

Leaching and degradation of S-Metolachlor in undisturbed soil cores amended with organic wastes

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1 2	Leaching and degradation of S-Metolachlor in undisturbed soil cores amended with organic wastes						
3 4	Jeanne Dollinger* ¹ , Marjolaine Bourdat-Deschamps ² , Valérie Pot ² , Valentin Serre ² , Nathalie Bernet ² , Ghislaine Deslarue ² , Mélanie Montes ³ , Line Capowiez ⁴ , Eric Michel ⁴						
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14							
15	Abstract: Organic waste (OW) reuse in agriculture is a common practice fostered by benefits in terms						
16	of waste recycling and crop production. However, OW amendments potentially affect the fate of						
17	pesticides spread on fields to protect the crops from pests and weeds. The influence of OW on the						
18	sorption, degradation and leaching of pesticides is generally studied for each mechanism separately						
19	under artificial laboratory conditions. Our study aims at evaluating the balance of these mechanisms						
20	under more realistic conditions to clarify the influence of three common OW amendments on the						
21	fate, in soil, of the widely used herbicide S-Metolachlor. We performed leaching experiments in large						
22	undisturbed soil cores amended with raw sewage sludge, composted sludge and digested pig slury						
23	(digestate), respectively. We monitored S-Metolachlor and its two main metabolites MET-OA and						
24	MET-ESA in the leachates during a succession of 10 rainfall events over 126 days. We also quantified						
25	the remaining S-Metolachlor and metabolites in the soil at the end of the experiments. S-Metolachlor						
26	leaching didn't exceed 0.1% of the applied dose with or without OW amendment. Despite a soil						
27	organic carbon increase of 3 to 32 %, OW amendments did not significantly affect the amount of S-						
28	Metolachlor that leached through the soil (0.01 to 0.1 %) nor its transformation rate (6.0 to 8.6 %).						
29	However, it affected the degradation pathways with an increase of MET-OA relative to MET-ESA						
30	formed after OW amendment (28 to 54 %) compared to the controls (8 %). Concentration of S-						
31	Metolachlor and metabolites in the leachates of all treatments greatly exceeded the regulatory limit						

for groundwater intended for human consumption in Europe. These high concentrations were probably the consequence of preferential macropore flow. Colloids had comparable levels in the leachates after S-Metolachlor application. Dissolved organic carbon was also comparable in the controls, digestate and sludge treatments but was 65% higher in the compost amended cores. These results, along with a great variability among replicates inherent to experiments performed under realistic conditions, partly explain the limited impact of OW on the transport of S-Metolachlor.

- 38
- 39 **Keywords:** herbicide; leaching; degradation; sewage sludge; compost; digestate.
- 40

41 **Graphical abstract:**

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45 Highlights:

- Organic waste (OW) amendments modify the metabolic pathways of S-Metolachlor
- The MET-OA pathway is stimulated by OW amendments
- OW don't have a significant impact on S-Metolachlor leaching and transformation rate

- S-Metolachlor leaching did not exceed 0.1% of the applied dose with or without OW
 Preferential macropore flow can lead to high herbicide concentrations in leachates
- 51

52 **1. Introduction**

Organic waste (OW) reuse in agriculture is a common practice fostered by multiple benefits both in terms of waste disposal and crop production (Carpio et al., 2021; Houot et al., 2014; Kupper et al., 2014). Indeed, in addition to their high fertilization value, OW amendments have been reported to improve soil physical properties and to increase the organic carbon content of soils (Briceño et al., 2007; Hargreaves et al., 2008; Kupper et al., 2014). OW amendments on agricultural lands also contribute to reduce landfill.

59 The major sources of OW are the agricultural and silvicultural sectors, with the production of manure, slurry and green wastes, that are usually recycled on site with or without post-treatments 60 61 (Houot et al., 2014). About 1 Mt of raw manure and slurry are spread every year on agricultural lands 62 in France (Houot et al., 2014). Sewage sludge and municipal bio-wastes are the other main sources of 63 OW (Collivignarelli et al., 2019; Meyer-Kohlstock et al., 2015). About 10 Mt of sewage sludge are 64 produced annually in Europe among which, 0.6 Mt is produced in France (Eurostats, 2020). In France, 65 about 70% of the sewage sludge is recycled in agriculture either raw (42%) or composted (31%) (Collivignarelli et al., 2019; Houot et al., 2014). 66

Composting and methanization (anaerobic digestion) are the most common biological posttreatments that either improve the quality and homogeneity of the amendments or produce energy. Composting stabilizes the organic matter and reduces the pathogens and organic pollutants loads (Hargreaves et al., 2008; Houot et al., 2014; Sertillanges et al., 2020). Mixes of several raw materials including green wastes and sewage sludge are usually used for composts. Methanization produces biogas. The raw materials used for methanization are usually more diversified than for composting and include manure, slurry, agricultural green waste or wastes from food industries. The resulting 74 waste, digestate, is also recycled in agriculture either raw or composted (Barłóg et al., 2020;
75 Tambone et al., 2019).

76 OW amendments increase the soil organic matter (SOM), the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and stimulate the microbial activity, which potentially affect the fate of pesticides spread on fields to 77 78 protect the crops from pests and weeds (Briceño et al., 2007; Carpio et al., 2021). On the one hand, 79 increased SOM generally promotes the sorption of pesticides, which can reduce their mobility, their 80 bioavailability and resulting degradation and mineralization. On the other hand, increased DOC generally lowers pesticide sorption to immobile soil constituents and enhances their downward 81 82 transfer and bioavailability due to co-sorption and co-transport mechanisms (Barriuso et al., 2011; 83 Chabauty et al., 2016). A recent review by Carpio et al. (2021) summarizes the data related to OWs' 84 influence on the pesticide sorption, degradation and leaching mechanisms acquired with controlled 85 laboratory studies. A brief overview of the current knowledge is provided hereafter. Several studies 86 with a range of pesticides and OW types have evidenced the enhanced sorption and decreased 87 leaching resulting from OW amendment (Cabrera et al., 2007; Gámiz et al., 2016; Marín-Benito et al., 88 2013, 2021; Singh, 2003). However, opposite effects have also been reported (Fernandes et al., 2006; 89 Marín-Benito et al., 2013). For exemple, Fernandes et al. (2006) tested different wastes from the 90 olive mill industry and reported lower sorption and higher leaching rate of metalaxyl than in the un-91 amended soil in contrast with the solid wastes. The influence of OW amendments on degradation is 92 more variable with both increased and decreased half-lives reported for a range of OW and 93 pesticides (Cabrera et al., 2007; Dolaptsoglou et al., 2007; Fernandes et al., 2006; Gámiz et al., 2016; 94 Ghosh and Singh, 2009; Marín-Benito et al., 2014, 2021).

The influence of OW amendment on the mechanisms controlling the environmental fate of pesticides has been reported to depend on the OW characteristics and the soil and pesticide properties (Briceño et al., 2007; Morillo et al., 2002; Peña et al., 2019). The influence of OW amendments such as sewage sludge and to a lesser extent, composted sludge, has been investigated

for some pesticides including terbutylazin, atrazine, diazinon, methidation, linuron and myclobutanil (Dolaptsoglou et al., 2007; González et al., 2008; Marín-Benito et al., 2014). These studies generally show a weak effect of OW on sorption with slightly increase or un-modified Kd compared to unamended soils and a significant influence on the degradation with both increased and decreased DT₅₀ depending on the pesticides and the soil. However, the effect of digestate on pesticides' leaching has, to our knowledge, not been characterized, with the exception of a study, in a different context and purpose, focusing the effect of digestate on pesticide dissipation (Mukherjee et al., 2016).

106 The OW influence on the sorption, degradation, mineralization and leaching mechanisms of 107 pesticides has generally been investigated separately and in controlled artificial laboratory conditions 108 (Carpio et al., 2021, 2020). Batch experiments were used to investigate sorption and degradation. 109 Repacked soil columns were used to investigate leaching, generally under saturated conditions and 110 with large elution volumes (Fernandes et al., 2006; Graber et al., 1997; Marín-Benito et al., 2021, 111 2014; Peña et al., 2019). However, these mechanisms occur at different time scale and are regulated 112 by the hydrologic conditions and hydrodynamic properties of the soil. Few studies have been carried 113 out under controlled but realistic conditions (e.g. undisturbed soil cores, unsaturated conditions, 114 transient flow during successions of rainfall events over a cropping season) to evaluate the balance 115 between the processes and approach the global behavior of pesticides in soils amended with a range 116 of OW (e.g. Carpio et al., 2020; Pot et al., 2011). Such studies would be of great value (i) for a better 117 assessment of the environmental risks related to pesticide use in relation to the widespread practice 118 of OW recycling in agriculture and (ii) to provide key information for a global assessment of the 119 benefits and risks of the different types of OW post-treatments.

Accordingly, the objective of this study was to investigate the influence of three widely used OW: a raw and a composted sewage sludge and a digested pig slurry on the fate of a widely used herbicide under controlled but realistic conditions. Therefore, we used large undisturbed soil cores amended with the three OW and monitored the fate of S-Metolachlor and its major metabolites during a

succession of rainy (10 mm h⁻¹ rainfall events) and dry periods over a cropping season (126 days). We also monitored colloids and DOC, two potential herbicide carrier phases. This experimental design allows to simultaneously assess the balance of the leaching, sorption and degradation mechanisms.

127 S-Metolachlor was selected for this study because it is a widely used pre-emergent herbicide applied 128 worldwide on a variety of crops including maize and sugar beet (PPDB, 2018). It is classified as 129 moderately mobile due to a low sorption affinity for soils. As a consequence, it has been frequently 130 detected in surface and groundwater in the USA and EU (Baran and Gourcy, 2013; Bexfield et al., 131 2021; Kupfersberger et al., 2018; Toccalino et al., 2014; Zambito Marsala et al., 2020). The major 132 metabolites of S-Metolachlor are Metolachlor oxanilic acid (MET-OA) and Metolachlor ethane 133 sulfonic acid (MET-ESA). Whether S-Metolachlor's fate is influenced or not by sewage sludge, 134 composted sludge or digestate amendments remains to be characterized.

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137 **2.** Material and methods

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139 **2.1. Soil cores sampling and preparation**

The soil cores were taken from an experimental field located in Colmar, France (48.059777, 140 141 7.327474) which is part of the SOERE PRO network (SOERE PRO, 2015). This network gathers long 142 term field experimental stations mainly over France where the impacts of organic waste 143 amendments on crop yields, soil and water quality are evaluated. The crop rotation in the Colmar 144 experimental field consists in a succession of wheat, corn, sugar beets and barley. Cover crops are 145 established during the winter seasons. The plots have an history of S-Metolachlor application. The climate at the site is temperate with an average yearly rainfall of 552 mm (INRAE, 2020). The soil of 146 the tilled horizon (0-28 cm depth) has a bulk density of 1.3 g/cm³, a pH of 8.3 an OC content of 1.21 147

%, a cation exchange capacity of 16.9 cmol/kg and a texture of 10.9 - 64.5 - 24.6 % (sand-silt-clay).
The soil belongs to the Calcisols group according to the WRB (FAO, 2014).

PVC cylinders, 18.6 cm internal diameter and 30 cm long, were used to sample undisturbed soil cores in the tilled horizon. Twenty cores were sampled in the control plot having no history of organic waste amendment. The beveled cylinders were gently pushed into the soil down to a depth of 25 cm. Then the surrounding soil was excavated to extract the undisturbed cores. Each core was positioned onto a stainless steel screen (2-mm circular openings on 42% of its surface area). The screen was maintained immobile by an annular sample holder.

The top 2 cm soil was manually excavated from each core and stored in separate containers at 4°C. To allow the relaxation of the mechanical stresses undergone by the soil during extraction and handling, a succession of three low intensity rainfall events (5 mm/h, 3 h each) separated with a 2week interval were performed onto each core (Michel et al., 2010).

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161 **2.2. Organic waste amendments**

The OW origin, processing and physico-chemical properties are thoroughly described in Sertillanges et al. (2020). The main physico-chemical properties are also reported in Table 1. The first OW we used is an activated and dewatered sewage sludge (S) from a domestic treatment plant (Site Urb II, Sertillanges et al., 2020). The second is a compost (CS) of the previous sewage sludge mixed with green wastes (66% co-substrate, Site Urb II, Sertillanges et al., 2020). The last is a raw digestate (D) after anaerobic digestion of pig slurry in a methanizing plant (Site Agri I, Sertillanges et al., 2020).

For each OW treatment, three cores were randomly selected among the 20 sampled cores. Three
control cores were left un-amended. Each treatment was established in triplicate hereafter named A,
B and C.

171 The OW were thoroughly mixed with the previously excavated top 2 cm soil (section 2.2) and the 172 OW-soil mixture was repacked on top of the cores. The digestate being liquid, was not mixed with 173 the soil but spread over the repacked soil. Ponding occurred during digestate spreading and part of it 174 percolated directly through the cores and was collected at the output (40.3%, 18.3% and 12.2% of 175 the applied mass for the replicates A, B and C, respectively). The OW amendments rates were 76 176 t/ha, 63 t/ha and 128 t/ha for the sewage sludge, the compost and the digestate, respectively. The 177 OW amendment rates were calculated based on their nitrogen content and are in the high range of 178 the recommended amendment doses in France (Houot et al., 2014).

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2.3. Selected herbicide and metabolites

S-Metolachlor is moderately hydrophobic (log Kow = 3.05) and has a relatively low water solubility (480 mg/L). Its degradation half-life in soils varies between 15 and 92 days (PPDB, 2018). It is classified as moderately mobile due to a low sorption affinity for soils (Koc 112-368 L/kg). Both metabolites MET-ESA and MET-OA are more persistent than S-Metolachlor with a DT50 of 325 and 400 days for MET-OA and MET-ESA, respectively (PPDB, 2018). They also have a sorption affinity for soil about 10 to 20 times lower than that of S-Metolachlor (Koc 2-63 L/kg for MET-OA and Koc 9 L/kg for MET-ESA) (PPDB, 2018).

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189 **2.4. Leaching experiments**

Each core was submitted to a succession of 10 rainfall events with a two-week interval between each rainfall. The rainfall intensity for all events was 10 mm/h which is in the high range of rainfall intensities recorded in Colmar (INRAE, 2020). Each rainfall event lasted for two hours. The cumulated rainfall volume for the whole experimental campaign was representative of the cumulated rainfall during the cropping season in Colmar. The artificial rain solution consisted in a 1.8×10^{-4} mol/L CaCl₂ solution in ultrapure water to approach the ionic strength of natural rain (e.g., Sequeira and Lung, 196 1995). It was applied to the cores using a rainfall simulator described in Michel et al. (2014). Free 197 drainage was allowed at the bottom of the cores. Between the rainfall events the cores were covered 198 and stored at room temperature (25 ± 3°C). The whole leaching experiment lasted for 126 days. This 199 relatively long elution period was chosen to permit the transformation of the amended organic 200 matter during the experiment, as it occurs during the cropping season.

S-Metolachlor was applied between the second and third rainfall events, 28 days after the organic waste amendments, to stay as close as possible to the field conditions. Indeed, OW amendment is usually performed several weeks before crop seeding and weeding to enable the degradation of the organic matter and the release of nutrients. S-Metolachlor, dissolved in water at a concentration of 390 mg/L, was evenly sprayed on top of the cores to reach the agricultural relevant dose of 1.58 kg/ha.

207 During the rainfall events and the following two hours' elution periods, 30 mL fraction of the 208 effluents were collected in polypropylene vials. Sorption of S-Metolachlor and metabolites was 209 negligible on the polypropylene vials. The vials were weighed before and after sampling and the 210 exact time of sampling was recorded to enable the calculation of the outflow. The cores were also 211 weighed every 10 seconds during rainfall and elution to estimate the evolution of their water 212 content. About 16 samples were collected for each rainfall event. For the analysis of S-Metolachlor 213 and its main metabolites in the leachates four combined samples per rainfall event were generated 214 due to analytical cost constraints. For the combined samples 3 mL of the fractions 1 to 4; 5 to 8; 9 to 215 12 and 13 to 16 were combined, respectively. The samples were deep frozen (-18°C) in PET amber 216 vials until analysis. Sorption of S-Metolachlor and metabolites was negligible on the PET vials.

At the end of the experimental campaign the cores were sliced to establish the soil concentration profiles of S-Metolachlor and its main metabolites at depth 0-4, 4-8, 8-16 and 16-25 cm. The collected soil samples were stored at -18°C until analysis.

- 221
- 222 **2.5. Analyses**
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2.5.1. Analysis of the herbicide carrier-phases

225 **2.5.1.1.** Colloids

Colloids contents were measured in all 30 mL elution fractions using a UV-Visible spectrophotometer.
The absorbance at 400 nm was converted into colloids concentration using a calibration curve
established beforehand as detailed in Michel et al. (2010).

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230 2.5.1.2. Dissolved organic carbon

231 For the control and digestate treatments, 8 combined samples per rainfall event were generated due 232 to analytical costs constraints, whereas, for the compost and sludge treatments the dissolved organic 233 carbon was quantified in all of the fractions. The samples were centrifuged at 3000 rpm (1660 g) for 2 234 minutes to remove the large suspended particles and acidified with high purity trace metal analytical 235 grade nitric acid (2%). The acidified samples were stored in the fridge at 4°C until analysis. The 236 dissolved organic carbon analyses were performed by the CIRAD UR 78 Laboratory with the Non-237 Purgeable Organic Carbon (NPOC) method (NF ISO 10694 & NF ISO 13878) on a Total Organic Carbon 238 Analyzer (TOC-L Series Schimadzu). Samples were bubbled for 90 s with 1.5% HCl (1N) to eliminate 239 carbonates before injection into the combustion tube with a platinum catalyst (720°C). Each sample 240 was analysed 3 to 5 times until standard deviation was lower than 0.1 and the variation coefficient 241 between the replicates of the multiple injections became lower than 2%. The average of replicates 242 was used for the treatment of the experimental results.

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2.5.2. S-Metolachlor and metabolites

245 The elution fractions were acidified and analysed by online solid phase extraction and ultra-high-246 performance-liquid chromatography coupled with triple quadrupole mass spectrometry (online SPE -247 UHPLC-MS-MS) with the method described for soil and water samples by Bourdat-Deschamps et al., (2014). Soil samples were extracted by ultrasonic extraction, purified using a modified QuEChERS 248 249 method and analysed by online SPE – UHPLC-MS-MS as described by Ferhi et al. (2016). Mass 250 spectrometrer transitions for the quantification of S-Metolachlor, MET-OA and MET-ESA were 284.3 251 > 252.3 (positive electrospray ionization), 278.07 > 206.2 (negative electrospray ionization) and 252 328.16 > 79.95 (negative electrospray ionization), respectively. Other transitions were also used for 253 confirmation of the compounds. The compound concentrations were determined by internal quantification-isotope dilution (polynomial calibration curves; weighting 1/X; coefficients of 254 255 determination higher than 0.97 and residues below 20%) in order to correct both 256 extraction/purification losses and potential matrix effects in mass spectrometry. Soils and elution 257 fractions were therefore spiked with a solution of (\pm) -Metolachlor-d₆ (propyl-d₆) from Cluzeau Infor 258 Labo (Sainte-Foy-La-Grande, France).

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260 **2.6. Statistical analyses**

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262 One-way independent sample ANOVA analyses were performed using the R software (R Core Team, 263 2020) to compare the difference between the four OW treatments (Control, Digestate, Sludge, 264 Compost). When the difference was significant according to the ANOVA (p < 0.05), pairwise Student 265 t-test were conducted. Graphical representation of the analysed data, means and 95% confidence 266 intervals, are presented in Fig. S1 of the supplementary information.

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- 269 3. Results and discussion
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271 3.1. S-Metolachlor leaching

272 S-Metolachlor breakthrough patterns are presented in Figure 1 and Figure S2. In general, an increase 273 of S-Metolachlor concentration was detected already during the rainfall following its application. For 274 the un-amended controls, S-Metolachlor peaked at 0.2 μ g/L during the third rainfall event following 275 S-Metolachlor application (R5) then slowly decreased to 0.04 μ g/L through the next five rainfall 276 events. A low variability between the replicates was observed. For the sewage sludge, S-Metolachlor 277 peak concentrations were similar to that of the control $(0.1 - 0.2 \mu g/L)$. However, the shape of the 278 breakthrough curve differed with a peak concentration reached already during the rainfall event 279 following S-Metolachlor application (R3) followed by a very progressive decrease. For the compost-280 and digestate amended soils, a great variability between the replicates was observed. For the 281 digestate, the peak concentrations were recorded during the first rainfall event following S-282 Metolachlor spraying (R2) and varied from 0.3 to 12 μ g/L (Figure 1). The concentration then 283 progressively dropped towards a concentration of 0.04 μ g/L. Replicate C of the digestate treatment 284 was stopped after rain 7 because it fell of the rainfall simulator which disrupted its structure. For the 285 compost-amended soil, the concentration increased rapidly during the rainfall event following 286 spraying and remained high during the entire experimental campaign. Peak concentration varied 287 from 0.08 to 0.76 µg/L.

Due to the history of S-Metolachlor application at the study site, low, but detectable concentrations
were measured in the leachates collected before its application on the cores (Figure 1).

The amount of S-Metolachlor recovered in the leachates ranged between 0.01 and 0.1 % of the applied dose (Table 2). No statistical difference was detected between the treatments (F(3,8)=1.924, p = 0.204, Fig. S1) despite an average recovered dose for the digestate treatment being an order of magnitude higher than for the other treatments.

294 The S-Metolachlor concentration in the soil profile after the succession of rainfall events are 295 presented in Figure 2. For the control treatments, the analyses were not distinguished with depth 296 and the average concentration ranged between 4.6 and 8.8 µg/kg in the three replicates, which 297 represents 0.9 - 1.8% of the applied dose (Table 2). We compared these values with the average 298 concentrations for the three other treatments computed as the sum of S-Metolachlor masses in the 299 four core slices divided by the total core dry weight. For the digestate $(5.5 - 6.9 \,\mu g/kg)$, the sludge 300 $(3.4 - 8.8 \,\mu\text{g/kg})$ and the compost $(8.8 - 28.0 \,\mu\text{g/kg})$ treatments these averaged concentrations were 301 not statistically different from those of the un-amended control (F(3,7) = 2.063, p = 0,193, Fig. S1b).

302 For the sludge treatment, the concentrations in the top 0-4 cm depth layer were high, 6.9 - 27.8303 μ g/kg, and decreased with depth down to 1.3 – 3.8 μ g/kg. For the digestate treatment the 304 concentrations in the top layer ranged between 12.6 to $18.7 \,\mu$ g/kg and progressively dropped to 3.5 305 - 6.2 µg/kg. For the compost treatment, the concentration in the top layer is up to an order of 306 magnitude higher than for the other treatments (23 - 172 μ g/kg) and remains relatively high for the B 307 and C replicates in the bottom layers. The amount extracted from the soil at the end of the 308 experimental campaign represents 0.7 to 1.8 % of the applied dose for the digestate and sludge 309 treatments and 1.8 to 5.6 % for the compost treatment. No statistical differences between the 310 treatments were detected (F(3,7) = 2.076, p = 0.192, Fig. S1cS).

The fraction of S-Metolachlor applied recovered in the leachates is similar to that collected in till drains after pesticide spraying on crop fields and subsequent leaching through the soil profile (Tang et al., 2012; Voltz and Louchart, 2001). However, studies investigating the influence of OW amendment on the leaching of pesticides (Cabrera et al., 2007; Fernandes et al., 2006; Marín-Benito

315 et al., 2013, 2021; Si et al., 2009) including S-Metolachlor (Marín-Benito et al., 2013, 2021; Peña et al., 2019; Singh, 2003) reported fractions of the applied dose that were leached through the soil one 316 317 to two orders of magnitude higher than ours. Those studies were performed with repacked soil 318 columns, and pesticides eluted shortly after spraying under near saturation conditions with large and 319 un-fractionated inflow volumes. Our study highlights the importance of approaching field conditions 320 when designing laboratory experiments. Indeed, soil humidity and the interval between spraying and 321 the first rainfall event, because they control the extent of diffusion and adsorption of the chemicals 322 onto the soil constituents, are key parameters influencing the amount of pesticide leaching (de Jonge 323 et al. 2000, Voltz and Louchart, 2001).

324 The influence of organic amendments on S-Metolachlor leaching was reported to vary with OW type 325 and dose (Peña et al., 2019). Amendments with 2.5 % fresh olive-mill waste slightly increased S-326 Metolachlor leaching while at higher dose or when composted, this OW tended to decrease S-327 Metolachlor leaching by up to 3 fold (Peña et al., 2019). Manure, slurry, green compost and 328 pelletised manure were also reported to decrease Metolachlor leaching (Singh, 2003; Marín-Benito 329 et al., 2013, 2021). In our study, despite the soil OC increase of 3 %, 17 % and 32 % following 330 digestate, sludge and compost amendments respectively, we didn't evidence any significant effect of 331 these OW on the amount of S-Metolachlor that leached through the soil cores. This might be related 332 to the limited number of replicates and the great variability inherent to studies performed under 333 realistic conditions. Such studies are difficult to replicate more given the considerable time 334 investment they require.

Contrasted hydrological behavior between soil cores may explain, to some extent, the great variability of the breakthrough patterns between replicates for the digestate- and compost-amended soils. All of the soil cores showed evidences of preferential flow and of physical non-equilibrium solute transport. Indeed, the breakthrough of a water tracer (bromide) – introduced as calcium bromide in the top two centimeters of the cores simultaneously with the organic waste – occurred

well before one pore-volume (PV) of water had eluted from the columns (Fig. S3). Moreover, the tracer leaching dynamic and its recovery at the end of the experimental campaign (ranging from 39 to 76 %) highlights that tracer diffusion towards active flow paths was slower in some cores (control, sludge) than in others (Digestate, Compost) suggesting that the diffusion distances in the former were larger than in the latter cores. The differences in tracer recovery were statistically significant between the compost and both the sludge (p = 0.002) and control (p = 0.001) treatments and between the digestate and both the sludge (p = 0.025) and control (p = 0.005) treatments (Fig. S1d).

347 We explored whether these differences could stem from the burrowing activity of earthworms, that 348 were present at the core sampling site and thereby in the cores at the beginning of the experiments. 349 The initial earthworm count couldn't be established because it would have disrupted the soil 350 structure or microbial population of the cores. However, punctual observations about their activity 351 (presence of earthworms and casts at the surface and in the storage collection buckets used in 352 between rainfalls) were recorded. The earthworm's activity was low in the un-amended controls and 353 in the sludge amended cores all along the experiment but was higher in the digestate and compost 354 amendments especially between the third and sixth rainfall events. A weak (R² = 0.55) but significant 355 (p = 0.009, Fig. S4) linear relationship between the final earthworm biomass and bromide recovery 356 suggests that the earthworm presence may have indeed affected the tracer leaching dynamics 357 Earthworm activity may also help understanding qualitatively the variability observed in S-358 Metolachlor breakthrough patterns between replicates, and from one rainfall to the other in specific 359 cores (e.g.: replicates B and C of the compost treatment, Figures 1 and S2, first row, rightmost 360 column). A more precise identification of the mechanisms involved (earthworm burrowing activity 361 favoring preferential flow or direct transport by ingestion-transport-excretion) and their impact on 362 tracer and herbicide leaching would require dedicated experimental situations and observation 363 techniques such as proposed by Capowiez et al. (2021) or Sammartino et al. (2012) and was out of 364 the scope of this study. Finally, the variability of the breakthrough patterns between replicates may 365 also stem from the intrinsic variability of water infiltration in macropores – a process that is affected by multiples factors, including the location of macropore flow initiation (soil surface vs. soil profile),
 macropore density and soil matrix initial water content – as documented by others both on an
 experimental and modeling point of view (see Weiler, 2005 and references herein).

The maximum concentration regulatory value for pesticides and metabolites in groundwater intended for human consumption in Europe is 0.1 µg/L. This threshold was exceeded for all the treatments including the un-amended controls. This might threaten groundwater quality, although S-Metolachlor can be retained, to a lesser extent, in the vadose zone substratum and further diluted in the groundwater (Baran and Gourcy, 2013; Sidoli et al., 2020). In the following section, we explore the possible contribution of DOC and colloidal particles as vectors of S-Metolachlor in the columns.

375

376 3.2. S-Metolachlor carrier-phases

Colloids and DOC are generally considered to act as vectors facilitating the transport of pesticides in
soils (Bolan et al., 2011; de Jonge et al., 2000, 2004; McGechan and Lewis, 2002). The colloids
concentration and DOC content evolution through the successive rainfall events are described in
Figure 3 for the different treatments.

381 Colloid concentration was maximal at the beginning of each rainfall event (≈ 10 g/L), then it 382 decreased rapidly until it reached a baseline around 0.05 g/L. This behavior was reported in a large 383 number of studies and highlights the importance of wetting and drying cycles on colloid mobilization 384 (Michel et al., 2010, 2014; Mohanty et al., 2016). Overall, the colloids concentration range did not vary much across the treatments although the baseline and peak concentrations were slightly higher 385 386 for the composted sludge and digestate amended cores compared to the control and sewage sludge 387 amended cores. Accordingly, the cumulative mass of colloids that leached during the whole 388 experimental campaign (0.97 ± 0.48 g; 1.73 ± 1.00 g; 1.88 ± 0.85 g, 2.83 ± 0.88 g for control, sludge, 389 composted sludge and digestate, respectively) were not statistically different across the treatments (F(3,8) = 2.575, p = 0.127, Fig. S1e). Colloid leaching was very variable among the replicates of each 390

391 treatment. The higher colloid and S-Metolachlor leaching observed for example in the D-A and CS-C 392 cores is consistent with a hydrodynamic behavior dominated by preferential macropore flow as 393 suggested by Mohanty et al. (2016), who observed that higher flow path permeability lead to higher 394 colloid leaching.

Despite the extent of the colloid concentration range within the rainfall events, no linear correlation was found between the colloids and S-Metolachlor concentrations in the leachates (R² < 0.01). The colloidal transport of S-Metolachlor seems to be limited. This might be explained by the generally weak affinity of S-Metolachlor for soil particles (PPDB, 2018).

399 The DOC concentration in the un-amended control soils ranged between 8 and 17 mg/L with a 400 decreasing trend observed through the succession of rainfall events. The amendments resulted in an 401 increased DOC concentration during the first two rainfall events compared to the controls. During 402 these rainfalls, concentrations were up to three times higher than in the controls for the digestate 403 and sewage sludge and up to ten times higher for the compost amendment. These concentrations 404 were variable between the replicates of a given treatment with up to a four-fold difference for the 405 composted sludge. From the third rainfall event on, a steady concentration seems to have been 406 reached, and DOC concentrations were similar for the control, digestate and sludge treatments. This 407 suggests that for these events, the DOC released originated mainly from the SOM. The compost 408 amended cores had a different behavior. Indeed, DOC concentration remained higher than the 409 control until the end of the experimental campaign. This suggests that compost released DOC during 410 the whole experimental campaign although with a lower concentration than during the first two 411 rainfalls. The cumulated DOC amounts after S-Metolachlor application (R3 to R10) ranked the highest 412 for the composted sludge with 63 ± 6 mg, then 41 ± 6 mg for the controls, 39 ± 2 mg for the sludge 413 and 30 ± 3 mg for the digestate. The cumulated DOC for the compost treatment was significantly 414 higher than that of the other treatments ($p \le 0.001$).

415 In a long term field experiment, Cambier et al., (2014) measured similar DOC concentration ranges at 416 45 cm depth for an agricultural soil amended with a compost of sewage sludge and green waste. 417 They found that the DOC concentration was greater for this compost than for manure-amended or 418 un-amended soils. They also monitored a decrease in DOC concentration over time for all of the 419 organic-amended soils. The decrease of DOC over time after organic amendments were also 420 reported by Marín-Benito et al. (2013) who measured significantly higher DOC concentration for soils 421 incubated with a variety of OW during one month than during 12 months. They explained the lower 422 DOC after extended incubation by the stabilization of the soil organic matter.

423 Digestate is a liquid OW and a fraction of it percolated through the core during spreading. This 424 fraction was 2 and 3 fold higher for the A replicate than for the B and C replicates, respectively. This 425 explains why DOC was lower in the A replicate during the first rainfall event, as a significant fraction 426 of the applied digestate had already percolated through the core. It is also a further evidence of the 427 different hydrological functioning of the different cores. The fractions collected during digestate 428 spreading were not analysed for DOC because of low volumes but their brownish color suggests that 429 they were highly loaded with DOC. This DOC peak during spreading is not represented in Figure 3 and 430 occurred before S-Metolachlor application.

431 DOC is a well-known vector of hydrophobic pesticides in soil (Bolan et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2012). 432 However, under the present experimental conditions, DOC concentrations were similar for the 433 control, sludge and digestate treatments after S-Metolachlor spraying (Figure 3) and thereby 434 probably did not impact the herbicide transport. Under field condition, OW are amended several weeks before crop establishment and weeding to allow the degradation of the organic matter and 435 436 the bioavailability of nutrients for the crops. The high initial DOC release following OW amendment 437 should generally be over at the time of pesticide spraying on the crops. In this respect, the interval 438 between OW amendment and pesticide application is probably a key factor controlling pesticide fate 439 in OW amended soils.

DOC came back to the level of the control soil one month (or 1/3 pore volume) after OW amendment
for the sludge and digestate amendments and remained higher for the compost. This tailed DOC
release after compost amendment was insufficient to significantly increase S-Metolachlor leaching.

443

444 **3.3. Degradation and fate of metabolites**

Over 83 % of the applied S-Metolachlor dose was not recovered neither in the leachates nor in the soils (Table 2). To assess the contribution of degradation to this loss of S-Metolachlor, we monitored its two major metabolites, MET-ESA and MET-OA (PPDB, 2018; Torabi et al., 2020; Zemolin et al., 2014).

The transport patterns of the two metabolites differed among the treatments (Figure 1). Overall, the detection of both metabolites in the eluted fractions occurred already during the rainfall event following S-Metolachlor application. The MET-OA peak was generally slightly delayed compared to S-Metolachlor and the MET-ESA peak was more delayed than the MET-OA peak. Peak concentration of MET-OA reached 22.4, 44.9, 73.6 and 75.1, µg/L and those of MET-ESA 82.9, 45.9, 40.5, 34.5 µg/L for the control, digestate, sludge and composted-sludge treatments, respectively.

A greater proportion of MET-OA (51-100 %) was detected in the eluted fraction than in the soils
while MET-ESA was proportionally more detected in the soil (51 – 67%) except for the control (35%)
(Table 3). MET-ESA concentration in the soil profiles were generally higher than those of MET-OA,
except on the top 4 cm for the control, sludge and composted sludge (Figure 2).

All OW amendments stimulated the formation of MET-OA over MET-ESA compared to the control (p <0.001). However, the proportion of the two metabolites varied greatly among the treatments. MET-OA represented 8 %, 27 %, 45 % and 54 % of the total metabolites (MET-OA + MET-ESA in soil + leachates) recovered in the control, digestate, sludge treatments and compost, respectively. This

proportion of MET-OA over MET-ESA was statistically different between all treatments (p value <
0.02) except between the sludge and compost (Fig. S1g).

465 Considering that MET-OA and MET-ESA stem from distinct degradation pathways, we hypothesized 466 that one mole of metabolite, either MET-OA or MET-ESA, was generated by the degradation of one 467 mole of S-Metolachlor (Maillard et al., 2016). The term degradation refers hereafter to the total 468 number of MET-ESA and MET-OA moles recovered in the leachates and extracted from the soil 469 divided by the S-Metolachlor moles applied. The degradation contributed to 6.1 ± 0.8 % for the 470 controls, 6.0 \pm 0.3 % for the sludge treatment, 6.1 \pm 2.0 % for the digestate treatment and 8.6 \pm 2.2 % 471 for the compost treatment (Table 2). Despite the higher average degradation rate in the compost 472 treatments, no statistical differences were evidenced (F(3,7) = 2.113, p = 0.187). This is due to the 473 high variability between the replicates (Fig. S1h).

474

475 The higher concentration of MET-ESA than MET-OA in the soil profiles is in accordance with the 476 greater aqueous solubility (PPDB, 2018) and the lower soil sorption coefficient of MET-OA than MET-477 ESA (Baran and Gourcy, 2013). The quick detection of MET-OA and MET-ESA in the leachates 478 following S-Metolachlor application evidences a rapid degradation of S-Metolachlor probably favored 479 by the history of application on the studied soils. The concentration of both metabolites greatly 480 exceeded the European regulatory limit of $0.1 \,\mu$ g/L for ground water used for human consumption. 481 Therefore, the very high peak concentration under the tilled horizon can be a threat to groundwater 482 quality given the reported low retention of both metabolites and their persistence in the vadose 483 zone (Baran and Gourcy, 2013). MET-OA in particular has been reported to be a skin sensitizer and an 484 eye irritant (Cai et al., 2007; PPDB, 2018).

485

The degradation wasn't significantly boosted by any OW amendment. Even the 32% increase in SOC
after compost amendment didn't significantly increase the S-Metolachlor degradation rate. However,

488 OW amendments influenced the metabolic pathways of S-Metolachlor. All three OW had contrasted physico-chemical properties such as pH or OC (Table 1) which might have boosted different soil 489 490 bacterial communities. In addition, these OW were characterized by different bacterial populations 491 themselves. The compost, in particular, contains 42 strains from the genus Bacillus (Aigle et al., 492 2021). Many species from this genus are known to be involved in the degradation of 493 chloroacetamide herbicides (Wang et al., 2008; Zemolin et al., 2014). Bacillus species represented 494 6.2% of the total bacterial biomass for the compost and only 0.1% for the digestate and sewage 495 sludge. The composted sludge was also enriched in Actinobacteria compared to the raw-sludge (28%, 496 7% and 0.2% of the biomass for the compost, sludge and digestate respectively (Aigle et al., 2021). 497 Actinobacteria were found to be associated with a higher proportion of MET-OA vs MET-ESA 498 metabolite during microcosm degradation studies of S-Metolachlor in an agricultural soil (Torabi et 499 al., 2020). Whether actinobacteria led to the increasing proportion of MET-OA observed in the 500 digestate, sludge and composted sludge in our study remains to be determined. The knowledge on 501 the S-Metolachlor metabolic pathways is still erratic and the factors favoring a metabolic pathway 502 over another remain to be identified (Torabi et al., 2020).

503

504 A large fraction (83 – 94%) of the applied S-Metolachlor was neither recovered in the eluted fraction 505 or the soil nor transformed into MET-OA or MET-ESA. Given the very quick appearance of both 506 metabolites, complete mineralization may have occurred. For field soils having an history of S-Metolachlor application comparable to the soil studied here and containing cover crop residues, 507 508 Alletto et al. (2013) reported mineralization rates ranging from 0.8 to 28 %. Similar mineralization 509 ranges were reported by Baran and Gourcy, (2013). Although MET-OA and MET-ESA have been 510 reported to be the major transformation products, other metabolites of S-Metolachlor have been 511 identified (Kiefer et al., 2019; PPDB, 2018; Reemtsma et al., 2013). It is thereby possible that the 512 transformation into secondary metabolites, that were not monitored, explains part of the

unrecovered S-Metolachlor. Finally, the formation of non-extractible residues (NER) generally accounts for 10 to 80 % of active molecule losses (Briceño et al., 2007; Fernandes et al., 2006; Li et al., 2015; Marín-Benito et al., 2013). NER formation might thereby be responsible for a consequent fraction of the unrecovered S-Metolachlor in our study.

517

518 4. Conclusion

This study examined the fate of S-Metolachlor, a chloroacetamide herbicide, under the widespread practice of organic waste recycling in agriculture. The experimental design used was closer to field conditions (undisturbed soil cores, alternating rainy and dry periods, duration long enough to allow for the transformation of organic matter, presence of soil fauna) than most of those reported so far. This experimental setup yielded key results to improve our understanding of the herbicide fate in this context:

• The amount of S-Metolachlor that leached through the cores was low and not significantly affected by OW amendments. Moreover, colloid and DOC facilitated transport were not major mechanisms affecting this herbicide's fate. However, for all treatments, the groundwater quality threshold was exceeded during several rainfall events, potentially threatening groundwater quality. These high S-Metolachlor concentrations were probably the consequence of soil hydraulic behavior dominated by preferential macropore flow. Future studies should aim at clarifying the role of earthworms on contaminant transport via the modification of the macroporal network.

• The metabolic pathways were impacted by all OW amendments that stimulated MET-OA over MET-ESA formation compared to the un-amended soil. The concentrations of both metabolites in the leachates were more than two orders of magnitude higher than the European regulatory limit of 0.1 μ g/L for groundwater used for human consumption in all of the treatments including the unamended controls. Because of the low retention of these metabolites in the vadose zone and their persistence, this constitutes a threat to groundwater quality.

538	• Less than 12 % of the S-Metolachlor applied was recovered in the soil, the leachates or
539	transformed into MET-OA and MET-ESA. This indicates that other mechanisms occurred such as the
540	transformation into other metabolites, mineralization or the formation of non-extractible residues.
541	Our experimental design doesn't enable to distinguish the relative role of these mechanisms. Future
542	studies with experimental designs using ¹⁴ C labeled S-Metolachlor could clarify this aspect.
543	Although it's effect is not statistically significant in our study, composted sludge tends to increase S-
544	Metolachlor availability and transformation into more mobile and persistent metabolites. This
545	deserves to be studied further in depths in future studies.
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548	5. Declarations
F 40	Availability of data and materials
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549 550 551 552 553 554 555 556 556 557 558	Availability of data and materials The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request. Competing interests The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. Authors' contributions JD performed the experiments and coordinated the writing of the manuscript. EM and VP

560 pesticide analyses and contributed to the writing of the manuscript. VS, NB and GD contributed to

the pesticide analyses. MM performed the DOC analyses and contributed to the writing of the

- 562 manuscript. LC performed the bromide analyses.
- 563
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Figure 1: Breackthrough curves of S-Metolachlor and its two main metabolites, SMET-OA and SMET-ESA, under the tilled horizon. The red arrows
 represent the application of S-Metolachlor on top of the cores. A, B and C are the 3 replicates established for each treatment; control (CT); composted
 sludge (CS); digestate (D) and sewage sludge (S). The rainfall events are separated by vertical dashed lines. The cumulated outflow volume was different for

each replicate. To facilitate the lecture of this figure, we have represented the concentrations of S-Metholachlor and metabolite according to the
 chronological order of collection of the eluted fractions. The cumulated outflow volume after each rainfall averaged over the three replicates and the

816 standard deviation of this volume is indicated on the horizontal axis. Figure S1 shows the same data represented as a function of cumulated outflow volume.



818	Figure 2: Concentration profiles of S-Metolachlor and its two main metabolites, MET-OA and MET-
819	ESA in the soil. A, B and C are the 3 replicates established for each treatment; control (CT);
820	composted sludge (CS); digestate (D) and sewage sludge (S). The vertical lines represent the average
821	concentration over the entire profile. SMET-OA was not detected in some (digestate) or all (control)
822	depths, and are represented with linear concentration axes. For the control soil, the dashed lines are
823	super-imposed with the y axis. Replicate C of the digestate treatment is not represented here
824	because it fell off the fraction collector after rainfall n# 7 which disrupted its structure. The
825	experiment was thereby terminated earlier for that specific core.



Figure 3: Colloids and DOC concentration in the eluted fractions. A, B and C are the 3 replicates established for each treatment; control (CT); composted sludge (CS); digestate (D) and sewage sludge (S). The red arrows represent the application of S-Metolachlor on top of the cores. The rainfall events are represented by the vertical dashed lines. The cumulated outflow volume after each rainfall event is averaged over the three replicates and the standard deviation is indicated in grey.

833 Tables

834

835 Table 1: Properties of the organic wastes

Organic waste	Dry matter	Total nitrogen	Total carbon	Organic matter	рН	Electrical conductivity	COD
	%	%	%	%		mS/cm	gO₂/l*
Digestate (D)	3	3.47	38.07	64.62	9.03	18.51	32.9
Sludge (S)	18	8.22	47.52	79.45	5.90	nd	203.1
Compost (CS)	65	3.06	31.23	54.26	7.01	nd	0.9*

The electrical conductivity was measured only for the liquid OW. The chemical oxygen demand was measure directly on the liquid fraction (after centrifugation) for the digestate and sewage sludge and after extraction with a 10 mM CaCl₂ solution for the composted sludge. (*) The value for CS is given

839 as $gO_2/g_{OW(DW)}$.

840

841

842 Table 2: Mass balance of S-Metolachlor

Treatment	SMET eluted	SMET in soil	Metabolite formation	NER/mineralization
	%	%	%	%
Control (CT)	0.01 ± 0.002	1.25 ± 0.47	6.14 ± 0.84	92.60 ± 1.29
Digestate (D)	0.10 ± 0.11	1.25 ± 0.18	6.13 ± 2.04	92.52 ± 4.59
Sludge (S)	0.01 ± 0.002	1.17 ± 0.56	6.02 ± 0.28	92.80 ± 0.38
Compost (CS)	0.01 ± 0.01	3.30 ± 2.18	8.63 ± 2.22	88.06 ± 4.38

843

844 The Metolachlor eluted and remaining in soil after the rainfall events are expressed as a fraction of

845 Metolachlor applied. The metabolites formed is the sum of ESA and OA. Metabolite formation is also

846 expressed as the percentage of Metolachlor applied with the hypothesis that 1 mole of metabolite,

847 were generated by the degradation of 1 mole of Metolachlor. The NER/mineralization is the resultant

848 of the mass balance.

849

Table 3: Metolachlor metabolites in the lixiviates and in the soils

Treatment	lixiviat	es	soils		
_	MET-OA	MET-ESA	MET-OA	MET-ESA	
	mole	mole	mole	mole	
Control (CT)	$1.19\ 10^{-7} \pm 2.2\ 10^{-8}$	$5.32 \ 10^{-7} \pm 7.0 \ 10^{-8}$	0.0 ± 0.0	$8.28 \ 10^{-7} \pm 3.8 \ 10^{-8}$	
Digestate (D)	$2.17 \ 10^{-7} \pm 3.8 \ 10^{-8}$	$2.56 \ 10^{-7} \pm 4.8 \ 10^{-8}$	$1.04 \ 10^{-7} \pm 1.3 \ 10^{-8}$	$6.14 \ 10^{-7} \pm 5.0 \ 10^{-8}$	
Sludge (S)	$3.12 \ 10^{-7} \pm 9.4 \ 10^{-8}$	$2.18 \ 10^{-7} \pm 2.1 \ 10^{-8}$	$5.16 \ 10^{-7} \pm 3.4 \ 10^{-8}$	$7.97 \ 10^{-7} \pm 3.4 \ 10^{-8}$	
Compost (CS)	$4.11\ 10^{-7} \pm 6.9\ 10^{-8}$	$1.99 \ 10^{-7} \pm 9.7 \ 10^{-9}$	1.24 10 ⁻⁶ ± 9.2 10 ⁻⁸	$1.20\ 10^{-6} \pm 5.4\ 10^{-8}$	