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Evaluating the environmental parameters that determine aerobic biodegradation half-lives of pesticides in soil with a multivariable approach

Yuxin Wang^a, Adelene Lai^{b,c}, Diogo Latino^b, Kathrin Fenner^{b,c,d}, Damian E. Helbling^{a,*}

^a School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA

^b EAWAG, Überlandstrasse 133, 8600, Dübendorf, Switzerland

^c Institute of Biogeochemistry and Pollutant Dynamics, ETH Zürich, 8092, Zürich, Switzerland

^d Department of Chemistry, University of Zürich, 8057, Zürich, Switzerland

HIGHLIGHTS

- Aerobic biodegradation half-lives collected from literature for eleven pesticides.
- Multivariable framework developed to link environmental metadata to half-lives.
- Application history and biomass always positively associated with half-lives.
- Relevance of other metadata depend on physicochemical properties of pesticide.
- Results provide quantitative link between half-lives and partitioning behavior.

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ABSTRACT

Aerobic biodegradation half-lives (half-lives) are key parameters used to evaluate pesticide persistence in soil. However, half-life estimates for individual pesticides often span several orders of magnitude, reflecting the impact that various environmental or experimental parameters have on half-lives in soil. In this work, we collected literature-reported half-lives for eleven pesticides along with associated metadata describing the environmental or experimental conditions under which they were derived. We then developed a multivariable framework to discover relationships between the half-lives and associated metadata. We first compared data for the herbicide atrazine collected from 95 laboratory and 65 field studies. We discovered that atrazine application history and soil texture were the parameters that have the largest influence on the observed half-lives in both types of studies. We then extended the analysis to include ten additional pesticides with data collected exclusively from laboratory studies. We found that, when data were available, pesticide application history and biomass concentrations were always positively associated with half-lives. The relevance of other parameters varied among the pesticides, but in some cases the variability could be explained by the physicochemical properties of the pesticides. For example, we found that the relative significance of the organic carbon content of soil for determining half-lives depends on the relative solubility of the pesticide. Altogether, our analyses highlight the reciprocal influence of both environmental parameters and intrinsic physicochemical properties for determining half-lives in soil.

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1. Introduction

Abiotic and biotic degradation are major determinants of the environmental fate of chemicals. As such, quantitative estimates of abiotic and biotic degradation half-lives or rate constants are key input parameters for environmental fate models (ECETOC, 2017). However, environmental fate models are often most sensitive to

* Corresponding author. School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Cornell University, 220 Hollister Hall, Ithaca, NY, 14853, USA.

E-mail address: damian.helbling@cornell.edu (D.E. Helbling).

inaccuracies in degradation rate constants (Fenner et al., 2007; ter Horst and Koelmans, 2016) and degradation rate constants are often the most uncertain parameters included in environmental fate models (Ghafoor, 2013; Krutz et al., 2008). Much of the uncertainty resides in the fact that degradation depends on both environmental parameters and intrinsic physicochemical properties of the chemical. Therefore, degradation rate constants can range widely for a given chemical under varying environmental conditions (Aronson et al., 2006; Fenner et al., 2007). Whereas much is known about parameters that are expected to influence degradation half-lives, less is known about the quantitative effects that changes in those parameters may have (Boethling et al., 2009; McLachlan et al., 2016).

One of the most well-studied degradation processes is the aerobic biodegradation of pesticides in soil (Pal et al., 2006). For example, atrazine biodegradation in soil has been studied for decades and hundreds of half-lives have been reported in the literature (Charnay et al., 2005; Fenner et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2003; Vischetti et al., 1997). Many of those studies likewise report associated metadata describing the environmental or experimental conditions under which the half-lives were derived. The sum of these studies confirms that aerobic biodegradation in soil is a highly variable process, with estimated half-lives ranging between one day and several years. However, the relative importance of the environmental parameters that contribute to this observed variability remain poorly understood (Shaner et al., 2011) and cannot be fully explained by bivariate correlation analyses (Greskowiak et al., 2017).

An improved understanding of pesticide persistence in soil is predicated on an improved understanding of the environmental parameters that influence aerobic biodegradation half-lives (half-lives). If the most important environmental parameters driving the half-life of a pesticide in soil are well described, then laboratory experiments could be designed to develop a quantitative understanding of those dependencies, which could in turn be incorporated into environmental fate models. The primary objectives of this work were to: (i) collect half-lives and associated metadata describing the environmental conditions under which they were derived for a set of well-studied pesticides; and (ii) develop a multivariable framework to evaluate the environmental or experimental parameters that influence the reported half-lives for those pesticides. Because we collected a significant amount of aerobic biodegradation data from both laboratory and field studies for atrazine, we first describe and demonstrate our multivariable approach in detail by comparing the parameters that influence

atrazine biodegradation in laboratory and field systems. We then present the results of our multivariable approach for ten more pesticides (2,4-D, diuron, metribuzin, acetochlor, chlorsulfuron, mandipropamid, metatriton, metazachlor, quinmerac, and metsulfuron-methyl), and discuss the environmental parameters that exhibit a significant influence on the variability of degradation rate constants among all eleven pesticides.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemical selection and data collection

We collected primary degradation half-lives or first-order rate constants representing aerobic biodegradation in soil for eleven pesticides from a variety of sources including the Eawag-Soil in envPath database, regulatory documents, technical reports, and the scientific literature (Wicker et al., 2016). The eleven pesticides and their physicochemical properties are listed in Table 1. Pesticides were selected based on data availability, but also represent a range of physicochemical properties including the octanol-water partition coefficient (K_{ow}), organic carbon-water partition coefficient (K_{oc}), and aqueous solubility. For atrazine, we collected degradation rate constants from laboratory and field studies. For the remaining pesticides, we collected degradation rate constants only from laboratory studies (due to limited availability of field data). A summary of the rate constants are provided in Tables S1–S12 of the Supplementary Data (SD).

Associated metadata describing the environmental parameters under which the half-lives were derived were also collected. There were fourteen environmental parameters that were reported along with degradation rate constants in at least one of the datasets collected for at least one of the pesticides. These include temperature (T), pH, organic carbon content (c_{org}), sand content ($sand$), silt content ($silt$), clay content ($clay$), total nitrogen (n_{tot}), experimental moisture content as % of water holding capacity ($water$), minimum soil sampling depth which could range from 0 (surface sampling) to some positive value (d_{min}), total sampling depth when soil was collected at varying depths and mixed (d_{diff}), bulk density ($bulk$), cation exchange capacity (CEC), pesticide application history ($pest.cond$) defined as application of the pesticide on the soil within the previous four years (1) or not (0), and the biomass concentration ($biomass$). A summary of these reported data for each pesticide are provided in Tables S1–S12 of the SD.

Table 1

The eleven pesticides and their physicochemical properties.

Compound	pK _a ^a	Charge at pH = 7	Log K _{ow} ^b	K _{oc} ^c (mL/g)	Solubility ^b (mg/L)	Half-life ^d (days)
Atrazine	2.7	neutral	2.6	39–155	35	72
2,4-D	2.8	negative	2.8	20–100	677	12.4
Diuron	13	neutral	2.7	480	42	302
Metribuzin	2.5	neutral	1.7	60	1050	14.5
Acetochlor	15	neutral	3.0	139	223	11.5
Chlorsulfuron	2.5	negative	2.0	45–110	28000	66.9
Mandipropamid	15	neutral	3.6	405–1294	2	65.7
Metatriton	2.8	neutral	0.8	23–133	1800	24.9
Metazachlor	2.3	neutral	2.1	80	430	19.9
Quinmerac	3.5	negative	2.9	19–185	223	35.4
Metsulfuron-methyl	3.5	negative	2.2	4–345	9500	27.3

^a Data are estimated values from MarvinSketch 17.2.20 by chemaxon (<http://www.chemaxon.com>).

^b Data are experimental values reported in the United States Environmental Protection Agency's EPISuite software.

^c Data are from Open Chemistry Database, National Institutes of Health, National Centre for Biotechnology Information. We used the midpoint of the given range for association testing.

^d Data are average values of the collected datasets from laboratory studies.

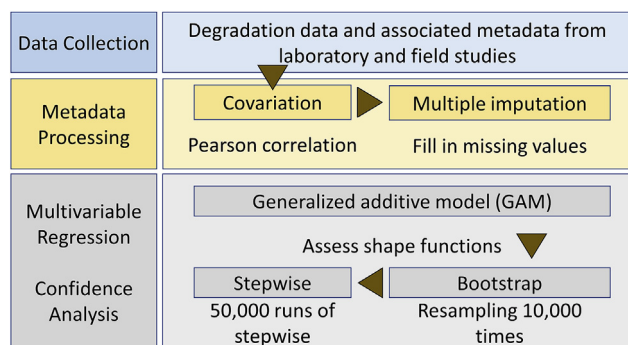


Fig. 1. A schematic of the overall modelling framework. Degradation data and associated metadata are collected from laboratory studies (all pesticides) or field studies (atrazine only). Pearson correlations are utilized to test for covariance among the metadata parameters (predictor variables). Multiple imputation is used to fill-in missing data values for predictor variables with less than 40% missing data and generate five complete datasets. GAM parameterizes a multivariable linear model and provides shape functions that describe the relationship between the magnitudes of degradation rate constants and each of the predictor variables. Bootstrap resampling generates 10,000 datasets from each of the five fully imputed datasets. Stepwise linear regression constructs multivariable linear models that contain the fewest number of predictor variables while meeting defined performance criteria. The predictor variables are ranked by the frequency in which they are selected into well-performing models, providing a level of confidence for identifying the environmental parameters that influence the magnitude of the reported aerobic biodegradation rate constants.

each missing value, thus generating five complete datasets for each pesticide; the values are generated using a regression between the dependent variable (biodegradation rate constants) and the predictor variables (environmental parameters) plus or minus a random term drawn from the residuals of the regression (Allison, 2000; Hippel, 2007; Schafer, 1997). The random term accounts for uncertainty in the imputation, thus providing valid variance estimates (van Buuren and Oudshoorn, 2011; Dong and Peng, 2013; Stuart et al., 2009), and eliminates coefficient inflation that might be expected when using the dependent variable to impute predictors (Allison, 2000). If the dependent variable is not used to impute the predictor variables, then the predictor variable will be imputed as though it has no relationship with the dependent variable. Then, when the imputed data are subsequently analyzed, the estimated slope of the dependent variable on the predictor will be biased toward zero, because no dependence was assumed in the imputation (Hippel, 2007; Landerman et al., 1997).

2.4. Multivariable regression

A generalized additive model (GAM) was used to develop a multivariable relationship between our set of environmental parameters (predictor variables) and the biodegradation rate constants (response variable). Based on our expectations on how each of the predictor variables influence the magnitude of the biodegradation rate constants (Fenner et al., 2007), we developed a generic multivariable model for aerobic biodegradation in soil of the form:

$$\ln(k) = k'_0 + f'(T) + g'(pH) + h'(c_{org}) + b_s \ln(sand) + b_i \ln(silt) + b_c \ln(clay) + b_n \ln(n_{tot}) + b_w \ln(water) + b_m \ln(d_{min}) + b_d \ln(d_{diff}) + b_{bd} \ln(bulk) + b_{cec} \ln(CEC) + b_a(pest.cond) + b_b \ln(biomass) \quad (1)$$

2.2. Modelling framework

We evaluated the data collected for the eleven pesticides by means of multivariable analyses to gain insight on the environmental parameters that influence the magnitude of the reported aerobic biodegradation rate constants. The overall modelling framework that we developed included three steps: metadata processing; multivariable regression; and confidence analysis. A schematic of the overall modelling framework is provided in Fig. 1.

2.3. Metadata processing

Metadata processing included: (1) evaluation of covariation among each of the environmental parameters for each pesticide; and (2) imputation to generate complete datasets when the values for an environmental parameter were not reported in all datasets. We used a Pearson correlation matrix to assess covariation among the environmental parameters and selected one representative environmental parameter when significant covariation was observed. We used imputation to generate complete datasets by establishing quantitative relationships between each environmental parameter and the biodegradation rate constants (van Buuren and Oudshoorn, 2011; Pampaka et al., 2016). We used multiple imputation employed with the MICE package in the R Statistical Software (R Core Team) using the predicted mean matching imputation method to generate five plausible values for

where k is the biodegradation rate constant (calculated from half-lives assuming first order biodegradation) and k'_0 is a model fitting constant. The terms $f'(T)$, $g'(pH)$, and $h'(c_{org})$ are initially unspecified functions of T , pH , and c_{org} because we expect that biodegradation rate constants will vary non-monotonically with these parameters (Fenner et al., 2007). We fit Equation (1) with the biodegradation rate constants for each pesticide and the imputed metadata using the *gam* package in R using nonparametric smoothers for the unspecified functions for T , pH , and c_{org} . The GAM output generates plots of the shapes of the functions that best describe the contribution of each parameter to the magnitudes of the biodegradation rate constants. These plots were used to assign functions to the T , pH , and c_{org} variables and to write the final model in a closed parametric form.

2.5. Confidence analysis

The confidence analysis includes: (1) bootstrap resampling of the fully imputed datasets for each of the pesticides; and (2) stepwise linear regression to select the most significant predictor variables into multivariable models. We used bootstrap sampling with replacement to generate 10,000 individual datasets for each of the five imputed datasets (for a total of 50,000 datasets) based on the full population of data collected (or imputed) for each of the eleven pesticides. Each of the datasets included 60 values drawn

from the original population regardless of the size of the original population. Replacement was applied to represent a truly random resampling, such that a later sample would not depend on the results of the initial sampling. We implemented stepwise linear regression in R to identify models that generate the highest accuracy while incorporating the fewest number of predictor variables. We applied stepwise linear regression to each of the 50,000 bootstrapped datasets for each pesticide to evaluate how frequently each of the predictor variables was selected into well-performing models. We defined well-performing stepwise regression models as those that performed as well as or better than the GAM model for each pesticide. We used the frequency that each predictor variable was selected into well-performing models as a metric of how generally important that predictor variable is in determining the magnitude of the reported biodegradation rate constants.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. General characteristics of the atrazine datasets

We first demonstrate our multivariable approach in detail by examining the environmental or experimental parameters that influence atrazine biodegradation in laboratory and field systems. If laboratory studies adequately reflect aerobic biodegradation of pesticides in the field, then we would expect that the same environmental parameters would be identified in both laboratory and field systems. We collected 95 biodegradation half-lives reported from laboratory studies and 65 biodegradation half-lives reported from field studies. Interestingly, the mean values of the half-lives are similar for laboratory studies (approximately 72 days) when compared to field studies (approximately 43 days), though the standard deviation of reported half-lives from laboratory studies is much larger. Specifically, laboratory studies have reported atrazine half-lives ranging between 1 and 770 days whereas field studies report half-lives between 3.5 and 277 days. It is often reported that dissipation in the field is more rapid than what is observed in the laboratory (Ismail and Kalithasan, 2006; Walker, 1987). This has been attributed to changes in soil properties during handling, changes in the microbial community, or elimination of other loss processes such as volatilization (Ismail and Kalithasan, 2006; Lay and Ilnicki, 1975). The slightly higher mean value and wider range of half-lives noted in the data from laboratory studies could be the result of these or related processes.

We collected associated metadata for each of the 160 atrazine half-lives, which included at least one value for 13 of the 14 environmental parameters under consideration; only *biomass* was unreported. Among the 13 environmental parameters, there were between 1% and 88% missing values in the laboratory studies and 18%–91% missing values in the field studies. We compared the distributions of each predictor variable among laboratory and field studies. For most of the predictor variables, there was no statistically significant difference in the distributions between laboratory and field studies ($p > 0.05$, Mann-Whitney). However, we found that the distributions of T , *sand*, and d_{min} were significantly different between laboratory and field studies ($p < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney). Those differences may further explain the wider range of half-lives reported for the data from laboratory studies.

3.2. Metadata processing

The first step in metadata processing was to evaluate covariation among the predictor variables. Pearson correlation matrices comparing the metadata show that *sand* in laboratory and field studies significantly associates with *clay* ($\rho = -0.72$ in laboratory studies and $\rho = -0.69$ in field studies, $p < 0.05$) and *silt* ($\rho = -0.86$

in laboratory studies and $\rho = -0.87$ in field studies, $p < 0.05$). This is not unexpected based on the composition of soil and this type of association has been previously reported (Fenner et al., 2007). None of the other predictor variables were found to co-vary with any other predictor variable for which sufficient data was available. Consequently, we used *sand* as the representative predictor for soil texture in our multivariable regression analysis.

The next step in metadata processing was to evaluate the extent of missing data for each of the remaining predictor variables and to use multiple imputation to fill in missing values for those parameters for which a sufficient amount of data was available. Whereas multiple imputation is a widely used technique to fill in missing values for incomplete datasets (Pampaka et al., 2016), there are no guidelines for determining how much data is required to achieve robust multiple imputation from an incomplete dataset (Dong and Peng, 2013). Therefore, we used the nearly complete datasets for T , c_{org} , *sand*, d_{min} , and d_{diff} from atrazine laboratory studies to generate incomplete datasets by randomly deleting 10%, 20%, 30%, ..., 90% of the values for each variable. We then used multiple imputation to fill in the missing values of each of the synthetically generated incomplete datasets and evaluated the performance of multiple imputation by calculating the correlation coefficient between the original dataset and the imputed dataset. The results of our analysis demonstrate that multiple imputation can be sufficiently accurate ($R^2 > 0.7$) when no more than 40% of the data is missing. Therefore, environmental parameters that had more than 40% missing values were excluded from further analysis. For atrazine laboratory studies, n_{tot} (83% missing), *bulk* (92% missing) and CEC (88% missing) were excluded and for atrazine field studies, T (83% missing), n_{tot} (72% missing), *water* (82% missing), *bulk* (91% missing) and CEC (78% missing) were excluded from the multivariable analysis.

3.3. Multivariable regression

We fit a truncated form of Equation (1) (with parameters discarded during metadata processing removed) with the imputed datasets using the *gam* package in R. The output from the GAM allows us to examine the shape of the response of the degradation rate constants to each of the predictor variables, which is plotted in Fig. 2 for laboratory and field studies. As expected, the biodegradation rate constants varied non-monotonically with the magnitudes of T in laboratory studies and with the magnitudes of pH and c_{org} in laboratory and field studies (not enough data to evaluate T in field studies). The biodegradation rate constants from the laboratory studies reached a maximum value at a T of 25 °C, similar to previous findings (Fenner et al., 2007). Under most ambient conditions, T is expected to have a positive association with degradation rates, though higher temperatures could change microbial communities and negatively influence degradation rates. The non-monotonic relationship with pH was not as pronounced, but a maximum value was observed at pH 6.5 in both laboratory and field studies. The relationship with c_{org} is not as clear. Our expectation was that degradation rates would be lower at low c_{org} due to nutrient limitation and reduced microbial activity and at high c_{org} due to increased adsorption (Fenner et al., 2007). In other words, we expected to observe an optimum level of c_{org} at which degradation rates would be highest. Our data show lower degradation rates at high c_{org} for atrazine in laboratory and field studies, but no relationship was observed at low c_{org} . Nevertheless, a non-monotonic relationship is noted between biodegradation rate constants and c_{org} in both laboratory and field studies.

Based on the shapes of the non-monotonic relationships observed for T , pH , and c_{org} we expressed these unspecified functions as second order polynomials to write the multivariable model

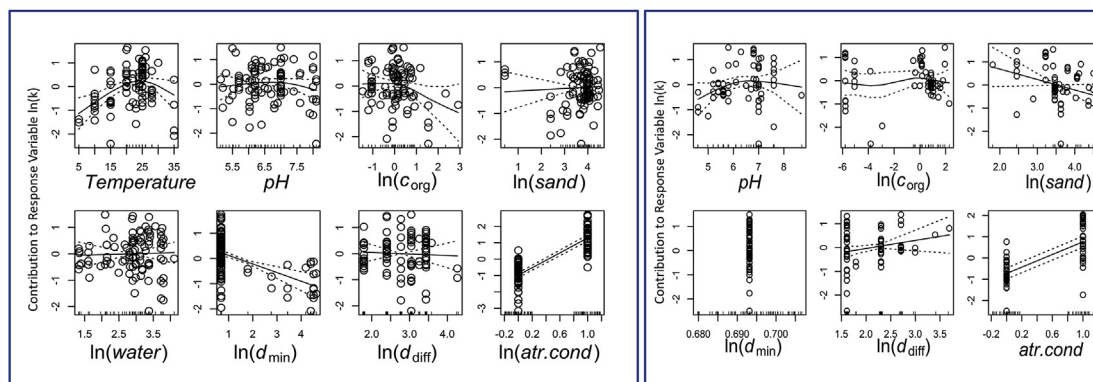


Fig. 2. Shape functions describing the relationships between biodegradation rate constants and each of the predictor variables included in GAM models for atrazine in laboratory studies (left) and field studies (right). The vertical axes indicate the contribution of each variable to the value of $\ln(k)$. Points represent experimental values and partial residuals, solid lines represent the model fit, and dotted lines represent confidence intervals of ± 1 standard error.

in a closed parametric form. We also factored the temperature term and used T^{-1} as the predictor to facilitate comparison to the Arrhenius equation (Fenner et al., 2007). The linear model suggested by GAM for atrazine laboratory studies becomes:

estimation strategies by assessing the robustness of a particular estimator (Stine, 1989). By combining stepwise linear regression with bootstrap techniques, we developed an approach that allows for a ranking of predictor variables based on the frequency in which

$$\ln(k) = k'_0 + b_{T1}\frac{1}{T} + b_{T2}\frac{1}{T^2} + b_{pH1}pH + b_{pH2}pH^2 + b_{c1}\ln(c_{org}) + b_{c2}\ln(c_{org})^2 + b_s\ln(sand) + b_w\ln(water) + b_m\ln(d_{min}) + b_d\ln(d_{diff}) + b_aatr.cond \quad (2)$$

The linear model suggested by GAM for atrazine field studies becomes:

they are selected as significant parameters in well-performing models. We used bootstrap resampling to generate 10,000 datasets for each of the five imputed laboratory and field datasets. This

$$\ln(k) = k'_0 + b_{pH1}pH + b_{pH2}pH^2 + b_{c1}\ln(c_{org}) + b_{c2}\ln(c_{org})^2 + b_s\ln(sand) + b_w\ln(water) + b_m\ln(d_{min}) + b_d\ln(d_{diff}) + b_aatr.cond \quad (3)$$

The linear models have R^2 values of 0.79 and 0.48 for laboratory and field studies, respectively.

3.4. Confidence analysis

The GAM analysis provides a general multivariable model and enables inspection of the shapes of the relationships between the biodegradation rate constants and each of the predictor variables, but it does not provide any information on how important each of the predictor variables are in determining the magnitudes of the biodegradation rate constants. General approaches to identify key predictor variables that contribute to the magnitude of a response variable include stepwise linear regression or subset selection modelling, both of which have recently been applied to evaluate key variables influencing biodegradation half-lives (Fenner et al., 2007; Latino et al., 2017). Although these are statistically sound approaches, they produce a single set of results based on the input data with no assessment of the confidence in those results.

Bootstrap techniques add another dimension to statistical

generated a total of 50,000 datasets for laboratory and field studies, each made up of 60 rate constants selected at random from the original populations. We then used stepwise linear regression to build multivariable models that had the highest accuracy (R^2) while incorporating the fewest number of predictor variables. To be consistent with the results of our GAM analysis, we extracted the subset of models that explained at least 80% of the variability in the rate constant data ($R^2 = 0.8$) for the laboratory studies and 50% of the variability in the rate constant data from the field studies ($R^2 = 0.5$) as well-performing models among the 50,000 models generated by stepwise linear regression. A total of 11,250 models had R^2 values greater than 0.8 for atrazine laboratory studies and 19,260 models had R^2 greater than 0.5 for atrazine field studies. Each of the stepwise linear regression models include a subset of predictor variables that are each assigned a p-value that describes how much they contribute to the performance of the multivariable model. For example, *sand* was selected more than 10,000 times as a significant variable ($p < 0.01$) among the 11,250 well-performing models, which translates to a 92% selection frequency.

Based on our integrated bootstrap and stepwise linear regression approach, the key environmental variables influencing biodegradation rate constants for atrazine in laboratory and field studies are presented in Table 2, where the environmental parameters are ranked from highest influence to lowest influence. The median, minimum, and maximum values of the coefficients of the parametrized models are also provided. Importantly, the data show that the environmental parameters that are relevant for atrazine biodegradation are similar in laboratory and field studies, demonstrating that the differences in rate constants measured in laboratory and field studies are likely due to the differences in the ranges of environmental parameters explored and not the result of experimental artifacts. *atz.cond* and *sand* were selected most frequently as significant environmental variables for both laboratory and field studies, indicating that they are the most important parameters in well-performing models under both laboratory and field conditions. Based on our finding that the ranking of each parameter under laboratory and field conditions are similar, it is reasonable to suggest that *T* could also be a key environmental parameter for atrazine degradation under field conditions, but the lack of documentation of temperature data in field studies excluded it as a model input parameter.

Table 2

Summary of the frequencies in which each parameter was selected into well-performing models for atrazine laboratory and field data.

Environmental Variables ^a	Atrazine Laboratory Studies		Atrazine Field Studies	
	Selection Frequency ^b	Coefficients (median, minimum, maximum) ^c	Selection Frequency	Coefficients (median, minimum, maximum)
<i>atz.cond</i>	99%	2.3 1.2 3.8	99%	1.4 0.5 2.5
<i>sand</i>	92%	1.2 0.3 4.1	57%	−0.7 −2.0 0.5
1/ <i>T</i>	76%	−36 −340 430	NA	NA
1/ <i>T</i> ²	45%	130 −4500 2900	NA	NA
<i>d</i> _{min}	45%	−0.2 −0.4 0.3	0%	NA
pH	34%	4.1 −6.3 19	9%	2.4 −14 11
pH ²	29%	−0.3 −1.4 0.4	11%	−0.2 −0.9 1.0
<i>C</i> _{org}	23%	0.6 −0.6 1.3	21%	0.06 −0.7 0.9
<i>C</i> _{org} ²	12%	0.2 −0.5 1.0	30%	0.03 −0.1 0.2
<i>water</i>	20%	0.3 −0.4 0.8	NA	NA
<i>d</i> _{diff}	7%	−0.3 −0.9 0.6	7%	−0.4 −1.9 0.9

^a Environmental or experimental parameters included in multivariable analysis.

^b Frequency at which each environmental or experimental parameter was selected into well-performing models at a significance level of <0.01.

^c Range of coefficients among well-performing models; NA indicates the parameter was not included in multivariable analysis due to missing values.

Interestingly, the coefficients for most parameters selected into well-performing models range over positive and negative values, reflecting some sensitivity of the results to the population of data sampled during bootstrapping. However, the coefficients for *atz.cond* and *sand* were always positive for laboratory studies and *atz.cond* was always positive in field studies. The changing behavior of the coefficients for *sand* between laboratory and field studies is notable, but *sand* is a surrogate parameter for soil texture and we interpret this result as an indication that soil texture is generally important for the aerobic biodegradation of atrazine in soil. Further, median values can adequately reflect the central tendency of the coefficients for the other parameters. In that respect, the positive values of the median coefficients for *atz.cond* and *water* in laboratory and field studies suggest a general positive association with these environmental parameters. Likewise, the negative values of the median coefficients for *d*_{diff} in laboratory and field studies suggest a general negative association with total sampling depth.

The results presented in Table 2 could be applied to guide the selection of appropriate degradation rate constants to be used for environmental fate modelling. For example, we found that *atz.cond*, *sand*, and *T* were key environmental variables for predicting atrazine biodegradation rate constants. In other words, the variability among the reported half-lives for atrazine was best explained by the variability among the values of these three environmental variables. The relationships between the reported half-lives and these three environmental variables presented in Fig. 2 also match our theoretical expectations (Fenner et al., 2007; Schwarzenbach et al., 2016). Based on these findings, one could use knowledge of one or more of these parameters for a particular study area to select an appropriate atrazine degradation rate constant for modelling atrazine fate in that study area.

Our results can also be interpreted to help guide the requirements of regulatory tests to focus on investigating ranges of the most important environmental variables. For example, instead of using only soil samples from sites that have not had atrazine application in the past 4 years as required by current regulatory guidelines, additional soil samples with a more recent history of atrazine application could be selected for testing. In that respect, laboratory test guidelines should also recommend testing soil samples that cover a range of soil textures. More robust data from laboratory experiments that explore these notable dependencies may lead to an improved quantitative understanding that could be incorporated into environmental fate models.

3.5. Application of multivariable analysis to other pesticides

We next applied the multivariable framework described for atrazine to 2,4-D, diuron, metribuzin, acetochlor, chlorsulfuron, mandipropamid, metamitron, metazachlor, quinmerac, and metsulfuron-methyl. Due to the limited availability of field data for these pesticides, we applied our multivariable workflow only to data collected from laboratory studies. As described for atrazine, we used one parameter to describe soil texture (*sand* for most and *clay* for acetochlor) due to covariation and a threshold of 40% missing data for multiple imputation. A statistical summary of the data available for each pesticide, the results of the GAM analysis, and the range of the magnitudes of the coefficients for parameters selected into well-performing models are provided in the SD. A summary of the frequencies in which each parameter was selected into well-performing models is provided in Table 3.

We first aimed to determine whether any of the observations made for atrazine could be extrapolated to the other pesticides. None of the other pesticides contained sufficient data describing *pest.cond* to include that parameter in our multivariable models. Nevertheless, there was sufficient data on *pest.cond* available for

Table 3

Summary of the frequencies in which each parameter was selected into well-performing models for ten additional pesticides.

	2,4-D	Diuron	Metribuzin	Acetochlor	Chlorsulfuron	Mandipropamid	Metamitron	Metazachlor	Quinmerac	Metsulfuron-methyl
Observations, n	74	53	36	49	51	23	28	49	27	14
R ² of GAM	0.27	0.74	0.65	0.23	0.78	0.78	0.66	0.72	0.82	0.88
% models > R ² of GAM ^a	82%	42%	70%	60%	62%	88%	99%	59%	84%	35%
<i>pest.cond</i>	NA ^b	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>sand</i> ^c	9%	NA	13%	24%	NA	55%	33%	55%	53%	52%
1/T	10%	18%	36%	15%	99%	41%	66%	98%	96%	0%
1/T ²	10%	29%	49%	14%	97%	34%	41%	98%	87%	0%
<i>d</i> _{min}	NA	0%	26%	NA	NA	NA	NA	0%	NA	NA
pH	15%	3%	24%	13%	41%	76%	31%	15%	29%	51%
pH ²	19%	5%	16%	21%	73%	77%	36%	9%	47%	71%
<i>c</i> _{org}	74%	23%	66%	40%	19%	46%	14%	39%	41%	NA
<i>c</i> _{org} ²	88%	28%	20%	2%	24%	56%	12%	72%	73%	NA
<i>water</i>	36%	NA	NA	58%	9%	7%	69%	31%	NA	48%
<i>d</i> _{diff}	NA	99%	14%	16%	NA	NA	NA	43%	NA	NA
CEC	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	4%	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>bulk</i>	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	0%	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>biomass</i>	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2%	NA	NA	NA	NA

^a % models > R² of GAM refers to the percentage of models that had an R² greater than the GAM model following confidence analysis; only these models were considered for further analysis.

^b Frequency at which each environmental or experimental parameter was selected into well-performing models at a significance level of <0.01; NA indicates the parameter was not included in multivariable analysis due to missing values.

^c clay used as soil texture parameter based on data availability and covariation.

2,4-D to perform a bivariate analysis with degradation rate constants. A significant positive relationship was discovered ($p < 0.01$, Pearson) providing additional evidence that pesticide application history is an important variable for determining degradation rate constants. Our multivariable analysis also revealed that *biomass* was frequently selected in well-performing models as an important parameter describing the aerobic biodegradation of mandipropamid, though there was insufficient data to include *biomass* in other multivariable models. However, there was sufficient data on *biomass* available for 2,4-D, acetachlor, quinmerac, and metsulfuron-methyl to perform a bivariate analysis with degradation rate constants. A positive association was discovered between reported rate constants and *biomass* for all four additional pesticides, suggesting that biomass concentration is also a generally important variable for determining degradation rate constants.

No other parameters were found to be generally important for aerobic biodegradation of pesticides in soil. Notably, the dependencies on pH were inconsistent and not particularly strong for most pesticides (Figures S1–S10), which included seven neutral and

four negatively charged pesticides (Table 1). The expected relationship between pH and half-lives is complex, with pesticide speciation influencing bioavailability and interactions with mostly negatively charged soil particles (Chaplain et al., 2011; Schwarzenbach et al., 2016) and pH also affecting microbial community composition and activity (Müller et al., 2003). Because all of the pesticides are neutral or negatively charged in the pH range of the soils reported, we expect that the pH dependencies that are observed among these pesticides are related to microbial community composition and activity. These data reflect that pH is an environmental parameter whose influence on half-lives is difficult to predict.

We next examined the data in Table 3 to determine whether the frequency at which any parameter was selected into well-performing models associated with any of the physicochemical properties of the test pesticides (Table 1). We found that the frequency that *d*_{diff} was selected into well-performing models has a positive and significant relationship with the *K*_{oc} of the pesticide ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3a). Further, the coefficient for *d*_{diff} is always positive for diuron, the pesticide for which *d*_{diff} is most frequently selected

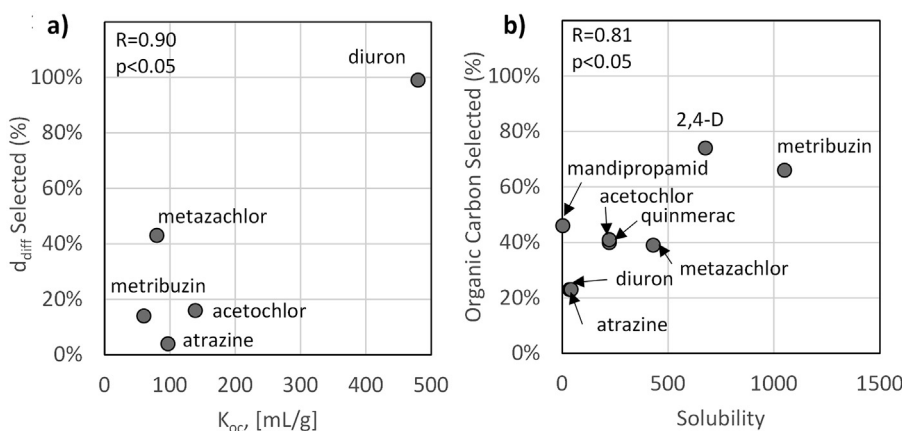


Fig. 3. Relationships between (a) the percentage of well-performing models that select *d*_{diff} as a predictor variable and the *K*_{oc} of the pesticides and (b) the percentage of well-performing models that select *c*_{org} as a predictor variable and the solubility of the pesticide.

into well-performing models, but spans positive and negative values for the remaining pesticides (Table S13). This finding demonstrates that pesticides that adsorb more strongly to soil have a greater degradation potential in deeper soils. We attribute this finding to bioavailability; as soils are pooled over greater depths, c_{org} of the soil mixture decreases making the pesticide more bioavailable and decreases the observed half-life of the pesticide. We further confirmed this by noting a consistent negative but not significant association between reported d_{diff} and c_{org} values among all of our pesticide datasets.

We also discovered that the frequency that c_{org} was selected into well-performing models has a positive and significant association with solubility among low to medium solubility pesticides ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 3b). Remarkably, for the two pairs of pesticides with nearly identical solubility, the frequency in which c_{org} was selected into well-performing models was identical, providing some additional validation to this observation. Whereas c_{org} is included in our multivariable analysis as a second order polynomial making it difficult to interpret the magnitudes of model coefficients, inspection of the shapes of the relationships between c_{org} and biodegradation rate constants for each of the pesticides from the GAM output can be informative. The major differences are noted in the low and high organic carbon ranges for relatively low and medium solubility pesticides. The degradation rate constants for the relatively soluble metribuzin, 2,4-D, and metazachlor exhibit a strong positive association with c_{org} in the low organic carbon range. However, the degradation rate constants for the less soluble atrazine, diuron, and acetochlor exhibit no association with c_{org} in the low organic carbon range. In this low c_{org} range, the primary influence of c_{org} is expected to be positive, as more organic carbon provides more nutrients to support microbial activity (Fenner et al., 2007); this positive influence, however, is only observed for the more soluble pesticides in this analysis, reflecting an apparent interdependency between our expectation and the solubility of the pesticide. The behavior in the high organic carbon range is somewhat different. For the relatively soluble metribuzin, continued increases in c_{org} result in continued increases in biodegradation rate constants. The degradation rate constants for the mid-soluble pesticides such as 2,4-D, acetachlor, and quinmerac exhibit no changes with c_{org} in the high organic carbon range. Finally, the degradation rate constants for the least soluble pesticides such as atrazine, diuron, and mandipropamid decrease with increasing c_{org} in the high organic carbon range. In the high organic carbon range, the primary influence is expected to be negative as more organic carbon content results in greater extents of adsorption (Lucia and Silveira, 2005; Nam and Kim, 2002); we see this expectation manifest only for the less soluble pesticides while the more soluble pesticides are unaffected by increasing organic carbon content (Jardine et al., 1989). Together these data demonstrate that a complex relationship exists between the aerobic biodegradation of pesticides in soil and c_{org} that depends on the intrinsic physicochemical properties and partitioning behavior of the pesticide. Because adsorption and bioavailability play an apparent role in these observations, we expected that a relationship would also emerge between the frequency that c_{org} was selected into well-performing models and the K_{oc} values of the pesticides. We did note a similar (but negative) association between the frequency that c_{org} was selected into well-performing models and the K_{oc} values of the pesticides, but our data suggest that solubility is the better predictor of relationships between c_{org} and half-lives, likely due to reasons of uncertainty in K_{oc} estimates (Table 1) and the limited number of data available ($n = 8$, Fig. 3). Nevertheless, these notable findings provide an important quantitative link between observed half-lives of pesticides in soil and our theoretical understanding of partitioning behavior and bioavailability.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.06.077>.

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