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5

6 **Impact of historical legacy pesticides on achieving legislative goals in Europe**

7

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22

23

24 **Abstract**

25

26 Pesticides are widely used in agriculture to optimise food production. However, the movement  
27 of pesticides into water bodies negatively impacts aquatic environments. The European Union  
28 (EU) aims to make food systems fair, healthy and environmentally friendly through its current  
29 Farm to Fork strategy. As part of this strategy, the EU plans to reduce the overall use and risk  
30 of chemical pesticides by 50% by 2030. The attainment of this target may be compromised by  
31 the prevalence of legacy pesticides arising from historical applications to land, which can  
32 persist in the environment for several decades. The current EU Farm to Fork policy overlooks  
33 the potential challenges of legacy pesticides and requirements for their remediation. In this  
34 review, the current knowledge regarding pesticide use in Europe, as well as pathways of  
35 pesticide movement to waterways, are investigated. The issues of legacy pesticides, including  
36 exceedances, are examined, and existing and emerging methods of pesticide remediation,  
37 particularly of legacy pesticides, are discussed. The fact that some legacy pesticides can be  
38 detected in water samples, more than twenty-five years after they were prohibited, highlights  
39 the need for improved EU strategies and policies aimed at targeting legacy pesticides in order  
40 to meet future targets.

41

42 ***Keywords:***

43 Pesticides; European policy; detection; mitigation methods.

44

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47

48 Pesticides are defined as substances that are used to suppress, eradicate or prevent organisms  
49 which are considered harmful to crops or nuisance, including biocidal products and plant  
50 protection products (EU, 2021a). Pesticide use is not only associated with the mass production  
51 of foodstuffs to cater for the global demand, but also their unintended release from both  
52 agricultural and urban sectors into non-target ecosystems (Schreiner et al., 2016; Chow et al.,  
53 2020; Mojiri et al., 2020). Once released into the environment, pesticides can move through  
54 soil or surface water to streams and groundwater, where they can have unintended ecological  
55 effects such as accumulation in aquatic organisms and loss of ecosystem biodiversity (Beketov  
56 et al., 2013; Stehle and Schulz, 2015; Arisekar et al., 2019). Pesticides also may have  
57 carcinogenic, mutagenic, neurotoxic and/or teratogenic effects on human health (Pereira et al.,  
58 2015; Harmon O’Driscoll et al., 2022).

59

60 Pesticide residues are widespread in soils where crops have been planted and grown (Li and  
61 Niu, 2021; Shahid and Khan, 2022; Yang et al., 2022a). The persistence of pesticide residues  
62 in soil has been categorised using pesticide half-life ( $DT_{50}$ ), which is defined as the time  
63 required for the chemical concentration under defined conditions to decline to 50% of the  
64 amount at application (Lewis et al., 2016). Non-persistent pesticides have a  $DT_{50} < 30$  days,  
65 moderately persistent have a  $DT_{50}$  of 30-100 days, persistent have a  $DT_{50}$  of 100-365 days, and  
66 very persistent have a  $DT_{50} > 365$  days (Silva et al., 2019). “Persistent” and “very persistent”  
67 pesticides can remain in the environment for several decades after their use has been prohibited,  
68 giving rise to so-called “legacy” pesticides.

69

70 The detection of legacy pesticides in water samples has been mainly attributed to their  
71 desorption from soils or sediments, where they may have accumulated during previous  
72 pesticide applications (Postigo et al., 2021; Pizzini et al., 2021). Legacy pesticides in the  
73 environment arise from a four-step process: (1) application of pesticides to the land, (2) run-  
74 off to streams and rivers, (3) partition to sediments, and (4) desorption/resuspension from  
75 sediments. Depending on their properties (e.g. polarity, octanol-water partition coefficient),  
76 pesticides can be adsorbed onto soil or sediment particles, with hydrophobic pesticides being  
77 particularly affected (Khanzada et al., 2020). High pollutant levels in sediments can give rise  
78 to further pollution of the waterway due to the possible resuspension of the pollutants in the  
79 water during handling, dredging, or disposal of the contaminated sediment (Pizzini et al., 2021;  
80 Mishra et al., 2022). Ivanova et al. (2021) demonstrated that the intensive usage of  
81 dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethanes (DDT-related pesticides) in the past was observed in river  
82 sediments taken from all rivers in Moldova. They suggested that the contamination was from  
83 agricultural deposition that had undergone degradation under either aerobic or anaerobic  
84 conditions. In a similar study, Qu et al. (2018) found high concentrations (0.6 – 99.6 ng.g<sup>-1</sup>) of  
85 organochlorine pesticides in marine sediments from the Gulfs of Naples and Salerno, which  
86 were attributed to historical applications. Pesticide residues can bioaccumulate in soils, soil  
87 microorganisms, aquatic microorganisms, air and food chains (Silva et al., 2019; Li, 2022).  
88 Urseler et al. (2022) reported on the detection of atrazine in groundwater and bovine milk  
89 samples in Argentina. They recorded atrazine concentrations of 1.40 µg.l<sup>-1</sup> in groundwater and  
90 20.97 µg.l<sup>-1</sup> in the milk samples. The latter value is over the limit value for human consumption  
91 of 20 µg.l<sup>-1</sup> established by the US EPA (US EPA, 2018). They also concluded that the detection  
92 of atrazine in the milk samples indicated that the quality of milk was affected by the  
93 groundwater that the cattle consumed. While studies have focused on the relationship between  
94 sediment adsorption/desorption and legacy pesticides, there is a deficiency of articles

95 contemplating potential soil legacy issues regarding the role of soil adsorption during the  
96 process of pesticide movement to waterways, despite the ongoing Farm to Fork strategy (EU,  
97 2020).

98

99 Many international organisations have established regulations regarding pesticides and their  
100 permissible detectable concentration limits in the environment (WHO, 2017; US EPA, 2019;  
101 EU, 2021b, Australian Government, 2022). Within the European Union (EU), the Regulation  
102 on Plant Protection Products (Regulation (EC) No. 1107/2009) on placement of pesticides on  
103 the market ensures a high level of protection of both human and animal health and the  
104 environment (EU, 2009a). Council Directive 98/83/EC (EU, 1998) on the quality of water  
105 intended for human consumption sets the maximum allowable concentration for pesticides,  
106 either individually or total, as  $0.1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$  or  $0.5 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{l}^{-1}$ , respectively. At EU level, the monitoring  
107 of pesticide residues in soil is not required, in contrast to the monitoring of pesticides in water,  
108 which is regulated by the EU Water Framework Directive (EU, 1998).

109

110 Sustainable food production in the EU aims to make food systems fair, healthy and  
111 environmentally friendly (EU, 2020). As part of this Farm to Fork strategy, the EU plans to  
112 reduce the overall use and risk of chemical pesticides by 50% by 2030. The EU also plans to  
113 revise the Sustainable Use of Pesticides Directive (Directive 2009/128/EC), as well as  
114 promoting greater use of safe alternative methods of protecting harvests from pests and diseases  
115 (EU, 2009b). This will be achieved by making the best use of nature-based, technological and  
116 digital solutions to deliver better climatic and environmental results, and reduce and optimise  
117 the use of pesticides (EU, 2020). One such solution is the common European agricultural data  
118 space which will enhance the competitive sustainability of EU agriculture through the analysis  
119 of production, land use, environmental and other data. This will allow a precise and tailored

120 application of production methods at farm level (EU, 2020). The EU's current sustainable food  
121 production policy leaves the issues of legacy pesticides unaddressed (EU, 2020). Furthermore,  
122 any policy regarding future use of pesticides needs to be linked with remediation of existing  
123 problems, including legacy pesticides.

124

125 Several physical and chemical treatment approaches, including adsorption, membrane filtration  
126 and advanced oxidation processes, as well as biological approaches, such as bioremediation,  
127 activated sludge processes and phytoremediation, have been employed to remove pesticides  
128 from aqueous solutions (Mojiri et al., 2020). Each method provides its own benefits and  
129 drawbacks in terms of both technical and economical aspects (Saleh et al., 2020). Chemical  
130 adsorption is more economical, more efficient and faster than biological approaches (Uddin,  
131 2017). While the ease of operation and the flexibility of the design are the main advantages of  
132 an adsorption method, the main disadvantage is the requirement for a regeneration process  
133 (Mojiri et al., 2020). It is therefore important for the future quality of both water and soil that  
134 more efficient and effective mitigation methods for the removal of pesticides are developed.  
135 One of the most extensively used remediation methods of pesticides is adsorption onto low-  
136 cost materials (Mojiri et al., 2020). This is simple and cost-effective. However, the issues of  
137 incomplete removal of pesticides and the generation of toxic side products are the main  
138 disadvantages of this method (Mojiri et al., 2020; Shahid et al., 2021).

139

140 In the context of the above discussion of legacy pesticides and their remediation being beyond  
141 the scope of the Farm to Fork strategy, this review will address these knowledge gaps in order  
142 to better facilitate achievement of the 2030 targets. To do this, the current knowledge regarding  
143 pesticide use in Europe, as well as pathways of loss of pesticides, will be examined. The  
144 specific issue of legacy pesticides, including exceedance and persistence in the environment,

145 will be examined in detail. Finally, existing and emerging methods of pesticide mitigation,  
146 particularly of legacy pesticides, will be discussed.

147

## 148 **2. Methodology**

149

150 The methodology followed during this review is outlined in Fig. 1. The main steps that were  
151 followed were, first, a literature search on legacy pesticides, their mitigation and current  
152 regulations; second, refining of papers obtained, and finally, extraction of relevant information  
153 from those papers and websites, where appropriate. A detailed literature search was undertaken  
154 by searching key words including: pesticide, soil, surface water, groundwater, adsorption,  
155 legislation, legacy, and mitigation. The search was limited to peer-reviewed papers published,  
156 in English, between 2011 and 2020. A geographical limitation of the twenty-seven countries  
157 of the EU was employed for the search. The twenty-seven countries of the EU will be referred  
158 to as the “EU-27” throughout this article. Search engines used included databases such as  
159 Scopus, as well as publisher-specific search engines including ScienceDirect, the American  
160 Chemical Society, and the Royal Society of Chemistry. References from several papers found  
161 in these searches were also examined for relevant information. Research papers were selected  
162 based on the relevance to the review. A total of 628 articles and a small number of book  
163 chapters and reports were reviewed.

164

165 Pesticides can be categorised not only by type of use, but also by target organism, the origin of  
166 their active substances, or their hazard category. The EU and the Pesticide Properties Database  
167 (PPDB) classify pesticides into the categories of herbicide, fungicide, insecticide, and others,  
168 while the PPDB also includes physicochemical, human health and ecotoxicological data (Lewis

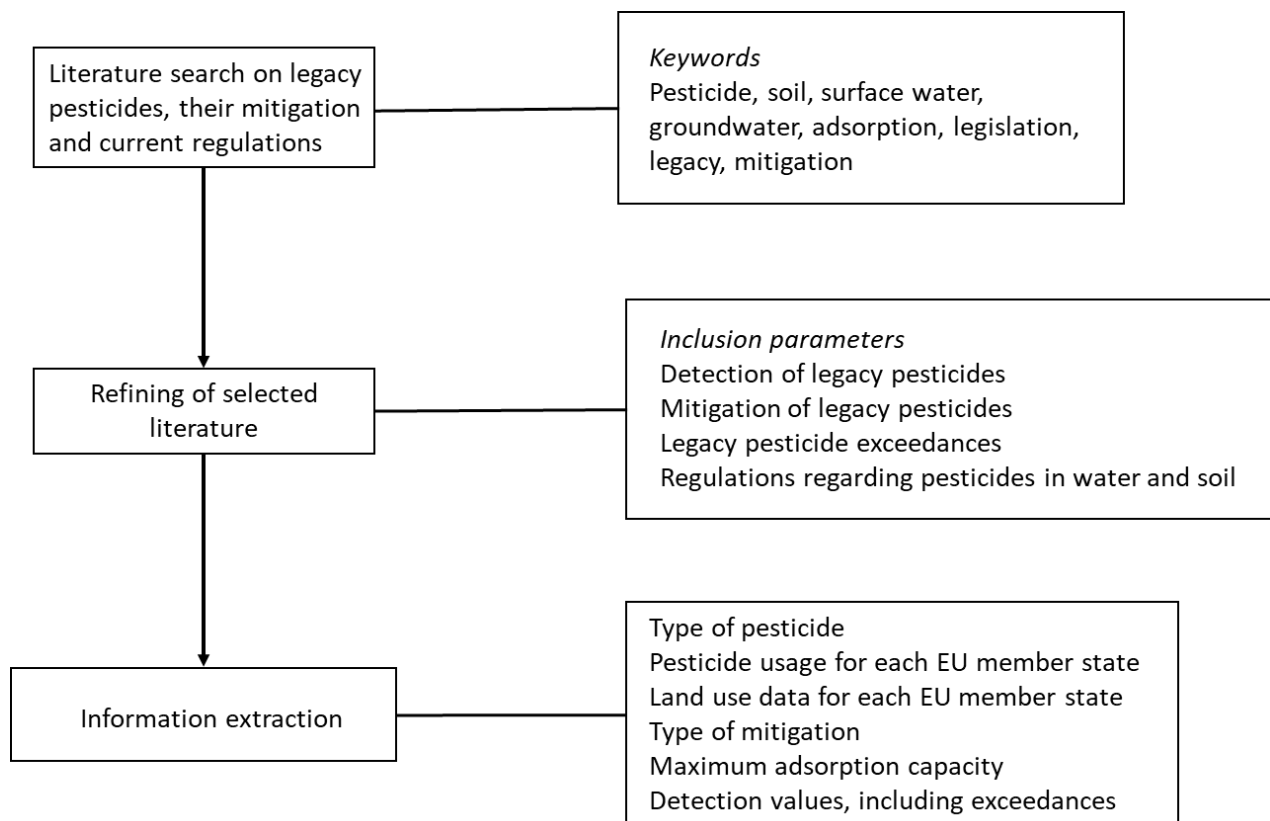


169 et al., 2016; EU, 2021c). The classification of pesticide used herein is based on pesticidal  
170 activity, that is, fungicide, herbicide, insecticide, etc., not on hazard.

171

172 The information on pesticide usage required for this review is not readily available. The  
173 Eurostat pesticide sales website contains information on pesticide sales across the EU-27, for  
174 each individual country, covering the years 2011-2020 (Eurostat - Pesticide Sales, 2022). This  
175 information is divided into six pesticide categories (fungicides, herbicides, insecticides,  
176 molluscicides, plant growth regulators and other protection products), which are further  
177 subdivided in various groupings based on class of compounds to give 157 pages of data. The  
178 appropriate herbicide, fungicide and insecticide data for each EU member state were mined  
179 from the online data and correlated for use. Land use data were also downloaded from the  
180 Eurostat website (Eurostat - Land Use, 2022) and the relevant land use data for each EU  
181 member state were extracted for use. The kilogram of pesticide used per hectare of land data  
182 was calculated for each EU member state by dividing the appropriate herbicide, fungicide and  
183 insecticide data by the relevant land use data.

184



185

186 **Figure 1.** Methodology flowchart.

187

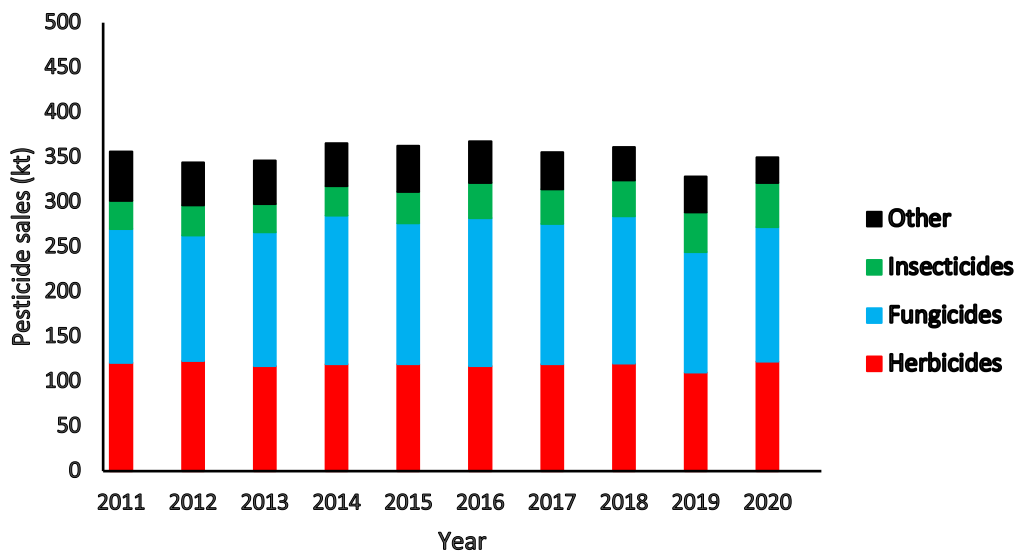
188 **3. Pesticide usage and pathways of loss**

189

190 *3.1 Usage of pesticides in the EU-27*

191 The sale of pesticides used within the EU-27 over the ten-year period (2011 - 2020) has  
 192 fluctuated from 356 kt in 2011 to 350 kt in 2020, with the highest sales of 368 kt recorded in  
 193 2018 (Fig. 2). The largest year-on-year increase was between 2019 and 2020, when the sales  
 194 of pesticides increased by 21 kt, while the biggest year-on-year decrease of 33 kt was between  
 195 2018 and 2019. In 2019, the weather was the most significant influence on the pesticide market  
 196 with dry conditions and drought across major areas of Europe, leading to reduced disease  
 197 pressure and lower demand for both herbicides and fungicides (IHS Markit, 2020). The top  
 198 five pesticide consumers across the EU-27 were Spain, France, Italy, Germany and Poland,  
 199 with average annual sales over the ten-year period of 74, 68, 58, 46, and 24 kt, respectively. In

200 contrast, the five countries with the lowest average annual pesticides sales were Malta,  
 201 Luxembourg, Estonia, Slovenia, and Cyprus with 108, 150, 621, 1046, and 1139 t, respectively.  
 202 Despite the introduction of the regulations, Regulation No 1107/2009 on Plant Protection  
 203 Products, Regulation No 396/2005 on Maximum Residue Levels in Food, Directive  
 204 2009/128/EC on Sustainable Use of Pesticides, and Regulation No 528/2012 on Biocidal  
 205 Products (EU 2005; EU 2009a; EU 2009b; EU, 2012), no decline in overall pesticide use has  
 206 been observed over the past ten years. One reason for this could be the rapid replacement of  
 207 unapproved pesticides with alternatives by manufacturers.  
 208



209  
 210 **Figure 2.** Pesticide usage, given as classes of pesticides, in the study area, for the years 2011 -  
 211 2020 (Eurostat – Pesticide sales, 2022).

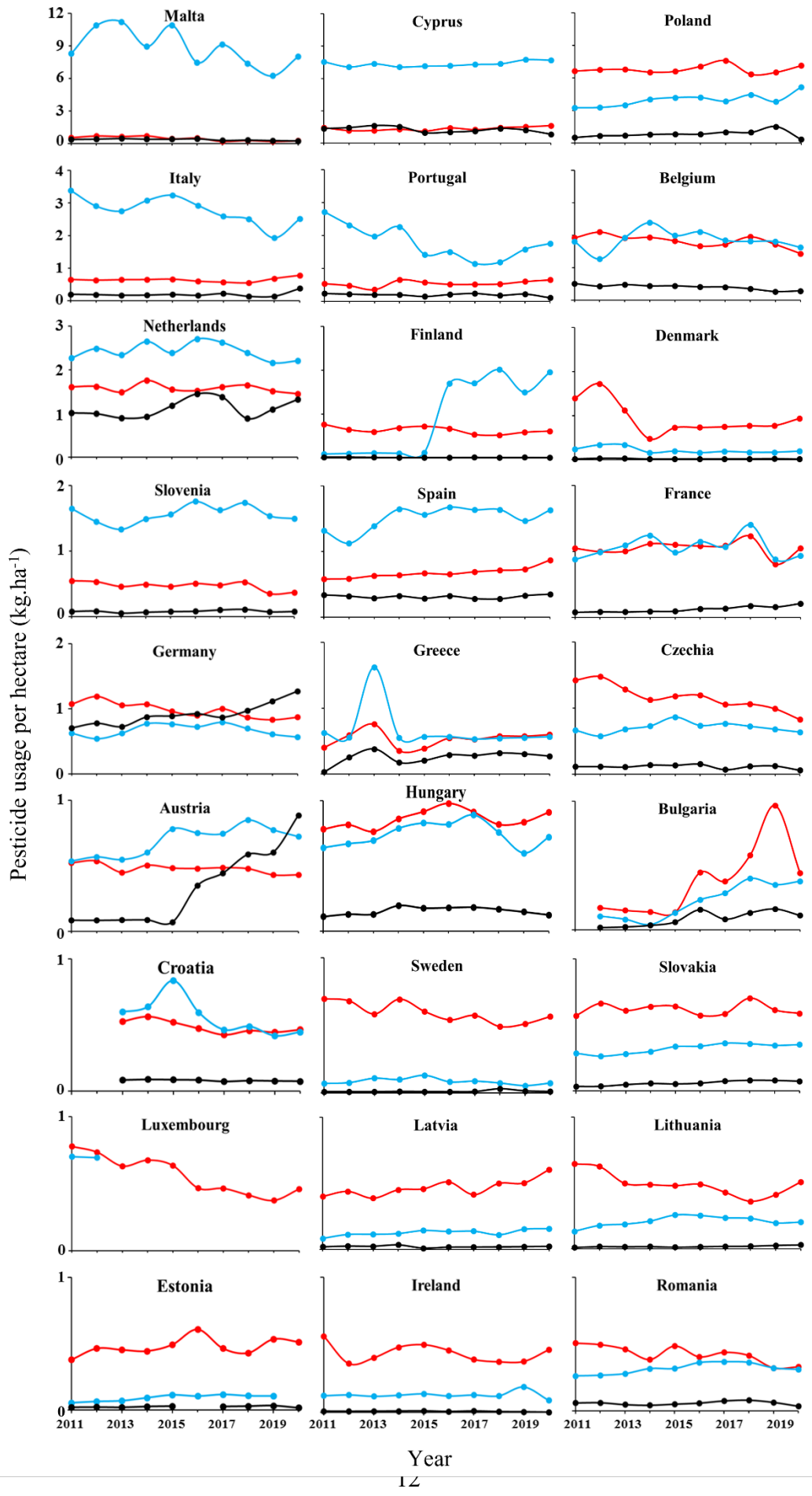
212  
 213 Fungicides and herbicides were the dominant pesticides used in the EU-27 from 2011 - 2020,  
 214 as per Fig. 2, accounting for 40 - 44% and 30 - 36% respectively, of total pesticide sales. A  
 215 smaller proportion (9 - 16%) of pesticides used were insecticides, with the remainder  
 216 represented by a mixture of plant growth regulators, anti-sprouting agents, and molluscicides.  
 217 The use of herbicides and fungicides increased from 2011 to 2019, at which point usage

218 decreased by up to 17% for fungicides. Two possible causes for this decrease were: (1) the  
219 increasing strict regulatory environment (IHS Markit, 2020), and (2) weather conditions. The  
220 use of insecticides has increased over the ten-year period, with increases ranging from 35 kt in  
221 2011 to 64 kt in 2020. This increase can be accounted for by such factors as economic growth,  
222 the emergence of new pests and diseases, as well as increased insecticide resistance (Sparks et  
223 al., 2020).

224

225 The variation in pesticide usage per hectare ( $\text{kg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) of agricultural land was considerable  
226 between countries within the EU-27, from Ireland with  $0.6 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$  up to  $> 11 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$  for Malta  
227 (Fig. 3, Table S1). Most countries reported fluctuating usage over the ten-year period (2011 -  
228 2020). Comparing the amount used per ha in 2011 to that used in 2020, eleven countries,  
229 Belgium, Czechia, Denmark, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal,  
230 Romania, Slovenia, and Sweden, reported decreasing usage of pesticides per hectare (Fig. 3  
231 and Tables S2 - 4). Sixteen countries in 2020 applied less than  $2 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ , compared to eighteen  
232 countries in 2014 (EU, 2017). However, as reported by López-Ballesteros et al. (2022), the  
233 available pesticide usage data across the EU-27 in terms of area of application is sparse, with  
234 only Spanish and Irish databases including values of both basic and treated/sprayed areas.  
235 Focussing on the weight of pesticide applied per unit area can be problematic. While the  
236 quantity of pesticide applied can be related to its toxicity, the toxicity of pesticides differs from  
237 one pesticide to the next. As a result of these differences, the environmental pollution risk  
238 might not be proportional to the quantity of pesticide applied (López-Ballesteros et al., 2022).  
239 Jess et al. (2018) reported that, while there was a 34% reduction in the area of arable crops  
240 grown in Northern Ireland since 1992, there was an increase of 37% in the area treated by  
241 pesticides, which was attributed to intensification of agriculture.

242



244 **Figure 3.** Tonnes of pesticide used per hectare agricultural land across EU for the years 2011-  
245 2020 (Data sources: Eurostat - Pesticide Sales, 2022; Eurostat - Land use, 2022). Herbicides  
246 are shown in red, fungicides in blue and insecticides in black.

247

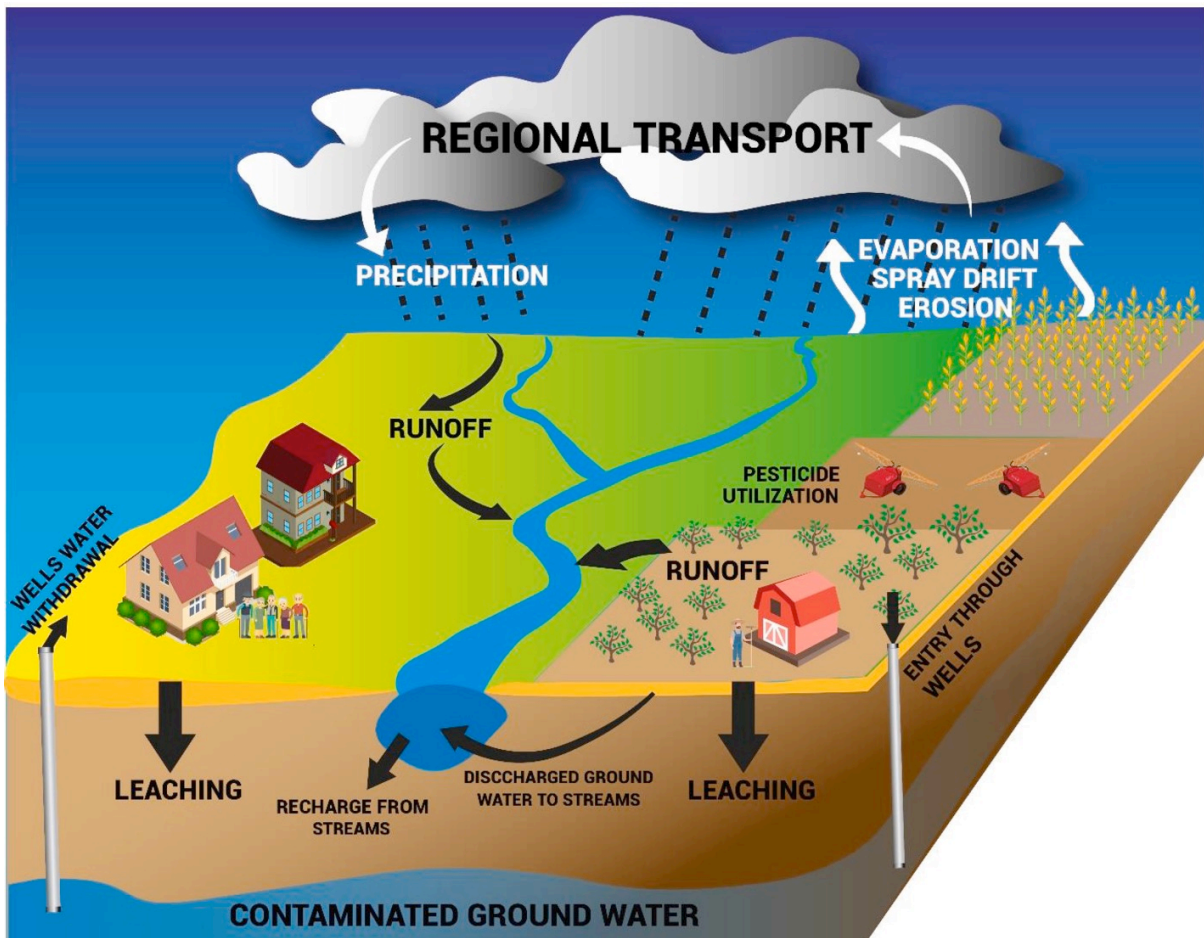
248 Although sixteen countries in the EU-27 applied less than 2 kg.ha<sup>-1</sup> of pesticides, the overall  
249 amount of pesticides being applied across the EU-27 continues to rise. The recent EU strategy  
250 on sustainable food production, implemented in 2020, proposes to cut the overall pesticide use  
251 in the EU-27 by 50% by 2030, as well as reducing nutrient losses (especially nitrogen and  
252 phosphorus) by 50% and fertilisers by 20% (EU, 2020). One possible way of achieving this  
253 would be to transition from a grassland-dominated system to a more arable crop-based system.  
254 Whilst this could achieve the required reduction in nutrient loss, it could also lead to an increase  
255 in pesticide usage, particularly herbicides, required for arable and vegetable crops.

256

### 257 *3.2 Pathways of pesticide loss*

258

259 A significant percentage of pesticides applied in agricultural practices never reach their target  
260 organism (Ali et al., 2019), with Schulz (2004) estimating that 10% of applied pesticides reach  
261 non-target areas. As a result, and due to the widespread use of pesticides in agricultural and  
262 urban areas, they can migrate to various surface water resources by several pathways, including  
263 surface run-off (Chen et al., 2019; Cosgrove et al., 2022), leaching (Cosgrove et al., 2019),  
264 spray-drift (Ravier et al., 2005), groundwater inflow (Gzyl et al., 2014) and sub-surface  
265 drainage systems (Halbach et al., 2021) (Fig. 4). Surface run-off is the predominant pathway,  
266 mainly through heavy rainfall events and snowmelt, particularly in saturated fields, or fields  
267 with hilly slopes or fields with shallow level of water table (Jing et al., 2021). The input of  
268 pesticides to surface water is particularly high during the main application period of spring and  
269 summer, and also increases during rainfall events (Szöcs et al., 2017).



271

272 **Figure 4.** Pesticide transfer routes to surface and ground water (Lunardi et al., 2022;  
 273 Reproduced with permission).

274

275 The main factors influencing the transport of pesticides to receptors are adsorption and  
 276 desorption to and from soil particles (Paszko and Jankowska, 2018),  $DT_{50}$  (Fantke et al., 2014),  
 277 and physico-chemical properties of soil (Boivin et al., 2005). Adsorption is predominantly  
 278 influenced by the properties and chemical composition of the soil, which is a complex mixture  
 279 of inorganic materials and organic matter (Leovac et al., 2015), and the physicochemical  
 280 properties of the pesticide (Kodešová et al., 2011). The adsorption of pesticides on the soil  
 281 surface determines how pesticides are either transported or degraded, which will, ultimately,  
 282 determine the concentration of pesticides in both soil and soil solution (Gondar et al., 2013;

283 McGinley et al., 2022). The relationship between the organic content of the soil and pesticide  
284 adsorption has been well examined in the literature (Rojas et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2015; Wu et  
285 al., 2018). Many soil characteristics have been investigated with regard to pesticide adsorption,  
286 including pH (Kodešová et al., 2011; Gondar et al., 2013), organic content (Boivin et al., 2005;  
287 Conde-Cid et al., 2019), pore size (Siek and Paszko, 2019), cation exchange capacity  
288 (Kodešová et al., 2011), and soil texture (McGinley et al., 2022). McGinley et al. (2022)  
289 showed that there is a high potential pesticide transmission risk from soils containing either  
290 <20% clay or > 45% sand.

291  
292 Mixtures of pesticides are commonly detected in agricultural soils (Schaeffer and Wijntjes,  
293 2022). Silva et al. (2019) analysed 76 target pesticides in 311 agricultural topsoils across the  
294 EU and observed that almost 60% of the soils contained mixtures of two or more residues in  
295 various combinations. There are several reasons for this, including pesticides being applied as  
296 tank mixtures, repeated pesticide applications during the season, and the binding of pesticides  
297 to the soil matrix leading to a reduction in bioavailability, which in turn may lead to  
298 significantly reduced degradation. Mixtures of two or more pesticides can form a complex  
299 substance that may express properties unique to that combination (de Souza et al., 2020).  
300 Research on the impact of such mixtures on soil biota has shown that the threshold value of a  
301 pesticide for certain organisms, as defined in the risk assessment, can be exceeded (Sybertz et  
302 al., 2020). Mixtures of pesticides can elicit synergistic effects on biota, even if compounds  
303 within the mixture are contained in concentrations below the individual level effects (Sybertz  
304 et al., 2020). The annual repetition of pesticide spraying can result in high exposure of soil  
305 organism to pesticides for long periods of time, since some pesticides can remain in the soil for  
306 long periods of time depending on their specific degradation or DT<sub>50</sub>, as discussed in detail in  
307 the next sub-section (Sybertz et al., 2020).



308

#### 309 **4. Legacy issues**

310

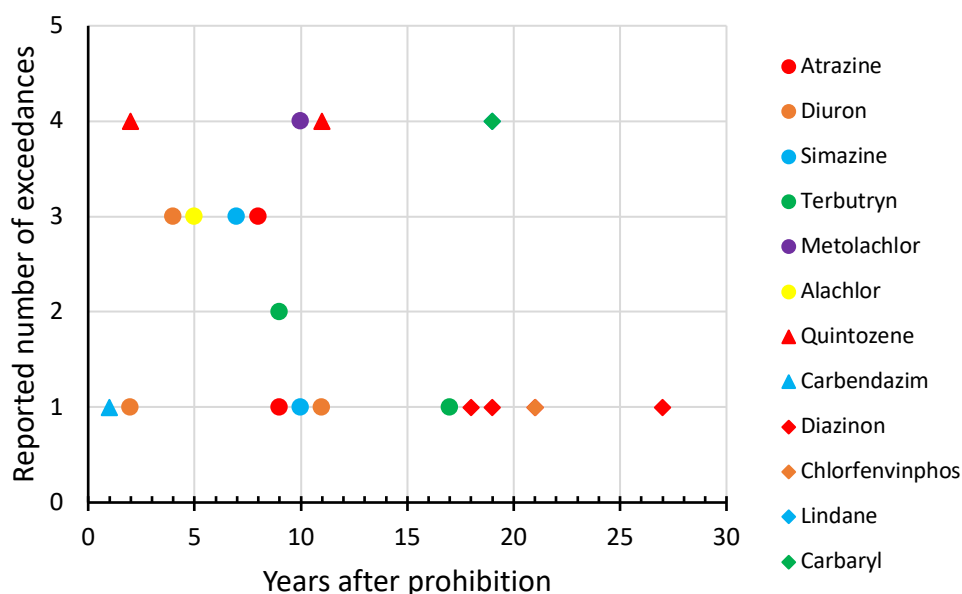
311 Soil microorganisms play an essential role in soil dynamics and nutrient cycling, and have been  
312 used as soil quality indicators (Ashworth et al., 2017). They are responsible for regulating gas  
313 exchange, inducing microaggregation and altering the biochemical soil environment (White  
314 and Rice, 2009). The implementation of a no-tillage process increases a soil's total organic  
315 carbon and decreases its pH, thereby affecting the potential adsorption and long-term leaching  
316 of pesticides (López-Piñero et al., 2019). While a soil's microbial activity may increase under  
317 reduced tillage conditions, this does not necessarily imply faster degradation of pesticides  
318 (Jørgensen and Spliid, 2016). Increased crop rotations may increase the functions performed  
319 by soil microbial communities, which would benefit plant growth. However, because of the  
320 increase in crop rotation, extensive pesticide applications may adversely affect the soil richness  
321 and microbial diversity. Groundwater makes up the largest reservoir of freshwater in the world  
322 (EU, 2008). Approximately 75% of EU residents rely on groundwater for their drinking water  
323 supply (EU, 2008). Agricultural practices can deliver high quantities of pesticides into aquifers,  
324 which can make groundwater unsuitable for domestic use (Hakoun et al., 2017; McManus et  
325 al., 2017; Aguiar Jr. et al., 2017).

326

327 Many toxic pesticides have been banned by the EU, although some can persist in the  
328 environment for decades (Ccanccapa-Cartagena et al., 2019). In 2022, 452 active substances  
329 were approved for use as plant protection products (PPP) in the EU-27, while 937 had been  
330 prohibited (EU Pesticides Database, 2022). Of the active substances that were on the market  
331 before 1993, 70% have since been withdrawn (EU, 2017). McKnight et al. (2015) found that  
332 several banned pesticides, such as dinitro-*ortho*-cresol (prohibited in 1998) and simazine

333 (prohibited in 2004), were found in either streams, sediments or groundwater in Denmark  
 334 between 2010 and 2012, either at or above the EU maximum allowed concentration for  
 335 pesticides of 0.1  $\mu\text{g.l}^{-1}$ . The number of reported detections of unapproved pesticides that were  
 336 detected in water sources across Europe for the time period 2011-2020 are shown in Table S5,  
 337 with several pesticides being detected on numerous occasions in the same year. Fig. 5 shows  
 338 the top 12 herbicides, fungicides and insecticides, from Table S5, that were detected across the  
 339 EU-27 after they were not approved by the EU, with several being detected many years after  
 340 being unapproved for use.

341



342

343 **Figure 5.** Timeline of reported exceedances of some selected prohibited pesticides. Herbicides  
 344 are denoted by circles, fungicides by triangles and insecticides by diamonds (Citations are in  
 345 Table S5).

346

347 The legislation that defines the maximum allowable concentration of pesticides in drinking  
 348 water in the EU has been described as the most stringent in the world (Knauer, 2016; Climent  
 349 et al., 2019). Because of this stringency, many unapproved pesticides continue to be detected  
 350 in Europe at levels exceeding legal limits in both surface and ground water (Table S4). In total,

351 233 pesticide detections have been observed in EU waterways after they were prohibited for  
352 use in the EU, including some that were banned in the last century, although not all were above  
353 the maximum permissible concentration (Table S4). This includes 121 herbicide detections  
354 from 29 different herbicides, 27 fungicide detections from 15 different fungicides, and 85  
355 insecticide detections from 27 different insecticides. Soil half-life expresses the potential for  
356 degradation of a pesticide in soil (Melin et al., 2020). Given the short  $DT_{50}$  of some of these  
357 pesticides, they should no longer be detected in surface waters during the time period of 2011  
358 and 2020. Papadakis et al. (2018) suggested that the detection of prometryn, several years after  
359 it has been “not approved”, was due to the ongoing, illegal use of the herbicide, groundwater  
360 inflows into streams, or long-range transport and atmospheric deposition. A further possible  
361 scenario that could explain their presence is that the pesticides have been bound to soil particles  
362 and had only been disturbed prior to the sampling period during which they were detected  
363 (Postigo et al., 2021).

364

365 The most commonly detected unapproved herbicides in surface waters, for the period 2011 -  
366 2020, were atrazine (17), diuron (13), simazine (12), terbutryn (11), metolachlor (9) and  
367 alachlor (9) (Table S4). Atrazine is strongly hydrophobic, meaning it has a low solubility in  
368 water (de Souza et al., 2020). Furthermore, it breaks down slowly in water, having negligible  
369 breakdown in neutral or slightly basic solution, with an aqueous  $DT_{50}$  of more than 2 years,  
370 which categorises it as “very persistent”. In slightly acidic solutions, the aqueous  $DT_{50}$   
371 decreases to approximately 84 days (de Souza et al., 2020). According to Fig. 5, atrazine was  
372 detected multiple times up to nine years after approval was removed, which is well beyond the  
373  $DT_{50}$  value of two years. This highlights how persistent pesticides can be in the soil.

374

375 The most commonly detected unapproved fungicides in surface waters, for the period 2011 -  
376 2020, were hexachlorobenzene (6), quintozone (5), and carbendazim (2) (Table S4). Twelve  
377 different fungicides were detected for the period 2011 - 2020. The range of concentrations  
378 found for hexachlorobenzene (0.029 - 0.048  $\mu\text{g.l}^{-1}$ ) were all below the maximum allowed  
379 concentration. Twenty seven different unapproved insecticides were detected in surface waters  
380 over the ten year period 2011 - 2020 (Table S4). The most commonly detected insecticides  
381 were diazinon (12), chlorfenvinphos (8), lindane (7) and carbaryl (5) (Table S4). From Fig. 5,  
382 diazinon was detected 27 years after approval was removed. The fact that the  $\text{DT}_{50}$  value for  
383 diazinon is 18 days (Lewis et al., 2016) indicates how long these pesticides can remain in the  
384 environment. If the pesticide is adsorbed by either soil or sediment, then the  $\text{DT}_{50}$  tail of the  
385 pesticide can obviously be extended indefinitely.

386

## 387 **5. Mitigation options**

388

389 Conventional methods to remove pollutants, including pesticides, from the environment  
390 include adsorption, sedimentation, advanced oxidation processes and membrane technologies  
391 (Mojiri et al., 2020; Jatoi et al., 2021; Shahid et al., 2021). Although these methods are  
392 commonly used, they can involve high operating costs, can generate toxic side products and do  
393 not completely remove the pollutants (Mon et al., 2018). The development of a more efficient  
394 and safer removal systems is necessary. A complete survey of mitigation systems is beyond  
395 this review. A list of these systems, along with relevant references, is given in Table S6. Some  
396 new, or emerging, systems are now discussed.

397

### 398 *5.1 Metal-Organic Frameworks*

399

400 With the development of nanotechnology, Metal Organic Frameworks (MOFs) have emerged  
401 as powerful functional materials for the remediation of contaminated water (Mon et al., 2018;  
402 Mondol and Jhung, 2021; Wagner et al., 2021; Lunardi et al., 2022). MOFs are arrays of  
403 inorganic nodes, either single ions or clusters of ions, connected by organic linkers. The  
404 resulting 3D network has a well-built pore structure, and structure tunability, which provides  
405 high selectivity for pesticide adsorption. Furthermore, these materials can have a high surface  
406 area, typically 3000 - 4000 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> (Lunardi et al., 2022).

407  
408 MOFs can be divided into four groups: (1) pristine MOFs, (2) functionalisation of MOFs, (3)  
409 MOF-based composites and (4) MOF-derived materials. Pristine MOFs are composed of the  
410 inorganic-organic hybrid porous materials without any functionalisation. In the  
411 functionalisation of MOFs group, functional groups are incorporated into the MOFs *via*  
412 traditional synthesis conditions using organic linkers identical to the pristine ligand but with  
413 attached functional groups, thereby increasing the number of adsorption sites and selectivity  
414 (Lunardi et al., 2022). In MOF-based composites, the MOF has been integrated with other  
415 functional materials, such as graphene oxide, to increase their adsorption capacity (Lunardi et  
416 al., 2022). MOF-derived materials, which are highly porous nano- or mesoporous-materials,  
417 are obtained by pyrolysing MOFs under a protective atmosphere, to give a material with  
418 improved diffusivity (Lunardi et al., 2022). Table 1 shows some of the recent published  
419 research in this area on the adsorption of unapproved pesticides.

420 **Table 1.** Summary of pesticide adsorption over metal-organic frameworks.

MOF Type	Adsorbent	Pesticide	BET Surface area (m <sup>2</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	Total pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	Max. capacity (mg.g <sup>-1</sup> )	Reference
<i>Pristine</i>	UiO-67 (Zr)	Atrazine	2345	1.249	11.9	Akpinar and Yazaydin, 2018
	NU-1000 (Zr)	Atrazine	2210	n.d.	36	Akpinar et al., 2019
	CaFu	Imidacloprid	2308	0.11567	467.2	Singh et al., 2021
	MIL-53 (Al)	Dimethoate	866	n.d.	154.8	Abdelhameed et al., 2021a
	Al-TCPP	Chlorantraniliprole	1359	0.8	371.9	Xiao et al., 2021
	UiO-66 (Zr)	Ciprofloxacin	730.6	0.046	111.7	Bayazit and Sahin, 2020.
		Naproxen	730.6	0.046	43.9	
	NU-1000 (Zr)	Fenamiphos	1980	n.d.	212.3	González et al., 2021
Zr-LMOF	Parathion-methyl	1453.2	n.d.	n.d.	He et al., 2019	
<i>Modified</i>	MIL-101-C1 (Cr)	Diuron	951.3	0.554	148.97	Yang et al., 2019
		Alachlor	951.3	0.554	122.72	
		Tebuthiuron	951.3	0.554	79.47	
		Gramoxone	951.3	0.554	49.05	
	MIL-101-C2 (Cr)	Diuron	502.6	0.302	135.87	
		Alachlor	502.6	0.302	107.67	
		Tebuthiuron	502.6	0.302	73.35	
		Gramoxone	502.6	0.302	45.41	

	MIL-101-C3 (Cr)	Diuron	490.6	0.282	141.42	
		Alachlor	490.6	0.282	104.02	
		Tebuthiuron	490.6	0.282	69.71	
		Gramoxone	490.6	0.282	50.18	
	MIL-101-C4 (Cr)	Diuron	492.4	0.285	161.25	
		Alachlor	492.4	0.285	105.15	
		Tebuthiuron	492.4	0.285	81.73	
		Gramoxone	492.4	0.285	64.11	
	MIL-101-C5 (Cr)	Diuron	543.2	0.319	186	
		Alachlor	543.2	0.319	149.79	
		Tebuthiuron	543.2	0.319	94.57	
		Gramoxone	543.2	0.319	57.99	
	MIL-53-NH <sub>2</sub> (Al)	Dimethoate	1060	n.d.	266.9	Abdelhameed et al., 2021a
	Al- (BDC) <sub>0.5</sub> (BDC- NH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>0.5</sub>	Dimethoate	1260	n.d.	513.4	
<i>Composites</i>	Al-MOF@cotton	Diazinon	-	n.d.	367.62	Abdelhameed and Emam, 2022
		Chlorpyrifos	-	n.d.	296.77	
	Fe-MOF@cotton	Diazinon	-	n.d.	402.02	
		Chlorpyrifos	-	n.d.	340.33	
	Ti-MOF@cotton	Diazinon	-	n.d.	459.73	

	Chlorpyrifos	-	n.d.	372.01	
Zr-MOF@cotton	Diazinon	-	n.d.	464.69	
	Chlorpyrifos	-	n.d.	389.69	
ZIF8@MPCA	Chipton	-	0.029	160.9	Liang et al., 2021
	Alachlor	-	0.029	196.2	
UiO66-NH <sub>2</sub> @MPCA	Chipton	6.42	0.035	246.8	
	Alachlor	8.87	0.035	232.8	
Cu-BTC@cellulose acetate	Dimethoate	965.8	n.d.	321.9	Abdelhameed et al., 2021b
M-ZIF-8@ZIF-67	Fipronil	219	0.07	n.d.	Li et al., 2020
BSA/PCN-222 (Fe)	Methyl parathion	1015	n.d.	370.4	Sheikli et al., 2021
	Diazinon	1015	n.d.	400	
ZIF-8/GO (Zn)	Chlorpyrifos	720.6	0.80	54.3	Nikou et al., 2021
	Diazinon	720.6	0.80	47.2	
Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @C@UiO-66 (Zr)	Triticonazole	552	0.18	148.81	Wang et al., 2022
	Epoxiconazole	552	0.18	150.15	
	Prothioconazole	552	0.18	188.32	
	Imazaquin	552	0.18	173.31	
	Metalaxyl	552	0.18	135.14	
	Myclobutanil	552	0.18	145.99	
	Hexaconazole	552	0.18	169.49	



		Diniconazole	552	0.18	141.84	
	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /MIL-101 (Fe)	Fenitrothion	957.48	0.78	209.71	Samadi-Maybodi and Nikou, 2021
<i>Derived</i>	NiO/Co@C	Chlorothalonil	n.d.	n.d.	110.6	Zhao et al., 2022
		Tebuconazole	n.d.	n.d.	43.69	
		Chlorpyrifos	n.d.	n.d.	113.3	
		Butralin	n.d.	n.d.	47.57	
		Deltamethrin	n.d.	n.d.	50.0	
		Pyridaben	n.d.	n.d.	78.8	
	CDM-74 (Zn)	DEET	1395	1.75	340	Bhadra et al., 2020

421

422

423 Akpinar and Yazaydin (2018) studied the performance of three pristine MOFs (ZIF-8, UiO-66  
424 and UiO-67) for the adsorption of the unapproved herbicide atrazine. Because of their larger  
425 pore apertures and large pore size, UiO-67 adsorbed significantly more atrazine than either of  
426 the other MOFs. In a further study, Akpinar et al. (2019) showed that the MOF NU-1000 had  
427 a maximum adsorption capacity of  $36 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}$  for atrazine, which was three times larger than  
428 that of UiO-67. This increase was due to the increased pore size of NU-1000, which facilitates  
429 easier diffusion of the herbicide.

430

431 The functionalisation of pristine MOFs is an effective way of enhancing adsorption  
432 performances. Yang et al. (2019) modified Cr-MIL-101 with substituted furan and thiophene  
433 groups and used them in the detection of four unapproved herbicides, alachlor, diuron,  
434 gramoxone (paraquat) and tebuthiuron. They observed that all the functionalised MOFs  
435 showed efficient adsorption capacities towards the herbicides, which were preferable to that of  
436 the pristine MOF. The adsorption of the unapproved insecticide dimethoate onto amine-  
437 modified MOFs was investigated by Abdelhameed et al. (2021a). Different amino ratios were  
438 synthesised using aluminium as the metal centre and two different ligands, BDC and BDC-  
439  $\text{NH}_2$ . Their results showed that a 1:1 ratio of ligands gave an  $\text{Al}-(\text{BDC})_{0.5}(\text{BDC}-\text{NH}_2)_{0.5}$  MOF  
440 which had the highest surface area and the highest adsorption capacity for dimethoate. The 1:1  
441 MOF had a maximum adsorption capacity of  $513.4 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}$ , which was higher than the pristine  
442 MOF Al-BDC ( $154.8 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}$ ) or the amino MOF Al-BDC- $\text{NH}_2$  ( $266.9 \text{ mg.g}^{-1}$ ).

443

444 MOF-based composites, which are MOFs coupled with other functional materials, have been  
445 shown to improve adsorption performance compared to individual substances (Lunardi et al.,  
446 2022). Abdelhameed and Emam (2022) synthesised MOF@cotton hybrids by inclusion of  
447 MOFs (based on Al, Fe, Ti and Zr) within cotton fibres. These were used in the adsorption of

448 the unapproved pesticides, diazinon and chlorpyrifos. Maximum adsorption capacities were in  
449 the range 296.8 - 464.7 mg.g<sup>-1</sup>, with Zr-MOF@cotton exhibiting the highest adsorption  
450 capacity for both pesticides. Nikou et al. (2021) prepared a MOF composite ZIF-8/GO, based  
451 on graphene oxide, which was also used as an adsorbent for diazinon and chlorpyrifos. The  
452 maximum adsorption capacity for both diazinon and chlorpyrifos, in this case, was found to be  
453 54.3 mg.g<sup>-1</sup> and 47.2 mg.g<sup>-1</sup> respectively, which are significantly lower than the values  
454 observed by Abdelhameed and Emam (2022) for their composite cotton material.  
455 Abdelhameed et al. (2021b) synthesised a porous MOF composite based on cellulose acetate  
456 (Cu-BTC@CA). The surface area of the porous CA membrane was significantly increased by  
457 incorporation of Cu-BTC within the membrane from 347.2 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup> to 965.8 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup>, while the  
458 maximum adsorption capacity for dimethoate increased from 207.8 mg.g<sup>-1</sup> to 321.9 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup> on  
459 using the MOF composite rather than the CA membrane itself. Liang et al. (2021) constructed  
460 two MOF composites using multi-walled carbon nanotubes as the template to give two MOF-  
461 modified aerogel, ZIF8@MPCA and UiO66-NH<sub>2</sub>@MPCA. The UiO66-NH<sub>2</sub>@MPCA was  
462 better at the adsorption of the herbicides, chipton and alachlor, with maximum adsorption  
463 capacity values of 246.8 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup> and 232.8 m<sup>2</sup>.g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The authors ascribed the  
464 improved adsorption performance to be due to the large pore at the micron level of MPCA  
465 which enabled the fast adsorption of the herbicides.

466

467 MOF-derived nanoporous carbon (NPC) and carbon hybrid materials have received much  
468 attention recently for pollutant removal, because of their high surface area, versatile porous  
469 structure and ease of production (Yu et al., 2021). Zhao et al. (2022) synthesised a hollow  
470 MOF-derived NiO/Co@C magnetic nanocomposite using cobalt ions as inducers without the  
471 conventional preparation of Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. This nanocomposite was successfully used for the  
472 adsorption removal of six organic nitrogen pesticides from waste water. In a comparison with

473 commercial materials (activated carbon, single walled carbon nanotube and multi-walled  
474 carbon nanotube), the extraction efficiency of the MOF-nanocomposite was significantly  
475 higher than those of the commercial materials, particularly for the pesticide chlorothalonil.

476

477 Although MOFs show promise in pesticide remediation from water, their competitiveness, in  
478 terms of cost, selectivity and reusability against other adsorbents, has to be taken into  
479 consideration.

480

## 481 *5.2 Nanoparticles*

482

483 Nanotechnology emerged as the scientific innovation of the twenty-first century (Jadoun et al.,  
484 2021). The use of nanoparticles for the removal of pesticides from water have been reviewed  
485 in many articles (Ighalo et al., 2021; Nguyen et al., 2022; Shan et al., 2022; Kajitvichyanukul  
486 et al., 2022; Mehta et al., 2022; Intisar et al., 2022). Nanoparticles (NPs) are characterised by  
487 a large surface area, typically up to  $2500 \text{ m}^2.\text{g}^{-1}$ , which gives them an adsorption rate  
488 considerably higher than that of conventional adsorbents. They are more active and faster in  
489 the removal and eradication of both inorganic contaminants and organic pollutants, such as  
490 pesticides. They have been used to either adsorb or degrade pesticides. Table 2 shows the most  
491 recently published material on the adsorption and degradation of prohibited pesticides by NPs.

492

493 **Table 2.** Summary of pesticide adsorption over nanoparticle materials.

NP type	Adsorbent	Pesticide	BET Surface area (m <sup>2</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	Total pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> .g <sup>-1</sup> )	Max. capacity (mg.g <sup>-1</sup> )	Photocatalytic efficiency (%)	Reference
<i>Adsorption</i>	Biochar-alginate	Chlorpyrifos	131.09	0.165	6.25	-	Jacob et al., 2022
	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @SiO <sub>2</sub> @SBA- 3-SO <sub>3</sub> H MMNP	Paraquat	67.15	0.141	14.7	-	Kouchakinejad et al., 2022
	AG-g-PAO/CuFe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	Chlorpyrifos	1.03	-	769.2	-	Hassanzadeh-Afruzi et al., 2022
	Alum nWTR	Thiamethoxam	129	0.051	50.0	-	El-Kammah et al., 2022
	rGO@ZnO	Chlorpyrifos	79.51	0.065	-	-	Gulati et al., 2020
<i>Degradation</i>	Co-Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> @UiO-66	Fenitrothion	202	0.385	23.6	96.6	Zheng et al., 2022
	Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> /MCM-41	Methyl parathion	623	0.53	175.2	100	Salam et al., 2020
	Ag@ZnONSt	Methyl parathion	39.72	0.398	-	100	Veerakumar et al., 2021
	Pd@ZnONSt	Trifluralin	39.72	0.398	-	-	
		Methyl parathion	32.34	0.375	-	100	
	PANI/ZnO-CoMoO <sub>4</sub>	Trifluralin	32.34	0.375	-	-	
		Imidacloprid	142.6	-	-	97.4	Adabavazeh et al., 2021
FGD-20	Simazine	75.8	-	-	97	Boruah et al., 2021	

494

495

496 While adsorption is a scalable and cost-effective method of eliminating pesticides, it has a  
497 major disadvantage of creating secondary waste as a result of the adsorption of the pesticides.  
498 Photocatalytic degradation is a more ecologically friendly technique, as the degradation  
499 process results in the transformation of the pesticides into less hazardous intermediates, which  
500 then degrade further to produce H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> (Qumar et al., 2022). The photodegradation  
501 process is governed by the adsorption capability of the organic contaminants of the  
502 photocatalyst surface. However, to achieve a high photodegradation rate, the pesticide  
503 adsorption must also be effective. A further disadvantage of the degradation process is that  
504 degradation efficiency was found to be negligible in the absence of the photocatalyst, indicating  
505 that light intensity is an important factor influencing the efficiency process of the photocatalytic  
506 degradation of pesticides (Veerakumar et al., 2021; Adabavazeh et al., 2021).

507

### 508 *5.3 Membrane removal of pesticides*

509

510 Membrane processes, such as nanofiltration, reverse osmosis and forward osmosis are very  
511 efficient in the removal of microcontaminants, such as pesticides, from water sources (Fujioka  
512 et al., 2020; Khanzada et al., 2020). Vitola et al. (2021) developed a phosphotriesterase-loaded  
513 membrane which was capable of degrading the pesticide paraoxon-ethyl in vegetative water  
514 containing biomolecules similar in size and structure to the pesticide. The stability of the  
515 phosphotriesterase-loaded membrane was four times higher in vegetative waters than the free  
516 enzyme. The immobilised enzyme also showed activity towards the pesticide degradation in  
517 vegetative water after four months, whereas the free enzyme showed activity for three weeks  
518 only.

519

520 Yang et al. (2022b) developed an NH<sub>2</sub>-MIL-125 (Ti)-based filter paper membrane, which was  
521 used to remove organophosphorus pesticides, including fenitrothion, from aqueous solutions.  
522 The combination of the Ti-based MOF with the filter paper created a low-cost membrane which  
523 resulted in the rapid separation of samples and the removal of organophosphorus pesticides.  
524 When compared with the MOF itself, the filter paper membrane demonstrated the same  
525 removal efficiency of organophosphorus pesticides.

526

527 Khairkar et al. (2020) fabricated hydrophobic membranes for pesticide removal using  
528 polyamide-polydimethylsiloxane chemistries. These reverse osmosis membranes exhibited  
529 increased pesticide adsorption from the feed waters compared to commercial reverse osmosis  
530 membranes (95% removal of imidacloprid compared to 89% for the commercial membrane).  
531 The procedure for the synthesis of the membranes is cost effective and easy to incorporate into  
532 membrane manufacturing processes.

533

534 Lopes et al (2020) evaluated the potential of a membrane bioreactor to treat effluents from a  
535 fruit processing factory for the removal of pesticides. The removal efficiency of atrazine by the  
536 reactor was only partial (45%), which highlighted the requirement of other treatment  
537 technologies to get complete removal of the pesticide. When combining the membrane reactor  
538 with a post-treatment of activated carbon, the removal efficiency increased to >99.9%,  
539 indicating that the membrane reactor in combination with an activated carbon post-treatment  
540 system was very successful.

541

542 Mohammed and Jaber (2022) synthesised a Pickering emulsion liquid membrane, using Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>  
543 nanoparticles and oleic acid, for the extraction of Abamectin from aqueous solutions.  
544 Extraction percentages of 99% were obtained in 10 minutes, with minimal breakage

545 percentage. The membrane could be recycled for three cycles with no loss of extraction  
546 capability. Krishnan et al. (2022) modified a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane with  
547 either an amine or a bismuth tungstate (BWO) modified MOF for the reduction and  
548 photodegradation of pirimicarb. The BWO-modified MOF membrane showed the best removal  
549 of the pesticide (84%) and also the best photocatalytic degradation of the pesticide (86%).

550

#### 551 *5.4 Semiconductors*

552

553 Semiconductor-assisted photocatalysis, based on the use of TiO<sub>2</sub>, is a well-studied, advanced  
554 oxidation process for the degradation of pollutants, including pesticides (Luna-Sanguino et al,  
555 2020; Shafiee et al., 2022). Some of the advantages of this semiconductor are its cheap price,  
556 stability and chemical and biological inertness. Zeshan et al. (2022) discuss the basic  
557 mechanism of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based photocatalysis, types of reactors used for photocatalysis, and  
558 conditions for pesticide demineralisation into non-hazardous compounds, such as CO<sub>2</sub> and  
559 H<sub>2</sub>O. They demonstrated that advancements in the characteristics of TiO<sub>2</sub>-based photocatalysts  
560 by doping or composites enhanced the efficiency of mineralisation. They also showed that  
561 TiO<sub>2</sub>-based photocatalysts mineralised the pesticides more efficiently in natural sunlight,  
562 thereby promoting their potential use in pilot-scale experiments.

563

#### 564 *5.5 Vegetated buffers*

565

566 Vegetated buffer strips (VBS) can protect streams and other wetland habitats, as well as  
567 improving water quality (Lovell and Sullivan, 2006). A vegetated buffer strip is defined as an  
568 area of land located between land used for agriculture and land not in agricultural production



569 (e.g., forest, stream, river, pond). A VBS can decrease the amount of pesticide transported to  
570 surface water from fields during rainfall (Wang et al., 2018).

571

572 Villamizar et al. (2020) reported a study of mitigation approaches to compare the efficacy of  
573 propyzamide removal in a 900-ha headwater catchment. They observed that increasing the  
574 VBS to 20-m-width would be the most effective mitigation intervention. Prosser et al. (2020)  
575 reviewed the efficacy of VBS to reduce pesticide transport into surface waters from agricultural  
576 fields, and found that it varied widely, ranging from 10 to 100%. They also observed that the  
577 majority of studies investigating the ability of VBS to limit pesticide transport had studied  
578 herbicides (89%). Whilst the study of the transport of fungicides and insecticides is limited, the  
579 authors believed that the buffers would be as effective at mitigating the transport of fungicides  
580 and insecticides as they were at limiting the transport of herbicides (Prosser et al., 2020).

581 Lorenz et al. (2022) showed that the presence of VBS contributed to a reduction in pesticide  
582 risk compared to when no VBS were present. Furthermore, they demonstrated, through the use  
583 of modelling, that the risk to freshwaters was reduced by 29%, if a 5-m buffer strip was used,  
584 and 47%, if a 10-m buffer strip was used. Andrade et al. (2021) demonstrated that the pesticide  
585 concentration found in run-off water depended on the pesticide solubility, the slope of the  
586 streams and the percentage of woody riparian vegetation cover, and that all of these factors  
587 should be taken into account when designing mitigation measures for the run-off of pesticides.

588 Butkovskiy et al. (2021) evaluated the use of novel bed mixtures, consisting of pumice,  
589 vermiculite and water super-absorbent polymer (SAP), for the retention of ionic and water  
590 soluble pesticides in unplanted and planted pot experiments. They observed that mixtures of  
591 all three materials resulted in high retention of both hydrophobic and hydrophilic pesticides,  
592 but with lower leaching potential compared to systems without SAP. They suggested that  
593 mixtures of such materials would provide treatment options in VBS.

594

595 Le Cor et al (2021) demonstrated the buffering effect of a pond, as a VBS. Upstream of the  
596 pond, ecotoxicological standards were exceeded with pesticide concentrations of up to 23.9  
597  $\mu\text{g.l}^{-1}$ , while downstream of the pond, the concentration of the pesticides reduced by 90% with  
598 few exceedances and a maximum concentration of 0.5  $\mu\text{g.l}^{-1}$ , reflecting significant water  
599 quality improvement. Chaumet et al. (2022) also demonstrated the buffering effect of a pond,  
600 which reduced between 29 and 56% of the targeted pesticide molecules (metolachlor, boscalid,  
601 epoxiconazole, tebuconazole, aclonifen, and pendimethalin). They argued that riparian  
602 wetlands should be among the beneficial suggestions for agricultural land management, which  
603 could be further enhanced by promoting vegetation as an alternative route to pesticide retention  
604 or degradation.

605

## 606 **6. Management implications across Europe**

607

608 Following the introduction of the EU Directive on Sustainable Use of Pesticides in 2009 (EU,  
609 2009b), many papers have been published regarding measures for reducing pesticide use. A  
610 recent review focussed on the effectiveness of public policy instruments in reducing pesticide  
611 use by farmers in Europe (Lee et al., 2019). Bans, zoning, monitoring and penalties were placed  
612 in the regulatory domain, while those of the certification, training, and advisory services were  
613 in the informative domain. While the review determined that no specific instrument was  
614 guaranteed to reduce pesticide use, they suggested that measures were frequently identified as  
615 ineffective if based on the sole use of regulatory-based instruments, namely bans and  
616 prescriptions (maximum doses or pesticide levels). On the other hand, prescriptions and  
617 subsidies, prescriptions and advisory services, or prescriptions, taxes, training, monitoring and  
618 advisory services, were seen as most beneficial to pesticide reduction.

619

620 In a separate review of pesticide monitoring to assess surface water quality, Chow et al. (2020)  
621 attributed a reduction in pesticide use as the main factor linked to reductions in aquatic pesticide  
622 concentration. The reduction in pesticide use included bans and use restrictions. While the  
623 restriction or banning of a pesticide is a powerful mitigation measure, directly affecting the  
624 quantity of pesticide available for transport to surface waters, the benefits can be obscured if a  
625 banned pesticide is simply replaced by another pesticide. Furthermore, the effectiveness of a  
626 pesticide use regulation depends on the quantity of pesticide that a farmer uses, which is  
627 influenced by both the weather conditions and pest pressure.

628

629 As previously mentioned, the latest Farm to Fork strategy (EU, 2020) aims to cut chemical  
630 pesticide use across the EU-27 by 50% in 2030. To achieve this, the Commission intends to  
631 “revise the Sustainable Use of Pesticides Directive (SUD; EU, 2009b), enhance provisions on  
632 integrated pest management (IPM) and promote greater use of safe alternative ways of  
633 protecting harvests from pests and diseases” (EU, 2020). The IPM will be one of the main tools  
634 in reducing the use and dependence on chemical pesticides. One approach, that is intended to  
635 achieve this goal, is the placing of pesticides containing biologically-active substances on the  
636 market. In a recent EU factsheet, it was noted that, although member states had made progress  
637 implementing the SUD, fewer than one in three states had completed the review of their  
638 National Action Plan within the five-year legal deadline (EU, 2021a).

639

640 The target of reducing chemical pesticide use by 50% by 2030 has come under attack from  
641 pesticide and agribusiness lobbyists, who claim that the target is overly ambitious and  
642 unrealistic for EU farmers to achieve (Save bees and farmers, 2020). The pesticide industry  
643 also called for an impact assessment to be made that would look at possible negative effects of

644 the legislation on EU agriculture. The call for an impact assessment has been supported by a  
645 large number of EU member states. In response, the EU Commission has said that not enough  
646 was being done to reduce the level of pesticide usage across the EU by member states, resulting  
647 in the proposed strategy (Save bees and farmers, 2020).

648

649 Farm Europe is a think tank that focuses on all EU policy areas that impact on rural business.  
650 They have reported that the impact of the Farm to Fork strategy (EU, 2020) on the agricultural  
651 sector across Europe will cause revenues of farmers to plummet by up to € 5,000 on average  
652 per holding (FarmEurope, 2021). They also believe that the EU net trade position will worsen,  
653 and that there will be an increase in producer prices that would cost consumer prices to rise  
654 across the EU (FarmEurope, 2021). They believe that, as a result of this strategy, agricultural  
655 sectors will face massive restructuring, with the abandonment of the least productive lands and  
656 a huge reduction in the number of farm holdings. A report from the Economic Research Service  
657 of the United States Department of Agriculture reported that, if the Farm to Fork Strategy was  
658 implemented by the EU, the impacts would include a decline in agricultural production by up  
659 to 12%, an increase in food costs, and a significant reduction in the EU's gross domestic  
660 product (GDP: ERS USDA, 2020).

661

662 There has been considerable media coverage regarding the 50% chemical pesticide reduction  
663 by the year 2030. However, the positive messaging, as proposed by the EU Commission, has  
664 largely been lost. This would suggest that the informative instrument, discussed by Lee et al.  
665 (2019), has not worked properly and now it appears as if the EU Commission is trying to force  
666 this strategy through by means of regulation instruments.

667

668 **7. Conclusions**

669

670 The EU strategy to make food production environmentally friendly by reducing the overall use  
671 of chemical pesticides by 50% by 2030 may be too ambitious, given that usage has remained  
672 relatively constant since 2011. Non attainment of this target may be further attributed to legacy  
673 pesticides, which have been detected in water bodies across the EU-27. The omission of legacy  
674 pesticides from the current EU Farm to Fork strategy, and the requirement of a maximum  
675 allowable concentration of pesticides in soils or sediments, may be a serious omission.

676

677 Amongst several emerging mitigation methods for the removal of pesticides from water, MOFs  
678 are among the most promising, due to their well-defined pore structure and high surface areas.  
679 One disadvantage that all adsorbent materials have is the removal of the pesticides from the  
680 adsorbents, and the interactions of the cleaning materials with the pesticides requires further  
681 exploration. The most cost-effective method is the use of VBS to protect streams and other  
682 wetland habitats as well as improving water quality. Buffer strips of at least 5 m width are  
683 appropriate to substantially reduce the risk to freshwaters posed by pesticide use. Further  
684 research is required to investigate the applicability and cost-effectiveness of potential  
685 remediation processes of pesticides on larger scales.

686

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688

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