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## **Linking oral bioaccessibility and solid phase distribution of potentially toxic elements in extractive waste and soil from an abandoned mine site: Case study in Campello Monti, NW Italy**

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 Mining activities have led to the introduction of high levels of potentially toxic elements (PTE)  
3 concentrations in soils. This has attracted governmental and public attention due to their non-  
4 biodegradable nature and hazards posed to human health and the environment. However, total  
5 concentrations of PTE are poor indicators of actual risk hazard to human health and can lead to  
6 overestimation of risk. In this study, oral bioaccessibility, the fraction available for absorption via  
7 oral ingestion, was used to refine human health risk assessment at an abandoned mine site from  
8 Campello Monti, north-west Italy. The solid phase distribution was performed to characterise the  
9 distribution and the behaviour of PTE within the extractive waste streams and impacted soil nearby.  
10 Mineralogical information was obtained from micro-XRF and SEM analysis used to identify  
11 elemental distribution maps. The results showed that the total concentrations of PTE were high, up  
12 to 7400 mg/kg for Ni due to the presence of parent material, however, only 11% was bioaccessible.  
13 Detailed analysis of the bioaccessible fraction (BAF) showed that As, Cu and Ni varied from 7 to  
14 22%, 14 to 47%, 5 to 21%, respectively. The variation can be attributed to the difference in pH,  
15 organic matter content and mineralogical composition of the samples. The non-specific sequential  
16 extraction also showed that the non-mobile forms of the PTE were associated with the clay and Fe  
17 oxide components of the environmental matrices. The present study demonstrates how  
18 bioaccessibility, solid phase distribution and mineralogical analysis can help decision making and  
19 inform the risk assessment of abandoned mine sites.

20 **Keywords:** abandoned mine site, oral bioaccessibility, potentially toxic elements (PTE), risk  
21 assessment, solid phase distribution.

22

## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Since the onset of industrial revolution, mining and smelting activities have been at forefront of  
25 economic development of many countries. Mining activities generate employment, while also

26 producing a wide variety of minerals that can have countless uses in various contexts (Ono et al.,  
27 2016 ; Dino et al., 2018a). Yet, mining and dressing activities have resulted in the generation of  
28 large quantities of waste and degraded soils. After the closure of mining activities, these waste  
29 dumps were abandoned, resulting in poor management and maintenance. Further to this, the  
30 degraded soils, waste dumps and tailings are often geotechnically unstable and sources of  
31 contamination by PTE (Gál et al., 2007). As PTE tend to persist in the environment, these extractive  
32 waste dumps and soils often become a matter of concern for human health (Lim et al., 2009).

33 There is growing awareness and concern about the harmful effects of elevated  
34 concentrations of toxic elements on human health (Golia et al., 2008). However, there is a growing  
35 evidence that an elevated concentration of elements may not be indicative of the actual damaging  
36 effects. Consequently, it has been proposed that bioavailable concentrations should be used to  
37 inform human health risk assessment (HHRA). Bioavailable concentration is the concentration of  
38 the contaminants reaching to the systemic circulation and thereby the remainder of the body  
39 (Oomen, 2000). However, measuring bioavailability in-vivo is a difficult and lengthy procedure  
40 (Maddaloni et al., 1998). Therefore, a number of in-vitro bioaccessibility methods have been  
41 developed to measure the oral bioaccessibility of a contaminant (Cox et al., 2013). The oral  
42 bioaccessible fraction is defined as the fraction that, after ingestion, may be mobilized into the gut  
43 fluids (chyme). Bioaccessible concentration is greater than or equal to the bioavailable  
44 concentration and can be used as a conservative measure to the bioavailability for HHRA  
45 (Paustenbach, 2000).

46 The present research used the unified BARGE method (UBM) developed by the  
47 Bioaccessibility Research Group of Europe (BARGE) for measuring the oral bioaccessibility of  
48 contaminants in extractive waste and soils from abandoned mining sites. The UBM method has  
49 been validated against in vivo studies for As, Cd and Pb (Denys et al., 2012) and has been used to  
50 provide guidance data on a wider range of chemical elements to facilitate inter-laboratory trials  
51 (Hamilton et al., 2015). Therefore, many studies have used the UBM method to assess

52 contamination due to PTE in mining affected areas. For example, Pelfrêne et al., (2012) quantified  
53 bioaccessible concentrations of Cd, Pb and Zn as 78%, 32%, and 58% respectively on smelter-  
54 contaminated agricultural soils in a coal mining area of northern France. Foulkes et al., (2017)  
55 applied the UBM method to measure bioaccessibility of Pb, Th, and U on solid wastes and soils  
56 from an abandoned uranium mine site in South West England. However, in Italy there is little to no  
57 attention towards inclusion of oral bioaccessibility in studies reporting HHRA (Kumpiene et al.,  
58 2017). Consequently, the present study provides evidence towards evaluating bioaccessibility to  
59 support the HHRA procedures for two abandoned mine sites in Italy.

60 Potentially toxic elements (PTE) are associated with the various components in soils and the  
61 mineral phases of solid wastes in different ways, and these associations can lead to variation in both  
62 mobility and availability (Cipullo et al., 2018). A wide range of soil properties can thus lead to  
63 variation in bioaccessibility of PTE such as mineralogy, soil pH, organic matter content, presence of  
64 clay, iron oxides alumino-silicates in matrix as reported in other studies (Ruby et al., 1999;  
65 Peijnenburg and Jager, 2003; Martin and Ruby, 2004; Basta et al., 2005; Palumbo-Roe and Klinck,  
66 2007; Denys et al., 2009; Reis et al., 2014; Palumbo-Roe et al. 2015). Therefore, in order to assess  
67 bioaccessibility of PTE, it becomes imperative to study geochemical data and encapsulation of PTE  
68 in mineral phases.

69 Considering the challenges linked with evaluating bioaccessibility and understanding factors  
70 influencing bioaccessibility, the present study focuses on extractive waste (EW) and soils from the  
71 abandoned mine site at Campello Monti, which was important for Ni exploitation from mafic  
72 formations in north-west Italy. Specifically in this study, the total concentration, bioaccessible  
73 fraction and the distribution of PTE were determined using non-specific sequential extraction and  
74 chemometric analysis along with mineralogical analysis of the extractive waste and soil samples.

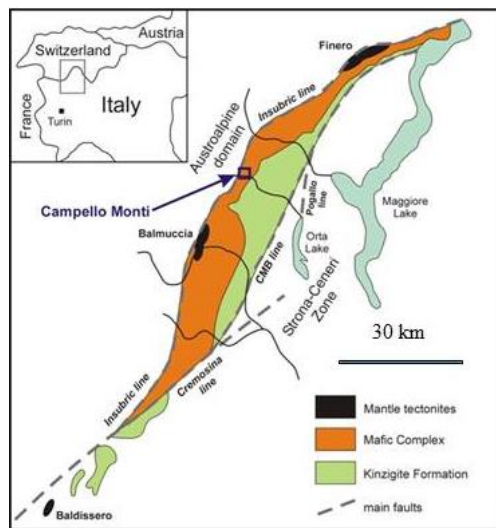
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## 76 **2. Methodology**

### 77 **2.1 Site description**

78 Campello Monti is a small settlement of Valstrona village in the northern sector of Piemonte, Italy.  
 79 Geologically, the site (**Figure 1**) is present in the ultramafic layers of mafic complex of Ivrea  
 80 Verbano Zone. Ivera- Verbano zone is a tectonic unit which has preserved the transition from  
 81 amphibolite to granulite facies (Redler et al.,2012). The mafic formation consists of a sequence of  
 82 cumulate peridotites, pyroxenites, gabbros and anorthosites, together with a large, relatively  
 83 homogeneous body of gabbro-norite, grading upwards into gabbro-diorite and diorite. Campello  
 84 Monti area consists of lherzolites, in places with titanolivin, in large and smaller masses.

85 The rocks in this area are rich in nickel, copper and cobalt. The area was exploited for nickel  
 86 production from Fe-Ni-Cu-Co magmatic sulphide deposits occurring from the Sesia to Strona  
 87 valleys from 19th Century (1865) until 1940s. The ore was extracted using underground mining  
 88 activities which left waste rocks near the mine tunnels (Mehta et al., 2018).

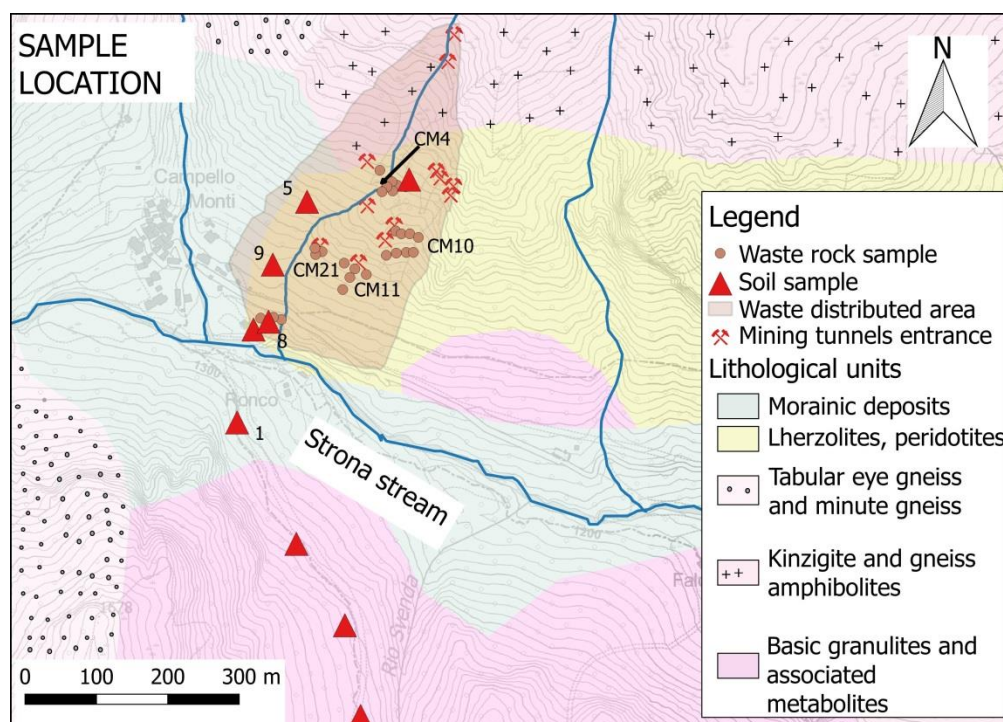


89  
 90 Figure 1. Geological setting of Campello Monti (modified from Fiorentini and Beresford, 2008).

91 **2.2 Sample collection and preparation**

92 Site investigation was performed to collect information about waste typology and location, in order  
 93 to ensure that the facilities are suitable for characterisation and sampling. The sampling site at  
 94 Campello Monti is composed of different waste rock dumps. These waste rock dumps were placed  
 95 on the north of the Strona stream and were formed by the dumping in vertical sequence of non-

96 valuable mineralisations and non-mineralised rocks. A systematic sampling strategy was adopted in  
 97 order to obtain representative data of the whole waste facility. Waste rock material was sampled  
 98 using hand shovel and a hammer (where necessary). In total 26 samples of waste rock were  
 99 collected at the site in July 2016 (Error! Reference source not found.). Each sample (8-10 kg) was  
 100 collected in an area of 1.5 m<sup>2</sup>, after removing organic residues. Additionally, a total of 9 soil  
 101 samples were taken near the waste rock dumps to the north and south of the Strona stream during  
 102 the sampling campaigns in June 2016 and March 2017. In order to obtain representative soil  
 103 samples, the samples taken were formed by mixing 4 subsamples taken at the vertices of a 1m x 1m  
 104 square. All samples were taken at depth of 0-15 cm. The extractive waste samples and soil samples  
 105 were dried in an oven for a period of 24 h to remove any moisture. Samples were then sieved  
 106 through 2 mm sieves and quartered to obtain a representative sample size of 10 g. The pH was  
 107 measured in a 1: 2.5 suspension of each sample in water (ISO 10390, 2005).



108  
 109 Figure 2. Waste rock and soil sample locations at Campello Monti. Sample numbers are shown for  
 110 the samples analyzed for bioaccessibility.

111 **2.3 Total concentrations measurement**

112 The samples were analyzed for their concentrations of chemical elements on the 2 mm fraction  
113 using the method described in U.S. EPA, 3051 A, (2007) and U.S. EPA, 6010 C, (2007). Briefly,  
114 0.5 g of sample was digested using 3 ml concentrated HNO<sub>3</sub> and concentrated HCl (1:3). The  
115 concentrations of As, Be, Cd, Co, Cr (total), Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, V and Zn were measured using an  
116 Ametek Spectro Genesis Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometer (ICP-OES).  
117 The instrument was provided with an Ametek monochromator, a cyclonic spray chamber and a  
118 Teflon Mira Mist nebulizer. The instrumental conditions included a plasma power of 1.3 kW,  
119 sample aspiration rate of 30 rpm, argon nebulizer flow of 1 l/min, argon auxiliary flow of 1 l/min  
120 and argon plasma flow of 12 l/min. All the reagents used were of analytical grade. All metal  
121 solutions were prepared from concentrated stock solutions (Sigma Aldrich). High-purity water  
122 (HPW) produced with a Millipore Milli-Q Academic system was used throughout the analytical  
123 process. All samples were analyzed in duplicate.

124

#### 125 **2.4 Bioaccessibility analysis (Unified BARGE method)**

126 Following the analysis on total concentration of elements for the fraction under 2 mm, samples were  
127 selected for measurement of bioaccessible concentrations. Waste rock samples and soil samples  
128 were selected to ensure representation of each dump and lithology in the final selected samples. For  
129 tailings, the two samples closest to the ground surface were measured for bioaccessible  
130 concentrations. The total metal concentrations were measured on (<250 µm fraction of these  
131 samples) using aqua regia extractions as described in section 2.3. Following the analysis on total  
132 concentration of PTE on the <2 mm fraction, samples of waste rock, soil and tailings were selected  
133 for measurement of bioaccessible concentrations, ensuring good representation of each matrix. For  
134 tailings, the two samples at the nearest depth from the ground were measured for bioaccessible  
135 concentrations. Each sample was sieved to <250 µm and total concentrations of PTE were measured  
136 using aqua regia extractions as explained in section 2.3. The Unified BARGE method (UBM) was  
137 also followed for measuring bioaccessible concentrations on the <250 µm fraction (BARGE 2010,

138 Denys et al., 2012). To ensure quality control of the extraction process each batch of UBM  
139 extractions (n=10) included one procedural blank, six unknowns, one duplicate of two unknown  
140 samples and one soil reference material (BGS102) (BARGE 2010; Hamilton et al., 2015). **Table 1**  
141 shows the comparison of the certified and measured values of the BGS 102 extractions. As pH  
142 plays an important role in controlling the leaching of the PTE from the matrix and overall extraction  
143 process, the pH meter was calibrated before extraction of every batch of samples.

144 Unified BARGE method extractions were carried out using simulated digestive fluids  
145 including saliva, gastric fluid, bile and duodenal fluid, which were prepared from inorganic and  
146 organic reagents and enzymes one day prior to sample extractions. These fluids were used to  
147 represent three main compartments of human digestive system: mouth, stomach and small intestine.  
148 The extraction consists of two phases, gastric and gastro-intestinal for which  $0.4 \pm 0.0005$  g of  
149 sample was weighed in replicate in polycarbonate tubes (1 replicate for the gastric phase and 1  
150 replicate for the gastro-intestinal phase). For gastric phase extractions, saliva and gastric fluids were  
151 added to each tube (pH adjusted to  $1.2 \pm 0.05$ ), followed by 1 h of end-over-end rotation. The  
152 rotator was placed in oven at constant temperature of 37 °C. One of the replicates was extracted  
153 through centrifugation at 4500 g for 15 min (G phase), while the second replicate was retained for  
154 gastro-intestinal phase (GI phase) extraction. Simulated duodenal and bile fluids were added to this  
155 tube (pH adjusted to  $6.3 \pm 0.5$ ) and rotated end-over-end for 4 hours at 37 °C. This was followed by  
156 an identical centrifugation procedure to obtain GI phase extracts. For both extractions, 10 ml of the  
157 supernatant was collected and preserved with 0.2 ml concentrated (15.9 M) HNO<sub>3</sub>. Determination  
158 of PTE was performed by ICP-MS (Perkin-Elmer NexION 350X), while using internal standard  
159 (Rh). The bioaccessible fraction (BAF) for both the phases was calculated using Equation 1. To  
160 apply a conservative approach for human health risk assessment, BAF is reported as the percentage  
161 of highest bioaccessible concentration from gastric or gastro-intestinal phase.

162



163 
$$\text{BAF} = \frac{\text{Concentration of bioaccessible element } \left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{kg}}\right)}{\text{Total concentration of element } \left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{kg}}\right)} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

164

## 165 **2.5 Chemometric identification of substrates and element distribution (CISED)**

166 A non-specific sequential nitric acid extraction (Cave et al., 2004) was carried out on selected  
167 samples (n=5) (n=2 waste rocks, n=3 soil). Briefly, 2 g of sample was sequentially extracted with  
168 10 ml of deionized water and solution of increasing concentration of HNO<sub>3</sub> ranging from 0.01 M to  
169 5.0 M. A total of 7 solutions were used twice (0.0 M, 0.01 M, 0.05 M, 0.1 M, 0.5 M, 1.0 M and 5.0  
170 M), with progressive addition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (0.25, 0.50, 0.75, and 1 ml) in the last 4 extracting solutions  
171 to facilitate the precipitation of oxides. Each solution was mixed for 10 min in an end-over-end  
172 shaker and centrifuged (4350 g for 5 min) to separate solid and liquid fractions. The solid fraction  
173 was then resuspended in the following extracting solution. The recovered liquid fraction was  
174 filtered with a 0.45 µm 25 mm nylon syringe filter and diluted 4 times with deionized water prior to  
175 analysis. Extracts were spiked with internal standards (Sc, Ge, Rh, and Bi) and the following  
176 elements Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Na, S, Si, P, Al, As, Ba, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Li, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se,  
177 Sr, V, Zn were measured using ICP-MS (NexION® 350D ICP-MS, Perkin Elmer). For data quality  
178 control, acid blanks (1% nitric acid) and certified reference material (BGS102) were included in the  
179 extraction procedure.

180

## 181 **2.6 Modelling**

182 Solid phase distribution of elements in soil and waste rock was calculated with MatLab (MatLab®  
183 Version R2015a) using a self-modelling mixture resolution algorithm (SMMR) developed by Cave  
184 et al. (2004). This modelling algorithm was used to identify (1) soil components with similar  
185 physical-chemical properties, (2) chemical composition data (single elements in each soil  
186 component expressed as percentage), and (3) amount of elements in each component (expressed in  
187 mg/kg). The algorithm was run separately for waste rock and soil producing 7 and 8 distinct sets of

188 physico-chemical phases for each of these respective runs. In order to categorise these physio-  
189 chemical phases into common distinct soil phases hierarchical clustering was used in combination  
190 with geochemical profile interpretations. Briefly, heatmaps from hierarchical clustering were  
191 produced with a mean-centered and scaled matrix of profile and composition data using the Ward's  
192 method in R (v.3.4.1) and the results obtained were plotted with ggplot2, reshape2, grid and  
193 ggdendro packages (Wickham,2007; Wickham, 2009; Chang et al. 2013).

194

## 195 **2.7 Mineralogical analysis**

196 The mineralogical analysis of waste rock samples was performed in a previous study (Rossetti et  
197 al., 2017). Consequently, only the soil sample was analyzed for mineral phases in present study.  
198 Micro-X-ray fluorescence (micro-XRF) was used to identify crystalline phases in the bulk soil  
199 sample (sample code - 8). Element X-ray maps of soil sample were acquired using a micro-XRF  
200 Eagle III-XPL spectrometer equipped with an EDS Si(Li) detector and with an EdaxVision32  
201 micro-analytical system. The operating conditions were 2.5  $\mu$ s counting time, 10 kV accelerating  
202 voltage and a probe current of 20  $\mu$ A. The spatial resolution was about 65  $\mu$ m in both x and y  
203 directions. The elemental maps were processed to determine mineral phases in soil using software  
204 program Petromod (Cossio et al., 2002). The micromorphology and associated chemical analysis of  
205 solid phases in soil were analyzed with a Cambridge Stereoscan 360 scanning electron microscope  
206 (SEM) equipped with an energy-dispersive spectrometry (EDS) Energy 200 system and a Pentafet  
207 detector (Oxford Instruments). 10 kV accelerating voltage and 50 s counting time were used for  
208 analysis of the minerals. SEM-EDS quantitative data (spot size 2  $\mu$ m) were acquired and processed  
209 using the Microanalysis Suite Issue 12, INCA Suite version 4.01; natural mineral standards were  
210 used to calibrate the raw data; the  $\phi\rho Z$  correction (Pouchou & Pichoir, 1988) was applied. Absolute  
211 error is 1 $\delta$  for all calculated oxides.

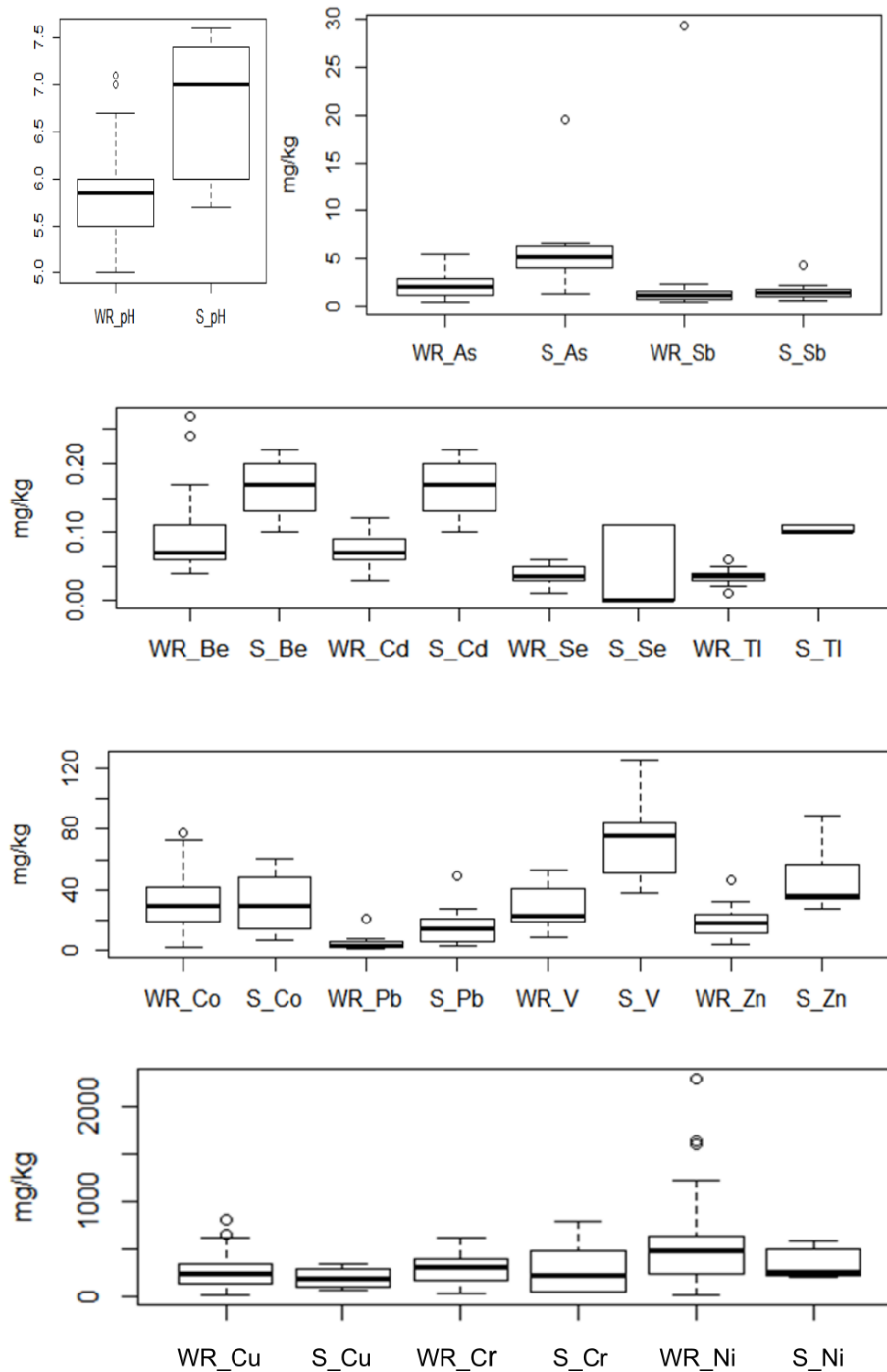
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## 213 **3. Results**

### 214 **3.1 Total concentrations of PTE**

215 The pH and total concentrations of PTE in waste rock samples (no. of samples, n = 26) and soil  
216 samples (no. of samples, n = 9) are summarized in **Figure 3**. The value of pH varied from 5.0 to 7.1  
217 with mean value of 5.9. The results showed that concentrations of Ni varied from 15.2 mg/kg to  
218 2294 mg/kg with an average concentration of 640 mg/kg. The presence of slightly acidic samples  
219 and high concentrations of Ni can be attributed to the presence of ultramafic lithology rich in  
220 olivine and pyroxene in Campello Monti. The concentration of Cr varied from 39 mg/kg to 620  
221 mg/kg with an average concentration of 299 mg/kg, while concentrations of Co ranged from 2.4  
222 mg/kg to 77.8 mg/kg with a mean concentration of 32.1 mg/kg. The presence of Cr and Co is due to  
223 the fact that Ni in earth's crust exhibits chalcophile and lithophile characteristics and is found to be  
224 associated with Cr and Co. Copper was found to vary from 19 mg/kg to 806 mg/kg with mean  
225 concentration of 284 mg/kg. The presence of Cu suggests sulphide rich minerals (e.g. pyrite and  
226 chalcopyrite) that host both Ni and Cu, may be present at the site. It should be noted that  
227 concentrations of (Ni, Cr, Co and Cu in waste rocks are higher than Italian permissible limits for  
228 soils for recreational and habitation areas (Ministero dell'ambiente e della tutela del territorio, 2006,  
229 decree no. 152/06). Analysis on soil samples showed that pH values ranged from 5.7 to 7.6 with  
230 average value of 7.0. The samples were found to be in near neutral conditions and less acidic than  
231 waste rocks samples. Total Ni, Cr and Cu ranged from 212 to 594 mg/kg, 46 to 795 mg/kg and 66  
232 to 345 mg/kg respectively. Mean Ni, Cr, Cu concentrations, were 347, 296 and 200 mg/kg, an order  
233 of magnitude above the Italian permissible limits for soils for recreational and habitation areas.  
234 Concentrations of V were found to vary from 38 mg/kg to 126 mg/kg with a mean concentration of  
235 72 mg/kg. Concentrations of other elements were found to be within permissible limits. The  
236 presence of PTE in soil can be explained on the basis of lithogenic origin of soils and possible  
237 transport of PTE from extractive waste dumps.

238



239

240 Figure 3. Box and Whisker plots showing pH and concentration of PTE in mg/kg in waste rock  
 241 (n=26) and soil samples (n=9) on <2 mm size fractions at Campello Monti. pH and elements on X-  
 242 axis are provided with sample identification code WR for waste rocks and S for soil samples.  
 243

### 244 3.2 Bioaccessible concentrations

245 The total and bioaccessible concentrations of As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb and V in waste rock and  
 246 soil samples at Campello Monti are presented in **Table 2**. Total concentrations for the <250 µm size

247 fraction were considerably higher than total concentrations for size fractions under 2 mm (reported  
248 in Figure 3) potentially due to an increase in surface area and thus higher the absorption of PTE to  
249 particles (Yao et al., 2015). The bioaccessible concentrations were measured both for  
250 gastrointestinal and gastric phases. It was observed that for all PTE except As, metals were more  
251 bioaccessible in the gastric phase than the gastrointestinal phase. Bioaccessible fraction (BAF) was  
252 calculated as the ratio of the higher value of bioaccessible concentration (either gastric or  
253 gastrointestinal) to total concentration. The highest bioaccessibility value is used to ensure  
254 conservative values are used during risk assessment.

255 Total concentrations of As in waste rock and soil samples varied from 5.6 to 11.1 mg/kg and  
256 from 8.8 to 39.3 mg/kg respectively. The bioaccessible concentrations in gastrointestinal phase in  
257 waste rock and soil samples varied from 0.6 to 1 mg/kg and from 1.8 to 2.7 mg/kg respectively.  
258 Mean values of BAF were found to be 10.5% for waste rock samples and 12.8% for soil samples.  
259 Waste rock and soil samples showed mean total concentrations of Cd as 1.3 mg/kg and 0.5 mg/kg.  
260 The bioaccessible fraction were found to be varying from 3% to 19% and from 20% to 85%, for  
261 waste rocks and soil, respectively.

262 Total concentrations of Co in waste rock and soil samples varied from 165 to 266 mg/kg and  
263 from 45 to 175 mg/kg respectively. The bioaccessible concentrations in waste rock and soil samples  
264 varied from 27 to 72 mg/kg and from 5 to 53 mg/kg respectively. Mean values of BAF were found  
265 to be 20% for waste rock samples and 26% for soil samples. The results on Co bioaccessibility  
266 showed that although total concentrations of Co were very less in comparison to Cr, the  
267 bioaccessible concentrations were present in the same range as Cr due to higher bioaccessible  
268 fractions of Co in comparison to Cr. Chromium in waste rock and soil samples was found to vary  
269 from 931 to 1569 mg/kg and from 79 to 1643 mg/kg respectively. Mean values of BAF of Cr for  
270 waste rock and soil samples was 1% and 2.75% respectively.

271 Total concentrations of Cu in waste rock and soil samples ranged from 953 to 2,006 mg/kg  
272 and from 85 to 848 mg/kg respectively. The bioaccessible concentrations in waste rock and soil

273 samples varied from 129 to 921 mg/kg and from 27 to 222 mg/kg respectively. Mean values of  
274 BAF were found to be 31% for waste rock samples and 26% for soil samples. Copper results  
275 showed higher bioaccessibility for soil samples compared to waste rocks, indicating a contrasting  
276 behavior with respect to the other PTE analyzed. The results on Cu bioaccessibility showed that  
277 although total concentrations of Cu were not as high as Ni, the bioaccessible concentrations were  
278 almost of the same magnitude as nickel. This can be attributed to the higher BAF values of Cu  
279 when compared with Ni.

280 The samples were found to have very high total concentration of Ni in waste rock samples  
281 with variation from 1181 to 7408 mg/kg. However, the bioaccessible concentrations of Ni in gastric  
282 phase for waste rock samples was relatively low. The bioaccessible concentrations for gastric phase  
283 for Ni varied from 119 to 776 mg/kg for waste rock samples, thus leading to a BAF (ratio of  
284 bioaccessible concentration to total concentration) of about 10%. A similar observation was made  
285 for soil samples. The total concentration and bioaccessible concentration for soil samples ranged  
286 from 59 mg/kg to 1504 mg/kg and from 12 to 280 mg/kg, respectively. Thus leading to BAFs  
287 varying from 5% to 20%.

288 Mean values of total concentration of Pb in waste rock and soil samples were found to be 25  
289 mg/kg and 18 mg/kg respectively. The bioaccessible fraction of Pb in waste rock and soil samples  
290 varied from 42% to 61%. Vanadium was found to vary from 34 mg/kg to 87 mg/kg for waste rock  
291 samples, with mean BAF of 4%. The soil samples recorded mean values of total concentrations and  
292 bioaccessible concentrations as 106 mg/kg and 7 mg/kg respectively.

293 The range of bioaccessibility values reported for the soils were found to be comparable to  
294 those reported elsewhere, eg. Barsby et al. (2012) conducted bioaccessibility analysis in ultramafic  
295 geological setting of Northern Ireland using UBM and reported mean values of gastric phase of  
296 BAF of As, Co, Cr for soils as 14%, 18% and 1% respectively (here 13%, 26% and 3%  
297 respectively). The same study reported mean value of BAF for Cu as 31 % (here 31%), Ni as 12%  
298 (here 13%), V as 9% (here 7%). There was a marked difference in reported values of mean of BAF

299 of Pb as reported by Barsby et al. (2012) 33% (here 54%). However, the value was found to be  
300 more comparable with smelter contaminated agricultural soil of northern France, which showed  
301 BAF of 58% (here 54%) (Pelfrêne et al., 2012).

302

303 Table 1. Results of the UBM digests of certified reference material BGS 102 (n=3).

		As	Cd	Co	Cr	Cu	Ni	Pb	V
Gastric phase	Measured	3.17 ± 0.13	BDL <sup>b</sup>	9.57 ± 0.61	35.76 ± 0.58	8.66 ± 0.69	12.70 ± 0.51	15.35 ± 1.16	6.67 ± 0.40
	Reported <sup>a</sup>	3.90	0.02	9.50	36.70	8.60	13.00	15.30	6.10
Gastro-intestinal phase	Measured	2.54 ± 0.38		5.70 ± 0.75	6.19 ± 1.06	9.86 ± 0.82		2.23 ± 0.46	
	Reported	3.30		5.50	13.10	10.50		3.40	

304 <sup>a</sup>Hamilton et al., 2015; <sup>b</sup>BDL- Below detectable limit.

305

306 Table 2. Total concentrations (mg/kg), bioaccessible concentrations (G and GI) (mg/kg) and BAF (%) measured on <250 µm size fractions for  
307 samples at Campello Monti.

	Sample	As			Cd			Co			Cr		
		GI	total	BAF	G	total	BAF	G	total	BAF	G	total	BAF
Waste rock	CM4	0.6	5.6	11	0.1	0.9	6	27	188	14	25	1398	1
	CM10	1	11.1	9	0.3	1.4	19	69	266	26	20	1569	1
	CM11	0.6	7.5	9	0.2	1.9	13	58	295	20	26	1296	1
	CM21	0.7	6.3	13	0.0	1.1	3	30	165	18	9	931	1
Soil	5	1.8	15.3	11	0.2	1.0	20	53	175	31	54	1643	1
	1	2.9	39.6	7	0.6	0.7	85	23	68	34	3	79	3
	8	1.8	8.8	22	0.1	0.2	47	37	142	26	85	623	1
	9	1.2	9.4	12	0.2	0.2	73	5	45	10	124	701	6
	Sample	Cu			Ni			Pb			V		
		G	total	BAF	G	total	BAF	G	total	BAF	G	total	BAF
Waste rock	CM4	129	953	14	119	1181	10	10	21	49	2	87	2
	CM10	754	1955	39	502	4586	11	12	24	50	2	64	3
	CM11	921	2006	47	776	7408	10	10	25	42	2	34	6
	CM21	320	1367	23	256	2864	9	14	28	50	2	61	3
Soil	5	222	848	26	280	1504	19	8	15	51	9	149	5
	1	27	85	32	12	59	21	29	49	59	5	94	6
	8	135	441	31	73	1455	5	2	4	44	3	79	4
	9	45	256	17	38	763	5	2	4	61	12	101	12



308 G = gastric phase and GI = gastrointestinal phase of UBM. Total represents total concentration of PTE using *aqua regia*. Bioaccessible fraction is  
309 represented as BAF.

### 310 **3.3 Interpretation of sequential extraction data**

311 Identified physico-chemical components for the most representative samples of waste rock (sample  
312 code - CM 10) and soil (sample code - 8) at Campello Monti are highlighted in **Figure 4**. For these  
313 samples, the chemometric data analysis identified 7 components in the waste rock sample and 8  
314 components in the soil sample. Each row represents a component identified by the algorithm, where  
315 the name is composed with the elements that make up >10% of the composition. The columns of  
316 the heatmap are based on model output showing the composition (%) on the left side, and on the  
317 right side the extraction profiles (E1-E14).

318 A combination of geochemistry knowledge, relative solubility of each component in the  
319 extracts, major elemental composition, profile, and clustering obtained from the heat maps were  
320 used to define 6 geochemically distinct clusters: pore-water, exchangeable, Fe oxide 1, clay related,  
321 Fe oxide 2). The heatmap and clustergram for remaining waste rock and soil samples are shown  
322 Supplementary Material (Figure 1).

323

324 Pore-water: In waste rock, the pore-water cluster was principally made up from S (c. 52.2%) and  
325 Mg (c. 24.7%). Other elements extracted were Ca (c. 7.4%) and Ni (c. 8.8%). The presence of  
326 nickel in the pore water component suggests mobility of Ni in the waste rock. The pore-water  
327 cluster of soil was predominantly composed of S (c. 64%) and Na, Mg, K which were all present at  
328 >5 %. These components in this cluster were extracted in water extractions and 0.01 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (E1-  
329 E4). This was the most easily extracted cluster suggesting it could be associated with the residual  
330 salts from the original pore water in the soil.

331

332 Exchangeable: In waste rock, the exchangeable component consisted of Cu (c. 36%), Mg (c. 17 %),  
333 S (c. 12%) and Ca (c. 12%). It was removed by the HNO<sub>3</sub> extracts over the range 0.01 M to 0.05 M.  
334 The presence of a Cu rich component could be due to the presence of Cu bearing ores, such as Cu  
335 Fe sulphides (chalcopyrite, CuFeS<sub>2</sub> and cubanite, CuFe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>) at the site. The exchangeable cluster of

336 soil was principally composed of Al (*c.* 48%), Ca (*c.* 27%), Cu (*c.* 7%) and S (*c.* 5%). It was  
337 removed by the HNO<sub>3</sub> extracts over the range 0.01 M to 0.1 M. High Ca and Al concentrations  
338 combined with removal on addition of relatively weak acid suggests that this cluster was associated  
339 with the presence of K-feldspar, which was found in micro-XRF analysis of soil samples.

340

341 Clay related: This cluster was found only in soil and consisted of 4 different components extracted  
342 (Al-Si, Al-Si1, Al-Si2, Al-S). It was dominated by Al (*c.* 62%) and Si (*c.* 34%) and to a lesser  
343 extent by Fe (*c.* 3%). This component also consisted of highest % of Co, Cr and Cu released during  
344 CISED extractions. These components were extracted with acid concentrations from 0.01 M HNO<sub>3</sub>  
345 to 1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>, however, the majority of elements were extracted in a narrower band of acid  
346 concentrations ranging from 0.1 M HNO<sub>3</sub> to 1 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (E7-E12). The high acid strength for  
347 extraction, predominance of Al, Si and Fe, along with presence of trace elements in this cluster are  
348 likely to be extracted from clay related minerals and from the primary soil forming minerals such as  
349 olivine and pyroxene (Wragg 2005). Clay like minerals such as montmorillonite and kaolinite were  
350 identified during mineralogical analysis of soil sample using micro-XRF.

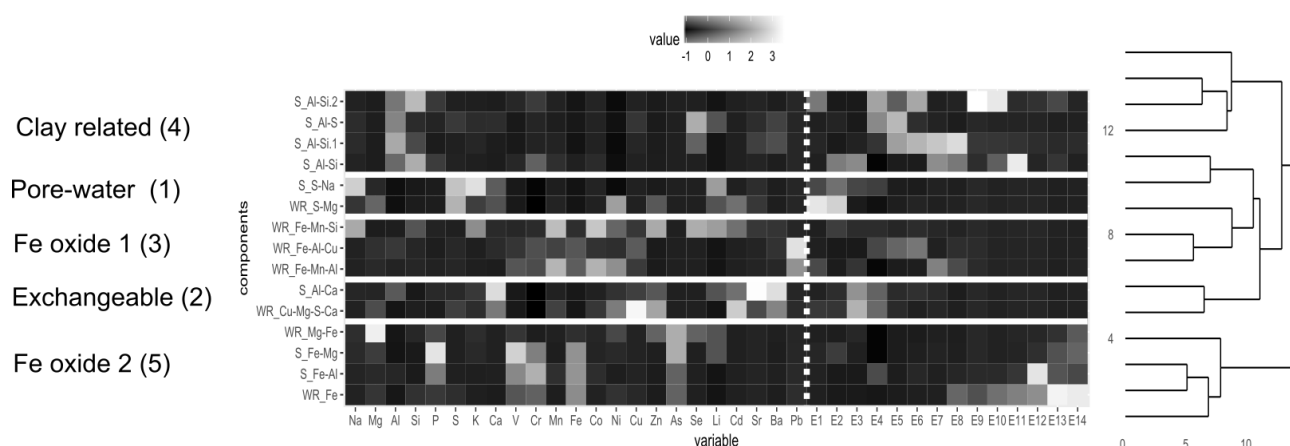
351

352 Fe oxide 1: The Fe oxide cluster was extracted only in waste rock. This cluster consisted of three  
353 different Fe dominated components (Fe-Mn-Si, Fe-Al-Cu, Fe-Mn-Al). These Fe dominated  
354 components were removed by acid concentrations ranging from 0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub> to 0.5 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (E5-  
355 E10). The important elements extracted were Fe (*c.* 39%), Al (*c.* 16%), Mn (*c.* 12%), Cu (*c.* 7%), Ni  
356 (*c.* 6%) and Si (*c.* 6%), Mg (*c.* 5%). The presence of Fe, Cu, Ni rich components can be due to  
357 presence of minerals like Fe Ni sulphide (pentlandite, (Fe,Ni)<sub>9</sub>S<sub>8</sub>) and Cu Fe sulphide (chalcopyrite,  
358 CuFeS<sub>2</sub>), which were found in mineralogy analysis of waste rocks from this site (Rossetti et al.,  
359 2017). The presence of Al and Si in this Fe oxide cluster showed that in waste rock, both these  
360 elements are more closely associated with iron unlike the soil sample, where Al was extracted in  
361 clay related cluster.

362

363 Fe oxide 2: In the waste rock sample, the Fe oxide cluster was principally composed of Fe (c. 65%).  
364 Other elements extracted were Al, Mg, Ni, Si, S with varying concentration from 2.6% to 12%. It  
365 was removed by the HNO<sub>3</sub> extracts over the range 0.5 M to 5 M (E9-E14). The presence of Fe,S  
366 rich components could be due to presence of Fe sulphide mineral (pyrrhotite, Fe<sub>(1-x)</sub>S) observed in  
367 microscopic images of waste rock from this site (Rossetti et al., 2017). The dominance of Fe and  
368 high acid extracts required to extract these components could be due to presence of hematite  
369 occurring naturally in the site (Rossetti et al., 2017). The presence of two different Fe containing  
370 components for waste rock suggests the presence of different Fe oxide forms such as amorphous  
371 and crystalline, that are being dissolved at different rates (Cave et al. 2004). The Fe oxide cluster in  
372 soil included Fe (c. 75%), Al (c. 11%), Mg (c. 6%) and was removed by extracts containing HNO<sub>3</sub>  
373 over the range 1 M to 5 M and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (E11-E14). The Fe oxide 2 cluster was rich in Fe and Mg  
374 which suggests that the important Fe and Mg bearing minerals of olivine group were mainly  
375 extracted at very high acid concentrations. The cluster was also found to have concentrations of As,  
376 Cr and Ni.

377

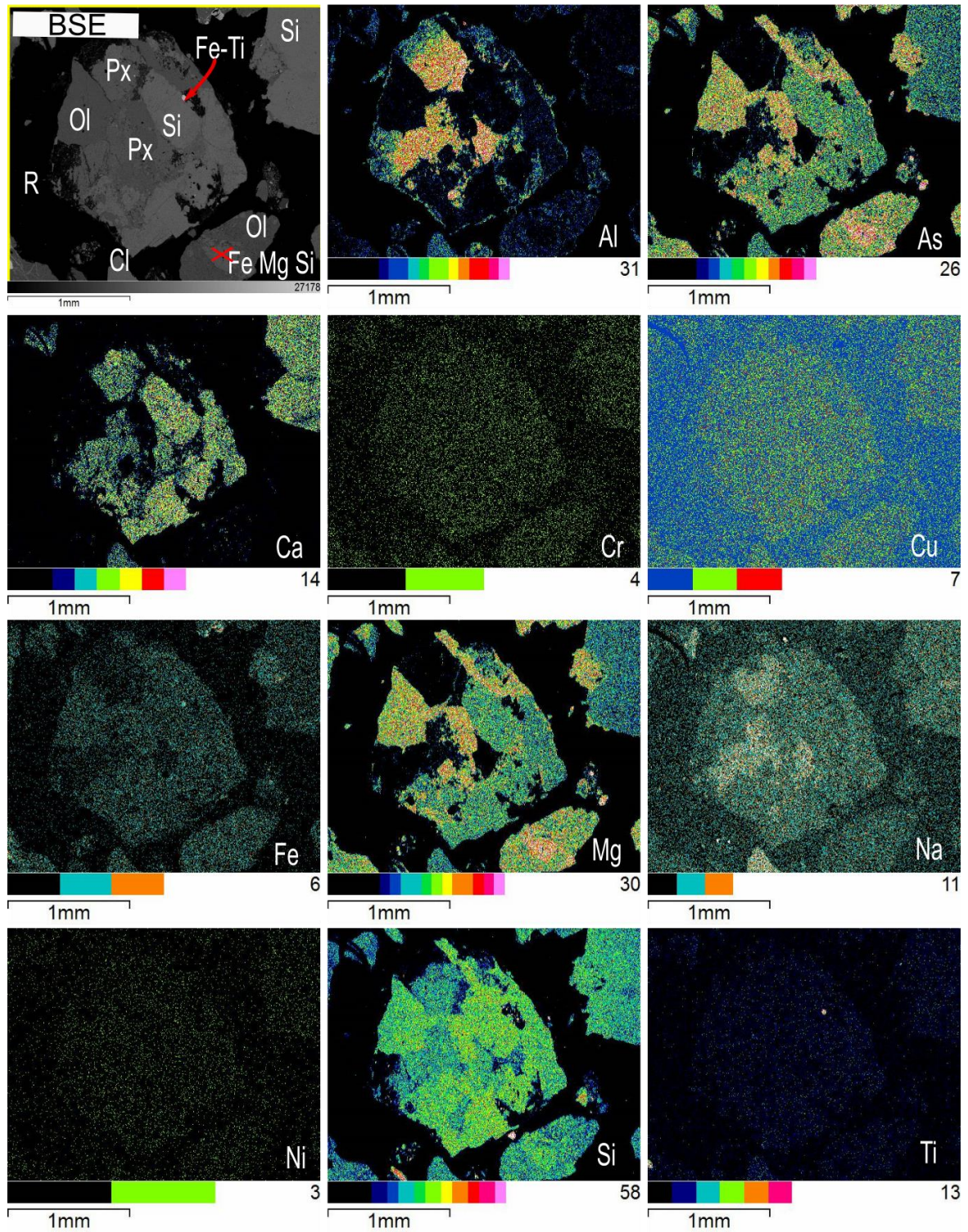


378 Figure 4. Heatmap and clustergram for CISED extracted waste rock and soil samples of Campello  
379 Monti (CM 10, and soil sample code - 8). The dendrogram on the right hand side shows how  
380 components link together. Elemental composition data is on the left-hand side separated with a  
381 dashed vertical white line from the extraction number data (E1–14) on the right. The horizontal  
382 white lines divide the map into clusters. High concentrations are depicted by white/light grey and  
383 low concentrations by dark grey/black. Component names comprise a sample identification code  
384 (WR and S) followed by the principal elements recorded for each component.

### 385 **3.4 Mineralogical analysis**

386 Semi quantitative analysis using micro-XRF showed that the dominant minerals present in soil  
387 (sample code - 8) were clay related minerals (kaolinite and montmorillonite), Fe Al (Mg) silicates,  
388 olivine, plagioclase and pyroxene. The secondary minerals determined during the analysis were Fe  
389 oxides, K-feldspar, Mn phases and sulphides. The results from SEM analysis (**Figure 5**) showed  
390 that As, Cr, Cu and Ni were locked within mineral grains. Arsenic was present in the minerals that  
391 did not contain Al. One of the reason could be that in primary rock forming silicate minerals, As  
392 can be incorporated in minerals through replacement of Al. It was also observed that As was found  
393 to be occurring in the mineral phases rich in Fe-Mg, showing strong association of As with Fe-Mg  
394 in the soil. This was also recorded in CISED analysis of soil sample where As was extracted in very  
395 high percentage in Fe-Mg component. Chromium, Cu and Ni were found to be associated with both  
396 Al rich and Fe-Mg silicate minerals.

397



398

399 Figure 5. Detail of elemental distribution and composition of soil (sample code 8) - Back scattered  
 400 electron (BSE) image showing Cl : Clay related mineral (montmorillonite), FeMgSi : Fe Mg  
 401 silicates, Fe-Ti : Fe-Ti oxide, Ol : Olivine, Px : Pyroxene, R : resin, Si : Ca Mg Fe silicates and  
 402 corresponding X-ray maps (SEM) for Al, As, Ca, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, Na, Ni, Si and Ti.  
 403

404

405

### 406 **3.5 Relation of mineralogy and CISED to bioaccessibility**

407 The PTE extracted and their bioaccessible fraction are plotted in **Figure 6**. The waste rock sample  
408 contained 11 mg/kg of As and only 1 mg/kg of this was bioaccessible. The total concentration of As  
409 extracted by CISED was also 1 mg/kg, indicating that As extracted in both the methods was similar.  
410 80% of total CISED extracted As was associated with the Fe oxide 2 cluster. The Campello Monti  
411 site is rich in Fe bearing minerals suggesting that dissolution of Fe oxides/oxyhydroxides took place  
412 leading to As in extracted solutions. 9 mg/kg of As was present in the soil sample, while 1.8 mg/kg  
413 of this was bioaccessible and 1.2 mg/kg was extracted by CISED, suggesting that As could be  
414 present in mineral phases which were not dissolved through CISED but were present in the  
415 gastrointestinal phase of bioaccessibility extractions. It was observed through SEM analysis that As  
416 was locked in mineral phases of soil sample. This could be due to the presence of organic reagents,  
417 body temperature conditions and/or the longer reaction time for UBM solutions. In fact, Yunmei et  
418 al. (2004) found that during dissolution of Fe-As-S rich mineral assemblages the concentration of  
419 As in solution tends to increase with increase in temperature and time.

420 The total concentration of Cu in waste rock was 1955 mg/kg while only 650 mg/kg of Cu  
421 (35%) was extracted by CISED extractions. Similar observations were made for Cu present in soil  
422 where 33% of Cu was removed in CISED extractions with total concentration and total CISED  
423 extracted concentrations of 441 mg/kg and 135 mg/kg, respectively.

424 The bioaccessible concentration of Cu in waste rock was 157 mg/kg resulting in higher  
425 bioaccessible Cu concentrations than Cu concentrations recorded during CISED extractions. It  
426 suggests that Cu associated with Fe and S present in Fe oxide 1 cluster, which did not get extracted  
427 in CISED extractions, was extracted in bioaccessibility experiments. However in soil the  
428 bioaccessible concentration was less than the CISED extracted concentration. Bioaccessibility of Cu  
429 in soil was due to exchangeable, Fe oxide 2 and dissolution of clay related clusters, while Cu  
430 present in the Fe oxide 2 component did not contribute to bioaccessible Cu. The differences in

431 bioaccessible Cu concentrations in soil and waste rock could be due to a) the presence of Cu in clay  
432 related minerals rich in metal silicate phases in soil. While in waste rocks Cu was associated with  
433 metal sulphides. It has been found that Cu tends to form stable and relatively inert complex with Si  
434 (Teien et al., 2006), leading to reduction in dissolution, b) the difference in CISED extracted ratio of  
435 concentration of S/Fe. It is worth mentioning that the ratio of total S/Fe for CISED extracted  
436 concentration in waste rock and soil was 12.8% and 7.6% respectively. Studies on dissolution  
437 reactions of Cu has concluded that Cu is more chalcophile than siderophile and tends to dissolve  
438 faster with increase in ratio of S/Fe in iron-sulphur based solutions (Holzheid and Lodders, 2001).

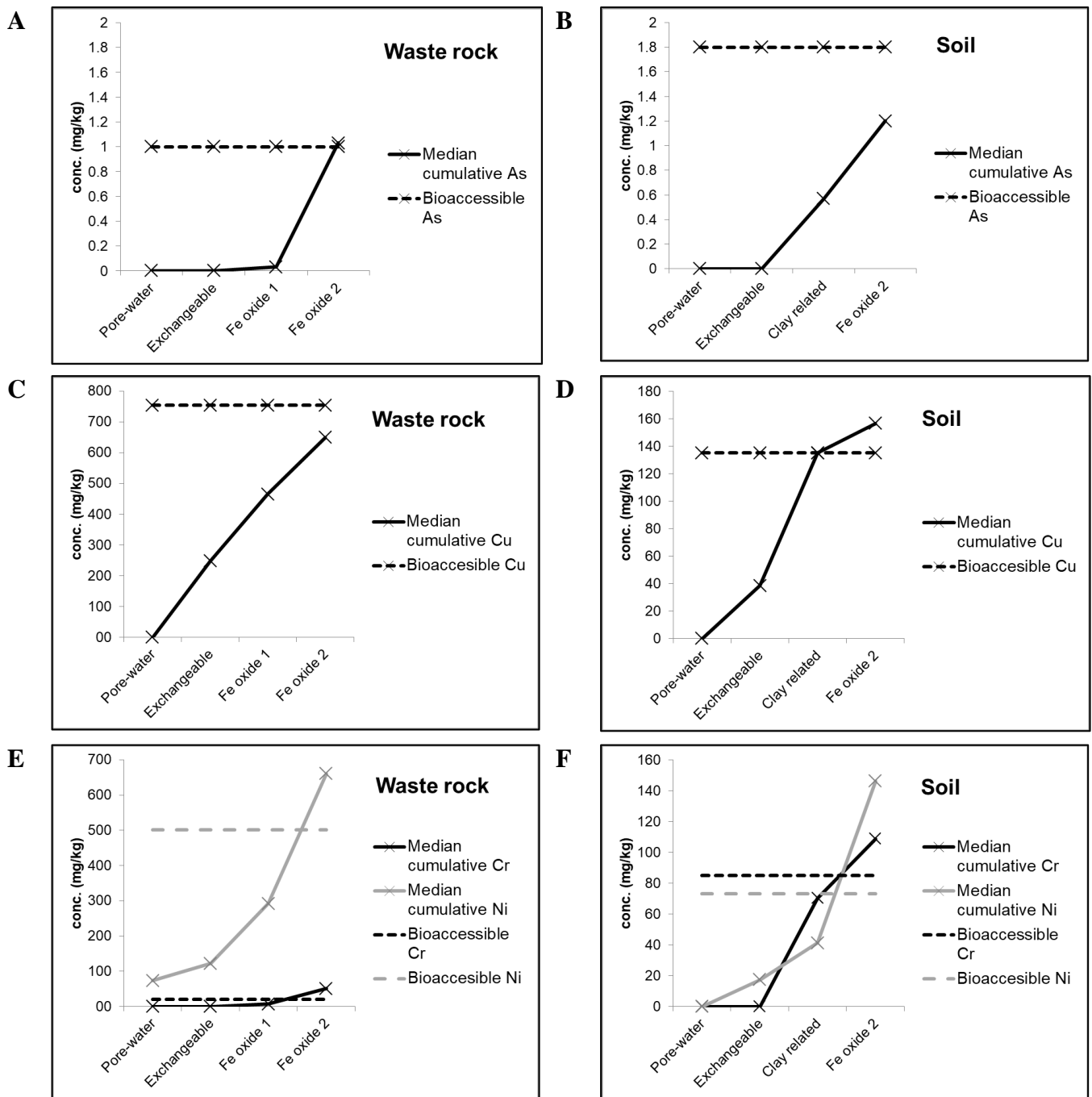
439 In waste rock samples it was observed that the gastric phase bioaccessible concentrations of  
440 Cr and Ni increased with increase in total concentration potentially suggesting that the majority of  
441 bioaccessible Cr and Ni is derived from phases which contribute to the total Cr and Ni in the sample  
442 (Cox et al. 2013). The total concentration of Cr in waste rock was 1,569 mg/kg while 51.2 mg/kg  
443 was extracted by CISED. The total concentration of Ni in waste rock was 4,586 mg/kg, however  
444 only 661 mg/kg was removed during the CISED procedure. The extraction of 4% of total Cr and  
445 14% of total Ni by CISED suggests that the majority of Cr and Ni was present in less reactive  
446 minerals such as olivine and pyroxenes that are resistant to attack by HNO<sub>3</sub>. Pyroxene and olivine  
447 are both known to host Cr and Ni are known to be the primary minerals at the site (Rossetti et al.,  
448 2017). The source of bioaccessible Cr in the waste rock with the partial dissolution of Fe oxide 2 is  
449 shown in Figure 6E. For Ni, it was observed that the same fraction was the source of  
450 bioaccessibility, in addition to dissolution of pore-water, exchangeable and Fe oxide 1 components.  
451 Higher concentrations of Ni than Cr in pore water and exchangeable components suggests easy  
452 dissolution of Ni. It could be because Ni is primarily hosted by olivine in ultramafic rocks.  
453 Dissolution of olivine has been found to be rapid in comparison to most silicate minerals as it has  
454 simpler structure (Pokrovsky and Schott, 2000). Venturelli et al. (2016) while studying weathering  
455 of ultramafic rocks, found that Ni tends to be more mobile than Cr and was found in higher  
456 concentrations in weathered rocks. Another study reporting Cr and Ni mobility concluded that Ni



457 tends to be more readily transferred to secondary minerals (Quantin et al., 2008). Cox et al. (2017)  
458 found that Cr concentrations in basaltic soils were related to highly recalcitrant chrome spinel and  
459 primary iron oxides, while Ni was more widely dispersed within the soils including in more  
460 extractable soil fractions which led to higher BAF measurements being recorded for Ni than Cr.

461 The total concentration of Cr in soil was 623 mg/kg with a bioaccessible Cr concentration of  
462 85 mg/kg. The CISED method extracted 108 mg/kg of Cr. Differences in total bioaccessible and  
463 CISED extracted concentrations suggest the non-mobile nature of Cr in soil. Dissolution of clay  
464 related clusters and partial dissolution of Fe oxide 2 led to the bioaccessible forms of Cr. The total  
465 concentration of Ni in soil was 1,455 mg/kg, however only 73 mg/kg was bioaccessible in gastric  
466 phase extractions. The bioaccessible form of Ni was likely to come predominantly from the  
467 exchangeable and clay related clusters, and to a lesser extent by the Fe oxide 2 cluster, identified by  
468 the CISED extraction (**Figure 6E**). The possible reason could be that the clay related cluster  
469 consisted of weathered minerals, while Fe oxide 2 cluster belongs to recalcitrant primary  
470 mineralization at the site in form of pyrrhotite ( $\text{Fe}_{(1-x)}\text{S}$ ), pentlandite ( $(\text{Fe,Ni})_9\text{S}_8$ ), chalcopyrite  
471 ( $\text{CuFeS}_2$ ) (Rossetti et al., 2017). For As, Cr and Ni it was observed that the BAF was higher for soil  
472 samples compared to waste rock samples. The could be because (a) elements in ultramafic  
473 lithologies are more tightly bound in the mineral lattice of the waste rocks compared to soils, (b)  
474 waste rock samples were more acidic than soil samples, which can cause some PTE to remain  
475 immobile (Ruby et al., 1999), (c) elements with particle binding abilities may become immobilized  
476 in rocks but can be released during weathering. However, the mean value of bioaccessible fractions  
477 in soil for all PTE analyzed was less than 54%. The possible reason could be the embedment of  
478 PTE within mineral grains of soil as observed in SEM analysis.

479



480 Figure 6. Median cumulative concentration of elements in different components of CISED  
 481 compared with bioaccessible concentrations in samples of Campello Monti (mg/kg).  
 482

483

484 **4. Conclusions**

485 This study investigated total concentrations and bioaccessible concentrations of PTE at abandoned  
 486 mine site of Campello Monti. Data from mineralogy analysis, non-specific sequential extraction and  
 487 chemometric analysis on selected samples were also related to the oral bioaccessibility to

488 understand the relationship between total concentrations, bioaccessible concentrations, the  
489 mineralogy and solid phase distribution of these elements. The extractive waste facilities and local  
490 soils around the old mining areas of Campello Monti (NW Italy) are strongly enriched in PTE. This  
491 study provided evidence that total concentrations of PTE were higher in samples with particle size  
492  $<250\ \mu\text{m}$  compared to samples ( $<2\ \text{mm}$ ), due to higher specific surface area in the former case. The  
493 results of total concentrations showed high concentrations of PTE. However, not all of these  
494 elements were bioaccessible. The mean value of bioaccessible fraction (ratio of bioaccessible  
495 concentration to total concentration) was observed to be significantly less than 100 % (11%, 1%,  
496 and 31% for As, Cr, Cu respectively in waste rocks and 31%, 3%, and 26% for soils). The mean  
497 value of BAF of Ni was 10%. Mean values of BAF of V in waste rock and soil were observed to be  
498 4% and 9% respectively. It is clear that the release of PTE and potential risks to human health  
499 strongly relies on pH, soil phases, and solubility of Fe-rich phases and presence of clay like  
500 minerals. These results show that risk assessment of the site on the basis of total concentrations of  
501 PTE alone would significantly overestimate the potential risks to human health at the site. The  
502 research conducted highlights how geological and lithological structures together with rock  
503 weathering and soil formation processes can lead to variations of bioaccessibility. Traditionally,  
504 criteria for the assessment and intervention strategies of contaminated sites have been derived using  
505 concentration-based standards and assuming that 100% of the contaminant is bioavailable.  
506 However, the results outlined in this research clearly indicate that the bioaccessibility evaluations  
507 can lead to more informed site based risk assessment.

508

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518

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