

Pesticide Application & Safety Training for Applicators of Public Health Pesticides



**California Department of Public Health
Vector-Borne Disease Section**

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How to Use this Guide

This study guide is meant to replace the manual Pesticide Application & Safety Training for Applicators of Public Health Pesticides.

You can navigate through the guide at your own pace and in any order.

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California Code of Regulations

§17-30056: Examination Content

The Category A vector control technician certification exam will draw questions from the following subjects:

Label and labeling comprehension factors, including:

- (A) The general format and terminology of pesticide labels and labeling;
- (B) The understanding of instructions, warnings, terms, symbols, and other information commonly appearing on pesticide labels;
- (C) Classification of the product, general or restricted; and
- (D) Necessity for use consistent with the label.

Safety factors, including:

- (A) Pesticide toxicity and hazard to man;
- (B) Common exposure routes;

California Code of Regulations

§17-30056: Examination Content

- (C) Common types and causes of pesticide accidents;
- (D) Precautions necessary to guard against injury to applicators and other individuals in or near treated areas, including medical supervision;
- (E) Need for and use of protective clothing and equipment;
- (F) Symptoms of pesticide poisoning;
- (G) First aid and other procedures to be followed in case of a pesticide accident; and
- (H) Safe and proper procedures for identification, storage, transport, handling, mixing of pesticides and disposal of pesticides and used pesticide containers, including precautions to prevent access by children.

Environment: The potential environmental consequences of the use and misuse of pesticides as may be influenced by such factors as climate and weather, non-target organisms, and drainage patterns.

California Code of Regulations

§17-30056: Examination Content

Pesticides, including:

- (A) Types of pesticides;
- (B) Types of formulations;
- (C) Characteristics of pesticides and formulations, including compatibility, synergism, persistence, and animal and plant toxicity;
- (D) Hazards and residues associated with use, including applicable laws and regulations;
- (E) Factors which influence effectiveness or lead to such problems as resistance to pesticides;
- (F) Dilution procedures.

Pesticide application equipment and techniques, including:

- (A) Types of equipment and their uses, advantages, and limitations;
- (B) Maintenance of equipment;
- (C) Calibration of equipment;
- (D) Operating procedures and techniques used to apply various formulations of pesticides;
- (E) A knowledge of the most effective equipment and technique of application to use situationally;
- (F) Relationship of discharge and placement of pesticides to proper use, unnecessary use, and misuse; and
- (G) Prevention of drift and pesticide loss into the environment.



California Code of Regulations

§17-30056: Examination Content

Non-chemical control methods: A practical knowledge of the importance and use of such methods as sanitation, waste management, drainage, exclusion, trapping, public education, and legal abatement.

Record Keeping: A familiarity with the principles and practices of biological and operational documentation.

Supervisory Requirements: A practical knowledge of State and Federal supervisory requirements, including labeling, regarding the application of restricted materials by a technician's aide.

Laws and Regulations: A basic knowledge of applicable State and Federal laws and regulations.

Introduction: Pesticides

Pesticides are chemical substances used to kill, repel, or control **pests** of all kinds.

- Pests: Arthropods and **vertebrates** of direct public health importance or vegetation, especially **weeds**, that contributes to arthropod pest production.

Used to control **vectors**.

Vector

“Any animal capable of transmitting the causative agent of human disease or capable of producing human discomfort or injury, including but not limited to: mosquitoes, flies, mites, ticks, other arthropods, and rodents and other vertebrates” (California Health and Safety Code Section 2002(k)).

Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA)

**Federal statute regulating pesticides,
signed into law in 1947.**

**Established the requirement for
registration of pesticides by the US
Department of Agriculture.**

FIFRA Revisions

1972: Required the newly established US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA**) to register pesticides.**

1988 – FIFRA-lite: required re-registration of all pesticides.

Currently the EPA has the authority for interpretation and enforcement of pesticide laws, including registrations.

FIFRA Requirements

FIFRA delegates responsibility for certification of restricted use pesticide applicators to the individual states.

- In California, the California Department of Pesticide Regulation delegates responsibility to the California Department of Public Health (CDPH) for certifying government employees that apply pesticides for vector control.
- CDPH certifies government employees who apply any pesticides for public health purposes (HSC 106925).

All pesticides must undergo thorough testing for efficacy, safety, and toxicity as a basis for registration

All pesticide formulations must be clearly and completely labeled as a condition of their sale.



FIFRA Administration in CA

California Environmental Protection Agency: Department of Pesticide Regulation (CDPR).

- CDPR maintains direct oversight of pesticide registration and use-reporting, usually working through local County Agricultural Commissioners for enforcement of laws and regulations.
- California and all other states can and do further regulate the sale, use, and possession of pesticides via a state process that mirrors the federal process.

CHAPTER 1:

Public Health Pests and

Disease Vectors

Chapter 1: Table of Contents

Public Health Pests

Invertebrates

Vertebrates

Weeds

Public Nuisances

First Step to Solving a Pest Problem &
Pest Identification

Public Health Pests

Public health pests are **organisms** which attack or annoy us in some manner.

- Some animal species carry **pathogenic** microbial and parasitic organisms including **bacteria**, **viruses**, protozoans, and nematodes. If the animal can transmit the pathogen to a human or other animal, then the animal is known as a **disease vector**.
- Pests can be **invertebrates** or vertebrates.
- Weeds are usually not considered direct pests themselves but are important because they contribute to increased production of vertebrate and invertebrate pests.

Invertebrates

Invertebrates are organisms that lack a backbone. Examples:

- insects
- spiders
- sponges
- starfish
- earthworms

Public health pests include:

- cockroaches
- mosquitoes
- gnats and other flies
- wasps/bees

Invertebrate public health pests may invade body tissues, sting, vector disease, cause allergic reactions, or annoy.

Vertebrates

Vertebrates are organisms with a backbone. Examples:

- dogs
- cats
- horses
- humans

Public health pests include:

- rats
- mice
- venomous snakes
- birds

It is important to remember that a pest in one setting may be beneficial in another:

- Rattlesnakes are not welcome in residential yards, but are highly beneficial in natural settings by controlling rodents.

Weeds

A weed is a plant growing where it is not wanted:

- An otherwise valuable sunflower growing in a wheat field is a weed.
- Weeds can be divided into terrestrial and aquatic forms.

Many **aquatic weeds** contribute to mosquito production or complicate mosquito control operations:

- cattails
- water hyacinth
- duckweed
- *Azolla*

Terrestrial weeds can contribute to arthropod and vertebrate pest production:

- ivy
- honeysuckle
- Invasive grasses

Public Nuisances

California Health and Safety Code 2002(j) defines a public nuisance as:

- *Any property, excluding water, that has been artificially altered from its natural condition so that it now supports the development, attraction, or harborage of vectors.*
- *Any activity that supports the development, attraction, spread or harborage of vectors.*
- *Any water that is a breeding place for vectors.*

First Step to Solving a Pest Problem & Pest Identification

The first step to solving a pest problem is to properly identify the species:

Correctly identifying the species will allow the **applicator** to understand a pest's habits, developmental sites, and **susceptibility** to control measures.

Failure to properly identify a pest can result in wasted time, money, chemicals, and effort.

How to identify a pest:

Compare collected specimens with identified specimens in museums or with photographs.

Use an illustrated key.

Contact an authority (farm advisor, agricultural commissioner, or a biologist in the **USDA**, Cooperative Extension, public health department or college/university).

CHAPTER 2:

Pesticide

Classifications and

Formulations



Chapter 2: Table of Contents

Introduction

Classification of pesticides

Herbicides

Rodenticides

Pesticide formulation

Pesticide formulations with a
combination of pesticides

Introduction to Pesticides

Pesticides are defined as substances or mixtures that affect populations of organisms deemed to be pests by:

- controlling
- preventing
- destroying
- repelling
- attracting

Examples:

- Insecticides
- **herbicides**
- avicides
- **nematicides**

Classification of Pesticides

Pesticides may be classified in several ways. These classifications can provide useful information about the pesticide chemistry, how they work, what they target, etc.

Classification: Chemical Nature

Most modern pesticides can be classified into two main chemical groups:

- **Organic pesticides**
- **Inorganic pesticides**

Organic pesticides can be further divided into two major subgroups:

- **Natural organic pesticides**
- **Synthetic organic pesticides**

Natural organic pesticides are derived from plants. An example is pyrethrum.

Synthetic organic pesticides are produced through chemical synthesis and comprise most “modern” pesticides. Examples are permethrin and malathion.

PESTICIDE	TARGET PEST/FUNCTION
Acaricide	Mites, ticks
Anticoagulant	Rodents
Attractant	Attracts insects/birds
Avicide	Birds
Bactericide	Bacteria
Defoliant	Plant Leaves
Desiccant	Disrupts water balance in arthropods
Fungicide	Fungi
Growth regulator	Regulates insect and plant growth
Herbicide	Weeds
Insecticide	Insects
Molluscicide	Snails, slugs
Nematicide	Nematodes
Piscicide	Fish
Predacide	Vertebrate predators
Repellent	Repels vertebrates, invertebrates
Rodenticide	Rodents

Classification:

Target Pest Species and Pesticide Function

Classification: Chemistry

Insecticides are designed to control insects, and acaracides control ticks and mites.

In public health applications, insecticides are mostly used to control mosquitoes, flies, ticks, mites, lice, and fleas. Since insecticides and acaracides are often the same pesticides, they are not discussed separately.

Organochlorines

Examples of organochlorines include:

- DDT
- Lindane
- Chlordane

Due to their ability to persist in animal tissues and the environment, the United States has **suspended the registration** of organochlorines for most uses.

- Internationally, DDT is still used for mosquito control.
- With the U.S., the registrations of most other organochlorines (chlordane, dieldrin, and lindane) have also been suspended.

Organophosphates (OPs) & Carbamates

Organophosphates (OPs)	Carbamates
Contain phosphorous in their molecules (naled, malathion, and some formulations of dursban).	Chemically similar in structure to organophosphates, but are derivatives of carbamic acid.
Are considered by most to pose a greater human health risk for pesticide applicators than other families of pesticides.	Pose a relatively high risk for human poisoning.
Use has dramatically decreased because of resistance, the potential for non-target effects, and the development of alternative products.	There are no carbamates approved for mosquito control.

Pyrethrum/Pyrethrin

Pyrethrums are:

- Natural organic insecticide that is derived from plants in the genus *Chrysanthemum*. Grinding the flowers releases the active component of the pesticide, called **pyrethrin**.
- Insecticides containing pyrethrins are considered amongst the safest for use around food because they are **non-persistent** (breaking down easily on exposure to sunlight).
- Insecticides containing pyrethrins are neurotoxic to nearly all insects. They are harmful to fish (direct application to water is restricted) but far less **toxic** to **mammals** and birds (in comparison to other synthetics).
- Pyrethrins and **pyrethroids** are now among the most common public health pesticides used in California, especially for the control of **adult** mosquitoes.

Synergists

Synergists are materials that are not necessarily pesticidal by themselves but have the effect of increasing the toxicity of insecticides with which they are mixed.

PBO (piperonyl butoxide) acts as a synergist and is often mixed with pyrethrum, pyrethrins, or some synthetic pyrethroids. Without PBO, insects treated with the same pesticide **dose** would be knocked down but would eventually recover.

PBO may have a long **residual** life in aquatic systems.

The opposite of synergism is antagonism.

Pyrethroids

Pyrethroids:

- Non-persistent synthetically produced molecules that are chemically similar to pyrethrins.
- At rates applied for vector control, they break down quickly in sunlight and are rarely present after just a few days.
- Mode of action is the same as pyrethrins and are also synergized with PBO.
- They may not break down as readily in sunlight as do pyrethrins.
- Pyrethrins and pyrethroids are now among the most common public health pesticides used in California, especially for the control of adult mosquitoes.

Biorational Pesticides

The EPA defines biorationals as “certain types of pesticides derived from such natural materials as animals, plants, bacteria, and certain minerals.” Can be either biochemical (**hormones**, enzymes, **pheromones**) or microbial (bacteria, viruses, fungi, or protozoa). Also called biopesticides.

Not particularly selective among arthropod species, but generally have extremely low toxicity for vertebrates, including people.

Insect growth regulators (**IGRs**) are a biochemical, biorational pesticide. IGRs disrupt the molting process of insects, keeping **pupae** from molting into adults.

Example: Methoprene is an IGR used in mosquito control.

Two Groups of Biorational Pesticides

Biochemical:

- Hormones
- Enzymes
- Pheromones
- Natural insect and plant regulators

Example:

Methoprene (Altosid)

Microbial:

- Viruses
- Bacteria
- Fungi
- Protozoa
- Nematodes

Example:

Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis (Bti).

Note: some products (such as Bti) will satisfy definitions for both biorational and biological control agent.

Chemical Classifications*

*Chemicals may appear in multiple classifications

Classification	Example	Mode of Action	Notes
Microbial Pesticides	Bacterial toxin produced by Bti, and Bacillus sphaericus (Bs).	Kills arthropods either by toxins released by microbial organisms, or by infection by the organisms (most are more selective than biochemical pesticides).	These bacteria are used against mosquito larvae (with Bti being effective in killing black fly larvae as well).
Materials Applied to Water Surfaces	Alcohols (Agnique)	Act by reducing surface tension of the water, eventually leading to the drowning of mosquito larvae or pupae	Larvae drown because they're not able to attach breathing siphon to surface tension of water.
Materials Applied to Water Surfaces	Petroleum oils (Cocobear)	Used as a suffocating agent	Refined from crude oil. In vector control oils are used both as carriers for insecticides, and more directly (as active ingredients), when mixed with a surfactant and applied to the water.
Stomach toxicants	Stomach toxicants enter an insect's body through mouth and digestive tract.	Kill by destroying the midgut (stomach) of the larvae.	Bacteria or their toxins applied to water where filter-feeding mosquito or black fly larvae consume the poison .
Contact toxicants	Generally enter the pest or plant by exposure to water, some treated surface (leaves) or an aerosol (insecticidal fog).	Act upon the nerve and respiratory centers of arthropods.	Most adult mosquito control products are contact toxicants.
Fumigants	Volatile compounds that enter the bodies of insects in a gaseous phase.		No longer any registered for use against insects in California, but are sometimes used in rodent control.
Systemic Toxicants	Absorbed by plants, pets, or livestock and are disseminated throughout the organism via the vascular system.		Typically used for tick and flea control on pets, as well as dog heartworm prevention.
Chemical Repellents	Prevent bloodsucking insects from biting humans, livestock, or pets.		Most common used to protect people is N,N-Diethyl-3-methylbenzamide (DEET).
Ingested Anticoagulants	Used to control rodents.	Rodents die from internal bleeding, the result of loss of the blood's clotting ability and damage to the capillaries.	Delayed action: effects follow several days after ingestion of the lethal dose. As a result, bait shyness usually does not occur.

Herbicides

Other than limited applications to clear paths to mosquito sources or to remove aquatic vegetation, herbicide use by vector control agencies is beyond the scope of activities covered by a vector control technician license.

Rodenticides

- Rodenticides are pesticides used to kill rodents.
 - Primarily used for commensal rats (*Rattus spp.*) and mice (*Mus musculus*) in urban environments.
 - Can also be used for sylvatic (rural) rodent species in some circumstances (infrastructure protection, agricultural, disease control).
- Generally classified as either anticoagulants or other/non-anticoagulant poisons.
 - Others have various ways of killing rodents (e.g., poison gas, nerve poison, calcification).
- Regulations have become increasingly restrictive in California. Consult your county agricultural commissioner for assistance.

Anticoagulant Rodenticides

- Anticoagulant rodenticides are classified in two ways: by development date/period and by chemical structure.
- First generation and second generation refer to development period or when first commercially available.
- Anticoagulants affect all mammals, including humans, by thinning the blood leading to severe bleeding.
- First Generation Anticoagulant Rodenticides (FGAR): Warfarin, chlorophacinone, and diphacinone.
- Second Generation Anticoagulant Rodenticides (SGAR): Brodifacoum, bromadiolone, difenacoum, and difethialone.

New Restrictions on FGAR and SGAR Use in California

- Two laws were recently enacted due to public concern about the potential for secondary or non-target exposure to anticoagulants, particularly in wildlife.
- In 2020, AB 1788 was signed into law and effectively restricted the use of any products that use SGARs in California.
- In 2023, AB 1322 was signed into law and added diphacinone (FGAR) to the list of anticoagulants restricted in California.
- Both laws include exemptions for public health (e.g., vector control), infrastructure protection (e.g., dam and levee protection), and emergency use.

Anticoagulants - FGARs

- Diphacinone, chlorophacinone, warfarin are the primary active ingredients in use today.
- Used in agriculture (e.g., treated grain for ground squirrel control) and urban/suburban settings (e.g., commensal rodent control).
- Typically applied in bait stations in most situations (e.g., above ground, near structures in urban areas).
- Need multiple, consecutive feedings to consume a toxic dose.
- Fewer issues with primary (accidental) and secondary exposure due to the need for multiple feedings.
- Vitamin K antidote available for accidental poisoning.

Anticoagulants - SGARs

- Difethialone, Brodifacoum, Bromadiolone, Difenacoum
- Developed for rodent populations that are **resistant** to FGARs.
- Typically only require one feeding for a rodent to consume a toxic dose.
- Most labels require application in tamper-proof bait stations
- Were available for residential use and widely used until recently.
- Registered only for use in urban settings to control commensal rodents
- **Increased risk of secondary exposure to pets and wildlife.**
 - While one feeding is enough to kill a rodent, they typically feed multiple times prior to death, which can lead to concentrations many times greater than the lethal dose.
 - Vitamin K antidote is available for accidental exposures.
- **Delayed toxicity is key to the success of FGARs and SGARs as rodents typically do not associate bait with illness (i.e., bait shyness).**

Non-Anticoagulants - Bromethalin

- **Bromethalin:**
 - Brand names: Fastrac, Top Gun.
 - Primarily used for commensal rodent control.
- Developed due to rodent resistance to anticoagulant rodenticides.
- More commonly used today due to regulations on anticoagulants.
- Rodents stop feeding after ingesting a lethal dose.
- Nerve toxicant that results in respiratory distress, paralysis, and death in a single feeding.
 - Death occurs within 24-36 hours.
- Typically applied in bait stations or out of reach of children, pets, and non-target wildlife.
 - Applied within 100 feet of structures.
- No antidote available for non-target ingestion.
- Lower risk of secondary exposure to pets and wildlife than anticoagulant rodenticides.
 - Rodents stop feeding and don't ingest an amount that is lethal to non-target animals.
 - Sublethal effects may occur.
- Can result in bait shyness if a toxic dose is not consumed prior to illness.

Non-Anticoagulants - Cholecalciferol (Vitamin D3)

- **Active ingredient** in the rodenticides Quintox and Rampage.
- Primarily used for commensal rodent control.
- More commonly used today due to regulations on anticoagulants.
- Rodents stop feeding after ingesting a lethal dose. Can be lethal in a single feed or multiple smaller feedings.
- Causes calcification of soft tissues, which can be fatal to rodents after extended feeding.
- Used in baits and is tasteless. Can result in bait shyness if a toxic dose is not consumed prior to illness.
- There is no antidote. Less toxic to humans than most rodenticides but may poison pets.

Non-Anticoagulants - Strychnine

- Botanical rodenticide – highly toxic to all warm-blooded animals.
- Currently only used for gopher control in agricultural and residential setting when pets and people are not present.
- Can only be applied underground in gopher burrows.
- Not currently registered for public health use in California.
- Elsewhere is rarely used because of its high toxicity and its relatively poor performance as a rodenticide in comparison with anticoagulants.

Non-Anticoagulants – Zinc Phosphide

- Acute toxicant used primarily for ground-burrowing rodents and moles in agricultural settings (Prozap, ZP Rodent Bait).
- Not currently registered for use as a public health pesticide.
- A lethal dose is typically consumed in one feeding. Death occurs within 12 hours.
- Once ingested the zinc phosphide interacts with stomach acid and produces phosphine gas.
- Risk of direct non-target exposure is greater than for other rodenticides because of the acute effects of zinc phosphide.
- Secondary exposure risk is low because the phosphine gas quickly dissipates and no toxicant remains.

Non-Anticoagulants – Aluminum Phosphide

- Restricted use fumigant used primarily for ground-burrowing rodents in agricultural settings
 - Brand names: Fumitoxin, Phostoxin.
- Used in late winter – early spring when the soil is moist, and rodents are active.
- Aluminum phosphide interacts with water in the soil and produces phosphine gas that fills a burrow system.
- Due to recent human fatalities, new regulations restrict use to areas away from structures due to the risk of gas exposure inside structures.
- Secondary exposure risk is low because the phosphine gas quickly dissipates, and no toxicant remains.

Pesticide Formulation

- Formulations are another way to classify pesticides.
- Pesticides are nearly always applied in formulations containing other materials.
- Unformulated pesticides are referred to as **technical grade** and these are used only by toxicologists and other pesticide chemists or biologists conducting tests on pesticide resistance or susceptibility to target and non-target organisms.
- All formulations sold in the USA must be labeled with complete instructions and restrictions for use.
- Technical grade pesticides are either formulated by manufacturers or by commercial pesticide distributors.
- Formulation is done to improve safety, ease of handling, storage, ease of use and effectiveness of pesticides.
- Formulations are nearly always the form in which pesticides are obtained by vector control specialists.
- All formulations must be registered, have an EPA registration number, a label, and a Safety Data Sheet.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Emulsifiable Concentrates (EC):

- Concentrated oil **solutions** of technical grade pesticides combined with an **emulsifier** added to permit further mixing with water.
- Emulsifiers are detergent like materials that allow the **suspension** of very small oil droplets in water to form an **emulsion**.
- Used widely in vector control operations with the final water dilutions being made in spray tanks (mixes are milky in appearance).

Wettable Powders:

- Finely ground, dry powders consisting of active pesticide ingredients mixed with other ingredients to aid in mixing and dispersion.
- Intended for mixture with a liquid (usually water) for application by spray equipment.
- Generally mixed with water to form a **slurry** before being added to the spray tank and require constant agitation.
- Wettable powders are harder on equipment than other formulations and can cause wear on pumps, gaskets, and spray nozzles.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Soluble Powder:

- Similar to wettable powders except the active ingredient as well as the **diluent** and all formulating ingredients are completely soluble in water.
- Uses are similar to those of wettable powders.

Water-Soluble Concentrate:

- Liquid formulations that form true solutions in water and require no agitation once mixed. They are used in the same way as emulsifiable concentrates.

Dusts:

- Finely ground mixtures of active ingredient and a **carrier** material.
- Intended for direct application without further mixing.
- Never used where **drift** is a potential problem. For this reason, herbicides are not formulated as dusts.
- In vector control, dusts are frequently used to control fleas and other ectoparasites on pets.
- Also applied to rodent burrows and bait stations to control fleas in plague control operations.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Granules:

- In a **granular** formulation, the active ingredient is mixed with various clays or bonded to corn cob granules to form particles of different sizes.
- These require specialized dispersal equipment and may be applied from the air or on the ground.
- May be used with small hand-cranked units or scattered by hand (with personal protection).
- Useful in treating mosquito **larvae** where heavy vegetation would prevent insecticide from reaching the water, or where drift could be a problem.

Fumigants:

- Volatile chemicals stored as liquids under pressure or incorporated into a solid form with clay which releases toxic gas when combined with water **vapor**.
- Used for vector control of rodents and their associated ectoparasites underground.
- Fumigants are used for structural pest control to kill cockroaches.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Baits:

- Contain active ingredients that are mixed with a pest food or attractant.
- Principal uses include control of household pests such as ants, mice, rats, roaches and flies.
- Used outdoors to control birds, ants, slugs, snails and agricultural pests such as crickets and grasshoppers.

Aerosols:

- Pressurized cans which contain a small amount of pesticide that is driven through a small nozzle under pressure from an inert gas (called a propellant).
- Often used in households: to kill flies, weeds, and in structural pest control.
- Use peaked during the 1990s before concern for propellants consisting of chlorofluorocarbons were linked to damage to the ozone layer.
- Since then – uses have dropped significantly.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Flowables:

- A flowable liquid usually mixed with water for use in a sprayer.
- Forms a suspension in water which requires continual agitation.
- Principal uses are similar to those of emulsifiable concentrates.

Ultra Low Volume Concentrates

(ULV):

- ULV concentrates are sold as technical **product** in its original liquid form, or solid product dissolved in a small amount of **solvent**.
- Applied using a special aerial or ground equipment that produces small droplets (~10 – 30 microns) at very low application **rates**.
- Main use is as mosquito adulticides.

Some of the Most Commonly Used Formulations

Fogging Concentrates:

- Combines a pesticide with a solvent.
- Truck-mounted machines called **foggers** are used for public health to control flying insects like flies and mosquitoes.

Foggers come in two types:

- Thermal Foggers: use flash heating of an oil solvent to produce a visible plume of vapor or smoke.
- Cold (Ambient) Foggers: Atomize a jet of liquid in a venturi tube under pressure from a high velocity air stream. Can use insecticides combined with oil, water, or emulsifying agents.

Slow or Controlled

Release Formulations:

- Can be encased (encapsulated) in an inert material for a controlled release, resulting in decreased **hazard** and increased likelihood of the active ingredient reaching the target organism.
- Sustained-release mosquito **larvicides** are based on this principle.
- Methoprene briquettes slowly release a juvenile hormone analogue to disrupt **metamorphosis**.

Formulations with Combinations of Pesticides

When two or more chemicals can be mixed safely, they are called **compatible**. The reasons to combine pesticides are:

- To increase the effectiveness of one of the chemicals.
- To provide better control than that obtained from one pesticide.
- To control different types of pests with a single application (more economical to do at the same time).

Caution in Mixing Pesticides

Always check the **label** of a pesticide prior to mixing pesticides. Some pesticides cannot be used in combination, meaning they are **incompatible**.

Separation of the pesticide from the water or other carrying agent.

Effectiveness of one or both compounds may be reduced.

Excessive residues may result.

Precipitation may occur and clog the screen or nozzles of application equipment.

Various types of phytotoxicity may occur.

Excessive **runoff** may occur.

CHAPTER 3:

PESTICIDE

LABELS AND

LABELING

Chapter 3: Table of Contents

Introduction

Labels and labeling

Format for pesticide labeling

Introduction: Pesticide Labels and Labeling

1972 amendment to FIFRA required registration and labeling to all pesticide products transported or sold in interstate and intrastate commerce.

Pesticide labeling is administered by the EPA.

Information on a label is designed to provide safety to applicators, the public, and the environment, and to encourage the appropriate and effective use of the labeled pesticide.

Label: the printed material attached to a pesticide container or a wrapper of a retail pesticide package.

Labeling: all of the printed instructions that come with a pesticide (label on product, brochures and flyers provided by manufacturer, and other information such as handouts from the dealer).

Pesticide Label: A Legal Document

Contains information on how, when and where the pesticide can be used.

Lists hazards to humans and domestic animals (as well as any environmental hazards).

Contains a signal word: **DANGER**, **WARNING**, OR **CAUTION** depending on its toxicological classification.



ALL pesticide labels contain the warning
KEEP OUT OF REACH OF CHILDREN.

Safety Data Sheet

For every pesticide there is also a document known as a Safety Data Sheet

The operator must always have in their possession sample labels and a SDS for the pesticide being applied.

The Safety Data Sheet (**SDS**), formerly known as a Material Safety Data Sheet (**MSDS**), is a document that contains information on the hazard from fire and explosion, health hazard data, reactivity data, and procedures required for environmental protection.

Signal Words

There are three signal words used on labels: Danger/Poison, warning or caution. Assigned based on the most severe toxicity category assigned to the five acute toxicity studies (presented next slide).

If Methanol is present in a formulation in a concentration of 4% or more, it is automatically to be assigned to signal word “Danger/Poison”.

Required to appear on the front panel of all pesticide labels, along with the statement “KEEP OUT OF REACH OF CHILDREN” (KOOROC).

Toxicity Categories for Pesticides

Study	Category I	Category II	Category III	Category IV
<i>Signal Word</i>	DANGER/POISON	WARNING	CAUTION	CAUTION
<i>Acute Oral</i>	Up to & including 50mg/kg	>50 thru 500 mg/kg	>500 thru 5,000 mg/kg	>5,000 mg/kg
<i>Acute Dermal</i>	Up to & including 200mg/kg	>200 thru 2,000 mg/kg	>2,000 thru 5,000 mg/kg	>5,000 mg/kg
<i>Acute Inhalation</i>	Up to & including 0.05 mg/liter	>0.05 thru 0.5 mg/kg	>0.5 thru 2 mg/liter	>2 mg/liter
<i>Primary Eye Irritation</i>	Corrosive (irreversible destruction of ocular tissue)	Corneal involvement or other eye irritation clearing in 8-21 days	Corneal involvement or other eye irritation clearing in 7 days or less	Minimal effects clearing in less than 24 hours
<i>Primary Skin Irritation</i>	Corrosive (tissue destruction into the dermis and/or scarring)	Severe irritation or swelling at 72 hours	Moderate irritation at 72 hours	Mild or slight irritation at 72 hours

When Should You Read a Pesticide Label & the Material Safety Data Sheet?

Before you buy the pesticide:

- Is it the proper chemical for the job?
- Does it require special equipment or application technique?
- Do you have the qualifications to use it?

Before you apply the pesticide:

- When do you apply the material? How? At what rate of application?
- What protective clothing and equipment are required?
- What are the **residue** or re-entry restrictions that apply to its use?

Before you transport, mix, or load the pesticide:

- Does it require special precautions for transportation?
- How to mix and how much to mix?
- What **protective** clothing and equipment are required?
- What **first aid** procedures may be required in case of accidental **exposure**?

When Should You Read a Pesticide Label & the Safety Data Sheet?

Before you store the pesticide:

- Are there heat, cold, or UV light recommendations?
- Never store pesticides near food or feed.
- Many pesticides should not be stored where they may become contaminated by other pesticides.

Before you dispose of unwanted pesticide or the empty container:

- Does the pesticide meet any criteria established by the EPA for hazardous waste?
- What is the proper procedure for disposal to avoid health risks or environmental contamination?
- What is the proper procedure for disposal of the empty pesticide container?

Formats For Pesticide Labeling

The EPA has suggested formats for pesticide labels. With minor differences, the formats are the same for both unclassified and restricted use pesticides.

The following information is required on the label's front panel:

- Restricted Use Pesticide Statement (if applicable).
- Product Name, Brand, or Trademark.
- Ingredient Statement.
- KEEP OUT OF REACH OF CHILDREN.
- Signal Word (Danger, Warning, Caution).
- First Aid.
- Skull & Crossbones Symbol (if applicable – see next slide).
- Net Contents/Net Weight.

Skull & Crossbones Symbol

Applies to pesticides in Toxicity Category I where the toxicity determination is based on oral, inhalation, or **dermal toxicity** as opposed to skin or eye irritation.

Must be prominently in red and on a background of distinctly contrasting color.



Formats For Pesticide Labeling

The EPA has suggested formats for pesticide labels. With minor differences, the formats are the same for both unclassified and restricted use pesticides.

The following information is required on the label's back panel:

- Precautionary Statements
 - Hazards to humans & domestic animals.
 - First aid.
 - Environmental hazards.
 - Physical or chemical hazards.
- Directions for Use.
- Storage and Disposal.
- Worker Protection Labeling.

Formats For Pesticide Labeling

The EPA has suggested formats for pesticide labels. With minor differences, the formats are the same for both unclassified and restricted use pesticides.

The following information is required on the label's front or back panel:

- **EPA Registration Number and Establishment Number**
 - (The EPA Registration # is the most important piece of information for tracking pesticide products and its appearance on each pesticide label is an absolute requirement)
- **Company Name & Address.**

Example Pesticide Labels

The Changing Nature of Pesticide Labels

If you are in doubt as to which pesticides are on either the Federal or California list of restricted pesticides, this information can be found at:

The EPA website:

<http://www.epa.gov>

Or the DPR website:

<http://www.cdpr.ca.gov>

CHAPTER 4: TOXICITY OF PESTICIDES TO HUMANS

Chapter 4 Table of Contents

Introduction

Pesticide toxicity and hazards

Types of toxicity

Toxicity testing and measurement

Toxicity testing in experimental animals

Toxicity testing required for registration

How pesticides affect humans

Introduction: Pesticide Toxicity and Hazards

Toxicology is the science of poisons.

Modern vector control operations emphasize the use of pesticides that are the least hazardous to non-target organisms.

Regulatory agencies place great stress on means of reducing human hazards to pesticides.

There is a difference between the terms “toxicity” and “hazard.”

Toxicity is defined as the inherent poisonous potency of a material.

The potency of a pesticide expresses how toxic it is.

Evaluated in toxicology laboratories and is always expressed in quantitative terms such as LC_{50} (the concentration at which a material is lethal to 50% of some reference organism).

Toxicity and Hazards

Defined as the danger or risk of injury or other harm faced in connection with exposure to a pesticide. The degree of hazard is a result of a combination of toxicity of the pesticide and the risk of exposure.

Together, toxicity and hazard information can be used to determine risk to humans or the environment.

Important Factors in Evaluating the Potential for Poisoning:

The concentration of the pesticide in a formulation.

The length of human exposure to a pesticide.

The route of entry into the human body.

Types of toxicity:

- Can be classified by nature of exposure, by the route by which exposure occurs, or by the body function or system affected.
- Generally, a poison is more toxic if **ingested** by mouth than if inhaled, and more toxic if inhaled than by **dermal** contact (skin exposure).

Toxicity Classification by Type of Exposure:

Toxicity may be divided into four types, based on the number of exposures to a poison and the time it takes for toxic **symptoms** to develop:

Acute Toxicity:

- When a person is exposed to a single dose of a pesticide. Can be **acute dermal, acute oral, acute inhalation**.

Chronic Exposure:

- When there is repeated or continuous exposure to a pesticide by a person (**chronic dermal, chronic oral, or chronic inhalation toxicity**).

Sub-chronic Exposure:

- When there has been repeated or continuous exposure to a pesticide, but no measurable toxic affects have resulted.

Delayed Toxicity:

- May occur many years after exposure to a chemical and is most often only discovered in retrospective **epidemiological** studies (studies that are done after the fact).
- Example of a chemical that produces delayed toxicity is fipronil.

Toxicity Classification By Body System Affected

Toxicity can also be classified by the body system affected.

Cutaneous Toxicity:

- Most often associated with petroleum-based **products**, pyrethroids, and some herbicides.
- Account for approximately one-third of all pesticide-related occupational illnesses.
- Dermatitis - any skin rash associated with inflammation and redness.

Primary Irritant Dermatitis (PID):

- Caused by chemical substances that directly irritate the skin (such as acids and bases).
- May be very minor or very severe, causing blisters or ulcerations.
- Most frequently caused by herbicides (refined petroleum products or **formulations** that use refined petroleum as a **carrier**).
- Exposure to pyrethroids can cause a crawling or tingling sensation in the skin and may irritate mucous membranes.

Toxicity Classification By Body System Affected

Toxicity can also be classified by the body system affected.

Allergic Contact Dermatitis (ACD):

- Caused by chemical substances that stimulate development of an allergic reaction.
- Workers may handle an allergenic substance for years before ACD develops or it may develop after a single exposure.
- Symptoms vary from redness and itching to large painful blisters (Naled and malathion may result in ACD).

Classification By Route Of Entry

There are four common routes in through which pesticides can enter the human body:

- skin
- the mouth
- the lungs
- the eyes.

The chances of pesticide entry into the body is affected by the state of the chemical:

- Liquids or gasses can penetrate the body via any of these four routes.
- Solids tend to have a lower chance of entry through the lungs or eyes.

Dermal Exposure

Absorption through skin is the most common route of which pesticide applicators are poisoned by pesticides.

May occur as a result of a splash, spill, or drift when mixing, loading or disposing of pesticides.

May also occur from exposure to large amounts of residue.

Wettable powders, dusts, and granular pesticides are not as readily absorbed into body tissues, as are the **emulsifiable concentrate** liquid formulations which contain a high percentage of the toxicant in a relatively small amount of solvent.

Degree of **dermal** absorption hazard depends on the **dermal toxicity** of the pesticide, the extent of exposure, the pesticide formulation and the part of the body contaminated.

Wash immediately if you become contaminated!

Oral & Respiratory Exposure

Oral exposure: Pesticides may be consumed through carelessness or by individuals who are intent on personal harm.

The most frequent cases of accidental oral exposure are those in which the pesticides have been transferred from their **original containers** to an unlabeled bottle or food container.

Children are especially at risk for oral exposure particularly if pesticides are stored in an unauthorized container.

Respiratory Exposure: Sometimes inhaled in sufficient amounts to cause damage to the nose, throat, and lung tissues.

Hazardous because of the potentially rapid absorption of **vapors** and fine particles.

High risk activities: using concentrating material or low volume equipment and application in confined spaces.

Respirators and **gas masks** can provide **respiratory** protection.

Eye Exposure

Eyes are particularly absorbent. Getting any pesticide in the eye presents an immediate threat of blindness, illness, or even death.

Dilute spray or dust may drift into the eyes.

When applied with power equipment, granular pesticides (pellets) can bounce off vegetation and other surfaces at high velocity and cause damage if an applicator is struck in the eye.

Eye protection (shields or goggles) is always needed when measuring or mixing concentrated and highly toxic pesticide.

Toxicity Testing & Measurement: Visualizing Concentrations

Modern analytical methodologies have made it possible to test for minute amounts of pesticide:

- One part per million (**Ppm**) = about one drop of liquid **pollutant** in about 13 gallons of water.
- One part per billion (**Ppb**) = about one drop of liquid pollutant in about 250 55-gallon drums.
- One part per trillion (**Ppt**) = one drop of a liquid pollutant in 20 Olympic-sized 6-foot-deep swimming pools.

Toxicity Testing in Experimental Animals

Used to establish the toxicity category for pesticide formulations and for the preparation of safety data sheets to provide information on recommendations of things such as **first aid**, necessary protective devices, **antidotes**, and handling procedures for pesticides.

For poisons, there is always a large safety factor included (effects of any particular dose are overestimated) to account for possible differences between the effects observed in the animal subject and potential effects to humans.

The results are submitted to the **EPA** and other agencies as a requirement for registration of a pesticide formulation.

Dose-Effect Relationships & Related Terms

A concentration can be calculated at which some pre-defined effect occurs in half of each group of test subjects.

This is called the effective dose 50 and is written: “ ED_{50} ”.

If death is the effect being measured the expression lethal dose 50 or “ LD_{50} ” is used.

With higher percentages like 80% or 90% of the test subjects are affected, the expressions “ ED_{80} ” and “ ED_{90} ” are used.

No Observable Effect Level (**NOEL**): the highest dose that results in no observable change in 50% of a test population.

Toxic Dose (TD): the dose that will produce signs of toxicity in a certain percentage of **species** of animals.

Lethal Concentration 50 (**LC₅₀**): usually used for toxicity testing for exposures of pesticides in the vapor state, such as fumigants.

Dose-Effect Relationships: Things to Remember

The standard units used to describe dosage in pesticide tests is mg/kg of body weight.

The smaller the number, the more toxic the chemical tested. For example, a chemical with a small LD₅₀ (5mg/kg) is much more dangerous than a chemical with a larger LD₅₀ (20mg/kg).

The expressions TD₅₀, ED₅₀, LD₅₀ etc. are calculated the same way but do not always bear the same relationship to one another.

Toxicity Testing Required For Registration: Risk Assessments

Before a pesticide can be released for sale it must go through a process known as risk assessment. This is the process by which the various toxicity categories are assigned to pesticide formulations. The basic risk assessment consists of four steps:

Hazard identification:

The toxicity of a given product based on acute and chronic toxicity tests performed with experimental animals.

Exposure assessment:

The exposure assessment is based on the proposed use of a pesticide formulation and the probability of exposure to applicators, other workers, children, and the general public.

Dose-response assessment:

These are the tests performed at different dose levels on groups of experimental animals to obtain ED_{50} and LD_{50} numbers.

Risk characterization:

Based on combining the hazard identification and exposure results. This is a simple explanation of a very complex and drawn-out process.

Groups of Vertebrate Toxicity Tests

Candidate pesticides may go through as many as six groups of tests in order to establish toxicity levels. These groups are:

- Acute toxicity (oral, dermal, inhalation, eye, and others)
- Subchronic toxicity
- Chronic Toxicity
- Genetic toxicity
- **Neurotoxicity**
- Special studies (companion animal toxicity, **metabolism**, dermal penetration, and immunotoxicity)

How Pesticides Affect Humans

Symptoms: What a person feels and can express to others.
Example: pain or nausea.

Signs: Things one person can observe in another person, even if that person is unconscious.
Example: redness of skin, swelling, or hot dry skin.

You should learn and be alert to the early stages of poisoning: if any **sign** or **symptom** develops, you should immediately and completely remove the source of exposure.

Early recognition of the signs and symptoms of pesticide poisoning and immediate and complete removal of the source of exposure may save a person's life.

This is especially critical if the person is unconscious, or otherwise unable to communicate clearly.

How Pesticides Affect Humans

Organophosphate Pesticides: These poisons attach themselves to an enzyme in the blood called **cholinesterase**.

Cholinesterase is necessary for proper nerve functioning. When it is unable to perform its normal functions, the body's nerves fail to send messages to the muscles properly, resulting in twitching, tremors, or constant contraction (tetany). In severe cases the victim may suffer convulsions.

Quick and proper medical treatment may reverse the effects of the poisoning and save the life of the person even in a severe poisoning event.

Carbamate Pesticides: The mode of action of carbamates is similar to that of organophosphates, and they also inhibit the enzyme cholinesterase.

Carbamates break down rapidly in the human body. Accordingly, the effect of carbamates on cholinesterase inhibition may be relatively brief. Blood tests may not give an accurate indication of carbamate poisoning.

Signs and Symptoms of Organophosphate/Carbamate Poisoning

MILD POISONING	MODERATE POISONING	SEVERE POISONING
Fatigue	Unable to walk	Unconsciousness
Headache	Weakness	Severe constriction of the eye pupil
Dizziness	Chest Discomfort	Muscle twitching
Blurred Vision	Constriction of the eye pupil	Secretions from the nose and mouth
Excessive sweating and/or salivation	Greater severity of signs of mild poisoning	Difficulty breathing
Nausea & vomiting	(With continued exposure) Coma & Death	Coma & Death

Blood Tests for Operators

California regulations require medical supervision of workers whose duties expose them to pesticides known to have the potential to inhibit blood cholinesterase levels (organophosphates and carbamates).

The enforcement of this program is the responsibility of the CA Department of Pesticide Regulation.

For more information see Section 6728 of the California Code of Regulations.

CHAPTER 5: FIRST AID FOR PESTICIDE POISONING

Chapter 5 Table of Contents

Introduction to first aid

General first aid for pesticide poisoning

Specific first aid instructions

Emergency information

Introduction to First Aid

In vector control, we are fortunate that few restricted use and highly toxic pesticides are still in use. Most modern pesticides are easy to mix, load, and apply safely and have extremely low mammalian toxicity.

The most dangerous pesticides used for vector control are organophosphates used for mosquito control, fumigants used for rodent control, and some aquatic herbicides.

General First Aid For Pesticide Poisoning

What to do if you or someone else has been exposed to a pesticide:

- Stop the **exposure** immediately.
- Give **artificial respiration** if the other person is unconscious. If highly toxic material is in their mouth or **respiratory** path, use chest compressions, not mouth to mouth.
- **Decontaminate** yourself or the person by washing off any skin **residues** of pesticide and remove any contaminated clothing. Speed is absolutely essential in this step.
- Obtain Professional Help
 - Call 911.
 - Call the nearest physician.
 - Call your local or regional poison control center. If you don't know the number or location, call toll-free to 800-222-1222.
 - Call the Chemical Transportation Emergency Center (CHEMTREC) 800-262 8200.

General First Aid For Pesticide Poisoning

What to do if you or someone else has been exposed to a pesticide:

- The **label** and SDS should be consulted for specific **first aid** instructions.
- If you are exposed to a pesticide while working alone, remain calm. Symptoms of pesticide poisoning from vector control products are usually mild and take time to develop.
- If you are working with another person and they get exposed to a pesticide, you must give immediate aid to them, especially in starting breathing, separating them from the pesticide source, and decontaminating their skin.
- If you are working with two people and one gets exposed to a pesticide, one person should perform first aid and the other should seek professional help.
- Due consideration must be given to protecting yourself and other personnel in the vicinity of the incident (especially in a large pesticide spill).

Steps to be Taken After First Aid

First aid should never be considered a substitute for professional medical treatment.

- After professional medical treatment has been sought for the poisoning victim, bring the label and SDS to the doctor or poison control center. Save the container and remaining pesticide should an official request to see it.
- Eliminate the source of the contamination to prevent or reduce the risk that others may be exposed. In the case of a significant pesticide spill, this will have to be done by professionals trained to respond to these type of emergencies.
- Decontaminate any clothing or equipment as needed. Wash contaminated clothing by itself with detergent and water.

Specific First Aid Instructions:

Poison in the Eyes:

- Hold eyelids open; wash eyes immediately with a gentle stream of clean running water (use large amounts of water).
- Delay of only a few seconds can greatly increase the extent of injury.
- Continue washing for 15 minutes or more. Do not use chemicals or drugs in the wash water (they may increase the extent of injury).
- Call or send for help while rinsing the eyes.

Inhaled Poisons:

- If the victim is in an enclosed space, do not attempt a rescue without proper respiratory equipment. Get the victim to fresh air immediately.
- Loosen all tight clothing. Apply artificial respiration if breathing has stopped or is irregular. Call for emergency help and keep the victim calm.
- Prevent chilling (wrap victim in a blanket but don't overheat). If victim is convulsing, watch his or her breathing and protect the patient from falling or striking his or her head on the wall or floor. Keep the victim's chin up so the air passage will remain free for breathing.

Specific First Aid Instructions:

Swallowed Poisons:

- Call for emergency help immediately. If a non-corrosive substance has been swallowed, label directions, SDS or medical personnel from a Poison Control Center may direct you to induce vomiting.
- To induce vomiting: place the blunt end of a spoon (not the handle) or your finger at the back of a patient's throat or use an emetic of two tablespoons of salt in a glass of warm water.
- When retching and vomiting begin, place patient face down with head lowered, thus preventing vomitus from entering the lungs and causing further damage. Do not let patient lie on back.
- Never induce vomiting unless directed by the pesticide label, SDS, or a medical professional to do so.

Swallowed Poisons (continued):

- Do not induce vomiting if: patient is unconscious or experiencing convulsions, has swallowed petroleum products (kerosene, gasoline) or a **corrosive poison**.

Chemical Burns of Skin:

- Remove contaminated clothing.
- Wash with large quantities of running water.
- Immediately cover with loosely applied clean cloth (any kind will do).
- Avoid use of ointments, greases, powders and other drugs.
- Treat **shock** by keeping patient flat, warm, and reassured until the arrival of a doctor.

Emergency Information

If you have employees working with pesticides you are required to post the name, address, and current telephone number of the physician, clinic, or hospital emergency room that will provide care in the event a person should be poisoned.

This information must be clearly posted at all work sites (vehicles, storage facilities, mixing areas, loading areas).

Vector Control agencies should designate an emergency coordinator. This person must know what to do in case of a poisoning, fire, spill or other emergency and should be available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.

It is important to have a well-designed emergency poison incident plan in place before an emergency arises.

The universal emergency number for all pesticide control centers in California is 800-222-1222.

Nationwide Emergency Contact Information

The following should be clearly posted in a prominent place, such as near a telephone in the main district office:

- American Association of Poison Control Centers: 703-894-1858.
- National Pesticide Information Center Hotline: 800-222-1222.
- Chemical Transportation Emergency Center (CHEMTREC): 800-262-8200.
- Regional Poison Control Centers in CA are in Sacramento, Madera, San Diego, and San Francisco (all use emergency telephone number and website address).
- <http://www.calpoison.org>

CHAPTER 6: PROPER HANDLING OF PESTICIDES

Chapter 6 Table of Contents

Introduction

Transporting pesticides

Storing pesticides

Mixing and loading pesticides

Applying pesticides

Equipment cleanup

Disposal methods for pesticide wastes

Disposal of unused/excess pesticides

Personal clean-up

Pesticide spills

Pesticide fires

Adverse pesticide related events



Introduction to the Proper Handling of Pesticides

It is necessary to maintain careful and continuous control over the use and handling of pesticides during the transport, storage, mixing, loading, application and disposal.

If improperly used, these chemicals can poison people, pets, and livestock. They can also damage beneficial insects, birds, fish and other wildlife, harm desirable plants, and contaminate soil and groundwater.

Transporting Pesticides

When you transport pesticides, you are legally responsible for them. To reduce the likelihood of pesticide spills or exposure of workers riding in vehicles transporting pesticides, the following guidelines should be followed:

- Pesticides are most safely transported in the beds of trucks. They should never be in the passenger compartment of any vehicle.
- People should never be allowed to ride in the beds of pick-up trucks carrying pesticides. This applies especially to children as passengers.
- Pesticides should never be transported in the same compartment with food, feed, or clothing.
- All pesticide containers should be secured tightly (especially glass containers).
- Pesticide containers made of paper, cardboard, or similar containers should be protected from moisture during transport.
- Pesticides in parked service vehicles must be made secure from theft, tampering, and contamination.

Storing Pesticides

It is necessary and legally required that pesticides be stored in a safe, secure and well-identified place:

- **Always store pesticides in their original, labeled container with the label clearly visible.**
- **Always store pesticides in tightly sealed containers and check containers periodically for leakage, corrosion breaks, tears, etc.**
- **Always store pesticides where they are protected from freezing or excessive heat.**
- **Always be certain that pesticide storage areas are well-ventilated to prevent the accumulation of toxic fumes.**

Storing Pesticides

It is necessary and legally required that pesticides be stored in a safe, secure and well-identified place:

- Always store different types of pesticides in different areas, to prevent **cross contamination** and the possibility of applying a **product** inadvertently.
- Never store pesticides in old bottles or food containers where they could be mistaken for food or drink for humans or animals.
- Never store pesticides near food, feed, or seed.
- Agencies or programs that store significant amounts of pesticide should have a designated pesticide storage facility.

Requirements for Pesticide Storage

The following requirements are required for pesticide storage:

- Locking doors.
- Adequate lighting.
- Adequate ventilation.
- Fire extinguishers readily available.
- Spill containment design or equipment
- Warning placards if Category I or II pesticides are stored – including emergency contact information.
- Personal protective equipment readily available.
- Wash water and eye wash stations available.
- Presence of label and SDS book for stored materials.

Not Required but Recommended for Pesticide Storage

The following requirements are not required for pesticide storage but are recommended:

- Fire resistant construction.**
- Emergency shower station.**
- Spill containment floor design or drum pallets.**

Mixing and Loading Pesticides

One of the most dangerous jobs related to pesticide-related illness, is the mixing and loading of concentrated chemicals, specifically low-volume and ultra-low volume formulations. A few common-sense rules can make it much safer:

- Before handling a pesticide, READ THE LABEL.
- Based on label recommendations, put on protective clothing and use other necessary protective equipment.
- Mix the pesticides outdoors, in a place where there is good light and ventilation.
- Stand **upwind** of the pesticide to avoid contaminating yourself.
- Use a sharp knife to open paper bags, do not tear them or the label.

Mixing and Loading Pesticides

One of the most dangerous jobs related to pesticide-related illness, is the mixing and loading of concentrated chemicals, specifically low-volume and ultra-low volume formulations. A few common-sense rules can make it much safer:

- Measure accurately, use only the amount you need to apply at the rate specified on the label.
- When removing concentrated material from the container, keep it below your waist when possible to avoid the possibility of splashing or spilling any pesticide in your face and eyes.
- If you splash or spill a pesticide while mixing or loading, stop immediately, remove contaminated clothing and wash thoroughly with detergent and water. Speed is essential in cleaning up the spill.

Applying Pesticides

Careful attention to the following guidelines during pesticide applications will not only protect you, other people, animals, and the surrounding environment, it will also greatly increase your chances of effectively controlling the pest.

- Before you begin the application, **READ THE LABEL**. Don't trust your memory for details concerning the use of any pesticide.
- Check the application equipment. Look for leaking hoses or connections, plugged or worn **nozzles**, and examine the seals on filter openings to make sure they will prevent **spillage** of the chemicals.
- Calibrate your equipment before use. Make certain your equipment is adjusted according to the manufacturer's specifications and meets label requirements for the product being applied. This will assure the proper dosage is being applied to the target site.
- Before all pesticide application starts, clear all livestock, pets, and people from the area to be treated. Although it would be the ideal situation, most ULV labels do not require this.

Applying Pesticides

Careful attention to the following guidelines during pesticide applications will not only protect you, other people, animals, and the surrounding environment, it will also greatly increase your chances of effectively controlling the pest.

- Apply the pesticide at the recommended rate. Do not exceed the maximum application rate specified on the label or the written **recommendation**.
- Apply pesticides only at the correct time and under acceptable weather conditions. Be especially careful when temperatures exceed 85 degrees F or are below 50 degrees F.
- When handling Category I and II toxic pesticides, one should try to not work alone.
- Use extreme care to prevent the pesticide from contaminating unintended target sites, especially bodies of water.
- Avoid situations where the pesticide may **drift** from the application area and contaminate **non-targets**.
- Do not contaminate food or feed through careless application methods.

Equipment Clean-Up

After completing the application of any pesticide, immediately clean the mixing, loading, and application equipment with the following precautions:

- Know the correct procedures for cleaning and decontamination.
- Wear the appropriate personal protective equipment.
- Know and use the specific area set aside for cleaning. This will usually be on a wash rack or concrete apron that has a well-designed sump to contain all contaminated wash water and pesticides for later disposal or in the field where rinse water is considered part of the application.

Disposal Methods For Pesticide Wastes

Waste materials should be considered hazardous to the public, the people handling them, and the environment.

- Deciding how to dispose of pesticide wastes should be done on a case-by-case basis. Materials that meet the legal requirements as hazardous wastes in California must be disposed of according to special rules controlled by the California Department of Toxic Substances Control (DTSC).
- The best way to avoid all waste pesticides is to use them up in legal pesticide applications. Even the rinse water used in cleaning pesticide equipment can be used as a diluent in tank mixes that contain water soluble pesticides.

Pesticide Container Disposal

Always dispose of pesticide containers in a manner specified on the label:

- Pesticide container disposal can be a significant problem, particularly if you have a large number of containers.
- Many pesticide containers can be recycled, either as part of a regular recycling program, if approved on the label or by returning to the chemical supplier.

Correct Triple-Rinse Procedure

Before disposing of any empty pesticide container, it must be triple-rinsed. The correct rinse procedure follows:

- Empty the container into the mixing tank and allow the pesticide to drain for an extra 30 seconds.
- Add the correct amount of water for thorough rinsing as follows:

Size of Container	Amount of Rinse Water
Less than 5 gallons	One-fourth container volume
5 gallons or more	One-fifth container volume

- Replace the container closure; then rotate and shake the container, so that the rinse reaches all interior surfaces.
- Drain the rinse solution from the container into the mixing tank. Allow the container to drain for an extra 30 seconds after emptying.

Correct Triple-Rinse Procedure

Before disposing of any empty pesticide container, it must be triple-rinsed. The correct rinse procedure follows:

- Repeat this rinsing procedure at least two more times for a total of three rinses. Empty each rinse into the mixing tank so the pesticide goes on the target for which it is intended (this procedure also saves money). Never pour pesticides down an ordinary drain or flush them down a toilet!
- When the triple rinse procedure is complete, let the container dry and replace the cover.
- Many containers will be discarded after one use. California regulations concerning pesticide container disposal do not apply to containers in which household pesticides have been packaged. However, these containers (except aerosol cans) should be rinsed carefully and destroyed to prevent their reuse.

Disposal of Unused/Excess Pesticides

How to dispose of unused (still in the **original container**) and excess (already mixed, but not needed) products:

- Easiest solution: only mix as much product as will be needed.
- Apply it according to the label.
- Find another agency with the same pest problem, so that the pesticide gets used up legally and effectively.
- Dispose of the pesticide in an approved location. Contact the California Department of Pesticide Regulation, or the County Agricultural Commissioner for specific information on regulations and pesticide dump sites.

Personal Clean-Up

After completing the pesticide application, dispose of excess material, clean the application equipment, and thoroughly wash your protective equipment.

- Remove work clothes and wash them in an area separate from other laundry items or dispose of them if they are disposable coverall (e.g., Tyvek®).
- Do not allow children to play in or with the contaminated clothing and warn whoever will be washing the clothes of the possible danger.
- Take a shower and wash yourself completely with soap and water, including hair and fingernails.
- Do not put on any article of work clothing until after it has been laundered.

Pesticide Spills

Despite the most careful use and handling of pesticides, accidental spills and fires occasionally occur.

- Intelligent planning, knowledge of the chemicals involved, and calm consideration of the actual hazards to be dealt with during an emergency will reduce the risk and damage resulting from the accident.
- These range in size from small spills of a household pesticide container to huge fires involving entire manufacturing warehouses filled with the most toxic pesticides.
- The highest priorities are to prevent human exposure to the pesticide and to prevent the spread of the spill. When a spill does occur, it should be cleaned up as quickly and safely as possible. Use common sense to determine the danger of a spill: e.g. a spill that occurs in a confined and enclosed area versus an open area.

Pesticide Spills

Despite the most careful use and handling of pesticides, accidental spills and fires occasionally occur.

- In the event of a large spill that cannot be easily contained, contact emergency services personnel, tell them the nature of the chemical and explain what you know about the chemical involved. If it is a Toxicity Category I or II pesticide, their lives may depend on your warning!
- Pesticide spills that cannot easily be cleaned up and decontaminated by vector control program personnel can be reported directly to the local health officer who will in turn contact the County Agricultural Commissioner or the County Health or Environmental Health Department.
- Reporting of pesticide spills is required under Section 105215 of the Health and Safety Code (Appendix 2).
- Since some pesticides qualify as hazardous materials, a variety of local, county and state agencies will become involved in reporting and cleanup, especially if the spill occurs in transit. Peace officers are often the first responders and are required to report pesticide spills under the California Vehicle Code.

General Rules for Pesticide Spill Clean-ups

A few general rules apply to all pesticide spill clean-ups:

- Avoid exposure of people and animals to the pesticide. If you spill a pesticide, immediately see to it that no one is exposed or contaminated by accidentally walking into the spill or breathing the fumes.
- Start by putting on protective clothing to prevent contaminating yourself.
- Provide some sort of a barrier to the spread of liquid pesticide. A barrier can be dirt, sawdust, old newspapers, or anything that will soak up the pesticide.
- Remove the contaminated materials to a safe place. If the spill is inside the home or another building, soak up liquid pesticides or sweep up powders and remove them to the outside. Ventilate the area to prevent the **buildup** of toxic fumes.

General Rules for Pesticide Spill Clean-ups

A few general rules apply to all pesticide spill clean-ups:

- Thoroughly clean the affected surface. Consult the label for specific disposal and decontamination instructions. Take care to prevent the wash from spreading and possibly contaminating a larger area. Make sure any wash does not go into storm drains or sewer systems.
- If the spill cannot be easily cleaned and involves a public area, such as a highway, notify the police, sheriff's office, fire department, the highway patrol, or other local emergency services agencies.
- While waiting for emergency personnel to arrive, do what you can to prevent others from being exposed to the pesticide.

Pesticide Fires

Guidance for small fires:

- If a fire occurs in an area where pesticides are used or stored, and the fire is very small and easily extinguished, you may elect to attack it yourself if you follow certain precautions:
 - Use foam or carbon dioxide from a fire extinguisher in lieu of water if possible.
 - Wear protective safety equipment.
 - Avoid exposure of smoke, mist, spray, **runoff**, and concentrated pesticide chemicals.

Pesticide Fires

Guidance for large fires:

- In the event of any large fire, contact emergency fire services immediately!
- *Maintaining communications with the responding fire department is essential.*
- When large fires involving the presence of pesticides occurs, the fire department responding to the emergency call will seek the aid of specialized agencies which deal with such chemical emergencies.
- Care should be taken to make sure people are not exposed to toxic fumes, poisonous runoff, and concentrated pesticides from leaking or exploding storage containers.
- Keep them updated on what chemicals you are storing, where it is stored, how much is being stored, and supply them with any information such as material safety data sheets they may request concerning the nature of the chemicals.

General Rules for Pesticide Fires

Before the fire department arrives:

- Do not risk your life to fight a large fire, unless you have been trained to do so. It is the job of highly trained professionals. You may inadvertently risk the health and safety of the professionals or others, particularly if you are injured in your attempts.
- Avoid poisoning. Keep yourself and others out of smoke, mist, spray, and pesticide runoff.
- Notify all those in close proximity of the fire and downwind and tell them to evacuate the area.
- Wear personal protective equipment if it can be safely retrieved.

General Rules for Pesticide Fires

After the arrival of the fire department:

Without risking your health or safety, take steps to minimize contamination of areas outside the fire zone by runoff from fire fighting. This can help contain spilled pesticide and thus avoid affecting people, domestic animals, and the environment. It is especially important to avoid runoff of contaminated water into nearby streams or lakes.

Cool nearby pesticide containers, move vehicles and any threatened mobile equipment if it is safe to do so.

Adverse Pesticide Related Events

For vector control agencies, adverse pesticide related events must be reported to the California Department of Public Health and the County Agricultural Commissioner.

Adverse events (conspicuous or suspected) that must be reported include:

- Any human illness associated with a vector control pesticide application.
- Any report of harmful non-target effects of an application to plants, domestic animals, or wildlife.
- Any pesticide spill requiring an emergency services response.

Chapter 7:

Protective Clothing

and other Safety

Devices



Chapter 7: Table of Contents

Introduction to minimum protective clothing

Types of protective clothing

Care of clothing

Types of eye, mouth, and face protection

Protection from inhalation hazards

Checklist for avoiding pesticide exposure

Introduction to Minimum Protective Clothing

Whenever you handle a pesticide, it is important to protect yourself from exposure to the chemical, including your head.

- You should always wear a clean cap or hat, clean coveralls, or a long-sleeved shirt and trousers. The wearing of shorts, sandals, tank tops, and other articles of clothing that result in large areas of exposed skin should never be permitted in a pesticide workplace, even during hot weather.
- Some general guidelines for interpreting pesticide label statements which require protective clothing and equipment are available from the California Department of Food & Agriculture (FAC Section 12980-12988) at:

<https://casetext.com/statute/california-codes/food-and-agricultural-code-fac/division-7-agricultural-chemicals-livestock-remedies-and-commercial-feeds-12500-15340/chapter-2-pesticides-12751-13192/article-105-pesticides-and-worker-safety-12980-12988>

Types OF Protective Clothing

Skin contamination is the leading cause of occupational pesticide-related illness. Therefore, protecting the skin should be given first priority.

Coveralls, aprons, spray suits, gloves, hats, boots, goggles, and face shields are designed to protect pesticide users from getting the pesticide on the skin or into the eyes.

Protective clothing designed to protect the eyes and skin include:

Lightweight Reusable Coveralls:

- Made of chemical-proof material.
- Lightweight and reasonably comfortable in hot weather.
- Offer excellent protection if not damaged.
- Some come with direction for re-use after laundering.
- All coveralls that become severely contaminated should be discarded.

Types OF Protective Clothing

Protective clothing designed to protect the eyes and skin include:

Lightweight Disposable Coveralls:

- Washable fabric may be reused many times.
- Critical that if washable cloth coveralls are worn, they must be laundered before each day's work.
- Adequate for working with dry pesticides (granular formulations or bait blocks) and some liquid pesticides used in vector control.
- If coveralls become wet or even damp with pesticide, they will act as a continuous source of contamination.
- Remove the cloth coveralls if liquid pesticide is spilled onto it, and shower if the pesticide has significant dermal toxicity.

Types OF Protective Clothing

Protective clothing designed to protect the eyes and skin include:

Aprons:

- When pouring or otherwise handling Category I or II liquid pesticides, you should wear additional protection in the form of a rubber apron or chemical-proof disposable (Tyvek) coveralls that cover your body from chest to your boots.
- Be certain the apron will resist the solvents used in formulating the pesticide.
- Check the label for any specific requirements.

Spray suits:

- May be required for the handling, mixing and application of Category I or II pesticides.
- Made of liquid-proof and tear-resistant materials.
- Tend to be uncomfortable in hot weather, and overheating can be an occupational hazard. The worker should avoid doing work in a spray suit except when the weather is cool.

Types OF Protective Clothing

Protective clothing designed to protect the eyes and skin include:

Gloves:

- When working with liquid pesticides, protect your hands by wearing liquid-proof gloves with no rips or tears. Cloth, leather, or other materials can lead to chronic exposure.
- Gloves of natural rubber will provide protection from organophosphates and carbamates. Unlined flexible plastic gloves are considered best for all other pesticides so long as they are designed for use with solvents and pesticides.
- Leather gloves may provide satisfactory protection when working with dry pesticides that have no dermal toxicity. But should be avoided in almost all other situations .
- When using your gloves, wear your sleeves so that they prevent spills and splashes from running into your glove and onto your hand.

Glove Category Selection Key

Product labels will list glove type required for use. Many labels will list glove selection category (A-H). The categories are based on the solvents used in the pesticides, NOT the pesticides themselves. Different formulations of the same product may require different gloves.

Gloves must be 14 mils or greater (except for those made of laminate and polyethylene materials).

dpr Glove Category Selection Key

Label Code	Materials Required by Law	Material Code
A	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8	1: Lamine
B	1,2	2: Butyl
C	1,2,3,4,7,8	3: Nitrile
D	1,2	4: Neoprene
E	1,3,4,8	5: Natural
F	1,2,3,8	6: Polyethylene
G	1,8	7: PVC
H	1,8	8: Viton

All but Laminate and Polyethylene must be 14 mils or thicker

Types OF Protective Clothing

Protective clothing designed to protect the eyes and skin include:

Hats:

- Pesticide workers applying liquid products that may have **dermal toxicity** should use a liquid-proof hat preferably made of washable plastic.
- May be hard or flexible plastic but should have a plastic sweatband and be washed thoroughly after each use.
- Cloth, straw, or felt hats are not recommended.

Boots:

- When mixing or loading Category I or II pesticides wear knee-length pull-on rubber boots without buckles or laces (this makes them easier to clean).
- Trouser legs should be worn outside of your boots to avoid spills and splashes running into the boot and onto your leg. Wash the boots thoroughly inside and out after each use.

Care of Clothing

Wear clean clothing daily.

If your clothes become contaminated with pesticide, shower and change them immediately – if they are highly contaminated dispose of them in a safe manner.

Do not store contaminated clothing and wash them separately from family laundry.

If you are manager of a program, make sure personnel are provided appropriate protective clothing as required by state and federal regulations.

Types of Eye, Mouth, and Face Protection

The mouth and eyes are high risk areas for pesticide exposure, and appropriate personal protective equipment is essential when mixing, loading, or applying many Category I and II pesticides.

Goggles:

Especially important to protect the eyes with chemical goggles when handling **dusts, wettable powders, or granules**.

Manufactured so they fit over ordinary eyeglasses (prescription eyeglasses also available for those who use goggles frequently).

Must be washed with soap and water after each use.

Check the label for specific eye protection requirements or recommendations.

Types of Eye, Mouth, and Face Protection

The mouth and eyes are high risk areas for pesticide exposure, and appropriate personal protective equipment is essential when mixing, loading, or applying many Category I and II pesticides.

Face Shields:

May be advisable or required by the label for some herbicides used for vector control – particularly when loading or mixing liquid concentrates.

Are made of clear plastic, attached to a hard hat, and can be raised or lowered as needed.

Must be washed with soap and water after each use.

Protection From Inhalation Hazards

Devices designed to protect the respiratory (breathing) system are called respirators and they must be worn when working with pesticides that may be harmful when inhaled.

You must wear a respirator if the pesticide label requires one. You may need to wear a respirator if the pesticide label says “Avoid breathing vapor or mist”. Your supervisor must give you a respirator when it is needed. You must wear it.”

- Pesticide Safety Information, HS-1746, California Department of Pesticide Regulation

Protection From Inhalation Hazards

Some pesticides can represent significant hazards of exposure through inhalation or respiration. Some materials can cause damage to the nose, mouth, throat, or lungs. These hazards can be eliminated almost completely by use of various devices designed to protect workers against these kinds of agents.

Any device worn to protect a worker from pesticide inhalation hazards must have federal approval for use with pesticides.

Respirators:

Full-face respirators: protect from pesticides that can irritate eyes and lungs.

Positive Pressure Respirators

Positive pressure respirators:

- Devices that have a pump system to force purified air into the mask.
- Designed to supply full-face protection: cover the eyes, nose and mouth. Good for users with beards and bushy mustaches.
- Incorporate a battery powered air pump worn on the belt, feeding filtered air into the head piece in a constant flow.
- Often used by individuals involved in vector-borne disease surveillance operations, such as plague or hantavirus investigations.

Negative Pressure Respirators

Negative pressure respirators:

- Filter air as it is sucked through a filtering media contained in a **cartridge or canister**.
- These require a tight seal of the mask around the nose and mouth.
- All negative pressure respirators must be fit-tested to ensure the mask is properly sealed. A proper fit can be obtained by adjusting headbands or switching to another size or respirator type.
- The filtering material in the cartridges and canisters are designed to protect against vapors of specific chemicals.

Respirator Proper Fit

Respirators come in different sizes, and it is essential that workers know how to test for a proper fit.

This testing should take place in an area where there is no chance of pesticide exposure.

Any respirator used to protect workers from pesticide vapors must be labeled as approved by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH).

Clearance to Using Respirators

High blood pressure, heart disease, lung disease, or a perforated eardrum may interfere with effective use of a respirator.

A physician can certify if certain workers should not use a respirator and thus should not work around pesticide vapors.

Medical clearance is required prior to using most if not all respirators.

Beards, bushy mustaches, or long sideburns may interfere with proper fitting of respirators. In these cases, there are special respirators that can still provide a tight seal.

SCBA Protection

Some **fumigant** labels require you to wear a self-contained breathing apparatus (SCBA).

With this type of device all air for breathing is contained in a tank of some kind, and no outside air enters the respiratory system.

This type of protection will rarely, if ever, be required with public health pesticides.

Chemical Cartridge Respirators

Most respirators of this type are half-face masks with respirators that cover the nose and mouth, but do not protect the eyes. Should be fit tested prior to use.

They have one or two cartridges that screw into the face piece and can be easily removed for replacement. These types are usually equipped with one-way valves that allow the inhaled air to pass through the cartridges and out via a separate exhalation valve.

Designed for use where high concentrations of pesticides are unlikely (used when mixing or loading pesticides outdoors with adequate ventilation).

Filter Cartridges Should be Replaced When

Directions on the pesticide label say so.

The respirator maker says so.

You first smell or taste a pesticide, or experience irritation.

At the end of each day's use.

Follow the rule that replaces the filter cartridge according to the manufacturer.

Use & Cleaning of Personal Respiratory Devices

Change respirator filter cartridges as previously mentioned. Replace the used cartridges and filter pads with new ones.

Clean respirators after each use. Remove and discard used filter pads, and cartridges as needed and wash face pieces with soap and warm water. Dry with clean cloth and leave in a well-ventilated shady area. Store the respirator and its replaced parts in a dark, clean, and dry place (preferably in a tightly closed paper or plastic bag).

When respirators are broken or otherwise inoperable, they must be fixed prior to use or your supervisor must supply new ones.

Remember: respirators only protect pesticide workers from breathing chemicals. When pesticides are used, protection of the skin is also important.

Checklist For Avoiding Pesticide Exposure

For avoiding DERMAL exposure:

- Check the label for special instructions or warnings regarding dermal exposure.
- Use recommended protective clothing and other equipment as listed on the label.

For avoiding RESPIRATORY exposure:

- Read the label to find out if respiratory protection is required.
- If respiratory protection is required, use only an approved respiratory device.
- Avoid working for extended periods in areas where volatile pesticides are used or stored.

Checklist For Avoiding Pesticide Exposure

For avoiding ORAL exposure:

- Check the label for special instructions or warnings regarding oral exposure.
- Never eat, drink, or smoke while working with any pesticide.
- Wash thoroughly with soap and water before eating, drinking or smoking.
- Do not touch your lips to contaminated objects (such as nozzles).
- Do not wipe your mouth with contaminated hands or clothing.
- Do not expose food, beverages, drinking vessels, or cigarettes to pesticides.
- Wear a **face shield** when handling concentrated pesticides.

Chapter 8:

Equipment and

Calibration

Chapter 8 Table of Contents

Introduction

Pesticide application equipment

Sprayer components

Sprayer maintenance

Calibration of pesticide equipment

Introduction to Equipment & Calibration

Some pesticides used in vector control are available in granular forms and can be applied by simple equipment such as fertilizer spreaders. Others require specialized equipment for application.

Some pesticides come in concentrated forms and must be diluted to produce a tank mix.

Mosquito adulticides are applied as fogs and require ULV equipment.

The labels of pesticides used in applications carry specific restrictions on application rates and/or droplet size.

It is critical that equipment be maintained in good working order and that the equipment be calibrated frequently to make sure applications conform to label requirements.

Introduction to Equipment & Calibration

The first question that needs to be asked when choosing the type of pesticide application equipment is whether a liquid or a solid (dust or pellets) pesticide formulation will be used.

For liquid formulations, the basic choice will hinge upon the spray techniques used. Spray techniques, in turn, are classified on the basis of the spray volume used.

Three basic types of liquid spray techniques are:

- High Volume (40 gallons per acre or more).
- Low Volume (0.5-40 gallons per acre).
- Ultra-Low Volume (0.5 gallons per acre or less).

Then, consider the location and size of the area to be treated and the pest to be controlled. There are two basic types of equipment used to apply public health pesticides: powered and unpowered.

Pesticide Application Equipment: Unpowered Equipment

Small, unpowered equipment is generally inexpensive, simple to use, and easy to clean and store.

Small areas (less than an acre) can be treated by a single person in a relatively short period of time.

However, the **calibration** of small unpowered devices can be difficult, and larger capacity liquid tank sprayers may be difficult for physically smaller technicians to handle.

Generally suitable for relatively small pesticide applications such as **spot treatments** of aquatic sites where mosquito **larvae** are present.

Typical unpowered equipment for liquid pesticides includes some backpack and tank sprayers.

Pesticide Application Equipment: Unpowered Equipment

Unpowered Backpack Sprayers (Compression Sprayers):

- Come in sizes ranging from about 1-5 gallons.
- Sometimes have to have a continuously operated pump lever to maintain pressure in the pesticide tank. Others are pumped up by hand until pressure reaches a certain point.
- Can be sprayed until the pressure drops below the level where the sprayer works effectively (then it must be re-pressurized).
- Non backpack sprayers are often referred to as “hand can” or by their capacity “3-gallon sprayer”.

Other examples of unpowered equipment:

- Pesticides in solid form (granules, slow-release briquettes, powders, etc.) can be applied by hand, with small crank operated spreaders, dust cans, or similar devices.

Powered Equipment

Powered equipment is essential for large-scale pesticide applications. Ordinarily is mounted permanently in terrestrial or aquatic vehicles or is attached to fixed or rotary-wing aircraft.

All power equipment works by pumping or blowing product from a storage tank through a distribution line or hose to various types of control mechanisms.

The control mechanisms may be mounted on various devices such as guns, **booms, or cylinders that can be aimed.**

For liquid products, the pesticide is applied through nozzles which control the shape of the spray pattern, the rate of flow of the spray, and the size of individual spray droplets.

Nozzles are available in many sizes and configurations – solid pesticides are spread using hoppers or air streams to propel the particles.

Not all powered equipment is large – some backpack sprayers may use small 2 cycle engines as a power source, and some of these miniature units have been used for ULV applications.

Foggers and Aerosol Generators

Work by breaking pesticide formulations into very small droplets.

Output may be visible as a cloud or a fog. This cloud is produced in one of two ways:

- In **thermal fogging**, the fog is produced by some type of heating element called a thermal generator, and pesticide is carried on heated oil droplets.
- In cold fogging droplets are produced by atomizing nozzles, spinning disks, or high pressure (this is much less visible).

Large truck-mounted foggers have been used almost exclusively for control of flying insects such as mosquitoes and gnats.

Small portable **foggers** have been used for control of roaches and stored product insects in warehouses and similar structures.

Low Pressure Tank & Boom Sprayers

Relatively inexpensive, light in weight, and have enough capacity to cover large areas.

Low pressure sprayers deliver a low volume (0.5-40 gallons per acre) of dilute spray through nozzles with 30-60 pounds per square inch (**psi**) pressure.

They are designed to apply either undiluted or mixed product from a supply tank, through a single hose or a series of hoses through one or more nozzles.

For vector control, this type of sprayer is usually mounted to an all-terrain vehicle (ATV), an amphibious vehicle, or a low-speed aircraft to treat pastures.

The purpose of the booms is to achieve wider and more even coverage for each pass of the vehicle carrying the sprayer.

Low Pressure Tank & Boom Sprayers

Larval mosquito control products such as the liquid formulations of **microbial insecticides**, **Bti** and **Bs**, larvicing **oils**, and some herbicides are most commonly applied using this type equipment.

For most of these products, adequate agitation is not a significant problem. For **wettable powder** formulations a **mechanical agitator** may be required.

Low pressure tank and boom sprayers come in a variety of sizes from small units with 10 or 15 gallon tanks mounted on ATVs to large units with water capacities of 1,000 gallons or more mounted on large flatbed trucks with a series of nozzles designed for roadside weed spraying.

Disadvantages of Low Pressure Tank & Boom Sprayers

They are not useful when high volume is required because their rate of application is low.

They cannot penetrate dense **foliage** because they operate at low pressure.

They produce visible fogs, which some people find objectionable.

Single-Nozzle Hand-Gun Sprayers

Used more frequently than boom sprayers for larvicides, because specific distribution is more important.

Larval mosquito control products such as the liquid formulations of microbial insecticides, Bti and Bs, Coco Bear oil and some herbicides are most commonly applied using this equipment.

For most of these products, adequate agitation is not a significant problem. For wettable powder formulations a mechanical **agitator** may be required.

High Pressure Sprayers (Hydraulic Sprayers)

Advantages:

- Designed to apply large volumes (40 gallons per acre or more) of liquid at high pressure.
- More versatile than low pressure units, high pressure sprayers can deliver large volumes high enough to penetrate dense foliage or reach the tops of tall trees.
- Usually well built, have mechanical agitation, and are designed to resist wear.

Disadvantages:

They are expensive, heavy, and require large amounts of water and fuel.

Because the spray is produced at high pressures, there is a tendency for it to form small droplets subject to drift.

Thus, high pressure sprayers are rarely used in vector control operations.

Air Blast Sprayers

Advantages:

- Air blast sprayers are rarely used for vector control but may occasionally used for fly control.
- Use a high speed, fan-driven air stream to disperse the spray.
- A series of nozzles inject the spray into the air stream which breaks up the droplets and blows them onto the target. They can either deliver high or low volumes of spray.
- Give good coverage and penetration, use low pump pressures and have mechanical agitation.
- They can be operated at low volumes and therefore require small amounts of water.

Disadvantages:

- May produce small droplets that may create a drift hazard.
- Because of this, they must be used under calm weather conditions.
- Typically, these are relatively large, heavy machines that are not appropriate for use in small areas.

Low Volume Air Sprayers (Mist Blowers)

Mist blowers are a type of low volume sprayer used to control both larval and adult populations of mosquitoes.

Characterized by relatively low fluid pressures, with flow rates of several ounces per minute.

Dispersal is done using high air velocity – typically the product is run through hoses to a metering device which may or may not be connected to a conventional nozzle.

Some are mounted on trucks and dispense mists of pesticide through nozzles mounted within large open cylinders.

Advantages of Low Volume Air Sprayers (Mist Blowers)

Backpack-type power mist blowers allow rapid and efficient treatment of up to several acres by individual vector control technicians

Need a lower volume of water.

Particularly useful in mosquito control for treating dairy lagoons, roadside sources, and for applying a residual adult control product to individual properties.

Large Mist Blowers

Large units can be mounted on pickup trucks or small trailers. However, they are unusable in areas without roads.

Although best suited for liquid applications, some manufacturers equip them with hoppers for dusts and pellets or granules.

Many require two people for operation – one to operate the sprayer while the other drives the vehicle.

Ultra Low Volume Sprayers (ULV) ("Cold Fogging")

Designed to apply extremely low volumes of highly concentrated pesticides in the form of very small (5-30 micron) droplets into the air. A micron is equal to 1/25,000 of an inch.

Used primarily against adult mosquitoes and require the use of insecticides formulated for this purpose.

These formulations are either sprayed as ready to use or diluted with light oils.

Most ULV sprayers utilize a small electric pump that can be very finely adjusted to vary droplet size and flow rate.

Many commercial ULV formulations are available for adult mosquito control.

A typical formulation contains a small concentration of pyrethrin (5-10%) combined with a synergist such as PBO (the remainder an oil of some kind).

Ultra Low Volume Sprayers (ULV) ("Cold Fogging")

With the exception of malathion, ULV products have a low percentage of active ingredient.

ULV sprayers may be mounted in trucks, amphibious vehicles, or in aircraft.

They are currently the most widely used type of sprayer for adult mosquito control.

Sensible alternative to the old-fashioned thermal fogging machines.

Combination of extremely low volumes (often less than one ounce of total liquid volume per acre) and pesticides having very low toxicity for humans and other vertebrates makes them very safe for humans and other non-target organisms.

ULV Spraying and Weather Conditions

Effective ULV Spraying Requires Careful Attention to Weather Conditions

Very small droplets of concentrated pesticide tend to drift out of the target zone at high wind speeds. (The higher the wind speeds, the lower the effective **swath.)**

ULV applications are generally not effective for mosquito control at winds over 10 **MPH.**

Temperature can affect evaporation of the pesticide.

Because of the effect of weather variation on ULV applications, calibration should be checked frequently for flow rate and droplet size. Many new labels require an annual calibration certification. Consult pesticide label for specific meteorological limitations.

Temperature Inversions

Occur when temperatures at ground level are lower than temperatures at higher altitudes (reverse of the normal temperature situation near the surface of the earth).

During inversions, cold air is trapped by the warm air above it and there is little vertical mixing of air.

The small droplets produced by ULV sprayers remain suspended in the cool air within several feet of ground level.

Desirable for ULV mosquito control applications because at the time of spraying female mosquitoes are **host** seeking (looking for a blood meal) near ground level, and the risk of damage to non-target organisms is low. Without lateral air movement or a temperature inversion the vertical air currents will carry the small droplets above the level at which they effectively kill mosquitoes.

However, for some agricultural applications and applications of herbicides, spraying under these conditions is undesirable because the spray droplets may remain suspended in the cooler air at ground level and damage non-target organisms.

Solid Pesticide Applicators: Dusters

Come in a variety of configurations, both powered and unpowered.

Some equipment used for application of liquid pesticides can be used for solid materials with the installation of accessory hoppers and other devices.

Solid Pesticide Applicators: Granular Pesticide Spreaders

Eliminate the necessity of mixing the formulation with a solvent.

Designed to apply coarse, dry uniform size particles to soil or water.

Two major types: granular blowers (backpack or truck mounted) and seed or fertilizer spreaders mounted on some piece of equipment.

Advantages:

- Power granular applicators allow vector control technicians to treat habitats where liquid products might not be effective and allow a single technician to treat many acres in a day.
- Power backpack granular blowers are particularly effective in treating areas that are difficult to reach.
- Equipment is relatively inexpensive, and there is little drift hazard. Other equipment like seeders can often be modified to spread granules.
- Granules are less hazardous to the applicator.

Solid Pesticide Applicators: Granular Pesticide Spreaders

Disadvantages:

- It may be difficult to calibrate power granular applicators because of the difficulty in maintaining constant travel speed while walking or driving.
- For units mounted on terrestrial vehicles or on backpacks, the equipment must be re-calibrated for each different product or formulation.

Sprayer Components: Tanks

Typically made of **impermeable** plastic or stainless steel.

Most have a single tank that holds mixed pesticide ready to be applied. Some larger truck-mounted sprayers have separate tanks for product and clean water with a smaller mixed (injection) tank of mixed product.

Some may contain an agitation device, especially those designed to work with insoluble pesticide formulations such as wettable powders.

Pesticide Tank Recommendations:

- Should be designed for easy filling and cleaning.
- Opening of the tank should be fitted with a cover that can be secured enough to prevent spills or splashes.
- Drain should open through the bottom of the tank so that the tank can be emptied completely.

Sprayer Components: Tanks

Pesticide Tank Requirements:

- Must have a label including the EPA registration number of the pesticide, the owner of the equipment and any applicable precautionary statements.
- Must have a lockable filler cap.
- Must have an easy-to-read accurate sight gauge or other external means of determining the internal level.
- Must be fitted with a device that maintains an air gap to prevent back flow from the tank into the water supply (as an alternative, the fill hose can be equipped with an automatic back pressure shut-off device).

Sprayer Components: Agitators

Very few products used for vector control require continuous agitation inside a spray tank.

In-tank agitation may be accomplished by hydraulic or mechanical means.

Hydraulic agitation is achieved by pumping some of the solution back through the tank.

Mechanical systems achieve agitation through the use of some sort of paddle or propeller mounted on a shaft in the spray tank.

Sprayer Components: Pumps

Most equipment used by vector control agencies are purchased as a unit, with a pump already installed.

Choosing the correct pump requires matching it to the spray equipment to be used.

To do this, due consideration must be given to capacity, pressure, and resistance to corrosion and wear.

Electric pumps have replaced gasoline engine-driven ones in all new ULV mosquito control equipment because they are capable of the fine control over pressure and flow rate needed to meet label requirements for application rates.

Sprayer Components: Nozzles

Critical element in the application of liquid pesticides because it determines spray characteristics.

Nozzles affect the application rate, discharge shape (fine mist, cone, fan etc.), droplet size, uniformity, pressure, and carry distance of the pesticide stream used for pesticide applications.

On aircraft, the position of the nozzle may affect the product output and the differential airflow may affect the uniformity of applications.

For any given pesticide application and spraying system, consider the nozzle type, size, and condition before selecting.

To achieve maximum effectiveness, consider nozzle orientation, nozzle spacing on the boom, and boom/nozzle elevation above the ground.

For nozzles to perform efficiently, they must be cleaned, repaired, and adjusted frequently. Damaged nozzles should be replaced with new ones promptly.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Flat Fan

Flat Fan:

Nozzle used primarily on boom sprayers, which produces a nearly flat fan of spray in several selected angles and deposits an oval pattern on the ground.

Less material is deposited at the outer edges, which requires the fan patterns to be overlapped to produce **uniform coverage** (depends upon proper spacing of the nozzles on the boom).

When used from trucks or tractors, distance above the ground also influences uniformity of application.

These nozzles are used for broadcast or boom spraying in **weed control** work.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Even Flat Fan & Cone

Even Flat Fan:

- Also used primarily on boom sprayers.
- Fills the outer portions of the spray pattern to produce even coverage across the entire width of the pattern.
- Not designed for overlapping use on a boom.
- Efficient for coverage of a given strip through the field as over a crop row.
- Generally best for band spraying of herbicides in row crop work.

Cone:

- Found commonly on unpowered backpack sprayers, unpowered tank sprayers, and boom sprayers.
- Spray is produced as either solid or hollow cone patterns.
- Cone angle contributes to better coverage of foliage and is one of the most popular nozzles for insect and disease control work.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Hollow Cone & Solid Cone

Hollow Cone:

- Used primarily on unpowered backpack sprayers.
- Designed for moderate to high pressures and are used where thorough coverage of crop foliage and uniform distribution is desired.
- Little or no spray in the center of the pattern.

Solid Cone:

- Spray is well distributed throughout the pattern and is used for hand spraying, spot spraying and moderate pressure **foliar** applications.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Flooding or Impact & Offset

Flooding or Impact:

- Rarely seen in vector control use except for weed control applications.
- Have agricultural uses on farms and in home gardens, where they are used to spray liquid fertilizer solutions.
- Normally operate at low pressures with large droplets and can cover a wide area, so it may be unnecessary to use a boom.
- This is an advantage on rough terrain or where many obstacles would hinder boom operation.

Offset:

- Lack uniformity of the flat fan.
- Can provide reasonable uniform coverage over wide areas for roadside and ditch bank weed control.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Atomizing & Broadcast

Atomizing:

- The nozzles most frequently used in all types of ULV applications, both in ground and aerial spray operations.
- Produce a fine mist from liquid pesticides.
- In comparison to compression sprayer nozzles, atomization nozzles can be very complex (variety of different equipment).
- In some, the atomization is accomplished by rotation of the nozzle by electric motors, others use wind-driven fans to produce rotation in the nozzle mechanisms.

Broadcast:

- Used primarily from vehicles treating roadsides or rights of ways with herbicides.
- Can be used either on boom-less or boom-type sprayers.
- With boom-type sprayers a boom is used to extend the effective swath – the spray itself is in a wide flat fan pattern.

Types of Sprayer Nozzles: Solid Stream & Adjustable

Solid Stream:

- In vector control, most often seen with handguns, hand can sprayers, and non-powered backpack sprayers when it is necessary to treat sites located at some distance from the operator.
- For larval mosquito control operations, best distribution of product is obtained by spraying upward and allowing the droplets to fall down onto the area.
- When compared to cone nozzles this application method allows much more rapid and efficient treatment of larger areas.

Adjustable:

- Used frequently for vector control applications. Allows varying the spray pattern from a pinpoint stream to a cone.
- Also used in small home garden sprayers.
- Particularly useful when treating variable terrain. Example: the pinpoint stream nozzle may be used for a mosquito larval control application to target open areas in tulles or cattails in a pond, with the cone being used to treat flooded hoof prints along the edge.

Nozzle Construction & Use

Nozzles are subject to wear. They must be replaced before excessive wear occurs or they will fail to deliver the accurate amount and pattern of spray.

Rate at which a nozzle wears depends on:

- The formulation of the material sprayed.
- The nozzle design.
- The material used to construct the nozzle.

Characteristics of Nozzle Materials

Brass: Inexpensive, but wears quickly from abrasion. Good for limited use.

Stainless Steel: Corrosion and abrasion resistant and relatively expensive.

Plastic: Very inexpensive. Resists corrosion, but swells when exposed to some solvents. Not recommended for high pressure spray applications.

Tungsten carbide and ceramic: Expensive, but provides long service. Highly resistant to abrasion and corrosion. Recommended for high pressure applications.

Nozzle Selection, Use, & Maintenance

Select nozzles that will provide the desired droplet size, volume of flow, and spray pattern.

After installation of new or repaired nozzles, properly calibrate the spray system to ensure proper application rates.

Avoid spraying tank mixes of pesticides containing hard particulate matter such as sand or metal particles. This greatly accelerates nozzle wear, (even the expensive ones).

Always operate nozzles at the recommended pressure.

Mount the nozzles securely so their location, relative to the target, is maintained constantly and properly.

Maintain nozzles in peak condition by periodic inspections, adjustments, and cleaning.

Never use a pocketknife or other metal object to clean a nozzle. It will damage the precision-finished nozzle edges and ruin performance. Remove nozzle tip and back-flush it with air or water. Or clean it with a round wooden toothpick.

Don't blow through a nozzle by mouth especially if it has been used for pesticide application.

Sprayer Maintenance

Most troubles with sprayers are caused by foreign matter clogging or wearing out screens, pumps or nozzles. Pump deterioration is brought about by ordinary use but is accelerated by misuse.

The following suggestions will help prolong the useful life of pumps and sprayers:

#1: Always use clean water.

- A small amount of silt or sand can rapidly wear pumps and other parts of the sprayer system.
- Use water that looks clean enough to drink (from a well is best.)
- Water pumped directly from ponds or stock tanks should be filtered before filling the tank.
- To avoid contamination of water supplies, regulations require all application equipment to be equipped with an air-gap separation or back-flow prevention device.

Sprayer Maintenance

The following suggestions will help prolong the useful life of pumps and sprayers:

#2: Keep Screens in Place.

- The nozzle screen should be fine enough to filter particles which will plug the tip orifice.
- A sprayer system usually has screens in three places: a coarse screen on the suction hose, a medium screen between the pump and the boom or hose, and a fine screen in the nozzle.

#3: Only Use Designated Chemicals.

- Only use chemicals the sprayer and pump were designed to use.
- For example, liquid fertilizers are corrosive to copper, bronze, ordinary steel and galvanized surfaces. If the pump is made from one of these materials, it may be ruined by a single application of the liquid fertilizer.

#4: Never Clean Nozzles with Metal.

- To clean nozzles, put on rubber gloves and then remove the tips and screens and clean them in water or a detergent solution using a soft brush.
- The orifice in a nozzle tip is a precision-machined opening, cleaning with a pin, knife, or other metallic object can adversely change the spray pattern and capacity.
- Use a round wooden toothpick if no brush is available.

Sprayer Maintenance

The following suggestions will help prolong the useful life of pumps and sprayers:

#5: Flush Sprayers Before Use.

- New sprayers may contain metallic chips and dirt from the manufacturing process.
- Sprayers which have been idle for a while may contain bits of rust and dirt.
- Put on rubber gloves and then remove the nozzles and flush the sprayer with clean water.
- Clean all screens and nozzles thoroughly before using the sprayer.

#6: Clean Sprayer Thoroughly After Use

- After use, flush the sprayer with water or flushing solution to clear lines and nozzles to prevent corrosion and material drying in the system.
- Be sure to wear appropriate protective equipment and that discharged cleaning water will not contaminate water supplies, streams, crops, plants or where puddles may be accessible to children or animals.
- Best way to use cleaning water is as a diluent in a sprayer tank for application of the same pesticide used in the sprayer before cleaning.

Calibration of Pesticide Equipment

What is Calibration?

Calibration is the preparation of pesticide application equipment to ensure that a pesticide is being applied appropriately, in the desired area, and with the correct amount of active ingredient. *Calibration of pesticide spray equipment is a legal requirement.*

The only accurate way to determine that the rate of application is consistent with the label requirements.

Calibration in combination with careful preparation of tank mix and proper operation of equipment during actual applications is key to effective and legal treatment.

It is a violation of state and federal regulations to apply a pesticide in any manner other than as specified on the label.

Calibration of equipment is important to the success or failure of a pesticide treatment.

Calibration of Pesticide Equipment

It is a waste of time and money to apply any pesticide in an inefficient or ineffective manner.

Although power sprayers may produce consistent results when new, components of the system will affect application rates.

No two pieces of equipment will behave in the same way.

Studies have shown that three factors stand out in pesticide applications that do not conform to label requirements: inaccurate preparation of tank mixes, worn spray nozzles, and improper calibration of spray equipment.

Some pesticide labels contain tables of values for calibrating spray equipment at various dilutions, application rates, and equipment speeds. If this is the case, calibration becomes much easier and usually involves only checking the flow rates for individual nozzles.

Information Needed for Calibration

The legal application rate as specified on the pesticide label.

Amount of liquid applied by the sprayer per unit of area at a given speed and pump pressure.

The amount of active ingredient contained per unit of liquid in the spray tank.

The capacity of the spray tank.

Assumptions for Calibration

The nozzles are in good repair, are of the proper type, and are made of the proper material.

Nozzle pressure, pattern, and flow rate will remain constant during calibration.

Speed of movement of sprayer (whether vehicle mounted or carried by technician) will be constant during calibration.

General Procedures for Calibration

How to determine sprayer output and nozzle output:

1. Read the pesticide label and record the allowable and recommended pesticide application rate.
2. Use water or appropriate diluent for pesticide to be applied for calibration.
3. Adjust nozzles to desired patterns and record nozzle pressures when operating.
4. Adjust speed of vehicle and record either MPH or engine RPM and transmission gear used.
5. Fill the spray tank with water.
6. Make trial runs spraying water at speed and pressure selected over one acre, or some fraction of an acre. When done, determine amount of water sprayed and calculate sprayer output in gallons per acre.
7. While still operating the sprayer at a selected pressure, catch and measure output for each nozzle for 1 minute, then calculate an average nozzle output in gallons per minute.

General Procedures for Calibration

How to determine sprayer output and nozzle output:

8. Count the number of nozzles to be used and measure the distance in inches between the nozzles on the boom.
9. From the sprayer output in gallons per acre, the average speed of the trial run in MPH, and the nozzle spacing in inches, calculate a value for gallons per minute per nozzle based on the following formula:

Gallons per minute per nozzle = gallons per acre x MPH x nozzle spacing/5,940

10. Check the value you get from the calculation against the flow rate you determined from catching and measuring the output from the nozzles. If the two values are far apart (more than 10%), re-check your calculations.
11. You can also perform this calibration in reverse by using the formula:

Gallons per acre = $(5,940 \times \text{gallons per minute per nozzle}) / (\text{MPH} \times \text{nozzle spacing})$

Calculation of the Tank Mix

To determine the amount of pesticide formulation needed to add to the tank you will need to know:

The application rate called for on the pesticide formulation label. Typically, this will be stated as pounds per acre.

The percentage of active ingredient in the commercial formulation.

The capacity of the spray unit tank.

The output of liquid (water) of the sprayer from the results of calibration.

The amount of tank mix desired, if less than a full tank of pesticide.

Reconciling Application Rate Units

An important consideration in determining the amount of pesticide formulation needed for a full or partial tank of tank mix is reconciling the units used for the application rate of active ingredient (ai) specified on the label (usually by weight of ai) with the units used for sprayer output (usually liquid volume).

For formulations mixed with water, this formulation can be used:

(Gallons of spray wanted) x (percent of active ingredient wanted) x 8.3 / % active ingredient in insecticide formulation

This formula is different from oils, which have lower specific gravities.

Applications of Solid Pesticides

The principles of calibration are the same for applications of pellets, powders, and dusts, but the equipment will be different from that used for liquids.

Instead of water, calibration can be with blank (inert) granules or other solids. This type of calibration will be on the basis of weight, so you can place a given weight of solid material in the hopper and measure the amount of material discharged on the basis of weight per unit of time and weight per unit of area.

Applications From Powered Knapsack Sprayers

Calibration will be like the general example given, except that movement speed will be more difficult to control, the areas sprayed will be smaller, and a single nozzle will almost always be used.

Calibration values will apply only for the nozzle used and the walking pace of application.

Determination of amount of pesticide needed will need to be done before and will depend on the percentage of active ingredient in the commercial formulation and the type of diluent (if any) used.

How to Determine Output of Powered Knapsack Sprayers

Lay out an area representing an even fraction of an acre. (A rectangle measuring 100 x 109 feet would be one-quarter of an acre.)

Count the amount of water used to spray the plot, multiply by 4, and calculate the output in gallons per acre. Also note the time in minutes it takes to spray the plot.

From this you can calculate the gallons per minute of spray based on your walking pace.

To check the calculation and the flow rate of the nozzle, you can catch and measure the output for one minute and record the result as gallons per minute. This should agree with your earlier value from walking the test plot.

Applications From Unpowered Compression Sprayers

Used frequently for treatments of small terrestrial or aquatic sites for various kinds of pests, such as treatment of small ditches for control of mosquito larvae.

Challenges to Calibrating Hand-Carried & Hand Pumped Sprayers

Flow rate varies with pressure, and pressure varies widely with these kinds of devices.

Some have pressure gauges, others do not.

Since the travel speed of the sprayer will be the travel speed of the human carrying the sprayer, maintaining constant speed is difficult.

End result however is the same: to make sure the application conforms to the pesticide label requirements.

How to Estimate Application Rate of Hand-Carried Sprayers

(Similar process used for the powered backpack sprayer):

Measure a small plot that represents some even fraction of an acre (a plot 50 x 55 feet would be about 1/16 of an acre)

Measure the time and number of gallons it takes to spray the plot.

While spraying, walk in a manner that would be the same as you would walk making a real treatment, and keep the tank pumped up in a routine consistent with the actual application.

Calculate values based on gallons per minute and gallons per acre as before. Do the trial spray several times to check the consistency of applications.

When doing the actual applications, it will be necessary to estimate the size of your target area. In difficult areas where the spraying will be intermittent, you may have to use a stopwatch to track the time spent actively spraying.

ULV Applications from Air or Ground-Based Sprayers

Calibration for applications using ULV methods is more complicated than most other types because sprayers must be calibrated for both flow rate and droplet size.

ULV Flow Rate

Should be checked after all nozzles are inspected for damage and completely cleaned.

Check the one or more nozzles with the pump operating at the appropriate pressure.

Check all lines and screens for obstructions to make sure insecticide will be free-flowing.

If a battery-powered electric pump is used, the battery should be first checked to make sure it is fully charged.

Calculating ULV Flow Rate

The flow rate of the nozzles can be controlled at the pump with most equipment by adjusting a knob or screw at the pump.

To measure flow rate, either water or mineral oil should be collected in a graduated cylinder for a set time period.

This should be repeated several times and an average value determined for each nozzle.

Finally, an average value should be calculated for all the nozzles combined.

ULV Droplet Size

The range of droplets produced using ULV equipment is characterized by a measurement is called: **volume median diameter (VMD)**.

Labels for pesticide formulations designed for ULV applications will contain information on the required range of VMD values for both ground and aerial application.

Modern analytical equipment like “hot wires” or laser beams can make the measurements and provides complete profiles for the droplet spectrum.

Older manual methods involve waving a glass microscope slide under by hand through the pesticide stream and then examining the slide under a microscope (the droplets are measured and counted by hand).

ULV Calibration

To adjust the range of droplet sizes, the speed and volume of high-pressure air moving past the nozzle are adjusted.

Generally, the higher the speed and volume of air, the smaller the droplets produced.

For after-spray assessments, the use of dye cards (placed in the path of the sprayer) are used to collect spray particles and then analyzed in the laboratory to determine if the proper droplet sizes were achieved in an application.

Frequency of Calibration

For ULV sprayers, flow rate should be checked regularly, depending on how often the machine is used.

Droplet size should be tested at least annually prior to the spray season, and after any repairs to the machine.

In the unusual event that the ULV spray nozzle itself is damaged, it must be professionally machined or replaced.

Operation of Spray Equipment After Calibration

Consistent and uniform distribution of pesticide is necessary for successful applications.

Remember that at a given pump pressure, if you reduce speed significantly, you will increase the pesticide application rate.

Observe pressure readings frequently and make necessary adjustments to maintain constant pump pressure throughout the application.

Chapter 9:

Pesticide Application

Problems

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Introduction: Pesticide Application Problems

There are several important problems related to pesticide use that should be understood by every applicator. These problems include pesticide drift, pesticide **residues**, **phytotoxicity**, destruction of beneficial species of animals and plants, resistance of pests to pesticides, and environmental pollution.

There are many ways in which these undesirable effects can be reduced or eliminated. Each depends upon knowledge of the proper handling and use of pesticides, the components of the environment susceptible to contamination, the pesticides most likely to cause contamination, and preventive measures.

Pesticide Drift

Except with ULV applications, this is an undesirable side effect associated with aerial and ground pesticide applications.

Spray drift is defined as airborne particles produced during application of a pesticide moving outside the intended treatment area. Pesticide drift can also occur if contaminated soil or water is moved or is allowed to move out of the treatment zone.

The severity of the drift depends on the physical form of the pesticide (dusts are more likely to drift, granules least likely), the method of application, and weather conditions.

Keep in mind that for ULV applications, pesticide drift is both desirable and necessary.

Pesticide labels specify that ULV applications must be done during weather conditions that favor pesticide drift (weather inversion or lateral winds below 10 MPH).

The longer the effective drift of the product, the greater the efficacy.

Causes of Pesticide Drift

The rate at which a drop of liquid falls through the air depends upon the size of the droplet. Very small droplets fall very slowly.

Sprayer pressure

- High pressure sprayers are more likely to produce fine droplets that are more likely to drift. Small droplets can drift farther than larger ones.

Improper or worn nozzles or excessive pressures.

The method and amount of material applied also influences the hazard of pesticide drift. Small amounts applied by hand from the ground are rarely involved in drift problems. Spray from ground air blast sprayers is highly subject to drift. Aerial applications of large quantities of pesticides always present the possibility of significant drift.

Drift Should be Avoided Because:

It wastes resources, including pesticides, fuel, and technician time.

It spreads pesticides into the surrounding environment where they may become illegal **residues** on food crops, cause health problems, non-target organisms, and have other undesirable effects.

It can damage **sensitive** crops.

It has been the cause of many damage claims for crop losses.

Pesticide Residues

Whenever a pesticide is applied, some of the chemical becomes a **deposit** on or in the treated crop, animal or object. The pesticide may remain in its original chemical form or it may be altered chemically by **weathering**, metabolic **degradation** or other processes. In any case, the quantity of material remaining is called a pesticide residue.

Pesticide residues become problematic when they are detectible in or on places other than their intended target.

- Fresh water reservoirs, stream bed sediments, and harvested food are examples of places that would be tested for pesticide residues.

Pesticide residues are usually measured with **tolerances** expressed in parts per million (ppm) to parts per billion (ppb) on a weight basis.

- To illustrate this form of measurement, one ppm is one milligram in a kilogram, or one ounce of salt in 62,500 pounds of sugar, or one pound of pesticide in one million pounds of raw agricultural commodity.

Pesticide Residues

Residues may result from direct application, from drift from nearby fields, from uptake from contaminated soil, or from other sources.

Desirable in some situations to produce prolonged effective pest control.

In other situations, residues can be a source of unwanted and illegal contamination (e.g. on food or feed crops at harvest).

Pesticide Tolerances

The residue levels allowed on food crops at harvest are legally set by the federal and state regulatory agencies and are called tolerances.

The US Food and Drug Administration (**FDA**) has the authority to enforce pesticide tolerances on food and raw agricultural commodities.

Tolerances are simply the maximum amounts of pesticide permitted to be present on or in raw agricultural commodities.

These tolerances represent levels of pesticide residues which scientists have determined may safely remain on the food crop without injury to the consumer. Tolerances vary according to the pesticide and the crop.

When **pesticide tolerances** are found to exceed legal tolerances, the agricultural commodities involved may be seized and destroyed. Ordinarily, such situations would arise from the application of agricultural pesticides on crops, but it could happen even where pesticide applications are not specifically targeted at a crop pest, such as the application of pesticides on rice fields for mosquito control.

Persistence of Compounds

Persistence is defined as how long a pesticide remains active and/or detectable on after application

Most **organochlorine** pesticides (e.g., DDT, chlordane) are very **persistent**.

Most of the **organophosphates** (e.g., parathion, malathion) and pyrethroids are much less persistent.

Pyrethrins, and **carbamate** pesticides are non-persistent.

Persistence of Compounds

Some factors that influence the persistence of a chemical and the possibility that residues may remain are:

1. The amount of chemical applied.
2. The formulation.
3. The **pH** (acidity or alkalinity) of the water **diluent** and of the target tissue, soil, or water.
4. The nature of the surface to which it is applied.
5. Exposure to weathering from wind, rain, etc.
6. Chemical breakdown from high temperatures and humidity.
7. Photochemical reactions from sunlight.
8. Biological reactions.

Certified Organic Crops & Farms

Organic farming is a form of agriculture which does not permit the use of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides, plant growth regulators, livestock feed additives, and genetically modified organisms.

As far as possible, organic farmers rely on crop rotation, green manure, compost, biological pest control, and mechanical cultivation to maintain soil productivity and control pests.

Vector control technicians working near these farms need to work closely with the landowner to prevent vector production on the property, and to avoid jeopardizing the organic status of the crop.

If a pesticide excluded for use on organically produced commodities is accidentally applied to an organic crop, the crop may no longer qualify to be sold as organic. If this occurs in connection with a vector control operation, the producer can pursue a settlement from the vector control program for his loss.

Phytotoxic Effects of Pesticides

Phytotoxicity is the injury or death of a plant due to exposure to a chemical.

Plants may be injured or killed by various kinds of chemicals, including salts, fertilizers, or pesticides.

Sometimes, plant injury is intentional, as when an herbicide is applied to a weed. In other cases, the plant injury is an accidental side effect of pesticide use.

Phytotoxicity can affect any part of a plant, including roots, stems, foliage, blossoms, or fruit.

The degree of **phytotoxicity** caused by pesticides may vary in response to multiple factors.

Some **toxicants (active ingredients)** are particularly damaging to plants. Other components of the pesticide mixture, such as the diluent, may cause plant damage. The plants themselves may vary in **susceptibility** to injury by various chemicals.

The phytotoxic reaction may vary with the species of plant, with the age of the plant, or with the weather at the time of exposure.

Damage to Beneficial Insects

In California, the beekeeping industry maintains millions of honey bee colonies. Each year honey bees pollinate billions of dollars worth of crops in the state.

To protect these valuable insects from losses due to pesticide poisoning, it is necessary to know where colonies are located before conducting a pesticide application.

Wild bees and beneficial insect predators and **parasites** can be affected by pesticide applications.

Honey Bee Protection

For vector control technicians, protecting domestic bees is primarily a concern when doing ULV adult mosquito control. The pesticides most commonly used for these applications (pyrethrins and pyrethroids) are toxic to bees.

ULV applications are usually done in the evening or morning when honey bees are **inactive**.

Under California law, beekeepers may request notification of intended pesticide usages, and the applicator is required to provide such notice.

Vector control agencies that have signed the Cooperative Agreement with the California Department of Public Health are exempted from regulations that require notification of pesticide applications.

Agencies can be held financially responsible for lost hives and damaged crops.

Resistance to Pesticides

Pesticide resistance is the ability of pests to avoid the lethal effects of pesticides through changes in physiology or behavior.

Resistance develops gradually to the point where pesticide applications begin to fail after repeated exposure to the same pesticide (or pesticide family).

For example, spontaneous genetic mutations sometimes result in genes that confer pesticide resistance. Other times, a small proportion of a population carries a gene for pesticide resistance naturally.

Resistance develops when the susceptible population is killed by a pesticide while individuals that carry resistant genes survive and reproduce.

The same thing can happen behaviorally when individuals that avoid contact with pesticide-contaminated surfaces survive and pass this behavior on to their offspring.

Occasionally, physiologic resistance to multiple pesticides may occur. This is called cross-resistance. Its occurrence is usually seen among chemically related pesticides where the mode of action is identical or very similar.

Selective Pressure

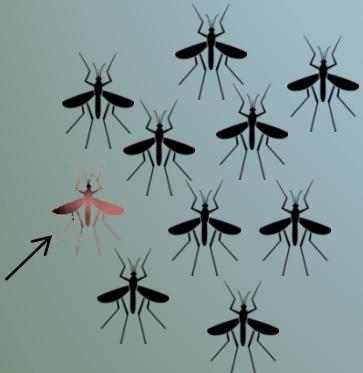
A selective pressure is a changing environmental factor that favors the reproductive success of some individuals of a given species over other individuals of the same species. A changing environmental factor can be a decrease in precipitation, a temperature increase, heightened pollution, a newly sprayed chemical, etc.

In this case, the selective pressure is a pesticide.

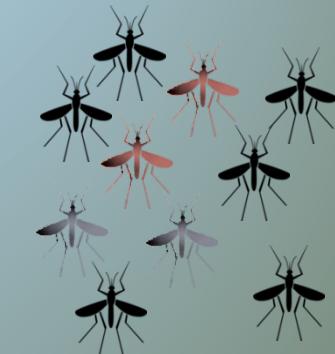
- A species of mosquito is repeatedly exposed to a pesticide that only kills the **susceptible** members of its population. Genes that favor resistance to that pesticide will be selected at the expense of genes that favor susceptibility. Over time, this results in a change in the genetic makeup of that population as only the **resistant** mosquitoes will remain.
- The resistant mosquitoes will survive to pass their genes to the next generation while the susceptible individuals will not survive to reproduce.

Pesticide as a Selection Pressure

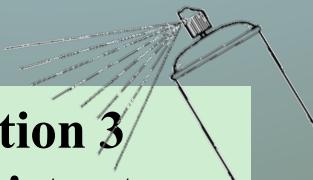
Generation 1
10% resistant



Generation 2
40% resistant



Generation 3
90% resistant



Pattern
continues



Recognizing Resistance

Early signs of resistance may sometimes be recognized in the field. These include increasing difficulty in controlling a pest, increasing numbers of formerly minor pests, and increasing trouble with insect transmitted disease.

Developing resistance can be very subtle and may go unnoticed for a time.

Suspected resistance should be reported to your supervisor immediately.

Pesticide Resistance Management

Based on the genetic principles of development of pesticide resistance in pests, a number of principles have evolved over the years that when implemented can either delay resistance or avoid it entirely:

1. Avoid under-dosing in pesticide applications. If this is done repeatedly it encourages survival of individual pests carrying genes for resistance, especially when the effects of the gene are not absolute (protects only partially).
2. Do not always treat a given population with the same pesticide. Switch to other products periodically. This is called pesticide rotation.
3. Test populations of vectors for evidence of resistance, and when it is detected, switch to alternate pesticides.
4. Avoid slow-release applications where pest populations are exposed for long periods of time to sub-lethal doses of one pesticide.
5. Combine pesticide applications with other forms of pest management such as biological control, habitat alteration, and use of biorational pesticides. The use of biorational pesticides is not a guarantee that resistance to these products will not occur, but resistance to biorational pesticides have been far less common than to conventional pesticides.

Unwanted Environmental Effects

Unwanted pesticide chemicals in air, soil, water and vegetation are a form of environmental pollution.

Atmospheric Pollutants:

Pesticides may enter the atmosphere by being blown away with soil particles in cultivation or as smoke from burning materials.

A major source of atmospheric pesticide pollution is from improper application of sprays and dusts. Spraying during windy periods or with the wrong or improperly maintained equipment are major contributors to this problem.

Once in the atmosphere, pesticides are either degraded into other compounds or trapped in rain, fog or dust. They eventually fall to earth.

Unwanted Environmental Effects

Unwanted pesticide chemicals in air, soil, water and vegetation are a form of environmental pollution.

Soil Pollutants:

Very few persistent pesticides are used in vector control operations anymore.

When excess or repeated applications of inorganic or very persistent organic pesticides are made, soil residues can build up until they become a severe problem.

Pesticides in the soil may cause illegal residues in root crops or they may be translocated into the tops of plants. They may also **leach into nearby surface or groundwater supplies, or they may cause undesired phytotoxicity.**

Unwanted Environmental Effects

Unwanted pesticide chemicals in air, soil, water and vegetation are a form of environmental pollution.

Soil Pollutants (continued):

Once in the soil, organic pesticides may be rapidly broken down by natural processes or they may remain unchanged for years.

Pesticides in soils break down through chemical reactions which depend on the structure of the soil, its moisture content, its pH, salinity and other factors.

Microbial decomposition depends on the temperature, moisture, and organic matter in the soil, as well as on the chemical nature of the pesticide itself.

Unwanted Environmental Effects

Unwanted pesticide chemicals in air, soil, water and vegetation are a form of environmental pollution.

Water Pollutants:

Pesticides occur in water as intentional and unintentional **additives**.

Use of pesticides in water presents special hazards to plants growing in or irrigated with the water, to fish and other animals living in the water.

Specific hazards include non-target toxicity and biological oxygen demand created by decaying vegetation. Fish, animals and people who might drink or bathe in the water may be at risk.

It is extremely important that those planning to apply pesticides directly to bodies of water be completely familiar with and follow label directions pertaining to any material being used in or around water - including posting notice of the application when required by the product label.

NPDES Permit

NPDES: National Pollution Discharge Elimination System.

Permit authorized by the Clean Water Act of 1972. Designed to reduce pollution in streams, lakes, rivers, wetlands, and other waterways from point source discharges.

In 2011 this became applicable to pesticide applications, including vector control, to or near Waters of the U.S.

For pesticide treatments to Waters of the U.S., the California State Water Resources Control Board has a permit that is mandatory, and its stipulations must be closely adhered to.

The permit requirements are subject to change. Technicians should check with their supervisors for the most current regulations.

Definition: Waters of the United States

- 1. All waters which are currently used, or were used in the past, or may be susceptible to use in interstate or foreign commerce, including all waters which are subject to the ebb and flow of the tide;**
- 2. All interstate waters including interstate wetlands;**
- 3. All other waters such as intrastate lakes, rivers, streams (including intermittent streams), mudflats, sandflats, wetlands, sloughs, prairie potholes, wet meadows, playa lakes, or natural ponds, the use, degradation or destruction of which could affect interstate or foreign commerce including any such waters:**
 - i. Which are or could be used by interstate or foreign travelers for recreational or other purposes; or**
 - ii. (From which fish or shellfish are or could be taken and sold in interstate or foreign commerce; or**
 - iii. Which are used or could be used for industrial purposes by industries in interstate commerce;**

Definition: Waters of the United States

4. All impoundments of waters otherwise defined as waters of the United States under this definition;
5. Tributaries of waters identified in paragraphs (s)(1) through (4) of this section;
6. The territorial sea;
7. Wetlands adjacent to waters (other than waters that are themselves wetlands) identified in paragraphs (s)(1) through (6) of this section; waste treatment systems, including treatment ponds or lagoons designed to meet the requirements of CWA (other than cooling ponds as defined in 40 CFR 423.11(m) which also meet the criteria of this definition) are not waters of the United States.

Definition: Waters of the United States

Streams, drainage ditches draining into a stream, catch basins draining into a delineated wetland, and rivers are all considered Waters of the U.S.

Dairy Ponds, or catch basins that drain into a sewage treatment plant are not examples of Waters of the U.S.

Technicians should be aware that irrigated agricultural fields usually are not considered Waters of the U.S., until the runoff leaves the field.

Biotic Pollution

The direct effects of pesticides on wildlife depend on the kind and formulation of the pesticide, the **target pest** species, and the species of wildlife exposed. Example: Pyrethrins are highly toxic to fish, but virtually non-toxic to mammals or birds.

Direct effects on wildlife also depend on the exposure of the animals to the pesticide; pesticides with long residual actions may cause wildlife losses for extended periods.

Pesticides with short residual effects may cause large losses but only for a short time.

Recently, residual accumulations of PBO, a synergist commonly used to increase the effectiveness of pyrethrins and pyrethroids, has been detected in stream bottom sediments. Although non-toxic itself, PBO may have the potential to make other pesticide residues in stream bottoms more toxic to aquatic organisms. This has raised the question of a potential role for PBO as a harmful stream pollutant.

Minimizing Environmental Effects

Careful attention to label directions will aid you in the selecting and using of all pesticides in ways that minimize adverse environmental effects.

Remember, apply pesticides:

1. Only to identified pests
2. Only when necessary
3. Only where they are needed
4. Always at rates permitted by the label
5. Only in situations allowed by the label

Chapter 10:

Pesticides as

Hazardous Wastes

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Pesticides not classified as hazardous wastes

Proper transportation of hazardous wastes

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Introduction: Pesticides as Hazardous Wastes

Hazardous wastes are wastes with **properties** that make them dangerous or potentially harmful to human health or the environment.

Some pesticides are considered by the EPA to fit this definition and are thus subject to laws and regulations regarding their proper handling, transportation, and disposal.

Classification of Hazardous Wastes

Multiple federal and state agencies have enforcement responsibilities regarding hazardous waste management.

In 1976 the US Congress passed the Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA), which directed that EPA develop and implement a program to protect human health and the environment from improper hazardous waste management practices. Details of this program can be found at:
<http://www.epa.gov/osw/hazwaste.htm>.

In California, the Department of Toxic Substances Control (DTSC) (<http://www.dtsc.ca.gov>) is responsible for hazardous waste information and enforcement.

The US Department of Transportation enforces regulations for movement of hazardous wastes.

Characteristics of Hazardous Waste

EPA publishes lists of specific wastes that they consider hazardous. The lists are:

- **F List (non-specific source wastes).** This list consists of materials from common manufacturing and industrial processes such as cleaning solvents.
- **K List (source-specific wastes).** These are certain wastes from specific industries such as petroleum refining and pesticide manufacturing.
- **P List and U-List (discarded commercial chemical products)** include specific chemical products in an unused form. Some pesticides and pharmaceuticals become hazardous waste when discarded.
- **M List (discarded mercury products; California).** Included in this list are items such as fluorescent lamps and mercury switches.

Characteristics of Hazardous Waste

Four criteria by which the EPA evaluates chemical traits may not appear on their F, K, P, and M lists:

1. Ignitability. These substances can create fire under certain conditions, because they are spontaneously combustible or have flash points less than 140 degrees Fahrenheit. Waste **oils** and used solvents may meet this criterion.
2. Corrosivity. Acids or bases (pH less than 2 or greater than 12.5, respectively), that are capable of corroding metal tanks, drums, and barrels.
3. Reactivity. Substances that are unstable under normal conditions. They can cause explosions, toxic **fumes**, gases, or vapors when heated, compressed, or mixed with water.
4. Toxicity. Toxic wastes are harmful or fatal when **ingested** or absorbed (e.g. those containing mercury or lead).

Note: There are 8 characteristics of toxicity defined in California, and if a waste meets even one of the 8, it is considered a toxic hazardous waste.
(http://www.dtsc.ca.gov/HazardousWaste/upload/HWMP_DefiningHW1.pdf)

If Uncertain whether a Pesticide Substance is a Hazardous Waste:

1. Call the DTSC at (510) 540 - 3003.
2. Send an email to the California DTSC: wasteclass@dtsc.ca.gov
3. Examine Safety Data Sheets for statements concerning its status as a hazardous waste.
4. Read the pesticide label for information on its status.
5. Write or call the formulator or distributor for information.

Origin of Hazardous Wastes

The following are hazardous waste sources from vector control operations:

- Empty pesticide containers containing hazardous residues.
- Rinse water used to clean spray equipment and vehicles.
- Pesticides remaining in sprayer tanks after an application.
- Unused stocks of outdated and possibly suspended pesticides.
- Used motor oil.
- Solvents and other fluids used in connection with vehicle maintenance and repair.

Proper Management of Hazardous Wastes

The US EPA has established categories for agencies that generate hazardous waste based on the amount of hazardous waste generated each month.

These same categories have been adopted by the California DTSC.

It is important for agencies to know the amount of waste they generate, because the rules for disposal of hazardous waste vary according to the category.

This primarily applies to how long hazardous waste can be stored before it must be disposed of (there is an increased risk potential associated with storage of large quantities of these waste).

EPA Hazard Generator Categories

Hazardous Waste Generated per Month	Category Name & Maximum Allowed Accumulation Time
Less than 220 lbs. (about half a drum)	Conditionally exempt from requirement (CESQG)
220 lbs. – 2,200 lbs. (up to 5 drums)	Small Quantity Generator (SQG) 180 days or 270 days if waste to be transported 200 miles or more
2,200 lbs. or more (over 5 drums)	Large Quantity Generator (LQG) 90 days

Containers Used to Collect Hazardous Wastes

Hazardous materials can be placed in their original containers temporarily, but the most common containers used to store hazardous wastes prior to their disposal are 55-gallon steel or plastic drums and inner liners from these drums.



If you have dedicated containers for pesticide hazardous waste, they must contain the label on the left.

Other Info that Should be Placed on Waste Containers

Date waste was first put in the container.

Federal waste code numbers.

Type of waste contained in the container.

***Even if the waste is not classified as hazardous waste, it is a good practice to label the container with the waste material it contains.**

CA Exemptions from Management Rule for Hazardous Waste:

California regulations recognize two categories of containers that are exempt from management rules for hazardous waste:

1. Containers that once contained waste that does not qualify as hazardous.
2. Containers that meet the definition of “empty” and have been subjected to approved management practices. Containers that are exempt can be disposed of at any appropriate solid waste facility.

Empty Containers and “Empty” Containers

Regulations that address the management of empty pesticide containers are very complex:

- The DTSC has prepared a fact sheet “Managing Empty Containers” that contains an extensive question and answer section.
- This fact sheet is available on their website.

“Empty” Containers:

- Containers that once held hazardous materials or hazardous wastes and have been emptied by the generator as much as is reasonably possible.
- In practice, this means inverting the container until no more liquid or solid material pours out.
- These containers may still contain some residual hazardous materials that could cause significant harm, so they are still considered hazardous unless approved management practices are followed.

Empty Container Cleaning Procedures

Containers that held liquid pesticides classified as acute or extremely hazardous waste must be triple-rinsed with a solvent capable of removing the material before they can be considered ready for disposal.

Containers that held solid pesticides, or pesticides that have become viscous and pour slowly, or have dried out or otherwise become caked, must be cleaned, scraped, and rinsed to remove all pesticide residues.

Management practices differ and depend upon the way empty containers are handled by a particular agency.

- Some return empty containers to the original distributor, others may ship containers to a company that reconditions them.
- Empty containers of 5 gallons or less can be disposed of at a solid waste facility.

Large Containers

Some mosquito and vector control agencies use special underground tanks to collect hazardous wastes such as rinse water.

Underground storage tanks are not considered containers, and their management is covered under other regulations.

Bulk containers of 110 gallons or more are also controlled by a different set of regulations.

Storage of Containers Full or Partially Full of Pesticides

Containers of pesticides over time can deteriorate to the point where they can rupture, leak, rust, and otherwise lose their original integrity.

Especially if pesticides are stored over long periods of time (years) they should be periodically inspected for signs of deterioration, and if leaking containers are found, their contents should be transferred to a new container.

Containers should always be kept closed.

If containers are used to contain waste, self-closing funnels should be used to add waste.

Waste pesticides should never be allowed to **evaporate**.

Pesticides should always be compatible with the material of which the container is made (e.g. if the waste is corrosive, high density plastic containers should be used).

Storage of Containers Full or Partially Full of Pesticides

Wastes that are reactive (e.g., acids and bases) should never be kept in the same container.

Waste pesticide containers should be stored indoors. Adequate aisle space and ventilation should be provided. (This makes periodic inspections for leaks and container deterioration easier.)

Ignitable and reactive pesticide wastes should be stored at least 50 feet from property boundaries.

Pesticide wastes, depending upon the amount of waste generated per month, have legal time limits they can be stored before disposal.

Required Notifications of Hazardous Wastes

Agencies that generate pesticide hazardous waste should designate an emergency coordinator available 24/7 who must know what to do in case of a poisoning, fire, spill, or other emergency.

The following information should be clearly posted in a prominent place, such as near a telephone in the main district office, or near a telephone in the proximity of the storage site for pesticide hazardous wastes:

- Local fire department number
- Emergency Coordinator's name and telephone number
- Locations of fire alarms and fire extinguishers
- Location of pesticide spill control materials

Pesticides Not Classified as Hazardous Wastes

May be disposed of as regular solid waste or trash.

Are regulated by California law.

Must be disposed of according to instructions contained on the product label.

Must be disposed of in a careful manner.

Proper Transportation of Hazardous Wastes

Those who believe they would like to transport and dispose of hazardous wastes in-house should refer to “Hazardous Waste Transporter Requirements”, August 2007, available on the DTSC website.

Pesticide technicians should know that any person who transports hazardous wastes must hold a valid registration issued by DTSC.

It is unlawful for any person to transfer custody of toxic waste to a transporter who does not hold a valid registration.

If in doubt, there is a list of registered hazardous waste transporters on the DTSC website.

The transportation of hazardous wastes is regulated by the California Department of Toxic Substances Control (DTSC).

No hazardous wastes may be transported without first getting a permit from DTSC.

Most mosquito and vector control districts contract with a licensed operator to remove, transport, and dispose of hazardous wastes because of the complex and expensive requirements for permission to transport hazardous wastes.

Proper Disposal of Hazardous Wastes

The actual disposal of hazardous wastes is in the most part handled by commercial firms that specialize in this area.

Agencies that generate less than a threshold amount of hazardous waste in a month are exempt from many of the management requirements.

California mosquito and vector control agencies try to minimize the amount of hazardous waste that requires special handling and management.

How to Minimize the Disposal of Hazardous Waste

Keep the use of pesticides that qualify as hazardous waste to a minimum.

Avoid the use of pesticides that are on the Acutely Toxic Hazardous Waste list of EPA. Nearly all these products are no longer available for use in California anyway.

As much as possible, completely empty sprayer tanks of pesticide during applications. Avoid coming back from a job with partially-filled tanks.

Do not collect rinse water from pesticide equipment cleaning in tanks but use the rinse water for diluting water-**soluble** pesticides in spray tanks. This can only be done if the pesticide sprayed in the equipment that was cleaned is compatible with the pesticide to be diluted with the rinse water.

Take advantage of recycling programs for empty pesticide containers offered by many pesticide distributors.

Do periodic inventories of pesticides on-hand and get rid of outdated or suspended materials. If you have materials that are legal, but no longer used in your program, sell or give them to other agencies that can use them.

Constantly check for leaking containers. Either get rid of these materials or transfer them to new containers.

Chapter 11:

The Future of

Pesticide Use in

Public Health

Programs

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IVM

Biorational Pesticides

Attractants and Repellents

Sterile Insect Technique

Introduction: The Future of Pesticides In Public Health Programs

Public health pesticides have been controversial since their first use and remain so to this day.

One result of this continuing struggle is an arsenal of pesticides that are safer and less disruptive to the environment than ever before.

Technology is improving pesticide application, methods for surveillance of both vector-borne diseases and vector **infestations**, and the training of pesticide applicators.

Products used today are far less hazardous than was the case 20-30 years ago.

The Future of Pesticides In Public Health Programs

Despite their role in protecting people from vectors, insecticide use is not without some risks:

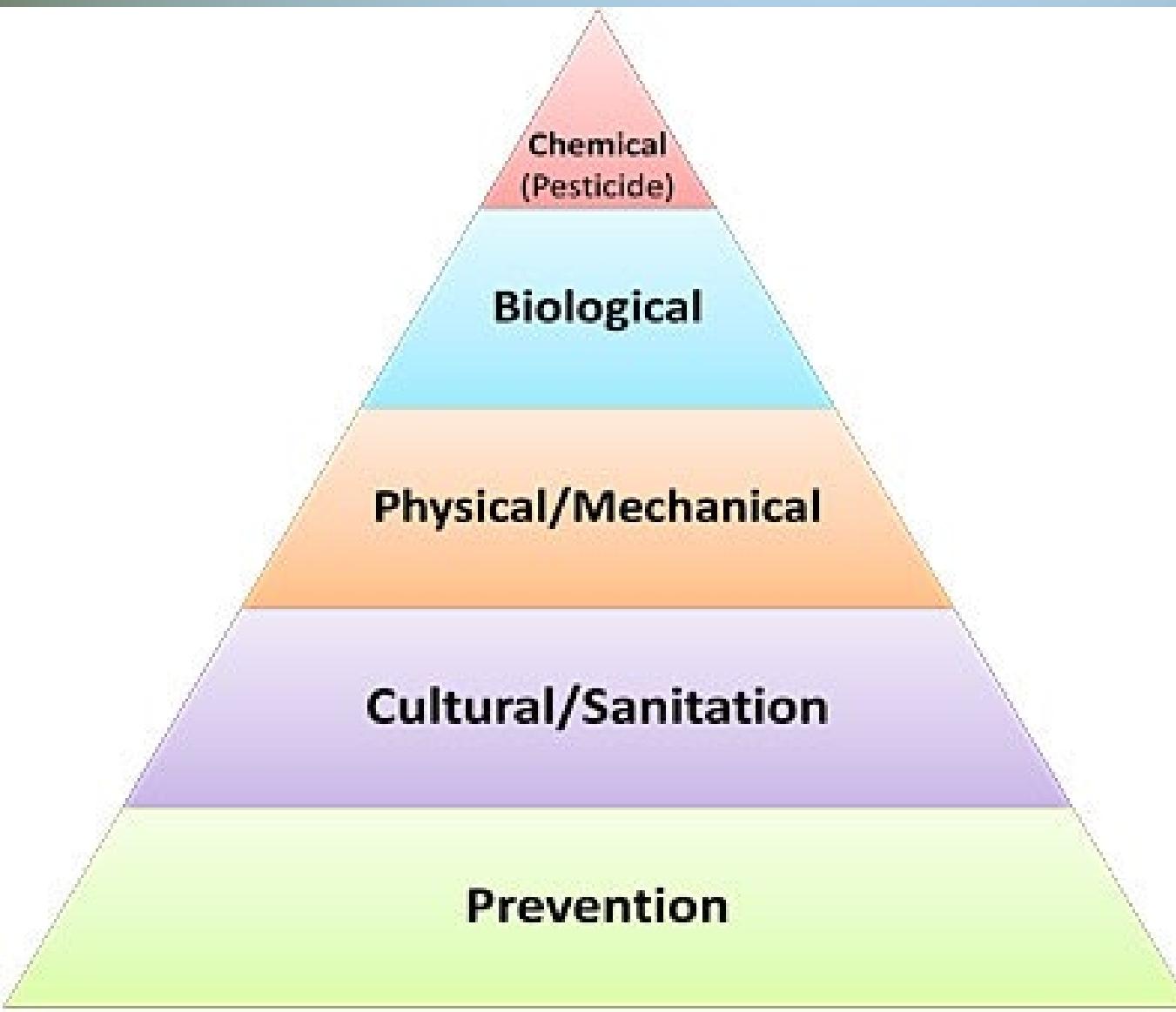
- Non target issues: Insecticides, if used improperly, can have toxic consequences for people and pets, harm agricultural commodities or disrupt aquatic and terrestrial wildlife.
- Resistance: We have a finite number of pesticides labeled for mosquito control. The improper use of pesticides can select for a resistant vector population, thereby rendering a pesticide or related pesticides useless.
- Public relations: Not all people are in favor of pesticide use. The use of pesticides will anger some segments of the public.

Integrated Vector Management (IVM)

With the downside of pesticide use in mind, the mosquito abatement industry has adopted Integrated Vector Management (IVM). IVM mirrors the modern approach to managing agricultural pests called **Integrated Pest Management (IPM)**.

Methods include using biorational pesticides, proper cultural techniques, biological control, attractants and repellents, and genetic control.

IVM/IPM Pyramid



Chemicals are the last option and are used only after the other steps have proven ineffective.

Each ascending step generally becomes more complex and costly.

Steps of the IVM Pyramid

IVM philosophy: Chemicals are used only when pesticide alternatives fail to control vector numbers or prevent disease transmission.

Steps of the IVM pyramid include (ranked from most simple to most complex):

- Prevention
- Cultural/Sanitation
- Physical/Mechanical
- Biological
- Chemical

Prevention comes in many forms, but public outreach is very important. This includes:

- Radio ads
- Billboards
- Door-to-door campaigns
- County fair booths
- Movie theater commercials
- Mosquito repellent handouts
- School programs

If you can educate the public to prevent vector breeding/spread, then your job has been done for you.

Steps of the IVM Pyramid

Cultural/Sanitation:

Many pest problems can be avoided by careful use of the proper cultural techniques.

Cultural practices make the environment less attractive for a pest's survival, reproduction, dispersal, etc. Examples:

- Dairy barn or chicken house sanitation methods
- Manure management to limit breeding sites for flies
- Marsh management to avoid runoff from highways polluting streams and ground water
- Replacing flood irrigation with drip irrigation to prevent mosquito breeding.

Steps of the IVM Pyramid

Physical/Mechanical:

Physical/Mechanical can be as simple as using bed nets, screens, and protective clothing to physically separate humans and mosquitoes.

Another form of “Physical/Mechanical” is the modification or elimination of mosquito sources to prevent a vector’s reproduction or spread.

Can be very simple:

- Using a shovel to dig a ditch.
- Disposing of old tires that collect water.
- Capping an old septic tank.

Can be more complex:

- The use of mechanical equipment to remove vegetation or create ditches.
- Involving local, state or federal governments to create a drainage system for an extensive area.

Steps of the IVM Pyramid

Biological control:

The use of colonized or naturally occurring parasites or predators (natural enemies) to control pest populations.

Examples:

Mosquito fish (*Gambusia affinis*) are reared and distributed as a supplement to conventional pesticide operations. They are particularly effective in degraded aquatic habitats such as poorly maintained swimming pools and fishponds.

Not subject to the registration provisions of FIFRA, but may come under restrictions of agencies like the California Department of Fish and Game.

The use of bacteria as biocontrol agents:

Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis (Bti).

Lysinibacillus sphaericus (Bs).

Biorational Pesticides

Products used today are far less hazardous than was the case 20-30 years ago. One cause for this hazard reduction is the use of biorational pesticides.

Biorationals (biorational pesticides or biopesticides) are a group of pesticides that are considered relatively non-toxic to humans and are also environmentally safe.

The EPA defines biorationals as “certain types of pesticides derived from such natural materials as animals, plants, bacteria, and certain minerals.”

The action of biochemical biorationals is based on the interruption of natural growth processes of arthropods. They are not particularly selective among arthropod species, but generally have extremely low toxicity for vertebrates, including people.

Insect growth regulators (IGRs), chitin **inhibitors**, plant growth regulators, and chromosterilants are included in this group.

Attractants:

An example of a mosquito trap that utilizes an attractant is the Biogents (BG) Sentinel.

This trap is Specifically designed for *Aedes* mosquitoes. It mimics convection currents created by a human body. It employs attractive visual cues and uses BG-Lure as an attractant. CO₂ can also be used.

Captures both males and females, thereby reducing the number of mosquitoes in the environment.



Repellents

Most successful skin repellents have been those containing DEET, a chemical developed by the US Department of Agriculture more than 50 years ago.

In tropical areas of the world where malaria is a serious problem, insecticidal bed nets, door curtains, and window curtains have shown great promise.

Sterile Insect Technique

In a few spectacular cases, massive populations of pest species have been managed and even locally eradicated using sterile male technique.

- The eradication of the screw-worm fly from the USA.
- The repeated eradication efforts against the Mediterranean fruit fly from California.
- Male mosquitoes are sterilized by radiation and then are released to mate with wild females.

The bacteria *Wolbachia* has also been used to sterilize mosquitoes.

Wolbachia are naturally occurring bacteria found in 60% of all insects. When insects such as *Wolbachia* poses no danger to humans, animals, or the environment, these bacteria are ideal to use as a control agent for the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito. This bacteria is safe for humans, animals and the environment.

- *Wolbachia* is introduced into male and female *Aedes aegypti* mosquito eggs. Only male mosquitoes are released into the environment so they can mate with “wild” female mosquitoes.
- When a released male *Ae. aegypti* mosquito carrying *Wolbachia* mates with a wild female that's not carrying *Wolbachia*. This induces cytoplasmic incompatibility, which results in embryo lethality in crosses between infected males and uninfected females. The resulting eggs will not hatch.
- .

Supplemental Information: Conversions

1 acre = 43,560 ft²

1 mile = 5,280 ft

1 gallon = 128 fl oz = 8 pints = 4 quarts

1 lb. = 16 oz

1 fl oz = 2 tablespoons = 6 teaspoons

1 inch = 2.54 cm

At one mph, you travel 88 feet in one minute.



Glossary

Many of the words defined here have additional meanings. The definitions given here are related to pests, pesticides, and pest management:

Absorption: Movement of a chemical into a plant, animal, or the soil. Plants absorb substances through leaves, stems, or roots, animals absorb substances through skin, breathing organs, stomach, mouth or intestines. Compare to adsorption.

Acaricide: A pesticide used to control mites and ticks. The term refers to Acarina (or Acari), the taxonomic group which mites and ticks belong.

Active ingredient: The component of a pesticide formulation that kills or controls pests. In other words, the chemical that is responsible for the toxic effect in a formulation.

Acute: Regarding pesticides, refers to effects from one exposure or exposure for a short period.

Acute dermal toxicity: The toxicity of a single dose (or short exposure) of a pesticide when absorbed through the skin.

Acute inhalation toxicity: The toxicity of a single dose (or short exposure) of a pesticide when inhaled into the lungs.

Acute oral toxicity: The toxicity of a single dose (or short exposure) of a pesticide when taken by mouth (eaten, swallowed, licked, etc.).

Additive: Any substance added to a pesticide to improve its performance. Same as **adjuvant**.

Adsorption: The process by which a substance is held (bound) to the surface of a soil particle or mineral in such a way that the substance is available only slowly. Clay and highly organic soils tend to adsorb pesticides. Compare to absorption.

Adult: A full-grown, sexually mature insect, mite or other animal or plant.

Aerosol: A low-concentrate solution of a pesticide or combination of pesticides, usually in an oil solution formulated especially for use in aerosol generators.

Agitator: A paddle (or other mechanical device), air, or hydraulic action used to keep a pesticide formulation mixed in the tank.

Air blast: A type of pesticide sprayer that can deliver high and low volumes of spray; used for orchards, shade trees, sprayer vegetables, and fly control.

Anticoagulant: A chemical that interferes with the normal clotting of blood. Some rodenticides are based on this principle.

Antidote: A medicine or other remedy for counteracting the effect of a poison. Antidotes are effective in reversing effects caused by certain pesticides, if administered promptly.



Glossary

Applicator: A person or piece of equipment which applies pesticides.

Aquatic weeds: Plants or weeds that grow in water. The plants may float on the surface, grow up from the bottom of the body of water (emergent), or grow under the surface of the water (submergent).

Artificial respiration: A form of first aid given to a person who has stopped breathing in order to get the person breathing again.

Atomize: To break up a liquid into very fine droplets by forcing it through a nozzle-like device having a very small opening.

Attractants: Substances or devices that attract insects or other pests to areas where they can be trapped or killed.

Avicide: A pesticide used to control birds.

Bacteria: Single-celled microorganisms (germs), some of which cause diseases in plants or animals. They cannot be seen without a microscope. (Singular: bacterium)

Bait: A food or other material that will attract a pest to a pesticide or to a trap where it will be trapped or killed. Baits can be mixed with pesticides in certain situations.

Bait shyness: The tendency for rodents, birds, or other pests to avoid a poisoned bait.

Biochemical: Having to do with the chemistry of living things.

Biological control (BC): The use of colonized or naturally occurring parasites or predators to control pest populations. Some would expand the definition to include pathogenic microorganisms, since they are also parasites.

Biopesticides: See biorational pesticides

Biorational pesticides: Pesticides derived from natural materials as animals, plants, bacteria, and certain minerals. EPA recognizes three categories of biorational pesticides: (1) microbial pesticides, (2) plant incorporated-protectants, and (3) biochemical pesticides. Biorational pesticides are subject to FIFRA regulation. Most biological control agents are not.

Boom: A section of pipe (or tubing) to which pesticide sprayer nozzles can be attached to increase the area that can be treated by a pesticide in a single pass of a vehicle.

Botanical pesticides: Pesticides made from plants. Examples: nicotine, pyrethrum, rotenone and strychnine.

Broadcast application: A uniform application over an entire area.

Buildup: Accumulation of a pesticide in soil, animals, or in the food chain.

Calibration: The measurement and adjustment of pesticide application equipment to apply a pesticide formulation at a desired application rate.

Canister: A metal or plastic container filled with absorbent materials that filter fumes and vapors from the air before they are inhaled by an applicator.



Glossary

Carbamate: A synthetic organic pesticide that belong to a group of chemicals that are salts or esters of carbonic acid. Carbamates are used as fungicides, herbicides, and insecticides. Examples: aldicarb, carbaryl, carbofuran, and methomyl.

Carrier: An **adjuvant** which is added to (or which dilutes) the active ingredient so that the formulation becomes easier to apply. Petroleum solvents and talc are examples. Also, the material that carries the pesticide to target. Water in a hydraulic sprayer or air in a mist blower are examples of this.

Cartridge: The part of the respirator that absorbs fumes and vapors from the air before the applicator inhales them.

Caution: The signal word used on pesticide labels to indicate a Toxicity Category III product.

Certified applicator: An individual who is certified to use or supervise the use of a restricted pesticide.

Cholinesterase: An enzyme found in the bodies of animals that controls nerve impulses. It is necessary for proper nerve function. Its activity can be affected in insects and warm-blooded animals (including people) by organophosphates and carbamates.

Compatibility: The degree to which two or more pesticides can be combined without significant reduction in effectiveness or safety.

Corrosive poison: A type of poison that contains a strong acid or base which will severely burn the skin, mouth, stomach, or other organs.

Cross contamination: When one pesticide gets into or mixes with another pesticide accidentally. This usually occurs in a previously-used pesticide container or in a poorly cleaned sprayer.

Danger: The signal word used on pesticide labels to indicate a highly toxic pesticide (Toxicity Category I). This signal word may be accompanied by the word Poison and the skull and crossbones symbol.

Decontaminate: To make safe, purify, make fit for use again by removing any pesticide from equipment or other surfaces as directed by a pesticide label, an agricultural authority, or the manufacturer of the pesticide.

Degradation: The breakdown of a more complex chemical into a less complex form. This process can be a result of the action of microbes, water, air, sunlight, or other agents.

Deposit: The amount of pesticide remaining on the target immediately following an application. Compare to **Residue**.

Dermal toxicity: The toxicity of a pesticide when it comes in contact with and absorbed through the skin. Dermal toxicity is the greatest hazard to people handling pesticides.

Desiccant: A pesticide used to draw moisture from or dry up a plant, plant part, or insect.

Diluent: Material, usually oil or water, mixed with a concentrate to dilute it to field strength.

Dilute: To make a pesticide less concentrated by adding water, oil, or other liquid or solid.



Glossary

Dose (dosage): The application rate of a pesticide, usually expressed in units of weight per unit of area, such as pounds per acre. Also, a measure used in testing to determine acute and chronic toxicities. In this case, usually expressed in units of weight of a chemical per unit of weight of a test animal or human, such as milligrams per kilogram (mg/kg).

Drift: The movement of pesticide droplets or particles by wind and air currents from the target area to an area not intended to be treated.

Dust: A finely ground dry mixture combining a small amount of pesticide with an inert carrier such as clay, talc, or volcanic ash.

Effective Dose (ED): The ED₅₀ is the dose that is effective in killing or otherwise affecting 50 percent of the tested subjects.

Emulsifiable concentrate (EC or E): An oil solution containing a high concentration of active ingredient and an emulsifying agent. The emulsifying agent aids in mixing the concentrate with water to produce an emulsion for spraying.

Emulsifier: A chemical that helps one liquid form tiny droplets and thus remain (emulsifying suspended in another liquid).

Emulsion: A mixture in which one liquid is suspended (mixed up) as tiny droplets in another liquid. Example: oil in water.

EPA: The US Environmental Protection Agency, the federal agency responsible for the protection of the environment in the United States.

Epidemiological: Having to do with the study of the incidence and distribution of diseases in the broad sense (to include infectious diseases, metabolic disorders, poisonings, genetic defects, allergies, etc.).

Evaporate: To form a gas and disappear into the air; to vaporize.

Exemption: An exception to a policy, rule, regulation, law, or standard.

Exposure: Contact with a pesticide through skin (dermal), mouth (oral), lungs (inhalation/respiratory), or eyes.

Face shield: A transparent piece of protective equipment used by a pesticide applicator to protect the face from exposure.

FDA: The US Food and Drug Administration, the federal agency that monitors pesticide residues on food products.

FIFRA: The Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act, the federal law pertaining to pesticide regulation and use in the USA. The original act was enacted in 1947. It has been amended many times since then.

First aid: The first effort to help a victim while medical help is on the way.

Flowable: Very finely ground solid material which is suspended in a liquid; usually contains a high concentration or large amount of the active ingredient and must be mixed with water when applied.

Fogger: An aerosol generator; a type of pesticide spray equipment that breaks pesticides into very fine droplets (aerosols or smokes) and blows or drifts the "fog" onto the target area.



Glossary

Foliage: The leaves, needles, stems, and blades of plants and grasses.

Foliar application: Spraying a pesticide onto the stems, leaves, needles, and blades of grasses, plants, shrubs, or trees.

Formulation: The resulting mixture of pesticide active ingredients, diluents, synergists, additives, and carriers. This is the form that pesticides are sold by distributors or retailers. It is also the form of pesticides that the EPA registers.

Fume: A smoke, vapor, or gas.

Fumigant: A pesticide that enters the pest in the form of a gas and kills it. The fumigant may be a liquid that changes to a gas when it is applied.

Fungi: Groups of small plant organisms (often microscopic) which cause rots, molds, and plant diseases. Fungi grow from seed-like spores and produce tiny thread-like growths. Molds, mushrooms, and yeasts are examples. (Singular: fungus).

Fungicide: A pesticide used to control fungi.

Gas mask: A type of respirator which covers the entire face and protects the eyes as well as the nose and mouth. It filters and cleans the air better than cartridge respirators and is less likely to leak around the edges. This device is effective against air which contains sprays, dusts, or gases.

Gram: A metric weight measurement equal to 1/1,000th of a kilogram; approximately 28.5 grams equal one ounce.

Granular pesticide (G): A pesticide in the form of pellets, all of which are larger than dust particles. A granular formulation is dry and ready-to-use and is made of small amount of pesticide and an inert carrier; the active ingredient is mixed with, absorbed, adsorbed, or pressed on or into the inert carrier.

Growth regulator: A pesticide that interferes with the normal growth or reproduction of a plant or animal. Growth regulators are considered biorational pesticides.

Hazard: A danger or risk of injury or other harm faced in connection with exposure to a pesticide. The degree of hazard is a result of a combination of toxicity and exposure.

Herbicide: A pesticide used to control plants, especially weeds.

High pressure sprayer: See **Hydraulic sprayer**.

Hormones: Chemicals naturally present in plants or animals that control growth or other physiological processes. Hormone-like chemicals can be synthesized to regulate plant and animal growth. They can also be used as pesticides through disruption of growth processes. Both naturally-occurring and synthesized chemicals that are used as pesticides are considered biorational.

Host: A living plant or animal that a pest depends on for survival.



Glossary

Hydraulic sprayer: A machine that delivers large volumes of pesticide spray at high pressures (up to several hundred pounds per square inch) to the target. Hydraulic sprayers are used primarily for fruit trees, shade trees, and ornamentals. Same as High pressure sprayer.

Hydrogen ion: A general term for all ions of hydrogen and its isotopes. The concentration of hydrogen ions in a solution is a measure of acidity or alkalinity and is expressed in terms of the pH of the solution. See **pH**.

IGR: Insect growth regulator.

Impermeable: Characteristic of a living or non-living structure that cannot be penetrated by gases or liquids. The term is often applied to membranes of various types. A semipermeable membrane would be one that is only partially permeable, and some substances can pass through, but others cannot.

Inactive: Status of a substance that does not react chemically with any other substance.

Incompatible: Refers to two or more pesticides that cannot be mixed together without a loss of effectiveness of one or both pesticides. Incompatible pesticides also may cause unintended injury to plants or animals.

Infestation: Pests that are found in an area or location where they are not wanted.

Ingest: To eat, drink, and swallow a substance.

Inhalation: The process of taking air into the lungs; breathing in.

Inhalation toxicity: The toxicity of a pesticide when breathed in through the lungs.

Inhibitor: A pesticide used to prevent or suppress growth or other physiological processes in plants. Also called a "growth inhibitor". See **Growth regulator**.

Inject: To force a pesticide into a plant, animal, building, other structure, or the soil.

Inorganic pesticides: Pesticides which do not contain carbon.

Insect: A small invertebrate animal with three body regions and six jointed legs; may have two, four, or no wings.

Insecticide: A pesticide used to control insects.

Integrated pest management (IPM): The management of pest problems using a combination of ecologically-sound approaches.

Invertebrate: The very large group of animals that lack backbones. Insects, jellyfish, starfish, shellfish, squid, and spiders are examples.

Kg: Kilogram. A metric weight measurement equal to 1,000 grams or approximately 2.2 pounds.

Label: Technical information about a pesticide in the form of printed material attached to or printed on the pesticide container.



Glossary

Labeling: Technical information about the pesticide in the form of printed material provided by the manufacturer or its agent, including the label, flyers, handouts, leaflets, and brochures.

Larvae: Immature forms of invertebrate organisms. In insects, the forms that appear after hatching from eggs and before becoming a pupae.

Larvicide: A pesticide used to kill larvae, usually of insects.

LC₅₀: The median lethal concentration of an active ingredient of a pesticide, i.e., the concentration of an active ingredient at which 50% of a group of test animals will die. LC₅₀ is usually used to describe toxicity of pesticides in the air as gasses, dusts, or mists. LC₅₀ is ordinarily expressed as parts per million (ppm) when the material is a gas, and micrograms per liter (mg/l) when a dust or mist. It is often used as the measure of Acute inhalation toxicity. As with all such indicators of toxicity, the lower the value, the more poisonous the pesticide.

LD₅₀: The median lethal dose of an active ingredient of a pesticide, i.e., the dose of an active ingredient at which 50% of a group of test animals will die. LD₅₀ is usually used to describe toxicity of pesticides in liquid form. Toxicity generally is expressed in milligrams of pesticide per kilogram of body weight (mg/kg). It is often used to measure Acute oral toxicity or Acute dermal toxicity. As with all such indicators of toxicity, the lower the value, the more poisonous the pesticide.

Leaching: The movement of a substance downward or out of the soil as the result of water movement.

Legal residue: A residue on a food crop for which a pesticide tolerance has been established and that is less than the permitted level.

Lethal: Causing or capable of causing death.

Liter: A metric measurement of volume equal to one cubic decimeter or, when dealing with liquid measurement, a little more than one quart.

Low concentrate solution (S): A solution that contains a low concentration of active ingredient in a highly refined oil. These solutions are usually purchased as stock sprays and space sprays and for use in aerosol generators.

Low pressure boom sprayer: A machine that delivers low to moderate volumes of pesticide at pressures of 30–60 psi. These sprayers most often are used for field and forage crops, pastures, and rights-of-way. Compare to **hydraulic sprayer**.

Low volume air sprayer: A machine similar to an Air blast sprayer, but with somewhat lower water volume and higher air velocity. This combination produces extremely fine droplets. Same as **Mist blower**.

Low volume spray: A spray application of 5–20 gallons per acre.

Mammals: Warm-blooded animals that nourish their young with milk and have skin that is more or less covered with hair.



Glossary

Mechanical agitation: The stirring, paddling, or swirling action of a device which keeps a pesticide and any additives mixed in a spray tank.

Metabolism: The sum of the physical and biological processes in an organism by which chemicals are usually converted to energy and heat.

Metamorphosis: Changes in the shape, form, structure, and size of insects during their life cycle.

Metric: A system of measurement used by most of the world. The USA is one of the few nations in the world not to have adopted the metric system completely. Meters, grams, and liters are examples of metric units of measure.

Milligram (mg): A metric weight measurement equal to 1/1,000th of a gram; approximately 28,500 mg equal one ounce.

Milligrams per kilogram (mg/kg): A measurement used to express the number of kg of a pesticide per kg of body weight of a test animal that will produce some kind of effect. The effect can be a sign of irritation, evidence of illness, or death.

Microbial pesticide: A pesticide consisting of microorganisms or their by-products. *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis* (Bti) is an example and is considered a biorational pesticide.

Microgram: A metric weight measurement equal to 1 millionth of a gram. Approximately 28,500,000 micrograms equal one ounce.

Mist blower: Same as low volume air sprayer.

Mites: Tiny animals closely related to ticks. A mite has six legs during the larval and nymphal stages, but eight legs as adults.

Miticide: A pesticide used to control mites. A miticide is a type of **acaricide**.

Mode of action: The manner in which a pesticide affects pests, as well as non-target organisms, including people, pets, and other desirable animals.

MPH: Miles per hour.

Mutation: A change in a gene that is passed from one generation to the next. Such a change may result in a significant change in an organism, or no observable change at all.

Nematicide: A pesticide used to control nematodes. Nematicides are often applied as a soil fumigants to control nematodes infesting roots of crop plants.

Nematode: A worm-like invertebrate organism that feeds on or in plants and animals. Nematodes have many common names, including roundworms, threadworms, and eelworms. Some are microscope, some are visible to the naked eye, and many kinds are internal parasites of people and other animals.

Neurotoxicity: The poisonous effect of pesticide on nerve tissue.



Glossary

NOEL: No observable effect level; the dose of a chemical that produces no observable effects when given to animals for long periods of time.

Non-persistent: A pesticide that breaks down almost immediately, or only lasts for a few weeks or less on a treated area. The pesticide may break down by exposure to light, moisture, or microorganisms; or it may evaporate. In some situations, non-toxic breakdown products may remain.

Non-target: Any plant, animal, or other organism that is not the planned object of a pesticide application.

Nozzles: Devices that determine the flow rate, droplet size, and discharge pattern of a pesticide application. Nozzles are mounted in various ways, usually at the ends of wands or along spray booms. Types of nozzles include flat fan, even flat fan, cone, flooding, atomizing, broadcast, and solid stream.

Oils: Liquids used to carry or dilute an active ingredient in a pesticide formulation. Certain oils may be used alone in aquatic habitats to control mosquito larvae.

Oral: Anything pertaining to the mouth. In pesticide usage, a route of entry of a pesticide when ingested.

Oral toxicity: The toxicity of a pesticide when ingested.

Organic pesticide: Pesticides that contain carbon. The two major types are petroleum oils and synthetic organic pesticides.

Organism: Any living thing.

Organochlorine: Same as Chlorinated hydrocarbon.

Organophosphate: A synthetic organic pesticide that contains carbon, hydrogen, and phosphorous. It acts by inhibiting the blood enzyme cholinesterase. As a rule, organophosphates are less persistent than organochlorine pesticides. Malathion and parathion are organophosphates.

Original container: The package prepared by the manufacturer in which the pesticide is placed and then sold. The package must have a label telling what the pesticide is, how to use it safely and correctly, and how to safely and legally dispose of the empty container.

Parasite: An organism that lives on, and at the expense of another organism (called the host). The host may be harmed by the parasite, and if the host is a desirable plant or animal the parasite is also a pest. If the host is a pest, the parasite is a biological control agent.

Pathogen: A disease-producing microorganism.

Persistent: A pesticide remains in the environment for a long time.



Glossary

Persistent: A pesticide remains in the environment for a long time.

Pest: An undesirable organism for any one of a variety of reasons. Pests compete with people for food and fiber or attack people, pets, domestic animals, and desirable wildlife directly. Pests can be weeds, insects, rodents, birds, microbial organisms, snails, and many other organisms.

Pesticide: A chemical substance or other agent used to control, destroy, or prevent damage by or protect something from a pest.

Pesticide tolerance: The amount of pesticide residue that may legally remain on a food or feed. The EPA sets pesticide tolerances, and the FDA enforces them.

Petroleum oils: Pesticides refined from crude oil for use as pesticides.

pH: A measurement scale based on the hydrogen ion concentration of a solution used to express its acidity or alkalinity. Pure distilled water has a pH of 7 (=neutral), a solution with a pH less than 7 is acidic, a pH more than 7 is alkaline.

Pheromones: Chemicals produced by insects and other animals to communicate with other members of the same species, or synthetic chemicals that function as pheromones. Some are used as pesticides that act by confusing communication individuals. They are also used as attractants either in surveillance programs or in control programs.

Physiological: Having to do with the mechanisms of body function of organisms.

Phytotoxic: Harmful to plants.

Poison: A chemical or material that can cause injury or death when eaten, absorbed, or inhaled by plants or animals, including people.

Pollutant: A harmful chemical or waste material discharged into the water, soil, or atmosphere; an agent that makes something dirty or impure.

Potency: The strength of something. The potency of a pesticide expresses how toxic it is.

Ppb: Parts per billion. Usually describes the amount of a chemical present in soil or water determined by modern analysis.

Ppm: Parts per million. Used in the same way as ppb but expresses a lower concentration.

Predacide: A pesticide used to control vertebrate predators (usually coyotes).

Predator: An insect or other animal that attacks, feeds on, and destroys other insects or animals. When predators attack pests they are biological control agents. When coyotes attack sheep, they are pests.

Product: The pesticide as it is packaged and sold; it usually contains an active ingredient plus adjuvants.

Properties: The characteristics of a pesticide.

Glossary

Protective gear: Clothing, materials, or devices that offer protection from exposure of applicators to pesticides. Gloves, aprons, shoes, coveralls, hats, cartridges, respirators, and gas masks are all examples of protective gear.

Psi: Pounds per square inch. A measure of pressure.

Pupa: An insect form that occurs after the final larval stage and before appearance of the adult form in insects having complete metamorphosis (flies, beetles, butterflies and moths, wasps, etc.) Pupae are usually non-feeding, and sometimes immobile (mosquitoes are an exception).

Pyrethrin: The insecticidally-active chemical component of pyrethrum insecticides. Both the active ingredient and the insecticide are sometimes called pyrethrins. The correct usage would be to refer to the former as pyrethrin, the latter as pyrethrum.

Pyrethroids: Synthetic compounds produced for their chemical resemblance and insecticidal similarity to pyrethrin.

Rate: The amount of a pesticide (or pesticide formulation) that is delivered in a pesticide application. Rates are expressed in units of volume or weight per units of area or time (e.g., gallons per acre, pounds per acre, gallons per minute, etc.).

Recommendation: A suggestion from or advice given by a Farm Advisor, Extension Specialist, or other agricultural authority.

Repellent: A pesticide that makes pests leave or avoid a treated area, surface, animal, or plant.

Residual pesticide: A pesticide remaining in the environment for a long time. Some residual pesticides may continue to be effective for days, weeks, and months.

Residue: The amount of pesticide that remains on or in a crop or animal or on a surface after it has been treated. Residues are usually measured in ppm. Compare to **Deposit**.

Resistant: Refers to an organism that is able to survive pesticide doses that are fatal to susceptible organisms of the same species.

Respirator: A face mask which filters out poisonous gases and particles from the air, enabling a person to breathe and work safely. Respirators are used to protect the nose, mouth, and lungs from pesticide poisoning.

Respiratory: Having to do with breathing and oxygen uptake.

Respiratory toxicity: The toxicity of a pesticide when inhaled.

Restricted use pesticide: A pesticide that has been classified by the EPA for use only by an appropriately certified applicator.

Rodent: Any animal of the order Rodentia. Examples include mice, rats, squirrels, gophers, woodchucks.

Rodenticide: A pesticide used to control rodents.

Runoff: The sprayed liquid which does not remain on a plant or sprayed surface.

Glossary

Selective pesticide: A type of pesticide that is more toxic to some types of plants or animals than to others. An herbicide that kills crabgrass in a cornfield but does not injure the corn is an example of a selective pesticide.

Sensitive: Easily injured or affected by; susceptible to pesticidal effects at low dosage. Many broadleaved plants are sensitive to 2,4-D.

Sensitive areas: Locations where pesticide applications could cause great harm. Applications in sensitive areas should be done with extreme care and caution. Examples include streams, ponds, houses, barns, parks, etc.

Shock: The severe reaction of the human body to a serious injury. Shock can lead to death if not treated (even if the actual injury was not a fatal one).

Short-term pesticide: A pesticide that breaks down quickly after application into nontoxic byproducts. Same as **Non-persistent**.

Signal words: Words which must appear on pesticide labels to indicate the toxicity class to which they belong. Allowable words are **Caution**, **Warning**, and **Danger-Poison**. The skull and cross bones symbol must appear with the signal words **Danger-Poison**.

Sign: Evidence of exposure to a dangerous pesticide or other disease process in a plant or animal that is observable by a person other than the plant or animal affected. In people, signs are observable by others even if the person affected is unconscious. In other animals and in plants, only signs are available as evidence of poisoning or illness. Compare to **Symptom**.

Slurry: A thick suspension of a pesticide made from a wettable powder and water. See **Wettable powder**.

Soluble: A characteristic of a material capable of dissolving in a liquid.

Soluble powder (SP): A dry preparation of finely-ground powder containing a relatively high concentration (15%–95%) of active ingredient that dissolves in water (or another liquid) and forms a solution so that it can be applied.

Solution: The mixture of a substance into another substance (usually a liquid) in which all ingredients are completely dissolved without their chemical characteristics changing. True solutions do not settle out or separate in normal use. Sugar mixed in water is an example of a solution.

Solvent: A liquid that will dissolve other substances to form a solution. When sugar is dissolved in water, the sugar is the solute, the water is the solvent.

Species: A group of populations of potentially interbreeding living organisms. Since passage of the endangered species act, the definition has been broadened to consider a population having some demonstrable stable difference from another population as a species in the legal sense, even if the populations are potentially interbreeding.



Glossary

Spiders: Small to moderately large animals classified in the Class Arachnida. Spiders are closely related to mites and ticks, and along with insects are classified as arthropods.

Spillage: Any escape, leakage, dripping, or running over of a pesticide.

Spore: An inactive form of a micro-organism that can become active again.

Spot treatment: A pesticide application directed at a small area, such as at specific plants. Opposite of general application. Spot treatments are commonly used in pest control operations in homes and other indoor situations.

Stomach toxicant: A pesticide which kills an animal when ingested.

Supplement: Any substance added to a pesticide to improve its performance. Same as **Adjuvant**.

Surfactant: Same as surface active agent. Surfactants improve the emulsifying, dispersing, spreading, and wetting properties of pesticides.

Susceptibility: The degree to which an organism can be injured or affected by a pesticide at a known dosage.

Susceptible species: A species of organisms that is capable of being injured, diseased, or poisoned by a pesticide; not immune.

Suspension: A pesticide formulation in which finely divided solid particles are mixed in a liquid.

Suspension of a pesticide registration: Suspensions occur when the EPA determines that an imminent hazard is posed by a pesticide. During the suspension process the pesticide in question may be marketed.

Swath: The width of ground covered by a sprayer when it moves across a field or other treated area.

Symptom: A feeling of unhealthiness that can be expressed by a person. It may represent a warning of pesticide poisoning.

Synergists: Materials that are not necessarily pesticidal by themselves but have the effect of increasing the toxicity of insecticides with which they are mixed. Example: **PBO**.

Synthetic organic pesticides: Man-made pesticides that contain carbon, hydrogen, and other elements.

Target pest: A population of pests at which a pesticide application or other control method is directed.

Toxic dose (TD): The dose of a chemical that produces signs of toxicity.

Technical grade: A pesticide as it is manufactured by a chemical company before formulation. Commonly used in toxicology laboratories for tests of various kinds.

Thermal: Of, about, or related to heat.

Ticks: Small blood-sucking arthropods belonging to the Class Arachnida (spiders, ticks, and mites). They resemble some insects, to which they are related, but they have eight jointed legs, two body regions, no antennae (feelers), and no wings. As vectors of disease organisms, their importance is second only to mosquitoes.

Glossary

Tolerance: The legal limit of the amount of pesticide that may remain in or on foods marketed in the USA. Tolerances are established by the EPA and enforced and monitored by the FDA.

Toxic: Poisonous to plants and animals, including people.

Toxicant: A Poison; an agent capable of being toxic.

Toxicity: How poisonous a pesticide is to an organism; the innate ability of a pesticide to produce injury. Test animals are used to establish dermal, inhalation, and oral toxicities.

Toxin: A poison produced by a plant or animal.

Treated area: A house, barn, field, forest, garden, greenhouse, or other place where a pesticide application has been made.

ULV: Ultra low volume. An application of a pesticide at a rate of less than $\frac{1}{2}$ gallon per acre (5 liters per hectare). Because the volumes be sprayed are so small, extremely low doses of insecticide result, even when the pesticides are sprayed undiluted.

Uniform coverage: The even application of a pesticide over an entire area, plant, or animal.

Upwind: A relative location of a person with his or her back towards the direction of a prevailing wind.

USDA: The US Department of Agriculture.

Vapor: Gas, steam, mist, fog, fume, or smoke.

Vector: A vehicle for transporting a disease-producing organism (pathogen) from one host to another. In vector ecology, the most common vectors are insects and other arthropods. Vectors can transfer pathogens from one animal to another, and from one plant to another.

Vertebrate: An animal with a backbone (bony spinal column) Mammals, fish, birds, snakes, and frogs are vertebrates.

Virus: A microorganism that can grow and reproduce only in living cells of other organisms. Often, viruses cause diseases in their hosts and are then pathogens.

Warning: The signal word used on pesticide labels to designate a pesticide that is moderately toxic. (**Toxicity Category II**).

Weathering: The wearing away of pesticides from the surfaces they were applied to because of wind, rain, snow, ice, and heat.

Weed: A plant growing where it is not wanted.

Weed control: Eradication, inhibition, or limitation of weeds, weed growth, or weed infestations, actions taken to prevent weeds from interfering with crop profitability or the efficiency of other operations.

Wettable powder (WP or W): A dry (powder) preparation that is mixed with water to form a suspension that is used for spraying. Unlike a Soluble powder, it does not dissolve in water. Suspensions must be added to tanks that have already been partially filled with water, and the mixture must be agitated in some way to avoid lumpy formulations that can clog nozzles and result in improper application.)