); 56 (SEHSC 2009)	74 (Dow Corning 1988); 77 (SEHSC 2009)
Boiling point (°C, at 760 mm Hg)	172 (Dow Corning 1988); 175 (SEHSC 2009)	205 (Dow Corning 1988); 211 (SEHSC 2009)	178 (Dow Corning 1988); ≥175 (SEHSC 2009)	217 (Dow Corning 1988); ≥65 (SEHSC 2009)

*For values included without a reference, the source is Dow Corning 1988.

Table 2: Properties of Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Table 2: Properties of Cyclomethicones

Property	Value	Reference
<i>Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)</i>		
Physical form	liquid	Nakamura et al. 1991
Molecular weight	296 Daltons 296.9 Daltons	Nakamura et al. 1991; Zareba 2002 SEHSC 2009
Specific gravity @ 25 °C	0.95	Nakamura et al. 1991; Clearco Products 2008
Water solubility @ 20 °C Water solubility @ 25 °C Water solubility @ 23 °C	45 µg/l 0.02 mg/l 56 µg/l	Nakamura et al. 1991 SCCP 2005 Varaprath et al. 1999
Viscosity (cs, at 25 °C)	2.5	Clearco Products 2008
Vapor pressure @ 25 °C	0.133 hPa	Marsh et al. 1968
Heat of vaporization @ 65 °C	40	Clearco Products 2008
Surface tension	17.8	Clearco Products 2008
Flash point (closed cup, °C)	57.22	Clearco Products 2008
Freezing point (°C)	17	Clearco Products 2008
Boiling point (°C)	175 170 172	Flanningham 1986 Nakamura et al. 1991 Clearco Products 2008
<i>Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)</i>		
Melting point (°C)	17	Nakamura et al. 1991
% Volatile	100	Clearco Products 2008
Vapor pressure @ 25 °C Vapor pressure @ 20 °C	1 mm Hg 0.68 mm Hg	Flanningham 1986 Nakamura et al. 1991
Henry's Law constant	490	Xu and Kropscott 2007
Log octanol/water partition coefficient	log kow = 6.49 log koa = 4.22 log koc = 4.22	Kozerski and Shawl 2007 Xu 2006 Miller 2007
<i>Cyclopentasiloxane (D₅)</i>		
Molecular weight	371 Daltons	Nakamura et al. 1991
Physical form	Clear, odorless fluid	Silicones Environmental, Health and Safety Council of North America no date a
Water solubility	~ 17 ppb	Varaprath et al. 1999
Viscosity (cs, at 25 °C)	4.0	Clearco Products 2008
Specific gravity @ 25 °C	0.954	Clearco Products 2008
Vapor pressure @ 50 °C Vapor pressure @ 20 °C	2 mm Hg 1 mm Hg	Flanningham 1986 Clearco Products 2008

Table 2: Properties of Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Property	Value	Reference
Henry's Law constant @ 25°C	1350	Xu and Kropscott 2007
Log octanol/water partition coefficient	log kow = 8.03 log koa = 4.96 log koc = 5.17	Kozerski 2007 Xu 2006 Durham 2007
Refractive Index	1.397	Clearco Products 2008
Surface tension	18.0	Clearco Products 2008
Flash point (closed cup)	77°C/170.6°F	Clearco Products 2008
Freezing point (°C)	-40	Clearco Products 2008
Boiling point @ 760 mm Hg	210°C	Clearco Products 2008
Evaporation rate (butyl acetate = 1)	< 1	Clearco Products 2008
Heat of vaporization @ 25°C	157	Clearco Products 2008
<i>Cyclohexasiloxane (D₆)</i>		
Molecular weight	444 Daltons	Silicones Environmental, Health and Safety Council of North America no date b
Physical form	colorless liquid	Rijcken 1999
Water solubility @ 23°C	5.1 µg/l	Varaprath et al. 1999
Specific gravity	0.9 g/m ³	Rijcken 1999
Melting point	-3°C	Kovalev and Arbuzova 1969
Henry's Law constant @ 25°C	1995	Kozerski and Powell 2007
Log octanol/water partition coefficient	log kow = 9.06 log kow = 5.76 log koc = 6.03	Xu et al. 2007 Xu 2006 USEPA no date

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
<i>Cyclomethicone</i>				
Baby products				
Lotions, oils, powders, and creams	-	4 (137)	-	-
Other	-	2 (143)	-	-
Bath products				
Oils, tablets, and salts	1	2 (314)	≤1	-
Soaps and detergents	-	3 (1665)	-	80
Eye makeup				
Eyebrow Pencil	-	2 (144)	-	16
Eyeliners	10	18 (754)	0.1 to 1	28 to 49
Eye shadow	101	22 (1215)	0.1 to 50	0.06 to 46
Eye lotion	-	22 (254)	-	2 to 57
Eye makeup remover	3	13 (128)	0.1 to 10	2 to 85
Mascara	1	29 (499)	0.1 to 1	2 to 15
Other	-	22 (365)	-	-
Fragrance products				
Colognes and toilet waters	3	-	1 to 5	20
Perfumes	-	2 (666)	-	26
Powders	-	-	-	-
Other	-	23 (566)	-	19 to 36
Noncoloring hair care products				
Conditioners	-	97 (1226)	-	0.3 to 81
Sprays/aerosol fixatives	-	24 (312)	-	0.2 to 11
Straighteners	-	5 (178)	-	0.6 to 1
Permanent waves	-	-	-	18
Rinses	-	5 (33)	-	-
Shampoos	-	13 (1361)	-	0.1
Tonics, dressings, etc.	-	82 (1205)	-	0.2 to 80
Other	-	46 (807)	-	25 (in nonaerosol spray)
Hair coloring products				
Dyes and colors	-	30 (2393)	-	2
Makeup				
Blushers	-	7 (434)	-	5 to 42
Face powders	-	11 (661)	-	2 to 7
Foundations	3	115 (589)	1 to 10	2 to 50
Leg and body paints	-	1 (29)	-	-
Lipstick	-	28 (1883)	-	32 to 47
Makeup bases	6	11 (117)	≤0.1 to 25	51
Rouges	1	2 (102)	1 to 5	-
Makeup fixatives	-	5 (45)	-	-
Other	1	25 (485)	25 to 50	2 to 35 (7% in a liquid)
Nail care products				
Basecoats and undercoats	2	-	10 to 50	-
Cuticle softeners	-	1 (27)	-	-
Creams and lotions	-	1 (14)	-	2
Nail polish and enamel	1	-	10 to 25	-
Other	3	5 (138)	5 to > 50	3 to 20
Personal hygiene products				
Deodorants (underarm)	-	15 (580)	-	5 to 56
Other	19	72 (792)	1 to > 50	-
Shaving products				
Aftershave lotion	-	6 (367)	-	20
Preshave lotions	-	1 (22)	-	-
Other	-	9 (134)	-	-
Skin care products				

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
Skin cleansing creams, lotions, liquids, Face and neck lotions	-	38 (1446)	-	-
Body and hand lotions	1**	183 (1583)	1 to 5**	1 to 82
Foot powders and sprays	1	156 (1744)	1 to 5	0.3 to 30
Moisturizers	8	4 (47)	≤0.1 to > 50	-
Night creams and lotions	2	185 (2508)	1 to 5	0.2 to 83
Paste masks (mud packs)	1	25 (353)	0.1 to 1	9 to 89
Skin fresheners	-	11 (441)	-	4 to 15
Other	-	6 (259)	-	-
	-	64 (1308)	-	8 to 22
Suntan products				
Suntan gels, creams, and liquids	-	12 (107)	-	21 to 44
Indoor tanning preparations	-	22 (240)	-	-
Other	-	8 (62)	-	-
Total uses/ranges for Cyclomethicones	168	1499	≤0.1 to > 50	0.06 to 89
<u>Cyclotetrasiloxane</u>				
Baby products				
Lotions, oils, powders, and creams	-	1 (137)	-	-
Eye makeup				
Eye shadow	-	-	-	19 to 24
Eye makeup remover	-	1 (128)	-	-
Mascara	-	-	-	4 to 9
Noncoloring hair products				
Conditioners	-	26 (1226)	-	0.0007 to 2
Straighteners	-	-	-	0.6
Permanent waves	-	-	-	18
Shampoos	-	2 (1361)	-	0.002
Tonics, dressings, etc.	-	10 (1205)	-	0.2 to 2
Hair coloring products				
Color sprays	-	-	-	3
Other	-	-	-	4 (4% in a hair mascara)
Makeup				
Face powders	-	-	-	0.06
Foundations	-	3 (589)	-	0.3 to 28
Lipstick	-	-	-	14
Makeup bases	-	-	-	19
Other	-	3 (485)	-	-
Nail care products				
Nail polish and enamel removers	-	-	-	0.4
Other	-	-	-	10
Personal hygiene products				
Deodorants (underarm)	-	1 (580)	-	6 to 13
Other	-	-	-	-
Shaving products				
Aftershave lotion	-	-	-	4 to 19

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
Skin care products				
Skin cleansing creams, lotions, liquids, and pads	-	-	-	19
Face and neck lotions	-	1 (1446)	-	0.04 to 10
Body and hand lotions	-	2 (1744)	-	0.04 to 11
Moisturizers	-	4 (2508)	-	0.03 to 4
Night creams and lotions	-	-	-	0.005 to 19
Other	-	1 (1308)	-	19
Suntan products				
Indoor tanning preparations	-	1 (240)	-	-
Other	-	-	-	4
Total uses/ranges for Cyclotetrasiloxane	-	56	-	0.0007 to 28
<u>Cyclopentasiloxane</u>				
Baby products				
Lotions, oils, powders, and creams	-	3 (137)	-	5
Other	-	1 (143)	-	-
Bath products				
Oils, tablets, and salts	-	1 (314)	-	0.9 to 48
Soaps and detergents	-	5 (1665)	-	-
Eye makeup				
Eyebrow pencil	-	3 (144)	-	22
Eyeliners	-	67 (754)	-	13 to 51
Eye shadow	-	60 (1215)	-	3 to 72
Eye lotion	-	48 (254)	-	2 to 56
Eye makeup remover	-	15 (128)	-	32 to 59
Mascara	-	60 (499)	-	0.06 to 33
Other	-	45 (365)	-	45
Fragrance products				
Colognes and toilet waters	-	12 (1377)	-	40
Perfumes	-	1 (666)	-	27 to 41
Other	-	28 (566)	-	0.2 to 37 (11% in a hair perfume; 37% in a
Noncoloring hair products				
Conditioners	-	160 (1226)	-	0.009 to 89
Sprays/aerosol fixatives	-	5 (312)	-	0.2 to 36
Straighteners	-	1 (178)	-	1
Shampoos	-	10 (1361)	-	0.02
Tonics, dressings, etc.	-	145 (1205)	-	0.8 to 91
Wave sets	-	7 (51)	-	-
Other	-	123 (807)	-	13 to 93
Hair coloring products				
Dyes and colors	-	18 (2393)	-	0.3 to 2

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
Tints	-	1 (21)	-	
Rinses	-	5 (40)	-	
Shampoos	-	1 (40)	-	
Color sprays	-	-	-	0.002
Bleaches	-	3 (149)	-	-
Other	-	7 (168)	-	1 to 2
Makeup				
Blushers	-	26 (434)	-	4 to 75
Face powders	-	22 (661)	-	0.0001 to 30
Foundations	-	183 (589)	-	17 to 83
Leg and body paints	-	5 (29)	-	-
Lipstick	-	53 (1883)	-	9 to 48
Makeup bases	-	16 (117)	-	0.7 to 81
Makeup fixatives	-	7 (45)	-	26
Other	-	55 (485)	-	7 to 74 (25% in a lipliner; 27% in a concealer)
Nail care products				
Basecoats and undercoats	-	1 (79)	-	0.009
Creams and lotions	-	1 (14)	-	3-4
Nail polish and enamel	-	-	-	0.009
Nail polish and enamel removers	-	-	-	0.2
Other	-	3 (138)	-	20-94 (68% and 94% in nail polish driving products)
Personal hygiene products				
Deodorants (underarm)	-	82 (580)	-	18 to 63
Other	-	1 (792)	-	-
Shaving products				
Aftershave lotion	-	46 (367)	-	2 to 21
Preshave lotions	-	1 (22)	-	-
Shaving cream	-	-	-	4
Other	-	7 (134)	-	-
Skin care products				
Skin cleansing creams, lotions, liquids, and pads	-	21 (1446)	-	3 to 59
Depilatories	-	4 (42)	-	-
Face and neck lotions	-	174 (1583)	-	1 to 61
Body and hand lotions	-	210 (1744)	-	0.3 to 88
Body sprays	-	-	-	25 to 76
Foot powders and sprays	-	3 (47)	-	12
Moisturizers	-	391 (2508)	-	3 to 91
Night creams and lotions	-	66 (353)	-	0.4 to 22
Paste masks (mud packs)	-	10 (441)	-	5 to 6
Skin fresheners	-	7 (259)	-	3 to 5

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
Other	-	113 (1308)	-	3 to 93 (3% in a stain barrier cream used with
Suntan products				
Suntan gels, creams, and liquids	-	7 (107)	-	0.1 to 49
Indoor tanning preparations	-	59 (240)	-	1 to 24
Other	-	5 (62)	-	2 (in a suntan spray)
Total uses/ranges for Cyclonontasiloxane	-	2459	-	0.0001 to 93
<u>Cyclohexasiloxane</u>				
Baby products				
Lotions, oils, powders, and creams	-	1 (137)	-	-
Bath products				
Oils, tablets, and salts	-	1 (314)	-	-
Soaps and detergents	-	1 (1665)	-	-
Eye makeup				
Eyeliners	-	5 (754)	-	0.08 to 8
Eye shadow	-	10 (1215)	-	0.02 to 12
Eye lotion	-	15 (254)	-	15 to 24
Eye makeup remover	-	5 (128)	-	8 to 27
Eye makeup				
Mascara	-	6 (499)	-	0.08 to 8
Other	-	18 (365)	-	0.04
Fragrance products				
Colognes and toilet waters	-	6 (1377)	-	-
Other	-	9 (566)	-	6 (in a hair perfume)
Noncoloring hair products				
Conditioners	-	17 (1226)	-	0.8 to 1
Sprays/aerosol fixatives	-	10 (312)	-	6
Tonics, dressings, etc.	-	16 (1205)	-	0.3 to 30
Other	-	6 (807)	-	0.9 to 4 (0.9% in a non-aerosol spray)
Hair coloring products				
Color sprays	-	-	-	0.3
Makeup				
Blushers	-	10 (434)	-	-
Face powders	-	4 (661)	-	-
Foundations	-	47 (589)	-	0.2 to 48
Leg and body paints	-	2 (29)	-	-
Lipstick	-	7 (1883)	-	0.02 to 8
Makeup bases	-	4 (117)	-	2 to 12
Rouges	-	-	-	0.03
Makeup fixatives	-	1 (45)	-	0.4

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Product Category (FDA 2007)	1984 uses (total number of products in category; Andersen 1991)	2009 uses (total number of products in category; FDA 2009)	1984 concentrations (Andersen 1991) (%)	2008 concentrations (Personal Care Products Council 2008) (%)
Other	-	11 (485)	-	0.05 to 7 (7% in lip liner)
Nail care products				
Other	-	1 (138)	-	11
Personal hygiene products				
Deodorants (underarm)	-	6 (580)	-	0.4 to 19
Shaving products				
Aftershave lotion	-	10 (367)	-	0.03 to 11
Other	-	4 (134)	-	-
Skin care products				
Skin cleansing creams, lotions, liquids, and pads	-	3 (1446)	-	0.003 to 2
Face and neck lotions	-	71 (1583)	-	0.03 to 22
Body and hand lotions	-	44 (1744)	-	0.03 to 15
Body and hand sprays	-	-	-	4
Moisturizers	-	159 (2508)	-	0.002 to 4
Night creams and lotions	-	32 (353)	-	0.005 to 12
Skin care products				
Paste masks (mud packs)	-	7 (441)	-	2
Skin fresheners	-	-	-	0.0004 to 3
Other	-	52 (1308)	-	0.9 to 7
Suntan products				
Suntan gels, creams, and liquids	-	1 (107)	-	0.03 to 4
Indoor tanning preparations	-	15 (240)	-	0.0008 to 7
Other	-	1 (62)	-	0.6 (in a suntan spray)
Total uses/ranges for Cyclohexasiloxane	-	618	-	0.0004 to 48
Cycloheptasiloxane				
Eye makeup				
Eye shadow	-	1 (1215)	-	-
Personal hygiene products				
Deodorants (underarm)	-	1 (580)	-	-
Skin care products				
Body and hand lotions	-	1 (1744)	-	-
Moisturizers	-	1 (2508)	-	-
Total uses/ranges for Cycloheptasiloxane	-	4	-	-

*In FDA's voluntary reporting system, no uses/use concentrations reported for this category in 1984; no uses reported for this category in 2007; ** This category was combined when the original safety assessment was performed and is now more than one category.

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd**Table 4.** Concentrations ($\mu\text{g/g}$, mean/range) of organosiloxanes in personal care and household products (Horii and Kannan 2008)

Usage Category	D ₄	D ₅	D ₆	D ₇
Hair-care products (shampoos [6 products], hair conditioners [4 products], and styling gels [3 products]; total = 13 products)	29 < 0.35 to 82	5,890 < 0.39 to 25,800	48 < 0.33 to 162	4.1 < 0.42 to 47
Body washes (body washes [5 products], facial cleanser [1 product], and baby washes [3 products]; total = 9 products)	< 0.35	< 0.39	< 0.33	< 0.42
Skin lotions (body lotions [7 products], face creams [3 products], sun screens [3 products], baby lotions [3 products], and shaving gels [2 products]; total = 18 products)	7.3 < 0.35 to 66	3,760 < 0.39 to 47,300	606 < 0.33 to 6,520	4.4 < 0.42 to 70
Cosmetics (lipsticks [4 products] and liquid	49	13,600	7,180	51
Other (toothpastes [2 products], mouthpiece [1 product], and soft baby toy [1 product]; total = 4 products)	< 0.35	< 0.39	< 0.33	< 0.42

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd**Table 5.** Disposition of ¹⁴C-D₄ applied to the skin of the female rat [% of applied dose ± SEM] (Jovanovic 2000).

time (h)	average dose (mg/cm ²)	volatilized	skin surface	skin	expired	urine	feces + cage rinse	carcass	CO ₂	absorbed
1 h	1.89	100.56 ± 5.79	0.53 ± 0.09	0.47 ± 0.01	0.30 ± 0.05	ND	ND	0.02 ± 0.00	ND	0.79 ± 0.06
	4.85	93.05 ± 2.07	0.92 ± 0.40	0.52 ± 0.05	0.27 ± 0.09	ND	ND	0.02 ± 0.00	ND	0.8 ± 0.06
	9.85	66.00 ± 1.75	9.37 ± 0.92	0.82 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.02	ND	ND	0.02 ± 0.01	ND	0.95 ± 0.12
6 h	2.15	91.75 ± 2.09	0.26 ± 0.03	0.32 ± 0.02	0.42 ± 0.13	ND	ND	0.03 ± 0.01	ND	0.78 ± 0.16
	4.82	97.66 ± 0.54	0.26 ± 0.02	0.38 ± 0.03	0.26 ± 0.07	ND	ND	0.04 ± 0.00	ND	0.69 ± 0.05
	9.79	94.98 ± 0.81	0.27 ± 0.01	0.34 ± 0.04	0.39 ± 0.06	ND	ND	0.05 ± 0.01	ND	0.79 ± 0.09
24 h	1.62	95.43 ± 3.99	0.23 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.01	0.47 ± 0.09	0.03 ± 0.00	ND	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.76 ± 0.08
	4.80	93.86 ± 1.65	0.14 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.00	0.24 ± 0.05	0.04 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.04 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.57 ± 0.05
	9.36	92.24 ± 0.44	0.15 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.03	0.28 ± 0.05	0.03 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.61 ± 0.09
168 h	2.10	92.32 ± 5.25	0.16 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01	0.32 ± 0.08	0.06 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.51 ± 0.08
	4.88	95.44 ± 1.96	0.10 ± 0.01	0.09 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.01	0.07 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.47 ± 0.01
	9.76	91.24 ± 0.32	0.10 ± 0.00	0.08 ± 0.10	0.12 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	0.03 ± 0.00	0.35 ± 0.01

ND - not detected

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Table 6. Concentration of radioactivity^a in the tissues of rats killed 120 hours after a single iv dose of ¹⁴C-D4 at 7 mg/kg (Huntington Research Centre, Ltd. 1995).

Tissues	Males	Females
Fat	6.77 ± 0.55	14.3 ± 1.9
Kidney	0.347 ± 0.039	0.429 ± 0.09
Liver	0.935 ± 0.089	1.00 ± 0.13
Lung	0.907 ± 0.315	1.45 ± 0.23
Gastrointestinal tract	0.411 ± 0.066	1.23 ± 0.33

^a µg equivalent D₄/g tissue

Table 7. Mean concentrations of radioactivity^a in tissues of male and female animals killed at various times after a single iv dose of 70 mg ¹⁴C-D₄/kg, a single iv dose of 7 mg ¹⁴C-D₄/kg, or after completion of repeated (14 days) iv doses of 7 mg ¹⁴C-D₄/kg day⁻¹ (Huntington Research Centre, Ltd. 1995).

tissue	single high dose				single low dose				repeated low dose			
	30 h		48 h		30 h		48 h		30 h		48 h	
	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female	male	female
fat	165	231	159	212	8.37	23.5	7.24	17.8	35.3	119	31.6	93.5
liver	15.5	14.7	9.9	9.02	1.89	1.58	1.29	1.27	12.3	11.1	9.14	9.77
kidney	6.45	7.63	4.22	4.63	0.72	0.93	0.50	0.68	3.45	3.32	2.85	3.21

^aResults are expressed as µg equivalent D₄/g tissue.

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd**Table 8.** Blood, plasma, and expired air levels of D₄ applied dermally to humans (Looney et al. 2000)

Time (h)	Female			Male		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Expired Air (ng/L)						
0	4.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	ND
1	26.7	239.3	66.9	15.2	72.7	3.1
2	12.0	60.3	13.2	5.5	11.5	1.5
4	8.7	14.3	5.9	1.9	4.6	0.9
6	5.2	7.2	3.2	1.1	3.3	0.8
24	1.1	1.3	0.5	0.3	0.9	0.2
Blood (ng/g)						
0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
1	4.16	5.67	3.53	0.57	2.10	1.22
2	3.35	4.06	1.95	0.37	1.24	0.89
4	1.82	2.01	1.07	0.26	0.91	0.58
6	1.43	1.11	0.54	0.17	0.80	0.61
24	NQ	0.19	0.15	ND	0.18	NQ
Plasma (ng/g)						
0	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
1	6.50	7.02	3.94	0.85	2.58	1.88
2	4.77	4.84	2.19	0.58	1.77	1.36
4	2.72	2.34	1.24	0.45	0.53	1.07
6	2.13	1.26	0.49	0.3	0.66	0.88
24	NQ	0.31	0.12	ND	0.24	0.30

ND = not detectable

NQ = not quantifiable.

Table 3. Historical and current cosmetic product uses and concentrations for Cyclomethicones - cont'd

Table 9. Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity Studies on Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) - cont'd

Table 9. Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity Studies on Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄)

Dose/Concentration	Test Procedure	Results	Reference
Inhalation Studies			
0, 10, 101, 301, and 700 ppm	Range-finding study. Groups of CrI:CD® VAF/Plus rats: Inhalation exposure (6h/day) on gestation days (gd) 6-15	No treatment-related effects	IRDC 1993b
0, 10, 101, 301, and 700 ppm	Groups of CrI:CD® VAF/Plus rats: Inhalation exposure (6h/day) on gestation days (gd) 6-15	No treatment-related effects	IRDC 1993c
0, 10, 101, 301, and 700 ppm	Range-finding study. Groups of New Zealand White SPF rabbits: Inhalation exposure (6h/day) on gestation days (gd) 6-18	No treatment-related effects	IRDC 1993d
0, 10, 101, 301, and 501 ppm	Groups of New Zealand White rabbits: Inhalation exposure (6h/day) on gestation days (gd) 6-18	No differences in fetal malformations or developmental toxicity between treated and control rabbits	IRDC 1993e
0, 70, and 700 ppm	Groups of Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats: Inhalation exposure (6 h/day) for at least 28 days prior to mating through end of study. F ₀ females not exposed (gd 21 through lactation day 4); killed and examined on lactation day 21	Possible reproductive toxicity (reduced litter size and implantation sites) in 700 ppm group. No postnatal toxicity	Holson and Stump 1996a
0 and 700 ppm	Repeat of preceding study, except all exposures of F ₀ females ended on gd 20, no post-natal exposure of pups, and all animals killed on lactation day 4	Findings in preceding study confirmed	Holson and Stump 1996b
0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm	Groups of female Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats: Inhalation exposure (6 h/day) for 70 consecutive days prior to mating, and through mating up to necropsy. F ₀ females not exposed (gd 21 through lactation day 4); killed and examined on lactation day 21.	Reproductive toxicity in form of: reduced litter size, number of pups born, reduced numbers of implantation sites, and increased difference between implantation sites and number of offspring in 700 ppm group	Holson and Stump 1997
0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm	Groups of male Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®BR rats: Inhalation exposure (6 h/day) for at least 70 days prior to mating. Males, but not females, also exposed each day of mating. F ₁ pups were killed and necropsy performed on lactation day 4.	No differences in reproductive performance parameters (or male sperm motility /morphology at necropsy) between exposed and control rats. No statistically significant decreases in pup survival or necropsy findings..	Holson and Kaufman 1997
0, 500, and 700 ppm	Range-finding study. Groups of Sprague-Dawley CrI:CD®(SD)IGS BR rats: Males, but not females, exposed (6 h/day) for at least 70 days prior to mating and through study day 113.	Reproductive parameters not affected by exposure. No adverse effects in F ₀ males at necropsy	Stump and Stump 1997
0 and 700 ppm	Follow-up study to preceding study. 6-h exposures during pre- and post-mating period (single/multiple days of exposure). Females, but not males, exposed.	Pregnancy rate decreased only in group exposed on pre-mating day 1. Reduced corpora lutea and implantation sites and increase in small implantation sites only in group exposed from pre-mating day 3 to gd 3. No pre-implantation loss in pre-mating groups. All reproductive	Stump 1999

Table 9. Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity Studies on Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) - cont'd

Dose/Concentration	Test Procedure	Results	Reference
		parameters unaffected in post-mating groups.	
0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm	2-generation reproductive toxicity and developmental neurotoxicity study. Groups of Crl:CD @ (SD)IGS BR rats. Inhalation exposure (6 h/day) for minimum of 70 days.	Higher exposures (500 or 700 ppm) yielded statistically significant decreases in mean live litter size and mean number of pups born in F ₀ and F ₁ generations; extended parturition and /or dystocia in females. No adverse effects on reproductive parameters (anogenital distance, vaginal patency, preputial separation) at any exposure level. No evidence of developmental neurotoxicity.	Stump 2001b
0, 2, 35, 488, and 898 ppm	Groups of Fischer-344 rats, Exposure for 3 months (nose-only, 6 h/day, 5 days/week)	Inhalation of 898 ppm caused reversible estrous cycle changes and histopathological changes in female reproductive tract. No effects at lower concentrations	Burns-Naas et al. 2002
0 and 700 ppm	Whole-body vapor inhalation (6 h/day) for 35 consecutive days. Effect on estrous cyclicity, E2 levels, and ovarian endpoints.	Exposure resulted in lengthening of typical 5-day cycle in some of the rats. This coincided with increases in the following: circulating E2 levels, number of large follicles in ovaries, and days spent in diestrus .	Quinn 2006
160 and 700 ppm	Inhalation toxicology studies on D ₄ (endpoints at 28 days, 90 days, 6 months, 12 months, and 24 months) performed over more than a decade. High doses > 700 ppm in shorter studies. Groups of F-344 rats (control and high -dose) from several studies reexamined. Detailed histomorphologic review of ovaries, uterus, vagina, pituitary and mammary glands performed.	After 1 year, 700 ppm associated with the following: small numerical increase in cycle disruptions, primarily extended diestrus (not statistically identified nor attributed to treatment), and vaginal mucification. After 2 years, endometrial hyperplasia and benign endometrial tumors.	Crissman 2006
0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm	Groups of Crl:CD® (SD) BR rats. Study design allowed complete female reproductive cycle and the phases of the cycle (from pre-mating to gestation) to be evaluated: 31 to 3 days before mating (ovarian phase); 3 days before mating to gestation day 3 (fertilization phase); and gestation day 2 to gestation day 5 (implantation phase)	Exposure to 700 ppm associated with decreases in implantation sites and litter size in the reproductive cycle overall and fertilization phase, but not in the ovarian or implantation phases. Thus, there is a very narrow window, around the time of ovulation and fertilization, for D ₄ to exert effects on the reproductive cycle.	Meeks et al. 2007
0, 70, 300, 500, and 700 ppm	Groups of Crl:CD® (SD)IGS BR rats. F ₀ male and female rats exposed (whole-body) 7 days/week (6 h/day) for 70 consecutive days. Female exposures suspended on gd 21 through postnatal day 4.	NOAELs for male and female reproductive toxicity were 700 ppm and 300 ppm, respectively	Siddiqui et al. 2007
Oral Study			
0, 50, 100, 500, and 1000 mg/kg/day	Groups of New Zealand White SPF rabbits. Single doses by gavage (dose volume = 3 ml/kg) on gd 7 through 19.	Abortions in 500 and 1000 mg/kg/day groups. Post-implantation loss was increased in the 1000 mg/kg/day group, compared to control.	IRDC 1993a

Table 9. Reproductive and Developmental Toxicity Studies on Cyclotetrasiloxane (D₄) - cont'd

Dose/Concentration	Test Procedure	Results	Reference
		Number of live fetuses, gravid uterine weight were also reduced in this group. All treatment-related effects. No effects at lower doses.	