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1	Response of copper concentrations and stable isotope ratios to artificial
2	drainage in a French Retisol
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15	
16 17	Abstract
18	Copper is a redox-sensitive trace element, which can be both, an essential micronutrient and a
19	pollutant. We therefore analyzed Cu concentrations and stable isotope ratios (δ^{65} Cu values) in a
20	drained Retisol to trace the response of Cu to a changing hydrological regime and enhanced clay
21	eluviation. The study soil was artificially drained 16 years before sampling resulting in
22	macroscopically visible pedogenetic changes and is thus a suitable site to investigate the influence

23 of pedogenetic processes on the fate of Cu. Samples were collected from all horizons along a

trench at four distances from the drain: 0.6 m, 1.1 m, 2.1 m and 4.0 m. In the E&Bt horizon, four 24 different soil volumes (ochre, pale brown, white-grey and black) were sampled at all four distances 25 from the drain. Furthermore, we analyzed soil solutions sampled with piezometer, porous cups, 26 and at the drain outlet. The Cu concentrations were lowest in the surface (Ap) horizons (6.5-8.5 27 $\mu g g^{-1}$) and increased with depth to the clay-rich Bt horizons (10.5-12 $\mu g g^{-1}$), because of clay 28 eluviation and associated Cu transport. The δ^{65} Cu values significantly decreased from the surface 29 $(Ap = -0.25 \pm 0.07 \text{ }\%)$ to the deeper horizons, but show no significant variation among the deeper 30 horizons (-0.41±0.28 ‰) and no correlation with the clay content, indicating that clay eluviation 31 does not significantly affect δ^{65} Cu values. The isotopically heavier δ^{65} Cu values in the Ap horizons 32 can probably be explained by agricultural management practises like sludge application and 33 fertilization. Close to the drain (position 0.6 m), Cu concentrations were depleted and the lighter 34 Cu isotope was enriched (-0.91±0.15‰) in the uppermost part of the E&Bt horizon. We attribute 35 36 this to the changing redox conditions, caused to lowering of the water level close to the drain. Copper concentrations in black and ochre volumes were significantly higher than in pale-brown 37 and white-grey volumes. The black volume had significantly higher δ^{65} Cu values than the ochre 38 volume indicating preferential sorption/occlusion of the heavy Cu isotope by Fe oxides. Enhanced 39 clay eluviation in bulk soil close to the drain and in specific soil volumes did not affect δ^{65} Cu 40 values. Cu concentrations (2.1 - 14 μ g L⁻¹) and δ^{65} Cu (0.04 - 0.42‰) values in water samples 41 showed no clear relation with redox changes along the trench perpendicular to the drain. The 42 enrichment of the heavy Cu isotope in the solution samples ($\Delta^{65}Cu_{(soil-solution)} = -0.61\pm0.41$) 43 indicates that reductive Cu mobilization is not the main driver of Cu leaching, because this would 44 preferentially mobilize isotopically light Cu. We conclude that the eluviation of the <2µm fraction, 45 strongly controlled Cu concentrations, but had no discernible effect on δ^{65} Cu values. The changing 46

47 redox conditions did not seem to control Cu concentrations and the stable isotope distribution in 48 most of the bulk soil, soil volumes and soil water. Instead, weathering, complexation of leached 49 Cu, Cu application with fertilizers and sorption processes within the soil controlled its δ^{65} Cu 50 values.

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Keywords: Copper isotopes; Lessivation; Redox conditions; Retisol; Soil volumes; drainage; soil
water.

54

55 1. Introduction

In temporal or permanently water-saturated soils, episodic anoxic redox conditions couple 56 57 back to many soil chemical properties and may cause mobilization and redistribution of redoxsensitive elements like Cu. Copper is of interest because of its nutritional importance as well as 58 pollution risk. Furthermore, the redox behavior of Cu is assumed to play an important role in 59 60 colloidal mobilization of a number of toxic elements like Ag, Cd, Hg and Pb (Abgottspon et al., 2015; Hofacker et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009a). Thus, information about Cu behavior in 61 62 temporarily water-saturated soils and the response of Cu to changes in the soil water regime might 63 help to understand the release mechanisms of redox-sensitive trace elements.

When soils get waterlogged, the redox potential drops and Fe and Mn (oxyhydr)oxides are dissolved releasing associated trace elements (e.g., As, Ba, Co, Cr, V; Abgottspon et al., 2015; Du Laing et al., 2009; Sipos et al., 2011). Changes to anoxic conditions may cause microbial formation of reduced metal (Cu⁺ and Cu[0]) colloids (Weber et al., 2009b). When the redox potential drops sufficiently, microbial sulfate reduction is initialized and the mobility of Cu can be limited by the formation of or co-precipitation with sulfides (Weber et al., 2009b; Borch et al., 2010). However, sulfate reduction may also favor the release of Cu-sulfide colloids into soil solution, resulting in enhanced mobility during several days after flooding (Abgottspon et al., 2015; Hofacker et al., 2013; Weber et al., 2009a). When the conditions in the soil change to oxic, Cu(0) is rapidly oxidized to Cu^{2+} , while Cu^+ -S_{org} or Cu_xS is only slowly oxidized limiting Cu solubility in soil (Fulda et al., 2013b). Balint et al. (2014) confirmed that Cu leaching decreased over four redox cycles, which they attributed to the redistribution of Cu from labile to more recalcitrant chemical fractions in soil.

Several soil processes result in fractionation of Cu isotopes (Fig. 1, Bigalke et al., 2010a; 77 c; 2011; 2013). Sorption of Cu to Al and Fe (oxyhydr)oxides caused an enrichment of heavy Cu 78 on the surface of the Fe (oxyhydr)oxides (Balistrieri et al., 2008; Pokrovsky et al., 2008). Sorption 79 80 to organic ligands shows different fractionation factors depending on the type of organic ligand and pH (Bigalke et al., 2010b; Ryan et al., 2014). Lighter Cu isotopes are preferentially adsorbed 81 on clay mineral surfaces (Li et al., 2015). Redox reactions cause pronounced fractionation, leaving 82 83 the reduced Cu species enriched in lighter Cu isotopes (Ehrlich et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2002). Babcsányi et al. (2014) and Bigalke et al. (2010a; 2011; 2013) found temporally water-saturated 84 85 soil horizons and wetlands to be enriched in heavy Cu isotopes, which they attributed to the loss 86 of light Cu by leaching of reduced colloidal Cu forms. Liu et al. (2014a) studied weathering and soil formation under different climatic conditions and attributed variations in the isotopic 87 composition to sorption of Cu to organic carbon in soils and leaching of heavy Cu, while also 88 different redox conditions in the soils may have caused significant fractionation. In oxic weathered 89 90 soils, leaching of heavy Cu because of complexation and downward transport with humic acids was also described by Bigalke et al. (2011). Fekiacova et al. (2015) recently compiled data from 91 contaminated and uncontaminated soils and found that contaminated soils tended to show heavier 92

 δ^{65} Cu values. In addition, fractionations associated with plant uptake of Cu (Jouvin et al., 2012; Navarrete et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2013; Weinstein et al., 2011) might affect Cu isotope distribution in the organic and surface horizons (Bigalke et al., 2011). The literature reveals that the determination of Cu stable isotope ratios may be a valuable additional tool to mass budgeting approaches for the identification of the processes by which Cu responds to pedogenesis (e. g., clay redistribution and redox changes). To study the interaction of the latter two processes, Retisols are a model soil type.

Retisols are characterized by the eluviation of clay from the surface horizons (E horizon) 100 and transport and accumulation of the clay in deeper horizons (Bt horizon). The subsoil clay 101 accumulation impedes drainage and leads to temporary water saturation in winter. In such soils, 102 the combination of eluviation and redox processes is responsible for the morphological 103 degradation of the soil and the formation of the E&Bt-horizon, characterized by the juxtaposition 104 105 of four soil volumes differing in texture and color. To improve agricultural suitability, many Retisols have been drained (FAO, 2001; IUSS Working Group WRB, 2014). Artificial drainage 106 was demonstrated to induce i) an increasing intensity of the eluviation process in the immediate 107 vicinity of the drains and ii) the transport of dissolved Fe and Mn towards the drain lines where 108 more oxidative conditions favored the precipitation of Fe and Mn oxides in various forms of black 109 concretions and impregnations (Montagne et al., 2008). 110

111 We focus on the Cu isotopic composition of soil samples collected from four soil profiles 112 located at increasing distance from a drain and the evolution of the δ^{65} Cu values of four soil 113 volumes in the E&Bt horizon as response to the drainage. We aim to answer the following 114 questions:

- 115 1) What is the effect of clay eluviation and accumulation in the Bt horizons on Cu 116 concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values?
- 117 2) What is the effect of drainage and associated changes in soil chemistry on Cu 118 concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values?
- 119 3) How do redox and eluviation processes effect Cu concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values of 120 soil solutions?
- 121
- 122 **2.** Materials and methods

123 2.1. Site description and soil sampling

The study site is located on the crest of Yonne plateau in France where Retisols developed on quaternary loamy deposits overlying an Eocene clay layer. The deposit contains 70-90% of silt and 5-20% of clay. The soil was extensively cultivated for at least 200 years. Since 1988, an artificial subsurface drainage was installed at 1 m depth. The drain spacing was 15 m between parallel drainage pipes. The soil water regime fluctuates seasonally with saturation from December or January to February or March depending on the year. The temporary water table possibly reaches to the A horizon and is lowered close to the drain (Fig. 2; Montagne et al., 2008).

Details of the soil sampling procedure are available in Montagne et al. (2008). Briefly, in 2004, i.e. 16 yr after installation of the drainage, soil profiles were sampled from a trench perpendicular to one drain at four different positions with increasing distance to the drain (0.6, 1.1, 2.1 and 4.0 m, respectively). At each position, bulk soil samples were collected from three soil horizons (Ap/E&Bt/Bt). The Ap horizon (0 to ~ 30-35 cm depth) has a silty texture and is enriched with organic matter (7.3 \pm 0.3 g kg⁻¹ organic C; Montagne et al., 2008). The E&Bt horizon (~35 to 60 cm depth), shows pronounced eluviation and redoximorphic features resulting in the

juxtaposition of four volumes differing in texture and color. The four soil volumes include white-138 grey, pale-brown, ochre and black volumes (Montagne et al. 2008). The white-grey and the pale-139 brown volumes are most abundant in the E&Bt-horizon, while in the underlying clay-enriched Bt 140 horizon of yellowish brown color (~55 to ~105 cm depth), the ochre soil volume is by far most 141 abundant. Soil pH increased with depth from 7.6 ± 0.1 in the Ap horizon to 8.0 ± 0.8 in the Bt 142 horizon. In addition to the bulk soil samples, soil monoliths (approximately 27x15x12 cm) were 143 extracted from the E&Bt horizons at all four distances to the drain. In these monoliths, the white-144 grey, pale-brown and ochre soil volumes were manually separated from each other, while black 145 concretions and impregnations were sorted by wet sieving and the help of a magnetic separation 146 technique (Montagne et al., 2008). 147

148 Piezometers were installed at three positions (at 0.7, 1.5 and 4.0 m, respectively, from the drain) in the E&Bt horizons and porous cups (1 x 2 cm-large) were placed in both, the ochre and 149 white-grey volumes. In addition, water was collected at the outlet of the main drain of the plot with 150 151 an automatic collector. Water samples were collected once a week during the years 2005 and 2006, and once every two weeks during the two following years. The Eh, pH and temperature were 152 measured in the field. In the lab, all soil water samples were filtered through a 0.2- μ m cellulose 153 filter, acidified with suprapur HNO₃ and stored at 4°C for Fe analysis. Soil water samples were 154 bulked to obtain a sufficient mass of Cu for isotope analysis. Bulking was done for the three 155 different water types separately (piezometer, porous cup, and drain water samples) for two 156 different time periods (2005/06 and 2007/08) resulting in seven different soil water samples. The 157 water samples were classified according to their Fe concentrations as indicator of redox conditions 158 in the soil. The Fe concentrations under oxic condition (Eh > 300 mV) were always lower than 40 159

160 μ g L⁻¹. Therefore, 40 μ g L⁻¹ Fe was used as a threshold to separate between oxic and anoxic soil 161 solution samples.

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- 163

2.2. Sample preparation and analysis

Approximately, 0.25-0.40 g of soil samples were digested in a mixture of concentrated 164 HNO₃, HF and H₂O₂ (ratio 3:2:1) in PFA beakers (Savillex[@] MN, USA) for 24-36 h on a hotplate 165 at 120°C. The digests were evaporated until dryness on a hot plate at 70°C. To remove excess HF, 166 167 the dried residues were redigested with a mixture of concentrated HCl and HNO₃ for at least 3-4 hours, refluxed several times and evaporated to dryness on a hot plate. Samples were finally 168 dissolved in 7 mol L^{-1} HCl and 0.001% H₂O₂. The water samples (approximately 300 mL) were 169 170 evaporated yielding >300 ng of Cu for isotope analysis. The samples were refluxed in HNO₃ and H_2O_2 (ratio 1:1) and finally dissolved in 7 mol L⁻¹ HCl and 0.001% H_2O_2 for Cu purification. 171

All samples were purified using Poly-Prep Chromatography columns (Bio-Rad, CA, USA) 172 filled with 2 mL of pre-cleaned 100-200 mesh AG MP-1 (Bio-Rad, CA, USA) anion exchange 173 resin following an established method (Bigalke et al., 2010a). For soil samples, the column 174 purification was repeated once to gain matrix-clean Cu fractions (Bigalke et al., 2011; Petit et al., 175 2012). After complete separation, the purified fractions were evaporated to dryness and digested 176 with concentrated HNO₃ and H₂O₂. The samples were evaporated and then dissolved in 2% HNO₃ 177 178 for Cu isotope analysis. All samples were analyzed by ICP-MS (7700x, Agilent, CA, USA) for matrix elements and Cu recovery. Column eluates, in which Cu was not completely recovered 179 (100±6%) or in which matrix elements were present, were discarded and sample purification was 180 repeated. 181

182 All reagents used were of suprapur quality (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Hydrochloric183 and nitric acid were purified by sub-boiling distillation. Sample preparation and chemical

purification were performed in the clean chemistry laboratory at the Institute of Geology, University of Bern. Total procedural Cu blanks averaged 1.9 ± 0.9 ng (n=3) and 3.4 ± 1.5 ng (n=3) for the first and second runs of column purification, respectively. The quality of the method was evaluated by using USGS basalt BCR-2 (Basalt Columbia River 2, USGS, Reston, VA, USA) reference materials. The mean total Cu concentration we determined in BCR-2 was 18.6 ± 0.3 µg g⁻¹ (mean ± SD, n=11) in good agreement with the certified value of 19 ± 2 µg g⁻¹.

190

191 2.3. Isotope analysis

Copper isotope ratios were analyzed by MC-ICP-MS (Thermo-Finnigan Neptune, Thermo 192 Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) at the Leibniz University Hannover, Germany. Instrument was 193 operating in the low mass resolution mode. Samples and standards were diluted to 300 ug L⁻¹ Cu 194 with 2% HNO₃ and introduced in to the MC-ICP-MS by a glass spray chamber (double pass Scott 195 design). Nickel (NIST 986, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, 196 USA) at concentration of 1000 µg L⁻¹ was used for the instrumental mass-bias correction in 197 combination with standard-sample bracketing. Every sample was at least analyzed twice. The 198 average Cu isotope ratio was reported in the δ^{65} Cu notation in % relative to NIST 976. The 199 200 accuracy of the resin purification method was validated by using spiked Cu-free matrix samples. The Cu-free matrix samples were prepared from the matrix fraction derived from the purification 201 of the original samples and spiked with the ERM@-AE633 Cu isotope standards (Institute for 202 Reference Materials and Measurements, Geel, Belgium), which is isotopically identical with NIST 203 204 976 (Moeller et al., 2012). The spiked matrices were treated and purified in the same manner as the original samples. The δ^{65} Cu value of the matrix samples was -0.03±0.04‰ (mean±2SD, n=5) 205 and undistinguishable from ERM@-AE633 (-0.01±0.05‰, Moeller et al., 2012). Reproducibility 206

and accuracy of δ^{65} Cu measurements were monitored with the help of certified reference materials BCR-2 and NBS C 125-2 (SRM C1252, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). The NBS C 125-2 was used as an in-house Cu standard to check the MC-ICP-MS stability yielding a δ^{65} Cu value of 0.36±0.06‰ (mean±2SD, n=10). BCR-2 yielded a δ^{65} Cu_{NIST976} = 0.15±0.08‰ (mean±2SD, n=11) comparable to the previously published data ranging from 0.14±0.05‰ to 0.22±0.06‰ (e.g., Bigalke et al., 2010a; 2013; Liu et al., 2014b; Moeller et al., 2012).

214

215 2.4. Calculations and statistics

The overall mass flux for any soil volume $m_{j;flux}$ in g cm⁻² was then calculated for each element j using Eq. (1) proposed by Brimhall et al. (1991) and modified by Egli and Fitze (2000):

218
$$m_{j;flux} = \frac{1}{100} \times \frac{\rho_{ref} \times C_{j;ref} \times Th \times \tau_{j,w}}{\varepsilon_{i;w} + 1}$$
(1)

in which p is the bulk density, Cj is the concentration of j in weight percent, Th (cm) is the 219 thickness of the considered soil horizon. The subscripts ref and w referto the soil taken as a 220 reference and to the weathered product, respectively. We used positions 60 and 110 m as 221 222 representing the weathered product (because drainage changes the soil composition at these 223 distances) and positions 210 and 400 m as reference (because here the effect of drainage is very low, Montagne et al., 2008). This is different to the classical approach of comparing soil horizons 224 225 with parent material. The $\varepsilon_{i,w}$ and $\tau_{i,w}$ values are the strain and the open-system mass-transport 226 functions, respectively, calculated according to Eqs. 2 and 3 (Brimhall et al., 1991). The *\varepsilon* is a measure for the change of the soil volume over time using an immobile element i and τ_j ; w; is the 227 228 mass fraction of element j gained or lost from the weathered product with respect to the mass

originally present in the reference material (i.e. the soil at positions 210 and 400 m). We usedquartz as an immobile compound.

231
$$\varepsilon_{i;w} = \frac{\rho_{ref}C_{i;ref}}{\rho_w c_{i;w}} - 1$$
(2)

232
$$\tau_{i;j} = \frac{\rho_w c_{i;j}}{\rho_{ref} c_{j;ref}} (\varepsilon_{i;w} + 1) - 1 \quad (3)$$

After checking the data for homoscedasticity with the Levené test, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test was conducted to compare the mean Cu concentrations and isotopic compositions among soil volumes. Normal distribution of residuals was checked by visual inspection. Significance was set at p <0.05.

238

239 3. **Results**

Copper concentrations in the bulk horizons increased with depth at three of the four 240 positions (1.1, 2.1 and 4.0 m). Copper concentrations were closely related with those of the clay 241 fraction (Fig. 3a). The Cu concentrations in the surface (Ap) horizon and clav-rich Bt horizons 242 varied only little along the trench. In contrast, in the E&Bt-horizon, there was a large lateral 243 variation in the Cu concentrations, with the lowest value at position 0.6 m (Tab. 1, Fig. 4a). The 244 δ^{65} Cu values tended to decrease from the Ap horizon to the deeper horizons (Fig. 4b), but showed 245 no relation to Cu concentrations or the clay fraction (Fig. 3b). However, the δ^{65} Cu values at 246 different depths in the E&Bt and Bt horizons and at the different positions along the trench were 247 not different. We only detected a single much lower δ^{65} Cu value compared to all other samples in 248 the 35-45 cm depth layer (E&Bt horizon) at position 0.6 m (Tab. 1, Fig. 3b, 4b). 249

250 The Cu concentrations were significantly higher in the black and ochre volumes than in the pale-brown and white-grey volumes, respectively. Copper concentrations were not related with 251 distance to the drain in pale-brown and white-grey volumes but were lower in the black and ochre 252 volumes at position 0.6 m than at all other positions (Fig. 5a, Tukeys HSD test, p < 0.05). Overall 253 the black volumes had the significantly highest and the ochre volumes the significantly lowest 254 δ^{65} Cu values, while the δ^{65} Cu values of the pale-brown and white-grey volumes were not 255 significantly different from those of the ochre and black volumes (Fig. 6). The bulk δ^{65} Cu value 256 calculated from the mass-balanced sum of the individual soil volumes (ranging from -0.36±0.04‰ 257 to -0.41±0.04‰) showed good agreement with the δ^{65} Cu value of the bulk soil in the E&Bt horizon 258 at the different distances from the drain (ranging from $-0.38\pm0.03\%$ to -0.41 ± 0.02). At position 259 0.6 m, this is true for the lower bulk sample (45-55 cm depth), which overlaps with the depth where 260 soil volumes were sampled (Fig. 2), while for the upper 35-45 cm depth layer of the E&Bt horizon 261 with the low δ^{65} Cu value (-0.91±0.15‰) we did not have samples of individual soil volumes for 262 comparison. 263

The dissolved Cu concentrations in the porous cup sample were highest of all analyzed soil 264 solutions. The Cu concentrations of drain water were consistently lower than those of the 265 piezometer sample in all three studied samples (Tab. 2). While in the hydrological year 2005/2006 266 the δ^{65} Cu values in the piezometer and drain waters seemed to be lower in the anoxic samples (Fe 267 > 40 μ g L⁻¹); compared to the oxic samples, the δ^{65} Cu values of the anoxic samples were similar 268 to those in the oxic samples from the Piezometer in the following hydrological year 2007/08. 269 Consequently, the variations in δ^{65} Cu values among the various solution types and sampling dates 270 could neither be clearly assigned to redox conditions nor to the way of sampling. There was no 271 clear difference in Cu concentrations in waters taken under anoxic conditions (Fe > $40\mu g L^{-1}$) 272

273 compared with oxic conditions (Fe < $40\mu g L^{-1}$). There were no clear differences in δ^{65} Cu values 274 among the water samples from the piezometers and the drain in 2005/2006, but small variations in 275 2007/08. The single porous cup sample showed the lowest δ^{65} Cu value. Overall, the water samples 276 showed higher δ^{65} Cu values than the solid soil samples, with Δ^{65} Cu_(soil-solution)= -0.61\pm0.41.

277

278 4. Discussion

279 4.1. Depth distribution of Cu concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values

The vertical distribution of Cu in the study soil is influenced by (1) the amendment of limed sludge 280 from 1998 to 2001 resulting in a Cu input of approx. 0.9 g m⁻² (Montagne et al., 2007), (2) regular 281 fertilization e.g., with mineral fertilizer (no manure application) and (3) pedogenetic processes 282 including lessivation and hydromorphy (Montagne et al., 2008). The Cu input with sludge and 283 fertilizer has increased Cu concentrations in the Ap horizons and also might have changed the 284 δ^{65} Cu value. In the deeper horizons, clay eluviated from the Ap horizons which accumulated in 285 the Bt horizons likely explains the increase in Cu concentrations because the clay fraction usually 286 contains higher Cu concentrations than the coarser particle sizes (Minkina et al., 2011). The latter 287 is also confirmed by the close correlation between the clay and the Cu concentrations (r = 0.80; p 288 < 0.001). This correlation even became closer, when Ap horizons (with anthropogenic Cu input) 289 were removed (Fig. 3a). No δ^{65} Cu values for agriculturally used sludge or mineral fertilizers have 290 up to now been reported. However, in case that these additions carry a heavier δ^{65} Cu value than 291 the soilthey might be responsible for the higher δ^{65} Cu values in the Ap horizons. The different soil 292 depths in E&Bt and Bt horizons show no significant δ^{65} Cu changes, despite the significant changes 293 in Cu concentrations linked to the clay eluviation. We explain this finding by the fact that Cu 294 bound to clay controls the concentration and the δ^{65} Cu value of total soil Cu. Our findings suggests 295

that lessivation does not change δ^{65} Cu values of the bulk soils, because the eluviated and illuviated horizons have the same Cu isotopic composition. The lacking influence of clay concentrations on δ^{65} Cu values is reflected by the absence of a correlation between these two variables (r < 0.001, p = 0.95). Furthermore, soil volumes with different clay concentrations (Montagne et al, 2008) did not show a significant difference in δ^{65} Cu values, again indicating that other soil processes than the clay concentration (e.g. sludge application, weathering; Fig. 7) controlled Cu isotope ratios.

302

303 4.2. Response of Cu concentrations and δ^{5} Cu values to drainage

The low Cu concentration in the E&Bt at position 0.6 m, suggests that the drainage induced Cu 304 leaching (Table 1, Fig. 4a). Mass flux calculations indicated that Cu mass flux (m_{Cu flux}) at position 305 0.6 m was, on average, three times higher than at positions 2.1 and 4.0 m (43.8 and 15.3 mg cm⁻², 306 respectively). This loss of Cu from the E&Bt horizon at position 0.6 m is linked with substantial 307 loss of Fe and clay at positions 0.6 m and 1.1 m, (6.5 and 2.3 kg m⁻² Fe and 75.8 and 25.6 kg m⁻² 308 clay, respectively; Montagne and Cornu, 2010). The loss has been explained by strongly enhanced 309 eluviation caused by drainage-induced higher water fluxes, and is most pronounced in the upper 310 part of the E&Bt horizon at position 0.6 m (Montagne and Cornu, 2010). These findings agree 311 312 with the close correlation between the clay and the Cu concentrations (Fig. 3a), which furthermore suggests that clay is the dominant Cu pool in this soil. In contrast, the observed eluviation had no 313 significant effect on the δ^{65} Cu value of the drained soil, as illustrated by the lack of a correlation 314 between δ^{65} Cu values and clay concentrations (Fig. 3b). 315

At 0.6 m distance, the E&Bt horizon showed a strong negative δ^{65} Cu value in its upper part (35-45cm), while its lower part (45-55cm) with similar properties (clay and Cu concentrations) did not show differences in δ^{65} Cu values from the soil at other distances (Fig. 3b). This strongly

negative value was ascertained by three replicate analyses including separate digestion, 319 purification and analysis of each replicate. We suggest that the light δ^{65} Cu value in the upper part 320 of the E&Bt horizon at position 0.6 m might be attributable to the change in redox conditions 321 following drainage. Redox changes can cause a comparatively large fractionation of δ^{65} Cu values 322 with the reduced Cu(I) enriched in the light isotopes (Fig. 1; Zhu et al., 2002). Under anoxic 323 324 conditions, the reduced Cu fraction may account for a major part of total soil Cu and may carry a heavy isotope signal to balance that of a Cu-isotopically light residual fraction (Kusonwiriyawong 325 et al., 2015). This Cu-isotopically heavy reduced fraction might be lost by oxidation (Fulda et al., 326 327 2013b) attributable to drainage, leaving the residual Cu isotopically lighter. The reason for the absence of this isotope effect in the deeper E&Bt Horizon (45-55cm), might be its closer proximity 328 to the soil water table and thus less pronounced episodic oxidation. Fekiacova et al. (2015) reported 329 a similar negative value (-0.89 ‰) for a Retisol at approximately the same depth, which they 330 interpreted as light Cu enrichment linked to Fe oxide precipitation and sorption of light Cu leached 331 from the surface horizons. However, Fekiacova et al. (2015) observed an increase in Cu 332 concentrations in contrast to our study soil where the low δ^{65} Cu value was related with a decrease 333 in Cu concentrations. Consequently, the low δ^{65} Cu values in the study of Fekiacova et al. (2015) 334 and ours must have different reasons. 335

Additionally to analyzing the bulk soil samples, we partitioned the soil in the E&Bt horizon into four different soil volumes. The differentiation starts from the ochre volume, developing successive pale-brown and white-grey soil volumes by increasing eluviation and redox-induced bleaching (Montagne et al., 2008). Within the ochre volume, the black volume forms because of the precipitation of Mn oxides. With increasing proximity to the drain the ochre volumes decreased and the black, pale-brown and white-grey volumes increased (Montagne et al., 2008). The black

volumes always had the highest Cu concentrations, probably because of precipitation with and 342 sorption of Cu on Mn oxides (Negra et al., 2005). The ochre volume always showed higher Cu 343 concentrations than the pale-brown and white grey volumes because of eluviation and reductive 344 leaching of clay minerals and (oxyhydr)oxides in the latter two volumes (Fig. 5a, Montagne et al., 345 2008). Because of the drainage, Cu concentrations in the black and ochre volumes decreased by 346 approx. 50% in the direct vicinity (position 0.6 m) of the drain, which is consistent with the 347 decrease in the bulk soil. The decrease in the Cu concentrations of the ochre and black volumes at 348 349 position 0.6 m is driven by the strong clay loss by eluviation. In contrast, the more oxidizing conditions near the drain caused an increase in the abundance of the ochre and black volumes, 350 351 attributable to the precipitation of Mn and Fe oxi(hydr)oxides. Because ochre and black volumes 352 formed in a soil, which was already depleted in Cu, they showed lower Cu concentrations. Independent of the distance to the drain, the contributions of the Cu stocks in the black, pale-brown 353 and white-grey volumes to the total Cu stock of the bulk E&Bt horizon did not change, while the 354 contribution of the Cu stock in the ochre volume to the total Cu stock of the bulk horizon decreased 355 356 (Fig. 5b).

There were no clear variations in the δ^{65} Cu values of the individual volumes with distance 357 to the drain (p < 0.05) indicating that the drainage-induced morphological changes at position 0.6 358 359 m did not cause a Cu isotope fractionation among the soil volumes. At position 0.6 m, the soil volumes were taken from the lower depth layer (45-55 cm), which had a similar δ^{65} Cu value as all 360 other bulk soil samples (Fig. 2). The black volumes showed always significantly higher δ^{65} Cu 361 362 values than the ochre volumes they develop from. This might be attributable to variable redox at the small spatial scale at which the differentiation into the four soil volumes occurred and related 363 Cu isotope fractionation or by the sorption on Fe and Mn oxy(hydr)oxides in the black volumes. 364

As redox variation usually causes a strong isotope fractionation (Fig. 1) we consider more likely that the limited changes observed in the δ^{65} Cu values of the different soil volumes depended on the adsorption to Fe and Mn (oxyhydr)oxides (which preferentially adsorb heavy isotopes, Fig. 1b, Pokrovsky et al., 2008; Balistrieri et al., 2008).

The overall lack of a correlation between the clay concentration and δ^{65} Cu values, the differences in δ^{65} Cu values between the 35-45 and 45-55cm depth layers despite a similar degree of eluviation and the absence of significant variations between the ochre and the white-grey soil volumes (Fig. 5, the white grey volume is clay-depleted) imply limited importance of clay eluviation for the δ^{ac} Cu values of the soil, despite the marked effect of lessivation on Cu concentrations in bulk horizons (Fig. 3).

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376 4.3. Cu in soil water

The Cu concentrations in our soil water samples were similar to the previously published 377 range of Cu concentrations in soil pore water during weathering of black shale of 1-16 µg L⁻¹ 378 (Mathur et al., 2012), dissolved Cu in river of 0-3 µg L⁻¹ (Vance et al., 2008) and dissolved Cu in 379 wetlands 1-12 µg L⁻¹ (Babcsányi et al., 2014). The low concentrations in the drain water may be 380 caused by co-precipitation with or sorption to Mn and/or Fe (oxyhydr)oxides precipitating near 381 the drain pipe where the reduced Mn and Fe comes into contact with oxygen. Samples with low 382 $(<40 \ \mu g \ L^{-1})$ and high $(>40 \ \mu g \ L^{-1})$ Fe concentrations (indicative for oxic and reducing conditions, 383 respectively) did not show systematically different Cu concentrations, indicating that the redox 384 potential was not sufficiently low to reduce Cu. 385

The δ^{65} Cu values in our water samples are well within the range reported for soil, river, and wetland water ranging from 0.02-1.45‰ (Vance et al., 2008; Mathur et al., 2012; Babcsányi

et al., 2014). The δ^{65} Cu values during anoxic conditions in 2005/06 overlapped with those during 388 389 oxic conditions in 2007/08, showing no clear relationship with the redox potential in the piezometer. In the drain water, the δ^{65} Cu values seemed to be lower under anoxic conditions, but 390 were similar to the oxic sample from the piezometer in 2007/08. The uniform Cu concentrations 391 and δ^{65} Cu values indicate that there was no redox-induced change in Cu mobility, agreeing well 392 with the findings from the bulk soils, where we also did not observe an indication for redox 393 mobilization of Cu. The δ^{65} Cu value of dissolved Cu was heavier than that of the bulk solid soil 394 $(\Delta^{65}Cu_{(soil-solution)} = -0.61 \pm 0.41)$, but fractionation was less pronounced than reported for redox-395 induced fractionations in field and laboratory experiments (Fig. 1). The pattern of Cu isotopically 396 light solid soils and heavy dissolved Cu fits well into the findings of a weathering experiments 397 with basalts at pH 5 (Li et al. 2016) and results of the analysis of soil solutions from oxic 398 weathering of black shales, which both always showed an enrichment of the isotopoically heavy 399 Cu in the dissolved phase (Mathur et al., 2012). 400

Independent of the redox conditions, the δ^{65} Cu values of the dissolved fraction in rivers, 401 wetlands and soils always showed a heavy δ^{65} Cu value, while the particulate and colloidal fraction 402 showed light δ^{65} Cu values and a strong response to redox changes (Babcsányi et al, 2014; Vance 403 et al., 2008). The lack of a relationship of the δ^{65} Cu values of dissolved Cu with the redox potential 404 might be explained by the fact that the Cu isotope ratio of dissolved Cu in soils and rivers is more 405 strongly controlled by complexation with strong dissolved ligands (Vance et al., 2008, Vance et 406 al., 2016) than by redox changes. The responsible ligands were identified by cathode-stripping 407 voltametry and are subdivided in the ligand classes L1 and L2 (Muller et al., 2001). Both ligand 408 classes have high stability constants up to 10^{16} and often occur in excess compared to Cu 409

410	concentrations in solution (Vance et al., 2008). Therefore, it can be assumed that almost al
411	dissolved Cu occurs in complexed form in environmental solutions (Muller et al., 2001).

413 **5.** Conclusions

1) The slightly decreasing δ^{65} Cu values with increasing depth in the bulk soils might be 414 caused by addition of heavy Cu (e.g., fertilizer and sewage sludge) to the surface soil. 415 2) Drainage did not change δ^{65} Cu values in bulk soil and soil volumes, despite Cu 416 redistribution by enhanced clay eluviation, with the exception of one point. A low 417 δ^{65} Cu value and Cu concentration in the upper E&Bt horizon near to the drain may 418 indicate oxidative weathering and leaching of heavy Cu isotopes formerly stored in the 419 reduced Cu pool and is the only δ^{65} Cu value which we could link to redox changes. 420 The drainage caused changes in the Cu distribution among the soil volumes indicative 421 of locally changed pedogenetic processes. The δ^{65} Cu values showed significant 422 differences among the soil volumes but did not change with distance to the drain, 423 indicating that the Cu isotope signals are dominated by sorption processes but little by 424 redox changes. 425

4263) The Cu concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values in the solution samples did not respond to427changes in soil redox conditions, indicating that short-term changes in redox conditions428in the soil have a small or no effect on the isotope signals of dissolved Cu. The overall429 δ^{65} Cu value of dissolved Cu was heavier than that of bulk solid soil (Δ^{65} Cu(soil-solution)=430-0.61±0.41), which we attribute to weathering and sorption of dissolved Cu to strong431ligands in solution in line with several reports of soils solutions and river waters in the432literature.

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A conceptual model of the effect of the different processes on Cu distribution and δ^{65} Cu 434 values in the soil is displayed in Fig. 7. In summary, the two dominant pedogenetic processes in 435 the study soils (lessivation and hydromorphy) seem to have limited influence on the Cu stable 436 isotope ratios although lessivation strongly controls Cu concentrations. The effect of drainage on 437 438 δ^{65} Cu is visible only at one position close to the drain, which probably showed the strongest change in redox conditions. Our results illustrate that redox induced Cu leaching is only visible where the 439 soil is most oxidized. Instead, in the Retisol clay eluviation and leaching of organically complexed 440 Cu, drive Cu mobility. In general the δ^{65} Cu approach on bulk soils is helpful to investigate the 441 influence of redox and sorption processes on Cu mobility in the soil system, but does not help for 442 clay eluviation were two pools (e.g. clay and soil) are isotopically not discernible. The application 443 of δ^{65} Cu values to investigate into redox controlled Cu mobility might be of high importance as 444 reductive Cu mobilisation is driving the mobilisation of a number highly relevant pollutant 445 elements (Ag, Cd, Hg, Pb; Abgottspon et al., 2015; Hofacker et al., 2013b; Weber et al., 2009b). 446

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601 Table 1

602 Copper concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values of the different soil horizons as a function of distance to

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603	the	drain.

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Horizon	Depth	Cu	SD	δ ⁶⁵ Cu	2SD	n ^a
HOLIZOII	(cm)	$(\mu g g^{-1})$		(‰)		
	position (
Ap	10-20	7.3	0.1	-0.25	0.01	1
E&Bt	35-45	5.7	0.1	-0.91	0.15	3
	45-55	5.6	0.1	-0.40	0.02	1
Bt	55-65	9.1	0.2	-0.39	0.06	2
	65-75	10.8	0.4	-0.40	0.09	2
	position 1	.1 m				
Ap	10-20	8.1	0.6	-0.28	0.01	1
E&Bt	40-55	8.2	0.7	-0.39	0.03	1
Bt	55-65	10.7	0.2	-0.40	0.06	2
	65-80	10.5	0.3	-0.31	0.03	1
position 2.1 m						
Ap	10-20	6.5	0.1	-0.27	0.01	1
E&Bt	40-50	10.6	0.9	-0.41	0.02	2
	50-60	10.8	0.7	-0.39	0.01	2
Bt	70-83	11.4	0.3	-0.37	0.04	2
position 4.0 m						
Ap	10-20	8.5	0.2	-0.20	0.01	2
E&Bt	35-45	8.4	0.2	-0.38	0.03	1
	45-55	10.2	0.6	-0.39	0.03	1
Bt	55-65	11.7	0.8	-0.33	0.02	3
	65-75	12.0	1.1	-0.35	0.01	3

⁶⁰⁵ ^a n is the number of independent digestions and purifications for isotope analysis

Table 2

Copper concentration and δ^{65} Cu values of piezometer, drain water and porous cup samples in the

	2005/06				2007/08				
Sample	Fe < 40 μ g L ⁻¹		$Fe > 40 \ \mu g \ L^{-1}$			Fe < 40 μg L ⁻¹			
name	Cu	δ ⁶⁵ Cu	2SD	Cu	δ ⁶⁵ Cu	2SD	Cu	δ ⁶⁵ Cu	2SD
	μg L ⁻¹	(‰)		μg L ⁻¹	(‰)		μg L ⁻¹	(‰)	
Piezometer	5.5	0.40	0.08	5.3	0.10	0.09	6.5	0.11	0.03
Drain water	2.5	0.42	0.18	2.9	0.17	0.01	2.1	0.36	0.02
Porous cup	14.1	0.04	0.05						

hydrological years 2005/06 and 2007/08.

616 **Figure captions**

Fig. 1 Compilation of a) δ^{65} Cu values found in soils, soil and river waters and b) Δ^{65} Cu values

⁶¹⁸ reported for different processes, which might be of relevance in the Retisol. ¹Bigalke et al.

619 (2011), ²Bigalke et al. (2010a), ³Bigalke et al. (2010c), ⁴ Vance et al. (2016), ⁵Bigalke et al.

620 (2013), ⁶Fekiacova et al. (2015), ⁷ Mathur et al. (2012), ⁸ Ilina et al. (2013), ⁹Petit et al. 2013),

¹⁰Vance et al. (2008), ¹¹Balistrieri et al. (2008), ¹²Clayton et al. (2005), ¹³Pokrovsky et al. (2008),

¹⁴Li et al. (2015), ¹⁵Bigalke et al. 2010b), ¹⁶Ryan et al. 2014), ¹⁷Ehrlich et al. (2004), ¹⁸Zhu et al.

623 (2002), ¹⁹Asael (2006), ²⁰Mathur et al. (2005), ²¹Mathur and Fantle (2015), ²²Mathur et al.

624 (2012).

Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of the study design showing the drain, the disturbed zoned caused by subsurface drainage installation, the soil sampling depth at positions 0.6, 1.1, 2.1 and 4.0 m, respectively, the sampling area of individual soil volumes and the sampling position of water samples extracted from positions 0.7, 1.5 and 4.0 m, respectively and the variation of the soil water table as registered in a piezometer.

Fig. 3. Relationship between a) the clay and Cu concentrations among all soil samples (solid line, 630 upper equation). If the Ap horizons (which received anthropogenic Cu) were removed, the 631 relationship would become stronger (dotted line, lower equation). In b), the relationship between 632 clay and Cu concentrations (black diamonds) and clay concentrations and δ^{65} Cu values (open 633 triangles) of the E&Bt horizons are displayed separately because these horizons should initially have 634 635 a homogeneous Cu isotope signal, which is then affected by the drainage. While clay and Cu concentrations show a strong linear correlation (solid line, equation), there was correlation between 636 the clay concentrations and the δ^{65} Cu values. The red arrow illustrates the shift between the δ^{65} Cu 637

values of the uppermost sample at position 60 and the other Bt horizon samples which show identical
 δ⁶⁵Cu values.

Fig. 4. Vertical distribution of a) Cu concentrations, b) δ^{65} Cu values of the different bulk soil horizons as a function of the distance to the drain. Horizontal bars indicate sampling depth. Vertical bars indicate a) SD of concentrations and b) 2SD of Cu isotope ratios. Vertical error bars indicate the depth interval the sample was taken from. The letters at the right site of the figure are pedogenetic horizon designations.

Fig. 5. Copper concentrations in the soil volumes at different distances from the drain (a) and Cu
stock of a given soil volume (b). Horizontal error bars indicate a) SD of concentration analysis and
b) error propagation based on the standard deviation of concentrations, volumes and bulk densities.

Fig. 6. Mean δ^{65} Cu values of the four soil volumes indicative of the dominating pedogenetic processes combined from all four distances from the drain. Error bars indicate 2SD between the four positions. Different superscript letters indicate significant differences in δ^{65} Cu values among soil volumes according to ANOVA with Tukey's HSD taking the four distances from the drain as replicates.

Fig. 7. Mechanistic model of the fate of Cu in the drained Retisol. The size of the arrows indicate the dimension of Cu mass fluxes and the ‰ values refer to Δ^{65} Cu_{process-bulk soil} values caused by the various processes.

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660 Figure 1









668 Figure 4





Figure 6



