

Originally published as:

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. *- Agriculture Ecosystems and Environment*, *278*, pp. 107—116.

DOI: http://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2019.03.017





37 The input of harmful substances into surface waters are of major concern since their side effects may 38 negatively affect the chemical state of surface waters. This study investigated the drainage loss of pesticides 39 into surface waters in a small agricultural catchment in Northern Germany.

40 The pesticides flufenacet, diflufenican, and pendimethalin were monitored at a daily resolution for 154 days 41 in 2016 (dry period) and 111 days in 2017 (wet period) for two consecutive years at both field- (10 ha) and 42 catchment-scale (100 ha). Highly contrasting weather conditions led to extremely high differences in loads 43 between both monitoring periods.

44 Regarding both scales and campaigns, flufenacet was released often in considerably higher amounts and 45 faster than diflufenican and pendimethalin. The very mobile pesticide, flufenacet, is not exclusively leached 46 during high precipitation events but also continuously discharged from soils to the drainage system during 47 low precipitation. Pendimethalin had the lowest recovery rate in comparison to its application amount and 48 showed a lower total loss rate than the less sorptive pesticide, diflufenican. Pendimethalin and diflufenican 49 showed high retarded loads caused by increased drainage discharge and sediment transport during late 50 winter induced by freezing and thawing processes in the upper soil.

51 Hence, leaching of the pesticides was controlled by the sorption properties of the investigated compounds 52 and, to a large extent, by hydrological boundary conditions, which were highly variable from an (inter-)



55

56 *Keywords: tile drainage; pesticide leaching; flufenacet; diflufenican; pendimethalin; weather conditions* 

- 57
- 58

### 59 *1. Introduction*

60 Diffuse sources of pesticides and their potential threat to the environment are of great general interest world-61 wide. This has been demonstrated by the European Union's recent decisions to prohibit three neonicotinoids 62 imidacloprid, clothianidin, and thiamethoxam on open land (EU 2018/783-785) and the intense public 63 debate about harmful side effects of the most commonly used pesticide glyphosate (e.g. Van Bruggen et 64 al., 2018).

65 Pesticide losses from cultivated fields to surface waters are investigated with diverse monitoring strategies 66 varying in frequency, technical effort, and length (Gaynor et al., 1992, Brown et al., 1995, Kreuger, 1998, 67 Müller et al., 2003, Holvoet et al., 2007, Rabiet et al., 2010, Ulrich et al., 2012, Ulén et al., 2014, Potter et 68 al., 2015, Sandin et al., 2018). Depending on the specific research approach, the temporal resolution of 69 current pesticide monitoring spreads from hourly (Wittmer et al., 2010, Chrétien et al., 2017), to daily 70 (Müller et al., 2003, Doppler et al., 2012, Ulrich et al., 2012, Potter et al., 2015), and to low temporal 71 resolution (weekly (Ulén et al., 2014, Sandin et al., 2018). Due to high technical effort and costly analysis, 72 the monitoring covers either short discharge events in high-frequency (e.g. Chrétien et al., 2017) or long-73 term measurement periods in a lower sampling interval (Sandin et al., 2018) as e.g. for an operational 74 monitoring program (Rabiet et al., 2010).

75 The monitoring can be carried out by grab sampling (Sandin et al., 2018, Potter et al., 2015), automated 76 time- and/or flow-proportional (Müller et al., 2003, Leu et al., 2004a, Rabiet et al., 2010, Ulrich et al., 2012, 77 Ulén et al., 2014), or event-based with very high temporal resolution (Wittmer et al., 2010, Chrétien et al., 78 2017). Also common is a combined approach using automated sampling with high temporal resolution 79 during high flows and grab sampling with low temporal resolution during base flows (Freitas et al., 2008, 80 Doppler et al., 2012, Doppler et al., 2014, Potter et al., 2015). Furthermore, cost-saving computer-based 81 approaches are used to model pesticide transport and estimate pesticide loads (i.e. Ghafoor et al., 2011, 82 Payraudeau and Gregoire, 2012, Bertuzzo et al., 2013, Fohrer et al., 2014, Novic et al., 2018). However, 83 this data provides a rough overview for water quality assessment but still needs appropriate field sampling 84 for model validation.

85 All mentioned monitoring and modelling approaches help to understand the behaviour of pesticides in the 86 environment. However, due to coarse temporal resolution of sampling or short sampling periods, these 87 studies are limited in describing all aspects of leaching of pesticides and in providing comprehensive 88 knowledge about the absence or presence of pesticides in aquatic environments. Although field approaches 89 with higher temporal resolution and long-time monitoring would provide more profound insight into 90 pesticide leaching behaviour, such studies are rare.

91 As requested by Holvoet et al. (2007), more field experiments with continuous and extended monitoring 92 periods should be carried out to improve this knowledge. To the best of our knowledge, it is not entirely 93 clear how loads of known pesticides behave spatial-temporally over longer time periods. Especially in 94 headwater catchments, it is expected that concentrations of substances are subject to very strong dynamical 95 fluctuations based on the dynamic water flows (Rabiet et al., 2010). High-resolution and ongoing 96 measurements are important to gain this expanded understanding for the load transport of pesticides in the 97 environment. To these ends, monitoring should encompass both the peak concentration during precipitation 98 events and the total loss in the long-term perspective.

99 Considering an appropriate monitoring strategy according to hydrological conditions, tile-drained 100 landscapes are of special interest. In north-western Europe, tile drainage flow underlies an annual cycle with 101 dry tile drainages in summer and increasing discharge in autumn. In winter, maximum discharges occur and 102 in spring the discharge lowers again (Tournebize et al., 2017). Despite recurring cyclical patterns, the height 103 of drainage discharge can vary to a large extent interannually depending on prevailing weather conditions 104 (Pfannerstill et al., 2015, Willkommen et al., 2018, Guse et al., 2019). Regarding pesticide leaching, this 105 dynamic of tile drainage discharge needs to be considered because in highly tile-drained areas pesticides are 106 mainly transported by tile drainages (Kreuger, 1998, Holvoet et al., 2007). Since tile drainages lead to fast 107 and shortened flow paths, they are highly relevant for these precipitation-induced discharge events 108 (Schottler et al., 1994, Doppler et al., 2014). Accompanied with quick responses of precipitation events, 109 pesticides are transported via tile drainages rapidly and in high pulse-like signals with short retention time 110 to surface waters (Kung et al., 2000).

111 Hence, Kreuger (1998) derives an annual cycle of pesticide loss, with maximum concentrations occurring 112 during or right after application (Capel et al., 2001). The first flush effect is followed by several load peaks 113 during events of tile drainage discharge (Kreuger, 1998, Brown and van Beinum, 2009). However, studies 114 show that pesticide leaching behaviour can vary in time under specific weather conditions (Brown and van 115 Beinum, 2009). Since tile drainage systems may significantly impact pesticide transport and are very 116 sensitive to antecedent and prevailing weather conditions, an interest in further investigations of drainage 117 transport pathways of pesticides on the field- and catchment-scale was claimed by Leu et al. (2004a), Freitas 118 et al. (2008), Ulrich et al. (2012), and Sandin et al. (2018). These studies revealed that total loss rates of 119 pesticides can vary by an order of magnitude within the catchment (Leu et al., 2004a). Ulrich et al. (2012) 120 recommended further research on pesticide loss at different spatial scales to improve understanding of 121 pesticide transfer processes. Doppler et al. (2014) pointed out the importance of a high-frequency 122 monitoring in time and scale to detect controlling factors for the temporally variable spatial patterns in 123 pesticide loss. Besides antecedent and prevailing weather conditions, additional controlling factors may play 124 an important role for pesticide leaching. For this, the time of application and physico-chemical properties 125 of pesticides need to be linked to weather conditions to explain pesticide leaching via tile drainages. The 126 complex interplay of many factors influencing the transport of pesticides in tile drainages is not entirely 127 clear (Doppler et al., 2014, Sandin et al., 2018).

128 This deficit of knowledge about temporal dynamics and patterns of pesticide outputs of tile drainages 129 motivates a continuous daily pesticide load monitoring of agricultural tile drainage outputs at different 130 spatial scales.



157 pH 6.3 and Corg 1.5 %. The clay content of the loamy topsoil is 20-30 % and the silt content 50-60 %, pH 158 7.0 and Corg 1.4 %. Sampling point (B) (Fig. 1) describes the outlet of the whole catchment (100 ha), also 159 including the smaller area of 10 ha representing the field scale (A, Fig. 1).

160

161 *Tab. 1: Total applied amount of pesticides is listed for two areas: field and catchment. The size of the effective application area*  162 *(area B) depends on the number of cultivated fields. The fields are cultivated with wb = winter barley, wr = winter oilseed rape,*  163 *ww* = *winter wheat, and x* = *no application.* 

164

165 The first measurement campaign lasted from  $27<sup>th</sup>$  of September 2016 to  $27<sup>th</sup>$  of February 2017 166 (length = 154 days, campaign 1) and the second measurement campaign lasted from  $03<sup>th</sup>$  of October 2017  $167$  to  $21<sup>th</sup>$  of January 2018 (length = 111 days, campaign 2). The pesticides were applied in late summer and 168 autumn (Tab 1.) The maximum effective application area of the 100-ha drained water catchment (B) is 169 50 ha. The calculated amount of cumulative pesticide load refers to the effective application area (Tab. 1).

- 170
- 

### 171 *2.1.1. Selected pesticides and their properties*

172 In this study, the farmer continued the crop rotation and pesticide application according to local practice. 173 Three different pesticides (pendimethalin, diflufenican, and flufenacet) were investigated.

174 The pesticides were chosen because of their wide use in Northern Germany, common detection in surface 175 waters (State Laboratory Schleswig-Holstein, 2015), and their contrasting physico-chemical properties. 176 Furthermore, the three substances are often used in the same pesticide formulation. The properties are listed 177 in a pesticide properties data base (PPDB: Lewis et al., 2016). The pesticides vary mainly in their sorption 178 capacities and half-life times. The chosen pesticides can be grouped into more mobile substances with high 179 leaching potential and less mobile substances preferring sorption to soil. Flufenacet has a low organic carbon 180 sorption coefficient (kfoc) and is moderately mobile (Lewis et al., 2016) with the percolating water. 181 Diflufenican and pendimethalin have a high kfoc value, can sorb better to soil particles, and do not desorb 182 easily for transport with pore water. The pesticides differ in their half-life times. Pendimethalin (non-mobile) 183 and diflufenican (slightly mobile) are persistent in soil as they have a high half-life period (dt50) and degrade 184 slowly. Flufenacet degrades faster than diflufenican and pendimethalin (Tab. 2).

185

186

187 *Tab. 2: Properties of the monitored pesticides obtained by the PPDB (Lewis et al., 2016). The half-life time is described by the*  188 *degradation time in days (dt50) in soil, water, and sediment. The specific dt50 values refer to available field studies in the PPDB.*  189 *Table gaps with no available date from PPDB are expressed by x.* 

190

191

# 192 *2.1.2. Field data and sampling*

193 Hydrological data were measured continuously over the year. Precipitation data were taken from a tipping 194 bucket rain gauge by Campbell Scientific in 10-minute (min) resolution located within the catchment. A 195 rainy day was defined as a day with precipitation larger or equal than 0.1 mm as recommended by the 196 German Climate Data Center (DWD Climate Data Center, 2018). At the field outlet, the discharge of the 197 150 DN tile drainage pipe was measured manually by collecting water with bucket and stop watch. Water 198 levels were measured in 10 min resolution by HOBO Oneset data loggers in a connected U-junction 199 following the principle of communication vessels. The rating curve was based on 38 measurements. At the 200 catchment outlet, the flow velocity was measured by doppler sensor and a pressure transducer (ISCO 750 201 area velocity flow module). The discharge is then calculated automatically by multiplying the area of the 202 outlet with the average velocity. A threshold of 4 mm water level for flow velocity measurements was 203 chosen for the installed doppler sensor. The soil moisture was measured in 10 min resolution in 30 cm, 204 60 cm, and 90 cm depth by SM300 Delta-T sensors during the monitoring periods. For the collection of the 205 pesticide samples, two measurement campaigns in the year 2016 and 2017 were carried out from autumn 206 after pesticide application until the end of February. Automatic water samplers (Teledyne ISCO 6712) were 207 installed at each outlet to collect 50 ml of water volume every 70 min in 350 ml glass bottles. Three 350 ml 208 glass bottles covered one day.

209

## 210 *2.1.3. Laboratory Analysis*

211 The physico-chemical water parameters pH, oxygen content, electrical conductivity, temperature, and redox 212 potential were determined in-situ according to the existing norms (DIN 384044: 1976; DIN 384046: 1984; 213 ISO 5814: 2012; ISO 7888: 1993; ISO 10523:2008) with WTW 3540.

214 The water samples were stored at 8 °C within one day after sampling if air temperature was  $> 8$  °C. The 215 samples of one day were combined to a daily mixed sample and were sent cooled to the laboratory. The 216 substances pendimethalin, diflufenican, and flufenacet were analysed with an AB Sciex 5500 Qtrap by an 217 accredited laboratory according to the Germany Industry Norm (DIN 38407-36:2014-09). The Limit of 218 Quantification (LOQ) was 0.01  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> for flufenacet and diflufenican and 0.025  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> for pendimethalin. 219 The uncertainty of the pesticide concentrations within a measurement stated by the analytical laboratory is 220 in a range of 20  $\%$ .

221

#### 222 **2.1.4. Calculations**

223 For pesticide load calculation, concentration values detected below LOQ were set to 0.5 LOQ. The daily 224 loads were calculated multiplying daily concentration ( $\mu$ g L<sup>1</sup>) of mixed water samples with daily averaged 225 discharge  $(m<sup>3</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>)$ . In this study, we distinguished between the terms daily pesticide load (mg d<sup>-1</sup>), cumulative 226 pesticide load (mg) for the different monitoring periods, specific cumulative load (g ha<sup>-1</sup>) and normalized 227 specific cumulative pesticide loads (g ha<sup>-1</sup>), and the total pesticide loss rate (%).

228 The daily tile drainage output and discharge averaged concentration were described as load (mg  $d^{-1}$ ). 229 Cumulative pesticide loads were calculated as the sum over the monitoring period (mg).

230 The specific cumulative load  $(g \ ha^{-1})$  is the average area related cumulative load of the monitoring periods. 231 Normalized specific cumulative loads are a measure to compare the specific cumulative loads of the three 232 pesticides under varying application conditions (Brown and van Beinum, 2009). The cumulative loads were 233 standardised to the equivalent average application amount of 100 g ha<sup>-1</sup> to gain a normalized ratio between 234 the three substances (Eq. 1).

235

236 Eq.1 normalized specific cumulative load  $(gha^{-1})$  = specific cumulative load  $(gha^{-1})$  \* equivalent application amount  $(gha^{-1})$ 237  $\frac{equivalent$  application amount (gha  $\frac{1}{2}$ )

238

239 Afterwards, the normalized specific cumulative loads were compared for both monitoring periods in 2016 240 and 2017. Factors of change between the two years were delineated. The share of the cumulative load to the 241 average applied amount was calculated for each monitoring period according to Eq.2.

242

243 Eq. 2 total loss rate (%) = 
$$
\frac{\text{specific cumulative load } (g \, ha^{-1})}{\text{average application amount } (g \, ha^{-1})} * 100
$$

- 244
- 245
- 246 *3. Results*

### 247 *3.1.Hydrological boundary conditions*

248 During both measurement campaigns in the years 2016 and 2017, the weather conditions varied strongly 249 (Tab. 3). Campaign 1 was relatively dry with only 49 % of rainy days (maximum with 17 mm d<sup>-1</sup>). However, 250 . 7 days exceeded 10 mm  $d^{-1}$ .

251 To the contrary, during campaign 2 the precipitation increased and 65 % of days were rainy. The maximum 252 peak reached 45 mm  $d^{-1}$ . Excluding this heavy precipitation event early in the monitoring, the precipitation 253 in campaign 2 was evenly distributed with only 4 days exceeding 10 mm  $d^{-1}$ . Comparing the last 10 years 254 of data (2007-2017) from the nearest weather station in Dörnick (DWD Climate Data Center, 2018), the 255 year 2016 was 11 % drier (with 650 mm) and 2017 was 22 % wetter (with 885 mm) than the average value 256 of 728 mm per year (the range of annual precipitation in this period was between 628 mm and 885 mm). 257 The year 2016 showed the lowest variability with a deviation of  $\pm$  21mm in 2016. In 2017, the standard 258 deviation of  $\pm$  36mm represented an average variable year.

259

260 *Tab. 3: Precipitation and discharge distribution from field- and catchment-scale during both measurement campaigns.* 

261

262 **3.2.***Spatial extent and amounts of applied pesticides* 263 For the evaluation of the pesticide load dynamics, aspects of agricultural management were considered: the 264 effective application area (Tab. 3) and application amounts (Tab. 1). The effective application area of 7.2 ha 265 at field scale (A) was identical in both years. The effective application area of the drained catchment (B) 266 decreased from 2016 to 2017 by 14 % (Tab. 1). In 2016, four fields were connected to location B (Fig. 1). 267 In the following year only two fields were cultivated, and the catchment outlet received loads primary from 268 the field of outlet location A (Fig. 2). The application amount varied between the pesticides, but the order 269 of application amount was the same for both years: pendimethalin > flufenacet > diflufenican (Tab. 3). The 270 application amount increased for all substances between 18 - 25 % at the field scale for campaign 2. 271 In 2017, the drained area decreased at the catchment (Tab. 3), but the amount of applied pesticides for

272 diflufenican and flufenacet approximately doubled yet remained the same for pendimethalin. At both scales 273 and during both years the order of total loads was similar (flufenacet > pendimethalin > diflufenican, Tab. 4), 274 contrary to the order of application amounts.

275

*Tab. 4: Average application amounts (g ha<sup>-1</sup>) together with effective application area (ha) and specific cumulative load (g ha<sup>-1</sup>).* 277 *The specific cumulative load is the average area related cumulative load sampled at the field-outlet (A) and catchment-outlet (B).* 

- 278
- 279 *3.3.Cumulative load, normalized specific cumulative loads, and total loss rate of selected pesticides*  280 Regarding both scales, especially the cumulated daily load of the pesticide flufenacet showed a stepwise 281 major load output during campaign 1 and a continuous load output during campaign 2 (Fig.2). The 282 difference in total load between the two campaigns is most apparent for flufenacet (Fig. 2). At the catchment 283 scale, the total load increased for diflufenican 3-fold, for pendimethalin 2.6-fold, and for flufenacet 8.8-fold. 284

285 *Fig. 2: Cumulative pesticide loads (mg) for flufenacet (blue line), diflufenican (black line), and pendimethalin (red line) in dry*  286 *(2016) and wet (2017) years on two different scales: (A) outlet of field and (B) catchment outlet. The dashed line marks the* 

- 287 *application days for pesticides (one application in 2016 on 27th September and in 2017, the 1st application was on 30th September*
- 288 *(B), the 2nd application on 9<sup>th</sup> of October (B), and the 3<sup>rd</sup> application on 30th October (A)).*
- 289

290 At the catchment scale, the normalized specific cumulative loads increased for the three pesticides from dry 291 to wet conditions: for diflufenican by a factor of 1.3, pendimethalin by 2.7, and for flufenacet by 5.0. At the 292 field scale, the pattern is similar for the normalized cumulative loads: for diflufenican by 1.4, pendimethalin 293 by 3.4, and for flufenacet by 13.1.

294 The total loss rate increased for all substances at field- and catchment-scale from 2016 to 2017 (Tab. 4). At 295 the field scale, the total loss rate ranged between 0.02 % for pendimethalin and 0.05 % for flufenacet during 296 campaign 1. Under wet conditions the total loss rate increased strongly to 0.06 % for pendimethalin and 297 0.7 % for flufenacet (Tab. 4). At catchment scale, the total loss rate ranged between 0.005 % for 298 pendimethalin and 0.02 % for flufenacet during campaign 1. For campaign 2 the total loss rate increased 299 strongly to 0.01 % for pendimethalin and 0.1 % for flufenacet (Tab. 4).

300 To identify the impact of the sorption properties of the compounds (Tab. 2) on the drainage output, the 301 sorption coefficient (kfoc) and the total loss rate were compared (Fig. 2). The total loss rate is higher for all 302 substances under wet conditions. On both scales, the more mobile substance was (smallest kfoc value) 303 released in a higher amount with discharge under wet conditions. The most sorptive substance showed the 304 lowest total loss rate. At the field scale, this relation cannot be confirmed during dry periods.

305

306 *Fig. 3: Variation of total loss rate (% share of specific cumulative load to applied pesticide amount) and sorption coefficient kfoc*   $307$  *(ml g<sup>-1</sup>) of the selected pesticides at the field- and catchment outlets for campaign 1 (2016) and campaign 2 (2017).* 

308

### 309 *3.4.Pesticide load dynamics*

310 Besides the remarkable differences in cumulative loads of the considered pesticides for the monitoring 311 campaigns, highly variable boundary conditions and pesticide transports were observed within each 312 monitoring campaign.

313

314 *Fig. 4 Pesticide loads of diflufenican (black), flufenacet (blue), and pendimethalin (red) during 2016 and 2017 at field scale (A)*  315 *and catchment scale (B). The dashed line marks the application days (one application in 2016 on 27th September and in 201,7 the* **216** Ist application was on 30th September (B), the 2nd application on  $9<sup>th</sup>$  of October (B), and the  $3<sup>rd</sup>$  application on 30th October (A). 317 *The bold numbers label the pesticide load phases: (1) flush peak phase, (2) recession and background load phase, (3) preferential*  318 *flow phase, (4) retarded pesticide load peak phase. The grey area marks the time of dry drainage pipes. Scale differs 1:10 between*  319 *graphs 2016 and 2017.*

320

## 321 *3.4.1. Pesticide load dynamics at field scale (outlet A)*

322 During campaign 1, the measured soil moisture was on average around 20 % (pF value 2.5). The soils were 323 not fully saturated. The pesticides subsequent load peaks only occurred if rainfall exceeded precipitation  $324$  amounts of at least 9 mm d<sup>-1</sup> (phase 1). The peaks of all three pesticides occurred at same dates and lasted 325 for 1-2 days (Fig. 4). After the precipitation events the loads immediately decreased below the quantification 326 limit. The main load peak occurred for all substances during the first precipitation event exceeding 327 12 mm on one day, 12 days after application. This first flush led to the highest measured load for all 328 substances in 2016 with amounts of 236.4 mg d<sup>-1</sup> flufenacet, 107.64 mg d<sup>-1</sup> pendimethalin, and 41.60 mg d<sup>-1</sup> <sup>1</sup> 329 diflufenican. In general, the peak loads followed precipitation events. In discharge recession and 330 background load phases, the pesticides were rarely detectable (phase 2). Remarkable is the first occurring 331 peak concentration of  $1.38 \mu g L^{-1}$  flufenacet immediately after application (phase 3). Pendimethalin  $332 \left( \times \text{LOQ} \right)$  and diflufenican (0.08 µg L<sup>-1)</sup> show very low concentrations immediately after application.

333 During campaign 2, the first flush occurred immediately after application of the pesticides within the same 334 day (phase 1). The flufenacet peak was measured with an amount of 1693.8 mg  $d^{-1}$ , which was the highest 335 monitored load in 2017. The sandy-loamy soils were almost saturated with a soil moisture of 30 % (pF value 336 ( $\leq$ 1) at the beginning of campaign 2. The pesticides showed more dynamics and single peaks appeared more 337 frequently. Loads decreased later on but remained at a constant level during the following precipitation 338 events. In recession phases, low but still traceable background loads were measured for flufenacet (phase 2). 339 During precipitation events the loads of pendimethalin and diflufenican increased slightly and could not be

340 detected during recession phases (phase 3). However, the course of the pendimethalin load was more 341 dynamic than diflufenican. The diflufenican loads were only detectable for a short time during the highest 342 precipitation events. After 64 days of monitoring in 2017, increased loads of the pesticides pendimethalin 343 and diflufenican were monitored (phase 4).

- 344
- 

## 345 *3.4.2. Pesticide load dynamics at catchment scale (outlet B)*

346 During campaign 1, the substances pendimethalin and diflufenican could not be detected above LOQ 347 (Fig. 4). Flufenacet was detected with a delay of 12 days in A (phase 1). The highest load of flufenacet was 348 measured 10 weeks ( $11<sup>th</sup>$  December 2016) after application and did not occur with the first flush (phase 1). 349 In late winter, the peaks in A and B occurred simultaneously.

350 During campaign 2, a first flush peak occurred for all substances but especially for flufenacet, immediately 351 after application accompanied by a strong precipitation event exceeding 45 mm on one day (phase 1). A 352 further high load at the catchment outlet was caused by the first flush of field outlet A and was detected for 353 all pesticides within the same day (phase 1). This led to a main peak load of 1313 mg  $d<sup>-1</sup>$  flufenacet. 354 Flufenacet responded more dynamically and with continuously increasing loads, which slowly reduced 355 below LOQ (phase 2). Further flufenacet loads are reduced in comparison to the main load, but the loads of 356 all substances increased smoothly towards the end of the monitoring period.

357 Pendimethalin and diflufenican loads decreased after small peaks below LOQ. Their main loads were 358 observed at the end of monitoring period (phase 4).

- 359
- 360

### 361 *4. Discussion*

## 362 *4.1.Cumulative loads at different spatial scales*

363 Cumulative pesticide loads for field- and catchment-scale were found to be different. The dilution effect 364 and subsurface connectivity of tile-drained areas to the catchment outlet is a reason for higher area-related 365 cumulative loads (Tab. 4) for all target pesticides. This difference at field scale compared to catchment scale 366 was also found by Kreuger (1998) and Ulrich et al. (2012).

367 Considering the tile drainage discharge as the governing transport path for pesticides, tile drainage discharge 368 started in autumn, increased in winter, and started to minimize in late spring. During summertime, the tile 369 drainages dried out. Our observations are in accordance with Tournebize et al. (2017). Surface runoff could 370 only be observed in lanes on the field after a heavy precipitation event, which occurred once during the two 371 monitoring periods (45 mm at 05/10/2017). However, the current pesticide application on field A was not 372 carried out at that point in time. With less precipitation amounts, the installed surface runoff samplers 373 located on the hillside of the field were empty.

374 Under dry conditions, the low discharges explain similar cumulative loads per hectare at both scales between 375 the investigated pesticides. However, the transport pattern at the catchment outlet is shifted in time in 376 comparison to the field scale, because the tile drainage discharge of several fields started especially under 377 dry conditions at different dates, which is also described by Bertuzzo et al. (2013). The heterogeneity of 378 pesticide leaching at different spatial scales is assumed to be controlled rather by hydrological factors than 379 by physico-chemical properties (Frey et al., 2009).

380 At both spatial scales, flufenacet was released under dry and wet conditions in considerably larger amounts 381 than diflufenican and pendimethalin. The highest spatial difference for area-related cumulative loads was 382 observed for flufenacet, which was 2.6 times higher at field scale  $(1.15 \text{ g ha}^{-1})$  under wet conditions than at 383 catchment scale  $(0.44 \text{ g ha}^{-1})$ . This can be explained by the fast transport of very high loads at field scale in 384 comparison to the diluted, but continuously released lower loads on catchment scale. In comparison to 385 flufenacet, the loads of the sorptive substances (diflufenican, pendimethalin) are lower and less frequent at 386 field scale. The pesticide concentrations pendimethalin and diflufenican were often detected below LOQ. 387 The load relations of the two spatial scales are more similar for pendimethalin and diflufenican than for 388 flufenacet.

389 Regarding load estimation for these two substances, it has to be mentioned that a high proportion of the 390 values from pendimethalin and diflufenican detected at catchment outlet were below LOQ. Hence, the level 391 of LOQ has significant impact on the total load estimation at the catchment outlet, especially in dry years 392 with very slow substance transport from field to catchment outlet.

393 The specific cumulative load estimation for field scale  $(0.02 \text{ to } 0.12 \text{ g ha}^{-1})$  was comparable to results of 394 Ulrich et al. (2012), which ranged between 0.01 to 0.05 % of applied amount for flufenacet. The reported 395 weather conditions of Ulrich et al. (2012) were comparable to campaign 1, where flufenacet total loss rate 396 accounts for  $0.05\%$  ( $0.07g$  ha<sup>-1</sup>). In general, the studied pesticides of our study meet total loss rates of 397 < 0.5 % and rarely < 3% reported by other studies (Brown et al., 1995, Boithias et al., 2014).

398

## 399 *4.2.Temporal dynamics of pesticide loads*

### 400 *4.2.1. Impact of weather conditions*

401 The inter-annual variability of weather conditions showed remarkable impact on pesticide loads. The 402 monitored periods represented the precipitation character during the year quite well. The year 2016 was a 403 dry year with rather low variability. During the dry monitoring period in year 2016, the precipitation patterns 404 were characterized by many days without precipitation alternating with daily precipitation events > 9 mm. 405 Due to the low initial soil moisture conditions, a low connectivity of soil matrices within the catchment can 406 be assumed so that the potential of pesticide leaching was limited. Our findings cover with Walker et al. 407 (2005), that leaching was reduced most, because the timespan after application was dry with only light 408 precipitation and slow soil-wetting. However, at field scale, pesticide loads were transported by low tile 409 drainage discharge to field outlet A with a considerable contribution of preferential flows. At the catchment 410 scale, the maximum pesticide peak occurred quite late. This leaching behaviour can be explained by an 411 increased subsurface connectivity and a considerable increase in discharge after a dry period (Leu et al., 412 2004b).

413 The pesticide application in the catchment in year 2017 was accompanied by a heavy precipitation event of 414 45 mm (except the field linked to outlet A which was sprayed later), leading to a high soil moisture content 415 which supported pesticide leaching. After application, the wet period in year 2017 was characterized by 416 continuous precipitation. The moderately variable annual precipitation in 2017 was represented well by the

417 monitoring conditions. The travel times for the main peak loads from field and catchment outlet ranged 418 between several days during dry periods and less than one day during wet periods according to the 419 antecedent soil moisture content. Therefore, a high subsurface connectivity in the catchment with more 420 continuous matrix flow can be assumed. The temporal variability of pesticide loss directly after application 421 in our study demonstrates that the pesticide transport by tile drainages and height of pesticide loss depends 422 on the current state of the functional subsurface connectivity (Blume and van Meerveld, 2015). Hence, we 423 highly recommend supporting the assumptions about the state of subsurface connectivity by monitoring of 424 soil characteristics and moisture along with pesticides concentrations in the soil. In this regard, subsurface 425 connectivity seems to be a crucial point since our study shows that the timing of leaching of very mobile 426 pesticides itself does not depend on the time gap between application and first strong precipitation events, 427 which is in accordance with Boithias et al. (2014).

- 428
- 

### 429 *4.2.2. Impact of pesticide application*

430 The seasonally changing drainage area and application amounts are crucial variables towards the 431 understanding of pesticide leaching. Considering the agricultural management, the fields are cultivated 432 similarly in each year so that the same pesticides were applied over the catchment in 2016 and 2017. Due 433 to the wet soils in 2017, which were induced by exceptional weather conditions, only parts of the fields 434 could be cultivated. Consequently, the ratio between connected fields and catchment area decreased from 435 campaign 1 to campaign 2. Hence, the application of pesticides was strongly localized on a smaller area due 436 to the wet soils in 2017. Additionally, the discharges were considerably higher in that time, so a higher 437 possibility for pesticides to be released in very high loads was given. In general, the weather conditions 438 during application and the time span between application date and first precipitation event or appearing 439 drainage discharge were very important for the height of the first occurring loads. We conclude that field A 440 is a strong contributing area for pesticide leaching in the catchment, whose relevance changes depending on 441 weather conditions. This finding is in accordance with Doppler et al. (2014). .

442 The pesticide transport time to the monitored outlets under wet conditions was less than one day. In 2016, 443 the weather conditions were quite dry before and after pesticide application. Under these conditions a longer 444 retention time on the topsoil was responsible for longer times of soil passage and, thus, for transformation 445 processes to take place (Leu et al., 2004a, Lange et al., 2018). The first precipitation event causing a 446 hydrological response at the catchment scale occurred 12 days after application. Consequently, potential 447 transport of pesticides and transformation products was delayed.

448

## 449 *4.2.3. Environmental impact*

450 The study area is considered as a headwater catchment where, water and pesticides are transported within a 451 relatively short time to larger receiving waters. Along the channel pathway, the pesticide concentration 452 peaks were attenuated. The highest contribution to receiving waters was calculated for the mobile substance 453 flufenacet during the main peak phase and on average. The main concentration peak contributed less than 454 2 %. It is recognizable during wetter periods that the peak concentration contribution is diluted (below 1 %) 455 for all the substances in comparison to drier periods with lower discharge.

456 The tile-drained area, which is connected to outlet A, had a remarkable impact on the water quality of the 457 catchment outlet. To evaluate the impact of changing weather conditions on the water quality at the 458 catchment outlet, a threshold value of  $0.2 \mu g L^{-1}$  was chosen. This value is oriented to the German 459 environmental quality standard for the maximum allowable concentration for flufenacet in surface water 460 (OGewV, 2016). Under dry conditions, the threshold value was only exceeded once by flufenacet with the 461 major peak  $(0.462 \text{ kg L}^1, 11/12/2016)$ . However, under wet conditions the situation changed at the 462 catchment outlet. The threshold was exceeded by flufenacet for 4 weeks beginning directly after pesticide 463 application on field A.

464 The study results show that high loads at field-scale, especially under wet conditions, can lead to continuous 465 exceedance of concentration thresholds at catchment-scale. Hence, small headwater catchments can 466 contribute with critical high substance loads to the receiving water bodies. Consequently, sources for 467 environmental pollution of priority water bodies can better be located investigating upstream small head-468 water catchment.

469 From the perspective of protecting the chemical status of surface waters, an additional increase in 470 application amounts under wet and adverse farming conditions should be avoided as the pesticides have a 471 greater chance of being released faster and in higher amounts under high-flow situations. For improved 472 surface water protection, we support the suggestion of Lewan et al. (2009) to avoid pesticide application if 473 significant precipitation events (our study: > 9 mm) are forecasted. Hence, we share the common pesticide 474 mitigation recommendation to avoid exceptional wet soil conditions for pesticide application in autumn (e.g. 475 Brown and van Beinum (2009)), as our study show the 10-fold pesticide loss under a hydrological connected 476 catchment area. Lewan et al. (2009) identified soil water deficit and medium-term rainfall until 90 days after 477 application as most influencing factors for pesticide loss. This covers our findings that after the autumn 478 application important transport processes take place until late winter, still leading to considerable pesticide 479 amounts at the catchment outlet.

480

### 481 *4.2.4. Integrated view on load phases*

482 The results of the study indicate that inter-annual weather conditions and variabilities at both spatial scales 483 are appropriate to derive the general leaching of pesticides within the environment. However, to explain the 484 short-term daily variability of pesticide loads, further variables like application of pesticides and their 485 physico-chemical properties need to be considered jointly with specific hydrological boundary conditions. 486 Each variable contributes to a varying extent to phases of pesticides loads, which can be differentiated into 487 (1) first flush peak, (2) recession and background load, (3) preferential flows, and (4) delayed pesticide 488 loads.

489

490 First flush peak phase (1)

491 Dryer periods with low initial soil moisture content were found to be relevant for pesticide transport if a 492 daily precipitation sum of 9 mm was determined. In that case, not all field regions are connected (Stieglitz 493 et al., 2003) and precipitation-induced vertical soil water movement triggered pesticide drainage loss after 494 application. As soon as water is available for transport, pesticide peaks of the target substances occur largely 495 at the same time.

496 During our studies, a large precipitation event  $(05<sup>th</sup>$  of October 2017 with 45 mm) occurred along with 497 application at conditions with high initial soil moisture content. Only flufenacet was transported via the 498 drainage system. Pendimethalin has the strongest sorption properties in soil. Hence, it is likely that the 499 pesticides with high sorption strength are transported mainly with eroded particles in surface runoff (Müller 500 et al., 2002, Freitas et al., 2008, Ulrich et al., 2013) or remain on the topsoil layer. Hence, the more mobile 501 substances seem to be preferably transported by drainage.

502

# 503 Recession and background load phase (2)

504 The pesticide peaks pass during dry periods within two days without any further recession flow loads. This 505 finding highlights the necessity of an appropriate monitoring concept to safely capture high and short-term 506 pesticide loads, which are connected to single and short precipitation events.

507 Under wet conditions with subsequent continuous precipitation, field capacity of the soil is quickly reached, 508 and regions are hydrologically connected by interflow (Stieglitz et al., 2003). The interflow causes higher 509 and continuous pesticide losses (Duffner et al., 2012). Interflows may saturate the deep soil and enrich a 510 pesticide storage (Sandin et al., 2018), which is responsible for slow and continuous leaching processes to 511 the drainage system (Leu et al., 2004a). These pesticide leaching phases explain the longer recession and 512 background load phases after the high peaks, especially for flufenacet, and highlight the necessity of long-513 term monitoring campaigns.

514

#### 515 Preferential flow patterns (3)

516 Inter- and preferential-flows also play a dominant role under dry conditions with minimum precipitation as 517 shown during a first flufenacet peak at the field scale. Flufenacet might be able to "rush trough" with 518 preferential flows (Leu et al., 2004a). Due to the higher polarity and low kfoc value of flufenacet, the 519 pesticide is infiltrated directly into the soil and can be easily desorbed from the soils (i.e. Leu et al., 2004a, 520 Ulrich et al., 2012).

521

522 Retarded pesticide load peaks (4)

523 At wet conditions, the sorptive pendimethalin and diflufenican showed relatively high drainage loads three 524 months after application in winter accompanied by high discharges. So far, retarded loss of pesticides, 525 especially with low water solubility and relatively high persistence, was mainly found for long periods with 526 no- or low-flow after application (Gaynor et al., 1992, Kreuger, 1998, Vymazal and Březinová, 2015).

527 It is also known from semi-arid regions (Olsson et al., 2013) that pesticide release is delayed along with the 528 first precipitation event after drought. In that case, well-sorbing substances with very high kfoc values can 529 be relocated from the soil in detectable concentrations. Hence, continuous water transport through the 530 system accompanied with long half-life times in soil may considerably impact leaching of pendimethalin 531 and diflufenican. It is assumed that the delayed pesticide movement is caused by increased drainage 532 discharge and drainage sediment transport during late winter induced by freezing and thawing processes in 533 the upper soil (Brown et al., 1995).

534 The sorption properties have strong influences on pesticide load patterns at different temporal phases and 535 take effect with sufficient available water in the soil-drainage system. As the hydrological boundary 536 conditions vary, also the impact of the sorption properties is highly variable between and during the observed 537 monitoring periods.

538

## 539 *4. Conclusion*

540 In this study, the pesticides diflufenican, flufenacet, and pendimethalin were monitored in a high temporal 541 resolution for two consecutive years. Based on our results, we identified long-term and short-term load 542 dynamics of pesticides at different spatial scales. To a temporally varying extent, weather conditions, 543 pesticide application, and physico-chemical properties contribute to pesticide leaching:

544 Weather conditions are relevant to provide a functional subsurface connectivity, which in turn are 545 required to allow pesticide transport by tile drainages. During dry periods, the contribution of tile 546 drainages to pesticide leaching is limited and dominated by preferential flows. During wet periods, with 547 high subsurface connectivity in the catchment, preferential flows are less. However, the load phase 548 assessment showed continuous soil matrix flows. Therefore, high-frequency monitoring is 549 recommended for all phases of drainage output.

550 • The relevance of field A as a contributing area for the catchment load depends on weather conditions. 551 During the dry period, the influence on the catchment load is rather low because of interrupted 552 subsurface connectivity. However, under wet conditions, the impact of field A on the catchment outlet 553 is high, as under hydrologically connected conditions the tile drainage pesticide peaks reach the 554 catchment outlet within very short travel times.

555 • The height of first occurring loads are controlled by weather conditions during application and the time 556 span between application and the first strong precipitation event, however, leaching of very mobile 557 pesticides is possible by low wetting.

558 The timing of pesticide application is a crucial factor for pesticide leaching because the wet weather 559 conditions led to a 10-fold increase in daily drainage loss for all pesticides. Consequently, wet 560 conditions with adverse farming conditions are crucial for pesticide leaching since additional increases 561 of pesticide application amounts lead to faster and higher release of pesticides under high-flow 562 conditions.

563 Our study demonstrates that weather conditions linked to pesticide properties control pesticide transport 564 processes with considerable pesticide leaching until late winter, showing the necessity of a long-term 565 monitoring.

566

567 *3. Acknowledgments* 

568 We are thankful to the BASF SE's Agricultural Center in Limburgerhof for the financial support and the 569 fruitful discussions, especially with Folkert Bauer, in our cooperation project. Additionally, we thank Frank



- 596 Capel, P.D., Larson, S.J., Winterstein, T.A., 2001. The behaviour of 39 pesticides in surface waters as a 597 function of scale. Hydrological Processes 15, 1251–1269. 10.1002/hyp.212.
- 598 DWD Climate Data Center, 2018. Historical daily station observations (temperature, pressure,
- 599 precipitation, sunshine duration, etc.) for Germany: daily precipitation data of Dörnick (station:
- 600 06163). version v006. ftp://ftp-cdc.dwd.de/pub/CDC/observations\_germany/climate/daily/kl/.
- 601 Accessed 10 December 2018.
- 602 Chrétien, F., Giroux, I., Thériault, G., Gagnon, P., Corriveau, J., 2017. Surface runoff and subsurface tile
- 603 drain losses of neonicotinoids and companion herbicides at edge-of-field. Environmental pollution 604 (Barking, Essex: 1987) 224, 255–264. 10.1016/j.envpol.2017.02.002.
- 605 Doppler, T., Camenzuli, L., Hirzel, G., Krauss, M., Lück, A., Stamm, C., 2012. Spatial variability of 606 herbicide mobilisation and transport at catchment scale: Insights from a field experiment. Hydrology 607 and Earth System Sciences. 16, 1947–1967. 10.5194/hess-16-1947-2012.
- 608 Doppler, T., Lück, A., Camenzuli, L., Krauss, M., Stamm, C., 2014. Critical source areas for herbicides 609 can change location depending on rain events. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 192, 85–94. 610 10.1016/j.agee.2014.04.003.
- 611 Duffner, A., Ingwersen, J., Hugenschmidt, C., Streck, T., 2012. Pesticide transport pathways from a
- 612 sloped Litchi orchard to an adjacent tropical stream as identified by hydrograph separation. Journal of 613 environmental quality 41, 1315–1323. 10.2134/jeq2011.0316.
- 614 Fohrer, N., Dietrich, A., Kolychalow, O., Ulrich, U., 2014. Assessment of the Environmental Fate of the
- 615 Herbicides Flufenacet and Metazachlor with the SWAT Model. Journal of environmental quality 43, 616 75–85. 10.2134/jeq2011.0382.
- 617 Freitas, L., Singer, H., Müller, S.R., Schwarzenbach, R.P., Stamm, C., 2008. Source area effects on
- 618 herbicide losses to surface waters—A case study in the Swiss Plateau. Agriculture, Ecosystems &
- 619 Environment 128, 177–184. 10.1016/j.agee.2008.06.014.
- 620 Frey, M.P., Schneider, M.K., Dietzel, A., Reichert, P., Stamm, C., 2009. Predicting critical source areas
- 621 for diffuse herbicide losses to surface waters: Role of connectivity and boundary conditions. Journal of

622 Hydrology 365, 23–36. 10.1016/j.jhydrol.2008.11.015.

- 623 Gaynor, J.D., MacTavish, D.C., Findlay, W.I., 1992. Surface and subsurface transport of atrazine and
- 624 alachlor from a Brookston clay loam under continuous corn production. Archives of Environmental 625 Contamination and Toxicology. 23, 240–245. 10.1007/BF00212282.
- 626 Ghafoor, A., Jarvis, N.J., Thierfelder, T., Stenström, J., 2011. Measurements and modeling of pesticide
- 627 persistence in soil at the catchment scale. The Science of the total environment 409, 1900–1908.
- 628 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2011.01.049.
- 629 Guse, B., Pfannerstill, M., Kiesel, J., Strauch, M., Volk, M., Fohrer, N., 2019. Analysing spatio-temporal
- 630 process and parameter dynamics in models to characterise contrasting catchments. Journal of 631 Hydrology, in press.
- 632 Holvoet, K.M., Seuntjens, P., Vanrolleghem, P.A., 2007. Monitoring and modeling pesticide fate in 633 surface waters at the catchment scale. Ecological Modelling 209, 53–64.
- 634 10.1016/j.ecolmodel.2007.07.030.
- 635 Kreuger, J., 1998. Pesticides in stream water within an agricultural catchment in southern Sweden, 1990–
- 636 1996. Science of The Total Environment 216, 227–251. 10.1016/S0048-9697(98)00155-7.
- 637 Kung, K.-J., Steenhuis, T.S., Kladivko, E.J., Gish, T.J., Bubenzer, G., Helling, C.S., 2000. Impact of
- 638 Preferential Flow on the Transport of Adsorbing and Non-Adsorbing Tracers. Soil Science Society of 639 America Journal 64, 1290. 10.2136/sssaj2000.6441290x.
- 640 Lange, J., Olsson, O., Sweeney, B., Herbstritt, B., Reich, M., Alvarez-Zaldivar, P., Payraudeau, S., Imfeld,
- 641 G., 2018. Fluorescent tracers to evaluate pesticide dissipation and transformation in agricultural soils.
- 642 The Science of the total environment 619-620, 1682–1689. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.132.
- 643 Leu, C., Singer, H., Stamm, C., Müller, S.R., Schwarzenbach, R.P., 2004a. Simultaneous Assessment of
- 644 Sources, Processes, and Factors Influencing Herbicide Losses to Surface Waters in a Small
- 645 Agricultural Catchment. Environmental Science & Technology 38, 3827–3834. 10.1021/es0499602.
- 646 Leu, C., Singer, H., Stamm, C., Müller, S.R., Schwarzenbach, R.P., 2004b. Variability of Herbicide
- 647 Losses from 13 Fields to Surface Water within a Small Catchment after a Controlled Herbicide
- 648 Application. Environmental Science & Technology. 38, 3835–3841. 10.1021/es0499593.
- 649 Lewan, E., Kreuger, J., Jarvis, N., 2009. Implications of precipitation patterns and antecedent soil water
- 650 content for leaching of pesticides from arable land. Agricultural Water Management 96, 1633–1640. 651 10.1016/j.agwat.2009.06.006.
- 652 Lewis, K.A., Tzilivakis, J., Warner, D.J., Gren, A., 2016. An international database for pesticide risk 653 assessments and management. Hum. Ecol. Risk Assess. 22, 1050–1064.
- 654 10.1080/10807039.2015.1133242.
- 655 Müller, K., Trolove, M., James, T.K., Rahman, A., 2002. Herbicide runoff studies in an arable soil under 656 simulated rainfall. Application Technology, 172–176.
- 657 Müller, K., Deurer, M., Hartmann, H., Bach, M., Spiteller, M., Frede, H.-G., 2003. Hydrological
- 658 characterisation of pesticide loads using hydrograph separation at different scales in a German 659 catchment. Journal of Hydrology 273, 1–17. 10.1016/S0022-1694(02)00315-3.
- 660 Novic, A.J., Ort, C., O'Brien, D.S., Lewis, S.E., Davis, A.M., Mueller, J.F., 2018. Understanding the
- 661 uncertainty of estimating herbicide and nutrient mass loads in a flood event with guidance on
- 662 estimator selection. Water research 132, 99–110. 10.1016/j.watres.2017.12.055.
- 663 OGewV, 2016. Oberflächengewässerverordnung (surface water directive) from 20/06/2016, in: BGBl., 664 I.S.1373.
- 665 Olsson, O., Khodorkovsky, M., Gassmann, M., Friedler, E., Schneider, M., Dubowski, Y., 2013. Fate of 666 Pesticides and Their Transformation Products: First Flush Effects in a Semi-Arid Catchment. Clean
- 667 Soil Air Water 41, 134–142. 10.1002/clen.201100545.
- 668 Payraudeau, S., Gregoire, C., 2012. Modelling pesticides transfer to surface water at the catchment scale:
- 669 A multi-criteria analysis. Agronomy for Sustainable Development. 32, 479–500. 10.1007/s13593-011-
- 670 0023-3.



671 Pfannerstill, M., Guse, B., Reusser, D., Fohrer, N., 2015. Process verification of a hydrological model

- 696 Ulrich, U., Dietrich, A., Fohrer, N., 2013. Herbicide transport via surface runoff during intermittent
- 697 artificial rainfall: A laboratory plot scale study. CATENA 101, 38–49. 10.1016/j.catena.2012.09.010.
- 698 Ulrich, U., Schulz, F.,Hugenschmidt, C., Fohrer, N., 2012. Vergleichende Messungen zu
- 699 Herbizidausträgen auf drei unterschiedlichen Größenskalen. HyWa 56.
- 700 Van Bruggen, A.H.C., He, M.M., Shin, K., Mai, V., Jeong, K.C., Finckh, M.R., Morris, J.G., 2018.
- 701 Environmental and health effects of the herbicide glyphosate. The Science of the total environment
- 702 616-617, 255–268. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.10.309.
- 703 Vymazal, J., Březinová, T., 2015. The use of constructed wetlands for removal of pesticides from
- 704 agricultural runoff and drainage: a review. Environment international 75, 11–20.
- 705 10.1016/j.envint.2014.10.026.
- 706 Walker, A., Rodriguez-Cruz, M.S., Mitchell, M.J., 2005. Influence of ageing of residues on the
- 707 availability of herbicides for leaching. Environmental pollution (Barking, Essex : 1987) 133, 43–51. 708 10.1016/j.envpol.2004.04.012.
- 709 Willkommen, S., Pfannerstill, M., Guse, B., Ulrich, U., Fohrer, N., 2018. PondR: A process-oriented
- 710 model to simulate the hydrology of drainage ponds. Journal of Hydroinformatics 20, 149–163.
- 711 10.2166/hydro.2017.038.
- 712 Wittmer, I.K., Bader, H.-P., Scheidegger, R., Singer, H., Lück, A., Hanke, I., Carlsson, C., Stamm, C.,
- 713 2010. Significance of urban and agricultural land use for biocide and pesticide dynamics in surface
- 714 waters. Water research 44, 2850–2862. 10.1016/j.watres.2010.01.030.