

1 SCIENCE OF THE TOTAL ENVIRONMENT

2 **Type of manuscript:** Research paper

3  
4 **Title:** Effects of irrigation with HCH-contaminated water on crop performance and  
5 HCH accumulation in plant and soil

6  
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20 **Abstract**

21 Lindane production is very ineffective since, for each ton of lindane obtained,  
22 between 6 and 10 tons of hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) isomers and other toxic  
23 compounds are also produced. Due to the disposal of these residues, contaminated zones  
24 still exist. Many dumpsites are close to rivers and water reservoirs. The current study  
25 examines the consequences of irrigating pea, maize and alfalfa, with water containing  
26 different HCH concentrations on the accumulation of HCH in plant material and soils.  
27 The experiments were conducted on pots under controlled conditions using drinking  
28 water (as reference) and water with several HCH concentrations: 0.5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (the  
29 maximum threshold allowed for human consumption), 2.5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , 5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , and 20  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ .  
30 Results showed that both surface and overhead irrigation with these HCH concentrations  
31 did not cause any toxicity effects on the considered crops. However, under overhead  
32 irrigation with HCH concentrations higher than 5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  HCH is absorbed by maize leaves  
33 and its concentration in plant biomass overpassed the EU maximum residue level of 10  
34  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  (EU, 2017). In the case of fodder maize, an HCH concentration of 0.84  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  in  
35 irrigation water produced a HCH concentration in plant above 20  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  dry matter, the  
36 upper limit established in the Spanish legislation, that limit the use for animal feeding. In  
37 the case of alfalfa, HCH was detected in treatments with the highest HCH concentration  
38 (13  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) under surface irrigation, but concentration was below the EU maximum  
39 residue level. In conclusion, in overhead irrigated systems, water with HCH  
40 concentrations below 5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  does not produce HCH accumulation in pea and maize  
41 grain above the maximum residue levels; however, for fodder maize, the HCH  
42 concentration in irrigation water should be controlled to avoid HCH accumulation in  
43 plants above the limit for animal feeding.

44

45 **Keywords:** overhead irrigation, surface irrigation, Hexachlorocyclohexane,  
46 Organochlorines, Foliar uptake, Environmental risk.

47

## 48 **1. Introduction**

49 The 1,2,3,4,5,6-hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH,  $C_6H_6Cl_6$ ) is a non-natural  
50 organochloride compound with nine isomers. It is an organic pollutant with acute toxicity  
51 persistence in the environment (UNEP, 2009; Vijgen et al., 2011). Even though  
52 nowadays HCH is prohibited, it was widely used as an insecticide, scabicide, pediculicide  
53 and parasiticide since the 1940's (Breivik et al., 1999; Saleh et al., 1982). The compound  
54 was available in two formulations: technical-grade HCH (a mixture of different isomers)  
55 and lindane (>99%  $\gamma$ -HCH). All the HCH isomers are toxic, being lindane the most toxic,  
56 affecting the nervous and endocrine systems and causing severe diseases such as cancer  
57 (Bradley et al., 2016). The  $\gamma$ -HCH production is based on chlorination of benzene in the  
58 presence of UV light, and it is very ineffective since for each ton of lindane obtained,  
59 between 6 and 10 tons of other HCH isomers and compounds (benzene, chlorobenzenes,  
60 and chlorophenols) are also produced (Vijgen, 2006). Due to the disposal of these  
61 residues, contaminated zones exist, especially in areas located in the proximities of  
62 production facilities (Calvelo Pereira et al., 2008), although this pollutant can be  
63 transported by the air, thus contaminating other sites (van Pul et al., 1999). Therefore, the  
64 identification and rehabilitation of land affected by HCH contamination is a priority  
65 worldwide (Tripathi, 2019; Vijgen et al., 2022).

66 In Europe, the production of lindane has caused the extensive contamination of  
67 soils and waters with thousands of tons of toxic and persistent products (Vega et al.,  
68 2016). Production factories were often situated near rivers and river floods have  
69 contributed to the diffuse mobilization of these contaminants. The expected increase in

70 the number of floods derived from climate change would contribute to an intensification  
71 of the release of these persistent pollutants towards rivers. In Spain, the manufacture of  
72 lindane was associated with four factories that generated 200,000 tons of HCH wastes,  
73 approximately (Fernández et al., 2013; Vega et al., 2016). Nearly 65% of this production  
74 was generated by the INQUINOSA factory located in Sabiñánigo (Aragón, Spain) that  
75 manufactured or formulated lindane products from 1975 to 1992 (Fernández et al., 2013).  
76 Generated wastes (approximately 115,000 tons) were mainly dumped in two unlined  
77 landfills (Bailin and Sardas). The Dense Non-Aqueous Phase Liquid (DNAPL) from  
78 these two dumpsites constitute a serious risk for agricultural crops due to the proximity of  
79 the Gállego River (Fernández et al., 2013), which supplies water for irrigation to more  
80 than 60,000 ha of cultivated land.

81 Residues of HCH have been detected in roots and aboveground tissues of different  
82 plant species grown in contaminated soils. Calvelo-Pereira et al. (2008) reported that the  
83 main mechanism of HCH adsorption by plants was not only by the roots, but also by  
84 adsorption through the aerial biomass from either volatilization or atmospheric  
85 deposition. Absorption from irrigation water has also been reported; in an experiment for  
86 determining the leaf sorption of different pollutants, Calderón-Preciado et al. (2013)  
87 spiked lettuce shed leaves with solutions of different pollutants and observed that lindane  
88 was absorbed almost completely by cuticula. Benimeli et al. (2008) reported that  
89 concentrations of lindane from 100 to 400  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  in the soil did not affect the vigor and  
90 germination of maize seeds. Although there are many efforts to assess, and remediate the  
91 HCH waste legacy (Vijgen et al., 2022), no information on the effects of irrigation with  
92 HCH-contaminated water on crop absorption is available in the literature and HCH can  
93 be introduced into the food chain from HCH contaminated irrigation water. The European  
94 (EU, 1998, Council Directive 98/83/EC) and the Spanish legislation (BOE, 2023, Real

95 Decreto 3/2023) set a threshold of 0.5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  for total pesticides in water for human  
96 consumption, but there is no regulation or thresholds for pesticides in irrigation water.

97 In this context, the aims of the current study were to assess the impact of different  
98 HCH concentration levels in the irrigation water on (i) HCH accumulation in the grain  
99 and plant biomass of three crops (alfalfa, maize and pea); (ii) grain yield and biomass;  
100 (iii) HCH levels in the soil at harvest time, and iv) to compare overhead versus surface  
101 irrigation, thus performing a first evaluation of the risk of this element entering the food  
102 chain through contaminated irrigation water.

103

## 104 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 105 *2.1. Experiments location and setup*

106 Different experiments were performed in the Centro de Investigación y  
107 Tecnología Agroalimentaria de Aragón (CITA) (41° 42' 47.3'' N, 0° 49' 39.9''W),  
108 located about 15 km North of Zaragoza (Spain). To avoid contamination risks in the  
109 environment, the experiments were conducted in pots separated from the soil surface by a  
110 plastic film (Supplementary material – Figure S1).

111 Three crop species were considered: alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), maize (*Zea*  
112 *mays* L.) and pea (*Pisum sativum* L.). In 2015, experiments were carried out with pea and  
113 maize-grain; in 2016, experiments were conducted with fodder maize, whereas, in 2017,  
114 alfalfa was used.

115 Pots were filled with clay loam textured soil (270 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  sand, 380 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  silt, and  
116 350 g  $\text{kg}^{-1}$  clay), and compacted to reach the original soil bulk density (1.45 g  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ ). The  
117 crops were planted in pots of different size depending on the species (Supplementary  
118 material - Figure S2). In the case of pea, pots were 0.9 m length, 0.4 m width and 0.5 m

119 depth, whereas for alfalfa and maize, pots were 0.6 m length, 1 m width and 0.76 m  
120 depth.

121 Pea was sown in February 2015 at 0.18 m between rows and 0.05 m between  
122 plants (111 seeds m<sup>-2</sup>). Maize was sown on 22 June 2015 (LG3540 Waxy cultivar) and 31  
123 May 2016 (Pioneer P0725 cultivar) at 0.7 m between rows and 0.15 m between plants  
124 (10.5 seeds m<sup>-2</sup>). Alfalfa was sown on 30 May 2016 at a sowing density of 450 seeds m<sup>-2</sup>

125

## 126 *2.2. Irrigation treatments*

127 In 2015, four treatments were considered for both pea and maize, T0: irrigation  
128 water without HCH (drinking water from the Zaragoza network); T1: irrigation water  
129 from the Gállego river at La Sotonera reservoir (collected on a 15-day basis); T2:  
130 irrigation water with HCH concentration of 0.5 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (the threshold for drinking water),  
131 and T3: irrigation water with HCH concentration of 5 µg L<sup>-1</sup> (10 times greater than the  
132 drinking water threshold). The HCH concentration refers to the sum of the α-, β-, γ-, δ-  
133 and ε- HCH isomers concentration.

134 The T0 treatment acted as a reference with no HCH content while T1 represents  
135 the actual irrigation water quality in the Gállego river at La Sotonera reservoir (the  
136 irrigation water storage reservoir). Since 2015, this reservoir is strictly refilled during  
137 periods in which HCH concentration is below the drinkability threshold (HCH < 0.5 µg  
138 L<sup>-1</sup>). The T2 treatment represents the upper limit of HCH concentration in La Sotonera  
139 reservoir, and T3 represents a situation with an exceptionally high concentration of HCH  
140 in the irrigation water (10 times greater than the upper limit for drinking water).

141 All treatments were irrigated using a tailored overhead system (explained below) to avoid  
142 HCH dissemination in the environment.

143 In years 2016 and 2017, the T0 and T2 treatments applied in the 2015 experiments  
144 were maintained, and three new treatments were incorporated to understand the influence  
145 of the irrigation system, overhead vs. surface irrigation on the absorption of HCH by  
146 plants. The new treatments were, T4: overhead irrigation with water with HCH  
147 concentration of  $2.5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (5 times the threshold for drinking water); T5: overhead  
148 irrigation with water with HCH concentration of  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (40 times the threshold for  
149 drinking water); and T6: surface irrigation with water with HCH concentration of  $20 \mu\text{g}$   
150  $\text{L}^{-1}$ . For all crops and years, four repetitions per treatment were considered.

151 The overhead irrigation treatment, simulating a sprinkler irrigation system, was built with  
152 an aerial dripper arrangement. For this purpose, a metallic structure was installed to  
153 support the irrigation system of each treatment. To reproduce both, irrigation time and  
154 drop size of the sprinkler systems used in commercial crop fields, regulated drippers were  
155 used. A network of driplines was built with emitters spaced 10 cm along each dripline  
156 and emitter flow set at  $0.06 \text{ L h}^{-1}$  (Supplementary Material Figure S3). In the case of pea,  
157 160 drippers per treatment were used, the duration of a single irrigation event was 3 hours  
158 and the applied dose per event was 19.5 mm. In the case of maize and alfalfa, 220  
159 drippers per treatment were used, the duration of each irrigation event was 3.5 hours and  
160 the irrigation dose per event was 25 mm. In this way, the overhead system simulated the  
161 wetting time of the crop (irrigation time) and the irrigation dose of a typical sprinkler  
162 irrigation in a commercial field. The dripper network was at 1.5 m height from the soil  
163 surface for pea and at 3 m height for alfalfa and maize crops (Supplementary Material  
164 Figure S3). The overhead system was designed to irrigate, simultaneously, the four  
165 replicates of each treatment using water from the same primary tank. The structure was  
166 surrounded by plastic curtains that were unfolded during each irrigation event to avoid  
167 water drifts caused by the wind (Supplementary material - Figure S2). In the case of the

168 surface irrigation treatment, a hose with an opening valve connected each tank with each  
169 pot (Supplementary Material Figure S3) with an irrigation dose per event of 25 mm.  
170 Irrigation was scheduled according to the common practice in the region. Crop water  
171 requirements were estimated using the FAO methodology (Allen et al., 1998), using the  
172 reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) and the crop coefficients supplied by the regional  
173 advisory service for irrigation. The number of irrigation events and the total irrigation  
174 doses applied to each crop are reported in Table 1.

175 The irrigation water used in treatments T2, T3, T4, and T5 was prepared using  
176 DNAPL coming from the Bailin dumpsite. DNAPL was collected in a 50 L tank for each  
177 experiment and analyzed for  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\delta$ -,  $\gamma$ -, and  $\epsilon$ -HCH isomer concentrations. Then,  
178 the tank was transported to the experimental site and transferred (after an intense mixing)  
179 to 1.5 L numbered opaque glass bottles, then bottles were stored at 4 °C. For each  
180 irrigation event, the adequate amount of DNAPL, from the same bottle, was added to  
181 each tank to obtain the HCH concentration (sum of  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\delta$ -,  $\gamma$ -, and  $\epsilon$ -HCH isomers)  
182 assigned to each treatment. Because HCH is very oily and does not mix well with water,  
183 a maximum volume of 1.2 L of DANPL was used from each bottle and the remaining  
184 was analysed again for HCH isomers concentration. The average HCHs concentration in  
185 irrigation water for each treatment and experiment is presented in Table 2 and the average  
186 HCH isomer concentrations are detailed in Tables S1 to S4 (Supplementary Material).

187

### 188 *2.3. Sampling and determinations*

189 At maturity, all pea and maize plants from each repetition were collected  
190 separately and grain and rest of above biomass weight were determined. For maize, grain  
191 humidity was measured to determine the grain yield referred to 14% humidity. For

192 alfalfa, forage dry yield was determined at each harvest. At the end of each experiment, a  
193 soil sample from each replicate was collected.

194 Waters were analyzed for  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\delta$ -,  $\gamma$ -, and  $\epsilon$ -HCH isomer concentrations by gas  
195 chromatography (Agilent 7890A) in the Aragon Government Laboratory at Bailin  
196 (Fernández et al., 2013). Soil and fresh plant samples were analyzed for  
197  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\delta$ -,  $\gamma$ -, and  $\epsilon$ -HCH isomer concentrations using a Varian CP-3800 Gas  
198 Chromatograph coupled with a Varian Saturn Ion Trap 2000 GC/MS/MS System with a  
199 quantification limit (QL) of  $1 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  that was improved to  $0.5 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  for maize grain  
200 and soils in 2016. Plant samples were not dried prior to analysis to avoid losses of HCH  
201 isomers by volatilization.

#### 202 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

203 Plant biomass, crop grain yield and soil and plant HCH concentrations were  
204 subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) to evaluate the effect of the treatments  
205 imposed. The assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity were checked using  
206 Shapiro-Wilks and Bartlett tests, respectively. When needed, mean separation was  
207 performed using the Tukey's HSD test at 0.05 significance level. Statistical analyses were  
208 carried out using the R Statistical Environment v.3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

209

### 210 **3. Results**

211 The targeted HCH concentrations in irrigation water (T2 and T3) were reached  
212 adequately in the pea-2015 and maize-2015 experiments (Table 2). However, HCH  
213 concentrations did not reach the target values (Table 2) in maize-2016 ( $\approx 20$  times lower)  
214 and alfalfa-2017 (30% lower). In maize-2016, the DNAPL initial analysis gave a HCH  
215 concentration higher than the measured later in the numbered bottles. As there was a  
216 delay in the analysis of these samples, the HCH concentration of the irrigation water

217 could not be corrected in time. In alfalfa-2017, the numbered DANPL bottles were  
218 analyzed with a higher frequency allowing to correct the amounts of DNAPL added to  
219 the tanks, but low concentrations in the three bottles used in the last irrigation events  
220 reduced the target HCH values by 30%.

221 On average, in the 2015 experiments (Supplementary material Table S2), isomer  $\delta$   
222 was the most abundant in the irrigation water, 54% (pea-2015) and 58% (maize-2015),  
223 while in 2016 (Supplementary material Table S3) isomers  $\beta$  (38%) and  $\delta$  (35%) were  
224 present in similar percentages and in 2017 (Supplementary material Table S4) isomers  $\delta$   
225 (43%) and  $\gamma$  (34%) presented the highest proportion.

226

### 227 *3.1. Pea experiment*

228 Grain yield ranged from 4,757 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T0) to 5,214 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T1); whereas plant  
229 biomass varied between 16,077 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T0) and 18,124 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T1). However, no  
230 significant differences were detected among treatments for both grain yield and plant  
231 biomass (Table 3).

232 No HCH isomers were detected in the samples of pea grains from any treatment  
233 (Table 4) and the average HCH concentration in the plant was below 1  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ , although  
234  $\delta$ -HCH was detected (1.5  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) in plant biomass of a T3 replicate, the treatment with  
235 the highest HCH concentration (Supplementary Material-Table S6). HCH isomers were  
236 not detected in soil samples, except for two replicates of the T3 treatment that showed  
237 concentrations of the  $\delta$  isomer slightly over the detection limit of 1  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$   
238 (Supplementary material - Table S7).

239

### 240 *3.2. Maize-grain experiment 2015*

241 Grain yield ranged from 3,565 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T3) to 5,313 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T2); whereas plant  
242 dry biomass varied between 6,376 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T2) and 9,476 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T0). No significant  
243 differences were detected among treatments for both variables (Table 3).

244 The average HCH concentration in grain and maize plants in the 2015 experiment  
245 was below 1 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>, except for plants from the T3 treatment (Table 4). In grain samples,  
246 only one replicate from the T3 treatment showed the presence of HCH isomers over the  
247 quantification limit: β-HCH (2 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and δ-HCH (1 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Supplementary material -  
248 Table S8). In the samples of fresh above biomass, HCH isomers appeared in different  
249 replicates of T3: β-HCH (2 to 6 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>), δ-HCH (3 to 12 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and ε-HCH (2 to 5 µg  
250 kg<sup>-1</sup>), but only one replicate was over the limit of 10 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> for the sum of isomers.  
251 When converted to concentration per dry matter, the sum of HCH isomer concentrations  
252 reached 59.1 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Supplementary material - Table S9).

253 In the case of soil, only the β and δ isomers were detected in samples of the T3 treatment.  
254 The value of the β-HCH was 1 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> in three replications, whereas δ-HCH varied  
255 between 3 and 4 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Supplementary material - Table S10).

256

### 257 3.3. Maize-fodder experiment 2016

258 In 2016, maize dry biomass ranged from 13,915 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> (T5) to 17,012 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
259 (T6) (Table 5) with no significant differences among treatments.

260 No presence of HCH was detected in grain samples from any treatment (Table 4,  
261 Supplementary material Table S11). In contrast, plant biomass from the T5 treatment  
262 presented significant concentrations of β-, δ- and ε-HCH that added up to 37.4 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>  
263 in fodder maize dry matter (Supplementary material - Table S12). Soil samples did not  
264 show the presence of HCH isomers in any of the treatments (Supplementary material -  
265 Table S13).

266

### 267 3.4. Alfalfa experiment

268 Table 5 shows the average total dry biomass of the five alfalfa cuts in 2017 for  
269 each of the treatments. Dry biomass ranged from 10,605 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in T0 to 14,174 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in  
270 T6. The plant biomass generated in T6 was significantly greater than that generated in the  
271 rest of the treatments.

272 HCH isomers were detected in fresh biomass samples of 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> cuts  
273 in T5 and T6 (Supplementary Material - Table S14), the highest concentrations were  
274 detected in T6, reaching values up to 9.9 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> (sum of α, β, δ and ε isomers). The  
275 HCH concentrations (β-, δ-, γ-, ε- and total HCH) were significantly higher under  
276 surface irrigation than under overhead irrigation (Table 6), suggesting losses of HCH  
277 compounds during sprinkler irrigation.

278 Only the soils from the two treatments with the highest concentration of HCH (T5  
279 and T6) showed detectable contents of HCH isomers, ranging from 1.1 to 3.9 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> for  
280 the sum of α-, β-, δ- and ε-HCH isomers. The isomer with the greatest presence in these  
281 soil samples was δ-HCH (Supplementary Material - Table S15).

282

## 283 4. Discussion

284 All standards and guidelines for agricultural irrigation are mainly aimed at  
285 protecting health by controlling human and livestock exposure to pathogenic organisms  
286 and a limited number of toxic chemicals (Lazarova and Bahri, 2005). Similarly, selecting  
287 the irrigation technique relies on meeting plant water requirements optimally, while  
288 minimizing the sanitary risks. In contrast, little attention has been given to the potential  
289 risks stemming from foliar sorption of organic micro-contaminants as a possible pathway

290 to the human food chain and the ensuing repercussions for both the population and the  
291 environment (Calderón-Preciado et al., 2013).

292 In the current study, yields of grain maize and pea were not affected by irrigation  
293 water with HCH concentrations up to  $5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  and biomass of fodder maize and alfalfa  
294 was not affected when these crops were irrigated with waters with HCH concentration up  
295 to  $20 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ . The differences encountered among treatments on alfalfa biomass cannot be  
296 ascribed to the differential concentrations of HCH in the irrigation water and might have  
297 been caused by different levels of plant establishment within the pots. Therefore, in the  
298 current study, there was no toxic effect of HCH on the development and growth of the  
299 three crop species considered.

300 Previous research has shown that plants can accumulate contaminants when they  
301 come with irrigation water (Mishra et al., 2009). In fact, it has been observed (Calderón-  
302 Preciado et al., 2013) that sprinkler irrigation induces the foliar sorption of micro-  
303 contaminants and their accumulation in the leaves of lettuce. However, the results from  
304 the current study suggest that this depends on the plant species and on the concentration  
305 of pollutants in the irrigation water. In the case of pea-2015, no HCH isomers were  
306 detected in pea grains (Table 5), even when plants were overhead irrigated with water  
307 containing  $5.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  of HCH (treatment T3), 10 times the limit for drinking water.  
308 Moreover, only one plant biomass sample from the T3 treatment showed the presence of  
309 the  $\delta$ -HCH isomer (the isomer with the highest concentration in irrigation water, Table  
310 S1) at  $1.5 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ , which is below the maximum threshold ( $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) established by the  
311 European Union (EU, 2017) for vegetables.

312 In the case of the maize 2015 experiment,  $\beta$  and  $\delta$  isomers were detected in grains  
313 from one sample and  $\beta$ ,  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$  isomers in different plant samples coming from the  
314 treatment with the highest HCH concentration (T3,  $5.2 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). HCH isomer

315 concentrations in grain were well below the EU maximum threshold in all treatments.  
316 Although in plant samples, the  $\delta$  isomer was above the  $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  EU threshold in some  
317 of the T3 replicates (Supplementary material Table S9), the average value did not surpass  
318 this threshold (Table 5).

319 In maize in 2016 experiment, the targeted HCH concentrations in the irrigation  
320 water were not reached, and actual HCH concentrations were 1/20 of the initially targeted  
321 concentrations (Table 2). No HCH isomers were detected in grains in any of the  
322 treatments. However, the T5 treatment (HCH concentration of  $0.84 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) surpassed the  
323 maximum residue level of  $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  for the sum of HCH isomers except lindane  
324 established by the European Union (EU, 2017). If the maize is used for fodder, HCH  
325 concentration in T5 was above the  $20 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  dry matter established in the Spanish  
326 legislation for the sum of HCH isomers except lindane (BOE, 1994, Real Decreto  
327 280/1994).

328 The HCH concentration in irrigation water for maize 2016 T5 treatment ( $0.84 \mu\text{g}$   
329  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) was slightly higher than in the T2 treatment ( $0.66 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) and much lower than in the  
330 T3 treatment ( $6.63 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) of maize in 2015; however, the HCH accumulation in plant  
331 was higher than in 2015. The higher sensitivity to absorption of HCH of maize in 2016 in  
332 relation to the 2015 experiment is attributed to 2 different reasons. First, to a higher  
333 number of irrigation events applied in 2016 (45 events) in comparison to 2015 (29  
334 events), associated to a larger maize cycle in 2016; the higher number of irrigation events  
335 in 2016 increased the total mass of HCH applied to the crop, indicating that absorption  
336 through leaves is an accumulative process. Second, to a higher proportion of the most  
337 stable  $\beta$  isomer in irrigation water in 2016 (37.8%) in comparison to 2015 (9.6%).

338 Finally, in alfalfa, plant biomass from the treatments with the highest  
339 concentration of HCH showed the presence of the  $\delta$  isomer, and some of them also the  $\alpha$

340 and  $\epsilon$  isomers. Nevertheless, they never surpassed the maximum residue levels  
341 established by the European Union (EU, 2017) and were much lower than the values  
342 reported for crops grown in a contaminated site in China (Zhang et al., 2013).

343 In the case of maize in 2016, no HCH isomers were detected in plant samples of  
344 the T6 treatment (surface irrigated) with the same HCH concentration in irrigation water  
345 ( $13.2 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ) than in the T5 treatment (overhead irrigated). This behavior would indicate  
346 a differential HCH absorption between leaves and roots in maize, being predominant the  
347 adsorption through the leaves. Urrego-Pereira et al. (2013) measured contact angles of  
348 water drops with leaf surfaces lower than  $90^\circ$ , indicating a high maize leaf wettability,  
349 that would explain the absorption of HCH with water through maize leaves. In contrast to  
350 maize, HCH concentrations in alfalfa in T6 (surface irrigated) were higher than in T5  
351 (overhead irrigated) despite both treatments receiving the same HCH concentration in  
352 irrigation water. This behavior indicates that in alfalfa the adsorption of water through the  
353 leaves is smaller than in the case of maize. According to Urrego-Pereira et al. (2013) this  
354 could be due to a higher hydrophobicity of alfalfa leaves than those of maize.

355 The differences in HCH concentrations ( $\beta^-$ ,  $\delta^-$ ,  $\gamma^-$ ,  $\epsilon^-$  and total HCH) between  
356 surface and overhead irrigated treatments in alfalfa (Table 6) suggested some HCH  
357 compounds losses through water drifts that usually occur under sprinkler irrigation  
358 systems in the Ebro Valley Basin (Spain) and/or volatilization process.

359 The differences among crops in the accumulation of HCH isomers in plant might  
360 have been caused by the different capacity of each species for accumulating residues, as  
361 reported in other studies (Mishra et al., 2009).

362 With the results of the current experiments, some tentative threshold values for  
363 HCH in irrigation water can be established for different crops under surface and overhead  
364 irrigation in the Gállego River basin and similar areas. In overhead irrigated systems,

365 HCH concentrations below  $5 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  in the irrigation water would not result in HCH  
366 concentrations in pea and maize grain above the EU threshold value for food ( $10 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ ).  
367 In the case of overhead irrigated fodder maize, a HCH concentration in irrigation water of  
368  $0.84 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  produced accumulation of HCH above  $20 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  in plant dry matter, the  
369 upper limit established in the Spanish legislation, so they could not be destined for animal  
370 feeding. A safe limit for fodder maize would be  $0.08 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , the one in treatment T2.  
371 However, if fodder maize is surface irrigated, values up to  $0.84 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  are not of concern.

372 In the four experiments carried out, HCH isomers were detected in the soil at  
373 harvest under the treatments with the highest HCH concentration in the irrigation water.  
374 The most detected isomer was  $\delta$ , likely due to the composition of the irrigation water. In  
375 all cases, the reference levels of HCH isomers in the soil were not surpassed (Calvelo  
376 Pereira et al., 2010). In those treatments with the highest concentrations of HCH, more  
377 than 90% of the  $\delta$ -HCH applied with the irrigation water was recovered from the soil,  
378 whereas the absorption by plants was low. Nevertheless, the concentrations of HCH  
379 found in the current study were lower than those reported for agricultural soils in Galicia  
380 (Calvelo Pereira et al., 2010), Europe, North America and Asia between 1990 and 2007  
381 (Bidleman et al., 2006; Falandysz et al., 2001; Toan et al., 2007). The variability reflects  
382 the level and time of exposure to the contaminants suffered in those sites and the  
383 degradation by biotic and abiotic processes depending on soil properties (Saleh et al,  
384 1982; Cousins et al., 1999; Kumar et al., 2006). Despite the results of this study, it is  
385 important to indicate that assessing the environmental effects of high concentrations of  
386 HCH in irrigation water requires performing field experiments over longer periods to  
387 consider the degradation, retention and bio-accumulation processes of HCH isomers in  
388 the soil matrix.

389

## 390 **5. Conclusions**

391 Applying water with different concentrations of HCH did not cause toxicity  
392 effects on alfalfa, maize and pea plants, thereby it did not alter their growth and yields.  
393 However, in overhead irrigation when HCH concentrations in irrigation water were high,  
394 maize absorbed some isomers and plant biomass HCH concentration was over the  
395 maximum residue limit of 10  $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  allowed by the EU in plant-based foods, surpassing  
396 also the limit for animal feeding. In addition, most of the soil samples from the treatments  
397 with relatively high HCH concentrations in the water showed accumulation of HCH,  
398 although in most cases they did not reach the levels of contaminated sites. This study  
399 indicated that when the criteria established for filling the La Sotonera reservoir (HCH  
400 below the drinkability threshold of 0.5  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) are met, no problems of lindane  
401 contamination should occur on crops and soils irrigated with the water from this  
402 reservoir.

403

## 404 **Acknowledgements**

405 This research was funded in part by Riegos del Alto Aragón and the Aragón Government.  
406 We want to thank to Enrique Playán, José Cavero and Ramón Isla for its contribution in  
407 the design of the experiments and Alicia Hernandez, Miguel Izquierdo and Vicente  
408 Villarroya for field support. Special tanks to Jesus Fernández Gasca for providing the  
409 DNAPL for the experiments and the analytical determination in waters.

410

## 411 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

412 **Jose Manuel Miras:** Formal analysis, Writing – Original draft preparation- Review &  
413 Editing; **Raquel Salvador:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review &  
414 Editing, Funding acquisition, **Monica Guillén:** Resources, Field work; **Farida Dechmi:**

415 Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition,  
416 Supervision; **Dolores Quilez**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data Analysis, Writing -  
417 Review & Editing, Funding acquisition, Project administration.

418

#### 419 **Declaration of competing interest**

420 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
421 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

422

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547 **Tables**

548

549 **Table 1.** Number of irrigation events and total irrigation doses applied to the different

550 crops and years.

Species	Year	Dates	# Irrigation events	# Irrigation events with HCH	Seasonal irrigation depth (mm)
Pea	2015	24 Feb – 18 May	11	7	214.5
Maize (grain)	2015	24 Jun – 27 Oct	33	29	825.0
Maize (fodder)	2016	30 May – 02 Oct	46	45	940.5
Alfalfa	2017	01 Jun – 27 Oct	56	56	1176.0

551

553 **Table 2.** Actual irrigation water HCH concentration in the different treatments for the  
 554 different crops and years.

555

	Year	T0 Control	T1 Sotonera	T2 0.5 µg L <sup>-1a</sup>	T3 5 µg L <sup>-1a</sup>	T4 2.5 µg L <sup>-1a</sup>	T5 20 µg L <sup>-1a</sup>	T6 20 µg L <sup>-1a</sup>
Pea	2015	<0.1	<0.1	0.52	5.24			
Maize	2015	<0.1	<0.1	0.66	6.63			
Maize	2016	<0.1		0.02		0.084	0.84	0.84
Alfalfa	2017	<0.1		0.34		1.69	13.24	13.45

556 <sup>a</sup> Target HCH concentration in the irrigation water for a given treatment

558 **Table 3.** Average (n=4) pea fresh grain yield and plant biomass and maize grain yield  
 559 (14% humidity) and dry biomass in 2015 for each treatment.

560

Treatment	Pea – 2015		Maize - 2015	
	Grain yield (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Fresh plant biomass (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Grain yield (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Dry plant biomass (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )
T0	4757	16077	3736	9476
T1	5214	18124	4086	8837
T2	4948	17970	5313	6376
T3	4784	17220	3565	7453
<i>p</i> <sup>1</sup>	ns	ns	ns	ns

561 <sup>1</sup>Probability level of the treatment effect after ANOVA. ns: not significant,  $p > 0.05$

563 **Table 4** Average (n=4) concentrations of the  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -  $\delta$ - and  $\epsilon$ -HCH isomers and their  
 564 total sum (excluding lindane) in the grains and rest of the plant for pea and maize and in  
 565 alfalfa plant (4<sup>th</sup> cut) in the different treatments.  
 566

	HCH concentration irrigation water ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )	HCH isomers ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )					Sum $\alpha$ , $\beta$ , and $\epsilon$ isomers ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )
		$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$	$\delta$	$\epsilon$	
2015 Pea grain and plant							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T1</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T2</b>	0.52	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T3</b>	5.24	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
2015 Maize grain							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T1</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T2</b>	0.66	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T3</b>	6.63	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
2015 Maize leaves + stems + cobs							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T1</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T2</b>	0.66	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 10
<b>T3</b>	6.63	< 1	2.5	< 1	6.8	1.9	4.4
2016 Maize grain							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
<b>T2</b>	0.02	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
<b>T4</b>	0.084	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
<b>T5</b>	0.84	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
<b>T6</b>	0.84 (F)	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5
2016 Maize leaves + stems + cobs							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T2</b>	0.02	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T4</b>	0.084	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T5</b>	0.84	< 1	4.7	< 1	5.6	1.4	6.1
<b>T6</b>	0.84 (F)	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
2017 Alfalfa 4 <sup>th</sup> cut							
<b>T0</b>	<0.1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T2</b>	0.34	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T4</b>	1.69	< 1	< 1	< 1	1.9	< 1	< 1
<b>T5</b>	13.24	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1
<b>T6</b>	13.45 (F)	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	2.6	2.6

567  
 568  
 569

570 **Table 5** Average (n=4) maize dry biomass in 2016 and total (5 cuts) dry biomass for  
571 alfalfa in 2017 for each treatment. Different letters in the columns indicate significant  
572 differences among treatments at  $P < 0.05$ .

573

	Maize-2016	Alfalfa-2017
Treatment	Dry biomass (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Dry biomass (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )
T0	15451	10605 a
T2	14588	11631 ab
T4	14527	11701 ab
T5	13915	12498 b
T6	17012	14174 c
$p^1$	ns	0.0001

574 <sup>1</sup> Probability level of the treatment effect after ANOVA. ns: not significant,  $p > 0.05$

575

577 **Table 6.** Average (n=16) concentrations of the  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ -,  $\gamma$ -  $\delta$ - and  $\varepsilon$ -HCH isomers and their  
 578 total sum in alfalfa plants in the T5 (sprinkler irrigated) and T6 treatments (surface  
 579 irrigated).  
 580

Treatment	HCH isomers ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )					Sum $\alpha$ , $\beta$ , and $\varepsilon$ isomers ( $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ )
	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\gamma$	$\delta$	$\varepsilon$	
T5	0.1325	0	0.706	0.0500	0	0.888
T6	0.2125	0.075	1.150	2.944	0.156	4.537
$p^1$	ns	<0.01	<0.05	<0.001	<0.01	<0.001

581 <sup>1</sup>Probability level of the treatment effect after ANOVA. ns: not significant,  $p > 0.05$

582

583