

Selenium distribution in French forests: Influence of environmental conditions

Paulina Pisarek, Maïté Bueno, Yves Thiry, Manuel Nicolas, Hervé Gallard,

Isabelle Le Hécho

▶ To cite this version:

Paulina Pisarek, Maïté Bueno, Yves Thiry, Manuel Nicolas, Hervé Gallard, et al.. Selenium distribution in French forests: Influence of environmental conditions. Science of the Total Environment, 2021, 774, pp.144962. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.144962. hal-03162653

HAL Id: hal-03162653 https://univ-pau.hal.science/hal-03162653

Submitted on 10 Mar 2023

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1 **Title**

2 Selenium distribution in French forests: influence of

3 environmental conditions

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- 5 Paulina Pisarek^{1,2}, Maïté Bueno¹, Yves Thiry², Manuel Nicolas³, Hervé Gallard⁴, Isabelle Le
 6 Hécho¹
- 7

8 ¹ CNRS/Univ. Pau & Pays de l'Adour/E2S UPPA, Institut des Sciences Analytiques et de

- 9 Physico-Chimie pour l'Environnement et les Matériaux (IPREM), UMR 5254, 64053 Pau,
- 10 France (*pisarek.paulina@univ-pau.fr) (maite.bueno@univ-pau.fr; isabelle.lehecho@univ-
- 11 pau.fr)
- 12 ² Andra, Research and Development Division, Parc de la Croix Blanche, 92298 Châtenay-
- 13 Malabry Cedex, France (yves.thiry@andra.fr)
- 14 ³ Office National des Forêts (ONF), Direction Forts et Risques Naturels, Département
- 15 Recherche, Développement, Innovation, Boulevard de Constance, 77300, Fontainebleau,
- 16 France (manuel.nicolas@onf.fr)
- ⁴ IC2MP UMR 7285, Université de Poitiers, 86073 Poitiers Cedex 9, France
 (herve.gallard@univ-poitiers.fr)
- 19

20 Highlights

- Statistical study of factors influencing Se distribution in 51 French forests
- Selenium concentration in litterfall increases with proximity to the ocean
- Low degradation rate of organic matter contribute to high Se stock in mor humus
- Aluminium, iron and organic matter content promote Se retention in soil
- 25

26 Abstract

Selenium is a trace element and an essential nutrient. Its long-lived radioisotope, selenium 79 27 28 is of potential radio-ecological concern in surface environment of deep geological repository 29 for high-level radioactive waste. In this study, the influence of environmental, climatic and geochemical conditions on stable Se (as a surrogate of ⁷⁹Se) accumulation was statistically 30 assessed (PCA analysis, Kruskall-Wallis and Spearman tests) based on the analysis of its 31 32 concentration in litterfall, humus, and soil samples collected at 51 forest sites located in France. Selenium concentrations were in the ranges: 22-369, 57-1608 and 25-1222 μ g kg⁻¹ 33 34 respectively in litterfall, humus, and soil. The proximity of the ocean and oceanic climate 35 promoted Se enrichment of litterfall, likely due to a significant reaction of wet deposits with 36 forest canopy. Se content was enhanced by humification (up to 6 times) suggesting that Se 37 concentrations in humus were affected by atmospheric inputs. Selenium stock in humus 38 decreased in the order of decreasing humus biomass and increasing turnover of organic 39 matter: mor > moder > mull. Positive correlations between Se content and geochemical 40 parameters such as organic carbon content, total Al and total Fe confirmed the important role 41 of organic matter (OM) and mineral Fe/Al oxides in Se retention in soils.



42 Graphical abstract

44 Keywords

45 ⁷⁹Se, Fe exchange, pH, CEC, humification, atmospheric deposition

46

47 **1.** Introduction

The radionuclide ⁷⁹Se is of potential radio-ecological concern at high-level nuclear waste 48 storage sites (Hjerpe and Broed, 2010) due to its long half-life (3.27×10⁵ years) and its 49 50 capacity to be easily incorporated into natural biogeochemical cycle. Selenium is an essential 51 element in animal nutrition and metabolism with a major physiological role associated with 52 its presence in amino acids as selenocysteine (SeCys) and selenomethionine (SeMet) 53 (Rayman, 2000). Selenium is not essential for higher plants, although it is absorbed by plants 54 to various extent with some positive effects observed, especially for hyperaccumulators (El 55 Mehdawi and Pilon-Smits, 2012).

The global average Se content in the Earth' crust is estimated to be 50 μ g kg⁻¹ (Taylor and 56 McLennan, 1995), while average Se concentration in soil is 400 μ g kg⁻¹ (Natasha et al., 57 58 2018). Selenium accumulation in surface soils depends on different Se inputs with variable 59 contributions. Geogenic sources appears to be the most important for Se-rich soils only, but it 60 does not explain the large-scale distribution of Se (Blazina et al., 2014). The ocean is an 61 important reservoir of Se, from where it can be volatilized and transported as sea spray (Blazina et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2016; Mason et al., 2018). Therefore, atmospheric 62 63 deposition to nearby coast lines influences the Se content of vegetation and soil (Låg and 64 Steinnes, 1978), but there is little evidence of oceanic transfer to more remote terrestrial regions (Blazina et al., 2014). Thus, another contribution to soil reserves appears to originate 65 66 from intermediate zones due to remobilization through volatilization, and subsequent wet and dry deposition (Ross, 1985; Suess et al., 2019). In addition to natural sources, significant 67 68 anthropogenic Se contamination may come from dust, coal or petroleum combustion, as well 69 as agricultural sludges and fertilizers (Belon et al., 2012; Natasha et al., 2018)

The mobility of Se in soil is affected by various biological and geochemical factors such as
redox potential, pH, salinity, microbial activity, soil organic matter, and minerals such Fe and

3

72 Al oxides and clay (Dinh et al., 2017; Li et al. 2017). Among soil components, Fe/Al 73 minerals and organic matter (OM) play a pivotal role in Se persistence, but there is still no 74 agreement on the most important constituent (Coppin et al., 2009; Söderlund et al., 2016). It 75 is also due to complex, and yet unclear, Se-OM interaction mechanisms that have been hypothesized to be mediated by mineral surfaces (Coppin et al., 2006) or by metal cations 76 77 within ternary complexes (Li et al., 2017; Martin et al., 2017; Tolu et al., 2014). In soil, Se 78 occurs in inorganic forms: Se(IV), Se(VI), Se(0), Se(-II) and in organic forms as complexes 79 with OM or organo-mineral colloids (Winkel et al., 2015). The Se content associated with the 80 organic fraction of soils ranges from 14 to 82% (Supriatin et al., 2015; Tolu et al., 2011; 81 Wang et al., 2012). In forest soils around $67 \pm 19\%$ of total Se is found in the organic 82 fraction, while it is $35 \pm 12\%$ in cultivated soils and $55 \pm 22\%$ in grasslands (Tolu et al., 83 2014).

84 Limited data are available on Se content in forest compartments (Almahayni et al., 2017; Di 85 Tullo, 2015; Tolu, 2012; Tyler, 2005), especially in contrasted geogenic ecosystems. In this 86 study, particular attention was paid to forest ecosystems where Se inventories are expected to 87 characterize the long-term influence of natural inputs and element recycling processes. Here, 88 a comprehensive statistical study was proposed to determine the significance of eco-climatic 89 and geochemical conditions in Se accumulation and distribution at various forest sites. The 90 concentrations of selenium were determined in litterfall, humus, and soil samples from 51 91 different forest sites located in France. Fluxes and stocks of Se in forest compartments were 92 estimated, as well as time-scale involved in Se retention in humus and soil. Monitored sites 93 showed a wide variety in types of trees, climates, soils, and distance to coast. The sample 94 collection presented also the considerable benefit of complete characterization and regular 95 monitoring of forest sites provided by the ONF-RENECOFOR network (National Network 96 for the long term Monitoring of Forest Ecosystems).

97 2. Material and methods

98 2.1. Study sites

99 Samples of soil, humus, and litterfall were obtained from the RENECOFOR network handled 100 by ONF (French National Forest Office), which is part of the Pan-European ICP Forests 101 intensive (Level II) monitoring network. In order to benefit from available samples and data, 102 the same samples from 51 sites used by Redon et al. (2011) and Roulier et al. (2019) were 103 analyzed (Figure SI-1). These sites represent various forest types (dominance of 8 tree 104 species), climates (continental, transition, oceanic and mountainous), humus forms (mor, 105 moder, mull) and pedological properties (Table SI-1). The extensive data collection and sites 106 description was carried out as part of the RENECOFOR network (Brêthes, Urlich, 1997; 107 Probst et al., 2003; Redon et al., 2011; Roulier et al., 2019) (Table SI-2). Moreover Se 108 concentrations and fluxes in rainfall were measured by Roulier et al., (2020) in a subset of 27 109 sites. The maps with the location of the sampling sites was adapted in R Studio (R Core 110 Team, 2013; version 3.4.3). The coastal distance was estimated taking into account the 111 closest coast and the direction of the prevailing wind.

112 **2.2** Sampling procedure and sample treatment

113 Mineral soil layers of systematic depth (0-10, 10-20, 20-40 cm) and humus horizons (litter, 114 fragmented, and humic layers) were sampled during the period 1993-1995 to measure their 115 dry mass and chemical concentrations. For each site and layer, five samples were taken for 116 chemical analyses from five $13.5 \times 13.5 \text{ m}^2$ subplots distributed within the 0.5 ha central part 117 of the site, then oven-dried at 35°C and stored in the dark at room temperature (details in Jonard et al., 2017). Litterfall was collected in ten traps of 0.5 m² placed at 1 m above forest 118 119 floor in every plots. Litterfall samples were harvested three to five times a year in the period 120 1998-1999, dried and homogenized. Soil, humus and litterfall composites were prepared by 121 mixing and grinding the individual samples in their respective mass proportions: soil layers

(0-10, 10-20, 20-40 cm), humus fractions (litter, fragmented and humic layers), and litterfall
(foliage, branches, fruits and 'rest material').

124 **2.3 Selenium extractions and analysis**

125 Approximately 0.25 g of soil, humus, or plant material were weighed in 50 ml DigiTUBE (polypropylene). Soil was mixed with 0.5 mL of HCl and 1.5 mL of HNO₃, while humus and 126 127 litterfall were mixed with 2 mL of HNO₃, 0.5 mL of H₂O₂ and 3 mL of ultrapure water (18.2 MΩ.cm, Millipore Elix system). Samples were digested at 90 °C for 3 hours in hot block 128 129 digestion system (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science). Digested samples were diluted to 50 mL with ultrapure water, filtered on 0.45 µm acetate membrane and stored at 4 °C until analysis. 130 131 Each sample was extracted and analyzed in triplicate except those in limited amount (detailed 132 in Table SI-3) and blanks were added in each digestion run.

133 Selenium concentration was determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry 134 (ICP-MS; 7500ce and 7900, Agilent Technologies, Tokyo, Japan) with collision/reaction cell gas flow of 5 mL min⁻¹ H₂. Quantification was obtained by external calibrations in 135 reconstituted matrices (blanks). Instrumental detection limits for Se ranged between 0.4 - 8 136 $\mu g~kg^{-1}$ depending on sample matrix. Typical analytical precision was lower than 10 %137 138 (relative standard deviation, 15 replicates). Certified reference materials of soil DC 73030, 139 DC 73032 (National Analysis Center for Iron & Steel, Beijing, China) and vegetal material ERM-CD281 (Rye grass, Community Bureau of Reference, Brussels, Belgium) were 140 141 analyzed in order to validate the accuracy of the extraction and analytical methods. Our experimental values (191 \pm 15 µg kg⁻¹ for DC 73030, 118 \pm 9 µg kg⁻¹ for DC 73032, 24 \pm 3 142 μ g kg⁻¹ for ERM-CD281) agreed well with the certified values (200 ± 30 μ g kg⁻¹ for DC 143 73030, $140 \pm 20 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$ for DC 73032, $23 \pm 4 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$ for ERM-CD281). 144

145 **2.4.** Calculations

Total soil mass (g ha⁻¹) was estimated as the sum of the masses of all soil layers (0-10, 10-20, 20-40 cm) that were calculated by multiplying the soil layer density by the layer thickness. Selenium stock in the top 40 cm of soil (g ha⁻¹) was calculated by multiplying Se concentration by soil mass. Selenium stocks in humus (g ha⁻¹) and annual litterfall (g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) were calculated by multiplying selenium concentration by the masses of corresponding compartments. Information about soil bulk densities and masses of compartments were provided by ONF and are given in Table SI-2.

153 Theoretical average residence time in forest soil (t_{resSe}) was calculated according to the 154 Equation 1:

155
$$\mathbf{t_{resSe}} = \frac{\text{stock of Se in humus+mineral soil}}{\text{Annual wet atmospheric Se input}}$$
 (years) (1)

156

This calculation was based on steady-state assumption and on the fact that Se input from weathering of the parent rock is negligible given the low average Se content of the Earth' crust (Taylor and McLennan, 1995). Therefore, atmospheric deposition was considered the only source of Se in the forest soil as proposed previously by Redon et al. (2011) and Bowley (2013) for chlorine and iodine. Values of annual wet atmospheric Se used for calculation were from Roulier et al. (2020).

163 Net Se accumulation rate in humus allowed estimating accumulation associated to vegetal
164 material decay (from litterfall to humus) and was calculated according to Equation 2 (Redon
165 et al., 2011):

166 **Se accumulation rate** =
$$\frac{([se]_{humus} - [se]_{litter}) \times DM_{humus}}{t_{resDM}} (g ha^{-1} yr^{-1})$$
(2)

where $[Se]_{humus}$ and $[Se]_{litter}$ are Se concentrations in humus and litterfall, DM_{humus} and t_{resDM} are dry mass and the average dry matter residence time in the humus, respectively. t_{resDM} was calculated according to Equation 3 (Redon et al., 2011):

170
$$\mathbf{t_{resDM}} = \frac{\mathbf{DM_{humus}}}{\mathbf{LF} \times (1 - \text{litter fraction mineralized})} \text{ (years) } (3)$$

171 where LF is the annual litterfall dry mass. 'litter fraction mineralized' is the average mass 172 loss of litter due to mineralization before its total humification. For the calculation, litter 173 fraction mineralized values were taken from the study of Osono and Takeda (2005) on 174 different tree species (85% in pines, 70% in Douglas, 61% in spruce, 51% in silver fir, 65% 175 in beech and 43% in oak forests).

176

177 2.5. Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were used to determine correlations between selenium concentrations or stocks in soil, humus, and litterfall (response variables) with environmental, climatic, and geochemical conditions.

181 Shapiro-Wilk test was first used to determine if selenium concentrations and stocks in soil, 182 humus and litterfall were normally distributed. As Se data were not normally distributed, a 183 Spearman rank correlation test and Kruskal-Wallis test were performed respectively for 184 numerical and categorical variables. Categorical variables comprised: forest type (coniferous, 185 deciduous), tree species (oak, beech, Douglas, pine, spruce, fir), climate (mountain, continental, oceanic, transition), humus type (mor, mull, moder), rock type (sedimentary 186 187 rocks, igneous rocks, other), soil type (cambisol, planosol, podzoluvisol, luvisol, andosol, podzol, letosol). Pairwise Wilcoxon test with Holm adjustment for p-values was applied in 188 189 order to establish the differences within sub-groups of categorical variables.

190 The distributions of selenium concentrations, stocks, and accumulation rates were represented191 by boxplots for disparate categorical variables, with significant differences indicated by

letters. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed and a biplot correlation circle
was drawn in order to visualise the relationships between soil numerical physico-chemical
parameters and selenium concentrations in soil and the contribution of individual sites into
the representation. Statistical analyses and boxplot representations were performed with R
Studio (R Core Team, 2013; version 3.4.3).

197

198 3. Results and discussion

3.1 Selenium distribution in forest ecosystems

Selenium concentrations in litterfall, humus, and soil samples of the forest sites are detailed in Table SI-3. Selenium concentrations were in the ranges 22-369 μ g kg⁻¹, 57-1608 μ g kg⁻¹ and 25-1222 μ g kg⁻¹ respectively for litterfall, humus and soil samples (Figure 1).

Selenium concentrations in humus were in the same range or higher than in soils while in 203 204 litterfall they were on average 6 times lower than in humus and soils (Kruskal-Wallis rank for global test: $\chi^2 = 75.30$, p-value < 0.001). Selenium contents in litterfall were comparable to 205 values of 59 \pm 11 (Di Tullo, 2015) and 112 µg kg⁻¹ (Tyler, 2005) previously reported for 206 beech leaf litter. A wide range of Se concentration in humus was also observed in the 207 208 literature. Di Tullo (2015) reported 151 μ g kg⁻¹ for beech mull type humus and Tyler (2005) the value of 650 μ g kg⁻¹ for mor – humus formation of soil's O-horizon. Reimann et al. 209 (2015) also observed higher Se concentrations in the range 400-6300 μ g kg⁻¹ in organic O-210 horizon compared to 100-2700 µg kg⁻¹ in mineral C-horizon (20-80 cm depth) of Norwegian 211 212 forests. Selenium concentrations in soils (Figure 2) were coherent with average global values from 10 to 2000 µg kg⁻¹ (Natasha et al., 2018) and values reported for European soils: 82 to 213 1119 µg kg⁻¹ in France (Tolu, 2012), 100 to 4000 µg kg⁻¹ in UK (Broadley et al., 2006) and 214 120 to 1970 µg kg⁻¹ in the Netherlands (Supriatin et al., 2015). Selenium concentrations in 215

humus were only moderately correlated with Se concentrations in litterfall (Spearman test, $r_s = 0.40$, p < 0.01), whereas no correlation was found between Se concentrations in litterfall and soil (p-value > 0.05). Moderate correlation between Se concentrations in humus and soil was found (Spearman test, $r_s = 0.43$, p-value < 0.01).

The Se stock in 40 cm deep soil composites varied from 142 to 3702 g ha⁻¹, which is much 220 higher than Se reserves in humus (0.3 to 121 g ha⁻¹, Table SI-3). The mean annual Se flux 221 from litterfall to forest soil was 0.30 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ with values ranging from 0.06 to 1.20 g ha⁻¹ 222 223 yr⁻¹ (Table SI-3). Roulier et al (2020) reported annual Se fluxes in rainfall for a subset of the same surveyed sites (n = 27) ranging from 0.25 to 2.01 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ with a median value of 224 0.34 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. Combining these two fluxes would result into apparent total annual Se 225 contribution to forest floor of 0.45 - 2.49 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Table SI-3). The sum of these two 226 227 contributions might overestimate Se input to the soil given the interception (mean annual 228 interception fraction of the precipitation can reach 31% (Ulrich et al., 2002)) and potential 229 surface adsorption of a fraction of Se from rain by foliage before senescence. In addition to 230 wet deposition interception, it is also possible that Se in litterfall partly originated from dry deposition or foliar or root uptake, different pathways not considered in the present budget. 231 232 On the other hand, Se volatilization that is common for many plants and microorganisms 233 (Chasteen and Bentley, 2003) might have compensated the impact of those different 234 processes in overall budget. In brief, the net accumulation of atmospheric Se by the foliage 235 remains uncertain and difficult to quantify as is the case for various trace elements. 236 Moreover, the results of correlation tests showed no direct dependence between Se 237 concentrations in humus and soil and the sum of Se contributions from rain and litterfall (p >238 0.05, Table 1). This suggests that mobilization and immobilization processes of Se in forest 239 soils have a greater influence on the Se concentration of soils than the contributions of 240 rainfall and litterfall. When Se reaches the ground via litterfall, it can be released during biomass decomposition, then volatilized, or leached to deeper forest soil layers where sorption/desorption processes take place, or possibly taken up by tree roots and further recycled. Further statistical analyses were performed in order to highlight the factors affecting Se inventories in forest ecosystem.

245

246 **3.2 Environmental factors affecting Se concentration in litterfall**

Statistical analysis showed significant effect of distance from the coast, climate type, Se concentration, and flux in rain on Se concentration in litterfall (Table 1). Furthermore, Se concentration in litterfall was statistically homogeneous through forest types and tree species (Kruskal-Wallis test, p > 0.05).

251 Slightly higher concentrations of Se in litterfall in oceanic climate compared to transition and 252 mountain climates (Figure 3.1) were confirmed by weak negative correlation between Se concentration in litterfall and distance from the coast (Spearman test, $r_s = -0.35$, p < 0.05). 253 254 The ocean is an important source of atmospheric Se (Amouroux et al., 2001; Mason et al., 255 2018; Wen and Carignan, 2007), reaching the ground or plant surface as dry and wet 256 depositions. Strong positive correlation was obtained between Se concentration in litterfall and in rainfall when EPC08 site was excluded (Spearman test, $r_s = 0.73$, p < 0.001, r² = 0.66, 257 Figure 3.2). This site showed a very high Se concentration in litterfall (369 μ g kg⁻¹) 258 compared to concentrations of the other sites (between 22 and 161 μ g kg⁻¹), suggesting local 259 contamination. The high concentrations of Se in soil (1222 μ g kg⁻¹) and humus (1608 μ g 260 kg^{-1}) at this site would be coherent with recurrent atmospheric emissions. The EPC08 site is 261 262 located in the Ardennes mountains, very close to the industrial regions of Western Europe 263 (Cumbers et al., 2006) whose economy had been based for years on metallurgical industry 264 requiring charcoal combustion. Nowadays, there are developed railway, car and battery 265 recycling industries, all of which can be a potential source of long-term local pollution.

- Interestingly, the same site was also reported to be contaminated by As and atmospheric deposits of Pb (Pauget et al., 2013; Probst et al., 2003).
- In summary, Se concentration in litterfall was dependent from environmental conditions such as climate, Se input from rainfall and proximity to the coast. Furthermore, anthropogenic sources may contribute to Se deposition for some sites.
- 271
- 272 **3.3 Se accumulation in humus compartment**

273 As already discussed in Section 3.1, Se concentration in humus showed a wide range of values from 57 to 1607 μ g kg⁻¹ with median value of 353 μ g kg⁻¹ and maximum value 274 corresponding to EPC08 potentially contaminated site. According to differences between 275 276 litterfall and humus, Se concentration was increased on average six times along the litter 277 decay continuum. Generally, Se concentrations in humus of coniferous forests were higher than in deciduous forests (Figure 4.1, Table 1), despite homogenous concentrations of 278 279 selenium in litterfall of both forest types. Thus, humus under spruce and Douglas had 280 significantly higher Se content compared to oak (Figure SI-2, Table 1). It may result from 281 differences in the humification process, as deciduous leaves have a different composition 282 from conifer needles (e.g. lower lignin content), which generally leads to a higher labile mass 283 content and greater leaching losses in the early stages of litter decomposition (Prescott et al., 284 2000). The calculated average residence times of humus where higher for Douglas fir, spruce 285 and pine $(37.6 \pm 27.7, 54.2 \pm 50.4 \text{ and } 144.2 \pm 113.5 \text{ years}$, Table SI-2) compared to oak and beech (5.5 ± 5.0 and 12.4 ± 12.2 years Table SI-2), which reflects slower decomposition rates 286 287 of organic matter under conifers. Only humus from silver fir differed from the other coniferous species by low masses (20.3 \pm 15.5 t ha⁻¹) and low average residence times (10.8 288 \pm 6.8 years). In the RENECOFOR network, forests of silver fir were usually associated to 289 290 mull humus formation on cambisol characterized by rapid litter decomposition.

291 As a consequence of different litter decay rates, Se concentration in humus was strongly correlated with humus mass (Spearman rank test, $r_s = 0.68$, p-value < 0.001). This resulted in 292 lower humus Se stocks in oak, beech and silver fir forests $(4 \pm 6, 8 \pm 15, 10 \pm 9 \text{ g ha}^{-1})$ 293 compared to Douglas fir, spruce and pine $(16 \pm 11, 47 \pm 38, 41 \pm 38 \text{ g ha}^{-1})$. It was reflected 294 295 likewise in the dependence of the Se humus stock on the type of humus. Mean Se stock in 296 humus decreased in the order: mor > moder > mull according to decreasing humus biomass 297 and increasing organic matter degradation rate (Figure 4.2, Table 1). Selenium concentrations 298 in soils followed opposite order with significantly lower concentrations in soils under mor 299 compared to mull-humus formations (Figure 4.3) highlighting the importance of Se input 300 from humus decomposition to the underlying soil layers. Selenium can be mobilized in the 301 form of soluble (hydr)-oxyanions and/or organo-Se compounds (seleno-methionine (SeMet) 302 and methane seleninic acid (MeSeOOH) (Tolu et al., 2014)) and colloidal OM of plant or 303 microbial origin (Weng et al., 2011). Beside lower biomass and faster degradation, mull-304 humus formation is also characterized by higher microbial activity, which can lead to the 305 release of volatile compounds such as H_2 Se, DMSe (dimethyl selenide) and DMDSe 306 (dimethyl diselenide) into the atmosphere (Wessjohann et al., 2007).

The median Se accumulation rate in humus was $0.30 \text{ g ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with no clear distinction 307 308 between coniferous and deciduous tree species (Table SI-3). The highest accumulation rate, 1.57 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹, was for the EPC08 site. For this site, a long lasting dry deposition from 309 310 anthropogenic contamination may affect accumulation rate value. Generally, Se accumulation rates were positive, except for one beech forest site (HET55: -0.02 ± 0.01 g ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) for 311 312 which Se concentrations in humus and litterfall were similar (57 \pm 6 and 73 \pm 8, respectively, 313 Table SI-3). Negative accumulation rates were reported for chlorine in beech and oak forests, 314 while they were positive for chlorine in Douglas, fir, spruce, and pine forests (Redon et al., 315 2011), and for iodine in all tree species (Roulier et al., 2019). Negative accumulation rates

316 were interpreted as a result of high humus decomposition rate and leaching, whereas positive 317 accumulation rates reflect Se enrichment during the process of litterfall transformation into humus. The average rate of Se accumulation in humus (0.39 g $ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$) was similar to the 318 average Se flux from litterfall (0.30 g ha^{-1} yr⁻¹), and the average rainfall Se flux (0.44 g ha^{-1} 319 yr⁻¹). This suggests a partial humus enrichment by the capture of soluble Se from rain 320 through sorptive accumulation. Beside the retention, Se of atmospheric origin is subject to 321 322 losses by drainage and volatilization, but the contribution of each pathway remains unclear 323 and needs further investigation.

To conclude, Se inventories in humus were mostly controlled by the litter decay process and the rate of organic matter decomposition and not directly by the input of Se to the forest floor.

326

327 **3.4 Environmental variables influencing Se content in soil**

328 The soil compartment was shown to be the main reservoir of Se. Tree species, climate and 329 rock type were the most discriminating categorical variables (Paragraph 3.3) to explain the 330 variation in Se content in French forest soils. Although the ocean is an important reservoir of 331 Se on a global scale, no direct correlation was found between Se concentration in soil and 332 distance from the coast. Decreasing Se content was observed with the distance from the 333 ocean in forest soil in Norway (Låg and Steinnes, 1978). Blazina et al. (2014) showed that 334 over the last 6.8 million years the monsoonal climate had likely dominant role on 335 atmospheric Se deposition and soil concentration in Chinese Loess Plateau. Winkel et al. (2015) highlighted the need for further research to determine the extent to which wet 336 337 deposition influences soil Se levels on a large scale, although Se generally measured in wet 338 deposition is not location-dependent. In our study higher Se concentrations in soil were only 339 observed for the mountain climate compared to continental climate (Figure 5.1, Table 2). It may be due to reduced microbial activity and lower degradation rate of OM in colder climate 340

341 or specific soil composition in the mountain climate. The former would have minor impact, 342 as no dependence was observed between Se concentrations in humus and climate. The latter 343 would be more important as mountainous soils had elevated total Fe, total Al and organic C 344 contents (Figures SI 5-7). Another co-correlation was found between climate and tree species, as Se-poor transition forest soils were dominated by pines and oaks, while Se-rich 345 346 mountainous forest soils by Douglas. Summing up, the co-correlations between Fe, Al, C 347 contents in soil, climate and tree species do not permit to determine which of these factors 348 plays a dominant role in Se immobilization in soil.

349 No dependence was observed between Se concentrations in soil and soil type (p > 0.05, Table 350 2), which may be due to large variability in soil composition within a soil type. Concerning 351 the effect of bedrock material, soils derived from sedimentary rocks were in general poorer in 352 Se than those from igneous rocks (Figure 5.2, Table 1), which is contrary to some statements 353 in the literature (Sharma et al., 2015). Average Se level in igneous rocks was reported as 0.35 mg kg⁻¹, while the content in sedimentary rocks varies significantly within classification 354 groups: 0.05 mg kg^{-1} in sandstone, 0.08 mg kg^{-1} in limestone and the highest values for rocks 355 with high organic carbon content: 0.6 mg kg^{-1} for shale and 300 mg kg⁻¹ for coal (Natasha et 356 al., 2018). Thus, Se concentrations measured in 0-40 cm soil depth may not reflect the 357 358 character of rock, especially for low-Se parent materials. Additionally, as analyzed soils were 359 from shallow soil layer (≤ 40 cm), Se input from litterfall and atmospheric depositions masks 360 the influence of soil parent material weathering.

361

362 3.5 Effect of soil composition on Se content

363 A correlation matrix was first constructed with all numerical variables describing soil 364 composition (Table SI-4). The variables that were well correlated (Spearman rank test $r_s >$ 365 0.6) with soil Se concentrations were total Al, total Fe, total N, organic C, and clay fraction. 366 Moreover, there were also moderate correlations with soil exchangeable Al concentration, 367 sand and silt fractions, and cation exchange capacity (CEC). PCA analysis was then used to 368 depict the effect of soil composition on Se concentrations of individual soils. Sites EPC63 369 and EPC08 were excluded in PCA analysis because they showed peculiar characteristics, as 370 highlighted by their position with respect to linear correlations between Se concentration and total Fe/Al and C_{org} (Figure SI-6, $r^2 = 0.75$ and $r^2 = 0.62$, respectively). As previously 371 discussed (Section 3.2), EPC08 was identified as a potentially contaminated site. The soil at 372 373 EPC63 site was the only representative of Andosol, which is rare for French geographical 374 location (about 1% in France) (Quantin, 2004).

375 The contribution of each variable to the first three principal components of PCA is presented 376 in Table 2. Further, the number of variables was reduced by removing co-correlated 377 parameters. Therefore, organic C was selected as the sole representative of soil OM 378 (elimination of total N) and total Fe as the sole representative of Fe/Al minerals (elimination 379 of total Al). Mn exchangeable was excluded as it contributed little to Dim 1 and Dim 2 380 components (Table 2) and any significant effect (p-value > 0.05) of soil exchangeable Mn on 381 Se concentration was observed. It was not surprising as selenite is more readily released to 382 liquid phase by anion-exchange mechanism from Mn oxides compared to goethite (Fe oxides) (Saeki and Matsumoto, 1994). 383

The first two principal components explained 73.0% of the variation (Dim1 41.6 % and Dim2 31.4%). Selenium, C_{org} and Fe concentrations in soil were characterized by strongly positive coordinates on the Dim 1 axis (Figure 6). Moreover, PCA eigenvalues showed positive loads in the Dim1 for clay, Al exchangeable, CEC and Fe exchangeable variables. The second component was well described by pH and Fe exchangeable variables that were logically anticorrelated. Similar anti-correlation was observed between sand and clay fractions.

Soil samples were discriminated in three clusters of different Se concentrations: <235 µg 390 kg⁻¹, 235-650 μ g kg⁻¹, >650 μ g kg⁻¹. Located on negative Dim 1, the first cluster with the 391 lowest Se concentrations < 235 μ g kg⁻¹ including 13 sites was characterized by soils with 392 393 high contribution of sand and low Corg and Fe/Al content. This cluster includes mainly 394 arenosols, podzols, and planosols in oceanic and transition climates with maritime pine and oak as the main tree species. In this cluster, sites PM17 and PM85 are two arenosols close to 395 the ocean (≤ 2 km) with the lowest Se concentrations (25 µg kg⁻¹ and 39 µg kg⁻¹, 396 397 respectively). Their position in the biplot is explained by their very high content of sand (99%) 398 and 96% respectively), high pH values (8.7 and 8.5 respectively), and low OM content (3.85 and 5.55 g kg⁻¹ respectively). These results confirmed the importance of OM and Al/Fe 399 400 content in Se retention and the fact that sand fraction is a weak Se carrier (Chi et al., 2019; 401 Coppin et al., 2006; Saeki and Matsumoto, 1994).

402 At the opposite on the biplot graph, the three soils with the highest Se concentrations (> 650 403 μ g kg⁻¹; HET30, DOU71 and DOU65 sites) had positive coordinates on both dimensions axes associated with Se, Corg, total Fe and Al exchangeable variables. These soils are acidic 404 podzols (HET30 and DOU 71) or cambisol (DOU65) in mountain climate with very high Corg 405 $(67 - 85 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$, Fe $(8.7 - 14.3 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$ and Al $(7.1 - 12.0 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$ contents. In our study the 406 407 concentrations of organic C (and total N) were strongly correlated with those of total Fe and 408 Al (Table SI-6). Strong correlation between Se content and organic C concentration in soil is 409 related to the ability of OM to interact with Se. Aluminium and Fe oxides remain protonated 410 in a broad pH range and have relatively large surface area with densely arrayed functional 411 groups. These functional groups can also promote the formation of inner and outer sphere 412 complexes with Se (Peak, 2006; Söderlund et al., 2016). Like in our study, hot spots of Se in 413 soils were identified as co-located with Fe and Al contents suggesting possible indirect 414 sorption on metals associated within OM surface or matrix (Coppin et al., 2009).

Soils with medium Se concentrations (235 - 650 μ g kg⁻¹) were gathered in the third cluster 415 416 (32 sites for a total of 49). This cluster contains all types of soils (except the two arenosols 417 discussed previously), tree species and climates. Within this cluster, a sub-group of 4 sites 418 (SP25, SP11, SP05 and HET25) for three soil types (luvisol, cambisol and leptosol) was 419 characterized by a strong contribution of clay fraction (35 - 50 %) and neutral pH (5.76 -7.21). With moderate C_{org} (23 – 31g kg⁻¹) and Al/Fe content (from 1.9 to 5.1 g Al kg⁻¹ and 420 4.2 to 9.7 g Fe kg⁻¹), they also exhibited moderately high Se concentrations $(371 - 500 \mu g)$ 421 422 kg^{-1}).

423 Summarizing all of the above, our results confirm the strong relationships between Se and 424 organic matter and Al/Fe constituents. However, it was not possible to clarify whether Fe/Al 425 oxides or OM have a greater influence on Se sorption, as these variables were highly 426 correlated and may act synergistically on Se retention.

427 The calculated selenium residence times in forest soils (tresSe) were between 617 and 8406 years (median value 2735 years for n = 27 sites), which is higher than retention times of 428 429 iodine (419 - 1756 years) and chlorine (3 - 67 years) for the same sites (Redon et al., 2011; 430 Roulier et al., 2019). That pattern is in agreement with other results showing higher desorption distribution coefficients K_D in woodland for Se (41 - 1198 L kg⁻¹ (Almahayni et 431 al., 2017; Tolu et al., 2014)) compared to I (4 - 281 L kg⁻¹) as well as higher sorption 432 coefficient K_D values for Se (4 - 2100 L kg⁻¹) than for I (0.01 - 580 L kg⁻¹) and Cl (0.04 - 1.2 433 L kg⁻¹) in all types of soils (IAEA, 2010). Summing up, radionuclide ⁷⁹Se has a highest 434 potential to persist in soil compartment compared to the other radionuclides ¹²⁹I and ³⁶Cl. The 435 broad range of t_{resSe} is a result of combinations of local environmental factors including input 436 437 to soil, organic matter turnover, and soil properties.

438 **4.** Conclusions

439 In this study, the influence of environmental and geochemical conditions on Se accumulation 440 in forest soil was analyzed. Selenium concentration in litterfall was linearly dependent on its 441 concentration in rainfall with higher values near the coast, i.e. for oceanic climate. Deviation 442 from correlation was observed for one site with very high concentration in litterfall (369 443 $\mu g/kg$) and was attributed to anthropogenic activities. The annual amount of selenium cycling 444 through litterfall was minor compared to Se stock in forest soils and, no direct correlation was 445 found between the two. The higher Se concentrations of recalcitrant mor humus compared to 446 easily degradable mull humus highlighted that organic matter degradation rate likely controls 447 Se content in humus and more generally in soils. In forest soils, the content of organic matter 448 and Fe/Al oxides had pivotal role among all soil constituents in long-term Se retention. Thus, 449 acidic soils rich in organic matter and Fe/Al oxides under Douglas fir and beech forests in 450 mountain climate are the soil properties and environmental conditions that promote the 451 persistence of Se in forest soils.

452

453 Supplementary information

454 Additional information as noted in the text.

455 Acknowledgements

- 456 The authors would like to thank all technical support from the RENECOFOR-ONF network,
- 457 which provided the collection of samples and sites data. We wish to acknowledge M. Roulier
- 458 for her guidance with statistical program.
- 459 Funding: This research was financially supported by the French National Radioactive Waste
- 460 Management Agency (Andra).

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Figure 1. Selenium concentrations in litterfall, humus and soils. Box plots show the first quartile (Q₁), median and third quartile (Q₃) of the data. Black diamond symbols represent average Se concentrations in groups. Lower and upper whiskers extend from the hinges by Q₁ - $1.5 \times IQR$ (IQR - interquartile range) and Q₃ + $1.5 \times IQR$, respectively. Dots represent corresponding data. The different letters above the boxes correspond to significant differences between the groups according to pairwise Wilcoxon test, with Holm adjustment for p-value.



Figure 2 Selenium concentrations in French forest soils (mean value of top 40 cm soil). Diameter of red circle is proportional to Se concentration (minimun: $25 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$; maximum: $1222 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$).



Figure 3 Se concentration in litterfall according to 1) climate; 2) annual volume-weighted mean Se concentration in rainfall. In Figure 3.1 box plots show the first quartile (Q₁), median and third quartile (Q₃) of the data. Black diamond symbols represent average Se concentrations in groups. Lower and upper whiskers extend from the hinges by Q₁ - 1.5 × IQR (IQR interquartile range) and Q₃ + 1.5 × IQR, respectively. Dots represent corresponding data. The different letters above the boxes correspond to significant differences between the groups according to pairwise Wilcoxon test, with Holm adjustment for p-value.



Figure 4 Boxplot representations of: 1) Se concentrations in humus according to forest type; 2) Se stocks in humus according to humus type; 3) Se concentrations in soils according to humus type. Box plots show the first quartile (Q₁), median and third quartile (Q₃) of the data. Black diamond symbols represent average Se concentrations in groups. Lower and upper whiskers extend from the hinges by Q₁ - 1.5 × IQR (IQR - interquartile range) and Q₃ + 1.5 × IQR, respectively. Dots represent corresponding data. The different letters above the boxes correspond to significant differences between the groups according to pairwise Wilcoxon test, with Holm adjustment for p-value.



Figure 5 Distribution of Se concentrations in soils according to 1) climate, and 2) rock type. Box plots show the first quartile (Q₁), median and third quartile (Q₃) of the data. Black diamond symbols represent average Se concentrations in groups. Lower and upper whiskers extend from the hinges by Q₁ - $1.5 \times IQR$ (IQR - interquartile range) and Q₃ + $1.5 \times IQR$, respectively. Dots represent corresponding data. The different letters above the boxes correspond to significant differences between the groups according to pairwise Wilcoxon test, with Holm adjustment for p-value.



Figure 6 PCA biplot representation of soil composition data on the first two PC axis . Individual soils (48 samples) are colored according to their Se concentration range: : $<235 \ \mu g \ kg^{-1}$ - blue, 235-650 $\mu g \ kg^{-1}$ - violet, >650 $\mu g \ kg^{-1}$ - red. Arrows represent contribution of soil geochemical numerical variables on principal component axes.

Table 1 Statistical analysis for Se concentrations in soil, humus and litterfall. Spearman rank correlation coefficient r_s and Kruskal-Wallis χ^2 values with p-values. Significant correlations are marked in bold.

	Variables	soil		humus		litterfall	
		rs	р	rs	р	r _s	р
Numerical variables	Coastal distance	-0.02	0.880	-0.02	0.885	-0.35	< 0.05
	Se conc. in rain ¹	-0.13	0.530	0.23	0.267	0.76	< 0.001
	Se flux in rain ¹	0.34	0.087	0.31	0.123	0.41	< 0.05
	Se flux in litterfall and rain	0.13	0.530	0.21	0.309		
	Se accumulation rate in humus	0.43	< 0.01				
Categorical variable		χ^2	р	χ^2	р	χ^2	р
	Tree species (n=6)	22.58	< 0.001	20.25	< 0.01	7.24	0.203
	Forest type (n=2)	0.17	0.682	15.53	< 0.001	0.15	0.697
	Climate (n=4)	10.74	< 0.05	3.97	0.265	11.36	< 0.01
	Humus type (n=3)	6.02	< 0.05	5.26	0.072		
	Rock type (n=3)	16.34	< 0.001				
	Soil type (n=7)	12.61	0.082				

¹ test performed for 27 sites; n - number of sub-types

	i) contributions of all variables			ii) contribution of reduced number			
Variables				of variables			
	Dim.1	Dim.2	Dim.3	Dim.1	Dim.2	Dim.3	
Fe tot	15.806	5.64E-05	0.067	21.585	5.498	0.610	
Se	14.990	1.683	0.003	23.708	1.522	1.481	
Ν	13.898	0.744	6.801	-	-	-	
Al tot	12.761	3.301	3.463	-	-	-	
C_{org}	12.262	5.510	5.761	19.620	0.378	17.124	
Clay	8.555	11.535	0.071	-	-	-	
Sand	6.962	12.615	9.032	3.853	17.197	50.116	
Al exchang.	5.627	10.315	10.237	18.698	5.902	3.600	
Silt	3.946	9.073	17.462	-	-	-	
CEC	3.637	14.145	8.354	0.282	34.693	0.471	
Mn exchang.	0.859	5.798	10.039	-	-	-	
pН	0.364	9.701	26.421	5.268	20.562	23.163	
Fe exchang.	0.333	15.580	2.288	6.987	14.248	3.435	

Table 2 Contributions on the first three PC axes of i) all variables and ii) reduced number of variables.

exchang. – exchangeable