

1 **Pb, Cu, and Zn distributions at Humic Acid-Coated**
2 **Metal-Oxide Surfaces**

3
4 Yingge Wang^a, F. Marc Michel^{a,b,+}, Clement Levard^{a,‡}, Yongseong Choi^c, Peter J. Eng^d,
5 Hagar Siebner^a, Baohua Gu^e, John R. Bargar^b, and Gordon E. Brown, Jr.^{a,b,f,g,*}
6

7 ^a*Surface & Aqueous Geochemistry Group, Dept. of Geological & Environmental Sciences,*
8 *Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-2115, USA*

9 ^b*Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource, SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, MS 69, 2575 Sand Hill*
10 *Road, Menlo Park, CA 94025, USA*

11 ^c*Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, 9700 South Cass Ave., Argonne, IL 60439, USA*

12 ^d*Consortium for Advanced Radiation Sources, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL 60637, USA*

13 ^e*Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Environmental Science Division, Oak Ridge, TN 3783, USA*

14 ^f*Dept. of Photon Science, SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, 2575 Sand Hill Road,*
15 *Menlo Park, CA 94025, USA*

16 ^g*Dept. of Chemical Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA*
17
18
19
20

21 To be submitted to *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*
22

23 *Corresponding author address: Green Earth Science Bldg., 367 Panama St., Room 309,
24 Stanford, CA 94305-2115. Tel.: +1 650-723-9168, fax: +1 650-729-2199

25 Email: gordon.brown@stanford.edu

26
27 ⁺Present address: Dept. of Geosciences, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA 24061, USA

28 [‡]CEREGE, Europôle Méditerranéen de l'Arbois, BP 80, 13545 Aix en Provence, Cedex 04,
29 France
30

31 **Abstract**

32

33 Mineral surfaces are often coated by natural organic matter (NOM), which has a major
34 influence on metal-ion sorption and sequestration because the abundance of binding sites in such
35 coatings and the changes in local nanoscale environments they cause. The effects of NOM
36 coatings on mineral surfaces are, however, still poorly understood at the molecular level due to
37 the complexity of these systems. In this study, we applied long-period x-ray standing wave-
38 florescence yield (LP-XSW-FY) spectroscopy to measure the partitioning of naturally present
39 Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) between Elliott soil humic acid (ESHA) coatings and three model
40 single-crystal metal-oxide substrates: α -Al₂O₃ (0001) and (1-102) and α -Fe₂O₃ (0001). The
41 competitive sorption effects among these metal ions for binding sites in the ESHA coatings and
42 on the metal-oxide surfaces were investigated as a function of reaction time, calcium content,
43 and solution pH. Pb(II) ions present in the ESHA coatings were found to redistribute to reactive
44 α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) and α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surfaces after 3 hours of reaction (pH = 6.0, [Ca(II)] = 2
45 mM). Pb(II) partitioning onto these reactive metal-oxide surfaces increased with increasing
46 reaction time. However, no change in the partitioning of Cu(II) and Zn(II) onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-
47 102) surfaces was observed with reaction time, suggesting that these ions strongly complexed
48 with functional groups in the ESHA coatings. Similar results were obtained for Cu(II) and Zn(II)
49 on the ESHA-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces in the samples without the addition of calcium.
50 However, the amounts of Pb(II) mobilized from the ESHA coatings onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
51 surfaces with 2 mM calcium added increased slightly after 24 hours of reaction time possibly due
52 to displacement of Pb(II) by Ca(II) from the binding sites of ESHA coatings. In contrast, Pb(II),
53 Cu(II) and Zn(II) present in the ESHA coatings were found to be unreactive with the α -Al₂O₃
54 (0001) surface. The observed reactivities of the three ESHA-coated metal-oxide surfaces with
55 respect to metal-ion sorption are consistent with the trend observed for the uncoated metal-oxide
56 surfaces: α -Fe₂O₃(0001) > α -Al₂O₃(1-102) > α -Al₂O₃(0001). In addition, Pb(II) partitioning onto
57 α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces increased with increasing pH from 4.0 to 9.0 as a result of the
58 increasing negative surface charge. These results show that intrinsic properties (nature of binding
59 sites, binding affinities, and surface charge) of the ESHA coatings and metal-oxide surfaces, as
60 well as external parameters such as pH, are key factors governing the distribution and speciation
61 of metal ions at complex NOM/mineral interfaces.

62

1. INTRODUCTION

63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93

NOM is ubiquitous in terrestrial and aqueous ecosystems, and humic substances are the predominant species of NOM in water, soil, and sediment environment (Leenheer et al., 1994; Aiken and Cotsaris, 1995; Benedetti et al., 1995; Gu et al., 1996a; Kinniburgh et al., 1999; Tipping, 2002; Koopal et al., 2005). The properties and concentrations of humic substances vary significantly with source because they are heterogeneous mixtures of biochemical degradation products from plant and animal residues (Aiken and Cotsaris, 1995; Tipping, 2002). For example, the concentration of humic substances in groundwater can vary from 1 to 70 mg/l (Thurman E.M., 1982; Herbert and Bertsch, 1995) in soil water as dissolved organic carbon (DOC), whereas the DOC concentration in surface waters can range from 0.5 to 100 mg/L with an average concentration of 5 mg/L, and the DOC concentration in oceans is found to be 1 mg/L in the surface and 0.5 mg/L at depth (Tipping, 2002). The soil content of humic substances can vary from less than 1% in some sandy soils to 100% in peats (Tipping, 2002). The effective concentration of humic substances (mass of humic matter per unit volume of soil water) can be found as high as 60 g/L in B horizons of forest soils, and 5 g/L in the typical marine sediment (Lofts et al., 2001; Tipping, 2002). Humic substances can be present in very high effective concentrations in soil and aquatic sediments, and thus potentially influence metal-ion distributions in natural environments (Tipping, 2002).

Humic substances are complex mixtures of organic macromolecules containing various reactive functional groups such as carboxylic (-COOH), phenolic (-OH), amino (-NHR, -NH₂), and thiol (-RS) (Tipping, 1993; Leenheer et al., 1994; Gu et al., 1996a; Gu et al., 1996b; Kinniburgh et al., 1999; Tipping, 2002; Koopal et al., 2005; Van Riemsdijk et al., 2006; Rey-Castro et al., 2009). Anionic functional groups (e.g., carboxylic) introduce negative charges and have a strong affinity for positively charged mineral surfaces, and thus often partially coat fine-grained minerals such as the common metal-(oxy)hydroxide minerals in soils (Neihof and Loeb, 1974; Davis, 1984; Ransom et al., 1997; Au et al., 1999; Mayer, 1999; Bonneville et al., 2012; Lalonde et al., 2012). Neihof and Loeb (1974) introduced the concept known as the “effective monolayer hypothesis”, which postulates that most particles in marine environments are coated by thin films (effective monolayers) of organic matter. This hypothesis led to the notion that adsorption properties of marine particles are controlled by organic coatings (Balistrieri et al.,

94 1981; Davis, 1984), which was followed by the notion that most particles in soils and aquatic
95 systems are coated by a thin organic film (Mayer, 1994; Au et al., 1999). However, Ransom et
96 al. (1997) found that most organic matter and microbial coatings in continental margin sediments
97 are patchy in distribution and discontinuously associated with clay minerals, thus refuting the
98 effective monolayer hypothesis. In a subsequent study, Mayer (1999) concluded that less than
99 15% of particle surfaces are covered by organic matter in marine aluminosilicate sediments with
100 low to moderate loadings of organic matter (< 3 mg organic carbon/m²). Mayer and Xing (2001)
101 further suggested that organic carbon content in B and C horizons of acidic soil samples is at the
102 monolayer equivalent level (~ 1 mg organic carbon/m²), whereas the organic carbon content in
103 surficial A and O horizons exceeds that level. Nonetheless, soil organic matter is often closely
104 associated with mineral surfaces. Lalonde et al. (2012) reported that 21.5 ± 8.6 percent of organic
105 carbon is directly bound to reactive iron-oxide phases in sediment samples from a wide range of
106 deposition environments, suggesting that reactive iron-oxide phases serve as an “extremely
107 efficient rusty sink” for organic carbon.

108 The presence of such organic coatings on mineral surfaces could potentially induce steric and
109 electrostatic changes that modify the physicochemical properties of colloidal mineral particles
110 such as surface charge and colloidal stability, and substantially alter the sorptive capacity of
111 metal-(oxy)hydroxide minerals (e.g., Davis, 1984; Tipping, 2002; Gu et al., 1996b). In addition,
112 various reactive functional groups present in humic substances are known to form strong
113 complexes with metal contaminants such as Cu, Zn, Pb, and Hg, making them potentially
114 important environmental sorbents and a major influence on the fate and transport of metal
115 contaminants in environmental systems (Benedetti et al., 1995; Kinniburgh et al., 1999; Tipping,
116 2002). A recent study of the speciation of airborne Pb using x-ray adsorption spectroscopy
117 demonstrated that the major species of Pb in air is primarily Pb-humate, suggesting that the Pb is
118 from soils (Pingitore et al., 2009). Understanding how metal ions interact with NOM and
119 minerals in the soil is essential for evaluating the transport and fate of metal ions in our
120 environment.

121 There have been extensive studies of the interaction of humic substances with aqueous metal
122 ions and mineral surfaces in contact with aqueous solutions (Benedetti et al., 1995; Kinniburgh et
123 al., 1999; Wightman and Fein, 2001; Tipping, 2002; Tipping et al., 2002; Tombacz et al., 2004;).
124 However, the potential effects of organic coatings on mineral surface reactivity and their

125 influence on metal-ion sorption and cycling are largely unverified experimentally due to the
126 complexity of the systems and the lack of appropriate analytical tools. As a result, qualitative and
127 quantitative information about metal-ion partitioning between mineral surfaces and organic
128 coatings is required for better understanding of metal cycling under realistic environmental
129 conditions.

130 The availability of high intensity synchrotron light sources has resulted in new analytical
131 methods that can provide quantitative information on the partitioning of metal ions between
132 mineral surfaces and NOM or microbial biofilm coatings. Batterman and Golovchenko and co-
133 workers introduced x-ray standing wave spectroscopy on surfaces in several classic papers
134 (Batterman, 1964; Batterman and Cole, 1964; Golovchenko et al., 1974; Cowan et al., 1980) and
135 pointed out the utility of both long-period and short-period (or Bragg) x-ray standing wave
136 fluorescent yield spectroscopy for probing the distribution of metal ions at buried interfaces.
137 Subsequently, the long-period x-ray standing wave fluorescent yield (LP-XSW-FY) method has
138 been used to probe the vertical distribution of atoms at a number of different types of interfaces,
139 including electrochemical interfaces (Bedzyk et al., 1986; Abruna et al., 1989); biological
140 membranes (Bedzyk et al., 1988; Bedzyk et al., 1990; Wang et al., 1991; Wang et al., 1992),
141 organic thin films (Bedzyk, 1992), and mineral surfaces coated with microbial biofilms or thin
142 organic films (Templeton et al., 2001; Templeton et al., 2003; Yoon et al., 2005; Levard et al.,
143 2011). Two references provide excellent reviews of these various applications of LP-XSW-FY
144 spectroscopy through 2006 (Bedzyk and Cheng, 2002; Trainor et al., 2006)

145 The LP-XSW-FY technique requires a reflecting surface and generates a well-defined
146 intensity field from the superposition of the incident and reflected x-ray beams on the reflective
147 surface in grazing incidence mode under total reflectance conditions (Bedzyk and Cheng, 2002;
148 Trainor et al., 2006). The generated standing wave can excite x-ray fluorescence from the
149 elements present within thin films, and the resulting x-ray fluorescence emission can be detected
150 using an energy dispersive x-ray detector, from which the vertical distribution of the elements
151 present can be obtained (Bedzyk and Cheng, 2002; Trainor et al., 2006). The LP-XSW-FY
152 technique provides a spatially localized periodic probe with a sub-nanometer scale XSW period
153 that is particularly well suited for studying trace element distributions within thin films or
154 layered samples including microbial biofilm- and organic film-coated mineral surfaces (Bedzyk
155 and Cheng, 2002; Trainor et al., 2006). In addition, the energy of incident x-rays can be tuned to

156 simultaneously excite multiple elements present in a thin-film coating on a mineral surface,
157 which provides a new capability for probing the interactions of various elements present in trace
158 concentrations, including competitive effects among multiple metal ions for binding sites within
159 the thin films and on the mineral surfaces.

160 Templeton and co-workers (Templeton et al., 2001) first applied the LP-XSW-FY approach
161 to investigate *in situ* Pb(II) distributions on monolayer biofilm (*Burkholderia cepacia*) coated
162 metal-oxide surfaces and found that the biofilm coatings did not block the reactive sites of the
163 mineral surfaces. In a related study, we applied LP-XSW-FY spectroscopy to probe *in situ* Pb(II)
164 and Zn(II) distributions on multilayer biofilm (*S. oneidensis* MR-1)-coated metal-oxide surfaces
165 and found that even thick reactive biofilms do not change the intrinsic reactivity of the
166 underlying mineral surfaces (Wang et al., submitted-I). We have also used the LP-XSW-FY
167 method (Yoon et al., 2005) to probe Pb(II) and As(V) speciation and distribution at polyacrylic
168 acid (PAA)-coated single-crystal α -Al₂O₃ and α -Fe₂O₃ substrates at pH 4.5, and found that the
169 partitioning of these ions depends on the properties of the PAA film (i.e. carboxylate content) as
170 well as on the intrinsic reactivities of the metal-oxide substrates. In the present study we
171 investigated the partitioning of metal ions at natural organic matter (NOM)/metal-oxide
172 interfaces using a model soil humic acid.

173 Reaction kinetics in metal-NOM-mineral systems is another important component of the
174 present study. In the past, modeling/predicting trace metal distributions and speciation was
175 mainly based on data obtained under equilibrium conditions (Buffle et al., 2007; Louis et al.,
176 2009). However, fluctuating physicochemical conditions in natural systems such as rivers, lakes,
177 estuaries, and oceans can lead to systems far from equilibrium (Tipping, 2002; Buffle et al.,
178 2007; Louis et al., 2009). Many past experimental studies of NOM-metal interactions have not
179 taken reaction kinetics into account or they assume fast kinetics so that the system is under
180 equilibrium as a simplification (Tipping, 2002; Van Riemsdijk et al., 2006; Louis et al., 2009).
181 Predictions of metal speciation in natural systems based on such assumptions should be viewed
182 with caution (Hering and Morel, 1988a; Hering and Morel, 1988b; Tipping, 2002; Buffle et al.,
183 2007; Louis et al., 2009). If reactions are slow, the application of speciation models to natural
184 aquatic systems may result in overestimation of metal toxicity (Hering and Morel,
185 1988b; Tipping, 2002; Louis et al., 2009). To date, only a few studies have characterized the
186 kinetics of trace metal complexation with simple ligands such as EDTA and/or extracted humic

187 substances (Hering and Morel, 1988b; Tipping, 2002; Louis et al., 2009). Hering and Morel
188 (1989) showed that the kinetics of trace metal complexation can be considerably lowered in
189 marine environments due to the competitive effect with calcium and magnesium cations (Hering
190 and Morel, 1989). Slow dissociation rates of aqueous Ca–Mg NOM-complexes and competition
191 with other trace elements are the key factors controlling reaction kinetics in such systems
192 (Hering and Morel, 1988b; Hering and Morel, 1989).

193 In the present study, we chose Elliott Soil Humic Acid (ESHA) as a coating on Al-oxide and
194 Fe-oxide substrates. ESHA is a model soil humic acid that has known physicochemical
195 properties (IHSS). An ESHA concentration of 10 g/L was chosen as representative of the humic
196 acid concentration in soil waters. At this concentration the ESHA coatings contain substantial
197 amounts of metal ions (~0.0002-0.05%) that were originally present in the native form of ESHA,
198 which allowed us to investigate the partitioning of these trace metal ions between the metal-
199 oxide surfaces and the ESHA coatings as a function of time, without introduction of any
200 additional metals to the system. Solution chemistry conditions, including pH and calcium
201 content, were varied to study their effects on trace metal-ion partitioning. Oriented, single-
202 crystal surfaces of α -Al₂O₃ (0001) and (1-102) and α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) were chosen as model metal-
203 oxide surfaces. The use of different crystallographic orientations of single-crystal Fe- and Al-
204 oxides provides information on intrinsic differences in chemical reactivity of different
205 crystallographic surfaces of these common metal oxides (Eng et al., 2000; Trainor et al., 2002;
206 Trainor et al., 2004; Tanwar et al., 2007).

207

208 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

209

210 **2.1. Crystal preparation**

211

212 The single-crystal alumina surfaces were highly polished α -Al₂O₃(0001) and α -Al₂O₃(1-102)
213 purchased from Saint-Gobain Crystals & Detectors Co. The single-crystal α -Fe₂O₃(0001)
214 surfaces were prepared from natural specular hematite from Bahia, Brazil. The hematite crystals
215 were cut into approximately 1 cm² wafers of ~2 mm thickness and polished parallel to (0001)
216 natural growth surface using a chemical-mechanical polishing (CMP) procedure that produced
217 surfaces of sufficient quality for x-ray reflectivity and LP-XSW-FY measurements in previous

218 studies (Eng et al., 2000; Trainor et al., 2002; Trainor et al., 2004; Yoon et al., 2005; Tanwar et
219 al., 2007). The r.m.s. surface roughness is consistently less than 5 Å for these wafers determined
220 by atomic force microscopy (Veeco Multimode Scanning probe microscope). The polished
221 crystal substrates were then carefully cleaned with acetone, then washed in $10^{-3.5}$ M sodium
222 hydroxide for 20 minutes, and subsequently washed in 10^{-2} M nitric acid for an hour. Each
223 chemical washing step was followed by extensive rinses with MilliQ water. The commercial α -
224 Al_2O_3 crystals (1-inch square α - Al_2O_3 (1-102) wafers and 2-inch diameter α - Al_2O_3 (0001)
225 wafers) were also cleaned as described above and then baked at 350°C for 4 hrs to minimize
226 excess carbon on the surfaces. This cleaning procedure was repeated as necessary until impurity
227 metals on the surfaces were undetectable (<0.1%) and the organic (adventitious) carbon on the
228 surfaces was less than ~10% as determined by x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Surface
229 Science S-Probe, monochromatic Al $K\alpha$ radiation).

230

231 **2.2. Deposition of NOM coatings**

232

233 Elliot Soil Humic Acid (ESHA) was purchased from the International Humic Substance
234 Society (IHSS, 1S102H) and used without further purification. ESHA stock solutions of 10 g/L
235 were prepared by dissolving the ESHA powder into N_2 sparged 0.01M NaNO_3 solution. The
236 solution pH was adjusted to 6.0 and equilibrated overnight using an end-over-end rotator; any
237 deviation from pH 6.0 was adjusted by adding small volumes of 0.01N NaOH or 0.01N HNO_3
238 solution. Depending on experimental conditions, 2 mM $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ was added to some of the
239 ESHA solutions to test the effect of calcium on metal-ion partitioning. The ESHA solutions were
240 then filtered using 0.2 μm glass filters. All ESHA solutions were kept in the dark at all times to
241 prevent any photo degradation. Each clean metal-oxide substrate was placed inside a Petri dish.
242 A 200- μl aliquot of ESHA solution was then pipetted onto each crystal surface and equilibrated
243 for the desired reaction time ranging from 3 hours to 7 days. A wet KimwipeTM was kept inside
244 the closed Petri dish to reduce evaporation. After reaction, the samples were taken to a spin
245 coater (Headway Research, Inc., EC101DT spinner), and the reacted ESHA solutions were spin-
246 coated dry onto the metal-oxide surfaces at 1300 rpm for 40 seconds.

247 The trace metal contents of ESHA solutions were measured by inductively coupled plasma
248 atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES). Because of the interference of the high organic carbon

249 content with the metal analyses, ESHA solutions were diluted from 10 g/L to 0.5 g/L to obtain
250 acceptable data from ICP-AES. C K-edge near edge x-ray absorption fine structure (NEXAFS)
251 spectroscopy data were collected at the scanning transmission x-ray microscopy (STXM) end
252 station of beam line 11.0.2.2 at the Advanced Light Source (Lawrence Berkeley National
253 Laboratory). 2- μ l droplets of freshly prepared 0.1g/L ESHA solutions were placed on 100 nm-
254 thick Si₃N₄ membranes, and allowed to air dry in a clean hood. Elemental distribution maps were
255 obtained by subtracting images taken at energies below the absorption edge of the element of
256 interest from images taken at energy slightly above the absorption edge. Image stacks were
257 collected by scanning a predetermined area (\sim 5-10 μ m) of the sample in the x-y directions, at an
258 energy increment of 0.1 eV over the energy range of interest (280-310 eV for the C K-edge).
259 Energy calibration was done initially using the peak at 294.96 eV of gaseous CO₂ for the C K-
260 edge. Normalization and background correction of the C K-edge NEXAFS spectra were
261 performed by dividing each spectrum by a second spectrum from a C-free location on the same
262 sample. The aXis2000 software package was used for image and spectral processing (Hitchcock,
263 2000). ICP-AES and STXM analysis were also performed for Suwannee River Humic Acid
264 (SRHA) and Suwannee River Fulvic Acid (SRFA) using the same procedure for comparison.

265

266 **2.3. LP-XSW-FY measurements and data analysis**

267

268 LP-XSW-FY measurements were performed at the GSECARS sector on undulator beamline
269 13-ID-C at the Advanced Photon Source (APS) using a general-purpose Kappa diffractometer.
270 X-rays were monochromatized using a liquid N₂-cooled Si(111) monochromator and were
271 focused using Rh-coated double-focusing mirrors. The x-ray beam was collimated to 1.0 mm
272 vertical and 20 μ m horizontal. Samples were mounted in a TeflonTM sample cell covered with a
273 polypropylene film, and the space over the sample was purged by dry helium gas during the
274 experiments. The x-ray incidence angle was scanned between 0.0 and 0.5° in 0.002° steps for the
275 x-ray reflectivity measurements while the incident (I₀) and reflected (I₁) x-rays were monitored
276 through N₂-filled gas ionization chambers. The fluorescence yield of various trace metal ions was
277 collected at 14 keV incident energy. Fluorescence spectra were acquired using a 4-element
278 silicon drift detector (SII NanoTechnology, Vortex-ME4) coupled to digital x-ray processor
279 electronics (X-ray Instrumentation Associates, xMAP). The detector array was located in the

280 horizontal plane and 90° to the incident beam in order to suppress the charge scattering
281 background from the sample. Each of the four detector elements was fit with a collimator so that
282 it could only detect the x-ray foot print at the center of the sample and thus block scatter and
283 fluorescence x-rays from background being collected by the detector. The fluorescence yield
284 spectrum from each of the four detector elements was averaged and corrected for deadtime. The
285 total area of each fluorescence peak was fit using a Gaussian line shape on a linear background.
286 Repetitive scans of LP-XSW-FY and reflectivity profiles with the x-ray beam centered at the
287 same positions on various samples showed identical profiles. This observation suggests that x-
288 ray beam exposure of the ESHA-coated mineral samples did not cause changes in the metal-ion
289 distribution during the LP-XSW-FY measurements. However, in order to avoid undetectable
290 changes that might be caused by the x-ray beam, the initial alignment was performed at one
291 position, and each subsequent LP-XSW-FY profile was then collected at a fresh spot after quick
292 realignment to reduce beam exposure. The sample was moved up or down in position at least 1
293 mm away from the initial alignment position for previous scans. LP-XSW-FY fitting analysis
294 was done using the procedure described in previous studies (Kitts et al., 2009; Levard et al.,
295 2011; Wang et al., submitted-I). The specular x-ray reflectivity was fit using a routine based on
296 Parratt's recursion formula (Parratt, 1954), and was then modeled to obtain the thickness,
297 density, and roughness of the film layer(s) with least-squares fitting. The resulting fit parameters
298 are used to calculate the LP-XSW-FY field intensity modulation. The distribution of the
299 fluorescing species was then obtained by combing the distribution function with the electric field
300 intensity modulation. A two-box model was used in this study which divides the interface into
301 two regions: one near the substrate surface with a thickness of 5 \AA and another extending from 5
302 \AA to the top of the ESHA coatings. Attenuation of the emitted fluorescence intensity is accounted
303 for in the LP-XSW-FY calculations. A least-squares routine was used to fit the parameters for
304 the distribution model, from which the element partitioning profiles were obtained. The fitting
305 was performed using custom-made LP-XSW-FY codes in the Igor program (Igor Pro,
306 WaveMetrics, Lake Oswego, Oregon).

307

308

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

309

3.1. Properties and metal-ion contents of ESHA coatings

310

311
312 ESHA contains much higher nitrogen, phosphorous, total amino acid, and total sugar
313 contents compared with the other types of NOMs provided by IHSS (see Table A1). The high
314 content of nitrogen agrees well with the high amount of total amino acid for ESHA, which
315 indicates a high content of N-containing functional groups. The high sugar content of ESHA
316 allows it to form a relatively smooth and uniform film on the metal-oxide surfaces. Fig. 1A
317 shows STXM-based C K-edge NEXAFS spectra for ESHA as compared to SRFA and SRHA.
318 The spectral features at 285.0eV, 286.6eV, and 288.6 eV marked by dashed lines indicate the
319 presence of aromatic, phenolic, and carboxylic functional groups, respectively. The spectrum of
320 the ESHA sample shows a high intensity and broadened peak at ~ 285.0 eV, indicating high
321 aromatic group content. This observation is consistent with the NMR data provided by IHSS,
322 which shows a higher ratio of aromatic (50 ppm) to carboxyl groups (18 ppm) in ESHA as
323 compared with other humic substances such as SRHA and SRFA (IHSS). Humic substances
324 generally contain two major functional groups responsible for metal-ion binding: carboxylic and
325 phenolic functional groups. Titration studies have shown that the pK_a values for carboxylic
326 groups and phenolic groups in ESHA are 4.36 and 9.8 (IHSS), respectively, which fall in the
327 general range of pK_a values for these two types of functional groups. However, the concentration
328 of carboxylic groups is much higher than that of phenolic groups in ESHA (see Table A1),
329 suggesting that phenolic groups are not the dominant aromatic groups in ESHA (IHSS). Fig. 1B
330 shows the carbon maps for carboxylic and aromatic carbon of a dry ESHA aggregate. The
331 aromatic part of ESHA appears to be present mostly within the interior of the aggregate, whereas
332 the carboxylic C is distributed throughout the aggregate. This is likely caused by the
333 hydrophobic properties of the aromatic C.

334 The composition of NOM is very important in metal-ion sequestration because composition
335 is directly related to metal binding properties. The competitive effects between different metal
336 ions due to the presence of a variety of binding sites in humic substances have been studied
337 extensively with several models such as the NICA-Donnan model and Model V and VI (Tipping,
338 1993; Benedetti et al., 1995; Kinniburgh et al., 1999; Tipping, 2002; Koopal et al., 2005). Three
339 types of interaction between metal ions and NOM can be represented by three different types of
340 sites: (1) non-specific sites due to the electrostatic attraction of cations by abundant negative
341 charges present in humic materials; (2) abundant weak sites including carboxylic and phenolic

342 weak acid groups; and (3) stronger but less abundant sites such as N- and S-containing functional
343 groups. The abundant weak binding sites of humic substances are further divided into stronger
344 phenolic and weaker carboxylic binding sites, which have been extensively studied by
345 experiments as well as modeling (Alberts and Filip, 1998; Tipping, 2002). Certain metal ions
346 such as Al(III) and Pb(II) were found to preferentially bind to phenolic groups, whereas Ca(II),
347 Mg(II), Cd(II), and Fe(II) preferentially bind to carboxylic groups. Others such as Cu(II), Zn(II),
348 Ni(II), and Fe(III) tend to bind to both phenolic and carboxylic groups (Rey-Castro et al., 2009).
349 N- and S-containing groups such as amine and thiol groups in NOM are considered very strong
350 binding sites due to their high affinities for soft metals such as Cu and Hg with $\log K$ values > 20
351 (Tipping, 2002). However, knowledge of metal binding with the strongest sites in humic
352 substances is quite limited due to the low concentration of these sites and the lack of suitable
353 analytical techniques for detecting metal speciation at very low metal loadings.

354 LP-XSW-FY has been shown to be a suitable surface characterization technique that can
355 detect elements at trace concentrations (Yoon et al., 2005; Kitts et al., 2009; Levard et al., 2011).
356 Fig. 2 presents a typical fluorescent spectrum collected for ESHA coatings at an incidence angle
357 of 0.1 degree collected at 14 keV incident energy. ESHA as received from IHSS contains various
358 metal ions including Pb, Zn, Cu, Cl, S, Se, Br, Ca, K, Co, Fe, and Ni (LP-XSW-FY spectra of
359 these elements are presented in Fig. A1). Table 1 lists the concentration of Zn, Cu, Fe, K, and Pb
360 in several humic substances analyzed by ICP-AES and the Zn/Cu ratios are compared with those
361 obtained using the LP-XSW-FY technique. Because of the high organic content, ICP-AES is
362 limited to measure NOM solution concentrations of 0.5 g/L or lower. The two measurements
363 show good agreement for Zn/Cu ratio considering that ICP-AES measurements required a 20x
364 dilution and LP-XSW-FY modeling includes a number of corrections for x-ray attenuation.
365 However, LP-XSW-FY method shows a greater sensitivity compared to ICP-AES; our ICP-AES
366 analyses can only detect half of the elements identified by LP-XSW-FY. The amount of Cu(II)
367 ions in ESHA coatings is about 3 times greater than that of Zn(II), whereas Pb(II), Co(II), and
368 Ni(II) are present in trace amounts, which cannot be detected by ICP-AES. Notably, Fe is present
369 in a significant amount in three NOM samples examined (Table 1). The metal-ion content in
370 ESHA coatings is in the order $Fe > Cu > Zn > Pb > Co > Ni$ based on LP-XSW-FY analysis.

371

372 **3.2. Pb(II) partitioning as a function of time between ESHA coatings and α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)**
373 **single-crystal substrates**

374
375 Similar to polyacrylic acid (PAA) and biofilm-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces (Templeton
376 et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2005; Wang et al., submitted-I), the critical angle of the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
377 substrate in the x-ray reflectivity profile is 0.165 ± 0.010 degree at 14 keV incident x-ray energy
378 as shown in Fig. 3. LP-XSW-FY profiles for Pb(II) partitioning as a function of time between
379 ESHA coatings and the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) substrate are shown in Fig. 4 (10 g/L ESHA, pH = $6.0 \pm$
380 0.05 , 0.01M NaNO₃, [Ca(II)] = 2 mM). Table 2 lists the thickness, roughness, and LP-XSW-FY
381 fitting results for the various samples tested. The thicknesses of the ESHA coatings on the α -
382 Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces vary from 250 to 450 nm, depending on the experimental conditions, with
383 roughness ranging from 0.5 to 2.5 nm.

384 Pb(II) LP-XSW-FY profiles (Fig. 4) show two characteristic FY maxima, one at $\sim 0.125^\circ$
385 (the critical angle of the ESHA) and one at $0.165^\circ \pm 0.010$ (the critical angle of the α -Al₂O₃ (1-
386 102) surface). The relative intensities of the two maxima in these profiles correlate with the
387 metal-ion distributions in the ESHA coatings and on the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces. For samples
388 with short-time equilibration (< 24 hours), the lower angle peak ($\sim 0.12^\circ$) in the LP-XSW-FY
389 profile exhibits a much greater intensity than the higher angle peak ($\sim 0.165^\circ$), which suggests
390 that Pb(II) is mainly sorbed in the ESHA coatings. An increase of the second FY maximum close
391 to the critical angle of α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces was observed as the reaction time increased,
392 indicating that more Pb(II) ions partitioned onto the Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces. Fitting the LP-
393 XSW-FY profiles using two-box model allows extraction of quantitative information regarding
394 the partitioning of Pb(II) between ESHA coatings and the metal-oxide surfaces. Table 2 presents
395 the percentage of Pb(II) onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces for each reaction time. As the reaction
396 time increased, the percentage of Pb(II) ions on the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces increased from
397 11.4% after 3 hours to 57.4% after 7 days.

398 Fig. 5 shows the LP-XSW-FY profiles for Cu(II) ions at ESHA-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
399 surfaces as a function of reaction time. Unlike Pb(II) ions, Cu(II) ions show maxima at $\sim 0.125^\circ$
400 in the profiles consistently as reaction time increased, suggesting that ESHA coatings dominated
401 the sorption of Cu(II). LP-XSW-FY model fitting results show that more than 99% of Cu(II) ions
402 were associated with ESHA coatings regardless of the reaction time (Table 2). Similar results

403 have been found for Zn(II) partitioning (see Fig. A2 and Table 2): ESHA coatings dominated Zn
404 sorption (>99%) at all the reaction time tested. It is likely that some Cu(II) and Zn(II) ions
405 partitioned onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces; however, due to the high concentrations of Cu(II)
406 and Zn(II) ions in ESHA coatings, the two-box model is insensitive so that the amounts of both
407 ions present at α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces are not resolvable. Similarly, LP-XSW-FY fitting for
408 the other ions present in the systems shows that more than 99% of S, Ca, Cl, Se, Br, Ni, and Co
409 ions are present in the ESHA coatings, and do not show the time dependent partitioning behavior
410 observed for Pb(II) ions.

411 Fig. 6 shows the percentage of Pb(II) partitioning onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surface as a
412 function of reaction time. The kinetic data can be divided into two regions: (1) time 0 to 24
413 hours, and (2) 24 hours to 7 days. An initial rapid increase in the percentage of Pb(II) partitioned
414 onto the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces was observed followed by a slower increase. At least two
415 reaction steps are hypothesized in order to explain the reaction kinetics. First, metal ions in the
416 ESHA coatings must dissociate from the metal-humic complex, and then the free metal ions can
417 react with the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces as indicated by the following reactions (Hering and
418 Morel, 1988b; Hering and Morel, 1989; Tipping, 2002):

419



422

423 where Me represents the metal ions, Me-A is the metal ion-humic complex, M-OH is Al- or Fe-
424 (oxy)hydroxide surfaces, Me-O-M is the metal complexes with Al- or Fe-(oxy)hydroxides. The
425 decomplexation/dissociation reaction of metal ions with humic acid is described in reaction 1.
426 Dissociation of monodentate complexes is a hydrolysis reaction, involving displacement of
427 ligand by H₂O (Tipping, 2002). Complexation of metal ions with a mineral surface is described
428 in reaction 2. Redistribution of metal ions from ESHA coatings to the underlying mineral
429 surfaces would be expected if metal ions have a higher affinity for the alumina surface as
430 described by the two simplified reactions. Reaction 2 can occur on time scale of seconds, and is
431 generally fast as compared to reaction 1 (Tipping, 2002; Buffle et al., 2007). Therefore, reaction
432 1 is the rate-limiting step, especially for strong metal-humic complexes because the rate of

433 dissociation is inversely related to the stability of the complex. The more stable the M-A
434 complex, the slower reaction 1 will be (Tipping, 2002).

435 There are several types of reaction sites present in ESHA coatings as well as on metal-oxide
436 surfaces. The reactive sites in ESHA coatings are known to be heterogeneous, and can be
437 described by a continuous function of affinities or a number of discrete sites. Most models
438 describing metal-humic interactions often use at least three types of binding sites: type A
439 (monodentate site ML type), type B (bidentate site ML_2 type), and type C
440 (tridentate/multidentate, and strong reactive N and S-containing groups) (Benedetti et al., 1995;
441 Kinniburgh et al., 1999; Tipping, 2002; Koopal et al., 2005). Similarly, on the α - Al_2O_3 (1-102)
442 surface, the presence of strong and weak binding sites is also expected (Templeton et al., 2001;
443 Yoon et al., 2005). Thus mobilization of metal ions such as Pb(II) from ESHA coatings to the
444 metal-oxide surfaces may involve multiple reaction steps depending on site densities and binding
445 affinities of the various sites in the ESHA films and on the α - Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces, the
446 conformation of the humic molecules, and the physical accessibility of various reactive sites on
447 the surface to metal ions.

448 In general, the densities of type A binding sites are twice as much as type B sites, and the
449 binding affinity of type A sites can be estimated from those of simple carboxylic acids such as
450 acetic and lactic acids. The binding affinity of type B sites (pK_{MHB}) for humic acid, can be
451 predicted from the binding affinity of type A sites (pK_{MHA}) using the relationship: $pK_{MHB} =$
452 $3.0pK_{MHA}-3.0$ (Tipping, 1993; Tipping, 2002). Ephraim et al. (1995) studied 11 aqueous fulvic
453 acids and reported site densities of carboxylic groups to be in the range of 3.72 to 9.86 mmol/g.
454 However, such similarity of metal binding is restricted to the weaker binding sites. Cu, Zn, and
455 Hg are expected to bind preferentially to very strong binding sites such as N-containing groups,
456 and the binding affinities for these sites can vary significantly depending on different sources of
457 humic materials with different N-containing groups and N content (Tipping, 2002). Frenkel et al.
458 (2000) found that Cu binds predominantly with N-containing groups at low metal loadings and
459 pH 4.0, whereas binding to the carboxylic groups dominate at higher metal loadings. Alberts and
460 Filip (1998) concluded that N groups play a more important role than O containing functional
461 groups for Cu(II) binding in humic acid.

462 Although Pb(II) generally has a strong affinity for various functional groups present on
463 bacterial and mineral surfaces (Bargar et al., 1997; Templeton et al., 2001; Bargar et al., 2004;

464 Ha et al., 2010), the partitioning of Pb(II) from the ESHA coatings to the underlying mineral
465 surface found in the present study suggests that Pb(II) is not as strongly associated with ESHA
466 coatings as Cu(II) and Zn(II). Cu(II) is expected to bind more strongly to functional groups in
467 NOM than Pb(II) due to the affinity of Cu(II) for strong N-containing functional groups in humic
468 acid. Tipping (2002) predicted a “crossover” for Cu(II) and Pb(II) binding in humic acid using
469 Model VI, based on the reasoning that Pb(II) ions have a higher affinity than Cu(II) for the
470 abundant weakly binding sites, but a lower affinity for the more rare strongly binding sites. The
471 difference in metal-ion partitioning behavior observed for Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) in the
472 present study may be due to the presence of strong binding sites such as N-containing groups in
473 the ESHA coatings. ESHA has considerably higher N content and total amino acids than other
474 IHSS humic acids, as mentioned in section 3.1 (see Table A1). Because the metal ions
475 considered in this study are naturally present in ESHA, they are expected to bind to the strong
476 binding sites of ESHA. Comparison of the Cu(II) and Zn(II) ion concentrations in the ESHA
477 coatings (approximately 0.023% and 0.009%, respectively) with the N concentration in ESHA
478 (4.14%), suggests that these ions bind mostly to N-containing groups in ESHA coatings, and thus
479 should be stable and immobile in the ESHA. We found no evidence that Pb(II) has a strong
480 affinity for N-containing groups; instead, it binds most likely to phenolic groups in humic acid
481 (Rey-Castro et al., 2009). However, the phenolic content of ESHA is quite low compared to the
482 other types of NOMs from IHSS (see Table A1), and it is likely that Pb(II) binds weakly to
483 ESHA. As a result, Pb(II) ions are likely to bind to the strong reactive sites on the underlying α -
484 Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces; therefore, Pb(II) is more labile than Cu(II) and Zn(II) under the
485 experimental conditions used here. The weaker binding of Pb(II) by ESHA can also be linked to
486 the low Pb content ($\sim 0.0002\%$) of the ESHA coatings in its native state.

487 Because of their low concentrations, the strong binding sites in humic substances are poorly
488 known (Tipping, 2002; Louis et al., 2009). The low detection limits of the LP-XSW-FY method
489 used in this study allowed us to probe metal concentrations in the nM range. This together with
490 the ability to simultaneously collect fluorescence yield from the different elements present in
491 ESHA opens the possibility of studying metal-ion binding to strong binding sites of NOM as
492 well as competition among the metal ions for the same binding sites in ESHA coatings and the
493 metal-oxide substrates.

494

495 **3.3. The effect of calcium ions on metal-ion partitioning between ESHA coatings and α -**
496 **Al_2O_3 (1-102) single-crystal substrates**

497
498 Because of the abundance of Ca(II) in natural waters, competition between Ca(II) and other
499 metal ions for different binding sites of humic substances and mineral surfaces can be significant
500 (Hering and Morel, 1988a; Hering and Morel, 1988b; Hering and Morel, 1989). For example,
501 Hering and Morel (1988b) found that the kinetics of metal complexation with humic acid can be
502 lowered significantly due to the competition of abundant Ca(II) and Mg(II) with other cations for
503 humic acid binding sites in marine environments. They suggested that, the slow dissociation rate
504 of Ca/Mg-NOM-complexes coupled with these competitive effects are the key factors
505 controlling trace metal reaction kinetics (Hering and Morel, 1988b).

506 Calcium ions can affect metal ion/humic acid interactions in a number of ways. They can (1)
507 provide charge neutralization of the abundant negatively charged functional groups in humic
508 macromolecules; (2) bind to humic acid at non-specific sites (electrostatic attraction) and weakly
509 complex with the carboxylic groups in humic acids, thus act as a potential major competitor of
510 other metal ions for sorption sites in NOM; (3) increase the ionic strength of the solution more
511 effectively than monovalent ions such as Na and K; and (4) cause bridging between humic
512 molecules, resulting in conformational changes that could lead to physical hindrance of metal
513 binding (Hering and Morel, 1988b; Hering and Morel, 1989; Tipping, 2002). The effect of Ca(II)
514 ions on metal-humic binding is an intricate interplay of these factors. Therefore, it is important to
515 consider the kinetics of metal ion-humic acid complexation/dissociation perturbed by the
516 addition of metal ions such as Ca(II).

517 Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) partitioning between ESHA coatings and the α - Al_2O_3 (1-102)
518 substrates in the system without the addition of calcium were measured (see Fig. A3) and the
519 metal-ion partitioning results were presented in Table 2. Fig. 6 shows the influence of Ca(II)
520 ions on Pb(II) and Cu(II) partitioning as a function of reaction time. Similar to the system with
521 added Ca, the partitioning of Pb(II) to the α - Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces increased as reaction time
522 increased, suggesting that Pb(II) increasingly mobilized to the reactive α - Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces.
523 From the initial reaction to about 24 hrs, the addition of 2 mM Ca(II) ions to the system did not
524 show much difference in Pb(II) partitioning to the α - Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces. However, for longer

525 reaction times (from 2 days to 7 days), we observed a slightly higher Pb(II) partitioning to the α -
526 Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces in the presence of 2 mM Ca relative to the system without Ca.

527 The slightly enhanced partitioning of Pb(II) ions to Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces in the 2 mM
528 calcium system at longer reaction time indicates that Ca(II) ions compete with Pb(II) for binding
529 sites in ESHA coatings, i.e. large amounts of introduced Ca(II) ions replaced weakly bound
530 Pb(II) in the ESHA and increased the amount of Pb(II) redistributed to the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
531 surface. Competitive sorption effects of Ca(II) on Cu(II) and Cd(II) binding by humic acid have
532 been studied by Kinniburgh et al. (1999). Ca(II) was reported to compete much more effectively
533 with Cd(II) for the low affinity sites (carboxylic groups) than with Cu(II) for high affinity sites
534 (phenolic and N- or S-containing groups) (Kinniburgh et al., 1999). The effect of Ca(II) on
535 Cd(II) binding was found to be significant, but almost no effect of Ca(II) was observed for Cu(II)
536 binding to humic acids (Tipping, 2002).

537 On the other hand, increasing Ca concentration increased the ionic strength which promotes
538 electrostatic shielding and decreases metal binding in humic substances. Although ionic strength
539 does not play a major role in controlling inner-sphere complexation reactions, it becomes an
540 important parameter for metal-ion sorption on highly negatively charged humic molecules,
541 especially for weaker binding sites. Metal-ion binding to humic acids has been shown to
542 decrease with increasing ionic strength (Fitch et al., 1986; Zachara and Smith, 1994). NICCA-
543 Donnan model predicted that the effect of ionic strength is more pronounced for Pb(II) than
544 Cu(II) (Tipping, 2002). In our case, Pb(II) binding by ESHA is weakened by competition with
545 Ca(II) and increasing ionic strength; therefore, more Pb(II) is redistributed to the α -Al₂O₃ (1-
546 102) surfaces compared to the systems without added Ca.

547 In addition, Ca(II) has been found to increase the aggregation of humic macromolecules, and
548 increase the adsorption of humic acids to iron-oxide surfaces (Tipping, 2002). In our study, the
549 film-air roughness was always higher in all the samples with 2 mM Ca added compared to the
550 systems without Ca (Table 2). This finding is likely due to the fact that addition of Ca(II) ions
551 causes more aggregation of the macromolecules in the ESHA coatings. The well-known bridging
552 effect of Ca(II) on humic acid can cause steric interference or physical hindrance for Pb(II) ions
553 to be released from humic acid which could partially explain why the effect of Ca(II)
554 competition with Pb(II) binding by humic acid in our study was not obvious during the initial 24
555 hours of reaction.

556 Another possible explanation for the observed higher Pb(II) mobility in the 2 mM calcium
557 system is the fact that adding Ca(II) ions and then filtering the ESHA solution through 0.22 μm
558 filters removed the larger and more hydrophobic fraction of ESHA. This fraction of humic acid
559 is often associated with aromatic functional groups and possibly phenolic groups, which are
560 likely to be the stronger binding sites for Pb(II) ions in the ESHA coatings. Hence, Pb(II) ions
561 left in the ESHA solutions are more weakly bound, and are therefore more likely to be mobilized
562 to the metal-oxide surfaces once in contact with strong sorption sites on these surfaces.

563

564 **3.4. Metal-ion partitioning between ESHA coatings and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) and $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001)** 565 **single crystal surfaces**

566

567 Short time (3-hour) and long time (3-day) samples were collected for ESHA-coated $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$
568 (0001) and $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) single-crystal surfaces samples. X-ray reflectivity curves collected
569 for the ESHA-coated $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) surfaces (see Fig. 3 and Fig. A4) are similar to those for
570 ESHA-coated $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) surfaces, with a critical angle of 0.165 ± 0.010 degree at 14 keV
571 of incident x-ray energy. ESHA coatings formed on $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) surfaces are generally
572 thinner (200-270 nm) than ESHA coatings formed on $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) surfaces (Table 3).
573 Unlike the $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) surface, Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) present in the ESHA coatings on
574 the $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) surface do not show time-dependent partitioning from the coatings to the
575 surface (see Fig. A4 and Table 3). More than 99% of the Pb(II), Cu(II), Zn(II), Ni(II), Co(II), S,
576 Fe, P, Se, Cl and Br ions remained in the ESHA coatings even after 3 days of reaction. This
577 finding is consistent with the fact that $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) is a relatively inert surface as shown in
578 previous studies (Liu et al., 1998; Templeton et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2005).

579 Reflectivity profiles collected for ESHA-coated $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) surfaces (see Fig. 3 and Fig.
580 A5) show the critical angle of the substrate is $0.185^\circ \pm 0.010$ at 14 keV of incident x-ray energy.
581 ESHA coatings formed on $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) surfaces are generally thicker (349.2 nm after 3 hours
582 of reaction to 542.0 nm after 3 days of reaction) than those formed on the $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) and (1-
583 102) surfaces (Table 3). Significant amounts of Pb(II) ions quickly redistributed to the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$
584 (0001) surface after 3 hours (74.1%) and increasingly partitioned to the surface after 3 days of
585 reaction (91.7%) (see Table 3 and Fig. A5). These changes indicate that the $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001)
586 surface is much more reactive to Pb(II) compared with the $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) surfaces. Templeton

587 et al. (2001) showed that the site densities of the strong binding sites on the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001)
588 surface are about 2.5 times higher than those on the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces, and Pb(II) binding
589 affinities to the strong binding sites on α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) are about 4.5 times higher than those on
590 α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces (Templeton et al., 2001). As a result, Pb(II) was quickly mobilized
591 from the ESHA coatings to the more reactive α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surface. In contrast to Pb(II), both
592 Cu(II) and Zn(II) ions showed almost no partitioning from the ESHA coatings to the α -Al₂O₃
593 (0001) and (1-102) surfaces with respect to reaction time (> 99% of the ions were in the ESHA
594 coatings). However, even Cu(II) ions showed a slight partitioning (2.4%) to the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001)
595 surface after 3 hours of reaction and continuously increased to 6.4% after 3 days even though
596 Cu(II) ions have much higher concentrations in the ESHA coatings compared with that of Pb(II)
597 ions. Similarly, 3.7% of Zn(II) ions partitioned to the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surface after 3 hours and
598 7.7% of Zn(II) ions partitioned to the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surface after 3 days.

599 Table 3 compares the partitioning of Pb(II), Cu(II), and Zn(II) ions between ESHA coatings
600 and the three mineral surfaces: α -Al₂O₃ (0001), α -Al₂O₃ (1-102), and α -Fe₂O₃ (0001). For the
601 inert α -Al₂O₃ (0001) surfaces, the ESHA coatings were the dominant sinks for all three metal
602 ions regardless of the reaction time. For the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces, only Pb(II) ions showed
603 significant partitioning to the surface after 3 hours, and the surfaces dominated Pb(II) sorption
604 after 7 days for the system with added calcium. For the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surfaces, all three metal
605 ions migrated toward the surface after 3 hours, and the partitioning continued to increase after 3
606 days of exposure time. Therefore, the α -Fe₂O₃ (0001) surface is the most reactive surface
607 towards metal ions, followed by the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) and α -Al₂O₃ (0001) surfaces.

608 Past studies have shown that the mode of binding and mechanism of formation of metal-ion
609 sorption complexes formed on at metal-oxide/water interfaces are strongly dependent on the
610 orientation, composition, and structure of the surfaces (Bargar et al., 1996; Bargar et al., 1997;
611 Trainor et al., 2000; Trainor et al., 2001; Bargar et al., 2004). For example, Pb(II) sorption
612 complexes formed on alumina surfaces are sensitive to the crystallographic orientation and
613 sorption density: Pb(II) forms primarily outer-sphere complexes on α -Al₂O₃ (0001) surfaces
614 (Bargar et al., 1996), but it forms a variety of inner-sphere complexes (mononuclear at low
615 sorption to multinuclear at high sorption density) on α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces (Bargar et al.,
616 1997; Bargar et al., 2004). In contrast, Pb(II) forms dominantly inner-sphere complexes on both
617 the (0001) and (1-102) surfaces of α -Fe₂O₃ (Bargar et al., 2004). On the other hand, Zn(II)

618 forms predominantly inner-sphere complexes on both the (0001) and (1-102) surfaces of α -
619 Al_2O_3 (Trainor et al., 2001). A general trend in reactivity exists among three model surfaces with
620 respect to reactivity with metal ions: $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) > $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) > $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001), as
621 shown in various metal sorption studies on clean uncoated surfaces as well as on biofilm- and
622 PAA-coated surfaces (Liu et al., 1998; Templeton et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2005; Wang et al.,
623 submitted-I). The reactivity of surfaces with respect to metal-ion sorption observed in this study
624 is consistent with this general trend. Thus, we conclude that the intrinsic order of reactivity of the
625 metal-oxide surface is preserved even with 200-500 nm thick, dense ESHA coatings, suggesting
626 that the ESHA coatings do not block reactive sites on the metal-oxide surfaces.

627

628 **3.5. The effect of pH on metal-ion partitioning between ESHA coatings and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102)** 629 **single crystal surfaces**

630

631 ESHA film thickness, roughness, and the percentage of Pb(II) ions in the ESHA coatings and
632 on the surfaces as a function of pH are reported in Table 3. As the pH was increased from 4.0 to
633 9.0, the reflectivity profiles changed significantly, which indicates that the ESHA film properties
634 changed (see Fig. A6). At pH 4.0 and 9.0, the ESHA coatings were much rougher (~ 45 and ~ 24
635 \AA rms roughness, respectively) compared with the coatings formed at pH 6.0 (~ 10 \AA rms
636 roughness). These differences in roughness suggest that the ESHA macromolecules in the
637 coatings may have undergone conformational change as pH changed. Such changes in the
638 conformation of fulvic acid in solution have been previously observed using transmission x-ray
639 microscopy (Myneni et al., 1999). Solution chemistry, including pH and ionic strength, has a
640 profound influence on the size and conformation of NOM molecules causing its structural
641 complexity (Myneni et al., 1999). At pH 4.0, both carboxylic ($\text{p}K_a = 4.3$) and phenolic ($\text{p}K_a =$
642 9.8) functional groups are protonated and thus ESHA has a relatively low negative charge. In this
643 case, ESHA macromolecules tend to aggregate due to their low electrostatic repulsive
644 interactions (Tipping, 2002). Aggregate formation could lead to the high roughness observed for
645 the ESHA coatings at pH 4.0. However, ESHA macromolecules can still be easily attached to α -
646 Al_2O_3 (1-102) surfaces because the surface has a positive charge at pH 4.0. The pH_{PZC} of α -
647 Al_2O_3 (1-102) single-crystal surfaces was found to be 5.2 for $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) (Wang et al.,
648 submitted-II). At pH 9.0, most of the functional groups of ESHA are deprotonated and have

649 significant negative charges, thus molecules tend to be more linear, flexible chains instead of
650 coils, and fewer aggregates will be formed in the ESHA coatings as compared with pH values of
651 4.0 and 6.0. On the other hand, the surface of α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) has a negative charge at pH 9.0,
652 and the attachment of the ESHA coatings is expected to be more difficult at this pH values as
653 compared with pH 4.0 and 6.0. Based on the above reasoning, the film formed at pH 6.0 should
654 have the lowest roughness compared with the films formed at pH 4.0 and 9.0.

655 LP-XSW-FY fitting results show that Pb(II) partitioning increased from ~ 4% to ~ 55% as
656 pH is increased from 4.0 to 9.0 (see Table 3 and Fig. A6). Similar to the observed changes in
657 film roughness discussed above, the increased partitioning of Pb(II) to the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
658 surface at higher pH can also be attributed to changes of the electrostatic interactions of both the
659 ESHA coatings and the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surface. At pH 4.0, the surface of α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) has a
660 positive charge compared to ESHA, and therefore positively charged Pb(II) ions have a higher
661 affinity for the negatively charged ESHA, resulting in ~ 96% of the Pb(II) being associated with
662 the ESHA coatings, as shown in Table 3. On the other hand, the charge of α -Al₂O₃ (1-102)
663 surface tends to be more negative and has a more attractive interaction with Pb(II) cations as pH
664 increases; thus sorption of Pb(II) ions on the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surface becomes more favorable.

665

666

4. CONCLUSIONS

667

668 Partitioning of Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) ions between ESHA coatings and Al- and Fe-oxide
669 substrates was studied using the LP-XSW-FY technique as a function of reaction time, pH, and
670 calcium content. More than 15 different naturally present elements were detected in the ESHA
671 coatings, some of which had concentrations higher than 0.05% by weight (Fe, K, S, and P). The
672 concentrations of Cu(II), Zn(II), and Pb(II) in the ESHA coatings were much lower (~0.023%,
673 ~0.009%, and ~0.0002%, respectively). Unlike Cu(II) and Zn(II) ions, Pb(II) ions partitioned
674 strongly from the ESHA coatings to reactive sites on the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) and α -Fe₂O₃ (0001)
675 surfaces, suggesting weak binding of Pb(II) to ESHA functional groups as compared to Cu(II)
676 and Zn(II) ions, which are likely associated with strong N-containing sites in ESHA coatings.
677 Adding calcium to the ESHA/ α -Al₂O₃(1-102) system slightly increased Pb(II) partitioning to the
678 α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces at longer reaction time possibly due to the competitive binding effects
679 of calcium. The partitioning of Pb(II) to the α -Al₂O₃(1-102) surfaces was also found to increase

680 with increasing pH due to enhanced electrostatic attraction resulting from the increasing negative
681 charge of these surfaces. The intrinsic order of reactivity of three metal-oxide surfaces was found
682 to be $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) > $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (1-102) > $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ (0001) in spite of the presence of ESHA
683 coatings. This order of reactivity is the same as that of the bare surfaces with respect to metal-ion
684 adsorption. The LP-XSW-FY technique is a promising analytical tool for probing strong binding
685 sites of NOMs as well as for studying competitive effects of different metal ions at complex
686 environmental interfaces. This study provides new insights into the binding affinity, reaction
687 mechanisms, and reaction kinetics of Pb(II), Cu(II), and Zn(II) with common soil organic matter
688 and common Fe- and Al-oxide surfaces. Our results shed new light on the potential
689 bioavailability of these metal contaminants in soils and natural aquatic systems containing humic
690 materials and common metal oxides.

691

692

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

693

694 This study was supported by NSF Grant CHE-0431425 (Stanford Environmental Molecular
695 Science Institute). The LP-XSW-FY data reported in this paper were collected at
696 GeoSoilEnviroCARS (Advanced Photon Source Sector 13) at the Advanced Photon Source,
697 Argonne National Laboratory. GeoSoilEnviroCARS is supported by the National Science
698 Foundation - Earth Sciences (EAR-0622171) and the Department of Energy - Geosciences (DE-
699 FG02-94ER14466). The Advanced Photon Source is supported by the U. S. Department of
700 Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, under Contract No. DE-AC02-
701 06CH11357. We wish to thank Guangchao Li (Stanford University) for ICP-AES analysis. The
702 STXM data reported in this paper were collected at the Advanced Light Source, Lawrence
703 Berkeley National Laboratory. The Advanced Light Source is supported by the Director, Office
704 of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract
705 No. DE-AC02-05CH11231.

706

707

REFERENCES

708

709 Abruna H. D., White J. H., Bommarito G. M., Albarelli M. J., Acevedo D. and Bedzyk M. J.
710 (1989) Structural studies of electrochemical interfaces with x-rays. *Rev. Sci. Instruments*
711 **60**, 2529-2532.

712 Aiken G. and Cotsaris E. (1995) Soil and Hydrology - Their effect on NOM. *J. Am. Water Work*
713 *Assoc.* **87**, 36-45.

714 Alberts J. J. and Filip Z. (1998) Metal binding in estuarine humic and fulvic acids: FTIR analysis
715 of humic acid-metal complexes. *Environ. Technol.* **19**, 923-931.

716 Au K. K., Penisson A. C., Yang S. L. and O'Melia C. R. (1999) Natural organic matter at
717 oxide/water interfaces: Complexation and conformation. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **63**,
718 2903-2917.

719 Balistrieri L., Brewer P. G. and Murray J. W. (1981) Scavenging residence times of trace metals
720 and surface chemistry of sinking particles in the deep ocean. *Deep-Sea Res.* **28A**, 101-
721 121.

722 Bargar J. R., Brown, Jr., G. E. and Parks G. A. (1997) Surface complexation of Pb(II) at oxide-
723 water interfaces. 2. XAFS and bond-valence determination of mononuclear Pb(II)
724 sorption products and surface functional groups on iron oxides. *Geochim. Cosmochim.*
725 *Acta* **61**, 2639-2652.

726 Bargar J. R., Towle S. N., Brown, Jr., G. E. and Parks G. A. (1996) Outer-sphere Pb(II) adsorbed
727 at specific surface sites on single crystal α -alumina. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **60**,
728 3541-3547.

729 Bargar J. R., Trainor T. P., Fitts J. P., Chambers S. A. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2004) In situ
730 grazing-incidence extended x-ray absorption fine structure study of Pb(II) chemisorption
731 on hematite (0001) and (1-102) surfaces. *Langmuir* **20**, 1667-1673.

732 Batterman B. W. (1964) Effect of dynamical diffraction in x-ray fluorescence scattering. *Phys.*
733 *Rev. A-Gen. Phys.* **133**, A759-764.

734 Batterman B. W. and Cole H. (1964) Dynamical diffraction of x-rays by perfect crystals. *Rev.*
735 *Mod. Phys.* **36**, 681-717.

736 Bedzyk M. J. (1992) X-ray standing wave studies of the liquid/solid interface and ultrathin
737 organic films. In: *Surface X-ray and Neutron Scattering. Springer Proceedings in Physics*
738 (Eds. Zabel, H. and Robinson, I. K.) Springer-Verlag, Berlin, pp. 113-117.

739 Bedzyk M. J., Bilderback D. H., White J., Abruna H. D. and Bommarito M. G. (1986) Probing
740 electrochemical interfaces with x-ray standing waves. *J. Phys. Chem.* **90**, 4926-4928.

741 Bedzyk M. J., Bilderback D. H., Bommarito G. M., Caffrey M. and Schildkraut J. S. (1988) X-
742 ray standing waves - a molecular yardstick for biological-membranes. *Science* **241**, 1788-
743 1791.

744 Bedzyk M. J., Bommarito G. M., Caffrey M. and Penner T. L. (1990) Diffuse-double layer at a
745 membrane-aqueous interface measured with x-ray standing waves. *Science* **248**, 52-56.

746 Bedzyk M. J. and Cheng L. (2002) X-ray standing wave studies of minerals and mineral
747 surfaces: Principles and applications. In: *Applications of Synchrotron Radiation in Low-*
748 *Temperature Geochemistry and Environmental Science.* (Eds. Fenter, P.A., Rivers M.L.,
749 Sturchio N.C., Sutton, S.R.) *Rev. Mineral. Geochem.*, **49**, Washington D.C., pp. 221-266.

750 Benedetti M. F., Milne C. J., Kinniburgh D. G., van Riemsdijk W. H. and Koopal L. K. (1995)
751 Metal-ion binding to humic substances - application of the nonideal competitive
752 adsorption model. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **29**, 446-457.

753 Bonneville, S., Smits, M. M., Brown, A., Harrington, J., Leake, J. R., Brydson, R. and Benning
754 L. G. (2012) Plant-driven fungal weathering: early stages of mineral alteration at the
755 nanometer scale. *Geology* **37(7)**, 615-618.

756 Buffle J., Zhang Z. and Startchev K. (2007) Metal flux and dynamic speciation at (bio)interfaces.
757 part 1: Critical evaluation and compilation of physicochemical parameters for complexes
758 with simple Ligands and Fulvic/Humic substances. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **41**, 7609-7620.
759 Cowan P. L., Golovchenko J. A. and Robbins M. F. (1980) X-ray standing waves at crystal-
760 surfaces. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **44**, 1680-1683.
761 Davis J. A. (1984) Complexation of trace-metals by adsorbed natural organic-matter. *Geochim.*
762 *Cosmochim. Acta* **48**, 679-691.
763 Eng P. J., Trainor T. P., Brown, Jr., G. E., Waychunas G. A., Newville M., Sutton S. R. and
764 Rivers M. L. (2000) Structure of the hydrated α -Al₂O₃ (0001) surface. *Science* **288**, 1029-
765 1033.
766 Ephraim J. H., Pettersson C., Norden M. and Allard B. (1995) Potentiometric titrations of humic
767 substances - do ionic-strength effects depend on the molecular-weight? *Environ. Sci.*
768 *Technol.* **29**, 622-628.
769 Fitch A., Stevenson F. J. and Chen Y. (1986) Complexation of Cu(II) with a soil humic-acid -
770 response characteristics of the Cu(II) ion-selective electrode and ligand concentration
771 effects. *Organic Geochem.* **9**, 109-116.
772 Frenkel A. I., Korshin G. V. and Ankudinov A. L. (2000) XANES study of Cu²⁺-binding sites in
773 aquatic humic substances. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **34**, 2138-2142.
774 Golovchenko J. A., Batterman B. W. and Brown W. L. (1974) Observation of internal x-ray
775 wave fields during bragg-diffraction with an application to impurity lattice location.
776 *Phys. Rev. B* **10**, 4239-4243.
777 Gu B., Mehlhorn T. L., Liang L. and McCarthy J. F. (1996a) Competitive adsorption,
778 displacement, and transport of organic matter on iron oxide: I. Competitive adsorption.
779 *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **60**, 1943-1950.
780 Gu B., Mehlhorn T. L., Liang L. and McCarthy J. F. (1996b) Competitive adsorption,
781 displacement, and transport of organic matter on iron oxide: II. Displacement and
782 transport. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **60**, 2977-2992.
783 Ha J., Gelabert A., Spormann A. M. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2010) Role of extracellular polymeric
784 substances in metal ion complexation on *Shewanella oneidensis*: Batch uptake,
785 thermodynamic modeling, ATR-FTIR, and EXAFS study. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*
786 **74**, 1-15.
787 Herbert B. E. and Bertsch P. M. (1995) Characterization of dissolved and colloidal organic
788 matter in soil solution: a review. In: *Carbon forms and functions in forest soils* (Eds.
789 McFee, W. W. and Kelly, J. M.). Soil Science Society of America, Madison, Wisconsin,
790 USA. pp. 63-88.
791 Hering J. G. and Morel F. M. M. (1988a) Humic-acid complexation of calcium and copper.
792 *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **22**, 1234-1237.
793 Hering J. G. and Morel F. M. M. (1988b) Kinetics of trace-metal complexation - role of alkaline-
794 earth metals. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **22**, 1469-1478.
795 Hering J. G. and Morel F. M. M. (1989) Slow coordination reactions in seawater. *Geochim.*
796 *Cosmochim. Acta* **53**, 611-618.
797 Hitchcock A. P. (2000) AXis2000 software (ver2.1n). <http://unicorn.mcmaster.ca/aXis2000.html>.
798 IHSS <http://www.humicsubstances.org/>.
799 Kinniburgh D. G., van Riemsdijk W. H., Koopal L. K., Borkovec M., Benedetti M. F. and Avena
800 M. J. (1999) Ion binding to natural organic matter: competition, heterogeneity,
801 stoichiometry and thermodynamic consistency. *Colloids Surf. A* **151**, 147-166.

802 Kitts K., Choi Y., Eng P. J., Ghose S. K., Sutton S. R. and Rout B. (2009) Application of grazing
803 incidence x-ray fluorescence technique to discriminate and quantify implanted solar
804 wind. *J. Appl. Phys.* **105**, 064905(1-3).

805 Koopal L. K., Saito T., Pinheiro J. P. and van Riemsdijk W. H. (2005) Ion binding to natural
806 organic matter: General considerations and the NICA-Donnan model. *Colloids Surf. A*
807 **265**, 40-54.

808 Lalonde K., Mucci A., Ouellet A. and Gelinas Y. (2012) Preservation of organic matter in
809 sediments promoted by iron. *Nature* **483**, 198-200.

810 Leenheer J., McKnight D., Thurman E. and MacCarthy P. (1994) Humic Substances in the
811 Suwannee River, Georgia: Interactions, Properties, and Proposed Structures (Eds.
812 Averett, R. C., Leenheer, J.A., McKnight, D.M., Thorn, K.A.) U.S. Geological Survey,
813 Denver, CO. pp. 195-211.

814 Levard C., Michel F. M., Wang Y. G., Choi Y., Eng P. J. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2011) Probing
815 Ag nanoparticle surface oxidation in contact with (in)organics: an x-ray scattering and
816 fluorescence yield approach. *J. Synchrot. Radiat.* **18**, 871-878.

817 Liu P., Kendelewicz T., Brown, Jr., G. E., Nelson E. J. and Chambers S. A. (1998) Reaction of
818 water vapor with α -Al₂O₃(0001) and α -Fe₂O₃(0001) surfaces: synchrotron x-ray
819 photoemission studies and thermodynamic calculations. *Surf. Sci.* **417**, 53-65.

820 Lofts S., Simon B. M., Tipping E. and Woof C. (2001) Modelling the solid-solution partitioning
821 of organic matter in European forest soils. *Eur. J. Soil Sci.* **52**, 215-226.

822 Louis Y., Garnier C., Lenoble V., Mounier S., Cukrov N., Omanovic D. and Pizeta I. (2009)
823 Kinetic and equilibrium studies of copper-dissolved organic matter complexation in water
824 column of the stratified Krka River estuary (Croatia). *Mar. Chem.* **114**, 110-119.

825 Mayer L. M. (1994) Surface-area control of organic-carbon accumulation in continental-shelf
826 sediments. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **58**, 1271-1284.

827 Mayer L. M. (1999) Extent of coverage of mineral surfaces by organic matter in marine
828 sediments. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **63**, 207-215.

829 Mayer L. M. and Xing B. S. (2001) Organic matter-surface area relationships in acid soils. *Soil*
830 *Sci. Soc. Am. J.* **65**, 250-258.

831 Myneni S. C. B., Brown J. T., Martinez G. A. and Meyer-Ilse W. (1999) Imaging of humic
832 substance macromolecular structures in water and soils. *Science* **286**, 1335-1337.

833 Neihof R. and Loeb G. (1974) Dissolved organic-matter in seawater and electric charge of
834 immersed surfaces. *J. Mar. Res.* **32**, 5-12.

835 Parratt L. G. (1954) Solid surface studies by total reflection of x-rays. *Phys. Rev.* **95**, 617-617.

836 Pingitore N. E., Clague J. W., Amaya M. A., Maciejewska B. and Reynoso J. J. (2009) Urban
837 airborne lead: x-ray absorption spectroscopy establishes soil as dominant source. *PLOS*
838 *One* **4**(4), e5019.

839 Ransom B., Bennett R. H., Baerwald R. and Shea K. (1997) TEM study of in situ organic matter
840 on continental margins: Occurrence and the "monolayer" hypothesis. *Mar. Geol.* **138**, 1-9.

841 Rey-Castro C., Mongin S., Huidobro C., David C., Salvador J., Lluís Garces J., Galceran J., Mas
842 F. and Puy J. (2009) Effective affinity distribution for the binding of metal ions to a
843 generic fulvic acid in natural waters. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **43**, 7184-7191.

844 Tanwar K. S., Lo C. S., Eng P. J., Catalano J. G., Walko D. A., Brown, Jr., G. E., Waychunas G.
845 A., Chaka A. M. and Trainor T. P. (2007) Surface diffraction study of the hydrated
846 hematite (1-102) surface. *Surf. Sci.* **601**, 460-474.

- 847 Templeton A. S., Trainor T. P., Spormann A. M. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2003) Selenium
848 speciation and partitioning within *Burkholderia cepacia* biofilms formed on α -Al₂O₃
849 surfaces. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **67**, 3547-3557.
- 850 Templeton A. S., Trainor T. P., Traina S. J., Spormann A. M. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2001) Pb(II)
851 distributions at biofilm-metal oxide interfaces. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* **98**, 11897-
852 11902.
- 853 Thurman E.M. W., R.L. Malcolm and D.J. Pinckney (1982) Molecular size of aquatic humic
854 substances. *Org. Geochem.* **4**, 27-35.
- 855 Tipping E. (1993) Modeling ion-binding by humic acids. *Colloids Surf. A* **73**, 117-131.
- 856 Tipping E. (2002). *Cation Binding by Humic Substances*. Cambridge University Press,
857 Cambridge, U.K., pp. 4-31.
- 858 Tipping E., Rey-Castro C., Bryan S. E. and Hamilton-Taylor J. (2002) Al(III) and Fe(III) binding
859 by humic substances in freshwaters, and implications for trace metal speciation.
860 *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta* **66**, 3211-3224.
- 861 Tombacz E., Libor Z., Illes E., Majzik A. and Klumpp E. (2004) The role of reactive surface
862 sites and complexation by humic acids in the interaction of clay mineral and iron oxide
863 particles. *Org. Geochem.* **35**, 257-267.
- 864 Trainor T. P., Brown, Jr., G. E. and Parks G. A. (2000) Adsorption and precipitation of aqueous
865 Zn(II) on alumina powders. *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* **231**, 359-372.
- 866 Trainor T. P., Chaka A. M., Eng P. J., Newville M., Waychunas G. A., Catalano J. G. and
867 Brown, Jr., G. E. (2004) Structure and reactivity of the hydrated hematite (0001) surface.
868 *Surf. Sci.* **573**, 204-224.
- 869 Trainor T. P., Eng P. J., Brown, Jr., G. E., Robinson I. K. and De Santis M. (2002) Crystal
870 truncation rod diffraction study of the α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surface. *Surf. Sci.* **496**, 238-250.
- 871 Trainor T. P., Fitts J. P., Templeton A. S., Grolimund D. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2001) Grazing-
872 incidence XAFS study of aqueous Zn(II) sorption on α -Al₂O₃ single crystals. *J. Colloid*
873 *Interface Sci.* **244**, 239-244.
- 874 Trainor T. P., Templeton A. S. and Eng P. J. (2006) Structure and reactivity of environmental
875 interfaces: Application of grazing angle x-ray spectroscopy and long-period x-ray
876 standing waves. *J. Electron Spectrosc. Relat. Phenom.* **150**, 66-85.
- 877 Van Riemsdijk W. H., Koopal L. K., Kinniburgh D. G., Benedetti M. F. and Weng L. (2006)
878 Modeling the interactions between humics, ions, and mineral surfaces. *Environ. Sci.*
879 *Technol.* **40**, 7473-7480.
- 880 Wang J., Bedzyk M. J. and Caffrey M. (1992) Resonance-enhanced x-rays in thin-films - a
881 structure probe for membranes and surface-layers. *Science* **258**, 775-778.
- 882 Wang J., Bedzyk M. J., Penner T. L. and Caffrey M. (1991) Structural studies of membranes and
883 surface-layers up to 1,000 Å thick using x-ray standing waves. *Nature* **354**, 377-380.
- 884 Wang Y., Gélabert A., Michel F. M., Choi Y., Gesher G., Eng P. J., Bargar J. R., Onagema G.,
885 Spormann A. M. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (submitted-I) Effect of biofilm coatings at metal-
886 oxide/water interfaces I: Pb(II) and Zn(II) partitioning and speciation at *Shewanella*
887 *oneidensis*/metal-oxide/water interfaces. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*.
- 888 Wang Y., Walewijk S., Michel F. M., Persson P. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (submitted-II)
889 Comparison of isoelectric points of single crystal and particulate α -Al₂O₃ and α -Fe₂O₃
890 surfaces. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*.
- 891 Wightman P. G. and Fein J. B. (2001) Ternary interactions in a humic acid-Cd-bacteria system.
892 *Chem. Geol.* **180**, 55-65.

893 Yoon T. H., Trainor T. P., Eng P. J., Bargar J. R. and Brown, Jr., G. E. (2005) Trace metal ion
894 partitioning at polymer film-metal oxide interfaces: Long-period x-ray standing wave
895 study. *Langmuir* **21**, 4503-4511.
896 Zachara J. R., CT; Smith, SC (1994) Influence of humic substances on Co²⁺ sorption by a
897 subsurface mineral separate and its mineralogic components. *Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta*
898 **58**, 553-566.
899
900
901

902
903 **Table 1.** ICP-AES analysis results for metal concentrations in 0.5 g/L NOM solutions and comparison
904 of Zn/Cu ratios determined by ICP-AES and LP-XSW-FY analysis.
905

Type of NOM	Zn (ppb)	Cu (ppb)	Fe (ppb)	K (ppb)	Phosphorus (ppb)	ICP-AES (Zn/Cu)	LP-XSW-FY (Zn/Cu)
SRFA	50.7	8.0	159.4	174.3	24.3	6.35	6.02
SRHA	114.2	9.1	529.9	213.9	40.6	12.53	13.11
ESHA	45.0	113.4	405.8	815.9	566.8	0.388	0.324

906
907
908

909 **Table 2.** Results from x-ray reflectivity and LP-XSW-FY analyses of the partitioning of Pb(II),
 910 Cu(II), and Zn(II) between ESHA coatings and α -Al₂O₃(1-102) surfaces (pH = 6.0±0.05, ESHA
 911 concentration = 10g/L, 0.01M NaNO₃).
 912

Metal-oxide surface	Time (hours)	Added [Ca(II)]	Film thickness (Å)	Film-air interface roughness (Å)	Pb% on the surface	Cu% on the surface	Zn% on the surface
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	0	-	416.0	8.2	<1	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	3	-	322.9	8.4	13.6	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	12	-	387.1	9.0	16.2	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	24	-	303.4	7.7	20.1	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	48	-	360.2	9.1	33.9	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	-	325.8	9.9	39.8	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	168	-	453.2	12.0	46.1	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	0	2*10 ⁻³ M	266.6	17.4	4.0	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	3	2*10 ⁻³ M	333.8	16.3	11.4	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	12	2*10 ⁻³ M	281.3	11.2	13.2	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	24	2*10 ⁻³ M	391.6	23.7	21.5	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	48	2*10 ⁻³ M	421.8	20.9	40.0	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	2*10 ⁻³ M	344.6	23.1	58.3	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	168	2*10 ⁻³ M	322.6	12.4	57.4	<1	<1

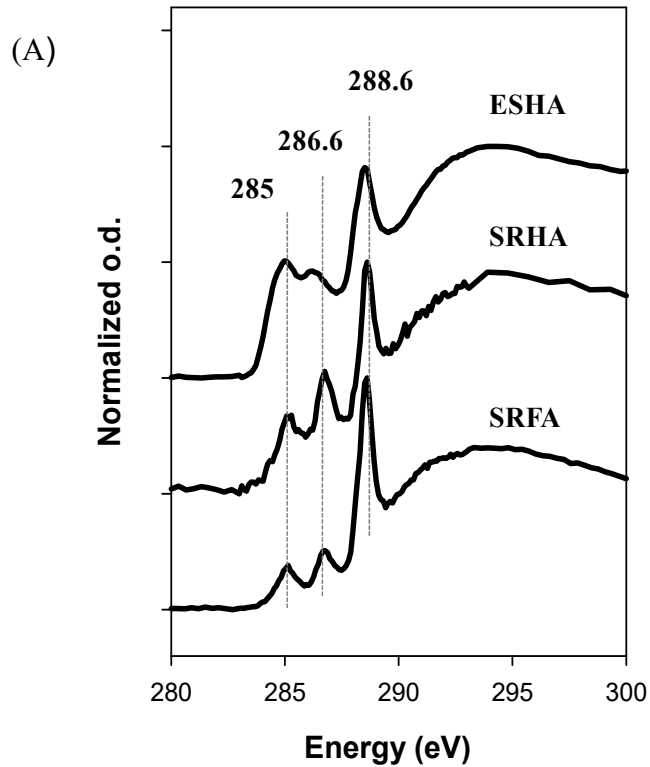
913 **Table 3.** Results from x-ray reflectivity and LP-XSW-FY analyses of the partitioning of Pb(II),
 914 Cu(II), and Zn(II) between ESHA coatings and α -Al₂O₃(1-102), α -Al₂O₃(0001), and α -
 915 Fe₂O₃(0001) surfaces (ESHA concentration = 10g/L, 0.01M NaNO₃).

916
 917

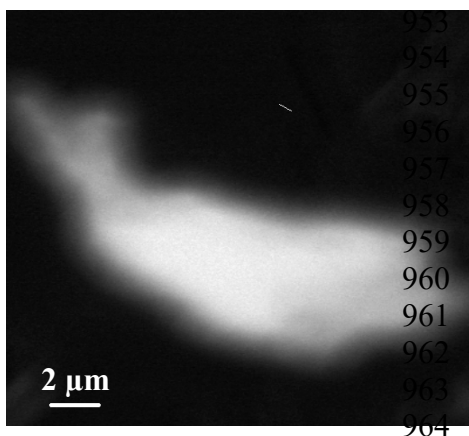
Substrate	Time (hours)	pH	Added [Ca(II)]	Film thickness (Å)	Film-air interface roughness (Å)	Pb% on the surface	Zn% on the surface	Cu% on the surface
<i>The effects of metal-oxide surface</i>								
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (0001)	3	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	200.2	8.8	<1	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	3	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	333.8	16.3	11.4	<1	<1
α -Fe ₂ O ₃ (0001)	3	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	349.2	13.4	74.1	3.7	2.4
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (0001)	72	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	270.7	18.5	<1	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	344.6	23.1	58.3	<1	<1
α -Fe ₂ O ₃ (0001)	72	6.0±0.05	2*10 ⁻³ M	542.0	15.2	91.7	7.7	6.4
<i>The effects of pH</i>								
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	9.0±0.1	-	295.3	24.7	54.3	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	6.0±0.05	-	325.8	9.9	39.8	<1	<1
α -Al ₂ O ₃ (1-102)	72	4.0±0.05	-	305.3	44.7	3.8	<1	<1

918
 919
 920
 921
 922
 923
 924
 925
 926
 927

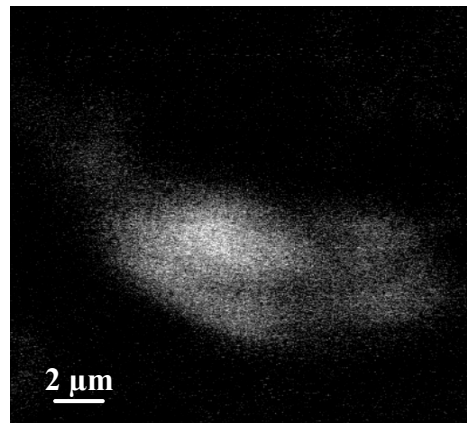
928
929
930
931
932
933
934
935
936
937
938
939
940
941
942
943
944
945
946
947
948
949
950
951
952



(B) Carboxylic C map of ESHA



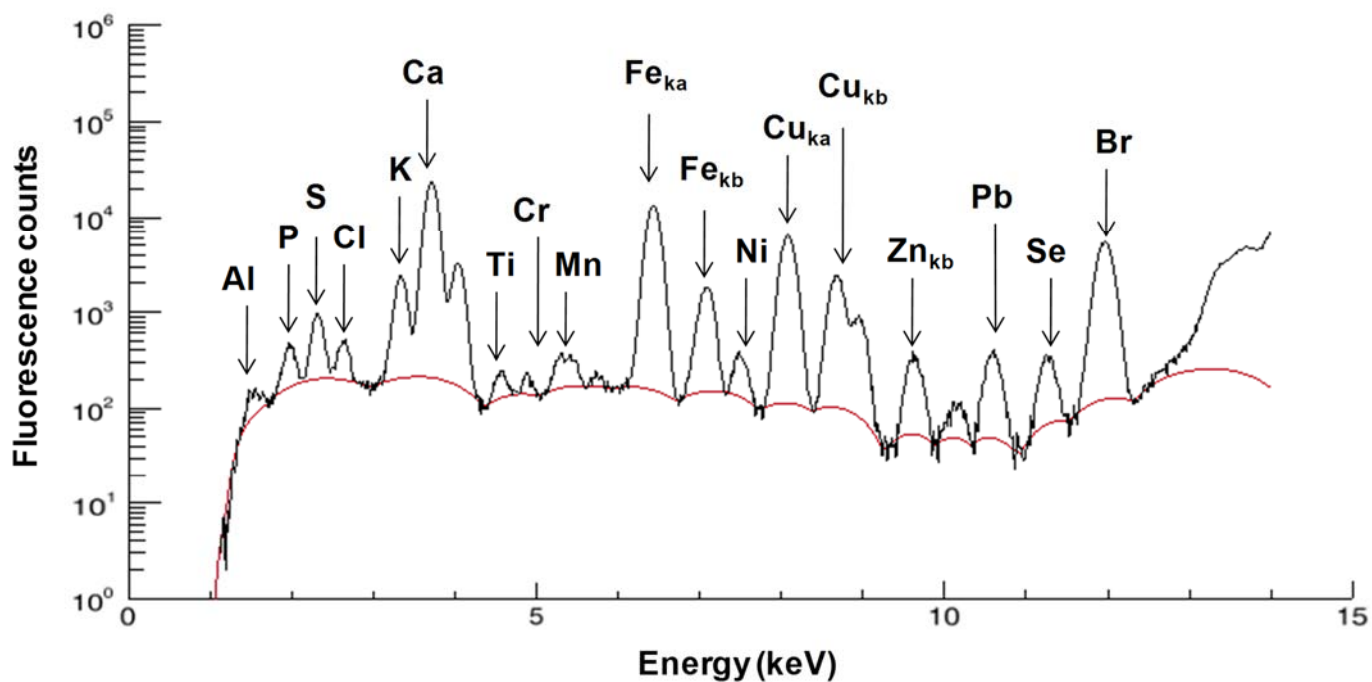
Aromatic C map of ESHA



965
966
967
968
969
970
971
972

Fig. 1 (A) STXM-based C K-edge NEXAFS spectra for dry humic substances. Features marked by dashed lines indicate (i) aromatic (285.0eV), (ii) phenolic (286.6eV), and (iii) carboxylic/peptidic (288.6 eV) functional groups; (B) Carboxylic and aromatic C STXM maps of a dry ESHA aggregate.

973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980



981
982
983
984
985
986

Fig. 2 LP-XSW-FY-generated x-ray fluorescence spectra of the ESHA film (ESHA concentration = 10g/L, 0.01M NaNO₃, pH = 6.0, reaction time = 3 hrs, at incidence angle 0.1°).

987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000
1001
1002
1003
1004
1005
1006
1007
1008
1009
1010
1011
1012
1013
1014
1015
1016
1017
1018
1019
1020
1021
1022
1023
1024
1025
1026
1027

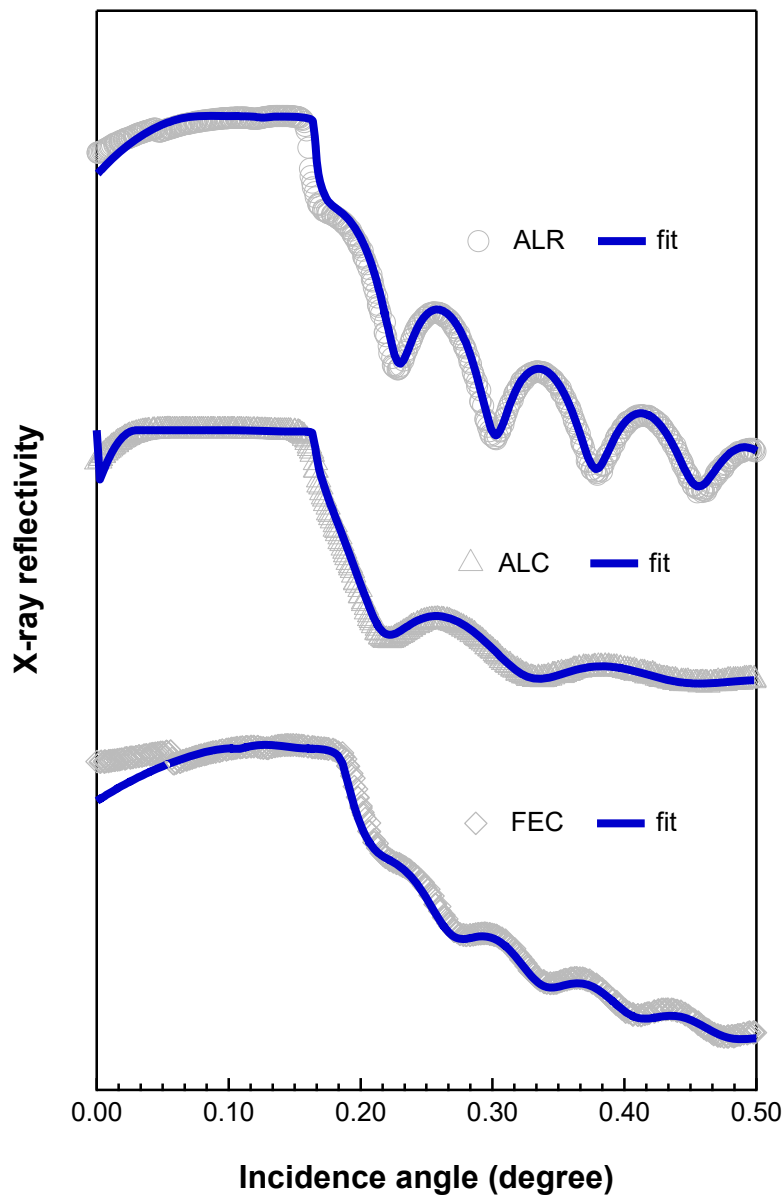


Fig. 3 X-ray reflectivity profiles for ESHA-coated metal-oxide surfaces (ESHA = 10 g/l, 0.01 M NaNO₃, pH = 6.0, 2 mM Ca(II), reaction time = 3 hours): ALR is α -Al₂O₃(1-102), ALC is α -Al₂O₃(0001), and FEC is α -Fe₂O₃(0001).

1028
1029
1030
1031
1032
1033
1034
1035
1036
1037
1038
1039
1040
1041
1042
1043
1044
1045
1046
1047
1048
1049
1050
1051
1052
1053
1054
1055
1056
1057
1058
1059
1060
1061
1062
1063
1064
1065
1066
1067
1068

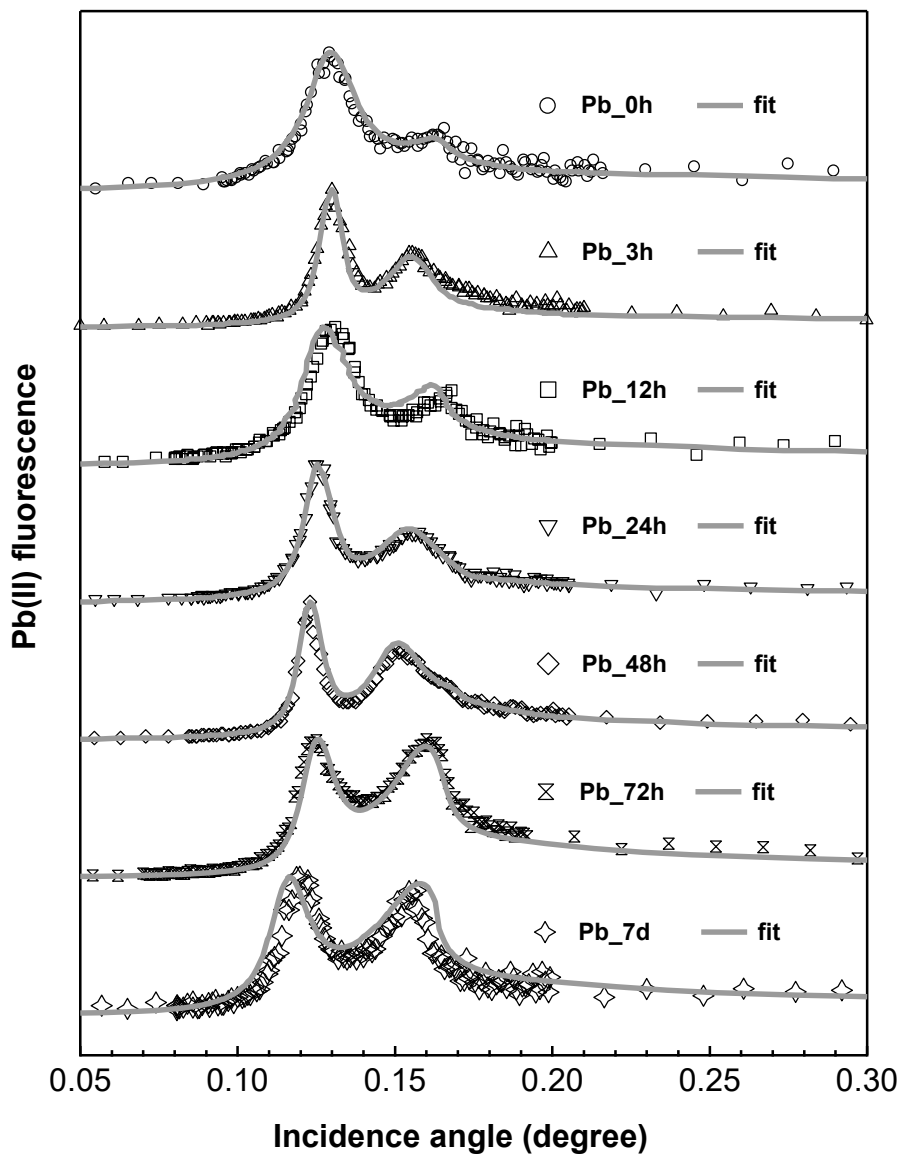


Fig. 4 LP-XSW-FY spectra for Pb(II) distributions at the ESHA-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces as a function of reaction time (ESHA = 10 g/l, 0.01 M NaNO₃, 2 mM Ca(II), pH = 6.0 ± 0.05).

1069
1070
1071
1072
1073
1074
1075
1076
1077
1078
1079
1080
1081
1082
1083
1084
1085
1086
1087
1088
1089
1090
1091
1092
1093
1094
1095
1096
1097
1098
1099
1100
1101
1102
1103
1104
1105
1106
1107
1108
1109
1110
1111
1112
1113
1114

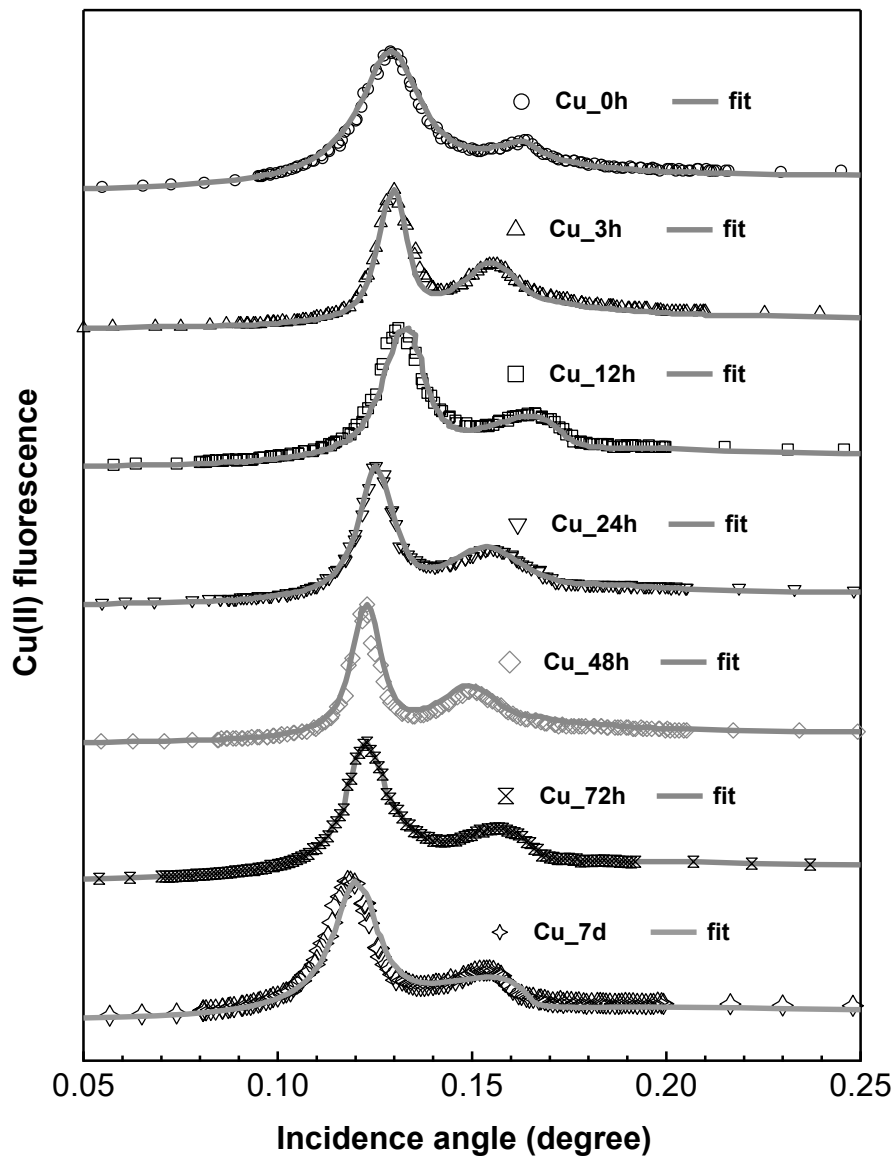
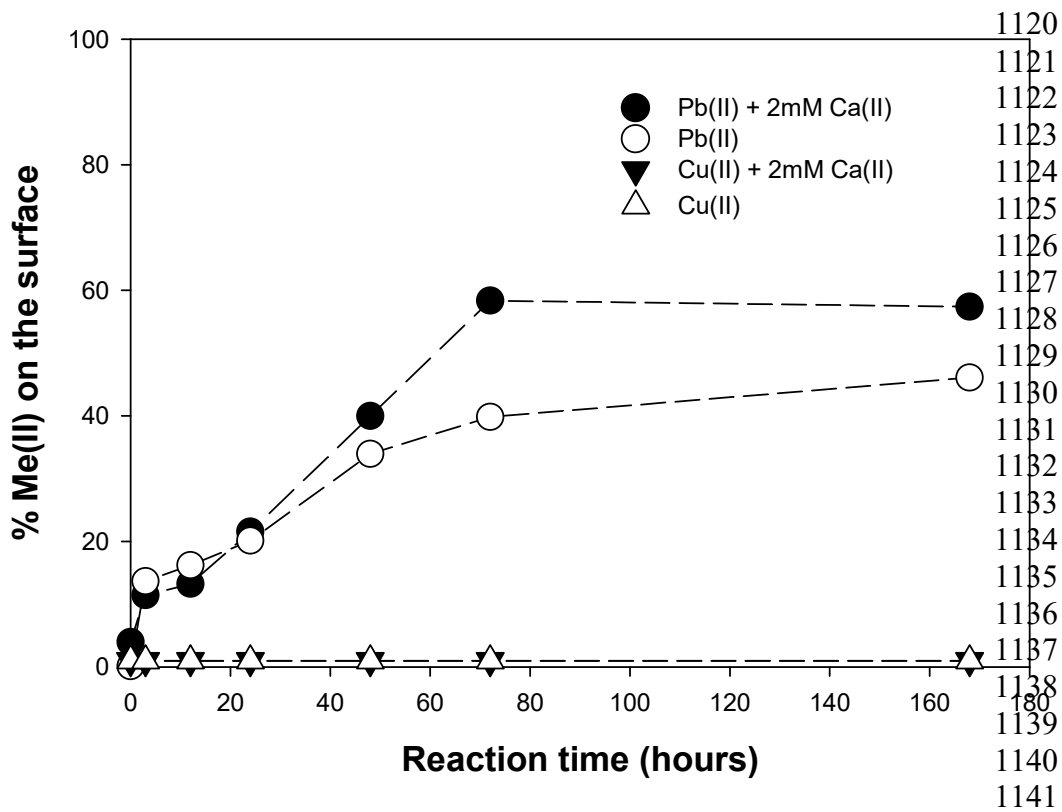


Fig. 5 LP-XSW-FY spectra for Cu(II) distributions at the ESHA-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces as a function of reaction time (ESHA = 10 g/l, 0.01 M NaNO₃, 2 mM Ca(II), pH = 6.0 \pm 0.05).

1115
1116
1117
1118
1119



1142
1143
1144
1145
1146

Fig. 6 The effect of calcium on Pb(II) distributions at ESHA-coated α -Al₂O₃ (1-102) surfaces as a function of reaction time.