

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

ANALYSE ISOTOPIQUE DU CARBONE ET DU CHLORE DE L'ATRAZINE ET DU  
MÉTOLACHLORE LORS D'EXPÉRIENCE DE PHOTODÉGRADATION DIRECTE ET  
INDIRECTE EN PRÉSENCE DE NITRATES

TRAVAIL  
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Mme. Violaine Ponsin  
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PAR  
MATIAS LEVESQUE-VARGAS  
LEVM03099802

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## LISTE DES ABRÉVIATIONS

- ATR : Atrazine  
ATR-OH : Hydroxy-atrazine  
DEA : Déséthylatrazine  
DIA : Déisopropylatrazine  
DEA-OH : Déséthylhydroxyatrazine  
DIA-OH : Déisopropylhydroxyatrazine  
DEDIA : Déséthyldéisopropylatrazine  
AMN : Amméline  
MET : *S*-Métolachlore  
MET-OH : Hydroxy-métolachlore  
MET-OA : Acide oxalique métolachlore  
MET-ESA : Acide éthanesulfonique métolachlore  
GC-MS : Chromatogramme à phase gazeuse couplé à un spectromètre de masse  
HPLC-MS/MS : Chromatogramme à phase liquide à haute performance couplé à un spectromètre de masse en tandem  
GC-IRMS : Chromatogramme à phase gazeuse couplé à un spectromètre de masse à ratio isotopique  
CSIA : Analyse isotopique spécifique des espèces / *Compound Specific Isotope Analysis*  
SPE : Extraction Phase Solide / *Solid Phase Extraction*

## RÉSUMÉ

La présence ubiquiste des herbicides atrazine et métolachlore dans les eaux de surface du Québec représente une menace pour la santé humaine et l'environnement. Heureusement, ces pesticides peuvent être dégradés naturellement dans l'environnement et les eaux de surface par une multitude de processus, dont la photodégradation. Il est possible de différencier l'importance relative de chacun de ces processus grâce à certaines méthodes d'analyse, telle l'analyse isotopique spécifique des espèces (CSIA). L'objectif de ce projet de recherche est donc de déterminer le fractionnement isotopique lié à la photodégradation directe et indirecte en présence de nitrate pour les isotopes du carbone et du chlore.

Des échantillons créés en laboratoire afin de contrôler les conditions d'expérimentation à grande concentration initiale d'atrazine (20 mg/L) et de métolachlore (50 mg/L) ont été exposé à un rayonnement solaire simulé par photoréacteur afin d'induire une photodégradation directe et indirecte, en présence de 10 mg/L de nitrates, des herbicides. Les facteurs d'enrichissement isotopique en carbone obtenus au cours de cette étude sont de  $-4,4 \pm 0,6\text{\textperthousand}$  et  $-1,6 \pm 0,2\text{\textperthousand}$  pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte de l'atrazine respectivement, et de  $-1,0 \pm 0,2\text{\textperthousand}$  et  $-0,4 \pm 0,1\text{\textperthousand}$  pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte du métolachlore respectivement. Pour le chlore, les facteurs d'enrichissement isotopique obtenus au cours de cette étude sont de  $10,7 \pm 2,5\text{\textperthousand}$  et  $3,5 \pm 0,5\text{\textperthousand}$  pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte de l'atrazine respectivement, et de  $-3,0 \pm 0,4\text{\textperthousand}$  et  $-1,2 \pm 0,2\text{\textperthousand}$  pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte du métolachlore respectivement. L'analyse multi-isotopique en carbone et en chlore ne permet pas de distinguer la photodégradation directe de la photodégradation indirecte, et fournit des pentes sur le diagramme à 2 isotopes ( $\Delta_{\text{C/C}_1}$ ) de  $-0,50 \pm 0,06\text{\textperthousand}$  et  $0,34 \pm 0,07\text{\textperthousand}$  pour l'atrazine et le métolachlore respectivement. À l'aide des isotopes de carbone et de chlore, il est possible de distinguer la photodégradation de l'atrazine des autres réactions de dégradation survenant dans les eaux de surface, telle l'hydrolyse ou la biodégradation, alors que pour le métolachlore, d'autres isotopes doivent être analysés.

Mots clés :

Isotopes stables, Analyse isotopique spécifique des espèces (CSIA), Photodégradation directe, Photodégradation indirecte, Atrazine, Métolachlore

## **CHAPITRE I - INTRODUCTION GÉNÉRALE**

### **1. 1. Problématique**

#### **1. 1. 1. Présence d'atrazine et de métolachlore dans les eaux**

Les micropolluants, ou polluants émergents, sont des composés tels les pesticides, les produits pharmaceutiques, les produits de soin personnel, etc. ayant une concentration environnementale variant entre les ng/L et les µg/L (Schürner et al. 2016). Ils sont souvent d'origine anthropique et sont majoritairement solubles dans l'eau, ce qui peut causer des problèmes, car même à faible concentration, ils peuvent être nocifs (Lutz et al. 2017, Fenner et al, 2013). Plus spécifiquement, les pesticides sont des produits pouvant tuer des êtres nuisibles. L'atrazine et le métolachlore sont des herbicides, c.-à-d. une catégorie de pesticides s'attaquant aux adventices. Comme il s'agit de poisons, ils sont aussi potentiellement dangereux pour l'être humain. Ils sont fréquemment utilisés, entre autres pour les cultures du maïs et du soja (Bedmar et al. 2017). Par exemple, aux États-Unis en 2012, l'atrazine était le 2<sup>e</sup> pesticide le plus utilisé derrière le glyphosate, entre 64 et 74 millions de livres, alors que le métolachlore était le 3<sup>e</sup> pesticide le plus utilisé, entre 34 et 44 millions de livres (U.S.EPA, 2017). Au Québec, en 2021, il s'est vendu 5098 kg d'ingrédients actifs (kg i.a.) d'atrazine et 240 790 kg i.a. de métolachlore (MELCCFP. 2023). Depuis 2018, le gouvernement du Québec requiert une recommandation de la part d'un agronome afin d'utiliser l'atrazine, ce qui explique pourquoi sa vente est moindre que celle du métolachlore (Gouvernement du Québec, 2018).

L'atrazine est un pesticide faisant partie de la famille des triazines. Il fonctionne en bloquant le transport des électrons dans le chloroplaste, ce qui empêche la fixation du CO<sub>2</sub> (Marchetti et al. 2013). Le métolachlore est un pesticide faisant partie de la famille des chloroacétanilides. Il fonctionne en inhibant la synthèse des protéines et des acides gras nécessaires à la croissance des plantes, en plus d'agir comme un agent oxydant pour les composantes des cellules (Špoljarić et al, 2018). Le métolachlore a aussi la particularité d'être

un énantiomère chiral, c.-à-d. il a 2 molécules de même structure et elles sont miroir l'une de l'autre sans être superposables (Elsner et al. 2016). Son énantiomère S est celui utilisé comme pesticide, car l'énantiomère R requiert un beaucoup plus grand dosage afin d'être efficace en tant qu'herbicide (Mannschreck et al. 2009). Les caractéristiques de ces deux pesticides sont dans le tableau 1.1.

Tableau 1. 1 : Caractéristique de l'atrazine et du métolachlore

| Nom du produit             | Atrazine  | S-Métolachlore  |
|----------------------------|---|---|
| Nom                        | 6-Chloro-N2-ethyl-N4-isopropyl-1,3,5-triazine-2,4-diamine | 2-Chloro-6'-ethyl-N-(2-methoxy-1-methylethyl)acet-o-toluidide |
| Formule moléculaire        | C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>14</sub> ClN <sub>5</sub>           | C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>22</sub> ClNO <sub>2</sub>             |
| Structure moléculaire      |   |   |
| Masse moléculaire (g/mol)  | 215,68  | 271,8   |
| Solubilité aqueuse à 25 °C | 33 mg/L (PubChem)   | 488 mg/L (PubChem)  |
| Etat à TAPN                | Solide  | Liquide   |

Les informations sont tirées d'AccuStandard, 2016

TAPN : Température ambiante, pression normale. 25°C et 101,325 kPA.

Les eaux de surface et souterraines sont affectées de manière ubiquiste par des pesticides (Fenner et al, 2013, Lutz et al. 2017, Bedmar et al. 2017, Bu et al. 2020). Une des raisons de cette présence est que, jusqu'à récemment, leur utilisation était en hausse aux Amériques et en Europe (Lin et al. 1999, Burrows et al. 2002, Bedmar et al. 2017). Leur utilisation globale

a atteint 1 à 2,5 millions de tonnes de pesticides en 2013 (Fenner et al. 2013). Cependant, depuis quelques années, des gouvernements prennent des mesures pour limiter ou interdire l'utilisation de certains pesticides. Par exemple, l'atrazine est interdit depuis 2003 en France (Sénat, 2023), et son usage est restreint au Québec depuis 2018 (Gouvernement du Québec, 2018). Le métolachlore est quant à lui toujours grandement utilisé, mais le gouvernement français a annoncé en avril 2023 son intention d'interdire ce pesticide d'ici octobre 2024 (Le Monde, 2023).

Les épisodes de pluie intense sur les sols agricoles entraînent les pesticides par ruissellement dans les eaux de surfaces et par percolation dans les eaux souterraines (Ng et al. 1995). Les pesticides peuvent atteindre une concentration dans les eaux de surface variant de 0,1 à 10 µg/L (Konstantinou et al. 2001). Au Québec, ces pesticides sont retrouvés dans la quasi-totalité des eaux de surface dans les régions de grande culture. Par exemple, l'atrazine a été détecté dans plus de 90% des eaux de surfaces du Québec entre 2000 et 2018, diminuant jusqu'à environ 85% en 2020 à la suite des restrictions gouvernementales, alors que le métolachlore est détecté dans plus de 95% des eaux des mêmes régions entre 2000 et 2020 (voir Figure 1.1). Pré 2018, les fréquences de dépassement du critère pour la protection de la vie aquatique chronique (CVAC) de l'atrazine, soit 1,8 µg/L pour l'herbicide et l'ensemble de ses produits de transformation, est au minimum de 0,8% en 2017 et au maximum de 7,6% en 2015. Depuis sa restriction, aucun dépassement de norme n'a été détecté. Le métolachlore ne dépasse son CVAC, de 7,8 µg/L, que 6 fois entre 2011 et 2020, ayant un maximum de dépassement de 2,5% des cas en 2015 (Giroux I. 2022).

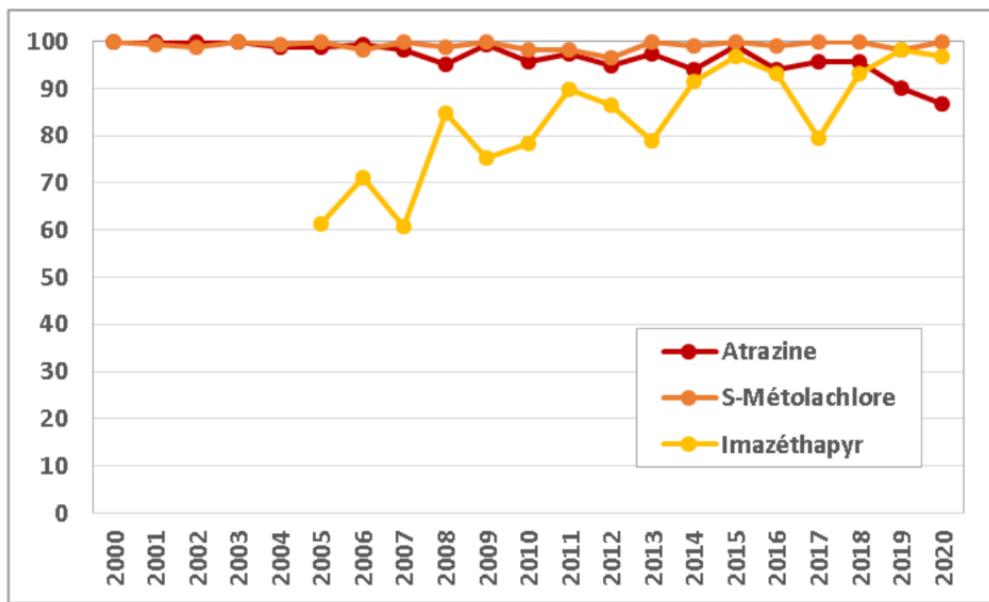


Figure 1. 1 : Fréquence de détection (%) dans les eaux de surface des régions agricoles du Québec de l'atrazine, du métolachlore et l'imazéthapyr dans le temps. Tiré de Giroux I. 2022.

Le risque qu'un pesticide se retrouve dans les eaux souterraines dépend de ses propriétés physico-chimiques, plus particulièrement de sa solubilité, de sa polarité et de sa pression de vapeur (Bedmar et al. 2017). Le risque dépend aussi du milieu dans lequel il se trouve, soit les conditions climatiques, les propriétés de la zone vadose, l'utilisation du territoire et l'application des pesticides (Bedmar et al. 2017).

Les pesticides sont rarement les seuls composés d'origine organique présents dans les eaux. Ils sont souvent accompagnés d'autres produits ou d'ions. Un des ions accompagnant souvent les pesticides est le nitrate, un nutriment utilisé lors d'activités agricoles. Les nitrates sont aussi ubiquistes (Bu et al. 2020). Les concentrations de nitrates dans les eaux naturelles varient généralement de 0,01 à 1 mM (1 mM nitrate = 62 mg/L) (Bu et al. 2020). Au Canada, il est admis qu'au-delà de 10 mg/L de N-nitrates, soit environ 44,24 mg/L de  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (INSPQ. 2003), il y a un possible impact sur la santé humaine. Selon le rapport sur la qualité des eaux potables de 2013 à 2018 (Ministère de l'Environnement et de la Lutte contre les changements climatiques, 2020), ce critère de potabilité est respecté 99,8% du temps. Le rapport précise aussi que les dépassements sont généralement près des zones agricoles.

## 1. 1. 2. Les risques que posent l'atrazine et le métolachlore sur la santé humaine et des écosystèmes

Les pesticides sont un danger pour la santé humaine et celle des écosystèmes (Burrows et al. 2002, Bouchonnet et al. 2011). En effet, ils peuvent avoir plusieurs effets nocifs. Ils peuvent, entre autres, être cancérogènes, être neurotoxiques, affecter la fertilité et affecter le développement des cellules (Burrows et al. 2002). Il est donc essentiel de surveiller leur concentration dans les cours d'eau naturels et dans les eaux souterraines, en particulier dans les régions peuplées.

L'atrazine est un perturbateur endocrinien (Choi et al. 2013, Marchetti et al. 2013, Silva et al, 2014), il est cancérogène et il peut causer l'infertilité chez les hommes (Choi et al. 2013). De plus, l'atrazine est faiblement à modérément毒ique pour les poissons, et faiblement toxic pour les invertébrés marins. Il est cependant très toxic pour les plantes aquatiques (Marchetti et al. 2013). L'atrazine est aussi significativement dangereux, avec une dose létale moyenne (DL50), c.-à-d. la dose capable de tuer 50% d'une population, de 128,4 µg/L sur certains microorganismes (Klementová et al. 2019). Cependant, la concentration environnementale de l'atrazine est assez basse. En effet, au Québec, l'atrazine a un CVAC de 1,8 µg/L pour l'herbicide et l'ensemble de ses produits de transformation, soit un centième du DL50, et n'est plus dépassé depuis 2018 (Giroux I. 2022). Selon le rapport du profil toxicologique de l'atrazine (Dorsey 2003), le pesticide peut avoir des effets néfastes légers sur des rats et des cochons à partir de 2 mg/kg/jour, et des effets sévères peuvent commencer à apparaître à partir de 50 mg/kg/jour, soit des concentrations bien au-delà des concentrations environnementales. Cependant, l'auteur du livre avertit que l'atrazine peut se bioconcentrer, c'est-à-dire avoir une concentration croissante avec la chaîne alimentaire. Il faut donc rester vigilant malgré les basses concentrations environnementales.

Comparativement à l'atrazine, peu d'études ont été effectuées sur la toxicité du métolachlore. Il en reste néanmoins qu'il est reconnu comme un potentiel cancérogène (U.S.EPA, 1995) et qu'il démontre une toxicité sur des organismes marins tel *Daphnia magna* (Liu et al. 2005). Comme le métolachlore est très soluble (530 mg/L à 20°C), il est souvent retrouvé dans les

eaux de surface et souterraines et peut causer des problèmes de santé (Dimou et al. 2005, Coffinet et al. 2012). Ces toxicités apparaissent seulement à hautes concentrations, autour du mg/L (Špoljarić et al., 2018), soit des concentrations beaucoup plus élevées que les concentrations retrouvées dans les eaux. En effet, au Québec, le CVAC du métolachlore est de 7,8 µg/L et n'est que rarement dépassée (Giroux I. 2022).

### 1. 1. 3. Produits de dégradation

La concentration de ces pesticides diminue graduellement en milieu naturel. Cette atténuation provient en grande partie de processus de dégradation, mais la diminution des concentrations peut aussi provenir de processus non-destructifs, comme l'adsorption ou la dispersion (Ng et al. 1995). Il existe plusieurs processus pouvant contribuer à la dégradation naturelle des pesticides dans l'environnement, par exemple la biodégradation, la photodégradation, l'hydrolyse et l'oxydation. La dégradation d'un produit crée des produits de transformation, généralement moins toxiques que leur composé parent, qui peuvent eux aussi être dégradés par la suite. Il arrive cependant que certains produits de dégradation soient plus toxiques que leur composé parent, tel que mentionné plus tôt. Lorsque la dégradation est complète, c.-à-d. lorsque l'ensemble du produit s'est dégradé en ions inorganiques, tel le  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ou le  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ , il est question de minéralisation.

La dégradation est généralement plus rapide en été qu'en hiver pour une multitude de raisons (Lin et al. 1999). Tout d'abord, les températures plus élevées permettent une activité biologique plus importante, permettant une biodégradation plus rapide. Ensuite, les journées sont plus longues et au Zénith, il y a une plus grande intensité lumineuse, permettant une photodégradation plus performante. Enfin, il arrive qu'en hiver le sol et l'eau gèle, empêchant certains processus de dégradation requérant de l'eau liquide, telle l'hydrolyse.

Les produits de dégradation des pesticides peuvent aussi être toxiques (Bouchonnet et al. 2011, Choi et al. 2013, Rózsa et al. 2019). Il arrive même que certains produits de transformation soient plus dangereux que leur composé parent, comme l'hydroxyatrazine (ATR-OH), qui est plus dangereux que l'atrazine pour certains micro-organismes (Choi et

al. 2013). D'ailleurs, selon Klementová et al. (2019), le produit de dégradation le plus dangereux de l'atrazine est le déséthylatrazine (DEA), qui inhibe la croissance de certains microorganismes plus que tout autre produit dérivé de l'atrazine. Enfin, certains produits de dégradation des pesticides n'ont plus d'effet pesticide, comme l'hydroxyatrazine, alors que d'autres produits de dégradation, comme le déalkylatrazine, les gardent (Meyer et al. 2009). D'autres produits de dégradation, tel le désisopropylatrazine (DIA) sont souvent retrouvés, et les produits de dégradation de l'atrazine peuvent aussi se dégrader davantage dans l'environnement.

Tout comme l'atrazine, certains produits de dégradation du métolachlore sont dangereux (Coffinet et al. 2012). Par exemple, certains produits de dégradation du métolachlore sont potentiellement plus dangereux que le métolachlore lui-même (Nicol et al. 2015). Par conséquent, même si on ne détecte pas le métolachlore, ses produits de dégradation peuvent poser un danger environnemental (Dimou et al. 2005). De plus, ses produits de dégradations sont persistants, solubles et mobiles et peuvent pénétrer les eaux souterraines (Bouchonnet et al. 2011). Par exemple, lors d'une étude mené sur l'ensemble de la France entre 2021 et 2022, le produit de transformation le plus détecté et dépassant le plus les normes est l'acide éthanesulfonique du métolachlore (MET-ESA) (Le Borgne, 2022). D'autres produits communément retrouvé sont l'hydroxy-métolachlore (MET-OH) et l'acide oxalique du métolachlore (MET-OA).

#### 1. 1. 4. Persistance de l'atrazine et du métolachlore

Il arrive que les composés soient persistants, c.-à-d. qu'ils soient impossibles à dégrader complètement. Selon Bedmar et al (2017), comme la biodégradation est le principal processus de dégradation dans les sols, l'activité microbienne est le principal facteur déterminant la dégradation ou la persistance des pesticides. Par exemple, la dégradation du métolachlore dans le sol provient essentiellement de la biodégradation (Dimou et al. 2005). La persistance des pesticides est plus faible dans les 5 premiers cm du sol, soit là où se concentrent les microorganismes capables de dégrader les polluants, comparativement à sous ce niveau. De plus, la persistance augmente avec la profondeur, corrélant avec une

diminution de l'activité microbiologique. Si les polluants percolent sous l'horizon A du sol, ils ont beaucoup plus de chance d'atteindre la nappe et de contaminer l'eau souterraine (Bedmar et al. 2017).

L'atrazine est persistant dans l'environnement et se biodégrade difficilement (Meyer et al. 2009, Choi et al. 2013). Selon le profil toxicologique de l'atrazine (Dorsey, 2003), la persistance de l'atrazine est assez élevée, car sa dégradation provient principalement de réaction chimique et non de la biodégradation. Elle a une période de demi-vie dans les lacs de plus de 200 jours et aucune dégradation apparente en zone anaérobie. Dans un aquifère alluvial gravelé, aucune dégradation de l'atrazine a été observé sur une distance de 90m et une période de 49h. Cependant, sur une période de 194 jours, une diminution de la concentration d'atrazine a été observé, suggérant une dégradation par réduction chimique. Dans les sols, l'atrazine aurait une persistance médiane de 39 jours. Cela explique pourquoi, malgré les restrictions et les interdictions, l'atrazine est encore communément retrouvé dans les eaux de surface, dans les eaux souterraines et dans le sol (Bedmar et al. 2017). Par exemple, on retrouve toujours de l'atrazine et de ses produits de dégradation dans les eaux et le sol en France, bien qu'il y soit interdit depuis plus de 20 ans (Le Borgne, 2022).

Quant à lui, le métolachlore est moyennement persistant en milieu naturel (Kochany et al. 1994). Il a une persistance dans le sol avec une période de demi-vie variant entre 80,6 et 20,9 jours selon l'humidité du sol, entre 6% et 15% masse/masse (Rice et al. 2002), ou une demi-vie entre 100 et 5,7 jours selon la température du sol, variant entre 5 et 35 °C (Dinelli et al. 2000). Dans l'eau de surface, sa demi-vie est de plus de 200 jours, sa dégradation provenant principalement de l'hydrolyse abiotique (Rivard, 2003). Dans les eaux souterraines, son temps de demi-vie varie entre 548 et 1074 jours, selon la température (entre 15 et 22 °C) et le niveau de fortification (entre 1 et 5 µg/L), soit la concentration en micronutriments (Cavalier et al. 1991). D'ailleurs, la biodégradation du métolachlore semble être un processus co-métabolique, car aucune souche bactérienne ne semble être capable à elle-seule de le dégrader (Chang et al. 2020). Même après plusieurs traitements, telle l'hydrolyse, la

biodégradation, l’oxydation, ou la photodégradation par rayon UV, le métolachlore n’est pas minéralisé à 100%, expliquant sa persistance (Nicol et al. 2015).

Le suivi de la dégradation des micropolluants en milieu naturel se fait généralement par l’analyse des concentrations du composé parent et ses produits de dégradation. Il est important de suivre ces concentrations pour plusieurs raisons, la plus importante étant le respect des normes établies par les gouvernements. Le suivi des concentrations peut aussi permettre la détection d’une dégradation. Cependant, si la concentration du composé parent diminue, mais qu’on ne retrouve aucun de ses produits de dégradation, il se pourrait que le micropolluant ne soit pas dégradé (Fenner et al. 2013). Il pourrait, par exemple, être adsorbé sur le sol et risquer d’être relargué plus tard, créant un risque à long terme. Il se pourrait aussi qu’il se soit dilué, affectant une zone plus large, ou même qu’il se soit rendu jusqu’à la nappe d’eau souterraine, où il serait plus difficilement dégradé et causera un plus grand risque aux populations s’abreuvant de cette eau. Le suivi de la concentration sert donc à récolter des informations à des fins de santé humaine et environnementale.

Le suivi des concentrations des produits de dégradation permet aussi d’identifier les voies de dégradation, par exemple en détectant un produit de dégradation unique à une voie de dégradation (Fenner et al, 2013, Maillard et al. 2016). Comme il existe une multitude de voies de dégradation, si celles-ci ont des produits de dégradation ou des cinétiques distincts, les informations récoltées lors d’un suivi peuvent être utilisées à des fins de prévention, de protection et de restauration des milieux pollués par les micropolluants. Cela dit, il faut que le programme de surveillance observe les produits de dégradation, ce qui n’est pas toujours le cas. De plus, ce manque de surveillance peut poser un risque aux populations si les produits de dégradations sont toxiques, comme ceux de l’atrazine et du métolachlore.

### 1. 1. 5. Photodégradation

La photodégradation est une des voies de dégradation que plusieurs micropolluants, y compris l’atrazine et le métolachlore, peuvent subir. Elle est un des moyens importants pour

dégrader les pesticides dans les eaux de surface ainsi qu'à la surface du sol et des plantes (Konstantinou et al. 2001, Hartenbach et al. 2008, Fenner et al. 2013).

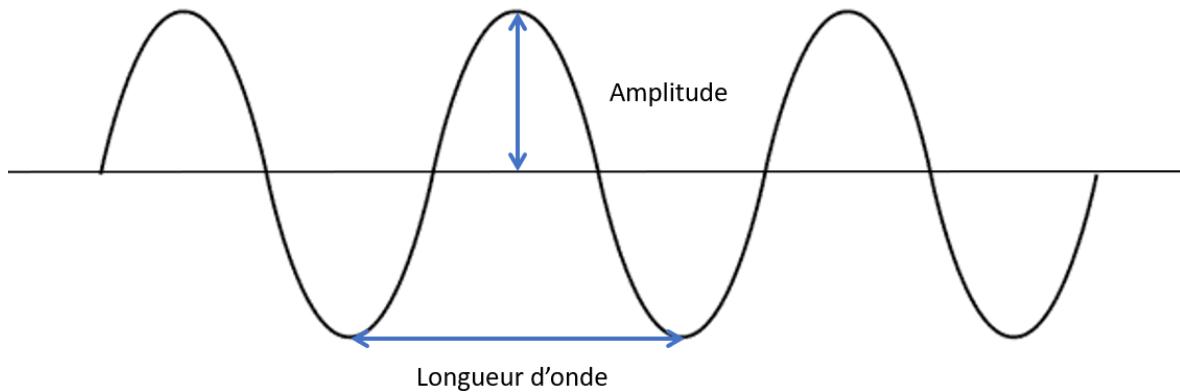


Figure 1. 2 : Onde électromagnétique

La lumière est une onde électromagnétique définie par 2 variables : sa longueur d'onde et son amplitude (voir figure 1.2). La longueur d'onde, ou son inverse, la fréquence, définit le spectre de la lumière. Le spectre de la lumière détermine sa capacité à être absorbée ou reflétée par des composés. Le spectre visible de la lumière se situe entre environ 400 nm (violet) et 800 nm (rouge). Des longueurs d'onde plus courtes que 400 nm se situent dans la zone ultraviolette du spectre lumineux. L'amplitude définit le niveau énergétique, ou l'intensité de la lumière. Plus elle est élevée, plus elle peut transmettre d'énergie aux composés capable d'absorber cette lumière.

La photodégradation se subdivise en 2 phénomènes : la photodégradation directe et la photodégradation indirecte. La photodégradation directe est un processus de dégradation utilisant l'énergie lumineuse afin de détruire les liens moléculaires (Burrows et al. 2002). Chaque molécule a un spectre lumineux d'absorption, c.-à-d. une ou plusieurs longueurs d'onde permettant l'absorption des photons, transmettant ainsi leur énergie au composé (al Housari et al. 2010, Fenner et al. 2013). L'énergie absorbée peut ensuite briser les liens entre

les atomes du composé, fragmentant la molécule, en coupant préférentiellement les liens les plus faibles au sein du composé.

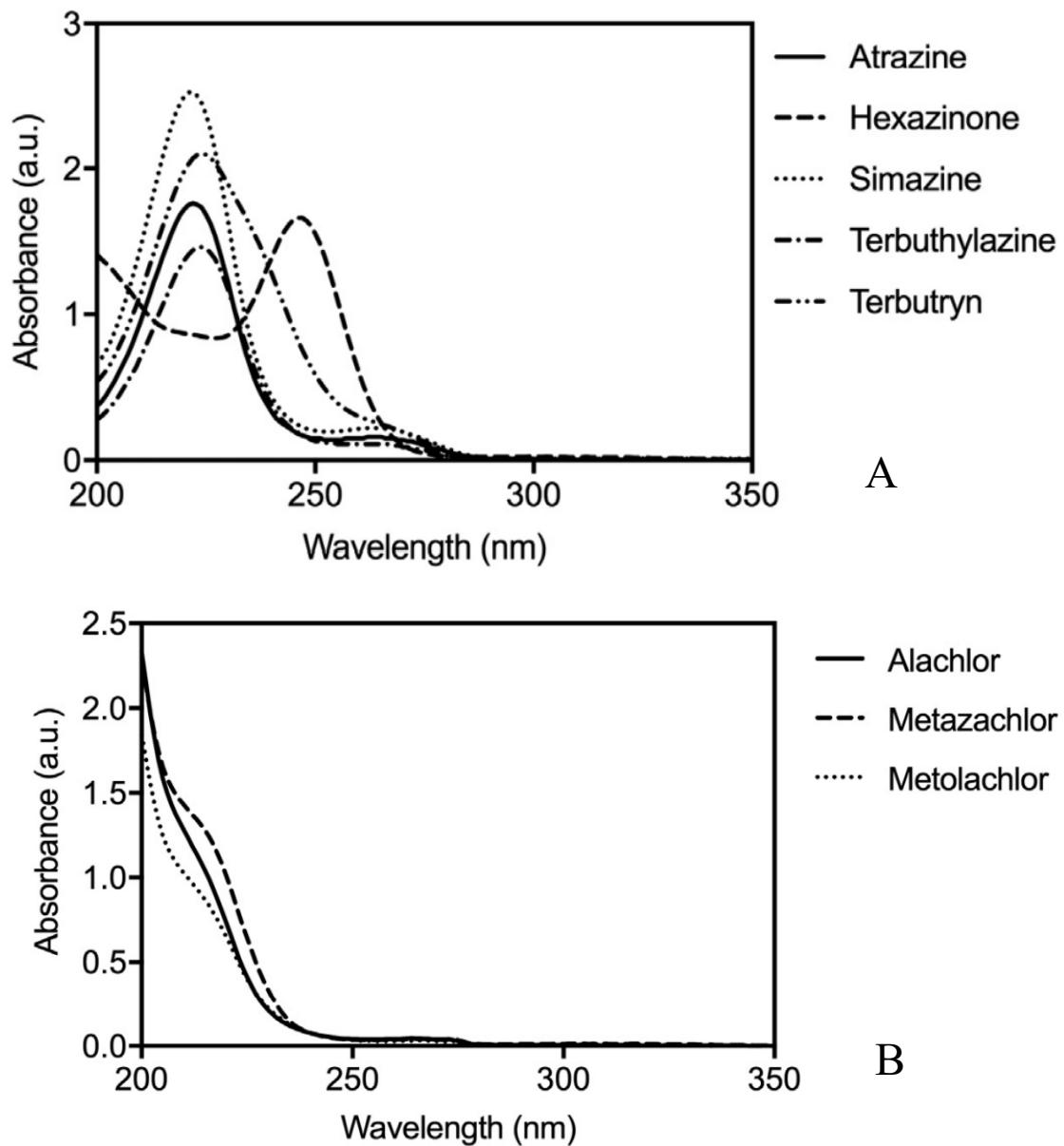


Figure 1.3 : Spectre d'absorption lumineuse de plusieurs herbicides (tiré de Thomas et al. 2017)

Par exemple, la figure 1.3 A montre le maximum du spectre d'absorption de l'atrazine et la figure 1.3 B montre le spectre d'absorption du métolachlore. Les 2 herbicides peuvent, par exemple, absorber plus facilement l'énergie lumineuse des photons ayant une longueur

d'onde d'environ 220 nm que ceux d'une longueur d'onde de 270 nm. Les rayons UV peuvent donc plus facilement donner leur énergie aux herbicides que les rayons de lumière visible, accélérant leur dégradation en comparaison à la lumière naturelle.

La photodégradation indirecte survient lorsque la lumière interagit avec les autres composés présents dans l'eau (Fenner et al. 2013). Cette interaction peut créer plusieurs radicaux, tels les radicaux HO<sup>•</sup>, ROO<sup>•</sup>, HOO<sup>•</sup>, <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> CO<sub>3</sub><sup>•-</sup>, et NO<sub>2</sub><sup>•</sup>, extrêmement réactifs, ce qui accélère généralement la dégradation (al Housari et al. 2010). Par exemple, le radical HO<sup>•</sup> est très réactif et agit comme un agent de dégradation, car il s'agit d'un puissant oxydant (Gligorovski et al. 2015).

Plusieurs articles (Fulkerson-Brekken, J. 1998, Dimou et al. 2005, al Housari et al. 2010, Bu et al. 2020) démontrent que les nitrates dans l'eau exposés au rayonnement solaire forment des radicaux HO<sup>•</sup>. D'autres composés comme les nitrites, les ions Fe<sup>3+</sup> et la matière organique dissoute (DOM ou CDOM, pour *chromophoric / colored dissolved organic matter*) peuvent créer des radicaux (Blough, N. 1998, Fulkerson-Brekken, J. 1998, Dimou et al. 2005, al Housari et al. 2010, Gligorovski et al. 2015).

Les radicaux formés par l'absorption de photons par ces composés peuvent être interceptés par d'autres composés présents dans l'eau, comme les DOM, ce qui peut inhiber la dégradation d'un polluant (Fulkerson-Brekken, J. 1998). Néanmoins, la photodégradation indirecte est souvent plus importante que la photodégradation directe dans l'environnement, car elle est plus rapide, les radicaux brisants généralement plus facilement les liens que les photons (Fenner et al. 2013).

Plusieurs facteurs influencent les cinétiques de photodégradation, telle la concentration en pesticides, le pH, les conditions redox, le niveau d'oxygène, la salinité, les autres composés présents dans l'eau et la population microbienne (Bedmar et al. 2017). En effet, la concentration en pesticide peut jouer un rôle sur la photodégradation : quand il y a plus de pesticides, il y a plus de compétition pour, entre autres, la lumière et les radicaux présents

dans l'eau. L'article de Silva et al. (2014) a démontré que les cinétiques de dégradation sont plus rapides pour de plus faibles concentrations. Par exemple, pour les mêmes conditions, le temps de demi-vie pour une concentration de 5 mg/L est de 12 minutes, et de 20 minutes pour une concentration de 20 mg/L. Le pH, les conditions rédox, le niveau d'oxygène et la salinité peuvent jouer sur la présence et le type de microorganismes présents, potentiellement capable de biodégrader les pesticides. Par exemple, l'étude de Lin et al. (1999) a démontré que la toxicité de l'atrazine est réduite plus rapidement dans les eaux de la baie de Chesapeake (salée) que dans les eaux de la rivière Manokin (douce). Cette différence serait due, selon eux, aux paramètres de conductivité, de matière organique et de solides totaux dissous, qui affectent tous les taux de dégradation, dégradant ainsi les pesticides plus rapidement dans le cas des eaux de baies. Aussi, l'article de Dimou et al. (2005) montre une corrélation entre la concentration en nitrate et la cinétique de dégradation. À 1 mg/L de nitrates, la cinétique de dégradation du métolachlore est de 0,0141/h et à 10 mg/L, elle est de 0,0876/h. Enfin, l'intensité lumineuse et son spectre associé influencent également le taux de dégradation et les produits de transformation créés (Konstantinou et al. 2001). Il faut d'abord que l'énergie lumineuse puisse être transmise des photons aux pesticides, soit que les photons ont une longueur d'onde correspondante au spectre d'absorption, sans quoi l'énergie ne sera pas transmise et il n'y aura pas de photodégradation. Ensuite, plus l'intensité de la lumière est élevée, plus elle peut transmettre de l'énergie aux molécules de pesticides, ce qui brise plus facilement les liens et accélère la dégradation.

La présence de CDOM influence la photodégradation des composés organiques (Konstantinou et al. 2001). Par exemple, les CDOM sont aussi des accepteurs de radicaux OH, entrant ainsi en compétition avec les composés d'intérêts pour ces radicaux (Torrents et al. 1997, Konstantinou et al. 2001, al Housari et al. 2010). Les CDOM peuvent aussi absorber les rayonnements UV, ce qui nuit à la photodégradation des autres polluants (Torrents et al. 1997, Konstantinou et al. 2001). L'article de Konstantinou et al. démontre que les CDOM peuvent autant ralentir qu'accélérer la dégradation des pesticides à la surface des sols. Par exemple, en formant des liaisons de *Van der Waals* avec les pesticides, ceux-ci deviennent

indisponibles à la dégradation. En revanche, dans les sols, les CDOM peuvent libérer des radicaux aidant à leur dégradation.

L’atrazine est sensible à la photodégradation directe et indirecte par rayonnement UV, car son spectre d’absorption lumineux couvre une partie du spectre solaire. Les maximums d’absorption de la lumière de l’atrazine sont pour des longueurs d’ondes d’environ 220 et 265 nm (Marchetti et al. 2013). Il吸orbe mieux les UVC (moins de 280 nm) que les UVB (280-320 nm). Cependant, la photodégradation directe ne le minéralise pas complètement (Choi et al. 2013). Cela est dû au fait que certains produits de transformations, y compris l’hydroxyatrazine, le principal produit de transformation obtenu par la photodégradation de l’atrazine, sont insensibles à la lumière seule (Choi et al. 2013, Bu et al. 2020). Ces produits peuvent cependant être dégradés par d’autres processus, y compris par les radicaux émis lors de la photodégradation indirecte.

Tableau 1. 2 : Abréviation Torrents et al. (1997)

| Nom figures 1.4 et 1.5 | Nom commun                          |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| CIET                   | Atrazine (ATR)                      |
| OIET                   | Hydroxyatrazine (ATR-OH)            |
| OEAT                   | Déisopropylhydroxyatrazine (DIA-OH) |
| OIAT                   | Déséthylhydroxyatrazine (DEA-OH)    |
| OAAT                   | Ammeline (AMN)                      |
| CEAT                   | Déisopropylatrazine (DIA)           |
| CIAT                   | Déséthylatrazine (DEA)              |

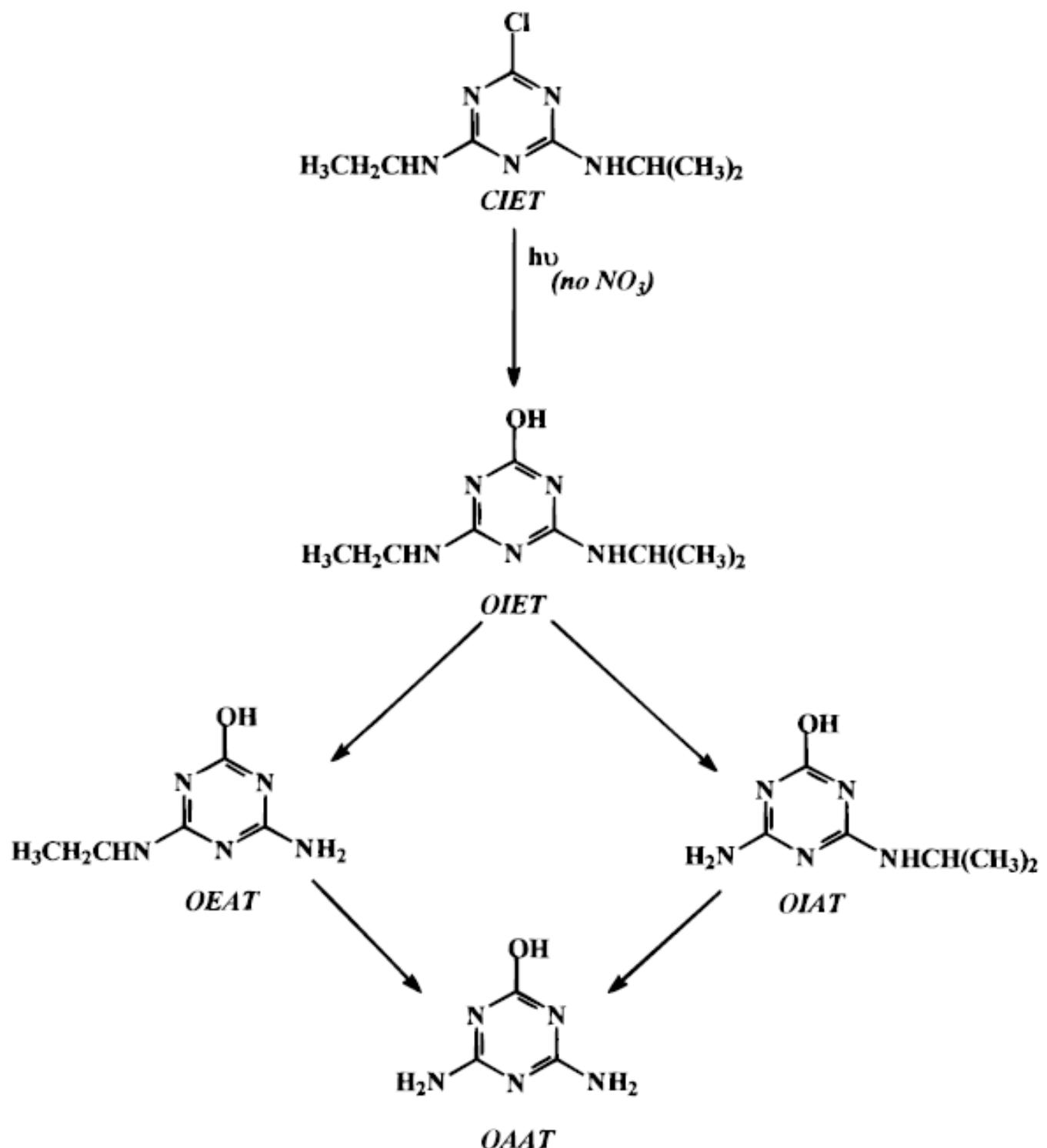


Figure 1. 4 : Voie de photodégradation directe de l'atrazine. Tiré de Torrents et al. 1997

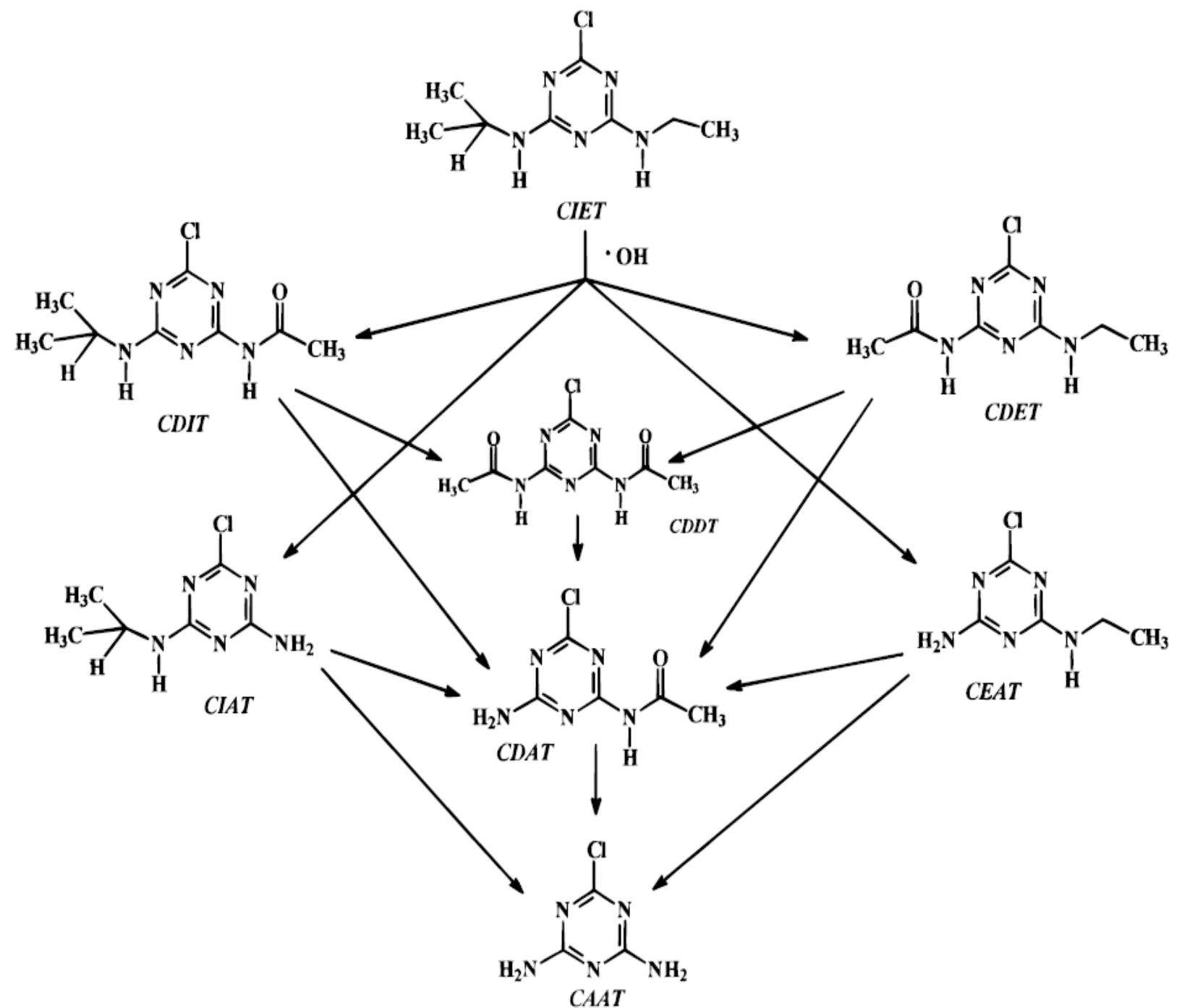


Figure 1. 5 : Voie de photodégradation indirecte de l'atrazine. Tiré de Torrents et al. 1997

Selon Torrents et al. (1997), l'atrazine (CIET) a une cinétique de dégradation de 0,004/h (0,096/j) en photodégradation directe, et de 0,029/h (0,696/j) en photodégradation indirecte sous lumière UV. Ces cinétiques sont grandement variables dans la littérature, comme le montre l'article de Silva et al. (2014), qui obtient des cinétiques beaucoup plus rapides en utilisant des lampes UV très intenses. Le produit le plus communément formé en photodégradation directe est l'hydroxyatrazine (ATR-OH, OIET dans la figure 1.4). En photodégradation indirecte, ATR-OH est toujours formé, mais on observe une plus grande diversité de produits de dégradation. Le désisopropylatrazine (DIA) et le déséthylatrazine (DEA) (CEAT et CIAT respectivement dans la figure 1.5) sont parmi les produits de dégradation les plus communément retrouvés. Cependant, d'autres articles, ayant des conditions légèrement différentes, obtiennent des résultats légèrement différents. Par exemple, l'article de Marchetti et al. (2013) obtient le DEA comme produit de dégradation le plus abondant. Ces produits de dégradations sont aussi retrouvés dans d'autres voies de dégradation, telle la biodégradation. Conséquemment, le suivi des produits de dégradation seul ne permet pas de déterminer le ou les processus responsables de la dégradation.

Le métolachlore est lui aussi sensible à la photodégradation directe et indirecte, absorbant la lumière possédant une longueur d'onde entre 220 et 330 nm, soit un rayonnement UV (Kochany et al. 1994). Sous lumière naturelle, on peut s'attendre à une photodégradation plus limitée. Tout comme l'atrazine, celle-ci ne peut minéraliser le métolachlore à elle seule (Coffinet et al. 2012). Cependant, les produits de dégradation du métolachlore absorbent un plus grand spectre lumineux que leur composé parent (Kochany et al. 1994), leur permettant d'être plus facilement dégradés. La photodégradation indirecte en présence de nitrate peut être jusqu'à 11 fois plus rapide que la photodégradation directe en eau distillée (Dimou et al. 2005).

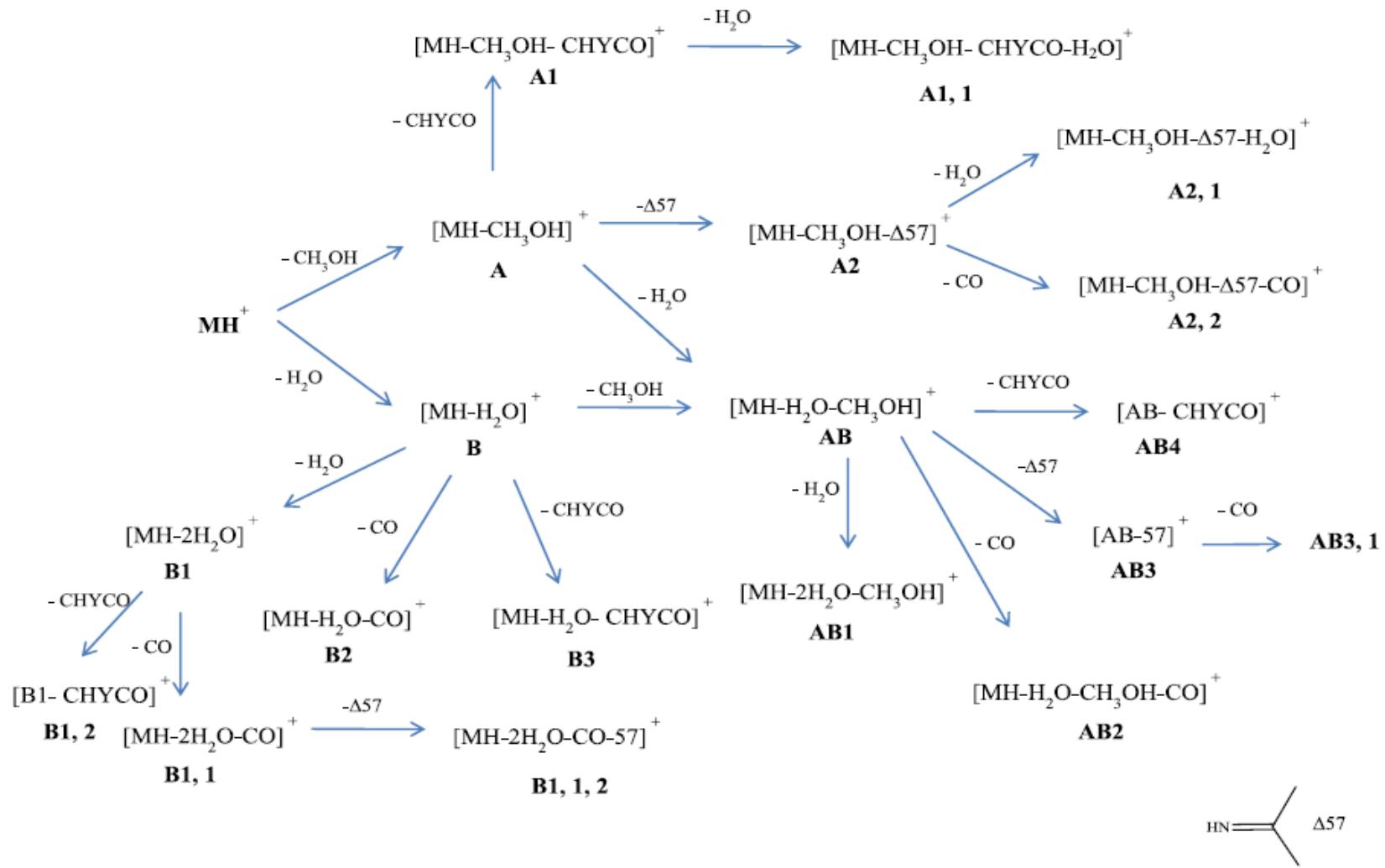


Figure 1.6 : Voie de photodégradation directe du métolachlore ( $\text{MH}^+$ ). Tiré de Nicol et al. 2015

Le métolachlore ( $\text{MH}^+$ ) se dégrade principalement en acide oxalique du métolachlore (A) ou en hydroxy-métolachlore (B). Ces produits sont par la suite dégradés davantage.

Selon Dimou et al. (2005), les cinétiques de photodégradation du métolachlore sont de 0,0080/h (0,192/j) pour la photodégradation directe en eau distillée et de 0,0876/h (2,1024/j) pour la photodégradation indirecte avec 10 mg/L de  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Ces cinétiques sont aussi hautement variable selon les différentes études, comme le montre l'article de Wilson et Mabury (2000), qui obtient des cinétiques similaires à l'eau distillée pour une expérience à un pH contrôlé de 7, soit de 0,00946/h, mais plus proche de celles obtenues en présence de nitrates avec l'eau de la rivière Don, soit de 0,0588/h. Alors que certains produits de dégradation du métolachlore sont retrouvés en biodégradation, tel l'acide oxalique du métolachlore (MET-OA) et l'acide éthanesulfonique du métolachlore (MET-ESA), seul l'hydroxy-métolachlore (MET-OH) est communément retrouvé parmi les produits de dégradation du métolachlore lors de la photodégradation. Il existe plusieurs publications tentant d'identifier les autres produits de dégradation (Coffinet et al. 2012, Nicol et al. 2015, Salta et al. 2018). La figure 1.6 en est un exemple, mais ces produits diffèrent d'un article à l'autre.

#### 1. 1. 6. Analyse isotopique spécifique des espèces (CSIA)

Parfois, le suivi des mesures de concentrations des pesticides est insuffisant pour permettre la différentiation des voies de dégradation. Il existe plusieurs processus pouvant dégrader les pesticides, souvent de façon simultanée, ce qui peut rendre difficile l'analyse de ces résultats. Ce problème peut parfois être résolu en analysant les produits de dégradation, mais cette analyse n'est pas toujours effectuée et ne permet pas de différencier les processus qui créent les mêmes produits de dégradation. Une autre approche serait d'analyser les isotopes stables contenus dans ces pesticides.

Les isotopes sont des atomes partageant un même nombre de protons, mais un nombre de neutrons différent. Comme la majorité des éléments ont plusieurs isotopes stables, il est possible de mesurer un ratio isotopique pour ces éléments. Les ratios isotopiques ( $R$ ) sont la proportion d'isotopes rares, généralement les plus lourds, par rapport aux isotopes majoritaires, généralement les plus légers. Par exemple, le ratio isotopique pour les isotopes stables du carbone serait (Éq 1.1) :

$$R = \frac{^{13}C}{^{12}C}$$

Équation 1. 1 : Ratio isotopique du carbone

Les ratios isotopiques peuvent être utilisés afin de calculer une composition isotopique ( $\delta$ ). Pour ce faire, il faut comparer le ratio isotopique d'un échantillon ( $R_{sample}$ ) à celui d'un standard ( $R_{std}$ ). Dans la littérature, les résultats de  $\delta$  sont souvent présentés sans unité, généralement accompagnés du symbole de pour mille (‰), indiquant un facteur mille dans le calcul, tel qu'indiqué dans l'équation 1.2. Cette manipulation mathématique est effectuée pour faciliter le traitement des données, car une grande partie des compositions isotopiques n'ont des variations qu'à la cinquième décimale. Cependant, une unité, le Urey (Ur) a été suggéré pour la présentation des  $\delta$ , où 1 mUr correspond à une variation de 1 ‰ (Brand et al., 2012). Pour simplifier la lecture, l'utilisation des ‰ a été utilisé dans ce mémoire.

$$\delta^{13}C_{sample} = 1000 \times \frac{R_{sample} - R_{std}}{R_{std}}$$

Équation 1. 2 : Composition isotopique en carbone

Le fractionnement isotopique est une mesure de la variation du rapport isotopique. Pour les réactions dépendantes de la masse, la différence de masse entre 2 isotopes cause un fractionnement isotopique, car la vitesse de réaction sera différente entre l'isotope léger et l'isotope lourd, modifiant le rapport isotopique au fil de la réaction. Le fractionnement isotopique peut être représenté et calculé de plusieurs façons. Une de ses représentations est le facteur de fractionnement isotopique ( $\varepsilon$ ). Celui-ci peut être calculé par la formule suivante (Éq 1.3), où  $R$  est le ratio isotopique,  $C$  est la concentration et l'indice 0 correspond à l'état initial, le facteur mille servant à ramener  $\varepsilon$  en ‰, comme pour la composition isotopique.

$$\varepsilon = 1000 \times \frac{\ln(R/R_0)}{\ln(C/C_0)}$$

Équation 1. 3 : Facteur de fractionnement isotopique ( $\varepsilon$ )

Le facteur de fractionnement isotopique correspond aussi à la pente d'un diagramme de Rayleigh. Les diagrammes de Rayleigh mettent en ordonnée le logarithme naturel du rapport du ratio isotopique d'un échantillon sur son ratio originel ( $\ln(R/R_0)$ ) et en abscisse le logarithme naturel du rapport de la concentration d'un échantillon sur sa concentration initiale ( $\ln(C/C_0)$ ). Par exemple, la figure 1.7 montre le fractionnement isotopique de l'hydrogène pour une expérience de photodégradation indirecte pour 2 pesticides, l'atrazine et la cyanazine. Avec le diagramme de Rayleigh, on peut voir facilement et graphiquement que ces 2 pesticides n'ont pas le même facteur de fractionnement isotopique pour la même réaction, car leur pente est drastiquement différente.

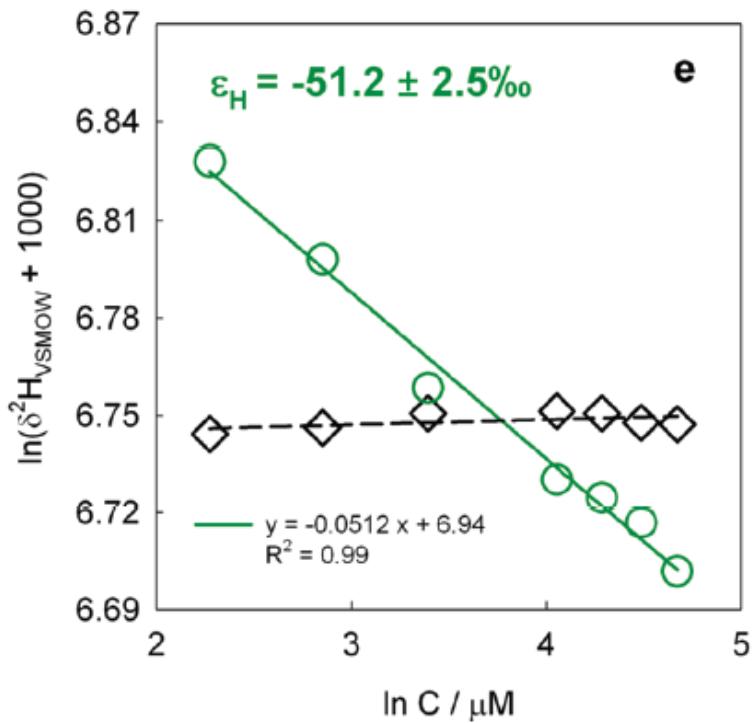


Figure 1.7 : Diagramme de Rayleigh pour les isotopes de l'hydrogène pour la photodégradation indirecte de l'atrazine (vert) et de la cyanazine (noir). Tiré de Hartenbach et al. 2008

La CSIA, ou *Compound Specific Isotope Analysis*, est une approche se servant du fractionnement isotopique des isotopes stables intrinsèque aux différentes réactions de dégradation afin d'identifier les voies de dégradations prises par des composés, tels les

pesticides (Hartenbach et al. 2008). Cette méthode d'analyse consiste à séparer les différents composés, généralement à l'aide de chromatographie en phase gazeuse, puis de mesurer les ratios isotopiques de chaque composé individuel à l'aide d'un spectromètre de masse à ratio isotopique, ou GC-IRMS (Elsner et al. 2016). La CSIA possède aussi d'autres avantages, entre autres qu'elle ne requiert pas d'analyser les produits de dégradation (Fenner et al. 2013, Alvarez-Zaldivar et al. 2018, Cui et al. 2021). On peut tout de même identifier et quantifier les produits de dégradation lors d'une approche CSIA en combinant cette approche à des mesures de concentrations, ou en comparant les facteurs de fractionnement isotopique obtenus avec ceux théoriques pour chaque réaction (Meyer et al. 2009). Il est aussi possible de mesurer les ratios isotopiques des produits de dégradation pour obtenir des informations supplémentaires. Par exemple, à l'aide des équations 1 à 3 présentés précédemment, il est possible de mesurer un facteur de fractionnement isotopique pour une réaction de dégradation d'un composé tels les pesticides. Si ce facteur de fractionnement est unique pour une voie de dégradation donnée, la CSIA permet d'identifier cette voie. La CSIA a aussi comme avantage d'identifier les voies de dégradation sans avoir à mesurer les concentrations des produits de dégradation.

Comme les pesticides sont souvent de grosses molécules, ils peuvent créer un effet de masque, diminuant le fractionnement isotopique mesuré. En effet, le fractionnement isotopique est mesuré sur l'ensemble de la molécule. Cependant, le site actif, c.-à-d. la partie de la molécule qui subit la réaction, ne représente qu'une fraction de la molécule. La variation de la composition isotopique mesurée sera donc plus petite que si elle était mesurée uniquement sur le site actif. D'ailleurs, plus un élément se répète dans la structure moléculaire, plus l'effet de masque est fort et plus le fractionnement isotopique mesuré est faible, car une plus basse proportion d'atomes participe au fractionnement (Elsner et al. 2016). Par exemple, le métolachlore possède 15 atomes de carbone et l'atrazine en possède 8. Si, pour un même mécanisme de dégradation, un seul de leurs atomes de carbone est affecté par une réaction, le métolachlore aura théoriquement un fractionnement moins important que l'atrazine vu qu'il possède presque deux fois plus d'atomes de carbone.

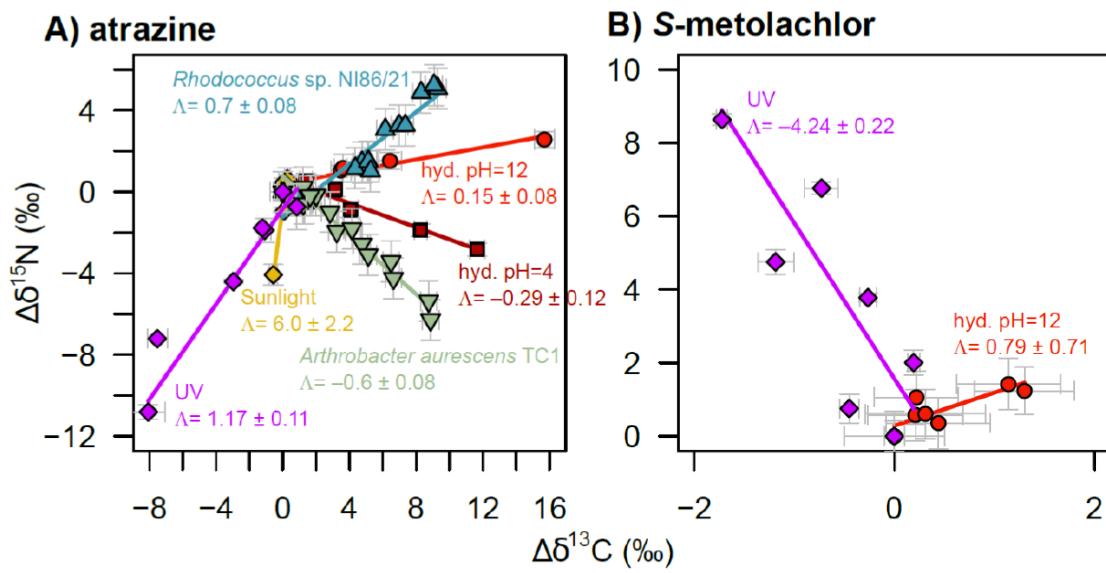


Figure 1.8 : Dual isotope plots pour différentes réactions pour l'atrazine et le S-métolachlore. Tiré de Drouin et al. 2021

La CSIA peut aussi s'effectuer sur plusieurs éléments. Elle est alors nommée ME-CSIA, ou *Multi Element Compound Specific Isotope Analysis*, et utilise des *dual isotope plots*, qui comparent la composition isotopique de 2 éléments sur le même graphique (voir figure 1.8). La ME-CSIA a plusieurs avantages par rapport à la CSIA sur un seul élément. D'abord, elle fournit plus d'informations sur le fractionnement isotopique que l'analyse mono-isotopique (Elsner, 2010, Braeckeveld et al. 2012, Elsner et al. 2016, Schürner et al. 2016, Drouin et al. 2021). Ensuite, si elle fait appel à un isotope moins commun dans la structure moléculaire, tel le chlore, elle est beaucoup moins affectée par les effets de masque (Meyer et al. 2009). Elle permet aussi de distinguer les différentes voies de dégradation (Elsner et al. 2016, Schürner et al. 2016), ce qui peut être utile lorsque les voies de dégradation sont incertaines, ou que plusieurs voies de dégradation existent simultanément. Par exemple, dans la figure 1.8, les 2 processus de biodégradation (en bleu et vert) ont un fractionnement similaire pour le carbone, mais largement différent pour l'azote. La ME-CSIA peut différencier ces processus, ce que l'analyse des isotopes du carbone seul ne permet pas.

Très peu d'études ont été effectuées sur le fractionnement isotopique de l'atrazine et du métolachlore lors d'expériences en photodégradation. D'abord, il y a l'étude de Hartenbach et al. (2008), qui a mesuré le fractionnement isotopique du carbone, de l'azote et de l'hydrogène pour l'atrazine en photodégradation directe et indirecte à l'aide d'un photoréacteur DEMA 124 merry-go-round, équipé d'une lampe au mercure à pression médium d'irradiation moyenne de 308 à 410 nm avec un maximum de 366 nm. Ils ont obtenu, pour la photodégradation directe, un facteur de fractionnement (positif) de +4,6‰ pour le carbone. Normalement, les isotopes lourds créent un lien plus fort qui est plus difficilement brisé, ce qui fait qu'au fil d'une réaction, le composé s'enrichit en isotopes lourds, c.-à-d. que sa composition isotopique est de plus en plus négative, donc un facteur d'enrichissement négatif. Ce fractionnement inverse n'est pas attendu, car la rupture du lien C-Cl lors de la transformation de l'ATR à l'ATR-OH, soit la dégradation principale de l'atrazine en photodégradation directe montrée à la figure 1.4, est censée avoir un effet normal. Les auteurs supposent que l'effet inverse serait principalement causé par un processus d'excitation et de relaxation causé par les photons précédent la rupture du lien C-Cl. Ils émettent une autre hypothèse, qui est que les effets isotopiques magnétiques (MIE) entre les noyaux des atomes de carbone et d'azote, ayant des spins différents selon l'isotope, et des électrons libres permettraient aux molécules contenant des isotopes légers de se recombiner, mais forceraient les isotopes lourds à se dégrader en ATR-OH. Cette autre hypothèse est incertaine et les auteurs suggèrent d'investiguer davantage le sujet. En photodégradation indirecte, les fractionnements mesurés sont de -0,3‰ pour le carbone. Ils supposent que la cause de ce fractionnement provient de la rupture du lien N-H et C-H des groupements N-éthyl et N-isopropyl, créant respectivement le DEA et le DIA.

Ensuite, il y a l'étude de Ponsin et al. (2019), qui a expérimenté la faisabilité de mesurer le fractionnement isotopique du chlore pour l'atrazine et le métolachlore. C'est la première étude à analyser les isotopes de chlore sur le métolachlore, l'acétochlore et l'atrazine, et l'article détaille leur méthodologie, qui pourrait être utilisée lors d'analyses en photodégradation. Les auteurs ont ensuite utilisé leur méthode pour analyser les isotopes du chlore du métolachlore lors d'une expérience d'hydrolyse et obtiennent une forte variation

de la composition isotopique  $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$  (+46‰), qui correspond à un enrichissement isotopique de -9,7‰. Une autre étude (Lihl et al. 2020) s'est basée sur la méthodologie établie dans l'article de Ponsin et al. afin de mesurer le fractionnement isotopique du chlore lors d'expérience de biodégradation et d'hydrolyse de l'atrazine. Les auteurs obtiennent un fractionnement isotopique de -4,3‰ lors de leur expérience en biodégradation, mais un fractionnement plus faible de -1,4‰ lors de leur hydrolyse. Ces résultats démontrent que le chlore est un indicateur sensible pour la dégradation de ces pesticides, même lors de dégradation limitée, et il est moins affecté par les effets de masque qu'un élément plus commun tel que le carbone.

Enfin, il y a l'étude de Drouin et al (2021), qui a mesuré le fractionnement isotopique lors d'expérience en photodégradation pour les herbicides atrazine et métolachlore à l'aide d'un système lumineux Lambda LS équipé d'une lampe au Xénon 300W PE300BUV Cermax imitant la lumière solaire (max 720 nm) et d'un filtre optique limitant les longueurs d'ondes inférieur à 270 nm (UVC). D'autres expériences ont été menées à l'aide d'une boîte étanche à la lumière et d'une lampe au mercure à basse pression P/N TUV G6T5 Phillips émettant un spectre principal de 254 nm. Ils ont obtenu un fort fractionnement isotopique pour le carbone et l'azote sous lumière UV, soit respectivement -8,1‰ et -10,8‰ pour l'atrazine (ATR) et -2,3‰ et +4,5‰ pour le métolachlore (MET), mais un faible fractionnement pour l'azote et un fractionnement négligeable pour le carbone sous lumière naturelle, non-significatif pour les 2, autant en photodégradation directe qu'indirecte. Leurs observations concordent avec celles obtenues par Hartenbach et al. (2008), et ajoutent leurs observations sur le métolachlore. Celles-ci sont que le métolachlore a un fractionnement inverse et moins prononcé que l'atrazine en carbone, respectivement -0,3‰ pour ATR et +0,2‰ pour MET, mais un fractionnement plus élevé que l'atrazine en azote, soit -0,5‰ pour ATR et +1,0‰ pour MET.

### 1. 1. 7. Pertinence du sujet

Les pesticides en milieu naturel et leur devenir est un sujet important dû aux risques qu'ils peuvent poser sur la santé humaine et les écosystèmes. Cependant, la démonstration de la

dégradation des polluants uniquement à l'aide de l'analyse des concentrations peut s'avérer difficile. Comme mentionné plus tôt, les principales observations de terrains sont les mesures de concentration des polluants et de leurs produits de dégradation. Or, la diminution de la concentration des polluants ne correspond pas forcément à une dégradation, car il existe plusieurs processus d'atténuation non-destructifs, telle la dispersion et l'adsorption. De plus, il existe aussi une multitude de processus de dégradation différents pouvant tous dégrader un composé de manière simultanée, et parfois suivant des voies de dégradation très similaires. En effet, certains produits de dégradation sont formés par plus d'une voie de dégradation, comme le DIA et DEA qui peuvent être formés par la photodégradation indirecte (Torrents et al. 1997) et par la biodégradation par des bactéries ou des mycètes (Steinheimer et al. 1990).

Une autre difficulté du suivi de la dégradation est que les pesticides sont souvent présents de manière diffuse, ce qui rend difficile le suivi du fait que les concentrations sont très faibles sur un large territoire (Fenner et al. 2013). Ces faibles concentrations demandent des appareils de mesure performants à faible limite de détection afin de détecter les polluants et leurs produits de dégradation. Sur un autre point, il est commun que plusieurs champs se situent à proximité d'un même cours d'eau. Comme chaque champ correspond à une potentielle source de pollution due au ruissellement et à l'apport des pesticides dans le cours d'eau, il peut être difficile de différencier quel(s) champ(s) correspond à la source de la contamination mesurée. Cela implique aussi un potentiel mélange des contaminants, ayant chacun une composition isotopique potentiellement différente. Ce mélange de composition isotopique peut causer une variation de la composition isotopique globale, rendant difficile l'identification d'une dégradation avec uniquement des données isotopiques. Les données isotopiques sont cependant généralement accompagnées de mesures de concentration, qui peuvent différencier le mélange de source d'une dégradation, car la concentration augmente avec le mélange de source et diminue avec la dégradation.

Il existe cependant plusieurs études portant sur le développement d'une méthode pour contourner ou pallier ces difficultés analytiques, les références mentionnées dans cette

introduction ne sont qu'une petite partie des études portant sur le sujet. Parmi ces publications, plusieurs se concentrent sur une voie de dégradation, telle la photodégradation, d'autres, sur les méthodes permettant de différencier, telle la CSIA, mais très peu d'études utilisent la CSIA pour des expériences de photodégradation de l'atrazine et du métolachlore. De ces études, aucune ne regarde les isotopes du chlore lors de la photodégradation de ces pesticides, et seulement l'étude de Drouin et al (2021) observe le fractionnement isotopique (en carbone et en azote) de ces herbicides sous lumière naturelle simulée. Le fractionnement isotopique en chlore peut apporter des informations supplémentaires, car plusieurs études (Ponsin et. al. 2019, Lihl et. al. 2020, Torrentó et al. 2021) démontrent un fort fractionnement isotopique en chlore pour les réactions de dégradation de l'atrazine et du métolachlore impliquant le bris du lien C-Cl, ce qui est le cas pour la photodégradation. Ce fractionnement pourrait permettre l'identification de la photodégradation. L'étude est aussi effectuée en lumière naturelle simulée afin d'imiter la photodégradation naturelle, ce qui n'est pas le cas des études effectués sous lumière UV. L'énergie supplémentaire fournie aux pesticides via les rayons UV par rapport à la lumière naturelle accélère la photodégradation, modifiant les cinétiques et pouvant exciter les atomes. Comme mentionné dans l'étude de Hartenbach et al. (2008), l'excitation et la relaxation des atomes est une de leur hypothèse expliquant leur fractionnement isotopique négatif mesuré. Une photodégradation en lumière naturelle fournirait moins d'énergie à la molécule, limitant cet effet d'excitation et de relaxation, ce qui pourrait affecter le fractionnement isotopique mesuré.

## 1. 2. Objectif de recherche

L'objectif de ce projet de recherche est de fournir un outil capable d'identifier la photodégradation directe et indirecte, en présence de nitrates, de l'atrazine et du métolachlore. Afin d'accomplir cet objectif, le fractionnement isotopique en carbone et en chlore associé à ces photodégradations sera déterminer.

Dans ce projet, des échantillons à haute concentration initiale en pesticide créés en laboratoire, afin de contrôler les conditions d'expérimentation, seront exposés à de la lumière

naturelle simulée par photoréacteur. En plus de mesurer leur fractionnement isotopique en carbone et en chlore, les concentrations de ces herbicides seront également mesurées, ainsi qu'une sélection de leurs produits de transformation, notamment l'hydroxyatrazine (ATR-OH), le déséthylatrazine (DEA), le désisopropylatrazine (DIA), l'hydroxydéséthylatrazine (DEA-OH), hydroxydésisopropylatrazine (DIA-OH), le déséthyldésisopropylatrazine (DEDIA), l'amméline (AMN), l'hydroxymétolachlore (MET-OH), l'acide éthanesulfonique du métolachlore (MET-ESA) et l'acide oxalique du métolachlore (MET-OA). D'autres produits de dégradation seront identifiés en analyse non-ciblée, c.-à-d. une analyse plus large tentant d'identifier tous les composés présents dans la solution. Enfin, le projet mesurera aussi les ions chlorures présents au fil de la dégradation.

## **CHAPITRE II – ARTICLE: CARBON AND CHLORINE ISOTOPIC ANALYSIS ON THE DIRECT AND INDIRECT NITRATE PHOTODEGRADATION OF THE ATRAZINE AND METOLACHLOR HERBICIDES**

### **2. 1. ABSTRACT**

Toxic pesticides such as atrazine and metolachlor are commonly found in surface waters, especially near lands used by the agricultural industry. Thus, determining their fate is a necessity. Since multiple degradation pathways exist, CSIA was used to differentiate between them. The isotopic fractionation of atrazine and metolachlor during direct and indirect photodegradation (in presence of nitrates) for the isotopes of carbon and chlorine for the herbicides atrazine and metolachlor were determined in this study using samples with high concentration of atrazine (20 mg/L) and metolachlor (50 mg/L) while controlling the conditions of experimentation. They were then exposed to simulated sunlight in a photoreactor without nitrate for a direct photodegradation reaction and with 10 mg/L of nitrate to induce an indirect photodegradation reaction.

The enrichment factors found for the carbon isotopes were  $-4.4 \pm 0.6\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $-1.6 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct and indirect photodegradation of atrazine respectively, and  $-1.0 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $-0.4 \pm 0.1\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct and indirect photodegradation of metolachlor respectively. The enrichment factors found for the chlorine isotopes were  $10.7 \pm 2.5\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $3.5 \pm 0.5\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct and indirect photodegradation of atrazine respectively, and  $-3.0 \pm 0.4\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $-1.2 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct and indirect photodegradation of metolachlor respectively. Multiple element isotope analysis of chlorine and carbon was not able to distinguish the direct photodegradation from the indirect photodegradation, implying an isotopic shift driven by direct photodegradation. Thus, only two slopes ( $\Delta_{\text{C}/\text{Cl}}$ ) on the dual isotope plot, of  $-0.50 \pm 0.06\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $0.34 \pm 0.07\text{\textperthousand}$  for atrazine and metolachlor respectively, were calculated. While the photodegradation of atrazine could be distinguished from other degradation reactions occurring in natural surface waters, like biodegradation and hydrolysis, other isotopes must be analyzed to be able to distinguish metolachlor's photodegradation form other degradation mechanisms. This information could be used for the identification of degradation processes observed in contaminated surface waters.

**Key words:**

Stable Isotopes, Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA), Direct photodegradation, Indirect photodegradation, Atrazine, Metolachlor

## **2. 2. INTRODUCTION**

Pesticides, such as atrazine and metolachlor, are ubiquitous in natural waters (Fenner et al, 2013, Lutz et al. 2017, Bedmar et al. 2017, Bu et al. 2020). For instance, atrazine (ATR) was the second most used pesticide (between 64 and 74 million pounds sold) and metolachlor (MET) was the third most used pesticide (between 34 and 44 million pounds sold) in the United States in 2012 (U.S.EPA 2017). In Québec, in 2021, around 5000 kg of ATR and 240 000 kg of MET were sold in 2021 (MELCCFP, 2023). Between 2000 and 2020, MET was detected in more than 95% of all rivers in agricultural regions in Québec, while ATR was detected in those same percentages until 2018, when its usage was restricted by governmental regulations. Frequency of detection declined since, but ATR could still be found in around 85% of monitored rivers in 2020 (Giroux I, 2022).

These pesticides present a risk for the environment and human health (Burrows et al. 2002, Bouchonnet et al. 2011). For instance, atrazine is an endocrine disruptor, a carcinogenic compound, and can cause infertility in men (Choi et al. 2013), while metolachlor is a potential carcinogenic compound (U.S.EPA, 1995). Monitoring their presence in the environment is necessary. Understanding how they are transformed can also be beneficial since with more information, the action taken to reduce their concentration in the environment can be more effective.

Concentration analyses of pesticides and their transformation products can give us information about their presence in the environment, their potential persistence, and their degradation kinetics (Torrents et al. 1997, Fenner et al. 2013, Maillard et al. 2016). Natural attenuation, i.e. the reduction of their concentration without human intervention, is usually the result of multiple processes, some that destroy the compound, such as degradation, and some non-destructive, such as adsorption and dilution (Ng et al. 1995). Of the degradation reactions, some are caused by living organisms, or biodegradation, and some are abiotic processes, such as hydrolysis and photodegradation. However, unless a transformation

product is unique to a specific degradation pathway, concentration analyses are not enough to distinguish one degradation pathway from another. For instance, different degradation pathways of ATR can create the same primary degradation product. Biodegradation by bacteria, by fungi and indirect photodegradation of ATR all have deisopropylatrazine (DIA) and deethylatrazine (DEA) as the primary degradation products (Steinheimer et al. 1990, Torrents et al. 1997).

Photodegradation is an abiotic degradation process that affect multiple pesticides, including ATR and MET. There are two kinds of photodegradation. Direct photodegradation degrades the pesticides using photonic energy to break molecular links, while indirect photodegradation is caused by the interaction of light with other compound, such as nitrate, to create radicals able to degrade the pesticides (Torrents et al. 1997, Burrows et al. 2002). Indirect photodegradation often occurs in agricultural waters since nitrate and pesticides are both commonly emitted by agricultural activities. The efficiency, or the speed, of the photodegradation reaction can vary depending on multiple factors, including the nature of the compound, the nature of the other compounds found in the water, such as Colored Dissolved Organic Matter (CDOM), the pH and temperature of the water, among many others (Torrents et al. 1997, Lin et al. 1999, Konstantinou et al. 2001, Dimou et al. 2005, al Housari et al. 2010, Bedmar et al. 2017). Usually, indirect photodegradation is more efficient than direct photodegradation.

Since multiple reaction processes and degradation pathways exist, an approach to distinguish them is necessary. One of the methods used is Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA), which is a tool increasingly applied in environmental science for micropollutants. Micropollutants are compounds, such as pharmaceutical compounds or pesticides, that have a concentration in the range of ng/L to µg/L (Elsner et al. 2016, Cui et al. 2021, Eun-Ji et al. 2021). CSIA uses gas chromatography (GC) to separate compounds, then analyses the stable isotope, usually though an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS), to calculate the isotopic ratios of the separated compounds (Hartenbach et al. 2008, Fenner et al. 2013, Elsner et al.

2016, Alvarez-Zaldivar et al. 2018, Cui et al. 2021). CSIA only analyses the pesticide itself, and not its degradation products, although it can be used on them as well.

Since most reactions kinetics are mass dependant, those reactions can cause an isotopic fractionation based on the difference of mass caused by the different stable isotopes present in the compound. Usually, lighter isotopes tend to react faster, since their bond are weaker than heavier isotopes. A negative isotopic effect is expected, meaning that the isotopic ratio should diminish following the degradation. In other words, as the reaction progresses, the proportion of heavy isotopes will grow. (Hartenbach et al. 2008, Fenner et al. 2013, Elsayed et al., 2014, Elsner et al. 2016, Schürner et al., 2016, Alvarez-Zaldívar et al. 2018, Melsbach et al., 2020, Torabi et al., 2020). Most of the time, each degradation mechanism has a unique fractionation factor. CSIA can be used to distinguish the degradation pathways if their fractionation factor happened to be different (Meyer et al. 2009, Fenner et al. 2013, Alvarez-Zaldivar et al. 2018, Cui et al. 2021). The articles focusing on the isotopic shift on the photodegradation of ATR and MET, namely Hartenbach et al. (2008) and Drouin et al (2021), found that photodegradation reactions caused a positive isotopic effect on the carbon isotopes. Hartenbach et al. found an isotopic enrichment factor ( $\epsilon_C$ ) of  $+4.6\text{‰}$  for the direct photodegradation of ATR, while Drouin et al. found an isotopic enrichment factor ( $\epsilon_C$ ) of  $+2.7 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$  for ATR and  $+0.8 \pm 0.1\text{‰}$  for MET under UV light.

CSIA can be applied for multiple elements, such as hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, and chlorine, in which case it is referred as Multi-Element CSIA, or ME-CSIA. Since an element can have a similar fractionation factor for different degradation mechanisms, the analysis of other elements can distinguish these degradation mechanisms if they have a different fractionation factor. ME-CSIA has been used twice for the characterization of the direct and indirect photodegradation of ATR (Hartenbach et al. 2008), who measured the carbon, the nitrogen and hydrogen isotopes, and ATR and MET (Drouin et al. 2021), who measured the carbon and nitrogen isotopes. However, Drouin et al found a negligible fractionation factor for their isotopes for the direct photodegradation of ATR and MET under simulated sunlight, meaning that, for now, CSIA cannot identify this reaction. But no studies about the

photodegradation of ATR and MET have used CSIA to measure the chlorine isotopes in its method to fill that information gap. Since the hydroxyl form of those pesticides (ATR-OH and MET-OH) is a common degradation product made from a loss of the chlorine atom (Torrents et al. 1997, Dimou et al. 2005, Nicol et al. 2015), the probable high fractionation factor of the chlorine isotopes, as observed for different degradation reactions (Ponsin et. al. 2019, Lihl et. al. 2020, Torrentó et al. 2021), might be useful to identify the photodegradation reaction using CSIA.

The goal of this study was to provide a tool to distinguish the photodegradation of atrazine and metolachlor from other degradation processes in surface water. To achieve this objective, the isotopic fractionation of chlorine and carbon was determined to identify and quantify the direct photodegradation and indirect photodegradation in presence of nitrates of these herbicides.

## 2. 3. METHODOLOGY

### 2. 3. 1. Chemicals

Compounds used in the experiments (MET and ATR) and all the other degradation products targeted for concentration analyses are showed in Table 2.1. Most of the compounds were supplied by Toronto Research Chemicals (TRC), but some of them were supplied by DR Ehrenstorfer, Sigma-Aldrich, or in the case of ATR-OH-D5, the CDN isotopes company. Most of the products were in pure form, either a solid or a liquid, except for MET-OH, which was in a 100% acetonitrile solution with a concentration of 100 µg/mL.

Table 2. 1: List of compounds

| Name                             | Abreviation | Supplier           | Purity  | CAS number   |
|----------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|---------|--------------|
| Metolachlor                      | MET         | TRC                | 98%     | 51218-45-2   |
| Atrazine                         | ATR         | TRC                | 98%     | 1912-24-9    |
| Metolachlor-d6                   | MET-D6      | TRC                | 97%     | 1219803-97-0 |
| Metolachlor-2-hydroxy            | MET-OH      | DR<br>Ehrenstorfer | 98.0%   | 131068-72-9  |
| Metolachlor-ethane sulfonic acid | MET-ESA     | DR<br>Ehrenstorfer | 95.7%   | 947601-85-6  |
| Metolachlor OA                   | MET-OA      | Sigma-Aldrich      | ≥ 98.0% | 152019-73-3  |
| Atrazine-d5                      | ATR-D5      | Sigma-Aldrich      | ≥ 99.0% | 163165-75-1  |
| Atrazine-2-hydroxy               | ATR-OH      | Sigma-Aldrich      | ≥ 98.0% | 2163-68-0    |
| 2-hydroxyatrazine-d5             | ATR-OH-D5   | CDN isotopes       | 99.7%   | 1276197-25-1 |
| Deethylatrazine                  | DEA         | TRC                | 98%     | 6190-65-4    |
| Deisopropylatrazine              | DIA         | TRC                | 98%     | 1007-28-9    |
| Deisopropylhydroxyatrazine       | DIA-OH      | TRC                | 98%     | 7313-54-4    |
| Deethyldeisopropylatrazine       | DEDIA       | Sigma-Aldrich      | 97.8%   | 3397-62-4    |
| Ammeline                         | AMN         | TRC                | 92.52%  | 645-92-1     |

### 2. 3. 2. Photodegradation experiments

Since CSIA requires a high mass of pesticides, and the isotopic fractionation gets higher as the compound degrades, an initial concentration as high as possible is required. However, ATR is known to have a low solubility in water, at around 30 mg/L at 25 °C, while MET's solubility is higher, at around 500 mg/L at 25 °C. A high concentration of about 20 mg/L for ATR and 50 mg/L for MET was targeted for stock solutions to obtain the highest possible concentration while avoiding solubility problems (see annex 1.1 and 1.2). All experiments were made in ultrapure (milli-Q) water. Experiments were buffered with a mixture of 0.833 g/L of NaOH and 10.2065 g/L of KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> to fix the pH to around 6.5 to avoid hydrolysis. For indirect photodegradation experiments, NaNO<sub>3</sub> was added to obtain a concentration of 10 mg/L of nitrate (following table A1 in annex 1.2), with the nitrate acting as an HO• radical emitter. PH measurements were made at the beginning and end of each experiment with a pH meter (MultiLab IDS 4010-3W with a pH electrode SenTix® 940). All photodegradation experiments were made in triplicate in a calibrated photoreactor (Xe-1-BC Xenon Test Chamber by Q-SUN with a radiance of 0.68 Wm<sup>-2</sup>) simulating a summer day at noon (see spectrum in annex 1.3) at a controlled temperature of 25 °C.

80 mL of stock solutions were transferred to a 100 mL quartz glass tube (Technical Glass Products). Quartz tubes were chosen for the experiments because their structure allows UV light to pass through, while regular glass tube would block those light ray essential for photodegradation. To avoid any spilling, rubber caps covered in Teflon were used. Samples were inside the photoreactor for a predetermined period of time (see annex 2.1), based on tests made prior with the photoreactor, to achieve a theoretical percentage of degradation. At the same time, about 20 mL of stock solutions was transferred in a 60 mL glass bottle (Boston) and kept in the dark at room temperature as a control. Once removed from the photoreactor, samples were transferred in a 250 mL glass bottle (Boston), and indirect photodegradation samples and control were kept in the freezer until their analysis, while direct photodegradation samples and control had to be kept in the refrigerator (4°C) because of space issue. No degradation was observed in those controls. They were identified by

pesticide (ATR or MET), by photodegradation (direct or indirect), by theoretical percentage of degradation (20 to 99) and by replicate (1 to 3, B for control).

### 2. 3. 3. Analytical Methods

For both herbicides, the most common degradation products associated to the photodegradation reaction were tried to be identified, using literature, to be able to quantify most of them. The most common degradation products found for ATR were ATR-OH, DIA, DEA, DIA-OH, DEA-OH, DEDIA and AMN based on the study of Torrents et al. (1997). The DEA-OH could not be obtained for the analyses. For metolachlor, while a study (Maillard et al., 2016) listed the most common degradation products of metolachlor as MET-OH, MET-OA and MET-ESA, the studies that analyzed the degradation products of the photodegradation of MET (Coffinet et al. 2012, Nicol et al. 2015, Salta et al. 2018) all had unnamed and different degradation products, except for MET-OH, which appeared in all three of those studies.

Targeted concentration analyses were made using a HPLC (Nexera Series, Shimazu) with a triple quadrupole MS/MS (QTRAP 5500, Sciex) in collaboration with UQAM (Département de biochimie, Prof. Lekha Sleno). Concentration measurements were made by injecting of 5 µL in the HPLC coupled to the triple quadrupole MS/MS. Concentration analyses were made at the same time as the nontargeted analyses. Solvents used to analyse transformation products are given in annex 1.4. Nontargeted analyses were made on the samples to find and identify other degradation products beside the one targeted in the concentration analyses. While the concentration of those other degradation products could not be calculated, their presence gives more information about the degradation pathway taken by the pesticide. Nontargeted analyses were made by injecting 10 µL in the same HPLC coupled to a Q-TOF MS/MS (Sciex Triple TOF 5600) operated in positive and negative ion mode.

The column used in the HPLC for both targeted and nontargeted analyses was an Agilent Zorbax Eclipse C18 and two mobile phases with 0.1% formic acid, water (A) and acetonitrile

(B), passed at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min. The elution gradient used started at 3% B, then increasing linearly until it reached 50% B at 15 minutes, then to 95% B at 18 minutes, and hold that concentration for 3 minutes before re-equilibrating at 3% for 6 minutes. The MS/MS was operated in MRM (multiple reactions monitoring) mode, with an ion source set to a voltage of 5000V and a temperature of 500°C. The Q-TOF had an ion spray voltage of 4500V in negative mode and 5000V in positive mode and a temperature of 450 °C.

To follow the degradation, a Cl<sup>-</sup> ion analysis was made, an expected degradation product for these experiments. 5 mL of one of each replicate were analyzed in an ion chromatograph (Dionex Aquion, Thermoscientific) to determine the concentration of nitrite, nitrate and chloride ions. The column was a Dionex IonPac™ AG22 and the eluant used was made of carbonate ions (4.5 mM Sodium Carbonate, 1.4 mM Sodium Bicarbonate) in ultrapure water (milli-Q), allowing us to precisely quantify the concentration of chlorine and nitrate ion between 0.1 and 100 ppm.

Prior to isotopic analyses, Solid Phase Extraction (SPE) was performed on the remaining volume of samples. 10 mL of each solution was taken for SPE for most samples, except for ATR-N and MET-N 95 and 99, where most of the remaining sample was taken to accommodate the low concentration of pesticides left. Samples were concentrated to about 200 mg/L in ethyl acetate (HPLC grade). The cartridges used for the SPE were the BAKERBOND SDB-1 by Avantor Performance Materials Inc for the ATR samples and the OASIS PRiME HLB by Waters corp. for the MET samples. More information can be found in annex 1.5.

After SPE, the samples were used for C isotopic analyses. The analyses of carbon isotopes was made by injecting 2µL in split mode (split 10) in a Gas Chromatograph coupled with an Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer (GC-IRMS) (Trace 1310 GC coupled with a Thermo Delta V Advantage Thermo Fisher) in collaboration with Aix-Marseille University (Laboratoire Chimie Environnement, Prof. Patrick Höhener). The column used was a 30 m TG-5 MS (0.25 mm of internal diameter and 0.25 µm of stationary phase), and a Carbofrit (Restek) liner was

added. The temperature program started at 50°C for 1 minute and raised up to 250°C at a rate of 30°C/min, then stayed at that temperature for 5 minutes. Each sample was analyzed in triplicate and more details about the method can be found in annex A.1.6.

For chlorine isotope analyses, samples and standards were diluted to around 10 mg/L to accommodate the instrument, a Gas Chromatograph coupled with a Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS) (Agilent 7890 B coupled with a 5977 B) in collaboration with Concordia University (CBAMS, Prof. Yves Gelin). The column used was a DB-5MS (Agilent) (0.2 mm of internal diameter and 0.33 µm of stationary phase). The temperature program started at 60 °C and hold that temperature for 0.6 minutes. It then ramped at a rate of 33.3 °C/min until the temperature reached 190 °C, then hold that temperature for 3 minutes. It then ramped at a rate of 2.8 °C/min until it reached 210 °C and hold that temperature for a final 3.2 minutes. A volume of 1 µL was injected for each injection at an inlet temperature of 250 °C. Each sample was analyzed 10 times following the procedure described in the article of Ponsin et al (2019).

#### 2. 3. 4. Evaluation of Stable Isotope Data

The initial C and N isotopic composition of the pesticides used in the experiments were analyzed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) (Micromass model Isoprime 100) coupled to an elemental analyser (EA) (Elementar Vario MicroCube) in continuous flow mode at Geotop (UQAM). The overall analytical uncertainty (1s) is better than ±0.1‰ in the case of C analysis, and ±0.2‰ in the case of N analysis. The results are given in table 2.2, with additional information on the standardization strategy in annex A.1.7. The standard chosen for C and N analyses are given in annex A.1.6.

Table 2. 2: C and N standard isotopic composition of ATR and MET by EA-IRMS

| Herbicide | Average Isotopic Composition | Error | Standard deviation | Number of measurements |
|-----------|------------------------------|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| ATR C     | -26.77                       | 0.1   | 0.03               | 10                     |
| MET C     | -28.14                       | 0.1   | 0.03               | 10                     |
| ATR N     | +0.96                        | 0.2   | 0.13               | 5                      |
| MET N     | -0.02                        | 0.2   | 0.14               | 5                      |

Standard deviation comes from the statistical error on the data set. Error is the overall analytical uncertainty and contain the error from the instrument, the sample preparation, and includes the standard deviation of the data set.

For carbon isotope analyses in GC-IRMS, 4 standards were used (see table 2.3). For C analyses in the GC-IRMS, each sample was analyzed in triplicate. Between each different sample, a reference, the non degraded sample, was passed to assure the validity of the result. Standards were analyzed three times at the beginning of each day. Three standards were used for the C analyses: caffeine (-32.5‰), and two in-house alkane mixes (C12 = -40.5‰ & C16 = -29.0‰). These standards served for the correction of the isotopic data. The non degraded pesticides served to calculate the isotopic composition. Samples were passed in multiple sequence, but after correction no major differences were found.

Table 2. 3: Standard and initial sample GC-IRMS analysis

| Standard                          | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | Standard Deviation |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| USGS62 caffeine                   | -14.8                 | 0.3                |
| Caffeine 2 <sup>nd</sup> ref II-c | -32.8                 | 0.2                |
| Alkane mix (C12)                  | -40.7                 | 0.2                |
| Alkane mix (C16)                  | -29.3                 | 0.1                |
| Non degraded sample               | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | Standard Deviation |
| ATR                               | -27.4                 | 0.2                |
| MET                               | -28.2                 | 0.1                |

The Atrazine and Metolachlor are the same as the one used in Table 2.2. The difference in value of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  came from the instrument used.

For chlorine isotopic analyses, three ATR standards and two MET standards were used. The choice of those standard was based on the work of Ponsin et. al (2019) and Lihl et. al (2020). Their values on the SMOC scale are given in table 2.4 (taken from Ponsin et. al 2019). For Cl analyses, all standards were analyzed 10 times each before passing a maximum of 3 sample, each analyzed 10 times. Standards were analyzed 10 times again after passing the samples to determine if a drift had occurred during the analyses. Between each different sample or standard, a blank was used to mitigate cross-contamination.

Table 2. 4: Cl standard isotopic composition of ATR and MET

| Standard | Average $\delta^{37}\text{Cl} \pm$ error | Supplier   |
|----------|--|--|
| ATR #4   | $-0.9 \pm 0.2$                           | Oskar Tropitzsch   |
| ATR #11  | $3.6 \pm 0.4$                            | Riedel-de Haën   |
| ATR_A    | $-0.9 \pm 0.1$                           | Oskar Tropitzsch   |
| MET-I    | $-4.3 \pm 0.2$                           | Chemo  |
| MET-F    | $5.1 \pm 0.3$                            | produced by S <sub>N</sub> 2 reaction with NaN <sub>3</sub> in acetone |

The results given by the mass spectrometers must be treated mathematically. The first characteristics needed to be calculated were the isotopic ratio of Cl, since C analyses gave the isotope compositions as a result directly. Eq 2.1 gives the isotope ratio (R) for a chlorine sample.

$$R = \frac{^{37}\text{Cl}}{^{35}\text{Cl}}$$

Equation 2. 1: Chlorine Isotopic Ratio

Using the isotopic ratio of the sample ( $R_{\text{sample}}$ ) and standard ( $R_{\text{std}}$ ), the isotopic composition ( $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ ) can be calculated using Eq 2.2. This was also calculated for the carbon isotopes ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) directly by the program of the instrument used.

$$\delta^{37}Cl_{sample} = 1000 \times \frac{R_{sample} - R_{std}}{R_{std}}$$

Equation 2. 2: Chlorine Isotopic Composition

The fractionation factor ( $\varepsilon$ ) of carbon and chlorine isotopes, induced by the photodegradation reaction, can be determined using Eq 2.3, where R is the isotopic ratio, C is the concentration,  $R_0$  is the initial isotopic ratio and  $C_0$  is the initial concentration. It can also be calculated using the isotopic composition ( $\delta$ ) instead of the isotopic ratio, as shown in Eq 2.4.

$$\varepsilon = 1000 \times \frac{\ln(R/R_0)}{\ln(C/C_0)}$$

Equation 2. 3: Isotopic fractionation factor ( $\varepsilon$ )

$$\varepsilon = 1000 \times \frac{\ln(1000 + \delta/\delta_0)}{\ln(C/C_0)}$$

Equation 2. 4: Isotopic fractionation factor

For both C and Cl isotope analyses, a Rayleigh diagram was used to represent the data. The X axis was noted  $\ln(C/C_0)$  and corresponded to the natural logarithm of the concentration of the sample over the initial concentration. The Y axis was noted  $\ln(R/R_0)$  and corresponded to the natural logarithm of the average of the isotopic composition of the triplicate for that sample plus 1000 over the average of the isotopic composition of the non-degraded pesticide plus 1000. The equation for the  $\ln(R/R_0)$  for the carbon isotope analyses in the Rayleigh diagram is given in Eq 2.5.

$$\ln\left(\frac{R}{R_0}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{1000 + \overline{\delta^{13}C}}{1000 + \overline{\delta^{13}C}_0}\right)$$

Equation 2. 5: Y axis of Rayleigh diagram

To distinguish the different degradation mechanisms, a dual isotope diagram, used in multi-element compound specific isotope analysis (ME-CSIA), gives more insight than single isotope analysis, represented with a Rayleigh diagram. Eq 2.6 is used to calculate the slope of a dual chlorine and carbon isotope diagram ( $\Lambda_{Cl-C}$ ). A significant difference between the slopes of the degradation reactions means that these reactions can be differentiated and identified with ME-CSIA.

$$\Lambda_{Cl-C} = \frac{\Delta\delta^{13}C}{\Delta\delta^{37}Cl}$$

Equation 2. 6: Slope of dual isotope diagram

Outliers were determined by the Grubbs test with an alpha of 0.05 made in excel. Rayleigh plot and dual isotope plot regression validity was determined using a Student Test with an alpha of 0.05 made in excel.

## 2. 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 2. 4. 1. pH

All samples had a pH of around 6.5 to avoid hydrolysis, since hydrolysis is susceptible to occur at  $\text{pH} < 6$  for ATR (Prosen and Zupančič-Kralj. 2005). Since a high concentration of pH buffer was used in all stock solutions, the pH was expected to be relatively stable for all experiments. Thus, only the variation between the initial pH and final pH ( $\Delta\text{pH}$ ), calculated by Eq 2.7, was shown in figure 2.1. A negative  $\Delta\text{pH}$  meant that the solution got more acidic.

$$\Delta\text{pH} = \text{pH}_{final} - \text{pH}_{initial}$$

Equation 2. 7: pH variation

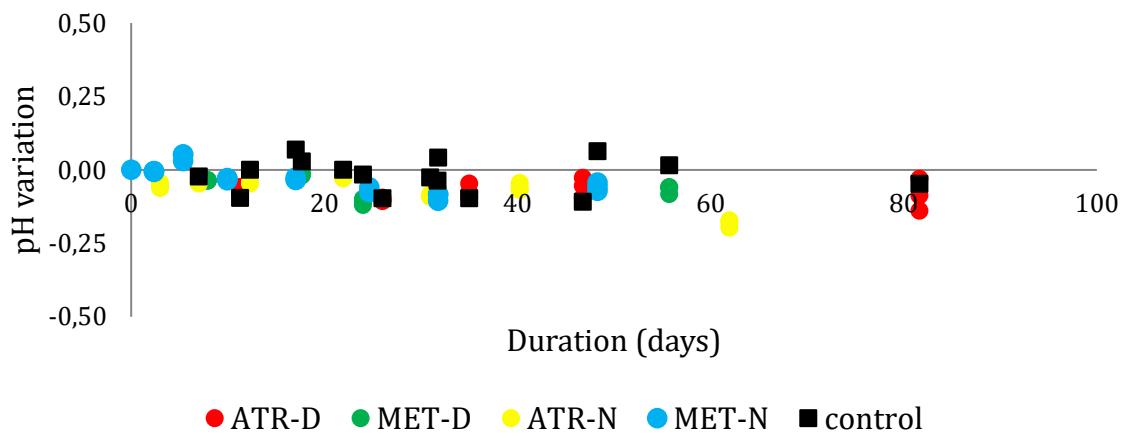


Figure 2. 1: PH variation

Figure 2.1 shows the pH of each triplicate of each photodegradation experiment,  $\pm 1$  minute (0.00069 day) for the duration and  $\pm 0.001$  for the  $\Delta\text{pH}$ .

As shown on figure 2.1, no pH variation was observed, as expected.

### 2. 4. 2. Kinetics of the reactions

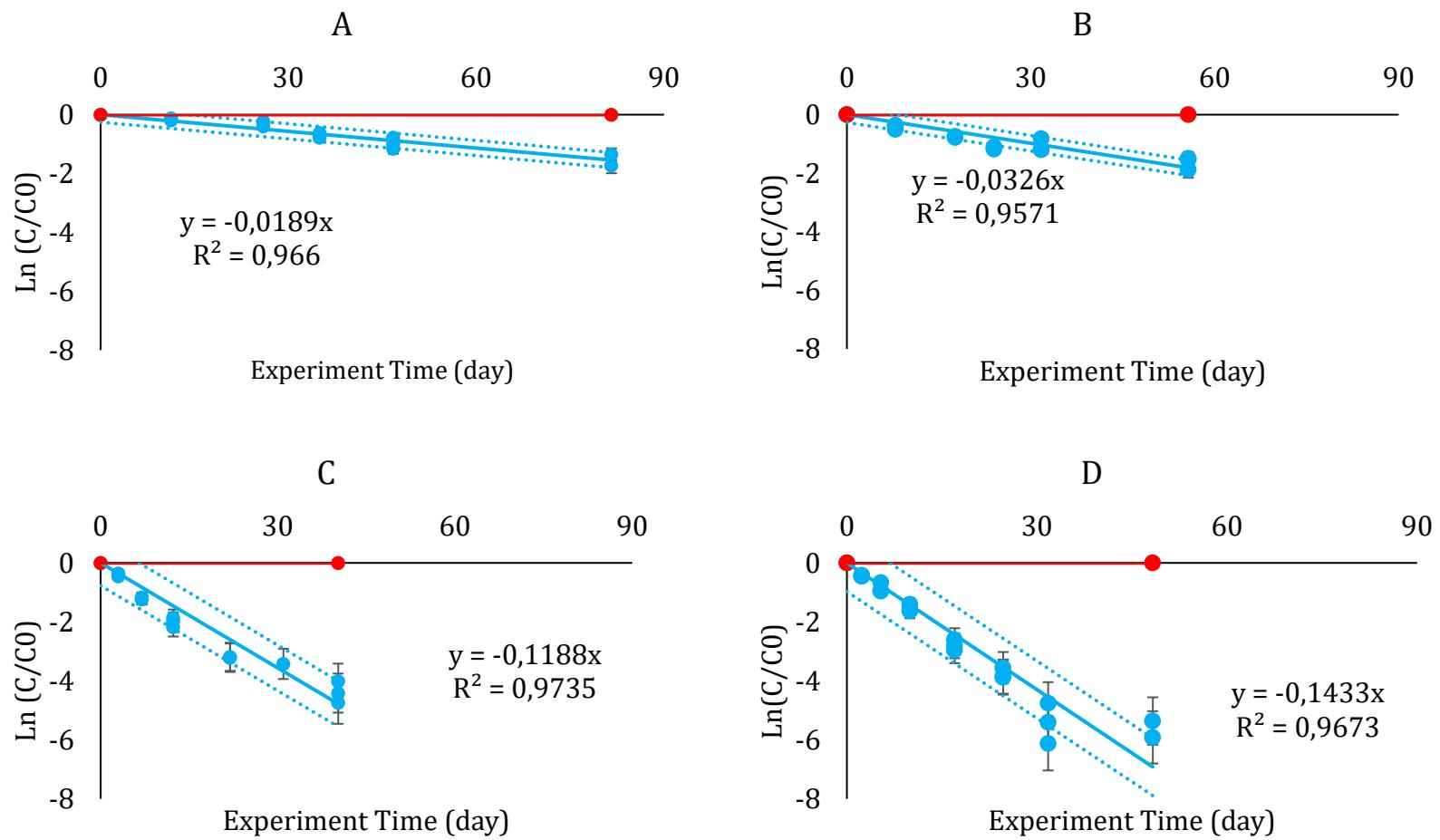


Figure 2. 2: Degradation Kinetics

Figure 2.2 shows the degradation kinetics of ATR-D (A), MET-D (B), ATR-N (C) and MET-N (D). The pesticide concentration is shown in blue, with the 95% confidence interval in dotted line, and the control is shown in red. Error is 1 minute (0.000694 day) and 15% for the concentration. Details in annex A.2.2

Controls showed no sign of degradation, meaning that the decrease of concentration came from the photodegradation reaction. Time was noted at the beginning and end of each experiment, thus the error on the X axis is at maximum 1 minute. The 15% error on the concentration came from the analytical error of the instrument combined with the human error on the measurements and sample preparation. The degradation slope was forced on the origin since no degradation could occur before the beginning of the experiment. The slope corresponded to the first order degradation constant, being negative because the concentration diminishes. Using equation 8, the first order degradation constant ( $k$ ) of the half-life ( $t_{1/2}$ ) of the herbicides for the photodegradation reactions could be calculated.

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln (2)}{k}$$

Equation 2. 8: Half-life from 1<sup>st</sup> order degradation constant

Table 2. 5: Degradation constant and half-life

| Experiment | 1 <sup>st</sup> order degradation constant (day <sup>-1</sup> ) | Half-life (days) |
|------------|---|------------------|
| ATR-D      | 1.9 E-2 ± 2.0 E-3   | 36.67 ± 2.70     |
| ATR-N      | 1.2 E-1 ± 1.1 E-2   | 6.16 ± 0.90      |
| MET-D      | 3.3 E-2 ± 4.1 E-3   | 21.26 ± 2.61     |
| MET-N      | 1.4 E-1 ± 1.2 E-2   | 4.84 ± 0.71      |

Table 2.5 shows the 1<sup>st</sup> order degradation constant and the half-life of the experiments. As expected, indirect photodegradation experiments were faster, i.e. their half-lives were smaller compared to direct photodegradation experiments. This could be explained by the fact that the direct interaction between the light and the herbicides occurred for both the direct and indirect photodegradation reactions, but HO• radical emission, generated by the presence of nitrates, only occurred in the indirect photodegradation reactions, which accelerated it compared to the direct photodegradation reaction. Since direct photodegradation occurred in the indirect photodegradation experiment, the kinetics calculated for ATR-N and MET-N included a component of direct photodegradation. However, since indirect photodegradation

can never occur without direct photodegradation in environmental conditions, the kinetics of indirect photodegradation without direct photodegradation were not calculated. Thus, kinetics of ATR-N and MET-N contained the direct photodegradation's kinetics but consisted mostly of indirect photodegradation's kinetics.

Compared with the literature, for ATR direct photodegradation experiment, a study (Hartenbach et al. 2008) had a pseudo-first order rate constant of  $8.6 \text{ E-}4 \text{ s}^{-1}$  (half-life of 0.22 h) using a low-pressure mercury lamp emitting monochromatic light at 254 nm and an initial concentration of  $94 \mu\text{M}$  ( $20.27 \text{ mg/L}$ ). For MET, another study (Dimou et al. 2005) made two experiments, one outdoor during the months of June-July 2003 in capped quartz glass reservoir with a concentration of  $5 \text{ mg/L}$  of MET, and one using a xenon arc lamp restricting wavelength transmission under 290 nm with the same concentration. For their outdoor experiment in distilled water, they obtained a half-life of 193 h (8.04 days), while they obtained a half-life of 87 hours (3.63 days) for direct photodegradation under simulated solar irradiation in distilled water and a half-life of 8 hours (0.33 day) for indirect photodegradation with  $10 \text{ mg/L}$  of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  under simulated solar irradiation. Another study (Drouin et al. 2021) used a xenon arc lamp with a light range between 270 and 720 nm with initial concentration of  $5 \mu\text{M}$  ( $1.08 \text{ mg/L}$ ) of ATR and  $3 \mu\text{M}$  ( $0.85 \text{ mg/L}$ ) of MET. They obtained half-lives of  $29.0 \pm 1.7 \text{ h}$  and  $58.8 \pm 3.2 \text{ h}$  for the direct photodegradation of ATR and MET respectively, with similar half-lives for the photodegradation in presence of nitrates for both herbicides.

The differences in kinetics were probably caused by the difference in initial concentration of pesticides and the wavelength of the light used, since both factors are known to affect the kinetics of the reaction. Usually, lower concentration degrades faster. Meanwhile, both ATR and MET have a spectrum that allow them to absorb light easier in the UV range, but barely in the visible range, which consists of most of the natural light. Other studies used light that goes farther into the UV range (254 nm for Hartenbach et al., 270 nm for Drouin et al. and 290 nm for Dimou et al.) while this study's lamp had no intensity under 300 nm. Also, Dimou et al and Drouin et al had a lower initial concentration of pesticide under natural light, thus explaining their faster kinetics.

## 2. 4. 3. Degradation products and transformation pathways

The choice for the degradation products analyzed in the targeted concentration analyses was based on the degradation products found in previous studies, mainly Torrents et. al (1997) for ATR and Maillard et. al (2016) for MET, among many others. Hydroxyatrazine (ATR-OH), deisopropylatrazine (DIA), deethylatrazine (DEA), Deisopropylhydroxyatrazine (DIA-OH), Desethyldeisopropylatrazine (DEDIA) and ammeline (AMN) for ATR, and Metolachlor-2-hydroxy (MET-OH), Metolachlor oxanilic acid (MET-OA) and Metolachlor-ethane sulfonic acid (MET-ESA) for MET were quantified.

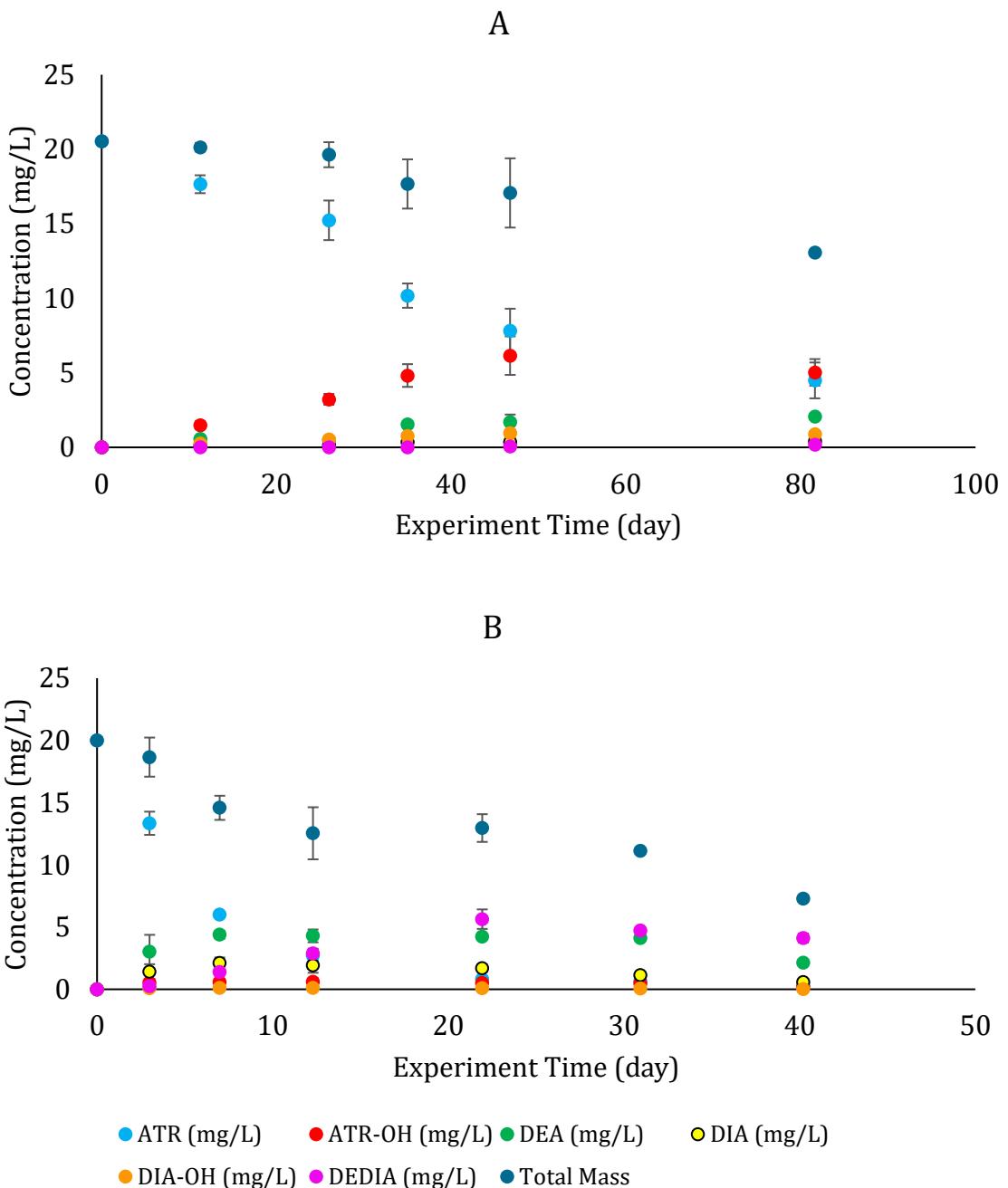


Figure 2. 3: Degradation products of ATR

A: ATR-D    B: ATR-N

Data shown is the average concentration of triplicates for each time. Error is the standard deviation of the population for each time for the concentration, and 1 minute (0.000694) for the experiment time. Details in annex A.2.2.

Figure 2.3 A shows the evolution of concentrations for the direct photodegradation of ATR. All targeted transformation products besides AMN were detected. The concentration of DIA-OH was always higher than the concentration of DIA. Also, the concentration of ATR-OH diminished between the 45<sup>th</sup> and 80<sup>th</sup> day of photodegradation, and it was the only degradation product to do so, although DEA concentration seemed to flatten around that time as well. This means that ATR-OH was further degraded. Finally, DEDIA's concentration did not reach the detection limit of 0.01 mg/L until the 35th day of photodegradation and always had a low concentration, with a maximum concentration of 0.24 mg/L. Since DEDIA comes from the degradation of DEA and DIA, this was expected. Total mass, or the sum of the concentration of all monitored compounds, was also shown to decrease over time. This could be explained by a degradation of the degradation products, transforming them into other degradation products that were not monitored. See annex A.2.2 for detailed concentrations.

Figure 2.3 B shows the evolution of concentrations for the indirect photodegradation of ATR. DIA and DEA reached their highest concentration at the seventh day of experimentation, and ATR-OH at around the twelfth day of experimentation, then their concentration diminished, probably due to a degradation over time. DEA and DIA had a higher concentration than ATR-OH, meaning that they were the main degradation products, which was not the case for direct photodegradation of ATR. However, their maximum concentration was measured at a different time compared to Figure 2.3 A. Since indirect photodegradation is faster than direct photodegradation, this was expected. DIA-OH seemed to follow the same tendency as DIA, but at a much lower concentration, never above 0.14 mg/L. This was also expected, since ATR-OH was no longer the main degradation product. Finally, DEDIA reached its highest concentration at around the twentieth day, then had its concentration lowered, similar to, but a bit later than the other products. Some form of ammeline was detected at very small concentration for the later stage of degradation, but its retention time (3.8 min) did not match the one from the standard curve (1.3 min), although their spectrums were very similar to each other. Total mass was shown to decrease for indirect photodegradation as well. Its diminution seemed to be quicker than direct photodegradation, probably due to the more diverse degradation pathway, creating more non-monitored degradation products, as well as the more

pronounced and faster degradation of the atrazine, reaching around 99% degradation of ATR after 40 days compared to the around 80% degradation of ATR in direct photodegradation after 80 days. See annex A.2.2 for detailed concentrations.

The nontargeted analyses of ATR gave us more information about the other degradation products found during this experiment. Although the exact concentration could not be measured, two compounds, namely 6-amino-4-acetamido-2-chloro-s-triazine (CDAT) and deethylhydroxyatrazine (DEA-OH), were found at relatively high concentration during these analyses. These compounds could be analyzed in targeted concentration analysis in further studies. Traces of 4-acetamido-2-chloro-6-ethylamino-s-triazine (CDET), 4-acetamido-2-chloro-6-isopropylamino-s-triazine (CDIT) and ammelide (OOAT) were also found. Since a lot of non-monitored degradation products were found, especially CDAT and DEA-OH which were found at relatively high concentrations, the diminution of total mass shown in figure 2.3 made sense, especially for figure 2.3 B, since DEA-OH is expected to be a degradation product made from the degradation of DEA, one of the major degradation products of ATR in indirect photodegradation. See annex A.2.4 for more information. CDAT, CDET, CDIT and OOAT are the abbreviation used in Torrents et al. (1997).

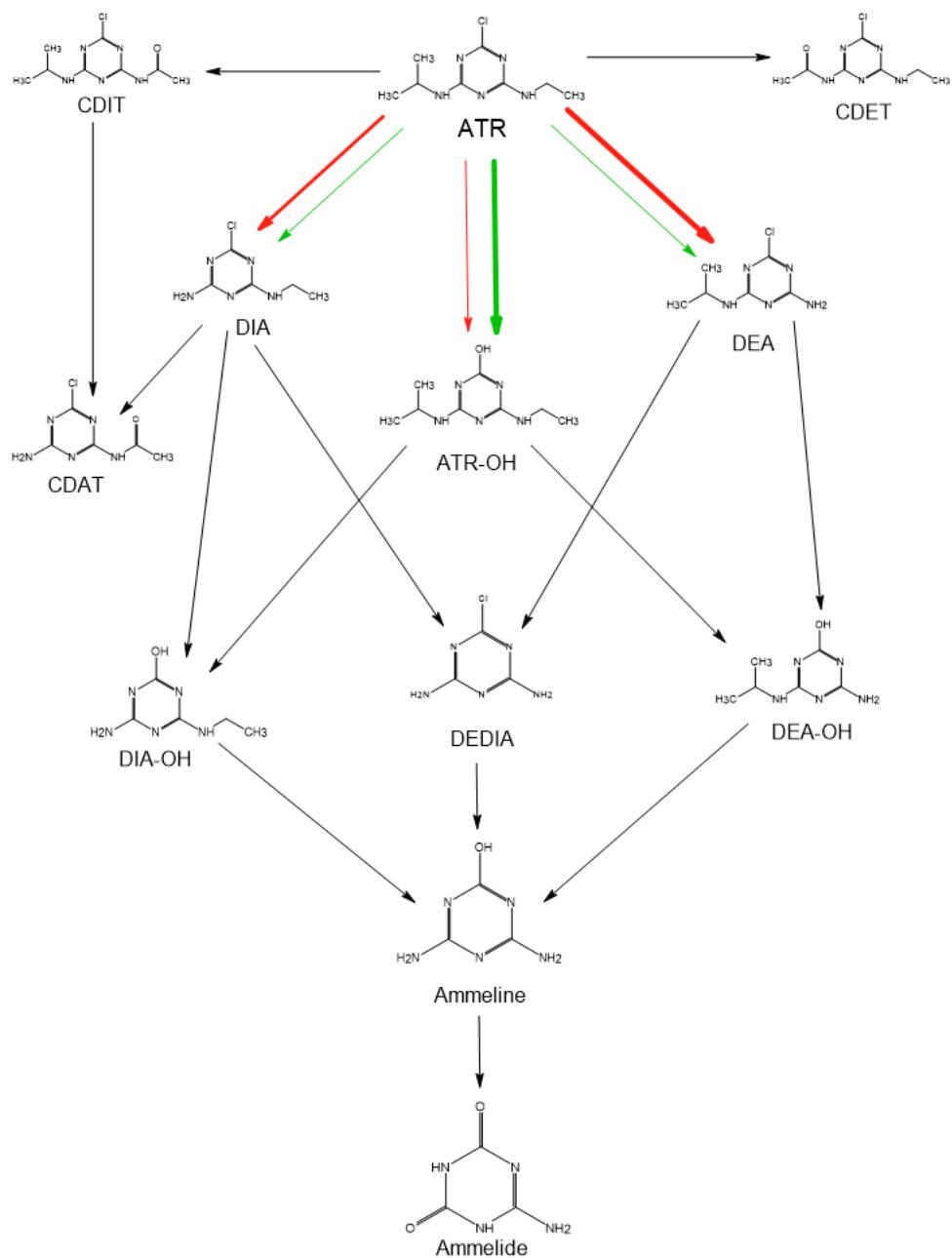


Figure 2.4: Degradation pathway of ATR

Modified from Torrents et al (1997)

Figure 2.4 shows the theoretical degradation pathways taken by ATR for both direct and indirect photodegradation based on the degradation products found and previous literature (Torrents et al. 1997). To demonstrate the difference between the direct (green) and indirect (red) first photodegradation products created, different arrow sizes were used. The bigger the arrow is, the higher the concentration of those first photodegradation products were found for that experiment.

Figure 2.4 shows the theoretical degradation pathways for ATR in both direct and indirect photodegradation based on the degradation products found (see figure 2.3). However, it did not perfectly match what Torrents et al. found in their research. They concluded that ATR-OH was the only degradation product for the direct photodegradation of ATR, while figure 2.3 A shows a small concentration of DEA and DIA, both indirect degradation products in their research. However, the concentrations of DEA and DIA were really small compared to ATR-OH, which corroborates the results of what Torrents and al. found in 1997. The higher concentration of DIA-OH compared to DIA in Figure 2.3 A must come from the degradation of ATR-OH and DIA to DIA-OH. Since ATR-OH was at a very high concentration compared to DIA, it seemed reasonable that its degradation products were at a higher concentration. This could be verified in a future study focusing on the photodegradation of ATR-OH under simulated sunlight, where the concentration of DIA and DIA-OH would be monitored.

Indirect photodegradation seemed to follow what Torrents et al. described in their article, which was a degradation of ATR principally consisting of DEA and DIA. Based on their study, the indirect photodegradation of atrazine by the OH radicals emitted by the photoexcitation of nitrate cannot create ATR-OH as a photodegradation product. Thus, the small amount of ATR-OH found in their study and in figure 2.3 B was due to the direct photodegradation component of the indirect photodegradation. Total mass was shown to decrease for all photodegradation experiments. This was expected, since not all degradation products were monitored, as shown with the nontargeted analyses (see annex A.2.4), meaning that some of these degradation products must be found at higher concentration for high experimentation time. This made sense with the theorised degradation pathway taken shown in figure 2.4.

For MET, no degradation products except a small amount of MET-OH were found (see annex A.2.3). The most probable explanation is that all degradation products were either too polar for the column or are not ionized enough to be detected. If products were too polar, it would explain why they were not retained by the column used (Agilent Zorbax Eclipse C18). This was confirmed by the nontargeted analyses, where, again, the only degradation product found

was MET-OH in small amount. Also, concentrations of MET-OH did not increase as the degradation progressed, showing a potential degradation of that product as well. While MET-OA could be found in some photodegradation experiments (Drouin et al. 2021), MET-ESA is only commonly found in degradation in presence of sulfur, such as biodegradation (Torrentó et al. 2021). Since this was not the case for this study's experiments, its absence conformed to the theory. See annex A.2.4 for more information.

This result did not concord with the literature. For instance, three articles (Dimou et al. 2005, Coffinet et al. 2012, Nicol et al. 2015) focused on the photodegradation of MET, identified some degradation products. However, these articles used a different analysis method than the one used in this study. Coffinet and al found the most products, with 15 main degradation products, but their analysis was made in a GC-MS. Of these 15 products, seven compounds corresponded to a loss of chlorine and an addition of a hydroxyl group, which is possible since the OH addition can occur on eight sites. Dimou et al. (2005) also did their analyses on a GC-MS and found six degradation products for the direct photodegradation of MET, the main degradation product being 4-(2-Ethyl-6-methylphenyl)-5-methyl-3-morpholinone, while nine main degradation products were found for the indirect photodegradation in presence of nitrate. The authors said that both hydroxylated and dealkylated products could be formed during photodegradation experiments, and their results showed that dealkylated products were more commonly formed for both direct and indirect photodegradation. Finally, Nicol and al. made their analysis using a LC-MS, more specifically a model 2690 liquid chromatography module from Waters coupled to a QTOF Premier instrument equipped with a Z-spray electrospray source (Waters, Saint Quentin-en-Yvelines, France) with a Pursuit XR Ultra analytical column (2.8 µm C18 50 × 2.0 mm; Varian, Les Ulis, France). They also did three scans, a full scan in V-mode, a full scan in W-mode and an MS/MS scan. They found 10 products, all of them having lost their chlorine atom. The authors also noted that “transformation products seem to result mainly from hydroxy- additions”, which is similar to what Coffinet et al found. Based on the results in annex A.2.4, the MET-OH found could be one of the 8 form described in the study of Coffinet et al., with other degradation products not being retained on the column used.

However, Drouin et al (2021) had similar results to what was found in this study. They identified four degradation products (MET OA, metolachlor CGA 37735, CGA 50267 and MET-G<sup>46</sup>), mostly from their UV direct photodegradation experiment. They found that monochromatic UV light had a wider degradation pathway than simulated sunlight and speculated that the transformation products found came from the degradation of first generation of degradation products. They also measured MET-OH, MET-OA and MET-ESA. MET-OH and MET-ESA were not found, speculating that the first was further degraded and the second was never created since it was not a degradation product of either hydrolysis nor photodegradation. They stated that if MET-ESA was found, it would have been an indicator of biodegradation. But, unlike this study, they observed MET-OA in their direct photodegradation under simulated sunlight and in their indirect photodegradation with dissolved organic matter (DOM), but not in their indirect photodegradation experiment with nitrate. They hypothesized that the nonselective OH radicals created by the nitrates favored the fast degradation of MET-OA, thus explaining its absence in that experiment, but that the excited DOM and direct sunlight could lead to its creation. Their analyses were made with on a Dionex Ultimate 3000 liquid chromatography (Thermo Scientific, USA) coupled to an Impact-II (Bruker, Germany) Q-TOF, with a C18 column (Acclaim TM RSLC 120 C18, 2.2 µm 120 A 2.1×100 mm, Dionex bonded silica products).

The metolachlor concentration analyses made in this study should be revised. The column used could not detect most of the degradation products created during both direct and indirect photodegradation, making it impossible to see if they have the same degradation pathway. A change of the column should be made for further research on this subject. The use of an LC-MS instead of a GC-MS to monitor the degradation products should also be considered, especially if the expected degradation products created are polar, since LC-MS is more adapted to detect polar compounds than GC-MS.

Analyses of selected anions, namely chloride, nitrate, and nitrite, was also made. Theoretically, the chloride ion concentration should raise following the degradation of both MET and ATR, since the -OH product is created by replacing the chlorine inside the pesticide

with a hydroxyl group. The nitrate concentration should be null in the direct photodegradation experiments and around 10 ppm for all indirect photodegradation experiments, except for a potential nitrite creation, in which case the sum of those 2 ions should always be the same. See annex A.2.5 for more information.

The chloride ion analyses showed a general trend of its concentration increasing with degradation for all samples. For indirect photodegradation experiments, the amount of nitrate stayed relatively stable, around 10 mg/L. When detected, the nitrite concentration is always around 0.7 mg/L, which comes from the reduction of nitrate by sunlight (Moore B. 1918).

#### 2. 4. 4. Compound Specific Isotope Analysis (CSIA)

##### 2. 4. 4. 1. Carbon isotopes

To show the carbon (C) isotope evolution throughout the degradation, a Rayleigh diagram is used.

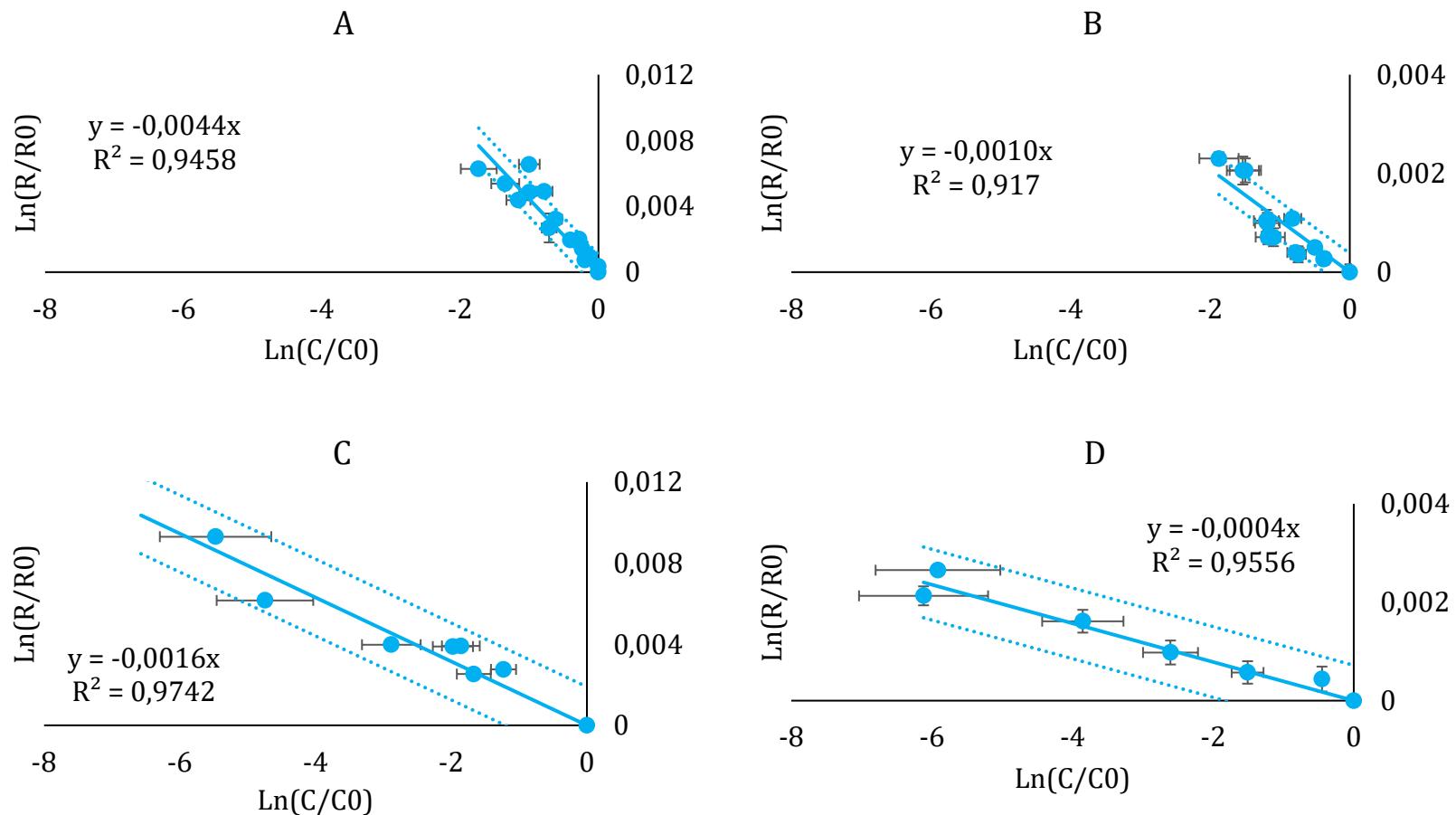


Figure 2. 5: Rayleigh Diagrams of C isotope

A: ATR-D      B: MET-D      C: ATR-N      D: MET-N

The slope of that diagram corresponds to a thousandth of the isotopic enrichment factor of the reaction. The validity of that diagram is verified through a student test (95%), represented with dotted line of the diagrams. The Y error corresponds to the standard deviation of the average, while the X error is the same as the concentration (15%). Details in annex A.2.6.

Figure 2.5 shows the carbon isotopes fractionation for the direct and indirect photodegradation of ATR and MET. For ATR-D (A), the enrichment factor for C isotope was negative and equal to  $\varepsilon_C = -4.4 \pm 0.6\text{\textperthousand}$ . For ATR-N (C), the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_C = -1.6 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$ . For MET-D (B), the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_C = -1.0 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$ . For MET-N (D), the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_C = -0.4 \pm 0.1\text{\textperthousand}$ .

In previous studies, it was observed that direct photodegradation had a more pronounced isotopic effect than indirect photodegradation (Hartenbach et al. 2008, Drouin et al. 2021). While this remained true, the results in this study contrasted with what was found in the literature for carbon isotopes. Hartenbach et al. found a fractionation factor for carbon of  $+4.60\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.31\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct photodegradation of ATR under UV light (254 nm), but a negative fractionation factor of  $-0.52\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.22\text{\textperthousand}$  for the indirect photodegradation of ATR. Drouin et al. found a fractionation factor of  $+2.7\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.3\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct photodegradation of ATR under UV light (254 nm), and a non-significant fractionation factor for the direct photodegradation under sunlight and indirect photodegradation of ATR. They also found a fractionation factor of  $+0.8\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.1\text{\textperthousand}$  for the direct photodegradation of MET under UV light (254 nm), and a non-significant fractionation factor for the direct photodegradation under simulated sunlight and indirect photodegradation of MET.

Isotopic enrichment factors found in this study were negative (normal), which is unexpected, since all known literature had a positive (inverse) or nonsignificant fractionation factor for these reactions for these pesticides, except for the indirect photodegradation of ATR under UV light. This difference might be due to the type of light used. While other studies used UV light or imitated solar light with some UV light for their experiment, this study used a light that imitated the solar radiation, with little UV light able to degrade the pesticides, meaning that most of this photodegradation came from the visible light. Since the energy transmitted from the light to the pesticides came from a different wavelength, this might be the cause for the different  $\varepsilon_C$  measurements between this study and previous studies.

This study showed that direct photodegradation had a bigger fractionation factor than indirect photodegradation. Based on what Hartenbach and al. found in their study, the normal  $^{13}\text{C}$  fractionation must have come from the hydrolysis step leading to hydroxyatrazine, “since the C-Cl bond is expected to cause normal isotope fractionation for C”. In their study, they believed that the inverse isotope effect was caused by a state of excitation of the atrazine before the cleavage of that C-Cl bond. However, this excitation might not be possible in this study’s case since no UV light was used, thus the amount of energy received by the ATR was much lower than what was received in both Hartenbach et al.’s and Drouin et al.’s studies. For indirect photodegradation, formation of DIA and DEA was much higher than ATR-OH, thus the normal isotopic effect came from the separation of the ethyl or the isopropyl group creating DEA and DIA instead of the separation of the Cl atom creating ATR-OH (Elsner et al. 2016, Drouin et al. 2021). These separations caused a lesser isotopic shift than the cleavage of the C-Cl bond observed in direct photodegradation, making the overall isotopic shift of indirect photodegradation lower than direct photodegradation.

For MET, since no degradation product was identified except one form of MET-OH, it was much more difficult to understand the mechanism responsible for the isotopic fractionation. However, the cleavage of the C-Cl bond was known to have occurred for both direct and indirect photodegradation experiments. This cleavage was responsible for the isotopic fractionation measured in this study. However, the isotopic fractionation measured was probably dampened by two effects. The first effect might have come from the molecular composition. Since MET has 14 carbon atoms, but only one was reacting, an isotopic mask effect could be seen. Since all carbon atoms in the molecule are measured for the isotopic composition, an isotopic shift on only one of those atoms would appear smaller on a bigger molecule than a smaller one, masking the isotopic shift of the reactive site. The second effect might have come from the structure of the molecule. Since the reactive site was on the furthest point away from the aromatic ring, where most of the carbon atoms of the molecule were, the isotopic shift measured would appear smaller (Douin et al. 2021). The reason why indirect photodegradation has a smaller isotopic effect than direct photodegradation might be for a similar reason than ATR’s, which was more diverse possible degradation pathways,

where some mechanisms had different fractionation factor, and when all taken together, the measured total fractionation factor of MET-N was smaller than MET-D. Since no degradation products beside MET-OH were able to be observed, it should be noted that other degradation pathways not involving the cleavage of the C-Cl bond could exist in both the direct and indirect photodegradation of MET, thus explaining a seemingly overall lower carbon isotopic shift.

#### 2. 4. 4. 2. Chlorine isotopes

Although Cl isotopes were measured for other degradation reactions of ATR and MET before (Ponsin et al, 2019, Lihl et al. 2020, Torrentó et al. 2021), they were never measured for the photodegradation reaction of these pesticides. As observed in those studies, the degradation that replaces the chloride atom to a hydroxyl group is expected to cause a large isotopic shift for these pesticides. Since one of the photodegradation products is created from that transformation, namely ATR-OH and MET-OH, a strong isotopic shift is expected.

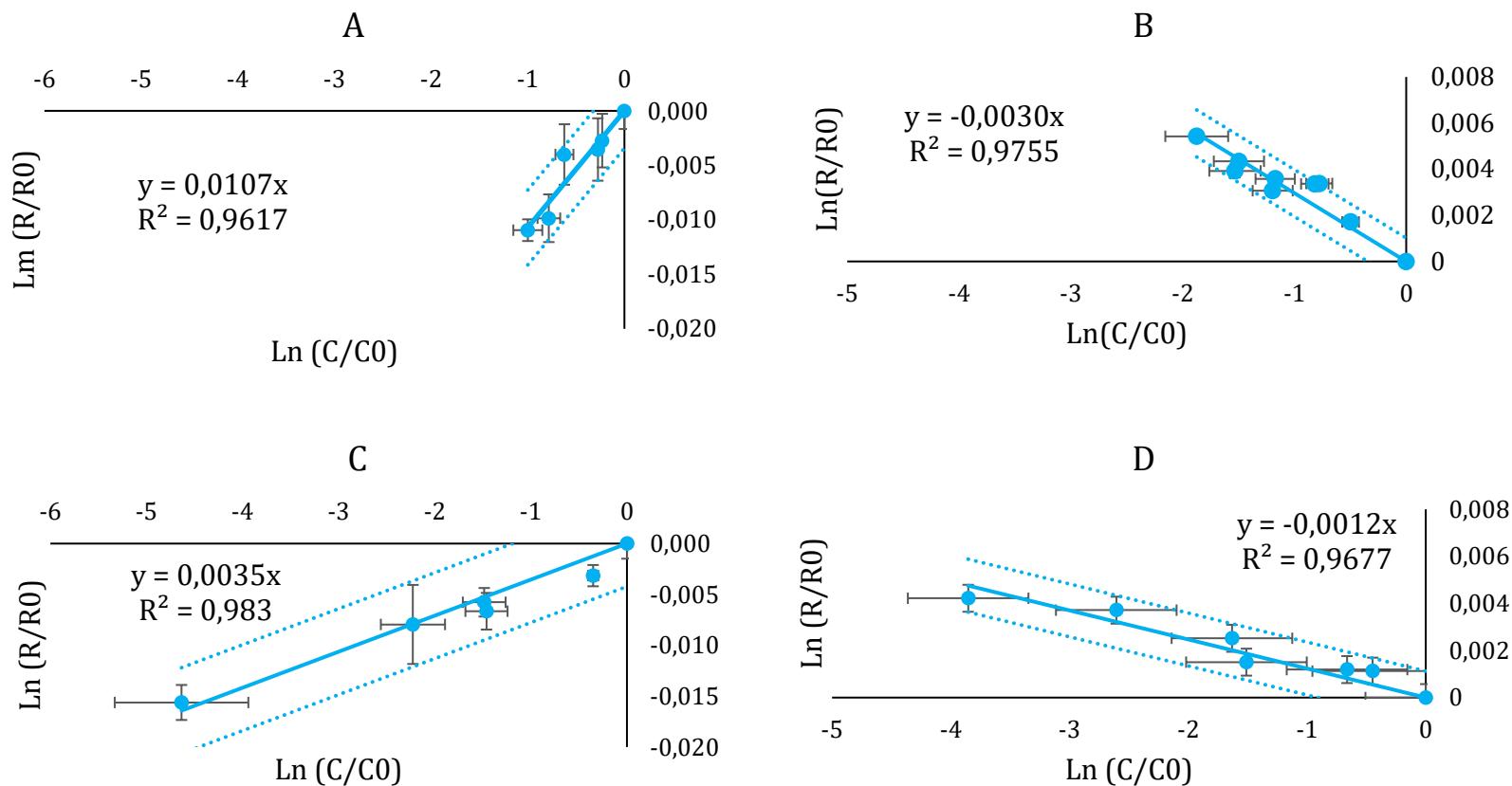


Figure 2. 6: Rayleigh Diagram of Cl isotope

A: ATR-D      B: MET-D      C: ATR-N      D: MET-N

The slope of that diagram corresponds to a thousandth of the isotopic enrichment factor of the reaction. The validity of that diagram is verified through a student test (95%), represented with dotted line of the diagrams. The Y error corresponds to the standard deviation of the average, while the X error is the same as the concentration (15%). Details in annex A.2.7.

As shown on figure 2.6, the enrichment factor for Cl isotope of ATR-D was  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = 10.7 \pm 2.5\%$ . For ATR-N, the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = 3.5 \pm 0.5\%$ . For MET-D, the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = -3.0 \pm 0.4\%$ . And for MET-N, the enrichment factor was  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = -1.2 \pm 0.2\%$ . Since the two most common isotopes of Cl are  $^{35}\text{Cl}$  and  $^{37}\text{Cl}$ , the  $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$  and the  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}}$  of each experiment were measured with the most abundant molar mass and a molar mass of 2 higher. For ATR, the most abundant molar mass is 200, but an ATR containing one isotope of  $^{37}\text{Cl}$  instead of  $^{35}\text{Cl}$  would have a molar mass of 202. For MET, those mass are 238 and 240 respectively. However, the difference of mass is not always caused by the presence of  $^{37}\text{Cl}$ , but possibly two  $^{13}\text{C}$  atom,  $^{15}\text{N}$  atom, a combination of  $^{13}\text{C}$  and  $^{15}\text{N}$  or one  $^{18}\text{O}$  atom in the case of MET. The enrichment factors were not corrected for these possibilities. The presence of  $^{15}\text{N}$  and  $^{18}\text{O}$  has a negligible impact for the  $^{37}\text{Cl}$  values due to their very low abundances, thus only the presence of  $^{13}\text{C}$  should be accounted for. For the ATR values, based on the study of Ponsin et al. (2019), the  $^{13}\text{C}$  correction fell within the uncertainty range and was thus unnecessary. For MET, Ponsin et al measured an offset of  $-0.46\%$  for a difference of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of 10, thus the non-corrected values could lead to an overestimation of the fractionation. However, the maximum difference of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  is much smaller for both direct ( $2.2\%$ ) and indirect ( $5.3\%$ ) photodegradation experiment. For those values, the correction for the values of  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}}$  would be lower than the 95% uncertainty and was thus deemed unnecessary for these experiments.

ATR chlorine isotopic shift was inverse for both direct and indirect photodegradation. This fractionation was unique compared to the results found in other studies. Both biodegradation reactions studied in the article of Lihl et al. (2020) and the hydrolysis in the article of Torrentó et al. (2021) had a normal (negative) fractionation factor. Since the Cl isotopes were not measured in other studies focusing on the photodegradation of ATR, the value could not be compared, but the inverse fractionation factor could lead to a simple way to identify the photodegradation of ATR compared to other degradation mechanisms. Since direct photodegradation primarily created ATR-OH and removed the Cl atom, the high fractionation factor measured seemed reasonable since the only Cl atom in the molecule was involved in the reaction mechanisms. Indirect photodegradation involved a wider variety of

degradation mechanisms leading to different transformation products, and the substitution of the chlorine atom for a hydroxyl group was much less prominent than for the direct photodegradation, thus a lower, yet still positive fractionation, seemed reasonable as well.

The positive isotopic fractionation was caused by the faster degradation of molecules containing heavier isotopes ( $^{37}\text{Cl}$ ) instead of the lighter one ( $^{35}\text{Cl}$ ), which was unexpected since heavier isotopes tend to create stronger bonds. However, the light used in this study had only a small UV component, meaning that only a fraction of the light's energy could be transferred to the ATR. As stated in Hartenbach et al. (2008) study, this energy could be enough to excite the molecule, while restraining its relaxation before the cleavage of the C-Cl bond. This would mean that lighter isotopes would be able to recombine before the cleavage, while heavier isotopes, which require more energy to recombine, would still be in that excited state during the cleavage, causing the isotopic shift. As for the normal isotopic effect observed for the C isotopes, there could be two explanations. The first is that the expected normal isotopic effect of the cleavage of the C-Cl bond is stronger on the C isotopes than the Cl isotopes, thus masking the inverse effect of the relaxation. The second is that the  $^{13}\text{C}$ - $^{35}\text{Cl}$  bond is easier to create than the  $^{12}\text{C}$ - $^{37}\text{Cl}$  bond, thus heavier C isotopes have the time to recombine while the Cl isotopes cannot. A combination of those two factors is probably the most realistic scenario and could explain why this study had a normal isotopic effect for C while the literature (Hartenbach et al. 2008, Drouin et al. 2021) had an inverse or no significant effect for that isotope. Since they used UV light instead of simulated natural light, they transmitted more energy to the molecule, thus exciting and relaxing the molecule more, making it possible to cleave the  $^{13}\text{C}$  before it had time to recombine with the  $^{35}\text{Cl}$ . The study of Drouin et al. (2021) also did an experiment of direct photodegradation in simulated sunlight using a different XE lamp with slightly more UV emission. They found a nonsignificant carbon fractionation factor, which can be explained with this hypothesis. Since the molecule is slightly more excited than in this study, yet not as excited as when they were using UV light, the fractionation factor fell between the two, which could be interpreted as no significant change. However, further research should be done on this subject to explore other potential causes.

Compared to ATR, MET results were much more alike to what was found in the literature, especially with the biodegradation in soil made by Torrentó et al. (2021). They found a fractionation factor  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}}$  of  $-3.3\text{\textperthousand} \pm 1.6\text{\textperthousand}$ , similar to this study's MET-D  $-3.0\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.4\text{\textperthousand}$ . Since the fractionation factors are similar, this could mean that the same degradation mechanism, which is a cleavage of the C–Cl bond by S<sub>N</sub>2 nucleophilic substitution, occurred for both the biodegradation in soil and the direct photodegradation. However, the abiotic hydrolysis found in the study of Torrentó et al. (2021) created a pronounced fractionation factor of  $-6.5\text{\textperthousand} \pm 0.7\text{\textperthousand}$ , which was still smaller than the one found in Ponsin et al. (2019) for a similar reaction, with a fractionation factor of  $-9.7\text{\textperthousand} \pm 2.9\text{\textperthousand}$ . Both articles correlated the high fractionation factor to their concentration of MET-OH, since the cleavage of the C–Cl bond was the main cause for Cl fractionation.

The lower fractionation for the biodegradation experiments in the article of Torrentó et al. (2021) was explained by the fact that the main degradation products of biodegradation in soil were MET-OA and MET-ESA, while MET-OH was found with a trace concentration. Since different degradation mechanisms were responsible for the degradation of MET, and they each have a different isotopic effect, the strong isotopic effect of the degradation of MET to MET-OH could be damped by the lesser isotopic effect of the degradation to other degradation products. Since this study only found a small concentration of MET-OH and no other degradation product could be measured, it can be assumed that other degradation pathway must dominate the photodegradation, thus a smaller fractionation factor than the one expected for the creation of MET-OH alone was measured.

For both ATR and MET, direct photodegradation had a more pronounced fractionation factor on C and Cl compared to the indirect photodegradation. This was largely attributed to the difference of mechanisms responsible for the degradation, resulting in more diverse degradation pathways for indirect photodegradation with more possible degradation products formed and how they were transformed, confirmed for ATR and speculated for MET. This means that for a similar degradation level, direct photodegradation will fractionate more than indirect photodegradation for C and Cl isotopes. However, looking only at the isotopic shift

for both reactions, it seemed both C and Cl isotopes shifted in a similar manner for both direct and indirect photodegradation. This also means that using only C and Cl isotopes, direct and indirect photodegradation of ATR and MET cannot be distinguished.

This might also indicate that a single reaction was responsible for the isotopic shift during the photodegradation of ATR and MET. Based on the work of Drouin et al. (2021), they found that the indirect photodegradation of these pesticides had a nonsignificant carbon isotopic shift. This could mean that, other than the direct photodegradation, which is supposed to have a high isotopic shift in C and Cl due to the breaking of the C-Cl bond (Elsner et al. 2016), other reactions had a nonsignificant effect on the isotopic shift. This hypothesis seemed to correlate to this study's results, which indicates that the other degradation pathways taken during the indirect photodegradation "diluted" the fractionation factor of the direct photodegradation for a similar degradation level between direct and indirect photodegradation. Basically, the creation of an N-hydroxyl degradation products resulting of the cleavage of the C-Cl bond, which was the main degradation pathway taken during direct photodegradation of both herbicides, was the main contributor to the isotopic shift of both C and Cl isotopes for the direct and indirect photodegradation of ATR and MET, making the direct photodegradation the drive of the isotopic fractionation.

#### 2. 4. 4. 3. Multi-element-CSIA

Significantly different slopes, calculated with a two-tailed Z-test in Excel, means that the degradation mechanisms can be distinguished. Details are given in annex A.2.8.

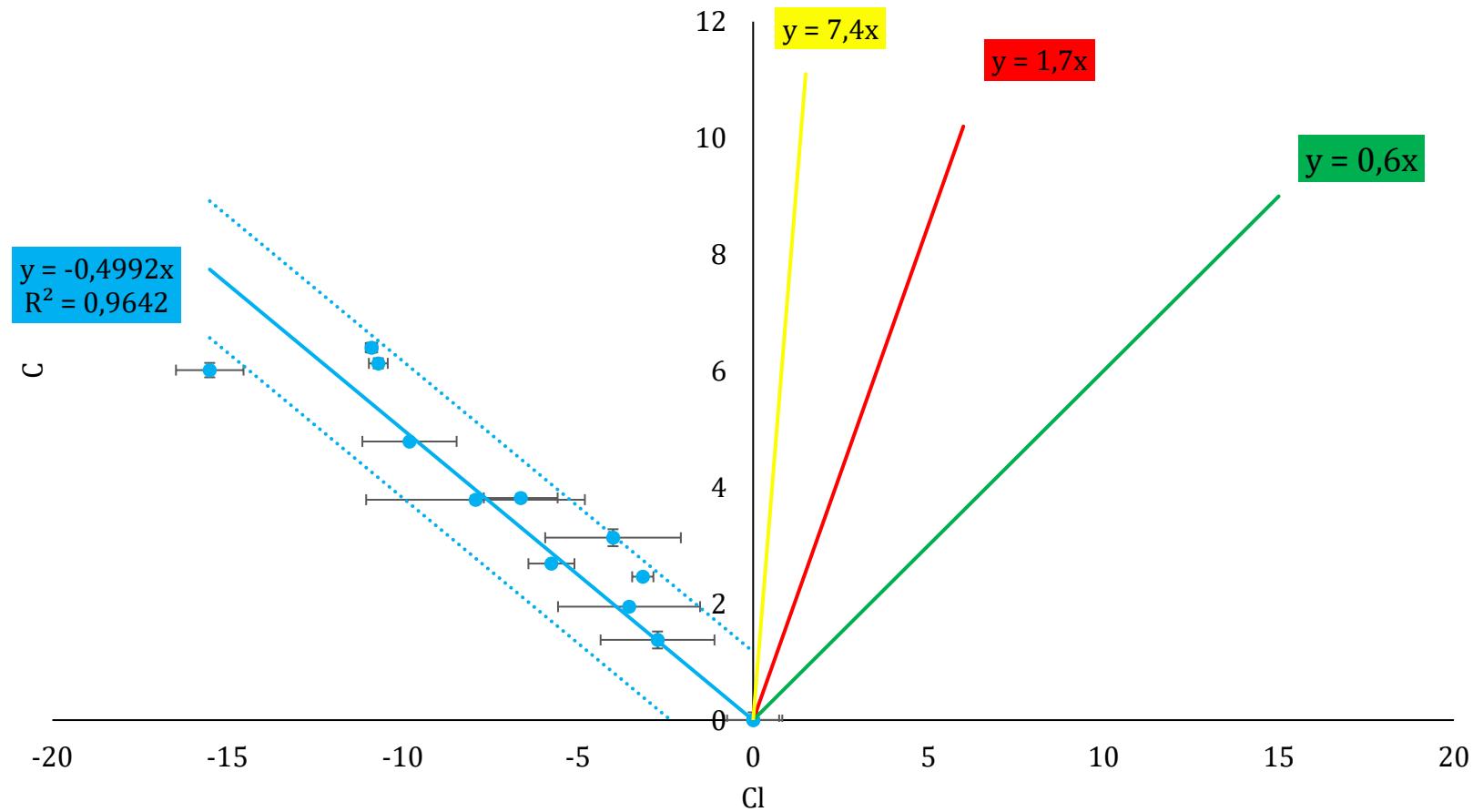


Figure 2. 7: Dual plot isotope diagram Cl-C comparison for ATR

Y axis corresponds to the difference of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and X axis corresponds to the difference of  $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ . The error (X and Y) corresponds to the standard deviation of the average. Photodegradation reactions were grouped together in blue. Other lines represent other reaction taken from the literature. The red and green lines represent respectively the biotic hydrolysis and biotic oxidative dealkylation, taken from Lihl et al. (2020). The yellow line represents the abiotic hydrolysis, taken from Torrentó et al. (2021). Dotted lines represent the 95% confidence interval calculated with a Student test.

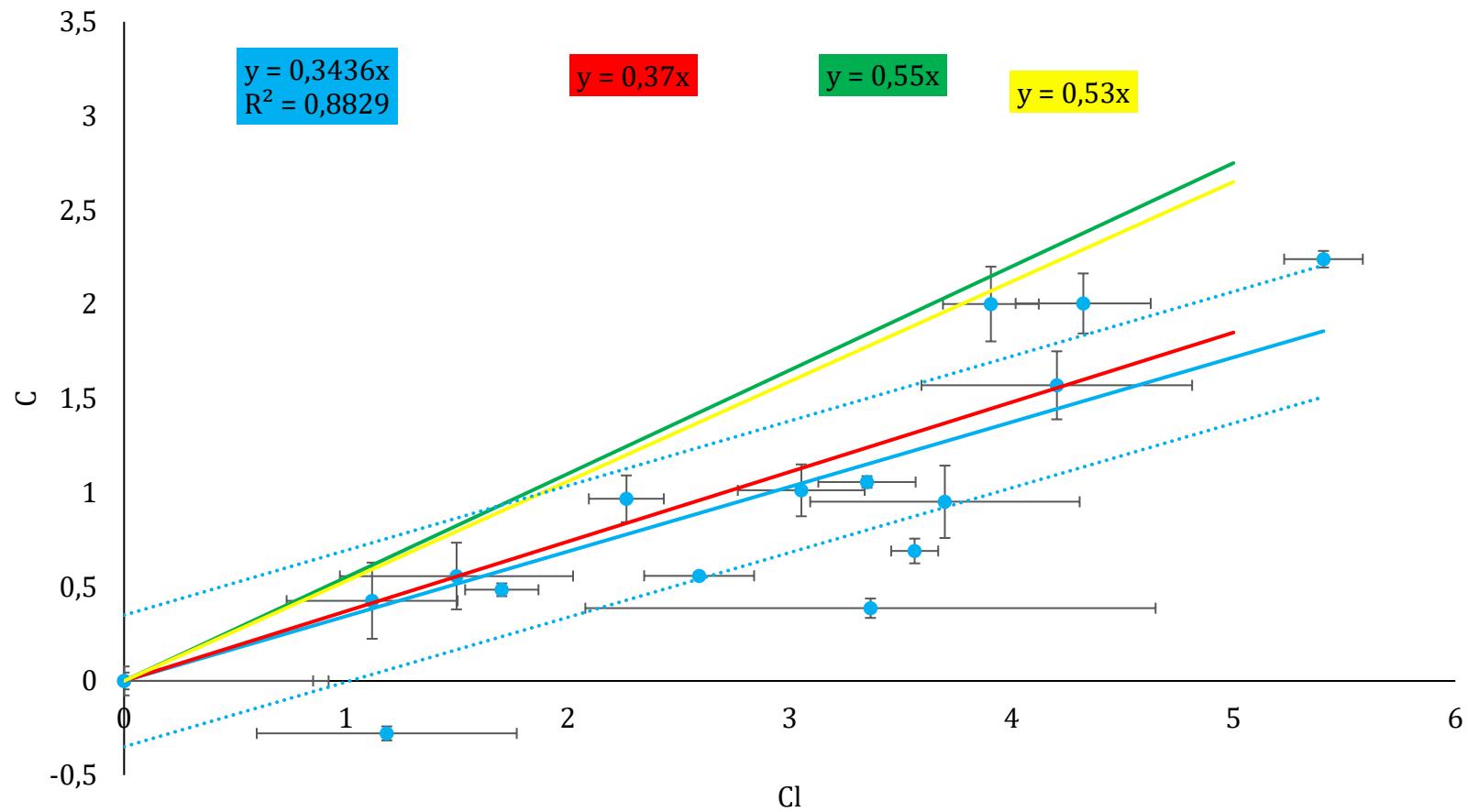


Figure 2.8: Dual plot isotope diagram Cl-C comparison for MET

Y axis corresponds to the difference of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and X axis corresponds to the difference of  $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ . The error (X and Y) corresponds to the standard deviation of the average. Photodegradation reactions were grouped together in blue. Other lines represent other reaction taken from the literature. The red line represents the abiotic hydrolysis, taken from Ponsin et al. (2019). The green and yellow lines represent respectively the abiotic hydrolysis and the soil biodegradation, taken from Torrentó et al. (2021). Dotted lines represent the 95% confidence interval calculated with a Student test.

Table 2. 6: Summary of isotopic enrichment factors

| Experiment | $\varepsilon_C (\text{\textperthousand})$ | $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | $\Lambda_{C/\text{Cl}} (\text{\textperthousand})$ |
|------------|---|---|---|
| ATR-D      | -4.4 ± 0.6                                | 10.7 ± 2.5  | -0.5 ± 0.1  |
| ATR-N      | -1.6 ± 0.2                                | 3.5 ± 0.5   |   |
| MET-D      | -1.0 ± 0.2                                | -3.0 ± 0.4  | 0.34 ± 0.1  |
| MET-N      | -0.4 ± 0.1                                | -1.2 ± 0.2  |   |

All Rayleigh diagrams and dual-isotope plots slopes were summarized in Table 2.6. Two-tailed z test showed that direct and indirect photodegradation for both pesticides are similar, thus CSIA could not distinguish between these two reactions. As shown in figure A6 and A7 (see annex A.2.8), both lines are very similar and the 95% confidence interval often overlap, more so for MET than ATR. This result was expected, since the same mechanism, the one observed in direct photodegradation, is responsible for the degradation of both direct and indirect photodegradation. Since both photodegradation reactions are not statistically different, they were pooled together, with a slope ( $\Lambda_{C/\text{Cl}}$ ) of  $-0.50 \pm 0.06\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $0.34 \pm 0.07\text{\textperthousand}$  for ATR (figure 2.7) and MET (figure 2.8) respectively. Other reactions were taken from literature, more specifically from Ponsin et al. (2019) which were the first to test the possibility of chlorine isotope analysis on ATR, from Lihl et al. (2020), who measured the chlorine isotopic shift for some biodegradation reactions of ATR, and from Torrentó et al. (2021), who measured the isotopic shift of C, N and Cl for the abiotic hydrolysis reaction of ATR and MET, as well as the soil biodegradation of MET.

Compared to the literature, the photodegradation of ATR can easily be distinguished since it was the only known reaction to have an inverse chlorine isotopic shift. In absolute value, it also had the smallest slope, meaning that for a same carbon isotopic shift, it would have the biggest chlorine isotopic shift of all studied degradation mechanisms, thus a very strong chlorine fractionation. This means that a recorded inverse chlorine fractionation of ATR in surface waters could indicate the predominance of photodegradation over other important degradation reactions, such as hydrolysis or biodegradation.

MET, however, cannot be distinguished from the abiotic hydrolysis mechanism with only the C and Cl isotopes, since its slope is too similar from the one found in Ponsin et al. (2019) study. This means that the mechanism responsible for the photodegradation of MET is the same as the one responsible for its abiotic degradation, which could be a cleavage of the C-Cl bond by a S<sub>N</sub>2 reaction. If the degradation mechanisms were different, it could be confirmed with the analysis of other isotopes, like N.

## 2. 5. CONCLUSION AND OUTLOOK

In conclusion, the degradation kinetics of the photodegradation of ATR and MET under simulated sunlight were slower than what was found in the literature, with a half-life of  $36.67 \pm 2.70$  days and  $6.16 \pm 0.90$  days for the direct and indirect photodegradation of ATR and  $21.26 \pm 2.61$  days and  $4.84 \pm 0.71$  days for the direct and indirect photodegradation of MET respectively. The degradation products of ATR matched what was described in Torrents et al (1997), which is a predominance of ATR-OH for the direct photodegradation and DEA and DIA for the indirect photodegradation. No MET degradation products were found with this method beside MET-OH, which showed signs of further degradation. The fractionation factors of carbon isotopes were higher for direct photodegradation,  $\varepsilon_{C-ATR} = -4.4 \pm 0.6\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $\varepsilon_{C-MET} = -1.0 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$ , than indirect photodegradation,  $\varepsilon_{C-ATR} = -1.6 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $\varepsilon_{C-MET} = -0.4 \pm 0.1\text{\textperthousand}$ . The fractionation factors of the chlorine isotopes are similar in that regard, with  $\varepsilon_{Cl-ATR} = +10.7 \pm 2.5\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $\varepsilon_{Cl-MET} = -3.0 \pm 0.4\text{\textperthousand}$  for direct photodegradation and  $\varepsilon_{Cl-ATR} = +3.5 \pm 0.5\text{\textperthousand}$  and  $\varepsilon_{Cl-MET} = -1.2 \pm 0.2\text{\textperthousand}$  for indirect photodegradation. The dual isotope diagram showed no distinction between direct and indirect photodegradation, potentially showing that direct photodegradation is the driving reaction for the fractionation factor of carbon and chlorine isotopes. The slope for ATR,  $\Lambda_{C/Cl} = -0.50 \pm 0.06\text{\textperthousand}$ , can be easily distinguished from biodegradation and hydrolysis, while MET,  $\Lambda_{C/Cl} = 0.34 \pm 0.07\text{\textperthousand}$ , have a lot of similarities with the slope for abiotic hydrolysis found in literature, implying a similar reaction mechanism.

A major discovery of this study was the positive fractionation factor of the chlorine isotope for the photodegradation of ATR, providing a simple way to identify the photodegradation of ATR in natural environments. However, more elements must be analyzed to potentially distinguish the photodegradation of MET from other degradation mechanisms. Perhaps the analysis of hydrogen or nitrogen could be able to differentiate the photodegradation of metolachlor from other degradation processes. Otherwise, using one of the methods detailed in Dimou et al. (2005), Coffinet et al. (2012), or Nicol et al. (2015), either a different

instrument or chromatography column used, to identify the degradation products of MET could provide more insight on the mechanisms behind the isotopic fractionation.

### CHAPITRE III - CONCLUSION GÉNÉRALE

L'objectif de ce projet d'étude, soit l'identification d'une photodégradation sous lumière naturelle par rapport aux autres processus de dégradation, a été atteint pour l'atrazine, et partiellement atteint pour le métolachlore. À l'aide de la ME-CSIA sur les isotopes du carbone et du chlore, il est possible de distinguer la photodégradation de l'atrazine des autres processus responsables de sa dégradation. Plus précisément, son facteur de fractionnement inverse en chlore,  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = 10,7 \pm 2,5\%$  en photodégradation directe et  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = 3,5 \pm 0,5\%$  en photodégradation indirecte, retrouvé dans aucune autre réaction de dégradation dans la littérature, permet facilement l'identification de la photodégradation en milieu naturel. La pente négative sur le diagramme à 2 isotopes C-Cl,  $\Lambda_{\text{C/Cl}} = -0,50 \pm 0,06\%$ , sont aussi des facteurs pouvant permettre cette identification. L'atrazine a aussi un facteur de fractionnement plus élevé pour la photodégradation directe,  $\varepsilon_{\text{C}} = -4,4 \pm 0,6\%$ , que pour la photodégradation indirecte,  $\varepsilon_{\text{C}} = -1,6 \pm 0,2\%$ . Pour le métolachlore, la pente obtenue sur le graphique Cl-C,  $\Lambda_{\text{C/Cl}} = 0,34 \pm 0,07\%$ , est semblable à celle obtenue pour l'hydrolyse selon l'étude de Ponsin et al. (2019) et Torrentó et al. (2021), ne permettant donc pas de différencier ces 2 réactions. Le métolachlore a, comme l'atrazine, un facteur de fractionnement plus important pour la photodégradation directe,  $\varepsilon_{\text{C}} = -1,0 \pm 0,2\%$  et  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = -3,0 \pm 0,4\%$ , que pour la photodégradation indirecte,  $\varepsilon_{\text{C}} = -0,4 \pm 0,1\%$  et  $\varepsilon_{\text{Cl}} = -1,2 \pm 0,2\%$ . Cela indique que, pour ces 2 pesticides, la photodégradation directe dirige le fractionnement isotopique lors d'une réaction de photodégradation. Aussi, la pente du graphique Cl-C du métolachlore indique que le mécanisme de dégradation en photodégradation serait similaire à celui retrouvé en hydrolyse abiotique. Cependant, si les mécanismes sont différents, l'analyse d'un autre isotope, tel l'azote, pourra potentiellement permettre la distinction entre ces réactions. De plus, les conditions environnementales sont peu propices à l'hydrolyse du métolachlore, car leur pH est neutre ou presque neutre. Il est cependant important de mentionner, bien que le fractionnement isotopique soit dirigé par la photodégradation directe, la photodégradation indirecte est le processus dominant dans les eaux de surface dû à l'abondance de nitrate et autres matières organiques, donc que le fractionnement isotopique mesuré sera plus bas que celui mesuré en laboratoire.

Comme ces pesticides et certains catalyseurs de formation de radicaux, tels les nitrates, sont ubiquistes, et que ces produits et certains produits de dégradation tel l'ATR-OH sont toxiques, il est essentiel de comprendre la dégradation des pesticides à des fins de remédiations. Pour ce faire, un suivi de la concentration de ces composés est essentiel. Il communique des informations sur la quantité de ces polluants, donc sur la qualité de l'eau qu'ils contaminent. Sans ces informations, il serait impossible de déterminer la qualité des cours d'eau et de leur potentielle exposition aux micropolluants. Le suivi communique aussi des informations sur les voies de dégradation prises par les polluants, mais il ne peut pas différencier des voies de dégradation partageant les mêmes produits de dégradation. Si le suivi des concentrations est couplé à d'autres méthodes d'analyses, telle la CSIA, et que les mécanismes de dégradation sont différents malgré les mêmes produits de dégradation, les voies de dégradation empruntées par les pesticides peuvent être identifiées. Ces informations peuvent aider les autorités dans leurs mesures de décontamination ou du suivi de l'atténuation naturelle.

Durant cette étude, d'autres paramètres ont aussi été monitorés. Notamment, le pH, resté stable tout au long des expérimentations, les concentrations des pesticides, ayant un maximum élevé de 20 mg/L pour l'ATR et 50 mg/L pour le MET, et une sélection de leurs produits de dégradation, soit ATR-OH, DEA, DIA, DIA-OH, DEDIA et l'amméline pour l'ATR et MET-OH, MET-OA et MET-ESA pour le MET, et d'anions, dont le chlorure, le nitrate et le nitrite, ont été mesurés. Ces paramètres ont été utilisés afin de s'assurer que la dégradation soit uniquement attribuée à la photodégradation ainsi que fournir des informations supplémentaires, tels les voies de dégradation, soit une formation majoritairement comprise d'ATR-OH pour la photodégradation directe de l'atrazine et de DIA et DEA pour la photodégradation indirecte de l'atrazine, pour que ces produits de dégradation soit ensuite dégradé davantage vers l'amméline.

Un autre résultat important de cette étude est les cinétiques, qui sont beaucoup plus lentes que celles trouvées dans la littérature, soit de  $36,67 \pm 2,70$  jours et  $6,16 \pm 0,90$  jours pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte de ATR respectivement, et  $21,26 \pm 2,61$  jours et  $4,84 \pm$

0,71 jours pour la photodégradation directe et indirecte de MET respectivement. Cette différence de vitesse est attribuée au type de lumière utilisée, car la lumière naturelle dégrade moins bien ces pesticides que la lumière UV, et à la concentration initiale de pesticides, car une plus grande concentration de pesticide entre en compétition pour se dégrader, ralentissant la réaction.

Cette étude a plusieurs limites. Par exemple, le fait que les produits de dégradation du métolachlore ne soient pas retenus par la colonne chromatographique utilisée limite la compréhension des mécanismes de dégradation survenue lors de la photodégradation directe et indirecte du métolachlore. Une modification à la méthode d'analyse des produits de dégradation du métolachlore pourrait être envisagée. Une méthode similaire à Dimou et al. (2005), Coffinet et al. (2012) ou Nicol et al. (2015), utilisant une colonne différente et/ou un instrument différent, pourrait fournir les informations manquantes, car ces articles ont réussi à identifier plusieurs produits de dégradation du MET.

Il reste cependant plusieurs informations à combler. Par exemple, il pourrait être possible de distinguer la photodégradation du métolachlore de son hydrolyse abiotique à l'aide d'autres éléments, tel l'azote, l'oxygène ou l'hydrogène. Si une telle distinction est trouvée, la CSIA pourra être un puissant outil capable d'identifier la photodégradation du MET en milieu naturel, comme elle l'est capable pour l'ATR.

Cela indique aussi que la CSIA pourrait être un outil puissant pour le suivi de la dégradation de pesticides appartenant à la même famille, c'est-à-dire ayant une structure et composition similaire. Par exemple, les résultats de l'atrazine pourraient s'appliquer à la simazine, ou ceux du métolachlore à l'acétochlore, qui sont aussi des pesticides ayant déjà été ou sont encore utilisés dans le monde. Ces herbicides sont similaires à ceux présentés dans l'article, appartenant à la même famille de pesticide, soit ayant une structure et réactivité très similaire, ayant même des produits de transformation similaires. D'ailleurs, l'étude de Torrentó et al. (2021) démontre un fractionnement similaire pour les isotopes du chlore et du carbone pour

l'hydrolyse du métolachlore et de l'acétochlore. Si on suppose un mécanisme de dégradation similaire, peut-être que leur photodégradation aura aussi un fractionnement semblable.

Enfin, un élément important pour la photodégradation non discuté dans cette étude est l'impact de la matière organique. L'impact de la matière organique sur la photodégradation a été étudié dans plusieurs études, y compris Torrents et al. (1997), qui ont démontré des effets accélérant leur photodégradation, car certaines matières organiques peuvent être excité par la lumière et émettre des radicaux, ainsi que des effets la ralentissant, car certaines matières organiques peuvent absorber les radicaux émis par d'autres composés tels les nitrates. Comme la matière organique est omniprésente dans l'eau de surface, il serait pertinent de connaître son impact sur le fractionnement isotopique en carbone, en chlore et en azote sur la photodégradation de l'atrazine et du métolachlore. Il est possible de spéculer que son impact sera sur la création d'autres radicaux capables de dégrader les pesticides, et peut-être une compétition avec ceux-ci pour leur absorption tel que mentionné dans l'étude de Torrents et al. (1997). Les autres radicaux auront probablement un effet différent sur les cinétiques, donc sur le fractionnement isotopique, car les mécanismes de dégradation varient en fonction des radicaux présents.

## **ANNEX A: ARTICLE'S ANNEX**

### **ANNEX A.1. METHODOLOGY SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

#### **Annex A.1.1. Sample preparation method**

Stock solutions were made in a 4L beaker with 2 Liters of Milli-Q ultrapure water. NaOH, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and NaNO<sub>3</sub> were then added to the solution following table A 1 (annexe A.1.2). To avoid solubility problems, herbicides (around 40 mg of ATR and 100 mg of MET) were first mixed with HPLC grade DCM and left under a fume hood for 24h to allow the DCM to evaporate and the solution to be evenly mixed. The solution was then transferred to a 2L glass bottle and kept in the fridge for the rest of the experiments.

Tubes and samples were identified by type of degradation, D for direct photodegradation and N for indirect photodegradation in presence of nitrate, by pesticide, ATR for atrazine and MET for metolachlor, by percentage of theoretical degradation, with a maximum of 99% for indirect photodegradation and 80% for direct photodegradation, and by replicate, numbered 1 to 3. For instance, the second replicate of a theoretical 60% degradation of atrazine in a direct photodegradation experiments would be labelled ATR-D 60-2.

Each degradation percentage and replicate experiment was a different sample, thus required a different tube. Samples were added in the photoreactor (Q-SUN Xe-1-BC Xenon Test Chamber with a radiance of 0,68 W/m<sup>2</sup>) for a predetermined period to achieve a theoretical degradation percentage. Since only 12 tubes could fit inside the Q-Sun, a rotation of four experiments at a time was used. Once the degradation percentage was obtained, the experiments were removed and stored in a glass bottle in a freezer until analysis was required. PH was also measured at the beginning and end of each experiment for each replicate.

#### **Annex A.1.2. Sample preparation**

Table A 1: Experiments mass

| Experiment                           | ATR-D       | MET-D      | ATR-N       | MET-N      |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Starting date                        | 27-09-2021  | 04-11-2021 | 08-03-2022  | 20-04-2022 |
| Pesticide mass                       | 40.000 mg   | 0.1000 g   | 40.004 mg   | 0.0996 g   |
| Starting concentration               | 20.000 mg/L | 50.0 mg/L  | 20.002 mg/L | 49.8 mg/L  |
| NaNO <sub>3</sub> mass               | None        | None       | 27.403 mg   | 27.415 mg  |
| NaOH mass                            | 1.6917 g    | 1.6958 g   | 1.6703 g    | 1.6620 g   |
| KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> mass | 20.4788 g   | 20.4416 g  | 20.4125 g   | 20.4111 g  |
| pH                                   | 6.537       | 6.449      | 6.446       | 6.440      |
| Milli-Q                              | 2.000 L     | 2.000 L    | 2.000 L     | 2.000 L    |

#### Annexe A.1.3. Photoreactor light Spectrum

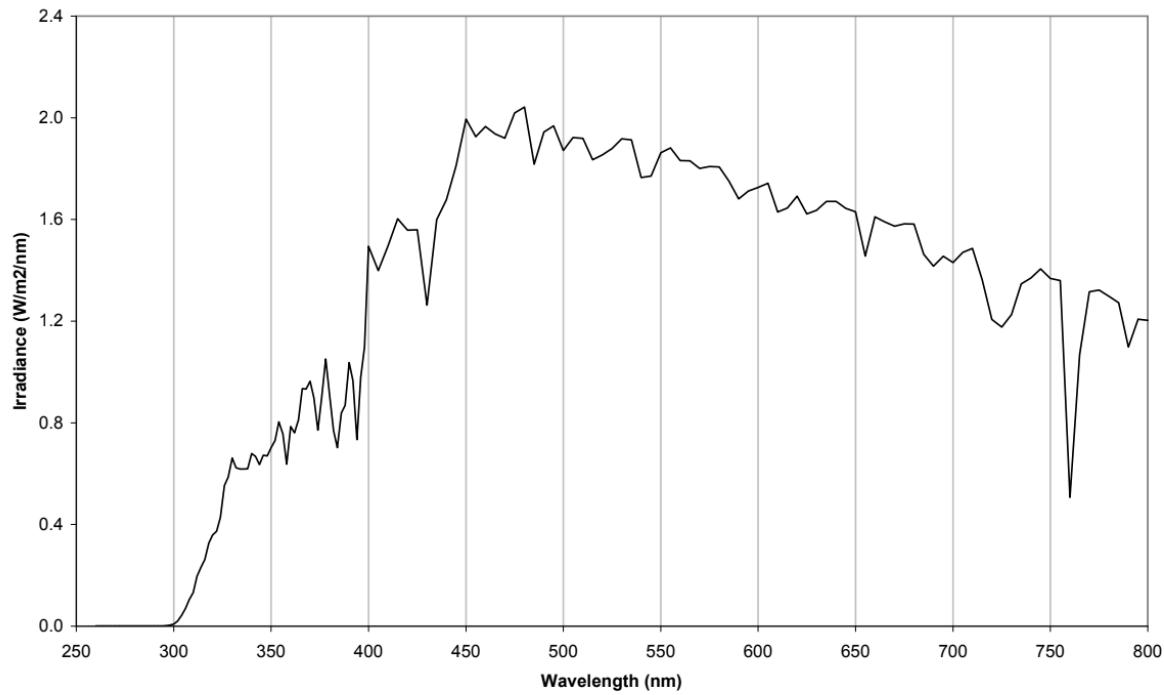


Figure A 1: Photoreactor light spectrum

#### Annex A.1.4. Solvent for concentration analysis calibration curve

Table A 2: Solvent for concentration analysis calibration curve

| Standard  | Solvent                                    |
|-----------|--|
| ATR       | 100% ACN                                   |
| ATR d5    | 100% MeOH                                  |
| ATR-OH    | 75% MeOH, 5% DMSO, 0.2% NH4OH              |
| ATR-OH d5 | 80% MeOH, 5%DMSO, 0.1% NH4OH               |
| DIA       | 100% ACN                                   |
| DIA-OH    | 30% MeOH, 30% acetone, 3% DMSO, 0.1% NH4OH |
| DEA       | 100% ACN                                   |
| AMN       | 100% MeOH                                  |

ACN : acetonitrile

MeOH : methanol

DMSO : Dimethyl Sulfoxide

ATR-OH, ATR-OH d5 and DIA-OH had water added to their solvent to reach 100%.

#### Annex A.1.5. SPE method

After the samples were left in the refrigerator to thaw, a portion of the volume was withdrawn for isotopic analysis. Since CSIA requires a high mass, samples were concentrated using Solid Phase Extraction (SPE). 10 mL of each solution was taken for SPE for most samples, except for ATR-N and MET-N 95 and 99, where most of the remaining sample was taken to accommodate the low concentration of pesticides left.

To perform the SPE experiments, a Resprep 12-port vacuum manifold was used. The pump used was a Pfeiffer model MVP 015-2 with a maximum flow rate of 15 L/min. Samples were collected in 7 mL borosilicate culture tubes supported by a culture tube rack at a rate of maximum 5mL/min. The cartridges used for the samples was the BAKERBOND SDB-1 by Avantor Performance Materials Inc for the ATR samples, and the OASIS PRiME HLB by

Waters corp. for the MET samples. The cartridges choice was based on a previous study (Torrentó et al. 2019).

The Bakerbond cartridges were chosen because they have a high-capacity hydrophobic polymeric adsorbent, useful for separating pesticides from water. They have a 200 mg bedding made of particles ranging in size from 40 to 150 µm. Their pore volume is 0.77 mL/g, and surface area is 915 m<sup>2</sup>/g. The Oasis cartridges also have a 200 mg bedding with both hydrophilic and hydrophobic properties, making them useful for the MET analysis.

The samples were reconstituted in 3 mL of HPLC grade ethyl acetate (ET AC). They were then put 55 minutes at 30C in the Labconco Centrivap for complete evaporation, then were reconstituted for a final concentration of 200 mg/L in ET AC. For the indirect photodegradation samples, the Centrivap could not be used and were evaporated using a continuous 98% nitrogen gas flux.

#### Annex A.1.6. GC-IRMS method

For the carbon isotope analyses, samples were passed in the GC following the temperature program described above. Then, after GC separation, they were heated to 1000°C, then passed through a Pt and Ni thread for oxidation, necessary to transform all carbon to CO<sub>2</sub>.

Caffeine is the principal standard used for C analysis in this study. For the C analysis, the temperature program used in the GC started at 70°C and raise at a rate of 30°C/min until 270°C, then kept that temperature for 3 minutes. 4µL of solution was injected in split 50 mode, and its retention time inside the GC was 514 s.

For the C analysis, two more alkane mixes were used as standards: C12 (n-dodecane) and C16 (n-hexadecane) The temperature program used in the GC started at 50°C and kept its temperature for 1 minute before raising at a rate of 30°C/min until 250°C, then kept that temperature for 5 minutes. 2µL of solution was injected in split 10 mode, and their retention time inside de GC was 419 s (C12) and 527 s (C16).

We also measured the isotopic composition of non-degraded ATR and MET for reference. Both used the same temperature program as caffeine (started at 70°C and raise at a rate of 30°C/min until 270°C, then kept that temperature for 3 minutes), but have different injection. ATR had 4µL of solution injected, while MET had 2µL of solution injected, both in split 20 mode. The retention time of ATR is 476 s and the retention time of MET is 539 s.

#### Annex A.1.7. EA-IRMS method

ATR and MET references were weighted in tin cups to obtain the same amount of CO<sub>2</sub> for all samples and reference material for the isotopic composition δ<sup>13</sup>C measurements, then analyzed on an IRMS (Micromass model Isoprime 100) coupled with an elemental analyser (Elementar model Vario MicroCube) in continuous flux mode.

Two internal reference materials (NBS19 & LSVEC)(δ13C= -28.73 ± 0.06‰ & -11.85 ± 0.04‰) were used to normalize the results on the NBS19-LSVEC scale. A 3rd reference material (DORM2, shark tissue, δ13C= -17.04 ± 0.11‰) was analyzed as an unknown to assess the exactness of the normalization. Results are given in delta units (δ) in ‰ vs VPDB.

Two internal reference materials (IAEA-N1 & IAEA-N2) (δ15N= -0.08 ± 0.11‰ & +14.78 ± 0.07‰) were used to normalize the results on the AIR (IAEA-N1, IAEA-N2 & IAEA-N3) scale. For the second day of analysis, 3 more internal reference materials were used: USGS61 (δ15N= -2.87 ± 0.04‰), USGS73 (δ15N= -5.21 ± 0.05‰) and USGS64 (δ15N = +1.76 ± 0.06‰). A 3rd reference material (DORM2, shark tissue, δ15N= 6.3 ± 0.06‰) was analyzed as an unknown to assess the exactness of the normalization. Results are given in delta units (δ) in ‰ vs AIR.

The overall analytical uncertainty (1s) is better than ±0.1‰ in the case of C analysis, and ±0.2‰ in the case of N analysis. This uncertainty is based on the propagation of uncertainties of the normalization of the internal reference materials and the samples but does not include the homogeneity nor the representability of the sample.

The C and N analysis were made in two days due to time constraints. While C isotope analysis remained the same for those two days, modifications were made for N isotope analysis to gain better precision on the samples. Since day 2 has a much lower standard deviation for both ATR and MET, only those data will be accounted for as N isotopic references (see table A4).

Table A 3: Average and standard deviation on C isotopic analysis of Atrazine and Metolachlor reference

| Sample    | average | Standard deviation |
|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| ATR day 1 | -26.79  | 0.03               |
| ATR day 2 | -26.75  | 0.02               |
| MET day 1 | -28.13  | 0.04               |
| MET day 2 | -28.16  | 0.03               |

Table A 4: Average and standard deviation on N isotopic analysis of Atrazine and Metolachlor reference

| Sample    | average | Standard deviation |
|-----------|---------|--------------------|
| ATR day 1 | 0.91    | 0.38               |
| ATR day 2 | 0.96    | 0.13               |
| MET day 1 | -0.68   | 0.26               |
| MET day 2 | -0.02   | 0.14               |

## ANNEX A.2. RESULTS SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

### Annex A.2.1. pH variation for degradation experiments

pH was measured at the beginning and end of each experiment. It was measured at the beginning when creating the solution or taking it out of the refrigerator before transferring the sample in the quartz tube, and at the end after taking it out of the photoreactor before transferring it to a glass bottle for storage in the freezer. Samples were always colder before the pH measurements than after, since the photoreactor was calibrated to be at always 25°C, hotter than room temperature.

Table A 5: pH variations for direct photodegradation of ATR

| Sample     | Experiment Time (h:min:s) | Experiment Time (day) | Initial pH | Final pH | d pH   |
|------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------|----------|--------|
| ATR-D 0    | 00:00:00                  | 0                     | 6.537      | 6.537    | 0      |
| ATR-D 20-1 | 270:28:00                 | 11.269444             | 6.515      | 6.457    | -0.058 |
| ATR-D 20-2 | 270:28:00                 | 11.269444             | 6.541      | 6.456    | -0.085 |
| ATR-D 20-3 | 270:28:00                 | 11.269444             | 6.53       | 6.446    | -0.084 |
| ATR-D 40-1 | 624:07:00                 | 26.004861             | 6.537      | 6.443    | -0.094 |
| ATR-D 40-2 | 624:07:00                 | 26.004861             | 6.537      | 6.431    | -0.106 |
| ATR-D 40-3 | 624:07:00                 | 26.004861             | 6.537      | 6.434    | -0.103 |
| ATR-D 50-1 | 840:10:00                 | 35.006944             | 6.537      | 6.46     | -0.077 |
| ATR-D 50-2 | 840:10:00                 | 35.006944             | 6.537      | 6.445    | -0.092 |
| ATR-D 50-3 | 840:10:00                 | 35.006944             | 6.537      | 6.49     | -0.047 |
| ATR-D 60-1 | 1122:03:00                | 46.752083             | 6.537      | 6.483    | -0.054 |
| ATR-D 60-2 | 1122:03:00                | 46.752083             | 6.537      | 6.443    | -0.094 |
| ATR-D 60-3 | 1122:03:00                | 46.752083             | 6.537      | 6.51     | -0.027 |
| ATR-D 80-1 | 1958:44:00                | 81.613889             | 6.537      | 6.507    | -0.03  |
| ATR-D 80-2 | 1958:44:00                | 81.613889             | 6.537      | 6.398    | -0.139 |
| ATR-D 80-3 | 1958:44:00                | 81.613889             | 6.537      | 6.45     | -0.087 |

Table A 6: pH variations for direct photodegradation of MET

| Sample     | Experiment Time (h:min:s) | Experiment Time (day) | Initial pH | Final pH | d pH   |
|------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------|----------|--------|
| MET-D 0    | 00:00:00                  | 0                     | 6.449      | 6.449    | 0      |
| MET-D 20-1 | 190:04:00                 | 7.9194444             | 6.464      | 6.427    | -0.037 |
| MET-D 20-2 | 190:04:00                 | 7.9194444             | 6.464      | 6.427    | -0.037 |
| MET-D 20-3 | 190:04:00                 | 7.9194444             | 6.464      | 6.43     | -0.034 |
| MET-D 40-1 | 424:13:00                 | 17.675694             | 6.436      | 6.425    | -0.011 |
| MET-D 40-2 | 424:13:00                 | 17.675694             | 6.436      | 6.417    | -0.019 |
| MET-D 40-3 | 424:13:00                 | 17.675694             | 6.436      | 6.422    | -0.014 |
| MET-D 50-1 | 575:37:00                 | 23.984028             | 6.477      | 6.358    | -0.119 |
| MET-D 50-2 | 575:37:00                 | 23.984028             | 6.477      | 6.367    | -0.11  |
| MET-D 50-3 | 575:37:00                 | 23.984028             | 6.477      | 6.378    | -0.099 |
| MET-D 60-1 | 760:56:00                 | 31.705556             | 6.48       | 6.415    | -0.065 |
| MET-D 60-2 | 760:56:00                 | 31.705556             | 6.48       | 6.391    | -0.089 |
| MET-D 60-3 | 760:56:00                 | 31.705556             | 6.48       | 6.399    | -0.081 |
| MET-D 80-1 | 1336:33:00                | 55.689583             | 6.449      | 6.39     | -0.059 |
| MET-D 80-2 | 1336:33:00                | 55.689583             | 6.449      | 6.388    | -0.061 |
| MET-D 80-3 | 1336:33:00                | 55.689583             | 6.449      | 6.367    | -0.082 |

Table A 7: pH variations for indirect photodegradation of ATR

| Sample     | Experiment Time (h:min:s) | Duration (day) | Initial pH | Final pH | d pH   |
|------------|---------------------------|----------------|------------|----------|--------|
| ATR-N 0    | 00:00:00                  | 0              | 6.446      | 6.446    | 0      |
| ATR-N 20-1 | 71:53:00                  | 2.9951389      | 6.474      | 6.43     | -0.044 |
| ATR-N 20-2 | 71:53:00                  | 2.9951389      | 6.474      | 6.422    | -0.052 |
| ATR-N 20-3 | 71:53:00                  | 2.9951389      | 6.474      | 6.412    | -0.062 |
| ATR-N 40-1 | 167:41:00                 | 6.9868056      | 6.468      | 6.436    | -0.032 |
| ATR-N 40-2 | 167:41:00                 | 6.9868056      | 6.468      | 6.422    | -0.046 |
| ATR-N 40-3 | 167:41:00                 | 6.9868056      | 6.468      | 6.424    | -0.044 |
| ATR-N 60-1 | 295:11:00                 | 12.299306      | 6.463      | 6.42     | -0.043 |
| ATR-N 60-2 | 295:11:00                 | 12.299306      | 6.463      | 6.417    | -0.046 |
| ATR-N 60-3 | 295:11:00                 | 12.299306      | 6.463      | 6.42     | -0.043 |
| ATR-N 80-1 | 526:18:00                 | 21.929167      | 6.453      | 6.428    | -0.025 |
| ATR-N 80-2 | 526:18:00                 | 21.929167      | 6.453      | 6.428    | -0.025 |
| ATR-N 80-3 | 526:18:00                 | 21.929167      | 6.453      | 6.424    | -0.029 |
| ATR-N 90-1 | 742:35:00                 | 30.940972      | 6.504      | 6.421    | -0.083 |
| ATR-N 90-2 | 742:35:00                 | 30.940972      | 6.504      | 6.413    | -0.091 |
| ATR-N 90-3 | 742:35:00                 | 30.940972      | 6.504      | 6.413    | -0.091 |
| ATR-N 95-1 | 965:04:00                 | 40.211111      | 6.468      | 6.424    | -0.044 |
| ATR-N 95-2 | 965:04:00                 | 40.211111      | 6.468      | 6.4      | -0.068 |
| ATR-N 95-3 | 965:04:00                 | 40.211111      | 6.468      | 6.405    | -0.063 |
| ATR-N 99-1 | 1486:09:00                | 61.922917      | 6.472      | 6.3      | -0.172 |
| ATR-N 99-2 | 1486:09:00                | 61.922917      | 6.472      | 6.275    | -0.197 |
| ATR-N 99-3 | 1486:09:00                | 61.922917      | 6.472      | 6.294    | -0.178 |

Table A 8: pH variations for indirect photodegradation of MET

| Sample     | Experiment Time (h:min:s) | Duration (day) | Initial pH | Final pH | d pH   |
|------------|---------------------------|----------------|------------|----------|--------|
| MET-N 0    | 00:00:00                  | 0              | 6.44       | 6.44     | 0      |
| MET-N 20-1 | 56:08:00                  | 2.3388889      | 6.37       | 6.363    | -0.007 |
| MET-N 20-2 | 56:08:00                  | 2.3388889      | 6.37       | 6.365    | -0.005 |
| MET-N 20-3 | 56:08:00                  | 2.3388889      | 6.37       | 6.366    | -0.004 |
| MET-N 40-1 | 128:31:00                 | 5.3548611      | 6.403      | 6.456    | 0.053  |
| MET-N 40-2 | 128:31:00                 | 5.3548611      | 6.403      | 6.455    | 0.052  |
| MET-N 40-3 | 128:31:00                 | 5.3548611      | 6.403      | 6.433    | 0.03   |
| MET-N 60-1 | 238:46:00                 | 9.9486111      | 6.383      | 6.355    | -0.028 |
| MET-N 60-2 | 238:46:00                 | 9.9486111      | 6.383      | 6.353    | -0.03  |
| MET-N 60-3 | 238:46:00                 | 9.9486111      | 6.383      | 6.347    | -0.036 |
| MET-N 80-1 | 408:21:00                 | 17.014583      | 6.382      | 6.356    | -0.026 |
| MET-N 80-2 | 408:21:00                 | 17.014583      | 6.382      | 6.349    | -0.033 |
| MET-N 80-3 | 408:21:00                 | 17.014583      | 6.382      | 6.347    | -0.035 |
| MET-N 90-1 | 591:58:00                 | 24.665278      | 6.413      | 6.353    | -0.06  |
| MET-N 90-2 | 591:58:00                 | 24.665278      | 6.413      | 6.337    | -0.076 |
| MET-N 90-3 | 591:58:00                 | 24.665278      | 6.413      | 6.338    | -0.075 |
| MET-N 95-1 | 762:29:00                 | 31.770139      | 6.422      | 6.34     | -0.082 |
| MET-N 95-2 | 762:29:00                 | 31.770139      | 6.422      | 6.337    | -0.085 |
| MET-N 95-3 | 762:29:00                 | 31.770139      | 6.422      | 6.317    | -0.105 |
| MET-N 99-1 | 1158:32:00                | 48.272222      | 6.408      | 6.365    | -0.043 |
| MET-N 99-2 | 1158:32:00                | 48.272222      | 6.408      | 6.35     | -0.058 |
| MET-N 99-3 | 1158:32:00                | 48.272222      | 6.408      | 6.336    | -0.072 |

### Annex A.2.2. ATR Concentration analyses

Table A 9: ATR-D targeted concentration analysis

| Samples    | ATR<br>(mg/L) | Ln(C/C0)    | ATR-OH<br>(mg/L) | DEA<br>(mg/L) | DIA<br>(mg/L) | DIA-OH<br>(mg/L) | DEDIA<br>(mg/L) | Experiment<br>Time (day) |
|------------|---------------|-------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| ATR-D T0   | 20.54         | 0           | 0                | 0             | 0             | 0                | 0               | 0                        |
| ATR-D 20-1 | 16.96         | -0.19151657 | 1.77516          | 0.675468      | 0.1736        | 0.294804         | 0               | 11.26944444              |
| ATR-D 20-2 | 18            | -0.13200245 | 1.420128         | 0.581653      | 0.15624       | 0.279288         | 0               | 11.26944444              |
| ATR-D 20-3 | 18            | -0.13200245 | 1.28206          | 0.469075      | 0.12152       | 0.201708         | 0               | 11.26944444              |
| ATR-D 40-1 | 13.76         | -0.40060837 | 3.412252         | 0.694231      | 0.20832       | 0.589608         | 0               | 26.00486111              |
| ATR-D 40-2 | 15.6          | -0.27510329 | 3.4517           | 0.431549      | 0.12152       | 0.574092         | 0               | 26.00486111              |
| ATR-D 40-3 | 16.34         | -0.22875812 | 2.800808         | 0.37526       | 0.10416       | 0.434448         | 0               | 26.00486111              |
| ATR-D 50-1 | 10.08         | -0.71182094 | 5.345204         | 1.782485      | 0.434         | 0.85338          | 0               | 35.00694444              |
| ATR-D 50-2 | 11.04         | -0.62084916 | 5.167688         | 1.388462      | 0.32984       | 0.822348         | 0               | 35.00694444              |
| ATR-D 50-3 | 9.42          | -0.77953912 | 3.9448           | 1.444751      | 0.32984       | 0.605124         | 0.025422        | 35.00694444              |
| ATR-D 60-1 | 7.6           | -0.99422596 | 6.21306          | 1.669907      | 0.38192       | 1.024056         | 0.063555        | 46.75208333              |
| ATR-D 60-2 | 9.4           | -0.78166452 | 7.416224         | 1.200832      | 0.31248       | 1.117152         | 0               | 46.75208333              |
| ATR-D 60-3 | 6.46          | -1.15674489 | 4.83238          | 2.214034      | 0.39928       | 0.760284         | 0.139821        | 46.75208333              |
| ATR-D 80-1 | 5.34          | -1.34714855 | 4.398452         | 1.970115      | 0.41664       | 0.7758           | 0.139821        | 81.61388889              |
| ATR-D 80-3 | 3.64          | -1.73039052 | 5.660788         | 2.176508      | 0.41664       | 0.977508         | 0.241509        | 81.61388889              |

Table A 10: ATR-N targeted concentration analysis

| Samples    | ATR<br>(mg/L) | Ln(C/C0)    | ATR-OH<br>(mg/L) | DEA<br>(mg/L) | DIA<br>(mg/L) | DIA-OH<br>(mg/L) | DEDIA<br>(mg/L) | Experiment<br>Time (day) |
|------------|---------------|-------------|------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| ATR-N T0   | 20            | 0           | 0                | 0             | 0             | 0                | 0               | 0                        |
| ATR-N 20-1 | 14            | -0.35667494 | 0.315584         | 2.045167      | 0.98952       | 0.07758          | 0.114399        | 2.9951389                |
| ATR-N 20-3 | 12.681984     | -0.45554987 | 0.749512         | 3.977756      | 1.84016       | 0.108612         | 0.406752        | 2.9951389                |
| ATR-N 40-1 | 5.852         | -1.22894879 | 0.433928         | 4.146623      | 1.736         | 0.07758          | 1.449054        | 6.9868056                |
| ATR-N 40-2 | 6.162         | -1.17733087 | 0.552272         | 4.277964      | 1.97904       | 0.139644         | 1.321944        | 6.9868056                |
| ATR-N 40-3 | 5.966         | -1.20965559 | 0.769236         | 4.728276      | 2.604         | 0.124128         | 1.423632        | 6.9868056                |
| ATR-N 60-1 | 2.776         | -1.97472123 | 0.433928         | 4.071571      | 1.57976       | 0.07758          | 2.554911        | 12.299306                |
| ATR-N 60-2 | 2.28          | -2.17155683 | 0.453652         | 3.921467      | 1.57976       | 0.124128         | 2.809131        | 12.299306                |
| ATR-N 60-3 | 3.12          | -1.85789927 | 0.927028         | 4.87838       | 2.604         | 0.124128         | 3.292149        | 12.299306                |
| ATR-N 80-2 | 0.804         | -3.21388828 | 0.414204         | 4.296727      | 1.49296       | 0.07758          | 5.0844          | 21.929167                |
| ATR-N 80-3 | 0.828         | -3.1844744  | 0.59172          | 4.165386      | 1.89224       | 0.07758          | 6.190257        | 21.929167                |
| ATR-N 90-2 | 0.652         | -3.42344299 | 0.453652         | 4.109097      | 1.1284        | 0.062064         | 4.715781        | 30.940972                |
| ATR-N 95-1 | 0.36          | -4.01738352 | 0.216964         | 2.326612      | 0.65968       | 0.046548         | 3.737034        | 40.211111                |
| ATR-N 95-2 | 0.242         | -4.41454983 | 0.19724          | 2.06393       | 0.57288       | 0                | 4.44885         | 40.211111                |
| ATR-N 95-3 | 0.174         | -4.74443225 | 0.138068         | 2.026404      | 0.48608       | 0                | 4.169208        | 40.211111                |

Table A 11: Table for Figure 2.3 A

| ATR<br>(mg/L) | Error | ATR-OH<br>(mg/L) | Error | DEA<br>(mg/L) | Error | DIA<br>(mg/L) | Error | DIA-OH<br>(mg/L) | Error | DEDIA<br>(mg/L) | Error | Total Mass<br>(mg/L) | Error | Duration<br>(day) |
|---------------|-------|------------------|-------|---------------|-------|---------------|-------|------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------------------|
| 20.54         | 0     | 0                | 0     | 0             | 0     | 0             | 0     | 0                | 0     | 0               | 0     | 20.54                | 0     | 0                 |
| 17.653        | 0.490 | 1.492            | 0.208 | 0.575         | 0.084 | 0.150         | 0.022 | 0.259            | 0.041 | 0.000           | 0.000 | 20.130               | 0.231 | 11.269            |
| 15.233        | 1.085 | 3.222            | 0.298 | 0.500         | 0.139 | 0.145         | 0.046 | 0.533            | 0.070 | 0.000           | 0.000 | 19.633               | 0.687 | 26.005            |
| 10.180        | 0.665 | 4.819            | 0.623 | 1.539         | 0.174 | 0.365         | 0.049 | 0.760            | 0.110 | 0.008           | 0.012 | 17.671               | 1.348 | 35.007            |
| 7.820         | 1.210 | 6.154            | 1.056 | 1.695         | 0.414 | 0.365         | 0.038 | 0.967            | 0.151 | 0.068           | 0.057 | 17.068               | 1.896 | 46.752            |
| 4.490         | 0.850 | 5.030            | 0.631 | 2.073         | 0.103 | 0.417         | 0.000 | 0.877            | 0.101 | 0.191           | 0.051 | 13.077               | 0.036 | 81.614            |

Table A 12 : Table for Figure 2.3 B

| ATR<br>(mg/L) | Error | ATR-OH<br>(mg/L) | Error | DEA<br>(mg/L) | Error | DIA<br>(mg/L) | Error | DIA-OH<br>(mg/L) | Error | DEDIA<br>(mg/L) | Error | Total Mass<br>(mg/L) | Error | Duration<br>(day) |
|---------------|-------|------------------|-------|---------------|-------|---------------|-------|------------------|-------|-----------------|-------|----------------------|-------|-------------------|
| 20.000        | 0.000 | 0.000            | 0.000 | 0.000         | 0.000 | 0.000         | 0.000 | 0.000            | 0.000 | 0.000           | 0.000 | 20.000               | 0.000 | 0.000             |
| 13.341        | 0.932 | 0.533            | 0.307 | 3.011         | 1.367 | 1.415         | 0.601 | 0.093            | 0.022 | 0.261           | 0.207 | 18.654               | 1.572 | 2.995             |
| 5.993         | 0.157 | 0.585            | 0.170 | 4.384         | 0.305 | 2.106         | 0.448 | 0.114            | 0.032 | 1.398           | 0.067 | 14.581               | 0.969 | 6.987             |
| 2.725         | 0.422 | 0.605            | 0.279 | 4.290         | 0.515 | 1.921         | 0.591 | 0.109            | 0.027 | 2.885           | 0.374 | 12.536               | 2.093 | 12.299            |
| 0.816         | 0.017 | 0.503            | 0.126 | 4.231         | 0.093 | 1.693         | 0.282 | 0.078            | 0.000 | 5.637           | 0.782 | 12.958               | 1.114 | 21.929            |
| 0.652         | 0.000 | 0.454            | 0.000 | 4.109         | 0.000 | 1.128         | 0.000 | 0.062            | 0.000 | 4.716           | 0.000 | 11.121               | 0.000 | 30.941            |
| 0.259         | 0.094 | 0.184            | 0.041 | 2.139         | 0.164 | 0.573         | 0.087 | 0.016            | 0.027 | 4.118           | 0.359 | 7.288                | 0.270 | 40.211            |

### Annex A.2.3. MET Concentration analyses

Table A 13: MET-D targeted concentration analysis

| Sample     | Experiment Time (day) | C MET (mg/L) | C MET-OA (mg/L) | C MET-ESA (mg/L) | C MET-OH (mg/L) |
|------------|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| MET-D T0   | 0                     | 46.62        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 20-1 | 7.919444444           | 28.34        | ND              | ND               | 0.125874        |
| MET-D 20-2 | 7.919444444           | 32.42        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 20-3 | 7.919444444           | 32.06        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 40-1 | 17.67569444           | 22.26        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 40-2 | 17.67569444           | 21.42        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 50-2 | 23.98402778           | 14.44        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 50-3 | 23.98402778           | 15.62        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 60-1 | 31.70555556           | 14.32        | ND              | ND               | 0.237762        |
| MET-D 60-2 | 31.70555556           | 14.12        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 60-3 | 31.70555556           | 20.58        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 80-1 | 55.68958333           | 7.16         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 80-2 | 55.68958333           | 10.44        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D 80-3 | 55.68958333           | 10.08        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-D B    | 55.68958333           | 46.62        | ND              | ND               | 0               |

ND: Non-detected

Table A 14: MET-N targeted concentration analysis

| Samples    | Experiment Time (day) | C MET (mg/L) | C MET-OA (mg/L) | C MET-ESA (mg/L) | C MET-OH (mg/L) |
|------------|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|
| MET-N T0   | 0                     | 50           | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 20-1 | 2.338888889           | 31.99        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 20-2 | 2.338888889           | 31.815       | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 20-3 | 2.338888889           | 32.69        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 40-1 | 5.354861111           | 25.765       | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 40-2 | 5.354861111           | 19.295       | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 40-3 | 5.354861111           | 19.31        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 60-1 | 9.948611111           | 9.775        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 60-2 | 9.948611111           | 12.235       | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 60-3 | 9.948611111           | 11.045       | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 80-1 | 17.01458333           | 2.6          | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 80-2 | 17.01458333           | 3.69         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 80-3 | 17.01458333           | 3.005        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 90-1 | 24.66527778           | 1.03         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 90-2 | 24.66527778           | 1.06         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 90-3 | 24.66527778           | 1.43         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 95-1 | 31.77013889           | 0.43         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 95-2 | 31.77013889           | 0.11         | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 95-3 | 31.77013889           | 0.225        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 99-1 | 48.27222222           | 0            | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 99-2 | 48.27222222           | 0.135        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N 99-3 | 48.27222222           | 0.235        | ND              | ND               | 0               |
| MET-N B    | 48.27222222           | 50           | ND              | ND               | 0               |

ND: Non-detected

#### Annex A.2.4. Nontargeted concentration analyses

Table A 15: DEA-OH area in nontargeted ATR analysis

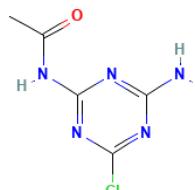
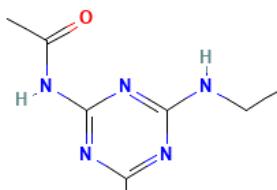
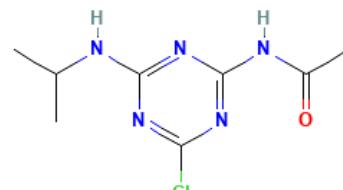
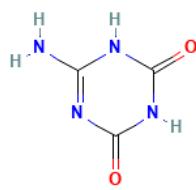
| <b>Sample Name</b>  | <b>Area</b> | <b>Sample Name</b> | <b>Area</b> |
|---------------------|-------------|--------------------|-------------|
| ATZ_non-direct_0    | N/A         | ATZ_direct_0       | 8.2E+03     |
| ATZ_non-direct_20-1 | 1.9E+05     | ATZ_direct_20-1    | 1.9E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_20-3 | 4.5E+05     | ATZ_direct_20-2    | 1.6E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-1 | 6.7E+05     | ATZ_direct_20-3    | 1.4E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-2 | 8.1E+05     | ATZ_direct_40-1    | 5.1E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-3 | 8.3E+05     | ATZ_direct_40-2    | 3.0E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-1 | 1.3E+06     | ATZ_direct_40-3    | 2.0E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-2 | 1.2E+06     | ATZ_direct_50-1    | 1.2E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-3 | 1.7E+06     | ATZ_direct_50-2    | 8.4E+05     |
| ATZ_non-direct_80-2 | 1.9E+06     | ATZ_direct_50-3    | 1.0E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_80-3 | 2.3E+06     | ATZ_direct_60-1    | 1.6E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_90-2 | 2.5E+06     | ATZ_direct_60-2    | 1.1E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-1 | 1.6E+06     | ATZ_direct_60-3    | 2.1E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-2 | 1.8E+06     | ATZ_direct_80-1    | 2.3E+06     |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-3 | 1.8E+06     | ATZ_direct_80-3    | 3.7E+06     |

Table A 16: CDAT area in nontargeted ATR analysis

| Sample Name         | Area    | Sample Name     | Area    |
|---------------------|---------|-----------------|---------|
| ATZ_non-direct_0    | N/A     | ATZ_direct_0    | N/A     |
| ATZ_non-direct_20-1 | 4.4E+04 | ATZ_direct_20-1 | N/A     |
| ATZ_non-direct_20-3 | 1.4E+05 | ATZ_direct_20-2 | 3.9E+03 |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-1 | 3.2E+05 | ATZ_direct_20-3 | 3.1E+03 |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-2 | 5.0E+05 | ATZ_direct_40-1 | 7.8E+03 |
| ATZ_non-direct_40-3 | 4.0E+05 | ATZ_direct_40-2 | 5.9E+03 |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-1 | 7.4E+05 | ATZ_direct_40-3 | N/A     |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-2 | 5.8E+05 | ATZ_direct_50-1 | 1.7E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_60-3 | 1.1E+06 | ATZ_direct_50-2 | 1.0E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_80-2 | 1.6E+06 | ATZ_direct_50-3 | 2.1E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_80-3 | 1.3E+06 | ATZ_direct_60-1 | 1.1E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_90-2 | 1.7E+06 | ATZ_direct_60-2 | 5.5E+03 |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-1 | 7.6E+05 | ATZ_direct_60-3 | 3.4E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-2 | 5.6E+05 | ATZ_direct_80-1 | 4.7E+04 |
| ATZ_non-direct_95-3 | 6.6E+05 | ATZ_direct_80-3 | 3.4E+04 |

While the concentration of these transformation product cannot be calculated, their intensity rises with the degradation.

Table A 17: Name and structure for other major and minor targets

| Name   | Acronym | Molecular composition                                       | Structure   |
|--|---------|---|---|
| 6-amino-4-acetamido-2-chloro-s-triazine          | CDAT    | C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>6</sub> ClN <sub>5</sub> O            |    |
| deethylhydroxyatrazine                           | DEA-OH  | C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> N <sub>5</sub> O             |    |
| 4-acetamido-2-chloro-6-ethylamino-s-triazine     | CDET    | C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>10</sub> ClN <sub>5</sub> O           |   |
| 4-acetamido-2-chloro-6-isopropylamino-s-triazine | CDIT    | C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>12</sub> ClN <sub>5</sub> O           |   |
| ammelide   | OOAT    | C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>4</sub> N <sub>4</sub> O <sub>2</sub> |  |

Acronym taken from Torrents et al (1997), except DEA-OH.

Structure taken from pubchem

■ XIC from MET direct 20-1.wiff (sample 1) - MET direct 20-1, Experiment 1, +TOF MS (80 - 925): 115 to 300 Da  
■ XIC from MET direct 80-1.wiff (sample 1) - MET direct 80-1, Experiment 1, +TOF MS (80 - 925): 115 to 300 Da

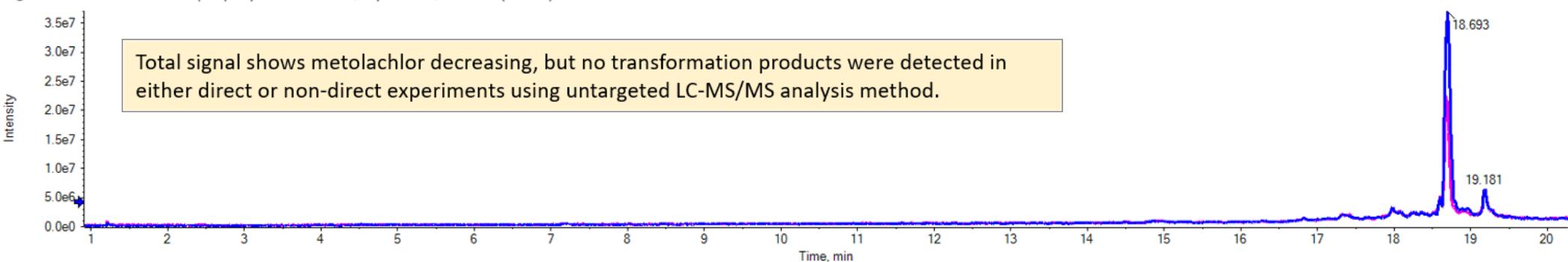


Figure A 2: MET-D nontargeted analysis

■ XIC from MET non-direct 20-2.wiff (sample 1) - MET non-direct 20-2, Experiment 1, +TOF MS (80 - 925): 115 to 300 Da  
■ XIC from MET non-direct 95-2.wiff (sample 1) - MET non-direct 95-2, Experiment 1, +TOF MS (80 - 925): 115 to 300 Da

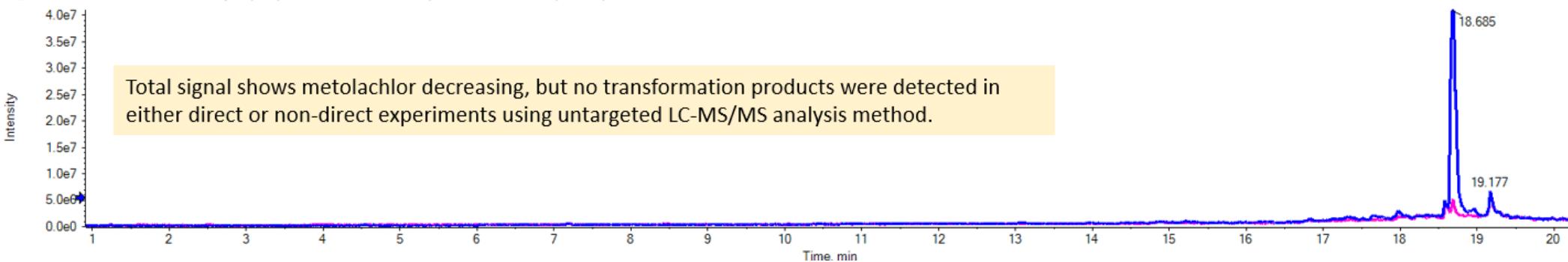


Figure A 3: MET-N nontargeted analysis

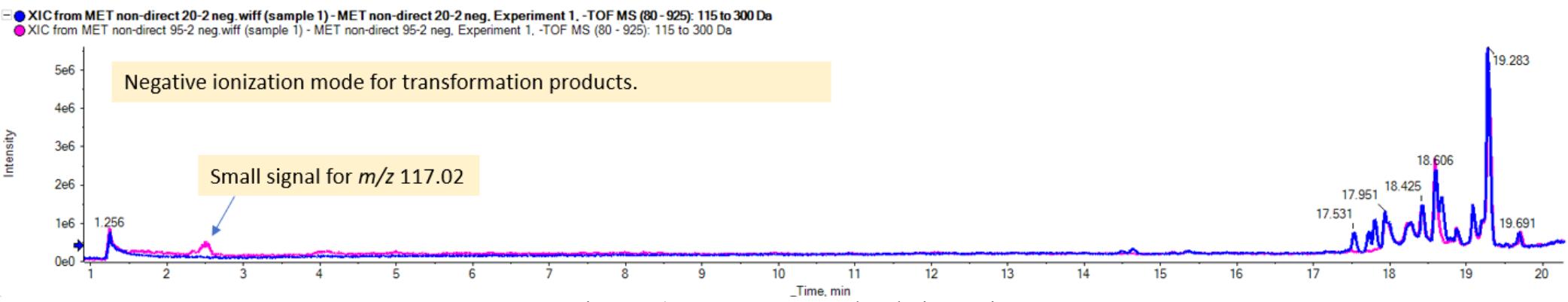


Figure A 4: MET-N nontargeted analysis negative

Except for a small signal in negative ion analysis, no other degradation products were found in nontargeted MET analysis. Figure A4 has a lower intensity than Figure A2 and A3.

### Annex A.2.5. Ion Chromatography

Table A 18: ATR-D anion chromatograph results

| Experiment | Chloride ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrite ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrate ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Experiment Time (day) |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| ATRD-0     | 45.41223592                | ND                        | 39.996839                 | 0                     |
| ATRD-20-B  | 44.56604519                | ND                        | 13.2247613                | 0                     |
| ATRD-20-1  | 369.2212225                | ND                        | 36.6100099                | 11.26944444           |
| ATRD-40-1  | 78.13161087                | ND                        | 13.3860388                | 26.00486111           |
| ATRD-50-1  | 117.9025752                | ND                        | 12.579651                 | 35.00694444           |
| ATRD-60-1  | 117.3384481                | ND                        | 13.0634837                | 46.75208333           |
| ATRD-80-1  | 163.3148112                | ND                        | 12.7409285                | 81.61388889           |
| ATRD-80-3  | 240.0361041                | ND                        | 20.3209746                | 81.61388889           |

ND: not detected

Table A 19 : MET-D anion chromatograph results

| Experiment | Chloride ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrite ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrate ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Experiment Time (day) |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| METD-0     | ND                         | ND                        | 13.3860388                | 0                     |
| METD-20_B  | 30.46286633                | ND                        | 12.9022061                | 0                     |
| METD-20-1  | 149.2116323                | ND                        | 20.6435298                | 7.919444444           |
| METD-20-2  | 201.3933941                | ND                        | 16.772868                 | 7.919444444           |
| METD-40-2  | 276.4223056                | ND                        | 18.7081989                | 17.67569444           |
| METD-50-3  | 1029.532057                | ND                        | 32.739348                 | 23.98402778           |
| METD-60-2  | 1042.224917                | ND                        | 32.5780704                | 31.70555556           |
| METD-80-1  | 2301.356726                | ND                        | 28.546131                 | 55.68958333           |
| METD-80-3  | 1967.39345                 | ND                        | ND                        | 55.68958333           |

ND: not detected

Table A 20: ATR-N anion chromatograph results

| Experiment | Chloride ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrite ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrate ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Experiment Time (day) |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| ATRN-0     | 26.51397625                | 14.3462667                | 174.179783                | 0                     |
| ATRN-20-B  | 26.23191267                | ND                        | 173.373395                | 0                     |
| ATRN-20-1  | 63.46430485                | 15.4331051                | 172.567007                | 2.995138889           |
| ATRN-20-2  | 56.41271543                | 15.2157374                | 169.341455                | 2.995138889           |
| ATRN-40-1  | 51.33557104                | 15.6504728                | 168.696345                | 6.986805556           |
| ATRN-60-1  | 509.6888839                | 15.2157374                | 164.664406                | 12.29930556           |
| ATRN-80-1  | 355.6821708                | 15.8678405                | 156.277972                | 21.92916667           |
| ATRN-90-1  | 1638.789383                | 15.2157374                | 157.568192                | 30.94097222           |
| ATRN-90-3  | 1031.506502                | 15.2157374                | 159.180968                | 30.94097222           |
| ATRN-95-3  | 2329.563084                | ND                        | 154.503918                | 40.21111111           |

ND: not detected

Table A 21: MET-N anion chromatograph results

| Experiment | Chloride ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrite ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Nitrate ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) | Experiment Time (day) |
|------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| METN-0     | 24.82159479                | ND                        | 189.823707                | 0                     |
| METN-20_N  | 445.3783883                | ND                        | 178.695555                | 0                     |
| METN-20-2  | 152.3143317                | 14.7810021                | 171.760619                | 2.338888889           |
| METN-40-1  | 434.3779088                | 15.2157374                | 172.889562                | 5.354861111           |
| METN-40-3  | 137.0828985                | 15.6504728                | 178.050444                | 5.354861111           |
| METN-60-3  | 196.8803768                | 15.6504728                | 168.535067                | 9.948611111           |
| METN-80-1  | 554.5369926                | 15.4331051                | 167.889957                | 17.01458333           |
| METN-90-1  | 673.8498858                | 15.6504728                | 163.05163                 | 24.66527778           |
| METN-95-1  | 1005.274589                | 15.4331051                | 163.212907                | 31.77013889           |
| METN-95-2  | 1162.666065                | 15.2157374                | 164.34185                 | 31.77013889           |

ND: not detected

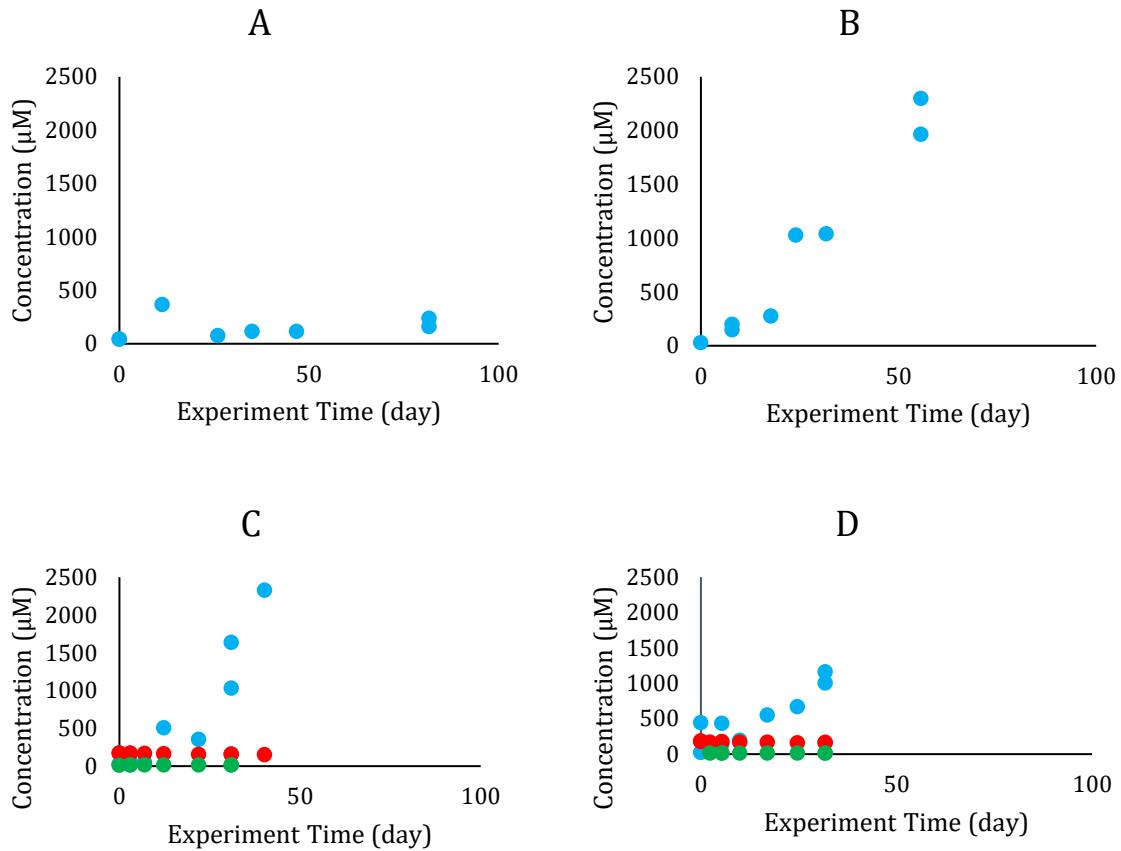


Figure A 5: Anion concentration

Blue: chloride

Red : nitrate

Green: nitrite

Error:  $\pm 0.2$  ppm ( $5.64 \mu\text{M}$ ) chloride,  $\pm 0.37$  ppm ( $5.96 \mu\text{M}$ ) nitrate, and  $\pm 0.14$  ppm ( $3.04 \mu\text{M}$ ) nitrite for concentration, and 1 minute ( $0.000694$  day) for time

Two anomalies were found for Cl<sup>-</sup> ion analysis. First, some samples showed a higher than usual concentration of Cl<sup>-</sup> at low degradation. Also, MET-D and ATR-N showed a concentration of Cl<sup>-</sup> higher than the initial concentration of pesticide at high degradation, which is not possible.

While a small amount of nitrate was found for direct photodegradation, it was very unlikely that it was nitrate. Other small degradation products can be seen as nitrate by the instrument, and no analysis was made since chloride was the principal target. Nitrate seemed to diminish during the indirect photodegradation experiment, with few measurements going lower than

the initial 10 mg/L (161.27 µM) concentration, while nitrite concentration remained the same (around 15 µM).

For indirect photodegradation experiments, the amount of nitrate was relatively stable at around 10 mg/L of nitrate but showed a small decrease in their concentrations (from 10.8 to 9.6 for ATR-N and from 11.8 to 10.2 for MET-N). When detected, the nitrite concentration was always around 0.7 mg/L, which might be caused by the reduction of nitrate. The fluctuation in the amount of nitrate might be due to a creation of small degradation product with similar time retention in the column, interfering with the analysis. This might also explain the small amount of “nitrate” found for the direct photodegradation experiment, where no nitrate was added, and a null concentration was expected.

#### Annex A.2.6. C isotope analysis

Table A 22: ATR-D C isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{C}/\text{C}0)$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{R}/\text{R}0)$ | Error    |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------|
| ATR-D T0   | 20.54         | -26.97032389          | 0                               | 0                               | 0.000273 |
| ATR-D 20-1 | 16.96         | -26.24327893          | -0.191516574                    | 0.000746918                     | 0.000137 |
| ATR-D 20-2 | 18            | -26.03678032          | -0.132002447                    | 0.000958959                     | 0.000137 |
| ATR-D 20-3 | 18            | -26.08167132          | -0.132002447                    | 0.000912867                     | 0.000137 |
| ATR-D 40-1 | 13.76         | -25.07032098          | -0.400608372                    | 0.001950763                     | 0.00027  |
| ATR-D 40-2 | 15.6          | -25.02151151          | -0.27510329                     | 0.002000826                     | 0.000198 |
| ATR-D 40-3 | 16.34         | -25.59361771          | -0.228758115                    | 0.001413866                     | 0.000286 |
| ATR-D 50-1 | 10.08         | -24.35282171          | -0.711820942                    | 0.002686442                     | 0.000878 |
| ATR-D 50-2 | 11.04         | -23.8371213           | -0.620849164                    | 0.003214875                     | 0.000286 |
| ATR-D 60-1 | 7.6           | -22.22403801          | -0.994225957                    | 0.004865985                     | 0.000293 |
| ATR-D 60-2 | 9.4           | -22.18213974          | -0.781664515                    | 0.004908834                     | 0.000161 |
| ATR-D 60-3 | 6.46          | -22.70287535          | -1.156744887                    | 0.004376144                     | 0.000226 |
| ATR-D 80-1 | 5.34          | -21.72425154          | -1.347148552                    | 0.005377                        | 0.000239 |
| ATR-D 80-2 | 7.56          | -20.57204919          | -0.999503014                    | 0.006554096                     | 0.000222 |
| ATR-D 80-3 | 3.64          | -20.84139519          | -1.730390523                    | 0.006279055                     | 0.000226 |
| ATR-D B    | 20.54         | -26.62075106          | 0                               | 0.000359198                     | 0.000215 |

Table A 23: MET-D C isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{C/C}_0)$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{R/R}_0)$ | Error    |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------|
| MET-D T0   | 46.62         | -28.28475             | 0                         | 0                         | 0.000158 |
| MET-D 20-1 | 28.34         | -27.80066667          | -0.497755                 | 0.00049805                | 0.000114 |
| MET-D 20-2 | 32.42         | -28.016               | -0.363254                 | 0.000276535               | 0.000117 |
| MET-D 20-3 | 32.06         | -28.02633333          | -0.37442                  | 0.000265903               | 0.00012  |
| MET-D 40-1 | 22.26         | -27.93533333          | -0.739238                 | 0.000359523               | 0.000162 |
| MET-D 40-2 | 21.42         | -27.89866667          | -0.777705                 | 0.000397243               | 0.000132 |
| MET-D 50-2 | 14.44         | -27.59466667          | -1.172028                 | 0.000709918               | 0.000147 |
| MET-D 50-3 | 15.62         | -27.59833333          | -1.093477                 | 0.000706148               | 0.000181 |
| MET-D 60-1 | 14.32         | -27.31766667          | -1.180372                 | 0.000994738               | 0.000207 |
| MET-D 60-2 | 14.12         | -27.27266667          | -1.194437                 | 0.001041001               | 0.000221 |
| MET-D 60-3 | 20.58         | -27.22833333          | -0.81771                  | 0.001086576               | 0.000111 |
| MET-D 80-1 | 7.16          | -26.04533333          | -1.87352                  | 0.00230195                | 0.000124 |
| MET-D 80-2 | 10.44         | -26.28033333          | -1.496385                 | 0.002060637               | 0.000243 |
| MET-D 80-3 | 10.08         | -26.28333333          | -1.531476                 | 0.002057556               | 0.000283 |
| MET-D B    | 46.62         | -28.3137              | 0                         | -0.000029793              | 0.000132 |

Table A 24: ATR-N C isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{C/C}_0)$ | $\text{Ln}(\text{R/R}_0)$ | Error      |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------|
| ATR-N T0   | 20            | -26.78383368          | 0                         | 0                         | 0.00014323 |
| ATR-N 20-3 | 12.681984     | -24.3211937           | -1.66706703               | 0.002527218               | 0.00008430 |
| ATR-N 40-1 | 5.852         | -24.09678857          | -1.22894879               | 0.002757191               | 0.00008894 |
| ATR-N 60-1 | 2.776         | -22.99734476          | -1.97472123               | 0.003883148               | 0.00014073 |
| ATR-N 60-3 | 3.12          | -22.96591532          | -1.85789927               | 0.003915316               | 0.00013959 |
| ATR-N 90-3 | 1.12          | -22.90806807          | -2.88240359               | 0.003974521               | 0.00015359 |
| ATR-N 95-3 | 0.174         | -20.77102546          | -4.74443225               | 0.006159279               | 0.00019795 |
| ATR-N 99-1 | 0.084         | -17.68694075          | -5.47267075               | 0.009303833               | 0.00007162 |

Table A 25: MET-N C isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ | Ln(C/C0)  | Ln (R/R0)    | Error    |
|------------|---------------|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|----------|
| MET-N T0   | 50            | -28.03313117          | 0         | 0            | 9.2E-05  |
| MET-N 20-2 | 31.815        | -27.60696216          | -0.452085 | 0.000438364  | 0.000254 |
| MET-N 40-3 | 19.31         | -28.3117234           | -0.9514   | -0.000286668 | 8.44E-05 |
| MET-N 60-3 | 11.045        | -27.47606753          | -1.510045 | 0.000572966  | 0.000228 |
| MET-N 80-2 | 3.69          | -27.08184752          | -2.606397 | 0.000978242  | 0.000243 |
| MET-N 90-2 | 1.06          | -26.46351392          | -3.853754 | 0.001613585  | 0.000232 |
| MET-N 95-2 | 0.11          | -25.96127956          | -6.119298 | 0.002129339  | 0.000192 |
| MET-N 99-2 | 0.135         | -25.45387087          | -5.914504 | 0.002650136  | 5.17E-05 |

#### Annex A.2.7. Cl isotope analysis

Table A 26: ATR-D Cl isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ | Ln(C/C0)     | Ln (R/R0)    | Error    |
|------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| ATR-D T0   | 20.54         | 0.5256                 | 0            | 0            | 0.001663 |
| ATR-D 40-2 | 15.6          | -3.0156                | -0.27510329  | -0.003545618 | 0.002865 |
| ATR-D 40-3 | 16.34         | -2.2028                | -0.228758115 | -0.002730692 | 0.00246  |
| ATR-D 50-2 | 11.04         | -3.4733                | -0.620849164 | -0.004004808 | 0.002774 |
| ATR-D 60-2 | 9.4           | -9.2817                | -0.781664515 | -0.009850505 | 0.002189 |
| ATR-D 80-2 | 7.56          | -10.36710128           | -0.999503014 | -0.010946676 | 0.000995 |

Table A 27: MET-D Cl isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ | Ln(C/C0)  | Ln (R/R0) | Error        |
|------------|---------------|------------------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|
| MET-D T0   | 46.62         | -6.8396                | 0         | 0         | 0.0017153322 |
| MET-D 20-1 | 28.34         | -5.1373                | -0.4978   | 0.001713  | 0.0010238631 |
| MET-D 40-2 | 21.42         | -3.4757                | -0.7777   | 0.003381  | 0.0021472483 |
| MET-D 50-2 | 14.44         | -3.2764                | -1.172028 | 0.003581  | 0.000964043  |
| MET-D 60-2 | 14.12         | -3.7876                | -1.194437 | 0.003068  | 0.001144753  |
| MET-D 60-3 | 20.58         | -3.4914                | -0.81771  | 0.003366  | 0.001077734  |
| MET-D 80-1 | 7.16          | -1.4339                | -1.87352  | 0.005428  | 0.001035121  |
| MET-D 80-2 | 10.44         | -2.5169                | -1.496385 | 0.004343  | 0.001162946  |
| MET-D 80-3 | 10.08         | -2.9330                | -1.531476 | 0.003926  | 0.001074188  |

Table A 28: ATR-N Cl isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ | $\ln(C/C_0)$ | $\ln(R/R_0)$ | Error    |
|------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| ATR-N T0   | 20            | 0.5287                 | 0            | 0            | 0.001485 |
| ATR-N 20-1 | 14            | -2.6209                | -0.352332251 | -0.00315     | 0.001046 |
| ATR-N 40-1 | 5.852         | -5.2278                | -1.485269282 | -0.00577     | 0.001402 |
| ATR-N 60-1 | 2.776         | -7.3944                | -2.227206627 | -0.00795     | 0.003886 |
| ATR-N 60-3 | 3.12          | -6.1042                | -1.461738785 | -0.00665     | 0.001802 |
| ATR-N 95-3 | 0.174         | -14.9795               | -4.635152235 | -0.01562     | 0.001721 |

Table A 29: MET-N Cl isotope analysis

| Experiment | Concentration | $\delta^{37}\text{Cl}$ | $\ln(C/C_0)$ | $\ln(R/R_0)$ | Error    |
|------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| MET-N T0   | 50            | -5.8082                | 0            | 0            | 0.001854 |
| MET-N 20-1 | 31.99         | -4.6903                | -0.446599651 | 0.001124     | 0.001314 |
| MET-N 40-1 | 25.765        | -4.6245                | -0.663006024 | 0.00119      | 0.001516 |
| MET-N 60-1 | 9.775         | -3.2996                | -1.6321949   | 0.00252      | 0.001248 |
| MET-N 60-3 | 11.045        | -4.3102                | -1.510045169 | 0.001506     | 0.001455 |
| MET-N 80-2 | 3.69          | -2.1087                | -2.606396547 | 0.003714     | 0.001536 |
| MET-N 90-2 | 1.06          | -1.6045                | -3.853754097 | 0.004219     | 0.001538 |

#### Annexe A.2.8. ME-CSIA

Table A 30: ATR-D dual isotope C-Cl

| Experiment | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error       |
|------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|-------------|
| ATR-D T0   | 0                     | 0  | 0.8317   | 0   | 0.132999975 |
| ATR-D 40-2 | 26.00486111           | -3.5412  | 2.0272   | 1.948812382                                     | 0.059594793 |
| ATR-D 40-3 | 26.00486111           | -2.7284  | 1.625    | 1.376706178                                     | 0.14590688  |
| ATR-D 50-2 | 35.00694444           | -3.9989  | 1.9358   | 3.133202592                                     | 0.146016562 |
| ATR-D 60-2 | 46.75208333           | -9.8073  | 1.3448   | 4.788184146                                     | 0.023310044 |
| ATR-D 80-2 | 81.61388889           | -10.89270128                                     | 0.1623   | 6.398274699                                     | 0.083618206 |
| ATR-D 80-3 | 81.61388889           | -10.6973   | 0.269027 | 6.128928696                                     | 0.087183961 |

Table A 31: MET-D dual isotope C-Cl

| Experiment | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error     |
|------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|-----------|
| MET-D T0   | 0                     | 0  | 0.8518   | 0   | 0.0768802 |
| MET-D 20-1 | 7.91944444            | 1.702297135                                      | 0.165343 | 0.484083333                                     | 0.0339477 |
| MET-D 40-2 | 17.6756944            | 3.3639   | 1.2851   | 0.386083333                                     | 0.0515504 |
| MET-D 40-3 | 17.6756944            | 2.591728302                                      | 0.247758 | 0.558416667                                     | 0.0178543 |
| MET-D 50-2 | 23.9840278            | 3.563199987                                      | 0.106028 | 0.690083333                                     | 0.0656895 |
| MET-D 60-1 | 31.7055556            | 2.2636   | 0.1689   | 0.967083333                                     | 0.1241804 |
| MET-D 60-2 | 31.7055556            | 3.052  | 0.286    | 1.012083333                                     | 0.137726  |
| MET-D 60-3 | 31.7055556            | 3.3482   | 0.2193   | 1.056416667                                     | 0.0308185 |
| MET-D 80-1 | 55.6895833            | 5.4057   | 0.1772   | 2.239416667                                     | 0.0438799 |
| MET-D 80-2 | 55.6895833            | 4.322697939                                      | 0.304511 | 2.004416667                                     | 0.1592496 |
| MET-D 80-3 | 55.6895833            | 3.906589522                                      | 0.215887 | 2.001416667                                     | 0.1985693 |

Table A 32: ATR-N dual isotope C-Cl

| Experiment | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error     |
|------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|-----------|
| ATR-N T0   | 0                     | 0  | 0.7427   | 0   | 0.069699  |
| ATR-N 20   | 2.995138889           | -3.1496  | 0.3029   | 2.462639983                                     | 0.0123758 |
| ATR-N 40-1 | 6.986805556           | -5.7565  | 0.6567   | 2.687045114                                     | 0.016909  |
| ATR-N 60-1 | 12.29930556           | -7.923086442                                     | 3.120513 | 3.786488919                                     | 0.0675199 |
| ATR-N 60-3 | 12.29930556           | -6.6329  | 1.0533   | 3.817918363                                     | 0.0664097 |
| ATR-N 95-3 | 40.21111111           | -15.5082   | 0.9637   | 6.012808228                                     | 0.1237105 |

Table A 33: MET-N dual isotope C-Cl

| Experiment | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    |
|------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|----------|
| MET-N T0   | 0                     | 0  | 0.9217   | 0   | 0.044727 |
| MET-N 20   | 2.3388889             | 1.1179   | 0.3855   | 0.426169  | 0.202264 |
| MET-N 40   | 5.3548611             | 1.1837   | 0.586    | -0.27859  | 0.037258 |
| MET-N 60-3 | 9.9486111             | 1.498  | 0.5255   | 0.557064  | 0.17699  |
| MET-N 80-2 | 17.014583             | 3.6995   | 0.6072   | 0.951284  | 0.19213  |
| MET-N 90-2 | 24.665278             | 4.2037   | 0.610000 | 1.569617  | 0.180641 |

Table A 34: ATR ME-CSIA comparison

| Experiment and litterature    | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error       |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|-------------|
| ATR-D T0                      | 0                     | 0  | 0.8317   | 0   | 0.132999975 |
| ATR-D 40-2                    | 26.00486111           | -3.5412  | 2.0272   | 1.948812382                                     | 0.059594793 |
| ATR-D 40-3                    | 26.00486111           | -2.7284  | 1.625    | 1.376706178                                     | 0.14590688  |
| ATR-D 50-2                    | 35.00694444           | -3.9989  | 1.9358   | 3.133202592                                     | 0.146016562 |
| ATR-D 60-2                    | 46.75208333           | -9.8073  | 1.3448   | 4.788184146                                     | 0.023310044 |
| ATR-D 80-2                    | 81.61388889           | -10.89270128                                     | 0.1623   | 6.398274699                                     | 0.083618206 |
| ATR-D 80-3                    | 81.61388889           | -10.6973   | 0.269027 | 6.128928696                                     | 0.087183961 |
| ATR-N T0                      | 0                     | 0  | 0.7427   | 0   | 0.069698952 |
| ATR-N 20                      | 2.995138889           | -3.1496  | 0.3029   | 2.462639983                                     | 0.012375812 |
| ATR-N 40-1                    | 6.986805556           | -5.7565  | 0.6567   | 2.687045114                                     | 0.016908966 |
| ATR-N 60-1                    | 12.29930556           | -7.923086442                                     | 3.120513 | 3.786488919                                     | 0.067519949 |
| ATR-N 60-3                    | 12.29930556           | -6.6329  | 1.0533   | 3.817918363                                     | 0.066409663 |
| ATR-N 95-3                    | 40.21111111           | -15.5082   | 0.9637   | 6.012808228                                     | 0.123710511 |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 0  |          | 0.0   |             |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 1  |          | 1.7   |             |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 3  |          | 5.1   |             |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 4  |          | 6.8   |             |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 5  |          | 8.5   |             |
| biodegradation hydrolysis     |                       | 6  |          | 10.2  |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 0  |          | 0.0   |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 3  |          | 1.8   |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 6  |          | 3.6   |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 9  |          | 5.4   |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 12   |          | 7.2   |             |
| biotic oxidative dealkylation |                       | 15   |          | 9.0   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 0  |          | 0.0   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 0.25   |          | 1.9   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 0.5  |          | 3.7   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 0.75   |          | 5.6   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 1  |          | 7.4   |             |
| abiotic hydrolysis            |                       | 1.5  |          | 11.1  |             |

Table A 35: MET ME-CSIA comparison

| Experiment and litterature        | Experiment time (day) | $\Delta^{37}\text{Cl} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error    | $\Delta^{13}\text{C} (\text{\textperthousand})$ | Error     |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--|----------|---|-----------|
| MET-D T0                          | 0                     | 0  | 0.8518   | 0   | 0.0768802 |
| MET-D 20-1                        | 7.91944444            | 1.702297135                                      | 0.165343 | 0.484083333                                     | 0.0339477 |
| MET-D 40-2                        | 17.6756944            | 3.3639   | 1.2851   | 0.386083333                                     | 0.0515504 |
| MET-D 40-3                        | 17.6756944            | 2.591728302                                      | 0.247758 | 0.558416667                                     | 0.0178543 |
| MET-D 50-2                        | 23.9840278            | 3.563199987                                      | 0.106028 | 0.690083333                                     | 0.0656895 |
| MET-D 60-1                        | 31.7055556            | 2.2636   | 0.1689   | 0.967083333                                     | 0.1241804 |
| MET-D 60-2                        | 31.7055556            | 3.052  | 0.286    | 1.012083333                                     | 0.137726  |
| MET-D 60-3                        | 31.7055556            | 3.3482   | 0.2193   | 1.056416667                                     | 0.0308185 |
| MET-D 80-1                        | 55.6895833            | 5.4057   | 0.1772   | 2.239416667                                     | 0.0438799 |
| MET-D 80-2                        | 55.6895833            | 4.322697939                                      | 0.304511 | 2.004416667                                     | 0.1592496 |
| MET-D 80-3                        | 55.6895833            | 3.906589522                                      | 0.215887 | 2.001416667                                     | 0.1985693 |
| MET-N T0                          | 0                     | 0  | 0.9217   | 0   | 0.0447268 |
| MET-N 20                          | 2.338888889           | 1.1179   | 0.3855   | 0.426169017                                     | 0.2022641 |
| MET-N 40                          | 5.354861111           | 1.1837   | 0.586    | -0.278592229                                    | 0.037258  |
| MET-N 60-3                        | 9.948611111           | 1.498  | 0.5255   | 0.557063643                                     | 0.1769899 |
| MET-N 80-2                        | 17.0145833            | 3.6995   | 0.6072   | 0.951283654                                     | 0.19213   |
| MET-N 90-2                        | 24.6652778            | 4.2037   | 0.610000 | 1.569617255                                     | 0.1806413 |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 0  |          | 0   |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 1  |          | 0.37  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 2  |          | 0.74  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 3  |          | 1.11  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 4  |          | 1.48  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Ponsin)   |                       | 5  |          | 1.85  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 0  |          | 0   |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 1  |          | 0.55  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 2  |          | 1.1   |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 3  |          | 1.65  |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 4  |          | 2.2   |           |
| MET abiotic hydrolysis (Torrentó) |                       | 5  |          | 2.75  |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 0  |          | 0   |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 1  |          | 0.53  |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 2  |          | 1.06  |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 3  |          | 1.59  |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 4  |          | 2.12  |           |
| MET soil biodegradation           |                       | 5  |          | 2.65  |           |

For table A 31 and A 32, other degradation reactions were calculated using the slopes given in the articles of Ponsin et al. (2019) (abiotic hydrolysis of MET), Lihl et al. (2020) (biodegradation of ATR) and Torrentó et al. (2021) (abiotic hydrolysis of ATR and MET and soil biodegradation of MET).

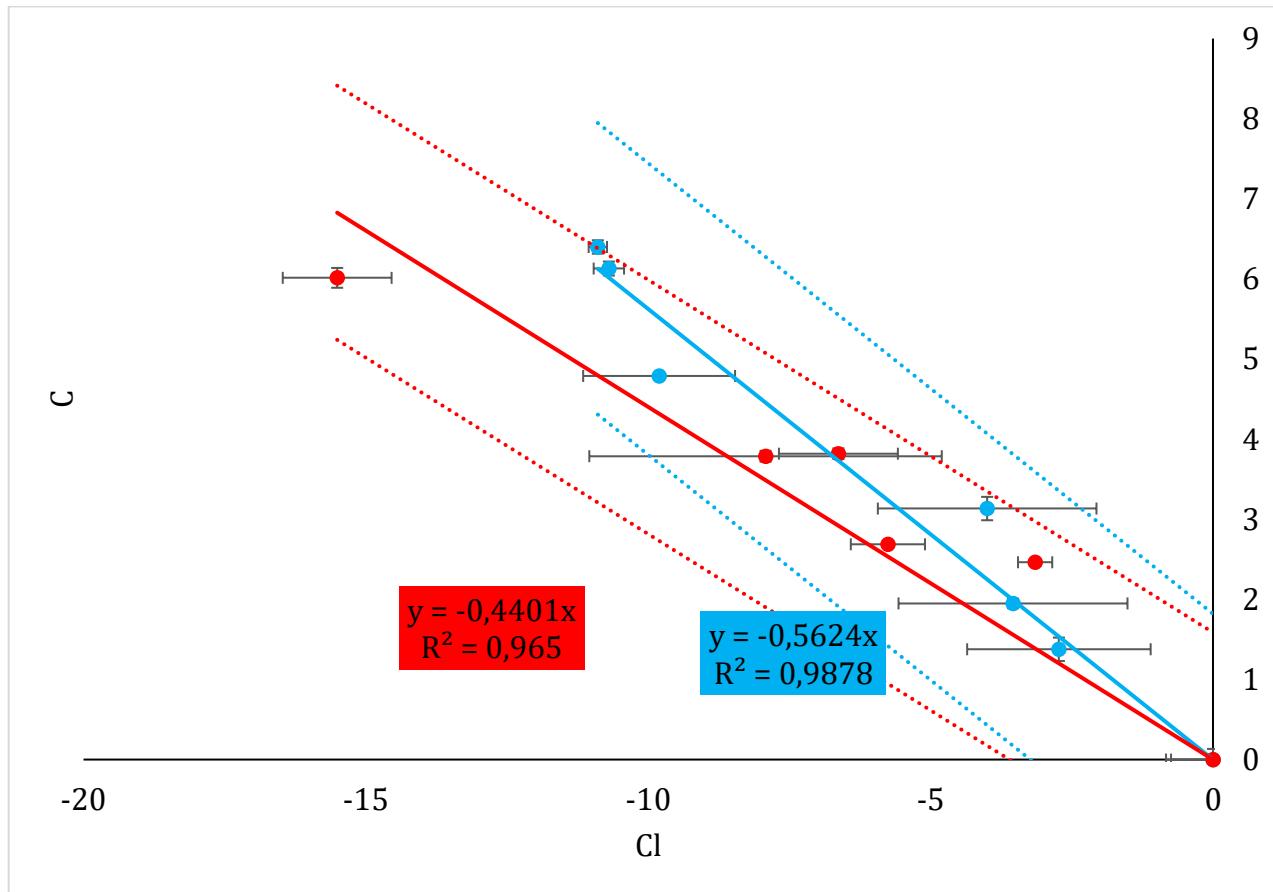


Figure A 6: dual plot isotope diagram Cl-C for ATR

Direct photodegradation is shown in blue, while indirect photodegradation is shown in red. Dotted line represent the 95% accuracy calculated with a Student test.

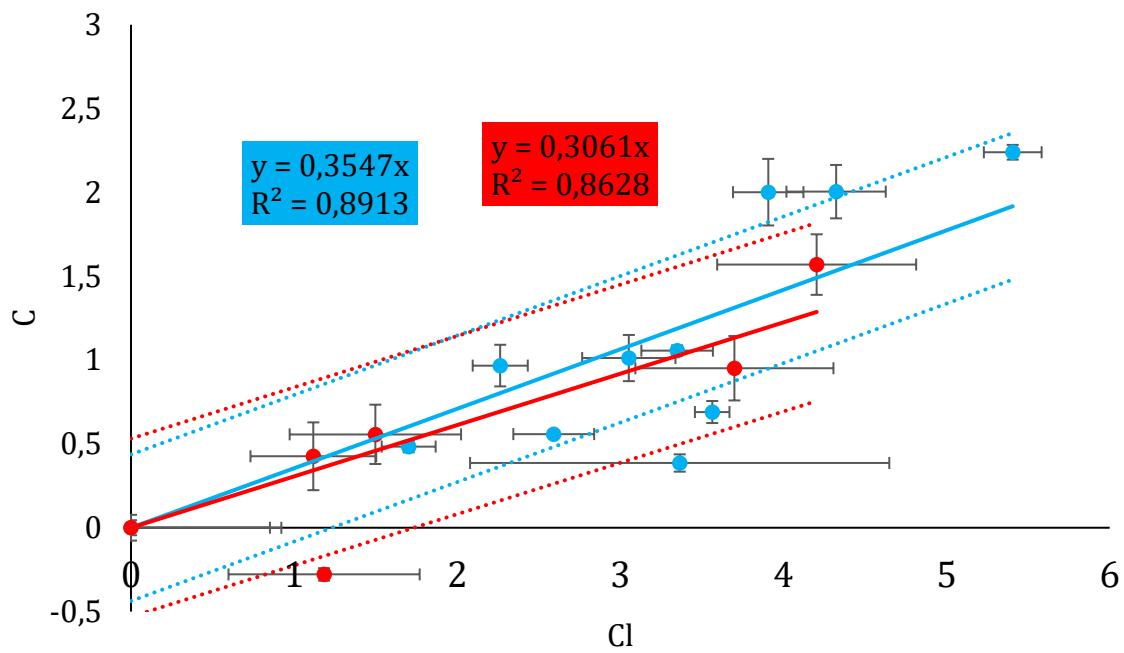


Figure A 7: dual plot isotope diagram Cl-C for MET

Direct photodegradation is shown in blue, while indirect photodegradation is shown in red. Dotted line represent the 95% accuracy calculated with a Student test.

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