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Platinum Group Elements contamination in soils: review of the current state

- 3 Lionel Savignan ^{a,b}, Stéphane Faucher ^{a,b}, Philippe Chéry* ^a, Gaëtane Lespes* ^b
- ^a Bordeaux Science Agro, EA 4592 Géoressources et environnement, 1 cours du Général
- 5 De Gaulle, 33175 Gradignan, France
- 6 ^b Université de Pau et des Pays de l'Adour / E2S UPPA, CNRS, Institut des Sciences
- 7 Analytiques et de Physico-Chimie pour l'Environnement et les Matériaux (IPREM), UMR
- 8 5254, Helioparc, 2 avenue Pierre Angot, 64053 Pau Cedex 09, France
- 9 * Corresponding authors: gaetane.lespes@univ-pau.fr, philippe.chery@agro-bordeaux.fr

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 nanoparticles

13 **Abstract:**

14 Platinum group elements (PGE: Ru, Rh, Pd, Os Ir, Pt) are rare metals with low abundance 15 in the continental crust. The elements of the palladium subgroup of PGE (PPGE: Pt, Pd, 16 Rh) have been exploited more and more over the last thirty years for their physicochemical 17 properties such as high melting point, high resistance to corrosion, mechanical strength and ductility. This led to emerging environmental contamination in different media such as 18 19 air, road dust, soil, sediment, vegetation, and snow. The aim of this review is to summarize 20 the available data on soil contamination by PPGE and its potential environmental impact. 21 In this paper, the environmental issue of PPGE is discussed with regard to their 22 anthropogenic emission and fate, which includes speciation, possible transformations into 23 bioavailable forms and toxicity. Soil contamination by PPGE is described taking into 24 account urban and non-urban areas. The analytical determination process is also 25 discussed.

26 **1. Introduction**

The Platinum Group consists of 6 elements, Ru, Rh, Pd, Os, Ir and Pt (Platinum Group 27 Elements, PGE). They are all siderophiles, and therefore concentrated in the core and 28 29 mantle of the Earth while they are scarce in the continental crust. The natural abundance in the upper continental crust varies according to the considered PGE (namely, in µg (PGE)) 30 kg⁻¹ (rock): 0.030 (Ru), 0.018 (Rh) 0.526 (Pd), 0.031 (Os), 0.022 (Ir) and 0.599 (Pt) (Park 31 32 et al., 2012; Peucker-Ehrenbrink and Jahn, 2001). The natural sources of PGE on the Earth's surface are volcanism, rock weathering and the deposition of extra-terrestrial 33 34 matter (Mitra and Sen, 2017). Given that both continental crust concentrations are low and 35 natural sources provide a limited amount of PGE to the Earth's surface, the fate of these 36 elements in the environment should be of limited concern. However, anthropogenic PGE emissions started at the beginning of the industrial period, around the 1750s. This was 37 evidenced because an accumulation of PGE in some soils was observed from that date. 38 For instance, the increased accumulation of osmium found in a peat bog in northwestern 39 40 Spain has been dated to this period (Rauch et al., 2010).

41 PGE are exploited due to their physical and chemical properties such as high melting 42 points, high corrosion resistance, mechanical strength and ductility. PGE have a high economic value and are involved in many applications such as catalytic converters, 43 44 electronics, drugs, and catalysts in the chemical industry. Due to their different physicochemical behaviour, PGE are divided into two subgroups: iridium PGE, also called 45 46 IPGE and composed of Ir, Os, Ru, and palladium PGE, also called PPGE and composed 47 of Pd, Pt, Rh (Mondal, 2011; Rollinson, 1993). The elements of the IPGE subgroup are 48 more siderophile, refractory, associated with chromites as alloys and sulphides in dunites. The elements of the PPGE subgroup are more chalcophile than IPGE, associated with 49 sulphides of Fe, Cu, Ni and gabbros, norites and dunites (Mondal, 2011; Rollinson, 1993). 50

[2]

51 The increasing use of PPGE (shown in Figure 1) and the release of these elements over 52 the last thirty years have led to the emergence of environmental contamination.

53 This has also led to an emerging issue regarding the potential impacts of these elements. From the resulting studies and monitoring, it appears that the PPGE concentrations are 54 increasing in different environmental media (air, road dust, roadside soil, sediment, 55 vegetation, snow...), these elements being significantly accumulated (Ely et al., 2001; 56 Moldovan et al., 2007; Rauch et al., 2004; Schäfer et al., 1998; Sen et al., 2013). For 57 58 example in Greenland, the concentrations measured in snow samples were 59 approximatively 40- (Pt), 80- (Pd), and 120 times (Rh) respectively higher than the values 60 in old ice (Barbante et al., 2001).

61 Therefore, in this review, an overview of the environmental issue of the PPGE emissions is first presented with respect to their sources, geochemical behaviour and potential toxicity 62 in soil environments. Then, the focus is on PPGE soil concentrations in various types of 63 areas (peri-urban and rural, urban, mining and roadside). This focus is motivated because 64 soils are among the main primary receptors of PPGE emissions; soils are also dynamic 65 66 environments where the physico-chemical states of these metals could change. Finally, analytical methods are described, since the PPGE determination is still critical in 67 68 environmental samples. The goal of this review is to highlight the needs of research on this 69 topic, including large-area assessments.

70 2. Environmental issue

71 2.1. Anthropogenic emission of PPGE

Anthropogenic emissions of PPGE come mainly from their production from ores (mining), the manufacture and use of products containing them and the resulting waste, as well as from fossil combustion and the use of carbon-based fossil materials containing traces of PPGE (Chyi, 1982; Finkelman and Aruscavage, 1981).

[3]

76 Mining activities have been identified as a significant source of PPGE in the environment (Rauch and Fatoki, 2015). The leading PPGE metal producing countries are South Africa 77 78 (Bushveld Complex) and Russia (Kola Peninsula, Norilsk). In 2016, these two countries 79 supplied 72% and 12% of the Pt production respectively (Johnson Mattey, 2017a). In 80 particular, ore smelters in South Africa greatly contribute to local soil contamination; in 81 Russia they are an important factor of local contamination of snow and soil. (Gregurek et 82 al., 1999; Niskavaara et al., 2004; Rauch and Fatoki, 2013). These activities are also 83 responsible for the transport of PPGE by airborne particles (Sen et al., 2013; Zereini et al., 84 2012). This leads to a dispersion of PPGE across the world with proven general 85 contamination of surface seawater (Chen et al., 2009), snow from Greenland, the Alps and 86 the Pyrenees (Barbante et al., 2001; Moldovan et al., 2007; Van de Velde et al., 2000), as 87 well as probably soil contamination (no data available).

88 Regarding the manufacture and use of products containing PPGE, Figure 2 provides an 89 overview of the relative distribution by industry of these elements. Nowadays, PPGE are 90 mainly used for vehicle catalytic converters. The catalytic converter was first introduced in the US in the 1970s and later in Europe in the 1980s. This device is now compulsory in 91 92 many countries in order to preserve air quality (e. g. EU Council Directive 91/441/EEC). The catalytic converter reduces emissions of carbon monoxide (CO), remaining 93 hydrocarbons (HC) and nitrogen oxides (NOx) respectively by oxidizing CO and HC to 94 95 carbon dioxide (CO_2) and reducing NOx to nitrogen (N_2).

96 The typical catalytic converter consists of: (i) a substrate, a ceramic monolith with a 97 honeycomb structure; (ii) a washcoat of metal oxide (aluminium and cerium); (iii) the 98 catalyst material, a mixture of Pt, Pd and Rh in nanocrystalline form attached to the metal 99 oxide (Gandhi et al., 2003). Experiments showed that the Pt emissions from catalytic 100 converter differ depending on its age, engine type and driving conditions (Moldovan et al., 101 2002; Palacios et al., 2000). For example, Artelt et al. (1999) measured the concentration

[4]

of Pt in the exhaust gases of new and used converters and found 22 and 14 ng m⁻³ 102 103 respectively. Pt emissions decrease because the platinum particles on the washcoat tend 104 to applomerate with age, so the particles are less abraded (Artelt et al., 1999). In order to 105 comply with the latest air quality regulations and reduce particle emissions, newer diesel 106 cars are also equipped with a Diesel Particle Filter (DPF) usually made of a honeycomb 107 ceramic monolith. DPF may contain a PPGE catalytic coating (catalysed DPF) (Hartwig, 108 1985). In tests performed on heavy-duty diesel vehicles operating at constant speed, the 109 measured Pt emissions were found to be higher for vehicles equipped with catalysed DPF 110 than for vehicles without DPF (Hu et al., 2009). DPF can also be placed after a catalytic 111 converter. In this case, Cairns et al. (2011) found that DPF set on passenger cars fitted 112 with catalytic converters reduced the emissions of PPGE by up to 97% for Pt. Annual 113 global emissions of PPGE from cars are estimated at 14.5 tons Pt, 35 tons Pd, and 3 tons 114 Rh. This corresponds to a contribution to the total surface deposition of 4.6%, 8.2% and 2% 115 for Pt, Pd, Rh respectively (Mitra and Sen, 2017). The other possible emissions into the 116 environment from other sectors of activity such as the chemical, electrical and electronic 117 industry and jewellery are not documented to our knowledge. However, nowadays electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) contains traces of PPGE (e.g. 125 mg kg⁻¹ of Pd 118 119 in smartphones (Cesaro et al., 2018)) and their waste accounts for up to 20 to 50 million 120 tons worldwide each year (Cucchiella et al., 2015). Since waste management of EEE 121 includes landfill and smelting (Gramatyka et al., 2007), it is likely this sector contributes to 122 the release of PPGE to the environment.

123 In urban areas more specifically, and generally in areas containing hospital, water 124 treatment plant or waste dump, sewage and solid waste are also sources of PPGE. The 125 medical field uses Pt-based drugs (i.e. cisplatin, carboplatin) against cancer (Cowley and 126 Woodward, 2011). Drugs excreted by patients can therefore be released into the 127 environment. In hospital effluents, Pt was found with concentrations ranging from less than

[5]

128 10 ng L⁻¹ to 3500 ng L⁻¹ (Kümmerer et al., 1999). In several cities of the United Kingdom, 129 the maximum concentrations found of Pt and Pd are respectively 192 and 191 μ g kg⁻¹ in 130 sewage sludge, and 602 and 710 μ g kg⁻¹ in incinerator ash (Jackson et al., 2010). The 131 increase in the Pd concentration in sewage sludge correlates with the Pd demand by the 132 dental industry (Leopold et al., 2008).

In addition to these sources, there are emissions of PPGE, which are not directly related to the production, or use of these elements. Indeed, the combustion of coal for various uses also contributes to Pt emissions for quantities estimated at 0.001 to 0.2 tons per year (Rauch and Peucker-Ehrenbrink, 2015). The most recent estimates of annual emissions from coal combustion are 1 and 4 tons for Pt and Pd respectively (Mitra and Sen, 2017).

138 In summary, Figures 1 and 2 as well as the data presented above show that while vehicle 139 exhausts are the main source of anthropogenic emission of PPGE, other sources such as 140 industrial activities, fossil combustion and those related to urban life significantly contribute 141 to the global quantities released into the environment. Atmospheric dispersion must also 142 be taken into account because it contributes to the contamination of environments far from 143 sources.

144 2.2. *PPGE in soil*

Background. In order to assess the contamination and identify the sources, the 145 146 determination of the background concentration is therefore important. Since almost all 147 studies on PPGE contamination focus on roadside environments, background values are 148 usually taken as PPGE concentrations in areas with low population density and low traffic, 149 without further details or selection criteria (Table 1). For example, Ely et al. (2001) used as 150 background a sample collected 1 km from the road in South Bend (USA). They obtained a background concentration of Pt of 3.63 µg kg⁻¹; however, this value was 7 times more than 151 152 the mean abundance in the upper continental crust. Jarvis et al. (2001) collected as 153 background a sample in a park outside an urban zone and measured Pt concentrations

[6]

lower than 0.21 µg kg⁻¹, which was of the same order as that of the upper continental 154 155 crust. In both cases, no information was available about the bedrock. For studies on 156 roadside environments, this does not necessarily have any consequences because the 157 PPGE accumulation is relatively high. However, in general, the influence and the nature of 158 the bedrock should be taken in account. This is particularly the case in areas where there 159 is no PPGE mining activity. To illustrate the variability of the background values, examples 160 are given in Table 1. For instance, in Italy, soils formed on volcanic rocks have a slightly 161 higher background values than soils formed on sedimentary rocks (Cicchella et al., 2008). 162 It is the opposite in Germany were soil on guaternary sand have higher values than soil 163 derived from volcanic formations (see Table 1) (Schäfer and Puchelt, 1998). Thus, from all 164 these examples, it is obvious that knowledge of the geochemical background is crucial for 165 any study, especially on non-urban areas. However, this value may be difficult to determine 166 because field sampling is not always easily accessible and the analytical determination of very low concentration can be difficult. 167

168 Peri-urban and rural areas. Non-urban areas concern many environments with different 169 characteristics, and more or less anthropized. Great variability of PPGE concentrations is 170 therefore expected. Table 1 (median values) and Figure 3 (concentration ranges) 171 summarize and illustrate this variability depending on the environment considered. Data on 172 the concentration of PPGE in soils in non-urban areas are very scarce as very few studies 173 were conducted in these environments. Existing data include those from forest and 174 agricultural soil samples from Berlin surroundings, mainly in a peri-urban area (Table 1). The median Pt values in this area were 2.98 and 5.83 µg kg⁻¹ for agricultural and forest 175 176 soils respectively (Birke et al., 2018). However, these authors showed that the source was not catalytic converters. For agricultural soils, contamination from agricultural activities 177 may be possible because trace amounts of Pt in fertilizers were found up to 2.3 µg kg⁻¹ (Alt 178 179 et al., 1997). In farms, wastewater is also used for irrigation and fertilization of agricultural

[7]

lands, and sewage sludge for soil amendment. As above-mentioned, these wastes can
contain high concentrations of PPGE. Therefore, soil treated with wastewater or sewage
sludge may be contaminated (Table 1). For example, in soils from farms around Berlin
using field treatment with sewage, the maximum concentration of Pt was 82.6 µg kg⁻¹
(Birke et al., 2018).

185 In rural environment, atmospheric contamination is lower than in urban areas (Zereini et al., 186 2012). Nevertheless, there is evidence for regional and global transport of PPGE from 187 multiple anthropogenic sources (Rauch et al., 2005; Sen et al., 2013; Zereini et al., 2012). 188 To our knowledge, only two studies were conducted to assess the spatial variability of 189 PPGE in soil over a large area. Thus, the Kola Ecogeochemistry project investigated 190 PPGE and Au concentrations in podzolic horizons and moss over an area of 188,000 km² 191 in the European Arctic (Niskavaara et al., 2004). Median values are presented in Table 1. A 192 Pd and Pt significant enrichment was observed close to the Russian mining areas. 193 Geogenic sources of PPGE and Au were also identified with high metal concentrations in 194 the deep horizon. In Southern Italy, topsoil samples were collected from the Campania 195 region, including urban, suburban and agricultural areas. A relationship was established 196 between high concentrations of Pt and Pd in soils, PM₁₀ airborne and high traffic areas 197 (Zuzolo et al., 2018). Unfortunately, in this study, the influence of the bedrock could not be 198 determined as the method detection limits were too high (2 and 10 µg kg⁻¹ for Pt and Pd respectively). 199

Urban areas. Few studies were conducted focusing on the spatial distribution of PGE over an entire urban area and not only at the roadside (Birke et al., 2018; Cicchella et al., 2008; Orecchio and Amorello, 2011). This type of study is based on Geographical Information System (GIS). It enables PPGE sources to be characterised by multivariate statistical analysis. Thus, over a given area and depending on scale, the median local concentration and the geochemical baseline can be determined, and/ or a possible non-point source

[8]

206 identified. For example, in the low population density area of Benevento (Italia), PPGE 207 concentrations close to the background were found with the exception of the industrial 208 zone; on the contrary, in the high population density area of Salerno, the range of 209 concentration was similar to that of the road environment; and concentrations of PPGE 210 and other traffic-related heavy metals were found to significantly correlate, which 211 established the car traffic as the source of contamination (Cicchella et al., 2008). From the 212 Berlin inner city surveys, Birke et al. (2018) were also able to quantify the accumulation of 213 PPGE over a 20-year interval, with increasing factors of 1.5 for Pt, 3.0 for Pd and 4.3 for 214 Rh.

215 In order to identify the sources of PPGE, Pt/Pd, Pt/Rh and Pd/Rh elemental ratios can be 216 calculated. Ely et al. (2001) compiled PPGE ratios in catalytic converters and defined the 217 ranges: Pt/Pd from 1 to 2.5, Pd/Rh from 4 to 9 and Pt/Rh from 5 to 16. Although these 218 ranges of values do not include any possible recent discrepancies in PPGE ratios in 219 catalytic converter (e.g. the use of catalysts with Pd-Rh only), these ratios were used as 220 indicators of the automotive source in many studies. For instance, Birke et al. (2018) found 221 median ratios from roadside samples within the previously defined catalytic converter 222 range: Pt/Pd 2.42, Pd/Rh 4.19 Pt/Rh 11.0. However, Rauch and Peucker-Ehrenbrink (2015) 223 suggested that many studies were conducted with a presumption of potential sources and 224 that the relative importance of different sources of PPGE depends on the specific 225 characteristics of an urban area.

Mining areas. PPGE ores are naturally occurring in ultramafic to mafic-layered intrusions such as peridotite, pyroxenite and dunite. In the soils of PPGE ore zone, concentrations can reach very high values with a maximum up to 1000 μ g kg⁻¹ (Figure 3). In this type of region contamination, the soil surface is contaminated from the rich geochemical background and surface pollution from mining activities, in particular smelters (Rauch and Fatoki, 2015).

[9]

232 Roadside soil. Early studies of PPGE contamination focused on roadside soils in cities or 233 near highways, as these soils represent the closest environment to the main source of 234 contamination from catalytic converters. Median values measured in different worldwide 235 cities are summarised in Table 1. In addition, Figure 3 presents an overview of the PPGE 236 concentration ranges found in soils. All of the median (or average) values compiled in the 237 quoted studies exceed the element abundance in the earth crust. Most studies focused on 238 the PPGE concentrations distribution with distance from the road. The following pattern was found: high values up to hundreds µg kg⁻¹ for Pt, up to ten µg kg⁻¹ for Pd and Rh, near 239 240 the road, then decreasing concentrations with the depth and distance from the road (Ely et 241 al., 2001; Jarvis et al., 2001; Schäfer and Puchelt, 1998; Zereini et al., 2007). Temporal 242 studies clearly highlighted the increase and accumulation of PPGE in roadside soils over 243 several years (Schäfer et al., 1999; Zereini et al., 2007). Some recent studies of urban 244 soils and dust have pointed out that the increase in Pd concentration is particularly 245 important (Spada et al., 2012; Wiseman et al., 2016). For example, near A5 highway in 246 Germany, the median concentrations between 1994 and 2004 increased by15 times for 247 Pd, compared to only 2 and 1.6 times for Pt and Rh, respectively (Zereini et al., 2007). 248 This reflects a greater current use of Pd in catalytic converters due to both the price 249 difference between Pd and Pt and the better performances achieved with Pd (Cooper and Beecham, 2013). 250

In summary, there is clear contamination by PPGE in soils from urban area and mining zone, and near roads. Only little information is available about contamination in rural areas and their possible sources. Further large area assessments of soil contamination, based on a GIS approach, could help determine regional or national median concentration, spatial distribution and geochemical baseline, as well as identify a possible non-point source. It could also help to calculate the PPGE stock in soils since it was made for other

[10]

257 metals like Pb (e.g. Larcarce et al. (2012)). These assessments should be supported by
258 well-established soil monitoring networks (Morvan et al., 2008).

259 2.3. Geochemical behavior of PPGE in soils

260 PPGE from catalytic converters are emitted as nanoparticles (NPs) in their oxidation state 261 (0), or in water-soluble oxidized form. From bench tests, Artelt et al. (1999) found that more than 99% of platinum is emitted in the nanoparticle form. The presence of a 262 263 predominantly particulate fraction in PPGE emissions is expected due to the fact that 264 PPGE are actually in the form of nanoparticles (more reactive than the bulk metal) in 265 catalytic converters (Lustig et al., 1998; Nachtigall et al., 1996). However, the experiments 266 performed by Moldovan et al. (2002) revealed a soluble fraction was emitted, and this 267 fraction was higher when catalyst aged due to physical and chemical alteration. Thus, in 268 Madrid (Spain), the soluble fraction was estimated to be 10% of total city traffic emission 269 for Pt, and 40% for Pd and Rh. Therefore, behavioural studies in soils of both soluble and 270 nanoparticle forms of anthropogenic PPGE are of interest.

271

2.3.1. PPGE soluble forms

272 The solubility and soluble species of PPGE are of interest to understand the environmental 273 dispersion of PPGE. Studies were carried out to determine the solubility of PPGE under 274 various physicochemical conditions similar to those found in the environment. Different 275 thermodynamic studies have investigated the dissolution of PPGE metallic forms 276 (Azaroual et al., 2001; Cobelo-García, 2013; Colombo et al., 2008; Suchá et al., 2016). 277 The dissolution occurs by oxidation of PPGE leading to Pt(+II), Pd(+II) and Rh(+III) 278 species. At the same time, these species can complex with various ligands. The hydroxide 279 ion is a ligand playing a crucial role, the pH being one of the factors controlling the 280 solubilisation of PPGE (Azaroual et al., 2001; Kalbitz et al., 2008; Suchá et al., 2016; Zereini et al., 1997). The main processes leading to uncharged and charged species areas follows according to the considered PPGE:

283 Me(s) + 1/2 O₂ + 2 H₂O
$$\Leftrightarrow$$
 Me(OH)_n²⁻ⁿ + (2-n) OH⁻, with n= 1 or 2

284 or

285 Me(s) + 1/2 O₂ + (n-2) OH⁻ + 2 H₂O \Leftrightarrow Me(OH)_n²⁻ⁿ, with n= 2 or 4

286 where Me represents Pt and Pd; and:

287 2 Rh(s) +
$$3/2 O_2$$
 + 3 H₂O \Leftrightarrow 2 Rh(OH)_n³⁻ⁿ+ (6–2n) OH⁻, with n= 1 to 3

288 or

289 2 Rh(s) + 3/2 O₂ + (2n-6) OH⁻ + 3 H₂O \Leftrightarrow 2 Rh(OH)_n³⁻ⁿ, with n= 3 to 6

Different thermodynamic modelling was carried out on the PPGE speciation with pH. 290 291 Regarding Pt, two different speciation diagrams were proposed by Azaroual et al. (2001) 292 and Colombo et al. (2008). Azaroual et al. (2001) indicated that PPGE form hydroxyl 293 complexes over the entire range of pH except under very acidic and oxidizing conditions, while Colombo et al. (2008) stated that PPGE form hydroxyl complexes whatever the pH. 294 295 In addition, according to Azaroual et al. (2001), Pt is predominant as $Pt(OH)^+$ at pH < 9 and Pt(OH)₂ at pH > 9; according to Colombo et al. (2008), Pt is predominant as Pt(OH)⁺ at 296 pH < 1, Pt(OH)₂ at 1 < pH < 11.5, and Pt(OH)₄²⁻ at pH > 11.5. Regarding Pd, Suchà et al. 297 (2016) reported that $Pd(OH)_2$ is preponderant, $Pd(OH)^+$ also existing at 2 < pH < 3. 298 299 Colombo et al. (2008) found that the predominant dissolved species are Pd(OH)₂ at 2 < pH < 12, Pd^{2+} under oxidizing and acidic conditions, and $Pd(OH)_3^-$ and $Pd(OH)_4^{2-}$ at pH > 12300 301 and 13 respectively. Regarding Rh, Colombo et al. (2008) indicated that no 302 thermodynamic data were available for Rh-hydroxide aqueous complexes. More recently, Cobelo-Garcià (2013) reported that the following species coexist: Rh^{3+} (pH < 4), $Rh(OH)^{+2}$ 303 $(pH < 5), Rh(OH)_2^+ (2 < pH < 6), Rh(OH)_3 (2.5 < pH < 9.5), Rh(OH)_4^- (5 < pH < 11.5),$ 304 $Rh(OH)_{5}^{-2}$ (7 < pH < 13), and $Rh(OH)_{6}^{-3}$ (pH > 9). 305

Leaching tests performed on different catalytic converters (gasoline and diesel, old and new) confirmed the quantities of soluble species released depended on both the pH and the wear state of the converter (Suchá et al., 2016). Leaching of Pt from contaminated soils, as well as arable and forest soils showed the same pH-dependence (Kalbitz et al., 2008; Zereini et al., 1997).

311 Other ligands capable to stabilise Pt(+II), Pd(+II) and Rh(+III) dissolved species were reported such as SO_4^2 , NO_3 , Cl, PO_3^2 . The quantitativity of PPGE solubilisation in 312 presence of anions varies in this order: $NO_3^- > CI^- > SO_4^{2-} > PO_3^{2-}$, Pd being the most 313 314 soluble element and Pt the least soluble (Zereini et al., 2017, 1997). Pyrophosphate and 315 triphosphate anions also increase Pt solubility (Lustig et al., 1998); in this case, the 316 kinetics of solubilisation of Pd from gasoline and diesel catalytic converters is faster in the 317 presence of pyrophosphate. Another study of the interaction of PPGE with various ligands 318 such as OH⁻, NH₃ and Cl⁻ predicted that the predominant PPGE complexes depend on the 319 ligand concentration (Colombo et al., 2008).

320 Naturally occurring organic complexing agents are also involved in the transformation of 321 PPGE into soluble forms. Thus, the PPGE solubility was found to increase in the presence 322 of fulvic acids, with likely formation of dissolved PPGE-humate complexes (Cobelo-García, 323 2013; Koshcheeva et al., 2016; Wood, 1996, 1990; Wood et al., 1994). Nevertheless, long 324 term leaching experiment (60 days) with PPGE from catalytic converters and fulvic acids 325 showed that Pt and Pd were released from the catalytic converters and then immobilised, 326 possibly due to flocculation of fulvic acids bound to metals (Šebek et al., 2011). In addition, 327 Pt in solution and humic acids formed insoluble Pt-humic acid complexes (Lustig et al., 1998, 1996). Interestingly, experiments showed that $PtCl_6^{2-}$ and $PtCl_4^{2-}$ are re-complexed 328 into insoluble species when mixed with humic soil while insoluble PtO₂ was not affected by 329 330 the presence of soil (Lustig et al., 1996).

[13]

331 Non-humic natural organic substances contain relatively low molecular weight molecules 332 such as amino acids; simple organic fat acids and waxes can also complex PPGE. In soils, 333 plant roots can freely and passively release these substances. Among them, the amino 334 acids L-methionine and L-histidine were shown to form soluble complexes with Pt and Pd 335 (Lustig et al., 1998; Zereini et al., 2016). Root exudates contain simple organic acids such 336 as citric acid, which was also shown to complex Pt and Pd (Sebek et al., 2011; Zereini et 337 al., 2016). In addition, the kinetics of complexation of Pt and Pd by citric acid was found to 338 be rapid compared with other complexing agents such as pyrophosphate and fulvic acids (Šebek et al., 2011). 339

340 Soil components can be positively or negatively charged depending on the pH. Thus, the 341 sorption behaviour of dissolved PPGE is important to access. Different studies were 342 performed on soil minerals such as kaolinite, Mn/Fe-oxides, guartz, feldspar, calcite 343 (Dikikh et al., 2007; Jean-Soro et al., 2013; Suchá et al., 2016). Kaolinite and Fe/Mn 344 oxides have the highest sorption capacity compared to these other minerals (Dikikh et al., 345 2007). Thus, dissolved Pt, Pd and Rh are quantitatively sorbed by kaolinite, which can 346 develop positive charges at a pH around 6 (100% removal from dissolved phase). At this 347 pH, positive charges can develop on AI-OH sites, promoting the sorption capacity of kaolinite (Jean-Soro et al., 2013). Sorption capacity values up to 6,000 µg kg⁻¹ (kaolinite) 348 349 and 1,200 µg kg⁻¹ (Fe oxide) were determined for Pt (Jean-Soro et al., 2013). Such 350 capacities were due to the large surface area of the two materials, the oxide porosity, the 351 pH and surface electric charges. All of these results indicate that dissolved PPGE are likely 352 associated with clays in soils. Thus, the soil physical texture and mineral composition are 353 important parameters driving the PPGE mobility.

354 2.3.2. PPGE nanoparticle forms

As mentioned above, PPGE are mainly released as NPs in the environment. Therefore,
the behaviour of anthropogenic PPGE NPs is of interest. The mobility of Pt and Pd from Pt

[14]

357 and Pd nanoparticles coated with citrate (cPt/cPd NPs) and uncoated (Pt/Pd NPs) was 358 evaluated relative to the metal salts, Pt(II) and Pd(II) (Leopold et al., 2018). Mobility 359 increased in this order Pt(II) > cPd NPs > Pd(II) > Pd NPs > Pt NPs > cPt NPs. The higher 360 mobilisation of Pd compared to Pt by dissolution of NPs can be explained by a possible 361 oxidative decomposition of non-stabilised Pd NPs while Pt NPs were found to be more 362 stable. For the coated nanoparticles, the difference in mobility came from the higher 363 negative surface charge of the cPd NPs ($\zeta = -70$ mV), which stabilised the nanoparticles to 364 remain in suspension while the cPt NPs, which had a lower surface charge ($\zeta = -14$ mV), 365 could form hetero and homo-agglomerates. In addition, uncoated Pt NPs had a higher 366 surface charge ($\zeta = -28$ mV) than cPt NPs, which explains their higher mobility. Migration 367 experiments were performed in the same study with the same Pd species in the soil and 368 two other porous media, SiO₂ and sand. In all three media, cPd NPs were found to have 369 the highest mobility. Pd(II) was highly retained due to the interaction with the mineral phase. The difference in migration between coated and uncoated particles can further be 370 371 explained by their difference in surface charge, high negative values preventing 372 aggregation. An in-situ migration experiment on two Siberian soils with platinum 373 nanoparticles (Pt NPs) led to results depending on the following characteristics of the soils: 374 organic matter content, porosity and particle size (Kulizhskiy et al., 2017). Thus, an 375 adsorption of Pt NPs on humic layers was observed. Vertical migration of Pt NPs was also 376 greater in sandy loamy soil than in loamy soil due to the greater porosity of the sandy 377 loamy soil. Furthermore, a negative correlation between the Pt NPs concentration and the 378 bulk density of soils was highlighted.

In summary, the PPGE emitted as NPs by the catalytic converter can be solubilised in soils and form stable complexes in the presence of natural inorganic and organic ligands, or can be sorbed on minerals (kaolinite, Fe/Mn oxides) and organic layers. Speciation depends on ligands present in the environment and on physicochemical conditions. In addition, soil

[15]

properties such as surface area, porosity, pH, surface electric charge, and density affect the PPGE mobility. As NPs, PPGE can aggregate or remain stable in suspension depending on the presence of a coating. Moreover, in the environment, engineered NPs are often coated by natural organic materials, which modify their properties (Surette and Nason, 2019). Therefore, further studies on this subject would be of interest to understand the fate of PPGE NPs.

389 2.4. Uptake and toxicity of PPGE to plants and soil life

As shown in the previous section, PPGE can be transformed into water-soluble species.
The question of bioavailability and uptake of PPGE by plants can therefore be raised.

392 Table 2 presents typical PPGE concentrations found in plants from various environments. Concentrations of up to a few hundred $\mu g kg^{-1}$ were found in native plants growing in the 393 394 vicinity of PPGE ore deposits. This indicates that plants can significantly bioaccumulate 395 these metals (Rencz and Hall, 1992). Therefore, bioaccumulative plants are used for the 396 biogeochemical prospecting of PPGE (Kovalevskii, 2001). The most studied plant is grass, 397 which usually grows on the roadside soil. The maximum Pt concentrations in grass were 30 µg kg⁻¹ and 256 µg kg⁻¹, respectively near highways and smelter, (Djingova et al., 2003; 398 399 Rauch and Fatoki, 2013). In the study by Hooda et al. (2008), a significant correlation (r =400 0.66) was found for Rh between its total concentrations in plants and soil. Nevertheless, 401 the PPGE content in plants may not only reflect soil contamination but also atmospheric 402 contamination, as is the case with grass sampled near smelters (Rauch and Fatoki, 2013). 403 To overcome this difficulty, plants from the division briophyta (moss) can be used. This is 404 because they do not have a root system. Therefore, they reflect atmospheric deposition 405 and are used for biomonitoring of this process (Ayrault et al., 2006).

The plant bioaccumulation factor was found to be low (up to 0.03) for Rye grass grown on a soil treated with Pt (Djingova et al., 2003). Similar results were obtained by Lustig et al. (1997) for Pt taken up by radish, potato and bean grown naturally on soil treated with Pt(s)

[16]

409 contained in tunnel dust. The authors suggested that Pt was first oxidised in the soil and 410 then sorbed onto the soil matrix. Moreover, in cultivation experiments with contaminated 411 soil, the soil-to-plant bioaccumulation factor of Pt, Pd, Rh was found to be similar to that of 412 Cu, Pb, Cd, Zn (Schäfer et al., 1998). The bioaccumulation factor of PPGE in this 413 experiment increased in this order $Rh \le Pt < Pd$, making Pd the most bioavailable element. 414 In a study by Verstraete et al. (1998), cucumbers were grown under hydroponic conditions 415 in a Pt salt-containing medium ($[Pt(NH_3)_4](NO_3)_2$). These experiments enabled the uptake 416 and bioaccumulation of Pt in the roots to be highlighted, with a bioaccumulation factor up 417 to 2098; translocation in the shoots was found to be limited, with a bioaccumulation factor of up to 42 (Verstraete et al., 1998). The distribution in the different plant parts was: root > 418 leaf > stem (Bonanno, 2011; Kolodziej et al., 2007; Leopold and Schuster, 2011; 419 420 Messerschmidt et al., 1994; Ronchini et al., 2015). The well-known toxic trace metals (Cd, 421 Cr, Pb, Hg) have the same tendency of bioaccumulation in plants (Peralta-Videa et al., 422 2009). Negative biological effects were observed after exposure to PPGE. Typically, these 423 effects are a decrease in germination rate of plant seeds, growth rate, biomass production 424 and photosynthesis activity (Battke et al., 2008; Diehl and Gagnon, 2007; Farago and 425 Parsons, 1994; Odjegba et al., 2007; Ronchini et al., 2015). They occurred for hydroponic PPGE exposure in the mg L^{-1} concentration range, while for non-essential metals such as 426 427 Cd, Cr and Hg toxic effects occurred at lower concentration range (< 0.1 mg L^{-1}) (Das et al., 428 1997; Patra and Sharma, 2000; Shanker et al., 2005). For Arabidopsis thaliana L. under 429 hydroponic conditions, photosynthesis appeared to be stimulated with Pt(II) concentrations 430 below 488 µg L⁻¹, while growth inhibition and membrane damage were observed with 431 higher concentrations, which is typical of the hormesis phenomenon (Gawrońska et al., 432 2018). Hormesis was also observed with peas (*Pisum sativum*) treated with a solution of Pd: the root diameter and volume increased with a Pd concentration lower than 1 mg L^{-1} , 433 434 while they decreased with higher concentrations. This biphasic response to a stress factor

is common in plants and has been observed with various non-essential toxic metals such
as Cd, Cr, Al and Hg (Calabrese and Blain, 2009; Poschenrieder et al., 2013). Likewise, as
non-essential metals, these hormetic effects seen with PPGE may involve various
adaptive mechanisms, e.g. activation of the plant's general defence reaction with the
metals acting as stimulators of antioxidant defences (Poschenrieder et al., 2013).

440 Little is known about the toxicity of PPGE to animals living in soils. The effects of PPGE on 441 the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans were investigated (Schertzinger et al., 2017). Half 442 maximal effective concentration (EC_{50}) for Pt was determined for its effect on reproduction, fertility and growth (96h EC₅₀ = 497 μ g L⁻¹ (exposure medium); 726 μ g L⁻¹ and 808 μ g L⁻¹ 443 respectively). The 96h EC₅₀ for Pd ranged between 10 and 100 μ g L⁻¹ for its effect on 444 445 reproduction, while no significant trend was found for its effect on fertility and growth. No EC₅₀ was determined for Rh, as no effect on growth, fertility and reproduction was 446 observed in the concentration range of 100 to 10,000 μ g L⁻¹ (Schertzinger et al., 2017). 447 448 Two other studies on soil-living invertebrates (collembolans Folsomia candida and soil 449 worm *Enchytraeus crypticus*) were conducted with a longer exposure duration (28 days) 450 (Havelkova et al., 2014; Nemcova et al., 2013, 2012). For both species, Pd appeared to 451 have the lower EC 50. This trend is the same as for nematodes with shorter exposure time 452 (96h).

In summary, it is clearly established that plants accumulate PPGE, especially in the root part. However, the negative biological effects on plants occur over a range of mg L⁻¹ concentration range in an exposure solution, which is significantly greater than the expected concentration in the soil solution. Therefore, these effects are unlikely to be observed under real field conditions. Since little information is available on the toxicity of PPGE for animals, their possible transfer into the food chain, and human health, further studies should be carried out.

460 **3. Determination of PPGE in soil**

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461 As this review focuses on PPGE in soils, only publications on the determination of PPGE 462 in soils and solid environmental samples such as dust, sediment or sewage sludge are 463 considered in this section. The most commonly used methods are shown in Table 3, along 464 with the available analytical information. This table aims to compare the entire process of 465 determination and not the instrumental performances. The PPGE determination remains a 466 challenge due to the complexity of the matrices, the low PPGE concentrations, the 467 numerous matrix effects and the numerous spectral interferences observed. Solid analysis 468 techniques such as laser ablation, X-ray fluorescence or ion probe are generally not 469 sensitive enough for the determination of PPGE in soil matrix. The general analytical 470 process for the determination of PPGE involves: extraction from the matrix to release the 471 analytes in the dissolved phase; possible post-digestion extraction of PPGE to remove 472 chemical residues from the matrix, this step can be associated with a pre-concentration: 473 and elemental determination by spectrometry or electrochemical techniques. These steps 474 are discussed thereafter. It should be kept in mind that this section mainly presents the 475 methods used in environmental studies; analytical developments for the determination 476 PPGE are underway but they may not have yet been transposed into environmental 477 studies.

478 3.1. Sample preparation

479 Sample decomposition. As it is usually performed for the elemental determination, the 480 matrix destructuring is obtained by digestion with a mixture of concentrated acid. Although 481 the acid mixtures differ with studies, the acids generally used are nitric acid, and either 482 hydrochloric acid or perchloric and hydrofluoric acids. Some authors reported that 483 digestion with aqua regia alone is not sufficient to recover Pt and Pd from siliceous 484 matrices (Borisov et al., 1997; Köllensperger et al., 2000; Totland et al., 1995; Tsogas et al., 485 2008). The process can also involve an evaporation step to remove HF and / or chlorides 486 and possibly to concentrate the analytes, and the final volume can be adjusted with dilute 487 nitric acid solution. An additional digestion step with HNO₃ can be performed and possibly 488 repeated, in order to increase the quantity of analytes released in the dissolved phase 489 (Orecchio and Amorello, 2011; Wiseman et al., 2016). However, these successive 490 digestions do not always enable the matrix to be completely digested and therefore 491 dissolved, total dissolution being the guarantee of total recovery of the analytes. In 492 addition, these additional digestion steps can induce loss of analytes, contamination of 493 samples, and are time consuming.

494 A specific method for determining noble metals using fire assay was also reported 495 (Mihaljevič et al., 2013; Morcelli et al., 2005; Wichmann et al., 2007; Zereini et al., 2007). 496 Fire assay using nickel sulphide (NiS) is widely used to determine PGE in environmental 497 samples. This method enables not only the matrix to be destructured but also the metals 498 soluble in NiS to be extracted and pre-concentrated (Wichmann et al., 2007; Zereini et al., 499 2007). The advantage of fire assay pre-treatment is the high amount of sample (10 - 50)500 g), which solve the problem of low amount of PPGE. However, a high amount of Ni can 501 lead to high blanks value during instrumental determination because Ni may contain PPGE 502 impurities.

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503 Another strategy for releasing analytes is to extract them directly from the solid matrix by 504 sequential leaching. In that case, the objective is not to obtain the total concentration of 505 elements but to determine the elements bound to the mobile fractions. For example, in the 506 study by Van der Horst et al. (2018), a chemical sequential extraction procedure was used 507 to extract the PPGE bound to fractions of organic matter, carbonates, and Fe-Mn oxides.

Post-digestion extraction. It is performed with a volume of digestate ranging from 1 to 100 508 509 mL according to the publications (Jarvis et al., 1997; Kovacheva and Djingova, 2002; Wu 510 et al., 2004). Two methods are often used: ionic (anionic or anionic) exchange and 511 extraction based on co-precipitation with Hg or Te (Alsenz et al., 2009; Niskavaara and 512 Kontas, 1990; Wiseman et al., 2016). The anion exchange resin is preferred over cationic 513 resin because of the smaller volume required to elute PPGE (Kovacheva and Djingova, 514 2002). Co-precipitation with Hg in more effecient than with Te, but involves a step of 515 evaporation of Hg, which is neither respectful of health not the environment (Alsenz et al., 516 2009). An organic solvent can also be used for extraction of PPGE. For example, methyl 517 isobutyl ketone (MIBK) widely used for metal extraction was used for analysis of soils 518 containing PPGE at environmental levels (Choudhury, 2016). However, this technique 519 requires a relatively high amount of reagents.

520 Pre-concentration. This step can be carried out to overcome the dilution due to the 521 digestion, and / or extraction. This is also necessary when the detection method is not 522 sufficiently sensitive (discussed below). For example, Wu et al. (2004) used a YPA₄ 523 chelating resin (aminoisopropylmercaptan type with a polythioether backbone, containing 524 24.89% S and 7.82% N), either in batch or in column mode. The column appeared to be 525 more efficient because the volume of digestate or extract used could be adjusted, with an 526 enrichment factor up to 100 for a volume of 100 mL. Recently, new techniques of 527 extraction and pre-concentration have been developed for the determination of 528 contaminants in the environment: cloud point extraction (CPE) and dispersive liquid liquid

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529 microextraction (DLLME). CPE is based on a surfactant in aqueous solution that can form 530 micelles. When heated above the cloud point temperature, these micelles form a turbid 531 cloud (the micellar solution) in which the hydrophobic metal complexe is "trapped" and 532 concentrated. The advantages of this technique are simple operation, low cost, and high 533 capacity to concentrate. For the Pd pre-concentration factor, up to 28 was reached (Table 534 3). DLLME is based on solvents with high sorption capacity and dispersive solvents. The 535 technique consists of the injection into an aqueous solution of fine droplets of the solvent 536 that will preconcentrate the analyte. The phase separation is performed by centrifugation. 537 An evaporation step may also be necessary depending on the instrumental determination. 538 The advantages are the small volume of reagents and sample required, the simplicity and 539 the high preconcentration capacity. Several solvents were used for the determination of Pd in soil samples, with a pre-concentration factor up to 156. 540

541 3.2. Elemental determination

542 Different analytical methods, mainly elemental spectrometric but also electrochemical,
543 have been used to determine the PPGE in the (sub) µg kg⁻¹ concentration range (Table 3).
544 Several analytical aspects of these methods are discussed: vaporization process,
545 sensitivity, accuracy and interferences.

546 Vaporization process. When atomic spectrometry without an inductively coupled plasma (ICP) source is used, special attention must be paid to the vaporization process of the 547 548 sample. Some methods employed electrothermal vaporization (ETV) in a graphite furnace. 549 However, this process, performed at a relatively low temperature (around 2200-2600°C) 550 compared to plasma, can induce the formation of refractory compounds such as carbides, 551 and memory effects due to the matrix. To overcome these problems, the matrix can be 552 "neutralized" or removed. Thus, in the study by Wu et al. (2004), the YPA₄ chelating resin 553 was used for preconcentration (as seen above) and also as a chemical modifier to prevent 554 matrix effects. Under these conditions, the vaporization was quantitative at a temperature

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555 of 1900°C. In the study by Zereini et al. (2007) as in the previous study guoted, a graphite furnace and electrothermal vaporization were also used. The PPGE were simultaneously 556 extracted from the matrix and concentrated by a NiS fire assay. Under these conditions, 557 558 usual temperatures of 2200°C to 2350°C were found to be sufficient for quantitative 559 vaporization. The use of atomic spectrometry with ICP source overcomes these difficulties. Sensitivity. The instrumental limits of detection (LOD), evaluated from the analysis of 560 561 standard solutions of Pd, Pt and Rh, are as expected in atomic spectrometry: Inductively 562 coupled plasma- Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES) provides the highest LOD (in the range of µg L⁻¹) and Inductively coupled plasma- Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) gives 563 the lowest (from 0,08 to less than 0,0003 μ g L⁻¹ depending on both the considered PPGE, 564 the instrument, and the date of the study cited in Table 3). Graphite Furnace - Atomic 565 Absorption Spectrometry (GF-AAS) and voltammetry although they are older techniques 566 than ICP-MS may also offer competitive LOD (0.03 to 0.01 μ g L⁻¹) compared to Q-ICP-MS. 567 Flame Atomic Absorption Spectrometry (FAAS) is the less sensitive instrument with 568 instrumental LOD that vary from to 0.1 to 6 μ g L⁻¹. 569

570 Given the objective of this section, i.e. the determination of PPGE in soils and solid 571 environmental samples, it is also of interest to examine the LOD of analytical methods. 572 Thus, the nature of the solid sample solid and the entire process, from preparation to 573 detection, are taken into account. These LOD are shown in Table 3. Methods based on ICP-AES for soil analysis show LOD values of 15 µg kg⁻¹ for Pt and Pd without pre-574 575 concentration (Kovacheva and Djingova, 2002). In addition, studies based on FAAS obtained even higher LOD values up to 25 µg kg⁻¹ for Pd (Table 3). This is insufficient to 576 determine background PPGE concentrations in soils. Sufficiently low LOD could be 577 achieved with a pre-concentration step and ETV introduction, 0.15- 0.40 µg kg⁻¹ for Pt and 578 Pd (Wu et al., 2004). The methods involving ICP-MS are the most widely used due to ICP-579 MS sensitivity (Table 3). In particular, very low LOD, under the $\mu g kg^{-1}$ range can be 580

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obtained with High Resolution-ICP-MS (HR-ICP-MS) when it is used in low-resolution mode (Rauch et al., 2000). With Quadrupole-ICP-MS (Q-ICP-MS), LOD varies between $0.03 - 1 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$ for Pt, $0.03 - 1 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$ for Pd and 0.01 - 0.9 for Rh $\mu g \ kg^{-1}$ (Table 3). In a recent study where the sample was pre-concentrated and then analysed either by differential pulse adsorptive stripping voltammetry or by Q-ICP-MS, very low LOD of the order of ng kg⁻¹ were obtained in using voltammetry (van der Horst et al., 2018), confirming that this detection is suitable for PPGE determination.

588 Accuracy. Very few studies provide information about accuracy. Repeatability (express as 589 relative standard deviation, RSD) and trueness (as recovery) are reported in Table 3. 590 Usually, recovery is evaluated using standard solutions, spiked samples or certified 591 reference materials. This issue is specifically discussed below. RSD was found to range 592 over 1 – 28% for Pt, 1 – 65% for Pd, and 5 – 14% for Rh. Recovery was generally found 593 between around 90 and 101% for the 3 PPGE. Comparing these values is critical, due to 594 the limited number of studies and the variety of analytical and validation protocols used. In 595 addition, some RSD and recovery values reported were overestimated, notably for Pd, 596 likely due to difficulties in sample preparation or severe interferences (Wiseman et al., 597 2016). This illustrates the difficulties for PPGE determination. The choice of the calibration 598 process is also important with regard to accuracy. External calibration appears as the 599 procedure usually used. Köllensperger et al. (2000) determined Pt by external calibration 600 and isotopic dilution and found similar repeatability (RSD ~6%). Nevertheless, isotopic 601 dilution has helped improve repeatability when used in combination with extraction or pre-602 concentration techniques (Gómez et al., 2003; Müller and Heumann, 2000). In addition, 603 some studies reported the use of internal standards (In, Ir, TI) (Mihaljevič et al., 2013; 604 Wichmann et al., 2007). However, from the studies in Table 3, no author focused on the effect of using an internal standard on accuracy. All this highlights the lack of analytical 605 606 study.

607 Interferences. PPGE are usually present at ultratrace level in the matrix, which contains 608 widely higher concentrations of Si, S, Zn, P, Fe, Ca, Pb, Co, Cu, Ni and Al as chloride or 609 nitrate salts. This may cause interferences. In order to reduce these interferences, PPGE 610 can be extracted to simplify the matrix, as discussed above. However, interferences may 611 still remain. For example, atomic absorption of Pd (247.642 nm wavelength) in GF-AAS 612 suffers of spectral interference from Pb (247.638 nm wavelength) (Brzezicka and Szmyd, 613 1999); increasing the pyrolysis temperature of the graphite furnace to ensure the 614 volatilization of Pb before the Pd atomization could eliminate this interference. Another 615 sensitive Pd wavelength (244.791 nm) could have been suitable but it has a narrower 616 range of linearity and also interference with Pb (247.638 nm) (Brzezicka and Szmyd, 1999; 617 Frigge and Jackwerth, 1992). The determination of PPGE by ICP-AES is subject to several 618 spectral interferences reported in Table 4. Some of these interfering species are major 619 elements of soils (AI, Fe, Mn). The selection of the detection wavelength is therefore 620 critical. Kim et al. (2018) thoroughly investigated the effects of interfering species 621 (including AI and Fe) on six wavelengths of PPGE. They concluded that the most accurate wavelength was 265.95 nm for Pt, 340.46 for Pd and 343.49 nm for Rh (Kim et al., 2018). 622 623 Interference also occurs in Q-ICP-MS. The known isobaric and polyatomic interferences 624 for PPGE are reported in Table 5. The interferences are produced in the presence of 625 elements frequently found in environmental samples (Cd, Cu, Hg, Pb, Zn, etc...). According to the literature, the three most abundant isotopes of Pt (¹⁹⁴Pt, ¹⁹⁵Pt, ¹⁹⁶Pt) seem 626 627 to be mainly interfered by HfO species. In order to overcome these interferences,

mathematical corrections are used, assuming the only existence of HfO interferences (Kan and Tanner, 2004; Niemelä et al., 2004). ¹⁰⁶Pd is the most abundant Pd isotope but ¹⁰⁵Pd is more often selected because it does not have mono-atomic interference. However, due to the abundance ratio between Pd isotope and its polyatomic interferences, it remains critical to mathematically correct Pd signals. Rh has only one isotope, therefore it not 633 possible to select another to overcome interference. In this case, mathematical correction 634 remains reliable (Niemelä et al., 2004). Note that whatever the PPGE considered, a 635 mathematical correction requires exhaustive knowledge of the elemental composition of 636 the sample analysed, which can be critical to obtain. The use of HR-ICP-MS can be an 637 alternative to overcome interference. Especially HR-ICP-MS seems very efficient in 638 eliminating interference when determining Pt. The determination of Pd seems more critical 639 because the mass resolution does not appear to be sufficient and interference remains 640 (Table 5). For Rh, most of the interference can be eliminated, with the exception of SrO⁺; 641 this can be an issue when the Rh concentration is low (Köllensperger et al., 2000; Rauch 642 et al., 2000). The drawback of high resolution in ICPMS is the increased limits of detection, 643 However they remain sufficiently low for the determination of PPGE in soils (Table 3). A 644 sample introduction system in ICP-MS such as desolvating nebulizer can also help reduce 645 interference (Köllensperger et al., 2000; Müller and Heumann, 2000; Sutherland, 2007). 646 Desolvating nebulizers are made with a permeable membrane that filters the solvent, 647 which increases sensitivity and reduces interferences from oxides.

648 Another solution to overcome interference is to use a collision/reaction cell (CRC) within 649 Q-ICP-MS. CRC can minimize and even eliminate interference, but repeatability may be 650 affected (Alsenz et al., 2009; Kan and Tanner, 2004; Satyanarayanan et al., 2011; Spada 651 et al., 2012; Wiseman et al., 2016). Despite this possibility, only a few studies used CRC. 652 CRC was always combined with a pre-treatment step as described above to eliminate part 653 of the matrix and thus reduce the possible causes of interference. Studies carried out with 654 standard solutions showed that CRC with He, O₂ or NH₃ as collision / reaction gas is 655 effective in minimizing interferences (Alsenz et al., 2009; Moldovan et al., 2006; Simpson 656 et al., 2001). He, used as a collision gas (non-reactive), reduces kinetic energy of 657 polyatomic ions by collision, which enables fewer interfering species to enter the 658 quadrupole. He has proven to be effective to reduce Ar-based interference (Moldovan et

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659 al., 2006). O₂ acts as a dynamic reaction gas to oxidize interfering species that results in species with higher mass than the element of interest. For example, HfO interference on 660 661 Pt forms HfO₃ in presence of O₂, which enables the problem of mass superposition for Pt to be solved; Likewise, the ZrO interference on ¹⁰⁶Pd can be removed using O₂ (Simpson 662 663 et al., 2001). NH₃ is also a reaction gas based on the transfer of electron from the 664 interfering species to NH₃ molecules. Used alone or diluted in He, it was found to be very effective in minimizing ⁸⁹Y¹⁶O interference on ¹⁰⁵Pd (Moldovan et al., 2006). More recently, 665 666 triple quadrupole ICP-MS (QQQ-ICP-MS) was proposed. QQQ-ICP-MS is based on two 667 quadrupoles, and an octopole as CRC. Developments performed with standard solutions 668 showed that QQQ-ICP-MS with NH₃ as reaction gas is effective in eliminating interference 669 when determining Pt (mass-shift), Pd (on-mass) and Rh (on-mass) (Sugiyama and 670 Shikamori, 2015).

Voltammetry also suffers from potential interference for Pt (with Cd, Co, Fe, Zn), Pd (with
Cd, Co Cu, Fe), and Rh (with Cd, Co, Fe, Ni) (Locatelli, 2006; van der Horst et al., 2018).
However, no study reported interference with these elements (Orecchio and Amorello,
2011; van der Horst et al., 2018).

675 3.3. Reference materials

676 Certified reference materials (CRM) are essential for the validation of analytical 677 procedures. Unfortunately, there is no CRM available for soil, vegetal and water (Jochum 678 et al., 2005). There are some CRM for rocks and ores such as WMG-1 (Balaram et al., 679 2013; Mihaljevič et al., 2013). However, there is a limited number of CRM with certified 680 PGE concentrations for environmental samples. A sediment, JSd-2, was used as a 681 reference material in a few studies (Almécija et al., 2016; Cobelo-García et al., 2011; 682 Djingova et al., 2003; Tsogas et al., 2008). It is a river sediment from the Geological 683 Survey of Japan with preferable values for Pt and Pd. The only available CRM with Pt, Pd 684 and Rh certified concentration is the road dust BCR-723 provided by the Joint Research

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685 Centre of European Union (Zischka et al., 2002). The use of this sediment is preferable 686 because it is an environmental matrix. However, the procedures for extracting PPGE from 687 the matrix are cumbersome, complex and time consuming in order to recover PPGE 688 quantitatively (Cobelo-García et al., 2011; Tsogas et al., 2008). Sutherland (2007a) 689 reviewed the values of BCR-723 determined in studies and published in the literature: no 690 statistical difference was found with the certified values. However, the same author re-691 examined the dataset used to certify the PPGE concentrations and found significant 692 differences in the Pt and Pd concentrations provided by the laboratories. These differences 693 appeared to come in part from the quantification methods used with ICP-MS, namely 694 isotopic dilution or external calibration. In addition, for Pd only, the statistical distribution of 695 its concentrations showed two populations. All of this reflects the difficulty of traceability 696 and quality control in the PPGE analysis (Sutherland, 2007b). Therefore, the author 697 advised to use the mean Pd concentration value as indicative value.

In the absence of CRM, validation can be achieved using at least two different independent methods and by checking agreement between the results. Some authors used samples spiked with PPGE standard solution (Hooda et al., 2007; Wichmann et al., 2007); but this is not recommended for solid samples, because the efficiency of digestion cannot be verified.

703 In summary, the determination of PPGE in environmental matrices remains a challenge 704 because of the low concentration range and the numerous interferences occurring during 705 detection. Given the most recent analytical developments, ICP-MS seems capable of 706 achieving the required sensitivity, and overcoming interference using various strategies. 707 The low number of certified PPGE materials makes traceability and quality control of 708 analysis more difficult than for most of the trace metals studied. An effort should therefore 709 be made to prepare new PPGE certified materials with different environmental matrices 710 (soil, sediment, water...).

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711 4. Conclusion

712 Platinum group elements are used and released mainly by automotive exhaust catalysts. 713 Therefore, their environmental concentrations have increased significantly over the past 714 decades. However, while the main source of soil contamination is from the use of car 715 catalytic converters, mining and industrial activities are also significant sources. It has 716 been established that in soil, PPGE undergo transformations and may be converted into 717 bioavailable forms. The risks posed by the environmental presence of PPGE are therefore 718 real and discussions on the potential toxicity of emitted PPGE to living organisms are 719 ongoing. In this review, we focused on soil because it is one of the environmental 720 compartments the most exposed to PPGE deposits resulting from emissions. In urban 721 areas, contamination and accumulation are well documented in many cities. However, 722 information about soil contamination of rural zones and large surface areas is very scarce. 723 The regulation on automotive exhausts is expected to be more stringent over the years. 724 Therefore, with increasing use of PPGE-based catalysts, global contamination concern is 725 also expected to increase. In this perspective, further studies should be conducted to 726 examine the large-surface contamination, determine the spatial distribution, and assess 727 the PPGE stocks, which would help determine the deposition rate and global fluxes. The 728 analytical determination of PPGE remains a challenge. Therefore, there are only a small 729 number of studies dedicated to these elements. Environmental contamination by PPGE is 730 also a key issue. With the most recent developments in mass spectrometry, it can be 731 expected that analytical issues will be solved and this will enable the PPGE contamination 732 to be assessed more reliably.

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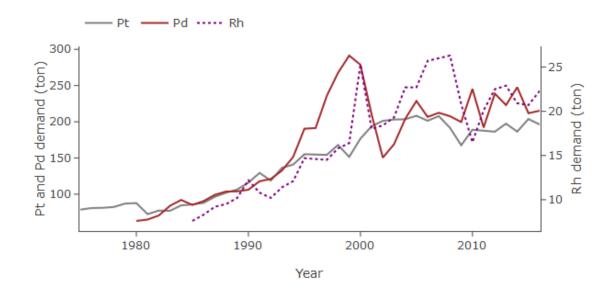
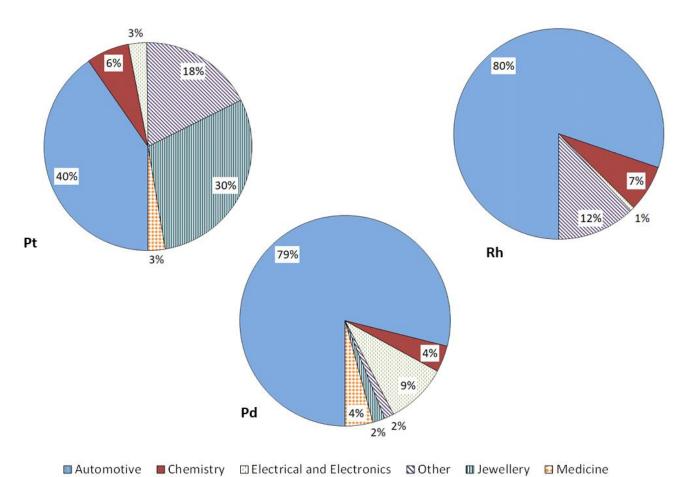


Figure 1: Evolution of the demand of Pt, Pd and Rh since 1976 (Johnson Mattey, 2017b).



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Figure 2: Pt, Pd and Rh demand (in percentage) by type of activities in 2016 (Johnson Mattey, 2017a).

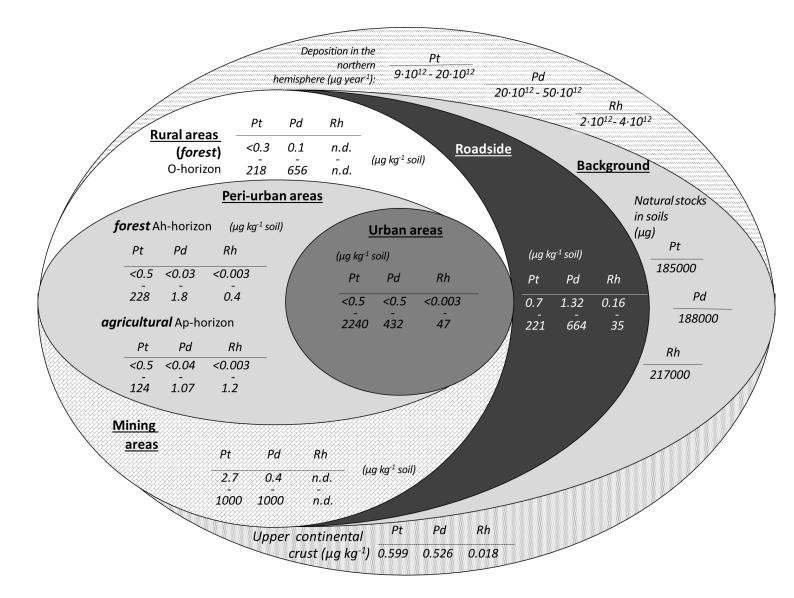


Figure 3: Ranges of concentrations and masses of PPGE in various environmental parts. Compiled values from : Birke et al., 2018; Cicchella et al., 2008, 2003; Ely et al., 2001; Fletcher, 1988; Hooda et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2012; Mitra and Sen, 2017; Niskavaara et al., 2004; Pan et al., 2009; Park et al., 2012; Rauch et al., 2005; Rauch and Fatoki, 2015; Whiteley and Murray, 2003; Wilhelm et al., 1997; Wiseman et al., 2016; Zuzolo et al., 2018

Table 1: Median concentrations (µg kg-1) of PPGE in soils classified by sampling zone and their analytical process (pre-treatment, detection) associated to their determination. The asterisk indicates average value. Abbreviations: NiS-FA, nickel sulphide fire assay, Pb-FA, lead fire assay, Q-ICP-MS, quadrupole-inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry; ID-ICP-MS, isotope dilution inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry; GF-AAS, graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry; DPV, differential pulse voltammetry; Arc AES, arc atomic emission spectrometry.

Crust abundance (µg/kg)	Pre-treatment	Detection instrument	Pt	Pd	Rh	Reference
Upper continental Crust	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	0.599	0.526	0.018	(Park et al., 2012)
Bulk continental crust	n/a	n/a	0.4	0.4	0.06	(Hans Wedepohl, 1995)
"Background" values (µg/kg)						
UK, Ascot, Silwood Park Imperial College	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	<0.21	<0.45	<0.16	(Jarvis et al., 2001)
USA, South Bend, background soil	Digestion ; cation exchange resin	Q-ICP-MS	3.63	1.54	0.09	(Ely et al., 2001)
Italy, Avellino, soils formed on volcanic rocks	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	3.2	2.8	<0.05	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Italy, Benevento, soils formed on sedimentary rocks	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	1.3	1.1	<0.05	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Italy, Caserta east, soils formed on sedimentary rocks	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	1.1	0.9	0.3	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Italy, Caserta west, soils formed on volcanic rocks	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	2.7	2.3	0.3	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Italy, Salerno, soils formed on sedimentary rocks	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	1	1	0.4	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Germany, Spöck, soil formed on quaternary sand	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	4	<0.4	0.6	(Schäfer and Puchelt, 1998)
Germany, Michaelsberg, soil formed on claylike loess	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	3	<0.4	0.4	(Schäfer and Puchelt, 1998)
Germany, Hohenhöven, soil on phonolith (0-10 cm)	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	0.8	0.4	<0.1	(Schäfer and Puchelt, 1998)
Italy, Latium, sedimentary bedrock (average)	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	2.5	n/a	n/a	(Cinti et al., 2002)
Italy, Latium, volcanic bedrock (average)	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	4.1	n/a	n/a	(Cinti et al., 2002)

Table 1 (continued)

Peri-urban and rural areas

Germany, Berlin surroundings, agricultural soil Ap-horizon	Digestion; Te co- precipitation	Q-ICP-MS	2.98	0.167	0.0128	(Birke et al., 2018)
Germany, Berlin surroundings, sewage farm areas	Digestion; Te co- precipitation	Q-ICP-MS	5.83	1.86	0.221	(Birke et al., 2018)
Germany, Berlin surroundings, forest soil Ah-horizon	Digestion; Te co- precipitation	Q-ICP-MS	5.36	0.134	0.0121	(Birke et al., 2018)
Italy, Modena district, natural reserve soil	Leaching	Q-ICP-MS	2.51*	4.2*	1.05*	(Marcheselli et al., 2010)
Italy, Modena district, agricultural soil	Leaching	Q-ICP-MS	2.78*	4.07*	0.97*	(Marcheselli et al., 2010)
European Arctic, moss	Ashing ; digestion ; Hg co-precipiation	GF-AAS	<0.2	0.71	n/a	(Niskavaara et al., 2004)
European Arctic, podzol O- horizon	Ashing ; digestion ; Hg co-precipiation	GF-AAS	0.62	0.45	n/a	(Niskavaara et al., 2004)
European Arctic, podzol B- horizon	Ashing ; digestion ; Hg co-precipiation	GF-AAS	2.04	0.91	n/a	(Niskavaara et al., 2004)
European Arctic, podzol C- horizon	Ashing ; digestion ; Hg co-precipiation	GF-AAS	<0.5	0.91	n/a	(Niskavaara et al., 2004)
Italy, Campania Region, topsoil	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	<2	<10	n/a	(Zuzolo et al., 2018)

Table 1 (continued)

Urban areas

Italy, Napoli metropolitan area	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	1.6	8	n/a	(Cicchella et al., 2003)
Italy, Benevento's area low population density	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	2.1	0.9	<0.05	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Italy, Salerno's area high population density	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	2.1	2.4	0.28	(Cicchella et al., 2008)
Germany, Berlin inner city area, 1992 survey	Digestion; Te- coprecipitation	Q-ICP-MS	1.35	0.24	0.04	(Birke et al., 2018)
Germany, Berlin inner city area, 2013 survey	Digestion; Te- coprecipitation	Q-ICP-MS	2.03	0.958	0.192	(Birke et al., 2018)
Italy, Palermo, high population density	Digestion	DPV	68	n/a	n/a	(Orecchio and Amorello, 2011)
United Kingdom, London, Richmond Borough	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	1.04	n/a	n/a	(Farago et al., 1996)
Mining zone						
Canada, Southern British columbia, Franklin mining district, A horizon	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	26	29.5	n/a	(Fletcher, 1988)
Canada, Southern British columbia, Franklin mining district, B/C horizon	Pb-FA	Q-ICP-MS	9.5	18.5	n/a	(Fletcher, 1988)
South Africa, Bushveld Igneous Complex, topsoil (0-2 cm)	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	97.5	n/a	n/a	(Rauch and Fatoki, 2013)

Table 1 (continued)

Roadside soil

South Korea, Seoul	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	49.7*	n/a	n/a	(Lee et al., 2012)
USA, South Bend	Digestion ; cation exchange	Q-ICP-MS	26.555	7.19	0.93	(Ely et al., 2001)
UK, multiple locations, 0m distance	Leaching	Q-ICP-MS	15.9*	120.8*	22.4*	(Hooda et al., 2007)
UK, multiple locations, 5m distance	Leaching	Q-ICP-MS	2.04*	84.2*	3.5*	(Hooda et al., 2007)
Australia, Perth	Digestion ; cation exchange	Q-ICP-MS	107.49	91.4	14.54	(Whiteley and Murray, 2003)
Canada, Toronto, 0 to 200m distance	Digestion ; Hg and Te co-precipation	ID-ICP-MS	8.7	63	1.7	(Wiseman et al., 2016)
China, Beijing	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	39.8*	20.8*	10.1 *	(Pan et al. 2009)
China, Hong Kong	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	62.2*	38.7*	10.8*	(Pan et al. 2009)
India, Mumbai	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	6.24	15.5	0.64	(Pan et al. 2009)
Germany, A5 Highway	NiS-FA	GF-AAS	132	83	20	(Zereini et al., 2007)
Germnay, Pforzheim, A8 Highway	NiS-FA	Q-ICP-MS	46*	6*	7*	(Schäfer et al., 1999)
Russia, Moscow, southwest district	Digestion	Q-ICP-MS	88.5	34.2	6.7	Ladonin, 2018

Concentration (µg kg⁻¹) Sample Location Sampling condition Reference Pt Pd Rh Ni-Cu Ferguson Lake, Labrador tea (Ledum Keewatin District. mineralisation, leaf 51 2103 97 (Rencz and Hall, 1992) groenlandicum) Canada sample Ferguson Lake. Ni-Cu Dwarf birch (Betula Keewatin District, mineralisation, leaf (Rencz and Hall, 1992) 121 576 38 glandulosa) Canada sample Grass (Aristida bipartita, **Bothriochloa Bushveld Igneous** Mining industry, insculpta, Digitaria eriantha, 256 n/a n/a (Rauch and Fatoki, 2013) Complex, South Africa near smelter Ischaemum afrum or Panicum) Highways, leaves 1.23 1.03 Grass United States and shoots only 0.10 (Ely et al., 2001) washed samples (Tankari Dan-Badjo et al., **Ryegrass** Plateau Lorrain, France Highways 1.4 6.8 3 2007) Grass (Calamagrostis sp.) Oulu, Finland 1.7 n/a 0.7 (Niemelä et al., 2004) Highways Near a main street, Guanzhou, China 3.52 Plant leaves 1.55 1.16 (Pan et al., 2009) washed sample Annual ryegrass (annual Bonn, Germany 4.6 2.2 0.1 (Djingova et al., 2003) Highways ryegrass) Plantain (Plantago lanceolata) Saarbrücken, Germany Highways 10.1 2.1 3.4 (Djingova et al., 2003) Cocksfoot grass (Dactylis Oxfordshire, United Highways, 0m (Hooda et al., 2008) 12.04 14.28 2.34 Kingdom sampling glomeratus) Moss (Pleurozium schreberi) Oulu, Finland Highways 27.4 n/a 4.6 (Niemelä et al., 2004) Pine needles (Pinus pinea L.) Palermo, Italy 29 17 (Dongarrá et al., 2003) Urban zone n/a Dandelion (Taraxacum Saarbrücken, Germany Highways 30.0 3.1 7.0 (Djingova et al., 2003) officinale)

Table 2: Typical PPGE concentrations in plants collected from field studies

Table 3: Main characteristics of the analytical methods, found in or calculated from the cited articles, for the determination of the palladium platinum group elements (PPGE)

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	Pre-treatment			Ŏ	LOD in µg kg ⁻¹ of sample (dry mass)		Repeatability as RSD in %				ueness covery ir					
Sample	Matrix destruction (final amount)	Extraction (digest volume ; elution volume used)	Pre- concentration (<i>enrichment</i> <i>factor</i>)	Instrument (introduction)	Other information	Pt	Pd	Rh	Pt	Pd	Rh	Pt	Pd	Rh	Validation	References
soil and road dust (0.2 g)	Digestion HNO ₃ / HCI 1:3 (20 mL)	Dowex AG1-X8 anion exchange resin (20 ; 20)	-	Q-ICP-MS	Isotope Dilution; Desolvating nebulizer	0.15	0.075	-	28	25	-	98	76	-	CRM: WGB-1	Müller and Heumann, 2000
Road dust (3 g)	Digestion in Aquia regia (>40 mL)	Dowex 1-X10 anion-exchange resin (1; 42)	-	ICP-AES (2.5 mL/min continuous injection)	-	15	15	-	1.5	0.8	-	98.3	97.2	-	CRM: JSd-2	Kovacheva and Djingova, 2002
Soil (0.25 g)	Digestion in HNO₃/HCI 1:3 (8 mL)	Dowex AG50W-X8 cation-exchange resin (-; 10)	-	Q-ICP-MS	In, Ir internal standards	0.1	0.5	0.1	9	6	12	100	98	102	CRM: BCR- 723	Whiteley and Murray, 2003
Sedimen t (0.2g)	Digestion aqua regia (nd)	Dowex AG50W-X8 cation-exchange resin (2 ; 8)	-	Q-ICP-MS	Desolvating nebulizer	0,03	0,03	0,01	1,5	5,8	3,8	75	103	93	BCR-723	(Sutherland et al., 2007)
Sewage sludge (1.5 g)	Digestion in HNO ₃ /HCIO ₄ /HF 4 :2 :1 (10 mL)	YPA₄ chelating resin (100; -)	1 mL slurry prepared with the resin total mass (100)	ETV- ICP-AES (10 μL injected)	-	0.145	0.40	-	3.7	5.6	-	101.4	99.1	-	CRM: NIST SRM 2557	Wu et al., 2004
Soil and sedimen t (5 g)	Ashing 650°C ; Digestion aqua regia (60 mL)	MIBK and NH₄SCN as chelating agents (50 mL)	-	Q-ICP-MS	-	0,5	1	-	nd	nd	-	95	95	-		(Choudhury, 2016)
Soil (50 g)	Nicl	kel sulfide fire assay	(5)	GF-AAS	-	1.0	0.5	0.7	nd	nd	nd	90-95	90-95	90-95	nd	Zereini et al., 2007
Soil and airbone dust (50 g)	Nickel sulfide fire assay (5)		Q-ICP-MS	In internal standard; H₂ CRC	0.03	0.06	0.04	nd	nd	nd	> 90	> 90	> 90	Spiked samples	Wichmann et al., 2007	
Soil (5g)	Nicl	kel sulfide fire assay	-	Q-ICP-MS	-	0.1	0.15	0.01	8	1	5	91	101	98	CRM: GBW07294	Pan et al. 2009
Soil (10 g)	Nickel sulfide fire assay		Q-ICP-MS	In, TI internal standards	0.65	0.45	0.08	2.8	2.5	14	95.5	98.9	93.5	CRM: WMG-1	Mihaljevič et al., 2013	
Soil (10- 15 g)	Nicl	kel sulfide fire assay	_	HR-ICP-MS	-	0.7	0.1	0.04	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	Morcelli et al., 2005

					I			T					1		r	1
Soil (-)	Ashing 600°C ; HNO3/HCI 1:3 (15 mL)	Based on co- precipitation with SnCl ₂ / Hg (5; 4)	-	GF-AAS	-	0.5	0.2	-	1	2	-	99	99	-	CRM: SARM-7	Niskavaara et al., 2004
Road dust (0.2 g)	Digestion HNO ₃ /HCI/HF 1:3:1 (25 mL)	Based on co- precipitation with SnCl ₂ /Te (25;25)		Q-ICP-MS	Isotope Dilution	1	1	0.4	5	14	12	102	93	102	CRM: CW7 and CW8	(Gómez et al., 2003)
Soil and road dust (0.1 g)	Digestion in HNO₃/HCI 6:2 (10 mL)	Based on co- precipitation with SnCl ₂ / Te (Pt, Rh) or Hg (Pd), (<i>3; 10</i>)	-	Q-ICP-MS	Isotope dilution quantification	0.75	0.44	0.9	6	65	10	108	144	125	CRM: BCR- 723	Wiseman et al., 2016
Soil (20g)	Digestion HNO ₃ /HClO ₄ 5:1 (12 mL)	CPE with BIMPI as	chelating agent (28)	FAAS		-	25	-	-	3	-	-	98	-	Spike samples	(Tavallali et al., 2010)
Soil and road dust (0.4 g)	Digestion in HNO ₃ /HCI/HF 1:3:1 (5mL)	CPE with TOMAC a	nd Triton X-114 (20)	GF-AAS		0.5	-	-	2%	-	-	99	-	-	BCR-723	(Meeravali et al., 2014)
Soil (5 g)	Digestion in HNO3/HCI 1:3 (15mL)	DLLME with MBI agen	t (20)	FAAS		-	8	-	-	4%	-	-	99%	-	GPP-10	(Pouyan et al., 2016)
Road dust (2 g)	Digestion HNO3 / HCl 1:3 (40 mL)	Magnetic graph nanosheet mo polypyrrole-poly copolyn	dified with ythiophene	FAAS		10	20	-	2	5	-	98	101	-	Spiked samples	(Jalilian et al., 2017)
Soil (1g)	Digestion aqua regia / HF (22 mL)	DLLME with Na chelating agent a ultraso	a-DDTC as assisted with	FAAS		-	24	-	-	9	-	-	96	-	Spiked samples	(Heydari and Ramezani, 2017)
Road dust (0.1 g)	Digestion in HNO ₃ /HCl/HF1:3:1 (5 mL)	-	-	HR-ICP-MS	High resolution; Desolvating nebulizer	0.4	0.5	0.1	6	13	9	100	114	87	CRM: WPR- 1	Köllensperger et al., 2000
Road dust and sedimen t (0.25 g)	Digestion in HNO₃/HCl 1:3 (8 mL)	-	-	HR-ICP-MS	Low resolution	0.008	0.2	0.004	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	Rauch et al., 2000
Road dust and sedimen t (0.25 g)	Digestion in HNO ₃ /HCl 1:3 (8 mL)	-	-	HR-ICP-MS	High Resolution	0.15	0.3	0.02	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	nd	Rauch et al., 2000
Soil (0.5 g)	Digestion in HNO ₃ /HCI 1:3 (10 mL)	-	-	DPV	Digest analysed in diluted H ₂ SO ₄ solution	0.3	-	-	< 5	-	-	nd	-	-	Standard solutions	Orecchio and Amorello, 2011

Soil and road		ICP-MS	He CRC	0.03	0.03	0.01	1.12	1.58	1.37	na	na	na	Standard solutions	van der Horst et al., 2018
dust (6.25 g)	(- ; 100, 100 and 70 mL)	DPAdSV	-	0.0006	0.0007	0.0020	1.18	1.44	0.93	na	na	na	Standard solutions	van der Horst et al., 2018

Abbrevations: ETV: electrothermal vaporization; DPV : differential pulse voltammetry ; DPAdSV : differential pulse adsorptive stripping voltammetry; CRC : Collision/Reaction Cell

nd : not indicated in the publication ; na : not applicable

Others: see the text

Table 4: Selected wavelength of Pt, Pd and Rh for ICP-AES determination (most sensitive) and their possible interferences reported in literature (Kovacheva and Djingova, 2002; Ojeda and Rojas, 2007; Petrova et al., 2010).

Element	Wavelength (nm)	Interference and wavelength (nm)					
Pt	214.42	lr	214.42				
		Cd	214.43				
		Fe	214.44				
		AI	214.54				
		Ni	214.78				
Pt	265.95	Mn	265.92				
		Fe	265.92				
		Ni	265.95				
Pd	340.46	Fe	340.44				
		V	340.44				
		Zr	340.48				
		Ti	340.50				
		W	340.53				
Pd	363.47	Th	363.42				
		Fe	363.43				
		Ce	363.43				
Rh	233.48	AI	233.42				
		Fe	233.48				
Rh	343.49	V	343.54				
		AI	343.94				

			Required			
Isotope	Abundance (%)	Interfering ions	resolution m/ Δm			
¹⁹⁴ Pt	32.90	¹⁷⁸ Hf ¹⁶ O	8063			
		¹⁷⁶ Hf ¹⁸ O	8775			
		¹⁷⁷ Hf ¹⁷ O	9544			
		¹⁷⁶ Yb ¹⁸ O	9261			
		¹⁷⁶ Lu ¹⁸ O	9310			
¹⁹⁵ Pt	33.80	¹⁷⁹ Hf ¹⁶ O	8108			
		¹⁷⁷ Hf ¹⁸ O	8702			
		¹⁷⁸ Hf ¹⁷ O	8881			
¹⁹⁶ Pt	25.80	¹⁹⁶ Hg	226550			
		¹⁸⁰ Hf ¹⁶ O	8348			
¹⁹⁸ Pt	7.20	¹⁹⁸ Hg	176914			
		¹⁸² W ¹⁶ O	8001			
¹⁰⁴ Pd	11.14	²⁰⁸ Pb ²⁺	1234			
		⁶³ Zn ⁴⁰ Ar	8313			
		⁸⁸ Sr ¹⁶ O	29805			
		¹⁰⁴ Ru	74431			
¹⁰⁵ Pd	22.33	⁶⁵ Cu ⁴⁰ Ar	7042			
		⁸⁹ Y ¹⁶ O	24373			
		⁸⁸ Sr ¹⁷ O	328855			
		⁸⁷ Sr ¹⁸ O	35263			
		⁸⁷ Rb ¹⁸ O	32102			
		⁸⁸ Sr ¹⁶ O ¹ H	31984			
		⁶⁸ Zn ³⁷ Cl	7319			
		⁷⁰ Zn ³⁵ Cl	9615			
¹⁰⁶ Pd	27.33	¹⁰⁶ Cd	35468			
		⁶⁶ Zn ⁴⁰ Ar	7033			
		⁹⁰ Zr ¹⁶ O	27492			
¹⁰⁸ Pd	26.46	¹⁰⁸ Cd	369535			
		⁶⁸ Zn ⁴⁰ Ar	6474			
		⁹² Zr ¹⁶ O	27386			
		⁹² Mo ¹⁶ O	49724			
¹¹⁰ Pd	11.72	¹¹⁰ Cd	50834			
		⁷⁰ Ge ⁴⁰ Ar	5927			
		⁹⁴ Mo ¹⁶ O	21265			
			21200			

Table 5: PPGE isotope abundances and possible interferences in ICP-MS (Köllensperger et al., 2000, Rauch et al. 2000). Isotopes with low abundance are not shown (<5%).

		⁹⁴ Zr ¹⁶ O	27929
¹⁰³ Rh	100.00	²⁰⁶ Pb ²⁺	1260
		⁸⁶ Sr ¹⁷ O	60603
		⁶³ Cu ⁴⁰ Ar	7609
		⁸⁷ Rb ¹⁶ O	73241
		⁶⁶ Zn ³⁵ Cl	7587
		⁶⁸ Zn ³⁵ Cl	8719