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1	Theoretical Isotope Fractionation of Cadmium during
2	<b>Complexation with Organic Ligands</b>
3	
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Abstract: Cadmium (Cd) isotopes are an important tool to better understand both 29 inorganic and organic geochemistry of Cd, and organic ligands play a key role to 30 control the toxicity and mobility of Cd in living organisms and also in terrestrial and 31 aquatic environments. Knowledge of the equilibrium isotope fractionation of Cd with 32 organic ligands is crucial to further advance Cd isotope source and process tracing in 33 the field of biogeochemistry. In this study, we calculated reduced partition function 34 ratios ( $10^{3}\ln\beta$ ) of Cd isotopes in various organic Cd complexes by density functional 35 theory. The calculation results show that the  $10^3 \ln\beta$  of  $^{114}Cd/^{110}Cd$  for these 36 complexes are decreased in the order of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^- > Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^- >$ 37  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > Cd(cit)_2^{4-} \approx Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+} > Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+} > Cd($ 38  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3{}^{2+} > \quad Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2{}^{2-} > Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_2{}^{-} > Cd(DMPS)_2{}^{4-} \ at \ 0 \ \thicksim$ 39 40 100°C, and heavy Cd isotopes preferably bind to oxygen and nitrogen donor atoms while light Cd isotopes bind to sulfur donor atoms of organic ligands. Thus, the 41 previously observed immobilization of light Cd isotopes in living organisms could be 42 related to Cd detoxification processes with sulfur. The predicted equilibrium isotope 43 fractionation will strengthen Cd isotopes as a process tracing tool in these systems and 44 will improve the understanding of Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and terrestrial 45 systems. 46

47 Keywords: Cd isotope; Organic complexes; Equilibrium isotope fractionation; O/N/S
48 donor; Destiny functional theory; Isotope biogeochemistry

49

#### 51 **1. Introduction**

52

53 Cadmium (Cd) is a non-essential element for most living organisms (Sigel et al., 2013). It is ubiquitous in terrestrial and aquatic environments where it can occur 54 55 naturally or through anthropogenic activities (Kabata-Pendias, 2011; Liu et al., 2017). Being very mobile, it is readily taken up by living organisms (Khan et al., 2014; 56 Thévenod et al., 2019), where it can impair the organisms itself (Sigel et al., 2013) 57 and/or it can be further transported along the food chain and accumulated in animals 58 59 and humans (Fransson et al., 2014; Satarug et al., 2010). Thus, the understanding of processes that control the fate of Cd in the terrestrial and aquatic environments are 60 crucial. 61 62 Isotope geochemistry has been increasingly applied in the past years for tracing anthropogenic Cd pollution (Cloquet et al., 2006; Salmanzadeh et al., 2017; Imseng et 63 al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019), tracing the source of ore-forming fluids (Zhu et al., 64 2016), to advance the understanding of the past and present marine biogeochemical 65 cycling of Cd (Lambelet et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2018; Sieber et al., 2019), as well 66 as to trace processes that control the Cd homeostasis in unicell organisms (Horner et 67 al., 2013; Moore et al., 2020) and distinct types of plants such as grasses 68 (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016; Imseng et al., 2018; Wiggenhauser et al., 2021; Zhang et 69 al., 2021), cacao (Barraza et al., 2019; Moore et al., 2020), and Cd accumulating 70

71 plants (Wei et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2020). Cd has eight stable isotopes which atomic

masses range from 106-116, their ratios can vary significantly in the environment

73	(Hoefs, 2015). Cd isotope fractionation in terrestrial and aquatic systems is generated
74	by multiple processes such as sorption to reactive surfaces (Wasylenki et al., 2014),
75	precipitation of Cd into minerals (e.g., calcite, Horner et al., 2011; Guinoiseau et al.,
76	2018; sphalerite, Zhu et al., 2013), membrane transport (Wei et al., 2016), weathering
77	(Zhang et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2018), binding to inorganic materials (Wasylenki et al.,
78	2014; Yang et al., 2015; Guinoiseau et al., 2018), and complexation with organic
79	ligands as shown for other metals (Morgan et al., 2010; Ryan et al., 2014; Marković et
80	al., 2017). Once isotope fractionation factors are defined for these processes, Cd
81	isotopes can provide novel information about major biogeochemical processes that
82	control the mobility of Cd in complex terrestrial and aquatic systems. For Cd, binding
83	to organic ligands plays a crucial role in detoxifying, sequestrating and separating
84	toxic Cd from essential nutrients in living organisms (Wang and Wang, 2009; Cao et
85	al., 2018; Le Croizier et al., 2019). Recent studies showed that Cd isotopes are
86	strongly fractionated in living organisms which has been attributed to processes such
87	as membrane transport (Moore et al., 2020) and Cd binding to organic ligands
88	(Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2018, 2021). For the latter, it was hypothesized that Cd
89	binding to reduced sulfur groups (R-SH, thiols) in the bacteria E.coli to detoxify Cd
90	resulted in an enrichment of light isotope in membranes (Horner et al., 2013).
91	Furthermore, cereals strongly retained light Cd isotopes in roots which lead to an
92	enrichment of heavy isotopes in shoots and grains (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016; Imseng
93	et al., 2019; Wiggenhauser et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). The immobilization of
94	light isotopes was ascribed to binding of Cd to thiols to detoxify and sequestrate Cd in

95 roots and shoot parts and to avoid accumulation of Cd in grains (Wiggenhauser et al., 96 2016). Together, studies in living organisms proposed that sulfur (S) involved 97 detoxification and immobilization processes of Cd could be a major driver of Cd 98 isotope fractionation. However, no isotope fractionation factor for Cd binding to 99 distinct organic ligands exist yet, which makes it difficult to interpret Cd isotope 100 fractionation in complex biological systems.

During the past few years, calculating isotope fractionation for distinct metal 101 complexes has significantly improved metal isotope process tracing applications in 102 103 complex biogeochemical systems (Fujii and Albarède, 2012; Moynier et al., 2013; Fujii et al., 2014; Wiederhold, 2015; Albarede et al., 2016; Moynier and Fujii, 2017). 104 For inorganic Cd complexes, theoretical calculations predicted that Cd hydroxides 105 106 and Cd nitrates are isotopically heavier compared to hydrated Cd while hydrated Cd is heavier than Cd chlorides and hydrosulfide (Yang et al., 2015). Guinoiseau et al. 107 (2018) recently verified these in a Cd sulfide precipitation experiment which revealed 108 that Cd light isotope was enriched in sulfide and that the enrichment of light isotope 109 decreased with increasing chloride concentration in solution. For organic ligands, 110 either experimental or theoretical Cd isotope fractionation data of Cd organic 111 complexes has not been studied. Such Cd isotope fractionation data would be 112 particularly useful to improve Cd isotope process in tracing complex biogeochemical 113 systems where organic ligands play a crucial role on the fate of Cd in the 114 environment. Here, we aimed to strengthen Cd isotope process tracing approaches by 115 applying density functional theory (DFT) to calculate Cd hydrated complexes 116

117	$Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$ and $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$ ; Cd-citrate complexes $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ , $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^{-}$ ,
118	CdH(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>4</sub> and Cd(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> ; CdEDTA; Cd-histidine Cd(his) <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O; Cd-DMPS
119	complexes Cd(DMPS) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup> and Cd(DMPS)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> ; Cd-cysteine Cd(cys)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub> <sup>2+</sup> ; Cd-
120	glutathione complex $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$ . The obtained results were discussed regarding
121	its implications for past and future Cd isotope processes tracing approaches.
122	

- 123 **2.** Theory and methods
- 124
- 125 2.1. Cd organic complexes
- 126

Oxygen (O), nitrogen (N), and sulfur (S) are abundant elements that essential for all 127 128 living organisms. In organic ligands, they serve as donor atoms to bind metals such as Cd as part of organic complexes such as citrate (cit) (McLean et al., 2013; Panfili et 129 al., 2009; Zorrig et al., 2010), histidine (his) (Wierzbicka et al., 2007; Gunawardana et 130 al., 2010; Hoch et al., 2012; Colaneri et al., 2013), Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid 131 (EDTA) (Kovács et al., 2010), cysteine (cys) (Leitenmaier et al., 2011; Cao et al., 132 2014; Smith et al., 2015), glutathione (GSH) (Prévéral et al., 2009; Seth et al., 2011; 133 Wu et al., 2013), and dimercaptopropane sulfonic acid (DMPS) (Zeini Jahromi et al., 134 2014). These complexes are involved in controlling uptake, transport, and 135 sequestration of Cd in living organisms, whereas EDTA and DMPS are model 136 compounds for strong chelating complexes. EDTA represents chelators with O and N 137 donors such as nicotianamine (Clemens et al., 2013; Marković et al., 2017; 138

- Puschenreiter et al., 2017) and DMPS represents strong chelators with S donors such
  as phytochelatin (Marentes and Rauser, 2007; Pal et al., 2019).
- 141
- 142 2.2. Calculations
- 143

Equilibrium isotope exchange reaction between two metal complexes can be represented by:

146

$$AY + BY^* = AY^* + BY \tag{1}$$

147 where *Y* denotes one element that is represented by light (*Y*) and heavy isotopes (*Y*\*). 148 *A* and *B* represent two different ligands. Ligands and isotopes of *Y* form the chemical 149 complexes *AY* and *BY*. The isotope fractionation factor  $\alpha$  between the complexes *AY* 150 and *BY* is defined as:

151  $\alpha_{AY-BY} = K_{eq} = \frac{\beta_{AY}}{\beta_{BY}}$ (2)

the isotope fractionation factor is expressed in permill [‰]:

153 
$$10^{3} \ln \alpha_{AY-BY} = 10^{3} \ln \beta_{AY} - 10^{3} \ln \beta_{BY}$$
(3)

In these equations, *K* is the equilibrium constant, which is equal to the  $\alpha$  of the isotope exchange reaction of chemical complexes (*AY*, *BY*) that exchange the same element (*Y*).  $\beta$  is the reduced partition function ratio (RPFR). Bigeleisen and Mayer (1947) and Urey (1947) suggested that equilibrium mass-dependent isotope fractionation factors results from the molecular vibrational frequencies.  $\beta$  can be calculated as:

160 
$$\beta_{114-110} = \prod_{i} \frac{{}^{114}U_{i}}{{}^{110}U_{i}} \frac{e^{-{}^{114}U_{i}/2}}{e^{-{}^{110}U_{i}/2}} \frac{1-e^{-{}^{110}U_{i}}}{1-e^{-{}^{114}U_{i}}}$$
(4)

161

- $U_i$  and  $v_i$  are defined as:
- 162

$$U_i = h v_i / kT \tag{5}$$

Here, *h*, *k*, and *T* refer to the Planck's constant, Boltzmann constant and absolute temperature, respectively.  $v_i$  is the harmonic vibrational frequency of the *i* th vibrational mode in  $s^{-1}$ . The number of vibrational modes for non-linear molecules is 3n-6 (n is the number of atoms in the molecule), 3n-5 for linear molecules.

In this study <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd isotope ratios were chosen to study the Cd isotope 167 fractionation of Cd partitioning into different chemical complexes. The <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd is 168 a widely used isotope ratio in experimental (Rehkämper et al., 2011; Horner et al., 169 2013; Pallavicini et al., 2014; Chrastný et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018) 170 and theoretical studies (Yang et al., 2015). Gaussian 09 (Dennington et al., 2009; 171 172 Frisch et al., 2009) was used to calculate the geometries optimization and vibrational frequencies of Cd species using Becke-style 3-parameter (B3) density functional 173 theory with the Lee-Yang-Parr (LYP) correlation functional (Lee et al., 1988; Becke, 174 1993a, b). In this study, the mixed basis sets were used, for H, C, N, O, and S, the all-175 electron basis set 6-311+G(d, p) was used (Clark et al., 1983; Francl et al., 1982; 176 Krishnan et al., 1980; McLean and Chandler, 1980; Spitznagel et al., 1987); for Cd, 177 an effective-core potential (ECP) basis set LanL2DZ was chosen (Hay and Wadt, 178 1985). The "ultrafine" numerical integration grid was used and the molecular 179 geometries were optimized without any forced symmetry for all complexes. The 180 setting of exchange correlation functionals may have effect on the calculated 181 vibrational frequencies, and four exchange correlation functionals B3LYP, BVP86, 182

183	B3PW91 and PBEPBE were tested. For Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup> , the mean square errors of
184	the calculated vibrational frequencies of the four exchange correlation functionals are
185	366.90, 874.94, 1084.19 and 7440.05 respectively (Table S1), the calculated
186	frequencies by B3LYP are more consistent with the experimental results and the
187	B3LYP functional was chosen to estimate the isotope fractionation of Cd complexes
188	in this study.

189

### 190 **3. Results and discussion**

191

### 192 *3.1. Optimized molecular geometries*

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The optimized geometries of the organic Cd complexes are shown in Fig. 1. For comparison, Table 1 lists the optimized bond lengths calculated by this study, and previously published theoretical and experimental data. Donor atoms, optimized coordinated bond lengths (Å) and mean bond lengths (Å) are shown in Table S3 (Supplementary material). The optimized Cd-O distances of  $Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$  and  $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$  (Fig. 1a, b) by using the basis set 6-311+G(d, p) are consistent with those by using the basis set 6-31+G(d, p) (Yang et al., 2015).

For Cd-citrate complexes:  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ ,  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$ ,  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the deprotonated carboxyl groups in Cit<sup>3-</sup> are always coordinated to the central  $Cd^{2+}$  (Bertoli et al., 2015). The d10 electron configuration of  $Cd^{2+}$  favors sixfold coordination and forms octahedral geometry (Siddiqui et al., 2011), while in

205	less bulky ligands, Cd <sup>2+</sup> tends to form tetrahedral coordination complexes (Ramalho
206	and Figueroa-Villar, 2002; Bertoli et al., 2015). $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ (Fig. 1c) and
207	Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup> (Fig. 1d) with fourfold coordination complexes, are adducts of two
208	citrate molecules and have several isomers in solution (Bertoli et al., 2015). They
209	differ in their protonation and each of the two citrate molecules provided two
210	carboxylate oxygen atoms to coordinate to Cd <sup>2+</sup> . The coordinated bond lengths of
211	Cd(cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup> and Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup> were 2.21, 2.22 Å and 2.14-2.38 Å respectively. The
212	Cd atoms in CdH(cit)(H2O)4 (Fig. 1e) and Cd(cit)(H2O)3 <sup>-</sup> (Fig. 1f) were sixfold
213	coordinated, their bond lengths were 2.24-2.40 Å and 2.24-2.43 Å, respectively.

CdEDTA (Fig. 1g) is sixfold coordinated, and EDTA provides two N and four O 214 donor atoms for  $Cd^{2+}$ . The stronger binding of  $Cd^{2+}$  to N than to O, and the 215 electrostatic attraction induced by the carboxylate result in a high stability for 216 CdEDTA (Kovács et al., 2010; Karak et al., 2016). The calculated Cd-O and Cd-N 217 distances (Cd-O: 2.26, 2.36; Cd-N: 2.48, Table 1b) in this study were close to those 218 calculated by Kovács et al. (2010). Cd-histidine (Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O, Fig. 1h) is also sixfold 219 coordinated and contains an imidazole ring, carboxyl and amino groups that provide 220 four N and two O donor atoms for Cd<sup>2+</sup> (Colaneri et al., 2013). The calculated 221 distances were 2.26 Å for Cd-O 2.41-2.48 Å for Cd-N (Table 1b). 222

The ligand DMPS contains two thiolate groups and one sulfonate group, and the thiol groups of the DMPS chelate Cd<sup>2+</sup> in fourfold coordination (Zeini Jahromi et al., 2014, Fig. 1i and 1j). For 1:1 Cd-DMPS complexes, the calculated average distance of Cd to its S donor atoms was 2.48 Å. For 1:2 Cd-DMPS complexes, the average bond

distance to four S donor atoms was 2.69 Å. The calculated bond lengths were
consistent with the previously published values (Table 1b) (Zeini Jahromi et al.,
2014).

For  $Cd(cvs)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  (Fig. 1k), the thiol group of cysteine tends to bind the metal 230 ion by S donor atoms when cysteine is present in excess (Jalilehvand et al., 2009; 231 Fujii et al., 2014). In our study, Cd was bound to three water molecules and one thiol 232 group of cysteine, the bond length of Cd to its S donor atoms was 2.48 Å, which was 233 slightly shorter than the experimental data of Cd-cysteine 2.52-2.54 Å (Jalilehvand et 234 al., 2009). Glutathione,  $\gamma$ -Glu-Cys-Gly, is a thiol-containing tripeptide, and the 235 ligands of 1:2 Cd-glutathione complexes (Fig. 11) are GS<sup>3-</sup> molecules with amide 236 protons, where Cd has a tetrahedral coordination sphere and the complex primarily 237 238 involves two deprotonated thiol groups from cysteine residues and two water molecules (Delalande et al., 2010). EXAFS spectra of Cd-glutathione complexes 239 suggested Cd was fourfold coordination and S atoms were identified as the binding 240 atoms at 2.54±0.1 Å (Isaure et al., 2015). The calculated Cd-S mean bond distance in 241 this study was in agreement with previous EXAFS result (2.545Å) (Table 1b). 242

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### 244 3.2. Comparison with experimental vibrational frequencies

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Only a few experimentally determined vibrational frequencies exist for organic Cd complexes since they are difficult to determine experimentally. Richet et al. (1977) thought the effects of anharmonicity on the isotope fractionation are expected to be

quite small, here only harmonic vibration was considered. Table 2 lists the calculated harmonic vibrational frequencies of the <sup>114</sup>w isotopomer and <sup>110</sup>w isotopomer of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> and the experimental data by FTIR (Bertoli et al., 2015). The frequency shifts values  $10^3(1 - {}^{114}w/{}^{110}w)$  of Cd isotopes are also listed.

In Table 2,  $w_1$  is the twisting vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching vibration 253 mode of C-O, the experimental vibrational frequencies by Bertoli et al. (2015) was 254 1027.05 cm<sup>-1</sup>, the calculated data by this study were 1041.1681 cm<sup>-1</sup> for  $^{114}w$ 255 isotopomer and 1041.1686 cm<sup>-1</sup> for  ${}^{110}w$  isotopomer, the average value of the 256 calculated frequency of the two isotopomers is about 1.375% higher than 257 experimental data.  $w_2$  is the rocking vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 258 vibration mode of C-C, the experimental data was 1078.98 cm<sup>-1</sup>, the calculated 259 frequencies were 1079.978 cm<sup>-1</sup> for Cd heavy isotope and 1079.9783 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the 260 light one, the average frequency values by this calculation is 0.093% higher than 261 experimental data.  $w_3$  is the twisting vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 262 263 vibration mode of C-C, the calculated average data is 1.041% lower than experimental data. w<sub>4</sub> is the scissoring vibration mode of H-C-H, the average data by calculation is 264 close to the experimental data and the calculated average frequency is 0.490% lower 265 than experimental data.  $w_5$  is the rocking vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 266 vibration mode of C-C and C-O, the average data by calculation is 0.698% higher 267 than experimental data. w<sub>6</sub> is the wagging vibration mode of H-C-H with scissoring 268 vibration mode of O-H, the frequency difference between experiment and the average 269 theory calculation is 0.142%. The  $w_7$  is the symmetrical stretching vibration and the 270

difference between calculation and experiment is 0.310%.  $w_8$  is the symmetrical stretching vibration mode of COO<sup>-</sup>, the difference of calculated data and experimental data is 0.069%.  $w_9$  is asymmetrical stretching vibration of COO<sup>-</sup>, the average frequency calculated is 3.187% higher than experimental results. For  $w_{10}$ , it is stretching vibration mode and the calculated result is 0.652% lower than experimental data (Table 2). Overall, the calculated frequencies were generally consistent with previously experimental data of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>.

The accuracy of vibrational frequencies can be further propagated in the final 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$  values (Schauble et al., 2003, 2004; Schauble et al., 2007). Frequency scaling factors can often be used to correct the calculated vibrational frequencies which are able to reproduce the experimental frequencies. However, the simple harmonic frequency calculated by quantum chemistry methods need to be corrected when it is used to calculate isotope fractionation involving larger molecules (Liu et al., 2010; Fujii et al., 2014). Here frequency scaling factors were not needed in this study.

285

## 286 3.3. Reduced partition function ratios, $10^3 ln(\beta_{114-110})$ for Cd complexes

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In nature, mass-independent Cd isotope effects may not be significant and mass dependent effects are the main factor for naturally occurring Cd isotope variations (Rehkämper et al., 2011). Here, only the mass-dependent isotope effects for various Cd species have been studied. The calculated reduced partition function ratios  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  of the Cd complexes with varying temperatures from 0 °C to 100 °C calculated in this study are reported in Table 3. <sup>114</sup>Cd and <sup>110</sup>Cd have the largest mass difference among Cd isotopes (Carignan et al., 2004; Wombacher and Rehkämper, 2004), usually <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd isotope ratios were chosen to study the Cd isotope fractionation of Cd partitioning into different chemical complexes. Mass-dependent isotope fractionation is a function of temperature (*T*), and can be expressed as below:

298

$$10^3 \ln(\beta_{114-110}) = A \times \frac{10^6}{T^2} + B \tag{6}$$

Where *A*, *B* are the regression parameters, which can be figured out from Table 3. The A, B values of these complexes are listed in Table S2, for comparison their relationship also be figured in Fig. 2. Our calculation shows that the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  of  $^{114}Cd/^{110}Cd$  for these complexes decreases in the order of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_{2}cit)^{-} >$  $Cd(cit)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{-} > CdH(cit)(H_{2}O)_{4} > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_{2}H_{2}O > Cd(cit)_{2}^{4-} \approx$  $Cd(H_{2}O)_{6}^{2+} > Cd(H_{2}O)_{4}^{2+} > Cd(cys)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{2+} > Cd(GS)_{2}(H_{2}O)_{2}^{2-} > Cd(DMPS)(H_{2}O)_{2}^{-}$  $> Cd(DMPS)_{2}^{4-}$  at  $0 \sim 100^{\circ}C$ 

Previous studies demonstrated that the types of donor atoms (O, N, S) of organic 306 ligands are a main driver for Zn isotope fractionation (Albarède et al., 2011; Fujii and 307 Albarède, 2012; Balter et al., 2013; Moynier et al., 2013; Fujii et al., 2014). 308 Particularly, O donors preferentially bind heavier Zn isotopes than S donors. Cd and 309 Zn are in the same group in the periodic table which means that the two elements have 310 the same number of electrons in their outer valence shell. Thus, the elements share 311 similar chemical properties such as a flexible coordination chemistry, they are non-312 redox sensitive, and have similar stability constants (John et al., 2017; Maret and 313 Moulis, 2013; Sóvágó and Várnagy, 2013). It is likely that O, N, and S donor atoms 314

may have a similar effect on Cd isotope fractionation as they do for Zn. This 315 hypothesis has been recently partly verified by Yang et al. (2015) who reported an 316 enrichment of heavy Cd isotopes for O and N compared to S donors of inorganic 317 ligands. In addition, studies on Zn isotopes have shown that the number of 318 319 coordination for the same donor atoms can also determine isotope fractionation (Fujii et al., 2014). For instance, fourfold coordinated Zn-amino acid complexes had larger 320  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values than the sixfold coordinated complexes of the same amino acid. 321 The relationship between the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values and donor atoms type of the Cd 322 complexes at 25°C is given in Fig. 3 (the types and numbers of donor atoms are given 323 in Table S3). For Cd complexes, S or combinations of S and O donor atoms tended to 324 complex with lighter Cd isotopes. Furthermore, the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  disparities induced 325 326 by S and S/O donor atoms were bigger than those by O and O/N donor atoms. The relationship between  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  and mean bond lengths of Cd to its donor atoms at 327 25°C was shown in Fig. 4. Overall, mean coordinated bond lengths of complexes with 328 O donor atoms were shorter than those with S donor atoms, except  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$ . 329 The reason may be that  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  has three O donors and one S donor. 330 Among all studied Cd complexes, Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> has the largest  $10^{3} ln(\beta_{114-110})$ 331

values while  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$  has the smallest  $10^3ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values (Fig. 2 and Table 3), their difference can reach 1.18 at 25°C. Cd-citrate complexes can be fourfold coordinated (Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> and Cd(cit)<sub>2</sub><sup>4-</sup>) and sixfold coordinated (CdH(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub> and Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and their  $10^3ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values can differ up to 0.213 at 25°C which means that the structure difference of these Cd-citrate complexes can result in

Cd isotope fractionation (Fig. 1, 2). In addition,  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of fourfold 337 coordinated Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> were larger than those of sixfold coordinated 338  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ , but those of  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$  are smaller than those of 339  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ . Thus, for Cd-citrate complexes, the coordination 340 number is only one of the factors that have an effect on Cd isotope fractionation, 341 when estimating Cd isotope fractionation of them, other factors should be considered. 342 The Cd-cysteine, Cd-GSH, and Cd-DMPS complexes contain S donor atoms. Our 343 calculations revealed that these Cd complexes had lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values in 344 comparison with hydrated Cd complexes and organic Cd complexes that contained O 345 and N donor atoms (Table 3 and Fig. 3). The lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values in S 346 containing ligands is in agreement with previous studies that reported  $10^{3}$ ln $\beta$  values 347 for inorganic Cd (Yang et al., 2015) and organic Zn complexes (Fujii et al., 2014). 348 Among the complexes that contained S and O donor atoms in this study, their 349  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values slightly differed. For instance, Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and 350  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$  were complexed with two S donor atoms from the organic 351 molecules and two O donor atoms from water molecules. The average bond lengths of 352 Cd-S in Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.48 Å) was shorter than that in Cd(GS)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup> (2.545 353 Å, Table 1 and S3). The average Cd-O bond lengths in Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.95 Å) 354 were longer than that of  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$  (2.415 Å). Our data suggests that chelators 355 with S ligands significantly change the bond lengths between Cd and other donor 356 atoms than S which might contribute to the lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  value in the chelating 357  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$  complex. 358

As anticipated, the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of Cd(DMPS)<sub>2</sub><sup>4</sup>, a Cd chelating complex 359 with four S and no O donor atoms, was smaller compared to Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> 360 (Table 3 and Fig. 3). This observation agrees with previously published calculations 361 of Zn sulfides where the smallest fractionation occurred in Zn sulfide complexes with 362 363 four S donor atoms compared to Zn sulfide complexes contained mixtures of S and O donor atoms (Fujii et al., 2011). Together, our data suggests that a large shift towards 364 light isotopes occurs when Cd is complexed to a chelating organic ligand with two or 365 four S donor atoms when compared non-chelating S donor atoms and O/N donor 366 367 atoms in general.

Experimentally obtained isotope fractionation factors for Zn (Marković et al., 2017) 368 and Cu (Ryan et al., 2014) complexes reported a direct relation between the stability 369 370 of complexes and the extent and isotope fractionation factors. This relation was also observed in our data, however, the difference of  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values between metal 371 chelator CdEDTA and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O was comparably small (0.027 at 25°C, Fig. 2 and 372 Table 3). Though CdEDTA forms more stable complexes than Cd-histidine 373 complexes (Sóvágó and Várnagy, 2013; Karak et al., 2016), the coordination number 374 was six for both complexes while the CdEDTA had four O and two N donor atoms 375 and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O had four N and two O donor atoms, and the average bond lengths 376 between the central Cd atom and its donor atoms were very similar: CdEDTA 2.367 377 Å (Cd-O: 2.26, 2.36 Å; Cd-N: 2.48 Å); Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O 2.378 Å (Cd-O: 2.26 Å; Cd-N: 378 2.41-2.48 Å, Table S3 and Fig. 4). Hence, the small differences in Cd isotope 379 fractionation between the two complexes might have been demonstrated by the 380

distinct coordination and bond lengths of the two complexes.

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### 383 *3.4. Error analysis for Cd isotope fractionation*

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Vacuo and solvation models can cause isotope fractionation factors inaccuracies 385 (Hill and Schauble, 2008; Yang et al., 2015). In ideal vacuum gaseous conditions, the 386 influence of the surrounding environment such as solvents on the solute molecules in 387 the real system is ignored. To overcome this limitation, some solvent models were 388 established to simulate the effects of solvents on solutes. The polarized continuum 389 models (PCMs) are widely used to simulate the aqueous environment (Tomasi et al., 390 2005; Tsipis, 2014). However, Yang et al. (2015) found that the bond lengths 391 optimized by IEFPCM model are larger than those by vacuo model and the  $10^{3} \ln(\beta_{114-})$ 392 110) results calculated in the IEFPCM model are smaller than those in vacuo model, 393 and thought that the optimized structures and lnß values of Cd complexes calculated 394 in vacuo are more consistent with the experimental data. For comparison, the implicit 395 solvation models IEFPCM (the integral-equation-formalism versions of PCM) and 396 CPCM (conductor-like PCM) were used to calculate the optimized molecular 397 structures and  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  at 25°C for studied complexes (Table S4 and S5), as well 398 as the model of  $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$  with second hydration sphere  $Cd(H_2O)_{18}^{2+}$  (Table S6). 399 Our calculation showed that most of the bond lengths optimized in solution by this 400 study were larger than those in vacuum (Table S4). This was agreement with the 401 results of inorganic Cd complexes (Yang et al., 2015). For  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values, not 402

only does difference exist between two implicit models and vacuum model but also 403 between two implicit models. By comparing with vacuum model, IEFPCM and 404 CPCM solvation models decrease the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.346 and 0.221 at 25°C 405 respectively, and increase the  $10^3 \ln\beta$  of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.139 and 0.166 at 25°C 406 respectively. For Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>, CdH(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub>, Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O, 407 IEFPCM and CPCM model decrease the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  by 0.175-0.580 and 0.206-0.567 and 408 increase the  $10^3 \ln\beta$  of Cd(cys)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.281 and 0.401 at 25°C respectively. For 409  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ , CdEDTA,  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$ , these two models increase the 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$  by less than 410 0.1 at 25°C. For Cd(GS)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup>, the IEFPCM solvation model decrease the  $10^{3}$ ln $\beta$ 411 by 0.109 and CPCM model increase the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  by less than 0.1 at 25°C, the implicit 412 solvation models have different effects on Cd isotope fractionation (Table S5). The 413 main reason may be that the simple harmonic vibrational frequencies have been 414 polluted by translation and rotation which make the inaccurate for frequencies data in 415 solvation models (Yang et al., 2015), and the levels of "pollution" may be different for 416 different Cd complexes. 417

Setting the second hydration sphere is able to make the calculated frequencies closer to the experimental values and improve the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  for Ni and Zn (Fujii et al., 2014), the same phenomenon may occur in Cd hydrate species. Our calculation showed that for Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup>, the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  values for the explicit model as Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup> is 2.377 and 1.990, 1.923 for explicit model + IEFPCM and explicit model + CPCM at 25°C respectively. Compared with the vacuum model, the explicit model increases the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  values and explicit + implicit model decrease them (Table S6). The total

425 symmetric stretching mode of hexaaqua complexes,  $v_1$  CdO<sub>6</sub>, is shown in Table S6. 426 The calculated  $v_1$  frequency values of large cluster Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup>, Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> + 427 IEFPCM and Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> + CPCM are closer to previous calculation and 428 experimental data than that of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> (Table S6), which means solvation models 429 make the frequency values closer the literature values and the solvent effect on 10<sup>3</sup>lnβ 430 values are needed to be considered.

Frequency is another most frequently mentioned factor that may cause uncertainties 431 or errors of the calculated reduced partition function ratios (Schauble et al., 2003, 432 2004; Schauble et al., 2007; Méheut et al., 2007, 2009; Weeks et al., 2007; Yang et 433 al., 2015). For lack of experimental vibrational frequency of Cd organic complexes, it 434 is impossible to evaluate the RPFR errors for them, and different vibration 435 frequencies may lead to discrepant uncertainty in  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values at  $25\Box$  (Vogt 436 et al., 1993; Schauble, 2007; Yang et al., 2015). Based on existing experimental 437 frequency data of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$  and this calculation, the maximum difference 438 between them is 3.187%, and the average deviation is about 0.293%. Based on 439 Schauble (2007, 2011), calculated frequencies may lead to an error of less than 0.6% 440 for  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>. 441

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3.5 Implications for Cd process tracing applications in biogeochemistry, supergene
geochemistry and environmental science

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446 Metal isotope fractionation can be used to trace processes that control the

distribution of an element in terrestrial and aquatic environments. Previous 447 experimental studies hypothesized that the Cd isotope fractionation is strongly linked 448 to Cd speciation to organic ligands with S donor atoms to detoxify and immobilize Cd 449 in living organisms (Horner et al., 2013; Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2021; Imseng et 450 451 al., 2019). Results by this study and Yang et al. (2015) revealed that an enrichment of light isotopes occurs in thiol ligands when compared to hydrated Cd and Cd bound to 452 O/N donor atoms of organic ligands, which will strengthen not only Cd isotopes as a 453 process tracing tool, but also the understanding of Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and 454 terrestrial systems. For example, to reduce inputs of the toxic trace metal Cd into the 455 food chain of humans and animals, processes that control the mobility of Cd in 456 terrestrial and aquatic environments need to be well understood. The results that 457 458 heavy Cd isotopes preferably bind to oxygen and nitrogen donor atoms while light Cd isotopes bind to sulfur donor atoms of organic ligands compared to hydrated Cd<sup>2+</sup> 459 provides information on processes on the immobilization of Cd isotopes in living 460 organisms which are related to Cd detoxification processes with sulfur. 461

Furthermore, the strongest Cd isotope fractionation compared to hydrated Cd occurred in chelating S donor ligands, particularly in a chelating S donor ligand in which Cd is exclusively bound to S. Thus, our data confirms the hypothesis that the retention of light isotopes in roots and shoots of grasses (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2021; Imseng et al., 2019) and membranes of *E. Coli* (Horner et al., 2013) could be induced by the immobilization of light Cd isotopes through strong Cd binding to chelators with S donor atoms such as phytochelatins (Clemens et al. 2019). This

chelation would retain light Cd isotopes e.g., in the roots of cereals, while other 469 chemical Cd species such as hydrated Cd that are enriched in heavy isotopes can be 470 transported by membrane proteins towards the shoot. The Cd isotope fractionation 471 induced by chelating thiols may have implications on Cd isotope fractionation in other 472 plants than grasses. Cd hyperaccumulator plants can cope with high Cd concentrations 473 and store, unlike cereals, the majority of the Cd taken up from soils in their shoots 474 (Zhou et al. 2020). To cope with the high Cd shoot concentrations, Cd is mostly 475 bound to O donor atoms of e.g., organic acids and to a lesser extent to S donors (Tian 476 et al. 2011; Isaure et al. 2015). Based on our findings, the Cd isotope fractionation in 477 Cd accumulating plants could potentially provide novel insights into the role of Cd 478 binding to different donor atoms on the translocation of Cd within the shoot. Recent 479 480 studies focused on Cd isotope fractionation in cacao since cacao beans often exceed the threshold values for Cd potentially leading to elevated Cd concentrations in 481 chocolate (Moore et al. 2020; Barraza et al. 2019). Similar to grasses such as wheat, 482 rice, and barley, cacao seems to retain Cd and its light isotopes in the roots (Moore et 483 al. 2020). Our findings suggest that Cd binding to thiols may play also a crucial role 484 to retain Cd in roots of cacao and thereby limit the Cd transport into cacao beans. 485 Our results further suggest that Cd ligands, especially thiols, may play a key role in 486 Cd isotope fractionation in living organisms, soils, and waters. In this study, the Cd 487 isotope fractionation between hydrated Cd and Cd chelated by S donor atoms was  $\sim$ 488 1‰. The largest Cd isotope fractionation that has been observed between roots and 489

shoots of plants that strongly retain light Cd isotopes in roots was around 0.60 ‰

(Wiggenhauser et al. 2016, 2021; Imseng et al. 2018; Moore et al. 2020). The 491 difference between our results and the experimentally determined Cd isotopes 492 fractionation between root and shoots may be caused by additional isotope effects that 493 complement isotope effects at equilibrium. The transfer from root to shoot includes 494 membrane transport (Deng et al. 2019). This transport requires fast binding of Cd to a 495 metal binding site of a membrane protein prior to unidirectional membrane transport 496 (Wang et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016). Thus, membrane transport might be at least 497 partly kinetically controlled (Köbberich and Vance, 2017). Kinetically controlled 498 processes favor light isotopes through their faster reaction rates (Wiederhold, 2015) 499 while type of metal binding sites of a membrane transproters (e.g., cysteine, histidine) 500 might play an additional role for isotope fractionation during membrane transport. 501 502 Together, our results suggest that equilibrium Cd isotope fractionation in plants induced by binding of Cd to organic molecules occur in parallel to kinetic isotope 503 effects. 504

505 In soils, sediments, and water, organic matter poses an important binding site for Cd and partly controls the mobility of Cd. For instance, soil organic matter derives 506 from decomposed biomass and provides a mixture of O, N, and S donor atoms for Cd 507 in the solid and liquid phase of the soil (Karlsson et al., 2007; Tiberg et al., 2018). 508 Besides processes such as Cd sulfide precipitation and Cd uptake into phytoplankton, 509 soluble organic ligands might significantly control the Cd distribution in water 510 columns and sediments during the oceanic Cd cycle (Guinoiseau et al., 2018). Our 511 data implies that Cd sorption of Cd to organic matter can enrich or deplete the 512

513 hydrated Cd pool in heavy and could provide further insights into the role of specific514 binding sites of organic matter on Cd cycling in the environment.

515

### 516 **4. Conclusion**

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This study provides a first prediction that describes Cd equilibrium isotope 518 fractionation induced by Cd complexation to organic ligands. The  $10^{3} \ln\beta$  of 519 <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd for these investigated complexes decreased in the order of 520  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^- > Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^- > CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > Cd(his)_2H_2O$ 521  $Cd(cit)_{2}^{4-} \approx Cd(H_{2}O)_{6}^{2+} > Cd(H_{2}O)_{4}^{2+} > Cd(cys)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{2+} > Cd(GS)_{2}(H_{2}O)_{2}^{2-} > Cd(G$ 522  $Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_2^- > Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$  at 0 ~ 100°C. The sequence reveals that Cd 523 524 complexation to organic ligands with O and N donor atoms are enriched in heavy isotopes while to organic ligands with S donor atoms are enriched with light isotopes. 525 These results provide important information to advance Cd isotopes as a process 526 tracing tool in complex biological systems and further improve the understanding of 527 Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and terrestrial systems. 528

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531

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538

#### 539 Appendices. Supplementary material

540

Table S1: Comparing the experimental vibrational frequencies with calculated results 541  $(^{110}w)$  employed by four different exchange correlation functionals 542 for Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>. Table S2: The fitting factors A, B for  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})=A\times10^{6}/T^{2}+B$  (T 543 is K). Table S3: The donor atoms, coordinated bond lengths (Å) and mean bond 544 lengths (Å) for Cd complexes. Table S4a: Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the Cd 545 hydration complexes and citrate complexes calculated with solvation models. Table 546 S4b: Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the organic Cd complexes calculated with 547 solvation models. Table S5: The  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  of Cd complexes calculated in vacuo 548 and solvation models (IEFPCM, CPCM) at 25°C. Table S6: The vibrational 549 frequencies (<sup>110</sup>w) and  $10^{3} \ln\beta$  values of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> and Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup>. 550

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930 Figure Captions:

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932 Fig. 1. Optimized molecular structures for various Cd species. a-b: Cd hydrate; c-f: Cd-citrate, the original source of the structure derives from Bertoli et al. (2015) and Fujii et al. (2012); g: 933 934 CdEDTA (Kovács et al., 2010); h: Cd-histidine (Colaneri et al., 2013); i-j: Cd-DMPS (Zeini Jahromi et al., 2014); k: Cd-cysteine (Jalilehvand et al., 2009 and Fujii et al., 2014); l: Cd-935 936 glutathione (Delalande al., 2010). Abbreviations cit (citrate), EDTA et are 937 (ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid), his (histidine), DMPS (dimercaptopropane sulfonic acid), cys 938 (cysteine), and deprotonated glutathione (GSH) is shown as GS. Symbol keys: H (white), C 939 (grey), N (blue), O (red), S (purple), Cd (yellow). 940 Fig. 2. Temperature dependence of  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  for Cd hydrate, citrate, EDTA, histidine, DMPS, 941 cysteine and glutathione complexes. X-axis shows the function of 106/T<sup>2</sup> (lower shaft) and corresponding temperature (upper shaft, 0-100  $\square$ ), Y-axis shows the 10<sup>3</sup>ln( $\beta_{114-110}$ ) values. 942 Fig. 3. Cd (<sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd) isotopic variations with different donor atoms at 25°C. The complexes 943 944 with O donor atoms are shown as  $\square$ ; N,O donor complexes as  $\triangle$ ; S,O donor complexes as  $\square$ ; S 945 donor complexes as  $\circ$ . For O donor complexes, the order of  $10^3 \ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values at 25°C from small to large is  $Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+} < Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+} \approx Cd(cit)_2^{4-} < CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 < Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^{-} < Cd(cit)_4^{2-} < Cd(Cit)_4^{$ 946  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)$ ; For N,O donor complexes, the order is  $Cd(his)_2H_2O < CdEDTA$ ; For S,O donor 947 complexes, the order is  $Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_2^- < Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-} < Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$ ; The S donor 948 complex is Cd(DMPS)24-. 949

**Fig. 4.** Reduced partition function ratios,  $10^{3}$ ln ( $\beta_{114-110}$ ) vs. mean bond length (Å) at 25°C Just as Fig. 3, the complexes with O donor atoms are shown as  $\square$ , including Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)4<sup>2+</sup>, Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)6<sup>2+</sup>,

- $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ ,  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$ ,  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ ; N,O donor complexes as  $\Delta$ ,
- 953 including CdEDTA and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O; S,O donor complexes as □, including Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>,
- $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  and  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$ ; S donor complex as  $\circ$ , is  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$ .

1	Theoretical Isotope Fractionation of Cadmium during
2	<b>Complexation with Organic Ligands</b>
3	
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Abstract: Cadmium (Cd) isotopes are an important tool to better understand both 29 inorganic and organic geochemistry of Cd, and organic ligands play a key role to 30 control the toxicity and mobility of Cd in living organisms and also in terrestrial and 31 aquatic environments. Knowledge of the equilibrium isotope fractionation of Cd with 32 organic ligands is crucial to further advance Cd isotope source and process tracing in 33 the field of biogeochemistry. In this study, we calculated reduced partition function 34 ratios ( $10^{3}\ln\beta$ ) of Cd isotopes in various organic Cd complexes by density functional 35 theory. The calculation results show that the  $10^3 \ln\beta$  of  $^{114}Cd/^{110}Cd$  for these 36 complexes are decreased in the order of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^- > Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^- >$ 37  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > Cd(cit)_2^{4-} \approx Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+} > Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+} > Cd($ 38  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3{}^{2+} > \quad Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2{}^{2-} > Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_2{}^{-} > Cd(DMPS)_2{}^{4-} \ at \ 0 \ \thicksim$ 39 40 100°C, and heavy Cd isotopes preferably bind to oxygen and nitrogen donor atoms while light Cd isotopes bind to sulfur donor atoms of organic ligands. Thus, the 41 previously observed immobilization of light Cd isotopes in living organisms could be 42 related to Cd detoxification processes with sulfur. The predicted equilibrium isotope 43 fractionation will strengthen Cd isotopes as a process tracing tool in these systems and 44 will improve the understanding of Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and terrestrial 45 systems. 46

Keywords: Cd isotope; Organic complexes; Equilibrium isotope fractionation; O/N/S
donor; Destiny functional theory; Isotope biogeochemistry

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### 51 **1. Introduction**

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53 Cadmium (Cd) is a non-essential element for most living organisms (Sigel et al., 2013). It is ubiquitous in terrestrial and aquatic environments where it can occur 54 55 naturally or through anthropogenic activities (Kabata-Pendias, 2011; Liu et al., 2017). Being very mobile, it is readily taken up by living organisms (Khan et al., 2014; 56 Thévenod et al., 2019), where it can impair the organisms itself (Sigel et al., 2013) 57 and/or it can be further transported along the food chain and accumulated in animals 58 59 and humans (Fransson et al., 2014; Satarug et al., 2010). Thus, the understanding of processes that control the fate of Cd in the terrestrial and aquatic environments are 60 crucial. 61 62 Isotope geochemistry has been increasingly applied in the past years for tracing anthropogenic Cd pollution (Cloquet et al., 2006; Salmanzadeh et al., 2017; Imseng et 63

al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019), tracing the source of ore-forming fluids (Zhu et al., 64 2016), to advance the understanding of the past and present marine biogeochemical 65 cycling of Cd (Lambelet et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2018; Sieber et al., 2019), as well 66 as to trace processes that control the Cd homeostasis in unicell organisms (Horner et 67 al., 2013; Moore et al., 2020) and distinct types of plants such as grasses 68 (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016; Imseng et al., 2018; Wiggenhauser et al., 2021; Zhang et 69 al., 2021), cacao (Barraza et al., 2019; Moore et al., 2020), and Cd accumulating 70 plants (Wei et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2020). Cd has eight stable isotopes which atomic 71 masses range from 106-116, their ratios can vary significantly in the environment 72

73	(Hoefs, 2015). Cd isotope fractionation in terrestrial and aquatic systems is generated
74	by multiple processes such as sorption to reactive surfaces (Wasylenki et al., 2014),
75	precipitation of Cd into minerals (e.g., calcite, Horner et al., 2011; Guinoiseau et al.,
76	2018; sphalerite, Zhu et al., 2013), membrane transport (Wei et al., 2016), weathering
77	(Zhang et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2018), binding to inorganic materials (Wasylenki et al.,
78	2014; Yang et al., 2015; Guinoiseau et al., 2018), and complexation with organic
79	ligands as shown for other metals (Morgan et al., 2010; Ryan et al., 2014; Marković et
80	al., 2017). Once isotope fractionation factors are defined for these processes, Cd
81	isotopes can provide novel information about major biogeochemical processes that
82	control the mobility of Cd in complex terrestrial and aquatic systems. For Cd, binding
83	to organic ligands plays a crucial role in detoxifying, sequestrating and separating
84	toxic Cd from essential nutrients in living organisms (Wang and Wang, 2009; Cao et
85	al., 2018; Le Croizier et al., 2019). Recent studies showed that Cd isotopes are
86	strongly fractionated in living organisms which has been attributed to processes such
87	as membrane transport (Moore et al., 2020) and Cd binding to organic ligands
88	(Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2018, 2021). For the latter, it was hypothesized that Cd
89	binding to reduced sulfur groups (R-SH, thiols) in the bacteria E.coli to detoxify Cd
90	resulted in an enrichment of light isotope in membranes (Horner et al., 2013).
91	Furthermore, cereals strongly retained light Cd isotopes in roots which lead to an
92	enrichment of heavy isotopes in shoots and grains (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016; Imseng
93	et al., 2019; Wiggenhauser et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). The immobilization of
94	light isotopes was ascribed to binding of Cd to thiols to detoxify and sequestrate Cd in

95 roots and shoot parts and to avoid accumulation of Cd in grains (Wiggenhauser et al., 96 2016). Together, studies in living organisms proposed that sulfur (S) involved 97 detoxification and immobilization processes of Cd could be a major driver of Cd 98 isotope fractionation. However, no isotope fractionation factor for Cd binding to 99 distinct organic ligands exist yet, which makes it difficult to interpret Cd isotope 100 fractionation in complex biological systems.

During the past few years, calculating isotope fractionation for distinct metal 101 complexes has significantly improved metal isotope process tracing applications in 102 103 complex biogeochemical systems (Fujii and Albarède, 2012; Moynier et al., 2013; Fujii et al., 2014; Wiederhold, 2015; Albarede et al., 2016; Moynier and Fujii, 2017). 104 For inorganic Cd complexes, theoretical calculations predicted that Cd hydroxides 105 106 and Cd nitrates are isotopically heavier compared to hydrated Cd while hydrated Cd is heavier than Cd chlorides and hydrosulfide (Yang et al., 2015). Guinoiseau et al. 107 (2018) recently verified these in a Cd sulfide precipitation experiment which revealed 108 that Cd light isotope was enriched in sulfide and that the enrichment of light isotope 109 decreased with increasing chloride concentration in solution. For organic ligands, 110 either experimental or theoretical Cd isotope fractionation data of Cd organic 111 complexes has not been studied. Such Cd isotope fractionation data would be 112 particularly useful to improve Cd isotope process in tracing complex biogeochemical 113 systems where organic ligands play a crucial role on the fate of Cd in the 114 environment. Here, we aimed to strengthen Cd isotope process tracing approaches by 115 applying density functional theory (DFT) to calculate Cd hydrated complexes 116

117	$Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$ and $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$ ; Cd-citrate complexes $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ , $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^{-}$ ,
118	CdH(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>4</sub> and Cd(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> ; CdEDTA; Cd-histidine Cd(his) <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O; Cd-DMPS
119	complexes Cd(DMPS) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup> and Cd(DMPS)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> ; Cd-cysteine Cd(cys)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub> <sup>2+</sup> ; Cd-
120	glutathione complex $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$ . The obtained results were discussed regarding
121	its implications for past and future Cd isotope processes tracing approaches.
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- 123 **2.** Theory and methods
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- 125 2.1. Cd organic complexes
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Oxygen (O), nitrogen (N), and sulfur (S) are abundant elements that essential for all 127 128 living organisms. In organic ligands, they serve as donor atoms to bind metals such as Cd as part of organic complexes such as citrate (cit) (McLean et al., 2013; Panfili et 129 al., 2009; Zorrig et al., 2010), histidine (his) (Wierzbicka et al., 2007; Gunawardana et 130 al., 2010; Hoch et al., 2012; Colaneri et al., 2013), Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid 131 (EDTA) (Kovács et al., 2010), cysteine (cys) (Leitenmaier et al., 2011; Cao et al., 132 2014; Smith et al., 2015), glutathione (GSH) (Prévéral et al., 2009; Seth et al., 2011; 133 Wu et al., 2013), and dimercaptopropane sulfonic acid (DMPS) (Zeini Jahromi et al., 134 2014). These complexes are involved in controlling uptake, transport, and 135 sequestration of Cd in living organisms, whereas EDTA and DMPS are model 136 compounds for strong chelating complexes. EDTA represents chelators with O and N 137 donors such as nicotianamine (Clemens et al., 2013; Marković et al., 2017; 138

- Puschenreiter et al., 2017) and DMPS represents strong chelators with S donors such
  as phytochelatin (Marentes and Rauser, 2007; Pal et al., 2019).
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- 142 2.2. Calculations
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Equilibrium isotope exchange reaction between two metal complexes can be represented by:

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$$AY + BY^* = AY^* + BY \tag{1}$$

147 where *Y* denotes one element that is represented by light (*Y*) and heavy isotopes (*Y*\*). 148 *A* and *B* represent two different ligands. Ligands and isotopes of *Y* form the chemical 149 complexes *AY* and *BY*. The isotope fractionation factor  $\alpha$  between the complexes *AY* 150 and *BY* is defined as:

151  $\alpha_{AY-BY} = K_{eq} = \frac{\beta_{AY}}{\beta_{BY}}$ (2)

the isotope fractionation factor is expressed in permill [‰]:

153 
$$10^{3} \ln \alpha_{AY-BY} = 10^{3} \ln \beta_{AY} - 10^{3} \ln \beta_{BY}$$
(3)

In these equations, *K* is the equilibrium constant, which is equal to the  $\alpha$  of the isotope exchange reaction of chemical complexes (*AY*, *BY*) that exchange the same element (*Y*).  $\beta$  is the reduced partition function ratio (RPFR). Bigeleisen and Mayer (1947) and Urey (1947) suggested that equilibrium mass-dependent isotope fractionation factors results from the molecular vibrational frequencies.  $\beta$  can be calculated as:

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$$\beta_{114-110} = \prod_{i} \frac{{}^{114}U_{i}}{{}^{110}U_{i}} \frac{e^{-{}^{114}U_{i}/2}}{e^{-{}^{110}U_{i}/2}} \frac{1-e^{-{}^{110}U_{i}}}{1-e^{-{}^{114}U_{i}}}$$
(4)

- $U_i$  and  $v_i$  are defined as:
- 162

$$U_i = h v_i / kT \tag{5}$$

Here, *h*, *k*, and *T* refer to the Planck's constant, Boltzmann constant and absolute temperature, respectively.  $v_i$  is the harmonic vibrational frequency of the *i* th vibrational mode in  $s^{-1}$ . The number of vibrational modes for non-linear molecules is 3n-6 (n is the number of atoms in the molecule), 3n-5 for linear molecules.

In this study <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd isotope ratios were chosen to study the Cd isotope 167 fractionation of Cd partitioning into different chemical complexes. The <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd is 168 a widely used isotope ratio in experimental (Rehkämper et al., 2011; Horner et al., 169 2013; Pallavicini et al., 2014; Chrastný et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018) 170 and theoretical studies (Yang et al., 2015). Gaussian 09 (Dennington et al., 2009; 171 172 Frisch et al., 2009) was used to calculate the geometries optimization and vibrational frequencies of Cd species using Becke-style 3-parameter (B3) density functional 173 theory with the Lee-Yang-Parr (LYP) correlation functional (Lee et al., 1988; Becke, 174 1993a, b). In this study, the mixed basis sets were used, for H, C, N, O, and S, the all-175 electron basis set 6-311+G(d, p) was used (Clark et al., 1983; Francl et al., 1982; 176 Krishnan et al., 1980; McLean and Chandler, 1980; Spitznagel et al., 1987); for Cd, 177 an effective-core potential (ECP) basis set LanL2DZ was chosen (Hay and Wadt, 178 1985). The "ultrafine" numerical integration grid was used and the molecular 179 geometries were optimized without any forced symmetry for all complexes. The 180 setting of exchange correlation functionals may have effect on the calculated 181 vibrational frequencies, and four exchange correlation functionals B3LYP, BVP86, 182

183	B3PW91 and PBEPBE were tested. For Cd(Hcit)(H2cit) <sup>-</sup> , the mean square errors of
184	the calculated vibrational frequencies of the four exchange correlation functionals are
185	366.90, 874.94, 1084.19 and 7440.05 respectively (Table S1), the calculated
186	frequencies by B3LYP are more consistent with the experimental results and the
187	B3LYP functional was chosen to estimate the isotope fractionation of Cd complexes
188	in this study.

### 190 **3. Results and discussion**

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### 192 *3.1. Optimized molecular geometries*

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The optimized geometries of the organic Cd complexes are shown in Fig. 1. For comparison, Table 1 lists the optimized bond lengths calculated by this study, and previously published theoretical and experimental data. Donor atoms, optimized coordinated bond lengths (Å) and mean bond lengths (Å) are shown in Table S3 (Supplementary material). The optimized Cd-O distances of  $Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$  and  $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$  (Fig. 1a, b) by using the basis set 6-311+G(d, p) are consistent with those by using the basis set 6-31+G(d, p) (Yang et al., 2015).

For Cd-citrate complexes:  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ ,  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$ ,  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the deprotonated carboxyl groups in Cit<sup>3-</sup> are always coordinated to the central  $Cd^{2+}$  (Bertoli et al., 2015). The d10 electron configuration of  $Cd^{2+}$  favors sixfold coordination and forms octahedral geometry (Siddiqui et al., 2011), while in

205	less bulky ligands, Cd <sup>2+</sup> tends to form tetrahedral coordination complexes (Ramalho
206	and Figueroa-Villar, 2002; Bertoli et al., 2015). $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ (Fig. 1c) and
207	Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup> (Fig. 1d) with fourfold coordination complexes, are adducts of two
208	citrate molecules and have several isomers in solution (Bertoli et al., 2015). They
209	differ in their protonation and each of the two citrate molecules provided two
210	carboxylate oxygen atoms to coordinate to Cd <sup>2+</sup> . The coordinated bond lengths of
211	Cd(cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup> and Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup> were 2.21, 2.22 Å and 2.14-2.38 Å respectively. The
212	Cd atoms in CdH(cit)(H2O)4 (Fig. 1e) and Cd(cit)(H2O)3 <sup>-</sup> (Fig. 1f) were sixfold
213	coordinated, their bond lengths were 2.24-2.40 Å and 2.24-2.43 Å, respectively.

CdEDTA (Fig. 1g) is sixfold coordinated, and EDTA provides two N and four O 214 donor atoms for  $Cd^{2+}$ . The stronger binding of  $Cd^{2+}$  to N than to O, and the 215 electrostatic attraction induced by the carboxylate result in a high stability for 216 CdEDTA (Kovács et al., 2010; Karak et al., 2016). The calculated Cd-O and Cd-N 217 distances (Cd-O: 2.26, 2.36; Cd-N: 2.48, Table 1b) in this study were close to those 218 calculated by Kovács et al. (2010). Cd-histidine (Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O, Fig. 1h) is also sixfold 219 coordinated and contains an imidazole ring, carboxyl and amino groups that provide 220 four N and two O donor atoms for Cd<sup>2+</sup> (Colaneri et al., 2013). The calculated 221 distances were 2.26 Å for Cd-O 2.41-2.48 Å for Cd-N (Table 1b). 222

The ligand DMPS contains two thiolate groups and one sulfonate group, and the thiol groups of the DMPS chelate Cd<sup>2+</sup> in fourfold coordination (Zeini Jahromi et al., 2014, Fig. 1i and 1j). For 1:1 Cd-DMPS complexes, the calculated average distance of Cd to its S donor atoms was 2.48 Å. For 1:2 Cd-DMPS complexes, the average bond distance to four S donor atoms was 2.69 Å. The calculated bond lengths were
consistent with the previously published values (Table 1b) (Zeini Jahromi et al.,
2014).

For  $Cd(cvs)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  (Fig. 1k), the thiol group of cysteine tends to bind the metal 230 ion by S donor atoms when cysteine is present in excess (Jalilehvand et al., 2009; 231 Fujii et al., 2014). In our study, Cd was bound to three water molecules and one thiol 232 group of cysteine, the bond length of Cd to its S donor atoms was 2.48 Å, which was 233 slightly shorter than the experimental data of Cd-cysteine 2.52-2.54 Å (Jalilehvand et 234 al., 2009). Glutathione,  $\gamma$ -Glu-Cys-Gly, is a thiol-containing tripeptide, and the 235 ligands of 1:2 Cd-glutathione complexes (Fig. 11) are GS<sup>3-</sup> molecules with amide 236 protons, where Cd has a tetrahedral coordination sphere and the complex primarily 237 238 involves two deprotonated thiol groups from cysteine residues and two water molecules (Delalande et al., 2010). EXAFS spectra of Cd-glutathione complexes 239 suggested Cd was fourfold coordination and S atoms were identified as the binding 240 atoms at 2.54±0.1 Å (Isaure et al., 2015). The calculated Cd-S mean bond distance in 241 this study was in agreement with previous EXAFS result (2.545Å) (Table 1b). 242

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## 244 3.2. Comparison with experimental vibrational frequencies

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Only a few experimentally determined vibrational frequencies exist for organic Cd complexes since they are difficult to determine experimentally. Richet et al. (1977) thought the effects of anharmonicity on the isotope fractionation are expected to be

quite small, here only harmonic vibration was considered. Table 2 lists the calculated harmonic vibrational frequencies of the <sup>114</sup>w isotopomer and <sup>110</sup>w isotopomer of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> and the experimental data by FTIR (Bertoli et al., 2015). The frequency shifts values  $10^3(1 - {}^{114}w/{}^{110}w)$  of Cd isotopes are also listed.

In Table 2,  $w_1$  is the twisting vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching vibration 253 mode of C-O, the experimental vibrational frequencies by Bertoli et al. (2015) was 254 1027.05 cm<sup>-1</sup>, the calculated data by this study were 1041.1681 cm<sup>-1</sup> for  $^{114}w$ 255 isotopomer and 1041.1686 cm<sup>-1</sup> for  ${}^{110}w$  isotopomer, the average value of the 256 calculated frequency of the two isotopomers is about 1.375% higher than 257 experimental data.  $w_2$  is the rocking vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 258 vibration mode of C-C, the experimental data was 1078.98 cm<sup>-1</sup>, the calculated 259 frequencies were 1079.978 cm<sup>-1</sup> for Cd heavy isotope and 1079.9783 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the 260 light one, the average frequency values by this calculation is 0.093% higher than 261 experimental data.  $w_3$  is the twisting vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 262 263 vibration mode of C-C, the calculated average data is 1.041% lower than experimental data. w<sub>4</sub> is the scissoring vibration mode of H-C-H, the average data by calculation is 264 close to the experimental data and the calculated average frequency is 0.490% lower 265 than experimental data.  $w_5$  is the rocking vibration mode of H-C-H with stretching 266 vibration mode of C-C and C-O, the average data by calculation is 0.698% higher 267 than experimental data. w<sub>6</sub> is the wagging vibration mode of H-C-H with scissoring 268 vibration mode of O-H, the frequency difference between experiment and the average 269 theory calculation is 0.142%. The  $w_7$  is the symmetrical stretching vibration and the 270

difference between calculation and experiment is 0.310%. *w*<sup>8</sup> is the symmetrical stretching vibration mode of COO<sup>-</sup>, the difference of calculated data and experimental data is 0.069%. *w*<sup>9</sup> is asymmetrical stretching vibration of COO<sup>-</sup>, the average frequency calculated is 3.187% higher than experimental results. For *w*<sub>10</sub>, it is stretching vibration mode and the calculated result is 0.652% lower than experimental data (Table 2). Overall, the calculated frequencies were generally consistent with previously experimental data of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>.

The accuracy of vibrational frequencies can be further propagated in the final 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$  values (Schauble et al., 2003, 2004; Schauble et al., 2007). Frequency scaling factors can often be used to correct the calculated vibrational frequencies which are able to reproduce the experimental frequencies. However, the simple harmonic frequency calculated by quantum chemistry methods need to be corrected when it is used to calculate isotope fractionation involving larger molecules (Liu et al., 2010; Fujii et al., 2014). Here frequency scaling factors were not needed in this study.

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# 286 3.3. Reduced partition function ratios, $10^3 ln(\beta_{114-110})$ for Cd complexes

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In nature, mass-independent Cd isotope effects may not be significant and mass dependent effects are the main factor for naturally occurring Cd isotope variations (Rehkämper et al., 2011). Here, only the mass-dependent isotope effects for various Cd species have been studied. The calculated reduced partition function ratios  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  of the Cd complexes with varying temperatures from 0 °C to 100 °C calculated in this study are reported in Table 3. <sup>114</sup>Cd and <sup>110</sup>Cd have the largest mass difference among Cd isotopes (Carignan et al., 2004; Wombacher and Rehkämper, 2004), usually <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd isotope ratios were chosen to study the Cd isotope fractionation of Cd partitioning into different chemical complexes. Mass-dependent isotope fractionation is a function of temperature (*T*), and can be expressed as below:

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$$10^3 \ln(\beta_{114-110}) = A \times \frac{10^6}{T^2} + B \tag{6}$$

Where *A*, *B* are the regression parameters, which can be figured out from Table 3. The A, B values of these complexes are listed in Table S2, for comparison their relationship also be figured in Fig. 2. Our calculation shows that the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  of  $^{114}Cd/^{110}Cd$  for these complexes decreases in the order of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_{2}cit)^{-} >$  $Cd(cit)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{-} > CdH(cit)(H_{2}O)_{4} > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_{2}H_{2}O > Cd(cit)_{2}^{4-} \approx$  $Cd(H_{2}O)_{6}^{2+} > Cd(H_{2}O)_{4}^{2+} > Cd(cys)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{2+} > Cd(GS)_{2}(H_{2}O)_{2}^{2-} > Cd(DMPS)(H_{2}O)_{2}^{-}$  $> Cd(DMPS)_{2}^{4-}$  at  $0 \sim 100^{\circ}C$ 

Previous studies demonstrated that the types of donor atoms (O, N, S) of organic 306 ligands are a main driver for Zn isotope fractionation (Albarède et al., 2011; Fujii and 307 Albarède, 2012; Balter et al., 2013; Moynier et al., 2013; Fujii et al., 2014). 308 Particularly, O donors preferentially bind heavier Zn isotopes than S donors. Cd and 309 Zn are in the same group in the periodic table which means that the two elements have 310 the same number of electrons in their outer valence shell. Thus, the elements share 311 similar chemical properties such as a flexible coordination chemistry, they are non-312 redox sensitive, and have similar stability constants (John et al., 2017; Maret and 313 Moulis, 2013; Sóvágó and Várnagy, 2013). It is likely that O, N, and S donor atoms 314

may have a similar effect on Cd isotope fractionation as they do for Zn. This 315 hypothesis has been recently partly verified by Yang et al. (2015) who reported an 316 enrichment of heavy Cd isotopes for O and N compared to S donors of inorganic 317 ligands. In addition, studies on Zn isotopes have shown that the number of 318 319 coordination for the same donor atoms can also determine isotope fractionation (Fujii et al., 2014). For instance, fourfold coordinated Zn-amino acid complexes had larger 320  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values than the sixfold coordinated complexes of the same amino acid. 321 The relationship between the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values and donor atoms type of the Cd 322 complexes at 25°C is given in Fig. 3 (the types and numbers of donor atoms are given 323 in Table S3). For Cd complexes, S or combinations of S and O donor atoms tended to 324 complex with lighter Cd isotopes. Furthermore, the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  disparities induced 325 326 by S and S/O donor atoms were bigger than those by O and O/N donor atoms. The relationship between  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  and mean bond lengths of Cd to its donor atoms at 327 25°C was shown in Fig. 4. Overall, mean coordinated bond lengths of complexes with 328 O donor atoms were shorter than those with S donor atoms, except  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$ . 329 The reason may be that  $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  has three O donors and one S donor. 330

Among all studied Cd complexes, Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> has the largest  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$ values while Cd(DMPS)<sub>2</sub><sup>4-</sup> has the smallest  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values (Fig. 2 and Table 3), their difference can reach 1.18 at 25°C. Cd-citrate complexes can be fourfold coordinated (Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> and Cd(cit)<sub>2</sub><sup>4-</sup>) and sixfold coordinated (CdH(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub> and Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and their  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values can differ up to 0.213 at 25°C which means that the structure difference of these Cd-citrate complexes can result in

Cd isotope fractionation (Fig. 1, 2). In addition,  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of fourfold 337 coordinated Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup> were larger than those of sixfold coordinated 338  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ , but those of  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$  are smaller than those of 339  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ . Thus, for Cd-citrate complexes, the coordination 340 number is only one of the factors that have an effect on Cd isotope fractionation, 341 when estimating Cd isotope fractionation of them, other factors should be considered. 342 The Cd-cysteine, Cd-GSH, and Cd-DMPS complexes contain S donor atoms. Our 343 calculations revealed that these Cd complexes had lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values in 344 comparison with hydrated Cd complexes and organic Cd complexes that contained O 345 and N donor atoms (Table 3 and Fig. 3). The lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values in S 346 containing ligands is in agreement with previous studies that reported  $10^{3}$ ln $\beta$  values 347 for inorganic Cd (Yang et al., 2015) and organic Zn complexes (Fujii et al., 2014). 348 Among the complexes that contained S and O donor atoms in this study, their 349  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values slightly differed. For instance, Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and 350  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$  were complexed with two S donor atoms from the organic 351 molecules and two O donor atoms from water molecules. The average bond lengths of 352 Cd-S in Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.48 Å) was shorter than that in Cd(GS)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup> (2.545 353 Å, Table 1 and S3). The average Cd-O bond lengths in Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.95 Å) 354 were longer than that of  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$  (2.415 Å). Our data suggests that chelators 355 with S ligands significantly change the bond lengths between Cd and other donor 356 atoms than S which might contribute to the lower  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  value in the chelating 357  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$  complex. 358

As anticipated, the  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of Cd(DMPS)<sub>2</sub><sup>4</sup>, a Cd chelating complex 359 with four S and no O donor atoms, was smaller compared to Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> 360 (Table 3 and Fig. 3). This observation agrees with previously published calculations 361 of Zn sulfides where the smallest fractionation occurred in Zn sulfide complexes with 362 363 four S donor atoms compared to Zn sulfide complexes contained mixtures of S and O donor atoms (Fujii et al., 2011). Together, our data suggests that a large shift towards 364 light isotopes occurs when Cd is complexed to a chelating organic ligand with two or 365 four S donor atoms when compared non-chelating S donor atoms and O/N donor 366 367 atoms in general.

Experimentally obtained isotope fractionation factors for Zn (Marković et al., 2017) 368 and Cu (Ryan et al., 2014) complexes reported a direct relation between the stability 369 370 of complexes and the extent and isotope fractionation factors. This relation was also observed in our data, however, the difference of  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values between metal 371 chelator CdEDTA and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O was comparably small (0.027 at 25°C, Fig. 2 and 372 Table 3). Though CdEDTA forms more stable complexes than Cd-histidine 373 complexes (Sóvágó and Várnagy, 2013; Karak et al., 2016), the coordination number 374 was six for both complexes while the CdEDTA had four O and two N donor atoms 375 and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O had four N and two O donor atoms, and the average bond lengths 376 between the central Cd atom and its donor atoms were very similar: CdEDTA 2.367 377 Å (Cd-O: 2.26, 2.36 Å; Cd-N: 2.48 Å); Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O 2.378 Å (Cd-O: 2.26 Å; Cd-N: 378 2.41-2.48 Å, Table S3 and Fig. 4). Hence, the small differences in Cd isotope 379 fractionation between the two complexes might have been demonstrated by the 380

distinct coordination and bond lengths of the two complexes.

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# 383 *3.4. Error analysis for Cd isotope fractionation*

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Vacuo and solvation models can cause isotope fractionation factors inaccuracies 385 (Hill and Schauble, 2008; Yang et al., 2015). In ideal vacuum gaseous conditions, the 386 influence of the surrounding environment such as solvents on the solute molecules in 387 the real system is ignored. To overcome this limitation, some solvent models were 388 established to simulate the effects of solvents on solutes. The polarized continuum 389 models (PCMs) are widely used to simulate the aqueous environment (Tomasi et al., 390 2005; Tsipis, 2014). However, Yang et al. (2015) found that the bond lengths 391 392 optimized by IEFPCM model are larger than those by vacuo model and the  $10^{3} \ln(\beta_{114-})$ 110) results calculated in the IEFPCM model are smaller than those in vacuo model, 393 and thought that the optimized structures and lnß values of Cd complexes calculated 394 in vacuo are more consistent with the experimental data. For comparison, the implicit 395 solvation models IEFPCM (the integral-equation-formalism versions of PCM) and 396 CPCM (conductor-like PCM) were used to calculate the optimized molecular 397 structures and  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  at 25°C for studied complexes (Table S4 and S5), as well 398 as the model of  $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$  with second hydration sphere  $Cd(H_2O)_{18}^{2+}$  (Table S6). 399 Our calculation showed that most of the bond lengths optimized in solution by this 400 study were larger than those in vacuum (Table S4). This was agreement with the 401 results of inorganic Cd complexes (Yang et al., 2015). For  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values, not 402

only does difference exist between two implicit models and vacuum model but also 403 between two implicit models. By comparing with vacuum model, IEFPCM and 404 CPCM solvation models decrease the  $10^{3} \ln\beta$  of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.346 and 0.221 at 25°C 405 respectively, and increase the  $10^3 \ln\beta$  of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.139 and 0.166 at 25°C 406 respectively. For Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>, CdH(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub>, Cd(cit)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O, 407 IEFPCM and CPCM model decrease the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  by 0.175-0.580 and 0.206-0.567 and 408 increase the  $10^3 ln\beta$  of Cd(cys)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>3</sub><sup>2+</sup> by 0.281 and 0.401 at 25°C respectively. For 409  $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ , CdEDTA,  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$ , these two models increase the 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$  by less than 410 0.1 at 25°C. For Cd(GS)<sub>2</sub>(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup>, the IEFPCM solvation model decrease the  $10^{3}$ ln $\beta$ 411 by 0.109 and CPCM model increase the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  by less than 0.1 at 25°C, the implicit 412 solvation models have different effects on Cd isotope fractionation (Table S5). The 413 414 main reason may be that the simple harmonic vibrational frequencies have been polluted by translation and rotation which make the inaccurate for frequencies data in 415 solvation models (Yang et al., 2015), and the levels of "pollution" may be different for 416 different Cd complexes. 417

Setting the second hydration sphere is able to make the calculated frequencies closer to the experimental values and improve the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  for Ni and Zn (Fujii et al., 2014), the same phenomenon may occur in Cd hydrate species. Our calculation showed that for Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup>, the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  values for the explicit model as Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup> is 2.377 and 1.990, 1.923 for explicit model + IEFPCM and explicit model + CPCM at 25°C respectively. Compared with the vacuum model, the explicit model increases the  $10^{3}\ln\beta$  values and explicit + implicit model decrease them (Table S6). The total symmetric stretching mode of hexaaqua complexes,  $v_1$  CdO<sub>6</sub>, is shown in Table S6. The calculated  $v_1$  frequency values of large cluster Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup>, Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> + IEFPCM and Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> + CPCM are closer to previous calculation and experimental data than that of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> (Table S6), which means solvation models make the frequency values closer the literature values and the solvent effect on 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$ values are needed to be considered.

Frequency is another most frequently mentioned factor that may cause uncertainties 431 or errors of the calculated reduced partition function ratios (Schauble et al., 2003, 432 2004; Schauble et al., 2007; Méheut et al., 2007, 2009; Weeks et al., 2007; Yang et 433 al., 2015). For lack of experimental vibrational frequency of Cd organic complexes, it 434 is impossible to evaluate the RPFR errors for them, and different vibration 435 frequencies may lead to discrepant uncertainty in  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values at  $25\Box$  (Vogt 436 et al., 1993; Schauble, 2007; Yang et al., 2015). Based on existing experimental 437 frequency data of  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$  and this calculation, the maximum difference 438 between them is 3.187%, and the average deviation is about 0.293%. Based on 439 Schauble (2007, 2011), calculated frequencies may lead to an error of less than 0.6% 440 for  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  values of Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>. 441

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3.5 Implications for Cd process tracing applications in biogeochemistry, supergene
geochemistry and environmental science

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446 Metal isotope fractionation can be used to trace processes that control the

distribution of an element in terrestrial and aquatic environments. Previous 447 experimental studies hypothesized that the Cd isotope fractionation is strongly linked 448 to Cd speciation to organic ligands with S donor atoms to detoxify and immobilize Cd 449 in living organisms (Horner et al., 2013; Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2021; Imseng et 450 451 al., 2019). Results by this study and Yang et al. (2015) revealed that an enrichment of light isotopes occurs in thiol ligands when compared to hydrated Cd and Cd bound to 452 O/N donor atoms of organic ligands, which will strengthen not only Cd isotopes as a 453 process tracing tool, but also the understanding of Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and 454 terrestrial systems. For example, to reduce inputs of the toxic trace metal Cd into the 455 food chain of humans and animals, processes that control the mobility of Cd in 456 terrestrial and aquatic environments need to be well understood. The results that 457 458 heavy Cd isotopes preferably bind to oxygen and nitrogen donor atoms while light Cd isotopes bind to sulfur donor atoms of organic ligands compared to hydrated Cd<sup>2+</sup> 459 provides information on processes on the immobilization of Cd isotopes in living 460 organisms which are related to Cd detoxification processes with sulfur. 461

Furthermore, the strongest Cd isotope fractionation compared to hydrated Cd occurred in chelating S donor ligands, particularly in a chelating S donor ligand in which Cd is exclusively bound to S. Thus, our data confirms the hypothesis that the retention of light isotopes in roots and shoots of grasses (Wiggenhauser et al., 2016, 2021; Imseng et al., 2019) and membranes of *E. Coli* (Horner et al., 2013) could be induced by the immobilization of light Cd isotopes through strong Cd binding to chelators with S donor atoms such as phytochelatins (Clemens et al. 2019). This

chelation would retain light Cd isotopes e.g., in the roots of cereals, while other 469 chemical Cd species such as hydrated Cd that are enriched in heavy isotopes can be 470 transported by membrane proteins towards the shoot. The Cd isotope fractionation 471 induced by chelating thiols may have implications on Cd isotope fractionation in other 472 473 plants than grasses. Cd hyperaccumulator plants can cope with high Cd concentrations and store, unlike cereals, the majority of the Cd taken up from soils in their shoots 474 (Zhou et al. 2020). To cope with the high Cd shoot concentrations, Cd is mostly 475 bound to O donor atoms of e.g., organic acids and to a lesser extent to S donors (Tian 476 477 et al. 2011; Isaure et al. 2015). Based on our findings, the Cd isotope fractionation in Cd accumulating plants could potentially provide novel insights into the role of Cd 478 binding to different donor atoms on the translocation of Cd within the shoot. Recent 479 480 studies focused on Cd isotope fractionation in cacao since cacao beans often exceed the threshold values for Cd potentially leading to elevated Cd concentrations in 481 chocolate (Moore et al. 2020; Barraza et al. 2019). Similar to grasses such as wheat, 482 rice, and barley, cacao seems to retain Cd and its light isotopes in the roots (Moore et 483 al. 2020). Our findings suggest that Cd binding to thiols may play also a crucial role 484 to retain Cd in roots of cacao and thereby limit the Cd transport into cacao beans. 485 Our results further suggest that Cd ligands, especially thiols, may play a key role in 486 Cd isotope fractionation in living organisms, soils, and waters. In this study, the Cd 487 isotope fractionation between hydrated Cd and Cd chelated by S donor atoms was  $\sim$ 488

1‰. The largest Cd isotope fractionation that has been observed between roots and
shoots of plants that strongly retain light Cd isotopes in roots was around 0.60 ‰

(Wiggenhauser et al. 2016, 2021; Imseng et al. 2018; Moore et al. 2020). The 491 difference between our results and the experimentally determined Cd isotopes 492 fractionation between root and shoots may be caused by additional isotope effects that 493 complement isotope effects at equilibrium. The transfer from root to shoot includes 494 membrane transport (Deng et al. 2019). This transport requires fast binding of Cd to a 495 metal binding site of a membrane protein prior to unidirectional membrane transport 496 (Wang et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016). Thus, membrane transport might be at least 497 partly kinetically controlled (Köbberich and Vance, 2017). Kinetically controlled 498 processes favor light isotopes through their faster reaction rates (Wiederhold, 2015) 499 while type of metal binding sites of a membrane transproters (e.g., cysteine, histidine) 500 might play an additional role for isotope fractionation during membrane transport. 501 502 Together, our results suggest that equilibrium Cd isotope fractionation in plants induced by binding of Cd to organic molecules occur in parallel to kinetic isotope 503 effects. 504

505 In soils, sediments, and water, organic matter poses an important binding site for Cd and partly controls the mobility of Cd. For instance, soil organic matter derives 506 from decomposed biomass and provides a mixture of O, N, and S donor atoms for Cd 507 in the solid and liquid phase of the soil (Karlsson et al., 2007; Tiberg et al., 2018). 508 Besides processes such as Cd sulfide precipitation and Cd uptake into phytoplankton, 509 soluble organic ligands might significantly control the Cd distribution in water 510 columns and sediments during the oceanic Cd cycle (Guinoiseau et al., 2018). Our 511 data implies that Cd sorption of Cd to organic matter can enrich or deplete the 512

hydrated Cd pool in heavy and could provide further insights into the role of specific
binding sites of organic matter on Cd cycling in the environment.

515

## 516 **4. Conclusion**

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This study provides a first prediction that describes Cd equilibrium isotope 518 fractionation induced by Cd complexation to organic ligands. The  $10^{3} \ln\beta$  of 519 <sup>114</sup>Cd/<sup>110</sup>Cd for these investigated complexes decreased in the order of 520  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^- > Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^- > CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > CdEDTA > Cd(his)_2H_2O > Cd(his)_2H_2O$ 521  $Cd(cit)_{2}^{4-} \approx Cd(H_{2}O)_{6}^{2+} > Cd(H_{2}O)_{4}^{2+} > Cd(cys)(H_{2}O)_{3}^{2+} > Cd(GS)_{2}(H_{2}O)_{2}^{2-} > Cd(G$ 522  $Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_2^- > Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$  at 0 ~ 100°C. The sequence reveals that Cd 523 524 complexation to organic ligands with O and N donor atoms are enriched in heavy isotopes while to organic ligands with S donor atoms are enriched with light isotopes. 525 These results provide important information to advance Cd isotopes as a process 526 tracing tool in complex biological systems and further improve the understanding of 527 Cd isotope cycling in aquatic and terrestrial systems. 528

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531

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538

### 539 Appendices. Supplementary material

540

Table S1: Comparing the experimental vibrational frequencies with calculated results 541 employed by four different exchange correlation functionals  $(^{110}w)$ 542 for Cd(Hcit)(H<sub>2</sub>cit)<sup>-</sup>. Table S2: The fitting factors A, B for  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})=A\times10^{6}/T^{2}+B$  (T 543 is K). Table S3: The donor atoms, coordinated bond lengths (Å) and mean bond 544 lengths (Å) for Cd complexes. Table S4a: Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the Cd 545 546 hydration complexes and citrate complexes calculated with solvation models. Table S4b: Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the organic Cd complexes calculated with 547 solvation models. Table S5: The  $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$  of Cd complexes calculated in vacuo 548 and solvation models (IEFPCM, CPCM) at 25°C. Table S6: The vibrational 549 frequencies (<sup>110</sup>w) and 10<sup>3</sup>ln $\beta$  values of Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup> and Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>18</sub><sup>2+</sup>. 550

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930 Figure Captions:

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932	Fig. 1. Optimized molecular structures for various Cd species. a-b: Cd hydrate; c-f: Cd-citrate, the
933	original source of the structure derives from Bertoli et al. (2015) and Fujii et al. (2012); g:
934	CdEDTA (Kovács et al., 2010); h: Cd-histidine (Colaneri et al., 2013); i-j: Cd-DMPS (Zeini
935	Jahromi et al., 2014); k: Cd-cysteine (Jalilehvand et al., 2009 and Fujii et al., 2014); l: Cd-
936	glutathione (Delalande et al., 2010). Abbreviations are cit (citrate), EDTA
937	(ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid), his (histidine), DMPS (dimercaptopropane sulfonic acid), cys
938	(cysteine), and deprotonated glutathione (GSH) is shown as GS. Symbol keys: H (white), C
939	(grey), N (blue), O (red), S (purple), Cd (yellow).
940	Fig. 2. Temperature dependence of $10^{3}\ln(\beta_{114-110})$ for Cd hydrate, citrate, EDTA, histidine, DMPS,
941	cysteine and glutathione complexes. X-axis shows the function of $10^{6}/T^{2}$ (lower shaft) and
942	corresponding temperature (upper shaft, 0-100 $\Box$ ), Y-axis shows the 10 <sup>3</sup> ln( $\beta_{114-110}$ ) values.
943	Fig. 3. Cd ( <sup>114</sup> Cd/ <sup>110</sup> Cd) isotopic variations with different donor atoms at 25°C. The complexes
944	with O donor atoms are shown as $\square$ ; N,O donor complexes as $\triangle$ ; S,O donor complexes as $\square$ ; S
945	donor complexes as $\circ$ . For O donor complexes, the order of $10^3 ln(\beta_{114-110})$ values at 25°C from
946	small to large is $Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+} < Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+} \approx Cd(cit)_2^{4-} < CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4 < Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^{-} < Cd(cit)(H_2O)_6^{2+} < $
947	$Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)$ ; For N,O donor complexes, the order is $Cd(his)_2H_2O < CdEDTA$ ; For S,O donor
948	complexes, the order is $Cd(DMPS)(H_2O)_{2^-} < Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_{2^{2^-}} < Cd(cys)(H_2O)_{3^{2^+}}$ ; The S donor
949	complex is $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$ .

**Fig. 4.** Reduced partition function ratios,  $10^{3}$ ln ( $\beta_{114-110}$ ) vs. mean bond length (Å) at 25°C. Just as Fig. 3, the complexes with O donor atoms are shown as  $\mathbb{Z}$ , including Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>4</sub><sup>2+</sup>, Cd(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>6</sub><sup>2+</sup>,

- $Cd(cit)_2^{4-}$ ,  $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^-$ ,  $CdH(cit)(H_2O)_4$  and  $Cd(cit)(H_2O)_3^-$ ; N,O donor complexes as  $\Delta$ ,
- 953 including CdEDTA and Cd(his)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>O; S,O donor complexes as □, including Cd(DMPS)(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>,
- $Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$  and  $Cd(GS)_2(H_2O)_2^{2-}$ ; S donor complex as  $\circ$ , is  $Cd(DMPS)_2^{4-}$ .











	-	-		-	-	-
	$Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$	$Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$	Cd(cit)24-	Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup>	CdH(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>4</sub>	Cd(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub>
Cd-O	2.24	2.33	2.22,2.21	2.20,2.14,	2.24,2.31,2.31,	2.24,2.28,2.29,
				2.14,2.38	2.37,2.34,2.40	2.43,2.42,2.35
	2.24 <sup>a</sup>	2.33 <sup>a</sup>	2.34-2.37 <sup>b</sup>			

**Table 1a** Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the Cd hydration complexes and citrate complexes.

<sup>a</sup> Yang et al., 2015

<sup>b</sup> Bertoli et al., 2015

Table 1b Optimized bond lengths (Å) of the organic Cd complexes.								
	CdEDTA	Cd(his) <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O	Cd(DMPS) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup>	Cd(DMPS)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$(H_2O)_2^-$ Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+} Cd(GS) <sub>2</sub> (H			
Cd-O	2.26,2.36	2.26		2.39,3.51	2.33,2.32,2.32	2.29,2.54		
	2.24,2.40 <sup>a</sup>	2.48 <sup>b</sup>		2.39 <sup>c</sup>				
Cd N	2.48	2.41,2.45,						
Cu-N		2.41,2.48						
	2.46 <sup>a</sup>	2.287,2.29 <sup>b</sup>						
CdS			2.70,2.68,	2 51 2 45	2.48	2 51 2 58		
Ca-S			2.67,2.71	2.31,2.43	2.40	2.31,2.38		
			2.57 <sup>c</sup>	2.48 <sup>c</sup>	$2.52-2.54^{d}$	2.53-2.55 <sup>e</sup>		

<sup>a</sup> Kovács et al., 2010

<sup>b</sup> Colaneri et al., 2013

<sup>c</sup> Zeini Jahromi et al., 2014

<sup>d</sup> Jalilehvand et al., 2009

<sup>e</sup> Isaure et al., 2015

-			2, .				
<i>i</i> -1	Vilandian Madaa	Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup>					
w/cm <sup>-1</sup>	vibration Modes	EXP <sup>a</sup>	<sup>114</sup> <i>w</i>	<sup>110</sup> w	$10^3(1-^{114}w/^{110}w)$		
WI	$\tau$ (HCH) + v(CO)	1027.05	1041.1681	1041.1686	0.0005		
<i>w</i> <sub>2</sub>	$\rho(HCH) + v(CC)$	1078.98	1079.978	1079.9783	0.0003		
<i>w</i> <sub>3</sub>	$\tau$ (HCH) + v(CC)	1095.98	1084.5717	1084.5721	0.0004		
$w_4$	$\delta_{sciss}(HCH)$	1207.78	1201.8587	1201.8594	0.0006		
<i>w</i> <sub>5</sub>	$\rho(\text{HCH}) + v(\text{CC}) + v(\text{CO})$	1248.26	1256.977	1256.9772	0.0002		
<i>w</i> <sub>6</sub>	$\omega$ (HCH) + $\delta$ (OH)	1280.53	1282.3539	1282.3541	0.0002		
<i>w</i> <sub>7</sub>	V <sub>s</sub>	1391.44	1387.1308	1387.1311	0.0002		
$w_8$	v <sub>s</sub> (COO <sup>-</sup> )	1445.87	1444.8795	1444.8795	0.0000		
<i>W</i> 9	$v_{as}(COO^{-})$	1638.70	1690.9311	1690.9322	0.0007		
$w_{10}$	v(OH)	3350.46	3328.6313	3328.6316	0.0001		

Table 2 Comparing the experimental vibrational frequencies with calculated results for $Cd(Hcit)(H_2cit)^{-}$ .

δ: scissoring vibration; ρ: rocking vibration; ω: wagging vibration; τ: twisting vibration;  $ν_s$ : symmetrical stretching vibration;  $ν_{as}$ : asymmetrical stretching vibration.

<sup>a</sup> Experimental data obtained for Cd (not Cd isotope specific) by Bertoli et al. (2015).

T(°C)	0	10	25	40	50	100
$Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$	2.537	2.370	$2.148 \pm 0.0046$	1.956	1.841	1.395
Cd(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>6</sub> <sup>2+</sup>	2.711	2.530	$2.292 \pm 0.0039$	2.085	1.962	1.484
Cd(cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup>	2.715	2.533	$2.292 \pm 0.0029$	2.084	1.961	1.481
Cd(Hcit)(H <sub>2</sub> cit) <sup>-</sup>	2.961	2.765	$2.505 \pm 0.0039$	2.280	2.147	1.626
CdH(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>4</sub>	2.871	2.681	$2.429 \pm 0.0038$	2.211	2.081	1.576
Cd(cit)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>3</sub>	2.943	2.749	$2.491 \pm 0.0046$	2.268	2.135	1.618
CdEDTA	2.811	2.621	$2.371 \pm 0.0026$	2.155	2.026	1.529
Cd(his) <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> O	2.777	2.590	$2.344 \pm 0.0027$	2.131	2.005	1.514
Cd(DMPS) <sub>2</sub> <sup>4-</sup>	1.575	1.467	$1.325 \pm 0.0011$	1.203	1.130	0.850
Cd(DMPS)(H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub>	2.086	1.946	$1.761 \pm 0.0022$	1.601	1.506	1.138
$Cd(cys)(H_2O)_3^{2+}$	2.233	2.084	$1.887 \pm 0.0026$	1.716	1.614	1.220
Cd(GS) <sub>2</sub> (H <sub>2</sub> O) <sub>2</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	2.130	1.987	$1.799 \pm 0.0025$	1.635	1.539	1.162

**Table 3** Calculated  $10^{3}ln(\beta_{114-110})$  for Cd complexes from 0 to 100 °C.

Supplementary file

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## Highlights:

The isotope fractionation order of selected Cd organic complexes was given.

Compared to hydrated Cd, organic complexes with O and N donors enrich heavier Cd isotopes, complexes with S donors enrich lighter isotopes.

Organic ligands with S donors: chelating ligands were enriched in light isotope compared to non-chelating ligands.

 $Cd(H_2O)_6^{2+}$  is enriched in heavy isotope compared to  $Cd(H_2O)_4^{2+}$ .