5. Summary of Data Reported

5.1 Exposure data

The term ‘talc’ refers to both mineral talc and industrial mineral products that contain mineral talc in proportions that range from about 35% to almost 100% and are marketed under the name talc. Mineral talc occurs naturally in many regions of the world where metamorphosed mafic and ultramafic rocks or magnesium carbonates occur. Mineral talc is usually platy but may also occur as asbestiform fibres. (Asbestiform refers to a habit (pattern) of mineral growth and not to the presence of other minerals. Asbestiform talc must not be confused with talc that contains asbestos.) Together with platy talc, asbestiform talc is found in the Gouverneur District of New York State, USA, and occasionally elsewhere; it may be associated with other minerals as observed by transmission electron microscopy.

Talc products vary in their particle size, associated minerals and talc content depending on their source and application. Minerals commonly found in talc products include chlorite and carbonate. Less commonly, talc products contain tremolite, anthophyllite and serpentine.

Mineral talc is valued for its softness, platyness, inertness and ability to absorb organic matter. It is used in agricultural products, ceramics, paint and other coatings, paper, plastics, roofing, rubber, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals and for waste treatment. Cosmetic talc, which contains more than 90% mineral talc, is present in many cosmetic products and is used for many purposes, including baby powders and feminine hygiene products. The type of talc that is currently used for cosmetic purposes in the USA does not contain detectable levels of amphibole, including asbestos. It is not known whether this is true in other countries.

Workers are exposed to talc during its mining and milling. Reported geometric mean exposure levels to respirable dust are typically in the range of 1–5 mg/m³. Workers may also be exposed in user industries, primarily in the rubber, pulp and paper and ceramics industries. Due to the presence of other particulates, exposure levels may be difficult to measure accurately. Consumer exposure by inhalation could occur during the use of loose powders that contain talc.

Accurate estimates of prevalence are not available. However, in some series of controls from epidemiological studies of ovarian cancer, the prevalence of use for feminine hygiene of body powders, baby powders, talcum powders and deodorizing powders, most of which contain cosmetic talc in varying amounts, has been reported to be as high as 50% in some countries. Perineal use for such purposes seems to have been a common practice in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, the USA and other countries, including Pakistan. Use of cosmetic talc in the USA has declined steadily since the late 1970s.
5.2 Human carcinogenicity data

The carcinogenic effect of exposure to talc not contaminated by asbestos fibres has been investigated in five independent but relatively small cohort studies of talc miners and millers in Austria, France, Italy, Norway and the USA. The miners and to a lesser extent the millers in these cohorts were also exposed to quartz. In a case–control study nested in the combined cohorts of talc workers from Austria and France, there was no tendency of higher risks for lung cancer by increasing cumulative exposure of workers to talc dust. In four of five studies, it was explicitly stated that no case of mesothelioma was observed. In the two studies from Italy and Norway, which included an estimate of cumulative exposure of the cohort to talc dust, the risk for lung cancer in the highest category was found to be close to or below unity. In the subgroup of miners in the study in the USA, an excess risk for lung cancer was found, which may be have been due to exposure in the workplace to radon daughters and quartz. In all the other groups of workers studied, there was no increased risk for lung cancer.

Female workers in the Norwegian pulp and paper industry had an increased risk for ovarian cancer, which, however, was attributed to exposure to asbestos. A community-based case–control study did not find an increased risk for ovarian cancer associated with occupational exposure to talc, but the prevalence of exposure was low.

Body powder containing talc has been used by women on the perineum (or genital area), on sanitary napkins and on diaphragms. In total, data from one prospective cohort study and 19 case–control studies were reviewed in the evaluation of the association of cosmetic talc use and the risk for ovarian cancer. The information collected on perineal talc use varied substantially by study (e.g. ever use versus regular use, and whether information on the mode of application, frequency or duration of use was available).

The cohort study was conducted among nurses in the USA and included 307 cases of ovarian cancer that occurred over 900 000 person–years of observation and a maximum of 14 years of follow-up. Information was collected on the frequency but not duration of regular use. Perineal use of talc was not associated with a risk for ovarian cancer.

The 20 case–control studies were conducted in Australia, Canada, China, Greece, Israel, Norway, the United Kingdom and the USA (nested case–control study), and included between 77 and 824 cases and 46 and 1367 controls. Five were hospital-based designs and the others were population-based studies. The Working Group designated a subset of these studies as being more informative based on the following characteristics: the study was population-based, was of a reasonable size, had acceptable participation rates and included information to allow control for potentially important confounders.

Eight population-based case–control studies from Australia, Canada (Ontario) and the USA (two non-overlapping studies in Boston, MA, and one each in California, Delaware Valley, eastern Massachusetts and New Hampshire and Washington State) were thereby identified as being more informative. The selected studies included at least 188 cases and had participation rates that generally ranged from 60 to 75%. Among these eight studies, the prevalence of use of body powder among controls ranged from 16 to 52%; however,
information on exposure was not collected in a comparable manner across studies. In addition, the frequency and duration of use or total lifetime applications were investigated in several studies as well as consideration of prior tubal ligation or simple hysterectomy. Only sparse data were available on whether women had used body powder before or after the mid-1970s.

The relative risks for ovarian cancer among users of body powder (versus non-users) were homogenous across this relatively diverse set of eight studies, each of which indicated a 30–60% increase in risk. Among the other 11 case–control studies, most also reported relative risks of this magnitude or higher. The subset of studies that assessed use of talc on a diaphragm were relatively uninformative due to their lack of precision.

Results on exposure–response relationships were presented in the cohort study and in seven of the more informative case–control studies. In the cohort study, no exposure–response trend was apparent. Positive exposure–response trends were apparent in the two Boston-based studies that presented the most comprehensive analysis. In the Canadian and Californian studies, a non-significant, weakly positive trend was observed for either duration or frequency of use, but not for both. In the other three case–control studies, no consistent trend was observed and the strongest associations tended to be seen among the shorter-term or less frequent talc users.

The cohort study and four of the eight more informative case–control studies presented results on histological type of ovarian cancer. When the analysis of the cohort study was restricted to the 160 serous invasive cases, a statistically significant increase in risk of about 40% was observed. The risk increased with increasing frequency of body powder use. Risks for serous ovarian cancer were somewhat greater than those for other histological types in two of the four case–control studies in which the contrast was reported. Results for other histological types were inconclusive.

The Working Group carefully weighed the various limitations and biases that could have influenced these findings. Non-differential misclassification of talc use, given the relatively crude definitions available, would have attenuated any true association. Although the available information on potential confounders varied by study, most investigators accounted for age, oral contraceptive use and parity. In most studies, only the adjusted relative risks were presented; however, in the three studies in which both age-adjusted and fully adjusted estimates were provided, relative risks did not differ materially, suggesting minimal residual confounding.

It is possible that confounding by unrecognized risk factors may have distorted the results. One or more such factors, if they are causes of ovarian cancer and also associated in the population with perineal use of talc, could induce the appearance of an association between the use of talc and ovarian cancer where there is none. In order for such an unrecognized risk factor to induce the consistent pattern of excess risks in all of the case–control studies, it would be necessary for the factor to be associated with perineal talc use across different countries and different decades. While the range of countries and decades covered by the more informative case–control studies is not very broad, it provides some
diversity of social and cultural context and thereby reduces the likelihood of a hidden confounder.

There was a distinct pattern of excess risk discernible in all of the case–control studies when users were compared with non-users; however, methodological factors needed to be considered. First, while chance cannot be ruled out as an explanation, it seemed very unlikely to be responsible for the consistent pattern of excess risks. A second possible explanation would be recall bias, to which case–control studies may be particularly susceptible. This may have been the case if there had been widespread publicity about the possible association between the use of body powder and cancer. In such circumstances, it is possible that women who had ovarian cancer could be more likely than women who did not to remember or over-report a habit, such as body powder use, if they thought that it may have played a role in their illness. There was a flurry of publicity in the USA in the mid-1970s concerning the possible risks for cancer posed by the use of talc-based body powders. Following an industry decision to market talc powders with no asbestos, it was the opinion of the Working Group that there had not been widespread public concern about this issue, at least until very recently. Therefore, the Working Group considered it unlikely that such a bias could explain the set of consistent findings that stretch over two decades. The Working Group believed that recall bias was a possibility inherent in the case–control studies and could not be ruled out. The Working Group also considered publication and selection biases and these were not judged to have substantially influenced the pattern of findings.

The Working Group searched for documentation on the presence of known hazardous minerals in talc-based body powders. There were strong indications that these products contained quartz in the mid-1970s and still do. There were also indications that occasional small concentrations of asbestos were present in these products before the mid-1970s, but the available information was sparse, sampling methods and detection limits were not described, and the range of locations where data were available was extremely limited. As a result, the Working Group found it difficult to identify a date before which talc-based body powders contained other hazardous minerals and after which they did not, or to have confidence that this would be applicable worldwide. In addition, the epidemiological studies generally do not provide information about the years during which the female subjects were exposed. Consequently, the Working Group could not identify studies in which an uncontaminated form of talc was the only one used by study subjects. Nevertheless, the Working Group noted that, even in the most recent studies in the USA, where exposure histories may have been much less affected by hazardous contaminants of talc, the risk estimates were not different from the early studies in which the possibility of such exposure was more likely.

To evaluate the evidence on whether perineal use of talc causes an increased risk for ovarian cancer, the Working Group noted the following:

- The eight more informative case–control studies, as well as most of the less informative ones, provided overall estimates of excess risk that were remarkably consistent; seven of these eight case–control studies examined exposure–response
relationships; two provided evidence supporting such a relationship, two provided mixed evidence and three did not support an association.

• The cohort study neither supports nor strongly refutes the evidence from the case–control studies.

• Case–control studies were susceptible to recall bias which could tend to inflate risk estimates but to an unknown degree.

• All of the studies were susceptible to other potential biases which could either increase or decrease the association.

• All of the studies involved some degree of non-differential misclassification of exposure that would tend to underestimate any true underlying association.

5.3 Animal carcinogenicity data

Talc of different grades was tested for carcinogenicity in mice by inhalation exposure, intrathoracic, intraperitoneal and subcutaneous injection, in rats by inhalation exposure, intrathoracic injection, intraperitoneal injection, oral administration and intrapleural and ovarian implantation, and in hamsters by inhalation exposure and intratracheal injection.

In male and female rats exposed by inhalation to a well-defined talc, the incidence of alveolar/bronchiolar carcinoma or adenoma and carcinoma (combined) was significantly increased in female rats. The incidence of adrenal medulla pheochromocytomas (benign, malignant or complex (combined)) showed a significant positive trend and the incidence in high-dose males and females was significantly greater than that in controls. The incidence of malignant pheochromocytomas was also increased in high-dose females. The Working Group did not consider it probable that the increased incidence of pheochromocytomas was causally related to talc but, based on the experimental data available, neither could talc-related effects be excluded.

Tumour incidence was not increased following the intrapleural or intrathoracic administration of a single dose of various talcs to rats. In two studies of intraperitoneal administration in rats, no increase in the incidence of mesotheliomas was observed. No increased incidence of tumours was produced in rats in two studies of talc administered in the diet or in another study of the implantation of talc on to the ovary.

Tumour incidence was not increased in mice following the inhalation of talc in one study, the intrathoracic administration of a single dose of various talcs in another study or the administration of talc by intraperitoneal injections in three studies. A single subcutaneous injection of talc into mice did not produce local tumours.

Tumour incidence was not increased following inhalation or intratracheal administration of talc to hamsters.

5.4 Mechanistic considerations and other relevant data

Different mechanisms are probably operative in the effects of talc on the lung and pleura, depending on the route of exposure.
In humans, deposition, retention and clearance of talc have been insufficiently studied, although talc particles have been found at autopsy in the lungs of talc workers.

In humans and experimental animals, the effects of talc are dependent on the route of exposure, and the dose and properties of the talc. Talc pneumoconiosis was somewhat more prevalent and severe among miners exposed to talc containing asbestiform minerals and/or asbestos than among those exposed to talc without such contaminants. However, the role of quartz and asbestos in the observed pneumoconiosis could not be ruled out. Among drug users, intravenous injection of talc present as a filler in the drugs resulted in microembolization in a variety of organs and alterations in pulmonary function.

In animal studies, talc has been shown to cause granulomas and mild inflammation when inhaled. Observations of the effects that occurred in the lungs of rats exposed by inhalation to talc suggested that the operative mechanisms may be similar to those identified for carbon black, and talc is known to cause the release of cytokines, chemokines and growth factors from pleural mesothelial cells.

In humans, intrapleural administration of talc as a therapeutic procedure results in pleural inflammation which leads to pleural fibrosis and symphysis. Pleural fibrosis is the intended effect of intrapleural administration of talc in patients with malignant pleural effusions or pneumothorax. Animal studies suggested that extrapulmonary transport of talc following pleurodesis increases with decreasing particle size and increasing administered dose. Talc has been shown to cause apoptosis of malignant cells in vitro.

Perineal exposure to cosmetic talc in women is of concern because of its possible association with ovarian cancer. Several studies have been conducted in women to assess potential retrograde movement of particles through the reproductive tract to the ovaries. These have been conducted in women who were about to undergo gynaecological surgery, most of whom had diseases or complications of the reproductive tract and organs that required surgery. The findings reported in these studies may be confounded by the various levels of dysfunction in clearance from the female reproductive tract due to underlying pathologies. In addition, most of the studies had little or no further information on the use of talc products for perineal hygiene or changes in habits that may have preceded surgery. On balance, the Working Group believed that the evidence for retrograde transport of talc to the ovaries in normal women is weak. In women with impaired clearance function, some evidence of retrograde transport was found. Studies in animals (rodents, langomorphs and non-human primates) showed no evidence of retrograde transport of talc to the ovaries.

In one study, predictors of the presence of antibodies to mucin protein were inversely related to the risk for ovarian cancer and exposure to powder containing talc.

No data were available on the genotoxic effects of exposure to talc in humans. The limited number of studies available on the genetic toxicology of talc in vitro gave negative results.