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Charoula Tsoutsi, Ioannis Konstantinou, Dimitra Hela. ORGANOPHOSPHORUS PESTI-CIDE RESIDUES IN GREEK VIRGIN OLIVE OIL: LEVELS, DIETARY INTAKE AND RISK ASSESSMENT. Food Additives and Contaminants, 2008, 25 (10), pp.1225-1236. 10.1080/02652030802130025 . hal-00577398

HAL Id: hal-00577398 https://hal.science/hal-00577398

Submitted on 17 Mar 2011

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Food Additives and Contaminants



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Journal:	Food Additives and Contaminants
Manuscript ID:	TFAC-2007-433.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	07-Apr-2008
Complete List of Authors:	Tsoutsi, Charoula; University of Ioannina, Department of Chemistry KONSTANTINOU, IOANNIS; UNIVERSITY OF IOANNINA, ENVIRONMENTAL AND NATURAL RESOURCES MANAGEMENT Hela, Dimitra; University of Ioannina, School of Natural Resources and Enterprises Management
Methods/Techniques:	Chromatographic analysis, Clean-up - SPME, Exposure assessment, Risk assessment
Additives/Contaminants:	Pesticides - organophosphorous
Food Types:	Olive oil

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Organophosphorus pesticide residues in Greek virgin olive oil: levels, dietary intake and risk assessment

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1 Abstract

The occurrence of organophosphorus pesticide (OPs) and their metabolite residues was investigated in 167 samples of Greek virgin olive oil during a two-year (2004-2005) sampling campaign. A total of 30.5% of samples contained detectable residues although only one sample contained dimethoate residues above the maximum residue limit. Among the seven detected OPs, fenthion and fenthion sulfoxide residues were detected in 10.8% and 14.4% of the samples respectively at 0.003 to 0.61 mg kg⁻¹ followed by dimethoate that was detected in 10.2% of the samples, at 0.003 to 0.057 mg kg⁻¹. The acute dietary risk assessment was undertaken by determining the National Estimated Short-Term Intake (NESTI) while for the chronic dietary risk assessment the National Theoretical Maximum Daily Intake (NTMDI) and National Estimated Daily Intake (NEDI) were calculated. The estimated intakes (NESTI and NEDI) of each pesticide were <7% and <0.86% of the corresponding acute reference doses (ARfDs) and acceptable daily intakes (ADIs), respectively. A cumulative risk assessment was performed using the Hazard Index (HI) and the Toxicity Equivalence Factor (TEF) approaches taking into account that OPs share the same toxicological mechanism. The determined HI and TEFs were found to represent only a small portion of the respective ADIs or ARfDs. These results indicate that there is neither acute nor chronic risk for the Greek population through olive oil consumption.

- **Keywords:** Olive oil; pesticides; monitoring; dietary intake; risk assessment

22 Introduction

Olive oil production is heavily concentrated in the Mediterranean countries, which have 99 % of acreage and produce 98% of the world's olive oil. The European Union (EU) has the lead role in the world production with a share of about 75%. The consumption of olive oil is also practically concentrated in the producing regions, with 71% is centered in the EU and 92% of this figure corresponds to the three leading countries, Italy, Spain and Greece (Luchetti 2000). Olive groves occupy more than 60% of cultivated land in Greece. Spread throughout the mainland and the islands, 132 million olive trees produce approximately 350.000 tons of olive oil annually, of which 75% is extra – virgin olive oil (International Olive Oil Council 2007a).

The pesticides authorised for the treatment of olives in Greece belong to different chemical families such as organophosphates, pyrethrins, carbamates, benzoylureas and spinosad for use as insecticides, dithiocarbamates as fungicides while substituted ureas, bipyridinium salts, simazine and glyphosate are mainly applied as herbicides. However, organophosphorus pecticides (OPs) are used in the largest quantities in olive groves (Lentza-Rizos et al. 2001, Skouras et al. 2007) for controlling the olive fruit fly (Dacus oleae), the key insect pest of olives in the Mediterranean area and they are consequently the main target compounds for olive oil residue analysis (Hiskia et al. 1998; Lentza-Rizos et al. 2001; Botitsi et al. 2004). Among OPs, fenthion and dimethoate are the compounds that are mostly frequently applied (Hiskia et al. 1998; Tsatsakis et al. 2003).

Taking into account that pesticides residues in food represent a potential health risk and the high consumption rate (30-70 g/day) of olive products in many countries, especially those surrounding the Mediterranean Sea, attention has been drawn to the possible presence of residues in olives and consequently in olive oil. Therefore, both European Union (EC 1976) and the Codex Alimentarius Commission of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations (Codex Alimentarius Commission 1996) have established maximum pesticide residues limits (MRLs) for olives and olive oil.

 Although pesticide residues in foodstuffs seldom exceed the MRLs when these compounds are applied according to good agricultural practices (GAP), consumer awareness of health issues due to pesticide residues is continuously increasing. In this direction, monitoring of pesticide residues is one of the most important aspects for ensuring that consumers are not exposed to unacceptable pesticide residue levels minimising thus, potential hazards to human health. The presence of pesticide residues in olive oil has been reported in several studies (Hiskia et al. 1998; Tsatsakis et al. 2003; Rastrelli et al. 2002; Cabras et al. 1997a; EC 2003). Because of the high olive oil consumption among people of the producing countries, the continuous control of pesticide residues in olive oil is of great importance.

Problems due to the complexity of the olive oil matrix, along with the presence of interferences, makes the analysis of pesticide residues in olive oil samples difficult. Many multi-residue procedures have been reported for the determination of OP residues in olive oil (Rastrelli et al. 2002; Vreuls et al. 1996; Cabras et al. 1997b). Clean-up steps are usually needed to eliminate interfering compounds from the

Food Additives and Contaminants

matrix, which increases the amount of high purity solvents used, the number of manual operations required, the uncertainty in the determination, the cost of the method and can result in the loss of the analyte. Headspace solid phase microextraction (HS-SPME) has proven its ability to analyze trace amounts of pesticides in olive oil (Tsoutsi et al. 2004; Tsoutsi et al 2006) as well in other matrices (Lambropoulou et al 2007; Lambropoulou et al. 2001). It simplifies the process of sample treatment before quantitative determination by GC or HPLC and avoids the use of organic solvents.

The assessment of dietary intake can be performed using either deterministic methods that compare point estimates of intake with a toxicologically acceptable level or the probabilistic method (e.g. Monte Carlo) that takes into account the variation in pesticide residue levels, in food consumption and body weight levels of the population addressed (Caldas et al. 2006). Furthermore, the outcomes give information on the likelihood at which a certain exposure level will occur, as well as the uncertainties associated with it.

The purpose of this study was to apply a HS-SPME method for the determination of OPs in virgin olive oil samples, within the context of a pesticide-monitoring program for the Mediterranean diet in order to estimate the dietary risk exposure to OPs in the Greek population which has not been reported so far in previous studies. The present study has focused on OPs that present a common mechanism of action in order to perform a cumulative risk assessment. Both chronic and acute exposure was considered for the risk assessment that was made based on individual pesticides as well as on cumulative approaches. Two deterministic approaches, the Hazard Index

96 (HI) and the Toxicity Equivalence Factor (TEF), were used for the cumulative risk97 assessment of the intake of OPs and to assess potential health concerns.

99 Materials and Methods

100 Chemicals, reagents and materials

Pesticide standards (dimethoate, diazinon, fenitrothion, malathion, fenthion, parathion ethyl, ethyl bromophos, methyl bromophos, methidathion, ethion) and metabolites (omethoate, malaoxon, fenthion sulfoxide and fenthion sulfone) were purchased from Riedel-de Haën (Seelze, Germany). All pesticide standards were 98-99% purity. Bromophos ethyl was used as the internal standard (I.S.) at a concentration of 0.10 mg Kg^{-1} . Stock standard solutions of 1000 mg L⁻¹ of each compound were prepared in pure acetone and stored at -18 °C. Working standard solutions of analyzed insecticides at concentration levels 50, 100 and 250 mg L^{-1} were prepared by diluting the stock solutions with acetone. Acetone (Labscan, Ltd., Dublin, Ireland) was pesticide residue analysis grade. SPME holder and fibre assemblies for manual sampling were provided and Supelco (Bellefonte, PA. USA) used without modification. by Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS, 100 mm) fibre coating was used for the extraction of OPs from oil samples. Before measurements the PDMS fibre was conditioned in the injector of the gas chromatograph (GC) for 3 h at 240 °C, with the split vent open to fully remove any contaminant that might have caused very high baseline noise and large ghost peaks. The fibre was then repeatedly injected into the GC system until interfering peaks disappeared.

119 Sampling

Food Additives and Contaminants

One hundred and sixty-seven (167) samples of virgin olive oil samples were collected from some of the major olive oil production areas of Greece, namely Crete (CRE; n=75), Peloponnese (PEL; n=48), Central Greece (CGR; n=21), Chalkidiki (CHA; n=6), Aegean islands (AEI; n=6) and Ionian islands (IOI; n=11), during 2004 and 2005. The samples consisted of bulk samples from large volume storing tanks of olive oil merchants thus, representing about 10000 tonnes of olive oil. According to our knowledge this study is amongst those with the highest number of samples and the highest percentage of total production monitored for olive oil in Greece and other Mediterranean countries. Virgin olive oil samples (0.5 L) were collected in dark glass bottles. The samples were transported to the laboratory and kept for a short time at room temperature until analysis.

132 Headspace Solid Phase Microextraction procedure

Olive oil samples used to determine the limits of detection (LODs), limits of quantification (LOQs), recovery and precision were "pesticide free" and different from the samples studied. A "pesticide-free" virgin olive oil was obtained from organically grown olive tree cultivation with known spray history and environmental background. To certify as residue free, the sample was analyzed for organophosphorus pesticides. The olive oil sample (known as a virgin olive oil blank) did not contain detectable levels of any of the analytes. To obtain spiked olive oil samples, the appropriate volume of standard working solutions was added to 5 g of olive oil blank at spiking levels ranging from 0.025 to 0.50 mg kg⁻¹. The I.S. solution also added to each sample at 0.10 mg kg^{-1} concentration level. was Extraction/concentration of pesticides was carried out according to previous HS-SPME extraction protocol (Tsoutsi et al. 2006). Briefly, 5 g of olive oil sample were

placed into 10 mL crimp-top headspace vials, capped with PTFE- grey butyl-coated septa. The samples were heated at 75 °C \pm 1 and after 10 min, the fiber was immersed to the headspace of the sample for 60 min. Magnetic stirring with a PTFE-coated stir bar was used to agitate the sample at 960 rpm. After extraction, the thermal desorption of the analytes was achieved by inserting the fiber into the injection port (held at 250 °C) for 7 min. No carry-over effect was detected after that time.

152 Analysis of pesticide residues

Chromatographic analysis was performed using a Shimadzu 14A capillary gas chromatograph equipped with flame thermionic detector (FTD) operated at 250 °C. The DB-1 column, 30 m x 0.32 mm i.d., used contained dimethylpolysiloxane (J & W Scientific, Folsom, CA). The temperature was programmed as follows: initial temperature was kept at 150 °C for 2 min, which was increased to 200 °C, at 5 °C min⁻ ¹, held for 8 min, then raised to 210 °C at 1 °C min⁻¹ and kept for 2 min. The temperature was finally increased to 270 °C at 20 °C min⁻¹ and held for 4 min. The injection temperature was 250 $^{\circ}$ C. Helium was used as the carrier (1.5 mL min⁻¹) and make-up gases (40 mL min⁻¹). The detector gases were hydrogen and air, and their flow rates were regulated at 4 mL min⁻¹ and 120 mL min⁻¹, respectively. After sampling, the SPME fiber was placed into the injection port of the GC system, equipped with an SPME liner from Supelco (Bellefonte, PA), where it was desorbed for 7 min at 250 °C (Safe 1990). The injection port was in splitless mode, the splitter opening after 2 min.

168 Confirmatory analysis was performed on selected positive oil ve oil samples using a
169 Shimadzu QP 2010 GC/MS system equipped with DB-5-ms capillary column (length,

30 m; column i.d., 0.25 mm; film thickness, 0.25 µm) following the previous temperature program. Helium with a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min was used as carrier gas. The interface was kept at 200°C and the spectra were obtained at 70 eV in the selected ion monitoring (SIM) mode. For each of the substances analysed, three characteristic ions were monitored during the analysis. *Method performance and Ouality Control* During the in-house validation process, the sensitivity, linearity, accuracy and precision were examined in blank matrix samples. Recovery assays and quantification of pesticide residues were accomplished by the internal standard method. The calibration curves constructed were linear over the range of 0.025 to 0.50 mg kg⁻¹. The correlation coefficient were >0.985. LODs calculated as three times the noise levels ranged between 0.006-0.010 mg kg⁻¹, thus, the maximum residue limits (MRLs)

required by European and international regulations for the selected analytes can beverified without difficulty (Codex Alimentarius Commission 1996).

186 Concerning the accuracy of the method, the relative recoveries of the extraction 187 procedure at three fortification levels (0.080, 0.16 and 0.32 mg kg⁻¹) ranged between 188 80 % and 106 % for all the analytes studied. The relative recovery R (%) was 189 calculated as follows:

 $R(\%) = Cobs/Cspike \times 100$

191 where Cobs is the mean concentration of the fortified sample and Cspike is the spiked 192 concentration as previously described in Tsoutsi et al. 2006. Repeatability (n=5, intra-193 day precision), expressed as RSD (%) values, were below 5 % while the 194 reproducibility (n=5, inter-day precision) never exceeded 10 %. In all cases the results of accuracy and precision fulfilled the criteria of the European guidelines with accuracy data comprised between 70 and 110% with RSD<15% indicating that a method can be considered efficient for analysing the target compounds in a given matrix (EC, 2006).

Equilibrium methods like SPME are more selective and sampling in the headspace reduces the matrix effects and interferences present in the liquid phase while poses little risks of cross contamination between samples (Pawliszyn, 1997). Nevertheless relative retention times have been checked for each pesticide and only a maximum deviation of 1% from the expected RRT was considered acceptable in order to prevent misidentification of analytes due to interferences. In addition, confirmation of selected positive olive oil samples was followed using a GC-MS instrument in SIM mode.

208 Dietary intake and risk assessment

The results of the monitoring program were not only used to check the compliance of olive oil samples with MRLs, but also for the assessment of the consumers' risk resulting from their exposure to pesticide residues via olive oil consumption. The dietary risk was estimated at both acute and chronic level using the determined pesticide residue levels (mean, median and 90th percentile values) and mean consumption data of olive oil in Greece (69.7 g day⁻¹) extracted from the International Olive Oil Council reports (International Olive Oil Council 2007b). An important issue in the exposure assessment was how to treat samples that were reported to contain no residues (<LOD). All intake estimations were performed assuming that non-detected residue concentrations were equal to half of the respective limit of detection (ND=1/2)LOD). A person body weight of 60 kg was assumed in the calculation according to

Food Additives and Contaminants

FAO guidelines for adults (WHO 1997) for comparison with other studies while 75kg
of adult body weight was also assumed for being closer to the nowadays mean body
weight of an adult in developed countries. Acceptable daily intakes (ADI), Maximum
Residue Limits (MRLs), and Acute Reference Doses (ARfDs) given by the Food and
Agriculture Organization (FAO) are used for the determination of dietary exposure
and the estimation of cumulative risk.

227 (a) Chronic dietary exposure

In a first tier, the chronic dietary risk assessment was conducted by comparing the National Theoretical Maximum Daily Intake (NTMDI) of the studied OPs with the ADI (mg kg⁻¹ bw day⁻¹). The NTMDI was defined as the Maximum Residue Limits of each pesticide (MRL_i, mg kg⁻¹) multiplied by the average consumption data (F, kg day⁻¹) of olive oil per person in Greece divided by the mean body weight (b.w., kg) according to the following equation:

$NTMDI = MRL_{i}x F/b.w.$ (1)

This methodology that uses MRL as a parameter of residue concentration in the intake calculation is very conservative as it assumes situations that are unlikely always to occur. The assumptions include a life daily consumption of food items that: 100% of the daily food consumption will be derived from treated crops; 100% of the treated crop will contain pesticide residues at the MRL level; no dissipation or degradation of the pesticide will occur during storage, transport, preparation, commercial processing and cooking. Thus, a refinement of the intake calculation with more realistic residue data is a better assessment of the risks to consumers.

The refinement of the NTMDI was conducted by estimating the National Estimated Daily Intake (NEDI) that is based on the most realistic estimate of residue levels. The NEDI was calculated replacing the MRL in the calculation for the residue data from the monitoring program (mean or 90th percentile value of pesticide residue levels; LR_i, mg kg⁻¹) and the average consumption data (F, kg day⁻¹) according to the following equation:

$$NEDI = LR_{i} * F/b.w.$$
(2)

The values of NTMDI and NEDI are then compared to ADI of each pesticide. The estimate of the total intake is expressed as percentage of the ADI (%ADI). Risk might exist when NTMDI and NEDI exceed ADI.

(b) Acute dietary exposure

An acute dietary exposure assessment is the exposure resulting from a single eating occasion or short-term (e. g. single day) exposure including the maximum residue level expected in food as consumed. The intake has to be compared with the toxicological effects that are of concern from short-term exposures, i.e. an Acute Reference Dose (ARfD) has to be used instead of the ADI. The National Estimated Short-Term Intake (NESTI) is used to estimate acute dietary exposure. NESTI is calculated as the highest residue (HR, mg kg⁻¹) level detected multiplied by the national consumption data (F, kgday⁻¹) for the commodity divided by the body weight (kg) as described below:

$$NESTI = HR * F/b.w.$$
(3)

In cases where the estimated exposure is at levels below the ARfD, the exposure is considered to be too low for any toxicity to occur, and the risk is deemed to be insignificant or negligible.

269	
270	(c) Cumulative risk assessment of the intake
271	When humans are exposed to multiple pesticides with a common mechanism of
272	toxicological action, the risk associated with exposure can be characterized by a
273	cumulative risk assessment (EPA 2002). Organophosphorus insecticides share the
274	same mechanism of toxicological action by inhibition of acetylcholinesterase activity
275	in the nervous system by phosphorylation, thus, in the present work, two deterministic
276	(point estimate) methods was used to perform the cumulative risk assessment of the
277	intake from olive oil. The Hazard Index (HI) and Toxicity Equivalence Factor (TEF)
278	approaches (Teuschler and Hertzberg 1995; Wilkinson et al. 2000; Boon and Van
279	Claveren 2000; Jensen et al 2003) were used in both the acute and chronic exposure
280	assessment of the Greek population.
281	

The HI is the sum of the hazard quotients (HQ) of the individual OPs (Eq. 4) i.e., it is the sum of the exposures to each of the pesticides in the group expressed as a fraction of its respective ARfD (in case of acute hazard index), or its ADI (in case of chronic hazard index) (Teuschler et al. 1995). The function of this first profiling step is to identify the potentially critical samples. If a sample has a value of HI that exceeds 1 equal to 100% this could indicate an unacceptable risk. The calculations of "acute HI" and "chronic HI" are described below

289
$$HI = \sum HQ_i \quad (4)$$

290 Where
$$HQ_i = \left(\frac{Exposure}{ADI}\right)_i = \left(\frac{NEDI}{ADI}\right)_i$$
 in the calculation of "chronic HI"

291 and
$$HQ_i = \left(\frac{Exposure}{ARfD}\right)_i = \left(\frac{NESTI}{ARfD}\right)_i$$
 in the calculation of "acute HI"

Using the TEF approach OPs with different potencies were normalized to yield a total equivalent exposure related to one of the pesticides, the so-called index compound (IC) (Wilkinson et al 2000). The TEF approach was first developed to estimate the toxicity of mixtures of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, dibenzofurans and biphenyls (Safe et al 1990) but since then the TEF approach have also been used in a number of studies for OPs (Jensen et al. 2003; Boon et al. 2000). As index compounds chlorpyrifos or methamidophos were used and TEFs for nine OPs were extracted from previously published studies (Table 1) (Boon et al. 2000; EPA 2002; Caldas et al. 2006). The exposure (mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹) of each pesticide is multiplied by its TEF and the resulting products are summed (Wilkinson et al. 2000) according to equations 5 and 6 for the chronic (TEF_c) and acute (TEF_a) effect level respectively. The resulting sum is then compared with the ADI (0.01 and 0.04 mg kg⁻¹ bw day⁻¹ for chlorpyrifos and methamidophos respectively) for the chronic exposure assessment and with the ARfD $(0.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}\text{bw day}^{-1})$ for the acute exposure assessment. If it is lower than the trigger effect values the cumulative risk is assumed to be negligible.

307

$$TEF_{c} = \sum (NEDI \times TEF)_{i} \quad (5)$$
308

$$TEF_{a} = \sum (NESTI \times TEF)_{i} \quad (6)$$
309

Results and Discussion

311 Monitoring data

312 Of the 167 samples analyzed, pesticide residues were detected in 51 samples ($\approx 30 \%$), 313 while the rest contained no detectable residues. Of the thirteen organophosphorus 314 pesticide residues investigated in this study, only seven, omethoate, dimethoate, 315 malaoxon, fenthion, ethion, fenthion sulfoxide and fenthion sulfone, were found 316 above their detection limits. Fig. 1 shows the pesticides which were detected in the

Food Additives and Contaminants

317 samples at levels > LOD. The percentage of detection, average, median and 90th
318 percentile concentration as well as the range of organophosphorus residues in olive oil
319 samples are summarized in Table 2.

The co-occurrence of pesticide residues is shown in Figure 2. A total of 35 samples (20.96 %) had at least one organophosphorus pesticide at detectable levels, 12 samples (7.78 %) contained residues of two pesticides and only 4 samples (2.40 %) were contaminated with three or four pesticide residues. The results of our monitoring of organophosphorus pesticides indicate that, among 167 samples of virgin olive oil that were examined, only one sample was found to have dimethoate (0.057 mg kg⁻¹).

Contamination status of OPs varied on the sampling area (Fig. 3). Pesticide residues from different cultivation areas, along with the detection rates are shown in Table 3. The highest percentage of detection (%) was found in samples from the region of Crete (\approx 55%) one of the most important olive oil producing areas of Greece (Tsatsakis et al. 2003). Olive oil samples from the region of Peloponnese and Chalkidiki followed with \approx 15% of pesticide detection.

The most frequently detected pesticides were fenthion and its metabolite fenthion sulfoxide and dimethoate. Over 27 different formulations for dimethoate and two for fenthion are registered in Greece (Tsatsakis et al. 2003). Fenthion was detected in 18 samples (10.8%) at levels ranging from 0.003 to 0.61 mg kg⁻¹ and its metabolite fenthion sulfoxide was found in 24 samples (14.4%) at levels ranging from 0.005 to 0.15 mg kg⁻¹. Dimethoate was found in 17 samples (10.2%) in the concentration range of 0.003-0.057 mg kg⁻¹.

 The occurrence of pesticide residues in olive oil is related also on the fate of pesticides during olive oil extraction that is closely depended to the fat and water solubility of the compounds under consideration. Residues of fat soluble fenthion were generally higher than those of water-soluble insecticide dimethoate. This is probably due to the higher water solubility of dimethoate (25 g L^{-1}). Because of this a large fraction of the active ingredient draws away with the water phase during the olive oil production. On the contrary, fenthion is a lipophilic compound, which is only slightly soluble in water and has an octanol-water partition coefficient (log K_{ow}) of 4.1 in contrast to dimethoate which has a log K_{ow} of 0.3. In the study of Cabras et al. (Cabras et al. 1993) it was observed that ca. 70% of fenthion is transferred from the olives to the oil while the remaining part is split between the cake (20%) and vegetation water (10%). Accordingly, the transfer factors of dimethoate and fenthion from olives to olive oil have been as 0.03 and either 3.3 or 5.20 respectively (Farris et al. 1992). Finally, Leone et al. have reached the same conclusion regarding the importance of the fat- or water-solubility of these two insecticides (Leone et al. 1990). Furthermore, the persistence of pesticides after their application in olives is also a key factor for the occurrence of their residues. The fate of fenthion and dimethoate in field trials have been studied by several researchers (Cabras et al. 1997a; Cabras et al. 1993; Rotunno et al. 1997), where low degradation rates have been observed, resulting to the presence of residues in olive oil. The occurrence of fenthion is consistent with the study of Cabras et al. (1993), that considered a rather slow metabolic breakdown of this insecticide with a half life of ca. 38 days and that there is a good chance to observe their residues in olive oil. On the other hand, dimethoate

Food Additives and Contaminants

degrades more rapidly (half-life 4.3 days) (Cabras et al. 1997a) thus, there is a much
lower probability to detect residues of dimethoate in higher percentages and levels.

Earlier pesticide monitoring data conducted in olive oil samples from the Greek territory are similar to the levels and frequencies reported here in. Generally, results from previous studies that indicated a considerable decrease in residue concentrations (Hiskia et al. 1998; Tsatsakis et al. 2003; Lentza-Rizos et al. 1994), was also confirmed by the present study.

Surveillance work on OPs insecticides in 131 olive oil samples produced in Corfu (Ionian island) has shown the presence of fenthion and dimethoate with concentrations ranging between $0.01 - 0.83 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ and $0.016 - 0.03 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ respectively. The insecticides detected, in this study, were mainly fenthion, either as the parent molecule or as its oxidative metabolites (especially fenthion sulfoxide and to a lesser extent fenthion sulfone). Dimethoate was detected less frequently. The detected pesticide concentrations in most samples were bellowing the Maximum Residue Limits. The significant reductions in the use of fenthion for bate spraving and its replacement by spinosad, has resulted in a significant decrease in the OPs residues in olive oil produced in Corfu (Kantas et al. 2006).

Contamination by fenthion and dimethoate was observed in more than forty-six virgin olive oil samples analyzed in Greece during 1994-1995 but always below legal limits (Hiskia et al. 1998). Additionally residues of fenthion and its metabolites fenthionsulfoxide and fenthion sulfone with levels of 0.007–1.57 mg kg⁻¹ have been reported in virgin olive oil samples collected directly from olive mills at various locations on the Ionian island of Corfu during 1999-2002 (Botitsi et al. 2004). The analysis of organic and conventional olive oil samples from Crete during 1997-1999 showed the presence of fenthion and dimethoate with mean concentrations ranging between 0.001 and 0.0271 mg kg⁻¹ for dimethoate and between 0.0035 and 0.1702 mg kg⁻¹ for fenthion (Tsatsakis et al. 2003).

Finally, some pesticide monitoring data in olive oil produced in Italy are presented below for comparison purposes. In the Campanian region, it was reported that dimethoate was one of the most important residues of Italian olive oil as it was detected in 44% of the samples with a mean value of 0.061 mg kg⁻¹ and fenthion was detected in 27% of olive oil samples with a mean value of 0.073 mg kg⁻¹ (Rastrelli et al. 2002). In addition, different OPs were also reported like diazinon, methidathion and parathion with mean values 0.083 mg kg⁻¹, 0.063 mg kg⁻¹ and 0.080 mg kg⁻¹ respectively. Finally, only fenthion residues were detected in Sicilian and Apulian samples at concentrations ranging from 0.09 to 0.73 mg kg^{-1} (Dugo et al. 2005).

407 Assessment of dietary exposure

Although the residue levels of these pesticides are below the MRLs, there was no zero risk because there were pesticides present in the olive oil samples. In order to take account of the maximum risk of consumer's exposure in olive oil, the National Theoretical Maximum Daily Intakes (NTMDIs) was calculated. Table 4 shows the NTMDIs of the detected OPs according to European MRLs and the dietary intakes expressed as % of ADI. The NTMDIs for the detected insecticides ranged from 2.86 % ADI to 16.3 % ADI for a 60-kg person and from 2.29 % ADI to 13.1 % ADI for a 75-kg person.

The refinement of the intake values was performed by determining the NEDI using the average or the 90th percentile residues found in the samples analyzed (Table 5). Refinement of the residue levels resulted in a significant decrease in the % of ADI percentages for all the compounds. Even for the more conservative assumption, i.e. 90th percentile, the calculated NEDIs for all detected pesticides represent only a small portion of the respective ADIs (<0.86% of ADI). The highest NEDI obtained for fenthion and fenthion sulfoxide were 0.78% and 0.86% of the ADI.

The NESTI is used to estimate acute dietary exposure. All NESTI values (Table 6) of the detected OPs were <7% of the respective ARfDs recommended by the FAO/WHO, indicating minimum acute risk caused by these pollutants. The cumulative dietary risk exposure to OPs of the Greek consumers is shown in Fig 4 and Table 7 using the HI and TEFs approaches respectively for the samples with detected multiresidues. As shown in Fig. 4, both cumulative chronic and acute hazard indexes did not exceed 12 and 8% respectively of the risk cup. It should be noted that the chronic hazard index was higher than the acute hazard index in all cases.

The percentage contribution of the pesticides detected in multi-residue samples is also depicted in Fig. 4. Fenthion, fenthion sulfoxide and dimethoate contributes more to the exposure than the other pesticides. The results for the chronic cumulative exposure based on TEFs are shown in Table 7. The total cumulative intake in chlorpyrifos equivalent for an adult Greek with an average weight of 75 kg varied from 7.7 10⁻⁵ to 1.0 10⁻³ mg kg⁻¹ bw day⁻¹, which corresponds to 0.77–10.3% of the ADI. In methamidophos equivalents, the results obtained were 9.1 10⁻⁷ – 2.0 10⁻⁴ mg

 kg^{-1} bw day⁻¹ that is <0.01–0.49% of the ADI. The results from the acute exposure risk assessment in chlorpyrifos equivalents were also shown in Table 7. The % ARfD exhaustion for an adult never exceeded 1% for an adult with 60 kg of body weight. From the results of both approaches it can be concluded that the cumulative risk i.e. the acetylcholinesterase inhibiting effect from exposure to OPs though olive oil consumption, was assumed to be very low. Thus, the contribution of olive oil in the cumulative dietary intake of these pesticide residues from the total diet for the Greek adult consumer is expected to be low.

Conclusions

The overall findings of this study demonstrated the occurrence and the dietary risk of organophosphorus pesticide residues in olive oil samples produced in the years 2004-2005 in Greece. The results show that the great majority of the pesticide residues detected were below the MRLs established by the EU. Fenthion and dimethoate were the pesticides more frequently detected while their metabolites were also frequently detected. Moreover, the exposure assessment even when using the more conservative assumptions (90th percentile values) for each pesticide showed that the contribution of olive oil to the dietary intake represents only a small portion of the respective ADIs or ARfDs. The cumulative chronic exposure assessment for an adult Greek was <13% of the ADI in chlorpyrifos equivalents and 0.61% of the ADI in methamidophos equivalents. In conclusion, the study showed that the dietary intake of organophosphorus pesticide residues detected through olive oil consumption for the Greek consumers does not pose a relevant risk.

465 Acknowledgements

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This research was co-funded by the European Union in the framework of the program "Pythagoras I" of the "Operational Program for Education and Initial Vocational Training" of the 3rd Community Support Framework of the Hellenic Ministry of Education, funded by 25% from national sources and by 75% from the European Social Fund (ESF).

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Legends of figures

Figure 1: Distribution of OPs residues in the positive olive oil samples

Figure 2: Distribution of OP residues in the analyzed olive oil samples and co-occurrence of pesticide residues.

Figure 3: Distribution of positive samples (%) in the major olive oil production regions of Greece.

Figure 4: Acute (A) and Chronic (C) Hazard Indexes (HI) of pesticide residues in olive oil samples with detected pesticide multiresidues

Table 1. Toxicity equivalence factors (TEFs) used for the calculation of cumulative

dietary intake

Pesticide	Semi-chronic	Acute	Chronic	Chronic
	TEF ^a (NL)	TEF ^a (NL)	TEF ^b (USA)	TEF ^c
Omethoate	1.2	4	-	-
Dimethoate	25	0.5	0.33	0.32
Diazinon	50	5	0.024	0.01
Fenitrothion	0.2	0.02	-	0.03
Malathion	2	0.02	0.0003	0.0003
Fenthion	0.71	1.43	0.35	0.33
Methidathion	0.2	5	0.37	0.32
Ethion	0.6	2	-	1.1
Chrlorpyrifos	1	1	0.1	0.05
Methamidophos	66.7	3.33	1	1

^a From Boon and van Klaveren 2000 (Boon et al. 2000)

^b From EPA 2002 (EPA 2002b)

^c From Caldas et al. 2006 (Caldas et al. 2006)

Pesticide	Minimum	Maximum	faximum Average [*]		90 th Percentile [*]	No of positive	Detection
	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)	(mgkg ⁻¹)	samples	rate (%)
Omethoate	< 0.005	0.044	0.005	0.005	0.005	2	1.20
Dimethoate	<0.003	0.057	0.006	0.003	0.012	17	10.2
Malaoxon	< 0.005	0.25	0.006	0.005	0.005	3	1.80
Fenthion	< 0.003	0.61	0.026	0.003	0.048	18	10.8
Ethion	< 0.005	0.093	0.006	0.005	0.005	6	3.59
Fenthion sulfoxide	< 0.005	0.15	0.015	0.005	0.052	24	14.4
Fenthion sulfone	< 0.005	0.13	0.007	0.005	0.005	3	1.80

Occurrence of pesticide residues in olive oil samples during 2004-2005

*A default value of ½ LOD were used for samples with values below the LOD

Distribution of positive samples in 2004-2005 pesticide residue monitoring program

					No of samples with residue						
Cultivation	Surveyed	Positive	Detection						Fenthion	Fenthion	multipesticide
Area	samples	samples	Rate (%)	Omethoate	Dimethoate	Malaoxon	Fenthion	Ethion	sulfoxide	sulfone	residues
Crete	75	41	54.7	2	12	3	15	5	23	2	16
Peloponnese	48	7	14.6		4		3		1		1
Central Greece	21	1	4.8		1						0
Chalkidiki	6	1	16.7							1	0
Aegean Islands	6	0	0								0
Ionian Islands	11	1	9.1					1			0

National Theoretical Maximum Daily Intakes (NTMDIs) of pesticide residues by adults in Greece and acceptable daily intake (ADIs)

	NTMDI ^a	NTMDI ^a	NTMDI ^b	NTMDI ^b	ADI ^c	MRL ^d
Pesticide	(mg kg ⁻¹ b.w. ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	(% of ADI)	(mg kg ⁻¹ b.w. ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	(% of ADI)	(mg kg ⁻¹ b.w. ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	(mg kg ⁻¹)
Omethoate	5.7*10 ⁻⁵	2.86	4.6*10 ⁻⁵	2.29	0.002	0.05
Dimethoate	5.7*10 ⁻⁵	2.86	4.6*10 ⁻⁵	2.29	0.002	0.05
Malaoxon	_e	-6		-	0.300	-
Fenthion	1.1*10 ⁻³	16.3	-0.00	13.1	0.007	1.00
Ethion	_e	-		-	0.002	-
Fenthion sulfoxide	$1.1*10^{-3}$	16.3	0.00	13.1	0.007	1.00
Fenthion sulfone	1.1*10 ⁻³	16.3	0.00	13.1	0.007	1.00

^a NTMDI calculated for an adult of 60 kg body weight

^b NTMDI calculated for an adult of 75 kg body weight

^c values established by the World Health Organization

^d values established by the Codex Alimentarius Commission (Codex Alimentarius Commission, 1996)

^e NTMDI was not determined since MRL in olive oil was not set for these pesticides

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National Estimated Daily Intakes (NEDIs) (mg kg⁻¹ bw⁻¹ day⁻¹ or % of ADI) of pesticide residues (average and 90th percentile) by adults in

Greece.

Pesticide	NEDI ^a	NEDI ^a	NEDI ^b	NEDI ^b	NEDI ^a	NEDI ^a	NEDI ^b	NEDI ^b
	Average	(% of ADI)	Average	(% of ADI)	90 th Percentile	(% of ADI)	90 th Percentile	(% of ADI)
	(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻		(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻		(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻		(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻	
	¹ day ⁻¹)		¹ day ⁻¹)		¹ day ⁻¹)		¹ day ⁻¹)	
Omethoate	6.1*10 ⁻⁶	0.30	4.8*10 ⁻⁶	0.24	5.7*10 ⁻⁶	0.29	4.6*10 ⁻⁶	0.29
Dimethoate	7.0*10 ⁻⁶	0.35	5.6*10 ⁻⁶	0.28	1.3*10 ⁻⁵	0.66	1.1*10 ⁻⁵	0.53
Malaoxon	7.1*10 ⁻⁶	<0.01	5.7*10 ⁻⁶	<0.01	5.7*10 ⁻⁶	< 0.01	$4.6*10^{-6}$	<0.01
Fenthion	2.9*10 ⁻⁵	0.42	2.3*10 ⁻⁵	0.33	5.5*10 ⁻	0.78	4.4*10 ⁻⁵	0.63
Ethion	7.0*10 ⁻⁶	0.35	5.6*10 ⁻⁶	0.28	5.7*10 ⁻⁶	0.29	4.6*10 ⁻⁶	0.23
Fenthion sulfoxide	1.8*10 ⁻⁵	0.25	$1.4*10^{-5}$	0.20	6.0*10 ⁻⁵	0.86	4.8*10 ⁻⁵	0.68
Fenthion sulfone	$7.9*10^{-6}$	0.11	6.3*10 ⁻⁶	0.09	5.7*10 ⁻⁶	0.08	4.6*10 ⁻⁶	0.07

^a: NEDI calculated for adult 60kg body weight

^b: NEDI calculated for adult 75kg body weight

^c:values established by the World Health Organization

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National Estimated Short-Term Intakes (NESTIs) (mg kg ⁻¹bw ⁻¹day⁻¹or % of ARfD) of pesticide residues by adults in Greece and ARfDs

	NESTI ^a	NESTI ^a	NESTI ^b	NESTI ^b	\mathbf{ARfD}^{c}	
Pesticide	(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	(% of ARfD)	(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	(% of ARfD)	(mg kg ⁻¹ b.w. ⁻¹)	
Omethoate	5.0*10 ⁻⁵	0.25	4.0*10 ⁻⁵	0.20	0.02	
Dimethoate	6.5*10 ⁻⁵	0.33	5.2*10 ⁻⁵	0.26	0.02	
Malaoxon	1.4*10 ⁻⁴	0.01	1.1*10 ⁻⁴	0.006	2.00	
Fenthion	7.0*10 ⁻⁴	7.00	5.6*10 ⁻⁴	5.6	0.01	
Ethion	1.1*10 ⁻⁴	-	8.5*10 ⁻⁵	-	-	
Fenthion sulfoxide	$1.7^{*}10^{-4}$	1.7	1.3*10-4	1.3	0.01	
Fenthion sulfone	$1.5*10^{-4}$	1.5	$1.2^{*}10^{-4}$	1.2	0.01	
^a : NESTI calculated	for adult 60kg body wei	ght			1.	
^b : NESTI calculated	for adult 75kg body wei	ght				
с						

^c:values established by the World Health Organization

^d: values established by the Codex Alimentarius Commission (Codex Alimentarius Commission, 1996)

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_	Chlorpyrifos equivalents, TEF ^a , NL								Methamidophos equivalents, TEF ^b , USA				
SAMPLE -		Semi-chronic				Acute				Chronic			
	Averag	e intake	%	ADI	Average	e intake	% A	RfD	Average	e intake	% A	ADI	
_	(mg kg ⁻¹ t	ow ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)			(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)				(mg kg ⁻¹ bw ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)				
	60kg	75kg	60kg	75kg	60kg	75kg	60kg	75kg	60kg	75kg	60kg	75kg	
CRE1	$9.1*10^{-4}$	7.3*10 ⁻⁴	9.1	7.3	$8.6*10^{-5}$	6.9*10 ⁻⁵	0.09	0.07	$1.2*10^{-5}$	9.4*10 ⁻⁶	0.03	0.02	
CRE2	$9.6*10^{-4}$	$7.7*10^{-4}$	9.6	7.7	$2.2*10^{-4}$	$1.7*10^{-4}$	0.22	0.17	$1.2*10^{-5}$	9.5*10 ⁻⁶	0.03	0.02	
CRE3	$8.7*10^{-4}$	$6.9*10^{-4}$	8.7	6.9	$1.7*10^{-5}$	$1.4*10^{-5}$	0.02	0.01	$1.1*10^{-5}$	$9.2*10^{-6}$	0.03	0.02	
CRE4	$8.6*10^{-4}$	$6.9*10^{-5}$	0.86	0.69	$1.7*10^{-6}$	$1.4*10^{-6}$	< 0.01	< 0.01	$1.1*10^{-6}$	9.1*10 ⁻⁷	< 0.01	< 0.01	
CRE5	$1.1*10^{-3}$	$8.5*10^{-4}$	10.7	8.5	$2.1*10^{-5}$	$1.7*10^{-5}$	0.02	0.02	$1.4*10^{-5}$	$1.1*10^{-5}$	0.04	0.03	
CRE6	$5.0*10^{-4}$	$4.0*10^{-4}$	5.0	4.0	$1.0*10^{-3}$	$8.0*10^{-4}$	1.00	0.80	$2.5*10^{-4}$	$2.0*10^{-4}$	0.61	0.49	
CRE7	$4.3*10^{-4}$	$3.4*10^{-4}$	4.3	3.4	8.6*10 ⁻⁴	6.9*10 ⁻⁴	0.87	0.69	$2.1*10^{-4}$	$1.7*10^{-4}$	0.53	0.42	
CRE8	$7.4*10^{-4}$	$5.9*10^{-4}$	7.4	5.9	$1.0*10^{-4}$	$8.4*10^{-5}$	0.11	0.08	$3.2*10^{-5}$	$2.5*10^{-5}$	0.08	0.06	
CRE9	$3.2*10^{-4}$	$2.5*10^{-4}$	3.2	2.5	6.3*10 ⁻⁴	$5.1*10^{-4}$	0.64	0.51	$1.6*10^{-4}$	$1.3*10^{-4}$	0.39	0.31	
CRE10	$1.1*10^{-3}$	$8.6*10^{-4}$	10.7	8.6	$3.3*10^{-4}$	$2.7*10^{-4}$	0.33	0.27	$8.9*10^{-5}$	$7.1*10^{-5}$	0.22	0.18	
CRE11	$8.2*10^{-4}$	$6.6*10^{-4}$	8.2	6.6	$1.0*10^{-4}$	$8.6*10^{-5}$	0.11	0.09	$3.3*10^{-5}$	$2.6*10^{-5}$	0.08	0.07	
CRE12	$3.9*10^{-4}$	$3.2*10^{-4}$	3.9	3.2	$7.9*10^{-4}$	6.4*10 ⁻⁴	0.80	0.64	$1.9*10^{-4}$	$1.6*10^{-4}$	0.49	0.39	
CRE13	$8.8*10^{-4}$	$7.1*10^{-4}$	8.8	7.1	$1.8*10^{-5}$	$1.4*10^{-5}$	0.02	0.01	$1.2*10^{-5}$	9.3*10 ⁻⁶	0.03	0.02	
CRE14	$1.3*10^{-3}$	$1.0*10^{-3}$	12.9	10.3	$2.6*10^{-5}$	$2.1*10^{-5}$	0.03	0.02	$1.7*10^{-5}$	$1.4*10^{-5}$	0.04	0.03	
CRE15	$1.1*10^{-3}$	$8.6*10^{-4}$	10.8	8.6	$2.7*10^{-4}$	$2.2*10^{-4}$	0.28	0.22	7. $6*10^{-5}$	$6.1*10^{-5}$	0.19	0.15	
CRE16	$2.6*10^{-4}$	$2.1*10^{-4}$	2.6	2.1	$5.2*10^{-4}$	$4.2*10^{-4}$	0.52	0.42	$1.3*10^{-4}$	$1.0*10^{-4}$	0.32	0.26	
PEL1	$9.6*10^{-5}$	$7.7*10^{-5}$	0.96	0.77	$1.9*10^{-4}$	$1.5*10^{-4}$	0.19	0.15	$4.7*10^{-5}$	$3.8*10^{-5}$	0.12	0.09	

^a values established by Boon and van Klaveren et all 2000 (Boon et al. 2000) ^b values established by EPA 2002 (EPA 2002b)







