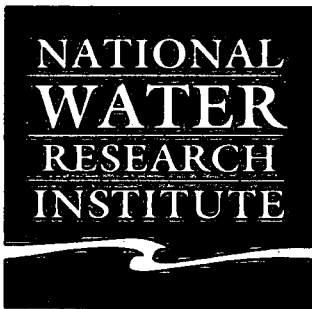
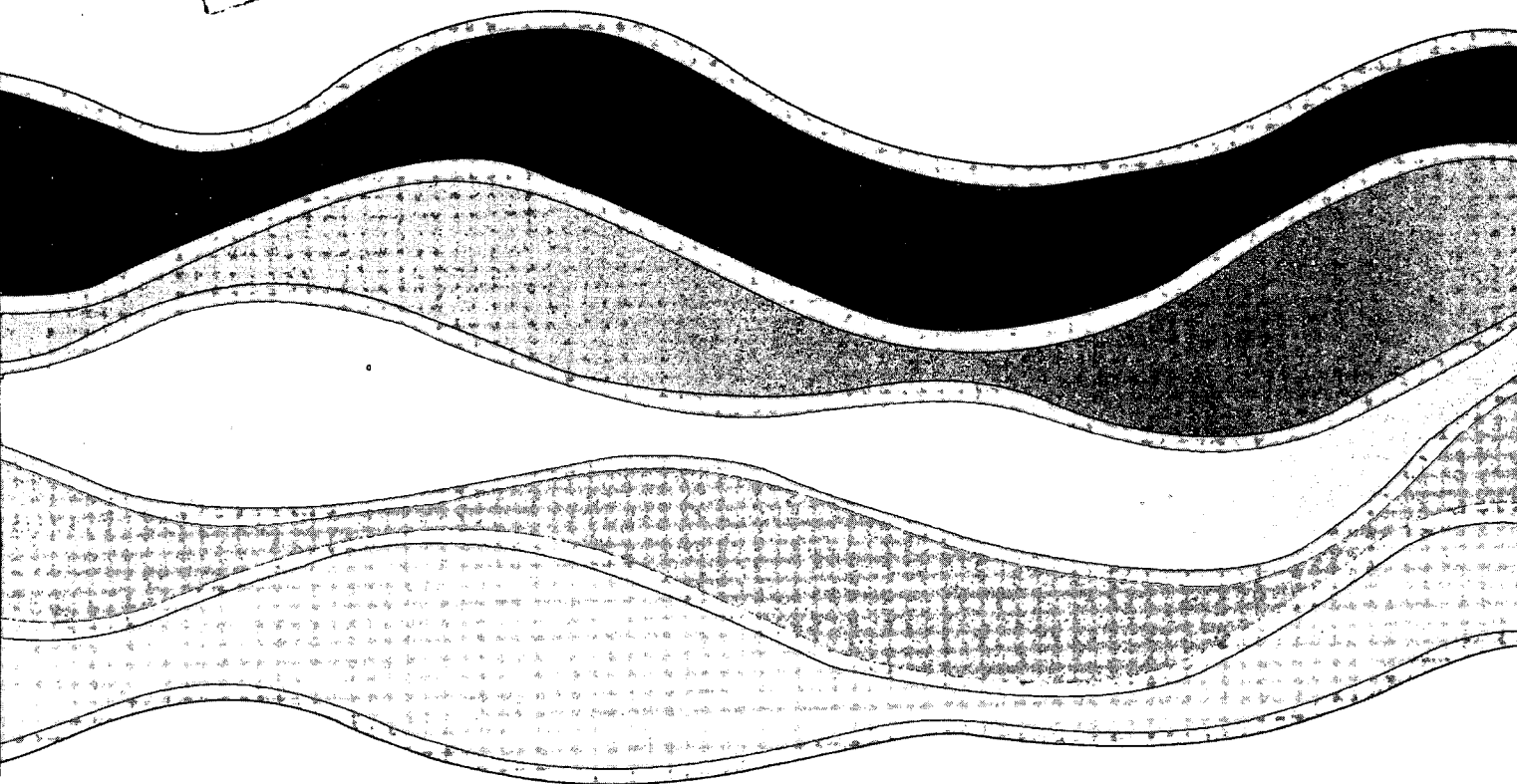


95-75 c1



CCIW
NOV 10 1995
LIBRARY

A rectangular library stamp with a double border, containing the text 'CCIW', the date 'NOV 10 1995', and the word 'LIBRARY'.

**RISK ASSESSMENT FOR PESTICIDES AND
THEIR METABOLITES IN WATER**

S. Galassi, A. Provini and E. Halfon

NWRI CONTRIBUTION NO. 95-75

TD
226
N87
No. 95-
75
c.1

Risk assessment for pesticides and their metabolites in water

Silvana Galassi¹, Alfredo Provini¹, Efraim Halfon²

¹University of Milan, Biology Department, Via Celoria 26, 20133 Milano, Italy.

²National Water Research Institute, Burlington, Ontario, Canada.

Key words: pesticides, pesticide metabolites, ranking model, water.

NWRI CONTRIBUTION NO. 95-75

MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

This paper studies the environmental hazard of pesticides and their metabolites by comparing the relative risk, computed with a Canadian ranking method, with results from monitoring programs in Germany, the U.K. and Italy. Results show that the percentage of positive findings in the field decreases from class 1 to 6 of priority in agreement with the theoretical predictions. Protection against pesticide pollution can be achieved with an improvement of the analytical methodology driven by predictive models that allow to identify priority pollutants. Pesticides can metabolize into breakdown products which, in some cases, are equally or more dangerous than the parent compounds, thus, according to European Council Directives pesticide metabolic pathway and metabolite (eco)toxicological evaluation are two fundamental steps of the procedure required for registration; the problem of the hundreds of pesticides already in use can be approached with some general rules to identify priority metabolites within those already in use. A final answer can not be given, however some procedures can be undertaken to minimize research efforts and direct them towards the most dangerous metabolites. An application of our ranking model to pesticide metabolites could be done if the amounts released into the environment were known and variables governing their environmental fate be determined.

SOMMAIRE À L'INTENTION DE LA DIRECTION

Le présent article étudie le danger des pesticides et de leurs métabolites pour l'environnement en comparant le risque relatif, calculé à l'aide d'une méthode canadienne de classement par ordre de priorité, avec des résultats provenant de programmes de surveillance appliqués en Allemagne, au R.-U. et en Italie. Les résultats montrent que le pourcentage des résultats positifs sur le terrain diminue de la catégorie 1 de priorité à la catégorie 6, conformément aux prévisions théoriques. On peut se protéger contre la pollution par les pesticides en améliorant les méthodes d'analyse fournies par les modèles prévisionnels qui permettent de déterminer quels sont les polluants d'intérêt prioritaire. Comme les pesticides peuvent se métaboliser en produits de dégradation qui, dans certains cas, sont aussi dangereux, ou même plus, que les composés parents, il faut, selon les Directives du Conseil européen, passer par deux étapes fondamentales dans le processus d'homologation de ces produits : évaluer les voies métaboliques des pesticides et déterminer les propriétés (éco)toxicologiques de leurs métabolites. On peut énoncer certaines règles générales pour déterminer les métabolites d'intérêt prioritaire parmi les centaines de pesticides déjà utilisés. On ne peut pas donner de réponse définitive, mais on peut prendre des mesures pour réduire les efforts de recherche et les orienter vers les métabolites les plus dangereux. On pourrait appliquer notre modèle de classement par ordre de priorité aux métabolites des pesticides si on connaissait les quantités libérées dans l'environnement et si l'on pouvait déterminer les variables qui régissent leur devenir dans l'environnement.

ABSTRACT

A method based on Hasse diagrams is adopted to detect priority pesticides among the 130 most commonly used in Europe. Hasse diagrams rank pesticides in groups of potential hazard to the water environment, according to pesticide properties (water solubility, vapour pressure and persistence in soil) and usages. The procedure is applied on a territorial scale, selecting Germany, U.K. and Italy as case studies, and validated with the experimental results of monitoring programs. Most of the pesticides ranked as a first priority by the model and analyzed for in water were effectively found. The percentage of positive findings decreases from class 1 to 6 of priority in agreement with the theoretical predictions. The model suggests that each country must develop its own analytical protocol addressed to the detection of the most "probable" pesticides. Pesticide metabolites of Italian priority pesticides are appraised in detail and their risk is assessed according to their occurrence in surface and ground water, persistence estimated from field data and ecotoxicity data. The proposed procedure can steer research efforts towards compounds that really represent a risk for human health and aquatic life.

RÉSUMÉ

Une méthode basée sur les diagrammes de Hasse a été adoptée pour déceler les pesticides d'intérêt prioritaire parmi les 130 pesticides les plus couramment utilisés en Europe. Les diagrammes de Hasse classent les pesticides en groupes représentant un danger éventuel pour le milieu aquatique, en fonction des propriétés des pesticides (solubilité dans l'eau, tension de vapeur et rémanence dans le sol) et de leurs usages. La méthode est appliquée à l'échelle de pays, l'Allemagne, le R.-U. et l'Italie ayant été choisis pour les études de cas, et elle est validée avec les résultats expérimentaux des programmes de surveillance. La plupart des pesticides classés par le modèle dans la catégorie de priorité 1 et qui ont fait l'objet d'une analyse dans l'eau y ont effectivement été mesurés. Le pourcentage des résultats positifs a diminué de la catégorie de priorité 1 à la catégorie 6, conformément aux prévisions théoriques. Le modèle indique que chaque pays doit élaborer son propre protocole d'analyse pour déceler les pesticides les plus «probables». Les métabolites des pesticides classés comme présentant un intérêt prioritaire en Italie sont étudiés en détail et leur risque est évalué en fonction de leur présence dans les eaux de surface et les eaux souterraines, ainsi que de leur rémanence déterminée à partir de données recueillies sur le terrain et des données d'écotoxicité. La méthode proposée peut orienter les efforts de recherche vers les composés qui représentent réellement un risque pour la santé humaine et la vie aquatique.

INTRODUCTION

Pesticides designed to kill target organisms can be dangerous to wildlife and human health. The global use of pesticides is expanding in scale and intensity and, although we know some environmental consequences, most potential impacts are not understood. Their widespread diffusion is related to the fact that they are applied directly to the environment and are likely to reach surface and ground water through soil runoff and leaching. One can take advantage of this unfavourable circumstance by using the pesticide application rates in predictive models to forecast their distribution in the environmental compartments¹. Moreover, usage data might be introduced in ranking models designed to identify priority pesticides on a territorial basis. The aim of our model², based on Hasse diagrams, is the protection of a target compartment (water, air, soil, biota) according to the selected pesticide properties (persistence, solubility, volatility and so on). This model offers the advantage of giving indications of the relative importance of criteria used for ranking. It is a tool to set the analytical protocols in monitoring programs and to select priority pesticides to be submitted to revision or supplementary testing.

Furthermore, pesticides can metabolize into breakdown products which, in some cases, are equally or more dangerous than the parent compounds. The problem is well known since the discovery of DDT pollution: DDE and DDD, its main metabolites, had a very similar environmental fate. In this case, metabolite detection was easy to achieve because the same extraction and analytical procedure could be applied for all of them. Unfortunately, this is not the case for most of the modern pesticides and a common feeling of the scientific community is

that metabolite problem is under-evaluated for a lack of knowledge on their environmental occurrence and on their (eco)toxicological properties.

In spite of this gap, or perhaps because of this, authorities' attention is directed towards the pesticide metabolite problem. According to Council Directive 91/414/EEC³, concerning the placing of plant protection products on the market, pesticide metabolic pathway and metabolite (eco)toxicological evaluation are two fundamental steps of the procedure required for registration.

In this context, "relevant metabolites" are defined as "those degradation products which are identified as having the same toxic mechanism of action as the active ingredient or as being biologically active on the basis of (eco)toxicological testing or which occur in quantities of more than 10% of the originally applied dosages⁴.

Thus in the case of new pesticides, the missing information in metabolite environmental behaviour should be fulfilled soon, but how can the problem of the hundreds of pesticides already in use be approached? Given the magnitude of the cost and the time required to study the metabolism and the biological activity of metabolites, evidently that some general rules have to be employed to identify priority pesticides and priority metabolites within those already in use. A final answer can not be given, however some procedures can be undertaken to minimize the research effort and direct it towards the most dangerous metabolites.

An application of our ranking model to pesticide metabolites could be done only if the amounts released into the environment were known and variables governing their environmental fate be determined. Otherwise, at least in the case of existing pesticides, much more useful

information can be obtained by a review of the available data on pesticide metabolite occurrence and by an improvement of the analytical procedures aimed to identify them.

METHODS

Model: Hasse diagrams in environmental assessment

To identify which pesticide might be the object of field research we have used a ranking method based on Hasse diagrams; the textbooks of Harary⁵, Preparata and Yeh⁶, and Davey and Priestley⁷ present useful background information on graphs, sets, partially ordered sets (posets) and Hasse diagrams. Hasse diagrams avoid the loss of information that occurs when data are aggregated into a ranking index. The use of an index has the disadvantage that information from each test is lost because it is aggregated. The details of the method have been published extensively in the last 10 years; Hasse diagrams have been used to rank chemicals according to environmental hazard^{2,8}, to compare waste disposal sites⁹, to compare mathematical models^{10,11,12}, in QSAR studies^{13,14}, in problems of regional pollution^{15,16} and in the evaluation of data sources¹⁷.

Hasse diagrams, oriented graphs (acyclic digraphs), visualize the order relations of posets. A digraph consists of a set E of objects drawn as circles in Hasse diagrams. In our applications the circles near the top of the Hasse diagram indicate chemicals that seem to be the most hazardous according to the criteria used to rank them. We use the word "seem" rather than "are" because when objects in a Hasse diagram are not connected by a line they can not be compared. A line in the Hasse diagram indicates that the two objects (the two chemicals) connected by that line are "comparable" with each other, lack of sequences of connecting lines indicates that there

are contradictions in the ranking according to the different criteria; these two chemicals are "incomparable", since they have different physical-chemicals properties (a complete explanation with examples may be found in Halfon and Reggiani²).

The number of levels in a Hasse diagram is, qualitatively, a rough measure of objects that are comparable to each other because, if the number of objects is the same, more levels mean more comparable objects.

The environmental fate of pesticides is determined by their physical-chemical properties, persistence in soil and their usage. A bibliography search has shown that a quantitative approach to evaluate which of these criteria have the greatest influence on the occurrence of pesticides in surface waters has never been tried. The criteria we use for ranking are persistence, water solubility, vapour pressure and yearly usage; mathematically these criteria are stored as vectors with four elements. We also investigate the relation between the identification of the most hazardous pesticides through ranking and through identification in the field.

Persistence and volatility are the properties that mainly influence the occurrence of a compound in soil and water. Water solubility gives indications on the mobility from soil to the surface waters. Other properties usually considered in the environmental models (e. g. Kow and Koc) are not needed because are correlated with water solubility^{8,18}.

Data

Within the European Community three countries were selected from different geographical areas with different climates and presumably different agriculture practices. Also the availability of occurrence data in surface and ground water was considered. Table 1 shows the pesticides used in three countries in amounts above 50 t/y. Usage data refer to 1989 for Germany, 1988 for U.K., 1986-87 for Italy. They were taken from Fielding et al.¹⁹ along with the occurrence data; some additional sale data for Italy were taken from the Italian National Statistics Office^{20,21}.

Properties are half-life in soil, water solubility and vapour pressure. Their values are taken from the Agrochemical Handbook²² and from two databases^{23,24}. Vapour pressure was handled as inverse quantity due to the improvement of the soil if the vapour pressure is high (volatilization from soil). Therefore, the vector half-life in soils, water solubility and (with a negative sign) vapour pressure describes the environmental hazard in surface waters.

Experimental

Well waters samples (1L) were collected at Dalmine (Bergamo, Italy) from May to July 1995. They were extracted on LiChrolut (Merck) cartridges (3ml). Elution was done with 1 ml of ethylacetate. Eluates were analyzed using a C. Erba 8000 series with a NPD selective detector. A fused silica capillary column CP-Sil 8 (50 m X 0.25 mm I.D), film thickness 25 mm, was used in the following conditions: carrier gas, helium, 1 ml/min, oven temperature 100 °C, 1 min,

followed by two programmed temperature steps from 100 to 180 °C, 20 °C/min and from 180 to 270 °C, 1.5 °C/min. The samples (1 ml) were injected with a manual on-column system. Recovery efficiency on the LiChrolut columns, tested on spiked samples, ranged between 90-100% for all the analyzed compounds.

96h acute toxicity on rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) of 2,6-diethylaniline (Alltech) was determined according to OECD Guidelines²⁵.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Case studies

Germany: This country has the most comprehensive data record on pesticide occurrence. About 170 pesticides and pesticide metabolites were monitored in ground and surface waters and 60 of them were detected. We considered as positive findings those compounds which were found in more than 1% of the samples analyzed for. Conversely, sales data are rather approximate since they indicate only usage ranges and a common upper value (> 1000 t/y) for major pesticides. In our modelling study the highest value of the range was chosen in the former case and an arbitrary value of 2000 t/y was taken in the latter case. The Hasse diagram applied to the German data is shown in Fig. 1.

United Kingdom: Occurrence data of pesticides refer to drinking water without any specification between surface water supplies and ground water. Usage data introduced in our predictive model refer to applications in agriculture. However non agricultural uses seem to be

very important: for instance atrazine, which is not employed in agriculture, is the pesticide more frequently found in ground water at levels above 0.1 mg/L. The Hasse diagram for the U.K. scenario is shown in Fig. 2.

Italy: Occurrence data, that refer both to surface and drinking water, were taken from a literature survey and not from a systematic monitoring done by a public Authority. Usage data are derived from annual sales and represent the amount of active ingredient for all the compounds with exception of fungicides, because only data on commercial formulations are known. The Hasse diagram is shown in Fig. 3.

Comparison of expected and detected pesticides

The validity of our ranking scheme is obtained by comparison of chemicals found in the field and those ranked as hazardous. A threshold of 0.1 mg/L was set for validating the model.

Most of the pesticides ranked as a first priority by the model and analyzed for in water were effectively found. The percentage of positive findings decreases from class 1 to 6 of priority in agreement with the theoretical predictions (Table 2). This fact is in favour of a correct choice of the attributes and of the suitability of the model to rank pesticides.

Only two pesticides, TCA and prochloraz, ranked in first priority by the model in Germany and monitored in water, were never found at levels higher than 0.1 mg/L. Since both compounds were analyzed a few times (2 to 5 times) in comparison to other pesticides such as

triazines (3000 to 4000 times), the monitoring effort was certainly not appropriate to detect them. In the U.K. TCA was detected in ground water at concentration exceeding 0.1 mg/L. U.K. occurrence data do not include surface waters and no indication of the sought compounds are given. For these reasons the ratio between found and analyzed compounds was not calculated.

The validation of the model is obviously partial for the lack of analytical information about those priority pesticides that were never monitored in water. For these compounds it is impossible to verify whether the ranking position given by the Hasse diagram is correct. The lack of data is partially due to the unavailability of a suitable analytical procedure but it might be due also to an underestimation of the environmental threat of some pesticides. If this is the case, the Hasse diagram, our model, could be used to design a monitoring protocol that better fit with the regional situation.

A second order of problems arises from those pesticides which are actually found in water, particularly in ground water, and not included as input data of the model as they do not appear in the EEC list¹⁹ of compounds used in amounts above 50 t/y. Some of the pesticides found are unexpected because they are not used any more in agriculture and have a poor tendency to leach (e.g. aldrin, endrin, dieldrin, HCB, DDT, heptachloroepoxide), but some further investigations are needed to confirm the occurrence of these pesticides. The majority of the other unexpected pesticides are probably used in amounts less than 50 t/y for specific local applications or are found in specific highly vulnerable sites. No further assumptions were made on this subject because information on usage data is incomplete and not recorded systematically and routinely.

Comparison of the three case studies

From the comparison of first priority pesticides in Germany, Great Britain and Italy we find that only two, mancozeb and TCA, are common to all the three countries. A third compound, atrazine, a priority compound in Italy and Germany, should be added because it was not included in the U.K. list due to the lack of sales data in agriculture; nevertheless atrazine is frequently found in water in this country, coming mainly from non-agricultural uses.

Germany and U.K. have ten priority pesticides in common; conversely Italy differs much more than the other two countries in the use of pesticides. A general feature of this comparison is that each country must develop its own analytical protocol directed to the detection of the most "probable" pesticides and their transformation products.

Within the list of the Italian priority pesticides (Fig. 3) there are some compounds such as "quats", metham-Na and ziram for which there is no method available that is capable of monitoring samples at the limit level of 0.1 mg/L. More effort should be put into developing analytical methods for these compounds and/or for the identification of their metabolites. Mancozeb poses the same analytical problems, as other dithiocarbamates, but as it is known to be transformed into ETU (ethylene bis thiourea), a very dangerous and leachable compound, thus the analytical effort should be focussing on this metabolite more than the parent compound.

Besides ETU, also chloridazon and dalapon should be included in the monitoring programs in Italy since a suitable procedure is available.

The tremendous analytical effort done by Germany, where about 170 pesticides and metabolites were monitored, allows a better covering of the list of most hazardous pesticides given by the model. Nevertheless, at least three of 14 first priority pesticides were never monitored (glyphosate, propiconazole, tridemorph), in addition to two compounds for which no analytical method is available (mancozeb and benazolin) and TCA. As said before, only two measurements were done for TCA, which should occur in water only shortly after the application period, given its very high solubility. In a comparative review of pesticide survey in Germany²⁶ it was concluded that there exists a lack of congruence between pesticide application and pesticide monitoring.

As a general statement, it appears clear that a better water protection against pesticide pollution can be achieved with an improvement of the analytical methodology motivated by predictive models for the identification of priority pollutants.

Metabolite assessment

An interesting feature of the analysis of the data on occurrence in water is that some metabolites are frequently encountered in many European countries. The most common ones are the triazine metabolites, also because they are detected by the same procedure as the parent compounds. Conversely some metabolites such as ETU, which is a transformation product of maneb and related compounds, were inserted in the analytical protocols because their genotoxicity is well known.

In general the toxicity to man and environmental properties of metabolites are not known, but some transformation products can be more persistent, leachable and toxic than the parent compound. For this reason it was recommended by the EC Task Group¹⁹ that information be gathered on the identity of transformation products of major-use pesticides as well as their environmental properties. This is not accomplished yet and so no modelling approach can be applied to rank these compounds.

Given the complexity of the problem, the lack of information and our better knowledge of the Italian situation, the evaluation of the risk associated to metabolites will be restricted here to this country, considering only first priority parent compounds.

Pesticide metabolism in soils for most of these compounds has been widely studied and is known to generate a number of potential pollutants to surface and ground water. This discussion will be focused on those already detected in some real aquatic environment. Table 3 shows occurrence data in Europe.

Linuron, metolachlor and terbuthylazine were found only in surface waters in Italy. However, recent studies undertaken in the framework of the EC Project EV-5V-CT92-0061 in ground water of an area selected because it was previously polluted by atrazine, demonstrated the occurrence of metolachlor and terbuthylazine at 40 m depth (Table 4). Terbuthylazine and metolachlor substituted atrazine in many agricultural applications only in recent years Linuron is known to degrade into 3,4 dichloroaniline, a mutagenic metabolite occasionally detected in surface waters²⁷. However, the source of this pollution is uncertain and not unequivocally related

to the parent compound, as it is also an industrial pollutant. Terbutylazine major metabolite is desethylterbutylazine already found in European ground water, but not yet in Italy.

Metolachlor metabolites have been identified in soil but most of them need a confirmation. Their persistence and occurrence in water are a further task of the researches carried out in the mentioned EC Project.

Atrazine is undoubtedly the most widespread herbicide and the most frequently detected in ground water. For this reason it was banned or regulated in many European Countries. In this respect it is very interesting to assess the degree of recovery of aquifers after the implementation of these measures. In the study area selected in Lombardy (Italy) for pesticide surveying, atrazine has been forbidden since 1986. At that time many wells were monitored and they were closed in the case of heavy pollution or provided with active carbon filters. One of them is still in use and a comparison can be done between present and past levels of atrazine and other herbicides. Unfortunately triazine metabolites were not analyzed in the past. Atrazine and simazine, monitored about monthly in 1987 from February to December²⁸, were in the range of 0.25-0.46 mg/L and 0.00-0.07 mg/L, respectively. Terbutylazine was always below the detection limit (10 ng/L), however terbutylazine and metolachlor replaced atrazine in many agricultural applications only in recent years.

From the comparison between the average values of atrazine in the past and in the recent survey (Table 4), aquifer restoration appears to be very slow. A half-life in soil of two months is reported for atrazine in the literature, but its persistence in subsoils and ground water, where

bacterial activity is low or negligible, is probably much higher.

Atrazine metabolites, particularly DEA, seem to be more persistent than the parent compound even if their half-lives are unknown²⁹. In Canadian studies DEA was measured at a constant concentration about one year after application³⁰. In the River Po water³¹ DEA was always detected together with the parent compound and the maximum level was measured in January, long after the application period and when the atrazine concentration was decreasing. The other main transformation product of atrazine dealkylation is DIP (2-chloro-4,6-diamino-s-triazine), which has been measured in concentrations comparable with those of DEA (Table 4). However, these metabolites can derive also from the breakdown of other triazines²⁹.

It can be noted that the levels of simazine in ground water are now much higher than those detected in 1987 (0.00-0.07 mg/L), indicating a growing usage of this herbicide in this area, besides its occurrence as an impurity of atrazine formulation.

Alachlor has headed the list of herbicide sale in Italy after the banning of atrazine. At present this compound is under discussion because, in consideration of its carcinogenic activity in mammals, it was included in the list of the 90 pesticides to be revised³. It is moderately mobile and relatively non persistent and therefore it should be much less leachable than atrazine. In fact, extensive studies³² performed in the USA in areas where both compounds were used in agriculture demonstrated that alachlor occurs in ground water less frequently than atrazine. Studies on biodegradation of alachlor in soil showed that many breakdown products are formed,

more polar and presumably more leachable than the parent compound³³. Recent studies undertaken in the framework of the EC Project EV-5V-VT92-0061 showed little or negligible biodegradation in surface water. In spite of this, about 20 compounds related to alachlor were found. Some of them were in common with soil metabolites. The confirmation by synthesis is still in progress and requires a lot of time. To optimize efforts towards those metabolites that are environmentally more hazardous, we analyzed surface waters of an agricultural area to find out the metabolites actually present, confirming them by means of mass-spectra fitting. Results show that 2,6-diethylaniline is the main alachlor metabolite in surface waters. It is even more soluble than alachlor (670 mg/L)³⁴ and thus more mobile, increasing the risk for ground water contamination.

2,6-diethylaniline acute toxicity is lower than that of alachlor: we measured a 96h LC50 on rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) of 21 mg/L compared to 1.8 mg/L reported for alachlor³³. Nevertheless, 2,6-diethylaniline seems to be a precursor of a mutagenic compound in mammal metabolism and its occurrence in ground water might be a risk for human health³⁵.

Bentazone is used in much smaller amounts than alachlor; however it is employed mainly in rice fields, which are located exclusively in Northern Italy. Here bentazone concentrations up to 39 mg/L were found in ground water and levels exceeding 0.1 mg/L were measured in 94 of the 131 wells analyzed in 1987³⁶. This contradicts what was reported in a recent review on bentazone environmental behaviour by Huber and Otto³⁷, who state that this herbicide poses no risk to ground water or drinking water because it is retained by fresh organic material and roots, photodegraded and rapidly biodegraded. The same holds for the two metabolites deriving from

the microbially induced degradation (6-hydroxybentazone and 8-hydroxybentazone). According to Huber and Otto³⁷, they should not occur in soil because both are further metabolized, more quickly than they can be produced from bentazone by hydroxylation. In fact, 8-hydroxybentazone was detected in the Ebro delta (Spain), another area of rice cultivation³⁸. On the other hand, Chiron et al.³⁸ are the first to set up a method enabling the detection of bentazone hydroxy derivatives. To verify whether these metabolites are present also in ground water in Italy, a SPE extraction procedure was set up employing Isolute-SAX cartridges (Stepbio, Italy), which allow a quantitative recovery of bentazone and its two metabolites. Extracts are analyzed by HPLC-MS. A sampling campaign of wells polluted by bentazone is now in progress in our laboratory.

CONCLUSIONS

The modelling approach is an useful tool to select priority pesticides on national scale for monitoring purposes and administrative measures. Right now it has some limitations mainly due to uncertainties of input data such as usages, physical-chemical properties and persistence. Moreover, this tool has to be carefully applied because some pesticides intensively employed on limited areas for specific cultures can be classified at low priority level to even be of concern. This is for example the case of molinate in Northern Italy that is classified at the second level of priority and posed threat for drinking water purposes, so that the limit has been raised to 0.3 mg/L. Therefore, when a country presents a variety of climates and different cultivations from a region to another, the ranking model will better fit on a regional scale³⁹.

Concerning metabolites, new perspectives are offered by the recent SPE preconcentration

techniques that allow a better recovery of polar compounds and by HPLC-MS, suitable to analyze these compounds without the need of derivatization. Another advantage of HPLC is that, working in reverse-phase, the metabolite retention time is related to their polarity and consequently to their water solubility⁴⁰. The exit order of peaks can give an idea of the leachability in comparison to the parent compound.

However, since it is not possible to apply ranking models to metabolites due to the lack of knowledge about properties and amounts entering the environment, some other ways to facilitate the analytical research have to be found. One of these might be the use of mass spectra obtained in metabolic studies as fingerprints for detection of relevant metabolites in the real environment. Another approach, already tested in the Po River⁴¹, is to perform (eco)toxicological assays on water extract and address the analysis only to the most toxic ones.

Acknowledgements

This work was partially supported by the Commission of the European Communities (EC Project EV-5V-VT92-0061).

REFERENCES

1. D. Mackay and S. Paterson, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 25, 427-436 (1991)
2. E. Halfon and M. G. Reggiani, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 20, 1173-1179 (1986).
3. Council Directive 91/414/EEC, *Official Journal of the European Communities*, L 230, 34, 1-32 (1991).
4. A. W. Klein and J. Goedicke, *Chemosphere*, 26, 979-1001 (1993).
5. F. Harary, *Graph Theory* (Addison-Wasley, Reading, Mass., 1969) 215 pp.
6. F. P. Preparate and R. T. Yeh, *Introduction to Discrete Structures* (Addison-Wesley, Reading, Mass., 1973) 200 pp.
7. B. A. Davey and H. A. Priestley, *Introduction to Lattices and Order* (Cambridge Mathematical Textbooks, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 1990) 248 pp.
8. R. Brüggeman and E. Halfon, *Sci. Tot. Environ.*, 97/98, 827-837 (1990).
9. E. Halfon, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 23, 600-609 (1989).
10. M. G. Reggiani, and F. E. Marchetti, *IEEE Trans. Systems Man Cyber.*, SMC-5, 322-330 (1975).
11. E. Halfon, *Ecological Modelling*, 20, 135-152 (1983).
12. E. Halfon, *Ecological Modelling*, 20, 153-163 (1983).
13. R. Brüggeman and J. Altschuh, *Sci. Tot. Environ.*, 109/110, 41-57 (1991).
14. M. Randic, *J. Math. Chem.*, 4, 157-184 (1991).
15. R. Brüggeman, B. Münzer and E. Halfon, *Chemosphere*, 28, 863-872 (1994).
16. B. Münzer, R. Brüggeman and E. Halfon, *Chemosphere*, 28, 873-879 (1994).
17. K. Voigt and R. Brüggeman, *Proc. 17th International Information Meeting*, 495-505 (1993).
18. E. E. Kenaga and C. A. T. Goring, in: *Aquatic Toxicology* (J. G. Eaton, P. R. Parrish and A. C. Hendricks, eds. ASTM, STP 707, Philadelphia, PA, 1980) 78-115 pp.

19. M. Fielding, D. Barcelo, A. Heweg, S. Galassi, L. Torstensson, P. Van Zoonen, R. Wolter and G. Angeletti, *Water Pollution Research Report 27*, CEE, 135 pp.
20. ISTAT (Italian National Statistics Office), *Statistiche Ambientali, Annuario 34* (1989).
21. ISTAT (Italian National Statistics Office), *Statistiche dell'Agicoltura, Zootecnia e Mezzi di Produzione, Annuario 37*, 370-371 (1992).
22. *The Agrochemical Handbook. 1990. Second Edition.* Royal Society of Chemistry, London, U.K., 1990 Update.
23. R. D. Wauchope, T. M Buttler, A. G. Hornsby, P. W. M. Beckers and J. P. Burt, *Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.*, 123, 1-155 (1992).
24. P. W. M. Augustijn-Beckers, A. G. Hornsby and R. D. Wauchope, *Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.*, 137, 1-82 (1994).
25. OECD, *Guidelines for Testing Chemicals*, OECD, Paris (1981).
26. C. Skark and N. Zullei-Seibert, *Intern. J. Environ. Anal. Chem.*, 58, 387-396 (1995).
27. H. Maier-Bode and K. Hartel, *Res. Rev.*, 77, 364 pp.
28. S. Galassi and L. Guzzella, *Acqua Aria*, 3, 231-240 (1990).
29. E. M. Thurman, M. T. Meyer, M. S. Mills, L. R. Zimmerman and C. A. Perry, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 28, 2267-2277 (1994).
30. D. C. Muir and B. E Baker, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 24, 122-125 (1976).
31. A. Brambilla, B. Rindone, S. Polesello, S. Galassi and R. Balestrini, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 132, 339-348 (1993).
32. L. R. Holden and J. A Graham, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 26, 935-943 (1992).
33. G. Chesters, G. V. Simsiman, J. Levy, J. A. Bashar, R. N. Fathulla and J. M. Harkin, *Rev. Environ. Cont. Toxicol.*, 110, 1-74 (1989).
34. W. J. Lyman, in: *Handbook of Chemical Property Estimation Methods* (W. J. Lyman, W. F. Reehl and D. H. Rosenblatt eds., McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1982) pp 2-1 2-51.
35. M. Bonfanti, P. Taverna, L. Chiappetta, P. Villa, M. D'Incalci, R. Bagnati and R. Fanelli, *Toxicology*, 72, 207-219 (1992)
36. L. Gelosa and G. Leoni, *Inquinamento*, 6, 60-61 (1988).

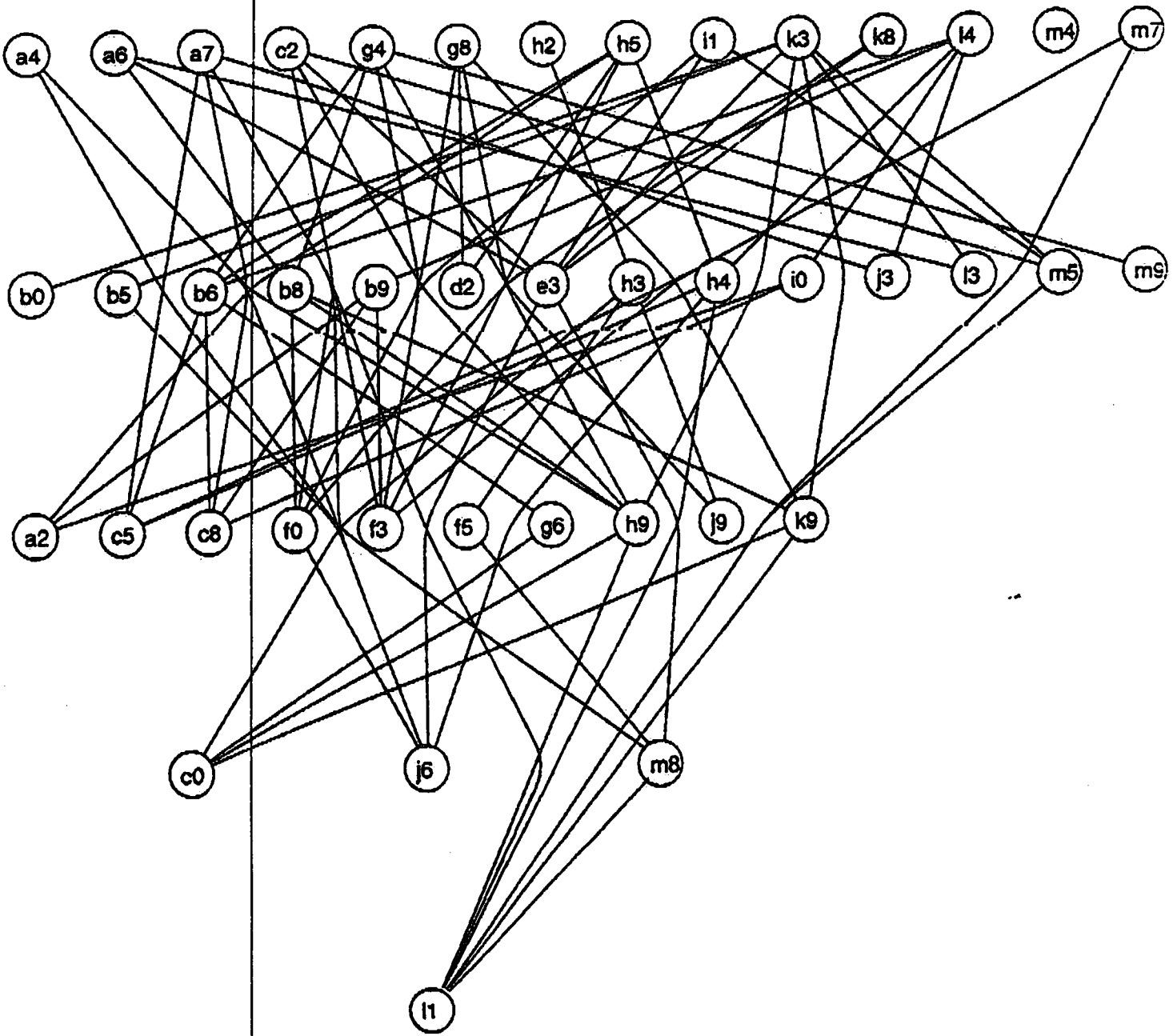
37. R. Huber and S. Otto, *Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.*, 137, 111-134 (1994).
38. S. Chiron, E. Martinez and D. Barcelo', *J. Chromatogr. A*, 665, 283-293 (1994).
39. A. Provini, S. Galassi and E. Di Maio, *SITE Atti*, 12, 201-207. (1991).
40. R. L. Swann, D. A. Laskowski, P. J. McCall, K. Vander Kuy and H. J. Dishburger, *Res. Rev.*, 85, 17-28 (1983).
41. S. Galassi, L. Guzzella, M. Mingazzini, L. Vigano', S. Capri and S. Sora, *Wat. Res.*, 26, 19-27 (1992).

FIGURE CAPTIONS

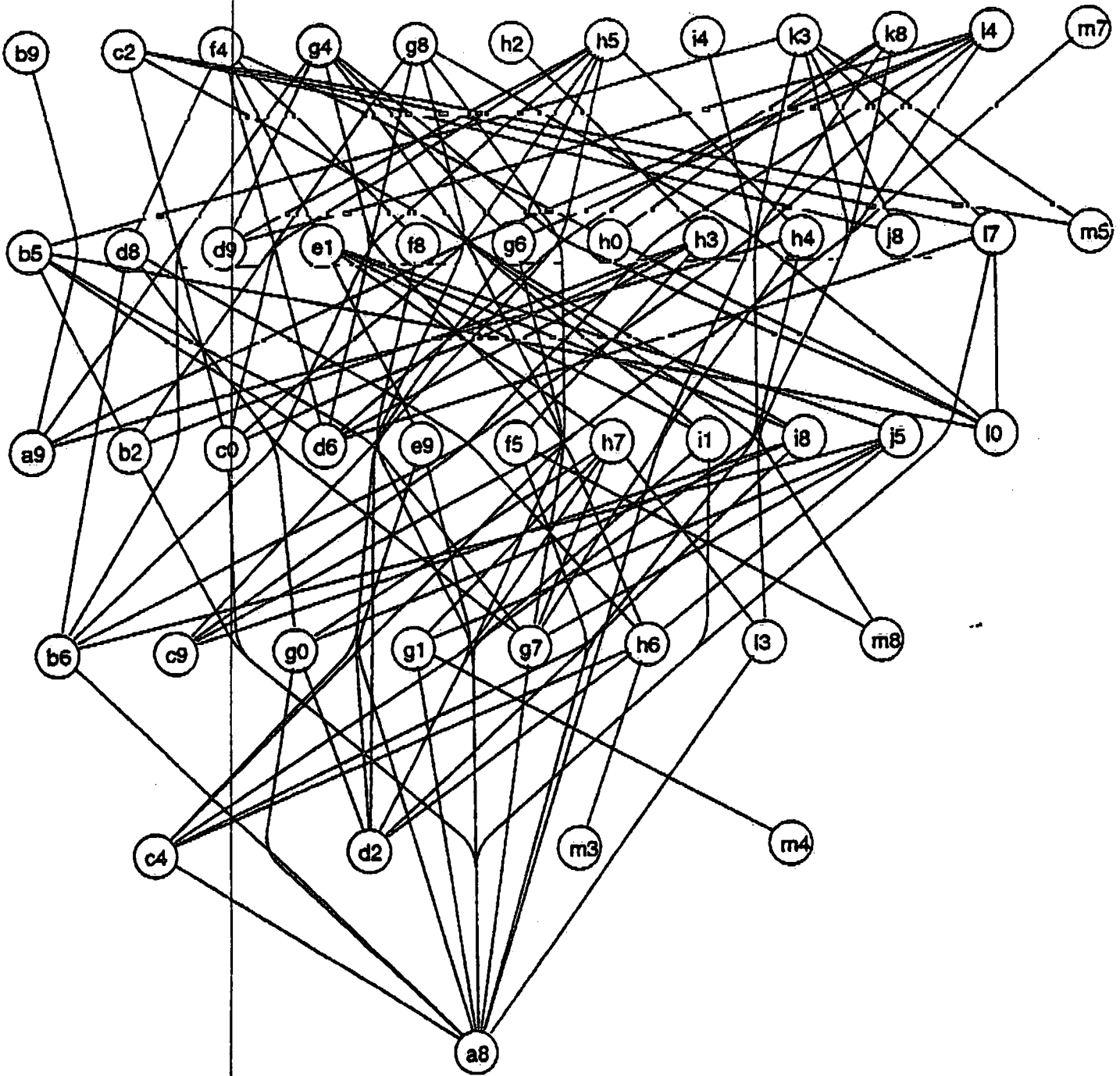
Figure 1 - Hasse diagram showing the ranking of pesticides used in Germany. Table 1 identifies the chemicals.

Figure 2 - Hasse diagram showing the ranking of pesticides used in U.K. Table 1 identifies the chemicals.

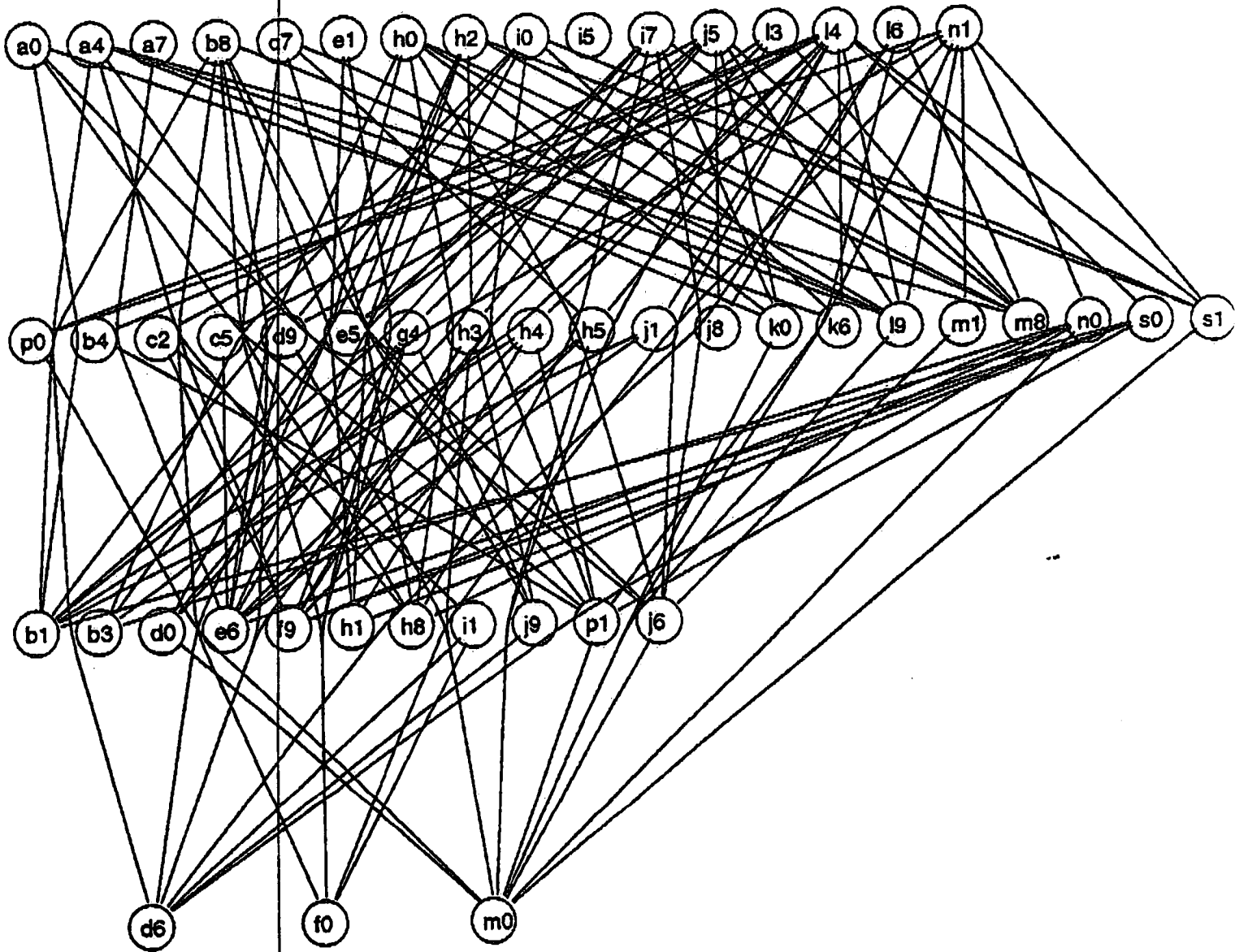
Figure 3 - Hasse diagram showing the ranking of pesticides used in Italy. Table 1 identifies the chemicals.



File : A:\GERPEST.DAT
 Used Attributes : All Attributes
 Classified Attributes : None
 Equivalent Objects : No Equivalent Objects



File : A:\GRBRPEST.DAT
Used Attributes : All Attributes
Classified Attributes: None
Equivalent Objects : No Equivalent Objects



File : A:\ITALPEST.DAT
Used Attributes : All Attributes
Classified Attributes : None
Equivalent Objects : No Equivalent Objects

Table 1 - Pesticides used in amounts above 50 t/y in Germany, U. K. and Italy.

a0	alachlor	g6	ioxynil
a2	amitrole	g7	iprodione
a4	atrazine	g8	isoproturon
a6	benazolin	h0	linuron
a7	bentazone	h1	malathion
a8	bifenox	h2	mancozeb
a9	bromoxynil	h3	maneb
b0	promofenoxim	h4	MCPA
b1	butylate	h5	mecoprop
b2	captafol	h6	mecoprop-P
b3	captan	h7	metaldehyde
b4	carbaryl	h8	metamitron
b5	carbendazim	h9	metazachlor
b6	carbetamide	i0	metham-Na
b8	chloridazon	i1	methabenzthiazuron
b9	chlormequat	i4	methiocarb
c0	chlorothalonil	i5	methyl bromide
c2	chlorotoluron	i7	metolachlor
c4	cyanazine	i8	metsulfuronmethyl
c5	2,4 -D	j1	molinate
c7	dalapon	j3	oxydemetonmethyl
c8	dazomet	j5	paraquat
c9	demeton-s-methyl	j6	parathion ethyl
d0	diazinon	j8	pendimethalin
d2	dichlorprop(2,4-DP)ester	j9	phenmediphan
d6	diclofop-methyl	k0	phorate
d8	difenzoquat	k3	prochloraz
d9	dimethoate	k6	propanil
e1	diquat	k8	propiconazole
e3	diuron	k9	propineb
e5	endosulfan	l0	propyzamide
e6	EPTC	l1	pyrethrin
e9	ethirimol	l3	simazine
f0	ethofumesate	l4	TCA
f3	dichlorvos	l6	terbuthylazine
f4	fenpropidin	l7	terbutryn
f5	fenpropimorph	l9	thiobencarb
f8	flamprop isopropyl	m0	thiocarbazil
f9	fluazifopbutyl	m1	thiram
g0	fluoroxypyr	m3	triadimefon
g1	flutriafol	m4	triadimenol
g4	glyphosate	m5	triallate

Table 1 - continued

m7	tridemorph	p0	azinphos methyl
m8	trifluralin	p1	parathion methy
m9	vinclozolin	s0	dodine
n0	zineb	s1	dinocap
n1	ziram		

Table 2 - Proportion of pesticides sought and found in waters of the three selected countries according to the environmental hazard.

		Rank line	1	2	3	4	5	6
GERMANY	Total n. of pest. in line	14	14	10	3	1	-	
	found	7	6	2	0	0	-	
	analyzed for	9	8	7	2	0	-	
	% found/analyzed for	78	75	29	0	-	-	
U. K.	Total n. of pest. in line	12	12	11	8	4	1	
	found	4	4	3	3	1	0	
	analyzed for	?	?	?	?	?	?	
	% found/analyzed for							
ITALY	Total n. of pest. in line	16	20	11	3	-	-	
	found	7	5	1	0	-	-	
	analyzed for	8	10	6	0			
	% found/analyzed for	88	50	17	-			

Table 3 - Occurrence of Italian priority pesticides and their major metabolites in European waters. GW: groundwater; SW: surface water.

	Occurrence		Major metabolites	Occurrence	
	GW	SW		GW	SW
Alachlor	O	F	Diethylaniline	N	F
Atrazine	F	F	Desethylatrazine	F	F
			Deisopropylatrazine	F	F
Bentazone	F	F	6-hydroxybentazone	N	N
			8-hydroxybentazone	N	N
Linuron	O	O	3,4 dichloroaniline	N	O
Mancozeb	N	N	ETU	O	F
Metolachlor	O	F	?	?	?
Simazine	F	F	Desethylatrazine	F	F
Terbuthylazine	F	F	Desethylterbutilazine	O	N

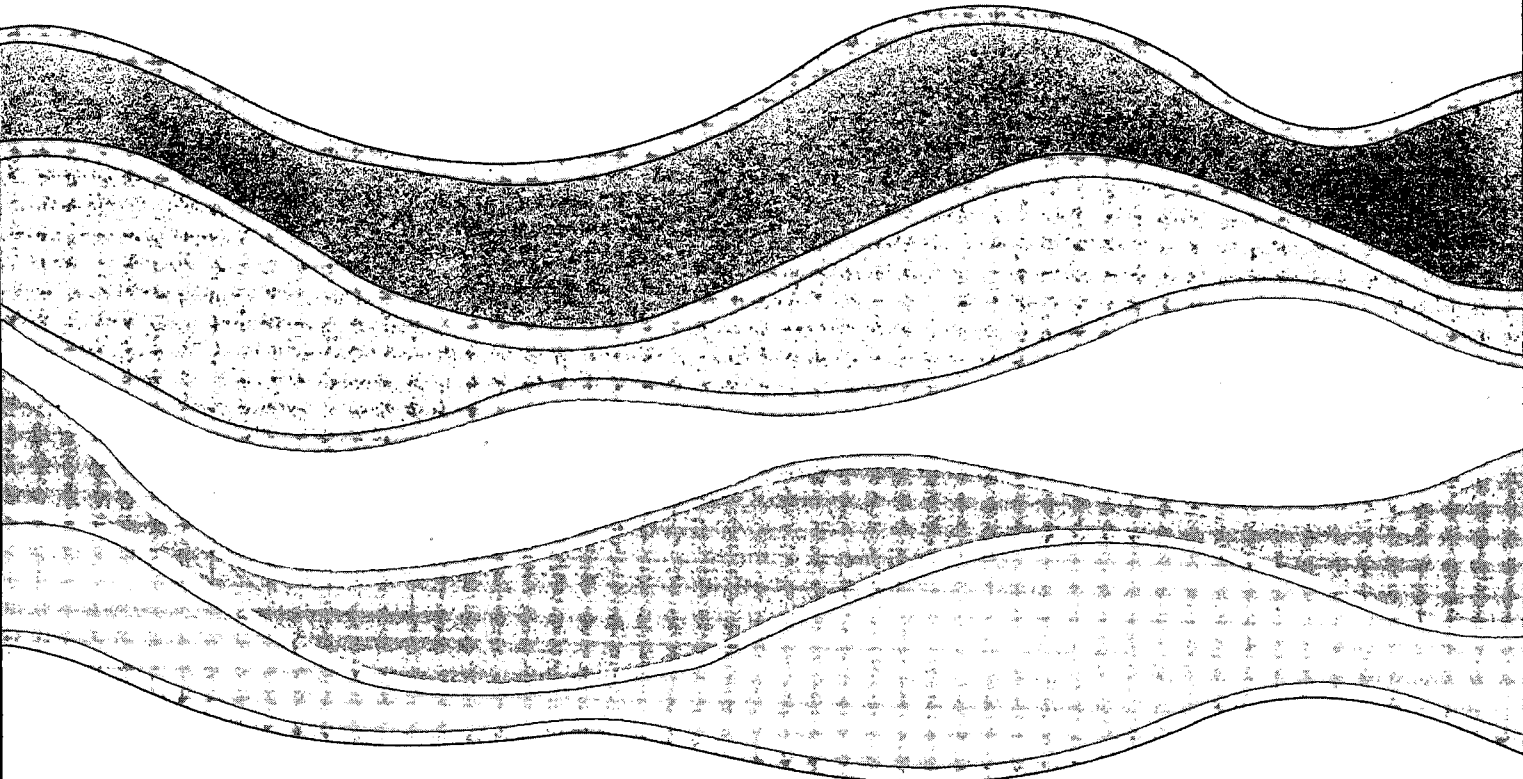
F = frequently

O = occasionally

N = never

Table 4 - Herbicide and metabolite concentrations (µg/l) in ground water (Dalmine, Italy)

	May 1995	June 1995
Alachlor	<0.020	<0.020
Atrazine	0.150	0.232
Desethylatrazine	0.030	0.045
Deisopropylatrazine	0.041	0.058
Metolachlor	0.103	0.048
Simazine	0.045	0.066
Terbutylazine	0.020	0.038



NATIONAL WATER RESEARCH INSTITUTE
P.O. BOX 5050, BURLINGTON, ONTARIO L7R 4A6

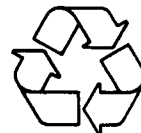


Environment Canada
Environnement Canada

Canada

INSTITUT NATIONAL DE RECHERCHE SUR LES EAUX
C.P. 5050, BURLINGTON (ONTARIO), L7R 4A6

Think Recycling!



Pensez à recycler!