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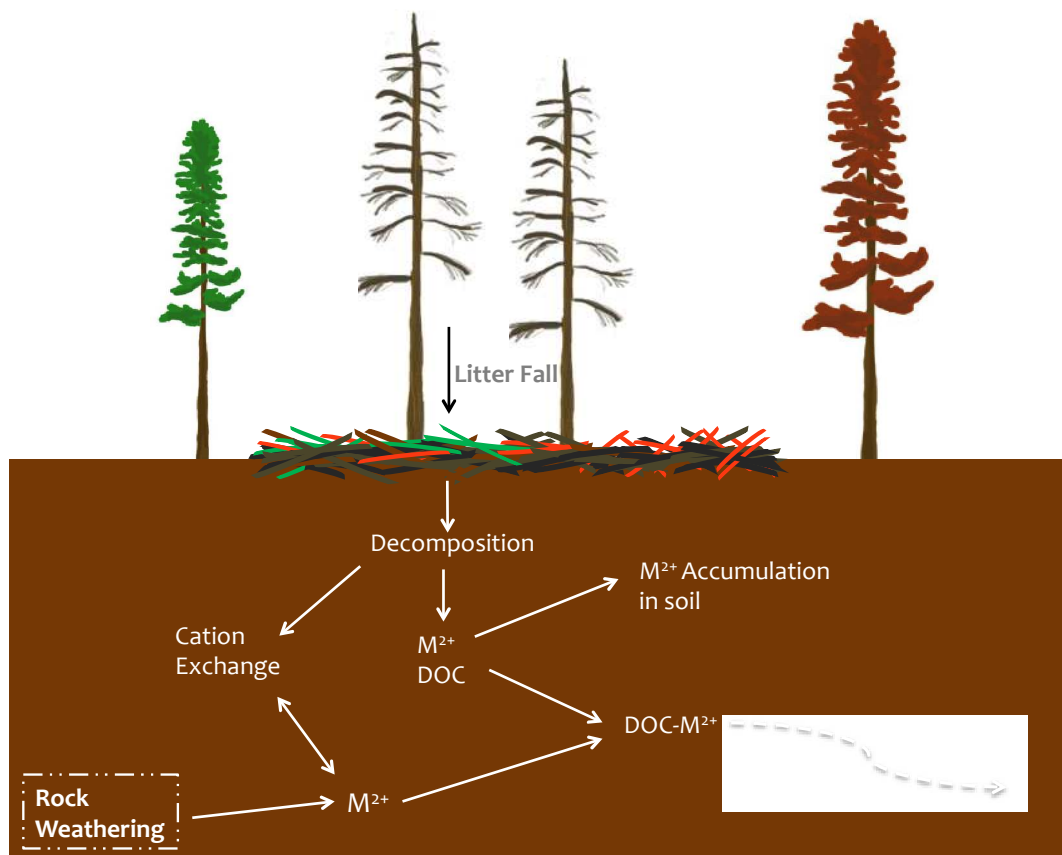
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*'Changes in metal mobility associated with bark beetle-induced tree mortality'*

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Large-scale tree mortality has the potential to alter subsurface metal mobility and accumulation as demonstrated by laboratory column studies and complimentary field sampling.

1 **Changes in metal mobility associated with bark beetle-induced tree mortality**

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## 32 **Environmental Impact**

33 Large-scale insect infestations have been decimating coniferous forests at unprecedented  
34 proportions. Concerns about the impacts of extensive forest mortality have led to  
35 numerous studies investigating the effects on water resources. Recent work documenting  
36 the mobilization of dissolved organic carbon after tree mortality led to a hypothesis that  
37 metals could be mobilized through complexation with organic matter, along with  
38 increased deposition from metal accumulation in needles and subsequent decomposition.  
39 The work herein employed flow-through column experiments and field observations to  
40 determine if tree-death can alter metal mobility in near-surface soils. The findings of this  
41 study provide a fundamental baseline needed for future comparison and extrapolation  
42 into whether or not large-scale tree mortality will alter metal concentrations in adjacent  
43 water bodies.

44

## 45 **Abstract**

46 Recent large-scale beetle infestations have caused extensive mortality to conifer forests  
47 resulting in alterations to dissolved organic carbon (DOC) cycling, which in turn can  
48 impact metal mobility through complexation. This study analyzed soil-water samples  
49 beneath impacted trees in concert with laboratory flow-through soil column experiments  
50 to explore possible impacts of the bark beetle infestation on metal release and transport.  
51 The columns mimicked field conditions by introducing pine needle leachate and artificial  
52 rainwater through duplicate homogenized soil columns and measuring effluent metal  
53 (focusing on Al, Cu, and Zn) and DOC concentrations. All three metals were consistently  
54 found in higher concentrations in the effluent of columns receiving pine needle leachate.  
55 In both the field and laboratory, aluminum mobility was largely correlated with the  
56 hydrophobic fraction of the DOC, while copper had the largest correlation with total  
57 DOC concentrations. Geochemical speciation modeling supported the presence of DOC-  
58 metal complexes in column experiments. Copper soil water concentrations in field  
59 samples supported laboratory column results, as they were almost twice as high under  
60 grey phase trees than under red phase trees further signifying the importance of needle  
61 drop. Pine needle leachate contained high concentrations of Zn (0.1mg/l), which led to  
62 high effluent zinc concentrations and sorption of zinc to the soil matrix representing a

63 future potential source for release. In support, field soil-water samples underneath beetle-  
64 impacted trees where the needles had recently fallen contained approximately 50% more  
65 zinc as samples from under beetle-impacted trees that still held their needles. The high  
66 concentrations of carbon in the pine needle leachate also led to increased sorption in the  
67 soil matrix creating the potential for subsequent carbon release. While unclear if  
68 manifested in adjacent surface waters, these results demonstrate an increased potential for  
69 Zn, Cu, and Al mobility, along with increased deposition of metals and carbon beneath  
70 beetle-impacted trees.

71

## 72 **1. Introduction**

73 Climate change is creating stress on environmental ecosystems throughout the world,  
74 altering both water resources and global biogeochemical cycles. One example is through  
75 increased temperatures and drought, stressed forests are more susceptible to insect attack,  
76 and in the past several decades scientists have witnessed the largest levels of tree  
77 mortality ever recorded due to insect infestations<sup>1-4</sup>. In forests that are reaching close to  
78 100% tree mortality due to beetle-kill, biogeochemical cycles are being significantly  
79 altered. Beetle mortality has been shown to release larger quantities of carbon into the  
80 atmosphere than direct forest fire emissions and can shift forest dynamics from a net  
81 carbon sink to a carbon source<sup>5</sup>. Beetle infestation has also been associated with changing  
82 water quality; for example, in Colorado the bark beetle infestation has been linked to  
83 increases in carcinogenic disinfection byproducts in drinking water, created through  
84 chlorination of organic matter-rich waters<sup>6</sup>.

85 As bark beetle infestation can be added to the list of natural and anthropogenic  
86 land cover changes that have been shown to influence dissolved organic carbon (DOC)  
87 quantity and composition<sup>6,7</sup> it is possible beetle infestations will also influence metal  
88 speciation and transport through organic matter complexation<sup>8</sup>. Current literature reviews  
89 have predicted changing carbon dynamics in bark beetle-impacted watersheds<sup>9,10</sup>, but  
90 have not been able to surmise if metal transport will be altered. While others have studied  
91 the impact certain types of DOC have on metal transport<sup>11-13</sup>, it is not yet known how  
92 organic carbon released from these types of dying forests may alter metal mobility.

93           With large-scale tree die-off, it has been shown that initially there is a rapid loss  
94 of carbon from the soil before needle drop due to the cessation of root excretions<sup>14</sup>  
95 followed by a prolonged release of DOC into the soil-water and humus efflux associated  
96 with increased organic matter decay<sup>15</sup>. One possible source of DOC following a bark  
97 beetle infestation is the increased needle deposition on the forest floor and subsequent  
98 decomposition<sup>16</sup>. Beetle-killed trees release the majority of their needles faster than the  
99 typical annual litterfall as they progress from the red to the grey stage<sup>10</sup>. Increases in soil-  
100 water DOC concentrations lead to increased potential for metal-ligand interactions and  
101 mobilization to nearby water supplies<sup>17,18</sup> during or after this red-grey transition. Metal  
102 concentrations may also increase from needle leaching, as evergreen needles can  
103 bioaccumulate heavy metals (*i.e.* Pb, Cu, Zn and Cr) through atmospheric uptake,  
104 especially in high pollution areas.<sup>19</sup> Therefore it is possible soil metal concentrations will  
105 increase as the metal-rich needles decompose, which could prove problematic especially  
106 in areas already laden with legacy mines and high soil metal concentrations typical of  
107 beetle-killed areas in the Rocky Mountains of Colorado<sup>20</sup>.

108           Changes in DOC composition (rather than total concentration) may also alter  
109 metal mobility. Recent findings suggest that DOC composition and characteristics are  
110 being altered as a result of the bark beetle epidemic, specifically the relative fractions of  
111 hydrophobic and hydrophilic material<sup>6</sup>. The hydrophobic fraction of DOC consists  
112 mostly of acidic products formed from lignin degradation<sup>21</sup> and consequently contains  
113 aromatic and reactive moieties<sup>22</sup>. It has previously been observed that the longer pine  
114 needles collected from under bark-beetle infested trees degrade the more hydrophobic  
115 they become,<sup>23</sup> indicating that as needles degrade in a forest, the leaching of hydrophobic  
116 DOC is likely to increase. Changes in the composition of DOC can alter its metal binding  
117 capacity as the hydrophobic and hydrophilic fractions have different metal binding  
118 characteristics depending on the size fractionation and source of the organic matter<sup>24</sup>.  
119 Hydrophobic and hydrophilic fractions of organic matter also sorb differently to soil, as  
120 typically the hydrophobic fraction has a stronger affinity for soils and is preferentially  
121 adsorbed<sup>25</sup>. Overall, it is important to consider the composition of DOC leached from  
122 degrading pine needles as its transport and metal-binding capacity depend largely on the  
123 fractionation between hydrophobic and hydrophilic proportions.

124 By using a combined approach of field pore-water sampling complemented by the  
125 controlled introduction of needle-derived carbon to field-derived soil columns, this study  
126 set out to explore the effect of pulsed needle drop associated with bark beetle infestation  
127 on metal mobility. It is hypothesized that metal release and sorption from near-surface  
128 soils under bark beetle impacted trees will be altered by (1) increased release of metals  
129 that readily complex with pine needle-derived DOC, (2) increased deposition of metals  
130 derived from pine needle leachate, and (3) varied temporal trends for different metals due  
131 to preferential carbon and metal sorption processes and differences in carbon  
132 composition.

133

## 134 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 135 *2.1 Field sites and soils*

136 The soils used in the column experiments were gathered in September 2012 from  
137 Keystone Gulch, Keystone, CO. The soil belongs to the Frisco and Peeler formations and  
138 is derived from glacial till<sup>26</sup>. Soil was collected from under red phase beetle-killed  
139 lodgepole pine trees (0-30cm bgs) in which the needles on the tree were dead and red in  
140 color. Soil was sampled from this stage of mortality, as it is the most representative of the  
141 soil that would be found right before needle drop. Soil was taken from under three red  
142 phase trees where three holes were dug around each tree, approximately 100g of soil  
143 taken from each hole and homogenized with all other samples (9 samples total) to reduce  
144 spatial soil variability. The homogenized soils were sieved through a coarse mesh  
145 (5.66mm) to remove stones and woody debris, while preserving most of the micropore  
146 structure within the soil aggregates, and stored in an airtight container at -4°C until use.  
147 The soil had an average pH of 4.74 (measured using a 0.01M CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution), moisture  
148 content of 9.5% (dried overnight at 105°C), organic carbon content of 159 g kg<sup>-1</sup>  
149 (determined by loss on ignition) and a loamy sand texture with 85% sand, 9% silt and 6%  
150 clay. The soil total metal content for Al, Zn, Cu, Fe and Mn was 55,500; 143; 16; 34,600;  
151 and 786 mg/kg respectively (XRF, Thermo Scientific Niton XL3t GOLDD+). The easily  
152 exchangeable metal content of the soil (performed in triplicate) was determined from  
153 digestion with MgCl<sub>2</sub> according to Tessier *et al* (1979)<sup>27</sup>. The exchangeable Al, Zn and

154 Cu contents of the soil were found on average to be 7.78 ( $\pm$  0.87) mg/kg, 4.91 ( $\pm$  0.71)  
155 mg/kg and 0.18 ( $\pm$  0.09) mg/kg respectively.

156 Soil-water samples were collected under late red and early grey phase lodgepole  
157 pine trees (needles had recently fallen to the ground) at Chimney Park, WY in the spring  
158 and summer of 2011 and 2013. Additional site characteristics can be found in Biederman  
159 et al. (2012)<sup>28</sup>. The soil surrounding the lysimeters at Chimney Park is similar to the soil  
160 obtained for the column studies and is a coarse loamy texture<sup>29</sup> with an average pH of  
161 4.44. Twenty-four samples were collected using a vacuum hand pump to pull suction on  
162 lysimeters installed at various depths (9-74 cm below ground surface). Samples were  
163 collected in 20ml glass amber vials for DOC analysis and acid-washed 15ml plastic vials  
164 for metal analysis, transported back to the laboratory in a cooler and stored at 4°C until  
165 analysis. Samples were filtered and acidified as described below for respective analyses.

166

## 167 *2.2 Column set-up*

168 Four acid-washed borosilicate glass soil columns (Kontes, 4.8 cm diameter and 15 cm  
169 long) were packed 10 cm high with 170 g of soil added in 50 g increments. Uniform  
170 packing was ensured by tapping the sides of the column a consistent number of times  
171 between each incremental addition to settle the soil. All columns had 1.5 cm of glass  
172 wool on the bottom to prevent clogging and 2.5 cm of glass wool on top to help  
173 uniformly disperse the influent over the top of the soil. The bulk density and pore volume  
174 of the soil columns was 0.94 g cm<sup>-3</sup> and 116 cm<sup>3</sup> respectively. To maintain unsaturated  
175 flow (chosen to best mimic soil-water contact and redox conditions created during  
176 infiltration events in field conditions), 15 cm of tension was applied at the column base  
177 with a hanging water column.

178 Two different influents were applied to duplicate columns: artificial rainwater  
179 (RW) and pine needle tea (PNT). Artificial rainwater was created according to Davies et  
180 al. (2004).<sup>30</sup> The following inorganic salts were added per liter of deionized water to  
181 prepare artificial rainwater: NaNO<sub>3</sub>, 4.07 mg; NaCl, 3.24 mg; KCl, 0.35 mg; CaCl<sub>2</sub> ·  
182 2H<sub>2</sub>O, 1.65 mg; MgSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 2.98 mg; and (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 3.41 mg. The resulting  
183 solution had an ionic strength of 0.3 mM and a pH of 5.9. The RW composition and pH  
184 was typical of many reported in the literature for studies carried out in both the northern



185 and southern hemispheres<sup>30</sup>. PNT was made by leaching 12.5 g of pine needles per liter  
186 of artificial rainwater in 3L glass amber bottles placed in natural sunlight for 48 hours  
187 (modified from Beggs et al.<sup>23</sup>) Pine needles were collected from under trees that had just  
188 transitioned to the grey phase, indicating the majority of needles had fallen within the last  
189 year. See Table 1 for RW and PNT characteristics.

190 Two column variations were run in duplicate (4 columns total). Two columns  
191 were established as controls and received artificial rainwater as influent while the two test  
192 columns received PNT as influent. Influent was applied to all columns at a steady rate of  
193 1mm/min for 32 pore volumes until concentrations began leveling off.

194 Columns utilized Tygon® tubing and an Ismatec® 8 channel peristaltic pump for  
195 influent flow. Column effluent was collected manually in 40ml acid-washed glass amber  
196 vials, filtered through a 0.45 µm polyethersufone filters and stored at 4°C until analysis.  
197 Analysis occurred within one week of collection. Samples collected for metal analysis  
198 were acidified to pH<2 using trace metal grade concentrated nitric acid, while samples  
199 collected for DOC analysis were acidified to pH<2 using concentrated phosphoric acid.  
200 Samples collected for specific UV absorbance (SUVA) and nitrate analysis were filtered  
201 but not acidified.

202

### 203 *2.3 Sample Analysis and Calculations*

204 Samples were analyzed for DOC using a Shimadzu TOC-550A Total Organic Carbon  
205 Analyzer. The amount of carbon sorbed or released in columns was calculated by  
206 equation 1:

$$207 \quad C_{\text{sorbed/released}} = ([\text{DOC}]_{\text{PNT/RW}} - [\text{DOC}]_i) * Q \quad (1)$$

208

209 Where:  $[\text{DOC}]_{\text{PNT/RW}}$  = DOC concentration of the influent (PNT or RW)

210  $[\text{DOC}]_i$  = DOC concentration at time  $i$

211  $Q$  = The flow rate

212 SUVA has been shown to be strongly correlated to the percent aromaticity of the organic  
213 carbon<sup>31</sup>. Absorbance scans were run at 254 nm and 260 nm for SUVA (DU 800  
214 spectrophotometer) and the hydrophobic fraction of DOC respectively. The SUVA values  
215 were calculated by dividing the absorbance at 254 nm by DOC concentration and

216 reported in units of  $L\ mg^{-1}\ m^{-1}$ . The hydrophobic fraction of the DOC was calculated by  
217 using the directly proportional relationship between light absorbance at 260 nm and the  
218 concentration of the hydrophobic fraction for pine trees<sup>32</sup>. This method is applicable for  
219 water samples of low nitrate ( $< 25\ mg/l$ ) and low iron ( $< 5\ mg/l$ )<sup>32</sup>. The column influent  
220 and effluent met both of these criteria at all points throughout the experiment.

221 Metal concentrations were measured using inductively coupled plasma atomic  
222 emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) in the laboratories at the Colorado School of Mines  
223 and all reported metal concentrations are the total aqueous concentrations. Detection  
224 limits were all an order of magnitude below sample measurements (detection limits for  
225 copper =  $0.1\ \mu g/l$ , aluminum =  $0.7\ \mu g/l$  and zinc =  $0.2\ \mu g/l$ ). Standard checks were  
226 performed every ten samples (five times total in the ICP-AES run for the column effluent  
227 results) and the low metal standard concentrations remained consistent throughout the  
228 entire run with five duplicate checks (Cu =  $7.2 \pm 1.1\ \mu g/l$ , Al =  $20.2 \pm 6.2\ \mu g/l$ , Zn =  $2.8 \pm$   
229  $0.0\ \mu g/l$ ). Nitrate was measured using colorimetric test kits (Hach).

230 The PNT was analyzed for the hydrophobic and hydrophilic fractions of DOC  
231 using XAD-8 resin chromatography<sup>33</sup>. The XAD8 resin columns confirmed the  
232 relationship between light absorbance at 260 nm and the hydrophobic portion of DOC.

233

#### 234 *2.4 Geochemical Modeling*

235 The program Visual MINTEQ version 3.0<sup>34</sup> was used to calculate the metal speciation in  
236 the column effluent using the non-ideal competitive adsorption (NICA) model<sup>35</sup> with the  
237 assumption of continuous distribution of site affinity. Input parameters included metal  
238 concentrations, DOC concentrations, solution pH and  $Ca^{2+}$  concentrations measured in  
239 the column effluent. When other ions were added to model runs ( $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$   
240 and  $Cl^-$ ) no major changes to species distributions were found. When modeling the RW  
241 columns, generic parameters for fulvic acid (FA) were used for proton binding and metal  
242 complexation assuming that 50% of the dissolved organic matter (DOM) is C by weight  
243 and 100% of the active humic substances are FA<sup>36</sup>. However, when modeling the PNT  
244 columns, both the generic parameters and the measured proportions of humic and fulvic  
245 acids were used (89% FA and 11% HA as the 'active' humic substances) to best  
246 represent the mobilized soil organic carbon and the DOC from the PNT.

247

248 **3. Results and Discussion**

249 To better understand how a bark beetle infestation might impact metal mobility and  
250 transport, leached PNT was passed through duplicate, homogenized soil columns. To  
251 compliment this laboratory experiment, field soil-water samples were also collected  
252 beneath beetle-impacted trees. Three metals, Cu, Zn and Al, were chosen for in-depth  
253 analysis with relation to needle-derived DOC. Cu is important to monitor as it readily  
254 complexes with DOC<sup>13</sup>, and Zn has been found in high concentrations in pine needles<sup>37</sup>.  
255 Prior field studies have also seen an increase in Al mobility after beetle infestation<sup>15,38,39</sup>  
256 often correlated to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> levels, which have implications for potential shifts in nitrogen  
257 cycling. It is also important to take into account these metals with regard to bark beetle  
258 infestations as metal contamination is already common in many mountain streams of  
259 Colorado located in beetle-killed watersheds, with Zn and Cu often exceeding ecotoxicity  
260 limits<sup>40</sup>. For clarity only the average concentrations from the duplicate experiments are  
261 shown in the representative figures and tables. Effluent concentrations were on average  
262 within ± 7% (DOC) and ± 21% (metals) of their respective duplicate columns and error  
263 bars can be seen in figures S1 and S2.

264

265 *3.1 DOC Mobility in Column Experiments*

266 Figure 1 shows the average Cu, Al and Zn effluent concentrations for both the PNT and  
267 RW columns, along with the average effluent DOC concentrations for the respective  
268 column. The PNT influent DOC concentration was 96 mg/l (representative of peak  
269 concentrations of forest floor leachate in a lodgepole pine dominated forest)<sup>16</sup> and the  
270 RW influent DOC concentration was 2 mg/l. The PNT columns effluent DOC  
271 concentration was at a maximum within one pore volume, while the RW columns did not  
272 reach maximum DOC levels until around five pore volumes. The PNT columns  
273 experienced an increase in DOC concentrations around the eighth pore volume, but the  
274 DOC slowly tapered off for the remaining experimental duration. However, it is clear that  
275 the influent DOC was immobilized in the soils of the PNT column within the first several  
276 pore volumes (Figure 2, red shaded area). This behavior could be attributed to the  
277 interaction of dissolved organic compounds with DOM sorbed to the soil, thus inhibiting

278 the mobility<sup>41</sup> or the interaction of DOC with Fe and Al oxyhydroxides<sup>42</sup>. In total, an  
279 average of 50.0 ( $\pm$  11.5) mg of carbon sorbed to the PNT columns, while the RW column  
280 actually released 50.2 ( $\pm$  8.6) mg of carbon from the soil (32 pore volumes in total were  
281 eluted). Overall, the PNT effluent contained 303.7 ( $\pm$  9.2) mg of carbon (in addition to  
282 50.0 mg of C sorbing to the soil), which is 6 times more than the amount of carbon in the  
283 RW column effluent.

284 The column experiments indicated that low influent DOC concentrations (*i.e.*  
285 rainwater infiltrating into bare soil) mobilize organic carbon from the soil matrix (Figure  
286 2, blue shaded area). This phenomenon has been observed in field and laboratory  
287 experiments where DOM mobilization and transport is coupled with rain events<sup>43</sup>.  
288 However, when the influent contains large concentrations of DOC (*i.e.* rainwater  
289 infiltrating through a large decomposing needle layer before entering the soil matrix), a  
290 portion of the carbon transported through the soil matrix will sorb to the soil (Figure 2,  
291 red shaded area). This leads to the potential for future desorption of the newly deposited  
292 soil carbon after the thick needle layer is removed or has leached much of its carbon  
293 through the soil matrix, creating a potentially large mobile carbon pulse that could travel  
294 to adjacent surface and groundwaters.

295

### 296 3.2 Metal Mobility in Column Experiments

297 The addition of DOC from needle leachate may influence metal speciation and transport,  
298 particularly due to the low percentage of metals in the exchangeable pool of the soils  
299 when compared to soils utilized in previous studies<sup>eg. 44</sup>. Both columns experienced their  
300 maximum Cu and DOC concentrations concurrently (Figure 1) and have a positive  
301 correlation between the effluent DOC and Cu concentrations (Table 2), consistent with  
302 other soil column experiments<sup>13,45</sup>. This phenomenon was explored more in the field  
303 samples and is described below (section 3.3). In the PNT columns, Cu was rapidly  
304 released in approximately the first twelve pore volumes in association with the high flux  
305 of DOC running through the columns followed by tapering (Figure 1A). The RW  
306 columns exhibited a similar trend, as the effluent Cu tracked well with DOC  
307 concentration (Figure 1B). Overall, the PNT columns eluted an average of 31.5 ( $\pm$  0.7)  $\mu$ g  
308 of Cu, 9.4 ( $\pm$  0.7) of which were desorbed from the soil. The RW columns released an

309 average of  $18 (\pm 0.7)$   $\mu\text{g}$  of Cu, all attributed to soil desorption. Given the RW columns  
310 had a larger quantity of desorbed Cu, it appears that the concentration of Cu in the PNT  
311 ( $0.006 \text{ mg/l}$ ) is inhibiting soil desorption, leaving the possibility for additional subsequent  
312 release. In previous studies, Cu mobility has shown initial enhancement from DOC  
313 followed by subsequent retardation attributed to the formation of ternary complexes  
314 between the aquifer material, Cu and DOC or changes in the electrostatic potential at the  
315 solid-phase surface<sup>41</sup>. This may be the case in the PNT columns, as the PNT significantly  
316 enhanced Cu mobility in the beginning of the column experiments, but then the fractional  
317 increase in mobility tapered off. Cu also has a positive correlation to aqueous Ca effluent  
318 concentrations suggesting competitive DOM sorption occurred in these soil columns<sup>46</sup>.

319 Aluminum effluent concentrations exhibit a different trend than was observed for  
320 Cu. Effluent Al concentrations in the PNT columns increased until around the twelfth  
321 pore volume, despite decreasing DOC concentrations (Figure 1C). When the influent  
322 DOC was low (*i.e.* the RW columns), the effluent Al concentrations appeared to follow  
323 the same trend as Cu and were positively correlated to effluent DOC, hydrophobic DOC  
324 and Ca concentrations (Table 2); however, in the PNT columns Al concentrations appear  
325 to be closely correlated with only the hydrophobic portion of DOC. This is markedly  
326 different than Cu and Zn, as only the Cu concentrations in the RW columns appeared to  
327 have any correlation with the hydrophobic portion of DOC concentrations (Table 2).  
328 Aluminum mobility appeared to be enhanced throughout the entire duration of the  
329 column run, with the maximum enhancement occurring in the first eight pore volumes.  
330 This observed trend could be attributed to desorption of Al from the exchangeable pool of  
331 metals or related to the initial rapid solubilization of reactive solid phase Al followed by  
332 the slower dissolution of less reactive minerals in the soil, assuming kinetically controlled  
333 dissolution of inorganic soil Al compounds is the main supply for organically bound Al  
334 as has been suggested by other studies<sup>47,48</sup>. Overall, the PNT column effluent contained  
335  $4.1 (\pm 0.9)$  mg of Al,  $3.2 (\pm 0.9)$  of which were desorbed from the soil. This suggests that  
336 Al soil desorption is enhanced more than Cu desorption by the addition of DOC, possibly  
337 because the additional Al in the PNT does not inhibit Al desorption as is possible in the  
338 case of Cu. In comparison, the RW column only released a total of  $2.0 (\pm 0.3)$  mg of Al,  
339 less than half that of the PNT column.

340 Zinc effluent concentrations followed a similar trend as the Cu effluent  
341 concentrations where the PNT and RW columns displayed fairly strong correlations with  
342 DOC and Ca concentrations (Figure 1E & 1F, Table 2). However, from the fifth to the  
343 ninth pore volume, the average Zn concentrations in the PNT columns increased despite a  
344 decreasing DOC concentration (Figure 1E). Zn was also positively correlated with Ca  
345 concentrations (Table 2) suggesting that when carbon sorbs to the soil matrix it replaces  
346 Zn and Ca ions. This trend has been observed before, where Zn is strongly correlated to  
347 Ca and to a lesser extent DOC<sup>49</sup>. In these experiments, the concentration of Zn in the  
348 PNT was high enough that a large portion of the zinc sorbs to the soil matrix instead of  
349 transporting in the aqueous phase. Throughout the duration of the column experiment  
350 (except for the first pore volume), the concentration of Zn in the PNT was 2-3 times  
351 higher than the concentration of Zn in the effluent. In total, out of the 319  $\mu\text{g}$  of Zn  
352 entering the PNT columns an average of 220 ( $\pm 14.8$ )  $\mu\text{g}$  of Zn sorbed to the soil matrix.  
353 This indicates that the soil possessed a large capacity to sorb Zn ions. Even with the large  
354 amount of Zn sorption, the effluent in the PNT columns contained a total of 119 ( $\pm 10.6$ )  
355  $\mu\text{g}$  of Zn, which is almost twice that of the RW column.

356

### 357 *3.3 Metal and Carbon Association in the Field Under Beetle-Impacted Trees.*

358 Field correlations often corroborated column results although field correlations were  
359 reported from only from under late-red phase trees (Table 2), as they were the majority of  
360 the samples, and only a few early-grey phase trees were available for comparison. In  
361 complimenting the column results, Cu and DOC concentrations were strongly correlated  
362 in field measurements under red phase beetle-impacted trees (Table 2), suggesting the  
363 potential for higher concentrations of Cu after increased DOC flux from needle  
364 decomposition. Furthermore, the average soil-water Cu concentration under grey phase  
365 trees ( $6.5 \pm 4.3$   $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$ ,  $n = 8$ ) was almost twice as high as under red phase trees ( $3.6 \pm 2.0$   
366  $\mu\text{g}/\text{l}$ ,  $n = 16$ ) suggesting an association between the pulsed needle drop that occurs as the  
367 trees progress from the red to the grey stage.

368 In the field samples, Al exhibited a strong correlation with both DOC and Ca,  
369 which were not observed in the PNT columns (Table 2); however, trends observed in the  
370 field were also seen in the RW columns. Al concentrations in soil-water samples from

371 under red and grey trees were not significantly different (red phase:  $0.60 \pm 0.53\text{mg/l}$ ,  $n$   
372  $=16$ ; grey phase:  $0.58 \pm 0.84\text{mg/l}$ ,  $n = 8$ ). This suggests there might be other processes  
373 occurring in the field that are not completely mimicked by the columns. Soil-water  
374 aluminum levels have also been observed to correlate with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in field  
375 studies after beetle attack<sup>15,38,39</sup>. Laboratory results confirmed a weak correlation between  
376 Al and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the PNT columns ( $r = 0.40$ ) and RW columns ( $r = 0.38$ ); however, the  
377 column duration was brief enough that it might not have had sufficient time to capture the  
378 microbial assemblages responsible for nitrogen cycling often observed in the field. On  
379 the other hand, the field samples from this study displayed a negative correlation ( $r = -$   
380  $0.60$ ) with nitrate, although  $\text{NO}_3^-$  field data was limited and the sample size small ( $n = 4$ ).

381 In the field, Zn had a weak negative correlation with DOC, which was not  
382 observed in the soil columns. The samples also showed a negative correlation between Zn  
383 and Ca, possibly due to Zn sorption to the soil and the release of Ca. Comparison of these  
384 field and column results supports previous observations of the opposing behavior of Zn  
385 with regards to DOC that has been observed in previous column and field studies<sup>49-51</sup>.  
386 However, field observations confirmed the hypothesis that zinc-saturated needle  
387 decomposition will lead to higher soil-water Zn concentrations as the samples from under  
388 grey phase trees that had recently lost their needles were on average 50% higher ( $40.5 \pm$   
389  $33\mu\text{g/l}$ ,  $n = 8$ ) than the Zn concentrations under red phase trees ( $28.6 \pm 33\mu\text{g/l}$ ,  $n = 16$ ).

390

### 391 *3.4 Metal Mobility and pH in Column Experiments.*

392 The pH of the effluent averaged  $7.4 \pm 0.4$  and  $6.4 \pm 0.3$  for the RW and PNT  
393 columns respectively (Figure S3). The DOC effluent concentrations in the PNT column  
394 had very little correlation with pH ( $r=0.11$ ) and the RW columns had a weak positive  
395 correlation ( $r=0.34$ ). The effluent pH concentrations were higher than the soil pH  
396 (measured in batch) in both the PNT and RW columns by about 1.5 and 2 pH units  
397 respectively which suggests that ion exchange may have decreased proton concentrations  
398 in the effluent. Effluent pH does not appear to explain any of the metal concentrations or  
399 DOC concentrations except in the PNT column with regard to Cu (Table 2) as DOC-  
400 metal complexation dominates at high pH<sup>13</sup> as compared to lower pH values where there  
401 are less deprotonated acidic functional groups available in the DOM for metal binding<sup>52</sup>.

402 This was verified with geochemical modeling, which found all metal species in the PNT  
403 column to be complexed to DOC (Table S1) until the last measured time step where 0.5%  
404 of the aqueous Al was  $[\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4]^-$ . The effluent from the RW columns was oversaturated  
405 with respect to gibbsite ( $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ ) for the entire column duration, while the PNT column  
406 effluent was under-saturated with respect to gibbsite until the last three pore volumes  
407 where it reached equilibrium followed by slight oversaturation. The metal species in the  
408 RW columns were more varied for Zn and Al, but aqueous Cu was always complexed  
409 with DOC.  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  and  $[\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4]^-$  were the other dominant species in the RW columns  
410 besides Zn-DOM and Al-DOM (Table S1).

411

### 412 *3.5 Influence of DOC Composition on Metal Mobility*

413 Along with the transport and sorption, the composition of DOC was important in  
414 determining metal mobility. The PNT was found to contain 41.4% hydrophobic DOC  
415 through XAD8-resin chromatography, and the directly proportional relationship between  
416 absorbance at 260 nm and DOC concentration found the PNT to be 40% hydrophobic  
417 DOC. During the column experiments, the proportion of hydrophobic DOC relative to the  
418 total DOC increased in the first 7 pore volumes in the PNT column reaching a maximum  
419 of 66% hydrophobic DOC, while the RW column showed an increase in the hydrophobic  
420 portion of DOC throughout most of the experimental duration, approaching 100%  
421 hydrophobic DOC after 20 pore volumes (Figure 3). As the proportion of hydrophobic  
422 DOC in the RW experiment eventually approached 1, it appeared that initially both the  
423 hydrophilic and hydrophobic fractions of soil-bound DOC were mobilized; however,  
424 with a longer duration continuous rain event, eventually all the hydrophilic DOC is  
425 mobilized. This behavior supports previous observations that the hydrophilic fraction of  
426 DOC is more mobile than the hydrophobic fraction<sup>53</sup>. Specifically, the hydrophobic  
427 fraction of DOM (of which DOC is a component) has been shown to interact strongly  
428 with Al and Fe oxides and hydroxides<sup>54</sup> slowing down their transport. Thus, the  
429 hydrophilic fractions of DOM are likely to travel faster in hydrologic systems than the  
430 hydrophobic fractions<sup>55</sup>. On the other hand, the opposite trend was observed in the PNT  
431 columns as the proportion of hydrophobic DOC was higher in the effluent than the  
432 influent after the first few pore volumes. This indicates that either the soil had a higher



433 affinity for hydrophilic DOC sorption than hydrophobic DOC sorption or additional  
434 hydrophobic DOC was desorbing (Figure 3). As the proportion of hydrophobic DOC  
435 appeared to tail off in the final pore volumes, it is probable that once steady state is  
436 reached the effluent DOC will closely resemble the influent PNT composition of 41%  
437 hydrophobics, 19% hydrophilics and 40% neutral compounds.

438         Along with differences in transport, the composition of DOM can change its  
439 metal-binding capacity. Hydrophilic acids represent the more mobile fraction of DOM in  
440 the soil column<sup>25</sup> and in some studies have been shown to bind Cu more effectively than  
441 hydrophobic acids<sup>53</sup>. However, more recent studies have found no difference in the  
442 binding characteristics of the two fractions of DOM from leaf litter with regard to Cu  
443 binding<sup>56</sup>. In the experiments reported herein, Al was the only metal strongly correlated  
444 to a specific fraction of DOC (the hydrophobic fraction; Table 2). This strong correlation  
445 combined with the absence of correlation to overall DOC concentration, indicates a  
446 strong preference for Al binding with the hydrophobic fraction of pine needle leachate.  
447 The longer tailing of increased Al concentrations (Figure 1C) and the later dominance of  
448 the hydrophobic fraction of DOC in the PNT columns (Figure 3) further supports the  
449 hypothesis that hydrophobic DOC plays a primary role in Al complexation.

450

#### 451 **4. Conclusions and Environmental Implications**

452         A combined interpretation of field and laboratory data suggests that a large needle  
453 pulse after bark beetle-induced tree mortality and subsequent decomposition has the  
454 potential to enhance soil-water concentrations of Cu, Zn and Al. Increased DOC release  
455 resulting from the decomposition of the pine needles forms complexes with these metals  
456 enhancing their transport through the soil matrix while also increasing carbon sorption to  
457 the soil matrix that could result in a subsequent carbon release. It is expected that there  
458 will be an initial pulse of Cu released from pine needle leachate due to its affinity for  
459 organic complexes, but the duration of this pulse is unknown as DOM can inhibit Cu  
460 transport over longer periods. The addition of large amounts of Zn from the pine needle  
461 leachate creates higher soil-water concentrations along with additional sorption of zinc to  
462 the soil matrix possibly prolonging impacts even after the needles are leached as the  
463 recently sorbed Zn is subsequently released from soils. Aluminum appears to have a high

464 affinity for hydrophobic DOC complexation, which indicates that the pine needle  
465 leachate will mobilize large amounts of Al due to its high proportion of hydrophobic  
466 acids.

467 In beetle-impacted watersheds, water treatment facilities have experienced  
468 increases in disinfection byproducts associated with an increased proportion of  
469 hydrophobic acids, indicating that the hydrophobic acids are an important component of  
470 organic matter originating from beetle-impacted trees<sup>6</sup>. If this portion of organic matter is  
471 increasing in association with beetle-impacted trees and has a propensity to complex with  
472 aluminum, ecotoxicity levels in surrounding waters may be surpassed. Field collected  
473 soil-water samples consistently had concentrations above EPA aquatic life criteria levels  
474 for Al and Zn (CMC for Al = 750  $\mu\text{g/l}$  and Zn = 120  $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) but not for Cu<sup>57</sup>, which would  
475 exacerbate existing water quality issues in Colorado where streams often exceed  
476 ecotoxicity levels for Al, Cu and Zn<sup>40</sup>. The enhanced mobilization of the three metals  
477 from pine needle leachate could also create ecological toxicity issues for plants as well as  
478 inhibit regrowth beneath the dead canopies<sup>58</sup>.

479 Thus, it appears that as bark beetle infestations alter carbon dynamics, water  
480 quality may be degraded not only through increased potential for the formation of  
481 disinfection byproducts<sup>6</sup> but also through increased aqueous metal concentrations  
482 (particularly those metals with an affinity for the hydrophobic fraction of organic matter)  
483 that could have an ecological impact on localized regrowth or adjacent water bodies. This  
484 contrasts with climate-change projections of reduced surface-water metal concentrations  
485 in lowland catchments<sup>59</sup> which do not account for forest mortality due to insect  
486 infestations. It is uncertain how large the magnitude of response will be in beetle-  
487 impacted catchments with regard to trace metals, as some watershed-scale  
488 biogeochemical responses (particularly  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) in beetle-impacted watersheds have been  
489 predicted to be large but observations have only indicated a weak response<sup>60</sup>. It would be  
490 insightful to determine the temporal trend of metal mobilization beneath degrading pine  
491 needles and whether or not the increased soil-water concentrations will be seen in  
492 adjacent surface and groundwaters creating ecological or human health concerns.

493

494

495 **Supporting Information**

496 Additional tables and figures can be found in the Supporting Information.

497

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509

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- 683
- 684

685 **Tables**

686 **Table 1:** Influent pH values, DOC and metal concentrations. All units are mg/l except SUVA which is  
 687 (L/mg/m).

	<b>pH</b>	<b>DOC</b>	<b>SUVA</b>	<b>Zn</b>	<b>Cu</b>	<b>Al</b>	<b>Ca</b>
<b>PNT</b>	5.56	96.0	2.13	0.095	0.006	0.234	4.14
<b>RW</b>	5.94	1.8	2.84	0	0	0	1.64

688

689

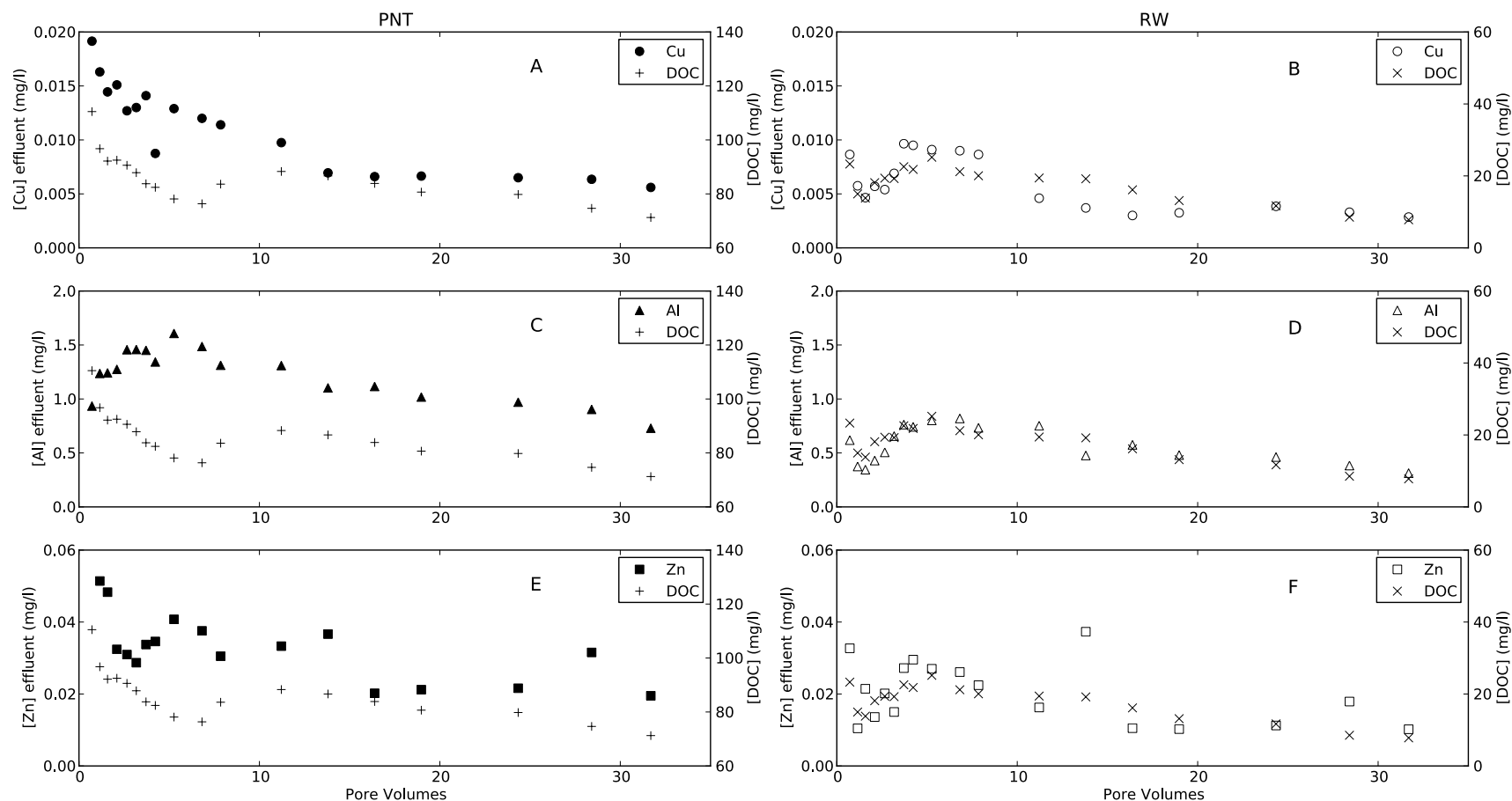
690

691 **Table 2:** Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) for Cu, Zn and Al with effluent DOC concentrations,  
 692 hydrophobic DOC concentrations, pH and Ca concentrations in column and field studies. The coefficient  
 693 ranges from -1 to 1 with values close to 1 or -1 signifying stronger positive or negative correlations  
 694 respectively and is based off of the averages from the duplicate column runs. The field correlations are  
 695 from under late-red phase trees. The grey highlighted cells indicate correlations > |0.60|.

696

	<b>DOC</b>	<b>Hydroph. DOC</b>	<b>pH</b>	<b>Ca</b>
<b><i>Cu</i></b>				
RW	0.86	0.59	-0.14	0.65
PNT	0.64	0.10	0.62	0.69
Field	0.82	N/A	N/A	0.47
<b><i>Zn</i></b>				
RW	0.67	0.40	-0.25	0.70
PNT	0.74	-0.31	0.28	0.61
Field	-0.23	N/A	N/A	-0.68
<b><i>Al</i></b>				
RW	0.82	0.79	-0.42	0.53
PNT	0.06	0.60	0.13	0.32
Field	0.91	N/A	N/A	0.69

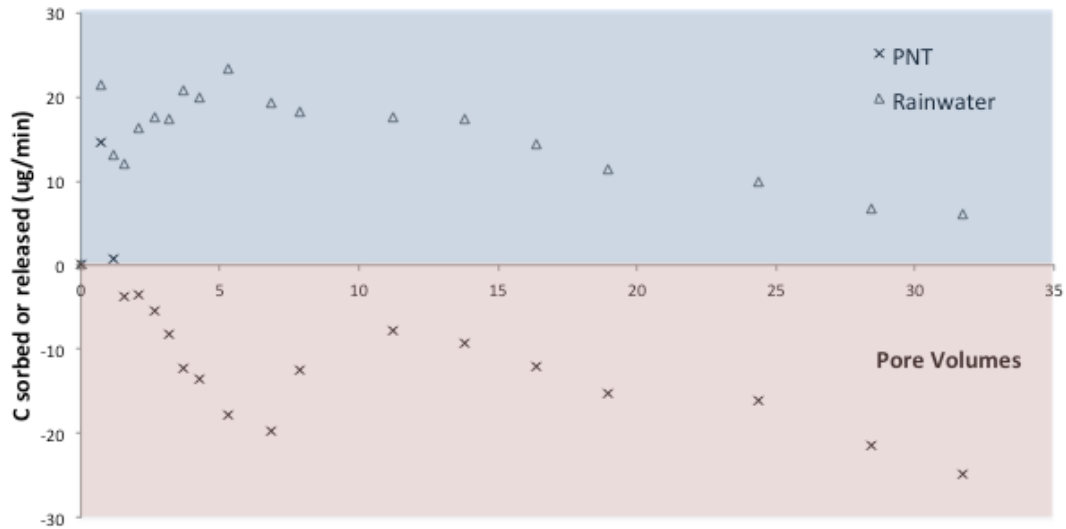


1 **Figures**

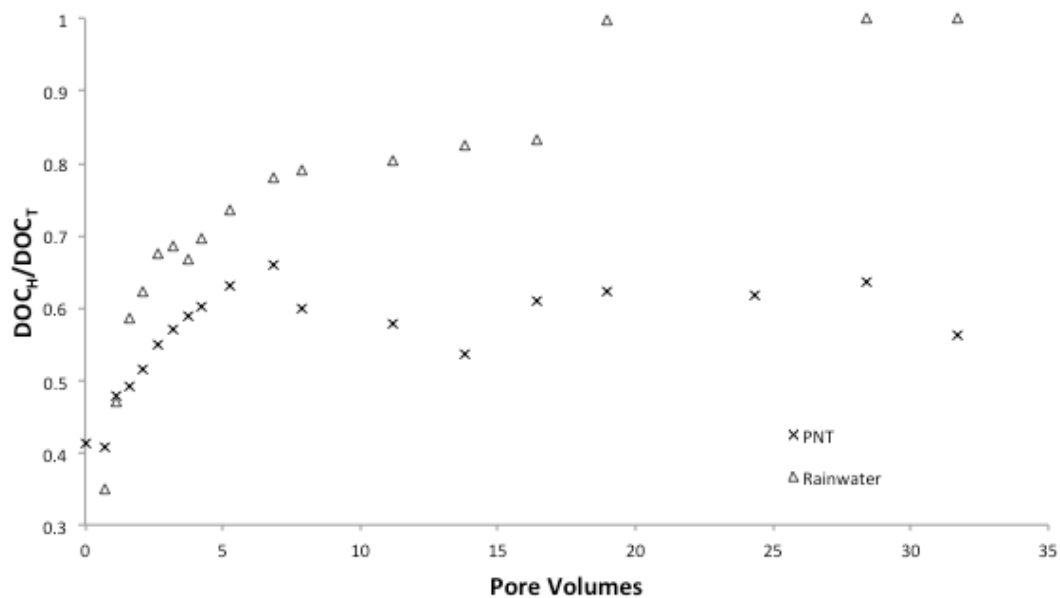
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4 **Figure 1:** Average effluent metal (Cu, Al, Zn) and DOC concentrations from duplicate columns of PNT (A,C,E) and rainwater (B,D,F) influents. For RW, the  
 5 initial metal concentrations were zero and  $[\text{DOC}]_{\text{RW}} = 1.8 \text{ mg/l}$ . The influent PNT concentrations were:  $[\text{DOC}]_{\text{PNT}} = 96.0 \text{ mg/l}$ ,  $[\text{Cu}]_{\text{PNT}} = 6.2 \text{ }\mu\text{g/l}$ ,  $[\text{Al}]_{\text{PNT}} = 0.23$   
 6  $\text{mg/l}$  and  $[\text{Zn}]_{\text{PNT}} = 0.95 \text{ mg/l}$ . The first pore volume  $[\text{Zn}] = 0.25 \text{ mg/l}$  and is not shown due to scale. Note scale differences for  $[\text{DOC}]$  in PNT and RW graphs.  
 7 Associated error bars can be found in the supplementary information, Figure S1.



**Figure 2:** Average carbon balance from the duplicate columns contrasting PNT and rainwater. The blue shaded area indicates carbon is desorbing from the soil column and the red shaded area indicates that carbon is being sorbed to the soil column as the influent travels through the soil matrix.



**Figure 3:** The average proportion of DOC<sub>H</sub> (hydrophobic DOC) to DOC<sub>T</sub> (total DOC) in duplicate column effluents for both PNT and rainwater (control) columns.