1 Factors governing the solid phase distribution of Cr, Cu and As in contaminated soil after 40

2 years of ageing

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12 Abstract:

1. The physico-chemical factors affecting the distribution, behavior and speciation of chromium 13 (Cr), copper (Cu) and arsenic (As) was investigated at a former wood impregnation site 14 (Fredensborg, Denmark). Forty soil samples were collected and extracted using a sequential 15 extraction technique known as the Chemometric Identification of Substrates and Element 16 Distributions (CISED) and multivariate statistical tools (redundancy analysis) were applied. 17 CISED data was linked to water-extractable Cr, Cu and As and bioavailable Cu as determined 18 by a whole-cell bacterial bioreporter assay. Results showed that soil pH significantly affected 19 the solid phase distribution of all three elements on site. Additionally, elements competing for 20 binding sites, Ca, Mg and Mn in the case of Cu, and P, in the case of As, played a major role 21 in the distribution of these elements in soil. Element-specific distributions were observed 22 amongst the six identified soil phases including residual pore salts, exchangeable, carbonates 23 (tentative designation), Mn-Al oxide, amorphous Fe oxide, and crystalline Fe oxide. While 24 Cr was strongly bound to non-extractable crystalline Fe oxide in the oxic top soil. Cu and 25 notably, As were associated with readily extractable phases. While water-extractable Cu and 26 27 As significantly correlated to CISED identified soil phases, water-extractable Cr and bioavailable Cu did not, the latter suggesting that sequential extraction schemes may not be 28 29 ideally suited for inferring bioavailability and toxicity of elements to ecological endpoints such as microbes in soil. Findings from this study suggest that after 40 years of ageing, Cu 30 31 and As at CCA-contaminated field sites constitute the highest risk to environmental and human health through ecotoxicological impact and leaching to groundwater reservoirs. 32 Introduction 33

Multi-element contaminated sites resulting from anthropogenic activity are of serious concern as: 34 (1) these types of contaminants accumulate and persist in the environment, (2) complex chemical 35 mixtures of elements behave differently from each other in soil and (3) the interactions between 36 elements and potential synergistic effects are not well understood. Chromated copper arsenate 37 (CCA) contaminated sites are a result of the wood impregnation industry which, for several 38 decades, used a solution of salts (CrO₃ and CuO) and arsenic acid (H₃AsO₄) to impregnate wood to 39 preserve it from decay by biotic and abiotic factors (Humphrey, 2002). As environmental 40 legislations in Europe (Directive, 2003) and North America became more stringent over the years, 41

the use of these impregnation mixtures was severely curtailed and numerous sites were closed
down, remaining contaminated to this today (Bhattacharya et al., 2002).

During the fixation of CCA-treated wood a number of different chemical reactions occur and their 44 resulting speciation can have significant effects on leachate toxicity and mobility (Hingston et al., 45 2001). Namely, reactive and mobile hexavalent Cr is reduced to insoluble Cr(III); however a 46 fraction of Cr(VI) may remain oxidized (Gezer and Cooper, 2016). Arsenic is fixed as chromium 47 arsenates, but As(V) can be reduced to the toxic and mobile As(III) in soil (Nielsen et al., 2010). 48 Chromium, Cu and As, in the form of Cr(VI), Cu(II), and As(III), can cause significant 49 environmental impact, primarily as a result of leaching to groundwater reservoirs and transport to 50 downstream lakes and streams (Nielsen et al., 2013) and due to their high toxicity to soil and water-51 dwelling organism alike (Gezer and Cooper, 2016; Nunes et al., 2016). Past studies of CCA 52 mixtures have reported that Cu was generally immobilized in the oxic top soil while Cr and As 53 exhibited high spatial mobility and risk of leaching (Allinson et al., 2000; Andersen et al., 1996; 54 Carey et al., 2002; Hopp et al., 2006). However, these studies have been focused on short-term 55 monitoring and/or under controlled laboratory environments and therefore do not provide a useful 56 57 basis for determining element speciation and mobility in the field after substantial ageing processes (Allinson et al., 2000; Andersen et al., 1996; Carey et al., 2002; Hopp et al., 2006). 58

Several sequential extraction techniques are available to quantify the distribution of elements in soil 59 phases, providing valuable tools to make assumptions on element speciation and mobility in the 60 field (Bacon and Davidson, 2008). In general, the extractable phases are categorized as 61 exchangeable, specifically adsorbed, carbonates, Fe and Mn-oxides, organic matter and sulphides, 62 and mineral lattice or residual (Cave and Harmon, 1997; Cave and Wragg, 1997). Among sequential 63 extraction methodologies, the Chemometric Identification of Substrates and Element Distributions 64 (CISED) provides an estimate of how much of the potentially harmful elements can be found in 65 each soil solid phase. This approach was developed as a result of limitations/weaknesses associated 66 with 'classical' sequential extractions (Cave et al., 2004): lack of specificity for the target phase, 67

methodological definition of the distribution of elements and re-adsorption of liberated metals, the 68 varied (and sometimes long) extraction times required to undertake the methodology, and the 69 complexity of the extraction matrices for analysis. The CISED methodology considers that a soil 70 71 and its associated phases are multi-elemental and has taken the approach of using a non-specific 72 acid extractant at increasing strengths combined with mixture resolution analysis to combat the limitations outlined above (Cave et al., 2004). It has been successfully validated by comparison to 73 other sequential extraction procedures such as the Tessier method (Cave and Wragg, 1997), to 74 backscattered scanning electron microscopy (BSEM) analysis and digital energy-dispersive X-ray 75 microanalysis (Cave et al., 2004) and applied to diverse soil samples (Cipullo et al., 2018; Wragg 76 77 and Cave, 2012; Wragg et al., 2014). Furthermore, although the link between human oral bioaccessibility and CISED has been studied (Cox et al., 2013; Wragg and Cave, 2012; Wragg et 78 al., 2014), the relationship between elements associated with CISED identified solid phases and 79 bioavailable elements, in the context of biological receptors such as bacteria, remains unexplored. 80 Physico-chemical factors, such as pH (Lu et al., 2005), organic C (Andersen et al., 1996), reactive 81 Fe oxides (Yang et al., 2002) and P content (Bolan et al., 2013; Cao and Ma, 2004), all play an 82 83 important role in influencing the adsorption and occlusion of these elements between the soil solid and liquid phases. However, studying the complex relationships between physico-chemical factors 84 and element distribution amongst phases in the field can be very challenging and requires the use of 85 multivariate statistical tools. Redundancy analysis (RDA), a form of constrained ordination founded 86 on the principles of multiple linear regression, can test the relationships between multivariate 87 explanatory and response datasets (Legendre and Anderson, 1999) and allows us to explore such 88 complex relationships in the field. 89

To our knowledge, no field studies investigating the physico-chemical factors governing the solidphase distribution of CCA in aged soils have occurred. To this end, we collected soil samples along
a contamination gradient at a CCA legacy site and assessed the factors affecting the solid-phase
distribution of Cr, Cu and As in the field. The study objectives were: (i) to identify the common soil

solid phases on site and the distribution of Cr, Cu and As amongst these phases, (ii) to study the
influence of different physico-chemical factors on this solid phase distribution, and finally, (iii) to
test the relationship between water extractable Cr, Cu and As and bioavailable Cu, as determined by
a whole-cell bacterial bioreporter assay, with elements distributed amongst the CISED easily
extractable phase.

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100 2. Materials and Methods

101 **2.1. Field site history and geology**

The multi-element field contaminated site, located in Fredensborg, Denmark (55°57N, 12°21E), 102 was used as a wood impregnation site, coating wood telephone poles with a mixture of CCA for 103 over 20 years (Fig. 1a). The most recent impregnation liquid being used on site was a water soluble 104 formulation of salts CrO₃ (Cr(VI)) and CuO (Cu(II)) and arsenic acid As₂O₅ (As(V)) as 34%, 27% 105 and 25% respectively (Nielsen et al., 2014). The main contamination on site was derived from 106 drippings of surplus preservatives into the soil. In 1976, the entire site was abandoned and left as a 107 brownfield in the surrounding forest. It was replanted in clearly visible rows of birch (Betula) and 108 oak (Quercus), and today, trees are found in various states of growth because of the heterogeneous 109 soil contamination. 110

In 1989, a full-scale site investigation was launched and reports on the bedrock geology and soil
chemistry by the company Samfundsteknik were published (Samfundsteknik, 1989a;

Samfundsteknik, 1989b) and an updated site investigation for the period between 1977 and 2009

114 was reported by Nielsen et al. (2010). Briefly, the 1989 investigation reported that soil

115 contamination was widespread across the $65,000 \text{ m}^2$ site as a result of direct spillage and dripping

116 from highly contaminated bark during the drying process. The main contamination on sites derive

from the metals Cr (Cr^{3+} and Cr^{6+}), Cu and metalloid As (As^{3+} , As^{5+}), in the top soil and shallow

groundwater. Top soil (0-0.5m) was found to be the most heavily contaminated with average

119 concentrations of 4-700 mg kg⁻¹, 6-1500 mg kg⁻¹ and 2-1000 mg kg⁻¹ for Cr, Cu and As,

120 respectively (Fig. 1b: modified from Samfundsteknik report).

The bedrock geology at this site is predominantly a sandy glaciofluvial formation with lenses of sand and clay. The site is located on the edge of the regional formation of the Alnarp Valley, which extends across Northern Zealand and South of Sweden. The contaminated site is found upstream of the Esrum Lake and connected via shallow, intermediate and deep aquifers, with local sediments constituting one of the most important groundwater reservoirs in North Zealand, Denmark. Nielsen et al. postulated that the most likely route for CCA leaching to the lake being the intermediary and deep aquifers (Nielsen et al., 2010).

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2.2. Experimental design and soil sampling

Ten sampling stations (1-10) were established at this site in October 2016. The sample selection 129 was based on the 1989 site investigation concentrations and a preliminary sampling (data not 130 131 shown) validating the establishment of a contamination gradient (Fig. 1b). At each location a plot of 1 m² was laid out and each plot separated into 4 quadrants with the intention of sampling 132 biological replicates. It became apparent after soil chemical analysis, however, that heterogeneity 133 on site was extensive and as a result, samples were kept separate for downstream analysis. Samples 134 were named from 1-40 based on total cumulative Cr, Cu and As concentrations in the samples. 135 Approximately 500 g of top soil (~10 cm in depth) was collected from each quadrant in a 136 randomized sampling design within the quadrant and mixed thoroughly on site in plastic bags in 137

order to obtain a representative sample (10 sampling locations \times 4 quadrants = 40 samples).

139 Individual fresh soil samples were divided and processed for analysis in the following way

140 (Supplementary Fig.1): (1) 2 g into 15mL falcon tube for water-extraction/bacterial bioreporter;

141 (2) 5 g into 50mL falcon tube for pH measurement; (3) 10 g in petri-dish for water content

measurement; (4) 5 g in airtight anoxic vials and stored at -20 °C for reactive Fe oxide measurement

and (5) 10 g was pooled from each quadrant into one composite sample for each sampling location

and thoroughly homogenized for texture analysis. Remaining soil was air-dried, sieved (2 mm mesh
 size) and ground to a fine powder with mechanical pestle and mortar (henceforth referred to as
 pulverized) for downstream physical-chemical analyses (Supplementary F1).

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2.3. Soil physico-chemical analyses

148 Particle size distribution was determined on composite fresh soil by the hydrometer method (Gee and Bauder, 1986) and classified according to international standard particle size classes. Water 149 content was measured after drying samples for 12h at 105°C. Soil pH was measured on fresh soil in 150 151 MilliQ water at a 1:2.5 ratio (soil liquid, w/v) using a combined glass electrode (Metrohm, 6.0228.000). Poorly crystalline Fe oxides, henceforth referred to as reactive fraction of Fe oxides, 152 were measured based on the experimental procedures described in Nguyen et al. (2014). Two 153 chemical extractions were performed in parallel for 24 hours in 1:100 (soil liquid, w/v) using: 1) 154 0.5M formic acid at pH 3, targeting the carbonates and phosphates and 10mM ascorbic acid and 2) 155 0.5M formic acid at pH 3, to target the ferrihydrite and very poorly crystalline goethite. Poorly 156 crystalline Fe oxides was determined by subtracting Fe^{2+} found in the first extraction from Fe^{2+} in 157 the second extraction. Total carbon and total nitrogen concentrations were analyzed by dry 158 combustion at 1200° using a Vario Macro cube C/N elemental analyzer on dry, 2mm sieved and 159 pulverized soil samples (Elementar Analysen systeme GmbH, Hanau, Germany). Data quality of 160 C/N analysis was evaluated by inclusion of standard reference materials (1515 Apple leaves and 161 141d acetanilide, National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), Gaithers-burg, MD, 162 USA). Plant-available P was determined by the Olsen P method, extracting the dry, 2mm sieved and 163 pulverized soil with a 0.5M hydrogen carbonate solution at pH 8.5 and then spectrophotometrically 164 measuring the P content in solution, following ISO 11263:1994 protocol. 165

166 **2.4. Water-extractable, total and CISED extractions**

- 167 Water-extractable elements (Al, As, Ba, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Li, Mg, Mo, Mn, Na, Ni, P, Pb,
- 168 S, Sb, Si, Se, Sr, V and Zn) were analyzed in soil-water extracts at a 1:5 ratio (soil liquid, w/v),
- 169 extracted on a horizontal shaker at 200rpm for 2 hours.
- 170 Total element concentrations (Al, As, Ba, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Li, Mg, Mo, Mn, Na, Ni, P,
- 171 Pb, S, Sb, Si, Se, Sr, V and Zn) were determined following ISO 11047 protocol, which extracts the
- elements with aqua regia (HCl/HNO₃) using a microwave digestion system.
- 173 The solid phase distribution of elements (Al, As, Ba, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Li, Mg, Mo, Mn,
- 174 Na, Ni, P, Pb, S, Sb, Si, Se, Sr, V and Zn) was investigated using a modified non-specific sequential
- extraction method, based on the CISED methodology (Cave et al., 2004), as described in (Cipullo et
- al., 2018). Briefly, 2 g of pulverized soil was sequentially extracted (twice per reagent) with
- deionized water (DI) and HNO₃ in increasing dissolution strength: DI (E1-E2), 0.01 M (E3-E4),
- 178 0.05 M (E5-E6), 0.1 M (E7-E8), 0.5 M (E9-E10), 1.0 M (E11-E12) and 5.0 M (E13-E14), with
- H_2O_2 (100 Volumes) addition in the last 4 extracts.
- 180

2.5. Bacterial bioreporter assay

Henceforth, Bioavailable Cu (Cu_{bio}) is operationally defined as Cu species in soil-water extracts that
are able to induce gene expression in a Cu-specific *Pseudomonas fluorescens* bioreporter during a
90 minute incubation period. A dual strain whole-cell bacterial bioreporter assay was performed
using the same soil-water extracts as above, as described previously (Brandt et al., 2008). No
sample matrix correction factors were required.

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2.6. Element measurement by Inductively Couple Plasma-Mass Spectrometry

Water-extractable, aqua regia and CISED samples were diluted (1:10) with HNO₃, spiked with 5 μg
mL⁻¹ of internal standard mix (Se, Ge, Rh, and Bi), and subsequently measured for elements listed
above using an Inductively Couple Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (NexION® 350D ICP-MS, Perkin
Elmer). The instrument was calibrated with 9 major (Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Na, S, Si, P) and 17 trace

(Al, As, Ba, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Li, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Sr, V, Zn) elements. The concentration 191 ranged from 1 to 40 mg L⁻¹ for major elements and 0.01 to 2 mg L⁻¹ for trace elements. For data 192 quality control, acid blanks (1% nitric acid), digestion blank, and guidance material (BGS102) were 193 194 analyzed systematically, to account for blank contamination, sensitivity, operating conditions and extraction accuracy. No recovery corrections were made as the mean repeatability (expressed as 195 196 relative standard deviation %) of the guidance material (BGS102) was below 15% for individual elements. Sample 8 was removed from subsequent data analyses, as it did not meet the data quality 197 control criteria. 198

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2.7. CISED self-modelling mixture resolution

The self-modelling mixture resolution (SMMR) algorithm (MatLab Version R2015a) was used to 200 model the solid-phase distribution of elements in soil as studied by the CISED sequential extraction 201 technique (Cave et al., 2004). The algorithm assumes that the chemical analysis data represents 202 different proportions of chemical components (which have fixed chemical composition) that have 203 been dissolved out of the soil by the extraction media. The algorithm then uses chemometric 204 methods to identify the number of components being extracted, the chemical composition (Al, As, 205 Ba, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Li, Mg, Mo, Mn, Na, Ni, P, Pb, S, Sb, Si, Se, Sr, V and Zn) of each 206 component (CMP = composition) and the amount of each component in each extraction solution. 207 The extraction profile of each component is derived from the amount of each component found in 208 209 the 14 extracts (PRF = profile). In addition, the relative proportions of each element in each component can also be calculated (DST = distribution). The SMMR algorithm was run separately 210 for each sampling location, including the 4 quadrants, resulting in 10 distinct sets of components (6-211 13/sampling location), resulting in a total 89 individual components in the entire dataset. From here, 212 hierarchal clustering, geochemical profile interpretations and previous study with a certified 213 reference material (Cave et al., 2004; Wragg and Cave, 2012) was used to classify the 89 214 components into the common, distinct soil phases (i.e. residual pore salts, exchangeable phases, 215

etc.).. Briefly, a matrix with mean-centered and scaled CMP and PRF, as described above, of each
component was performed with Ward's method using the 'agnes' function in the cluster package
(Maechler et al., 2012) in R (v.3.4.1, R Foundation for Statistical Computing; available at
https://www.r-project.org/. The result from the clustering was visualized using a heatmap (Fig. 2)
created using ggplot2, reshape2, grid, and ggdendro packages (Wickham, 2007; Wickham, 2010).

221 **2.8. Statistical analyses**

All statistical analyses were performed in R (v.3.4.1, R Foundation for Statistical Computing). The 222 significant influence of specific physico-chemical soil parameters on the solid phase distribution of 223 Cr, Cu and As was tested using redundancy analyses (RDA) (Legendre and Anderson, 1999). In the 224 context of this research, it tested the relationship between physico-chemical properties of soil on the 225 solid phase distribution of either Cr, Cu or As (separate analysis for each element). In order to 226 choose which explanatory variables (physico-chemical factors) to include in the model, we pre-227 selected physico-chemical parameters based on geological interpretation of the system, keeping in 228 mind that one of the central assumptions of this analysis is independence between explanatory 229 variables. Variables selected for hypothesis testing were based on evidence from the literature and 230 included pH, total C, reactive Fe oxide, Olsen P, total P as well as total and water-extractable Ca, 231 Mg and Mn. A forward selection of variables using the 'ordistep' function in the 'vegan' package 232 was performed in order to select the variables to include in the final model. The final model was 233 234 built using the 'rda' and 'anova.cca' functions of the 'vegan' package (Oksanen et al., 2013). Spatial autocorrelation between samples due to sampling design tested positive using the 'mso' 235 function in the 'vegan' package. Thus, it was accounted for using partial redundancy analysis, 236 conditioning for sampling location. Reported adjusted redundancy statistics R^2 were obtained using 237 the 'RsquareAdj' function of the 'vegan' package. 238

The relationship between elements in the water-extracts, bioavailable Cu and the common CISEDidentified soil phases was not reported as it is generally assumed that soil particle associated-

elements are not directly available to bacteria (Brandt et al., 2006; Noll, 2003). Therefore, we tested the relationships between bioavailable Cu (ug g⁻¹), water-extractable Cr, Cu and As (ug g⁻¹) and elements (ug g⁻¹) in the most easily extractable soil component identified by CISED for each sampling location by using Pearson correlation coefficient with the 'cor' function in R.

245

3. Results

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3.1 Soil physico-chemical properties

248 Selected physico-chemical soil properties are summarized in Table 1 and detailed characterization

is provided in **Supplementary Table 1** and **Table 2**. Total concentrations of Cr, Cu and As ranged

250 between 26.1-1819 mg kg⁻¹, 17.2-2205 mg kg⁻¹ and 32.4-2839 mg kg⁻¹, respectively, while water-

extractable concentrations ranged from 0.02-0.78 mg Cr kg⁻¹, 0.11-5.99 mg Cu kg⁻¹ and 0.17-18.3

mg As kg⁻¹ and bioavailable Cu ranged from $0.04-3.52 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$.

253 Soil samples collected from location 1, 2, 3, 5, 6 and 8 were classified as sandy soils (sand >

254 85.0%) while 4, 7, 9 and 10 were loamy sand (sand = 81.0- 85.0%). pH ranged from 3.53-6.83

across all samples. Total C, ranged from 1.47-17.4% and total N from 0.09-0.83%. Reactive Fe

oxides in samples ranged from 1.48-5.97 mg kg⁻¹, Olsen P 14.7-73.4 mg kg⁻¹ and total P 319-713 μ g

 g^{-1} . Total and water-extractable Ca ranged from 1112-7414 μ g g⁻¹ and 3.42-50.8 μ g g⁻¹, respectively.

Total and water-extractable Mg ranged from 692-1951 μ g g⁻¹ and 0.66-6.72 μ g g⁻¹, respectively.

Total and water-extractable Mn ranged from 225.4-1174 μ g g⁻¹ and 0.08-2.45 μ g g⁻¹, respectively.

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3.2 Soil solid phases identified by CISED

Extraction recoveries with the CISED extraction methodology compared with total element

262 concentration averaged 61 ± 13 %, 90 ± 11 % and 81 ± 11 % for Cr, Cu and As, respectively. The

cumulative CISED extraction recoveries were less than 100 % because the CISED extraction

protocol mainly targets the easily soluble surface coatings and not the silicate matrix of soil.

The SMMR algorithm identified 6-13 soil components per sampling location giving 89 individual 265 components in the entire dataset. Using a combination of the chemical composition of the clusters, 266 the relative ease of their extraction as indicated by the amount extracted at each step and a general 267 268 knowledge of soil geochemistry, 6 common physico-chemical phases were identified (Fig. 2). **Table 2** describes the 6 common soil solid phases amongst the sampling locations, listed here in 269 270 decreasing ease of extractability: Residual pore salts, exchangeable, carbonates (tentative designation), Mn-Al oxide, Fe oxide (amorphous) and Fe oxide (crystalline) (Table 2). 271 Residual pore salts-this cluster was extracted primarily during the first two extractions of CISED 272 using deionized water. It is dominated by Ca, Na, K, and Si, which are highly mobile elements and 273

can be derived from soluble pore water salts in soil.

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275 *Exchangeable*-this cluster does not result in defined peaks like the other phases, likely as a result of data processing of soil components of higher variability, and is comprised of several components 276 from each location. It is mainly comprised of exchangeable cations such as Na, Mg, S, Sb, Se and P, 277 which are typically bound to soil particle surfaces by weak electrostatic forces and can be displaced 278 by competing cations and released into solution, as exhibited in the saw toothed pattern of the 279 extraction profile (Table 2). Some of these extractable components also come out at higher acid 280 strengths, conceivably being encased in more recalcitrant components which are only being released 281 later on in the extraction profile. 282

Carbonates (tentative designation)- typically we would designate this component as carbonates however, due to the inherent physico-chemical properties (pH below 7) on site, which would suggest that carbonates are unlikely to occur, we only tentatively assign this soil phase. This is further discussed in Supplementary Material. This cluster is extracted on the first addition of acids and is comprised of two sub-clusters which are carbonate (Ca-Mg) and carbonate (Ca). Carbonate (Ca-Mg) sub-cluster is dominated with Ca and Mg, and comes out over a narrow range in the extractions, primarily during the addition of 0.01M nitric acid. Other elements present in this

290	partition include Al, Ba, Cd, Cu, Sr and Zn. Carbonate (Ca) sub-cluster comes out a little later in the
291	extraction profile, indicating that this carbonate phase is less available than the previous. It is
292	composed of the same elements as the previous cluster, with the notable absence of Mg. Location 3,
293	4, 5, 8 and 10 have soil components in both sub-clusters while Location 1, 2, 6, 7 and 9 only have
294	soil components associated with more readily available carbonate phase (Ca-Mg).
295	Mn-Al oxide- this cluster is dominated by Mn and Al elements and tends to be extracted upon
296	addition of peroxide, a reagent commonly known to target Al oxides.
297	Two distinct clusters of Fe oxides were identified and suggest the presence of both amorphous and
298	crystalline Fe oxides:

Fe oxide (amorphous)- this cluster comprises soil components that are extracted from 0.1M-1M nitric 299 acid and are primarily made up of Fe and to a lesser extent, Al, Pb, Se and V. 300

Fe oxide (crystalline)- this cluster is comprised primarily of Fe and to a lesser degree Al and Si, and 301 requires high acid concentrations (0.5-5M) to extract. Within this cluster, there is a subcluster with 302 303 3 soil components belonging to the locations with the highest contamination (Location 3, 4 and 5) and appear to be a CCA component, primarily made up of Fe, Cr and As. 304

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3.3 Solid Phase Distribution of Cr, Cu and As in soil

Chromium, Cu and As at this site were associated with specific soil phases along the contamination 306 307 gradient. Fig. 3 presents the data based on percentage of the individual element in the soil phases as compared with the total Cr, Cu, As extracted in that sample with CISED and as such, the changes 308 observed are relative. The distribution of Cr, Cu and As ($\mu g g^{-1}$) in each soil phase can be found in 309 **Supplementary Table 3**. Samples were separated into low, moderate and high contamination the 310 subsequent text in order to discuss their distribution along the contamination gradient, as follows: 311 (i) Low concentrations, samples 1-14 (below 175 µg g⁻¹ for Cr, Cu and As), (ii) moderate 312 concentrations, samples 15-27 (between 175-200 for Cr, 175-600 for Cu and 175-400 µg g⁻¹ for 313

As), and (iii) high concentrations, samples 28-40 (above 200 for Cr, 600 for Cu and 400 μ g g⁻¹ for 314 As). 315

Cr is almost exclusively found in the least reactive phase, in the crystalline Fe oxide. In the low 316 contamination, particularly in samples coming from location 9, Cr is present in the exchangeable 317 (avg. 78 ± 11 %) and Mn-Al oxide (avg. 22 ± 11 %) phases. In the high contamination, at location 3, 318 some Cr is found in the exchangeable phase (avg. 42±10 %). In the low and moderate 319 contamination, some Cr is found in the amorphous Fe oxide phase (avg. 18 ± 8 %) at location 8 and 320 2.

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322 Cu is primarily found in Mn-Al oxides and to a lesser extent, the Fe oxide (amorphous) phases in the lower end of the contamination gradient. In the moderate and high contamination, Cu is almost 323 exclusively found in the carbonate (tentative designation) phase (avg. 57 ± 29 %). It is primarily 324 found in the less extractable carbonate sub-cluster, carbonate (Ca). At location 9 (avg. 33±25 %) as 325 well as locations 3 (avg. 17 ± 8 %) and 4 (avg. 18 ± 6 %), a portion of the Cu is found in the 326 exchangeable phase. 327

The As solid phase distribution pattern along the contamination gradient was more variable. At low 328 contamination, it was primarily in the crystalline Fe oxides (avg. 46±21 %), in the Mn-Al oxides 329 (avg. 10 ± 8 %), and amorphous Fe oxides (avg. 16 ± 6 %). For samples from location 9, it is also in 330 the exchangeable phase (avg. 24 ± 23 %). In the moderate contamination, the As contamination 331 shifts into the exchangeable (avg. 18±13 %), Mn-Al oxides (avg. 18±13 %) and amorphous Fe 332 oxides (avg. 34±22 %). In the high contamination, the As was no longer found in the Mn-Al oxides 333 but in the carbonates (tentative designation) (avg. 22 ± 7 %), amorphous Fe oxides (avg. 18 ± 10 %), 334 crystalline Fe oxides (avg. 33±11 %) and also in the exchangeable (avg. 24±3 %) for locations 3 335 and 4. In the moderate (avg. $4\pm3 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$) and high contamination (avg. $2\pm1 \ \%$), a small proportion of 336 As could be detected in the residual pore salts, corresponding to alarmingly high concentrations in 337 specific samples (up to $37.5 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$). 338

3. 4 Factors affecting the Solid-Phase Partitioning of Cr, Cu and As in Soil

Specific physico-chemical parameters significantly affected the solid-phase partitioning of Cr, Cu 340 and As in soil as shown with partial redundancy analyses (Fig. 4). Cr solid phase distribution was 341 significantly affected by pH (F=10.3, p=0.002), with the model adjusted $R^2=0.194$ (Fig. 4a). The 342 amount of variance explained by this model was 20.9% and an additional 6.1% of the variation 343 could be attributed to spatial autocorrelation correction. Cu solid phase distribution was 344 significantly affected by total Mg (F=29.1, p=0.001), Olsen P (F=24.9, p=0.001), pH (F=22.4, 345 p=0.001), total Mn (F=14.0, p=0.003), water-extractable Mg (F=13.3, p=0.001) and water-346 extractable Ca (F=6.2, p=0.018), with the model adjusted $R^2=0.759$ (Fig. 4b). The amount of 347 variance explained by this model was 70.0% and an additional 8.1% of the variation could be 348 attributed to spatial autocorrelation correction. As solid phase distribution was significantly affected 349 by pH (F=24.3, p=0.001), reactive Fe oxides (F=5.2, p=0.022) and Olsen P (F=3.4, p=0.05), with 350 the model adjusted $R^2=0.437$ (Fig. 4c). The amount of variance explained by this model was 46.5% 351 and an additional 9.0% of the variation could be attributed to spatial autocorrelation correction. 352

353 **3.5 Linking Cr, Cu and As solid phases to bioavailability**

While water-extractable Cu (r=0.374, p=0.019) and As (r=0.612, p<0.001) were significantly correlated to the most readily available CISED component at each site, water-extractable Cr and bioavailable Cu were not.

357

358 **4. Discussion**

To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate and elucidate specific effects of physicochemical parameters on the solid phase distribution of elements at a complex field site after substantial ageing processes. Element-specific distributions and behaviors in soil were observed along a CCA-contamination gradient at former wood impregnation site.

4.1 Factors affecting the Solid-Phase Partitioning of Cr, Cu and As in Soil

Although past studies have already demonstrated that pH can alter the distribution of these individual elements in soil (Kabata-Pendias, 2010; Lu et al., 2005), here we report the importance of pH in affecting the distribution of all three elements simultaneously along a field contamination gradient. These finding suggest that acidification of soil, as a result of events such as rainwater leaching, decomposition of organic matter and release of carbon dioxide and/or plant root exudation of reducing and chelating compounds for example, could lead to redistribution of Cr, Cu and As amongst soil solid phases.

Additionally, element-specific influences were observed. Cu distribution was influenced by divalent 371 cations such as Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Mn²⁺, which are known to be structurally similar and may compete 372 with Cu for binding sites in soil. For example, competition for binding sites and translocation into 373 plant roots between divalent cations such as Ca and Mn has been reported with Cd (Eller and Brix, 374 2016). Plant available P (Olsen P) was also shown to be important in influencing the distribution of 375 Cu, and could compete with Cu for binding to different oxides, such as Mn-Al oxides. In the case of 376 As, reactive Fe oxides were significantly affecting its distribution, a phenomenon generally known 377 (Yang, Barnett et al. 2002). Available P (Olsen P) also played a role in the distribution of As on soil 378 solid phases. Interestingly, As(V) is a well-known phosphate analog which competes for sorption 379 380 sites in soil (Bolan et al., 2013). Thus, an increase in P could result in an increase in available As for plant uptake, as demonstrated at a CCA site by Cao et al. (2004). Indeed, this suggests that sudden 381 382 changes in these specific physico-chemical factors could lead to shifts in the distribution of these elements between soil liquid and solid phases, as discussed in the subsequent section 4.2. 383

384

4.2 Solid Phase Distribution of Cr, Cu and As in soil

In the wood impregnation mixture, Cr was found as Cr(VI), a highly reactive, mobile and toxic form of Cr. During the fixation process, it is reduced to Cr(III) but residues of Cr(VI) may still occur and leach into the soil. After a substantial ageing period, Cr on site was found almost

exclusively bound to the least extractable phase, the crystalline Fe oxide. Although the crystalline 388 Fe oxide minerals typically have lower adsorption capacity than amorphous phases such as 389 ferrihydrite minerals, the dominance of Cr in the aforementioned phase could be for several reasons. 390 391 Either there are more of these oxides present at this site and therefore a larger fraction is absorbed onto this fraction, and/or perhaps more importantly, ferrihydrites age to crystalline Fe oxide over 392 time, a process which can be further aided by microbes in soil (Zachara et al., 2002) and as such, Cr 393 may have started off associated with ferrihydrites but this fraction became crystalline over time. As 394 a result, and in line with a previous report at this site (Nielsen et al., 2016), we suggest that the 395 dominant form of Cr in the top soil is Cr (III) because in this form, Cr is typically bound to 396 positively charged surfaces such as Fe and Al oxides and is very stable in soil (Namiesnik and 397 Rabajczyk, 2012). Although past laboratory and field studies have suggested that Cr from the CCA 398 mixtures is highly mobile, these studies have focused on short-term monitoring (Allinson et al., 399 2000; Hopp et al., 2006). After 100 days of ageing, however, Carey et al. demonstrated in a 400 controlled leaching study, that less than 1% of Cr(VI) could be extracted in the top layer (Carey et 401 402 al., 2002). Groundwater investigations of the terrain magazines at this site have suggested that the mobile pools of Cr have been washed out, as concentrations in the groundwater have fallen 403 significantly between 1977 and 1995, from 21-1500 μ g L⁻¹ to <3 μ g L⁻¹ (Nielsen et al., 2010). 404 Remaining Cr(VI) in the top soil was likely reduced to chromic cation Cr(III) by soil organic 405 matter, as previously shown (Carey et al., 2002; Kabata-Pendias, 2010). Although total 406 concentrations of Cr at the higher end of the contamination gradient exceed guideline values, it is 407 unlikely to leach and cause adverse ecological impact because of its association with crystalline Fe 408 oxide structures which are stable under oxic top soil conditions. 409

410 Cu, added as CuO salts in the impregnation mixture, is typically found as a divalent cation in soil. 411 After 40 years of ageing, Cu(II) occurred in readily available phases such as exchangeable, and less 412 available phases such as carbonates (tentative designation) and Mn-Al oxides. Previously, Cu(II) in 413 the oxic top soil has been shown to be highly reactive with soil organic matter (SOM), typically

exhibiting low mobility in soil (Andersen et al., 1996; Kabata-Pendias, 2010). At this site, however, 414 soil organic matter content is generally low (avg. 5.6±4.2%), particularly in the highly contaminated 415 end of the gradient where substantial amounts of Cu are bound (avg. 2.0±0.5%), suggesting that Cu 416 417 might not efficiently bind to SOM. In recent work at this contaminated site, Frick et al. (submitted) also found that dissolved organic matter content in soil from the highly contaminated samples was 418 very low. Indeed, in their artificially CCA contaminated soils with low organic content, Balasoiu et 419 al., found that Cu was predominantly bound to soluble or exchangeable soil phases (Balasoiu et al., 420 2001). In samples from the low contamination gradient at this site, Cu binds readily to Mn-Al oxides 421 and amorphous Fe oxide, which has been demonstrated in several soils with low organic matter soils 422 423 (Agbenin and Olojo, 2004; Yu et al., 2004). When moving towards the moderate to highly contaminated samples, Cu shifted into the more extractable phase, carbonates (tentative designation) 424 (primarily the less extractable carbonate sub-cluster). Indeed, the differential vegetation cover and, 425 changes in plant species and physiology between the sampling location on site will affect the 426 geochemistry through direct (e.g. input and quality of organic matter, oxygen content and water 427 428 holding capacity) and indirect effects on the soil fauna by processes such as reduced organic material breakdown by microorganisms and/or increased compaction of soil due to reduced earthworm activity 429 (Arthur et al., 2012). The absence of trees, as seen in the higher end of the contamination gradient 430 which can only support the growth of mosses, can lead to increased mobility of elements via absence 431 of interception of incident precipitation, root accumulation and precipitation of elements in the 432 rhizosphere and could in part explain the shift of Cu into a more extractable phase. Determining the 433 isolated impact of individual effects discussed above on the solid phase distribution of elements, 434 however, is nearly impossible as these processes add-up and merge to form what is called the legacy 435 436 effect. Although carbonate associated elements are generally considered non-available to plants, a drop in pH could release Cu to more readily-extractable phases (Martinez and Motto, 2000). In the 437 highly contaminated samples, Cu was also associated to the exchangeable phase at specific locations, 438 a phase which has been described as readily available to plants and microorganisms (Maderova et al., 439

2011). Furthermore, the cation characteristics of this phase (e.g. Na, Mg and S), are bound to soil 440 particle surfaces by weak electrostatic forces and can be displaced by competing cations (Rowell, 441 1994). Indeed, this study has reported that competing divalent cations such as Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺ and Mn²⁺ 442 443 play a significant role in the distribution of Cu and as such, the divalent cations in this phase could compete for binding with Cu, leading to the release of Cu in the soil solution. In this study we report 444 that Cu, particularly in highly contaminated samples, is present in soil phases that are readily 445 extractable and/or in phases that are could replenish exchangeable and soil pore water element 446 concentrations, under altering physico-chemical conditions (Degryse et al., 2009). 447

Arsenic was added as arsenate (As(V)) in the impregnation mixture, which is the less mobile and 448 toxic inorganic form of As as compared with arsenite (As(III)) (Masscheleyn et al., 1991). At this 449 CCA site (Frick et al., *submitted*) and in other studies (Balasoiu et al., 2001; Gräfe et al., 2008; 450 451 Hopp et al., 2008), As(V) is reported as the dominant form of As, which is consistent with our knowledge that As (V) dominates in oxic top soil environments (Kabata-Pendias, 2010). Along our 452 453 contamination gradient, we observed that As was associated with all soil solid phases identified with the CISED methodology. A large portion of the As on site was associated with Mn-Al and Fe 454 oxides, in line with our knowledge that the inorganic oxyanion As(V) strongly binds to positively 455 charged Fe and Al oxides, both in natural (Lin and Puls, 2000; Wragg et al., 2014) and 456 contaminated soils (Bhattacharya et al., 2002). Arsenic bound in these phases is least likely to be 457 dissolved in the soil solution and leach to groundwater aquifers. But, As is also associated with 458 readily extractable phases such as residual pore salts and exchangeable. Arsenic concentrations in 459 those phases, reported at up to 37 and 437 μ g g⁻¹, respectively, are particularly alarming, given that 460 the soil guidelines for ecological risk are set at 20 μ g g⁻¹. Like Cu, As is also found in the 461 carbonates (tentative designation) phase and changes in specific physico-chemical factors such as 462 pH, reactive Fe oxides or available P, as described in section 4.1, could lead to redistribution of As 463 into different soil phases and thus, increase the risk of leaching and contamination of groundwater 464 reservoirs. 465

4.3 Linking Cu and As in solid phases to bioavailability

There is consensus in the literature that insignificant fractions of soil particle associated-Cu are 467 directly available to bacteria (Brandt et al., 2006; Noll, 2003; Ore et al., 2010). As a result, soil pore 468 water elements are often used to represent the biologically relevant element fraction (Giller et al., 469 2009; Peijnenburg et al., 2007). This study found that although water-extractable Cu correlated to 470 Cu in the most extractable CISED component, bioavailable Cu measured with a bacterial 471 bioreporter, did not. This is in line with knowledge that bioavailability of Cu is influenced by 472 complexation with dissolved organic matter (Brandt et al., 2008; Nybroe et al., 2008). Results from 473 sequential extraction schemes have been used in the past to make inferences about bioavailability 474 and toxicity to soil dwelling organisms such as plants, invertebrates and microorganisms. Our study 475 has shown, however, that bioavailability of Cu to microorganisms cannot be fully inferred using 476 sequential extraction methodologies such as CISED. Indeed, Maderova et al. (2011) also concluded 477 that no single chemical method, including the BCR sequential extraction methodology they 478 employed in their study, could quantify bioavailability of Cu to microbes. This suggests that it is 479 imperative to have receptor-targeted tests of bioavailability and highlights the importance of 480 including these tests alongside chemical methods. 481

Water-extractable As was also significantly correlated with As in the most extractable CISED phase, and interestingly, past research at this site reported that water-extractable As was almost exclusively bioavailable, as measured with an arsenic bioreporter assay (Frick, 2016). Collectively these findings suggest that while no inferences can be made about Cu bioavailability from Cu in the CISED residual pore salt phase, As bioavailability to bacteria could tentatively be inferred at this contaminated site.

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489 **5.** Conclusion/Summary

In this study we demonstrated that physico-chemical factors governing the solid phase distribution 490 of Cr, Cu and As at a CCA-contaminated site are element-specific. Hence, pH and elements 491 competing for binding sites, P in the case of As and divalent cations Ca, Mg and Mn for Cu, 492 493 affected this distribution. Changes in specific physico-chemical factors through natural processes such as soil acidification from rainwater leaching, organic matter degradation and/or plant 494 exudation or targeted remediation approaches which increase available P or reactive Fe oxides in 495 the field, could alter the solid phase distribution and therefore, mobility of Cr, Cu and As. After 496 substantial ageing processes, Cu and particularly, As remained in readily extractable phases such as 497 residual pore salts and exchangeable while Cr was largely bound to the least extractable solid phase, 498 499 crystalline Fe oxides. Findings from this study suggest that Cu and As at aged CCA-contaminated sites constitute the largest risks for environmental and human health and should be closely 500 monitored. In the case of Cu, risk is mainly related to ecotoxicological impact while As, due to its 501 higher mobility and severe human health effects, may represent a risk to adjacent aquatic 502 ecosystems and to human health via contamination of drinking water reservoirs. In addition, Cu 503 504 bioavailability to microbes could not be predicted solely using a sequential extraction procedure. This suggests that receptor-specific tests of bioavailability such as whole cell bacterial bioreporters 505 for microbes are needed to infer bioavailability in the soil environment and should be integrated 506 507 into risk assessments to complement analytical methods.

508

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518 **Conflict of Interests**

- 519 The authors declare no conflicts of interests
- 520

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Figure 1: (a) Map of Denmark and location of contaminated field site and (b) field site with

689 cumulative total Cr, Cu and As concentrations measured in 1990 by SAMFUNDSTEKNIK during

690 phase 2 risk assessment (Samfundsteknik, 1989b) with designated 10 sampling locations (1-10).



Figure 2: Heatmap and hierarchal clustering of components identified by self-modelling mixture 692 resolution (SMMR) algorithm for 10 sampling locations. The heatmap color gradient represents the 693 694 mean-centered concentrations of elements and the extraction profiles (E1-E14) reported as total extracted solids ($\mu g g^{-1}$) of the individual components, where black is low and white represents high 695 concentrations. Each row represents a component identified by the SMMR algorithm with the name 696 indicating the origin of the sampling location and the major elemental composition ($\geq 10\%$). The 697 stipple line on the ward cluster tree is where the cut-off was made to inform the geochemical 698 assignment of common soil solid phases, listed in decreasing extractability; 1) Residual pore salts, 699 2) Exchangeable, 3) Carbonates (tentative designation), 4) Mn-Al oxide, 5) Fe oxide (amorphous) 700 and 6) Fe oxide (crystalline). 701



Figure 3: Distribution (%) of Cr, Cu and As in different geochemical soil phases as compared to
 total extracted using CISED, in decreasing ease of extractability from the soil samples, along
 contamination gradient in Fredensborg, Denmark.



Figure 4: The effect of significant ($p \ge 0.05$) physico-chemical factors on the solid phase distribution measured using CISED of (a) Cr (one-dimensional), (b) Cu and (c) As shown using constrained

763 partial redundancy analysis, while controlling for the effect of autospatial correlation of sample.

Sample ^a	Sampling Location ^b	Clay ^c	Silt ^c	Sand ^c	Texture ^c	pН	С	Ν	Olsen P	Reactive Fe oxides	$Cu_{Bio}{}^d$	$As_{tot}{}^d$	Ca _{we} ^d	$\operatorname{Cr}_{tot}^{d}$	$Cu_{tot}{}^d$	$Mg_{tot}{}^{d}$	Mn _{tot} ^d	$P_{tot}{}^{d}$	As_{we}^{d}	Ca _{we} ^d	$\operatorname{Cr}_{we}^{d}$	Cu _{we} ^d	$Mg_{we}{}^{d}$	Mn _{we} ^d
		%		USDA	%		mg g-1			μg g-1														
1	9	6	13	81	Loamy sand	4.56	2.93	0.18	20.2	5.97	0.06	32.5	2441	28.9	17.2	1565	521	460	0.17	8.04	0.04	0.11	1.05	0.39
2	7	4.4	13.6	82	Loamy sand	5.27	2.69	0.14	32.1	1.48	0.40	39.8	2538	30.4	32.3	1672	457	403	0.40	18.8	0.13	0.56	4.78	2.45
3	9	6	13	81	Loamy sand	5.01	2.92	0.17	19.4	4.98	0.05	46.1	2524	33.4	24.0	1648	492	443	0.22	7.12	0.02	0.11	0.77	0.20
4	7	4.4	13.6	82	Loamy sand	5.26	2.5	0.13	27.3	1.98	0.25	36.7	2480	26.1	42.4	1622	445	399	0.24	11.2	0.06	0.38	2.27	0.70
5	9	6	13	81	Loamy sand	4.29	3.21	0.19	24.0	2.19	0.10	61.5	1997	30.4	22.9	1334	441	403	0.37	7.35	0.03	0.18	0.97	0.40
6	7	4.4	13.6	82	Loamy sand	5.64	3.83	0.21	27.9	2.2	0.32	48.0	2759	47.1	52.2	1455	447	394	0.67	26.0	0.17	0.70	4.70	1.38
7	7	4.4	13.6	82	Loamy sand	5.29	5.91	0.27	41.2	1.87	0.34	54.0	3137	59.0	52.8	1747	496	492	0.61	15.7	0.13	0.48	2.91	1.02
8	10	4	13	83	Loamy sand	6.42	11.6	0.6	29.6	2.95	0.14	109	3307	67.2	75.3	1550	463	538	2.19	36.1	0.04	0.38	2.02	0.09
9	1	6.4	8	85.6	Sand	4.53	9.55	0.56	14.7	1.73	0.19	109	2869	94.4	70.0	1535	276	455	1.22	13.7	0.15	0.60	1.73	0.47
10	1	6.4	8	85.6	Sand	3.53	12.6	0.69	18.2	1.93	0.21	113	3408	110	69.6	1601	304	486	1.79	17.8	0.21	0.48	2.55	1.03
11	10	4	13	83	Loamy sand	6.73	7.89	0.41	22.1	1.61	0.04	169	4596	94.0	93.9	1627	543	539	2.02	30.6	0.03	0.23	2.72	0.13
12	1	6.4	8	85.6	Sand	3.64	9.15	0.51	19.4	2.02	0.38	143	2847	128	94.6	1520	282	459	1.62	25.8	0.27	0.96	3.08	1.90
13	9	6	13	81	Loamy sand	5.62	4.24	0.25	31.0	1.89	0.09	178	4584	107	137	1584	533	633	0.54	6.31	0.03	0.14	0.98	0.24
14	10	4	13	83	Loamy sand	6.78	12.9	0.62	37.3	1.78	0.05	175	7414	142	122	1591	616	671	1.97	45.6	0.04	0.24	4.96	0.10
15	8	4	9	87	Sand	5.55	10.3	0.56	59.4	1.99	0.18	213	4775	154	158	1707	449	557	5.44	27.4	0.29	0.79	6.72	0.66
16	8	4	9	87	Sand	5.78	11.3	0.58	42.2	2.16	0.62	288	5021	128	149	1787	508	562	4.98	22.7	0.15	0.65	4.95	0.25
17	2	5.6	5.4	89	Sand	5.08	2.63	0.17	73.4	4.52	1.93	251	1399	74.2	289	872	225	516	4.80	5.11	0.13	1.69	1.34	0.70
18	10	4	13	83	Loamy sand	6.75	10.3	0.51	35.0	2.57	0.09	294	6797	161	203	1839	678	712	2.49	41.0	0.04	0.35	2.70	0.09
19	1	6.4	8	85.6	Sand	4.73	11	0.58	20.4	2.15	0.59	284	3637	244	134	1594	339	463	2.94	26.8	0.44	1.15	3.17	1.25
20	8	4	9	87	Sand	5.67	10	0.55	39.0	1.95	0.28	313	5294	169	188	1924	687	699	5.24	24.3	0.15	0.68	5.01	0.31
21	8	4	9	87	Sand	5.96	7.1	0.39	45.3	2.15	0.71	228	6096	213	251	1951	747	645	6.21	23.9	0.22	0.86	5.13	0.32
22	2	5.6	5.4	89	Sand	4.45	2.85	0.17	68.6	2.25	0.87	334	1144	216	281	755	230	384	7.63	3.42	0.23	1.51	1.00	0.69
23	2	5.6	5.4	89	Sand	4.51	2.56	0.16	59.5	1.91	1.53	221	1112	147	493	725	258	428	3.18	3.54	0.14	2.09	0.66	0.46
24	6	5.6	9.4	85	Sand	5.07	5.43	0.29	47.3	2.2	1.00	308	1564	267	371	898	623	576	5.33	4.71	0.29	1.47	1.21	0.51
25	6	5.6	9.4	85	Sand	4.38	7.93	0.41	40.8	2.1	0.72	386	1519	440	468	919	536	567	8.43	5.02	0.72	1.57	1.64	0.93
26	2	5.6	5.4	89	Sand	4.67	2.96	0.18	65.9	1.96	1.22	397	1169	372	561	721	434	438	3.87	4.02	0.21	1.59	0.94	0.60
27	6	5.6	9.4	85	Sand	4.2	17.4	0.83	22.2	2.17	3.52	203	1749	187	1129	692	484	445	7.51	11.2	0.35	5.99	2.36	0.90

Table 1: Selected physico-chemical properties of the top 10 cm of soil sampled (*n*=40) along the contamination gradient in Fredensborg, Denmark

28	6	5.6	9.4	85	Sand	4.59	7.03	0.38	34.5	2.44	1.92	404	1925	568	674	864	683	582	5.84	10.9	0.78	2.98	2.71	1.06
29	5	2.4	6.6	91	Sand	6	2.57	0.17	26.3	2.4	1.03	459	1899	283	965	1095	1142	474	4.79	6.53	0.09	1.64	1.03	0.15
30	5	2.4	6.6	91	Sand	6.21	1.88	0.14	26.1	2.67	1.28	470	1818	239	1298	978	834	428	6.52	12.1	0.13	2.69	2.16	0.17
31	3	4.4	4.6	91	Sand	6.83	1.6	0.1	29.3	1.94	0.23	857	3285	336	879	1106	536	356	4.15	36.9	0.11	0.67	2.36	0.08
32	3	4.4	4.6	91	Sand	6.65	1.66	0.09	37.5	2.35	1.31	1088	3692	399	1097	1079	461	361	4.59	50.8	0.09	0.84	2.56	0.10
33	4	4.4	10.6	85	Loamy sand	6.35	2.4	0.12	27.4	3.87	1.01	1139	2400	434	1158	1124	385	319	18.4	15.7	0.29	3.66	4.05	0.86
34	3	4.4	4.6	91	Sand	6.21	1.47	0.09	26.6	2.43	1.34	1097	2509	555	1168	1144	343	363	7.65	37.5	0.24	2.02	3.02	0.16
35	5	2.4	6.6	91	Sand	6.23	1.76	0.11	24.8	1.48	0.76	973	2394	526	1462	1083	869	344	9.09	21.7	0.11	1.62	4.12	0.82
36	5	2.4	6.6	91	Sand	6.08	1.79	0.11	30.4	2.37	0.51	859	2442	456	1935	1172	1174	372	6.45	12.8	0.09	1.60	2.33	0.29
37	3	4.4	4.6	91	Sand	6.54	1.54	0.1	25.1	3.27	1.52	1357	2633	641	1785	977	397	350	7.63	47.3	0.24	2.05	2.70	0.13
38	4	4.4	10.6	85	Loamy sand	6.42	1.7	0.09	29.5	3.6	1.15	1795	4030	263	2205	1239	459	341	11.8	20.3	0.52	4.80	4.83	0.38
39	4	4.4	10.6	85	Loamy sand	6.27	2.16	0.11	23.9	3.49	0.60	2028	3867	1171	1844	1221	445	378	9.51	19.7	0.15	1.69	4.19	0.13
40	4	4.4	10.6	85	Loamy sand	6.26	3.08	0.11	25.3	3.99	0.58	2839	3038	1819	1630	1201	469	341	10.8	12.9	0.31	2.31	3.80	0.37

^a Samples were named 1-40 by total cumulative concentrations of Cr, Cu and As in ascending order

^b Four samples were obtained from each sampling location (see Figure 1 for details)

^c Clay, silt, sand and texture classification were performed on composite sample at each sampling location

^d Cu_{bio}=bioavailable Cu as determined by whole-cell bacterial bioreporter assay, tot=total extracted by aqua regia digestion and we= water-extractable
 concentrations

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Table 2: Common soil solid phases identified by CISED sequential extraction along the contamination gradient in Fredensborg, Denmark





^aReferences which informed the grouping into common soil phases