1	
2	
3	
4	Historical trends of the ecotoxicological pesticide risk from the main grain crops in
5	Rolling Pampa (Argentina)
6	
7	
8	Ferraro, D.O.; Ghersa, F; de Paula, R.; Duarte Vera, A.C.; Pessah, S.
9	
10	
11	
12	Universidad de Buenos Aires (UBA), Facultad de Agronomía, Cátedra de Cerealicultura.
13	UBA-CONICET, Instituto de Investigaciones Fisiológicas y Ecológicas Vinculadas a la
14	Agricultura (IFEVA).
15	
16	
17	*Corresponding author
18	E-mail: ferraro@agro.uba.ar
19	
20	
21	

22 Abstract

23 We showed the results of the first long-term analysis (1987-2019) of pesticide 24 impact in the main agricultural area of Argentina. Using a clear and meaningful tool, based 25 not only on acute toxicity but also on scaling up the results to total sown area, we identified 26 time trends for both total pesticide impact and the ecoefficiency of modal pesticide profiles. 27 By the end of the time series, soybean showed a pesticide impact four times greater than 28 maize crop in the studied area. However, the time trend in the last years showed a 29 sustainable pattern of pesticide use, with an improvement in the ecoefficiency. Oppositely, 30 maize showed a relatively constant ecoefficiency value during most of the time series, 31 suggesting a possible path towards an unsustainable cropping system. Findings from this 32 study suggest that some efforts have to be made to improve the pest management decisions 33 towards a more efficient pesticide profiles in maize crop and to keep improving the 34 ecotoxicity pesticide profile in soybean crops because of its large sown area in the studied 35 area.

36

37 Introduction

Modern agriculture includes the use of pesticides that have positively impacted cropping systems with a significant increase in yields [1]. However, the potential environmental costs of this intensification process has become a cause for concern [2]. Particularly, rising pesticide use (herbicides, insecticides and fungicides) has been related to both human health and environmental degradation processes [3,4]. Moreover, the global increase of pesticide-resistant organism could lead to a potential rise in pesticide dosage required for the future pest management [5]. Thus, an understanding and a practical

45	assessment of the impact of agrochemical inputs are essential goals for designing
46	sustainable cropping systems [6]. In this sense, a sustainability assessment can be made by
47	using an indicator's fixed absolute values, or its temporal trajectory, as a proxy for
48	forecasting the future state of a system [7]. The use of long-term approaches has furthered
49	the understanding of the evolution of farming systems [8] and helped to infer future
50	transitions toward sustainable or unsustainable system states [9]. However, data from long-
51	term analyses of pesticide use in the recent literature are scarce [10-12].
52	There exists an array of indices to measure a pesticide's toxicity, which provide a
53	hazard assessment of pesticide use with different approaches [13,14]. Almost all these
54	indices are built by combining toxicological data relating to a target pesticide into a single
55	score [11]. However, some indices have several flaws in terms of both transparent
56	comparisons as well as weighting methods [15,16]. A comprehensive assessment requires
57	quantitative indicators as well as system-oriented and diagnostic characteristics. The need
58	to include the above-mentioned aspects in pesticide risk assessment implies the use of
59	quantitative modeling. In addition, models should be able to integrate different types of
60	information, which are not always expressed in the form of empirically based functional
61	relationships but may represent a desirable state regarding the acceptance (or not) of a
62	hazard level.[17].
63	This paper assessed changes in pesticide risk in the main cropping region of
64	Argentina between 1987 and 2019 using a fuzzy-logic based ecotoxicity hazard indicator

65 [6,18]. In recent decades, the main cropping regions of Argentina have been subject to an

66 intensification process of crop production (i.e. higher yields), as determined by the adoption

- 67 of no-tillage system [19], the increase in input use (e.g. pesticides and fertilizers), and
- 68 technological adjustments in crop management (Manuel-Navarrete et al., 2009a; Viglizzo et

al., 2003). However, as in the main cropping systems worldwide, the potential impact as
well, as the long-term dynamics due to recent technological changes, still remain
controversial [20-22]. We analyzed a 32-year period of pesticide use in soybean and maize
in the Rolling Pampa (Argentina). In addition, we used crop yields and sown area in order
to assess, not only the impact per unit area, but also its possible impact associated with the
sown area and the pesticide ecoefficiency (i.e yield achieved per unit of environmental
hazard).

76

77 Material and Methods

78 Study region

79 We used data on pesticides, crop yield, and sown area from the Rolling Pampa, the 80 main cropping region of Pampa Region [23]. A pesticide time series was built using the 81 annual profile of pesticides used in the soybean and maize crops. Both crops contributed to 82 85% and 78% of total sown area at regional and country level, respectively [24]. The 83 Rolling Pampa is the subregion of the Río de la Plata grasslands with more than 100 years 84 of cropping history [25]. Traditionally a mixed grazing-crop area, the spread of no-tillage in 85 the mid-1990s as well as the wheat-soybean double cropping and the lower cost of inputs (fertilizers, pesticides) led to a rapid expansion and intensification of agricultural 86 87 production [26]. During the entire long-term period, the changes in the cropping systems of 88 the studied area were mainly represented by three major technological changes: 1) the 89 adoption of no-tillage system (NT); 2) the adoption of genetically-modified organisms 90 (GMO); and 3) the start of systematic fertilization (F). No-tillage minimizes soil 91 mechanical disturbance consequently reducing soil erosion and carbon loss processes, as it

92	leaves a greater percentage of soil covered with plant residues [27]. The change from the
93	conventional tillage system to no-tillage system has also led to a shift in weed control
94	strategy, from a tillage-based scheme to a pesticide-based management strategy. The GMO
95	adoption started in 1996, when the first GMO crop introduced in Argentine agriculture was
96	released, the glyphosate-tolerant soybeans (RR) [28]. The cultivation of RR soybeans,
97	along with transgenic corn hybrids resistant to Lepidoptera (released in 1998) showed an
98	explosive adoption rate among Pampean farmers. It is estimated that 99 % of soybeans and
99	83% of maize crops in Argentina are GMO [29]

100

101 The fuzzy-logic pesticide indicator (RIPEST)

102 To assess long-term pesticide hazard dynamics we used RIPEST [6]. RIPEST is a 103 simple fuzzy-based model [30] to estimate the ecotoxicological hazard of pesticides in 104 agricultural systems. The model allows to assess the ecotoxicological hazard for 1) insects, 105 2) mammals, and 3) the joint hazard of both impacts. The RIPEST structure comprises 106 three main elements: 1) input variables, 2) fuzzy subsets for defining system processes or 107 attributes based on input values and 3) logical nodes for weighting partial indications into a 108 single system performance. The three input variables that describe the toxicity and the 109 amount of active ingredients utilized in each field are: (1) oral acute lethal dose 50 for rats, 110 (2) contact acute lethal dose 50 for bees; and (3) the dose applied for each pesticide 111 application. Therefore, each active ingredient was characterized by means of two different 112 toxicity values: (1) mammal toxicity and (2) insect toxicity. In order to assess the 113 magnitude of the impact of each application, the values of mammal and insect toxicity were 114 measured using the concept hazard quotient [31] defines as:

116 Tmam
$$[TUm] = D / LD50r$$

118 where, Tmam is the mammal toxicity of each pesticide application; Tins the insect 119 toxicity of each pesticide application: D the dose applied (g formulated product/ha): LD50r 120 the oral acute lethal dose 50 for rats (mg formulated product/1000 g rat weight); LD50b the 121 contact acute lethal dose 50 for bees (ug formulated product/bee); and TUi and TUm the 122 toxic units for insects and mammals, respectively. After calculating the Tmam and Tins of 123 single active ingredient formulations and mixtures, RIPEST use the sum of the toxic units 124 (TU) of all the pesticides applied in each field order to calculate the overall toxicity value 125 [32,33]:

126

127 Sum Tmam [TUm] =
$$\sum_{n=1}^{l}$$
 T mam (3)

128 Sum Tins [TUi] =
$$\sum_{n=1}^{l}$$
 T ins (4)

129 where Sum Tmam is the mammal toxicity of all the pesticides applied; Sum Tins the 130 insect toxicity of all the pesticides applied; and n the number of pesticide applications on 131 each field, during a single cropping cycle. Then, Sum Tmam and Sum Tins values were 132 used to calculate two different indexes: (1) mammal index (M) and (2) insect index (I), 133 according with linear membership in a 0-100 scale. For this scaling, RIPEST uses the 134 Tmam and Tins the highest value for the most toxic pesticides for mammals and insects [6]. 135 These pesticides are Zeta-cypermethrin 0.2 at 200g/ha and Methidathion 0.4 at 1500 g/ha. 136 Both pesticides involve the highest toxicity registered in the Argentinean National Service 137 for Sanitary and Quality of Agriculture and Food (SENASA 2018) and defines the value of 138 I and M index = 100, respectively. Finally, in order to calculate the overall pesticide impact 139 of pesticides, the (M) and (I) indexes are integrated by two fuzzy rules of the form IF

(1)

(2)

- 140 (antecedent)-THEN (consequent) to assemble the pesticide index (P) which indicates the
- 141 overall impact of pesticide on each analyzed field. P index also range from 0 to 100. In
- 142 RIPEST the rule node is calculated as follows:
- 143
- 144 R1) IF (M is 100) AND (I is 100) THEN P = 100
- 145 R2) IF (M is 100) AND (I is 0) THEN P = 90
- 146 R3) IF (M is 0) AND (I is 100) THEN P = 90
- 147 R4) IF (M is 0) AND (I is 0) THEN P = 0

148 where, R1 to 4 are fuzzy rules; M is the mammal index; I is the insect index; P is the

149 Pesticide index. Finally, the values of all rules are integrated in a single crisp value by

150 defuzzification process using the weighted average method [34].

151

152 Data sources and analysis

153 Data on pesticide use per hectare were defined following prescriptions for each crop

154 during the whole studied period based on a national reference publication "Márgenes

155 Agropecuarios" (<u>http://www.margenes.com</u>) for all years from 1987 to 2019. Crop yields

and sown area were extracted from the Agricultural Estimates of the Ministry of Production

157 and Labor of the Argentine Republic (<u>http://datosestimaciones.magyp.gob.ar/</u>) for the same

158 time period. As the tillage system has shifted from conventional to no-tillage regime,

159 different pesticide profiles were registered for each tillage systems in each crop in the time

160 interval 2002-2007 (soybean) and 2002-2012 (maize). During this period, total values were

161 calculated using data of sown area under these two different tillage systems [35,36]. Before

- 162 and after these periods each crop under different tillage systems share the same pesticide
- 163 profile. Final P index value is expressed in a 0-100 scale and represents the

164	ecotoxicological hazard of pesticides applied per hectare. In order to scale the P values for
165	the total sown area, we represent the P index using units (units. ha ⁻¹). The pesticide
166	ecoefficiency (i.e yield achieved per unit of environmental hazard) was calculated as the
167	cost-benefit ratio of the yield to environmental impacts. To detect possible monotonic
168	trends in the time series we used the Mann-Kendall test [37]. Pesticide data used in the
169	analysis have been provided as supplementary information.

170

171 **Results**

Pesticide index (P) showed both different values and time trends in soybean and maize crops (Fig. 1). Soybean showed the highest P value at the beginning of the studied period and decreased until the early-2000, while maize crop started the time series showing extremely low P values (Fig. 1).

176

177 Fig 1. P index [P units. ha -1] for soybean (solid line) and maize (broken line) cropping

178 systems from 1987 to 2019. Time series also shows temporal trend of P index for cropping

179 systems under conventional tillage (CT: closed symbols) and no-tillage (NT: open symbols)

180 for both crops. Mann-Kendall test for monotonic trend: Soybean CT (tau = -0.06, P = 0.69);

181 Soybean NT (tau = -0.33, P = 0.06). Maize CT (tau = 0.63, P = 0.002); Maize NT (tau = -

182 0.53, P = 0.006).

183

However, by the end of the period, the soybean crop showed a remarkable P index decrease, resulting in similar values for both crops in the last year analyzed (Fig. 1). The high ecotoxicological hazard per hectare (i.e P index) that the soybean crop exhibited

187 during most of the time series was enhanced by the large sown area occupied by this crop188 in the studied area (Fig. 2).

189

190 Fig. 2. Total sown area (Mha) under sovbean (upper panel) and maize (lower panel) 191 crops from 1987 to 2019. The dotted lines show the evolution of area under no-tillage 192 during the studied period. The vertical lines define the time period when the sown area of 193 each crop exhibited differential pesticide usage according to the tillage system (CT and 194 NT). Mann-Kendall test for monotonic trend of total area: Soybean (tau = 0.48, P < 0.001); 195 Maize NT (tau = -0.02, P = 0.79). 196 197 The increase in the sown area with soybean crop was significant in the period 1987-198 2019, something that did not occur with corn, which exhibited increases and decreases 199 without a defined pattern (Fig. 2). When P index values were scaled by sown area of each 200 crop, soybean values were one order of magnitude higher than maize in most of the period 201 studied (Fig. 3). 202 203 Fig. 3. Total P index units [Million of units] under soybean (upper panel) and maize 204 (lower panel) crops. Mann-Kendall test for monotonic trend: Soybean (tau = 0.16, P = 205 0.20); Maize (tau = 0.71, P < 0.001). The vertical lines define the time period when the 206 sown area of each crop exhibited differential pesticide usage according to the tillage system 207 (CT and NT). 208

There were also trend differences between crops as soybean showed no significant increase in total P units and maize exhibited a significant increase of P units from 1987 to

211	2019. The decreasing trend observed in soybean P index (Fig. 1) explained the gap
212	narrowing between the impacts of soybean and maize, which still remained wide by the end
213	of the period, as soybean and maize showed 59 M and 13 M units, respectively (Fig. 3).
214	Both crops showed a monotonic increasing trend in total yield in the studied area (Fig. 4).
215	
216	Fig. 4. Total yield (Mt) under soybean (solid line) and maize (broken line) crops from
217	1987 to 2019 . Mann-Kendall test for monotonic trend: Soybean (tau = 0.61 , P < 0.001);
218	Maize (tau = 0.47, P < 0.001).
219	
220	However, when both total impact (Fig. 3) and yield (Fig. 4) were integrated in a
221	single ecoefficiency indicator the time trends were different between crops (Fig. 5).
222	Soybean crop showed a significant positive trend in ecoefficiency, with a remarkable
223	improvement from the early-2010 (Fig. 5). Oppositely, maize crop showed an overall
224	negative trend in ecoefficiency, mainly related to a significant decrease when the pesticide
225	profile of no-tillage began to be considered (Fig. 5).
226	
227	Fig. 5. Ecoefficiency (t/P) of soybean (upper panel) and maize (lower panel) crops
228	from 1987 to 2019. Ecoefficiency is based upon the ratio of crop yield to P index. Mann-
229	Kendall test for monotonic trend: Soybean (tau = 0.31, P = 0.004); Maize (tau = -0.44, P <
230	0.001). The vertical lines define the time period when the sown area of each crop exhibited
231	differential pesticide usage according to the tillage system (CT and NT).
232	
233	In a relative time-trend analysis of both total pesticide impact (Fig. 4) and the
234	ecoefficiency (Fig. 5) using a common base (1987=1), soybean crop showed no significant

235 trend during the studied period for either measure, but maize showed an almost six-fold

236 increase in total impact, measured as the total number of P units (Fig. 6).

237

238 Fig. 6. Relative values (Base 1987 =1) of Total P index units (Total P index units rel:

239 upper panel) and Ecoefficiency (Ecoefficiency rel: lower panel) of soybean (solid

240 lines) and maize (broken lines) crops from 1987 to 2019. Mann-Kendall test for

241 monotonic trend: Soybean Total P index units rel (tau = 0.16, P = 0.20); Maize Total P

242 index units rel (tau = 0.70, P < 0.001); Soybean Ecoefficiency rel (tau = 0.31, P = 0.004);

243 Maize Ecoefficiency rel (tau = -0.44, P < 0.001). The vertical lines define the time period

244 when the sown area of each crop exhibited differential pesticide usage according to the

245 tillage system (CT and NT).

246 When ecoefficiency was analyzed in relative terms, soybean and maize crops not

247 only showed opposite time trends (Fig. 5) but also different magnitudes in these changes.

248 As maize showed a negative trend, in relative terms, reaching a relative value of 0.52 by the

249 end of the period, ecoefficiency of the soybean crop remarkably increased, showing a

250 relative final value of 7.22 in 2019 (Fig. 6). Pesticide profiles in both crops showed

251 noticeable changes in the 1987-2019 period in the quantity of active ingredient used as well

252 as in the specific toxicity of the pesticides (Tables 1 and 2).

TS	Year	a.i.	% a.i.	Dose (g/ha)	TUm	TUi
СТ	1987	Parathion-methyl	1	500	250.00	12500
		Trifluralin	0.48	2000	0.19	9.60
		Glyphosate	0.36	500	0.09	1.80
		Total		3000	250.3	1251
	1993	Chlorpyrifos + Cypermethrin	0.5 + 0.05	700	5.42	7453
		Haloxyfop-P-methyl	0.52	350	0.61	1.82
		Bentazone	0.6	800	0.34	2.4
		Trifluralin	0.48	2000	0.19	9.60
		2,4-DB	0.76	20	0.01	0.15

Table 1. Toxic units for mammals (TUm) and insects (TUi) of pesticides used in 253

		Total		3870	6.577	7467
	1999	Endosulfan + Deltamethrin	0.32 + 0.008	500	4.26	2687
		Imazethapyr	0.1	800	0.02	0.80
		Propaquizafop	0.1	350	0.01	0.18
		Total		1650	4.28	2688
	2007	Chlorpyrifos	0.48	1400	10.18	11389
		Glyphosate	0.747	2000	0.75	14.9
		Cypermethrin	0.25	150	0.13	1630
		Pyraclostrobin	0.133 + 0.05	500	0.02	0.92
		Total		4050	11.08	13036
NT	2007	Chlorpyrifos	0.48	1400	10.18	11389
		2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.0
		Glyphosate	0.36	4000	0.72	14.4
		Glyphosate	0.747	1500	0.56	11.2
		Cypermethrin	0.25	150	0.13	1630
		Deltamethrin	0.1	50	0.06	3333
		Pyraclostrobin	0.133 + 0.05	500	0.02	0.92
		Total		8100	13.34	16385
	2013	2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.0
		Glyphosate	0.36	4000	0.72	14.4
		Imidacloprid + Beta-cyfluthrin	0.1 + 0.0125	750	0.69	10300
		Glyphosate	0.747	1500	0.56	11.2
		Lambda-cyhalothrin	0.05	25	0.02	32.8
		Pyraclostrobin	0.133 + 0.05	500	0.02	0.92
		Methoxyfenozide	0.24	120	0.01	0.29
		Metsulfuron-methyl	0.6	8	0.00	0.10
		Total		7403	3.69	10365
	2019	2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.0
		Glyphosate	0.36	4000	0.72	14.4
		Glyphosate	0.747	1500	0.56	11.2
		Thiamethoxam	0.141 + 0.106	200	0.40	1732
		Lambda-cyhalothrin	0.05	125	0.11	164.4
		Pyraclostrobin	0.133 + 0.05	500	0.02	0.92
		Diclosulam + Halauxifen-methyl	0.58 + 0.12	43	0.01	1.05
		Chlorantraniliprole	0.2	30	0.00	1.50
		Metsulfuron-methyl	0.6	8	0.00	0.10
		Total		6906	3.485	1931

TS: Tillage system 255

Table 2. Toxic units for mammals (TU m) and insects (TU i) of pesticides used in 256 257

maize crop for the years 1987, 1993, 1999, 2007, 2013 and 2019. TS: Tillage system

maile (ie jeurs 1701, 1770, 177	, 1 001, 1 010 and		mage sj	seem
TS	Year	a.i.	% a.i.	Dose (g/ha)	TUm	TUi
СТ	1987	Alachlor	0.48	1200	0.62	36.0
		Atrazine	0.9	1100	0.53	9.90
		Total		2300	1.15	45.9
	1993	Alachlor	0.48	3500	1.81	105.0
		Atrazine	0.9	3500	1.69	31.5
		Total		7000	3.49	136.5
	1999	Acetochlor	0.84	2000	0.87	8.40
		Atrazine	0.9	1000	0.48	9.00

		Total		3000	1.35	17.4
	2007	Atrazine	0.5	4000	1.07	20.0
		Acetochlor	0.84	2000	0.87	8.40
		Cypermethrin	0.25	150	0.13	1630
		Total		6150	2.07	1658
NT	2007	2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.0
		Atrazine	0.5	3000	0.80	15.0
		Acetochlor	0.84	1600	0.70	6.72
		Glyphosate	0.36	2000	0.36	7.20
		Cypermethrin	0.25	150	0.13	1630
		Total		7250	3.66	1664
	2013	2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.0
		Epoxiconazole	0.96	1300	1.04	11.3
		Glyphosate	0.36	4500	0.81	16.2
		Atrazine	0.9	1500	0.72	13.5
		Glyphosate	0.679	1500	0.51	10.1
		Atrazine	0.9	1000	0.48	9.0
		Gamma-cyhalothrin	0.15	20	0.05	600
		Picloram	0.24	80	0.00	0.19
		Total		10400	5.29	665.4
	2019	2,4-D	1	500	1.67	5.00
		Epoxiconazole	0.96	1300	1.04	11.3
		Glyphosate	0.36	4500	0.81	16.2
		Atrazine	0.9	1500	0.72	13.5
		Glyphosate	0.679	1500	0.51	10.1
		Atrazine	0.9	1000	0.48	9.0
		Picloram	0.24	80	0.00	0.19
		S-metolachlor	0.12	80	0.00	400.0
		Total		10460	5.24	460.29

258 TS: Tillage system

259	Results from the studied period in the entire database of pesticide usage in soybean
260	showed that in the first 20 years (1987-2007) the amount of pesticides applied ranges
261	between 3000 and 4000 g/ha (Table 1). However, as a result of the shift to no-tillage system
262	the applied dose doubled up to 8100 g/ha and has remained almost unchanged until 2019.
263	The same pattern of increase in the amount of pesticide use was observed in maize crops,
264	ranging from 2300 g/ha in 1987 up to 10460 g/ha by 2019 (Table 2). Regarding the
265	ecotoxicity hazard of the pesticides used, the soybean showed no important changes in the
266	total toxic units for insects (TUi) until the end of the period studied when final values were
267	one order of magnitude lower than the rest of the database (Table 1). The mammal

268	ecotoxicity assessment, measured in toxic units for mammals (TUm), showed the highest
269	toxicity values at the beginning of the time series, mainly due to the used of an extremely
270	toxic compound (Parathion-methyl) that was banned by 1990s. In the following years, the
271	total number of TUm remained in the range of 5-13 TUm, until Chlorpyriphos and
272	Endosulfan were replaced by less toxic insecticides (Table 1). In maize, the main change in
273	insect ecotoxicity (TUi) was observed because of the adoption of insecticides in the
274	analyzed pesticide profiles (Table 2). However, pesticide usage data showed a breakpoint
275	toward lower doses and less toxic compounds in maize which resulted in fewer toxic units
276	for insects by the end of the time series. Finally, mammal toxicity of pesticides usage in
277	maize crop showed a constant and positive increase from 1.15 Tum, for the pesticide profile
278	in 1987, up to 5.24 TUm in 2019 (Table 2).

279

280 Discussion

281 Agricultural intensification relies on ecosystem assessment in order to move 282 towards sustainable farming systems. However, this assessment should include both present 283 and near future effects on key ecosystem processes in order to infer ecosystem time trends 284 [38]. Regarding pesticide use, long-term monitoring represents a critical step for 285 sustainability assessment as data on pesticide use remains scattered and not necessarily 286 publicly available [39]. This is often the situation in developing countries where data on 287 both pesticide monitoring and actual amount of pesticides use at national and regional are 288 difficult to find [40]. In this paper, we cope with this problem by using standard pesticide 289 regimes registered in one of the main cropping areas of Argentina as a proxy of the actual 290 use of pesticides. This assumption may imply a significant caveat to be considered when 291 analyzing our results, particularly when this regime is scaled-up using the sown area for

assessing an overall pesticide hazard in maize and soybean crops. In this sense, the lack of
direct information on the use of pesticides could incorporate some bias in the observed
absolute values. However, both the data integrity on pesticide use regimes and the
evolution of the sown area in both crops and under different tillage systems allows
evaluating the observed trends and using them as reliable indicators of long-term change in
the systems studied [41].

298 Environmental assessment should not only include the spatial and temporal 299 dimensions, but it should also rely on meaningful metrics [42]. Concerning pesticide use, 300 there are plenty of indicators based in commercialized volume, dose applied, exposure or 301 several ecotoxicity values [43]. However, indicators based solely on the weight of pesticide 302 applied can result in ambiguous or incorrect conclusions, because pesticides used in 303 cropping systems involve a variety of toxicity profiles. This has led to a switch in current 304 risk assessments from quantity-based [44] to toxicity-based indicators [45]. In this work, 305 we used a toxicity-based indicator which follows a hazard quotient approach [12,46]. The 306 selected indicator is free from most of the previous concerns about the environmental 307 impact quotient (EIQ) developed previously [47]. Most of these concerns are related to 308 numerical calculations with ordinal values, the undermining of important pesticide risk 309 factors, the lack of supporting data for assigning some partial risk values and the strong 310 correlation between field EIQ and pesticide use rate [12,15,16]. The acute toxicity on insect 311 and mammals were integrated using fuzzy logic as a tool. The fuzzy logic approach has 312 been previously used in pesticide assessment [18,48] and is very useful in order to develop 313 a continuum process of ecosystem monitoring. The explicit nature of both membership 314 functions and fuzzy if-then rules set up a conceptual assessment framework that could be 315 easily improved in the future by the inclusion of new rules for weighting indicator scores in

different situations [49]. This is a critical issue when modeling and building sustainability indicators as its characterization should be literal, and system-oriented [38]. Moreover, the scores derived from RIPEST involve the distance between observed values and some reference values rather than an absolute value, which rarely reveals whether the impact of a system is acceptable or not [50].

321 Our study is, as far as we know, the first long-term analysis of pesticide risk in 322 cropping systems of Argentina. Previous long-term analysis showed that pesticide impact 323 decreased in UK from 1992-2008, but also that this pattern is crop-dependent, with an 324 initial risk decrease followed by a long stabilized period [11]. Data from herbicide use in 325 USA from 1990-2015 showed that acute toxicity decreased for the six main crops; 326 particularly both maize and sovbean showed a decrease in acute toxicity per hectare [12]. 327 Our results did not show a common time trend in ecotoxicity risk among crops. Results 328 showed two temporal dynamics of pesticide impact, which were related to the analyzed 329 crop. Soybean showed high temporal variability due to both technological changes 330 associated to tillage system shift and a national ban of highly toxic compounds [51-53]. 331 Pesticide regulations shows differences in Argentina in relation to EU countries mainly 332 associated with the timing of prohibition and restriction (Iturburu *et al.*, 2019). However, 333 several organophosphorus, all organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) have been restricted since 334 1991 and totally banned by 1998 [51,52,54]. By this time, the observed soybean time-trend 335 showed a significant decrease both per area and total impact due to pesticide profiles as 336 well as by the end of the studied period when impact reduction was mainly due to lower 337 applied doses.

The Mann-Kendall statistical test only evaluates monotonic trends over the entire
32-year period. However, partial trends may be important, even where the overall trend is

340 non-significant [12]. A partial positive trend in pesticide impact was observed both in 341 soybean and maize crops during the period of no-tillage adoption. Pesticide risk increased 342 in this period due to the double effect of the increase in the sown area and the shift towards 343 systems with greater use of pesticides. When tillage is reduced, farmers become more 344 reliant on other weed and pest control practices, and at least some of the widespread 345 increase in pesticide use could be attributable to adoption of conservation tillage practices 346 [55]. However, by the end of the time series (the period when no-tillage was fully adopted) 347 the observed trend was different between crops. Although the sown area increased in both 348 crops, total pesticide impact in these last years decreased in soybean because of a 349 significant low pesticide use in the modal profiles. Otherwise, maize kept the toxicity 350 profiles relatively constant during half of the time series, but the sown area increment 351 resulted in a significant partial incremental pesticide impact trend. Soybean production 352 showed a continuous improvement in its toxicity indicators, something opposite to what 353 was observed in the corn crop. Maize has a continuous increased in ecotoxicity risk, 354 boosted mainly by a higher dose trend. This result seems to be contrary to technological 355 changes in maize, mainly represented by the incorporation of the genetic modification that 356 confers resistance to insects (i.e. Bt-corn) as early as 1996 [56]. However, around the same 357 period, herbicide resistance has been extensively documented in this productive area 358 [57,58], which led to an increase in the use of herbicides [59]. This process was also 359 enhanced by the relative increase in rotation of winter fallows without crop coverage due to 360 the noticeable reduction of sown area with wheat and barley [60]. 361 Environmental monitoring should encourage pesticide use changes towards more

362 sustainable trajectories. However, the adoption of these changes depends on the way the363 observed trends are communicated and highlighting potential tradeoffs in pesticide

364 assessment by using both impact and return metrics [61]. Ecoefficiency is a key indicator 365 for showing an improved measure of sustainability because it links environmental impacts 366 directly with some kind of economic performance, possibly leading towards sustainable 367 development [62]. Time-trends of sovbean showed a significant increase in ecoefficiency. 368 particularly in the last years analyzed. Soybean dependence on herbicides has risen as a 369 result of weed-related problems. However, RIPEST is sensible to acute toxicity defined 370 mainly for highly toxic insecticides, and the modal pesticide soybean profiles showed a 371 constant reduction not only in the number but also in the acute toxicity of insecticides used. 372 Oppositely, the maize crop did not show improvements in ecoefficiency. As we previously 373 mentioned, during this period some innovations have been adopted to increase yield and 374 reduce the risk of crop loss [56]. These objectives were met as shown by the constant 375 increase in total yield, remarkably during the las 10 years of the data analyzed. However, 376 these improvements were not fully reflected in the ecoefficiency. This pattern is clearer 377 when the ecoefficiency values are expressed in a common base, related to initial values. 378 The constant value of relative ecoefficiency in maize crop is showing a possible path 379 towards an unsustainable cropping system.

380 Finally, some areas for improvement in pesticide impact assessment has should not 381 be overlooked. We reported data on environmental impact based on ecotoxicity. However, 382 there are some issues to consider such as pesticide fate and transport, which is especially 383 critical when assessing sensitive areas such watersheds and the urban-rural interface. 384 However, data on long-term ecotoxicity trends, both on total impact and when using the 385 ecoefficiency concept, should help to push for sustainable intensification by identifying 386 negative trends and highlighting a potential tradeoff between crop productivity and 387 environmental impact. The ultimate challenge is to reinforce high crop yield time-trends

- 388 while simultaneously incentivizing the efficient use of pesticides to minimize this potential
- tradeoff between crop productivity and environmental impact.
- 390

391 Acknowledgements

- 392 This material is based upon work supported by the University of Buenos Aires
- 393 (UBA); the National Council for Scientific Research (CONICET); and the National Agency
- 394 for Science Promotion (ANPCyT) of Argentina (PICT 2016-3216)
- 395

396 Supporting Information

- 397 S1 Table. Data for pesticide use
- 398 S2 Table. Data for sown area and yields
- 399

400 **References**

- 401 1. Foley JA, Ramankutty N, Brauman KA, Cassidy ES, Gerber JS, et al. (2011) Solutions for a
 402 cultivated planet. Nature 478: 337.
- 2. Pretty J (2008) Agricultural sustainability: concepts, principles and evidence. Philosophical
 Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 363: 447-465.
- 3. Imfeld G, Vuilleumier S (2012) Measuring the effects of pesticides on bacterial communities in
 soil: a critical review. European Journal of Soil Biology 49: 22-30.

407	4. Li Z, Jennings A (2017) Worldwide Regulations of Standard Values of Pesticides for Human
408	Health Risk Control: A Review. International journal of environmental research and public
409	health 14: 826.
410	5. Hillocks RJ (2012) Farming with fewer pesticides: EU pesticide review and resulting challenges
411	for UK agriculture. Crop Protection 31: 85-93.
412	6. Ferraro DO, Duarte Vera AC, Pessah S, Ghersa F (2020) Environmental Risk Indicators for
413	Weed Management: A Case Study of Ecotoxicity Assessment Using Fuzzy Logic. In:
414	Chantre GR, González-Andujar JL, editors. Decision Support Systems for Weed
415	Management. Switzerland: Springer Nature AG 2020. pp. 191-209.
416	7. Tilman D, Balzer C, Hill J, Befort BL (2011) Global food demand and the sustainable
417	intensification of agriculture. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 108:
418	20260-20264.
419	8. Chantre E, Cardona A (2014) Trajectories of French Field Crop Farmers Moving Toward
420	Sustainable Farming Practices: Change, Learning, and Links with the Advisory Services.
421	Agroecology and Sustainable Food Systems 38: 573-602.
422	9. Ferraro DO, Benzi P (2015) A long-term sustainability assessment of an Argentinian agricultural
423	system based on emergy synthesis. Ecological Modelling 306: 121-129.
424	10. Osteen CD, Szmedra PI (1989) Agricultural pesticide use trends and policy issues: US
425	Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service.

426	11. Cross P, Edwards-Jones G (2011) Variation in pesticide hazard from arable crop production in
427	Great Britain from 1992 to 2008: An extended time-series analysis. Crop Protection 30:
428	1579-1585.
429	12. Kniss AR (2017) Long-term trends in the intensity and relative toxicity of herbicide use. Nature
430	communications 8: 1-7.
431	13. Feola G, Rahn E, Binder CR (2011) Suitability of pesticide risk indicators for less developed
432	countries: a comparison. Agriculture, ecosystems & environment 142: 238-245.
433	14. Calliera M, Marchis A, Bollmohr S, Sacchettini G, Lamastra L, et al. (2013) A process to
434	provide harmonised criteria for the selection of indicators for pesticide risk reduction within
435	the framework of the sustainable use directive. Pest management science 69: 451-456.
436	15. Kniss AR, Coburn CW (2015) Quantitative evaluation of the environmental impact quotient
437	(EIQ) for comparing herbicides. PloS one 10: e0131200.
438	16. Dushoff J, Caldwell B, Mohler CL (1994) Evaluating the environmental effect of pesticides: a
439	critique of the environmental impact quotient. American Entomologist 40: 180-184.
440	17. Rajaram T, Das A (2010) Modeling of interactions among sustainability components of an agro-
441	ecosystem using local knowledge through cognitive mapping and fuzzy inference system.
442	Expert Systems with Applications 37: 1734-1744.
443	18. Ferraro DO, Ghersa CM, Sznaider GA (2003) Evaluation of environmental impact indicators
444	using fuzzy logic to assess the mixed cropping systems of the Inland Pampa, Argentina.
445	Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment 96: 1-18.

446	19. Manuel-Navarrete D, Gallopín G, Blanco M, Diaz-Zorita M, Ferraro DO, et al. (2005) Systems
447	analysis of agriculturization in the Argentine wet Pampas and its surrounding regions:
448	sustainability, knowledge gaps, and policy integration. Santiago: ECLAC: Serie Medio
449	Ambiente y Desarrollo 118, CEPAL. 63 p.
450	20. Arancibia F (2016) Regulatory Science and Social Movements: The Trial Against the Use of
451	Pesticides in Argentina. Theory in Action 9.
452	21. Viglizzo EF, Ricard MF, Jobbágy EG, Frank FC, Carreño LV (2011) Assessing the cross-scale
453	impact of 50 years of agricultural transformation in Argentina. Field Crops Research 124:
454	186-194.
455	22. Kudsk P, Mathiassen SK (2020) Pesticide regulation in the European Union and the glyphosate
456	controversy. Weed Science 68: 214-222.
457	23. Hall A, Rebella C, Ghersa C, Culot P (1992) Field-Crop Systems of the Pampas. In: Pearson CJ,
458	editor. Ecosystems of the World. The Netherlands: Elsevier. pp. 413-449.
459	24. MinAgri (2018) Estimaciones agrícolas (Series of agricultural statistics by crop, year, province
460	and department of the Argentine Republic). In: 2019] AawmgavA, editor.
161	
461	25. Soriano A, León RJC, Sala OE, Lavado RS, Deregibus VA, et al. (1991) Río de la Plata
462	grasslands. In: Coupland RT, editor. Ecosystems of the world 8A Natural grasslands
463	Introduction and western hemisphere. New York: Elsevier. pp. 367-407.

464	26. Manuel-Navarrete D, Gallopín G, Blanco M, Díaz-Zorita M, Ferraro D, et al. (2009) Multi-
465	causal and integrated assessment of sustainability: the case of agriculturization in the
466	Argentine Pampas. Environment, Development and Sustainability 11: 612-638.
467	27. Lal R, Follett RF, Kimble J, Cole CV (1999) Managing U.S. cropland to sequester carbon in
468	soil. Journal of Soil and Water Conservation 54: 374-381.
469	28. Trigo E, Cap E (2003) The impact of the introduction of transgenic crops in Argentinean
470	agriculture. AgBioForum 6: 87–94.
471	29. Burachik M (2010) Experience from use of GMOs in Argentinian agriculture, economy and
472	environment. New biotechnology 27: 588-592.
473	30. Zadeh LA (1965) Fuzzy sets. Information and Control 8: 338.
474	31. Norton SB, Rodier DJ, van der Schalie WH, Wood WP, Slimak MW, et al. (1992) A framework
475	for ecological risk assessment at the EPA. Environmental toxicology and chemistry 11:
476	1663-1672.
477	32. Newman M (2010) Acute and cronic lethal effects to individuals. In: Newman MC, editor.
478	Fundamentals of Ecotoxicology. Chelsea, MI: Ann Arbor Press. pp. 247-272.
479	33. Rose DG (1998) Environmental Toxicology: Current Developments. Amsterdam, The
480	Netherlands: Gordon and Breach Science Pub. 397 p.
481	34. Takagi T, Sugeno M (1985) Fuzzy identification of systems and its applications to modeling
482	and control. IEEE Transactions on Systems, Man, and Cybernetics 15: 116.

483	35. AAPRESID	(2019)	Evolución de la superficie en Siembra Directa en Argentina.	

484 https://www.aapresid.org.ar/wp-content/uploads/2018/03/Estimacio%CC%81n-de-

- 486 36. Peiretti R, Dumanski J (2014) The transformation of agriculture in Argentina through soil
 487 conservation. International Soil and Water Conservation Research 2: 14-20.
- 488 37. McLeod AI (2005) Kendall rank correlation and Mann-Kendall trend test. R Package Kendall.
- 489 38. Hansen JW (1996) Is agricultural sustainability a useful concept? Agricultural Systems 50: 117.

490 39. Mancini F, Woodcock BA, Isaac NJB (2019) Agrochemicals in the wild: Identifying links

491 between pesticide use and declines of nontarget organisms. Current Opinion in
492 Environmental Science & Health 11: 53-58.

493 40. Lewis KA, Tzilivakis J, Warner DJ, Green A (2016) An international database for pesticide risk
494 assessments and management. Human and Ecological Risk Assessment: An International
495 Journal 22: 1050-1064.

- 496 41. Smith C, McDonald G (1998) Assessing the sustainability of agriculture at the planning stage.
 497 Journal of environmental management 52: 15-37.
- 498 42. Thomson A, Ehiemere C, Carlson J, Matlock M, Barnes E, et al. (2020) Defining Sustainability
- as Measurable Improvement in the Environment: Lessons from a Supply Chain Program for
- 500 Agriculture in the United States. In: Khaiter PA, Erechtchoukova MG, editors.
- 501 Sustainability Perspectives: Science, Policy and Practice: A Global View of Theories,

502	Policies and Practice in Sustainable Development. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
503	pp. 133-153.
504	43. Juraske R, Antón A, Castells F, Huijbregts MAJ (2007) PestScreen: A screening approach for
505	scoring and ranking pesticides by their environmental and toxicological concern.
506	Environment International 33: 886-893.
507	44. Benbrook CM (2012) Impacts of genetically engineered crops on pesticide use in the USthe
508	first sixteen years. Environmental Sciences Europe 24: 24.
509	45. Möhring N, Gaba S, Finger R (2019) Quantity based indicators fail to identify extreme pesticide
510	risks. Science of The Total Environment 646: 503-523.
511	46. Stoner KA, Eitzer BD (2013) Using a hazard quotient to evaluate pesticide residues detected in
512	pollen trapped from honey bees (Apis mellifera) in Connecticut. PLoS One 8: e77550.
513	47. Kovach J, Petzoldt C, Degni J, Tette J (1992) A method to measure the environmental impact of
514	pesticides. New York's Food Life Sci Bull 139: 1-8.
515	
515	48. Roussel O, Cavelier A, van der Werf HMG (2000) Adaptation and use of a fuzzy expert system
516	to assess the environmental effect of pesticides applied to field crops. Agriculture,
517	Ecosystems and Environment 80: 143-158.
510	
518	49. Ferraro DO (2009) Fuzzy knowledge-based model for soil condition assessment in Argentinean

519 cropping systems. Environmental Modelling & Software 24: 359-370.

520 50	Acosta-Alba I.	Van der Werf HM	(2011) The use α	of reference values	s in indicator-based
--------	----------------	-----------------	---------------------------	---------------------	----------------------

521 methods for the environmental assessment of agricultural systems. Sustainability 3: 424-522 442.

523	51. Konradsen F, van der Hoek W, Cole DC, Hutchinson G, Daisley H, et al. (2003) Reducing acute
524	poisoning in developing countries—options for restricting the availability of pesticides.
525	Toxicology 192: 249-261.

- 526 52. SENASA (2011) Servicio Nacional de Sanidad y Calidad Agroalimentaria. Resolución
- 527 511/2011. Available in: https://www.senasagobar/.

528 53. Iturburu FG, Calderon G, Amé MV, Menone ML (2019) Ecological Risk Assessment (ERA) of 529 pesticides from freshwater ecosystems in the Pampas region of Argentina: Legacy and 530 current use chemicals contribution. Science of The Total Environment 691: 476-482.

531 54. SENASA (2018) Registro nacional de terpeutica vegetal (National registry of vegetal

532 therapeutics). 2018 ed. Buenos Aires, Argentina.

533 55. Racovita M, Obonyo DN, Craig W, Ripandelli D (2015) What are the non-food impacts of GM 534 crop cultivation on farmers' health? Environmental Evidence 4: 17.

535 56. Blanco CA, Chiaravalle W, Dalla-Rizza M, Farias JR, García-Degano MF, et al. (2016) Current 536 situation of pests targeted by Bt crops in Latin America. Current Opinion in Insect Science 537 15: 131-138.

538	57. Ferraro DO, Ghersa CM (2013) Fuzzy assessment of herbicide resistance risk: Glyphosate-
539	resistant johnsongrass, Sorghum halepense (L.) Pers., in Argentina's croplands. Crop
540	Protection 51: 32-39.
541	58. Valverde BE, Gressel J (2006) Dealing with the evolution and spread of Sorghum halepense
542	glyphosate resistance in Argentina. Buenos Aires: Consultancy report to SENASA.
543	Available: <u>http://www.sinavimo.gov.ar/files/senasareport2006.pdf</u> .
544	59. Rubione C, Ward SM (2017) A New Approach to Weed Management to Mitigate Herbicide
545	Resistance in Argentina. Weed Science 64: 641-648.
546	60. de Abelleyra D, Verón S (2020) Crop rotations in the Rolling Pampas: Characterization, spatial
547	pattern and its potential controls. Remote Sensing Applications: Society and Environment:
548	100320.
549	61. Ferraro DO, Gagliostro M (2017) Trade-off assessments between environmental and economic
550	indicators in cropping systems of Pampa region (Argentina). Ecological Indicators 83: 328-
551	337.
552	62. Caiado RGG, de Freitas Dias R, Mattos LV, Quelhas OLG, Leal Filho W (2017) Towards
553	sustainable development through the perspective of eco-efficiency - A systematic literature
554	review. Journal of Cleaner Production 165: 890-904.
555	











