

New methodological approach for deep penetrating geochemistry and environmental studies part 2: field determination of Co(II) /Ni(II) and Pb(II) /Zn(II) of on-site soil extractions by electrochemical stripping techniques

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methodological New approach for deep penetrating 1 geochemistry and environmental studies 2 Part 2 : Field determination of Co(II)/Ni(II) and Pb(II)/Zn(II) of on-3 site soil extractions by electrochemical stripping techniques 4 5 6 Laetitia Hackel¹, Elise Rotureau¹, Camille Guilleux¹, Anne Poszwa¹, Alexis de Junet¹, 7 Maarit Middleton², Aoife Morrin³, José Paulo Pinheiro^{1,*} 8 ¹Université de Lorraine/CNRS, LIEC, UMR7360, Vandœuvre-lès-Nancy, F54501, 9 France. 10 ²Geological Survey of Finland (GTK), P.O. Box 77, Rovaniemi 96101, Finland. 11 ³Insight SFI Research Centre for Data Analytics, National Centre for Sensor Research, School of Chemical Sciences, Dublin City University, Dublin 9, Ireland. 12 13 * corresponding author jose-paulo.pinheiro@univ-lorraine.fr

14 Abstract

In the framework of deep penetrating geochemistry for mineral exploration, we 15 16 report a field electroanalytical method using disposable screen-printed working 17 electrodes able to quantify metal pathfinders in partial extracts of soil samples at the 18 nanomolar level on site. Four metal pathfinders (Co, Ni, Pb, Zn) were chosen due to their 19 geological interest and suitability of electrochemical detection. Square Wave Anodic 20 Stripping Voltammetry (SW-ASV) was developed for the simultaneous detection of 21 Pb(II) and Zn(II) providing limits of detection (LODs) of 1.2 nM and 5.3 nM respectively. 22 A linear scan-cathodic stripping voltammetry (LS-CSV) methodology was developed for 23 the joint detection of Co(II) and Ni(II) yielding LODs of 1.8 nM and 3.5 nM respectively. 24 Method validation was carried out on 14 upper B-horizon soil samples during a field 25 survey. Two wet extraction procedures were applied for soil samples - a strong extraction 26 using HNO₃ and a weak extraction with CaCl₂. Excellent agreement between 27 electroanalytical methods and ICP-MS was found for Pb(II) while a small 28 underestimation was observed for Zn(II). For Co(II) and Ni(II), the LS-CSV measurements in the HNO₃ extractions were impossible due to the change from low pH 29 30 to pH to 7.15 which induces precipitation of the Fe and Al. For the CaCl₂ extractions, the 31 Co(II)/Ni(II) results obtained by LS-CSV were in excellent agreement with ICP-MS 32 measurements.

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34	Keywords: Geochemical exploration, Field survey, Cobalt, Nickel, Lead, Zinc, Cathodic
35	stripping voltammetry, anodic stripping voltammetry, screen-printed carbon electrodes.
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41 Deep-penetrating geochemistry is employed to reveal geochemical vectors towards 42 concealed mineralization using the metal concentrations of surface samples taken of 43 upper soil horizons, plant tissues and snow (Cameron et al. 2004), (Dunn 2007), 44 (Hamilton 2007), for example. These techniques have gained their place in geochemical prospecting due to effectiveness in exploration target evaluation and generation. 45 46 Availability of commercial large-scale analytical facilities and their ability to measure 47 very low concentrations has made deep exploration geochemistry a mainstream green-48 field technique for mineral exploration in many parts of the world. Accurate 49 quantification of metal contents from soil samples is performed extracting weakly bound 50 metal ions with partial extractions and analyzing them with inductively coupled plasma 51 mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). Analytical work conducted by a laboratory requires a 52 process including sample preparation, sample transportation to the laboratory, organizing 53 the logistics and finally the arrival of the data. This process may take from weeks to 54 months.

55 Electrochemical sensors are ideal for field applications due to their portability, low 56 detection limits and low cost. They have been used with good results for detecting trace 57 metals in ocean waters, often located in laboratories on ships (Omanović et al. 2015). The 58 key advantage of electrochemical sensors is that they also work well for samples with 59 high salt concentration, while providing detection limits in the nanomolar range 60 (Companys et al. 2017) whereas ICP-MS determination requires an extra step of desalting 61 to perform the analysis. In general, field laboratory and portable analytical methods is an 62 asset for exploration geochemical surveys such as demonstrated with portable X-ray 63 fluorescence spectroscopy for total antimony concentrations for soil samples, e.g. 64 (Lemière et al. 2020). An additional benefit is a rapid turnaround, allowing immediate 65 follow-up based on results of previous sampling days that would aid in confirming the deep penetrating geochemical anomalies with e.g., with additional denser sampling 66 designs. However, to detect an exogenic labile geochemical signal from upper soil 67 68 samples originating from a concealed deposit is not possible without weak partial 69 extractions. Electrochemical determination of elemental concentrations would be 70 beneficial in measuring these low concentration solutions.

The challenge with electrochemical probes as compared with ICP-MS is to deal with the smaller number of metal ions analyzed per measurement; 2 to 3 versus 20 to 25, respectively. In addition, the time per measurement for most electrochemical probes is roughly 15 to 60 minutes per sample for one or two metals while the ICP necessitates 2 to 5 minutes per sample for 20 metals. In summary, the electrochemical field probes can quickly provide measurement data with less complicated logistics pertaining to sample handling. However, they offer a smaller number of detected metals with fewer samples measured per day when compared with the ICP.

79 Electrochemical methods are generally based on the measurement of an electric 80 current generated by an oxidation-reduction reaction of the targeted metal as function of 81 an applied potential. These currents, which are proportional to the metal ion concentration 82 in solution, are measured using a three-electrode system (working, reference and auxiliary 83 electrodes).. Different metal ions can normally be identified by their position in the 84 applied potential axis (x-axis) which is related to their respective reduction potentials 85 (Bard and Faulkner 2000). For trace metallic contaminant analysis in environmental matrices, stripping potentiometry techniques are the most suitable owing to their low 86 87 detection level and low susceptibility to interferences from adsorption of organic 88 compounds at the electrode surface. They are comprised of two stages: firstly, the target 89 metal ions are preconcentrated on the working electrode (deposition step) and secondly 90 the metal is quantified (measuring step). It is the preconcentration step, if carried out in 91 very small volume-to-surface ratio electrodes, that enables detection of very low metal 92 concentrations, easily in the nanomolar range (Rocha et al., 2010).

93 The purpose of this work is to develop field electroanalytical methods to quantify the 94 trace metal on-site in upper B-horizon soil samples extracted with nitric acid extraction 95 and calcium chloride extraction and to validate their performance with the ICP-MS 96 measurements. The electrochemical field probes being developed here represent a true 97 analytical challenge since they employ screen-printed working electrodes for which new 98 methodologies must be developed. A two-stage strategy was implemented focusing first 99 on development of the electroanalytical methods for some metal pathfinders in the 100 laboratory, and secondly to validate those latter ones together with the newly assembled 101 field electrochemical probe during a field survey. The method validation was carried out 102 on fourteen B-horizon soil samples by comparing the same extracted solution measured 103 on-site by our electroanalytical techniques with the ICP measurements by a certified 104 laboratory.

105 Two techniques were chosen for the electrochemical method development: 1) anodic 106 stripping voltammetry which reduces metal ions directly at the electrode (Borrill *et al.* 107 2019) and 2) cathodic stripping voltammetry where metal quantification is aided by addition of a complexing agent (van den Berg 1991), thus enabling the quantification of
a wide variety of metal ions with low detection limits. Four metal ions were chosen for
testing the electroanalytical methods during this field trip: cobalt (Co(II)) and nickel
(Ni(II)) using linear scan cathodic stripping voltammetry, LS-CSV(Pérez-Peña *et al.*1994) and zinc (Zn(II)) and lead (Pb(II)) using square wave anodic stripping voltammetry
SW-ASV(Nor and McNeal 1993).

114 **1. Methods**

115 1.1 Reagents

116 All solutions were prepared with Ultra-pure water (18.2 M Ω , ELGA LabWater). One 117 hundred µM, 10 µM and 1 µM standard solutions of Co(II), Ni(II), Zn(II), Pb(II) were 118 obtained from dilutions of the certified metal standard TraceCERT® 1000 mg/L solutions 119 (supplied by Fluka). The 0.18 mM Hg(II) solution (pH adjusted to 1.9) employed for the 120 working electrode preparation was made from the certified mercury standard 121 TraceCERT® 1000 mg/L solution (Fluka). The ionic strength was set with a solution of 122 1 M NaNO₃ prepared from solid powder (*TraceSELECTTM*, \geq 99.999% from Fluka), 123 while NaOH 1 M standard (Merck Titripur®) or HNO₃ 65% (p.a Merck Suprapur®) 124 solutions were used pure or diluted to adjust pH. H_2SO_4 (> 95%, Sigma-Aldrich), 125 NH₄CH₃COO, NH₄SCN, HCl (all pro analysis Merck) were used for the cleaning of the 126 working electrode re-oxidation of and the mercury film. Α 3-(N-127 morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) (>99.5%, Sigma) and dimethylglyoxime 128 (DMG) (>99%, Sigma) were used as buffer and complexing agent, respectively. MOPS 129 and DMG solutions were prepared from solids. The preparation of the DMG solution at 130 0.1 M required dissolution in ethanol (Merck Suprapur®), and MOPS solution at 0.1 M 131 required dissolution in ultra-pure water. Nitrogen (>99.999% pure) for the 132 electrochemical experiments was purchased from Air Liquide in France and from Linde 133 AG in Finland.

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135 1.2 Instrumentation

The field electrochemical system was a PalmSens 4 potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by PsTrace 5.5 electrochemical software (PalmSens BV, Houten, The Netherlands). This instrument is compact $(15.7 \times 9.7 \times 3.5 \text{ cm}, 500 \text{ grams})$ and can be powered either by a computer USB port or by a normal power source. (Palmsens 2022)

140 The PsTrace 5.5 software supports a variety of voltammetric and galvanometric 141 techniques (including linear sweep voltammetry and square wave voltammetry) and 142 controls a magnetic stirrer (Micro-stirrer VELP Scientific, Usmate, Italy or HANNA 143 Instruments, Lingo Tanneries, France) connected to the instrument permitting the 144 realization of a certain number of double step (or stripping) techniques. Dissolved oxygen 145 can chemically reoxidize the metal deposited in the mercury during the stripping step thus 146 interfering with the measurement. Therefore, a nitrogen bottle (99.999% purity) was used 147 to provide the nitrogen necessary to eliminate the oxygen from the cell.

For quantitative work, a 50 mL disposable polystyrene beaker was used as the electrochemical cell. Polystyrene is the most appropriate material to perform metal ion quantification since there are no losses of ions to the container walls (Pinheiro and Bosker 2004). The use of a disposable electrochemical cell permits a faster execution of each measurement as it eliminates the need to clean the cell prior to use.

All electrochemical measurements were performed using a 3-electrode system, comprised of a Ag/AgCl reference electrode (DRIREF-5SH from World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA), an auxiliary electrode in the form a 2 mm glassy carbon rod (ref. 6.1247.000, supplied by Metrohm, Switzerland) and the screen-printed carbon electrodes modified with thin mercury films (SPC-TMFE) as the working electrode (see section 2.3 and 2.4).

Temperature and pH were measured using a combined pH electrode Sentix 41-3 with
a PT 1000 temperature probe connected to a pH 197 pH meter (all from WTW, Weilheim,
Germany).

162 1.3 Fabrication of the screen-printed carbon electrode

163 Screen-printing was carried out at Dublin City University with a semi-automated 164 DEK 248 (DEK Printing Machines Ltd., Weymouth, UK). A nylon screen with a mesh 165 thickness of 77 T (filaments per cm) was employed. Electrodes were screen-printed onto 166 a pre-shrunk polyethylene terephthalate (PET) substrate (175 µm thickness). Carbon 167 paste ink (C10903D14, Gwent Electronic Materials Ltd. Pontypool, UK) was applied and 168 cured at 150°C for 15 min. Two consecutive prints of the carbon were performed. A non-169 conductive dielectric layer was applied to define the electrode area (3 mm diameter) and 170 cured in the UV curing machine (UV Process Supply, Inc., Cortland, Chicago, IL, USA) 171 for 3 cycles. UV lamp intensities of 300 watts per inch were used for insulating layer-172 curing procedures.

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174 1.4 Working electrode modification with Hg

175 The preparation, use and post-treatment of thin-mercury film screen-printed working 176 electrodes (SPC-TMFE) are described hereafter: 177 In order to remove impurities from the carbon electrode surface, the electrode was 178 first placed in a 0.2 M H₂SO₄ solution and a linear scan applied between (-1.20 V 179 - +1.50 V (vs. Ag/AgCl)) at 0.10 V/s (Morrin et al. 2003). Following this, a 180 second electrochemical treatment was applied consisting of 50 successive cyclic 181 voltammograms (-0.80 V - +0.80 V (vs. Ag/AgCl)) at 0.10 V/s in NH₄CH₃COO 182 1 M/HCl 0.5 M (Rocha et al. 2007). 183 For the electrodeposition of the Hg film to the carbon electrode surface, the 184 electrode was immersed in a 0.18 mM Hg(NO₃)₂ solution and a potential of -1.30 185 V (vs Ag/AgCl) was applied for 420 s. Following this, a square wave voltammetry was carried out from -1.30 V to -0.20 V (amplitude 25 mV, step 4 mV, frequency 186 187 25 Hz) to verify the presence of the Hg film before using (Rocha et al. 2007). 188 At the end of the electrode lifetime, the Hg film was completely removed from 189 the carbon surface by re-oxidation so that it could be properly disposed according 190 to safety regulations ensuring that no mercury trace was left in the field. Mercury 191 re-oxidation was carried out in 5 mM of NH₄SCN (pH 3.4) solution using Linear 192 Sweep Voltammetry (LSV) from -0.10 V to +0.80 V (scan rate of 0.005 V/s) 193 (Rocha et al. 2007).

194 1.5 Cathodic stripping voltammetry for detection of Co(II) and Ni(II)

195 LS-CSV (Pérez-Peña et al. 1994) encompasses two steps. First, a deposition or pre-196 concentration step is carried out leading to the adsorption of complexed metal ions, in this 197 case, Co- and Ni-DMG at the SPC-TMFE surface. Following this, a cathodic stripping 198 step was applied, during which adsorbed complexes at the electrode surface are reduced. 199 Peak height was used as the quantitative response to detectable metal ion concentrations. 200 Two experimental methods were used; one using oxygen purge (in the field survey) and 201 another in presence of oxygen (reported in the Further developments, section 4.3). To 202 eliminate the oxygen interference in the measurements, the sample solution was purged

205 Two methods were carried out successively for metal quantification:

206 The first method consisted of quantifying both Co(II) and Ni(II) together. A 30 s 207 deposition step under an applied deposition potential (E_d) of -0.65 V in a stirred solution 208 was carried out followed by a reduction step where a linear scan was applied between -209 0.75 and -1.60 V, (9 V/s scan rate; 0.004 V potential step). In the second experiment, 210 Co(II) only was quantified. To achieve this, a pre-treatment was used after the deposition 211 step, imposing a potential of -0.93 V for 1 s to reduce Ni(II) and remove it from the 212 surface, just prior to the measuring step, so that Co(II) only was measured. Immediately 213 after the measurement, the potential applied to the electrode was kept at -1.60 V to 214 minimize adsorption of the metal-DMG complexes at the electrode surface. All 215 measurements were performed in triplicate.

For the second method dealing with unpurged solutions, an additional step was introduced between deposition and reduction of metal ions. This step consists of applying a constant potential of -0.75 V for 45 s (no stirring), so that much of the oxygen in the electrode diffusion layer is consumed, thus significantly decreasing the oxygen interference in the signal during the reduction step.

1.6 Square wave anodic stripping voltammetry for detection of Pb(II)and Zn(II)

223 The ASV measurement comprised a deposition and a re-oxidation step: the 224 deposition step was performed at -1.20 V for a fixed time (under stirring for 45 s or 90 s 225 as specified), while the reoxidation step was carried out using square wave voltammetry from -1.20 to -0.20V, (frequency 25 Hz, a potential amplitude 0.025 V, potential step 226 227 0.004V). Peak height was used as the quantitative response to detection metal ion 228 concentrations. Between each measurement, a continuous potential was applied in order 229 to prevent ion adsorption at the electrode surface. The sample solution was purged with 230 N₂ for 15-20 min. A constant flow of N₂ was maintained above the sample solution during 231 all measurements. All measurements were performed in triplicate.

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233 1.7 Soil sample analysis using standard addition

234 1.7.1 LS-CSV Co(II)/Ni(II)

235 The measurement solution comprised a specified volume of sample (between 0.1 and 236 16 mL), to which 2 mL NaNO₃ (1 M), 300 µL DMG (0.1 M) and 2 mL MOPS (0.1 M) 237 were added and the pH was adjusted to 7.15 using HNO₃ or NaOH. Finally, Ultra-Pure 238 water was added to obtain the final volume of 20 mL. Even if normally the determination 239 of Ni and Co using DMG is generally performed at pH above 8.5, in this work we have 240 tested the protocol at different pH values and found that the lowest value before the signal 241 decreasing was 7.15. The objective was to minimize reagent consumption in the field. 242 The standard addition method of calibration was carried out comprising the sample 243 measurement followed by three metal aliquot additions to the sample (in triplicate).

244 1.7.2 SW-ASV Pb(II)/Zn(II)

The measurement solution comprised a specified volume of sample (between 0.1 and 5 mL), to which 0.4 mL HNO₃ (1 M) was added. Note that a good part of this acid will be consumed by the organic matter present in the soil extract. Ultra-Pure water was then added to obtain a final volume of 20 mL in the electrochemical cell. The pH was adjusted to 3.5 using HNO₃ (1 M) if necessary. The standard addition method of calibration was carried out comprising the sample measurement followed by three metal aliquot additions to the sample (in triplicate).

In both LS-CSV Co(II)/Ni(II) and SW-ASV Pb(II)/Zn(II) cases reverse-axis standard addition analysis (Goncalves *et al.* 2016) is used to compute the concentration from the y-intercept and thus obtain the error estimation and the LOD from the respective standard error (LOD= $3s_b$, where s_b is the intercept error). An LOD is thus obtained for each standard addition measurement therefore the overall LOD presented in this work is an average of all measured samples.

258 **2. Study area and sampling**

259 2.1 Experimental site and sample collection

Soil sample collection took place in June-July 2019 at the Rajapalot Au-Co project area, 30 km west of Rovaniemi city in the Peräpohja Belt in northern Finland. During the field campaign, the target metals were measured in two different solution extracts from freshly collected soil samples (De Junet *et al.* in press). 14-point locations were sampled on and around the Raja Au-Co prospect (66.45° N, 24.75° E). The site is characterized by old growth boreal forests on well-drained coarse-grained glacial sediments, over which soil samples were collected, and peatlands. The Au-Co mineralization has been 267 investigated by bedrock drilling by the exploration permit holding company Mawson Oy. 268 The sampled mineral soils are Podzols (IUSS Working Group WRB 2015) and their upper 269 B-horizon (spodic) samples were acquired at depths between 12 and 45 cm and collected 270 in plastic bags. The map of the sampling site with the sample points is presented as Figure 271 1 in (De Junet et al. in press)roughly 1/3 of them located on the known mineralized bodies 272 and the rest on the background. Further details on the mineralization type and associated 273 enriched elements and the main physical and chemical properties of soil materials are 274 summarized in the Supplementary Data 1 of Part 1 (De Junet et al. in press).

275 2.2 Soil sample preparation and extractions

The standard protocol when measuring trace metals in soil samples implies as an initial step a liquid-solid extraction procedure on dried soil samples. As drying a soil sample is time-consuming and thus not compatible with on-site measurement, the liquidsolid extraction was tested on freshly collected (wet) soil samples.

To validate this wet extraction procedure, we compared ICP results obtained for the on-site fresh soil extractions carried out during the Rajapalot survey and the dried soil extractions performed in the laboratory. This work was presented in detail in Part 1 (De Junet *et al.* in press).

284 After collecting the upper soil B-horizon, samples were transported to the field 285 laboratory where the soils were sieved to finer than 2 mm particle size fraction. The <2286 mm particle size grinding and sieving was chosen instead of the usual <0.065 mm particle 287 size used in Scandinavia for dry soils, since the later would be too long when applied to 288 wet soils in the field. Two extraction media were investigated for use: 0.43 M HNO₃ nitric 289 acid and 0.01 M CaCl₂ calcium chloride. In each extraction, 3.0 g of soil were weighed 290 on a technical balance (precision 0.1 g) and transferred to a 50 mL Falcon@ tube in which 291 either 30 mL of 0.01 CaCl₂ or 0.43 M HNO₃ was added. These suspensions were shaken for two hours in a rotator mixer (Intelli-MixerTM RM-2L, ELMI, Riga, Lithuania); 292 293 decanted for 30 minutes and filtered using a Acrodisc® 25 mm w/0.45 µm syringe filter 294 with SuporTM STRL membrane (manufactured by Pall Corporation, Port Washington, 295 New York, USA) and distributed in equal parts into two plastic containers where one was 296 reserved for electrochemical analysis and the other for ICP-MS analysis. The samples 297 were stored at 4 °C. Each soil extraction was carried out in triplicate. To check for 298 possible metal contaminations, blank samples (containing extractant but no soil) were 299 also carried through each procedure and analyzed by ICP-MS at ALS laboratory (Prague,

300 Czechia). The details of the ICP-MS analysis can be found in Part 1 of this manuscript301 (De Junet *et al.* in press).

302 **3. Results and discussion**

303 3.1 LS-CSV Co(II) and Ni(II)

304 A previously reported LS-CSV method (Herrera-Melián et al. 1994) for the detection 305 of Co(II) and Ni(II) using a hanging mercury drop electrode was adapted and optimized 306 for our working electrode (section 1.4). Average LODs of 1.8 nM for Co(II) and 3.5 nM 307 for Ni(II) and a linearity limit of 25 nM for both metals were measured. Examples of 308 voltammograms and standard addition plots are given in Section A of the Supplementary 309 Data. In cases where the sample concentrations surpassed this linearity limit during the 310 on-site quantification, we applied a quadratic regression to relate the electrochemical 311 measured signal with the metal concentration values instead of a classical linear function, 312 such that a larger range of metal concentrations could be measured. For large 313 voltammetric waves an overlap of the Co(II) and Ni(II) peaks was observed. For Co(II) 314 quantification this was overcome by selectively eliminating the Ni(II) peak as described 315 in section A of the Supplementary data Figs. S1 and S2. However for Ni(II) 316 quantification, selective removal of Co(II) was not possible. Therefore, peak separation 317 (see in SD: Figure S3) was performed using Fytik software (Wojdyr 2010).

Within the field survey, it was not possible to analyse HNO₃-extracted samples due to their low pH. The required pH for the LS-CSV analysis was 7.15 and pH adjustments using 1 M NaOH caused the formation of brownish precipitate. This precipitate was likely iron-based since the ICP measurements showed a range of concentrations between 0.2 and 5.1 mM Fe in the 14 samples analysed. When precipitate was removed from the sample via filtration, no Co(II) or Ni(II) were detected in the supernatant indicating that those ions likely also co-precipitated.

325 During the field survey 27 CaCl₂ extracted samples were measured over six days. 326 Among the sample extracts, five presented such high metal ion content that it led to an 327 electrode saturation (insufficient dilution of the sample) and three samples could not be 328 measured due to electrode contamination. Thus, 19 Co(II) and 17 Ni(II) samples were 329 successfully analyzed.



Figure 1: Cobalt concentrations obtained by LS-CSV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon CaCl2extractions, where data annotated (a) and (b) in the legend are the replicates.



Figure 2: Nickel concentrations obtained by LS-CSV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon CaCl2
 extractions where data annotated (a) and (b) in the legend are the replicates.

367 Figures 1 and 2 report the analyzed Co(II) and Ni(II) concentrations for the CaCl₂ 368 extraction as determined by LS-CSV and by ICP-MS measurements. Figure 1 shows that 369 for Co(II), LS-CSV measurements were in broad agreement with ICP-MS. Fig 2. also 370 displays good agreement for Ni(II) analyses, with the exception of two sampling points 371 (3b, 13b). It is likely that 3b is an outlier, as the replicate (3a) agrees very well (<5%) 372 with both ICP measurements. On the other hand, only a single LS-CVS analysis was performed for sampling point 13, the two ICP measurements (13a and 13b) are 373 374 significantly different from each other, and the single LS-CSV result does not agree with 375 either ICP-MS analysis.

376 During the method development, we found out that a working electrode could be 377 used for four consecutive samples before observable performance degradation. During 378 the field laboratory work a new working electrode was thus made (at a rate of roughly 1 379 per hour) for every four samples, which constrained the number of samples analyzed in a 380 day.

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3.2 SW-ASV Zn(II) and Pb(II)

384 The SW-ASV method development for simultaneous quantification of Zn(II) and 385 Pb(II) using the SPC-TMFE supported by the screen printed electrodes with a deposition 386 time of 90s (see section 3.6) yielded an average detection limit of 5.3 nM for Zn(II) and 387 1.2 nM for Pb(II). The linearity limit was 300 nM for Zn(II) and 50 nM for Pb(II). 388 Examples of voltammograms and reverse standard addition plots are given in Section B 389 of the Supplementary Data.

390 During the field survey, thirty-three samples were measured in six working days. For 391 five of these samples the measurements were not successful probably due to a working 392 electrode malfunction, since all of them were measured with the same electrode in the 393 same day. Thus, twenty-eight out of thirty-three samples were successfully analyzed for 394 Zn(II) and Pb(II). Figures 3 and 4 summarize the results obtained from the 395 electrochemical measurements and the ICP-MS data for the samples issue from the HNO3 396 extractions, for Zn(II) and Pb(II) respectively.

397 Figure 3 Figure 3 shows the excellent agreement between Pb(II) concentrations 398 measured by electrochemical and the ICP measurements. In Figure 4Figure 4 it can be 399 observed that all data except one were below the ICP detection limit provided by ALS-

Mis en form Mis en form 400 Prague (0.005 μ M). Instead the field probe was able to measure all the samples 401 confirming the excellent detection limit for Pb with this technique.







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Figure 4: Lead results obtained by SW-ASV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon CaCl2 extractions.
The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. The red dotted line represents the detection
limit for the ICP measurement provided by ALS-Prague (0.005 μM).

426 Figure 5Figure 5 and 6 illustrate the comparison of Zn(II) measurements with the 427 developed electrochemical method and ICP for the HNO3 and CaCl2 extracted soil 428 samples. Apparently, ALS-Prague used different calibrations for the ICP results provided 429 in Figure 5 Figure 5 and Figure 6 Figure 6 yielding different LOD of 3 and 0.6 µM and 430 thus a limit of quantification (LOQ) of 9 and 1.8 µM respectively. This is unfortunate for 431 our comparison purposes since all reported ICP values except number 4 in Figure 6 lie 432 between the LOD and LOQ. ALS provided ICP concentration values but, in reality, the 433 correct way to report these measures is to state that the Zn concentrations are ranging 434 between the LOD and LOQ. Note that the detection limits for the LS-ASV measurements 435 are two orders of magnitude lower than those reported for the ICP measurements (5.3 436 nM).

Within these limitations, we observe in Figure 5 that there are five ICP concentrations below the LOD (1, 5, 9, 13, 14) and another five between LOD and LOQ (3, 4, 8, 10, 11) in agreement with the electrochemical concentrations. For the two samples 12_2 and 12_3, disagreements are noticed since the electrochemical measurements were well below the reported ICP LOD values.



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Mis en forme Couleur de po Mis en forme Couleur de po 471 *Figure 5:* Zinc results obtained by SW-ASV (green) and ICP (black) for the soil B horizon HNO₃ 472 extractions. The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. All samples were measured by 473 ICP, thus, a non-reported value is below the LOD. The n.d. notation corresponds to a failed 474 electrochemical measurement. The red dotted line represents the detection limit for the ICP 475 measurement provided by ALS-Prague ($3 \mu M$).

Figure 6Figure 6 shows that there are six ICP concentrations below the LOD (8, 9, 10, 12_1, 12_2, 13_1) and another three between LOD and LOQ (2, 6_2, 14) in agreement with the electrochemical concentrations. We observe disagreements in five samples (3, 5, 6_1, 11, 13_2) where ICP detected zinc while the electrochemical measurement is well below the reported ICP LOD. Finally for sample 4, there is a significant difference between ICP and electrochemical values.

482 Results in Figure 6 suggest that electrochemical measurements provide lower 483 concentrations levels than the ICP analysis. A possible explanation for this 484 underestimation would be the presence of a considerable amount of Cu(II) ions in 485 solution; between 1.7 and 5.4 μ M for the HNO₃ extraction and up to 1.2 μ M for the CaCl₂ 486 extraction were measured by ICP-MS. It is well known that formation of intermetallic 487 complexes inside the mercury electrode due to the presence of Cu(II) can affect the Zn(II) 488 quantification (Brett *et al.* 1997).

489 We already investigated a possible solution to this problem by changing the detection 490 technique from SW-ASV to Stripping Chronopotentiometry (SCP) that is less sensitive 491 to copper interference (Rocha *et al.* 2007). To that point, a work was published recently 492 that described a new SCP methodology to quantify Pb(II) and Zn(II) in river water 493 samples (Hackel et al. 2021). Very low LODs were reported for Pb(II) (0.06 nM) and 494 Zn(II) (1.9 nM) and the methodology was validated by comparison with ICP-MS results 495 (all above the LOQ). Again we observed an excellent agreement for Pb(II) while using 496 SCP the problem was not solved for Zn(II) since the results were 30% to 50% lower than 497 the ICP-MS, as observed in this work. In the near future, we will carry out further 498 investigations into the origin of these discrepancies.

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500 *Figure 6*: Zinc results obtained by SW-ASV and ICP-MS for the soil B-horizon CaCl2 extractions. 501 The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. All samples were measured by ICP, thus, 502 a non-reported value is below the LOD. The n.d. notation corresponds to a failed electrochemical 503 measurement. The red dotted line represents the detection limit for the ICP measurement provided 504 by ALS-Prague ($0.6 \mu M$).

505

506 3.3 Further developments

507 During the field survey, the most significant logistical challenges were related to the 508 use of a nitrogen bottle in order to purge the solutions. It was difficult to find a local 509 supplier and to transport the bottle to the on-site laboratory. Therefore, the main priority 510 is now to eliminate the need to purge the solutions.

Regarding the Zn(II)/Pb(II) analysis deprived of oxygen degassing, we tested a filter (Etienne *et al.* 2020; Le *et al.* 2020) which eliminates the dissolved oxygen at the vicinity of the working electrode during the stripping step of the SCP procedure (Rotureau *et al.* 2021). This system is not yet ready for the field. Further development is required to include a second potentiostat for operation and miniaturization of the coupling of the metal sensing electrode and the oxygen filter.

517 Preliminary to the Co(II)/Ni(II) field measurements, we tested a method in the 518 laboratory to carry out unpurged quantification of Co(II) and Ni(II) using a hanging 519 mercury drop electrode (HMDE). This method was originally proposed by (HerreraMelián *et al.* 1994) for seawater. Upon testing this method in our working electrode (SPCTMFE) we observed that the detection limit was considerably worse than at the HMDE.
We also ascertain that nitrogen purging was effective in decreasing this detection limit;
therefore, it was necessary to continue purging during the field survey.

524 We decided to modify the LS-CSV method by introducing a new step. A potential of 525 -0.75V was applied for 45s without stirring between the deposition and the reduction 526 steps. During this step, a large part of the oxygen lying near the electrode is consumed, 527 thus significantly decreasing the oxygen interference of the baseline. This modified 528 methodology without purging yielded a detection limit of 3.5 nM for Co(II)(1.8 nM 529 purged) and 6.1 nM for Ni(II) (3.5 nM purged), which are sufficient for most natural 530 waters and more than adequate for soil extracts. A preliminary test of this methodology 531 has been made using a snow sample from the winter 2019 campaign at Rajapalot. Co(II) 532 concentrations of 3.7 ± 0.6 nM were in good agreement with the 3.1 ± 0.4 nM measured 533 with ICP-MS.

534 **4. Conclusions**

Two field probes were used to measure Co(II)/Ni(II) with Linear Scan Cathodic Stripping Voltammetry (LS-CSV) and Zn(II)/Pb(II) with Square Wave Anodic Stripping Voltammetry (SW-ASV) of two different extracts, namely HNO₃ 0.43M and CaCl₂ 0.01M. Extraction was made of freshly collected B-horizon soil samples. The field probe measurements were validated with ICP-MS quantifications performed on the same samples by a certified laboratory. The main conclusions of our work are summarized below:

a) There was an excellent agreement between LS-CSV and ICP for Co(II)/Ni(II)
measured from the CaCl₂ extraction;

b) HNO₃ extraction cannot be used for determination of Co(II)/Ni(II) by LS-CSV,

- 545due to the amount of iron and aluminum in the extract solution that precipitate and546adsorb the Co and Ni ions;
- 547 c) Electrochemical Pb(II) quantifications were in a good agreement with ICP-MS
 548 measurements for the HNO₃ extraction while for the CaCl₂ extraction were well
 549 below the ALS reported ICP detection limit;
- d) SW-ASV underestimated Zn(II) concentrations in comparison to the ICP
 measurements for both the CaCl₂ and HNO₃ extractions. This is most likely due to
 formation of intermetallic complexes with copper.

553 During the field survey we also observed that numbers of samples analyzed daily 554 will probably be sufficient to handle the number of soil samples collected especially if 555 the latter are pretreated daily in the field.

However, for other samples such as river water the number of samples that can be analyzed daily may be even higher. In this case the measurement rate of four metals in twenty samples with two field probes and two operators a day is much more labor intensive than ICP-MS measurements are. The solution to increase the productivity lies on the automatization of the field electrochemical probe especially regarding the sample changing and the ability to measure multiple metals by an operator.

After the field survey a major problem of purging the samples was addressed for the quantification of Zn(II)/Pb(II) using an oxygen filter and for the quantification of Co(II)/Ni(II) by a methodology change. Besides avoiding the need of carrying a nitrogen bottle in the field, unpurged quantifications will also increase the number of samples analyzed daily.

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579 Supplementary Data

580 A. Illustrations of LS-CSV voltammograms, peaks deconvolution procedure by Fityk 581 software and reverse-axis standard addition analysis for Co(II) and Ni(II) quantification

582 B. Illustrations of SW-ASV voltammograms and reverse-axis standard addition analysis

- 583 for Pb(II) and Zn(II) quantification
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672 Figures

673	Figure 1: Cobalt concentrations obtained by LS-CSV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon
674	CaCl ₂ extractions, where data annotated (a) and (b) in the legend are the replicates 12
675	Figure 2: Nickel concentrations obtained by LS-CSV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon
676	CaCl ₂ extractions where data annotated (a) and (b) in the legend are the replicates 12
677	Figure 3: Lead results obtained by SW-ASV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon HNO ₃
678	extractions
679	Figure 4: Lead results obtained by SW-ASV and ICP-MS for the soil B horizon CaCl ₂
680	extractions. The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. The red dotted line
681	represents the detection limit for the ICP measurement provided by ALS-Prague (0.005
682	μM) <u>15</u> 14
683	Figure 5: Zinc results obtained by SW-ASV (green) and ICP (black) for the soil B
684	horizon HNO ₃ extractions. The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. All
685	samples were measured by ICP, thus, a non-reported value is below the LOD. The n.d.
686	notation corresponds to a failed electrochemical measurement. The red dotted line
687	represents the detection limit for the ICP measurement provided by ALS-Prague (3
688	μM)
689	Figure 6: Zinc results obtained by SW-ASV and ICP-MS for the soil B-horizon CaCl ₂
690	extractions. The red line gives the LOD for the ICP measurement. All samples were
691	measured by ICP, thus, a non-reported value is below the LOD. The n.d. notation
692	corresponds to a failed electrochemical measurement. The red dotted line represents the
693	detection limit for the ICP measurement provided by ALS-Prague (0.6 µM) 17
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