

## Manuscript Details

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### Abstract

Because of its high adsorption capacity, biochar has been used to stabilize heavy metals when remediating contaminated soils; to date, however, it has seldom been used to remediate contaminated sediment. In this study, a biochar was used as a stabilization agent to remediate Cu- and Pb-contaminated sediments, collected from three locations in or close to Beijing. The sediments were mixed with a palm sawdust gasified biochar at a range of weight ratios (2.5%, 5%, and 10%) and incubated for 10, 30, or 60 days. The performance of the different treatments and the heavy metal fractions in the sediments were assessed using four extraction methods, including diffusive gradients in thin films, the porewater concentration, a sequential extraction, and the toxicity characteristic leaching procedure. The results showed that biochar could enhance the stability of heavy metals in contaminated sediments. The degree of stability increased as both the dose of biochar and the incubation time increased. The sediment pH and the morphology of the metal crystals adsorbed onto the biochar changed as the contact time increased. Our results showed that adsorption, metal crystallization, and the pH were the main controls on the stabilization of metals in contaminated sediment by biochar.

<b>Keywords</b>	biochar; sediment; heavy metal; stabilization assessing
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Dear Editor,

We would like to submit the enclosed manuscript entitled “Assessing heavy metal stability enhanced by biochar in sediment using chemical and extraction methods” to be considered for publication as an original paper in *Journal of environmental sciences*.

The article is original, is not under consideration by another journal, and has not been published previously. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. The work undertaken is not owned by nor has it been conducted for any for-profit entity. The authors have no financial interest in this work.

In this paper, we use biochar as a treatment for metal stabilization in contaminated sediment, which has been widely investigated and used in soil remediation but seldom in sediment management. Besides, we employed four extraction methods, diffusive gradients in thin-films technique (DGT), porewater concentration, sequential extraction (BCR) and toxicity characteristic leaching procedure (TCLP), to analyze stabilization efficiency. During incubation sediment slurry mixed with biochar, metal's stability, bioavailability and geochemistry fraction have been altered and form a more stable speciation in sediment-biochar system. It is definite that the biochar can promote metals' stability in sediment, but the adsorption is not the only stabilization mechanism. The pH value, total carbon content and so on affected by biochar directly or indirectly also contribute to the process of stabilization.

This biochar treatment process could be used for ex-situ remediation of dredged sediment from aquatic benthic before further disposal, as landfill disposal, confined aquatic disposal and dumping at sea are still the most applied sediment management strategies in China. Although this study was based on laboratory investigations, the information and data from these experiments could pave the way for further engineering application.

Thank you very much for your consideration.  
Sincerely yours,

**Aizhong Ding**

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Dear editor,

Thank you for arranging a timely review for our manuscript. We have carefully evaluated the reviewers' and editor's critical comments and thoughtful suggestions, responded to these suggestions point-by-point, and revised the manuscript accordingly. Moreover, according to our evaluate again this paper title have been modified from "Assessing biochar stabilization trace metal in contaminated sediment using chemical and extraction methods" to "Assessing the capacity of biochar to stabilize copper and lead in contaminated sediments using chemical and extraction methods".

The relevant reviewers's comments (in bold) and our response (in italics) are presented below. We hope that the revised version of the manuscript can be acceptable for publication in your journal.

I look forward to hearing from you soon.

With all my best regards!

Sincerely yours,

Corresponding author: Aizhong Ding

Point-by-point responses to the reviewers' comments: Mingming Wang

First of all, we thank all the reviewers for their positive and constructive comments and suggestions.

-Reviewer 1

*Thanks for your positive and constructive comments.*

-Reviewer 2

**1. The manuscript suffers severely from poor grammar, awkward writing, spelling mistakes, and other stylistic faults. For example, Line 1 "bioiochar", Line 37 "poses", Line 46 "involve", Line 130 "were", Line 280 "fig. 4", and etc. The authors are suggested to polish English by a native English speaker (Please give the polishing company or expert's name and email).**

Answer:

*We appreciate you for your valuable suggestion. This manuscript have already been polished by a professional company (Liwen Bianji, Edanz Editing China).*

**2. Page 12 line 230, the authors introduced several abbreviation (ORP) without any descriptions. It really confuses me.**

Answer:

*All abbreviations have been described at their first time exist in the paper. The ORP was described at line 41.*

**3. Page 17 line 337-340, "Furthermore, there is a study point out that the particle size of biochar has no significant relationship with or effect on the fraction re-distribution, whereas finer size particulate treatment results in higher efficiency in reducing porewater concentration than coarse biochar (Lu et al., 2017)". This sentence is contradictory.**

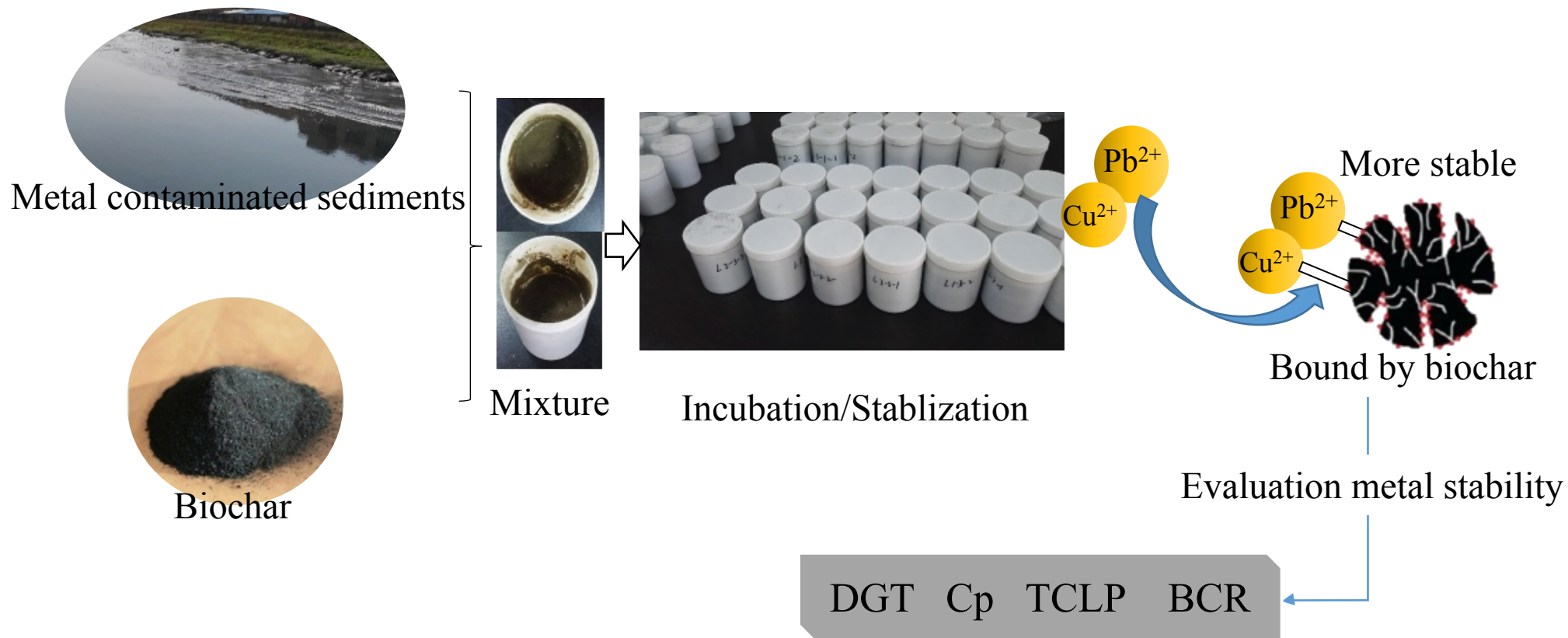
Answer:

*We carefully evaluate this reference again and we think its result is inapposite to be quoted in this place, so we decided to delete it.*

**4. Page 17-18 line 341-344, "However, we must acknowledge that metal stabilization efficiency by biochar is not sensitive enough when compared with phosphate or iron-bearing materials (Chen et al., 2016), which have been observed both in this and other studies (Igalavithana et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017)". However, I cannot find any studies on the metal stabilization by phosphate and iron-bearing materials in the manuscript.**

Answer:

*We appreciate you for your valuable suggestion. We supplement some content about the metal stabilization by phosphate and iron-bearing materials from line 339 to 344.*



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# Assessing biochar stabilization trace metal in contaminated sediment using chemical and extraction methods

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1 **Assessing the capacity of biochar to stabilize copper and lead in contaminated**  
2 **sediments using chemical and extraction methods**

3 **Mingming Wang<sup>1</sup>, Liangso Ren<sup>1</sup>, Dayang Wang<sup>1</sup>, Cai Zuansi<sup>2</sup>, Xuefeng Xia<sup>1</sup>, Aizhong Ding<sup>1\*</sup>**

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11

12 **Abstract:** Because of its high adsorption capacity, biochar has been used to stabilize  
13 heavy metals when remediating contaminated soils; to date, however, it has seldom  
14 been used to remediate contaminated sediment. In this study, a biochar was used as a  
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16 three locations in or close to Beijing. The sediments were mixed with a palm sawdust  
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26 crystallization, and the pH were the main controls on the stabilization of metals in  
27 contaminated sediment by biochar.

28

29 **Keywords: biochar; sediment; heavy metal; stabilization assessment**

## 30 **Introduction**

31 Sediment is a major component of river ecosystems and has a fundamental  
32 influence on ecosystem health. As such, there is great concern about heavy metal  
33 contamination of river sediment (Akcil et al., 2015). The heavy metals commonly found  
34 in sediments usually originate from industrial waste discharges through direct  
35 emissions, such as dumping, or indirect emissions, such as rain runoff and atmospheric  
36 deposition. Approximately 90% of the heavy metals that enter rivers may be deposited  
37 onto the sediment surface and incorporated into the lattice structure of minerals via  
38 adsorption, precipitation, and flocculation (Du et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2013). The  
39 stability of metals in sediment depends, to some degree, on the environmental  
40 conditions. With changes in the environmental conditions, such as the pH, oxidation  
41 reduction potential (OPR), temperature and salinity, the bound metals may be released  
42 into water, from where they may be taken up and bioaccumulated in food webs, thereby  
43 presenting risks to river ecosystems. In addition, the mobility and bioavailability of  
44 sediment-bound metals in river ecosystems may increase during resuspension by  
45 natural processes, waste disposal, and dredging activities (Akcil et al., 2015). Therefore,  
46 sediments act as both a sink and a source of heavy metals in aquatic ecosystems and  
47 can switch between these roles under different conditions (Peng et al., 2009). Because,  
48 when released, metals are toxic to aquatic ecosystems, the stability of metals in  
49 sediment matrices should be enhanced to reduce their potential impacts on the aquatic  
50 environment.

51 Currently physical, chemical, and biological technologies are used to treat  
52 contaminated sediments, both *in-situ* and *ex-situ* (Wang et al., 2017). During *ex-situ*  
53 remediation, sediment is dredged from the riverbed and disposed of, disturbing aquatic  
54 benthic life; *in-situ* remediation, however, does not impact on natural hydrological  
55 conditions and methods are designed to prevent the desorption of pollutants from the  
56 sediment to the water column (Peng et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017). In most case, *ex-*  
57 *situ* remediation is the first choice in many restoration projects because of the severity  
58 of the pollution and doubts that *in-situ* remediation methods can provide stable results  
59 over the long-term (Peng et al., 2009). The concentrations of toxic metals can increase  
60 dramatically during dredging operations because of the re-suspension of sediment and  
61 release of dissolved metal pollutants (Akcil et al., 2015). Sediment remediation  
62 methods are designed to either dislodge or extract contaminants from sediment or to  
63 enhance their stability in the sediment. Sorbent amendments and stabilization strategies  
64 that mimic biogeochemical processes are used to enhance the stability of heavy metals,  
65 and potentially reduce the ecological risks (Bolan et al., 2014). A wide range of  
66 materials such as zero-valent iron, hematite, ferrihydrite, apatite, clays, calcium-rich  
67 sepiolite, attapulgite, and activated carbon have already been used to remediate metal-  
68 contaminated sediments (Ghosh et al., 2011; Qian et al., 2009; Yin and Zhu, 2016).  
69 However, while biochar is well-known for its stability and high adsorption, it has been  
70 used infrequently in sediment management applications (Wang et al., 2017).

71 Biochar is a carbon-rich material obtained from the thermochemical conversion of  
72 biomass under oxygen-limited conditions (Keiluweit et al., 2010; Tong et al., 2011;  
73 Wang et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2011). Because of its unique properties, it is increasingly  
74 used in soil remediation applications (Zhang et al., 2013). Studies to date have shown  
75 that biochar can enhance the matrix pH under most acid and neutral conditions, and

76 hold moisture, thereby increasing the soil water content and retaining necessary  
77 nutrients for plant growth (Atkinson et al., 2010; Gunes et al., 2014; Jeffery et al., 2015;  
78 Major et al., 2010). In a recent study, biochar was used to improve and remediate  
79 several metal-contaminated rice fields in China. The results from a series of field trials  
80 showed that the bioavailability of metals in soil and the metal concentrations in rice  
81 grains decreased by between 20% ~ 70%, and 20% ~ 60%, respectively, in soils treated  
82 with biochar (Wang et al., 2017). In terms of sediment, studies have addressed the  
83 effects of biochar on (1) mercury-related processes such as methylation and  
84 demethylation (Liu et al., 2016), (2) the fractions of Fe and As (Chen et al., 2016), and  
85 (3) the basic physico-chemical properties of sediment such as water retention, CO<sub>2</sub>  
86 emissions, total organic carbon, pH, and electrical conductivity (Ojeda et al., 2016).  
87 Despite the fact that few studies have addressed how biochar can be used to treat metal-  
88 contaminated sediments, we speculate that the benefits already seen in soil management  
89 might also apply to sediment remediation.

90 In sediment management strategies, sediment quality guidelines have traditionally  
91 been based on the total contaminant concentrations rather than the leachability or  
92 bioavailability (Qian et al., 2009). However, the total contaminant concentrations  
93 cannot adequately represent contaminant mobility, because the mobility, bioavailability  
94 and eco-toxicity of metals in sediments are generally controlled by different  
95 geochemical fractions and the binding relationships between contaminants and solid  
96 phases (Kazi et al., 2005), which can be more accurately explained by the metal  
97 fractions. It is well-known that, when incorporated into the lattice structures of minerals,  
98 heavy metals are stable and less bioavailable than weakly-bound labile metals. To date,  
99 a series of chemical methods, including porewater extraction, membrane extraction,  
100 and chemical reagent extraction, have been developed to facilitate rapid evaluation of

101 the bioavailability of metals in soils or sediments (Chen et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2014;  
102 Yin and Zhu, 2016; Zhang et al., 2001). In these methods, speciation analysis and  
103 leaching tests are based on the different abilities of chemical reagents to extract and  
104 classify metal geochemical fractions and evaluate their mobility and bioavailability,  
105 and membrane extraction is based on the equilibrium between the solid and liquid to  
106 assess the dissolved pollutants concentration and their resupply ability from solid phase.  
107 These methods provide detailed information about metal species in sediment phases  
108 and helps to predict the potential future behavior of these pollutants (Hasan et al., 2018;  
109 Kazi et al., 2005; Song et al., 2017).

110 The objective of this study was to investigate if biochar could be used effectively  
111 to remediate sediments that were contaminated with heavy metals. Four extraction  
112 methods were employed to evaluate specific components of the performance of the  
113 biochar treatments, as follows: (1) diffusive gradients in thin films (DGT) were used to  
114 investigate the concentrations of labile metals (*in-situ* sample) (Zhang et al., 2001); 2)  
115 a centrifuge method was used to determine the concentrations of dissolved metals in  
116 porewater; 3) a multi-step sequential extraction method (the Community Bureau of  
117 Reference (BCR) method, Yin and Zhu (2016)) was used to evaluate the distribution of  
118 metal fractions, and 4) the toxicity characteristic leaching procedure (TCLP, USEPA  
119 (1984)), a one-step extraction method, was used to investigate the potential leachability  
120 of metals in sediments under strong or moderately acidic conditions. While this was a  
121 laboratory-based study, the information and data from these experiments could form  
122 the basis of further engineering applications.

# 123 **1 Materials and methods**

## 124 **1.1 Sediment collection and biochar preparation**

125 Three different sediments were collected from an inner-city river (CR), a standby  
126 reservoir (SR), and an artificial lake (AC) either close to or in Beijing, China. The  
127 sediments were collected by a grab sampler, packed into plastic bags and sealed, then  
128 transported to the laboratory, and stored at 4°C. The sediments were then amended with  
129 solutions of Cu(NO)<sub>2</sub> and Pb(NO)<sub>2</sub> to give medium-to-high concentrations of Cu(II)  
130 and Pb(II) (Gu and Hua, 2006; Zhu and Wang, 2012). The sediment slurries were hand-  
131 stirred several times to homogenize and then incubated in the dark for 40 days. The  
132 total concentrations of Cu and Pb in the sediments before and after the Cu(NO)<sub>2</sub> and  
133 Pb(NO)<sub>2</sub> solutions were added are presented in Table 1. A palm sawdust-based  
134 gasification biochar (SBIO), details of which are reported in an earlier study, was  
135 selected as the metal stabilization agent (supplementary file). Briefly, to prepare the  
136 biochar, the palm sawdust was air-dried and then pyrolyzed at approximately 550°C in  
137 a kiln in O<sub>2</sub>-limited conditions for 2 hours.

## 138 **1.2 Sediment and biochar properties**

139 The physico-chemical properties of the biochar and air-dried sediments were  
140 characterized as follows. The pH was measured in a 1:1 suspension of solid and  
141 deionized water and shaken for 3 hours at 160 rpm. This test showed that all samples  
142 were alkaline (Table 1). The concentrations of total organic carbon (TOC) were  
143 determined with a TOC analyzer (Multi N/C 3100, Analytik Jena AG). The surface area  
144 was determined with the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) equation with multipoint

145 adsorption isotherms of N<sub>2</sub> at 77 K. Solid samples of biochar and sediment were  
146 digested with HNO<sub>3</sub>, HF, and HClO<sub>4</sub> (3 mL/2 mL/3 mL) in a Teflon bomb. The metal  
147 concentrations in the extract solution were measured by flame atomic absorption  
148 spectrometry (FAAS) or inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), and  
149 the chemical compositions were characterized by X-ray fluorescence (XRF)  
150 spectrometry (Yin and Zhu, 2016)

151 The surface physical morphology of the SBIO was analyzed using scanning  
152 electron microscopy (SEM) (Chen et al., 2016). The functional groups were recorded  
153 using Fourier transform infrared spectra (Chen et al., 2016). There was a peak at 3438  
154 cm<sup>-1</sup> that corresponded to the hydroxyl group stretching vibration. Bonds at 1615 and  
155 1440 cm<sup>-1</sup> were caused by C=O deviational vibration and symmetrical stretching, and  
156 the stronger peak at 1038 cm<sup>-1</sup> was assigned to the C-O stretching vibration (Keiluweit  
157 et al., 2010; Yuan et al., 2011) (Fig. S5). Analysis of the mineralogical composition of  
158 the related solid samples using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Yin and Zhu, 2016)  
159 indicated that the solid samples were dominated by calcite and quartz (Figure S7a).

160 Table 1

### 161 **1.3 Batch experiments to stabilize Cu and Pb with biochar**

162 The biochar was mixed with approximately 200±10 g of each of the contaminated  
163 sediment slurries, which corresponded to 104.4, 85.0, and 90.2 g of dry sediment from  
164 SR, CR, and AC, respectively, at ratios of 0%, 2.5%, 5%, and 10%. The mixtures were  
165 placed into PVC cylinders that were covered with caps that measured 8×10 cm, and  
166 homogenized using a glass stirring rod. The containers were then incubated in the dark  
167 at room temperature for 15, 30, or 60 days. The sediment-biochar microcosms for each  
168 incubation time were grouped together and each cluster was kept separate from the

169 others. The water content of each microcosm was maintained at the same level (60%)  
170 by adding deionized water. Each treatment was performed in triplicate.

## 171 **1.4 Metal stabilization evaluation**

172 The remediation ability of the biochar was assessed by various methods, namely  
173 the DGT technique, the porewater concentration, the BCR 4-step sequential extraction  
174 procedure and the TCLP. Analytical grade reagents, including HNO<sub>3</sub>, HF, HClO<sub>4</sub>,  
175 CH<sub>3</sub>COOH, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>2</sub>OH•HCl, CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub>, copper nitrate trihydrate, and lead  
176 nitrate, were used throughout.

### 177 **1.4.1 DGT and porewater analysis**

178 The DGT device used in this study was purchased directly from the manufacturer  
179 (Nanjing Weisheng Huangbao Keji Co. Ltd). The structure of this device is shown in  
180 Figure S3. After incubation, about 1/3 of the sediment slurry of each treatment was  
181 placed into a PVC box (Dimensions 2×3 cm) with a lid, and the DGT devices were  
182 carefully pressed onto the surface of the sediment slurry, and placed in an incubator at  
183 25°C for 24 h. The resin layer of DGT was then detached from the device and soaked  
184 in 1 mL of 1M HNO<sub>3</sub> to elute extracted metal by DGT for 10 h in a shaker (160 rpm)  
185 (160 rpm). The elution solution was diluted for a suitable time and stored at 4°C until  
186 analysis. The DGT extracted concentration (C<sub>DGT</sub>) can be calculated from the analysis  
187 results, as in earlier study (See supplementary file). Porewater samples were collected  
188 by centrifuging the sediment slurry at 5,000 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was  
189 filtered through a 0.45-μm membrane and stored at 4°C until analysis.



## 190 **1.4.2 Sequential extraction (BCR)**

191 The BCR method (Yin and Zhu, 2016), which involves four steps and four  
192 fractions, was used to evaluate the distribution of the metal fractions in sediments with  
193 or without biochar (Table 2). The sediment slurries were air-dried in an airing chamber  
194 and ground to pass through a 100-mesh sieve. Then 0.50 g of the dry weight solid  
195 sample was sequentially extracted by four reagents in 50-mL polyethylene centrifuge  
196 tubes. After each step, the supernatants of all the solutions were filtered with a 0.45- $\mu$ m  
197 polytetrafluoroethylene syringe filter, and the filtrates were stored at 4°C until analysis.  
198 The average recoveries of the fractions extracted (F1+F2+F3+F4) ranged from 85% to  
199 105% of the total concentrations.

200 Table 2

## 201 **1.4.3 TCLP test**

202 The leachability of Cu and Pb was estimated by the TCLP (USEPA, 1984). The  
203 TCLP reagents were prepared by diluting acetic acid until a pH of 2.88 was achieved.  
204 Then, 1.00 g of sediment (dry weight) and 20 mL of reagents were added into 50-ml  
205 polyethylene centrifuge tubes and shaken at 160 rpm for 18 h. Finally, the supernatant  
206 was filtered through a 0.45- $\mu$ m polytetrafluoroethylene syringe filter, and the filtered  
207 extracts were stored at 4°C until analysis.

## 208 **2 Results**

### 209 **2.1 Bioavailability of Cu and Pb reduced by biochar**

210 The results from the tests with different amounts of biochar and for different  
211 incubation times with the  $C_{DGT}$  and porewater concentration ( $C_p$ ) tests are shown in  
212 Figure 1. The bioavailabilities of Cu and Pb were much lower in AC than in the other  
213 sediments. For higher doses of SBIO, the  $C_{DGT}$  was considerably lower in the sediment  
214 microcosms than in the blank sample. The rates at which the bioavailabilities of Cu and  
215 Pb decreased were highest in CR with an amendment ratio of 10%; at the end of the  
216 incubation, the  $C_{DGT}$  (Cu) was below the detection limit (1 ug/l) and  $C_{DGT}$  (Pb) was  
217 almost 40% lower than in the blank.

218 The biochar had positive effects on the porewater concentration ( $C_p$ ), and  
219 reductions were more closely related to the incubation times than to the biochar doses.  
220 In the Cu stabilization test, the  $C_p$  always decreased as the stabilization time increased.  
221 However, in the Pb stabilization test, the  $C_p$  decreased when incubated for 30 days but  
222 increased when incubated for 60 days. This may reflect the high affinity of the biochar  
223 for Pb as almost all dissolved Pb was adsorbed by SBIO without enough sustainable  
224 resupply from the sediment phase, which cannot be detected by centrifugation ( $C_p$ ) but  
225 DGT extraction due to labile metals measured by DGT not only existed as a dissolved  
226 fraction but also as a solid fraction (Yin et al., 2014). In addition, the pH and ORP both  
227 decreased during the incubation period (Figure S4). Because the ability of the biochar  
228 to adsorb Pb was sensitive to changes in the pH (Figure S2), the dissolved Pb detected  
229 at 60 d may reflect the decreases in the pH, and this phenomenon can be alleviated  
230 largely by adding biochar.

231 Figure 1.

## 232 **2.2 Metal fractions in the treated and untreated sediments**

233 The distribution of the Cu and Pb fractions in the treated and untreated sediments  
234 incubated for different periods are shown in Figure 2. When treated with the biochar,  
235 the contaminated sediment was more stable than the blank treatment. The potentially  
236 available fractions of Cu (F1+F2+F3) gradually decreased as the biochar amount and  
237 incubation time increased, and the residual fraction (F4) was 61.4%, 54.7%, and 87.7%  
238 higher in the CR, SR, and AC contaminated sediments, respectively, than in the blank  
239 samples for a biochar dose of 10% and an incubation of 60 days. The acid-soluble  
240 fraction (F1) of Pb decreased, and the F1 fraction in the SR sediments treated with  
241 biochar were 64.4% largely lower than that in the blank at the end of the experiment  
242 for a 10% dose. As well as Cu, the residual fraction (F4) of Pb increased as the biochar  
243 dose and the length of the incubation period increased. In fact, the chemical reagents  
244 used in the sequential extraction to classify the metal fractions, especially the reagents  
245 for F3 (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-NH<sub>4</sub>Ac) and F4 (HNO<sub>3</sub>-HF-HClO<sub>4</sub>), were very harsh. In the real  
246 environment, such harsh conditions would not occur; both F3 and F4 would be stable  
247 in the environment and they were more sensitive to the biochar in our experiments.

248 Figure 2.

## 249 **2.3 Effect of SBIO on the leachability of Cu and Pb**

250 As shown in Figure 3, the results from the leachability tests were similar to those  
251 from the DGT and BCR tests. As the proportion of biochar in the sediment sludge  
252 increased, the stability of the metal pollutant also increased and the metal  
253 concentrations in the leachate decreased. Over a period of 60 days, the stabilization of

254 both Cu (58.6% and 27.5%) and Pb (37.1% and 17.7%) were highest and lowest in CR  
255 and AC.  
256 Figure 3.

## 257 **3 Discussion**

### 258 **3.1 Relationship between DGT and other extraction methods**

259 The DGT method has been used for several years to predict the supply of heavy  
260 metals and the bioavailability of other pollutants in soil and sediment (Zhang et al.,  
261 2001). Various studies have shown that there is a good correlation between the amount  
262 of metal taken up by plants and the metal concentration measured by DGT (Zhang et  
263 al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2001). To obtain better insights into the relationships between  
264 the extraction assessment methods used in this study, the relationships between DGT,  
265  $C_p$ , BCR, and TCLP (from Pearson correlation analysis) were compared (Tables S3–  
266 S8). The DGT results were strongly correlated with those of BCR and TCLP, but  
267 weakly correlated with the  $C_p$  results. There were significant correlations between DGT  
268 and TCLP for all treatments and different sediments at least at the  $P < 0.05$  level. The  
269 highest  $R^2$  values for Cu and Pb were 0.71 ( $P < 0.01$ ) and 0.79 ( $P < 0.01$ ), respectively, in  
270 the SR sediments.

271 The Cu and Pb that are weakly bound with carbonates through specific adsorption  
272 and covalent forces, such as Fe/Mn oxides or hydroxides or weaker stable organic  
273 matter, are labile and can be captured by DGT (Roulier et al., 2010). In the sequential  
274 extraction, the F1 and F2 fractions that were classified as easily-exchangeable and  
275 weakly-bound to organic or inorganic sites were well correlated with  $C_{DGT}$  and

276 F1+F2+F3 (Figure 4). This further indicates that the DGT measurement is not  
277 specifically confined to a single metal fraction (Ernstberger et al., 2002; Roulrier et al.,  
278 2010). The results of metal isotope tracer experiments have also shown that labile Zn  
279 was strongly correlated with the extractable fractions (Roulrier et al., 2010; Young et  
280 al., 2010), and that there was a good correlation between  $C_{DGT}$  and the labile isotopic  
281 exchange (Ernstberger et al., 2002). Therefore, a DGT device can be used to replace  
282 predictions of the bioavailability of metals from the BCR and TCLP methods.

283 Figure 4

### 284 **3.2 Possible mechanisms of stabilization induced by biochar**

285       Regardless of whether biochar, in this case SBIO, is added to sediments or not, the  
286 stability of the Cu and Pb fractions in sediments always increases. Nevertheless, when  
287 SBIO is added, the process of natural stabilization may be reinforced or the metal  
288 fractions may be redistributed, and metals may also be incorporated into the lattice of  
289 the treatment agent as the incubation time increases (Yin and Zhu, 2016). The  
290 mechanisms used by biochar to stabilize metals are complicated, and, to date, are not  
291 fully understood. In prior studies, metal adsorption by biochar has been regarded as the  
292 major driver for metal stabilization (Fang et al., 2016; Roulrier et al., 2010; Zhu et al.,  
293 2017). The main mechanisms of metal adsorption by biochar include (i) electrostatic  
294 complexation resulting from ion exchange, (ii) surface complexation with active  
295 functional groups on biochar surfaces (such as carboxyl and hydroxyl), (iii) metal  
296 transport from the outer sphere to the inner sphere, and (iv) the formation of inner-  
297 sphere complexes with metals (Fang et al., 2016; Yin and Zhu, 2016; Zhu et al., 2017).

298       The results from this study also support these mechanisms for metal adsorption by  
299 biochar. The results from the FTIR and XPS analysis (Figures S5 and S6) show that the

300 surface oxygen functional groups of SBIO changed after adsorption of Cu and Pb. Also,  
301 the SEM measurements demonstrate that the surface morphology of SBIO changed  
302 considerably after reacting with heavy metals, which indicates that surface precipitation  
303 contributes to the adsorption process. Further, a recent study reported that the crystal  
304 morphology of biochar-Cu could be transformed as the contact time increased. The  
305 XRD analysis (Figures S7) showed that the crystal signal of *Gerhardtite* and *Malachite*  
306 gradually weakened with time. Until the 30-day point, *Gerhardtite*, *Malachite*,  
307 *Paramelaconite*, and *Posnjakite* were detected, and were perhaps related to metal  
308 stabilization in sediment-metal-biochar systems. This phenomenon however has not  
309 been observed in Pb adsorption tests in this study. However, in another study, over a  
310 period of 30 days, a new compound formed on the surface of Pb-loaded biochar, but  
311 was not observed in the early stages (Fang et al., 2016). This therefore shows that time  
312 has a positive influence on the metal stability.

313 Because of the biochar, the pH was higher in all the SBIO tests than in the blank  
314 systems, and the ORP was also lower. During incubation, all treatment systems became  
315 weakly alkaline and showed stronger reducibility (Figure S4). At the end of the  
316 incubation, the pH had increased by almost one unit and the ORP was between 150 and  
317 200 mV lower in the tests with 10% biochar than in the blank. The carbonates and  
318 functional groups such as  $\text{-COO}^-$  ( $\text{-COOH}$ ) and  $\text{-O}^-$  ( $\text{-OH}$ ) contained in the biochar  
319 are mainly responsible for enhancing the pH value (Shen et al., 2016; Yuan et al., 2011).  
320 Under a higher pH, there is less competition between the  $\text{H}^+$  and heavy metal ions for  
321 ligands ( $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{S}^{2-}$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{OH}^-$ , phosphate, *etc.*), the sorption and/or precipitation  
322 is enhanced, and metal ions combine more easily with ligands into a relatively more  
323 stable form (Peng et al., 2009; Shaheen et al., 2013).

324 In this current study, the F3 and F3+F4 fractions were considerably higher in the

325 control tests than in the blank, which shows that the biochar transformed metals into  
326 stable fractions. As a sorbent treatment, biochar has a high solid organic matter (SOM)  
327 content and so the content of SOM in sediment increases when mixed with biochar  
328 (Shaheen and Rinklebe, 2015). Metals, therefore, may bind to organic matter, like  
329 humic substances, and form metal-organic complexes, which can reduce the metals'  
330 mobility (Srivastava et al., 2008). Several related studies have also shown that, under  
331 enhanced organic matter, more stable metal fractions could form (Ahmad et al., 2014;  
332 Bian et al., 2013; Ok et al., 2011).

333 However, while the results indicate that biochar may be able to stabilize metals in  
334 contaminated sediments under certain conditions as clear decreases in  $C_p$  and  $C_{DGT}$  and  
335 clear increases in F3 and F4 in this study, it is clear that biochar is not as effective as  
336 phosphate or iron-bearing materials, the removals and transformations reported in other  
337 related studies are much higher than those reported in this and other biochar-related  
338 studies (Zhang et al., 2017; Igalavithana et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2017). For example,  
339 when phosphate compounds were added to contaminated soils, the concentrations of  
340 extractable heavy metals decreased by more than 90% (Ahn et al., 2015; Sima et al.,  
341 2015), while the oxidizable and residual phases of Pb and Cu increased by between 70%  
342 and 90% when nano-zero-valent iron, an activated carbon composite, and ferrihydrite  
343 were added (Chen et al., 2016; Qian et al., 2009). The lower efficiencies in this study  
344 may be related to the inherent physico-chemical properties of both the sediments and  
345 the biochar. First, metals in sediments exist as different fractions bound to, or enveloped  
346 by, Fe or Mn oxides, hydroxides, or organic matter that account for a large amount of  
347 the total metal, and it is difficult for biochar to increase the stability of these fractions  
348 by directly participating in physico-chemical reactions; on the other hand, soluble and  
349 carbonate metals only account for a smaller fraction of sediment and can be easily

350 captured and bound by biochar. So, while the  $C_p$  and  $C_{DGT}$  results showed that the  
351 stabilization was effective, these tests could not show obviously changes in the  
352 distributions of the metal fraction. Second, when biochar is mixed with sediment slurry,  
353 the SOM and finer particulates will either be adsorbed onto the surface of the biochar  
354 or may block the pore structure, which further reduces the possibility of contact  
355 between the metal and the treatment agent (Wang et al., 2017). Meanwhile, the outer  
356 surface of biochar may undergo oxidation or aging first, followed by the interior pores,  
357 which may cause the CEC to shift and reduce element retention (Ahmad et al., 2014).  
358 Finally, the stabilization period also has an important influence on the metals' stability.  
359 In fact, regardless of whether a treatment is applied or not, metals can gradually  
360 stabilize because of natural attenuation. This natural process may be accelerated by  
361 adding biochar, but short-term incubations do not support the formation of stable  
362 compounds (Fang et al., 2016; Rajapaksha et al., 2015).

## 363 **4 Conclusion**

364 The bioavailability and mobilization of metals, rather than the total metal content,  
365 were used to predict the risks of heavy metals to the environment. The degree to which  
366 biochar was able to stabilize metals in contaminated sediments in laboratory  
367 incubations was evaluated using DGT, the porewater concentration, the BCR sequential  
368 extraction, and the TCLP. The DGT and TCLP tests showed that the bioavailability and  
369 labile fractions of the metals decreased because of the biochar. The results of the  $C_p$   
370 tests improved more when the incubation time increased than when the amount of  
371 biochar was increased. The stable F3 and F4 fractions increased as the dose of biochar  
372 increased. Adsorption, transformations in the crystal morphology, and changes in the



373 environmental conditions (e.g. pH and SOM) induced by the biochar were the main  
374 mechanisms of metal stabilization. There were good correlations between the DGT,  
375 BCR, and TCLP, but these methods were more weakly correlated with the porewater  
376 concentrations. These methods are interchangeable in field applications, but the DGT  
377 method should be considered the main approach for assessing the bioavailability  
378 because of its convenience, analysis capacity, and speed. These results represent an  
379 initial application of biochar in sediment management. The approach needs to be  
380 refined and field studies should be carried out before any real-life practical applications  
381 are attempted. We would hope that this approach using biochar will be useful for  
382 curbing the release of metals during sediment dredging and re-suspension; alternatively,  
383 biochar-treated sediments could be used in land reclamation initiatives.

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387

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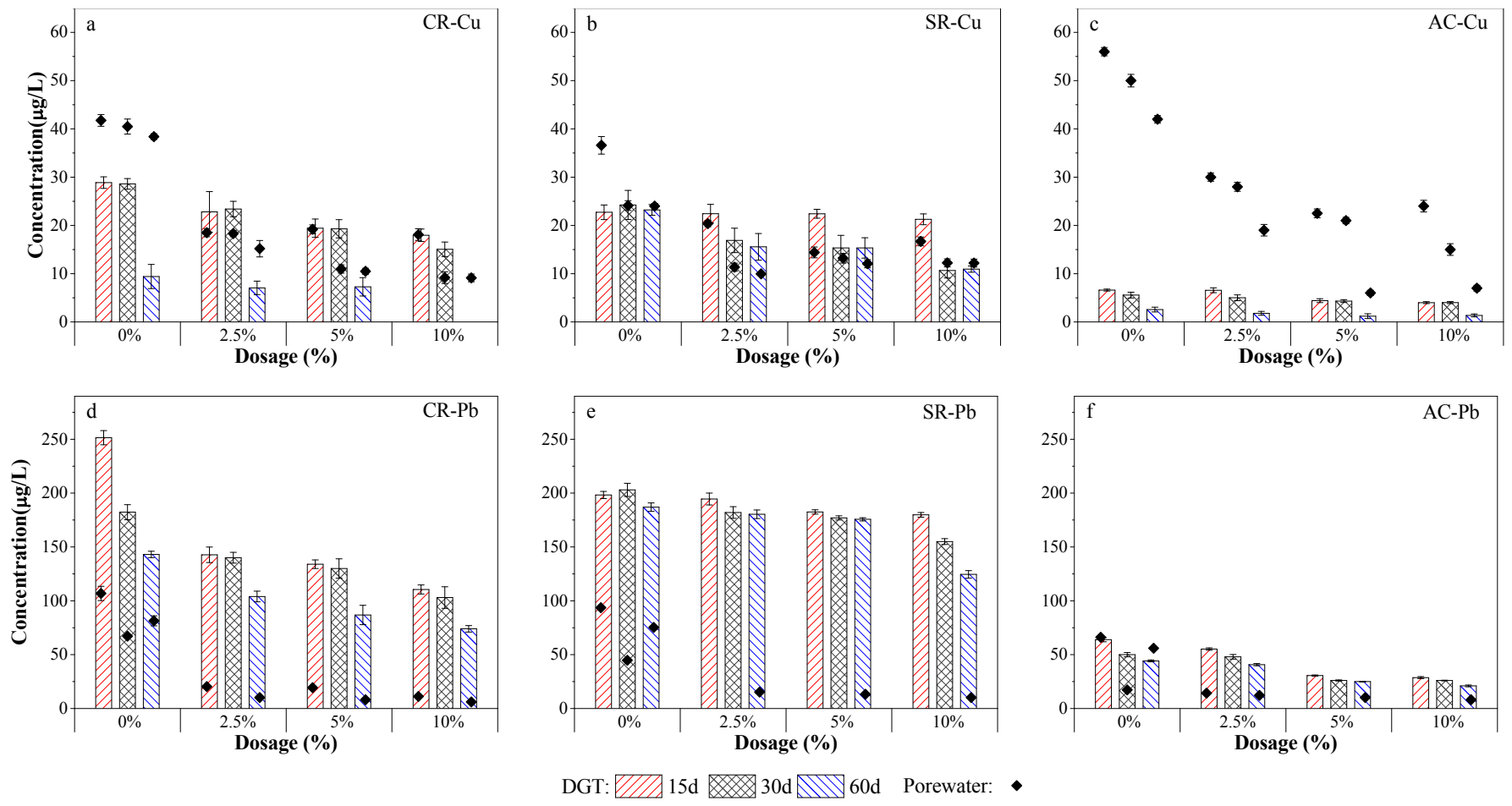
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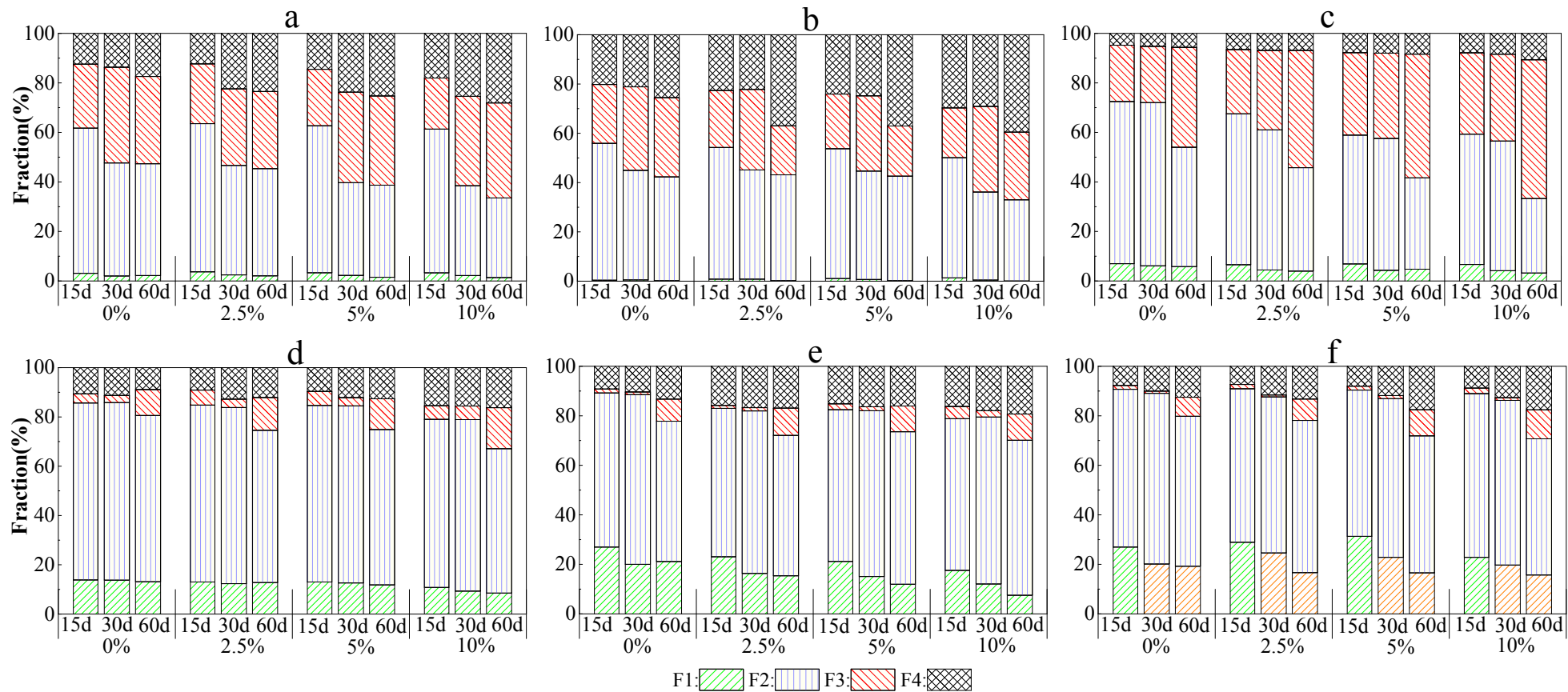
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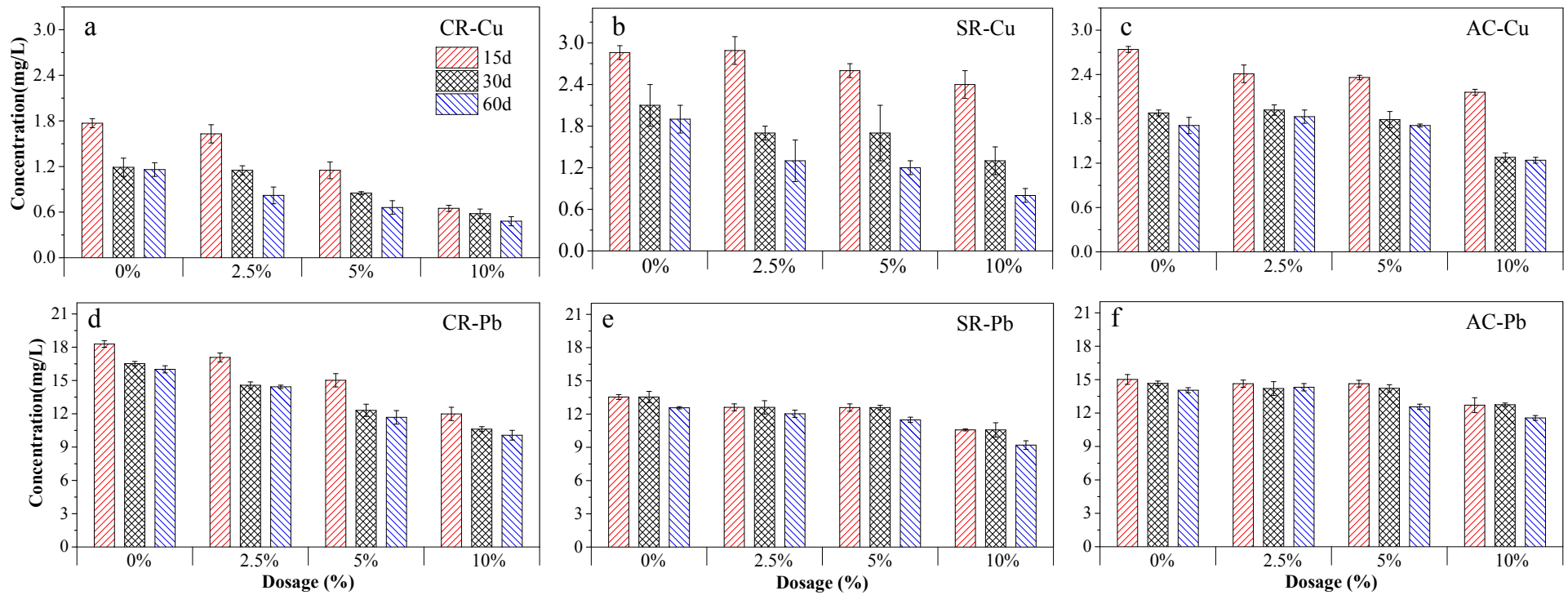
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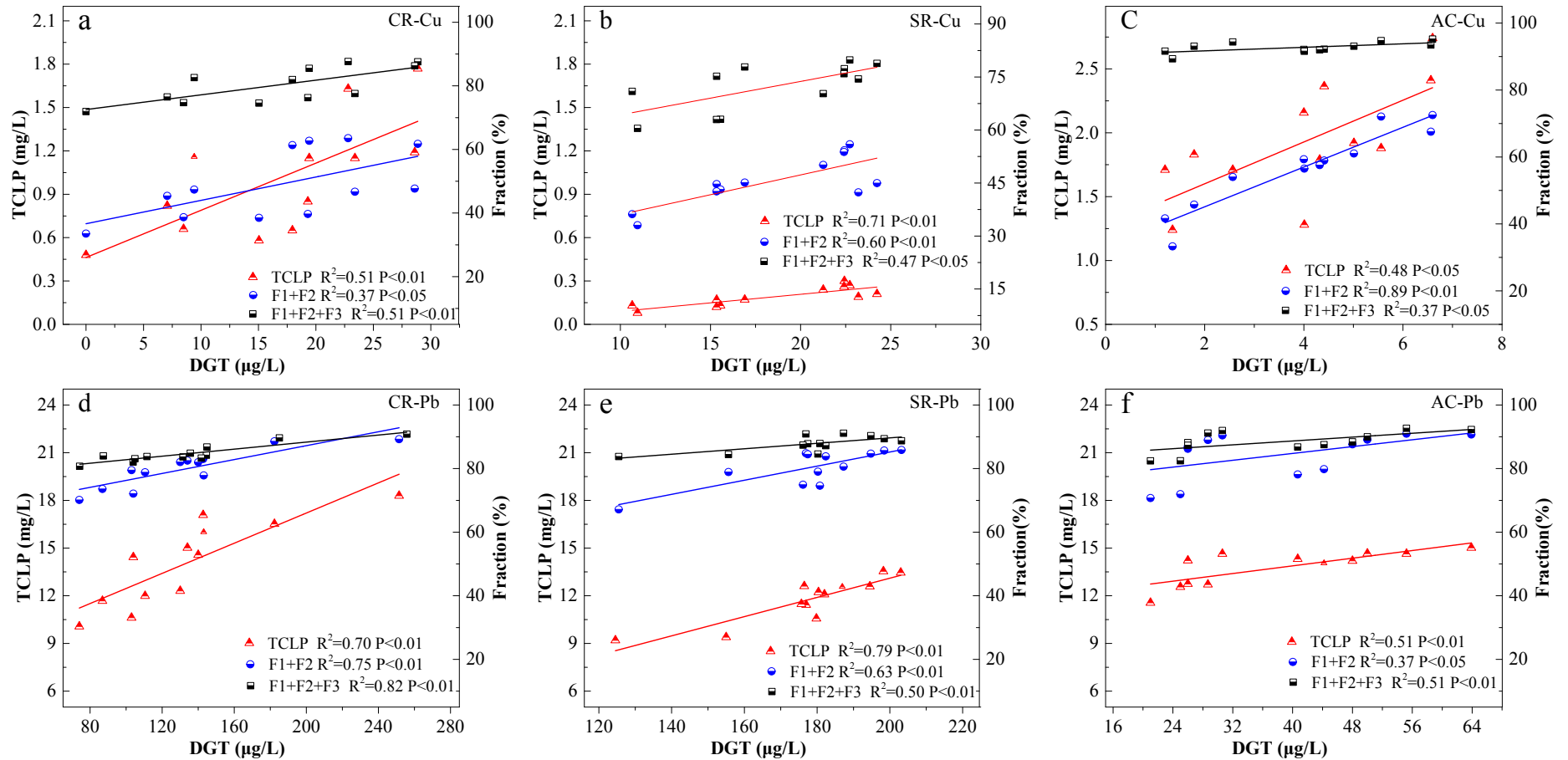
**Fig.1 DGT-labile and porewater metal concentration in different treatment sediments. The figure of a, b and c were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Cu, respectively; and d, e and f were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Pb, respectively. No marked porewater sign is indicated below the detection limit of ICP-MS.**



**Fig.2 Metal fraction in (un)treated sediment with the addition of various amounts (%) of SBIO and incubation time (day). The figure of a, b and c were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Cu, respectively; and d, e and f were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Pb, respectively.**



**Fig.3 Leaching Cu and Pb from (un)treated sediment by TCLP. The figure of a, b and c were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Cu, respectively; and d, e and f were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Pb, respectively.**



**Fig.4 Correlation between DGT concentration and TCLP/ BCR. The figure of a, b and c were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Cu, respectively; and d, e and f were CR, SR and AC contaminated by Pb, respectively.**



**Table 1. Characterization of sediments and SBIO samples**

Materials	SR	CR	AC	SBIO
pH	7.2	7.28	7.14	11.7
TOC (g/kg)	39.1	43.08	18.34	275.75
Water content (%)	52.2	42.5	45.1	-
BET (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	-	-	-	90.4
<sup>1</sup> K (mg/kg)	20445	19943	21134	41700
<sup>1</sup> Ca (mg/kg)	58279	104274	22974	132576
<sup>1</sup> Mg (mg/kg)	13793	19322	11684	11906
<sup>1</sup> Na (mg/kg)	13175	6650	17772	3563
*Cu (mg/kg)	35.3	43.9	30.6	55.3
*Pb (mg/kg)	30.8	40.9	25.3	40.2
Zn (mg/kg)	77.5	105.3	56.2	170.3
Cu spiked (mg/kg)	635.3	643.9	630.6	-
Pb spiked (mg/kg)	730.8	740.9	725.3	-
<sup>2</sup> SiO <sub>2</sub> (%)	51.22	54.85	63.27	53.35
<sup>2</sup> CaO (%)	12.69	14.05	5.01	21.48
<sup>2</sup> Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (%)	18.194	15.16	16.06	4.12
<sup>2</sup> K <sub>2</sub> O (%)	2.63	2.35	2.68	6.19
<sup>2</sup> Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (%)	7.89	5.31	5.07	2.34
<sup>2</sup> MgO (%)	4.11	4.92	3.28	2.64
<sup>2</sup> MnO (%)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.93

<sup>1</sup>: the result from ICP-MS

<sup>2</sup>: the result from XRF

\*: the original concentration without Cu(II) or Pb(II) spiking

**Table 2. Extraction conditions used for the fractionation process of BCR**

Step	Fraction	Reagents/conditions
1	F1, acid-soluble fractions	20 mL of 0.11M HAc, shaken for 16 h
2	F2, reducible fractions	20 mL of 0.5M (pH 2) NH <sub>2</sub> OH•HCl, shaken for 16 h
3	F3, oxidizable fractions	5 mL of 8.8M H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> , placed in a water bath at 85°C for 1 h; an additional 5 mL of 8.8M H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> , placed in a water bath at 85°C until the solution was evaporated to a few millilitres; 25 mL of 1M (pH 2) NH <sub>4</sub> Ac, shaken for 16 h
4	F4, reducible fractions	And dry residuals were digested as solid sample for metal content analysis

\*all shaking was conducted at a temperature of 25°C and centrifuged at 160 rpm.

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# Supplementary materials

## 1. Metal adsorption kinetics and isotherm by biochar

### 1.1 Adsorption and fitting method

Adsorption kinetics and isotherm characteristics of Cu and Pb by SBIO were studied through a batch of experiments. In the study of adsorption kinetics, SBIO passed through a 100 mesh sieve was mixed with a 1000-mg/L stock solution in 50-mL polyethylene centrifuge tubes. The tubes were placed on a reciprocating shaker and the sorption results were analyzed at time intervals ranging from 0.5 to 60 hours. In the study of adsorption isotherm, powdered SBIO (100 mesh) was added to metal solutions of various concentrations (100~1000 mg/L) with shaking at 15, 25, and 35°C. At the end of each sorption, the solution was centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 15 min and the supernatant was filtered through a 0.45- $\mu$ m membrane, 2mol/L nitric acid, and stored at 4°C until analysis. All sorption experiments were conducted at a solid/liquid ratio of 4:1 for Cu and 1:2 for Pb under free pH conditions, with shaking at 160 rpm and were performed in triplicate.

In this study, the adsorption kinetics data at were fit using the Pseudo-first-order (Eq. 1) and the Pseudo-second-order (Eq. 2) models, and the adsorption isotherm data were analyzed using the Langmuir (Eq. 3) and Freundlich (E. 4) models.

$$\log(q_e - q_t) = \log q_e - \frac{k_1}{2.303} \cdot t \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

$$Q_e = \frac{K_L Q_{max} C_e}{1 + K_L C_e} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

$$Q_e = K_f C_e^m \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

where  $q_t$  and  $q_e$  (mg/g) are sorbate removed at time  $t$  and at equilibrium, respectively,  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  ( $h^{-1}$ ) are the sorption rate constants of the first-order and second-order, respectively,  $K_L$  (L/mg) and  $K_F$  ( $mg^{(1-n)}L^n g^{-1}$ ) are the Langmuir

equilibrium adsorption constant related to the affinity of binding sites and the roughly Freundlich affinity coefficient, respectively,  $Q_{max}$  (mg/g) is the maximum capacity of sorbent,  $C_e$  (mg/L) is the equilibrium concentration of the sorbate,  $m$  is the Freundlich linearity constant, and  $Q_e$  is the adsorbed capacity (mg/g).

Moreover, the shifted Langmuir (Eq.5) and Freundlich (Eq.6) mode were employed to describe multi-layer adsorption:

$$Q_e^n = Q_{max}^{n-1} + \frac{K_L^n Q_{max}^n (C_e - C_s)}{1 + K_L^n (C_e - C_s)} \quad \text{Eq.5}$$

$$Q_e^n = Q_{max}^{n-1} + K_f^n C_e^m \quad \text{Eq.6}$$

where  $n$  is the layer of sorbate, and the other parameters are defined as previously described. So the maximum capacity in multi-layer adsorption is the sum of  $Q_{max}$  from layer 1 to layer  $n$ .

## 1.1 Adsorption kinetic analysis

The adsorption behaviour of Cu(II) and Pb(II) onto SBIO were examined at 1000 mg/L of Pb and Cu solution to investigate the equilibrium process, respectively. As presented in Fig. 1S, the sorption process of Pb and Cu were similar, most Cu or Pb sorption by SBIO taking place at the initial process (<12h) and then slowly reached equilibrium within 20 h. The maximum sorption capacity of Pb and Cu were approximately 665 and 55 mg/g, and the sorption ability for Pb was greatly higher than Cu by over 10 times.

**Table S1 Best-fit model parameters of lead adsorption on SBIO**

	Model	First-order	Second-order	Langmuir	Freundlich
Pb	Parameter 1	$k_1=1.23$	$k_2=0.0032$	$K_L = 273.4$	$K_f = 421.1$
	Parameter 2	$q_e=663.8$	$q_e=683.7$	$Q_{max} = 635.7$	$m=0.07$
	$R^2$	0.88	0.94	0.94	0.91
Cu	Parameter 1	$k_1=0.14$	$k_2=0.0024$	$K_L^1 = 1.94$ $K_L^2 = 0.011$	$K_f^1 = 10.59$ $K_f^2 = 1.29$
	Parameter 2	$q_e=57.57$	$q_e=67.61$	$Q_{max}^1 = 19.1$ $Q_{max}^2 = 33.7$	$m^1=0.504$ $m^2=0.104$
	$R^2$	0.98	0.97	0.99*/0.98**	0.92*/0.92**

\*: first layer, \*\*: second layer

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Through fitting with the *Pseudo-first-order* and *Pseudo-second-order* model, the effect of reaction time on adsorption metals onto SBIO and related parameters were analyzed and are presented in Fig. 1S and Table S1. These sorption results demonstrated that SBIO provides adsorption sites with both Pb and Cu. Surface complexation with active functional groups of the biochar contributed more to metal bonding, as shown in Fig. S4-S8. Due to increasing pH introduced by SBIO, the biochar surface potentials could become more negative and the surface functional groups (e.g.  $-\text{COOH}$ ,  $-\text{OH}$  and phenolic hydroxyl) further dissociated which promoted the metal sorption process as well as adsorption capability (Tong et al., 2011a; Uchimiya et al., 2011). Besides, co-precipitation, surface/innersphere complexation and physical adsorption also play a critical role in the metal sorption process (Zhang et al., 2013). Otherwise, the model fitting result indicates that the correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) between *Pseudo-first-order* and *Pseudo-second-order* were hardly different, but the calculated value of  $q_e$  by the *Pseudo-first-order* was closer to the real value, which indicated that diffusion/ion exchange was the limiting step to adsorption rather than chemisorption (Yin and Zhu, 2016).

## 1.2 Adsorption isotherm analysis

The maximum adsorption capacity of Cu and Pb onto SBIO was estimated using *Langmuir* and *Freundlich* isotherm models, which present the surface properties and affinity of SBIO and describe the relationship between adsorption capacity and equilibrium concentration at given temperatures as shown in Fig. 1S. According to the shape of the adsorption isotherms within given concentrations, the adsorption can be classified as single-layer adsorption for Pb and multi-layer adsorption for Cu, respectively. The multi-layer adsorption seemed to be caused by adsorption hysteresis at larger pores and disappearance of this phenomenon was attributed to an increased chemical potential of the pore walls (Wang and Hwang, 2000). Besides, cooperative adsorption also contributed to this process, for which it was assumed that a shift in concentration was necessary for special adsorption to readily occur (Grant et al., 1998). So both the *shifted Langmuir* and *shifted Freundlich* isotherm were employed to

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characterize the adsorption process of Cu onto SBIO at both the first and second layers. Table S1 lists the parameters of the *Langmuir* and *Freundlich* model and their correlation coefficients. The results demonstrate that the *Langmuir* model is suitable to explain the sorption behaviour of Cu and Pb onto SBIO, and the adsorption capacity ( $Q_{\max}$ , Langmuir model) for Pb (635.7 mg/g) is much higher than for Cu (52.8 mg/g) at a given temperature.

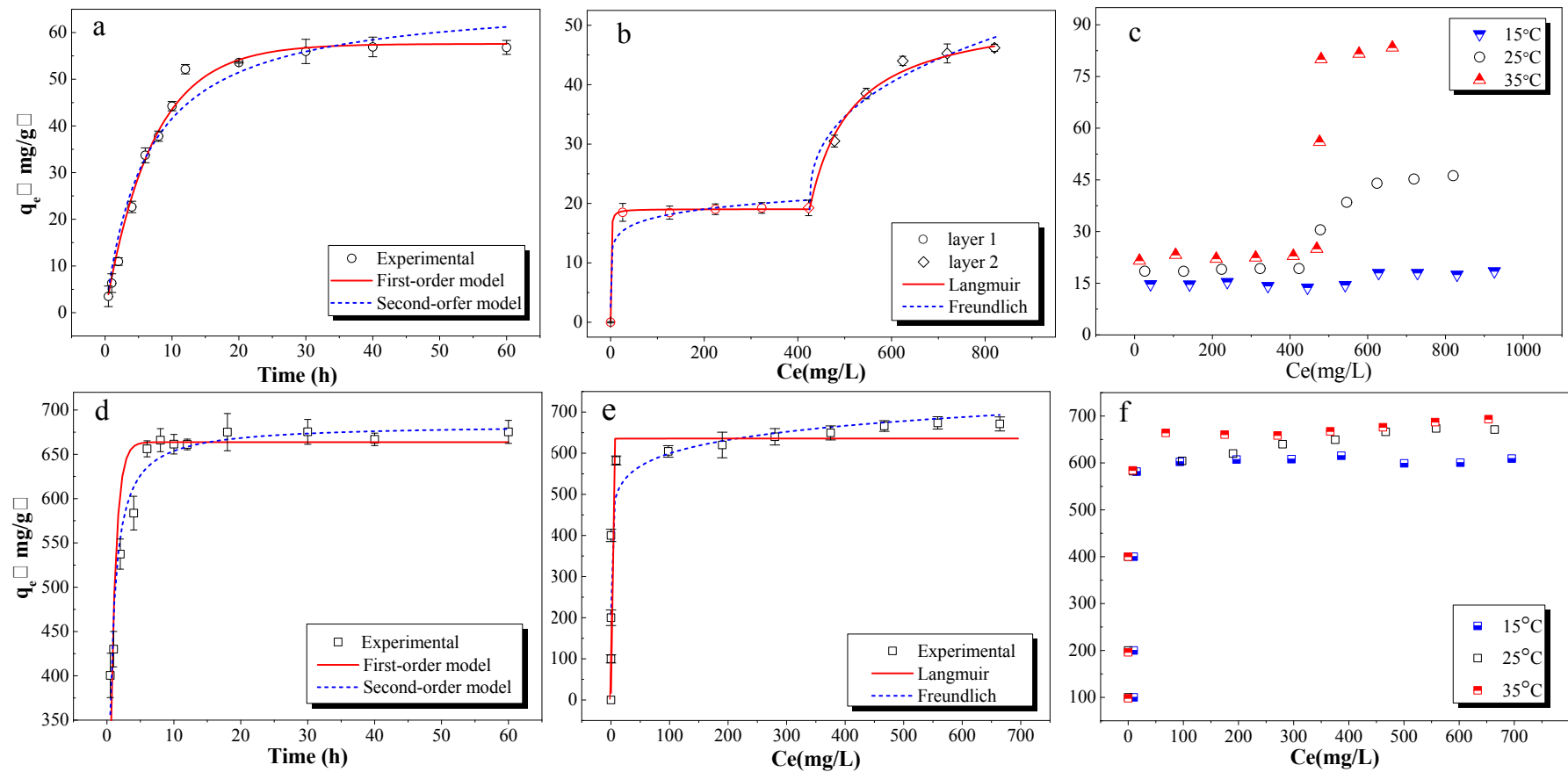
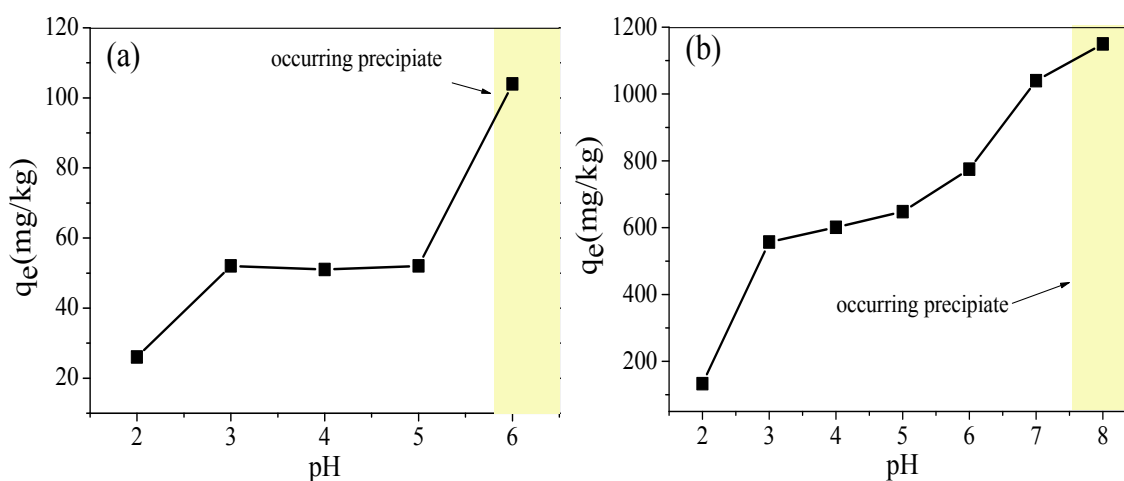


Fig.S1 Kinetic model for Cu (a) and Pb (d) adsorption; adsorption isotherms at room temperature for Cu (b) and Pb (e); adsorption isotherms at different temperatures for Cu (c) and Pb (f)

**Table S2 Summary of the literature data on sorption of Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup> to different biochar**

Biochar	Pb <sup>2+</sup> Qmax (mg/g)	Cu <sup>2+</sup> Qmax (mg/g)	Ref.
Sludge	31		(Zhang et al., 2013)
Shell	45		(Elaigwu et al., 2014)
Cow manure	230		(Kołodzyńska et al., 2012)
Dairy manure	140		(Cao et al., 2009)
Sugar cane	87		(Abdelhafez and Li, 2016)
Orange peel	28		(Abdelhafez and Li, 2016)
Pinewood	4		(Liu and Zhang, 2009)
Begass	135		(Inyang et al., 2011)
Peanut shells	350		(Guocheng, 2014)
Rtraditional Chinese medicine waste	400		(Guocheng, 2014)
Peanut straw		50	(Tong et al., 2011b)
Soybean straw		33	(Tong et al., 2011b)
Seed		27	(Mahdi et al., 2018)
Spartina alterniflora		48	(Li et al., 2013)
Cow manure		54	(Xu et al., 2013)
Pinewood		4	(Liu et al., 2010)
Pinewood		3	(Liu et al., 2010)
Raw farmyard manure		39	(Batool et al., 2017)
poultry manure		43	(Batool et al., 2017)
Sawdust	655	55	In this study

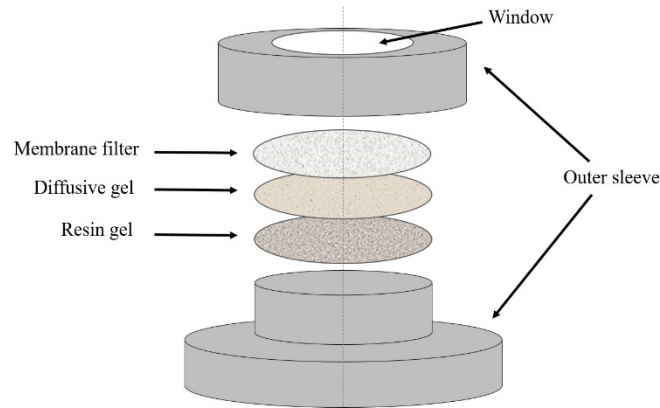


**Fig.S2 The effect of pH on SBIO adsorption capability for Cu (a) and Pb (b)**



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## 2 The DGT device



**Fig.S3 The structure of the DGT device**

The  $C_{DGT}$  can be measured from the following equation:

$$M = C_e * (V_{acid} + V_{gel}) / f_e \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

where  $M$  is the mass of metal adsorbed by resin gel,  $C_e$  is metal concentration in 1M  $HNO_3$ ,  $V_{acid}$  is the  $HNO_3$  volume used to elute metals bound by resin gel,  $V_{gel}$  is the resin gel volume, and  $f_e$  is the elute efficiency.

$$C_{DGT} = M \Delta g / (DtA) \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

where  $\Delta g$  is the thickness of diffusive gel (cm),  $D$  the diffusion coefficient of the metal ion in the diffusive gel ( $cm^2/s$ ),  $t$  is the contact time between the DGT device and sediment (s), and  $A$  is the area of window ( $cm^2$ ).

### 3 The figure of supporting information

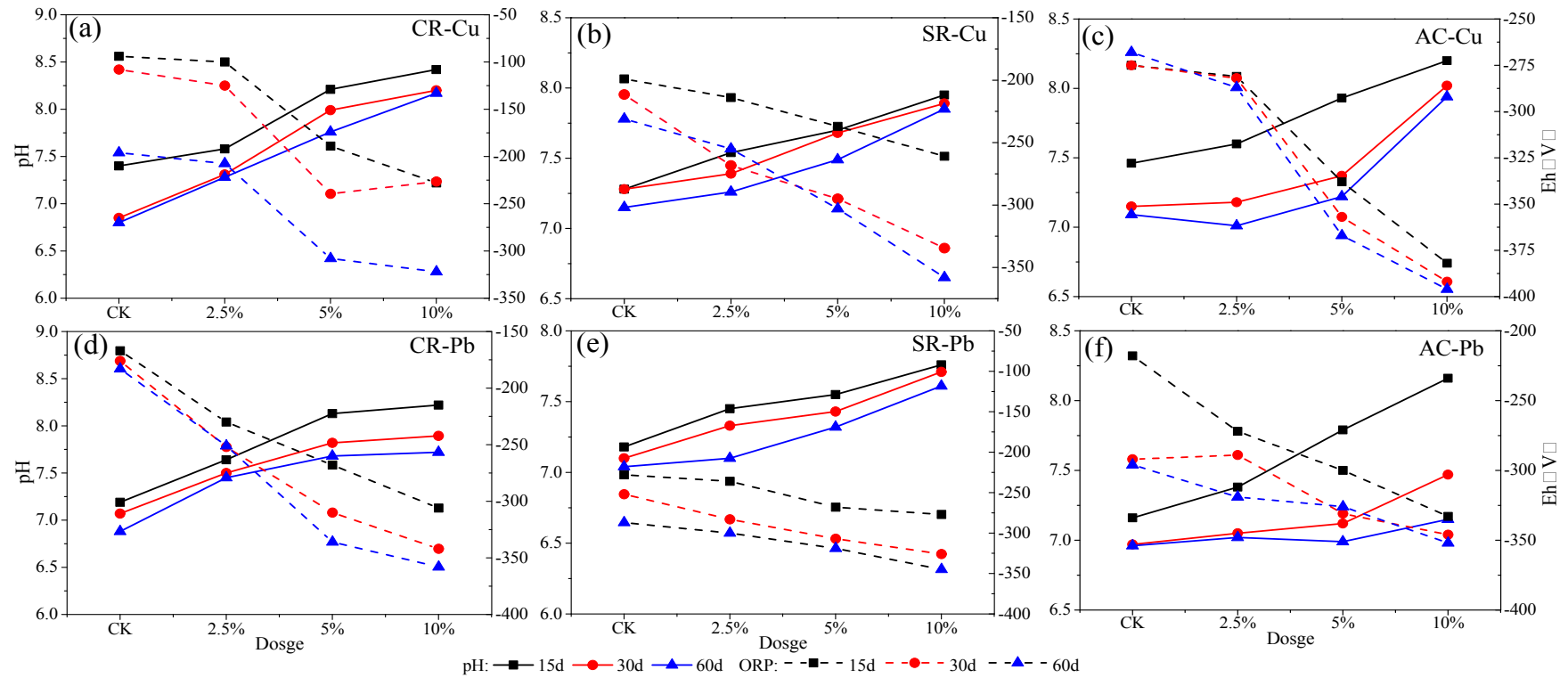


Fig.S4 The change trend of sediment pH and ORP during 60 days of incubation. The figure of a, b and c were SR, CR and AC contaminated by Cu, respectively; and d, e and f were SR, CR and AC contaminated by Pb, respectively.

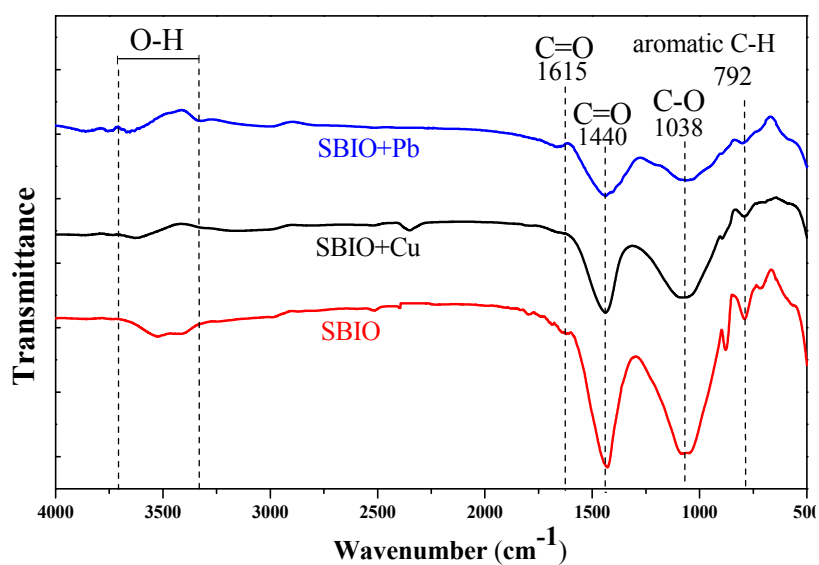
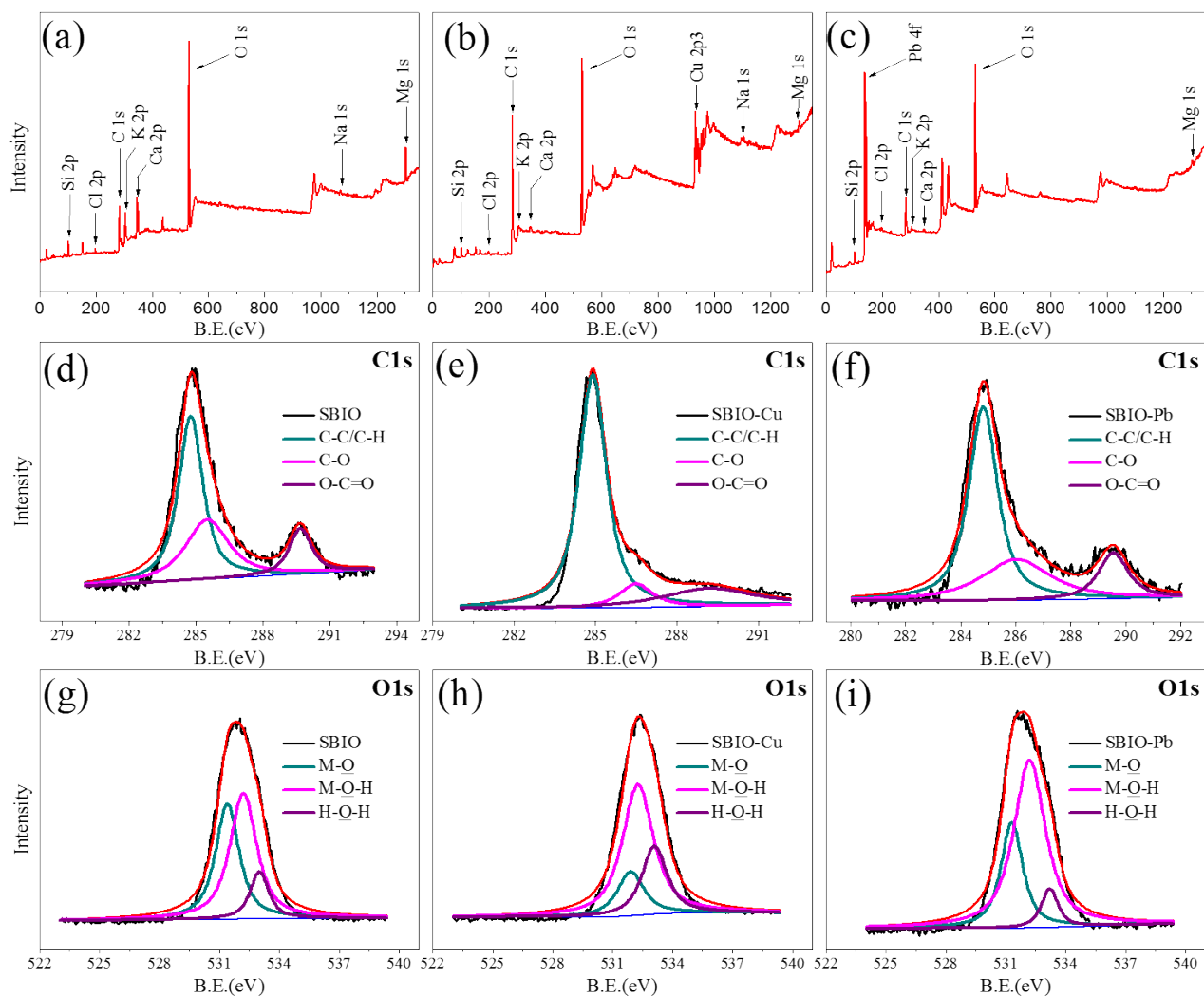


Fig.S5 FTIR spectra of SBIO after adsorption of Cu and Pb

As shown in Fig.S5, obvious signals of -OH, ester C=O, carboxyl C, C-O and aromatic C-H were obtained, and these groups were the major functional groups of SBIO. After reaction with Cu and Pb respectively, the peak for all of these functional groups were obviously either weakened or deviated, especially for C=O, C-O and C-H.



**Fig.S6 XPS spectra of wide scan for SBIO (a), SBIO loaded Cu (b) and Pb (c), C 1s and O 1s before adsorption (d and g) and after adsorption Cu (e and h) and Pb (f and i) onto SBIO**

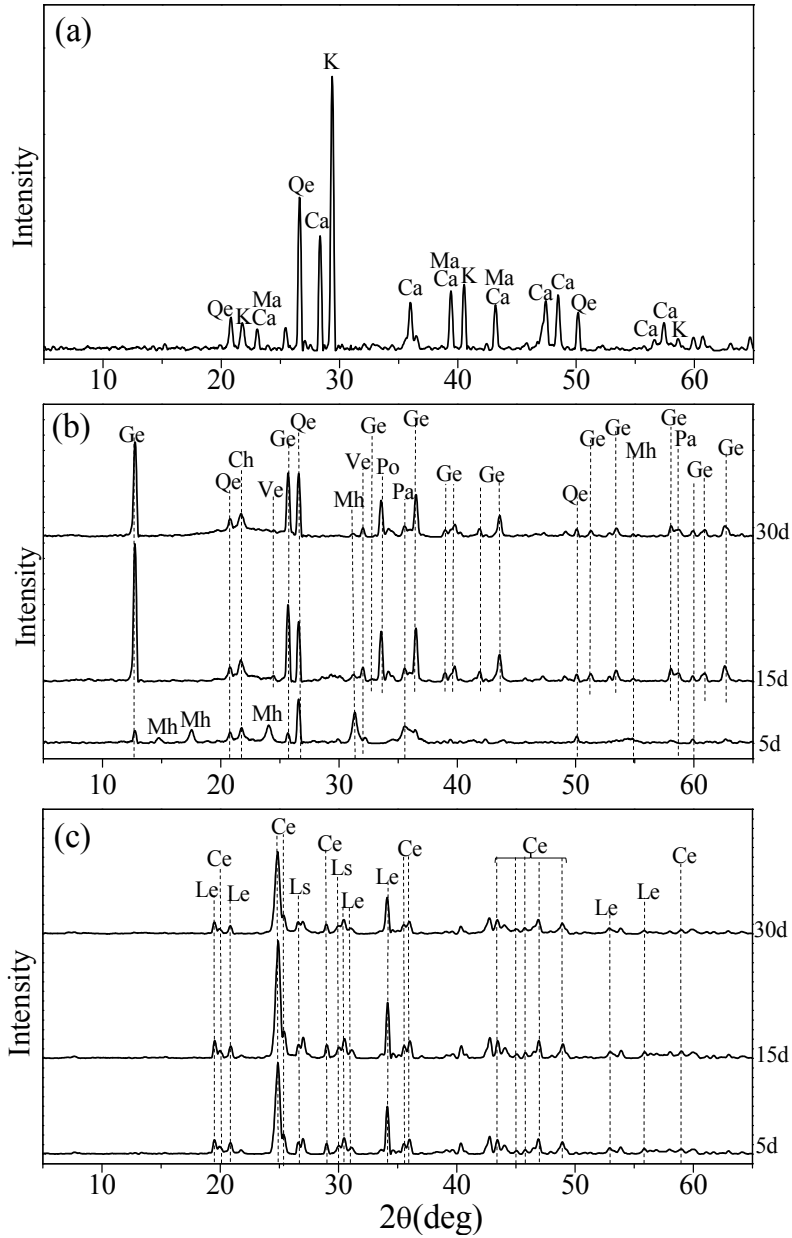


Fig.S7 X-ray diffraction spectrum of SBIO before (a) and after adsorption Cu (b) and Pb (C) during different react times

Ca:  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ; Qe:  $\text{SiO}_2$ ; Ma:  $\text{MgCa}(\text{CO}_3)_2$ ; K: KCl; Fc:  $\text{CuFeO}_2$ , Pc:  $\text{Cu}_5\text{O}_2(\text{PO}_4)_2$ , Mh: Malachite, Ge: *Gerhardtite*, Pa: *Paramelaconite*, Po: *Posnjakite*, Ve: *Veszelyite*, Ch: *Chalcophanite*, Ce: *Cerussite*, Le: *Leadhillite*, Ls:  $\text{Pb}_2\text{SO}_5$

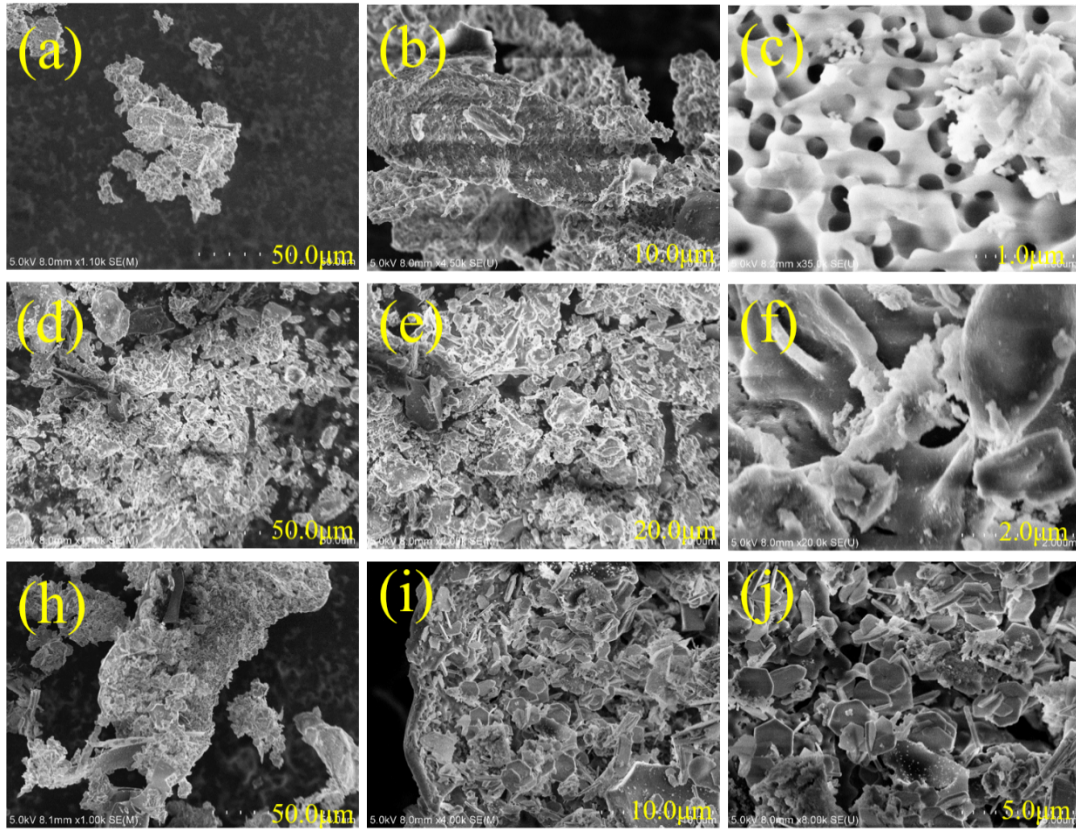


Fig.S8 SEM image of surface SBIO (a-c), SBIO loaded Cu (d-f) and SBIO loaded Pb at different resolutions, respectively

## 4. The relevance and variability between evaluation methods

Table S3 Correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) between DGT and other extraction methods for Cu at CR

	$C_{DGT}$	$C_p$	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
$C_{DGT}$	1.000								
$C_p$	0.29	1.000							
TCLP	0.51**	0.48*	1.000						
F1	0.37*	0.05	0.387*	1.000					
F2	0.37*	0.21	0.491*	0.86**	1.000**				
F3	0.14	0.08	0.182	0.82**	0.81**	1.000			
F1+F2	0.37*	0.19	0.488*	0.88**	0.99**	0.82**	1.000		
F2+F3	0.52**	0.62**	0.71**	0.47**	0.69**	0.26	0.69**	1.000	
F1+F2+F3	0.54**	0.55**	0.72**	0.56**	0.77**	0.34*	0.76**	0.99**	1.000

\*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$

**Table S4 Correlation coefficient (R2) between DGT and other extraction methods for Cu at SR**

	CDGT	CP	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
CDGT	1.00								
CP	0.48*	1.00							
TCLP	0.71**	0.38*	1.00						
F1	0.16	0.02	0.41*	1.00					
F2	0.61**	0.31	0.85**	0.32	1.00				
F3	0.02	0.002	0.06	0.03	0.22	1.00			
F1+F2	0.60**	0.29	0.86**	0.36*	1.00**	0.21	1.00		
F2+F3	0.46*	0.38*	0.56**	0.18	0.39*	0.16	0.40*	1.00	
F1+F2+F3	0.47*	0.36*	0.58**	0.23	0.41*	0.14	0.42*	0.99**	1.00

\*: P&lt;0.05; \*\*: P&lt;0.01

**Table S5 Correlation coefficient (R2) between DGT and other extraction methods for Cu at AC**

	C <sub>DGT</sub>	C <sub>P</sub>	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
C <sub>DGT</sub>	1.00								
C <sub>P</sub>	0.47*	1.00							
TCLP	0.48*	0.35*	1.00						
F1	0.42*	0.42*	0.71**	1.00					
F2	0.90**	0.64**	0.42*	0.46*	1.00				
F3	0.92**	0.58**	0.46*	0.52**	0.99**	1.00			
F1+F2	0.89**	0.66**	0.48*	0.54**	0.99**	0.99**	1.00		
F2+F3	0.01	0.22	0.01	0.05	0.08	0.03	0.05	1.00	
F1+F2+F3	0.37*	0.83**	0.39*	0.40*	0.60**	0.52**	0.61**	0.37*	1.00

\*: P&lt;0.05; \*\*: P&lt;0.01

**Table S6 Correlation coefficient (R2) between DGT and other extraction methods for Pb at CR**

	C <sub>DGT</sub>	C <sub>P</sub>	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
C <sub>DGT</sub>	1.00								
C <sub>P</sub>	0.58**	1.00							
TCLP	0.70**	0.45*	1.00						
F1	0.73**	0.38*	0.85**	1.00					
F2	0.02	0.042	0.06	0.05	1.00				
F3	0.36*	0.00	0.17	0.28	0.38*	1.00			
F1+F2	0.75**	0.18	0.47*	0.59**	0.21	0.79**	1.00		
F2+F3	0.30	0.05	0.56**	0.75**	0.14	0.25	0.29	1.00	
F1+F2+F3	0.82**	0.77**	0.64**	0.64**	0.01	0.14	0.58**	0.15	1.00

\*: P&lt;0.05; \*\*: P&lt;0.01

**Table S7 Correlation coefficient (R2) between DGT and other extraction methods for Pb at SR**

	C <sub>DGT</sub>	C <sub>P</sub>	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F1+F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
C <sub>DGT</sub>	1.00								
C <sub>P</sub>	0.04	1.00							
TCLP	0.79**	0.11	1.00						
F1	0.83**	0.09	0.95**	1.00					
F2	0.43*	0.05	0.27*	0.32	1.00				
F3	0.38*	0.12	0.17	0.21	0.92**	1.00			
F1+F2	0.63**	0.01	0.50*	0.56**	0.94**	0.82**	1.00		
F2+F3	0.03	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.03	0.01	0.07	1.00	
F1+F2+F3	0.50**	0.17	0.75**	0.76**	0.23	0.07	0.41*	0.61**	1.00

\*: P<0.05; \*\*: P<0.01

**Table S8 Correlation coefficient (R2) between DGT and other extraction methods for Pb at AC**

	C <sub>DGT</sub>	C <sub>P</sub>	TCLP	F1	F2	F3	F1+F2	F2+F3	F1+F2+F3
C <sub>DGT</sub>	1.00								
C <sub>P</sub>	0.16	1.00							
TCLP	0.59**	0.03	1.00						
F1	0.19	0.03	0.40*	1.00					
F2	0.13	0.03	0.17	0.05	1.00				
F3	0.15	0.13	0.33	0.53**	0.62**	1.00			
F1+F2	0.26	0.05	0.46*	0.68**	0.54**	0.92**	1.00		
F2+F3	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.58**	0.12	0.10	0.11	1.00	
F1+F2+F3	0.37*	0.01	0.53**	0.73**	0.36*	0.66**	0.89**	0.10	1.00

\*: P<0.05; \*\*: P<0.01



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