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FIELD MEASUREMENT AND MODELLING OF CHLOROTOLURON AND FLUFENACET PERSISTENCE IN UNAMENDED AND AMENDED SOILS

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1 ABSTRACT

The dissipation and persistence of two cereals herbicides, chlorotoluron and flufenacet, 2 3 were studied in a field experiment including three replicated plots of unamended soil (S), soil amended with spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS), and soil amended with 4 green compost (S+GC), during the winter wheat cultivation campaign. The SMS and 5 GC organic residues were applied to the soil at rates of 140 or 85 t residue ha^{-1} , and 6 herbicides were sprayed as Erturon[®] and Herold[®] formulations for chlorotoluron and 7 flufenacet, respectively. Concentrations of both herbicides and of their metabolites were 8 9 regularly measured in the three soil treatments (0-10 cm) from 0 to 339 days. The dissipation kinetics fitted well the single first order (SFO) model, except that of 10 11 chlorotoluron that fitted the first order multi-compartment (FOMC) model better in the unamended soil. The dissipation rates of herbicides were lower in amended than in 12 unamended soils. The results also showed that the DT_{50} of chlorotoluron (66.2-88.0 13 14 days) and flufenacet (117-145 days) under field conditions were higher than those previously obtained at laboratory scale highlighting the importance of the changing 15 environmental conditions on the dissipation process. Similarly, the formation of 16 17 chlorotoluron and flufenacet metabolites under field conditions was different from that previously observed in the laboratory. The performance of the MACRO pesticide fate 18 19 model, parameterized with laboratory data, was then tested against field data. There was 20 a very good agreement between measured and simulated chlorotoluron residue levels in 21 the three soil treatments, while the ability of the model to reproduce the dissipation of flufenacet was good in the unamended soil and very good in S+SMS and S+GC soils. 22 23 MACRO might be used to estimate the remaining amounts of herbicides in amended soils from degradation data previously obtained at laboratory scale. This would help to 24

25 manage herbicide doses in different environmental conditions to preserve the26 sustainability of agricultural systems.

Keywords: field dissipation, herbicides, soil, spent mushroom substrate, green compost,
MACRO model

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30 **1. Introduction**

Winter wheat is an extensively grown crop with great economic relevance in dry 31 32 farmland areas of Spain (www.mapa.gob.es), and one of the most important one worldwide. It is cultivated on more than 200 Mha, contributing approximately to 30% 33 34 (~800 Mt) of the total world cereal production (OECD-FAO, 2019). Climatic conditions 35 (temperature and rainfall) are known to have a great impact on crop yields under the 36 current Mediterranean scenario, but the influence of other common agricultural 37 practices such as the application of herbicides and organic residues remains to be 38 evaluated. Herbicides are needed to control weeds, and many active ingredients are available on the market, especially for certain crops such as cereals (Bai et al., 2018; 39 Thiour-Mauprivez et al., 2019). The application of organic residues guarantees soil 40 fertility and maintains correct organic matter (OM) content and nutrients to obtain crops 41 of good quality and quantity, and at the same time to avoid soil degradation 42 43 (Palansooriya et al., 2019).

The application of both herbicides and organic residues on soil became a frequent agricultural practice, which could affect the fate of these compounds in the environment (Marín-Benito et al., 2018; Vieublé Gonod et al., 2016). For example, composted spent mushroom substrate (SMS) and green compost (GC) have been efficiently tested for preventing and/or controlling soil and water contamination by

pesticides (Kodesová et al., 2012; Marín-Benito et al., 2018). Among the processes that 49 50 control the behavior of herbicides under field conditions, their dissipation in the topsoil is the most important one. It is due to abiotic and biotic degradation, loss by 51 52 volatilization, plant uptake, runoff and/or leaching. Herbicides dissipation in amended soils has been widely studied under laboratory conditions (Barba et al., 2019; 53 Cassigneul et al., 2018; Marín-Benito et al., 2019; Su et al., 2019). On the contrary, 54 55 herbicides persistence and dissipation in amended soils have been scarcely studied under field conditions (Cañero et al., 2012; García-Delgado et al., 2019). 56

Chlorotoluron and flufenacet herbicides are recommended for pre- and post-57 58 emergence weed control in cereals and various other crops. Chlorotoluron is an urea herbicide with moderate solubility in water and low hydrophobicity, it is moderately 59 persistent and mobile in the soil profile (EC, 2005; PPDB, 2019). Chlorotoluron 60 61 dissipation/persistence in soils has been rarely studied at field scale (EC, 2005). A few results showed that the dissipation rate increased when the herbicide was repeatedly 62 applied for 12 years (Rouchaud et al., 2000), and that its persistence depends on 63 irrigation and fertilization (Rodríguez-Liébana et al., 2014). Flufenacet is an 64 oxyacetamide herbicide moderately soluble in water and with a high hydrophobic 65 66 character. It has a low persistence and a medium mobility in soil (EC, 2003; PPDB, 2019). Very few studies report the flufenacet dissipation in field unamended soils 67 (Bloomberg et al., 2002; Rouchaud et al., 1999, 2001). The dissipation rate of the 68 69 herbicide depends on the season of the year when flufenacet was applied since 70 temperature influences the microbial activity and consequently the biodegradation of this herbicide (Milan et al., 2013; Rouchaud et al., 1999, 2001). The field dissipation of 71 72 flufenacet is also influenced by soil texture and herbicide characteristics (Rouchaud et 73 al., 2001), but not by the dose (Rouchaud et al., 1999).

Working at field scale has some important drawbacks: it is time consuming and 74 75 cost prohibitive, and it should be carried out over long time periods to understand the effect of the variable climatic conditions on the fate of pesticide (Boesten and van der 76 77 Pas, 2000; Holvoet et al., 2007; Willkommen et al., 2019). These disadvantages are often responsible for the shortage of this type of studies. Therefore, the combination of 78 79 laboratory and modelling studies can represent an interesting alternative to field studies, 80 provided that models efficiency had been previously tested by comparison with field data. Numerous pesticide fate models, which were parameterized with sensitive data 81 from laboratory studies such as pesticide adsorption and degradation coefficients 82 83 (Dubus et al., 2003), and tested against field data, have been successfully used to assess the mobility and/or persistence of herbicides in soils (Garrat et al., 2002; Martínez et al., 84 1994). However, these numerical models were rarely tested to simulate the fate of 85 herbicides in amended soils (Marín-Benito et al., 2020). Finally, the use of model able 86 to simulate the persistence of herbicides in amended soils would be of great interest to 87 88 assess soil residual amounts of pesticides which may affect subsequent crops. Indeed, some studies have shown that high herbicide residue levels in non-amended soils, due to 89 90 the long persistence of these compounds in certain conditions, may result in damage to 91 successive crops (James et al., 1999; Palhano et al., 2018; Scursoni et al., 2017).

Therefore, the objectives of this work were: (i) to study the field dissipation kinetics of the chlorotoluron and flufenacet herbicides, and the formation of their metabolites, in an agricultural soil without amendment (S) and amended with spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS) or with green compost (S+GC), (ii) to fit their dissipation to the most simple and acceptable kinetic model by using statistical indexes, and (iii) to assess the ability of the MACRO pesticide fate model to simulate the persistence of these herbicides. 99

100 2. Materials and methods

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101 2.1. Experimental site, soil sampling and processing

102 The field experiment was set up at the Muñovela experimental farm belonging to 103 the Institute of Natural Resources and Agrobiology of Salamanca, Spain (40°54'15''N latitude and 5°46'26'W longitude), during the 2016-2017 winter wheat cultivation 104 105 campaign. The experiment involved randomized complete blocks with nine plots of 9 m 106 \times 9 m corresponding to the following three treatments, each in three replicates: unamended control soil (S), soil amended with spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS), and 107 108 soil amended with green compost (S+GC) (Carpio et al., 2020). The soil was an Eutric-Chromic Cambisol (IUSS Working Group WRB, 2015) with sandy-loam texture 109 (80.4% sand, 4.7% silt, and 14.9% clay). The soil physicochemical characteristics were 110 111 determined by standard analytical methods (Carpio et al. 2020; Sparks, 1996) (Table S1 112 in Supplementary Material). The SMS and GC organic residues were applied at rates of 140 and 85 t ha⁻¹ (dry weight basis), respectively, and incorporated into the top 20 cm at 113 114 the beginning of the experiment. The SMS is originated from Agaricus bisporus and Pleurotus ostreatus (2:1) cultivation, and the GC from the pruning of plants and trees in 115 parks and gardens. They were composted following an aerobic process, and were 116 117 supplied by Sustratos de la Rioja S.L. (Pradejon, Spain) and Viveros El Arca S.L. (Salamanca, Spain), respectively. The main characteristics of both organic residues 118 were determined in air-dried and sieved (< 2 mm) samples (**Table S2** in Supplementary 119 120 Material) using the methods reported by Carpio et al. (2020). Winter wheat was sown on 14 November 2016 and harvested on 3 July 2017. After harvest, a bare soil was 121 maintained during the fallow period. The field experiment ended on 5 November 2017 122 123 (339 days after the herbicide application).

Chlorotoluron and flufenacet (Table S3 in Supplementary Material) were 124 sprayed at 15 and 5 kg a.i. ha⁻¹, respectively, as Erturon® (chlorotoluron 50% w/v, 125 126 Cheminova Agro S.A., Madrid, Spain) and Herold® (flufenacet 40% w/v, Bayer Crop 127 Science S.L., Valencia, Spain) commercial formulations. The chemicals were jointly applied in pre-emergence using a sprayer attached to a tractor on 1 December 2016. 128 According to the experimental farm's records, none of the chemicals had ever been 129 130 applied to the experimental field, as an initial onsite background analysis did not detect 131 any residues.

The herbicides dissipation was studied in unamended, SMS- and GC-amended 132 soils from 0 to 339 days after their application. At each sampling time (1, 5, 10, 13, 17, 133 21, 33, 38, 45, 53, 60, 70, 80, 89, 104, 124, 145, 151, 173, 199, 229, 269, 311 and 339 134 days), five 10-cm soil subsamples were randomly sampled in each plot, and 135 136 representative average soil samples of each plot were obtained by mixing the five subsamples. The composite samples were then put into plastic bags and transported in 137 138 portable refrigerators to the laboratory, where they were homogenised and sieved (< 2 139 mm), and stored at 4°C until their analysis.

For modelling studies, climatic data (rainfall, maximum, minimum and average air temperature) were daily monitored using a meteorological station located at the field site. Additional evapotranspiration data were obtained from the station of Matacan airport (23 km away from Muñovela farm).

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145 2.2. Herbicides extraction and analysis

The analytical standards of chlorotoluron and flufenacet (> 99.5% purity) and of
their major metabolites, desmethyl chlorotoluron, flufenacet ESA sodium salt, and
flufenacet OA (> 99.3% purity), were supplied by Sigma Aldrich Química S.A.

(Madrid, Spain) (Table S3). The extraction and analysis of both herbicides and of their 149 150 major metabolites were done according to Marín-Benito et al. (2019). Briefly, triplicate subsamples of moist soil (6 g) from each composite sample of unamended or amended 151 152 soils, taken at each sampling time, were extracted with acetonitrile (12 mL). Then, they underwent an ultrasonic bath (1 h, 20 °C), and they were shook (24 h, 20 °C), 153 centrifuged (5045 g, 15 min), and filtrated (< 0.45 µm). Extracts (8 mL) were 154 evaporated until dryness at 25 °C under a nitrogen stream using an EVA-EC2-L 155 156 evaporator (VLM GmbH, Bielefeld, Germany). The residue was dissolved in 0.75 mL of acetonitrile and transferred to a glass vial for analysis. The herbicides and their 157 158 metabolites were determined by HPLC-DAD-MS using a Waters chromatograph (Waters Assoc., Milford, USA). 159

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161 *2.3. Modelling of herbicides dissipation*

To model the dissipation of herbicides in the field, the MACRO model (version 5.2) was selected because it is used at the European level for pesticide registration (FOCUS, 2000) and because it is one of the most efficient to simulate the fate of pesticides in the environment, and especially in amended soils (Marín-Benito et al., 2020).

MACRO is a process-based, one-dimensional, dual-permeability model able to simulate preferential flow processes. The model is presented in detail in Larsbo and Jarvis (2003). In few words, the soil pore system is partitioned into micropore and macropore domains with separate flow rate and solute concentration for each domain. The boundary between the two domains is defined by a given soil water pressure head, and by the corresponding water content and hydraulic conductivity. In the micropores, water flow and solute transport are described by the Richards' equation and the

174 convection-dispersion equation, respectively. Water flow in the macropores is treated as 175 a gravity driven process, and solute transport is assumed to be solely convective. The 176 adsorption of pesticide is assumed to be linear, instantaneous, and reversible, and its 177 degradation follows first-order kinetic. The model implements physically based 178 expressions using an effective aggregate half-width to calculate the water and solute 179 exchange between the micropore and macropore domains.

180 The model was mainly parameterized with site-specific data (soil, crop, climate, 181 herbicides), and the parameterization was completed using data from the literature, pedotransfer functions and defaults values for parameters that cannot be measured such 182 183 as some hydraulic ones. Detailed description of the parameterization and calibration of the model for the 1.6-m unamended, SMS- and GC-amended soil profiles can be found 184 in Marín-Benito et al. (2020) together with the parameter values. Table S1 summarizes 185 the main physicochemical and hydraulic input parameters for the top 10 cm of S, 186 S+SMS and S+GC soils, and the main crop and herbicide input parameters are shown in 187 188 Tables S4 and S5 (in Supplementary Material), respectively. It has to be highlighted 189 that the DT₅₀ (time to 50% degradation, days) values used to parameterize the model were taken from laboratory experiments with unamended control and amended soil 190 samples taken in situ, at 6°C and 40% of the maximum soil water holding capacity 191 192 (Marín-Benito et al., 2019).

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194 2.4. Data analysis

FOCUS work group guidelines were followed to select the best kinetic model for each herbicide and soil treatment (FOCUS, 2006). According to these guidelines, herbicide dissipation kinetics were initially fitted to single first-order (SFO) and first order multi-compartment (FOMC) kinetic models. The coefficient of determination and

199 the chi-square test were calculated as indicators of the goodness of fit. Based on the 200 acceptability criterion of these guidelines included in Supplementary Material, no more models reported in FOCUS (2006) and also in the literature (Sarmah and Close, 2009; 201 202 Srinivasan et al., 2014) were tested. The herbicide concentrations, which were measured 203 one day after the application in the three soil treatments, were considered as 100% of the amounts applied. The DT₅₀ values were used to characterize the decay curves and to 204 compare the variations in dissipation rates. The kinetic model parameters were 205 206 estimated using the Excel Solver add-in Package (FOCUS, 2006). An additional description of the dissipation kinetic models is included in Supplementary Material. 207

The performance of MACRO was assessed using three statistical indices, the efficiency (*EF*), the coefficient of residual mass (*CRM*), and the root mean square error (*RMSE*), which were additionally estimated for the kinetic models (Smith et al., 1996):

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$$EF = 1 - \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (S_i - O_i)^2 / \sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_i - O_m)^2\right]$$
 (1)

212
$$CRM = (\sum_{i=1}^{n} O_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} S_i) / \sum_{i=1}^{n} O_i$$
 (2)

213
$$RMSE = (100/O_m) [\sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - O_i)^2/n]^{1/2}$$
 (3)

where S_i and O_i are the simulated and observed (measured) values, respectively, O_m is the mean observed value, and *n* is the number of data. The optimum value of *EF* is +1 and that of *CRM* and *RMSE* is zero. If *CRM*>0 (<), then there is an under (over) estimation of observed values.

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219 **3. Results and discussion**

220 3.1. Dissipation kinetics of chlorotoluron in field unamended and amended soils

The dissipation kinetics of chlorotoluron fitted best the FOMC model in the unamended soil S, and the SFO one in S+SMS and S+GC soils (**Fig. 1, Table 1**). This differs from the results of previous works showing that the dissipation kinetic of

chlorotoluron in unamended soil followed SFO, while it fitted bi-phasic double first-224 225 order in parallel model (DFOP) in organic-amended soil (Rodríguez-Liébana et al., 2014; Rouchaud et al., 2000). At the end of the experiment (339 days), higher 226 227 concentrations of chlorotoluron were detected in unamended soil S (15.7%) than in S+SMS (5.97%) or S+GC (8.77%) soils (Fig. 1). In the unamended soil, the DT_{50} of 228 chlorotoluron was found to be 66.2 days (Table 1), which is consistent with published 229 230 values ranging from 26 to 64 days (PPDB 2019; Rouchaud et al., 2000). For all soils 231 (unamended and amended), the field DT_{50} were higher than those obtained in laboratory conditions (Marín-Benito et al., 2019) highlighting the importance of the variable 232 233 environmental conditions on the dissipation process.

In the unamended soil S, more than 26% of chlorotoluron were dissipated 33 234 235 days after its application. This high dissipation rate of the herbicide could be explained 236 by its high mobility to deeper soil layers (Carpio et al., 2020; PPDB, 2019). The 237 dissipation rate of chlorotoluron in S+SMS soils was lower than in the unamended soil 238 S, but the dissipation rates were almost similar in S and S+GC (Table 1). The lower 239 dissipation rate of chlorotoluron in S+SMS soil can be explained by the decrease in its leaching through the soil profile because of higher adsorption: K_d values as determined 240 by Carpio et al. (2020) were 0.773 L kg⁻¹ in S soil and 4.773 L kg⁻¹ in S+SMS (Table 241 242 S5). High adsorption of chlorotoluron by amended soils leads to a decrease in the bioavailability of the herbicide to be degraded, as reported previously for this herbicide 243 (Kodešová et al., 2012; Marín-Benito et al., 2019) and for other compounds (Barba et 244 245 al., 2019; Su et al., 2019). On the contrary, Rodríguez-Liébana et al. (2014) found a rapid dissipation of chlorotoluron ($DT_{50} = 2.4$ days) in a field amended soil. They 246 related this result to the low water solubility and high hydrophobicity of chlorotoluron, 247 but also indicated a possible increase of aged residues of herbicide over time. 248

The dissipation of chlorotoluron was consistent with the detection of its 249 desmethyl chlorotoluron metabolite in the soils over the entire experimental period 250 (Table S3). The N-dealkylation, giving desmethyl chlorotoluron, has indeed been 251 252 reported as the main degradation pathway of chlorotoluron in soils (Gross et al., 1979; EC, 2005; PPDB, 2019). This metabolite was also observed in laboratory degradation 253 experiments at 6°C and 16°C in similar soils (Marín-Benito et al., 2019). In the 254 unamended soil S, the concentration of desmethyl chlorotoluron increased from the first 255 256 day of experiment up to 80 days, and then it remained constant up to 339 days. However, its formation was delayed in the S+SMS and S+GC soils as it was only 257 detected after 33 and 13 days, respectively. Then, the concentrations of desmethyl 258 chlorotoluron increased up to 80 days in S+SMS and S+GC, and decreased up to 173 259 days, when the metabolite was not detected (Fig. 3). The amounts of metabolite that 260 261 were formed in the soils followed the order: S > S+GC > S+SMS. This is consistent 262 with the increase in the adsorption coefficients of chlorotoluron in these soils, so with a 263 concomitant decrease in herbicide bioavailability. Peaks of metabolites were detected at 264 89 and 151 days in unamended soil S, and at 80 days in S+SMS and S+GC soils (Fig. 3). The corresponding concentrations were 0.184 and 0.177 $\mu g g^{-1}$ dry soil in 265 unamended soil S, 0.053 and 0.194 μ g g⁻¹ in S+SMS and S+GC, respectively, and the 266 267 total cumulative amount accounted for 23.5%, 2.83% and 10.6% of the applied herbicide. 268

These results were similar to those found for the degradation of chlorotoluron under laboratory conditions, where the cumulative amount of desmethyl chlorotoluron was lower in S+SMS than in S and S+GC soils (Marín-Benito et al., 2019), indicating that the herbicide degradation mechanisms were different in S+SMS than in S and S+GC treatments. The high adsorption of chlorotoluron by S+SMS could explain a low

bioavailability of the herbicide to be degraded and consequently the low amount of 274 metabolite produced in this soil. However, it should be noted that the dissipation and/or 275 mobility of chlorotoluron could be affected by the dissolved organic carbon (DOC), 276 especially in S+SMS which had the highest DOC content (Carpio et al., 2020). 277 Chlorotoluron could remain adsorbed by the soil OC but also adsorbed by DOC in 278 solution, what enhances its mobility and/or its degradation by microorganisms (Marín-279 Benito et al., 2012). A high retention of the metabolite by S+SMS or the formation of 280 281 non-extractable residues could also have occurred. The formation of bound residues for desmethyl chlorotoluron has not been reported previously in the literature, although it 282 would be possible according to its higher Koc (248 mL g⁻¹), compared to the parent 283 compound (196 mL g⁻¹) (**Table S3**) (PPDB, 2019). The greater ability metabolites have 284 to form bound residues than their parent compounds has been reported in the literature 285 286 for other pesticides (Marín-Benito et al., 2012; Papadopoulou et al., 2016).

Finally, mineralization and/or the formation of bound residues of chlorotoluron could also have happened (EC, 2005). Both additional dissipation pathways may have been facilitated in the S+SMS and S+GC soils because of a higher content of both DOC (more herbicide in solution) and OC (higher adsorption of herbicide), respectively, compared to unamended soil S, as observed for other pesticides (Marín-Benito et al., 2012).

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294 3.2. Dissipation kinetics of flufenacet in field unamended and amended soils

The dissipation of flufenacet was initially slower in amended soils than in the unamended soil, but the dissipation rates were faster after the DT_{50} were reached. The dissipation kinetics of flufenacet fitted well the SFO model for the three soil treatments (**Table 2**, **Fig. 2**). This is consistent with the results of Bloomberg et al. (2002) and

Rouchaud et al. (1999, 2001), who showed that the flufenacet dissipation kinetics 299 followed the SFO model in unamended soil under field conditions. At the end of the 300 experiment (339 days), the residues of flufenacet were 7.02% in S, 7.89% in S+SMS 301 and 2.67% in S+GC (% of initial amounts), showing that flufenacet dissipation 302 303 increased for all soil treatments at the end of the experimental period. The degradation rates of flufenacet were lower than those of chlorotoluron in the three soils (Tables 1 304 and 2), although the residual amounts of flufenacet after 339 days were lower than 305 306 those of chlorotoluron in S and S+GC soils. This is in agreement with what is frequently observed as flufenacet is less water soluble and more hydrophobic than chlorotoluron 307 (PPDB, 2019). The DT₅₀ of flufenacet were higher in amended soils than in unamended 308 309 soil following the order: S < S+SMS < S+GC (**Table 2**). Sixty days after treatment, the residual amounts of flufenacet in S+SMS (90% of initial applied) and S+GC (92%) soils 310 311 were strongly higher than in the unamended soil S (69%) (Fig. 2). The rapid dissipation of flufenacet in S soil compared to that in S+SMS and S+GC is related to its adsorption 312 as K_d values increase as follows: S (1.038 L kg⁻¹) < S+ GC (2.909 L kg⁻¹) < S+SMS 313 (6.340 L kg⁻¹) (Carpio et al., 2020) (**Table S5**). This is in agreement with the findings of 314 Gajbhiye and Gupta (2001), who observed an increase in the persistence of flufenacet in 315 316 soils with higher adsorption capacity.

The DT_{50} of flufenacet in the unamended soil S (117 days) was found to be higher than those reported for unamended agricultural soils under field conditions (from 14.2 to 68.1 days) (PPDB, 2019). This result can be explained by the different seasons of the year during which the dissipation studies were carried out. Indeed, the dissipation of flufenacet under field conditions was shown to be accelerated during spring and summer when temperatures were higher than in winter because of the associated increased microbial activities in soil (Rouchaud et al, 1999, 2001). In our study, the

herbicides were applied at the end of autumn (1 December 2016) with minimum 324 temperatures ranging from -11.6 to 8.8 °C up to the DT₅₀ of flufenacet was reached in 325 all treatments (145 days after the application, Table 2). These low temperatures could 326 327 have contributed to a decrease in the soil microbial activity, knowing that microbial degradation drives flufenacet dissipation (Milan et al., 2013). It has to be noted that the 328 dissipation pattern of flufenacet in the field was different from that observed in 329 330 laboratory, as shown for chlorotoluron, since flufenacet was more persistent in the field 331 than in the laboratory (Marín-Benito et al., 2019). These results also corroborate the DT₅₀ reported by the Pesticide Properties DataBase (PPDB, 2019). 332

333 In any case over the experimental period, the flufenacet ESA metabolite was not detected, and the flufenacet OA metabolite was only detected at concentrations below 334 335 the LOQ, although the formation of flufenacet metabolites in unamended soil under 336 field conditions has been reported (Bloomberg et al., 2002, Lam et al., 2002), as well as their formation under laboratory conditions (Marín-Benito et al., 2019). However, in our 337 338 field experiment, the high DOC content of S+SMS and S+GC soil may have enhanced 339 the degradation and/or the downward mobility of the herbicide over time (Marín-Benito et al., 2020). In addition, other processes contributing to flufenacet dissipation, such as 340 341 mineralization and/or the formation of bound residues, could have occurred (EC, 2003).

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343 *3.3. Modelling herbicide persistence*

The performance of MACRO to simulate the dissipation of chlorotoluron in the top 10 cm of the three soil treatments was very good, as shown by the high EF values (Ritter and Muñoz-Carpena, 2013), the CRM values close to zero and the low RMSE values (**Table 3, Fig. 1**). The measured concentrations of chlorotoluron in S and S+SMS soils were weakly underestimated by MACRO while they were weakly

overestimated in the S+GC treatment (Table 3). For flufenacet, the simulated 349 350 concentrations values agreed closely with the observed data (Fig. 2), and the ability of MACRO to reproduce the dissipation of this herbicide can be denoted as good for the 351 352 unamended soil S and very good for S+SMS and S+GC soils (Ritter and Muñoz-Carpena, 2013) (Table 3). MACRO slightly overestimated the dissipation of flufenacet 353 354 in the three soil treatments (CRM < 0, **Table 3**). In general, for both herbicides in the 355 three soils, the MACRO simulation results were within the standard deviation of the 356 mean remaining percentages observed (Figs. 1 and 2).

The comparison of fitted and simulated DT₅₀ and DT₉₀ (time to 90% dissipation, 357 358 days) values showed that they closely agreed for chlorotoluron in the three soils (Table 4, Figs. 1 and 2). The coefficients of variation (CV) of the DT_{50} and DT_{90} in the 359 unamended and amended soils ranged from 4% to 16% and from 4% to 32%, 360 361 respectively (Table 4). For flufenacet, MACRO predictions were worse than for chlorotoluron in most of the soil treatments, with CV of the DT₅₀ ranging from 10% to 362 363 28%, and those of DT₉₀ ranging from 7% to 39% (Table 4, Fig. 2). As indicated above, 364 processes such as the formation of non-extractable residues, which are not simulated by MACRO, could explain the higher ability of the model to estimate the fitted DT_{50} and 365 366 DT₉₀ of chlorotoluron than of flufenacet with higher adsorption capacity (Table S5).

For both herbicides, the simulated DT_{90} (persistence) were generally lower than the fitted ones in all soil treatments (**Table 4**). The high CV of DT_{90} compared to those of DT_{50} in the unamended soils (**Table 4**) indicate that the model efficiency to reproduce the dissipation of the herbicides in natural soils decreases with simulation time. The model showed a tendency to underestimate the remaining amounts of both herbicides in the unamended soils one year after the application. This tendency could reduce the use of the pesticide fate model as predictive tool in unamended soils. This is 374 consistent with the results of Garrat et al. (2002) and Martínez et al. (1994). 375 Nevertheless, the use of DT_{50} obtained from laboratory experiments as input in the 376 MACRO model allows satisfactory simulation of the dissipation of chlorotoluron and 377 flufenacet under amended field conditions, and especially that of chlorotoluron which 378 has the lowest persistence.

379

4. Conclusions

The field dissipation kinetics of two cereals herbicides, chlorotoluron and flufenacet, 381 fitted well the SFO model in unamended and amended soils, except that of 382 383 chlorotoluron that fitted the FOMC model better in the unamended soil. The application of the SMS and GC organic amendments to soil slowed down the dissipation rates of 384 385 chlorotoluron and flufenacet compared to unamended soils as previously observed 386 under controlled laboratory conditions. However, the DT₅₀ of chlorotoluron and flufenacet under field conditions were higher than those obtained in laboratory 387 388 highlighting the importance of changing environmental conditions on the dissipation 389 process. These changes also affected the formation rates of their metabolites at field scale compared with those at laboratory. 390

391 The field dissipation kinetics of both herbicides were then simulated with the 392 MACRO pesticide fate model parameterized with laboratory data. The results showed that MACRO might be reasonably used as a tool to estimate the remaining amounts of 393 herbicides in the root zone of amended soils knowing their DT_{50} and K_d previously 394 395 obtained from laboratory experiments. Therefore, MACRO can help to assess if an 396 herbicide can be applied in amended soils without causing damage on succeeding crop. 397 This would help to manage herbicide doses in different environmental conditions to preserve the sustainability of agricultural systems. 398

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Measured, fitted (SFO and FOMC) and simulated (MACRO) dissipation kinetics of chlorotoluron in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS)- and green compost (S+GC)-amended soils. Bars indicate the standard deviation of the mean value (n=9). SFO: Single first-order model, FOMC: First order multi-compartment model.

Fig. 2. Measured, fitted (SFO) and simulated (MACRO) dissipation kinetics of flufenacet in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS)- and green compost (S+GC)-amended soils. Bars indicate the standard deviation of the mean value (n=9). SFO: Single first-order model.

Fig. 3. Formation of desmethyl chlorotoluron, in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS)- and green compost (S+GC)-amended soils over time. Bars indicate the standard deviation of the mean (n=9).

Table 1. Dissipation rate parameters (k, α , β) and dissipation half-lives (DT₅₀) of chlorotoluron in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate- and green compost-amended soils (S+SMS and S+GC) according to the single first-order (SFO) and first order multi-compartment model (FOMC) models, and goodness of fit statistics.

Sample/SEO	k		DT ₅₀	α^2	\mathbf{P}^2	EF	CRM	RMSE
Sample/SFO	(days ⁻¹)	(days ⁻¹)		χ	K	(-) ^c	(-) ^d	(%) ^e
S	0.009		73.7	7.2	0.991	0.98	0.02	8.53
S+SMS	0.008		88.0	10.1	0.961	0.96	-0.01	12.0
S+GC	0.009		73.6	11.3	0.957	0.96	-0.01	13.4
Sample/FOMC	a	ß	DT ₅₀	γ^2	\mathbf{P}^2	EF	CRM	RMSE
Sample/POWC	u	Ρ	(days) ^b	λ	R	(-) ^c	(-) ^d	(%) ^e
S	2.80	236	66.2	6.0	0.985	0.99	0.00	7.02
S+SMS	5.10×10^{4}	6.47×10 ⁶	88.0	10.3	0.961	0.96	-0.01	12.0
S+GC	6.09×10^{4}	6.47×10 ⁶	73.6	11.5	0.957	0.96	-0.01	13.4

^a $DT_{50} = \ln 2 / k$

^b DT₅₀ = $\beta \times [2^{(1 / \alpha)} - 1]$

^c Efficiency.

^d Coefficient of residual mass.

^e Root mean square error.

Table 2. Dissipation rate parameters (k, α , β) and dissipation half-lives (DT₅₀) of flufenacet in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate- and green compost-amended (S+SMS and S+GC) soils according to the single first-order (SFO) and first order multi-compartment model (FOMC) models, and goodness of fit statistics.

Sample/SEO	k		DT ₅₀	α^2	\mathbf{P}^2	EF	CRM	RMSE
Sample/SFO	(days ⁻¹)		(days) ^a	χ	K	(-) ^c	(-) ^d	(%) ^e
S	0.006		117	12.3	0.905	0.90	0.00	14.7
S+SMS	0.006		123	9.7	0.945	0.94	-0.01	11.5
S+GC	0.005		145	9.9	0.924	0.92	-0.01	11.8
Sample/EOMC	a	ß	DT ₅₀	χ^2	\mathbf{P}^2	EF	CRM	RMSE
Sample/POWIC	u	μ	(days) ^b	λ	K	(-) ^c	(-) ^d	(%) ^e
S	3.83×10^4	6.47×10^{6}	117	12.6	0.905	0.90	0.00	14.7
S+SMS	3.62×10^4	6.47×10^{6}	123	9.8	0.945	0.94	-0.01	11.5
S+GC	3.11×10^4	6.51×10^{6}	145	10.1	0.924	0.92	-0.01	11.8

^a $DT_{50} = ln2 / k$

^b DT₅₀ = $\beta \times [2^{(1 / \alpha)} - 1]$

^c Efficiency.

^d Coefficient of residual mass.

^e Root mean square error.

Table 3. Goodness-of-fit statistics for MACRO modeling of the dissipation of chlorotoluron and flufenacet in the top 10 cm of the unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate- and green compost-amended (S+SMS and S+GC) soils.

	$EF\left(- ight) ^{\mathrm{a}}$	$CRM(-)^{b}$	$RMSE(\%)^{c}$
S			
Chlorotoluron	0.94	0.01	14.5
Flufenacet	0.82	-0.02	20.3
S+SMS			
Chlorotoluron	0.95	0.04	13.1
Flufenacet	0.91	-0.10	14.2
S+GC			
Chlorotoluron	0.94	-0.03	15.1
Flufenacet	0.97	-0.02	6.8

^a Efficiency.

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^b Coefficient of residual mass.

^c Root mean square error.

Table 4. Fitted (SFO or FOMC) and simulated (MACRO) DT_{50} and DT_{90} (days) of chlorotoluron and flufenacet in the top 10 cm of the unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate- and green compost-amended (S+SMS and S+GC) soils, and coefficients of variation (CV, %).

		Chlorotol	Flufenacet			
Parameter	S	S+SMS	S+GC	S	S+SMS	S+GC
DT _{50 fitted}	66.2	88.0	73.6	117	123	145
DT _{50 MACRO}	72.5	93.0	92.0	96.0	184	167
CV DT ₅₀	6	4	16	14	28	10
DT _{90 fitted}	301	292	245	389	411	482
DT _{90 MACRO}	191	277	230	220	452	375
CV DT ₉₀	32	4	4	39	7	18

Note: DT_{50} and DT_{90} , dissipation time values observed in Figs. 1 and 2 when dissipation of 50% or 90% of the herbicide was reached taking into account fitted (SFO or FOMC) and simulated (MACRO) kinetic curves.



Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

FIELD MEASUREMENT AND MODELLING OF CHLOROTOLURON AND FLUFENACET PERSISTENCE IN UNAMENDED AND AMENDED SOILS

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Table S1. Main physicochemical and hydraulic characteristics of the top 10 cm of unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS)- and green compost (S+GC)-amended soils.

	S	S+SMS	S+GC
Sand (%)	80.4	76.7	78.7
Silt (%)	4.7	5.8	4.7
Clay (%)	14.9	16.5	16.6
pН	6.34	7.11	6.99
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	1.48	1.23	1.34
OC (%)	0.77	2.64	1.69
DOC (mg g^{-1})	0.12	0.50	0.38
$\theta_{initial} (m^3 m^{-3})$	0.183	0.279	0.244
$\theta_r (m^3 m^{-3})^a$	0.01	0.01	0.01
$\theta_{s} (m^{3} m^{-3})^{a}$	0.383	0.472	0.428
$\alpha (cm^{-1})^{a}$	0.087	0.068	0.078
n (-) ^a	1.339	1.240	1.290
$K_{sat} (mm h^{-1})^a$	76.41	75.79	76.08
CTEN (cm) ^b	10	10	10
$\theta_b (m^3 m^{-3})^c$	0.332	0.422	0.378
$K_b (mm h^{-1})^c$	1.413	0.789	1.083
ASCALE (mm) ^c	15	15	15
ZN (-) ^c	4	4	4

Note: The parameters without exponent correspond to measured values taken from Carpio et al. (2020).

^a Estimated by HYPRES pedotransfer functions (Wösten et al., 1999).

^b Default value (Larsbo and Jarvis, 2003).

^c Estimated using the pedotransfer functions included in MACRO 5.2.

Table S2. Characteristics of the organic amendments: spentmushroom substrate (SMS) and green compost (GC) (% on a dryweight basis).

	SMS	GC
pH	7.9	7.2
electric conductivity (S/m)	0.78	0.22
ash (%)	40.6	54.0
moisture (%)	37.7	48.6
OM ^a (%)	59.4	46.0
$\text{DOC}^{\text{b}} (\text{mg g}^{-1})$	11.9	7.2
OC ^c (%)	35.0	26.7
N (%)	2.3	1.1
C/N	15.2	24.3
$\operatorname{CEC}^{d}(\operatorname{cmol}_{c}\operatorname{kg}^{-1})$	35.1	41.4
P ₂ O ₅ (mg/100g)	59.5	40.3
K ₂ O (mg/100g)	858	458
CaO (mg/100g)	1774	757.3
MgO (mg/100g)	177.7	126.5

^a Organic matter; ^b Dissolved organic carbon; ^c Organic carbon; ^d Cationic exchange capacity.

Common name	IUPAC name	WS ^a	Log	Field	GUS	K _{oc} ^e
Chemical structure		$(mg L^{-1})$	Kow ^b	DT ₅₀ ^c (days)	index ^d	(mL g ⁻¹)
Chlorotoluron H_3C H_3C H_3C H_3C H_3C H_3C H_3 H_3 H_3C H_3	3-(3-chloro-p-tolyl)- 1,1-dimethylurea	74	2.5	34	3.02	196
Desmethyl chlorotoluron $\xrightarrow{H} H \xrightarrow{CI}$	3-(3-chloro-p-tolyl)- 1-methylurea	-	-	60	2.84	248
Flufenacet $F_3C \xrightarrow{N-N}_{S} \xrightarrow{O}_{N} \xrightarrow{V}_{N} \xrightarrow{F}_{H_3C} \xrightarrow{F}_{$	4'-fluoro- <i>N</i> - isopropyl-2-[5- (trifluoromethyl)- 1,3,4-thiadiazol-2- yloxy]acetanilide	51	3.5	39.0	2.02	401
Flufenacet ESA H_3C H_3C	2-(4-fluoro- <i>N</i> - propan-2-ylanilino)- 2-oxoethanesulfonic acid	5500	-	302	7.20	12.5
Flufenacet OA $H_3C \xrightarrow{CH_3}{N} \xrightarrow{O}{+} OH$ F	((4-fluorophenyl) (isopropyl)amino) (oxo)acetic acid	-	-	11.1	2.98	14.0

Table S3. Main characteristics of herbicides and their metabolites.

^a WS, water solubility at 20°C; ^b Octanol/water partition coefficient at pH 7 and 20°C; ^c Halflife dissipation time in field conditions; ^d Groundwater Ubiquity Score (Gustafson, 1989); ^e Adsorption coefficient corrected for soil organic carbon content (PPDB, 2019).

Crop	LAI	Root	Root
development	$(m^2 m^{-2})^b$	depth (m) ^a	distribution ^{a,c}
sowing			
emergence	0.00	0.01/0.01/0.01	
flowering	0.30/2.25/0.60	0.21/0.21/0.21	0.90/0.90/0.90
harvest	0.30/2.25/0.60	0.21/0.21/0.21	
	Crop development sowing emergence flowering harvest	CropLAIdevelopment $(m^2 m^{-2})^b$ sowingemergence0.00flowering0.30/2.25/0.60harvest0.30/2.25/0.60	CropLAIRootdevelopment $(m^2 m^{-2})^b$ depth $(m)^a$ sowingemergence0.000.01/0.01/0.01flowering0.30/2.25/0.600.21/0.21/0.21harvest0.30/2.25/0.600.21/0.21/0.21

Table S4. Crop input parameters for winter wheat in unamended (S) / spent mushroom substrate-amended (S+SMS) / green compost-amended (S+GC) soils.

^a Determined from field measurements or observations.

^b Estimated from COVMAX (-) = LAI / 3 (Kroes et al., 2008), where COVMAX is the maximum areal coverage of the canopy determined from field measurements (=10%, 75% and 20% for S, S+SMS and S+GC, respectively), and LAI is the leaf area index.

^c Fraction of root density in the uppermost 25% of the root depth.

	Chlorotoluron			Flufenace	t	
	S	S+SMS	S+GC	S	S+SMS	S+GC
Adsorption						
$K_d (mL g^{-1})^a$	0.773	4.773	2.563	1.038	6.340	2.909
		(1.114)	(0.783)			
n_{f}^{b}	0.83	0.92	0.92	0.85	0.99	0.80
Degradation						
$DT_{50} (days)^{c}$	38.6	51.3	67.6	49.3	93.9	91.7
TRESP $(K^{-1})^d$	0.083	0.064	0.103	0.083	0.083	0.092
Other characteristics						
DV (cm) ^e	10	12	10	10	12	10

Table S5. Main herbicide input parameters used in the simulations in unamended (S), spent mushroom substrate (S+SMS)- and green compost (S+GC)-amended soils.

^a Adorption coefficients from laboratory experiments with unamended and amended soil samples taken *in situ* (Carpio et al., 2020). Values in brackets correspond to calibrated values according to DOC (Marín-Benito et al., 2020).

^b Freundlich exponents from laboratory experiments with the unamended control S, and amended with SMS- and GC soils at laboratory scale (García-Delgado et al., 2020).

^c Degradation half-life from Marín-Benito et al. (2019).

^d Exponent in the temperature response function estimated from TRESP= $(\ln Q_{10}) / 10$, where Q_{10} factor is taken from Marín-Benito et al. (2019).

^e Dispersivity fitted manually from the observed Br⁻ concentrations (Marín-Benito et al., 2020).

Dissipation kinetic models

The dissipation kinetics for the herbicide was fitted to a single first-order (SFO) kinetic model (C = $C_0 e^{-kt}$) or first order multi-compartment (FOMC) model (C = $C_0 / ((t / \beta) + 1)^{\alpha}$), known also as the Gustafson and Holden model. C is the herbicide concentration at time t, C_0 is the initial herbicide concentration, k (day⁻¹) is the dissipation rate, α is a shape parameter determined by the coefficient of variation of k values and β is a location parameter. For the selection of the kinetic model that best describes the dissipation results, FOCUS work group guidance recommendations were followed (FOCUS, 2006). The coefficient of determination (r²) and the chi-square (χ^2) test were calculated as indicators of the goodness of fit. The χ^2 test considers the deviations between observed and calculated values relative to the uncertainty of the measurements for a specific fit, and was used to compare the goodness of fit of the two models tested. The error value at which the χ^2 test is fulfilled at a given degree of freedom should be below 15% (at 5% significance level). The time to 50% and 90% dissipation, or DT₅₀ and DT₉₀ values, were used to characterise the decay curves and compare variations in dissipation rates. The parameters of the kinetic models were estimated using the Excel Solver add-in Package (Marín-Benito et al., 2012).

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Highlights

- Field dissipation of chlorotoluron and flufenacet was studied in amended soils
- Measured field dissipation of herbicides was simulated with the MACRO model
- Field herbicide dissipation and metabolite formation were different from laboratory ones
- Herbicides' persistence increased due to the changing field environmental conditions
- MACRO is an efficient tool to estimate remaining herbicide amounts in amended soils

Graphical Abstract

