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## **Raman Spectroscopy Assisted with XRF and Chemical Simulation to Assess the Synergic Impacts of Guardrails and Traffic Pollutants on Urban Soils**

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# Raman Spectroscopy Assisted with XRF and Chemical Simulation to Assess the Synergic Impacts of Guardrails and Traffic Pollutants on Urban Soils

Jose Antonio Carrero, Naiara Goienaga, Maitane Olivares, Irantzu Martinez-Arkarazo, Gorka Arana, Juan Manuel Madariaga

## Abstract

Urban soils are potential reservoirs of toxic metals as a consequence of traffic emissions. Sources like brake linings, tyres, road pavement, exhaust fumes, guardrail, traffic signals and other galvanized steel structures are used in a large variety of external constructions in the modern urban areas. Their beneficial properties from a corrosion and oxidation perspective are well known, but less is known about their contribution to the environmental fate of corrosion-induced released zinc. In this work the impact of guardrails and other traffic pollutants on urban soils has been studied by means of Raman spectroscopy (molecular speciation) and thermodynamic speciation to understand the mechanisms of metal release and uptake by the soils. Hydrozincite,  $Zn_5(CO_3)_2(OH)_6$ , was identified by means of Raman spectroscopy as the degradation compound of the galvanized zinc layer from guardrails which leads to the formation of soluble zinc, by acidic attack of the urban atmosphere, that drops and accumulate (zinc nitrate was identified) in soils. This fact shows the environmental risk of zinc release from the guardrails since zinc nitrate can be easily mobilized by water runoff, affecting the surrounding areas or groundwater. Other traffic pollutant that reaches guardrail and soil by atmospheric deposition, such as barium, was also identified in soil as well as in the guardrail in its carbonate form,  $BaCO_3$ . Due to its low solubility, barium will accumulate in urban soils.

## INTRODUCTION

Road traffic is one of the most important environmental problems in many cities and the main source of pollution of urban soils, where high levels of toxic metals have been reported as a consequence of traffic emissions (Pb, Ba, Zn, Cd, Sb and Cu among others)<sup>1-5</sup>. Well-known road traffic related metal emission sources of concern are brake linings, tyres, road pavement and exhaust fumes<sup>6-8</sup>. But also guardrail and traffic signals, which are present along the entire road with thousands of kilometres of galvanized steel, involve a potential risk of zinc pollution for urban soils, since they are made from steel plates with an external galvanized layer of  $Zn^9$ .

In atmospheric environments the metals suffer deterioration, due to the spontaneous corrosion process, when their surfaces get wet. Zinc coatings are predominantly used to improve the aqueous corrosion resistance of steel by two methods, barrier protection and galvanic

1 protection<sup>10,11</sup>. Hot-dipped galvanized coatings are widely used as corrosion protection of steels  
2 in a large variety of external constructions in the modern urban society like guardrails,  
3 lampposts, traffic signals, facades or roofs. In most atmospheric environments, Zn corrodes  
4 much less than steel due to the formation of a protective layer consisting of a mixture of zinc  
5 oxide and various basic zinc salts depending on the nature of the environment<sup>9,12,13</sup>.

6  
7 An oxide layer formed in that way can be transformed into a non-protective layer by being  
8 removed physically (winds and sand erosion), or by partial dissolution of the newly formed  
9 products due to rain wash or water condensation on the metal surface. When part of the metal  
10 is dissolved by rain, for example, metal ions fall from the metal surface to the soil surrounding  
11 the structure, then percolate through the soil and are transported to the groundwater. This  
12 phenomenon is recognized today as a metal runoff process<sup>13-16</sup>. As a consequence of metal  
13 runoff certain amounts of different metals (zinc, iron, copper and lead), which are originated  
14 from the corroded surface of metal structures or from traffic emission, have been detected in  
15 soils and waters, and in the biosphere in countries in the EU and USA.

16  
17 The analysis of the literature shows that since 1990 in Europe and USA the attention given to  
18 the metal runoff is considerable<sup>15,17</sup>. In the particular case of Bilbao (north of Spain), a city with  
19 past events of severe pollution due to its high density of heavy industries, the problem of the  
20 runoff is starting now to be observed because the environmental measures taken by the  
21 authorities since thirty years ago have had a great success<sup>18</sup>. A recent work, has demonstrated  
22 the good quality of the sediments in the river crossing the city and show that the historical  
23 sources of metal pollution are now under control<sup>19</sup>. The data obtained during this three-year  
24 period from the "low metal content" sampling points in sediments from the city centre of Bilbao,  
25 suggest that when concentrations are close to those of the background values (mineralogical  
26 composition of the basin), a seasonal trend is observed, with higher concentrations in summer  
27 and lower concentrations in winter. This increase and decrease cycle can only be explained by  
28 the input of metals from non-point sources, like the city runoff, because the point sources are  
29 not impacting nowadays.

30  
31 The traffic impact on urban soil in the Metropolitan area of Bilbao has been studied in previous  
32 works<sup>20,21</sup>. High concentrations of several metals were found in these urban soils and could be  
33 attributed to traffic emissions. Metals accumulate in topsoil and their concentrations decrease  
34 quickly with depth and the distance to the road. A special behaviour for zinc was found. Zinc  
35 concentration was higher than other metals just under the guardrail and this anomalous local  
36 concentration values could not be attributed only to traffic emissions. Thus, a new study was  
37 carried out in order to asses the synergic impacts of the guardrails and traffic pollutants on  
38 urban soils and to understand the mechanism of metal release. Soils and guardrails from a  
39 highly dense road were selected to perform the work. Metals can be more or less mobile in the  
40 soil, in relation to their geochemical form which affects their solubility and thus their

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2  
3 1 bioavailability<sup>22</sup>. Therefore, metal speciation by molecular spectroscopy techniques is important  
4 2 in order to evaluate metal mobility and potential bioavailability of hazardous compounds<sup>23-25</sup>.  
5 3 The use of Raman spectroscopy provides structural and molecular information about the  
6 4 compounds originated by corrosion of the galvanized steel and gives an idea of the potential  
7 5 risk of the pollutants in soil. These data were complemented with X-Ray fluorescence analysis  
8 6 and thermodynamic speciation models, following a methodology that has been used previously  
9 7 to explain the degradation mechanisms in mural paintings<sup>26</sup>, the transformation of copper  
10 8 carbonate compounds in different copper sulphate species by attack of oxalic acid excreted by  
11 9 microorganisms in the presence of calcium sulphate<sup>27</sup> or the impact of different environments on  
12 10 the conservation state of walls and wall paintings in the archaeological site of Pompeii, Italy<sup>28</sup>.  
13 11

## 12 **EXPERIMENTAL**

### 14 **Samples**

15 The studied area belongs to the Metropolitan Bilbao with a high traffic density and humid and  
16 16 rainy climate. Two guardrails were analyzed in this study, a very old guardrail which has been  
17 17 exposed to the environment during several years and another new one that has been recently  
18 18 placed on the road. The old guardrail is heavily deteriorated showing white areas and having a  
19 19 lot of dust adhered to it (a detailed photograph of this material can be seen in Fig. S1 of the  
20 20 Supplementary Material); black spots were also visible together with dust. The new guardrail  
21 21 has a good appearance; the galvanized layer was in perfect condition with a bright  
22 22 homogeneous grey colour without any spots. Soil at different distances from the guardrail was  
23 23 also investigated: one right under the guardrail and two more soil samples next to it were  
24 24 collected to perform the spectroscopic analysis.  
25 25

### 26 **Instrumentation**

27 A portable Renishaw RA100 (Renishaw, UK) microprobe system was used for the Raman  
28 28 spectra acquisition of samples at the micrometric level. The system is equipped with a 785 nm  
29 29 diode laser connected with a fibre optic cable to the measuring probe, a mobile diffraction  
30 30 grating of 1200 lines mm<sup>-1</sup> and a peltier cooled CCD detector. The laser has a nominal output  
31 31 power of 150 mW at the source and some filters allow working at 1%, 10% or 100% of that  
32 32 power. The micro-probe mounted on a tripod is coupled to a 20X objective and incorporate a  
33 33 micro-TV camera whose positioning is controlled by a X,Y motorised micrometric stage allowing  
34 34 perfect focussing of the different mineral grains or surface particles to be analysed.  
35 35

36 Guardrails were analyzed at the laboratory, using a hand-held innoRam Raman spectrometer  
37 37 (BWTEK, Newark, EEUU) provided with a 785 nm excitation laser. The microprobe was used in  
38 38 the laboratory with the 20X long-distance objective.  
39 39

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3 1 Elemental measurements directly on the surface of the guardrail and on the soil samples were  
4 2 carried out to complement the molecular results. With this aim a portable ArtTAX  $\mu$ -ED-XRF  
5 3 (Bruker AG) equipped with an X-ray tube with a molybdenum anode working at a maximum  
6 4 voltage of 50 kV and a maximum current of 0.6 mA was used. The X-rays are collimated by a  
7 5 tantalum collimator with a diameter of 0.65 mm and the beam diameter in the sample's surface  
8 6 is 200  $\mu\text{m}^2$ . A CCD camera integrated in the measuring head gives an image of the sample  
9 7 surface (8mm $\times$ 8mm) and a motor driven XYZ positioning unit allows focusing on different parts  
10 8 of the sample. Samples were analysed directly without any pre-treatment and the operating  
11 9 conditions were fixed at 1000 s, at a voltage of 50 kV and a current of 0.5 mA.

### 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60

### 11 **Pre-treatment of the soil samples for Raman analysis**

12 The clay matrix of the soil gives a great fluorescence phenomenon, which saturates the Raman  
13 signal. In addition to this, the presence of organic matter can contribute to enhance the  
14 fluorescence phenomena and origin interferences in Raman spectra. Both problems difficult the  
15 interpretation of the spectra. Therefore, different pre-treatments were carried out.

16  
17 On the one hand, short acquisition times at low intensity power were used for spectra  
18 acquisition in order to avoid saturation, but even so, high fluorescence was obtained and the  
19 resulting spectra were too noisy. Thus, a pre-treatment of the spectra was carried out prior to  
20 identification. In most of the cases, correction of the baseline and smoothing was used to a  
21 greater or lesser extent. On the other hand, following previous experience of the research group  
22 in Raman analysis of samples with high organic matter content<sup>25</sup>, soil samples were first pre-  
23 treated with acetone in order to eliminate the possible organic matter of the soil. The pre-  
24 treatment consists of a solid-liquid extraction of the soil with acetone during 30 minutes in an  
25 ultrasonic bath.

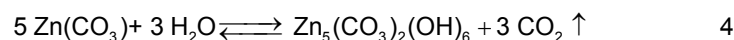
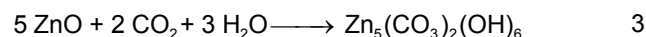
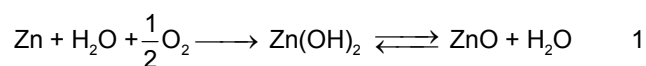
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27 The calibration of the Raman spectrometer was carried out daily with the 520  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  silicon band.  
28 The measurement conditions vary depending on the gathered signal to noise ratio and the  
29 obtained fluorescence, but exposure times from 5 to 30 s and 1–10 accumulations at 1% or  
30 10% power were used in most of the cases. Several spectra were recorded in each selected  
31 area for the proper identification of the compounds involved with the WIRE (Renishaw, UK)  
32 software between 2200 and 200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (spectral resolution of 1  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and cutoff of the system  
33 around 200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and processed with Omnic 7.2 (Nicolet, Madison, WI, USA) software. The  
34 interpretation of the results was performed by comparing the obtained spectra with standard  
35 spectra contained in our home-made Raman database<sup>29</sup> and those collected in the RRUFF  
36 database<sup>30</sup>.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Raman spectra of the guardrails

In order to assess the impact of steel plate traffic signals on soils, some Raman spectra were acquired from different parts of the guardrail. Raman laser was focused first on clean areas from the new guardrail's surface. No signal was obtained in these spectra as it was expected, since metallic forms of Fe and Zn are not active in Raman spectroscopy.

Raman spectra from the old deteriorated guardrail showed the presence of different compounds. Fig. S1 shows a photo of the old guardrail where one can distinguish the deterioration state of the guardrail, with several different black, brown and white spots. Raman spectra of most of these spots showed the presence of amorphous carbon suggesting a deposit of organic matter. For instance, Fig. S2 shows a Raman spectrum of one of these black spots where a mixture of the calcite and amorphous carbon spectra were identified. However, Raman spectra of white spots match quite well with degradation compounds of the galvanized Zn layer<sup>9,31</sup> and other traffic pollutants. Fig. 1 shows two Raman spectra obtained in the old guardrail that match a basic zinc carbonate standard, namely hydrozincite ( $\text{Zn}_5(\text{CO}_3)_2(\text{OH})_6$ ). It must be borne in mind the environment to which these traffic signals are exposed, with thousands of vehicles passing and emitting exhaust gases. Thus, with the time and climate conditions, the guardrails and other traffic signals are exposed to strong corroding conditions; in a first stage, the Zn layer undergoes the classical passivation step and transforms to zincite, ZnO (equation 1), which continues reacting at high humidity conditions with the  $\text{CO}_2$  from the traffic exhaust and gives smithsonite,  $\text{ZnCO}_3$ , and/or hydrozincite as it is elsewhere described<sup>13,31,32</sup>, depending on the relative humidity and  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure (equations 2-4).



With the aim of identifying the presence of other metals deposited on the surface of the guardrail, XRF analyses were also performed on both guardrail samples. The Fig. 2a, shows a XRF spectrum from the new and clean guardrail, Fe and Zn are the major elements of its composition. The external Zn layer is thin enough to allow X-Ray penetrating into the steel, explaining why the signal for Fe also appears. In the old guardrail (Fig. 2b), nevertheless, X-Ray emission  $K_\alpha$  lines from some different elements such as Ca, Ba, Pb or Sr can also be seen. These elements are related to traffic emissions and its presence in the guardrail is due to atmospheric deposition from traffic pollution<sup>20,21</sup>.



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1 Regarding the Raman spectrum of the white spots in the old guardrail (Fig. 1), the presence of  
2 other carbonates is also possible due to the presence of a broad band at  $1060\text{ cm}^{-1}$  that could  
3 be the unresolved sum of bands belonging to the symmetric stretching of different carbonate  
4 compounds. In this sense, the band observed at  $690\text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates the presence also of  
5 witherite,  $\text{BaCO}_3$  (Ba has been detected by XRF in these white spots). The rest of the bands are  
6 assigned to the hydrozincite compound. Bands at  $707\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $735\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are not totally resolved  
7 as in the hydrozincite standard obtained from the online RRUFF database<sup>30</sup>, and it appears to  
8 be a double band. One of the guardrail spectra also shows a band at  $272\text{ cm}^{-1}$  that it is not  
9 present in the standard of the RRUFF database but it is referenced in the work of Hales<sup>33</sup>,  
10 where they characterized the Raman spectrum of hydrozincite. That work states that the  
11 hydrozincite spectrum could present a shoulder at  $1078\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , which matches with the spectra  
12 obtained from the guardrail in this work. The feature centred at  $1062\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , corresponding to the  
13 carbonate, shows another band (a shoulder) at  $1075\text{ cm}^{-1}$ .

14  
15 Some chemical equilibrium models were simulated by means of the MEDUSA program<sup>34</sup>. This  
16 program can construct different equilibrium diagrams based on the equilibrium information  
17 (possible equilibria and their corresponding constants) listed in an electronic database  
18 (HYDRA). The Zn layer covering the steel plate is attacked by the acid (rain and/or aerosol)  
19 resulting from the  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{SO}_x$  acid gases present in the urban atmospheres, especially  
20 near the traffic areas. Fig. 3a simulates corrosion conditions of the guardrail. The diagram of  
21 species of zinc is represented. Solid zinc, oxygen and  $\text{CO}_2$  were considered as components of  
22 the system;  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration was set to  $1.7\text{ mM}$  based on measurements of the rain in  
23 surrounding areas. At acidic pH values zinc is dissolved mainly as the  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  cation but between  
24 pH 6-7 zinc carbonate is formed and at higher pH values, hydrozincite is formed. At basic pH  
25 values ( $\text{pH}>10$ ) hydrozincite leads to zinc oxide. This graph confirms the thermodynamically  
26 favourable conditions leading to the formation of hydrozincite in the guardrail as the most stable  
27 oxidation compound when zinc is exposed to the environmental  $\text{CO}_2$ . This result is in agreement  
28 with results obtained by Raman spectroscopy. The same model was built up for BaO. Once  
29 again the formation of barium carbonate starting from barium oxide is possible according to the  
30 thermodynamic model (see Fig. 3b).

### 31 32 **Raman spectra of the soil samples**

33 Once zinc is in the hydrozincite form, it is mobilizable by acidic attack and can consequently be  
34 released into the environment. These oxidized residues are now soluble in slightly acidic  
35 conditions (like those given by the acid rain on high density traffic roads) and can reach soils  
36 under the guardrail through the rain wash, or can be detached as a solid from the steel plate. A  
37 soil matrix is much more complex than the steel plate from the guardrail. The number of  
38 different compounds that could be present in a soil is very high. However, their concentrations  
39 vary from thousands of  $\mu\text{g/g}$  to less than one  $\text{ng/g}$ . The interpretation of the Raman spectra of  
40 soils could be very difficult without a first idea of the concentration range of the different

1 elements present in the soil. Therefore, a first screening of the soils under the guardrail was  
2 carried out by means of ICP-MS<sup>21</sup>. Semi-quantitative ICP-MS analysis from the soils revealed,  
3 an elevated concentration of zinc in top soil. The Zn concentration falls down abruptly from  
4 800 µg/g right underneath to near 50 µg/g only a few centimetres far away. This experimental  
5 evidence can only be explained by an input of zinc coming from the guardrail.

6  
7 Once it was known that there was a release of Zn from the guardrail into the soil and its  
8 concentration was high enough to be detected, soil was submitted to Raman spectroscopic  
9 analysis in order to identify the molecular form of zinc. Some natural components of soil like  
10 calcite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) (Fig. S2), dolomite (CaMg(CO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) (Fig. S3) and quartz (SiO<sub>2</sub>) (Fig. 4a) were  
11 found. These are common components of calcareous clay soils, as is the case of soils from the  
12 Basque Country.

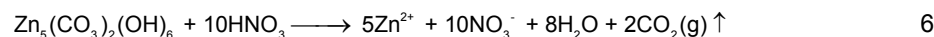
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14 Barium was detected also in the soil, apart from in the guardrail, again in carbonate form  
15 (Fig. 4a). Barium is released to the environment as BaO used in brake materials. This barium  
16 oxide was then detected in the guardrail as BaCO<sub>3</sub> (witherite) which means that the BaO  
17 particles that deposit on the guardrails (and in soils) react with CO<sub>2</sub> to give the carbonate  
18 (equation 5) and then reach the soil with the rain (physical displacement, not solubilisation)  
19 and/or wind. The simulation of this chemical system in Fig. 5a confirms that the formation of  
20 barium carbonate from barium oxide is thermodynamically feasible. The pH measured in soil  
21 samples was 7.7-7.8. At this pH value, BaCO<sub>3</sub> is the most stable species of Ba. The second  
22 one, another solid species, is BaSO<sub>4</sub> (it was not detected by Raman analysis of the soils). The  
23 fraction of the only mobilizable species, Ba<sup>2+</sup>, is lower than 20% of total Ba and therefore, due to  
24 its low solubility, BaCO<sub>3</sub> will accumulate in urban soils. This fact was experimentally assessed  
25 by analysing the total concentration of alkali-earth metals. The geochemical order of  
26 concentrations Ca > Sr > Ba was not found in urban soils near roads with high-density traffic  
27 where the concentration of Ba > Sr<sup>20,21</sup>.



30  
31 But the most remarkable thing was the presence of Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> among those carbonate  
32 compounds in soil samples under the guardrail (Fig. 4b). The chemical equilibrium model for  
33 zinc in soil was also simulated. Previous ICP-MS analysis from the soils gave a Zn  
34 concentration of about 12 mM. Sulphate and carbonate were added to the system as anions,  
35 their concentrations being established based on soil matrix estimation from the soluble salt  
36 quantified by ionic chromatography. The redox potential was also measured around 200 mV.  
37 With all these parameters the diagram of fractions for zinc chemical model indicates that  
38 hydrozincite is the predominant form of zinc in calcareous soils (Fig. 5b). At the typical pH  
39 values found in soils, hydrozincite is the most feasible form of zinc in soils. However, Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>  
40 was detected by Raman spectroscopy (Fig 4b). This fact could be explained by new reactions



1 undergone by hydrozincite in the soil. Hydrozincite can be dissolved in top soil by the acid  
2 gases from traffic exhausts (and/or CO<sub>2</sub>) and the soluble Zn<sup>2+</sup> can react with the nitrate present  
3 in soil (or even with the NO<sub>x</sub> from traffic exhaust), yielding the more easily mobilizable form of  
4 zinc, Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> when the soil is dried and the CO<sub>2</sub> is evaporated (equation 6). This fact shows  
5 the environmental risk of zinc release from the guardrails since zinc nitrate can be easily  
6 mobilized by water runoff and can pollute surrounding areas or groundwater.



## 10 CONCLUSIONS

12 The aim of this work was to assess the synergic impacts of guardrails and traffic related  
13 pollutants on urban soils. The identification of degradation compounds of the galvanized  
14 guardrail from roads and highways was performed using Raman spectroscopy and  
15 thermodynamic speciation models. Hydrozincite (Zn<sub>5</sub>(CO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>(OH)<sub>6</sub>) was the main patina  
16 component on guardrails exposed at nonsheltered conditions for long periods of time.  
17 Guardrails were demonstrated to be an important zinc release source to urban soil. Zinc from  
18 the galvanized layer of the guardrails oxidized to hydrozincite which can reach the soil when a  
19 part of the metal oxide is dissolved by rain. This is a local phenomenon but represents an  
20 important environmental risk since zinc nitrate was detected in soil samples and it is easily  
21 mobilized by water runoff, polluting surrounding soil and/or water, and reaching sediments of  
22 nearby rivers, like it has been observed recently in sediments from the city centre of Bilbao.

24 Furthermore, barium carbonate could be also detected both in the soil and in the guardrail. BaO  
25 particles coming from brake wear deposit on the guardrails (and on soils) and react with CO<sub>2</sub> to  
26 give the carbonate. Due to its low solubility this metal is favoured to be accumulated in soils on  
27 the roadsides with high traffic density.

29 Finally, the results obtained highlight the importance of the use of molecular spectroscopy  
30 techniques like Raman spectroscopy to detect the molecular species found on the guardrail and  
31 the soil, which is fundamental in order to be able to explain the reaction path leading to their  
32 formation. Moreover, these results illustrate that the knowledge of total concentration of metals  
33 in soil can be important but that it is much more interesting to know is the chemical form in  
34 which the metal is found. Thus the question of whether or not the metal is bioavailable in a  
35 certain chemical form can be answered so as to assess the risk of its presence.

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2  
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For Peer Review

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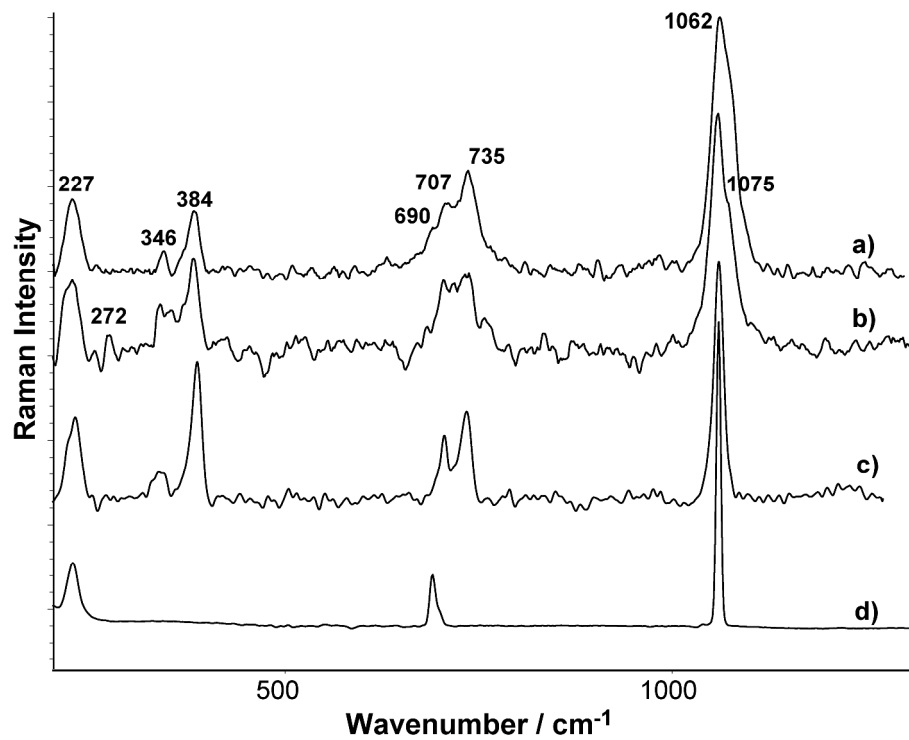


Figure 1. Raman spectra of a) and b) white spots in the old guardrail, c) hydrozincite standard, and d) barium carbonate standard.  
387x293mm (300 x 300 DPI)



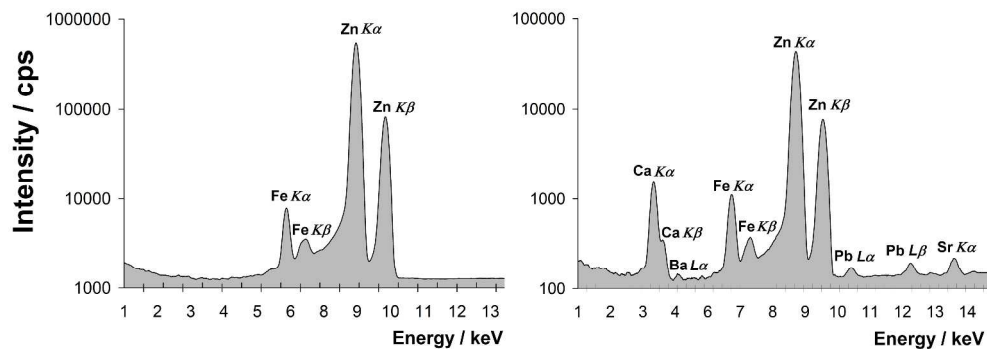


Figure 2. XRF spectra of the a) new guardrail and b) old guardrail.  
763x269mm (300 x 300 DPI)

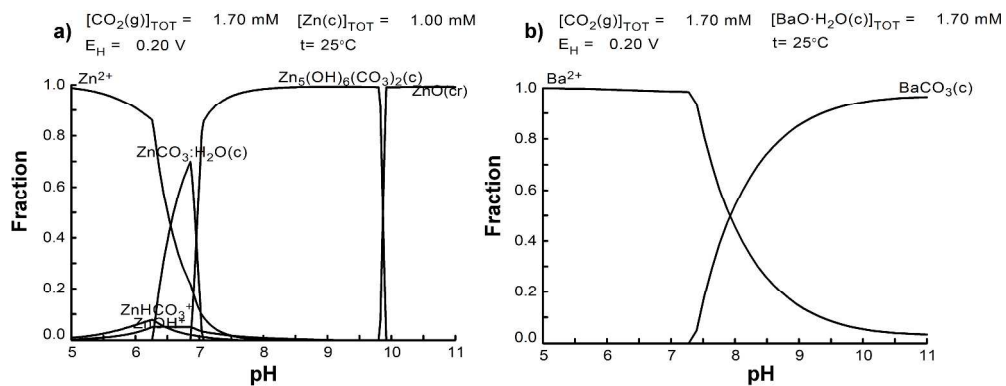


Figure 3. Chemical simulation of the processes given in the guardrail leading to a) hydrozincite and b) barium carbonate.

484x181mm (300 x 300 DPI)

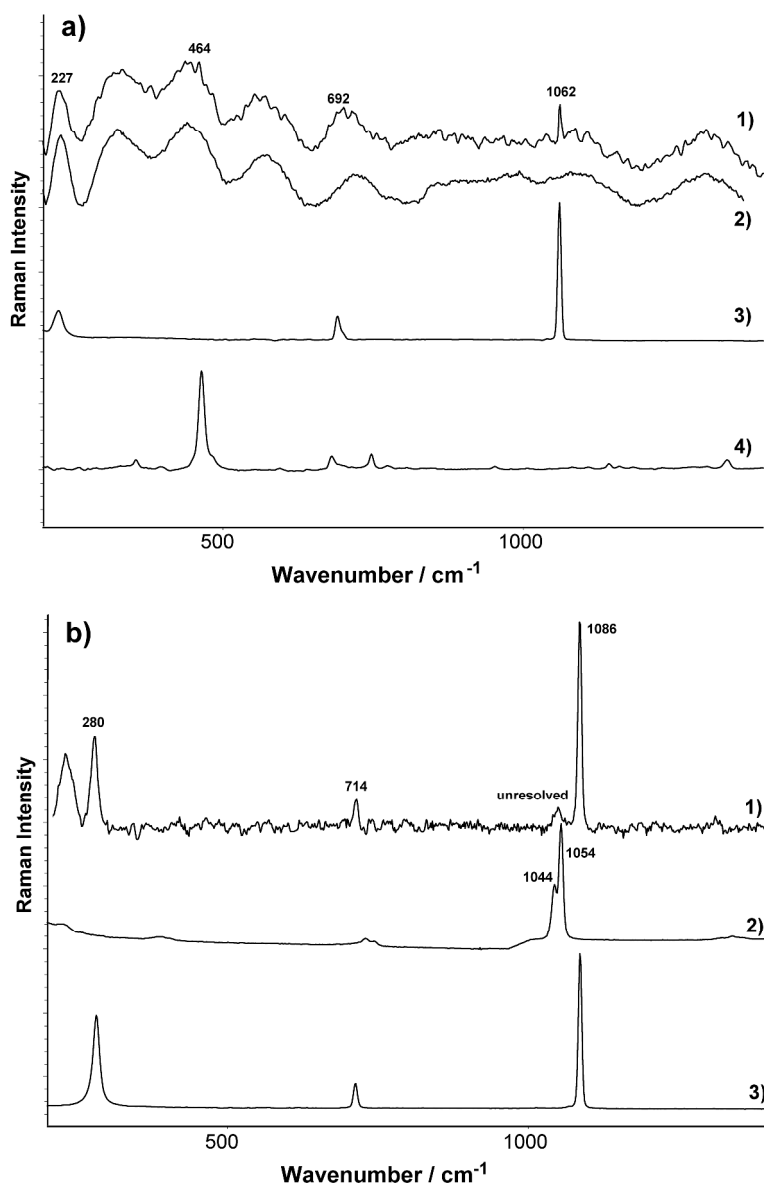


Figure 4. Raman spectra of a): 1) quartz and BaCO<sub>3</sub> in soil sample, 2) soil background, 3) and 4) BaCO<sub>3</sub> and quartz standards, respectively; and b): 1) CaCO<sub>3</sub> and Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in soil sample, 2) and 3) CaCO<sub>3</sub> and Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> standards, respectively.  
387x598mm (300 x 300 DPI)

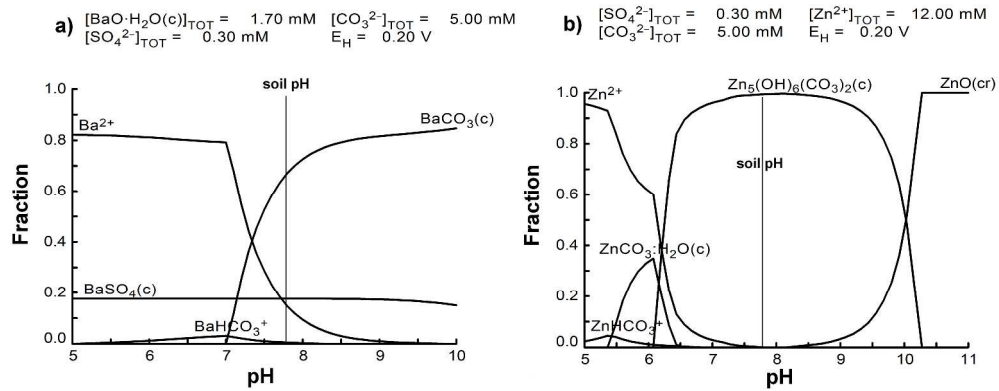


Figure 5. Chemical simulation of barium (a) and zinc (b) compounds in soil.  
 484x188mm (300 x 300 DPI)