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PII: S0377-0273(19)30417-2

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvolgeores.2019.106756

Reference: VOLGEO 106756

To appear in: Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research

Received date: 26 July 2019

Revised date: 13 December 2019

Accepted date: 15 December 2019

Please cite this article as: C. Stewart, D.E. Damby, I. Tomašek, et al., Assessment of leachable elements in volcanic ashfall: A review and evaluation of a standardized protocol for ash hazard characterization, *Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research*(2018), https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvolgeores.2019.106756

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Assessment of leachable elements in volcanic ashfall: a review and evaluation of a standardized protocol for ash hazard characterization

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Abstract

Volcanic ash presents a widespread and common hazard during and after eruptions. Complex interactions between solid ash surfaces and volcanic gases lead to the formation of soluble salts that may be mobilized in aqueous environments. A variety of stakeholders may be concerned about the effects of ash on human and animal health, drinking water supplies, crops, soils and surface runoff. As part of the immediate emergency response, rapid dissemination of information regarding potentially hazardous concentrations of soluble species is critical. However, substantial variability in the methods used to characterize leachable elements makes it challenging to compare datasets and eruption impacts. To the International Volcanic Health address these challenges, Hazard (www.ivhhn.org) organized a two-day workshop to define appropriate methods for hazard assessment. The outcome of this workshop was a 'consensus protocol' for analysis of volcanic ash samples for rapid assessment of hazards from leachable elements, which was subsequently ratified by leading volcanological organizations. The purpose of this protocol is to recommend clear, standard and reliable methods applicable to a range of purposes during eruption response, such as assessing impacts on drinking-water supplies and ingestion hazards to livestock, and also applicable to research purposes. Where possible, it is intended that the methods make use of commonly available equipment and require little training. To evaluate method transferability, an interlaboratory comparison exercise was organized among six laboratories worldwide. Each laboratory received a split of pristine ash, and independently analyzed it according to the protocol for a wide range of elements. Collated results indicate good repeatability and reproducibility for most elements, thus indicating that the development of this protocol is a useful step towards providing standardized and reliable methods for ash hazard characterization. In this article, we review recent ash leachate studies, report the outcomes of the comparison exercise and present a revised and updated protocol based on the experiences and recommendations of the exercise participants. The adoption of standardized methods will improve and facilitate the comparability of results among studies and enable the ongoing development of a global database of leachate information relevant for informing volcanic health hazards assessment.

Keywords: volcanic ashfall, leachable elements, hazard assessment, standardized protocol, interlaboratory comparison

1. Introduction

Volcanic ash is produced by all explosive volcanic eruptions representing a frequent and often widespread volcanic hazard. During and following an eruption, there are often major concerns from the public, civil authorities and agricultural producers about the effects of volcanic ash on human and animal health, drinking water supplies, crops, soils and surface waters (Stewart et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2012; Stewart et al., 2018b). Freshly erupted ash contains a range of soluble elements, which may be released at different rates upon contact with water or body fluids. This can cause both beneficial effects (such as the addition of plant growth nutrients to pastoral systems) and harmful effects (such as fluorine toxicity to livestock). There is, thus, a need for standard and reliable methods for the rapid assessment of readily soluble elements as part of the immediate emergency response.

Leaching is the primary method used to quantify species adsorbed onto the surface of ash grains. Witham et al. (2005) reviewed ash leachate studies and identified a lack of consistency in analytical methods used in previous studies. These authors, who noted that the use of different leachate analysis techniques was hindering comparisons among datasets, suggested that a common leachate methodology would be beneficial, and proposed values for the important parameters of contact time, leachant and ash:leachant ratio.

In June 2011, the International Volcanic Health Hazard Network (www.ivhhn.org) convened an expert workshop at Durham University, U.K., which drew upon the collective experience of the participants to create a 'consensus protocol', published on the IVHHN website as Stewart et al. (2013). This protocol built on the methods proposed by Witham et al. (2005), and extended them to a set of recommended practices for sample collection, storage, preparation and leaching, so as to promote acquisition of high-quality leachate compositions that may readily be compared. A further goal was to enable the ongoing development of a global database of leachate information relevant for informing volcanic health hazard assessment. The protocol was subsequently ratified in early 2013 by leading volcanological organizations: IAVCEI, the Cities and Volcanoes Commission, GNS Science and the U.S. Geological Survey.

However, a review of the recent (post-2005) ash leachate literature, carried out as part of the current study (Section 2.2), has shown that there has been little progress towards the adoption of standardized methods either from Witham et al. (2005) or Stewart et al. (2013). The lack of standardized methods can be a particular problem for agencies involved in eruption response as they may be unaware of suitable and reliable methods, or appropriate

parameters to determine (Table 1). As an example, the June 2011 eruption of Cordón Caulle volcano, Chile, dispersed ash over ~350,000 km² of productive agricultural land, mainly in Argentina (Collini et al., 2012). Initial, in-country analysis of leachable elements in the fresh ash was performed using a standard method for analyzing borosilicate glass (ASTM Method C 169-92 Chemical Analysis of Soda-Lime and Borosilicate Glass Volume 15.02), which yielded a result of 0.7 mg F/kg dry weight ash (Hufner and Osuna, 2011) in a single sample collected ~100 km from the vent. This method varies substantially from the IVHHN protocol method, and appears to have greatly underestimated the hazard from water-extractable fluoride, as a later study (Stewart et al. 2016) reported water-extractable fluoride concentrations in fresh ash of 27 mg/kg and 167 mg/kg at comparable distances, although differing orientations, from the vent (with a range of 12-167 mg/kg F across the whole deposit). Of particular note is that several subsequent studies found F intoxication in wild deer and some livestock populations in the depositional area of the Cordón Caulle eruption, with ash ingestion asserted to be the source (Flueck, 2013, 2014; Flueck and Smith-Flueck, 2013a, 2013b). Stewart et al. (2016) noted that the situation "provided a useful lesson highlighting the need for accessible, reliable and appropriate guidance on ash analysis to enable a rapid assessment of ash toxicity hazard". A further lesson noted by Stewart et al. (2016) was the need for statistically representative field sampling of ash deposits (i.e., accounting for geographical, lithological and stratigraphic variability).

More broadly, the adoption of standardized methods will improve and facilitate the comparability of leachate analyses performed for other purposes, such as assessing the potential of ash leachates as proxies for plume chemistry and/or as monitoring tools for volcanic activity (e.g., Edmonds et al., 2003). Ayris et al. (2015) carried out a retrospective analysis of published leachate analyses from the 18 May 1980 eruption of Mt St Helens volcano, Washington, USA, to investigate gas-tephra interaction mechanisms. They noted that the use of differing leaching protocols rendered the majority of the data non-comparable and reiterated their support for adoption of standardized methods. They further noted that small leachate datasets can fail to capture the complexity of large ash deposits, and urged that spatially-representative sampling of the entire deposit be undertaken as far as possible.

The primary aim of this study was to evaluate the IVHHN leachate protocol by conducting an interlaboratory comparison exercise. Widespread adoption of a standardized protocol is contingent upon reproducibility of data amongst users and laboratories. Therefore, an interlaboratory comparison exercise was organized among six independent laboratories involved in volcanic ash leachate analyses in recent years. This manuscript reports the

outcomes of the exercise and provides recommendations based on the experiences of the participants. Standardised ash leaching methods should be used in association with other tests to assess ash hazards; for example, a protocol for assessing the respiratory health hazard of volcanic ash is available on the website of the IVHHN (https://www.ivhhn.org/images/pdf/ash_analysis_protocol_2010.pdf)_and incorporates the leachate methods recommended here.

In support of the primary aim, we also summarise recent (post-2005, following Witham et al. 2005) ash leachate literature, and describe the development and ratification of the IVHHN consensus leachate protocol.

2. Review of volcanic ash leachate literature since 2005

As described in the Introduction, leaching is the primary method used to quantify species adsorbed onto the surface of ash particles. In 2005, Witham et al. published a review of over 55 ash leachate studies. These authors evaluated applications of ash leachate data to plume gas geochemistry, calculation of volatile budgets and environmental impact assessment. Importantly, the authors noted that comparisons among different eruptions and volcanoes have been hampered by differences in methods among studies, and proposed a standardized methodology to facilitate such comparisons.

Since the landmark 2005 review, a further 56 (at time of writing) studies utilizing or referring to ash leachate methods have been published, both for hazard assessment and research purposes, and the call for standardization echoed (Gislason et al., 2011; Ruggieri et al., 2012). They are summarized in Table 2. We review these studies with respect to their purpose and methodologies. The review is intended as an overview of the wide range in leaching parameters used (summarized in Figure 1), and to assess the uptake of the standardized methodology proposed by Witham et al. (2005).

2.1. Purpose of ash leachate analyses

2.1.1. Assessing impacts to the environment, human health and/or agriculture

Some two-thirds of studies published since 2005 (38 of 56) are primarily concerned with assessing environmental, human health and/or agricultural impacts of the release of soluble elements from ashfall (Table 2). Eight of these studies are concerned with the fertilizing potential of volcanic ash in ocean surface water via the supply of trace nutrients such as iron (Fe), as a Fe deficiency limits phytoplankton growth in over 30% of the world's oceans (Maters et al., 2017; Achterberg et al., 2013; Olgun et al., 2013; Hoffman et al., 2012;

Censi et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010; Jones and Gislason, 2008; Duggen et al., 2007). Just one study (Frogner et al., 2001) cited by the Witham et al. (2005) review was concerned with this topic. Interest in Fe sources to the ocean has increased in recent years, as marine primary productivity affects atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and thus contributes to global climate regulation (e.g., Duggen et al., 2010; Tremblay et al., 2015).

Several studies have demonstrated that pristine ash (freshly erupted samples that have not been rained on or deposited into water) rapidly releases Fe and other nutrients on contact with seawater, and have further demonstrated enhanced growth of common phytoplankton species in bio-incubation experiments using ash-dosed seawater (e.g., Duggen et al., 2007; Melançon et al., 2014). These observations are supported by ship-based sampling of ocean surface waters and remote sensing observations that identify marine phytoplankton blooms in response to specific ashfall deposition events (e.g., Hamme et al., 2010; Langmann et al., 2010). Hoffmann et al. (2012) noted that release of trace metals from ash into seawater may have both fertilizing and toxic effects on plankton species, and suggested that ash fallout may therefore change phytoplankton species assemblages.

A further two studies (Olsson et al., 2013; D'Addabbo et al., 2015) considered the fertilizing and toxic potential of volcanic ash deposition into freshwaters. Both studies reported that the ash leachates studied were only mildly toxic to aquatic biota. It is probable that the major consequences of ashfall for aquatic ecosystems are from physical impacts of suspended ash such as increased turbidity and habitat smothering (e.g., Lallement et al., 2016; Witt et al., 2017). Ayris and Delmelle (2012) provide a comprehensive review of physical, chemical and biological effects of ashfall on receiving environments.

Seven studies considered the consequences of ashfall for agroecosystems in Indonesia (Anda and Sarwani, 2012; Anda et al., 2015; Fiantis et al., 2010; 2011; Stewart et al., 2014), Argentina (Stewart et al., 2016) and New Zealand (Cronin et al., 2014). The studies of Indonesian volcanoes were concerned primarily with the impacts of the ashfall on soil fertility, whereas the studies of eruptions in Argentina and New Zealand were particularly concerned with characterizing the fluoride hazard to grazing livestock from ash ingestion. A study by Damby et al. (2018) on ash leachate composition from the 2018 eruption of Kīlauea volcano, Hawaii, also analyzed surface water and rainwater chemistry. The purpose of this work was to aid local health, environmental and agricultural agencies in assessing ashfall hazards.

A further six studies (Bia et al., 2019; Cabré et al., 2016; Canion and Landsberger, 2013; Ruggieri et al., 2012a; 2011; 2010) considered the contribution of the release of soluble

elements from ashfalls to regional geochemical fluxes, from both modern and ancient eruptions. All of these studies report that ashfalls can be substantial sources of elements to the environment, and can contribute both macro- and micronutrients, such as Ca, Fe, S and P, and potentially toxic elements such as fluorine. Ruggieri et al. (2012a) further note that the soluble 'cargo' appears to be lower in higher-silica ash, such as the rhyolitic ashfall from the 2008 Chaitén eruption, compared to lower-silica ash. This observation was borne out by a study of fluorine surface speciation in fresh ashfall from five recent South Andean eruptions (Bia et al., 2019) where the highest rates of release of F were found for the basaltic trachyandesite (55.6% SiO₂) ash from the 2016 Copahue eruption, and, conversely, the lowest rates for the rhyolitic (72.5% SiO₂) 2008 Chaitén ashfall.

Three studies have utilized leaching methods as part of a suite of human health-relevant analyses of ash from recent eruptions (Damby et al., 2013; Horwell et al., 2013 and Le Blond et al., 2010). These toxicological profiling methods are described in the IVHHN respiratory health hazard assessment analysis protocol available at http://www.ivhhn.org. A further study (Monick et al., 2013) leached Eyjafjallajökull (2010) ash as part of an investigation into the reported association between inhalation of airborne ash and respiratory infections. A recent study by Tomašek et al. (2019) assessed the potential for in-plume interactions between SO₂ and ash to influence the respiratory toxicity of ash, using *in vitro* toxicity assessment of ash leachates.

Finally, Bosshard-Stadlin et al. (2017) noted that few volcanic ash leachate studies have been conducted on volcanoes in Africa. Oldoinyo Lengai volcano, Tanzania, has the distinction of being the world's only currently active carbonatite volcano. However, the mildly explosive to effusive activity associated with carbonatite eruptions is punctuated by more explosive eruptions that erupt mixed carbonatite-silicate ash (Bosshard-Stadlin et al., 2014). Bosshard-Stadlin et al. (2017) reported that tephra from the most recent explosive eruption had surface coatings containing highly-soluble villiaumite (NaF), and suggested that this ashfall would cause toxicity hazards in shallow, open water supplies. Other elements that were notably elevated in ash leachates were As and Mo. Rango et al. (2010a,b) note the presence of a high F geochemical anomaly, also associated with high concentrations of As, U, Mo and B, in springs and groundwaters of the Main Ethiopian Rift (MER). These authors carried out an extended-duration leaching trial of both MER rhyolites and their weathered and reworked sediments, and concluded that local sediments are the main reservoir and source of F, As, Mo, U and V (Rango et al., 2010a).

2.1.2. Ash leachate compositions as proxies for plume chemistry

Nine ash leachate studies since 2005 have a primary volcanological purpose, including evaluating the potential of ash leachates as proxies for plume chemistry and/or as monitoring tools for volcanic activity (Marumoto et al., 2017; Primulyana et al., 2017; Miyagi et al., 2013; Bagnato et al., 2011, 2013; Armienta et al., 2010), calculating volatile budgets (de Moor et al., 2005, 2010) or investigating the formation or sources of ash surface coatings (Gutierrez et al., 2016; Ayris et al., 2014).

The use of ash leachate compositions to monitor volcanic activity may be specific to individual volcanoes and not readily generalized. For instance, at Popocatépetl volcano, Mexico, which poses hazards to over 20 million people, Armienta et al. (2010) observed that increases of the proportion of F in ash leachates, relative to S and Cl, preceded the growth of new lava domes (followed by destructive explosions). These authors further noted that S/Cl ratios (high values of which in some studies have been associated with degassing of incoming magma prior to large-scale explosive activity) were, in the case of Popocatépetl, complicated by the inclusion of hydrothermally-altered material, and that the use of S isotopes was necessary to distinguish magmatic from hydrothermally-generated S.

For Stromboli volcano, Italy, Bagnato et al. (2011) analyzed ash samples collected throughout the 2004-2009 eruptive activity. These authors concluded that, while ash leachate compositions are related to volcanic activity in a 'highly complex and non-linear manner', they nevertheless reflect (with increased S/F ratios) changed degassing regimes preceding large explosive events. The same authors (Bagnato et al., 2013) also studied ash leachate compositions for the 2010 Eyjafjallajökull, Iceland, eruption, using distance at which ash samples were collected as a proxy for residence time in the plume. Major ion abundances generally increased, and molar ratios of S/F and Cl/F decreased, with increasing distance, which was argued by the authors to indicate faster processing of F in the plume. However, Delmelle et al. (2014) disputed the decrease with distance of the S/F and Cl/F ratios on the basis that the relationships shown were unduly influenced by the inclusion of the most proximal sample, and noted that the correlation disappeared when this point was removed. They further disputed the formation rates derived for sulfur and halogen-bearing salts (Bagnato et al., 2013). Bagnato et al. (2014) responded by presenting data for different phases of the eruption, divided into groups with similar surface areas, showing more rapid rates of increase of F with increasing distance compared to S or Cl. The response also noted that the high reactivity of HFg is already well-established (e.g., Oskarsson, 1980).

2.1.3. Other purposes (methodological, reviews, retrospective analyses)

Since 2005, eight studies (Table 2) have had other purposes such as comparing methods (Stewart and Leonard, 2018a); proposing new or modified methods (Ruggieri et al., 2012b; Gislason et al., 2011; and Hageman, 2007), reviewing ash leachate studies (Ayris and Delmelle, 2012; Stewart et al., 2006), carrying out retrospective analyses of published data (Ayris et al., 2015) or including leachate data as a supplement to a study with a different purpose (Borisova et al., 2013). Most are discussed elsewhere in this article so are not revisited here.

2.2. Comparison of leachate methodologies

The composition of an ash leachate will reflect the concentration of adsorbed species, but will also be operationally defined (i.e., the results depend on the method used to obtain them). A common issue identified in the literature (Witham et al., 2005; Ayris et al., 2015), and reiterated here, is that comparability of leachate data has been hindered due to methodological differences. This has been the case even for studies of the same eruption (Ayris et al., 2015).

Considering the 52 studies in Table 2 that directly utilize leaching methods to generate data, parameters vary widely. The majority (45) of the studies used batch leaching methods only; five studies used column leaching only and two used both batch and column leaching. Batch leaching is a simple procedure that involves placing a given mass of solid sample in a closed container with a specific volume of a liquid leaching solution (leachant), with some form of agitation during the contact period to ensure complete contact between the sample and leachant. Column leaching experiments (where samples of ash are packed into columns, eluted with leachants such as deionized (DI) water, synthetic rainwater or seawater, and then fractions of eluent collected at different times) are more complex but can provide a more realistic simulation of environmental processes such as rainfall leaching of ash deposits.

Of the 47 studies that used batch leaching, the parameters of leachant used, contact time and ratio of solid to leachant (S/L ratio) varied substantially among studies and are discussed separately, below and summarised in Figure 1.

2.2.1. Leachant

Some three-quarters of batch ash leachate studies published since 2005 (34 of 47, Figure 1) have used a DI water leach to extract water-soluble compounds adsorbed onto ash surfaces, sometimes in combination with the use of other leachants. The use of DI water as a leachant is generally accepted to be widely relevant and applicable to purposes such as predicting compositional changes in roof catchment rainwater tanks and livestock water

supplies, runoff into surface waters and availability of nutrients such as sulfate for immediate uptake by crops.

Four studies have used dilute mineral acid leaches as supplements to DI water leaches to provide more realistic estimates of ash ingestion hazards, usually for livestock (Stewart et al., 2016, 2014; Cronin et al., 2014; Cangemi et al., 2017). These 'simple gastric (SG)' leaches use dilute hydrochloric acid to mimic conditions in the stomach. Gastric leach tests are regularly applied to samples of contaminated soils, mine wastes and other materials to estimate the fraction of metal toxicants that will be solubilized in acidic stomach compartments and made potentially available for uptake into the circulatory system (this is termed the 'bioaccessible fraction'). Cronin et al. (2014) noted that fluoride is usually the most important toxicant to evaluate for bioaccessibility.

A further six studies have used other leachants to supplement DI water leaches. Two studies, both by Ruggieri et al. (2010, 2011), use concentrated nitric acid leachant, to assess the maximum load of potentially toxic elements that may eventually be released to the environment. Similarly, Stewart et al. (2016) determined total recoverable metals in ash from the 2011 Cordón Caulle eruption, using a modification of U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Method 200.8 (EPA, 1994). This method uses very aggressive conditions whereby ash is digested with 50% nitric acid and 20% hydrochloric acid at 95°C. We note that these strong acid leaches dissolve glass and mineral constituents rather than just solubilizing adsorbed surface salts.

Fiantis et al. (2010) used DI water among of a suite of other leachants to assess dissolution of unweathered ash deposits in a warm, humid tropical climate. These included the organic acids citric acid (C₆H₈O₇) and oxalic acid (C₂H₂O₄) which are produced as microbial metabolites or plant exudates and are common constituents of soil solutions and groundwater. Dissolution of primary minerals was found to be accelerated by the presence of both organic and inorganic (sulfuric and nitric) acids in leaching solutions.

D'Addabbo et al. (2015) assessed leaching of surface salts from ash from Popocatépetl and Etna volcanoes into both DI water and natural lake water, and found that the release of elements was variably lower in lake water than in DI water for F, K, Mg, Mn and especially B, owing to the interaction of leached species with species already dissolved in the lake water.

Four studies used seawater as a leachant to understand the fertilization or toxic potential in aqueous environments and latent consequences for aquatic organisms (Censi et al., 2010; Olgun et al., 2013, Hoffman et al., 2012 and Duggan et al., 2007). A further study by Jones

and Gislason (2008) used seawater in flow-through leaching experiments, and showed that most elements are released at comparable rates with varying leachants, but that the greatest initial concentrations occur with DI water leachant. Censi et al. (2010) adopted a longer-term outlook, leaching pre-washed ash samples with natural sea water to consider the comparatively slow release of elements from volcanic ash relative to the readily available surface species. Whilst this approach does not provide insight into the immediate release observed for fresh ash deposition in seawater (e.g., Duggen et al., 2007), it provides longer-term insight into ecosystem impacts and, indeed, was the approach used by Witt et al. (2016) to consider coral reef recovery following an eruption.

Only one study used synthetic rainwater (0.005 M CaCl₂, pH5.5; Rango et al., 2010b), intended to mimic leaching by rainfall which is naturally acidic (pH ~5.6) due to the dissolution of atmospheric CO₂ (Andrews et al., 2014). This study, however, was concerned with leaching of aged volcanic deposits and thus is not directly comparable to the immediate pulse of soluble material released from fresh (non-wetted) ashfall.

Three other studies have used leachants based on standard soil science methods (Anda et al., 2016; Anda and Sarwani, 2012 and Fiantis et al., 2011). Maters et al. (2017) used dilute sulfuric acid (pH 1) for the specific purpose of simulating conditions in the volcanic plume.

Overall, while there are benefits in using leachants such as natural seawater or surface water for greater environmental realism, we recommend that DI water leaches be included in all studies to facilitate comparability with other published data on ash leachate compositions. At present, although a handful of studies have used multiple leachants, it is not possible to quantitatively assess the impact on the incompatibility of data that results from leaching with deionized water versus synthetic rainwater, seawater or freshwater.

2.2.2. Contact time

Contact (extraction) times vary widely among studies published since 2005, ranging from five minutes (Wang et al., 2010, using USGS Field Leach Test methods as per Hageman, 2007) to two years (Fiantis et al., 2011). The most common contact time reported was one hour, although it was used in only 13 of the 47 studies. This is probably due to many of the authors of these studies being involved in the initial development of the IVHHN ash leachate protocol, which recommends a one-hour leaching time. The rationale for this recommendation is discussed further in Section 3.3.1. Apart from cases where a range of contact times was applied (e.g., Ruggieri et al., 2012b; Bia et al. 2019), only one study (Monick et al., 2013) adopted the contact time of 1.5 hours suggested in the Witham et al. (2005) review. Studies utilizing longer contact times, and/or column leaching studies, will

continue to be of interest when considering long-term impacts of the dissolution of glass or minerals of lower solubility.

2.2.3. Solid to leachant (S/L) ratio

The S/L ratio (g solid: mL leachant) used in recent ash leachate studies was also highly variable, spanning over two orders of magnitude from 1:5 to 1:1000 (Figure 1). The most commonly used ratios are 1:20 (used in six studies as the sole ratio and a further four studies in combination with a 1:100 leach) and 1:25 (used in nine studies as the sole ratio), with 1:100 and 1:10 also being frequently used. These ratios are probably adopted on the basis of previous recommendations, with ratios of 1:20 and 1:100 recommended in the 2013 IVHHN leachate protocol, and a ratio of 1:25 recommended by Witham et al. (2005). There is a tendency for research groups to entrench their methods, presumably to retain comparability in their long-term datasets (e.g., Armienta et al., 2010, 2011; Stewart et al., 2016, 2014; Cronin et al., 2014; and Ruggieri et al., 2011, 2010). Groups who wish to retain their 'legacy' parameters may wish to consider supplementing these with the use of the IVHHN-recommended parameters to facilitate inclusion into global datasets.

In summary, it is clear that, despite the recommendations of Witham et al. (2005) that standardized parameters be adopted to increase comparability among different datasets, methods used in recent, post-2005 ash leachate studies have included widely-varying parameters (Figure 1). While the majority of studies have included DI water leaches, ratios of ash to leachant and contact times have been highly variable and inconsistent across different studies.

3. Development of the IVHHN leachate protocol

3.1. Working group workshop and writing of the protocol

A two-day workshop, convened by the International Volcanic Health Hazard Network (IVHHN) and hosted at the Institute of Hazard, Risk and Resilience, Durham University, UK, was held on 14-15 June 2011, to discuss best practices for ash leachate analysis, including aspects such as sampling procedures, sample storage, subsampling, ash extraction and analytical methods, quality assurance and control measures, and reporting of results. Written submissions to the workshop were provided by experts who were unable to attend in person. The 2005 review of ash leachate studies by Witham et al. (2005), which made preliminary recommendations on standard methods for characterizing ash leachates, was used as the starting point for discussions at this workshop.

Best-practice recommendations were developed from the collective experience of the core working group, taking into account the written submissions, rather than on any attempts to carry out laboratory-based optimization of parameters. The working group later noted a study by Ruggieri et al. (2012) that endeavored to optimize leaching parameters using a laboratory-based multivariate factorial design. The evidence-based conclusions from that study were integrated into continuing working group discussions, with some conclusions being integrated directly into the protocol, such as the identification of a minimum sample mass. However, not all conclusions aligned with the experiences of working group members, particularly with respect to the important parameter of S/L ratio. The optimization in Ruggieri et al. (2012) had been based on only two different types of ash, both with low soluble-salt burdens (e.g., concentrations of dominant components S and Cl ~100 and <50 mg/kg, respectively, versus mean values from the literature of 1711 and 1189 mg/kg, respectively; Ayris and Delmelle, 2012), and the working group considered that the findings are unlikely to be appropriate for all ash types. In addition to consensus on leaching parameters, the working group considered it best practice to include recommendations for sampling, sample storage, quality assurance and control, and reporting of results, which were not addressed in Ruggieri et al. (2012).

As ash is highly variable with respect to bulk composition, particle size and morphology, and surface characteristics, the working group recognized a need for the protocol to be sufficiently flexible to be applicable to 'unknown' ash samples, and also to draw users' attention to the need for more detailed investigations beyond the outlined methods, if necessary (see Section 5.5 for discussion on re-extraction).

We also note that leaching methods may be usefully deployed in conjunction with other methods such as X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) to directly analyze surface chemical compositions (Ayris et al., 2014; Gislason et al., 2011) or solubility modelling with PHREEQC (Bia et al., 2019; Tomasek et al., 2019).

The outcome of the workshop was a draft protocol written and reviewed by the workshop participants and external contributors. Further review was provided by staff of the U.S. Geological Survey. This document was then ratified by IAVCEI, the U.S. Geological Survey, GNS Science and the Cities on Volcanoes Commission and was available for download from the IVHHN website between June 2013 and December 2019. The draft protocol has been revised as an outcome of the current study (Section 5.1).

3.2. Rationale for protocol methods

The purpose of the IVHHN protocol is to recommend clear, standard and reliable methods for the rapid assessment of hazards from leachable elements. The protocol methods and parameters were decided through expert consensus, using the collective experience and expertise of the workshop participants with support from the literature. The general intention of this protocol is that it will be used for the rapid analysis of ash in order to provide timely information to emergency managers and agencies during and following an eruption. Where possible, methods are based on commonly available equipment and are designed to require little training to use.

Three types of leaching tests were considered during protocol development: a generalpurpose water leach, a simple gastric leach to assess human and animal ingestion hazards, and a simulated lung fluid leach to assess inhalation hazards to humans.

3.2.1. Deionized water leach

Leaching with deionized (DI) water is generally accepted as reflecting the dissolution of readily water-soluble compounds adsorbed onto ash particle surfaces (Ayris et al., 2015). It is important to note that the release of elements into natural waters may differ from their release into DI water, but after considering the merits of a range of alternative leaching solutions, the working group concluded that DI water is the most appropriate solvent due to its wide availability and standard properties. This 'general purpose' water leach is applicable to situations such as predicting compositional changes in roof-fed rainwater tanks (Cronin et al., 2014) and livestock watering troughs (Wilson et al., 2009; Stewart et al., 2016; Bosshard-Stadlin et al., 2017), runoff into surface waters (Stewart et al., 2016) and nutrient or toxin availability for immediate uptake by crops (Cronin et al., 1998). It is also the most appropriate basis for comparison among different datasets, or to global maximum, mean, median and minimum values for ash leachate compositions determined from all published leachate data by Ayris and Delmelle (2012).

The rationale for recommending two complementary S/L ratios of 1:20 and 1:100 was that, at the higher S/L ratio (1:20), the leachate solution may reach saturation with poorly-soluble mineral phases such as gypsum (CaSO₄), which would lead to, in this instance, an underestimate of the readily-soluble calcium and sulfate on the non-wetted ash. At the lower 1:100 ratio, problems with detection limits may be encountered for minor elements. The use of two ratios also provides an internal comparison. These specific ratios were also chosen because they are used in other, closely-related standard methods such as USEPA Method 1312 which simulates rainfall leaching (USEPA 1994) and the U.S. Geological Survey's

Field Leach Test (Hageman 2007) which both use a 1:20 S/L ratio, and the SBRC method for bioaccessibility (see Section 3.3.2) which uses a 1:100 S/L ratio.

While rates of release of elements from ash may differ for different ash samples, there is mounting evidence from both column leaching studies (Jones and Gíslason, 2008) and batch extractions with varying contact times (D'Addabbo et al., 2015; Gíslason et al., 2011; Censi et al., 2010; Fiantis et al., 2010; Duggen et al., 2007) that most elements are rapidly released, thus supporting the use of short contact times. These studies are relatively consistent: D'Addabbo et al. (2015) report that most adsorbed elements are released within an hour; Jones and Gíslason (2008) report that 90% of adsorbed elements are released within an hour, and Bagnato et al. (2013) reported that >90% of adsorbed compounds were released within two hours. Release rates within the first 10-15 minutes are likely to be highest (Olsson et al., 2013; Duggen et al., 2007).

The workshop participants recommended a contact time of one hour, as a practical trade-off between sufficient time for release of readily-soluble elements versus the time-sensitive nature of response to volcanic crises and demands for information (Stewart et al., 2018b). Very short contact times would likely be unworkable because subsequent steps such as filtration create processing bottlenecks which could, in turn, lead to inconsistent contact times. Longer contact times (e.g., four or 16 hours) have proved to be unnecessary in studies where a range of contact times were applied, returning equivalent data to shorter duration leaches (e.g., Ruggieri et al., 2012b). Similarly, Hageman (2007) noted that mine waste samples analyzed by both the USGS Field Leach Test (which has a five-minute contact time) and USEPA Method 1312 (18±2 hour contact time) returned similar water-soluble concentrations of several major ions and trace metals.

3.2.2. Simple gastric leach

Children may deliberately or accidentally ingest ash that adheres to their hands. In general, adults are unlikely to ingest significant quantities of ash, although in heavy ash environments, both adults and children may accidentally ingest substantial quantities of inhaled ash particles that are cleared from the respiratory tract. Livestock can ingest substantial quantities of ash along with their food, with close-grazing animals such as sheep being particularly susceptible. This process has led to cases of livestock poisoning and death with even thin ashfall deposits (Cronin et al., 2003; Flueck et al., 2016 and references therein).

Gastric leach tests are regularly applied to samples of contaminated soils, mine wastes and other materials to estimate the fraction of metal toxicants that will be solubilized in acidic

stomach compartments and become available for uptake in the small intestine (e.g., Wolf et al., 2008; Plumlee et al., 2013). This is termed the bioaccessible fraction, and is usually expressed as the percentage of the total recoverable amount of a particular toxicant. Although the term 'bioaccessible' is sometimes used interchangeably with 'bioavailable', the latter term refers to the fraction of an administered dose of a toxicant that is absorbed via an exposure route, reaches the bloodstream and is transported to a site of toxicological action.

Although the amounts of metals present in most volcanic ash samples are typically well below levels that can be found in mine wastes or contaminated soils, the results of a gastric leach test applied to ash samples may provide insights into potential metal uptake pathways for various ash-exposed species with acid stomach compartments following ingestion.

Bioaccessibility test methods range from simple to complex. At the complex end, methods such as the UBM (Unified BARGE Method developed by the Bioaccessibility Research Group of Europe, BARGE 2010) involve the preparation of four different simulated digestive fluids comprised of inorganic salts, organic compounds and enzymes, followed by a 20-step extraction procedure. At the simple end, a method developed by the Solubility/Bioavailability Research Consortium (SBRC) involves shaking the sample for one hour in a solution of 0.4 M glycine acidified to pH1.5 with HCl. Advantages of the UBM are that it is physiologically-based, and good *in vitro/in vivo* correlations (for the metals Cd, Pb, Sb and As in soils) have been obtained (Denys et al., 2012). Disadvantages are that the method is complex, time-consuming, and subject to between-laboratory variability (Wragg et al., 2011). Golder Associates (2016) evaluated both the UBM and the SBRC methods against a wide range of criteria relating to appropriateness for regulatory use for contaminated land and concluded that the SBRC method is preferable. They further noted that the SBRC method has EPA approval for assessing lead in soils (USEPA, 2009).

For volcanic ash, fluoride is generally the most important toxicant to evaluate for gastric bioaccessibility (Armienta et al., 2011). Following the 1995-1996 Ruapehu, New Zealand eruptions, DI water extractions of ash did not indicate excessive quantities of water-soluble fluoride yet several thousand sheep died from fluorosis following the eruptions (Cronin et al., 2003). These authors concluded that the phreatomagmatic nature of some of the eruptions led to the formation of calcium and aluminum fluoride and phosphate adsorbed phases which are sparingly soluble in water but may be much more soluble in the digestive system of grazing animals. For the 2012 eruption of Tongariro volcano, New Zealand, Cronin et al. (2014) reported that two to three times more fluoride in ash from the 2012 eruption of

Tongariro volcano was extracted by a simple gastric leach (a leach that simulates the conditions of the stomach) compared to a water leach, and recommended the use of simple gastric leaches for a more realistic assessment of hazards of ash ingestion to grazing animals.

For the IVHHN leachate protocol, the working group concluded that a simple test method that could be consistently used by different laboratories would be most appropriate for eruption response situations. The 'simple gastric leach' is streamlined further from the SBRC method and involves extracting the sample with 0.032 M HCl (pH 1.5). Parameters of a one-hour contact time and S/L ratio of 1:100 are adopted from the SBRC method. Size fractions of <2 mm (for animal ingestion) and <250 µm (for human ingestion) are recommended because animals are thought to ingest the whole ash sample along with food whereas children are more likely to ingest finer size fractions adhering to their hands. Extraction at room temperature (typically 20 °C for a laboratory) is recommended rather than the physiologically-relevant temperature of 37 °C recommended by the SBRC method, on the grounds that typical volcano observatories would be unlikely to have the necessary equipment for this step. No leachate studies have been published at both 20 °C and 37 °C using volcanic ash to date (Table 2).

The working group acknowledged that the proposed method to assess bioaccessibility may not closely mimic human or animal ingestion and digestion processes but, rather, is a simple, rapid method intended to provide insight into the additional solubility of toxicants under acid conditions in the digestive system.

3.2.3. Simulated lung fluid leach

Simulated lung fluid (SLF) mimics the composition of the human lung lining fluid, which is the first physical interface with which inhaled materials come into contact in the airways. It is used in leachate studies to assess the *in vitro* bioaccessibility of a wide range of respirable materials (Plumlee and Morman, 2011 and references therein). There are varying formulations for SLF but, generally, it is a near-neutral (pH 7.4) solution that contains a mixture of electrolytes and organic constituents (Gamble, 1967, Moss, 1979). The solution consists of a balance of cations (Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺) and anions (HCO₃⁻, Cl⁻, HPO₄²⁻, SO₄²⁻), at concentrations representative of those measured in lung lining fluid, often with acetate (H₃C₂O₂⁻) or citrate (H₅C₆O₇³⁻) substituting for macromolecules such as proteins and lipids (Colombo et al., 2008; Midander et al., 2007; Stopford et al., 2003). Bioaccessibility relevant to pulmonary health can also be investigated using an artificial lysosomal fluid (ALF), which mimics the intracellular environment that particles encounter following phagocytosis (cell

uptake) by alveolar macrophages. ALF comprises a similar mix of physiologically-relevant constituents, but is more acidic (pH 4.5).

At the 2011 workshop, the working group proposed inclusion of a method for SLF leaching in the protocol, intended to assess the potential respiratory hazards posed by leaching of toxicants from respirable ash. The recommendation was the use of a modified Gamble's solution as the leachant (from Caboche et al., 2011, and adapted from Davies and Feddah, 2003), which includes a realistic suite of electrolytes yet is relatively simple with respect to organic constituents, together with a physiologically-relevant size fraction of < 38 µm (the smallest available mechanical sieve at the time), a contact time of 24 hours and a 1:100 S/L ratio (Stewart et al., 2013). The group noted, however, that omission of key organic compounds could potentially under- or overestimate the true bioaccessibility for potentially toxic elements.

To date, the impact of various SLF modifications on bioaccessibility for volcanic ash is poorly constrained, and testing the viability of SLF and ALF for use in the assessment of hazards from trace elements present in volcanic ash is part of ongoing work by (some of) the authors. Efforts to develop and implement an SLF protocol have faced two primary complications. First, there is no general consensus in the wider leaching community on the physiological relevance of the various assay parameters (fluid composition, extraction time, S/L ratio, temperature, agitation) and their relevance for the inhalation pathway (see review by Kastury et al. 2017). The lack of a standardized approach and of in vitro/in vivo correlations thus hinders the comparisons among the studies and limits the predictive power of methods used, respectively. The second reason is technical: measuring concentrations of elements that are commonly abundant in ash leachates (e.g., Ca, Na, Mg, Cl, S) in a SLF leach is not straightforward due to matrix effects (i.e., measurement interference caused by dissolved ions (matrix constituents) in the solution). Since these ions are already present in the SLF in high concentrations (i.e., high background values) as either components of the recipe or as impurities in the reagents used to prepare the SLF, this can cause a signal reduction or poor precision during measurement, thus causing difficulties in determining concentrations leached from the ash. Making large dilutions is necessary, thereby limiting analysis of minor elements of interest as potential toxicants (e.g., Cu, Cr, Ni, Pb and Zn).

Therefore, until further evaluation has been conducted, the IVHHN leachate protocol does not include a method for SLF leaching.

4. Evaluation of IVHHN leachate protocol using an interlaboratory comparison exercise

The working group considered that the next step in the development of this protocol as a fit-for-purpose and authoritative resource would be to evaluate the methods using an interlaboratory comparison of a bulk ash sample. This allows for repeatability and reproducibility to be assessed and, therefore, transferability of the protocol for use in other laboratories. The primary focus of this exercise was the DI water leach, but most laboratories also provided data for the gastric leach. The synthetic lung fluid leach was not included due to its complexity and unresolved technical difficulties (see Section 3.3.3).

4.1. Interlaboratory comparison exercise

An international, interlaboratory comparison was set up to determine data reproducibility across six independent laboratories. The design of the study was agreed upon by all participants. A pristine (non-wetted) bulk ash sample was split into subsamples and shipped to the participating laboratories. Each laboratory was instructed to perform a leachate analysis with three independent replicates on the sample received, following the methods described in the IVHHN leachate protocol (Stewart et al., 2013). The participants were provided with a standardized reporting form but otherwise given no additional advice or information and were asked to use their normal equipment and techniques (Table 3). As per the protocol, participants were asked to test for a broad range of elements, including plant growth nutrients, potentially toxic elements and other elements of interest for geochemical cycling. The participating institutions were: Durham University, UK; GNS Science, New Zealand; Massey University, New Zealand; Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México; UCLouvain, Belgium; and the U.S. Geological Survey, USA. Each laboratory was assigned a random laboratory code for reporting purposes.

4.2. Ash sample for analysis

A ~0.6 kg bulk sample of pristine ash from the 13-15 February 2014 VEI 4 eruption of Kelud volcano, Java, Indonesia, was collected from a flat concrete surface in the city of Yogyakarta, Indonesia (300 km from source) on 15 February 2014. It was shipped to Durham University, U.K. Once received, the sample was homogenized by gently rotating it in its bag and then divided into subsamples by manual coning and quartering, a method which Horwell (2007) showed was adequate for representative sampling of ash. Subsamples of either 50 g or

80 g (depending on the range of analyses to be attempted) were then shipped to the six participating laboratories around the world. Participants were not informed of the origin of the ash sample beforehand.

The reliability of the assessment and the performance of each laboratory is dependent upon the stability and homogeneity of the sample used. Though volcanic ash is inherently inhomogeneous, we assume that the sample mixing and splitting methods and the mass of material used per analysis are sufficient to overcome heterogeneities in the sample (see Figure 3 in Horwell, 2007). The variability associated with sample inhomogeneity is likely to be approximately 2% (IAEA, 2016) although we note that the preparation of certified reference materials by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) involves a more extensive homogenization procedure than was the case in our study.

4.3. Extraction and measurement equipment

All laboratories used existing in-house equipment for extraction and analysis of leachates. No two laboratories used identical materials and extraction equipment (Table 3). Anion concentrations were predominantly determined by ion chromatography (IC), with some laboratories opting for use of ion selective electrodes (ISE) or other methods such as colorimetry (Table 4). Cations were analyzed by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES), inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), flame, graphite furnace or hydride generation atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) and ultraviolet—visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) (Table 4).

4.4. Data evaluation

The aim of this exercise was to determine the 'reproducibility' of the test method. That is, the degree of agreement among results from experiments carried out by different individuals, at different laboratories, with different equipment and consumables, and where only the sample and test parameters are assumed to be identical. This serves to verify that the protocol can be successfully reproduced in its entirety and produces comparable data. Given the small size of the dataset (six participating laboratories), a non-parametric modified Z-score approach was used for statistical analysis. The modified Z-score approach measures how much a particular value differs from the median value of all measurements (Iglewicz and Hoaglin, 1993) and is routinely used for proficiency testing of laboratory performance (e.g., IAEA, 2016). Scores of |z| < 3.5 were considered satisfactory, whereas $|z| \ge 3.5$ were considered statistically different to the other measurements in the dataset (outliers). Only

datasets with at least four reported results were subjected to statistical analysis. For datasets containing no outliers, there are no statistical differences among laboratories. For outliers identified within datasets, these laboratories are described as 'under-reporting' or 'over-reporting' relative to the other laboratories as appropriate. Reproducibility was further assessed by considering relative standard deviations (RSDs) among laboratories.

'Repeatability', or the variation in measurements taken within each single laboratory, was assessed by use of RSDs, calculated for triplicate measurements of each analyte. It was not the role of the organizers to troubleshoot issues of repeatability for individual labs. The competency of each laboratory, in both preparing the test sample correctly and analyzing the leachate, is considered as a potential source of error.

T-tests (one-tailed, two-sample equal variance) were used to evaluate differences between 1:20 and 1:100 extractions, for each analyte where at least four results were reported.

4.5. Interlaboratory comparison exercise results

All six laboratories returned data for DI water and five for simple gastric leaches. Summary figures for major cations, minor cations and anions, at ratios of both 1:20 and 1:100, are shown in Figures 2a-4b, with all data available as Supplementary Material 1 (SM1). Figure 5 shows summary data for the gastric leach, at the ratio of 1:100 only.

4.5.1. Repeatability for deionized water leach

For pH and conductivity, repeatability was very high for all laboratories with a typical RSD of 1-2%. For major cations (defined here as concentrations >10 mg/kg) and anions, repeatability was also very high (RSD <2-3%) in most cases although, for 1:100 potassium, Lab A had a RSD of 51% as a result of one elevated repeat. For minor elements (<10 mg/kg), RSDs were generally higher, approaching or exceeding 100% in some cases, probably as a consequence of concentrations being close to detection limits. However, this was not the case for all minor elements; for instance, for strontium, eight of the nine mean values reported have RSDs of 3% or better.

4.5.2. Repeatability for simple gastric leach

For most laboratories, repeatability for the SG leach was <10% for most elements. For several trace elements, repeatability is better for the SG leach than the corresponding DI leach. For instance, RSDs for the 1:100 DI water leach for aluminum range from 5-61%, but for the SG leach are much lower at 1-3%. This is likely because the SG leach extracted over

300 times more aluminum from ash than the DI leach (Table 6), so concentrations measured are much greater than detection limits.

4.5.3. Reproducibility for deionized leach

For the DI leach, there are no statistical differences among groups in measured pH and conductivity of the leachate solutions (i.e., no measurements were outliers). For pH, measurements ranged from 5.2 to 5.9 (1:20) and from 4.8 to 6.1 (1:100). Specific conductance ranged from 135 to 244 μ S/cm at 1:20, with Lab B under-reporting, and 38 to 56 μ S/cm at 1:100, with Lab A and Lab D both under-reporting.

For major anions, Lab B under-reported chloride, sulfate and fluoride compared to the other laboratories at 1:20 (Figure 2a); whereas, at 1:100, Lab A over-reported sulfate and Lab C over-reported chloride (Figure 2b). Between-laboratory RSDs ranged from 6% for sulfate at 1:100, to 31% for fluoride at 1:20. The RSD for 1:20 fluoride reduced from 31% to 5% if the data for Lab B were omitted; RSDs for chloride and sulfate also reduced if Lab B data were omitted.

Three of the six laboratories did not attempt to measure bromide or phosphate. Two labs were unable to detect bromide, but one lab reported bromide in the range 5-10 mg/kg ash. Phosphate was <1 mg/kg. Nitrate values were highly variable among labs, with lab C reporting extreme outliers (values that were four to five orders of magnitude higher than those determined by the other laboratories) at both 1:20 and 1:100.

For major cations, Lab B reported lower concentrations for calcium, magnesium, sodium, manganese and potassium than the other labs at 1:20 (apparent in Figure 3), although only calcium, manganese and sodium were outliers. At 1:100, Lab D over-reported potassium, and Lab C over-reported manganese. Between-laboratory RSDs ranged from 5% (Ca, 1:100) to 19% (Mg, 1:100). As was the case for anions, 1:20 RSDs reduced in all cases if Lab B data were omitted.

For minor elements, few outliers were identified for aluminum, barium, boron, cobalt, copper, lithium, nickel, strontium or zinc (elements with at least four labs reporting) at either ratio. Lab F under-reported lithium at 1:20 and over-reported zinc at 1:100. Labs C and F over-reported barium at 1:100. Between-laboratory RSDs were generally higher than for major elements and ranged from 5% for cobalt at 1:100 to 142% for nickel at 1:100. There were insufficient data to assess reproducibility for arsenic, cadmium, chromium, iron, lead, silicon, selenium and titanium.

4.5.4. Reproducibility for simple gastric leach

For the SG leach, samples were only analyzed at 1:100. No laboratory reported data that were systematically different from other laboratories across several elements (Figure 5). Only a few outliers were of note: Lab B over-reported aluminum; Lab E over-reported arsenic, though mean values ranged from 0.20-0.26 mg/kg across all reporting laboratories; and Lab D over-reported manganese. None of these elements was of note for the corresponding laboratories for the 1:20 or 1:100 DI water leach.

4.5.5. Comparison of 1:20 and 1:100 deionized water leaches

Considering mean concentrations across all labs, 1:20 leaches returned lower concentrations than 1:100 leaches for all 16 elements for which four or more labs reported results at both ratios (Table 5). While this trend was systematic, differences between these means were only statistically significant (p<0.05 using t-testing) for magnesium (p=0.03) and copper (p=0.002). Some of these differences are due to the lower results reported by Lab B for the 1:20 leach (evident from Figures 1, 3 and 5) as the difference between the two ratios reduces when Lab B data are removed.

4.5.6. Comparison of 1:100 deionized water and simple gastric leaches

For a range of potentially toxic elements, the simple gastric (SG) leach extracted greater quantities of elements than the DI water leach, at the 1:100 ratio (Table 6). The SG/DI ratio was highest for the elements iron and aluminum (>300, although we note that there is a high degree of uncertainty in these ratios because of the poor reproducibility for the DI water extractions), and lowest for nickel and zinc.

5. Discussion

5.1. Revision of original IVHHN consensus leachate protocol

Based on feedback from users and the experiences of the leachate working group since 2013, the original protocol has been revised. No changes were made to the recommended leaching parameters. We streamlined the content in order to increase the focus on the laboratory procedure, and made the following key changes:

- Addition of a table of contents to allow for quick referencing;
- Background material was removed and has been covered in greater detail in this article;
- Sample collection advice was strengthened to reinforce the need for representative sampling of an entire ashfall deposit (after Ayris et al., 2015);

- Removal of the SLF leach due to 1) the current lack of expert consensus on appropriate methods, and 2) the complexity of the method making it unsuitable for use as a response tool;
- Removal of USGS field leach test as this is already available as a standalone method (Hageman, 2007);
- Retitling of 'gastric leach' as 'simple gastric leach' to reflect the fact that the method adopted is a simpler version of standard gastric leach methods;
- Addition of a section on how to carry out re-extractions, which has proved valuable in assessing hazard more realistically in specific situations (Cronin et al., 2003, 2014).

The revised protocol is included as SM2 and can be downloaded from the IVHHN website at the following link: https://www.ivhhn.org/images/pdf/volcanic_ash_leachate_protocols.pdf

5.2. Discussion of results

Repeatability, or the variation in measurements taken within each single laboratory, was generally very high (<2-3%) for the parameters of pH, conductivity and major cations and anions. This implies that the homogeneity of the ash sample is similar to that of the certified reference material IAEA-457 (IAEA, 2016). For minor elements, repeatability was lower, likely as a consequence of measured concentrations being close to detection limits. Of the 36 datasets that were analyzed (18 parameters per ratio with sufficient data reporting), 17 contained outliers. Some of the outliers were systematic, such as under-reporting by Lab B at 1:20, whereas others were apparently random.

Reproducibility was further assessed using between-laboratory RSDs. Various approaches to establishing thresholds for reproducibility in inter-laboratory comparison exercises have been used. For example, Wragg et al. (2011) carried out an inter-laboratory comparison for the unified BARGE method for assessing bioaccessibility, for copper, lead and arsenic in soils, and proposed a 'pass mark' of ≤20% as the benchmark criterion for between-lab RSDs. Of the datasets assessed by Wragg et al (2011), three out of eight (37.5%) passed the benchmark criterion. Applying a similar approach to our datasets, 22 of the 36 datasets analyzed (61%) have RSDs ≤20% and thus pass the benchmark criterion. If the systematically-low results for Lab B are excluded, the proportion of datasets passing the benchmark criterion rises to 69%.

As described previously, the rationale for recommending two ratios of 1:20 and 1:100 in the IVHHN protocol was that, at the higher S/L ratio (1:20), the leachate solution may reach saturation with poorly-soluble mineral phases, while problems with detection limits

may be encountered at the lower S/L ratio (1:100). While 1:20 extractions systematically returned lower concentrations of elements than 1:100 extractions (Table 5), the differences were only statistically significant for two of the 16 elements analyzed. It is important to note here that just one ash sample was analyzed in this exercise, and this ash sample, from Kelud volcano, Indonesia (an andesitic arc volcano) has a low overall burden of soluble salts compared to a global dataset on water-extractable elements in volcanic ash compiled by Ayris and Delmelle (2012). Therefore, saturation effects may be more pronounced for ashes with higher soluble salt burdens.

The simple gastric leach is intended to provide insight into the additional solubility of toxicants under acid conditions in the digestive system. The elements iron and aluminum showed the greatest enhancement (SG/DI ratios >300) of solubility under acid conditions (Table 6). This finding was also reported for 2014 Sinabung ash (Stewart et al., 2014), and 2012 Tongariro ash (Cronin et al., 2014), although SG/DI ratios were lower (13-70 for Al and 19-93 for Fe). For the toxicologically significant element F, similar SG/DI ratios are reported by the current study (2.4), Cronin et al. (2014) (2.2-2.8) and Stewart et al. (2014) (3.8). However, for the 2011 Cordón Caulle rhyolitic eruption, simple gastric leaches did not systematically extract more fluoride than water leaches (Stewart et al., 2016). This was interpreted to imply that F was present on the ash in readily-soluble forms. These data support the suitability of a separate gastric leach, in addition to a DI leach, to provide additional information about element availability.

5.3. Influence of instrumental techniques on results

The six laboratories utilized a range of instrumental techniques to analyze leachate solutions for major and minor cations and anions (Table 4). Because of the small size of the dataset, it is not possible to apply statistical comparisons between different methods for each parameter measured. The high detection limits associated with AAS limited the ability of Lab D to report on concentrations of most minor cations in deionized water leaches.

For anions, no outliers are associated with the use of different techniques (i.e., IC or ISE for Cl and F determination, and IC and turbidimetry for SO₄ determination). Determination of F by ISE is relatively inexpensive and fast, which may be key advantages in an eruption response. However, ISE is more suited to experienced analysts as the method is subject to analytical interferences which may be overcome by adding appropriate reagents to the solution, but which may require some knowledge of the sample composition.

5.4. Pitfalls and errors identified

The interlaboratory comparison was useful for verifying operational details of the protocol but also for identifying issues at particular laboratories. Lab B systematically reported lower concentrations than other laboratories for the 1:20 extraction (Figures 2a, 3a and 4a; Table 5) although this was only statistically identifiable for SO₄, Cl, F, Ca, Na and Mn. Troubleshooting with the laboratory personnel, after data were submitted to the organizers, identified inadequate mixing of the ash sample and leachant as the likely cause, as a relatively gentle orbital motion shaker was used. We note that the use of rotary or end-overend shakers is preferable to promote complete mixing, and have modified the equipment list in the protocol accordingly.

Lab A had problems with blank contamination for some elements. Here the analyses were performed in a general soil sciences laboratory where some use of shared equipment was unavoidable. This reinforces the importance of including procedural blanks, preferably run in triplicate, in the IVHHN leachate protocol.

Lab D noted that it took approximately five minutes for the fluoride ion-selective electrode to stabilize after the electrode was immersed in the leachate solution with TISAB buffer added.

5.5. Value of expert judgement

Investigations beyond the protocol methods may be worthwhile for some ash samples (as suggested in Section 4.1). As an example, single one-hour leaches may, in some circumstances, underestimate the environmental availability of agriculturally important elements, such as fluorine and sulfur (Cronin et al., 1998; Cronin et al., 2003; Cronin et al., 2014). For fluorine, this is particularly the case for ash generated by phreatomagmatic eruptions through vent-hosted hydrothermal systems, where F may be present as slowly-soluble compounds such as CaF₂ or AlF₃ (Cronin et al., 2003). A further example is the analysis of ash with highly-unusual composition, such as ash from the carbonatitic Oldoinyo Lengai volcano, Tanzania (Bosshard-Stadlin et al., 2017) where concentrations of leachable sodium, potassium, lithium, chloride and molybdenum far exceeded previously-published ranges (Ayris and Delmelle, 2012). In these situations, users are advised to carry out sequential leaches (re-extractions) to provide a more complete assessment of the potential of the ash to release potentially toxic elements to the environment; for example, if there is repeated rainfall onto ash deposits.

Re-extractions may also be important for sulfur, as very high concentrations of sulfate-S (sulfur (S) in the form of sulfate) may lead to mineral saturation (e.g., gypsum) occurring in

a single leach, particularly at the 1:20 ratio. This was the case in Damby et al. (2018) for ash from the 2018 eruption of Kīlauea. Comparison of their 1:20 and 1:100 data indicated that their 1:20 leachates were likely sulfur-saturated, and, given the tremendous sulfur emissions during the eruption and the propensity for ash to act as a sulfur sink (e.g., Ayris et al., 2013) as well as an abundance of plume-derived gypsum and anhydrite in the samples, it was determined that their 1:100 leachate data more appropriately captured the hazard. Reextractions to deal with the high concentrations of sulfate-S together with solubility modelling could be used to confirm their conclusion.

In some cases, values for certain elements may be higher than expected. Values that are substantially higher than previously published ranges could result from contamination. Reference to previously published ranges and averages (see Ayris and Delmelle, 2012) can be worthwhile in such situations. Cronin et al. (2014) recorded a very high zinc concentration (437 mg/kg) in water leachates of ash from the 2012 Te Maari eruption, collected from a galvanized metal roadside barrier, and concluded that inadvertent contamination of the sample was the most likely explanation as all other samples had water leachate zinc concentrations of approximately 5 mg/kg or less. In the same study, a high copper concentration (52 mg/kg) was recorded in a sample collected from a wooden fence post. Concentrations of arsenic and chromium were also elevated in this sample, suggesting contamination by CCA (copper-chrome-arsenate) timber preservative. These examples serve to reinforce the advice in the IVHHN leachate protocol to always record the surface each sample is collected from and, if possible, to leave a small margin between the bottom of the sample and the surface to minimize the chance of contamination from the collection surface. In the present dataset, nitrate values reported by Lab C were far higher than would be expected for volcanic ash. Given that these values were strong outliers, it is possible that they represent contamination at some point during the leaching procedure.

Our review of published leachate data indicates that leachable concentrations are low or below detection for elements where speciation is a primary concern for toxicity (in particular, As, Cd, Cr, Se and Hg). However, in instances where there may be specific concern, methods other than this leachate protocol would be required to investigate fully.

6. Conclusions

Consistency in data collection is the foundation for linking leachate datasets with empirical eruption impacts, and it provides the framework for translating lab-derived fragility functions into eruption response efforts. Implementation of standardized methods is essential

for ensuring reproducibility and comparability amongst laboratories. We have developed and tested a leachate protocol for use to such ends. A comparative review of post-2005 studies and methods has encouraged further discussion and since bolstered the conclusions of a draft leachate protocol produced in 2013. The leachate protocol overcomes the common causes of incomparability amongst datasets reported in the literature, such as leachant used, S/L ratio, and contact time. However, it is essential that appropriate spatial and temporal sampling still be undertaken where possible. Experience has shown that single-sample and/or post-eruption analyses are insufficient or too late; that is, rapid but not reliable, or reliable but not rapid. Wherever possible, the protocol makes use of commonly available equipment in order to achieve continuous, near real-time data collection during a crisis. This is intended to enable immediate, low-cost in-country analysis in order to facilitate time-sensitive input into the emergency response.

Our interlaboratory comparison exercise returned comparable data amongst participating laboratories, indicating good reproducibility and transferability of the protocol. Little instruction is needed for reliable results from laboratories experienced in these types of analyses. We suggest that laboratories interested in conducting leachate analyses coordinate with capable laboratories for proficiency testing. We also suggest that coordination of laboratories that have the capabilities to conduct leachate analyses with laboratories that do not have this ability benefits the greater volcanology community through hazards assessment and contribution of robust data to a growing dataset.

7. Abbreviations

AAS Atomic absorption spectroscopy

BARGE Bioaccessibility Research Group of Europe

BGS British Geological Survey

CRM Certified reference material(s)

DI Deionized water

EPA Environmental Protection Agency

GF-AAS Graphite furnace atomic absorption spectroscopy

HDPE High density polyethylene

HG-AAS Hydride generation atomic absorption spectroscopy

IAEA International Atomic Energy Agency

IC Ion chromatography

ICP-MS Inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry

ICP-OES Inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry

IFR Institute of Food Research, U.K.

ISE Ion selective electrode

IVHHN International Volcanic Health Hazard Network

MER Main Ethiopian Rift

RSD Relative standard deviation

SBRC Solubility/Bioavailability Research Consortium

SG Simple gastric

TISAB Total ionic strength adjustment buffer (used in ISE determinations)

UBM Unified BARGE method

USGS United States Geological Survey

UV-Vis Ultraviolet–visible spectroscopy

VEI Volcanic Explosivity Index

8. Acknowledgements

Our thanks to Peter Baxter, Julie Calkins, Kristi Wallace and Paul Ayris for advice and input; Thomas Wilson at the University of Canterbury for funding one of the authors (CS) to the Durham workshop; and Sara Peek, Bill Evans and Kate Scheiderich at the U.S. Geological Survey. The authors are grateful for written submissions to the 2011 workshop from Niels Óskarsson of the University of Iceland and Claire Witham of the UK Met Office. We thank Tom Casadevall, Christina Neal, and Janet Slate of the U.S. Geological Survey for their review of the original protocol; Alejandra Aguayo and Olivia Cruz (Instituto de Geofísica, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México) for their participation in the chemical analysis; and Geoff Kilgour of GNS Science for funding analytical work at GNS Science.

We further thank the two anonymous reviewers, as well as Dr Andrea Foster of the U.S. Geological Survey, whose perceptive comments greatly improved this manuscript.

IT was funded by the Marie Skłodowska-Curie Actions Initial Training Network 'VERTIGO', funded through the European Seventh Framework Program (FP7 2007–2013) under Grant Agreement number 607905. IT acknowledges the support by the VUB Strategic Research Program (SRP).

Any use of trade, firm or product names is for descriptive purposes only and does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

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Table 1 Typical ash leachate parameters of interest for different purposes¹

Purpose	Parameters of interest	Examples ²
Assessing health hazards of ash to	pH, As, Cd, Cu, Cr, F, Fe, Ni, Pb,	Cronin et al. 2014
humans and livestock (via ingestion	SO ₄ , Zn	Damby et al. 2013
or inhalation pathways)		Horwell et al. 2013
Assessing potential of ash to	pH, Al, As, Cd, Cr, Cu, F, Fe, Mn,	Stewart et al., 2006
contaminate drinking-water	Ni, Pb, Zn	Cronin et al. 2014
supplies		
Inferring plume chemistry	pH, Cl, F, SO ₄	Armienta et al. 2010
		Miyagi et a. 2013
	5	Primulyana et al. 2017
Assessing potential of ash to	pH, B, Ca, Co, Cu, K, Mg, Na, Se,	Cronin et al. 1998
contribute nutrients to soil	NO ₃ , PO ₄ , SO₄ , Zn	Anda et al. 2016
	O_{Σ}	Stewart et al. 2016

¹ The authors emphasize that these suites of parameters are suggestions rather than an exhaustive list. Bolded parameters are likely of greatest significance.

² Refer to Table 2 for additional examples from the literature

Table 2 Review of ash leachate studies published since 2005 categorised by primary purpose of study

Study	Volcano/es	Summary	Batch leaching details			Column lea	ching	Further details on methods
						details		
			Contact	Ratio (g	Leachant	Leaching	Leachant	
			time	ash:mL		rate		
				leachant)			(O)	
Primary purp	ose of study: a	ssessing health, agricu	ltural and/o	or environment	al impacts of as	shfall		
Bia et al.,	Hudson,	To identify F-	1.5, 24,	1:20	DI adjusted	10		Extractions conducted at pH 3.0, 6.5 and
2019	Chaitén,	bearing phases and	72, 168,		to pH 3.0,			10.0. Batch leaching protocol followed
	Puyehue,	assess release rates	240 and		6.5 and 10.0			Armienta et al. (2002) and Witham et al.
	Calbuco,	into aqueous	336 h		with HNO ₃			(2005). Samples were re-extracted at
	Copahue	reservoirs			or NaOH			each of the contact times specified by
				00				completely withdrawing the supernatant
								and adding further extractant.
Tomašek et	Not	To investigate	10 min,	1:100	DI			Batch leaching informed by methods in
al., 2019	applicable	whether in-plume	30 min					IVHHN protocol (Stewart et al. 2013).
		interactions of ash	and 1 h					Leachates were filtered through 0.2 μm
		particles with SO ₂						and 0.45 µm filters for anion and cation
		gas influences						analysis, respectively. Cations
		respiratory toxicity.						determined by ICP-MS and anions by IC.

Wygel et	Redoubt,	To investigate	1 h to 7			0.28 ± 0.1	Milli-Q	Leachate solutions were collected every
al., 2019	Turrialba,	impacts of ash	days			ml/min	water	1 h over a 8 h period, then every 12 h for
	Eyjafjallajö-	surface area and						4 days, then every 24 h for another 3
	kull, Kilauea	bulk composition						days. Cations by ICP-MS, anions by IC.
		on leaching rates						
		and subsequent					C.	
		implications for						
		drinking-water					(O),	
		contamination.				17		
Damby et	Kilauea	To assess health,	1 h	1:20 and	DI			Cations determined by ICP-OES and
al., 2018		agricultural and		1:100	.0			anions by IC. pH and specific
		environmental			210			conductance of all samples measured.
		hazards of elements						IVHHN protocol followed as per Stewart
		leached from						et al. (2013).
		ashfall from		0,0,				
		Kilauea volcano.	. (
Bosshard-	Oldoinyo	Investigation of	1 h	1:100	DI			Ash extracts centrifuged for 3 minutes at
Stadlin et	Lengai	natural leaching of						5000 rpm and filtered (0.45 μ m). F
al., 2017		natrocarbonatitic						determined by ISE, Cl and SO ₄ by IC
		lava and 2007-2008						and cations by ICP-OES.
		carbonatite/						
		silicate ash from						
		Oldoinyo Lengai						
		volcano, Tanzania						

Cangemi et	Etna,	To assess health	1 h	1:100	DI		Batch leaching informed by methods
al., 2017	Stromboli,	hazards of					described in Witham et al. (2005).
	Vesuvius,	potentially-toxic		1:100	HCl (0.1 M)		Solutions centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 15
	Vulcano,	elements released					minutes and filtered through 0.45 um
	Santorini,	from seven					cellulose filters.
	Nea Kamini,	Mediterranean				C.	Major anions and cations analysed by IC,
	Milos	volcanoes					and trace elements analysed by ICP-MS.
Maters et	Eyjafjallajö-	Investigating	168 h	1:500	H ₂ SO ₄ (0.1	70,	Samples were collected at various time
al., 2017	kull,	controls on the			M)		intervals to t=168 h and concentrations
	Pinatubo,	release of iron from					of dissolved Fe(II) and Fe(III)
	Chaitén,	volcanic ash			.0		determined colorimetrically using
	Redoubt				2/6		Ferrozine method. Experiment intended
							to simulate release of iron under
							conditions simulating low pH conditions
				V.O.			(in acidic surface film) during airborne
			11				transport of volcanic ash.
Anda et al,	Sinabung	To characterise	1 h	1:25	NH ₄ OAc (1		2 g ash was transferred into a leaching
2016		chemical properties			M)		column with filter pulp at the bottom and
		of fresh ashfall					then leached with 50 ml of 1 M
		from Sinabung					NH ₄ OAc at pH 7.0 for an hour, then the
		volcano to assess its					cations (Ca, Mg, K, Na) were measured
		effect on underlying					in the supernatant. pH and conductivity
		soil properties					measured in 1:5 ash/water solution.

Cabré et al.	Grímsvötn	To establish	4 h	1:10	DI	0.12	Milli-Q	Batch leaching at 20 rpm; filtered
2016		geochemical fluxes				mL/min	water	through PVDF syringe filters with tube
		to the environment						tips; pH, conductivity monitored with
								specific electrodes; fluoride by ISE;
								major and trace elements by HR-ICP-
							C.	MS. For column leaching, 10 g ash put in
								8 cm long column, fractions collected.
							10 ,	Ash/water contact time ~150 min.
Karbowska	Eyjafjallajö-	Sequential	16 h	1:40	DI			Community Bureau of Reference (BCR)
and	kull	extraction study of						extraction scheme, including subsequent
Zembrzuski		bioavailability of			.0			fractions: 1) water soluble, 2)
2016		thallium from			210			exchangeable, 3) reducible, 4)
		Eyjafjallajökull ash						oxidizable, 5) residual.
		in the environment.						
Stewart et	Cordón	Fate and	1 h	1:20 and	DI			F by ISE and IC, SO ₄ and Cl by IC, ICP-
al. 2016	Caulle	agricultural	. (1:100				MS. Trace elements by ICP-MS and
		consequences of						ICP-OES. Modified version of EPA
		leachable elements		1:100	SG (HCl,			Method 200:8 used to determine total
		added to the			0.032 M)			recoverable metals. Extractions included
		environment from						gastric leaches for better estimation of
		the 2011 Cordón						hazards of ingesting ash, and sequential
		Caulle Volcanic						re-extractions for better estimation of
		Complex tephra fall						less readily-soluble compounds.

D'Addabbo	Etna	To assess hazards	30 min to	1:10	DI		Leaching of Popocatepetl 2012, Etna
et al., 2015	Popocatépetl	from leachable	7 days				2011 and Etna 2012 ash, using both
·		elements in ash	-		Lake water		deionized and lake water.
		from Etna and					Extracts analysed for pH,
		Popocatépetl					ammonia/ammonium, Ca, K, Ca, Mg, Cl,
		volcanoes for				6.	SO ₄ , and F by IC, and B. Si, Mn, Fe, Hg,
		freshwater					As by ICP-OES.
		organisms				0,	
Cronin et	Tongariro	Agricultural and	1 h	1:20 and	DI		F by ISE and IC, SO ₄ and Cl by IC, ICP-
al., 2014		human health		1:100			MS. Trace elements by ICP-MS and
		hazard assessment			.0		ICP-OES. Gastric leach only as 1:100.
		of volcanic ash		1:100	SG		Extractions were also extended to
		from 2012					include gastric leaches for better
		hydrothermal					estimation of hazards of ingesting ash,
		eruptions of		00,			and sequential re-extractions for better
		Tongariro volcano,	. (estimation of less readily-soluble
		New Zealand					compounds.
Stewart et	Sinabung	Agricultural hazard	1 h	1:20 and	DI		F by ISE and IC, SO ₄ and Cl by IC, ICP-
al., 2014		assessment of		1:100			MS. Trace elements by ICP-MS and
		volcanic ash from					ICP-OES. Extractions were also
		eruptions of		1:100	SG		extended to include gastric leaches for
		Sinabung volcano,					better estimation of hazards of ingesting
		Indonesia					ash, and sequential re-extractions for
							better estimation of less readily-soluble
							compounds.

Achterberg	Eyjafjallajök	Investigation of				600	Deionized	Aerosolic volcanic ash from
et al., 2013	ull	ocean fertilisation				mL/minute	water	Eyjafjallajökull was sampled using a low
		by ash from						volume air sampler.
		Eyjafjallajökull						Deionized water was rapidly (in <10
		eruption						seconds) passed through the filter to
							C.	assess 'instantaneous' solubility of Fe.
Canion and	Merapi	To establish	18 h	1:20	Synthetic			Method was based on EPA TCLP
Landsberge		quantities of toxic			rainwater		4O,	procedure and involved leaching ash
r, 2013		elements leached			(distilled	17		with simulated rainwater for 18±2 hours
		from Merapi ash			water			using a rotator at 30±2 rpm.
		using synthetic			acidified to			Elements determined were Ni, Sb, As,
		rainwater			pH 5.7)			Cr, Na, Sr, Mn, K, Cs, Rb, Co, V, Ba, Si,
								Fe, Th, Al, Ti, U and Zn (by ICP-MS).
Damby et	Merapi	Assessment of	1 h	1:100	DI			Anions (F, Cl, SO ₄) by IC, major
al., 2013		respiratory hazards		0,0,				elements (Si, Al, Fe, Mg, Ca, Na, K) by
		to human health of	. (ICP-OES, trace metals (As, Cd, Co, Cr,
		tephra deposits						Cu, Ni, Pb and Zn) by ICP-MS
		from the 2010						
		Merapi eruption,						
		Indonesia, with						
		implications for						
		occupational						
		exposure by mining						
		of deposits						

Horwell et	Eyjafjallajök	Toxicological	1 h	1:100	DI			1:100 in DI water for 1h; Anions (F, Cl,
al., 2013	ull	profiling of ash						SO ₄) by IC, major elements (Si, Al, Fe,
	Grímsvötn	from the 2010						Mg, Ca, Na, K) by ICP-OES, trace
		Eyjafjallajökull and						metals (As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb and
		2011						Zn) by ICP-MS
		Grímsvötneruptions						
		, Iceland						
Monick et	Eyjafjallajök	Effects of	1.5 h	1:25	DI		10 ,	1:25 in deionized water and 0.001 M
al., 2013	ull	Eyjafjallajökull						HNO ₃ for 1.5 hours in ultrasonic bath;
		volcanic ash on						leachates filtered through 0.45 um
		innate immune			HNO ₃			cellulose acetate Millipore filter.
		system response			(0.001 M)	ĺ		Analysis for Ti, Al, Fe, Mn, Li, Be, V,
		and bacterial						Cr, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Rb, Dr, Mo, Cs,
		growth in vitro						Ba, La, Ce, Yb, Pb, U by ICP-MS.
Olgun et al.,	Etna	Possible impacts of	1 h and	1:50 and	Seawater			For release of fixed-N, P and Si, 1 g ash
2013		ash emissions from	24 h	1:400				mixed with 50 mL Atlantic seawater for
		Mt Etna on primary						both 1 h and 24 h. Macronutrients
		productivity in						analysed by photometry. Trace metal
		Mediterranean						(Fe, Zn, Cu) release followed by
								voltammetry for ash/seawater ratios of
								1/400.

Olsson et	Grímsvötn	Physicochemical				60 mL/hr	Milli-Q	cc. 12 g of ash in deionized water in a
al., 2013		characterisation of					water	single pass, plug, flow through reactor
		the Grímsvötn,						(contact time 11±2 min); Al, As, B, Ba,
		Iceland volcanic						Be, Ca, Cd, Ce, Co, Cr, Cs, Cu, Dy, Er,
		ash to assess the						Eu, Fe, Gd, Hg, Ho, K, La, Li, Lu, Mg,
		impact on humans					C.	Mn, Mo, Na, Nd, Ni, P, Pb, Pr, S, Si,
		and the						Sm, Sn, Sr, Tb, Ti,Tm, U, V, Yb, and Zn
		environment					$\langle O \rangle$	by ICP-SFMS, and ICP-OES; F, Cl,
						- (()		NO ₃ , SO ₄ , SO ₃ , S ₂ O ₃ by IC
Anda and	Merapi	To characterise	1 h	1:25	NH ₄ OAc (1	())		Cations (Ca, Mg, K, Na) measured by
Sarwani,		fresh ashfall to			M)			AAS. pH and conductivity measured in
2012		assess its potential			210			1:5 ash/water solution. Soluble S was
		as a source of						extracted by Ca(H ₂ PO ₄) ₂
		nutrients to						
		agricultural lands		V.O.,				
Damby,	Colima,	To determine the	4 weeks	1:100	SLF (pH			Mass of sample was measured before
2012	Merapi, Mt	biodurability of			7.4), ALF			and after experiment and mineral phases
	St Helens,	volcanic ash in the			(pH 5.5)			quantified. Cations and anions were not
	Santiaguito,	lungs						measured.
	Soufriere							
	Hills, Unzen							
Durant et	Chaitén	First investigation	45 min	1:25	DI			SO ₄ , Cl, and F by IC; Si, Al, Fe, Mg, Ca,
al., 2012		of a rhyolitic ash-						Na and K by ICP-OES; Cr, Co, Ni, Cu,
		fall and the						Zn, As, Se, Sr, Ag, Cd and Pb by ICP-
		environmental						MS

		effects of associated						
		rhyolitic ash						
		leachates (2008						
		Chaitén eruption,						
		Chile)						
Hoffman et	Arenal,	Investigating	15 min	~1:375	Coastal		C.	Concentrations of a range of metals (Al,
al., 2012	Popocatépetl	release of nutrients			seawater			Cd, Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb and Zn)
	, Rabaul-	and potentially					$\langle O \rangle$	determined in seawater, and seawater in
	Tarvurvur,	toxic elements from				17		contact with ash from five different
	Sakurajima,	volcanic ash in						volcanoes. Metals determined by ICP-
	Apoyeque	seawater			.0			MS.
Ruggieri et	Chaitén	The environmental	4h	1:10	DI	0.24	Milli-Q	10 g of ash in the column experiment in
al., 2012a		geochemical				mL/min	water	deionized water; analysis for range of
		behaviour of the						elements by ICP-OES and ICP-MS with
		rhyolitic ashes from		0,0,				ISE for F.
		the 2008 eruption						
		of Chaitén volcano,						
		Chile						
Armienta et	Popocatépetl	To assess hazards	2 h	1:25	DI			
al., 2011		from volcanic						
		fluorine around						
		Popocatépetl						
		volcano, Mexico						

Fiantis et	Talang	Investigating	Continuo	1:20	NH ₄ OAc (1		pH determined in 1:2.5 slurry of ash and
al., 2011		evolution of ash	us		M)		both deionized water and 0.1M KCl.
		from 2005 Talang	leaching				CEC and exchangeable bases determined
		eruption from	for two				using standard method (continuous
		pristine condition to	years				leaching of 5 g soil with 100 mL 1 M
		condition two years					NH ₄ OAc).
		afterwards					
Ruggieri et	Lonquimay,	Determining	12 h	1:50	DI		Wide range of major and trace elements
al., 2011	Hudson,	potential					determined by ICP-MS; F by ISE. Nitric
	Llaima,	geochemical fluxes		1:10	Nitric acid		acid strength was not specified but we
	Copahue,	from leaching of			(conc.)		assume here that concentrated nitric acid
	Chaitén	ashfall from five			710		was used (as per Ruggieri et al. 2011).
		South American					
		volcanoes					
Le Blond et	Rabaul	Rapid evaluation of	1 h	1:25	DI		Fe, As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb and
al., 2010		the health hazard of					Zn by ICP-OES, F by IC
		volcanic ash at					
		Rabaul volcano,					
		Papua New Guinea					
Censi et al.,	Etna	Trace element	72-4320	1:10	Seawater		Fresh ash samples were rinsed with
2010		behaviour in	h				ultrapure water then kinetic experiments
		seawater during					carried out with 50 g ash samples in 500
		Etna's pyroclastic					mL Nalgene bottes containing seawater,
		activity in 2001					with samples removed at times between
							72 and 4320 hours. Analysis for V, Cr,
							Mn, Co, Cu, Pb

Fiantis et	Talang	Investigation of	24 h, 10,	1:20	DI			Agitated for 1h at 27°C, and kept at
al., 2010		acid dissolution of	30, 60		Citric acid			different temperatures of 10, 27 and
		unweathered ashfall	days		Oxalic acid			40°C for 60 days; supernatants collected
		deposits from			Sulfuric acid			after 24h, and 10, 30 and 60 days;
		Talang volcano in a			Nitric acid			cations (Ca, Mg, K and Na) by AAS, P
		warm, humid			(all 0.02 M)		C .	by visible-light spectrophotometer.
		climate for						
		understanding the					4O,	
		geochemical				17		
		weathering of the				(0)		
		volcanic materials			.0			
Rango et	Not	Extensive water	12	1:5	DI			Powdered samples of MER rhyolites and
al., 2010a	applicable	sampling program	months					their weathered and reworked sediments
		supported by						were leached with for 12 months in a
		leaching		0,0				closed system, with shaking at 100 rpm.
		experiments on	11					
		main rock types in						
		Main Ethiopian Rift						
		(MER) to						
		investigate known						
		geochemical						
		anomalies of F, As,						
		Mo, B, U						

Rango et	Not	The leaching				100 mL/hr	Synthetic	Raw, coarse and fine fractions of ash
al., 2010b	applicable	behaviour of					rainwater	leached through polyethylene columns
		pyroclastic glassy					(0.005 M	(20 cm x 1.35 cm I.D.) with synthetic
		ash deposits					CaCl ₂ , pH	rainwater. Analysis for Ca, Mg, Na, K, F,
		collected in the					5.5)	Cl, NO ₃ , SO ₄ , acetate and formate by IC.
		central MER, with					C.	
		regards to surface						
		and groundwater					$\langle O \rangle$	
		fluoride pollution				17		
Ruggieri et	Not	Study of elements	12 h	1:50	DI			Wide range of major and trace elements
al., 2010	applicable	leached from			.0			determined by ICP-MS; F by ISE.
		ancient rhyolitic ash			210	i i		
		deposits in the		1:10	Nitric acid			
		northern Argentina,			(conc.)			
		and their hazardous		0,0,				
		potential						
Wang et al.,	Kasatochi	Monitoring of	5 min	1:20	DI			USGS Field Leach Test: 5min shaking,
2010		ecological response						10min settling; Unfiltered aliquots
		to the 2008 eruption						analysed for pH and conductivity Ca, K,
		of Kasatochi						Mg, Na, Al, Co, Fe, Cu, Ni, Se, Si, Zn by
		volcano, Aleutian						ICM-MS; Cl, F, NO ₃ , SO ₄ by IC. Soil
		Islands						science parameters (CDC, total C, N, P
								and S, and plant-available N, P, K were
								analysed in both pyroclastic and pre-
								eruption soil samples using standard soil
								science methods.

Jones and	Hekla, Mt St	Assessing volcanic				60 mL/hr	Deionized	Flow-through experiments with
Gislason,	Helens,	ash fertilization					water,	deionized water (8h) and seawater (8h or
2008	Sakurajima,	potential and the					North	24h); Br, Li, Na, K, Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, B,
	Galeras,	potential of					Atlantic	Al, Si, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn,
	Soufrière	volcanic ash					Ocean	As, Se, Mo, Cd, Sn, Pb by ICP-AES,
	Hills,	leachates to poison					seawater,	NO ₂ , NO ₃ , F, Cl, and SO ₄ by IC; NH ₄ by
	Lascar,	aqueous					Southern	automated phenate titration.
	Santiaguito	environments					Ocean	
						- ((seawater	
Duggen et	Arenal,	Investigating	A few	Not specified	Low metal			Release of metals (Fe, Cu, Zn) and other
al., 2007	Sakurajima,	whether subduction	minutes		Antarctic			nutrients (NH ₄ , PO ₄ and Si) determined
	Mt Spurr	zone volcanic ash	to 1-2		seawater	Ť		in situ using anodic stripping
		can fertilise the	hours					voltammetry for metals and photometry
		surface ocean						for other nutrients.
				0,0,				
Primary purp	oose of study: e	ualuating potential of	ash leachate	e as proxies for	plume chemist	ry; ash leacha	ites as monito	oring tools for volcanic activity;
calculations o	f volatile budge	ets						
Marumoto	Aso	Investigating	1 h	~1:1000	DI			Total mercury determined by AAS
et al., 2017		relationship						following thermal desorption and gold
		between total						amalgamation.
		mercury and water						Water soluble major ions determined by
		soluble major ions						IC.
		in ash samples, and						
		volcanic activity at						
		Aso volcano						

Primulyana	Sinabung	Relating	8 h	~1:200	Distilled			The exact ratio of ash to leachant was not
et al., 2017		geochemical			water at			specified, but approximately 0.2-0.3 g
		datasets, including			80°C			ash was immersed in distilled water at 80
		S/Cl ratios in ash						°C then made up to 50 mL, implying a
		leachates, to						ratio of approximately 1:200. Only the
		activity of Sinabung					C.	size fraction <74 μm was used.
		volcano from 2010						
		onward to the					(O)	
		present				17		
Gutierrez et	Not	Experimental	24 h	1:10	Distilled			Stirred for 24 hours in closed Erlenmeyer
al., 2016	applicable	studies of HCl			water			flask; pH adjustment with NaHCO ₃ , Cl
		adsorption onto			210			determined by titration against 0.1 N
		synthetic volcanic						AgNO ₃
		glass of different						
		composition, to		V.O.				
		better constrain HCl	1					
		adsorption in						
		volcanic plumes						
Ayris et al.,	Not	Mechanism of HCl	4 h	1:50	DI			Cl and SO ₄ by IC; Al, Fe, Mg, Ca, Na
2014	applicable	uptake by volcanic						and K by ICP-AES
		ash; leaching of						
		post-experiment						
		glass powder to						
		extract soluble						
		reaction products						
		formed during the						

		experiments					
Miyagi et	Sakurajima	Temporal changes	2.5 h	~1:50	DI		1:50 in deionized water for 2.5 h (30min
	Sakurajiiia	in the colour and	2.3 11	~1.50	DI	C	
al., 2013							in an ultrasonic bath, 2h later recovery of
		the amount of					supernatants); Cl, F, SO ₄ by IC
		leachates of					
		Sakurajima, Japan					
		ash erupted from			.0		
		1981-2011 for			710		
		purpose of					
		understanding					
		magma degassing					
		processed near the					
		top of volcanic					
		conduit					
Bagnato et	Eyjafjallajök	To investigate the	2 h	1:25	DI		F, Cl, SO ₄ , Na, K, Mg, and Ca by IC; Li,
al., 2013	ull	role of volcanic ash					B, V, Cr, Fe, Ni, Cu, As, Se, Rb, Sr, Mo,
		in adsorbing and					Sb, Cs, Th, U, Pb, Zn, Mn, Ti, Ba, Al,
		scavenging					Cu, Co, Cd by ICP-MS.
		volcanogenic					
		volatile elements					
		such as sulfur and					
		halogens					

Bagnato et	Stromboli	Investigation of	2 h	1:25	DI		F, Cl, SO ₄ , Na, K, Mg, and Ca by IC; Li,
al., 2011		relationship					B, V, Cr, Fe, Ni, Cu, As, Se, Rb, Sr, Mo,
		between ash					Sb, Cs, Th, U, Pb, Zn, Mn, Ti, Ba, Al,
		leachate					Cu, Co, Cd by ICP-MS
		composition at					
		Stromboli volcano,				C.	
		plume chemistry					
		and eruptive				10 ,	
		activity					
Armienta et	Popocatépetl	Use of chemical	2 h	1:25	DI		Anions (Cl, F, SO ₄)
al., 2010		characteristics of			.0		
		ash leachates as a			2/6		
		monitoring tool for					
		volcanic activity					
de Moor et	Anatahan	Sulfur isotope	12 h	1:80	DI		1:80 in deionized water* for 12 h
al., 2010		compositions of	11				(including 1 h agitation); anions S, Cl
		pumice and					and F by IC. 1:40 ratio also used.
		adsorbed on ash of					
		Anatahan volcano,					
		to constrain the					
		sources of sulfur					
		erupted during the					
		2003 eruption					

de Moor et	Anatahan	Evaluation of the	12 h	1:80	DI			1:80 in deionized water for 12 h
al., 2005		2003 eruption of						(including 1 h agitation) and 1:80 in
		Anatahan volcano			HNO ₃			0.01M HNO ₃ ; cations (Ca, Mg, Na, K,
		(Mariana Islands)			(0.01M)			Si, AL, Fe, Mn, Cu, Ba) by ICP-OES,
		with emphasis on						anions (P, S, Cl, F) by IC
		the understanding					6.	
		of degassing						
		mechanisms					$\langle O \rangle$	
Primary purp	ose of study: n	nethod development or	r proposing	new or modifie	ed methods	170)	
Stewart &	ManaroVoui	Comparison of	1 h	1:20 and	DI			For a single ash sample from Manaro
Leonard,	(Ambae or	IVHHN leaching		1:100	.0			Voui volcano, Vanuatu, one split was
2018a	Lonbenben)	method with a			210			analysed according to the IVHHN
		modified USEPA						leaching protocol, and another split
		method						analysed using a modified version of
			_ 4	V.O.,				EPA Method 1312.
Ruggieri et	Chaitén	An optimisation	1.5,4 and	1:10, 1:25	DI			Leaching was carried out at 20 rpm for
al., 2012b		trial using	16 hr	and 1:50				various combinations of parameters.
		multivariate						Elements analysed were SO ₄ , Cl, Na,
		factorial analysis to						Mg, K, V, Co, Si, Al, Mn, Fe, Ca (major
		design robust batch						elements by ICP-OES and trace elements
		leaching method for						by ICP-MS and HR-ICP-MS).
		ash hazard						
		characterisation.						
Gislason et	Eyjafjallajök	Characterization of	4-85 min	~1:1000	DI			No agitation
al., 2011	ull	Eyjafjallajökull						

		volcanic ash,	I					
		·						
		suggestion of a						
		protocol for rapid						
		risk assessment						
Hageman,	Not	USGS Field Leach	5 min	1:20	DI			Method specifies using 50 g solid and
2007	applicable	Test protocol, to be					C.	one litre DI, and shaking the bottle for
		used as a fast and						five minutes by hand then syringe
		effective					$\langle O \rangle$	filtering through a 0.45 μm nitrocellulose
		geochemical				- (1		filter.
		characterisation						
		tool			.0			
Primary purp	ose of study: li	terature review	ı		2/6			
Ayris and	Not	Review of						
Delmelle,	applicable	environmental						
2012		effects of tephra		V.O.				
		emissions	1					
Stewart et	Not	Review of studies						
al., 2006	applicable	on the effects of						
		volcanic ashfall on						
		water supplies and						
		model for						
		predicting						
		contamination						
Primary purp	ose of study: o	ther		•				

Ayris et al.,	Mt St Helens	Retrospective,						
2015		spatial analysis of						
		Mt. St. Helens						
		tephra leachate						
		compositions from						
		previously					6.	
		published studies						
Borisova et	Merapi	Petrological,	28 h	1:18 to 1:24	Distilled			Ratios between 1:18 and 1:24 in distilled
al., 2013		mineralogical and			Milli-Q	- ()		Milli-Q water for 28h; F, Cl, Br, SO ₄ ,
		geochemical study			water			NO ₃ , NO ₂ and PO ₄ by IC; trace elements
		of processes			.0			by ICP-MS (whole range, including rare
		responsible for the			210	, v		earth elements)
		highly explosive						
		events at Merapi,						
		Indonesia (2010)		V.Q.				

 Table 3 Extraction methods and equipment used by participating laboratories

	Lab A	Lab B	Lab C	Lab D	Lab E	Lab F
Extraction vessel	50 mL	250 mL glass	125 mL HDPE	150 mL glass	50 mL	60 mL LDPE
	polycarbonate	conical flasks	wide mouth	beakers	polypropylene	bottles
	centrifuge tubes		bottles		centrifuge tubes	
Agitation method	End-over-end	Table shaker	Table shaker	Table shaker	Table shaker	Rotating 180°
	shaker	(orbital)	(horizontal)	(horizontal)	(horizontal)	shaker
Centrifugation	5000 rpm	No centrifuging,	4000 rpm	No centrifuging	3800 rpm	No centrifuging,
speed		samples allowed	010			samples allowed
		to settle for 15				to settle for 15
		minutes	2)			minutes
Centrifugation	10 minutes		10 minutes		20 minutes	
time						
Filtration method	Vacuum	Syringe filtration	Syringe filtration	Vacuum filtration	Syringe filtration,	Syringe filtration
	filtration				10 mL Injekt	
					syringe attached	
					to 25 mm	
					Acrodisc syringe	
					filter	
Filters used	0.45 μm	0.45 µm nylon	0.45 μm nylon	0.45 μm nylon	0.2 µm GHP glass	0.45 μm SFCA

	nitrocellulose	filters for cations,	filters for cations,	nitrocellulose	fibre membrane	membrane
		0.2 μm nylon	0.2 μm nylon			
		filters for anions	filters for anions			
Further details	0.4 g of ash to		1 g ash to 100 mL		0.4 g of ash to 40	0.4 g of ash to 40
	40 mL leachant		water for 1:100; 5	C.	mL leachant for	mL leachant for
	for 1:100; 2 g		g ash to 100 mL		1:100; 2 g ash to	1:100; 2 g of ash
	ash to 40 mL		water for 1:20.	100	40 mL leachant	to 40 mL
	leachant for		Extracts diluted		for 1:20. Extracts	leachant1:20. No
	1:20		1:10 prior to ICP-		diluted 1:100	dilution.
			MS analysis.	•	prior ICP-MS	
					analysis.	

Table 4 Instrumental determination of elements in deionized water (DI) and simple gastric (SG) leach extracts by different laboratories (SG in parentheses), n.a. is 'not analysed'.

	Lab A	Lab B	Lab C	Lab D	Lab E	Lab F*
Anions						
Chloride	IC	IC	IC	ISE	IC	IC
Fluoride	ISE	IC(ISE)	IC	ISE	IC	IC
Sulfate	IC	IC	IC	Turbidimetry	IC	IC
Bromide	IC	IC	IC	n.a.	n.a.	IC
Nitrate	IC	IC + FIA	IC	IC	IC	IC
Cations majo	r					
Calcium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-OES	ICP-OES
Magnesium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-OES	ICP-OES
Sodium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-OES	ICP-OES
Potassium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-OES	ICP-OES
Aluminium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-OES	ICP-MS
Cations mino	r					
Arsenic	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.(HG-	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
				AAS)		

Barium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Boron	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	UV-Vis	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Cadmium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.(AAS)	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Chromium	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	n.a.(AAS)	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Cobalt	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Copper	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Iron	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS
Lead	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.(GF-	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
				AAS)	710	
Lithium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Manganese	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Molybdenum	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Nickel	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.(AAS)	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Selenium	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-OES
Silicon	n.a.	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	UV-Vis	ICP-OES	ICP-MS
Strontium	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Titanium	n.a.	n.a.	ICP-MS	n.a.	ICP-MS	ICP-MS
Zinc	ICP-MS	ICP-OES	ICP-MS	AAS	ICP-MS	ICP-MS

*Lab F did not return data for the simple gastric leach.

FIA: Flow-injection analysis

IC: Ion chromatography

ISE: Ion-selective electrode

ICP-MS: Inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry

ICP-OES: Inductively-coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry

AAS: Atomic absorption spectroscopy

UV-Vis: Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy

HG-AAS: Hydride generation atomic absorption spectroscopy

GF-AAS: Graphite furnace atomic absorption spectroscopy

Table 5 Between-laboratory mean analyte concentrations for deionized water leach at 1:20 and 1:100 extraction ratios. All concentrations in mg/kg ash.

$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Ca 554 ± 98 592 ± 36 620 ± 30 Cl 291 ± 26 300 ± 11 296 ± 42 Na 145 ± 16 151 ± 7 158 ± 12 Mg ² 32 ± 3^a 33 ± 2^a 39 ± 8^b
CI 291 ± 26 300 ± 11 296 ± 42 Na 145 ± 16 151 ± 7 158 ± 12 Mg ² 32 ± 3^a 33 ± 2^a 39 ± 8^b
Na 145 ± 16 151 ± 7 158 ± 12 Mg^2 32 ± 3^a 33 ± 2^a 39 ± 8^b
Mg^2
7
F 12±4 13±0.7 16±5
Mn 10.2±1.2 10.7±0.5 11.5±1.3
K 9.0±2.0 9.4±2.0 12±5
Sr 3.0±1.0 3.3±0.3 3.3±0.3
Al 1.3±0.6 1.4±0.6 1.4±0.6
Cu ² 1.0 ± 0.2^a 1.1 ± 0.2^a 1.6 ± 0.3^b
Ba 0.7±0.2 0.8±0.1 0.8±0.2
Zn 0.43±0.18 0.46±0.19 1.3±1.4
B 0.2±0.1 0.5±0.5
Li 0.058±0.005 0.065±0.007
Co 0.030±0.002 0.031±0.001
Ni 0.02±0.01 0.04±0.05

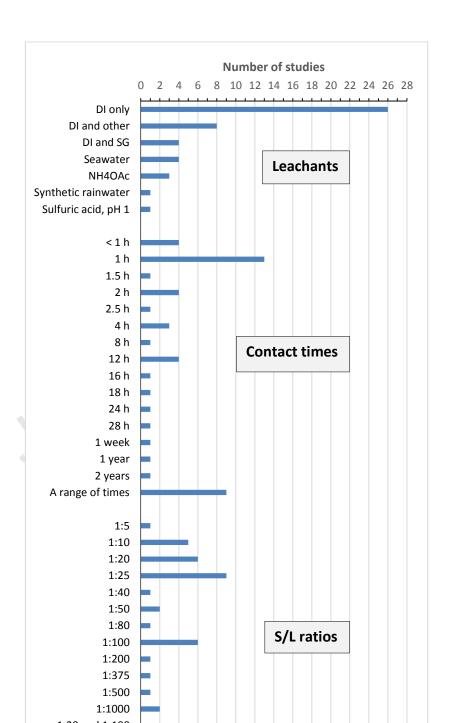
^{1:20} results for lab B omitted. Where there are blank cells, lab B did not report data for this element or concentrations were below detection limits.

² T tests (one-tailed, with two-sample equal variance) were run to compare 1:20 means (with and without lab B data included) with 1:100 means across the six laboratories. Statistical differences were found only for copper and magnesium. Superscripts a and b denote statistically different data sets.

Table 6 Between-laboratory mean analyte concentrations for 1:100 deionized (DI) water and simple gastric (SG) leaches. All concentrations in mg/kg ash. Standard deviations are only calculated for elements where at least four of the six laboratories reported concentrations above detection limits.

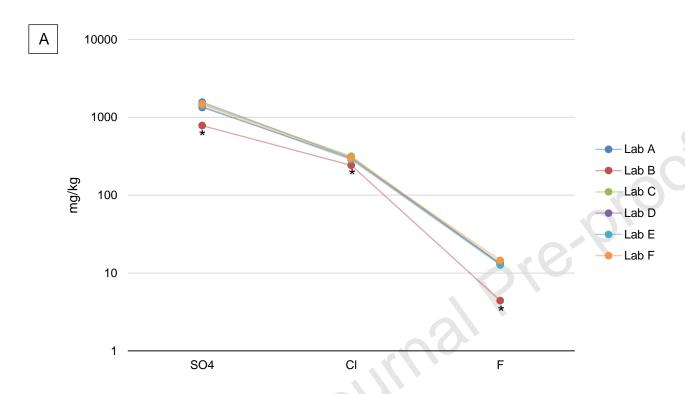
	1:100 deionized water	1:100 simple gastric	SG/DI ratio
	mg/kg		
Fe	0.4	146	365
Al	1.4±0.6	479±115	331
As	0.006	0.22±0.03	37
Cu	1.6±0.3	13±2	8.4
F	16±5	39±8	2.4
Co	0.031±0.001	0.07±0.01	2.3
Cd	0.0035	0.008	2.3
Mn	11.5±1.3	22±6	1.9
Ni	0.04±0.05	0.04	1.1
Zn	1.3±1.4	1.3±1.1	1.0
Pb	< 0.0003	0.24±0.08	<u> </u>
Cr	< 0.001	0.01	-

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Figure 1 Overview of leaching parameters (leachants, contact times and solid-to-liquid (S/L) ratios) used in ash leachate studies published from 2005 to 2019. Additional information on each study is provided in Table 2.



В

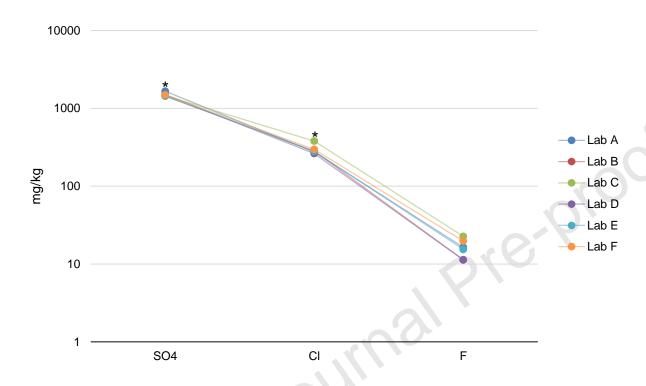
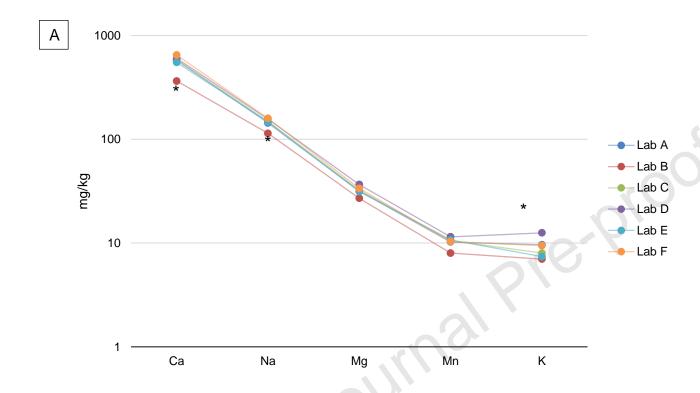


Figure 2: Water-extractable anions at ratios of (A) 1:20 and (B) 1:100. Data are reported as mg element per kg of ash (dry weight basis). Each point is the mean of three replicates for each laboratory. Error bars are the standard error of the mean. Where error bars are not visible, they are less than the size of the symbol. Asterisks identify points determined to be outliers by modified Z-score statistics.



В

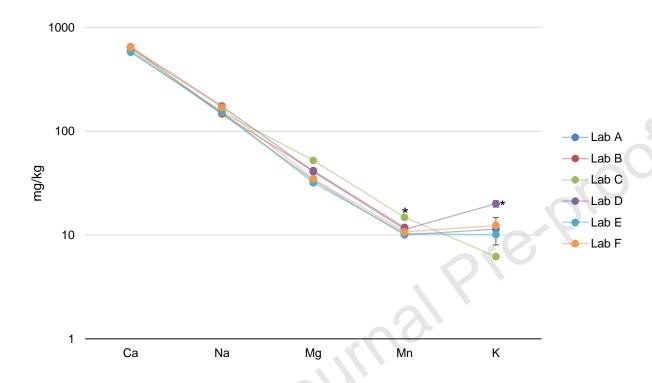
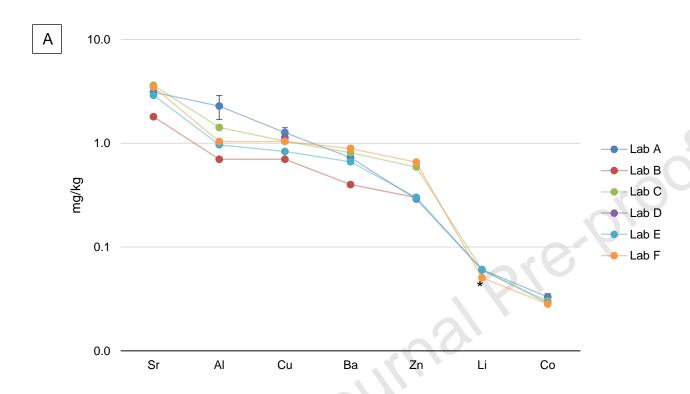


Figure 3: Water-extractable major cations at ratios of (A) 1:20 and (B) 1:100. Data are reported as mg element per kg of ash. Each point is the mean of three replicates for each laboratory. Error bars are the standard error of the mean. Where error bars are not visible, they are less than the size of the symbol. Asterisks identify points determined to be outliers by modified Z-score statistics.



В

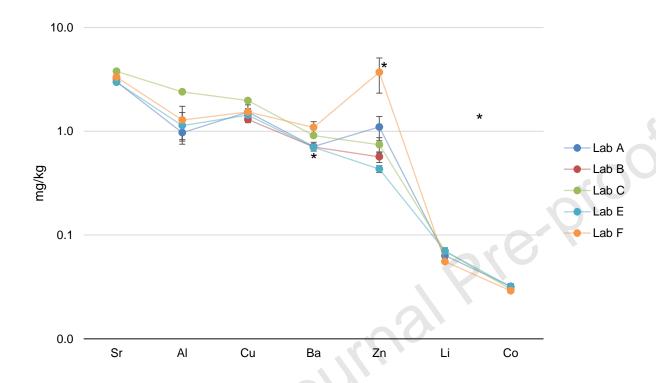


Figure 4: Water-extractable minor elements at ratios (A) 1:20 and (B) 1:100. Analytes for Lab D at 1:100 were either not attempted or were below detection limits. Data are reported as mg element per kg of ash. Each point is the mean of three replicates for each laboratory. Error bars are the standard error of the mean. Where error bars are not visible, they are less than the size of the symbol. Asterisks identify points determined to be outliers by modified Z-score statistics.

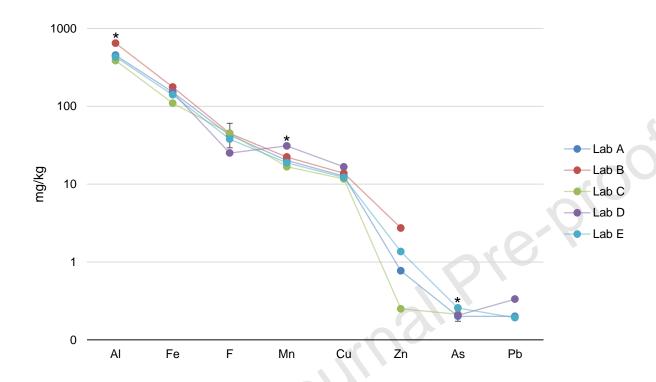


Figure 5: Simple gastric-extractable minor elements at 1:100. Lab F did not report data for the simple gastric leach. Data are reported as mg element per kg of ash. Each point is the mean of three replicates for each laboratory. Error bars are the standard error of the mean. Where error bars are not visible, they are less than the size of the symbol. Asterisks identify points determined to be outliers by modified Z-score statistics.

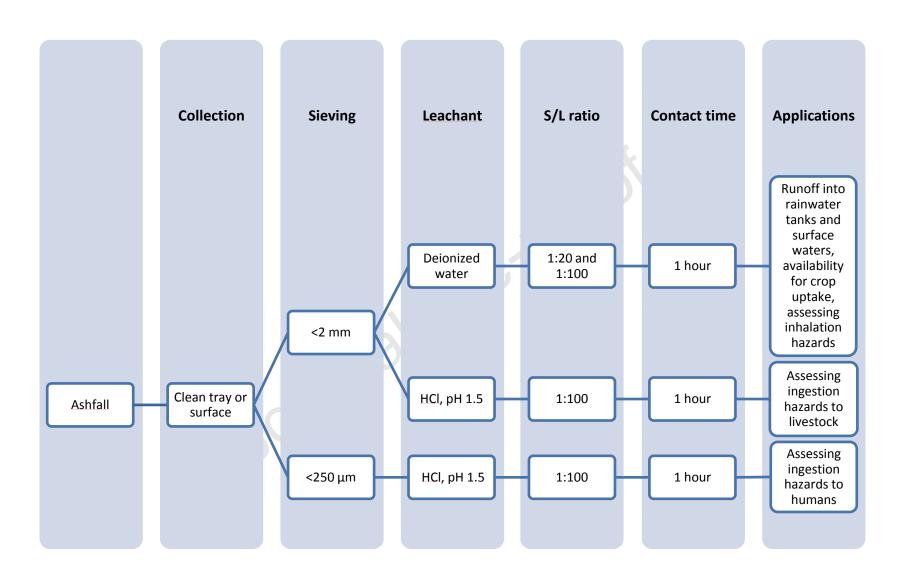
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AUTHOR STATEMENT FOR VOLGEO_2019_281

All authors: Writing – review and editing. Carol Stewart: Conceptualization; Data curation; Investigation; Methodology; Project administration; Writing original draft. David Damby: Investigation, Data curation, Writing original draft. Ines Tomasek: Investigation, Data curation. Claire Horwell: Conceptualization; Funding acquisition. Geoffrey Plumlee: Investigation; Supervision; Funding acquisition. Maria Aurora Armienta: Investigation. Maria Gabriela Ruiz Hinojosa: Investigation. Moya Appleby: Investigation. Pierre Delmelle: Investigation, Supervision. Shane Cronin. Methodology; Supervision. Christopher Ottley: Investigation. Clive Oppenheimer: Investigation. Suzette Morman: Investigation.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT FOR VOLGEO_2019_281

All authors declare no conflicts of interest.



Graphical abstract



Research highlights

- Using different leachate analysis methods has hindered the creation of a global database
- We propose a standardized protocol for ash leachate analysis
- We carry out an interlaboratory comparison study to validate this protocol
- Results indicate good comparability for most parameters measured
- Spatially and temporally-representative sampling of ash deposits is also required