

1 **Integrated characterization of subsurface media from locations up- and down-gradient of a**
2 **uranium-contaminated aquifer**

3
4 Ji-Won Moon^{a,k}, Charles J. Paradis^b, Dominique C. Joyner^b, Frederick von Netzer^c, Erica L.
5 Majumder^d, Emma R. Dixon^b, Mircea Podar^a, Xiaoxuan Ge^e, Peter J. Walianⁱ, Heidi J. Smith^g,
6 Xiaoqin Wu^j, Grant M. Zane^d, Kathleen F. Walker^b, Michael P. Thorgersen^e, Farris L. Poole III^e,
7 Lauren M. Lui^h, Benjamin G. Adams^b, Kara B. De León^d, Sheridan S. Brewer^b, Daniel E.
8 Williams^b, Kenneth A. Lowe^f, Miguel Rodriguez, Jr.^a, Tonia L. Mehlhorn^f, Susan M. Pfiffner^b,
9 Romy Chakraborty^j, Adam P. Arkin^h, Judy D. Wall^d, Matthew W. Fields^g, Michael W. W.
10 Adams^e, David A. Stahl^c, Dwayne A. Elias^a and Terry C. Hazen^{a,b*}

11
12 ^aOak Ridge National Laboratory, Biosciences Division, Oak Ridge, TN,

13 ^bUniversity of Tennessee, Departments of Earth & Planetary Sciences, Microbiology, Civil &
14 Environmental Engineering, Methane Center, Knoxville, TN

15 ^cUniversity of Washington, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Seattle, WA,

16 ^dUniversity of Missouri, Department of Biochemistry, Columbia, MO,

17 ^eUniversity of Georgia, Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Athens, GA,

18 ^fOak Ridge National Laboratory, Environmental Science Division, Oak Ridge, TN,

19 ^gMontana State University, Center for Biofilm Engineering, Department of Microbiology &
20 Immunology, Bozeman, MT

21 ^hLawrence Berkeley National Laboratory Environmental Genomics and Systems Biology,
22 Berkeley, CA

23 ⁱLawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Molecular Biophysics and Integrated Bioimaging,
24 Berkeley, CA

25 ^jLawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Department of Ecology, Earth and Environmental
26 Sciences Area, Berkeley, CA

27 ^kcurrent U.S. Geological Survey, National Minerals Information Center, Reston, VA

28
29 *Corresponding author: Terry C. Hazen (tchazen@utk.edu)

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38

39 **Abstract**

40 The processing of sediment to accurately characterize the spatially-resolved depth profiles of
41 geophysical and geochemical properties along with signatures of microbial density and activity
42 remains a challenge especially in complex contaminated environments. To provide site
43 assessment for a larger study, we processed cores from two sediment boreholes from background
44 and contaminated core sediments and surrounding groundwater from the ENIGMA Field
45 Research Site at the United States Department of Energy (DOE) Oak Ridge Reservation (ORR).
46 We compared fresh core sediments by depth to capture the changes in sediment structure,
47 sediment minerals, biomass, and pore water geochemistry in terms of major and trace elements
48 including contaminants, cations, anions, and organic acids. Soil porewater samples were matched
49 to groundwater level, flow rate, and preferential flows and compared to homogenized
50 groundwater-only samples from neighboring monitoring wells. This environmental systems
51 approach provided detailed site-specific biogeochemical information from the various properties
52 of subsurface media to reveal the influences of solid, liquid, and gas phases. Groundwater
53 analysis of nearby wells only revealed high sulfate and nitrate concentrations while the same
54 analysis using sediment pore water samples with depth was able to suggest areas high in sulfate-
55 and nitrate- reducing bacteria based on their decreased concentration and production of reduced
56 by-products that could not be seen in the groundwater samples. Positive correlations among
57 porewater content, total organic carbon, trace metals and clay minerals revealed a more
58 complicated relationship among contaminant, sediment texture, groundwater table, and biomass.
59 This suggested that groundwater predominantly flowed through preferential paths with high flux
60 and little mixing with water in the interstices of sediment particles, which could impact microbial
61 activity. The abundant clay minerals with high surface area and high water-holding capacity of
62 micro-pores of the fine clay rich layer suggest suppression of nutrient supply to microbes from
63 the surface. The fluctuating capillary interface had high concentrations of Fe and Mn-oxides
64 combined with trace elements including U, Th, Sr, Ba, Cu, and Co. This suggests the mobility of
65 highly toxic elements, sediment structure, and biogeochemical factors are all linked together to
66 impact microbial communities, emphasizing that solid interfaces play an important role in
67 determining the abundance of bacteria in the sediments.

68

1. INTRODUCTION

69 As the impact of human processes on land is better appreciated, there is an increasing interest in
70 the biogeochemical processes that drive chemical and physical changes in soil and water and
71 transform and differentially mobilize contaminants. The processes that impact soil and water
72 quality are complex. Abiotic processes of water flow and weathering of rock, chemical
73 transformation of metal and organic contaminants, and interchange of gasses with the
74 atmosphere are mediated by diverse biological processes driven by complex populations of
75 microbes that themselves are affected and dispersed by abiotic factors. Environmental
76 monitoring of these processes has classically proceeded by collection of groundwater in drilled
77 wells and online chemical measurement sites that provide information about bulk chemical
78 concentrations, water flow, temperature and other critical parameters. Interpretation of these data
79 are complicated by the nature of collection since they are naturally an integral of the most mobile
80 elements in the soil and water system that can be collected in homogenous catch-wells. This
81 destroys the spatial information, eludes direct information about the attached and immobilized
82 chemistry and biology. This clearly does not account for the physical changes in the subsurface
83 that mediate key processes but has the advantage of being accessible and temporally continuous
84 (Hazen et al., 1991). In recent years, there is a renewed focus on analyzing the spatially-resolved
85 soil and sediment dynamics along with the differentiated communities of microbes and the
86 processes they harbor.

87 Here we develop a workflow for characterization of such core-samples that delivers information
88 about the spatially resolved chemistries, physical nature of the sediment matrix, and the bulk
89 biotic properties and show how they differ between cores from two boreholes from very different
90 geochemical positions in a contaminated aquifer and compare these to nearby groundwater wells.
91 We demonstrate how this type of analysis can inform planning for more in-depth investigations
92 of biotic-abiotic interactions in the shallow subsurface and determine the key challenges in the
93 use of this information.

94 We compared samples from both upgradient and contaminated core sediments, pore waters, and
95 groundwater in nearby monitoring wells freshly obtained from the Oak Ridge Reservation

96 (ORR) and Y-12 Complex field sites in Oak Ridge, TN to determine a full spectrum of site-
97 specific biogeochemical assessments.

98 Microbes abundant in subsurface environments are more commonly found attached to soil or
99 sediment particle surfaces rather than in suspension in water when nutrient levels are low
100 (Griebler and Lueders, 2009). This particle-attached community composition can be considered a
101 biofilm and is composed of relatively abundant anaerobic bacteria and/or microaerophilic
102 organisms due to low-oxygen zones within the particles (Enzien et al., 1994; LaMontagne and
103 Holden, 2003). These organisms are likely to have an effect on the overall biogeochemical
104 makeup in groundwater systems (Hemme et al., 2010). However, the effect of introduced
105 contaminants on the metabolic potential of groundwater microbes are only vaguely understood
106 (Smith et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2012). We believe the local variation in these parameters
107 strongly affect the distribution and activity of microbes in the soil and thus the overall activity of
108 the site is best predicted by understanding this spatial variation. But accurate measurement of the
109 local physical and chemical parameters that affect biological factors is difficult (Christensen et
110 al., 2018).

111 For this study we used two freshly drilled boreholes, one in a relatively pristine area up-gradient
112 of a source contaminant and one down-gradient of that contaminated area (S-3 ponds) in the Y-
113 12 National Security Complex, respectively (Smith et al., 2015). These areas were selected to
114 have a similar geology and were considered to be geochemically favorable for microbial nitrate-
115 and sulfate- reduction as previously reported (Smith et al., 2015). We focused on geochemical
116 and bulk biomass (cell counts) differences between background and contaminated subsurface
117 matrix including soil, liquid, and gas phases and the biogeochemical porewater properties along
118 the sediment core depths as compared to homogenized groundwater-only samples. Finally, we
119 determined how these integrated properties of subsurface matrix can be interpreted for future
120 studies. This study reveals an enhanced understanding of how the fundamental geochemical
121 properties of solid, aqueous, and gas matrix, including groundwater flow affect the geochemistry.

122

123 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

124 Here we demonstrate an environmental systems approach for subsurface investigation using the
125 sectioned core sediments and porewater in detail, compared to bulk homogenized results from
126 adjacent monitoring wells.

127 2.1. Study site

128 The study site is located in the Y-12 National Security Complex in Bear Creek Valley (BCV) in
129 Oak Ridge, Tennessee, USA. The study was conducted within the vicinity of the former S-3
130 ponds, which contain contaminated waste associated with the refinement of uranium ore (Fig. 1).
131 The geological and hydrological setting within the vicinity of the former S-3 ponds has been
132 previously summarized (Watson et al., 2004). In brief, bedrock depth is 5-10 meters below
133 ground surface (mbgs). Overlying the bedrock are unconsolidated materials comprised of native
134 and non-native porous media including residuum and saprolite while non-native porous media
135 includes alluvium and colluvium which are collectively classified as silty and clayey. The depth
136 to groundwater is ~2.5-3 mbgs and the water table level is largely controlled by precipitation and
137 infiltration, varying up to 1 meter during major precipitation or drought events. Groundwater
138 flow within the unconsolidated materials is largely controlled by ground surface elevation and is
139 generally south to southwest and towards Bear Creek (Fig. 1).

140 We focused on the comparative site-specific core assessment with discrete depth profiles from
141 22.86 cm core segments and assessed the accompanying subsurface properties using a new
142 borehole in a upgradient area (EB271) and one in a contaminated area (EB106). Both core
143 samples were immediately processed (sampling, handling, and shipping for further simultaneous
144 analyses at various institutions under anaerobic or minimized air-exposed conditions). We
145 performed depth-specific site assessment including sediment minerals and major transition
146 metals, radionuclide concentrations, biomass (total cell counts) of solid media, pH, conductivity,
147 anions, organic acids, and cations. Sediment water characteristics were compared to the same
148 features obtained from groundwater (GW271 and FW106) which likely represents a
149 homogenized mix regardless of the heterogeneity within vadose, capillary, and saturated zones
150 (Supplemental Table 1).

151 **2.2. Sediment collection**

152 Core samples of unconsolidated materials were obtained from boreholes EB271 and EB106 (Fig.
153 1). EB271 is located up-gradient of the former S-3 ponds, whereas EB106 was located down-
154 gradient 21.1 m downstream from the southern corner of the S-3 pond and as such is
155 contaminated with uranium and nitric acid whereas EB271 was not. The boreholes were
156 advanced using a dual tube (DT22) direct-push Geoprobe drill rig resulting in a sealed casing
157 through which undisturbed sediment samples are recovered. Sediment samples were encased in
158 disposable thin-walled polyvinyl chloride (PVC) liners (91.44 cm length x 5.1 cm I.D.) attached
159 to 3.18 cm-outside diameter inner rods (Geoprobe, 2011). Core sediment samples were field-
160 logged for lithological content using the visual-manual Unified Soil Classification System
161 (USCS) to estimate moisture content, density, color, grain size distribution, and other notable
162 field observations. After drilling was completed, the boreholes were filled with a bentonite and
163 cement slurry to approximately 1 mbgs. From 1 mbgs to ground surface, the boreholes were
164 filled with native material. The locations (latitude and longitude) of each borehole were surveyed
165 in the field using GPS (See Supplemental Table 2). Core segments were evaluated for
166 compression or expansion due to deformation during recovery (See Supplemental Tables 3 &4).

167 Core segments (91.44 cm) were immediately cut to 22.86 cm segments, capped and stored under
168 a nitrogen atmosphere at 4°C after collecting an X-ray fluorescence (XRF) sample by aseptic
169 subsampling of material from the end of each segment. Cores were processed within 24 h of
170 collection with aseptic techniques as follows: Core segments were transferred into an anaerobic
171 chamber (5% H₂/95% N₂; Coy Laboratories, Ann Arbor, MI), end caps were removed and intact
172 subcore samples were extracted from each end with an autoclaved syringe barrel with the needle
173 adaptor end removed. Sediment along the core length was exposed by longitudinal cuts through
174 the PVC liner with a liner cutter (DT32/DT325, Geoprobe). Intact subcore samples were taken
175 from various locations along the core length with syringe barrels. The remaining sample was
176 homogenized in a mixing tray with sterile plastic liner and chopped into < 5 mm-sized sediment
177 aggregates with autoclaved stainless steel spatulas.

178 **2.3. Sediment analyses**

179 All cores were analyzed for radioactivity and U by Geiger counter and XRF respectively.

180 Sediments were placed into double open-ended XRF sample cups (22.9 mm height x 30.7 mm

181 O.D.) with Mylar film (6 μm thickness) covering one end of the cup (Chemplex Industries, Palm

182 city, FL) and measured by an XRF analyzer (XLp-722, Niton) to measure trace metals including

183 Sr, U, Rb, Th, Zn, and Cu, based on the internal calibration to NIST standard soil sample #2710.

184 The Th reading was normalized to reference material data. Samples were also analyzed by a

185 vacuum XRF (Tracer III-SD, Bruker) to measure light elements and readings were normalized to

186 the previous NIST standard material data.

187 Mineralogical analyses were performed on samples selected for gas analysis. Only a subset of

188 the samples, regardless of contamination, were classified as “Unrestricted use soil I”, meaning

189 they did not exceed the maximum of 91 pCi/g, and were allowed to be analyzed. For this subset,

190 the remaining homogenized sediments were centrifuged for pore water (as below) and were then

191 dried in a fume hood at room temperature, ground and loaded into sample holders. The tubes

192 were covered with Kapton film and adhesive as part of the radiological safety protocols, but the

193 film itself interfered with the low angle range for clay mineral identification. The mineral

194 assemblage was confirmed with an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, X’pert PRO, PANalytical,

195 Natick, MA) (Moon et al., 2014) equipped with Mo-K α radiation at 55 kV/40 mA between 3-25 $^\circ$

196 2 θ with 0.55 $^\circ$ 2 θ /min. A semi-quantification of mineral constituents was performed by

197 interlocked ratios (Moon et al., 2000) by both the reference intensity ratio (Chung, 1974) and

198 mineral intensity factors (Ahn, 1992).

199 Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) samples for trace elemental analysis

200 were collected and analyzed as previously described (Ge et al., 2019). In short, three

201 approximately one gram samples of homogenized sediment were sampled from each segment.

202 The moisture content and dry mass of samples were determined. Then the samples were

203 microwave digested in 10 mL of concentrated nitric acid as described in EPA Method 3051A

204 (EPA, 2007). After microwave digestion, samples were diluted for ICP-MS analysis, resulting a

205 final dilution of 1:5 or 1:50 in 2% (vol/vol) nitric acid. Fifty-three elements were analyzed by

206 ICP-MS (Supp Data #1). Where indicated, the three environmental replicates were averaged
207 and reported with standard deviations (SD).

208 **2.4. Porewater and groundwater collection**

209 The sediment pore water was collected by a drainage centrifuge method (De Goffau et al., 2012)
210 from 20 g of homogenized sediment in each core segment in an anaerobic glove bag. A filter
211 device (Amicon Ultra 100K MWCO, Merck Millipore, Burlington, MA) was used to centrifuge
212 wet core sediments (3,000 x g, 4°C, 1 h). When processing a large number of samples, this less
213 laborious and cheaper method is preferred for extracting pore water and to determine its solute
214 concentration (De Goffau et al., 2012). Since the extracted sediment pore water volumes were
215 relatively small, samples were transferred into GC glass vials with screw caps (PTFE/red silicon
216 septa) in an anaerobic glove bag. Sulfide analysis was immediately initiated to measure dissolved
217 total sulfides.

218 Groundwater samples were collected from neighboring monitoring wells, GW271 for EB271 and
219 FW106 for EB106, respectively (Fig. 1) by low-flow purge and sampling (Smith et al., 2015).

220 Groundwater was purged with a peristaltic pump connected to dedicated down-well tubing
221 installed at the mid-screen of the wells. A water quality indicator probe (Troll 9500, In-Situ Inc.,
222 Fort Collins, CO) was connected in-line to a flow-through cell to monitor pH, conductivity, and
223 oxidation-reduction values during purging. Once these parameters stabilized, samples were
224 collected in an appropriate aseptic/autoclaved container, preserved, and transported for
225 laboratory analysis.

226 **2.5. Porewater and groundwater analysis**

227 Dissolved total sulfide was determined using a HACH spectrophotometer (DR2800, HACH
228 Method 8131) and an UV-spectrometer (HP8453, Hewlett Packard, Palo Alto, CA). Samples
229 were analyzed against prepared standards (5-800 µg/L) in 1.5 ml semi-micro cuvettes (Brand,
230 Germany). To determine anions and organic acids, filtered (0.22 µm pore-sized filters) pore
231 waters were diluted into 1.5 ml vials. Concentrations of anions (fluoride, chloride, nitrite,
232 bromide, nitrate, sulfate, and phosphate; working range of 0.1-200 mg/l) and organic acids
233 (lactate, acetate, propionate, formate, pyruvate, butyrate, succinate, oxalate, fumarate, and citric
234 acid; working range of 5-200 µM) were determined on a Dionex™ ICS 5000⁺ series with Dual

235 Pump, Dual Column system (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) equipped with an
236 AS11HC column at 35°C with a KOH effluent gradient of 0-60 mM at 1.3 ml/min.

237 The cations (lithium, sodium, ammonium, potassium, magnesium, and calcium; working range
238 of 5 µg/l -5 00 mg/l) were determined with a Dionex™ ICS 5000⁺ series with a CS12-A column
239 at 35°C with an isocratic 20 mM methanesulfonic acid effluent at 1 ml/min. Samples were
240 acidified of 10 vol.% 1M HCl solution before analysis.

241 Sediment pH was measured with a combination of a pH electrode (8103 Ross probe,
242 ThermoOrion) and an Orion EA-920 Expandable ion analyzer (ThermoOrion, Beverly, MA).
243 Dried core sediments in the XRF sample holder were rehydrated with 10 mM CaCl₂ solution
244 (sediment:solution ratio of 1:2 kg/l) equilibrated for 60 min and centrifuged (3,000 x g, 5 min,
245 4°C). Conductivity was also measured on the same samples with a combination of a conductivity
246 cell (Orion 011010) and a conductivity/TDS/salinity meter (Thermo Orion 115A⁺). The blank 10
247 mM CaCl₂ solution exhibited 4.46 mS/c.

248 **2.6. Sediment gas analysis**

249 Homogenized core sediment (2 g) from selected segments of the unsaturated (vadose), capillary
250 fringe, and saturated zones was placed in a 10 ml serum bottle in the anaerobic glove bag and
251 sealed with a blue butyl rubber stopper and aluminum crimp and then stored in the dark for 1
252 week. Unfiltered groundwater (2 ml) from the closest neighboring monitoring well (GW271 for
253 EB271 and FW106 for EB106) was injected into the serum bottle by syringe and needle
254 immediately after groundwater collection. Those serum bottles including sediment and
255 groundwater were mixed by shaking in the end-to-end shaker (3 h) and aluminum foil-covered
256 samples were stored in the glove bag for 4 weeks. Headspace gases from the incubations (2.5
257 mL) were transferred to a 12 ml exetainer (Labco, Lampeter, UK) and CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O were
258 measured by gas chromatography (Model 8610, SRI Instrument, Torrance, CA) with nitrogen as
259 carrier, a 182.9 cm HayeSep D column (SRI Instrument) and TCD, ECD and FID detectors at
260 University of Washington.

261 **2.7. Biomass analysis**

262 Direct cell counting was performed by a flocculation technique (Sinclair and Ghiorse, 1989).
263 Bacterial cells were released from sediment particles in a solution of CaCl₂, Tween and sodium
264 pyrophosphate with sonication and vortexing. Sediments were centrifuged (3000 x g, 3 min,
265 4°C) and the supernatant was filtered (0.2 µm pore-sized black polycarbonate membrane) to
266 concentrate the cells. The cells were stained for 2 min in the dark with 0.25 µM acridine orange
267 and unbound stain rinsed from cells with phosphate buffered saline. Stained cells were viewed
268 with epifluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axioskop, Germany) with a fluorescein isothiocyanate
269 filter. Microbial biomass C in core sediment sample was measured using chloroform fumigation
270 extraction method. Each sediment sample was divided into two subgroups. For fumigation
271 group, 5 g fresh sediment was measured into a 50-ml centrifuge tube. A cotton ball was put 4–5
272 cm above the sediment sample. Then 2.5 ml of CHCl₃ was added to the cotton ball. The tube was
273 stored in dark at room temperature for 7 days. At day 3, another 2.5 ml of CHCl₃ was added to
274 the cotton ball. After 7 days, chloroform was evacuated in a fume hood and sediment sample was
275 extracted with 20 ml of K₂SO₄ (0.5 M) on a shaker for 1 hr. The extracts were filtered through a
276 qualitative filter into a plastic scintillation bottle, then stored at 4°C for TOC analysis. For
277 control group, another 5 g fresh sediment was measured into a 50-ml centrifuge tube and then
278 extracted immediately using the same method as fumigation group. The TOC content of extract
279 was measured by TOC-5050A Total Organic Carbon Analyzer (Shimadzu, Japan). Biomass C
280 was calculated based on the TOC difference between fumigation group and control group.

281 **2.8. Organic C, Total C, and Total Nitrogen**

282 The sediment samples were oven-dried at 70°C and ground to a fine powder. A representative
283 sample (~0.5 g) was loaded into a ceramic sample boat and combusted in an oxygen atmosphere
284 in an Elementar Vario Max Analyzer (Elementar Americas Inc, NY). Elemental C and N were
285 finally converted into CO₂ and N₂. These gases were then passed through the infrared cells to
286 determine CO₂ and a thermal conductivity cell to determine N₂. For organic C measurement,
287 acid-treatment was applied to remove inorganic C prior to combustion.

288 **2.9. Micro computerized tomography (Micro-CT) sample preparation and image data** 289 **collection.**

290 Non-homogenized sediment samples were excised from the field cores by inserting 3 cc syringes
291 (in which the front sections with needle adapter were removed to expose the bore of the main
292 cylinder) into the sediment to isolate ~8 mm diameter plugs. These plugs were transferred into 2
293 ml Eppendorf microcentrifuge tubes and stored at 4°C. To prepare specimens for micro-CT
294 imaging, Kapton tubes (1.4 mm ID, 0.051 mm wall thickness, Cole-Parmer, Vernon Hills, IL)
295 cut into 4 cm lengths were pressed into the core plugs to take samples of sediment. Tubes loaded
296 in this manner contained an intact plug of sediment 1.4 mm in diameter and ~ 0.5 cm in length.
297 To preserve moisture, the open ends of the tubes were sealed. Samples were stored at 4°C until
298 analysis.

299 For analysis, sample tubes were placed vertically into the specimen mount of the micro-CT
300 beamline (Advanced Light Source, beamline 8.3.2), positioned between the source X-ray beam
301 and the detector. In this experimental configuration, X-rays passing through the sample strike a
302 scintillator which in turn is imaged onto a CCD camera (PCO Edge, 2560x2160) with a resulting
303 pixel size of ~0.7 µm. The tunable X-ray source of the beamline was adjusted for an energy
304 setting of 22 keV. Under these conditions a cylindrical volume of sediment about 1.5 mm in
305 diameter and 1.5 mm in length could be imaged in about 20 minutes. Raw image data were
306 processed and reconstructed into image volumes with the Xi-CAM analysis platform using
307 default parameters. Each resulting dataset is approximately 50 GB in size. Reconstructed image
308 volumes were analyzed, and sectional images prepared with the ImageJ and Avizo software
309 packages.

310 **3. RESULTS**

311 **3.1. Sediment characterization**

312 Boreholes EB271 and EB106 were advanced to ~5 mbgs and ~8 mbgs respectively due to a lack
313 of drill advancement. It is likely that consolidated or semi-consolidated material, e.g., weathered
314 bedrock (Fig. 1), was responsible. It should be noted that weathered bedrock was observed in
315 EB271, but not in EB106 (Fig. 1). The first meter of sediments in both boreholes were
316 predominantly gravels and sands; whereas, sediments below this were predominantly silts and
317 clays (Fig. 1). The first meter of sediment was not analyzed due to fire-ant restrictions for
318 shipping. The depth to groundwater in both boreholes was approximately 3.5 mbgs. The depth to

319 weathered bedrock (5 to 8 mbgs), the predominance of silty and clayey sediments, and the depth
320 to groundwater (~3.5 mbgs) were expected based on previous studies at the site (Watson et al.,
321 2004).

322 The moisture, relative density, and predominant mean grain size in both boreholes were notably
323 variable with depth (Fig. 2). The moisture of sediments from EB271 showed a sharp increase
324 near the water table followed by a sharp decrease (Fig. 2). This indicated the amount of free
325 water within sediments below the water table varied substantially. EB106 was similarly variable
326 but showed no spike (Fig. 2).

327 With respect to trace elements, the prominent difference between the two boreholes was the
328 radioactive material (U and Th) with depth as expected (Fig. 3). Upgradient EB271 sediment
329 contained up to 17.2 mg/kg U and 2.7 mg/kg Th while contaminated EB106 sediment had 249
330 mg/kg U and 97.5 mg/kg Th, as determined by XRF analysis. The EB271 sediment maintained a
331 low steady concentration of U or Th along the depth to the bed rock layer where coring
332 terminated. In contrast, EB106 sediment exhibited simultaneous U had sharp peaks at 492 cm
333 and 775 cm as well as a broad peak at 183-212 cm bgs in the vadose zone. Th had sharp peaks at
334 492 cm and 709 cm bgs. U and Th were higher at depths containing clumps of saprolite even
335 though they were mainly composed of clayey silt at the capillary fringe or just below the water
336 table with the lower peak occurring within the less permeable bedrock layer.

337 Another notable difference between the boreholes is found in the relative levels of Sr and Ba
338 (Fig. 3). The contaminated EB106 had high Sr concentrations (86.9-93.7 mg/kg) in the top three
339 core segments compared to other sections (18.6-64.5 mg/kg) while EB271 exhibited a gradual
340 increase of Sr to 99.1 mg/kg. Ba spiked in EB271 (742-1075 mg/kg) at 345-383 cm depth when
341 approaching the groundwater table, while EB106 showed no such behavior.

342 Major oxides including SiO₂, Al₂O₃, and Na₂O did not show obvious trends but CaO, MgO,
343 MnO, and Fe₂O₃ were potentially correlated with rainfall events, efforts to control site pH, and
344 changed mineral composition (for example, increases of clay minerals or Fe-Mn oxides) (Fig. 4).
345 The broad MgO peak in contaminated EB106 at 381-441 cm is compatible with the Ba peak of
346 742-1075 mg/kg at 345-383 cm in that these elements might indicate the increased Ba and Mg

347 rich clay minerals and are likely associated with the water table. K₂O in EB106 core sediments
348 varied 0.95-5.53 wt.% over 109–334 cm and 1.48–8.03 wt.% over 354-804 cm while at EB271
349 it was lower at 1.49-3.44 wt.% (Fig. 4). Fe₂O₃ and MnO in EB106 had a high correlation with U
350 and Th (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4A). Two high concentration peaks at both 492 cm and 775 cm depth are
351 matched to U and Th peaks. Manganese exhibited a very similar behavior with U rather than iron
352 even under smaller relative content (MnO < 1.5 wt.% and Fe₂O₃ < 20 wt.%). This might be due
353 to the closer ionic radius of U (8.7 Å) to Mn (8.1 Å) rather than to Fe (6.9 Å), and the low pH
354 (~3.5) maintaining the predominantly amorphous Mn phase under pH 4.5 throughout the Eh
355 range (Kim et al., 2009) that can accelerate the similar elemental behavior between U-Mn in
356 contaminated low-pH EB106 core.

357 The trace and major elemental analysis with ICP-MS following total digestion provided more
358 detailed information of core sediments beyond the total concentration provided by XRF analysis.
359 The total digestion using nitric acid could dissolve more than the surface including short-age
360 ordered mineral phase and amorphous oxides. Even though it could not dissolve completely (i.e.,
361 silicate), this fraction includes more indigenous phases. Over 50 metals were analyzed for total
362 metal content by microwave digestion in nitric acid. Analysis of the metal data resulted in several
363 key observations. There were elevated concentrations of several metals including P, Mn, Fe, Co,
364 Ni, As, Cd, and Mo on the interface of the capillary and saturated zones in EB271 between 330
365 and 350 cm bgs (Fig. 5). These included rare earth, lanthanide and actinides (Ba, La, Pr, Ce, Nd,
366 Sm, Eu, Gd, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu; Supp Data #1). In the saturated zone of EB106 at 500 cm
367 bgs there was a similar coinciding elevated metal peak of Be, P, Mn, Fe, Co, U, Pb, Cu, Cr, V,
368 Al, Zn, As, and Mo (Fig. 5; Supp Data #1).

369 **3.2. Inorganic properties of sediment pore water**

370 Extracted sediment pore water ranged from a few microliters to 2 ml (Fig. 6) and this variability
371 was likely due to the high level of physical heterogeneity (Figs. 1 and 2) based on the inherent
372 properties of the sediment and sediment types in the study site (e.g., silty sands versus clays).
373 Extraction volumes were higher above the appearance of the clay mineral-rich layer at ~400 cm
374 which is less permeable, limiting pore water extraction. This coincided with high contaminant
375 concentrations due to the high surface area of clay minerals and small interstices of sediment

376 particles. Compaction during centrifugation can reduce pore size, limiting water recovery (Jones
377 and Edwards, 1993) so that the extraction amount may not be directly proportional to the total
378 amount of sediment pore water. Hence pore water samples with lower recovered pore water
379 volumes were not analyzed for all parameters due to limited sample and were not plotted in Fig.
380 6. However, the centrifugation method offered a robust, reproducible, and standardized way for
381 determining solute concentration in pore water with quantification of most solutes from organic-
382 poor sediment regardless of centrifuge force and time (Fraters et al., 2017).

383 Total conductivity, measured after pH and buffered with 10 mM CaCl₂ (4.46 mS/cm), exhibited
384 a variation of 4.28-5.35 mS/cm of EB271 and 4.56-6.36 mS/cm except for the top four segments
385 affected by neutralizing process (pH > 7.87). Contaminated EB106 porewater had conductivity
386 above the blank solution due to 2,800 mg/l of nitrate and 980 mg/l of sulfate. The background
387 EB271 were lower than blank concentrations and indicated the potential adsorption of Ca ions
388 onto the background core sediment surface.

389 Anion concentrations from the contaminated EB106 sediment pore water were considerably
390 higher than from the background EB271 water as expected (Fig. 6). However, EB106 porewater
391 anion levels were lower than in the FW106 groundwater collected. This suggested that
392 groundwater predominantly flowed through preferential paths with high flux and little mixing
393 with water in the interstices of sediment particles, which could impact microbial activity. In
394 contrast, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ closely correlated with the extraction volume, especially below the
395 groundwater table at 501-538 cm, 597-661 cm, and 720-739 cm bgs. This also indirectly
396 suggests high groundwater flux with preferential flow derived from different subsurface
397 geological media. Nitrate remained high throughout in EB106 pore water, while sulfate
398 concentration was low (1.2-127 mg/l) in the vadose zone samples compared to the groundwater
399 (1,630 mg/l). This suggests that sulfate-reducing bacteria may be more active in areas with
400 detectable sulfide (< 1 mg/l), similar to EB271 but not for EB106.

401 **3.3. Organic acid in sediment pore water in core sediments**

402 Acetate is a key intermediate produced during the turnover of the sediment organic carbon under
403 the well-drained and short-term anoxic conditions (Küsel et al., 2002). Formate is generally
404 regarded as a waste product of fermentation (i.e. *Escherichia coli*) (McDowall et al., 2014).

405 Sediment pore water acetate and formate concentrations both decreased at the water table in
406 EB271 while no variation was noted for EB106. The latter showed a steady decrease in the
407 saturated zone (Fig. 7).

408 **3.4. Microbial signature in core sediments**

409 As shown in Fig. 8, several variations appeared when comparing direct cell counts using AODC
410 to core sediment (counts/g) compared to groundwater (counts/ml). These included higher
411 numbers in the vadose zone of EB106, consistent with previous studies (Christensen et al.,
412 2018), and is likely due to the presence of oxygen, a neutral pH and lower contaminant levels.

413 **3.5. Sediment gas**

414 Selected core sediments along the depth selected from vadose, capillary, and saturated zone were
415 amended with groundwater from neighboring monitoring wells (GW271 and FW106) and
416 exhibited two distinct developments in the gas phases (Fig. 9). Background EB271 sediments
417 showed high biomass (Fig. 8) and generated more CH₄ at up to 0.56 mM/day/g compared to
418 EB106 (up to 0.02 mM/day/g). In contrast, EB106 produced consistent and higher CO₂
419 concentrations (up to 19 mM/day/g) compared to 3.2 mM/day/g in EB271. Higher nitrous oxide
420 was detected in EB106, consistent with higher nitrate (Fig. 6). EB271 core samples had only one
421 sample above detection out of six selected samples.

422 **3.6. Sediment mineralogy**

423 Sediment minerals were identified and semi-quantified based on the XRD patterns from the
424 selected sediment samples (Supplementary Fig. 1). To compare with other results, the samples as
425 for gas analysis were used, however some high U-concentration samples were omitted due to lab
426 safety restrictions. Major mineral constituents were common sediment minerals of quartz, Na-
427 feldspar (NaAlSi₃O₈), K-feldspar (KAlSi₃O₈), illite (muscovite), and kaolinite (Fig. 10). Only top
428 sediment of EB106 which had high pH (~13) from surface neutralization included calcite
429 (CaCO₃). Without any further process in terms of oxalate treatment for amorphous phase and
430 citrate-bicarbonate-dithionate treatment for crystalline iron oxide (Kim et al., 2009), dominant
431 peaks from accessory minerals were not identifiable.

432 Semi-quantification of bulk sediment showed that the vadose zone of EB271 with high biomass
433 was high in quartz (88-96 wt.%) with clay minerals (illite + kaolinite, 2.6-7.4 wt.%). High
434 concentrations of trace elements (U, Th, Fe, and Mn) are closely related to clay-rich layer
435 (quartz, 54-79 wt.% with clay minerals, 21-45 wt.%) in EB106. High concentrations U or Th
436 were highly correlated to clay minerals or near bedrock which prevented the vertical movement
437 of water (quartz, 73-74 wt.% with clay minerals, ~22 wt.%).

438

439

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Sediment characterization

440 The variability of moisture below the water table Fig. 2, may be partially attributed to sediment
441 heterogeneity since gravels and sands can contain more free water than lower specific yield
442 sediments such as silts and clays (Fetter, 2001). Except for the first meter, the predominant mean
443 grain size in both boreholes was generally > 2.5 mm (i.e., coarse sand). The *in situ* visual and
444 manual classification of sediments from both boreholes (Fig. 1 and Fig. 2) indicated a high level
445 of physical heterogeneity and suggested that specific yield and subsequent groundwater flow are
446 highly variable with respect to depth within each borehole. Highly variable groundwater flow,
447 with respect to depth, is a common occurrence at sites with a high level of physical heterogeneity
448 and a wide variety of down-well devices are available to quantitatively document its occurrence
449 (Bayless et al., 2011).

451 The broad U peak in EB106 at 183-212 cm without a corresponding Th peak was likely caused
452 by the sediment pH; the pH ranged from 5.62-8.01 along EB271 and from 3.18-12.62 along
453 EB106 (Fig. 3). Except for the four top core segments with high pH (7.87-12.62), the remainder
454 of EB106 sediment fell in a pH range of 3.18-5.40. The high pH values of EB106 at the top core
455 segments might be due to the application of calcareous materials used in attempts at pH
456 neutralization. This is in agreement with results from a previous study (Ahmed et al., 2014)
457 showing that Th solubility was 5-14 times greater than uranium in acidic sediments (pH 3.6-4.7).
458 In contrast, U was significantly more soluble than Th in mildly acidic sediments (pH 5.8-7.0).

459 Hence the enhanced solubility of Th at this low pH range before the neutralization facilitates Th
460 leaching and only a broad U peak observed at 183-212 cm bgs. The solubility and mobility of U
461 and Th can also be influenced by organic matter (Ahmed et al., 2014), however previous
462 research at the ENIGMA field research site indicated that the sediment is usually limited for
463 electron donors and organic nutrients (Gu et al., 2003). Therefore, pH is likely the main reason
464 for the behavior of U and Th.

465 High Sr and Ba concentrations were also noted in the upgradient sediment of EB271, suggesting
466 the high Sr and Ba are more likely related to the interaction between soil minerals close to
467 groundwater in the interstices of the soil particles. The relatively lower concentrations of Sr and
468 Ba in the lower levels of EB106 sediment are likely a direct effect of the pH. An abnormally
469 high pH near the surface of EB106 implies that the surface reclamation with limestone
470 neutralized the acidic contaminated area since Sr is a dominant replaceable element to Ca in
471 carbonate minerals due to their similar charge and ionic radius (Blundy and Wood, 1991).
472 Among the transitional metals, Zn was largely absent in both cores while Cu and Co (Fig. 3)
473 exhibited a weak but variable increase near the water table and close to bedrock. These trends
474 agree with the contaminants enriching at the soil-water interfaces (Milligan and Law, 2013) or
475 water-air interfaces (Zhang and Christopher, 2016). CaO levels reflected the neutralizer
476 application at the surface of EB106 and was quickly lost in the study site shales, siltstone, and
477 limestone (Hatcher et al., 1992) due to the low pH. The higher levels of K₂O in EB106 may be
478 from acidic chemical weathering of saprolite, resulting in leached clay minerals. This is in
479 agreement with the previous study finding that illite was a dominant clay mineral species and
480 microcline (potassium feldspar) under the water table in the weathered saprolite zone (Moon et
481 al., 2006). U was found to be highly adsorbed or incorporated into amorphous manganese oxide
482 (Moon et al., 2006), likely sourced from Mn-rich muscovite in the shale and Mn-rich biotite in
483 the blackish band of the limestone (Kim et al., 2009). In this site, clay minerals are heavily
484 coated with Fe- and Mn-oxides as well as most of the fracture pathways and matrix blocks are
485 coated with amorphous Fe- and Mn-oxides. The redox environment and the presence of redox
486 reactive minerals and solids (e.g. Mn-oxides and organic matter) also impact contaminant
487 transport at this site (Watson et al., 2004).

488 As shown in Fig. 5, Mn Co, and Ni from EB271 background borehole had peaks matching well
489 with the groundwater table. In contrast, many metals including Be, P, Mn, Fe, Co, U, Pb, Cu, Cr,
490 V, Al, Zn, As, and Mo (Fig. 5; Supp Data #1) had peaks well below the groundwater table,
491 especially at 500 cm bgs, in the anthropogenically contaminated EB106 in the borehole. The
492 segment at 500 cm bgs also had decreased density and increased moisture and conductivity
493 (Figure 2 and 6) as well as visible metal bearing particles shown in Figure 11. These findings
494 suggest an increase contaminated groundwater flow from the S-3 ponds at this depth, supporting
495 the assertion of preferential flow paths in EB106 area.

496 **4.2. Inorganic properties of sediment pore water**

497 The most dominant difference among the major cation measurements is the occurrence of NH_4^+
498 in the sediment pore water that was not detected in the collected groundwater from either of the
499 wells located next to the boreholes (Fig 7). This suggests that the porewater is reflective of
500 anaerobic niches in the sediment while the bulk groundwater environment is aerobic or
501 microaerophilic. Potassium and Mg^{2+} in EB106 exhibited a broad peak at the groundwater table.
502 As shown in the conductivity profiles (Fig. 5), background EB271 had lower conductivity ranges
503 than the 10 mM CaCl_2 blanks indicating the loss of ions by adsorption and absorption. However,
504 contaminated EB106 showed higher conductivity with a sharp peak matching U, Th, Fe, and Mn
505 peaks. Therefore, increased K^+ and Mg^{2+} might be released by weathering of clay minerals. Kim
506 et al. interpreted the elemental cycles of K leaching by weathering pathways (muscovite from
507 shale \rightarrow illite \rightarrow kaolinite) and that of Fe and Mg (biotite and chlorite from interbedded
508 limestone \rightarrow vermiculite \rightarrow kaolinite) (Kim et al., 2009). The enriched alkali and alkaline earth
509 elements in the sediment pore water likely reflected the increased trace elements as contaminants
510 around the groundwater table produced by cation exchange with transitional metals with low
511 solubility products which could produce more soluble oxide or amorphous phases, although the
512 whole core sections had a low pH of ~ 3.5 . Distinctively high Ca^{2+} might be related to the
513 artificial neutralization (limestone, soil, and saprolite) from construction activity (Moon et al.,
514 2006), however the behavior of Na^+ is not certain. The peaks of 205 cm and 556 cm from EB106
515 and 286 cm from EB271 did not match any peaks among the analyzed items.

516 **4.3. Organic acid in sediment pore water in core sediments**

517 Acetate was also lower in depth specific measurements than the overall groundwater, implying
518 again that microenvironments within sediment particles may be preventing direct exposure to
519 toxic contaminants while allowing for the consumption of acetate, possibly combined with sulfur
520 respiration (Pfennig and Biebl, 1976). This emphasizes that the sample for isolation or
521 interpretation likely can be misinterpreted by the dissolved chemical species and organic carbon
522 balances in the groundwater versus depth dependent measurements.

523 **4.4. Microbial signature in core sediments**

524 Cell counts from both core sediments had higher populations than from groundwater,
525 presumably since biofilms on the sediment surface might account for a large fraction of
526 microbial populations. Higher cell counts in EB271 overall are also likely due to less harsh
527 conditions, which likely reflects a microbial community with more genomic functional
528 redundancy than the stressed community (Hemme et al., 2015), however these harsh conditions
529 may have provided for specific niches for microbial communities with unique metabolic
530 capabilities (Smith et al., 2012). Overall, all carbon and nitrogen and moisture levels were
531 similar between the cores.

532 **4.5. Sediment gas**

533 The higher nitrous oxide in EB106 may be partially due to abiotic denitrification at low pH in the
534 presence of Fe. This release does not correlate with either cell counts or concentrations of
535 oxidized nitrogen species and might thus be limited to the mechanism of abiotic
536 chemodenitrification. The peak of nitrous oxide release found below the water table in EB271
537 sediment coincides with high levels of oxidized nitrogen species found in sediment pore water.

538 **4.6. Sediment mineralogy**

539 The combined results among the clay minerals, water, and trace element contaminants are also
540 confirmed by microCT images. As shown in Fig. S2a, the brighter portion of images of EB106
541 6-3 core section showed the presence of heavy metals like U, Th, Fe, and Mn that matched with
542 the abnormal peaks from the XRF EB106 6-3 sample at 492–510 cm bgs (Figs. 3 and 4). These
543 images also exhibited a honeycomb structure suggesting the presence of clay minerals. XRD

544 analysis was not performed on section 6-3 samples due to high U concentrations. The most
545 enriched clay minerals were found in section EB106 5-5 by XRD (Fig. 11). MicroCT images
546 from this section (Fig. S2b) for slices #1907, #1942, and #1979 exhibited clay mineral features.
547 MicroCT images were also obtained for the next clay enriched section analyzed by XRD, 6-5
548 (Fig. S2c).

549 These findings emphasize the notion that limited chemical analyses of major or trace elements
550 (i.e. XRF analysis) cannot fully determine the reasons for contaminant enrichment at a specific
551 depth. For example, Al_2O_3 showed the consistent weight fraction and could not be separated
552 from feldspars to obtain the clay amount. Direct mineralogical analysis followed by semi-
553 quantification revealed the clay-rich layer occupies a large surface area, has less permeability,
554 and a higher adsorption of contaminants. Detectable calcite in EB106 was compatible with the
555 high Sr concentration among trace elements. Also, most minerals are end-members, therefore
556 high concentration of Ca, Mg, Ba, and Sr could be in present in calcite and other carbonate
557 minerals (i.e. norsethite, $[\text{MgBa}(\text{CO}_3)_2]$), even though the amount was below XRD detection.

558 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

559 The present study compared fresh sediment cores from upgradient and contaminated areas with
560 similar characteristics. When exploring microbial communities in the subsurface, consideration
561 of a wide spectrum of unique sample points is required rather than simply the averaged and
562 homogenized groundwater chemistry. Consideration of geochemical parameters as a function of
563 depth can reveal complicated but meaningful relationships between geochemical and
564 hydrological conditions that may well influence microbial community structure and function.
565 Groundwater analysis of nearby wells only revealed high sulfate and nitrate concentrations while
566 the same analysis using sediment pore water samples with depth was able to pinpoint areas likely
567 high in sulfate- and nitrate- reducing bacteria based on their decreased concentration and
568 production of reduced by-products that could not be seen in the groundwater samples. This
569 emphasizes that the sample for isolation or interpretation likely can be misinterpreted by the
570 dissolved chemical species and organic carbon balances in the groundwater versus depth
571 dependent sediment measurements.

572 Low flow (i.e. dry season) at the time of sampling provided the maximum time for a distinct
573 community to develop on particles (Enzien et al., 1994; LaMontagne and Holden, 2003).
574 However, metabolic rates were found to be higher in a shallow sandy aquifer compared with a
575 confined clayey aquifer likely due to the reduced interconnectivity followed by a reduction in
576 microbial and nutrient mobility (Chapelle and Lovley, 1990). Therefore, geochemical data from
577 sediment pore water and solid media should be merged with mineralogical findings. Positive
578 correlations among pore water content, total organic carbon, trace metals and clay minerals were
579 previously observed (Böttcher et al., 2000) and the present study revealed a more complicated
580 relationship; among contaminant, sediment texture, groundwater table, and biomass and the need
581 for more microbial analysis of these samples. A merged mineralogical investigation with semi-
582 quantification could reveal the abundant clay minerals with high surface area and high water-
583 holding capacity of micro-pores of the fine clay rich layer under the interference of feldspars.
584 Such geological features can impede the movement of nutrients from the surface.

585 At the groundwater table of EB106, trends followed the previous study (Chapelle and Lovley,
586 1990) with cell counts decreasing while clay content and Al_2O_3 increased and resulted in low
587 porewater extraction. This fluctuating capillary interface maintained high concentration of Fe
588 and Mn-oxides combined with trace elements including U, Th, Sr, Ba, Cu, and Co. This indicates
589 that the mobility of highly toxic elements, sediment structure, and biogeochemical factors are all
590 linked together in their impact on microbial communities, emphasizing that solid interfaces play
591 an important role in determining the abundance of bacteria in the sediments (Lovley, 1998;
592 Paradis et al., 2018). In contrast, the background EB271 had similar Al_2O_3 content over the
593 entire core. While this decreased below 400 cm, Al_2O_3 detection was impaired by the presence
594 feldspars, and therefore only mineralogical analysis revealed the clay mineral's important role
595 with sediment texture. This suggested that groundwater predominantly flowed through
596 preferential paths with high flux and little mixing with water in the interstices of sediment
597 particles, which could impact microbial activity.

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- 728

729

730

Figure Legends

731 Figure 1. Study site map showing locations of boreholes, wells, former S3 ponds, Bear Creek,
732 and approximate direction of groundwater flow. The unified soil classification system (USCS) of
733 core sediments from borehole EB271 and EB106 based on in-situ visual and manual soil and
734 sediment classification, inverted triangles indicate water table.

735

736 Figure 2. Physical properties (moisture content, density, and mean grain size) of core sediments
737 from background borehole EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and contaminated EB106 (open
738 circles and triangles) based on *in situ* visual and manual soil and sediment classification (USCS).
739 Moisture: 1=dry, 2=moist, 3=wet, 4=saturated. Open and closed triangles show the water table
740 depth.

741

742 Figure 3. Variation of trace elemental concentrations with depth from core sediments of
743 background EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and contaminated EB106 (open circles and
744 triangles). Open and closed triangles show the water table depth. Vertical broken lines show
745 overall level for groundwater from the nearby well.

746

747 Figure 4. Variation of major oxide component concentrations with depth from core sediments of
748 background EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and contaminated EB106 (open circles and
749 triangles). Open and closed triangles show the water table depth.

750

751 Figure 5. Total metals in sediment segments of EB271 and EB106 by depth. Metals were
752 extracted using microwave digestion of sediment in concentrated nitric acid. Average and
753 standard deviation of three environmental replicates from each homogenized segment are shown.
754 Depth is in centimeters below ground surface (bgs) using inferred values from the middle of each
755 segment.

756

757 Figure 6. Variation of sediment pore water extraction volume, conductivity, major anions and
758 total sulfide. Conductivity was measured with 10 mM CaCl₂ buffered solution after pH
759 measurement. Data were plotted with depth from core sediments of background EB271 (closed
760 circles and triangles) and contaminated EB106 (open circles and triangles). Open and closed
761 triangles show the water table depth. Vertical dotted lines represent the properties of
762 groundwater from an adjacent well.

763

764 Figure 7. Variation of major cations and organic acid extracted sediment pore water. Data were
765 plotted with depth from core sediments of background EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and
766 contaminated EB106 (open circles and triangle). Open and closed triangles show the water table
767 depth. Vertical dotted lines represented the properties of contaminated groundwater.

768

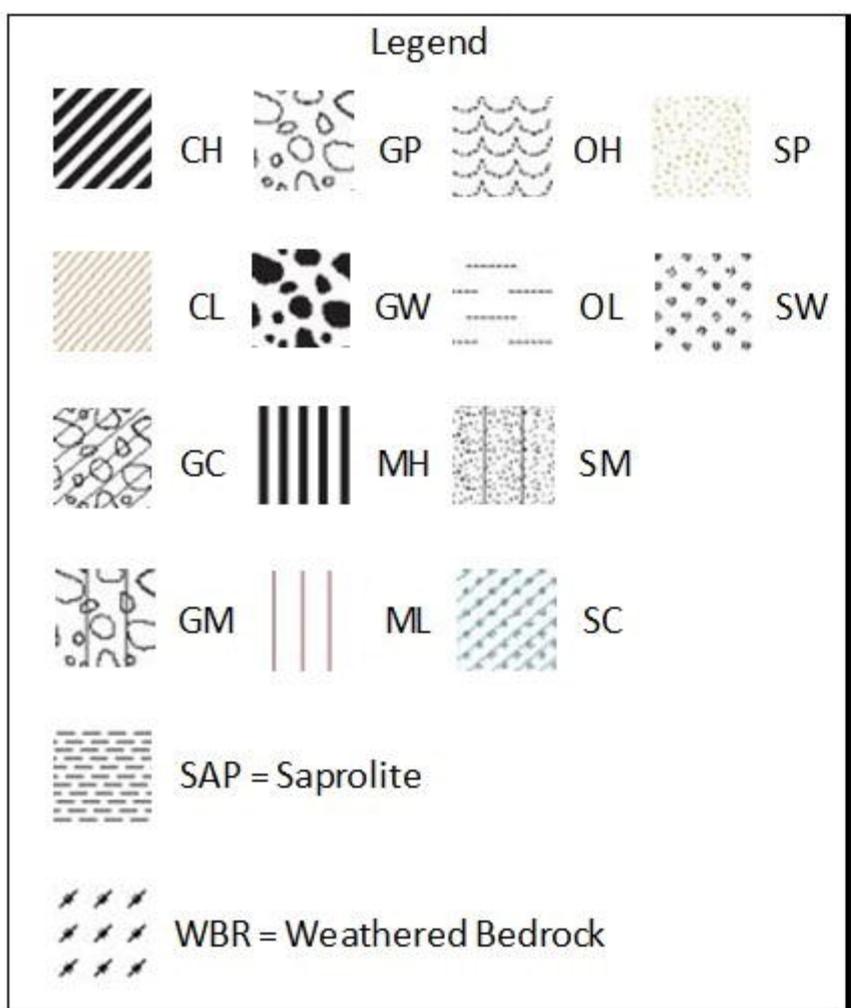
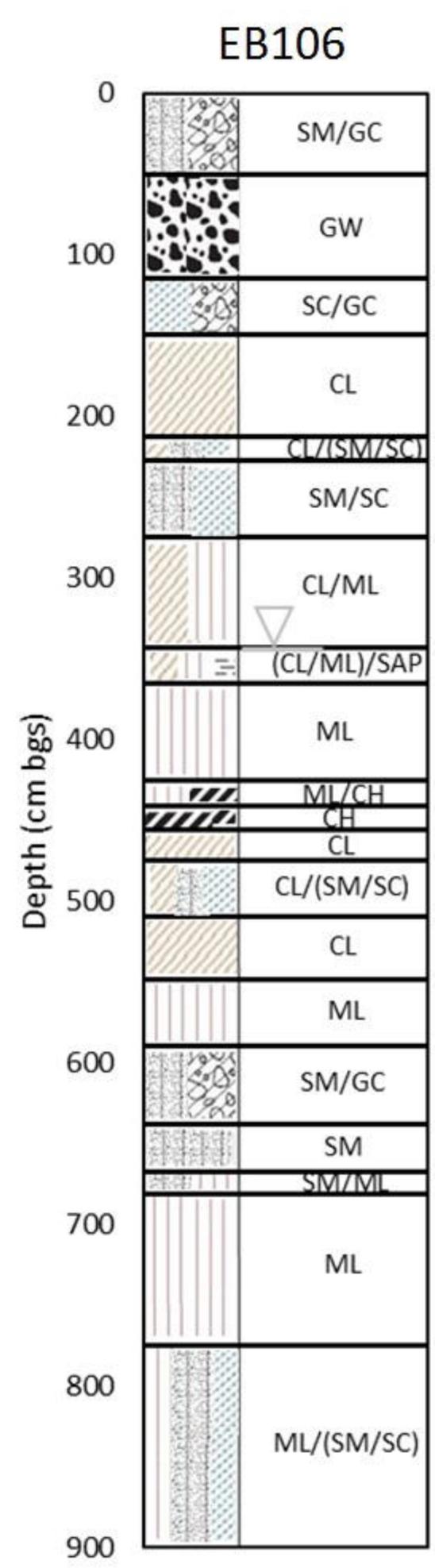
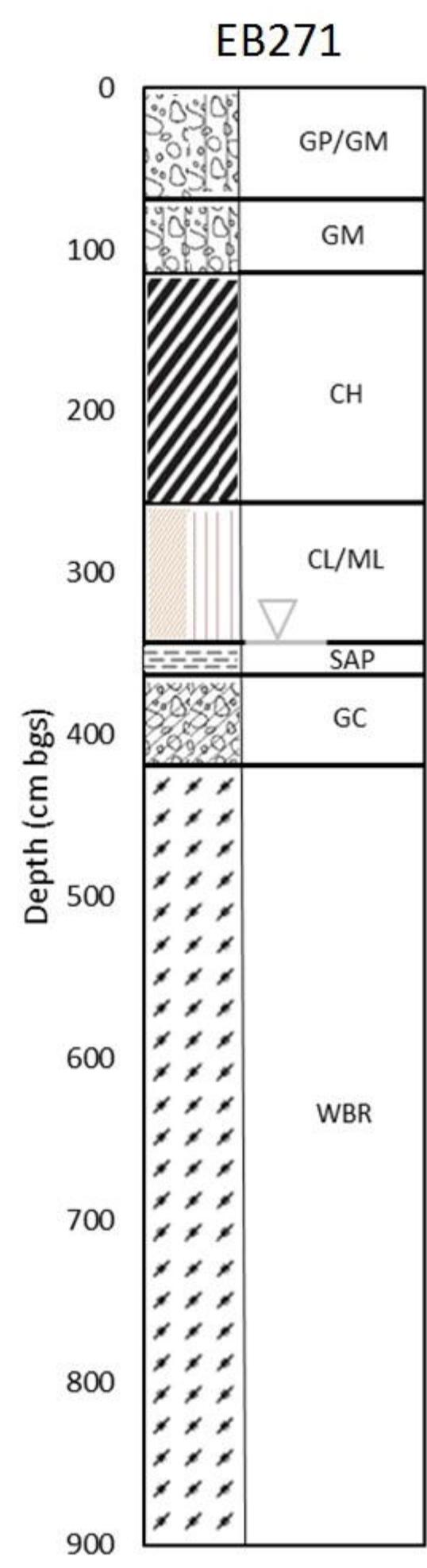
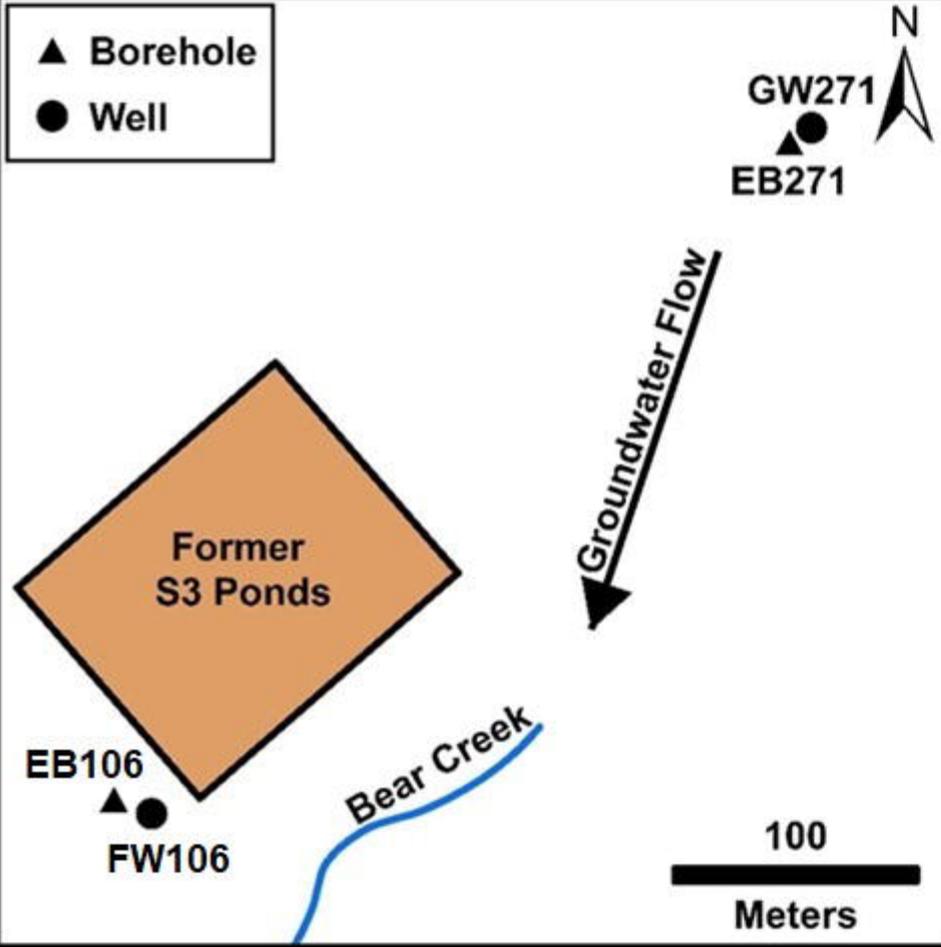
769 Figure 8. Variation of direct cell counting, organic carbon, total carbon, total nitrogen, biomass
770 carbon using a chloroform fumigation extraction, and sediment moisture. Data were plotted with
771 depth from core sediments of background EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and contaminated

772 EB106 (open circles and triangles). Open and closed triangles show the water table depth.
773 Vertical dotted lines represented the properties of contaminated groundwater. Cell numbers are
774 in counts/g and counts/ml for sediment and groundwater, respectively.

775
776 Figure 9. Variation of biogenic CH₄, CO₂, and N₂O from the anaerobic incubations of core
777 sediment from vadose, capillary and saturated zones, respectively, and unfiltered groundwater at
778 room temperature in the dark for 4 weeks. Data were plotted with depth from core sediments of
779 background EB271 (closed circles and triangles) and contaminated EB106 (open circles and
780 triangles). Open and closed triangles show the water table depth.

781
782 Figure 10. Variation of relative content of mineral constituents from the XRD analysis on
783 selected samples among gas analysis.

784
785 Figure 11. Correlation between uranium and the relative content of clay minerals (illite and
786 kaolinite) among mineral constituents, total Al, Fe and Mn concentration, total aluminum
787 content, and cell counts. Micro-computerized tomographic images provide direct observation of
788 solid geochemical condition; A (EB106 section 5-5): spine structure of clay (illite); B (EB106
789 section 6-3): 1, low porosity section with webby structure of clay (smectite), 2, abundant white
790 seam of metals; C (EB106 section 7-6): 1, bedrock fragment, 2 metal bearing particles.
791



Moisture
(corresponding #)

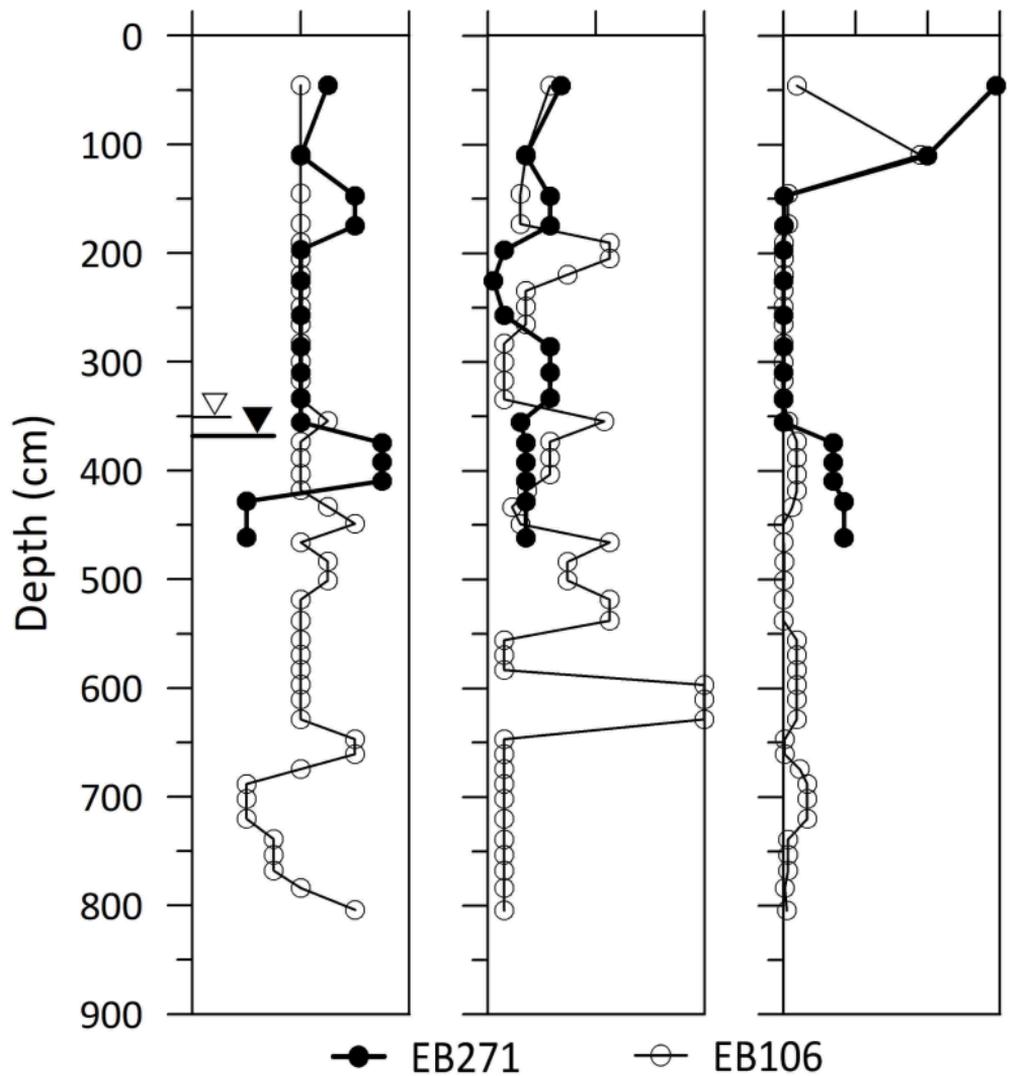
Density
(blows/ft)

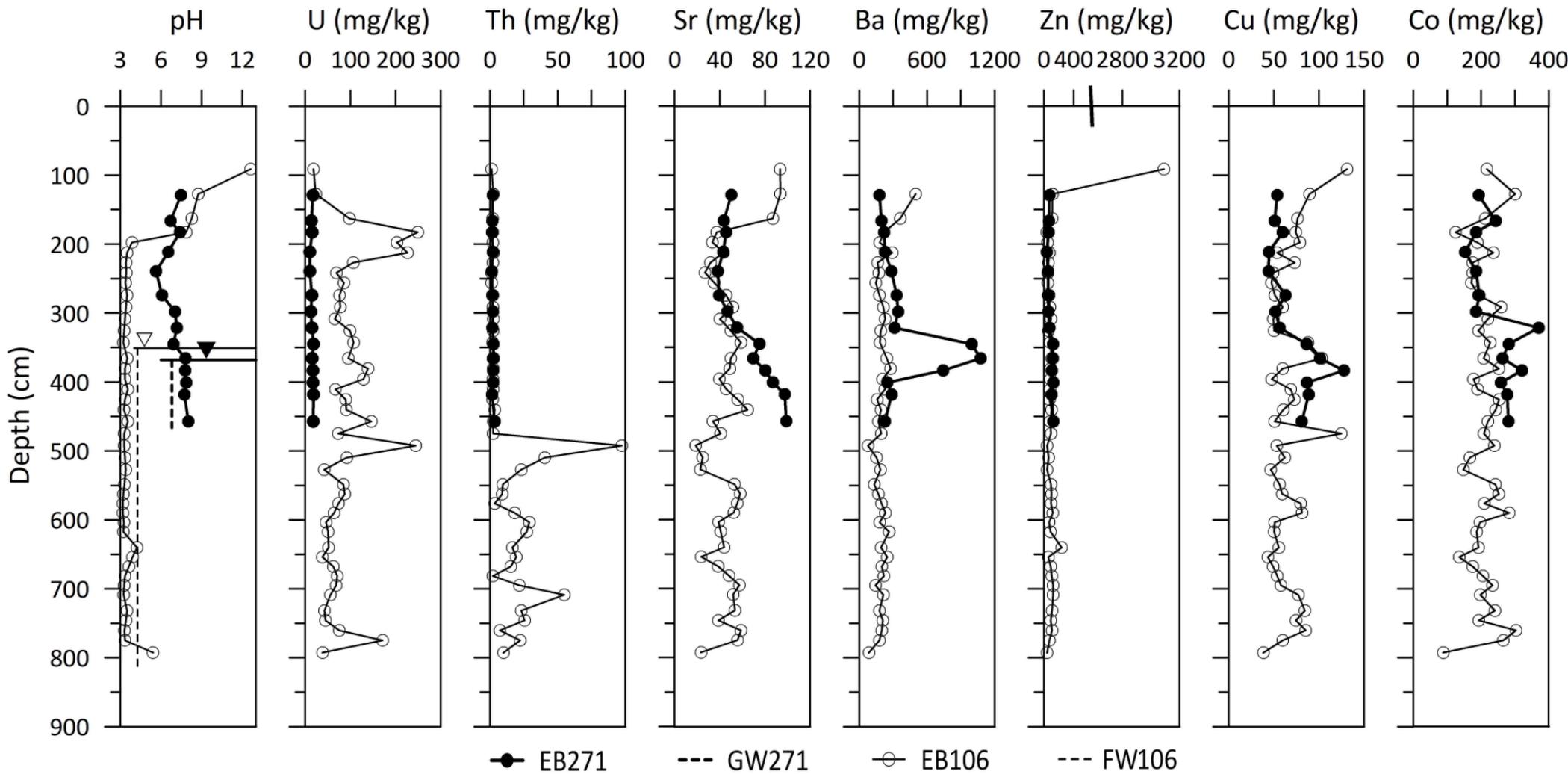
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(mm)

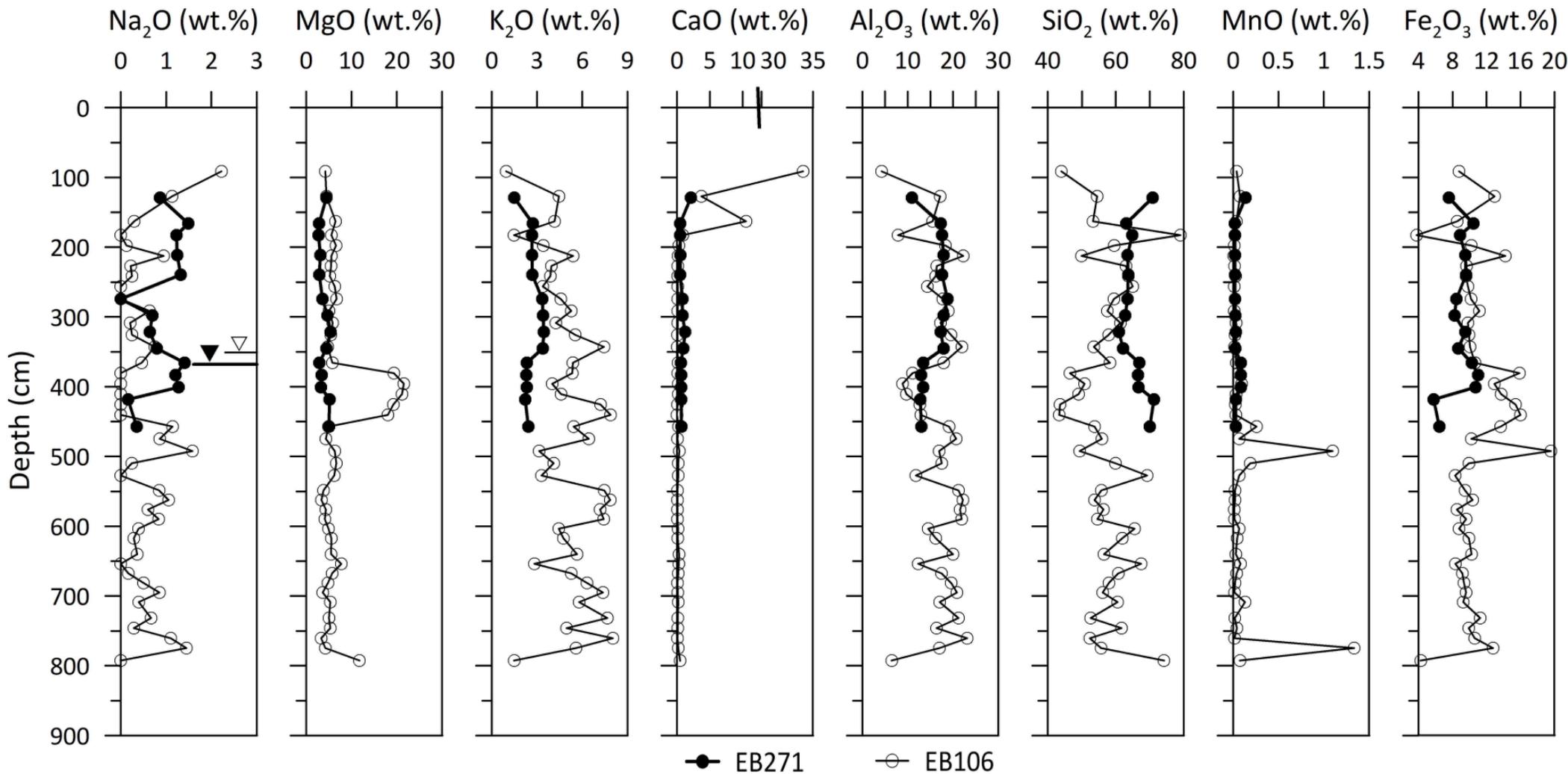
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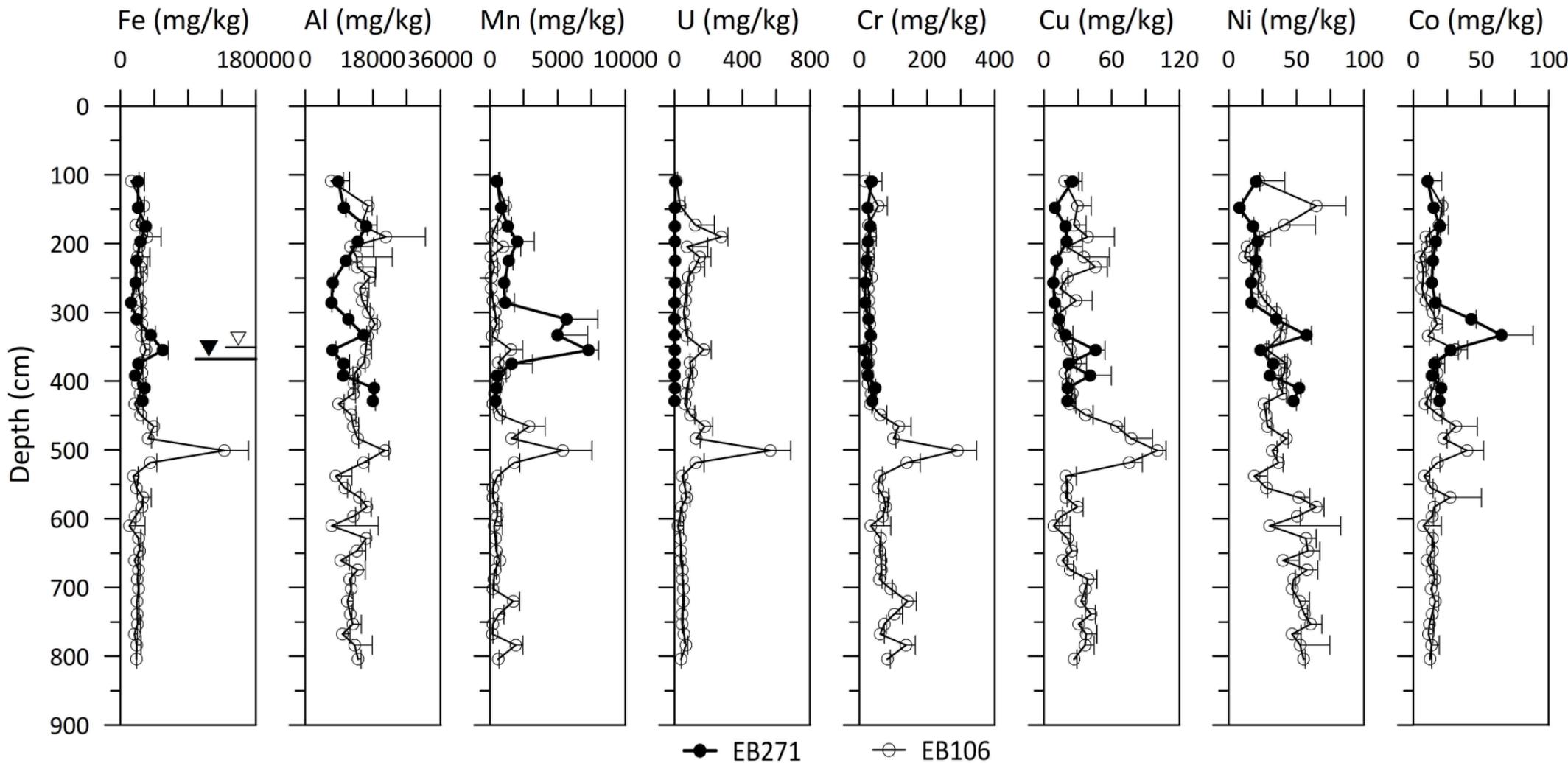
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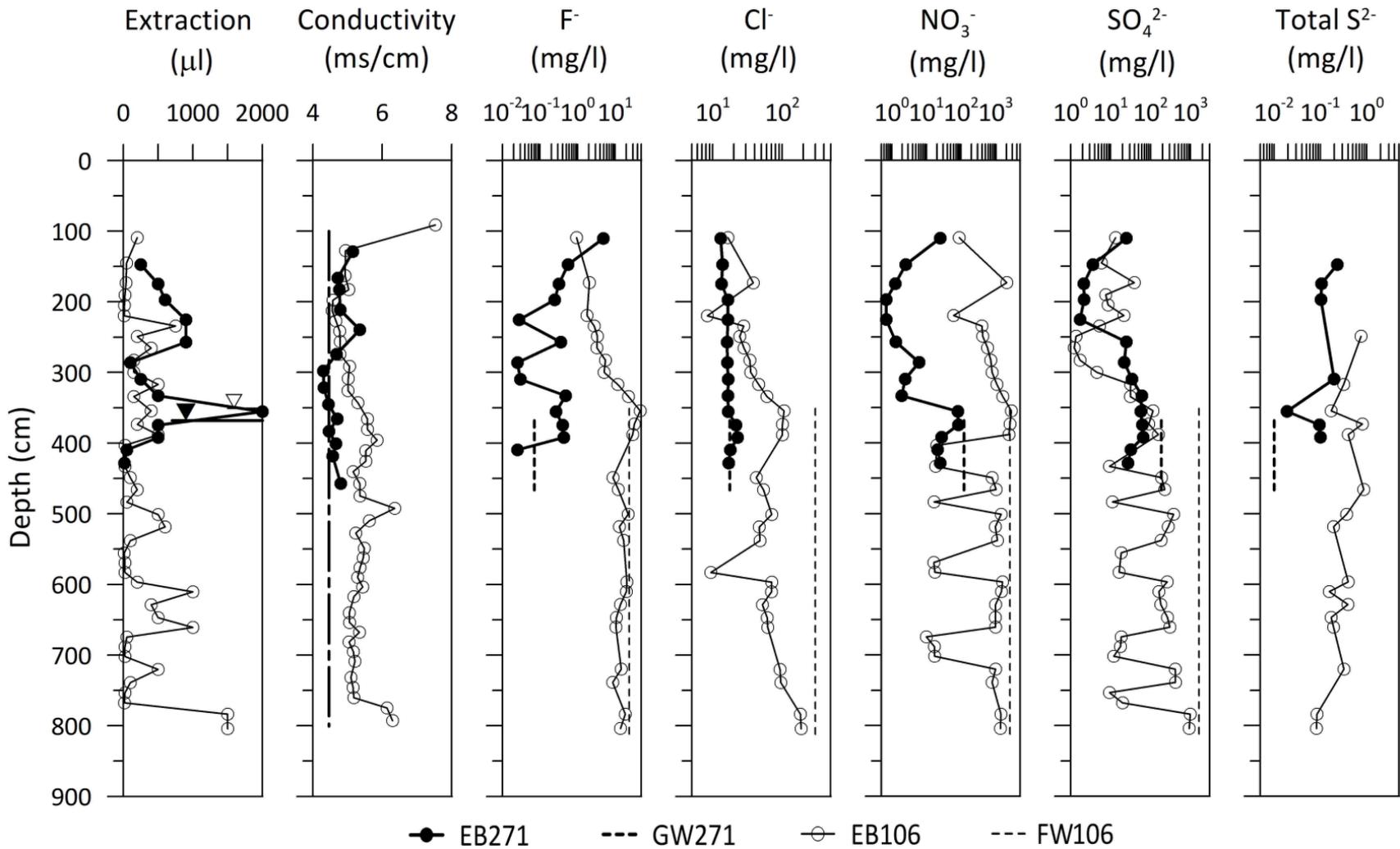
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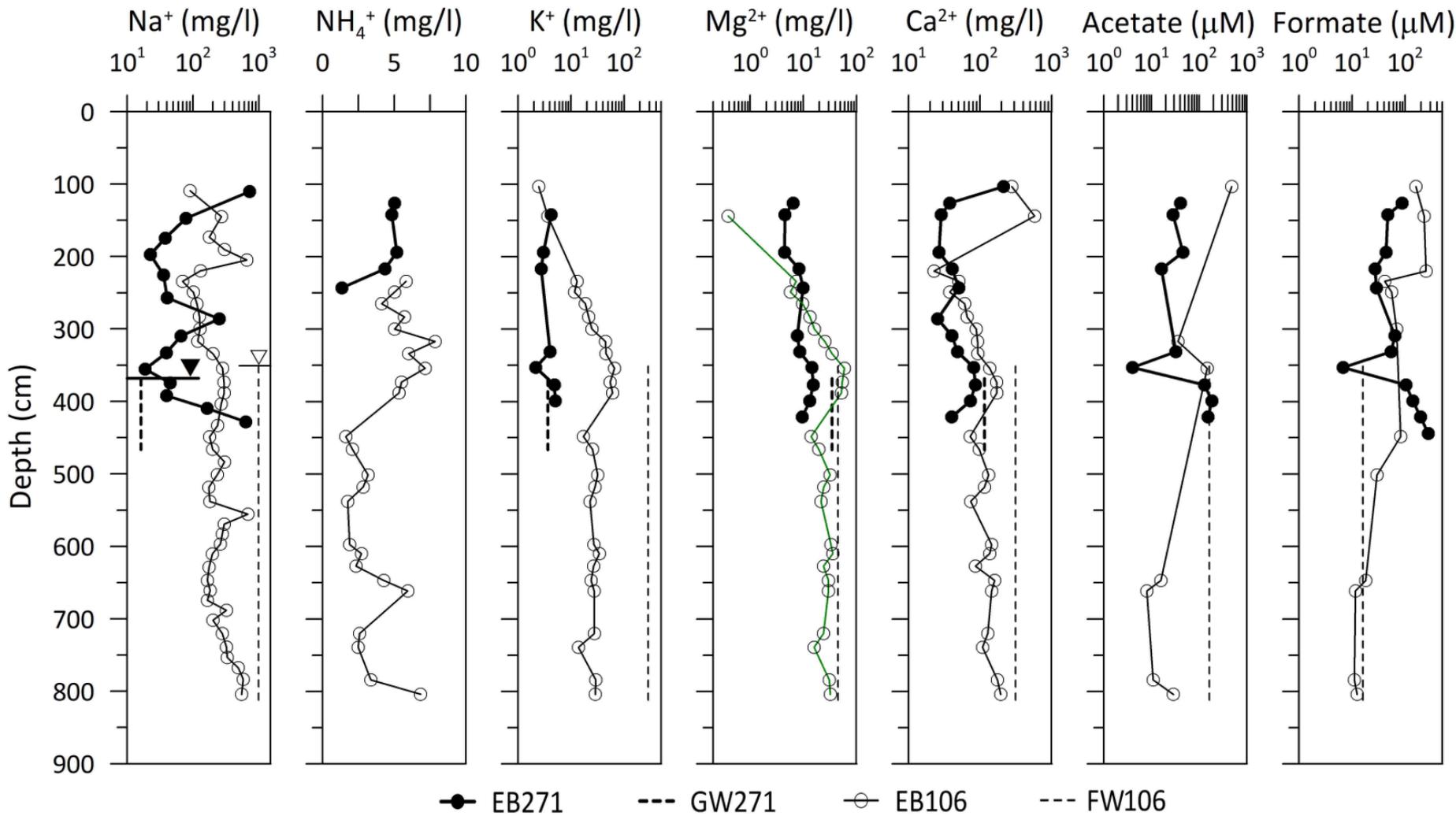


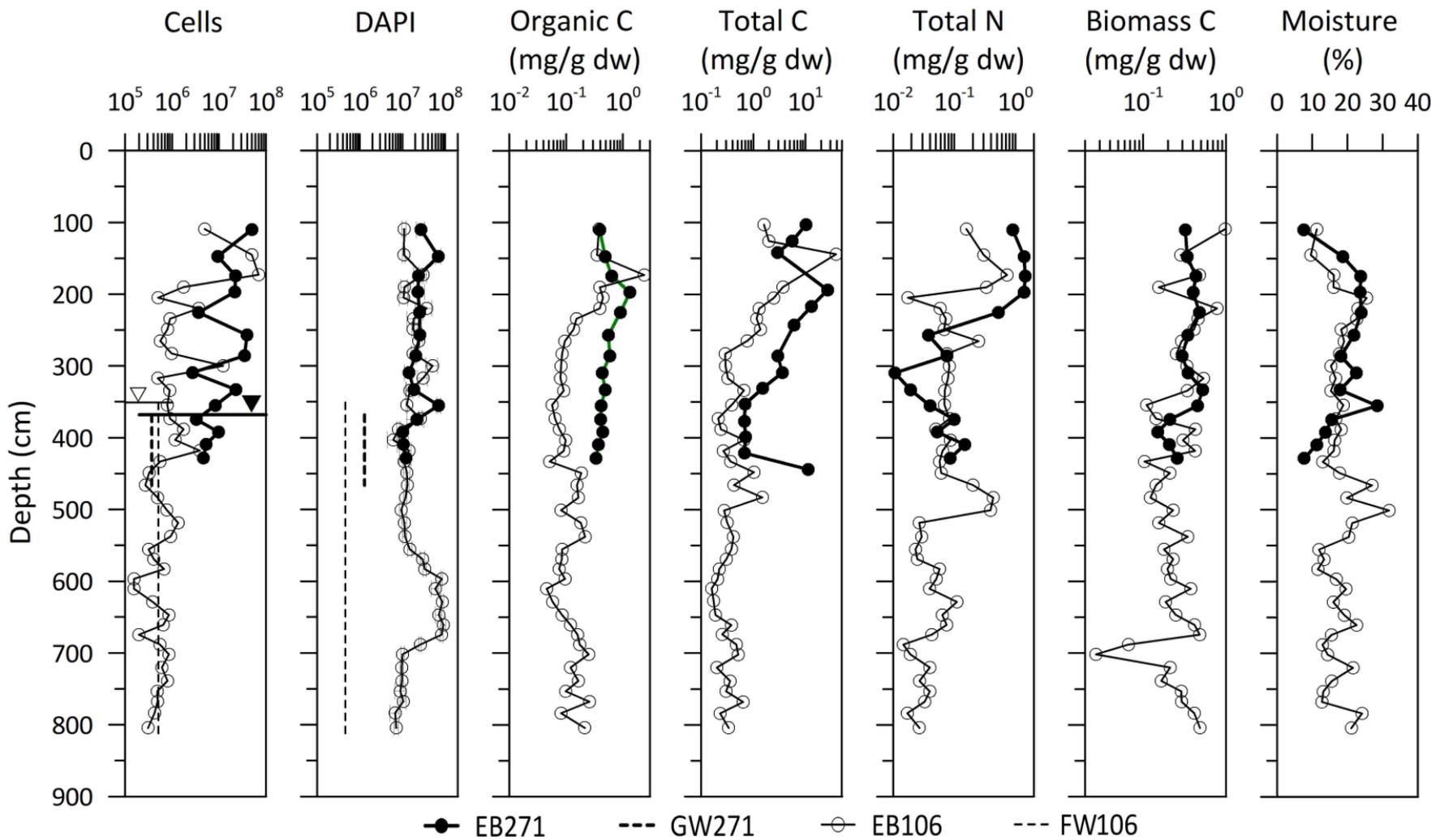


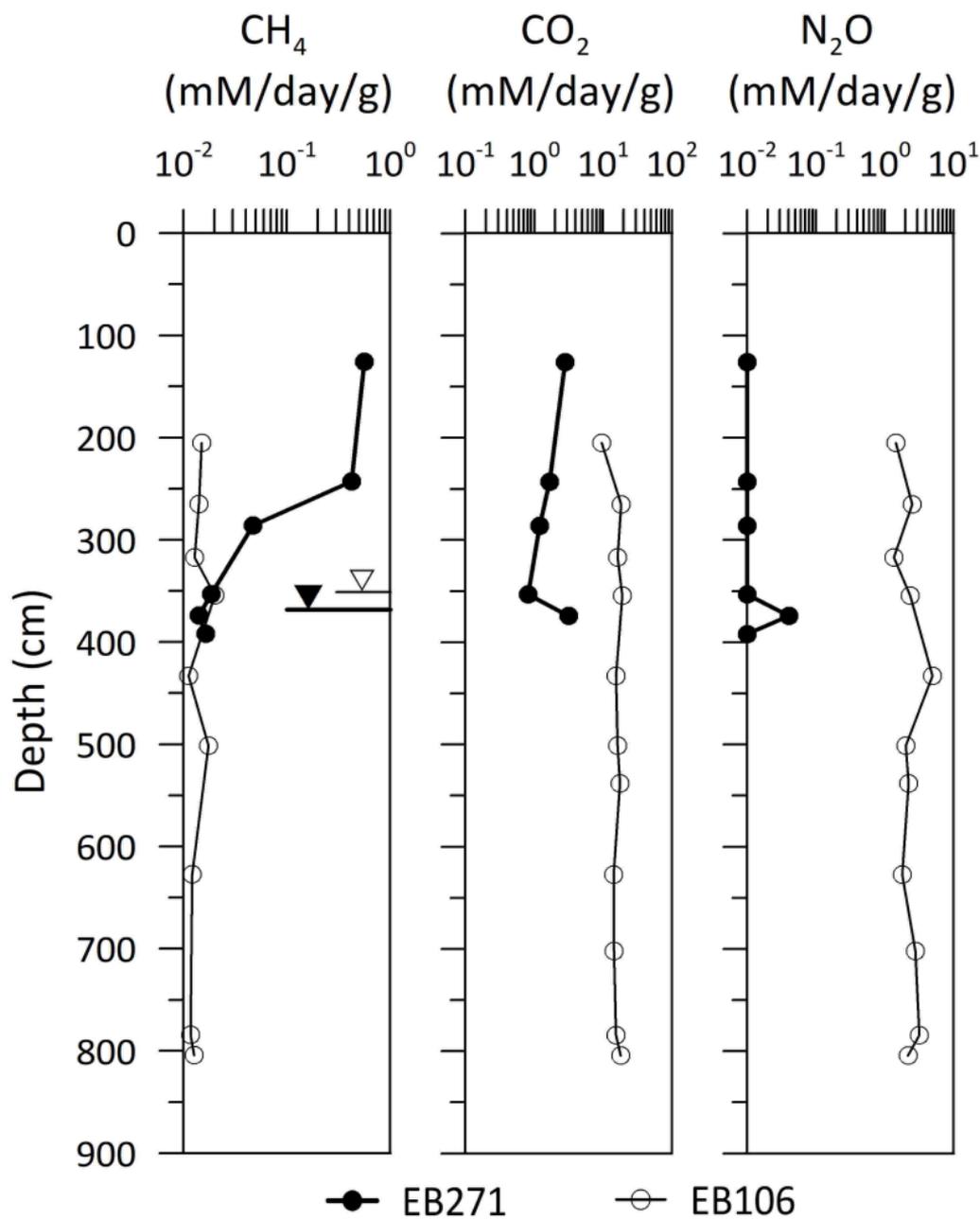












Relative content
(wt.%)

Relative content
(wt.%)

