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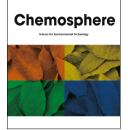
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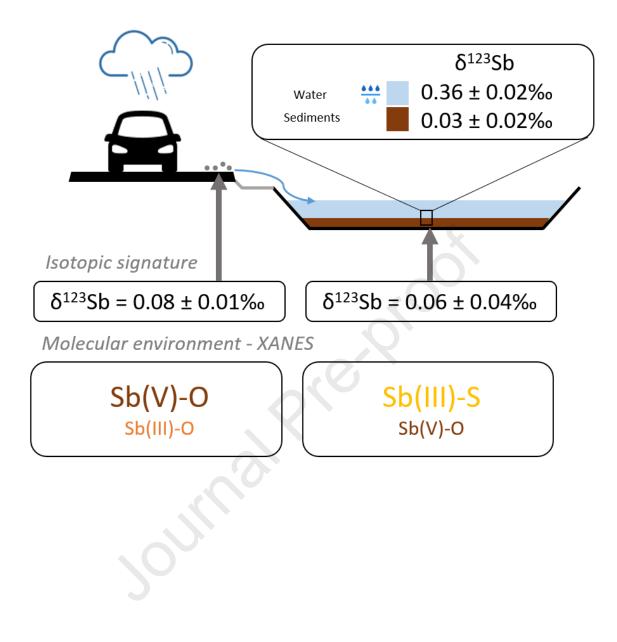
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#### Highlights 27

- Highway stormwater ponds concentrate Sb contamination from road runoff 28 •
- Sb isotopic composition of stormwater pond sediments is close to that of road dusts 29 •
- Sb(V)-O, Sb(III)-O, and Sb(III)-S species occur in the road-to-pond continuum 30 •
- Sb(III)-S species are observed as a specific signature of underwater reduced samples 31 •
- Sb speciation changes along the waterway show the high geochemical reactivity of Sb 32 •
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#### 34 Abstract

35 Although antimony (Sb) contamination has been documented in urban areas, knowledge gaps remain concerning the contributions of the different sources to the Sb urban biogeochemical 36 37 cycle, including non-exhaust road traffic emissions, urban materials leaching/erosion and waste incineration. Additionally, details are lacking about Sb chemical forms involved in urban 38 soils, sediments and water bodies. Here, with the aim to document the fate of metallic 39 contaminants emitted through non-exhaust traffic emissions in urban aquatic systems, we 40 studied trace element contamination, with a particular focus on Sb geochemistry, in three 41 highway stormwater pond systems, standing as models of surface environments receiving 42 road-water runoff. In all systems, differentiated on the basis of lead isotopic signatures, Sb 43 shows the higher enrichment factor with respect to the geochemical background, up to 130, 44 compared to other traffic-related inorganic contaminants (Co, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Pb). 45 Measurements of Sb isotopic composition ( $\delta^{123}$ Sb) performed on solid samples, including air-46 47 exposed dusts and underwater sediments, show an average signature of  $0.07 \pm 0.05\%$  (n=25, all sites), close to the  $\delta^{123}$ Sb value measured previously in certified reference material of road 48 dust (BCR 723,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = 0.03 ± 0.05‰). Moreover, a fractionation of Sb isotopes is observed 49 between solid and dissolved phases in one sample (n=3 samples), which might result from Sb 50 (bio)reduction and/or adsorption processes. SEM-EDXS investigations show the presence of 51 discrete submicrometric particles concentrating Sb in all the systems, interpreted as friction 52 53 residues of Sb-containing brake pads. Sb solid speciation determined by linear combination 54 fitting of X-Ray Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES) spectra at the Sb K-edge shows an 55 important spatial variability in the ponds, with Sb chemical forms likely driven by local redox conditions: "dry" samples exposed to air exhibited contributions from Sb(V)-O (44% to 100%) 56 and Sb(III)-O (<10% to 56%) species whereas only underwater samples, representative of 57 58 suboxic/anoxic conditions, showed an additional contribution from Sb(III)-S (48% to 81%) species. Altogether, these results confirm the traffic emission as a specific source of Sb 59 emission in surface environments. The spatial variations of Sb speciation observed likely 60

reflect an important geochemical reactivity in this context, which could have important
 implications on Sb transfer properties in (sub)surface hydrosystems.

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Keywords: antimony, road traffic contamination, stormwater ponds, Sb isotopes, Sb
 speciation, Pb isotopes.

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Journal Pression

## 67 **1. Introduction**

68 Global-scale antimony (Sb) contamination has been recorded in ice cores since the early 1900s (Krachler et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2021). In particular, the increase in Sb 69 concentrations has been interpreted as a rise of anthropogenic inputs related to waste 70 incineration and mining (Krachler et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2021). At the urban scale, different 71 72 sources contribute to the Sb biogeochemical cycle, including non-exhaust road traffic emissions, urban materials leaching/erosion and waste incineration (Filella et al., 2009). In the 73 urban Orge River basin (Paris region, France), an increase in Sb enrichment factors in river 74 suspended particulate matters (SPM) has been persistently observed along the increasing 75 76 urbanization gradient (Le Pape et al., 2012; Froger et al., 2018). In Budapest (Hungary), Sb atmospheric contamination has been observed in urban aerosols, showing extreme 77 enrichment factors, from 5,097 in PM<sub>10</sub> to 18,892 in PM<sub>2</sub>, and were interpreted as resulting 78 from road traffic (Salma and Maenhaut, 2006). Indeed, road traffic is known to induce 79 80 emissions of inorganic contaminants due for instance to abrasion of brake pads (Von Uexküll et al., 2005; Napier et al., 2008; Hu et al., 2017), namely copper (Cu), zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd), 81 chromium (Cr) and Sb. In particular, Sb has been used in brake pads lubricants ( $Sb_2S_3$ ) as 82 replacement for asbestos (Chan and Stachowiak, 2004; Lee et al., 2013). Additionally, metallic 83 84 trace element emissions are also reported as originating from tires and oils combustion or leakage (Hjortenkrans et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2001; Johansson et al., 2009) and other urban 85 materials such as safety barriers, road paints or cigarette butts (Zhang et al., 2004; Moriwaki 86 et al., 2009; Kibblewhite, 2018; Turner and Filella, 2020). After their emission at the road scale, 87 88 these contaminants are transported by road runoff and potentially impact the quality of surface 89 waters (Helmreich et al., 2010; Le Pape et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017; Froger et al., 2018). Although traffic is generally mentioned as a major source of Sb in the urban environment 90 (Hjortenkrans et al., 2006; Johansson et al., 2009), its contribution to the global urban Sb 91 contamination is poorly quantified. Nonetheless, identification of the contributions of the 92 diverse sources and pathways of Sb contamination could lead to a better management of this 93

94 pervasive and persistent geochemical enrichment, for instance by adapting public policy to95 control or remove part of these contamination sources.

96 Highway stormwater ponds, located along roads, are recognized as efficient accumulators 97 of road contaminations since they directly receive the runoff water leaching roads and other surfaces contaminated by vehicles-related emissions (Hares and Ward, 1999; Clozel et al., 98 2006; Hwang et al., 2016). Additionally, as some of these stormwater pond systems are 99 vegetated, and harbour sedimentary systems representative of urban soils and sediments, 100 101 they stand as interesting model hydrosystems (Stachel et al., 2010) to study the mechanism of Sb accumulation from road emissions. While Cu, Zn, Cd, Cr and Pb concentrations from 102 measurements in road and street dusts are often reported in the literature (e.g. Ahmed and 103 104 Ishiga, 2006; Haus et al., 2007), Sb enrichment and chemistry have rarely been studied in 105 road-related environments, in particular in such stormwater pond systems. A few data are currently available for road ponds, and only focusing on Sb contamination level based on the 106 107 measurements of its concentrations in bulk and dissolved fraction of pond water samples from Germany, England, Sweden and Canada (up to 11 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> (Kamalakkannan et al., 2004; 108 109 Stachel et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2015; Perron and Pick, 2020)) and in sediments from a UK motorway drainage pond (1.44 – 2.01 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Kamalakkannan et al., 2004). However, neither 110 speciation nor isotopic measurements are currently available on these accumulating pond 111 system media, data which could be extended to surface media exposed to road emissions 112 such as urban areas in general. 113

To study the sources and the transfer pathways of contaminant-bearing particles, the relative abundance in contaminant isotopes in both the aqueous and the solid phases has proven to be an informative geochemical parameter (Monna et al., 1997). For instance, in urban context, <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb *vs.* <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb ratios have been used as anthropogenic source tracers in soils (Emmanuel and Erel, 2002), or to estimate the urban pressure exerted on urban rivers (Ayrault et al., 2012; Le Pape et al., 2013). Indeed, Pb is a common and abundant contaminant of urban environments, whose isotopic composition allows discriminating

121 between natural and anthropogenic sources for lead-bearing particles (Ayrault et al., 2012). Comparatively, Sb isotopic signature has been scarcely used in the literature, and has never 122 123 been used to trace Sb contamination in the urban context. The pioneering study of Rouxel et al. (2003) gives the first values of Sb fractionation between <sup>123</sup>Sb and <sup>121</sup>Sb for different natural 124 samples representative of diverse sources at the Earth surface, including seawater and main 125 geological rocks. This study also suggests that Sb isotopic fractionation could be a useful tracer 126 for biogeochemical processes affecting Sb, such as changes in oxidation state. More recently, 127 in environmental sciences,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb has been used to trace the contributions from different Sb-128 sources in mine-impacted streams (Resongles et al., 2015b). Thus, Sb isotopic signature has 129 a good potential for both discriminating the sources of Sb at the site scale and could also help 130 to trace the local biogeochemical processes involving changes of oxidation state, ligand 131 exchange, or adsorption onto natural particles (Ferrari et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022). 132

Determining the physico-chemical processes governing Sb mobility in surface 133 environments is essential to unravel the transfer pathways leading to the dissemination of this 134 toxic metalloid. As Sb is a redox sensitive element, Sb mobility is strongly driven by its 135 136 speciation in both the aqueous and the solid phases. In (sub-)surface soils and sediments, Sb harbours two oxidation states, Sb(III) and Sb(V), the latter form presenting the higher solubility 137 (Johnston et al., 2020). Thus, determining Sb speciation is of prime importance to predict Sb 138 short- to long- term transfer properties. Currently, the few information on Sb speciation have 139 140 been obtained via chemical extractive methods applied to road soils, road dusts, and airborne 141 particles (Amereih et al., 2005; Quiroz et al., 2013; Sánchez-Rodas et al., 2017), showing various contributions from both Sb(III) and Sb(V) species. Varrica et al. (2013) have measured 142 Sb speciation via X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS) at the Sb K-edge in various urban 143 particles, and observed a mix of Sb(V)-O, Sb(III)-O and Sb(III)-S molecular environments, 144 145 interpreted as directly resulting from brake pad friction and abrasion (Cho et al., 2006; Martinez and Echeberria, 2016). Thus, a full comprehensive description of Sb speciation along the road-146 to-pond continuum is necessary to determine whether Sb speciation is inherited from direct 147

traffic inputs or can be further influenced by local biogeochemical processes taking place insurface soils and sediments.

150 Here, we have compared the level of trace metal contamination, including Sb, in three stormwater pond systems along roads presenting high traffic volumes in the Ile-de-France 151 region (France). These sites are taken as model systems representative of surface 152 environment accumulating the contaminations from road traffic, which can be largely found in 153 urban areas (e.g. urban hydrosystems, rivers, wetlands). Additionally, the studied sites are 154 155 representative of different land uses (rural and urban) and of different chronologies of dust and sediment deposition. Both sediments and waters were sampled in the road-to-pond continuum, 156 with the aim to reveal the spatial evolution of trace element contamination from emission to 157 deposition in near road environments. Thanks to a combination of techniques, including 158 contaminant concentration analyses (among them Cu, Cd, Cr, Ni, Pb, Sb, Zn), analysis of 159 relative abundance of Pb and Sb isotopes, and speciation analysis of Sb, we highlight key 160 steps of Sb biogeochemical cycle in surface environments impacted by road traffic. Thus, we 161 show that the level and type of contamination of pond systems is likely related to the nature of 162 drained surfaces (urban vs. rural) and extent of particle accumulation. Then, we identified a 163 specific  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signature of highway stormwater pond samples, including road dusts and 164 sediments, which is shown to be close of that reported elsewhere for road dust. Finally, we 165 studied in detail the variations of Sb speciation by the mean of XANES at the Sb K-edge in 166 167 solid samples along the road-to-pond continuum, showing that Sb presents an important geochemical reactivity, with multiple oxidation states and ligands involved as a function of the 168 local redox conditions. 169

170 **2. Materials and methods** 

# 171 **2.1. Study sites**

The three highway stormwater pond systems studied are located in the south of Île-de-France region in the Orge River watershed (Fig. SI-1.1). Previous researches performed in the Orge River basin have provided a good knowledge of land use, geology, spatial and temporal

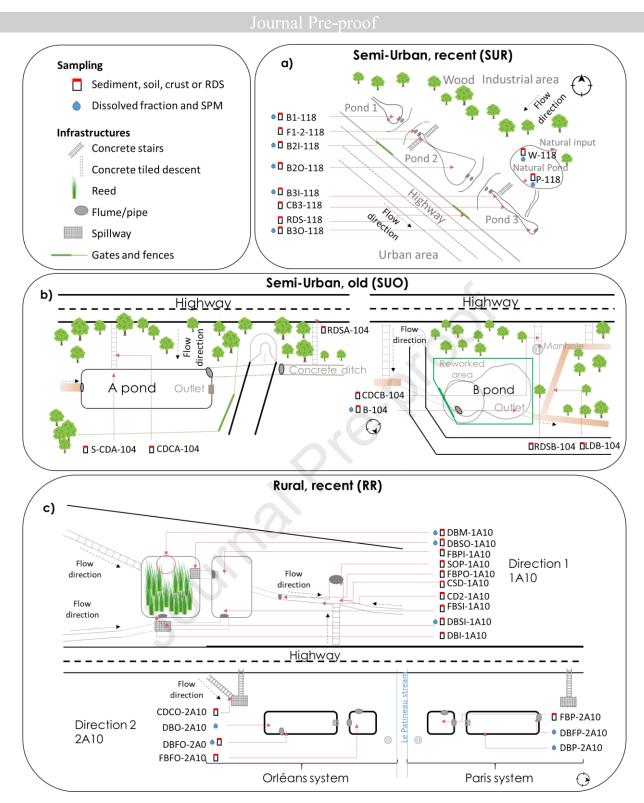
175 dynamics of contaminants of anthropogenic origin (e.g. metals and PAHs) (Le Pape et al., 2012; Froger et al., 2018, 2019). The highway stormwater pond systems studied are different 176 177 by the nature of drained areas (urban + road, mostly road or 100% road) but also by their 178 design (decantation pond, filtration pond, presence or not of a polyethylene geomembrane) and their construction date (Table 1). Road sections related to the studied stormwater ponds 179 have a high daily flux of ~50000 vehicles per day (Table 1). The presence of speed cameras 180 near both semi-urban systems should be noted because it induces braking and therefore the 181 182 emission of dust due to abrasion of brake pads. Three systems are studied: recent semi-urban (SUR) situated in Orsay, old semi-urban (SUO) situated in Marcoussis, and recent rural (RR) 183 situated near Saint-Martin-de-Bréthencourt. Figure 1 represents the spatial organization of the 184 three stormwater pond systems. The SUR system is composed by 3 geomembrane isolated 185 ponds arranged in series and connected by rafts at their base and by nozzles in height for 186 overflows during important rain events. The first pond (B1) is located upstream and the third 187 (B3) downstream. Both B1 and B2 are planted with reeds while B3 is channeled and unplanted. 188 A "natural pond" (P) supplied by the upperlying aquifer of the Fontainebleau sands (W), 189 independent of the road runoff collection network but hydrologically connected to B3, is also 190 present. The SUO system is composed by 2 disconnected unplanted decantation ponds 191 situated in an urban area surrounded by crops. The "A" pond had been dredged a few days 192 193 before sampling while "B" pond has never been dredged since the pond construction (Figure 194 1). The RR system is divided in two sub-sites: "Direction 1" (1A10) composed by a 195 geomembrane isolated decantation pond planted with reefs in series with a dry filtration pond and "Direction 2" (2A10) composed by two systems of unplanted geomembrane isolated 196 197 decantation ponds in series with dry filtration ponds. Waters from both sub-sites come from 198 the road through a spillway system.

#### 199 **2.2. Sampling**

200 Sediments (S), concrete downhill crusts (CDC), road dust sediments (RDS), water samples 201 (dissolved fraction (W) and suspended particulate matters (P)) were sampled during the five

- sampling campaigns carried out in January (2 campaigns) and February 2020 for SUR and
- 203 SUO systems and March and September 2020 for the RR system.

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Figure 1. Layout of the three studied stormwater ponds systems. (a) Semi-Urban Recent system (SUR) of Orsay, (b) Semi-Urban Old system (SUO) of Marcoussis and (c) Rural Recent system (RR) of Saint-Martin-de-Bréthencourt. Sampling locations for each type of samples (water, SPM, sediment) are indicated on the schemes. Pots symbols stand for solid sampling, drops stand for water sampling (dissolved phase, <0.22  $\mu$ m) and suspended particulate matters (SPM > 0.3  $\mu$ m) sampling.

Denomination	GPS coordinates	Construction (year)	Туре	Drained surface	Trafic per day (2017)	Presence of speed camera
Semi-urban, recent (SUR)	48.7115, 2.1863	~2000	Decantation	Urban + Road	54,187	Yes
Semi-urban, old (SUO)	48.6334, 2.2246 48.6320, 2.2292	1990s	Decantation	Road	56,595	Yes
Rural, recent (RR)	48.5120, 1.9072 48.5125, 1.9082	2012	Decantation + filtration	Road	42,225	No

**Table 1**. Characteristics of the highway stormwater pond systems (year of construction, type of pond conception, type of drained surfaces, traffic intensity and presence of speed cameras)

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215 Underwater sediments were collected in 180 mL polypropylene containers tightly closed onsite and a water column was kept above the sediments to avoid direct contact with air. Such 216 217 reduced sediments were then inserted as quickly as possible in a glove box at the IMPMC 218 laboratory for further sample processing. Inside the glove box, the solid samples were separated from the liquid phase by centrifugation, dried under vacuum, and finally stored in 219 anoxic conditions (N<sub>2</sub>, <5 ppm O<sub>2</sub>). Dissolved fraction of the water samples was recovered by 220 filtering to 0.22 µm with PES filters (Sartorius Minisart™) and acidified with ultrapure nitric acid 221 222 (0.5 M) in 50 mL Falcon® tubes directly on site and further stored at 4 °C. Bulk water (~ 2 L) 223 was collected in PET bottles previously washed with HNO<sub>3</sub> 0.5 N and rinsed on site with bulk water. Water pH, conductivity and temperature were measured onsite except for 2 samples in 224 the RR pond system (15 water samples listed in Table SI-1.2). Road dust sediments (RDS) 225 were collected on the road using a plastic spatula and placed in a tightly closed polyethylene 226 227 bag (SUO system) or using a plastic brush and kept in a Falcon tube® (SUR system). Crusts were collected on the slope concrete tiles channeling water from the road to the pond with a 228 plastic spatula and kept in a tightly closed polyethylene bag. RDS and crusts were stored at 229 room temperature in the dark. Full information about the 41 solid samples (conditions of 230 sampling, drying conditions, type and matrix) are listed in Table SI-1.1. 231

crushed in an agate mortar be	efore total mineralization	(Le Pape et al., 2012).
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# 2.3.2. Bulk mineralization

2.3. Sample preparation

Total digestion of sediments and SPM was performed in three steps using ultrapure 243 concentrated acids to avoid contaminations in open PTFE Savillex® vials: 4 mL of HF (47-51%) 244 and 2 mL HClO<sub>4</sub> (67%) heated at 150 °C for 320 minutes, 3.75 mL of HCl (34-37%) and 1.25 245 mL of HNO3 (67%) heated at 120°C for 180 minutes and finally heating at 110 °C with addition 246 of 1 mL of HNO3 (67%) for 55 minutes. Final solutions were transferred to 50 mL Falcon® 247 (polyethylene) tubes, Savillex® vials rinsed three times by heating approximatively 10 mL of 248 249 HNO<sub>3</sub> 0.5 M and completed at 50 mL with 0.5 M nitric acid (Le Pape et al., 2012). Two certified reference materials (CRM), sediment SL1 and street dust BCR 723, were added in each 250 mineralization batch. Blanks were performed in each batch and a filter blank was included in 251 each SPM batches. 252

- 253 **2.4. Analytical methods**
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# 2.4.1. Elemental analysis and enrichment factors calculation

The concentrations of 25 major, minor and trace elements were determined using triple quadrupole inductively coupled plasma – mass spectrometry (TQ-ICP-MS) (Thermo Scientific<sup>™</sup> iCAP<sup>™</sup> TQ) at LSCE laboratory (Tables SI-1.3, SI-1.4, SI-1.5). An internal

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Within the hours following collection, SPM samples were obtained by filtration (in

laboratory) of approximatively 2 L of bulk water (sometime less when clogging occurred)

through previously dried and weighted quartz filters (Pallflex® Tissuguartz<sup>™</sup>, retaining 99.9%

of >0.3 µm particles) using glass or plastic tulips previously rinsed with 0.5 N nitric acid and a

pump. The filtered volume was measured by weighting. After filtration, filters were dried under

oxic conditions before total mineralization (Priadi et al., 2011). For multi-elemental analysis,

approximately 100 mg of sediment, previously sieved at 2 mm with a plastic sieve, were

2.3.1. Suspended particulate matter (SPM) and sediment

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standard mixture (In, Ge, Rh and Re) was added on-line to the samples to correct for the instrumental sensitivity drift. Quality of analysis was checked using NIST 1640a (spring water) for dissolved samples, SL1 and BCR-723 for sediments (100 mg) and for SPM (10 mg) (Table SI-1.6). Accuracy was within ±15% of the certified values provided for the certified reference material SL1 and BCR 723 (except Ag: 19%). The RSD for SPM are higher (<32%): measured concentrations were close to quantification limits due to the low mass of SPM recovered on filters.

Enrichment Factors (EF) are classically used to determine the contamination level of solid samples (Salma and Maenhaut, 2006; Le Pape et al., 2012; Froger et al., 2018). EFs are calculated as a comparison of the Al-normalized trace element concentration in the sample with the local background values (Equation 1).

$$EF = \frac{\frac{X_{Sample}}{Al_{Sample}}}{\frac{X_{Background}}{Al_{Background}}}$$

(1)

with X<sub>Sample</sub> and X<sub>Background</sub> the concentrations of the element under consideration in the sample 270 and its geochemical background, and Al<sub>Sample</sub> and Al<sub>Background</sub> the aluminum concentrations in 271 the sample and in the geochemical background. Local background determined for the Orge 272 River catchment for Sb by (Froger et al., 2018) and for the Seine River for Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, 273 Pb and Zn by (Thévenot et al., 2007) were used to calculate the EFs. Full set of elemental 274 concentrations and associated EFs are shown in Table SI-1.7. Details on the use and 275 276 calculations of enrichment factors according to the interpretation of Sutherland (2000) are given in the supplement information section. 277

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# 2.4.2. Radiogenic lead isotope ratio analysis

Radiogenic lead isotopic ratios (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb) were measured by TQ ICP-MS in solid samples previously mineralized and diluted to obtain a Pb concentration of 2
 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> in solution. In order to control mass bias and/or instrument drift, an isotopic Pb reference
 material, NIST NBS 981, was measured every two samples. To control measurement

283 accuracy, a mineralized lake sediment reference material SL1 was measured multiple times with the samples and the results were compared to the data  $1.217 \pm 0.008$  in <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and 284 285 2.037 ± 0.003 in <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb published by Farmer et al. (2002), our SL1 measurements are in 286 the margins of errors. The method is more detailed in Supplementary information (SI-3) and the results are shown in Table SI-1.8. In this study, lead isotope ratio signature was used as 287 tracer for contaminant sources to study the nature of sediment inputs in each pond system 288 (Komárek et al., 2008) using the published isotopic signature of the potential local sources of 289 290 Pb (Figure SI-3.1; Table SI-1.8), *i.e.* the local urban Pb endmember, the local Pb geochemical 291 background, and the French leaded gasoline.

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### 2.4.3. Antimony isotopic composition analysis

293 An aliquot of water samples and mineralized solutions of solid samples containing 50-100 ng of Sb underwent a purification step on TSP cartridges (thiol-functionalized 294 mesoporous silica powder) in order to separate Sb from the other chemical species and to 295 preconcentrate it in low-concentrated samples according to the method detailed in Ferrari et 296 297 al. (2021). For each batch of purification, a certified reference material (BCR 723, Table SI-1.9) and a blank was included. Blanks contribution represented less than 0.8 ng de Sb (<1.6%). 298 Antimony isotopic composition of the samples were then analysed by HG-MC-ICP-MS 299 (Hydride Generation coupled to a Multi-Collector Inductive Coupled Plasma Mass 300 Spectrometer, Neptune+, Thermo Fisher Scientific) on the AETE-ISO platform (OSU OREME, 301 University of Montpellier), using instrument parameter settings given in Ferrari et al. (2021). A 302 sample-standard bracketing approach was used to correct the mass bias. An in-house isotopic 303 304 Sb standard solution (SPEX CertiPrep (Sb 1,000 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> in 20% w/w HCl, batch number 24-305 175SBX)) was analysed before and after every sample. The isotopic composition of Sb was expressed according to equation 2 which represents the deviation between the isotope ratio 306 measured for the sample and the mean isotope ratio of the in-house isotopic standard (SPEX) 307 measured before and after the sample. Detailed results are presented in Table SI-1.9. 308

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$$\delta^{123}Sb(\%_{0}) = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{123}{121}Sb\right)_{sample} - \left(\frac{123}{121}Sb\right)_{mean std}}{\left(\frac{123}{121}Sb\right)_{mean std}}\right) \times 1000$$
(2)

310 Antimony isotopes could help in determining the transfer pathways of Sb contamination 311 by tracing the contributions of distinct sources (Rouxel et al., 2003). Sb isotopes data have mainly been determined in mine-affected environments and river waters ( $\delta^{123}Sb = -0.06\%$  to 312 +0.83‰) (Resongles et al., 2015a), in environmental references samples (Rouxel et al., 2003; 313 314 Ferrari et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021), and in ancient glass materials (Lobo et al., 2013; Degryse et al., 2015; Dillis et al., 2019). Here, this tool is applied for the first time 315 to road-affected surface environmental samples in an attempt to trace the contributions of 316 distinct Sb sources, which could help in determining the transfer pathways of Sb contamination. 317

318

# 2.4.4. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD)

Powder XRD diffractograms were collected on a Panalytical<sup>™</sup> Xpert pro® 319 diffractometer in the Bragg-Brentano geometry using Co Ka radiation to minimize Fe X-ray 320 fluorescence. Samples were previously crushed in an agate mortar to obtain a fine powder. 321 Bragg reflexions were indexed using the Highscore Plus® software associated to the PDF 2 322 database (2020). To check for potential sample oxidation, test samples were first measured 323 within an anaerobic chamber and results were compared to those obtained without the 324 chamber. As no changes were observed in XRD data for underwater anoxic test samples, the 325 whole set of samples was consequently analysed under oxic conditions. Reference 326 compounds of ferrihydrite co-precipitated with Sb(V) or Sb(III), synthesized for X-Ray 327 328 absorption measurements at the Sb K-edge (see supplementary information SI-2 for synthesis details), were analysed by X-Ray diffraction and Wide angle X-ray Scattering associated to 329 Pair distribution function analysis on the CRISTAL beamline at SOLEIL. 330

#### 331

# 2.4.5. Scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-

332

# ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDXS)

SEM investigation associated to punctual EDXS analysis was performed on non-333 334 crushed samples embedded in resin to conserve the aggregate structure of particles at the microscopic scale. SEM-EDXS analyses were performed at IMPMC, with a GEMINI ZEISS™ 335 Ultra55 Field Emission Gun Scanning Electron Microscope equipped with a BrukerTM Si-drift 336 detector for EDXS acquisition. Prior to analysis, bulk samples were embedded in an epoxy 337 338 resin (Epoxy, Presi<sup>TM</sup>) and polished. Polished sections samples were coated with carbon before SEM observation. EDXS spectra were performed on specific spots on the surface on 339 samples using the esprit 1.9 or 2.2 software. 340

#### 341 **2.4.6.** X-ray absorption spectroscopy at the Sb *K*-edge

To examine the potential changes of Sb chemical forms along the road-to-pond 342 continuum, X-Ray Absorption Spectroscopy Near Edge Structure (XANES) measurements 343 were performed on the solid samples. Given the large shifts in energy between different types 344 345 of molecular environments and ligands at the Sb K-edge (typically 4 eV between maxima for Sb(V)-O and Sb(III)-O, and 2 eV between maxima for Sb(III)-O and Sb(III)-S), XANES 346 347 measurements classically allow the quantification of the different species in samples of unknown speciation, namely the contributions of Sb(V)-O, Sb(III)-O, and Sb(III)-S (Bennett et 348 al., 2017; Arsic et al., 2018; Burton et al., 2020). Hereafter in the text, in the section concerning 349 350 speciation by XANES at the Sb K-edge, the samples are labelled as "Dry" when they were sampled as dried powders on the field and as "Underwater" when they were collected under a 351 column of water and kept under anoxic conditions until analysis. The single "Wet" sample was 352 collected as wet and dried at the laboratory under oxic conditions. 353

354

355

# 2.4.6.1. Synthesis of reference compounds, sample preparation and data sampling

Ferrihydrite coprecipitated with Sb(III) and Sb(V) (Fh-Sb(III) or Fh-Sb(V)), tripuhyite (FeSbO<sub>4</sub>) and amorphous antimony trisulphide (Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>) were synthesized to serve as reference

358 compounds. Details on the synthesis protocols can be found in the supplement information section (SI-2). Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was purchased from Sigma Aldrich. For reference compounds, an 359 360 appropriate amount of sample was diluted into cellulose and pressed in pellets for transmission 361 measurement when possible. For Fh-Sb samples, spectra were measured in fluorescence mode. For environmental samples from stormwater ponds, pure sample pellets were prepared 362 by pressing approximately 50 mg of finely ground sample in a Jacomex<sup>TM</sup> glove box ( $O_2 < 4$ 363 ppm). All pellets were covered with Kapton® tape and transported to the synchrotron facility in 364 365 anoxic containers according to proven protocols (e.g. Le Pape et al., 2017).

Antimony K-edge X-ray absorption spectroscopy data were collected in both 366 transmission and fluorescence detection modes at 80 K in a liquid azote cryostat on the 367 bending magnet SAMBA beamline at SOLEIL Synchrotron (Gif-sur-Yvette, France). 368 Fluorescence signals were measured using a Canberra<sup>™</sup> 36-elements Ge array detector and 369 incoming beam energy was monitored through a Si (220) double-crystal monochromator. Data 370 were calibrated using a Sb foil at 30,491 eV at the first inflexion point of the first derivative of 371 the XANES spectrum. Samples were mounted on PEEK sample holders in a Jacomex<sup>™</sup> glove 372 373 box onsite. Sample holders were immersed in liquid N<sub>2</sub> for the transfer to the beamline cryostat. Because Sb concentrations in samples were less than 100 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, a minimum of 25 quick 374 scans were necessary to obtain a good signal to noise ratio for each natural sample. 375

376

# 2.4.6.2. Data processing and analysis

The FASTOSH program (Landrot, 2018) was used to calibrate and normalize Sb K-377 edge extended X-Ray absorption near edge structure data and to proceed to background 378 379 subtraction. A linear combination fitting (LCF) analysis was performed on the XANES spectra on the first derivative of the absorption to determine the relative contributions of Sb(V)-O, 380 Sb(III)-O and Sb(III)-S species in the stormwater pond samples. To do so, the Fh-Sb(V), Fh-381 Sb(III), and am-Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> references compounds were considered as the most relevant to perform 382 383 the LCF analysis. LCF accuracy on derivative of XANES spectra were estimated by a R-factor 384 (Equation 3) and reduced chi-square (Equation 4):

$$R - factor = \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{t} [data(p) - fit(p)]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} [data(p)]^2}$$
(3)

387

$$\chi_R^2 = \frac{1}{(t-s)} \sum_{i=1}^t [data(i) - fit(i)]^2$$
(4)

388

With "data" designating the experimental spectrum, "fit" the spectrum reconstructed by LCF, "p" a specific point in each spectrum, "t" the total number of points in each spectrum, "i" an independent data point corresponding to a specific independent measurement and "s" the number of reference spectra considered in fit.

## 393 **3. Results**

# 394 **3.1. Radiogenic lead isotope ratios in solid samples**

395 The detailed results of lead isotope ratio analysis are shown in the Supplementary information (SI-3). The recent rural stormwater pond system (RR) signatures are distributed 396 on a mixing line between the leaded gasoline and the local geochemical background 397 398 endmembers. Lead isotope ratios measured in the SUR and SUO pond system fall on the same mixing line but the range of variations is smaller and isotopic signatures are close to the 399 400 urban lead endmember. Extreme value close to the gasoline endmember is measured for the S-DBSI-1A10 sample collected at the entry pond spillway, *i.e.* located directly at the entrance 401 402 of the pond system receiving road runoff. The closest value to the geochemical background signature is observed for the sediment sample S-P-118, which is located in SUR system 403 natural freshwater pool receiving water from the overlaying Fontainebleau sand aquifer. 404 Accordingly, this sample presents a particularly low Pb concentration (16 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>), confirming 405 406 that this part of the system is not collecting road traffic runoff.

#### **3.2.** Analysis of highway stormwater pond contamination: spatial variation

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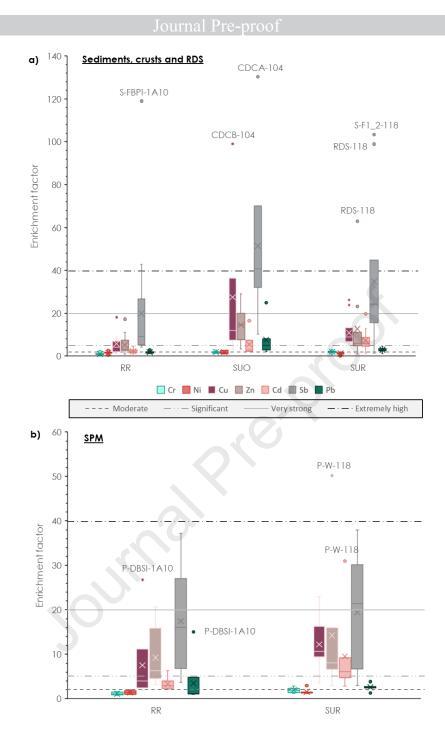
# of elemental geochemistry and enrichment factors

Dissolved Sb concentrations (Table SI-1.5) in SUR pond system range from 0.26  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> (W-P-118) to 12.5  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> (W-W-118) in the SUR system and from 0.27  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> (W-DBFP-2A10) to 13.2  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> (W-DBSI-1A10) in the RR pond system. The only water sample available in the SUO system shows a concentration of 0.90  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup> (W-DBFP-2A10).

414 Concentrations of trace elements in sediments, RDS and crusts samples range between 9.8 - 103 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, <3.5 - 48 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 8.5-895 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 40 - 2539 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 0.2 - 3.2 415 416 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 0.5 - 93 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> and 8.2 - 444 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Sb and Pb respectively (Table SI-1.3). The corresponding EFs calculated in sediments, RDS and crusts samples are 417 shown in Figure 2a. In the RR system, Co, Cr, Ni, Cd and Pb are not specifically enriched (EF 418  $\leq$  5). However, EF of Cu and Zn indicate a significant contamination level (1  $\leq$  EF  $\leq$  19). In the 419 420 SUO system, mean enrichment contamination level of Co, Cr and Ni are not significant (EF ≤ 3). Zinc, Cd and Pb enrichment contamination level is classified as "significantly enriched" (2 421  $\leq$  EF  $\leq$  29) and Cu enrichment contamination level is very strongly enriched (EF up to 99). In 422 SUR system, Cu enrichment contamination level reach very strong values (up to 26) and 423 424 extreme values are occasionally observed for Zn (EF = 63 in RDS-118). In the three studied stormwater pond systems. Sb is extremely enriched with respect to the local geochemical 425 background, with maxima EF values as high as 119 in RR (S-FBPI-1A10), 130 in SUO (CDCA-426 104) and 103 (S-F1\_2-118) in SUR system, attesting of important inputs of Sb in this urban 427 area. It is noteworthy that the Sb natural abundance is low, with a local geochemical 428 background of 0.2 - 0.5 mg.kg-1 (Froger et al., 2018). Therefore, the Sb geochemical anomaly 429 induced by anthropogenic Sb emissions in this urban context is particularly prominent (as 430 431 reflected by extreme EF values), this trend has already been observed in other large cities (Chen et al., 2008; Gonzales et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2017; Nory et al., 2021). 432

In comparison with sediments, SPM is a dynamic component in this type of system.
Metal concentrations (Table SI-1.4) and EFs (Figure 2b) in SPM have been quantified to give

a picture of contamination transfer by surface particles. Concentrations of trace elements in 435 SPM samples range between 44 - 186 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 18 - 57 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 51 - 985 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 168 - 5019 436 437 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 0.6 - 10 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>, 2 - 83 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> and 24 - 738 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Sb and Pb respectively. As observed for sediments, Co, Cr and Ni are not particularly enriched in RR and 438 SUR systems (Figure 2b). In contrast, Cu, Zn and Sb are significantly enriched in RR and SUR 439 systems. Cadmium is also significantly enriched in SUR system while only moderately 440 enriched in RR system sediments. Lead is moderately enriched in RR and SUR systems 441 442 sediments. Again, Sb presents the highest mean EF in SPM in both RR and SUR systems sediments. Otherwise, two punctual very strong EF values are observed in the RR system for 443 the sample P-DBSI-1A10 at 27 for Cu and 21 for Zn. In the SUR system, extreme values are 444 determined for the sample P-W-118 at 50 for Zn and 31 for Cd. EF determined in SPM of the 445 RR and SUR systems are comparable between both ponds while their EF are different in 446 sediments. 447



448

Figure 2. Aluminium-normalized enrichment factors for a) sediments, soil, RDS and crusts and 449 b) SPM samples compared to the local geochemical background (Thévenot et al., 2007; Froger 450 451 et al., 2018). Chromium EF are shown in cyan, Ni in red, Cu in purple, Zn in taupe, Cd in pink, Sb in grey and Pb in green. Eighteen samples are considered for constructing the box plot in 452 453 the RR system, 7 for SUO system, 10 for SUR system. Six samples are considered for SPM 454 in RR system and 7 in SUR system. The bottom branch of each boxes represents the minimum 455 value, the bottom of the box represents the first quartile, the horizontal line inside the box 456 represents the median value, the cross represents the mean value, the top of the box represents the third quartile, the dots represent extreme values and the top of the branch 457 represents the maximum value for series without extreme values. Horizontal lines indicate the 458 level of enrichment according to the classification of Sutherland, (2000). 459

460

The Cu/Sb ratio is frequently used in literature to trace the brake pad contamination in 461 areas impacted by road traffic (e.g. Stechmann and Dannecker, 1990). Indeed, these two 462 elements are important constituents of brake pads (Dong et al., 2017). In our study, the local 463 geochemical background can be estimated at Cu/Sb = 25 (Sb concentration from Froger et al. 464 465 (2018) and Cu from Thévenot et al. (2017)). In the SUR system, Cu/Sb reach up to 39 in S-W-118 (natural pond) and down to 6 in RDS-118, with an average of 12 and 9 if the two samples 466 from natural pond are excluded (S-W-118 and S-P-118). SUO system Cu/Sb values are 467 468 between 6 (RDSB-104) and 35 (CDCB-104) with an average of 12. In RR system the Cu/Sb values are situated between 4 (S-FBPI-1A10) and 21 (CD2-1A10) with an average of 9. 469

#### 470

## 3.3. Analysis of Sb sources using $\delta^{123}$ Sb isotopic signatures

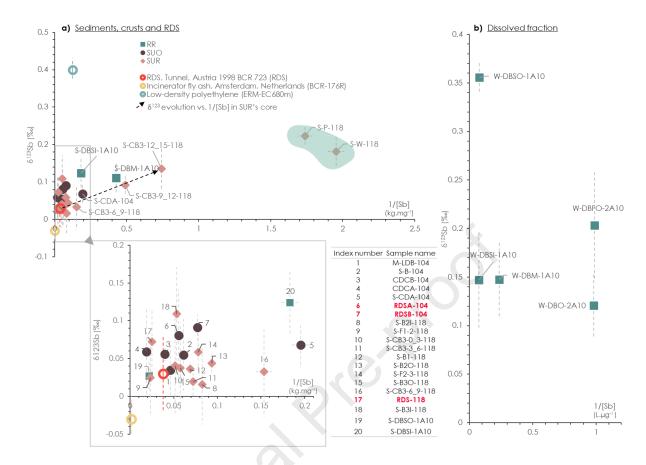
Antimony isotopes are applied for the first time to road- affected surface environmental 471 samples in an attempt to trace the contributions of distinct Sb sources, which could help in 472 473 determining the transfer pathways of Sb contamination. Figure 3a and 3b present  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values as a function of 1/[Sb] for solid and liquid samples, respectively. Antimony isotopic 474 compositions of solid samples measured at the three sampling sites range from 0.02 ± 0.02‰ 475 to  $0.22 \pm 0.03\%$  with an average of  $0.07 \pm 0.05\%$  (n=25). No significant variation of the average 476  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values was observed between the sampling sites ( $\delta^{123}$ Sb<sub>SUO</sub> = 0.06 ± 0.02‰ (n=7); 477 478  $\delta^{123}$ Sb<sub>SUR</sub> = 0.06 ± 0.04‰ (n=13), excluding the two samples of the natural pond);  $\delta^{123}$ Sb<sub>RR</sub> =  $0.09 \pm 0.05\%$  (n=3)). On average, values observed for the sediments are closer from those 479 reported by Ferrari et al. (2021) for the certified reference material of Austrian RDS (BCR 723, 480  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = 0.03 ± 0.05‰) than from both Netherlands incinerator fly ash (BCR 176R,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = -481 0.03 ± 0.03‰) and low-density polyethylene (ERM-EC 680m,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = 0.40 ± 0.03‰). Taken 482 individually, road deposit sediment (RDS) samples from the SUO and SUR pond systems, 483 represented in red on the zoom part of Figure 3a, present  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values and 1/[Sb] values 484 relatively close from those of the BCR 723 (Austrian RDS collected in an urban tunnel), with 485

486  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = 0.07 ± 0.04‰ for RDS-118, 0.08 ± 0.06‰ for RDSA-104 and 0.09 ± 0.02‰ for RDSB-487 104.

Two samples of the SUR system highlighted in green in Figure 3a present the highest 488  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values (0.18 ± 0.04‰ for S-W-118 and  $\delta^{123}$ Sb = 0.22 ± 0.03‰ for S-P-118), associated 489 with low Sb concentrations close to the geochemical background (0.51 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> and 0.57 490 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>). These samples are interpreted as not directly impacted by road emission, which is 491 consistent with lead isotope ratio data (see SI-3). In SUR system, five sediment samples taken 492 in a 15 cm core sampled every 3 cm in the B3 SUR basin (Fig. 1) show a decreasing 493 concentration in Sb as a function of depth in the core (19.4 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for S-CB3-0\_3-118 and 494 1.35 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for S-CB3-12\_15-118) with a concomitant slight increase of  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values from 495  $0.02 \pm 0.02\%$  to  $0.04 \pm 0.06\%$  for 0 - 9 cm depth and from  $0.09 \pm 0.02\%$  to  $0.13 \pm 0.06\%$  for 496 497 9 - 15 cm depth.

For water samples from the RR system,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb ranges from 0.12 ± 0.03‰ to 0.36 ± 498 0.02% with an average of  $0.19 \pm 0.09\%$  (n=5). Thus, dissolved Sb presents an enrichment in 499 heavy Sb isotope compared to particulate Sb (average  $\delta^{123}$ Sb<sub>RR</sub> = 0.09 ± 0.05‰, n=3) at this 500 RR pond site. Interestingly, at the DBSO sampling point, corresponding to a spillway 501 separating the settling and filtration ponds, a strong difference between the  $\delta^{123}Sb$  signatures 502 of the sediments and the dissolved phase is observed:  $0.03 \pm 0.02\%$  and  $0.36 \pm 0.02\%$ , 503 respectively. This indicate a significant fractionation of Sb isotopes between the dissolved and 504 505 solid phases at this particular spot where reducing conditions were observed.





#### 507

**Figure 3.**  $\delta^{123}$ Sb as a function of 1/[Sb] (Sb concentration in mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> or L.µg<sup>-1</sup>) given for (a) 508 sediments, crusts, RDS and (b) water samples (dissolved fraction). Samples from SUR system 509 510 are represented as pink diamonds; sediments, soils, crusts and RDS from SUO system are represented as dark purple dots; sediments from RR system are represented as blue filled 511 squares and waters as blue contoured squares. δ<sup>123</sup>Sb values from certified reference material 512 513 published by Ferrari et al. 2021 are also represented: tunnel RDS (BCR 723) in red circle, incinerator fly ash (BCR -176R) in yellow circle and low-density polyethylene (ERM-EC 680m) 514 515 in blue circle. The supposed local natural signatures are circled by a light blue area and 516 samples from a core situating along the black doted arrow. RDS sample labels are represented in red in the zoom figure and in the associated table.  $\delta^{123}$ Sb data and Sb concentrations are 517 available in Table SI-1.9 in Tables SI-1.3 and SI-1.5, respectively. 518

519

# 520 **3.4.** Antimony mineralogy and speciation as studied at the particle and

521 molecular scales

522 To study the mineralogy of solid samples in the stormwater ponds, we have performed

523 powder XRD measurements (Fig. SI-1.4). The main mineralogical components (>1%wt) are

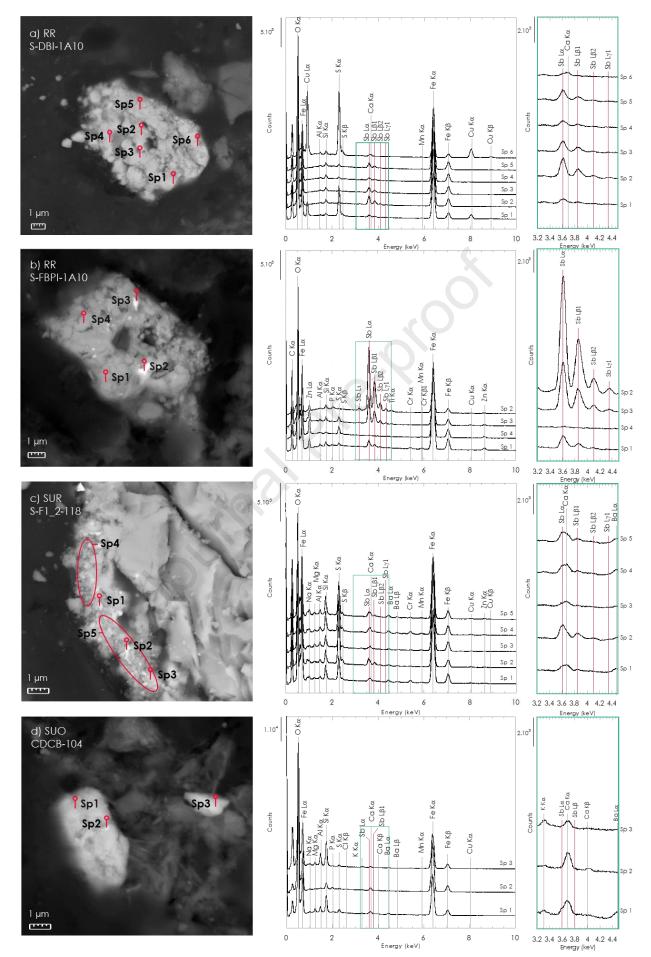
524 usual geogenic surface minerals such as quartz, calcite and feldspars. At low diffraction angle,

the presence of different types of phyllosilicates such as chlorite, illite and kaolinite is observed on the basis of the (001) reflexions, and small amounts of additional dolomite were observed in the SUR system samples. For some samples, a weak reflexion around 8.4 Å indicates the presence of amphibole-type minerals.

A systematic SEM-EDXS study was carried out on the samples with the objectives of 529 (1) documenting the mineralogy of these Sb-enriched samples constituted of both natural and 530 road derived materials at the aggregate scale, and (2) uncovering discrete Sb-bearing 531 532 phase(s) (Fig. 4). Depending on the input of local geogenic particles in the samples, mineral aggregates of varying sizes (>2 µm) (Fig. SI-1.5) were observed. In particular, in RDS samples, 533 we observed metallic spherules possibly resulting from abrasion of car/road materials (Fig. SI-534 1.7). In general, in all samples, particles made of metallic alloys were observed, e.g. particles 535 containing Ti, Cr, Cd, Zn and rare earth elements (REE) (Fig. SI-1.6). An important contribution 536 of iron oxyhydroxides/oxides was also observed. Antimony was detected in particles in the 537 three pond systems via punctual EDXS analysis using the L-emission lines as diagnostic 538 spectral pattern (Lα<sub>1</sub> 3,604.72 eV, Lα<sub>2</sub> 3,595.32 eV, Lβ<sub>1</sub> 3,843.57 eV, Lβ<sub>2</sub> 4,100.78 eV, Lγ<sub>1</sub> 539 4,347.79 eV and LI 3,192 eV). In the RR samples S-DBI-1A10 (Fig. 4a) and S-FBPI-1A10 (Fig. 540 4b), the analysed Sb-bearing particles showed different chemical compositions depending on 541 the spot where the analysis was performed. Indeed, the presence of Sb is always concomitant 542 with the one of Fe, while Sp1 and Sp6 spots (Fig. 4a) qualitatively show the additional presence 543 544 of S, Cu and Na. The sample S-FBPI-1A10 (Fig. 4b) shows the presence of Zn and particularly high level of Sb at discrete submicrometric spots, especially in Sp2 where Sb content is 545 546 qualitatively higher than Fe. In the sample S-F1\_2-118 from the SUR system (Fig. 4c), Sb was also found as submicrometric particles associated with Fe oxyhydroxides/oxides. In S-F1 2-547 548 118, punctual EDXS spectra (Sp1, Sp2 and Sp3) and EDXS spectra of areas (Sp4 and Sp5) show roughly the same amount of S, Fe and Cu, but Cr and Ba are also detected. Sp2 549 550 spectrum, taken on the spot presenting the higher backscattering intensity accordingly shows the highest Sb signal compared to spectra Sp1 and Sp3. In SUO system, on sample 551

552 CDCB-104 (Fig. 4d), the particle containing Sb was also observed as associated with an iron-553 containing particle (containing also major elements such as Ca). Because the Ca *K*-emission 554 line overlaps with the main *L*-emission line of Sb, the signal is more difficult to distinguish but 555 remains visible, for instance in the Sp1 spectra (Fig. 4d) in which Cu, S and Ba are also 556 detected.

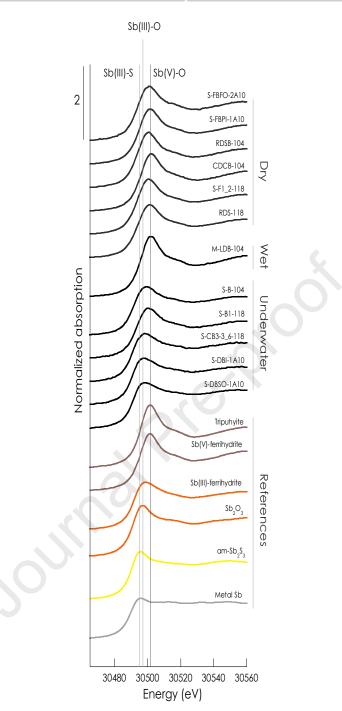
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**Figure 4.** SEM images taken in backscattering mode (left), and qualitative EDXS analyses on the right for three samples representative of each highway stormwater pond systems SUR, SUO and RR. A zoom between 3.2 and 4.4 KeV on the X-Ray emission spectra (green rectangle) shows the presence of Sb on the basis of the L $\alpha_1$  to LI emission lines. Sediments S-DBI-1A10 (a) and dry sediment S-FBPI-1A10 (b) (RR system) are represented on the first and second lines, dry sediment S-F1\_2-118 (c) (SUR system) on the second line and crust CDCB-104 (d) (SUO system) on the bottom line.

565

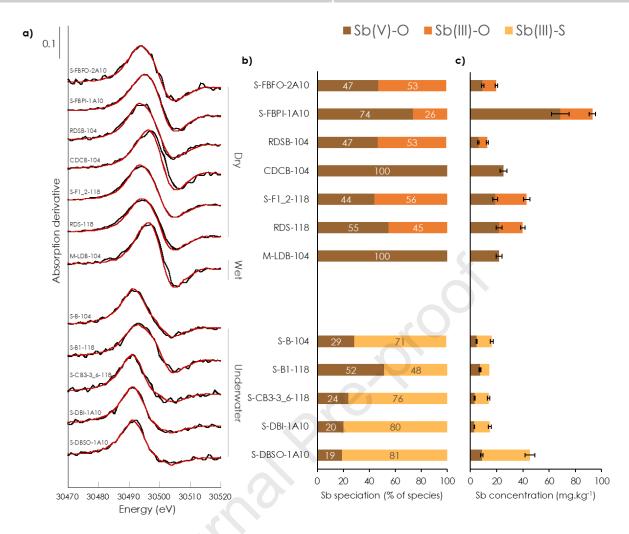
Calibrated and normalized XANES data include both samples from the field and 566 selected reference compounds (Fig. 5). The reference compounds selected in which Sb is 567 under the Sb(V)-O form are tripulyite (FeSbO<sub>4</sub>) and ferrihydrite co-precipitated in the presence 568 of dissolved Sb(V). The reference compounds selected in which Sb is under the Sb(III)-O form 569 are ferrihydrite co-precipitated in the presence of dissolved Sb(III) and Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Finally, the 570 chosen reference compound representative of the Sb(III)-S molecular environment is 571 amorphous Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>. Additionally, the metallic Sb foil was considered as a Sb(0) metal/alloy 572 reference. Qualitative examination of XANES spectra (Fig. 5) shows that the maximum of 573 absorption of the "dry" samples is shifted towards the higher energies, *i.e.* the oxidized species 574 with oxygen ligand Sb(V)-O. On the contrary, the "Underwater" samples show maxima shifted 575 towards lower absorption energies and therefore present a non-negligible contribution of 576 577 reduced Sb species (e.g. Sb(III)-O and/or Sb(III)-S).



579

**Figure 5.** Antimony *K*-edge XANES spectra of dry and wet samples, underwater samples (black) collected in the three studied sites in the Paris region (France), Sb(V)-O references (brown) are tripuhyite (FeSbO<sub>4</sub>) and Sb(V) co-precipitated ferrihydrite; Sb(III) references are Sb(III) co-precipitated ferrihydrite, Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (orange) and amorphous Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (yellow); Sb(0) is represented by metal Sb (grey). Vertical lines represent the maximum of XANES signal for known chemical environments and ligands, namely Sb(V)-O (30 501 eV), Sb(III)-O (30,497-30,499 eV), Sb(III)-S (30,496 eV), and Sb(0) (=Sb-Sb, 30,496 eV).

588 To quantify the contribution of different oxidation states and ligands in Sb speciation, we proceeded to a LCF analysis on the derivative of the Sb K-edge XANES spectra using 589 590 three reference samples representative of the system geochemistry, namely Sb(V)-ferrihydrite (Sb(V)-O), Sb(III)-ferrihydrite (Sb(III)-O), and amorphous Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> (Sb(III)-S). Results of LCF are 591 presented on Figure 6 and in Table SI-1.10. In the "dry" samples, the Sb(V)-O form dominates 592 although the Sb(III)-O species are present in significant proportions, between 26% and 56%, 593 except in CDCB-104 in which only the Sb(V)-O form is detected. Likewise, the "wet" sample 594 M-LDB-104 contains only Sb(V)-O species. In contrast, in the "underwater" samples, Sb 595 speciation is dominated by the Sb(III)-S species (from 48% to 81%). Figure 6c presents Sb 596 speciation normalized to total Sb concentrations in the samples. Thus, we observe that 597 "underwater" samples presenting the main Sb(III)-S signature are likely less concentrated in 598 Sb, between 13.9 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for S-CB3-3\_6-118 to 45.3 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> for S-DBSO-1A10 than "dry" 599 samples presenting concentrations up to 93 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup> in the S-FBPI-1A10 sample (Fig. 6c). 600



601

**Figure 6**. (a) Results of the linear combination fitting procedure applied on the absorption first derivative of XANES spectra (experimental data in black and fit in red). (b) Proportion of Sb(V)-O species (brown), Sb(III)-O species (orange) and Sb(III)-S species (yellow) normalized to 100% (more details of the species in supplementary information). (c) Results of LCF normalized (%) to total Sb concentration (mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) in the samples. Errors on components determined by LCF are considered to be 10%.

608

# 609 4. Discussion

# 4.1. Geochemical parameters as tracers of emission sources in near-road

611 environments

Radiogenic Pb isotope ratios validate the 2 categories established by the land-use observed in the drained area of the systems: semi-urban (SUO and SUR) and rural systems (RR), on the basis of our knowledge of Pb isotopic endmembers in urban areas. Moreover, heterogeneous isotopic signatures observed and the close to former lead gasoline signatures

in 2 samples of the RR system show that Pb isotopes cannot be directly used to infer the age
of highway stormwater ponds (see SI-2). Indeed, former lead gasoline signature has been
shown to still contributed to impact urban environments (Ayrault et al., 2012; Resongles et al.,
2021).

Enrichment factors ranging between 0.4 and 130 are observed for Co, Cr, Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, Sb 620 and Pb. They are of the same magnitude with those previously observed in near road 621 environments (Meland et al., 2010). Different sources for these metals are evoked in the 622 623 literature, among which abrasion of brake linings for Cu, Sb, Zn, Pb, Cr and, to a lesser extent, of Ni and Cd (Sörme and Lagerkvist, 2002; Hjortenkrans et al., 2007; Thorpe and Harrison, 624 2008). Zinc, which is strongly enriched in our system, is also used in tires and motorway crash 625 barriers (Sörme and Lagerkvist, 2002; Zhang et al., 2004; Hjortenkrans et al., 2007). Cobalt, 626 627 Zn, Pb, Cr, Ni and Cd, as constituents of car bodies, can be released to the environment by simple rain leaching (Störm and Lagerkvist, 2002), probably explaining a part of the emissions 628 629 given the high flux of vehicles on the road investigated (Table 1). In this study, enrichments in Cd, Cr and Ni are found to be more limited in sediments and SPM in comparison with the data 630 631 of Hjortenkrans et al. (2007) in road environments. Here, the higher enrichment factors of Pb in semi-urban systems sediments compared to the rural system is in line with the results of Pb 632 isotopic signatures that indicate a major urban source contribution. Cadmium and Cr, 633 presenting higher concentrations in the SUR system compared to RR and SUO systems, (Fig. 634 635 SI-1.2) might have a different or an additional source at SUR compared to RR and SUO (Fig. 636 2). Both Cr and Cd enrichments occurred in the third basin (B3, SUR system), also connected 637 to the natural pond (Fig. 1), itself hydrologically connected to the overlying Fontainebleau sand aquifer. We thus hypothesize that Cd and Cr could have been emitted by past industrial/urban 638 639 activities (Avino et al., 2008; Byrne et al., 2017) on the Plateau of Saclay situated upstream or 640 by a geogenic source from the Fontainebleau sands aquifer (which geochemistry is not yet documented). Correlations of Sb with Cu concentrations in the solid phase (Fig. SI-1.2) point 641 to a potential common source such as emission from brake pads (Thorpe and Harrison, 2008). 642

If the ratio Cu/Sb is constant in the road environment, and different from that of the 643 geochemical background, it is then possible to determine the anthropogenic contribution in the 644 645 environment studied. Figure SI-1.8 represents Cu/Sb ratios of the collected solid samples as 646 compared to the Cu/Sb ratios listed in the literature. In the literature, brake pads Cu/Sb is 16.5 on average with variations from 3.5 to 29 (Weckwerth, 2001; Hjortenkrans et al., 2007; Dong 647 et al., 2017). In Sweden, this high range of observed values was explained by the occurrence 648 of different brake suppliers. In the study of Hjortenkrans et al. (2006) focusing on  $PM_{10}$ , Cu/Sb 649 650 are between 4.9 and 15.1 with a median of 5.5. Top soils collected at less than 0.5 m from the road pavement show mean Cu/Sb of 20 (Hiortenkrans et al., 2006) and Cu/Sb ratio of 28 was 651 measured in RDS (Dong et al., 2017). Here, the RDS samples show low Cu/Sb values, ( $6 \le$ 652 Cu/Sb  $\leq$  7). Excluding the SUR natural pond (Cu/Sb  $\geq$  14.8), the underwater sediments show 653 654 Cu/Sb values between 5.2 and 10.7, which is well below the values determined for the local geochemical background (Cu/Sb = 25). A possible source of variation could be that Sb and Cu 655 656 could also be emitted by oil leakages containing anti-frictions materials such as tin-based babbit alloys used as dry lubricants in engine bearings in case of oil pump failure, themselves 657 658 presenting various compositions (Paleu et al., 2016).

Zinc concentrations in solid samples are positively correlated with Sb concentrations (Fig. SI-1.2, R<sup>2</sup> of 0.92 and 0.73 for RR and SUO respectively, and 0.65 for SUR (0.99 excluding RDS-118)), also pointing to a possible common source in road environments. In the SUR system, the RDS sample (RDS-118) might contain a fraction of galvanized steel issued from the sampled surface, explaining its high Zn concentration. As the Zn-Sb correlation is observed both in urban and rural environments, the source of emission is likely due to abrasion of vehicles constituents, including brake pads (Hjortenkrans et al., 2007).

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# 4.2. Antimony elemental and isotopic geochemistry and associated sources

668 Antimony concentrations in dissolved fractions (0.26 to 13.2  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup>) are comparable to 669 the concentrations measured in a stormwater pond in Oxford (0.67 - 8.19  $\mu$ g.L<sup>-1</sup>,

670 Kamalakkannan et al., 2004). These values are higher than the ones observed in the Orge River even in the highly urbanized areas (0.23-0.44 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> at Viry-Châtillon, Le Pape et al., 671 672 2012). In the SUR natural pond not impacted by traffic runoff, the high dissolved concentration 673 of Sb (12.5 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>) does not reflect the concentrations in the corresponding sediment (0.5 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) and SPM (6.1 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) fractions. Explaining this particular enrichment in dissolved Sb 674 would need further research to determine if it was a punctual anomaly (e.g. local contamination 675 of the overlying aquifer) or a permanent input from the Fontainebleau sand aquifer waters. Our 676 677 values only exceptionally exceed the European guidelines for Sb concentration in drinking water fixed at 10 µg.L<sup>-1</sup> (directive UE 2020/2184) and are below the drinking water guidelines 678 for antimony (<20 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>) as stated by the World Health Organization (Guidelines for Drinking 679 water quality, 2017). 680

All the solid samples collected in the ponds, including sediments, crusts and soils, present an 681 average  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signature of 0.07 ± 0.05‰ (n=25), which is close to the RDS reference material 682 (BCR-723,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb of 0.03‰, Ferrari et al., 2021). Additionally, the  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signatures of RDS 683 samples measured in this study (Fig. 3) are also close to the BCR-723 signature. The RDS 684 685 signature could then reflect a mean isotopic signature of Sb in brake pads in use in France over the last decennials. The low concentrated sediment samples in the SUR natural pond (0.5 686 - 0.6 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) show heavier  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signatures (S-W-118 18 ± ‰0.04 and S-P-118 22 ± 0.03‰) 687 than most of the samples from the stormwater ponds on the same site (Fig. 3). We could thus 688 689 hypothesize that these samples could trace the local geochemical endmember (Fig. 3, in 690 green), or a different source resulting from the industrial activities of the Saclay plateau located above. Nevertheless, the hypothesis of a local Sb contamination source different from the road 691 692 is less plausible considering the low concentrations and EF measured in the natural pond. 693 Moreover,  $\delta^{123}$ Sb and the Sb concentration of the core samples vary slightly from the bottom to the top with a heavier signature  $\delta^{123}$ Sb 0.13‰ at the bottom (1.3 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) going down to 694 0.04‰ at the top sample with a higher concentration (19 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>). Considering the local 695 background signature determined as 0.18% - 0.22%, this variation could be explained by the 696

higher contribution of geogenic materials in deeper samples. Albeit global  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signature 697 points towards a close range of values, the local variation observed on some samples could 698 699 putatively be ascribed to fractionation due to post-depositional processes. Indeed, in the RR-2A10 pond, two samples present diverging  $\delta^{123}$ Sb values in the dissolved fraction (W-DBFO-700 2A10 and W-DBO-2A10) while having the same Sb concentration. DBFO could represent the 701 702  $\delta^{123}$ Sb value for input water whereas DBO could represent the equilibrated value after a longer residence time in the pond. This might be due to isotope fractionation between the dissolved 703 704 and solid fractions the pond due specific biogeochemical processes in to (reduction/oxidation/ligand exchange) occurring within the sediments, potentially attesting of 705 Sb exchanges between the solid phase and the overlying water column. In the RR-1A10 reed-706 planted pond, particularly interesting observations are made for the samples DBSI, DBM, and 707 DBSO, located from the entrance to the exit of the settling pond, respectively. For DBSI and 708 DBM, dissolved and sediment fractions present similar  $\delta^{123}$ Sb signatures (DBSI, 0.15 ± 0.05‰ 709 dissolved vs.  $0.12 \pm 0.04\%$  solid, and DBM,  $0.15 \pm 0.04\%$  dissolved vs.  $0.11 \pm 0.04\%$  solid) 710 whereas for DBSO they significantly differ (0.36  $\pm$  0.02% dissolved vs. 0.03  $\pm$  0.02% solid). 711 712 We could hypothesize that this particular fractionation at the DBSO site could possibly be a 713 consequence of Sb(V) reduction to Sb(III) under anoxic conditions, and/or to ligand exchange from oxygen to sulphur (Rouxel et al., 2003; Ferrari et al., 2022), which would be supported by 714 715 the LCF-XANES analysis on this Sb-rich (45.3  $\pm$  2.7 mg.kg<sup>-1</sup>) sample showing an important 716 contribution of reduced Sb (Sb(III)-S =  $81 \pm 10\%$  vs. Sb(V)-O =  $19 \pm 10\%$ ). A smell of sulphide 717 was also noticed at the DBSO sampling point, indicative of sulphide-producing conditions that might also induce a fractionation of Sb between dissolved and solid fractions, for instance due 718 to production of thio-Sb intermediates (Ye et al., 2019). Alternatively, other physico-chemical 719 720 processes could play a role in Sb isotope fractionation. For instance, preferential adsorption of light Sb isotope has been observed with Sb(V) on alumina due to kinetic effects, leaving 721 722 heavier Sb isotope in aqueous phase (Zhou et al., 2022).

SEM-EDXS allowed us to observe discrete phases carrying Sb (Fig. 4) directly pointing to the 723 brake pad source. In the three systems Sb was similarly observed on micro-particles with high 724 725 backscattering signal associated to iron oxides (Fig. 4). In these particles, Fe, S, Cu, Zn and 726 Ba are observed in addition to Sb (Fig. 4), as it has already been observed in some brake pads (Ingo et al., 2004). Due to brake friction, the high temperature leads to the oxidation of Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> 727 lubricant and oxidizes  $Sb_2S_3$  into  $Sb_2O_5$ ,  $Sb_2O_3$  and/or  $Sb_2O_4$ , depending on the temperature 728 generated by the braking process and the initial composition of brake pads (Ingo et al., 2004; 729 730 Cho et al., 2006; Martinez and Echeberria, 2016). These Sb oxides would then react with metallic iron included in the brake pad to form iron oxides, metallic Sb, and/or Fe-Sb containing 731 alloys (Matějka et al., 2011; Martinez and Echeberria, 2016). Even if its use will probably tend 732 to decrease since health and environment safety decisions in the USA are leading to a ban of 733 Sb in brake pads (US EPA Copper-Free Brake Initiative), these observations and the nature 734 of phases containing Sb observed by SEM-EDXS strongly suggest that brake pads are a 735 present-day source of Sb emission from road traffic at the sampling sites. It is important to note 736 737 that Sb could also be present, even in a large extent, as associated with mineral phases at 738 lower concentration, non-detectable with the SEM-EDXS method. To obtain an image of Sb speciation at the scale of the bulk sample, taking also into account the Sb dispersed within 739 other mineralogical phases at trace level, we applied X-ray absorption spectroscopy at the Sb 740 741 K-edge.

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# 4.3. Antimony geochemical reactivity in road impacted surface

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# 3 environments

Linear combination fits of XANES derivative spectra at the Sb *K*-edge show that both Sb(V)-O and Sb(III)-O are observed in solids sampled in "dry" oxic conditions (Fig. 5). In a previous study, Sb(III) and Sb(V) with both oxygen and sulphur ligands have been detected in urban road samples such as RDS and aerosols (10  $\mu$ m and 2.5  $\mu$ m) (Varrica et al., 2013). In this latter study, the authors interpret their speciation as a result of Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>-containing brake pad abrasion producing Sb oxides (Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Sb(III)-O), and Sb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (Sb(V)-O) species) as also

identified by Matějka et al. (2011). Here, we confirm that, in dust directly produced by road traffic, *i.e.* in the RDS sampled upstream from the studied pond systems, mixed Sb(V)-O/Sb(III)-O oxidation states were present, which would also be in agreement with emissions from brake pads. This tends to indicate, together with SEM-EDXS observations previously discussed, that this source is still active, from direct brake pad abrasion, or from leaching of ancient asphalt surfaces (Dong et al., 2017; Spreadbury et al., 2021).

756 Antimony speciation is driven by both biotic and abiotic geochemical processes including direct Sb bacterial respiration (Li et al., 2016; Loni et al., 2019) and secondary Sb reduction by 757 reductants produced by bacterial respiration. For instance, antimony(V) reduction can be 758 caused by local production of electron donors such as Fe(II) or sulphides, themselves 759 biogenically produced in anoxic/suboxic conditions by Fe(III)-reducing or sulphide producing 760 761 bacteria. Fe(III)-oxy(hydro)xides bioreduction induces a release of Fe(II) into the water and a precipitation of secondary Fe(III) bearing minerals (Burton et al., 2019, 2020). This precipitation 762 may cause the incorporation of Sb(V) species in the neoformed minerals via Fe(III) substitution 763 (Hockmann et al., 2021) or Sb(V) reduction to Sb(III) (Kirsch et al., 2008). Sb(V) reduction can 764 also be mediated by reduced organic matter such as humic acids when associated to Fe(II) in 765 solution (Karimian et al., 2019). In turn, sulphide produced by bacteria can result in Fe-766 oxy(hydro)xides sulphidation followed by the release of Sb(III) and the subsequent formation 767 of Sb(III)-S species (Ye et al., 2019; Hockmann et al., 2020; Ye and Jing, 2022). Finally, abiotic 768 769 processes resulting from surface electrons transfer from Fe and Mn oxyhydroxides to Sb(III) species under oxic atmosphere has been shown to occur at both acidic and neutral pH, 770 771 resulting in Sb(III) oxidation (Belzile et al., 2001).

No direct speciation data are currently available on Sb emitted from road dust contamination when transferred to surrounding surface environments such as soils, sediments and hydrosystems. In the studied pond systems, representative of surface accumulator media, two distinct patterns were discernible. Indeed, solids sampled in oxic "dry" conditions present exclusively oxygen-bound form of Sb, while an additional sulphur-bound form is observed for

777 suboxic underwater samples. This observation would support the hypothesis of local biogeochemical transformations. This is in line with the results of Arsic et al. (2018) who 778 779 observed a significant contribution of Sb(III)-S species (25% to 60%) in their experiments of 780 anoxic sediment aged under a water column and with Ye and Jing (2022) showing the immobilisation of Sb in the Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> form due to S(0) reduction by Shewanella oneidensis MR-1 781 in the presence of Sb(III) adsorbed goethite. Here, we observe an important contribution of 782 Sb(III)-S (48% to 80%) in the underwater samples. Since  $Sb_2S_3$  is constitutive of brake pads, 783 784 we cannot exclude that part the measured Sb(III)-S contribution could originate directly from Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub> fragments even if its oxidation is mainly expected due to brake friction (Matějka et al., 785 2011; Martinez and Echeberria, 2016). If produced by local biogeochemical reactions as 786 shown in the study of Arsic et al. (2018), in the present study, questions remain on the actual 787 identity of the Sb(III)-S phases present in our samples. Indeed, such a Sb(III)-S XANES 788 spectral contribution could be the signature of Sb bonding to thiol functional groups of organic 789 matter (OM) (Besold et al., 2019a, 2019b) or Sb(III) association with iron sulphide such as FeS 790 or FeS<sub>2</sub> (Kirch et al., 2008; Hockmann et al., 2020), or of amorphous Sb-sulphide as observed 791 792 elsewhere (Kulp et al., 2014; Bennett et al., 2017; Besold et al., 2019; Ye and Jing, 2022).

793 Thioantimonate species have been designated as potential intermediates of these sulphidation reactions, having particular consequences on Sb mobility for instance by limiting Sb affinity to 794 iron oxides (Ye et al., 2019, 2021). The presence of minor amounts of such thio-Sb forms, 795 796 including within the solid phase, could not be excluded since XANES spectra of sorbed thio-797 Sb at the Sb K-edge should contribute in between the Sb-O and Sb-S species. In the literature, 798 the sulphidation process of particles such as Sb(V)-containing oxyhydroxides has recently 799 been reported to result in an important Sb mobilization towards the aqueous phase, likely resulting in Sb depletion in the solid fraction (Hockmann et al., 2020). Here, Sb concentrations 800 801 were on average lower in underwater samples compared to the ones sampled on surfaces exposed to air, which would be in line with this process. Alternatively, this difference of 802

concentration could be due to dilution of Sb inputs by detrital particles accumulating in thebasins.

805 In underwater samples of the present study, no statistically significant contribution from 806 Sb(III)-O species were detected. In contrast, Arsic et al. (2018) have observed this species even under anoxic conditions, and Besold et al. (2019a) also observed an important Sb(III)-O 807 contribution in peatland samples. In this latter study, the authors conclude that the high organic 808 content and/or the particular nature of OM would stabilize the Sb(III)-O form, which could also 809 810 be the case for Arsic et al. (2018). In their study concerning Fe oxyhydroxides sulphidation experiments, Hockmann et al. (2020) observed a weak contribution of the Sb(III)-O species in 811 the solids, in particular in their low sulphidic system, which could be related to the fact that only 812 a negligible fraction of antimonite is detected in the aqueous phase. 813

In the underwater sample S-DBSO-1A10, situated upstream in the RR pond system, the major 814 815 species are Sb(III)-S (84 ± 10%) with only 16 ± 10% of Sb(V)-O, while in the dry sample S-FBPI-1A10, located very close on the same hydrologic pathway but at the open air, our 816 results show 74% of Sb(V)-O and 26% of Sb(III)-O. This means that over a short spatial course, 817 Sb shows significant differences in its redox geochemistry. Thus, this would confirm that Sb 818 speciation is particularly versatile in such surface environments, likely driven by the local redox 819 potential. Indeed, changes from anoxic to oxic media result in dramatic changes of Sb oxidation 820 state and coordination chemistry. In addition, the fact that dry sample is more concentrated in 821 Sb than underwater sample would likely support the hypothesis of a Sb transfer, for instance 822 823 in the dissolved phase, and potentially resulting from release due to Sb sulphidation upstream in the pond as evoked previously. These results raise questions about the mobility properties 824 of Sb at the liquid/solid interface in stormwater ponds, in particular because water fluctuations 825 often occur in these ponds, due to evaporation associated with long dry periods and storm 826 827 events or management operations.

# 828 5. Conclusion

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830 This study brings new information about antimony isotope geochemistry and speciation in stormwater pond accumulator media representative of surface environments impacted by road 831 runoff such as urban areas. Both semi-urban and rural ponds are observed to be contaminated 832 with a cocktail of inorganic contaminants clearly identified as emitted by road traffic (Cu, Zn, 833 834 Sb and Pb). Additional inorganic contaminants (Cd, Ni and Cr) are particularly observed in 835 urban ponds and their presence is interpreted to originate from anthropogenic urban/industrial 836 activities. The Pb isotope ratio dataset shows that the impact of urban areas is significant even 837 if the sampling sites are not directly connected to urban networks, which would reflect a contamination at a larger scale, likely due to atmospheric particle inputs or to urban particles 838 reemitted by leaching of vehicles during rain events. Antimony is the most enriched element in 839 both rural and urban highway stormwater ponds exposed to the road traffic source. For the 840 first time, Sb isotope composition ( $\delta^{123}$ Sb) of road dust sediments is characterized and shows 841 842 a homogenous value among the different road-impacted sites, giving access to the mean signature of the Sb-containing brake lining materials used in France during the decades. 843 Preliminary data obtained on both solid and dissolved phases at the rural site indicate that 844 845  $\delta^{123}$ Sb use as (bio)geochemical tracer is promising and should be further studied. Then, we 846 show that Sb is subjected to important changes of speciation (oxidation state and ligands) in 847 the road-to-pond waterway, and is thus highly sensitive to redox changes at the stormwater 848 pond scale. To this respect, a perspective of research is to study the geochemical reactivity of 849 Sb upon aging when the contaminated stormwater pond sediments are submitted to long 850 period of dryness. Thus, mobility of Sb from the main Sb-bearing phases observed should be 851 evaluated to help to manage this contamination. From the results presented here, we posit that 852 the processes leading to speciation and isotopic modifications should be studied in details for a better management of Sb contamination in stormwater pond infrastructures and downstream 853 aquatic environments, and subsequently in urban surface environments exposed to road traffic 854 contaminations. 855

Journal Pression

## 857 Credit author statement

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869

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Denomination	GPS coordinates	Construction (year)	Туре	Drained surface	Trafic per day (2017)	Presence of speed camera
Semi-urban, recent (SUR)	48.7115, 2.1863	~2000	Decantation	Urban + Road	54,187	Yes
Semi-urban, old (SUO)	48.6334, 2.2246 48.6320, 2.2292	1990s	Decantation	Road	56,595	Yes
Rural, recent (RR)	48.5120, 1.9072 48.5125, 1.9082	2012	Decantation + filtration	Road	42,225	No

Journal Pre-pro-

Highlights:

- Highway stormwater ponds concentrate Sb contamination from road runoff •
- Sb isotopic composition of stormwater pond sediments is close to that of road dusts •
- Sb(V)-O, Sb(III)-O, and Sb(III)-S species occur in the road-to-pond continuum •
- Sb(III)-S species are observed as a specific signature of underwater reduced samples •
- Sb speciation changes along the waterway show the high geochemical reactivity of Sb •

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# **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

