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Proposed Soil Quality Guidelines Molybdenum Environmental and Human Health Effects

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Table of Contents

Page

		-	"9
Table	of Conte	ents	i
List of	Tables		ii
List of	Figures	3	ii
List of	Appen	dices	ii
Distrik	oution L	ist	ii
1.0	INTRO	ODUCTION	1
2.0	BACK	GROUND INFORMATION	1
2.1	Phy	sical and Chemical Properties	1
2.2	Ana	lytical Methods	2
2.3	Proc	duction and Uses in Canada	3
2.4	Sou	rces and Concentrations in the Canadian Environment	3
2.	.4.1	Atmosphere	4
2.	.4.2	Soil and Dust	4
2.	.4.3	Water	5
2.	.4.4	Sediments	6
2.	.4.5	Aquatic Organisms	6
2.	.4.6	Plants	6
2.	.4.7	Animals	7
2.	.4.8	Humans	7
2.5	Exis	ting Soil and Water Quality Criteria and Guidelines	8
3.0	ENVII	RONMENTAL FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN SOIL	8
3.1	Atm	nospheric	8
3.2	Wat	er	8
3.3	Soil		9
3.4	Biot	a	9
4.0	BEHA	VIOUR AND EFFECTS IN TERRESTRIAL BIOTA	9
4.1	Soil	Microbial Processes	10
4	.1.1	Toxicity	10
4.2	Terr	estrial Plants	11
4	.2.1	Uptake, Metabolism and Fate	11
4.	.2.2	Bioconcentration	12
4.	.2.3	Toxicity	12



4.3	Terrestrial Invertebrates	
4.3.1	Uptake, Metabolism and Fate	
4.3.2	Bioaccumulation	
4.3.3	Toxicity	
4.4	Livestock and Terrestrial Wildlife Species	
4.4.1	Uptake, Metabolism and Fate	
4.4.2	Bioaccumulation	
4.4.3	Toxicity	
5.0 BI	EHAVIOUR AND EFFECTS IN HUMANS AND EXPERIMENTAL ANIMALS	
5.1	Overview	
5.2	Pharmacokinetics	
5.2.1	Absorption	
5.2.2	Distribution	
5.2.3	Metabolism	
5.2.4	Elimination	
5.2.5	Physiologically-based Pharmacokinetic Models	
5.3	Essentiality	
5.4	Acute and Sub-Chronic Exposure	
5.4.1	Human	
5.4.2	Animal	
5.5	Chronic Exposure	
5.5.1	Oral Toxicity	
5.5.2	Inhalation Toxicity	
5.6	Carcinogenicity and Genotoxicity	
5.6.1	Human Data	
5.6.2	Animal Data	
5.6.3	Genotoxicity/Mutagenicity	
5.6.4	Carcinogenic Classification	
5.7	Toxicological Limits	
5.7.1	Toxicological Limits Developed by Health Canada	
5.7.2	Toxicological Limits Developed by Other Regulatory Agencies	
5.7.3	Toxicity Reference Values Selected for SQG Development	
6.0 D	ERIVATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL AND HUMAN HEALTH SOIL QUALITY	
GUIDEL	INES	
6.1	Environmental Soil Quality Guidelines	
6.1.1	Soil Quality Guidelines for Soil Contact	



6.1.2	2 Nutrient and Energy Cycling	. 28
6.1.3	3 Soil Quality Guidelines for Soil and Food Ingestion	. 29
6.1.4	4 Guidelines for the Protection of Groundwater	. 32
6.1.5	5 Off-site Migration Guidelines for Commercial and Industrial Land Uses	. 32
6.1.6	5 Summary and Selection of the SQGE	. 32
6.1.2	7 Data Gaps in the Derivation of Environmental Soil Quality Guidelines	. 32
6.2	Human Health Soil Quality Guidelines	. 33
6.2.1	l Estimated Daily Intakes	. 33
6.2.2	2 Soil Guideline for Direct Contact with Soil	. 34
6.2.3	3 Guideline for the Protection of Potable Groundwater	. 36
6.2.4	4 Guideline for the Protection of Indoor Air Quality	. 36
6.2.5	5 Produce, Meat and Milk Ingestion Check	. 36
6.2.6	6 Off-site Migration Guidelines for Commercial and Industrial Land Uses	. 36
6.2.2	7 Discussion of Uncertainties Associates with the Human Health Soil Quality Guidelin	nes37
7.0 C	DERIVATION OF THE FINAL SOIL QUALITY GUIDELINE	. 37
7.1	Considerations Other than Toxicity	. 37
7.2	Evaluation Against Plant Nutritional Requirement, Geochemical Background and Practic	al
	Quantitation Limits	. 38
7.3	Final Soil Quality Guidelines	. 38
8.0 R	EFERENCES	. 40

List of Tables

Page

Table 1	Physical and Chemical Properties of Molybdenum and Select Molybdenum	
	Compounds	2
Table 2	Receptor Characteristics for EDI Calculation ^a	. 33
Table 3	Estimated Intake (µg/kg-bw/d) of Molybdenum	. 34
Table 4	SQGDH Input Values for Each Land Use	. 35
Table 5	Soil Quality Guidelines for Molybdenum	. 39

List of Figures

- Figure 1Species Sensitivity Distribution for Ecological Direct Contact
- Figure 2 Species Sensitivity Distribution for Nutrient & Energy Cycling



List of Appendices

Appendix A – Concentrations of Molybdenum in the Canadian Environment

- Appendix B Existing Environmental Guidelines for Molybdenum
- Appendix C Ecological Toxicity Data
- Appendix D Dietary Intake of Molybdenum

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Soil quality guidelines are numerical soil concentrations intended to be protective of human and environmental health for current and potential future uses of land. They are frequently used for the assessment and remediation of contaminated sites.

The Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME) published "A Protocol for the Derivation of Environmental and Human Health Soil Quality Guidelines" (CCME 2006) to provide a framework and methodology for developing risk-based soil quality guidelines protective of human health and the environment; the guidelines developed using this protocol have been published in the Canadian Soil Quality Guidelines (CCME 1999) and also formed the basis for some provincial guidelines, including the Alberta Tier 1 Soil and Groundwater Remediation Guidelines (ESRD 2010). The current Alberta guidelines for molybdenum, however, date back to the earlier Interim Canadian Environmental Quality Criteria for Contaminated Sites (CCME 1991), which did not use modern risk-based approaches.

This report provides the basis for proposed soil quality guidelines for molybdenum based on the CCME (2006) protocol. It includes a review of sources of molybdenum, concentrations in the environment, fate and behaviour, and toxicological effects on soil microorganisms, plants, animals and humans. Guidelines are derived for the agricultural, residential/parkland, commercial and industrial land uses as defined by CCME (2006), as well as the natural area land use defined by ESRD (2010).

2.0 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

2.1 Physical and Chemical Properties

Molybdenum (Mo; CAS # 7439-98-7) is a silver metal that comprises approximately 0.0015% of the earth's crust (Chappell et al. 1979). Mo is a Group VI transition element with an atomic number of 42, an atomic weight of 95.96, a melting point of 2622°C, a boiling point of 4639°C, and a specific density of 10.222 g/cm³ (CRC,2011). The most common molybdenum mineral is molybdenite (MoS), but it also occurs as powellite (CaMoO₄) and wulfenite (PbMoO₄) (CCME 1999). The most commonly encountered molybdenum oxidation states are 0, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

Physical and chemical properties of molybdenum and some molybdenum compounds are presented in Table 1.

Table 1Physical and Chemical Properties of Molybdenum and Select Molybdenum Compounds							
Property	Molybdenum Molybdenite ^a		Molybdenum Trioxide				
Chemical formula	Мо	MoS ₂	MoO3				
CAS Registry Number	7439-98-7	1309-56-4	1313-27-5				
Molecular weight (g/mol)	95.96	128.02	143.94				
Physical state at 25°C	Solid Solid		Solid				
Melting point (°C)	2622	-	795				
Boiling point (°C)	4639	-	1155				
Density (g/cm3)	10.222	4.73	4.69				
Water solubility (g/100mL)	Insoluble	_	0.49				

a – values from (NIST 2013)

2.2 Analytical Methods

Molybdenum in environmental media is most commonly analyzed using inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) or inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), although atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS) can also be used.

The first step in both ICP-OES and IOCP-MS is conversion of an analyte solution into ions by passing it though a plasma source. ICP-OES measures the emission of light from the heated ions, which occur at a specific wavelength and which has an intensity correlated to the concentration in the original analyte solution. ICP-MS directs these ions into a magnetic field, which deflects their path based on their mass to charge ratio, and onto a detector. This allows for identification and quantification of chemical species in the original analyte solution (Harris 2003).

AAS involves conversion of an analyte solution into a gaseous state within a flame or furnace. A light source is then directed through the flame, and the concentration of the analyte is determined by the absorption of the light source at specific frequencies characteristic of individual elements (Harris 2003).

Typical soil sample preparation techniques are intended to indicate the environmentally available concentration of molybdenum, using strong acid leachate (CCME 2013). Water samples are field filtered and preserved in solutions with pH values less than 2 (CCME 2013). Relevant US EPA methods for extraction of molybdenum include method 3005A *Acid Digestion of Waters for Total Recoverable or Dissolved Metals for Analysis by FLAA or ICP Spectroscopy* (US EPA 1992), and method 3050B *Acid Digestion of Sediments, Sludges, and Soils* (US EPA 1996); the extraction method is critical for determining concentrations and needs to be consistent.



US EPA recommends analysis using either FLAA/ICP-AES or GFAA/ICP-MS using either method 6010C *Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometry* (US EPA 2007a) and method 6020a *Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry* (US EPA 2007b).

CCME (1993) previously recommended method 3120B *Inductively Coupled Plasma* (*ICP*) *Method* (CCME 1993) for determination of metals in water samples, and US EPA method 6010 for determination from metals in soils, sludges, sediments. Current CCME (2013) draft recommendations are for ICP-OES, ICP-MS, or AAS with no standard methodology recommended, but with a requirement that analytical standards be matrix matched to samples.

2.3 Production and Uses in Canada

An estimated 9005 tonnes of Molybdenum were produced in Canada in 2009, entirely mined from British Columbia (NRCan 2011). Molybdenum in Canada is mined from molybdenite ore and as a byproduct of copper mining.

1871 tonnes of molybdenum were used in Canada in 2007 (NRCan 2013), and Canada supplied 8% of ferromolybdeum and 16% of the molybdenum ore demand in the United States between 2008 and 2001, totaling over 10,000 tonnes of material (USGS 2013). Estimated reserves of molybdenum in Canada have been on an increasing trend since 2005 and were predicted to be greater than 250,000 tonnes as of 2010 (Natural Resources Canada 2013).

Global molybdenum demand is currently increasing, with the majority of molybdenum use occurring in China and Europe (IMOA 2013). Uses of molybdenum include specialist steel alloys, petroleum desulphurisation catalysts, adhesives, lubricants, corrosion inhibitors, flame retardants and medical isotopes. Global demand for molybdenum is primarily related to production of steel alloys, but molybdenite is seeing increasing use in electronics and as catalysts. Molybdenum ferroalloy was produced in Canada as of 2007 (Didaleusky et al. 2010), and it is estimated that over 75% of molybdenum is used for production of steel alloys (IMOA 2013). Molybdenum-99 is also used to produce Tc-99, which is a commonly used medical radioactive tracer used for diagnostic procedures and is produced at the Natural Research Universal reactor in Ontario.

Releases of molybdenum trioxide were reported from 23 facilities in Canada during 2011, with 0.034 tonnes of on-site releases and 202 tonnes of offsite disposal (Environment Canada 2012).

2.4 Sources and Concentrations in the Canadian Environment

The assessment of soil quality for naturally occurring metals must take into consideration regional variations in background concentrations in Canada. Background concentrations and environmental fate of metals strongly depends on geological and biological characteristics and therefore, any



assessment of potential risks should take into consideration regional differences in metal content in the natural environment (Chapman and Wang 2000).

Relatively high concentrations of metals can occur naturally in Canadian soils, stream sediments, and water, blurring the distinction between anthropogenic pollution versus naturally occurring geological formations and natural bodies of ore. In 2004, Canadian companies produced 9500 tonnes of contained molybdenum in the form of molybdenum ore, all of which were mined in British Columbia (Natual Resources Canada 2004). Soils and sediments reflect the composition of parent material, resulting in higher metal concentrations in mineralized areas (Wilson, Murray, and Huntington 1998). Mining districts are characterized by naturally occurring metals in soil, sediment, rock, and water at concentrations that could result in their classification as "contaminated sites" if background concentration of soils, no single guideline concentration can adequately represent the variance in background concentrations across Canada (Painter et al. 1994; Chapman and Wang 2000).

Data on concentrations in environmental media are summarized in Appendix A.

2.4.1 Atmosphere

Natural molybdenum emissions to the atmosphere have been estimated to range between 140 and 5,800 tonnes per year globally (Nriagu 1989). Atmospheric molybdenum concentrations in Canada were monitored through the federal National Air Pollution Surveillance (NAPS) over a two year period from May 2004 to December 2006. Median atmospheric molybdenum concentrations in fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) at seven sites in eastern and western Canada ranged from 0.06 to 0.35 ng/m³ (Celo and Dabek-Zlotorzynska 2010).

Seasonal chemical composition of fine particulate matter was measured at rural locations in Alberta (Cheng et al. 2000). Molybdenum concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ at Ester and Swann Hills showed little seasonal variation and were approximately 0.04 (Swan Hills) and 1.0 (Ester) ng/m³.

Measurements of airborne molybdenum were obtained from four distinct urban environments in Calgary (Lane et al. 2013). Air particulates were collected on teflon filters and molybdenum concentrations were measured after sample preparation using MC-ICP-MS. Molybdenum concentrations ranged from 0.07 ng/m³ (laboratory setting) to 19.0 ng/m³ (bus garage).

2.4.2 Soil and Dust

Molybdenum is a ubiquitous natural constituent in soil, originating from rocks in the earth's crust (Chappell et al. 1979), with world-wide levels being reported at 0.1-7.35 mg/kg (Kabata-Pendias and Pendias 1992). It is highest in organic rich sediments (2.0-2.6 mg/kg), shales (0.7-2.6 mg/kg) and felsic rocks (1-2 mg/kg); and lowest in limestones (0.16-0.40 mg/kg) (Kabata-Pendias and Pendias, 1992).



A comparison of total elemental concentrations in garden soil, house dust and street dust in the city of Ottawa reported geometric means for molybdenum of 0.59 mg/kg for garden soil, 1.96 mg/kg for house dust and 1.29 mg/kg for street dust (Rasmussen, Subramanian, and Jessiman 2001).

The molybdenum content of Manitoba soils ranged from 1 to 31 mg/kg, with a median concentration of 3 mg/kg (Haluschak et al. 1998). Molybdenum concentrations for these soils were found to generally increase with clay content, with an average molybdenum concentration of 2 ppm in coarse-textured soils and 4 ppm in fine-textured soils. Areas of greatest molybdenum concentration in southern Manitoba appear to occur in the Saskatchewan Plain, especially in soils with higher shale content.

Mean molybdenum concentrations for seven ecoregions within Alberta ranged from 0.013 to 0.067 mg/kg at depths of 0 to 15 cm, and from 0.011 to 0.056 mg/kg at depths of 15 to 30 cm (Penney 2004). The study concluded there were significant differences for molybdenum concentrations for the 0 to 15 cm soil samples between the different ecoregions. The concentrations in this survey were based on a hot water soluble analysis rather than total molybdenum.

Grunsky et al. (2012) reported a concentration range for molybdenum of <1 to 206 mg/kg based on soil and till surveys covering parts of nine Canadian provinces and territories. More than 50% of the reported data were less than the detection limit of 1 mg/kg for samples prepared using total/near total digestion techniques. The mean concentration was 1.4 mg/kg with a standard deviation of 3.71 mg/kg. Elevated molybdenum values occurred within survey areas located in central BC, central Baffin Island and New Brunswick (Grunsky, Rencz, and Adock 2012).

2.4.3 Water

Natural sources of molybdenum in the aquatic environment include runoff from the weathering of igneous and sedimentary rock (especially shale) into streams and lakes. Leaching processes from molybdenum mines and burning of fossil fuels may also introduce molybdenum to aquatic environments (Phillips and Ruso 1978). Molybdenum-containing fertilizers may be an important anthropogenic source for aquatic environments (McNeely, Neimanis, and Dwyer 1979).

Molybdenum concentrations in Canadian freshwater sources range from less than 0.1 μ g/L to 500 μ g/L (Ontario Ministry of Environment and Energy 1995). In British Columbia, surface water concentrations of molybdenum ranged from less than 0.1 μ g/L to 57 μ g/L (CCME 1999). Approximately 13% of 262 samples taken from lakes assumed to be pristine in British Columbia had molybdenum concentrations above the method detection limit, with a maximum reported molybdenum concentration of 40 μ g/L (Swain 1986). An average concentration of 70 μ g/L was reported for surface waters in areas associated with human and industrial activity (Chappell et al. 1979). (Rossmann and Barres 1988) found median dissolved molybdenum concentrations ranging between 0.15 μ g/L to 2.8 μ g/L in the Great Lakes.



In the United States of America, surface water molybdenum concentrations from a survey of 15 major river basins ranged between 2 to 1500 μ g/L, with a mean concentration of 60 μ g/L (Kopp and Kroner 1967)(National Academy of Sciences) 1977). Groundwater molybdenum levels in the USA were reported to range from undetectable to 270 μ g/L (Kehoe, Cholak, and Largent 1944). Levels of molybdenum in drinking water do not usually exceed 10 μ g/L but may be significantly higher in areas near mining sites (World Health Organization (WHO) 2011). A survey of wells in Wisconsin found molybdenum was only detected in 20% of samples, with 98% of concentrations less than 20 μ g/L (Webb, Thornton, and Fletcher 1968). A British survey indicated that molybdenum in drinking water is generally less than 1 μ g/L and often consistent with source water concentrations (Smedley et al. 2008).

2.4.4 Sediments

Substantial variability has been reported for molybdenum levels in aquatic sediments, ranging from 2 to 400 mg/kg (Chappell, 1975). Stream sediments were reported to contain an average concentration of 2 mg/kg of molybdenum (Webb et al., 1968). Molybdenum concentrations in sediment from the Fraser River in the Lower Mainland area ranged between 5 and 10 mg/kg (Swain 1986). In lake sediments of generally pristine areas of British Columbia, a mean molybdenum value of 14.2 mg/kg was reported, with a range of 1 to 183 mg/kg (Swain, 1986). Three sediment samples from background areas in Grand Lake, New Brunswick and two from East River, Nova Scotia showed median molybdenum concentrations of 5.6 and 1.75 mg/kg, respectively (Lalonde, Ernst, and Comeau 2011).

2.4.5 Aquatic Organisms

Molybdenum is an essential trace element for aquatic organisms and serves as a growth promoter for phytoplankton, periphyton and macrophytes (CCME 1999). A study with trout from Cayuga Lake in Ontario showed the highest concentrations (8.5 and 8.2 μ g per kg fresh weight, respectively) occurred in fish that were one and two years old, with a gradual decrease (2.2 and 2.8 μ g per kg fresh weight, respectively) for fish that were eleven and twelve years old (Tong et al. 1974). In a survey of benthic organisms and fish in the Fraser River, molybdenum levels in invertebrates were less than 5 μ g/g and approximately half of these had values of less than 1 μ g/g of dry weight (Singleton, 1983). Only 46 of 273 muscle tissue samples from fish in the Fraser River had detectable levels of molybdenum, with a maximum concentrations between less than 0.3 to 3.1 μ g/g (dry weight) in the muscle of eulachons from Nass River in British Columbia, 95% of which were below 0.3 μ g/g. Molybdenum concentrations were typically below detection limits (less than 0.4 μ g/g of dry weight) in cockles from Alice Arm in British Columbia (Farrell and Nassichuk 1984).

2.4.6 Plants

Molybdenum is an essential component of plant enzymes (nitrogenase and nitrate reductase). Molybdenum content in plants is affected by the soil molybdenum concentration and pH, with the highest concentrations in plants grown in molybdenum-rich alkaline to neutral soils (Schulte 2004).



Limited information is available on the variability of molybdenum content between plant species. Molybdenum concentration is generally highest in seeds and nodules of nitrogen fixing plants (Swain 1986). When molybdenum is limiting, it is preferentially accumulated in root nodules. Molybdenum concentrations of 0.03 to 0.15 mg/kg are generally adequate for plant physiological requirements, with concentrations in plant leaves being in the order of 1 mg/kg (Jones 1994).

Foods from above ground plant material, such as legumes and leafy vegetables, generally contain higher concentrations of molybdenum compared to foods from tubers (Clark et al. 2007). In the area of the former Soviet Union, where molybdenum has been implicated in gout-like diseases, the highest molybdenum concentrations were found in beans (82 μ g/kg), mint (57 μ g/kg), eggplant (13 μ g/kg) and potatoes (11 μ g/kg), in dry weight. In comparison, normal levels were reported to be 5.1 μ g/kg for beans and between 1 and 5 μ g/kg for vegetables (Kovalskii, Yarovaya, and Shmavonyan 1961).

2.4.7 Animals

A survey of slaughtered bovine, porcine and avian specimens in Ontario reported two to three fold higher levels of molybdenum in kidney than in muscle (R. Frank et al. 1986). Mean molybdenum concentration ranged from 253 to 429 μ g per kg (wet weight) in bovine muscle and from 799 to 886 μ g/kg in bovine kidney. Porcine muscle and kidney contained an average of 214 and 854 μ g/kg and avian muscle and liver contained an average of 474 to 562 μ g/kg and 1490 to 1750 μ g/kg of molybdenum, respectively.

2.4.8 Humans

Molybdenum is an essential cofactor of several human enzymes. The major source of molybdenum for most people is from their diet. Daily intake can range from 100 to 500 μ g of molybdenum; however, the contamination of water by industrial activities may result in a daily intake of up to 1000 μ g (Barceloux 1999). Shortly after ingestion and gastrointestinal absorption, molybdenum concentrations increase in the blood and other organs, with the highest concentrations in the liver, kidney and bone (WHO 2011). Molybdenum is primarily excreted in the urine, with urinary levels being a direct reflection of dietary intake (IOM 2001).

Based on the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II) in the U.S., daily intake for molybdenum was between 75 to 250 µg for adolescents and adults with an average American diet (NRC 1989).

Molybdenum concentrations in whole blood from 19 collection sites in the United States showed mean values of 0.50 to 15.73 μ g per 100 mL (Allaway et al. 1968). Whole blood concentrations up to 150 μ g/mL have been noted for people from areas rich in molybdenum or from molybdenum mining areas (Forrer, Gautschi, and Lutz 2001).



Analysis of NHANES survey data for the years 2003 to 2010 found a significant difference between molybdenum levels of pregnant and nonpregnant females in urine; with a geometric mean of 48.8 μ g/L in pregnant females compared to a geometric mean of 43.3 μ g/L in nonpregnant females (Jain 2013).

The geometric means for trace element concentrations in non-smoking adults (aged 33 to 64) from the west coast of Canada were reported to be 15.36 nmol/L in blood and 58.41 umol per mol of creatinine in urine (Clark et al. 2007). Smokers were reported to have significantly lower levels of molybdenum than non-smokers (Jain 2013).

Molybdenum concentrations in the blood and urine of participants aged 6 to 79 years were measured in the Canadian Health Measures Survey in two cycles, Cycle 1 in 2007 to 2009 and the Cycle 2 in 2009 to 2011 (Health Canada 2013). The geometric means for molybdenum concentrations in the two cycles were 0.67 and 0.65 μ g/L in whole blood and 36 and 44 μ g/L in the urine of the study groups.

The average molybdenum concentration in breast milk has been reported to be 2 μ g/L (National Health and Medical Research Council 2006).

2.5 Existing Soil and Water Quality Criteria and Guidelines

Soil and water quality criteria and guidelines for molybdenum have been developed by several agencies, and are summarized in Appendix B.

3.0 ENVIRONMENTAL FATE AND BEHAVIOUR IN SOIL

In the natural environment molybdenum occurs with oxidation states ranging of +6, in molybdate (MoO_{4²⁻}) and +4 in molybdenum disulphide (Pyrzynska 2007). The fate of molybdenum is dependent on a series of physiochemical and biological factors that influence cycling among biotic and abiotic components of the environment. Molybdenum is an essential element for plants and animals (Florence 1982) with an estimated natural concentration range of 0.05-40 mg/kg (Das et al. 2007).

3.1 Atmosphere

Molybdenum does not volatilize except under extreme conditions; however, volatile molybdenum compounds have been detected in landfill gas (Feldmann and Cullen 1997).

3.2 Water

In aquatic ecosystems molybdenum only weakly interacts with particulate matter, and tends to be adsorbed or complexed onto humic iron aggregates (Das et al. 2007). Molybdenum also forms water-soluble complexes with some organic compounds, most notably with organo-oxygen compounds such as polyols, carboxycilic acids and sugars). Molybdenum can adsorp, absorb, or co-precipitate with oxides of iron and aluminium at pH values under 5, while tending to remain in solution at pH values greater than five (CCME 1999).



3.3 Soil

Soil solution metal concentrations and metal bioavailability of molybdenum are controlled by sorption-desorption reactions at the surfaces of soil colloids, and is generally controlled adsorption to iron oxides and clays (Wichard et al. 2008). Molybdenum in soil is primarily in oxoanion form and sorbed to oxides and organic matter (Pyrzynska 2007); however, soluble forms are susceptible to leaching (Wichard et al. 2009). Molybdenum can bind to organic and inorganic compounds in soil and is often present in the nitrogenase enzyme in nitrogen fixing bacteria (Wichard et al. 2009), but molybdenum also adsorbs to mineral surfaces under acidic conditions and becomes less bioavailable (Wichard et al. 2009).

3.4 Biota

Marine plankton and some plant species bioconcentrate trace molybdate (Das et al. 2007), but bioavailability of molybdenum varies significantly. Bioconcentration factors of less than 100 have been suggested in aquatic biota and in some cases may not be much greater than 1 (CCME 1999). Molybdenum is necessary in the fixation of nitrogen (Pyrzynska 2007), but intake of molybdenum is antagonistic with copper. Formation of thiomolybdates reduces copper absorption by forming insoluble cupric thiomolybdate (Spears 2003).

4.0 BEHAVIOUR AND EFFECTS IN TERRESTRIAL BIOTA

The available information on the toxicological effects of molybdenum on soil microbial processes, terrestrial plants, invertebrates, as well as mammals and birds have been reviewed and summarized below. Detailed data are provided in Appendix C.

Plants and animals may accumulate contaminants over time if the amount to which they are directly exposed is greater than the amount they can eliminate through excretion and metabolic processes. Bioconcentration is the transfer of contaminants directly from a medium to an organism and the transfer of contaminants to an organism through the consumption of contaminated food is referred to as bioaccumulation (CCME 2006).

Molybdenum is not found naturally as a free metal but rather in various oxidation states from +2 to +6. Of the possible oxidation states; +6 is the most common in the environment. Unlike a number of other metals, the solubility of molybdenum increased with increasing pH (Zimmer and Mendel 1999; Gupta, Chipman, and Mackay 1978). In dilute solutions at neutral pH, the predominant form of soluble molybdenum is MoO₄, reported as the only bioavailable form for plants (Kaiser et al. 2005). Molybdenum is typically found adsorbed to soil colloids, held in crystal lattices of minerals and bound in organic matter.



4.1 Soil Microbial Processes

Microorganisms are a critical component of terrestrial ecosystems and changes to the structure and function of microbial populations may have adverse effects on the function on the ecosystem. Molybdenum is required for the synthesis of bacterial enzymes, notably those utilized to fix atmospheric nitrogen by bacteria and essential to global nitrogen cycling. These enzymes either use molybdenum within the active site, which is the case for the nitrogenase enzyme, or utilize molybdenum in molybdenum cofactors or molybdoenzymes (Hernandez, George, and Rubio 2009). The effect of molybdenum on enzyme production has become a routinely used toxicity assessment metric for bacteria. The results of available literature related to molybdenum toxicity to soil microbial organisms, enzyme activities or soil microbial processes are presented below.

4.1.1 Toxicity

Molybdenum added as a salt solution (MoCl₅) to forest topsoil negatively affected the respiration of the microbial community at concentrations of 460 mg/kg, but produced no significant measurable effect on the community structure (Åkerblom et al. 2007). An effect concentration resulting in a 10% reduction in cumulative respiration (EC₁₀) of 77.5 mg/kg was calculated. A concentration of 250 mg/kg molybdic acid had no statistically significant effect on soil ethylene production relative to the control (Arshad and Frankenberger 1991). Yanni (1990) reported no negative effect on root nodule numbers for soybeans at concentrations of 2 and 4 mg/kg of sodium molybdate.

Concentrations of 5 μ mol/g of molybdenum in soil had no effect on the amidase activity in soils, a ubiquitous microbial enzyme (Frankenberger and Tabatabai 1981). Concentrations of 2.5 µmol/g molybdenum inhibited the nitrate reductase activity by 20% in acid and neutral soils (Fu and Tabatabai 1989). Alluvial soils amended with 1000 mg/kg sodium molybdate had no observed inhibitory effect on nitrification and ammonification (Ueda, Kobayashi, and Takahashi 1988). The effect of molybdic acid on nitrogen mineralization varied between 10 to 54% in soils amended with a concentration of 480 mg/kg molybdic acid (Liang and Tabatabai 1977). Arylsulphatase activity after amending soil with 2,400 mg molybdic acid was inhibited between 14 and 79% (Al-Khafaji and Tabatabai 1979). Acid and alkaline phosphatase activity was also inhibited between 41 and 93% and 22 and 25% respectively after amending soil with 2,400 mg/kg molybdic acid (Juma and Tabatabai 1977). Urease production was inhibited between 4 and 16% in soil amended with 480 mg/kg molybdic acid (Tabatabai 1977). Stott et al (1985) measured pyrophosphatase activity in soil after amending with 2,400 mg/kg molybdic acid, buffered tests resulted in an inhibition of between 75 and 83 %. L-glutaminase and L-asparaginase activity was measured after amending soil with 480 mg/kg molybdic acid, inhibition of between 4 and 6% and 3 and 6% respectively was measured relative to controls (Frankenberger Jr and Tabatabai 1991b; Frankenberger Jr and Tabatabai 1991a).



The International Molybdenum Association (IMOA) commissioned a literature review and effects assessment of molybdenum in the terrestrial environment (ARCHE 2012). This review identified the majority of these studies outlined above as unreliable due to only one or two test doses and that extracellular enzymatic activity is not considered a relevant metric for microbial toxicity. To derive a reliable data set consistent with accepted toxicity testing protocols, three microbial toxicity assays were conducted including nitrification, glucose induced respirations and mineralization of plant residues in 10 topsoils with contrasting properties. Results from these microbial process assays produced 18 usable EC₁₀ values that ranged from 10 mg/kg for glucose induced respiration to 3841 mg/kg for substrate induced nitrification (ARCHE 2012). EC₂₀, EC₃₀ and EC₅₀ were later generated from the same data. A summary of the microbial ecotoxicity data from the literature reviewed and the ARCHE generated data is presented in Appendix C.

4.2 Terrestrial Plants

Molybdenum is an essential nutrient required for plant growth and necessary in nitrate assimilation, sulfite detoxification, and plant hormone synthesis (Baxter et al. 2008; Chatterjee and Nautiyal 2001; Gupta and Lipsett 1982). Molybdenum is often added to crops as a micro-nutrient to protect against deficiency and to ensure the effectiveness of nitrogen assimilation, essential for plant growth (Gupta and Lipsett 1982). Molybdenum turnover in ecosystems has been linked to its distribution and availability for plant uptake, molybdenum content in the organic detritus layer correlates with environmental levels and ensures this essential nutrient remains accessible in the root horizon (Lang and Kaupenjohann 2000).

4.2.1 Uptake, Metabolism and Fate

Molybdenum in either deficiency or excess can inhibit plant growth (Kaiser et al. 2005). Controlled plant uptake is regulated by the mitrochondrially localized molybdenum transporter (MOT1) that belongs to the sulfate transporter superfamily; deletion of the promoter for this transporter has been associated with low molybdenum uptake in roots and shoots (Baxter et al. 2008). Deficiency is characterized by chloroplast disorganization, as well as protein, RNA and starch effects, and is noted to resemble nitrogen deficiency in several plant species (Chatterjee and Nautiyal 2001). Molybdenum deficiency is common in acidic soils, as is the case for agricultural areas in south-western Australia. Increasing soil pH through soil liming can be effective at ameliorating this deficiency (Brennan 2006). Conversely, environmental liming to combat acid rain has been linked to molybdenosis in moose in northern Sweden (A. Frank et al. 2000). Increased molybdenum plant uptake is also noted in alkaline sloughs, in areas where industrial contamination may have reduced the soil pH, or where activities have elevated the concentration of molybdenum and other metals in the soil.

Uptake has been demonstrated to increase with the use of fertilizers, with increasing soil pH, with increasing copper, in phosphorus deficient soils, in soils with a high clay content, with the age of the



plant and be positively correlated to anthocyanin content (water soluble vacuolar pigments) and stomata openings (Brenchley 1948; Gupta, Chipman, and Mackay 1978; Basak, Mandal, and Haldar 1982; Heuwinkel et al. 1992; Hale et al. 2001; McBride 2005; Stout and Meagher 1948; Tyler and Olsson 2001). Forage grasses have also been found to uptake molybdenum at higher concentrations at contaminated sites where other metals are elevated, uptake has however been shown to be both species- and site-specific (McBride 2005; Neuman and Munshower 1984; McBride and Cherney 2004). The labile pool of molybdenum available for plant uptake is noted to decrease as soil and associated molybdenum age (Kirby et al. 2012). Energy dispersive x-ray analysis has shown that molybdenum accumulates predominately in the vacuoles of epidermal plant cells (Hale et al. 2001).

Uptake varies among species and is strongly influenced by soil type and competing ions (Connick et al. 2010); however, the fate of molybdenum in plant tissues is more defined. The leaves of vegetables and leafy plants including tobacco, tomatoes, alfalfa, red clover, broccoli, brussel sprouts, cauliflower, rutabaga and soybean plants have been found to contain higher concentrations than stems (Smith, Brown, and Deuel 1987; Gupta and Lipsett 1982; Gupta 1991). Roots were found to have higher concentrations relative to shoots in rice (Basak, Mandal, and Haldar 1982). Corn and bromegrass grown on soils amended with sewage sludge containing 12 to 39 mg/kg molybdenum have been noted to increase the dry weight concentration of molybdenum by 2 to 3 times (Eisler 1989). Leaf and above ground biomass concentrations can generally be correlated to soil concentrations (Tyler 2000).

4.2.2 Bioconcentration

Bioconcentration has also been documented in plants after several years of lime-treated sludge application but rates are noted to vary widely and be dependent on a variety of soil and plant factors (Tyler and Olsson 2001). Overall the literature demonstrated that plants uptake molybdenum relative to the soil concentration in which they were grown but do not bioconcentrate molybdenum above these levels.

4.2.3 Toxicity

Data on the toxicity of molybdenum to field-grown crops or terrestrial plants grown outdoors is lacking and has been noted to rarely occur. Toxicity can only generally be induced under experimental conditions (Zimmer and Mendel 1999). Numerous studies have shown no effect on plant yield after amending soil with molybdenum and even a beneficial effect on dry matter yield, seed yield, chlorophyll content, and nitrogen fixation (Moraes et al. 2009; Mulder 1954; Valenciano, Boto, and Marcelo 2011; Xia and Xiong 1991; Yu, Hu, and Wang 1999). In one study (de Iorio et al. 1998), researchers applied sodium molybdate at a maximum concentration of 1 mg/kg producing no measurable effect on plant yield. Yanni (1990) reported no negative effect on soybean seed yield after applying 4 mg/kg sodium molybdate and an increase in nitrogen fixing root nodule bacteria after treatment. Low level molybdenum (0.3 mg/kg Mo) and phosphorus (160 mg/kg P) fertilizer addition



was shown to increase the molybdenum uptake in the leaves and shoots of *Brassica napus* seedlings, growth and photosynthesis was positively affected with the addition of both but not with molybdenum alone (Liu, Probst, and Liao 2010). The application of molybdenum and phosphorus was found to have synergistic effects on wheat seed protein content, seed yield and seedling vigor (Modi 2002).

Growth experiments with higher molybdenum concentrations demonstrated reduced dry weight production in a number of vegetable species (Brenchley 1948). Another study (Nautiyal and Chatterjee 2004) demonstrated reduced biomass production, seed yield and leaf chlorosis growing chickpeas in sand with a 2.0 mg/L solution of sodium molybdate. Reduced seed viability and vigor has been reported in cereal grains with elevated molybdenum (Chatterjee and Nautiyal 2001). Kevresan et al. (2001) showed that young pea seedlings were significantly negatively affected at 9.6 mg/kg sodium molybdate, while root growth was most sensitively affected at 0.096 – 0.00096 mg/kg. Growth experiments with young spring barley grown with sodium molybdate (Davis, Beckett, and Wollan 1978) established an EC10 for dry matter yield of 70 mg/kg for soil and 135 mg/kg in the tissue of the leaves and shoots. Buekers et al. (2010) investigated the toxicity of sodium molybdate and molybdenum trioxide on the nitrification process in soil and on wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) growth. Results indicated that molybdenum salt (sodium molybdate) had less of an effect on toxicity than the pH (molybdenum trioxide); sodium molybdate was suggested to be the preferred species for toxicity testing. A plant yield EC10 of 15 mg/kg as total molybdenum was produced. Despite this data the majority of studies presented above provided insufficient detail on how total molybdenum was added to soils to create a homogeneous mixture and rarely tested a sufficient range of concentrations to produce a dose-response effect.

Total carbon content, or ammonium oxalate extractable iron concentrations, were found to be the best predictors of toxicity threshold values for soluble molybdate (MoO4⁻²) among four tested plant species (McGrath, Micó, Zhao, et al. 2010). Sulphate concentrations in soil were found to ameliorate molybdenum toxicity, possibly due to the competition at uptake sites. Further research (McGrath, Micó, Curdy, et al. 2010) established that plant bioavailability of molybdenum in soil was highly dependent on molybdenum solubility and to a lesser extent dependent on soil properties.

To create a more robust molybdenum plant toxicity data set that followed accepted toxicity testing protocols ARCHE (2012) conducted dose-response testing on canola (*Brassica naps*), red clover (*Trifolium pretense*), ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*), tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentrum*) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) in soil with a range of chemical and physical properties. This testing resulted in 45 applicable EC₁₀ values ranging from 5 mg/kg for canola and red clover to 3,479 mg/kg for ryegrass; EC₂₀, EC₃₀ and EC₅₀ values were later generated from the same data. A summary of the plant ecotoxicity data from the literature reviewed and the ARCHE generated data is presented in Table 2.



4.3 Terrestrial Invertebrates

Limited data is available on the toxicity or bioaccumulation of molybdenum in terrestrial invertebrates. A total of four papers specifically studying the effects of molybdenum on invertebrate species were identified in the literature. Invertebrate toxicity texting was also conducted by ARCHE (2012) for this receptor group. A summary of this work and the available literature is presented below. A summary of the ecotoxicity data generated by ARCHE is presented in Table 3.

4.3.1 Uptake, Metabolism and Fate

Molybdenum uptake and excretion was demonstrated in the earthworm, reaching equilibrium after 10-12 days, followed by efficient molybdenum excretion when transferred to uncontaminated soils (Díez-Ortiz et al. 2010). Uptake increased with increasing soil concentration and while some molybdenum may be utilized in biological process, molybdenum did not appear to be metabolized. Excretion was demonstrated to be intrinsic to the organism and independent of soil properties, the rate of excretion was comparable to other essential metals in different invertebrate species (Díez-Ortiz et al. 2010).

4.3.2 Bioaccumulation

Experimental data suggest that molybdenum can accumulate in tissues but is not magnified relative to external concentrations; once the source of molybdenum was removed biological concentrations reduced (Díez-Ortiz et al. 2010). This linear bioaccumulation of environmental concentrations has been documented in the earthworm *Eisinia andrei*, suggesting that earthworms may not be capable of regulating their internal molybdenum concentrations (van Gestel et al. 2011).

4.3.3 Toxicity

High concentrations of molybdenum have been used as termite control agents, with effective lethal concentrations around 1,000 mg/kg (Yoshimura, Tsunoda, and Nishimoto 1987). However, concentrations as high as 5,000 mg/kg did not affect various ant, beetle and cockroach species (Brill, Ela, and Breznak 1987).

No relevant literature was identified for invertebrates in the effects assessment conducted by ARCHE (2012), laboratory based toxicity testing was conducted in support of generating an effects database for these receptors and published in a paper by van Gestel et al. (2011). Three species of invertebrates (*Enchytraeus crypticus, Eisinia andrei* and *Folsomia candida*) were used to generate 23 usable EC₁₀ reproduction values. These values range from a molybdenum concentration in soil of 8.88 mg/kg for *Eisinia andrei* to 1,865 mg/kg for *Folsomia candida* (ARCHE, 2012). Overall, molybdenum addition affected survival in only three low pH sand soils and in all other soil the LC₅₀ was >3200 mg/kg. Soil properties were noted to have a strong but species-specific effect on molybdenum toxicity.



4.4 Livestock and Terrestrial Wildlife Species

Available avian toxicity testing is limited to chickens. Minor growth inhibition has been reported at a dietary concentration of 200 mg/kg (Underwood 1971). Higher dietary doses of 500 mg/kg reduced the growth rate of chicks after 4 weeks, hens laid 15% fewer eggs and this dietary concentration was found to be embryolethal in all eggs (Friberg et al. 1975). Higher dietary doses ranging from 1,000 to 4,000 mg/kg resulted in spleen lesions, injury to immune function, as well as lymphocyte and renal cell apoptosis (Yang et al. 2011; Xiao et al. 2011b; Xiao et al. 2011a). Oak Ridge National Laboratory has published an avian LOAEL of 35.3 mg/kg-bw/day, based on a study by (Lepore and Miller 1965) documenting embryo death and other adverse reproductive effects in chickens (Oak Ridge National Laboratory, 1997).

Available livestock toxicity testing includes data on horses, goats, rabbits, guinea pigs, sheep and cattle. Horses are generally considered to be more tolerant of molybdenum excesses and copper deficiencies than ruminants (Eisler 1989). Horses exposed to dietary concentrations of 107 mg/kg molybdenum for 14 days had no observable effects (Cymbaluk et al. 1981). Symptoms of molybdenosis resulted after oral exposure at doses of 20 mg/kg-bw/d in goats (Kusum et al. 2010). Rabbits fed a diet amended with 40 mg/kg molybdenum produced no significant growth differences relative to controls. Rabbits ingesting molybdenum in feed mainly excreted this metal in the urine (57%), however tissues of the kidney and liver had elevated concentrations after exposure (Bersényi et al. 2008). Higher dietary concentrations of 500 mg/kg for 12 weeks resulted in rabbit growth retardation, and concentrations of 2,000 mg/kg were found to be lethal (Friberg et al. 1975). Adverse effects in guinea pigs were noted at doses of 250 mg/kg-bw (Chappell et al. 1979).

Molybdenosis in ruminants and the associated broad-spectrum effects associated with this disease are the outcomes most often documented in the literature from elevated molybdenum exposure, and/or low copper exposure. A molybdenum content of more than 12 mg/kg dry weight can induce problems associated with moyldensosis in cattle, and to a lesser extent sheep (Friberg et al. 1975). Symptoms of molybdenosis including joint and bone effects were noted in sheep after dietary exposure of 5.5 to 12.5 mg/kg dry weight (M. Pitt, Fraser, and Thurley 1980). A lower molybdenum range between 2 to 20 mg/kg for both cattle and sheep is more problematic in copper-deficient pastures (copper-molybdenum ratio less than 3).

Comparatively more data are available on the effects of dietary molybdenum exposure in cattle than sheep. Mild symptoms of molybdenosis have been noted in cattle grazing pastures or fed diets amended with molybdenum at concentrations as low as 5 mg/kg and copper of 4 mg/kg (Phillippo, Humphries, and Garthwaite 1987; Phillippo et al. 1987). Total daily intake for cattle approaching 140 mg has produced molybdenum-associated problems, and body weight residues of 10 mg/kg have been shown to be fatal (Lloyd, Hill, and Meerdink 1976). Doses of 4.11 to 7.84 mg/kg-d have resulted



in molybdenosis in bulls (Thomas and Moss 1951). Adverse effects other than molybdenosis have also been documented in cattle. Dietary molybdenum at concentrations of 40 mg/kg and 6 mg/kg of copper resulted in a reduction in dairy cow milk production and reduced growth in nursing calves (Wittenberg and Devlin 1987). Concentrations of between 15 to 20 mg/kg in feed have also resulted in adverse reproduction effects including abnormal embryo development (O'Gorman et al. 1987).

Limited toxicity testing for terrestrial wildlife is available but suggests that domestic livestock are at greater risk to molybdenosis than wildlife species. Female mule deer exposed to concentrations of 200 mg/kg in feed showed no visible effects after 8 days, or after 8 days of exposure to 1,000 mg/kg; concentrations of 5,000 to 7,000 mg/kg for 3 to 15 days elicited signs of molybdenosis

Oak Ridge National Laboratory published a mammalian chronic-lowest observed adverse effect level (LOAEL) of 2.58 mg/kg-bw/day, based on study by Shroeder and Mitchner (1971) resulting in reduced reproductive success in mice given molybdate in food and water for three generations (ORNL (Oak Ridge National Laboratory) 1996).

4.4.1 Uptake, Metabolism and Fate

Ruminants excrete molybdenum through feces, whereas other more tolerant mammals such as pigs and rats excrete molybdenum in urine and at a much faster rate (Underwood, 1971; Pitt, 1976). Excretion rates for cattle are also slower, 67% of administered molybdenum in 7 day, whereas guinea pigs excreted 100% in 8 days, and swine excreted 75% in 5 days (Penumarthy and Oehme 1978). In ruminants, molybdates and sulfides are metabolized by bacteria to form thiomolybdates which are not formed in monogastric digestion. Produced thiomolybdates react with copper forming a poorly absorbed complex, often resulting in a copper deficiency (MERCK 2013).

4.4.2 Bioaccumulation

Accumulation of molybdenum in the testes, epididymides and seminal vesicles of rats after high exposure doses orally was observed (Pandey and Singh 2002). Molybdenum in wild duck tissue was found highest in the liver and kidney tissues (Mochizuki et al. 2002). Other evidence of bioaccumulation was not presented in the literature for livestock or terrestrial wildlife species.

4.4.3 Toxicity

Molybdenosis, thought to be a copper-deficiency that occurs through exposure to molybdenum, is characterized by scouring, weight loss, anemia, joint and bone deformities, reproductive impairment and death. This condition has been documented in ruminants, notably sensitive are cattle, sheep and moose (Erdman, Ebens, and Case 1978; Eisler 1989; A. Frank 1998; A. Frank et al. 2000; M. A. Pitt 1976). Cattle appear to be the most sensitive and were adversely affected when grazing on pastures with a copper to molybdenum ratio <3, or when fed diets containing 2 to 20 mg/kg molybdenum in



the diet, or when total daily intake approaches 141 mg (Eisler 1989). A lethal dose of 10 mg/kg body weight has been established for cattle (Eisler 1989). Molybdenum poisoning in ruminants, referred to as teart disease, is proportional to the molybdenum content in the pasture feed. Concentrations of more than 12 mg/kg dry weight have been shown to produce molybdenum associated effects in cattle (Friberg et al. 1975). Other mammal species including horses, pigs, small laboratory animals and mammalian wildlife are comparatively tolerant to higher dietary doses of molybdenum (Eisler 1989; McCarter, Riddell, and Robinson 1962). The Merck Veterinary Manual (2013), reports that species other than cattle and sheep are at least 10 times less sensitive to molybdenum.

The toxicity of molybdenum in ruminants is noted to be influenced by a number of factors that include:

- the dose of copper the animal receives,
- the dose of inorganic sulfate the animal receives,
- the dose of molybdenum the animal receives relative to the above doses,
- the proportion of water soluble forms of molybdenum,
- the presence of sulfur-containing amino acids, and
- the age of the animals.

5.0 BEHAVIOUR AND EFFECTS IN HUMANS AND EXPERIMENTAL ANIMALS

5.1 Overview

Molybdenum is an essential nutrient, although molybdenum deficiency is rare and normally only associated with biochemical abnormalities.

5.2 Pharmacokinetics

5.2.1 Absorption

Adsorption of molybdenum following oral exposure depends on the chemical form; hexavalent molybdenum is more readily absorbed than tetravalent molybdenum (WHO 2011). The limited human data suggests absorption of 30-70% of ingested molybdenum (Engel, Price, and Miller 1967; Robinson et al. 1973). No data on absorption after inhalation or dermal contact were identified.

5.2.1.1 Relative Absorption Factors

Health Canada has published a relative dermal absorption factor of 0.01 for molybdenum (Health Canada 2010) compared to oral absorption. This value was adopted from the Ontario Ministry of the



Environment, who in turn based it on extrapolation from other inorganic substances (Ontario Ministry of the Environment 2011). In the absence of other values from reputable agencies, this factor is adopted herein.

An oral relative absorption factor of 1 is recommended due to the lack of sufficient data to quantify differences in gastrointestinal absorption between soil and other media. Similarly, an inhalation relative absorption factor of 1 is also recommended.

5.2.2 Distribution

Within the human body, molybdenum is found at highest concentrations in the liver, kidneys and bones, but is also found in blood and other organs. It does not appear to bioaccumulate (Schroeder, Balassa, and Tipton 1970). Animal studies have suggested that at high doses the liver reaches a saturation point, beyond which increased molybdenum dose does not increase the molybdenum concentration in the liver (Cox et al. 1960).

5.2.3 Metabolism

Molybdenum, in the form of molybdopterin, is a cofactor for certain enzymes, including sulfite oxidase, xanthine oxidase and aldehyde oxidase (Institute of Medicine (U.S.). Panel on Micronutrients and Institute of Medicine (U.S.). Standing Committee on the Scientific Evaluation of Dietary Reference Intakes 2001). It has been shown to play a role in the metabolism of phosphorus and copper (Comar, Singer, and Davis 1949).

5.2.4 Elimination

Elimination of molybdenum from humans is primarily in urine (Schroeder, Balassa, and Tipton 1970; WHO 2011). Concentrations of molybdenum in urine have been found to increase at high levels of molybdenum exposure (Chappell et al. 1979).

5.2.5 Physiologically-based Pharmacokinetic Models

No physiologically-based pharmacokinetic models for molybdenum were identified.

5.3 Essentiality

As noted above, molybdenum, in the form of molybdopterin, is a cofactor for certain enzymes. Molybdenum deficiency is not common, but can occur with some medical conditions. In one case a Crohn's disease patient on long-term parenteral nutrition exhibited numerous adverse effects including tachycardia, tachypnea, central scotomas, night blindness, irritability, and eventual coma, along with several biochemical abnormalities relating to sulphur amino acid metabolism. These effects were improved with ammonium molybdate (Abumrad et al. 1981).



5.4 Acute and Sub-Chronic Exposure

5.4.1 Human

No data on acute or subchronic toxicity of molybdenum to humans were identified.

5.4.2 Animal

Subchronic oral median lethal doses in rats range from 101 mg/kg/d to 330 mg/kg/d, depending on the species of molybdenum (Fairhall et al. 1945, cited in WHO 2011).

A 6-week dietary study using Holtzman rats fed hydrogen molybdate at 75 or 300 ppm in diet found that molybdenum inhibited growth at both doses, but that this effect was eliminated (at 75 ppm) or reduced (at 300 ppm) by sulphate supplementation at 2200 ppm. A second experiment using 100 ppm sodium molybdate found that sulphate between 800 and 2200 ppm alleviated most of the growth inhibition (Miller, Price, and Engel 1956).

A series of experiments using guinea pigs exposed to sodium molybdate, copper sulphate or both (Arthur 1965). Molybdenum added to the diet at 1000 ppm to 8000 ppm for 8 weeks adversely affected weight gain and survival, and at 5000 ppm and higher caused weight loss. Above 2000 ppm, graying of the hair was also observed. In the second experiment, molybdenum at 2000 ppm and copper at 10 or 20 ppm for 8 weeks showed a reduction in the greying effect with 20 ppm copper, but weight gain was still affected.

Long-Evans rats were fed a diet supplemented by copper (5 or 20 ppm) and molybdenum (<1, 20, 80 or 140 ppm) for 13 weeks (Jeter and Davis 1954). Molybdenum treatments of 20 ppm or higher in the lower copper group resulted in reduced average weight gain, with the effect greater in males than females. The 80 and 140 ppm molybdenum groups also exhibited achromotrichia and alopecia.

Two experiments conducted on Long-Evans rats (Cox et al. 1960) involved adding molybdenum to a mineralized whole milk diet at 0, 500 and 800 pm for 5 weeks (males) or 8 weeks (females), or to a synthetic diet at 0, 250 and 800 ppm for 7 to 8 weeks (males) or 9 weeks (females). In the first experiment, both exposed groups exhibited decreased growth, diarrhea and emaciation, as well as increased molybdenum in the liver, reduced xanthine oxidase activity, and reduced liver respiration. In the second experiment, the growth rate was still reduced at both exposure doses and liver molybdenum concentrations increased; there was a slight but not statistically significant decrease in xanthine oxidase, liver respiration and blood uric acid in the 800 ppm group.

The same authors fed calves diets with 0, 200 or 400 ppm molybdenum added for three to six months; while molybdenum concentrations in the liver increased, there were no observed effects on liver enzymes (Cox et al. 1960).



Another study (Huber, Price, and Engel 1971) involved feeding lactating dairy cows molybdenum in their diet at concentrations ranging from 53 ppm to 300 ppm for up to 6 months, combined with low copper (6 ppm). Signs of molybdenum toxicity including diarrhea and reduced growth were observed at 173 ppm and above, but not at concentrations 100 ppm and lower. All molybdenum treatments resulted in decreased liver copper and increased copper levels in milk and kidneys, along with increased molybdenum concentrations in liver, blood and milk.

Molybdenum was added to drinking water of calves at 0, 1, 10 and 50 ppm for 21 days (Kincaid 1980). At 50 ppm, the copper concentration in the liver was reduced, while the copper concentration in plasma increased; no effects were observed at lower concentrations.

In another study (Thomas and Moss 1951), two male Holstein calves were fed a molybdenumsupplemented diet for 129 days. The amount of molybdenum increased from 2.6 g/day to 5.0 g/d over the course of the experiment. This resulted in doses ranging from 4.11 to 7.84 mg/kg-bw/day. Reported results included reduced growth rates, and brief diarrhea. In one calf there were reports of stiffness, and the black hair on this calf began to turn white/grey after 6 weeks. The calves exhibited a lack of libido, and a histological examination showed degeneration of the seminiferous tubules and an absence of sperm or spermatids in the tubules. Autopsies found erosion of cartilage in the metatarsal joints. There were only 2 exposed calves and no controls in this study, however.

Fugnwe et al (1990) exposed 5 groups of 21 female Sprague-Dawley rats to a diet containing 0.025 mg/kg molybdenum and drinking water supplemented with sodium molybdate at 0, 5, 10, 50 or 100 mg/L molybdenum. After 6 weeks, 6 rats from each group were sacrificed while the remaining rats were mated and allowed to gestate for 21 days. Mated dams were observed to gain less weight during gestation than controls at concentrations of 10 mg/L and higher; this was attributed to reduced fetal sizes. Fewer pups were also observed at 10 mg/L and higher concentrations, and the fetuses were significantly smaller and showed evidence of a less mature hepatic structure. Macroscopic evidence of fetal resorption was observed at 10 mg/L and higher. The length of the estrous cycle was also increased in these rats, and plasma Cp activity was increased in gestating rats. Significant effects were observed on sulphur oxidase and xanthine oxidase/dehydrogenase activity in all treatment groups.

A recent study involved exposing 4 goats to ammonium molybdate (20 mg/kg-bw/d) or ammonium molybdate (20 mg/kg-bw/d) plus copper sulphate (II) pentahydrate (7.9 mg/kg-bw/d) for 30 days in water (Kusum et al. 2010). Blood samples were collected throughout the treatment period, as well as 7 and 14 days after treatment, for evaluation of hematological parameters. The group exposed to ammonium molybdate alone showed evidence of inappetence, weight loss, decreased ruminal motility, rough hair coat, diarrhea, alopecia, sway back, anemia, achromotrichia and emanciation, as well as significant reductions in hemoglobin and packed cell volume on the 30th day, reduced total erythrocyte and total leukocyte counts from 28 days on, and reduced mean corpuscular hemoglobin



from 7 days on (compared to pre-exposure values), along with an increase in mean corpuscular volume and neutrophils level. These effects appeared to be ameliorated in the goats also exposed to copper salt, and were attributed by the authors to secondary copper deficiency.

A 56-day study on steers (Kessler et al. 2012) involved providing water with low sulphur (375 mg/L SO₄), high sulphur (2,218 mg/L SO₄) or high sulphur plus molybdenum (187.5 mg/L). There were 32 steers in each group. The authors hypothesized that molybdenum would bind excess sulphur in the rumen, reducing sulphur toxicity without causing molybdenum toxicity. However, the group with molybdenum supplementation showed signs of molybdenum toxicity, including severe diarrhea, loss of body condition, anorexia, changes in hair colour and stiff joints.

A 14-day study used 5 New Zealand white rabbits (Bersényi et al. 2008) fed carrots grown in soil with high molybdenum concentrations (270 mg/kg) resulting in an approximate concentration in carrots of 39 mg/kg dry matter, plus 5 controls. A second experiment involved feeding 5 rabbits a commercial pellet diet supplemented with 40 mg/kg dry matter molybdenum, with 5 rabbits in a control group, also for 14 days. Body weights were not significantly affected. Rabbits ingesting the carrots (daily molybdenum ingestion estimated at 1.4 mg/day) did not show any effect on daily dry matter intake or nutrient digestibility. Concentrations of molybdenum were elevated in tissues, and were 5 times as high in the kidneys of exposed rabbits as control rabbits. Serum alanine aminotransferase activity was decreased, while creatine kinase activity and malondialdehyde concentrations were increased. Rabbits ingesting the pellet diet with molybdenum added showed decreased dietary intake, a non-significant decrease in digestibility of crude protein, crude fibre and nitrogen-free extract. Triclyceride concentrations in serum were decreased while malondialdehyde levels increased. Histological examination of the testes showed a reduction in germ cells and mature spermatocytes.

A sub-acute mouse study (Zhai et al. 2013) involved providing groups of 10 male ICR mice water with molybdenum concentrations of 0, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 and 200 mg/L for 14 days and examining the testes for sperm quality and other reproductive effects. Sperm quality was reported to be improved at 25 mg/L, but decreased at 100 mg/L and 200 mg/L. Accompanying changes in superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidase activities and malondialdehyde levels were also observed.

A related study using female mice (Zhang et al. 2013) in groups of 25 exposed to molybdenum concentrations in water of 0, 5, 10, 20 or 40 mg/L for 14 days examined effects on ovaries. An improvement in M II oocyte morphology, ovary index and ovulation was observed at 5 mg/L; at 40 mg/L these parameters were adversely affected, and at 20 mg/L abnormal ovarian mitochondria were observed. Superoxide dismutase activity was increased at 10 mg/L but decreased at 20 mg/L and 40 mg/L; glutathione peroxidase activity was increased at 5 and 10 mg/L and decreased at 40 mg/L; malondialdehyde levels were increased at 20 and 40 mg/L. The authors concluded that low molybdenum exposures improve fertility while high exposure decrease fertility.



5.5 Chronic Exposure

5.5.1 Oral Toxicity

5.5.1.1 Human

Chappell et al. (1979) evaluated 42 people from Denver, Colorado exposed to molybdenum in drinking water at 1 to 50 μ g/L compared to 13 college students in Golden, Colorado with drinking water molybdenum concentrations of 200 μ g/L or greater for 2 years. Concentrations of molybdenum and copper in urine, and uric acid in ceruloplasmin were affected by molybdenum exposure, but no adverse effects were observed in either group. A follow up with the students from Golden 2 years later, with molybdenum concentrations in water reduced to 40 μ g/L, the effects on serum ceruloplasmin and urinary copper were no longer apparent.

An association between high molybdenum content in cereals and lower-limb osteoporosis was suggested in one study in India (Krishnamachari & Krishnaswamy 1974, cited in WHO 2011).

Another study was conducted in two areas of the former Soviet Union with significantly elevated molybdenum in soil and plants (Kovalskiy 1961). An unusually high incidence of a gout-like disease was observed in these areas, as high as 31% of the population in one of the provinces. The molybdenum content of food was 2 to 10 times higher than in control areas; the estimated molybdenum intake from food was 10 to 15 mg per day combined with reduced copper intake of 5 to 10 mg/day (compared to control intakes of 1 to 2 mg molybdenum and 10 to 15 mg copper per day).

5.5.1.2 Animal

Charles River CD mice were exposed to 10 mg/L molybdenum in water for six months (Schroeder and Mitchener 1971), resulting in increased fetal mortality in the F1 and F2 generations.

A dietary study involved supplementing pregnant Cheviot ewes with 0 or 50 mg/day molybdenum. Three of four lambs born to the exposed group exhibited ataxia, which was associated with degenerative changes and demyelination in the cerebral cortex and spinal cord (Mills and Fell 1960).

Long-Evans rats were fed a diet supplemented by copper (5 or 20 ppm) and molybdenum (<1, 20, 80 or 140 ppm) for 13 weeks (Jeter and Davis 1954). At 80 and 140 ppm, male infertility was observed, caused by seminiferous tubule degeneration. No significant effects on birth weight or pup weight gain were observed, but stillbirths were increased at 140 ppm. Molybdenum-exposed rats (180 and 140 ppm) showed reduced lactation and lower weaning weights.

A 6-month lamb feeding study (Al-Kirshi, Alimon, and Ivan 2011) supplemented diet for groups of 4 lambs with ammonium molybdate (20.8 g/kg Mo), ammonium molybdate (20.8 g/kg Mo) plus sodium



sulphate (3 mg/kg S), or zinc (560 mg/kg), with an additional 4 lambs in a control group. The diet was based on dietary palm kernel cakes, which pose a risk of copper toxicity and had an approximate molybdenum concentration of 0.8 g/kg, sulphur concentration of 2 g/kg and zinc concentration of 60 g/kg. All three supplements affected copper concentrations in the liver and blood; the molybdenum plus sulphur reduced it below safe ranges. The primary intent of this experiment was to evaluate the effects of supplements on reducing copper toxicity, and doses were not well characterized.

5.5.2 Inhalation Toxicity

The data on inhalation toxicity are very limited. One cross-sectional study (Walravens et al. 1979) was conducted on 25 molybdenum smelter workers in Denver, Colorado. Concentrations of molybdenum in respirable dust ranged from 3.04 to 33.28 mg/m³ in different locations within the facility; the estimated daily intake of molybdenum was 10.2 mg. Workers exhibited higher molybdenum concentrations in blood and urine than a control population, along with higher serum ceruloplasmin and uric acid. Several workers indicated they had health complaints such as joint pain, back pains, headaches, or unspecified skin/hair changes; six workers indicated they had an upper respiratory tract infection within the past two weeks and two exhibited signs of mild obstructive lung disease. The authors considered the reports to be non-specific and difficult to assess scientifically.

5.6 Carcinogenicity and Genotoxicity

5.6.1 Human Data

No human data on molybdenum carcinogenicity and genotoxicity were identified.

5.6.2 Animal Data

There is some evidence that molybdenum may inhibit the formation of certain cancers in animal studies. One rat study found that 2 or 20 ppm molybdenum added to drinking water along with N-nitrososarcosine ethyl ester (NSEE) significantly reduced the incidence of esophageal and forestomach cancers compared to NSEE alone (Luo, Wei, and Yang 1983). Another study by the same group using virgin female rats exposed to 10 ppm molybdenum in water after treatment with N-nitroso-N-methylurea (NMU) found a significantly lower incidence of mammary carcinoma than rates treated with NMU only (Wei, Luo, and Yang 1985).

5.6.3 Genotoxicity/Mutagenicity

Mutation induction experiments using a rec-assay with three strains of *Bacillus subtilis* and mutation induction assays with three *E. coli* strains (Nishioka 1975) found ammonium molybdate to be positive in the rec-assay; potassium molybdate was negative in the *B. Subtilis* test, while potassium molybdate was mildly positive. The mutation induction assay was performed for ammonium molybdate only and showed reduced survival and increased tryptophan reversions compared to a control. A



screening for induction of gene conversion and reverse mutation in *Saccharomyces cervisiae* (yeast) yielded negative responses for both ammonium molybdate and sodium molybdate (Singh 1983).

5.6.4 Carcinogenic Classification

Health Canada, US EPA, and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) have not classified molybdenum with respect to carcinogenicity. The available data do not suggest molybdenum carcinogenicity.

5.7 Toxicological Limits

5.7.1 Toxicological Limits Developed by Health Canada

(Health Canada 2010) has identified molybdenum as an essential trace element and defined agespecific tolerable upper limits of 0.023 mg/kg-bw/d for ages 0 to 11, 0.027 mg/kg-bw/d for ages 12 to 19, and 0.028 mg/kg-bw/d for adults 20 years or older. These values were adopted from the Institute of Medicine (IOM 2001) upper limits, adjusted for Health Canada age groups and default body weights.

The IOM ULs were based on a subchronic (9-week) rat drinking water study (Fungwe et al. 1990) with doses of 0, 5, 10, 50 and 100 mg/L in water plus 0.025 mg/kg in diet (equivalent doses were 0, 0.91, 1.6, 8.3 and 16.7 mg/kg-bw/d). A NOAEL of 0.9 mg/kg-bw/d and LOAEL of 1.6 mg/kg-bw/d were established based on reproductive effects. Uncertainty factors of 10 for interspecies variability and 3 for intraspecies variability were applied.

5.7.2 Toxicological Limits Developed by Other Regulatory Agencies

5.7.2.1 US EPA

US EPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) 1993) published an oral reference dose (RfD) for molybdenum of 0.005 mg/kg-bw/d. This RfD was based on a cross-sectional epidemiological study in Armenia (Kovalskii, Yarovaya, and Shmavonyan 1961) in a region with a high molybdenum content in soil and plants and a high incidence of gout-like sickness in the adult population. A molybdenum intake of 0.14 mg/kg-bw/d was associated with elevated serum uric acid levels compared to the general population. This intake was designated as the LOAEL; an uncertainty factor of 3 was applied for sensitive humans (since a large human population was included in the study) and 10 for use of a LOAEL to derive the RfD. The confidence in the RfD was considered to be medium. US EPA (1993) did not classify molybdenum with respect to carcinogenicity.



5.7.2.2 World Health Organization

(World Health Organization (WHO) 2011) evaluated molybdenum toxicity for a drinking water guideline. They determined that a formal guideline was unnecessary, but suggested a health-based value of 0.07 mg/L based on the NOAEL of 0.2 mg/L established by Chappell et al. (1979), with a factor of 3 for intraspecies variation.

5.7.3 Toxicity Reference Values Selected for SQG Development

The tolerable upper limits specified by Health Canada are adopted as TRVs herein: 0.023 mg/kg-bw/d for ages 0 to 11, 0.027 mg/kg-bw/d for ages 12 to 19, and 0.028 mg/kg-bw/d for adults 20 years or older. These values are higher than the US EPA value; however, they are more recent, reflect a larger database and more current approaches, and consider the essentiality of molybdenum. Furthermore, there is some uncertainty in the actual exposures in the epidemiological study used for the US EPA RfD.

6.0 DERIVATION OF ENVIRONMENTAL AND HUMAN HEALTH SOIL QUALITY GUIDELINES

6.1 Environmental Soil Quality Guidelines

Canadian Soil Quality Guidelines are derived for four different land uses: agricultural, residential/parkland, commercial and industrial. Alberta also adds guidelines for the natural area land use.

All data for use in the following derivations have been screened for ecological relevance and are presented in the preceding sections. For the soil contact pathway, data were not selected from soils that are outside the typical conditions found in Canada (e.g. pH <4), or from studies that did not use soil or artificial soil, did not record soil texture and pH, did not use appropriate statistical analyses, did not use controls, or involved sewage sludge or mixtures of toxicants.

6.1.1 Soil Quality Guidelines for Soil Contact

Soil quality guidelines for soil contact (SQG_{SC}) are based on toxicological data for plants and soil invertebrates. The preferred approach is to use a weight of evidence method using EC₂₅ or similar values; if the data do not meet the requirements for this method, then additional approaches using other data points can be applied, such as effects/ no effects data, lowest observed effects concentrations, and median effects.

The data requirements for the preferred weight of evidence approach include:

• At least 10 discrete data points from at least 3 studies.



• A minimum of 2 soil invertebrate and 2 crop/plant data points.

The plant and invertebrate data available for molybdenum meet the minimum requirements for this approach and therefore the weight of evidence approach is applied.

In some cases it is prudent to combine data points to eliminate redundancy by calculating the geometric mean of individual data points (CCME 2006). For example, data points representing the same type of response in the same species under highly similar exposure conditions, or different responses that are known to be directly, causally connected should be combined. Consideration can also be given to combining data for different soil types – in general variations in toxicity due to exposure conditions such as soil type are considered to be a valid part of the sensitivity distribution, but in some cases it may be appropriate to combine data points to prevent a significant bias of the sensitivity distribution to a single species. Where multiple response levels are available for the same species and response type (e.g. EC₂₀ and EC₅₀), the value closest to the EC₂₅ is used rather than combining the data points.

Plant and invertebrate toxicity data from McGrath et al. (2010b) and ARCHE (2012) met the minimum requirements. Data from Bueker et al. (2010) also meet minimum data requirements; however this study was done to examine the effects of different These data include 6 different plant species and 3 invertebrate species. For most species, 10 different soil types are included in the data set; since the different soil types have been evaluated for 5 plant species and 3 invertebrate species there is no need to combine data points for different soil types. Multiple response levels are available; EC₂₀ values were used from McGrath et al. (2010b) and ARCHE (2012), and EC₁₀ values from Bueker et al. (2010) as the values closest to EC₂₅. Inclusion of the Bueker et al. (2010) data with EC values further from EC₂₅ than the remaining data is conservative since the values from this study were all at the lower end of the resulting species sensitivity distribution. Where only an unbounded NOEC was observed, the data were not used. A total of 49 plant data points and 23 invertebrate endpoints were retained.

As specified by CCME (2006), the selected data were ranked and rank percentiles determined for each data point. The protocol allows plant and invertebrate data to be either combined or treated separately; both approaches have been examined herein. The resulting species sensitivity distributions were found to be similar, and therefore the combined data set was used for greater statistical power.

The resulting species sensitivity distribution is shown on Figure 1 below.





Figure 1: Species Sensitivity Distribution for Ecological Soil Contact

6.1.1.1 Guidelines for the Agricultural, Residential/Parkland and Natural Area Land Uses

The soil contact guidelines are calculated from the 25th percentile of the estimated species sensitivity distribution (ESSD₂₅). The ESSD₂₅ has been calculated at 32 mg/kg.

The threshold effects concentration is then calculated as:

$$TEC = ESSD_{25}/UF$$

Where:

ГЕС	=	threshold effects concentration (mg/kg)
ESSD ₂₅	=	estimated species distribution – 25th percentile (mg/kg)
UF	=	uncertainty factor (if needed)



An uncertainty factor is only applied if the data are borderline, such as if only the minimum number of studies is available, fewer than three taxonomic groups are represented, greater than 50% of either the plant or invertebrate toxicity data are in the lower 25th percentile of the combined distribution, short-term toxicity studies were used, or more than 50% of the data reflect low bioavailability conditions (CCME 2006). None of these conditions apply, and therefore an uncertainty factor is not considered to be warranted.

The SQGsc for the agricultural, residential/parkland and natural area land uses is set at the TEC, or 32 mg/kg.

6.1.1.2 Guidelines for the Commercial and Industrial Land Uses

The soil contact guidelines are calculated from the 50th percentile of the estimated species sensitivity distribution (ESSD₅₀). The ESSD₅₀ has been calculated at 55 mg/kg.

The effects concentration - low is then calculated as:

$$ECL = ESSD_{50}$$

Where:

ECL	=	threshold effects concentration (mg/kg)
ESSD ₅₀	=	estimated species distribution – 50th percentile (mg/kg)

An uncertainty factor is not normally applied to the ECL. The SQG_{SC} for the commercial and industrial land uses is set at the ECL, or 55 mg/kg.

6.1.1.3 Confidence Ranking for the Soil Contact Guideline

CCME (2006) uses a ranking system to indicate the confidence in the guideline, based on the method used and whether there were enough data to evaluate plants and invertebrates separately.

For molybdenum, the preferred weight of evidence approach using ECx data was used. While the plant and invertebrate data were combined, there were sufficient data to evaluate both groups separately. Therefore, a confidence ranking of 'A' is assigned.

6.1.2 Nutrient and Energy Cycling

The nutrient and energy cycling guideline (SQG_{NEC}) is used to evaluate biological processes in the soil that are expected to affect the overall soil ecosystem performance. Professional judgment is applied as to whether this guideline should be used in the overall soil quality guideline calculation (CCME 2006).



The preferred data for the calculation of guidelines for this pathway are nitrification and nitrogenfixation data. Only two nitrification studies were identified, and one of these had an unbounded no effects concentration only; therefore the data are not considered adequate for guideline calculation. The limited effects concentration values identified are significantly higher than the SQGsc calculated above.

In the absence of sufficient nitrification and nitrogen fixation values, the data set can be supplemented with decomposition, respiration and nitrogen mineralization data. With the incorporation of these data, an adequate data set is available. Specifically, nitrification data from Bueker et al. (2010), nitrogen mineralization data from Liang and Tabatabai (1977), and nitrification and respiration data from University of Leuven, 2009 were used to generate a species sensitivity distribution, shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2: Species Sensitivity Distribution for Nutrient and Energy Cycling

The data appear to exhibit a potential multi-modal distribution. The ESSD₂₅ is 108 mg/kg and the ESSD₅₀ is 1522 mg/kg. Since these values are higher than those calculated for ecological soil contact and due to the limitations of the data set, the SQG_{NEC} is not calculated as part of the overall soil quality guideline.

6.1.3 Soil Quality Guidelines for Soil and Food Ingestion

Soil and food ingestion guidelines (SQG₁) are calculated for the agricultural and natural area land uses to protect domestic animals and wildlife.



The CCME (2006) process normally evaluates grazing herbivores on agricultural lands, although other species can be considered if identified as being particularly sensitive to the contamination. The first step is to identify the species most at threat based on oral toxicological data for grazing/foraging species. The minimum data requirements include at least two oral mammalian studies, only one of which can be a laboratory rodent study and at least one of which should reflect a grazing herbivore, and one oral avian study.

As discussed in Section 4.4, several grazing herbivore studies have been identified, along with a smaller number of avian studies.

6.1.3.1 Development of the Daily Threshold Effect Dose (DTED)

Several toxicity studies have been conducted using livestock species, including cattle, goats and sheep. In nearly all cases the studies resulted in unbounded NOAELs and LOAELs due to the small number of treatment groups. Furthermore most of these studies involved very small numbers of animals in each treatment group.

A mammalian LOAEL of 2.58 mg/kg-bw/d was developed by Oak Ridge National Laboratory based on a mouse study (ORNL (Oak Ridge National Laboratory) 1996). However, there is evidence that cattle and other livestock may be particularly sensitive to molybdenum. A review by the US Fish and Wildlife Service (Eisler 1989) suggested that molybdenum is toxic to cattle at a concentration of 15 to 30 mg/kg dry weight in feed, and recommended a maximum tolerable level of 6 mg/kg dry weight. For a 550 kg cow with a typical food ingestion rate (approximately 2.5% of body weight per day, or 13.75 kg/d dry weight), this would correspond to a dose of 0.15 mg/kg-bw/d, which is applied as a daily threshold effects dose (DTED) for livestock. The Oak Ridge value is applied for wildlife for the Alberta natural area calculation.

6.1.3.2 Receptor Parameters

A cattle body weight of 550 kg and soil ingestion rate of 0.747 kg/d have previously been used for soil quality guideline derivation (CCME 2008), (ESRD 2010). A typical cattle food ingestion rate is 2.5% of body weight per day or 13.75 kg/d dry weight. This value is slightly higher than what would be calculated using the allometric equation recommended by CCME (2006).

For Alberta natural area land use calculations, a vole with a body weight of 0.017 kg and soil ingestion rate of 0.000058 kg/d is used (ESRD 2010). A food ingestion rate of 0.00241 kg/d is calculated using the CCME (2006) allometric equation.



6.1.3.3 Bioavailability

There is no information on the relative bioavailability of molybdenum in natural food/soil compared to bioavailability in the critical toxicity studies. A bioavailability factor of 1 is therefore assumed.

6.1.3.4 Bioconcentration Factors

In general the bioconcentration of molybdenum in plants appears to be low. Many of the available studies where plant uptake do not contain sufficient information to calculate a meaningful bioconcentration factor – often available instead of total molybdenum concentrations are reported, or molybdenum is provided in solution. Several studies also involve mine tailings or sewage sludge instead of soil. US EPA have previously endorsed a literature-derived bioconcentration factor of 0.25 (US EPA 2013), which has also been previously proposed by Oak Ridge National Laboratory (Baes et al. 1984); since this is the only BCF that was identified it is adopted herein.

6.1.3.5 Calculation of the Soil Quality Guideline for Ingestion

The guideline for soil and food ingestion can be calculated for a primary consumer using the following equation (CCME 2006):

$$SQG_{I} = \frac{0.75 \times DTED \times BW}{(SIR \times BF) + (FIR \times BCF)}$$

Where,

SQGI	=	soil quality guideline for food and soil ingestion (mg/kg)
DTED	=	daily threshold effects dose (mg/kg-bw/d)
BW	=	body weight (kg)
SIR	=	soil ingestion rate (kg/d)
FIR	=	food ingestion rate (kg/d dry weight)
BF	=	bioavailability factor
BCF	=	bioconcentration factor (mg/kg plant per mg/kg soil)

The resulting SQG¹ for the agricultural land use is 15 mg/kg. For the Alberta natural area land use, the wildlife SQGI is 50 mg/kg.



6.1.4 Guidelines for the Protection of Groundwater

No guidelines for protection of groundwater (freshwater life, livestock water and irrigation water) were derived for molybdenum due to restrictions on the mathematical model when applied to metals (CCME 2006).

6.1.5 Off-site Migration Guidelines for Commercial and Industrial Land Uses

The guideline for offsite migration (SQG_{OM-E}) is calculated for the commercial and industrial land uses to protect against transfer of contaminated soil to a more sensitive nearby property through processes such as wind and water erosion. CCME (2006) derived the following equation to evaluate this pathway, based on the Universal Soil Loss Equation and Wind Erosion Equation:

$$SQG_{OM-E} = 14.3 \times SQG_A - 13.3 \times BSC$$

Where,

SQG _{OM-E} =	enviro	onmental soil quality guideline for off-site migration (mg/kg)
SQGA	=	soil quality guideline for agricultural land use (15 mg/kg)
BSC	=	background concentration of chemical in receiving soil (1 mg/kg)

The resulting SQGOM-E for commercial and industrial land uses is 200 mg/kg.

6.1.6 Summary and Selection of the SQGE

The lowest ecological guideline for the agricultural land use is the SQG_I of 15 mg/kg. For all other land uses, the soil contact guideline is lowest. All mandatory pathways have been evaluated and therefore a SQG_E can be established.

6.1.7 Data Gaps in the Derivation of Environmental Soil Quality Guidelines

The data set for the direct soil contact pathway is considered to be robust, with several different plant and invertebrate species evaluated in multiple soil types using standard test protocols.

The nutrient and energy cycling guideline could not be calculated reliably, but the available data suggested it would likely be higher than the direct contact guideline.

Uncertainty in the soil and food ingestion pathway arises in part from limited information on bioaccumulation of molybdenum in plants. Furthermore, effects on livestock are not solely a function of molybdenum, but rather of the ratio of molybdenum to copper in diet. In areas where, due to geochemistry or plant species, high bioaccumulation of molybdenum occurs, the proposed guideline may not be protective. Therefore, when molybdenum contamination is present within topsoil on agricultural lands potentially used for grazing, site-specific evaluation of molybdenum concentrations in plants/feed may be warranted.



6.2 Human Health Soil Quality Guidelines

6.2.1 Estimated Daily Intakes

A background molybdenum concentration in soil of 1 mg/kg was selected based on the Geological Survey of Canada soil and till surveys (Grunsky, Rencz, and Adock 2012). These data represent a Canada-wide survey with extensive prairies soil data. The mean concentration was 1.4 mg/kg, but since more than 50% of concentrations were less than the detection limit of 1 mg/kg this value is considered to represent typical background exposure conditions. Areas with high background molybdenum should be evaluated on a site-specific basis.

Data on molybdenum concentrations in drinking water are limited as discussed in Section 2.4.3. Overall, it appears that concentrations are most often less than 1 μ g/L, which is frequently the detection limit; this concentration would also be consistent with those measured in the Great Lakes. Therefore 1 μ g/L is selected as a reasonable and likely slightly conservative background concentration.

Data on molybdenum in air published by Celo and Dabek-Zlotorzynska (2010) and Cheng et al. (2000) are considered to be representative of typical ambient air concentrations in Canada. The median or mean values at the study locations ranged from 0.03 to 1.0 ng/m³. The geometric mean of these measurements, approximately 0.16 ng/m³, is used for estimating typical background exposures. The same value is applied for indoor air due to the absence of actual indoor air data.

Molybdenum was included in the Canadian Total Diet Study between 1993 and 1999 (Health Canada 2011). Concentrations are summarized in Appendix D.

Receptor characteristics used for the Estimated Daily Intake (EDI) calculations are summarized in Table 2 below. The calculated EDI for molybdenum is summarized in Table 3. Background exposure to molybdenum is almost entirely dietary.

	Table 2	Receptor Characteristics for EDI Calculation ^a					
Age Group	0-6	0 5 4 777	E 11 - 14	10 10	20 64	651	
Characteristic	months	0.5 – 4 yr	5 – 11 yr	12 – 19 yr	20 – 64 yr	65+ yr	
Inhalation Rate (m3/day)	2.1	9.3	14.5	15.8	16.2	14.3	
Water Ingestion Rate (L/day)	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	
Soil & Dust Ingestion Rate (mg/day)	30	100	65	30	30	30	
Body Weight (kg)	7.5	15.5	31	59.4	70.9	72	
Time Spent Outdoors (day/day)	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	



	Table 2Receptor Characteristics for EDI Calculationa					
Age Group	0-6	0 5 4 117	E 11	1 7 10 mm	20 64 11	651
Characteristic	months	0.5 – 4 yr	5 – 11 yi	12 – 19 yl	20 – 64 yi	05+ yi
Time Spent Indoors (day/day)	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.875	0.875

a – values provided by Health Canada for EDI calculation (may not match values used for guideline calculation)

	Table 3	Estimated Intake (µg/kg-bw/d) of Molybdenum				
Age Group	Age Group		E 11	1 2 10	20 64 11	65+ vr
Route of Exposure	0-0 11011115	0.5 – 4 yr	5 – 11 yı	12 – 19 yi	20 – 64 yl	03+ yi
Ambient Air	5.6x10-6	1.2x10-5	9.4x10-6	5.3x10-6	4.6x10-6	4.0x10-6
Indoor Air	3.9x10-5	8.4x10-5	6.6x10-5	3.7x10 ⁻⁵	3.2x10 ⁻⁵	2.8x10 ⁻⁵
Drinking Water	0.027	0.013	0.013	0.0067	0.0056	0.0056
Food and Beverages ^a	10.8	8.3	6.0	3.4	2.5	2.3
Soil	0.004	0.0065	0.0021	0.00051	0.00042	0.00042
Total Intake	10.9	8.3	6.0	3.4	2.5	2.3

a – see Appendix C

6.2.2 Soil Guideline for Direct Contact with Soil

Direct human contact with soil is calculated for the agricultural, residential/parkland, commercial and industrial land uses. Since molybdenum is treated as a threshold substance a toddler is considered to be the most sensitive human receptor, except for the industrial land use where only adults are assumed to spend significant amounts of time (CCME 2006).

The direct contact guideline includes 3 separate exposure pathways: incidental soil ingestion, dermal contact with soil, and soil particulate inhalation. In the absence of separate TRVs for each exposure route, the pathways are combined into a single guideline calculation:

$$SQG_{DH} = \frac{(TDI - EDI) \times SAF \times BW}{[(AF_G \times SIR) + (AF_S \times SR) + (AF_L \times IR_S) \times ET_2] \times ET_1} + BSC$$

Where:



SQGdh	=	direct contact human health soil quality guideline (mg/kg)
TDI	=	tolerable daily intake (mg/kg-bw/d)
EDI	=	estimated daily intake (mg/kg-bw/d)
SAF	=	soil allocation factor (dimensionless)
BW	=	body weight (kg)
BSC	=	background soil concentration (mg/kg)
AFG	=	relative absorption factor for the gut (dimensionless)
AFL	=	relative absorption factor for the lung (dimensionless)
AFs	=	relative absorption factor for the skin (dimensionless)
SIR	=	soil ingestion rate (kg/d)
IRS	=	soil inhalation rate (kg/d)
SR	=	soil dermal contact rate (kg/d)
	=	(hand surface area x hand soil adherence factor) + (arm/leg surface area x
		arm/leg adherence factor) x events/day
\mathbf{ET}_1	=	exposure term 1 (dimensionless) – days per week/7 x weeks per year/52
ET_2	=	exposure term 2 (dimensionless) – hours per day/24

Input values are summarized in Table 4 below for each land use, along with the calculated guidelines.

Table 4 SQGDH Input Values for Each Land Use					
Parameter	Agricultural	Residential / Parkland	Commercial	Industrial	
TDI (mg/kg-bw/d)	0.023	0.023	0.023	0.028	
EDI (mg/kg-bw/d)	0.0083	0.0083	0.0083	0.0025	
SAF	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	
BW (kg)	16.5	16.5	16.5	70.7	
BSC (mg/kg)	1	1	1	1	
AFg	1	1	1	1	
AFL	1	1	1	1	
AFs	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	
SIR (kg/d)	0.00008	0.00008	0.00008	0.00002	

Table 4 SQGDH Input Values for Each Land Use					
Parameter	Agricultural	Residential / Parkland	Commercial	Industrial	
IRS (kg/d)	7.07x10-9	7.07x10-9	7.07x10-9	1.20x10-8	
SR (kg/d)	0.000069	0.000069	0.000069	0.00011	
ET1	1	1	0.66	0.66	
ET2	1	1 0.42		0.42	
SQGdh	600	600	910	26000	

6.2.3 Guideline for the Protection of Potable Groundwater

No guideline for protection of potable groundwater was derived for molybdenum due to restrictions on the mathematical model when applied to metals (CCME 2006).

6.2.4 Guideline for the Protection of Indoor Air Quality

Molybdenum is not a volatile chemical and therefore a guideline for the protection of indoor air quality is not required.

6.2.5 Produce, Meat and Milk Ingestion Check

The produce, meat and milk ingestion check is not normally calculated for inorganics (CCME 2006). Bioaccumulation of inorganics in food is highly affected by soil chemistry as well as specific plant species and can vary significantly between sites.

This pathway should be evaluated on a site-specific basis if food crops are grown in molybdenumcontaminated soils.

6.2.6 Off-site Migration Guidelines for Commercial and Industrial Land Uses

The guideline for offsite migration (SQG_{OM-HH}) is calculated for the commercial and industrial land uses to protect against transfer of contaminated soil to a more sensitive nearby property through processes such as wind and water erosion. CCME (2006) derived the following equation to evaluate this pathway, based on the Universal Soil Loss Equation and Wind Erosion Equation:

$$SQG_{OM-HH} = 14.3 \times SQG_A - 13.3 \times BSC$$

Where,

SQG_{OM-HH} = human health soil quality guideline for off-site migration (mg/kg)



SQGA	=	soil quality guideline for agricultural land use (600 mg/kg)
BSC	=	background concentration of chemical in receiving soil (1 mg/kg)

The resulting SQGOM-HH for commercial and industrial land uses is 8600 mg/kg.

6.2.7 Discussion of Uncertainties Associates with the Human Health Soil Quality Guidelines

The human health soil quality guidelines were derived using tolerable upper limits established by IOM and adopted by Health Canada. These values were based on a subchronic rat water ingestion study. There is some uncertainty associated with the extrapolation from subchronic to chronic exposures and rats to humans, although this is addressed through the use of uncertainty factors. Combined with the essentiality of molybdenum and the limited data on human toxicity, overall the tolerable upper limits are believed to be protective.

Further conservatism is introduced by the assumption that gastrointestinal absorption from soil is equivalent to gastrointestinal absorption in the critical toxicity study (i.e. from water). It is likely that absorption is lower from soil than water, but this has not been quantified.

Some components of the EDI are relatively uncertain due to the limited data on molybdenum concentrations in the environment. However, the EDI is dominated by food ingestion, which has been characterized as part of Canada's Total Diet Study; exposure from other environmental media appears to be negligible. The EDI is also significantly lower than the toxicity benchmarks. Therefore the uncertainty in the EDI is not expected to affect the resulting soil quality guidelines.

Soil guidelines have not been calculated based on uptake by plants and subsequent ingestion by humans. This pathway is not normally quantitatively evaluated for inorganics (CCME 2006), but can be a significant source of exposure if crops are grown directly in contaminated soils. If food crops are grown directly in soils with molybdenum contamination in the rooting zone, then this pathway may need to be evaluated on a site-specific basis.

7.0 DERIVATION OF THE FINAL SOIL QUALITY GUIDELINE

The final soil quality guideline (SQG_F) considers both environmental and human health.

7.1 Considerations Other than Toxicity

If there is evidence that a contaminant may cause significant adverse effects other than toxicity to human and ecological receptors, this evidence may be used to derive a soil quality guideline for management considerations (SQG_M). This may include aesthetic concerns, damage to infrastructure, explosive hazards, or mobile free-phase liquid formation.



There is no indication that significant adverse effects other than toxicity are of concern for molybdenum, and no SQG_M is proposed.

7.2 Evaluation Against Plant Nutritional Requirement, Geochemical Background and Practical Quantitation Limits

While molybdenum is an essential plant nutrient, the proposed guidelines are above minimum levels for plant growth. Similarly the proposed guidelines are above geochemical background at the majority of locations within Canada, and also above practical quantitation limits. Therefore no adjustment of the guidelines for these factors is necessary.

7.3 Final Soil Quality Guidelines

The guidelines are summarized in Table 5 below.



Table 5Soil Quality Guidelines for Molybdenum						
Pathway	Natural Area	Agricultural	Residential/ Parkland	Commercial	Industrial	
Guideline (SQGF)	32	15	32	55	55	
Human health guidelines						
SQGнн	NA	600	600	910	8,600	
Direct Contact (SQGDH)	NA	600	600	910	26,000	
Protection of Indoor Air Quality (SQGIAQ)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Protection of Potable Water (SQG _{PW})	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Off-site migration check (SQGом- нн)	NA	NA	NA	8,600	8,600	
Produce, meat & milk check (SQG _{FI})	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	
Environmental health guidelines						
SQG_E	32	15	32	55	55	
Soil contact (SQGsc)	32	32	32	55	55	
Soil and food ingestion (SQGI)	50	15	NA	NA	NA	
Protection of freshwater life (SQG _{FL})	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Livestock watering (SQGLW)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Irrigation water (SQGIR)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Nutrient and energy cycling (SQG _{NEC})	NC	NC	NC	NC	NC	
Off-site migration check (SQGOM-E)	NA	NA	NA	200	200	
SQG _M (non-toxicity considerations)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	
Interim soil quality criterion (CCME 1991)	4 (Alberta Tier 1)	5	10	40	40	



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