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Identifying pathways of exposure to highway pollutants in great crested newt (*Triturus cristatus*) road mitigation tunnels

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20 ABSTRACT

21 Road mitigation tunnels are increasingly deployed for amphibians but very little is known about chemical pollution in such schemes. We assessed pollution pressures 22 associated with road runoff at a major great crested newt mitigation scheme in 23 England. Sediments and waters in the mitigation system were analysed for major 24 physico-chemical parameters, trace metals and total petroleum hydrocarbons and 25 compared to a nearby reference site. Seven out of eight tested metals including 26 copper, zinc, lead and iron were in significantly greater concentrations in the tunnels 27 than at a reference site and at environmentally-significant concentrations. Water 28 samples also exhibited elevated concentrations of aluminium and chromium and 29 occasionally extreme alkaline pH associated with leaching of portlandite in tunnel 30 cements. High conductivity values in waters and sediments corresponding with 31 seasonal de-icing salt application were also apparent. The study highlights the 32 potential pollutant pressures for amphibians associated with large-scale urban 33 34 development and road mitigation schemes.

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Keywords: urban pollutants, road runoff, road mitigation; trace metals, de-icing salts, amphibian

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INTRODUCTION

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Road networks and road traffic have increased substantially across the globe and are 42 significantly impacting amphibian populations (Beebee, 2013; Petrovan and Schmidt, 43 2016). In Europe, populations of great crested newts (Triturus cristatus) have suffered 44 severe declines due to habitat loss and fragmentation as a result of urbanisation and 45 intensification of agricultural practices (Langton et al., 2001). Some amphibian 46 declines are also attributed globally to environmental pollution (Egea-Serrano et al., 47 2012). Pollutants of particular concern include chemical pesticides and fertilisers 48 49 (Langton et al., 2001), as well as trace metals, road de-icing salts and hydrocarbons (Duff et al. 2010; Sparling et al., 2010). 50

52 In the UK, T. cristatus are protected by national and European legislation including the EU Habitats Directive (European Council Directive 92/43/EEC) and the Wildlife 53 and Countryside Act 1981. Like other amphibians, T. cristatus require a combination 54 of aquatic and terrestrial habitat for foraging, overwintering and breeding. Also, T. 55 cristatus typically form metapopulations where there are pond clusters and it is 56 essential for their long-term conservation that they can navigate between habitat 57 patches and ponds to forage for resources, breed and prevent narrowing of the gene 58 pool (Edgar and Bird, 2006). Short-distance migrations of newts towards breeding 59 sites (ponds) normally occur in early spring (March-April), while the longer distance 60 61 dispersal movements mostly occur during autumn months (September-November). 62 As part of ecological mitigation, road underpasses may be installed to allow newt 63 movements between ponds or between aquatic and terrestrial habitat, especially when newly-constructed roads fragment their habitats. Such road underpasses are 64 increasingly implemented in Europe as connectivity mitigation around urban and 65 suburban developments. However, given the resultant proximity of the amphibian 66 habitat to a source of potential aquatic pollutants- roads (Van Boheman and Van De 67 Laak, 2003), and the sensitivity of amphibians to many common pollutants (due to 68 their permeable skin), there are concerns that road tunnels may act as a pathway to 69 exposure of amphibians to road-related pollutants. Typical pollutants associated with 70 road runoff consist of trace metals, de-icing salts in winter and petroleum and diesel 71 hydrocarbons (Bäckström et al, 2003). Metal issues usually focus on those sourced 72 from general vehicle wear, e.g. copper and zinc from brake pads, and the latter 73 74 additionally from tyre wear and corrosion of galvanized safety barriers (Legret and 75 Pagotto, 1999). In addition, there may be stark seasonal and event-based changes in pollutants associated with seasonal application of deicing salts and first flush 76 episodes respectively (Legret and Pagotto, 1999; Lee et al., 2002). Contaminants 77 78 may reach the tunnels and aquatic habitat through runoff, road splash or through dry

deposition in particulate form (Bäckström et al, 2003); thus there are several pathways by which the pollutants could accumulate in the habitat and impact the population. This study aims to provide an initial assessment of potential pollutant exposure in newt mitigation tunnels at a major urban development in England and to use this as a case study.

We hypothesised that there would be no significant difference in contaminant concentrations or major physico-chemical parameters between sediment samples collected from amphibian mitigation tunnels and those from reference sites.

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METHODS

Study site

The study site was a mitigation scheme constructed in 2014 in England adjacent to a 90 91 major retail development. As part of the ecological mitigation, given the discovery of a medium-sized population of T. cristatus, a new wetland habitat was created away 92 93 from the construction site and exclusion from the development was ensured with 94 amphibian fencing according to standard practices (Natural England, 2015). Three other amphibian species were also present and use the tunnels, plus the protected 95 European otter (Lutra lutra). Two pairs of polymer-concrete amphibian climate tunnels 96 (ACO, Germany) were installed underneath a newly constructed main access road to 97 enable the newts to safely navigate between ponds to forage and breed. These 98 widely-used tunnels have open slots into the road surface, allowing free air and 99 humidity circulation in an effort to minimise microclimate differences which could 100 reduce amphibian usage. The western entrances to the tunnels are adjacent to areas 101 of terrestrial habitat and pondscapes, with the eastern side adjoining terrestrial habitat 102 and a newly-constructed Sustainable Urban Drainage System (SUDS; Figure 1). The 103 area is mostly suburban and the site lies on clays and silts of Quaternary age. The 104 reference site was 6 km from the development, in a similar lowland area with a mix of 105 both terrestrial and aquatic habitats, similar topography and similar superficial 106 geology; the key difference being that it was away from any potential road pollutant 107 108 sources.

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110 Sampling and analysis

Between 12 and 18 bulk sediment samples were taken from tunnel entrances and road surfaces in January, March and November 2015 and March 2016 depending on availability of material to sample. Samples were taken from the concrete aprons of the 4 different tunnel entrances at the site and consisted of up to 500g bulk sample

and placed in polythene sample bags. Six reference samples were taken on each 115 occasion from the nearby reference site. Sediment conductivity and pH were 116 determined in the laboratory using standard soil paste methods (1:5 dilution with 117 deionised water: ISO, 2005) and measurement on a frequently-calibrated Myron 118 Company Ultrameter. Organic content of sediments was determined by loss on 119 ignition at 450°C until a constant weight was achieved. Air-dried sediment samples 120 were homogenised using a pestle and mortar, disaggregated then sieved (<2mm) 121 prior to elemental analysis using a Niton XL3t XRF analyser (Thermo Scientific, 122 2007). Standard certified reference materials were utilised to ensure accuracy of 123 readings, with all readings within 10% of prescribed values. Five tunnel and 5 124 reference replicates collected in spring 2016 were analysed for total petroleum 125 hydrocarbons (TPH) using gas chromatography with a flame ionisation detector (GC-126 FID) by ESG Ltd. 127

Where ponded water was apparent by the tunnel entrances in November 2015 and
March 2016, major physico-chemical parameters (pH, conductivity, temperature)
were analysed in the field using a Myron Ultrameter calibrated on day of sampling.
Filtered (0.45µm) and total dissolved water samples were taken from selected
locations for elemental content using a Perkin Elmer Optima 5300 DV Inductively
Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometer.

Data were not normal even after log transformation (Kolmogorov Smirnov p>0.05) so non-parametric methods were used to test differences in median contaminant concentrations and major physico-chemical parameters between tunnel and reference sites and between seasons at the tunnel sites (Mann-Whitney U-test). The geochemical code Phreeqc v. 3.3.3. was used to determine saturation indices for a range of mineral phases in water samples (Parkhurst and Appelo, 1999).

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142 **RESULTS**

143 Sediments

Median sediment pH in the tunnels was 8.4; significantly greater than at the reference 144 site which had a median of 6.2 (Mann-Whitney U, W = 1258, df = 51, P = <0.001). 145 Electrical conductivity values were significantly greater in the tunnel sediments than 146 at the reference site (Mann-Whitney U, W = 1192 df = 51, P = 0.001) (Figure 2). The 147 conductivity data was the only parameter that demonstrated a significant seasonal 148 fluctuation, with significantly higher conductivity values in the tunnels in winter months 149 (January and March: median of 630uS/cm) than autumn months (November: median 150 of 270µS/cm), prior to the main period of deicing salt application (Figure 3). Organic 151

content of the sediments did not differ between reference and tunnel sites (Mann 152 Whitney: P>0.05). However, significant differences were apparent in elemental 153 composition of the sediments (Figure 4). Tunnel sediments were typically more 154 mineral rich, with significantly greater concentrations of Ca, K, Ti and Fe than 155 reference sites (P: <0.001 to 0.005, Table 1, Figure 2). Of the trace elements of 156 potential concern that were above detection limits, Cu, Mn, Pb and Zn were all 157 apparent at significantly higher concentrations in the tunnel sediments than at 158 reference sites (P<0.001, Figure 4). Cd, Cr and V were below detection limits (10, 30 159 and 40 ppm respectively) in all sediment samples. Replicate samples of loose 160 sediment on the road surface in the vicinity of the tunnels showed a very similar 161 composition to the tunnel sediments with high mineral content (Ca, K, Fe, Ti), 162 electrical conductivity and elevated metal content (Cu, Mn, Pb, Zn). 163

164Of the sub-samples analysed for Total Petroleum Hydrocarbons, similar patterns165were apparent to the metals with a significantly higher TPH content in tunnels than166the reference site (Mann-Whitney U, W = 40, df = 5, P = 0.01; Figure 4). The tunnels167had a median TPH content of 406mg/kg (range 136-2220mg/kg) and most of these168carbon molecules were longer-chained (>C21 - C35) (Supplementary Information).169The reference site had a median TPH content of 41mg/kg (range 35 to 53 mg/kg).

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171 Water quality

The water quality data revealed some notable patterns with regard to high sodium 172 levels (particularly in winter) in road surface samples and elevated pH at tunnel sites 173 174 which is coincident with metal enrichment (notably AI, Cr and Se: Table 2). The tunnels also showed Na concentrations above surrounding SUDS samples and 175 consistent with mixing of road surface waters with SUDS/pondscape waters (Table 176 2). The higher dissolved metal concentrations of oxyanion-forming metals would be 177 anticipated with the high pH. These highly alkaline tunnel sites were also 178 characterised by white secondary precipitates on the substrate. Very high calcium 179 concentrations were apparent (Table 2), while geochemical modelling of the waters 180 suggest that this site was supersaturated with respect to calcite (CaCO₃; Table 2). 181 The surrounding SUDS water quality samples did not reveal any notable pollutant 182 pressures and are general suitable for aquatic life and typical of lowland settings 183 184 (Oldham et al. 2002).

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DISCUSSION

The sediment and water analyses revealed that the null hypothesis of no significant difference in potential contaminants between mitigation tunnels and reference conditions can be rejected. A series of pollution pressures were apparent, including metal enrichment, salinity, extremely alkaline pH and potential enrichment of petroleum-related organics.

There were significantly higher concentrations (P<0.001 to 0.005) of trace metals in 192 the tunnels for 7 of the 8 tested elements (Cu, Zn, Pb, Fe, Mn, Sr and Ti) compared 193 to the reference site, which was a more rural area with a greater distance from major 194 roads, unlike the tunnels which were underneath a main access road. It is probable 195 that the road was the primary source of contamination as these metals are associated 196 197 with road runoff (Ward, 1990). Moreover, the elements found in elevated concentrations in the tunnels were found in even greater concentrations in road 198 surface dusts (Table 1), which suggests a clear pathway of movement. This is most 199 likely due to surface runoff via the vents in the roof of the mitigation tunnels, or dry 200 deposition of particulates (Bäckström et al., 2003). The build-up of surface 201 particulates at kerb edges close to tunnel vents was apparent on sample visits. 202

204 The road-affiliated pollutants were likely sourced from the motor vehicles themselves: Cu and Zn particulates may be deposited with brake disc and tyre wear (Ward, 1990; 205 Legret and Pagotto, 1999) and others, such as aluminium, may have petrogenic 206 sources (Brown and Peake, 2006). Some elements may additionally be sourced from 207 wear of the concrete tunnels themselves or road surfaces, where industrial residues 208 such as blast furnace slags are often used in surfacing (Mahieux et al., 2009). The 209 markedly higher Ca concentrations and pH at tunnel sites are consistent with 210 weathering of alkaline construction materials (Figure 2). 211

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Metals of concern that appear to be present in the newt tunnels and surface water 213 include Cu, Zn, Pb, Fe and Mn. Guidance for toxicity thresholds of metals in 214 sediments are not well established, although the Threshold and Predicted Effects 215 Level (TEL and PEL) guidance have been informally used as a screen in many UK 216 settings (UKTAG, 2006). Most metals of interest (e.g. Cu, Pb and Zn) were above the 217 lower Threshold Effects Level (above which negative effects on sediment dwelling 218 organisms may be expected) and generally within the higher PEL values (above 219 which negative impacts on aquatic biota may be expected: Figure 4). While some 220 reference sites were also above the lower TEL value, possibly owing to mineral 221 enrichment in superficial deposits given glacial and fluvial transport of sediments from 222 adjacent areas of mineralisation (Dunham & Wilson, 1990), metal concentrations 223 were significantly higher in the tunnels (Figure 4) than reference sites. More refined 224 analyses on metal bioavailability would be desirable in the future to formulate more 225

robust risk assessments. The water samples suggest enrichment of AI and Cr in particular where there is a very high pH (Table 2). Encouragingly, Zn and Cu did not exceed quality standards in freshwater samples although negative effects of dissolved zinc on amphibians at levels below quality standards have been observed (Lefcort *et al.*, 1998). Amphibians are particularly sensitive to trace metals due to their permeable skin and thin epidermis (Hopkins *et al.*, 2013).

The pH of both the sediment and water samples from tunnels were high; with one 232 extreme reading of 11.3 reported at one of the tunnel entrances. Such alkalization of 233 surface waters is uncommon naturally, but is widely reported as a product of 234 weathering of alkalinity generating minerals such as portlandite $(Ca(OH)_2)$ in concrete 235 (Gomes et al., 2016). In this case, leaching of such minerals from tunnels and road 236 ballast is likely (Nodvin et al., 1986) and is consistent with the supersaturation with 237 respect to calcite (Table 2). T. cristatus are generally found in pH ranges of 4.4-9.5 238 (Langton et al., 2001); thus the extreme pH of 11.3 is much greater (100 times higher) 239 than the documented T. cristatus range of tolerance. Such extreme pH could be of 240 significance to amphibians due to elevated ionic strength, elevated hydroxide 241 concentrations (Fominykh, 2008) as well as potential indirect effects of increased 242 mobility of oxyanion-forming contaminants, such as Cr (Table 2), which would be 243 expected in hexavalent form at such a pH (Takeno, 1996). The area of high pH water 244 at this site was relatively small, which should limit potential exposure, however, 245 relatively little is known about the tolerance of amphibians to extremely alkaline 246 waters (Fominykh, 2008). 247

Overall, conductivity was much greater in the tunnels than at the reference site 249 (Figure 2). The proximity to the road suggests that the elevated conductivity is a result 250 of seasonal de-icing salt application on the road; a notion supported by the 251 significantly higher conductivity in March (post de-icing salt application) than in 252 November (pre de-icing salt application) (Figure 3). Water samples had higher 253 conductivities than the sediment (Table 2). The greatest was water at the roadside 254 (S3) in March 2016 which was an extreme of 10,200µS/cm and extreme Na 255 concentrations (1189mg/L); indicative of the presence of de-icing salts. Deicing salts 256 pose serious ecological risks to amphibians due to the salinity increases and direct 257 toxicity of chloride (Hopkins et al., 2012; Duff et al., 2010). Salts can have extreme 258 adverse effects on amphibians at all life stages (Hopkins et al., 2012); though 259 embryonic and larval life stages are more sensitive than adults (Turtle, 2000). 260

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Total petroleum hydrocarbon concentrations were significantly greater in the tunnels than the reference site (P = 0.01, Figure 4). Though the presence of more hydrocarbons in the tunnels does not categorically show that they are of petroleum

origin (as analysis is subject to interference from organic matter and chlorinated 264 solvents: Villalobos et al., 2008), the existence of many long chain molecules is 265 indicative of this. However, as a preliminary screen it warrants further attention, given 266 the obvious pollution pathway in this case. Very little research has been done on the 267 impacts of petroleum hydrocarbons on amphibians, although there is evidence that 268 petroleum contamination of freshwater habitats has negative impacts on tadpole 269 growth and unsuccessful metamorphosis of the anuran Hyla cinerea (Mahaney, 270 1994). 271

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273 CONCLUSIONS AND MANAGEMENT CONSIDERATIONS

- A series of pollutant pressures on amphibian populations using road mitigation tunnels were identified.
- These include trace metals, hydrocarbons, de-icing salts and extreme alkaline pH contaminating different features of the habitat including the tunnels themselves and surface water.
 - 3. The exact risks posed by these potential pathways remain unclear, but the relatively limited research conducted in this area suggests that impacts could be adverse and need highlighting in planning and design of mitigation schemes for amphibians, and great crested newts in particular.
 - 4. Further research is needed to assess the exact exposure of amphibians to the contaminants at this and other sites and should incorporate more refined assessments of metal bioavailability (e.g. metal speciation) integrated with amphibian tunnel usage data (i.e. seasonality and exposure times).
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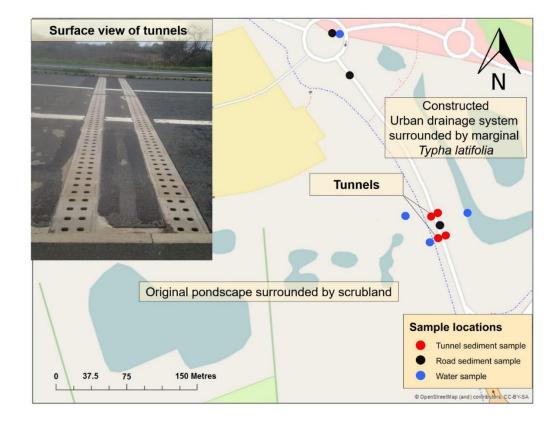
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389 FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 1. Location of the sample site showing sampling locations and the amphibian mitigation tunnels.



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Figure 2. Comparison of major physico-chemical characteristics in sediments between tunnel and reference sites. Data aggregated from all sample months. n = 24 for reference sites, n = 56 for tunnel sites.

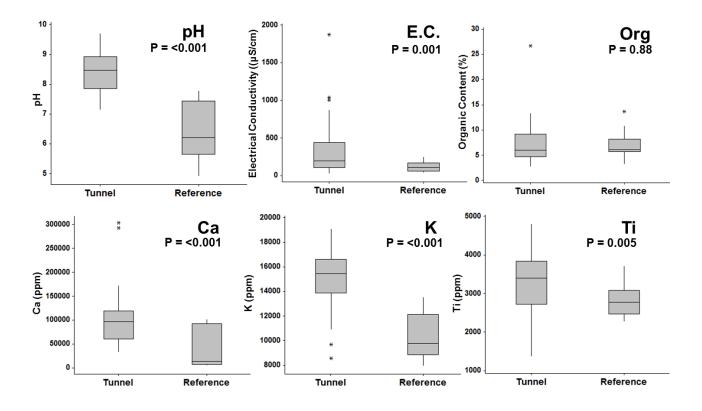


Figure 3. Comparison of sediment electrical conductivity in tunnels between autumn and spring sampling. n = 18 for both autumn and spring.

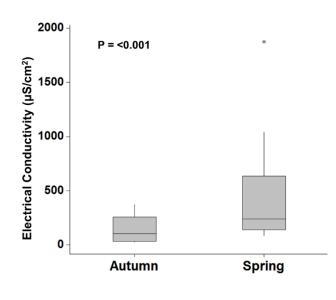
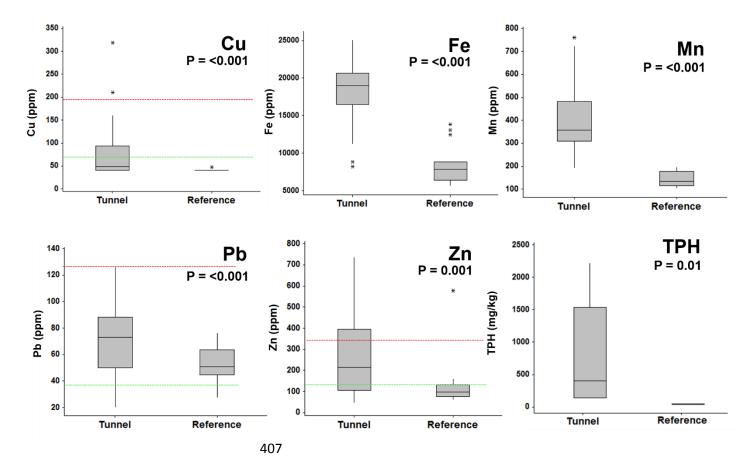


Figure 4. Comparison of major and minor elemental composition of sediments between tunnel and reference sites. Data aggregated from all sample months. n =24 for reference sites, n = 56 for tunnel sites. Green line shows Threshold Effects Level; Red line shows Probable Effects Level (see text for description)



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Table 1: Range of filtered elemental concentrations in water samples. *All elements in μ g/L excluding Ca, Mg, K and Na which are displayed in mg/L. *n* = 3 for Sustainable Urban Drainage System (SUDS) and Tunnel mouth. Ponded road surface samples were only available for collection on one occasion (Jan 16).

	SUDS	Tunnel entrances	Road Surface
рН	7.1-8.7	9.6-11.4	8.2
E.C. (μS/cm	507-1832 n)	710-3471	10,200
Ca	58-116	132-311	30
Mg	30-85	21.4	20
Na	30-290	488-646	1190
К	4-9	5-13	4
AI	31-96	201-253	105
Cr	1-2	9-12	1
Cu	5-11	4-6	38
Fe	22-2585	10-16	33
Mn	12-120	6-7	30
Pb	<lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""></lod<></td></lod<></td></lod<>	<lod< td=""><td><lod< td=""></lod<></td></lod<>	<lod< td=""></lod<>
Se	7-19	6-41	16
Sr	270-358	280-474	128
Zn	5.8-5.8	1-2	10
SI _{CaCO3}	-1.14 to +0.63	+1.45 to +1.97	-1.28 to -1.45

Table 2. Range of values for physicochemical parameters of sediment and elemental concentrations (ppm) taken for different sediment samples.

			430
	Reference	Tunnels	Road
рН	4.9-7.8	7.3-9.6	7.1-9.7
E.C. (µS/cm)	40.7-249.6	44.9-1872	26.9-874.1
Ca	4819-101868	32400-172800	30300-88861
Fe	5602-13846	11194-23502	8157-24184
К	7941-13538	12388-19089	8561-13538
Ti	2277-3710	2550-4806	1363-4520
Cu	40-47	40-210	75-320
Mn	65-196	191-761	210-725
Pb	27-76	20-126	24-76
Zn	61-279	48-736	65-491