

1 **A novel method to determine trimethylantimony concentrations in**
2 **plant tissue.**

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11 Environmental Context

12 Antimony (Sb) enters the soil mostly through mining and shooting activities and can thereafter be
13 taken up by plants. In the soil, Sb may undergo several transformations, such as biomethylation, leading
14 to the formation of trimethylantimony (TMSb). Here, we measured for the first time the uptake and
15 translocation of TMSb in a plant using a new extraction and analysis method.

16

17 Abstract

18 Antimony (Sb) is a relevant pollutant that can be found in elevated concentrations in soils, near Sb
19 mines and in shooting ranges. In soils, Sb occurs as trivalent Sb, Sb(III), pentavalent Sb, Sb(V) or
20 trimethylantimony, TMSb ((CH₃)₃SbO) the latter being the result of microbial biomethylation. It is
21 important to understand the transfer of Sb species from soil to plants to assess the role of Sb in the food
22 chain. However, this research has historically been hampered by the lack of suitable extraction and
23 analytical methods. In this study, we validated an efficient and reliable extraction technique using oxalic
24 acid and ascorbic acid (72.6 ± 1.3 % of Sb extracted) as well as a HPLC-ICP-MS speciation analysis
25 method to assess the uptake of TMSb in rye grass (*Lolium perenne* L.) a common pasture plant, in a
26 hydroponics experiment. Our results show that TMSb and Sb(III) are not converted to other species

27 during extraction and that TMSb is taken up by rye grass roots and translocated to the shoots. Our study
28 also points at specific methylation/demethylation mechanisms *in planta*. Moreover, an unknown Sb
29 species was found in the shoots of TMSb-treated plants, highlighting the need for further research.
30 These new extraction and speciation methods will enable researchers to study the soil-plant transfer of
31 organo-Sb compounds in a reliable and consistent manner.

32

33 Introduction

34 Antimony (Sb) has been much less studied than other relevant pollutants such as arsenic (As) or
35 mercury (Hg) even though it is classified as a priority pollutant as well as a toxic pollutant by the US
36 EPA^[1]. Furthermore, Sb plant uptake and transport mechanisms are mostly unknown. Sb is the 9th most
37 mined element with 78% of the world production in 2015 being extracted in China^[2]. It is mostly used in
38 plastics, as a fire retardant and in the production of ammunition. The latter is an important pathway of
39 entry into shooting range soils, i.e. by weathering of the bullets^[3] and can thus possibly pass into plants.

40 Recent studies show that Sb has a higher mobility than previously thought, especially in
41 contaminated areas^[4]. It is generally more mobile than other pollutants such as As and lead (Pb)^[5,6],
42 although this can change depending on the redox conditions^[7]. Sb is however more available than As in
43 mining soils^[8] and can thus be taken up by microorganisms or plants more easily. Indeed, concentrations
44 between 100 and 4000 mg.kg⁻¹ have been found in plants growing in mining areas^[4]. Furthermore,
45 shoots of clover (*Trifolium repens* L.), a common N₂-fixing pasture plant that can commonly grow on
46 shooting ranges or near Sb-mining areas, was found to contain up to 770 mg.kg⁻¹ Sb when exposed to
47 200 μM Sb(V) in a hydroponic experiment^[9]. However, it must be noted that this is possibly due to the
48 lack of phytochelatins (PCs) in clover. Otherwise, PCs bind with metals and prevent them from being
49 transported to the shoots or interacting with the plant metabolism. Recent work showed that in rice
50 (*Oryza sativa* L.), that was grown in 1 mg.L⁻¹ of Sb(III) or Sb(V), most of the Sb remained in the roots due
51 to the presence of the iron plaque, although a contribution of PCs to the immobilisation of Sb in the
52 roots cannot be excluded^[10-12]. The same authors reported that more Sb was found in all parts of the
53 plant when Sb(III) was used and that Sb(V) was the dominant species in roots and shoots of rice. Recent
54 work also showed that forage grasses such as rye grass (*Lolium perenne* L.) or velvet grass (*Holcus*
55 *lanatus* L.) growing on shooting range soils take up more Sb when the soil is flooded^[13]. This is of

56 importance since in Switzerland, shooting ranges with less than 1000 mg.kg⁻¹ Pb are commonly used as
57 pastures^[14].

58 Furthermore, in the environment, Sb can undergo biomethylation^[15], a biological process by which
59 inorganic Sb species are transformed to methylated Sb species. The most common methylated Sb
60 species are mono-, di- and trimethylantimony (MMSb, DMSb and TMSb respectively). In the case of As
61 and Hg, biomethylation plays an important role since the mobility and toxicity of the methylated species
62 are very different from their inorganic counterpart^[16,17]. Moreover, a recently published review on Sb in
63 an agricultural context clearly shows that there is a lack of data with regard to Sb speciation and
64 behaviour in soils and plants, especially for TMSb, and it further highlights the importance of studying
65 methylated Sb to make better environmental risk assessments^[18]. Unfortunately, MMSb and DMSb are
66 not available commercially which makes their study very difficult by conventional methods.
67 Nevertheless, some information can be found in the reviews of Bentley & Chasteen^[19] and Filella^[15]. For
68 example, methylated species of Sb can be found in waters, soils, sediments and biota, just like
69 methylated species of As. Furthermore, Filella states that Sb has been largely overlooked as an element
70 of environmental concern and that the data on the physical and chemical properties of these organic
71 compounds are fragmentary and old^[15]. Nonetheless, recent studies were able to demonstrate that
72 TMSb was more mobile than pentavalent methylated As species since it adsorbs two to three times less
73 on soils, sediments or mine tailings^[20]. In a Sb mining area in China, it was found that TMSb represented
74 up to 80% of total Sb in some soils and that it was present mostly in the shoots of plants growing on this
75 substrate^[8]. TMSb was also found in water extracts of shoots of the As hyperaccumulator fern *Pteris*
76 *vittata* L.^[21]. Using more complex methods of analysis, DMSb could also be found in liverworts and
77 mosses growing next to an abandoned Sb mine^[22]. These previous studies illustrate the importance of
78 TMSb in the environment and more specifically in plants. However, to our knowledge, no controlled
79 studies looking at the uptake and translocation of TMSb in plants have ever been conducted and the
80 limitations have always been the analytical tools available, especially the lack of appropriate extraction
81 and speciation methods for methylated Sb compounds.

82 Fortunately, new techniques helped to develop this specific research area. For example, extraction
83 methods using citric acid (9.4-51.5% recovery) were found to be the best compared to water (3.4-45.2%)
84 and methanol:water mixtures (3.5-26.1%), using either ultra-sonication or shaking^[23,24]. However, citric
85 acid extracted only 0.6 to 57.7 % of the total Sb in a range of plants growing near two Sb mines in two
86 independent studies^[4,23]. These results demonstrate that more effort must be undertaken to improve

87 recoveries of extracted Sb for speciation analysis. Furthermore, to our knowledge, there is no published
88 Sb extraction method that could also extract TMSb in plants for which it was clearly demonstrated that
89 there is no change in speciation between TMSb, Sb(III) and Sb(V) during extraction. With regards to
90 speciation analysis, High Pressure Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) with a strong anion exchange column,
91 such as the Hamilton PRP-X100, is usually preferred although Dionex AS4A, Phenomenex SAX-SB and the
92 ICsep ION-120 have also been used in a few studies^[24]. Generally, Inductively-Coupled Plasma Mass
93 Spectrometry (ICP-MS) is the detector of choice although HPLC can be easily coupled to an Atomic
94 Fluorescence Spectrometer (AFS). In both cases, these couplings can be used in conjunction with hydride
95 generation (HG) to improve sensitivity^[24]. The successful separation by HPLC-ICP-MS of Sb(III), Sb(V) and
96 TMSb has already been achieved using different mobile phases as eluents^[21,25-27]. However, most studies
97 used gradient elution which is not ideal, since gradients can modify HG efficiency as well as excitation in
98 the AFS and plasma conditions, leading to sub-optimal quantification. Usually, isocratic elution is
99 preferred, as it is the case for As analysis^[28,29].

100 To the best of our knowledge, there are no published methods that combine a highly efficient Sb
101 extraction method of plant tissues with a quantitative HPLC-ICP-MS analysis. Furthermore, no study has
102 thoroughly investigated the issues that arise when TMSb is extracted from plants and when it is
103 analysed by HPLC-ICP-MS. Therefore, in this study, we introduced a new method that allows for
104 quantitative TMSb extraction in plants, in both shoots and roots and we also validated this method
105 based on CRM extractions and Sb species spiking. This technique is based on a sediment extraction
106 method using oxalic acid (OA) and ascorbic acid (AA)^[30]. It is employed in conjunction with a recently
107 developed isocratic HPLC-ICP-MS method developed by Ge and Wei where the mobile phase is
108 ammonium tartrate (AT)^[31]. This newly developed procedure was then used to quantify the amount of
109 TMSb in shoots and roots of rye grass (*L. perenne*) exposed to solutions of 1 mg.L⁻¹ of Sb(III), Sb(V) and
110 TMSb.

111

112 Experimental

113 *Reagents.* Sb stock solutions were prepared from salts of potassium hexahydroxoantimonate (V)
114 (KSb(OH)₆), potassium antimony (III) tartrate hydrate (C₈H₄K₂O₁₂Sb₂ · xH₂O) and trimethylantimony (V)
115 dibromide ((CH₃)₃SbBr₂) purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Buchs, Switzerland). These compounds were
116 used to validate the HPLC-ICP-MS method as well as the extraction recoveries. The Sb standard for total

117 analysis was purchased from Roth (1000 mg.L⁻¹, Karlsruhe, Germany). Extraction solutions were
118 prepared with ascorbic acid (99.7%) and oxalic acid (99%) from Merck Millipore (pro analysi,
119 Schaffhausen, Switzerland). HPLC mobile phases were prepared using ammonium tartrate (“AT”, 99.5%,
120 Fluka, Sigma Aldrich, Buchs, Switzerland), and methanol (99.9%, Merck Millipore, Schaffhausen,
121 Switzerland). Hydrochloric acid (HCl, 35%, Supra Quality), and nitric acid (HNO₃, 69%, Supra Quality)
122 used for digestions and dilution solutions were from Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany). Water from an
123 ultrapure water system (MilliQ, Merck, Schaffhausen, Switzerland) was used throughout the study.

124 *Plant growth and Sb exposure.* The plant used for this experiment was rye grass (*L. perenne var.*
125 *calibra*) obtained from Fenaco (Bern, Switzerland). The plants were grown in a growth chamber with a
126 daily photo period of 16 h at 22 °C with a light intensity of 20000 Lux and a daily night period of 8h at
127 16°C. During the first 4 weeks, the plants were grown in a 1/5 strength Hoagland solution at pH 6 (Table
128 S1). After this, 1 mg.L⁻¹ of either Sb(III) from Sb₂O₃, Sb(V) from KSb(OH)₆ and TMSb as (CH₃)₃SbBr₂ were
129 added to the Hoagland solution for 8 days. The nutrient solutions were replaced every two days to
130 prevent speciation change and potential changes were monitored using HPLC-ICP-MS. While the Sb(V)
131 and TMSb treatment solution did not contain any other species (data not shown), the Sb(III) treatment
132 solution was found to consistently contain 6.8 ± 1.9 % Sb(V) (n=11). Plants were grown in triplicate for
133 each treatment. At harvest, plants were separated into shoot and roots, washed in ultrapure water and
134 dried at 60 °C before grinding.

135 *Digestion method.* Samples were digested using a closed-vessel microwave-assisted extraction
136 technique to prevent losses through volatilization of Sb-Cl compounds^[32]. The instrument used was an
137 Ethos contFLOW 1600 (Milestone, Shelton, USA). Briefly, 200 mg of oven-dried and ground plant
138 samples were weighed and transferred in Teflon pressure vessels. Then, 7.5 mL of HNO₃ and 2.5 mL of
139 HCl were added. The microwave program for the digestion is described in Table S2. The vessels were
140 cooled before being opened (30 min inside the microwave oven and 30 min under a fume cupboard).
141 The digests were then filtered (Grade 589/2, Whatman) and diluted 5-fold with ultrapure water. The
142 resulting solution was stored at 4°C until analysis. The Certified Reference Material (CRM) used for
143 quality control was citrus leaves (China National Analysis Center for Iron and Steel, NCS ZC73018 (GSB-
144 11)) that contained 200 ± 60 µg.kg⁻¹ Sb. For each digestion batch including 10 samples, a CRM and a
145 blank were also digested and treated in the same manner as the plant tissue samples. The limit of
146 detection for the whole digestion method (n=15 blanks, average + 3 x standard deviation) is 17.7 µg.kg⁻¹.

147 *Extraction method.* The plant samples were extracted using a newly developed method inspired
148 from Potin-Gautier *et al.* in 2005^[30]. First, 100 mg of dried and ground plant material were weighed and
149 transferred to a borosilicate glass vial (20 mL Wheaton liquid scintillation vials, Sigma Aldrich, Buchs,
150 Switzerland). Then, 10 mL of a solution of oxalic acid and ascorbic acid (OA/AA, 200mM and 100mM
151 respectively) was added to the powder and the resulting mixture was shaken vigorously for 1 minute.
152 The vials were placed in an ultrasonic bath for 30 min. After the ultrasonic bath, the extraction solution
153 was separated from the plant material using a centrifuge at 3500 rotations per minute (relative
154 centrifugal force: 6000) for 5 min and then filtered at 0.45 μm . Finally, the supernatant was diluted with
155 a solution of 150 mM AT and stored in the fridge at 4°C to prevent Sb(III) oxidation^[33].

156 *Total analysis.* The total Sb concentrations in samples was measured with an ICP-MS (7700x ICP-MS,
157 Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA). The settings for total Sb analysis by ICP-MS are presented in
158 Table S3. The internal standard (10 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ Indium, m/z 115) was injected online through a T-piece. The
159 measured mass for Sb was m/z 121. The instrumental LOD for Sb is 0.003 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, however Sb is very
160 persistent in the injection line (auto-sampler, nebulizer and spray chamber) during total analysis by ICP-
161 MS. Therefore, a strong cleaning procedure was adopted to rinse the injection line between each
162 sample using a solution of 5% HCl and 5% HNO_3 for 40 seconds, followed by two solutions of 1% HNO_3
163 for 30 seconds each. Although the carry-over was not fully eliminated, this procedure allowed us to
164 lower it to < 0.2 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ after a 100 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ solution.

165 *Speciation analysis.* Concentrations of Sb species were measured by coupling an HPLC (1200 Series,
166 Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) to the ICP-MS. The settings for HPLC-ICP-MS analysis are
167 presented in Table S3. The same internal standard was injected online through a T-piece as for the total
168 Sb analysis. The mobile phase used for separating Sb(III), Sb(V) and TMSb on the HPLC column (Hamilton
169 PRP-X100 10 μm , 4.6 x 150mm (PEEK), Reno, USA) was 150 mM of AT at pH 5 with 4% methanol. It was
170 run isocratically at a flow of 1 $\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and the column compartment temperature was set at 20°C. This
171 method was initially developed by Ge and Wei^[31]. Due to the high salt content of the mobile phase, a
172 10/32" micro-splitter (IDEX H&S, Middleboro, USA) was used to remove 50% of the HPLC flow. This
173 smaller flow was further diluted online with 1% HNO_3 solution through a T-piece prior to mixing with the
174 internal standard solution.

175

176

177 Results and discussion

178 *Speciation analysis.*

179 Firstly, the method developed by Ge and Wei^[31] was tested with our HPLC-ICP-MS system. However,
180 due to the large quantity of salts being deposited in the torch and on the sampling and skimmer Ni
181 cones, leading to a complete clogging of the torch after only 3 hours analysis, it had to be modified as
182 described in the Experimental section. The use of a micro-splitter to divert 50% of the post-column HPLC
183 flow to the waste produced a remaining flow of 0.5 mL.min⁻¹ and resulted in a chromatogram with low
184 sensitivity and high noise since the flow was too low for our nebulizer. Therefore, a T-piece was used to
185 mix a 1% HNO₃ solution with the HPLC flow, using a peristaltic pump at 0.3 RPS. The resulting
186 chromatogram (Fig. 1) showed less noise while the addition of 1% HNO₃ helped greatly to improve the
187 sensitivity with a LOD for Sb(V) of 0.1 µg.L⁻¹. The method could thus be used for 12 hours non-stop
188 without causing any blockage in the torch or in the orifices of the cones. However, 50% of the Sb is lost
189 in this process and a different mobile phase, with less salt content, might possibly allow for an even
190 better limit of detection. We nevertheless chose this method because of its high sensitivity.
191 Furthermore, we preferred an isocratic elution which allows for quantification of all the Sb species using
192 a standard consisting of a single Sb species for calibration. Because of the specific effects of different
193 eluents on the plasma conditions, gradient elution would require several calibrations in different
194 matrices complicating the analysis considerably.

195 *CRM extractions.*

196 Citrus leaves containing Sb ($200 \pm 60 \mu\text{g.kg}^{-1}$, mean \pm SD) were used as a CRM to test the microwave
197 digestion procedure as well as the extractive power of oxalic acid in ascorbic acid (OA/AA, 200 mM and
198 100 mM respectively). Fig. 2 shows that our closed vessel digestion technique, using ultrapure HNO₃ and
199 HCl as acids, was adequate to digest plant samples for total Sb analysis since the recovery was 99.4 ± 1.8
200 % (n=3). The same CRM was used for testing the extraction procedure for Sb species. The extract was
201 analyzed by ICP-MS to measure the total Sb concentration extracted and by HPLC-ICP-MS to measure
202 the column recovery. The extraction method yielded a recovery of 72.6 ± 1.3 % Sb (n=3) when measured
203 directly with ICP-MS while when analyzed for speciation it yielded a similar recovery of 71.9 ± 7.2 % Sb
204 (n=3, Fig. 2). These results demonstrate that the extraction is efficient, since a high value of more than
205 70% of the Sb present in the CRM was extracted. Although only one plant was tested, the results are
206 consistently higher than previously published recoveries of 0.6 to 57.7 % of the total Sb concentrations

207 in a range of plants from two distinct Sb mining areas using citric acid extraction^[4,23]. Furthermore, the
208 Sb species present in the extract were not lost on the HPLC column since there was no difference of the
209 recoveries between the HPLC method in which the three analyzed Sb species were separately quantified
210 and summed up and the total concentration measurement of Sb with ICP-MS. However, these results
211 alone are not enough to assess species interconversion during extraction, dilution and storage since the
212 CRM is only certified for total Sb and not for Sb species.

213 Due to a lack of CRM with certified concentrations of Sb species, blank extraction solutions, prior to
214 the extraction procedure, and extracted solutions of the CRM were spiked with $50 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of each species
215 of interest in triplicate. This technique allowed us to assess if the extraction itself was causing a
216 conversion of Sb species or if extracted plant compounds could be responsible for speciation changes.
217 ICP-MS results show that all of the Sb spiked to the extracting solution was recovered (Fig 3a). The
218 recoveries for total Sb yielded $100.2 \pm 1.1\%$, $103.2 \pm 1.1\%$ and $97.7 \pm 1.1\%$ ($n=3$) for extracting solutions
219 spiked with Sb(III), TMSb and Sb(V) respectively. Moreover, the recoveries for the Sb speciation by HPLC-
220 ICP-MS analysis (sum of species) of the same spiked extracts were $99.1 \pm 1.3\%$, $97.4 \pm 1.7\%$ and $98.8 \pm$
221 2.5% ($n=3$) for solution spiked with Sb(III), TMSb and Sb(V) respectively (Fig. 3a). This confirms that all
222 the extracted species were successfully separated with our HPLC method and that none was lost during
223 the separation or the transfer to the ICP-MS. Furthermore, the speciation analysis by HPLC-ICP-MS
224 analysis revealed that no change in speciation occurred during the extraction and analysis for the
225 samples spiked with Sb(III) and TMSb since all the chromatograms only showed one peak for the spiked
226 compounds (100%). However, our results also clearly show that Sb(V) was consistently converted to
227 Sb(III) during extraction since only $31.6 \pm 0.5\%$ ($n=3$) of the spiked Sb(V) remained in the solution after
228 extraction (Fig 3a). This example illustrates how difficult it is to preserve inorganic Sb species during an
229 extraction. To our knowledge, no studies showing preservation of inorganic Sb species during extraction
230 of plants have been previously published.

231 Our HPLC-ICP-MS results of spiked CRM extracts again confirmed that no species conversion
232 occurred for Sb(III)- and TMSb-spiked CRM extracts (Fig. 3b). Indeed, only a single peak corresponding to
233 the spiked compounds was observed in the chromatograms (100%). However, it was also found that
234 only $27.6 \pm 3.1\%$ ($n=3$) of the spiked Sb(V) remained in the solution, all the rest was converted to Sb(III).
235 In both cases (with extractant only and with plant CRM extracts), Sb(V) was reduced to Sb(III) to almost
236 the same extent. This is due to the reducing nature of the extracting solution: oxalic acid and ascorbic
237 acid. However, this phenomenon did not occur when 20 or $600 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ of Sb(V) were spiked to a CRM of a

238 marine sediment^[30]. Finally, we could also show that the plant extract had a small positive impact on
239 spiked TMSb since the recovery (sum of species / spiked amount) was $119.2 \pm 9.6\%$ (n=3) while it was
240 perfectly acceptable for Sb(III) and Sb(V) with $102.1 \pm 14.5\%$ and $99.4 \pm 5.6\%$ respectively (n=3). It is
241 very difficult to ascertain exactly why. Indeed polyatomic interference with m/z 121 is only possible with
242 $^{105}\text{Pd}^{16}\text{O}^+$ and it is unlikely that a Pd compound would co-elute with TMSb. Another possibility could be
243 that carbon-rich compounds co-elute with TMSb and increase the torch temperature and thus the
244 sensitivity^[34]. However, this would be visible on the internal standard chromatogram, too.

245 *Growth experiment*

246 Overall, our method was satisfactory for the extraction and measurement of TMSb in plant samples,
247 so we continued with a TMSb ryegrass uptake experiment. The extraction recovery (sum of species /
248 total digestion) was not the same for the rye grass roots and shoots. The shoot recovery was similar to
249 the recovery for the CRM ($63.1 \pm 12.7\%$, n=8), which is also shoot material while the root recovery was
250 much lower ($37.6 \pm 5.5\%$, n=7). Each treatment led to very distinct results in terms of concentration and
251 speciation for shoots and roots and this is reflected by the representative chromatograms shown in
252 Figure 4 while the percentage of species in shoots and roots as well as concentration are shown in
253 Figure 5.

254 First of all, we found that most of the Sb in the plants was present in the roots (Fig. 5a). This has
255 already been reported in previous studies on other plants and seems to be a common feature of non-
256 hyperaccumulator plants. Ren *et al.*^[10] reported that the highest amount of Sb, found in exposed rice,
257 was in the roots. Furthermore, our results show that Sb(III)-treated plants took up 100 times more Sb in
258 the roots than Sb(V)- or TMSb-treated plants as shown in Figure 5a and Table 1 ($1029 \pm 191.7 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$ for
259 Sb(III) vs. $9.9 \pm 1.5 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$ for Sb(V) and $9.0 \pm 2.3 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$ for TMSb). Several studies found that Sb(III)-
260 exposed rice took up more Sb than Sb(V)-exposed rice^[10,11,35]. The most likely explanation for the higher
261 uptake of Sb(III) than of Sb(V) is that Sb(III) enters microorganisms and plants through aquaglyceroporins
262 due to its similarity with glycerol^[36,37], while for Sb(V) and TMSb up to now no transporters are known^[38].
263 If the aquaglyceroporin-facilitated Sb(III) uptake was more efficient than that of Sb(V) and TMSb, it could
264 explain the difference in uptake with Sb(V) and TMSb. Of interest is the similarly low Sb concentration in
265 shoots of Sb(V)-, Sb(III)- and TMSb-treated plants of 1.1 ± 0.7 , 1.0 ± 0.4 and $0.8 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$,
266 respectively (Tab. 1), while in white clover, another common pasture plant 770 mg.kg^{-1} Sb was found in
267 shoots of plants treated with Sb(V)^[9]. We interpret this difference as an indication of the presence of

268 PCs, which immobilized the Sb in the vacuole of rye grass roots while the white clover does not produce
269 PCs allowing for a more pronounced transfer of Sb from root to shoot.

270 In roots and shoots of the Sb(III)-treated plants, Sb (III) contributed 45.0 ± 4.2 and 25.8 ± 32.9 % to
271 the respective total Sb concentrations in plant tissue (Fig. 5b&c, Tab. 1). The rest of the Sb mostly
272 consisted of Sb(V), except in the roots where a contribution of 0.4 ± 0.1 % of TMSb (n=3) to the total Sb
273 was measured. These results are in line with previous studies showing that rice plants exposed to Sb(III)
274 contained mostly Sb(V)^[10]. Unfortunately, although not detected by our analysis, the presence of a small
275 amount of TMSb in the nutrient solution could not be completely excluded; therefore we cannot be sure
276 that TMSb was formed in the roots. Moreover, we showed that Sb(III) was consistently stable during the
277 extraction, while Sb(V) was reduced to Sb(III) (Fig. 3). Therefore, Sb(V) was really present in the roots
278 and shoots of the exposed plants and was not an artifact due to the extraction procedure. However, its
279 presence could be attributable to the oxidation of Sb(III) to Sb(V) during the processing of the plant prior
280 to the extraction. Furthermore, since the nutrient solution contained a small amount of Sb(V) (6.8 ± 1.9
281 % of the total Sb in solution, n = 11) it cannot be excluded that some of it entered the plant, although it
282 is unlikely that all the plant Sb(V) results from the nutrient solution, since the percentage of Sb(V)
283 present in the plants is much higher than in the solution.

284 In the Sb(V) treatment, only 59.8 ± 2.1 % (n=3) of the Sb in the roots was found to be Sb(V) while the
285 rest was Sb(III) as shown in Figure 5c. It is not possible in this case to assess whether Sb(III) was indeed
286 present in the plant or simply a result of the extraction procedure (due to the conversion of Sb(V) to
287 Sb(III) mentioned previously) although the nutrient solution contained exclusively Sb(V). Interestingly,
288 no Sb(III) could be found in the shoots (Fig. 5b). The latter result suggested that rye grass shoot extracts
289 stabilized the Sb(V) and prevented its reduction by the extraction solution. Furthermore, and most
290 importantly, TMSb was found in small quantities in the shoots of the Sb(V) treated plants but not in the
291 roots, suggesting *in planta* methylation of Sb by rye grass or a fast transport of TMSb from roots to
292 shoots, where TMSb accumulates to a detectable concentration. This interesting result is novel and does
293 not parallel recent studies on plant methylation of As. Indeed, it was found that plants do not have the
294 capacity to methylate As directly but rather take up methylated As from the soil by roots and transport
295 it to the shoots^[39].

296 Remarkably, the roots of the plants exposed to 1 mg.L^{-1} of TMSb contained a TMSb contribution of
297 75.8 ± 20.4 % of the extracted Sb while the rest was exclusively Sb(V) (Fig. 5c). Since no Sb(V) or Sb(III)
298 could be found in the nutrient solutions, this suggests that demethylation occurs in the roots or at their

299 interface with the nutrient solution since we also showed that no conversion of TMSb occurred during
300 the extraction procedure (Fig. 3). This new result shows that plants could be equipped with specific
301 mechanisms to demethylate TMSb. Furthermore, our extraction did not lead to the reduction of Sb(V) to
302 Sb(III) as shown in the extract spiking experiment (Fig. 3). In the shoots, the results were consistent
303 between plants and a similar contribution of TMSb ($76.4 \pm 0.1 \%$, $n=3$) to the amount of extracted Sb
304 was found while Sb(V) represented only $15.4 \pm 0.5 \%$, $n=3$ (Fig. 5b). An unknown species was also found
305 in the shoots and made up $8.2 \pm 0.5 \%$ ($n=3$, $0.05 \pm 0.005 \text{ mg.kg}^{-1}$) of the extracted Sb. This unknown
306 peak could be DMSb or MMSb or maybe an organo-Sb compound formed from TMSb. It is unlikely that
307 this compound is formed from Sb(V) since no such compound was found in Sb(V) or Sb(III) treated
308 plants. It is unfortunately impossible to identify the compound since MMSb and DMSb standards are not
309 commercially available. Ideally, a molecular mass spectrometer (e.g. electrospray ionization MS: ESI-MS)
310 could be used to identify the structure of such compounds. However, the mobile phase used in this
311 study is not compatible with ESI-MS and the concentration in the extract would be too low to achieve a
312 successful identification.

313 *Conclusions*

314 An efficient extraction method coupled with a quantitative HPLC-ICP-MS method used in our study
315 showed that TMSb could be taken up and transported to the shoots of rye grass as well as possibly being
316 formed in the plant. Although previous studies showed the presence of TMSb in plants using other
317 extractions methods^[8,23,24,31], this is the first study to provide a sufficient level of quality control to
318 ensure that TMSb is not formed during the extraction or analysis of these samples. Also, it is the first
319 time that TMSb uptake and transfer is demonstrated under controlled conditions. Unfortunately, the
320 method does not allow to completely discriminate between Sb(III) and Sb(V) because of the artificial
321 reduction of Sb(V) to Sb(III) during extraction. However, to our knowledge, there is up to now no
322 published plant extraction method that avoids the inter-conversion of Sb species. Nonetheless, we are
323 convinced that our proposed method will be useful in studies of the fate of TMSb in the soil-plant
324 system which need to be conducted to allow for a safe use of Sb-contaminated sites such as mining
325 areas and shooting ranges.

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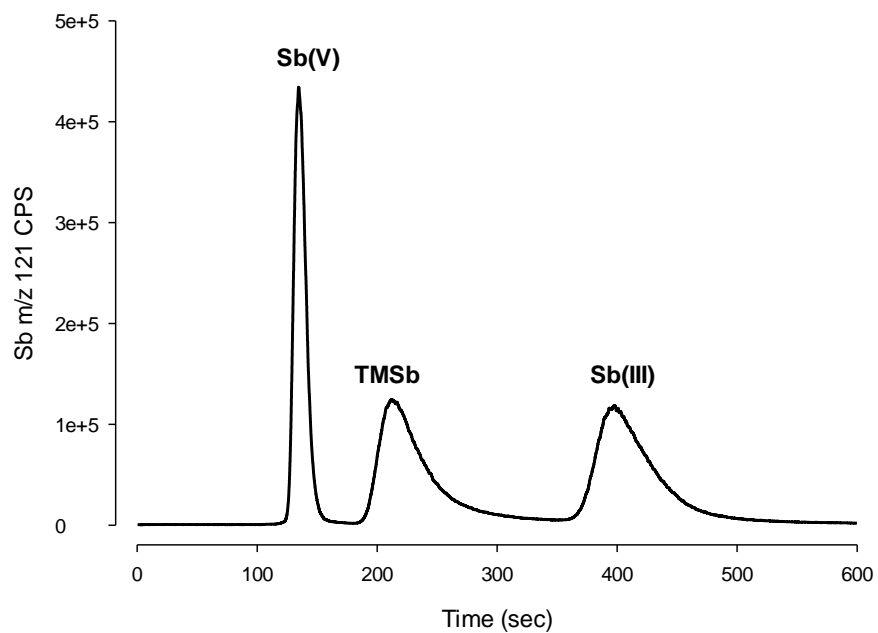
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472 Figures:



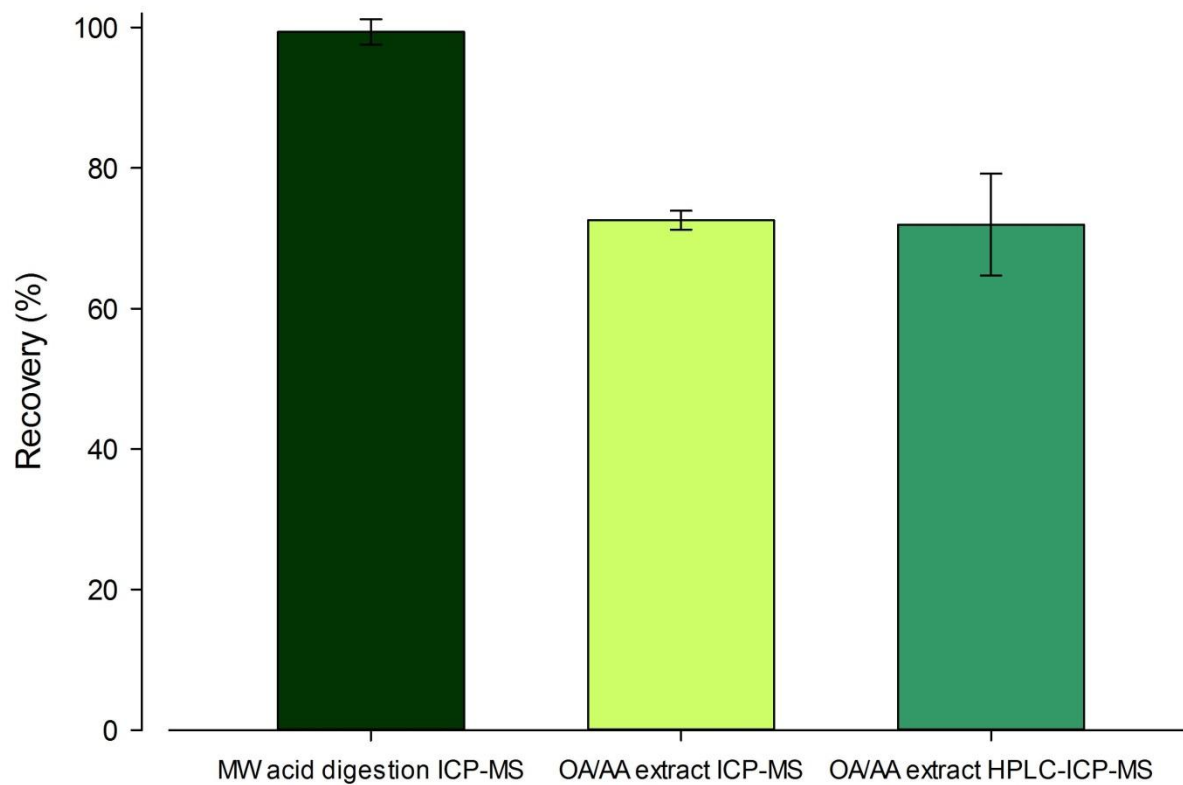
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474 Figure 1: HPLC-ICP-MS chromatogram of a mixture of three Sb species in deionized water ($200 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$).

475 The analysis was performed with isocratic elution using 200 mM ammonium tartrate buffer at pH 5 with
476 4% methanol ($1 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$).

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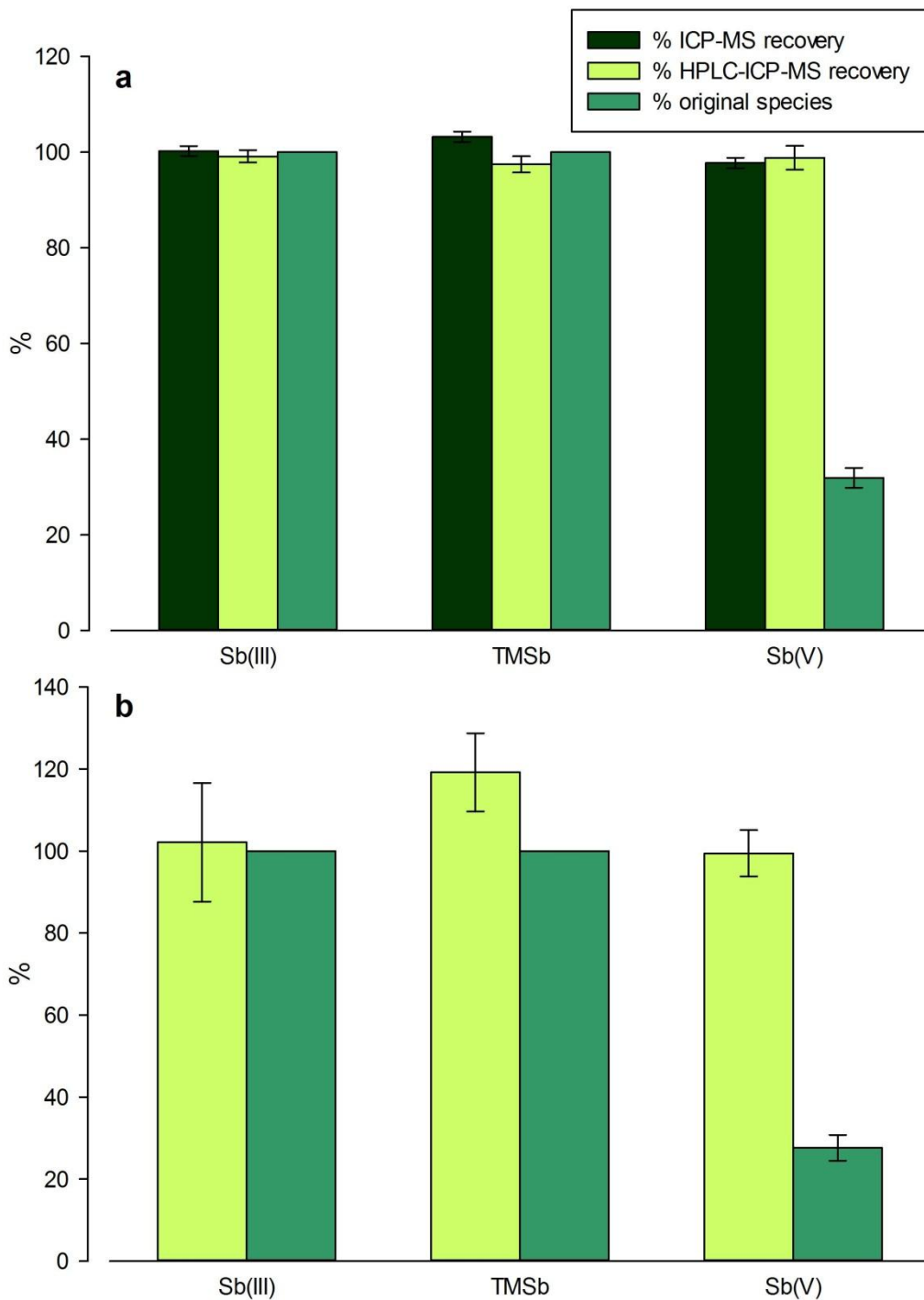


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480 Figure 2: Recovery of Sb from the Certified Reference Material (CRM) "Citrus Leaves" when digested by
 481 microwave, extracted with oxalic acid and ascorbic acid (OA/AA) and analyzed by ICP-MS and by HPLC-
 482 ICP-MS (sum of species). The recovery is calculated from the CRM value of $200 \pm 60 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ (mean \pm SD,
 483 $n=3$).

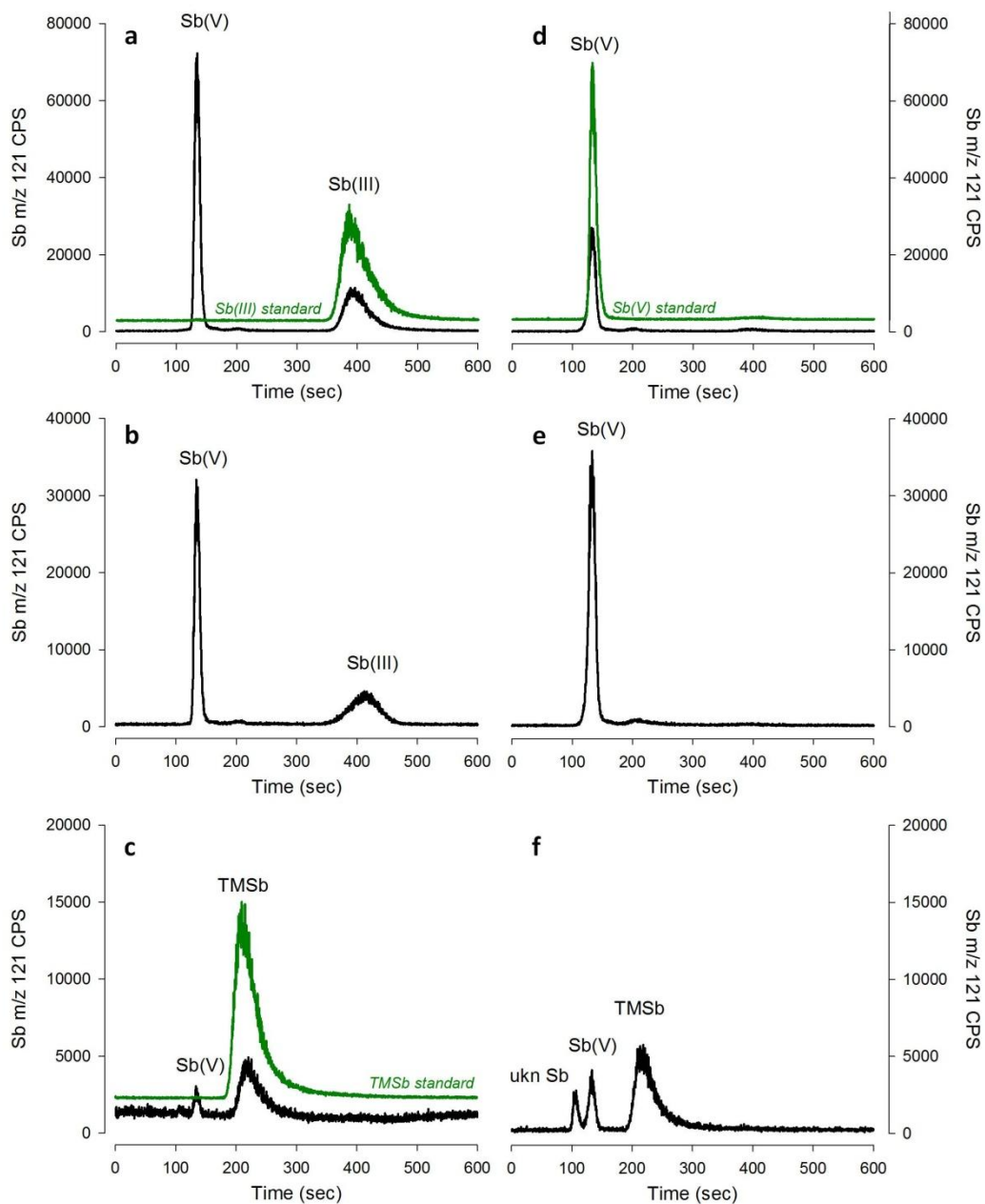
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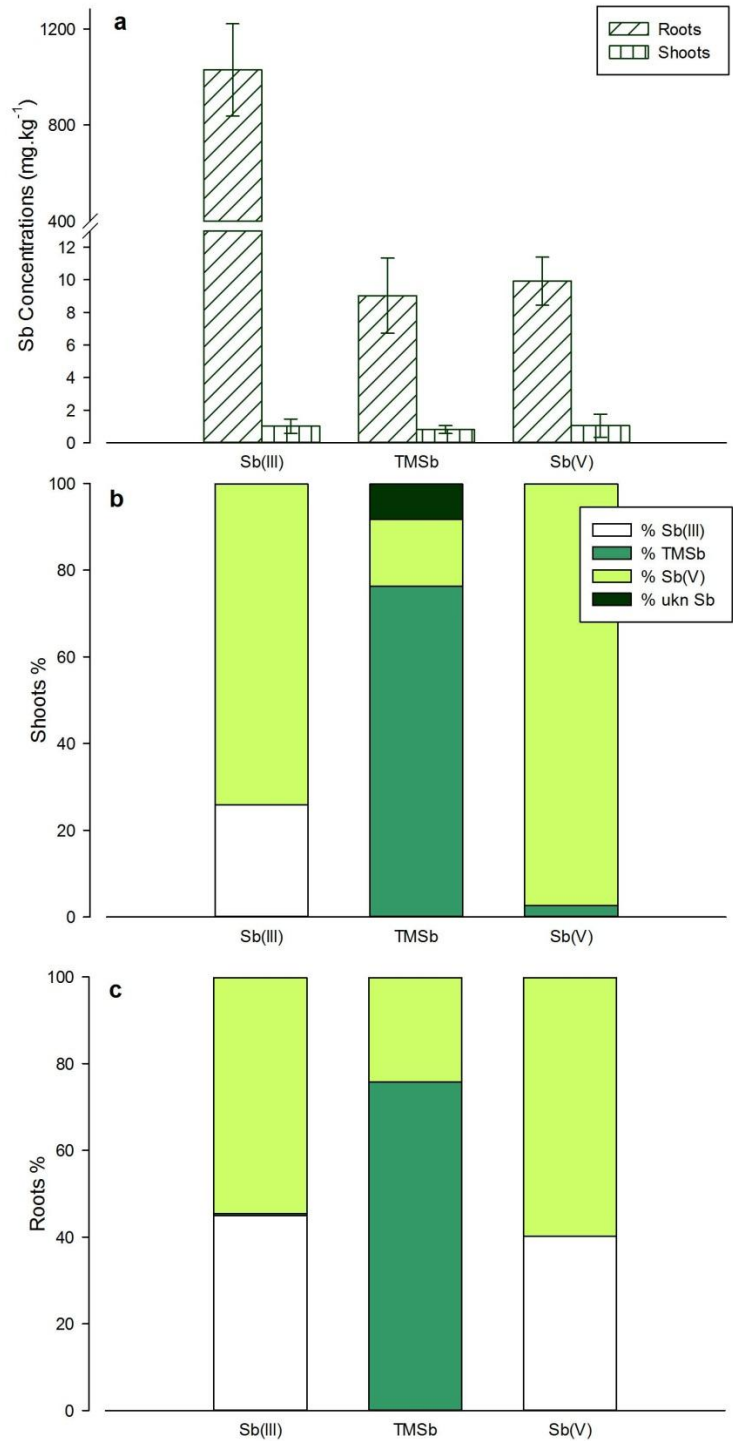
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487 Figure 3: a) Recovery and speciation change for Sb(V), TMSb and Sb(III) spiked in a blank extracting
 488 solution ($50 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$), extracted and measured by ICP-MS and HPLC-ICP-MS (mean \pm SD, n=3) b) Recovery
 489 and speciation change for Sb(V), TMSb and Sb(III) spiked in a solution of already extracted CRM Citrus
 490 Leaves ($50 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$) and measured by HPLC-ICP-MS (mean \pm SD, n=3)



491

492 Figure 4: HPLC-ICP-MS chromatograms of extracts of shoots and roots for each treatment. a) Sb species
 493 present in roots of plants exposed to Sb(III), b) Sb species present in roots of plants exposed to Sb(V), c)
 494 Sb species present in roots of plants exposed to TMSb, d) Sb species present in shoots of plants exposed
 495 to Sb(III), e) Sb species present in shoots of plants exposed to Sb(V), f) Sb species present in shoots of
 496 plants exposed to TMSb. Chromatograms of Sb(III), TMSb and Sb(V) standards have been overlaid in
 497 graphs a, c and d respectively. The Sb concentrations in all treatments was 1 mg.L⁻¹



498

499 Figure 5: a) Concentration of Sb in shoots and roots of rye grass (*L. perenne*) measured by ICP-MS for

500 each treatment (mean \pm SD, n=2, except for Sb(V) treatment: n=3). Percentage of the different Sb

501 species extracted from b) shoots and c) roots of rye grass (*L. perenne*) exposed to 1 mg.L⁻¹ of Sb(III),

502 TMSb or Sb(V) (n=3).

503 Table:

504 **Table 1: Concentrations of the different Sb species in shoots and roots of rye grass for each treatment (mg.kg⁻¹, mean ± SD,**
505 **n=3) compared with total concentrations obtained by acid digestion (mean ± SD, n=2, except for Sb(V) treatment: n=3)**

	Treatment	Ukn Sb	Sb(V)	Sb(III)	TMSb	Sum	Total (ICP-MS)
Shoots	Sb(V)		0.72 ± 0.41	<LOD	0.02 ± 0.01	0.74 ± 0.42	1.05 ± 0.71
	Sb(III)		0.46 ± 0.26	0.17 ± 0.22	<LOD	0.64 ± 0.19	1.01 ± 0.44
	TMSb	0.05 ± 0.005	0.09 ± 0.01	<LOD	0.44 ± 0.04	0.58 ± 0.06	0.81 ± 0.24
Roots	Sb(V)		3.1 ± 0.5	2.1 ± 0.2	<LOD	5.1 ± 0.7	9.91 ± 1.48
	Sb(III)		261 ± 118	224 ± 123	2.3 ± 1.4	488 ± 242	1029 ± 192
	TMSb	<LOD	0.7 ± 0.8	<LOD	1.6 ± 0.2	2.7 ± 1.6	9.02 ± 2.31

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