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1 **Potential of phosphorus fractions to trace sediment sources in a rural catchment of Southern**

2 **Brazil: comparison with the conventional approach based on elemental geochemistry**

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- 4 *Tales Tiechera,*, Rafael Ramon^b , J. Patrick Laceby^c , Olivier Evrard^d , Jean Paolo Gomes Minella^e*

5 $\frac{6}{7}$ a Department of Soil Science, Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Bento Gonçalves Ave. 7712, 91540-000, Porto Alegre, RS, **Brazil**

- $\begin{array}{c} 8 \\ 9 \end{array}$ ^b Graduate Program in Soil Science, Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Bento Gonçalves Ave., 91540-000, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil
- $\frac{10}{11}$ Environmental Monitoring and Science Division, Alberta Environment and Parks, 3115 – 12 Street NE
- Calgary, Alberta, Canada, T2K 2W6
- 12 ^d Laboratoire des Sciences et de l'Environnement, UMR 8212 (CEA/CNRS/UVSQ), Université Paris-Saclay, Domaine du CNRS,
- 13 Avenue de la Terrasse, Gif-sur-Yvette Cedex 91198, France
- 14 Department of Soil Science, Federal University of Santa Maria, Roraima Ave. 1000, 97105-900 Santa Maria, RS, Brazil
- 15 * Corresponding author. E-mail address: tales.tiecher@ufrgs.br (T. Tiecher).
- 16

17 **Abstract**

18 In areas with extensive soil erosion, there is a need to identify the sources supplying sediment to rivers 19 in order to improve our understanding of erosion processes and to guide the implementation of effective 20 soil management measures. Geochemical elements are often used as tracers in sediment fingerprinting 21 studies. Among them, P has often been used as it may specifically trace sediment originating from 22 cropland. Although P-fractions can provide more detailed information than the total P content, their 23 potential to distinguish between different potential sources of sediments has rarely been tested. The

- 24 objective of the current research was to evaluate the contribution of sediment sources in a rural
- 25 catchment (Arvorezinha, 1.23 km²) of Southern Brazil, using different sets of tracers (i.e. P-fractions only,
- 26 geochemical tracers only, and a combination of both tracers). Three potential sediment source types
- 27 were identified in the catchment: (*i*) cropland, (*ii*) unpaved roads and (*iii*) stream channel banks. Thirty-28 one suspended sediment samples were collected in the river draining this catchment during 9 significant
- 29 floods between 2009 and 2011. Estimates of P-fractions were obtained by Hedley fractionation using
- 30 anion exchange resin membrane (P_{resin}); 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ (pH 8.5) (P_{bic}); 0.1 mol L⁻¹ NaOH ($P_{NaOH0.1}$);
- 31 1.0 mol L⁻¹ HCl (P_{HCl}); 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaOH (P_{NaOH0.5}); and residual P (P_{residual}). Total organic (P_{org}) and inorganic
- 32 P (P_{inorg}) were obtained by the ignition method. The concentrations of P_{HCl}, P_{NaOH0.5} and P_{inorg} in suspended
- 33 sediments were higher than those found in the sources. Accordingly, these fractions were considered 34 not to be conservative and were excluded from further analysis. With the exception of $P_{residual}$, all P-
- 35 fractions passed the Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test and were considered as potential tracers of sediment sources.
- 36 When the P-fractions were combined with geochemical tracers, the discrimination power was much
- 37 higher than when using geochemical tracers only. The Mahalanobis distance was 9% higher than that
- 38 observed in the geochemical approach. The calculated contribution of sediment sources using the three
- 39 approaches was very similar, and cropland was the dominant source of sediment, with calculated
- 40 contributions of 56±19, 46±16 and 48±16% for those approaches based on geochemical elements, P-
- 41 fractions, and geochemical+P-fractions, respectively. These results demonstrate the effectiveness of
- 42 some P-fractions to trace potential sediment sources in rural catchments, as they have a high
- 43 discriminant power while remaining conservative during sediment transport in the catchment.
- 44
- 45 **Key-words:** Phosphorus fractionation, sediment source fingerprinting, sediment tracers.

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Soil erosion remains one of the main environmental problems caused by human society in their 48 search for food, fiber and energy production. The global annual estimates of soil erosion are about 2.87 49 Mg ha-1 yr-1 **(Borrelli et al., 2017)**, and Southern Brazil stands out as one of the hotspots of soil erosion 50 in the world. Recently, **Didoné et al***.* **(2017)** have estimated sediment yields ranging from 36 to 260 Mg 51 km² yr⁻¹ in rural catchments of Southern Brazil. This situation raises major concerns as projected climate 52 change impacts on rainfall erosivity across Brazil indicated that Southern Brazil will be one of the most 53 affected regions, with projected increases in rainfall erosivity reaching up to 109% in the period of 2007– 54 2040 **(Almagro et al., 2017)**. In this context, it is important to identify the main sediment sources in 55 catchments in order to guide decision makers in the efficient allocation of limited public resources 56 available to mitigate sediment production.

57 One of the main techniques used to obtain this information is the sediment source fingerprinting 58 approach, which is based on the measurement of physico-chemical properties in both sediments and 59 in their potential sources to estimate their respective contribution to the material transiting river 60 networks **(Koiter et al., 2013a; Walling, 2013)**. The number of sediment fingerprinting studies has 61 increased in recent decades and this technique has been successfully used worldwide. However, there 62 is no universal recommendation or guideline for tracer pre-selection because successful fingerprint 63 properties are highly site-specific, making parameter selection time-consuming and costly (**Collins and** 64 **Walling, 2002**). Despite these difficulties, the most frequently and successfully set of tracers used are 65 radionuclides and elemental geochemistry **(Haddadchi et al., 2013; Koiter et al., 2013a)**.

66 Two of the main prerequisites for using physico-chemical properties as tracers of sediment 67 origin are that: (i) significant differences in property concentrations are found between the potential 68 sources and that (ii) they remain conservative during erosion and transport processes (**Owens and Xu,** 69 **2011**). Usually, non-parametric tests (such as the Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test or Mann-Whitney *U*-test) are 70 employed to identify physico-chemical properties that may be used as a sediment source tracer.

71 The modification of sediment properties used in sediment fingerprinting studies may occur 72 during their transport as a result of particle size sorting **(Laceby et al., 2017)**, organic matter 73 enrichment/depletion, and biogeochemical transformations. Accordingly, the conservativeness of 74 tracing properties is increasingly discussed in the literature **(Sherriff et al., 2015)**. Many studies compare 75 tracer concentrations between sources and sediments and conduct a range test as a way of assessing 76 conservativeness. However, the conservative behavior of properties is highly site-specific and the 77 conclusions of these previous studies cannot be directly extrapolated for other study areas.

78 Among the geochemical tracers, P often provides significant discrimination between agricultural 79 soils and other land uses due to the higher concentrations of P found in cropland as a result of 80 fertilization. A brief analysis of 60 fingerprinting studies that tested P as a potential tracer and that were 81 conducted around the world (**Table 1**) shows that most studies were performed in the UK (20%), the 82 United States (17%), Australia (12%), Brazil (12%) and Iran (12%) (**Fig. 1**). Four of these studies (**Table 1**) 83 measured P although they did not perform any statistical test, excluding this element from further 84 analysis because of the potential risk of non-conservative behavior during sediment transport in the 85 catchment **(Palazón et al., 2016, 2015; Palazón and Navas, 2017; Smith and Blake, 2014)**. Only 45% (*n* 86 = 27) of these 60 studies (**Table 1**) applied statistical tests or criteria to evaluate the conservativeness of 87 P during erosion and transportation processes (**Fig. 2a**) and among these, P passed the conservativeness 88 test and was considered to have a conservative behavior in 85% of the publications (*n* = 23) (**Fig. 2d**). 89 The non-conservative behavior of P in some of these studies can be attributed to the local soil 90 characteristics (such as pH and clay mineralogy), which can decrease the sorption capacity of P by the 91 solid phase, resulting in a higher mobility of this element in the soil-water system. Moreover, point-92 based sources can deliver significant amounts of dissolved P which can be subsequently adsorbed by 93 sediment increasing the P concentration of sediment during its transport from the source to the sink 94 (**Owens and Walling, 2002**).

95 About three quarters (**Fig. 2b**) of the studies included in the comparison (**Table 1**) used the 96 Kruskal-Wallis *H*-test to compare P concentrations in the potential sources, and, P passed this test and 97 was considered as a potential tracer in 87% of these studies (**Fig. 2d**). Finally, during the optimization 98 step for selecting the final set of tracers used to model the source contributions (generally performed 99 through the application of the discriminant function analysis - DFA), P was selected in 43% of the cases

100 (**Fig. 2c**). This analysis of the literature demonstrates that although P has been treated with some 101 hesitancy by researchers in sediment fingerprinting studies, this property has often been incorporated 102 into the final un-mixing models to estimate source contributions to sediment.

103 Another important point that is often overlooked in the literature is related to the digestion 104 method used to prepare the samples and estimate their elemental concentrations (**Fig. 1b**). Not all the 105 methods used in previous studies are able to estimate the total P content in soils and sediments. In order 106 to quantify the absolute total P content, the digestion must include the use of acids, including hydrogen 107 fluoride (15% of the studies included in the comparison – **Fig. 1b**), as this substance is needed to fully 108 dissolve the silicate minerals, or $H_2SO_4+H_2O_2$ for the specific case of soils devoid of apatite-like minerals 109 (3% of the studies investigated – **Fig. 1b**). The use of sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃) fusion (**Bender and** 110 **Wood, 2000**), or HClO₄ (Ostrofsky, 2012) (18% of those studies included in the review - Fig. 1b) provide 111 potential alternatives, as well as those spectroscopic methods analyzing solid powders as the X-ray 112 fluorescence (XRF) (13% of those previous studies – **Fig. 1b**). The other digestion methods provide 113 limited information related to a fraction of the total P only, as they do not assess the more recalcitrant 114 forms of P, and are usually considered as a pseudo-total content of P (**Bender and Wood, 2000**). This 115 means that the amount of P used to trace the contributions of potential sediment sources in several 116 previous studies was likely the fraction that was the most sensitive to environmental changes and the 117 less conservative during erosion and transportation processes, whereas the most stable fraction, which 118 should be targeted in sediment tracing studies, was neglected **(Dabrin et al., 2014)**.

119 P accumulates differently in the soils, depending on their mineralogical and chemical properties, 120 the land use and soil management, and total-P is less sensitive to these factors than P-fractions **(Cade-**121 **Menun, 2017; Cherubin et al., 2016; Teles et al., 2017)**. Studies on the chemistry of P in soil and 122 sediments are commonly based on its fractionation, and P compounds are subdivided into several pools 123 according to their solubility or their reactivity with various chemical solutions **(Lukkari et al., 2007; Wang** 124 **et al., 2013)**. The P-fractions can be estimated based on the lability of P evaluated by sequential 125 extractions involving different chemical substances **(Hedley et al., 1982)**, or they can be estimated based 126 on the separation of the organic and inorganic forms of P **(Olsen and Sommers, 1982)**. Using these latter

127 methods, **Tiecher et al***.* **(2017d**) demonstrated that the chemical fractionation of P provided an effective 128 technique to distinguish sediments originating from sub-catchments characterized by different land uses 129 and managed in different ways depending on the season, in a rural study site of Southern Brazil (Agudo 130 catchment). This study demonstrated that P-fractions can provide more meaningful information than 131 the simple total content of P and suggested that these P-fractions may be more sensitive to distinguish 132 potential sources of sediments. In other regions of the world, very few studies conducted in the UK used 133 P-fractions in sediment fingerprinting studies **(Walling et al., 2006, 1999).** In particular, it was shown 134 that organic and inorganic P fractions may be more effective than the total P concentration to trace 135 those contributions of different land use sources to sediment transiting rivers draining agricultural 136 catchments **(Carter et al., 2003; Walling et al., 2008)**.

137 The hypothesis of the current research is that the chemical fractionation of P can provide 138 parameters that are very sensitive to soil use and management and that they therefore provide tracers 139 that effectively predict sediment sources contributions in agricultural catchments. Accordingly, the 140 current study evaluated the contribution of sediment sources in a rural catchment in Southern Brazil 141 through the use of P-fractions only or their combination with conventional geochemical tracers. The 142 implications of this comparison for the choice of potential tracers in future sediment tracing applications 143 are then discussed.

144

145 **2. Material and methods**

146 *2.1. Study catchment, source and sediment sampling*

147 The Arvorezinha catchment covers a surface area of 1.23 km² in the southernmost state of Brazil 148 (Rio Grande do Sul). The site is mainly underlain by extrusive igneous rocks (rhyodacite). Altitude ranges 149 from 560 to 740 m. According to the Köppen classification, the climate is classified as subtropical super 150 humid and mild (Cfb type) with warm summers and the absence of a dry season. Based on data 151 measured in the catchment during 15 years (2002 to 2017), the mean annual rainfall is 1,938 mm and 152 the rainfall erosivity index (EI30) is 9,344 MJ mm ha−1 year−1 **(Ramon, 2017).** The soil types found in the 153 catchment are Acrisols (57%), Cambisols (33%) and Leptosols (10%). In 2009-2011, land use was covered 154 by tobacco cultivated under minimum tillage (16%) or under conventional ploughing (10%), native forest 155 (47%), grain crops (17%), grassland (6%), unpaved roads (2%), and rural residential areas (2%). The 156 catchment does not have any urban development.

157 Three main sediment sources were considered: (*i*) cropland, (*ii*) unpaved roads and (*iii*) stream 158 channel banks. Samples of potential source material were collected in the uppermost layer (0–0.05 m) 159 of the cropland soil surface (*n*=20) and unpaved roads (*n*=10) with a plastic trowel by taking 10 160 subsamples at each site into one sample. Unpaved roads and tracks provide an important sediment 161 source and a significant transfer pathway. The channel network is characterized by steep step-pool 162 channels with high roughness and turbulent flow. Stream channel bank samples were taken on exposed 163 sites located along the main river channel network (*n*=10) by scraping the surface of river channel banks. 164 Each river bank sample was composed of subsamples collected along approximately 5-10 m distance 165 and 0.2-1.0 m of height. Care was taken to avoid sampling material recently deposited on the channel 166 bank. Each sample was composed of 10 sub-samples collected in the vicinity of the sampling point in 167 order to obtain representative source material.

168 Thirty-one suspended sediment samples were collected during various stages (i.e. rising, peak, 169 and recession) of nine significant floods that occurred between October 2009 and July 2011 (**Maier,** 170 **2013**). A large volume of water (120 to 200 liters) was collected manually at the outlet. Each bulk water 171 sample was centrifuged using a continuous flow device (Alfie-500 Alfa Laval) to concentrate sediment 172 samples. All the source material and sediment samples were oven-dried at 50° C, gently disaggregated 173 using a pestle and mortar, and sieved to 63 µm prior to laboratory analyses. In a previous analysis of the 174 same set of sources and suspended sediment samples, the pseudo-total contents of 28 elements 175 (including total-P) were estimated by ICP-OES after microwave assisted digestion with HCl and HNO₃ 176 (aqua-regia digestion). Further information on these analyzes can be found in **Tiecher et al. (2015)**. Grain 177 size distribution was analyzed with a laser granulometer for all suspended sediment and source samples 178 after oxidation of organic matter with H_2O_2 and chemical dispersion with NaOH.

179

180 *2.2. Phosphorus fractions analysis*

181 The P-fractions evaluated in the current study were obtained following two methods: (i) the 182 sequential extraction of different chemical reactives to address the lability of P **(Hedley et al., 1982)**, 183 and (ii) the separation of the organic and inorganic forms of P **(Olsen and Sommers, 1982)**. The Hedley 184 fractionation was performed by the sequential extractions with: (i) anion exchange resin membrane 185 (P_{resin}); (ii) 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaHCO₃ at pH 8.5 (P_{bic}); (iii) 0.1 mol L⁻¹ NaOH (P_{NaOH0.1}); (iv) 1.0 mol L⁻¹ HCl (P_{HCl}); (v) 186 0.5 mol L⁻¹ NaOH (P_{NaOH0.5}). After each extraction, the soil suspensions were centrifuged at 2,510 × g for 187 15 min to collect supernatants. Then, the remaining sediment was dried at ~50 $^{\circ}$ C, ground and submitted 188 to digestion with H₂SO₄ and H₂O₂ in the presence of saturated MgCl₂. Then, the residual Hedley-P-189 fraction was determined ($P_{residual}$). In the acid extracts, P was directly determined according to the 190 **Murphy and Riley (1962)** method. For the NaHCO₃ and NaOH extractors, the extracts were first digested 191 with H₂SO₄ and ammonium persulphate in an autoclave at 121 °C (USEPA, 1971), and then the P content 192 was determined by the **Murphy and Riley (1962)** method.

193 When separating the organic and inorganic forms of P, the total organic P (P_{org}) was estimated 194 by the ignition method proposed by **Olsen and Sommers (1982)**, as the difference between the amount 195 of P extracted with 0.5 mol L⁻¹ H₂SO₄ from ignited (550°C, 2h) and non-ignited soil. Total P was estimated 196 by digestion with H₂SO₄ and H₂O₂ in the presence of saturated MgCl₂, as proposed by Olsen and 197 **Sommers (1982)**. Then, total inorganic P (Pinorg) was estimated by the difference between total P and 198 total organic P.

199

200 *2.3. Tracer selection*

201 The selection of tracers was performed following two steps: (i) a conservative range test and a 202 Kruskal–Wallis *H* test (KW *H*-test), and (ii) discriminant function analysis (DFA). For the range test, the 203 variables with sediment concentrations lying outside the range of sources ±1 standard deviation were 204 excluded from further analysis, as recommended by **Smith and Blake (2014)**, and they were considered 205 as non-conservative. Then, the KW-*H* test was performed to test the null hypothesis (*p*<0.1) that the 206 sources are belonging to the same population **(Collins et al., 1997a)**. The KW-*H*-test defined which 207 properties were statistically different among the sediment sources (i.e., whether they can be considered

208 as potential tracers). Tracers that did not pass the conservative test or the KW *H*-test were removed 209 from the next analysis.

210 Subsequently, a multivariate DFA was performed to determine the minimum number of 211 variables that maximizes the discrimination between the sources. DFA was performed only with the 212 variable considered to be conservative by the range test and that passed the KW *H*-test. DFA is based 213 on the Wilks' lambda (Λ^*) value from the analysis of variance, where the criterion used by the statistical 214 model is the minimization of Λ^* . A Λ^* value of 1 is found when all the group means are the same whilst 215 a low Λ^* value means that the variability within the groups is small compared to the total variability. The 216 DFA was performed in the backward mode, with 0.01 as the maximum or minimum significance of F to 217 include or remove a property.

218 In order to test the hypothesis that the P-fractions can be used as effective tracers of the 219 sediment sources and/or that they may improve the predictions obtained with geochemical tracers, the 220 DFA was performed using three different sets of variables: (i) geochemical variables only; (ii) P-fractions 221 only; and (iii) the combination of geochemical elemental concentrations (with the exception of pseudo-222 total-P estimated by aqua-regia digestion) and P-fractions.

223

224 *2.5. Sediment source apportionment*

225 A modified version of the classical Solver-based mixing model determined the relative contribution 226 of different sources to in-stream sediment through simultaneously minimizing mixing model difference 227 (MMD):

$$
MMD = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\left(C_i - \left(\sum_{s=1}^{m} P_s S_{si} \right) \right) / C_i \right)^2 \tag{Eq. 1}
$$

228 where *n* is the number of parameters in the model chosen by the three-step selection process; *Cⁱ* is the 229 $\;$ in-stream sample parameter (i); m is the number of sources; P $_{\rm s}$ is the contribution of source (s); S $_{\rm si}$ is the 230 mean of parameter (i) in source (s). The proportional contribution from each source (P_s) is modelled by 231 Solving Equation 1 with the Solver Function in Microsoft Excel with P_s being between 0 and 1 and the 232 sum of all P_s estimations equalling 1. The GRG Non-Linear solving method was used with automatic 233 scaling in Solver, ignoring integer constraints, with a maximum run time of 5000 and allowing for 2500 234 iterations. A multi-start population size of 2500 was used along with the same random seed for each of 235 the model runs while requiring bounds on the variables. A constraint precision and convergence of 236 0.000001 were selected.

237

238 **3. Results and discussion**

239 *3.1. Total P content*

240 Phosphorus content estimated by aqua-regia digestion (HNO₃+HCl), which is the most widely 241 used digestion procedure in sediment fingerprinting studies using P as potential tracers, was on average 242 48±8% of that estimated by the sulfuric acid digestion (**Fig. 3**). This comparison demonstrated that the 243 aqua-regia method is less effective in assessing the P content in soil and sediments, and that $H_2SO_4+H_2O_2$ 244 was more effective to evaluate the total P content (**Malá and Lagová, 2014)**. The low capacity of the 245 aqua-regia digestion method to extract P from soil and sediment may be the cause of this tracer removal 246 in several previous sediment fingerprinting studies, indicating that this technique likely targets those P 247 fractions that are more loosely bound to the soil particles, which may be less conservative during erosion 248 and transportation processes.

249

250 *3.2. Phosphorus fractions*

251 All of the P-fractions evaluated in the current research passed the KW-*H*-test (*p*<0.01), except 252 the P_{residual}, which means that these fractions can be considered as potential tracers of sediment sources 253 in this catchment (**Fig. 4**). The results of the DFA using the individual P fractions showed that they were 254 able to correctly classify 48 (P_{NaOH0.5}) to 75% (P_{bic}) of the sediment source samples (Fig. 4). Concentrations 255 of P_{resin}, P_{HCl}, P_{NaOH0.5} and P_{inorg} were higher in those soil samples collected in cropland compared to those 256 sampled in other sources (cropland>stream channels=unpaved roads, **Table 1, Supplementary** 257 **material**). Those higher values found in cropland are likely due to the frequent fertilization of agricultural

258 land with fertilizers enriched in phosphates, which causes the accumulation of P in general and its 259 inorganic and more labile forms in particular, in the soil **(Guardini et al., 2012; Schmitt et al., 2017).**

260 The P_{bic} and P_{NaOH0.1} fractions were also higher in the cropland samples, although these forms 261 were also able to discriminate the unpaved roads and the channel bank sources, with the unpaved road 262 samples having the lowest values, and the stream channel samples reaching intermediate levels 263 (cropland>stream channels>unpaved roads) (**Fig. 4 and Table 1, Supplementary material**). These P-264 fractions of intermediate lability were also higher in cropland because of their inputs with phosphate 265 fertilizers. On the contrary, total organic P (P_{org}) did not provide discrimination between cropland and 266 channel bank samples (**Table 1, Supplementary material**), although it was able to discriminate the 267 unpaved road samples, which were systematically depleted in this fraction compared to other sources 268 (cropland=stream channels>unpaved roads). The presence of organic P in soils is due to the absorption 269 of inorganic P by plants and microorganisms, which incorporate this element into organic forms that 270 accumulate in the soil **(Tiecher et al., 2018)**. As there is almost no biological activity and organic residue 271 inputs in unpaved roads, the P_{org} contents in this source are very low, and possibly restricted to those 272 organic recalcitrant forms such as monoesters strongly adsorbed to the soil **(Deiss et al., 2016)**, which 273 may be inherited from the biological activity that occurred in these areas before the construction of 274 roads.

275 Despite their great tracer potential, the P_{HCI} and $P_{NaOH0.5}$ fractions were not conservative (**Fig. 4**). 276 Concentrations in these P-fractions measured in all sediment samples were higher than the highest 277 concentration found in a source sample (**Table 2 and 3, Supplementary material**). The concentration of 278 P_{inorg} was slightly higher in the sediment samples compared to that found in sediment sources. Only five 279 suspended sediment samples showed a concentration of P_{inorg} higher than the highest concentration 280 found in sediment sources (**Table 2 and 3, Supplementary material**). This result indicates a possible 281 enrichment of these specific P-fractions during the erosion process, and they were therefore excluded 282 from the following statistical treatment steps. The enrichment of P-forms in the sediment compared to 283 the sources could be related to the enrichment of fine particles that are richer in P during the erosion 284 and transport processes. However, this seems unlikely because the particle size distribution of the

285 sources and suspended sediment were very similar, as can be seen in **Fig. 5**. In addition, although almost 286 all fractions of P showed a significant relationship with the specific surface area (estimated by the 287 particle size distribution), the correlation coefficient was very low (mean R^2 = 0.18, ranging from 0.04-288 0.37) (**Table 2**). The same trend was observed for the relationship of P forms with the total organic 289 carbon content of the samples (mean R^2 = 0.21, ranging from 0.05-0.34). These results shows that for 290 the present study, the fractions of P were little influenced by the granulometry and organic carbon 291 content.

292 When conducting the chemical fractionations of P, HCl is used to estimate the content of P 293 bound to Ca **(Wang et al., 2013)**. The current study showed that there was an enrichment in the content 294 of total Ca in the sediment compared to the sources during the erosion and sediment transport 295 processes (**Fig. 6**), and this may have resulted in the precipitation of Ca phosphates in sediments **(Hupfer** 296 **et al., 2009)** and, consequently, in the enrichment of the P_{HCI} fraction. In contrast, NaOH is normally used 297 to estimate the content of P bound to Fe oxides **(Wang et al., 2013)**. However, contrary to Ca, no 298 enrichment of total Fe was found in the suspended sediments (**Fig. 6**), and this process cannot explain 299 the enrichment of P-fraction extracted by NaOH 0.5 mol $L⁻¹$. Although there was no enrichment in the 300 content of total-Fe, it has been demonstrated that poorly crystalline oxides with low P contents are 301 preferentially eroded **(Saavedra and Delgado, 2005**). Accordingly, it is possible that during transport 302 these Fe-oxides adsorb soluble P increasing their concentration in $P_{NaOH0.5}$. However, it is important to 303 note that chemical fractionation is an operational and likely non-specific approach to speciation of P in 304 geochemical systems and, therefore, the causes of the enrichment of this particular P-fraction should 305 be further investigated to confirm this process.

306

307 *3.3. Discriminant analysis*

308 The results of the discriminant function analysis (DFA) using the geochemical tracers only were 309 presented and discussed in **Tiecher et al. (2015)**. In the current research, these results will only be 310 compared with those obtained using the P-fractions alone and the combination of P-fractions with 311 geochemical tracers.

312 The P-fractions that passed the KW *H*-test and were considered conservative (P_{resin} , P_{bic} , $P_{NoHO.1}$, 313 P_{org}) were entered into a DFA, which selected only two of them (P_{resin}, P_{org}) (**Table 3).** The final value of 314 the Wilk's lambda parameter using P-fractions only was 0.2154 (**Table 3**). As this value is the proportion 315 of the total variance due to the error in the source discrimination, the two selected P-fractions were 316 associated with an error of 21.5%, *i.e*., the combination of these two P-fractions explained 317 approximately 78.5% of the differences observed between the sources. The discrimination power of the 318 P-fractions was lower than that obtained with the geochemical approach, which explained 98.7% of the 319 difference between the sources (**Table 3 – data from Tiecher et al. 2015**). Moreover, the approach based 320 on the P-forms was able to correctly classify 87.5% of the samples, with an average uncertainty of 21.5%, 321 significantly separated by an average squared Mahalanobis distance of 7.3 (**Table 3**). The uncertainty of 322 classification was much higher and the squared Mahalanobis distance was much lower than those 323 obtained for the geochemical approach (average of 2.08E-03% and 48.1, respectively – **Tiecher et al.** 324 **2015**). The better discrimination of sediment sources obtained in the geochemical approach compared 325 to P-fractions can be well visualized comparing the **Fig. 7a** and **Fig. 7b**, which are two-dimensional 326 scatterplots of the first and second discriminant functions obtained when running stepwises DFA for 327 geochemical and P-fractions, respectively.

328 When the P-fractions were combined with geochemical tracers in the DFA, six variables were 329 selected, including the same two P-fractions as those selected in the previous approach (P_{resin} , P_{ore}) and 330 four geochemical tracers (Mo, Fe, Ag, As) (**Table 3**). The final value of the Wilk's lambda parameter was 331 slightly reduced to 0.0122 when associating these parameters (**Table 3**) (*i.e*., together, these six tracers 332 explained approximately 98.8% of the differences observed between the sources). This original 333 combination of parameters resulted in the correct classification of 100% of the samples in their 334 respective groups. More importantly, the discrimination power was higher than when using the 335 geochemical tracers alone. The Mahalanobis distance increased to an average of 52.2 (**Table 3**), which 336 was 9% higher than that observed when following the geochemical approach. The better discrimination 337 of sediment sources obtained when combining the geochemical elements and P-fractions can be well 338 visualized through the comparison of **Fig. 7c** with **Fig. 7a** and **7b**.

340 *3.4. Sediment source apportionment*

341 The predictions of the sediment source contribution obtained with the geochemical tracers were 342 considered as the reference values, and the results obtained with the P-fractions alone and the 343 combination of both sets of tracers (geochemical elements + P-fractions) were compared to this 344 reference. **Fig. 8** summarizes the sediment source contributions calculated with the three datasets for 345 the 31 suspended sediment samples analyzed in the current research. Sediment source contributions 346 obtained when following the three approaches were very similar (**Fig. 8**). For the three approaches, the 347 cropland was the dominant source of sediment (**Fig. 8**), with calculated contributions of 56±19, 46±16 348 and 48±16% for the geochemical, P-fraction, and geochemical+P-fractions approaches, respectively. 349 Calculated contributions of unpaved roads were very stable and varied between 23±14 and 27±13 for 350 geochemical and geochemical+P-fractions, respectively. Calculated contributions of stream channel 351 banks was 21±18, 29±24 and 26±16% for the three approaches. These results agreed well with those 352 obtained in previous studies conducted on the same suspended sediment samples collected in this 353 catchment using near infrared spectroscopy (58±18 of cropland, 23±13 of unpaved roads, and 20±15% 354 of stream channels – **Tiecher et al***.***, 2016**) and the combination of geochemical elements and colour 355 parameters (48±13 of cropland, 27±13 of unpaved roads, and 25±13% of stream channels – **Tiecher et** 356 **al***.***, 2015**). The results of the current research showed that when conducting an approach with multiple 357 geochemical tracers, the replacement of total phosphorus by the P-fractions generated very similar 358 results. Moreover, the use of the P-fractions alone also generated consistent results, indicating their 359 potential use as tracers in rural catchments.

360 The results obtained here demonstrate that several fractions of P have the potential to 361 effectively discriminate sediment sources while remaining conservative during the erosion and transport 362 processes. However, it is important to highlight that our study catchment has characteristics that 363 potentiate the use of P fractions as tracers of sediment origin, such as its very small size (1.23 km²), the 364 high connectivity between the sediment sources and the drainage network, and a very fast hydrological 365 response, with very little opportunity to store sediments in places with biogeochemical characteristics

366 where there could be transformation of the forms of P. Thus, although the results obtained in the 367 present study were promising, the use of P-fractions to track the origin of sediments should still be 368 cautious, especially in larger river basins (**Koiter et al., 2013a**) and in situations where sediment is stored 369 in various landscape units for long periods of time, such as riparian, river channel and/or floodplain 370 environments.

371 The P-fractions can distinguish between the sediment sources and their use to calculate 372 sediment source contributions provided results that remained consistent with those obtained with the 373 conventional method based on elemental geochemistry. However, discrimination of sources by P-374 fractionation is poorer than by geochemical element analysis (**Fig. 7**), and the uncertainties are greater 375 (**Fig. 8**). On the other hand, the use of P-fractions combined with other geochemical elements did not 376 improve the statistical discrimination nor the quantification of the source contributions. Accordingly, 377 the use of P-fractions as potential tracers provides an excellent low-cost alternative, and although the 378 analysis of these parameters may be more labour-intensive to obtain a relatively limited number of 379 variables, it only requires a basic laboratory infrastructure (including a UV-visible spectrometer, an 380 autoclave and a muffle furnace). This is very important for research groups that do not have access to 381 sophisticated equipment (*e.g.* ICP-OES or ICP-MS, microwave oven) or sufficient resources to perform 382 the geochemical analyses used in the conventional approach. In addition to the land use discrimination, 383 P-fractions may be used to distinguish between contrasting soil management practices, such as 384 conventional ploughing or no-tillage **(Pavinato et al., 2009; Rodrigues et al., 2016; Tiecher et al., 2018)**. 385 Moreover, as P-fractions were shown to be affected by soil weathering factors **(Araújo et al., 2004; Cross** 386 **and Schlesinger, 1995; Yang and Post, 2011)** they could be used to trace the contributions of different 387 soil types and lithologies to sediment transiting rivers in catchments.

388

389 **4. Conclusions**

390 In this current research, the potential use of P-fractions as tracers to identify the source of 391 suspended sediments in a rural catchment in Southern Brazil was evaluated. With the exception of the 392 residual-P fraction, all the other seven P-fractions evaluated passed the KW-H-test and were considered

393 as potential tracers of sediment origin. The P-fraction associated with Ca (extracted with HCl), Fe oxides 394 (extracted with NaOH 0.5 mol L^{-1}) and the total inorganic P were not conservative, as these fractions 395 were enriched in the suspended sediment compared to the sources. The use of P-fractions alone was 396 able to discriminate 87.5% of the sediment source samples. Discriminant function analysis shows that 397 the combination of the P-fractions with geochemical tracers improved the discrimination power 398 compared to the use of geochemical tracers only. The Mahalanobis distance was 9% higher than that 399 observed when following the geochemical approach.

400 Cropland was identified as the dominant source of sediment in the three approaches. The 401 calculated contributions of sediment sources were very similar, with calculated cropland contributions 402 of 56±19, 46±16 and 48±16% for the approaches based on geochemical elements, P-fractions, and the 403 combination of both types of parameters, respectively. Although cropland was estimated to contribute 404 for most of eroded sediments from the catchment studied, it also constituted 96% of the catchment 405 land area. On the other hand, unpaved roads and stream banks contributed each to approximately one 406 fourth of the sediment but represented a much smaller land area and, therefore, are hotspots with more 407 intensive erosive activity in the basin and should be targeted as priority areas in management programs 408 aiming to decrease the sediment yield of the catchment.

409 The results obtained in the current research confirmed the hypothesis that some P-fractions 410 have a great discrimination potential that will be particularly useful in studies investigating the sources 411 of sediments in rural catchments, as they demonstrated to provide a high discriminant potential while 412 remaining conservative during erosion and transport processes. Future research should examine the 413 non-conservative behavior of P_{inorg} and other fractions to understand how and why P is transformed 414 during sediment transport in streams and improve our knowledge on the nature and the dynamics of P 415 in riverine and lacustrine environments.

416

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Figure 1. Distribution of the selection of 60 sediment fingerprinting studies found in the

literature and testing the use of P as a potential tracer depending on the country of the study

site (a) and the digestion method used to prepare soil and sediment material (b). *For X-ray

Fluorescence Spectroscopy (XRFS) no digestion is required. **No information about the acid

 used for digestion.

 and discriminant function analysis (DFA, c) for the selection of 60 sediment fingerprinting studies that tested P as a potential tracer, and the percentage of studies that applied these tests 13 in which P passed or failed the tests (d). This figure is based on results provided in Table 1. *P

 was excluded on the basis of the potential non-conservative behavior of P during downstream transport and it was not tested for KW-H, Range Test, and DFA. N/A = not available.

 $\begin{array}{c} 17 \\ 18 \end{array}$ 18 **Figure 3.** Comparison between P extracted by digestion methods using aqua-regia (HNO₃+HCl) and by
19 H₂SO₄+H₂O₂.

- $H_2SO_4+H_2O_2.$
- 20

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 Figure 5. Average particle size distribution (a) and accumulated particle size distribution (b) of suspended sediment samples (*n* = 31) and sediment sources (10 samples of unpaved roads, 10 samples of stream channel, and 20 samples of crop field) sieved at 63 µm in Arvorezinha catchment.

38 **Figure 6.** Box-plots of Ca (left) and Fe (right) concentrations in the potential sources and in suspended

- 39 sediment samples (data from **Tiecher et al. (2015)).** The box indicates the first and the third quartiles; 40 the line indicates the median value; whiskers indicate the non-outlier range; circles indicate values
- 41 outside of the range of ±1SD.

44 Figure 7. Two-dimensional scatterplots of the first and second discriminant functions provided by the 46 stepwise discriminant function analysis (DFA) applied to selected sets of tracers using geochemical 47 elements (a – data from Tiecher et al. 2015), P-forms (b), and the combination of geochemical elements 48 (excluding total-P) and P-forms (c) as potential tracing properties.

52 Figure 8. Box plot of the sediment source contributions to suspended sediment calculated using 54 different sets of tracing properties. The box indicates the first and the third quartiles; the line indicates 55 the median value; whiskers indicate the non-outlier range; circles indicate values outside of the range 56 of ±1SD.

Table 1. Summary of the statistical test results used for P selection as a potential tracer in a selection of 60 studies found in the literature including P in the list of the potential tracing properties; list of countries of the study sites, the selected solid digestion method and the equipment used to measure P.

*P was excluded because of its potential non-conservative behavior during erosion and transport and was therefore not tested for KW-H, Range Test, and DFA. **For X-ray Fluorescence Spectroscopy (XRFS) no digestion is required. ***No information about the acid used for digestion. N/A = not available. RBCS, Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo. GEOD, Geoderma. GEOM, Geomorphology. ESPL, Earth Surface Processes and Landforms. HESS, Hydrology and Earth System Sciences. HP, Hydrological Processes. IJSR, International Journal of Sediment Research. JEQ, Journal of Environmental Quality. JH, Journal of Hydrology. STR, Soil and Tillage Research. JSS, Journal of Soil and Sediments. STOTEN, The Science of Total Environment. AEE, Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment. JEM, Journal of Environmental Management. LDD, Land Degradation and Development. AJG, Arabian Journal Geoscience. PPG, Progress in Physical Geography. WRR, Water Resources Research. AGG, Applied Geography. AGC, Applied Geochemistry. JAST, Journal of Agricultural Science and Technology. ‡ 2nd Joint Federal Interagency Conference, Las Vegas, NV.

13 **Table 2.** Pearson correlation between P-fractions concentration and specific surface area and total

14 organic carbon for all data set, including source and suspended sediment samples (*n*=71). Bold numbers

15 indicate significant correlation at *p*<0.05.

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17

20 geochemical elements, P-fractions and the combination of geochemical elements and P-fractions.

 $21 \frac{1}{2}$ 22

Supplementary material

Table 1. Result of the Mann-Whitney *U*-test for comparison of the contents of the P-fractions between each sediment sources. Bold values indicate *p* <0.1.

Table 2. P-fractions content (mg kg-1) in sediment sources samples. SD, standard deviation.

Table 3. P-fractions content (mg kg⁻¹) in suspended sediment samples. SD, standard deviation. Bold values indicate suspended sediment samples with P content higher than the highest value found in sediment source samples (Table 1).

