Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/47365

This paper must be cited as:

Hernández Crespo, C.; Martín Monerris, M.; Ferris Juan, M.; Oñate Ema, M. (2012). Measurement of Acid Volatile Sulphide and Simultaneously Extracted Metals in Sediment from Lake Albufera (Valencia, Spain). Soil and Sediment Contamination. 21(2):176-191. doi:10.1080/15320383.2012.649374.



The final publication is available at

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15320383.2012.649374

Copyright

Taylor & Damp; Francis: STM, Behavioural Science and Public Health Titles

Measurement of Acid Volatile Sulphide and Simultaneously Extracted

2 Metals in Sediment from Lake Albufera (Valencia, Spain)

- 3 Carmen Hernández-Crespo^{†1}, Miguel Martín[†], Mariano Ferrís[†], Margarita Oñate[†]
- 4 † Universidad Politécnica de Valencia, Instituto Universitario de Ingeniería del Agua y Medio Ambiente

5

1

6 Abstract

- 7 Lake Albufera (Valencia, Spain) is part of a legally protected wetland of international
- 8 importance. However, it has deteriorated as a result of urban, industrial and farming pollution.
- 9 It is highly eutrophic, and its sediment contains persistent pollutants, such as heavy metals. In
- anoxic sediments, sulphides represent an important binding phase for heavy metals. In this
- study, acid volatile sulphide (AVS) and simultaneously extracted metals (SEM) were
- 12 analysed in surface sediment extracted from Lake Albufera; organic matter and total metals
- were also analysed. Twelve sites were sampled in each of three sampling campaigns
- 14 conducted in March and September 2007 and September 2008. The results revealed elevated
- organic matter contents varying between 6.9 and 16.7 %. The concentrations of AVS in the
- lake were high, ranging from 8.5 to 48.5 µmol/g; the lowest concentrations were found in the
- central sites. The AVS results displayed significant differences between the samples from the
- winter and summer of 2007 (p < 0.05) but not between the two summer samples. The results
- 19 obtained for SEM varied from 1.4 to 4.8 μmol/g. The difference SEM-AVS was less than zero
- 20 for all sampling locations and campaigns, indicating the existence of a sulphide pool able to
- 21 bind metals.

22

23

Keywords: heavy metals; AVS; SEM; Albufera; sediment.

¹ Email: carhercr@posgrado.upv.es

1. Introduction

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

Heavy metals are introduced into bodies of water via natural geochemical processes and human activities. Once in the aquatic system, the heavy metals can be adsorbed by suspended particles, settle and accumulate in the sediment. Accordingly, sediment plays a key role as a sink for heavy metals (and other substances such as organic matter, nutrients and pesticides), but, depending on environmental conditions, it may also act as source of the accumulated substances. Among other factors, the bioavailability of heavy metals depends on chemical speciation (Stumm and Morgan, 1996); therefore, the total metal concentration is not always correlated with its toxic effects and its bioavailability (Di Toro et al., 1992). The level of sediment contamination can be assessed via physico-chemical characterisation and the results compared with values presented in numerical sediment quality guidelines (SQGs) that have been empirically established based on biological exposure tests, field observations and other studies. These guidelines are useful as a screening tool and help to prioritise particular contaminants or areas of concern; however, it also seems advisable to include toxicity bioassays when managing dredged sediment because, among other reasons, these guidelines do not take into account the presence of ammonia, hydrogen sulphide or a lack of dissolved oxygen (Casado-Martínez et al., 2006). Another of the available methodologies is based on the theoretical equilibrium partitioning model (EqP), which takes into account the factors influencing metal bioavailability in anaerobic sediments. The EqP approach has been used to derive equilibrium partitioning sediment benchmarks (ESBs) intended to protect benthic organisms (USEPA, 2005). This model is based on the results of a water and sediment bioassay panel: water exposure bioassays with different heavy metal concentrations and forms indicated that toxic effects are correlated with divalent metal activity {Me²⁺}. In addition, several sediment exposure experiments demonstrated the equivalence of the response of aquatic organisms to metal

concentrations in interstitial water and in water-only exposure (USEPA, 2005). In anoxic sediments, sulphide formation is considered the dominant mechanism limiting the solubility of metals, although for copper the presence of organic ligands is also relevant (Förstner et al., 1990). Finally, Di Toro et al. (1992) found no significant mortality for benthic organisms when the molar concentration of sulphide present in the sediment, measured as acid volatile sulphide (AVS), exceeded the molar concentration of the heavy metals simultaneously extracted during the test (Σ SEM). The chemical basis is the rapid displacement of iron in iron monosulphides (FeS_(s)) by divalent metals (Me²⁺) to form more insoluble metal sulphides $(Me^{2+} + FeS_{(s)} \rightarrow MeS_{(s)} + Fe^{2+})$. The ΣSEM value is the sum of metals in sulphides that are less soluble than iron and manganese sulphides (commonly including NiS, ZnS, CdS, PbS and CuS), which are at least partially soluble under the test conditions, and metals solubilised from other phases. The AVS is an operationally defined term that includes the most easily liberated sulphide fraction (Allen et al., 1993). Since the development of this model, many studies have analysed AVS and SEM in conjunction with biological assays. Lee et al. (2001, 2004) examined the toxicity of trace metals to benthic organisms under more natural conditions than used in earlier bioassays by employing more moderate metal concentrations and longer exposure times. They reported that marine polychaetes accumulated metals predominately via the ingestion of contaminated sediments and that dissolved metals in pore water had a minor influence on metal bioaccumulation. Their results also supported the utility of the AVS criterion for predicting non-acute toxicity when the difference between the values of SEM and AVS (SEM-AVS) is less than zero but not for predicting the absence of metal bioaccumulation. De Jonge el al. (2010) concluded that the relation between AVS and metal accumulation in aquatic invertebrates is highly dependent on feeding behaviour and ecology. They found that AVS appeared to influence the accumulation of Cr, Cu, Cd, Zn and Pb in the epibenthic taxa but

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

not in the benthic taxa; they also found no correlation between AVS and pore-water metal concentrations. However, Speelmans et al. (2010) examined the influence of redox potential, which is related to the hydrological regime, on Cu and Zn accumulation in *Tubifex tubifex* and determined that flooded (and thus more reduced conditions) minimised the availability of metals. Another consideration is that the variability of AVS due to several factors (e.g., changes in environmental conditions, biological activity or sediment resuspension) makes it less appropriate the use of limited measurements of AVS-SEM to estimate the risk of metal toxicity (Van Griethuysen et al., 2006). Of course, although sulphide has a positive effect in that it limits the mobility of metals, it can itself be a direct cause of toxicity (De Lange et al., 2008). Despite these limitations on the use of EqP models to predict biological risk, measurements of AVS and SEM are used to characterise sediments and AVS-SEM is also employed as indicators of potential toxicity (Burton et al., 2007; Jingchun et al., 2010). In the present study, we analysed the AVS and SEM contents at different sites in Lake Albufera (Valencia, Spain) and the surrounding area. Lake Albufera is a hypertrophic, shallow body of water in which the current conditions are very different from the lake's natural ecological status. Therefore, it has been identified as a "heavily modified water body", and a programme of measures has been enacted to achieve the objectives of the WFD there (Water Framework Directive, 2000), i.e., "protection and enhancement of all artificial and heavily modified bodies of water, with the aim of achieving good ecological potential and good surface water chemical status at the latest 15 years from the date of entry into force of Directive". A previous study (Peris, 1999) analysed the concentrations of total metals and persistent organic pollutants in the lake and ran toxicity tests (using Microtox®) to analyse the sediment from this lake. The test results, in which high concentrations of heavy metals do not always coincide with toxicity, indicate that other factors can influence toxicity results.

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

The next step required is to extend our knowledge of the heavy metals in the sediment of Lake Albufera. Thus, this study aimed to measure AVS and SEM and thereby provide information regarding the current status of these metals. These parameters are also indicators of the risk that metals will be released in more labile binding phases or into pore water as a result of changes in environmental conditions; for example, due to improvements in water quality or events that lead to sediment resuspension (storms, wind, dredging or biological activity).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

Lake Albufera (Valencia, Spain) is a shallow coastal lake (with a mean water column depth of one meter) that includes several reed islands and has a surface area of ~2,400 hectares. It is located approximately 10 km southeast of Valencia and is surrounded by a metropolitan area of nearly 1.2 million people. This lake is part of the Natural Park of the Albufera, established in 1986, and was added to the Ramsar List of Wetlands of International Importance in 1990. It is also part of the Special Protection Area according to European Directive 94/24/CE.

The ecological status of the lake has seriously deteriorated since the 1970s as a result of diffuse and point pollution. The lake remains at a permanent hypertrophic level, with high phytoplankton populations (at an annual mean of 100 μg Chl-a/L, with peaks at approximately 300 μg Chl-a/L); cyanophytes predominate. As a result, dramatic daily oscillations in pH and Dissolved Oxygen (DO) concentrations frequently occur. The mean flow into the lake is approximately 5 m³/s, and the mean hydraulic residence time is 0.15 year. The tributary and lake waters are rich in sulphates, with values of approximately 4,000 μmol/L (Soria et al. 1987, Public Database of Confederación Hidrográfica del Júcar). The

lake is also vulnerable to silting; accumulations of sediment approximately one meter deep have already been found, and sediment dredging has occasionally been proposed. However, dredging has never been undertaken because it is uncertain what the collateral effects of such a step would be.

2.2. Sediment sampling

Twelve samples of surface sediment (from a depth of 10 cm) were collected from the lake area; there were nine sampling sites in the lake itself and three outside the lake (see Fig. 1). Sites 1, 2, 3 and 4 are located at the north end of the lake, where the highest urban and industrial pollution levels were detected. Sites 5 and 6 are reference sites located in the middle of the lake, near the reed islands and far from areas affected by pollutant discharge, where a lower concentration of heavy metals was previously reported (Peris, 1999). Sites 7, 10 and 11 are in the south, where agricultural pollution levels are high. The organic matter content in the sediment in the lake is mainly produced by phytoplankton decay. Two of three outside sites are irrigation channels, selected because the organic matter has an allochthonous origin: first, the port of Catarroja to the north (PC), an area seriously polluted by urban and industrial sewage; and second, the Overa channel (AO) to the south, which has been affected by agricultural and urban pollution. The third outside location is an outflow channel (Gola de Puchol, GP) which experiences changes in water quality due to its connection to the Mediterranean Sea.

Samples from all locations were taken in late winter (22 February and 5 March 2007) and in late summer (6 September 2007 and 4 September 2008) to study the effect of temperature.

The sampling took place between 9:00 am and 1:30 pm.

At each sampling site, three samples (0.5 L) were collected using a Van Veen grab sampler. To avoid contact between the sediment and the air, the sediment was immediately

transferred to 100-mL polyethylene containers without headspace that were stored in an icebox until their arrival at the laboratory, where they were frozen (-18°C) until analysis. The physicochemical parameters of the water (temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen and conductivity) were also measured from the surface down to the water-sediment interface at 20-cm intervals. Chlorophyll *a* data were obtained from the Conselleria de Medi Ambient, Aigua, Urbanisme i Habitatge (CMAAUH) public database. The sulphate concentration was measured at three sites (Sites 1, 6 and 11) to confirm that the water in the lake is rich in sulphates.

2.3. Sediment analysis

AVS and SEM were analysed using the cold-acid purge-and-trap methodology described in Allen et al. (1993), with slight modifications made to adapt it to this system. The procedure involves reacting a sediment sample (with a dry weight of approximately 1 g, handled and weighed in a nitrogen chamber) with 1 M HCl at room temperature for 40 minutes. The AVS, released during reaction, is sparged from the acid solution with nitrogen gas at a flow rate of 250 mL/min and trapped in a 0.5 M NaOH solution. The amount of sulphide trapped in the NaOH solution is measured spectrophotometrically (using the methylene blue method) at a wavelength of 670 nm. The SEM remaining in the reaction mixture is filtered through a prerinsed 0.45- μ m filter and measured using a flame atomic absorption spectrometer (Philips PU9100X). The recovery of sulphide was tested using a standardised sodium sulphide solution; the averaged percentage recovery for this system was 92 \pm 2 (n = 5). The degree of sediment moisture was determined by drying the sediment at 105°C for 24 hours, and the results were expressed in dry weight. The organic matter content was measured according to the degree of loss on ignition (LOI) for 1 h at 600°C. For the samples taken in September 2008, Total Organic Carbon (TOC) and the total concentration of heavy metals were also

determined. TOC was determined using the Walkley-Black procedure (as described in Schumacher, 2002). Total metal content was evaluated based on the digestion of the sediment (fraction $< 150 \, \mu m$) in aqua regia (according to UNE 77322); one replicate was analysed. The metal analysis procedure was checked using Certified Reference Material CRM 320 from the Community Bureau of Reference (BCR), and the data were all within 10% of the certified values: Cd (98%), Cu (100%), Ni (92%), Pb (95%) and Zn (109%). All reagents were of analytical or Suprapur quality and all materials were acid-cleaned prior to use.

2.4. Statistical analysis

The average values and standard deviations were assessed for each location based on the three replicate analyses. These average values were analysed using SPSS 15.0 software, with a nonparametric test conducted for several related samples (Friedman's test) and pairwise comparisons (Wilcoxon's test) performed to examine the variations in AVS, SEM and organic matter among the samplings; statistical significance was indicated by a probability of type I error of 5% or less ($p \le 0.05$). The averages and relative standard deviations (RSD) of the nine in-lake sample values were also calculated to evaluate the degree of spatial heterogeneity. The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to study the relationship between the sulphide data and the organic matter data.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Physico-chemical parameters of the water column

The main results indicating the physicochemical parameters of the samples are summarised below (see Table 1). The level of dissolved oxygen measured in March indicates that there was a high level of photosynthetic activity at the surface at that time (with a mean Chl-a value of approximately 161.7 µg Chl-a/L and a %DO saturation > 100). However, in September

(when the mean Chl-a value was approximately 60.1 μ g Chl-a/L), no evidence of oxygen oversaturation was found; most samples were under 96 %. A dissolved oxygen value of 34 % was found in the Catarroja Port (PC) as a result of high pollution. At each sampling point, a dissolved oxygen profile was created for each 20 cm of depth, and anoxic conditions were always observed at the sediment-water interface. As a result of the level of phytoplankton productivity, pH values up to 9.2 were observed. Conductivity in the lake was high (2,070 to 3,960 μ S/cm) but was lower at the irrigation channels (1,414 to 1,804 μ S/cm). These higher conductivity levels are the result of elevated evaporation and high residence time due to low inflows. The average concentration of sulphate was 3,750 μ mol/L, consistent with previously reported values (Soria et al., 1987).

3.2. Organic matter in sediment

The organic matter content (as shown in Fig. 2) was high in the entire sediment of the lake (at approximately 9 %) and was quite homogeneous in all but the central locations (Sites 5 and 6). The high level of organic content seems to be a function of the high concentration of phytoplankton and of the environmental conditions that normally promote net sedimentation. The maximum values in the lake were obtained at Site 5 (11.65 to 16.68 %) due to the abundant vegetal content in the samples. Outside the lake, the maximum was found at Site PC (16.54 and 16.46 %); this is attributed to the historically high wastewater loads at the site. The variations in the organic matter content of the sampling collections were on average not significant (p > 0.05). To gather new information regarding the characteristics of the sediment, the TOC was analysed based on the 2008 samples (see Table 2). The TOC of the sediment samples varied between 0.88 and 4.34 %. A dimensionless factor of 1.33 is commonly applied to TOC results to correct for incomplete oxidation (Schumacher, 2002). The conversion factor for TOC and LOI ranged from 2.1 to 3 g OM/g C for most samples

225 (excluding Sites 2, AO and GP, which had much higher rates), with an average of 2.61 g
226 OM/g C. This is slightly higher than the values cited in the literature, which range from 1.724
227 to 2.5 (Schumacher, 2002) or 2.13 (Besser et al., 2008), probably due to more complete
228 ignition.

3.3. Acid Volatile Sulphide (AVS)

The AVS concentrations at different locations in the lake were heterogeneous (Fig. 3), with a relative standard deviation (RSD) of approximately 50 % in 2007 and 35% in 2008. The minimum values were found at the central sites, Sites 5 and 6 (8.45 to 14.19 µmol AVS/g), whereas the maximum AVS was found at Site 2 (32.66 to 45.50 µmol/g). The AVS values decreased significantly (p < 0.05) from March 2007 to September 2007 at the locations in the lake, and no significant differences were observed between September 2007 and September 2008. This decrease was unexpected because AVS concentrations tend to increase with temperature (Leonard et al., 1993; Grabowski et al., 2001; Van Griethuysen et al., 2006). However, Zheng et al. (2004) also found lower summer concentrations.

In the present study, the differences in AVS between March and September can be explained by changes in the amount and the biodegradability of organic matter, given that the other main factors are not limiting. The sulphate concentration was sufficiently high that AVS production was not limited (in the review by Du Laing et al., 2009, a concentration below 30 µmol·L⁻¹ is cited as that limiting sulphate reduction), and the concentration of dissolved oxygen at the interface was so low that it did not limit sulphide production in September. In the March sampling, the levels of easily biodegradable OM could be high due to its slow consumption by bacteria during the winter because of the low temperature; in addition, the sedimentation of phytoplankton is greater than in September because its concentration in the water is higher in March. When the temperature begins to increase in February, sulphate-

reducing bacteria (SRB) can grow rapidly by feeding on this easily degradable OM reserve. In the September sampling, the easily degradable fraction may be low due to high levels of bacterial activity during the previous hot months. Therefore, the substrate may limit the growth of bacteria. Combined with the oxidation of part of the AVS measured in March under maximum oxygenation conditions, this may have given rise to the lower AVS concentrations in September. It is also worth mentioning that the results are influenced by the mobility of the sediment in the lake: because it is a shallow lagoon, the sediment can easily be resuspended and then aerated on windy days.

Figure 4 shows the OM data versus the AVS data. We observed a positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.72$) between the two variables at nine of the twelve sites, in accordance with Di Toro (2001) and Hernández-Crespo et al. (2010), which indicates that sulphide production is related to the presence of organic matter. It must be highlighted that the relationship is strongly determined by outside sites. Sites 5, 6 and 2 are exceptions and were not included in the correlation. A combination of factors may explain the unique nature of Sites 5 and 6. First, the reeds growing near these sites promote the oxidation of AVS. The cause is twofold: the roots release oxygen, and evapotranspiration induces an increase in the flow of dissolved species (e.g., dissolved oxygen) from the overlying water into the sediment (Choi et al., 2006). Second, the samples from these locations include significant amounts of vegetal organic matter with decay rates of approximately 0.0027 d^{-1} (Longhi et al. 2008); this rate is much lower than the rate of the fast-decay fraction (0.35 d^{-1} , Di Toro, 2001).

At Site 2, which is located at the mouth of the Massanassa dry creek (an ephemeral stream), the highest AVS level may be due to factors other than simple organic matter content, such as grain size or organic matter reactivity. This stream reaches peak flows of 538 m³/s (10/24/2000), with high velocities that can modify the sediment in its surroundings (TYPSA, 2004). When the lake is flooded, a large volume of new suspended and settleable

solids (mainly clays) replaces the previous OM deposits (first the superficial and rapidly decaying deposits and then, depending on the intensity of the flood, the deeper and more refractory deposits). When the flooding ends and the water returns to the hypertrophic level, a thin layer of phytoplanktonic OM begins to spread over the sediment surface. The overall concentration of OM is low, but it is fresh and readily biodegradable. Consequently, sulphide production increases.

The fact that the outer sites (AO, PC and GP) showed higher AVS levels is also related to the organic matter decay rate: readily biodegradable organic matter is present at these locations (wastewater origins in AO and PC) and in the outflow channel (GP) because phytoplankton from the lake can decay quickly when they comes into contact with highly saline seawater. At these sites, the level of AVS increased from March to September of 2007, reflecting the effect of temperature, and decreased from September 2007 to September 2008, showing the influence of OM type.

3.4. Simultaneously Extracted Metals (SEM) and Total Metals

The Σ SEM and Σ Total Metals concentrations are shown in Fig. 5. Based on all the sampling campaigns, the Σ SEM values in the lake ranged from 1.39 to 4.83 μ mol/g. These results uniformly indicate high spatial variability (RSD: 35%). However, Site 11 presented much higher Σ SEM results than the remaining sites due to its high concentration of Zn. In fact, when this site was excluded, the RSD decreased to 22%. Among the data for the external sites, the extremely high values for Σ SEM found at Site PC are especially important to note; they are seven times higher than the overall average levels at the lake. Finally, temporal variations in Σ SEM were not significant inside the lake; however, the outside sites show evidence of a decreasing temporal trend.

Based on the total metal results, the sites in the north zone (Sites 1 to 4) and Site 11 were the most polluted, undoubtedly because these zones have historically received point and diffuse loads with heavy metals. The reference sites (5 and 6) showed Σ Total Metals results significantly lower than those of sites from the north zone (1 to 4). However, this distinction was not as clear based on the Σ SEM results. The Σ SEM values for Sites 5 and 6 were not much lower than those of the north zone because the extraction percentages (Σ SEM/ Σ Total Metal×100) in the north zone were considerably lower than in the remaining sites. Because of these differences, we concluded that Σ SEM should not be used as an indicator of pollution levels. Finally, we can establish two zones that are clearly different with regard to their extraction percentages: the north zone (1–4) at 62% and the central-south zone (5–7 and 10–11) at 85%.

The mean extraction percentages (SEM_{Me}/Total Metal×100) were Cd, 57%; Cu, 3%; Ni,

The mean extraction percentages (SEM_{Me}/Total Metal×100) were Cd, 57%; Cu, 3%; Ni, 70%; Pb, 84%; and Zn, 95%. These are similar to the average results obtained in other studies: 71–81% for Cd, 1–39% for Cu, 35–88% for Ni, 76–82% for Pb and 40–67% for Zn (Peng et al. 2004; Fang et al. 2005; Besser et al. 2008). These high extraction percentages (for all metals except for copper) indicate that heavy metals in the lake are mainly associated with AVS (Peng et al. 2004; Fang et al. 2005) or other more reactive phases.

The SEM_{Me} results are shown in Table 3. Among the metals studied, Zn and Ni had the most representative values for Σ SEM, with 76% and 17%, respectively, whereas the results for Pb, Cd and Cu were less important in this regard. The percentages were similar for total metal concentrations except for copper, which was more representative in total metal (18%) than in SEM (3%). These results may be explained by copper's high affinity to other binding phases, such as organic matter (Allen et al., 1993; Fang et al., 2005), or by the fact that CuS is not completely dissolved in the process (Allen et al., 1993).

3.4. Differences between SEM and AVS

The differences between SEM and AVS are shown in Fig. 6. The values for Σ SEM were smaller than those for AVS for all sampling sites and dates. The differences between SEM and AVS in the lake ranged from -6.08 to -46.55 μ mol/g, with a large degree of spatial variation (RSD: 57 % in 2007 and 39 % in 2008). The spatial and temporal variation in SEM–AVS has been linked to AVS concentrations because these values are considerably greater than those for SEM. The sites with lower AVS contents (Sites 5 and 6) were closest to exceeding the capacity of metal binding by sulphides, with molar sulphide excess varying between -6.08 and -11.97 μ mol/g. In contrast, the site with the highest SEM concentration (PC) had a molar excess of AVS (-113.18 and -165.44 μ mol/g). However, due to the dynamic nature of sulphide and the continued disturbance of the sediment by the movement of boats, the excessive heavy metal content of this location requires special attention.

Although the differences between SEM and AVS were less than zero, we cannot fully assess the risk of toxic metals because to do so we would need to use additional parameters such as biological accumulation tests or bioassays. Nevertheless, we can confirm the presence of a sulphide pool acting to bind metals, although this does not mean that metals are necessarily bound to sulphides; the extraction method is not selective, and metals bound to other phases can be extracted, including carbonates and Fe-Mn-oxyhydroxides (Fang et al., 2005).

4. Conclusions

It is known that the total metal concentration in sediments from Lake Albufera is high. We now report that this sediment also contains significant concentrations of sulphides (8.5–48.5 µmol/g) due to the high levels of organic matter in the sediment (6.9–16.7%) and sulphates in the tributary waters. Inside the lake, AVS levels decreased between first two sample periods

but not from the second to the third, when they even increased at some sites. These results indicate that the situation is stable with a certain degree of variation that is due mainly to changes in temperature and organic matter reactivity. In each of the three sampling campaigns, there was sulphide available to bind metals; the differences between SEM and AVS were less than zero. This becomes important when consider what precautions should be taken in future sediment sampling or biological tests. It also allows us to predict the consequences of dredging activities: a strong oxygen demand and the possible release of metals or their transition into other, more labile phases. Total metal content was high at two sites in the lake (Sites 1 and 11) and very high in the PC channel. Despite the efforts to reduce pollution levels in the lake, there are still significant pollution loads, as can be seen at sites like the PC channel, which is a potential source of heavy metals and nutrients.

360

361

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

References

- Allen H.E., Fu G., Deng B. 1993. Analysis of Acid Volatile Sulfide (AVS) and Simultaneously Extracted Metals
- 363 (SEM) for the estimation of potential toxicity in aquatic sediments. Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 12, 1441-
- 364 1453.
- 365 Besser J.M., Brumbaugh W.G., Ivey C.D., Ingersoll C.G., Moran P.W. 2008. Biological and chemical
- 366 caharacterization of metal bioavailability in sediments from lake Roosevelt, Columbia river, Washington,
- 367 USA. Arch. Environ. Contam. Toxicol. 54, 557-570.
- Burton G.A., Green A., Baudo R., Forbes V., Nguyen L.T.H., Janssen C.R., Kukkonen J., Leppanen M., Maltby
- L., Soares A., Kapo K., Smith P., Dunning J. 2007. Characterizing sediment acid volatile sulphide
- 370 concentrations in European streams. Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 26, 1-12.
- 371 Casado-Martínez M.C., Buceta J.L., Belzunce M.J., Del Valls T.A. 2006. Using sediment quality guidelines for
- dredged material management in commercial ports from Spain. Environ. Int. 32, 388-396.
- Choi J.H., Park S.S., Jaffé P.R. 2006. Simulating the dynamics of sulphur species and zinc in wetland sediments.
- 374 Ecol Model 199, 315-333.

- De Jonge M., Blust R., Bervoets L. 2010. The relation between Acid Volatile Sulfides (AVS) and metal
- accumulation in aquatic invertebrates: Implications of feeding behaviour and ecology. Environ. Pollut. 158,
- 377 1381-1391.
- De Lange H.J., Van Griethuysen C., Koelmans A.A. 2008. Sampling method, storage and pretreatment of
- sediment affect AVS concentrations with consequences for bioassay responses. Environ. Pollut. 151, 243-
- 380 251.
- 381 Directive 2000/60/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council establishing a framework for the
- Community action in the field of water policy. EU Water Framework Directive. OJ L 327 on 22 December
- 383 2000.
- Di Toro, D.M.; Mahony, J.D.; Hansen D.J.; Scott, K.J.; Carlson, A.R.; Ankley, G.T. 1992. Acid volatile sulfide
- predicts the acute toxicity of Cadmium and Nickel in sediments. Environ. Sci. Technol. 26, 96-101.
- Di Toro D.M. 2001. Sediment flux modeling. John Wiley & Sons Intersciences Series, New York.
- Du Laing G., Rinklebe J., Vandecasteele B., Meers E., Tack F.M.G. 2009. Trace metal behaviour in estuarine
- and riverine floodplain soils and sediments: A review. Sci. Total Environ. 407, 3972-3985.
- 389 Fang T., Xiangdong L., Zhang G. 2005. Acid volatile sulfide and simultaneously extracted metals in the
- sediment cores of the Pearl River Estuary South China. Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf. 61, 420-431.
- Förstner U., Ahlf W., Calmano W., Kersten M., Schoer J. 1990. Assessment of metal mobility in sludges and
- solid wastes. In, Metal speciation in the environment. Springer-Verlag Berlín Heidelberg New York.
- 393 Grabowski L.A., Houpis J.L., Woods W.I., Johnson K.A. 2001. Seasonal bioavailability of sediment-associated
- heavy metals along the Mississippi river floodplain. Chemosphere 45, 643-651.
- 395 Hernández-Crespo C., Martín M., Ferrís M., Oñate M., Torán M. 2010. Spatial variation of Acid Volatile Sulfide
- 396 (AVS) and Simultaneously Extracted Metals (SEM) in sediments from Beniarrés, Amadorio and Guadalest
- reservoirs (Alicante, Spain). 20th SETAC Europe Annual Meeting. Science and Technology for
- 398 Environmental Protection, Seville (Spain).
- 399 Jingchun L., Chongling Y., Spencer K.L., Ruifeng Z., Haoliang L. 2010. The distribution of acid-volatile sulfide
- and simultaneously extracted metals in sediments from a mangrove forest and adjacent mudflat in
- 401 Zhangjiang, China. Mar. Pollut. Bull. doi:10.1016/j.marpolbul.2010.03.029
- 402 Lee J.S., Lee B.G., Yoo H., Koh C.H., Luoma S.N. 2001. Influence of reactive sulfide (AVS) and supplementary
- food on Ag, Cd and Zn bioaccumulation in the marine polychaete Neanthes arenaceodentata. Mar. Ecol.
- 404 Prog. Ser. 216, 129-140.

- Lee J.S., Lee B.G., Luoma S.N., Yoo H. 2004. Importance of equilibration time in the partitioning and toxicity
- of zinc in spiked sediment bioassays. Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 23, 65-71.
- 407 Leonard E.N., Mattson V.R., Benoit D.A., Hoke R.A., Ankley G.T. 1993. Seasonal variation of acid volatile
- sulphide concentration in sediment cores from three northeastern Minnesota lakes. Hydrobiologia 271, 87-
- 409 95.
- 410 Longhi D., Bartoli M., Viaroli P. 2008. Decomposition of four macrophytes in wetland sediments: Organic
- 411 matter and nutrient decay and associated benthic processes. Aquat Bot 89, 303-310.
- Peng S.H., Wang W.X, Li X., Yen Y.F. 2004 Metal partitioning in river sediments measured by sequential
- extraction and biomimetic approaches. Chemosphere 57, 839-851.
- 414 Peris E. 1999. Caracterización de los materiales de fondo del lago de la Albufera evaluación del nivel de
- 415 aterramiento y caracterización mineralógica de los materiales así como de la carga contaminante persistente
- 416 residente en el lago. Departamento de Ingeniería de la Construcción. Universidad Politécnica de Valencia.
- 417 Public database of Condederación Hidrográfica del Júcar (http://www.chj.gob.es/Redesdecalidad/red_ica.aspx).
- Schumacher B.A. 2002. Methods for the determination of total organic carbon (TOC) in soils and sediments.
- 419 PhD. Ecological Risk Assessment Support Center. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Las Vegas, US.
- 420 Soria J.M., Miracle M.R., Vicente E. 1987. Aporte de nutrientes y eutrofización de la Albufera de Valencia.
- 421 Limnetica 3, 227-242.
- 422 Speelmans M., Lock K., Vanthuyne D.R.J., Hendrickx F., Du Laing G., Tack F.M.G., Janssen C.R. 2010.
- 423 Hydrological regime and salinity alter the bioavailability of Cu and Zn in wetlands. Environ. Pollut. 158,
- 424 1870-1875.
- Stumm W., Morgan J.J. 1996. Aquatic Chemistry, Chemical Equilibria and Rates in Natural Waters. 3rd Ed John
- Wiley & Sons Intersciences Series, New York.
- 427 Técnica y Proyectos S.A. (TYPSA) 2004. Estudio para el desarrollo sostenible de l' Albufera de Valencia.
- 428 Confederación Hidrográfica del Júcar. Ministerio de Medio Ambiente.
- 429 UNE 77322:2003 Calidad del suelo. Extracción de elementos traza solubles en *agua regia* (ISO 11466:1995).
- 430 U.S.EPA. 2005. Procedures for the derivation of Equilibrium Partitioning Sediment Benchmarks (ESBs) for the
- protection of benthic organisms: metal mixtures (Cadmium, Copper, Lead, Nickel, Silver and Zinc). EPA-
- 432 600-R-02-011. Office of Research and Development. Washington DC 20460.

433 Van Griethuysen C., De Lange H.J., Van den Heuji M., De Bies S.C., Gilissen F., Koelmans A.A. 2006. 434 Temporal dynamics of AVS and SEM in sediment of shallow freshwater floodplain lakes. Appl. Geochem. 435 21, 632-642. 436 Zheng L., Xu X.Q., Xie P. 2004. Seasonal and vertical distributions of Acid Volatile Sulfide and metal 437 bioavailability in a shallow subtropical lake in China. Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol. 72, 326-334. 438 439 440 **Figure legends:** 441 442 443 **Fig. 1.** Location of study area and Lake Albufera sampling sites. 444 Fig. 2. Mean organic matter content, expressed in %, at different sampling sites on different 445 dates. Error bars represent the standard deviations in triplicate analyses. 446 **Fig. 3.** Mean AVS concentration, expressed in μmol/g, at different sampling sites on different 447 dates. Error bars represent the standard deviations in triplicate analyses. The secondary axis is 448 for the PC site. 449 Fig. 4. Correlation between AVS concentrations (μmol/g) and organic matter contents (%) in 450 surface sediments from Lake Albufera. The equation applies to all sites except for Sites 2, 5 451 and 6. 452 **Fig. 5.** Mean Σ SEM and Σ Total Metals concentration, expressed in μ mol/g, at different 453 sampling sites on different dates. Error bars represent the standard deviations in triplicate 454 analyses. The secondary axis is for the PC site. 455 Fig. 6. Differences between SEM and AVS at different sampling sites on different dates. The 456 secondary axis is for the PC site. 457





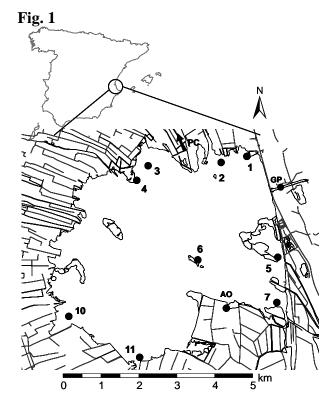


Fig. 2

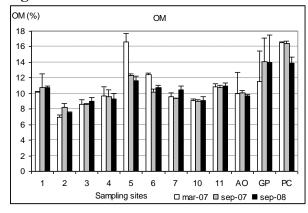


Fig. 3

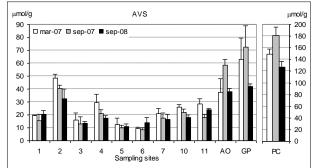
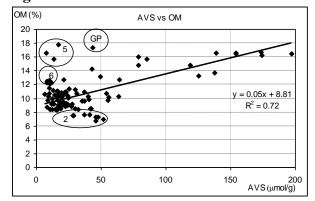


Fig. 4



Fi

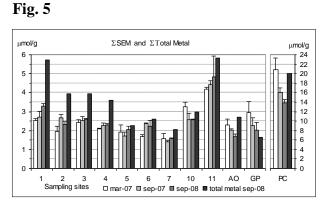


Fig. 6

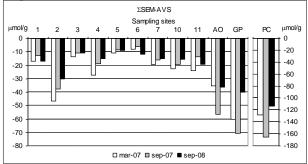


Table 1. Values at the top of the water column (0–20 cm deep) for T, pH, Chl-*a*, conductivity and percentage of saturation of dissolved oxygen measured during both sample collection periods: March (Mar.) and September (Sep.). Chl-*a* data were extracted from a public database of CMAAUH. N.a.: not available.

	T (°C)			рН			Phytoplankton (μg Chl-a/L)		Conductivity (µS/cm)			% Sat. OD		
Site	Mar. 07	Sep. 07	Sep. 08	Mar. 07	Sep. 07	Sep. 08	Mar. 07	Sep. 07	Mar. 07	Sep. 07	Sep. 08	Mar. 07	Sep. 07	Sep. 08
1	18.2	24.6	24.0	8.0	7.6	7.5	101.0	33.6	2240	2800	2210	88.4	70.7	79.1
2	17.3	24.4	23.7	8.7	7.6	7.6	101.0	33.6	2480	2910	2240	121.9	80.7	94.9
3	16.8	25.2	24.3	8.7	7.9	7.6	116.7	96.4	2820	3370	2340	108.9	102.1	57.1
4	16.3	25.2	24.0	9.2	8.2	7.2	157.0	62.2	2460	3660	2740	124.6	91.3	60.9
5	12.3	24.6	25.4	8.6	7.9	8.6	N.a.	N.a.	2540	3550	2280	132.4	87.2	78.4
6	15.7	24.3	25.7	8.9	8.1	8.3	253.2	93.7	2460	3870	2360	104.7	83.2	71.9
7	12.5	24.0	25.9	8.7	7.7	8.1	166.5	59.4	2430	2790	2180	129.6	74.2	96.4
10	16.0	24.8	25.0	9.1	8.2	7.7	251.9	49.4	2430	3960	2270	129.2	105.3	54.1
11	15.9	24.7	24.7	8.9	8.2	7.7	146.0	52.5	2420	3520	2070	116.2	102.8	91.8
AO	13.6	24.0	24.8	7.8	7.4	7.4	N.a.	N.a.	1638	1520	1414	92.5	59.9	55.6
PC	14.8	21.2	25.6	7.9	7.1	7.5	N.a.	N.a.	1804	1556	2490	88.1	33.9	75.7
GP	12.4	22.3	27.4	8.3	8.4	8.7	N.a.	N.a.	2710	2430	4010	110.8	124.4	110.3

Table 2. Total Organic Carbon (TOC) (% C), TOC corrected and conversion factor for OM and TOC.

	TOC	TOC·1.33	Factor
Site	(%)	(%C)	(g OM/g C)
1	3.20	4.26	2.6
2	0.88	1.17	6.4
3	2.42	3.22	2.9
4	2.65	3.52	2.9
5	4.34	5.77	2.1
6	3.28	4.36	2.5
7	2.67	3.55	2.8
10	3.13	4.16	2.3
11	2.70	3.59	3.0
AO	1.90	2.53	3.8
PC	4.33	5.76	2.4
GP	1.70	2.26	4.5

Table 3. Simultaneously Extracted Metals (SEM_{Me} , mg/kg) at different sampling sites on different dates. M: mean, SD: standard deviation (n = 3). N.a.: not available.

Sit	Site sampling:		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10	11	AO	PC	GP
Cu	Mar. 07	M	3.58	0.59	0.85	1.01	1.74	1.36	1.17	1.39	1.86	1.28	12.16	1.88
		SD	0.39	0.11	0.05	0.31	0.52	0.09	0.1	0.22	0.18	0.23	0.15	0.43
	Sep. 07	M	3.08	11.3	11.46	10.33	12.17	11.13	7.78	8.36	6.75	6.82	37.78	24.39
		SD	2.15	1.49	1.03	0.61	1.1	0.34	0.19	1.68	0.65	1.02	6.56	6.77
	Sep. 08	M	4.17	0.55	2.55	0.68	0.83	0.78	0.67	0.70	0.64	0.55	0.79	0.83
		SD	2.76	0.00	0.21	0.03	0.03	0.11	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.24
Zn	Mar. 07	M	134.25	105.98	131.04	111.16	91.37	95.12	79.26	191.79	255.36	138.33	1023.52	174.19
		SD	7.75	14.33	11.37	3.41	17.59	6.05	14.66	11.86	8.35	18.34	137.45	36.3
	Sep. 07	M	130.43	136.87	112.52	100.31	70.92	89.04	52.14	108.55	233.66	85.64	756.74	87.07
		SD	17.15	14.3	9.1	9.81	8.31	3.32	4.13	10.1	10.83	4.85	30.84	18.99
	Sep. 08	M	168.99	124.22	135.85	113.82	93.68	101.4	70.60	134.03	272.23	83.76	690.13	110.52
		SD	4.18	8.75	6.23	0.81	10.07	22.49	0.34	1.49	68.39	6.79	9.66	29.04
	Mar. 07	M	15.32	12.13	15.84	16.55	23.85	6.79	16.56	13.85	9.29	6.39	178.55	9.38
Ni		SD	1.66	1.67	1.54	0.11	5.8	0.43	3.55	2.16	0.89	1.13	62.05	2.14
	Sep. 07	M	30.77	21.92	34.38	30.01	21.5	45.86	24.87	41.86	40.59	32	119.67	28.46
		SD	1.84	3.96	5.38	1.46	6.18	1.72	2.75	10.28	2.48	2.61	18.97	4.68
	Sep. 08	M	26.55	18.27	21.12	26.02	32.45	33.85	23.45	27.01	32.08	18.93	93.54	13.81
		SD	12.17	0.70	2.51	2.71	9.94	5.36	1.42	0.61	2.99	0.93	29.70	3.97
Pb	Mar. 07	M	31.83	22.98	28.49	18.14	17.41	13.59	11.75	13.85	18.57	12.77	397.63	18.76
		SD	1.47	5.37	5.43	4.41	5.22	0.86	1.03	2.16	1.78	2.25	27.85	4.28
	Sep. 07	M	29.94	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	N.a.	385.5	N.a.
		SD	1.91										24.45	
	Sep. 08	M	35.71	23.47	21.50	19.60	13.96	15.96	13.00	10.82	20.64	15.08	349.39	13.14
		SD	1.44	0.64	2.87	0.40	0.51	1.26	4.12	0.44	3.75	0.66	8.68	3.16
Cd	Mar. 07	M	0.52	0.3	0.85	0.71	0.87	0.68	0.59	0.69	0.93	0.64	1.16	0.94
		SD	0.18	0.05	0.05	0.22	0.26	0.04	0.05	0.11	0.09	0.11	0.16	0.21
	Sep. 07	M	0.99	0.73	0.99	0.92	0.65	1.04	0.95	1.04	1.01	0.44	1.09	0.62
		SD	0.15	0.01	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.06	0.01	0.54	0.2
	Sep. 08	M	0.90	0.66	1.14	1.13	0.93	1.23	1.12	1.31	1.44	0.98	1.57	0.92
		SD	0.07	0.00	0.1	0.17	0.06	0.21	0.06	0.17	0.16	0.12	0.08	0.17