

Photolysis of the Herbicide Dicamba in Aqueous Solutions and on Corn (Zea Maize) Epicuticular Waxes

 Abstract Dicamba, 3,6-Dichloro-2-methoxybenzoic acid, has been used in agriculture as an herbicide for over fifty years, and has seen an increase in use in the past decade due to the development of glyphosate resistant weeds and soybeans genetically modified to resist dicamba. Despite the previous use of dicamba, many questions remain regarding its environmental fate, especially the new commercial formulations used on genetically modified crops. Here, the photolysis of 37 dicamba, including the commercial formulation $Diablo[®]$, is examined in aqueous solutions of varying water quality and on the surface of corn epicuticular waxes. Dicamba is stable to hydrolysis but degrades under UV light. The photolytic half-life for dicamba photolysis in 40 aqueous solutions at pH 7 irradiated with Rayonet UVB lamps (280-340 nm) was $t_{1/2} = 43.3$ min 41 (0.72 hours), in aqueous solutions at pH 7 in a Q-Sun solar simulator (λ > 300 nm) was t_{1/2} = 42 13.4 hours, and on epicuticular waxes irradiated in the Q-sun solar simulator was $t_{1/2} = 105$ hours. Experiments with adjuvants, compounds added into the commercial formulations of dicamba, led to increases in rate constants for both aqueous and wax experiments. In addition to kinetic rate constants, photoproducts were tentatively assigned for the aqueous solution experiments. This work deepens the knowledge of the environmental fate of dicamba including the role surfactants play in chemical reactions and in providing new applications of current methods to examine the photolysis of chemicals sorbed to surfaces.

Environmental Significance Statement

 In 2016, Monsanto announced Roundup Ready 2 soybeans, genetically modified soybeans that can tolerate dicamba and glyphosate. With the increased use of dicamba on soybeans, a crop to which it has not been previously applied, it has become apparent that herbicide drifting causes crop damage in adjacent fields; thus, understanding the environmental fate of dicamba is essential for maintaining ecological health. This project provides details on the environmental fate of dicamba by examining its photochemical reactivity when sorbed to epicuticular waxes, in the presence of adjuvants, and in commercial formulation. The methods used in this work can be extended to examine the photolysis of other pesticides and new pesticide formulations.

 INTRODUCTION Agrochemicals are widely used around the world. In 2012, 1,182 million pounds of pesticides were used in agriculture in the United States; 678 million pounds of that amount was herbicides 62 dedicated to the eradication of weeds.¹ For over 50 years, dicamba, 3,6-Dichloro-2- methoxybenzoic acid, has been one of the agrochemicals used in the United States, historically mostly on corn or grain crops. With a pKa of 1.87 or 1.94,² dicamba is a weak acid that causes death in most plants by targeting the plants' vascular tissue. Past formulations of dicamba have been listed as a restricted-use herbicide due to high potential to volatilize, leach from soils, 67 persist in groundwater, and to cause widespread contamination of ecosystems.^{$3-10$} The use of dicamba decreased upon the rise of glyphosate in the early 2000s, but the recent development of glyphosate resistant weeds means dicamba use is increasing again (as seen by USDA data analyzed on the Pesticide Use Data System of Hygeia Analytics).11,12 In 2016, Monsanto announced Roundup Ready 2 soybeans, genetically modified soybeans branded under the name 72 Xtend, that can tolerate both dicamba and glyphosate.¹³ In April 2016, the EPA allowed the use of dicamba in sprays for these soybeans for five years.¹⁴ In July 2016, the Xtend soybeans gained EU import approval.¹⁵ Despite conditional approval and restrictions on use, growing season 2017 saw the first use of Xtend soybeans in the US - and by the end of the summer, there were thousands of complaints from farmers with fields adjacent to those using Xtend soybeans. It has since been shown in the scientific literature that dicamba drifting is a probable cause for the crop damage in adjacent fields.¹⁶ After lawsuits by several environmental groups, a federal circuit court revoked the EPA approval to use dicamba in June 2020; a week later, the EPA banned the sale of specific dicamba products but said farmers can spray any dicamba products already in 81 their possession.¹⁷ 2020 already marked the end of federal approval of dicamba products, and manufacturers would already have been submitting new applications for approval for use of the 83 products in 2021.¹⁸ In addition, these rulings only impact the newest formulations of dicamba product. Although the future of dicamba use in agriculture is uncertain, it is imperative to examine the chemistry of the molecule to better understand the environmental fate of the product.

 Biodegradation, photodegradation, and chemical reactions are the three main pathways for eliminating pollutants from the environment. In the literature, dicamba is observed to be stable in 90 aqueous conditions and does not undergo hydrolysis as a degradation pathway.² The

91 biodegradation of dicamba has been examined in many publications.^{19–22} There are a handful of papers in the literature exploring the photochemistry of dicamba, but most of the previous work on the photochemistry of dicamba has been done in aqueous solutions with advanced oxidation 94 processes (AOP) such as the use of UV/H_2O_2 to degrade the molecule,⁴ on photocatalysis 95 processes such as using $TiO₂$ as a catalyst,^{4,23,24} or the photo-Fenton reaction^{2,25} to degrade the molecule. There has been no work investigating the photochemistry of formulated dicamba on the surface of crops or examining the role adjuvants, like those added in commercial formulations, have on the photochemistry of dicamba. Here we examine the photochemistry of dicamba in aqueous solution (without advanced oxidation processes), in solution with a model adjuvant, and on the surfaces of epicuticular waxes collected from corn plants. The 101 photochemistry of the commercial product Diablo[®] was also examined in aqueous solution and on the epicuticular waxes. MATERIALS AND METHODS Chemicals and Instrumentation Analytical standards of dicamba (Sigma-Aldrich, >98.9%) were produced ranging from 0.2 mg/L 107 to 40 mg/L in Milli-Q water (Milli-Pore). The commercial formulation of dicamba, Diablo[®], was 108 acquired from Red River Specialties, LLC and used as received. Diablo[®] was diluted from 480 g/L to 15 mg/L in 1 mM pH 7 phosphate buffer. Chromatographic solvents, such as acetonitrile (ACN, ≥99.9%) and water (>99.9% HPLC-grade), were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. 111 Phosphate buffers were prepared using H_3PO_4 , $NaH_2PO_4 \cdot H_2O$, or $NaHPO_4 \cdot 3H_2O$ (Fisher Scientific) as needed in Milli-Q water and were 1 mM in total phosphate. Natural organic matter (NOM) was obtained from the International Humic Substance Society (IHSS) collected from the Suwannee River (1R101N). Actinometry solvents used were methanol (Sigma-Aldrich, ≥99.9% or EM Science, 99.97%), p-nitroacetophenone (Aldrich, 98%), and pyridine (Sigma-Aldrich, 116 99.8%). The adjuvant MAKON[®] DA-6 was obtained as a sample from the Stepan Company of 117 Northfield, IL. MAKON[®] DA-6 is a non-ionic surfactant containing mostly isodecyl alcohol ethoxylate. HPLC analysis for dicamba was performed using 1290 Infinity autosampler and binary pump, 1200 series thermostatted column compartment and 1100 series diode array detector (Agilent)

153 dishes until the dishes contained 10 mL again (to account for evaporation), then 100 μ L of sample was collected into HPLC vials with glass inserts and set aside for HPLC analysis. Samples were collected every two hours over four 8-hour periods with samples being stored in 156 the refrigerator at 9 \degree C between the four periods.

 Multiple photochemical aqueous solution reactions of dicamba (15 mg/L) were conducted using a 600 mL quartz reaction flask filled with ~500 mL dicamba, held in a Rayonet RPR-100 Photochemical Reactor (Southern New England Ultraviolet Company). Each sample of dicamba was prepared by dissolving the necessary amount of solid in desired solvent, usually phosphate buffer (at pH 7), HCl solution (pH 1), or Milli-Q water, followed by sonication for 20 minutes. In experiments with additions of adjuvant or NOM, the appropriate compound (0.24 mL of a 164 1.05% (w/w) MAKON[®] DA-6 stock to make 5 mg/L DA-6 or solid NOM to make solutions of 1 mg/L, 5 mg/L, or 10 mg/L) was added after sonication. For quenching reactions, isopropanol (final concentration of 1%) or l-histidine (final concentration of 5 mM) was added to the solution 167 immediately prior to irradiation. In the experiment conducted with H_2O_2 , 283 µL of 30% H_2O_2 was added after sonication of the 15 mg/L dicamba solution. For the experiments using Minnesota River water, river water was collected using new sample bottles that were rinsed three times before collection and then river water was filtered using a Millipore glass vacuum filter with fiber glass filter paper (5 microns). Dicamba was added to the filtered river water to make a solution of 15 mg/L. For all experiments, solutions were then added to the quartz flask for experimental irradiation in the Rayonet. Samples were irradiated in a dark room with eight 35 W low-pressure mercury lamps that emitted light centered at 310 nm. The 310 nm lamps have a spectral distribution with a full width at half max of 40 nm; the spectral irradiance of the lamps is shown in Figure S-21. The lamps were uniformly distributed around the vessel, and each sample was irradiated for at least 60 minutes. One set of experiments was conducted in the manner described above, but leaving the lights of the Rayonet turned off; this served as the 'dark control' to ensure any observed degradation was due to the UV-light. In addition, one set of experiments was conducted in the Rayonet with UVC lamps (254 nm) to examine the impact of wavelength.

 An outdoor photolysis experiment was conducted in St. Peter, MN on the Gustavus Adolphus College campus (44° 20' 0" N, 93° 58' 0" W) on June 12-13, 2019, from 11:10 am – 5:10 pm

210 a corn plant. The following methods were adapted from the work of ter Halle et al.²⁸ The methods have also been used by others.^{29–31} For each set of experiments, approximately 160 corn plants (Anderson Seed Company, St. Peter, MN) were grown in a greenhouse to the trifoliate stage, approximately 9-11 days. All corn leaves of each plant were cut off and soaked for two minutes in 75 mL of dichloromethane. The solution was then filtered with a vacuum filter and

 approximately 10 mL of solution was deposited onto eight glass petri dishes and allowed to evaporate. Evaporating the solvent off left a layer of plant wax remaining on the surface of the 217 petri dishes. Dicamba solutions of 15 mg/L concentration were applied in 10 mL volumes and left to evaporate the solvent off, leaving a solid layer of dicamba. For the experiments with 219 adjuvant, solutions of MAKON[®] DA-6 (in concentrations of 1 mg/L, 5 mg/L, 10 mg/L, or 15 mg/L) with 15 mg/L dicamba were prepared and added to the petri dishes in the same way as above. According to dicamba field application notes, dicamba should be applied to corn at 222 concentrations less than 0.75 lb/acre;³² applying 10 mL of a 15 mg/L solution to a 5 mm diameter petri dish gives a 0.68 lb/acre equivalent. Measurement of dicamba recovered from the surface prior to irradiation shows overall losses (e.g., volatilization, lack of recovery, degradation in the dark, etc.) are less than 5%. Corn wax plates with applied dicamba samples were exposed 226 to light (irradiance of 0.40 W m^2 at 340 nm) in a Q-Sun Xe-1 Solar Simulator with a Daylight-Q 227 filter (nominal cut-on of 295 nm) at 42 °C. Samples were taken at time intervals ranging from 12-48 hours by reintroducing 10 mL of Milli-Q water before 1 mL aliquots were taken in duplicate. All dicamba irradiated corn wax samples were analyzed using the same HPLC parameters as the dicamba aqueous solution samples. The same method was also used for 231 dicamba with added adjuvant on corn wax surfaces, Diablo[®] on corn wax surfaces, and on dicamba on glass surfaces.

Actinometry/Quantum Yield of Dicamba

 The quantum yield of dicamba under 310 nm lamps in the Rayonet and under the Xe lamps in the Q-Sun solar simulator and in solutions of varying water quality conditions was determined 237 using p-nitroacetophenone/pyridine as an actinometer. A 6.5×10^{-5} M PNAP/0.198 M pyridine solution was made in 50:50 Milli-Q water:methanol and was irradiated using under 310 nm lamps in the Rayonet RPR-100 photochemical reactor for 90 minutes or in the Q-Sun solar simulator for 32 hours. In the Rayonet, 1 mL aliquots were sampled in duplicate every 5 minutes 241 and placed in amber HPLC vials. In the Q-Sun, 100 μ L aliquots were sampled in quadruplicate every 1-2 hours. The samples were then analyzed in the HPLC using the methods described 243 above. The quantum yield of dicamba was calculated from Eq 1 (adapted from Leifer eq 6.18):

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\phi_D = \frac{k_D}{k_{PNAP}} \left\{ \frac{\sum_{\lambda} \varepsilon_{\lambda,PNAP} L_{\lambda}}{\sum_{\lambda} \varepsilon_{\lambda,DL}} \right\} \phi_{PNAP} \quad \text{Eq 1}
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 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

 energy wavelengths present in the Rayonet. The quantum yield for dicamba at pH 7 irradiated in the Q-Sun was determined to be 0.0013, and the quantum yield for dicamba outdoors was 0.0012. These quantum yields, which are calculated relative to photon flux from each light source, are nearly identical, showing that the Q-Sun solar simulator is a good lab based light source to use to examine the environmental fate of dicamba.

Dicamba photolysis in varied pH and wavelength

 The impact of wavelength on the photodegradation of dicamba was examined in the Rayonet reactor by using both UVC (254 nm) and UVB (280 – 340 nm, centered at 310 nm) lamps. The 347 observed rate constant for the photodegradation of dicamba under 254 nm light was 56.2 ± 2.9 day⁻¹ (Figure S2). This rate constant is a factor of 2 larger than the rate constant obtained under the 310 nm lamps, and two orders of magnitude larger than the reaction in the Q-Sun. The difference in degradation observed with the different lamps is due to differences in photon flux and energy of the photons from the two sets of lamps, the differences in absorbance of light by dicamba at the two wavelengths, and possibly due to different reaction mechanisms. Since UVC light is not environmentally relevant, no further work was done at this wavelength. Although the Rayonet UVB light source is not a perfect model for environmental light sources, the Rayonet UVB light was used for a series of further experiments to more deeply explore the photochemistry of dicamba as these experiments could be conducted more quickly than experiments outdoors or in the Q-Sun solar simulator, allowing time for more exploration of the photochemical reactions. In addition, a quick look at the irradiated samples from the Q-Sun on the LC-MS showed similar photoproducts to the samples from the samples irradiated with the Rayonet UVB lamps, suggesting that the mechanisms may be similar.

 The pKa of dicamba has been observed to be about 1.9, and the molecule is primarily deprotonated at a pH of 7.² Despite the fact that dicamba will be in the carboxylate form in natural waters, there may be environmental circumstances where the protonated form may be important. Therefore, experiments of dicamba photolysis in aqueous solutions were conducted 366 under UVB light in the Rayonet in HCl solutions at pH 1. A rate constant of 20.2 ± 1.4 day⁻¹ was observed, suggesting that the reaction is slightly slower in acidic conditions than in the solutions at pH 7. Although the absorbance of 310 nm light is similar for the solutions buffered at both pH

 Dicamba photolysis in varied oxygen concentration

 Photodegradation experiments were conducted in oxygen sparged and nitrogen sparged solutions under UVB light in the Rayonet to further examine the role of oxygen in the photodegradation of

400 dicamba. The average dissolved oxygen content in the oxygen sparged solution was 13 ± 4 mg/L with no significant drop in dissolved oxygen content over the 90 minutes. The average dissolved 402 oxygen content in the nitrogen sparged solution was 2.8 ± 0.8 mg/L with no significant change in 403 dissolved oxygen content over the 90 minutes; this corresponds to approximately $1/5th$ of the 404 dissolved oxygen in the oxygen sparged solution. It was assumed that the addition of 15 mg/L of dicamba would not alter the dissolved oxygen concentration in the buffered solutions, and Winkler titrations were not repeated with dicamba containing aqueous solutions prior to the photolysis.

409 The photodegradation rate constant in the nitrogen sparged solution was determined to be 58 ± 1 410 29 day⁻¹, a factor of three greater than that of the photodegradation rate constant in the oxygen 411 sparged experiment $(21.6 \pm 4.3 \text{ day}^{-1})$. The kinetic data from the nitrogen sparged solution can be seen in Figure 2. The inhibiting effect of oxygen has also been observed in the photolysis of 5- 413 halogenosalicylic acids,⁴¹ compounds with structural similarities to dicamba, and in the 414 photolysis of chlorothalonil⁴². Using laser flash photolysis and computational chemistry calculations, the authors of the paper on halogenosalicylic acids were able to show that oxygen 416 quenched the triplet excited state of the acids.⁴¹ Given the structural similarities of dicamba to these acids, it is hypothesized that the triplet excited state of dicamba is important in its photochemistry and that oxygen acts as a quencher of this state. At reduced oxygen levels, the lifetime of the triplet is longer, leading to faster photoreactions.

421 Diablo[®] and adjuvants

422 The rate constant of Diablo[®] photodegradation in aqueous solution under UVB light in the 423 Rayonet, 21.6 ± 1.4 day⁻¹, was statistically consistent with the rates seen with aqueous solution experiments of dicamba (Table 1). This is not necessarily intuitive as the additional ingredients in the commercial mix could interact with the dicamba and/or the light to lead to a different reaction rate and/or mechanism.

 As discussed in the introduction, one category of molecules added to commercial herbicides mixtures are adjuvants, designed to help the solutions spread on surfaces. A series of experiments were conducted to explore the impact of these adjuvants on the photodegradation of

 dicamba. The concentrations and types of adjuvants used in commercial forms of dicamba are proprietary, but there are several surfactants available on the market. Here, a solution of 5 mg/L 433 MAKON[®] DA-6, an isodecyl alcohol ethoxylate, and 15 mg/L dicamba was tested to model a commercial formulation in solution. The rate constant for the model commercial formulation, 33.1 ± 7.2 day⁻¹, was significantly higher than the aqueous solution experiments of dicamba. Several papers in the literature have found that nonionic surfactant molecules can photosensitize 438 organic molecules such as herbicides.^{43–50} The photosensitization of the dicamba photolysis in the solutions with DA-6 could be due to micelle formation changing the environment in solution, from energy transfer between the herbicide and surfactant, and/or indirect photolysis from the formation of other reactive species. Micelles can form in solutions with surfactant if the concentration of surfactant is above the critical micelle concentration (cmc). For Makon DA-6, an isodecyl alcohol ethoxylate with 6 ethoxylate units, the cmc is estimated to be above 400 444 ppm.⁵¹ For the experiments presented here, with 5 ppm DA-6, no micelles should be formed. Experiments verifying this conclusion are described in the Supporting Information. Micelles, therefore, should not be the reason for the enhanced photodegradation. No experiments were conducted to test the hypothesis that energy transfer may be leading to the photosensitization, but 448 this has been observed in the literature on photochemistry and nonionic surfactants.^{45–48} To investigate whether the adjuvant was contributing to an indirect photolysis pathway, quenchers for singlet oxygen (5 mM l-histidine) and hydroxyl radical (1% isopropanol) were separately added to solutions of adjuvant/dicamba and irradiated. The rate constants for the indirect photolysis experiments of 15 mg/L dicamba with 5 mg/L DA-6 using l-histidine and 454 isopropanol as quenchers were 20.2 ± 2.9 day⁻¹ and 24.5 ± 5.8 day⁻¹ respectively (Table 1). These photodegradation rate constants are consistent with the direct photodegradation rate constant of dicamba, suggesting that there may be indirect photolysis occurring in these

 solutions. It remains unclear what reactive species may be forming in these reactions, and how they are formed, but it is known that dicamba will react with hydroxyl radicals (the literature 459 gives rate constant for the reaction of dicamba with hydroxyl radical as either $k_{OH} = 1.3 \times 10^9$ 460 M⁻¹s⁻¹ or 3.5×10^9 M⁻¹s⁻¹ at pH 7 and T = 20 °C).^{52,53} We also conducted an experiment examining 461 the susceptibility of dicamba to hydroxyl radical reactions by irradiating a 15 mg/L dicamba

 Environmental Organic Chemistry book, were used to correct the measured rate constants for screening:

495 $S(\lambda) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{10}{3z_{\text{max}} D(\lambda) \alpha(\lambda)}$ Eq 2 $1 - 10^{-D(\lambda)\alpha(\lambda)z_{mix}}$ $2.3z_{mix}D(\lambda)\alpha(\lambda)$ 496 where $S(\lambda)$ is the screening factor, $D(\lambda)$ is the distribution function (equal to 1 in these 497 experiments), z_{mix} is the vertical distance in a mixed body of water (equal to 4.6 cm in these

498 experiments), and $\alpha(\lambda)$ is the attenuation coefficient of the medium.^{33,58} $\alpha(\lambda)$ was obtained from 499 UV-Vis spectra of NOM and dicamba solutions, similar to the work of Espy, et. al.³⁸ Because the lamps used in the Rayonet photoreactor have a narrow wavelength range, the photodegradation rate constants obtained in the presence of NOM can be corrected for light screening by dividing the rate constants by the screening factor:

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$$
k_{corr} \approx \frac{k_{obs}^{NOM}}{S(\lambda)}
$$
 Eq 3

504 where k_{obs}^{NOM} is the experimental degradation rate constant for dicamba in the presence of NOM 505 and k_{corr} is the photodegradation rate constant corrected for light screening. Using the equations above, the observed rate constants from the NOM experiments were corrected to account for screening. The corrected rate constants are given in Table 3. As can be seen in the table, the corrected rate constants match (within experimental error) the photodegradation rate constant of dicamba in buffered solution. This shows that the observed decrease in photodegradation rate upon the addition of NOM is accounted for by screening effects.

 Since the experiments with Suwannee River NOM suggested that screening may be an important factor in natural water systems, Minnesota River water was collected and used as a matrix for photodegradation experiments in the lab. The Minnesota River water was collected in St. Peter, MN in June 2019 and June 2020, and was filtered using a Millipore filtering system prior to spiking the water with dicamba to a concentration of 15 mg/L. Although the Minnesota River water was not analyzed, the soil in this area of Minnesota is mostly Lester soil, known to be a loamy soil with nearly equal amounts of sand and silt, slightly lower clay amounts, and soil organic matter in the range of 2-5%.⁶³ The rate constant from these experiments, along with the screening factor, and corrected rate constant are available in Table 3. The rate constants obtained from these experiments show that photodegradation of dicamba in natural waters is slower than any of the photodegradation experiments with Suwannee River NOM. Although there is a slight

 difference between the samples collected from the two different years, the absorbance of light by the Minnesota River water is much stronger than in any of the experiments with Suwannee River NOM, and the calculated screening factor for the Minnesota River water is 0.580 in 2019 and 0.884 in 2020. From the 2019 value, one would predict screening is more prevalent in that Minnesota River sample as compared to the lab experiments with Suwannee River NOM. However, when the rate constant is corrected using the screening factor, the corrected rate constant is still slower than the photodegradation rate constant of dicamba in buffered solution. The same is observed with the 2020 sample. Hence, screening alone does not account for the observed drop in photodegradation rate constant of dicamba in the Minnesota River water. Adsorption of dicamba to a component in the Minnesota River water is a possibility to explain

 the slower reaction rate in the experiments with the Minnesota River water. Several authors have 535 examined the sorption of dicamba to soils.^{64,65} Sakaliene et al., found the adsorption coefficient 536 of dicamba to be the lowest for the series of herbicides they examined, with a K_d value ranging 537 from 0.03 - 0.08 L/kg depending on the soil type. These low K_d values suggest that adsorption is not likely to be the reason for the observed slower reaction rate. This is supported by the fact that dicamba and the NOM are both negatively charged at the pH levels in these experiments, and it has been shown that negatively charged organic species will adsorb more weakly than the related 541 neutral compound to anionic NOM.⁵⁸ In addition, areas of the HPLC peaks from the non- irradiated wax samples align with the non-applied solutions, suggesting no adsorption occurs upon application. Thus, it remains unclear what is causing the reduced photodegradation rate constant of dicamba in the Minnesota River water experiments.

Photolysis on Epicuticular Corn Wax

 Recent studies suggest that the matrix environment in which photolysis studies are conducted 548 can affect both photochemical transformation rates and the photoproduct composition.^{66–70} For example, the epicuticular wax of most species absorbs light below 350 nm and also contains 550 photosensitizing functional groups such as carboxyl groups.^{71–73} Thus, in comparison to photolysis in water samples or other appropriate controls, photolysis of pesticides sorbed to epicuticular wax can be slower (e.g., due to light screening or phase) or faster (e.g., due to photosensitization).

 The experiments with corn waxes are inherently difficult and lengthy due to the time needed to grow the corn, extract and plate the epicuticular wax, and complete the irradiation (so one set of experiments is typically 23-25 days). Dicamba was applied to the surface and irradiated as a solid. Four different sets of corn plants were grown to test the degradation of dicamba on the surface of the waxes. The average rate constant for the photodegradation of dicamba on the 560 surface of corn wax was 0.16 ± 0.01 day⁻¹. The rate constants observed on the corn wax surfaces 561 a factor of \sim 9 slower than the rate constant from the aqueous solution experiment conducted in the Q-Sun solar simulator, and can be attributed to the solid state of the dicamba during irradiation. For comparison, an experiment where dicamba was irradiated after deposition directly on the

 glass petri dishes was conducted. Other groups interested in the surface photochemistry of herbicides have also used glass or quartz as a comparison.2,29,30,66,69 The experiments with dicamba directly deposited on the glass petri dishes yielded no statistically significant reaction. This result can be compared to that of Aguer et al. who found that the photolysis rate constant of dicamba was greater when deposited on clay surfaces compared to the photolysis rate when 571 dicamba was deposited on glass.² In contrast, the herbicides isoproturon and 2,4-D (and related chlorinated phenoxyacetic acids herbicides) and the plant activator acibenzolar S-methyl were 573 found to react faster on glass surfaces than on paraffin wax.^{29,30,66,69} The corn wax used here may have a surface more similar to the clay surfaces used by Aguer compared to paraffin wax surfaces. On the corn waxes, there may be better dispersion across the surface as compared to the glass (perhaps in part because dicamba is anionic in the solid state and glass surfaces are 577 negatively charged).² In addition, Aguer et al. found that dicamba is in a microcrystalline form 578 when in the solid state.² Photolysis in this state is likely slower because less surface is exposed to light and screening can be expected for the central part of the microcrystals. We speculate that the corn wax might allow the dicamba to spread more evenly across the surface.

 Herbicides are generally applied in the field as formulations including the active ingredient and various adjuvants. The most important class of adjuvants is surfactants, used to reduce the surface tension of the spray solution in the field, allowing droplets to spread on the foliage.

 Today, the most commonly used surfactants used are alkyl ethoxylated surfactants.⁷⁴ A series of experiments were conducted to examine the impact adding adjuvant to the epicuticular wax 587 surfaces has on the photodegradation of dicamba. A surfactant, $MAKON^{\textcircled{R}}$ DA-6 (Stepan Company) was added to the surface at several concentrations: 1 mg/L, 5 mg/L, 10 mg/L and 15 589 mg/L (yielding surface concentrations of 5.1×10^{-4} mg/cm², 2.6×10^{-3} mg/cm², 5.1×10^{-3} 590 mg/cm², and 7.7×10^{-3} mg/cm² respectively). Table 1 shows the rate constants from these experiments alongside the rate constant from the experiment without adjuvant. Adding adjuvant to the experiment increased the photodegradation rate constant; with 1 mg/L DA-6, the rate 593 constant increased to 0.26 ± 0.03 day⁻¹ and with 5 mg/L DA-6, the rate constant increased to 0.32 594 \pm 0.03 day⁻¹. This increase is likely due to the adjuvant breaking apart pesticide aggregates as 595 observed by other authors.⁶⁹ However, at higher concentrations of DA-6, the rate constant drops again. We believe this is due to experimental limitations; at concentrations of DA-6 above 5 mg/L, the corn wax layer starts to physically degrade (visibly detaching from the petri dish and breaking apart), and some dicamba and DA-6 may be present underneath the wax layer rather than at the surface. The corn wax layer also degraded with 15 mg/L DA-6, but the rate constant appears higher than the experiment with 10 mg/L DA-6; since the degradation of the wax was not controlled, perhaps more dicamba remained on the surface in the 15 mg/L experiment. Also 602 shown in Table 1 is an experiment where the commercial product Diablo[®] was applied to the surface of corn wax. As with the adjuvant experiments, an increase in photodegradation was observed, suggesting that there are other ingredients in the commercial products that lead to faster photodegradation on the wax surfaces. Due to the complexity of these experiments, the photoproducts and degradation pathways of the reaction on the surface of the epicuticular waxes has not been examined.

 Photoproduct Analysis

 Putative photoproducts were determined using LC-MS-MS analysis of dicamba samples irradiated in aqueous solution under UVB light in the Rayonet at times 0, 35, and 70 minutes. The putative photoproduct structures, measured mass, calculated mass, error, and formula are summarized in Table 4. Proposed structures were determined through fragmentation patterns of tandem mass spectra. The chromatogram collected from the LC-MS is shown in Figure S-23 and a summary of the computational work related to photoproducts is presented in Tables S-2 and

 S-3. These photoproduct assignments would be at Level 3: Tentative Candidates on the Schymanski scale.⁷⁵

 The structure of Photoproduct A was tentatively assigned through the 2D MS fragmentation 620 pattern of the peak ion 204.9461 m/z with 162.9534 m/z and 124.9797 m/z peak fragments indicating loss of a carboxylic acid group and a chlorine atom respectively (Figure 4). Photoproduct A has a 0.09 ppm error calculated for the measured mass, calculated mass, and chemical formula. The 1D MS chlorine splitting pattern and a calculated 5 double bond equivalence confirmed continued presence of the aromatic ring and carboxylic acid as well as both chlorine atoms. This putative photoproduct shows a loss of a methoxy group and gain of an alcohol group. There is no direct evidence of where the alcohol group adds to the ring, but DFT 627 calculations using B3LYP/6-311+G(2d,p) show that the isomer with the alcohol group meta to the carboxylic acid is 2.20 kcal/mol lower in energy than the isomer with the alcohol group para to the carboxylic acid, and 6.96 kcal/mol lower in energy than the isomer with the alcohol group ortho carboxylic acid. This product has also been observed in work examining the 631 photochemistry of dicamba in the presence of $TiO₂$.^{4,23}

 The structure of Photoproduct B was tentatively assigned using the 1D MS Cl splitting pattern, 5 double bond equivalence and the evidence of dimerization within the MS after ESI ionization, all suggesting that the carboxylic acid remained on the ring. The -0.73 error of the measured mass compared to the calculated mass and molecular formula is strong evidence that photoproduct B is an addition of an alcohol group in replacement of a chlorine atom, and replacement of the methyl ether group with an alcohol group. Time dependent DFT calculations using B3LYP/6- 639 311+ $G(2d,p)$ showed that the chlorine-carbon bond meta to the carboxylic acid had a larger change in bond length upon excitation. DFT calculations were also used to determine the molecular energy of three possible isomers of this putative photoproduct (differing by where on the ring the two alcohol groups are attached). Two of these isomers are shown in Table 4; isomer B1, with the two alcohol groups ortho to the carboxylic acid, had the lowest energy of the three isomers examined, and is 1.17 kcal/mol lower in energy than photoproduct B2. This 645 photoproduct has also been observed by Fabbri et al. in their work with $TiO₂$ induce

 photochemistry of dicamba; these authors also show the product in the form of photoproduct B1.⁴

 The structure of Photoproduct C was tentatively assigned using the 2D MS fragmentation pattern of peak ions 234.9564 m/z and 190.9668 m/z. The 5 double bond equivalence suggests that the carboxylic acid group remains in addition to the ring, and the isomer pattern shows that both chlorines are still attached. Figure 5a shows the 2D MS fragmentation pattern of the 234.9564 m/z parent peak ion which indicates the presence of a carboxylic acid group from the 175.94 m/z peak, and two chlorine atoms from the isomer pattern seen in all fragments. The alcohol and ether group were determined from the 175.94 m/z and 139.97 m/z fragments (Figure 5a and 5b). The 2D MS fragmentation pattern of the 190.9668 m/z peak ion confirmed the two chlorine atoms from the isomer pattern visible in all fragments, the loss of an ether group from the 175.94 m/z peak, and the loss of an alcohol group from the 139.97 m/z peak (Figure 5b). DFT calculations were again used to determine the energetic stability of possible isomers of this photoproduct. Isomer C1, with the alcohol group para to the carboxylic acid was found to be 0.21 kcal/mol lower in energy than isomer C2.

 The structure of Photoproduct D was tentatively assigned through use of the fragmentation pattern of the 1D MS with fragment 157.0064 m/z signaling the loss of the carboxylic acid. The 2D MS of the 200.9958 m/z peak ion showed a fragmentation pattern of the loss of the methyl group from the methyl ether and a subsequent loss of the chlorine from peaks 141.9824 m/z and 107.0078 m/z subsequently. Thus, we can conclude that the photoproduct contains one chlorine atom, a carboxylic acid group, and a methoxy group. The 5 double bond equivalence and the evidence of dimerization within the MS also show that the carboxylic acid remains on this 670 photoproduct. Time dependent DFT calculations using $B3LYP/6-311+G(2d,p)$ were also completed with photoproduct D, and again the chlorine-carbon bond meta to the carboxylic acid had a larger change in bond length upon excitation. DFT calculations also show that isomer D2 is 1.25 kcal/mol lower in energy than D1. Both pieces of computational evidence support that the chlorine meta to the carboxylic acid is the chlorine that has been lost during the formation of this photoproduct. This product has been observed in work examining the photochemistry of dicamba

76 in the presence of $TiO₂$ but both papers do not assign a location for the alcohol group and 77 chlorine atom. $4,23$

79 The structure of Photoproduct E was tentatively assigned using 2D MS of the peak ion 232.9865 80 m/z and the fragmentation pattern suggesting the loss of the carboxylic acid (173.9715 m/z), the 81 loss of a chlorine atom and methyl group (137.9960 m/z), and the loss of an oxygen (125.0238 m/z). Fabbri et al. also observed this photoproduct in their work with the photodegradation of 683 dicamba in the presence of $TiO₂$.⁴

 The structure of Photoproduct F was tentatively assigned from 1D MS by the lack of a chlorine splitting pattern, and the 153.0194 m/z fragment that specified the loss of a carboxylic acid group. The presence of the carboxylic acid group was confirmed by the calculated 5 double bond equivalence. We draw the putative photoproduct with the two alcohol groups taking the place of the missing two chlorine atoms. This is another photoproduct also observed in the work of Fabbri 690 et al.⁴ and it has also been observed by Aguer et al.² Both of the photoproducts observed in the irradiation of dicamba in aqueous solution in the Aguer paper had a double substitution of chlorine for two alcohol groups; perhaps the singly substituted photoproducts were not observed 93 due to the experimental conditions/irradiation time.²

 Figure 6 shows a proposed transformation pathway for the photodegradation of dicamba in aqueous solution. This proposed transformation pathway is similar to that presented by Fabbri et 697 al. for the photolytic degradation of dicamba in UV-TiO₂ and UV-H₂O₂ processes,⁴ and is supported by our LC-MS-MS data and putative photoproduct assignments. In the transformation 99 pathway, the first photoproduct formed is photoproduct C , the addition of an alcohol group to 700 dicamba. As with Fabbri,⁴ we posit two different photoproducts forming from photoproduct $C -$ photoproduct A, which is a loss of the methoxy group from dicamba, and photoproduct D, loss of one chlorine and the addition of an alcohol group at the position meta to the carboxylic acid. This isomer of photoproduct D is illustrated as it was found to have the lowest energy in the DFT 04 calculations. From photoproduct D, photoproducts B, E, and F form. These photoproducts illustrate further loss of chlorine and addition of alcohol groups to the ring. Photoproduct B also has a loss of the methoxy group on dicamba. Unlike Fabbri et al., we see no further

 photoproducts/steps in the proposed transformation pathway. We also saw no evidence for the 708 oxidation of the methoxy group Fabbri et al. included in their scheme.⁴ We may not be observing these photoproducts due to the different experimental conditions, analytical capabilities, and/or the reaction times that were examined. CONCLUSION This project provides details on the environmental fate of dicamba, showing that while the molecule is stable in water and does not undergo hydrolysis, it is susceptible to photolysis when in aqueous solution, on epicuticular waxes, in the presence of surfactants, and in formulation. The quantum yield of dicamba, along with the GCSOLAR program, shows that the environmental half-life of the compound is on the order of days, especially in the spring and summer months in which dicamba is applied to fields. The addition of adjuvants causes an increase in photodegradation of dicamba both in aqueous solution and on epicuticular waxes of corn. Experiments saturating the solutions with nitrogen gas show that the presence of oxygen quenches the photodegradation, suggesting that the triplet excited state of dicamba is involved in the photochemistry. Analysis of photoproducts showed an evolution of aromatic compounds. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS This research was funded by the National Science Foundation Grant #1808276 and Gustavus Adolphus College. We extend our gratitude to Dr. Dwight Stoll, Dr. Gabriel Leme, and Hayley Lhotka for their help with gathering chromatographic spectra and mass spectra. AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS **Kaitlyn Gruber:** Data Curation, Formal Analysis, Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Visualization, Supervision, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing; **Brittany Courteau**: Formal Analysis, Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing; **Maheemah Bokhoree**: Formal Analysis, Validation, Investigation, Visualization, Writing – Original Draft, Writing – Review & Editing; **Elijah McMahon**: Formal Analysis, Investigation, Writing – original draft; **Jenna Kotz**:

TABLES

Table 1: Rate Constants for Dicamba Photodegradation and Number of Trials for Each

Experiment, n

	Latitude $(°)$	Integrated Half-life (days)		
Season		DCAM in MN River Water	DCAM in Pure Water	
Spring	30	4.23	4.23	
	40	4.68	4.68	
	50	5.48	5.48	
	60	6.83	6.83	
Summer	30	3.74	3.74	
	40	3.84	3.84	
	50	4.08	4.08	
	60	4.49	4.49	
Fall	30	6.13	6.13	
	40	8.21	8.21	
	50	12.8	12.8	
	60	25.5	25.5	
Winter	30	8.63	8.63	
	40	14.2	14.2	
	50	30.3	30.3	
	60	97.7	97.7	

Table 2: Environmental Direct Photolysis Half-lives of dicamba calculated from GCSOLAR

761 Table 3: Experimental (k_{obs}) and Light Screening Corrected (k_{corr}) Rate Constants for Irradiation

	762 of pH 7 Dicamba. $z_{mix} = 4.6$ cm and $D(\lambda) = 1$ in calculations of $S(\lambda)$.				
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 Figure 1: A selection of UV-Vis spectra of dicamba irradiated at 310 nm. Looking at 200 nm, the top black line is non-irradiated dicamba and bottom purple line is dicamba irradiated for 55 min. The lines in between were irradiated from 5-50 minutes. The peak at 203 nm corresponds to dicamba; absorbance at that wavelength drops over the irradiation time. Another peak at 254 nm grows in over the irradiation time. An isosbestic point can be seen near 235 nm.

 Figure 2: 15 mg/L at pH 7 dicamba kept the dark Θ and irradiated under 310 nm lamps $\left(\triangle\right)$. 779 Regression lines yield no reaction for the dark control and $k = 23.0 \pm 2.0$ day⁻¹ for the irradiated sample. Also shown are 15 mg/L at pH 7 dicamba irradiated under 310 nm lamps in oxygen 781 desaturated solution (\circ) and with 5 mM H₂O₂ (*). Regression lines give k = 58 ± 29 day⁻¹ for the 782 experiment with oxygen desaturated solution and 93.6 ± 2.9 day⁻¹ for the 5 mM H₂O₂ experiment. These rate constants show the decrease in rate due to the removal of oxygen in the oxygen 784 desaturated solution and the increase in rate due to reaction with hydroxyl radial in the H_2O_2
785 experiment. experiment.

 Figure 3: Photodegradation rate constants of dicamba the surfaces of corn wax. Included are: photodegradation rate constant of Diablo®, a commercial product of dicamba, on the surface of corn wax and photodegradation rate constants of dicamba on the surface of corn wax surfaces with 0 ppm adjuvant DA-6, 1 ppm DA-6, 5 ppm DA-6, 10 ppm DA-6, and 15 ppm DA-6.

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 Figure 6. Proposed transformation pathway of photodegradation of dicamba. Proposed transformation pathway was determined from LC-MS-MS data and the similar transformation 820 pathway presented in Fabbri et al.⁴ Isomers with the lowest energy as determined by DFT calculations are shown in the proposed transformation pathway.

