EVALUATION OF CERTAIN FOOD ADDITIVES AND CONTAMINANTS

Fifty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives





World Health Organization Geneva The World Health Organization was established in 1948 as a specialized agency of the United Nations serving as the directing and coordinating authority for international health matters and public health. One of WHO's constitutional functions is to provide objective and reliable information and advice in the field of human health, a responsibility that it fulfils in part through its extensive programme of publications.

The Organization seeks through its publications to support national health strategies and address the most pressing public health concerns of populations around the world. To respond to the needs of Member States at all levels of development, WHO publishes practical manuals, handbooks and training material for specific categories of health workers; internationally applicable guidelines and standards; reviews and analyses of health policies, programmes and research; and state-of-the-art consensus reports that offer technical advice and recommendations for decision-makers. These books are closely tied to the Organization's priority activities, encompassing disease prevention and control, the development of equitable health systems based on primary health care, and health promotion for individuals and communities. Progress towards better health for all also demands the global dissemination and exchange of information that draws on the knowledge and experience of all WHO's Member countries and the collaboration of world leaders in public health and the biomedical sciences.

To ensure the widest possible availability of authoritative information and guidance on health matters, WHO secures the broad international distribution of its publications and encourages their translation and adaptation. By helping to promote and protect health and prevent and control disease throughout the world, WHO's books contribute to achieving the Organization's principal objective — the attainment by all people of the highest possible level of health.

The *WHO Technical Report Series* makes available the findings of various international groups of experts that provide WHO with the latest scientific and technical advice on a broad range of medical and public health subjects. Members of such expert groups serve without remuneration in their personal capacities rather than as representatives of governments or other bodies; their views do not necessarily reflect the decisions or the stated policy of WHO. An annual subscription to this series, comprising about 10 such reports, costs Sw. fr. 132.– (Sw. fr. 92.40 in developing countries). This report contains the collective views of an international group of experts and does not necessarily represent the decisions or the stated policy of the World Health Organization or of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

> WHO Technical Report Series 909

EVALUATION OF CERTAIN FOOD ADDITIVES AND CONTAMINANTS

Fifty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives







World Health Organization Geneva 2002 WHO Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (2001 : Rome, Italy) Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants : fifty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives.

(WHO technical report series ; 909)

1.Food additives — toxicity 2.Food additives — analysis 3.Flavoring agents — analysis 4.Food contamination 1.Title II.Series

ISBN 92 4 120909 7 ISSN 0512-3054 (NLM classification: WA 712)

© World Health Organization 2002

All rights reserved. Publications of the World Health Organization can be obtained from Marketing and Dissemination, World Health Organization, 20 Avenue Appia, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland (tel.: +41 22 791 2476; fax: +41 22 791 4857; email: bookorders@who.int). Requests for permission to reproduce or translate WHO publications — whether for sale or for noncommercial distribution — should be addressed to Publications, at the above address (fax: +41 22 791 4806; email: permissions@who.int).

The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the World Health Organization concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. Dotted lines on maps represent approximate border lines for which there may not yet be full agreement.

The mention of specific companies or of certain manufacturers' products does not imply that they are endorsed or recommended by the World Health Organization in preference to others of a similar nature that are not mentioned. Errors and omissions excepted, the names of proprietary products are distinguished by initial capital letters.

The World Health Organization does not warrant that the information contained in this publication is complete and correct and shall not be liable for any damages incurred as a result of its use.

This publication contains the collective views of an international group of experts and does not necessarily represent the decisions or the stated policy of the World Health Organization.

Typeset in Hong Kong Printed in Switzerland 2001/14227 — SNPBest-set/Schuler — 6800

Contents

1.	Intro	duction	1		
2.	General considerations 2.1 Modification of the agenda				
	2.2	on the agenda Principles for the safety assessment of chemicals in food	2 2		
	2.4	Flavouring agents evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	3		
	2.5	$5 \alpha,\beta$ -Unsaturated carbonyl compounds and aldehydes			
	2.6 Minimum assay values for flavouring agents		5		
	2.7	Requests for data relating to intake assessments	6		
		2.7.1 Food additives	6		
		2.7.2 Contaminants	(
	2.8	specifications	7		
		2.8.1 Inclusion of raw materials and manufacturing methods in specifications	7		
		2.8.2 General specifications and considerations for enzyme			
		preparations used in food processing	8		
3.	Specific food additives (other than flavouring agents)				
	3.1	Safety evaluations	10		
		3.1.1 Emulsifiers	10		
		3.1.1.1 Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol	10		
		3.1.1.2 Quillaia extracts	14		
		3.1.2 Enzyme preparation	18		
		3.1.2.1 Invertase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae	10		
		3.1.3 FOOD COLOUIS	10		
		3.1.3.2 Curcumin	20		
		3.1.4 Food salts	21		
		3.1.4.1 Phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates	21		
		3.1.5 Glazing agent	23		
		3.1.5.1 Hydrogenated poly-1-decene	23		
		3.1.6 Preservative	25		
		3.1.6.1 Natamycin (pimaricin)	25		
		3.1.7 Sweetening agent	29		
		3.1.7.1 D-Tayalose	23		
		3.1.8 1 Carrageenan and processed <i>Eucheuma</i> seaweed	32		
		3.1.8.2 Curdlan	36		
		3.1.9 Miscellaneous substances	38		
		3.1.9.1 Acetvlated oxidized starch	38		
		3.1.9.2 α -Cyclodextrin	40		
		3.1.9.3 Sodium sulfate	42		
	3.2	Revision of specifications	43		
		3.2.1 Acesulfame K	43		
		3.2.2 Blackcurrant extract	43		

		3.2.3 ∟-Malic acid	44
		3.2.4 Oxystearin	44
		3.2.5 Pectins	44
		3.2.6 Smoke flavourings	45
		3.2.7 Tagetes extract	45
	3.3	Revision of limits for metals in food additives	46
4.	Flav	ouring agents	49
	4.1	Substances evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety	
		Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	49
		4.1.1 Pyrazine derivatives	51
		4.1.1.1 Estimated daily per capita intake	59
		4.1.1.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination	59
		4.1.1.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety	
		Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	60
		4.1.1.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as	
		flavouring agents	61
		4.1.1.5 Conclusions	61
		4.1.2 Aromatic substituted secondary alconois, ketones and	C1
		1012 A 1 Setimated daily per conita intele	70
		4.1.2.1 Estimated daily per capita intake	70
		4.1.2.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination	10
		Evaluation of Elavouring Agents	71
		4 1 2 4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as	, ,
		flavouring agents	72
		4.1.2.5 Conclusions	72
		4.1.3 Benzyl derivatives	73
		4.1.3.1 Estimated daily per capita intake	81
		4.1.3.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination	81
		4.1.3.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety	
		Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	82
		4.1.3.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as	
		flavouring agents	83
		4.1.3.5 Conclusions	83
		4.1.4 Hydroxy- and alkoxy-substituted benzyl derivatives	84
		4.1.4.1 Estimated daily per capita intake	95
		4.1.4.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination	95
		4.1.4.3 Application of the Procedure for the Salety	OF
		Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	95
		4.1.4.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as	QQ
		4 1 4 5 Conclusions	98
		4 15 Aliphatic acyclic diols triols and related substances	98
		4.1.5.1 Estimated daily per capita intake	99
		4.1.5.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination	105
		4.1.5.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety	
		Evaluation of Flavouring Agents	105
		4.1.5.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as	
		flavouring agents	107
		4.1.5.5 Conclusions	107

		4.1.6 Alipha 4.1.6.1	tic acyclic acetals Estimated daily per capita intake	107 110
		4.1.6.2 4.1.6.3	Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination Application of the Procedure for the Safety	110
		4164	Evaluation of Flavouring Agents Consideration of combined intakes from use as	111
		4.1.0.4	flavouring agents	112
		4.1.6.5	Conclusions	112
	4.2	Revision of a	certain specifications for purity	112
		4.2.1 Flavou "tentat	ring agents with specifications designated as ive" at previous meetings	112
		4.2.2 Flavou 95%	ring agents with minimum assay values less than	113
		4.2.3 Specifi safety	ications for havouring agents being reviewed for	113
5.	Con	taminants		114
	5.1	Chloropropa	anols	114
		5.1.1 3-Chlo	ro-1,2-propanediol	114
		5.1.1.1	Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion	114
		5.1.1.2		114
		5114	Estimates of dietary intake	116
		5.1.1.5	Evaluation	117
		5.1.1.6	Impact of regulatory limits	118
		5.1.2 1,3-Did	chloro-2-propanol	118
		5.1.2.1	Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion	118
		5.1.2.2	Toxicological studies	118
		5.1.2.3	Occurrence	119
		5.1.2.4	Estimates of dietary intake	119
	50	5.1.2.5 Polychloring	Evaluation	120
	0.2	and conlana	ar polychlorinated biphenyls	121
		5.2.1 Introdu	iction	121
		5.2.2 Toxico	kinetics	123
		5.2.2.1	Absorption and biotransformation	123
		5.2.2.2	Metabolism and excretion	125
		5.2.2.3	Relationship between human intake and doses	
			used in studies in laboratory animals	125
		5.2.2.4	Determinants of dose received by fetuses in	107
		FOO Taria	studies of developmental toxicity	127
		5.2.3 TOXICO	A outo tovicity ctudios	128
		5.2.3.1	Acule loxicity studies	128
		5233	Genetovicity studies	120
		5234	Developmental toxicity studies	129
		5.2.4 Observ	vations in humans	133
		5.2.4.1	Effects other than cancer	133
		5.2.4.2	Carcinogenicity	134
		5.2.5 Sampl	ing and analytical methods	135
		5.2.6 Levels 5.2.7 Estima	and patterns of contamination of food commodities ted dietary intake	137 139

	 5.2.8 Evaluation 5.2.8.1 Background body burdens in laboratory animals 5.2.8.2 Identification of safety factors 5.2.8.3 Tolerable intake 5.2.8.4 Comparison of PTMI with estimated intake from food 5.2.8.5 Uncertainties 5.2.8.6 Effect of maximum limits on intake, risk and food availability 	141 141 142 143 144 145 146		
6.	Future work	146		
7.	Recommendations	147		
Ac	Acknowledgement			
Re	ferences	148		
Annex 1 Reports and other documents resulting from previous meetings of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives				
An Ac on	Annex 2 Acceptable Daily Intakes, other toxicological information and information on specifications			
An Fu	inex 3 Irther information required or desired	170		

Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives

Rome, 5–14 June 2001

Members

- Dr J. Alexander, Department of Environmental Medicine, National Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway
- Ms J. Baines, Senior Nutritionist, Australia New Zealand Food Authority, Barton, ACT, Australia
- Professor J.R. Bend, Chairman, Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada (*Joint Rapporteur*)
- Professor S.M. Dagher, Department of Biology, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon
- Dr D.G. Hattan, Director, Division of Health Effects Evaluation, Office of Premarket Approval, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA
- Dr Y. Kawamura, Section Chief, Division of Food Additives, National Institute of Health Sciences, Tokyo, Japan
- Dr A.G.A.C. Knaap, Centre for Substances and Risk Assessment, National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, Netherlands
- Dr P.M. Kuznesof, Leader, Chemistry and Exposure Assessment Team, Division of Product Manufacture and Use, Office of Premarket Approval, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (*Joint Rapporteur*)
- Dr J.C. Larsen, Head, Division of Biochemical and Molecular Toxicology, Institute of Food Safety and Toxicology, Danish Veterinary and Food Administration, Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Fisheries, Søborg, Denmark
- Mrs I. Meyland, Senior Scientific Adviser, Institute of Food Research and Nutrition, Danish Veterinary and Food Administration, Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Fisheries, Søborg, Denmark (*Chairman*)
- Dr G. Pascal, Scientific Director, Human Nutrition and Food Safety, National Institute for Agricultural Research, Paris, France
- Dr M.V. Rao, Head, Chemistry Unit, Food and Environment Laboratory, Dubai, United Arab Emirates
- Dr P. Sinhaseni, Deputy Director for Research, Institute of Health Research, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand
- Professor R. Walker, Emeritus Professor of Food Science, School of Biological Sciences, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, England (*Vice-Chairman*)
- Mrs H. Wallin, Senior Food Control Officer, National Food Agency, Helsinki, Finland
- Dr D.B. Whitehouse, Food Regulatory Affairs, Bowdon, Cheshire, England

Secretariat

- Dr P.J. Abbott, Australia New Zealand Food Authority, Canberra, ACT, Australia (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr A.J. Baars, National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, Netherlands (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr D. Benford, Food Standards Agency, London, England (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr R.A. Canady, Toxicologist, Office of Plant and Dairy Foods and Beverages, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr C.E. Cerniglia, Director, Division of Microbiology and Chemistry, National Center for Toxicological Research, Food and Drug Administration, Jefferson, AR, USA (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Ms M.L. Costarrica, Senior Nutrition Officer, Food Quality Liaison Group, Food Quality and Standards Service, Food and Nutrition Division, FAO, Rome, Italy
- Dr K. Crump, Ruston, LA, USA (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr M. DiNovi, Division of Product Manufacture and Use, Office of Premarket Approval, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Ms J. Eastwood, Bureau of Chemical Safety, Food Directorate, Health Products and Food Branch, Health Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr C.E. Fisher, Head, Risk Analysis and International Coordination Branch, Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, London, England (*FAO Consultant*)
- Dr J. Freijer, National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, Netherlands (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr J. Gry, Institute of Toxicology, National Food Agency of Denmark, Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Fisheries, Søborg, Denmark (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Mr E.F.F. Hecker, Chairman, Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants, Department of Veterinary and Food Policy and Environmental Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, Nature Management and Fisheries, The Hague, Netherlands (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr J.L. Herrman, Scientist, International Programme on Chemical Safety, WHO, Geneva, Switzerland (*Joint Secretary*)
- Dr F. Kayama, Division of Environmental Immunology and Toxicology, Department of Health Science, Jichi Medical School, Tochigi, Japan (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr M. Kogevinas, Associate Professor, Respiratory and Environmental Health Research Unit, Municipal Institute of Medical Research, Barcelona, Spain (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr C.A. Lawrie, Food Standards Agency, London, England (FAO Consultant)
- Dr R. Lorentzen, Office of Science, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)

- Dr M. Luetzow, Nutrition Officer, Food Quality and Standards Service, Food and Nutrition Division, FAO, Rome, Italy (*Joint Secretary*)
- Dr R. Malisch, State Institute for Chemical and Veterinarian Analysis of Food, Freiburg, Germany (FAO Consultant)
- Dr A. Mattia, Division of Product Policy, Office of Premarket Approval, Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr G. Moy, Food Safety, WHO, Geneva, Switzerland
- Dr I.C. Munro, President, CanTox Health Sciences International, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr A. Nishikawa, Division of Pathology, Biological Safety Research Centre, National Institute of Health Sciences, Tokyo, Japan (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr S.W. Page, Joint Institute of Food Safety and Applied Nutrition, Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC, USA (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr J. Park, President, LabFrontier Co., Seoul, Republic of Korea (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Professor A.G. Renwick, Head, Clinical Pharmacology Group, University of Southampton, Southampton, England (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr J. Rice, Chief, Unit of Carcinogen Identification and Evaluation, International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon, France
- Dr J. Schlatter, Swiss Federal Office of Public Health, Institute of Veterinary Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Professor P. Shubik, Senior Research Fellow, Green College, University of Oxford, Oxford, England (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Professor I.G. Sipes, Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, College of Pharmacy, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr G.J.A. Speijers, Head, Section on Public Health, Centre for Substances and Risk Assessment, National Institute of Public Health and Environmental Protection, Bilthoven, Netherlands (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr P.J.P. Verger, Scientific Directorate on Human Nutrition and Food Safety, National Institute for Agricultural Research, Paris, France (*FAO Consultant*)
- Dr J.D. Wilson, Senior Fellow, Center for Risk Management, Resources for the Future, Washington, DC, USA (*WHO Temporary Adviser*)
- Dr M. Zeilmaker, Centre for Substances and Risk Assessment, National Institute of Public Health and the Environment, Bilthoven, Netherlands (WHO Temporary Adviser)
- Dr N.W. Zeman, Triangle Biotechnology Consulting, Chapel Hill, NC, USA (FAO Consultant)

Monographs containing summaries of relevant data and toxicological evaluations are available from WHO under the title:

Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 48, 2002.

Specifications are issued separately by FAO under the title:

Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 9. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 9, 2001.

INTERNATIONAL PROGRAMME ON CHEMICAL SAFETY

The preparatory work for toxicological evaluations of food additives and contaminants by the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA) is actively supported by certain of the Member States that contribute to the work of the International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS).

The International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS) is a joint venture of the United Nations Environment Programme, the International Labour Organization and the World Health Organization. One of the main objectives of the IPCS is to carry out and disseminate evaluations of the effects of chemicals on human health and the quality of the environment.

1. Introduction

The Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives met in Rome from 5 to 14 June 2001. The meeting was opened by Mr W. Clay, Chief, Nutrition Programmes Service, Food and Nutrition Division, FAO, on behalf of the Directors-General of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and the World Health Organization. Mr Clay reminded the Committee that one of its tasks was to provide scientific advice to Member States of the two organizations with respect to food regulations and control. He noted that dioxins and some related compounds were to be discussed by the Committee for the first time, almost 25 years after the accident in Seveso, Italy, in which large quantities of dioxins had been released into the environment. That event had raised awareness and concern both in the general population and among regulators, leading to a greater demand for global assessment, management and communication of risks relating to environmental contamination and food. The Committee's deliberations on the topic would therefore be important and should help to improve communication between those responsible for risk assessment and risk management. Mr Clay informed the Committee that its activities would be part of a wider effort by FAO and WHO to improve food safety. The two organizations were planning to establish a Global Forum for Food Safety Regulators, in order to promote the exchange of information about ways of dealing with issues of potential importance to public health and international food trade among those responsible for regulating food safety.

2. General considerations

As a result of the recommendations of the first Joint FAO/WHO Conference on Food Additives, held in September 1955 (1), there have been fifty-six previous meetings of the Committee (Annex 1). The present meeting was convened on the basis of a recommendation made at the fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149).

The tasks before the Committee were:

- to elaborate further principles for evaluating the safety of food additives and contaminants (section 2);
- to undertake toxicological evaluations of certain food additives, flavouring agents and contaminants (sections 3–5 and Annex 2);
- to review and prepare specifications for selected food additives and flavouring agents (sections 3 and 4 and Annex 2).

2.1 Modification of the agenda

Annatto extracts were scheduled for evaluation at a future meeting, when the results of toxicological studies that were being performed would become available to the Committee for consideration. Amyloglucosidase from *Aspergillus oryzae*, var. had been included in the call for data erroneously.

Sodium ethyl *p*-hydroxybenzoate, sodium propyl *p*-hydroxybenzoate, sodium methyl *p*-hydroxybenzoate, calcium sulfite, sodium formate, calcium formate, synthetic γ -tocopherol, synthetic δ -tocopherol, calcium tartrate, sorbitan trioleate, dipotassium diphosphate and dimagnesium diphosphate have been removed from the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives and were referred to the Committee for evaluation. There was no indication, however, that any of these substances are used as food additives, and consequently little information was provided that would permit the establishment of Acceptable Daily Intakes (ADIs) or the preparation of specifications.

Phenyl salicylate was removed from the agenda because no data were available.

2.2 Principles governing the toxicological evaluation of compounds on the agenda

In making recommendations on the safety of food additives and contaminants, the Committee took into consideration the principles established and contained in Environmental Health Criteria, No. 70, *Principles for the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants in food* (Annex 1, reference 76), as well as the principles elaborated subsequently at a number of its meetings (Annex 1, references 77, 83, 88, 94, 101, 107, 116, 122, 131, 137, 143 and 149), including the present one. Environmental Health Criteria, No. 70 (Annex 1, reference 76) contains the most important observations, comments and recommendations made, up to the time of its publication, by the Committee and associated bodies in their reports on the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants. At its present meeting, the Committee noted that the publication included recommendations that are still appropriate and indicated potential problems associated with those that are no longer valid in the light of technological changes.

2.3 Principles for the safety assessment of chemicals in food

The Committee was informed that FAO and WHO are intending to update and consolidate principles and methods for the safety assessment of chemicals in food, including food additives, contaminants, and residues of veterinary drugs and pesticides. The project was initiated on the basis of a recommendation of the Conference on International Food Trade Beyond 2000 that was held in Melbourne, Australia, in October 1999 (2), and in view of the scientific advances, changes in procedures and the increasing complexity of assessments of chemicals in food that have occurred since the publication of Environmental Health Criteria, No. 70 (Annex 1, reference 76) and Environmental Health Criteria, No. 104, *Principles for the toxicological assessment of pesticide residues in food* (3). The project would include consideration of all those aspects of the assessment of chemicals in food that are addressed by the Committee and by the Joint FAO/WHO Meeting on Pesticide Residues.

The Committee recognized the importance of this initiative and recommended that it be undertaken as soon as possible.

2.4 Flavouring agents evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

The Committee questioned whether some of the substances included in the lists of flavouring agents that it had been asked to evaluate at its present meeting were in fact used as flavouring agents. The Committee noted that some of the substances were used extensively in food processing as solvents, emulsifiers or preservatives.

The Committee stressed that the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents is intended for application to flavouring agents used to impart flavour to foods and not to other uses of these substances or to other chemicals that may be used in flavouring formulations. Consequently, the Committee was unable to finalize the evaluations of certain substances listed on the agenda,¹ pending confirmation of their use and intake as flavouring agents.

A clear definition of "flavouring agent" has not been elaborated by the Committee. Although Environmental Health Criteria, No. 70 (Annex 1, reference 76) provides some guidance, the Committee recommended that this issue be addressed at a future meeting.

2.5 α,β-Unsaturated carbonyl compounds and aldehydes

The α , β -unsaturated carbonyl group is a reactive moiety that represents a potential structural alert for toxicity. Five flavouring agents containing such a group were considered by the Committee at its forty-ninth meeting (Annex 1, reference 131), but their evaluation was postponed, pending consideration of other α , β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds. The safety of these five agents was reconsidered by

¹ See sections 4.1.3–4.1.5.

the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149), when it also evaluated furfural, cinnamaldehyde, structural analogues of cinnamaldehyde, pulegone and esters of the corresponding alcohols, which are predicted to be metabolized by formation of α , β unsaturated carbonyls. The available data on the toxicity of these compounds in experimental animals showed a number of adverse effects at high doses, and no-observed-effect-levels (NOELs) for these effects were identified. The presence of protective processes in cells, such as conjugation with glutathione, provides adequate capacity for detoxification at the low doses associated with the use of such compounds as flavouring agents. In consequence, the Committee concluded that the presence of an α,β -unsaturated carbonyl group in a flavouring agent, or its formation during metabolism, would not preclude assessment of that substance by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents. This conclusion was supported by data on the toxicokinetics of 4-phenyl-3-buten-2-one (No. 820), which was considered by the Committee at its present meeting. This α , β unsaturated carbonyl compound undergoes complete first-pass metabolism in rats and mice after oral administration and is rapidly eliminated (with a half-life of 20min in rats and 10min in mice) after intravenous administration. A number of other α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compounds were also evaluated by the Committee at its present meeting (Nos 821, 826 and 829), as were several compounds predicted to be metabolized to an α,β -unsaturated carbonyl compound (Nos 819, 944, 946 and 948).

Aldehyde groups are also chemically reactive and can bind to soluble proteins and protein components of membranes. Several aldehydes were evaluated previously by the Committee, and the potential genotoxicity of furfural was considered in detail at the fifty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference 137). Furfural was reported to be genotoxic in three of 16 assays for reverse mutation in Salmonella typhimurium and in one of three assays for rec gene mutation in Bacillus subtilis. A few chromosomal aberrations were seen in Chinese hamster ovary cells in culture when furfural was added at relatively high concentrations (Annex 1, reference 138). Sister chromatid exchanges and forward mutations were induced in mouse lymphoma cells. The Committee concluded that the weak activity seen in vitro in some tests for genotoxicity might be explained by the reactivity of the aldehyde group. Various metabolic processes (i.e. oxidation, conjugation and condensation) effectively eliminate the reactive aldehyde functional group, when the metabolic pathways are not saturated by high, non-physiological doses. The flavouring agents evaluated at the present meeting included a number of aldehydes (Nos 22, 865, 866,

868, 869, 877–879, 889–893, 896–898 and 937) and compounds that are predicted to be metabolized to aldehydes, such as acetals (Nos 837-840, 867, 940–949 and 954). Metabolism of these flavouring agents is predicted to result in gradual formation of aldehydes, which undergo extensive biotransformation, resulting in only low concentrations of the aldehydes per se. The results of tests for reverse mutation in bacteria were positive for pyruvaldehyde (No. 937), but consistently negative for Nos 22, 80, 95, 98, 867, 868, 877-879, 889, 893, 896, 897 and 953; the results of assays for rec gene mutation in B. subtilis were negative (Nos 878, 889 and 893) or equivocal (Nos 22 and 896). Chromosomal aberrations were reported in vitro in some studies with Nos 22, 878, 889, 893, 896 and 937, but not with No. 80. Similarly, sister chromatid exchanges were reported in some studies with Nos 22, 80, 878, 889 and 937, but not with Nos 868, 893 and 897. Mutations were reported in mouse lymphoma cells exposed to some aldehydes (Nos 80, 877, 878 and 893), but not other aldehydes or acetate (Nos 867, 889 and 896). The results of studies in vivo did not indicate genotoxicity after oral administration in a variety of test systems: in Drosophila melanogaster (with Nos 22, 80, 879 and 893), in assays for micronucleus formation in mice (with Nos 879, 889 and 893) and in assays for dominant lethal mutations in mice (No. 896). Sister chromatid exchange was induced in mice and hamsters by intraperitoneal injection of acetaldehyde (No. 80), and weakly positive results were obtained in several tests in vivo with pyruvaldehyde (No. 937) at very high doses (>200 mg/kg of body weight). Pyruvaldehyde is a natural component of some foods, and the amount ingested due to its use as a flavouring agent would be much less than the estimated intake from natural sources. The Committee concluded that metabolic processes such as oxidation and conjugation effectively eliminate reactive aldehyde functional groups from such substances when they are consumed in the amounts that would arise from their use as flavouring agents.

2.6 Minimum assay values for flavouring agents

At its fifty-third meeting, the Committee developed criteria for establishing specifications for flavouring agents (Annex 1, reference 143). The Committee noted that these criteria — chemical formula and relative molecular mass, identity test and the minimum amount that can be determined (minimum assay value) — constitute the core information required to establish acceptable specifications. At its present meeting, the Committee considered that a minimum assay value of 95% for an individual flavouring agent would apply to both the flavouring agent itself and to the agent plus its known secondary components. The minimum assay values of about 90% of the flavouring agents evaluated to date meet or exceed 95%, and the Committee received information about the nature of the secondary components of the others. The Committee noted that 95% is not a fixed value for the acceptability of specifications for flavouring agents and that flexibility can be used in establishing an acceptable level of secondary components, taking into account the probable levels of intake and other considerations.

Many of the secondary components are structurally related to the named flavouring agents. They typically comprise small amounts of starting materials, isomers and other flavouring agents. As these secondary components share many of the properties of the named flavouring agents, and in some cases are metabolites, their safety would not be expected to present a concern or can be evaluated from appropriate data on metabolism and toxicity.

The Committee noted that, in applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents, information on secondary components included in the specifications should be considered with data on intake and on the potential toxicity of the flavouring agent and its structural analogues. The Committee therefore recommended that data on specifications be submitted before or at the same time as all other information necessary for evaluating the safety of a flavouring agent.

2.7 Requests for data relating to intake assessments

The Committee recognized that it is unnecessary to request data for assessing intake for all the substances on its agenda, as it had done recently, and developed criteria for determining when such information would be needed. These are described below. In general, calls for data should specify the information required for each substance on the agenda, as the data required for evaluating food additives are different from those required for evaluating contaminants.

2.7.1 Food additives

Data for assessing intake should be requested in the case of food additives that are being evaluated for the first time or are being reevaluated, except for food additives:

- for which only specifications are to be considered;
- for which the Committee has recently deferred an evaluation, pending the provision of a specific toxicological study or information on specifications, provided it has evaluated intake of the additive during the preceding 3–5 years.

Information on proposed maximum levels should be provided in the call for data for food additives included in the draft Codex General

Standard for Food Additives, so that national assessments of intake based on such maximum levels, national maximum levels and/or actual levels of use can be submitted. The Committee has formulated data sheets for submission of national data, which are included in the guidelines for the preparation of working papers on the intake of food additives.

2.7.2 Contaminants

For contaminants, an intake assessment is required in all cases. The call for data should request data on:

- the occurrence and concentrations of the contaminant (both individual and summary data) from all available sources, preferably submitted on data sheets, with information on sampling and analytical techniques, data quality and reliability, reporting conventions and appropriate processing factors;
- national intake of the contaminant derived from national surveys of food consumption and concentrations.

2.8 Principles governing the establishment and revision of specifications

2.8.1 Inclusion of raw materials and manufacturing methods in specifications

Principles for the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants in food (Annex 1, reference 76) states that "to establish the chemical identities of additives, it is necessary to know the nature of the raw materials, methods of manufacture and impurities. This information is used to assess the completeness of analytical data on the composition of additives, and to assess the similarity of materials used in biological testing with those commercially produced."

As there are increasing volumes of food additives in international trade, specifications must include brief descriptions of the raw materials and methods of manufacture used, excluding proprietary details, in order to provide a full account of the product being evaluated. If this information is not available, the Committee cannot know whether the products being evaluated were produced from materials or methods that are different from those in the specifications; consequently, impurities might have arisen that were not considered during the toxicological evaluation. The level of detail of the descriptions should be similar to that in specifications elaborated by the Committee for additives made by fermentation or from plant materials.

2.8.2 General specifications and considerations for enzyme preparations used in food processing

The Committee has, on many occasions, addressed issues related to specifications for enzyme preparations used in food processing. The general specifications currently in use for enzymes were first elaborated by the Committee at its twenty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 59). Several revisions have been made, including the following:

- an addendum to address issues arising from use of enzymes from genetically modified microorganisms (Annex 1, references 94, 96, 137 and 139);
- addition of an appendix to describe the method for determining antimicrobial activity (Annex 1, reference 58);
- an amendment to address inclusion of microbial strain numbers in the specifications for enzyme preparations (Annex 1, reference *139*);
- addition of the general requirement that source microorganisms be non-pathogenic and non-toxigenic (Annex 1, reference 145).

At its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149), the Committee reiterated its view, expressed at its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 145), that Annex 1 (General specifications for enzyme preparations used in food processing) of the *Compendium of food additive specifications* (Annex 1, reference 96) required updating in the light of technological developments and to ensure consistency and coherence with the appendices, including Appendix B (General considerations and specifications for enzymes from genetically manipulated microorganisms).

At its present meeting, the Committee noted that the revised general specifications require that all new enzyme preparations undergo a general safety assessment. Many of the requirements previously outlined for enzyme preparations from genetically modified microorganisms are appropriate for all preparations, regardless of source, and the Committee revised the general specifications to reflect those requirements. For enzymes from genetically modified sources, information is now required on the microbial strain used as the source organism and the genetic material introduced into and remaining in the final microbial strain used in production.

At its present meeting, the Committee noted that the list of mycotoxins contained in the existing general specifications was not relevant to all food enzyme preparations from fungal sources. It agreed that an attempt to list all known mycotoxins of potential concern was impractical and unwarranted. The Committee further agreed that enzyme preparations derived from fungal sources be evaluated for those mycotoxins that are known to be synthesized by strains of the species or related species used in the production of the enzyme preparation. With regard to limits on heavy metals, the Committee agreed that the specifications for lead contained in the existing general specifications should be lowered from 10 mg/kg to 5 mg/kg. The Committee recognized that arsenic is not a concern in enzyme preparations, and therefore deleted the limit for this metal. Moreover, as there is no traceable source of cadmium or mercury in enzyme preparations, the Committee saw no need to establish limits for those metals. Such changes are consistent with the Committee's current policy on heavy metals (Annex 1, reference 145).

In considering microbiological contamination of enzyme preparations, the Committee agreed that the existing microbiological criteria (for *Salmonella* spp., *Escherichia coli* and total coliforms) and the requirement that use of preparations should not increase the total microbial count in treated food above the threshold considered to be acceptable for the respective foods are sufficient to ensure microbial safety. The criteria and the requirement were thus retained. The Committee noted that the specification for a total viable count of 5×10^4 organisms per gram included in the existing general specifications did not provide an indication of the safety of an enzyme preparation. It was therefore deleted.

In considering allergenic potential, the Committee emphasized that, when the source organism of an enzyme preparation is a genetically modified microorganism, the necessity for evaluating the allergenic potential of the gene products encoded by the inserted DNA should be assessed. The Committee agreed that, when the DNA sequence of an enzyme from a genetically modified production microorganism is comparable to that coding for an enzyme already known to have a history of safe use in food, there would be no need to assess the allergenic potential of that enzyme further.

Finally, the Committee recognized that the revised specifications include many criteria for safety evaluation that would be more appropriately listed elsewhere. The Committee strongly recommended that *Principles for the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants in food* (Annex 1, reference 76) be revised to include the safety assessment of enzymes intended for use in food and that such guidelines should subsequently be removed from the general specifications.

3. Specific food additives (other than flavouring agents)

The Committee evaluated two food additives for the first time and reevaluated a number of others. Information on the safety evaluations and on specifications is summarized in Annex 2. Details of further toxicological studies and other information required for certain substances are given in Annex 3.

3.1 Safety evaluations

3.1.1 Emulsifiers

3.1.1.1 Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol

Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol were reviewed by the Committee at its tenth and seventeenth meetings (Annex 1, references 13 and 32). At its seventeenth meeting, the Committee allocated an ADI of 0–50 mg/kg of body weight on the basis of the results of biochemical and metabolic studies and feeding tests in animals. At the same meeting, the Committee also reviewed mixed tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol and allocated an ADI "not limited", with the provision that the total intake of tartaric acid from food additives should not exceed 30 mg/kg of body weight per day.

Specifications established by the Committee at its fifty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference 137) covered both the above-mentioned products under the name "diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol", as the Committee was aware that the two products could not be distinguished analytically. At that meeting, the Committee recommended that the material defined in the specifications be evaluated toxicologically. At its present meeting, the Committee considered the data that were available previously as well as newly submitted information.

The diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol consist of mixed glycerol esters of mono- and diacetyltartaric acid and fatty acids of food fats. They can be manufactured either by the interaction of diacetyl-tartaric anhydride and mono- and diglycerides of fatty acids in the presence of acetic acid, or by the interaction of acetic anhydride and mono- and diglycerides of tartaric acid.

Owing to inter- and intramolecular exchange of acyl groups, the two methods of production result in essentially the same components, the distribution of which depends on the relative proportions of the basic raw materials, on temperature and on reaction time. Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol may contain small amounts of free glycerol, free fatty acids and free tartaric and acetic acids. They may be further specified as to the acid value, total tartaric acid content, free acetic acid content, saponification value, iodine value, free fatty acid content and the solidification point of the free fatty acids.

The draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives includes use of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol as an emulsifier, sequestrant and stabilizing agent in a wide range of foods at a maximum concentration of 10g/kg.

Biological data. Biochemical studies suggest that diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol are hydrolysed in the gastrointestinal tract to yield mono- and diglycerides and acetylated tartaric acid. As mono- and diglycerides are natural dietary constituents, they would be subjected to natural digestion and absorption processes. Diacetyltartaric acid is not a natural constituent of the diet, and there is evidence that it may be further hydrolysed to yield acetic and tartaric acids. When labelled diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol were administered to rats, only about one-third of a ¹⁴C label on tartaric acid was absorbed; slightly more was excreted in expired air than in urine.

The studies reviewed previously indicated little toxicity after administration of a single oral dose of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol. Three studies of the potential long-term toxicity of this product when given in the diet to small numbers of rats showed no adverse effects of dietary concentrations of up to 200g/kg on mortality rate, physical appearance, body weight, food consumption, reproduction or the histological appearance of the main organs. Dogs also showed no adverse effects when fed diets containing concentrations of up to 200g/kg for more than 2 years.

The information reviewed for the first time at the present meeting consisted of a 2-week study of palatability, a long-term study of toxicity and carcinogenicity, a two-generation study of reproductive toxicity and a study of developmental toxicity, all conducted in rats, plus two studies of genotoxicity, for point mutations in bacteria and for clastogenicity in isolated human lymphocytes. In addition, a 6-month study was conducted in male rats to elucidate some of the effects seen in the long-term study of toxicity and carcinogenicity.

In the short- and long-term studies in rats, diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol at a concentration of 100 g/kg of diet caused a transient occurrence of soft stools, particularly in males. Food consumption was frequently depressed at this concentration, most consistently during the first weeks of treatment. The palatability of the diet was not improved by incorporating diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol into breadcrumbs or by volatilizing the fatty acids in the substance by freeze–drying the diet before administration. Bodyweight gain tended to be reduced, but this effect was not observed consistently in the short-term study. In the long-term study, consumption of a diet containing diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol at 100 g/kg was associated with decreased body weight. This effect was transient in male rats, but body weights more than 10% lower than those of controls persisted in females into the second year of the study. Supplementing the diet with additional protein,

magnesium, pyridoxine (vitamin B_6) and cyanocobalamin (vitamin B_{12}) reduced the decrease in weight observed with the compound at 100g/kg of diet in the 6-month study.

Administration of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol was associated with a decrease in the proportion of lymphocytes and an increase in the proportion of neutrophils in the total leukocyte count during the 6-month study and during the first year of the long-term study. However, these effects were transient and dependent on the type of diet.

In the 6-month study, inclusion of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol at a concentration of 60 or 100 g/kg of diet was associated with an increase in the urinary excretion of calcium. In the long-term study, differences in the weights of the adrenal glands, kidneys and spleen were observed after 1 year of treatment but were no longer evident after 2 years. Males fed a diet containing 100 g/kg showed an increase in both the incidence and the severity of mineralization in the kidney papilla and pelvis after 1 and 2 years of treatment. Administration at 100 g/kg of diet for 2 years resulted in an increased prevalence of microscopic abscesses in the kidneys of males and an increased severity of nephrocalcinosis in females.

After 2 years of treatment, a dose-related increase in the incidence of adrenal medullary adenomas was seen in males, affecting 4/50, 6/50, 11/50 and 15/50 (statistically significant) animals at 0, 30, 60 and 100g/kg of diet, respectively, and 1/50 and 4/50 females at 0 and 100g/kg of diet, respectively. Focal medullary hyperplasia was observed in 3/50, 10/48 (statistically significant), 15/50 (statistically significant) and 15/50 (statistically significant) males at 0, 30, 60 and 100g/kg of diet, respectively, and 1/5/50 (statistically significant) and 15/50 (statistically significant) and 15/50 (statistically significant) and 100g/kg of diet, respectively, and in 0/50 and 9/50 (statistically significant) females at 0 and 100g/kg of diet, respectively.

Statistically significantly higher incidences of haemangioma and haemorrhage in the mesenteric lymph nodes were observed in males fed diets containing 100 g/kg of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol, while the incidence of sinus histiocytosis of the mesenteric lymph nodes was statistically significantly increased in all treated males.

Myocardial fibrosis was observed more frequently in males at the highest dietary concentration (13/50) than in the control group (3/50). Females at the highest concentration had higher incidences of endometrial hyperplasia (7/50 vs 0/50) and cystic endometrial hyperplasia (14/50 vs 7/50) than controls at the end of the study. Histopathological examinations were carried out on the hearts of only

some of the males and on the uteri of only some of the females at the two lower doses.

In a two-generation study of reproductive toxicity, parental males of the F_0 generation ate less of the diet containing 100 g/kg of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol and gained less weight during the pre-mating period. Although F_0 females at this dietary concentration also ate less food during the first few weeks of the study, their body-weight gains were not affected. The body weights, body-weight gains and food consumption of the F_1 adults were unchanged. The survival of the F_1 and F_2 litters was not affected by treatment. The weight gains during lactation of the F_1 generation litters of dams given diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol at concentrations of 60 or 100 g/kg of diet and of the F_2 generation litters of dams at 100 g/kg of diet were significantly reduced. The reproductive organs were not assessed histologically. The NOEL for reproductive toxicity was 30 g/kg of diet, equivalent to 1500 g/kg of body weight per day.

Evaluation. High dietary concentrations of diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol were associated with decreased body weights in adult rats and their offspring, but it could not be ascertained from the available data whether these decreases were secondary to or independent of decreased food consumption.

In the 2-year study in rats, the groups treated with diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol were apparently compared with controls fed diets containing monoglyceride. In order to assess whether some of the adverse effects were treatment-related, it would be necessary to compare the effects in treated groups with those in both untreated and monoglyceride-treated control groups, and to compare the control groups with one another. In the absence of additional data on the incidence of myocardial fibrosis and adrenal medullary hyperplasia in animals at the lowest and intermediate doses, no NOEL could be identified in the long-term study. The previous ADI of 0–50 mg/kg of body weight was made temporary until 2003, pending submission of all the necessary additional information.

The specifications for diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol were revised. As specifications no longer exist for tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol, mixed, the previous ADI is no longer applicable and was withdrawn.

A toxicological monograph was prepared, incorporating information from the earlier monographs and summaries of the studies reviewed for the first time at the present meeting.

3.1.1.2 Quillaia extracts

Quillaia extracts (synonyms: bois de Panama, Panama bark extracts, quillai extracts, Quillay bark extracts, soapbark extracts) are obtained by aqueous extraction of the milled inner bark or wood of pruned stems and branches of *Quillaja saponaria* Molina (family Rosaceae), which is a large evergreen with shiny, leathery leaves and a thick bark, native to China and several South American countries, principally Bolivia, Chile and Peru. The term "quillaia" refers to the dried inner bark of the tree.

Unpurified extracts contain over 60 triterpenoid saponins, consisting predominantly of glycosides of quillaic acid. Polyphenols and tannins are major components. Some simple sugars and calcium oxalate are also present. The saponin concentration of freshly prepared, unpurified extracts is 190–200 g/kg of solids (about 20%). The extracts are treated with "stabilizing agents" such as egg albumin and polyvinylpyrrolidone and then filtered through diatomaceous earth. The stabilizing agents remove substances that would probably precipitate during storage, such as protein–polyphenol complexes. After filtration, the liquid is concentrated, and the concentrate may be sold as such (solids constituting about 550 g/l) or be spray–dried and sold as a powder containing carriers such as lactose and maltodextrin. The unpurified extracts are used in food applications, primarily for their foaming properties.

Semi-purified powdered extracts are produced by subjecting unpurified extracts to ultra-filtration or affinity chromatography to remove most solids other than saponins, such as polyphenols. These semi-purified extracts have higher saponin concentrations (750–800g/ kg of solids; about 80%) and better emulsifying properties than unpurified extracts.

Highly purified extracts are produced for use as adjuvants in the production of animal and human vaccines and not for food use. These products generally contain more than 90% saponins.

In previous evaluations, the Committee considered data on unpurified quillaia extracts. Quillaia extracts were reviewed toxicologically by the Committee at its twenty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 59). The available toxicological data included adequate lifetime studies in mice and rats, from which a NOEL was identified. However, in the absence of data, no specifications were prepared, and, hence, no ADI could be allocated. At its twenty-ninth meeting (Annex 1, reference 70), the Committee prepared new tentative specifications and established an ADI of 0–5 mg/kg of body weight. The present evaluation was conducted in response to a request by the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants at its Thirtysecond Session (4) that the Expert Committee re-evaluate all relevant information on the toxicity and, in particular, the intake of quillaia extracts. No new data were submitted to the Committee at its present meeting. The Committee evaluated published reports on quillaia extracts or specific saponins that provided information relevant to a toxicological assessment of quillaia extracts.

Biological data. Quillaia extracts are mixtures of biologically active compounds that include saponins, tannins, polyphenols and calcium oxalate. The saponins present in quillaia extracts have a variety of biological activities: they are haemolytic, cytotoxic, enhance immune reactions, cause mucosal irritation and inflammation and are anti-hypercholesterolaemic. The biological activities and the potency of individual saponins vary widely and depend primarily on the route of administration.

Studies of acute toxicity showed that quillaia extracts are less toxic when administered orally than when administered subcutaneously or intravenously. Fractions isolated from Q. saponaria differed widely in acute toxicity as well as in adjuvant activity and cholesterol-binding capacity. QS-18, the major saponin of quillaia extracts, was more acutely toxic to mice than two other saponins that were isolated and was more toxic than the extract itself when administered intradermally.

In a 90-day study, rats were fed diets containing 40 g/kg quillaia extract (equivalent to 2000 mg/kg of body weight per day). The specifications of the preparation conformed to the Emulsifiers and Stabilisers in Food Regulations 1975 of the United Kingdom, but information on the actual composition of the material tested was not available. The animals showed decreased body-weight gain, decreased weight of the liver relative to body weight and increased stomach weight, with no treatment-related histological changes. The NOEL was 6g/kg of diet, equivalent to 400 mg/kg of body weight per day.

In a more recent 90-day study, rats were given quillaia saponins in deionized water by gavage at a dose of 1200 mg/kg of body weight. Severe and lethal toxic effects were observed during the study. In the surviving animals, the weights of several organs were increased, and several haematological and clinical parameters were changed. Histopathological examination showed inflammatory changes in the forestomach, larynx, trachea and lungs.

Minor changes in body-weight gain and in the relative weights of some organs were reported in lifetime studies in mice and rats given quillaia extracts (with specifications conforming to the Emulsifiers and Stabilisers in Food Regulations 1975 of the United Kingdom), at dietary concentrations of up to 30g/kg for mice and 15g/kg for rats. No compound-related histopathological changes were reported. The NOELs for quillaia extracts in the diet were 5g/kg (equivalent to 700 mg/kg of body weight per day) for mice and 10g/kg (equivalent to 500 mg/kg of body weight per day) for rats.

The Committee noted that the differences in toxicity observed in the 90-day studies in rats treated orally, outlined above, might have been due to differences in the concentrations and types of saponins present in the test material and/or differences in the method of administration, i.e. in the diet and by gavage in water.

Evaluation. The existing specifications for quillaia extracts were revised in order to clarify the differences between unpurified and semi-purified extracts. As additional information on composition was determined to be necessary, the specifications were designated as tentative. Once the requested information has been received, the Committee will consider whether separate specifications for unpurified and semi-purified extracts are required.

The Committee decided that the previously established ADI of 0-5 mg/kg of body weight for unpurified extracts should be made temporary and extended it until 2003, pending clarification of the specifications for quillaia extracts; further studies of toxicity with specified quillaia products similar to the product consumed by humans may be required. The Committee emphasized that the temporary ADI is not applicable to the semi-purified extract or to any other product derived from *Q. saponaria* or from other species of *Quillaia*.

Assessment of intake. Quillaia extracts can be used as foaming agents in soft drinks and cocktail mixes and as emulsifiers in foods such as baked goods, sweets, frozen dairy products, gelatine and puddings. Their major food use is in soft drinks such as ginger beer, root beer and cream soda.

Calculations based on the temporary ADI of 0–5mg/kg of body weight and the assumption that quillaia extracts are used in soft drinks at a concentration of 500mg/kg indicated that a person weighing 60 kg could drink up to 600g/day of a soft drink before exceeding the ADI, while a child weighing 15 kg could drink only 150g/day of a soft drink before exceeding the ADI. Data on food consumption submitted to the Committee indicated that consumers in Australia who are at the 95th percentile of the distribution of consumption of soft drinks that are likely to contain the additive and children aged 1.5–4 years in the United Kingdom who consume soft drinks at the 97.5th percentile could exceed these amounts. However, these calculations may have overestimated long-term consumption because the data were derived from short-term surveys.

Estimates of intake based on consumption of soft drinks likely to contain this food additive and the levels of use of quillaia extracts permitted in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives were submitted by Australia and the USA. Estimates of the mean intake in the United Kingdom were also available, which were based on consumption of all water-based flavoured drinks and are therefore conservative. In Australia, the mean intakes were 3mg/kg of body weight per day (60% of the ADI) for consumers of drinks containing the additive at the level permitted in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives (500mg/kg) and 7.2mg/kg of body weight per day (145% of the ADI) for persons at the 95th percentile of consumption. In the USA, the estimated mean intakes of quillaia extracts were 1.5 mg/kg of body weight per day (30% of the ADI) for consumers of drinks containing the additive at the level permitted in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives and 2.7 mg/kg of body weight per day (54% of the ADI) for consumers at the 90th percentile.

Estimates of intake based only on consumption of soft drinks likely to contain the food additive and national levels of use were submitted by the USA. The maximum level of use of quillaia extracts by manufacturers in the USA is 100 mg/kg. The estimated mean intake by consumers was 0.3 mg/kg of body weight per day (6% of the ADI), and that by consumers at the 90th percentile was 0.54 mg/kg of body weight per day (11% of the ADI). Data from the United Kingdom, based on a level of use by manufacturers of 95 mg/kg, indicated that children who consume soft drinks at the 97.5th percentile level would consume quillaia extracts at 5.2 mg/kg of body weight per day (105% of the ADI), but this value may be an overestimate of intake as it is based on consumption of all water-based flavoured drinks.

Use at a maximum level of 95–100 mg/day (that reported by the manufacturers), as in the United Kingdom and the USA, appeared to be adequate for the technological functioning of quillaia extracts as foaming agents in soft drinks and did not appear to result in intakes that exceed the ADI. Young children are a possible exception, but, as the results of a short-term nutritional survey were used, the frequency or duration of their potential excursion above the ADI could not be determined.

The Committee recommended that the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants review the use of quillaia extracts at 500 mg/kg proposed in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives.

A toxicological monograph was prepared.

3.1.2 Enzyme preparation

3.1.2.1 Invertase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae

Invertase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, or "bakers' yeast", hydrolyses sucrose to a mixture of glucose and fructose (invert sugar). This substance was reviewed by the Committee at its fifteenth meeting (Annex 1, reference 26) as one of the active principles of carbohydrase from *Saccharomyces* species. It is produced by controlled, submerged fermentation of a pure culture of *S. cerevisiae*. At the end of fermentation, the yeast cells are collected, washed and subjected to autolysis. The lysate is centrifuged and/or filtered to remove cell debris. The resulting enzyme preparation may be dried or ultrafiltered to a desired enzyme concentration. Liquid ultra-filtered products can be treated further with activated charcoal to remove colour and then filtered under sterile conditions. The invertase product is standardized with food-grade diluents.

At its fifteenth meeting (Annex 1, reference 26), the Committee concluded that enzymes derived from microorganisms that are traditionally accepted as constituents of foods or are normally used in the preparation of foods should themselves be regarded as foods. Invertase from *S. cerevisiae* was evaluated at the present meeting because it was being considered for inclusion in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives.

Invertase is fundamental to the manufacture of soft-filled chocolates and liquid-centre confectionery, there being no additive that fulfils the same technological function. In the filling for chocolates, invertase is used at a concentration of 1 g/kg of sucrose, resulting in a concentration of 0.6 g/kg (600 mg/kg) in the finished product.

The intake of invertase predicted by the Scientific Committee on Food of the Commission of the European Union was 15 mg/day, assuming consumption of 25g of filled chocolates per day out of a total of 50g of chocolate of all types and a concentration of invertase of 600 mg/kg of chocolate.

The potential intake of invertase from its use in chocolates was also predicted for the Australian population from individual dietary records obtained in a survey in 1995. Assuming consumption of 600 mg/kg of filled chocolate, the mean invertase intake by consumers was 20 mg/ day (33 g/day of filled chocolate), and that of persons at the 95th percentile of consumption was 61 mg/day (100 g/day of filled choco-

late). These estimates were based on 24-h recalls of food consumption, which tend to result in overestimates of consumption on a longterm basis. The intake of invertase by young children and adolescents was similar to that of adults but would be relatively higher than that of the general population if expressed per kilogram of body weight.

No biological data were available. *S. cerevisiae* has a well-established history of use in fermented foods, including bread, alcoholic beverages, some milk products and cocoa. In line with the general principles outlined in *Principles for the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants in food* (Annex 1, reference 76), invertase from *S. cerevisiae* that meets the specifications developed at the present meeting was considered to be acceptable, as *S. cerevisiae* is commonly used in the preparation of food. Its use should be limited by good manufacturing practice.

A toxicological monograph was not prepared. New specifications were prepared.

3.1.3 Food colours

3.1.3.1 β -Carotene from Blakeslea trispora

The Committee did not undertake a general re-evaluation of β -carotene for use as a colouring agent but focused its assessment on the production and analytical characteristics of β -carotene produced from *Blakeslea trispora*.

 β -Carotene is obtained from *B. trispora* by co-fermentation of the two sexual types of the fungus in specific proportions. Both types are stable in cultures maintained under conditions consistent with good manufacturing practice. These source organisms are neither pathogenic nor toxinogenic. The compound is isolated from the fungal biomass by solvent extraction and crystallized. The main articles of commerce are suspensions in food-grade vegetable or plant oil and water-dispersible powders, which are easy to use and improve stability, as carotenes readily undergo oxidation.

As in synthetic β -carotene, the colouring principle of β -carotene from *B. trispora* consists predominantly of the all-*trans* isomer of β -carotene. The content of total colouring matter is not less than 96% (expressed as β -carotene). β -Carotene from *B. trispora* may also contain other carotenoids, of which γ -carotene accounts for the major part, at concentrations up to 3%. These molecules occur naturally in carotenoid-containing vegetables.

The Committee considered that the source organisms, the production process and the composition of β -carotene from *B. trispora* do not

raise specific concerns and that the material should be considered toxicologically equivalent to chemically synthesized β -carotene, for which an ADI of 0–5 mg/kg of body weight was established by the Committee at its eighteenth meeting (Annex 1, reference 35). This opinion was given further credence by the negative results obtained in two tests for genotoxicity (mutagenicity and chromosomal aberration) considered at the present meeting. Therefore, the Committee established a group ADI of 0–5 mg/kg of body weight for synthetic β -carotene and β -carotene derived from *B. trispora*. The ADI relates strictly to use of β -carotene as a food colouring agent and not to its use as a food supplement.

Use of this preparation is unlikely to result in increased use of β -carotene as a food colour because the material is expected to be substituted for synthetic β -carotene.

A toxicological monograph was prepared. New specifications were prepared and designated as tentative, pending information on a suitable method for determination of residual ethyl acetate and isobutyl acetate used as solvents. This information is required by 2003.

3.1.3.2 Curcumin

Curcumin is obtained by solvent extraction of turmeric, which is in turn derived from ground rhizomes of *Curcuma longa* L. (*C. domestica* Valeton). In order to obtain concentrated curcumin powder, the extract is purified by crystallization. The commercial product consists predominantly of curcumins: the colouring principle (1,7-bis(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)hepta-1,6-diene-3,5-dione) and its desmethoxy and bisdesmethoxy derivatives, in varying proportions. Minor amounts of oils and resins that occur naturally in turmeric may be present.

Turmeric oleoresin and curcumin, the main colouring component of turmeric oleoresin, were evaluated by the Committee at its thirteenth, eighteenth, twenty-second, twenty-fourth, twenty-sixth, thirtieth, thirty-fifth, thirty-ninth, forty-fourth and fifty-first meetings (Annex 1, references 19, 35, 47, 53, 59, 73, 88, 101, 116 and 137). At its eighteenth meeting, the Committee established a temporary ADI of 0–0.1 mg/kg of body weight for curcumin on the basis of the ADI for turmeric oleoresin (0–2.5 mg/kg of body weight) and an assumed average concentration of 3% curcumin in turmeric. The temporary ADI for curcumin was extended at the twenty-second, twenty-fourth, twenty-sixth, thirtieth, thirty-fifth and thirty-ninth meetings of the Committee. At its thirty-ninth meeting, the Committee requested the results of studies of carcinogenicity in mice and rats fed turmeric

oleoresin and the results of a study of reproductive and developmental toxicity with curcumin.

At its forty-fourth meeting, the Committee evaluated the results of the studies of carcinogenicity in rats and mice given turmeric oleoresin containing 79–85% curcumin and new data on the biochemistry and genotoxicity of the compound. The Committee concluded that data on the developmental toxicity of curcumin were no longer required, but reiterated its request for a study of reproductive toxicity. On the basis of a NOEL of 220 mg/kg of body weight per day in the study of carcinogenicity in mice and a safety factor of 200, the Committee increased the temporary ADI to 0–1 mg/kg of body weight and extended it, pending submission of the results of a study of reproductive toxicity with curcumin.

At its fifty-first meeting, the Committee evaluated the results of studies of fertility in rats and mice treated with turmeric oleoresin and concluded that they did not provide assurance that the potential reproductive effects of curcumin had been adequately investigated. The Committee again extended the temporary ADI, pending submission of the results of a study of reproductive toxicity with a substance that complied with the specifications for curcumin, for review in 2001.

The results of the requested study were not available to the Committee at its present meeting. Nevertheless, the Committee was informed that a multigeneration study of reproductive toxicity with a substance that complied with the specifications for curcumin was under way and would be completed within the next few months. In view of this information, the temporary ADI of 0–1 mg/kg of body weight for curcumin was extended until 2003, pending submission of the results of this study.

A toxicological monograph was not prepared. The existing specifications were revised, with minor changes.

3.1.4 Food salts

3.1.4.1 Phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates

Phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates were evaluated by the Committee at its sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, thirteenth, fourteenth, seventeenth and twenty-sixth meetings (Annex 1, references 6-8, 11, 19, 22, 32 and 59). A maximum tolerable daily intake (MTDI) of 70 mg/kg of body weight was established at the twenty-sixth meeting on the basis of the lowest concentration of phosphorus (6600 mg/day) that caused nephrocalcinosis in rats. It was considered inappropriate to establish an ADI, as phosphorus (as phosphates) is an essential nutrient and an unavoidable constituent of food. The MTDI is

expressed as phosphorus and applies to the sum of phosphates naturally present in food and the phosphates derived from use of these food additives.

This MTDI was considered to cover a number of phosphate salts, according to the principle established by the Committee at its ninth, twenty-third and twenty-ninth meetings (Annex 1, references *11*, *50* and *70*) that the ADI (or MTDI) established for ionizable salts should be based on previously accepted recommendations for the constituent cations and anions. However, in this case, while an MTDI has been established for the class of phosphate salts, certain specific salts were not included because specifications were lacking and because information was not available to indicate whether they were being used as food-grade materials.

At its present meeting, the Committee established specifications for certain specific phosphate salts, pending further information, as indicated below.

- Calcium dihydrogen diphosphate is manufactured by calcination of calcium orthophosphate at a temperature of about 270°C, with a molar ratio of calcium:phosphorus of about 1:2. It is used in fine bakery wares at concentrations of up to 20g/kg.
- Monomagnesium orthophosphate is manufactured by partial neutralization of phosphoric acid with magnesium oxide and drying the resultant product. It is used in fine bakery wares at concentrations of up to 20 g/kg. The Committee noted that this substance is more concisely denoted as monomagnesium phosphate. It therefore deleted the prefix "ortho" for the substance in the specifications. The specifications were made tentative, pending further information on loss on drying, loss on ignition, the test method for loss on ignition and the assay method for the dihydrate.
- Sodium calcium polyphosphate is manufactured by the fusion of sodium phosphate and calcium carbonate at temperatures greater than 1000 °C. Phosphoric acid is neutralized with sodium and calcium hydroxides in a molar ratio of 5:1. The resulting mixture undergoes calcination and is cooled, milled and sieved. It is used in processed cheese and processed cheese analogues at concentrations of up to 20g/kg.
- Trisodium diphosphate is manufactured by hydration and drying of mixtures of sodium diphosphate. It is used in meat products at concentrations of up to 5 g/kg. The specifications were made tentative, pending further information on loss on drying, loss on ignition, the test method for loss on ignition and the assay method for the monohydrate.

The Committee included these salts in the group MTDI for phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates.

A toxicological monograph was not prepared.

3.1.5 Glazing agent

3.1.5.1 Hydrogenated poly-1-decene

Hydrogenated poly-1-decene is obtained by catalytic hydrogenation of mixtures of trimers, tetramers, pentamers and hexamers of 1decenes, produced by oligomerization of 1-decene in the presence of a catalyst. The product is purified by filtration through activated clay. Hydrogenated poly-1-decene consists of a mixture of branched isomeric hydrocarbons, predominantly with more than 30 carbon atoms. Minor amounts of molecules with fewer carbons may be present.

Hydrogenated poly-1-decene was first evaluated by the Committee at its forty-ninth meeting (Annex 1, reference 131) for use as a glazing and releasing agent. A 28-day range-finding study and a 90-day study in rats that were available at that time were considered inadequate to support use of this product as a food additive. Data were requested to demonstrate that the oily coats observed in rats fed hydrogenated poly-1-decene in the 90-day study were not the result of systemic absorption of the material. The Committee also requested that the results of a study demonstrating lack of absorption in humans be provided. In the absence of such data, the results of long-term studies of toxicity and reproductive toxicity and information on the metabolism, distribution and excretion of hydrogenated poly-1-decene would be required.

At its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143), the Committee reviewed a study of the distribution and excretion of [³H]hydrogenated poly-1-decene conducted in rats. This study established that the oiliness of the fur observed within 1–6h of administration of a bolus dose was associated with radiolabelled material originating from the anal region, which was spread by grooming. However, while the study indicated that very little hydrogenated poly-1-decene was absorbed after oral administration, it did not allow clear definition of the fate or disposition of any absorbed material. The Committee was therefore unable to establish an ADI and requested an adequate study of the absorption and deposition of hydrogenated poly-1decene in order to determine whether further studies were required.

At its present meeting, the Committee re-evaluated the results of the study of the distribution and excretion of hydrogenated poly-1-decene. Although no additional studies on distribution and excretion were submitted, the Committee's attention was drawn to arguments

that supported the validity of the previous study. In addition, the Committee evaluated a study of the effect of hydrogenated poly-1-decene on the absorption, distribution and excretion of linoleic acid and glycerol trioleate that had been submitted for consideration.

The Committee also revised the existing specifications for hydrogenated poly-1-decene in order to take into account the decrease from 3% to 1.5% in the concentration of molecules with fewer than 30 carbon atoms in products on the market for food additive use.

In its re-evaluation, the Committee accepted that equivalent information can be obtained with ³H and ¹⁴C, provided that the label is located in a metabolically stable position, as was the case for ³H]hydrogenated poly-1-decene. It also accepted that, for technical reasons, use of ¹⁴C-labelled hydrogenated poly-1-decene might be less appropriate, as the synthetic ¹⁴C-labelled compound might be different from the substance used in the studies of toxicity. The results of the study indicated that <1% of the dose of [³H]hydrogenated poly-1decene was absorbed from the gut. The absorbed radiolabel was present largely as ³H₂O, probably arising from tritium exchange between the labelled substance and body water. The Committee concluded that absorption of hydrogenated poly-1-decene was negligible. This conclusion was corroborated by the results of the 90-day study in rats, which provided no evidence of its accumulation in tissues. Furthermore, the revised specifications for the substance, which require that it contains a maximum of 1.5% of compounds with fewer than 30 carbon atoms should ensure that absorption of components of low relative molecular mass is kept to a minimum.

The Committee concluded that the available studies were adequate to assess the toxicity and safety of hydrogenated poly-1-decene. An ADI of 0–6 mg/kg of body weight was established on the basis of the NOEL of 550 mg/kg of body weight per day in the 90-day study in rats for effects on the condition of the fur, liver weight and histological appearance, and a safety factor of 100.

An additional study in rats submitted for consideration by the Committee suggested that hydrogenated poly-1-decene may decrease the bioavailability of linoleic acid, an essential fatty acid. However, the Committee concluded that a nutritionally relevant decrease in bioavailability would not occur if hydrogenated poly-1-decene was consumed at the level of the ADI, i.e. a maximum of 360 mg/person per day.

Hydrogenated poly-1-decene can be used as a release agent in bread prepared in commercial baking operations at concentrations of up to 300–500 mg/kg and in glazed fruit at concentrations of up to 2000 mg/kg. Bread is expected to be the major source of total intake of
this compound. If use only in bread is assumed, it can be calculated that up to 720g of bread containing hydrogenated poly-1-decene at a concentration of 500 mg/kg could be consumed by a 60-kg person before the ADI of 0–6 mg/kg of body weight was exceeded. However, it was considered highly unlikely that a person would consume this amount of bread containing hydrogenated poly-1-decene at the maximum level of use each day.

An addendum to the toxicological monograph was prepared.

3.1.6 Preservative

3.1.6.1 Natamycin (pimaricin)

Natamycin (pimaricin) is a polyene macrolide antibiotic produced by submerged aerobic fermentation of *Streptomyces natalensis* and related species. The fermentation process takes several days, after which the antibiotic is isolated by extraction from broth or by extraction of the mycelium.

Natamycin is used as a food additive to control the growth of yeasts and moulds on the surface of cheese and other non-sterile products, such as meat and sausages.

Natamycin was evaluated by the Committee at its twelfth and twentieth meetings (Annex 1, references 17 and 41). At its twentieth meeting, the Committee established an ADI of 0-0.3 mg/kg of body weight. The present evaluation was conducted in response to a request by the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants at its Thirty-second Session (4).

The Committee considered information on the current uses of natamycin, data on its intake and biological data that had not been evaluated previously.

Uses. Because natamycin is active against yeasts and moulds, but not bacteria, it is used in foods that undergo a ripening period after processing. Its low solubility in water and most organic solvents makes it appropriate for the surface treatment of foods.

Natamycin is used topically in veterinary medicine to treat mycotic infections, such as ringworm in cattle and horses. Previously, it was used topically against fungal infections of the skin and mucous membranes in humans. Its medical use is now confined to topical treatment of fungal infections of the cornea and the prevention of such infections in contact lens wearers.

Assessment of intake. The Committee noted that as the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives proposes restricted use of natamycin only in cheese and in dried, non-heat-treated meats, intake would not be expected to exceed the ADI. Data submitted by Australia, Germany, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the USA indicated that the intakes at mean and high percentiles of consumption were well below the ADI, although the estimates for the United Kingdom and the USA covered cheese consumption only. The estimated mean intakes by consumers ranged from 0.01 to 0.03 mg/kg of body weight per day (representing 3% and 9% of the ADI in Germany and the United Kingdom, respectively), and those by consumers at high percentiles were 0.03–0.08 mg/kg of body weight per day (representing 9% and 27% of the ADI in Australia and the United Kingdom, respectively), if it is assumed that natamycin was used at 40 mg/kg in all cheese products and 20 mg/kg in all cured meat products, as proposed in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives. The estimated intakes of natamycin were lower when national levels of use were assumed.

Toxicological studies. The Committee considered eight studies that had not been evaluated previously and had been conducted before the 1980s. A study of single intraperitoneal administration was considered to be irrelevant to the safety assessment of an ingested substance. The results of two studies of genotoxicity in three bacterial systems (*Bacillus subtilis, Salmonella typhimurium* and *Escherichia coli*) were negative.

Two studies in rats and one in dogs given radiolabelled material for investigation of the distribution and elimination of the compound supported the previous conclusion that natamycin is excreted primarily in the faeces, with minimal absorption. The only adverse effect reported in a short-term study of toxicity in dogs was diarrhoea, which occurred most frequently in animals given the highest dose (equivalent to 25 mg/kg of body weight per day); however, the usefulness of this study was limited, as only two dogs were tested.

In a study of developmental toxicity, an aqueous suspension of natamycin at 500 mg/l was given to groups of 20–26 rabbits at a dose of 0, 5, 15 or 50 mg/kg of body weight per day by gavage on days 6–18 of gestation. The maternal mortality rate was 0%, 5%, 9% and 19% at the four doses, respectively. No clinical signs of toxicity were observed in the does, and the cause of death was unknown. The mean maternal body weight, pregnancy rate, number of implantation sites, number of resorption sites, numbers of live and dead fetuses, proportion of viable fetuses and incidence of soft-tissue anomalies were comparable in the treated groups and a control group given the vehicle only. The fetal body weight in the group dosed at 15 mg/kg of body weight by gavage was lower than that of fetuses in the control group given the vehicle only. The incidence of extra sternebrae was increased at the two highest doses in comparison with the control

group, but not in a dose-related manner. However, in view of the unusual sensitivity of the gastrointestinal tract of rabbits to poorly absorbed substances and to compounds with antimicrobial activity, this study was considered unsuitable for deriving the ADI.

Microbiological studies. The antifungal activities of natamycin and other polyenes depend on their binding to cell membrane sterols, primarily ergosterol, the principal sterol in fungal membranes. Oomycetes fungi and bacteria are insensitive to these antibiotics because their membranes lack ergosterol.

Use of natamycin as an antifungal agent in food may result in exposure of the indigenous microflora to trace quantities of antimicrobial residues. The human intestinal microflora is a complex mixture of more than 400 bacterial species, consisting primarily of bacterial cells at a concentration of approximately 10^{11} – 10^{12} colony-forming units per gram (CFU/g). Fungi are much less abundant than bacteria in the human gastrointestinal tract, the concentration of yeast in stool samples from healthy subjects being up to 10^5 CFU/g. As bacteria are not affected by polyenes, natamycin residues should not harm them; as yeasts are found in low quantities, the consequences of exposure to traces of natamycin would be minimal.

Several studies in experimental animals indicated a lack of antimicrobial activity in the colon, suggesting that natamycin was degraded into microbiologically inactive compounds by bacterial flora. However, no data were available on the degradation of natamycin by human intestinal microflora. In one study, natamycin was present in faecal specimens of volunteers who ingested 500 mg of the compound, indicating that it is incompletely absorbed or degraded.

As emergence of resistance to antimicrobials is a concern, the Committee evaluated the possible development of resistance among microflora as a consequence of exposure to natamycin. A preparation containing 50% natamycin has been used since the 1980s to preserve cheese and sausages. Surveys in cheese warehouses and in drysausage factories where the preparation has been used showed no change in the composition or the sensitivity of the contaminating fungal flora. All but one of the species of yeasts and moulds isolated in cheese warehouses where natamycin was used were inhibited by similarly low concentrations $(0.5-8\mu g/ml)$. In another study, 26 strains of fungi were isolated in eight warehouses where natamycin was used and two warehouses where it had never been used, and were tested for sensitivity to the compound; no insensitive yeasts or moulds were found. The results of laboratory experiments to induce resistance to natamycin in strains of fungi isolated from cheese warehouses indicated that, after 25–30 transfers to media with increasing concentrations of natamycin, none of the strains had become less sensitive. When the sensitivity of yeasts and moulds isolated from drysausage factories where natamycin had been used for several years was compared with that of isolates from factories where natamycin had never been used, no significant differences were demonstrated.

It has been found difficult to induce resistance to polyenes, especially natamycin, in fungi in vitro. Resistant isolates invariably show reduced metabolic and growth rates and, in the absence of polyenes, readily revert to normal metabolism, growth and sensitivity to natamycin. One means of obtaining isolates resistant to natamycin is successive subculturing in vitro in the presence of gradually increasing concentrations of the polyene. Typically, such isolates are resistant only up to the highest concentration to which they have been exposed. After 25 passages, the concentration that inhibited *Candida albicans* was minimally increased, from $2.5-12\mu g/ml$ to $12-50\mu g/ml$.

Evaluation. Natamycin is a polyene macrolide antibiotic that is effective against yeasts and moulds but not against bacteria or oomycetes fungi. The antifungal activities of natamycin depend on its binding to cell membrane sterols, primarily ergosterol, the principal sterol in fungal membranes, which is absent in bacteria. The use of natamycin as an antifungal agent in food may result in exposure of the indigenous flora to trace quantities of antimicrobial residues. As bacteria in the human gastrointestinal tract are not affected by polyenes, the Committee concluded that natamycin would not have an effect and that disruption of the barrier to colonization of the intestinal tract was therefore not a concern. Fungi are much less prevalent than bacteria in the human gastrointestinal tract, and, in light of the negative results of the studies of acquired resistance, selection of natamycin-resistant fungi was not considered an issue.

The Committee noted the finding of extra sternebrae in the study of developmental toxicity in rabbits, in which a dose-related increase in the mortality rate was also reported. It considered, however, that administration of an antimicrobial agent to rabbits by gavage was an inappropriate way of testing for developmental toxicity. In addition, extra sternebrae have been described as a skeletal variation rather than a frank sign of teratogenicity. Thus, the Committee did not consider the finding of extra sternebrae to be evidence that natamycin is teratogenic.

The Committee confirmed the previously established ADI of 0-0.3 mg/kg of body weight for natamycin, which was based on observations of gastrointestinal effects in humans. The Committee noted that the estimated intakes of natamycin, based on maximum levels of use

in cheese and processed meats proposed in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives, do not exceed this ADI.

A toxicological monograph was prepared and the existing specifications were revised. The title of the specifications was changed from pimaricin to natamycin, the commonly used designation. The specifications were made tentative, pending the receipt of information on the level and determination of water content, limit for lead, specific rotation, assay value and method of assay for the commercial product. This information was required for evaluation in 2003.

3.1.7 Sweetening agent

3.1.7.1 D-Tagatose

D-Tagatose is a keto-hexose, an epimer of D-fructose inverted at C-4, with a sweet taste. It is obtained from D-galactose by isomerization under alkaline conditions in the presence of calcium.

D-Tagatose was evaluated by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149), when it concluded that the available data indicated that D-tagatose is not genotoxic, embryotoxic or teratogenic. It noted that the increased liver weights and hepatocellular hypertrophy seen in Sprague-Dawley rats occurred concurrently with increased glycogen deposition; however, the reversal of increased glycogen storage after removal of D-tagatose from the feed was more rapid than regression of the liver hypertrophy. Although the gastrointestinal symptoms seen in adult humans with the expected daily intake of D-tagatose were minor, the Committee was concerned about the increased serum uric acid concentrations observed in a number of studies in humans after administration of either single or repeated doses of D-tagatose. Similar increases were observed with other sugars, such as fructose, but D-tagatose appeared to be a more potent inducer of this effect. The Committee also noted that this effect of Dtagatose had not been studied in persons prone to high serum uric acid concentrations. The Committee concluded that an ADI could not be allocated for D-tagatose because of concern about its potential to induce glycogen deposition in the liver and liver hypertrophy and to increase the serum concentration of uric acid.

Two studies of up to 7 days' duration in Wistar and Sprague-Dawley rats given repeated doses of D-tagatose were submitted to the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting, but the reports were received only in draft form and were not suitable for consideration at that time. The Committee therefore asked for the final reports and for further data to clarify the extent, mechanism and toxicological consequences of the increased serum uric acid concentrations observed in humans exposed to D-tagatose. At its present meeting, the Committee reviewed the reports of the two studies in rats, the results of a study in volunteers (on the relevance of the glycogen deposition and liver hypertrophy) and some published studies on the increased uric acid concentrations in serum after intake of D-tagatose, other sugars and other food components.

Biological data. Review of the results of the studies considered by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting and comparisons with the data reviewed at the present meeting revealed a difference in sensitivity between Wistar and Sprague-Dawley rats. Sprague-Dawley rats given D-tagatose at a concentration of 50g/kg of diet for 28 days showed increased hepatic glycogen only when they had not been fasted the night before necropsy, and this effect was not associated with any microscopic changes in the liver. In a 90-day study in which Sprague-Dawley rats were killed after fasting overnight, administration of Dtagatose at a concentration of 50 g/kg of diet had no adverse effect on the liver. In a 6-month study in Wistar rats in which the animals were killed after fasting 3, 7, 14 and 28 days and 3 and 5 months after treatment, administration of D-tagatose at concentrations of up to 100 g/kg of diet had no adverse effects. Wistar rats are therefore less susceptible to the hepatic effects of D-tagatose than Sprague-Dawley rats. As D-tagatose stimulated glycogen deposition to a similar degree in the two rat strains in short-term studies, the difference is likely to occur at a later stage, during glycogen-induced or other stimulation of liver growth.

The authors suggested that the increase in normal liver mass seen in fasted rats fed diets containing 100 or 200 g/kg D-tagatose is triggered by increased postprandial storage of liver glycogen resulting from simultaneous feeding of D-tagatose and glucose equivalents. In order to test this hypothesis, the effects of separate and simultaneous administration of D-tagatose and glycogen precursors on liver weight and glycogen level were investigated in Wistar and Sprague-Dawley rats. The results neither supported nor invalidated the hypothesis.

As several studies have been performed in healthy volunteers and in patients with diabetes, the number of persons varying from 4 to 73, the Committee based its toxicological evaluation on the data from these studies. The length of these studies varied from several days to several weeks; one study of 12 months' duration included only a limited number of patients with type 2 diabetes. The toxicological aspects investigated included gastrointestinal effects, increased serum uric acid concentrations and hepatic effects.

Mild gastrointestinal symptoms were reported in only one study, in 3 of 10 patients with type 2 diabetes receiving D-tagatose at 10 g/day for several days, whereas in other studies diarrhoea was observed only in patients receiving 25 g three times daily for 8 weeks. In healthy individuals, administration of a single dose of 30 g induced diarrhoea in

some persons only, whereas other studies showed no laxative effect of single doses of D-tagatose as high as 75 g.

The serum or plasma concentration of uric acid was increased transiently in some studies, but the increased uric acid concentration was above the normal range for a number of days in only one study of persons receiving 75 g/day. The other studies showed either no increase or a transient increase in serum uric acid concentrations within the normal range.

In a 28-day study in which 15g of D-tagatose or 15g of sucrose were given three times daily to volunteers, magnetic resonance imaging was used to determine liver volume, and glycogen concentrations and several clinical chemical parameters were measured. The results did not reveal any relevant effect on the liver. In addition, no diarrhoea and no increase in serum uric acid concentration were observed. Therefore, the NOEL was 45g/person per day, equivalent to 0.75g/kg of body weight per day (for a person weighing 60kg).

Evaluation. The Committee considered the 28-day study in which humans received a daily dose of 45 g of D-tagatose or sucrose in three divided doses as most representative of human dietary intake and therefore most relevant for assessing the acceptable intake of D-tagatose accurately. While effects were observed after administration of a single dose of 75 g, no effects were seen following administration of three daily doses of 15 g of D-tagatose, equivalent to 0.75 g/kg of body weight per day. The Committee established an ADI of 0–80 mg/ kg of body weight on the basis of this NOEL and a safety factor of 10.

Assessment of intake. D-Tagatose is proposed for use as a bulk sweetener in low-energy foods, such as edible ices (at a concentration of 3 g/kg), chewing-gum and confectionery (at 15 g/kg), breakfast cereals (at 15 g/kg) and soft drinks (at 1 g/kg). At its present meeting, the Committee considered that the predicted intakes of D-tagatose determined at the fifty-fifth meeting, which were based on the manufacturers' proposed levels of use and individual dietary records in several countries, were conservative. This was because use had been assumed in the entire food category rather than only in the low-energy food component. The mean consumer intakes of D-tagatose from all proposed uses (except chewing-gum, dietary supplements and meal replacements) predicted for Australia, the Member States of the European Union and the USA ranged from 3 to 9 g/day (63–190% of the ADI), and the predicted intakes by persons at high percentiles of consumption were up to 18 g/day (375% of the ADI). On the basis of the information on possible uses, the Committee concluded that the ADI for D-tagatose may be exceeded by some groups of the population.

A toxicological monograph was prepared. The specifications prepared by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting were maintained.

3.1.8 Thickening agents

3.1.8.1 Carrageenan and processed Eucheuma seaweed

Carrageenan, a substance with hydrocolloid properties owing to the presence of sulfated polyglycans with average relative molecular masses well above 100000, is derived from a number of seaweeds of the family Rhodophyceae. It has no nutritional value and is used in food preparation for its gelling, thickening and emulsifying properties. Three main types of carrageenan, known as t-, κ - and λ -carrageenan, are used commercially in the food industry. These names do not reflect definitive chemical structures but only general differences in the composition and degree of sulfation at specific locations in the polymer. Processed *Eucheuma* seaweed is derived from either *E. cottonii* (κ -carrageenan) or *E. spinosum* (λ -carrageenan), which are also Rhodophyceae.

Carrageenan is obtained by extraction of the seaweed into water or aqueous dilute alkali and may be recovered by precipitation with alcohol, by drying in a rotary drum or by precipitation with aqueous potassium chloride and subsequent freezing. In contrast, processed *Eucheuma* seaweed is prepared by soaking the cleaned seaweed in alkaline solution for a short time at elevated temperatures. The treated material is then thoroughly washed with water to remove residual salts and further washed with alcohol, dried and milled to a powder. For both carrageenan and processed *Eucheuma* seaweed, the alcohols that may be used during purification are restricted to methanol, ethanol and isopropanol. The articles of commerce may contain sugars added for standardization purposes, salts to obtain specific gelling or thickening characteristics, or emulsifiers carried over from the drum-drying process.

Carrageenan was reviewed by the Committee at its thirteenth, seventeenth, twenty-eighth and fifty-first meetings (Annex 1, references 19, 32, 66 and 137). At its twenty-eighth meeting, the Committee established an ADI "not specified"¹ on the basis of the results of a number

¹ ADI "not specified" is used to refer to a food substance of very low toxicity which, on the basis of the available data (chemical, biochemical, toxicological and other) and the total dietary intake of the substance arising from its use at the levels necessary to achieve the desired effect and from its acceptable background levels in food, does not, in the opinion of the Committee, represent a hazard to health. For that reason, and for reasons stated in the individual evaluation, the establishment of an ADI expressed in numerical form is not deemed necessary. An additive meeting this criterion must be used within the bounds of good manufacturing practice, i.e. it should be technologically efficacious and should be used at the lowest level necessary to achieve this effect, it should not conceal food of inferior quality or adulterated food, and it should not create a nutritional imbalance.

of toxicological studies on carrageenans obtained from various sources.

Processed Eucheuma seaweed was considered by the Committee at its thirtieth, thirty-ninth, forty-first, forty-fourth and fifty-first meetings (Annex 1, references 73, 101, 107, 116 and 137). At its fortyfourth meeting, the Committee concluded that, because of the chemical relationship between processed Eucheuma seaweed and traditionally refined carrageenan, the toxicological data on carrageenan were relevant to the safety assessment of the carrageenan polysaccharide constituents of processed Eucheuma seaweed, but could not replace adequate toxicological studies on processed Eucheuma seaweed itself. At its fifty-first meeting, the Committee reviewed the results of a 90-day study on toxicity in rats fed processed Eucheuma seaweed from E. cottonii and E. spinosum. The Committee concluded that the toxicity of this material was sufficiently similar to that of carrageenan to allow extension of the previous ADI "not specified" for carrageenan to a group ADI that covered processed Eucheuma seaweed. The Committee also considered all studies on carrageenan that had been published since its twenty-eighth meeting and, for the earlier studies, noted the identity of the source material and the type of carrageenan, when these could be identified. It expressed concern about the potential promotion of colon carcinogenesis by carrageenans and processed Eucheuma seaweed and therefore made the group ADI "not specified" temporary, pending clarification of the significance of the promotion of colon cancer observed in studies in rats. At its present meeting, the Committee reviewed the available evidence for the tumour-promoting and related effects of these compounds in rat colon.

Assessment of intake. Carrageenan and processed Eucheuma seaweed are used as thickeners, gelling agents, stabilizers or emulsifiers in a wide range of foods at concentrations of up to 1500mg/kg. Per capita intakes in 1995 derived from "poundage" (disappearance) data in Europe and the USA ranged from 28 to 51 mg/day. These estimates corresponded to those reported for 1993 by the Seaweed Industry Association of the Philippines on the basis of sales of 44 mg/person per day for the populations of Canada and the USA and 33 mg/person per day for European populations.

The estimates derived from poundage data were also consistent with those derived for the population of the USA from model diets, with reported mean intakes of carrageenan of 20 mg/day for all consumers and 40 mg/day for persons at the 90th percentile of consumption (derived by multiplying the mean by a factor of 2). The intakes were derived from data on the food consumption of individuals aged

2 years and over that were available in 1976 from nutrition surveys in the USA, combined with the results of a 2-week study by the Marketing Research Corporation of America on the frequency of food consumption.

Biological data. Two studies showed that carrageenan administered before, during and after administration of known carcinogens (dimethylhydrazine, azoxymethane, N-methyl-N-nitrosourea) enhanced the tumorigenicity of these carcinogens. One of the studies involved administration of carrageenan at 150g/kg of diet, which resulted in decreased body-weight gain. In the second study, involving administration of carrageenan at 60g/kg of diet, the body-weight gain of treated animals was comparable to that of controls. The increased incidence of tumours seen under these circumstances may have resulted from promotion but may also have resulted from altered toxicokinetics or biotransformation of the carcinogen. In addition, there were indications that the bacterial flora had been altered as a result of administration of carrageenan. In a separate study conducted according to a classical tumour initiation-promotion protocol, in which rats were given dimethylhydrazine, subsequent administration of carrageenan at dietary concentrations of up to 50 g/kg did not result in a statistically significant increase in the incidence of colon tumours over that seen with dimethylhydrazine alone.

Two further studies in rats involved use of a conventional tumour initiation-promotion protocol but in which formation of aberrant crypt foci was the end-point, instead of tumour formation. Rats were given azoxymethane with or without subsequent administration of carrageenan in their drinking-water. The higher concentration of carrageenan, 25 g/kg, was given in the form of a solid gel, which may have altered the food and water consumption patterns of the animals. The first study demonstrated that dietary administration of carrageenan after the carcinogen decreased the number of aberrant crypt foci seen relative to the number observed with the carcinogen alone, but significantly increased their size. A subsequent study in rats injected with human faecal microflora showed no effect of carrageenan on either the number or size of aberrant crypt foci. As the relationship between aberrant crypt foci and tumorigenesis is still unclear, it is difficult to interpret the biological significance of these results.

Increased cell proliferation has frequently been postulated as a mechanism of non-genotoxic carcinogenicity or tumour promotion. The preferred methods of assessing cell proliferation are based on histological techniques, which allow identification of the nature and location of proliferating cells. There was no consistent pattern of colon damage in rats treated with carrageenan for prolonged periods. Some studies showed caecal enlargement, but most did not show histological damage. In one study in which rats underwent autoradio-graphic examination, no significant difference from controls in the number of cells per crypt or in the proportion of labelled cells was seen in rats fed a diet containing carrageenan at 74 g/kg for 28 days.

Methods for measuring cell proliferation that are based on measurement of cell cycle-dependent enzyme activities, such as thymidine kinase activity, are cruder means of measuring overall cell proliferation in an entire tissue specimen. A significant increase in thymidine kinase activity, expressed relative to protein content, was found in homogenized mucosal scrapings from the colon of rats fed diets containing carrageenan at 26 or 50g/kg for 4 weeks; no significant effects were observed in the animals fed 0, 6.5 or 13 g/kg carrageenan in the diet for 4 weeks. Histological examination revealed no evidence of infiltration by inflammatory cells in any of the treated groups. In another study, the increased thymidine kinase activity observed in rats fed diets containing carrageenan at 50 g/kg returned to the basal level within 28 days when the animals were returned to a diet with no carrageenan. No increase in thymidine kinase activity was seen in animals receiving diets containing 2 or 15g/kg carrageenan for 28 days. Staining for proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) revealed a significant increase in PCNA-positive cells in the upper third of the crypts of rats receiving a diet containing carrageenan at 50 g/kg for 91 days, but not after 28 or 64 days followed by a 28-day recovery period on a normal diet. No PCNA-positive cells were observed at the luminal surface. The pattern of staining for PCNA seen with carrageenan was considered indicative of an adaptive response, which would not contribute to an increased risk for colonic neoplasia.

In one study, carrageenan inhibited gap-junctional intercellular communication in vitro. However, the mechanism of action was different from that of a known tumour-promoting agent, phorbol ester, and the relevance of this observation is unclear for a substance that is not absorbed in vivo.

Evaluation. In a recent study with a classical tumour initiationpromotion protocol, administration of carrageenan at concentrations of up to 50 g/kg of diet did not promote colon carcinogenesis in rats given dimethylhydrazine. The Committee noted, however, that, in two studies that showed enhancement of colon carcinogenesis in rats, higher dietary concentrations of carrageenan were used and carrageenan was administered before, during and after the carcinogens. The enhanced carcinogenicity seen under these circumstances may have resulted from promotion or from altered toxicokinetics or biotransformation of the carcinogen. Therefore, the mechanism of the

enhancement of colon carcinogenesis in these studies remains unresolved. Continuous feeding of high doses of carrageenan caused a generalized proliferative response, measured as increased thymidine kinase activity, in the mucosal tissue of the colon of male rats. This effect might play a role in the observed enhancement of the tumorigenicity of known colon carcinogens by high dietary concentrations of carrageenan. However, a proliferative effect of carrageenan on the mucosa of the colon was seen only at a dietary concentration of 26 g/kg or more. No effect was seen at a concentration of 15 g/kg in the diet, corresponding to 750 mg/kg of body weight per day, which greatly exceeded the estimated human intake of carrageenan and processed *Eucheuma* seaweed of 30–50 g/person per day from their use as food additives. Bearing in mind that the enhancement of colon carcinogenesis in rats was seen at much higher concentrations and that carrageenan at 50 g/kg of diet did not promote tumours in rat colon in a classical initiation-promotion study, the Committee considered that the intake of carrageenan and processed Eucheuma seaweed from their use as food additives was of no concern. It therefore allocated a group ADI "not specified"¹ to the sum of carrageenan and processed Eucheuma seaweed.

An addendum to the toxicological monograph was prepared. The existing specifications for both carrageenan and processed *Eucheuma* seaweed were revised by incorporating more complete descriptions of the analytical procedures for the determination of lead, cadmium and mercury and by raising the acceptable limit for lead from 2 mg/kg to 5 mg/kg and the acceptable limit for cadmium from 1 mg/kg to 2 mg/kg. These limits were raised to take into account new information on inadequacies of the analytical methods for determination of these elements, which are due to the high salt content of the polysaccharides of both processed *Eucheuma* seaweed and carrageenan. The changes were not made because of information about higher concentrations of lead and cadmium than those previously considered by the Committee. The Committee also observed that the new limits are consistent with the limits established for these heavy metals in specifications for other hydrocolloids, such as alginic acid.

3.1.8.2 Curdlan

Curdlan (synonym, β -1,3-glucan) is a linear polymer of high relative molecular mass, consisting of β -1,3-linked glucose units. Curdlan is produced by fermentation of pure cultures from a non-pathogenic, non-toxinogenic strain of *Agrobacterium* Biovar1 (identified as *Alcaligens faecalis* var. *myxogenes* at the time of its isolation) or

¹ See footnote on page 32.

Alcaligens radiobacter. Curdlan is recovered from the fermentation medium by addition of acid and alkali to disrupt the cells, which releases the curdlan into the medium, followed by separation by centrifugation. It is then washed with copious amounts of water to eliminate mineral salts and other water-soluble substances that may have been carried over from the fermentation broth. The commercial product is an odourless or nearly odourless, tasteless, white to nearly-white spray-dried powder.

The use of curdlan in a wide variety of foods is based on its ability to form an elastic gel upon heating in an aqueous suspension. Thus, it can be used in processed meat, fish and poultry products and in gelatins, puddings and fillings as a firming or gelling agent or as a stabilizer or thickener.

The Committee reviewed curdlan at its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143), when it allocated a temporary ADI "not specified",¹ pending information on the use of curdlan, including the maximum and typical expected levels in the food categories in which it is proposed for use in the draft Codex General Standard for Food Additives, and on the consumption in various regions of the world of foods that might contain curdlan.

Use of curdlan is based on its physical properties, which imply a selflimiting level of use in solid foods. A submission from the USA described a model constructed to predict the intakes of curdlan by a long-term consumer on the basis of a study of the frequency of consumption of foods in 1982–1988 from the Market Research Corporation of America, and average portion sizes from a 3-day national food consumption survey conducted in 1987–1988 by the United States Department of Agriculture. Intake was assessed on the basis of the self-limiting levels of use (20 mg/kg of processed meat, 15 mg/kg of processed poultry and fish, 10 mg/kg of dairy products, 35 mg/kg of egg products, 15 mg/kg of grain products and pasta, 30 mg/kg of cereals and starch desserts, 20 mg/kg of gravies and sauces and 40 mg/kg of gelatins). The resulting mean intake by consumers was estimated to be 3.6 g/person per day, corresponding to 60 mg/kg of body weight per day.

The sponsor submitted an estimate based on daily food intake per capita and typical levels of use in Japan (15 mg/kg of processed meat, 10 mg/kg of processed poultry and fish, 5 mg/kg of dairy products, 30 mg/kg of egg products, 10 mg/kg of grain products and pasta, 10 mg/kg of cereals and starch desserts, 10 mg/kg of gravies and sauces and 30 mg/kg of gelatins). The mean intakes were estimated to be

¹ See footnote on page 32.

0.77 g/person per day, corresponding to 13 mg/kg of body weight per day, for typical levels of use and 1.7 g/person per day, corresponding to 28 mg/kg of body weight per day, for maximum levels of use.

Estimates of the intake of curdlan based on individual dietary records were submitted by the USA on the basis of a survey by the Department of Agriculture and the Continuing Survey of Food Intakes by Individuals (1989–1992). When intake was estimated on the basis of the upper limit of the range of recommended use, the intake of curdlan by consumers was 20 mg/kg of body weight per day for consumption at the mean and 47 mg/kg of body weight per day for consumption at the 90th percentile. When intake was estimated on the basis of self-limiting levels of use, the intake of consumers was 30 mg/ kg of body weight per day for consumption at the mean and 68 mg/kg of body weight per day for consumption at the 90th percentile.

The data on uses and intake requested by the Committee at its fiftythird meeting were provided and raised no safety concern. The Committee therefore established an ADI "not specified"¹ for use of curdlan as a food additive.

The existing specifications were revised, with minor changes.

3.1.9 Miscellaneous substances

3.1.9.1 Acetylated oxidized starch

Acetylated oxidized starch is a chemically modified root or grain starch. It is produced by oxidation of a slurry of starch granules in alkaline hypochlorite at low temperatures (21–38 °C). The alkaline medium is neutralized with sodium bisulfite, and the resulting organic salts are removed by washing with water. The oxidized starch is then esterified with acetic anhydride under mildly alkaline conditions. The product is neutralized with hydrochloric acid, washed and dried.

Acetylated oxidized starch had not been evaluated previously by the Committee. At the present meeting, it was proposed for use as a binding agent in soft confectionery at a concentration of about 300 mg/kg — it is mixed with water, sugars and flavours in a batch process until a clear solution with a dry-solid content of 70% is obtained. The characteristics of the end-product important for confectionery use are gel strength and clarity. Acid hydrolysis results in starch products that are relatively unclear, and oxidized starch products result in overly soft confectionery. Acetylation of oxidized starch enhances the desired properties, resulting in a gummy, clear jelly. It

¹ See footnote on page 32.

can be used as a substitute for gelatin or gum arabic and would replace a large amount of sugar.

Acetylated oxidized starch has a stable configuration under normal conditions in food. It is hydrolysed slowly in the presence of strong acids, yielding glucose, gluconic acid and acetic acid. No degradation products are expected or known to result from storage or use of this substance in the preparation of foods at neutral pH. The substance is not known to sequester minerals, nor does it interact with proteins or vitamins. It has no known effect on other nutrients.

In a 14-day range-finding study in rats, administration of a diet containing acetylated oxidized starch at a concentration of 300 or 500 mg/ kg increased the weights of full and empty caeca, and dilated caeca were found at autopsy. At the higher concentration, soft faeces also occurred. The NOEL was 100 mg/kg of diet.

In a 90-day study in rats given a diet containing acetylated oxidized starch, increased full and empty caecal weights were seen at the highest concentration of 300 mg/kg of diet. Macroscopic examination showed a dilated caecum in one male rat. Histological examination did not reveal changes in the caecal wall or other parts of the digestive tract. Increased caecal weights are a known response to high dietary concentrations of poorly digested carbohydrates in rats, due perhaps to an increased osmotic load of short-chain fatty acids produced by microbial degradation and the associated water retention. Focal hyperplasia of the urinary bladder epithelium was seen in 4 out of 10 male rats that received the highest dietary concentration but not in males given lower concentrations, in controls or in females. The change was probably treatment-related and a consequence of irritation of the urinary bladder by calculi. The NOEL was 100 mg/kg of diet, equivalent to 5900 mg/kg of body weight per day.

If acetylated oxidized starch was to be used only in jelly confectionery at a concentration of 300 g/kg and if the maximum consumption by consumers was 200g of jelly confectionery per day, the maximum intake of acetylated oxidized starch would be 60 g/day.

The effects seen in the 14-day and 90-day studies in rats were similar to those observed with high dietary concentrations of other slowly digested carbohydrates and are commonly seen in rats given other modified starches in the diet. Because of the nature of acetylated oxidized starch and its similarity to other modified starches with non-systemic effects, the Committee established an ADI "not specified",¹ on the basis of the known uses of acetylated oxidized starch as an ingredient in confectionery products.

¹ See footnote on page 32.

A toxicological monograph was prepared. New specifications for acetylated oxidized starch were prepared and incorporated into the specifications for modified starches.

3.1.9.2 α -Cyclodextrin

 α -Cyclodextrin is a non-reducing cyclic saccharide composed of six glucose units linked by α -1,4 bonds. It is produced by the action of cyclodextrin glucosyltransferase (CGTase, EC 2.4.1.19) on hydrolysed starch syrups at neutral pH (6.0–7.0) and moderate temperatures (35–40 °C). The annular structure of α -cyclodextrin provides a hydrophobic cavity that allows formation of inclusion complexes with a variety of non-polar organic molecules of appropriate size. The hydrophilic nature of the outer surface of the cyclic structure makes α -cyclodextrin water-soluble.

The principal method for the isolation and purification of α cyclodextrin takes advantage of its complex-forming ability. At the end of the reaction, 1-decanol is added to the reaction mixture to form an insoluble 1:1 inclusion complex of α -cyclodextrin:1-decanol. The complex is continuously mixed with water and separated from the reaction mixture by centrifugation. The recovered complex is resuspended in water and dissolved by heating. Subsequent cooling leads to precipitation of the complex. The precipitate is recovered by centrifugation, and 1-decanol is removed by steam distillation. Upon cooling, α -cyclodextrin crystallizes from the solution. The crystals are removed by filtration and dried, yielding a white crystalline powder with a water content of less than 11%. The purity on a dried basis is at least 98%.

The hydrophobic cavity and the hydrophilic outer surface of α cyclodextrin form the basis for its use in the food industry. α -Cyclodextrin, like its homologues β - and γ -cyclodextrin, can function as a carrier and stabilizer for flavours, colours and sweeteners; as an absorbent for suppression of undesirable flavours and odours in foods; as an absorbent for suppression of halitosis (in breath-freshening preparations); and as a water-solubilizer for fatty acids and vitamins.

 α -Cyclodextrin had not been evaluated previously by the Committee, but the structurally related compound β -cyclodextrin was evaluated at the forty-first and forty-fourth meetings (Annex 1, references 107 and 116), and γ -cyclodextrin was evaluated at the fifty-first and fiftythird meetings (Annex 1, references 137 and 143). At its present meeting, the Committee noted the close structural similarity between α - and β -cyclodextrin (seven glucose units) and γ -cyclodextrin (eight glucose units), which permitted comparisons of the metabolism and toxicity of these compounds. Biological data. α -Cyclodextrin, like β -cyclodextrin, is not digested in the gastrointestinal tract but is fermented by the intestinal microflora. In germ-free rats, α -cyclodextrin is almost completely excreted in the faeces, whereas γ -cyclodextrin is readily digested to glucose by the luminal and/or epithelial enzymes of the gastrointestinal tract. At low concentrations in the diet (about 20 g/kg), α -cyclodextrin is absorbed intact from the small intestine and is then excreted rapidly in the urine. The majority of the absorption takes place after metabolism of the substance by the microflora in the caecum. Although no studies of metabolism in humans in vivo were available, in vitro studies indicated that α - and β -cyclodextrin, unlike γ -cyclodextrin, cannot be hydrolysed by human salivary and pancreatic amylases.

The acute toxicity of α -cyclodextrin was studied in mice and rats that received the substance by intraperitoneal or intravenous injection. It caused osmotic nephrosis, probably because it was not degraded by lysosomal amylases. At high doses, this led to renal failure.

The results of short-term (28-day and 90-day) studies of the toxicity of α -cyclodextrin indicated that it had little effect when given orally to rats or dogs. After administration of a very high dietary concentration (200g/kg), caecal enlargement and associated changes were seen in both species. This effect was probably the consequence of the presence of a high concentration of an osmotically active substance in the large intestine. No studies of intravenous administration were available to permit a comparison of the systemic toxicity of this compound with that of β - and γ -cyclodextrin.

Studies conducted in mice, rats and rabbits given α -cyclodextrin in the diet at concentrations of up to 200 g/kg did not indicate any teratogenic effects. Similarly, the results of assays for genotoxicity were negative. No long-term studies of toxicity, carcinogenicity or reproductive toxicity have been conducted with α -cyclodextrin, but the Committee concluded that, given the known fate of this compound in the gut, such studies were not required for an evaluation.

In vitro, α -cyclodextrin, like β -cyclodextrin, sequestered components of the membranes of erythrocytes, causing haemolysis. The threshold concentration for this effect was, however, higher than that observed with β -cyclodextrin.

While the potential interaction of α -cyclodextrin with lipophilic vitamins, which might impair their bioavailability, has not been studied directly, such an effect was considered unlikely, by analogy with the results of studies with β -cyclodextrin. Complexes between fat-soluble vitamins and β -cyclodextrin have been shown to have greater bioavailability than uncomplexed forms. The enzyme cyclodextrin-glycosyltransferase, which is used in the production of α -cyclodextrin, is derived from a non-genotoxic, non-toxinogenic source and is completely removed from α -cyclodextrin during purification.

Assessment of intake. The predicted mean intake of α -cyclodextrin by consumers, based on individual dietary records for 1994–1998 in the USA and the proposed maximum levels of use in a variety of foods, would be 1.7 g/day (28 mg/kg of body weight per day) for the whole population and 1.6 g/day (87 mg/kg of body weight per day) for children aged 2–6 years. The main contributors to the total intake of α -cyclodextrin are likely to be soya milk and sweets. For persons at the 90th percentile of consumption, the predicted intake of α -cyclodextrin would be 3 g/day (50 mg/kg of body weight per day) for the whole population and 2.6 g/day (140 mg/kg of body weight per day) for children aged 2–6 years.

Evaluation. No studies of human tolerance to α -cyclodextrin were submitted to the Committee, despite the potentially high dietary intake. Nevertheless, the Committee was reassured by the relatively low toxicity of this compound in animals and the fact that it was less toxic than β -cyclodextrin, for which studies of human tolerance were available. Furthermore, the fact that it is fermented in the gastrointestinal tract in an analogous manner to β -cyclodextrin supported the conclusion that, as in laboratory animals, it would be fermented to innocuous metabolites before its absorption in the human gastrointestinal tract.

The Committee concluded that, on the basis of the available studies on α -cyclodextrin and studies on the related compounds β cyclodextrin and γ -cyclodextrin, for which ADIs have been allocated, there was sufficient information to allocate an ADI "not specified".¹ This ADI was based on the known current uses of α -cyclodextrin within good manufacturing practice as a carrier and stabilizer for flavours, colours and sweeteners; as a water-solubilizer for fatty acids and certain vitamins; as a flavour modifier in soya milk; and as an absorbent in confectionery.

A toxicological monograph and new specifications for α -cyclodextrin were prepared.

3.1.9.3 Sodium sulfate

Sodium sulfate was evaluated by the Committee at its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143), when a temporary ADI "not specified"¹ was established. The ADI was made temporary because information was required on the functional effect and actual uses of

¹ See footnote on page 32.

sodium sulfate in food. This information was provided to the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149), and the "tentative" designation was removed from the specifications. At that time, the temporary ADI was not reconsidered.

Sodium sulfate is used as a colour adjuvant. Worldwide consumption from its use in food is approximately 100 tonnes per year.

At its present meeting, the Committee noted that the results of the few published studies conducted in experimental animals do not raise concern about the toxicity of sodium sulfate. Little is absorbed from the gut, and it is therefore used clinically as a laxative. The small amount absorbed remains in the extracellular fluid space and is rapidly excreted via the kidneys. Minor adverse effects have been reported in a small number of clinical trials and in case reports. All of the effects were seen with preparations containing sodium sulfate and may have resulted from other components of the preparations.

In the absence of evidence of toxicity and given the current uses of this substance, the Committee allocated an ADI "not specified"¹ for sodium sulfate.

A toxicological monograph was not prepared. The specifications prepared by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting were maintained.

3.2 Revision of specifications

3.2.1 Acesulfame K

Accsulfame K is prepared in a three-step process in which sulfamic acid and diketene are reacted to produce an adduct, which undergoes cyclization to the acid form of accsulfame. This product is neutralized with potassium hydroxide to form the potassium salt.

The specifications for acesulfame K were revised. In addition to editorial revisions, a new criterion for purity with regard to the pH value of the aqueous solution was introduced, and the limit for lead was lowered from 10 mg/kg to 1 mg/kg.

3.2.2 Blackcurrant extract

Blackcurrant extract is obtained from blackcurrant pomace by aqueous extraction. The main colouring principles are four anthocyanins (cyanidin 3-rutinoside, delphinidin 3-rutinoside, cyanidin 3-glucoside and delphinidin 3-glucoside). Most of the extracted sugars are fermented to alcohol, and virtually all the alcohol is removed during concentration of the extract by vacuum evaporation. Sulfur dioxide is used during the extraction process, and residual sulfur dioxide may

¹ See footnote on page 32.

be present in the final product. The commercial products are concentrated liquids, pastes or spray-dried powders. Spray-dried powder may contain an added carrier such as maltodextrin or glucose syrup. At its present meeting, the Committee revised the specifications to include a chromatographic identification test which distinguishes blackcurrant extract from other anthocyanin colours and removed the "tentative" designation.

3.2.3 L-Malic acid

The Committee received no information about the uses of L-malic acid, other than its well-established use as a flavouring agent. As DL-and L-malic acid are different compounds made by different manufacturing processes, the specifications for DL-malic acid were corrected by removing the reference to the specifications for L-malic acid.

3.2.4 Oxystearin

The specifications for oxystearin were considered by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149). At that meeting, the Committee maintained the "tentative" designation, with the stipulation that the specifications would be withdrawn if information on the levels of, and a suitable analytical method for, epoxides was not provided by 1 May 2001. The Committee noted that oxystearin was no longer in commercial use as a food additive.

At its present meeting, the Committee withdrew the specifications, as the requested information had not been received. The Committee also withdrew the ADI of 0-25 mg/kg of body weight for oxystearin established at its seventeenth meeting (Annex 1, reference 32), as it considered that there could not be an ADI for a substance for which there were no specifications.

3.2.5 **Pectins**

Pectins consist mainly of the partially methylated esters of polygalacturonic acid and its ammonium, sodium, potassium and calcium salts. Amidated pectins also contain amides of polygalacturonic acid. Pectins are obtained by extraction in an aqueous medium of an appropriate edible plant material, usually citrus fruits or apples. Amidated pectins are obtained by treating the extract with ammonia under alkaline conditions.

The specifications for pectins were revised. The four separate tests for the identification of pectins contained in the specifications prepared at the thirty-ninth meeting (Annex 1, reference 101) were replaced by a new test involving enzymatic degradation, which is specific for pectins, as the Committee had been informed that the previous tests were

not adequate for all commercial samples of pectins. The Committee was also informed that new separation techniques were used which could result in contamination of pectins with insoluble organic compounds. Therefore, a new criterion for purity, the percentage of "total insolubles", was introduced. In addition, the limits for copper, zinc and arsenic were deleted, and the limit for lead was lowered from 10 mg/kg to 5 mg/kg.

3.2.6 Smoke flavourings

Smoke flavourings are complex mixtures of components of smoke obtained by subjecting untreated hardwoods to pyrolysis in a limited, controlled amount of air, dry distillation at 200–800 °C or exposure to superheated steam at 300–500 °C. The major flavouring principles are carboxylic acids, compounds with carbonyl groups and phenolic compounds.

During manufacture of smoke flavourings, hazardous constituents such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are removed by subjecting wood smoke to aqueous extraction or to distillation, condensation and separation for collection of the aqueous phase. The aqueous smoke fraction, containing water-soluble constituents, can be diluted with water or extracted with an edible vegetable oil to produce a smoke flavouring with a higher concentration of non-polar constituents, which may be further extracted with food-grade substances, such as propylene glycol or aqueous solutions of polysorbates.

The commercial products may also contain additives such as emulsifiers, antifoaming agents and gums. Smoke flavourings may also be prepared in dry form by the addition of carriers such as yeasts, flours, salt, phosphates, carbohydrates and anticaking agents.

The specifications for smoke flavourings were considered by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149) and were maintained as "tentative", pending the receipt of information on an alternative solvent to benzene for use in the analysis of the carbonyl content. At its present meeting, the Committee revised the existing tentative specifications and removed the "tentative" designation. The revised specifications apply only to water-soluble distillates of condensed wood smoke, to their aqueous, vegetable oil or polysorbate extracts and to concentrates of these products. They do not apply to products derived from the water-insoluble tars, to certain commercial products or to pyroligneous acid, a by-product of the manufacture of charcoal by carbonation of wood in the absence of air.

3.2.7 Tagetes extract

Tagetes extract is obtained by hexane extraction of dried petals of *Tagetes erecta* L., with subsequent removal of the solvent. The major

colouring principles are the xanthophyll lutein and its dipalmitate (helenien). Other hydroxy derivatives of carotenes may be present, together with other oxy derivatives, such as epoxides. The product may contain fats, oils and waxes that occur naturally in the plant material. The articles of commerce are usually further formulated, e.g. in order to standardize the colour content or to obtain water-soluble or dispersible products.

The specifications for tagetes extract were considered by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149) and were designated as "tentative", pending the receipt of information on the composition of the commercial products, a test for the identification of xanthophylls and a method of assay. As the Committee had received the requested information, it revised the existing tentative specifications and removed the "tentative" designation.

3.3 Revision of limits for metals in food additives

At its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149), the Committee began to implement a systematic 5-year programme to replace the outdated test for heavy metals (as lead) in all existing food additive specifications with appropriate limits for individual metals of concern. Limits for lead and arsenic in 43 emulsifiers were proposed. As no alternative proposals were received by the Secretariat before the deadline for submission of data for the present meeting, the new published limits (Annex 1, reference 151) were adopted, replacing those published in the *Compendium of food additive specifications* and its addenda (Annex 1, references 103, 109, 118, 124, 133, 139, 145 and 151).

The second group of substances, considered at the present meeting, comprised 10 anticaking agents, 17 flavour enhancers, 10 sweetening agents and 13 thickening agents. In response to the call for data, proposed limits and data to support the proposals were received for sodium ferrocyanide. Comments and proposals only were received for calcium silicate, magnesium silicates (synthetic), silicon dioxide (amorphous), sodium aluminosilicate, monosodium L-glutamate, sorbitol, lactitol, xylitol, ammonium alginate, tara gum, methyl cellulose, hydroxypropyl cellulose and hydroxypropylmethyl cellulose.

All the comments, proposals and supporting data were taken into account. Comments on the Committee's new proposed limits (see Table 1) are invited. When higher limits are requested, analytical data in support of such limits must be provided. If alternative values and supporting data are not received by the deadline for submission of data for the fifty-ninth meeting of the Committee, the proposed limits will supersede the existing ones, replacing those published in the

Table 1 Limits for met	als in food additives						
Category	Additive name	INS No.			Limits (mg/kg)	
			Arsenic	Lead	Mercury	Cadmium	Other elements
Anticaking	Aluminium silicate	0559		5			
agents	Calcium aluminium silicate	0556		5			Iron <50
I	Calcium silicate	0552		5			Iron <50
	Ferrocyanides of calcium,	0538	ო	2			Copper <10,
	potassium and sodium						zinc <25
	Magnesium oxide	0530		0			
	Magnesium silicates (synthetic)	0553a		5			Iron < 10
	Silicon dioxide (amorphous)	0551		5			
	Sodium aluminosilicate	0554		Ð			
	Tricalcium phosphate	0341(iii)		4			Iron <50
	Trimagnesium phosphate	0342(iii)		4			Iron <5
Flavour	Calcium 5'-guanylate	0629					
enhancers	Calcium 5'-inosinate	0633					
	Calcium 5'-ribonucleotides	0634					
	Calcium di-L-glutamate	0623					
	Dipotassium 5'-guanylate	0628					
	Dipotassium 5'-inosinate	0632					
	Disodium 5'-guanylate	0627					
	Disodium 5'-inosinate	0631					
	Disodium 5'-ribonucleotides	0635					
	Ethyl maltol	0637					
	L-Glutamic acid	0620					
	5'-Guanylic acid	0626					
	5'-Inosinic acid	0630					
	Magnesium di-L-glutamate	0625					
	Monoammonium L-glutamate	0624					
	Monopotassium L-glutamate	0622					
	Monosodium L-glutamate	0621					

Category	Additive name	INS No.			Limits (r	ng/kg)	
			Arsenic	Lead	Mercury	Cadmium	Other elements
Sweeteners	Alitame	0956					
	Aspartame	0951					
	Cyclohexylsulfamic acid	0952					Selenium < 30
	Isomalt	0953					Nickel <2
	Lactitol	0966					Nickel <2
	Mannitol	0421					Nickel <2
	Saccharin and its sodium,	0954		. 			Selenium < 30
	potassium and calcium salts						
	Sorbitol/sorbitol syrup	0420					Nickel <2
	Sucralose	0955					
	Xylitol	0967					Nickel <2
Thickeners	Ammonium alginate	0403		0			
	Ethyl cellulose	0462		0			
	Gum ghatti	0419		0			
	Hydroxypropyl cellulose	0463		0			
	Hydroxypropylmethyl cellulose	0464		0			
	Karaya gum	0416		N			
	Konjac flour	0425		0			
	Methylethyl cellulose	0465		0			
	Methyl cellulose	0461		0			
	Polyvinylpyrrollidone	1201		0			
	Powdered cellulose	0460(ii)		0			
	Tara gum	0417		0			
	Tragacanth gum	0413		2			

Table 1 (continued)

Compendium of food additive specifications and its addenda (Annex 1, references *103*, *109*, *118*, *124*, *133*, *139*, *145* and *151*).

In summary, the proposed changes to the current limits are as follows:

- The limits for arsenic are to be deleted, except in ferrocyanides of calcium, potassium and sodium, for which a limit of 3 mg/kg is proposed.
- The proposed limits for lead are 2 mg/kg in thickening agents and in the anticaking agent magnesium oxide, 1 mg/kg in flavour enhancers and sweeteners, 4 mg/kg in phosphates and 5 mg/kg in silicate and ferrocyanide anticaking agents.
- No limits were proposed for cadmium or mercury, as there was no concern that they are present in any of the substances under review.
- The limits for heavy metals (as lead) were deleted.

The Committee emphasized that the absence of a limit test for a particular metal from a specification which previously included the limit test for heavy metals (as lead) indicated that the level of contamination with that particular metal is so low as to be of no concern.

4. Flavouring agents

4.1 Substances evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Six groups of flavouring agents were evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents, as outlined in Fig. 1 (Annex 1, references *116*, *122*, *131* and *137*).

The Committee noted that, in applying the Procedure, a flavouring agent is first assigned to a structural class, as identified at the forty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference *122*). The structural classes are as follows:

- Class I. Substances that have simple chemical structures and efficient modes of metabolism which would suggest a low order of toxicity when given by the oral route.
- Class II. Substances that have structural features that are less innocuous than those of substances in class I but are not suggestive of toxicity. Substances in this class may contain reactive functional groups.
- Class III. Substances that have structural features that permit no strong initial presumption of safety or may even suggest significant toxicity.

A key element of the Procedure involves determining whether a flavouring agent and the product(s) of its metabolism are innocuous and/or endogenous substances. For the purpose of the evaluations,



Figure 1 Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents the Committee used the following definitions, adapted from the report of its forty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference *122*):

Innocuous metabolic products are defined as products that are known or readily predicted to be harmless to humans at the estimated intake of the flavouring agent.

Endogenous substances are intermediary metabolites normally present in human tissues and fluids, whether free or conjugated; hormones and other substances with biochemical or physiological regulatory functions are not included. The estimated intake of a flavouring agent that is, or is metabolized to, an endogenous substance should be judged not to give rise to perturbations outside the physiological range.

Intake data

Estimates of the intake of flavouring agents by populations typically involve the acquisition of data on the amounts used in food. These data were derived from surveys in Europe and the USA. In Europe, a survey was conducted in 1995 by the International Organization of the Flavour Industry, in which flavour manufacturers reported the total amount of each flavouring agent that had been incorporated into food sold in the European Union during the previous year. Manufacturers were requested to exclude use of flavouring agents in pharmaceutical, tobacco or cosmetic products.

In the USA, a series of surveys was conducted between 1970 and 1987 by the National Research Council of the National Academy of Sciences (under contract to the Food and Drug Administration), in which information was obtained from ingredient manufacturers and food processors on the amount of each substance destined for addition to the food supply and on the usual and maximal levels at which each substance was added to foods in a number of broad categories.

In using the data from these surveys to estimate intakes of flavouring agents, the Committee assumed that only 60% of the total amount used in Europe and 80% of that used in the USA is reported and that the total amount used in food is consumed by only 10% of the population. Intake was thus calculated from the following equation:

```
Intake

(\mu g/person per day) = \frac{Annual volume of production (kg) \times 10^{9} (\mu g/kg)}{Population of consumers \times 0.6 (or 0.8) \times 365 days}
```

The population of consumers was assumed to be 32×10^6 in Europe and 26×10^6 in the USA.

4.1.1 Pyrazine derivatives

The Committee evaluated a group of 41 flavouring agents consisting of pyrazine and pyrazine derivatives (see Table 2) by the Procedure

Table 2 Summary of results of the safe	ty evaluat	ions of pyrazine derivatives u	sed as flavouring agent	IS ^a	
Flavouring agent	Z	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Structural class II					
2-Methylpyrazine	761	109-08-0	No Europe: 20 USA: 7	See note 1	
2-Ethylpyrazine	762	13925-00-3	No Europe: 3 USA: 6	See note 1	
2-Propylpyrazine	763	18138-03-9	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	See note 1	
2-lsopropylpyrazine	764	29460-90-0	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	See note 1	No safety concern
2,3-Dimethylpyrazine	765	5910-89-4	No Europe: 16 USA: 4	See note 1	
2,5-Dimethylpyrazine	766	123-32-0	No Europe: 22 USA: 8	See note 1	
2,6-Dimethylpyrazine	767	108-50-9	No Europe: 2 USA: 2	See note 1	

				> No safety conce			
See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1
No Europe: 84 USA: 9	No Europe: 0.4 USA: 0.4	No Europe: 5 USA: 1	No Europe: 2 USA: 1	No Europe: ND USA: 0.4	No Europe: 0.04 USA: 0.01	No Europe: 120 USA: 46	No Europe: 44 USA: 9
15707-23-0	13925-03-6	13360-64-0	15707-24-1	13925-05-8	13925-06-9	14667-55-1	13360-65-1
768	769	770	771	772	773	774	775
2-Ethyl-3-methylpyrazine	2-Ethyl-6-methylpyrazine	2-Ethyl-5-methylpyrazine	2,3-Diethylpyrazine	2-Methyl-5-isopropylpyrazine	2-lsobutyl-3-methylpyrazine	2,3,5-Trimethylpyrazine	2-Ethyl-3,(5 or 6)- dimethylpyrazine

ŝrn

Table 2 (continued)					
Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
3-Ethyl-2,6-dimethylpyrazine	776	13925-07-0	No Europe: 2 USA: 0.3	See note 1	
2,3-Diethyl-5-methylpyrazine	777	18138-04-0	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 1	See note 1	
2,5-Diethyl-3-methylpyrazine	778	32736-91-7	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.01	See note 1	
3,5-Diethyl-2-methylpyrazine	677	18138-05-1	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.01	See note 1	No safety concern
2,3,5,6-Tetramethylpyrazine	780	1124-11-4 N	No Europe: 8 USA: 19	See note 1	
5-Methyl-6,7-dihydro-5 <i>H-</i> cyclopentapyrazine	781	23747-48-0	No Europe: 5 USA: 4	See note 1	
6,7-Dihydro-2,3-dimethyl-5 <i>H</i> - cyclopentapyrazine	782	38917-63-4	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.01	See note 1	

Table 2 (continued)					
Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	Step A3 ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
2-Methoxy-(3 or 5 or 6)- isopropylpyrazine	290	25773-40-4 56891-99-7 N 0 N 1 68039-46-3 68039-46-3	No Europe: ND USA: 0.1	See note 3	
2-Methoxy-3- (1-methylpropyl)pyrazine	791	24168-70-5	No Europe: 1 USA: 0.1	See note 3	No safety concern
2-lsobutyl-3-methoxypyrazine	792	24683-00-9	No Europe: 2 USA: 1	See note 3	
2-Acetyl-3-methylpyrazine	950	23787-80-6	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	See note 2	
Structural class III (Cyclohexylmethyl)pyrazine	783	28217-92-7	No Europe: ND USA: 0.01	See note 1	No safety concern

		> No safety concern		
See note 3	See note 4	See note 4	See note 5	See note 5
No Europe: ND USA: 0.01	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.01	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 1	No Europe: ND USA: 0.01	No Europe: 7 USA: 13
$\begin{array}{c} 32737-14-7 67845-34-5 \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} \right) \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} \right) \\ 53163-97-6 \\ 0 \\ \left(\begin{array}{c} N \\ N \end{array} \right) \\ \left$	59021-02-2	35250-53-4	21948-70-9	2882-20-4 2884-14-2 N S N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N N S N S N N S N S N S N N S
793	794	795	796	797
2-Methyl-(3 or 5 or 6)- ethoxypyrazine	2-(Mercaptomethyl)pyrazine	2-Pyrazinylethane thiol	Pyrazinylmethyl methyl sulfide	(3 or 5 or 6)-(Methylthio)-2- methylpyrazine

Flavouring agent	N	CAS number and structure	Step A3 ⁶ Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
5-Methylquinoxaline	798	13708-12-8	No Europe: 26 USA: 1	See note 1	
Pyrazine	951	290-37-9	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 0.2	See note 1	No safety concerr
5,6,7,8-Tetrahydroquinoxaline	952	34413-35-9	No Europe: 8 USA: ND	See note 1	
CAS: Chemical Abstracts Service: N	D. no data	n intake reported			

CAS. Chemical Abstracts Service; NU: no data on intake reported.

^a Step 2: All of the flavouring agents in this group are expected to be metabolized to innocuous products.

^b The thresholds for human intake for structural classes II and III are 540 μg/day and 90 μg/day, respectively. All intake values are expressed in μg/day.

Notes to Table 1

1. Detoxication by excretion in the urine unchanged, side-chain oxidation followed by conjugation and excretion, or ring hydroxylation followed by conjugation and excretion.

- Detoxication as given in note 1 plus thiol oxidation, methylation, formation of mixed disulfides and conjugation with glucuronic acid. Detoxication as given in note 1 plus reduction to the corresponding alcohol and conjugation with glucuronic acid.
 Detoxication as given in note 1 plus *O*-dealkylation followed by conjugation and excretion.
 Detoxication as given in note 1 plus thiol oxidation, methylation, formation of mixed disulfides and conjugation with 5. Detoxication as given in note 1 plus *S*-oxidation to sulfoxide and sulfone analogues.
 - Detoxication as given in note 1 plus S-oxidation to sulfoxide and sulfone analogues.

Table 2 (continued)

for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). None of these agents has previously been evaluated by the Committee.

Thirty-four of the flavouring agents in this group are naturally occurring components of food. Members of this group have been detected in asparagus, potato, kohlrabi and wheaten bread.

4.1.1.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of pyrazine and the 40 pyrazine derivatives in this group is approximately 2700kg in Europe and 2100kg in the USA. About 64% of the total annual volume of production in Europe is accounted for by 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (No. 774), 2-ethyl-3-methylpyrazine (No. 768) and 2-ethyl-3,(5 or 6)-dimethylpyrazine (No. 775). In the USA, about 66% of the total annual volume of production is accounted for by acetylpyrazine (No. 784), 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (No. 774) and 2,3,5,6-tetramethylpyrazine (No. 780). The estimated daily per capita intake of 2,3,5-trimethylpyrazine (No. 774) in Europe and of acetylpyrazine (No. 784) in the USA is about 120µg. The daily per capita intake of each agent in Europe and the USA is reported in Table 2.

4.1.1.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

Pyrazine is a weak base (\log_{10} of the reciprocal of the dissociation constant, 13.4). Absorption of weak amine bases such as pyrazine derivatives is optimal at the pH of the intestine (5.0–7.0). In humans and laboratory rodents, orally administered substituted pyrazines are rapidly absorbed from the gut and excreted.

Alkyl-, alicyclic- and alkylaryl-substituted pyrazine derivatives. The biotransformation of alkyl-, alicyclic- and alkylaryl-substituted pyrazine derivatives (Nos 761–783 and 798) is expected to occur by oxidation of the alkyl side-chains. Methyl-substituted pyrazines are oxidized to yield the corresponding pyrazine-2-carboxylic acids. 5-Methylquinoxaline (No. 798) would be expected to be metabolized by the same pathway as the methyl- and ring-substituted pyrazine derivative 2-amino-3,8-dimethylimidazo[4,5-*f*]quinoxaline (MeIQx), which is oxidized to yield the corresponding hydroxymethyl derivatives. An alternative pathway for the metabolism of pyrazine derivatives hydroxylation of the pyrazine ring. Products of oxidative metabolism can be excreted unchanged or conjugated with glycine, glucuronic acid or sulfate before excretion.

Pyrazine derivatives containing an oxygenated functional group in the side-chain. In pyrazine derivatives containing a ring activator (e.g. a

methoxy substituent), significant ring hydroxylation may occur. Pyrazines with a methoxy side-chain, such as methoxypyrazine (No. 787), are more susceptible to nucleophilic attack, probably by molybdenum hydroxylases, and therefore primarily undergo ring hydroxylation. Additionally, the methoxy side-chain is *O*-demethylated. In rats, 3-acetylpyridine is reduced mainly to the secondary alcohol and excreted as the glucuronic acid conjugate. Therefore, acylated pyrazines (Nos 784–786 and 950) are expected to be metabolized mainly by reduction of the ketone functional group.

Pyrazine derivatives containing a thiol or sulfide functional group in the side-chain. Four pyrazine derivatives in this group contain either a thiol or a sulfide functional group in their side-chain. The possible metabolic pathways for the thiols, 2-(mercaptomethyl)pyrazine (No. 794) and 2-pyrazinylethane thiol (No. 795), include oxidation to form sulfinic acid (RSO₂H) and sulfonic acid (RSO₂H); methylation to yield methyl sulfides, which then form sulfoxides and sulfones; reaction with physiological thiols to form mixed disulfides and conjugation with glucuronic acid; or oxidation of the α -carbon, which results in desulfuration and formation of an aldehyde. Pyrazinylmethyl methyl sulfide (No. 796) and (3 or 5 or 6)-(methylthio)-2-methylpyrazine (No. 797) are predicted to be metabolized to sulfoxides and then to sulfones, which are the main urinary metabolites of simple sulfides. The Committee at its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143) considered the pathways of metabolism of sulfur centres in its evaluation of a group of 137 flavouring agents that included aliphatic and aromatic sulfides and thiols, with and without an additional oxygenated functional group.

4.1.1.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents, the Committee assigned 32 of the 41 flavouring agents with one aromatic ring to structural class II on the basis of structural considerations and because they occur naturally (Nos 761–782, 784–792 and 950). Six flavouring agents with one aromatic ring were assigned to structural class III (Nos 783 and 793–797), as was 5,6,7,8-tetrahydroquinoxaline (No. 952). Pyrazine (No. 951) is the only agent in the group that bears no ring substituent, and it was therefore also assigned to structural class III. 5-Methylquinoxaline (No. 798) was assigned to structural class III because it is a polyheteroaromatic substance that does not contain sodium, potassium or calcium sulfonate or sulfamate.

Step 2. At current levels of intake, all 41 flavouring agents can be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products, and the pathways
involved would not be expected to be saturated. The evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded via the left-hand side of the decision-tree.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of all 32 flavouring agents in structural class II and all nine substances in structural class III are below the thresholds of concern for these classes ($540\mu g$ and $90\mu g$, respectively). The Committee concluded that these substances would not be expected to be of safety concern at the currently estimated levels of use.

Table 2 summarizes the evaluations of pyrazine and 40 pyrazine derivatives used as flavouring agents.

4.1.1.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all 32 pyrazine derivatives in structural class II were to be consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would not exceed the threshold for human intake for this class ($540\mu g/day$). In the unlikely event that all nine flavouring agents in structural class III were to be consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would not exceed the threshold for human intake for this class ($90\mu g/day$). All the flavouring agents in this group are expected to be efficiently metabolized, and the available metabolic pathways would not be saturated. Evaluation of all the data indicated no safety concern associated with combined intake.

4.1.1.5 Conclusions

The Committee concluded that the safety of pyrazine and the 40 derivatives of pyrazine in this group would not raise concern at the currently estimated levels of intake.

A monograph summarizing the data on the safety of this group of flavouring agents and specifications were prepared.

4.1.2 Aromatic substituted secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters

The Committee evaluated a group of flavouring agents that included α -methylbenzyl alcohol (No. 799), acetophenone (No. 806) and 36 structurally related aromatic secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters (Table 3) by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). All the members of this group are considered to be aromatic secondary alcohols, ketones or related esters. The aromatic ring may contain additional alkyl substituents or a methoxy group, and the aliphatic side-chain may be unsaturated or

Table 3 Summary of results of the s	afety ev	aluations of aromatic :	secondary alcol	iols, ketones á	and related esters	s used as flavoui	ing agents a
Flavouring agent	No	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ⁶ Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	<i>Step B5</i> Does intake exceed 1.5μg/day?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusions based on current intake
Structural class I α-Methylbenzyl alcohol°	662	98-85-1 OH	No Europe: 32 USA: 72	а Z	R	See note 1	
α-Methylbenzyl formate	800	7775-38-4 H 0 0 0	No Europe: 0.04 USA: 0.4	ЯN	R	See note 2	
α-Methylbenzyl acetate	801	93-92-5 000000000000000000000000000000000000	No Europe: 200 USA: 650	NN	ЧN	See note 2	No safety concern
α-Methylbenzyl propionate	802	120-45-6	No Europe: 1 USA: 27	ЯN	ЧN	See note 2	

			No safety concern			
See note 2	See note 2	See note 1	See note 3	See note 3	See note 3	See note 3
R	К К	NR	NR	NR	R	ЧN
RN	и И И	RN	RN	RN	RN	RN
No Europe: 1 USA: 0.01	No Europe: 29 USA: 1	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 1	No Europe: 18 USA: 170	No Europe: 26 USA: 37	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.4	No Europe: 0.3 USA: 0.01
3460-44-4	0 0 0 0	536-50-5 OH	98-86-2 0	122-00-9 0	645-13-6	0 0
803	804	805	806	807	808	809
α-Methylbenzyl butyrate	α-Methylbenzyl isobutyrate	<i>ρ</i> , α-Dimethylbenzyl alcohol	Acetophenone	4-Methylacetophenone	<i>p</i> -lsopropylacetophenone	2,4-Dimethylacetophenone

Table 3 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	<i>Step B5</i> Does intake exceed 1.5μg/day?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusions based on current intake
Acetanisole	810	100-06-1	No Europe: 150 USA: 84	RN	R	See notes 3 and 4	
1-(<i>p</i> -Methoxyphenyl)-2- propanone	813	122-84-9	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 0.1	RN	ЛR	See note 5	
α-Methylphenethyl butyrate	814	68922-11-2	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	ЧN	ШZ	See note 6	No safety
4-Phenyl-2-butanol	815	2344-70-9	No Europe: 1 USA: 0.3	ЧZ	ШZ	See note 7	concern
4-Phenyl-2-butyl acetate	816	10415-88-0	No Europe: ND USA: 7	RN	NR	See note 7	
4-(<i>p</i> -Tolyl)-2-butanone	817	7774-79-0	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.4	Ч Ч	NR	See notes 8 and 9	

			, No safety concern			
See notes 8 and 9	See note 10	See note 10	See note 10	See note 11	See note 2	See note 11
NN	NR	NR	RN	RN	N	NR
NR	RN	RN	RN	RN	ЯN	ЯN
No Europe: 5 USA: 840	No Europe: 2 USA: 0.1	No Europe: 3 USA: 7	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	No Europe: 0.3 USA: 0.1	No Europe: ND USA: 0.3	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.03
104-20-1	17488-65-2	122-57-6	1901-26-4	93-54-9 OH	10031-86-4	93-55-0
818	819	820	821	822	823	824
4-(<i>p</i> -Methoxyphenyl)-2- butanone	4-Phenyl-3-buten-2-ol	4-Phenyl-3-buten-2-one	3-Methyl-4-phenyl-3-buten- 2-one	1-Phenyl-1-propanol	α-Ethylbenzyl butyrate	Propiophenone

CAS number and Structure Do
7-67-207
104-27-8
94-02-0 0 0
620-79-1 0 0

Table 3 (continued)

ctural class II	с F а	10171 00 1			~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~		
thylindan	20		Europe: 6 USA: 1	2	0 D		required
itylphenethyl alcohol	827	7779-78-4 HO	No Europe: 29 USA: 3	ш Z	КN	See note 6	
yl-1-phenyl-2- anone	828	5349-62-2	No Europe: 10 USA: 0.3	۲ ۲	Ч Ч	See note 6	
sthoxyphenyl)-4- yl-1-penten-3-one	829	103-13-9	No Europe: 33 USA: 0.3	RN	ШZ	See note 10	No safety concern
yl-4-heptanone	830	7492-37-7	No Europe: ND USA: 1	ЧN	КN	See note 13	
yl-1,2-propanedione	833	579-07-7 0	No Europe: 6 USA: 0.1	Ш Z	RN	See note 14	

Table 3 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	Z	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	<i>Step B5</i> Does intake exceed 1.5μg/day?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusions based on current intake
Structural class III Methyl β-naphthyl ketone	8 	0	No Europe: 7 USA: 48	Yes The NOEL of 33 mg/kg of body weight per day in a 90-day study in rats is > 10 000 times the estimated intake of methyl &-naphthyl ketone when used as a flavouring agent	щ		No safety concern
Benzophenone	831	119-61-9	No Europe: 27 USA: 11	RN	NR	See note 15	
1,3-Diphenyl-2-propanone	832	102-04-5	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.1	ШZ	NR	See note 15	

	Benzoin	836	119-53-		No Europe: 7 USA: 21	NR	RN	See note	e 16	No safety concern
	CAS: Chemical Abstracts Service ^a <i>Step 1</i> : Twenty-eight of the flavo <i>Step 2</i> : All the flavouring agents ^b The thresholds for human intake	ND: no buring aç s in this for stru	o data on ir gents in thi group, exc uctural clas	ntake reported; is group are in cept for Nos 81 ses I, II and III	NR: not required first structural class 1, structural class 1, structural and 812, are preare are 1800μg/day, ξ	or evaluation. six are in structu dicted to be met 540µg/day and S	ral class II and four tabolized to innocuc 0μg/day, respective	are in struct ous products ely. All intake	tural clase s. e values	s III. are expresse
	in µg/day. ° An ADI of 0-0.1 mg/kg of body which was maintained at the pri	veight v esent me	vas establis ieeting.	shed for α -meth	d lohola loohol d	y the Committee	et its forty-first mee	eting (Annex	: 1, refere	nce <i>107</i>),
	Notes to Table 3 1. α -Methylbenzyl alcohol is cor	jugated	l with glucu	Ironic acid and	excreted in the ur	ine. Oxidation of	the methyl group to	o yield mand	lelic acid	and hippuric
	acid may also occuri. 2. α-Methylbenzyl esters are hyc alcohol is conjugated with dlu	lrolysed curonic	to simple acid and e	aliphatic carbo excreted.	xylic acids and α -r	methylbenzyl alo	ohol. The acids are	completely (oxidized,	and the
	3. Acetophenone is reduced to methyl aroup oxidation. event	x-methyl uallv vie	Ibenzyl alc	ohol, conjugate delic acid and	ed with glucuronic hippuric acid. The	acid and excrete se are also excre	ed primarily in the unsted in the unsted	rine. The ket	tone may	also undergo
	 Acetanisole may also underge 1-(<i>p</i>-Methoxyphenyl)-2-propar 	0-dem	nethylation reduced to	to yield the con the correspon	responding pheno ding alcohol and e	I. The phenol is a xcreted. O-Dema	excreted as the sulf ethylation to yield th	fate or glucui ie correspon	ronic acid	d conjugate. nol may also
	occur. 6. α-Methvlphenethvl butvrate is	hvdrolv	sed to but	vric acid and a	-methvlphenethvl a	alcohol. The acid	is completely meta	ibolized and	the alcol	si lot
	conjugated with glucuronic ac 7. 4-PhenvI-2-butanol is conjuga	ted with	excreted.	c acid and exc	reted. The corresp	onding acetate is	s predicted to be hy	vdrolysed firs	st to the	Icohol and
	then to acetic acid.	+								() (+ (+
	 o. 4-(p-10lyl)-2-butatione is reduuition. The ketone may also un activitive which can be 	rea to t ndergo r	methyl grou ated with a	unuing alconul up oxidation, ev livicine and evic	. The alconol may rentually yielding a	be conjugated w related carboxy	with glucuroritic actor lic actid that is furthe	aria excrete er oxidized ti	the phe	ny In the Inylacetic
	9. The alcohol may also be oxid	ized to t	the corresp	onding ketone	and conjugated w	ith glutathione.				
	The ketone may also be conju	ugated v	vith glutath	ienyı-ə-puten-z ione.	-01. 1118 alcollol 18		abolizeu alla exclet	eu prinany	as giycii	e conjugates
	11. Propiophenone is reduced to	the corr	responding	I alcohol. The b	outyrate ester (No.	823) is predicted	to be hydrolysed t	to the same	alcohol (a	and butyric
	12. The esters are hydrolysed to	ethanol	and keto-c	arboxylic acids	s. The acids may b	e further oxidized	d and excreted as h	nippuric acic	d. The alc	ohol is
	completely metabolized. 13. Oxidation of side-chains is ar	iticipated	d, primarily	/ at the ω or ω-	1 carbon atom. Ca	rbonyl groups ar	e reduced to alcohe	ol, which car	n be conj	ugated with
	glucuronic acid. Oxidation of 14. Reduced to the correspondin	the side a diol. v	e-chain can which is coi	continue to be niudated with c	enzoic or phenylace Ilucuronic acid.	etic acid.				
69	15. Fifty per cent of a dose of 36 secondary alcohol within 48 h	Dmg of 1 1.3-Dip	benzopher ohenvl-2-pr	none (No. 831)	administered to ra 332). which is less	bbits by gavage sterically hindere	was excreted as the	e glucuronid	anticipate	corresponding d to be
	reduced to the alcohol and extrement of Benzoin is excreted as the of	creted a	as the gluo	suronide.		<u> </u>			<u>-</u>	1
		1:505	····>> >>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>>	dgdi.c.						

contain additional oxygenated functional groups. Of the 38 flavouring agents in this group, 34 are simple saturated or unsaturated methoxyor alkyl-substituted benzene derivatives containing a secondary alcohol, corresponding ketone and/or related ester functional group.

The Committee had previously evaluated three members of this group. α -Methylbenzyl alcohol (No. 799) was evaluated at the forty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference 107), when an ADI of 0–0.1 mg/kg of body weight was established. At its twenty-fourth meeting, the Committee reviewed data on α -isobutylphenethyl alcohol (No. 827) (Annex 1, reference 53), and at its twenty-third and twenty-fifth meetings, it reviewed data on methyl β -naphthyl ketone (No. 811) (Annex 1, references 50 and 56). No ADI was allocated to either of these flavouring agents.

Of the 38 aromatic substituted secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters considered, 16 have been reported to occur naturally in foods. For instance, α -methylbenzyl alcohol (No. 799) has been detected in cheese, fruit and tea, and the corresponding ketone acetophenone (No. 806) is a natural component of berries, seafood, beef and nuts.

4.1.2.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of the 38 aromatic secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters considered here is approximately 4.2 tonnes in Europe and 17 tonnes in the USA. Approximately 58% of the total annual volume of production in Europe is accounted for by α -methylbenzyl acetate (No. 801) and acetanisole (No. 810). The estimated daily per capita intakes of these two flavouring agents in Europe are 200µg and 150µg, respectively. In the USA, approximately 80% of the total volume of production arises from use of α -methylbenzyl acetate (No. 801), acetophenone (No. 806), 4-(*p*-methoxyphenyl)-2-butanone (No. 818) and ethyl benzoylacetate (No. 834). The estimated daily per capita intakes of these agents are 650µg, 170µg, 840µg and 140µg, respectively.

The estimated daily intake of each flavouring agent in the group is reported in Table 3.

4.1.2.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

Generally, the flavouring agents in this group are rapidly absorbed from the gut. The aromatic secondary alcohols (and aromatic ketones after reduction to the corresponding secondary alcohols) are then either conjugated with glucuronic acid and excreted primarily in the urine, or are further oxidized and excreted mainly as glycine conjugates. As aromatic esters are generally hydrolysed in vivo by the catalytic activity of carboxylesterases, which are found predominantly in hepatocytes, it is anticipated that the 10 esters in this group of flavouring agents will be hydrolysed to their parent aromatic or aliphatic alcohols and carboxylic acids. The eight aromatic secondary alcohols formed as a result of this process are excreted as their glucuronides or are further metabolized and excreted in the urine. The corresponding eight simple aliphatic carboxylic acids are metabolized completely by well-known pathways. The two remaining esters (Nos 834 and 835) are hydrolysed to ethanol and aromatic keto-carboxylic acids (3-oxo-3-phenylpropanoic acid and 3-oxo-5-phenylpentanoic acid, respectively), which are anticipated to be further metabolized and excreted in the urine, like other aromatic ketones.

Simple aromatic ring substitution with methyl, isopropyl or methoxy groups (Nos 805, 807–810, 813, 817, 818, 826 and 829) is predicted to have little effect on the principal metabolic pathways. It is more difficult to predict the metabolic fate of Nos 811 and 812 on the basis of the available data, as it is not known to what extent they are distributed in the tissues and eliminated. One of these substances, 4-acetal-6-*tert*-butyl-1,1-dimethylindan (No. 812), might accumulate in human adipose tissue.

4.1.2.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1) to these 38 aromatic flavouring agents, the Committee assigned 28 to structural class I (Nos 799–810, 813–826, 834 and 835). Six flavouring agents were assigned to structural class II, one (No. 833) because it is a vicinal diketone and the other five because they contain a fused non-aromatic carbocyclic ring (No. 812) or aliphatic substituent chains with more than five carbon atoms (Nos 827–830). Four of the agents (Nos 811, 831, 832 and 836) were assigned to structural class III because they contain more than one aromatic ring and cannot be hydrolysed to mononuclear residues.

Step 2. At current levels of estimated intake, 36 of the 38 flavouring agents in this group are predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products and the available metabolic pathways would not be expected to be saturated. Evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded via the left-hand side of the decision-tree. The two remaining flavouring agents (Nos 811 and 812) cannot be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products, and therefore their evaluation proceeded via the right-hand side of the decision-tree.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of the 28 flavouring agents in structural class I, five of the six flavouring agents in structural class II and three of the four agents in structural class III are below the thresholds of concern for these classes $(1800 \mu g, 540 \mu g \text{ and } 90 \mu g$, respectively). The Committee concluded that these substances would not be expected to be of safety concern at their currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents.

Step B3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of one agent in structural class II (No. 812) and one in structural class III (No. 811) are below the thresholds of concern for these classes ($540 \mu g$ and $90 \mu g$, respectively).

Step B4. The NOEL identified for methyl β -naphthyl ketone (No. 811) in a 90-day study in rats treated orally was the highest dose tested, 33 mg/kg of body weight per day. This dose provided safety margins >100 000 and >10 000 times the estimated daily per capita intakes in Europe and in the USA, respectively. The Committee concluded that methyl β -naphthyl ketone does not pose a safety concern at currently estimated levels of use as a flavouring agent.

No data were available on the toxicity of the remaining agent (No. 812) or of relevant structurally related substances. Accordingly, the evaluation of this substance proceeded to step B5.

Step B5. As the estimated daily per capita intake of 4-acetyl-6-tertbutyl-1,1-dimethylindan (No. 812) in Europe ($6\mu g$) exceeds the threshold of $1.5\mu g$ /person per day, further data are required for a safety evaluation. The Committee concluded that this flavouring agent cannot be classified as of "no safety concern at current level of intake".

Table 3 summarizes the evaluations of α -methylbenzyl alcohol and acetophenone and 36 structurally related flavouring agents.

4.1.2.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all foods containing all the flavouring agents in structural classes I and II were to be consumed simultaneously on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the human intake threshold for class II (540µg). However, the agents are expected to be metabolized efficiently and the available metabolic pathways would not be saturated. Evaluation of all the data indicated no safety concern associated with combined intake.

4.1.2.5 Conclusions

The Committee concluded that 37 of this group of 38 aromatic secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters would not pose a safety concern at currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents. The Committee noted that when data on toxicity were available, they were consistent with the results of the safety evaluation. Data on toxicity were required for two agents (Nos 811 and 812) in application of the Procedure. Relevant data were available for one of these substances (No. 811), which gave a large safety margin in relation to the estimated intake.

The Committee required additional data to evaluate the safety of 4acetyl-6-*tert*-butyl-1,1-dimethylindan (No. 812), which could not be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products, for which satisfactory data on toxicity were not available and of which the estimated daily intake, $6\mu g/person$ in Europe, exceeded the threshold of $1.5\mu g/person$ per day.

A monograph summarizing the safety data on this group of flavouring agents was prepared.

4.1.3 Benzyl derivatives

The Committee evaluated a group of 37 flavouring agents¹ that consisted of benzyl alcohol (No. 25), benzaldehyde (No. 22), benzoic acid (No. 850) and related substances (Table 4) by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). All members of this group are aromatic primary alcohols, aldehydes, carboxylic acids or related esters or acetals. The benzene ring may be ring-substituted with alkyl substituents (Nos 863–869).

The Committee had previously evaluated five members of the group. Benzyl alcohol (No. 25) was evaluated at the twenty-third and fortysixth meetings (Annex 1, references 50 and 122); benzyl acetate (No. 23) was evaluated at the eleventh, twenty-seventh, twenty-ninth, thirty-first, thirty-fifth, forty-first and forty-sixth meetings (Annex 1, references 14, 62, 70, 77, 88, 107 and 122); benzyl benzoate (No. 24) was evaluated at the fifteenth and twenty-third meetings (Annex 1, references 26 and 50); benzaldehyde (No. 22) was evaluated at the eleventh and forty-sixth meetings (Annex 1, references 14 and 122; and benzoic acid (No. 850) was evaluated at the sixth, ninth, seventeenth, twenty-seventh and forty-sixth meetings (Annex 1, references 6, 11, 32, 62 and 122). At its forty-sixth meeting, the Committee evaluated benzyl acetate, benzyl alcohol, benzaldehyde, benzoic acid and the benzoate salts (calcium, potassium and sodium) as a group and maintained the group ADI of 0-5mg/kg of body weight as benzoic acid equivalents (Annex 1, reference 122).

¹ During evaluation of these flavouring agents, the Committee questioned whether some substances in this group (Nos 850, 861 and 862) were used as flavouring agents and therefore appropriately evaluated by the Procedure. Information to address this question will be sought from the relevant manufacturers.

ourning or resurts or t	ule salety	y evaluations of Delizyr de	i i vauves				
Flavouring agent	Ö	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Benzyl alcohol [°]	25	100-51-6	Yes Europe: 16000 USA: 17000	Yes		See note 1	
Benzyl formate	841	104-57-4 0 H	No Europe: 41 USA: 51	RN		See note 2	
Benzyl acetate°	23	140-11-4	No Europe: 1400 USA: 850	RN		See note 2	
Benzyl propionate	842	122-63-4	No Europe: 49 USA: 99	NR		See note 2	concern
Benzyl butyrate	843	103-37-7 0	No Europe: 120 USA: 290	RN		See note 2	
Benzyl isobutyrate	844	103-28-6	No Europe: 15 USA: 21	NR		See note 2	

 $Table \; 4$ Summary of results of the safety evaluations of benzyl derivatives a

				No safety concern			
See note 2	See note 2	See note 2	See note 2	See notes 2 and 6	See note 2	See note 3	See note 4
КN	а Z	Ч И И И И	RN	Yes	КN	Yes	КZ
No Europe: 14 USA: 19	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.03	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 1	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 0.07	Yes Europe: 1900 USA: 4200	No Europe: 5 USA: 57	Yes Europe: 9300 USA: 36000	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 0.3
103-38-8	37526-88-8	7492-69-5	5396-89-4	120-51-4	102-16-9	100-52-7 0	1125-88-8 >0 0
845	846	847	848	24	849	22	837
Benzyl isovalerate	Benzyl <i>trans</i> -2-methyl-2- butenoate	Benzyl 2,3-dimethyl- crotonate	Benzyl acetoacetate	Benzyl benzoate°	Benzyl phenylacetate	Benzaldehyde°	Benzaldehyde dimethyl acetal

Table 4 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Benzaldehyde glyceryl acetal	838	1319-88-6	No Europe: 16 USA: 300	Ч		See note 4	No safety concern
Benzaldehyde propylene glycol acetate	839	2568-25-4	No Europe 0.04 USA: 110	NR		See note 4	
Benzoic acid ^{o,d}	850	65-85-0 0	No Europe: 39 USA: 340	RN		See note 5	Evaluation not finalized
Methyl benzoate	851	93-58-3 0 0	No Europe: 47 USA: 230	ЛR		See note 6	No safetv
Ethyl benzoate	852	0-89-0 0	No Europe: 110 USA: 110	NR		See note 6	concern

			, No safety	concern		
See note 6	See note 6	See note 6	See note 6	See note 6	See note 6	See note 6
NR	R	КN	Ч	Ч	Ч	٣
No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.3	No Europe: 380 USA: 1	No Europe: 0.004 USA: 0.3	No Europe: 0.4 USA: 1	No Europe: 110 USA: 33	No Europe: 8 USA: 0.1	No Europe: 10 USA: 2
2315-68-6	6789-88-4 0	939-48-0	120-50-3	94-46-2	25152-85-6	126-64-7
853	854	855	856	857	858	859
Propyl benzoate	Hexyl benzoate	Isopropyl benzoate	Isobutyl benzoate	Isoamyl benzoate	<i>cis</i> -3-Hexenyl benzoate	Linaly! benzoate

Table 4 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	No	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3/B3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step B4 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Geranyl benzoate	860	94-48-4	No Europe: 4 USA: 0.03	۲ ۲		See note 6	No safety concern
Glyceryl tribenzoate ^d	861	614-33-5	No Europe: ND USA: 49	Ч		See note 6	Evaluation not finalized
Propylene glycol dibenzoate ^d	862	19224-26-1	No Europe: ND USA: 14	RN		See note 6	
Methylbenzyl acetate (mixed <i>ortho</i> -, <i>meta</i> - and <i>para</i> -isomers)	863	29759-11-3	No Europe: ND USA: 3	Ч		See note 2	No safety concern

		No safety concern			
See note 1	See note 3	See note 3	See note 4	See note 3	See note 3
Ч	ЧN	٣	КN	ЯN	ЯN
No Europe: 0.3 USA: 0.3	No Europe: 0.4 USA: 6	No Europe: 260 USA: 1100	No Europe: 0.01 USA: 1	No Europe: 130 USA: 1	No Europe: 0.4 USA: 0.1
536-60-7	4748-78-1 H	1334-78-7 7-87-7 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	133-09-1	122-03-2 H	15764-16-6 H
864	865	866	867	868	869
<i>p</i> -lsopropylbenzyl alcohol	4-Ethylbenzaldehyde	Tolualdehydes (mixed <i>ortho</i> , <i>meta-</i> and <i>para-</i> isomers)	Tolualdehyde glyceryl acetal	Cuminaldehyde	2,4-Dimethylbenzaldehyde

CAS: Chemical Abstracts Service; ND: no data on intake reported; NR: not required for evaluation because consumption of the substance was determined to be of no safety concern at step A3 of the Procedure.

^a Step 1: All of the flavouring agents in this group are in structural class I.

- Step 2: All of the flavouring agents in this group are expected to be metabolized to innocuous products, except for benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840).
 - ^b The threshold for human intake for structural class I is 1800 μg/day. All intake values are expressed in μg/day
- ° A group ADI of 0-5mg/kg of body weight for benzoic acid, the benzoate salts (calcium, potassium and sodium), benzaldehyde, benzyl acetate and benzyl alcohol, expressed as benzoic acid equivalents, was confirmed by the Committee at its forty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 122) and extended to

 - include benzyl benzoate at the present meeting. ^d Further information is required to determine whether this substance is in current use as a flavouring agent.

Notes to Table 4

- 1. Benzyl alcohols are oxidized to the corresponding acids, which are conjugated with glycine and excreted as hippuric acid.
 - Benzyl esters are hydrolysed to the corresponding acids and alcohols.
 - Benzyl aldehydes are oxidized to the corresponding acids. ю[.]
- Benzaldehyde acetals are hydrolysed to yield the aldehyde.
- Benzoic acid is conjugated with glycine and excreted as hippuric acid 4. r.
- Benzoate esters are hydrolysed to yield the corresponding alcohols and acids.
 - Hydrolysed to acetaldehyde, benzyl alcohol and 2-methoxyethanol

Table 4 (continued)

Of the 37 substances in this group, 29 have been reported to occur naturally in foods. They have been detected in a wide variety of fruits, vegetables, meats, cheeses and wine.

4.1.3.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of the 37 benzyl derivatives in this group is approximately 210 tonnes in Europe and 460 tonnes in the USA. About 91% of the total annual volume of production in Europe and 94% of that in the USA is accounted for by benzyl alcohol (No. 25), benzaldehyde (No. 22) and benzyl benzoate (No. 24). About 31% of the total annual volume of production in Europe is accounted for by benzaldehyde, 54% by benzyl alcohol and 6% by benzyl benzoate. About 59% of the total annual volume of production in the USA is accounted for by benzaldehyde, 28% by benzyl alcohol and 7% by benzyl benzoate. The estimated daily intake per capita of these three agents in Europe is 9300µg of benzaldehyde, 16000µg of benzyl alcohol and 1900µg of benzyl benzoate. The estimated daily intake per capita in the USA is 36000 µg of benzaldehyde, 17000µg of benzyl alcohol and 4200µg of benzyl benzoate. The estimated daily per capita intake of each flavouring agent in Europe and the USA is reported in Table 4.

Benzoic acid is not only present in food and flavours but is also endogenous in the human body. Endogenous benzoic acid is formed through the phenylalanine-tyrosine pathway (Annex 1, reference *123*).

4.1.3.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

In general, aromatic esters are hydrolysed in vivo by the catalytic activity of carboxylesterases, which are found predominantly in hepatocytes. All the benzyl and benzoate esters and acetals of benzaldehyde (or acetaldehyde) are anticipated to be hydrolysed readily under acidic conditions to yield benzyl alcohol (and carboxylic acids) and to benzaldehyde (and alcohols), respectively, followed by oxidation to yield benzoic acid. Benzoate esters are hydrolysed to benzoic acid (and alcohols). The remaining alcohol or acid components formed by hydrolysis are simple aliphatic substances, which are either oxidized to polar metabolites and excreted or metabolized in the fatty acid pathway and tricarboxylic acid cycle.

Benzyl derivatives have been shown to be absorbed rapidly in the gut, metabolized primarily in the liver and excreted in the urine as glycine conjugates of benzoic acid derivatives. Once absorbed, benzyl derivatives are oxidized and excreted primarily as the glycine conjugate of benzoic acid (hippurate). When high doses of benzyl derivatives are given, formation of the glycine conjugate is limited; when glycine is depleted, free benzoic acid may sequester acetyl coenzyme A or be excreted unchanged or as the glucuronic acid conjugate. Aromatic ring substitution is anticipated to have little effect on the principal pathway of metabolism.

Oxidation of the alcohol or aldehyde group may be accompanied by oxidation of the alkyl side-chain.

4.1.3.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1) to the 37 benzyl derivatives, the Committee assigned all of them to structural class I.

Step 2. At currently estimated levels of intake, 36 of the 37 substances in this group can be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products. The evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded via the left-hand side of the decision-tree. One compound, benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840), cannot be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products, and its evaluation therefore proceeded via the right-hand side of the decision-tree.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of 33 of the flavouring agents in this group are below the threshold of concern for structural class I (1800 μ g). The Committee concluded that these substances would not be expected to be of safety concern at current estimated levels of use as flavouring agents. The estimated daily per capita intakes of the remaining three substances are above the threshold of concern for this class, that of benzyl alcohol (No. 25) being 16 000 μ g in Europe and 17 000 μ g in the USA, that of benzyl benzoate (No. 24) being 1900 μ g in Europe and 4200 μ g in the USA, and that of benzal-dehyde (No. 22) being 9300 μ g in Europe and 36000 μ g in the USA. Accordingly, the evaluation of these three substances proceeded to step A4.

Step A4. Benzyl alcohol, benzyl benzoate and benzaldehyde are readily metabolized to benzoic acid, which is endogenous in humans. These agents would therefore not be expected to be of safety concern.

Step B3. For benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840), no data on intake were reported for Europe and an intake of $1\mu g$ /person per day was reported for the USA, which is below the threshold of concern for substances in structural class I ($1800\mu g$ /person per day). The evaluation of this substance therefore proceeded to step B4.

Step B4. The NOEL of 6 mg/kg of body weight per day for benzyl 2methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840) in a two-generation study of reproductive toxicity in rats provides a margin of safety >10000 times the estimated daily per capita intake in the USA. The Committee concluded that this substance would not pose a safety concern at the currently estimated level of intake.

Table 4 summarizes the evaluations of the 37 benzyl derivatives used as flavouring agents.

4.1.3.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all the benzyl derivatives used as flavouring agents, except benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840), were to be consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the threshold for human intake for structural class I. However, these agents are expected to be efficiently detoxicated and the available detoxication pathways would not be saturated. Evaluation of all the data indicated no safety concern associated with combined intake.

Furthermore, the total combined daily intake per kilogram of body weight of all benzyl derivatives (0.5mg in Europe and 1mg in the USA) is lower than the group ADI of 0–5 mg/kg of body weight for benzoic acid, the benzoate salts (calcium, potassium and sodium), benzaldehyde, benzyl acetate and benzyl alcohol, expressed as benzoic acid equivalents, which was maintained by the Committee at its forty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 122). The three benzyl derivatives that account for more than 90% of the total intake of this group of substances in Europe and the USA are benzvl benzoate (No. 24), which is rapidly hydrolysed to benzyl alcohol and benzoic acid, benzaldehyde (No. 22) and benzyl alcohol (No. 25). All these substances are readily metabolized to benzoic acid, which is endogenous in humans. The Committee considered that the endogenous concentration of this substance would not give rise to perturbations outside the physiological range. Therefore, these three substances were considered to be of no safety concern at currently estimated levels of intake.

4.1.3.5 Conclusions

The Committee concluded that the safety of the flavouring agents in the group of benzyl derivatives would not present concern at currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents. No data on toxicity were required in application of the Procedure to 36 of the 37 benzyl derivatives in the group, and the Committee noted that the available information was consistent with the results of the safety evaluation. The necessary data on toxicity were available for benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal (No. 840).

A monograph summarizing the safety data on this group of flavouring agents and specifications were prepared.

4.1.4 Hydroxy- and alkoxy-substituted benzyl derivatives

The Committee evaluated a group of flavouring agents¹ comprising 46 structurally related substances by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). All members of this group are aromatic primary alcohols, aldehydes, carboxylic acids or their corresponding esters or acetals. The structural feature common to all members of the group is a primary oxygenated functional group bound directly to a benzene ring. The ring also contains hydroxy or alkoxy substituents (see Table 5).

The Committee had previously evaluated four members of this group. Ethyl vanillin (No. 893) was evaluated by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (Annex 1, reference 14), when a conditional ADI of 0-10 mg/kg of body weight was established. At its thirty-fifth meeting, the Committee converted this ADI to a temporary ADI of 0-5 mg/kg of body weight (Annex 1, reference 88). At its thirty-ninth meeting, the Committee extended the temporary ADI (Annex 1, reference 101). At its forty-fourth meeting, the Committee allocated an ADI of 0–3 mg/kg of body weight to ethyl vanillin (Annex 1, reference 116). Vanillin (No. 889) was evaluated by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (Annex 1, reference 14), when an ADI of 0–10 mg/kg of body weight was established. Methyl salicylate (No. 899) was evaluated by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (Annex 1, reference 14), and an ADI of 0–0.5 mg/kg of body weight was established. Piperonal (No. 896) was also evaluated at the eleventh meeting, and an ADI of 0–2.5 mg/kg of body weight was established (Annex 1, reference 14).

Twenty-nine of the 46 substances in this group of flavouring agents have been reported to occur naturally in food. Vanillin (No. 889), a major constituent of natural vanilla, is also present in strawberries and milk. Methyl salicylate (No. 899), the predominant substituent of oil of wintergreen, is also found in tomatoes and grilled beef. Ethyl vanillin (No. 893) has been detected in raspberries and ginger, while piperonal (No. 896) is found in cooked chicken and pepper.

¹ During evaluation of these flavouring agents, the Committee questioned whether one substance in this group (No. 870) was currently used as a flavouring agent and therefore appropriately evaluated by the Procedure. Information to address this question will be sought from relevant manufacturers.

Summary of results of th	ne safe	ty evaluations of hydroxy	and alkoxy-sub	stituted benzyl	derivatives use	d as flavouring	agents ^ª
Flavouring agent	NO.	CAS number and structure	Step A3 ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step A5 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Structural class I 4-Hydroxybenzyl alcohol	955	623-05-2 Ho	No Europe: 6 USA: 0.06	Ч	ЦИ	See note 1	
4-Hydroxybenzaldehyde	956	123-08-0 H	No Europe: 64 USA: 59	RN	RN	See note 1	
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid	957	HO -96-66	No Europe: 19 USA: 17	НN	RN	See note 1	No safety concern
2-Hydroxybenzoic acid	958	но но но но но	No Europe: 0.03 USA: 0.03	RN	RN	See note 1	
Butyl <i>p</i> -hydroxy- benzoate ^c	870	94-26-8	No Europe: ND USA: 0.03	R	RN	See note 2	Evaluation not finalized

Table 5 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	ÖZ	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step A5 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Anisyl alcohol	871	05-13-5 0-	No Europe: 150 USA: 58	R	NR	See note 1	
Anisyl formate	872	122-91-8 H 0 - 0	No Europe: 46 USA: 24	N	NR	See note 2	
Anisyl acetate	873	104-21-2 CH ₃ 0 10	No Europe: 59 USA: 300	R	NR	See note 2	No safety concern
Anisyl propionate	874	7549-33-9	No Europe: ND USA: 5	Я	NR	See note 2	
Anisyl butyrate	875	6963-56-0	No Europe: 34 USA: 0.1	R	ИК	See note 2	

		No safetv	concern		
See note 3	See note 1	See note 1	See note 1	See note 2	See note 1
Ж Z	КN	Ж Z	ц Ч	КZ	Ж Z
RN	Ч И И	RN	RN	RN	RN
No Europe: 0.003 USA: 0.1	No Europe: 140 USA: 55	No Europe: 440 USA: 580	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 0.01	No Europe: 57 USA: 8	No Europe: ND USA: 0.01
102-17-0	120-14-9 H	123-11-5 H	10031-82-0 H	606-45-1	579-75-9 0 1
876	877	878	879	880	881
Anisyl phenylacetate	Veratraldehyde	<i>p</i> -Methoxybenz- aldehyde	<i>p</i> -Ethoxybenz- aldehyde	Methyl <i>o</i> -methoxy- benzoate	2-Methoxybenzoic acid

Table 5 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	°Z	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step A5 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
3-Methoxybenzoic acid	882	586-38-9 0+	No Europe: ND USA: 0.01	ЯN	RN	See note 1	
4-Methoxybenzoic acid	883	100-09-4 0 -0	No Europe: ND USA: 0.1	NN	NR	See note 1	
Methyl anisate	884	121-98-2 	No Europe: 1 USA: 0.01	Ч	NR	See note 2	No safety concern
Ethyl <i>p</i> -anisate	885	94-30-4	No Europe: 11 USA: 2	ЧN	RN	See note 2	
Vanillyl alcohol	886	498-00-0 - - - - OH	No Europe: 6 USA: 6	N	RN	See note 1	

	 No safety concern 		
See note 1	See note 1	See note 2	See note 2
Yes The NOEL of 1000mg/kg of body weight per day in a 2-year study in rats is >100 times the estimated daily intake of vanillin when used as a flavouring	- 	ЧN	NN
°Z	ш Z	۲ ۲	۲ ۲
Yes Europe: 55000 USA: 150000	No Europe: 29 USA: 26	No Europe: 2 USA: 1	No Europe: 64 USA: 0.04
121-33-5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1	121-34-6 Ноон	881-68-5 0 0 0 H 0	20665-85-4
88 88	959	890	891
Vanillin ^d	4-Hydroxy-3-methoxy- benzoic acid	Vanillin acetate	Vanillin isobutyrate

	nments Conclusion oredicted based on abolism current intake	note 1	note 1	note 2 No safety concern	note 2
	Step A5 Corr Adequate on p margin of mets safety for substance or related substance?	NR	NR See	Yes See The NOEL of 50mg/kg of body weight per day in a 2-year study in dogs is >100 times the estimated daily intake of methyl salicylate when used as a flavouring agent	NR See
	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	а И	щ	0 Z	NR
<u>(</u>)	Step A3 ⁵⁰ Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	No Europe: 98 USA: 16	No Europe: 1 USA: 0.3	Yes Europe: 490 USA: 44000	No
	CAS number and structure	90-02-8 0 0 0-H	698-27-1 0 0 0H	19-36-8 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0 -	118-61-6
:	Z	897	898	80	006
 . .	Flavouring agent	Salicylaldehyde	2-Hydroxy-4-methyl- benzaldehyde	Methyl salicylate°	Ethyl salicylate

Table 5 (continued)

			No safety concern			
See note 2	See note 2	See note 2	See note 3	See note 3	See note 3	See note 1
ш Z	Ч	ш Z	ш Z	ж Z	ш Z	Ч
Ч	N	NR	NN	NR	ЯN	NR
No Europe: 0.01 USA: 0.0007	No Europe: 1 USA: 6	No Europe: 49 USA: 7	No Europe: 30 USA: 29	No Europe: 0.2 USA: 4	No Europe: ND USA: 30	No Europe: ND USA: 6
2052-14-4	0 0 0 	87-20-7	118-58-1	87-22-9 0 Ho	617-01-6 Но 0 0	89-86-1 Но он Он
901	902	903	904	905	206	908
Butyl salicylate	Isobutyl salicylate	Isoamyl salicylate	Benzyl salicylate	Phenethyl salicylate	o-Tolyl salicylate	2,4-Dihydroxybenzoic acid

Table 5 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	NO	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Step A5 Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Structural class II Vanillyl ethyl ether	887	13184-86-6 0 0H	No Europe: 22 USA: 22	Щ	ЖN	See note 1	
Vanillyl butyl ether	88 88 8	82654-98-6	No Europe: ND USA: 0.1	RN	RN	See note 1	
Ethyl vanillin ^f	893	121-32-4 0 - H	Yes Europe: 6200 USA: 43000	°Z	Yes The NOEL of 500 mg/kg of body weight per day in a 14-week study in rats is >100 times the estimated daily intake of ethyl vanillin when used as a flavouring agent	See note 1	No safety concern

			, No safety concern		
See note 2	See note 2	See note 2	See note 4	See note 4	See note 4
Я	Ч	ШZ	ЧZ	ЧZ	Yes The NOEL of 250mg/kg of body weight per day in a 2-year study in rats is >1000 times the estimated daily intake of piperonal wher used as a flavouring agen
ш Z	ш Z	RN	RN	ш Z	°Z
No Europe: 4 USA: 3	No Europe: 64 USA: ND	No Europe: 39 USA: 36	No Europe: 41 USA: 11	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 3	Yes Europe: 1700 USA: 3200
63253-24-7	188417-26-7 H 0 0 0	68527-76-4	326-61-4	5461-08-5	0 H 0 H 0 O O O
960	953	954	894	895	896
Vanillin <i>erythro-</i> and <i>threo</i> -butan-2,3-diol acetal	Ethyl vanillin isobutyrate	Ethyl vanillin propylene glycol acetal	Piperonyl acetate	Piperonyl isobutyrate	Piperonal ^g

Table 5 (continued)							
Flavouring agent	Š	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ⁶ Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	<i>Step A5</i> Adequate margin of safety for substance or related substance?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
Ethyl vanillin β-ם- glucopyranoside	892	122397-96-0 HO HO HO HO HO HO	No Europe: ND USA: 30	NR	RN	See note 2	No safety concen
CAS: Chemical Abstracts Se to be of no safety concern a <i>Step 2</i> : All of the flavourin, ^b The thresholds for human ^c Further information is regu ^d An ADI of 0-10 mg/kg of b	t step A: g agents intake fo intake fo ired to d ody wei	D: no data on intake reported 3 of the Procedure. in this group are expected to r structural classes I and II ar letermine whether this substar ght was established for vanilli	; NR: not required for b be metabolized to ii e 1800µg/day and 5 nce is in current use n by the Committee a	evaluation becau: nocuous products 40μg/day, respect as a flavouring age it its eleventh meel	se consumption of s. ively. All intake va ant. ing (Annex 1, refe	the substance wa lues are expressec rence 14), which v	s determined in μg/day. /as maintained
 A n ADI of 0-0.5 mg/kg of the naintained at the present the usual 10% proportion when this measured proparation that and not 0-3 mg/kg of bot maintained at the present A n ADI of 0-2.5 mg/kg of the maintained at the present 	pody we meeting of eaters prtion of dy weig meeting pody we meeting	ight was established for meth- . The estimated daily per capi s; however, a survey of intake eaters was used, the calculat ht was established for ethyl ve ight was established for piper	/I salicylate by the Co ta intake of methyl so showed that >50% of ed intake was 0.1mg anillin by the Committe onal by the Committe	mmnittee at its elevalicylate is 0.7 mg/k the population wo /kg of body weigh ee at its forty-fourt e at its eleventh m	/enth meeting (An cg of body weight buld be expected t t. h meeting (Annex 1, r ieeting (Annex 1, r	nex 1, reference 1, when calculated o co consume methyl 1, reference 116), eference 14), whic	 4), which was the basis of salicylate. which was h was
Notes to Table 5 1. Detoxication by excretion reduction to the correspo and excretion; other, min decarboxylation and redu 2. Detoxication as described parent benzaldehyde der 3. Detoxication as described 4. Detoxication as described	in the u nding ca or metach iction of ivative a i in note i note i note	rine unchanged or as glucuro arboxylic acid or alcohol, resp oolic routes, which probably o benzyl groups to the methyl s 1 plus hydrolysis of esters to and simple aliphatic alcohol, o o 1, preceded by hydrolysis to o 1 plus limited oxidation of the	nic acid, glycine or s ectively, followed by ccur in the intestinal i malogues. In glycosidic bond hy yield mononuclear n methylenedioxyphe	ulfate conjugates; conjugation and e microflora after bili enzyl alcohol or by arolysis to the corru ssidues, each of w nyl group to a cate	aldehyde groups xcretion; <i>O</i> -dealky ary excretion of co enzoic acid deriva esponding phenoli hich would be del echol, which would	will undergo oxida lation followed by o njugates, include tives, acetal hydro c derivative. oxicated as descri- oxicated as descri-	ion or conjugation ysis to the bed in note 1. ion.

4.1.4.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of the 46 flavouring agents in this group is 450 tonnes in Europe and 1800 tonnes in the USA. Vanillin (No. 889), ethyl vanillin (No. 893), methyl salicylate (No. 899) and piperonal (No. 896), for which ADIs were previously established by the Committee, account for approximately 98% of the total annual volume in Europe and 99% in the USA. In Europe, the estimated daily per capita intakes of these compounds are 55 mg of vanillin, 6.2 mg of ethyl vanillin, 0.5 mg of methyl salicylate and 1.7 mg of piperonal. In the USA, the estimated daily per capita intakes are 150mg of vanillin, 43mg of ethyl vanillin, 44mg of methyl salicylate and 3.2 mg of piperonal. The estimated daily per capita intakes of the other flavouring agents in this group are lower. Ethyl salicylate (No. 900) and *p*-methoxybenzaldehyde (No. 878) have the next highest daily per capita intakes; that of ethyl salicylate is 1.7 mg in the USA and that of *p*-methoxybenzaldehyde is 0.5 mg in both Europe and the USA. The remaining 40 flavouring agents have estimated daily per capita intakes of $<100 \mu g$, 10 of which are under 1 μg . The daily per capita intake of each substance in Europe and the USA is shown in Table 5.

4.1.4.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

The aromatic esters in this group can be expected to be hydrolysed extensively through the catalytic activity of the intestinal carboxylesterases, especially β -esterases, to benzyl alcohol or benzoic acid derivatives before absorption. Likewise, acetals of substituted benzaldehyde derivatives will be hydrolysed in gastric and intestinal fluids to yield benzaldehyde and aliphatic alcohols. The resulting hydroxy- and alkoxy-substituted benzyl derivatives are rapidly absorbed in the gut, metabolized in the liver and excreted in the urine.

Once absorbed, benzyl derivatives are oxidized to the corresponding benzoic acid derivative, which is subsequently excreted unchanged or as sulfate or glucuronide conjugates. Minor metabolic detoxication pathways include *O*-demethylation, reduction and decarboxylation. These pathways are used during enterohepatic cycling of conjugated benzyl metabolites and subsequent intestinal bacterial action. Piperonal is oxidized to piperonylic acid and excreted mainly as the glycine conjugate.

4.1.4.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1), the Committee assigned 36 of the 46 flavouring agents in this group to structural class I. These flavouring

agents are all either simple substituted aromatic compounds, cyclic acetals of benzaldehydes which are expected to be hydrolysed to aromatic aldehydes and simple aliphatic alcohols (Nos 870–875, 877–886, 889–891, 897–903, 908, 955–959), or compounds containing two aromatic rings which are expected to be hydrolysed to mononuclear residues with simple functional groups (Nos 876, 904, 905 and 907). The remaining 10 flavouring agents (Nos 887, 888, 892–896, 953, 954 and 960) are ethyl vanillin or piperonal derivatives that contain either an ethoxy or a methylene dioxy substituent. They are common components of food, or closely structurally related to common components of food, and were assigned to structural class II.

Step 2. At current levels of intake, the metabolic pathways of these flavouring agents can be predicted not to be saturated, and all can be predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products. The evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded down the left-hand side of the decision-tree.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of 34 of the flavouring agents in structural class I and eight flavouring agents in structural class II were below the thresholds of concern for these classes (1800 μ g and 540 μ g, respectively). The Committee concluded that these 42 flavouring agents would not be expected to be of safety concern at currently estimated levels of use.

The estimated daily per capita intakes of vanillin (No. 889) and methyl salicylate (No. 899), which are in structural class I, exceed the threshold of concern for this class (1800 μ g). The estimated daily per capita intakes of vanillin are 55000 μ g in Europe and 150000 μ g in the USA, and that of methyl salicylate is 44000 μ g in the USA. The estimated daily per capita intakes of ethyl vanillin (No. 893) and piperonal (No. 896), which are in structural class II, exceed the threshold of concern for this class (540 μ g). The estimated daily per capita intakes of ethyl vanillin are 6200 μ g in Europe and 43000 μ g in the USA, and those of piperonal are 1700 μ g in Europe and 3200 μ g in the USA.

The estimated daily per capita intakes of these four substances are below their respective ADI values. The daily intakes of vanillin in Europe and the USA, approximately 0.9 and 2.5 mg/kg of body weight respectively, do not exceed the ADI of 0–10 mg/kg of body weight for vanillin. The highest estimated daily intakes of ethyl vanillin (0.7 mg/kg of body weight in the USA) and piperonal (0.05 mg/kg of body weight for ethyl vanillin and 0–2.5 mg/kg of body weight for piperonal. The highest estimated daily intake of the remaining substance, methyl salicylate, is 0.7 mg/kg of body weight.
The estimates of intake derived from total annual volume of production are based on the assumption that only 10% of the population consumes the substance under consideration. The Committee reviewed an analysis of the intake of methyl salicylate which was based on individual dietary records of consumption of baked goods, chewing-gums, hard and soft sweets and beverages in which this agent is used in the USA. The analysis showed that more than 50% of the population would be expected to consume methyl salicylate. Use of this *measured* proportion of eaters in place of the default assumption of 10% yields an estimated intake of methyl salicylate of 0.1 mg/kg of body weight, which is still below the current ADI of 0–0.5 mg/kg of body weight.

Step A4. Vanillin (No. 889), methyl salicylate (No. 899), ethyl vanillin (No. 893) and piperonal (No. 896) are not endogenous in humans. The evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded to step A5.

Step A5. The ADI of 0–10 mg/kg of body weight for vanillin is based on a NOEL of 1000 mg/kg of body weight per day in a 2-year feeding study in rats. This NOEL provides a margin of safety, as it is more than 100 times the per capita intake of vanillin from its currently estimated use as a flavouring agent in Europe (0.9 mg/kg of body weight per day) or in the USA (2.5 mg/kg of body weight per day).

The ADI of 0–0.5 mg/kg of body weight for methyl salicylate is based on a NOEL of 50 mg/kg of body weight per day reported in a 2-year study in dogs. This NOEL is more than 1000 times greater than the intake of methyl salicylate from its currently estimated use as a flavouring agent in Europe (0.008 mg/kg of body weight per day) and is more than 100 times greater than the intake of methyl salicylate in the USA when intake is calculated on the basis of the measured portion of eaters of 50% (0.1 mg/kg of body weight per day).

A NOEL of 500 mg/kg of body weight per day for ethyl vanillin was reported in a 14-week feeding study in rats. This NOEL is more than 100 times greater than the intake of ethyl vanillin from its use as a flavouring agent in Europe (0.1 mg/kg of body weight per day) or in the USA (0.7 mg/kg of body weight per day).

A NOEL of 250 mg/kg of body weight per day for piperonal was reported in a 2-year study in rats. This NOEL is more than 1000 times the intake of piperonal from its use as a flavouring agent in Europe (0.03 mg/kg of body weight per day) and in the USA (0.05 mg/kg of body weight per day).

Table 5 summarizes the evaluations of the 46 hydroxy- and alkoxy-substituted benzyl derivatives used as flavouring agents.

4.1.4.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all 36 flavouring agents in structural class I were to be consumed on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the threshold for human intake for this class ($1800\mu g/$ day). In the unlikely event that all 10 flavouring agents in structural class II were to be consumed on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the threshold for human intake for this class ($540\mu g/day$). However, all 46 flavouring agents in this group are expected to be efficiently detoxicated, and the available detoxication pathways would not be saturated. Evaluation of all the data indicated no safety concern associated with combined intake.

4.1.4.5 Conclusions

The Committee retained the previously established ADIs of 0–10 mg/ kg of body weight for vanillin (No. 889), 0–3 mg/kg of body weight for ethyl vanillin (No. 893), 0–2.5 mg/kg of body weight for piperonal (No. 896) and 0–0.5 mg/kg of body weight for methyl salicylate (No. 899). The Committee noted that the estimated daily intake of 0.7 mg/kg of body weight of methyl salicylate, based on the production volume used, is approximately equal to its ADI of 0–0.5 mg/kg of body weight, within the precision of the intake estimates. The Committee reviewed an analysis of intake based on individual dietary records of consumption of mint-flavoured baked goods, chewing-gums, hard and soft sweets and beverages in which methyl salicylate is potentially used. This analysis showed that more than 50% of the population would be expected to consume methyl salicylate. The use of this measured proportion of eaters in place of the default assumption of 10% yields an estimated intake of methyl salicylate of 0.1 mg/kg of body weight, which is below the ADI of 0-0.5 mg/kg of body weight.

On the basis of the available data on metabolism and toxicity, the Committee concluded that the safety of the flavouring agents in this group would not raise concern at the currently estimated levels of use. Other data on toxicity, including studies on developmental toxicity and genotoxicity, were consistent with the results of the safety evaluations.

A monograph summarizing the safety data on this group of flavouring agents was prepared.

4.1.5 Aliphatic acyclic diols, triols and related substances

The Committee evaluated a group of 31 flavouring agents¹ that included aliphatic acyclic diols, triols and related substances

¹ During evaluation of these flavouring agents, the Committee questioned whether some substances in this group (Nos 909 and 914–926) were used as flavouring agents and therefore appropriately evaluated by this Procedure. Information to address this question will be sought from relevant manufacturers.

(Table 6) by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). All members of this group are aliphatic acyclic primary alcohols, aldehydes, acids or related esters with one or more additional oxygenated functional groups. The group comprised four subgroups: glycerol (No. 909) and 15 related glycerol esters and acetals (Nos 910–924); propylene glycol (No. 925) and four related esters, acetals and ketals (Nos 926–929); lactic acid (No. 930) and four lactate esters (Nos 931, 932, 934 and 935); and pyruvic acid (No. 936), its corresponding aldehyde (No. 937), two pyruvate esters (Nos 938 and 939) and one acetal of pyruvic acid (No. 933).

The Committee had previously evaluated three members of the group. Glycerol (No. 909) was considered at the twentieth meeting (Annex 1, reference 41), when an ADI "not specified"¹ was established. Propylene glycol (No. 925) was considered at the seventh meeting (Annex 1, reference 7), when an ADI of 0-20 mg/kg of body weight was established; it was further considered at the seventeenth meeting (Annex 1, reference 32), when the ADI was increased to 0-25 mg/kg of body weight. Ethyl lactate (No. 931) was considered at the eleventh, twenty-third, twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth meetings (Annex 1, references 14, 50, 53 and 59). At its twenty-sixth meeting, the Committee included ethyl lactate in the group ADI "not specified"¹ with lactic acid.

Nine of the 31 substances (Nos 909, 929–932, 934 and 936–938) have been detected as natural components of foods, in cocoa, milk, cider, cognac, asparagus, tomatoes and mushrooms.

4.1.5.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of the 31 flavouring agents in this group is 140 tonnes in Europe and 21000 tonnes in the USA. These values are equivalent to a total estimated daily per capita intake of $20000 \mu g$ in Europe and $2800000 \mu g$ in the USA. The large difference in the annual volume of production in Europe and the USA is due to the inclusion in the USA of figures on the use of glycerol, triacetin and propylene glycol as solvents in the preparation of flavour mixtures.

In Europe, 97% of the total daily per capita intake of this group of flavouring agents was accounted for by glycerol (17000 μ g), ethyl lactate (1900 μ g) and butyl lactate (380 μ g). In the USA, 96% of the total daily per capita intake was accounted for by glycerol (220000 μ g), triacetin (83000 μ g) and propylene glycol (2400000 μ g).

¹ See footnote on page 32.

ounning of results of the	salery e	evaluations of anymatic acyclic utols, the	וטוא מווח ובומוכת את	Detailces	
Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Conclusion based on current intake
Structural class I					
Glycerol ^{c,d}	606	56-81-5 ОН С ОН ОН	Yes Europe: 17 000 USA: 220 000	Yes Glycerol is endogenous	Evaluation not finalized
1,2,3-Tris[(1'-ethoxy)- ethoxy]propane	913	67715-82-6 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	No Europe: 0 USA: 140	NR	No safety concern
Glyceryl monostearate°	918	123-94-4 OH 0 0	No Europe: 0 USA: 230	Ж	
Glyceryl monooleate°	919	111-03-5 0H 0 0	No Europe: ND USA: 860	Щ	Evaluation not finalized
Triacetin [°]	920	102-76-1 0 0 0	Yes Europe: ND USA: 83000	Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to glycerol, which is endogenous	

 $Table\ 6$ Summarv of results of the safetv evaluations of aliphatic acyclic diols, triols and related substances^a

Glyceryl tripropanoate°	921	139-45-7 0 0 0	No Europe: 0.1 USA: 280	ж Ж	
Tributyrin°	922	60-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-0-	No Europe: 31 USA: 2	КN	
Glycerol 5-hydroxy- decanoate [°]	923	26446-31-1 OH O O	No Europe: 4 USA: 0	Ж	
Glycerol 5-hydroxy- dodecanoate°	924	26446-32-2 OH OH OH	No Europe: 4 USA: 0	Ж	Evaluation n finalized
Propylene glycol ^{c.e}	925	о он 57-55-6 он // он	Yes Europe: ND USA: 2400000	Yes Expected to be oxidized to lactic acid, which is	
Propylene glycol stearate°	926	142-75-6 OH	Yes Europe: ND USA: 66000	endogenous Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to propylene glycol and subsequently oxidized to lactic acid	

ot

Table 6 (continued)					
Flavouring agent	N	CAS number and structure	<i>Step A3</i> ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	<i>Step A4</i> Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Conclusion based on current intake
1,2-Di[(1-ethoxy)- ethoxy]propane	927	67715-79-1 60×0 60×0	No Europe: 7 USA: 150	RN	
Lactic acid	930	598-82-3 0 OH	Yes Europe: ND USA: 47000	Yes Lactic acid is endogenous	
Ethyl lactate [′]	931	97-64-3 0 0 0 HO	Yes Europe: 1900 USA: 760	Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to lactic acid, which is endoremous	
Butyl lactate	932	138-22-7 0 0H	No Europe: 380 USA: 24	E C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C	> No safety concern
Potassium 2-(1'-ethoxy)- ethoxypropanoate	933	100743-68-8	No Europe: ND USA: 1400	ц Ц	
<i>cis</i> -3-Hexenyl lactate	934	61931-81-5 0 0H	No Europe: 38 USA: 5	цх	

		No safety concern				 No safety concern 	
л Ж Х	ЯN	RN	ЯN	щ	Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to glycerol, which	Is endogenous NR	щ
No Europe: 280 USA: 1400	No Europe: 35 USA: 69	No Europe: 120 USA: 3	No Europe: 1 USA: 20	No Europe: 0 USA: 0	Yes Europe: 0 USA: 270	No Europe: 34 Lis A - O	USA: 0 Europe: 4 USA: 0
7492-70-8	127-17-3 0 0 0	8-98-8 98-98-9	617-35-6	7779-72-8 0 0	91052-72-1 0 0	91052-68-5 >	1708-35-6 OR 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
935	936	937	938	939	910	911	912
Butyl butyryllactate	Pyruvic acid	Pyruvaldehyde	Ethyl pyruvate	Isoamyl pyruvate	Structural class III 3-Oxohexanoic acid glyceride	3-Oxooctanoic acid glyceride	Heptanal glyceryl acetal (mixed 1,2 and 1,3 acetals)

Flavouring agent	No.	CAS number and structure	Step A3 ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Step A4 Is the substance or are its metabolites endogenous?	Conclusion based on current intake
3-Oxodecanoic acid glyceride ^c	914	91052-69-6	Yes Europe: 0 USA: 270	Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to glycerol, which is endoremous	
3-Oxododecanoic acid glyceride ^c	915	91052-70-9 0 0	No Europe: 73 USA: 0		Evaluation not
3-Oxotetradecanoic acid glyceride ^c	916	91052-73-2 0 0	Yes Europe: 0 USA: 270	Yes Expected to be hydrolysed to glycerol, which is endorenous	finalized
3-Oxohexadecanoic acid glyceride ^c	917	91052-71-0	No Europe: 43 USA: 0		
4-Methyl-2-pentyl-1,3- dioxolane	928	26563-74-6	No Europe: 0 USA: 0.2	н Н Н Н Н Н Н Н	
2,2,4-Trimethyl-1,3- oxyacyclopentane	929	1193-11-9	No Europe: 0.3 USA: 0.2	Щ	No safety concern
CAS: Chomical Abstracts Sastion: ND		intological and the standing of the section bottom by	odt to acitomicano concor	+ protoco von dotomico 4	to be of an onforty connert

salely collicelli

CAS: Chemical robustics service, for the data of intervention, for instruction or communications with the procedure. a step 23 of the Procedure Step 23 all of the flavouring agents in this group are predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products. The threshold for human interke for structural classes hand 111 are 1800 gr/day and 90 μg/day, respectively. All intake values are expressed in μg/day. The threshold for human interke for structural classes hand 111 are 1800 μg/day and 90 μg/day respectively. All intake values are expressed in μg/day. Eurther information is required to determine whether this substance is in current use as a flavouring agent. A n ADI "not specified" was established for glycerol by the Committee at its twentieth meeting (Annex 1, reference *41*), which was maintained at the A n ADI of 0–25 mg/kg of body weight was established for propylene glycol by the Committee at its seventeenth meeting (Annex 1, reference *32*), which was maintained at the

present meeting. Ethyl lactate was included in the group ADI "not specified" for lactic acid and its salts that was established by the Committee at its twenty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 59), which was maintained at the present meeting.

Table 6 (continued)

The daily per capita intake of each substance in Europe and the USA is shown in Table 6.

4.1.5.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

The aliphatic esters of propylene glycol (No. 925), lactic acid (No. 930) and pyruvic acid (No. 936) and their parent compounds would all be expected to be readily absorbed from the gut. Hydrolysis of the aliphatic esters is catalysed largely by hepatic esterases, to give the component alcohol and carboxylic acid or aldehyde. After hydrolysis of the glycerol esters in the intestine, glycerol is readily absorbed. Glycerol, pyruvic acid and lactic acid are endogenous in humans. Glycerol and pyruvic acid are metabolized completely and are not excreted. Lactic acid is also largely metabolized, although urinary excretion may occur if the blood concentration is high. Propylene glycol can be metabolized, but high doses are likely to be excreted largely unchanged in the urine.

Glycerol (No. 909) is converted in the liver to glycerol-3-phosphate, which is metabolized via the glycolytic pathway, by oxidation, to yield dihydroxyacetone phosphate, which is isomerized to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate, eventually yielding pyruvic acid.

Pyruvic acid follows two primary routes of metabolism. Under aerobic conditions, it is converted to acetyl coenzyme A and enters the citric acid cycle. Under anaerobic conditions, primarily in muscles as a result of strenuous physical activity, pyruvic acid is reduced by lactic dehydrogenase to lactic acid.

Lactic acid diffuses through muscle tissue and is transported to the liver in the bloodstream. In the liver, it is converted to glucose by gluconeogenesis. Lactic acid can also be further catabolized in the lactic acid cycle (also known as the Cori cycle).

Propylene glycol can be oxidized to lactic acid via two biochemical pathways. If propylene glycol is phosphorylated, it can be converted to acetol phosphate, lactaldehyde phosphate, lactyl phosphate and then lactic acid. If it is not phosphorylated, propylene glycol is successively oxidized to lactaldehyde, methylglyoxal and lactic acid.

4.1.5.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. Twenty-eight of the 31 flavouring agents in this group are linear, simple-branched aliphatic compounds. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1), the Committee assigned 22 of the agents to structural class I because they contain fewer than three types of functional group (Nos 909, 913,

918–927 and 930–939). The Committee assigned six of the substances to structural class III because they contain three or more types of functional group (Nos 910, 911 and 914–917). The three remaining substances were also assigned to structural class III because they are cyclic acetals and ketals (Nos 912, 928 and 929).

Step 2. The data on the metabolism of individual members of the group were sufficient to allow conclusions about their probable metabolic fate. The aliphatic esters of propylene glycol (No. 926), lactic acid (Nos 931, 932, 934 and 935) and pyruvic acid (Nos 938 and 939) can be expected to be hydrolysed to their component alcohols and carboxylic acids. The glycerol esters (Nos 910, 911 and 914–924) can be expected to be hydrolysed to glycerol and carboxylic acids. Esters of propylene glycol can be expected to be hydrolysed to propylene glycol and its component acid. Esters of lactic acid and pyruvic acid can be expected to be hydrolysed to lactic acid and pyruvic acid, respectively, and the corresponding alcohols. The acetals (Nos 912, 913, 927 and 933) can be expected to be hydrolysed to their component alcohols and aldehydes, while the ketals (Nos 928 and 929) can be expected to be hydrolysed to their component ketones and alcohols. Glycerol (No. 909), lactic acid (No. 930) and pyruvic acid (No. 936) are endogeneous and are metabolized through the glycolytic and citric acid pathways. Propylene glycol (No. 925) is oxidized to lactic acid. Because they are predicted to be metabolized to innocuous products, the evaluation of all the substances in this group proceeded via the left-hand side of the decision-tree.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of 17 of the substances in structural class I and five substances in structural class III are below the threshold of concern for these classes (1800μ g and 90μ g, respectively). The Committee concluded that these substances would not be expected to be of safety concern at their currently estimated levels of use. The daily per capita intakes of six substances in structural class I (Nos 909, 920, 925, 926, 930 and 931) and three substances in structural class III (Nos 910, 914 and 916) exceed the threshold of concern for these classes, and their evaluation therefore proceeded to step A4.

Step A4. Glycerol (No. 909), lactic acid (No. 930) and the hydrolysis products of ethyl lactate (No. 931) are endogenous in humans and their use as flavouring agents is therefore not expected to be of safety concern. Triacetin (No. 920), 3-oxohexanoic acid glyceride (No. 910), 3-oxodecanoic acid glyceride (No. 914) and 3-oxotetradecanoic acid glyceride (No. 916) are glycerol esters and are hydrolysed to glycerol.

Propylene glycol (No. 925) and propylene glycol stearate (No. 926) are not endogenous in humans; however, the ester is expected to be hydrolysed to propylene glycol and stearic acid. Propylene glycol is known to be oxidized to lactic acid in mammals. The safety of these substances would therefore not be expected to be of concern.

4.1.5.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all 23 substances in structural class I were to be consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the threshold for human intake for this class (1800µg). In the unlikely event that all eight substances in structural class III were to be consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would exceed the threshold for human intake for this class (90µg). Given that the substances can be expected to be efficiently metabolized by known metabolic pathways, the Committee considered that the combined intake would not give rise to concern about safety.

4.1.5.5 Conclusions

On the basis of the predicted metabolism, the Committee concluded that the safety of the 31 aliphatic acyclic diols, triols and related substances in this group would not raise concern at the currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents. The Committee noted that all of the available data on toxicity were consistent with the results of the safety evaluations.

A monograph summarizing the safety data on this group of flavouring agents was prepared.

4.1.6 Aliphatic acyclic acetals

The Committee evaluated a group of 10 flavouring agents consisting of aliphatic acyclic acetals (Table 7) by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1). They all have acyclic structures that vary only in the length of their hydrocarbon chains and the number and placement of double bonds. None of these flavouring agents had been evaluated previously by the Committee.

Aliphatic acetals are geminal diethers in which two molar equivalents of alcohol are condensed with an aldehyde. Three of the 10 acetals in this group are formed from acetaldehyde and simple aliphatic alcohols (Nos 940, 941 and 943); the remaining seven acetals are formed from methanol or ethanol and aldehydes of carbon chainlength C7–C10 (Nos 942 and 944–949). Acetals are known to be hydrolysed in vivo to yield the corresponding alcohols and aldehydes. Of the component alcohols (methanol, ethanol and *cis*-3-hexen-1-ol)

Table 7 Summary of results of the	e safet)	/ evaluations of aliphatic a	icyclic acetals used as	flavouring agents ${}^{\scriptscriptstyle a}$	
Flavouring agent	No	CAS number and structure	Step A3 ^b Does intake exceed the threshold for human intake?	Comments on predicted metabolism	Conclusion based on current intake
1,1-Dimethoxyethane	940	534-15-6 0	No Europe: 71 USA: 11	Metabolized to acetaldehyde and methanol	
Acetal	941	105-57-7	No Europe: 240 USA: 640	Metabolized to acetaldehyde and ethanol	
Heptanal dimethyl acetal	947	10032-05-0	No Europe: 0.04 USA: 0.26	Metabolized to heptanal and methanol	No safety concern
4-Heptenal diethyl acetal	949	18492-65-4	No Europe: 0.04 USA: 0	Metabolized to 4-heptenal and ethanol	
Octanal dimethyl acetal	942	10022-28-3	No Europe: 1.1 USA: 0	Metabolized to octanal and methanol	

Metabolized to 2,6-nonadienal) and ethanol	Metabolized to decanal and methanol	Metabolized to citral and methanol > No safety concern	Metabolized to citral and ethanol	Metabolized to acetaldehvde
No Europe: 0.04 USA: 0.01	No Europe: 0.03 USA: 0	No Europe: 3 USA: 5	No Europe: 4 USA: 0	No Europe: ND
67674-36-6	7779-41-1	7549-37-3	7492-66-2	28069-74-1
946	945	944	948	943
2,6-Nonadienal diethyl acetal	Decanal dimethyl acetal	Citral dimethyl acetal	Citral diethyl acetal	Acetaldehyde ethyl <i>cis</i> -3-hexenyl acetal

and aldehydes, acetaldehyde, heptanal, 4-heptenal, octanal and decanal had been considered previously by the Committee at its fortyninth and fifty-first meetings (Annex 1, references 131 and 137), when it concluded that their safety was of no concern at currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents.

Three of the 10 flavouring agents in this group, 1,1-dimethoxyethane (No. 940), acetal (No. 941) and acetaldehyde ethyl *cis*-3-hexenyl acetal (No. 943), have been reported to occur as natural components of foods. They have been detected in orange juice, strawberries, cider, peas, coffee and cognac.

4.1.6.1 Estimated daily per capita intake

The total annual volume of production of the 10 aliphatic acyclic acetals is approximately 2.2 tonnes in Europe and 4.9 tonnes in the USA. About 97% of the total annual volume of production in Europe and 99% of that in the USA is accounted for by 1,1-dimethoxyethane (No. 940), formed from acetaldehyde and methanol, and acetal (No. 941), formed from acetaldehyde and ethanol.

4.1.6.2 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and elimination

In general, aliphatic acetals undergo acid-catalysed hydrolysis to their component aldehydes and alcohols. They are hydrolysed within 1–5h in simulated gastric fluid in vitro and to a lesser extent in simulated intestinal fluid. Indirect evidence, from a study in which rabbits were given aliphatic acetals in aqueous suspension by stomach tube, indicated that rapid hydrolysis occurs in the stomach. The acetals formed from the reaction of alkyl-substituted pentanal with methanol, ethanol and isopropyl alcohol are metabolized to the corresponding alcohols and acids in rat liver homogenates by an oxidative mechanism involving cytochrome P450 enzymes. Aliphatic acetals can be expected to undergo similar metabolism in humans to the corresponding alcohols and acids. There are insufficient data to exclude the possibility that significant amounts of the parent acetals reach the general circulation; however, the parent compounds are all in structural class I. The low intake resulting from uses of these substances as flavours would not be expected to saturate metabolic enzyme pathways, and the acetals are metabolized to innocuous compounds by hydrolysis or oxidation.

On the basis of their recognized or presumed metabolic fate, the component alcohols and aldehydes can be grouped into three structural classes: linear, aliphatic, primary, saturated and unsaturated alcohols and aldehydes; α , β -unsaturated aldehydes; and branched-chain aliphatic aldehydes. The metabolic detoxication of linear, ali-

phatic, primary alcohols in vivo occurs primarily by oxidation to the corresponding aldehyde, with subsequent oxidation of the aldehyde to the corresponding carboxylic acid. The acid can serve as a substrate for fatty acid oxidation pathways and the citric acid cycle. In general, α , β -unsaturated aldehydes are metabolized by oxidation to the corresponding carboxylic acid, which may then participate in the fatty acid pathway. The aldehyde can also be conjugated with glutathione in a Michael-type addition. Branched-chain aliphatic aldehydes are oxidized primarily to polar metabolites, which are excreted mainly in the urine. The main urinary metabolites of branched aldehydes are diacids and hydroxyacids resulting from ω -oxidation, reduction and hydration of the alkene function and oxidation of the aldehyde function.

Although few studies on the absorption, distribution and elimination of aliphatic acyclic acetals have been reported, the metabolism of the component alcohols and aldehydes has been investigated. These studies are considered relevant to the safety evaluation of orally administered acetals which are expected to be hydrolysed in the acid environment of the stomach.

Citral is predicted to be a metabolite of citral dimethyl acetal (No. 944) and citral diethyl acetal (No. 948). The absorption, distribution and excretion of citral have been studied extensively in rats and mice. Citral underwent rapid absorption from the gut and was distributed uniformly throughout the body. Rapid elimination of citral and its metabolites occurred primarily in the urine and to a minor extent in exhaled air and faeces.

4.1.6.3 Application of the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

Step 1. In applying the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents (see Fig. 1), the Committee assigned all 10 of the aliphatic acetals to structural class I.

Step 2. At current levels of intake, all of these flavouring agents can be predicted to be metabolized to their component aldehydes and alcohols, which are then metabolized to innocuous products,¹ and the pathways involved would not be expected to be saturated. Evaluation of these substances therefore proceeded via the left-hand side of the decision-tree.

¹ Some aldehydes, including acetaldehyde, were genotoxic in vitro in a number of test systems, and acetaldehyde has been reported to produce tumours of the respiratory tract in rats and hamsters exposed to high doses by inhalation. The relevance of this observation to oral administration is questionable, as various metabolic processes in the intestinal wall and liver (i.e. oxidation and conjugation) are predicted to result in extensive first-pass metabolic inactivation, especially at the low concentrations expected from use of these substances as flavours.

Step A3. The estimated daily per capita intakes of all 10 substances in this group are below the threshold of concern for structural class I ($1800 \mu g$). The Committee concluded that their safety raises no concern at their currently estimated levels of use as flavouring agents.

Table 7 summarizes the results of the evaluations of the aliphatic acetals used as flavouring agents.

4.1.6.4 Consideration of combined intakes from use as flavouring agents In the unlikely event that all 10 aliphatic acetals were consumed concurrently on a daily basis, the estimated combined intake would not exceed the threshold for human intake for structural class I (1800 μ g/day). All flavouring agents in this group are expected to be efficiently metabolized and the available metabolic pathways would not be saturated. Evaluation of all the data indicated there would be no safety concern associated with combined intake.

4.1.6.5 Conclusions

The Committee concluded that the safety of aliphatic acetals would not raise concern at the currently estimated levels of intake. Other data on the toxicity of aliphatic acetals were consistent with the results of the safety evaluation.

A monograph summarizing the safety data on this group of flavouring agents was prepared.

4.2 Revision of certain specifications for purity

4.2.1 Flavouring agents with specifications designated as "tentative" at previous meetings

At its forty-sixth, forty-ninth, fifty-first, fifty-third and fifty-fifth meetings (Annex 1, references 122, 131, 137, 143 and 149), the Committee evaluated a total of 143 flavouring agents for which further information was required in order to complete the specifications. At its present meeting, the Committee reviewed new data on 95 of these flavouring agents and revised the specifications to take account of the new information. For 83 substances, the "tentative" designation was removed; for the remaining 12, the revised specifications were classified as "tentative" (see Annex 2).

For the remaining 47 substances, no further data were provided that would permit the preparation of satisfactory specifications, according to the criteria identified by the Committee at its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143). The flavour industry has indicated that many of these substances are highly noxious, sulfur-containing compounds which are not routinely handled in the pure form. It is there-

fore impracticable to provide information on, for instance, boilingpoint or specific gravity. The Committee concluded that, in such cases, the additional criteria identified at its fifty-third meeting for the establishment of satisfactory specifications should not apply and that only the basic data on chemical identity, minimum assay and identity test were required.

The Committee reiterated that the evaluation of flavouring agents relies on adequate information about the identity and composition of products in commercial use. In future, specifications for flavouring agents will be withdrawn within 2 years of publication of tentative specifications, if the necessary information is not provided.

4.2.2 Flavouring agents with minimum assay values less than 95%

At its fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143), the Committee announced its intention to re-examine specifications for flavouring agents for which the minimum assay values were <95% (see also section 2.6 of the present report), which were designated as "tentative". At its present meeting, the Committee considered information on all 62 remaining substances in this category with regard to the secondary components that might be present in commercial products.

The available information was sufficient for the Committee to revise the specifications for 27 flavouring agents (including two flavouring agents for which the specifications were revised for other reasons). The Committee therefore removed the "tentative" designations, on the basis of the general principle that no more than 5% of any commercial product should remain undefined after taking account of the flavouring agent and named secondary components.

The Committee will review this group of flavouring agents at a future meeting to confirm whether all the named secondary components are covered by existing safety evaluations. At the same time, the Committee will determine the need for further information to complete those specifications that remain tentative.

4.2.3 Specifications for flavouring agents being reviewed for safety

A total of 203 flavouring agents were reviewed for safety at the present meeting. For four of them, specifications had been drawn up at the forty-sixth meeting (Annex 1, reference 122), and these were revised for use of these substances as flavouring agents. For six flavouring agents, information on specifications was not submitted. These will be considered at a future meeting when such data become available.

New specifications were drawn up for the remaining 193 flavouring agents. For 27 substances, the new specifications were designated as "tentative", either because they failed to meet the criteria drawn up at the fifty-third meeting (Annex 1, reference 143) or because certain aspects required clarification.

5. Contaminants

5.1 Chloropropanols

Certain chlorinated propanols occur as contaminants in hydrolysed vegetable proteins. Processing of defatted vegetable proteins by traditional hydrochloric acid hydrolysis leads to the formation of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol and 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol. These two substances were evaluated by the Committee at its forty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference 107), when it concluded that they are undesirable contaminants in food and expressed the opinion that their concentrations in hydrolysed vegetable proteins should be reduced as far as is technically achievable. The present evaluations were conducted in response to a request by the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants at its Thirty-second Session (4) for the Expert Committee to re-evaluate 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol and 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol on the basis of new data that had become available since the forty-first meeting.

5.1.1 3-Chloro-1,2-propanediol

5.1.1.1 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion

3-Chloro-1,2-propanediol crosses the blood-testis barrier and the blood-brain barrier and is widely distributed in the body fluids. The parent compound is partly detoxified by conjugation with glutathione, resulting in excretion of the corresponding mercapturic acid, and is partly oxidized to β -chlorolactic acid and further to oxalic acid. Approximately 30% is broken down to carbon dioxide and exhaled. In the studies from which these data were derived, however, much of the administered dose was not accounted for. Intermediate formation of an epoxide has been postulated but not proven. There is some indication that microbial enzymes can dehalogenate halogenated alcohols to produce glycidol, a known genotoxin in vitro and in vivo.

5.1.1.2 Toxicological studies

The median lethal dose of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in rats after oral administration was 150 mg/kg of body weight.

In several studies in which 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol was administered orally to rats as repeated doses of >1 mg/kg of body weight per day, it

decreased sperm motility and impaired male fertility. At doses of $\geq 10-20 \text{ mg/kg}$ of body weight per day, alterations in sperm morphology and epididymal lesions (spermatocoele) were found. The compound reduced fertility in males of several other mammalian species at slightly higher doses than in the rat.

In rats and mice, oral administration of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol at doses of $\geq 25 \text{ mg/kg}$ of body weight per day was associated with the development of dose-related lesions of the central nervous system, particularly in the brain stem.

In several short-term studies in rats and mice, the kidney was shown to be the target organ for toxicity. In a 4-week study in rats treated by gavage at 30 mg/kg of body weight per day and in a 13-week study in rats given an oral dose of 9 mg/kg of body weight per day, 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol increased the weight of the kidneys relative to body weight.

In the pivotal long-term study in Fischer 344 rats, the absolute weight of the kidney was reported to be significantly increased by administration of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in drinking-water, at all doses tested. The incidence of tubule hyperplasia in the kidneys of treated animals of both sexes was also higher than in controls. Although the incidence did not reach statistical significance at the lowest dose tested (1.1 mg/ kg of body weight per day), the Committee concluded that it represented part of a compound-related dose–response relationship. Overt nephrotoxicity was seen at higher doses (5.2 and 28 mg/kg of body weight per day).

The results of most assays for mutagenicity in bacteria in vitro were reported to be positive, although negative results were obtained in the presence of an exogenous metabolic activation system from mammalian tissue. The results of assays in mammalian cells in vitro were also generally positive. It should be noted, however, that the concentrations used in all these assays were very high (0.1–9mg/ml), so that their relevance might be questionable. The weight of the evidence indicates that 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol is not genotoxic in vitro at concentrations at which other toxic effects are not observed. The results of assays conducted in vivo, including a test for micronucleus formation in mouse bone marrow and an assay for unscheduled DNA synthesis in rats, were negative. The Committee concluded that 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol is not genotoxic in vivo.

Four long-term studies of toxicity and carcinogenicity were available. Three (two in mice and one in rats) did not meet modern standards of quality; nevertheless, none of these three studies indicated carcinogenic activity. In the fourth study, conducted in Fischer 344 rats, oral administration of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol was associated with increased incidences of benign tumours in some organs. These tumours occurred only at doses greater than those causing renal tubule hyperplasia, which had been selected as the most sensitive end-point.

5.1.1.3 Occurrence

3-Chloro-1,2-propanediol has been detected at concentrations >1 mg/ kg in only two food ingredients: acid-hydrolysed vegetable protein and soya sauce. In both ingredients, a range of concentrations has been reported, from below the limit of quantification (0.01 mg/kg) with an analytical method that has been validated in various foods and food ingredients, up to 100 mg/kg in some samples of acid-hydrolysed vegetable protein and more than 300 mg/kg in some samples of soya sauce.

Formation of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in acid-hydrolysed vegetable protein has been found to be related to production processes, and the concentration can be reduced markedly by modifying the processes suitably. The source of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in soya sauce is being investigated; by analogy with hydrolysed vegetable protein, however, it may arise during acid hydrolysis in the manufacture of some products. Traditionally fermented soya sauces would not be contaminated with 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol.

3-Chloro-1,2-propanediol has also been quantified at concentrations generally <0.1 mg/kg in other foods and food ingredients, notably a number of cereal products that have been subjected to high temperatures during roasting or toasting. Concentrations ≤ 0.5 mg/kg have been found in food ingredients such as malt extracts, but the resulting concentrations in finished foods were <0.01 mg/kg.

5.1.1.4 Estimates of dietary intake

Information on the concentrations of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in foods, food ingredients and protein hydrolysates was submitted by the United Kingdom and the USA and by the International Hydrolyzed Protein Council. The USA supplied a national estimate of the intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol, and information on the consumption of soya sauce in Australia, Japan and the USA was received.

The toxicological studies summarized above indicate that 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol would not be expected to have acute effects at any level of intake that might reasonably be expected. This analysis therefore addressed only long-term intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol from foods. Intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol would be due predominantly to consumption of contaminated soya sauces. In a survey of 90 samples of commercial soya sauces, 50 samples contained <1 mg/kg, and the average concentration was 18 mg/kg. The results of this survey were taken as representative for all soya sauces for the purposes of the intake assessment.

The mean daily per capita consumption of soya sauce in Australia by persons consuming this product was about 11 g, and that of persons at the 95th percentile of consumption was about 35g. Thus, the daily per capita intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol would be 200µg for mean consumption of soya sauce and 630µg at the 90th percentile of consumption. The estimated mean daily per capita consumption of soya sauce in Japan (equivalent to consumption by consumers only, in view of its widespread use in that country) was about 30g, resulting in a mean daily per capita intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol of about 540µg. Intake at the 95th percentile in Japan was estimated to be 1100µg by assuming twice the mean consumption of soya sauce. The estimated mean daily per capita consumption of soya sauce in the USA by consumers of this product was 8g, and that of consumers at the 90th percentile of consumption was 16g. The resulting estimated daily per capita intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol was 140µg for mean consumption and 290µg for consumption at the 90th percentile.

The data submitted by the United Kingdom showed that 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol occurs in some savoury foods, with about 30% of samples containing concentrations above the limit of detection of 0.01 mg/kg. The mean residual concentration in these savoury foods was 0.012 mg/kg.

In estimating the intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol from foods other than soya sauce, the Committee assumed that about one-eighth of the diet, i.e. 180g (on the basis of 1500g/day of solid food), consists of savoury foods that might contain 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol and that the mean residual concentration of the compound in those foods is 0.012 mg/kg. On this basis, the daily per capita intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol from foods other than soya sauce was estimated to be $2\mu g$.

5.1.1.5 Evaluation

The Committee chose tubule hyperplasia in the kidney as the most sensitive end-point for deriving a tolerable intake. This effect was seen in the long-term study of toxicity and carcinogenicity in rats in a dose-related manner, although the effect did not reach statistical significance at the lowest dose. The Committee concluded that the lowest-observed-effect level (LOEL) was 1.1 mg/kg of body weight per day and considered this to be close to a NOEL.

The Committee established a provisional maximum tolerable daily intake (PMTDI) of $2\mu g/kg$ of body weight for 3-chloro-1,2propanediol on the basis of the LOEL of 1.1 mg/kg of body weight per day and a safety factor of 500, which included a factor of 5 for extrapolation from a LOEL to a NOEL. This factor was considered to be adequate to allow for the absence of a clear NOEL and to account for the effects on male fertility and for inadequacies in the studies of reproductive toxicity. Data available to the Committee indicated that the estimated mean intake of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol by consumers of soya sauce would be at or above this PMTDI.

5.1.1.6 Impact of regulatory limits

As 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol is found infrequently in foods, a regulatory limit would be unlikely to have much effect on the overall intake by persons who do not consume soya sauce. However, because the distribution of residual 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in soya sauce is highly skewed and because it is likely that brand loyalty could result in regular consumption of highly contaminated brands of soya sauce, a regulatory limit on the concentration of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in soya sauce could markedly reduce the intake by consumers of this commodity.

5.1.2 1,3-Dichloro-2-propanol

5.1.2.1 Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion

Approximately 5% of an oral dose of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was excreted in the urine of rats as β -chlorolactate and about 1% of the dose as 2-propanol-1,3-dimercapturic acid. In another experiment, the urine of rats contained the parent compound (2.4% of the dose), 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol (0.35% of the dose) and 1,2-propanediol (0.43% of the dose). Epoxy-chloropropane (epichlorohydrin) was postulated to be an intermediate, and this compound may either undergo conjugation with glutathione to form mercapturic acid or be hydrolysed to 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol. The latter undergoes oxidation to β -chlorolactate, which is further oxidized to oxalic acid.

5.1.2.2 Toxicological studies

The median lethal dose of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol in rats treated orally was 120–140 mg/kg of body weight.

In several short-term studies in rats, oral administration of 1,3dichloro-2-propanol at doses of $\geq 10 \text{ mg/kg}$ of body weight per day caused significant hepatic toxicity. This was associated with oxidative metabolism, which yielded intermediates that reacted with and depleted glutathione.

In a 13-week study in rats, overt hepatotoxicity, including increased liver weights, histological changes and/or increased activity of serum alanine and aspartate transaminases, was seen after oral administration of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol at doses of $\geq 10 \text{ mg/kg}$ of body weight per day. These doses also caused histopathological changes in the kidney, increased kidney weights and alterations in urinary parameters. The NOEL was 1 mg/kg of body weight per day.

1,3-Dichloro-2-propanol has been reported to be hepatotoxic in humans exposed occupationally.

1,3-Dichloro-2-propanol was clearly mutagenic and genotoxic in various bacterial and mammalian test systems in vitro. The only available study in vivo showed no mutagenic effect in a wing spot test in *Drosophila melanogaster*.

The results of the one long-term study of toxicity and carcinogenicity in rats confirmed the hepatotoxicity and nephrotoxicity seen in the 13-week study. Furthermore, it demonstrated a clear carcinogenic effect of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol at the highest dose tested, 19 mg/kg of body weight per day. The tumours (adenomas and carcinomas) occurred in liver, kidney, the oral epithelium and tongue and the thyroid gland. No increase in tumour incidence was seen at the lowest dose tested, 2.1 mg/kg of body weight per day. Treatment-related nonneoplastic lesions of the liver were observed, sinusoidal peliosis being found in all treated groups.

5.1.2.3 Occurrence

Information on the concentrations of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol in soya sauce was submitted by the USA. Additional information was derived from a published report on the concomitant occurrence of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol and 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol in soya sauces, which showed that 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol may be present at concentrations >1 mg/kg in samples of hydrolysed vegetable protein and soya sauce that contain 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol. In those products in which 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was quantifiable, the ratio of the concentrations of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol and 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was at least 20.

5.1.2.4 Estimates of dietary intake

A report from the USA was used by the Committee to estimate the intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol present in soya sauces. Information

about the consumption of soya sauce was received from Australia, Japan and the USA.

The toxicological studies summarized above indicate that 1,3dichloro-2-propanol would not be expected to have acute effects at any level of intake that might reasonably be expected. This analysis therefore addressed only long-term intake of the compound from foods.

The upper-bound 20:1 ratio of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol:1,3dichloro-2-propanol was used by the Committee to estimate the intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol from consumption of soya sauce. As the average concentration of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in a survey of 90 commercially obtained soya sauce samples was 18 mg/kg, the residual concentration of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was assumed to be 0.9 mg/kg.

The mean daily per capita consumption of soya sauce in Australia was approximately 11g, and that of persons at the 95th percentile of consumption was 35g. The estimated daily per capita intake was therefore 10µg for consumers at the mean and 30µg at the 95th percentile. The daily per capita intake of soya sauce in Japan (equivalent to the consumption by consumers only, in view of its widespread use in that country) was 30g, resulting in an estimated daily per capita intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol of 27µg. An intake of 55µg/person per day was estimated for consumers in the upper percentile of consumption by assuming twice the mean consumption of soya sauce. The estimated mean daily per capita consumption of soya sauce in the USA by consumers of this product was 8g, and that of consumers at the 90th percentile of consumption was 16g. The resulting estimated daily per capita intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was 7µg at the mean level of consumption and 14µg at the 90th percentile.

The intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol from foods other than soya sauce can be estimated roughly from data on residual concentrations of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol in savoury foods and the upper-bound 20:1 ratio of 3-chloro-1,2-propanediol:1,3-dichloro-2-propanol. If it is assumed that about one-eighth of the diet, i.e. 180g (on the basis of 1500g/day of solid food), consists of savoury foods that might contain 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol and that the mean residual concentration of the compound in those foods is $0.6\mu g/kg$, the background daily per capita intake is approximately $0.1\mu g$.

5.1.2.5 Evaluation

Although only a few studies of kinetics, metabolism, short- and longterm toxicity and reproductive toxicity were available for evaluation, the results clearly indicated that 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol was genotoxic in vitro, was hepatotoxic and induced a variety of tumours in various organs in rats. The Committee concluded that it would be inappropriate to estimate a tolerable intake because of the nature of the toxicity observed:

- The results of the long-term study of toxicity and carcinogenicity showed significant increases in the incidences of both benign and malignant neoplasms in at least three different tissues.
- It has been shown unequivocally that this contaminant can interact with chromosomes and/or DNA; however, the tests were confined to bacterial and mammalian test systems in vitro, and there were no data on intact mammalian organisms or humans.

The Committee noted that the dose that caused tumours in rats (19 mg/kg of body weight per day) was about 20000 times the highest estimated intake of 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol by consumers of soya sauce $(1 \mu \text{g/kg of body weight per day})$.

The available evidence suggests that 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol is associated with high concentrations of 3-chloro-1,2-propandiol in food. Regulatory control of the latter would therefore obviate the need for specific controls on 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol.

5.2 Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins, polychlorinated dibenzofurans and coplanar polychlorinated biphenyls

5.2.1 Introduction

Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins (PCDDs) and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) are by-products of combustion and of various industrial processes, and they are found widely in the environment. Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) were manufactured in the past for a variety of industrial uses, notably as electrical insulators or dielectric fluids and specialized hydraulic fluids. Most countries banned manufacture and use of PCBs in the 1970s; however, past improper handling of PCBs constitutes a continuing source of these compounds in the environment, and disposal of equipment containing these compounds poses some risk of further contamination.

Neither PCDDs nor PCDFs have been evaluated previously by the Committee. PCBs were evaluated by the Committee at its thirty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 88), when it concluded that it was impossible to establish a precise numerical value for a tolerable intake in humans because of limitations in the available data and the ill-defined nature of the materials that were used in feeding studies.

PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs were evaluated at the present meeting in response to a request by the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants at its Thirty-second Session (4) for the Expert Committee to evaluate the risks associated with their presence in food.

The Committee evaluated the PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs for which toxic equivalency factors (TEFs) for mammals have been derived by WHO. Table 8 lists the compounds that were considered

Table 8

Compounds considered and their toxic equivalency factor assigned by WHO

Compound	Abbreviation	Toxic equivalency factor
Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins		
2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzodioxin	TCDD	1
1,2,3,7,8-Pentachlorodibenzodioxin	1,2,3,7,8-PeCDD	1
1,2,3,4,7,8-Hexachlorodibenzodioxin	1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDD	0.1
1,2,3,6,7,8-Hexachlorodibenzodioxin	1,2,3,6,7,8-HxCDD	0.1
1,2,3,6,7,9-Hexachlorodibenzodioxin	1,2,3,6,7,9-HxCDD	0.1
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-Heptachlorodibenzodioxin	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDD	0.01
Octachlorodibenzodioxin	OCDD	0.0001
Polychlorinated dibenzofurans		
2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzofuran	2,3,7,8-TCDF	0.1
1,2,3,7,8-Pentachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,7,8-PeCDF	0.05
2,3,4,7,8-Pentachlorodibenzofuran	2,3,4,7,8-PeCDF	0.5
1,2,3,4,7,8-Hexachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,4,7,8-HxCDF	0.1
1,2,3,6,7,8-Hexachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,6,7,8-HxCDF	0.1
1,2,3,7,8,9-Hexachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,7,8,9-HxCDF	0.1
2,3,4,6,7,8-Hexachlorodibenzofuran	2,3,4,6,7,8-HxCDF	0.1
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-Heptachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-HpCDF	0.01
1,2,3,4,7,8,9-Heptachlorodibenzofuran	1,2,3,4,7,8,9-HpCDF	0.01
Octachlorodibenzofuran	OCDF	0.0001
"Non-ortho" polychlorinated biphenyls	6	
3,3',4,4'-Tetrachlorobiphenyl	3,3',4,4'-TCB	0.0001
3,4,4',5,-Tetrachlorobiphenyl	3,4,4',5-TCB	0.0001
3,3',4,4',5-Pentachlorobiphenyl	3,3',4,4',5-PeCB	0.1
3,3',4,4',5,5'-Hexachlorobiphenyl	3,3',4,4',5,5'-HxCB	0.01
"Mono-ortho" polychlorinated bipheny	/Is	
2,3,3',4,4'-Pentachlorobiphenyl	2,3,3',4,4'-PeCB	0.0001
2,3,4,4',5-Pentachlorobiphenyl	2,3,4,4',5-PeCB	0.0005
2,3',4,4',5-Pentachlorobiphenyl	2,3',4,4',5-PeCB	0.0001
2,3',4,4',5'-Pentachlorobiphenyl	2,3',4,4',5'-PeCB	0.0001
2,3,3',4,4',5-Hexachlorobiphenyl	2,3,3',4,4',5-HxCB	0.0005
2,3,3',4,4',5'-Hexachlorobiphenyl	2,3,3',4,4',5'-HxCB	0.0005
2,3',4,4',5,5'-Hexachlorobiphenyl	2,3',4,4',5,5'-HxCB	0.00001
2,3,3',4,4',5,5'-Heptachlorobiphenyl	2,3,3',4,4',5,5'-HpCB	0.00001

and their assigned TEF values. In the TEF approach, the toxicity of all chemicals in the series is related to that of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzodioxin (TCDD), one of the most potent of the dioxins and that for which most toxicological and epidemiological information is available. Use of the TEF approach is based on the assumption that PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs have a common mechanism of action, which involves binding to the aryl hydrocarbon (Ah) receptor, an intracellular receptor protein. This binding is considered to be the necessary, but not sufficient, first step in the expression of the toxicity of these compounds. Many uncertainties exist in applying the TEF approach to the assessment of human risk, but it is the most feasible approach currently available.

PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs were considered by a WHO consultation held in 1998 (5), which established a tolerable daily intake (TDI) of 1–4 pg/kg of body weight, applicable to the toxic equivalents of these compounds. The TDI was based on a number of studies of developmental toxicity and immunological toxicity. At its present meeting, the Committee used the assessment of the consultation as the starting point for its evaluation, taking into account the following additional data:

- the results of a study on the toxicokinetics of TCDD after single and repeated dosing;
- two new studies of developmental toxicity;
- new information on a study in rhesus monkeys that had been evaluated by the Committee at its fifty-fifth meeting (Annex 1, reference 149).

5.2.2 Toxicokinetics

5.2.2.1 Absorption and biotransformation

Coplanar compounds in dietary fat pass easily from the gut into the blood. Indeed, experiments in humans and laboratory animals given an oral dose of TCDD showed 50–90% absorption. This figure is comparable with the near-complete absorption of PCDDs, PCDFs and PCBs by nursing infants from their mothers' milk.

After absorption from the gut, TCDD enters the lymph in the form of chylomicrons and is cleared from the blood within 1h, to appear mainly (74–81% of an administered dose) in the liver and adipose tissue. After clearance from the blood, coplanar compounds remain mainly in serum lipoproteins (very low density, low density and high density), and some are bound to serum proteins.

The Committee used the results of a study in which [³H]TCDD was given to pregnant Long-Evans rats by gavage as a single dose of 50,

200, 800 or 1000 ng/kg of body weight on day 15 of gestation, and the concentration of the radiolabel measured in tissues 1 day after treatment. The average maternal body burdens (with the percentage of the dose in the four treatment groups) were 31 (60%), 97 (48%), 520 (65%) and 580 (59%) ng/kg of body weight, respectively. On the basis of this study, the Committee used a value of 60% for the percentage of TCDD retained in pregnant rats 1 day after administration of a single dose by gavage on day 15 of gestation.

The distribution of PCDDs and PCDFs between the blood and organs is governed by lipid partitioning and binding to plasma proteins. The concentrations of PCDDs and PCDFs in blood and adipose tissue are closely correlated. TCDD is distributed between blood and adipose tissue by lipid partitioning, whereas the distribution of hexachlorodibenzodioxins (HxCDDs), hexachlorodibenzofurans (HxCDFs), octachlorodibenzodioxins (OCDDs) and octachlorodibenzofurans (OCDFs) is also governed by binding to plasma proteins.

Binding to plasma proteins plays an important role in the uptake of coplanar compounds from the blood in the liver, even for lower chlorinated congeners. When rodents are exposed to increasing doses of TCDD, it is preferentially sequestered in the liver. After entering liver cells, TCDD either dissolves in the lipid fraction or binds to the Ah receptor or to cytochrome P450 (CYP) proteins, probably microsomal CYP 1A2. As the amounts of CYP 1A and CYP 1B proteins in cells are regulated by formation of the TCDD–Ah receptor complex, exposure to increasing amounts of TCDD results in increased formation of this complex, which leads to increased production of CYP 1A and CYP 1B mRNA and proteins (enzyme induction), and accumulation of TCDD by increased binding to the induced CYP proteins. Similar sequestration has been observed with higher chlorinated PCDDs and PCDFs and with coplanar PCBs.

The hepatic sequestration of coplanar compounds markedly affects their distribution in the body. For example, whereas the liver usually contributes 10% and the adipose tissue 60% of the body burden of TCDD in mice, these fractions may increase to 67% in liver and decrease to 23% in adipose tissue in mice in which hepatic CYP proteins have been fully induced. Similar results were found in rats, clearly indicating the non-linear character of the kinetics of TCDD at concentrations that induce hepatic CYP proteins.

As in rodents, preferential sequestration of PCDDs and PCDFs in the liver rather than in adipose tissue has been observed in humans exposed to background concentrations of these compounds. Although Ah receptor-dependent CYP induction has been observed in human liver cells in vitro after exposure to TCDD, it occurred at concentrations that were several orders of magnitude higher than those observed in human blood. It is therefore likely that the sequestration is due to binding to constitutive CYP proteins.

5.2.2.2 Metabolism and excretion

In laboratory animals, PCDDs and PCDFs are excreted almost exclusively in the bile, excretion in the urine being a minor route. Whereas the parent compound is found primarily in the organs of rodents, only metabolites of PCDDs and PCDFs occur in bile, indicating hepatic metabolism, including hydroxylation and conjugation, of these compounds. Similar reactions were found in vitro when recombinant human CYP 1A1 was incubated with TCDD. Faecal excretion of unmetabolized PCDDs and PCDFs is also an important route of elimination in humans.

In rodents, the half-life of TCDD ranges from 8–24 days in mice to 16–28 days in rats. Humans eliminate PCDDs and PCDFs more slowly, the estimated mean half-life of TCDD ranging from 5.5 to 11 years. The half-lives of other PCDD congeners and of PCDFs and coplanar PCBs vary widely. These differences in the half-lives of different congeners are reflected in their TEFs (see Table 8).

5.2.2.3 Relationship between human intake and doses used in studies in laboratory animals

The biochemical and toxicological effects of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs are directly related to their concentrations in tissues, and not to the daily dose. The most appropriate measure of dose would therefore be the concentration at the target tissue; however, this is seldom known. The body burden, which is strongly correlated with the concentrations in tissue and serum, integrates the differences in half-lives between species. Thus, rodents require appreciably higher daily doses (100–200-fold) to achieve a body burden at steady state that is equivalent to that recorded in humans exposed to background concentrations. Toxicokinetically, estimates of body burden are therefore more appropriate measures of dose for interspecies comparisons than is the daily dose.

The long half-lives of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in humans have several implications for the period of intake that is relevant to the assessment. First, the concentration of toxic equivalents in the body (or the internal toxic equivalents to which a target organ is exposed) will increase over time as more of the compounds are ingested. Second, after cessation of exposure, the body's concentration of stored toxic equivalents (and the exposure of internal organs) will decline slowly, only half of the accumulated toxic equivalents disappearing over about 7 years, resulting in a pseudo-steady state only after decades. Third, because of this long-term storage in the body and the consequent daily exposure to the body's stored toxic equivalents, intake on a particular day will have a small or even negligible effect on the overall body burden. For example, in the unlikely event of food contamination that leads to an intake 100 times the amount present in a typical meal, the body burden of the adult eating that meal would increase by <3%. The rest of the body burden would be made up of the PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs consumed in many thousands of meals over the previous decade or more.

Therefore, the Committee concluded that the appropriate period for evaluating the mean intake of these compounds is 1 month.

In order to transform an animal body burden into an equivalent human monthly intake (EHMI) that on a long-term basis would result in a similar body burden (at steady state), simple, classical toxicokinetic calculations can be used. The elimination of low doses of PCDDs was considered to follow first-order kinetics and to be independent of the body burden or dose. The Committee calculated the total body burden at steady-state using the following equation:

Body burden at steady state (ng/kg of body weight) = $\frac{f \times \text{intake (ng/kg of body weight per day)} \times \text{half-life (days)}}{\ln(2)}$

where f is the fraction of dose absorbed from food (assumed to be 50% in humans) and the estimated half-life of TCDD is 2774 days (7.6 years). For compounds that follow first-order kinetics, 4–5 half-lives will be required to approach steady state. For TCDD, this would be equivalent to more than 30 years.

This model is based on the assumption that PCDDs are distributed in only one compartment: the whole body. Although most of the body burden of PCDD is distributed in the lipid stores, at higher doses the liver also sequesters these compounds in both humans and animals. Predictions of body burden after intake of high doses that are based on lipid concentrations may therefore be underestimates of the total body burden (and the intake leading to that body burden), because of hepatic sequestration. Use of physiologically based pharmacokinetic models may be more appropriate under these circumstances. In order to transform the body burdens resulting from intake of the low concentrations to which the general population is exposed and from the low doses used in the pivotal toxicological studies into estimated human daily intake, the Committee considered use of a less complicated, classical pharmacokinetic model to be appropriate.

5.2.2.4 Determinants of dose received by fetuses in studies of developmental toxicity

The time of dosing in several of the studies considered by the Committee, day 15 of gestation, marks the onset of the sensitive phase of sexual differentiation in rats and represents a critical time of fetal exposure. The determinant of the reproductive effects is the fetal concentration on days 15–16 of gestation, which in turn is determined by the maternal serum concentration. The latter concentration differs with a bolus dose (as in these studies) and with repeated doses providing the same total intake. As the serum concentration of TCDD after a bolus dose rises before distribution to the tissue compartments, the serum concentration is likely to be higher than that after long-term intake of a lower concentration.

The difference in the fetal body burden after a single bolus dose and after repeated administration of low doses resulting in a similar maternal body burden was addressed in a study in Long-Evans rats treated on day 16 of gestation (6, 7). The rats were given [³H]TCDD at 1, 10 or 30 ng/kg of body weight per day by gavage in corn oil, on 5 days per week for 13 weeks. They were then mated, and dosing was continued daily throughout gestation. The regimen produced a steady-state concentration of TCDD in the dams. The average maternal and fetal body burdens on day 16 of gestation after this treatment and after administration of a single dose of TCDD by gavage on day 15 of gestation are shown in Table 9.

As expected, a single dose on day 15 of gestation by gavage resulted in considerably higher fetal concentrations on day 16 than short-term administration of low daily doses leading to maternal steady-state body burdens of similar magnitude.

Using the data in Table 9, the Committee conducted least-squares linear fits of dose versus maternal and fetal body burdens. Since radiolabelled TCDD was used in both studies, a zero intercept was assumed for the fitted line. None of these fits showed what appeared to be any significant deviation from linearity. These data indicate that the ratio of fetal:maternal body burden resulting from a bolus dose would be 1.7 times that from multiple doses providing the same total dose. Kinetic data indicate that a linear dose–response relationship would be expected at the doses used in these studies. The fetal and maternal body burdens in both data sets were also fitted to power equations, which provided a better fit of the data obtained at the low end of the range of single doses. The factor used to convert maternal

Dose (ng/kg of body weight per day)	Body burden on da (ng/kg of body w	y 16 of gestation veight per day)
	Maternal	Fetal
Single dose		
50	30	5.3
200	97	13
800	520	39
1000	520	56
Repeated doses ^a		
0.71	20	1.4
7.1	120	7.5
21	300	15

Table 9 Average maternal and fetal body burdens after a single dose and after administration of repeated doses of TCDD to pregnant Long-Evans rats

Source: references 6 and 7; used by permission.

^a Daily dose, adjusted for continuous administration from 5 to 7 days per week.

body burden after single doses to a corresponding steady-state body burden with the power equations was 2.6.

5.2.3 Toxicological studies

5.2.3.1 Acute toxicity studies

In laboratory animals, the acute toxicity of TCDD and related PCDDs and PCDFs substituted in at least the C-2, C-3, C-7 and C-8 positions varies widely between and among species. For example, the median lethal dose in guinea-pigs treated orally was $0.6\mu g/kg$ of body weight, while that in hamsters was $>5000\mu g/kg$ of body weight. Explanations for this variation include differences in Ah receptor functionality (size, transformation and binding of the PCDD response element), toxicokinetics (metabolic capacity and tissue distribution) and body fat content. While data on acute toxicity were available for various commercial PCB mixtures (median lethal doses usually >100 mg/kg of body weight), the data on individual coplanar PCB congeners in mammals were limited.

One of the more common symptoms associated with lethality induced by PCDDs is a generalized delayed wasting syndrome characterized by inhibition of gluconeogenesis, reduced feed intake and loss of body weight. Other toxic effects observed after a single exposure to PCDDs include haemorrhages in a number of organs, thymic atrophy, reduced bone-marrow cellularity and loss of body fat and lean muscle mass, although some differences in the frequency of these effects was seen among species.

5.2.3.2 Carcinogenicity studies

TCDD and other PCDDs induced tumours at multiple sites in laboratory animal species of each sex. In a series of assays in vivo and in vitro, TCDD promoted the growth of transformed cells (e.g. rat tracheal epithelium cells treated with N-methyl-N'-nitro-Nnitrosoguanidine), consistent with observations of cancer promotion in whole animals in vivo. In a long-term study of carcinogenicity with TCDD in rats, the LOEL for hepatic adenomas in females was 10 ng/ kg of body weight per day, and the NOEL was 1 ng/kg of body weight per day. Several studies have shown that TCDD promotes tumours in laboratory animals, in particular liver tumours. Several other PCDDs, PCDFs and non-ortho- and mono-ortho-PCBs also promoted liver tumours. In a long-term study in rats in which the incidence of liver tumours was increased over that in controls, the LOEL of 10 ng/kg of body weight per day corresponded to a steady-state body burden of 290 ng/kg of body weight. In order for humans to attain a similar steady-state body burden, they would have to have a daily intake of 150 pg/kg of body weight (see the equation on page 126).

5.2.3.3 Genotoxicity studies

The results of several short-term assays for genotoxicity with TCDD, covering various end-points, were negative. Furthermore, TCDD did not bind covalently to DNA from the liver of mice. The Committee concluded that TCDD does not initiate carcinogenesis.

5.2.3.4 Developmental toxicity studies

A number of biochemical changes, including enzyme induction, altered expression of growth factors and enhanced oxidative stress, have been noted in laboratory animals with body burdens of TCDD within a lower range of 3–10 ng/kg of body weight. The Committee considered these biochemical effects to be early markers of exposure to PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, or events induced by these compounds in animals and in humans that may or may not result in adverse effects at higher body burdens.

The Committee reviewed the relevant studies (8-14) considered by the WHO consultation held in 1998 (4), as well as three recent studies (15-17). The Committee noted that the most sensitive adverse effects reported were on development in the male offspring of rats and immunological deficits in rats after prenatal exposure to TCDD (see Table 10).

The WHO consultation identified a study in which endometriosis was found after long-term administration of TCDD to rhesus monkeys. The Committee stressed that the findings in this study should be

Dosing regimen	Strain	End-point	NOEL body burden (ng/kg of body weight)	LOEL body burden (ng/kg of body weight)	Reference no.
Single bolus by gavage on day 14 of gestation	Fischer 344	Immune suppression in offspring		50	8, 15
Single bolus by gavage on day 15 of gestation	Holtzman	Reduced ventral prostate weight; decreased anogenital distance in male offspring	13	51	17
Single bolus by gavage on day 15 of gestation	Holtzman	Decreased sperm count in offspring		28	13
Single bolus by gavage on day 15 of gestation	Long-Evans	Accelerated eye opening and decreased sperm count in offspring		28	6
Loading and maintenance doses by subcutaneous injection	Wistar	Decreased sperm production and altered sexual behaviour in male offspring		25	16

Summaries of studies in which the lowest NOELs and LOELs were identified for the most sensitive adverse effects of TCDD on developmental end-points in rats^a

^a Body burdens estimated from a linear fit to the data in Table 9.

Table 10

interpreted with caution, as the daily intake was not adequately reported. In addition, analyses conducted 13 years after the end of exposure showed high concentrations of coplanar PCBs in the blood of the monkeys with endometriosis, possibly from an unknown source (14). The Committee also noted that the LOELs in some of the pivotal studies in rats (Table 10) would result in EHMIs that were similar to or lower than that derived from the LOEL for endometriosis in monkeys.

In a recent study (17), pregnant Holtzman rats were given a single oral dose of TCDD at 0-800 ng/kg of body weight on day 15 of gestation, and the male offspring were examined on days 49 and 120 after birth. No changes were seen in testicular or epididymal weight nor in daily sperm production or sperm reserve at any dose. However, the weight of the urogenital complex, including the ventral prostate, was significantly reduced at doses of 200 and 800 ng/kg of body weight in rats killed on day 120. Moreover, the anogenital distance of male rats receiving doses \geq 50 ng/kg of body weight and killed on day 20 was significantly decreased. The Committee noted that administration of TCDD at any dose resulted in a dose-dependent increase in 5α reductase type 2 mRNA and a decrease in androgen receptor mRNA in the ventral prostate of rats killed at day 49 but not in those killed at day 120, with no adverse sequelae at the lowest dose of 12.5 ng/kg of body weight. On the basis of 60% absorption and an assumption of a linear relationship for the data in Table 9, the equivalent maternal body burden after multiple doses at this NOEL would be 13 ng/kg of body weight. Fitting the data in Table 9 into the power equation, the Committee estimated the body burden NOEL to be 19ng/kg of body weight. The LOEL of 50 ng/kg of body weight per day corresponds to an equivalent body burden of 51 ng/kg of body weight with the linear model and 76 ng/kg of body weight with the power model.

The lowest LOEL reported for the reproductive system of male offspring was found in an experiment with Wistar rats (16). In this study, the dams were treated subcutaneously before mating and throughout mating, pregnancy and lactation. They received an initial loading dose of [¹⁴C]TCDD at 25, 60 or 300 ng/kg of body weight 2 weeks before mating, and then a weekly maintenance dose of TCDD at 5, 12 or 60 ng/kg of body weight. The size of the maintenance doses was determined on the basis of a reported elimination half-life for TCDD of 3 weeks in adult rats. The effects on male reproductive end-points were studied on days 70 and 170 after birth. The number of sperm per cauda epididymis at puberty and in adulthood was lower in the offspring of all treated dams than in those of controls. Daily sperm production was permanently lower in offspring of treated dams than in those of controls, as was the sperm transit rate, thus increasing the time required by the sperm to pass through the cauda epididymis. Moreover, the offspring of the treated groups showed increased numbers of abnormal sperm when investigated in adulthood. The latency periods to mounting and intromission were significantly greater in offspring of dams at the lowest and highest doses, but not of those at the intermediate dose, than in offspring of controls. The Committee noted the lack of clear dose–response relationships for most of these effects in the treated groups. In the male offspring of dams at the highest dose, the concentration of serum testosterone was decreased in adulthood, and permanent changes found in the testicular tubuli included pyknotic nuclei and the presence of cell debris in the lumen. The fertility of the male offspring was not affected in any of the treated groups.

In computing the long-term dose required to produce the fetal concentration found in the group given the initial loading dose of 25 ng/kg of body weight, the Committee noted that the dose would have been reduced to 20 ng/kg of body weight before the maintenance dose of 5 ng/kg of body weight given on day 14. On the basis of the linear fit to the data in Table 9, the fetal body burden resulting from the maternal body burden of 20 ng/kg of body weight would be 1.04 ng/kg of body weight. The maintenance dose of 5 ng/kg of body weight administered on day 14 of gestation would make an additional contribution to the fetal body burden of 0.27 ng/kg of body weight, resulting in a total fetal body burden of 1.31 ng/kg of body weight. On the basis of a linear fit to the data in Table 9, a maternal body burden of TCDD of 25 ng/kg of body weight at steady state would be required to produce this fetal body burden.

The studies summarized in Table 10 provide evidence that adverse effects on the reproductive system are induced in male offspring of pregnant rats given TCDD. The studies show reductions in daily sperm production, in the number of sperm in the cauda epididymides and in epididymal weight as well as accelerated eye opening, a reduction in anogenital distance and feminized sexual behaviour in male offspring associated with maternal steady-state body burdens of TCDD of ≥ 25 ng/kg of body weight. Reductions in the weights of the testes and the size of the sex accessory glands, such as the ventral prostate, in male offspring, development of external malformations of the genitalia in female offspring and reduced fertility in males and females required higher maternal body burdens.

The Committee noted that the most sensitive end-points differed between studies, perhaps reflecting strain differences in sensitivity and even minor differences in the experimental conditions, e.g. the
diet. The Committee also noted that, in one study, administration of a single dose of TCDD at 12.5 ng/kg of body weight to dams by gavage decreased the amount of androgen receptor mRNA in the ventral prostate of offspring at puberty on day 49 after birth, indicating reduced androgenic responsiveness. However, none of the other above-mentioned adverse effects were seen in male offspring at this dose, which corresponds to an estimated maternal steady-state body burden of TCDD of approximately 19 ng/kg of body weight (Table 10). The Committee considered the effect on androgenic responsiveness to be an early marker of exposure to TCDD, like enzyme induction, altered expression of growth factors and enhanced oxidative stress, or an event that may or may not result in adverse effects in animals at higher body burdens.

5.2.4 Observations in humans

5.2.4.1 Effects other than cancer

In two episodes of food poisoning in China (Province of Taiwan) and Japan, in which infants were exposed in utero to heat-degraded PCBs, a variety of adverse physical developmental abnormalities was observed, including decreased penis length and alterations of spermatozoa; neurodevelopmental abnormalities were also seen. The affected children in Taiwan, China, were born to mothers with estimated body burdens of toxic equivalents of PCBs of $2-3\mu g/kg$ of body weight.

Environmental or background exposure of infants in Germany, the Netherlands and the USA was evaluated in several studies: for example, the mean concentration of toxic equivalents in human milk was 60 pg/g of lipid (range 25–155 pg/g) in a study in Groningen and Rotterdam, the Netherlands. Low birth weight and detriments in neurological development and alterations in thyroid hormones, the distribution of lymphocyte subpopulations and the frequency of infections and respiratory symptoms were observed. The observed neurodevelopmental deficits were subtle and the prevalence within the normal range; their potential consequences for future intellectual function are unknown. The associations observed were considered to be due to prenatal exposure rather than to postnatal intake (from milk). In one study of breastfed and bottle-fed infants, the intake of PCDDs and PCBs was inversely related to performance in neurobehavioural tests, breastfed infants having better scores than bottle-fed infants. These studies of low exposure related primarily to PCBs, and fewer data were available on the effects of PCDDs and PCDFs.

In adults, most of the effects other than cancer observed after exposure to PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, such as chloracne, appeared only at doses several orders of magnitude greater than those generally received from background contamination of foods. In Seveso, Italy, more female children than expected were born to fathers who had serum TCDD concentrations >80 pg/g of lipid (16–20 ng/kg of body weight) at the time of conception.

5.2.4.2 Carcinogenicity

A working group convened by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) classified TCDD as a human carcinogen (Group 1). Other PCDDs and PCDFs were considered not to be classifiable as to their carcinogenicity to humans (Group 3).

The most informative studies for evaluating the carcinogenicity of TCDD are four cohort studies of herbicide producers (two in Germany and one each in the Netherlands and the USA) and one cohort study of residents of a contaminated area in Seveso, Italy. A multicountry cohort study from IARC included three of these four cohorts, other industrial cohorts, many of which had not been reported in separate publications, and a cohort of professional herbicide applicators.

In most of the epidemiological studies considered, exposure had been primarily to TCDD, with some exposure to mixtures of other PCDDs, as contaminants of phenoxy herbicides and chlorophenols. The studies involved persons with the highest recorded exposure to TCDD, the estimated geometric mean blood lipid concentrations after the last exposure ranging from 1100 to 2300 pg/g of lipid in the industrial cohorts; lower average concentrations were found in the population exposed in Seveso.

Low excess risks of the order of 40% were found for all neoplasms combined in all the studies of industrial cohorts in which the exposure assessment was adequate. The risks for cancers at specific sites were increased in some of the studies, but the results were not consistent between studies, and no single cancer site seemed to predominate. The results of tests for trends for increasing excess risks for all neoplasms with increasing intensity of exposure were statistically significant. Increasing risks for all neoplasms with time since first exposure were observed in those studies in which latency was evaluated. The follow-up of the Seveso cohort has so far been shorter than that of the industrial cohorts; however, the rate of death from all cancers has not been found to differ significantly from that expected in the general population. Excess risks were seen for cancers at some specific sites among persons in the most heavily contaminated zones at the time of the accident, but there were few cases. In these well-conducted cohort studies, the intensity of exposure could be ascertained with precision because of the long biological half-life of TCDD in human tissues, and the relative risks increased significantly with increasing exposure. Although the excess cancer risk at the highest exposure was statistically significant, these results must be evaluated with caution, as the overall risks are not high and the strongest evidence is for industrial populations whose exposure was two to three orders of magnitude greater than that of the general population, and who also had heavy exposure to other chemicals; furthermore, lifestyle factors such as smoking were not evaluated. There are few precedents of carcinogens that increase the risk for cancer at all sites combined, with no excess risk for any specific tumour predominating.

A "benchmark dose" was calculated from the effective dose estimated to result in a 1% increase in cancer mortality (ED_{01}) , on the basis of a meta-analysis of data for three industrial cohorts with welldocumented exposure and comparison with the doses required for effects other than cancer. A statistically significant linear trend in risk with intensity of exposure was observed, which persisted even after exclusion of the groups with the greatest exposure. Within the range of reasonable assumptions, the ED_{01} differed quite widely and depended strongly on the assumptions made. Furthermore, a number of uncertainties would influence the predicted ED_{01} , including the exact exposure of the occupational cohorts and, to a lesser extent, the potential confounding effects of factors not considered in the studies.

5.2.5 Sampling and analytical methods

As no specific guidelines have been drawn up for sampling foods to be analysed for their PCDD, PCDF and coplanar PCB content, the basic guidelines for sampling for organic contaminants or pesticides should be used. The objective is to obtain a representative, homogeneous laboratory sample without introducing secondary contamination. Although PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs are chemically stable, the samples should be stored and transported in such a way that they do not deteriorate. PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs are usually found as complex mixtures of varying composition in different matrices. Their identification and quantification require a highly sophisticated method of analysis in order to separate the toxic congeners listed in Table 8 from the more prevalent, less toxic congeners. Usually, PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs are determined by capillary gas chromatography with mass spectrometry.

No official method exists for the determination of these compounds in food. Reliable results have been obtained in the absence of official

methods when the method used has been shown to be suitable and to fulfil analytical quality criteria developed in other fields of residue analyses. The methods used to determine PCDDs and PCDFs in food must provide sufficient information to allow calculation of the results as toxic equivalents, at concentrations of 0.1-1 pg/g of fat in milk, meat and eggs, 10 pg/g of fat in fish or $\geq 100 \text{ pg/g}$ of fat in cases of heavier contamination, and 0.1-0.5 pg/g of dry matter in food of vegetable origin. The patterns of congeners can vary between regions and foods.

When the method used is of insufficient sensitivity, the concentrations of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in many foods may be near or below the limit of quantification. The method used to derive the concentrations of undetected congeners (the imputation method) can therefore have a variable effect on the summary toxic equivalent value for a food sample. In the most commonly used imputation methods, the contribution of each undetected congener to the toxic equivalent is considered to be either 0 ("lower-bound concentrations"), the limit of detection or limit of quantification ("upper-bound concentrations") or half the limit of detection or limit of determination. In methods with insufficient sensitivity, the lower- and upperbound concentrations can differ by a factor of 10-100 or even more. If the sensitivity is appropriate, the differences between lower- and upper-bound concentrations are negligible. Therefore, low estimates of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in a sample may represent truly low concentrations or be the result of use of zero as the value for undetected congeners in a food sample. Conversely, high estimates may be the result either of contamination or of use of the upperbound concept with insufficient sensitivity.

Application of upper-bound or lower-bound concentrations leads to over- and underestimates of intake, respectively. Therefore, the Committee recommended that laboratories report their results as lowerbound, upper-bound and half-detection limits, in addition to values for individual congeners, thus providing all the necessary information for interpreting the results for specific requirements. Experts who are summarizing results based on toxic equivalents should indicate the way in which the toxic equivalents were calculated.

For analysis of food samples with normal background contamination by PCDDs, PCDFs or PCBs, gas chromatography with highresolution mass spectrometry has been validated in collaborative studies and has been shown to provide the required sensitivity and specificity. Bioanalytical assays have been developed for rapid screening of sediments, soil, fly ash and various foods, but only the chemicalactivated luciferase gene expression (CALUX) assay has been used for food; validation of this assay has begun. While gas chromatography with mass spectrometry is the most powerful method for identifying and quantifying congeners and for recognizing congenerspecific patterns, it does not allow direct measurement in a matrix of all congeners present that act through the Ah receptor pathway. The CALUX assay provides an indication of the toxic equivalents present in a certain matrix, including interactive (synergistic or antagonistic) effects; however, it cannot provide information on the pattern of congeners.

The Committee recognized that the available analytical data on PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs are limited by the lack of generally accepted criteria for intra- and inter-laboratory validation. Mutual acceptance of analytical methods would be facilitated by international collaborative studies and proficiency testing programmes. For reliable analysis of concentrations in the range of normal background contamination, control laboratories must use sufficiently sensitive methods. General statistical parameters that have been established in other fields of residue analysis could be used. The requirements for acceptable analytical methods clearly need to be harmonized, so that data are comparable and can be used for risk management purposes.

5.2.6 Levels and patterns of contamination of food commodities

Data were submitted by Belgium, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Poland and the USA and by the European Commission in a report containing data on Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. In all countries in which a substantial number of samples had been analysed, the concentrations of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in food were found to have decreased up to the late 1990s, but the decrease had slowed or was even partly reversed in some food categories in several countries owing to contamination of animal feed. For the present assessment of intake at the international level, only data collected after 1995 were considered.

As the Committee did not have access to the original analytical results, it was not possible to ascertain whether the results had been obtained by the lower- or upper-bound approach, and the concentrations used in the assessment were expressed as sums of congeners.

Insufficient individual data were available from most countries to allow construction of a full curve of the distribution of concentrations. Most data were submitted in an aggregated format. As recommended by a FAO/WHO workshop on assessing exposure to contaminants

Table 11

Weighted mean and derived median concentrations of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in six food groups, expressed as toxic equivalents (pg/g whole food)

Region or	Food category	PCDDs/	'PCDFs	Coplanar PCBs	
country		Weighted mean	Derived median	Weighted mean	Derived median
North America	Dairy	0.10	0.07	0.02 ^a	0.01 ^a
	Eggs	0.17	0.14	0.04 ^a	0.02 ^a
	Fish	0.56	0.28	0.13 ^a	0.08 ^a
	Meat	0.13	0.10	0.14 ^a	0.05 ^a
Western Europe	Dairy	0.07	0.04	0.08	0.07
	Eggs	0.16	0.15	0.07	0.06
	Fish	0.47	0.31	2.55	0.90
	Meat	0.08	0.06	0.41	0.08
	Vegetable products	0.04	0.03	0.04	LOD
Japan	Dairy	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.02
	Eggs	0.07	0.03	0.06	0.04
	Fish	0.37	0.11	0.69	0.19
	Meat	0.09	0.01	0.04	0.009
	Vegetable products	0.003	0.002	0.02	0.003
New Zealand	Dairy	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.008
	Fish	0.06	0.05	0.09	0.07
	Meat	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.01
	Vegetable products	0.008	0.008	<lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""></lod<></td></lod<>	<lod< td=""></lod<>
All	Fats and oils	0.21	0.10	0.07 ^a	0.02

LOD: limit of detection.

^a Data on PCBs frequently did not include mono-ortho PCBs.

(18), aggregated data were weighted as a function of the number of initial samples and then used to obtain a weighted mean concentration of PCDDs, PCDFs and PCBs in six major food groups: meat and meat products, eggs, fish and fish products, milk and milk products, vegetables and vegetable products, and fats and oils. National data were aggregated by region or country (North America, Western Europe, Japan and New Zealand) and are summarized in Table 11. Insufficient data were available for the rest of the world to permit a realistic estimate of the distribution of contaminants. The Committee recognized that there are significant differences within the food categories in Table 11, and that the data used in this analysis may not reflect the true mean for a food category. For example, the mean concentrations of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs and the rate of consumption vary considerably in different fish species, and it was not possible to determine if the mean represents the fish species most commonly consumed. However, the data received were not sufficient to allow an analysis that might account for such variation.

In a second step, a log-normal distribution of contaminants in foods was assumed, and a model of distribution was constructed from the weighted mean and a geometric standard deviation of 3 derived from the concentrations in six broad food groups. On the basis of these derived distributions, the percentiles of consumption were determined. The derived median values (50th percentiles) are presented in Table 11.

5.2.7 Estimated dietary intake

Because of the long half-lives of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, their hazard to health can be estimated only after consideration of intake over a period of months. Short-term variations in PCDD, PCDF and coplanar PCB concentrations in foods have much less effect on overall intake than might be the case for other food contaminants.

The distribution of long-term mean intake in various populations was calculated by the following procedure:

- The distributions of concentrations were constructed for various regions and food groups from the available data. The distributions were assumed to be log-normal.
- Data on food consumption from the GEMS/Food regional diets and national surveys were used to estimate mean consumption of six major food groups in each diet. A log-normal distribution was constructed from these data with a geometric standard deviation of 1.3 extrapolated from the results of the food consumption survey in the Netherlands in order to account for inter-individual variation in consumption. The average contributions of the six basic food groups to total food consumption were derived for each diet.
- The dietary intake of a particular population was assessed by combining the concentrations in foods and food consumption distributions for that population using a Monte Carlo approach. In each Monte Carlo trial, the dietary intake was estimated by multiplying random values for food consumption and concentrations in various food groups. The concentrations were weighted according to the contribution of the food group to total food consumption. The estimates of intake were combined to form a distribution of long-term mean dietary intake for each population studied. The distributions are characterized by a median and a 90th percentile intake. Calculations were performed for the sum of the toxic equivalents of PCDDs and PCDFs and for the sum of coplanar PCBs separately, because the data on occurrence of PCBs were obtained independently.

Table 12 Median and 90th percentile values of estimated long-term intake of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs,^a based on the GEMS/Food regional diets

Source of data on	Source of data on food	Intake of	PCDDs and PCDFs	Intake of coplanar PCBs	
concentrations [™]	consumption	Median	90th percentile	Median	90th percentile
North America Western Europe Japan New Zealand	Europe Europe Far East Europe	68 54 7 18	160 130 15 36	14 57 7 10	35 150 19 22

^a Expressed as toxic equivalents, pg/kg of body weight per month, assuming 60 kg of body weight.

^b For North America, the data on concentrations in vegetables in Western Europe were used; for New Zealand, the data on concentrations in eggs in Japan were used.

Table 13

Median and 90th percentile values of estimated long-term intake of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs,^a based on national food consumption data

Source of data on	Source of data on food	Intake of	PCDDs and PCDFs	Intake of coplanar PCBs	
concentrations	consumption	Median	90th percentile	Median	90th percentile
North America Western Europe	USA France Netherlands United Kingdom	42 40 33 39	100 94 81 91	9 47 30 41	25 130 82 110

^a Expressed as toxic equivalents, pg/kg of body weight per month, assuming 60 kg of body weight.

^b For North America, the data on concentrations in vegetables in Western Europe were used.

The simulated intakes of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs in the GEMS/Food regional diets are presented in Table 12. These intakes are, however, likely to be overestimates, as the data on concentrations were derived from surveys (without random sampling) and from the GEMS/Food regional diets, which are based on data on food supply (apparent consumption) and which are known to overestimate food consumption by at least 15%.

More reliable estimates of intake (Table 13) were obtained by using national food consumption data rather than data on the food supply (apparent consumption) from the GEMS/Food regional diets. The simulated intakes presented in Table 13 are not strictly national estimates and are somewhat higher than the national estimates submitted by the European Commission. The calculated contributions of various food categories to the intake of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs showed that the largest fraction (>70%) is from food of animal origin in both the GEMS/Food regional diets and the national diets.

Information was lacking on both the quality of data and geographical representativeness for some regions. More data are required on the occurrence of coplanar compounds in food products, particularly from geographical regions other than Europe, so that more representative estimates of intake can be made for all regions.

Breastfed infants have higher intakes of these compounds than bottle-fed infants or adults on a body-weight basis, although for only a small portion of their lives. Breast milk has beneficial effects, despite the risk of contamination. WHO has therefore repeatedly evaluated the health significance of contamination of breast milk with coplanar compounds. WHO recommends and supports breastfeeding but has concluded that continued and enhanced efforts should be directed towards identifying and controlling environmental sources of these substances.

5.2.8 Evaluation

In view of the long half-lives of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, the Committee concluded that it would not be appropriate to establish an acute reference dose for these compounds.

The Committee concluded that a tolerable intake could be established for TCDD on the basis of the assumption that there is a threshold for all effects, including cancer. Carcinogenicity due to TCDD was not linked to mutagenicity or DNA binding, and it occurred at higher body burdens in animals than other toxic effects. The Committee concluded that the establishment of a tolerable intake based on effects other than cancer would also address any carcinogenic risk.

The studies listed in Table 10 were those considered by the Committee in choosing the lowest LOELs and NOELs for assessment of tolerable intake. The lowest LOEL and NOEL were provided by the studies of Faqi et al. (16) and Ohsako et al. (17), respectively. With the toxicokinetic conversions described in Table 9, these two studies indicate maternal body-burden LOELs and NOELs for effects on male rat offspring of 25 ng/kg of body weight and 13 ng/kg of body weight, respectively.

5.2.8.1 Background body burdens in laboratory animals

In the studies used to estimate body burden on the basis of the distribution of TCDD after multiple dosing, radiolabelled material

was used. Therefore, the known background concentrations of TCDD and other PCDDs and PCDFs in the tissues of laboratory rodents resulting from traces of these compounds in rat feed were ignored. The Committee identified two studies that could be used to predict the body burdens of rats resulting from the presence of coplanar compounds in laboratory feed. These studies were mutually consistent and predicted that "unexposed" laboratory rats had toxic equivalent body burdens of 3–12 ng/kg of body weight, depending on age. Thus, the maternal body burdens of TCDD seen in studies with radiolabelled material should be adjusted upwards by a minimum of 3 ng/kg of body weight to account for the background concentrations of unlabelled PCDDs and PCDFs. The maternal toxic equivalent body burden may still be underestimated, as 3 ng/kg of body weight was the minimum in the two studies, and in one of the studies coplanar PCBs were not included.

Addition of 3 ng/kg of body weight to the body burdens calculated from the linear model and the data in Table 9 resulted in estimated total toxic equivalent body burdens of 16 ng/kg of body weight for the NOEL and 28 ng/kg of body weight for the LOEL. These body burdens correspond to EHMIs of 240 and 420 pg/kg of body weight, respectively. Fitting the data in Table 9 into the power-model equation gave EHMIs of 330 pg/kg and 630 pg/kg of body weight, respectively.

5.2.8.2 Identification of safety factors

The safety factors considered in establishing acceptable levels of intake on the basis of the results of studies in laboratory animals usually include the following: a factor to convert a LOEL to a NOEL (if needed); a factor to extrapolate from animals to humans; and factors to account for inter-individual variations in susceptibility. Typically, factors of 10 have been used for extrapolation between species and for accounting for the human variation in susceptibility, and a factor of 3–10 for extrapolating from a LOEL to a NOEL.

As a NOEL was identified for effects in the male offspring of rats, no factor for conversion from a LOEL to a NOEL was needed for the EHMI derived from the study described above (17).

As concluded by the WHO consultation (5), use of body burdens to scale doses from studies in laboratory animals to equivalent human doses removes the need for safety factors to account for differences in toxicokinetics between animals and humans.

To account for inter-individual differences in toxicokinetics among humans, a safety factor should be applied. The Committee noted that limited data were available on the toxicokinetics of TCDD in humans and considered that the default factor of 3.2 was appropriate. The Committee observed that humans may be less sensitive than rats to some effects. However, the conclusion is less certain for other effects and the possibility that the most sensitive humans might be as sensitive to the adverse effects of TCDD as rats were in the pivotal studies cannot be excluded. Therefore, the Committee concluded that no safety factor in either direction need be applied for differences in toxicodynamics among humans.

Use of a LOEL instead of a NOEL indicates the need for an additional safety factor. As the LOEL for the sensitive end-point was considered to be close to a NOEL and represented marginal effects, the Committee applied a factor of 3 to account for use of a LOEL instead of a NOEL. This resulted in an overall safety factor of 9.6 (3×3.2) .

The Committee concluded that a total safety factor of 3.2 should be applied to the EHMI associated with the NOEL, and a total safety factor of 9.6 should be applied to the EHMI associated with the LOEL.

5.2.8.3 Tolerable intake

As stated in the discussion of toxicokinetics, the long half-lives of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs mean that each daily ingestion has a small or even a negligible effect on overall intake. In order to assess long- or short-term risks to health due to these substances, total or average intake should be assessed over months, and tolerable intake should be assessed over a period of at least 1 month. To encourage this view, the Committee decided to express the tolerable intake as a monthly value in the form of a provisional tolerable monthly intake¹ (PTMI).

As shown in Table 14, use of the linear model to extrapolate the maternal body burden at the NOEL, obtained with a single dose, to that expected at multiple doses gives a EHMI of 237 pg/kg of body weight, which would be expected to result in a body burden that is lower than that which had effects in animals. The PTMI derived by application of the safety factor of 3.2 to this EHMI is 74 pg/kg of body weight.

Similarly, as shown in Table 14, the PTMI derived by application of the safety factor of 9.6 to the EHMI derived from the study that

¹ By analogy with the provisional tolerable weekly intake (PTWI), the end-point used for safety evaluations by the Committee for food contaminants with cumulative properties. Its value represents the permissible human monthly exposure to those contaminants unavoidably associated with otherwise wholesome and nutritious foods.

Table 14 Summary of four calculations of PTMI

	Linear model		Power	model
	NOEL	LOEL	NOEL	LOEL
Administered dose (ng/kg of body weight)	12.5ª		12.5ª	
Maternal body burden (ng/kg of body weight)	7.6	25 ^b	7.6	25 ^b
Equivalent maternal body burden with long-term	13°	25°	19 ^d	39 ^d
dosing (ng/kg of body weight)				
Body burden from feed (ng/kg of body weight)	3	3	3	3
Total body burden (ng/kg of body weight)	16 ^e	28 ^e	22 ^e	42 ^e
EHMI (pg/kg of body weight per month)	237	423	330	630
Safety factor	3.2	9.6	3.2	9.6
PTMI (pg/kg of body weight per month)	74	44	103	66

^a Bolus dose (NOEL).

^b Target maternal body burden from repeated dosing (LOEL).

^c Assuming a linear relationship between fetal and maternal body burden (based on data in Table 9).

^d Assumes a non-linear relationship between fetal and maternal body burden (based on data in Table 9).

^e Assuming, for humans, a half-life of 7.6 years and 50% uptake from food (see equation on page 126).

provided the LOEL is 44 pg/kg of body weight. As also shown in Table 14, use of the power model to extrapolate the maternal body burden with single doses to multiple doses would result in PTMIs of 103 pg/kg of body weight for the NOEL and 66 pg/kg of body weight for the LOEL. The range of PTMIs derived from the two studies, with either the linear or the power model to extrapolate the maternal body burden with single to multiple doses, is thus 40–100 pg/kg of body weight per month. The Committee chose the mid-point of this range, 70 pg/kg of body weight per month, as the PTMI. Furthermore, in accordance with the conclusions of the WHO consultation (5), the Committee concluded that this tolerable intake should be applied to intake of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs expressed as TEFs.

5.2.8.4 Comparison of PTMI with estimated intake from food

In the GEMS/Food regional diets, the range of estimated intake of toxic equivalents of PCDDs and PCDFs is 7–68 pg/kg of body weight per month at the median and 15–160 pg/kg of body weight per month at the 90th percentile of mean lifetime exposure, and that for coplanar PCBs is 7–57 pg/kg of body weight per month at the median and 19–150 pg/kg of body weight per month at the 90th percentile of consumption. The intakes estimated from national food consumption data were lower: 33–42 pg/kg of body weight per month at the median and 81–100 pg/kg of body weight per month at the 90th percentile for PCDDs and PCDFs, and 9–47 pg/kg of body weight per month at the

median and 25–130 pg/kg of body weight per month at the 90th percentile for coplanar PCBs. Estimates could not be made for the sum of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, because data on concentrations were submitted separately by countries.

The median and 90th percentile of the derived distribution of intakes were considered to describe long-term intake. A Monte Carlo calculation was used to predict these intakes for coplanar PCBs on the basis of two sets of distribution curves generated from information on mean concentrations in six major food groups and corresponding data on mean food consumption from several sources, by applying geometric standard deviations of 3 and 1.3 to the respective means. The geometric standard deviation for the food consumption curves accounted for long-term consumption patterns. As the mean intakes of the whole population tend not to change with the duration of a survey, use of mean consumer intakes to generate the curves for major food groups, rather than individual commodities, approximates the mean intakes of the whole population, as nearly all respondents were consumers.

5.2.8.5 Uncertainties

Several sources of uncertainty were identified in the data used to assess intake, which suggest that they are likely to be overestimates at both the median and the 90th percentile levels of consumption. Despite the uncertainties, the results suggest that a considerable fraction of the population will have a long-term mean intake above the PTMI.

Furthermore, despite the large amount of information on toxicity, substantial uncertainties remain which should be considered in applying the risk assessment and in interpreting the estimates of intake of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs. The Committee used the overall data to identify a level of intake of coplanar compounds in food that represents no appreciable risk to humans. The safety assessment includes adjustment for a number of uncertainties, including estimates of TEFs within orders of magnitude in order to relate the potency of 28 relatively poorly studied compounds to that of one well-studied compound, TCDD. Moreover, the relative proportion of TCDD and the other 28 compounds varies; TCDD typically constitutes a small percentage of the total toxic equivalents in foods.

The PTMI is not a limit of toxicity and does not represent a boundary between safe intake and intake associated with a significant increase in body burden or risk. Long-term intakes slightly above the PTMI would not necessarily result in adverse health effects but would erode the safety factor built into the calculations of the PTMI. It is not possible, given current knowledge, to define the magnitude and duration of excess intake that would be associated with adverse health effects.

5.2.8.6 Effect of maximum limits on intake, risk and food availability

The concentrations of PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs vary among foods. In establishing regulatory limits, the possible undesired consequences of their enforcement should be taken into account, such as reductions in the food supply. The Committee explored the theoretical effects of various maximum regulatory limits on compliance and on long-term average reduction of intake. On the basis of this analysis, the Committee concluded that, in order to achieve, for example, a 20% reduction in intake of coplanar compounds from food, the intake of a wide range of foods would have to be reduced by a similar percentage. This relationship exists because these contaminants are present at relatively high levels in major food types. Furthermore, in view of the half-times of these compounds in humans, setting regulatory limits on the basis of the PTMI would have no discernible effect on body burdens for several years.

In contrast, long-term reductions could be gained by identifying and eliminating the routes by which these compounds pass from the environment into food supplies. The Committee was informed that studies of environmental concentrations over time in several countries suggest that measures to control emissions to the environment generally have had a substantial impact on both the amounts of PCDDs and PCDFs present in the environment and the body burdens of the general public.

6. Future work

 The Committee has been asked on several occasions to advise the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants on the relative risks associated with alternative proposed maximum limits for contaminants in foods. However, a maximum limit will not, in many cases, have a substantial effect on the long-term intake of the contaminant by the general population, nor will it have a measurable impact on public health unless a substantial proportion of the food supply is removed from the market. Nevertheless, maximum limits could have a positive influence on agricultural and industrial practices and contribute to reducing the intake of some contaminants for which the distribution is highly skewed. The Committee recommended more detailed consideration of this issue at a future meeting.

- 2. The Committee strongly reiterated its recommendation made at its fifty-fifth meeting for revision of the *Guide to specifications* (Annex 1, reference 100). This revision is urgently required, so that significant developments in methods of analysis can be included.
- 3. The Committee recommended continuation of its activity to update limits for heavy metals in food additives and concluded that acidity regulators and colours should be reviewed at its next meeting on food additives and contaminants.
- 4. The Committee recommended that the monograph that covers specifications for 16 modified starches should be divided into smaller monographs, as changes to one specification mean that the entire monograph must be changed.

7. Recommendations

- 1. In view of the large number of food additives and contaminants requiring evaluation or re-evaluation, the important role that the recommendations of the Committee play in the development of international food standards and of regulations in many countries, and the need for maintaining consistency and continuity within the Committee, it is strongly recommended that meetings of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives continue to be held at least once yearly to evaluate these substances.
- 2. The Codex Alimentarius Commission has adopted International Numbering System (INS) numbers 472e and 472f for diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol and for tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol, mixed, respectively. At its fifty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference 137), the Committee established one specification under the name "diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol" to cover these two substances, and at the present meeting a temporary ADI was established. The specifications have been combined because, even if diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol and tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol, mixed, are manufactured from different raw materials, they meet all the criteria of the specifications and cannot be distinguished from each other by currently available analytical methods. The Committee recommended that the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants consider whether it would be more appropriate to have only one INS number for labelling purposes.
- 3. The Committee recognized that the revised "General specifications and recommendations for enzyme preparations used in food processing" in the *Compendium of food additive specifications*, *addendum 9* (FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 9, 2001)

contain many criteria for safety evaluations that are more appropriate for inclusion elsewhere. The Committee recommended that the project to update and consolidate principles and methods for the assessment of chemicals in food (see section 2.3) include the safety assessment of enzymes intended for use in food and a subsequent removal of these guidelines from the general specifications.

- 4. In view of the complexity of the analytical methods for determining PCDDs, PCDFs and coplanar PCBs, the Committee recommended that a specific validation protocol be developed. Laboratories involved in such analytical work should be encouraged by FAO/WHO to participate in collaborative studies and proficiency testing.
- 5. A clear definition of "flavouring agent" has not been elaborated by the Committee, which recommended to FAO and WHO that such a definition be developed when updating principles for the assessment of chemicals in food.

Acknowledgement

The Committee thanked Mrs E. Heseltine, Communication in Science, Lajarthe, Saint-Léon-sur-Vézère, France, for her assistance in the preparation of the report.

References

- Joint FAO/WHO Conference on Food Additives. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1956 (FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 11); Geneva, World Health Organization, 1956 (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 107).
- Report of the Conference on International Food Trade Beyond 2000: sciencebased decisions, harmonization, equivalence and mutual recognition. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1999.
- 3. *Principles for the toxicological assessment of pesticide residues in food.* Geneva, World Health Organization, 1990 (WHO Environmental Health Criteria, No. 104).
- Codex Alimentarius Commission. Report of the Thirty-second Session of the Codex Committee on Food Additives and Contaminants, Beijing, China, 20– 24 March 2000. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2000 (unpublished FAO document ALINORM 01/12; available from FAO or WHO).
- van Leeuwen FXR, Younes MM, eds. Consultation on the assessment of the health risk of dioxins: re-evaluation of the tolerable daily intake (TDI). *Food* additives and contaminants, 2000, 17:223–368.
- 6. Hurst CH, DeVito MJ, Birnbaum LS. Tissue disposition of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (TCDD) in maternal and developing Long-Evans rats following subchronic exposure. *Toxicological Sciences*, 2000, **57**:275–283.

- Hurst CH et al. Acute administration of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD) in pregnant Long-Evans rats: association of measured tissue concentrations with developmental effects. *Toxicological Sciences*, 2000, 53:411–420.
- 8. Gehrs BC et al. Alterations in the developing immune system of the F344 rat after perinatal exposure to 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. II. Effects on the pup and the adult. *Toxicology*, 1997, **122**:229–240.
- Gray LE Jr, Ostby JS, Kelce WR. A dose–response analysis of the reproductive effects of a single gestational dose of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin in male Long-Evans Hooded rat offspring. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1997, 146:11–20.
- Gray LE Jr et al. In utero exposure to low doses of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin alters reproductive development of female Long-Evans Hooded rat offspring. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1997, 146:237–244.
- Mably TA, Moore RW, Peterson RE. In utero and lactational exposure of male rats to 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. I. Effects on androgenic status. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1992, 114:97–107.
- Mably TA et al. In utero and lactational exposure of male rats to 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. III. Effects on spermatogenesis and reproductive capability. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1992, 114:118–126.
- Mably TA et al. In utero and lactational exposure of male rats to 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. II. Effects on sexual behavior and the regulation of luteinizing hormone secretion in adulthood. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1992, 114:108–117.
- 14. Rier SE et al. Endometriosis in rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*) following chronic exposure to 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. *Fundamental and Applied Toxicology*, 1993, **21**:433–441.
- 15. Gehrs BC, Smialowicz RJ. Persistent suppression of delayed-type hypersensitivity in adult F344 rats after perinatal exposure to 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin. *Toxicology*, 1999, 134:79–88.
- Faqi AS et al. Reproductive toxicity and tissue concentrations of low doses of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin in male offspring of rats exposed throughout pregnancy and lactation. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, 1998, 150:383–392.
- Ohsako S et al. Maternal exposure to a low dose of 2,3,7,8tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (TCDD) suppressed the development of reproductive organs of male rats: dose-dependent increase of mRNA levels of 5-alpha-reductase type 2 in contrast to decrease of androgen receptor in the pubertal ventral prostate. *Toxicological Science*, 2001, **60**:132–143.
- Methodology for exposure assessment of contaminants and toxins in food. Report of a Joint FAO/WHO Workshop, Geneva, 7–8 June 2000. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2000 (document WHO/SDE/PHE/FOS/00.5).

Annex 1

Reports and other documents resulting from previous meetings of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives

- 1. *General principles governing the use of food additives* (First report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 15, 1957; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 129, 1957 (out of print).
- Procedures for the testing of intentional food additives to establish their safety for use (Second report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 17, 1958; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 144, 1958 (out of print).
- 3. Specifications for identity and purity of food additives (antimicrobial preservatives and antioxidants) (Third report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). These specifications were subsequently revised and published as Specifications for identity and purity of food additives, vol. I. Antimicrobial preservatives and antioxidants. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1962 (out of print).
- 4. Specifications for identity and purity of food additives (food colours) (Fourth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). These specifications were subsequently revised and published as *Specifications for identity and purity of food additives*, vol. II. *Food colours*. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1963 (out of print).
- Evaluation of the carcinogenic hazards of food additives (Fifth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 29, 1961; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 220, 1961 (out of print).
- 6. *Evaluation of the toxicity of a number of antimicrobials and antioxidants* (Sixth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 31, 1962; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 228, 1962 (out of print).
- Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: emulsifiers, stabilizers, bleaching and maturing agents (Seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 35, 1964; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 281, 1964 (out of print).
- Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: food colours and some antimicrobials and antioxidants (Eighth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 38, 1965; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 309, 1965 (out of print).
- Specifications for identity and purity and toxicological evaluation of some antimicrobials and antioxidants. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 38A, 1965; WHO/Food Add/24.65 (out of print).
- 10. Specifications for identity and purity and toxicological evaluation of food colours. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 38B, 1966; WHO/Food Add/66.25 (out of print).
- 11. Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some antimicrobials, antioxidants, emulsifiers, stabilizers, flour-

treatment agents, acids, and bases (Ninth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 40, 1966; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 339, 1966 (out of print).

- Toxicological evaluation of some antimicrobials, antioxidants, emulsifiers, stabilizers, flour-treatment agents, acids, and bases. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 40A, B, C, 1967; WHO/Food Add/67.29 (out of print).
- 13. Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some emulsifiers and stabilizers and certain other substances (Tenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 43, 1967; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 373, 1967 (out of print).
- 14. Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some flavouring substances and non-nutritive sweetening agents (Eleventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 44, 1968; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 383, 1968 (out of print).
- 15. Toxicological evaluation of some flavouring substances and non-nutritive sweetening agents. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 44A, 1968; WHO/ Food Add/68.33 (out of print).
- 16. Specifications and criteria for identity and purity of some flavouring substances and non-nutritive sweetening agents. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 44B, 1969; WHO/Food Add/69.31 (out of print).
- Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some antibiotics (Twelfth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 45, 1969; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 430, 1969 (out of print).
- 18. Specifications for the identity and purity of some antibiotics. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 45A, 1969; WHO/Food Add/69.34 (out of print).
- Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some food colours, emulsifiers, stabilizers, anticaking agents, and certain other substances (Thirteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 46, 1970; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 445, 1970 (out of print).
- Toxicological evaluation of some food colours, emulsifiers, stabilizers, anticaking agents, and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 46A, 1970; WHO/Food Add/70.36 (out of print).
- 21. Specifications for the identity and purity of some food colours, emulsifiers, stabilizers, anticaking agents, and certain other food additives. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 46B, 1970; WHO/Food Add/70.37 (out of print).
- 22. Evaluation of food additives: specifications for the identity and purity of food additives and their toxicological evaluation: some extraction solvents and certain other substances; and a review of the technological efficacy of some antimicrobial agents (Fourteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 48, 1971; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 462, 1971 (out of print).
- 23. Toxicological evaluation of some extraction solvents and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 48A, 1971; WHO/Food Add/70.39 (out of print).
- Specifications for the identity and purity of some extraction solvents and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 48B, 1971; WHO/ Food Add/70.40 (out of print).

- 25. A review of the technological efficacy of some antimicrobial agents. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 48C, 1971; WHO/Food Add/70.41 (out of print).
- 26. Evaluation of food additives: some enzymes, modified starches, and certain other substances: toxicological evaluations and specifications and a review of the technological efficacy of some antioxidants (Fifteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 50, 1972; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 488, 1972.
- 27. Toxicological evaluation of some enzymes, modified starches, and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 50A, 1972; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 1, 1972.
- Specifications for the identity and purity of some enzymes and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 50B, 1972; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 2, 1972 (out of print).
- 29. A review of the technological efficacy of some antioxidants and synergists. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 50C, 1972; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 3, 1972 (out of print).
- Evaluation of certain food additives and the contaminants mercury, lead, and cadmium (Sixteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 51, 1972; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 505, 1972, and corrigendum (out of print).
- Evaluation of mercury, lead, cadmium, and the food additives amaranth, diethylpyrocarbonate, and octyl gallate. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 51A, 1972; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 4, 1972.
- 32. Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives with a review of general principles and of specifications (Seventeenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 53, 1974; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 539, 1974, and corrigendum (out of print).
- 33. Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives including anticaking agents, antimicrobials, antioxidants, emulsifiers, and thickening agents. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 53A, 1974; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 5, 1974 (out of print).
- 34. Specifications for identity and purity of thickening agents, anticaking agents, antimicrobials, antioxidants and emulsifiers. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 4, 1978.
- 35. Evaluation of certain food additives (Eighteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 54, 1974; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 557, 1974, and corrigendum (out of print).
- 36. Toxicological evaluation of some food colours, enzymes, flavour enhancers, thickening agents, and certain other food additives. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 54A, 1975; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 6, 1975.
- Specifications for the identity and purity of some food colours, flavour enhancers, thickening agents, and certain food additives. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 54B, 1975; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 7, 1975.
- 38. Evaluation of certain food additives: some food colours, thickening agents, smoke condensates, and certain other substances (Nineteenth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 55, 1975; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 576, 1975 (out of print).

- Toxicological evaluation of some food colours, thickening agents, and certain other substances. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 55A, 1975; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 8, 1975.
- Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 55B, 1976; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 9, 1976.
- Evaluation of certain food additives (Twentieth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). FAO Food and Nutrition Series, No. 1, 1976; WHO Technical Report Series, No. 599, 1976.
- 42. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 10, 1976.
- 43. Specifications for the identity and purity of some food additives. FAO Food and Nutrition Series, No. 1B, 1977; WHO Food Additives Series, No. 11, 1977.
- 44. *Evaluation of certain food additives* (Twenty-first report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 617, 1978.
- 45. Summary of toxicological data of certain food additives. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 12, 1977.
- 46. Specifications for identity and purity of some food additives, including antioxidants, food colours, thickeners, and others. FAO Nutrition Meetings Report Series, No. 57, 1977.
- 47. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Twenty-second report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 631, 1978 (out of print).
- 48. Summary of toxicological data of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 13, 1978.
- 49. Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 7, 1978.
- Evaluation of certain food additives (Twenty-third report of the Joint FAO/ WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 648, 1980, and corrigenda.
- Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 14, 1980.
- 52. Specifications for identity and purity of food colours, flavouring agents, and other food additives. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 12, 1979.
- Evaluation of certain food additives (Twenty-fourth report of the Joint FAO/ WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 653, 1980.
- Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 15, 1980.
- 55. Specifications for identity and purity of food additives (sweetening agents, emulsifying agents, and other food additives). FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 17, 1980.
- Evaluation of certain food additives (Twenty-fifth report of the Joint FAO/ WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 669, 1981.
- 57. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 16, 1981.
- 58. Specifications for identity and purity of food additives (carrier solvents, emulsifiers and stabilizers, enzyme preparations, flavouring agents, food colours, sweetening agents, and other food additives). FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 19, 1981.

- 59. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Twenty-sixth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 683, 1982.
- 60. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 17, 1982.
- 61. *Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 25, 1982.
- 62. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Twenty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 696, 1983, and corrigenda (out of print).
- 63. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 18, 1983.
- 64. *Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 28, 1983.
- 65. *Guide to specifications general notices, general methods, identification tests, test solutions, and other reference materials.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 5, Rev. 1, 1983.
- 66. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Twenty-eighth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 710, 1984, and corrigendum.
- 67. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 19, 1984.
- 68. *Specifications for the identity and purity of food colours.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 31/1, 1984.
- 69. Specifications for the identity and purity of food additives. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 31/2, 1984.
- Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Twenty-ninth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 733, 1986, and corrigendum.
- 71. *Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 34, 1986.
- 72. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1987 (WHO Food Additives Series, No. 20).
- 73. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Thirtieth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 751, 1987.
- 74. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1987 (WHO Food Additives Series, No. 21).
- 75. *Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 37, 1986.
- 76. Principles for the safety assessment of food additives and contaminants in food. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1987 (WHO Environmental Health Criteria, No. 70) (out of print).¹
- 77. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Thirty-first report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 759, 1987, and corrigendum.
- 78. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1988 (WHO Food Additives Series, No. 22).

¹ The full text is available electronically on the Internet at http://www.who.int/pcs.

- 79. *Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 38, 1988.
- 80. Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food (Thirty-second report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 763, 1988.
- 81. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1988 (WHO Food Additives Series, No. 23).
- 82. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41, 1988 (out of print).
- Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Thirty-third report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 776, 1989.
- Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1989 (WHO Food Additives Series, No. 24).
- 85. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Thirty-fourth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 788, 1989.
- 86. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 25, 1990.
- 87. Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/2, 1990.
- Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Thirty-fifth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 789, 1990, and corrigenda.
- 89. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 26, 1990.
- 90. Specifications for the identity and purity of certain food additives. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 49, 1990.
- Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food (Thirty-sixth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 799, 1990.
- 92. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 27, 1991.
- 93. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/3, 1991.
- Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Thirty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 806, 1991, and corrigenda.
- 95. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 28, 1991.
- 96. Compendium of food additive specifications (Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA)). Combined specifications from 1st through the 37th meetings, 1956–1990. Rome, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 1992 (2 volumes).
- 97. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Thirty-eighth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 815, 1992.
- 98. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 29, 1992.
- 99. Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/4, 1991.

- 100. Guide to specifications General notices, general analytical techniques, *identification tests, test solutions, and other reference materials.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 5, Rev. 2, 1991.
- 101. Evaluation of certain food additives and naturally occurring toxicants (Thirtyninth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 828, 1992.
- 102. Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and naturally occurring toxicants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 30, 1993.
- 103. Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 1. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 1, 1992.
- 104. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Fortieth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 832, 1993.
- 105. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 31, 1993.
- 106. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/5, 1993.
- 107. Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Forty-first report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 837, 1993.
- 108. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 32, 1993.
- 109. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 2.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 2, 1993.
- 110. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Forty-second report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 851, 1995.
- 111. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 33, 1994.
- 112. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/6, 1994.
- 113. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Forty-third report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 855, 1995, and corrigendum.
- 114. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 34, 1995.
- 115. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/7, 1995.
- 116. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Forty-fourth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 859, 1995.
- 117. *Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 35, 1996.
- 118. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 3.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 3, 1995.
- 119. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Forty-fifth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 864, 1996.
- 120. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 36, 1996.
- 121. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/8, 1996.

- 122. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Forty-sixth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 868, 1997.
- 123. Toxicological evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 37, 1996.
- 124. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 4.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 4, 1996 (out of print).
- 125. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Forty-seventh report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 876, 1998.
- 126. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 38, 1996.
- 127. Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/9, 1997.
- 128. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Forty-eighth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 879, 1998.
- 129. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 39, 1997.
- 130. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/10, 1998.
- 131. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Forty-ninth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 884, 1999.
- 132. Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 40, 1998.
- 133. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 5.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 5, 1997.
- 134. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Fiftieth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 888, 1999, and corrigendum.
- 135. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 41, 1998.
- 136. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/11, 1999.
- Evaluation of certain food additives (Fifty-first report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 891, 2000.
- 138. *Safety evaluation of certain food additives*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 42, 1999.
- 139. Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 6. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 6, 1998.
- 140. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Fifty-second report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 893, 2000.
- 141. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 43, 2000.
- 142. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/12, 2000.
- 143. Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants (Fifty-third report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 896, 2000.

- 144. Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 44, 2000.
- 145. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 7.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 7, 1999.
- 146. *Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food* (Fifty-fourth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 900, 2001.
- 147. *Toxicological evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food.* WHO Food Additives Series, No. 45, 2000.
- 148. *Residues of some veterinary drugs in animals and foods*. FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 41/13, 2000.
- 149. *Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants* (Fifty-fifth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 901, 2001.
- 150. Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 46, 2001.
- 151. *Compendium of food additive specifications, addendum 8.* FAO Food and Nutrition Paper, No. 52, Add. 8, 2000.
- 152. *Evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food* (Fifty-sixth report of the Joint FAO/ WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives). WHO Technical Report Series, No. 906, 2002.
- 153. *Evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food*. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 47, 2001.

Annex 2

Acceptable Daily Intakes, other toxicological information and information on specifications

Food additives evaluated toxicologically

Food additive	Specifications ^a	Acceptable daily intake (ADI in mg/kg of body weight) and other toxicological recommendations
Emulsifiers Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid	R	0–50 (temporary) ^b
Tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol, mixed	Wc	ADI "not limited" withdrawn ^c
Quillaia extracts	R, T ^b	0–5 (temporary) ^{b,d}
Enzyme preparation Invertase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae	Ν	Acceptable ^e
Food colours β-Carotene from <i>Blakeslea</i> <i>trispora</i>	N, T ^b	0–5 (group ADI) ^f
Curcumin	R	0-1 (temporary)°
Food salts Calcium dihydrogen diphosphate Monomagnesium phosphate Sodium calcium polyphosphate Trisodium diphosphate	N, T ^b N, T ^b N, T ^b	Included in the maximum tolerable daily intake of 70 mg/kg of body weight for phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates
Glazing agent Hydrogenated poly-1-decene	R	0–6
Preservative Natamycin (pimaricin)	R, T [⊳]	0–0.3
Sweetening agent D-Tagatose	S	0–80
Thickening agents Carrageenan Processed <i>Eucheuma</i> seaweed Curdlan	R R R	ADI "not specified" ^g (group ADI) ^h ADI "not specified" ^g
Miscellaneous substances Acetylated oxidized starch α-Cyclodextrin Sodium sulfate	N, R ⁱ N S	ADI "not specified" ⁹

^a N, new specifications prepared; R, existing specifications revised; S, specifications exist, revision not considered or required; T, the existing, new or revised specifications are tentative and new information is needed; W, existing specifications withdrawn.

^b See Annex 3.

- ^c The ADI was withdrawn because the specifications for tartaric, acetic and fatty acid esters of glycerol, mixed, were combined with those for diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol under the latter name at the fifty-first meeting (Annex 1, reference *137*).
- ^d Applicable only to the unpurified extract.
- ^e Invertase from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* that meets the specifications developed at the present meeting was considered to be acceptable because *S. cerevisiae* is commonly used in the preparation of food. Its use should be limited by good manufacturing practice.
- ^f Group ADI for β -carotene from *Blakeslea trispora* and synthetic β -carotene.
- ⁹ ADI "not specified" is used to refer to a food substance of very low toxicity which, on the basis of the available data (chemical, biochemical, toxicological and other) and the total dietary intake of the substance arising from its use at the levels necessary to achieve the desired effects and from its acceptable background levels in food, does not, in the opinion of the Committee, represent a hazard to health. For that reason, and for the reasons stated in the individual evaluations, the establishment of an ADI expressed in numerical form is not deemed necessary. An additive meeting this criterion must be used within the bounds of good manufacturing practice, i.e. it should be technologically efficacious and should be used at the lowest level necessary to achieve this effect, it should not conceal food of inferior quality or adulterated food, and it should not create a nutritional imbalance.
- ^h Group ADI for carrageenan and processed *Eucheuma* seaweed.
- ¹ The new specifications for acetylated oxidized starch were incorporated into the revised specifications for modified starches.

Food additives considered for specifications only

Food additive	Specification ^a
Acesulfame K (potassium salt)	R
Blackcurrant extract	R
DL-Malic acid	R
Oxystearin	W
Pectins	R
Smoke flavourings	R
Tagetes extract	R

^a R, existing specifications revised; W, existing specifications withdrawn.

Flavouring agents evaluated by the Procedure for the Safety Evaluation of Flavouring Agents

-lavouring agent No. S		Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on current intake
Pyrazine derivatives			
Structural class II			
2-Methylpyrazine	761	N]
2-Ethylpyrazine	762	Ν	
2-Propylpyrazine	763	Ν	No octoby
2-Isopropylpyrazine	764	Ν	NO salety
2,3-Dimethylpyrazine	765	Ν	concern
2,5-Dimethylpyrazine	766	Ν	
2,6-Dimethylpyrazine	767	Ν	J

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on
	700		
2-Ethyl-3-methylpyrazine	768	N	
2-Ethyl-6-methylpyrazine	769	N	
2-Ethyl-5-methylpyrazine	770	N	
2,3-Dietnyipyrazine	771	N	
2-Methyl-5-isopropylpyrazine	772	N	
2-Isobutyl-3-methylpyrazine	773	N	
2,3,5-Trimethylpyrazine	774	N	
2-Ethyl-3,(5 or 6)-dimethylpyrazine	775	N	
3-Etnyl-2,6-dimetnylpyrazine	776	IN N	
2,3-Dietnyi-5-metnyipyrazine	777	N	
2,5-Dietnyl-3-metnylpyrazine	778	N	
3,5-Dietnyi-2-metnyipyrazine	779	IN N	No opfatu
2,3,5,6-Tetramethylpyrazine	780	IN N	NO Salety
5-Methyl-6,7-dinydro-5 <i>H</i> -cyclopentapyrazine	781	IN N	concern
o,7-Dinyaro-2,3-aimetnyi-5 <i>H</i> -	782	IN	
Acetylpyrazine	784	Ν	
2-Acetyl-3-ethylpyrazine	785	N	
2-Acetyl-3.(5 or 6)-dimethylpyrazine	786	N	
Methoxypyrazine	787	Ν	
(2 or 5 or 6)-Methoxy-3-methylpyrazine	788	N	
2-Ethyl-(3 or 5 or 6)-methoxypyrazine	789	Ν	
2-Methoxy-(3 or 5 or 6)-isopropylpyrazine	790	Ν	
2-Methoxy-3-(1-methylpropyl)pyrazine	791	Ν	
2-Isobutyl-3-methoxypyrazine	792	Ν	
2-Acetyl-3-methylpyrazine	950	Ν.	J
Structural class III			
(Cyclohexylmethyl)pyrazine	783	N	
2-Methyl-(3 or 5 or 6)-ethoxypyrazine	793	N	
2-(Mercaptomethyl)pyrazine	794	N	
2-Pyrazinylethane thiol	795	N	No safety
Pyrazinylmethyl methyl sulfide	796	N	Concern
(3 or 5 or 6)-(Methylthio)-2-methylpyrazine	797	N	
5-Methylquinoxaline	798	N	
Pyrazine	951	N	
5,6,7,8-Tetrahydroquinoxaline	952	N ,	J
Aromatic substituted secondary alcohols, ketones and related esters			
Structural class I			
α-Methylbenzyl alcohol ^b	799	Ν]
α -Methylbenzyl formate	800	Ν	
α-Methylbenzyl acetate	801	Ν	No cofoty
α-Methylbenzyl propionate	802	Ν	Concorn
α-Methylbenzyl butyrate	803	Ν	
α-Methylbenzyl isobutyrate	804	Ν	
p, α-Dimethylbenzyl alcohol	805	N	J

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on current intake
Acetophenone	806	N)
4-Methylacetophenone	807	N	
<i>p</i> -lsopropylacetophenone	808	N	
2,4-Dimethylacetophenone	809	Ν	
Acetanisole	810	Ν	
1-(p-Methoxyphenyl)-2-propanone	813	Ν	
α-Methylphenethyl butyrate	814	Ν, Τ	
4-Phenyl-2-butanol	815	Ν	
4-Phenyl-2-butyl acetate	816	Ν	
4-(p-Tolyl)-2-butanone	817	Ν, Τ	No cofoty
4-(p-Methoxyphenyl)-2-butanone	818	Ν	
4-Phenyl-3-buten-2-ol	819	Ν	CONCENT
4-Phenyl-3-buten-2-one	820	Ν	
3-Methyl-4-phenyl-3-buten-2-one	821	Ν	
1-Phenyl-1-propanol	822	Ν	
α -Ethylbenzyl butyrate	823	Ν	
Propiophenone	824	Ν	
α -Propylphenethyl alcohol	825	Ν	
1-(p-Methoxyphenyl)-1-penten-3-one	826	N	
Ethyl benzoylacetate	834	N	
Ethyl 2-acetyl-3-phenylpropionate	835	N,	J
Structural class II 4-Acetal-6- <i>tert</i> -butyl-1,1-dimethylindan	812	Ν	Additional
a leobutylphonotbyl alcohol	827	N	
A-Methyl_1_nbenyl_2_pentanone	828	N	
1-(4-Methoxyphenyl)-4-methyl-1-penten-3-one	829	N	No safety
3-Benzyl-4-heptanone	830	N	concern
1-Phenyl-1,2-propanedione	833	N	J
Structural class III			
Mothyl B naphthyl kotono	Q11	N	ו
Benzonbenene	831	N	No safoty
1 3-Dinbenyl-2-propanone	832	N	
Benzoin	836	N	Concern
Benzvl derivatives			
Comparison of the second			
Banzul alaahal ^c	25		J
Benzyl formato	20		
Bonzyl acotato ^c	23	R	
Benzyl propionate	8/12	N	
Benzyl butvrate	843	N	No safety
Benzyl isobutyrate	844	N	concern
Benzyl isovalerate	845	N	
Benzyl trans-2-methyl-2-butenoate	846	N	
Benzyl 2,3-dimethylcrotonate	847	Ν, Τ]

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on
			current intake
Benzyl acetoacetate	848	N]
Benzyl benzoate ^c	24	R	
Benzyl phenylacetate	849	Ν	No safoty
Benzaldehyde ^c	22	R	
Benzaldehyde dimethyl acetal	837	Ν	Concern
Benzaldehyde glyceryl acetal	838	Ν	
Benzaldehyde propylene glycol acetal	839	N	J
Benzoic acid ^c	850	Ν	Evaluation not finalized ^d
Methyl benzoate	851	Ν]
Ethyl benzoate	852	Ν	
Propyl benzoate	853	N	
Hexyl benzoate	854	N	
Isopropyl benzoate	855	N	No safety
Isobutyl benzoate	856	N	concern
Isoamyl benzoate	857	N	
cis-3-Hexenyl benzoate	858	N	
Linalyl benzoate	859	N	
Geranyl benzoate	860	N	
Glyceryl tribenzoate	861	N, I	Evaluation not
Methylbenzyl acetate (mixed <i>ortho</i> -, <i>meta-</i> and <i>para</i> -isomers)	862 863	N, I N	
	864	Ν	
4-Ethylbenzaldehyde	865	N	
Tolualdehydes (mixed <i>ortho-</i> , <i>meta-</i> and <i>para-</i> isomers)	866	Ν, Τ	No safety
Tolualdehyde glyceryl acetal	867	Ν	
Cuminaldehyde	868	Ν	
2,4-Dimethylbenzaldehyde	869	Ν	
Benzyl 2-methoxyethyl acetal	840	N	J
Hydroxy- and alkoxy-substituted benzyl derivatives			
Structural class I			
4-Hydroxybenzyl alcohol	955	e	ן
4-Hydroxybenzaldehyde	956	e	No safety
4-Hydroxybenzoic acid	957	e	concern
2-Hydroxybenzoic acid	958	e]
Butyl p-hydroxybenzoate	870	Ν, Τ	Evaluation not finalized ^d
Anisyl alcohol	871	N]
Anisyl formate	872	Ν, Τ	
Anisyl acetate	873	Ν	No safety
Anisyl propionate	874	Ν	concern
Anisyl butyrate	875	Ν	
Anisyl phenylacetate	876	N	J

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on
	077		
Veratraldehyde	8//	N	
<i>p</i> -Methoxybenzaldehyde	878	N	
<i>p</i> -Ethoxybenzaldehyde	879	N	
Methyl o-methoxybenzoate	880	N	
2-Methoxybenzoic acid	881	N	
3-Methoxybenzoic acid	882	N	
4-Methoxybenzoic acid	883	N	
Methyl anisate	884	N	
Ethyl <i>p</i> -anisate	885	Ν	
Vanillyl alcohol	886	Ν	
Vanillin ^f	889	Ν	
4-Hydroxy-3-methoxybenzoic acid	959	e	No oofoty
Vanillin acetate	890	Ν	
Vanillin isobutyrate	891	Ν	concern
Salicylaldehyde	897	Ν	
2-Hydroxy-4-methylbenzaldehyde	898	Ν	
Methyl salicylate ^g	899	Ν	
Ethyl salicylate	900	Ν	
Butyl salicylate	901	Ν	
Isobutyl salicylate	902	Ν	
Isoamyl salicylate	903	N	
Benzyl salicylate	904	N	
Phenethyl salicylate	905	N	
o-Tolyl salicylate	907	N	
2,4-Dihydroxybenzoic acid	908	N ,)
Structural class II			
Vanillyl ethyl ether	887	N)
Vanillyl butyl ether	888	Ν	
Ethyl vanillin ^h	893	Ν	
Vanillin <i>ervthro-</i> and <i>threo-</i> butan-2.3-diol acetal	960	e	
Ethyl vanillin isobutyrate	953	Ν	No safety
Ethyl vanillin propylene glycol acetal	954	N. T	[concern
Piperonyl acetate	894	N	
Piperonyl isobutyrate	895	N	
Pineronal ⁱ	896	N	
Ethyl vanillin β-D-glucopyranoside	892	N ,	J
Aliphatic acyclic diols, triols and related sub-	stance	25	
Structural class I			
Glycoroli	000	ΝТ	Evaluation not
	909	IN, I	finalized ^d
1,2,3-Tris[(1'-ethoxy)ethoxy]propane	913	Ν	No safety concern
Glyceryl monostearate	918	N, T]
Glyceryl monooleate	919	N. T	Evaluation not
Triacetin	920	N, T	finalized ^d
Glyceryl tripropanoate	921	N, T	

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a	Conclusion based on current intake
Tributyrin	922	N, T]
Glycerol 5-hydroxydecanoate	923	Ν, Τ	
Glycerol 5-hydroxydodecanoate	924	Ν, Τ	Evaluation not
Propylene glycol ^k	925	Ν, Τ	finalized ^d
Propylene glycol stearate	926	Ν, Τ	J
1,2-Di[(1-ethoxy)ethoxy]propane	927	N]
Lactic acid	930	Ν	
Ethyl lactate	931	Ν	
Butyl lactate	932	Ν	
Potassium 2-(1'-ethoxy)ethoxypropanoate	933	Ν	
cis-3-Hexenyl lactate	934	Ν	No safety
Butyl butyryllactate	935	N	concern
Pyruvic acid	936	Ν	Concern
Pyruvaldehyde	937	Ν, Τ	
Ethyl pyruvate	938	Ν	
Isoamyl pyruvate	939	N	
Structural class III)
3-Oxohexanoic acid glyceride	910	Ν, Τ]
3-Oxooctanoic acid glyceride	911	Ν, Τ	No safety
Heptanal glyceryl acetal (mixed 1,2 and 1,3 acetals)	912	Ν	concern
3-Oxodecanoic acid glyceride	914	Ν, Τ]
3-Oxododecanoic acid glyceride	915	Ν, Τ	Evaluation not
3-Oxotetradecanoic acid glyceride	916	Ν, Τ	finalized ^d
3-Oxohexadecanoic acid glyceride	917	Ν, Τ	J
4-Methyl-2-pentyl-1,3-dioxolane	928	Ν	No safety
2,2,4-Trimethyl-1,3-oxacyclopentane	929	Ν	concern
Aliphatic acyclic acetals			
Structural class I			
1,1-Dimethoxyethane	940	N	ו
Acetal	941	Ν	
Heptanal dimethyl acetal	947	Ν	
4-Heptenal diethyl acetal	949	Ν	
Octanal dimethyl acetal	942	Ν	No safety
2,6-Nonadienal diethyl acetal	946	Ν	concern
Decanal dimethyl acetal	945	Ν	
Citral dimethyl acetal	944	Ν	
Citral diethyl acetal	948	Ν	
Acetaldehyde ethyl cis-3-hexenyl acetal	943	Ν, Τ	

^a N, new specifications prepared; R, existing specifications revised; T, the existing, new or revised specifications are tentative and new information is needed.

^b An ADI of 0–0.1 mg/kg of body weight was established for α -methylbenzyl alcohol by the Committee at its forty-first meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 837, 1993), which was maintained at the present meeting.

⁶ A group ADI of 0–5 mg/kg of body weight for benzoic acid, the benzoate salts (calcium, potassium and sodium), benzaldehyde, benzyl acetate and benzyl alcohol, expressed as

benzoic acid equivalents, was confirmed by the Committee at its forty-sixth meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 868, 1997) and extended to include benzyl benzoate at the present meeting.

- ^d Further information is required to determine whether this substance is in current use as a flavouring agent.
- ^e Specifications will be considered at the fifty-ninth meeting of the Committee.
- ¹ An ADI of 0–10 mg/kg of body weight was established for vanillin by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 383, 1968), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- ⁹ An ADI of 0–0.5mg/kg of body weight was established for methyl salicylate by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 383, 1968), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- ^h An ADI of 0–3 mg/kg of body weight was established for ethyl vanillin by the Committee at its forty-fourth meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 859, 1995), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- ¹ An ADI of 0–2.5mg/kg of body weight was established for piperonal by the Committee at its eleventh meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 383, 1968), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- ¹ An ADI "not specified" was established for glycerol by the Committee at its twentieth meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 599, 1976), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- ^k An ADI of 0–25 mg/kg of body weight was established for propylene glycol by the Committee at its seventeenth meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 539, 1974), which was maintained at the present meeting.
- Ethyl lactate was included in the group ADI "not specified" for lactic acid and its salts that was established by the Committee at its twenty-sixth meeting (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 683, 1982), which was maintained at the present meeting.

Flavouring agents considered for specifications only

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a
Allyl tiglate	10	R
Allyl cyclohexane acetate	12	R
Allyl cyclohexane butyrate	14	R
Allyl cyclohexane valerate	15	R
Allyl cyclohexane hexanoate	16	R
Isoamyl formate	42	R
Isoamyl 2-methylbutyrate	51	R
Geranyl acetate	58	R
Rhodinyl propionate	64	R
Geranyl hexanoate	70	R
Geranyl isobutyrate	72	R
Rhodinyl isobutyrate	74	R
Rhodinyl isovalerate	77	R
3,7-Dimethyl-2,6-octadien-1-yl 2-ethylbutanoate	78	R
Heptanal	95	R
Nonanal	101	R
Undecanal	107	R
Lauric acid	111	R, T
Myristic acid	113	R, T
Palmitic acid	115	R, T
Stearic acid	116	R, T
Propyl formate	117	R
n-Amyl formate	119	R
Isobutyl formate	124	R
n-Amyl heptanoate	170	R

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a
Isobutyl heptanoate	172	R
Nonyl octanoate	178	R
Methyl laurate	180	R
Isoamyl laurate	182	R, T
Butyl stearate	184	R
trans-3-Heptenyl 2-methyl propanoate	191	R
Methyl 2-methylbutyrate	205	R
2-Methylbutyl 2-methylbutyrate	212	R
ω-6-Hexadecenlactone	240	R
cis-4-Hydroxy-6-dodecenoic acid lactone	249	R
2-Methylpentanal	260	R
2-Methylhexanoic acid	265	R
5-Methylhexanoic acid	266	R
2-Methyloctanal	270	R
2,6-Dimethyloctanal	273	R
2-Methylundecanal	275	R
Isopropyl formate	304	R
Isopropyl propionate	306	R
Isopropyl hexanoate	308	R
cis-5-Octen-1-ol	322	R
<i>cis</i> -5-Octenal	323	R
<i>cis</i> -6-Nonenal	325	R
4-Decenal	326	R
9-Decenoic acid	328	R
10-Undecenal	330	R
Methyl 3-hexenoate	334	R
Butyl 10-undecenoate	344	R
2-Methyl-3-pentenoic acid	347	R
2,6-Dimethyl-6-hepten-1-ol	348	R
Ethyl 2-methyl-3-pentenoate	350	R
Hexyl 2-methyl-3(4)-pentenoate (mixture)	352	R
Terpinyl formate	367	R
Terpinyl butyrate	370	R
Terpinyl isovalerate	372	R
<i>p</i> -Menth-8-en-1-ol	374	R
α-lonone	388	R
γ-lonone	390	R, T
Allyl α-ionone	401	R
α-iso-Methylionone	404	R
5-Hydroxy-4-octanone	416	R
2-Hydroxy-2-cyclohexen-1-one	424	R
(+)-Neo-menthol	428	R
<i>p</i> -Menth-1-en-3-ol	434	R
2-Ethyl-1,3,3-trimethyl-2-norbornanol	440	R
Methyl 1-acetoxycyclohexyl ketone	442	R
1-Ethylhexyl tiglate	448	R
(1-Buten-1-yl) methyl sulfide	457	R
3-(Methylthio)propanol	461	R
3-(Methylthio)propyl acetate	478	R
Allyl thiopropionate	490	R, T

Flavouring agent	No.	Specifications ^a
2-Propanethiol	510	R
2-Naphthalenethiol	531	R
Trithioacetone	543	R
2,5-Dimethyl-2,5-dihydroxy-1,4-dithiane	562	R
2-Methyl-2-(methyldithio)propanal	580	R
Ethyl 2-(methyldithio)propionate	581	R
Methyl 2-oxo-3-methylpentanoate	591	R
Geranyl acetoacetate	599	R
3-(Hydroxymethyl)-2-heptanone	604	R, T
1,4-Nonanediol diacetate	609	R, T
Aconitic acid	627	R, T
3-Phenylpropyl hexanoate	642	R, T
3-Phenylpropionaldehyde	645	R
Cinnamaldehyde ethylene glycol acetal	648	R
Cinnamyl butyrate	652	R
Cinnamaldehyde	656	R
Propyl cinnamate	660	R
Butyl cinnamate	663	R
Heptyl cinnamate	666	R
Phenethyl cinnamate	671	R
3-Phenylpropyl cinnamate	672	R
Cinnamyl cinnamate	673	R
α-Amylcinnamyl formate	676	R
α-Amylcinnamyl acetate	677	R
α-Amylcinnamyl isovalerate	678	R, T
α -Amylcinnamaldehyde dimethyl acetal	681	R
o-Tolyl acetate	698	R
<i>p</i> -Vinylphenol	711	R
Guaiacyl phenylacetate	719	R
Hydroquinone monoethyl ether	720	R
4-Ethyl-2,6-dimethoxyphenol	723	R
4-Propyl-2,6-dimethoxyphenol	724	R
4-Allyl-2,6-dimethoxyphenol	726	R
Dihydroxyacetophenone	729	R, T
Vanillylidene acetone	732	R
Furfuryl propionate	740	R
Furfuryl pentanoate	741	R
Furfuryl octanoate	742	R
Furfuryl 3-methylbutanoate	743	R
Amyl 2-furoate	748	R
Hexyl 2-furoate	749	R
Octyl 2-furoate	750	R
2-Phenyl-3-carboethoxyfuran	752	R, T
Furfuryl butyrate	759	R
Cinnamyl benzoate	760	R

^a R, existing specifications revised; T, the existing, new or revised specifications are tentative and new information is required.
Contaminants

Contaminant	Tolerable intake and other toxicological recommendations
3-Chloro-1,2-propanediol	Provisional maximum tolerable daily intake: 2µg/kg of body weight
1,3-Dichloro-2-propanol	Establishment of a tolerable intake was considered to be inappropriate because of the nature of the toxicity observed (tumorigenic in various organs in rats and interacts with chromosomes and/or DNA); the Committee noted that the dose that caused tumours in rats (19 mg/kg of body weight per day) was about 20 000 times the highest estimated intake of 1,3-dichloro-2- propanol by consumers of soya sauce (1 μ g/kg of body weight per day).
Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins, polychlorinated dibenzofurans and coplanar polychlorinated biphenyls	Provisional tolerable monthly intake: 70pg/kg of body weight

Annex 3 Further information required or desired

Toxicological information

Diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol

The following information relating to the 2-year study on toxicity in rats is required for evaluation in 2003:

- 1. In order to determine whether some of the adverse effects that were observed were treatment-related, the groups treated with diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol should be compared with both untreated and monoglyceride-treated controls, and the control groups should be compared with one another.
- 2. Additional information on the incidence of mycocardial fibrosis and adrenal medullary hyperplasia in animals at the lowest and intermediate doses should be provided.

Curcumin

The results of a study on reproductive toxicity with a substance complying with the specifications for curcumin, known to be in progress, is required for evaluation in 2003.

Information on specifications

β-Carotene from Blakeslea trispora

Information is required on the method of analysis for residual solvents (ethyl acetate and isobutyl acetate). This information is required for evaluation in 2003.

Monomagnesium phosphate and trisodium diphosphate

Information is required on the loss on drying, loss on ignition, test method for loss on ignition and assay method for the hydrates. This information is required for evaluation in 2003.

Natamycin

Information is required on the level and determination of water content, limit for lead, specific rotation, assay value and method of assay for the commercial product. Comments on other aspects of the monograph are invited. This information is required for evaluation in 2003.

Quillaia extracts

The existing specifications for quillaia extracts were revised in order to clarify the differences between unpurified and semi-purified extracts. As additional information on composition (minimum and maximum percentages of saponins in unpurified and semi-purified extracts) is necessary, the specifications were designated as tentative. Once the requested information has been received, the Committee will consider whether separate specifications for unpurified and semi-purified extracts are required. This information is required for evaluation in 2003.

SELECTED WHO PUBLICATIONS OF RELATED INTEREST

Evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food.

Fifty-sixth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 906, 2002 (70 pages)

Safety evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 47, 2001 (707 pages)

Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. Fifty-fifth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 901, 2001 (117 pages)

Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 46, 2001 (392 pages)

Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. Fifty-third report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 896, 2000 (136 pages)

Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 44, 2000 (539 pages)

Evaluation of certain food additives.

Fifty-first report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 891, 2000 (176 pages)

Safety evaluation of certain food additives. WHO Food Additives Series, No. 42, 1999 (494 pages)

Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants. Forty-ninth report of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 884, 1999 (104 pages)

Further information on these and other WHO publications can be obtained from Marketing and Dissemination, World Health Organization, 1211 Geneva 27, Switzerland.

This report represents the conclusions of a Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee convened to evaluate the safety of various food additives and contaminants, with a view to recommending Acceptable Daily Intakes (ADIs) and tolerable intakes, respectively, and to prepare specifications for the identity and purity of food additives.

The first part of the report contains a general discussion of the principles governing the toxicological evaluation of food additives (including flavouring agents) and contaminants, assessments of intake, and the establishment and revision of specifications for food additives. A summary follows of the Committee's evaluations of toxicological and intake data on various specific food additives (diacetyltartaric and fatty acid esters of glycerol, guillaia extracts, invertase from Saccharomy*ces cerevisiae*, β-carotene from *Blakeslea trispora*, curcumin, phosphates, diphosphates and polyphosphates, hydrogenated poly-1-decene, natamycin, D-tagatose, carrageenan, processed Eucheuma seaweed, curdlan, acetylated oxidized starch, α -cyclodextrin and sodium sulfate), flavouring agents and contaminants (3-chloro-1,2-propanediol, 1,3-dichloro-2-propanol, and a large number of polychlorinated dibenzodioxins, polychlorinated dibenzofurans and coplanar polychlorinated biphenyls). Annexed to the report are tables summarizing the Committee's recommendations for ADIs of the food additives and tolerable intakes of the contaminants considered, changes in the status of specifications of these food additives and specific flavouring agents, and further information required or desired.

