We are IntechOpen, the world’s leading publisher of Open Access books
Built by scientists, for scientists

6,600
Open access books available

177,000
International authors and editors

195M
Downloads

154
Countries delivered to

TOP 1%
Our authors are among the most cited scientists

12.2%
Contributors from top 500 universities

WEB OF SCIENCE™
Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.
For more information visit www.intechopen.com
Herbicides in Argentina. Comparative Evaluation of the Genotoxic and Cytotoxic Effects on Mammalian Cells Exerted by Auxinic Members

Sonia Soloneski and Marcelo L. Larramendy
Faculty of Natural Sciences and Museum, National University of La Plata
Argentina

1. Introduction

In epidemiological and in experimental biology studies, the existence of an increasing interest in biomonitoring markers to achieve both a measurement and an estimation of biologically active/passive exposure to genotoxic pollutants, is nowadays a real fact. Significant contributions to the advancement of pesticide toxicology came and continue to come from many sources, e.g., academic, governmental/regulatory, and industrial. Regulatory agencies, private sector, and academia worldwide combine expertise to assess pesticide safety and risk potential demanding adequate data of high quality to serve as the basis for establishing safe exposure levels. The extent of testing was and is often determined by the depth of the science, as well as the chemical and physical properties of the agent and the extent of exposure. The importance of pesticide toxicology has evolved from listing poisons to protecting the public from the adverse effects of chemicals, from simply identifying effects (qualitative toxicology), to identifying and quantifying human risks from exposure (quantitative toxicology), and from observing phenomena to experimenting and determining mechanisms of action of pesticide agents and rational management for intoxication. Humans and living species may, therefore, be exposed to a number of different chemicals through dietary and other routes of exposure. Nonetheless, there continues to be concern that the presence of multiple chemical residues in foods may cause adverse health side effects, including effects that would not be predicted from consideration of single exposures to individual compounds. It is known that the regulatory system for pesticide products found in foods does not routinely address the toxic effects of different substances in combination. The implications, both for risk assessment and for approval processes, of exposure to mixtures of pesticides are among the topics examined by different international agencies, e.g., World Health Organization (WHO, www.who.int), International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, www.iarc.fr), United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, www.epa.gov), European Chemicals Agency (ECHA, www.echa.europa.eu), Health Canada Pest Management Regulatory Agency (PMRA, www.pmra-ara.gc.ca), among others. These international agencies, particularly WHO and EPA, have contributed a great deal in their attempts to control pesticide poisoning. They continue their efforts, with particular emphasis on safety in the use of...
pesticides and applied research activities, playing the role of intermediary for the involvement of agrochemical industries in safety activities. It has been strongly recommended that the nature and extent of combined exposure to pesticides and related chemicals, together with the likelihood of any adverse effects that might result, should be evaluated, when carrying out risk assessment. Furthermore, a scientific and systematic framework should be established to decide when it is appropriate to carry out combined risk assessments of exposures to more than one pesticide. Finally, it has been also recommended that groups of pesticides having common targets of toxicological action should be identified (www.food.gov.uk).

Pesticides are ubiquitous on the planet and they are employed to control or eliminate a variety of agricultural and household pests that can damage crops and livestock and reduce the productivity. Despite the many benefits of the use of pesticides in crops field and its significant contribution to the lifestyles we have come to expect, pesticides can also be hazardous if not used appropriately and many of them may represent potential hazards due to the contamination of food, water, and air, which can result in severe health problems not only for humans but also for ecosystems (WHO-FAO, 2009). The actual number of pesticide-related illnesses is unknown, since many poisonings go unreported. It has been estimated that at least three million cases of pesticide poisoning occur worldwide each year (www.who.int). The majority of these poisonings occur in developing countries where less protection against exposure is achieved, knowledge of health risks and safe use is limited or even unknown. Studies in developed countries have demonstrated the annual incidence intoxication in agricultural workers can reach values up to 182 per million and 7.4 per million among full time workers (Calvert et al., 2004) and schoolchildren (Alarcon et al., 2005), respectively. However, the number of poisonings increases dramatically in emerging countries where the marketing of pesticides is often uncontrolled or illicit and the misbranded or unlabelled formulations are sold at open stands (www.who.int). Yet, cases of pesticide intoxication may be the result of various causes in different regions of the world. In emerging countries, where there is insufficient regulation, lack of surveillance systems, less enforcement, lack of training, inadequate or reduced access to information systems, poorly maintained or nonexistent personal protective equipments, and larger agriculturally based populations, the incidences are expected, then, to be higher (IFCS, 2003). Despite the magnitude of the problem of pesticide poisoning, there have been very few detailed studies around the world to identify the risk factors involved with their use. The use of pesticides banned in industrialized countries, in particular, highly toxic pesticides as classified by WHO, EPA, and IARC, obsolete stockpiles and improper storage techniques may provide unique risks in the developing world, where 25% of the global pesticide production is consumed (WHO-FAO, 2009). Particularly, the impact of increased deregulation of agrochemicals in Latin America threatens to increase the incidence of pesticide poisoning, which has already been termed a serious public health problem throughout the continent by the WHO. Many of the pesticides used in Latin America are United States exports and the companies can make a number of changes to ensure the “safe” use of their products. However, the social, economic and cultural conditions under which they are used, pesticides acutely poison hundreds of thousands each year, including many children. In the majority of Latin American countries, poisoning registries are so inadequate that most acute poisoning cases never get recorded. Meanwhile, health effects of chronic or long-term pesticide exposures such as cancer or birth defects are not available, omissions that serve to hide the epidemic proportion of pesticide-related illness in the region. In Argentina, e.g.,
available official data revealed that 79% of the intoxications due to pesticides are related with the use of herbicides followed by insecticides and fungicides (www.msal.gov.ar), values that correlate with the evolution of the phytosanitary market demonstrating that herbicides accounted for the largest portion of total use (69%), followed by insecticides (13%), and fungicides (11%) (www.casafe.org). Consequently, Argentina a larger producer of cereals, including soy, is actually the world’s largest agrochemical market. The country has seen an explosion in genetically modified soybean production with soy exports topping $16.5 billion in 2008 (www.casafe.org). The fertile South American nation is now the world’s third largest producer of soy, trailing behind the United States and Brazil.

2. Herbicides. Auxinic herbicides

The most widely applied agrochemicals around the world are herbicides and consequently the environment is inevitably exposed to these chemicals. Such large amount of herbicides released into the environment may present an impending hazard to living organisms. Exposure to some of these herbicides may lead to alterations in the genetic material thereby causing mutagenicity, carcinogenicity, teratogenicity, and immunotoxicity among other side effects (IARC, 1977, 1999; Dearfield et al., 1999).

The auxinic herbicides have been around since World War II and were the first selective herbicides developed. Herbicides are classified as auxinic based on their growth-promoting effects observed in plant cell cultures, specific tissue systems (coleoptiles, roots), and in whole plants (Pipke et al., 1987; Liu et al., 1999). Generally, the auxinic herbicides are used to selectively control broadleaf weeds in grass crops such as cereal grains and turfgrass swards (Pipke et al., 1987; Reinbothe et al., 1996). These agrochemicals are usually applied as foliar treatments but at higher doses can be used as pre-emergent treatments (Reinbothe et al., 1996). The general susceptibility of dicotyledonous species and tolerance of monocotyledonous species to these herbicides is primarily determined by differences in plant morphology, rate of herbicide translocation and metabolism. For instance, the destruction of the phloem of dicotyledonous species results from abnormal tissue proliferation after exposure to auxinic herbicides. Monocotyledonous species are tolerant since the phloem is scattered in bundles surrounded by protective sclerenchyma tissue. Broadleaf species can be tolerant because they metabolize the herbicide to a less toxic form. These herbicides are considered mimics of the natural plant auxins and are thought to induce changes in gene expression leading to plant death (Reinbothe et al., 1996; Liu et al., 1999). Although they continue to be a very important class of herbicides, their precise mode of action is still unknown. In plants, as it has been stated, these chemicals mimic the action of auxins, hormones that stimulates growth, but in mammals and other species no mimic hormonal activity has been reported (Osterloh et al., 1983).

Among this family of herbicides, the 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, commonly known as 2,4-D, and the 3,6-dichloro-2-methoxybenzoic acid, commonly known as Dicamba, are two post-emergent auxinic herbicides released in large amount daily into the environment worldwide. This family of herbicides includes many very effective broadleaf weed killers employed in lawns, golf courses, rights-of-way, and agricultural fields.

2,4-D is an herbicide from the phenoxy acid family that is used post-emergence for selective control of a wide variety of broadleaf and aquatic weeds and forestry applications. It is produced in a variety of forms, including: acid, salt, amine and ester. While at low concentrations 2,4-D acts as an auxin analogue promoting plant growth, increasing cell-wall...
plasticity, biosynthesis of proteins and the production of ethylene, at high concentrations it is lethal and is employed as herbicide against broad-leaved and woody plants (Sinton et al., 1986; Devine, 1993; Tripathy et al., 1993). Worldwide, it is the most extensively used herbicide, and third most widely employed in the United States (www.epa.gov). Dicamba, member of the benzoic acid family, is a chlorinated benzoic acid-derivative compound registered in the United States as a post-emergent herbicide in 1967 (EPA, 1983). It is produced in a variety of forms, including acid and different kinds of salts, e.g., dimethylammonium salt, potassium salt, and sodium salt, among others (FAO, 2001). This compound is used in different crops, e.g. cereals, maize, sorghum, sugar cane, asparagus, perennial seed grasses, turf, pastures, rangeland, and non-crop land against annual and perennial broad-leaved weeds and brush species (FAO, 2001).

3. Genotoxicity and cytotoxicity of 2,4-D

On the basis of its acute toxicity, 2,4-D has been classified as a class II member (moderately hazardous) by WHO (http://www.who.int/ipcs/publications/pesticides_hazard/en/) and slightly to moderately toxic (category II-III) by EPA (EPA, 1974). Genotoxicity and cytotoxicity studies have been conducted with this auxinic member using several end-points on different cellular systems. A summary of the results reported so far is presented in Table 1. On bacterial systems, either the Ames test or reverse mutation tests performed on both *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Bacillus subtilis* gave negative results regardless of the presence or absence of a rat liver metabolic activation system (Charles et al., 1999; Grabinska-Sota et al., 2002). Whereas the herbicide induced DNA adducts on *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Teixeira et al., 2004), negative results were obtained for the induction of unscheduled DNA synthesis in primary rat hepatocytes (Charles et al., 1999). When tested for its carcinogenic potential, the transformation assay in Syrian hamster embryo assay gave positive results (Maire et al., 2007). Induction of DNA single-strand breaks estimated by the alkaline comet assay was evaluated in normal and transformed cells exposed *in vitro* to 2,4-D. González et al. (2005), Maire et al. (2007), and Sandal and Yilmaz (2010) observed an increased frequency of DNA primary lesions in CHO and SHE cells as well as in human lymphocytes. On the other hand, negative results were also revealed when this end-point was assayed on the same cell type by other researchers (Sorensen et al., 2005; Sandal & Yilmaz, 2010). However, Maire and co-workers (2007) showed that 2,4-D was unable to induce DNA fragmentation in SHE cells. Both González et al. (2005) and Soloneski et al. (2007) demonstrated the ability of the herbicide to induce sister-chromatid exchanges (SCEs) in CHO cells and human lymphocytes treated *in vitro*, respectively. An increased frequency of chromosomal aberrations was reported in V79 cells and human lymphocytes-treated *in vitro* in the presence/absence of rat liver metabolic activation system (Pavlica et al., 1991; Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhnovac, 2004) but not when the S9 fraction was absent (Mustonen et al., 1986). Zeljezic and Garaj-Vrhnovac (2004) reported the induction of micronuclei in human lymphocytes regardless of the presence or absence of S9 fraction. The induction of alterations in the cell-cycle progression of different cellular systems including plant and V79 cells, human lymphocytes and bovine cells were reported to occur after *in vitro* exposure to 2, 4-D (Basrur et al., 1976; Bayliss, 1977; Pavlica et al., 1991, 2005; Soloneski et al., 2007). However, González and co-workers (2005) were unable to demonstrate such cytotoxic effect in CHO cells. Finally, controversial results were reported for the cell viability assay on yeast and mammalian cells (Sorensen et al., 2004; Teixeira et al., 2004). Similar end-points for both genotoxicity and cytotoxicity were also applied in *in vivo*...
Herbicides in Argentina. Comparative Evaluation of the Genotoxic and Cytotoxic Effects on Mammalian Cells Exerted by Auxinic Members

| End-point System | Concentration | Results | References |
|------------------|---------------|---------|------------|
| **In vitro assays** |               |         |            |
| **Ames test** | 96.1 - 9610 μg/plate | - | Charles et al., 1999 |
| *Salmonella typhimurium* + S9 | H17 Rec<sup>+</sup>, M45 Rec reverse mutation | | |
| **Bacillus subtilis** | 3x10<sup>5</sup> - 90 kg m<sup>-3</sup> | - | Grabinska-Sota et al., 2002 |
| **Transformation assay** | 11.5 - 23 μM | + | Maire et al., 2007 |
| SHE cells | | | |
| **DNA adducts** | 0.45 - 0.65 mM | + | Teixeira et al., 2004 |
| *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* | | | |
| **UDS** | 2.42 - 96.9 μg/ml | - | Charles et al., 1999 |
| **Primary rat hepatocytes** | | | |
| **Alkaline comet assay** | 200 μM - 4 mM | - | Sorensen et al., 2005 |
| CHO cells | 2 - 10 μg/ml | + | González et al., 2005 |
| SHE cells | 11.5 - 23 μM | + | Maire et al., 2007 |
| Non-smokers HL | 1 - 10 μM | - | Sandal & Yilmaz, 2010 |
| Smokers HL | 10 μM | + | Sandal & Yilmaz, 2010 |
| **DNA fragmentation analysis** | 4.5 - 34 μM | - | Maire et al., 2007 |
| SHE cells | | | |
| **SCE assay** | 2 - 10 μg/ml | + | González et al., 2005 |
| CHO cells | 10 - 50 μg/ml | + | Soloneski et al., 2007 |
| Non-smokers HL | | | |
| **Chromosomal aberrations** | 10 μg/ml | + | Pavlica et al., 1991 |
| V79 cells | 0.4 - 4 μg/ml | + | Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2004 |
| Non-smokers HL +/- S9 | 0.125 - 0.350 mM | - | Mustonen et al., 1986 |
| **Micronuclei assay** | 0.4 - 4 μg/ml | + | Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2004 |
| Non-smokers HL +/- S9 | | | |
| **Alteration in CCP** | 15 - 30 μg/ml | + | Bayliss, 1977 |
| *Daucus carota* cells | 2 - 10 μg/ml | - | González et al., 2005 |
| V79 cells | 10 μg/ml | + | Pavlica et al., 1991 |
| Bovine cells | 2 - 20 mg/L | + | Basrur et al., 1976 |
| Non-smokers HL | 25 - 50 μg/ml | + | Soloneski et al., 2007 |
| **Cell viability** | 0.45 - 0.65 mM | + | Teixeira et al., 2004 |
| *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* | 100 - 750 μM | - | Sorensen et al., 2004 |
| CHO cells | | | |
| **In vivo assays** | | | |
| **Root tip assay** | 25 - 100 ppm | + | Kumari & Vaidyanath, |
| End-point System                              | Concentration | Results | References                        |
|----------------------------------------------|---------------|---------|-----------------------------------|
| Chlorophyll mutation, specific locus         |               |         |                                   |
| *Oryza sativa*                               | 25 - 100 ppm  | +       | Kumari & Vaidyanath, 1989          |
| Wing spot test                               |               |         |                                   |
| Wing spot and SLRL test                      | 1 - 10 mM     | +       | Kaya et al., 1999                 |
| Wing spot and white-ivory eye spot test      | NA            | +       | Tripathy et al., 1993             |
| *Drosophila melanogaster*                    | 5 mM          | +       | Graf & Wurler, 1996               |
| TCRG-TCRB recombination                      |               |         |                                   |
| Clarias batrachus erythrocytes               | 25 - 75 ppm   | +       | Ateeq et al., 2005                |
| Non-smokers HL*                              |               | +       | Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001    |
| SCE assay                                    |               |         |                                   |
| Chick embryo cells                           | 4 mg/embryo   | +       | Arias, 2003, 2007                 |
| Mouse bone marrow and spermatogonial cells   | 100 - 200 mg/Kg bw | + | Madrigal-Bujaidar et al., 2001 |
| Non-smokers HL*                              |               | +       | Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001; Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2002 |
| Chromosomal aberrations                      |               |         |                                   |
| Allium cepa cells                            | NA            | +       | Ateeq et al., 2002a               |
| Shallot root-tip cells                       | 45 - 450 μM   | +       | Pavlica et al., 1991             |
| Mouse bone marrow cells                      | NA            | +       | Venkov et al., 2000              |
| Mouse bone marrow and spermatogonial cells   | 3.3 - 33 mg/Kg bw | + | Amer & Aly, 2001                 |
| Rat bone marrow cells                        | NA            | +       | Adhikari & Grover, 1988           |
| Non-smokers HL*                              |               | +       | Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001    |
| Hair follicle nuclear aberration             |               |         |                                   |
| Mouse bone marrow cells                      | 1/32 LD50     | +       | Schop et al., 1990               |
| Micronuclei                                  |               |         |                                   |
| Clarias batrachus and Channa punctatus erythrocytes | 25 - 75 ppm | + | Ateeq et al., 2002b               |
| Mouse bone marrow                           |               |         | Farah et al., 2003, 2006           |
| Non-smokers HL*                              | NA            | -       | Schop et al., 1990               |
| +    | Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001               |
| Alteration in CCP                           |               |         |                                   |
| Allium cepa                                  | NA            | +       | Ateeq et al., 2002a               |
| Shallot root-tip cells                       | 45 - 450 μM   | +       | Pavlica et al., 1991             |

www.intechopen.com
Herbicides in Argentina. Comparative Evaluation of the Genotoxic and Cytotoxic Effects on Mammalian Cells Exerted by Auxinic Members

| End-point System                  | Concentrationa | Results | References                          |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------|-------------------------------------|
| Chick embryos                    | 2 mg/embryo    | +       | Arias, 2003, 2007                   |
| Mouse bone marrow and spermatogonial cells | 50 - 200 mg/Kg bw | - | Madrigal-Bujaidar et al., 2001      |
| Mouse bone marrow                | NA             | +       | Venkov et al., 2000                 |
| Non-smokers HL*                  |                | -       | Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2002      |

Table 1. Evaluation of 2,4-D-induced genotoxicity and cytotoxicity on different target systems. a, expressed as reported by authors; *, from agricultural workers occupationally exposed to several pesticides, including 2,4-D. UDS, unscheduled DNA synthesis; HL, human lymphocytes; CCP, cell-cycle proliferation; NA, data not available.

systems, 2,4-D has been reported to induce mutations in plants (Kumari & Vaidyanath, 1989) as well as in insects (Tripathy et al., 1993; Graf & Wurler, 1996; Kaya et al., 1999) but not in mice exposed in vivo (Knaap et al., 2003). Ateeq and co-workers (2005) reported an increased frequency DNA single-strand breaks in piscine erythrocytes and in the peripheral lymphocytes of a group of agricultural workers occupationally exposed to the herbicide (Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001). It should be noted that this later positive result could not be totally committed to the 2,4-D but to other pesticides, since the cohort of donors included in the study was exposed to a panel of diverse pesticides. Several reports were able to revealed that 2,4-D increased the frequency of SCEs in chick embryo and mammalian cells (Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001; Madrigal-Bujaidar et al., 2001; Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2002; Arias, 2003, 2007), and chromosomal aberrations in plants, mouse, rat and human cells, including human lymphocytes from occupationally exposed workers (Adhikari & Grover, 1988; Schop et al., 1990; Pavlica et al., 1991; Venkov et al., 2000; Amer & Aly, 2001; Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001; Ateeq et al., 2002a). When the micronuclei induction end-point was employed, whereas positive results were found in the piscine system (Ateeq et al., 2002b; Farah et al., 2003, 2006) and human lymphocytes (Garaj-Vrhovac & Zeljezic, 2001), no induction was found in mouse bone marrow cells (Schop et al., 1990). Finally, non-congruent results were reported when the analysis of the cell-cycle progression was used as and end-point for cytotoxicity. Alterations in the progression of the cell-cycle was reported to occur after 2,4-D exposure of plants, chick embryo, and mouse bone marrow cells (Pavlica et al., 1991; Venkov et al., 2000; Ateeq et al., 2002a; Arias, 2003, 2007). However, others authors were unable to revealed such alterations after in vivo exposure to the herbicide in bone marrow and spermatogonial mouse cells as well as in non-smokers human lymphocytes (Madrigal-Bujaidar et al., 2001; Zeljezic & Garaj-Vrhovac, 2002).

4. Genotoxicity and Cytotoxicity of Dicamba

Based on its acute toxicity, Dicamba has been classified as a class II member (moderately hazardous) by WHO (http://www.who.int/ipcs/publications/pesticides/hazard/en/) and slightly to moderately toxic (category II-III) by EPA (EPA, 1974).

Genotoxicity and cytototoxicity studies have been conducted with this auxinic member using several end-points on different cellular systems. A summary of the results reported so far is presented in Table 2. When mutagenic activity was assessed in bacterial systems with the Salmonella typhimurium Ames test either positive or negative results have been reported (Simmon, 1979; Plewa et al., 1984; Kier et al., 1986). Furthermore, similar situation were
observed in *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus subtilis* when the reverse mutation assay was applied (Simmon, 1979; Leifer et al., 1981; Waters et al., 1981). Whereas the herbicide was unable to induce mitotic recombination in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Zimmermann et al., 1984), negative and positive results were obtained for the induction of unscheduled DNA synthesis in human primary cells regardless of the presence or absence of a rat liver metabolic activation system (Simmon, 1979; Perocco et al., 1990). Induction of DNA single-strand breaks, estimated by the alkaline comet assay, was evaluated in CHO cells exposed *in vitro* to Dicamba. González et al. (2007) demonstrated an increase in the frequency of DNA lesions in this cell line. Similar observations were reported by Sorensen et al. (2004, 2005) on Dicamba-treated CHO cells cultured in the presence of reduced-clay smectites but not when the clay system was not included within the culture protocol. Both González et al. (2006, 2007, 2009) and Perocco et al. (1990) demonstrated the ability of the herbicide to induce SCEs in CHO cells and human lymphocytes with and without S9 fraction treated *in vitro*, respectively. The induction of alterations in the cell-cycle progression of different cellular systems including CHO cells and human lymphocytes were reported to occur after *in vitro* exposure to Dicamba (González et al., 2006, 2007, 2009). Finally, similar results were reported for the cell viability assay in CHO cells (Sorensen et al., 2004; González et al., 2009). In genotoxic and cytotoxic studies *in vivo*, Dicamba was able to induce different types of lesions. It has been reported the ability of the herbicide to give positive results by using the gene mutation and recombination assays when *Arabidopsis thaliana* was used as experimental model (Filkowski et al., 2003). However, both negative and inconclusive results were reported for the sex-linked recessive lethal mutation end-point on Dicamba-exposed *Drosophila melanogaster* (Waters et al., 1981; Lee et al., 1983). Perocco and co-workers (1990) reported an increased frequency of DNA unwinding rate in rat hepatocytes. It has been also reported that the herbicide is able to enhance the frequency of chromosomal aberrations in the root- and shoot-tip cells of barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) and in rat bone marrow cells (Hrelia et al., 1994). On the other hand, no increased frequency of chromosomal rearrangements has been observed in the durum wheat *Triticum turgidum* by Satyavathi and co-workers (2004). Finally, when the micronuclei induction end-point was employed, positive results were reported in *Tradescantia* sp (clone 03) by Mohamed and Ma (1999).

| End-point System          | Concentration* | Results | References                   |
|--------------------------|----------------|---------|------------------------------|
| *In vitro* assays        |                |         |                              |
| Ames test                |                |         |                              |
| *Salmonella typhimurium* | 0 - 5000 μg/plate ± | +       | Plewa et al., 1984           |
|                          |                |         | Simmon, 1979; Kier et al.,   |
|                          |                |         | 1986                         |
| Rec A reverse mutation   |                |         |                              |
| *Bacillus subtilis*      | 0.01 - 5.0 mg/disk ± | +       | Leifer et al., 1981          |
| Pol A reverse mutation   |                |         |                              |
| *Escherichia coli*       | 0 - 5000 μg/plate + |         | Waters et al., 1981          |
|                          | 0 - 5000 μg/plate - |         | Simmon, 1979; Leifer et al., |
|                          |                |         | 1981                         |
| Mitotic recombination/Gene conversion |            |         |                              |

www.intechopen.com
| End-point System                  | Concentrationa | Results | References                                                                 |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| **Saccharomyces cerevisiae**    | 0.1 - 5.0 % (w/v) | -       | Zimmermann et al., 1984                                                   |
| UDS                              | 0.1 - 5.0 % (w/v) | -       | Simmon, 1979                                                              |
| Human diploid fibroblasts +/-S9  | 0.1 - 3000 μg/ml | +       | Perocco et al., 1990                                                      |
| Non-smokers HL +/- S9            | 0.1 - 0.8 mg/ml  | +       | Perocco et al., 1990                                                      |
| Alkaline comet                   | 50 - 500 μg/ml  | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007                                                     |
| CHO cells                        | 10 μM - 10 mM   | -       | Sorensen et al., 2004, 2005                                               |
| CHO cells + reduced clay         | 10 μM - 10 mM   | +       | Sorensen et al., 2004, 2005                                               |
| SCE assay                        | 1 - 500 μg/ml   | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007, 2009                                               |
| Non-smokers HL                  | 200 μg/ml       | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007, 2009                                               |
| Non-smokers HL +/- S9           | 0.1 - 0.8 mg/ml  | +       | Perocco et al., 1990                                                      |
| Alteration in CCP               | 200 - 500 μg/ml | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007, 2009                                               |
| Non-smokers HL                  | 100 - 200 μg/ml | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007, 2009                                               |
| Cell viability                  | 500 μg/ml       | +       | Gonzalez et al., 2007, 2009                                               |
| CHO cells                        | >1000 μM        | +       | Sorensen et al., 2004                                                     |

*In vivo assays*

A → G/T → G mutation and recombination assay

*Arabidopsis thaliana* 120 μg/L +/− Filkowski et al., 2003

Sex-linked recessive lethal mutations

*Drosophila melanogaster* NA − Waters et al., 1981

3 - 2000 ppm IN Lee et al., 1983

DNA unwinding rate

Rat hepatocytes NA + Perocco et al., 1990

Chromosomal aberrations

*Hordeum vulgare* root- and hoot-tip cells, microsporocytes NA + Hrelia et al., 1994

*Triticum turgidum* 2 mg/L − Satyavathi et al., 2004

Rat bone marrow cells NA + Hrelia et al., 1994

Micronuclei assay

*Tradescania sp.* Clone 03 50 - 200 mg/L + Mohammed & Ma, 1999

Table 2. Evaluation of Dicamba-induced genotoxicity and cytotoxicity on different target systems. a, expressed as reported by authors; CCP, cell cycle proliferation; NA, data no available; IN, inconclusive results.

www.intechopen.com
Fig. 1. Comparative genotoxicity and cytotoxicity effects induced by 2,4-D and Dicamba pure herbicides Pestanal® analytical standards (grey bars) and their technical formulations (black bars) commonly used in Argentina on mammalian cells in vitro (plain bars, CHO-K1 cells; dotted bars, human lymphocytes). Results are expressed as fold-time values over control data. Evaluation was performed using end-points for genotoxicity [Sister Chromatid Exchanges frequency (A), Comet Assay (B)] and cytotoxicity [Mitotic Index (C), Viability (D), Proliferative Rate Index (E), 3(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) and Neutral Red (NR) (F)].
5. Comparison of the genotoxicity and cytotoxicity of 2,4-D and Dicamba and some Argentine technical formulations

One of the major goals of our research laboratory is to evaluate comparatively the genotoxic and cytotoxic effects exerted by several pure pesticide Pestanal® analytical standards (Riedel-de Haën, Germany) and their technical formulations commonly used in Argentina on mammalian cells in vitro. In this section we evaluate comparatively the genotoxic and cytotoxic effects induced in CHO cells and human lymphocytes from non-smoker donors exposed in vitro to the auxinic pure herbicides 2,4-D (CAS 94-757) and Dicamba (CAS 1918-00-9) and their technical commercial formulations commonly used in Argentina 2,4-D DMA® (60.2% 2,4-D, Delente Laboratories SRL, Buenos Aires, Argentina) and Banvel® (57.7% Dicamba, Syngenta Agro S.A., Buenos Aires, Argentina), respectively. Evaluation was performed using end-points for genotoxicity [Sister chromatid exchanges frequency and Comet assay] and cytotoxicity [Mitotic index, Cell viability, Proliferative rate index, and 3(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) and Neutral Red assays] (González et al., 2005; González et al., 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009; Soloneski et al., 2007).

A summary of the results obtained is presented in Fig. 1. The figure clearly reveals that all compounds assayed are able to inflict DNA damage in CHO cells and human lymphocytes when analyzed at chromosomal and DNA level. We observed that 2,4-D/2,4-D DMA® and Dicamba/Banvel® caused SCEs in mammalian cells indicating that they have clastogenic activity (Fig. 1A). It has been suggested that at the chromosomal level, the induction of SCEs is a reliable indicator for the screening of clastogens, since the bioassay is more sensitive than the analysis of clastogen-induced chromosomal aberrations (Palitti et al., 1982). The results also demonstrate the ability of 2,4-D/2,4-D DMA® and Dicamba/Banvel® to induce DNA single-strand breaks quali- and quantitative analyzed by the comet assay (Fig. 1B). The analysis of the mitotic (Fig. 1C) and the proliferative replication indexes (Fig. 1D) demonstrated that both 2,4-D/2,4-D DMA® and Dicamba/Banvel® are able to exert a marked reduction of the cellular mitotic activity as well as to delay the cell-cycle progression in vitro with a concomitant reduction of the proliferative rate index in both cell types. Besides, 2,4-D/2,4-D DMA® and Dicamba/Banvel® are able to induced a clear cellular cytotoxicity, estimated by means of the ethidium bromide/acridine orange assay in CHO cells (Fig. 1E). Finally, a loss of lysosomal activity, indicated by a decrease in the uptake of neutral red, as well as alteration in energy metabolism induced by 2,4-D/2,4-D DMA® and Dicamba/Banvel®, measured by mitochondrial succinic dehydrogenase activity in the MTT assay, were clearly revealed in herbicides-treated CHO cells (Fig. 1F) which corroborate the results obtained applying different end-points for cytotoxicity. Overall, the results clearly demonstrated that the damage induced by the commercial formulations of both herbicides is in general greater than that produced by the pure pesticides, suggesting the presence of deleterious components in the excipients with a toxic additive effect over the pure agrochemicals (Fig. 1). Unfortunately, the identity of the components present within the excipient formulations was not made available by the manufactures. Moreover, though almost improbable, the possibility that the amount of the active ingredient incorporated into the technical Argentinean formulations could be higher than that officially registered cannot be discarded.

6. Final remarks

In agriculture, agrochemicals are generally not used as a single active ingredient but as part of a complex commercial formulation. An active ingredient is a substance that prevents,
Herbicides and Environment

killing, or repels a pest or acts as a plant regulator, among others. In addition to the active component, the formulated products contain different solvents, carriers and adjuvants, some of which have been reported to induce damage in mammalian cells, among other cellular systems (Lin & Garry, 2000; Zeljezic et al., 2006; González et al., 2007, 2009; Soloneski et al., 2008; Molinari et al., 2009; Soloneski & Larramendy, 2010). Hence, risk assessment must also consider additional toxic effects caused by the excipient/s. Thus, both the workers as well as non-target organisms are exposed to the simultaneous action of the active ingredient and a variety of other chemical/s contained in the formulated product. Finally, the results highlight that a complete knowledge of the toxic effect/s of the active ingredient of a pesticide is not enough in biomonitoring studies as well as that agrochemical/s toxic effect/s should be evaluated according to the commercial formulation available in the market. Furthermore, the deleterious effect/s of the excipient/s present within the commercial formulation should be neither discarded nor underestimated.

7. References

Adhikari, N., Grover, I.S. (1988). Genotoxic effects of some systemic pesticides: in vivo chromosomal aberrations in bone marrow cells in rats. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 12, 2, 235-242, ISSN 0893-6692

Alarcon, W.A., Calvert, G.M., Blondell, J.M., Mehler, L.N., Sievert, J., Propeck, M., Tibbetts, D.S., Becker, A., Lackovic, M., Soileau, S.B., Das, R., Beckman, J., Male, D.P., Thomsen, C.L., Stanbury, M. (2005). Acute illnesses associated with pesticide exposure at schools. JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association, 294, 10, 455-465, ISSN 0098-7484

Amer, S.M., Aly, F.A. (2001). Genotoxic effect of 2,4-dichlorophenoxy acetic acid and its metabolite 2,4-dichlorophenol in mouse. Mutation Research, 494, 1-2, 1-12, ISSN 0027-5107

Arias, E. (2003). Sister chromatid exchange induction by the herbicide 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid in chick embryos. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety 55, 3, 338-343, ISSN 0147-6513

Arias, E. (2007). Cytogenetic effects of short- and long-term exposure of chick embryos to the phenoxyherbicide 2,4-D. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 48, 6, 462-466, ISSN 0893-6692

Ateeq, B., Abul Farah, M., Ahmad, W. (2005). Detection of DNA damage by alkaline single cell gel electrophoresis in 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic-acid- and butachlor-exposed erythrocytes of Clarias batrachus. Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety 62, 3, 348-354, ISSN 0147-6513

Ateeq, B., Abul Farah, M., Niamat Ali, M., Ahmad, W. (2002a). Clastogenicity of pentachlorophenol, 2,4-D and butachlor evaluated by Allium root tip test. Mutation Research, 514, 1-2, 105-113, ISSN 0027-5107

Ateeq, B., Abul farah, M., Niamat Ali, M., Ahmad, W. (2002b). Induction of micronuclei and erythocyte alterations in the catfish Clarias batrachus by 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid and butachlor. Mutation Research, 518, 2, 135-144, ISSN 0027-5107

Basrur, S.V., Fletcher, R.A., Basrur, P.K. (1976). In vitro effects of 2,4-dichlorophenoxy acetic acid (2,4-D) on bovine cells. Canadian Journal of Comparative Medicine (Gardenvale, Québec) 40, 4, 408-415, ISSN 0846-8389

Bayliss, M.W. (1977). The effects of 2,4-D on growth and mitosis in suspension cultures of Daucus carota Plant Science Letters, 8, 2, 99-103, ISSN 0168-9452

www.intechopen.com
Herbicides in Argentina. Comparative Evaluation of the Genotoxic and Cytotoxic Effects on Mammalian Cells Exerted by Auxinic Members

Calvert, G.M., Plate, D.K., Rosales, R., Shafey, O., Thomsen, C., Male, D., Beckman, J., Arvizu, E., Lackovic, M. (2004). Acute occupational pesticide-related illness in the US, 1998-1999: surveillance findings from the SENSOR-pesticides program. *American Journal of Industrial Medicine, 45*, 1, 14-23, ISSN 0271-3586

Charles, J.M., Cunyn, H.C., Wilson, R.D., Ivett, J.L., Murli, H., Bus, J.S., Gollapudi, B. (1999). *In vivo* micronucleus assays on 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid and its derivatives. *Mutation Research*, 444, 1, 227-234, ISSN 0027-5107

Dearfield, K.L., McCarroll, N.E., Protzel, A., Stack, H.F., Jackson, M.A., Waters, M.D. (1999). A survey of EPA/OPP and open literature on selected pesticide chemicals. II. Mutagenicity and carcinogenicity of selected chloroacetanilides and related compounds. *Mutation Research*, 443, 1-2, 183-221, ISSN 0027-5107

Devine, M. (1993). *Physiology of herbicide action*, Englewood Cliffs, ISBN 0133690679, New Jersey

EPA (1974). *Compendium of Registered Pesticides*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC

EPA (1983). Pesticide Fact Sheet Number 8: Dicamba. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Pesticide Programs, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC

FAO (2001). FAO Specifications and evaluation for plant protection product Dicamba. 1-20

Farah, M.A., Ateeq, B., Ahmad, W. (2006). Antimitogenic effect of neem leaves extract in freshwater fish, *Channa punctatus* evaluated by cytogenetic tests. *The Science of the Total Environment*, 364, 1-3, 200-214, ISSN 0048-9697

Farah, M.A., Ateeq, B., Ali, M.N., Ahmad, W. (2003). Evaluation of genotoxicity of PCP and 2,4-D by micronucleus test in freshwater fish *Channa punctatus*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 54, 25-29, ISSN 0147-6513

Filkowski, J., Besplug, J., Burke, P., Kovalchuk, I., Kovalchuk, O. (2003). Genotoxicity of 2,4-D and dicamba revealed by transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants harboring recombination and point mutation markers. *Mutation Research*, 542, 1-2, 23-32, ISSN 0027-5107

Garaj-Vrhovac, V., Zeljezic, D. (2001). Cytogenetic monitoring of croatian population occupationally exposed to a complex mixture of pesticides. *Toxicology*, 165, 2-3, 153-162, ISSN 0300-483X

González, M., Soloneski, S., Reigosa, M.A., Larramendy, M.L. (2005). Genotoxicity of the herbicide 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic and a commercial formulation, 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid dimethylamine salt. I. Evaluation of DNA damage and cytogenetic endpoints in Chinese Hamster ovary (CHO) cells. *Toxicology In Vitro*, 19, 2, 289-297, ISSN 0887-2333

González, N.V., Soloneski, S., Larramendy, M. (2008). Dicamba-induced genotoxicity in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells is prevented by vitamin E. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 163, 1, 337-343, ISSN 0304-3894

González, N.V., Soloneski, S., Larramendy, M.L. (2006). Genotoxicity analysis of the phenoxy herbicide dicamba in mammalian cells in *vitro*. *Toxicology In Vitro*, 20, 8, 1481-1487, ISSN 0887-2333

González, N.V., Soloneski, S., Larramendy, M.L. (2007). The chlorophenoxy herbicide dicamba and its commercial formulation banvel induce genotoxicity in Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Mutation Research*, 634, 1-2, 60-68, ISSN 0027-5107

González, N.V., Soloneski, S., Larramendy, M.L. (2009). Dicamba-induced genotoxicity in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells is prevented by vitamin E. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 163, 1, 337-343, ISSN 0304-3894

www.intechopen.com
Herbicides and Environment

Grabinska-Sota, E., Wisniowska, E., Kalka, J., Scieranka, B. (2002). Genotoxicological effects of some phenoxyherbicides and their metabolites on Bacillus subtilis M45 Rec- and H17 Rec+ strains. Chemosphere, 47, 1, 81-85, ISSN 0045-6535

Graf, U., Wurler, F. (1996). The somatic white-ivory eye spot test does not detect the same spectrum of genotoxic events as the wing somatic mutation and recombination test in Drosophila melanogaster. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 27, 3, 219-226, ISSN 0893-6692

Hrelia, P., Vigagni, F., Maffei, F., Morotti, M., Colacci, A., Perocco, P., Grilli, S., Cantelli-Forti, G. (1994). Genetic safety evaluation of pesticides in different short-term tests. Mutation Research, 321, 4, 219-228, ISSN 0027-5107

IARC (1977). Some Fumigants, the Herbicides 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T, Chlorinated Dibenzo-dioxins and Miscellaneous Industrial Chemicals, ISBN 978-9283212157, Lyon

IARC (1999). Some halogenated hydrocarbons and pesticide exposures, International Agency for Research on Cancer, ISBN 978-9283212416, Lyon

IFCS (2003). Acutely toxic pesticides: initial input on extent of problem and guidance for risk management. Fourth session of the Intergovernmental Forum on Chemical Safety. Doc number: IFCS/FORUM-IV/10, Bangkok

Kaya, B., Yanikoglu, A., Marcos, R. (1999). Genotoxicity studies on the phenoxyacetates 2,4-D and 4-CPA in the Drosophila wing spot test. Teratogenesis, Carcinogenesis and Mutagenesis, 19, 4, 305-312, ISSN 0270-3211

Kier, L.D., Brusick, D.J., Auletta, A.E., Von Halle, E.S., Simon, V.F., Dunkel, V., McCann, J., Mortelmans, K., Prival, M., Rao, T.K., V, R. (1986). The Salmonella typhimurium/mammalian microsomal assay: A report of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Gene-Tox Program. Mutation Research, 168, 2, 69-240, ISSN 0027-5107

Knaap, G.W., Setzer, R.W., Fuscoe, J.C. (2003). Quantitation of aberrant Interlocus T-cell receptor rearrangements in mouse thymocytes and the effect of the herbicide 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 42, 1, 37-43, ISSN 0893-6692

Kumari, T.S., Vaidyanath, K. (1989). Testing of genotoxic effects of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) using multiple genetic assay systems of plants. Mutation Research, 226, 4, 235-238, ISSN 0027-5107

Lee, W.R., Abrahamson, S., Valencia, R., von Halle, E.S., Würigler, F.E., Zimmering, S. (1983). The sex-linked recessive lethal test for mutagenesis in Drosophila melanogaster. A report of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Gene-Tox Program. Mutation Research, 123, 2, 183-279, ISSN 0027-5107

Leifer, Z., Kada, T., Mandel, M., Zeiger, E., Stafford, R., Rosenkranz, H.S. (1981). An evaluation of tests using DNA repair-deficient bacteria for predicting genotoxicity and carcinogenicity. A report of the U.S. EPA’s Gene-Tox Program. Mutation Research, 87, 3, 211-297, ISSN 0027-5107

Lin, N., Garry, V.F. (2000). In vitro studies of cellular and molecular developmental toxicity of adjuvants, herbicides, and fungicides commonly used in Red River Valley, Minnesota. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, 60, 6, 423-439, ISSN 1528-7394

Liu, C.M., McLean, P.A., Sookdeo, C.C., Cannon, F.C. (1999). Degradation of the herbicide glyphosate by members of the family Rhizobiaceae. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 57, 6, 1799-1804, ISSN 0099-2240
Madrigal-Bujaidar, E., Hernandez-Ceruelos, A., Chamorro, G. (2001). Induction of sister chromatid exchanges by 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid in somatic and germ cells of mice exposed in vivo. *Food and Chemical Toxicology, 39*, 9, 941-946, ISSN 0278-6915

Maire, M.A., Rast, C., Landkocz, Y., Vasseur, P. (2007). 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid: effects on Syrian hamster embryo (SHE) cell transformation, c-Myc expression, DNA damage and apoptosis. *Mutation Research, 631*, 2, 124-136, ISSN 0027-5107

Mohammed, K.B., Ma, T.H. (1999). Tradescantia-micronucleus and -stamen hair mutation assays on genotoxicity of the gaseous and liquid forms of pesticides. *Mutation Research, 426*, 2, 193-199, ISSN 0027-5107

Molinari, G., Soloneski, S., Reigosa, M.A., Larramendy, M.L. (2009). *In vitro* genotoxic and cytotoxic effects of ivermectin and its formulation ivomec® on Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1) cells. *Journal of Hazardous Materials, 165*, 1-3, 1074-1082, ISSN 0304-3894

Mustonen, R., Kangas, J., Vuojolahti, P., Linnainmaa, K. (1986). Effects of phenoxyacetic acids on the induction of chromosome aberrations in vitro and in vivo. *Mutagenesis, 1*, 4, 241-245, ISSN 0027-8357

Osterloh, J., Lotti, M., Pond, S.M. (1983). Toxicologic studies in a fatal overdose of 2,4-D, MCPP, and chlorpyrifos. *Journal of Analytical Toxicology, 7*, 3, 125-129, ISSN 0146-4760

Palitti, F.C., Tanzarella, C., Cozzi, R., Ricondy, E., Vitagliana, A., Fiori, M. (1982). Comparison of frequencies of SCEs induced by chemical mutagens in bone-narrow spleen and spermatogonial cell of mice. *Mutation Research, 103*, 2, 191-195, ISSN 0027-5107.

Pavlica, M., Papes, D., Nagy, B. (1991). 2,4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid causes chromatin and chromosome abnormalities in plant cells and mutation in cultured mammalian cells. *Mutation Research, 263*, 2, 77-81, ISSN 0027-5107

Perocco, P., Ancora, G., Rani, P., Valenti, A.M., Mazzullo, M., Colacci, A., Grilli, S. (1990). Evaluation of genotoxic effects of the herbicide dicamba using *in vivo* and *in vitro* test systems. *Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 15*, 3, 131-135, ISSN 0893-6692

Pipke, R., Amrhein, N., Jacob, G.S., Schaefer, J., Kishore, G.M. (1987). Metabolism of glyphosate in an *Arthrobacter sp.* GLP-1. *European Journal of Biochemistry 165*, 2, 267-273, ISSN 0014-2956

Plewka, M.J., Wagner, E.D., Gentile, G.J., Gentile, J.M. (1984). An evaluation of the genotoxic properties of herbicides following plant and animal activation. *Mutation Research, 136*, 3, 233-245, ISSN 0027-5107

Reinbothe, S., Reinbothe, C., Neumann, D., Apel, K. (1996). A plastid enzyme arrested in the step of precursor translocation in vivo. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 93*, 21, 12026-12030, ISSN 0027-8424

Sandal, S., Yilmaz, B. (2010). Genotoxic effects of chlorpyrifos, cypermethrin, endosulfan and 2,4-D on human peripheral lymphocytes cultured from smokers and nonsmokers. *Environmental Toxicology, In Press*, ISSN 1520-4081

Satyavathi, V.V., Jauhar, P.P., Elias, E.M., Rao, M.B. (2004). Effects of growth regulators on *in vitro* plant regeneration in durum wheat. *Crop Science, 44*, 5, 1839-1846, ISSN 0011-183X

Schop, R.N., Hardy, M.H., Goldberg, M.T. (1990). Comparison of the activity of topically applied pesticides and the herbicide 2,4-D in two short-term *in vivo* assays of genotoxicity in the mouse. *Fundamental and Applied Toxicology: Official Journal of the Society of Toxicology, 15*, 4, 666-675, ISSN 0272-0590

www.intechopen.com
Simmon, V.F., 1979. In vitro microbiological mutagenicity and unscheduled DNA synthesis studies of eighteen pesticides. EPA-600/1-79-041. EPA, Research Triangle Park, pp. 1-79

Sinton, G.L., Fan, L.T., Erickson, L.E., Lee, S.M. (1986). Biodegradation of 2,4-D and related xenobiotic compounds. Enzyme and Microbial Technology, 8, 7, 395-403 ISSN 0141-0229

Soloneski, S., González, N.V., Reigosa, M.A., Larramendy, M.L. (2007). Herbicide 2,4-D dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D)-induced cyrogenetic damage in human lymphocytes in vitro. Cell Biology International, 31, 11, 1316-1322, ISSN 1065-6995

Soloneski, S., Larramendy, M.L. (2010). Sister chromatid exchanges and chromosomal aberrations in Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1) cells treated with the insecticide Pirimicarb. Journal of Hazardous Materials, 174, 1-3, 410-415, ISSN 0030-4384

Soloneski, S., Reigosa, M.A., Molinari, G., González, N.V., Larramendy, M.L. (2008). Genotoxic and cytotoxic effects of carbofuran and furadan® on Chinese hamster ovary (CHO-K1) cells. Mutation Research, 656, 1-2, 68-73, ISSN 0027-5107

Sorensen, K.C., Stucki, J.W., Warner, R.E., Plewa, M.J. (2004). Alteration of mammalian-cell toxicity of pesticides by structural iron(II) in ferruginous smectite. Environmental Science & Technology, 38, 16, 4383-4389, ISSN 0013-936X

Sorensen, K.C., Stucki, J.W., Warner, R.E., Wagner, E.D., Plewa, M.J. (2005). Modulation of the genotoxicity of pesticides reacted with redox-modified smectite clay. Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis, 46, 3, 174-181, ISSN 0893-6692

Teixeira, M.C., Telo, J.P., Duarte, N.F., Sá-Correia, I. (2004). The herbicide 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid induces the generation of free-radicals and associated oxidative stress responses in yeast. Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications, 324, 3, 1101-1107, ISSN 0006-291X

Tripathy, N., Routray, P., Sahu, G., Kumar, A. (1993). Genotoxicity of 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid tested in somatic and germ-line cells of Drosophila. Mutation Research, 319, 3, 237-242, ISSN 0027-5107

Venkov, P., Topashka-Ancheva, M., Georgieva, M., Alexieva, V., Karanov, E. (2000). Genotoxic effect of substituted phenoxyacetic acids. Archives in Toxicology, 74, 9, 560-566, ISSN 0340-5761

Waters, M.D., Nesnow, S., Simmon, V.F., Mitchell, A.D., Jorgenson, T.A., Valencia, R. (1981). The pesticide chemist and modern toxicology. American Chemical Society, ISBN 9780841206366, Washington, DC

WHO-FAO, 2009. Pesticides residues in food-2009. FAO Plant Production and Protection paper World Health Organization and Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome, pp. 1-426

Zeljezic, D., Garaj-Vrhovac, V. (2002). Sister chromatid exchange and proliferative rate index in the longitudinal risk assessment of occupational exposure to pesticides. Chemosphere, 46, 2, 295-303, ISSN 0045-6535

Zeljezic, D., Garaj-Vrhovac, V. (2004). Chromosomal aberrations, micronuclei and nuclear buds induced in human lymphocytes by 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid pesticide formulation. Toxicology 200, 1, 39-47, ISSN 0300-483X

Zeljezic, D., Garaj-Vrhovac, V., Perkovic, P. (2006). Evaluation of DNA damage induced by atrazine and atrazine-based herbicide in human lymphocytes in vitro using a comet and DNA diffusion assay. Toxicology In Vitro 20, 1, 923-935, ISSN, 0887-2333

Zimmermann, F.K., von Borstel, R., von Halle, E.S., Parry, J.M., Siebert, D., Zetterberg, G., Barale, R., Loprieno, N. (1984). Testing of chemicals for genetic activity with Saccharomyces cerevisiae: a report of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Gene-Tox Program. Mutation Research Reviews, 133, 3, 199-244, ISSN 1383-5742

www.intechopen.com
Herbicides are much more than just weed killers. They may exhibit beneficial or adverse effects on other organisms. Given their toxicological, environmental but also agricultural relevance, herbicides are an interesting field of activity not only for scientists working in the field of agriculture. It seems that the investigation of herbicide-induced effects on weeds, crop plants, ecosystems, microorganisms, and higher organism requires a multidisciplinary approach. Some important aspects regarding the multisided impacts of herbicides on the living world are highlighted in this book. I am sure that the readers will find a lot of helpful information, even if they are only slightly interested in the topic.

How to reference
In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Sonia Soloneski and Marcelo Larramendy (2011). Herbicides in Argentina. Comparative Evaluation of the Genotoxic and Cytotoxic Effects on Mammalian Cells Exerted by Auxinic Members, Herbicides and Environment, Dr Andreas Kortekamp (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-307-476-4, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/herbicides-and-environment/herbicides-in-argentina-comparative-evaluation-of-the-genotoxic-and-cytotoxic-effects-on-mammalian-c
© 2011 The Author(s). Licensee IntechOpen. This chapter is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike-3.0 License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction for non-commercial purposes, provided the original is properly cited and derivative works building on this content are distributed under the same license.