

Occurrence of pesticides and their transformation products in headwater streams: Contamination status and effect of ponds on contaminant concentrations

François Le Cor, Sylvain Slaby, Vincent Dufour, Alain Iuretig, Cyril Feidt,

Xavier Dauchy, Damien Banas

▶ To cite this version:

François Le Cor, Sylvain Slaby, Vincent Dufour, Alain Iuretig, Cyril Feidt, et al.. Occurrence of pesticides and their transformation products in headwater streams: Contamination status and effect of ponds on contaminant concentrations. Science of the Total Environment, 2021, 788, pp.147715. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.147715. anses-03464225

HAL Id: anses-03464225 https://anses.hal.science/anses-03464225

Submitted on 24 May 2023

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Title page

Occurrence of pesticides and their transformation products in headwater streams: Contamination status and effect of ponds on contaminant concentrations

François Le Cor^{a,b} (francois.le-cor@univ-lorraine.fr), Sylvain Slaby^a (sylvain.slaby@univlorraine.fr), Vincent Dufour^a (vincent.dufour@univ-lorraine.fr), Alain Iuretig^a (alain.iuretig@univ-lorraine.fr), Cyril Feidt^a (cyril.feidt@univ-lorraine.fr), Xavier Dauchy^b (Xavier.DAUCHY@anses.fr) & Damien Banas^a (damien.banas@univ-lorraine.fr)

^a Université de Lorraine, INRAE, URAFPA, F-54000 Nancy, France

^b ANSES, Nancy Laboratory for Hydrology, Water Chemistry Department, 40 rue Lionnois, F-54000 Nancy, France

Corresponding author: François Le Cor, francois.le-cor@univ-lorraine.fr

Tel:+33372744167

Université de Lorraine, UR AFPA – ENSAIA, 2 avenue de la Forêt de Haye, F-54505 Vandœuvre-lès-Nancy cedex, France

1 1. Introduction

2 Diffuse and acute pollution of water by pesticides brings together global health 3 (Carvalho, 2017; Kim et al., 2017), ecological (Kaur and Garg, 2014; Osborne, 2012; 4 van Lexmond et al., 2015), and economic concerns (Burgess and Pimentel, 2014; 5 Pimentel, 2005). With the expansion of their use over the last 60 years, 6 environmental issues have emerged on a large scale (Carson, 1962; Özkara et al., 7 2016). In Europe, the total quantity of pesticides used annually increased from 8 440,000 tons to more than 475,000 tons between 2000 and 2017 according to the 9 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, 2020), guestioning the overall state of ecosystems (Sharma et al., 2019). According to the same source, 10 11 France (16% of all agricultural land in the European Union in 2016) has been ranked 12 6th in the world, over the last 10 years, among countries having the highest pesticide 13 consumption, with more than 69,600 tons of active substances used for agriculture.

14 It has been estimated that depending on substances, agricultural equipment, and 15 weather conditions before, during, and after treatment, various amounts of pesticides 16 are likely to be transported to adjacent ecosystems (Dhananjayan et al., 2020; 17 Mantzos et al., 2016a; Rousis et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2019). Pesticides will 18 spread through water resources in runoff induced by rainfall, resulting in rapid and 19 widespread contamination events (Lefrancq et al., 2017). Headwater streams are 20 particularly subject to this contamination, owing to their low dilution capacities and 21 their proximity to agricultural land (Lorenz et al., 2017; Szöcs et al., 2017). Because 22 of their position at the top of hydrographic networks, they are key to preserving the 23 quality of downstream ecosystems (Dodds and Oakes, 2008; Rasmussen et al., 24 2013) as well as their rich biodiversity (Meyer et al., 2007). In this regard, several in 25 situ structures can be implemented to limit their contamination by agricultural 26 activities, such as constructed wetlands (Gaullier et al., 2019; Tournebize et al., 27 2013, 2012; Vallée et al., 2015; Vymazal and Březinová, 2015), vegetated ditches 28 (Stehle et al., 2011), or riparian buffer strips (Bunzel et al., 2014; Chow et al., 2020).

Small waterbodies (i.e., 0.1 up to 100 ha) also seem to be relevant in the preservation of headwater streams. Ponds appear to have significant, but underestimated, pesticide mitigation capacities (Gaillard et al., 2016, 2015; Gregoire et al., 2009). Although small in size, these waterbodies, when added up together, 33 cover an area three times larger than that covered by large natural and artificial lakes 34 in France. On a European scale they cover nearly 270,000 km² (Bartout and 35 Touchart, 2018). Usually, a high density of small waterbodies occurs at the head of agricultural watersheds (Drożdżyński, 2008; Lazartigues et al., 2012); they are, 36 37 therefore, from the beginning of hydrographic networks, on the path of pesticide 38 contamination. Moreover, they may also be particularly subject to transformation 39 product (TP) transfers (Ulrich et al., 2018), making them even more relevant in the 40 understanding of both levels of contamination (i.e., with parent compounds and TP). 41 Field data regarding contamination of ponds with pesticides are scarce and, even 42 though some do exist (Gaillard et al., 2016; Lazartigues et al., 2013; Ulrich et al., 43 2018), they rarely take into account TP. The collection of environmental data on 44 pesticides and TPs seems, therefore, necessary to predict ecotoxicological effects 45 that may occur.

46 Currently, waterbody status is mainly assessed against environmental quality 47 standards (EQS) set by the Water Framework Directive (WFD, 2000/60/EC) for 48 certain priority substances (e.g., EQS for metazachlor = $0.02 \mu g/L$, EQS for MCPA = 49 0.5 µg/L). Ecotoxicological risks related to the occurrence and concentration of 50 pesticides can also be assessed by comparing concentrations in waterbodies to 51 toxicity thresholds (EC, LC50, or PNEC) established for various contaminants and 52 model species (e.g., algae, invertebrates, fish). However, the diversity of active 53 substances (466 potentially used in the European Union; Nagy et al., 2020) leads to 54 gaps in the toxicity of certain substances and does not consider the effect of mixtures 55 found in ecosystems. Consideration of this combination effect is necessary to assess 56 the state of natural environments in which multiple pesticides and TP are potentially 57 present (Özkara et al., 2016). The current approach, based on the toxicity of 58 individual compounds and not combinations of compounds, leads to an 59 underestimation of the risk (Pereira et al., 2017).

Although ecotoxicological data on active substances are largely incomplete, 60% of the pesticides monitored in this work had at least one guidance value or toxicity threshold). As for TP, data are extremely scarce (i.e. 1%; Chemical Substances Portal, 2009). While issues relating to the latter have received increasing attention since the late 1990s (Belfroid et al., 1998; Melin et al., 2020), field data are still scarce (Fonseca et al., 2019; Rousis et al., 2017; Reemtsma et al., 2013). Given that 66 TP, resulting from the transformation of parent compounds, are often more stable 67 and therefore potentially more present in the environment (Phillips et al., 1999; 68 Schuhmann et al., 2019), it seems relevant to accurately determine the extent of their environmental contamination (Gruchlik et al., 2018) especially in headwater streams. 69 70 However, there is no official list of relevant TP to be monitored in the environment 71 (Hernández et al., 2008; Melin et al., 2020). In addition, the scientific community 72 knows little about the extent of their toxic potential, especially with long-term 73 exposure. Therefore, in order to assess the extent of ecosystem contamination, it is 74 necessary to gain such knowledge by analyzing as many substances (pesticides and 75 TP) as possible (Fonseca et al., 2019) and over several growing seasons (Chow et 76 al., 2020).

77 In this context, the present work had two main objectives. The first was to provide 78 innovative data by assessing the numbers and concentrations of pesticides and 79 several of their TP in small streams located at the head of a hydrographic web. The 80 second was, on the one hand, to verify the reduction in pesticide concentrations 81 downstream from a pond reported by Gaillard et al. (2016a). On the other hand, we 82 wanted to determine whether this reduction was counterbalanced by the production 83 of TP and their release, downstream. Our work is a case study focusing on the high-84 resolution dynamics of a single pond over the long term, as an essential preliminary 85 step before studying a wider range of cases at a larger scale.

86

87 2. Materials and methods

88 **2.1. Study area, headwater stream, and pond characteristics**

The study was carried out in North-Eastern France between February 8th and December 3rd, 2019 (Fig. 1). During this period, the average monthly rainfall was 70 mm with a maximum of 116.4 mm in October. Over the whole period, a total of 766 mm of rainfall was recorded. Twenty-three rainfall events (24-hours periods) greater than 8 mm were observed and the average temperature was approximately 12.3°C ± 1.8°C (Infoclimat, 2020).

95 The study streams were small first-order streams according to the Strahler 96 classification (Strahler, 1952) receiving water from agricultural catchments. The study

97 area was characterized by hydromorphic clay soils (Keuper marl). Streams were 98 impeded by a dam pond built in the 15th century (Fig. 1). The study pond had a water surface area of 4.5 ha and supported extensive fish production (without any 99 100 additional nutrient inputs). The average pond depth was 0.9 m, its maximum depth 101 (near the dike) was 2.2 m, and its water residence time when the pond is at its fullest 102 was 96 days (Gaillard et al., 2015). Regarding physicochemical characteristics, the 103 pond water had a neutral to slightly alkaline pH. The study began with the pond dike 104 gate closure and the pond being emptied, a few months before pesticides application 105 in the agricultural catchment. The pond was then filled up with water from two first-106 order streams (i.e., tributaries) over the first two months of the study period (i.e., 107 February and March). Next, it was stocked with selected fish species (i.e., Cyprinus 108 carpio, Tinca tinca, Rutilus rutilus, and Scardinius erythrophthalmus) in late March. 109 Finally, it was entirely drained in November in order to collect fish with fishnets. The whole water volume was discharged to a downstream stream. 110

The pond was supplied with water for the most part from two first-order streams (i.e., UP1 and UP2 representing 80% and 20% of its major water inputs, respectively). Pond water was discharged via a single outlet stream (i.e., DO) located 15 m downstream and mainly supplied with water from the pond. Even though dam ponds are no longer recommended by water agencies and the WFD because of the ecological discontinuity they cause, such a configuration is highly frequent among fish farming ponds that still represent historical production tools in Europe.

The pond watershed had a surface area of 86.2 ha. Since 2016, a large part (33.8 ha) had been cultivated according to a conventional 3-year rotation of rapeseed, wheat, barley, and potentially peas, whereas 42.5 ha had been used as permanent pastures (data retrieved by means of a farmer survey). Based on the information provided by the farmer, all data regarding treatment periods and crops grown on treated plots are given in Table 1.

124 2.2. Sampling strategy

The aforementioned three streams that were monitored in the study (i.e., UP1, UP 2, and DO) were each equipped with a sampling station to carry out continuous flowbased water sampling. Mean sampled water volumes were $277 \pm 51 \text{ m}^3$ at UP1, 104 $\pm 12 \text{ m}^3$ at UP2, and 356 $\pm 58 \text{ m}^3$ at DO. Each sampling station was composed of an

129 automatic sampler (Hach Sigma SD-900, United States) controlled by an IFQ type 130 logger (Flow-Tronic S.A., Belgium). Each automatic sampler allowed the storage of 131 24 polyethylene bottles of 1 L samples. Samples were retrieved once a week. The 132 IFQ logger triggered water sampling by the automatic sampler following 133 measurements of two sensors. The first was the Beluga flow sensor (Flow-Tronic 134 S.A., Belgium). It emits in the water column a continuous 1 MHz frequency acoustic 135 signal, and the receiver samples multiple frequency signals to calculate velocity with 136 high accuracy (± 0.01 m/s) and resolution (0.001 m/s). This probe allows the 137 calculation of negative flow velocities (-2 to 6 m/s). Given the moderate slope (2.2%) 138 that characterized the water inlet tributaries, this specification allowed us to take into 139 account pond backflow events and obtain accurate water flow measurements. For 140 level calculation, a second sensor was used simultaneously (ULS-02 ultrasonic level 141 sensor, Flow-Tronic S.A., Belgium). It allows continuous level calculation by 142 processing continuous echoed ultrasonic waves that are emitted toward the water 143 flow, with high precision (± 0.3 mm) and resolution (1 mm). Water flows were 144 measured (based on measurements from the two probes) every minute at all three 145 stations. The sampling frequency was thus automatically adjusted in order for the 146 number of samples to be proportional to the volume of water flowing. Thus, samples 147 were mainly collected during flood events and varied with seasonal precipitation.

During the study period, UP1, UP2, and DO sampling stations collected a total of 149 121, 52, and 64 water samples, respectively. Between July 3rd and October 15th, no 150 samples were collected as streams were dry. During this period, DO station only 151 sampled water coming from the main drain channel through dike leaks.

152 Samples were kept in the dark at -18°C and analyzed within 15 days to avoid 153 degradation and sorption to sampling bottles. The stability of analyzed compounds in 154 polyethylene bottles was tested prior to sampling and was found to be good for at 155 least the first 15 days at 20°C and 17 days at 10°C (Table A.4 in the Supplementary 156 appendix). Nevertheless, a few compounds showed low stability (i.e., less than 15 157 days at 10°C) in polyethylene bottles and were, therefore, removed from analysis 158 (e.g., chlorpyrifos, CPO, chlorthiamide, fenthion). High temperatures in the summer 159 season (37.6°C at their highest) were not an issue for sample conservation because 160 no sampling was done at that time owing to lack of precipitation.

161 **2.3. Pesticide and transformation product quantification in water**

162 The list of pesticides and TP investigated in this study was established upon analysis 163 of the treatments applied to the watershed since 2000 and historic contaminants now 164 banned from use. It included 67 substances in total, with 18 herbicides and 35 of 165 their TP, 2 fungicides, and 8 insecticides and 4 of their TP (Table 2). Each water 166 sample was analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography-electrospray 167 ionization-tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-ESI-MS/MS) using HPLC-LC20AD 168 (Shimadzu, Marne-la-Vallée, France) coupled with QTRAP® 5500 system (Sciex, 169 Villebon-sur-Yvette, France). Limits of detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) are 170 given in Table 2. Details regarding the method of analysis and hardware setup are 171 given in Tables A.1 to A.3 in the Supplementary appendix.

172 Briefly, a 1 mL aliguot was taken from each initial sample and supplemented with 10 173 µL of an 8 ng/mL internal standard solution (HPC standards GmbH, Neochema, 174 Bodenheim, Germany; Fluka, Toronto Research Chemicals, North York, Canada; 175 Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Tewksbury, United States) (purity > 96%; the full list 176 of internal standards is provided in Tables A.1 and A.2 in the Supplementary 177 appendix). Then, samples were centrifuged at 20,800 g for 15 min at 18°C 178 (Eppendorf 5810R, Montesson, France), allowing suspended particles to separate. 179 The supernatant was transferred into 2 mL glass vials and 100 µL of preparation was 180 injected and analyzed. In between each sample, the automatic sampler was rinsed 181 with a mixed solution of ultrapure water, methanol, acetonitrile, and isopropanol (in 182 equal proportions, 25% of final volume), and then with ultrapure water. Ultrapure 183 water, formic acid, and acetonitrile were of ULC-MS quality (Biosolve, Dieuze, 184 France). One sample per injection series was spiked with analytical standards to 185 control accuracy (recovery range, 75%-125%). Blank samples were added at the 186 beginning and end of each series, and quantification was performed with internal 187 calibration. Samples with high concentrations (above the highest calibration point, ± 188 10%) were diluted to meet the calibration range. Injection results were then 189 interpreted using MultiQuant software (version 3.0.1, Sciex, Villebon-sur-Yvette, 190 France).

191 Concerning glyphosate and AMPA (aminomethanesulfonic acid), the analysis was 192 based on online solid-phase extraction coupled with HPLC-MS/MS. As they are too 193 polar to be analyzed with classical systems, a derivation step with the FMOC 194 (fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl) protection group was necessary before injection. Briefly,

195 1540 μ L of water sample was spiked with 7.5 μ L of a 40 μ g/L solution of 13C15N 196 AMPA-FMOC, 100 µL of 250 mM disodium EDTA, 200 µL of 50 mM sodium 197 tetraborate buffer, and 160 μ L of FMOC mix (0.5 g/L in acetonitrile). Derivation was 198 performed with a thermomixer at 50°C and for 20 min. The reaction was then 199 stopped with 20 µL of H₃PO₄ (2% in ultrapure water) and the mixture was transferred 200 into a 1.5 mL polypropylene injection vial for analysis (details on the analytical 201 methods are available in Tables S.4 and S.5 in the Supplementary appendix). One 202 sample per injection series was spiked with analytical standards to control recovery 203 accuracy. Blank samples were added at the beginning and end of each series, and 204 quantification was performed with internal calibration for AMPA, while glyphosate was 205 quantified with external calibration based on comparison with ultrapure water, spiked 206 at 10, 20, 50, 100, 150, 200, 300, and 400 ng/L, and extracted as field samples. 207 Samples with high concentrations (above the highest calibration point, \pm 10%) were diluted to meet the calibration range. Injection results were then interpreted using 208 209 TraceFinder (4.1) and Xcalibur (2.2 SP1.48) software.

210 All solvents and reagents used were of LC-MS purity grade.

211 2.4. Data analysis

Pesticide and TP concentrations allowed the calculation of mean concentrations ± standard error of the mean (SEM) upstream and downstream from the pond as well as maximum concentrations of all analyzed compounds. Only substances having a frequency of quantification (FQ) of at least 80% were averaged, in order to avoid estimating concentrations for pesticides and TP poorly represented in the dataset. Concentrations below the LOD were set to 0, those between the LOD and the LOQ were set to LOQ/2.

219 Based on the LOD and LOQ, we calculated the frequency of detection (FD) and 220 quantification for each compound at upstream and downstream locations. The 221 numbers of samples with values above the LOD or LOQ were divided by the total 222 number of samples (N = 121 at UP1, 52 at UP2, and 64 at DO) and set in percentage 223 form. Maximum and mean reduction rates (%) were calculated based on the 224 decrease in pesticide and TP concentrations between upstream (UP1 and UP2) and 225 downstream (DO) locations. For compounds with a FQ > 80%, a reduction rate of the 226 mean concentration was calculated (i.e., downstream mean concentration / upstream

227 mean concentration). In the same way, a reduction rate of the maximum 228 concentration was obtained for the highest quantified concentrations. When both 229 tributaries showed different mean and/or maximum concentrations, data from UP1 230 were used to calculate the reduction rates in order to take into account the major 231 water source, which represented at least 80% of water inputs every time.

For each substance (and for the sum of all quantified substances) and at each sampling location (UP1, UP2, and DO), based on pesticide and TP concentrations, the events exceeding environmental or ecotoxicological standards were accounted for. Environmental and ecotoxicological standards were retrieved from either the INERIS database on chemical substances (Portail Substances Chimiques, 2009) or the IUPAC (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) database on pesticide properties (Lewis et al., 2016).

239 Comparisons of contaminant concentrations between upstream and downstream 240 stations were assessed using Welch's two-sample t-tests. Graphical representations 241 and statistical analyses were done with R software (version 4.0.2, © The R 242 Foundation).

243

244 **<u>3. Results</u>**

245 3.1. Occurrence of pesticides and TP in headwater streams

246 Over the 10-month study period (i.e., an entire fish breeding cycle from pond filling to 247 pond emptying), 173 samples were retrieved from the upstream stations. Out of the 248 67 investigated substances, 38 were at least detected in one sample (Table 2). Three 249 TP (i.e., flufenacet-ESA, metazachlor-ESA, and OXA) were present in all samples. At 250 UP1, the number of pesticides detected in one sample ranged from 5 to 12. The 251 number of detected TP was even higher and ranged from 10 to 17 compounds. At 252 UP2, this number ranged from 1 to 9 for pesticides and from 4 to 12 for TPs in any 253 sample (Fig. 2). Upstream from the pond, TPs represented on average $65.8\% \pm 0.6\%$ 254 of the detected substances. Whatever the water sample (UP and DO stations alike), 255 a mixture of at least 5 compounds was detected, reaching 29 different contaminants 256 in one sample at its highest (at UP1 station, Fig. 2). The average numbers of 257 compounds (i.e., pesticides and TP) detected per sample in UP1 and UP2 stations

were 22.5 ± 0.51 and 11.3 ± 0.78 , respectively. Among the 38 detected substances, 31 showed concentrations higher than the LOQ at UP1 and 20 at UP2. In both cases, TP accounted for more than 50% of the substances.

261 At both upstream locations, several groups showing a high FQ were formed by pesticides and their respective TP. Indeed, the most quantified herbicides were 262 263 flufenacet, metazachlor, and metolachlor (with a FQ as high as 100% for metolachlor 264 at UP1) and TP of metazachlor were present in all samples at the upstream stations. 265 In addition, the most quantified herbicide TP upstream were AMPA, atrazine-2-266 hydroxy, dimethachlor-ESA, dimethenamid-ESA, flufenacet-ESA and OXA, and 267 metolachlor-ESA and OXA. Regarding fungicides, boscalid was highly quantified at 268 both UP1 and UP2 stations, and tebuconazole mainly at UP1. Insecticides were 269 rarely quantified or detected (Table 2).

270 Downstream from the pond, 64 water samples were collected and 27 different 271 compounds were at least detected in one sample (Table 2), 59% of them being TP. 272 The average number of compounds detected at DO station was 14.6 \pm 0.8. The 273 number of pesticides and TP in one sample ranged from 0 to 7 and from 7 to 13, 274 respectively (Fig. 2).

Out of the 27 detected compounds, 24 showed concentrations above the LOQ. Dimethenamid, flufenacet, and metolachlor were the most quantified herbicides with a FQ between 23.4% and 39.1%. The fungicide tebuconazole was quantified in 78.1% of the samples (Table 3). More than half (54%) of these 24 substances were TP.

At DO station, just like at UP1/UP2 stations, groups of compounds showing a high FQ were formed by pesticides and their respective TP (Table 2). Flufenacet, metazachlor, and metolachlor were quantified in many samples, as were their TP. For instance, metolachlor was quantified in 39.1% of the samples, and metolachlor-ESA and OXA in 100% and 82.8%, respectively.

285 <u>3.2. Pesticides and TP concentrations in agricultural headwater streams and</u> 286 <u>pond-induced reduction rates</u>

According to the analytical method used (FQ > 80%), 16 substances allowed calculation of an average concentration ± SEM upstream from the pond (Table 3). Considering all 38 compounds per sample (those with a concentration > LOD), the mean concentration recorded over the study period was $3.5 \pm 0.18 \mu g/L$ at UP1 and 5.3 ± 0.9 at UP2 (all pesticide and TP kinetics during the study period are shown in the Supplementary appendix). The maximum concentrations of pesticides were 6.4 $\mu g/L$ and 23.9 $\mu g/L$, and those of TP were 7.7 $\mu g/L$ and 13.4 $\mu g/L$ at UP1 and UP2, respectively (Fig. 2).

- 295 During the study period, flufenacet had a mean concentration of 0.529 \pm 0.09 μ g/L at 296 UP1 (Table 3) and was quantified at high concentration in November and December 297 at UP1 and UP2 (5.4 and 3.1 µg/L, respectively). In contrast, its TP (i.e., flufenacet-298 ESA and OXA) were found to be at respective concentrations as high as 6.2 and 5.6 299 μ g/L at UP2 throughout the whole study period (Fig. 3). Metazachlor was also highly 300 quantified throughout the same period, with a mean concentration of 0.0473 ± 0.007 301 µg/L at UP1 (Table 3). Both its monitored TP showed high concentrations during 302 sampling (Fig. 3). Higher mean and maximum concentrations were observed at UP2, 303 with a mean concentration of 0.871 \pm 0.09 μ g/L for metazachlor-ESA (maximum of 304 2.8 μ g/L) and 0.816 ± 0.1 μ g/L for metazachlor-OXA (maximum of 4.8 μ g/L). 305 Metolachlor had a mean concentration of 0.0752 \pm 0.008 µg/L at UP1 (Table 3) and 306 was mostly present at the beginning of the study period (Fig. 3). Throughout the 307 course of the study, its TP metolachlor-ESA and OXA were observed to have mean 308 concentrations of 0.156 \pm 0.008 and 0.169 \pm 0.01 μ g/L (Table 3), respectively, with 309 the highest concentrations in November and December (Fig. 3).
- At DO location, the mean total concentration (i.e., all substances per sample considered) was $1.08 \pm 0.07 \mu g/L$ during the study. The maximum concentration of pesticides was $0.5 \mu g/L$ and that of their TP was $1.9 \mu g/L$ (Fig. 2).
- 313 Flufenacet-ESA and OXA were present throughout the whole study period (Fig. 3) 314 with mean concentrations of 0.244 \pm 0.02 µg/L and 0.0719 \pm 0.006 µg/L, respectively. 315 Metazachlor-ESA and OXA were always present at higher concentrations at DO than 316 their parent compound (Fig. 3) and had mean concentrations of 0.179 \pm 0.008 μ g/L 317 and 0.263 \pm 0.01 µg/L, respectively (Table 3) during the same period. Both 318 metolachlor-ESA and OXA were present in 100% and 82.8% of the water samples 319 (Table 2), with mean concentrations of 0.0394 \pm 0.002 µg/L and 0.0422 \pm 0.003 µg/L, 320 respectively, throughout the study (Table 3 & Fig. 3).

321 Reduction rates were calculated for both mean and maximum concentrations (Table 322 3). When UP1 and UP2 had different values, UP1 was selected for the calculation of 323 the reduction rate, in order to consider the main water input to the pond. For all 324 substances having a calculated mean concentration (FQ > 80%) except atrazine-2-325 hydroxy, reduction rates were positive, meaning that mean concentrations at DO 326 were lower than those at UP1 and/or UP2. Regarding atrazine-2-hydroxy, its mean 327 concentration at DO was 16% higher than that at UP2, which was not significantly 328 different. Regarding dimethachlor-ESA, flufenacet-ESA, and metazachlor-ESA and 329 OXA, their mean concentrations at DO were significantly lower than those at UP2. 330 The reduction rates of the mean concentrations ranged from 34% for flufenacet-ESA 331 up to 75% for metolachlor-ESA and OXA. The low FQs of DIA-OH and several other 332 compounds including benzamide and dimethachlor did not allow their mean 333 concentrations to be expressed at UP1/UP2, but since they were never quantified at 334 DO, positive reduction rates were expected.

Based on the maximum concentrations (i.e., peak concentrations), reduction rates were mainly positive, meaning that maximum concentrations at DO were lower than those at UP1/UP2. Considering highly quantified compounds, maximum reduction rates ranged from 20% for atrazine-2-hydroxy up to 100% for DIA-OH, benzamide, and eight other compounds (Table 3).

340 **3.3. Suppression of threshold exceedances events downstream from the pond**

In upstream locations and during late 2019, 37 flufenacet exceedance events were detected regarding regulatory acceptable concentration (RAC) 15 exceedance events of EC₅₀ for the bioindicator *Raphidocelis subcapitata* (13 at UP1 and 2 at UP2) were detected regarding flufenacet concentrations. In addition, 90 exceedances of the EQS value for metazachlor, set by the WFD (Order of July 27, 2015), were detected at UP1 between February and May, and again in November (Table 4 and Fig. 3).

- Mid-May, 8 exceedances of the regulatory acceptable concentration (RAC) values were highlighted for metsulfuron-methyl at UP2 (Table 4). Also, the EQS threshold was exceeded for MCPA mainly at UP1 in May. At DO location, 5 exceedances of RAC values were observed for flufenacet (Table 4).
- 352

353 4. Discussion

354 **4.1. Occurrence of pesticides and TP in headwater streams**

355 At the very beginning of the headwater streams, mixtures of pesticides and TP were 356 present in surface water (22.5 and 11.3 substances on average at UP1 and UP2, 357 respectively). At DO station, the number of detected substances was found to be 358 14.6 on average, therefore smaller than at UP1 but greater than at UP2, the reason 359 for the latter observation being a greater number of TP (Fig. 2) coming from UP1. 360 Moreover, TP represented more than half of the substances quantified upstream and 361 downstream from the pond. This result seems to be in agreement with studies carried 362 out in lentic systems, whose characteristics are similar to those of ponds, and which 363 reported the occurrence of metazachlor and flufenacet TP in 39% to 94% of their 364 water samples (Ulrich et al., 2018). In the same way, Fonseca et al. (2019) noted the 365 occurrence of TP in (Spanish) streams, which accounted for 22% of the detected 366 pesticide-related substances. These results call attention to the occurrence of TP in 367 the environment. They show the importance of considering compound mixtures when 368 studying ecotoxicological effects. In a study carried out across several European 369 countries (France, Germany, and the Netherlands) and the United States, Schreiner 370 et al. (2016) revealed, based on the analysis of routine monitoring data (292 371 compounds for France), the presence of 2 to 5 substances per sample, the majority 372 of which being herbicides. Our results suggest higher levels of contamination of 373 headwater streams with pesticide mixtures (as high as 29 different compounds per 374 sample), especially in areas of intensive agricultural activities. Furthermore, other 375 studies showed an occurrence of TP in surface waters greater than that of the 376 present study. Indeed, Moschet et al. (2014) reported water samples containing 377 between 15 and 25 different TP (as high as 17 in our samples), in rivers with larger 378 agricultural/urbanized catchments (between 38 km² and 105 km²) than that studied 379 here, potentially representing an even greater source of contamination.

Our analysis suggests a positive effect of the pond on the number of detected substances: by decreasing the number of pesticides and TP, ponds may induce a reduction in ecotoxicity risks (Cedergreen, 2014; Relyea, 2009; Rizzati et al., 2016).

383 The same trend was observed in Ohio (Midwestern United States), where TP are 384 present at the beginning of channelized agricultural watersheds and mixtures 385 (pesticides and TP) are generally more frequent than single substances. 386 Concentrations depend on treatments types and climatic conditions, and can vary 387 annually and seasonally (Smiley Jr et al., 2014). Therefore, our approach, based on 388 frequent water sampling, appears to be relevant in highlighting the occurrence of TP 389 in headwater streams. The same results were obtained in southwestern Germany, 390 where more than 80% of the water samples coming from studied agricultural 391 headwater streams contained more than 5 substances (pesticides and TP), and half 392 of them showed high concentrations of TP, such as metazachlor-OXA (0.89 μ g/L) 393 (Weber et al., 2018). Our results showed higher concentrations for some compounds, 394 with metazachlor-OXA and metolachlor-OXA concentrations exceeding those of 395 Weber et al. (2018) by a factor of 5.3 and 2.75, respectively.

396 Concerning herbicide parent compounds, flufenacet, metazachlor, and isoproturon 397 were present in our samples, which is consistent with the type of crops grown in the 398 watershed (Table 1) and the importance of herbicides in the crop protection market 399 (Bonanno et al., 2017). Flufenacet was particularly often quantified upstream from the 400 pond, having been applied in the watershed in 2019. Although this herbicide has a 401 relatively low organic carbon sorption coefficient (Koc) of 401 (Lewis et al., 2016), 402 which characterizes it as being moderately mobile, it may be highly mobile in 403 agricultural catchment areas (Willkommen et al., 2019). The latter authors showed 404 significant and continuous leaching of flufenacet soon after application under both dry 405 and wet conditions. Our result tends to confirm this mobility, as flufenacet was 406 applied at the beginning of October, and quantified as early as mid-October (Fig. 3). 407 Metazachlor, which was used in 2017, was also often quantified at UP1 (FQ = 408 99.2%). It has a relatively low 50% dissipation time (DT₅₀) in soil (6.8 days under field 409 conditions) characterizing a non-persistent compound but it is stable in the water 410 phase (DT₅₀ of 216 days) (Lewis et al., 2016). However, field studies have shown that 411 metazachlor could be detectable in soil up to 170 days after application (LOD of 0.57 412 ng/g in soil), depending on soil characteristics (Mantzos et al., 2016b). According to 413 Mantzos et al. (2016b), metazachlor is a potential risk for adjacent surface water 414 within the first month after application. However, our results suggest a more lasting 415 presence, even two years after its application on treated lands. Rising aguifers could 416 explain its occurrence in the study streams, but its low leaching potential (GUS = 417 1.75 according to Lewis et al., 2016) makes it unlikely to reach groundwater bodies

13

during treatment and then be transferred to surface water, like polar molecules, as
TP could do (Hintze et al., 2020). Thus, it can be assumed that quantification of
metazachlor over the whole study period resulted from accidental spill or undeclared
treatments, but no evidence could confirm it.

422 Moreover, isoproturon, which had no longer been approved as an agricultural 423 treatment since 2016 (EU 2016/872), was still quantified in water samples but at a 424 level far below the EQS limit value of 1 μ g/L. It was typically used in cereal crops to 425 control annual grasses and weeds, and considered as a priority hazardous 426 substance by the WFD because of its high environmental accumulation (Muhammad 427 et al., 2019). This molecule is still frequently detected in surface water samples 428 (Casado et al., 2019; Durak et al., 2020), notably because of its historic use and 429 variable DT₅₀ in soil ranging from 3 to 200 days (Alletto et al., 2006), thus potentially 430 explaining its presence in our samples even though it was not actually used during 431 the sampling period, nor had it been since 2016.

432 The two fungicides used in the study catchment (i.e., boscalid and tebuconazole) 433 were detected in all UP1 samples and in 100% and 61.5% of UP2 samples, 434 respectively. Boscalid is one of the most widely used succinate dehydrogenase 435 inhibitor (SDHI) fungicides in the world. A recent study (Bénit et al., 2019) has 436 established that human. honeybee, earthworm, and fungal succinate 437 dehydrogenases (SDHs) are all affected by SDHIs. Furthermore, these authors have 438 shown that cell death due to SDHI exposure was significantly accelerated in 439 fibroblasts derived from patients with neurodegenerative diseases. For these 440 reasons, even though this effect has not been highlighted in vivo yet, SDHIs have 441 come under the close scrutiny of phytopharmacovigilance committees. 442 Contamination of surface water by tebuconazole and boscalid has recently been 443 established in an agricultural catchment in Germany (Tauchnitz et al., 2020). Our 444 results confirm Tauchnitz et al.'s findings but with maximum concentrations that were 445 higher by a factor of 10 (0.01 vs. 0.1 μ g/L at UP2) and 50 (0.014 vs. 0.5 μ g/L at the 446 highest at UP1) for boscalid and tebuconazole, respectively.

Regarding groups of substances formed by pesticides and their respective TP, an
overall decrease in FQ was observed for pesticides between the upstream and
downstream stations (FQ of 91.7% and 67.3% at UP1 and UP2, respectively, vs.
31.3% at DO for flufenacet). TP tended to remain highly present in the samples (FQ

451 of 100% at UP1, UP2, and DO for both TP of metazachlor). Greater persistence of 452 TP (compared to pesticides) has been established for metazachlor and flufenacet in 453 waterbodies (Ulrich et al., 2018), which thus can explain their detection at high 454 concentration in the water sampled in the present study, even downstream from the 455 pond.

456 <u>4.2. Pesticides and TP concentrations in agricultural headwater streams and</u> 457 <u>pond-induced reduction rates</u>

458 A significant decrease in mean concentrations (p-value < 0.001) was observed 459 between UP1/UP2 and DO stations (3.5 \pm 0.2 μ g/L and 5.3 \pm 0.9 at UP1 and UP2, 460 respectively, vs. 1.09 \pm 0.07 µg/L at DO). Such a decrease was observed for 7 461 different substances. A clear buffering of contaminant peaks was also observed, with 462 a maximum of 27.2 µg/L at UP2 compared to 2.16 µg/L at DO. Reduction in pesticide 463 concentrations between upstream and downstream rivers has already been 464 demonstrated for ponds, with reduction rates of up to 99% (Gaillard et al., 2016, 465 2015), as well as for constructed wetlands, which showed variable reduction rates 466 (Budd et al., 2009; Gaullier et al., 2019; Tournebize et al., 2017; Vymazal and 467 Březinová, 2015). Our results indicate a similar trend not only for pesticides, with a 468 100% reduction rate for several substances such as dimethachlor, isoproturon, and 469 metsulfuron-methyl, but also for TP such as benzamide, dimethachlor-OXA, and DIA-470 OH. Such retention effect was never highlighted in such an extent, at sampling as 471 well as molecular diversity levels. Considering pesticides and TP, the mean reduction 472 rates of their mean concentrations were 100% and 72.4% ± 8.9%, respectively. 473 Better reduction rates were observed for parent compounds, reflecting potentially 474 greater stability of TP, which may be less affected by abiotic and biotic processes 475 occurring in the pond (Picó and Barceló, 2015). Atrazine-2-hydroxy had the lowest 476 reduction rate of maximum concentration as compared to the other TP, which may be 477 explained by its great persistence (with a DT₅₀ potentially as high as 164 days; Lewis 478 et al., 2016) or low volatility (with a Henry's law constant at 25°C of 6.36e-8 479 Pa/m³/mol). Atrazine and its TP have been reported to be highly persistent in water 480 and soil (Jablonowski et al., 2011). These authors showed that, in Germany, atrazine 481 was the most abundant pesticide in groundwater samples even after having been 482 banned from use for 15 years. Schreiner et al. (2016) have also reported high 483 atrazine and atrazine TP contamination in France, Germany, the Netherlands, and

the USA, and identified them as being among the most detected pesticides and TP. The persistence of atrazine-2-hydroxy, combined with the continuous release of atrazine TPs from surrounding agricultural lands being then transported by the main tributaries of the pond (FQs of 60.3% and 94.2% at UP1 and UP2, respectively) and subsurface flows, may thus explain their occurrence at DO station.

489 It was surprising to observe, on the one hand, the presence of TPs upstream from 490 the pond and, on the other hand, their diversity ($10 \le TPs \le 17$ at UP1) (Fig. 2). 491 Indeed, the pond can be seen as a degrading environment, thus leading to increased 492 TP presence downstream from the pond. Their presence upstream reflected high 493 contamination at the beginning of the study headwater streams. Such contamination 494 is related to the soil transformation that takes place between the time of treatment 495 application (Raina et al., 2011), the first rain events post application, and rain events 496 heavy enough to lead to the transportation of these substances (Ulrich et al., 2018).

497 Nevertheless, by showing the occurrence of TP at a stable high concentration (6.2 498 μ g/L for flufenacet-ESA at UP2) over a long period of time, we highlighted that they 499 should be more considered in monitoring programs. Maximum concentrations of 500 metazachlor and flufenacet TP were particularly high in our samples compared to 501 those of Ulrich et al. Flufenacet-ESA and OXA were quantified at a maximum 502 concentration of 6.2 μ g/L (vs. 1.9 in Ulrich et al.) and 5.6 μ g/L (vs. less than 0.75 μ g/L 503 in Ulrich et al.), respectively, and metazachlor-OXA was guantified at 4.8 µg/L at its 504 highest compared to less than 4 μ g/L in Ulrich et al. TP were found to be at higher 505 concentration than their parent substances, which could potentially be correlated to 506 the time of treatment of arable lands, as well as to molecule characteristics. A high 507 FQ of flufenacet in UP1 and UP2 samples may have been caused by direct transfer 508 from arable lands, after pre-emergent treatment in October. Having both pesticides 509 and TP at UP1 and UP2 stations is explained by winter treatments (of 2019 and 510 potentially of previous years) and specific flufenacet characteristics. Longer DT₅₀ 511 have been estimated under laboratory conditions, correlated with soil clay content 512 (Gupta and Gajbhiye, 2002), and even higher DT₅₀ have been determined in field 513 studies, ranging from 117 up to 145 days (Marín-Benito et al., 2020). Flufenacet will 514 be slowly degraded in treated soils, leading to the formation of TP. However, the 515 parent molecule will also be present when heavy rainfall occurs, explaining the 516 simultaneous presence of pesticides and TP in water (Willkommen et al., 2019).

16

517 Moreover, it raises the question of monitoring pesticide occurrences and 518 concentrations without taking into account related TP, which may be, on average, 519 more concentrated (0.459 \pm 0.02 µg/L and 0.728 \pm 0.04 µg/L for metazachlor-ESA 520 and OXA, respectively, vs. 0.0473 ± 0.007 µg/L for metazachlor at UP1) and 521 persistent (Fig. 3). Studies that question the relevance of TP in control and 522 monitoring programs agree and highlight the need to include these substances on 523 official lists. However, given the range of potential substances to be monitored, 524 prioritizing pertinent TP is necessary (Melin et al., 2020). Ecotoxicological effects 525 should be considered, which is the approach adopted by the French Agency for 526 Food, Environmental and Occupational Health, and Safety (ANSES). Furthermore, 527 the selection of the TP to be analyzed should be based on extensive environmental 528 monitoring data (regarding the number of substances searched for and study times), 529 as has been done in the present study, to determine TP actually occurring in 530 anthropized natural environments (Fig. 2).

531 Contrary to Gaillard et al. (2016), no isoproturon increase was observed in DO 532 samples. This may be due to a decrease in overall pollution, since the substance was 533 banned from agricultural use, or to a difference in sampling strategy. The strategy 534 used in the present study is potentially more precise because based on stream flows. 535 Thus, we were less likely to miss isoproturon peaks at upstream stations during 536 heavy precipitation events, which represent crucial leaching events (Beulke et al., 537 2002; Filipović et al., 2016).

538 Counter-intuitively, the pond did not release TP having formed because of hydraulic 539 conditions through biotic (Vidali, 2001; Zablotowicz et al., 2004) and abiotic (Sarmah 540 and Sabadie, 2002) transformation processes. Indeed, they were already present 541 upstream from the pond (Fig. 3), which, however, may have increased their 542 dissipation via these biotic and abiotic processes, allowing concentration reductions 543 downstream. The year 2019 was marked by sparse rainfall, which resulted in 544 incomplete filling of the pond and thus water not reaching the spillway. As a result, 545 hydraulic residence time, normally close to 3 months, was increased to 7.7 months; it 546 is thus likely that TP reaching and forming in the pond were degraded over a longer 547 period of time, explaining such effective reduction between UP1/UP2 and DO 548 stations. The importance of hydraulic residence time has indeed already been 549 highlighted for parent molecules (Stehle et al., 2011).

550 It is also relevant to consider the storage/release capacities of the pond between the 551 sediment compartment and the water column (Vallée et al., 2014). Indeed, according 552 to their characteristics, pesticides and TP are likely to have a high affinity for 553 particulate matter, thus being added to the sediment compartment. It is generally 554 accepted that the sorption coefficient (Koc) and the octanol/water partition coefficient 555 (LogP) of pesticides are good indicators of their fate in waterbodies, and of their 556 binding to suspended matter (Boithias et al., 2014; Vryzas, 2018). The importance of 557 the sediment compartment in the retention of contaminants, whether pesticides or 558 TP, should therefore also be considered and explored in order to explain the 559 observed upstream/downstream difference.

- 560 Finally, it is also important to take into account the dilution effect induced by the 561 pond. Studies focusing on large rivers have shown that pesticide loads are strongly 562 correlated with hydrological parameters, showing a decrease in concentrations in 563 downstream locations where water volumes are large (Climent et al., 2019). For 564 compounds occasionally detected or quantified at UP1 and UP2 but not at DO, such 565 as DIA-OH, benzamide, DPC, Me-DPC, dimethachlor, metsulfuron-methyl, and 566 imidacloprid, and thus having a maximum reduction rate of 100%, dilution may 567 explain the upstream/downstream reduction. All these substances had FQ lower than 568 20%, and for some of them less than 1% (DIA-OH and benzamide) at UP1 or UP2 569 location, and were never quantified at DO. They were likely to have remained 570 undetected in the pond and at DO location (regardless of low LOD) because of large 571 water volumes and possibly intra pond transformation processes.
- 572

573 **4.3. Suppression of threshold exceedances events downstream from the pond**

A total of 159 exceedances of environmental/ecotoxicological standards were observed over the whole sampling period at UP1 and UP2 stations, as against 5 at DO station (Table 4).

577 MCPA and metsulfuron-methyl are compounds used in cereal crops, and their 578 occurrence at UP2 could be explained by cultivation upstream from the sampling 579 station (see Section 2.1). The presence of tebuconazole could be linked to the type 580 of crops grown in the watershed in previous years (see Section 2.1). It has been 581 reported to have moderate to high persistence depending on soil properties, 582 explaining possible leaching events even though not applied during the study period583 (Lewis et al., 2016).

584 In Europe, studies have shown that pesticide concentration thresholds are exceeded 585 in water streams during site-sampling events (Casado et al., 2019; Schreiner et al., 586 2016; Szöcs et al., 2017; Weber et al., 2018). These events are strongly correlated 587 with pesticide treatments (Zivan et al., 2016) but highly variable because they depend 588 on environmental conditions and substance intrinsic properties such as solubility or 589 soil sorption (Kellogg et al., 2002). Flufenacet was used as winter treatment in late 590 2019 when precipitation levels were high, thus leaving little time for compound 591 transformation to occur and inducing direct runoff from arable lands. Low stable 592 concentrations were observed at the beginning of the study period (Fig. 3), 593 suggesting that most of the applied doses had already been washed off during 594 rainfall events of late 2018. Flufenacet is well documented, and it is admitted that first 595 runoff events will induce major transport after application (Milan et al., 2013), and 596 then potential toxic effects on aquatic organisms like the bioindicator R.subcapitata. 597 Our high frequency sampling indicated peaks of flufenacet (33 events at UP1 and 4 598 at UP2) from October until the end of December, suggesting significant chronic 599 toxicity risks for aquatic organisms. Regarding metazachlor, concentrations were less 600 variable along the study period (reaching 0.6 µg/L at UP1), but higher concentrations 601 were observed at the beginning, in accordance with rapeseed treatment (Fig. 3). 602 Major runoff is expected after rainfall events in treatment periods (Mantzos et al., 603 2016a). Both of these compounds are characterized by low to moderate K_{oc} and are 604 thus likely to be transported by surface and subsurface runoff during precipitation 605 events.

606 Regarding total pesticide and TP concentrations and the 44 exceedance events 607 induced (Table 4 & Fig. 3), it is important to note that they take into account all 67 608 investigated substances (pesticides and TP). If we consider only parent molecules, 609 then only 7 samples showed concentrations above the established threshold (5 610 events at UP2 and 2 at UP1). In both cases, exceeding events were only detected at 611 UP locations, bringing to the fore the positive effect of the pond on pesticide and TP 612 mixture contamination in agricultural headwater streams. TP were highly present in 613 our water samples; their inclusion in regulations, such as EQS, but also in 614 ecotoxicological risk assessments in the future therefore seems relevant.

Nevertheless, many ecotoxicological standards and environmental limits are missing from the literature and pesticide databases. For instance, INERIS provided environmental and toxicity thresholds for 68% of the 28 pesticides monitored in the present study, but only 3% of the 39 TP. Therefore, there is an urgent need to obtain toxicity data on these compounds whose occurrence has been evidenced in the natural environment, such as in headwater streams.

621

622 **<u>4. Conclusion</u>**

623 Headwater streams are of prime importance when considering the chemical status of 624 surface water. Our study emphasizes their contamination by pesticides and TP, when 625 located in an agricultural watershed. We detected a minimum of 5-compounds mixtures in each sample and highlighted that regardless of the sampling location, TP 626 627 represented more than half of the detected and quantified substances. Considering 628 that their concentrations were, in some samples, higher than those of their parent 629 molecules, it seems essential to collect data on them in anthropized environments. 630 Our results showed large pesticide and TP mixtures in water, and suggested several 631 relevant compounds, such as flufenacet TP, to be included in monitoring lists in the 632 future.

633 The buffer effect of the pond was brought to the fore by the decrease in the diversity 634 of substances occurring in downstream water. Indeed, by reducing mixture diversity it 635 may be able to protect downstream ecosystems from toxicity and the occurrence of 636 synergic and/or additive effects. Finally, exceedances of guidance and threshold 637 values were observed during sampling for several pesticide concentrations upstream 638 from the pond. No exceedances were detected downstream from the pond, but these 639 results should be interpreted with caution as many guidance values were missing 640 concerning TP.

The question raised, then, relates to underlying processes inducing such an upstream/downstream difference. A dilution effect should not be ruled out, and reconciling concentration data with waterflows should make it possible to overcome the biases induced by this approach. Moreover, intra-pond sampling of the sedimentary matrix should make it possible in future work to highlight its role in 646 pesticide and TP dynamics, the storage of a substantial part of the contaminants647 being a relevant hypothesis.

The demonstration of the prolonged presence and high concentration of TP highlights the importance of their inclusion in ecotoxicological studies, especially when several substances are combined, which is likely to occur repeatedly and on a scale as small as the watershed. Regarding the understanding of the fate of pesticides in the environment, as well as their dynamics, TP analysis is required to avoid missing this insidious contamination.

654 **Funding**

This research was carried out within the REPONSE project, funded by the Rhin-Meuse Water Agency and the French Agency for Food, Environmental and Occupational Health & Safety (ANSES).

658 **Declaration of interest**

659 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

660 **Acknowledgements**

The authors are sincerely grateful to A. and H. L'huillier for their significant help during sampling, and for providing access to the study pond. They also thank Mr. Nicolai Miguel of the Rhine-Meuse Water Agency for his help and advice in the selection of relevant pesticides and transformation products to be monitored. Finally, they would like to thank L. Pasquini, C. Hollard, and M-C. Clavos for their work during sample analysis. Finally, the authors sincerely thank ABC translation for the proofreading work done.

668

669 **References**

- Alletto, L., Coquet, Y., Benoit, P., Bergheaud, V., 2006. Effects of temperature and water
 content on degradation of isoproturon in three soil profiles. Chemosphere 64, 1053–
 1061. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2005.12.004
- Bartout, P., Touchart, L., 2018. THE LIMNIC FOOTPRINT INDEX, in: Proceedings Air and
 Water Components of the Environment. pp. 137–145.
- Bénit, P., Kahn, A., Chretien, D., Bortoli, S., Huc, L., Schiff, M., Favier, J., Gressens, P., Rak,
 M., Rustin, P., 2019. Evolutionarily conserved susceptibility of the mitochondrial
 respiratory chain to SDHI pesticides and its consequence on the impact of SDHIs on
 human cultured cells. PLoS One 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0224132
- Beulke, S., Brown, C.D., Fryer, C.J., Walker, A., 2002. Lysimeter study to investigate the
 effect of rainfall patterns on leaching of isoproturon. Pest Manag. Sci. 58, 45–53.
 https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.419
- Boithias, L., Sauvage, S., Srinivasan, R., Leccia, O., Sánchez-Pérez, J.M., 2014. Application
 date as a controlling factor of pesticide transfers to surface water during runoff events.
 Catena 119, 97–103. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.catena.2014.03.013
- Bonanno, A., Materia, V.C., Venus, T., Wesseler, J., 2017. The Plant Protection Products
 (PPP) Sector in the European Union: A Special View on Herbicides. Eur. J. Dev. Res.
 29, 575–595. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-017-0088-1
- Budd, R., O'Geen, A., Goh, K.S., Bondarenko, S., Gan, J., 2009. Efficacy of Constructed
 Wetlands in Pesticide Removal from Tailwaters in the Central Valley, California.
 Environ. Sci. Technol. 43, 2925–2930. https://doi.org/10.1021/es802958q
- Bunzel, K., Liess, M., Kattwinkel, M., 2014. Landscape parameters driving aquatic pesticide
 exposure and effects. Environ. Pollut. 186, 90–97.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2013.11.021
- Burgess, M., Pimentel, D., 2014. Integrated pest management: Pesticide problems, vol.3.
 Integr. Pest Manag. Pestic. Probl. Vol.3 1–474. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-0077796-5
- 697 Carson, R., 1962. Silent Spring.
- 698 Carvalho, F.P., 2017. Pesticides, environment, and food safety. Food Energy Secur. 6, 48–
 699 60. https://doi.org/10.1002/fes3.108

Casado, J., Brigden, K., Santillo, D., Johnston, P., 2019. Screening of pesticides and
veterinary drugs in small streams in the European Union by liquid chromatography high
resolution mass spectrometry. Sci. Total Environ. 670, 1204–1225.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.03.207

Cedergreen, N., 2014. Quantifying synergy: A systematic review of mixture toxicity studies
within environmental toxicology. PLoS One 9.
https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0096580

- Chow, R., Scheidegger, R., Doppler, T., Dietzel, A., Fenicia, F., Stamm, C., 2020. A review
 of long-term pesticide monitoring studies to assess surface water quality trends. Water
 Res. X 9, 100064. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wroa.2020.100064
- Climent, M.J., Herrero-Hernández, E., Sánchez-Martín, M.J., Rodríguez-Cruz, M.S.,
 Pedreros, P., Urrutia, R., 2019. Residues of pesticides and some metabolites in
 dissolved and particulate phase in surface stream water of Cachapoal River basin,
 central Chile. Environ. Pollut. 251, 90–101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.04.117
- 714 Dhananjayan, V., Jayakumar, S., Ravichandran, B., 2020. Conventional Methods of 715 Pesticide Application in Agricultural Field and Fate of the Pesticides in the Environment 716 and Human Health, in: K. R. R., Thomas S., Volova T., K.J. (Ed.), Controlled Release of 717 Pesticides for Sustainable Agriculture. Springer, Cham. pp. 1–39. 718 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-23396-9 1
- Dodds, W.K., Oakes, R.M., 2008. Headwater influences on downstream water quality.
 Environ. Manage. 41, 367–377. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-007-9033-y
- Drożdżyński, D., 2008. Studies on residues of pesticides used in rape plants protection in
 surface waters of intensively exploited arable lands in Wielkopolska province of Poland.
 Ann Agric Env. Med 231–235.
- Durak, J., Rokoszak, T., Skiba, A., Styszko, K., 2020. Environmental risk assessment of
 priority biocidal substances on Polish surface water sample. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.
 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-11581-7
- FAO, 2020. FAOSTAT [WWW Document]. Agri-environmental Indic. / Pestic. URL
 http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/EP (accessed 11.10.20).
- Filipović, V., Coquet, Y., Pot, V., Houot, S., Benoit, P., 2016. Modeling water and isoproturon
 dynamics in a heterogeneous soil profile under different urban waste compost
 applications. Geoderma 268, 29–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoderma.2016.01.009
- 732 Fonseca, E., Renau-Pruñonosa, A., Ibáñez, M., Gracia-Lor, E., Estrela, T., Jiménez, S.,

- Pérez-Martín, M.Á., González, F., Hernández, F., Morell, I., 2019. Investigation of
 pesticides and their transformation products in the Júcar River Hydrographical Basin
 (Spain) by wide-scope high-resolution mass spectrometry screening. Environ. Res. 177,
 108570. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2019.108570
- Gaillard, J., Thomas, M., Iuretig, A., Pallez, C., Feidt, C., Dauchy, X., Banas, D., 2016.
 Barrage fishponds: Reduction of pesticide concentration peaks and associated risk of
 adverse ecological effects in headwater streams. J. Environ. Manage. 169, 261–271.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2015.12.035
- Gaillard, J., Thomas, M., Lazartigues, A., Bonnefille, B., Pallez, C., Dauchy, X., Feidt, C.,
 Banas, D., 2015. Potential of barrage fish ponds for the mitigation of pesticide pollution
 in streams. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 23, 23–35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-0155378-6
- Gaullier, C., Baran, N., Dousset, S., Devau, N., Billet, D., Kitzinger, G., Coisy, E., 2019.
 Wetland hydrodynamics and mitigation of pesticides and their metabolites at pilot-scale.
 Ecol. Eng. 136, 185–192. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2019.06.019
- Gregoire, C., Elsaesser, D., Huguenot, D., Lange, J., Lebeau, T., Merli, A., Mose, R.,
 Passeport, E., Payraudeau, S., Schütz, T., Schulz, R., Tapia-Padilla, G., Tournebize, J.,
 Trevisan, M., Wanko, A., 2009. Mitigation of agricultural nonpoint-source pesticide
 pollution in artificial wetland ecosystems. Environ. Chem. Lett. 7, 205–231.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-008-0167-9
- Gruchlik, Y., Linge, K., Joll, C., 2018. Removal of organic micropollutants in waste
 stabilisation ponds: A review. J. Environ. Manage. 206, 202–214.
 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2017.10.020
- Gupta, S., Gajbhiye, V.T., 2002. Effect of concentration, moisture and soil type on the
 dissipation of flufenacet from soil. Chemosphere 47, 901–906.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0045-6535(02)00017-6
- Hernández, F., Sancho, J. V, Ibáñez, M., Grimalt, S., 2008. Investigation of pesticide
 metabolites in food and water by LC-TOF-MS. TrAC Trends Anal. Chem. 27, 862–872.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trac.2008.08.011
- Hintze, S., Glauser, G., Hunkeler, D., 2020. Influence of surface water groundwater
 interactions on the spatial distribution of pesticide metabolites in groundwater. Sci. Total
 Environ. 733, 139109. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139109
- 765 Infoclimat [WWW Document], 2020. URL

- 766 https://www.infoclimat.fr/climatologie/annee/2019/buhl-lorraine/valeurs/000C0.html
 767 (accessed 11.11.20).
- Jablonowski, N.D., Schäffer, A., Burauel, P., 2011. Still present after all these years:
 Persistence plus potential toxicity raise questions about the use of atrazine. Environ.
 Sci. Pollut. Res. 18, 328–331. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-010-0431-y
- Kaur, H., Garg, H., 2014. Pesticides: Environmental Impacts and Management Strategies.
 Pestic. Toxic Asp. https://doi.org/10.5772/57399
- Kellogg, R.L., Nehring, R.F., Grube, A., Goss, D.W., Plotkin, S., 2002. Environmental
 Indicators of Pesticide Leaching and Runoff from Farm Fields. Agric. Product. 213–256.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-0851-9_9
- Kim, K.H., Kabir, E., Jahan, S.A., 2017. Exposure to pesticides and the associated human
 health effects. Sci. Total Environ. 575, 525–535.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.09.009
- 779 Lazartigues, A., Banas, D., Feidt, C., Brun-Bellut, J., Thomas, M., 2012. Pesticide pressure 780 and fish farming in barrage pond in Northeastern France Part I: Site characterization 781 and water quality. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 19. 2802-2812. 782 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-012-0784-5
- Lazartigues, A., Thomas, M., Cren-Olivé, C., Brun-Bellut, J., Le Roux, Y., Banas, D., Feidt,
 C., 2013. Pesticide pressure and fish farming in barrage pond in Northeastern France.
 Part II: Residues of 13 pesticides in water, sediments, edible fish and their relationships.
 Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 20, 117–125. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-012-1167-7
- Lefrancq, M., Jadas-Hécart, A., La Jeunesse, I., Landry, D., Payraudeau, S., 2017. High
 frequency monitoring of pesticides in runoff water to improve understanding of their
 transport and environmental impacts. Sci. Total Environ. 587–588, 75–86.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.02.022
- Lewis, K.A., Tzilivakis, J., Warner, D.J., Green, A., 2016. An international database for
 pesticide risk assessments and management. Hum. Ecol. Risk Assess. 22, 1050–1064.
 https://doi.org/10.1080/10807039.2015.1133242
- Lorenz, S., Rasmussen, J.J., Süß, A., Kalettka, T., Golla, B., Horney, P., Stähler, M.,
 Hommel, B., Schäfer, R.B., 2017. Specifics and challenges of assessing exposure and
 effects of pesticides in small water bodies. Hydrobiologia 793, 213–224.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10750-016-2973-6
- 798 Mantzos, N., Hela, D., Karakitsou, A., Antonopoulou, M., Konstantinou, I., 2016a. Dissipation

- and runoff transport of metazachlor herbicide in rapeseed cultivated and uncultivated
 plots in field conditions. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 23, 20517–20527.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-016-7233-9
- 802 Mantzos, N., Hela, D., Karakitsou, A., Antonopoulou, M., Konstantinou, I., 2016b. Dissipation 803 and runoff transport of metazachlor herbicide in rapeseed cultivated and uncultivated 804 plots in field conditions. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 23. 20517-20527. 805 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-016-7233-9
- Marín-Benito, J.M., Carpio, M.J., Mamy, L., Andrades, M.S., Sánchez-Martín, M.J.,
 Rodríguez-Cruz, M.S., 2020. Field measurement and modelling of chlorotoluron and
 flufenacet persistence in unamended and amended soils. Sci. Total Environ. 725,
 138374. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.138374
- 810 Melin, J., Guillon, A., Enault, J., Esperanza, M., Dauchy, X., Bouchonnet, S., 2020. How to 811 select relevant metabolites based on available data for parent molecules: Case of 812 neonicotinoids, carbamates, phenylpyrazoles and organophosphorus compounds in 813 French Pollut. 265. water resources. Environ. 114992. 814 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114992
- 815 Meyer, J.L., Strayer, D.L., Wallace, J.B., Eggert, S.L., Helfman, G.S., Leonard, N.E., Judy, 816 L., Strayer, D.L., Wallace, J.B., Eggert, S.L., Helfman, G.S., Leonard, N.E., 2007. The 817 headwater biodiversity in river contribution of streams to networks 43. 818 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1752-1688.2007.00008.x
- Milan, M., Ferrero, A., Letey, M., De Palo, F., Vidotto, F., 2013. Effect of buffer strips and soil
 texture on runoff losses of flufenacet and isoxaflutole from maize fields. J. Environ. Sci.
 Heal. Part B 48, 1021–1033. https://doi.org/10.1080/03601234.2013.824239
- Muhammad, M., Rasul Jan, M., Shah, J., Ara, B., 2019. Determination of Isoproturon in
 Environmental Samples using the QuEChERS Extraction-Spectrofluorimetric Method.
 Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 38, 2614–2620. https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.4589
- 825 Osborne, J.L., 2012. Bumblebees and pesticides. Nature 491, pages, 3–5.
- Özkara, A., Akyil, D., Konuk, M., 2016. Pesticides, Environmental Pollution, and Health.
 Environ. Heal. Risk Hazard. Factors to Living Species 3–28.
 https://doi.org/10.5772/63094
- Phillips, P.J., Wall, G.R., Thurman, E.M., Eckhardt, D.A., Vanhoesen, J., 1999. Metolachlor
 and its metabolites in tile drain and stream runoff in the canajoharie creek watershed.
 Environ. Sci. Technol. 33, 3531–3537. https://doi.org/10.1021/es9811997

- Picó, Y., Barceló, D., 2015. Transformation products of emerging contaminants in the
 environment and high-resolution mass spectrometry: A new horizon. Anal. Bioanal.
 Chem. 407, 6257–6273. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-015-8739-6
- Pimentel, D., 2005. Environmental and economic costs of the application of pesticides
 primarily in the United States. Environ. Dev. Sustain. 7, 229–252.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-005-7314-2
- 838 Portail Substances Chimiques [WWW Document], 2009. URL www.ineris.fr/substances
- Raina, R., Etter, M.L., Buehler, K., Starks, K., Yowin, Y., 2011. Phenoxyacid Herbicides in
 Stormwater Retention Ponds: Urban Inputs. Am. J. Anal. Chem. 02, 962–970.
 https://doi.org/10.4236/ajac.2011.28112
- 842 Rasmussen, J.J., McKnight, U.S., Loinaz, M.C., Thomsen, N.I., Olsson, M.E., Bjerg, P.L., 843 Binning, P.J., Kronvang, B., 2013. A catchment scale evaluation of multiple stressor 844 Sci. effects in headwater streams. Total Environ. 442, 420-431. 845 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.10.076
- Relyea, R.A., 2009. A cocktail of contaminants: How mixtures of pesticides at low
 concentrations affect aquatic communities. Oecologia 159, 363–376.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-008-1213-9
- Rizzati, V., Briand, O., Guillou, H., Gamet-Payrastre, L., 2016. Effects of pesticide mixtures in
 human and animal models: An update of the recent literature. Chem. Biol. Interact. 254,
 231–246. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbi.2016.06.003
- Rousis, N.I., Bade, R., Bijlsma, L., Zuccato, E., Sancho, J. V, 2017. Monitoring a large
 number of pesticides and transformation products in water samples from Spain and
 Italy. Environ. Res. 156, 31–38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2017.03.013
- 855 Sarmah, A.K., Sabadie, J., 2002. Hydrolysis of Sulfonylurea Herbicides in Soils and Aqueous
 856 Solutions : a Review. J. Agric. food Chem. 50, 6253–6265.
- Schreiner, V.C., Szöcs, E., Bhowmik, A.K., Vijver, M.G., Schäfer, R.B., 2016. Pesticide
 mixtures in streams of several European countries and the USA. Sci. Total Environ.
 573, 680–689. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.08.163
- Schuhmann, A., Klammler, G., Weiss, S., Gans, O., Fank, J., Haberhauer, G., Gerzabek,
 M.H., 2019. Degradation and leaching of bentazone, terbuthylazine and S-metolachlor
 and some of their metabolites: A long-term lysimeter experiment. Plant, Soil Environ. 65,
 273–281. https://doi.org/10.17221/803/2018-PSE

- 864 Sharma, A., Kumar, V., Shahzad, B., Tanveer, M., Sidhu, G.P.S., Handa, N., Kohli, S.K., 865 Yadav, P., Bali, A.S., Parihar, R.D., Dar, O.I., Singh, K., Jasrotia, S., Bakshi, P., 866 Ramakrishnan, M., Kumar, S., Bhardwaj, R., Thukral, A.K., 2019. Worldwide pesticide 867 usage and its impacts on ecosystem. SN Appl. Sci. 1, 1446. 868 https://doi.org/10.1007/s42452-019-1485-1
- Smiley Jr, P.C., King, K.W., Fausey, N.R., 2014. Agriculture, Ecosystems and Environment
 Annual and seasonal differences in pesticide mixtures within channelized agricultural
 headwater streams in central Ohio. "Agriculture, Ecosyst. Environ. 193, 83–95.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2014.04.022
- Stehle, S., Elsaesser, D., Gregoire, C., Imfeld, G., Niehaus, E., Passeport, E., Payraudeau,
 S., Schäfer, R.B., Tournebize, J., Schulz, R., 2011. Pesticide Risk Mitigation by
 Vegetated Treatment Systems: A Meta-Analysis. J. Environ. Qual. 40, 1068–1080.
 https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq2010.0510
- Strahler, A., 1952. Hypsometric (area-altitude) analysis of erosional topography. Bull. Geol.
 Soc. Am. 63, 1117–1142. https://doi.org/10.1130/0016-7606(1952)63
- Szöcs, E., Brinke, M., Karaoglan, B., Schäfer, R.B., 2017. Large Scale Risks from
 Agricultural Pesticides in Small Streams. Environ. Sci. Technol. 51, 7378–7385.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b00933
- Tauchnitz, N., Kurzius, F., Rupp, H., Schmidt, G., Hauser, B., Schrödter, M., Meissner, R.,
 2020. Assessment of pesticide inputs into surface waters by agricultural and urban
 sources A case study in the Querne/Weida catchment, central Germany. Environ.
 Pollut. 267, 115186. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.115186
- Tournebize, J., Chaumont, C., Mander, Ü., 2017. Implications for constructed wetlands to
 mitigate nitrate and pesticide pollution in agricultural drained watersheds. Ecol. Eng.
 103, 415–425. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2016.02.014
- Tournebize, J., Gramaglia, C., Birmant, F., Bouarfa, S., Chaumont, C., Vincent, B., 2012. Codesign of constructed wetlands to mitigate pesticide pollution in a drained catch-basin: a
 solution to improve groundwater quality. Irrig. Drain. 61, 75–86.
- Tournebize, J., Passeport, E., Chaumont, C., Fesneau, C., Guenne, A., Vincent, B., 2013.
 Pesticide de-contamination of surface waters as a wetland ecosystem service in
 agricultural landscapes. Ecol. Eng. 56, 51–59.
 https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2012.06.001
- Ulrich, U., Hörmann, G., Unger, M., Pfannerstill, M., Steinmann, F., Fohrer, N., 2018. Lentic

- small water bodies: Variability of pesticide transport and transformation patterns. Sci.
 Total Environ. 618, 26–38. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.032
- Vallée, R., Dousset, S., Billet, D., Benoit, M., 2014. Sorption of selected pesticides on soils,
 sediment and straw from a constructed agricultural drainage ditch or pond. Environ. Sci.
 Pollut. Res. 21, 4895–4905. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-013-1840-5
- Vallée, R., Dousset, S., Schott, F.X., Pallez, C., Ortar, A., Cherrier, R., Munoz, J.F., Benoît,
 M., 2015. Do constructed wetlands in grass strips reduce water contamination from
 drained fields? Environ. Pollut. 207, 365–373.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2015.09.027
- 906 van Lexmond, M.B., Bonmatin, J.M., Goulson, D., Noome, D.A., 2015. Worldwide integrated 907 assessment on systemic pesticides global collapse of the entomofauna: Exploring the 908 of systemic insecticides. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 22, 1-4. role 909 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-014-3220-1
- 910 Vidali, M., 2001. Bioremediation . An overview *. Pure Appl. Chem 73, 1163–1172.
- 911 Vryzas, Z., 2018. Pesticide fate in soil-sediment-water environment in relation to
 912 contamination preventing actions. Curr. Opin. Environ. Sci. Heal. 4, 5–9.
 913 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coesh.2018.03.001
- 914 Vymazal, J., Březinová, T., 2015. The use of constructed wetlands for removal of pesticides
 915 from agricultural runoff and drainage: A review. Environ. Int. 75, 11–20.
 916 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2014.10.026
- 917 Weber, G., Christmann, N., Thiery, A., Martens, D., Kubiniok, J., 2018. Pesticides in
 918 agricultural headwater streams in southwestern Germany and effects on
 919 macroinvertebrate populations. Sci. Total Environ. 619–620, 638–648.
 920 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.155
- Willkommen, S., Pfannerstill, M., Ulrich, U., Guse, B., Fohrer, N., 2019. How weather
 conditions and physico-chemical properties control the leaching of flufenacet,
 diflufenican, and pendimethalin in a tile-drained landscape. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.
 278, 107–116.
- Zablotowicz, R.M., Locke, M.A., Lerch, R.N., Knight, S.S., 2004. Dynamics of Herbicide
 Concentrations in Mississippi Delta Oxbow Lakes and the Role of Planktonic
 Microorganisms in Herbicide Metabolism 134–149. https://doi.org/10.1021/bk-20040877.ch010
- 929 Zivan, O., Segal-Rosenheimer, M., Dubowski, Y., 2016. Airborne organophosphate

- 930 pesticides drift in Mediterranean climate: The importance of secondary drift. Atmos.
- 931 Environ. 127, 155–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.12.003
- 932
- 933

934 Figure captions

935 **Graphical abstract** *Color should be used for this figure*

Fig. 1. a) The study pond is located in the Lorraine Region, upstream from the Seille
River. b) Two sampling stations were located upstream from the pond (i.e., UP1 and
UP2) and a single station was located downstream from the pond (i.e., DO).

939 Color should be used for this figure.

Fig. 2. Summary of maximum and minimum characteristics of upstream (UP1 and
UP2) and downstream (DO) water samples (N = 121, 52, and 64, respectively).
Maximum pesticide and TP concentrations (sum of all pesticides or TP in one
sample) as well as maximum and minimum numbers of pesticides and TP (for
molecules with concentrations > LOD) are shown.

945 Color should be used for this figure.

Fig. 3. Seasonal variations in pesticide and associated transformation product (TP) concentrations at UP1, UP2, and DO stations over the study period (February to December 2019). Flufenacet, metazachlor, metolachlor, and sum of pesticide and TP concentrations per sample are represented as a function of time. Dotted red lines stand for algae (*R. subcapitata*) acute 72-hour EC₅₀ (2.04 μ g/L) for flufenacet, environmental quality standard (0.02 μ g/L) for metazachlor. Concentrations below the LOD were set to 0 and those between the LOD and LOQ were set to LOQ/2.

953 Color should be used for this figure.

Table 1: Treatments applied to the watershed between 2017 and 2019 and crops
grown on treated plots.

Table 2: Detection (FD) and quantification (FQ) frequencies of pesticides and TP and associated detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) limits in the two upstream rivers, at UP1 (N=121), UP2 (N=52), and DO (N=64) stations.

- 961 **Table 3:** Pesticide and TP mean and maximum concentrations (μg/L) at UP1, UP2,
- 962 and DO stations and associated reduction rates.
- 963 Table 4: Number of events exceeding environmental/ecotoxicological standards at964 UP1, UP2, and DO stations.

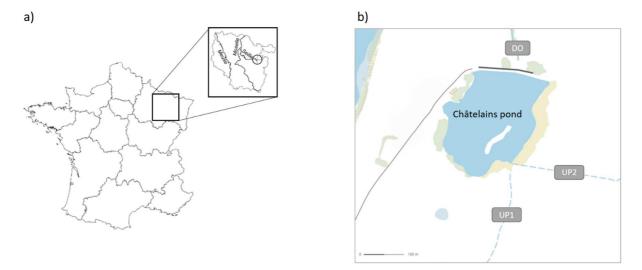


Fig. 1. a) The study pond is located in the Lorraine Region, upstream from the Seille River. b) Two sampling stations were located upstream from the pond (i.e., UP1 and UP2) and a single station was located downstream from the pond (i.e., DO).

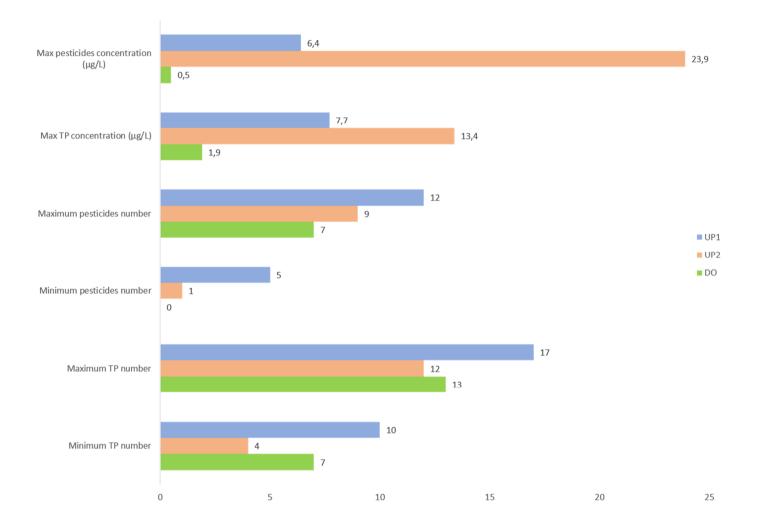


Fig. 2. Summary of maximum and minimum characteristics of upstream (UP1 and UP2) and downstream (DO) water samples (N = 121, 52, and 64, respectively). Maximum pesticide and TP concentrations (sum of all pesticides or TP in one sample) as well as maximum and minimum numbers of pesticides and TP (for molecules with concentrations > LOD) are shown.

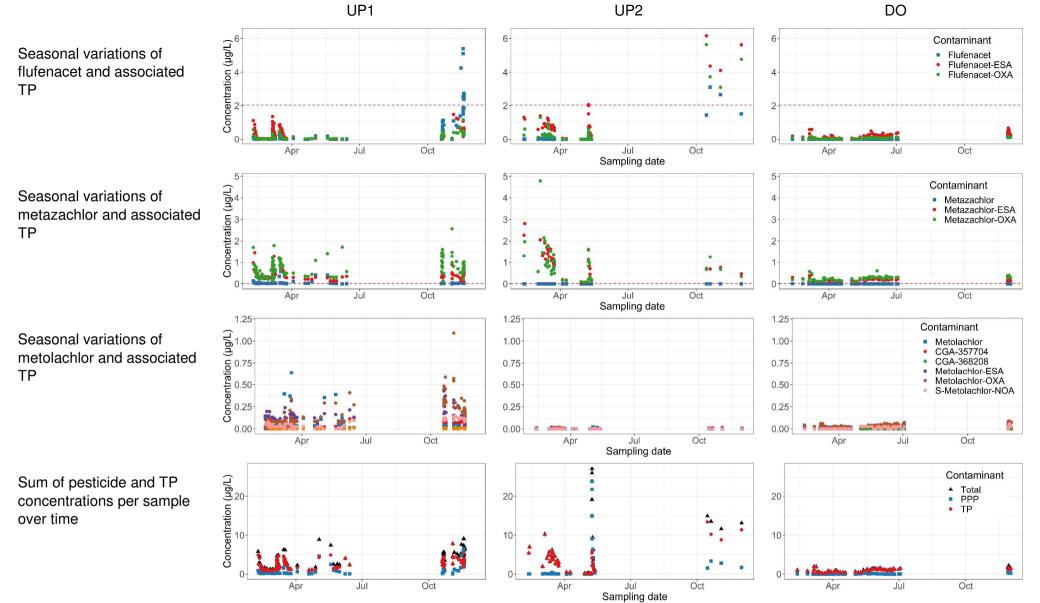


Fig. 3. Seasonal variations in pesticide and associated transformation product (TP) concentrations at UP1, UP2, and DO stations over the study period (February to December 2019). Flufenacet, metazachlor, metolachlor, and sum of pesticide and TP concentrations per sample are represented as a function of time. Dotted red lines stand for algae (*R. subcapitata*) acute 72-hour EC₅₀ (2.04 μ g/L) for flufenacet, environmental quality standard (0.02 μ g/L) for metazachlor. Concentrations below the LOD were set to 0 and those between the LOD and LOQ were set to LOQ/2.

Year and crops	ar and crops Month		Amounts (g)	
2017				
Barley and peas				
	April	Napropamide	8100	
	August	Glyphosate	10800	
	September	Metazachlor	8100	
	October	Metazachlor	3360	
	October	Prosulfocarb	36000	
	October	Clopyralid	600	
	October	Prosulfocarb	28800	
	October	Esfenvalerate	NA	
2018				
Rapeseed and wheat				
	April	Pyroxulam	225	
		Florasulam	75	
	April	Mesosulfuron-methyl	180	
		lodosulfuron-methyl-	36	
		sodium		
	April	Lambda-cyhalothrin	45	
	April	Metsulfuron-methyl	36	
2019				
Sunflower and wheat				
	April	Pendimethalin	11250	
	April	Dimethenamid-P	9547	
	Мау	Nicosulfuron	450	
	October	Flufenacet	2880	
	October	Flufenacet	2880	

Table 1: Treatments applied to the watershed between 2017 and 2019 and crops grown on treated plots.

	LOD (µg/L)	LOQ (µg/L)	FD UP1 (%)	FD UP2 (%)	FD DO <mark>(%)</mark>	FQ UP1 (%)	FQ UP2 (%)	FQ DO (%)
Herbicides and TP								
Acetochlor	0.01	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0
Acetochlor-OXA	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
Alachlor	0.01	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0
Alachlor-OXA	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
Alachlor-Acetochlor-ESA	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
Atrazine	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
Atrazine-2-hydroxy	0.005	0.01	87.6	100	100	60.3	94.2	85.9
Desethylatrazine (DEA)	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
DEA-OH	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
Deisopropylatrazine (DIA)	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
DIA-OH	0.01	0.02	0.8	0	0	0.8	0	0
Desethyldeisopropylatrazine (DEDIA)	0.01	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0
Bentazone	0.0025	0.005	99.2	0	3.13	85.1	0	0
Folpet	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Benzamide	0.025	0.05	0.8	0	0	0	0	0
Chloridazon	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
DPC (desphenyl chloridazon)	0.1	0.2	10	5.8	0	0	1.9	0
Me DPC	0.005	0.01	9.99	0	0	1.7	0	0
Chlorotoluron	0.0025	0.005	51.2	0	39.06	41.3	0	9.4
Dimethachlor	0.0025	0.005	16.5	0	0	13.2	0	0
Dimethachlor-ESA	0.0025	0.005	100	96.2	100	100	82.7	100
Dimethachlor-OXA	0.025	0.05	69.4	61.5	0	53.7	42.3	0
Dimethenamid	0.005	0.01	62	13.5	51.6	47.1	5.8	23.4
Dimethenamid-ESA	0.0025	0.005	99.2	0	85.9	99.2	0	70.3
Dimethenamid-OXA	0.01	0.02	97.5	9.6	57.8	66.1	0	57.8
Flufenacet	0.0025	0.005	92.6	69.2	37.5	91.7	67.3	31.3
Flufenacet-ESA	0.0025	0.005	100	100	100	100	100	100
Flufenacet-OXA	0.005	0.01	100	80.8	93.75	100	78.8	89.1

Table 2: Detection (FD) and quantification (FQ) frequencies of pesticides and TP and associated detection (LOD) and quantification (LOQ) limits in the two upstream rivers, at UP1 (N=121), UP2 (N=52), and DO (N=64) stations.

Table 1 (continued)

	LOD (µg/L)	LOQ (µg/L)	FD UP1 (%)	FD UP2 (%)	FD DO (%)	FQ UP1 (%)	FQ UP2 (%)	FQ DO (%)
Glyphosate AMPA	0.033 0.0083	0.1 0.025	69.4 96.7	13.5 40.4	9.4 21.9	28.9 81.8	5.8 5.8	1.6 0
Isoproturon Desmethyl-Isoproturon Didesmethyl-Isoproturon	0.0025 0.0025 0.0025	0.005 0.005 0.005	23.1 29.8 0	0 1.9 0	0 12.5 0	18.2 0 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
МСРА	0.005	0.01	4.1	21.2	4.7	2.5	17.3	3.1
Metazachlor Metazachlor-ESA Metazachlor-OXA	0.0025 0.01 0.01	0.005 0.02 0.02	99.2 100 100	0 100 100	21.9 100 100	98.3 100 100	0 100 100	14.1 100 100
Metsulfuron-Methyl Saccharin	0.0025 0.01	0.005 0.02	3.3 0.8	25 17.3	0 3.1	1.7 0	25 11.5	0 3.1
Metolachlor Metolachlor-ESA Metolachlor-OXA CGA-357704 CGA-368208 CGA-37735 CGA-50267 CGA-50720 S-Metolachlor-NOA Terbumeton Terbumeton-Desethyl	0.0025 0.0025 0.01 0.01 0.005 0.0025 0.0025 0.01 0.025 0.0025 0.0025 0.0025	0.005 0.005 0.02 0.02 0.01 0.005 0.005 0.02 0.05 0.005 0.005 0.005	100 100 97.5 71.1 65.3 0 0 5.8 81 0 0	15.4 75 17.3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	62.5 100 98.4 21.9 0 0 0 0 45.3 0 0	100 100 97.5 47.1 28.9 0 0 0 52.1 0 0	11.5 69.2 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	39.1 100 82.8 1.6 0 0 0 0 3.1 0 0
Terbuthylazine Terbuth-Desethyl-OH Terbuthylazine-Desethyl Terbuthylazine-Hydroxy	0.0025 0.0025 0.0025 0.0025	0.005 0.005 0.005 0.005	17.4 0 1.7 0	0 0 0 0	12.5 0 17.2 0	13.2 0 0 0	0 0 0 0	1.6 0 1.6 0
Fungicides and TP								
Boscalid	0.0025	0.005	100	100	65.6	99.2	100	9.4
Tebuconazole	0.0025	0.005	100	61.5	96.9	100	25	78.1

Table 1 (continued)

	LOD (µg/L)	LOQ (µg/L)	FD UP1 (%)	FD UP2 (%)	FD DO (%)	FQ UP1 (%)	FQ UP2 (%)	FQ DO (%)
Insecticides and TP								
Acetamiprid	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
IM-1-4	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
Carbofuran	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
Clothianidin	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
TZMU (Thiazolyl methylurea)	0.025	0.05	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dimethoate	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
Imidacloprid	0.005	0.01	1.7	9.6	0	0	5.8	0
Imidacloprid-Urea	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
Imida-Olefin	0.05	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0
6-Chloronicotinic-Acid	0.01	0.02	0	0	0	0	0	0
Omethoate	0.0025	0.005	0	0	0	0	0	0
Thiamethoxam	0.005	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	0

NA: Not available, OXA: oxoacetic acid, ESA: ethanesulfonic acid, and NOA: anilino propanoic acid.

	Mean ^a UP1 ± SEM	Mean UP2 ± SEM	Max UP1ª	Max UP2	Mean DO ± SEM	Max DO	Reduction rates ^b (mean/max)
Herbicides and TP							
Atrazine-2-hydroxy DIA-OH	-	0.021 ± 0.002 -	0.05 0.09	0.05 0	0.0243 ± 0.002 0	0.04 0	-16/20 100/100
Bentazone	0.0086 ± 0.0006	-	0.05	0	-	0.003	NA/94
Folpet Benzamide	NA -	NA -	NA 0.003	NA 0	NA 0	NA 0	NA/NA 100/100
Chloridazon DPC Me-DPC	- -	-	0 0 0.02	0 0.2 0	- 0 0	0 0 0	NA/NA 100/100 100/100
Chlorotoluron	-	-	0.06	0	-	0.009	NA/85
Dimethachlor Dimethachlor-ESA Dimethachlor-OXA	- 0.0522 ± 0.003*** -	- 0.0707 ± 0.008*** -	0.01 0.2 0.1	0 0.2 0.2	0 0.0196 ± 0.0008 0	0 0.04 0	100/100 63/80 100/100
Dimethenamid Dimethenamid-ESA Dimethenamid-OXA	- 0.114 ± 0.01 -	-	0.7 1 1.5	0.03 0 0.01	-	0.2 0.05 0.1	NA/71 NA/95 NA/93
Flufenacet Flufenacet-ESA Flufenacet-OXA	0.529 ± 0.09 0.371 ± 0.03** 0.169 ± 0.02***	- 0.992 ± 0.2*** -	5.4 1.5 1.2	3.1 6.2 5.6	- 0.244 ± 0.02 0.0719 ± 0.006	0.5 0.7 0.2	NA/91 34/53 58/83
Glyphosate AMPA	- 0.0739 ± 0.007	-	1.7 0.6	0.2 0.05	-	0.1 0.01	NA/94 NA/98
Isoproturon Desmethyl-isoproturon	-	-	0.03 0.003	0 0.003	0 -	0 0.003	100/100 NA
MCPA	-	-	1.4	23.7	-	0.02	NA/99
Metazachlor Metazachlor-ESA Metazachlor-OXA	0.0473 ± 0.007 0.459 ± 0.02*** 0.728 ± 0.04***	- 0.871 ± 0.09*** 0.816 ± 0.1***	0.6 1.5 2.6	0 2.8 4.8	- 0.179 ± 0.008 0.263 ± 0.01	0.02 0.4 0.6	NA/97 61/73 64/77
Metsulfuron-Methyl	-	-	0.02	0.5	0	0	100/100
Saccharin	-	-	0.01	0.06	-	0.06	NA/-500

Table 3: Pesticide and TP mean and maximum concentrations (μ g/L) at UP1, UP2, and DO stations and associated reduction rates.

Table 2 (continued)

	Mean ^a UP1 ± SEM	Mean UP2 ± SEM	Max UP1 ^a	Max UP2	Mean DO ± SEM	Max DO	Reduction rates ^b (mean/max)
Metolachlor	0.0752 ± 0.008	-	0.6	0.02	-	0.03	NA/95
Metolachlor-ESA	0.156 ± 0.008***	-	0.6	0.02	0.0394 ± 0.002	0.08	75/87
Metolachlor-OXA	0.169 ± 0.01***	-	1.1	0.001	0.0422 ± 0.003	0.009	75/99
CGA-357704	-	-	0.1	0	-	0.02	NA /80
CGA-368208	-	-	0.02	0	0	0	100/100
CGA-50720	-	-	0.01	0	0	0	100/100
S-Metolachlor-NOA	-	-	0.1	0	-	0.06	NA/40
Terbuthylazine	-	-	0.01	0	-	0.006	NA/40
Terbuthylazine-desethyl	-	-	0.003	0	-	0.01	NA/-233
Fungicides and TP							
Boscalid	0.0128 ± 0.0007	0.0436 ± 0.004	0.05	0.1	-	0.006	NA/88
Tebuconazole	0.052 ± 0.006	-	0.5	0.01	-	0.02	NA/96
Insecticides and TP							
Imidacloprid	-	-	0.005	0.02	0	0	100/100

^a For the calculation of mean and maximum concentrations at UP1, UP2, and DO, a non-detected molecule was set to 0 and an unquantified molecule (above the LOD) was set to half its LOQ, ^b Reduction rates were calculated regarding mean/max pesticide and TP concentrations (%). UP1 concentrations were used when different from UP2 concentrations, in order to take into account the major water input, * Molecules having mean concentrations significantly different between UP1 and DO and/or UP2 and DO (**p*-value < 0.05, ** *p*-value < 0.01, *** *p*-value < 0.001).

	Flufen	Flufenacet		Metazachlor	Metsulfuron-methyl	
Sampling station						
UP1	33	13	1	90	0	
UP2	4	2	8	0	8	
DO	5	0	0	0	0	
Standard limit (µg/L)	0.357ª	2.04 ^b	0.5 ^c	0.019 ^d	0.036 ^e	

Table 4: Number of events exceeding environmental/ecotoxicological standards at UP1, UP2, and DO stations.

^{a, e} Regulatory acceptable concentration (RAC), ^b Algae (*Raphidocelis subcapitata*) acute 72-hour EC_{50} ($\mu g/L$),^{c, d} Environmental quality standard (WFD, 2000/60/CE)

