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Critical Review of Henry's Law Constants for Pesticides

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I. Introduction

Pesticides play an important role in maintaining agricultural productivity, but they may also be causes of contamination of air, water, soil, and food, with possible adverse effects on human and animal health. The proper use of pesticide chemicals must be based on an understanding of the behavior of the chemicals as they interact with air, water, soil, and biota, react or degrade, and migrate. This behavior is strongly influenced by the chemicals' physical-chemical properties of solubility in water, vapor pressure or volatility, and tendency to sorb to organic and mineral matter in the soil.

Reviews of such physical-chemical properties have been compiled by Kenaga (1980), Kenaga and Goring (1980), Briggs (1981), and Bowman and Sans (1983) for aqueous solubility, octanol-water partition coefficient, bio-accumulation, and soil sorption; Spencer and Cliath (1970, 1973, 1983), and Spencer (1976) for vapor pressure and volatilization from soil.

In this chapter we compile and discuss data for Henry's Law constant H (which is the ratio of solute partial pressure in the air to the equilibrium water concentration and thus has units of Pa m³/mol) or the air-water partition

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coefficient K_{AW} which is the dimensionless ratio of air and water concentrations. Both H and K_{AW} are used to describe air-water partitioning of the solutes including pesticides (Mackay and Shiu, 1981).

The Henry's Law constant (HLC) is important in several respects. As is discussed more fully later, the tendency of a chemical to volatilize from water solution to air is largely determined by the HLC, a high value favouring volatilization. Chemicals of low HLC may persist in soil, surface, or groundwaters. If the HLC is large, the chemical may be analyzed by head space analysis or gas stripping. Samples of water containing chemicals of large HLC must be handled carefully to avoid vapor loss. Aquatic bioassays and other tests involving these chemicals must be carefully designed and controlled to avoid loss of chemical. Air-water partitioning is also important in studies of pesticide associations with rain, cloudwater, fogwater, dew, and in the alveoli of the human and other animal lungs.

It is noteworthy that air and water are the ubiquitous, fluid, mobile components of the environment. Many pesticides (and other man-made chemicals) are known to move, as vapor, between the atmosphere and soil, plant, and water surfaces. The direction of this transfer is dictated by the fugacity of each component of the system, which in turn is controlled by the HLC. Thus, pesticides volatilize from treated soil and plant surfaces and their vapors are transported away, often to distant locations by atmospheric movement. Once outside the treated area the vapors may be reabsorbed by "dry deposition." "Wet deposition" also occurs when the atmospheric vapors partition into, and are brought to the soil surface by rain. The processes of wet deposition, dry deposition, and volatilization are all influenced in rate by the HLC.

Pesticide volatilization from soil has been extensively studied. Transport upward through the soil to the soil-atmosphere interface occurs by either gaseous diffusion through the air-filled volume of the soil, or by the upward flow of soil solution induced by water evaporation. In either case, the concentration in soil-air at the surface will be governed by soil water-air equilibrium, i.e., by Henry's Law, and such partitioning is a major determinant of the rate of pesticide volatilization from soil.

When attempting to model this process it is commonly assumed that a thin boundary layer of near-stagnant air exists between the atmosphere and the soil surface, across which transport occurs by molecular diffusion. Thus, no matter how the chemical migrates upwards to the soil surface, the pesticide flux to the atmosphere will be essentially determined by the product of the diffusion coefficient and the concentration gradient across the laminar layer. Model calculations predict that this boundary layer resistance may lead to the accumulation of compounds with very low HLCs at the soil surface, because these compounds can establish only very low concentrations in the soil air and thus very slow fluxes across the boundary layer (Jury et al., 1984).

An analogous modeling from water surface model (Liss and Slater, 1971) connected by two thin boundary water phase, across which Transport through one or step in volatilization or at the magnitude of the HLC

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where C_A is the total vapor rate (m/hr), and W_g is (g/m^3)_{air}]. If the pesticide W_g is the reciprocal of the equals $1/K_{AW}$. If washout Equation 1 that the half-directly proportional to t

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An analogous modeling approach may be used for calculations of volatilization from water surfaces. The conventional "two resistance" or "two film" model (Liss and Slater, 1974) assumes that the well-mixed bulk phases are connected by two thin boundary layers, one in the air phase and one in the water phase, across which transport only occurs by molecular diffusion. Transport through one or both of these two films is thus the rate controlling step in volatilization or adsorption. The relative resistances are controlled by the magnitude of the HLC.

As described earlier, the so-called "dry deposition," or adsorption of atmospheric pesticides at soil and water surfaces, is a process that is largely dependent upon the HLC. Wet deposition also removes pesticides from the atmosphere. In this process, pesticides dissolve in rain and are brought to the surface with the precipitation. The flux N ($\text{g}/\text{m}^2 \text{ hr}$) of a vapor-phase pesticide from the atmosphere to the surface with rain is given by

$$N = W_g C_A K_p \quad (1)$$

where C_A is the total vapor-phase concentration (g/m^3), K_p is the precipitation rate (m/hr), and W_g is the vapor-phase washout coefficient, $[(\text{g}/\text{m}^3)_{\text{rain}}/(\text{g}/\text{m}^3)_{\text{air}}]$. If the pesticide forms an ideal dilute solution in the raindrop, then W_g is the reciprocal of the air-water partition coefficient or HLC, i.e. W_g equals $1/K_{AW}$. If washout is a first-order process, then it can be shown from Equation 1 that the half-life of a pesticide in the atmosphere during rain is directly proportional to the HLC.

Atmospheric washout coefficients have been extensively studied. It is clear that W_g contains contributions from both particle and vapor scavenging; thus the relationship between W_g and K_{AW} is variable and not entirely predictable. Ligocki et al. (1985) found excellent agreement between K_{AW}^{-1} and W_g provided the temperature dependence of K_{AW} was taken into account. Bidleman and Christensen (1979), on the other hand, found that W_g for PCBs and DDT were much greater than K_{AW}^{-1} , which they interpreted as evidence of attachment and washout upon atmospheric particles. Williams (1986) recently measured the washout of a group of pesticides whose H spanned five orders of magnitude. He found that K_{AW}^{-1} was at best only a semi-quantitative predictor of W_g . This issue has also been discussed by Mackay et al. (1986).

There are problems with the way in which these washout coefficients are determined. Air concentrations are normally measured at ground level and compared to concentrations in rain that forms at some height in the atmosphere. This raises questions about the extent to which equilibrium is attained and if indeed the air and rain samples are representative of the same mass of air. Glotfelty et al. (1987) recently reported measurements of the air-water distribution of pesticides in fog, a situation in which equilibrium should be attained, and the water and air samples are undoubtedly taken from the same

mass of air. They found that the HLC was a poor predictor of the air-water distribution. Volatile, hydrophobic pesticides were enriched in the aqueous phase as much as several thousand times greater than predicted by H . It appears that, in the case of fog, the assumption of ideal dilute solution properties is invalid.

In summary, the HLC plays a critical role in determining the environmental dynamics of chemicals in general and pesticides in particular. Although in certain areas the role of the HLC remains obscure, it is clear that elucidating the nature of these roles requires accurate values of this parameter. Accordingly, in this chapter we examine first the thermodynamic background to HLCs, discuss methods of experimental determinations, then present a compilation of data.

II. Thermodynamic Basis

A fairly complete account of the thermodynamic basis has been presented by Mackay and Shiu (1981) and only a brief review of the salient points is given here.

A chemical achieves equilibrium between air and water when its chemical potential or fugacity (f) is equal in each phase. Applying the conventional Raoult's Law expression (Prausnitz, 1969) gives

$$f = y\phi P_T = x\gamma P_L^s \quad (2)$$

where f is fugacity (Pa), y is mole fraction in vapor phase, ϕ is the fugacity coefficient (which is usually unity for nonassociating chemicals at low pressure), P_T is total (atmospheric) pressure (e.g., 101,325 Pa), x is mole fraction in the liquid phase, γ is the activity coefficient in the liquid phase (on a Raoult's Law basis such that γ is 1.0 when x is 1.0), and P_L^s is the vapor pressure (Pa) of the pure chemical in the liquid (or subcooled liquid) state. The group yP_T is P the partial pressure of the chemical (Pa). The concentration in the air phase C_A is yP_T/RT where R is the gas constant (8.314 Pa m³/mol K) and T is absolute temperature (K). The concentration in the water phase C_W is x/v where v is the molar volume (m³/mol) of the solution. In dilute solution v approaches that of water, i.e., 18×10^{-6} m³/mol.

Three expressions for HLC are commonly used,

$$P = HC_W \quad (3)$$

$$P = \bar{H}x \quad (4)$$

$$\text{or } C_A = K_{AW}C_W \quad (5)$$

H has units of Pa/(mol/m³) or Pa m³/mol, \bar{H} has units of Pa, and K_{AW} is dimensionless and is often referred to as the air-water partition coefficient.

These HLCs are thus defined as follows

$$H = P/C_w = yP_T/(x/v) = v\gamma P_L^s \quad (6)$$

$$\bar{H} = P/x = yP_T/x = \gamma P_L^s \quad (7)$$

$$K_{AW} = C_A/C_w = (yP_T/RT)/(x/v) = v\gamma P_L^s/RT \quad (8)$$

Clearly H is $\bar{H}v$ and K_{AW} is H/RT . In principle the required data are thus v , γ , and P_L^s . In practice the usually available data are water solubility and vapor pressure.

For a liquid chemical, if the solubility of water in the liquid is negligible then at saturation the fugacity is P_L^s and the product γx must be unity, or γ is $1/x^s$ where x^s is the mole fraction solubility. Alternatively γ is $1/vC_w^s$ where C_w^s is the solubility in units of mol/m³ and v is the molar volume of the saturated aqueous solution. If water is appreciably soluble in the chemical this expression becomes invalid, because the water-saturated chemical exerts a different (and probably lower) fugacity than the pure liquid chemical. A better estimate of this fugacity is $P_L^s(1 - x_w)$ where x_w is the mole fraction solubility of water in the chemical. The expression for γ then becomes $(1 - x_w)/vC_w^s$.

For a solid chemical the fugacity is that of the solid P_S^s which is less than that of the liquid. An estimate of the ratio of solid/liquid vapor pressure (or fugacity ratio F) can be obtained from

$$F = P_S^s/P_L^s = \exp[-\Delta S((T_M/T) - 1)/R] = \exp[-0.023(T_M - 298)] \quad (9)$$

where ΔS is the entropy of fusion. Some ΔS measurements are available for pesticides determined by differential scanning calorimetry (e.g., Plato and Glasgow 1969; Plato 1972). When no experimental value is available an estimate of 56 J/mol K is generally adopted, but it should be recognized that ΔS can vary substantially from this figure (Yalkowsky, 1979). It follows that

$$\gamma = F/x^s = F/C_S^s v \quad (10)$$

The use of solubility as a source of information on γ results in the following expressions for H

$$\text{liquids } H = v\gamma P_L^s = P_L^s/C_L^s \text{ or } P_L^s(1 - x_w)/C_L^s \quad (11)$$

$$\text{solids } H = v\gamma P_L^s = FP_L^s/C_S^s = P_S^s/C_S^s = P_L^s/C_L^s \quad (12)$$

because FP_L^s equals P_S^s the solid vapor pressure, i.e., F equals both P_S^s/P_L^s and C_S^s/C_L^s .

The Henry's Law constant is thus conveniently calculated as the ratio of the liquid vapor pressure and solubility, or the solid vapor pressure and solubility. It is a mistake to mix a solid and a liquid property. The use of this ratio is equivalent to assuming that a plot of partial pressure versus concen-

tration is linear extending from the origin to the saturation point P^s , C^s which may be either of the liquid or solid. Implicit in this are the assumptions:

- i. The solubility of water in the chemical is so small that it negligibly affects the vapor pressure;
- ii. The activity coefficient γ does not vary appreciably with concentration.

These assumptions break down when water is appreciably (e.g., > 5% mol) soluble in the chemical or when the chemical is appreciably (e.g., > 5% mol) soluble in water.

This approach breaks down completely for chemicals which are miscible with water and thus have no reported solubility (e.g., ethanol). In such cases H or γ must be determined by another method, such as direct measurement of HLC or by estimating γ from other measurable quantity or from correlations or predictive procedures.

In summary, for solid or liquid chemicals which display little mutual miscibility with water, H is conveniently estimated as P^s/C^s or P_L^s/C_L^s , or it can be measured as P/C . For appreciably water miscible systems it is best to measure H as P/C , although an estimate of H can be made as $P_L^s(1 - x_w)/C_L^s$. For water miscible systems H can only be estimated as P/C or as $v\gamma P_L^s$ provided that data for γ can be located.

A rigorous procedure is to measure P^s , C^s , and H and perform a consistency check. Obviously the data must be at the same temperature since all three quantities are temperature dependent, especially P^s and H .

III. Experimental Determination

A. From Solubility and Vapor Pressure

As discussed earlier, if the mutual miscibility of water and the chemical is less than a few mole percent, H can be estimated from experimentally determined solubilities and vapor pressures. The preferred methods involve flow of air or water through "generator columns," as described by May et al. (1978a,b) for water and Spencer and Cliath (1969, 1983) for air. Gas chromatographic methods can also be used for determining vapor pressure (Bidleman, 1984).

B. From Equilibrium Closed Conditions

Lincoff and Gossett (1984), and Gossett (1987) have developed a "Equilibrium Partitioning in Closed System" (EPICS) method that is very suitable for chemicals of high HLC, i.e., H is > 100 Pa m³/mol. Essentially it involves measurement of gas headspace concentration ratio from pairs of sealed bottles containing differing liquid volumes after equilibrium is reached.

C. From Equilibrium Flow Conditions

Mackay et al. (1979) devised a flow system in which the concentration of the chemical in water is measured as a function of time as it is stripped with a

steady stream of gas. This Millicic (1985), and Yin & Mackay (1984) which is suitable for mea-

A very simple, approximate method for determining the chemical in water, p-mental temperature cond and in the liquid can be 1 the chemical, which can concentration of the che depleted in the liquid) the is the vapor pressure of w i.e., 55,000 mol/m³), an potential for volatilization

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Table 3 gives the vap As discussed by Spencer a exhibit wide discrepanci dieldrin at 20° varies fro (Atkins and Eggleton, 19 chosen from data on the column (Hamilton 1980; I 1984; Kim et al. 1984) wi known reliable vapor pr subcooled liquid vapor pr mentally determined He: Table 3. Therefore, Henr C_L 's and P_L 's. Table 4 giv properties of 96 pesticide

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steady stream of gas. This avoids the need for gas phase analysis. Hassett and Millicic (1985), and Yin and Hassett (1986) have developed a similar system which is suitable for measuring the HLCs in natural waters.

D. Distillation

A very simple, approximate method of estimating H is to distill a solution of the chemical in water, possibly under reduced pressure to obtain environmental temperature conditions. The ratio of water to chemical in the vapor and in the liquid can be used to estimate the relative volatility of water and the chemical, which can be shown to be the ratio of their HLCs. If the concentration of the chemical is enhanced in the vapor or distillate (and depleted in the liquid) the HLC of the chemical exceeds that of water (which is the vapor pressure of water divided by the concentration of water in water i.e., 55,000 mol/m³), and vice versa. This is useful as a simple screen of potential for volatilization loss.

IV. Data Analysis

Table 1 gives the chemical name, synonym, and other physical data for 96 pesticides. Molar volume was calculated using the Le Bas method (Reid et al., 1979) which is a group additive method. Fugacity ratio was calculated with equation 9 using an average entropy of fusion $\Delta S = 56 \text{ J/mol K}$ (Yalkowsky, 1979).

Table 2 gives the aqueous solubility at specific temperature and octanol/water partition coefficient ($\log K_{ow}$). The selected value of solubility is also given and then converted to subcooled liquid solubility C_L (mol/m³) with the fugacity ratio when the chemical is a solid at room temperature. A plot of $\log C_L$ versus molar volume (Fig. 1) shows a decrease in solubility as molar volume increase in a linear relationship as reported earlier by Miller et al. (1984), Shiu and Mackay (1986) for aromatic hydrocarbons and PCBs.

Table 3 gives the vapor pressures and their methods of determination. As discussed by Spencer and Cliath (1983), the reported vapor pressures often exhibit wide discrepancies between different authors, e.g., vapor pressure of dieldrin at 20° varies from $2.37 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Pa}$ (Martin, 1971) to $3.87 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa}$ (Atkins and Eggleton, 1971). The selected vapor pressure value was usually chosen from data on the gas chromatographic retention time on a nonpolar column (Hamilton 1980; Ripley 1983; Westcott and Bidleman 1981; Bidleman 1984; Kim et al. 1984) with respect to a structurally similar compound with known reliable vapor pressure. All vapor pressures were also converted to subcooled liquid vapor pressures P_L (Pa). There are very few reported experimentally determined Henry's law constants for pesticides as indicated in Table 3. Therefore, Henry's law constants were calculated from the selected C_L 's and P_L 's. Table 4 gives complete summarized selected physical-chemical properties of 96 pesticides.

$$K_{aw} = \frac{H}{RT} \quad RT = 2.437 \times 10^3 \text{ Pa cm}^3/\text{mol}$$

Table 4. Summary of selected values of pesticides

20°C K_{aw}	Name	MW	mp, $^\circ\text{C}$	Molar volume LeBas method cm^3/mol	Fugacity ratio F at 20°C	Vapor pressure $P_L^* = P_L^*/F$ Pa	Solubility $C_L^* = C_L^*/F$ mol/m^3	$\log K_{ow}$	$H, \text{Pa m}^3/\text{mol}$ calc'd from at 20°C
3.2×10^{-3}	Acrolein (H)	56.06	-88	66.6	1	28700	3710.31	-0.1	7.74
2.5×10^{-4}	Alachlor (H)	269.77	41	240.7	0.62	0.0048	0.78	2.8	0.0062
1.5×10^{-7}	Aldicarb (I)	190.25	99-100	224.3	0.16	0.063	197.11	1.1	0.00032
3.7×10^{-7}	Aldrin (I)	364.93	104	316.8	0.14	0.036	0.00039	3.0	91.23
4.9×10^{-8}	Ametryn (H)	227.35	84-85	277.5	0.22	0.00045	3.70		0.00012
1.2×10^{-7}	Atrazine (H)	214.68	174	250.6	0.028	0.0014	4.99	2.4	0.00029
1.3×10^{-6}	Azinphosmethyl (I)	317.34	73-74	270.4	0.29	0.0010	0.33	2.7	0.0032
5.5×10^{-4}	Benfen	335.30	65-66.5	295.9	0.34	0.012	0.0088		1.34
7.8×10^{-7}	Bromacil (H)	261.11	158-159	193.1	0.04	0.125	64.15	2.0	0.0019
2.3×10^{-4}	Butylate (H)	217.37	Liquid	280.9	1	0.10	0.18		0.56
2.5×10^{-4}	Captan (F)	300.60	178	250.5	0.026	0.038	0.064	1.8	0.60
5.3×10^{-7}	Carbaryl (I)	201.22	142	218.7	0.059	0.0034	2.70	2.3	0.0013
2.1×10^{-7}	Carbofuran (I)	221.30	150-152	240.8	0.048	0.031	61.19	1.6	0.00051
1.9×10^{-5}	Carbophenothion (I)	342.85	Liquid	323.2	1	0.000040	0.00088	5.1	0.046
3.7×10^{-3}	Chlordane (I)	409.80	103-105	336.5	0.14	0.0079	0.00087	3.0	9.02
1.1×10^{-7}	Chlorfenvinphos (I)	359.56	-19	321.4	1	0.00010	0.36	3.1	0.00028
8.1×10^{-2}	Chloropicrin (I, F)	164.39	-64	105.2	1	2400	12.17		197.27
8.6×10^{-7}	Chlorpropham (H)	213.68	40.7-41.1	232.4	0.63	0.0016	0.74	3.1	0.0021
7.2×10^{-7}	Chlorpyrifos (I)	350.57	41-42	298.8	0.6	0.0025	0.0014	5.0	1.75
2.2×10^{-4}	2,4-D (H)	221.04	135-138	209.8	0.036	27.78	50.27		0.55
2.4×10^{-4}	<i>o,p'</i> -DDD (I)	320.00	112	312.6	0.12	0.0017	0.0026	6.1	0.64
2.6×10^{-4}	<i>p,p'</i> -DDD (I)	320.00	112	312.6	0.12	0.00083	0.0013	5.5	0.64
1.0×10^{-3}	<i>o,p'</i> -DDE (I)	318.00	88-90	305.2	0.2	0.0040	0.0016	5.8	2.54
3.3×10^{-3}	<i>p,p'</i> -DDE (I)	318.00	88-90	305.2	0.2	0.0050	0.00063	5.7	7.95
9.7×10^{-4}	DDT (I)	354.50	108.5-109	333.5	0.13	0.00015	0.00065	6.0	2.36
	Demeton (I)	258.34	Liquid	264.8	1	0.030	0.23		0.13
	Dialifor (I)	393.84	67-69	350.8	0.33	0.00020	0.0014	4.7	0.14
	Diallate (H)	270.24	25-30	305.1	0.83	0.016	0.062		0.25
	Diazinon (I)	304.36	Liquid	320.2	1	0.0080	0.12	3.3	0.067
	Dicamba (H)	221.04	114-116	207.9	0.11	0.027	230.32	0.5	0.00012
	Dicaphthon (I)	297.68	62-53	228.4	0.47	0.0011	0.045	3.6	0.024
	Dichlobenil (H)	172.02	144-145	148.9	0.055	1.27	1.90	2.9	0.67
	Dichlofenthion (I)	315.17	Liquid	281.1	1	25.00	0.00079	5.1	31645.57
	Dichlorvos (I)	220.98	Liquid	167.5	1	7.00	36.2	1.5	0.19
	Dieldrin (I)	380.93	176-177	318.2	0.026	0.019	0.017	3.7	1.12

Carbofuran (I)	221.30	150-152	240.8	0.048	0.031	61.19	1.6	0.00051
Carbophenothion (I)	342.85	Liquid	323.2	1	0.000040	0.00088	5.1	0.046
Chlordane (I)	409.80	103-105	336.5	0.14	0.00079	0.00087	3.0	9.02
Chlorfenvinphos (I)	359.56	-19	321.4	1	0.00010	0.36	3.1	0.00028
Chloropicrin (I, F)	164.39	-64	105.2	1	2400	12.17		197.27
Chlorpropham (H)	213.68	40.7-41.1	232.4	0.63	0.0016	0.74	3.1	0.0021
Chlorpyrifos (I)	350.57	41-42	298.8	0.6	0.0025	0.0014	5.0	1.75
2,4-D (H)	221.04	135-138	209.8	0.036	27.78	50.27		0.55
<i>o,p'</i> -DDD (I)	320.00	112	312.6	0.12	0.0017	0.0026	6.1	0.64
<i>p,p'</i> -DDD (I)	320.00	112	312.6	0.12	0.00083	0.0013	5.5	0.64
<i>o,p'</i> -DDE (I)	318.00	88-90	305.2	0.2	0.0040	0.0016	5.8	2.54
<i>p,p'</i> -DDE (I)	318.00	88-90	305.2	0.2	0.0050	0.00063	5.7	7.95
DDT (I)	354.50	108.5-109	333.5	0.13	0.00015	0.000065	6.0	2.36

K_{ow}

Demeton (I)	258.34	Liquid	264.8	1	0.030	0.23		0.13
Dialifor (I)	393.84	67-69	350.8	0.33	0.00020	0.0014	4.7	0.14
Diallate (H)	270.24	25-30	305.1	0.83	0.016	0.062		0.25
Diazinon (I)	304.36	Liquid	320.2	1	0.0080	0.12	3.3	0.067
Dicamba (H)	221.04	114-116	207.9	0.11	0.027	230.32	0.5	0.00012
Dicaphon (I)	297.68	62-53	228.4	0.47	0.0011	0.045	3.6	0.024
Dichlobenil (H)	172.02	144-145	148.9	0.055	1.27	1.90	2.9	0.67
Dichlofenthion (I)	315.17	Liquid	281.1	1	25.00	0.00079	5.1	31645.57
Dichlorvos (I)	220.98	Liquid	167.5	1	7.00	36.2	1.5	0.19
Dieldrin (I)	380.93	176-177	318.2	0.026	0.019	0.017	3.7	1.12
Dimethoate (I)	229.28	52-52.5	205.6	0.48	0.021	181.73	0.8	0.00011
Dinitramine	322.20	98-99	265.7	0.16	0.0025	0.016		0.16
Dinoseb (H, I)	240.22	38-42	218.0	0.63	15.87	0.31		51.11
Disulfoton (I)	274.38	108	282.1	0.13	0.15	0.70	4.0	0.22
Diuron (H)	233.10	158-159	223.8	0.04	0.0050	4.29	2.6	0.0012
DNOC	148.10	86	147.7	0.22	0.050	4.60		0.011
Endosulfan	406.95	70-100	312.8	0.22	0.0050	0.0017	3.6	2.98
Endrin (I)	380.93	208-210	318.2	0.013	0.0015	0.046	3.2	0.033
EPTC (H)	189.31	Liquid	236.5	1	2.00	1.95		1.02
Ethion (I)	384.48	-12	350.2	1	0.00015	0.0047	5.1	0.032
Fenitrothion (I)	277.25	Liquid	229.7	1	0.00040	0.11	3.4	0.0036
Fenthion (I)	278.34	Liquid	264.6	1	0.0040	0.18	4.1	0.022
Fenuron (H)	164.20	131-133	182.0	0.075	0.067	243.61	0.5	0.00027
Heptachlor (I)	373.35	95-96	308.2	0.17	0.18	0.0016	3.9	112.01
Hexachlorobenzene	284.80	231	221.4	0.0075	0.13	0.0190	6.0	7.12
Hexachlorocyclohexane	291.00							
α -BHC	291.00	157-160	243.6	0.041	0.073	0.084	3.8	0.87
β -BHC	291.00	309-310	243.6	0.0012	0.033	0.29	3.8	0.12
δ -BHC	291.00	138-139	243.6	0.064	0.031	0.43	4.1	0.073
Isophorone	138.20	-8	177.4	1	50	86.83	1.7	0.58

Table 4 (continued)

K_{ow}	Name	MW	mp, °C	Molar volume LeBas method cm ³ /mol	Fugacity ratio F at 20°C	Vapor pressure $P_L^s = P_s^s/F$ Pa	Solubility $C_L^s = C_s^s/F$ mol/m ³	log K_{ow}	H , Pa m ³ /mol calc'd from at 20°C
1.0×10^{-4}	Leptophos (I)	412.06	55-67	317.8	0.38	0.0000079	0.000032	5.9	0.25
5.3×10^{-5}	Lindane (γ -BHC)	290.85	112.5	243.6	0.12	0.025	0.19	3.8	0.13
2.2×10^{-6}	Linuron (H)	249.11	93-94	232.9	0.18	0.0078	1.45	2.2	0.0054
2.4×10^{-7}	Malathion	330.36	2.9	319.1	1	0.0010	0.44	2.8	0.0023
2.7×10^{-8}	Methomyl (I)	162.20	78-79	179.9	0.26	0.015	237.12	0.2	0.000065
1.4×10^{-4}	Methylchlorpyrifos	322.55	44.5-45.5	261.8	0.56	0.0089	0.026	4.3	0.34
8.7×10^{-6}	Methylparathion (I)	263.23	37-38	207.5	0.66	0.0030	0.14	3.0	0.0211
0.34	Mirex (I)	545.59	485	403.2	0.000021	4.76	0.0057	6.9	839.37
1.2×10^{-6}	Monuron (H)	198.65	176-177	202.9	0.026	0.12	38.72	1.8	0.0030
5.7×10^{-2}	Nitralin (H)	345.37	150-151	323.1	0.048	4.17	0.030		138.15
1.1×10^{-7}	Oxamyl (I)	219.25	100-102	212.4	0.15	0.20	760.17		0.00026
0.11	Paradichlorobenzene	147.00	53	137.8	0.47	265.96	1.01	2.4	262.5
4.9×10^{-6}	Parathion (I)	291.27	6	251.9	1	0.00060	0.051	3.8	0.012
1.8×10^{-5}	PCP (F)	266.35	190-191	207.9	0.019	0.11	2.37	4.2	0.044
4.8×10^{-3}	Pebulate (H)	203.36	Liquid	258.7	1	3.5	0.30		11.67
2.7×10^{-8}	Phenylmercuryacetate	336.75	149	151.4	0.05	0.016	237.56		0.000067
2.7×10^{-4}	Phorate (I)	260.40	-43	259.9	1	0.10	0.15	3.8	0.65
3.9×10^{-9}	Phosmet (I)	317.32	71.9	263.3	0.3	0.00020	0.21	2.8	0.00095
1.5×10^{-4}	Phosphamidon (I)	299.69	-45	283.5	1	0.0030	0.083		0.36
1.4×10^{-8}	Pictoram (H)	241.48	218-219	204.2	0.01	0.0060	178.07	0.3	0.000034
1.3×10^{-7}	Pirimor (I)	238.29	90.5	264.0	0.2	0.015	46.16		0.00032
1.6×10^{-2}	Profluralin (H)	347.30	33-36	304.7	0.71	0.013	0.00032		39.07
3.7×10^{-9}	Prometone	225.30	91-92	283.2	0.19	0.0016	17.52		0.000090
2.1×10^{-7}	Prometryn (H)	241.37	118-120	299.7	0.1	0.0010	1.99		0.00050
	Propachlor (H)	211.69	67-76	231.6	0.3	0.10	9.45	1.6	0.011
	Propanil (H)	218.09	91-93	220.1	0.19	0.026	7.24	2.0	0.0036
	Propazine (H)	230.09	213	272.8	0.011	0.00035	3.40		0.00010
	Propoxur (I)	209.24	91.5	244.7	0.19	5.26	40.25	1.5	0.13
		201.20	90.7	202.7	0.019	570.42	174.07		4.37

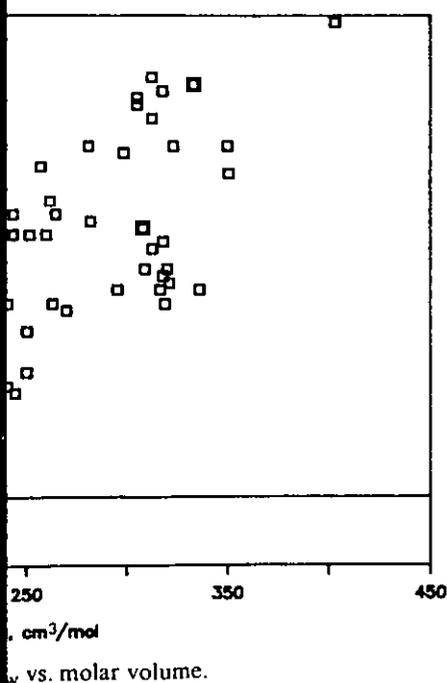
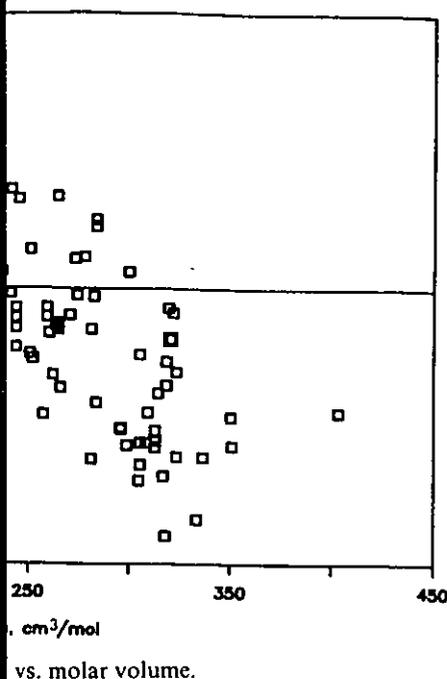
Parathion (I) 157.8
PCP (F) 147.8
Pebulate (H) 157.8
Phenylmercuriacetate 157.8
Phorate (I) 157.8
Phosmet (I) 157.8
Phosphamidon (I) 157.8
Picloram (H) 157.8
Pirimor (I) 157.8
Profluralin (H) 157.8
Prometone 157.8
Prometryn (H) 157.8

Parathion (I)	291.27	6	251.9	1	0.00060	0.051	3.8	0.012
PCP (F)	266.35	190-191	207.9	0.019	0.11	2.37	4.2	0.044
Pebulate (H)	203.36	Liquid	258.7	1	3.5	0.30		11.67
Phenylmercuriacetate	336.75	149	151.4	0.05	0.016	237.56		0.000067
Phorate (I)	260.40	-43	259.9	1	0.10	0.15	3.8	0.65
Phosmet (I)	317.32	71.9	263.3	0.3	0.00020	0.21	2.8	0.00095
Phosphamidon (I)	299.69	-45	283.5	1	0.0030	0.083		0.36
Picloram (H)	241.48	218-219	204.2	0.01	0.0060	178.07	0.3	0.000034
Pirimor (I)	238.29	90.5	264.0	0.2	0.015	46.16		0.00032
Profluralin (H)	347.30	33-36	304.7	0.71	0.013	0.00032		39.07
Prometone	225.30	91-92	283.2	0.19	0.0016	17.52		0.000090
Prometryn (H)	241.37	118-120	299.7	0.1	0.0010	1.99		0.00050

Kaw

4.5 x 10 ⁻⁶	211.69	67-76	231.6	0.3	0.10	9.45	1.6	0.011
1.5 x 10 ⁻⁶	218.09	91-93	220.1	0.19	0.026	7.24	2.0	0.0036
4.1 x 10 ⁻⁸	230.09	213	272.8	0.011	0.00035	3.40		0.00010
5.3 x 10 ⁻⁵	209.24	91.5	244.7	0.19	5.26	40.25	1.5	0.13
1.8 x 10 ⁻³	221.60	207	205.7	0.013	538.46	124.97		4.31
1.3 x 10 ⁻³	321.57	41	257.3	0.62	0.016	0.0050	4.8	3.22
1.4 x 10 ⁻⁷	225.00	86-88	283.2	0.21	0.0046	13.12		0.00035
1.4 x 10 ⁻⁷	201.67	225-227	228.4	0.0085	0.0010	2.92	1.9	0.00034
2.4 x 10 ⁻⁶	255.49	153	226.1	0.046	0.11	18.72	0.8	0.0058
7.4 x 10 ⁻⁹	216.65	175-177	217.7	0.027	0.0019	102.57	1.9	0.000018
1.4 x 10 ⁻¹⁰	163.40	59	121.8	0.41	0.0034	9702.36		0.00000035
5.3 x 10 ⁻⁷	241.40	104	273.8	0.14	0.00093	0.74		0.0013
1.7 x 10 ⁻⁴	414.00	65-90	358.2	0.26	0.0019	0.0046	3.3	0.42
4.2 x 10 ⁻⁴	304.70	29-30	314.0	0.79	0.013	0.012		1.02
7.0 x 10 ⁻¹⁰	257.45	83-84	194.9	0.23	0.0043	2600.76	0.4	0.0000017
1.6 x 10 ⁻³	335.29	46-47	295.9	0.54	0.011	0.0028	3.0	4.02
8.4 x 10 ⁻⁴	203.35	Liquid	258.7	1	0.90	0.44		2.05
3.4 x 10 ⁻⁵	248.20	-1.69	233.2	1	0.30	3.63		0.083

F, fungicide; H, herbicide; I, insecticide



The user is cautioned that while every effort has been made to avoid errors in tabulating and processing the data, there is an ever-present possibility that the data may contain error of experimental determination, temperature adjustment, change of units or transcription. The primary reference should be consulted to verify values.

The Figures are included to convey an impression of the dependence of these properties on molar volume. As expected, increases in molar volume generally cause a decrease in solubility (Fig. 1), an increase in K_{OW} (Fig. 2), a decrease in vapor pressure (Fig. 3), and no trend in HLC (Fig. 4). There is a tendency for the "pseudosolubility" of liquid chemical in octanol, Q , i.e., the product of K_{OW} and C_L^s , to fall (Miller et al. 1985, Shiu and Mackay, 1986) with increase in molar volume, but the effect is slight (Fig. 5). Most Q values fall between 10^2 and 10^4 . Finally, Fig. 6 shows the often reported inverse relationship between octanol-water partition coefficient and subcooled liquid solubility.

When a water solubility in excess of 10000 g/m^3 (i.e., 1%) is used to calculate the HLC the value should be treated with caution for reasons discussed earlier.

V. Discussion

It is convenient to group these chemicals into several classes depending on the values of H . For the eight chemicals for which H exceeds $100 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{mol}$ or K_{AW} exceeds 0.04, the chemical is highly volatile and is expected to be lost rapidly to the atmosphere under normal environmental conditions. The rate of volatilization will normally be controlled by diffusional resistances in the water phase. Analysis by head space techniques is satisfactory.

For another 8 chemicals H lies in the range $25\text{--}100 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{mol}$ (K_{AW} is $0.01\text{--}0.04$) volatilization will be appreciable but slower, some gas phase resistance occurring. Head space analysis is still possible but prolonged purging may be required.

In the range $1\text{--}25 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{mol}$, volatilization is slower still and may or may not be significant depending on the rates of competitive processes. Head space analysis is rarely feasible. Below $1 \text{ Pa m}^3/\text{mol}$ the chemical (and this includes most pesticides) is only slightly volatile and the rate of evaporation falls as H decreases. At this HLC the equilibrium concentration in air is only approximately $1/2500$ of that of water. Volatilization from water can often be ignored as a significant environmental process except where there is the potential to expose a small volume of water (e.g., a thin layer on flooded soil) to a large volume of air.

When using these data care must be taken to note the following:

- i. HLCs are very temperature sensitive, thus values change diurnally and seasonally. A rule of thumb of a factor of 2 increase for an 8°C temperature rise gives the order of magnitude variation.

- ii. Only the dissolved chemical exerts a partial pressure, thus if the water containing organic or mineral matter which appreciably sorbs or binds the chemical, the "apparent" HLC will be lower if the total concentration in water, rather than the truly dissolved concentration is used.
- iii. The presence of dissolved electrolytes, organic matter, detergent and emulsified materials will affect the "solubility" of the chemical in water (or more strictly γ) and thus alter the HLC.

Finally, it should be emphasized that the volatilization of these chemicals from water or their air-water partitioning is controlled by H . It is only indirectly influenced by vapor pressure in combination with solubility. A low vapor pressure is no guarantee of a low HLC and thus of a low volatilizing tendency. Chemicals such as DDT which have very low vapor pressures also have very low solubility, thus they maintain appreciable HLCs and are subject to evaporative loss. The critical determinant of volatilization is thus H .

VI. List of Symbols

C_A	concentration in air, mol/m ³
C_w	solute concentration in water, mol/m ³
C_w^s	solubility in water, mol/m ³
C_s^s	solid solute solubility in water, mol/m ³
C_L^s	subcooled liquid solubility in water, mol/m ³
F	fugacity ratio
H	Henry's Law constant, Pa m ³ /mol
\bar{H}	Henry's Law constant, Pa
K_{AW}	dimensionless Henry's Law constant or the air/water partition coefficient
K_{OW}	octanol/water partition coefficient
K_P	precipitation rate, mm/hr
N	flux g/m ² /hr
P	partial pressure of solute, Pa
P_T	total pressure, i.e., 101,325 Pa
P_s^s	solid vapor pressure, Pa
P_L^s	subcooled liquid vapor pressure, Pa
Q	"pseudosolubility" of liquid chemical in octanol ($K_{OW} \cdot C_L$), mol/m ³
R	gas constant, 8.314 Pa m ³ /mol K
ΔS	entropy of fusion, J/mol K
T	system temperature, K
T_M	melting point, K
v	molar volume of the solution, m ³ /mol
W_g	vapor phase washout coefficient, (g/m ³) _{rain} /(g/m ³) _{air}
x	solute mole fraction in the liquid phase
x_w	mole fraction solubility of water in solute
x^s	mole fraction solubility of solute in water
y	solute mole fraction in vapor phase

γ activity coefficient in t
 \emptyset fugacity coefficient

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partial pressure, thus if the water which appreciably sorbs or binds the chemical, the lower the total concentration in water, the lower the concentration in air is used.

Organic matter, detergent and surfactant "solubility" of the chemical in water are also subject to HLC.

The volatilization of these chemicals is controlled by H . It is only in combination with solubility. A low HLC and thus of a low volatilizing chemical have very low vapor pressures also in appreciable HLCs and are subject to volatilization is thus H .

Symbols

mol/m³

for the air/water partition coefficient

in octanol ($K_{ow} \cdot C_L$), mol/m³

$(C_{rain}/(g/m^3)_{air})$

rate
water

γ activity coefficient in the liquid phase
 ϕ fugacity coefficient

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