

Note: This is a reference cited in AP 42, *Compilation of Air Pollutant Emission Factors, Volume I Stationary Point and Area Sources*. AP42 is located on the EPA web site at www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/ap42/

The file name refers to the reference number, the AP42 chapter and section. The file name "ref02_c01s02.pdf" would mean the reference is from AP42 chapter 1 section 2. The reference may be from a previous version of the section and no longer cited. The primary source should always be checked.

Background Report Reference

AP-42 Section Number: 9.2.2

Background Chapter: 3

Reference Number: 3

Title: Volatilization of Dieldrin from Fallow Soil as Affected by Different Soil Water Regimes, *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 1(2):193-196

Willis, G.H., et al.

1972

Volatilization of Dieldrin from Fallow Soil as Affected by Different Soil Water Regimes¹

G. H. Willis, J. F. Parr, S. Smith, and B. R. Carroll²

ABSTRACT

Dieldrin was surface applied at a rate of 782 g/plot to 3 15.2 x 22.9-m plots [10 ppm based on a 2 X 10⁶ lb soil/acre 15.2 cm (6 inches)]. Immediately after application, 1 of 3 soil water regimes (flooded, moist, nonflooded) was imposed on each plot. An air sampling system was used to measure the atmospheric concentration gradient of dieldrin between 10 and 30 cm above each plot. Calculations based on the aerodynamic method indicated that approximately 18% of the applied dieldrin volatilized from the moist plot in 5 months, whereas only 2 and 7% volatilized from the flooded and nonflooded plots, respectively. Multiple regression analysis indicated that of the climatic variables measured, temperature had the greatest effect on dieldrin volatilization. There was no apparent dieldrin degradation in any of the plots.

Additional Index Words: turbulent transfer, dieldrin degradation

The ultimate fate of certain chlorinated hydrocarbon pesticides in the environment has been the subject of considerable research effort in recent years. Compounds such as dieldrin tend to accumulate in soil because of their relative resistance to degradation through either chemical or microbiological processes. A number of mechanisms of adsorption and desorption of these compounds with soil organic and inorganic components has been demonstrated. Moreover, the rate and the extent of degradation of some pesticides by soil microorganisms under specific environmental conditions, losses through runoff and leaching, as well as absorption by plant roots, have been reported. Nevertheless, many researchers continue to report that large amounts of these chemicals remain unaccounted for even in carefully controlled field experiments. Volatilization losses of these pesticides directly to the atmosphere from the site of application is considered to be a distinct possibility.

A number of reports indicate that although many pesticides have relatively low vapor pressures, extensive volatilization can occur under certain laboratory and field conditions (Bramesberger and Adams, 1966; Gray, 1965; Harris and Lichtenstein, 1961; Hinden, May, and Dunstan, 1966; Starr and Johnsen, 1968; Willis et al., 1969; Willis, Parr, and Smith, 1971). However, information on the volatilization potential of field-applied dieldrin is quite limited.

In laboratory studies using a gas-saturation technique, Spencer and Cliath (1969) and Spencer, Cliath, and Farmer (1969) found the vapor density of solid-phase dieldrin, and dieldrin mixed with soil, to be 3 to 12 times greater than predicted from published vapor pressure values. They also reported that dieldrin vapor density increased with temperature and concentration, but that vapor den-

sity was not affected by soil-water content until the water content decreased below the equivalent of 1 molecular layer of water, whereupon vapor density dropped to very low values. Thus, from their data one can conclude that loss of water, i.e., codistillation, was not required to attain maximum dieldrin vapor density. Wheeler (1969) and Acree, Beroza, and Bowman (1963) reported volatile losses of dieldrin and DDT from aqueous solutions by codistillation. Barrows et al. (1969) attributed the higher concentration of dieldrin in field-grown corn leaves (*Zea mays* L.), compared with protected greenhouse-grown corn leaves, to aerial contamination resulting from volatilization of dieldrin applied to the soil surface.

Earlier reports by Willis et al. (1969, 1971) describe a system for measuring atmospheric concentration gradients of field-applied pesticides. The use of these data with the aerodynamic method for estimating flux should provide a means for characterizing pesticide volatilization losses under field conditions. The aerodynamic method provides a positive measurement technique and should be more acceptable than indirect methods that depend upon measuring differences between the amount applied and that recovered from the soil, plant, and runoff in either the original or degraded forms. More detailed discussions of turbulent transfer and the use of the aerodynamic approach to measure flux are available (Deacon, 1949; Priestly, 1959; and Webb, 1965).

The objectives of this paper were to evaluate the extent of dieldrin volatilization from fallow soil, using an aerodynamic method for estimating flux, and to investigate effect of different soil water regimes on dieldrin volatilization.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The aerodynamic method was used to estimate pesticide volatilization or flux, which in this case is the amount of pesticide transported vertically (turbulent transfer) from a unit area of soil surface per unit of time and is defined as

$$\text{Flux} = K_p \frac{dc}{dz} \quad [1]$$

where K_p is the transfer (diffusivity) coefficient for the pesticide and dc/dz is the pesticide atmospheric concentration gradient. The transfer coefficient is defined by

$$K_p = k(z + z_0) U_* \quad [2]$$

where k is the von Karman constant (0.4), z is the measurement height (cm), z_0 is the roughness length (cm), and U_* is the friction velocity. The roughness length is the distance above the soil surface at which wind velocity becomes 0 because of frictional drag due to surface roughness. The friction velocity is a representation of shearing stress or loss of momentum from the horizontal drag of wind on the ground surface and is defined as

$$U_* = U_z k / \ln \{ (z + z_0) / z_0 \} \quad [3]$$

where U_z is the wind velocity at the measurement height and k , z and z_0 are defined as before. Equation [3] is the log wind profile

¹Contribution from the Southern Branch, Soil & Water Conservation Research Division, ARS, US Department of Agriculture, Baton Rouge, La. 70803, cooperating with the Louisiana State University Agr. Exp. Sta. Received June 21, 1971.

²Soil Scientist, Microbiologist, Chemist, and Soil Scientist, respectively, USDA-ARS-SWC, Baton Rouge, La.

subjected to different water regimes, are shown in Table 1. Maximum concentrations for all treatments at each sampling height were attained the 1st sampling day, except above the moist plot at 10 cm where the highest concentrations were measured during the sampling periods beginning Sept. 14, Sept. 19, and Oct. 3. After about 4 weeks, dieldrin concentrations above all plots tended to decrease and were low for the remainder of the study.

In some cases, the atmospheric dieldrin concentrations during the 1st two sampling periods were greater 30 cm above the plot surfaces than at 10 cm. These negative concentration gradients are thought to have resulted from the formation of an air temperature minimum at a height greater than 10 cm during nighttime temperature inversions.

A secondary air temperature minimum above the soil surface would result in a layer of relatively dense air, within which pesticides could accumulate, causing higher atmospheric concentrations within the zone of minimum temperature, compared with air above or below this zone. Geyer (1965) suggested that this particular phenomenon occurs frequently, especially in warmer climates. Air temperature measurements at 10 and 30 cm above the plots during the first 24 hours indicated that temperature inversions occurred over the moist and nonflooded plots, beginning near sunset and continuing until dawn. Moreover, on several occasions the nighttime temperature at 30 cm was lower than at 10 cm, indicating the presence of a colder air layer or secondary minimum above the plots. Air temperature was not measured at heights greater than 30 cm, thus, it is uncertain whether a true air temperature minimum existed above 10 cm or whether the temperature profiles were oscillating between inversion and noninversion. During these inversions little or no air movement occurred between 2300 and 0700 hours. Temperature inversions were not detected over the flooded plot during the first 24 hours.

A summary of the climatological data monitored throughout the study is shown in Table 2. September

Table 1—Atmospheric concentration of dieldrin 10 and 30 cm above the water or soil surface of plots subjected to different water regimes

Days of sampling period	Atmospheric concentration, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$					
	Flooded		Moist		Nonflooded	
	10 cm	30 cm	10 cm	30 cm	10 cm	30 cm
8	14.5	12.2	9.8	12.4	7.9	8.2
9-10	4.1	5.5	5.4	2.4	3.0	4.4
10-11	0.9	0.8	6.1	1.8	0.5	0.4
14-15	3.6	3.5	16.2	9.9	3.9	2.7
16-21	3.3	2.8	26.9	7.1	4.9	2.9
25 - Oct 2	1.1	0.8	7.5	2.2	1.1	0.3
5-9	3.2	2.0	20.5	5.4	7.9	6.7
11-21	0.7	0.4	1.2	0.4	1.6	0.4
19-19	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.7
20-20	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.2

Sampling periods Oct. 10-16, Oct. 17-23, Oct. 24 - Nov. 6, Nov. 24 - Dec. 7, and Dec. 19 - Jan. 3 are omitted for brevity.

Table 2—Monthly averages of climatic data taken from the experimental area during the study

Month	Climatic parameters				
	Wind km/hr	Evaporation cm/day	Rain total cm	Air temperature, °C	
				Max.	Min.
Sept.	1.65	0.457	0.25	29.9	17.3
Oct.	1.73	0.243	15.27*	25.7	12.3
Nov.	2.15	0.183	5.64	22.4	3.2
Dec.	1.29	0.214	7.65	16.5	2.5
Jan.	1.27	0.140	4.37	16.7	6.1

* 22.3 cm of rain fell in one storm; the remainder of month was relatively dry.

and October were relatively warm and dry, with high evaporation rates and little wind; November was a transition month; December and January were cold and wet, with low evaporation and higher winds.

Volatilization loss expressed as dieldrin flux in grams/ha per day and pounds/acre per day is shown in Fig. 1. Losses were calculated by substituting the atmospheric concentration data from Table 1, assuming a linear concentration gradient between 10 and 30 cm, into equation [1], along with K_p values calculated from equations [2] and [3]. Values of 20 cm and 0.05 cm were used in equations [2] and [3] for z and z_0 , respectively. Since z_0 was not measured in place, the 0.05-cm value was derived from literature values (Chang, 1968; Priestley, 1959; Sutton, 1953). Undoubtedly, some error was introduced by using atmospheric concentration data and wind speeds time-averaged over periods ranging from 1 to 21 days rather than 15 min to 1 hour. Longer sampling periods were used to ensure that enough dieldrin was trapped at each height to measure the concentration gradient. However, the calculated flux values should be applicable for indicating trends and the magnitude of volatilization. Zero flux values were calculated for the first two sampling periods because of the negative concentration gradients discussed earlier.

Total flux was greatest from the moist soil, where about 18% of the applied dieldrin was lost by volatilization. The peak mean flux rate occurred between 11 and 18 days after application, when more than 6% volatilized in 7 days. Another high flux rate occurred over the moist plot during the sampling period starting on October 3 (Fig. 1). A rainstorm of 15.3 cm at this time appears to have markedly increased the flux rate from the moist plot, compared with only a slight increase in flux rate from the flooded plot and no measureable effect on the nonflooded plot. One could speculate that the 18% vola-

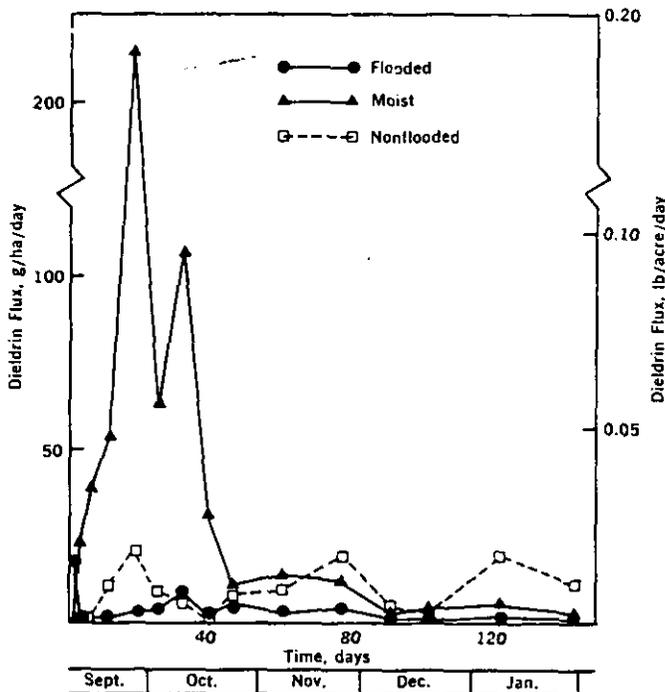


Fig. 1—Effect of different soil water regimes on rate of dieldrin volatilization from fallow plots.

