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Degradation of carbon disulphide (CS₂) in soils and

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groundwater from a CS₂ contaminated site

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ABSTRACT

25

This study is the first investigation of biodegradation of carbon disulphide (CS₂) in soil that provides estimates

26

of degradation rates and identifies intermediate degradation products and carbon isotope signatures of

27

degradation. Microcosm studies were undertaken under anaerobic conditions using soil and groundwater

28

recovered from CS₂ contaminated sites. Proposed degradation mechanisms were validated using equilibrium

29

speciation modelling of concentrations and carbon isotope ratios. A first order degradation rate constant of

30

$1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ was obtained for biological degradation with soil. Carbonyl sulphide (COS) and hydrogen

31

sulphide (H₂S) were found to be intermediates of degradation, but did not accumulate in vials. A ¹³C/¹²C

32

enrichment factor of $-7.5 \pm 0.8\%$ was obtained for degradation within microcosms with both soil and

33

groundwater whereas a ¹³C/¹²C enrichment factor of $-23.0 \pm 2.1\%$ was obtained for degradation with site

34 groundwater alone. It can be concluded that biological degradation of both CS₂ contaminated soil and
35 groundwater is likely to occur in the field suggesting that natural attenuation may be an appropriate remedial
36 tool at some sites. The presence of biodegradation by-products including COS and H₂S indicates that
37 biodegradation of CS₂ is occurring and stable carbon isotopes are a promising tool to quantify CS₂ degradation.

38

39 **KEY WORDS**

40 *Carbon disulphide, carbon disulfide, biodegradation, microcosms, natural attenuation, stable*
41 *carbon isotopes*

42

43 INTRODUCTION

44 Carbon disulphide (CS₂) is a toxic, dense non-aqueous phase liquid (DNAPL) that is both
45 highly volatile and highly flammable (Kalin et al., 2005). It is present in the environment due
46 to anaerobic activity in sediments (Moret et al., 2000 and Lovelock, 1974), metabolism of
47 naturally occurring sulphur compounds by soil bacteria and vegetation (Crookes et al., 1993),
48 volcanic eruptions (Rasmussen et al., 1982), and the in-situ burning of hydrocarbon
49 contaminated salt marsh (Devai et al., 1998). However, anthropogenic sources provide the
50 primary source of CS₂ in the environment (Watts, 2000). Due to its high volatility and that it
51 can ignite or explode when exposed to air (Kalin et al., 2005) remediation of CS₂
52 contaminated sites is difficult and hazardous. Therefore, the development of a remediation
53 approach that removes CS₂ contamination from soil and groundwater without exposure to air
54 is desirable.

55

56 Carbon disulphide has been produced commercially since 1880, and was used historically in
57 a variety of industries including the viscose process (Beauchamp Jr. et al., 1983). In 1973
58 approximately 65 million kilograms of CS₂ were released to the air in the US, whilst 35
59 million kilograms reached water and land (SRI, 1975 cited in Peyton et al., 1976). Although
60 demand for CS₂ has declined in recent years, it is predicted that the expanding viscose
61 industries in Asia will increase CS₂ demand by approximately 4.7% in the period 2007 to
62 2012 (Rojo et al., 2010). Carbon disulphide is also an intermediate formed during the
63 degradation of carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) in granular sludge (van Eekert et al., 1998), and in
64 a sandy aquifer under sulphate-reducing conditions (Devlin and Müller, 1999). Davis et al.
65 (2003) reported CS₂ concentrations of up to 160 mg L⁻¹ on a CCl₄ contaminated site under
66 highly reducing conditions due to abiotic degradation of CCl₄. Given the above, it is

67 unsurprising that sites contaminated with CS₂ have been identified worldwide. In 2006, of
68 the 1244 sites listed on the USEPA's National Priorities List (NPL), 139 sites had recorded
69 CS₂ as a contaminant of concern (USEPA, 2006). This is a similar figure to the number of
70 sites that have recorded the presence of other chlorinated solvents, such as CCl₄ (USEPA,
71 2006).

72

73 A number of abiotic techniques for the in-situ remediation of CS₂ using zero-valent iron for
74 groundwater (Kalin et al. 2005) and chemical oxidation for soil (Dulsey et al. 2001 and Ross
75 et al. 2008) are available. However, to the authors' knowledge no investigations into natural
76 attenuation of CS₂, for contaminated land cleanup have been carried out. In order to
77 demonstrate natural attenuation at a contaminated site, Monitored Natural Attenuation
78 (MNA) protocols recommend a detailed site characterisation and assessment employing a
79 'lines of evidence approach' (Morgan and Sinke, 2005). Primary evidence includes the
80 demonstration that the contaminant plume is stable, shrinking or exhausted using historical
81 contaminant concentrations. However, these data alone will not indicate whether a
82 destructive attenuation mechanism is responsible for the decrease in concentrations (Carey et
83 al., 2000). Geochemical and chemical data are often used as a secondary line of evidence to
84 demonstrate whether a destructive process is causing attenuation. Secondary data includes
85 the characterisation of known intermediates and products of biodegradation and compound
86 specific isotope analysis (van Ras et al., 2007).

87

88 The degradation of CS₂ by microorganisms has been studied by a number of authors to
89 investigate the potential for their use in waste gas treatment plants for manufacturing
90 processes such as the viscose rayon process (Rothschild et al., 1969; Rajagopal and Daniels,
91 1986; Ottengraf et al., 1986; Smith, 1988; Smith and Kelly, 1988; Kelly and Baker, 1990;

92 Kelly and Smith, 1990; Plas et al., 1993; Odintsova et al., 1993; Jordan et al., 1995; Jordan,
93 1996; Jordan et al., 1997; Alcantara et al., 1999; Hartikainen et al., 2000; Sorokin et al., 2001;
94 Pol et al., 2007). During the aerobic and anaerobic degradation of CS₂, carbonyl sulphate
95 (COS) and hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) are both formed as intermediates (Smith and Kelly,
96 1988; Jordan et al., 1997; Alcantara et al., 1999; Hartikainen et al., 2000; Sorokin et al., 2001;
97 Pol et al., 2007). However, under anaerobic conditions COS is reported to accumulate to a
98 greater extent, prior to being degraded (Smith and Kelly, 1988 and Pol et al., 1997). Smith
99 and Kelly (1988) proposed that all the carbon in CS₂ is converted first to COS and then to
100 CO₂ during both aerobic and anaerobic degradation (Equations 1 and 2).



103 Under aerobic conditions subsequent oxidation of H₂S to elemental sulphur and eventually
104 sulphate may also occur (Smith and Kelly, 1988 and Alcantara et al., 1999).

105

106 Compound specific stable isotope analysis measures the relative abundance of heavy and
107 light isotopes in a compound (in this case ¹²C and ¹³C). Biological and abiotic reactions
108 which break individual bonds tend to cause greater stable isotope fractionation than physical
109 processes such as dilution, volatilisation and sorption which act on the whole molecule
110 (Elsner et al., 2005). Therefore, stable isotope fractionation provides a powerful tool in
111 determining whether the natural attenuation of xenobiotic compounds is occurring in the field
112 (Sturchio et al., 1998; Hunkeler et al., 1999; Sherwood Lollar, 2001 and McKelvie et al.,
113 2007). However, to the authors' knowledge, no studies have reported stable carbon isotope
114 enrichment factors for the degradation of CS₂. This study investigates the biologically
115 mediated processes of natural attenuation of CS₂, to provide information about CS₂

116 degradation rates, identify whether COS and H₂S are degradation intermediates and measure
117 the carbon isotope signatures of degradation in CS₂ contaminated soils and groundwater.
118 This information will assist determination of whether natural attenuation is occurring at CS₂
119 contaminated sites.

120

121 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

122 **Chemicals and materials**

123 Experiments were carried out using general purpose reagent grade CS₂ (99.99% w/v, Hopkin
124 and Williams).

125

126 **Soils and groundwater**

127 Soils were collected during remediation works at a former chemical manufacturing works in
128 Stretford, Manchester, UK. Groundwater was collected from a former viscose rayon plant in
129 Carrickfergus, Northern Ireland. All samples were transported and stored in the dark at 5°C
130 until use. Further details of both sites are provided in Section 1 of the online resources. Soil
131 samples contaminated with CS₂ DNAPL were exposed to a nitrogen atmosphere within a
132 sealed glove bag to allow volatilisation of background CS₂ contamination. Soils were sieved
133 to remove stones greater than 2.36 mm, prior to placing in thin walled plastic bags and
134 storing in the anaerobic chamber at room temperature until ready for use.

135

136 Site groundwater was collected anaerobically in 1.92 L nitrogen purged glass jars from an
137 area of known CS₂ contamination. Prior to sampling the borehole was purged until water
138 quality parameters reached stable values. Groundwater was transferred under nitrogen to

139 collapsible Tedlar bags to ensure no headspace during preparation. The CS₂ concentration in
140 the site groundwater, used in the unspiked tests, was approximately 87 mg L⁻¹. Because
141 higher initial concentrations were required to facilitate carbon isotope analysis of degradation
142 products, site groundwater was spiked with a CS₂ stock solution prepared in methanol.
143 Concentrations in the Tedlar bag for the spiked experiments were 250 mg L⁻¹ CS₂ and 157
144 mg L⁻¹ methanol. Previous investigations had shown increased CS₂ degradation when
145 sulphate was present (Cox et al., 2005), therefore Na₂SO₄ (20 mM) was added in both tests.
146 Full details of soil and groundwater preparation are included in Section 2 of the online
147 resources.

148

149 **Spiked and unspiked microcosm studies**

150 Microcosm studies were carried out in pre-sterilised 22 mL Chromacol glass vials. Soil (5 g
151 ± 0.01 g) were added to each vial, along with 10 mL of site groundwater taken directly from
152 the Tedlar bag using a Teflon and glass, gas tight syringe. Approximately 10.1 mL of
153 headspace was present in each vial. Vials were sealed immediately with a Teflon faced
154 aluminium crimp seal. Due to equilibration with the headspace in the vial, CS₂
155 concentrations in the water in the vials (C₀) were 40 mg L⁻¹ (unspiked test) and 100 mg L⁻¹
156 (spiked test). All setup was undertaken in an anaerobic chamber (10% v/v H₂, 5% v/v CO₂
157 and 85% N₂).

158

159 Carbon disulphide free controls containing soil and groundwater (that had been exposed to a
160 nitrogen atmosphere in a glove bag to remove CS₂ but spiked with methanol) were used to
161 account for the microbial growth on methanol or any background carbon sources present.
162 Groundwater microcosms containing CS₂ were set up to determine CS₂ losses due to abiotic
163 and biological degradation within groundwater exclusively. Microcosms containing soil and

164 groundwater, referred to as soil microcosms from this point forward, were set up to
165 investigate what additional losses could be attributed to the presence of microorganisms in
166 the soils. Sterilisation of soil and groundwater using mercuric chloride (HgCl_2) (final soil
167 concentration of $92 \text{ mg of Hg L}^{-1}$) was unsuccessful (Cox, 2008). Autoclaving for 90
168 minutes on two occasions on consecutive days was required to successfully sterilise soil
169 containing CS_2 degrading bacteria. For details of sterilisation trials see Section 4 of the
170 online resources. Summary details of the composition of controls and microcosms for both
171 the unspiked and spiked tests are shown in Tables 5.1 and 5.2 in the online resources.

172

173 Soil microcosms were prepared in triplicate, while controls and microcosms containing
174 groundwater only were prepared in duplicate. All vials were sealed with teflon faced
175 aluminium crimp seals, wrapped in parafilm and stored in the dark in the anaerobic chamber
176 at room temperature. Vials were removed from the anaerobic chamber at regular intervals
177 and sampled sacrificially to minimise potential for losses due to volatilisation over 10 days.

178

179 **Analytical methods**

180 Analysis for CS_2 , COS , H_2S , CO_2 and CH_4 concentration was undertaken by GC-MS (Trace
181 DSQ, Thermo Finnigan). Compound specific carbon isotope ratios ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of CS_2 , COS , CO_2
182 and CH_4 in the vial headspace were measured using GC-C-IRMS (Isoprime, GV Instruments)
183 for the spiked test only. All isotopes were reported using the delta notation referenced to
184 Vienna Peedee Belemnite, VPDB. Detailed methods for all analyses are described in Section
185 6 of the online resources.

186

187

188 **Quantification of isotope fractionation**

189 Fractionation is often quantified for comparison purposes using the Rayleigh relationship
190 (Equation 3) (Mariotti et al., 1981).

191
$$R = R_0 f^{(\alpha-1)} \quad (3)$$

192

193 where R is the isotopic ratio of the substrate, R_0 is the initial isotopic ratio of the substrate, f
194 is the remaining fraction of the substrate and α is the fractionation factor. Equation 3 can be
195 rearranged and expressed in δ ‰ notation as shown in Equation 4 (Mariotti et al., 1981):

196

197
$$\ln \left(\frac{\frac{\delta}{1000} + 1}{\frac{\delta_0}{1000} + 1} \right) = (\alpha - 1) \ln f = \frac{\varepsilon}{1000} \ln f \quad (4)$$

198

199 where δ_0 is the initial δ value, and ε is the per mil enrichment factor, which represents the
200 isotopic difference between the contaminant and its initial degradation product (Clark and
201 Fritz, 1997). Equation 4 can be simplified to Equation 5 for small values of δ (Mariotti et al.,
202 1981).

203

204
$$\delta - \delta_0 = \Delta\delta \cong 10^3 (\alpha - 1) \ln f = \varepsilon \ln f \quad (5)$$

205

206 and therefore a plot of change in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ against $\ln(f)$ will be a straight line of gradient ε that
207 goes through the origin.

208

209 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

210 Degradation rates

211 The natural log of CS₂ concentrations (normalised with respect to initial concentration, C₀)
212 against time, are plotted in Figure 1 for soil microcosms (unspiked and spiked tests),
213 sterilised soil with groundwater controls (spiked test) and microcosms containing
214 groundwater-only (unspiked and spiked tests). Initial losses were considered by excluding
215 the initial (time zero) data point and calculating the best fit line without specifying a y-
216 intercept. Where consecutive sampling occasions showed that CS₂ concentrations were less
217 than the limit of quantification (<0.008% v/v), the dataset has been modified to exclude the
218 later sampling occasion, as including this data point skewed the linear regression.

219

220 In both the unspiked and spiked groundwater-only tests (Figure 1) carbon disulphide
221 concentrations decreased by approximately 40%. Significantly more degradation was
222 observed in soil microcosms where almost 100% degradation of CS₂ was observed in both
223 the unspiked and spiked tests. Therefore the majority of CS₂ degradation was attributed to
224 the biological activity within the soil. First-order degradation rate constants for soil
225 microcosms in the unspiked test were calculated based on the modified datasets, as shown in
226 Figure 1 and summarised in Table 1. In accordance with Equation 6, the rate constants for
227 the unspiked and spiked soil microcosms ($k_{\text{micro soil}}$) were corrected for CS₂ losses due to
228 volatilisation, abiotic reactions and biodegradation from groundwater using the degradation
229 rate constant for the spiked sterilised soil with groundwater controls ($k_{\text{sterilised}}$). This gives a
230 rate constant for the biodegradation due to soil microbes (k_{degrad}) of $>2.39 \pm 0.16 \times 10^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for
231 the unspiked test and $1.25 \pm 0.15 \times 10^{-2} \text{ h}^{-1}$ for the spiked test (Table 1).

232

$$k_{\text{degrad}} = k_{\text{microsoil}} - k_{\text{sterilised}} \quad (6)$$

233

234 k_{degrad} for the spiked test is less than k_{degrad} from the unspiked test suggesting that the rate of
235 degradation decreases with increasing initial CS_2 concentration (C_0 was 40 mg L^{-1} in the
236 unspiked test and 100 mg L^{-1} in the spiked test) due to microbial inhibition. Similar
237 inhibitory effects were recorded by Plas et al. (1993) at CS_2 concentrations above 150 mg L^{-1} ,
238 for degradation of CS_2 by *Thiobacillus* K4, while Pol et al. (2007) found that CS_2
239 concentrations greater than 22.8 mg L^{-1} inhibited growth of *Thiomonas* sp. WZW.

240

241 **Degradation products**

242 Carbonyl sulphide was not observed above the limit of quantitation (0.008% v/v) in any
243 control vials or microcosms containing groundwater exclusively. However, following 30
244 hours incubation COS was detected in both the CS_2 unspiked and spiked soil microcosms at
245 0.043 %v/v and 0.287 %v/v, respectively (Figure 2(a)). After 150 hours incubation the
246 concentrations of COS in the spiked and unspiked soil microcosms were below the limit of
247 quantification. If the biological degradation of 1 mole of CS_2 generates 1 mole of COS
248 (Equation 1), it would be expected that a 60% reduction in COS production would be
249 observed correlating to the 60% reduction in the initial CS_2 concentration. However, the
250 observed reduction was 85%, and such discrepancies were attributed to the fact that the
251 maximum COS concentrations may not have been recorded due to the 24-hour sampling
252 interval.

253

254 As with the intermediate COS, H_2S was not detected above the limit of quantification
255 (0.008% v/v) in control vials or microcosms containing groundwater exclusively. Hydrogen
256 sulphide was also below the limit of quantification (0.008% v/v) in the unspiked soil
257 microcosms (Figure 2(b)). However, in CS_2 spiked microcosms containing soil, H_2S

258 concentrations increased during the first 30 hours of the experiment, before decreasing to less
259 than the limit of quantification at approximately 50 hours, and increasing again slightly at
260 200 hours (Figure 2(b)). Therefore H₂S is formed as an intermediate during the anaerobic
261 degradation of CS₂ by soil microorganisms. Indeed, the second smaller peak observed in
262 Figure 2(b) may indicate that H₂S is also produced as a result of the subsequent degradation
263 of COS, as proposed by Equation 2.

264

265 The generation of both COS and H₂S as intermediates during the biodegradation of CS₂ is in
266 accordance with the mechanism for CS₂ degradation proposed by Smith and Kelly (1988)
267 (Equations 1 and 2). In tests under anaerobic conditions, they found that both COS and H₂S
268 accumulated (Smith and Kelly, 1988). Similarly, Pol et al., (2007) found that under
269 anaerobic conditions, degradation of CS₂ by *Thiomonas* sp. WZW resulted in the
270 accumulation of COS and H₂S, which finally resulted in the inhibition of CS₂ degradation. It
271 is unclear from our results whether the microorganisms responsible for the anaerobic
272 degradation of CS₂ were responsible for the subsequent anaerobic degradation of COS and
273 H₂S (another microorganism in the mixed consortium may have caused this degradation).
274 However it is encouraging that even under strictly anaerobic conditions COS and H₂S did not
275 accumulate to sufficient concentrations to significantly inhibit CS₂ degradation.

276

277 **Carbon isotope signatures**

278 Rayleigh plots for CS₂ carbon isotopes were constructed for all experiments spiked with CS₂
279 (Figure 3). Apart from two anomalous data points (circled in Figure 3(a)), most data points
280 from the sterilised soil with groundwater controls are clustered around the x-axis (zero),
281 revealing that significant fractionation is not occurring in these vials. Therefore, CS₂ losses
282 in the sterilised soil control vials are mostly due to non-fractionating processes such as

283 volatilisation and sorption to soil and vials. The fractionation observed in the two anomalous
284 data points coincides with a drop in CS₂ concentration and a slight increase in COS
285 concentrations, indicating that CS₂ degradation may be occurring in these vials, possibly due
286 to the presence of site groundwater or incomplete sterilisation of the soil.

287

288 The fractionation of carbon isotopes observed in microcosms containing groundwater
289 exclusively (Figure 3(b)) and with soil (Figure 3(c)) follows a Rayleigh-type relationship.
290 However, the carbon isotope enrichment factor for CS₂ degradation was different when soil
291 was present. Initial losses were again considered by excluding the initial (time zero) data
292 point and calculating the best fit line without specifying a y-intercept. An enrichment factor
293 of $-7.5 \pm 0.8\text{‰}$ was obtained for the soil microcosms (which contained both soil and
294 groundwater), while an enrichment factor of $-23.0 \pm 2.1\text{‰}$ was obtained for the less rapid, but
295 highly fractionating degradation observed in microcosms with groundwater only.

296

297 Both enrichment factors obtained for CS₂ degradation are within the range of enrichment
298 factors reported in literature for other organic compounds (-0.5‰ to -32.1‰) (Hunkeler et
299 al., 2001a; Meckenstock et al., 2004; Sherwood Lollar et al., 1999; Ahad et al., 2000; Dayan
300 et al., 1999; Hunkeler et al., 1999; Barth et al., 2002; Hunkeler et al., 2002; Hunkeler et al.,
301 2001b). Of the many compounds studied previously, it would be expected that fractionation
302 would be similar to that observed for short chain chlorinated hydrocarbons, as (1) compounds
303 with greater numbers of carbon atoms would have “diluted” enrichment factors
304 (Meckenstock et al., 2004), and (2) degradation in these compounds occurs by breaking the
305 C-Cl bond, and chlorine is similar in atomic weight to sulphur (Elsner et al., 2005). Reported
306 enrichment factors for biodegradation of chlorinated ethenes range from -7.1‰ to -31.1‰

307 (Dayan et al., 1999; Hunkeler et al., 1999; Barth et al., 2002; Hunkeler et al., 2002), which
308 encompasses the enrichment factors found for degradation of CS₂.

309

310 The Streitweiser Limit for breaking a C-S bond is 1.050 (Huskey, 1991). This is a
311 semi-quantitative estimate of the maximum kinetic isotope effect (KIE) ($1/\alpha$) that would be
312 observed for a reaction that breaks a C-S bond (Elsner et al., 2005). This assumes bond
313 cleavage at an infinitely late transition state, and therefore a more realistic estimate of the
314 KIE may be obtained by assuming a transition state at 50% bond cleavage (Elsner et al.,
315 2005), which corresponds to an estimated KIE of half the Streitweiser Limit (KIE = 1.025)
316 (Elsner et al., 2005). KIEs and equivalent fractionation and enrichment factors estimated for
317 C-S bond breakage and observed from CS₂ degradation are shown in Table 2.

318

319 Fractionation observed due to degradation with site groundwater only ($\epsilon = -23.0 \pm 2.1\%$)
320 correlates well with the estimated values. The p-value for the gradient of the straight line
321 regression on the Rayleigh plot for these vials is $p = 1.4 \times 10^{-7}$, indicating the null hypothesis
322 that the straight line's true gradient is zero can be rejected comfortably (threshold p-value =
323 0.05). Therefore the assumption that a linear relationship exists is acceptable for these
324 results. The coefficient of determination, R^2 , was greater than 0.90 (n=14), which is
325 considered to be a good fit, given that vials were sacrificially sampled. A linear fit indicates
326 that fractionation is controlled by a single reaction step (Ahad et al., 2000). The coefficient
327 of determination, R^2 , was also greater than 0.85 (n=17), for microcosms with soil, while the
328 p-value for the gradient was $p = 6.6 \times 10^{-8}$ ($\epsilon = -7.5 \pm 0.8\%$), however the lower enrichment
329 factor and higher reaction rate for these vials suggests the majority of degradation is
330 occurring via a different pathway/mechanism than degradation due to site groundwater only.

331 This difference in fractionation factors is seemingly anomalous, and requires further
332 investigation to fully elucidate.

333

334 Carbonyl sulphide was initially highly depleted in ^{13}C in soil microcosms (as shown in Figure
335 4), as it was being formed predominantly from CS_2 molecules that contained ^{12}C rather than
336 ^{13}C . However as COS was subsequently degraded, its carbon isotope ratio became enriched,
337 as the CS_2 became enriched in ^{13}C and concurrently COS molecules containing ^{12}C were
338 preferentially degraded. A similar trend in carbon isotope ratio was previously reported for
339 intermediates produced during the degradation of chlorinated solvents (Hunkeler et al., 1999;
340 Hunkeler et al., 2002).

341

342 **Modelling of degradation product concentrations and isotope ratios**

343 To investigate the end point of degradation in soil microcosms, concentrations and isotope
344 ratios of CS_2 and potential degradation products (COS , CO_2 and CH_4) from soil microcosms
345 were modelled mathematically, using a method described by Hunkeler et al. (2002).
346 Microbial and abiotic activity with groundwater only vials were not modelled, as COS
347 concentrations in these vials were less than the limit of quantitation of the concentration
348 analysis.

349

350 Two illustrative models were constructed, the first assuming that CO_2 is the end point of CS_2
351 degradation, (Model 1, shown in Equation 7), and the second assuming that CO_2 is removed
352 from the system. In this case, it has been assumed that CO_2 is converted to CH_4 by
353 methanogenesis (Model 2, shown in Equation 8). Both models treat the microcosms as
354 closed systems, with no other carbon sources contributing to the production of COS, CO_2 or
355 CH_4 .

380 calculated by Models 1 and 2 shows that both models fit the CO₂ data within the error
381 observed (Figure 8.2 in the online resources). CH₄ concentrations were also modelled
382 adequately by Model 2 (Figure 8.3 of the online resources).

383

384 As Model 1 and Model 2 both fit the concentration data (see Figures 8.1 to 8.3 of the online
385 resources), it is not possible from concentration data alone to determine whether the CH₄
386 produced in these vials was generated by methanogenic degradation of CO₂ or if another
387 carbon source was degraded to form CH₄. To investigate this further both models were
388 extended to consider carbon isotope effects (see Section 7 of the online resources and Cox
389 (2008) for full details).

390

391 Again the expressions for carbon isotope ratios for CS₂ and COS are the same for both Model
392 1 and 2, and isotope ratios predicted by both models are shown on Figure 4. The small dip in
393 CS₂ carbon isotope ratio observed at 100 hours may be due to an inhibitory affect caused by
394 transitory accumulation of COS and H₂S as Pol et al. (2007) found these intermediates can
395 inhibit CS₂ degradation. The fit for COS does not appear to be as good as for CS₂, however
396 if any lag period was experienced before COS degradation commenced, this may explain the
397 initial rise and fall, as the model would show more rapid enrichment over the first 100 hours,
398 if the COS degradation rate was reduced.

399

400 Isotope data for CO₂ showed an enrichment in CO₂ isotope ratios of approximately 4‰ over
401 the course of the experiment. This enrichment was not modelled by Model 1, but Model 2
402 was able to replicate this (Figure 5(a)) if the CO₂ was degraded by a highly fractionating
403 process, such as methanogenesis, which has a reported enrichment factor (ϵ) of $-75 \pm 15\%$
404 (Clarke and Fritz, 1997)). But modelling of CH₄ isotope data (Figure 5(b)) demonstrated that

405 this process was not methanogenic conversion of CO₂ to CH₄. The actual CH₄ produced was
406 initially depleted in ¹³C, and rapidly became more enriched in ¹³C. However, due to the low
407 CO₂ degradation rate and high initial CO₂ concentration, the model predicts very slow
408 enrichment if CO₂ was being converted to CH₄. Therefore, as a rapid degradation rate would
409 not fit the CH₄ concentration data, the CH₄ present in the vials must be produced as a result
410 of degradation of another carbon source in the microcosm, such as methanol. This is
411 supported by the fact that CH₄ was produced in CS₂ free controls in the spiked test (which
412 contained methanol) but not CS₂ free controls in the unspiked tests (which did not contain
413 methanol).

414

415 Therefore it is likely that CO₂ in the vials is being consumed, possibly by assimilation into
416 the biomass of cells. Miltner et al. (2005) have suggested CO₂ fixation is a significant factor
417 of microbial activity in soils. This could mean that the bacteria responsible for CS₂
418 degradation are obtaining energy from CS₂ and carbon from CO₂, as described by Odintsova
419 et al. (1993). However it is also possible that another microorganism is consuming CO₂.

420

421 **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

422 Degradation experiments demonstrated that the soil tested contained indigenous bacteria that
423 were capable of degrading CS₂. This implies that natural attenuation could potentially be
424 used to remediate CS₂ contaminated sites; however, further work is needed to characterise the
425 conditions under which degradation is likely to occur in the field. Comparison of the rate
426 constants calculated in both tests revealed that the first-order degradation rate constant
427 decreases with increasing initial CS₂ concentration. This may be as a result of CS₂ being
428 inhibitory to the CS₂ degrading organisms. Therefore site investigations should determine

429 whether natural attenuation would be restricted to down gradient portions of a CS₂ plume and
430 whether source zone remediation would significantly enhance the performance of natural
431 attenuation.

432

433 COS and H₂S were both shown to be intermediates of anaerobic biodegradation of CS₂ by the
434 bacteria present in the soil; however, no COS or H₂S greater than the limit of quantitation
435 was observed in control vials or during degradation with site groundwater alone. Therefore
436 the presence of COS or H₂S in groundwater may be good indicators that biodegradation of
437 CS₂ is occurring in the field; however, their absence is not indicative that biodegradation is
438 not occurring. Even under strictly anaerobic conditions COS and H₂S did not accumulate to
439 sufficient concentrations long enough to inhibit CS₂ degradation, which suggests that
440 accumulation of by-products will not prevent natural attenuation from occurring in the field.

441

442 A ¹³C/¹²C enrichment factor of $-7.5 \pm 0.8\%$ was obtained for CS₂ degradation with both soil
443 and site groundwater, whereas a ¹³C/¹²C enrichment factor of $-23.0 \pm 2.1\%$ was obtained for
444 the less rapid degradation due to site groundwater alone, suggesting that if isotopic
445 fractionation is observed in the field, it could indicate that degradation is occurring.
446 However, as it appears that different mechanisms may cause differing amounts of
447 fractionation, until a database of CS₂ enrichment factors has been established it will only be
448 possible to quantify degradation once a site specific enrichment factor has been determined
449 experimentally.

450

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456

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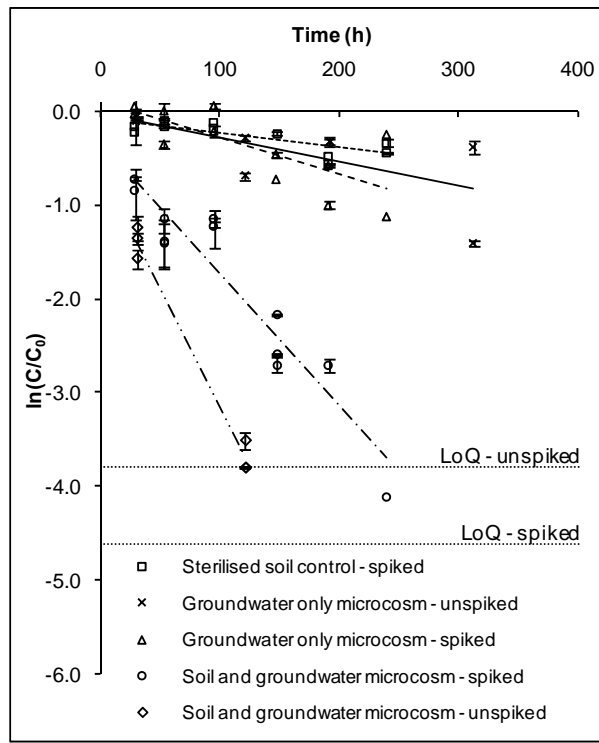
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598

599 **Figures**

600

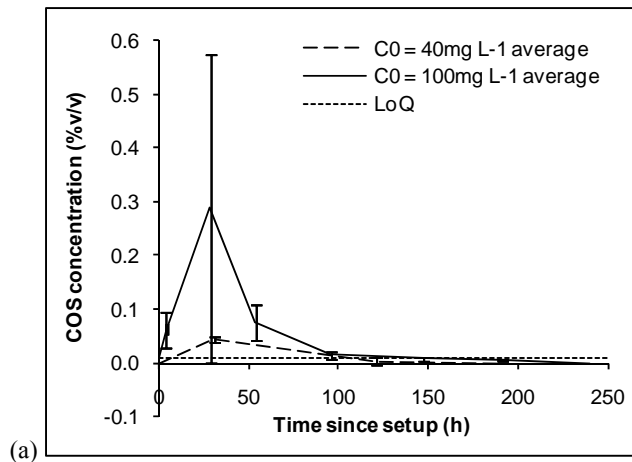


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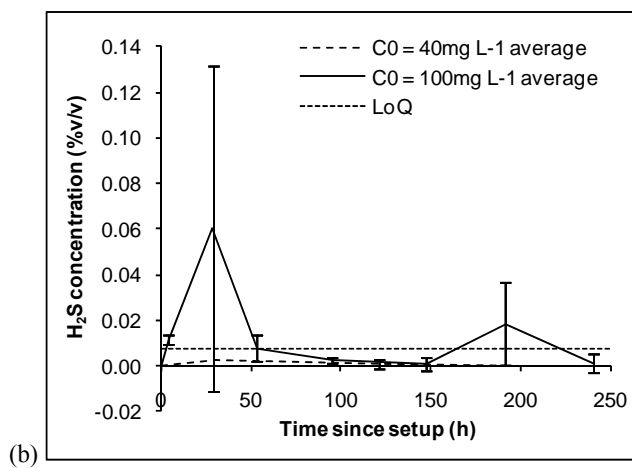
602 **Fig. 1** Plot of \ln normalised CS_2 concentration versus time for an initial CS_2 concentration of 40 mg L^{-1}
 603 (unspiked test) and 100 mg L^{-1} (spiked test). Error bars are two standard errors of three replicate measurements,
 604 and therefore depict error associated with method of analysis. LoQ is limit of quantification

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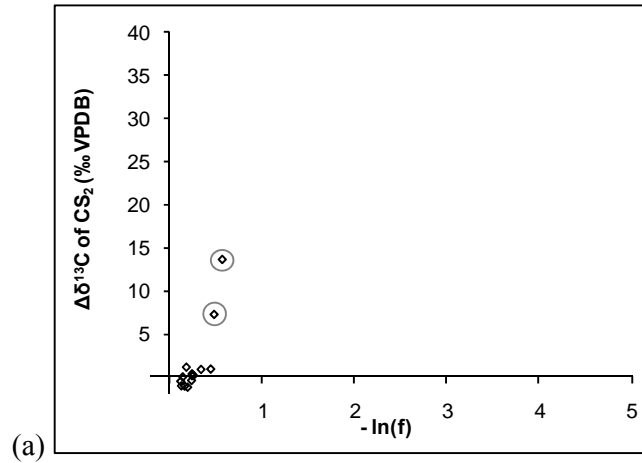


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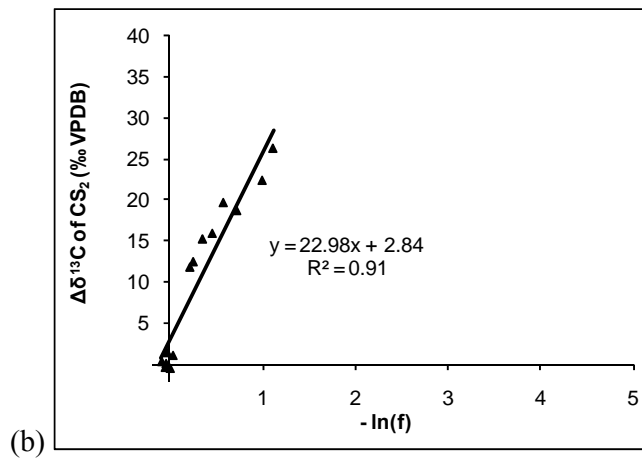


608 **Fig. 2** Headspace concentration versus time for an initial CS₂ concentration of 40 mg L⁻¹ (unspiked test) and
609 100 mg L⁻¹ (spiked test) for (a) COS and (b) H₂S. Limit of Quantification (LoQ) is 0.008% v/v for both COS
610 and H₂S. Error bars are two standard errors of three independent samples

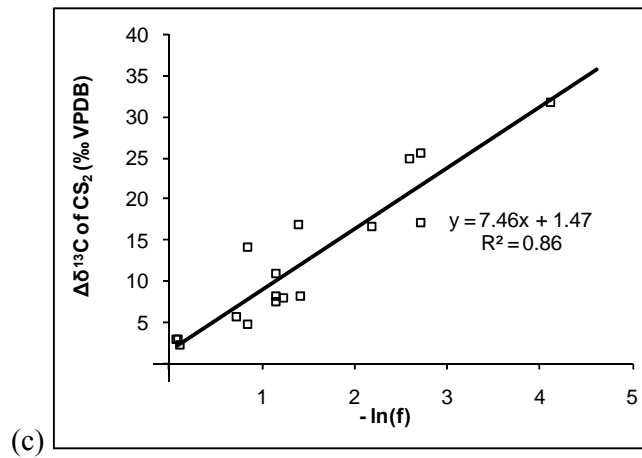
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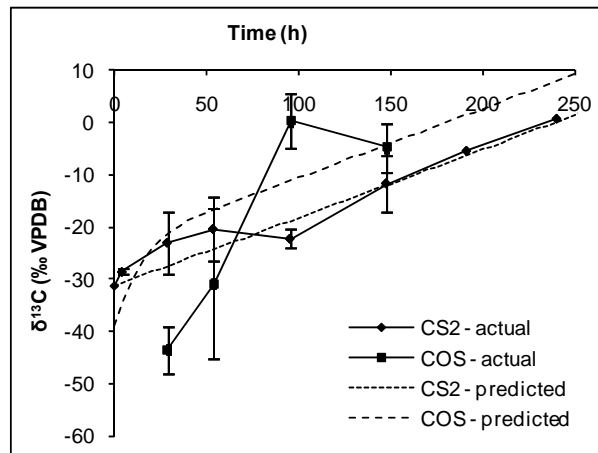
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614 **Fig. 3** Rayleigh plot of $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$ versus $-\ln(f)$ for (a) sterilised soil control, (b) groundwater microcosms (p-value
615 (gradient) = 1.4×10^{-7}) and (c) groundwater and soil microcosms (p-value (gradient) = 6.6×10^{-8}). Circles in
616 Fig.3(a) identify two anomalous data points

617

618



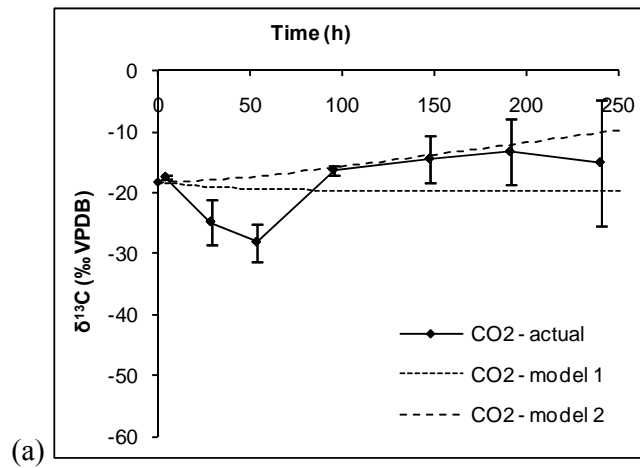
619

620 **Fig. 4** Actual and modelled carbon isotope ratio of CS₂ and COS versus time for microcosms with soil and
621 site groundwater. Error bars are two standard errors of three independent samples (except t = 191 hrs and 240
622 hrs, where n = 1 (for CS₂) and t = 148 hrs where n = 2 (for COS))

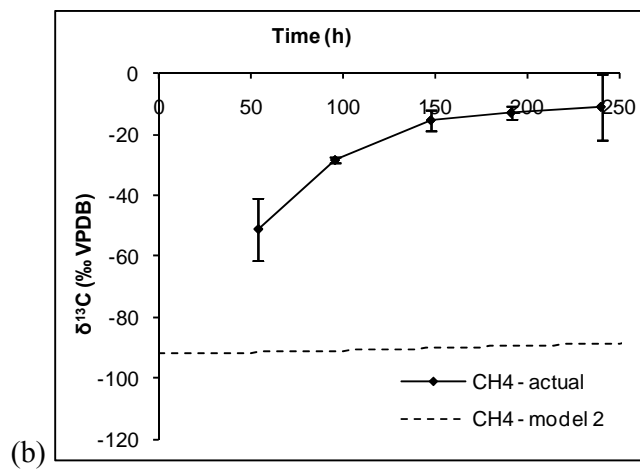
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627 **Fig 5** Actual and modelled carbon isotope data versus time for $k_1 = 0.0163 \text{ h}^{-1}$, $\alpha_1 = 0.9919$, $k_2 = 0.15 \text{ h}^{-1}$,
628 $\alpha_2 = 0.985$, $k_3 = 0.00055 \text{ h}^{-1}$ and $\alpha_3 = 0.925$ for (a) CO_2 and (b) CH_4 . Error bars are two standard errors of three
629 independent samples

630

631

632 **Tables**

633

Sterilised soil control ($C_0 = 100\text{mg L}^{-1}$)	$k_{\text{sterilised}} (\text{h}^{-1})$	$0.15 \pm 0.04 \times 10^{-2}$
Groundwater only ($C_0 = 40\text{mg L}^{-1}$)	$k_{\text{groundwater}} (\text{h}^{-1})$	$0.26 \pm 0.12 \times 10^{-2}$
Groundwater only ($C_0 = 100\text{mg L}^{-1}$)	$k_{\text{groundwater}} (\text{h}^{-1})$	$0.38 \pm 0.11 \times 10^{-2}$
Soil and groundwater ($C_0 = 40\text{mg L}^{-1}$)	$k_{\text{micro soil}} (\text{h}^{-1})$	$>2.54 \pm 0.15 \times 10^{-2}$
Soil and groundwater ($C_0 = 100\text{mg L}^{-1}$)	$k_{\text{micro soil}} (\text{h}^{-1})$	$1.40 \pm 0.14 \times 10^{-2}$

634 **Table 1** First-order degradation rate constants (h^{-1}) for unspiked and spiked tests. Uncertainties are one
 635 standard error

636

	KIE	α	ϵ (‰)
Steitweiser limit for C-S bond^a	1.050	0.952	-48
More realistic estimate of KIE^a	1.025	0.976	-24
Degradation due to site groundwater	1.0235	0.9770	-23.0
Degradation due to soil and site groundwater	1.0076	0.9925	-7.5

637 ^a taken from Huskey (1991)

638 **Table 2** KIE, fractionation factor (α) and enrichment factor (ϵ) calculated for C-S bond breakage and observed
 639 during degradation of CS_2