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Item ID Number: 00181

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Academy of Sciences, Washington, D.C.

Report/Article Title The Effects of Herbicides in South Vietnam, Part A - Summary and Conclusions

Journal/Book Title

Year 1974

Month/Day

Color *Maps*

Number of Images 399

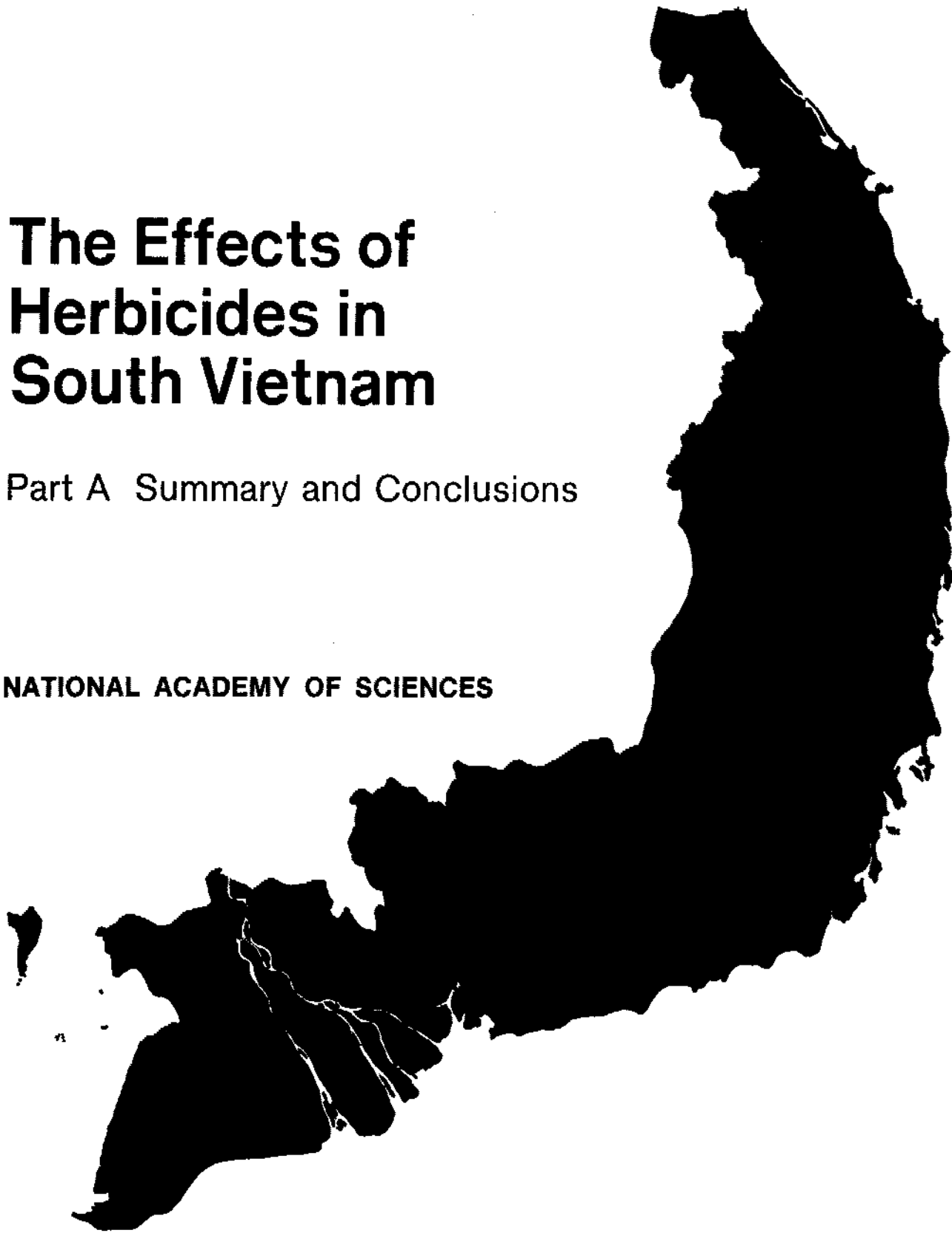
Description Notes Includes eight, one-sheet, 11"x16.5" maps of climate, missions, vegetation, etc.
Maps to be scanned with this item are in separate folder labeled "Maps for item 181."

AD 774-749

The Effects of Herbicides in South Vietnam

Part A Summary and Conclusions

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES



OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY OF DEFENSE

5 March 1974

Memo For DISTRIBUTION

Attached is a copy of: "Part A -Summary and Conclusions" of the National Academy of Sciences study on the Effects of Herbicides in Vietnam for your retention. Additional copies may be obtained from the Defense Documentation Center. The acquisition number will be provided as soon as available.



T. R. Dashiell

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The Effects of Herbicides in South Vietnam

PART A – SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

**Committee on the Effects of Herbicides in Vietnam
Division of Biological Sciences
Assembly of Life Sciences
National Research Council**

**National Academy of Sciences
Washington, D.C.
1974**

NOTICE

The project which is the subject of this report was approved by the Governing Board of the National Research Council, acting in behalf of the National Academy of Sciences. Such approval reflects the Board's judgment that the project is of national importance and appropriate with respect to both the purposes and resources of the National Research Council.

The members of the committee selected to undertake this project and prepare this report were chosen for recognized scholarly competence and with due consideration for the balance of disciplines appropriate to the project. Responsibility for the detailed aspects of this report rests with that committee.

Each report issuing from a study committee of the National Research Council is reviewed by an independent group of qualified individuals according to procedures established and monitored by the Report Review Committee of the National Academy of Sciences. Distribution of the report is approved, by the President of the Academy, upon satisfactory completion of the review process.

This study was supported by Contract No. DAHCl5 71 C 0211 between the Department of Defense and the National Academy of Sciences, and by funds furnished by the National Academy of Sciences.

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number 74-247.

The Committee on the Effects of Herbicides in
Vietnam. Division of Biological Sciences.
Assembly of Life Sciences. National Research
Council.

The Effects of Herbicides in South Vietnam:
Part A. Summary & Conclusions.
Wash., D. C. National Academy of Sciences

ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS REPORT

ARVN	Army of the Republic of Vietnam
CINCPAC	Commander in Chief, Pacific
CORDS	Civil Operations and Rural Development Support
DOD	Department of Defense
DRVN	Democratic Republic of Vietnam
HERBS	Acronym for computerized records of herbicide spray programs
HES	Hamlet Evaluation System of CORDS
JUSPAO	Joint United States Public Affairs Office
MACV	Military Assistance Command, Vietnam
MR	Military Region
NAS	National Academy of Sciences
NLF	National Liberation Front
NVA	North Vietnamese Army
RVN	Republic of Vietnam
RVNAF	Republic of Vietnam Armed Forces
SVN	South Vietnam
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT
2101 CONSTITUTION AVENUE
WASHINGTON, D. C. 20418

February 15, 1974

The President of the Senate
The Speaker of the House of Representatives
The Secretary of Defense

Sirs:

I have the honor to transmit the report of the National Academy of Sciences on the effects of the program of herbicide spraying in South Vietnam. This report was prepared pursuant to Public Law 91-441 of 1970.

As the ability of organized societies to destroy each other by military means has escalated, it has become increasingly necessary to attempt to limit warfare to the actual combatants and the accomplishment of immediate military objectives. To these ends, international agreements have been directed, for example, to humane treatment of prisoners of war, respect for hospitals, recognition of military medical personnel as noncombatants, and avoidance to the extent possible of all but truly military targets. Thus, also, has our government agreed to eschew the use of biological and chemical weapons.

To be sure, given the intrinsic irrationality of war, if flame-throwers, high explosive weapons, laser-guided bombs, and all the rest are deemed to be "acceptable," one may reasonably ask how one can rationalize outlawing any other weapon or procedure on the ground that it is still more inhumane? Nevertheless, just as men of good will, in all nations, agree that a principal burden upon governments is to utilize diplomacy and negotiation -- rather than arms -- to settle differences, so, too, are they agreed that governments must continue to press for international agreements which, to the extent possible, will limit military actions to the achievement

of immediate military ends, minimizing all other associated brutality, horror and destruction of the natural and man-made worlds. Indeed, it is the difficulty in thus containing the effective dimensions of nuclear weapons which has rendered their use so abhorrent that they have become weapons of last resort. And it was such concerns, inter alia, that led to the present study.

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The more commonly used herbicides are synthetic chemical analogues of the hormones that, in the normal developing plant, regulate its rate and pattern of growth. Because of their specificity -- causing aberrant growth or death of some plant species while without effect on others -- these herbicides have found wide use in agriculture and home gardening. Indeed, the American capability to feed ourselves and also provide 70 percent of all of the food surplus, anywhere on the planet, which now can be made available to feed those in less fortunate nations, derives in significant measure from the use of this same class of chemicals.

In the course of the war in Southeast Asia, these herbicides were utilized on a large scale for military purpose, predominantly for defoliation of dense forest so as to permit detection of enemy military and supply units, and to lesser degree for crop destruction and a variety of other purposes. The general procedure was to dispense solutions of herbicides from fixed-wing aircraft or helicopters so that a fine spray would envelop the vegetation below. As the magnitude of this program increased, thoughtful individuals considered it desirable to inquire into the acute and persistent effects, if any, of such herbicide usage on the Vietnamese population as well as on the fauna and flora of the region. Presumably, the findings of such an examination could (a) contribute to the assessment of damage to Vietnam which will be required to plan future efforts to reconstruct that country and repair the ravages of war, and (b) assist in judgment as to whether, in the future, such herbicide usage should be considered to fall within or outside the category of chemical warfare to be eschewed, as defined in the Geneva protocols.

As an expression of this concern, the Congress, in Public Law 91-441, directed that:

(1) The Secretary of Defense shall undertake to enter into appropriate arrangements with the National Academy of Sciences to conduct a comprehensive study and investigation to determine (A) the ecological and physiological dangers inherent in the use of herbicides, and (B) the ecological and physiological effects of the defoliation program carried out by the Department of Defense in South Vietnam.

(2) Of the funds authorized by this Act for research, development, testing, and evaluation of chemical warfare agents and for defense against biological warfare agents, such amounts as are required shall be available to carry out the study and investigation authorized by paragraph (1) of this subsection.

On 26 October 1970, by a letter addressed to the Director of Defense Research and Engineering, the Academy accepted this responsibility. The Academy has a long tradition of scientific assistance to the national defense and it desires also to be of whatever assistance it can in furthering our ability to minimize the undesirable secondary consequences of warfare without sacrificing the capability of the American military establishment to assure the national defense. Hence, with the understanding that the resultant report to the Department of Defense and to the Congress would be made public, we were pleased to accept this task. Contract DAHC15 71 C 0211 between the Academy and the Department of Defense, to provide funds and other support for this endeavor, was signed on 8 December 1970.

Arrangements for the study: As we entered upon the task, some of its inherent difficulties were self-evident: Appraisal of the effects of herbicide usage, necessarily, had to be undertaken well after the fact. Since the war in South Vietnam was certainly not conducted as a controlled experiment, valid conclusions might well be seriously constrained by the complexity of actual circumstances, by lack of adequate records or qualified observers on the scene at

the time of the spraying program. Patently, separation of the effects of herbicides from all other aspects of the war would be difficult at best. Most importantly, military activity was and still is continuing in most of the areas which had previously been sprayed with herbicides; accordingly, safe access to large areas of the country was denied to our field teams, thereby in no small measure frustrating their efforts to secure critical data. Indeed, several of our Committee now know the sensation of being in an airplane subjected to fire from the ground.

The present report was prepared by an especially appointed ad hoc Committee on the Effects of Herbicides in Vietnam, working, administratively, within the Division of Biology and Agriculture of the National Research Council. Each member of the Committee was especially selected for his specific technical competencies. Professor Anton Lang of Michigan State University, a member of the Academy, renowned plant physiologist and authority on plant hormones accepted the invitation to chair the Committee. A deliberate decision was taken to enroll, as full-fledged members of the Committee, a number of scientists from countries other than our own. A distinguished Vietnamese scientist, Professor Le-Van-Thoi, President of the National Scientific Research Council of Vietnam, agreed to serve as Associate Chairman; other members are from South Vietnam, Canada, England and Sweden.

The early planning for this study indicated the desirability of including, on the Committee, one or more appropriately qualified anthropologists. However, formation of the Committee was significantly delayed when anthropologists indicated their reluctance to be associated with this effort because the supporting funds were to be provided through the Department of Defense, an attitude formalized by the American Anthropological Association. A meeting to resolve this question, arranged by the Division of Behavioral Sciences of the National Research Council, was attended by several senior anthropologists, albeit not as formal representatives of the American Anthropological Association. Subsequently, one senior anthropologist undertook to serve without any qualifying reservations, while another agreed to participate provided that the funds to be utilized in support of his specific activities, within this project, would derive from some source other than the Department of

Defense. Concerned that the study be neither unduly delayed nor seriously incomplete, the use of private funds from the endowment income of the Academy was authorized for this purpose.

When the study began, it was recognized that much of the basic information concerning herbicide usage in South Vietnam was classified by the Department of Defense and not available to the public. In an exchange of correspondence on this subject, the Defense Director of Research and Engineering indicated that:

...I would like to assure that all information which may be required in its conduct will be supplied by the Department of Defense regardless of classification.

Subsequently, he wrote that:

This acknowledges your letter of 26 October recommending declassification of DoD data on herbicides for use by the National Academy of Sciences study.

...I agree that your committee must have access to these data and that they should be declassified. However, premature release of these data, and their subsequent partial evaluation and publication by either scientists or journalists prior to publication of your study, would not be in the best interests of either of us. I suggest that the data should be restricted to the use of your committee until your report is published. At that time the data could be placed in the public domain....

Later, in a letter concerned with various detailed arrangements for the study, I stated that:

...It is further understood that the Department is prepared to make available on a privileged but otherwise non-classified basis all information and data in its possession directly related to the matters under consideration as well as

full access to various civilian and military personnel whose particular experience and information may be considered necessary in the development of the study program....

On this basis, without requirement for security clearance of those Committee members who had not previously undergone clearance for other reasons, the work was undertaken.

The present report is only a summary of the full activities and findings of the Committee; a more complete account will be made available as soon as possible. This summary report has been subjected to an unusually intensive review by an ad hoc panel of Academy members appointed by our Report Review Committee. In a constructive dialogue, the authors of the report responded to numerous questions, suggestions and criticisms of the review panel.

Findings and Conclusions of the Report -- A Commentary.

The report provides its own summary and recommendations. It may, however, be of assistance to the reader to comment upon some of the principal findings of the report and their significance.

1) The Committee was unable to gather any definitive indication of direct damage by herbicides to human health. However, to a greater extent than in other areas, there were consistent, albeit largely "secondhand," reports from Montagnards, of acute and occasionally fatal respiratory distress, particularly in children. The inability of the Committee to visit the Montagnards in their own locales so as to verify these tales, is greatly regretted. Although these reports did not come from medically qualified observers, the Committee considers it to be important that this matter be pursued at the earliest opportunity.

Considerable attention was paid to the possibility, suggested previously, of birth defects induced by herbicides or by contaminants in herbicide preparations; no evidence substantiating the occurrence of herbicide-induced defects was obtained. However, the potentially most definitive aspect of this examination has not yet been completed.

2) Attempts to assess the social, economic and psychological effects of the program of herbicides spraying on the peoples of South Vietnam were less than satisfying. Certainly the impact of the spraying program on that population now appears relatively trivial as compared with other aspects of the upheaval in that country. Evidence was obtained that numbers of families moved away from their traditional homes because of the herbicide spray program, but few were actually identified. The fertility of their land, however, was not reduced thereby and it should not be residual effects of the crop destruction program, per se, which prevents their return. On the other hand, small land holders growing tree crops, e.g., coconuts, definitely suffered more lasting economic damage.

Other than the belief reported to be prevalent among the Montagnards that spraying was directly responsible for acute illness, by and large the South Vietnamese appear to hold no consistent views with respect to alleged health hazards resulting from exposure to herbicide spraying, although many are greatly concerned with this possibility. Only in part did such fears as were expressed appear to find their origin in propagandistic activities.

Although available toxicological information had indicated that, within a considerable dosage range, the herbicidal compounds are relatively innocuous, no sizeable human population had previously been thus exposed. Moreover, at the time the program began, it was not known that preparations of the herbicide, 2,4,5-T, were contaminated with the extraordinarily toxic compound, TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin), about 200 to 300 pounds of which, mixed with about 50 million pounds of 2,4,5-T, were dispensed over South Vietnam. That no serious sequelae have since been definitely discerned is fortunate indeed. However, the continued presence of possibly significant concentrations of this material in fish in inland rivers, taken as recently as 1973, is considered to be a matter that warrants further attention.

On balance, the untoward effects of the herbicide program on the health of the South Vietnamese people appear to have been smaller than one might have feared.

3) The effects of herbicides on vegetation were largely confined to those resulting from direct contact during spraying. It was found that the various herbicides

disappear from the soil at a rate sufficiently rapid as to preclude any significant effect on the next crop of food plants, or on the next growing season of trees, shrubs, etc.

All evidence indicates that standing food crops, of all sorts, were highly vulnerable to the spray program. It was not possible, however, to assess the nutritional consequences of that program on the affected local populations.

4) A major effort of the Committee was devoted to appraisal of the effects of the herbicide spraying program on the forests of South Vietnam.

a) The mangrove forests were found to have been extremely vulnerable. One spraying resulted in the death of virtually all exposed trees, in this case, about 36 percent of the entire mangrove forest, equal to about 0.6 percent of the entire area of South Vietnam. It is estimated that these forests will not spontaneously recover for well nigh a century, if at all; reforestation by a program of massive planting of seedlings could reduce the time required to about two to three decades.

Concomitant with this devastation has been a significant reduction in the more valuable fauna of the waters of the region; however, several other changes appear to have been contributory at the same time, and it is difficult to know how significant the death of the mangroves was to this process. The dead mangroves are being harvested for fuel now, as in the past, although this occupation supports fewer individuals today than before the war. The economic loss, therefore, will be sustained in the future, when the forest has been stripped, unless a vigorous replanting program is undertaken. If this is not done, mankind will have been guilty of a large and ugly depredation of our natural heritage.

b) The bulk of the herbicide spraying program was addressed to the large inland forests of South Vietnam; of the total of about 25.9 million acres of such forests, at least 10.3 percent (6.5 percent of the total land area of South Vietnam) was subjected to one or more sprays. Unfortunately, for lack of military security, this area could not be examined on the ground by the Committee.

The appraisal of herbicide effects in the inland forests, therefore, necessarily rested virtually entirely upon interpretation of aerial photography, some of which was already available but most of which was obtained at the request of the Committee. Unfortunately, photointerpretation of damage to an essentially unfamiliar forest is extremely difficult; quantitative estimates may be accepted as reasonably reliable only if an acceptable sample can also be checked on the ground. Although no such opportunity was available, the Committee had no other alternative.

No other aspect of these studies engendered difficulty and controversy as did the estimate of damage to the inland forests. The original approach to this question was to appraise the damage in terms conventional to professional forestry, viz., the volume of "merchantable timber" represented by standing dead "merchantable trees," i.e., trees of such size and quality as to have been candidates for timbering by the commercial practices of the region. Assessment was undertaken in these terms because a) it limits the assessment to the larger trees, more readily identified by aerial photography, b) such an assessment might make possible an estimate of economic loss, and c) preliminary estimates, in these terms, had already been published. Trees which have disappeared are not counted by this procedure and standing trunks of large trees which have lost much of their crowns may be difficult to identify. However, dead trees of the commercially more valuable species commonly stand for several years before falling.

When the initial estimate, in these terms, proved to be strikingly smaller than previously reported preliminary estimates by others, it encountered scientific incredulity among members of both the working Committee and the Report Review panel and engendered, in varying degree, an antagonism which was conditioned by the turbulent emotions which are the legacy of the American experience in the Vietnam war. While the latter situation lasted, it hindered progress of the study by focusing attention on this single parameter. For months, it diverted attention from full appreciation of the fact that such a summarizing, overall figure can be truly meaningful only if a single spraying were uniformly damaging, as it is to the mangroves, and from appreciation

that such a figure cannot reveal differential effects of one spraying as compared with multiple sprayings, differential effects on different types of forest, or on the merchantable trees as compared either with the growing stock or with trees of non-merchantable quality -- were there any such differential effects.

The resultant challenges to the estimate ultimately proved useful. Intensive rescrutiny of the data by the Committee resulted in significant upward revision of the quantitative estimate of damage and directed attention to the differential effects that the report now emphasizes. The report reveals that the Committee now considers that multiple sprayings will be devastating to any forest, as it was to these, and that even a single spraying can be very serious in relatively open forest and lethal to forests of particularly susceptible species. It remains possible that the Committee's estimate of the gross kill of merchantable timber will prove to be significantly lower than reality; if so, that will certainly be meaningful, but it no longer seems to be the central question. The extent and nature of total damage to the forest cannot adequately be expressed by this single statistic.

Meanwhile, months of intensive discussions, joint inspections of photographic material, refinement of procedures and of calculations, challenges and rebuttals were required in order to erase suspicion and relieve discord. To the extent that there remains concern for the accuracy of the Committee's estimate of the loss of merchantable timber in the inland forest (see below), that concern should now rest solely on scientific grounds. This painful episode is recounted in further evidence of the multitudinous, sometimes subtle effects of the Vietnam war on the American people.

The Committee's final estimate of the total volume of merchantable timber in standing merchantable trees killed by herbicides in the inland forest is about 1,250,000 m³, i.e., within a range of from 500,000 to 2,000,000 m³, out of a total stock of "merchantable timber" in the sprayed area estimated to be about 8,500,000 m³. The records are known to underestimate the total sprayed area; both estimates are, hence, understated proportionally.

When the fact of the disparity between the Committee's original estimate and previous estimates was recognized, a team of three independent photointerpreters and forestry experts was invited to review the procedures which had been used and to make an independent appraisal of the total damage to the inland forests, utilizing the photographic materials available to the Committee. Their estimate, based on a necessarily limited examination of the available material, was of the order of the top of the range now reported by the Committee. However, one member of this group, after a second examination of the photographic material suggested that the loss of merchantable timber may be a few times greater than that here reported by the Committee. In addition, a member of the Report Review panel has informed his colleagues that, also utilizing some of the materials gathered by the Committee, he estimates the amount of merchantable timber in the trees killed by herbicides in the inland forest to be significantly greater even than that estimated by the independent consultant. He has been invited to publish his analysis in the open literature.

The differences among these estimates arose from differences in the actual counts of dead trees in a given sample area, the specific samples used and the validity thereof, the total volume of merchantable timber assumed to have been in the forest before the spraying, etc. It may be noted that the sample areas examined by the Committee were decidedly larger than those utilized in formulating the other estimates and that the Committee gave considerable attention to weighing the relative contributions of those areas which had been sprayed zero, once, twice, thrice, or four or more times. However, it is not clear to what extent these differences contributed to the differences among the results. Patently, definitive resolution of these substantial differences will not be possible until an appropriate survey of the area can be made on the ground.

It is not clear, in any case, what social, economic or ecological significance to impute to the estimated parameter, i.e., the volume of "merchantable timber" killed by the spraying. As long as the dead trees stand, they do not necessarily represent "economic loss" since, were peace restored, there would still be opportunity to timber many of these trees, provided that the necessary

labor and mill capacity were available. Similarly, trees killed by herbicide spraying that have disappeared because they were taken down for timber or fuel do not represent economic loss.

Accordingly, the Committee sought other indicators of the extent of damage to the forest. Several other observations by the Committee seem more descriptive of the consequences to the forest of the spraying program than is the absolute value assigned to the volume of merchantable timber killed by herbicides:

i) Two-thirds of the area sprayed in the inland forest was sprayed only once. The dead merchantable trees in such areas, in excess of those expected from normal mortality, were found to be rather variable and generally few in number. The impression was gained that most of these areas, particularly in the dense forest, will spontaneously recover in due course, with the distribution of species probably much as it was before.

ii) The number of dead merchantable trees per unit area increased with multiple sprayings. Areas sprayed three or more times were extremely hard hit; in some areas more than half of all "merchantable trees" were killed. These areas, perhaps 12 percent of the total sprayed area, are unlikely to recover without a major effort at assistance.

iii) The bulk of the biomass in much of the forest consists of non-merchantable trees, viz., trees below merchantable size (growing stock) or of non-merchantable quality. When killed, these trees generally decompose and disappear much more rapidly than do "merchantable trees." Although quantitative estimation of damage to this component of the forest biomass is not feasible by aerial photography, the Committee notes that the loss of such material due to herbicide spraying was extensive in relatively open forest and less serious in the dense, heavily canopied forest; as a very rough approximation the Committee suggests that the loss of such material may have been of the order of 5 to 13 million m³. The report further notes that:

One clear conclusion reached by the Committee is that the greatest damage which the inland forests suffered from war activities, including herbicides, has been incurred by the heavily overused open or

thin forests and by the young secondary forests emerging from abandoned swidden. This damage does not appear in the assessment of merchantable timber loss since it represented loss of growing stock below merchantable size and of the early stages of forest regeneration. In these forests the loss of seed sources may be a very critical factor even though the merchantable volume of lost seed trees was quite small. High mortality of seedlings, saplings and young trees, not reflected in merchantable timber loss, in many cases resulted in setting the succession back for many years. But this loss, though very real, could not be quantitatively evaluated without far more extensive studies on the ground than those we were able to conduct.

...Damage due to bombing and shelling, whether or not it was associated with herbicide treatment, may well be the most serious and long lasting of all of the war impacts on the inland forest. In the large areas cleared by bombings, not only the merchantable timber, when present, was destroyed but so was all of the growing stock in the opening. Extending far beyond the dimensions of the opening in the forest created by the bomb strike is the damage to living trees caused by shrapnel. These metal fragments in the living trees have already created serious problems for the manufacturers of forest products in SVN in terms of equipment maintenance, loss of yield, reduction in mill productivity and serious hazards to the operating personnel, and these problems will persist long after the residual effects of herbicide damage have disappeared. These problems may indeed reduce the opportunities to sell South Vietnamese logs in the international market and to establish new wood-using industries in SVN....

...Future development of a viable forestry program in SVN, including forest management and development of utilization facilities, will have to be based upon study of the unusual conditions induced by war damages, separately and in combination. Areas where growing stock has been depleted and where regeneration has been inhibited will need to be given special treatment to restore productivity. The longer the delay in taking these measures the more difficult and costly will be the rehabilitation.

Thus, whereas one cannot rationally assign some dollar value to the herbicide-caused economic loss to Vietnam, either in the past or the near future, there will be serious penalties in the long term unless a commensurate effort is undertaken to prevent them. And, as in the case of the mangroves, there is the burden of conscience to restore these forests to their natural or improved condition.

Handwritten flourish

The Academy is grateful to the Committee, its staff, its consultants, and our reviewers, all of whom gave unstintingly of themselves in the major effort herewith reported.

This highly informative report cannot, by itself, provide definitive answers to all of the questions held by the Congress at the time of passage of Public Law 91-441. However, considering the adverse circumstances under which it was prepared, we consider the report to be a most significant accomplishment. We trust that it will prove to be a meaningful contribution to understanding and a useful guide for future decisions.

Respectfully yours,



Philip Handler
President

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES NATIONAL ACADEMY OF ENGINEERING

2101 CONSTITUTION AVENUE WASHINGTON, D.C. 20418

DIVISION OF BIOLOGY AND AGRICULTURE
COMMITTEE ON THE EFFECTS
OF HERBICIDES IN VIETNAM

TELEPHONE: (202) 961-1761

February 11, 1974

Dr. Philip Handler, President
National Academy of Sciences
2101 Constitution Avenue
Washington, D. C. 20418

Dear Dr. Handler:

I am herewith transmitting to you the summary report of the Committee on the Effects of Herbicides in Vietnam.

When, almost exactly three years ago, I agreed to direct this study as Committee chairman, I questioned whether the study of one particular impact of the war in South Vietnam would be very productive. It was clear even then that the country had suffered from many war related disturbances and that the effects of such would be closely intertwined; to disentangle one effect would neither be easy, nor provide a comprehensive assessment of the consequences of its use.

My concern over the feasibility of this assignment was deepened with my first visit to South Vietnam. It became very clear at that time that the accounts which we had been given of the improved security and safety situation, while perhaps quite true for cities and larger settlements, did not apply to out-lying areas--especially the mangrove and inland forest--which had been exposed to the heaviest herbicide sprayings and which therefore we needed to visit and study in detail. I accepted your appointment despite these handicaps because of my belief in the importance of determining the nature and scale of these effects and because the longer the assessment might be delayed, the lesser became the prospects of obtaining meaningful data. I believe these feelings were shared by all those who accepted appointment to the Committee.

The limitations within which the Committee had to work necessitated some profound and often agonizing revisions in our plans; agonizing in that we often had to accept less than ideal alternatives, whether in regard to the extent of a study or the techniques utilized. There was one principle that was maintained on which I and the members of the Committee from the outset had placed the greatest importance: our studies must be approached in a quantitative manner. However, the extent to which a problem could be so studied under these conditions varied greatly. An inventory of the herbicide operations--what fraction of the various vegetation types had been sprayed, and

Dr. Philip Handler
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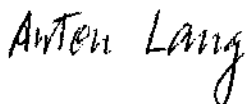
how many times--was done for the whole country. Damage to inland forests was assessed on a substantial and representative sample. Impact on settlements was studied in 18 areas reaching from the southernmost tip of the country to the latitude of the City of Hue in the north. Other studies could be done only in one or a few selected sites, and generalizations, if any, made only with strong qualifications. In some important problem areas, our results did not permit any conclusions. This quantitative approach, although it limited the extent of problems which could be studied, was preferable to collecting a larger quantity of qualitative, anecdotal data inasmuch as these latter would not have permitted any generalizations.

To the extent possible in a study of this nature, all results and conclusions are documented by data. However, the supporting material gathered by the Committee is voluminous and is both quantitative and qualitative. Much of it is in the form of working documents prepared by individual Committee members and/or consultants and will be submitted for publication in the near future. It should provide further opportunities for study and analysis by others who may follow.

To my regret, it has not been possible to obtain a consensus of all Committee members on all sections of this report. Professors Pham Hoang Ho, Alexander Leighton, and Paul Richards have disassociated themselves from the section dealing with the quantitative assessment of damage to the inland forests (IV B 3). Their statements of exception are reproduced in a section immediately following the text of the report. I respect their exceptions although I believe the assessment of forest damage was conducted by individuals with great experience and an impeccable record in forest surveys of this nature. I must add that this study was very complex indeed and spans a very wide spectrum of disciplines. Therefore, the individual members of the Committee should not be held accountable for every part of the entire report.

In presenting this report I wish to recognize and commend to you the enormous contribution of the members of the Committee. They remained dedicated even when it became necessary to scrap or alter study plans, and although all were engaged with other pressing commitments they never refused to place at our disposal their time, their thought, or their personal convenience. The consultants and associates of the Committee also deserve highest praise, as does the Committee staff and especially the Committee's principal staff officer.

Respectfully,



Anton Lang
Chairman

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**The Effects of
Herbicides in
South Vietnam**

SUMMARY

Origin of the Study (Section I)^a

The study had its origin in the widespread public concern that the extensive use of herbicides in the Vietnam war may have had serious adverse effects, perhaps irreversible, on environment and people, major economic losses because of damage to forests and crops, and reproductive failures, congenital malformations, and genetic damage in humans.

In response to this public concern, Congress in late 1970 directed the Department of Defense (DOD) to contract with the National Academy of Sciences (NAS), for a study of the ecological and physiological effects of the widespread military use of herbicides in South Vietnam (SVN). A 17-member committee, with additional professional staff and 30 consultants, carried out the study, which included field, laboratory, and library research. Some 1,500 man-days were spent in SVN during the course of the study, the results of which are discussed in the following report. Additional technical details are available in the public records of the Committee.

The Committee conducted work on the following:

1. Inventory of the sprayed areas by herbicide type, date, and frequency of spray application as related to vegetation types and to population density.
2. Effects on vegetation, with emphasis on the inland and mangrove forests--the two vegetation types subjected to the most extensive herbicide spraying--and also with consideration of effects on crop production.
3. Persistence of herbicides in the soil, and their effects on soil fertility, i.e., on the content of essential nutrients available to plants.
4. Effects on animals (limited to studies on animal populations in estuaries, and on the populations of disease vectors, both in the mangrove).
5. Effects on people (medical, socioeconomic, psychological).

The extent to which these problems could be effectively dealt with was highly variable. The Committee could construct only a tentative initial program; this had to be modified repeatedly in the course of the work. The principal limitation to the Committee's work was the security conditions in SVN, which rendered long-term field studies virtually

^a Section numbers refer to sections in the body of this report.

impossible. Moreover, the Committee started its work in SVN in September 1971, while all major herbicide operations were terminated early in that year; the Committee had somewhat over one year for gathering most of its materials. Hence, on the one hand, relatively short-term effects were difficult to study; on the other hand, except where detailed historical information such as aerial photographs were available, research was limited to short periods of time, whereas some of the effects, for example on succession of vegetation in forests, are long-term ones. Statistics and inventories on SVN population, forestry, and agriculture were not available or did not contain sufficient detail to allow quantitative assessments of many herbicide effects, particularly at the national level. Despite these limitations, we carried out field studies on a number of problems (effects on vegetation and soils, persistence of herbicides in soils, effects on estuarine life and on ecological-epidemiological effects of defoliation, and on the perception of herbicides and their effects by humans), and the available documents, including extensive aerial photography, were examined and evaluated.

History of Military Use of Herbicides in South Vietnam (Section II B)

The military use of herbicides in SVN began in 1962, was greatly expanded in 1965 and 1966, and reached a peak in 1967-69 (see Table I). After it was reported that 2,4,5-T, one of the components of the most extensively used herbicide preparation, Agent Orange, caused birth defects in mice, the use of this agent was stopped in 1970, and, during 1971, application of herbicides under U.S. military control was rapidly phased out. According to records available to the Committee, fixed-wing operations ceased in 1971, and other applications in October of that year. The herbicide agents used in the Vietnam war and the application rates are shown in Table II.

The Herbicides Used in the Vietnam War (Section II C)

The herbicides used for military purposes in SVN are among a considerable number of chemical compounds utilized widely for the control of weeds and unwanted vegetation, although the application of some of them, in the United States and some other countries, is limited to specific purposes. They are selected because they can be manufactured cheaply and in large quantities, but also for physical, chemical, and biological characteristics that minimize undesired side effects. They have been used worldwide in large quantities, on the whole without causing serious hazards. There is considerable information on their properties, such as solubility and volatility, effects on plants, behavior in soil, toxicity on and behavior in animals, although the amount of this information is greater for some (2,4-D and 2,4,5-T) than for others (picloram, cacodylic acid).

In the form present in Agent Orange, 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are little soluble in water but are moderately volatile. In soil, they undergo rapid breakdown (2,4-D more rapidly than 2,4,5-T). These properties indicate that the two compounds will not readily move in soil and water, though some movement as vapor does occur. 2,4-D in the form present in Agent White, and the other component of this agent, picloram, are non-volatile

Table I.

Application of Herbicides in the Vietnam War by Year

Year	<u>Millions of Gallons</u>								
	1962- July 1965	Aug-Dec 1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	Total
Orange	NA ^a	.37	1.64	3.17	2.22	3.25	.57	.00	11.22
White	NA ^a	0	.53	1.33	2.13	1.02	.22	.01	5.24
Blue	NA ^a	0	.02	.38	.28	.26	.18	.00	1.12
Total	1.27	.37	2.19	4.88	4.63	4.53	.97	.01	18.85

^aNot available.

Table II.

Herbicides Used in SVN 1965-1971

<u>Agent</u>	<u>Active Chemical Components</u>	<u>Military Application Rate (lb/acre)</u>	<u>Millions of gallons used, Aug. 1965-1971</u>
Orange	2,4-D	12.00	11.22
	2,4,5-T	13.80	
White	2,4-D	6.00	5.24
	Picloram	1.62	
Blue	Cacodylic acid	9.30	1.12
Total			17.58

but highly water-soluble, and picloram is more persistent in soil than 2,4-D or 2,4,5-T. Thus, while there is no hazard of movement in vapor form, there is some hazard of movement with water, both in soil and by rain. Cacodylic acid, the active component of Agent Blue, is also non-volatile and water-soluble but decomposes rather rapidly to non-soluble, relatively non-toxic arsenical compounds in soil and water.

2,4-D, 2,4,5-T, picloram, and cacodylic acid are distinctly toxic but only when ingested or absorbed in relatively large amounts. The toxicity of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T is somewhat greater than that of picloram and cacodylic acid. 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are rapidly excreted in unchanged form by most animals, and there is no evidence for accumulation in any tissues or in the food chain. Some derivatives of the two herbicides, including those present in Agent Orange, seem, however, to possess a relatively high toxicity for some aquatic animals.

In 1969, both 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T were reported to produce birth defects in laboratory animals. At about the same time, it was recognized that 2,4,5-T contained a contaminant, TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin), an extremely toxic material that also possessed teratogenic properties. However, whereas some of the birth defects in laboratory animals, which had originally been ascribed to 2,4,5-T, were actually caused by TCDD, it appears that 2,4,5-T has some teratogenic potential of its own, although at relatively high doses. Tests with 2,4-D were less conclusive.

TCDD, a Contaminant of 2,4,5-T (Section II C-2, C-5)

TCDD is extremely toxic to some laboratory animals. In male guinea pigs, the most sensitive animal so far found, a single dose of 0.0006 milligrams per kilogram body weight causes death in half of the animals fed. In other animals (rats, mice, rabbits) the corresponding dose is considerably higher, in the range of 0.05 to 0.2 milligrams per kilogram. TCDD has been found to be teratogenic in mice; results with other laboratory animals have not been conclusive. The lethal dose in humans is not known, nor is that required to cause birth defects, if indeed there is such an activity. TCDD is strongly implicated as the main cause of chloracne, a disease that has affected employees in some plants manufacturing 2,4,5-T or its precursor, 2,4,5-trichlorophenol. TCDD apparently decays very slowly under normal environmental conditions, indicating that its potential hazards may be very persistent.

Inventory of the Military Use of Herbicides in South Vietnam (Section III)

The Committee conducted as thorough as possible an inventory of the herbicide operations in SVN, as the basis for assessing the effects of these operations on vegetation, soils, and people. The main source used was the HERBS tape, a computerized record of time, place, amount, type, and military purpose of herbicide operations carried out by aircraft between August 1965 and February 1971 (plus a printout covering the period

March through October 1971, the stated termination of the U.S.-controlled herbicide operations). The material, which covers about 85 percent of all herbicide operations in SVN, was evaluated in conjunction with the help of a vegetation map and aerial photographs in order to determine the distribution of herbicides with respect to vegetation types. Their distribution with respect to population and to settlement types in the whole country could not be studied, because relevant material was received too late. Results of such studies in selected areas are summarized under "Human Reactions to Military Use of Herbicides," Items 1-3, see below.

The number of gallons sprayed in SVN is shown in Tables I and II, the areas sprayed once, twice, and more times in Table III. The total area of SVN that was sprayed is somewhat larger than the area of Connecticut, while the entire country (approximately 44.6 million acres) equals in size this state plus Rhode Island, Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire and Massachusetts.

About 88 percent of the herbicide missions recorded on the HERBS tape were designated for defoliation, about 9 percent were for crop destruction, and the remaining 3 percent were directed at base perimeters, enemy cache sites, waterways, and lines of communication. There was little relationship between recorded purpose and distribution of sprays with respect to native vegetation type, although a relatively greater proportion of the crop-destruction missions employed Agent Blue, and all these missions were flown in the northern two thirds of SVN. Regardless of the stated purpose of the mission, about three quarters of the total gallonage was sprayed over inland forests, about 8 percent over mangrove forests, and a little over 7 percent over permanently cultivated areas (see Table III). Crops were affected, however, to a greater extent than indicated by the latter figure because temporary fields ("swiddens") such as those customarily cultivated by the Highlanders (Montagnards) were classed as "forest," and because field crops were damaged by drift of herbicides outside the intended or recorded spray path.

Herbicide Damage to Vegetation (Section IV)

Death of and damage to vegetation caused by herbicides can have many different consequences: loss of potential production at a stage before the growth becomes economically valuable; loss of commercial products such as timber, grain and fruit; lack of young plants and of seeds necessary to maintain the "system," the latter type of effect being particularly important in native vegetation. The Committee studied herbicide damage to three major vegetation types of SVN: the inland forest, the mangrove forest, and (permanently) cultivated land. Information on effects on the last-named type (crop damage) was obtained mainly in a study of effects on settlements and by interviews with villagers, and the results are therefore reported under "Effects of Herbicides on Humans." With the exception of extensively sprayed mangrove forests, aerial photographs showed that vegetation cover of some type returned to most areas within six months to a year after they had been sprayed. Because of limited access to the

Table III.

Estimated Acreage Sprayed One or More Times, 1965-1971^a

Vegetation Type ^b	Total in SVN in 1953		Number of Times Sprayed Aug. 1965-Mar. 1971				Total Sprayed one or more times	
	Millions of acres	Percent	Millions of acres				Millions of acres	Percent
			1	2	3	4+		
Inland forest	25.91	62.4	1.72	0.62	0.22	.11	2.67	10.3
Cultivated land	7.80	18.8	0.20	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.26	3.2
Mangrove forest	.72	1.7	0.14	0.07	0.03	0.02	0.26	36.1
Other	7.07	17.1	0.31	0.07	0.02	0.00	0.39	5.5
Total	41.50	100.0	2.37	0.80	0.28	0.13	3.58	8.6

^aDoes not include coverage of missions before August 1965 (1.27 million gallons) and missions after that date for which location information is incomplete (1.1 million gallons), representing about 12.5% of the total gallonage accounted for. Compare Tables III C-1 and III C-2, and related text.

^bInland forests include those areas classed as dense forest, secondary forest, swidden zones, bamboo forests, open dipterocarp, Lagerstroemia and Leguminosae forests. "Other" include pine forests, savanna and degraded forests, grasslands and steppes in higher elevations, dunes and brushland, grass and sedge swamps and areas of no vegetation (urban areas, roads, water courses, etc.). Classification and area figures follow Bernard Rollet (1962). See Tables II-E and III B-3 and the accompanying text.

forest we were often not able to determine the exact nature of the post-spray vegetation. The fact that vegetation of some type generally returned promptly suggests, however, that there was no permanent inhibition of plant growth because of adverse conditions in the soil.

Inland Forests: Damage and Redevelopment (Section IV B[1],[2])

The inland forests received three-quarters of all herbicide sprays. As a result of extensive study of aerial photography and limited observations on the ground in sprayed forests, we conclude that damage to forests depended on the frequency with which a given area was sprayed, the time intervals of individual sprays in multiple-sprayed areas, the extent to which there was other disturbance (especially bombing, and also clearing and burning for agriculture or other purposes, as well as selective logging). It should also be noted that much of the inland forests of SVN, including the areas sprayed with herbicides, was already disturbed--as are most tropical forests, except those in the remotest locations--by lumbering, agriculture clearing, or fire prior to the time of spraying. Although some areas are technically classed as "forest," and have been subjected to herbicide sprays, they contained few large trees.

Because so many variables are involved, the extent to which there will be recovery from deleterious effects, and the time required, cannot be stated in precise terms. In some areas, particularly those sprayed only once and not subject to other disturbances, damage was generally limited to the tallest trees, which were more exposed to the spray than lower ones. It appears that redevelopment will resemble the pattern of forest growth following harvest of large trees. In areas sprayed more frequently, where damage was heavier in the lower stories of the forest, the redevelopment will take longer. If large-scale rehabilitation of war-damaged inland forest is undertaken, it is probable that all single-sprayed and most multiple-sprayed forests can eventually be restored to productive forestry by adopting appropriate silvicultural practices. Systematic on-the-ground studies of sprayed areas are essential, with special attention to numbers and sizes of young individuals of the important tree species and of seed sources.

Concern has been expressed that herbicide-damaged forests will be replaced by bamboo. Information derived from limited field and aerial reconnaissance suggests that where herbicide spraying has led to the death of the forest tree species and suppression of their reproduction, bamboos, if present in the area--as they are in many but not all inland forest areas--tend to increase with establishment of pure stands, which may persist for many years. However, it is difficult to distinguish this herbicide effect

from effects of other disturbances, particularly fire and agricultural clearing, and it should be realized that extensive bamboo forests existed in the SVN before the herbicide operations, probably as results of such disturbances. Evidence for rapid invasion of new forest areas by bamboos as a consequence of herbicide spraying was not observed.

Inland Forests: Loss of Merchantable Timber and Other Damage
(Section IV B-3)

Using the HERBS records of herbicide operations, plus aerial photographs taken before, during, and after these operations, combined with information on the characteristics of the forests of SVN and measures of logs used currently in sawmills in SVN, the Committee estimated the total loss of merchantable timber in SVN forests by estimating the total number of trees of merchantable size killed by the herbicide operations in the inland forests of SVN, based on a detailed analysis of no less than some 100,000 acres (40,000 hectares). The estimate is 1.25 million m^3 with a range of 0.5 to 2.0 million m^3 . This may be related to an estimated total of about 8.5 million m^3 of merchantable timber in the sprayed area. Our estimate is, however, much lower than previous estimates by some other authors. The reasons for this discrepancy lie in differences in assumptions about the status of the forest inventory in SVN prior to application of herbicides, in estimates of effect of one and more than one spray, in predictions of length of time for restoration of forest structure following spray, and differences in estimates of total forest area exposed to herbicide sprays.

Loss to non-merchantable timber in the herbicide-sprayed area of the inland forests was estimated to be between 5,050,000 and 11,150,000 m^3 (see Table IV B-8) although the accuracy of this estimate is considerably less than that for merchantable timber.

In addition to the losses in merchantable and non-merchantable timber, there are other types of damage; to saplings and young trees ("growing stock"), which in normal forest development will replace older trees as these die or are harvested, to growth because of herbicide damage (e.g., loss of part of the crown), which however did not result in death, and to seed sources. These damage classes could not be determined quantitatively, because of lack of both access on the ground and a forest inventory. However, the damage to growing stock has been substantial, particularly in heavily overused open forests and in young forests emerging from abandoned swidden. Loss of seed sources in these forests may also be a very critical type of damage, with serious consequences for the future of the forests, even though the merchantable volume of the source trees (per unit forest surface) was quite small. Thus, the total damage, particularly in multiple-sprayed inland forest areas, was undoubtedly extensive and serious. We also found some, although not very extensive, anomalies for which the explanation is not clear. These were usually areas that had been sprayed four times and from which the tree cover has almost entirely disappeared. The reasons for this could not be determined. Other areas sprayed as many or more times did not exhibit this much damage.

Damage to the inland forests was not confined to herbicides. Damage by bombing was also heavy, in both extent (area) and intensity (destruction of all trees, large and small, in the area of the crater, heavy damage in its perimeter, including metal fragments embedded in surviving trees, which pose a hazard in sawmills, etc., and may reduce the value of timber from SVN in general).

Damage and Regrowth in Mangrove Forests (Section IV C)

A large proportion of the mangrove forests was sprayed with herbicides, and was more heavily affected by the spraying than any other vegetation type in SVN. Of the approximately 720,000 acres of SVN that were covered by mangrove (representing about 1.7 percent of the total area of the nation), about 260,000 acres, or 36 percent, were sprayed. One spray usually killed all mangrove trees; large contiguous areas were devastated, and there has been little or no recolonization of mangrove trees in extensive sprayed areas, except along the margins of some of the canals that drain these swamps. One reason for this is that in some areas, especially the "Rung Sat Special Zone" southeast of Saigon, the destruction of this vegetation type was so complete as to eliminate most seed sources. Wood cutting, a traditional economic pursuit in the mangrove forests, is probably further reducing the supply of seeds and retarding recovery. An estimate based on a model suggests that, under present conditions of use and natural regrowth, it may take well over 100 years for the mangrove area to be reforested. With a massive reforestation program, the forest could probably be restored in approximately 20 years if sufficient money and seed resources were available.

The mangrove forest plays important roles as spawning site and food source for many economically important fish and shellfish species. Comparative studies of frequency of fish, shellfish, and planktonic organisms--the last-named important as food for the former two--in waters of an herbicide sprayed and largely denuded region and of an intact mangrove region showed that, while both were rich in planktonic organisms, the numbers and variety of these organisms were lower in the former than the latter. The same was true of large fish, while fish eggs and larvae were more frequent in the denuded region, although the variety of fish was the same. However, the data are not extensive, and the differences between the two sites are not large enough to draw firm conclusions. Overall fish catch in SVN has not changed much in the years of the herbicide operations, but catch per fishing craft (per unit of effort) has declined, in contrast, for example, to the situation

in Taiwan and Thailand. However, it was not possible to separate the operation of herbicide-related effects, such as the possible decrease in fish food, from other effects, such as increased fishing pressure, increased motor boat traffic, and decreased safety.

Effects of Herbicides on Soils (Section V)

The Committee conducted two kinds of studies to investigate the possibility that military applications of herbicides might have resulted in long lasting changes in the ability of the soil to support plant growth. First, samples of soil from sites in SVN and Thailand that had been sprayed during the military herbicide operations or in related tests were chemically analyzed for the presence of herbicides (2,4,5-T; 2,4-D; picloram). Second, planting experiments and chemical analyses for residual herbicides were conducted in SVN and the Philippines in tropical forest, agricultural, and mangrove soils that had been treated with herbicides in the same amounts as used in the herbicide operations in SVN. In general, both chemical and biological assays showed that toxic residues of herbicides applied at military rates disappeared within less than one year. If traces persisted (in certain mangrove areas), they were below or near the limit of biological activity even in highly sensitive plants and did not seem to affect the reestablishment of native vegetation.

Limited studies were made of soil fertility--that is, the contents of the soil in readily available essential plant nutrients--in herbicide sprayed and unsprayed inland and mangrove forest areas. Compared with other ecosystems, in tropical forests a very high proportion of those plant nutrients is contained in the vegetation, rather than being retained in the soil. Concern has therefore been expressed that the death of large amounts of tropical forest vegetation may lead to loss of essential nutrients from the ecosystem, decreasing the prospects for revegetation after extensive herbicide treatment. Our results indicate, however, that although there were certain differences between "sprayed" and "unsprayed" inland forest and mangrove soils, the widespread death of vegetation caused by the herbicides has not had lasting detrimental effect on those plant nutrients within the ecosystem, with the possible exception of potassium. Potassium may be lost especially if the levels of other elements in the soil or the shed plant matter should become too high.

We saw no evidence in aerial photographs, aerial observation, or our limited visits to affected forests that destruction of vegetation by herbicides had resulted in laterization (permanent hardening of the soil surface, which inhibits forest regrowth) over any large areas of inland forests, as has been suggested by some authors.

Effects of Herbicides on Humans (Section VII)

The following conceivable types of herbicide effects on animals and humans were considered by the Committee: toxicity in directly exposed

individuals; birth defects of offspring born to exposed mothers; ecological effects on disease-carrying insects and rodents; economic and behavioral changes associated with herbicide-caused destruction of vegetation; and perception and evaluation of herbicide effects by the Vietnamese public.

Herbicides and Birth Defects (Section VII A-1)

The Committee could find no conclusive evidence of association between exposure to herbicides and birth defects in humans. Available records of two major Saigon hospitals and evaluation of records in a third, as far as they go, showed no consistent pattern of association between rates of congenital malformations and annual amounts of herbicides sprayed. The Committee recognizes however that the material is not adequate for definite conclusions.

The Committee has not yet completed its comparison of herbicide-spray records with the dates and places of birth of children with birth defects who were treated at the Barsky Unit, Cho Ray Hospital, Saigon-Cholon. The Barsky data are probably the best ones that can be obtained in SVN for the study of the problem.

The TCDD Problem in South Vietnam (Section VII A-2)

Analyses of samples of Agent Orange that had been returned from SVN, or had been procured but not shipped to the country, indicate that the amounts of TCDD ranged from less than 0.05 to almost 50 parts per million, with average concentrations in two sets of samples of 1.91 and 2.99 ppm. Over 10 million gallons of Agent Orange were used in SVN, suggesting that perhaps 220 to 360 lb of the TCDD contaminant were released over SVN.

Until early 1973, there were no analytical techniques available with sensitivity and specificity sufficient to detect the extremely small quantities of TCDD likely to be present in the environment. A much more sensitive and specific analytical method for detecting TCDD has recently been developed, and it has been reported that TCDD is present in fish and shellfish collected in 1970 and 1973 in waters of SVN, which drain areas that had been subjected to heavy herbicide sprays during the war. While the significance of this finding is by no means clear, it has raised serious, legitimate concerns for the public health; these concerns will persist as long as the problem is not resolved.

Herbicides and Medical-Ecological Changes (Section VII A-3)

Insect and rodent carriers (vectors and reservoirs) of human diseases are sensitive to small changes in the environment that they may share with humans. The Committee studied differences between vector populations and the prevalence of malaria in human populations living in cleared and uncleared mangrove forests. Malarial mosquitoes were absent and there was no malaria among children living in uncleared mangroves in Thailand. Malaria organisms were found in the blood of 7 percent of children in a herbicide-cleared mangrove area in SVN, where mosquitoes of species known to be capable of transmitting malaria were also found. A

mechanically cleared mangrove area in Thailand had malarial mosquitoes, and also had a higher rat population than did uncleared mangrove areas in Thailand. The results of this study led the Committee to conclude that clearing of mangroves by mechanical or chemical means may lead to environmental changes that favor vectors of human diseases. In the cleared mangrove community in SVN, the presence of malaria was probably a consequence also of temporary or permanent migrants from previously malaria-infested areas, and of the development of irrigated agriculture in herbicide-cleared areas that previously had been used for woodcutting and fishing.

Human Reactions to Military Use of Herbicides (Section VII B, C)

The Committee studied human reactions to the military applications of herbicides by interpretation of aerial photographs taken before and after spraying of a variety of land use and settlement types, by interviews, and by examination of relevant local documents where available. Studies of one or more of these kinds were conducted in mangrove forest, irrigated rice, coconut plantation, gardening, and upland crop areas, and among Vietnamese and Montagnard peoples (the latter being interviewed in refugee camps). We also made a study of Saigon newspapers and other publications representative of the urban population. The results of aerial photography, documentary, and interviews were highly consistent, thus reinforcing one another. On the other hand, the opinions obtained in interviews in each community were quite diverse, suggesting that our respondents were usually expressing their own perceptions of herbicides, rather than following propaganda lines of either the government of RVN or the NLF. Following are the main general results:

1. Some communities and agricultural areas of all land-use types that we studied were in the direct path of recorded herbicide missions, many of them repeatedly. However, since the areas were selected because they had been heavily sprayed, these results cannot be used for a quantitative estimate of people thus affected in the country as a whole.
2. Herbicide spraying resulted in the displacement of people from their homes and contributed to the urbanization of SVN. However, major dislocations of human populations that followed herbicide sprays were often associated with other types of aerial or ground military activity. In only one out of 18 areas studied did population and settlements increase over the pre-spray period.
3. Application of herbicides in areas of human habitation resulted in destruction of or damage to crops regardless of the intended military purpose and the herbicide agent used. In 16 out of 18 areas studied, crop damage that had been caused by missions designated as defoliation was greater than that by missions designated as crop destruction. In addition to crop damage because the fields were in the direct flight path of herbicide missions, there was evidence for widespread crop damage by drift, i.e., herbicide carried outside the intended target area by wind, even though herbicide missions were not to be flown when wind velocity exceeded a certain limit.

4. Herbicide exposure of field crops usually resulted in loss of production for no more than one growing season. There was no evidence that crops could not be replanted within one year and less after the last herbicide spray. Fruit trees, especially coconuts, jackfruit, and papaya, suffered more persistent damage, and in some cases were killed, leading to loss of production for several years. Damage reparations--which, however, were intended on a solatium basis--were generally inadequate to pay for the direct damage in a single year, and did not even attempt to pay for lost production beyond the year of the spray, nor for the costs of restoring production. The loss was probably greatest to those farmers who were closest to the margin of subsistence and to those heavily dependent on tree crops.

5. Some individuals in every community in which people were interviewed reported that domestic animals and humans became ill or died after exposure to herbicide sprays, or after eating herbicide-treated plants or drinking contaminated water. Toxic symptoms reported included eye, skin, respiratory, and digestive disturbances. Reports of serious illness and death, especially among children, were more common and consistent among the Montagnards than among the lowland people. No independent medical studies of exposed populations were however in either case available from the time of spraying against which these reports could be confirmed or refuted.

6. Effects of herbicides were preponderantly viewed as deleterious to the livelihoods of the people whose land was sprayed, with the exception of some residents of the mangroves, who thought that defoliation resulted in increased security from the NLF, and also made it easier to clear land for irrigated fields. Woodcutters in this area recognized, however, that their primary resource had been largely eliminated by herbicides.

Psychological Reactions to Herbicides (Section VII B-2)

The study of psychological reactions among South Vietnamese consisted of two types of investigations: (1) measurement of emotional strain and (2) assessment of attitudes about herbicides. Refugees from a rural community which had been heavily sprayed showed a higher level of emotional strain than any other group to which they could be compared. Among them, those who had experienced the larger number of hard knocks of war had more evidence of emotional symptoms than those who were less severely hit. The spraying of herbicides contributed in both a general and specific way to the experiences identified as hard knocks. In regard to attitudes about herbicides, most of the people in the countryside held to the pragmatic belief that herbicides were a bad thing among many bad things that occur in war. In contrast, our study of pro-government and opposition newspapers from Saigon showed that the military herbicide program came to be viewed negatively by people in the cities. Herbicides came to be an emotionally charged symbol standing for many apprehensions and distresses, especially those for which Americans are blamed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In what follows, the Committee recommends that action be taken in several fields as a consequence of its studies. Our first recommendation, however, is that the Committee's report be translated into Vietnamese. This is because it is the people of Vietnam who must live with the consequences of herbicide use and who must undertake remedial action.

It is also clear that Vietnamese effort to cope with the consequences of herbicide use will require financial and technical support from the United States. This should include the necessary funds, training for Vietnamese workers, the lending of technical and professional personnel as needed, and the supplying of equipment.

TCDD (Dioxin)

In view of the very high toxicity of TCDD (dioxin) to animals, and the presence of this substance in Agent Orange, which was widely used in the herbicide operations in SVN (approximately 10 million gal.), and preliminary reports of TCDD in fish in Vietnam on the one hand, and the lack of any data permitting assessment of TCDD effects on humans on the other, we strongly recommend two actions which should be undertaken simultaneously:

(1) Repeated systematic samplings and analyses of materials from Vietnam to verify the presence of TCDD and determine the level and distribution in human foodstuffs, animals involved in the human food chain, and river, estuarine and sea muds. Such samplings should be started immediately and should be repeated at intervals to follow changes that may occur with time.

(2) Long-term studies to obtain a firmer basis for assessing the potential harmful effects of TCDD on man.

Other Human Health Problems

Reports of Highlanders (Montagnards), in comparison with lowland Vietnamese, on death and illness caused by herbicides are so consistent that despite the lack of medical and toxicological evidence for such effects they cannot be dismissed out of hand and should be followed up as promptly as possible by intensive studies which should include medical and behavioral sciences approaches. Such studies will become possible only after peace has been restored in that area.

We strongly urge prompt evaluation of the data the Committee collected at the Barsky Unit of Cho Ray Hospital (see Section VII A-1)

and elsewhere to determine whether or not they indicate a relationship between exposure to herbicides and congenital malformations.

We also strongly urge a comprehensive medical study over time of the approximately 50 Vietnamese men who were heavily exposed as handlers of herbicides in the defoliation program, if they can be located, as compared with an appropriate "control" group.

Where defoliated areas are considered as resettlement sites (or have already been settled by new populations) epidemiological studies are recommended, directed at determining changes in populations of potential disease vectors and taking into consideration possible effects of different land-use types on the spread of disease.

Inland Forests

The inland forest regions contain major resources for the people of SVN. These areas have been subjected to the greatest amount of herbicide spray and to other war damage.

We therefore recommend that a complete inventory of representative samples of the forest be made as soon as possible, with particular attention being paid to reproduction and the young age classes of trees and to changes in forest composition, followed by studies to determine the consequences of war-related damage.

A systematic forest inventory is necessary for developing a basic land-use policy. When such a policy is established it may be appropriate to design specific procedures, for example with regard to conservation of forest reserves, for systematic reforestation programs. Forest utilization problems related to war-caused damage should be studied. In heavily damaged inland forest areas, plans and rehabilitation efforts should be initiated as soon as possible.

Mangrove Forests

The mangrove forests of SVN, which are economically important as a source of fuel and of food for fish, have suffered a greater damage than any other type of vegetation in SVN.

Since good inventories have been made of the mangrove forests, the first essential step appears to be the development of a land-use policy which, among other matters, would help determine how much of the mangrove area should be reforested and how much developed for agricultural and other uses. Both developments appear feasible although either one will undoubtedly require a considerable input of labor and capital. The Committee urges most serious consideration of the important role of mangroves as fish and shellfish breeding grounds which require the preservation or reestablishment of adequate forested areas.

Urgent attention should be given to proper utilization of mangrove forests, particularly in view of the increasing energy problems, and the possible need for more fuel in the future.

Records

Many records of the lower reporting levels (district, province) which would have been useful in answering in more detail the direct and indirect effects on agriculture or on movement or health of people were routinely destroyed after being summarized and forwarded to regional or national headquarters. We recommend the preservation of all remaining records relating to herbicide operations. These should be declassified where necessary and made available for further study. Records of this NAS Committee, including data bank, photographs, and other records, should likewise be preserved and kept available for later studies.

General Recommendations

Herbicides are an example of a modern technology which when employed on a massive scale for military use cannot be completely controlled, nor limited in time and space to their intended target. The Committee recommends that Congress, in appropriating funds for development and use of materials and equipment as weapons, also appropriate funds for independent study and monitoring in those cases where there is a serious possibility of any widespread or persistent ecological or physiological effects. The Committee's work is a convincing demonstration of how difficult it is to do this after the fact.

Herbicides were a grave concern to many Vietnamese and achieved symbolic and emotional significance which sometimes outweighed the actual facts. We recommend further studies in collaboration with the Vietnamese with a view to promoting greater understanding of the properties of these herbicides, of their peaceful uses, and their hazards.

Herbicides have been only one of the impacts of the recent war on the Vietnamese people. The various direct and indirect war impacts were however all closely interrelated, and it is the Committee's firm belief that rehabilitation and reconstruction efforts should not be fragmented according to different categories of damage but should proceed in an integrated fashion, and that such efforts be undertaken as rapidly as conditions permit.

We are aware of the complex and difficult nature of some of these recommendations, but we urge that the work here recommended be initiated promptly, since any delay will make its accomplishment more difficult.

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Origin of the Study

The study had its origin in the concern of many people in the United States and elsewhere in the world about potential adverse effects of the widespread use of herbicides in the military effort in South Vietnam. Although for many years very large quantities of herbicides have been used successfully and safely for controlling weeds in agriculture, industry, and the home garden, never before had herbicides been used in such heavy doses on such areas of natural vegetation as in the war in SVN.

Among the concerns voiced by the public were such questions as:

Had the extensive use of herbicides modified the environment of Vietnam beyond the point of recovery?

Had the damage to forest and crops caused major economic loss?

Was there evidence for an association between exposure to herbicides and human reproductive failures, congenital malformations, and genetic damage?

The study was authorized by an Act of Congress, Public Law 91-441, the Fiscal Year 1971 Military Procurement Authorization Act. Section 506(c) of this law directed the Secretary of Defense to "undertake to enter into appropriate arrangements with the National Academy of Sciences to conduct a comprehensive study and investigation to determine (A) the ecological and physiological dangers inherent in the use of herbicides, and (B) the ecological and physiological effects of the defoliation program carried out by the Department of Defense in South Vietnam." Pursuant to this law, the Committee on the Effects of Herbicides in Vietnam was established under a contract between NAS and DOD, signed December 8, 1970. The date for submission of a report to DOD, to be followed by transmission to Congress within a month, was originally January 31, 1972, and this was later extended to December 31, 1973.

The Committee was formed in June 1971, and several members joined at later dates. The Committee membership, and NAS Staff and Research Associates are listed on p. xxi-xxii and Consultants on p. xxiii-xxiv. The first meeting was held July 7-9 of the same year, and the first visit to SVN (and Thailand) was made in September-October. The last Committee member to visit SVN left the country in September 1973. Altogether, Committee personnel spent over 1500 man-days in SVN.

B. Scope and Limitations of the Study

(1) Definitions

Because of the very broad objectives laid down in PL 91-441 on the one hand, and the limited time available for the study on the other, it was necessary to delimit the scope of the studies, and agreement was reached in consultation with members of Congress that the study be directed primarily at the consequences of the military use of herbicides in SVN. Supporting work was carried out in Thailand and the Philippines because some of the investigations could not be undertaken in SVN due to security problems.

PL 91-441 calls for studies of the ecological and physiological effects of herbicides. By physiological we mean the effects on the function of individual organisms (although in the study of such effects, it is usually necessary to employ groups of similar organisms, so-called populations). By ecological we mean effects on "ecosystems," that is communities of various organisms and their patterned interactions with one another and with other parts of the environment.

Effects of herbicides may be direct and indirect. The most common direct effect is that implied by the name of these chemicals, that is, death or failure of growth and reproduction of a treated plant. Other possible direct effects might include toxicity to animals and man. Indirect effects operate through a chain of events initiated or exacerbated by the direct effects of the herbicide, and may be very diverse. If crops are killed by herbicides, people will not only be deprived of food, but their entire economic situation may be profoundly altered. If productivity of a forest is retarded by spraying with a herbicide, the woodcutter working in that forest may lose his income and be forced to move to another region or to seek another employment. The greatest complexity of indirect effects can be predicted in the realm of ecological responses. Ecosystems are generally characterized by a very finely attuned balance between their living components (animals, plants, microorganisms) and between these and the physical environment (soil, water, microclimate). Moreover, even relatively undisturbed ecosystems are very often not static but are changing slowly but in a definite sequence ("succession") leading to a so-called "climax," the final stage that, if undisturbed, will not undergo further changes in the absence of environmental changes. Injury to, or death of one component as the result of herbicidal treatment or other disturbances is thus apt not only to disturb the system as such, but may also affect its further evolution, that is, the effects may last over prolonged periods of time. This holds not only for natural ecosystems but may involve or affect man, too. Thus, a change in the floral composition of a forest as a result of herbicide treatment may involve changes in the distribution of animals (insects, rats) that function as vectors of human diseases, resulting in changes in the incidence of these diseases in adjacent settlements even if these latter were not directly affected by the herbicide.

(2) Selection of Objectives

With the complexities briefly discussed in the preceding section, it was apparent that the research design would be complex and time-consuming. It was therefore necessary to delimit the studies, focusing on work which promised to yield as high a return as possible in terms of understanding herbicide effects and their repair. From the inception of its work, the Committee agreed that it should address the following broad problems, as these represent the most important and also include the most sensitive issues which have been raised in the public mind by the use of herbicides in the Vietnam war:

1. Inventory of the sprayed areas by herbicide type, date, and frequency of spray application as related to vegetation, soil type, and population density.
2. Effects on vegetation, with emphasis on the inland and mangrove forests--the two vegetation types subjected to the most extensive herbicide spraying--but also with consideration of effects on crop production.
3. Persistence of herbicides in the soil, and other effects on soils.
4. Effects on animals.
5. Effects on people (medical, socioeconomic, psychological).
6. Impact on the country as a whole.

An inventory of the sprayed areas appeared important per se, in order to know the actual extent of the military use of herbicides in SVN in both space and time. Above and beyond that, however, it is clear that the kind and intensity of herbicide effects would depend not only on the characteristics and the distribution of the herbicides themselves, but equally on the characteristics of the geography, natural vegetation, human population and land use in the sprayed areas. The Committee planned, therefore, to use the inventory as an important and, in many cases, as the prime basis for assessing herbicide effects on inland and mangrove forests, on crop lands, soils, animals and humans. For example, regarding forests we hoped both to estimate the direct damage and to evaluate longer term effects (speed and character of recovery); regarding humans we intended to relate the herbicide effects to the density and patterns of population and the types of land use, taking into consideration changes in these characteristics effected by the herbicides themselves and by other war-related or unrelated events, such as voluntary or enforced relocation of people.

(3) Results and Limitations

The extent to which these objectives were achieved has been very variable. We believe that, within limits which will be discussed, we obtained a comprehensive and reasonably accurate inventory of the herbicide sprays and their relation to vegetation types. We were able to assess certain kinds of damage in inland and mangrove forests--in the former, losses in merchantable timber; in the latter, the extent of kill of the vegetation--but our studies on longer term changes have remained quite fragmentary.

Regarding effects on crops, the Committee conducted interviews with American and Vietnamese officials and with Vietnamese villagers, reviewed records, and analyzed aerial photographs for relationships between land-use patterns and herbicide missions. A small study was conducted of the so-called crop destruction missions, using herbicide spray records and aerial photography. The analysis of aerial photographs showed clearly that agricultural land and settlements had been sprayed with herbicides, irrespective of the stated military objective, and that annual crops and fruit trees had been destroyed or damaged. It was however not possible to make a quantitative assessment of crop damage.

Experimental studies on soils which we conducted indicated that herbicides were not persistent for long periods, and that herbicide-induced changes in soil fertility have not reached proportions which would make them a limiting factor in revegetation. We tabulated soil types as related to vegetation and land-use types, but because of restricted access for field studies we were unable to make use of this information in studies of herbicide effects.

Direct observation of animals was limited to two specific studies, namely, comparing populations of potential disease vectors and of aquatic organisms in sprayed (or otherwise denuded) and intact parts of mangrove forests. An increase in mosquito vectors of malaria was demonstrated as was a reduction in yield of fish per fishing boat. The change in mosquito vector populations is probably related to changes in human activities (rice farming) in addition to the ecological effects of herbicides. The reasons for the decrease in fish yields are not known.

It was not possible to relate in general the distribution of herbicide sprays to population and changes of population distribution during the war in SVN.

Work on direct medical effects in humans was concerned with possible teratological and reproductive effects. It consisted, firstly, in examining existing pertinent information, and secondly of a pilot study in which the records of one hospital unit that had treated a large number of patients with birth defects were examined. Work on socioeconomic and psychological effects was conducted in selected populations in various parts of the country. One study dealt with effects of herbicide sprays on settlements of different types, as apparent in aerial photography. Two other studies--one mainly on lowland Vietnamese, the other on the Highlanders (Montagnards)--were based on interviews and where available supporting documentations and information.

The reasons for the limitations in our work were (1) the passage of time between the end of the extensive military herbicide missions and the beginning of our studies; (2) limitations in time, funds, and personnel; (3) lack of or deficiencies in important background material (inventories, records); and (4) the security situation in SVN. The time lapse between the end of massive herbicide application by fixed-wing aircraft in early 1970 and the first visit of the Committee to SVN (September-October 1971) was enough to render studies of relatively short-term herbicide effects on soils, crops, animals and people a difficult task. Some gaps (studies on herbicide persistence) could be closed by experimental work carried out by the Committee; others, however, could not.

The time limits for our whole effort (two years between constitution of the Committee and delivery of the final report; little more than one year for field work and data gathering) limited the extent of many phases of the studies, but were most serious for studies of possible reproductive and teratological effects in humans. It may be recalled that in the case of the Atomic Bomb Casualty Commission in Japan, the work of which pursued objectives comparable to this part of our study, it took one year of organization and five years of actual work to obtain major data, and work is still continuing.

Reproductive and teratological effects of herbicides in SVN were considerably more difficult to study than effects of atomic radiation. One reason is there was no single point source so dosage of individuals in the exposed populations is difficult to estimate. Other difficulties in studying the effects were the absence of adequate baseline data on the population of SVN, and extremely limited work on the toxicology of some of these substances in humans. Lack of background material was felt in many phases of our work: no adequate inventories were available on inland forests and on animals, and records on crops and on humans were incomplete. The lack of security, however, was that limiting factor which pervaded most of the phases of our work. Thus, it was possible to make only very limited on-site observations and studies in the inland forests which represent the largest single vegetation type of the country and some of which have been subjected to extensive and repeated herbicide sprays, and to determine extent and nature of their recovery in any comprehensive and quantitative manner. This applies equally to the studies of the Highlanders since they may have suffered, directly or indirectly, from the military use of herbicides more than any other population group in SVN. Some of these limitations will be mentioned in later parts of the report, in relation to specific problems. The limitations necessitated many changes in the detailed work plans; one major consequence was that photo-interpretation was used to a much larger extent than originally envisaged.

(4) Organization of the Report

The present report is an account of the main results of the Committee's work. The objectives of the Committee required that the

investigations draw on several scientific disciplines. Thus, a division of labor was inherent in our charge, and work was organized so that scientists of a common or related orientation worked together as sub-units of the Committee, addressing questions appropriate to their training and experience. Although the Committee as a whole submits this report as a joint product, the organization of this document reflects the division of responsibility upon which the investigations were built, with each unit using the language, theory, and methods of its particular problem area. In an effort to provide clarity and continuity, some editorial links have been prepared to link the separate sections. These comments, however, are not meant to imply that the organization was rigid. Several Committee members were involved in work on several different problems, reflecting the fact that there were important interrelations between all the problems that were studied, e.g., between herbicide persistence (or the lack thereof) in soil and persistence of effects on the vegetation, or between effects on vegetation and effects on the people. The individual chapters or sections of the report have been drafted by the people who did the work, or under whose direction the work was done. The editorial links and cross-references have been prepared mainly by the Chairman. However, all parts of the report have been read by all Committee members, and their comments considered so as to have as much agreement as possible.

The literature references in this part of the report are selective, and more are given for subjects and problems about which relatively little is known or which are still subject to dispute than for well-established and widely accepted matters.

Details of many parts of the study are available as working papers which formed the basis from which this report was prepared.

C. Committee Policies

The work of the Committee has been limited to the objectives stated in Section 506(c) of Public Law 91-441, that is, the physiological and ecological effects of the herbicides used in the Vietnam war. Explicit political conclusions and judgments have been excluded. For example, we could and did ask what effects the use of herbicides had on mangroves and whether these effects would persist. We might have asked whether mangroves which were destroyed by herbicide sprays should be restored by artificial reforestation, or whether former mangrove land should be developed for agriculture. However, we feel that judgment on such an issue is outside the Committee's charge, competence, and prerogatives. Decisions of that kind must be made by the Vietnamese within the context of their land-use policies.

D. Provisions Included in the Contract

In order for the Committee to maintain complete independence, and at the same time to protect cooperating individuals, the following provisions were included in a Modification to the Contract between NAS and DOD:

"a. Planning, direction and execution of this study to meet the requirements of the contract are the exclusive responsibility of the National Academy of Sciences through the Committee on the Effect of Herbicides in Vietnam including the selection and appointment of scientific and technical personnel needed to carry out the work.

"b. All Department of Defense material will be fully available to cleared members of the Committee and that portion of the classified information needed in their opinion for the study and the report will be given immediately to DDR&E who will initiate declassification action on a priority basis. It is the intent of both parties to adhere to the principles expressed in the correspondence between Dr. Handler, NAS, and Dr. Foster, DDR&E (Dr. Foster to Dr. Handler, 15 October 1970; Dr. Handler to Dr. Foster, 26 October 1970; Dr. Foster to Dr. Handler, 14 November 1970; Dr. Handler to Dr. Foster, 7 December 1970). It is further the intention of DOD to enable a full and comprehensive report at the earliest possible date. It is noted that data concerning amounts, types, dates and locations of herbicide releases in Vietnam were of prime interest to the Committee, and that all such information has been declassified and placed at their disposal.

"c. Fifteen (15) days following submission to the Congress, reports submitted under this contract may be made available to the public by the Academy and DOD through normal and accepted channels without restriction. The Academy may publish such reports 45 days after submission to DOD. The Academy may further authorize publications by committee members with credit to study, subject only to the restrictions outlined herein.

"d. Statements of individuals gathered in and for the performance of this contract are not to be disclosed to anyone without prior consent of the respondent.

"e. Data from surveys gathered in and for the performance of this contract shall not be attributed to any individual without his written permission.

"f. It is explicitly understood that studies in repair and rehabilitation of any damage detected will be included in the study.

"g. Every effort should be made to safeguard the privacy and welfare of all respondents in the study; regardless of their political positions or their responsibilities regarding defoliation.

"h. All publicity must be agreed upon in advance and coordinated between the Department of Defense and the Academy."

E. Cooperation

(1) Cooperation of U.S. and SVN Military Authorities

As explained before, the Committee worked under a contract between NAS and DOD. From the preceding section it should be evident that it had exclusive jurisdiction of planning, staffing and execution of its work. On the other hand, the Committee has been dependent on DOD for much of the documentary material necessary for its work, and on logistic support for much of the travel in SVN.

This was explicitly stated in the contract. Regarding documents, it was understood that classified information that the Committee considered essential for its report or as back-up material, would be declassified. How, then, has DOD discharged its obligations towards the Committee?

The Committee's immediate liaison in DOD, Mr. T. R. Dashiell, Deputy and later Staff Specialist, Chemical Technology, Office of Director of Defense Research and Engineering (DDR&E), DOD, has been exceedingly helpful to the Committee. Mr. A. E. Hayward, formerly Assistant Director (Environmental and Life Sciences), DDR&E, who retired in June 1972, was also very helpful. So far, all requests for declassification of documents have been honored. The declassified material was provided to the Committee and treated as privileged information, with the understanding that those materials that have been used in this report or are necessary as supporting information would become public when the report has been submitted to Congress as provided in the contract.

DDR&E has also absorbed the cost of air transportation of Committee personnel in SVN by MACV and Air America (see below), of the aerial photography flown for the Committee, of computer time for the preparation of some spray mission map overlays, and of shipping supplies and samples between Saigon and the U.S. The U.S. Army Engineer Topographic Laboratories in Washington has been most cooperative in obtaining existing aerial photography of SVN and assisting in its analysis. This was authorized through DDR&E.

In SVN, the directors of the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) Field Unit in Saigon were most helpful, providing office space, equipment, and various services, and helping out generously with ground transportation.

Of the American liaison officers attached to the Committee and charged with assisting it, Major Paul Gardner was outstanding, because of his highly responsible attitude to his assignment and because of his fluency in Vietnamese. The commanders of U.S. military bases and field units (Dong Xoai, Nam Can, Vung Tau) and likewise their counterparts in ARVN, who had to provide us with local transportation, housing,

and/or security, were uniformly cooperative and helpful. Individual officers and offices at MACV Headquarters were very cooperative.

On some occasions, however, assistance or information were not provided as promptly as they ought to have been. Thus the so-called HES gazetteer tapes (a non-classified computerized listing of population size, location, and administrative jurisdictions) were requested in July 1972 from CORDS at Saigon, but while the request was approved, and despite repeated reminders, only parts of the material were delivered, and only over a considerable period of time. The complete tapes could be obtained only a year later from the Office of the Director of Defense Program Analysis and Evaluation, DOD (Pentagon). The Assistant Director of this Office and his associates were very helpful, but because of the delay which we suffered with this material we were unable to carry out a correlation of herbicide missions and population patterns, a task which the Committee considered of high priority. Other very frustrating delays occurred repeatedly in delivery of aerial photographs, even after they had been assembled and declassified.

Air transportation, provided at first directly by MACV and later through Air America, involved repeated frustrating periods of waiting, especially in the earlier period of our work, and it was sometimes not known almost until take-off time whether or not a flight would leave. Ultimately, however, all requested flights were arranged and made, except if security considerations necessitated a change. With ground transportation, matters were much worse. Only at the very end of its activities in SVN was the Committee able to obtain a vehicle directly from MACV. Before that, arrangements were made through JUSPAO and the American Embassy, but they were subject to cancellation practically without notice, and the vehicle provided was old, poorly maintained and unreliable. Requests to assign a helicopter and an adequate ground vehicle with absolute priority for Committee use remained without action. We learned to overcome these problems, but if we had had to rely for ground transportation exclusively on the good offices of the U.S. authorities in SVN our work would have suffered grievous delays, and many studies would have remained uncompleted.

Transportation on the water and some air transportation in the mangrove were provided by the RVN Navy and Air Force, and as our work progressed during the withdrawal of American armed forces from SVN we came to rely increasingly on direct contacts with the RVN armed forces. Their cooperation was most generous and very prompt; indeed our work in the mangrove (except our experiments in the mangrove near Vung Tau; see Section V A) would not have been possible without their assistance.

Special thanks should go to the successive Commanders of the Naval Base at Nha Be, south of Saigon, and their Chief of Staff; the Commander of the Naval Base at Vung Tau; the Commander of the Tran-

Hung-Dao strongpoint in the Rung Sat Special Zone where several Committee members and associates spent several nights; and the Commander of the Popular Forces Training Center near Vung Tau and the City Council of Vung Tau who authorized our studies in a mangrove area near Vung Tau which was within the perimeter of the Center.

(2) Cooperation with Vietnamese

The study centers on the effects of herbicides in SVN. Thus, it is almost axiomatic that the investigation should include Vietnamese, as it is the Vietnamese people who must live with the results of defoliation and other war-related activities and who, we hope, may derive some benefit from the results of our study. The Committee's work was approved by the office of the Prime Minister of the RVN. The cooperation of the RVN armed forces and some other RVN authorities has been acknowledged. Generous cooperation was also received from the RVN Ministry of Health and the staff of the Barsky Unit of Cho Ray Hospital. Many Vietnamese served as consultants, or helped the Committee in less formal but no less important ways, either in actual work or by providing information and materials. Without this cooperation it would have been possible to carry out only a very small part of our work.

II. BACKGROUND MATERIAL

A. Development of Herbicides and Their Uses in the Tropics^a

The use of herbicides for vegetation control is not a new practice. The first recorded use of a chemical for selective killing of a weed was in 1896, when a French viticulturist observed that wild mustard was selectively killed by the newly discovered fungicide, Bordeaux mixture. He showed that this effect was due to the copper sulfate contained in the fungicide. An important development occurred following the discovery of the first plant hormone, auxin, by F. W. Went in 1926. Auxin was identified as indole-3-acetic acid, a chemical which had been known as a synthetic product for quite some time. Subsequent research showed that a considerable number of other chemical compounds had physiological activities similar to those of auxin. The first of these synthetic auxins were analogs of indole-acetic acid itself (indole-3-propionic acid, indole-3-butyric acid). Somewhat later, in the 1940's, it was, however, found that chemically less related compounds, mainly certain chlorinated phenoxyacetic acids, also possessed auxin activity and, moreover, that some of them, when used at relatively high doses, killed certain plants in a very effective manner but did not harm others. These compounds were thus selective herbicides. One of them, 2,4-D ([2,4-dichlorophenoxy]acetic acid) became, in fact, the most widely used commercial herbicide; another, 2,4,5-T ([2,4,5-trichlorophenoxy]acetic acid) was used particularly as a killer of brush and other woody plants which were comparatively resistant to 2,4-D. 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T were two of the herbicides widely used in the Vietnam war. A third compound, picloram, which was also used in this war, was discovered much later and is chemically unrelated to 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T but resembles them in possessing auxin activity and in its selectivity range. The fourth chemical used for military purposes in SVN, cacodylic acid, is a general plant killer not having the degree of phytotoxic selectivity exhibited by 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T, and picloram.

Use of herbicides in the tropics is also by no means new. They were seen as means of reducing labor costs and of bringing more land into cultivation by eradicating the native vegetation, and have helped to develop new practices of crop production that increased efficiency

^a Here and in the rest of this report, discussion is limited to those herbicides that have been used for military purposes in SVN.

and yields (e.g., elimination of soil cultivation after planting of sugarcane, pineapples, and tree crops and the direct seeding of rice on uncultivated paddies). It should not be overlooked, however, that in tropical and other underdeveloped countries herbicides also may have negative effects of both a direct and indirect nature, such as inadvertent damage by spray drift onto adjacent vegetation the herbicide sensitivity of which may be insufficiently known, or reduction of the need for labor which may lead to unemployment with its attendant problems.

B. The Military Use of Herbicides in SVN

Research on 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T and related herbicides began during World War II, and had at that time a clearly military connotation. However, herbicides were not used for military purposes in World War II. The first, small-scale military use of herbicides was in the 1950's in the Malayan "emergency." In the early 1960's the possibility of tactical use of herbicides was given considerable impetus. A number of herbicides were evaluated, in various combinations, for their phytotoxic effectiveness in SVN. Evaluations were also made in Thailand near Pran Buri, in Hawaii, and in Puerto Rico. The Committee was able to use some of the test sites at Pran Buri for its studies, mainly on persistence of herbicides and their possible effects on soil, and to observe the present condition of vegetation in the test sites in Puerto Rico.

(1) The Course of the Military Herbicide Operations in SVN

In SVN, the first military herbicide operations were carried out in early 1962, and were phased out in 1971. After a relatively slow buildup from 1962 to 1965, the operations increased rapidly to a peak in 1967, declined, but only slightly, in 1968 and 1969, and dropped sharply in 1970. According to information from DOD, the last herbicide spraying by fixed-wing aircraft was flown on January 7, 1971. After this, herbicide operations were limited to spraying around perimeters of the fire bases, on enemy cache sites, and along land and water communication routes, and were all carried out by helicopter or on the ground. The last helicopter operation under U. S. control was flown on October 31, 1971.

Details of the herbicide operations for the period August 1965 through February 1971 will be given in Sections III A and B; information not covered in these sections will be discussed in Section III C.

(2) The Herbicidal "Agents" Used

The herbicidal "Agents" used for military purposes in SVN were identified by code names referring to the color of bands painted on the containers of the chemicals: Orange, White, Blue, and Purple.

Agent Orange is a 50:50 mixture of the *n*-butyl esters of 2,4-D ([2,4-dichlorophenoxy]acetic acid) and 2,4,5-T ([2,4,5-trichlorophenoxy]acetic acid). Each gallon of Orange contains 4 lb of 2,4-D and 4.6 lb of 2,5,5-T on an acid equivalent basis.^a Orange was the agent used

^a Acid equivalent is the weight of the acid form of the chemical. This is used because the weights of various ester or amine formulations vary. Expression in terms of acid equivalents provides a uniform basis for comparison of different formulations.

most extensively in the Vietnam war until its use was terminated on April 15, 1970 because of concerns of its possible teratogenicity and its contamination with the highly toxic TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin; see Section II C-6).

Agent Purple is a 50:30:20 mixture of the n-butyl ester of 2,4-D, and the n-butyl and isobutyl esters of 2,4,5-T. It was used only until 1964 and was then replaced by Agent Orange.

Agent White is a mixture containing 2 lb of 2,4-D and 0.54 lb of picloram (4-amino-3,5,6-trichloropicolinic acid) per gallon on an acid equivalent basis. It is a formulated product containing 2,4-D and picloram as the triisopropanolamine salts, with the addition of surfactants and water.

Agent Blue is formulated as the sodium salt of cacodylic acid (hydroxydimethylarsine oxide). It contains a minimum of 21 percent sodium cacodylate with additional free cacodylic acid for a total dimethylarsinic acid equivalent of not less than 26 percent on a weight basis, or 3.1 lb of cacodylic acid and about 1.7 lb arsenic per gallon, with 5 percent surfactant and 0.5 percent antifoam agent.

All agents were intended for use at a rate of 3 gal./acre (28 liters per hectare), except that in the earlier operations and on rare occasions thereafter, only half of this dose was used. The herbicides were applied by fixed-wing aircraft (UC-123), helicopter (UH-1), from trucks, from river boats, and from backpacks (see Figs. II B-1 to B-4). Both aircraft types were outfitted with special spraying equipment, consisting essentially of a container for the herbicide and a spray boom with nozzles. The container of the UC-123 spray system had a capacity of 1000 gal. and the plane normally flew at 150 ft. (45 m) with a delivery speed of 130 to 140 knots. The "spray-on" time of 3 1/2 to 4 minutes permitted approximately 950 gallons of herbicide to be distributed at the rate of 3 gal./acre. The capacity of the UH-1 spray system container was 200 gal. but the helicopter could carry only 100 gal. because of weight limitations. Trucks used for herbicide spraying were tanker trucks with a 50 or 100 gal. capacity. Spraying by river boats was done directly from the original 55 gal. drums of the agents; backpack sprayers had 3 gal. drums. Spraying by fixed-wing aircraft accounted for the great majority of the herbicide used in the Vietnam war, at least into the later part of 1970 from which time on helicopter herbicide operations increased and gradually became predominant, until they became the only aerial means of herbicide delivery.

(3) Military Classification of the Herbicide Operations in SVN

Two main objectives of herbicide operation were distinguished by the military authorities: (1) defoliation, defined as "the use



Fig. II B-1. Four fixed-wing UC-123 aircraft on a spray mission in Phuoc Long Province. Photo taken in 1969 by Colonel Harold C. Kinne, Jr.



Fig. II B-2. UC-123 aircraft showing wing and tail spray booms. Photo taken in 1969 by Colonel Harold C. Kinne, Jr.



Fig. II B-3. UH-1D helicopter equipped to dispense herbicides. DOD (U.S. Army) photo taken in 1968.



Fig. II B-4. Ground spraying of herbicides in Di-An. DOD (U.S. Army) photo taken in May 1968.

of herbicides to cause trees and plants to lose their leaves in order to improve observation," and (2) crop destruction, defined as "the application of herbicides to plants to destroy their food value" and directed at crops of hostile forces (definitions from MACV Directive No. 525-1, August 12, 1969). Herbicides were also used, although on a much smaller scale and only by helicopter or on the surface (ground or water), for clearing vegetation around the perimeter of fire support bases and other military installations, on landing zones and enemy cache sites, and along lines of communication. The objective of these latter uses was, however, also defoliation or destruction of vegetation for better visibility. Thus, there were essentially two military objectives of all herbicide operations, defoliation and crop destruction. While this distinction has been followed to some extent in the inventory of herbicide operations (Section III) as will be explained later (Section III B), it has very little meaning as regards their physiological and ecological effects.

(4) Authorization and Tactics of Herbicide Operations

Approval and conduct of herbicide operations in SVN were subject to directives, the intent of which was to ensure maximum deposition of the agent on the selected target, and to minimize damage to "friendly" crops and other adverse effects.

Herbicide operations could be approved in two ways. In the more common case, one or several "target areas" in a province were approved for herbicide treatment for defoliation or crop destruction, and individual herbicide spray flights, called missions or sorties,^a were then carried out by "Ranch Hand," the U.S. Air Force unit charged with herbicide operations, on a priority basis. All missions within a target formed a project. A defoliation project was authorized for six months, a crop destruction project for one year; both could be extended for six more months. In other cases--apparently, in those considered particularly urgent--authorization could be sought for individual missions or sorties.

The authorization process was the same in either case, and with certain exceptions noted below required concurrence of both RVN and U.S. authorities at Province (or Division) and the Military Region^b level, by the RVNAF Joint General Staff, COMUS,^c MACV and the American Ambassador. This was regardless of whether a request originated on the RVN or the U.S. side.

^a A mission consisted mostly of several aircraft each of which formed a sortie; if only one craft was used the operation was termed a sortie.

^b SVN was divided into four Military Regions, each corresponding to a Corps (see Section E).

^c RVNAF = Republic of Vietnam Armed Forces; COMUS = Commander, U.S.

On the RVN side, the authorization process started with the Province Chief and was transmitted to the ARVN Commander of the MR and thence to a special committee of the RVNAF Joint General Staff ("202 Committee"); it was also transmitted to the U.S. Division Commander in whose command the province was included, and on to the Senior Advisor of the MR and to the U.S. Mission "203 Committee." The Province Chief had to provide an analysis of the target area(s), including intelligence, psychological warfare and civic affairs evaluations (e.g., number of people in and near the target areas, their ethnic characteristics, and their political attitude; anticipated psychological effects including NLF propaganda and measures to counter same; creation of refugees). He also had to give a written pledge of indemnification for damage to "friendly" crops. On the U.S. side, the Senior Advisor was charged with considering the same and some additional problem areas (effects on pacification operations, community development, economics) and had to obtain the opinion of the representative of CORDS, the Agricultural Advisor, and others, although adverse opinion from the latter quarters could be overruled. The "203 Committee" was expected to consider the proposal from the viewpoints of planning, intelligence, CORDS, USAID, JUSPAO, and the American Embassy. Usually, an aerial reconnaissance of the target area(s) was made. If the proposal had been approved by all above authorities it was submitted for the approval of the Commander of MACV and the American Ambassador. The entire procedure is shown diagrammatically in Fig. II B-5. Disapproval by either party at any level was binding. Forty-eight hours prior to each mission, final approval had to be obtained from the Province Chief and all ground commanders having a responsibility in the target area.

The above procedures were mandatory for all crop destruction operations and for defoliation operations by fixed-wing aircraft. Authorization for defoliation missions by helicopter and on the ground were delegated to the RVN and U.S. authorities at the MR level (see Fig. II B-5). After each mission, a report had to be prepared and submitted to MACV. These reports were to include project and target number, date of mission, number of sorties scheduled and number productive (number of aircraft), reasons why scheduled sorties were not productive (when applicable), type and number of gallons of agent and type of mission (crop destruction or defoliation), hits sustained by spray aircraft and UTM coordinates of actual spray run. In addition, there were regular periodical evaluations of each herbicide project.

In order to verify that the policies and procedures governing herbicide operations were adhered to, the original project and mission files were reviewed by a special task force from MACV and the American Embassy, and as a result a Report on the Herbicide Policy Review was issued in 1968. The conclusion was that, in general, policies and procedures were followed, but serious damage to "friendly" crops was noted. Several steps were recommended in order to improve the management of the herbicide operations. The main ones were (1) to insure full

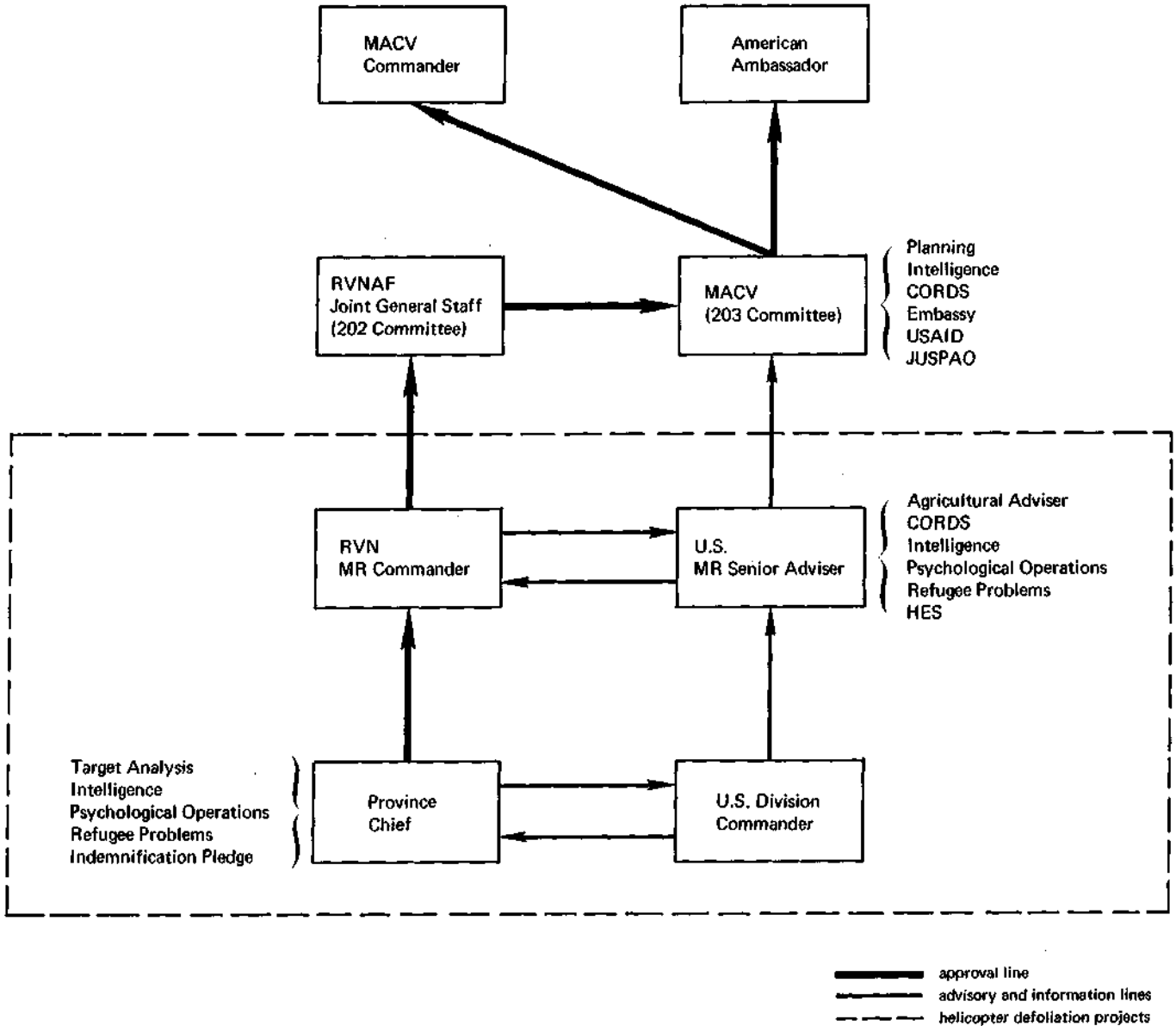


Fig. II B-5. Diagram of the routing of proposals for herbicide projects.

consultation of CORDS, agricultural, psychological operations, and refugee specialists; (2) to require complete checklists for all relevant military, demographic, economic, and psychological information and their evaluation by Saigon-level officials; (3) to require regular post-operation audits; (4) to limit, in accordance with a wish of the Government of RVN, herbicide operation to "low population density areas," defined as areas with no more than seven persons per square kilometer.^a MACV took these recommendations into account in a revision of the procedures for authorization and execution of herbicide operations in August 1969 (MACV Directive 525-1). In 1970, another Herbicide Policy Review was conducted by the "203 Committee" (report issued in November 1970). It concluded that the serious damage caused by herbicides to crops under friendly control in the past years had been almost eliminated by the recent restrictions (i.e. those recommended in the 1968 Report) placed on herbicide missions; that the current mission approval system afforded an adequate amount of control to personnel engaged in economic development; and that the current herbicide operations had little or no impact on the agricultural and economic development programs. At the same time, however, the report contained many highly critical opinions on the effects of the herbicide operations on crops, especially the actual crop destruction program, and on friendly populations.

REFERENCES

"Report." Herbicide Policy Review Committee, American Embassy, Saigon and MACV. Classified version, May 1968; unclassified version, August 1968.

Hq., U.S. Military Assistance Command, Vietnam (MACV), Directive 525-1, dated 12 August 1969, with four Annexes.

"203 Committee" "Report on the Herbicide Policy Review (U)" 1970
Hq., U.S. MACV, Saigon, (Interagency 203 Committee) November 18, 1970.
Classified.

^a Although, in general, missions were conducted in such areas, the Committee encountered examples of missions flown directly over or in the immediate vicinity of inhabited settlements (Section VII B-1).

C. Biological, Physical, and Chemical Characteristics
of the Herbicides Used in the Vietnam War

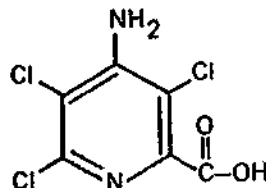
In order to understand the effects the herbicides used for military purposes in SVN may have had it is necessary to be familiar with what is known of their physical, chemical, and biological properties, including their toxicity. The reader should understand that the herbicides used for defoliation and crop destruction in SVN are also used for civilian purposes, some on a very wide scale, although the use of some of them is, or has recently been restricted in the U.S. and some other countries. In Table II C-1, a key is given to convert the dosages in which herbicide applications are usually expressed (lb/acre), into concentrations caused in soil or water. The dosages used on crops range from one-tenth and below to one-fifth, and those on pastures, rangeland, some aquatic sites, and for certain uses in forestry between one-tenth and one-half, of those used in the military herbicide missions in SVN.

Specific information on the characteristics of the agents used in the herbicide operations in SVN is scarce; therefore, the data given relate mostly to the individual components. We shall begin with picloram, present in Agent White, and cacodylic acid, the herbicidal component (as acid and salt) of Agent Blue as relatively little is known on many properties of these compounds and as they were not causes of the greatest public concern. Then, we shall summarize pertinent data on 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T as well as TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin), a contaminant of 2,4,5-T. 2,4,5-T and 2,4-D are the most widely used compounds in herbicide operations in SVN (both of them as the components of Agent Orange and its precursor, Agent Purple; 2,4-D also as a component of Agent White). Because fetal toxicity and teratogenicity are questions of considerable public concern, they are reviewed as a separate item.

(1) Picloram

(a) Physical and chemical properties; Fate and effects in plants and soil.

Picloram is manufactured by chlorinating alpha-picoline, hydrolyzing the product, and reacting with ammonia.



Picloram

Table II C-1

Relation between Herbicide Dosage, and Initial
Concentration in Soil and Water

	Dosage lb/acre	Concentration, ppm		
		3 in. depth	1 ft depth	3 ft depth
Soil	1.0	1.00	0.25	0.08
	1.6	1.60	0.40	0.13
	6.0	6.00	1.50	0.48
	9.3	9.30	2.33	0.78
	12.0	12.00	3.00	0.96
	13.8	13.80	3.45	1.15
	25.0	25.00	6.25	2.08
Water	1.0	1.48	0.37	0.12
	1.6	2.37	0.59	0.19
	6.0	8.88	2.22	0.73
	9.3	13.76	3.44	1.15
	12.0	17.76	4.44	1.38
	13.8	20.42	5.11	1.70
	25.0	37.00	9.25	3.08

The concentrations are calculated assuming that all herbicide is limited to the depth indicated, and is evenly distributed within this depth. The concentrations in soil are average values for a soil bulk density of 1.43. The actual concentrations will depend on soil type and may vary as much as 10 percent from the figures given. Dosages used in a single herbicide mission in SVN were:

<u>Agent Orange</u>	
2,4-D	12.0 lb/acre
2,4,5-T	13.8 lb/acre
<u>Agent White</u>	
2,4-D	6.00 lb/acre
Picloram	1.62 lb/acre
<u>Agent Blue</u>	
Cacodylic Acid	9.3 lb/acre

Picloram is slightly soluble in water (430 ppm at 25°C [77°F]) but the salts are highly soluble (potassium salt: 40 percent at 25°C [77°F]). The acid and salts have an extremely low volatility (vapor pressure of the acid: 6.16×10^{-7} mm mercury at 35°C [95°F]) and are stable below 215°C (419°F).^a

Picloram is readily absorbed by and translocated throughout the plant. In a wide range of species, it can persist as the intact molecule in the tissues for a long time but exceptions have been noted where rapid metabolic conversion has taken place. Deformity of young leaves and loss of chlorophyll can be observed soon after treatment, but it may take several months to kill trees. The selectivity of picloram is comparable to that of the phenoxy herbicides (Section II C-3). Broad-leaf plants are generally considerably more susceptible than grasses; tomatoes, cucurbits and many legumes are particularly sensitive.

The behavior of picloram in plants is also similar to that of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T: the concentration declines rapidly soon after treatment, but at a slower rate in later stages. In live oak treated with 2 lb/acre, the residues after 1 and 6 months were 7 and 0.02 ppm; in sugarcane treated with 2 to 3 1/2 lb/acre, they were between <0.1 and 0.6 after 42 days.

In soil, picloram is generally much more stable than 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T. Detectable residues have been sometimes found up to two to three years after application at agricultural rates. Under some conditions, including low pH, high organic matter content and others which cannot yet be specified, degradation can, however, be relatively rapid.

Limited work on the effects of picloram on soil microorganisms has shown that many species tolerate concentrations as high as 1000 ppm (Goring *et al.*, 1967). Mineralization of nitrogen and respiration was not affected at 500 ppm. However, in experiments by Dubey (1969) on tropical soils significant inhibition of nitrification occurred at 20 ppm. In SVN, a single application of Agent White resulted in a picloram concentration of around 1 ppm or less according to soil type and water content and the distribution in the soil profile (see Table II C-1).

Because of its very low volatility, picloram is highly unlikely to cause damage by lateral movement of vapor in the air. On the other hand,

^a Compounds with a vapor pressure of less than 10^{-7} mm mercury may be considered as non-volatile; those with a vapor pressure of 10^{-6} to 10^{-5} mm mercury as moderately; and those with one of 10^{-5} mm mercury or more as highly volatile.

its high solubility and consequent liability to leaching may result in problems of herbicide movement in both surface and drainage waters. There are several reports in the literature of highly sensitive crops exhibiting signs of picloram injury following the application of compost made from the residues of crops receiving picloram or even from manure made with the dung of animals grazing treated fields.

(b) Effects and fate in animals, including man.

The following information relates in part to picloram and in part to the combination of picloram and 2,4-D (Agent White).

The acute oral toxicity of picloram and its salt and ester formulations for mammals, as determined by single dose studies, is low. The LD₅₀ values^a range from about 2000 mg/kg of body weight for rabbits to more than 8000 mg/kg for rats (Ebbersten, 1972; McCollister and Leng, 1969). Single doses up to 720 mg/kg were administered to sheep, and up to 540 mg/kg to calves with no evidence of toxicity (McCollister and Leng, 1969).

Studies on chronic toxicity of picloram have been reported by McCollister and Leng (1969). Their principal results are as follows: (a) When picloram was fed to rats for 90 days it caused no adverse effects with daily dietary levels as high as 1000 ppm, and at 3000 ppm, only an increase in the liver/body weight ratio of female animals. At 10,000 ppm in the diet, slight to moderate pathological changes were observed in the liver and kidneys. (b) The triisopropanolamine salt of picloram, fed to rats for 90 days at a level of 3000 ppm, has a toxicity comparable to the acid. (c) Albino rats and beagle dogs fed picloram in their rations showed after two years of continuous feeding, at daily levels of 15, 50, and 150 mg/kg of body weight, no observable adverse effect as measured by body weight, food consumption, behavior, mortality, hematological and clinical blood chemistry studies, and urinalyses. No gross or microscopic changes were seen, and no difference could be detected in the incidence or kind of tumors found in control rats and in animals receiving picloram in their diet. Similar results were obtained for sheep, calves, and swine. (d) No evidence of adverse effects on fertility, gestation, viability, lactation, body weight, or fetal morphology were noted in albino rats fed picloram at various levels up to 3000 ppm in their diet through three generations. In tests with mice treated with 1000 ppm of picloram in their diet for 4 days before mating and 14 days after mating, there was no effect on number of offspring produced.

Tissue distribution and retention studies with cattle, sheep, chickens, and dogs showed that picloram behaved much like 2,4-D and

^a Mean lethal dose--the amount of a toxic agent which when applied as a single dose will be lethal to 50 percent of the test animals to which it is administered, usually expressed in milligrams per kilogram body weight (mg/kg).

2,4,5-T (McCollister and Leng, 1969; Kutschinski and Riley, 1969; Getzendaner, 1973). In lactating cows, dietary levels of at least 300 ppm were necessary to produce detectable residues in the milk; in steers, diet concentrations of 200 to 1600 ppm resulted in residues of 0.05 to 0.3 ppm in muscle and fat and up to 18 ppm in the kidneys; three days after withdrawal, the residues in cow milk had disappeared (<0.05 ppm) and those in the edible tissues of steers including the kidneys had dropped to 0.1 ppm or less.

Feeding studies with birds, fish and other aquatic animals were conducted by McCollister and Leng (1969); other studies with fish have been summarized by Kenaga (1969). Tests on several species of wild birds failed to reach the LC₅₀ at 1000 ppm in the diet.^a Japanese quail were fed 100 to 1000 ppm of picloram in their diet for each of three generations without effect on mortality, body weight gain, egg production, fertility or hatchability. LC₅₀ values (concentration in water) for several species of fish including trout, salmon, minnow, bluegill, catfish species, and goldfish ranged generally between 20 and 100 ppm for a 24 hr exposure and, as might be expected, somewhat less for longer exposure times. There was not much difference between the free acid and various salts. Combinations with 2,4-D (including Agent White) or 2,4,5-T were more toxic, particularly those with some esters. Various formulations containing triisopropanolamine salts of 2,4-D and picloram were more toxic to ramshorn snails than those without 2,4-D, but none were shown to be toxic at concentrations below 100 ppm in water. Studies with Daphnia showed no effect on reproduction and no evident toxicity below 127 ppm. Analysis of Daphnia tissues showed no concentration above that occurring in the water.

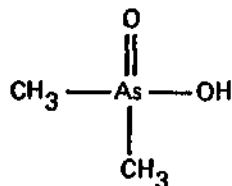
No studies or reports on toxicity of picloram in man are available. If one may extrapolate from animal work, the toxicity rating of picloram for man on the scale of Table II C-6 would be 3 and the toxic dose higher than that of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T.

(2) Cacodylic Acid

(a) Physical and chemical properties; effects and fate in plants and soil.

Cacodylic acid is manufactured by reducing disodium methane arsonate with sulphur dioxide, and methylating the sodium salt to the resultant arsenomethane. The solubility in water of both the acid and sodium salt is extremely high (over 10 lb/gal.). The chemical is non-volatile and stable in sunlight.

^a Mean lethal concentration--the concentration of a toxic agent in a medium (diet, water) that causes death of 50 percent of the animals.



Cacodylic Acid

Cacodylic acid is primarily classified as a contact herbicide because it lacks mobility and only kills tissues into which the chemical has penetrated from the spray drops. At normal rates phytotoxic symptoms appear within two days. It is less effective if rain falls within a few hours of treatment. Sub-lethal doses induce defoliation, malformed inflorescences and fewer seeds. Cacodylic acid appears to undergo little breakdown in plant tissues.

In the soil cacodylic acid undergoes degradation by the microflora. Breakdown is slow under aerobic conditions but is more rapid in flooded, anaerobic soils. The ultimate environmental fate is a change to inorganic arsenate which is mostly bound as insoluble compounds in the soil. Soils naturally contain arsenic in this form, the average content being 5 ppm (Schroeder and Balassa, 1966). In Southeast Asia, sodium arsenite has been applied in rubber plantations at high rates for over 20 years without apparently causing any crop injury.

Although plants absorb cacodylic acid from the soil more readily than inorganic arsenic the available evidence suggests that crops ordinarily do not suffer injury when planted on land which has been previously treated. If excessive rates have been used and/or the soils are unusually rich in phosphates, injury may be caused to sensitive plants (such as rice and peanuts) when planting takes place soon after treatment (Woolson, personal communication).

(b) Effects and Fate in Animals, Including Man.^a

The toxicity rating of cacodylic acid for humans on the scale of Table II C-6 is 3, that is, the substance is in the lower range of materials with a medium toxicity. Toxicologic data for animals are available

^a Except where a reference is given, the information in this section was obtained from the supporting material included in petition for registration of the compounds as herbicides.

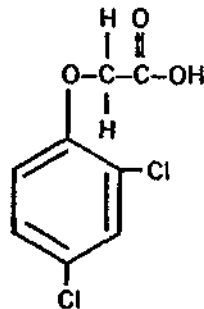
for Ansar 160 and Ansar 560, both of which are reasonably similar to Agent Blue.^a

Ansar 160 has an approximate LD₅₀ of 3.2 cc/kg for albino rats, Sprague-Dawley strain; for Ansar 560 the LD₅₀ was 2.6 g/kg. Necropsy of animals that died after being fed the chemicals did not indicate any significant gross pathologic alterations in the examined tissues and organs. For a variety of non-mammals the LC₅₀ ranged from values of several hundred to 1000 ppm for acute doses of cacodylic acid.

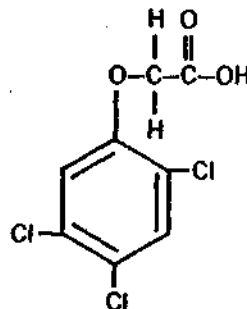
In studies on chronic toxicity, cacodylic acid was fed to rats at arsenic levels of 0, 3, 15, 30, and 100 ppm and to beagles at 0, 3, 15, and 30 ppm. There were no significant differences between control animals and test groups in terms of body weight, food consumption, hematology, urinalysis, or organ weights.

Lactating Holstein cows were given a supplemental feed of cottonseed meal containing 10 ppm of cacodylic acid equivalent to a daily intake of 24.5 mg. After 60 days on this regime, no arsenic residue in milk or cumulative storage in body tissues were found. Eggs from chickens fed arsenic levels of 0, 0.3, and 3.0 ppm contained less than 0.05 ppm arsenic, those from hens fed at the 30.0 ppm level had residues of 0.22 and 0.23 at one and two months, respectively. Tissue analyses showed arsenic residues in hens fed at 30 ppm, but after seven days withdrawal the tissue residue levels were again below 0.05 ppm, except for muscle which ranged from 0.06 to 0.10 ppm arsenic.

(3) 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T



2,4-D



2,4,5-T

(a) Physical and chemical properties.

The main steps in the manufacture of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are shown in Fig. II C-1. 2,4-D is produced by reacting 2,4-dichlorophenol with

^a Ansar 160 contains 29 percent of sodium cacodylate and 5 percent of cacodylic acid, giving a total content in elemental arsenic of 16.28 percent. For Ansar 560, the values are 22.6 - 3.9 - 12.7 percent, for Agent Blue, 26.4 - 4.7 - 15 percent.

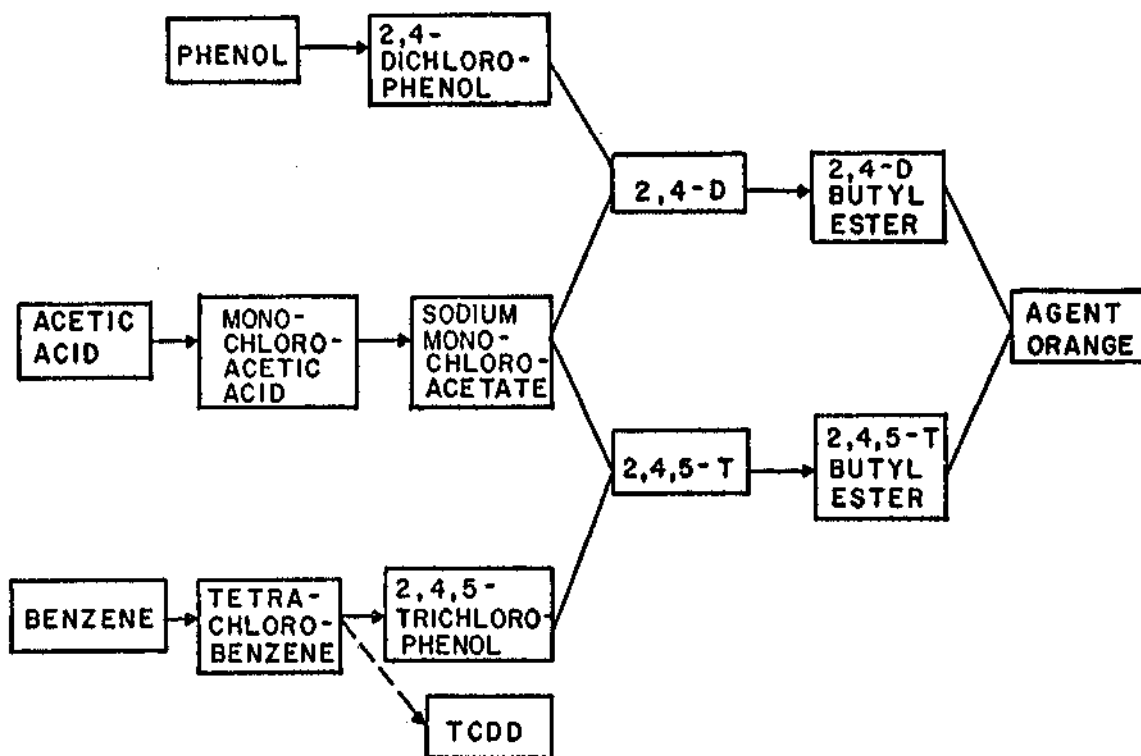


Fig. II C-1. Diagrammatic representation of the major steps in the production of 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T and Agent Orange. Also shown is the step where TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin) arises. No comparable material is formed in the 2,4-D process, because of the different conditions for the production of the dichloro- and the trichloro-phenol (see Section II C[4]).

sodium monochloroacetate, while tetrachlorobenzene is the starting material for 2,4,5-T. The technical grades of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T used for agricultural purposes are about 98 and 90 percent pure, respectively. Impurities consist mainly of chlorinated phenols and other chlorinated phenoxyacetic acids. 2,4,5-T also contains small amounts of TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin), a highly toxic compound the presence of which has caused considerable public concern. It is discussed in the next section (II C-4).

2,4-D and 2,4,5-T as the *n*-butyl esters are the constituents of Agent Orange. This agent is a liquid, very insoluble in water, but moderately volatile. The vapor pressure of the 2,4-D butyl ester has been determined to be 8.4×10^{-6} mm mercury at 25°C (77°F) (Hamaker and Kerlinger, 1969). No accurate determinations are available for the corresponding 2,4,5-T ester but estimates indicate that its volatility is of a similar magnitude to that of the 2,4-D ester. 2,4-D as the triisopropanolamine salt is a constituent of Agent White. In this form it is very soluble in water, and is essentially non-volatile. 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T in the forms used for herbicide operations in SVN are stable to well above ambient temperatures.

(b) Effects and Fate in Plants.

2,4-D and 2,4,5-T can be taken up by the root system and distributed throughout the shoots. When sprayed onto the foliage, penetration may occur and the chemicals are then freely exported from the leaves along with the products of photosynthesis, accumulating particularly in the most actively growing tissues where the disruptive effects on growth and the attendant metabolic processes are maximal.

Both 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are distinguished by selectivity, that is, they affect certain plants much more than others. Broadleaved plants are as a rule susceptible, cereals and other grasses are relatively resistant. Although there is a voluminous literature on the action of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T in the plant cell, it is not possible to pinpoint at the cellular level all the essential differences which determine susceptibility or resistance.

Within the plant, 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are not very persistent. Table II C-2 lists the residues found in various crops after treatment with different doses and at different times after treatment. The disappearance is very rapid at first but slows down with time. It is caused by two concurrent processes: binding of the herbicide molecule to other compounds, mainly glucose, to form a non-toxic complex, and degradation of the herbicide molecule. The latter proceeds by removal of the side chain and replacement of the chlorine atoms with hydroxyl (OH) groups, followed by opening of the benzene ring. Formation of the corresponding phenols is a minor route of breakdown. The ability to degrade 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T varies between plant species.

Table II C-2

2,4-D and 2,4,5-T Residues in Crops

Crop	Treatment (lb/acre)	Interval between treatment and determination	Residue found (ppm)	Authority
<u>2,4-D</u>				
Asparagus	2	1-3 days	2.0	Getzendaner, 1958
Peanuts	4			Getzendaner, 1965
Forage Nuts		62 days 150 days	0.1 ND ^a	
Sorghum	2.5	1-2 months		Ketchersid <u>et al.</u> , 1970
Forage Grain			3-5 <0.2	
<u>2,4,5-T</u>				
Live oak	2	1-6 months	10-0.8	Bauer <u>et al.</u> , 1969
Rice	1.5	50 days		Devine, 1970; Jensen and Berhenke, 1973
Straw Grain			0-13 ND	
Wheat	1			Chow <u>et al.</u> , 1971
Plant Grain		7-56 days 56 days	9-0.1 ND	

^a ND = not detected.

Because esters of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are much more volatile than acid and amine formulations, damage to susceptible plants can occur under some conditions by the lateral movement of the vapors. Plant injury may also be caused by drift of spray droplets from the treated area during spraying.

(c) Fate in Soil.

In the soil in the presence of moisture, even at relatively low levels, the esters of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are readily converted (hydrolyzed) into the acid form. Working with Canadian prairie soils at their wilting point moistures--that is, relatively low moisture content--Smith (1972) found that at 25°C (77°F) the *n*-butyl and the isopropyl esters of 2,4-D had decreased in one and one-half hours to 15 percent of the original level and had completely disappeared in 48 hours; hydrolysis of the isooctyl ester was slower, 20 to 30 percent remaining after 24 hr. and 10 percent after 48 hr. The free acids are more soluble than the esters but have still a low solubility (2,4-D, 620 ppm at 25°C [77°F] 2,4,5-T according to different determinations 251 or 278 ppm). Thus, as long as the two herbicides persist in the ester or acid form leaching through the soil will be slow. However, if sufficient amounts of certain metal ions (potassium, sodium, magnesium) are present and the soil is on the alkaline side salts of the acids are formed and these are highly soluble and thus subject to leaching.

Persistence of both 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T in the soil is limited. Disappearance follows a similar course as in plant tissue. It is caused by microorganisms and is therefore favored by environmental conditions which are favorable for high microbial activity: high organic matter content, moisture, and temperature. The breakdown can be enhanced in soils exposed previously to the same compound, or in some cases to related compounds. For example, it has been shown in Hawaii (Akamine, 1951) that after a single application 2,4-D takes up to 14 weeks to disappear, but after repeated applications decomposition occurs in four weeks or less. 2,4,5-T is somewhat more persistent than 2,4-D, but not greatly so.

(d) Effects on Soil Microorganisms.

Much research has been undertaken on effects of 2,4-D and to a lesser extent 2,4,5-T on soil microorganisms, which are essential in maintaining the properties of the soil, including properties important for agriculture. Significant effects from either herbicide have seldom been reported in laboratory experiments at concentrations of less than 100 ppm in soil. Both stimulatory and inhibitory effects have occurred at higher concentrations. No information is available for mangrove soils. Literature reviews (Fletcher, 1966; Audus, 1970) have concluded that these herbicides have no adverse effects at rates used in agricultural practice. In Vietnam, a single application of Agent Orange

would have resulted in a mean concentration of 14 ppm 2,4,5-T and 12 ppm 2,4-D in the soil, assuming that all the chemical applied did reach the soil and was then restricted to the top 3 in. (7.5 cm), or about 3.5 and 3.0 ppm respectively, if it were restricted to the top one foot (30 cm) (compare Table II C-1).

(e) Effects and Fate in Animals.

Acute and chronic data on toxicology are available for the n-butyl and isobutyl esters, separately and in mixture, of 2,4-D and of 2,4,5-T, individually, but no data have been found for Agent Orange, which is the 50:50 mixture of the n-butyl esters. However, there is no evidence, one way or the other, that the n-butyl ester of 2,4-D would potentiate the toxicological activity of the same ester of 2,4,5-T, or vice versa; the toxic effects of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T formulations fall generally within the same dosage range, and formulated products containing various other esters of both 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T cause toxic effects in the same range as do the individual n-butyl esters of the two basic chemicals. Thus, we have made the assumption that the toxicological effects of Agent Orange are similar to those of its two components.

Rowe and Hymas (1954) reviewed earlier toxicological information on 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T and reported the results of extensive studies of their own. The LD₅₀ values of various forms of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T for rats, mice, guinea pigs, and rabbits range from 300 to 1000 mg/kg. Chicks appear to be somewhat more tolerant, and dogs more susceptible (LD₅₀ 100 mg/kg).^b Formulated products had LD₅₀ values somewhat higher (500 to 2000 mg/kg), indicating that the adjuvants (surfactants, inert materials) did not appear to increase the toxicity of the basic chemicals. The LD₅₀ values for the mixed butyl esters in mg/kg were as follows, with the 5 percent confidence limits or if noted with an * the range in which mortality was observed (administration here and below, unless otherwise noted, orally):

	<u>2,4-D</u>	<u>2,4,5-T</u>
Rats	620 (320-954)	481 (313-739)
Guinea pigs	848 (604-1190)	750 (500-1000)*
Rabbits	424 (252-712)	712 (500-1000)*
Mice	713 (500-1000)*	940 (674-1312)
Chicks	2000 (1350-2760)	not determined

The LD₅₀ values of other forms of the two chemicals (free acids, salts, other esters) fell within the above ranges suggesting that there are no substantial differences in their toxicity. Later investigations

^a Potentiation means increase of activity--here, toxicity--above that of the sum of the two compounds applied singly.

^b In most toxicological studies on herbicides, the doses are expressed in weights of the actual active compound, not as acid equivalents. In the case of the butyl esters, the acid equivalent values for 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T would be about 10 and 20 percent less, respectively.

have, in general, borne out these results. Some studies suggest, however, that esters with a large esterifying group, such as the propylene-glycolbutyl ether esters, are more toxic than those with a small group, like the butyl esters.

Cattle appear to respond similarly to small laboratory animals in terms of acute toxicity (Rowe and Hymas, 1954). Pigs are apparently more sensitive (Björklund and Erne, 1971).

In addition to the determinations of LD₅₀ there are numerous reports on effects of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T when administered to warm-blooded animals over longer periods of time. The results are sometimes contradictory. Thus, Drill and Hiratzka (1953) reported that 20 mg/kg of 2,4-D or 2,4,5-T, given 5 times weekly, caused death in dogs but Hansen et al. (1971) were unable to reproduce this result. The reasons are not clear; they may reside in differences between different breeds. On the whole, however, administration of the same amount in repeated, smaller doses has less toxic effects than a single large dose. In feeding studies with cattle, sheep, and chickens, no ill effects were noted at daily levels of 50 mg/kg of 2,4-D or 2,4,5-T daily given for as long as a year; 100 mg/kg/day caused some weight loss or reduced weight gain and other minor effects in some of the animals, while 250 mg/kg/day proved to be toxic (Palmer and Radcleff, 1969). 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T thus belong to those toxic materials which have only a limited cumulative action. The reason is undoubtedly that in most animals they are rapidly removed from the body, mainly in the urine (see below).

A number of studies have been conducted with wild animals. Reindeer were found to have a susceptibility similar to that of other mammals (Erne, 1972). Wild animals collected from areas treated with phenoxy-acetic compounds had some, although low, residues in liver and kidney, but no pathologic changes were found (Erne, 1971). The LC₅₀ (concentration in drinking water) for bobwhite quail, Japanese quail, pheasant and mallard was over 5000 ppm of 2,4-D as butoxy-ethanol ester and dimethylamine salt (Heath et al., 1972); this is approximately equivalent to between 1000 and 2500 mg/kg/day. Some bobwhite quail, coturnix quail, and pheasant died after 10 daily feedings with 2500 or 5000 ppm of the same preparations; higher levels of mortality but not a complete kill resulted from longer feeding periods (Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, 1962, 1963, 1964).

Lutz and Lutz-Ostertag (1970) sprayed an incompletely specified formulation of 2,4-D on eggs of pheasant, red partridge, and grey partridge at a rate equivalent to a field application of one-half to one lb/acre, and reported mortality rates of 77, 43, and 77 percent, respectively, and paralysis and morphological anomalies in the surviving offspring. But while some illustrations of control embryos are shown, no numerical data on controls (untreated eggs) are given. Somers (1972), after spraying pheasant eggs with a formulated mixture of 2,4-D

and 2,4,5-T as the isooctyl esters (1:1) at 10 lb/acre total or with Agent White (Tordon 101) at 0.25 and 2.5 lb/acre, found numerous eggs with dead and malformed embryos (38 to 51 percent) and low hatchability of the fertile eggs (61 to 59 percent), but there were no differences between treated and control eggs.

There are only limited studies on pathological or biochemical changes associated with 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T poisoning in animals (Björklund and Erne, 1971) and they do not permit us to pinpoint any particular effect as the primary "lesion" caused by these compounds.

2,4-D and 2,4,5-T have limited retention times in mammals and birds, and are excreted mainly in the urine in unchanged form. The two substances are strong acids, and this behavior in the organism is characteristic of such acids. After a single administration, the maximum in blood and organs is reached in about 2 to 6 hrs., followed by a sharp drop and then a slower decline. After repeated administrations of nontoxic or only mildly toxic doses--in some experiments, up to 100 days--the situation was similar, with no evidence of accumulation or longer term retention, but with evidence of transfer of small amounts into milk and eggs. 2,4,5-T has somewhat but not greatly longer retention times than 2,4-D. Examples are compiled in Table II C-3. Only when animals were acutely poisoned with several large doses (sheep; 250 mg/kg/day for 4 to 6 days) and analyzed immediately after killing or in autopsy were high levels found in kidneys (up to 368 ppm), liver and fat (about 80 ppm) (Clark and Palmer, 1971). When a single dose of an ester was administered, most of the excretion was in unchanged form, but after higher doses and repeated administrations, increasing amounts were excreted as the free acid, and in animals acutely poisoned with an ester most of the excreted material was in the free acid form (Clark and Palmer, 1971). The results indicate that the ability of the organism to hydrolyze the ester increases with increasing time and dose.

The situation, as just outlined, holds for rats, cattle, sheep, and chickens. Elimination in the pig is somewhat slower, the difference being particularly evident in the blood plasma (Björklund and Erne, 1971), and in dogs the retention times in the body were markedly longer than in rats while the urine contained degradation products of the herbicide, indicating a larger amount of metabolism (Piper et al., in press; see Table II C-4). These characteristics quite likely account for the greater toxicity of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T in pigs and particularly in dogs. The behavior of 2,4,5-T in man appears to be much more similar to that in the rat than in the dog (Gehring et al., in press; see Table II C-4).

Numerous laboratory studies have been conducted on the toxicity of various forms of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T to fish and other aquatic organisms. A number of examples are given in Table II C-5. It appears that 2,4-D and

Table II C-3

Herbicide residues in tissues of animals fed 2,4-D or 2,4,5-T.*

Animal	Compound, dosage, and application	Duration of treatment	Time of deter- mination after end of treatmt.	Level in ppm (fresh weight)						
				Blood plasma	Muscle	Liver	Kidney	Fat	Milk	Eggs
Rats	2,4-D TEA ^a ; 100 mg/kg, oral	One dose	6 hours ^b	150	23	90	250	^d	-	-
			6 hours ^c	70	14	35	145	-	-	-
			24 hours ^b	2	2	5	27	-	-	-
			24 hours ^c	1.5	0.6	3	15	-	-	-
	2,4-D TEA; 1000 ppm in drinking water	2 months	Irregular intervals	10 ^b 5 ^c	7 3	25 3	45 15	1.5 -	- -	- -
			Cattle ^g	2,4-D; 2000 ppm in feed	30 days	Within 24 hrs.	-	<0.025	0.2 ^f	4 ^f
	2,4-D; 1000 ppm in feed	2-3 weeks	Within 24 hrs.	-	-	-	-	-	0.05 ^f	-
			3 days	-	-	-	-	-	<0.05	-
		30 days	Within 24 hrs.	-	0.9	6 ^f	7 ^f	1.7	-	-
			2,4,5-T; 1800 ppm in feed	2-3 weeks	Within 24 hrs.	-	-	-	-	0.4
	2,4,5-T; 1000 ppm in feed	2-3 weeks	Within 24 hrs.	-	-	-	-	-	0.4	-
			3 days	-	-	-	-	-	<0.05	-
Sheep	2,4-D; 2000 ppm in feed	4 weeks	Within 24 hrs.	-	0.06	0.98	9.17	0.10	-	-
			7 days	-	ND ^d	0.27	0.37	0.15	-	-
	2,4,5-T; 2000 ppm in feed	4 weeks	Within 24 hrs.	-	1.0	2.29	27.23	0.25	-	-
			7 days	-	ND	ND	<0.05	<0.05	-	-
Pigs	2,4-D TEA; 100 mg/kg, oral	One dose	6 hours	20	21	115	190	3	-	-
			24 hours	27	3	27	36	2	-	-
			48 hours	6	2	6	10	-	-	-
			72 hours	4	1.6	4	5	-	-	-
	2,4-D TEA; 100 mg/kg, oral	30 days	24 hours	7	1.5	10	17	0.5	-	-
2,4-D TEA; 500 ppm in feed twice daily	2 months	Irregular intervals	22	2	6	12	1.3	-	-	
Chickens	2,4-D TEA; 200 mg/kg, oral	1 day	6 hours	100	3.5	80	120	1.1	-	<0.1 ^g
			24 hours	15	1.5	25	80	-	-	0.2 ^g
			48 hours	5	1.2	3	7	-	-	0.2 ^g
	2,4-D; 1000 ppm in drinking water	2 months	Irregular intervals	10	3	15	20	1.0	-	1.5 ^h 0.2 ⁱ

*Data for rats, pigs, chickens from Erne (1966) and Björklund and Erne (1971).
for cattle from Getzandaner (1973), for sheep from Clark et al. (1971).

^a - TEA = triethanolamine salt, BE = butyl ester

^b - = males

^c - = females

^d - = not determined, ND - not discovered

^e - levels expressed as ppm in tissue per 1000 ppm in feed

^f - small amounts of the corresponding chlorophenol found

^g - in yolk; not detectable in white

^h - in yolk

ⁱ - in white

Table II C-4

Fate of 2,4,5-T in Rat, Dog and Man
(Fed a Single Oral Dose of 5 mg/kg)*

	Rat	Man ^a	Dog
Plasma half-life ^b (hrs)	7	23	69
Body half-life (hrs)	18	30	125
Urinary metabolites	None	None	Present
Percent excreted in urine	83 (6 days)	88 (4 days)	38 (6 days)
Percent excreted in feces	3 (6 days)	<1 (2 days)	17 (6 days)

* After Gehring et al., in press, and Piper et al., in press.

^a Five volunteers

^b Half-life is the time required for the disappearance of one-half of the maximum observed level.

Table II C-5

Effect of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T on Aquatic Organisms

<u>Organism</u>	<u>Chemical^a</u>	<u>Exposure hours</u>	<u>LC50^b ppm</u>	<u>Reference</u>
Bluegill	2,4-D AA, DMA and similar	24	166-900	Hughes and Davis, 1963, 1966
		48	166-840	
	2,4-D BEE	24	2.1	
		48	2.1	
	2,4-D BuE	24	1.3-10	
		48	1.3	
	2,4-D PGBE	24	2.1	
		48	0.9-2.1	
	2,4,5-T DMA	24	53.7-144	
	2,4,5-T PGBE	24	17	
2,4-D PGBE	long- term	c	Cope <u>et al.</u> , 1970	
Rainbow trout	2,4-D PGBE	48	1.1	Bohmont, 1967
	2,4,5-T Ac	24	12	Alabaster, 1969
	2,4,5-T Ac	48	1.3	Bohmont, 1967
Harlequin fish	2,4-D Na	24	1,160	Alabaster, 1969
	2,4-D BuE	24	1	
	2,4,5-T BuE	24	1	
Water flea (Daphnia)	2,4-D Acid	48	>100	Sanders, 1970a
	2,4-D DMA		4.0	
	2,4-D BEE		5.6	
	2,4-D PGBE		0.1	
Seed Shrimp (Cypridopsis vidua)	2,4-D DMA	48	80	
	2,4-D BEE		1.8	
	2,4-D PGBE		0.32	
Scud (Gammarus fasciatus)	2,4-D Acid	48	3.2	
	2,4-D DMA		>100	
	2,4-D BEE		5.9	
	2,4-D PGBE		2.6	
Sowbug (Asellus brevicaudus)	2,4-D DMA	48	>100	
	2,4-D BEE		3.2	
	2,4-D PGBE		2.2	
Crayfish (Orconectes nails)	2,4-D DMA	48	>100	
	BEE, PGBE			
Western Chorus Frog	2,4-D DMA	96	>100	Sanders, 1970b

a - AA alkanolamine salts; Ac = acid; BEE butoxyethanol ester; BuE = butyl ester; DMA dimethylamine salt; PGBE propyleneglycolbutyl ether ester

b - Where a range is shown, it refers to different preparations or different experiments

c - Outdoor experiments: 10 ppm caused 50% death in 10 days; 5 ppm and less caused no mortality.

2,4,5-T as acids and salts are not very toxic to aquatic organisms; however, certain esters are toxic at about one ppm and even 0.1 ppm in the water. There is considerable and unexplained variation between experiments and within the same experiment, and between different samples of the same chemical. It should also be realized that laboratory studies on toxicity can be misleading. In the case of aquatic animals maintained in containers the chemicals can be bound only to the animals and the sides of the container whereas in a pond, river, etc. they are also bound to soil, mud, any suspended materials, and plants. An outdoors experiment with bluegill indicated that the toxicity of one particular chemical, the 2,4-D propylene-glycolbutyl ether ester, was considerably less than in the laboratory (see Table II C-5). Unfortunately, there seem to be no studies on metabolism and excretion in aquatic animals. Bioconcentration in such animals under field conditions does not seem to occur. After treatment of a pond with as much as 30 lb/acre 2,4-D, fish contained a residue of 0.3 ppm while the residue in crab was below the detection limit of 0.8 ppm (Coakley et al., 1964).

(f) Effects in Man.

The literature contains a number of descriptions of acute poisoning in man by 2,4-D and to a lesser extent by 2,4,5-T. These include accidents and attempts at suicide. The doses ingested were quite high but varied in wide limits. Thus, in one fatal case the estimate was 1200 to 1800 mg/kg, in a second one 80 mg/kg. In another case, however, 110 mg/kg resulted in toxicity but the patient survived. Evaluation of the fatal dose is made more difficult because ingestion was followed by vomiting in some of the cases. It has been inferred that about 50 to 100 mg/kg of 2,4-D are acutely toxic for man but this is hardly more than a "guess-timate." On the other hand, lower amounts have been ingested or otherwise absorbed over some periods of time with no apparent adverse effects. E. J. Kraus, one of the earliest investigators of 2,4-D, consumed 100 mg of the substance daily for 30 days; another individual ingested 500 mg daily for three weeks, in either case with no perceptible consequences. Assuming a weight of 150 lb, the daily doses would have been about 1.4 and 7 mg/kg, respectively. Two patients were treated (unsuccessfully) with 2,4-D against coccidioidomycosis. One received a total of 12.7 g. of the sodium salt over a period of 34 days. Intravenous doses of 2 g. were tolerated without adverse response whereas a dose of 3.6 g. caused nervous responses for a period of 48 hrs., but there were no other, more persistent adverse effects.

A number of health studies on groups of persons who may have been chronically exposed to 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T have been carried out. In the case of workers involved in the manufacture of 2,4,5-T, certain signs (chloracne, often accompanied by hyperpigmentation and hirsutism) are attributable to TCDD which occurs as a contaminant in the manufacture of 2,4,5-trichlorophenol, the precursor of 2,4,5-T (Poland et al., 1971). TCDD will be discussed in Section II C (4) of this chapter. Excluding such cases, the main findings are as follows:

(1) In a very brief paper, lacking numerical data and many important details, Fetisov (1966) describes some results of health examinations on 105 workers engaged in production of 2,4-D including salts and esters, and on 45 persons engaged in aerial spraying of 2,4-D type herbicides in agriculture. Symptoms which were reported and which appeared to increase with the degree of exposure were fatigue and headaches at the end of the work day, loss of appetite, pains in the stomach and kidney regions, and occasionally symptoms in the upper respiratory tract. The symptoms usually disappeared by the next morning. Special tests showed reduced taste and smell sensations. No examinations on comparable control populations are mentioned. The concentration of the chemicals in the air of the factory was extremely high, containing up to 28 to 44 mg/m³.

(2) Poland et al. (1971) conducted health examinations and clinical tests on 73 workers involved mainly in the production of 2,4,5-T for periods of less than one year to more than 13 years. No significant increases in abnormal function of the cardiovascular, pulmonary, intermediary metabolic, and hematological systems were found, but some neurological deficiencies were noted (six cases of decreased hearing, one of diminished proprioception, two without ankle jerks). However, since no comparable control population was studied, it is not possible to say whether this prevalence was normal or abnormal in this population. A personality inventory test showed correlation only with chloracne, most probably a result of TCDD toxicity.

(3) Long et al. (1969) carried out a comparative investigation of two groups of farmers in Johnson County, Iowa, who differed greatly in the use of insecticides and herbicides on their land. One group (15) were high users; their total usage was over 4700 lb insecticides and over 5300 lb herbicides, of the latter almost 3000 lb 2,4-D or 2,4-D formulations. The other group (18) were low users; their usage figures were 380--290--about 180 lb, respectively. Otherwise, the two groups exhibited no obvious differences. The subjects were given comprehensive medical examinations, their medical histories were studied, and they were subjected to 16 clinical laboratory tests and to analyses of some of the pesticides in their blood. The blood levels were not correlated with high versus low pesticide use, but correlations with several other clinical characteristics were found. In the case of 2,4-D, the only such correlation was high serum albumin values in the high use group. The authors emphasize that their results must be interpreted with great caution.

(4) In a study (Sundell, 1972) of mortality, general and from tumors and lung cancer (defined according to the World Health Organization Diagnosis Register, Chapters II and A50, respectively), among Swedish State Railways workers who had been engaged in herbicide spraying for at least one season (46 days) no difference from the mortality rates representative of the whole country were found in a group (194 individuals) that had been exposed only to phenoxy herbicides (mainly 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T). A significant ($p < 0.02$) increase of cancer deaths was found in individuals exposed to amitrol (a chemically different herbicide), whether alone or in combination with other

herbicides, and there was an indication that this was correlated with relatively heavy exposure. The study included individuals exposed in the same year, and 3 or 5 years earlier.

(5) A health study of workers who had been engaged in application of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T preparations along the Finnish State railroads was conducted in 1972 (Working Group on the Impact of Herbicides on Human Health, 1973). A group of 180 workers in the age brackets 10-19 to 60-69 (mostly, 30-59), mostly males, who had been involved in herbicide spraying mainly from backpack sprayers and to a lesser extent with motorized or other mechanized equipment, and for periods of less than one week to over 8 weeks, were studied by means of an extensive questionnaire and compared with a control population, i.e. workers who had not been in contact with herbicides. Thirty individuals were subjected to a "preliminary" medical examination which included tests on the function of liver, kidney, thyroid, and respiratory organs, and blood sugar; 18 individuals were given additional tests on the functioning of the nervous system. In addition, a total of about 2000 cases in the demographic records were evaluated as to mortality rate and cause. These included workers who had been engaged in herbicide applications on railroads and roads, and around waterworks and a power plant. They were divided by exposure period (2 to 7 weeks, and 8 weeks or more), by age groups, and by death causes (cancer, respiratory and blood diseases, death from natural causes), and were compared with the total Finnish population and the part engaged in gainful employment. Among the persons engaged in herbicide spraying there were complaints of the same kind as reported by Fetisov (1966), i.e. fatigue, headache, stomachache, irritation of the respiratory organs, plus instances of skin irritation, rash, and eye irritation. However, with the possible exception of headaches, these did not exceed the incidence in the control population. No significant differences were found in mortality rates and causes, or in the various laboratory tests, but the incidence of disturbances in the electroencephalogram, indicative of disturbances in the functioning of the nervous system, was two times higher than in those workers who were not exposed to substances affecting the nervous system. The statistical significance in this case was between 5 and 10 percent. While this is outside the generally accepted level of statistical significance (<5 percent) it is indicative and the Working Group recommends further studies, with larger numbers of subjects. On the other hand, it states that the observed deviations were mild and did not constitute an illness as such.

(6) A recent study of employees in a 2,4,5-T manufacturing plant in the U.S. (C. G. Kramer and M. G. Ott, Industrial Hygiene and Medical Department, The Dow Chemical Company; unpublished) identified three populations exposed to 2,4,5-T: (a) 130 employees with more than six months exposure, (b) 35 employees currently working in areas of 2,4,5-T exposure, and (c) 64 employees whose respiratory exposure to 2,4,5-T could be estimated with considerable accuracy and ranged from between 1 and 99 mg total exposure

to more than 10,000 mg. The results of a physical examination including extensive chemical analyses, combined with a review of medical and exposure histories, failed to produce evidence of adverse effects resulting from their work exposure, at a 5 percent level of significance, in any of the three groups as compared with a control population of 4600 individuals which, in turn, did not vary significantly from the general population.

All available studies are cross-sectional; the exposed populations were examined once or in some cases twice, and their past medical histories evaluated. No longitudinal studies, in which the same persons would be observed at regular intervals over longer periods of time, appear to have been made. Thus, temporary and also delayed effects may have been overlooked (there is, however, no evidence for delayed effects in animal work). But with this reservation the results of all these studies do not provide any conclusive evidence for serious adverse effects of 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T and their derivatives on the health of humans exposed to these compounds on a daily basis, sometimes for years. The results of the work of Fetisov (1966) cannot be properly evaluated since, as already stated, it is not clear whether appropriate controls were studied. The exposure level of at least part of the subjects of this study was unusually high.

A number of cases are reported in the literature where skin exposure to 2,4-D (as acid, ester, or salt) resulted in disorders of the peripheral nervous system. The symptoms included vomiting, head- and stomachaches, reduced sensory perception mainly in the extremities, and limb paralysis, and lasted for weeks and months; in some cases, recovery was incomplete after several years. The exposures, where adequately known, were quite heavy, for example, spilling of 10 fluid ounces of a 10 percent solution of a 2,4-D ester on the forearms followed on another day by wetting of the legs; or drenching by sprays of solutions of 2,4-D or derivatives of over 25 to over 40 percent concentration, in some cases again on repeated occasions. Several of the authors stress that the situations were unusual, and suspect predisposition of the subjects to disorders of this kind. The total number of the cases reported is less than ten; comparing them with the results of the group studies summarized above and considering the wide use of 2,4-D it does not appear justified to consider this a general effect of the herbicide. Fullerton (1969), in a review on effects of industrial chemicals on peripheral neuropathy, considers 2,4-D as having neuropathic effects only after a gross overdose.

Table II C-6 gives toxicity ratings for 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T for humans, compared with a number of other chemicals. The two herbicides fall in the two medium classes; they are compounds which are distinctly toxic but which must be consumed in quite substantial quantities to have any overt effect. They are clearly much less toxic than well-known poisons such as strychnine and arsenic. The higher rating of 2,4-D as

Table II C-6

Toxicity Ratings of Herbicide Components and Some Other Substances
(Source: Gleason et al., 1969)

<u>Herbicide^a</u>	<u>Component of Agent</u>	<u>Toxicity Rating</u>
Cacodylic Acid	Blue	3
2,4-D	White, Orange	4
2,4,5-T	Orange	3 ^b
<u>Comparative Substances</u>		
Strychnine		6
Arsenic		5
Aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid)		4
Caffeine		4
DDT		4
Belladonna leaf		4
Diesel fuels		3
Alcohol (ethanol, ethyl alcohol)		2
Calcium carbonate (chalk)		1

Toxicity Rating

The toxicity ratings are based on mortality (not morbidity or other effects) after a single dose and represent an estimate of the probable or mean lethal dose. Most values are extrapolations from LD₅₀ determinations in animals (application by mouth or stomach tube) but whenever available, clinical data and even clinical impressions for humans have been given precedence.

<u>Toxicity Rating or Class</u>	<u>Probable Lethal Dose (Human)</u>	
	<u>mg or gram/kg</u>	<u>For a 150 lb (70 kg) human</u>
6	less than 5 mg/kg	a taste (less than 7 drops)
5	5-50 mg/kg	between 7 drops and 1 teaspoonful
4	50-500 mg/kg	between 1 teaspoonful and 1 ounce
3	500 mg to 5 gm/kg	between 1 ounce and 1 pint (or 1 lb)
2	5-15 gm/kg	between 1 pint and 1 quart
1	above 15 gm/kg	more than 1 quart

^a For approximate rating of picloram, see Section II C(1).

^b Compare text.

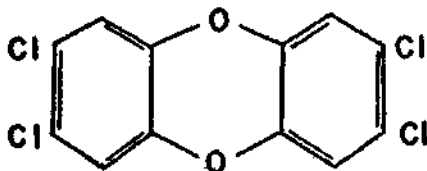
compared to 2,4,5-T is probably due to the fact that more cases of 2,4-D than of 2,4,5-T poisoning in humans are known, but this is undoubtedly a reflection of the fact that the former herbicide is more in use than the latter. Experiments with warm-blooded animals do not indicate any consistent differences in the toxicity of the two compounds; on this basis, both would appear to be on the borderline of toxicity classes 4 and 3.

(4) TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin), a Contaminant of 2,4,5-T and Other Dioxins

In the 1950's and 60's, manufacturers of chlorinated phenols and of 2,4,5-T in the U.S. and Germany experienced outbreaks of a skin disease, chloracne, among their workers.^a During the same period outbreaks of mortality, associated with severe edema, occurred among broiler chickens in various parts of the U.S. These were traced to a "chick edema factor," toxic substance(s) present in various materials unrelated as to origin: lipid residues from the manufacture of fatty acids that were used as chicken feed ingredients; food grade fatty acids themselves; some crude vegetable oils; and soapstock, a byproduct from refining such oils.

In subsequent studies it became apparent that the causal agents for both the chloracne and the chick edema disease were polychlorodibenzo-para-dioxins.

Chlorodibenzo-para-dioxins consist of two benzene rings linked together by two adjacent oxygen bridges, and having one to eight chlorine atoms attached. At least theoretically, 75 different chlorodibenzo-para-dioxins can be postulated. So far, about 10 have been synthesized, and one or more have been found to occur in such items as food, animal feeds, and 2,4,5-T. The most common dioxin in 2,4,5-T is 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin or TCDD. Our discussion deals primarily with TCDD and its presence in 2,4,5-T. It is, however, not the only toxic chlorodibenzodioxin, and the manufacture of 2,4,5-T is not the only industrial source of these compounds.



TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin)

^a The disease had been described in 1899 and erroneously attributed to free chlorine; hence the name.

(a) Physical and Chemical Properties

TCDD arises during the hydrolysis of tetrachlorobenzene to form 2,4,5-trichlorophenol, the industrial precursor of 2,4,5-T. The hydrolysis is carried out under alkaline conditions, at high temperatures, and under pressure, conditions each of which, unless very carefully controlled, is favorable to the formation of the chlorodioxins.

The production of 2,4-dichlorophenol, the precursor of 2,4-D, does not involve any of the conditions necessary for 2,4,5-trichlorophenol production, nor does production of picloram. Neither 2,4-D nor picloram were found to contain TCDD, at least when analyzed with methods permitting detection to a limit of 0.05-0.02 ppm.

TCDD is a solid which is very insoluble in water (at 77°F = 25°C, 0.0002 ppm or 0.2 parts per billion), very slightly soluble in fats (44 ppm in lard oil), slightly soluble in hydrocarbons (570 ppm in benzene), and somewhat more soluble, but still not very highly so, in chlorinated organic solvents (1400 ppm in ortho-dichlorobenzene). The solubility in Agent Orange is 580 ppm. Like other chlorodioxins, TCDD is stable to heat, acids and alkali. For thermal decomposition, at least about 800°C (1500°F) is required.

As will be seen in the next two sections, TCDD exerts its biological effects at extremely low concentrations. This has posed serious limitations on analytical work with the substance. The sensitivity limit of previous methods has been in the range of 0.05 to 0.02 ppm (in one case, down to 0.001 ppm; Woolson *et al.*, 1973)--inadequate for a number of purposes. Baughman and Meselson (1973a, 1973b) have recently described a method which permits determination to a level of about 0.000003 ppm or 3 ppt (parts per trillion) and is thus a great step forward where measurements of very small levels of TCDD are critical.

(b) Fate in Plants and Soil

Studies on the behavior of TCDD in the environment have in the last 3-4 years been a major research effort of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Pesticide Degradation Laboratory, Beltsville, Maryland), partly in cooperation with other laboratories. They have been summarized by Kearney *et al.* (1973). The principal results are the following:

(1) TCDD in alcoholic solution was rapidly decomposed by light but in aqueous suspension and on soil or bare surfaces such a photodegradation was negligible.

- (2) Approximately half of TCDD persisted in two moist soils after one year under laboratory conditions, regardless of the amount applied (1, 10 and 100 ppm) and the soil type.
- (3) Downward movement of TCDD did not occur in a wide range of soil types, including sandy soils which are generally prone to leaching.
- (4) In a sandy soil to which 2,4,5-T had been applied at high rates (942 lb/acre in 1962-64, or 584 lb/acre in 1964-66, or 183 lb/acre in 1968-69) no TCDD was found when the soil was sampled and analyzed in December 1970. The samples consisted of 36 in. (about 90 cm) cores subdivided into 6 in. (15 cm) increments; the detection limit was between 0.001 and 0.004 ppm. Assuming that all TCDD remained in the uppermost 6 in. of the soil--quite reasonable in view of the lack of downward movement just mentioned--the failure to find TCDD would mean that the 2,4,5-T used contained less than 2 ppm of TCDD, or else that the TCDD had been at least partially broken down in the soil (see Woolson et al., 1973).
- (5) TCDD was taken up and transported into the tops of young oat and soybean plants grown for two weeks on a nutrient solution with 0.16 ppm TCDD. The maximal concentration observed in the plants was 1.5 ppm on a dry weight basis; this corresponds to less than 0.15 ppm of wet weight. In most cases, the concentration was less and decreased further with time. Uptake and transport into the tops was also observed in plants grown on a sandy loam containing 0.06 ppm TCDD. The maximal concentration found in oats was 0.132 ppm dry weight or less than 0.013 ppm wet weight; in soybean, it was 0.057 and less than 0.006 ppm, respectively. As the plants grew to maturity, the TCDD level decreased, and no TCDD could be detected (limit, <0.01 ppm) in either the vegetative parts or the seeds of oat, while only 0.005 and 0.004 ppm (dry weight basis), respectively, could be found in soybeans. The total amount in soybean seeds was only 5 to less than 2 percent of that in the vegetative tissue. The results thus indicate that the uptake of TCDD was sluggish and decreased with time, and that there was no accumulation (that is, no uptake above the external concentration) and little redistribution from older to younger parts of the plant (Isensee and Jones, 1971).
- (6) When applied to the foliage, TCDD was not translocated from the point of application to other parts of oat and soybean plants. Despite the very low water solubility over 50 percent of the applied amounts could be washed off with water 2 hours after application, and the authors believe that some volatilization may also have occurred, particularly in the case of oats (Isensee and Jones, 1971).
- (7) Analyses of 19 carcasses of bald eagles, representative of the top of the food chain, yielded no detectable (<0.05 ppm) dioxin (Woolson et al., 1973).

Model experiments on the environmental behavior of TCDD, using "closed ecosystems" in aquaria, were conducted by Matsumura and Benezet (1973). Their findings indicate that bioconcentration of TCDD in the food chain was less than that of DDT, probably because of its very low water solubility and relatively low fat solubility. The most efficient "concentrators" among the organisms tested were mosquito larvae. In agreement with other authors (see above), movement in soil or between different soils (from sand to organic soil) was found to be very limited. On the other hand, few microorganisms were found that would degrade TCDD. The efficiency of degradation was low and could not be increased by various manipulations of the cultural conditions.

(c) Formation of TCDD from 2,4,5-T in the Environment

Concern has been voiced that TCDD may be formed from 2,4,5-T and 2,4,5-trichlorophenol under conditions that may be encountered in nature or created by human activity, e.g., under the influence of radiation or by burning of materials containing 2,4,5-T. Irradiation with sunlight or "simulated sunlight" (ultraviolet light known to have the same photochemical effects as sunlight) did not result in formation of TCDD from 2,4,5-T (Kearney et al., 1973; Crosby et al., 1973, Plimmer, 1973). In contrast, heating of the sodium salt of 2,4,5-T to 300-350°C (572-662°F) in an open tube for 30 minutes to 12 hours resulted in the formation of 1000 to 3000 ppm of TCDD (Baughman and Meselson, personal communication). In this connection it is, however, important to realize that TCDD formation is a so-called bimolecular reaction in which the relative yield decreases with decreasing concentration of the parent substance(s). Thus, TCDD yields should be much less if plant material containing 2,4,5-T is heated than in laboratory experiments with concentrated 2,4,5-T or its derivatives.

The sole report on formation of TCDD from 2,4,5-T treated plant material is by Buu-Hoi et al. (1971). Unfortunately, no details on the amount or kind of plant material, its content of 2,4,5-T, or conditions and duration of heat treatment are given; it is merely stated that TCDD was produced when "material from vegetation pretreated with 2,4,5-T" was subjected to "more or less extensive combustion." A review of the identification procedure of Buu-Hoi and coworkers by Langer et al. (1973) indicated strongly, however, that the product measured in these experiments was not TCDD.^a

^a Buu-Hoi et al. (1971) also reported formation of as much as 50,000 ppm (5 percent) of TCDD from heating 2,4,5-T to 500-600°C (900-1100°F), and even of 150,000 ppm (15 percent) by similar treatment of the sodium salt of 2,4,5-T. These yields are vastly larger than those of Baughman and Meselson, and the work is in need of confirmation.

(d) Other Potential Sources of TCDD, and Other Chlorodioxins

As pointed out, TCDD arises as a byproduct in the manufacture of 2,4,5-trichlorophenol. While the use of this trichlorophenol in 2,4,5-T production is a major one the compound is also utilized for other purposes, such as for slime control and as a defoaming agent in paper and cardboard manufacture. Of six samples of commercial 2,4,5-trichlorophenol, three were found to contain between 0.07 and 6.2 ppm of TCDD (Firestone et al., 1972). With the trichlorophenol, TCDD may get into the various products and thence into the environment. On the other hand, formation of TCDD from trichlorophenol under the action of sunlight, simulated sunlight, or by microbial condensation in soil has not been observed (Kearney et al., 1973; Plimmer et al., 1973; Crosby et al., 1973).

As also pointed out earlier, TCDD is the most toxic among the chlorodioxins studied, but is not the only one. Hexachlorodioxin and probably some tri- and heptachlorodioxins are also highly toxic substances. Hexachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin at daily doses of 0.01 mg/kg caused reduction in the rate of body weight increase in pregnant rats and their fetuses and a ten times higher dose caused abnormalities in some fetuses; it also induced edema in chickens at 0.01 mg/kg per day (Schwetz et al., 1973). These doses are roughly 10 to 30 times higher than TCDD doses causing similar effects. In contrast, 2,7-dichloro-, 1,3,6,8-tetrachloro- and octachlorodioxin had very low toxicity, and no demonstrable teratogenicity at the highest doses tested. The LD₅₀'s were over 100,000 times higher than those for TCDD, and no teratogenicity was found at 100 mg/kg/day.

The higher chlorodioxins (6, 7, and 8 chlorine atoms) may be expected to arise in the production of pentachlorophenol. Pentachlorophenol is produced in the U.S. by chlorination of phenol at nearly atmospheric pressure, without alkalinity, and at temperatures of about 200°C (350°F). However, the production of sodium pentachlorophenate involves the same conditions (high temperature, pressure, alkalinity) as that of trichlorophenol. Hexachlorodioxin has indeed been found in almost all samples of commercial pentachlorophenol tested, along with hepta- and octodioxins, the latter two at levels of up to 1000 ppm (Firestone et al., 1972; Plimmer, 1973). Formation of hexa- and heptachlorodioxin has been observed when chips of pentachlorophenol treated plywood were burned (Crosby et al., 1973), and hexa- and octo-chlorodioxin were formed from pentachlorophenol under the influence of ultraviolet light (Crosby and Wong, in preparation). TCDD has to date not been found in pentachlorophenol (Woolson et al., 1972; Firestone et al., 1972) although the latter may also contain small amounts of trichlorophenol.

Pentachlorophenol is extensively used, for the same purposes as trichlorophenol but also as a wood preservative, for the preservation of hides, starches and glues, in paper designed for contact with aqueous and fatty foods, as antioxidant in rubber articles used in producing, processing

or holding food, and in manufacture of certain plastics used in the food industry. Production in the U.S. in 1967 was 44,000,000 lb. and in 1970, 47,000,000 lb., most of the use being as wood preservative. In comparison, production of 2,4,5-trichlorophenol (including salts) in 1967 was 25,000,000 lb. (no data for 1970), and of 2,4,5-T including salts and esters in 1967, 42,000,000 lb. and in 1970, 12,300,000 lb. (U.S. Tariff Commission, 1967 and 1970). Thus, the likelihood that hexachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin enters the environment from pentachlorophenol is real unless production methods are used which reduce the contamination of these substances to acceptable levels. One U.S. manufacturer now produces a pentachlorophenol with not more than 30 ppm octochlorodioxin, not more than 1 ppm hexachlorodioxin, and no TCDD at the detection limit of 0.05 ppm. The content of TCDD in 2,4,5-T presently manufactured in the U.S. does not exceed 0.05 ppm.

(e) Effects and Fate in Animals, Including Man

LD₅₀ values that have been reported for TCDD are summarized in Table II C-7. The data for dogs (beagles) are based on only two animals per dose level and are thus preliminary.

In longer-term feeding studies, Harris et al. (1973) found that six weekly doses of 0.005 mg/kg TCDD caused decreased weight gain in rats, and so did 30 daily doses of 0.001 mg/kg, while 6 x 0.001 mg/kg and 30 x 0.0001 mg/kg had no such effect (but the latter still caused a decrease in thymus weight); Norback and Allen (1973) reported that 0.001 mg/kg per day caused 50 percent mortality in rats in 21 days. In guinea pigs, eight weekly doses of 0.002 mg/kg reduced the rate of weight gain, but eight weekly doses of 0.00004 mg/kg did not; in mice, the respective levels were 0.025 mg/kg and 0.005 mg/kg (Harris et al., 1973). In chickens, daily feedings with 0.001 mg/kg TCDD caused edema while 0.0001 mg/kg did not (Schwetz et al., 1973). Macaca mulatta monkeys which were fed "toxic fat," i.e., crude industrial fat containing the chick edema factor, survived 100 days of such feeding at a level that caused 50 percent mortality in chickens, but died when fed with higher levels, the survival time being inversely related to the level of "toxic fat" in the diet (Allen and Carstens, 1967; Norback and Allen, 1973). However, the chemical nature of the toxic material in the "toxic fat" was not identified so that it is not entirely certain that it was TCDD.

The warm-blooded animals so far tested exhibit a wide range of sensitivity to TCDD. Guinea pigs and chickens are most sensitive; mice, rabbits, and dogs least sensitive; rats and (if the "toxic fat" factor was TCDD) Macaca monkeys occupy an intermediate position.

Toxicity of TCDD in aquatic organisms was studied by Miller et al. (1973). Young coho salmon, kept in containers with static water and exposed for 24, 48 or 96 hours to 0.000056 ppm TCDD in the water had died by the end of 40 days. Exposure to one tenth, one hundredth, and one thousandth that level for 24 hours or longer caused 55, 12, and

Table II C-7

LD₅₀ values for single doses of TCDD

<u>Animal</u>	<u>Sex</u>	<u>Application</u>	<u>LD₅₀, mg/kg</u>	<u>Reference</u>
Rats	Male	Oral	0.022	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Female	Oral	0.045	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Mixed	Oral Intubation	0.100	Harris <u>et al.</u> , 1973
Mice	Mixed	Oral	a	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Mixed	Oral Intubation	Between 0.100 and 0.200	Harris <u>et al.</u> , 1973
Guinea pigs	Male		0.0006 ^b	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Male		0.0021 ^b	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Female	Oral Intubation	Between 0.001 and 0.003	Harris <u>et al.</u> , 1973
Rabbits	Mixed	Oral Intubation	0.115	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
		Skin	0.275	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
		Intraperitoneal	c	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
Dogs (beagles)	Male	Oral Intubation	Between 0.3 and 3	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973
	Female	Oral Intubation	Over 0.100	Schwetz <u>et al.</u> , 1973

^a Sporadic deaths with 0.001 to 0.130 mg/kg, without definite dose-response relationship.

^b In the first study, the animals were given various volumes of vehicle (corn oil-acetone) containing a fixed concentration of TCDD; in the second, they were given a fixed volume of the vehicle containing different TCDD concentrations.

^c Two to 3 out of 5 animals dying after 0.063 to 0.500 mg/kg.

12 percent mortality, respectively, during the same period. The duration of exposure was less important than the TCDD concentration, and smaller fish were more sensitive than larger ones. The latter was also observed in guppies. When rainbow trout were kept in 5-gallon aquaria with flowing water and TCDD was mixed with the food, 0.0000063 mg per 18 liters (4.75 gallons) of water per week for 4 weeks caused no effect, but a one thousand times greater rate resulted in weight loss and mortality. TCDD at 0.0002 ppm in the water had no effect on pupation of mosquito larvae but reduced reproduction in a pulmonate snail.

All considered, however, there is no doubt that TCDD is a very toxic material indeed. On the toxicity scale in Table II C-6 it would undoubtedly fall under the highest rating (#6). The toxic effect of TCDD in all organisms so far tested is characteristically slow. At LD_{50} , the time to death in male rats was 9 to 27 days, female rats 13 to 43 days, guinea pigs (male and female) between 5 and 42 days, rabbits (male and female) 6 and 39 days, dogs (male) 9 and 15 days (Schwetz et al., 1973). Death in salmon and trout also set in many days after the beginning of treatment (Miller et al., 1973).

The clinical signs of TCDD poisoning are quite diverse. Edema in the chicken has been mentioned before. Other effects include necrotic changes of the liver; gastric hyperplasia and ulceration; hemorrhages in the gastrointestinal tract and various other organs; atrophy of the kidneys; and atrophy of the thymus and other lymphoid organs and tissues. The latter changes appear to be the most commonly observed ones and may lead to reduced immunoresponses and thus a decrease in the animal's chemical defense mechanism. But whether any of the above changes are related to the primary toxic action of TCDD is not clear.

The most extensive study on tissue distribution and excretion of TCDD in an animal to date is that of Piper et al. (1973) in rats. The animals were fed a single oral dose of 0.050 mg/kg of TCDD labelled with radioactive carbon (^{14}C). The time for disappearance of half of the ^{14}C from the body ("half-life") was calculated to be 17.4 ± 5.6 days. By day 21, 53.2 percent had been eliminated from the body via the feces, 13.2 percent in urine, and 3.2 percent in expired air. The concentration (as ^{14}C activity) was about ten times greater in the liver and fat than in any other tissue or organ (muscle, bone, skin, heart, lungs, stomach, etc.), but the clearance from those two tissues was relatively faster than from the whole body. The data suggest that TCDD can be retained in the body for periods sufficient to cause subsequent toxicity symptoms and death, and is accumulated in liver and fat. It must, however, be borne in mind that the administered single dose was twice the LD_{50} dose and the physical condition of the animals became quite poor during the experiment. Thus, any conclusions must be tentative.

(5) Teratology

In 1969 it was announced that the isopropyl, butyl, and isooctyl esters of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T were teratogenic in mice and rats (Mrak,

1969). This raised questions about whether these compounds might also be teratogenic in man. These queries were augmented by the discovery that commercial preparations of 2,4,5-T contained a highly toxic byproduct, TCDD (see preceding section) which itself was teratogenic at very low doses in experimental animals. For this reason we have considered the question of teratogenicity of herbicides separately from other expressions of toxicity.

Before consideration of the possible effects in man, we will briefly discuss the significance of the animal findings.

(a) Some Principles of Teratogenicity

Prenatal development is divided into the embryonic stage (early) when the organs are forming, and the fetal stage (later) when the organism is maturing during gestation. However, the division is not clear-cut and the prenatal organism will be referred to in this discussion as an embryo even if it is technically known as a fetus.

An agent or chemical is considered as teratogenic when it causes developmental disturbances in the embryo resulting in congenital malformations. If an agent kills the embryo it is said to be embryocidal, and if it produces tissue damage (not necessarily resulting in malformation) it is embryopathic. The term embryotoxic will refer to any harmful effect on the embryo.

The harmful effects of biochemically active compounds vary with the dose of the compound, the route by which it is given, the gestational stage at which the embryo is exposed, and the genetic constitution of the exposed mother and embryo (for further discussion, see Fraser, 1964).

In general, the embryo is more sensitive than the mother, and teratogenic doses are likely to be lower than embryopathic doses which, in turn, are lower than embryocidal doses. However, there is a good deal of overlap, and much variation in this respect between different compounds. For instance, thalidomide is teratogenic in pregnant women at low doses but is not toxic to the mother at very high doses. For many other agents a teratogenic dose also increases the resorption (embryonic mortality) rate, but this is not always so. Still other agents may not be teratogenic even at doses that kill many of the embryos, at least in some species. Finally, the teratogenic effect may vary with the route of administration. Vitamin A, for instance, may be teratogenic when given orally, but is not when given intramuscularly. In general, acute doses are more teratogenic than chronic exposures, possibly because repeated exposure allows the formation (induction) of enzymes which degrade the potentially teratogenic compound.

It is important to recognize that species differ widely in their susceptibility to teratogens. An outstanding example is thalidomide

which is highly teratogenic in man and the New Zealand grey rabbit, but has only a very low level of teratogenicity in the mouse and rat. Cortisone causes cleft palate in the mouse and the rabbit, but not in the rat. We still do not know if it is teratogenic in man. Thus, one cannot extrapolate with any assurance from one species to another, or even one strain to another, and one cannot rigorously prove an agent is teratogenic in man from data on experimental animals--only from data on human beings.

It must be emphasized that a great many agents are teratogenic in experimental animals, particularly rodents. Many drugs have demonstrated teratogenicity: various antibiotics, amphetamines, anti-histamines, anticonvulsants, barbiturates, caffeine, clomiphene, cyclizine, LSD, thalidomide, tolbutamide, and various tranquilizers. Metals (cadmium, calcium, lead, mercury), hormones (ACTH, adrenalin, androgenic hormones, antioviulatory compounds, estrogens, glucosteroids, insulin, serotonin), vitamin A, and several other kinds of chemical, physiological, and environmental agents (maternal dehydration, maternal stress, carbon monoxide, noise, and hypoxia) have also been shown to be teratogenic in laboratory animals. For several of these there is good evidence of low or no teratogenicity in man (e.g., cyclizine), but for most of them the possibility of low levels of teratogenicity has not been ruled out, and it would be very difficult to do so. Only five have been clearly implicated as human teratogens (diphenylhydantoin, androgenic progestins, organic mercury, radiation, and thalidomide). Experimental 2,4,5-T teratogenicity in rodents must be viewed in this context.

(b) Experimental Work on Teratogenicity of 2,4,5-T, 2,4-D and Picloram

It is clear today that some early results on teratogenicity were due to the presence of 2,4,5-T samples containing TCDD (see next section). However, preparations of 2,4,5-T containing TCDD below the detection limit of 0.05 and 0.02 ppm caused malformations in several experiments with mice (Courtney and Moore, 1971; Roll, 1971; Neubert and Dillmann, 1972). The main abnormality was cleft palate. Courtney and Moore (1971) also observed kidney anomalies, at least in some strains and with some of the 2,4,5-T samples used. The frequency of cleft palate in the offspring of mice treated on day 6 through 15 of pregnancy increased significantly beginning with daily doses of 30 to 100 mg/kg. A butyl ester of 2,4,5-T had a similar effect as the free acid. Neubert and Dillmann (1972) obtained a significant increase also with a single dose of 150 to 300 mg/kg of 2,4,5-T when given on day 12 or 13. Fetal weight was at least in some strains and with some preparations reduced by lower doses than those needed to increase cleft palate but embryo mortality was found only with the latter doses or higher ones.

In other animals, the results on teratogenicity of 2,4,5-T are a good deal less clear-cut. Collins and Williams (1971) treated Golden Syrian hamsters (on day 6 through 10 of pregnancy) with 2,4,5-T preparations varying in TCDD content. They found, in general, an increase

in the frequency of abnormalities in the fetuses with increasing TCDD content; this aspect of their work will be discussed later. Out of four 2,4,5-T samples with less than 0.5 ppm TCDD, two caused a statistically significant increase of fetal malformations at 100 mg/kg/day (the highest doses used); the other two did not. A majority of the cases consisted of delayed head ossification which need not result in permanent malformation. Embryo mortality was increased by all four preparations, and where tested, already at doses of 40 or 80 mg/kg. In the rat, Courtney and Moore (1971) and Khera and McKinley (1972), working with several samples of 2,4,5-T and the latter with the butyl ester, found that doses of at least 80 to 100 mg/kg/day on days 6 to 15 of pregnancy caused an increase of frequency of abnormalities also found in the controls or a low frequency of malformations not observed in the latter. Neither cleft palate nor visceral anomalies were observed. The effective doses are quite high; 150 mg/kg/day and above resulted in maternal toxicity while fetal mortality was increased by 100 mg/kg and above. The development of the surviving offspring including behavior was however normal, that is, was not affected by the embryonic defects. Courtney and Moore (1971) concluded that 2,4,5-T was not teratogenic at least in the strain of rats they used. Williams (unpublished) found fetal abnormalities after a single dose of 200 to 400 mg/kg of 2,4,5-T administered on day 9 of pregnancy. Emerson et al. (1971) and Sparschu et al. (1971b) found no malformations in the rat after treatment with 2,4,5-T. These differences probably represent differences in strain susceptibility.

No teratogenicity was produced in rabbits by doses of up to 40 mg/kg/day of 2,4,5-T on days 6 through 18 of pregnancy (Emerson et al., 1971) or 100 mg/kg/day in sheep (Johnson, 1971). In rhesus monkeys, up to 40 mg/kg three times a week between days 20 and 48 also caused no teratogenic effects (Dougherty et al., 1973).

Much less work has been done on the teratogenicity of 2,4-D. One study (Bionetics Study, see Mrak Report, 1969) suggested that the butyl, isopropyl and iso-octyl esters of 2,4-D may be teratogens of low potency. Schwetz et al. (1971), feeding the free acid, the propylene, glycol butyl ether ester and the iso-octyl ester at levels up to 87.5 mg/kg/day--the maximum tolerated level--on day 6-15 of pregnancy, found symptoms of embryotoxicity (edema, delayed ossification, etc.) but no genuine teratological effects in rats even at the highest dose. The highest levels of the esters decreased viability and lactation in the mothers but had no effect on the growth and development of the offspring. Khera and McKinley (1972), working also with rats and using four samples of 2,4-D and one each of the butyl, iso-octyl, butoxyethanol, and dimethylamine derivatives, found similar abnormalities as in their experiments with 2,4,5-T and derivatives, at the same dose levels (100 mg/kg and above). Collins and Williams (1971) found in the progeny of hamsters treated with three samples of 2,4-D some increase in malformations but there was no dose-effect relationship and the differences were not statistically significant.

Only one study on potential embryotoxicity of picloram is available (Thompson et al., 1972). There were no effects on reproduction indices in rats and no signs of embryotoxicity at doses of 500 mg/kg/day, and there were no teratological effects at 750 and 1000 mg/kg/day, levels causing some maternal deaths and retarded fetal development. No reports on teratological studies with cacodylic acid were found in our search of the literature.

(c) Embryotoxic Effects (Embryopathy, Teratogenicity) of TCDD

TCDD doses that cause relatively little or no effect in adult animals may be markedly toxic to the fetuses (embryos), resulting in reduced litter size due to resorption of fetuses, reduced weight of the fetuses, stillbirths, and pathological symptoms in the fetuses, particularly edema and hemorrhages. Such embryopathic effects have been observed in all species investigated (mainly mice, rats, hamsters). They show that fetuses are more sensitive than adults; this situation is common to many toxic materials.

Teratogenicity of TCDD has been clearly demonstrated in mice. A discussion, based on a review of literature and extensive new experiments, has recently been given by Neubert et al. (1973). The main results and conclusions are:

(1) TCDD causes terata in sensitive strains of mice at levels as low as 0.005 mg/kg when given as a single dose, or 0.001 to 0.002 mg/kg when given daily on days 6 to 15 of pregnancy. Using a suitable form and schedule of administration, teratogenic effects can be produced with great predictability. The main malformation was cleft palate; in addition, some kidney anomalies were observed. TCDD appears to be a highly specific teratogen in mice as no limb malformations were found, even though the treatment times included the period of limb formation in the embryo.

(2) As with other teratogens, the teratogenic effectiveness of TCDD is highly dependent on time of administration. In a particular mouse strain, it was greatest on day 11 of gestation. When administered on day 10 or 12, the effect of the same dose was only one-half of that on day 11.

(3) Also, as with many other teratogens, considerable variation in sensitivity towards teratogenesis by TCDD exists between different strains of an animal species. Among the four mouse strains studied, the most and least sensitive ones differed in this respect by a factor of about five.

(4) TCDD is also highly embryopathic in mice. However, again as with many other teratogens, it is possible to obtain a teratogenic effect at non-embryopathic doses. Thus, when TCDD was given to mice daily on days 6 to 15 of pregnancy, a 50 percent effect was caused (i.e., half the progeny exhibited the particular response) by the following doses:

kidney anomalies	0.001-0.003 mg/kg
cleft palate	0.006 mg/kg
death	0.007 mg/kg.

But when the treatment was limited to days 9 to 13 of pregnancy, cleft palate was obtained in high frequency without any apparent mortality of the fetuses. It should be noted that these doses are in the toxic range for non-pregnant adult rats fed weekly doses for 6 weeks (Schwetz et al., 1973; see above).

An interesting result of Neubert et al. (1973) in mice is that when combined with other teratogens or substances suspected of teratogenicity, including 2,4,5-T, at "threshold" or "sub-threshold" doses the incidence of terata may exceed the sum of that caused by each agent alone, that is, there can be potentiation. However, in the case of 2,4,5-T, Neubert et al. calculated that such a potentiation will occur only if the TCDD content of the herbicide exceeds about 3.3 ppm.

A finding that could have far-reaching importance has been recently reported by Moore et al. (1973). Mice were given a single dose of 0.001 mg/kg TCDD on day 10 of pregnancy; their pups were fostered either by mothers who had received the same TCDD treatment, or by untreated mothers. Conversely, pups from untreated mice were allowed to nurse either on untreated mothers, or on mothers which had received 0.001 mg/kg TCDD on day 10 of pregnancy. Pups from untreated mothers nursed by treated ones showed an increased frequency of kidney anomalies (hydronephrosis)^a. Increased hydronephrosis was also found among the pups of mice which were given one dose of 0.010, 0.003 or 0.001 mg/kg TCDD on the day of parturition. No significant differences in number of live fetuses, resorptions, and fetal and maternal weight were found in the cross-feeding experiments, as compared to the control (pups from untreated mothers nursed by untreated mice), and the authors conclude that the pups had been exposed to TCDD in the milk. The true test that a compound is present in milk is, of course, chemical identification, and it cannot be ruled out that, although the treated mothers did not exhibit weight losses, the quantity and/or quality of their milk was affected. Khera and Ruddick (1973) did not obtain similar results in rats. Pups from mothers treated with 0.001 mg/kg TCDD during days 6 to 15 of gestation, when transferred to non-treated mothers, exhibited high mortality (36 out of 42); pups from non-treated mothers nursed by treated ones did not (two out of 46).

Evidence for teratogenicity of TCDD in animals other than mice is more equivocal. Courtney et al. (1970) reported abnormalities in fetuses of rats which had been treated with 2,4,5-T during pregnancy. However, the 2,4,5-T sample used contained 30 ppm TCDD, and in a follow-up study Courtney and Moore (1971) found no teratogenesis in rats treated with 2,4,5-T containing 0.5 ppm TCDD, but did find some hemorrhages in the gastrointestinal tract and some kidney anomalies in fetuses of rats treated with 0.0005 mg/kg/day TCDD (the only dose used). Similar experiments were conducted by Sparschu et al. (1971a) and Khera and Ruddick

^a A dilation of the kidney due to blockage somewhere in the urinary tract.

(1973), using TCDD doses between 0.0003 and 0.002 mg/kg/day (with higher doses, there were no live fetuses). The incidence of hemorrhages and of subcutaneous edema in fetuses from treated mothers was found to increase with the TCDD dose; Sparschu et al. also found two cases of tail and limb malformations, one each in the 0.00125 and the 0.002 mg/kg/day group. Kidney abnormalities (reported only by Sparschu et al.) and delayed ossification occurred throughout the various groups, including the controls. Working with the Golden Syrian hamster and using 2,4,5-T samples with different TCDD contents, from 45 ppm to nondetectable (presumably, <0.05 ppm), Collins and Williams (1971) found in general an increase in abnormalities per live litter with increasing TCDD content. Most abnormalities were either hemorrhages, or related to fetal head development, namely, delayed ossification and absence of eyelid. Two cases of cleft palate were also observed, but not in the treatments with the highest dioxin levels.

Hemorrhages, edema and delayed ossification are generally considered as embryotoxic responses and not as terata unless it is proven that they result in persistent defects. In the above experiments with rats and hamsters, such proof was not supplied as the offspring were not observed after birth and to maturity. The incidence of unquestionable terata was small and showed no clear dose relationship. On the other hand, almost all treatments were carried out on day 6 through day 15 of pregnancy, and as Neubert et al. (1973) have shown in mice, a different schedule may reduce embryomortality and permit greater expression of teratogenicity (see above). Thus, more experimentation is needed, as is experimentation with animals like non-human primates and pigs which in terms of pathological responses permit somewhat better (although by no means unrestricted) comparisons with humans than do rodents.

(d) Concluding Remarks

An agent may be considered a potent teratogen if it has teratological levels far below the dose levels that are lethally toxic to the mother. By this criterion 2,4,5-T, 2,4-D and also TCDD what we considered as rather weak teratogens in experimental animals. In view of wide differences between species in teratogenic susceptibility, one cannot extrapolate teratological results from experimental animals to man. The best available, though not infallible, indicator of possible human susceptibility are non-human primates. Twelve rhesus (Macaca mulatta) monkeys were dosed three times each week in days 20 to 48 of gestation with 5, 10, 20, and 40 mg/kg of 2,4,5-T containing 0.5 ppm of TCDD. Of the four pregnancies for each of the three lower doses, fetuses developed normally. Two of the four pregnant females treated with the highest dose yielded normal fetuses and the other two had not been hysterotomized at the time of the report (Wilson, 1971). Pregnant rhesus monkeys which were given 2,4,5-T administered in gelatin capsules showed no teratogenic effects nor any gross developmental abnormalities. Monkeys in days 22 to 38 of pregnancy were fed at doses of 0.05, 1.0, and 10.0 mg/kg 2,4,5-T which contained less than 0.05 ppm of TCDD.

Detailed examination of the live infants and stillborn fetus, including skeletal x-ray studies, showed no gross developmental abnormalities in any of the groups (Dougherty *et al.*, 1973). In the latter study, the TCDD content of the 2,4,5-T used was less than 0.05 ppm. Further tests on non-human primates are needed to establish in what order of magnitude the embryopathic dose may be.

A so-called dominant lethal test in rats (Khera and Ruddick, 1973) provided no evidence that TCDD caused the kind of mutations (mostly, chromosome deficiencies) which are detected by this test.

There are reports that TCDD is a mitotic poison in certain plants (Jackson, 1972) and is mutagenic in bacteria (Hussain *et al.*, 1972). While this finding applies also to many other chemicals to which man is exposed, and its significance to higher organisms remains to be established, further studies are indicated to determine whether TCDD presents a genetic as well as teratogenic hazard to man.

(6) Summary and Conclusions

(a) Picloram

Picloram, a component of Agent White, is a selective herbicide highly active on many broad-leaved plants. In the form used in herbicide operations in SVN it has a low volatility, making damage by vapor unlikely, but has a high solubility in water and a high stability in soil which may result in problems of herbicide movement in surface and drainage waters.

The acute oral toxicity of picloram and its salts and esters is low for mammals, and chronic toxicity is low for mammals and a variety of other animals including birds, fish, and crustaceans. No toxicity studies in man are known. No teratogenicity was found in rats at 1000 mg/kg/day.

(b) Cacodylic Acid

Cacodylic acid, the active component in Agent Blue, is a non-selective herbicide killing a wide variety of herbaceous plants. It is a non-volatile, highly soluble organic arsenic compound which is broken down in soil, mostly to inorganic arsenate bound as insoluble compounds which also exist naturally in the soil.

Acute and chronic toxicity studies in a variety of animals indicate a low-to-medium toxicity rating. No teratological studies nor toxicity studies in man seem to have been reported.

(c) 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T

2,4-D and 2,4,5-T as the butyl esters, the active constituents of Agent Orange, are moderately volatile and highly insoluble in water; the

triisopropanolamine salt of 2,4-D, present in Agent White, is non-volatile and very soluble in water. Both 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T are stable at ambient temperatures. They are not very persistent within the plant being bound into non-toxic complexes or degraded. A highly toxic compound, TCDD, is found as a contaminant of 2,4,5-T but not of 2,4-D (nor picloram).

Persistence of 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T in the soil is limited, breakdown being largely by microorganisms. Adverse effects on soil microorganisms are found at concentrations of 100 ppm or more, about four times higher than would have been caused by one Agent Orange mission in SVN.

Extensive toxicological studies have shown 2,4,5-T and 2,4-D to be moderately toxic but are still inadequate to define the pharmacology or mechanisms of pathology. In acute exposures, the LD₅₀ ranges from 100 (pigs) to 2000 (chicks) mg/kg. Chronic doses are better tolerated and there is little cumulative action--e.g., 100 mg/kg/day for a year caused only minor deleterious effects in cattle, sheep, and chickens. A variety of more or less unsatisfactory observations suggest that these findings apply also to man (if effects caused by TCDD are excluded). Acute exposures such as drenching by sprays sometimes produced vomiting, headache, reduced sensory perception, and limb paralysis. Long-term occupational exposure did not produce any consistent signs of toxicity.

2,4,5-T is moderately teratogenic in mice; cleft palates were produced in the offspring of mice treated with 300-100 mg/kg/day through day 6-15 of pregnancy or a single dose of 150-300 mg/kg on day 12 or 13. Kidney anomalies occurred in some strains. Less clear-cut results were obtained in the hamster and in the rat. No malformations were produced by similar chronic treatments in some rat strains and in rabbits, sheep, and rhesus monkeys. The significance of these findings for man, if any, has not been established.

(d) TCDD (2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin)

TCDD, a contaminant of 2,4,5-T and thus of Agent Orange, is a very toxic material. Its teratogenicity in mice is well established, though in rhesus monkeys no teratological effects have been found so far. The toxicity to adults of different animal species varies within wide limits (over 1000-fold), and teratogenicity in mice also varies considerably between strains. The teratogenic dose can be lower than the embryo-lethal dose which, in turn, is somewhat lower than the adult toxic dose. Presence of TCDD in 2,4,5-trichlorophenol and 2,4,5-T was responsible for chloracne outbreaks and some other toxic effects in workers involved in the manufacture of those products.

The presence of TCDD in 2,4,5-T has caused great public concern and TCDD may indeed be the chlorodibenzodioxin that could pose the greatest environmental hazard. It is a stable and persistent compound, but it seems to be taken up by plants to only a very limited extent, and not to be transported from early to later formed parts. Because of this inability

for transport in plants, and because of its low solubility, relatively long persistence, and lack of vertical mobility in soils, TCDD more nearly resembles the chlorinated hydrocarbon insecticides in behavior than it does the more biodegradable phenoxy acid herbicides such as 2,4-D and 2,4,5-T, and even picloram. It can be concentrated by aquatic organisms in experimentally designed ecosystems, but to a lesser degree than DDT. Contamination of underground water supplies appears very unlikely.

2,4,5-T is probably the main source of TCDD in the environment. It should, however, be realized that at the present level of <0.05 ppm TCDD in the about 5,000,000 lb of 2,4,5-T presently manufactured annually in the U.S. the amount of TCDD thus produced is maximally about 4 oz. (110 g) per year which are spread over several millions of acres. 2,4,5-trichlorophenol should not be entirely disregarded as another potential source of TCDD. A closely related compound, hexachlorodibenzo-para-dioxin, toxic at levels about 10 to 30 times higher than TCDD, may be present in, or produced from a widely used chemical, pentachlorophenol. All herbicides used in the herbicide operations in SVN are toxic to animals, in varying degrees. Some of them have been found to cause death, tissue damage, or malformations in embryos of exposed pregnant female animals. TCDD is highly toxic and is teratogenic at least in mice. Although these entire findings cannot be extrapolated to man, the question of possible harm to human embryos is raised. Further intensive studies are especially required with reference to the ecological distribution, the pharmacology, mechanism of toxicity, possible mutagenicity, and carcinogenicity of TCDD and its possible teratogenicity in man.

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D. Earlier Studies of the Effects of
Herbicides in South Vietnam

There have been a number of published studies based on direct observation of effects of the military herbicide spray programs in SVN. Most of these reports have been prepared by U.S. military personnel, or under contract with DOD. Some were written by U.S. scientists from other Federal agencies or from private organizations, two by people from DRVN, and one was prepared by the Government of RVN. The major studies are listed in Table II D-1.

These reports served to lay out principal issues regarding military effectiveness or counter-productivity, persistent ecological damage or its absence, association of herbicide exposure with deleterious effects on human health, or the absence of such association. Some of these reports will be discussed later in the present study.

Table II D-1

Some Reports on Military Herbicide Operations
Based on Field Observations of Effects in SVN

DOD and DOD Contract Studies

- a. "Evaluation of Herbicide Operations in the Republic of Vietnam - September 1962-September 1963." MACV Task Force Saigon Herbicide Evaluation Team. October 1963
- b. "Evaluation of Herbicide Operations in the Republic of Vietnam." MACV. July 1966
- c. "Herbicide Operations in South East Asia - July 1961-June 1967." Contemporary Historical Evaluations of Combat Operations, Headquarters, Pacific Air Force. October 1967
- d. "A Statistical Analysis of the U.S. Crop Spraying Program in South Vietnam." Rand Corporation. October 1967
- e. "An Evaluation of Chemical Crop Destruction in Vietnam." Rand Corporation. October 1967
- f. "Assessment of Ecological Effects of Extensive or Repeated Use of Herbicides." Midwest Research Institute. December 1967
- g. "Crop Destruction Operations in the Republic of Vietnam During 1967." Commander-in-Chief, Pacific (CINCPAC). December 1967
- h. "Report." Herbicide Policy Review Committee, American Embassy Saigon and MACV. Classified version, May 1968; unclassified version, August 1968
- i. "Review of the Herbicide Program in South Vietnam." CINCPAC. August 1968
- j. "Congenital Malformations, Hydatidiform Moles and Stillbirths in the Republic of Vietnam 1960-1969." Cutting, Robert T., Tran Huu Phuoc, Joseph M. Ballo, Michael W. Benenson, and Charles H. Evans. U.S. Army Medical Research Team, Ministry of Health, Government of Vietnam, and Office of the Command Surgeon, MACV. U.S. Government Printing Office. December 1970

- k. "Herbicides and Military Operations." Office, Chief of Engineers, Department of the Army. February 1972

U.S. Department of Agriculture, at request of U.S. Embassy, Saigon

- l. "Defoliation in Vietnam." F. H. Tschirley. Science 163:779-786, 21 February 1969

Government of RVN

- m. "Defoliation with Chemicals." The Director of Water and Forests. Saigon, March 1971

Other

- n. "A Partial Evaluation of Herbicidal Effects to Natural Forest Stands Principally in Tay Ninh Province." B. R. Flamm, Forestry Advisor, USAID/ADDP Vietnam. April 1968
- o. "Ecological Effects of the War in Vietnam." G. H. Orians and E. W. Pfeiffer. Science 168:544-554, 1 May 1970
- p. "Effects of Herbicides and Defoliants on the Fauna and Flora of South Vietnam (Preliminary Survey)." Duong Hong Dat. Vietnamese Studies No. 29, 1971. Documents of the International Conference of Scientists on U.S. Chemical Warfare in Viet Nam, Paris, December 1970. Hanoi
- q. "Clinical Effects of Massive and Continuous Utilization of Defoliants on Civilians (Preliminary Survey)." Ton That Tung et al. (DRVN delegation). Vietnamese Studies No. 29, 1971. Documents of the International Conference of Scientists on U.S. Chemical Warfare in Viet Nam, Paris, December 1970. Hanoi
- r. "Preliminary Report." Herbicide Assessment Commission of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. M. S. Meselson; A. H. Westing; J. D. Constable; and R. E. Cook. Congressional Record 118(32):S3226-3233, March 3, 1972.
- s. "Forestry and the War in South Vietnam." A. H. Westing. J. Forestry 69:777-783, November 1971
- t. "Effects of War Damage on the Forest Resources of South Vietnam." B. R. Flamm and J. H. Craven. J. Forestry 69:784-789, November 1972

E. Brief Survey of South Vietnam(1) Geography, Climate

South Vietnam occupies 69,715 square miles (174,289 square kilometers) of the southeastern extremity of the mainland of South-east Asia, extending from 8°33' to 17° north latitude and from 104° to 109° east longitude. The country has four natural physiographic regions: (1) the southernmost area, the Mekong Delta of 14,918 mi² (37,296 km²), (2) the transitional area between the Mekong Delta and the Central Highlands, the Terrace Region of 12,350 mi² (30,876 km²), (3) the Central Highlands of 20,165 mi² (50,412 km²), and (4) the Coastal Lowlands of 22,282 mi² (55,705 km²). (Data from Viet Nam Statistical Yearbook, 1971.)

The Government of the RVN has established 44 provinces and 11 autonomous municipalities. During the U.S. involvement in SVN the country was divided into four major Military Regions (MR I in the north to MR IV in the south) plus the Capital Special Zone and the Rung Sat Special Zone, which occupy part of Gia-Dinh Province.

SVN has a tropical monsoon type climate with a distinct dry and wet season occurring each year. The wet season or the southwest monsoon extends from mid-May to late September and the dry season or northeast monsoon extends from early November to mid-March. For most of the country, the southwest monsoon is the wet season. However, the northeastern coast, which is in the rain shadow of the Truong Son mountain range, experiences a dry season during the southwest monsoon, while the wet season is brought by the northeast monsoon during the months of September through January.

As in most tropical countries, temperatures are high at all times of the year. The average annual temperature varies only a few degrees from north to south; in Hue, near the northern boundary, it is 77°F (25°C), in Saigon it is 80.4°F (26.9°C). The relative humidity is very high (80-90 percent) during the wet season, and much lower during the hot, dry season. Precipitation is relatively heavy in all regions but with definite monsoonal variations, averaging about 90 inches (2250 mm) along the southern coast, 70 inches (1750 mm) over the Mekong Delta, and 77 inches (1925 mm) at Saigon.

(2) Population

The South Vietnamese people numbered approximately 12,935,000 in 1958 and were estimated to have increased to 18,708,000 by 1971. The country as a whole, by Asian standards, is not densely populated--about 260 persons per square mile, but because of the uneven distribution

of the inhabitants, local concentrations are high. Population Density Maps for June 1967 and 1971 are included in the Map Section.

Almost 80 percent of the people are ethnically Vietnamese. The Chinese represent the largest minority, with approximately 1.2 million, two-thirds of whom live in the Cholon area of Saigon. The Highlanders or Montagnards, numbering approximately 700,000 to 1,000,000 are composed of over 30 tribes of various cultures and languages and are spread over the entire Central Highlands and the Terrace Region. The Khmers (Cambodians) number about 400,000 and are located in the inner edge of the Mekong Delta; they occupied the entire Delta prior to the arrival of the Vietnamese. Smaller minority groups include the Chams (the former rulers of the Central Coast), and relatively recent immigrants: Indians, Pakistanis, Europeans, and Americans.

(3) Soils and Vegetation

The wide variations in climate and the greatly diversified geologic parent material in SVN have contributed to the development of many different groups of soil. Table II E-1 shows the Major Soil Associations and their relationship to land-use and vegetation cover as discussed by Moormann (1961).

The Alluvial soils which are found almost entirely in the Mekong Delta Region, are generally fertile, i.e. they contain organic matter and plant nutrients such as potassium, phosphorus, calcium, and magnesium in relatively high quantities and in a form readily accessible ("available") to plants. Exceptions are locations where high acidity and/or high aluminum content are unfavorable for plant growth, as in the Plain of Reeds in the northern part of the Delta. The other soils of SVN, which occur mainly in the hilly and mountainous parts of the country, are--with the exception of some Black Tropical soil--acidic and of low fertility; varying but relatively large parts of the available plant nutrients are tied up in the above-ground parts of the vegetation (see Section V B). A map of the Major Soil Associations (modified from Moormann, 1961) is included in the Map Section.

The vegetation of SVN is rich in species and diversified in types. This diversity is due to the great range of climate, topography, and soil, as well as to the widely varying types and intensity of human impacts. Almost everywhere human activities such as swidden agriculture^a, logging, and

^aThis form of agriculture also is known variously as slash-and-burn, primitive horticulture, field-forest rotation, shifting-field agriculture, and brand tillage, as well as by such local names as ray (the term used in most French and Vietnamese literature on the Highlands of Vietnam). The word swidden for "burned clearing" has been favored in a number of recent works, and it has the dual advantage of being a general designation not linked to any particular region, and that it can be used as a noun.

Table II E-1. Major Soil Association of South Vietnam, Land Use and Vegetation Cover
After F. R. Moormann (1961)

Soil Unit	Percentage of Soil Distribution in South Vietnam	Typical Location	Land Use and Vegetation Cover
1. <u>Red and Yellow Podzolic Soils</u> On acid rock, on old alluvium, on mountains.	43	Central highlands	Very little permanent field cultivation; some swidden cultivation. Dense Forests, Pine Forests, Savanna.
2. <u>Alluvial Soils</u> Undifferentiated, Saline, Acid, Very Acid, Brown	27.5	Mekong Delta	Intensive permanent field cultivation on inland plains; mangrove swamps; rice, coconuts, sugar cane, pineapples. Mangrove forest and <u>Melaleuca</u> woodlands.
3. <u>Latosols (Red Soils)</u> Reddish Brown, Red, Earthy Red, Shallow, Reddish Brown and Red, Reddish Brown and Compact Brown	12	Central highlands; basaltic plateaus; Xuan-Loc, Dalat, Pleiku	Some permanent field cultivation; little swidden cultivation, rubber, coffee, tea, fruit trees. Dense Forests, Secondary Forests, some Savanna.
4. <u>Gray Podzolic Soils</u>	9.5	Old terraces of Mekong River system; Pleiku-Darlac basaltic plateaus	Some swidden cultivation; rubber, manioc, peanuts. Dense Forest, Secondary Forests.
5. <u>Regurs and Latosols</u>	2	Cheo-Reo depression; Phu-Yen, Darlac, and Long Khanh Provinces	Some swidden cultivation; diverse crops, corn, dry rice, manioc, bananas, rubber. Dense Forest, Secondary Forests.
6. <u>Regosols</u>	2	Central coastal lowlands	Very little permanent field cultivation; some diverse crops, coconuts, manioc, peanuts. Sparse vegetation to dense brush.
7. <u>Sandy Podzolic Soils</u>	2	Binh-Tuy, Darlac and Pleiku Provinces	Very little swidden cultivation. Secondary Forests.
8. <u>Non-Calcic Brown Soils</u>	1	Coastal plains of Phan-Rang region	Little permanent field cultivation; some swidden cultivation, tobacco, cotton, rice. Savanna vegetation with dense brush.
9. <u>Podzolic Soils and Regurs</u> <u>Podzolic Soils and Alluvial Soils</u>	0.4	Cheo-Reo depression; coastal plains; central lowlands	Frequent swidden cultivation; rice; diverse food crops. Secondary Forests.
10. <u>Peat and Muck Soils</u>	0.6	Mekong Delta, U-Minh	Very little cultivation; some rice, vegetables and fruit. <u>Melaleuca</u> woodlands.

fuel gathering have left their mark on the plant cover, and little undisturbed vegetation can now be found. Bernard Rollet in 1956 prepared a 1:1,000,000 scale vegetation map of SVN based on 1952-53 aerial photographs and in 1962 a "note" (memorandum) on this map. Table II E-2 lists the major vegetation types and their extent in SVN as given in the Rollet "note." A map of the Major Vegetation Types of SVN, simplified from Rollet's map, is included in the Map Section^a.

Some 29,689,400 acres (120,200 km²) in SVN was classified as forests (Rollet, 1962). Part of the forest is of the dense forest type of Rollet. This forest type is characterized by a canopy through which the ground cannot be seen from above and is therefore called Closed forest. This forest is rich in broad-leaved evergreen and semi-evergreen trees, some of which produce valuable timbers. Of this forest type, 18 percent was classified as dense^b (relatively undisturbed) forests, when Rollet made his vegetation map. By now, this forest type has decreased further and remains mainly in the more remote parts of the Central Highlands. Elsewhere the dense forest has been replaced by secondary forests of various types which have been drastically affected by centuries of swidden agriculture and in more recent times by logging. Over extensive areas such treatment has led to the replacement of broad-leaved trees by dense thickets of bamboo.

Open forests resulting from burning and other forms of human interference, are found in the western Plateau area of the Central Highlands and in the lower Terrace Region. Pine forests occupy a small area, mainly on the high plateau near Dalat.

Mangrove forests, which are a characteristic feature in the tidal zone on most alluvial coasts and along the salt-water estuaries of streams and rivers in the tropics, form in SVN the vegetative cover on sediments in salt and brackish water. They are developed most extensively from Vung Tau City (southeast of Saigon) southward to the southernmost tip of the country and from there northward along the west coast to the Cambodian border. Particularly large tracts of mangrove are found in two locations: (1) Gia Dinh Province, southeast of Saigon, including the Rung Sat Special Zone and reaching into the southernmost part of Bien Hoa Province and the southwestern part of Phuoc Tuy Province; and (2) in

^aThe total area of SVN in Table II E-2 and that given in Section II E(1) differ. They have been taken from the respective sources without change. The reasons for the difference are not evident.

^bIn Southeast Asia, Rollet and others recognize that genuine primary forests have become quite rare and that most dense forests are in fact old secondary forests.

Table II E-2

<u>Vegetation Type</u>	<u>Rollet's Nomenclature</u>	<u>Approximate Area</u>		<u>Percentage of Total Land</u>
		<u>Acres (x 1000)</u>	<u>Square Kilometers</u>	
Closed Forest				
(a) Dense (1) ^b	Forêts denses	7,608	30,800	18.3
(b) Secondary (2)	Forêts secondaires	15,067	61,000	36.3
Open and Semi-Dense Forest	Forêts claires, Forêts semi-dense			
(a) Dipterocarp forests (4)		2,001	8,100	4.8
(b) Lagerstroemia and Leguminosae forests (5)		988	4,000	2.4
Pine Forests (8,9)	<u>Pinus merkusii</u> , <u>Pinus khasya</u>	445	1,800	1.1
Mangrove Forests (13)	Mangrove	716	2,900	1.7
<u>Melaleuca</u> woodlands (19)	<u>Melaleuca</u>	469	1,900	1.1
Savanna (6)	Savanes	1,976	8,000	4.8
Barrenlands, high degraded dry forests, sand dunes (7,14,18)	Végétation buissonnante, Forêts sèches du Sud-Est, Dunes	2,001	8,100	4.8
Grasslands and Steppes (10,11,12)	Steppes, pelouses, prairies d'altitude	569	2,300	1.3
Grass and sedge swamps, Plain of Reeds vegetation, rivers (16,17)	Prairies marécageuses, Végétation de la Plaine des Joncs, Fleuves	1,803	7,300	4.4
Cultivated land (15)	Cultures, Rizieres	7,855	31,800	19.0
(a) Rice (irrigated)				
(b) Tree plantations, rubber, coconut, etc.)				
<u>Totals</u>		<u>41,498</u>	<u>168,000</u>	<u>100</u>

^aThe areas reflect the situation in 1952-1953 when the aerial photographs were taken on which Rollet based his vegetation classification.

^bFigures in parenthesis refer to Rollet's vegetation types from his map of 1956. See Section III A.

the southernmost tip of the country, the Ca Mau Peninsula, An Xuyen Province. The total mangrove area is approximately 716,000 acres (2900 km²). On the land side of the mangroves, Melaleuca woodlands, with the small tree "Tram" (Melaleuca leucadendron) as the dominant species, cover areas on wet sandy and muck soils, mainly south of Rach Gia (U-Minh Forest), in small clusters inland on the Plain of Reeds, and on the Cam-Ranh Peninsula. Its total area is about 469,000 acres (1900 km²).

Savannas of grass and scattered trees, and treeless grasslands, occupy large areas formerly covered by forests, probably as a result of swidden operations and frequent fires. Savannas are found in the plateau area of the Central Highlands. Grasslands are found near the savannas on mountain summits.

Forests classified as Closed and Open form 63 percent of the land area of SVN. In this report, these forests are referred to as Inland Forests. Mangrove forests and Melaleuca woodlands account for about 3 percent of the land area of SVN. If Savannas are classified under Forests, as done by Rollet, the forests of all kinds account for about 71 percent of this area.

Barren lands of sand dunes and brush land are found on the sandy part of the coast from Vung Tau north to the Demarcation Line. Dense clumps of small, thorny deciduous trees and brush are often found back of the sand dunes. Grass and sedge swamps are characteristic of considerable areas of the Mekong Delta region, the latter particularly on the "Plain of Reeds."

Land under permanent cultivation including tree crops covers approximately 19 percent of the land area of SVN. Two-thirds of this area is located in the Mekong Delta, the remainder mostly in the coastal lowlands and in valleys scattered throughout the Central Highlands. Rice grown in irrigated fields is the most important crop; important tree crops are coconuts and rubber.

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III. INVENTORY OF HERBICIDE OPERATIONS AND THEIR RELATION TO VEGETATION

The Committee wanted to produce estimates of the total areas in SVN that had been sprayed with herbicides for military purposes, breaking them down by herbicide type, stated military objective, and dates and frequency of spray applications. This information was to be related to vegetation types, soil types, population distribution, and land-use patterns.

Thus, two series of questions had to be addressed. One of these related to the distribution of herbicides throughout SVN: where, how much, what kind of herbicides were sprayed, what area was covered and how much of it was covered once, twice, three times, etc.; what was the intended purpose? For this information we relied primarily on records and descriptions of herbicide operations. As far as possible accuracy and completeness of this information were checked by examining the internal consistency of the available records and by examining aerial photos for evidence that missions were carried out as recorded.

The second series of questions related to the characteristics of the sprayed areas before defoliation: what were the types of vegetation, population, land-use; what was their distribution in space and quantity in SVN before the herbicide operations? Some maps and aerial photographic information existed, but it was often not of the appropriate date nor of the appropriate scale to be of much use for the tasks outlined above. Ideally, we also wanted to know what changes were taking place in the relevant features of the environment and the human population simultaneously within but unrelated to the defoliation program. It was known, for example, that there were many acts of war, such as bombing, shelling, clearing of vegetation by so-called Rome plows (super-bulldozers); and that there were other acts of man indirectly related or unrelated to war, such as rapid urbanization and resettlement, continued cutting of lumber and firewood, and continued clearing of the forest for agriculture, which would also influence distribution of vegetation types, land-use, and population. Similar disturbances have been taking place for a long period of time. Where had such changes taken place, at what rates, and could herbicide-induced changes be distinguished from effects of other causes?

In this section, the materials and information available, the procedures for analysis, the results, and their limitations, are discussed. No work could be done on the relation of the herbicide operations to population distribution as the necessary material (HES tapes) were received from DOD too late.

A. Principal Material Used(1) Vegetation and Soils Maps

As a starting point for establishing the impact of herbicide sprays on different vegetation types use was made of 1:1,000,000 scale vegetation map prepared by Rollet (1956) on the basis of aerial photography, 1:40,000 scale, made in 1952-53 by the French National Geographic Institute. In 1962 Rollet prepared a "note" (memorandum) on this map in which he distinguishes twenty vegetation types as follows (transl. from the French):

1. Dense forest.
2. Secondary forest with swidden agriculture zones and bamboo forests.
3. Mixed dense and secondary forests.
4. Open dipterocarp forest.^a
5. Semi-dense Lagerstroemia and more or less open Leguminosae forests, including patches of pure stands of Lagerstroemia and of semi-dense forests.
6. Tree or shrub savannas on various soil types.
7. Very degraded, dry, spiny forests in the region of Phan-Thiet, Phan-Ri, Phan-Rang on white and red sands or old alluvium.
8. Stands of Pinus khasya (three-leaved pine).
9. Stands of Pinus merkusii (two-leaved pine).
10. Grass steppes or grasslands, Pleiku-Dalat.
11. Grass steppes or grasslands with sterile patches, on the Three-Frontier Highland.
12. Prairies (at higher altitudes).
13. Mangrove.
14. Dune vegetation on seashores.

^a The families Dipterocarpaceae and Leguminosae, and the genus Lagerstroemia are important elements of the forests of Southeast Asia.

15. Cultivated areas: rice fields, plantations, vegetable gardens.
16. Marshy prairies (in Terrace and Highland Regions).
17. Vegetation of the Plain of Reeds: marshy prairies, rice fields, abandoned rice fields, patches of stunted Melaleuca leucadendron.
18. Dwarf shrub formations: abandoned crop land with patches of Melaleuca leucadendron, frequent south of the Mekong; old rice fields.
19. Pure stands of Melaleuca leucadendron on peaty soils (U-Minh) or sandy soils along the seashore or behind the mangrove particularly in the Ha-Tien region.
20. Vegetation of lime soils.

Rollet's map is reproduced in the Map Section, but in a simplified form, combining certain of his types, as the reduction in scale would not permit clear appearance of all 20 types and their mixtures.

For soils, a map prepared by Moormann (1961) was used; a summary of the soil types with typical locations, land-use and vegetation cover is given in Table II E-1 and a simplified map reproduced in the Map Section.

(2) Aerial Photography

It was impossible to do intensive field work in affected forests; and even if it had been possible we would have hardly been able to cover all affected areas of the country in a comprehensive, quantitative manner. Thus, extensive use was made of aerial photography, but because of limitations of time and other resources, the Committee decided to confine aerial photographic study to a number of selected objectives: selected areas of one of the major inland forest areas in SVN, in the Terrace Region northwest to northeast of Saigon, as this area was of great commercial importance and had been exposed to heavy herbicide spraying (see Section IV); some selected areas in which crop destruction missions had been flown (Section III); and selected areas for the study of effects of herbicide operations on settlements and people (Section VII B and C). The main photography used for inventory work was:

1. 1958: black and white coverage, 1:50,000 scale, of the southern portion of the country, particularly the Terrace Region, from the World Wide Survey (WWS) Project 166.
2. 1968-69: partial coverage of inland forest areas in the Terrace Region of SVN flown by DOD for various purposes, black and white, 1:50,000 or less.

- 3a. 1972: color, black and white, and color infrared coverage, 1:5,000, of selected sample strips in the Terrace Region and Rung Sat Special Zone, made in the wet season (October).
- 3b. 1973: (repetition of 3a), together with 1:50,000 black and white photography of the same sample strips, made in the dry season (January-February).
- 3c. 1973: special 1:5,000 and 1:10,000 black and white and color photography of selected study areas, mainly such areas which showed effects of heavy herbicide exposure.
4. DOD photography of selected areas of the inland forests made between the dates shown above, to study sequentially changes occurring in these areas.
5. DOD photography in a number of study areas for studies of crop destruction missions and of effects of herbicide missions on different settlement types. The photography under 4) and 5) was in black and white and at scales ranging between about 1:50,000 and 1:4,000.

(3) Herbicide Mission Tapes

The main source of data for herbicide missions was the so-called HERBS tape and printouts of this tape obtained from MACV through DOD. The source for the data on the tape is a log book which was maintained at Headquarters, MACV, at Saigon. The data in the log book were transferred to punch cards, and the tape prepared from these cards. The data were on a mission-by-mission basis and were derived from reports and files in various Commands and offices in SVN and the U.S. which in turn went back to, or included the planning records and the mission commanders' reports which were prepared before and after each mission (Section II B).

The Committee's version of the HERBS tape includes date, project, or mission number, location (province and coordinates in the UTM^a system, type (Orange, White, Blue) and the quantity of herbicide, area covered, purpose of mission (defoliation, crop destruction, or other), and type of aircraft (fixed-wing or helicopter). One of the printouts shows also the number of aircraft per mission. The Committee's copy of the tape covers the period August 1965 (when the log book was started), through February 1971 and lists a total of 6542 missions. The HERBS tape is the source of all mission maps in this report and unless otherwise specified of all tabulations of herbicide operations. An additional printout covered the period March 1971 to October 1971 when, according to information from DOD, U.S. controlled herbicide operations ended.

^a Universal Transverse Mercator. This system identifies points by coordinates with two letters, representing a 100,000 by 100,000 meter quadrangle, followed by a four or six digit number, representing the distance in thousands or hundreds of meters from the lower left (southwest) corner of the quadrangle.

B. Procedures and Results of Herbicide Inventories of Operations and their Relation to Vegetation

(1) Herbicide Mission Maps

The herbicide mission records stored on the HERBS computer tape include, for each mission, the geographic location of the beginning and end of each mission and in some, but not all records, points of change in flight direction. Four missions had incomplete entries, and three of these lacked some essential information for use in mapping (no location, gallonage, area sprayed) and had to be excluded. The data for the remaining 6539 were fed to an automatic drafting machine which drew a line representing each mission on a map. The herbicide agent used was represented by the color of ink used in drawing the line. Separate maps were drawn for each year, and for missions classified as defoliation, crop destruction, and the other classes noted in Section II B (3).

Upon inspection of the maps it was obvious that some mission records were in error. A number of the plotted lines represented missions greater than 100 km long, while the capacity of the aircraft limited mission length to about 12 km. A few missions were represented as being over the ocean. The data on the HERBS tape referring to overly long missions, or those over water were individually inspected, and where the source of the error appeared obvious (for example a mistake in identification of the UTM quadrant identification) the record was corrected. From the original total of 6542 missions recorded on the HERBS tape, 880 (13.6 percent) were considered to be in error; of these 575 were corrected, while the errors in 305 could not be corrected and had to be omitted from the mapping of the HERBS tape data. Our correction procedure resulted in a figure for total number of missions that is about 4.6 percent lower, in a number of gallons that is about 3.5 percent lower, and a number of acres that is about 7.5 percent lower than in the uncorrected tape (see Table III B-1, compare UNC and COR figures).

After this screening and correction of the mission data, the final series of spray mission maps was drawn. A map for all herbicide defoliation missions on the HERBS tape, and a map for the herbicide crop destruction missions are located in the Map Section. The main limitation of these maps is that the plotted lines represent only the center line of each mission. Some missions were flown by one aircraft and the resulting swath would be 80 m (264 ft) wide, but many missions were by three aircraft and some by as many as six resulting in swaths of 240 m and 480 m in width, respectively. These differences in effective area of spraying are not represented by the maps. Special "impact frequency" maps, noted later, were made to show how many times any sprayed hectare had been sprayed due to repetition or overlapping of herbicide applications. The scale of the maps in the Map Section is far too small to label each individual mission, but this was also done on much larger maps for use in detail studies, and a number of such maps are shown in later sections of this report (e.g., Sections IV B, IV C, VII B [1], VII B [3]).

Table III B-1

Herbicides used for military purposes in SVN, as recorded on the uncorrected and corrected HERBS tape
(August 1965 through February 1971).
(The acreage is the sum acreage covered by all missions, regardless of whether sprayed once or repeatedly.)

Listed Mission Objective	UNC ^a COR	Agent Orange			Agent White			Agent Blue			TOTAL		
		No. Missions	Gallons	Acres	No. Missions	Gallons	Acres	No. Missions	Gallons	Acres	No. Missions	Gallons	Acres
Defoliation	UNC	3,047	10,060,952	3,273,095	1,354	5,000,215	1,650,910	160	441,325	141,131	4,561	15,502,492	5,065,136
	COR	2,962	9,788,802	3,103,693	1,324	4,894,215	1,580,439	157	430,525	138,287	4,443	15,113,542	4,822,419
Crop Destruction	UNC	477	968,285	336,714	56	56,060	18,406	325	596,814	289,105	858	1,621,159	644,225
	COR	427	881,570	265,201	45	51,150	16,149	240	493,623	176,386	712	1,426,343	457,736
Perimeter ^c	UNC	337	99,517	33,172	242	100,566	33,522	111	46,902	15,634	690	246,975	82,325
	COR	335	98,967	32,989	241	99,456	33,152	108	44,002	14,667	684	242,425	80,808
Cache Site ^c	UNC	111	49,525	16,508	79	50,313	16,771	17	3,640	1,213	207	103,478	34,492
	COR	101	43,080	14,360	76	47,133	15,704	17	3,640	1,213	194	93,853	31,284
Waterways ^c	UNC	60	33,310	11,103	24	14,970	4,990	8	5,025	1,675	92	53,305	17,768
	COR	51	25,405	8,468	23	13,980	4,660	7	4,575	1,525	81	43,960	14,653
Friendly Lines ^c of Communication	UNC	43	25,255	8,418	20	17,230	5,743	16	19,351	6,450	79	61,836	20,612
	COR	42	24,555	8,185	19	17,190	5,730	16	19,351	6,450	77	61,096	20,365
Enemy Lines ^c of Communication	UNC	33	21,885	7,295	11	7,158	2,386	3	11,250	3,750	47	40,293	13,431
	COR	32	21,635	7,211	10	4,820	1,607	3	11,250	3,750	45	37,705	12,568
Not Stated ^b	UNC	1	2,700	592	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2,700	592
	COR	1	2,700	592	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2,700	592
Total	UNC	4,109	11,261,429	3,686,305	1,786	5,246,502	1,732,728	640	1,124,307	458,958	6,539	17,632,238	5,878,581
	COR	3,951	10,886,714	3,440,107	1,738	5,127,944	1,657,441	548	1,006,966	342,278	6,237	17,021,624	5,440,425

^a UNC = Uncorrected tape, COR = corrected tape. See text (Section III B[1]) for these corrections.

^b For three more missions, agent type, gallonage and acreage were also missing. These missions are not included in the totals shown; the grand total in the table is therefore 6539 rather than the total of 6542 appearing on the HERBS tape.

^c Acreage calculated on the basis of 3 gal./acre application rate and on the known amount of herbicide use.

(2) Aerial Photography Interpretation

Only general notes on aerial photographs are given here; more extensive discussion is contained in the chapter on Quantitative Assessment of Herbicide Damage to the Inland Forest (IV B [3]).

Aerial photographs are among the most effective means of conducting extensive surveys of vegetation and other visible features on the land. Consequently, both civilian and military methods for obtaining and analyzing aerial photographs have been developed to make use of modern technology. Interpretation and measurements can be made with a high degree of accuracy.

In general terms, photographic coverage was studied for the area of MR III (Fig. III B-1) to determine for that area the condition of the mangrove and the inland forests before and after the period of herbicide spraying. In portions of the area detailed studies were made to discover the kind and degree of change in the vegetation from year to year throughout the period of spraying.

For the years 1958 and 1969 virtually complete coverage was available for MR III area. Individual points on photographs were matched and overlapped to produce a mosaic which is essentially a photographic map of an extensive area. Specimen photographs are given in Figs. III B-2 and B-3 to indicate what can be seen at scales of 1:50,000 and 1:5,000. In Figs. III B-4 through B-5 are examples of relatively dense forests of trees, and remnants of forest left after cutting and clearing for agriculture. Also shown are two general classes of forest, one of large trees forming a dense, even canopy (Fig. III B-4), the other composed of a scattering of large trees with many small trees and thickets covering the rest of the area (Fig. III B-5). The latter condition often results from selective harvesting of trees from what was originally a dense even-canopied forest. Areas of bamboo forest, also widely occurring, are illustrated in Fig. III B-6. Such differences are important in assessing the condition and value of a forest.

One important use of the photographs was to draw boundary lines around the many different types of vegetation over the land and to identify and measure the area of these (Fig. III B-7). Much of the photo coverage was made so that prints overlap in such a way that, when viewed through a stereoscope, the surface features can be seen in three dimensions--trees appear to stand up from the ground as one would see directly from an aircraft. By studying some areas in detail through the stereoscope an experienced photo interpreter can become familiar with the photographic appearance of the vegetation types and rapidly map extensive areas with only intermittent use of the stereoscope to maintain consistency and check difficult types. Ideally, of course, such maps should be verified by examination of the vegetation on the ground but this was not possible in our case because of the problems of safety which have already been mentioned (Section I B [3]).



Fig. III B-1. Military Regions of South Vietnam. The CORPS on the map have been changed to Military Regions (MR).

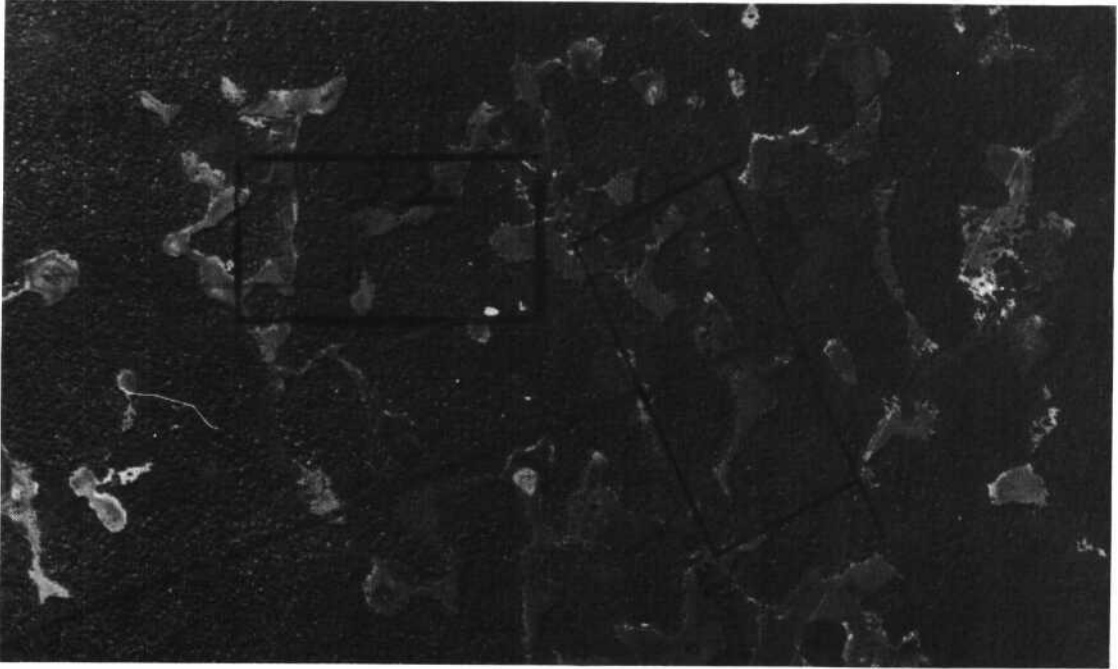


Fig. III B-2. Inland Forest at a scale of 1:50,000. 1958 photography (i.e., pre-spray). Part of the area of the right rectangle is seen below at a different scale fifteen years later.



Fig. III B-3. Inland Forest at a scale of 1:5,000. 1973 photograph flown for the Committee of an area that had been sprayed with herbicide.

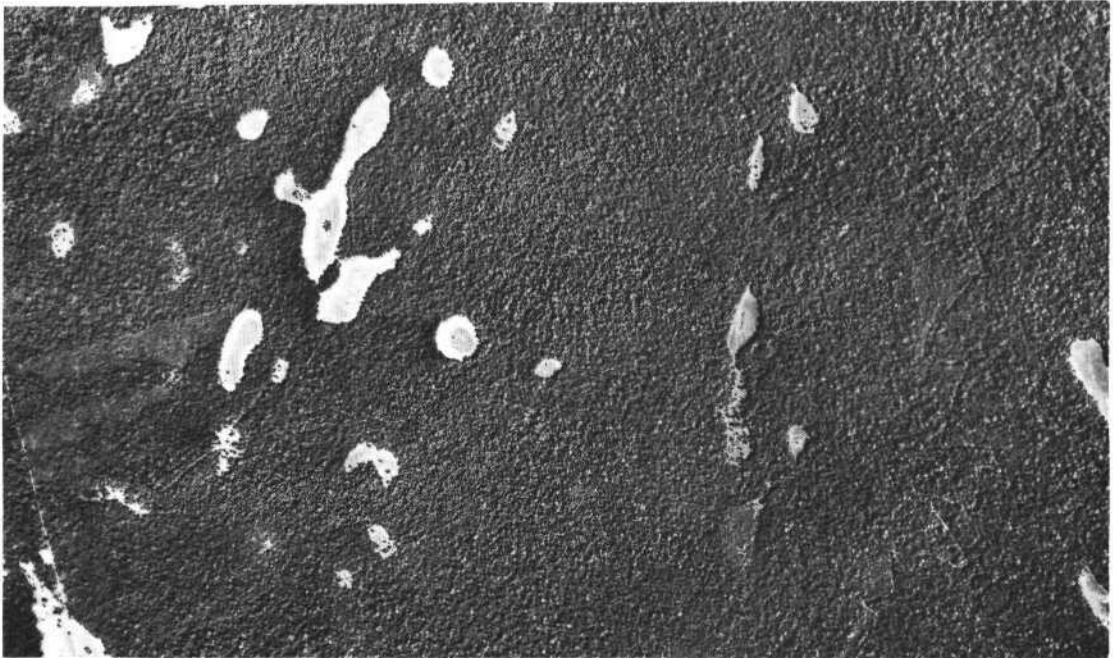


Fig. III B-4. Dense and relatively undisturbed secondary forest with swamp patches in the Terrace Region, North and Northwest of Saigon (XT quadrangle). 1958 photography (i.e., pre-spray), scale 1:50,000.

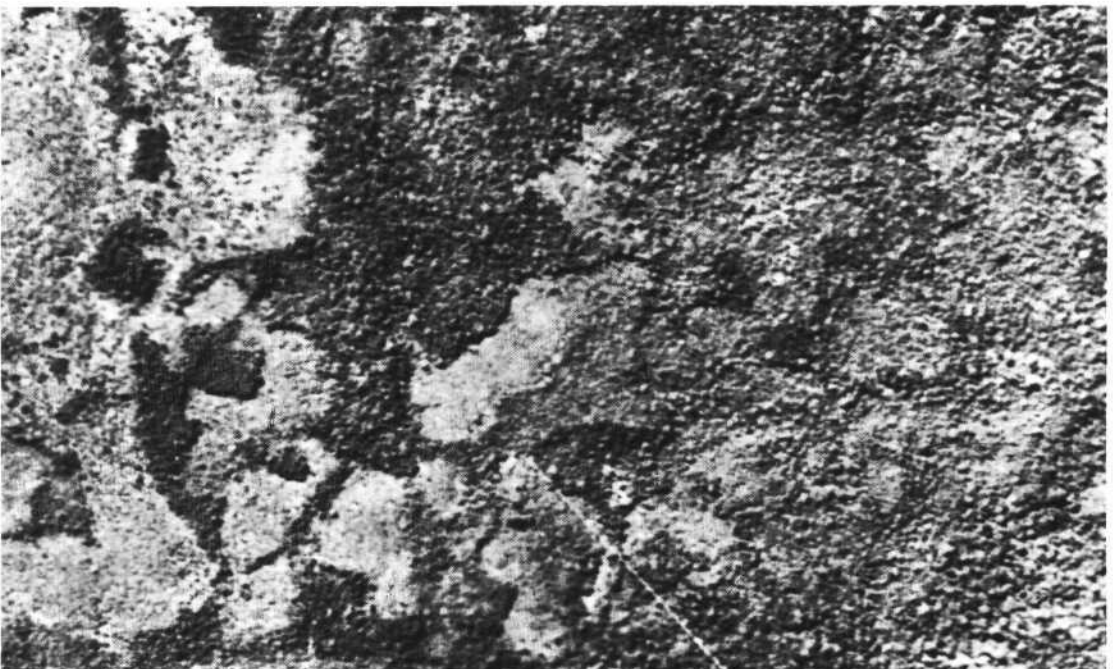


Fig. III B-5. Forest area in XT quadrant consisting of scattered large trees interspersed with many small trees, thickets, and patches of former agricultural land. Enlarged from 1958 photography.

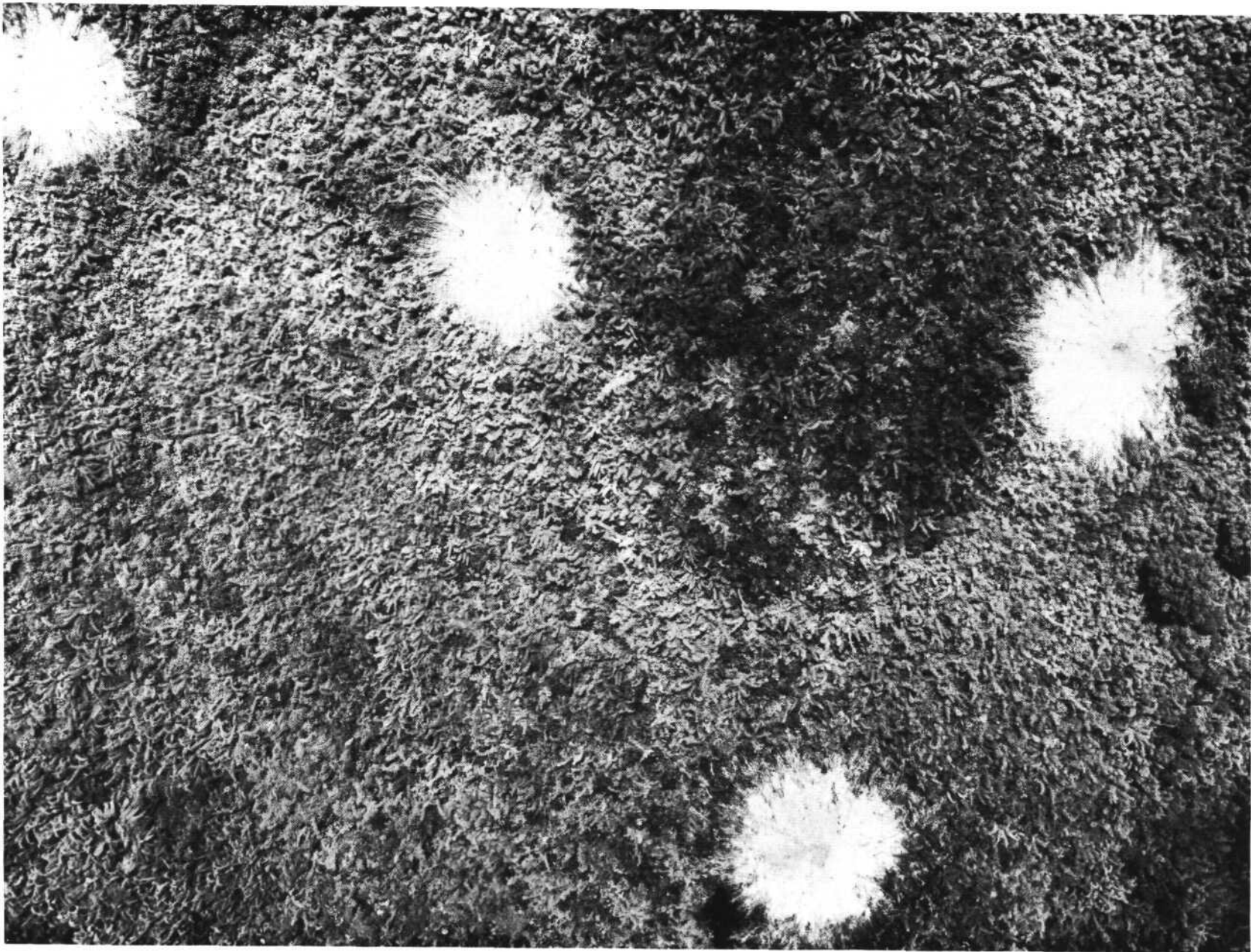


Fig. III B-6. Scattered Bamboo forests occur in the secondary forests north of Saigon. Note the large bomb craters and their effect on adjacent vegetation.

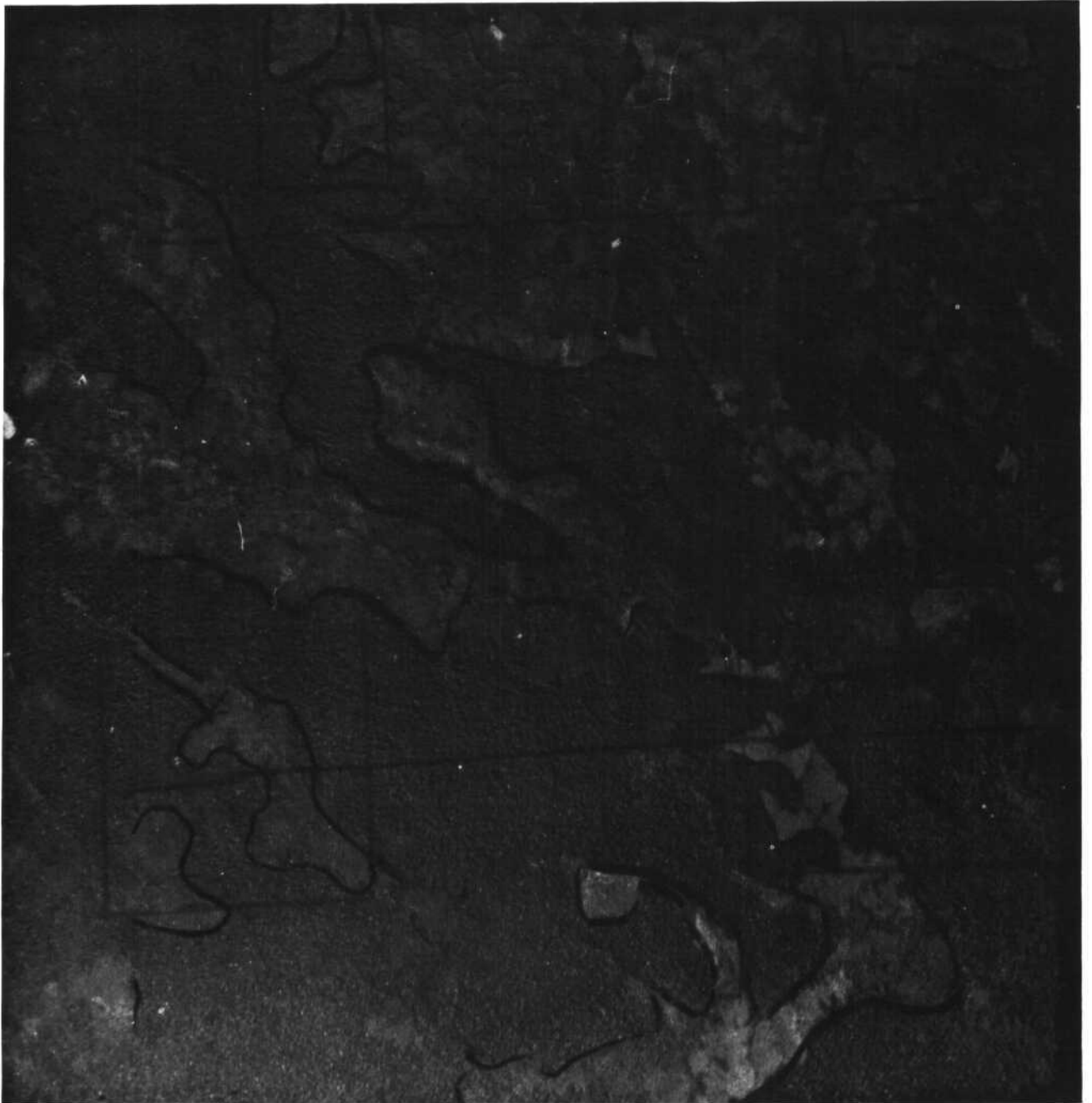


Fig. III B-7. Dense forest interspersed with areas of agricultural land and other disturbed areas. 1958 photography at a scale of 1:50,000. Outlines show delineation used for classifying different forest conditions as used in Section IV B.

In the mangrove, large areas of the tidal mud flats were covered by vegetation in 1958 photography. Where these mangrove forests were sprayed with herbicides, the result was a dramatic killing of the trees leaving a clearly defined rectangular swath of dead, brown trees and the exposed mud contrasting clearly with adjacent live mangrove (see Fig. III B-8). In the inland forest the effects generally were much less dramatic. In 1969 photos many spray swaths are visible as gray or white rectangular streaks; the light tone (on black and white photos) appears to fade with time due to refoilation and revegetation. Rarely are rectangular swaths of vegetation completely killed seen in the inland forest photographs. In the 1972-73 photographs (1:5,000 scale) dead trees are clearly visible, sometimes in solid clumps but more often scattered singly through forests of otherwise green trees.

While details are discussed at length in Section IV B (3), it must be noted that effects of herbicide are in many places difficult to assess because of the wide-spread and often heavily concentrated bombing as illustrated in Figs. III B-9 and B-10. Land clearing for both civilian and military purposes also changes the vegetation cover, and this had also to be considered.

Despite the effectiveness of aerial photo analysis, our studies have some important limitations. As it was impossible to go into the forest, it was not possible to check measurements and particularly to obtain information on what tree species were in the forests, how they were affected, and what recovery (seedlings and saplings) had occurred. The coverage was not uniform in quality or quantity; some areas had excellent and plentiful coverage but others did not, and it was thus not possible to obtain answers to the same degree about the effects in all parts of MR III. The degree of coverage is indicated by maps in Section IV B (3). Also, it was not feasible to study the entire area of SVN so that results of vegetation survey, herbicide effects, etc. had to be extrapolated from MR III photo studies to the whole of SVN.

(3) Vegetation Mapping

The vegetation map of Rollet (1956) was used in assessing, for the whole country, how much of each type of vegetation was sprayed by herbicide. For this purpose, the boundaries and identification of each segment of vegetation on the Rollet map was coded for processing by computer as described below (Data Bank).

The main limitation of the Rollet map for our objectives is that it was constructed as a general botanical map of broad vegetation zones at a scale of 1:1,000,000. In fairness to Dr. Rollet it must be said that in our study the map was extended far beyond its intended use. In this study it was particularly important to distinguish between



Fig. III B-8. Herbicide treated mangrove area in the Ca Mau Peninsula showing narrow strips of surviving vegetation between denuded areas. 1971 photography.

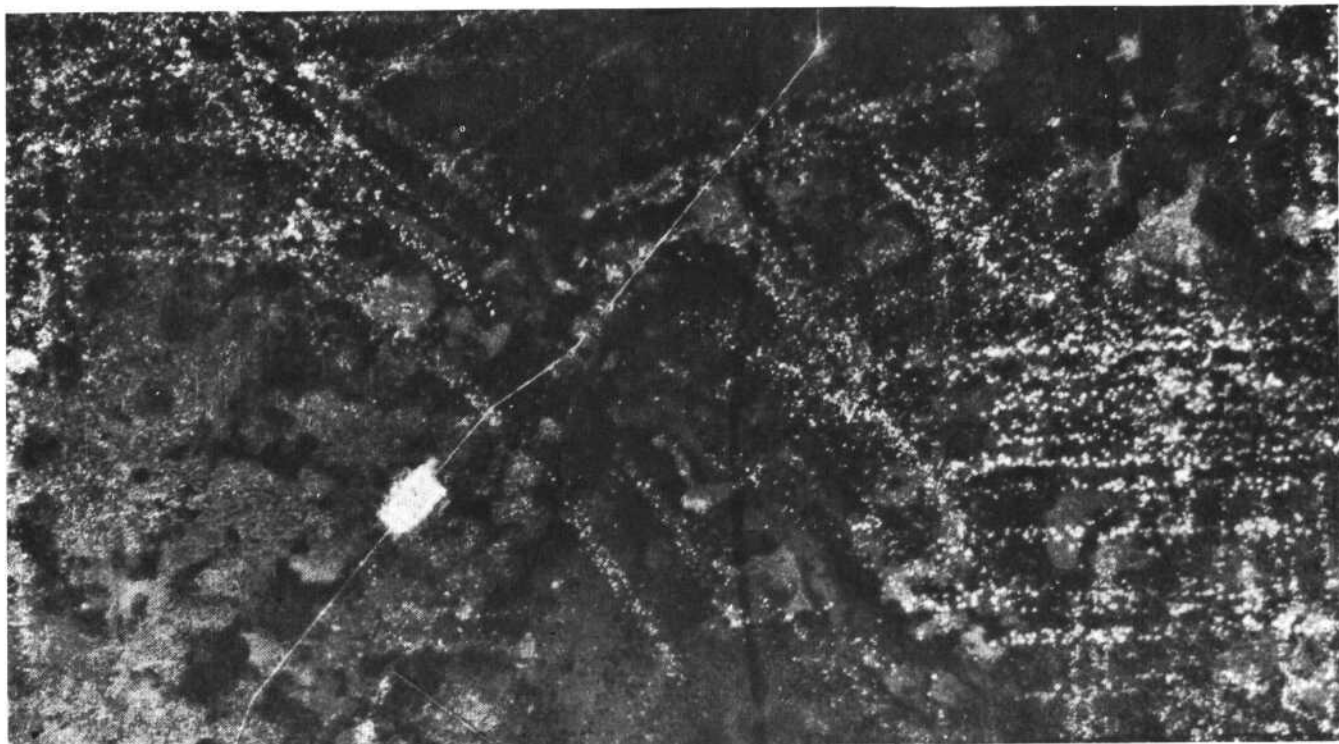


Fig. III B-9. Combination of heavy bombing and herbicide spray. 1969 photography at a scale of 1:50,000. Area heavily disturbed by agricultural use and logging.

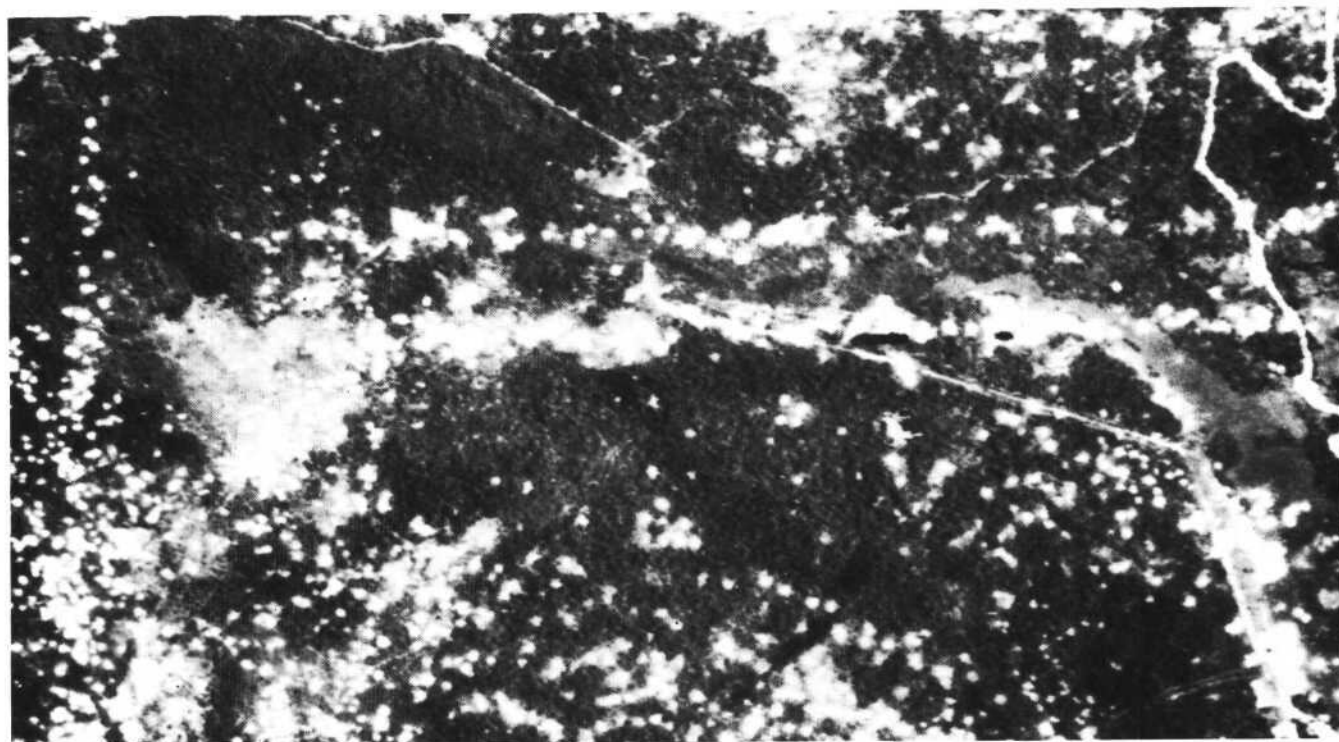


Fig. III B-10. Similar area as in Fig. III B-9 enlarged.

forest composed of trees, and forest composed mainly of bamboo or shrubs. Quite correctly from a botanical point of view, Rollet termed all of these vegetation types forest, but they are not distinguished separately in his map. From the aerial photographs it is evident that even many of the heavily timbered areas are interspersed with a patchwork mosaic of small areas of bamboo, shrubs, marshy openings (see Fig. III B-4), cultivated clearings, and that it would be impossible to map them at the 1:1,000,000 scale used by Rollet.

It was, therefore, necessary to superimpose the Rollet map on 1957 aerial photographs to discover the composition of Rollet's broad types when examined in detail. But this was done only for the MR III area where aerial photo coverage was studied. Results of this analysis are presented and discussed in Section IV B (3).

(4) Quantity of Herbicide Applied

The HERBS data tape included, for each mission, a record of the number of gallons of herbicide, the type of agent, and the purpose of the mission. These data are summarized in Tables III B-1 and B-2. In Table III B-1 are totals for all data recorded on the original HERBS tape, without and with the corrections and omissions noted in (1) earlier. In Table III B-2 the totals by year are presented. In Section III C, we will discuss in detail sources and amounts of error caused by using exclusively the HERBS tape data for determining the amounts of herbicides used and the areas sprayed.

The acreage figures for the "minor" missions (perimeter, cache sites, etc.) in Table III B-1 are calculated from the gallon figures, using the rate of 3 gal./acre. This is because almost all of these missions are identified by only one coordinate, which does not permit us to estimate the area. It should be noted, however, that the acreage figures for defoliation and crop destruction missions are also calculated figures, obtained by multiplying the length of the spray line by the nominal swath width of 80 m by the number of aircraft in the mission. In Table III B-2, figures from the corrected HERBS tape have been used which are 3.5 and 7.5 percent less than those in the uncorrected tape, for gallons and acres, respectively. Since it appears certain that, while the records of some missions on the HERBS tape were in error, the missions themselves were carried out, the higher figures are the more correct ones. The acreage figures, however, do not match those in Table III B-1 because the acreage calculation for the "minor" missions was not carried out for each year and these missions are thus not included in the acreage.

(5) Data Bank Analysis of Herbicide Application to Different Vegetation Types

The major objective of the Data Bank is to provide information on the type and amount of vegetation sprayed in a given location, and the type of agent(s), and number of applications of herbicide.

The missions included in our analysis were flown over a period of years (1965-1970) and repeated spray applications were made in many areas in

Table III B-2

Summary of herbicide missions by year and by agent
(from corrected tape)

The acreages are cumulative values (see Table III B-1)

	O R A N G E			W H I T E			B L U E			T O T A L		
	No. missions	Gallons	Acres	No. missions	Gallons	Acres	No. missions	Gallons	Acres	No. missions	Gallons	Acres
1965 ^a	164	353,350	75,501	0	-	-	0	-	-	164	353,350	75,501
1966	618	1,520,890	412,941	182	514,375	190,740	6	15,800	4,425	806	2,051,065	608,106
1967	1,014	3,105,569	1,028,298	495	1,319,335	421,716	157	355,225	120,100	1,595	4,780,129	1,570,114
1968	755	2,168,377	659,803	604	2,075,998	628,279	112	271,015	77,397	1,471	4,515,390	1,365,479
1969	1,072	3,190,950	1,009,192	402	997,888	292,466	177	227,793	64,096	1,651	4,416,631	1,365,754
1970	328	547,578	183,921	112	208,173	63,567	90	134,803	47,467	530	890,554	294,975
1971 ^b	0	-	-	14	12,175	15	6	2,330	1,244	20	14,505	1,259
Total	3,951	10,886,714	3,369,656	1,738	5,127,944	1,596,783	548	1,006,966	314,749	6,237	17,021,624	5,281,188

^a from August only. A total of 195 projects with about 1,270,000 gal. were carried out prior to August 1965. The agents are mostly not recorded, but were mainly Purple and Orange. See Section III C (2) and Table III C-1.

^b January and February only. A total of 31 additional missions (total 35,447 gal. of Agents White and Blue) were flown between March and October 1971. See Section III C (2) and Table III C-1.

^c 159,237 acres were added to Table III B-1 for Perimeter, Cache Sites, Waterways, Friendly Lines of Communication, and Enemy Lines of Communication, increasing the total for the corrected tape to 5,440,425 acres.

crisscrossing flight patterns. These irregular patterns of overlap made it impractical to calculate the number of repeated applications on a given area by a direct analysis of navigation data. Instead of direct analysis, a systematic survey was made by computer to identify each individual hectare sprayed in each spray missions as follows.

The entire map of SVN, already subdivided into square of 100 km² (10 by 10 km or ca. 6 1/4 by 6 1/4 miles) for navigation reference, was further divided into single hectares (100 by 100 m or 2.5 acres). For each spray mission, the boundaries of its swath were computed from the navigation records. Then each hectare square having its center point inside the spray swath (see Fig. III B-11) was labelled in a computer record with information on the mission, date, identification, and herbicide agent. This was repeated for every defoliation and crop destruction mission.

Any hectare sprayed several times then has a record for each spray, so that a count can be made of the number of hectares having one, two or any other number of herbicide applications of any combination of herbicide agents (see example in Fig. III B-12). While this technique does not define the precise boundaries of the herbicide swaths, it is a sound procedure for estimating the number of hectares affected by the various combinations of herbicide agents.

The process outlined above yielded in excess of 2,000,000 computer records, one for each time a hectare was sprayed. To each of these records was added the vegetation type according to the Rollet map, identification of the province in which the hectare is located, and the type of soil according to the soils map of Moormann (1961).

These records were summarized to give the information listed in Tables III B-3 and B-4. Missions with erroneous records which proved to be uncorrectable (see above) were excluded. Also excluded were the "minor" missions since, as they are identified on the HERBS tape usually by one coordinate only, their precise location is not known. The corrected tape has 3.5 percent less gallons and 7.5 percent less acres for defoliation and crop destruction missions than the uncorrected version. The "minor" missions represent about 3 percent of the total gallonages and (as this was computed from the former) the total acreage of the uncorrected HERBS tape. Altogether, the excluded missions (the uncorrectable defoliation and crop destruction missions, and all "minor" missions) amount to about 1,070,000 gallons of herbicide and 600,000 acres of cumulative coverage, or somewhat over 6 and 10 percent, respectively, of the totals on the uncorrected HERBS tape.

From Table III B-3, the following can be seen:

(a) All of SVN. About 3,600,000 acres were sprayed. This is a little greater than the total area of Connecticut. About 2,370,000 acres or 66 percent of the sprayed area were sprayed once, about 800,000 acres or 22 percent twice, about 280,000 acres or 8 percent three times, and about 130,000 acres or 4 percent four or more times.

(b) Inland forests. Of the total area of about 26 million acres,^a 2.67 million acres or somewhat over 10 percent were sprayed; of these, 1.7 million acres or about two-thirds once, 620,000 acres or about one-quarter twice, about 220,000 acres or 8 percent three times, and about 110,000 acres or 4 percent four or more times.

(c) Mangrove. Of the total area of about 720,000 acres, 260,000 acres or 26 percent were sprayed; of these about 140,000 acres or 54 percent once, 70,000 acres or 27 percent twice, about 30,000 acres or 11 percent three times, and about 20,000 acres or 8 percent four or more times.

(d) Cultivated land. Of the total area of 7.8 million acres, 260,000 acres or 26 percent were sprayed; of these about 200,000 acres or 77 percent once, 40,000 acres or 15 percent twice, 13,000 acres or 5 percent three times, and about 6,600 acres or 3 percent four or more times.

With regard to the cultivated land, it must however be realized that small pieces of cultivated land in the inland forests, particularly swidden, could not be identified in our analysis but are rather included in the inland forests category.

^a This excludes the pine forests.

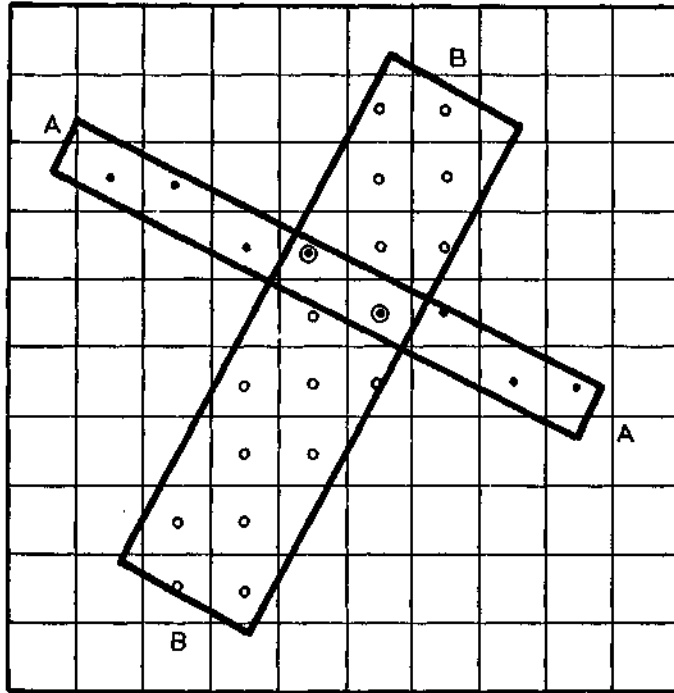
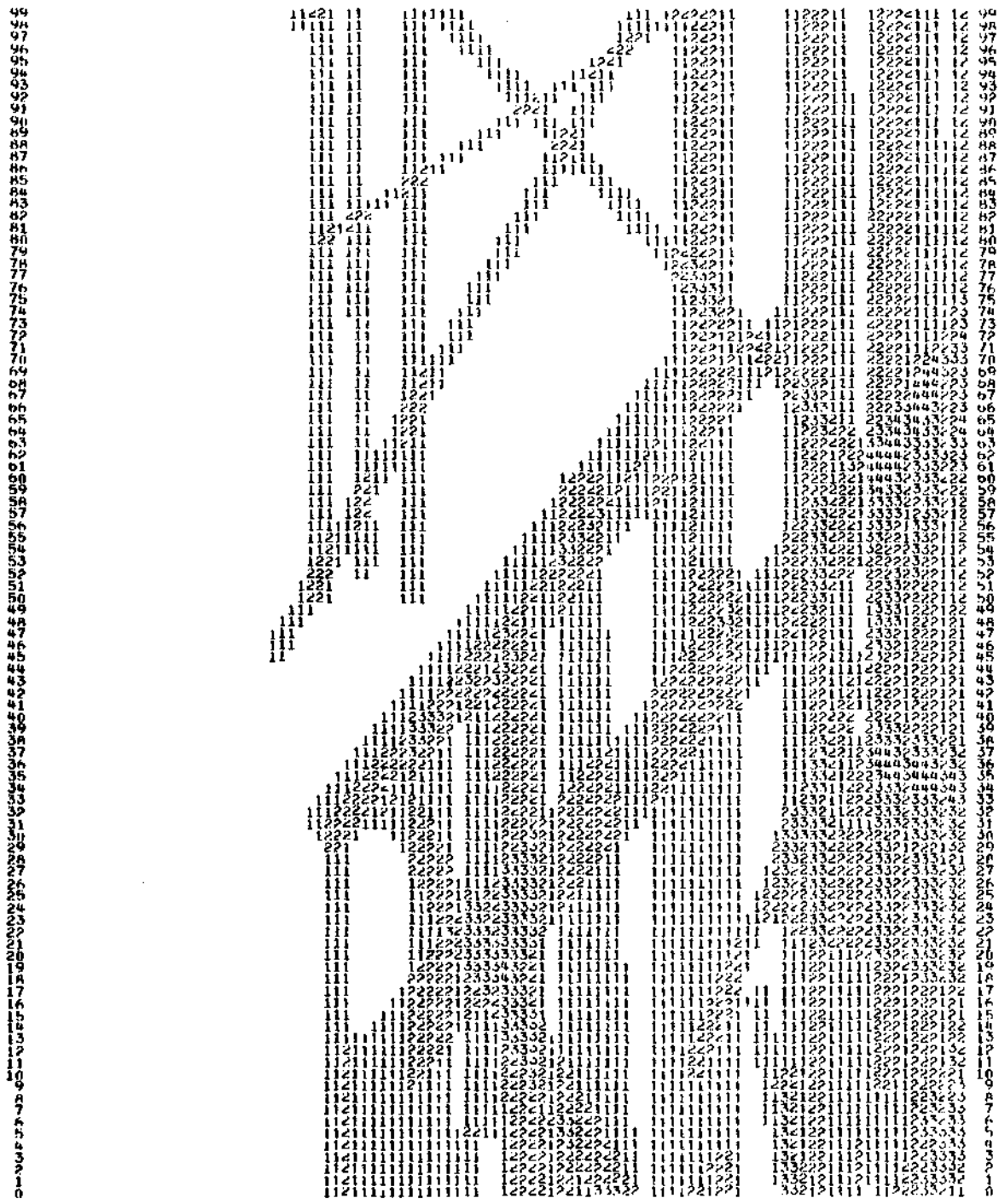


Figure III B-11. Diagrammatic representation of procedure for determining multiple herbicide spraying. Shown are a grid of one hundred single hectare squares and two herbicide mission swaths (A-A, B-B) as recorded from the HERBS tape. Hectares marked • are recorded as affected by mission A-A, those marked ◦ as affected by mission B-B, those marked ◉ as affected by both missions.

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Fig. III B-12. Example of a computer "map" of herbicide missions over an area of 100 by 100 hectares. The figures on the outside ("frame") are counts of the hectares; in the body of the "map," each figure stands for one hectare (ca. 2.5 acres) sprayed once, twice, etc., no figure meaning no spray.

Table III B-3

Herbicide missions, as recorded in HERBS tapes, according to vegetation type and multiplicity of sprays, in acres.

A. Defoliation Missions

Vegetation type (with Rollet's numbers)	Number of sprays and agents						Three Times	Four or more times	TOTAL	
	Single		Twice		One Orange or White and one Blue	All				All
	Orange or White	Blue	Orange and/or White only	Blue only						
Inland forests exclusive of pine forests										
Dense forests(1)	653,742	14,727	261,254	919	7,052	99,954	45,528	1,083,178		
Secondary forests, swidden zones, bamboo forests(2)	655,052	15,829	240,631	2,444	11,201	93,073	47,250	1,065,480		
Dipterocarp, Lagerstroemia, Leguminosae forests(4,5)	142,100	3,588	52,276	279	5,451	20,507	9,726	233,927		
Total(1,2,4,5)	1,450,894	34,144	544,161	3,642	23,704	213,534	102,504	2,382,583		
Pine forests(8,9)	146	-	5	-	-	0	0	151		
Savanna and degraded forests in higher elevations(6,7)	47,584	133	12,849	-	7	2,357	378	63,308		
Grasslands and steppes in higher elevations(10,11,12)	17,853	613	6,249	-	27	2,377	887	28,006		
Mangrove forests(13)	141,237	2,468	61,995	37	4,156	29,133	20,276	259,302		
Melaleuca woodlands(19)	46,622	2,641	10,116	54	781	2,157	200	58,571		
Dunes and brushland(14)	14,836	106	3,081	-	242	474	44	18,783		
Grass and sedge swamps, Plain of Reeds vegetation; dwarf shrub formation in Delta(16,17,18)	72,613	2,464	18,528	185	1,347	6,217	1,104	102,458		
Cultivated land(15)	164,146	9,988	33,097	67	3,484	12,026	6,217	229,025		
Non-vegetation	79,144	697	12,088	0	810	3,027	685	96,451		
Total	2,031,075	53,254	712,169	3,985	34,558	271,302	132,295	3,238,638		

Table III B-3 (cont'd)

B. Crop Destruction Missions

Vegetative type with (Rollet's numbers)		Number of sprays and agents									TOTAL	
		Single		Twice			Three times			Four or more		
		Orange or White	Blue	Orange or White only	Blue only	1 Orange or White and 1 Blue	Orange and/ or White	1 Blue, 2 Orange and/or White	2 Blue and 1 Orange or White	3 Blue		
Inland forests exclusive of pine forests	Dense forests(1)	85,118	29,753	4,544	1,339	3,047	531	252	47	32	173	124,836
	Secondary forests, swidden zones, bamboo forests(2)	100,095	80,972	4,893	4,991	6,079	410	558	507	413	166	199,084
	Dipterocarp <u>Lagerstroemia</u> , Leguminosae forests(4,5)	8,041	4,230	208	106	81	0	0	42	12	0	12,720
	Total(1,2,4,5)	193,254	114,955	9,645	6,436	9,207	941	810	596	457	339	336,640
	Pine forests(8,9)	190	455	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	655
Savanna and degraded forests in higher elevations(6,7)	14,843	12,214	1,023	358	309	94	15	2	7	2	28,867	
Grasslands and steppes in higher elevations (10,11,12)	3,655	3,309	143	67	282	0	0	17	0	10	7,483	
Mangrove forests(13)	1,097	0	637	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,734	
<u>Melaleuca</u> woodlands(19)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Dunes and brushland(14)	1,025	843	20	5	69	0	15	2	0	7	1,986	
Grass and sedge swamps, Plain of Reeds vegetation; dwarf shrub formation in Delta (16,17,18)	2,162	675	59	0	17	0	0	0	0	0	2,913	
Cultivated land(15)	16,850	15,209	1,804	872	1,137	511	128	146	2	94	36,753	
Non-vegetation	4,240	1,080	20	35	163	0	0	69	5	2	5,614	
Total	237,316	148,740	13,361	7,773	11,184	1,546	968	832	471	454	422,645	

Table III B-3 (cont'd)

Defoliation and Crop Destruction Missions, as recorded in HERBS tapes,
according to vegetation type and multiplicity of sprays, in acres.

C. Total All Missions

Vegetative type (with Rollet's numbers)		Number of sprays and agents							TOTAL
		Single		Twice		Three Times	Four or more times		
		Orange or White	Blue	Orange and/or White only	Blue only	One Orange or White and one Blue	All	All	
Inland forests exclusive of pine forests	Dense forests (1)	704,792	40,254	269,652	2,873	11,510	104,113	48,137	1,181,331
	Secondary forests, Swidden zones, bamboo forests (2)	725,054	88,767	248,699	7,220	21,309	98,531	49,889	1,239,469
	Dipterocarp, <u>Lagerstroemia</u> , Leguminosae forests (4,5)	148,654	7,612	53,779	385	5,627	20,990	9,843	246,890
	Total (1,2,4,5)	1,578,500	136,633	572,130	10,478	38,446	223,634	107,869	2,667,690
	Pine forests (8,9)	336	454	15	0	0	0	0	805
	Savanna and degraded forests, in higher elevations (6,7)	60,110	11,154	13,536	358	867	3,088	511	89,624
	Grasslands and steppes in higher elevations (10,11,12)	20,896	3,824	6,296	67	378	2,537	971	34,969
	Mangrove forests (13)	141,363	2,465	62,708	37	4,132	29,255	20,348	260,308
	<u>Melaleuca</u> woodlands (19)	40,152	2,640	9,838	57	780	2,070	198	55,735
	Dunes and brushland (14)	14,869	551	3,174	5	585	677	84	19,945
	Grass and sedge swamps, Plain of Reeds vegetation; dwarf shrub formation in Delta (16, 17,18)	70,726	2,821	18,446	185	1,662	6,219	1,104	101,163
	Cultivated land (15)	175,526	23,087	35,412	963	6,242	13,365	6,634	261,229
	Non-vegetation	68,340	2,198	12,103	35	919	3,107	694	87,396
	Total	2,170,818	185,827	733,658	12,185	54,011	283,952	138,413	3,578,864

Table III B-4

Tabulation of double and triple sprayed areas (in acres) by time intervals between the sprays (Defoliation missions only.)

Months between first and second spray	Months between second and third spray					
	None ^a	<1	1-3	4-6	7-12	>12
Less than one	140,308	14,492	21,646	7,015	12,647	31,149
1-3	203,037	20,887	28,397	12,829	23,272	37,179
4-6	82,405	10,522	8,802	4,947	11,097	13,309
7-12	112,665	16,420	18,009	5,728	11,836	13,487
>12	212,140	18,068	26,338	9,872	15,545	10,097

^a That is, only two sprays.

Table III B-3 also includes information on the types of agents used in multiple sprayings, separating on the one hand Orange and White, on the other hand Blue, since the biological specificity is different (the two former being more selective, affecting mainly broadleaf plants, whereas the latter affect also grasses including cereal crops such as rice). Table III B-4 conveys an impression of the "density" of multiple sprays, that is the time intervals between consecutive sprays. This is an important factor in the effect of such sprays on the vegetation.

The Herbicide Mission Maps (Maps Section) and Tables III B-3 and B-4 indicate certain differences between defoliation and crop destruction missions. Firstly, Agent Blue was used relatively much more frequently for the latter than for the former. The crop destruction missions account, despite their much smaller number, for about one-half of the use of Agent Blue in the herbicide operations in SVN. On the other hand, it is worth noting that almost twice as much Agent Orange as Agent Blue was used on crop destruction missions. Secondly, defoliation missions, while by no means randomly distributed, have occurred practically over all regions of the country, with concentrations northeast and north of Saigon and further north along the border and the demarcation line, in the mangrove regions, and the U-Minh Forest. Crop destruction missions were concentrated in the northern three-quarters of the country (generally along upland and mountain valleys). Only four missions classified as crop destruction were flown in MR IV which largely coincides with the Delta Region. Thirdly, the density of crop destruction missions in both space and time was less than that of the defoliation missions. Less than 10 percent of the targets of crop destruction missions were sprayed more than once, and the intervals were usually 6 to 12 months or more. (For this reason, crop destruction missions have not been included in Table III B-4 which shows the timing of multiple sprays).

The main limitation of the data on relation of herbicide missions to vegetation types is that the vegetation types on the Rollet map are very general and their location not as precise as to permit exact identification on the aerial photographs. The vegetation types and their location thus should both be refined. This was done for one area for a more meaningful assessment of the herbicide damage to inland forests; the results are given in Section IV B (3).

(6) Analysis of Herbicide Operations over Cultivated Land

Of particular interest to the Committee was the extent and impact of the herbicide operations on cultivated land. Several attempts were made to approach this question: tabulation of the missions in the HERBS tape designated "crop destruction"; tabulations of all missions in the tape over vegetation classified as cultivated land (Rollet's type 15); and attempts to use aerial photographs in combination with HERBS records to determine the actual paths of various types of missions with reference to land use. It is clear from each of these approaches, as well as from interviews conducted in several parts of the country (see Sections VII B and C) that there were substantial cultivated areas hit by herbicides, partly directly and partly in

the form of drift, but for reasons discussed below we were not able to make a quantitative estimate of the area or extent of damage to cultivated land.

It should be noted that damage to cultivated land cannot be estimated as easily or as appropriately by the methods used to estimate damage to forest. The reasons for this are: (1) Cultivated plants cover a smaller portion of the land than does vegetation classed as one or another type of forest. (2) Except for the Delta, farms in SVN may be scattered or discontinuous, often limited to small or narrow pieces of suitable land. These small cultivated areas could not be accommodated in the vegetation types in Rollet's map, and if sprayed appeared under other vegetation types (mainly inland forest). (3) The location of some cultivated areas, especially in the Highlands, is not permanent. (4) Another difficulty is the impossibility of distinguishing cultivated or uncultivated food plants (e.g., fruit trees) which are utilized but may have the appearance of being "natural" or "forest" vegetation. Fruit trees, bamboo and other useful species are grown in areas around villages or hamlets in the Highlands but because these are not planted as gardens or plantations in regular rows, they will be classified simply as forest vegetation.

The herbicide records distinguish between defoliation and crop destruction missions. Thus, the first question that comes to mind when one wants to assess the extent of herbicide exposure to cultivated land and its effects, is whether this distinction provides a basis for such an effort, or is at least of help.

There were 858 herbicide missions in the HERBS tape designated as "crop destruction," which covered a total of 644,225 acres (uncorrected). When apparently incorrect records were deleted or corrected, totals were 712 missions and 457,736 acres; when acreage was corrected for area sprayed more than once by crop destruction missions, the total was 422,000 acres (about 680 mi², or 1690 km²). However, most of the area sprayed for crop destruction (337,000 acres, or 80 percent) was classified as inland forest, while only 36,753 acres (under 9 percent) was classified as (permanently) cultivated, i.e., corresponding to Rollet's vegetation type 15 (see Table III B-C, Part B). On the other hand, the total of permanently cultivated land that was exposed to herbicide sprays (one or more) was 261,229 acres (see same Table, Part C), and as already mentioned, there were almost no missions designated as "crop destruction" in the Delta (MR IV), which contains the main cultivated land areas of SVN.

It is thus obvious that the missions designated crop destruction are quite inadequate for obtaining a complete picture of the extent of herbicide exposure of and damage to cultivated land. They account for only about 16 percent of the permanently cultivated land area which was sprayed with herbicides; the remainder was sprayed by missions designated as defoliation. This is fully borne out by analyses of sequential photography of 18 selected study areas scattered over the entire country of SVN; in 16 of these, more crop land had been sprayed by defoliation than by crop destruction missions (see Section VII B[1]). The recorded distribution of the crop destruction missions with respect to vegetation types suggests that most of these missions were directed against small and impermanent (swidden)

cultivation areas, or that there were errors in recording the intended purpose and/or location of many of these missions, or that a large proportion of the area included in the recorded target was non-agricultural land.

Most of the crop destruction missions were flown in areas which were inaccessible because of security reasons, and in which the Committee did not carry out other studies based on photo interpretation. For this reason, a limited study, using HERBS records (uncorrected) and aerial photographs, was undertaken to try to determine the pattern of these missions in space and time, and to assess their effect on vegetation, including both the crops which were the nominal targets, and surrounding non-crop areas.

Map overlays of crop destruction missions at 1:250,000 scale were plotted by using the coordinates of the mission as recorded in the uncorrected HERBS tape. These maps showed that crop destruction missions tended to occur singly or in concentrations of five to ten in relatively small areas of about 10,000 ha (25,000 acres). Seventy-two such areas were originally selected as sample areas.

The Committee had partial photographic coverage of the country corresponding to the period covered by HERBS records of crop destruction missions (August 1965 through February 1971).

To locate and observe the spray patterns on the photography, the locations of the spray missions for each sample area were transferred from the photographs to a 1:250,000 scale topographic map, by visual alignment of various topographic and cultural features on the photographs with those on the maps. The photos were then viewed stereoscopically and analyzed to determine the physical and vegetative characteristics of the areas, and to observe the spray mission patterns. A spray mission was detectable on the black and white photography as a linear strip or swath of lighter gray tone. An active agricultural field appeared light gray, in some cases nearly white, and fine-textured; an abandoned or old field appeared darker and rough-textured.

Fifteen of the 72 sample areas were between latitudes 10°45'N and 12°30'N (approximately Saigon to Ban-Me-Thuot). Of these 15 sample areas, 9 were eliminated from study because of inadequate photo coverage or because defoliation missions overlapped and were indistinguishable from or obscured the effects of crop destruction missions in the photography. The remaining six areas were subjected to detailed case studies of the pattern of crop destruction missions and their effects on vegetation, as observable on aerial photographs. The six sample areas are listed in Table IV B-5, an example of the information available for the areas in Table IV B-6.

The aerial photo analyses confirmed the pattern of single crop destruction spray coverage over a given location. This is in contrast

Table III B-5. Sample Areas Selected for Study of Crop Destruction Missions by Aerial Photo Interpretation

Area No.	MR	Province	Size (km) ^a	Center Coordinate (UTM)
1	III	Quang-Duc	10 x 10	ZU070650
2	II	Quang-Duc	15 x 3	YU530340
3	II	Lam-Dong	10 x 10	YU900050
4	II	Lam-Dong, Phuoc-Long	20 x 20	YT810870
5	II	Bin-Thuan	8 x 17	ZT240200
6	II	Bin-Thuan	10 x 12	ZS260960

^a All areas are rectangular and oriented east-west (first kilometer figure) and north-south (second km figure)

Table III B-6. Sample Area 1 - Information Available

1. Crop Destruction Spray Coverage:

<u>Date</u>	<u>Agent</u>
2 October 67	Blue
3 October 67	Orange
7 October 67	Blue
21 November 68	Blue

2. Photographic Coverage:

<u>Date</u>	<u>Scale</u>
19 January 69	1:50,000
27 February 69	1:50,000
17 May 69	1:50,000

to the defoliation operations which included multiple (double, triple, or more) herbicide coverage. In some cases, a single crop destruction mission resulted in two or three parallel swaths (evidently laid down by two or three aircraft flying the same mission) which sometimes overlapped. Generally, the only other situation where multiple coverage occurred was when separate swaths intersected.

Nearly all of the crop destruction missions were oriented toward a linear series of isolated or separate fields growing along or just upslope from a stream in an upland or mountain valley. Surrounding vegetation was secondary forest or recently abandoned swidden agricultural land. The active agricultural fields along the spray path varied in size from about 0.4 to 10 ha (1 to 25 acres) and appeared to be in upland rice or other non-row grain crops. The amount of active agricultural land in the crop destruction spray paths which could be analyzed on photos represented a relatively small proportion (10 to 30 percent) of the total land area covered by these missions. The balance was in fallow swidden agriculture (30 to 40 percent) and in secondary forest which did not appear to have been recently cut (40 to 50 percent). Thus, on the basis of vegetation and spray pattern, in the few sample areas examined, only about 20 percent of the total volume of herbicide used for crop destruction missions was actually delivered onto active agricultural fields and crops.

The immediate and long-range effects of a single crop destruction mission on active agricultural fields and surrounding forest-fallow land with respect to abandonment and future use was not completely clear. In about 60 percent of the case studies, active fields appeared abandoned within one to two months after spraying and still after six to twelve months. In other cases (30 percent) sprayed fields appeared active one to three months after spraying but abandoned after six and twelve months. One observed field remained active continuously for at least twelve months. Another field abandoned after six months appeared partially reclaimed after six additional months. In two instances, sprayed forest land had been cleared for crops six months after spraying, but abandoned after six additional months.

The section on effects of the herbicide operations on settlements (VII B-1) contains additional data based on aerial photo interpretation on the effects of herbicides on crops.

For reasons suggested above, as well as limitations in the quality of the data outlined below, the results of this study of crop destruction missions cannot be projected to give a measure of the total amount of crop damage due to herbicides.

C. Review of the HERBS Tape Data; and Other Data

We may and should ask in conclusion, how comprehensive and how accurate is our inventory of herbicide use in the Vietnam war in toto, and in relation to different vegetation types? As stated before, the tabulations have been limited to the missions contained in the HERBS tape. It is therefore necessary, firstly, to review this source, and secondly, to discuss other uses of herbicides in the Vietnam war which are known but are not entered on the HERBS tape, and for which the Committee did or did not have records at its disposal.

(1) The HERBS Tape

Regarding the HERBS records, how complete and accurate is the information they contain about the herbicide operations carried out during the time period covered? Also how complete and accurate is the information itself?

Regarding the first question, the accuracy of the entries in the log book, on which the tapes are based, varied over the years, although it evidently increased by and large with time. Thus, entries for the first year (1965) show deficiencies, such as only one coordinate for a mission, which are found in later years only to a much lesser extent. Errors in transcription from log book to punch cards have undoubtedly occurred and may account at least for part of the erroneous mission records. The HERBS tape does not include any missions (defoliation and similar missions by helicopter, and herbicide operations carried out on the ground) which were authorized at the Corps (MR) level (see Section II B and Fig. II B-5). Other helicopter missions were entered only beginning June 1968.

Limitations of the data included on the HERBS tape are as follows:

1. As explained before, among 6542 missions contained in the uncorrected HERBS tape 4 had incomplete listings (all of them in the first two months of the tape), and of these, 3 had to be entirely excluded from all analyses. This is approximately 0.05 percent of all missions on the tape. In addition, as also already explained, 305 other missions or 4.6 percent were in obvious error as to the coordinates, which could not be corrected. The deficiencies in the location records for the "minor" missions (perimeter, etc.) have likewise been pointed out before. All these missions were excluded from the tabulation of the extent and frequency of spraying of different vegetation types whereas they do appear in the tabulation of total gallonage and cumulative acreage (Table III B-1).

2. The spray tank of the UC-123 airplane had a nominal capacity of 1000 gallons but the actual load was more commonly 950-980 gallons, and before 1969 was less, because of shortage of herbicide and inefficiency of the hand-pumping system used.

3. As already pointed out, the area coverage for a mission is a nominal figure, derived by multiplying the length of the spray line by 80 m swath width and by the number of aircraft. In some cases, the area given on the tape is a "target area" (see Section II B [4]) and may exceed the area actually sprayed by a considerable factor.

4. When a mission did not fly a straight line, points of change of direction were sometimes but not always given; when the mission followed a tortuous river or mountain road only the starting and end points were recorded. Other missions, especially crop destruction missions, attacked several discontinuous targets (small crop plots)--the spray being shut off between these targets--but the turn-on and turn-off points do not appear on the tape.

Despite its various shortcomings, and although the immediate source of information--the log book--was not intended for the purposes to which the information was used by the Committee, the HERBS tape is the best and in fact the only available comprehensive compilation of the major part of the herbicide operations conducted in the Vietnam war. The alternative would be to go back to the individual mission planning records and mission reports. With more than 6500 missions, and current location and even existence of all records not known, this would be quite a formidable task and considering the constraints in time and services the Committee decided against such an undertaking. A check was made of over 200 original mission reports, taken at random from different provinces and different years, and all of these were correctly included in the HERBS tape. Obviously, if the reports themselves contained errors they could not have been identified. In a number of cases, a check was made of the accuracy of individual missions, as recorded on the tape, against aerial photos, and a number of disagreements were found particularly in the case of crop destruction missions, between the coordinates in the tape (printout) and the actual mission location (see following section). The overall experience, especially that in work on damage to inland forests (Section IV B) which involved extensive photo interpretation, suggests however that the great majority of herbicide missions were located where, or close to where, the records indicate.

Strong support for the belief that, despite inaccuracies in records of individual missions, the HERBS tape is a reliable source for the inventory of the herbicide operations (as far as covered by the tape) derives from a comparison of the HERBS tape data with aerial photography for the mangrove forests of the Ca Mau Peninsula. The herbicide missions as plotted on a map of the Ca Mau area closely agree with the damaged areas plotted from aerial photography.

One uncertainty which remained unresolved concerns the swath width. The nominal swath width of fixed-wing aircraft missions has been variously reported as 80 m or 80 yards, a difference of about 10 percent. According to information from DOD, the former is the correct figure. But there still remains some ambiguity about what fraction of the herbicide fell

within the intended spray swath. The "Report on 2,4,5-T" (PSAC Report, 1971) states on the one hand that 90 percent of the spray fell within two kilometers (about 1-1/4 miles) of the edge of the swath, and on the other hand that 99.9 percent fell within one kilometer of the centerline of the swath. The latter figure is quite unrealistic, and even the former is on the high side since even from spray equipment operating on the ground one can seldom recover more than 85 to 90 percent of the nominal dosage. On the other hand, as seen on aerial photographs, many missions resulted in remarkably well-defined bands of defoliation, with completely straight and sharp sides (see Fig. III B-8). Others, however, resulted in swaths well-defined and sharp on one side, but diffuse on the other ("feathering") indicating wind drift. Thus, it is evident that the distribution of the spray depended on weather conditions. The missions were to be flown only when wind velocity at the ground did not exceed certain limits (8-10 knots). However, there are frequent reports on herbicide damage due to wind drift far outside any spray mission path. Our tabulations of sprayed areas made the assumption that the swath width was 80 m per fixed-wing aircraft. This is a minimal figure which makes no allowance for dispersal of the spray beyond the nominal spray path, but we do not see how the extent of this dispersal could be quantified or even merely approximated.

(2) Limitations of the Crop Destruction Missions Inventory

There were 51 crop destruction missions in the 6 case study areas representing six percent sample of the total of 858 crop destruction missions. Of the 51 sample missions, 42 (82 percent) were not apparent in any photography studied, but nine missions (18 percent) were apparent. However, these nine spray missions with one exception were not detectable on photographs taken more than three months after spraying (5, 6, and 12 months); in the exception, the spray swath was barely detectable as a light photographic tone after 12 1/2 months. This suggests the target and surrounding non-target had generally revegetated within three to five months after a single spray application. In the case of field crops, this was most probably due to coverage of the bare agricultural land by some kind of native vegetation; in the case of native vegetation surrounding the field this was probably due to recovery of defoliated plants and/or recolonization from adjacent unsprayed vegetation.

Two missions or 22 percent of the nine detectable crop destruction missions were identified on the HERBS tape incorrectly with respect to location coordinates. The apparent swaths on the photography were parallel to but displaced about 2 km (1.2 mi.) away from the map locations plotted from end point coordinates given in the HERBS tape. In these cases, the actual swaths were generally over agricultural land while the run, as recorded, may have been over uncultivated vegetation only.

Of the 42 crop destruction missions not apparent on any photography studied, 32 were flown 14 to 50 months prior to the date of earliest

photography and one was flown six months prior to photography. Most of these were probably no longer visible because of revegetation. Nine missions were flown one to three and-a-half months prior to photography. If approximately three to five months are required for vegetation to recolonize the area or (in the case of native vegetation) to recover, the fact that the latter (nine) crop destruction missions, which represented 21 percent of the 42 missions, were not apparent suggests that they were identified incorrectly on the HERBS tape. This proportion of incorrect missions is close to the 22 percent missions which could be identified on photographs but were incorrectly recorded on the tape, but as these 22 percent correspond to only two missions, this agreement cannot be given great weight. Of the other 33 of the 42 crop destruction missions not apparent on aerial photos, some may also have been incorrectly recorded as to location coordinates. Since the nine spray missions thought to be recorded incorrectly could not be located or identified elsewhere on the 1:50,000 scale photographic prints, each of which covered an area about 12 by 12 km, it appears possible that their actual locations would have been at least 6 km away from the recorded locations.

(3) Other Information on Herbicide Missions

In addition to the HERBS tape, the Committee had at its disposal the following records on herbicide missions:

(a) The "List of 202 Task Realized" covering the period between February 1962 through September 1965, based on information maintained by RVN military authorities, and compiled in 1968 in the Combat Development Center, MACV. This lists "order numbers" as "projects" (general locations, often with specific coordinates, within which herbicide application was authorized for a period of time). Area covered and gallons of agent delivered are usually reported; number and type of aircraft, purpose of mission and particularly type of agent are much less regularly reported. A total of 227 "orders" is included, covering 164,857 hectares (about 410,000 acres) with 1,297,305 gallons. These figures amount to 7 percent of the area and about 7.4 percent of the gallons recorded in the uncorrected HERBS tape. No area or gallonage is given for 13 "orders."

(b) A computer printout covering the period from March 1971 through October of the same year, when herbicide use except at the MR level was terminated. The printout contains the same data as the HERBS tape and includes 31 missions with 5,371 hectares (about 13,000 acres) and 35,447 gallons. All missions were by helicopter. No Orange was used during this period; 24,727 gallons of White and 10,700 gallons of Blue were sprayed on 3 Enemy Routes, 2 Friendly Routes, 16 Perimeter of Bases, 4 Cache Sites and 6 Waterway-Landing Zones. These missions are equal to 0.2 percent of both the gallons and the area of those recorded on the uncorrected HERBS tape.

(c) Reports of herbicide "dumps" for the years 1967, 1968, and part of 1969 (through 22 April). Dump sites were points at which aircraft

released the herbicide it was carrying--in many cases, the entire load of about 1000 gallons--because of problems which required an immediate reduction of its load. Under such emergency conditions the load could be dumped in one-eighth the time required for a normal spray run with the plane usually flying on a turning course. With a full load, this could result in eight times if not more the normal concentration of chemical on the ground, assuming the aircraft was operating at low altitude. Most reported dumps for which altitude was recorded were however made from high altitudes.

Of these documents, the computer printout (item No. b) has the same origin as the HERBS tape and may be assumed to have the same degree of accuracy. As it does not contain any defoliation and crop destruction missions our tabulations of these types of missions are not affected, though total gallonage and acreage of all herbicide missions are increased.

The information on dump sites is often fragmentary; entries most commonly missing are quantity and altitude, and the location is frequently vague, obviously in error, or altogether lacking.

Information on herbicide uses for military purposes in SVN which the Committee was unable to obtain, because records were incomplete or unavailable, includes the following cases:

1. Records of any herbicide missions authorized at the MR (Corps) level.
2. Records of herbicide missions carried out by the RVN Armed Forces before and after cessation of the American herbicide program.
3. Records of "dumps" outside the period 1967 to April 1969.

The first two concern helicopter missions and in addition sprays made by land and water-borne equipment, and none of them fall into the category of crop destruction missions as these required clearance both at the MR level and in Saigon.

Table III C-1 represents an attempt at estimating the total military usage of herbicides in SVN, with an explanation of the pertinent assumptions and estimates. The following additional remarks should be made:

1. Regarding item 3 in the table, the same kind of computation could obviously be made in the reciprocal manner; that is, one could project the omissions of "202 Task" list data on the HERBS tape for the entire period covered by the tape. The figure would be 800 missions. However, considering the different history and degree of internal completeness of the two documents we feel this would result in a considerable overestimate. The information in the HERBS tape has been corrected, as far as possible, in another way (see above).

Table III C-1

Records and Estimates for Quantities of Herbicides in All Herbicide Operations
in the Vietnam War
(The area figures given make no allowance for multiple coverage; [NA = no information available]).

Source or estimate	Missions or Projects	G a l l o n s				Area (Acres)
		Orange	White	Blue	Total	
1. HERBS tape, August 1965 to February 1971 (uncorrected)						
(a) Recorded	6,542	11,261,429	5,246,502	1,124,307	17,632,238	5,709,953
(b) Estimated ("minor" missions)						(168,628)
2. Projects in "List of 202 Task Realized" not listed on HERBS tape						
(a) Recorded	195	NA	NA	NA	1,257,573	395,099
(b) Estimated (13 projects)					(11,526)	(3,517)
3. Estimated omissions from "202 Task" list by comparison with HERBS tape	(71)	NA	NA	NA	(430,765)	(135,148)
4. HERBS printouts, 1 March to 31 October 1971	31	0	24,727	10,700	35,447	13,266
5. Estimated omission of helicopter missions, HERBS tape, August 1965 to 18 June 1968	(1,710)	NA	NA	NA	(618,200)	(NA)
6. Recorded Dumps						
(a) Recorded	36	5,500	2,900	2,400	10,800	NA
(b) Estimated (23 dumps)					(19,090)	NA
7. Estimated omissions of dumps	(20)	NA	NA	NA	(16,600)	NA
8. Missions authorized at Corps (MR) level or carried out by RVN forces	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<u>Total Use</u>						
Recorded		11,266,929	5,274,129	1,137,470	18,936,068	6,118,318
Estimated		NA	NA	NA	(1,096,171)	(307,293)
Total		11,266,929+	5,274,129+	1,137,470+	20,032,239+	6,425,019+

Explanations for individual items:

- 2.(b)- Computed from the average gallonage and area of the projects for which these data are given.
3. - Derived from a comparison of the "202 Task" list with the HERBS tape data for the period August-September 1965 (where the two sources overlap) and the average gallonage and area figures for the "202 Task" projects for which these data are available.
5. - Estimated assuming same ratio between helicopter and fixed-wing missions as of June 1968 to February 1971. Probably an overestimate as helicopter missions increased in relative frequency in the last period of herbicide operations, particularly after July 1970.
- 6.(b)- Estimated from the average figure (830 gallons) for the 13 dumps with this information. One "unconfirmed" dump has not been included. Three of the dumps for which location (but not the Agent) was given were made over the ocean.
7. - Assuming same proportion of dumps to total missions as in period covered by dump records, and same average gallonage.
8. - No estimates possible.

2. The "202 Task" list is very deficient on the kind of agent used. During the period of the military herbicide program in SVN covered by this list the agents used principally were Purple and Orange, the latter replacing the former; however, Agent Blue may also have been used. For the omitted dumps (item 6 of Table III C-1) it would be possible to project the use of different agents from the date on the recorded missions or dumps but for the missions authorized at the MR level and those carried out by RVN Armed Forces (item 8), no information on the agents used is available, except that the RVN Armed Forces did not have use of Agent Orange. Because of these gaps, we felt that a breakdown of the estimates by agents would involve too much guesswork, and limited ourselves to total gallonage.

Inspection of Table III C-1 shows that our inventory of herbicide operations in the Vietnam war, as given in Section III B and considering the uncorrected HERBS tape (including the estimated acreage of the "minor" missions) accounts for over 88.4 percent of the amounts of herbicide used and about 93 percent of the areas sprayed, as obtained from all available records and all estimates we were able to make. The corresponding figures for the corrected HERBS tape are 85 and 86.3 percent, respectively; the acreage figure used for tabulating extent and frequency of sprays by vegetation type (Table III B-3) and likewise for assessments of damage, particularly in the inland forests (Section IV B [3]), from both of which the uncorrected and the "minor" missions on the HERBS tape were excluded, is 83.8 percent of all records and estimates.

(4) Comparison with Procurement Records

Another approach to test the accuracy of the inventory of herbicide missions was comparison with the procurement records of DOD. This is shown in Table III C-2.

Among herbicides the use of which is accounted for, there appears to exist a "deficit" for Agent Orange, that is, more of this agent is recorded as having been sprayed than being shipped to and remaining in SVN. The amounts of Agents Blue and White sent to SVN are greater than those the use of which is accounted for, and it is known that certain quantities are still in SVN. If the estimate for all herbicides--as far as it can be made--is used, the total used considerably exceeds the total on the procurement records. Among the reasons for this may be absence of early helicopter records, difference between nominal and actual herbicide loads, and perhaps incomplete procurement records.

D. Summary

Based on the HERBS tape--a computer tape which covers herbicide operations for the period August 1965 through February 1971--a total of 17,632,000 gal. of herbicide have been sprayed in 6,539 missions during the military herbicide operations in SVN. Of these, 11,261,429 gal. and 4,109 missions were Agent Orange; 5,246,502 gal. and 1,786 missions Agent White; and 1,124,307 gal. and 640 missions Agent Blue. Of the total missions, 4,561 were defoliation and 858 crop destruction missions; the

Table III C-2

Account of Gallons of Herbicide Disposed of in Vietnam as of 18 June 1973

	Orange	White	Blue	Purple	TOTAL
1. Procured ^a	12,853,748	5,764,215	1,368,015	NA	19,985,978
(a) Not shipped to Vietnam ^a	844,580	nil	177,430	NA	1,022,010
(b) Shipped back from Vietnam ^a	1,378,740	nil	nil	NA	1,378,740
(c) Total disposed of in Vietnam	10,630,428	5,764,215	1,190,585	NA	17,585,228
2. Use Accounted for ^b	11,266,929	5,274,129	1,137,470	NA	18,966,674
(a) Estimated Use ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	1,065,565+
(b) Total	11,266,929+	5,274,147+	1,137,470+	NA	20,032,239+
Difference					
2(b) minus 1(c)	-636,501	-490,068	53,115	NA	-2,447,011

^aSource: Office of the Director of Defense Research and Engineering, DOD, Thomas R. Dashiell, Staff Assistant for Chemical Technology, letter dated 18 June 1973.

^bSource: Table III C-1.

NA = no information available.

remainder were flown over or around base perimeters, cache sites, communication routes, and waterways.

After correction of 575 missions with faulty location records and elimination of 305 missions the erroneous location records of which could not be corrected, and assuming a swath width of 80 m (264 ft) per herbicide aircraft, it was determined that a total of 3,578,864 acres or 8.6 percent of SVN were sprayed in herbicide operations. Of this, 2,356,645 acres were sprayed once, 799,754 acres twice, and 422,365 acres three or more times. The time intervals between multiple sprays varied between less than one month and more than 12 months. Of the major vegetation types, 2,670,000 acres or 10.3 percent of the inland forests, excluding pine forests, were sprayed; 318,000 acres (36.1 percent) of the mangrove forests, and 260,000 acres (3 percent) of cultivated land, excluding small agricultural areas in the inland forests.

An analysis of the HERBS tape indicates that, despite certain recognized deficiencies, they are a reliable source for an assessment of the major part of the herbicide operations in SVN. Information and estimates for herbicide operations not covered by the HERBS tape may account for an additional 2,400,000 gal. (all agents) and 540,000 acres so that the HERBS tape data account for about 86 percent of all herbicide operations.

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IV. ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTS OF HERBICIDES
ON VEGETATION IN SOUTH VIETNAM

A. Introduction

The preceding section describes the Committee's results in arriving at a quantitative determination of the extent of the herbicide operation in SVN; the quantities of the different agents that were used; and the land area, according to vegetation types that were sprayed once or repeatedly. The present section will be concerned with the Committee's attempts at determining the effects of herbicides on the native vegetation of the country.

In considering the effects of herbicides on vegetation, it needs to be clearly understood that herbicide applications can have two possible results: (1) defoliation may be transient, the plant may be caused to shed its leaves prematurely, but after a time it may produce new leaves and its growth may not be permanently affected, or (2) defoliation may be followed by the death of the plant, or part of it, resulting in a more or less severe set-back to its development, for example in the case of a tree, the partial die-back of the crown. When herbicides were used for military purposes, as in SVN, some plants received large doses and the second type of result was often seen, particularly in plants exposed to spray.

The sensitivity of different plant species to herbicides and defoliation is different; even broadleaf plants, while generally sensitive to 2,4-D, 2,4,5-T and picloram, exhibit considerable species differences in sensitivity. Thus, to accomplish complete defoliation in a forest consisting of numerous species--as tropical forests do--it is necessary to choose a dosage that will defoliate the most resistant species but this dosage will prove lethal or highly injurious to the less resistant ones. However, from the physiological and ecological viewpoint it is obviously a very different matter whether the trees in a forest or a tree crop, such as coconuts and rubber, are made to lose their leaves but remain capable of continued development, or whether part of the trees are killed or their growth retarded.

It was explained that the military authorities distinguished two main objectives of the herbicide operations in SVN: defoliation and crop destruction. These two types of missions differed in certain respects; namely, in the geographic distribution over the country as a whole, the degree of concentration in a given target area, and the relative quantities of some of the agents used (see Section III C-5 and C-6). On the other hand--as

was already said or implied--when one uses the physiological and ecological viewpoint the similarities between the two types of herbicide missions become much greater than their dissimilarities. While there were differences in the relative amounts, the same agents (Orange, White, and Blue) were used for both defoliation and crop destruction missions. Crops were destroyed or damaged by operations designated as defoliation. In part this was because herbicide was directly sprayed on crops, in part because of drift of the herbicide outside the target area. It was already mentioned that although, this result cannot be generalized because the study areas were not selected at random, in 16 out of 18 areas studied by means of aerial photography, crop damage by defoliation missions was greater, sometimes considerably so, than by crop destruction missions (see Section VII B-6; details in Section VII B-1).^a On the other hand, crop destruction operations resulted in herbicide deposition also on native vegetation surrounding the crop which was the target of the mission. A sample of crop destruction missions, analyzed, again by means of aerial photography, indicated that in fact only one-fifth of the herbicide used in these missions was deposited on crops whereas the rest impinged on the surrounding native vegetation, mostly inland forest (see Section III B [6]). Thus, in the analysis of physiological and ecological effects of herbicides, as used in the Vietnam war, it is neither possible nor appropriate to differentiate between defoliation and crop destruction missions.

From the inventory of the herbicide operations (Section III) it is evident that two types of native vegetation in SVN have been the main targets of herbicide sprays, namely, the inland and the mangrove forests, the latter including the Melaleuca woodlands. The distribution of these vegetation types is shown in the map of Major Vegetation Types in the Map Section and their characteristics are briefly described in Section II E. The inland forests occupy 63 percent of the area of SVN and can be composed of many species of deciduous and evergreen broad-leaved trees, shrubs, bamboo, and ground vegetation; however, the types of forest and their condition vary greatly, including large areas occupied by bamboo, and others which contain only a few large trees. A small portion of the inland forests

^aThis statement is not intended as an expression of opinion as to whether or not the official policy on herbicide operations was violated. According to this policy crops were not to be sprayed, and herbicide missions not to be flown near crops, unless these offered shelter to hostile forces (e.g., along roads or waterways) or if they were in areas under enemy control or where the population was considered as unreliable. It was not within the Committee's charge, and would besides have required considerable additional effort, to determine whether, if crops were sprayed or a mission flown over or near a settlement, those premises were existent. Our aim was to determine the effects on people and plants.

(about one percent of the land area) are pine forests; these are not considered here as they were exposed to only little herbicide spraying and we conducted no studies in this forest type. The mangrove forests account for about 1.7 percent of the area of SVN and consist of relatively few species of trees and undergrowth. The Melaleuca woodlands were also subjected to heavy herbicide spraying, but as we were unable to make any field studies of this vegetation type, which account for about 1 percent of the area of SVN, no analysis of the damage was attempted.

A study of the effects of the herbicide operations on inland forests was centered in the Terrace Region north and northwest of Saigon, in the areas formerly designated as War Zones C and D. This area was chosen for study because of several reasons. Intensive and extensive herbicide operations had been conducted there since February 1962 in several forest types; 60 percent of the inland forest area that was sprayed is found in this region. The area was accessible for aerial observation, and seemed at least potentially accessible for on-site investigation from the ground. Security problems precluded any extensive, quantitative on-site studies, however.

Investigation of the mangrove forests was centered in the Rung Sat Special Zone southeast of Saigon which surrounds the main shipping channel from the South China Sea into Saigon. The area was chosen because a large block of about 230 square miles (about 600 km²) had been sprayed, much of it many times; thus the ecologic effect was expected to be greater than in any other mangrove area. Furthermore, the area was easily accessible for aerial observations, and was sufficiently secure to permit a number of on-site investigations of different kinds (damage of vegetation, effects on estuarine animal life, effects on soil, response of people).

Crop damage has occurred in all parts of the country. The problems of assessing it in any quantitative manner are, however, quite different from those of assessing damage to forests. Some of these problems have been discussed in connection with the inventory of crop destruction missions in Section III B-6. Another obvious problem is that most crops are annual plants which are planted and harvested within one growing season. A direct, quantitative assessment of crop damage could therefore have been only made immediately and on the spot, i.e., by assessing the damage after any herbicide operation that caused such damage. No such systematic assessment was made by the Committee, and in the case of missions which were flown in territory under the control of unfriendly forces it would have been impossible to do, while the Committee's work did not start until the herbicide operations, at least those under American control, had been terminated for about one year. A more indirect approach would be analysis of aerial photography to determine the areas where crop damage had occurred; combined with figures for average yields this would permit some estimate of the losses. This approach would not be as easy as it may sound because "average yields" even for the same crop may be quite different in different areas. This is particularly true of agriculture in the Highlands where a large part of the crop destruction missions were flown,

because the agricultural practices vary widely not only from one ethnic group to the other, but also from village to village, and even within one village. What made this approach entirely unfeasible, however, was that photographic coverage proved inadequate as explained before. An analysis of available aerial photography for six study areas showed that the effects of crop destruction missions became nondiscernible on the photographs usually within three to five months (see Section III C-2) while the closest photographic coverage for more than half of the missions analyzed was taken 14 to 50 months after the mission. Other information on crop damage by herbicide operations was obtained by examination of pertinent documents, the photo-interpretation studies of the effect of herbicide operations on settlements in 18 selected study areas and in interviews with Vietnamese farmers and officials in some selected parts of the country. Some of the results thus obtained will be discussed in Sections VII B and VII C of the report, but they cannot be extrapolated for the nation as a whole.

B. Inland Forests

(1) General Successional Trends

An important task of the Committee was to try to assess successional trends in the inland forests damaged by military defoliation. Broad-leaved forests of the Closed and Open types have many kinds of valuable hardwood timber, and for this and other reasons are an important part of the nation's natural resources. When natural vegetation is disturbed, it may rapidly return to its original condition, or may be changed but gradually go back to that condition, or may be more or less permanently converted into another type of vegetation. The actual response will depend partly on the extent and nature of the disturbance, and partly on the type of the affected vegetation itself. It is clearly of the greatest importance to find out what kind of successional changes are taking place in the defoliated forests, what are the chances of their recovery, and what are the likely long-term effects of defoliation on the ecology and productivity of the forests. A difficulty in assessing such effects is that, although many statements have been made about the probable long-term effects of herbicides on successional trends in the forests of SVN, there is little previous experimental work on the results of herbicide applications on successions in forest areas anywhere in the tropics. The problem is further aggravated by the lack of an inventory of the South Vietnamese inland forests; this deficiency would have made accurate, quantitative work difficult even if it had not been for the other, major limitation--lack of security--under which the work had to be conducted.

Present Condition of Herbicide Sprayed Inland Forests

At the outset it is important to realize that, even though there has been widespread and serious damage, there seem to be no parts of the inland forest in which herbicide spraying by itself had led to complete destruction of vegetation over large areas such as has occurred in the mangrove forests (next section). During helicopter flights in October 1971 from Saigon to Dong Xoai in Phuoc Long Province (War Zone D), some 60 miles to the northeast, members of the Committee saw extensive areas of Closed forest in which virtually all the larger and taller ("emergent") trees appeared to be dead, presumably as a result of spraying, but everywhere beneath the dead, standing trees there was a dense mass of green, seemingly healthy vegetation, consisting of smaller trees, bamboos, and other plants. The only bare or completely devastated areas seen on these flights were bordering roads and on the perimeter of towns, villages, and military posts where the vegetation had presumably been removed by Rome plowing or some other means.

Evidence from air photographs and other sources shows that conditions in the Saigon-Dong Xoai area are typical of much of the

defoliated inland forest in SVN. The earlier observations of Flamm (1968, 1970), Tschirley (1969) and others seemed to suggest that the damage due to a single spraying was probably transient and might be assumed to have no lasting consequences for the vegetation, but where, as in many areas, the forest had been sprayed repeatedly, many or all of the emergent trees die, though leaving the lower stories of the forest apparently more or less intact. Later studies of air photographs (Section IV B [3]) confirm these conclusions on the whole. However, some photographs of heavily sprayed areas show that the undergrowth has been seriously damaged or even entirely killed. Whether this is due solely to the effects of herbicides or whether fire and other factors may have played a part cannot be decided in the absence of studies on the ground.

In many places in SVN, the emergent trees have been felled and removed after being killed and much of the surviving undergrowth has been destroyed in the process. In addition, in some places the forests have been extensively damaged by fire after killing of the large trees by herbicides. (Figs. IV B-1 and B-2)

Previous Studies

Many statements have been published about the successional trends in the forests of SVN and the probable long-term effects of defoliation. Unfortunately most of them are based on fragmentary observations and much speculation, but little scientific evidence. It has, for instance, been repeatedly said or implied that the badly damaged areas have already been invaded by bamboos: the AAAS Report (Meselson et al., 1970) concluded that this "will retard the re-establishment of forest trees at least for many decades." According to Westing (1971, and similarly in other papers) "particularly in areas sprayed more than once, the overstory destruction is sufficient to permit the invasion of certain tenacious pioneer grasses." Such grasses include Imperata cylindrica (tranh), a coarse tufted species of little value except for thatching, as well as bamboos of various kinds (which are botanically a group of grasses). The spread of Imperata as a result of military defoliation, Westing (1971) believes, will lead to the forest being replaced by "semi-permanent savannas," and bamboos may form dense thickets which "may remain in place for decades." Another effect of defoliation which Westing and others think may delay the recovery of the forest for many years is the sudden release of plant nutrients or "nutrient dumping." The leaves, bark, and wood of trees that are killed contain nutrient elements. It is well known that certain tropical forest soils tend to be relatively poor in nutrients, and that a considerable fraction of the total nutrient stock is held in the living vegetation (see Section V B). Defoliation may thus lead to a rapid loss of nutrients as the dead vegetation decomposes and is washed away by the rain. It has been suggested that the resulting loss of soil fertility may have important effects on successional trends, preventing or delaying the reestablishment of trees and encouraging their replacement by grasses and other types of plants with smaller nutrient requirements.



Fig. IV B-1. Forest in Tay Ninh Province sprayed three times and not burned. Photo taken by Dr. Michael Newton in March 1972.



Fig. IV B-2. Badly damaged forest in Tay Ninh Province sprayed three times and burned. Photo taken by Dr. Michael Newton in March 1972.

To test such statements scientifically would require long continued systematic observations--a formidable undertaking even in a country not at war. Westing, as he admits (1971), based his report on the inland forests on "a minimum of hard data" because "essentially none of the 2 million hectares (4.9 million acres) or more of sprayed jungle is safely accessible to us."

The Status of the Inland Forests of SVN

The security situation, which made ground studies of successional changes practically impossible for Westing and other previous investigators, had not improved in 1971-72 when the Committee was in SVN. Some very brief visits to forests in War Zones C and D were made, but the small amount of relevant information obtained added only a little to the earlier observations of Flamm and Tschirley. The only other information on successional trends available to the Committee is derived from air photography and from analogies with what is known of successions in Thailand and other countries where the climate, soils, and vegetation are more or less similar to those in SVN. On this far from satisfactory basis we must attempt to give whatever assessment is possible of the short-term and long-term successional trends.

Before doing this it is necessary to put the changes due to defoliation in perspective by noting that long before the military defoliation program began, changes due to other causes had been operating in the forests of SVN, as in all but the least populated parts of the tropics.

It has sometimes been said or implied that a large proportion of the inland forest of SVN that has been sprayed with herbicides was primary or virgin forest, i.e., that they had never been farmed, logged, burned, or otherwise seriously disturbed by man, but it is unlikely that this was true even in the 1950's. Rollet (1962), one of the leading authorities on the forests of SVN, has shown that a very large part of the forest must have been affected by shifting cultivation. It certainly seems probable that much of the inland forests, except perhaps in the more remote and mountainous districts, had been more or less profoundly disturbed by human activities when the defoliation program began. The degree of disturbance varied: a large part had been much affected, another part, possibly one-third of the whole area, was classified by Rollet as "dense forest," in which disturbance was relatively slight.

Disturbance has taken many forms, ranging from the collection of brushwood to make charcoal and the culling of occasional highly prized hardwood trees, to systematic timber exploitation and clear-cutting of extensive areas to make room for rubber plantations, oil palms, and

other export crops. In SVN, as in most parts of the humid tropics, swidden agriculture has affected a greater total area than any other kind of disturbance (Figs. IV B-3 and B-4). Before the escalation of the war the Montagnard peoples lived scattered through much of the forest and raised crops in small clearings. Traces of their fields or "ray" can be seen in many places on aerial photographs of the inland forests, in addition to much larger areas of secondary forest and brush around towns and permanent villages.

In swidden farming the land is usually cropped for only one or two successive seasons. It is then left to fallow and a tangle of young trees, shrubs, vines, and other plants, often including bamboos, grow up. If left undisturbed, this tangle develops in a few years into a secondary forest, different in many ways from the primary (or climax) forest that may have occupied the site before it was cleared. Secondary forest species grow faster and are shorter-lived than those of the primary forest. Even more important is the fact that the majority of the secondary forest trees cannot reproduce themselves in shade, while most primary forest species are shade-tolerant, at least when young. After a period of time--measured in decades and possibly in centuries--an undisturbed secondary forest becomes more and more similar to a primary forest. But if it is clear-cut again after a few years, or is otherwise badly disturbed, secondary forest is increasingly liable to invasion by bamboos, Imperata, and other grasses. Bamboos and grasses are important for the future succession in two ways: (1) they tend to form dense thickets that impede the establishment of young forest trees, and (2) the thickets become dry and inflammable in the dry season. Once an area has been burned, fires are liable to recur and more and more invasion by grasses and bamboos takes place. It is in this way, according to Rollet (1962), that large areas of Closed forest in SVN were converted to Open forests with grassy undergrowth, and to more or less unproductive savannas. In such areas Closed forest may return, but only if fires are controlled and trees given a chance to establish themselves. One effect of the war has been that Montagnards and other refugees were concentrated in certain areas, such as Dak To in Kontum Province (G. Hickey, personal communication). This has led to large, contiguous areas of forest being cleared and re-cleared for swiddens, in which, if forest seed sources are destroyed and recultivation occurs too soon, trees will no doubt be replaced by bamboos or grassland.

That much of the sprayed forests in SVN is secondary is of great importance in assessing their future prospects. A mosaic of secondary forests of all ages, such as probably existed when the defoliation program was begun, must have contained numerous "nuclei" of light-demanding species such as bamboos and grasses scattered throughout the forest, in some places recently established on old swiddens and other clearings, elsewhere growing in association with forest species that, if the natural succession had run its course, would eventually have suppressed them.

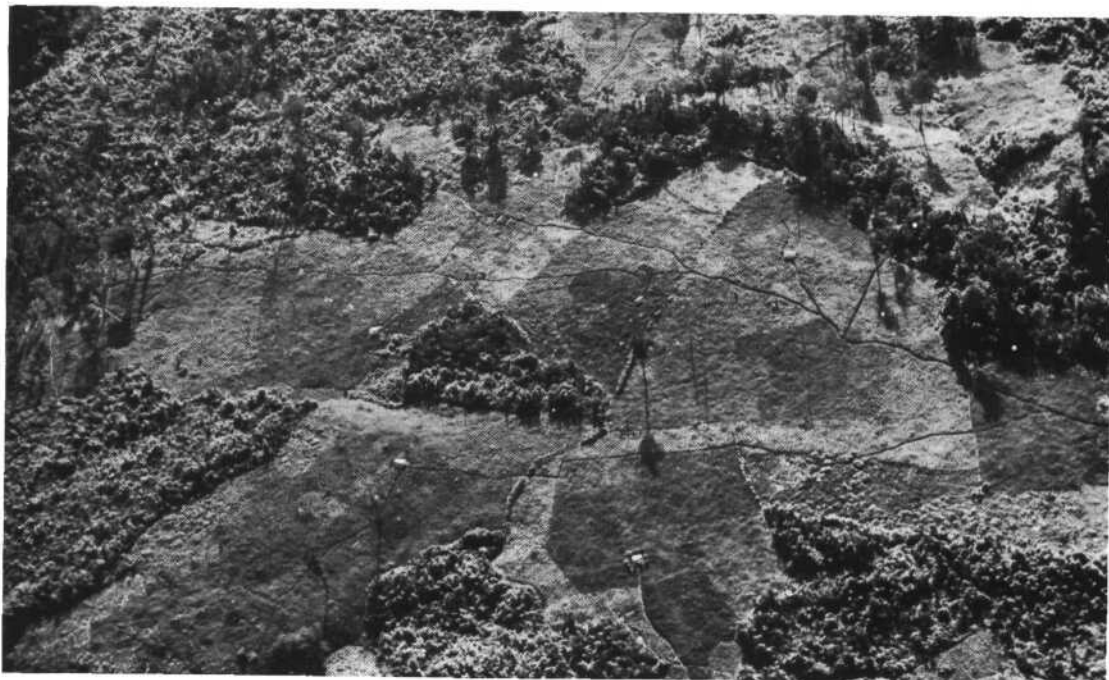


Fig. IV B-3. Montagnard swidden agriculture in Phuoc Long Province, north of Dong-Xoai. Photo taken by Dr. Philip Ross on October 17, 1971.



Fig. IV B-4. Field cleared by the Montagnards in Lam Dong Province. Photo taken by Prof. Geoffrey Blackman in January 1972.

The Effects of Herbicides

On this complex vegetation pattern the effects of herbicides have been superimposed. In a mature Closed forest in which emergent trees have been killed, the most important environmental change is the increased amount of light reaching the lower stories, though there will be other microclimatic effects and a decrease in root competition. Under these conditions, if an adequate number of saplings and young trees of emergent species have survived, the death of the large trees may encourage them to grow rapidly; the top story of the forest will then be soon replaced--perhaps sooner than it would have been under normal conditions. Of course, if the young as well as the older individuals have died, the emergent species will disappear and the forest will change drastically in composition or the trees may even become replaced by bamboos or grasses.

In other areas in which there is a larger proportion of light-demanding (or shade-intolerant) species, as in Open forests with a ground layer of grasses, and Closed forests at an early stage in succession with much bamboo in the undergrowth, defoliation would have quite different results. In these cases the death of the older trees would probably encourage the growth of bamboos, grasses, and other shade-intolerant species and might also lead to their spread, e.g., by increasing the number as well as the size of the bamboo clumps. This might lead to the suppression of any surviving young trees and the formation of extensive bamboo thickets, as Westing and others suppose. Such thickets are not necessarily permanent and the normal trend towards the climax may be resumed, although it could be delayed for a long time, perhaps for many decades.

What has been said in the foregoing paragraphs is a statement of what might be expected to take place, judging from what is known about forest succession in Southeast Asia and elsewhere, and considered in relation to our general knowledge of the situation in the forests of SVN. But to know whether this is actually happening, and to give a reliable forecast of future successional trends, the information needed is not available or at best very scanty. For instance, does the dense vegetation now occupying heavily sprayed sites in the Closed forest (as in parts of War Zone D) contain a sufficient number of saplings and young trees of emergent tree species such as members of Dipterocarpaceae? Has the removal of the emergent canopy in such forests merely revealed a preexisting understory of bamboos, or can it be demonstrated from air photographs and other evidence that the area within the forest occupied by bamboo thickets, Imperata, etc., has significantly increased since defoliation began? If so, is it certain that this is due to the effects of herbicides alone or have other factors such as uncontrolled logging and burning also contributed?

Regeneration in Herbicide Sprayed Inland Forests

The earliest observations on tree regeneration in defoliated SVN forests are those of Barry R. Flamm, who in company with F. H. Tschirley, visited War Zone C (Tay Ninh and Binh Long Provinces) in March 1968. Flamm (1968, 1970) noted carefully the damage to mature trees and the effect of herbicides on the regeneration (seedlings and saplings) in the sample plots of defoliated forest. The results may be summarized as follows:

<u>Site</u>	<u>Type of Forest</u>	<u>Herbicide Treatment</u>	<u>Effect on Regeneration</u>
1. Thien Ngon (4 plots)	Moist Semi-deciduous	Once sprayed (Orange, December 1966)	3 out of 4 plots adequately stocked
2. Katum (2 plots)	Moist Semi-deciduous	Twice sprayed (White, November 1966; Orange, September 1967)	Reproduction on both plots dead
3. Tong Le Chon (2 plots)	<u>Lagerstroemia</u> type	Plot 1, once sprayed (White, November 1966)	Seedlings of <u>Lagerstroemia</u> plentiful
	Moist Semi-deciduous	Plot 2, once sprayed (Orange, November 1967)	Seedlings of <u>Hopea odorata</u> plentiful, 2 plants of <u>Tarrietia cochinchinensis</u>

To this information the Committee can add the following:

(1) Several members accompanied by a Vietnamese expert on forest trees visited Cau Muoi Mot, about 8 miles (13 km) northeast of Dong-Xoai on the Dong Xoai-Bu Dang Road, on October 16, 1971. The area examined, which was sprayed with White in 1968 and with Orange in early 1969, was a mixture of low secondary growth and dense bamboo thickets with a few surviving tall trees, mainly Irvingia malayana, a species which seems to be not very sensitive to herbicides. The site had evidently been cleared and cultivated in the not very distant past. Aerial photographs taken in 1958 (WWS Project 166) show that it looked much the same at that date as it did in 1971, although some trees may have been killed in the interval. The Vietnamese forester, searching the very small area that could be safely explored, found a fair number of living saplings of large forest tree species including Irvingia malayana, numerous (99) individuals of Sterculia alata, and one specimen (6 ft high = 1.8 m) of the Dipterocarp Shorea vulgaris.

(2) In March 1972 several Committee members examined areas near Hung Dao camp, near Tay Ninh, which had been sprayed with Agent Orange in 1966, 1967 and 1968, and subsequently logged. A number of young Dipterocarps 33 to 40 ft (10 to 12 m) high were seen. A local woodman said that there were "not as many Dipterocarp seedlings and juveniles present in the understory as would be expected in an undisturbed forest or in a forest that had been logged but not sprayed." Committee members who observed this site uniformly agreed that three herbicide applications had not of themselves caused sufficient damage to permit invasion and occupation of the site by bamboo.

Concluding Remarks

From the scraps of information given above it is clearly not possible to draw scientifically valid conclusions. One can only suggest that: (1) even in forest areas that have been sprayed more than once young individuals of the taller forest trees may survive, possibly in large enough numbers for the forest to recover eventually if protected from further disturbance; (2) in other areas not enough young individuals survive to ensure recovery within a reasonable period of time. The difference in the amount of surviving regeneration in different areas could depend on many factors, such as conditions at the time of spraying and whether defoliation was followed by burning or logging; and (3) the differing susceptibility of tree species to herbicides may lead to changes in the composition of the forest.

Because of the great economic potential of the inland forest of SVN, in the post-war period of reconstruction it may well be decided to undertake a large-scale project of forest rehabilitation. If such a program is adopted, the following considerations should be borne in mind:

1. It seems probable that all single-sprayed and most multiple-sprayed forest areas could eventually be restored to productive forestry if an appropriate silvicultural policy is adopted.

2. In some areas, especially where there has been only one herbicide application, the forest may recover naturally, provided it can be protected from swidden, logging, and other disturbances.

3. Before any program of forest protection and restoration can be planned, systematic studies of the sprayed areas are essential, with special attention to the numbers and sizes of young individuals of the important tree species.

The possible effects on the nutrient balance of forest soils will be considered in a later section (V B). They may be one among many factors controlling the course and rate of succession but are likely to be of importance only in already nutrient-depleted soils.

(2) Bamboo in Relation to Defoliation of Inland Forests

The principal objective of this study was to find out whether bamboos had replaced broad-leaved trees in the inland forests as a result of spraying with herbicides, and if so, on how large a scale. Concern that bamboo is invading and replacing forests has been voiced by several authors (Meselson *et al.*, 1970; Tschirley, 1969; Westing, 1970). Our work was centered primarily in some of the forests of the Terrace Region (Section II E) because they contain a greater amount of commercially valuable timber than do the Open forest.

Little field work was possible because of security conditions, but limited observations were made along the highways to the Col de Blao (Route #20, Lam-Dong Province), An-Loc (Route #13, Binh-Long Province), Tay-Ninh City (Tay-Ninh Province), and Trang-Bom to Xuan-Loc (Route #1, Long-Khanh Province). Brief ground observations were also made of a sprayed forest with bamboos near Cau Muoi-Mot, and an unsprayed forest near Dong-Xoai, about 8 miles (12.8 km) southwest (see Section IV B-1). Because of the limited opportunity for on-site investigation, assessment of the role played by bamboos in the ecology of forests sprayed with herbicides can only be regarded as tentative. The ground observations were supplemented with three helicopter trips over War Zones C and D.

Areas with Dominant Bamboo Coverage

Bamboos were already present prior to the military use of herbicides in many types of forests in Vietnam. In secondary forests they became dominant over considerable areas where they are said to persist for many years. These "bambusaies" were mapped by Rollet (1956), using 1952-53 aerial photography, as a distinct vegetation type.

In the lowland secondary forest, bamboos were scattered about in the understory, especially on schistose slopes and red soils (Rollet, 1962). Bamboos on such soils can frequently colonize an area relatively rapidly. It was also noted by Rollet (1962a) that there is generally an understory of bamboos (*Oxytenanthera* sp.) in the Open forests. In the highlands, at a medium elevation of 1800 to 3800 ft. (540 to 1150 m), Rollet noted extensive stands of bamboos in the secondary forest.

All told, prior to the application of herbicides for military purposes in SVN, there were an estimated 1.4 million acres on which bamboos were already well established as dominant species.^a

^a Estimated by Committee from a Vegetation Map of SVN which was prepared by the National Geographic Service in Dalat in 1969. The Map seems to be based on Rollet's 1956 map, but it shows "Bambusaies" as a separate type.

Specific Bamboos in Closed Forest Ecosystems

In the dense forest, Bambusa species may form rather large, pure populations on specific sites such as borders of streams, and especially the slopes adjacent to them (Barry et al., 1960). In the secondary forest arising from swiddens, bamboo generally appears in 10 to 15 years, and in 20 years has developed into a "sea of bamboo" which is said to persist for a century or more (Barry et al., 1960).

Further observations on the species of bamboos found in SVN were made by Schmid on a trip via Highway #20 to Dalat on December 21-24, 1953, with F. A. McClure (Schmid, 1953). According to this report, the populations of large, spiny bamboos growing in large clumps to about 25 ft (7.5 m) in height, or forming indeterminate thickets relatively low in height, occur at elevations of 150 to 300 ft (45 to 90 m) on old alluvial soils. There are two main types of such bamboos recognized by Rollet: (1) Bambusa sp. with low stature, bushy indeterminate clumps such as found around the Forestry Station at Trang-Bom; and (2) Bambusa blumeana on relatively rich soils, forming large clumps, well-delineated, with stems up to 75 ft (22.5 m) tall.

On soils derived from schists or granites, especially on slopes between 2100 and 2400 ft (630 to 720 m), Lingnania sp. was found. Species of Oxytenanthera (O. dinhensis, the most common; and O. densa) were noted in Montagnard swiddens. Other genera and species of bamboos were found by the authors on this brief trip, but with the exception of the climbing bamboo at elevations around 4500 ft (1350 m), none appear to be common in the dense and secondary Closed forest ecosystem.

On the other hand, Ho (personal communication) recognized two ecological types of common bamboos from the An-Loc--Tay-Ninh region: (1) Bambusa arundinacea, a large spiny species usually found on slopes 300 to 600 ft (90 to 180 m) or more away from streams, but at An-Loc apparently far from water courses; and (2) Oxytenanthera, species of which occupy dry soils.

Finally it is appropriate to emphasize that the identification of bamboo species is rather difficult. In SVN it is obvious from the writings of Vietnamese and French botanists of the past 20 years that much work remains to be done before a complete and authoritative account of the species of bamboos can be published for that country.

Our observations do not permit firm conclusions, but do suggest that at least where only one or two applications of herbicides were made, there are prospects for regrowth of a mature forest composed of many of the dominant species, despite the presence of abundant bamboos.

To such a statement should be added the proviso that fires, particularly during the dry season, could probably destroy the young saplings and thus serve to perpetuate an understory composed mainly of bamboos. Such fires, burning unchecked, were observed by all Committee members who made overflights during the dry season (Fig. IV B-6). The fires were especially common in severely degraded forest areas many of which appear to have supported only bamboos (or bamboos and grasses) prior to 1960.

The Reproduction of the Bamboos Common to Closed Forest Areas

According to McClure (1967), "The incidence of maturation of fruits is relatively low in the majority of known bamboos ... abundant yields occur in only a relatively few species out of the hundred that have been observed in flower." If such statements are applicable to common bamboos in SVN, then one would not expect a high frequency of seed production. Indeed, on the basis of what data we have obtained from direct field study in SVN and the published information from a lifetime of investigations of bamboos by McClure (1967), it is reasonable to conclude that rapid colonization by bamboos of cleared forest is not usually accomplished in SVN by production of abundant seeds and seedlings. Thus, spread of bamboos, when it occurs, is more likely to be by vegetative means. According to the Assistant Chief Forester at the Forestry Station at Trang-Bom, the population of bamboos increases substantially following clearing operations which leave behind numerous cut-up sections of underground parts capable of sprouting. Moreover, apparently alterations of the Closed forest, as by extensive logging operations or killing of the upper canopy species by herbicides, will produce ecological conditions favoring the rapid formation of new culms of certain bamboos (Huberman, 1959). For this reason, when sites with an understory of Bambusa arundinacea and species of Oxytenanthera, as described by Boulbet (1960), are converted by the Montagnards into swidden (ray), the bamboos will soon occupy the site upon cessation of cropping and will persist for a long time (Rollet, 1962a).



Fig. IV B-5. Secondary forest near Cau Muoi-Mot sprayed December 1968 showing bamboos. Photo taken by Dr. Philip Ross on October 17, 1971.



Fig. IV B-6. Fires in a damaged forest in Tay Ninh Province. Photo taken by Dr. Michael Newton in March 1972.

Economic Value of Bamboos

Much research has been carried out in the silviculture of useful bamboos in various countries, especially in Asia (Huberman, 1959). Moreover, the economic value of many of these bamboos is very significant in tropical Asia, as noted by FAO Report (1961), McClure (1966), and McKinley (1957), among many others.

McKinley (1957) lists the main species and uses of bamboos in SVN. Included among these principal species are two or three which are significantly involved in colonizing cleared-burned and probably also heavily defoliated Closed forest areas: (1) Bambusa blumeana has wide distribution in South Vietnam, and it is also considered by McKinley as the most useful bamboo for many purposes. (2) Bambusa arundinacea is listed by McKinley as useful for construction purposes, and as a source of edible shoots. Ho (personal communication) regards this species, rather than B. blumeana, as the most widespread in SVN, as well as the most useful for various purposes. As suggested by Ho (personal communication) another bamboo from the Closed forest, which is frequently used for construction of articles, such as furniture, poles, fences, etc., is Schizostachyum zollingeri, known as Lo-o.

McKinley (1957) states that the bamboos useful for paper pulp develop rather thin-walled stems, but there is no published information suggesting that such bamboos are involved with the successional patterns in Closed forest following severe disturbances. On the other hand, McKinley (1957) notes that near Tay-Ninh there has been a paper factory utilizing bamboo shoots of about six months of age for manufacturing a kind of blotting paper. Neither scientific nor common names were given for the bamboo thus utilized. Moreover, no specific information on uses of species of Oxytenanthera were noted by McKinley. Yet these bamboos are among the important species common in Closed forest lands which have been cleared or severely defoliated by herbicides.

Conclusions

(1) As a result of centuries of fire and swidden agriculture in SVN, extensive areas support pure or mixed stands of bamboos which existed prior to the application of herbicides for military purposes.

(2) Evidence from published field studies of the Closed forest indicates that several bamboos may grow as natural components of the dense and the secondary forest; but they are by no means invariably present.

(3) After clear-cutting or extensive logging, the forest canopy is open so that altered ecological conditions favor an increase in the

population of the sub-dominant bamboos. Increase by vegetative means occurs in abandoned swidden and after forest clearing operations and can be relatively rapid. Spread of bamboos by seed appears to be rather infrequent in SVN, and rapid invasion of new areas was not observed.

(4) Information derived from limited field and aerial reconnaissance of Closed forests in War Zones C and D north of Saigon suggests that where defoliation has led to death of the trees of the upper and second stories, with suppression of their reproduction, bamboos, if present in the area, will tend to increase with establishment of pure stands which may persist for many years. Regrowth of young plants of the original forest trees can be prevented by seasonal fires.

(3) Quantitative Assessment of Herbicide Damage to the Inland Forest

Introduction

The objective of the Inland Forest Study was to assess the effects of the herbicide upon the inland forests of SVN. Damage to forests can take different forms: (a) loss of merchantable timber, (b) loss of growing stock, (c) loss of growth, (d) loss of seed source, (e) loss of non-merchantable timber. The Committee evaluated herbicide effects in terms of loss of merchantable timber as its first priority. Within certain margins of error this loss category could be assessed with quantitative methods widely used in forest inventory, making use of extensive aerial photographic coverage of SVN. Data from comparable countries were also used because opportunities for inspection of the SVN forests on the ground were very limited (Section I B [3]). Evaluation of loss of merchantable timber was thought to be important, too, because earlier reports on the effect of the herbicide operations had suggested that these had resulted in very large, direct economic losses. It has also been suggested that post-war recovery of SVN will require large quantities of forest products for domestic use, and that the forest resources of SVN provide an important exportable commodity which can generate the capital required for recovery and development after hostilities have ceased.

In the course of the study of the inland forests the Committee had occasion to evaluate some of the assumptions basic to the earlier studies. As will be discussed later in this chapter, several of them were found by us to be seriously in error, particularly those on the average merchantable volume of the inland forests of SVN, and on the average non-salvaged loss of merchantable timber in forest areas subjected to one and to more than one herbicide spray, resulting in a very large overestimate of herbicide damage to merchantable timber.

However, while it was deemed important to undertake a quantitative estimate of herbicide damage in terms of "loss of merchantable timber," it should not be inferred from our efforts in this domain that all, or even most of the damage to the inland forests due to war impact generally, and herbicide impact specifically is encompassed in this category. In fact, as will also be discussed later in this chapter, it may well prove that other forms of forest damage and other war impacts caused much more substantial damage both to standing timber and to long-term forest productivity. Under the conditions of this study, it was not possible to assess these forms of damage with a similar degree of precision, but estimates of losses of non-merchantable timber will be given later.

Herbicides were sprayed over large areas of inland forest during the years 1962 to 1971; the heaviest herbicide operations were conducted between 1967 and 1969. During and after the period of herbicide spraying, the forest areas were also subjected to other military actions such as bombing, shelling, and land clearing to reduce ambush danger along highways. In addition, the forests continued to be harvested for timber and

fuelwood and cut and burned to provide agricultural clearings (swidden). These harvestings and agricultural activities have been applied to the forests of SVN for centuries, although the recent military operations have modified them to a varying degree in location and intensity.






To obtain a quick impression of the scale of these activities, the reader is referred to the maps in Figs. IV B-7, IV B-8, and IV B-9, which for a sample area of intense military action illustrate the forest cover and the pattern of herbicide spray missions for 1965-1970. The overlap of these activities can be judged from these figures. Within areas sprayed with herbicides it is difficult to tell from aerial photos taken in 1972-1973 whether dead trees had been killed by herbicides, bombing, shelling, or were the result of normal mortality. Where there was evidence of recent harvesting it was not possible to determine whether trees harvested were cut and removed after being killed by herbicide or other war impact, had died from natural mortality, or were cut as living trees in normal harvesting. For the purpose of this study it was assumed that trees that were cut and removed were utilizable and that they therefore did not constitute loss regardless of their status at the time of cutting. As a part of the assessment of herbicide damage, a study was made to evaluate the level of normal mortality in forests that were treated. The problem of separating the effects of herbicides from other effects was a continual source of difficulty in this study.

The intended effect of military spraying of herbicides was to remove the leaves from the trees, making enemy troops and the trails, arms caches, etc. used by them visible from the air. The effect of single or repeated herbicide spraying on an individual tree is very variable and seems to depend on several factors, including the species of the tree, its physiological state, and the weather conditions during and after spraying. Some trees are apparently unaffected, some lose their leaves but later recover more or less completely, some are killed. Even when a tree survives defoliation the new crop of leaves may be abnormal and die-back of a larger or smaller part of the crown is common.

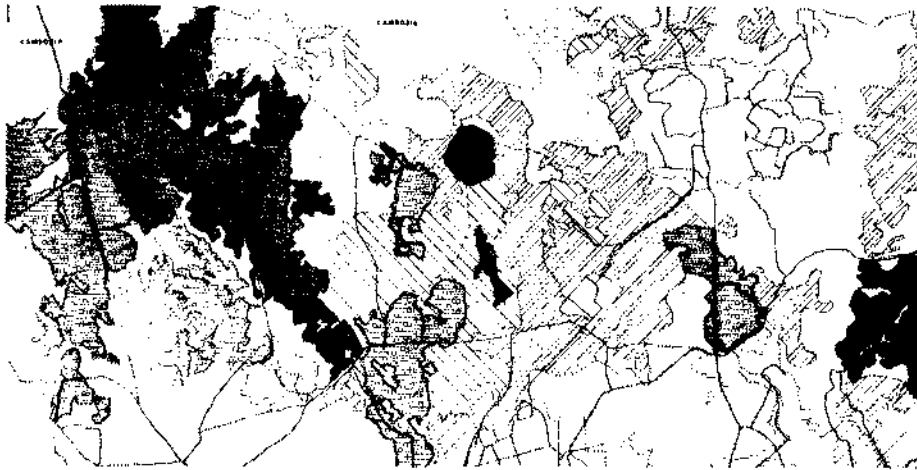
Some 2.7 million acres (1.1 million hectares [ha]) of the inland forest were sprayed in the defoliation missions and crop destruction missions flown between August 1965 and February 1970 and recorded on the HERBS tape. It was, therefore, not feasible to obtain and examine aerial photographs of the whole sprayed area. The tree mortality assessment was made on samples representing 9 percent of the inland forest area of Military Region III. In addition to the defoliation and crop destruction mission, the HERBS tape contains records of missions flown in the vicinity of fortified bases and supply lines, and herbicide operations were carried out before August 1965 and after February 1970. Some of these missions undoubtedly affected inland forest areas, but the exact area is not known in every case. They had thus to be excluded from our analysis (compare Section III C-3). These missions amount to about 15-17 percent of the defoliation and crop destruction missions on the HERBS tape.

Fig. IV B-7. Maps of north half of XT quadrangle showing forest vegetation and distribution of impacts

(a) Forest cover map:

	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

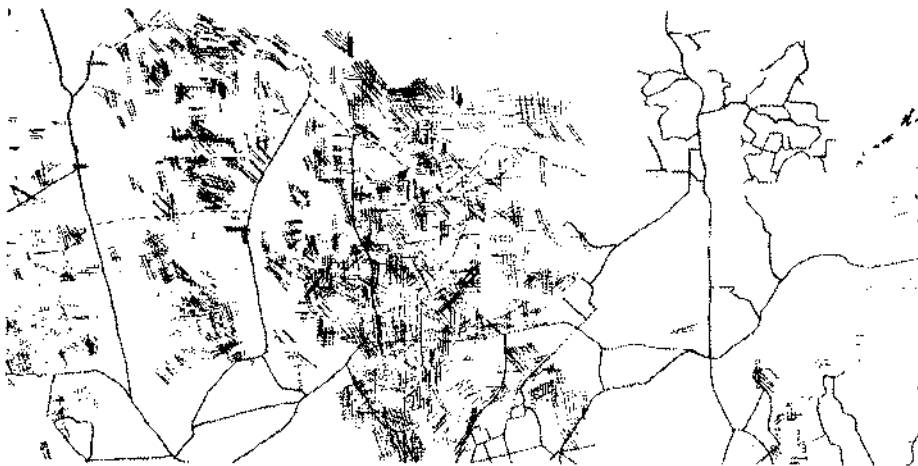
- (b) Land clearing along roads and extensive areas (to the west) of urban and agricultural development and (to the east) military and agricultural clearing.
- (c) Pattern of heavy bombing. Lines indicate length and density of sticks of B-52 bomb craters as seen in 1969 and 1971 aerial photographs.
- (d) Herbicide defoliant spray coverage for years 1965-71 is shaded. Black areas were sprayed four times or more.



a



b








c



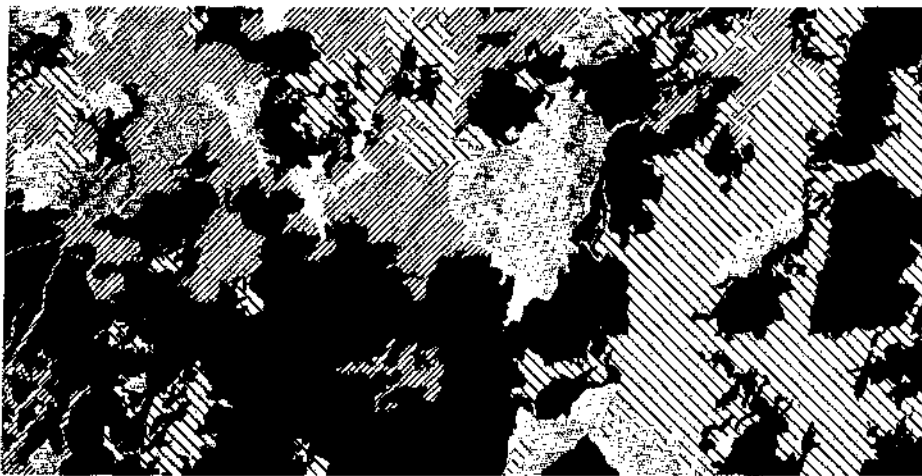
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Fig. IV B-8. Maps of north half of YT quadrangle showing forest vegetation and distribution of impacts

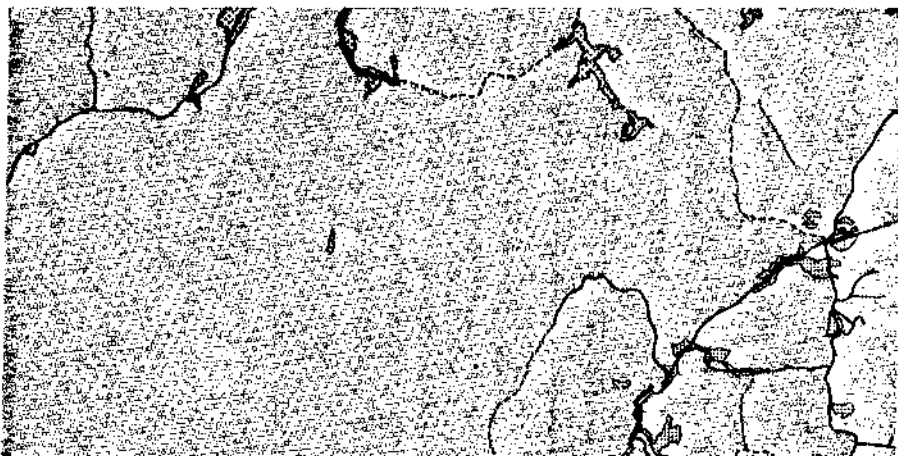
(a) Forest cover map:

	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

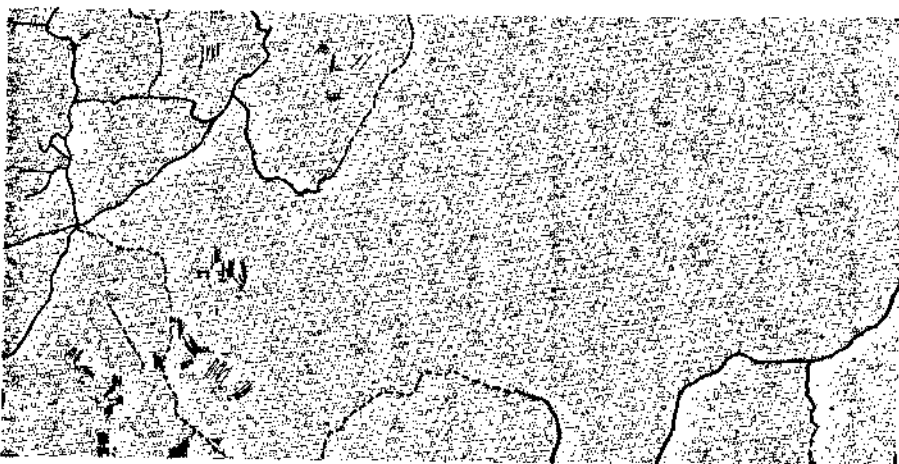
- (b) Cleared land along roads and extensively cleared urban and agricultural areas.
- (c) Pattern of heavy bombing. Lines indicate length and density of sticks of B-52 bomb craters as seen in 1969 and 1971 aerial photographs.
- (d) Herbicide defoliant spray coverage for years 1965-1971 is shaded. Black areas were sprayed four times or more.



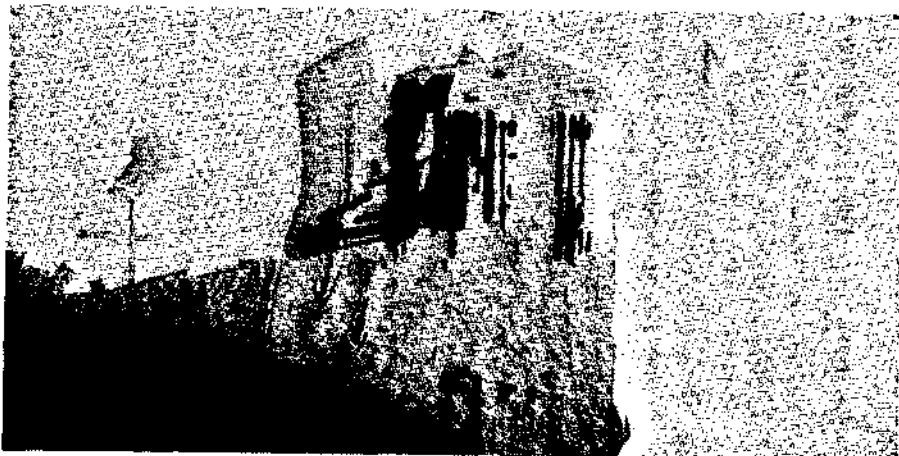
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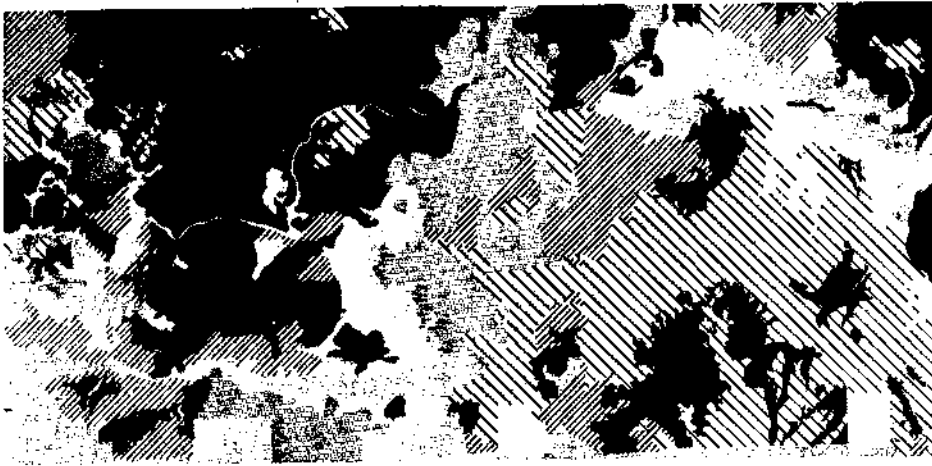
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Fig. IV B-9. Maps of south half of YT quadrangle showing forests vegetation and distribution of impacts.

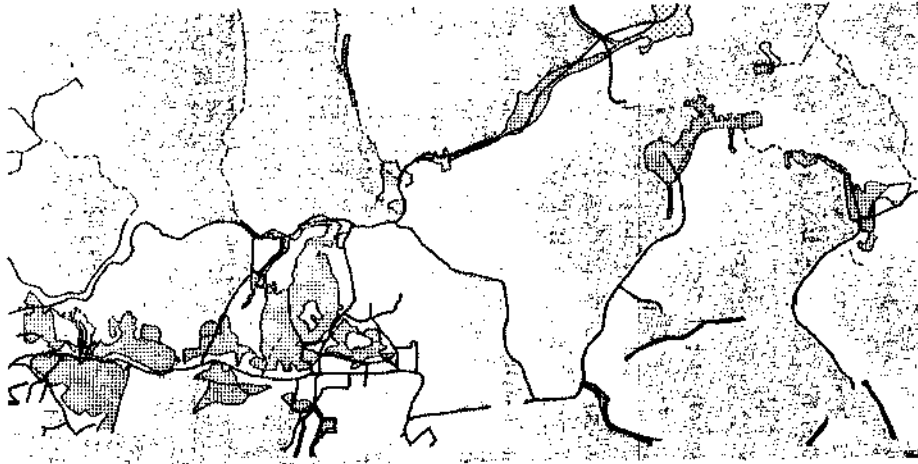
(a) Forest cover map:

	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

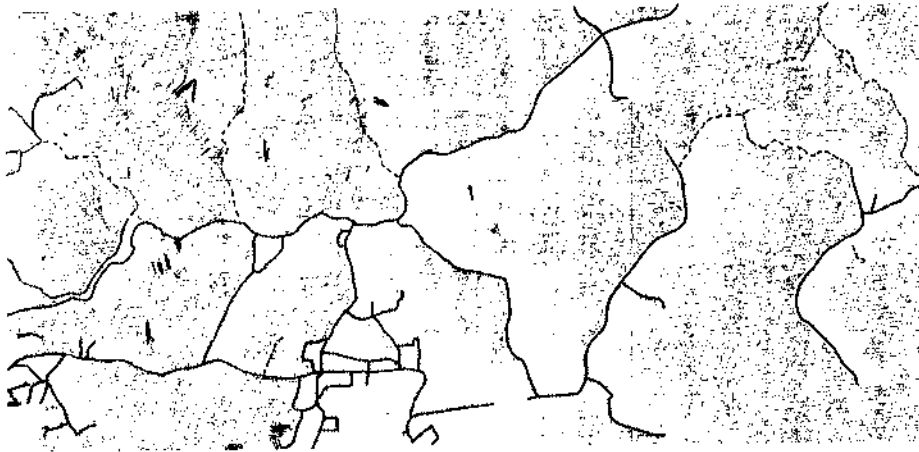
- (b) Cleared land along roads and extensively cleared urban and agricultural areas.
- (c) Pattern of heavy bombing. Lines indicate length and density of sticks of B-52 bomb craters as seen in 1969 and 1971 aerial photographs.
- (d) Herbicide defoliant spray coverage for years 1965-71 is shaded. Black areas were sprayed four times or more.



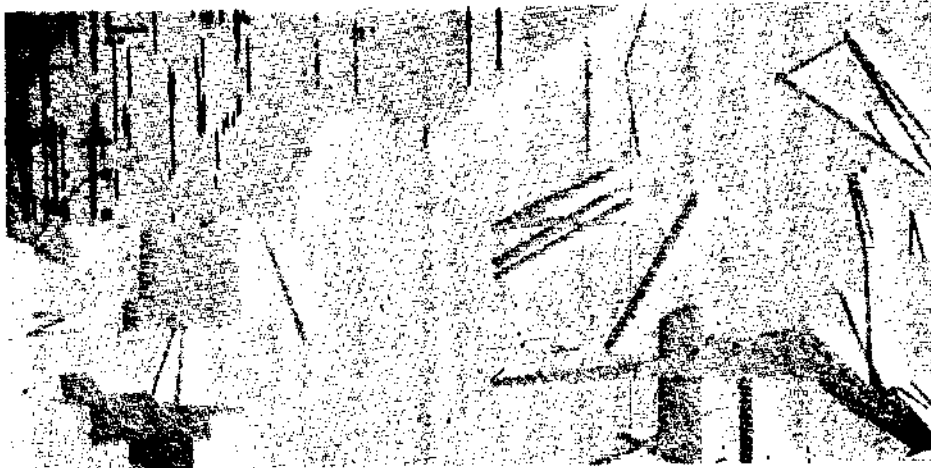
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Assuming satisfactory figures can be obtained for the amount of kill of trees in the forest, there remains the question of evaluation. Clearly trees are not all of equal economic value. In terms of market value, the essential characteristics are the species of a tree and its size and quality. Some relatively rare species such as ebony (Diospyros spp.) and rosewood (Dalbergia spp. and Pterocarpus spp.) are of high value. These are in the Luxury class. Other species are of lesser but definite value (Classes I and II), while still other numerous species are of low value or no value for manufacturing and sometimes even for fuelwood.

In general, shrubby trees and bushes have little or no commercial wood producing value; seedlings, saplings, and pole size trees of valuable species have potential to grow into trees of sufficient size, but have no lumber or plywood value until they attain that size.

The market value of mature trees of valuable tropical hardwood species depends, on the one hand, on their size and quality, and on the other, upon relative scarcity and demand at a given time. The latter value will change as utilization opportunities change. New utilization opportunities may arise out of the development of a new manufacturing facility requiring new raw material, or out of increased opportunities to serve more remote markets. In SVN the opportunities for utilization of wood in manufacture of primary products are essentially confined to lumber and, to a much more limited extent, plywood.

In the remainder of this chapter, the available information on the inland forests is analyzed to answer as far as possible the following major questions:

- a. What was the extent and character of forests in SVN before herbicide spraying started?
- b. What kinds of impact, both military and non-military, have been applied to these inland forests, and what effects have resulted from these impacts?
- c. What information and methods could be used to establish the amount of herbicide effect on the forests?
- d. What standards should be used in assessing the extent of the herbicide damage?
- e. What was the extent of the damage to merchantable timber by the herbicide?
- f. What was the extent of damage to non-merchantable woody vegetation by the herbicide?
- g. What is the estimated economic value of the loss?
- h. What steps could be taken to rehabilitate the affected forest areas?

The following definitions were used in establishing the parameters for the study of merchantable timber loss:

Forest - Forest is defined as those major areas of land which fall into the following Rollet vegetation types, dense forests, secondary forests, semi-dense and open forests (Section III A). Pine forests were, however, excluded (Section IV A).

Area - The area of SVN studied in detail for damage assessment was that portion of the country defined as MR III, located in the Terrace Region of the country (Section II E[1]) and comprised of the provinces of Bien-Hoa, Binh-Duong, Binh-Long, Binh-Tuy, Gia-Dinh, Hau-Nghia, Long-An, Long-Khan, Phuoc-Long, Phuoc-Tuy, and Tay-Ninh (Fig. III B-1).

Damage - Damage is defined as the loss of standing merchantable volume of the winter 1971-1972. Major herbicide operations were terminated in early 1971. It does not include timber killed by herbicide but salvaged between the time of the kill and the time of sampling, nor does it include nonmerchantable timber.

Standing Timber - Standing timber is defined as including timber on the stump, either standing in its original living form or as a dead tree, and trees which have been knocked down or uprooted but which are still essentially in place geographically.

Merchantable Timber - Merchantable timber^a is defined as timber in log form acceptable in the South Vietnamese industrial market for manufacture into lumber, veneer, and plywood. It does not include timber used directly for fuel or converted to charcoal for fuel, or used for agricultural and home uses in non-manufactured form.

Non-Merchantable Timber - Non-merchantable timber is defined as the woody vegetation in the forest not utilizable for product manufacture. It includes the non-utilizable stem and crown of merchantable trees, trees of merchantable size but of non-utilized species or of non-usable quality and all trees that are below merchantable size.

Merchantable Volume - Merchantable volume is defined as volume in terms of logs scaled under the Hoppus rule--the customary basis for marketing logs in Southeast Asia (see p. IV-45).

Observed Merchantable Mortality Area - Observed mortality area is defined as an area on the sample that was observed to have merchantable size dead trees.

^a In forest products practice, a difference is made between merchantable and commercial timber. For simplification, this difference is not observed in this report and only the term "merchantable" is used.

Observed Mortality Area - Observed mortality area is defined as the portion of the sample that was observed to have dead trees of merchantable or non-merchantable size or other dead woody vegetation.

Extent and Character of Forest in SVN Prior to Herbicide Spraying

As reference base for estimates of damage it is necessary to have an evaluation of the extent and character of SVN forests before the initiation of the herbicide operations. This involves an assessment of the mixture of forest types that make up the forest area of interest and the quantity of merchantable timber and non-merchantable wood in each of the forest types. A good forest inventory as of the date of the commencement of spraying would have provided such information. Since no such forest inventory had been made, it was necessary for the Committee to prepare such an inventory using the best data available.

The best information available in the literature on the pre-spraying forest types of SVN was the vegetation map of SVN prepared by Rollet in 1956 and the type descriptions and forest type development information contained in Rollet's vegetation analysis (Rollet, 1962a). Rollet's vegetation map of SVN, at a scale of 1:1,000,000, or approximately 16 miles to the inch, provided a major foundation for the study of damage over the country as a whole. Excellent 1958 aerial photographs, at a scale of 1:50,000, were available for the detailed study of MR III (Section III). It is important to understand how far the information from these photographs, a scale greater than one mile to one inch, differs from the information on the Rollet map.

The Rollet map was based upon 1:40,000 panchromatic coverage flown for the French National Geographic Institute in 1952-1953. Obviously one difference between the distribution of forest types as observed by Rollet, and observations made on the 1958 photographic coverage was the change in land-use status between 1953 and 1958.

Aside from influence by man, the type of vegetation in different parts of a country is a function of climate, soil, and topography. Over the long, narrow extent of SVN, ranging from latitude 8°33' to 17°00' north, the topography and soil vary from the extensive alluvial lowlands of the Mekong Delta to the rolling hills of the Terrace Region, then farther north to the high mountain ranges cleft by steep-sided valleys. Approximately 10.5 million ha (26 million acres) of the country were classified by Rollet as covered in forest vegetation. Some of the types of vegetation (Table II E-2) are in broad botanical classes, but the major classes of forest, "dense" and "secondary" reflect influence of man. Authorities on the subject (Rollet, 1962a;

Williams, 1965) have stated independently that the forests of SVN have been heavily influenced by man for centuries. According to a translation of Rollet (1962a), little of the lowland forest is undisturbed; he says: "I believe that for the most part, the dense forests of the lowlands of South Indochina are old, secondary forests..."

Wood-cutting for fuel and timber logging have thinned out large areas of formerly dense forests, removing the larger trees and causing gaps in the canopy. An even greater impact has been from the practice of clearing and burning the forest to grow food crops (swidden agriculture). Sometimes the swiddens are abandoned after a few years, sometimes the cultivators return to them after the clearing has lain fallow for a number of years, but in either case the result is to replace large tracts of forest by a mosaic of clearings, brush, and secondary forest. Such areas, classified by Rollet (1962a) as "secondary forest, bamboo and shifting-cultivation zone," generally contain few or no trees of merchantable size and quality and in aerial photographs at this scale appear very different from forest which has been undisturbed for a long time. The non-merchantable component of these forests may be very large. They constitute a potentially important part of the nation's forest growing stocks; potentially important because they serve this role only if they are not again cleared for farming before the older trees reach merchantable size. Thus, at the time of defoliation the forest varied from old growth, either little modified or with a more or less broken canopy (due to selective felling), to areas where few large trees are scattered over stands of smaller trees, brush, bamboos, etc.

It will be evident that the magnitude and kind of effects of herbicides (and any other war-related disturbances) as well as the value of any loss, will depend considerably on whether a sprayed area was covered in forest trees, bamboo, or shrubs and brush, and whether the trees were large or small, young or old, and of merchantable species. It is in no sense a criticism of Rollet's work to say that his admittedly broad classification of forest types is too broad to furnish sufficient detail for an assessment of damage. Since it was not feasible to study the entire herbicide-sprayed area of SVN in detail through aerial photographs, we undertook to establish, by means of an analysis of the 1958 black and white aerial photography 1:50,000 scale (Section III A), a classification of MR III using "macro-types" related specifically to use, occurrence, size, and distribution of trees. The major vegetation types so established are illustrated in Figs. IV B-10 through IV B-14. They are:



Fig. IV B-10. Lowland Forest Type 1. The Closed forest is comprised of trees (large, small, or in mixtures) with patches of bamboos and brush over less than 30% of the area. Photo taken in 1972 at a scale of 1:2,000.

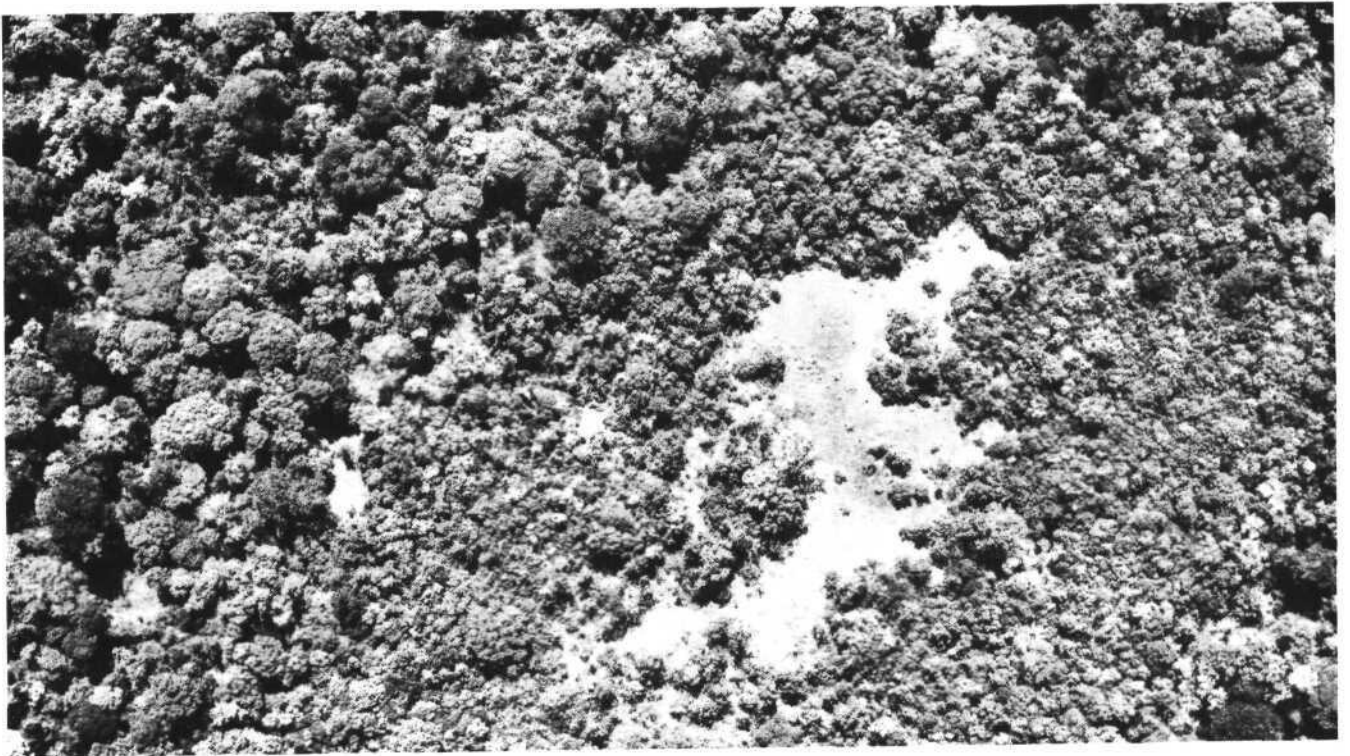


Fig. IV B-11. Lowland Forest Type 2. Similar type of forest to Type 1 but with bamboo, brush, and thickets comprising 30-60% of the area. Photo taken in 1972 at a scale of 1:2,000.

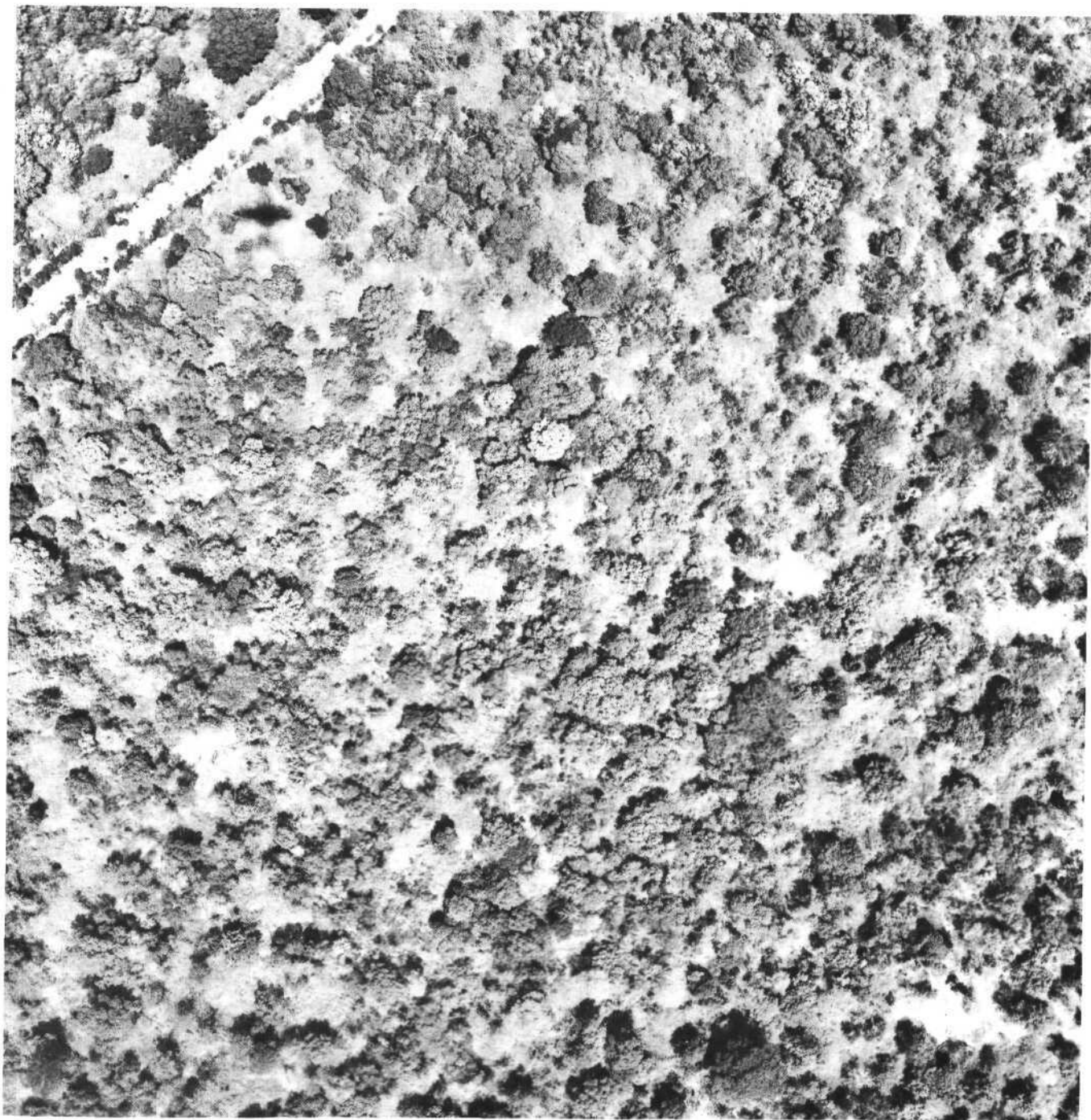


Fig. IV B-12. Lowland Forest Type 3. Mosaic of forest patches with extensive brush, clearings, and thickets of regrowth comprising 60-70% of the area. Photo taken in 1972 at a scale of 1:2,000.

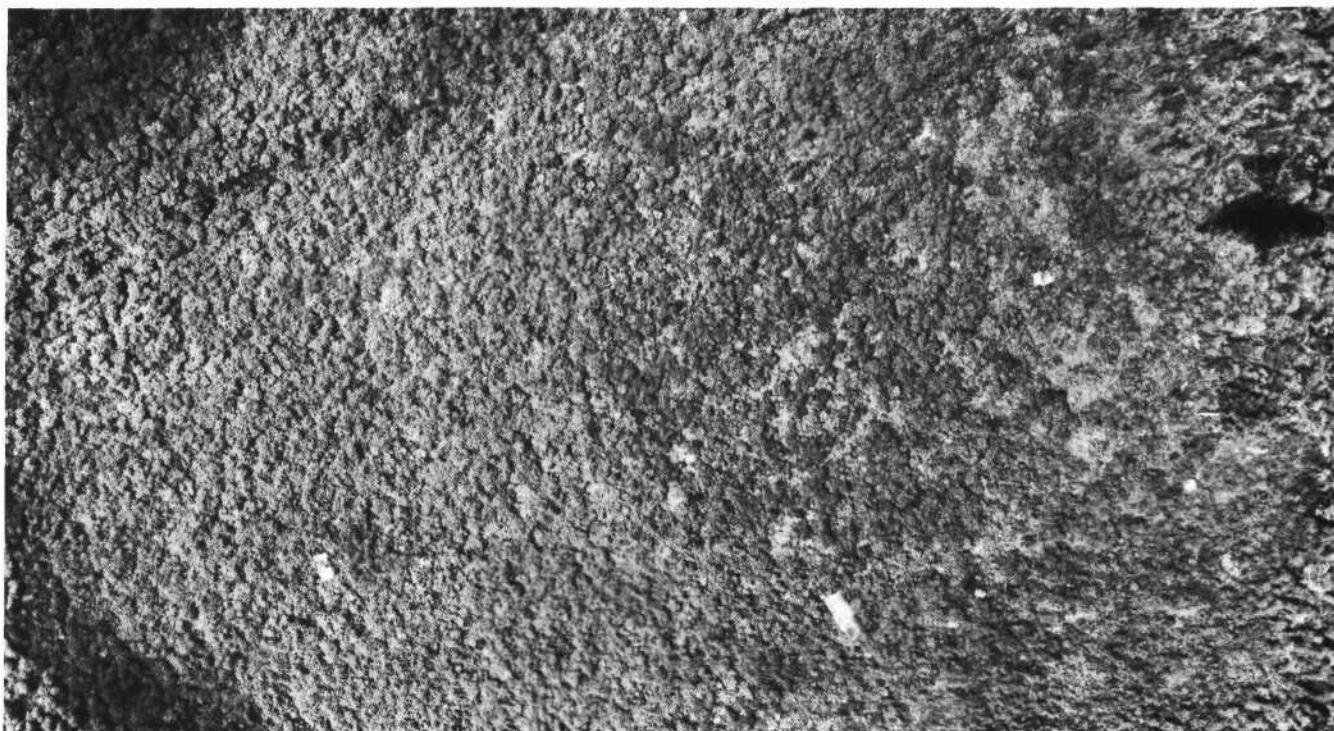


Fig. IV B-13. Cultivation Zone Type 1. Residual single trees and small clumps thinly scattered over largely inactive cultivation clearings, now covered with brush, bamboo, grasses, or small trees. Photo taken in 1972 at a scale of 1:2,000.

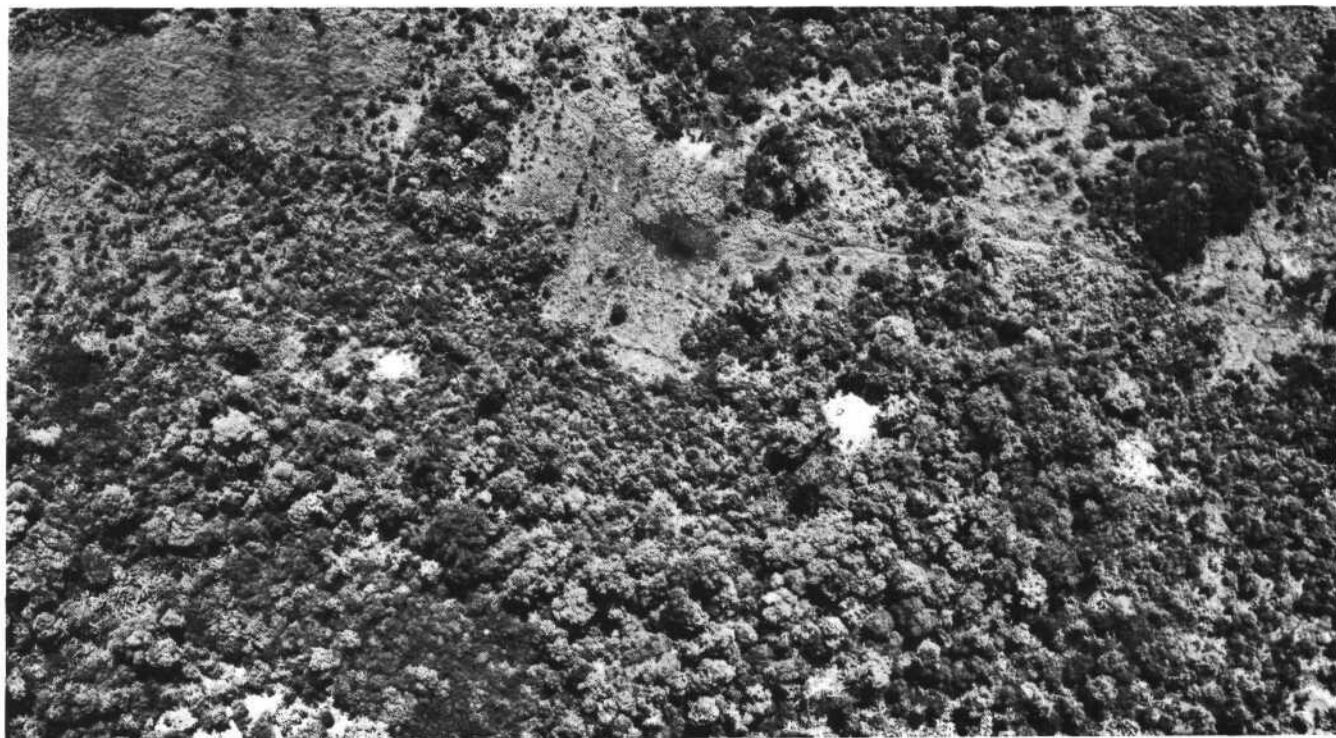


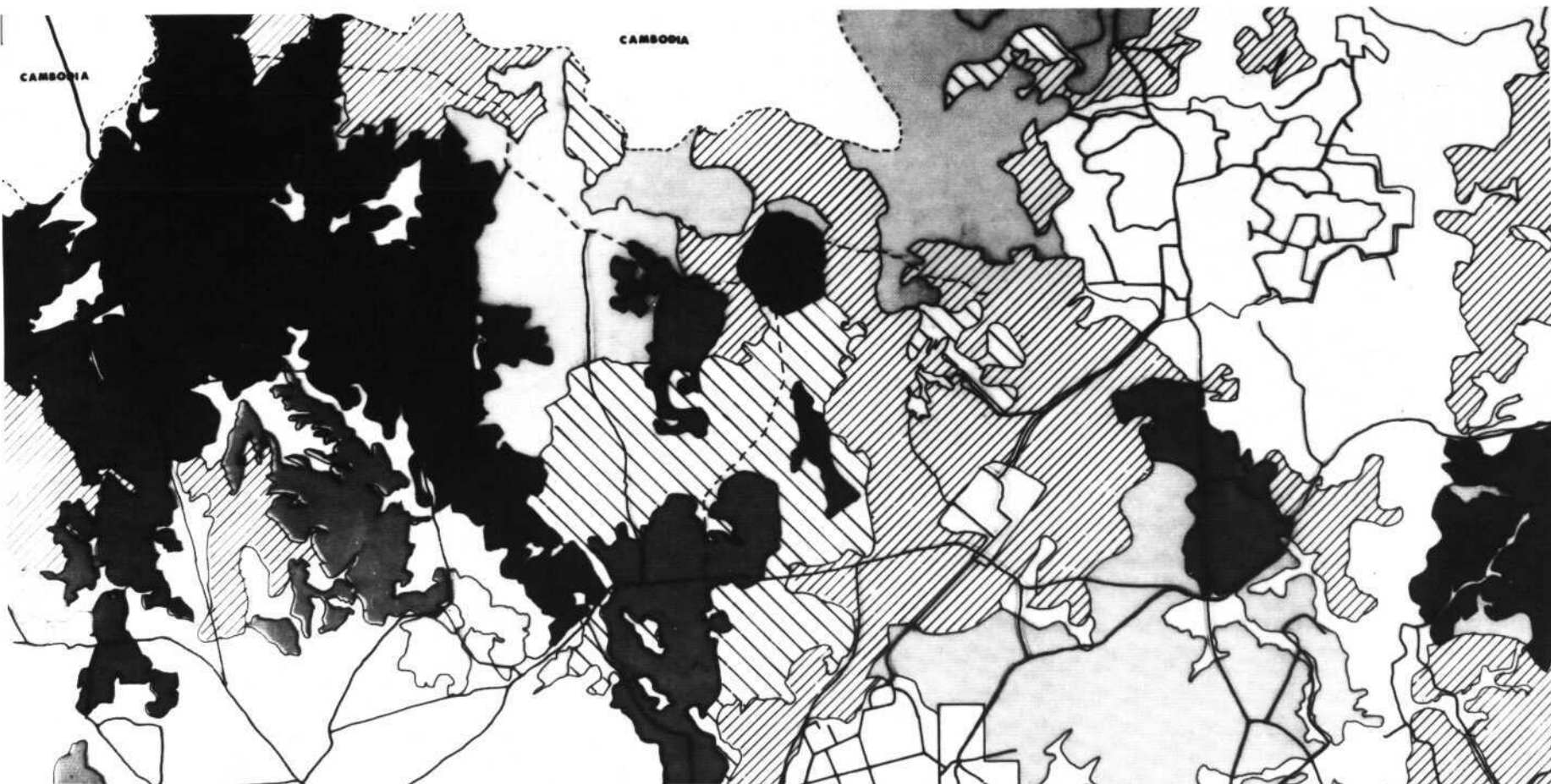
Fig. IV B-14. Cultivation Zone Type 2. Primarily swidden agriculture in mosaic of cultivated and fallow clearings. Very few scattered trees visible. Photo taken in 1972 at a scale of 1:2,000.

- Lowland Forest Type 1: Closed forest, are fully covered, trees may be large or small or mixture, with patches of bamboos and brush over less than 30 percent of area.
 forest 100-70%
 brush 0-30%
- Lowland Forest Type 2: Areas of closed forest as in 1, but with areas of bamboo, brush, and thickets comprising 30-60 percent of area.
 forest 70-40%
 brush 30-60%
- Lowland Forest Type 3: Mosaic of forest patches with extensive brush, clearings, and thickets of regrowth, comprising 60-90 percent of area.
 forest 40-10%
 brush 60-90%
- Cultivation Zone Type 1: Residual single trees and small clumps thinly scattered over largely inactive cultivation clearings, now covered in brush, bamboo, grass, or small trees.
- Cultivation Zone Type 2: Primarily active swidden agriculture in mosaic of cultivated and fallow clearings. Very few scattered forest trees visible.

This macro-typing provided the basis for estimating the pre-spray inventory of SVN. It was related to the Rollet vegetation typing to permit both an assessment of changes in land use between 1953 and 1958, and an extrapolation of inventory from MR III to all of SVN. Table IV B-1 shows the percentage composition equivalents of the Rollet vegetation types in terms of the macro-types based on the 1:50,000 scale 1958 photographs, and the percentage composition equivalents of these macro-types (1:50,000) in terms of the Rollet vegetation types. Figs. IV B-15 through B-17 show the Committee's macro-typing for the upper half of the XT Quadrangle, and the upper and lower halves of the YT Quadrangle, respectively.

Macro-typing of the sort that Rollet did and that of the Committee using the 1958 photos is broad in character. Areas given a particular classification will commonly include small patches of land that depart from the general type description. The Committee, therefore, went one step further and micro-typed a sample of the inland forest area in MR III.

This micro-typing was carried out using the 1:5,000 scale aerial color photographs which had been taken in 1972-1973 (Section III A [2]) and which represents a sample equal to 9 percent of the MR III inland forest area. These photos were also used to evaluate numbers of live trees by size categories and for estimating an inventory and for determining tree mortality. The micro-types recognized on the 1:5,000 scale photographs are as follows:



Map of North Half of XT Quadrangle (100 km x 50 km)






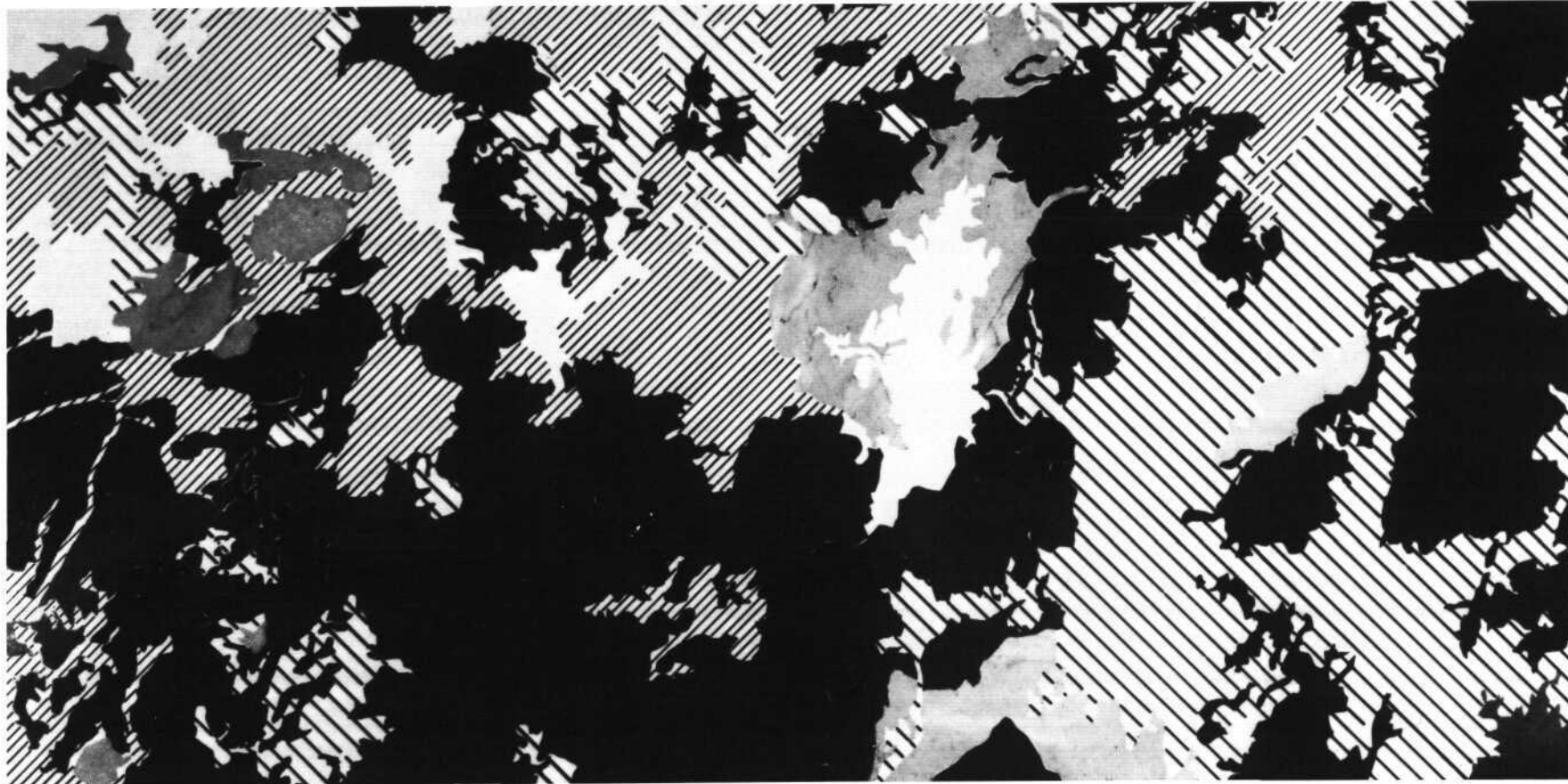
	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

Fig. IV B-15. Forest cover and residual forest and brush in shifting and swidden agriculture areas are indicated by shading. Unshaded areas are urban, permanent agriculture, rubber plantations, and wetlands.



Map of North Half of YT Quadrangle (100 km x 50 km)






	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

Fig. IV B-16. Forest cover and residual forest and brush in shifting and swidden agriculture areas as indicated by shading. Unshaded areas are urban, permanent agriculture, rubber plantations, and wetlands.



Map of South Half of YT Quadrangle (100 km x 50 km)






	Lowland Forest Type 1	100-70% forest 0-30% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 1	Scattered trees and inactive swidden agricultural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 2	70-40% forest 30-60% brush		Cultivated Zone Type 2	Scattered trees and active swidden agricul- tural clearings
	Lowland Forest Type 3	40-10% forest			

Fig. IV B-17. Forest cover and residual forest and brush in shifting and swidden agriculture areas as indicated by shading. Unshaded areas are urban, permanent agriculture, rubber plantations, and wetlands.

<u>Code</u>	<u>Size</u> ^a	<u>Description</u>
1 (secondary)	Small trees	Bamboo with a few trees
2 (secondary)	Small & medium trees	Trees and bamboo (about 1/2 on the basis of crown area)
2 ₁ (secondary)	Small & medium trees	Brush and bamboo
3 (secondary)	All sized trees	Trees (ground not generally visible)
3 ₁ (secondary)	All sized trees	Trees and brush
4 (open or thin)	Small & medium trees	Trees (ground visible)
4 ₁ (open or thin)	Small & medium trees	Trees and bamboo
4 ₂ (open or thin)	Small & medium trees	Trees and brush
5 (closed)	Large trees	Trees (ground not generally visible)
6 (non-forest)	Not applicable	Shifting agriculture or area otherwise disturbed
7 (non-forest)	Not applicable	Rivers, crops, settlements, roads, etc.
8 (non-forest)	Not applicable	Grass

Tables IV B-1 and IV B-2 show the percentage composition of Committee macro-types in terms of these micro-types, and the percentage of micro-types in terms of the macro-types.

^a The merchantable size classes are:

Small trees	= 10-20 m crown diameter
Medium trees	= 20-30 m crown diameter
Large trees	= 30 + m crown diameter

All forest types include, in addition to the merchantable size class trees, growing stock in less than merchantable size classes, and other non-merchantable trees and shrubs.

Table IV B-1.

Comparison of Inland Forest Composition in Military Region III According to the Vegetation Types of Rollet and the Committee's Macro-Types

(The Rollet types (Section III A-1) were transferred (by means of outlines on transparent overlays) from the Rollet (1956) map (1:1,000,000) onto the aerial photographs, World Wide Survey 1958 (1:50,000) on which the vegetation had been classified according to the Committee macro-types.)

A. Percentage composition of the five Committee macro-types in terms of the Rollet types.

Committee Macro-Types		Rollet Vegetation Types						Total
		1	2	3	4	5	15	
Lowland Forest Type	1	50	17	6	0	21	6	100
	2	17	28	3	0	49	3	100
	3	4	48	3	4	38	3	100
Cultivation Zone Type	1	4	24	8	1	54	9	100
	2	4	17	0	1	75	3	100

B. Percentage composition of the Rollet inland forest types in terms of the Committee macro-types.

Committee Macro-Types		Rollet Vegetation Types					
		1	2	3	4	5	15
Lowland Forest Type	1	75	16	33	0	13	28
	2	10	10	6	0	11	5
	3	5	40	14	67	20	12
Cultivation Zone Type	1	7	26	47	20	36	49
	2	3	8	0	13	20	6
Total		100	100	100	100	100	100

Inventory of Merchantable Volume

A forest inventory for SVN was estimated using the following information:

- a. An area of inland forest of 10,390,000 ha from Rollet (1956).
- b. An estimate of the percentage of the forest in each micro-type using the Rollet vegetation typing and the macro-type analysis.
- c. An estimate of the average number of trees of merchantable size from analysis of the 1:5,000 scale photographs.
- d. An estimate of the fraction of merchantable size trees that are of merchantable species based on comparable data from an inventory of Cambodia east of the Mekong River (Rollet, 1962b).
- e. An estimate of the utilizable volume of the merchantable trees based upon a study conducted in the forest products mills of SVN by the Committee.

These inputs to the estimated merchantable forest inventory are discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

The area of inland forests used in the determination of an estimated forest inventory for SVN is 10,390,000 ha. This includes the closed dense and secondary forests and the Dipterocarp and Lagerstroemia forests as indicated in the simplified Rollet classification shown in Table II E-2 of this report, but excludes the pine forests which occupy only a small area (180,000 ha) and which have had relatively little herbicide exposure. The inventory estimate does not include tree volumes on areas included under other Rollet classification types.

Using the distribution of micro-types as determined from studies of the sample represented by the 1:5,000 scale color photography, the fraction of the total inland forest area in MR III that was in each micro-type was estimated. In estimating the forest inventory for all of SVN it was assumed that these type-area relationships apply to the areas of SVN outside of MR III that were in the Rollet types included in the total inland forest area. Examination of aerial photography for areas outside of MR III suggests that this assumption is not greatly in error but the Committee did not have low-level, high-resolution photography for the forested areas of MR I and MR II; thus to the extent that this assumption may not be valid the estimate of forest area by type may be in error.

The number of live trees of merchantable size for each micro-type was determined by analyzing the 1:5,000 scale color photographs. Merchantability standards in terms of size were determined by studying the

logs being used for the manufacture of lumber and plywood in SVN during the Winter of 1972. For the latter purpose, a study was made of the average size of logs of utilizable species in the landings, log yards, and mill yards in SVN during the Winter of 1972. Included in the study were 43 sawmills and one plywood factory. This sample represented about 10 percent of the nation's active sawmills and its only plywood plant. On the basis of these data a 45 cm minimum diameter breast height (dbh) was assumed to be appropriate.^a A small fraction of the trees currently being used in SVN factories are in fact smaller than 45 cm; however, a comparison of this distribution of tree diameters with stand diameter distributions representing comparable forest types as reported in Cambodian and Thailand forest inventories indicates that most trees are harvested to minimum diameters substantially above 45 cm dbh (Gartner and Beuschel, 1963). Because of this the actual merchantable inventory volume based upon current utilization standards in SVN represents probably some overestimate. For any given time the appropriate minimum harvesting standards could be determined by comparing utilization practice with stand composition by species and the inventory adjusted accordingly. Such a comparison in SVN can, however, only be made when security conditions permit field checks of forest stands.

The determination of the number of merchantable trees in photographic samples was made by stereoscopic examination of the samples. The estimation of tree diameter was based upon a relationship between crown diameter and tree diameter for Southeast Asian hardwood trees. The use of crown measurements as a basis for estimating dbh for inventory purposes is a recognized forest mensuration technique. No field measures of tree diameter and crown diameter were available for the inland forests of SVN and to obtain them was impossible. It was decided, therefore, to utilize existing information from other countries whose forest types are similar to those of SVN. Crown maps and stand data were obtained from three locations in Thailand.^b These crown diameter-dbh data were obtained from forests in Thailand representing a wide variety of species growing under various ecological conditions. These forests and locations were:

^a The dbh was calculated from log measurements assuming an average stump height of one m (3.3 ft) and a breast height of 1.5 m (4.9 ft).

^b The crown maps and stand data from Thailand were prepared by a cooperating group of forest scientists from Kasetsart University, Bangkok, working under the direction of Sanga Sabhasri, at that time Dean of the College of Forestry and Vice Rector of the University.