

Do pesticides degrade in surface water receiving runoff from agricultural catchments? Combining passive samplers (POCIS) and compound-specific isotope analysis

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Highlights:

- POCIS-CSIA approach enables recording δ^{13} C of pesticides at ng.L⁻¹ range
- Uptake and extraction from POCIS cause no isotope effect for pesticides
- δ^{13} C values recorded in water confirmed degradation of S-metolachlor in soil
- δ^{13} C values indicate *in situ* degradation of dimethomorph Z in pond water
- Fresh applications of S-metolachlor were recorded by POCIS-CSIA approach

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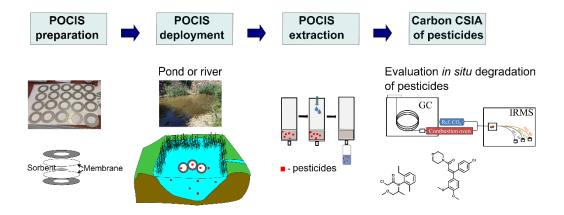
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Graphical abstract (13 x 5 cm)



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34 **Abstract**

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Pesticides lead to surface water pollution and ecotoxicological effects on aquatic biota. Novel strategies are required to evaluate the contribution of degradation to the overall pesticide dissipation in surface waters. Here, we combined polar organic chemical integrative samplers (POCIS) with compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) to trace in situ pesticide degradation in artificial ponds and agricultural streams. The application of pesticide CSIA to surface waters is currently restricted due to environmental concentrations in the low µg.L⁻¹ range, requiring processing of large water volumes. A series of laboratory experiments showed that POCIS enables preconcentration and accurate recording of the carbon isotope signatures (δ^{13} C) of common pesticides under simulated surface water conditions and for various scenarios. Commercial and in-house POCIS did not significantly ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C<1%) change the δ^{13} C of pesticides during uptake, extraction, and δ^{13} C measurements of pesticides, independently of the pesticide concentrations (1–10 µg.L⁻¹) or the flow speeds (6 or 14 cm.s⁻¹). However, simulated rainfall events of pesticide runoff affected the δ^{13} C of pesticides in POCIS. In-house POCIS coupled with CSIA of pesticides were also tested under different field conditions, including three flowthrough and off-stream ponds and one stream receiving pesticides from agricultural catchments. The POCIS-CSIA method enabled to determine whether degradation of S-metolachlor and dimethomorph mainly occurred in agricultural soil or surface waters. Comparison of δ^{13} C of Smetolachlor in POCIS deployed in in a stream with δ^{13} C of S-metolachlor in commercial formulations suggested runoff of fresh S-metolachlor in the midstream sampling site, which was not recorded in grab samples. Altogether, our study highlights that the POCIS-CSIA approach represents a unique opportunity to evaluate the contribution of degradation to the overall dissipation of pesticides in surface waters.

Keywords: Isotope analysis, pesticides, agricultural catchments, surface water, passive samplers

1. Introduction

The continuous and partially increasing use of pesticides in agriculture jeopardizes the ecological and chemical status of water resources and associated aquatic ecosystems, threatening human health (Mateo-Sagasta et al., 2017). In recent decades, efforts to reduce the use of pesticides have mostly failed, while global warming is expected to expand the prevalence of pests in the future and increase the societal dependence on chemical crop protection (Stokstad, 2018). In this context, novel strategies are needed to track the occurrence and transformation of pesticides in the environment and to guide the deployment of efficient and targeted strategies to reduce the use and harmfulness of pesticides.

The extent of pesticide transport from the application site toward surface waters depends on the complex interplay between pesticides and soil properties, hydroclimatic conditions, and site characteristics (e.g., drainage system) (Reichenberger et al., 2007). Small streams may be particularly at high risk of pesticide contamination because of adjacent agricultural areas, low dilution potential, and large runoff inputs after heavy rainfall events (Posthuma et al., 2020; Szöcs et al., 2017; Taghavi et al., 2011, 2010). Artificial ponds and constructed wetlands in agricultural landscapes are also often the first structures intercepting pesticide runoff events following applications (Reichenberger et al., 2007, Imfeld et al., 2021). Therefore, runoff events in agricultural catchments drive pesticide peaks in surface waters (Reichenberger et al., 2007; Taghavi et al., 2010). Overall, the interplay of biological (e.g., microbial degradation, plant transformation), chemical (e.g., hydrolysis, photolysis), and physical (e.g., sorption, dispersion) processes in aquatic systems may favor pesticide dissipation or storage in surface waters

(McKnight et al., 2015; Passeport et al., 2011a, 2011b). Aquatic systems, such as ponds, wetlands, and streams may thus limit pesticide inputs into freshwater, although little is known about the *in situ* processes of pesticide dissipation in environmental compartments.

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To estimate pesticide dissipation in surface waters, especially in ponds and wetland systems, a mass balance of the pesticides and their transformation products in different compartments is typically used (Chaumet et al., 2021). However, based on concentration data, it is not possible to assess the contribution of both degradative (i.e., biotic or abiotic degradation) and nondegradative (i.e., dilution, sorption) processes driving pesticide dissipation in surface waters, as both types of processes lead to a concentration decrease. In contrast, compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA) allows teasing apart dissipation processes, as it is directly correlated to degradation (Hunkeler et al., 2008; Meckenstock et al., 1999). Due to the slower reaction rate of bonds containing heavier isotopes, changes in δ^{13} C of the pollutant can be directly linked to degradation by a Rayleigh relationship (Urey, 1947). CSIA was first and widely applied to examine the degradation of highly concentrated industrial chemicals in aquifers (Hunkeler et al., 2008). CSIA applications to micropollutants in surface waters, including pesticides and pharmaceuticals, are currently constrained due to lower environmental concentrations of nonpoint pollution (Elsner and Imfeld, 2016). This issue can be partly overcome by collecting, processing, and extracting large water volumes to apply CSIA to micropollutants (Schreglmann et al., 2013; Torrentó et al., 2019). However, this may lead to a large matrix effect due to the limited extraction selectivity of classical extraction methods (Elsner and Imfeld, 2016), underscoring a need for alternative sampling strategies.

In surface water, pesticide concentrations are typically monitored by grab sampling and automated sampling, providing a snapshot of the concentrations (Rabiet et al., 2010). However, episodic events with pesticide concentration peaks associated with acute ecotoxicological risks may be overlooked (Polard et al., 2011). In this context, the passive sampling technique has been widely used to integrate mean concentrations of organic pollutants over extended sampling periods (<56 days) (Alvarez et al., 2004; Bernard et al., 2018a) and to preconcentrate micropollutants, allowing their detection in surface waters, even in trace concentration (11-68 pg.L⁻¹) (Harman et al., 2008). Polar organic chemical integrative sampling (POCIS) (Vermeirssen et al., 2012) is one of the most common passive sampling techniques used to record and preconcentrate organic compounds in water phase. The effect of pesticide concentrations on POCIS sampling rates, flow speeds, and water matrices with different dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations has been evaluated in several studies (Dalton et al., 2014; Gallé et al., 2020; Mazzella et al., 2007; Miège et al., 2012). To date, POCIS and CSIA have not been combined to evaluate micropollutant degradation in surface waters over extended periods.

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In this study, we coupled POCIS and CSIA to investigate pesticide degradation in surface waters. A series of laboratory experiments were designed to evaluate the ability of POCIS to concentrate and accurately record carbon isotope signatures (δ^{13} C) of selected herbicides, i.e., atrazine, terbutryn, *S*-metolachlor, and fungicides, i.e., metalaxyl, dimethomorph, and tebuconazole. The selected pesticides cover a wide range of frequently detected herbicides and fungicides that are potentially toxic to a broad range of organisms (Fang et al., 2019; Grégoire et al., 2010; Zubrod et al., 2019). We evaluated the effect of the matrices (distilled water (DI) and pond water with high DOC concentrations), pesticide concentrations (1–10 μ g.L⁻¹), flow speed conditions (6–14

cm.s $^{-1}$), and runoff events (combined effect of higher concentration 10 μ g.L $^{-1}$ and 14 cm.s $^{-1}$) on δ^{13} C values of selected pesticides for commercial and in-house (cost-effective) POCIS. Following validation in the laboratory, field deployments served as a benchmark to assess the potential of POCIS for a broad CSIA application of pesticides in agricultural catchments. POCIS was deployed in three artificial flow-through and off-stream ponds, characterized by different sizes, DOC concentrations, vegetation covers, types of surrounding agriculture, and pesticide inputs, in different French regions. POCIS was also deployed in a river tributary in an agricultural catchment.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals

Solvents (dichloromethane (DCM), acetonitrile (ACN), ethyl acetate (EtOAc), and methanol (MeOH)) were HPLC grade purity (>99.9%) and purchased from Sigma–Aldrich. Analytical standards (purity >98%) of atrazine, metalaxyl, *S*-metolachlor, *S*-metolachlor D-11, terbutryn, tebuconazole, and dimethomorph (Z and E isomers) were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich, PESTANAL. Metalaxyl, dimethomorph, and *S*-metolachlor from commercially available formulations and their isotope signatures used in the study are listed in Table S1. Pesticide stock solutions were prepared in ACN at 1 g. L⁻¹ and stored at -18 °C. An intermediate solution in DI water for spiking during laboratory experiments was prepared according to pesticide solubilities.

2.2. POCIS preparation

Commercial POCIS was purchased from AFFINISEP. Empty solid-phase extraction (SPE) cartridges were purchased from AFFINISEP or Thermo Scientific. In-house POCIS was

prepared using 250 mg of HyperSepTM Retain (Thermo Scientific) sorbent (equivalent to Oasis HLB sorbent (Waters)). The sorbent was placed between two microporous polyethersulfone (PES) membranes (0.1 μm pore size, 90 mm, outside diameter, Pall Corporation) and fixed tightly with two stainless steel rings (90 mm, outside diameter) and three screws (Figure S1). The surface areas of the in-house and commercial POCIS membranes were identical, i.e., 45.8 cm².

2.3. Calculation of sampling rates

Ficks law describes POCIS uptake of a pollutant, assuming a linear uptake of dissolved chemicals on the POCIS sorbent (Alvarez et al., 2004; Vrana et al., 2005). The duration of the linear uptake phase depends on external parameters (concentration, flow speed, etc.), and sorbent and compound physicochemical characteristics. In the uptake phase, the sampling rate (*Rs*) (L.day⁻¹) is estimated with Equation 1:

$$R_s = \frac{N_{POCIS}}{C_W \times t}$$
 Equation 1

where t is the exposure time (day), C_W is the time-weighted average concentration (μ g. L⁻¹), and N_{POCIS} is a pollutant amount in POCIS (μ g), which is molecule-dependent and influenced by environmental conditions. N_{POCIS} (μ g) and sorbent mass (M_{POCIS}) (g) define the pollutant concentration (C_{POCIS}) (μ g, g^{-1}) in POCIS:

$$C_{POCIS} = \frac{N_{POCIS}}{M_{POCIS}}$$
 Equation 2

The uptake phase is followed by an equilibrium partitioning phase with constant compound concentrations until the sorption capacity is reached.

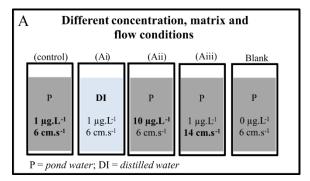
To mimic different flow speeds in all laboratory experiments, stirring with a magnetic stir bar was used. The stirring speed (round per minute, rpm) was calculated using the Reynold numbers calculation to reach the targeted flow speed:

$$rpm = \frac{v \times L \times \mu}{u \times D^2 \times \rho} \times 60$$
 Equation 3

where L (m) is the diameter of the beaker, u (m².s⁻¹) is the kinematic velocity, v (m.s⁻¹) is the flow speed, D (cm) is the length of the stirring bar, ρ (g.cm³) is the density, and μ (g.cm × min ⁻¹) is the dynamic velocity.

2.4. Experimental setup

Two experiments, A and B, were set up to evaluate the sampling rates (Rs) and associated carbon isotope fractionation ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) of selected pesticides for commercial and in-house POCIS. The water (~300 L) for Experiment A was collected from a stormwater pond in Rouffach (France) on 19th February 2020 and for Experiment B on 25th May 2020. The pond water was filtered through an 11 µm paper filter (Whatman®) to remove organic and inorganic particles and kept in the dark at 4°C. The physicochemical properties of the pond water are described in the Supporting Information (SI) (Table S6). Both experiments were set up under static renewal calibration, i.e., a closed system with a renewal of the pesticide solution at certain interval times (Figure 1).



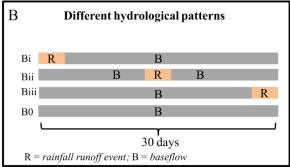


Figure 1. Pesticide uptake experiments coupling polar organic chemical integrative samplers (POCIS) and compound-specific isotope analysis (CSIA). (A) Experiment A included a control treatment (control) with pond water spiked with 1 μg. L⁻¹ of atrazine, metalaxyl, S-metolachlor, terbutryn, tebuconazole, and dimethomorph (Z and E isomers) and stirred at 6 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed; (Ai) a treatment with distilled water (DI) spiked with 1 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture and 6 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed; (Aii) a treatment with pond water spiked with 10 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture and 6 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed; and (Aiii) a treatment with pond water spiked with 1 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture and 14 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed, and a blank treatment without the addition of pesticides. (B) Experiment B simulates different hydrological patterns Bi, Bii, Biii, and B0 with two alternating conditions: R-runoff conditions – 14 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed, and 10 μg. L⁻¹ of five pesticides (metalaxyl (Ridgold[®] F formulation), terbutryn, tebuconazole, S-metolachlor D-11, and atrazine); and B – baseflow conditions – 6 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed, and 1 μg. L⁻¹ of four pesticides (metalaxyl (Sigma–Aldrich standard), terbutryn, tebuconazole, and S-metolachlor).

Experiment A (Figure 1A) evaluated the effect of (i) matrices (distilled (DI) and pond water (P)), (ii) pesticide concentrations, and (iii) flow speeds (6 and 14 cm.s-1) representative of baseflow and runoff event conditions within the stormwater pond. Experiment A consisted of five 5 L tanks containing eight commercial POCISs each (Figure 1A). A control treatment (Figure 1A-

control) with pond water was spiked with 1 µg. L⁻¹ of atrazine, metalaxyl, S-metolachlor, terbutryn, tebuconazole, and dimethomorph (Z and E isomers) and stirred at 6 cm.s⁻¹ flow speed (350 rpm). Four treatments were compared to the control and were set up (Ai) with distilled water (DI) spiked with 1 ug. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 6 cm.s⁻¹ (Figure 1A); (Aii) with pond water (Rouffach (France)) spiked with 10 µg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 6 cm.s⁻¹ (Figure 1A); and (Aiii) with pond water spiked with 1 µg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 14 cm.s⁻¹ (750 rpm) (Figure 1A). An unspiked blank treatment with pond water at 6 cm.s⁻¹ evaluated the background pesticide concentration on POCIS from the pond water and cross-contamination during the experiment (Figure 1A). Tanks were maintained at laboratory temperature (20 ± 1 °C) and covered with aluminium foil to prevent photodegradation and algal development. Water was changed in each tank after a day to determine the decrease in concentration. Following this assessment, the water was changed in each tank every 3-4 days, ensuring a constant pesticide concentration during the experiment (Table S2). Duplicate POCIS samples were collected from each treatment on Days 5, 10, 20, and 30. In parallel, water (100 mL) was collected 15 minutes after spiking and at the end of each exposure period for measuring pesticide concentrations and weekly (4 L) for CSIA of pesticides.

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Experiment B examined the influence of the alternation of hydrological patterns, i.e., base flow and runoff events, with consecutive high flow speed and pesticide concentrations and low flow speed and pesticide concentrations, on the pesticide uptake capacity of both commercial and inhouse (homemade) POCIS to reduce operation costs (Figure 1B). Higher pesticide concentration during runoff events mimiked transient pesticide peaks occurring after rainfall and lasting up to several hours in agricultural catchments. Three commercial and three in-house POCISs for each hydrological pattern were immersed consecutively in 5 L tanks during runoff conditions and in

24 L tanks during baseflow conditions. Four treatments, each lasting 30 days, were conducted in parallel under baseflow conditions, i.e., low flow and low pesticide concentration (6 cm.s⁻¹ flow, 1 μg⁻¹ mixture of metalaxyl (Sigma–Aldrich), terbutryn, tebuconazole, and *S*-metolachlor) (Figure 1B). Treatment B0 served as a control with permanent baseflow conditions. Treatments Bi, Bii, and Biii involved a 24-h simulated runoff event (14 cm.s⁻¹ flow, with 10 μg. L⁻¹ of each pesticide in the mixture) on Day 1 (treatment Bi), Day 15 (treatment Bii), or Day 30 (treatment Biii). During the simulated runoff event, water was spiked with 10 μg. L⁻¹ mixture of metalaxyl (Ridgold[®] F), terbutryn, tebuconazole, *S*-metolachlor D-11, and atrazine.

Different initial isotopic composition signatures of metalaxyl (Sigma–Aldrich, $\delta^{13}C = -31.5 \pm 0.1\%$ and Ridgold® F, $\delta^{13}C = -29.5 \pm 0.3\%$) (Table S1) in the runoff and baseflow tanks were used to evaluate the effect of a runoff event on the $\delta^{13}C$ of metalaxyl. To compare the uptake during the experiment, S-metolachlor D-11 was spiked in the runoff tanks to match the molecular structure of S-metolachlor in the baseflow tank. A fresh pesticide mixture in pond water was prepared every 6 days in the baseflow tank to maintain the pesticide concentration during the experiment. The pesticide mixture in the runoff tanks was freshly prepared before each POCIS immersion. All POCIS were collected after 30 days of immersion. Water (100 mL) was collected before and after each period of POCIS immersion for analysis of pesticide concentrations.

2.5.Deployment of POCIS in surface waters

POCIS were deployed in triplicate for 1 to 3 consecutive periods of 28 days in two flow-through ponds (Rouffach Pond (RP), Bassioué Pond (BP)), in the off-stream pond (Rampillon Pond (RLP), and one river (Rupt de Mad (RM) with constant high-flow and lower DOC than in the

ponds. A detailed comparison between ponds and river with pictures of deployment positions of POCIS and water phycochemical properties can be found in SI (Table S6, and S7, section S2.1).

2.6.Pesticide extraction from POCIS and water samples

Water samples were transported in coolers, immediately filtered through 0.45-µm glass filter membranes, and stored at 4 °C until analysis. Grab water samples were preconcentrated using an AutroTrace 280 SPE system (Dionex® 160) with SolEx C18 cartridges (1 g, Dionex®) (Elsayed et al., 2014). Briefly, extraction cartridges were washed with ethanol (5 mL), rinsed with ACN (5 mL), conditioned with deionized water (10 mL), loaded with the samples (10 mL. min⁻¹), and dried under nitrogen flux for 10 min. The target molecules were eluted with 5 mL of EtOAc followed by 5 mL of ACN. Extracts were evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen and reconstituted in 0.5 mL of ACN prior to concentration analysis and CSIA.

POCISs were transported on ice to the laboratory and generally extracted within 15 h after collection or frozen at -18 °C before extraction. Each POCIS was placed into a separate plastic bag to protect the membrane from damage and prevent drying. Each POCIS was carefully opened to transfer the sorbent into an empty solid-phase extraction (SPE) cartridge and covered from both sides by HDPE frits (AFFINISEP or Thermo Scientific). Samples were eluted using the SPE procedure (Lissalde et al., 2011). Briefly, cartridges were dried under a gentle stream of nitrogen for 20 min. This prolonged drying allowed removing all the water from the sorbent taken up from POCIS, while enabling the transfer of wet sorbent. Pesticides were then eluted (5 mL. min⁻¹) with successive 3 mL volumes of 100% MeOH and MeOH:EtOAc, 75:25 (v/v). Extracts were evaporated up to dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen and reconstituted in 0.5 mL of ACN. For some samples, an additional preconcentration step (up to 10 times) by solvent

evaporation under nitrogen enabled CSIA measurements. After extraction, the POCIS sorbent was dried and weighed to determine M_{POCIS} (Equation 2).

2.7. Chemical analysis

2.7.1. Hydrochemistry

Conductivity, pH, dissolved oxygen concentration and redox conditions were directly measured in the ponds and river water using WTW multi 350i sensors (Rouffach and Rupt de mad) or AquaTROLL (Bassioué Pond). The hydrochemical composition of the water was analysed by ionic chromatography (IC) and inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy using ISO laboratory procedures (Table S7), as described elsewhere(Lucas et al., 2010).

2.7.2. Pesticide quantification

Pesticides were analysed with a gas chromatograph (GC, Trace 1300, ThermoFisher Scientific) coupled to a mass spectrometer (MS, ISQTM, ThermoFisher Scientific). Chromatographic separation was performed with a TG-5MS column (30 m \times 0.25 mm ID, 0.25 μ m film thickness). *S*-metolachlor D-11 or atrazine D-5 were systematically used as internal standards. Additional parameters are described in SI (Table S1). All samples were diluted to be within the linear range (100 μ g,L⁻¹ to 1 mg,L⁻¹).

2.7.3. CSIA of pesticides

CSIA measures the ratio of a heavy isotope of an element (e.g., ¹³C) to the light stable isotope (e.g., ¹²C) for individual compounds. All isotopic measurements are reported in delta notation:

$$\delta^{13}C = \left[\frac{\binom{13C}{12C}}_{sample} - 1\right]$$
 Equation 4

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where $\delta^{13}C$ is the isotopic value (‰), $\left(\frac{^{13}C}{^{12}C}\right)_{sample}$ is the ratio of heavy to light isotopes in the sample, and $\binom{^{13}C}{^{12}C}_{standard}$ is the ratio of heavy to light isotopes in the standard on an international isotopic scale. Carbon isotope signatures ($\delta^{13}C$) of pesticides were measured using a GC-C-IRMS system consisting of a TRACETM Ultra Gas Chromatograph (ThermoFisher Scientific) coupled via a GC IsoLink/Conflow IV interface to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (DeltaVplus, ThermoFisher Scientific). Chromatographic separation was performed on a TG-5MS column (60 m \times 0.25 mm ID, 0.25 μ m film thickness). Samples were injected in split/splitless modes, depending on pesticide concentration, with an injection volume of 2 µL and injector temperature of 250 °C. Samples were injected in triplicate, and $\delta^{13}C$ values are reported as the arithmetic mean. A laboratory standard of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene (BTEX) standard mix was injected at the beginning of each session to check the conversion performance of the instrument. $\delta^{13}C$ of pesticide standards were calibrated relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) scale with EA-IRMS (Flash EA IsoLinkTM CN IRMS, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using a two-point calibration with international reference materials AIEA600, USGS40, and USGS41. Standard injections with known isotopic signatures of atrazine, metalaxyl, S-metolachlor, terbutryn, tebuconazole, and dimethomorph (Z and E isomers) (Table S1) were injected every six samples to ensure the accuracy of the measurements. The reproducibility of δ^{13} C measurements ranged from ± 0.4 % to ± 0.6 %.

Carbon isotope fractionation ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) <1 ‰ for pesticide standards before and after uptake and extraction from POCIS was considered not significant in all laboratory experiments based on the reproducibility of measured pesticides (Sherwood Lollar et al., 2007).

The extent of biodegradation (B) (%) was calculated using isotope fractionation values $\varepsilon_{bulk,C}$ according to Equation 5.

$$B = \left(1 - \left(\frac{\delta^{13}C(t) + 1}{\delta^{13}C_0 + 1}\right)^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_{bulk,C}}}\right) \times 100$$
 Equation 5

2.7.4. Statistical analysis

Rs values were compared among treatments using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test of normality. Depending on data normality, data were compared using one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD tests for multiple comparisons, or by Kruskal–Wallis tests followed by the Wilcoxon–Mann–Whitney post hoc tests, at α =0.05. All tests were performed with R (Version R_4.1.0; R Core Team, 2020) using the packages tidyverse, readxl, gridExtra, ggpubr, plotrix. A linear regression model without forcing through zero was used to evaluate the uptake linearity.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Laboratory experiment A: Effect of the matrix, pesticide concentration, and flow speed on POCIS rates (Rs) and δ^{13} C

Effect on sampling rates (R_S). No pesticides were detected in the blank treatment, confirming pesticide concentrations below the detection limit in the pond water and excluding cross-contamination during the experiment, preparation, and extraction (Figure 1A). Pesticide concentrations remained constant (Table S2) in all treatments (Fig. 1A), with a mean variation of

 $\pm 0.2~\mu g.L^{-1}$ for the control, matrix (Ai), and flow (Aiii) treatments, and $\pm 1.8~\mu g.L^{-1}$ for the concentration (Aii) treatment.

Pesticide uptake by POCIS was gradual and linear in all treatments over the 30 days of immersion (Table S3, Figure S2), enabling estimation of R_S with Equation 1 (Figure 2). Overall, R_S values were in the range generally determined for POCIS in both laboratory and field experiments (Table S4). The R_S values did not differ significantly (p>0.05) in the control treatment with pond water and treatment with distilled water (Figure 2 (Ai)). Hence, DOC (~10 mg.L⁻¹) did not affect R_S values, as only approximately 1% of pesticides were bound to DOC (data not shown), in agreement with previous results (Charlestra et al., 2012), but contrasting with another study with DOC concentrations of up to 10 mg.L⁻¹ (Gourlay et al., 2005). This suggests that the type of organic carbon affects the capacity of passive samplers to take up pesticides (Gourlay et al., 2005).

The pesticide concentration generally did not affect Rs values (Figure 2 (Aii)), in agreement with previous studies (Bernard et al., 2018b; Mazzella et al., 2008; R. B. Taylor et al., 2020). However, tebuconazole exhibited slight but significantly (p<0.05) lower Rs values (0.11± 0.01 L.day⁻¹) at a high concentration (10 μ g.L⁻¹) compared to the control treatment (0.14±0.02 L.day⁻¹), which may be due to competition between pesticides during POCIS uptake. The sorption of nonionic pesticides onto Oasis-like sorbents is primarily explained by apolar interactions (Harman et al., 2008). However, interactions with the PES membrane, especially for neutral compounds, as well as competitive sorption related to the matrix, have also been reported to influence Rs values (A. C. Taylor et al., 2020; Vermeirssen et al., 2012).

In contrast, a higher flow speed (Figure 2 (Aiii), 14 cm.s⁻¹) significantly (p<0.05) increased Rs for all pesticides. The mean Rs values for all pesticides ranged from 0.12 to 0.17 L.day⁻¹ for the control treatment (6 cm.s⁻¹) and from 0.16 to 0.29 L.day⁻¹ for the high flow speed treatment (14 cm.s⁻¹). Our results are in line with previous studies, indicating that Rs values increase with higher flow velocity due to thinning out of the water boundary layer (Alvarez et al., 2004; Gallé et al., 2020; Mazzella et al., 2008).

It is worth noting that the terbutryn Rs was significantly lower (p< 0.05) than the Rs of the other pesticides in all treatments (Figure 2). Although Oasis HLB-like resins can be used for pesticides with $\log K_{ow}$ from 0 to 4, the uptake of compounds with high $\log K_{ow}$, such as terbutryn ($\log K_{ow} = 3.7$), remains low (Ibrahim et al., 2013). In contrast, Rs of tebuconazole ($\log K_{ow} = 3.7$) had similar Rs to the more polar pesticides but was also sensitive to concentration changes. Tebuconazole may have a lower affinity for sorbing on PES membranes than terbutryn and/or a

Chemicals, 2021)). Overall, these results suggest that $\log K_{ow}$ alone cannot predict Rs values, similarly to other passive samples (e.g. Chemcatcher[®]), and water solubility and molecular weight of compounds are also useful parameters in predicting the uptake (Ahrens et al., 2015).

higher affinity for sorbing on Oasis HLB-like resins (octanol/water coefficient, $\log K_{OC\ tebuconazole}$

= 3.2 and $\log K_{OC\ terbutryn}$ =2.8; (European Centre for Ecotoxicology and Toxicology of

POCIS exposure to different conditions

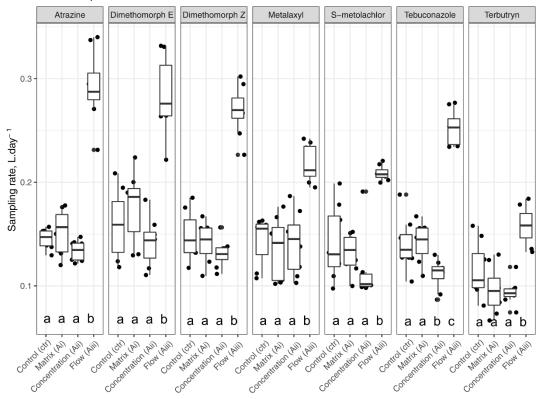


Figure 2. Sampling rates (*Rs*) for pesticide uptake by polar organic chemical integrative samplers (POCIS) for A-control (P, 1 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 6 cm.s⁻¹), (Ai) matrix (DI, 1 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 6 cm.s⁻¹), (Aii) concentrations (P, 10 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 6 cm.s⁻¹), and (Aiii) flow (P, 1 μg. L⁻¹ of the pesticide mixture at 14 cm.s⁻¹) treatments presented in the form of box plots (McGill et al., 1978). The same letter (a, b, c) for each chemical denotes similar (p<0.05) *Rs* values among experiments. DI- distilled water, P-Rouffach pond water. An outlier is defined as a data point that is located outside the whiskers of the box plot.

Effect of POCIS uptake on carbon isotope signature ($\delta^{13}C$). The $\delta^{13}C$ values of pesticides in water collected did not change ($\Delta\delta^{13}C$ <1‰) over time (Figure S3). This indicates that water exchange and spiking did not affect pesticide $\delta^{13}C$ in the tanks over 30 days. Pesticide uptake in

POCIS and subsequent extraction did not result in significant isotope fractionation ($\Delta \delta^{13}$ C<1%) for all pesticides and treatments (Figure S4). However, matrix effects with peak coelution occured during GC-IRMS measurements of atrazine, metalaxyl, and terbutryn extracted from POCIS collected from both control and flow treatments after 10 days of immersion (Figure S5). Nevertheless, coelutions became negligible for longer immersion times (Days 20 and 30) as pesticide concentrations increased relative to baseline levels (Figure S5). This underscores the capacity of POCIS to preconcentrate pesticides faster than pond organic matter, provided that the deployment time is sufficient. The pesticide/baseline ratio may increase in media with lower matrix interferences, e.g., stream, thereby lowering the limit for reliable CSIA from POCIS. Based on the measured Rs values, an average pesticide concentration in water of 100-200 ng.L⁻¹ during 30 days of exposure was sufficient for reliable carbon CSIA of tebuconazole, Smetolachlor, and dimethomorph Z and E. Reliable carbon CSIA for atrazine, metalaxyl, and terbutryn would typically require higher concentrations (300-600 ng.L⁻¹). Hence, POCIS appears relevant in moderately (concentration >100 ng.L⁻¹) contaminated surface waters. In particular, POCIS can provide accurate pesticide CSIA during hydrological events following applications when pesticide concentrations increase in surface waters.

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3.2. Laboratory experiment B: Effect of transient high flow conditions and high pesticide concentrations on POCIS rates (Rs) and $\delta^{13}C$

Effect on sampling rates (R_S). Pesticide concentrations remained constant in all treatments, with an average variation of ± 0.39 µg. L⁻¹ for the baseflow and ± 1.4 µg. L⁻¹ under high flow and high pesticide concentration, respectively (Table S5). Overall, a short simulated runoff event within a one-month exposure period significantly increased pesticide uptake by POCIS, except in the

treatment with a simulated runoff event on Day 30 and with commercial POCIS. This is consistent with Experiment A, showing that a higher flow speed (14 cm.s⁻¹) significantly (p<0.05) increased pesticide uptake, with higher concentrations (10 μ g.L⁻¹), resulting in higher *Rs* values.

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Cumulative Rs values did not differ significantly (p<0.05) between commercial and in-house POCIS under changing flow conditions (Figure 3), confirming similar compositions of sorbents in both samplers. However, Rs values differed significantly between the in-house and commercial POCIS under high flow conditions for treatments Bii and Biii, with highest p-values of 0.003 and 0.047 respectively. The in-house POCIS similarly recorded the simulated pesticide runoff events on Day 0 (treatment Bi), Day 15 (treatment Bii), and Day 30 (treatment Biii). Hence, in-house POCIS could capture a runoff event even after 30 days of exposure under baseflow conditions. However, R_s values for all pesticides varied among treatments Bi, Bii, and Biii with commercial POCIS (Figure 3; p< 0.05). The lower Rs observed in treatment Biii suggest that commercial POCIS may not capture a runoff event occurring after a long (29 days) period under base flow conditions, likely due to limited uptake capacity. Darker membranes (Figure S6) and sorbent material (data not shown) at the end of the experiment also suggest higher DOC accumulation in commercial than in-house-built POCIS. In previous studies, POCIS could capture short peaks of pesticides (Bernard et al., 2018a; Mazzella et al., 2008, 2007) in experiments with distilled or tap water, and with shorter (9, 14, and 21 days) exposure times than in our experiment. Overall, our results highlight that the ability of POCIS to record short periods of pesticide exposure during runoff events should be systematically tested and account for the effect of the environmental matrix.

It is also worth noting that the positioning of POCIS in the tank and inhomogeneous flow during stirring may have led to higher variabilities in R_s values in treatment Biii with in-house POCIS and treatment Bii with commercial POCIS. This was particularly pronounced for atrazine and S-metolachlor-D11, which were present only in the tank under high flow conditions. This suggests that stirring in static experiments with renewal calibration to evaluate POCIS uptake may not systematically reproduce homogeneous flow and uptake. In turn, this may increase the uncertainty associated with R_s values during short exposure to pesticide during runoff events.

Altogether, POCIS preferentially captures short runoff events with higher pesticide concentrations. This supports the idea that POCIS may be used in surface waters to integrate baseflow conditions while capturing runoff events with high pesticide concentrations.

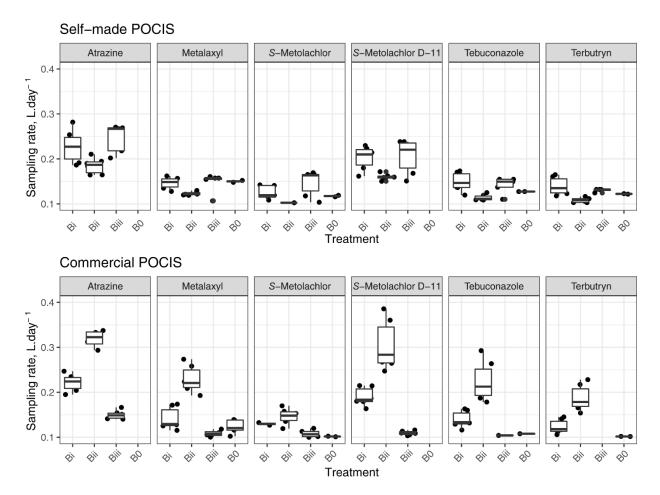


Figure 3. Sampling rates, *Rs*, in chemical integrative samplers (POCIS) in Experiment B for inhouse and commercial POCIS presented in a form of box plots with Runoff Event Bi – on Day 0; Bii – on Day 15; Biii – on Day 30; and B0 - no runoff event. An outlier is defined as a data point that is located outside the whiskers of the box plot.

Effect of POCIS uptake on carbon isotope signatures of pesticides ($\delta^{13}C$). Overall, POCIS accurately recorded the $\delta^{13}C$ of pesticides in treatments under varying hydrological patterns. Pesticide concentrations were sufficient for CSIA of metalaxyl, terbutryn, S-metolachlor and tebuconazole. The concentrations of atrazine and S-metolachlor D-11 under high flow conditions were below the detection limit for carbon CSIA due to the short exposure time (24 h) limiting POCIS uptake. Pesticide CSIA was not feasible for terbutryn due to a strong matrix effect,

suggesting different pond water matrix in Experiments A and B. It is therefore recommended to collect large volumes of water to identify possible peak coelution with the target analytes before deploying POCIS in the field.

The δ^{13} C values of tebuconazole and *S*-metolachlor in in-house and commercial POCIS did not change after 30 days of exposure (Figure 4 A). The different initial δ^{13} C values of metalaxyl in the baseflow and runoff tanks were used to estimate the contribution of a runoff event to the overall pesticide uptake based on the δ^{13} C of metalaxyl in POCIS. As expected, the δ^{13} C of metalaxyl in POCIS (Figure 4 B) was close to the δ^{13} C of the Sigma–Aldrich standard in the treatment without runoff (B0), and between the δ^{13} C values of the two standards (Sigma–Aldrich and Ridgold® F, Table S1) in treatments Bi, Bii, and Biii. The δ^{13} C values of metalaxyl in commercial and in-house-built POCIS were similar ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C<1‰), except in treatment Bii ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C>1‰), where the δ^{13} C value for commercial POCIS was similar to that of Ridgold® F. This is consistent with the higher R_s for commercial POCIS in treatment Bii (Figure 3).

These results indicate that a runoff event carrying a pesticide with a different $\delta^{13}C$ than that of baseflow conditions may affect the $\delta^{13}C$ of pesticides in POCIS deployed in surface water. If pesticide degradation occurs in the agricultural soil (Alvarez-Zaldivar et al., 2018) before the pesticide runoff enters into surface water, the $\delta^{13}C$ of pesticides in POCIS would reflect pesticide degradation in both the soil and surface water. Under baseflow conditions, the $\delta^{13}C$ of pesticides in POCIS may only reflect significant pesticide degradation in surface water. Overall, results of the laboratory experiments under both static and dynamic flow conditions validate the use of POCIS for accurate integrative CSIA of pesticides in surface water.

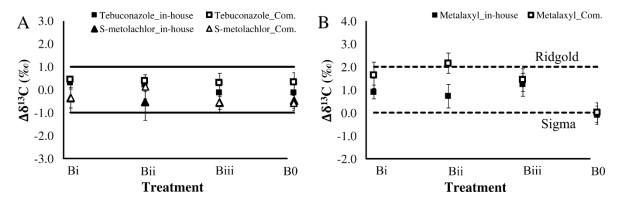


Figure 4. (A) Change in carbon isotope signature ($\Delta\delta^{13}C$) for pesticide during POCIS uptake in Experiment B. Straight lines represent $\pm 1\%$ from the $\delta^{13}C$ standard value. (B) Mixing between two standards of metalaxyl. Two dashed lines represent two different standards of metalaxyl.

3.3. POCIS-CSIA approach to evaluate pesticide degradation in ponds and river water

Several pesticides were detected in water samples and POCIS from three ponds and river (Table S8). The widely used fungicide dimethomorph (isomer Z) could be preconcentrated in POCIS extracts, i.e., 20,000-fold (to reach 5 mg.L⁻¹) compared to its mean concentration (100 ng.L⁻¹) in water of the RP pond, enabling carbon CSIA. CSIA was also possible for *S*-metolachlor in POCIS collected from RPL and BP ponds and RM river (Figure 5). It is also worth noting that the limit for carbon CSIA of S-metolachlor was nearly five times lower in the RM river samples than in the pond samples with higher DOC content.

The δ^{13} C value of commercial formulations (-33.0 ± 0.3‰ for dimethomorph E and Z and δ^{13} C=-32.1 ± 0.3 ‰ for S-metolachlor; Table S1) were used as the source signature (Equation 5, δ^{13} C₀) and compared with δ^{13} C of dimethomorph and S-metolachlor in POCIS and water grab samples. The threshold of $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C>2 ‰ was defined as a significant carbon isotope effect due to pesticide transformation (Figure 5) (Hunkeler et al., 2008).

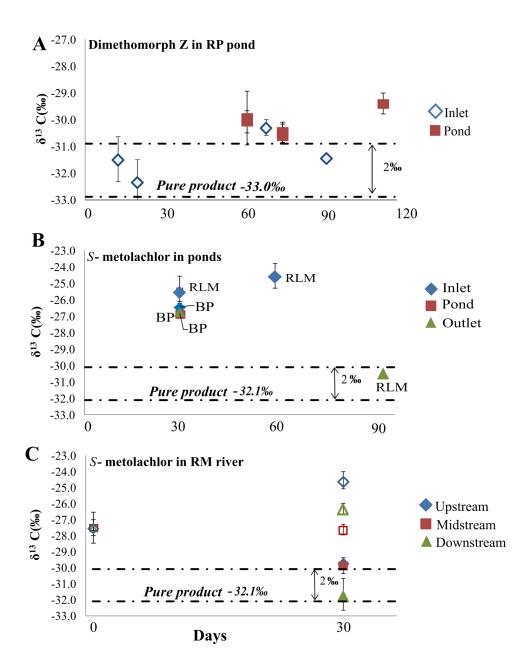


Figure 5. δ^{13} C of pesticides in polar organic chemical integrative samplers (POCIS) (filled symbols) and water samples (empty symbols) deployed at the inlet or upstream (diamonds), pond or midstream (square), outlet or downstream (triangle) for (A) dimethomorph Z in stormwater RP pond in Rouffach; (B) S-metolachlor in BP pond in Aurade and in RLP pond in Rampillon; and (C) S-metolachlor in RM Rupt de Mad stream. The dashed-dotted line represents the 2 % range for δ^{13} C of the pure product. δ^{13} C of pesticides in POCIS are the results of 30 days

exposure time *- represents possible pesticide application periods. The error bars for water samples represent the measurement reproducibility (n=3).

Dimethomorph in RP pond. In POCIS deployed in the RP, $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C up to 3.6 ‰ of dimethomorph Z in water compared with GRIP TOP® (Figure 5A) indicated degradation in the pond or in the vineyard soil. However, δ^{13} C values of dimethomorph Z in water at the pond inlet were similar to those of the GRIP TOP® formulation ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C<2‰), except on day 68. This suggests that degradation mainly occured in the RP pond, while vineyard soil may not be the primary compartment for dimethomorph Z degradation. Furthermore, a $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C for dimethomorph Z was observed between POCIS from day 112 and water at the pond inlet from day 90 (no rain event between these days). This supports further the idea that dimethomorph Z mainly degraded in the pond. Biodegradation in the sediments and photodegradation on the surface of water are the main putative transformation processes affecting dimethomorph Z in the RF pond (Avetta et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2020). Provided that $\epsilon_{\rm C}$ will be derived in reference laboratory experiments, degradation of dimetomorph Z may be quantified.

S-metolachlor in ponds. Similar δ^{13} C values (-26.6 ± 0.3%; n=9) for S-metolachlor measured in POCIS in the three sampling points in BP pond suggested limited degradation in the pond (Figure 5B). However, these δ^{13} C values were 5.6 % ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) higher compared to the δ^{13} C of S-metolachlor in commercial formulations, indicating significant S-metolachlor biodegradation in the agricultural soil hydrologically connected to the BP pond. Biodegradation (Equation 5) for S-metolachlor in soil ranged from 92 to 99%, using an average $\varepsilon_{\rm C}$ = -1.8 ± 0.5 retrieved from soil biodegradation studies (Table S9). Similarly, significant isotope fractionation ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C =7.1 %) for S-metolachlor between pond inlet water in RPL pond and commercial formulations suggested

S-metolachlor biodegradation (estimated from 96 to 99 %) in the agricultural soil (Figure 5B). In RPL pond, S-metolachlor from POCIS collected on day 90 had a δ^{13} C value similar to that of S-metolachlor in commercial formulations ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C<2 %). This suggests that POCIS could capture the late winter application of S-metolachlor. Hence, POCIS deployed before and after pesticide application allowed to integrate fast change in δ^{13} C, which mirrored either degradation in soil or fresh application of S-metolachlor.

Overall, the results from BP and RLP ponds support the idea that biodegradation of *S*-metolachlor in agricultural soil is the prevailing process responsible for carbon isotope fractionation (Alvarez-Zaldivar et al., 2018; Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2021; Rose et al., 2018). Similar $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C of about 5 ‰ for *S*-metolachlor were observed in leachates from vegetated forest soil (Pérez-Rodríguez et al., 2021) and *in situ* in the agricultural catchment (Alvarez-Zaldivar et al., 2018).

S-metolachlor in the RM river. S-metolachlor CSIA was carried out from grab samples and POCIS in RM river, allowing comparison of both sampling approaches. Grab samples collected on day 0 had consistent values of -27.5 \pm 0.6 % at all sites (Figure 5C), yielding estimates of S-metolachlor degradation from 86 to 92%. Comparatively, S-metolachlor in the grab samples on day 30 was isotopically enriched in ¹³C throughout the flow path ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C=3 %). In contrast, δ^{13} C values of S-metolachlor in POCIS collected on day 30 were similar (-29.8 % for upstream and downstream points) along the flowpath. The δ^{13} C values of S-metolachlor in POCIS deployed in the midstream and commercial formulations were similar ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C<2 %). Hence, runoff of fresh S-metolachlor depleted in ¹³C could be recorded by the POCIS samplers, especially in the midstream sampling site, but not by the grab samples. This suggests nearby S-metolachlor

application or lower degradation capacity in the soil of the midstream area of the catchment. In comparison to POCIS, the isotope data obtained from grab samples provided more sensitive but punctual information on *in situ* degradation in surface water.

4. Conclusions

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The POCIS-CSIA approach holds potential for reliable assessment of δ^{13} C for widespread and commonly detected pesticides at environmental concentrations in surface waters. Our results show that coupling carbon CSIA and POCIS is feasible for S-metolachlor and dimethomorph in surface waters and can help evaluate pesticide degradation. In-house POCIS is a cost-effective and time-efficient approach compared to processing large volumes of water that can be customized with different POCIS designs, membranes, and sorbent, depending on the target pollutants. When isotope fractionation values for specific pesticide degradation process have been determined under representative conditions in laboratory experiments, pesticide degradation may be estimated in surface waters without additional information on pesticide concentrations or transformation products. However, the feasibility of POCIS application for CSIA depends on pesticide concentrations, the degradation extent, and the corresponding isotope fractionation. Significant degradation was required to measure isotope fractionation ($\Delta \delta^{13}$ C>2%) for Smetolachlor and dimethomorph due to their large number of carbon atoms and subsequent dilution effect. Here, multielement CSIA with chlorine CSIA, if a bond with chlorine atom is broken during degradation, shows promise for tracing pesticide behavior in situ (Torrentó et al., 2021). Additionally, coelution with the surface water matrix may severely limit isotope measurements and should be systematically verified before applying the POCIS-CSIA approach. Whenever possible, one or several clean-up strategies, depending on the complexity of the

matrix, should be used. For instance, molecularly imprinted polymers (MIP) together with POCIS may help preconcentrate the target pesticide while limiting the matrix effect (Berho et al., 2020, 2017). Overall, we anticipate that this study may pave the way for a widespread application of the POCIS-CSIA approach to evaluate the contribution of degradation to the overall dissipation of a variety of micropollutants in waters.

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