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## Determinants of non-dietary exposure to agricultural pesticides in populations living close to fields: a systematic review

#### **Authors**

Raphaëlle **TEYSSEIRE** a,b,c,d,\*, Guyguy **MANANGAMA** a,b,c, Isabelle **BALDI** a,b, Camille **CARLES** a,b, Patrick **BROCHARD** a,b,c, Carole **BEDOS** e, Fleur **DELVA** a,b,c

<sup>a</sup> Bordeaux Population Health Research Center, Inserm UMR1219-EPICENE, University of Bordeaux,

33076 Bordeaux

- b Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Public Health Pole, Bordeaux Hospital, 33076 Bordeaux, France
- <sup>c</sup> Environmental health platform dedicated to reproduction, ARTEMIS center, 33076 Bordeaux, France
- <sup>d</sup> Regional Health Agency of Nouvelle-Aquitaine, 33000 Bordeaux, France
- <sup>e</sup> ECOSYS, INRA-AgroParisTech-Université Paris-Saclay, 78850 Thiverval-Grignon, France.
- \*Correspondence: raphaelle.teysseire@chu-bordeaux.fr; Bordeaux Hospital,
  Department of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Place Amélie Raba-Léon,
  33076 Bordeaux Cedex, France Tel.: +33-557-821-627

#### **Abstract**

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- 2 Background: There is growing evidence in the scientific literature that individuals living near
- 3 fields are more exposed to agricultural pesticides than people living further away.
- 4 Objective: The main objective of this systematic review was to identify the non-dietary
- 5 determinants of pesticide exposure related to the drift pathway in residents living in
- 6 agricultural areas, including spatial indictors related to agricultural activities, hygiene
- 7 practices, behaviors and sociodemographic parameters.
- 8 Methods: Three databases were consulted (PubMed, Web of sciences, Scopus). At least two
- 9 experts selected the eligible studies.
- 10 Results: A total of 27 original studies (2002-2020) fulfilled the eligibility criteria of this review.
- 11 These publications explored pesticide exposure of individuals through measurements in
- 12 biological samples (n=13), environmental samples (n=11) or both (n=3). Spatial indicators,
- 13 including residential proximity to fields, crop acreage around the residence and amounts of
- 14 pesticides applied in the vicinity were identified as determinants of pesticide exposure in
- many studies (n=17), including publications considered to be of very good or good quality
- 16 (n=12). Season of spraying tended to increase the levels of pesticides measured in five
- 17 publications out of seven. Meteorological parameters and physical barriers showed an
- inconsistent and complex influence on the presence and levels of pesticides in urine samples
- 19 and house dust. Frequent housekeeping reduced the presence of pesticides at home and
- 20 consequently in biological matrices in three studies out of six. Finally, the effect of the
- 21 occupants' sociodemographic characteristics, behaviors, and hygiene practices on the
- 22 exposure measurement were less well documented and results were fairly inconsistent.
- 23 Discussion and conclusion: This study consolidates our knowledge of the determinants
- 24 influencing pesticide exposure levels in people living in agricultural areas. Nevertheless, the
- 25 available scientific data is still too limited to serve as a basis for developing risk management
- 26 measures. More research is needed to improve knowledge of the determinants of exposure.

#### Keywords

Pesticides, Agriculture, Environmental exposure, Residents, Spray drift, Exposure determinants

#### 1. Introduction

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Individual exposure to pesticides may result from a combination of several potential sources: 1/agricultural and non-agricultural work associated with direct and/or indirect pesticide exposure, 2/contact with people occupationally exposed to pesticides, 3/household pesticide use. 4/dietary ingestion of contaminated food and water, and 5/environmental exposures related to pesticide application in fields or manufacturing (U.S. EPA, 2020). The relative contribution of each of these sources can be difficult to discern and human can be exposed through dermal, oral, or respiratory routes leading to short-term and chronic health impacts (Kim et al., 2017). For people living close to agricultural areas, the agricultural drift pathway could contribute substantially to total exposure. Several studies have indeed demonstrated higher levels of pesticides in both biological and environmental matrices among agricultural communities compared to people residing away from agricultural land (Dereumeaux et al., 2020). The agricultural drift pathway includes several transfer processes. Transfer of pesticides into the atmosphere can occur directly during pesticide application by spray drift from the fields which then forms deposits (primary drift). Aerial emissions can also arise for several days or weeks after application by volatilization of pesticides from soils and plants or by wind erosion (secondary drift) (Bedos et al., 2002; FOCUS, 2008). These phenomena can result in the exposure of residents to pesticides via dermal, inhalation and ingestion routes (EFSA, 2014). Associations between pesticide exposure and the onset of a variety of adverse health outcomes such as cancers, neurological diseases, and adverse effects on fertility or pregnancy in populations living close to agricultural crops have been reported in the scientific literature (Teysseire et al., 2020). Improving knowledge of the factors that may influence pesticide exposure near treated fields is essential in order to design intervention strategies that reduce potential impacts on the population's health. We found two systematic reviews,

by the same authors, on the determinants of non-dietary exposure to pesticides in agricultural areas. Deziel et al. (2015) published a review on non-occupational pathways of pesticide exposure in women living in agricultural areas in North America, not involved in farm work: ten out of 35 publications (1995–2013) reported significant or suggestive (p<0.1) associations between agricultural drift pathway and pesticides in house dust or biomarker levels. The authors found moderate evidence of the efficiency of hygiene behaviors in reducing exposure. The second review on the relative contribution of non-occupational pathways to pesticide levels in house dust was based on seven studies covering the period 1995-2015, and indicated that pesticide concentrations in house dust decreased sharply and non-linearly as the distance of the home from treated fields increased, the magnitude depending on the type of pesticides (Deziel et al., 2017). These reviews focused on specific populations (women or children, often members of farming families), sample types (house dust mainly) and location (North America). We propose a broader systematic review to describe the existing literature on non-dietary determinants of exposure related to the drift pathway in populations living near treated fields, including spatial indicators related to agricultural activities, hygiene practices, behaviors and sociodemographic parameters.

#### 2. Methods

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#### 2.1. General framework for the review

We conducted a systematic review driven by the following question: "What are the determinants of non-dietary exposure to agricultural pesticides in people living near treated fields?". We defined the determinants of exposure as the factors explored in the studies that could explain the levels of pesticide exposure as spatial indictors related to agricultural activities, hygiene parameters, behaviors, and sociodemographic data.

This work has been reported following the PRISMA guidelines (Moher et al., 2009).

#### 2.2. <u>Literature Search</u>

The search for articles relied on three online bibliographic databases chosen for their complementarity in terms of the research areas covered: PubMed

82 (https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov), Web of sciences ( https://clarivate.com/webofsciencegroup/solutions/web-of-science) 83 and Scopus 84 (https://www.scopus.com). We used the following algorithm: (pesticide\* OR fungicide\* OR herbicide\* OR insecticide\*) exposure\* AND ((proximity AND (field OR crop\* OR agricultur\*)) 85 OR (residen\*) OR ((agricultural OR rural) AND (communit\* OR area\*))). We added articles 86 87 identified from websites or from the bibliographic references of the selected studies. The 88 references were managed using Mendeley Reference Manager (Mendeley - Reference 89 Management Software & Researcher Network).

#### 2.3. Study Eligibility Criteria

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- 91 To be included in our review, studies had to fulfill the following criteria:
- 92 1) original human studies published in English, French or Spanish.
- 2) studies referring to ground application of pesticides in agriculture. We excluded studies mentioning aircraft-mounted sprayers. The scale and speed of this kind of operation differ from ground spraying; the levels and profiles of exposure are *a priori* different for populations in the vicinity.
  - 3) studies including a 'spatialized' definition of the term 'resident', e.g. studies providing numerical spatial indicators such as the residential distance from fields or the agricultural amounts of pesticides applied in the vicinity. We did not consider a maximum distance from the treated field. Indeed, there is no harmonized definition of the term "resident" in the scientific literature based on distance to fields. A qualitative definition such as "rural area" was not considered as sufficient to define a resident but this information could have been studied as a potential determinant of exposure. As our main objective was to study exposure determinants linked to the agricultural drift pathway, we chose to exclude studies including exclusively farmworkers and/or their families. Indeed, previous reviews have demonstrated that it is difficult to disentangle the contribution of the agricultural drift pathway from other sources in these populations because of the major contribution of the take-home exposure route (Deziel et al., 2015; Hyland and Laribi, 2017). However, studies including famers'

- families and other people living near crops but not involved in agricultural work were retained.
- 111 4) non-experimental studies characterizing residents' exposure to pesticides using 112 biomonitoring or environmental monitoring and which quantitatively assess the effect of 113 potential exposure determinants.
- No limitations on the date of publication or the geographical location were applied.
- The relevant studies were selected by three reviewers (RT, GM, FD). For each article, the eligibility criteria were checked by two reviewers independently. A consensus was found between all the reviewers about inclusion/exclusion of the article in the event of disagreement.

#### 2.4. Data collection and analysis

For each article, the following information was collected: study reference, location, time period, population, pesticides or metabolites searched for, matrices of exposure explored, determinants of exposure to the agricultural pesticides studied, methods of measuring these determinants, and key findings. The results were summarized in tables. We also collected information on the type of statistical analysis performed and the associations found by the authors, which we have presented in the appendices.

We presented results of multivariable tests rather than univariate statistical tests when both were available, focusing on the results on the determinants explaining the presence/absence of pesticides rather than the factors predicting the levels of pesticide exposure. When only univariate statistical tests were performed, this was specified in the presentation of the results.

We designed a specific reading grid to assess the adequacy of the selected publications to answer the research question presented above, based on the analysis of the potential bias of each study. Indeed, we did not find any validated grid to assess the quality of studies in the field of exposure science directly applicable to our subject. The grid detailing the score calculation method is available in a supplemental file (Appendix A). Briefly, five criteria were

used: 1) population adequacy, 2) reliability of exposure measurement, 3) reliability of spatial determinants measurement, 4) reliability of non-spatial determinants measurement, 5) consideration of other sources of exposure for the pesticides under study. A score from 0 to 2 was calculated for each item when applicable, according to the criteria presented in the grid. The total score for an article was a mean of the score obtained for each relevant item expressed as a percentage of the maximal possible score. Publications were classified into four categories based on their adequacy score: A 'very good quality' (score above 75%), B 'good quality' (between 50 and 74%), C 'medium quality' (between 25 and 49%), D 'low quality' (less than 25%).

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Study selection

The search for articles in the selected databases was conducted on January 10, 2020. We included 27 publications in our review: 26 were identified through the databases and one was found in the grey literature (Figure 1). This document was a thesis. The main reasons for exclusion were: no mention of pesticides used in agriculture, no human population included, and inclusion of populations not considered as residents (workers or general population).

#### 3.2. General characteristics of included studies

The 27 articles included in our review were published between 2002 and 2020. They were from North America (n=14, 51.9%), Europe (n=8, 29.6%), Asia (n=3, 11.1%), South America (n=1, 3.7%), and Australia (n=1, 3.7%). The description of the type of crops near the residence was often missing (n=13, 48.1%). When the information was available, the crops identified, sometimes in association, were fruit trees (n=9, 33.3%), arable crops (n=6, 22.2%), vineyards (n=4, 17.8%), vegetables (n=4, 14.8%), and flowers (n=3, 11.1%). In 13 studies (48.1%), pesticide exposure was assessed only by biomonitoring, mainly measurements of pesticides in urine samples (n=12, 44.4%), maternal blood, umbilical cord blood and placental tissue (n=1) (Takser et al., 2004) and one study sampled prenatal dentin of shed teeth (n=1) (Gunier et al., 2013). The publications covered mainly insecticides and

their metabolites, such as organophosphates (OP) and their metabolites and notably Dialkyl phosphate (DAPs) (n=7), pyrethroids (PYR) and their metabolites (n=4) or imidacloprid and its metabolite (n=1). Two studies searched for herbicides and two for fungicides and their potential metabolites, such as ethylenethiourea (u-ETU). Finally, two searched for manganese (Mn) as an indirect measure of Mn-based fungicides such as maneb or mancozeb. The populations included in studies performing biomonitoring were children (n=7, 53.8%), pregnant or post-partum women (n=4, 30.8%) or families (n=2, 15.4%). The main results yielded by the biomonitoring studies regarding exposure determinants potentially related to the agricultural drift pathway are presented in Table 1. More details on these results (type of statistical analysis performed, associations found) are presented in Appendix B. Pesticides were measured only in environmental matrices in 11 studies (40.7%). Nine sampled house dust (n=9, 33.3%). Occasionally, pesticides were measured in air or in surface deposition samples using passive air samplers (n=1, 3.7%) and silicone wristbands (n=1, 3.7%). Pesticides investigated in the environment were mainly insecticides including OP (n=6) and/or PYR compounds (n=2), followed by herbicides (n=3) and other pesticides (n=4). In studies conducting environmental monitoring, populations living in the dwellings were rarely described. Results of environmental studies are presented in Table 2 and Appendix B. Finally, three studies explored both biological and environmental matrices (11.1%): two combined measurements in house dust and urines and one collected wipe samples from hands, feet, diverse surfaces in the home, and blood samples. Two of these three studies investigated OP pesticides and one PYR pesticides. Results of these studies are presented in Table 3 and Appendix B. The quality of the studies was variable: seven articles were classified in category A (25.9%), eight in category B (29.6%), nine in category C (33.3%) and finally three in category D

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(11.1%). Details on the score calculated for each study are presented in a supplemental file(Appendix C).

In addition, 18 articles (66.7%) also investigated occupational and para-occupational determinants of exposure, 16 (59.3%) explored the contribution of factors related to the household use of pesticides, and 9 (33.3%) investigated dietary factors.

#### 3.3. Spatial determinants of exposure

#### 3.3.1. Place of residence (rural vs. urban)

Studies of various quality established a positive association between living in a rural area and the detection rate or levels of pesticides in urine samples (Babina et al., 2012; Chevrier et al., 2014; Dereumeaux et al., 2018), silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019) and blood (Takser et al., 2004). Two medium or low quality studies found, conversely, a positive association between living in an urban area and levels of OP, PYR and/or herbicide metabolites in urine samples (Fernandez et al., 2020; Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012).

#### 3.3.2. Residential proximity to fields

Residential proximity to fields was the most common spatial determinant explored in the publications (n=16, 59.3%). A significant association between residential distance from the fields and pesticide measurements in different matrices was found in 12 of 16 studies (75%) of varying quality, seven being classified in category A or B and five in category C or D. Seven studies showed a positive association between residential distance from fields within 100 meters and elevated detection rates or concentrations of pesticides in urine samples and house dust. Three of these studies found an association for OP insecticides or its metabolites (DAPs) (Bradman et al., 2011; Butler-Dawson et al., 2018; Hung et al., 2018), two for the herbicide Dimethyl tetrachloroterephthalate (DCPA) (Harley et al., 2019; Harnly et al., 2009), one for a metabolite of fungicides (ETU) (Sammartano et al., 2019), and one for several herbicides (Ward et al., 2006). Three studies did not report any association with pesticide exposure indicators in urine samples (Babina et al., 2012; Koch et al., 2002) or

house dust (Hogenkamp et al., 2004) and living within 100 meters of fields. The pesticides explored were diverse, including insecticides, herbicides, and fungicides.

Six studies explored associations for greater distances. Of these, five showed a positive association between residential distance from fields less than 500 meters and elevated pesticide concentrations in urine samples or air for OP pesticides and its metabolites (n=4) (Coronado et al., 2011; Fernandez et al., 2020; Gibbs et al., 2017; Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012) and for atrazine and triazine metabolites (n=1) (Chevrier et al., 2014). One study found no association between distances less than 500 meters and levels of OP metabolites in urine samples (Royster et al., 2002).

#### 3.3.3. Crop acreage in one or several buffers around the home

Five publications studied the influence of crop acreage in one or more buffers around the home. In GIS, a buffer is a zone specified around a point or a line or a polygon area. In all the studies selected, this zone was a circular polygon with a center determined by the residential location. Three out of five studies (60%), considered to be of very good or good quality, found a positive association between areas of arable crops, vineyards and/or orchards within 500 to 1000 meters from the home and higher levels of pesticides in house dust (Béranger et al., 2014; Glorennec et al., 2017; Ward et al., 2006). Among these studies, one also found an association between the distance to the closest crop field and herbicide exposure; however, distance alone accounted for less of the variance than crop acreage (Ward et al., 2006). One very good quality study found no association between surface area of orchards and residential concentrations of pesticides (Plascak et al., 2019). One medium quality study showed no association between the number of fields in the vicinity and urinary DAPs levels (Royster et al., 2002).

#### 3.3.4. Amounts of pesticides applied around the dwelling

Four analyses conducted in California from the Pesticide Use Report (PUR) dataset explored the effect of the amounts of agricultural pesticides applied near the home on the presence of pesticides in several matrices. In California, all agricultural and non-agricultural pesticide

uses are reported to the California Department of Pesticide Regulation. Information about crops, active substances, date and amount of pesticides applied, location of application, are compiled into the PUR data set with a resolution of 1.6 km (one mile) square sections (California Departement of Pesticide Regulation). Three studies found significant associations between pesticide amounts applied around the home (≤ 3,000 meters) and the presence in house dust of chlorpyrifos, iprodione, DCPA (Gunier et al., 2011; Harnly et al., 2009), phosmet, simazine (Gunier et al., 2011) and manganese (Mn) (Gunier et al., 2014). One of these studies also searched for the influence of the distance to the nearest field and found an influence of this parameter for DCPA (Harnly et al., 2009). Higher Mn levels in prenatal dentin of shed teeth collected from a population of 7-year-old children were also associated with the use of Mn-based fungicides within 3000 meters of the maternal residence during pregnancy in a medium quality study (Gunier et al., 2013).

#### 3.3.5. Other spatial indicators

Two publications found positive associations between proximity of school or child care to fields and the insecticide levels in children's urines and/or house dust (Glorennec et al., 2017; Tao et al., 2019) while two others did not find any association with urinary concentrations of several fungicides or insecticide metabolites (Bradman et al., 2011; Sammartano et al., 2019).

The observation by subjects of pesticide spraying from home showed no influence on the measure of pesticides in silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019). These results were inconsistent with those in another lower quality publication reporting a positive association for pesticide spraying less than 1 km away (Takser et al., 2004).

#### 3.4. Meteorological and topographical determinants of exposure

#### 3.4.1. *Season*

The effect of season was investigated in seven studies. Four showed a significant increase in the urinary levels of OP metabolites (Bradman et al., 2011; Koch et al., 2002; Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012) and chlormequat (Galea et al., 2015) during spraying season

compared with the agricultural low-season, and two studies found higher urinary concentrations of atrazine and chlorpyrifos during winter (Chevrier et al., 2014; Galea et al., 2015). Variations of carbaryl concentrations in house dust were found in one study: levels were higher in fall than summer, spring, and winter (Gunier et al., 2011). One Asian study found no difference in pesticide concentrations in indoor and outdoor dust according to the season considered (warm/cold) (Hung et al., 2018).

#### 3.4.2. Meteorological and topographical determinants of exposure

All studies that included meteorological and topographical parameters were considered to be of very good or good quality.

The influence of daily rainfall prior to sampling yielded contradictory results. In two studies, an increase in precipitation on sampling days or in the month before sampling was associated with lower levels in urine samples and house dust for some OP pesticides (Bradman et al., 2011; Harnly et al., 2009), and with higher levels for other OP pesticides (Bradman et al., 2011). One publication found no association between precipitations during the last 4 and 8 weeks before sampling and Mn levels in house dust (Gunier et al., 2014).

The effect of temperature was studied in only one publication: increased temperatures on days prior to sampling were only associated with higher DCPA levels (Harnly et al., 2009).

The influence of wind direction on pesticide exposure was taken into account through the

The influence of wind direction on pesticide exposure was taken into account through the calculation of spatial indicators. Chevrier et al. (2014) developed a wind-weighted score for residential proximity to corn, while Béranger et al. (2014) investigated the influence of the crop acreage around the home for different buffer sizes, wind-weighted. Both studies found a positive association between these indicators and pesticide levels in biological and environmental matrices. Béranger et al. (2014) et al. found that the use of a wind-weighted indicator provided additional information compared with acreage alone and significantly improved the models used, whereas Chevrier et al. (2014) concluded that adding the prevailing wind into the models did not improve the prediction of urinary herbicide concentrations much. Finally, one study showed that the presence of vegetative barriers

between fields and homes, determined using GIS, reduced the presence and concentration of pesticides in house dust (Béranger et al., 2014).

#### 3.5. Sociodemographic determinants of exposure

#### 3.5.1. Age, gender and weight

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In children, a study observed that associations between determinants of pesticide exposure and urinary levels of insecticide metabolites differed by age when this parameter was considered as an interaction term in the models (Bradman et al., 2011). Two studies describe an inverse relationship among older children going to kindergarten or school (Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012; Tao et al., 2019). Three studies found no influence of age on exposure (Galea et al., 2015; Koch et al., 2002; Sammartano et al., 2019). Results for the effect of gender were also inconsistent: DAP levels in children's urines were higher in boys in one publication (Koch et al., 2002) and in girls in another (Bradman et al., 2011), while three studies observed no association (Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012; Sammartano et al., 2019; Tao et al., 2019). In adults, one study found higher pesticide exposure in younger adults (Dereumeaux et al., 2018), whereas five found no association (Chevrier et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2020; Galea et al., 2015; Sammartano et al., 2019; Takser et al., 2004). The effect of gender was investigated in a single study which found that ETU concentration in urine samples was not associated with gender (Sammartano et al., 2019). A higher body mass index or weight was associated with lower pesticide levels (PYR, OP and herbicides) in one study (Fernandez et al., 2020) but was not found to be a determinant of pesticide exposure in two publications with a better quality score (Dereumeaux et al., 2018; Sammartano et al., 2019).

#### 3.5.2. Other sociodemographic parameters

No association was found between pesticide indicators of exposure and the educational level or the household income of subjects (Chevrier et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2020; Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012; Takser et al., 2004). Results were contradictory regarding the house density metrics (Béranger et al., 2014; Gunier et al., 2014; Harnly et al., 2009).

#### 3.6. Hygiene factors

#### 3.6.1. *Housekeeping*

Three studies with a high level of confidence found that the more frequently the house was cleaned, the lower the presence or concentrations of several pesticides in urine samples (Glorennec et al., 2017), house dust (Harnly et al., 2009), and silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019). These associations were not reported for all the pesticides studied, and two publications considered to be of very good or good quality observed no association between the frequency or the quality of house cleaning and pesticide contamination (Bradman et al., 2011; Butler-Dawson et al., 2018).

Increased time or frequency of window opening was associated with higher concentrations of certain pesticides only, i.e. p-nitrophenol in urine samples (Fernandez et al., 2020) and esfenvalerate in silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019). Two studies found no association at all (Butler-Dawson et al., 2018; Siriwat et al., 2019). Similarly, results regarding the influence of a ventilation system on OP pesticide exposure were inconsistent (Butler-Dawson et al., 2018; Harnly et al., 2009).

#### 3.6.2. Other hygiene factors

Personal hygiene practices were studied in a single medium quality publication where frequent hand washing was associated with lower concentrations of chlorpyrifos residue on feet (Siriwat et al., 2019).

Three high quality studies found no influence of the presence of pets in the dwelling on urinary concentrations of DAPs (Bradman et al., 2011) or on the pesticides' presence or concentrations in indoor dust (Béranger et al, 2014) or in silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019).

Finally, the presence of carpeting in homes was associated only with the presence of DCPA in silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019); this parameter showed no influence on the urinary concentrations of DAPs (Bradman et al., 2011). The presence of doormats was associated with a lower presence of permethrin and piperonyl butoxide, a synergist

compound of pesticide products, in silicone wristbands (Harley et al., 2019) and with lower Mn in house dust (Gunier et al., 2014).

#### 3.7. Activities of the occupants

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Activities and behaviors of persons residing near agricultural fields were not extensively investigated. In one study, pesticide exposure was not associated with child behavior indicators (Bradman et al., 2011). Duration of play or sitting on the floor was associated with lower concentrations of chlorpyrifos on hands and feet in one study (Siriwat et al., 2019). Time spent inside and outside a building located near agricultural activities was not associated with pesticide levels in urine samples (Galea et al., 2015; Sammartano et al., 2019), except for one study of a child population (Bradman et al., 2011). Four studies found no influence of smoking on pesticide levels in urine samples (Chevrier et al., 2014; Fernandez et al., 2020; Galea et al., 2015; Takser et al., 2004), while one observed an association between the concentrations of pyrethroids in pregnant women's urines and their smoking habits (Dereumeaux et al., 2018). One publication found lower Mn levels in the deciduous teeth of children whose mothers smoked during pregnancy (Gunier et al., 2013). Smoking habits could lead to pesticide exposure, not only through the consumption of pesticide-treated tobacco leaves (Cai et al., 2002), but also because smoking is likely to increase hand-to-mouth carrying (Dereumeaux et al., 2018). None of the studies incorporating smoking habits was considered to be of good quality.

#### 4. Discussion

The main objective of this systematic review was to identify the non-dietary determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides in populations living near treated fields. Twenty-seven relevant studies were analyzed and provided consistent evidence about the role of the drift pathway in the overall pesticide exposure of people residing in agricultural areas, which is expected to be linked with atmospheric dispersion at the local range. Spatial indicators, reflecting agricultural activities, were the determinants studied most frequently and were found to be associated to pesticide levels or presence in urine samples or house dust in a

majority of studies, including high quality publications. Indicators of exposure were more frequently associated with the amounts of pesticides applied in the vicinity than other metrics such as crop acreage around the home or residential proximity to fields. Studies that explored several indicators confirmed that the amount of pesticide used locally better explained the level of exposure observed (Harnly et al., 2009; Ward et al., 2006). The studies reviewed here also found frequently increased urinary levels of pesticides during the treatment season compared with the non-spraying period, which is an additional argument in favor of the contribution of the agricultural drift pathway in exposure. These findings are in line with those from previous reviews conducted in other populations (farmworkers and their families, or other agricultural communities) which also identified many studies that concluded that people living near agricultural lands were more exposed to pesticides than people living elsewhere (Dereumeaux et al., 2020; Deziel et al., 2017; Deziel et al., 2015). However, although these results may support the importance of the agricultural drift pathway overall, they remain inconsistent from one study to another, even for the same family of pesticides. The values of the spatial indicators associated with a significant effect on pesticide exposure varied greatly between publications. They ranged between 30 and 750 meters for the residential distance from the fields. The indicators based on crop surfaces and amounts of pesticides applied, associated with exposure, had buffer radii ranging between 500 and 3,000 meters. The disparities observed could be due to the large variations in study protocols. Sampling strategies were indeed very diverse regarding the matrix considered, the choice of exposure marker, the population followed, the temporality of measurements, and the analysis techniques. Moreover, in the scientific literature, several parameters have been identified as influencing the emission and dispersion of agricultural pesticides in ambient air, including the physico-chemical characteristics of compounds, the type of vegetation treated, the spraying equipment used (FOCUS, 2008). The values of these parameters were highly variable in the reviewed studies and could partially explain the differences observed in the results. Meteorological conditions during and after spraying also play a role in the emission

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and transport of pesticides (FOCUS, 2008). High temperatures, or elevated wind velocity generally enhance the volatilization rate from plant and soils and consequently increase pesticide losses into the atmosphere (Bedos et al., 2002; FOCUS, 2008). Some of the studies we reviewed showed an influence of several of these variables on pesticide levels in urine samples or house dust but the results could sometimes be contradictory depending on the substance considered (Bradman et al., 2011; Harnly et al., 2009). Controlling some of the parameters linked to pesticides and their conditions of application could be a relevant way to reduce exposure among people living near treated fields and prevent adverse health effects. Sammartano et al. (2019) observed a significant reduction of u-ETU in adults and children after local stakeholders banned the use of mancozeb on vineyards. Other mitigation measures could also reduce residents' pesticide exposure, such as applying pesticides under favorable weather conditions, using drift reduction techniques or installing windbreaks at the edges of fields. The delimitation of no-spray buffer zones could also be proposed (FOCUS, 2007). As argued by Gunier et al. (2017), determining a safe distance or buffer should be based on the published literature about health effects related to pesticide exposure. However, the authors estimated that the scientific data was still limited to identify the correct distance that would protect public's health and that more research is needed in this field. Exposure to pesticides also seems to depend on some sociodemographic parameters. In children, half of the studies investigating an effect of age showed that this was a possible determinant of exposure. In toddlers, some authors observed elevated levels of pesticides at 12 and 24 months compared to 6-month-old children and they related these to changes in behaviors and diet (Bradman et al., 2011). After three years old, publications found an inverse relation between age and insecticide levels in urine samples. The authors argued that the higher concentrations found in younger children could be due to their smaller body size or their immature metabolism which might lead to longer pesticide half-lives in their body, but could also be related to specific behaviors (e.g., mouthing activity, hygiene habits,

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time spent on the floor) (Munoz-Quezada et al., 2012; Tao et al., 2019). Some studies confirmed a possible effect of children's behaviors on their exposure to OP pesticides. Sitting on the floor, playing periods and time spent in child care have been associated with urinary levels of DAPs (Bradman et al., 2011; Siriwat et al., 2019). The effect of gender on the level of pesticide exposure remains inconsistent since two studies described as being of good or medium quality found opposite results, whereas the rest of the publications did not find any association. One article speculates that some differences in behavioral and/or activity patterns between boys and girls could cause exposure disparities. Boys may be more exposed because of a higher frequency of hand-to-mouth activity or strenuous physical activities (Koch et al., 2002). Finally, the effect of parental socioeconomic status has not been extensively studied. Parental education was investigated in a single publication and was not related to children's pesticide exposure. No conclusion can be drawn from this single study. The relationships between socioeconomic status and chemical levels of exposure in biological matrices can be very complex and give heterogeneous results according to the pollutant considered; higher exposures are not always found in poor and minority communities (Morrens et al., 2012; Tyrrell et al., 2013). In the case of pesticide exposure driven by the agricultural drift pathway, it would be difficult to hypothesize the effect of socioeconomic status on exposure and this question needs to be explored in future studies. In adults, the results extracted from the selected studies do not favor an effect of age and gender on pesticide exposure, but information is still limited and comes from a study considered to be of lower quality. However, some biological factors could cause physical and metabolic disparities between men and women. Some behavioral differences could also lead to differentiate results according to gender. Women spend in general more time in a residential setting than men (Schweizer et al., 2007) and could be more exposed to pesticides by the agricultural drift pathway. Effects of behaviors and activities have not been investigated in the reviewed studies, except for smoking habits, which showed poor evidence for predicting the levels of pesticides in urine samples. Nor is it possible to distinguish the

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contribution of hand-to-mouth contact that could be linked to contamination of homes located near agricultural fields by the consumption of pesticide-treated tobacco leaves.

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The effects of age, gender, socioeconomic status and behaviors have been only rarely explored in adults and children and the trends observed need to be confirmed in further studies. Indeed, they are not usually investigated as determinants for exposure but are frequently used as *a priori* variables of adjustments in statistical modelling. By improving knowledge of these determinants, it could be possible to design targeted effective interventions in order to reduce exposure.

Residential exposure to pesticides could be modified by hygiene factors. Three of the studies

we reviewed showed a positive impact of an elevated frequency or quality of house cleaning in the reduction of pesticides for several matrices (house dust, silicone wristbands and urines). These findings are consistent with those obtained in the environment of farmworkers and their families (Deziel et al., 2015; Quandt et al., 2006). Improving cleaning practices could be an effective leverage for reducing pesticide exposure. However, previous interventions promoting hygiene practices in farmworkers' homes gave mixed results (Griffith et al., 2019; Salvatore et al., 2015; Thompson et al., 2008). Two publications showing a positive effect of interventions on reducing pesticide exposure provided limited information about which behaviors or combination of behaviors and what level of compliance would most effectively prevent residential pesticide contamination (Griffith et al., 2019; Salvatore et al., 2015). Other hygiene factors were less explored: personal hygiene in children, and presence of a doormat were associated with lower indicators of exposure, whereas open windows seem related to higher exposure values. The presence of pets in the house and carpets on the floor were not associated with the pesticides measured in the environment. Hygiene factors should be investigated further in order to identify potential leverage to reduce residents' exposure to agricultural pesticides.

To our knowledge, this study is the first qualitative systematic review exploring the state of knowledge about non-dietary determinants of exposure conducted in a non-specific

population of residents. It can be compared with previous work carried out in other populations (children, women living in agricultural areas). This work has been reported using the PRISMA Guidelines. In addition, we created a subject-specific evaluation grid to interpret the biases of the studies from the perspective of our research question. However, there are limitations to this review. Few of the publications we selected were specifically designed to answer our research question. The populations selected in the reviewed publications could be very heterogeneous and frequently included farmworkers or their families. The contribution of the agricultural drift pathway may therefore be difficult to distinguish from other routes, such as the take-home or the residential exposure pathways. Indeed, some previous studies have shown that these routes could contribute substantially to overall exposure (Deziel et al., 2015; Hyland and Laribi, 2017; Quandt et al., 2006). Although the selected studies performed adjustments to the statistical modeling, some potential confounding factors could remain. Finally, the review we conducted was perhaps not totally exhaustive. Using a definition of "residents" based on spatial indicators, we may have wrongly considered some people living near treated fields as "general population". Studies conducted by scientific institutions as part of environmental health policy are not usually published in the databases we consulted, and could probably not be identified despite consulting the grey literature. We might also have missed studies published in other languages than English, French or Spanish. The results provided by this review are still too limited to comprehensively identify the determinants contributing substantially to the pesticide exposure linked to the drift pathway and they should be interpreted with caution. Future studies are needed to confirm the trends observed and acquire data on the poorly or insufficiently studied determinants. These studies should be specially designed to assess drift exposure. In their review published in 2020, Dereumeaux et al. (2020) developed a list of study characteristics to accurately measure spray-drift exposure in residents, and this could be used as a framework reference. It is indeed essential to improve knowledge of the determinants of exposure in order to design

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appropriate interventions and thus reduce exposure and prevent health effects related to agricultural pesticides in populations at risk.

#### 5. Conclusion

A majority of the studies we selected in our systematic review provided robust evidence for the contribution of the agricultural drift pathway in overall pesticide exposure in people living near fields. Several spatial indicators reflecting pesticide use around residences have been associated with elevated concentrations of agricultural pesticides in both biological and environmental matrices in residents. Other potential determinants of exposure such as sociodemographic characteristics, behaviors and hygiene practices have been less extensively studied. It is hoped that our knowledge of determinants of pesticide exposure could be improved from future studies specifically designed to explore this research question. Improving knowledge of the determinant of pesticide exposure due to the agricultural drift pathway is essential in order to design efficient and proportionate interventions and thus prevent the onset of adverse health effects in populations living near treated fields.

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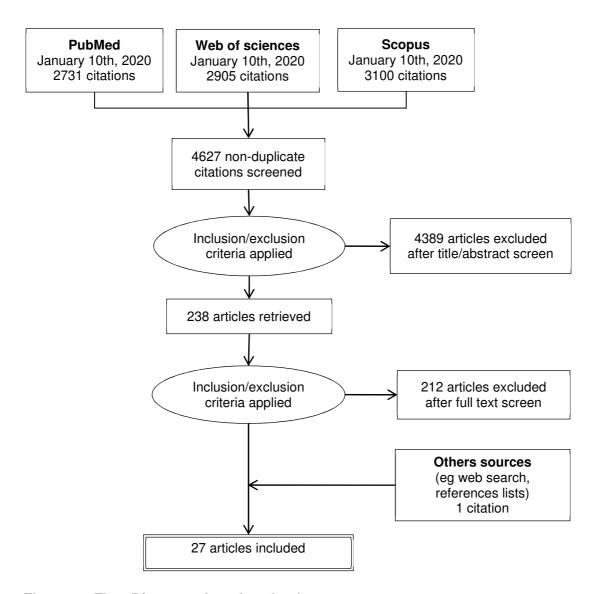


Figure 1 - Flow Diagram of study selection

Table 1 – Evidence for determinants of non-dietary exposure to agricultural pesticides linked to spray drift in people living close to fields in biomonitoring studies (n=13)

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
(Babina et	Australia, 2003–2004,	Urines (1 sample): 8 OP	Residential proximity to fields (<50 m	Self-	- 3-Methyl-p-nitrophenol, and DMTP detection	С
al., 2012)	children aged <6 years	and 4 PYR metabolites	or < 200m), area of residence (rural,	administered	Living in a periurban or rural area (+)	
	(N=115 urban, 111 peri-		urban), smoking	questionnaire		
	urban, 114 rural)					
(Bradman et	USA, California, 2000-	Urines (1 sample at 6, 12,	Age, gender, time in child care, child	Face-to-face	- DEAPs and DMAPs levels	Α
al., 2011)	2003, children <2 years	24 months of age): 6 OP	behavior, season, daily rainfall in the	interview	Average daily rainfall (- for DMAPs, -/+ for	
	old, CHAMACOS cohort	metabolites (DAPs)	past week, residential or child care		DEAPs), living ≤60m from fields (+),	
	(N=416)		proximity to fields ≤60m, house		summer/spring (+)	
			cleaning frequency, presence of			
			carpets, pets at home			
(Chevrier et	France, 2002-2006,	Urines (1 sample): 4	Rural place of residence (<15%	Self-	- Alachlor presence	В
al., 2014)	pregnant women,	herbicides (acetochlor,	artificial surfaces in a 500-m radius),	administered	Living in rural areas (+)	
	PELAGIE cohort	alachlor, metolachlor,	score of residential proximity to corn	questionnaire,	- Atrazine and triazine metabolites presence	
	(N=579)	atrazine) and metabolites	crops (wind-weighted or not), season,	GIS	Residential proximity to crops wind-weighted	
			age, educational level, smoking		(+), winter (+)	
(Dereumeaux	France, 2011, pregnant	Urines (1 sample): 5 PYR	Presence of crops <2000m from	Self-	- Sum of pyrethroids levels	В
et al., 2018)	women, Elfe cohort	metabolites	home, age, household income, BMI,	administered	Smoking (+), living near orchards or vineyards	
	(N=1077)		smoking	questionnaire,	(+), age (-)	
				interview, GIS	- 3-PBA levels	
					Living near orchards or vineyards (+)	

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
(Fernandez	Spain, 2015, post-	Urines (1 sample): 20	Age, BMI, country of birth, education	Self-	- PNP concentrations (metabolite of parathion)	D
et al., 2020)	partum women (n = 116)	metabolites of OP, PYR	level, occupational status, residential	administered	Living in rural area (-), windows opening (+)	
		and herbicides	proximity to farms <200m, area of	questionnaire	- TCP concentrations (metabolite of	
			residence (rural, urban), daily time with		chlorpyrifos-ethyl)	
			windows open, smoking		BMI (-), living < 200m from farming areas (+)	
(Galea et al.,	UK, 2011-2012, adults	Urines (N=1518 samples):	Season (1-2 days after a spray event,	Self-	- Chlormequat levels	Α
2015)	(N=118) and children	chlormequat and	during spraying season, during non-	administered	Sampling after spray event (+)	
	(N=22) residing <100 m	metabolites of captan	spraying season), gender, age, time	questionnaire	- Chlorpyrifos levels	
	from fields	(THPI), chlorpyrifos (TCP)	spent indoors and outdoors		Sampling after spray event (-)	
		or cypermethrin (DCVA)				
(Gunier et al.,	USA, California, 1999-	Prenatal dentin of shed	Agricultural use of Mn fungicides near	Face-to-face	- Mn levels	С
2013)	2000, 7-year-old	teeth (N=324): Mn	the maternal residence during	interview, GIS	Agricultural use of pesticide within 3km around	
	children, CHAMACOS		pregnancy (<1, 3, and 5 km), smoking		home (+), Smoking during pregnancy (-)	
	cohort (N=207)		during pregnancy			
(Koch et al.,	USA, Washington State,	Urines (16 to 26 samples):	Residential proximity to fields (<60m	Face-to-face	- Dimethyl and diethyl DAPs levels	В
2002)	1997-1998, 2-5-year-	five OP metabolites	vs. >60m), season, age, gender	interview, GIS	Sampling during spray months (+), Male gender	
	old children (N=44)	(DAPs)			(+)	
(Munoz-	Chile, 2010-2011, 6-12-	Urine samples (1 in fall	Season, age, gender, parental	Questionnaire	- Sum of DEAPs levels	С
Quezada et	year-old children	and 1 in summer): 6 OP	education, residential proximity to farm		Age < 9 years (+), Living in urban area (+)	
al., 2012)	(N=190)	metabolites (DAPs)	(≤500m, > 500m), residential location		- DMAPs detection	
			(urban, rural)		Summer (+), Proximity to a farm ≤500m (+)	

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study score
(Royster et	USA, California, 2000,	Urines (1 sample): OP	Residential proximity to fields (<400m;	Face-to-face	No association *	С
al., 2002)	Children aged 12-18	metabolites (DAPs)	400-800m; 800-1600m; <1600m),	interview, GIS		
	months (N=20)		living near multiple fields			
(Sammartano	Italy, 2011-2014, 3-5-	Urine (1 sample): u-ETU,	Residential or school proximity to	Self-	- u-ETU levels in children	С
et al., 2019)	year-old children	metabolite of	vineyards (≤ 30m, 31–200m, > 200m),	administered	Living ≤ 30m from vineyards (+)	
	(N=126) and adults	dithiocarbamates	size of the closest vineyards, gender,	questionnaire		
	(N=260)		age, weight, time spent indoors			
(Takser et	Canada, pregnant	Maternal blood (1 to 3	Pace of living, reported pesticide	Face-to-face	- Mn blood levels	D
al., 2004)	women (N=101)	samples), umbilical cord	spraying <1 km, educational level,	interview	Living in urban and/or agricultural areas vs.	
		blood and placental tissue:	age, gender, smoking		living in a village (+) *, pesticide spraying <1 km	
		Mn			from house (+) *	
(Tao et al.,	China, 2017, orchard	Urines (1 sample): IMI and	School proximity to fields, gender, age	Questionnaires	- IMI and 6-CAN levels	D
2019)	workers families	6-CNA		administered	Children schooling close to orchards (+) *	
	(N=275), kindergarten			to parents		
	children, (N=247), urban					
	residents (N=95)					

<sup>(+)</sup> positive associations; (-) negative associations; \* results from univariate statistical tests

Abbreviations: 6-CNA: 6-chloronicotinic acid, BMI: Body Mass Index, DAPs: Dialkyl phosphates, DCCA: cis- and trans-3-(2,2-dichlorovinyl)-2,2-dimethyl-cyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, DCVA: cis- and trans- 2,2-dichlorovinyl-3,3-dimethylcyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid; DEAPs: Diethylalkylphosphates, DEP: diethyl phosphate, DMAPs: dimethylalkylphosphates, DMTP: dimethyl thiophosphate, GIS: Geographic Information System, IMI: Imidacloprid, Mn: Manganese, OP: Organophosphorus pesticides, PBA: 3-phenoxybenzoic acid; PNP: p-nitrophenol; PYR: Pyrethroids, u-ETU: urinary ethylenethiourea, TCP: 3,5,6-trichlorpyridinol, THPI: cis-1,2,3,6-tetrahydrophthalimide

Table 2 – Evidence for determinants of non-dietary exposure to agricultural pesticides linked to spray drift in people living close to fields in environmental monitoring studies (n=11)

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
(Beranger et	France, 2012, homes	House dust: 64 agricultural	Crop acreage around home (wind-	Face-to-face	- Presence or levels of pesticides	Α
al., 2014)	<1000m from orchards,	pesticides	weighted or not), barriers (vegetative,	interview, GIS	Crop acreage (+), prevailing wind (+), barriers (-	
	cereals or vineyards		topographic, structural), presence of		)	
	(N=203)		pets, number of occupants			
(Butler-	USA, 2008-2011,	House dust (2 samples 1	Residential proximity to fields or	Face-to-face	- Azinphos-methyl and phosmet levels (in	В
Dawson et	agricultural (N=138) and	year apart): azinphos-	orchards <25m, window/door opening	interview	the non-agricultural household)	
al., 2018)	non-agricultural families	methyl, phosmet,	frequency, presence of ventilation,		Living <25m from fields or orchards	
	(N=140)	malathion, chlorpyrifos	house cleaning frequency			
(Gibbs et al.,	USA, Washington State,	Polyurethane foam	Residential proximity to orchards	GIS	- Concentrations in outdoor air/Indoor air/	С
2017)	2011, farmworker	passive air samplers,	≤250m		Surface deposition of OP and their oxygen	
	(N=14) and non-	polypropylene deposition			analogs	
	farmworker (N=9)	plates: OP (chlorpyrifos,			Residential proximity to fields ≤ 250m (+) *	
	households	azinphos-methyl) and their				
		oxygen analogs				
(Gunier et al.,	USA, California, 2001-	House dust: carbaryl,	Agricultural use of pesticide near home	Face-to-face	- Chlorpyrifos, DCPA, iprodione, phosmet, and	В
2011)	2006, homes where	chlorpyrifos, diazinon,	(<500m; <1250m), season	interview, GIS	simazine levels	
	>25% of land area	phosmet, DCPA, simazine,			Pesticide use <1,250m from home during the	
	within 500m in fields	iprodione			past 365 days (+)	
	(N=89)				- Carbaryl levels	

Study	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study score
					Season (fall>summer> spring>winter) (+)	
(Gunier et al.,	USA, California, 1999-	Dust (N=378 in the first	Housing and population density	Face-to-face	- Concentrations or loading of Mn in dust	В
2014)	2000, residences,	sampling and N=90 in the	(pers/room, pers/m²), precipitations in	interview, GIS	collected at both visits	
	CHAMACOS cohort	second): Mn	the past weeks, elevation (m), Mn-		Agricultural Mn fungicide use near home in past	
	(N=465)		fungicide use near home		4 weeks wind-weighted (+), Poor housekeeping	
			(500/1000/3000 m) in the past 2		(+)	
			months, Mn-fungicide use near home			
			wind-weighted (<3000m),			
			housekeeping quality, number of			
			doormats			
(Harley et al.,	USA, 2016, 14-16-year-	Silicone wristbands worn	Residential proximity to fields <100m,	Face-to-face	- DCPA presence	А
2019)	old girls living in	for 1 week: 63 pesticides	observing sprayings from home, living	interview	Carpet in home (+) $^{\star}$ , living in the city (-) $^{\star}$ ,	
	California (N=97)	and related breakdown	in the city, window open at night,		crops within 100 m of home (+) *	
		products	having carpets and doormats, house		- Permethrin presence	
			cleaning frequency		Doormats (-) *	
					- Esfenvalerate presence	
					Window open at night (+) *,	
					- Piperonyl butoxide presence	
					Clean daily (-) *	

Study	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
Harnly et al.,	USA California, 1999-	House dust (3 samples per	Agricultural pesticide use near home	Face-to-face	- Chlorpyrifos concentrations	В
2009)	2000, residences,	dwelling): 14 OP, two	for different periods, residential	interview, GIS	Agricultural pesticide use in past month (+), air	
	CHAMACOS cohort	PYR, and 4 other	proximity to fields <60m, temperature		conditioner in home (-)	
	(N=168)	pesticides (iprodione,	and rainfall, housekeeping quality,		- Diazinon concentrations	
		DCPA, vinchlozolin,	having an air conditioner, housing		Rainfall in last days (-), housing density ≥2 (+)	
		methomyl)	density (pers/room)		- DCPA concentrations	
					Agricultural pesticide use in past month, season	
					(+), living $\leq$ 60m from fields (+), temperatures in	
					past days, month and season (+), rainfall in last	
					days, month, season (-), home less clean (+)	
					- Iprodione concentrations	
					Agricultural pesticide use near home in past	
					month/season (+)	
					- Trans-permethrin	
					Air conditioner in home (+)	
Hogenkamp	Netherlands, homes	House dust: chlorizadon,	Residential proximity to fields <20m	Checklist	- Chlorizadon, chloropropham, flutolanil	С
t al., 2004)	<400m from bulb fields	chloropropham,		during	procymidon, toclofos-methyl	
	of farmers (N=12) and	metamitron, flutolanil		sampling	No association	
	non-farmers (N=15)	procymidon, toclofos-				
		methyl, vinchlozolin				

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
(Hung et al.,	Taiwan, 2016, pregnant	Indoor and outdoor dust:	Season, presence of farms around	Face-to-face	- Detection of chlorpyrifos outdoors	С
2018)	women (N=56)	Carbamate (carbofuran),	home (25, 50, 100, 200m)	interview, GIS	Farm within 50m and 100m (+) *	
		OP (chlorpyrifos, terbufos),				
		PYR (cypermethrin,				
		cyphenothrin,				
		deltamethrin, permethrin,				
		prallethrin, tetramethrin)				
(Plascak et	USA, Washington State,	House dust (n=418): OP	Orchard density around home	Face-to-face	- Summed dimethyl OP concentrations	Α
al., 2019)	2011, families (N=99)	(azinphos-methyl,		interview, GIS	Increasing orchard density for the 750m and	
		phosmet,			1250m radius around home (-)	
		malathion)				
(Ward et al.,	USA, Iowa, 1998–2000,	House dust (1 sample per	Acres of corn and soybeans around	GIS	- Detection or concentrations of herbicides	Α
2006)	homes of adults	home): 14 herbicides	home (< 100, 101–250, 251–500,		Acreages of corn and soybean < 750m (+),	
,	(N=112)		501–750m), distance from fields		Distance from fields (-)	

<sup>(+)</sup> positive associations; (-) negative associations; \* results from univariate statistical tests

Abbreviations: DCPA: Dimethyl tetrachloroterephthalate, GIS: Geographic Information System, Mn: Manganese, OP: Organophosphorus pesticides, PYR: Pyrethroids

Table 3– Evidence for determinants of non-dietary exposure to agricultural pesticides linked to spray drift in people living close to fields in environmental and biomonitoring studies (n=3)

Study reference	Location, Time period, Population	Exposure measurement	Determinants of exposure to agricultural pesticides studied	Measurement of exposure determinants	Determinants of exposure to pesticides (results from multivariate models)	Study
(Coronado et	USA, Washington State,	Urines (3 samples): 3 OP	Residential proximity to fields	Face-to-face	- DMTP levels	Α
al., 2011)	2005-2006, farmworker	metabolites (DMP, DMTP		interview, GIS	Residential distance from fields (-)	
	and non-farmworker	and DMDTP)				
	adults (N=200) and	House dust: azinphos-				
	children (N=199)	methyl and phosmet				
(Glorennec et	France, 6-year-old	Urines: 5 PYR metabolites	Crop acreages around home and	Self-	- Cis-DBCA, 3-PBA, Tetramethrin presence or	В
al., 2017)	children, PELAGIE	House dust: 5 PYR	school (<500m), house cleaning	administered	levels	
	cohort (N=245)	(cyfluthrin, cypermethrin,	frequency	questionnaire,	Crop acreages around home and school (+)	
		deltamethrin, permethrin,		GIS	- Trans-DCCA and Cis-DCCA presence or	
		tetramethrin)			levels	
					House cleaning ≥ 2/week (+)	
(Siriwat et al.,	Thailand, 2016, children	Wipe samples on hands,	Showers and hand washing frequency,	Face-to-face	- Chlorpyrifos concentrations (feet)	С
2019)	aged 12-36 months	feet, and surfaces (toys,	house cleaning frequency, window	interview	Frequent hand washing (-), playing duration (-),	
	living < 50m from fields	beds, floors): chlorpyrifos	opening frequency, children's activities		sitting on floor, lying on wooden bed (-)	
	(N=65)	Blood cholinesterase	and behaviors		- Blood cholinesterase activity	
		levels			House cleaning frequency (+)	

<sup>(+)</sup> positive associations; (-) negative associations

Abbreviations: DBCA: cis-3-(2,2-dibromovinyl)-2,2-dimethylcyclopropane carboxylic acid, DCCA: cis- and trans-3-(2,2-dichlorovinyl)-2,2-dimethyl-cyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, DMP: dimethylphosphate, DMDTP: dimethyl thiophosphate, GIS: Geographic Information System, OP: Organophosphorus pesticides, 3-PBA: 3-phenoxybenzoic acid; PNP: p-nitrophenol; PYR: Pyrethroids

#### DETERMINANTS OF NON-DIETARY HUMAN EXPOSURE TO AGRICULTURAL PESTICIDES

#### **Spatial indicators**

- amounts of pesticides locally applied (+)
- crop acreage around home (+)
- proximity to fields (+)

## Meteorological and topographical parameters

- spring/summer (+)
- temperature (+/-)
- precipitations (+/-)
- wind direction (+)
- barriers (-)



### Sociodemographic determinants

- age (+/-)
- gender (+/-)
- weight (+/-)
- educational level (0)
- household income (0)
- house density (+/-)

#### **Hygiene factors**

- house cleaning freq. (-)
- personal hygiene freq. (-)
- pets in the dwelling (0)
- floor covering (+/-)
- doormat presence (-)
- ventilation (+/-)

### Activities of the occupants

- child behavior (+/-)
- time spent inside (0)
- smoking (+/-)

Associations found in the scientific literature with the risk or the level of pesticide exposure: (+): positive associations, (-): negative associations (+/-): contradictory results, (0): no association