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10 **Metal contamination in sediments of dam reservoirs: A multi-faceted generic risk**  
11 **assessment**

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35 **Abstract**

36 The quality of bottom sediments is a key factor for many functions of dam reservoirs, which  
37 include water supply, flood control and recreation. The aim of the study was to combine  
38 different pollution indices in a critical generic risk assessment of metal contamination of bottom  
39 sediments. Both geochemical and ecological indices reflected that sediment contamination was  
40 dominated by Zn, Pb and Cd. The ecological risk indices suggested a high risks for all three  
41 metals, whereas human health risks were high for Pb and Cd. An occasional local contamination  
42 of sediments with Cr and Ni was revealed, although at levels not expected to cause concerns  
43 about potential ecological or health risk. Sediments from the Rybnik reservoir for Cu only  
44 revealed a high potential ecological risk. EF turned to be as being the most useful, whereas TRI  
45 ( $\sum$ TRI) was the most important ecological index. All multi-element indices suggested similar  
46 trends, indicating that Zn, Pb and Cd taken altogether had the greatest impact on the level of  
47 sediment contamination and posed the greatest potential ecological and health risks to  
48 organisms. The use of sequential BCR extraction and ecotoxicity analyses allowed for a multi-  
49 faceted generic risk assessment of metals in sediments of dam reservoirs.

50 **Keywords:** sediment quality, contamination indices, ecotoxicity tests , metal fractionation,  
51 ecological and human health risk

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### 73 **1. Introduction**

74 The quality of bottom sediments is a key factor for many functions of dam reservoirs,  
75 which include water supply, flood control and recreation (Votruba and Broža, 1989). A  
76 comprehensive risk assessment and the appraisal of current contamination levels and effects is  
77 important for a sustainable management of these reservoirs that safeguards their long term  
78 functioning while protecting environmental and public health. Risk is defined as the probability  
79 of harmful effects on living organisms exposed to harmful factor(s) (Chapman and Wang, 2000;  
80 EPA 2007). From this definition, a variety of risk assessments procedures exist, from site-  
81 specific risk assessments to national criteria setting and ranking, which include an equal  
82 diversity of assessment tools (EPA 2007).

83 Currently, a number of geochemical and ecological indices are being used to assess to  
84 what extent the quality of bottom sediments might be affected by their metal contents.

85 Geochemical indices aim at assessing whether element accumulation is dominated by natural  
86 processes or importantly affected by anthropogenic activities (Costa-Böddeker et al., 2017;  
87 Bern et al., 2019; Castro et al., 2021). Ecological indices support the overall assessment of  
88 sediment contamination levels in generically evaluating the potential detrimental effects of  
89 metals contained in sediments to aquatic organisms (Baran et al., 2016; Nawrot et al. 2021).  
90 The contaminants present in the aquatic environment not only disturb the aquatic ecosystem:  
91 some pollutants (e.g. Cd, Pb, Hg, Zn, Cu) might readily accumulate in aquatic, benthic and  
92 pelagic organisms, and thus the trophic web and threaten environmental and human health  
93 (Jafarabadi et al., 2017; Li et al., 2020; Yüksel et al., 2022). Many of the geochemical and  
94 ecological indices, the former especially, are based on a rather traditional approach, i.e. they  
95 consider total metal content only without consideration of different reactivities between  
96 different binding forms, or biological/ecotoxicological effects. Other indices, such as the  
97 Sediment Quality Guidelines (SQG), have been supplemented with biological aspects  
98 (MacDonald et al., 2000; Kwok et al., 2014), allowing the assessment of potential risks related  
99 to the presence of substances harmful to bottom sediment-dwelling organisms. However, also  
100 these continue to be based upon total content of metals. These may inadequately reflect *in situ*  
101 conditions since the reactivity, mobility and bioavailability of trace elements depends on their  
102 chemical speciation, which in turn is strongly linked to the physicochemical environment and  
103 properties of the sediment (Tack and Verloo, 1995; Du Laing et al., 2009; Dendievel et al.,  
104 2022). Fractionation analysis through sequential chemical extractions allows to distinguish  
105 fractions of the total contents according to extractability. Easily extractable pools can be  
106 distinguished from more strongly bound forms that are less mobile and thus potentially less  
107 hazardous to the environment (Du Laing et al., 2009; Baran et al., 2019). For these reasons,  
108 fractionation is often considered as a useful method when it comes to exploring the potential

109 availability and mobility of metals (Namieśnik and Rabajczyk, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014; Liang  
110 et al., 2017).

111         Nonetheless, fractionation analysis does not necessarily closely relate to the effective  
112 bioavailability of metals and their interaction with living organisms (Tack and Verloo, 1995);  
113 it rather informs about their potential bioavailability (Gao et al., 2018; Baran and Tarnawski,  
114 2015; Al-Mur, 2020). Bioassays, in contrast, allow for a much more direct assessment of the  
115 potential hazards resulting from the presence of chemicals in bottom sediments. Many authors  
116 believe that bioassays allow to evaluate the extent to which metals in sediments negatively  
117 affect this environment, and therefore whether they are a stress factor for organisms (Jarque et  
118 al., 2016; Heise et al., 2020). In recent decades, the interest in bioassays as tools to examine  
119 metal contamination of bottom sediments has steadily been growing (Martín et al., 2010; Singh  
120 et al., 2017; Szara et al., 2020; Goksøyr et al., 2021). Nowadays, several bioassays are used as  
121 monitoring tools to assess ecotoxicity in sediments. They include representatives of all trophic  
122 levels: algae or plants as producers, invertebrates or vertebrates as consumers, and bacteria as  
123 decomposers (Keiter et al., 2010; Heise et al., 2020). They indicate an actual toxicity, but do  
124 not allow to identify the cause of observed toxic responses, hence the need to combine them  
125 with complementary risk assessment methods (Materu and Heise, 2019; Heise et al., 2020).

126         The aim of the study was to combine tools detailed above in a multi-faceted generic  
127 generic risk assessment of metal contamination (Zn, Cu, Ni, Cr, Pb, Cd) of bottom sediments  
128 in dam reservoirs in Southern Poland, with emphasis on their strengths and weaknesses. The  
129 study assessed: (1) the contamination levels and associated risks according to geochemical and  
130 ecological indices; (2) the mobility and potential bioavailability of metals based on metal  
131 chemical fractionation; (3) the ecotoxicity using bioassays; and (4) the correlations between  
132 metals, sediment parameters and the different indices using Principal Component Analysis  
133 (PCA).

## 134 2. Materials and methods

### 135 2.1. Study area and sampling

136 Bottom sediments were collected from 11 dam reservoirs located in southern Poland  
137 (Figure 1). The reservoirs differed in size, operation time, catchment area and dominant  
138 anthropogenic pressure (Table 1).

139 The Rożnów dam reservoir is one of the largest water reservoirs in Poland. It serves to  
140 mitigate peak flood events, water storage, generate electricity, and develop local tourism (Szara  
141 et al., 2020). It is subject to an intensive silting process, especially in its inlet part (large shallows  
142 and islands). During 55 years of operation, the Rożnów reservoir collected all contaminants  
143 flowing in from the related catchment (industrial, agricultural and craft contaminants, especially  
144 from tanneries and tourist resort) (Szara-Bąk et al., 2021).

145 The other „large” reservoirs are facilities with a capacity greater than 1 million m<sup>3</sup>.  
146 They fulfil many functions: flood control, electricity production, water supply (Besko,  
147 Rzeszów), industrial (Rybnik) and recreational applications. The Rybnik reservoir is located in  
148 Silesia, a highly industrialised part of Poland; the water of this reservoir is used by a coal-fired  
149 power plant, and the quality of the sediments has been influenced by atmospheric pollutions  
150 (Baran et al., 2019, 2020). The Rzeszów and Besko reservoirs are also located in an industrial  
151 area, in the south-eastern part of the country, which exhibits a relatively lower degree of  
152 industrialisation than Silesia (Tarnawski and Baran, 2018). Contamination of the sediments of  
153 the Rzeszów reservoir may be expected from inflows from the city of Rzeszów and from  
154 agricultural land (catchment over 1800 km<sup>2</sup>). An important task of the Besko reservoir is to  
155 equalize low flows, water supply and recreation. The degree of capacity loss does not exceed  
156 10-15% for the Rybnik and Besko reservoirs, while for the Rzeszów reservoir it is over 60%.  
157 The Rzeszów reservoir is very shallow, and the settlements build large islands. The reservoir is  
158 subject to limited remediation works as it is a part of the Natura 2000 protected area.

159           The remaining reservoirs have small to very small capacities. All these reservoirs  
160 perform important local functions, improving soil and water conditions, increasing the  
161 availability of water for plants, and enabling recreation. Located on small rivers or streams,  
162 they counteract strong bottom erosion. The process of losing the capacity of reservoirs causes  
163 them to lose their value and function. Their renovation has been frequent, and has occasionally  
164 included draining the water. Because they are located in rural areas, they are exposed to an  
165 uncontrolled inflow of nutrients (sewage) and contaminants from agriculture (Baran and  
166 Tarnawski, 2013). Many of them have a problem of eutrophication. Earlier investigation  
167 highlighted contamination of the sediments of these reservoirs with trace elements, PAHs,  
168 dioxins, and PCBs as a result of anthropogenic impacts (industry, agriculture), which  
169 constitutes a problem when considering methods of management (Baran et al., 2019, 2020,  
170 2021). It has also been shown that increased contents in trace elements may result from natural  
171 deposits, as in the case of the Chechło reservoir which is located in the neighbourhood of Zn  
172 and Pb ores (Koniarz et al., 2022).

173           Sampling of sediments was described in detail in our previous studies (Baran and  
174 Tarnawski 2015; Tarnawski and Baran, 2018). Samples were collected from each reservoir  
175 using an Ekman grab, from three designated locations: inlet (backwater), middle, and outlet  
176 (near the dam) and from a sediment depth of 0-15 cm (Figure 1). Six samples were taken from  
177 each depth zone and pooled to average the sediment properties in samples representative of a  
178 given zone; approximately 2-kg-samples were separated for testing. All sediment samples were  
179 refrigerated at 4°C until analysis.

180

## 181 **2.2. Physico-chemical analyses**

182           The following properties were determined in the air-dried bottom sediment samples:  
183 granulometric composition by Casagrande's method modified by Prószyński, pH in 1 mol



184 KCl/L by potentiometric method, and total organic carbon on an Elementar Vario Max Cube  
185 CNS analyser (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Germany) (PN-ISO-10390, 1997;  
186 Ostrowska et al., 1991). Pseudo-total metal contents (Zn, Cd, Pb, Cu, Cr, Ni, Fe, Mn) were  
187 determined after microwave digestion of sediment samples in a mixture of concentrated HCl  
188 and HNO<sub>3</sub> (1:3 v/v, suprapure, MERCK), using an AntonPaar Multiwave 3000 system (Anton  
189 Paar GmbH, Austria). The digestion was carried out in accordance with the program: power:  
190 1400 W; temperature: 240°C; time to reach the maximum power: 5 min.; time on maximum  
191 power: 15 min.; ventilation time: 5 min.; cooling time: 40 min (A Chemist's Guide to Sample  
192 Preparation, Anton Paar).

193 Fractionation analysis of selected metals (Cd, Cr, Ni, Zn, Pb, Cu) was performed  
194 following a standard BCR sequential extraction procedure (Rauret et al., 1999). Four fractions  
195 of trace elements were determined: fraction F1 – exchangeable, easily soluble in acidic medium  
196 (ion exchange and carbonate, CH<sub>3</sub>COOH at 0.11 mol/L and pH=2); fraction F2 – reducible,  
197 bound to Fe and Mn oxides (extractable with NH<sub>2</sub>OH.HCl at 0.5 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> and pH=1.5); fraction  
198 F3 – oxidisable, bound to organic matter (extractable with hot 30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and then re-extracted  
199 with CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub> at 0.5 mol/dm<sup>3</sup> and pH=2); fraction F4 – residual, elements permanently  
200 bound to minerals (digested using a hot mixture of HNO<sub>3</sub> and HClO<sub>3</sub> (3:2 v/v)).

201 The content of elements in the obtained solutions was determined using an inductively  
202 coupled plasma optical emission spectrophotometer (ICP-OES) – Perkin Elmer Optima 7300  
203 DV (PerkinElmer, Inc., Waltham, MA USA). Internal standards and the certified reference  
204 materials CRM023-050 (Sigma-Aldrich Chemi) and BCR-701 (fractions) (LGC Standards)  
205 were used for quality control. Recoveries with reference to the certified concentrations ranged  
206 from 80 to 119% for Zn, 79 to 122% for Cu, 91 to 124% for Pb, 79 to 118% for Cr, 85 to 112%  
207 for Cd, and 85 to 128% for Ni.

208

### 209 **2.3. Geochemical indices**

210 The degree of contamination of bottom sediment was evaluated using geochemical  
211 indices. Five indices were used including three single-element indices (geoaccumulation index  
212 ( $I_{geo}$ ), single pollution index (PI), enrichment factor (EF)) and two multi-element indices  
213 (pollution load index (PLI), improved Nemerow pollution index ( $PI_N$ )) (Table 2 SI). The single-  
214 element indices, as the name suggests, only assess the content of single elements. However,  
215 multiple elements are present considerable spatial and time variability in any environment.  
216 Multi-element indices aim to comprehensively appraise the overall level of contamination  
217 (Birch, 2017; Kulbat and Sokołowska, 2019; Aleksander-Kwaterczak et al., 2021; Castro et al.,  
218 2021). Their common trait is that the pollution indices (PIs) of single elements are used for their  
219 calculation; they differ in the sense that the pollution load index (PLI) mainly indicates how  
220 many times the value considered as natural is exceeded, whereas the Nemerow pollution index  
221 ( $PI_N$ ) value is rather strongly determined by the most polluting elements. The choice of a  
222 relevant geochemical background is a key factor when using geochemical indices in the  
223 evaluation of metal contamination (Birch, 2017). Using generic reference geochemical  
224 background (upper continental crust UCC or lower continental crust LCC) may not allow to  
225 make a region-specific distinction between natural influences and anthropogenic metal  
226 contamination (Kowalska et al., 2018). In this work, the national geochemical background as  
227 assessed by the Polish Geological Institute (Bojakowska and Sokołowska, 1998) was used, i.e.,  
228 0.5 for Cd, 6 for Cr and Ni, 7 for Cu, 15 for Pb and 73 for Zn (values in mg/kg dry soil).

### 229 **2.4. Ecological risk indices**

230 Ecological risk assessment requires the application of ecotoxicological criteria or the  
231 use of indices that take into account the level of metal toxicity (Tarnawski and Baran, 2018;  
232 Gao et al., 2018; Nawrot et al., 2021). Ecological risk indices do not assess anthropogenic  
233 changes, but the potential for biological uptake (Birch, 2017). Both single-element and multi-

234 element indices, allowing to evaluate the total effect of metals on organisms, were used to assess  
235 the potential ecological risk of metals in bottom sediments to aquatic organisms. The indices  
236 used in this study were: Sediment Quality Guidelines (SQG) (threshold effect concentration  
237 (TEC), probable effect concentration (PEC)), toxic unit (TU), toxic risk index (TRI), risk  
238 assessment code (RAC) (single-element) and  $\sum TU$ ,  $\sum TRI$ , potential ecological risk (RI) and  
239 PEC quotient (PECQ) (multi-element) (Table 2SI). TEC is a threshold value for identifying the  
240 concentrations of contaminants below which no harmful effects on benthic organisms are  
241 expected. PEC is a probable concentration value which, if exceeded, may be harmful to  
242 organisms (MacDonald et al., 2000). The following TEC values for individual elements were  
243 used: Zn 121 mg/kg; Cu 31.6 mg/kg; Pb 35.8 mg/kg; Cd 0.99 mg/kg; Ni 22.7 mg/kg; Cr 43.3  
244 mg/kg and PEC: Zn 459 mg/kg; Cu 146 mg/kg; Pb 128 mg/kg; Cd 4.98 mg/kg; Ni 48.6 mg/kg;  
245 Cr 111 mg/kg (MacDonald et al., 2000).

246

## 247 **2.5. Health risk indices**

248 Health risk assessment of potential accidental exposure to the analysed metals in  
249 bottom sediments was performed according to the US EPA method (2004), Wcisło et al. (2016),  
250 and Li et al. (2020). Non-carcinogenic risk (hazard quotient, HQ) and carcinogenic risk (CR)  
251 were estimated for three exposure routes (ingestion, dermal contact, and inhalation) for adults.  
252 The following parameters were calculated for non-carcinogenic risk: HQ<sub>ing</sub>, HQ<sub>derm</sub>, HQ<sub>inh</sub>,  
253 total hazard quotient ( $HI = \sum HQ_{ing} + HQ_{derm} + HQ_{inh}$ ), and for the carcinogenic risk: CR<sub>ing</sub>,  
254 CR<sub>derm</sub>, CR<sub>inh</sub>, total carcinogenic risk ( $CR = \sum CR_{ing}, CR_{derm}, CR_{inh}$ ), respectively (Table  
255 2). If the HQ or HI value was less than 1.0, the potentially exposed individual was assessed  
256 unlikely to experience obvious adverse health effects. On the contrary, HQ or HI values higher  
257 than 1.0 indicated a non-carcinogenic risk (Wcisło et al., 2016; Jafarabadi et al., 2017; Li et al.  
258 2020). If CR was between  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $1 \times 10^{-6}$ , this was considered an acceptable cancer risk,

259 whereas the risk values higher than  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  were considered a carcinogenic risk to the human  
260 body (Wcisło et al., 2016; Gruszecka-Kosowska et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020).

261

## 262 **2.6. Ecotoxicological analyses**

263 Ecotoxicity analysis of bottom sediments was performed using three bioassays:  
264 Phytotoxkit (*Lepidium sativum*), Ostracodtoxkit (*Heterocypris incongruens*), Microtox  
265 (*Alivibrio fischeri*). In the Phytotoxkit assay, the measured parameters were seed germination  
266 inhibition and root length inhibition of *L. sativum* after a 3-day incubation of test organisms  
267 with sediment samples. The Ostracodtoxkit assay measured the mortality and growth inhibition  
268 of *H. incongruens* after a 6-day exposure of the crustacean to sediment samples. The Microtox  
269 assay investigated luminescence inhibition of *A. fischeri*. Luminescence was measured before  
270 and after a 15-minute incubation of the bacterial suspension with the tested sediment sample  
271 using an M 500 Analyser. The toxicity of sediment samples to *A. fischeri* was tested by  
272 conducting an 81.9% screening test. The assays were conducted according to standard  
273 procedures (Ostracodtoxkit F, 2001; Phytotoxkit, 2004; Microbics Corporation, 1992).

274 The results were expressed as a test reaction percentage effect (PE), and the hazard  
275 assessment system developed by Persoone et al. (2003) was used to evaluate the ecotoxicity:  
276  $PE < 20\%$  means no significant negative effect on the organism; the sample is non-toxic (class  
277 I, no acute hazard);  $20\% \leq PE < 50\%$ : the sample exhibits low toxicity (class II, low acute  
278 hazard);  $50\% \leq PE < 100\%$ : the sample is toxic to an organism (class III, acute hazard) ;  $PE =$   
279  $100\%$ : very toxic (class IV, high acute hazard).

280

## 281 **2.7. Statistical analyses**

282 The significance of differences among the pseudo-total metal concentrations for the  
283 different reservoirs were assessed using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (K-W,  $p \leq$

284 0.05). Pearson's correlation and PCA were performed to identify potential relationships among  
285 the behaviour of metals (e.g. between metal content and granulometric composition or TOC  
286 content, or between pseudo-total content and metal fractions) as well as potential correlations  
287 among sources of metals (natural or anthropogenic) in the bottom sediments. Before starting to  
288 calculate the correlation, the data were transformed to obtain a normal distribution. Data were  
289 statistically analysed using Microsoft Excel 2016 and the Statistica 13 software package.

290

### 291 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 292 **3.1. Geochemical and ecological indices**

293 Pseudo-total metal contents in bottom sediments, except for Fe, significantly differed  
294 (K-W,  $p \leq 0.05$ : Cr  $p = 0.008$ ; Ni  $p = 0.041$ ; Zn  $p = 0.029$ ; Pb  $p = 0.012$ ; Cu  $p = 0.004$ ; Cd  $p =$   
295 0.001) between the studied reservoirs (Table 3). The highest variability was found for Cu, Cd,  
296 Zn and Pb contents, for which the coefficient of variation (CV) was 135% for Pb, and more  
297 than 200% for Cu, Cd and Zn. For other metals the CV value was lower, in the range 48-65%.

298

##### 299 **3.1.1. Geochemical indices**

300 An appraisal of the extent of metal contamination may differ between geochemical  
301 indexes (Table 4). The highest median  $I_{geo}$  value was found for Cr (1.15), and then for Ni > Cu  
302 > Cd > Zn = Pb. The proportion of samples assigned to class II moderately contaminated or  
303 lower were: Ni – 100%; Cr and Pb – 92%; Zn, Cu – 82%, and Cd – 73%. The highest median  
304 PI value was demonstrated for Ni (3.59), and then for Cr > Cu > Cd > Zn > Pb. For that index,  
305 unpolluted and lowly polluted samples were dominant for Zn (45% of samples) and Pb (55%  
306 of samples), strongly polluted samples for Cr (55% of samples) and Ni (55% of samples) and  
307 strongly and moderately polluted samples for Cd and Cu, which constituted 36% of the  
308 sediment samples. Due to the high similarity of the geoaccumulation index and single pollution

309 index calculation formulas, the results obtained for both indices coincide (Table 4). Both indices  
310 showed that the most contaminated bottom sediments were these from the Chechło reservoir  
311 (Cd and Zn) and from the Rybnik reservoir (Cu). Moreover, high levels of pollution for both  
312 indices were found in bottom sediments of the Rożnów (Cr), Rybnik (Zn, Cd), Rzeszów (Cd),  
313 and Chechło (Pb, Cu) reservoirs. The lowest values of  $I_{geo}$  and PI were found for bottom  
314 sediments of the Besko, Narożniki, Brzóza Królewska, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs.  
315 However, given the fact that  $I_{geo}$  is divided into a larger number of contamination classes, the  
316 presented index data show slightly more subtle information; they also allow to assess that  
317 bottom sediments are much less contaminated than it was shown in the evaluation using PI.

318 The enrichment factors (EF) – the last of the indices designed to assess single-metal  
319 pollution of sediments – indicated that 100% of the tested samples were enriched with Ni and  
320 Cr at a moderate or higher level ( $EF > 3$ ). For Cd, this was 82%, for Cu 62%, and for Zn and Pb  
321 55%. Severe (Zn, Cd, Pb), very severe (Zn), and extremely severe (Cu, Cd) enrichments of  
322 bottom sediments were recorded in the Chechło and Rybnik reservoirs. The sediments least  
323 enriched with metals came from the Głuchów, Narożniki, and Brzóza Królewska reservoirs.  
324 The highest median EF value (3.38) was found for Cr, followed, in descending order, by Cd,  
325 Ni, Cu, Zn and Pb.

326 The next two geochemical indices are combined indices, accounting for the contents of  
327 all trace elements in a single index. The PLI values were ranging from 1.00 (BK) to 10.19 (Ch),  
328 with most of the sediments being classified as polluted. Only sediments from the Brzóza  
329 Królewska reservoir had a baseline level of pollution. The PLI value for sediments decreased  
330 in following order: Ch > Ry > Rz > Z > O > Ro > G > B > BS > N > BK. In contrast, the  
331 assessment of sediments based on  $PI_N$  showed that sediments with a moderate level of pollution  
332 (grades 4-5) were predominant. The  $PI_N$  values ranged between 1.00 (BK) and 37.42 (Ry) and  
333 decreased in the order: Ry > Ch > Rz > Ro > O > Z > G > N > B > BS > BK.

334           When analysing the results of multi-element index calculations with respect to the size  
335 of the reservoirs, a considerable difference was observed between the level of contamination of  
336 sediments from very small reservoirs on one side and small and large reservoirs on the other  
337 side, for both parameters. However, the literature on contamination of reservoir bottom  
338 sediments shows that the content of metals depends of a wide number of factors such as the age  
339 of the reservoir, its location, allocation, the nature of the catchment area and hydrodynamic  
340 conditions, rather than by the size of the reservoir solely (Wang et al., 2018; Sojka et al., 2019;  
341 Michalec and Cupak, 2022). Sojka et al. (2019) found that reservoirs with a shorter water  
342 retention time are more likely to be impacted by metals. Moreover, shape and morphology of  
343 the reservoir modify the metal deposition (Sojka et al., 2018). Czaplicka et al. (2017)  
344 determined that reservoir depth may significantly influence the spatial distribution of metal  
345 content in the reservoir bottom sediments. According to many authors, sediment contamination  
346 with trace element is generally an effect of intensive human impact on the area where reservoirs  
347 are located (Wu et al., 2014; Baran and Tarnwaski 2015; Wang et al., 2018). Despite significant  
348 differences in the degree of contamination with metals in the bottom sediments of large, small  
349 and very small reservoirs, we conclude that the content of metals in sediments are probably  
350 more affected by catchment characteristics and anthropogenic conditions that exist in the  
351 catchments.

352

### 353 **3.1.2. Ecological risk assessment**

354           In the risk assessment related to the presence of metals in bottom sediments based on  
355 SQG indices, TEC threshold values were exceeded for Cd (Ry, Rz, Ch, O, G, BS), Cu (Ro, Ry,  
356 Ch), Zn (Ry, Ch, Z), Ni (Ro, Ry, Rz), and Cr (Ro). Values above TEC and below PEC are  
357 believed to indicate a low toxicity of sediments to benthic organisms (MacDonald et al., 2000)  
358 In our case, PEC values were exceeded for Zn, Pb (Ry, Ch), Cu (Ry), Cd (Ch), which suggests

359 a high risk to aquatic organisms due to the above metals. For bottom sediments of the Besko,  
360 Brzóza Królewska, and Narożniki reservoirs, TEC values were not exceeded for any element,  
361 and in the case of sediments from the Głuchów and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs, only the Cd  
362 content was above TEC.

363 TU,  $\sum$ TU, TRI, and  $\sum$ TRI indices were used to assess the potential toxicity of trace  
364 metals contained in bottom sediments based on chemical models (Gao et al., 2018; Zhang et  
365 al., 2016) (Table 5). Among the metals, importantly higher median values for TU were found  
366 for Ni (0.44) > Cd > Cr > Cu = Zn > Pb.  $\sum$ TU values differed significantly depending on the  
367 studied sediment and were between 0.70 (BK) and 12.68 (Ch). The  $\sum$ TU values for the studied  
368 sediments decreased in the following order: Ch > Ry > Rz > Ro > Z > O > G > B > BS > N >  
369 BK. Nickel accounted for the largest share in  $\sum$ TU for 6 reservoirs (Ro, B, N, BK, G), Cd for  
370 4 reservoirs (Rz, Ch, O, BS), and Cu and Pb for 1 reservoir (Ry, Z) each, illustrating the relative  
371 importance of these elements in the potential toxicity of sediment.

372 The parameter  $\sum$ TU may underestimate the potential toxicity of bottom sediments,  
373 because it only considers the PEC effects; therefore, the TRI was used to assess the integrated  
374 toxic risk based on both the TEC and PEC effects of metals (Zhang et al. 2016, Gao et al. 2018).  
375 Aquatic organisms exposed to TECs of trace metals in sediments are likely to suffer only  
376 limited acute toxic effects; however, the possibility of chronic toxic effects cannot be dismissed  
377 if the duration of exposure is long enough (Gao et al. 2018). Therefore, the TRI and  $\sum$ TRI  
378 indices, integrating TEC and PEC, were used to assess the potential toxic risk for both acute  
379 and chronic effects. In general, the toxicity of bottom sediments was higher when assessed  
380 using TRI values rather than TU values, because, when using TRI, chronic toxic effects are  
381 taken into consideration. Furthermore, Cd was in this case linked with the highest median TRI  
382 value (0.74), and the hierarchy among metals was slightly different: Cd > Zn > Ni > Cr > Cu >  
383 Pb. The  $\sum$ TRI values ranged from 1.46 (BK) to 39.56 (Ch) and formed the following series: Ch



384 > Ry > Rz > O > Z > Ro > G > BS > B > N > BK (Table 5). The analysis of the % share of  
385 individual elements in  $\sum$ TRI showed slightly different relationships than for  $\sum$ TU, especially  
386 for Cr, Zn, and Ni; Cr had the highest % share in  $\sum$ TRI in 2 sediments (Ro, N), Zn in 2 sediments  
387 (B, BK), Pb in 1 sediments (Z), Cu in 1 sediments (R), and Cd in 5 sediments (Rz, Ch, O, G,  
388 BS), which shows that those elements can be considered the most largely responsible for the  
389 potential toxicity of these sediments. The  $\sum$ TRI values of the analysed bottom sediments  
390 indicated no toxic risk for sediments from the Rożnów, Besko, Narożniki, Zesławice, Ożanna,  
391 Brzóza Królewska, Głochów, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs, low toxic risk for bottom  
392 sediments from the Rzeszów reservoir, considerable toxic risk associated with sediments from  
393 the Rybnik reservoir, and very high toxic risk for sediments from the Chechło reservoirs.

394 The mean PEC quotient (PECQ), similarly to  $\sum$ TU and  $\sum$ TRI, was used to assess the  
395 potential effect of a complex mixture of metals in sediments (Geo et al. 2018). The values of  
396 PECQ ranged from 0.12 (BK) to 2.11 (Ch) for bottom sediments and were ranked as follows:  
397 Ch > Ry > Rz > Ro > O > Z > G > B > BS > N > BK (Table 5). The PECQ values showed a  
398 slight ecological risk for sediments from the Rożnów, Besko, Zesławice, Ożanna, Narożniki,  
399 Brzóza Królewska, Głochów, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs, and potential heavy effect for  
400 samples from the Rybnik and Chechło reservoirs.

401 The last index assessing the potential ecological risk, RI, is a slightly different index.  
402 The pollution indexes (PIs) of individual elements were used for its calculation and,  
403 additionally, the toxicity of individual metals were taken into account. RI values ranged from  
404 43.4 to 2109. In a similar manner as for  $\sum$ TU and  $\sum$ TRI, the lowest RI values were observed  
405 for bottom sediments collected from the Brzóza Królewska reservoir and the highest for  
406 sediments from the Chechło reservoir. RI values for sediments formed the following series: Ch  
407 > Ry > Rz > O > Z > G > BS > Ro > B > N > BK. Mean values of RI indicated a low ecological  
408 risk (RI <150) related to the presence of metals in sediments of the Ro, B, N, Z, BK, BS;

409 medium risk ( $150 \leq RI < 300$ ) in the O, high risk ( $300 \leq RI < 600$ ) in the R, and a very high risk  
410 ( $RI > 600$ ) in the Ry and Ch reservoir sediments.

411 Statistically significant differences in  $\sum TU$ ,  $\sum TIR$ , and PECQ (K-W,  $p \leq 0.05$ :  $\sum TU$   $p$   
412  $= 0.004$ ;  $\sum TIR$   $p = 0.003$ ; PECQ  $p = 0.001$ ) were found between sediments of very small  
413 reservoirs on one hand and small as well as large reservoirs on the other hand, the highest multi-  
414 element risk index values being found for small reservoirs and the lowest for very small ones.  
415 As explained in chapter 3.1.1. the location of the reservoir and the intensity of anthroporesia in  
416 the catchment have a greater influence on the obtained results than its size.

417

### 418 3.1.3. Human health risk assessment

419 The non-carcinogenic and carcinogenic risks were assessed for the bottom sediments  
420 from each reservoir (Figure 2). The highest HQs for Cd, Pb, Zn were determined for bottom  
421 sediments from the Chechło reservoir; for Ni, Cr from the Rożnów reservoir, and for Cu from  
422 the Rybnik reservoir. The calculated total HI values ranged from  $1.30 \times 10^{-4}$  (Cu, Narożniki) to  
423  $8.8 \times 10^{-2}$  (Cd, Chechło). Total HI values for trace elements followed the order: Ni > Cd > Pb  
424 > Cr > Zn, and for bottom sediments: Ch > Ry > Rz > Ro > Z > O > G > N > BS > B > BK. The  
425 calculated HQ values are in the following descending order: Pb > Cr > Cd > Cu > Ni > Zn  
426 (HQ<sub>ing</sub>); Ni > Cd > Pb > Cr > Cu > Zn (HQ<sub>derm</sub>); and Pb > Cr > Ni > Cd (HQ<sub>inh</sub>). In most  
427 cases, the non-carcinogenic risk decreased for all exposure routes in adults, according to the  
428 following series: ingestion > dermal contact > inhalation of bottom sediments. HQ<sub>ing</sub>, HQ<sub>derm</sub>,  
429 HQ<sub>inh</sub>, and total HI calculated for individual trace elements in bottom sediments did not exceed  
430 the acceptable level of 1, indicating negligible non-carcinogenic toxic risk. Lead, although its  
431 level in most sediments was not high, showed a relatively higher non-carcinogenic risk than  
432 other elements because of its low RfD values (Li et al., 2020).

433           The total carcinogenic risk (CR) ranged from  $5.52 \times 10^{-10}$  (BK) to  $1.87 \times 10^{-9}$  (Ro)  
434 for Ni and from  $7.19 \times 10^{-7}$  (Ro) to  $9.47 \times 10^{-5}$  (Ch) for Cd. To a similar extent as for the total  
435 non-carcinogenic risk, the highest total CR value was observed in bottom sediment from the  
436 Chechło reservoir and the lowest in bottom sediment from the Rożnów reservoir (Ch > Rz >  
437 Ry > O > Bs > G > Z > B > N > BK = Ro). Moreover, carcinogenic risk indices were lower than  
438  $1 \times 10^{-4}$ , suggesting that no obvious carcinogenic risk would be associated with metal exposure.  
439 In the study of Li et al. (2020), the HQ values for trace elements in the Xiangjiang River  
440 sediment samples ranged from  $3.59 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $7.1 \times 10^{-1}$ , and the HI values for adults followed  
441 the order: Pb > As > Cr > V > Zn > Mn > Cu > Cd > Be > Co. The study of Yüksel et al. (2022)  
442 also proved that, according to the results of hazard quotient (HQ), total hazard index (HI), and  
443 carcinogenic risk (CR), metals did not pose a significant health risk for adults exposed to  
444 sediments in the Çavuşlu stream in Giresun (Turkey).

445

### 446 **3.2. Fractionation of metals**

447           In most sediments, the residual fraction F4 of Zn was dominant, except for the O and  
448 BS reservoirs where the exchangeable fraction F1 was the highest (Figure 3). In most of the  
449 studied sediments, Cu was similarly mainly present in the F4 (residual) fraction, and in Ry and  
450 Rz sediments in the F3 (oxidisable) fraction. Also for Cr the residual fraction F4 dominated,  
451 except for the Rybnik and Chechło reservoirs, where it was mainly bound to F3. Cr bound to  
452 fractions F1 and F2 accounted for respectively 0 to 2% and 1 to 5% of the pseudo-total metal  
453 content. The highest Ni content was also found in fractions F3 and F4. Cd was bound to different  
454 fractions depending on the sediment. F1 was notably dominant in Ro, Z, and O sediments, F3  
455 in B, Rz, N, and BK sediments, and F4 in Ry, Ch, G, and BS sediments. In contrast with other  
456 elements, Pb was found mainly in the reducible fraction F2 (6-55%), residual fraction F4 (1-  
457 65%), and oxidisable fraction F3 (10-52%). Smaller amounts of Pb – up to 9% – were bound

458 to the exchangeable fraction F1. The presence of metals in the potentially mobile fraction (PMF  
459 =  $\sum F1-F3$ ) probably indicates their anthropogenic source, whereas in the fourth fraction (F4),  
460 the elements are generally lithogenic, immobile, and poorly available (Gao et al. 2018). The  
461 PMF of metals exceeded 50% of the pseudo-total content in most bottom sediments (Cd – all  
462 sediments; Pb and Zn – Rz, Ry, O, BK, BS, G, N, Ch, B, Z (only Zn); Ni - Rz, O, BK, BS, G,  
463 Z; Cu – Rz, Ry, N; Cr - Ry, Ch) suggesting that these elements usually originate from  
464 anthropogenic sources.

465 The elements determined in F1 are considered to be the most mobile and potentially  
466 bioavailable (Baran et al. 2019, Gao et al. 2018). Here, the Risk Assessment Code (RAC) was  
467 used to assess the risk related to the release of metals from sediments (Singh et al., 2005; Liang  
468 et al., 2017). This classification takes into account the percentage of metals bound to the  
469 exchangeable fraction: F1 < 1 no risk, F1: 1-10 low risk, F1: 11-30 medium risk, F1: 31-50  
470 high risk, F > 50 very high risk. Metal contents in the fraction F1 were notably contrasted: Cd  
471 (31%) > Zn (22%) > Ni (13%) > Pb (7%) > Cu (3%) > Cr (1%). A higher concentration in F1  
472 (for Cd and Zn here) suggests a higher mobility and a probable higher assimilation by benthic  
473 organisms, or a higher environmental threats to aquatic ecological systems. Szara-Bąk et al.  
474 (2021) discovered for example that the F1 of Cd and Cu contents in sediments significantly  
475 correlated with the content of these metals in mussel tissues. This requires to be nuanced,  
476 however, as illustrated by Gao et al. (2018), who demonstrated that the potential bioavailability  
477 of metals derived from F1 by the BCR method was probably overestimated. Additionally, when  
478 evaluating the risk related to the mobility of metals, their total content must be considered (Nag  
479 et al., 2022). In our case, a high value of RAC coincided with a metal mobility that was low in  
480 absolute terms because of the low pseudo-total metal concentration, such as for Cd and Zn in  
481 bottom sediments. Most of the bottom sediments contained less than 1 mg/kg Cd and less than

482 150 mg/kg Zn. A serious risk related to high mobility of these elements can only be observed  
483 in sediments of the Rybnik and Chechło reservoirs (Table 3).

484 Total contents of metals tend to be correlated with the physicochemical properties of  
485 the bottom sediments (Rinklebe and Shaheen, 2014; Liang et al., 2017; Klink et al., 2019).  
486 Correlations between metals in sediments may result from their geochemical relationships and  
487 also may reflect similar sources. Significantly positive correlations were found between the  
488 pseudo-total concentrations of the following metal pairs: Zn with Cd and Pb ( $r = 0.97$ ,  $r = 0.88$ ,  
489  $p \leq 0.05$ ); Cr with Ni and Mn ( $r = 0.83$ ,  $r = 0.58$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ); Ni with Mn ( $r = 0.51$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ); Pb  
490 with Cd ( $r = 0.90$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ) (Table 6SI). The correlations among the contents of elements  
491 suggest that their partly natural and anthropogenic sources and routes of distribution to bottom  
492 sediments are similar. When analysing the interrelationships among the metal contents, Fe was  
493 treated in a separate way, because the correlation between the content of iron and the content  
494 of another trace element may make it possible to distinguish sediments with natural element  
495 contents from those enriched with trace elements because of human activity. It is believed that  
496 a lack of significant correlations between iron and other trace elements in these studies may  
497 indicate their anthropogenic origin (Wieczorek and Baran 2022). In the present study, a  
498 significantly positive correlation was found between Fe and Cr ( $r = 0.41$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ), and Ni ( $r =$   
499  $0.56$ ,  $p \leq 0.05$ ), suggesting their rather natural origin in most of the studied sediments.

500 No significant correlations were found between TOC or pH and the content of most of  
501 the metals (except for pH and Mn, and F2 of Cr), despite two sites having a markedly low pH  
502 ( $< 5.5$ ). The absence of a more significant correlation suggests that the pH and TOC do not play  
503 a dominant role in the content and mobility of metals. However, the correlations with the silt  
504 and clay fraction were significant, and especially strong for Ni and Cr. The largest silt fractions  
505 was found in bottom sediments of the Rożnów, Ześlawice and Głuchów reservoirs, and the  
506 largest clay fractions in bottom sediments of the Besko and Rzeszów (Table 3). The correlation

507 of sediment texture and metal content is well established (Windom et al. 1984; Boguta et al.,  
508 2022). The Rożnów, Rzeszów, Zesławice reservoirs are intensively silting (Baran and  
509 Tarnawski, 2013; Tarnawski and Baran, 2018; Szara-Bąk et al. 2021). Silting is results on the  
510 inflow of small mineral particles whose origin is both natural and anthropogenic. The fine  
511 fraction, especially the clay fraction, has a large sorption area for metals. A significant  
512 correlation was also found between Fe and Mn contents with F2 of Ni, F4 of Ni (only Mn), and  
513 F2 of Cr (only Fe). As highlighted recently by Zhou et al. (2020), it is well known that Fe and  
514 Mn can significantly influence the behaviour of metals in bottom sediments. Under reducing  
515 conditions, metals adsorbed on the surface hydrated iron and manganese oxides (F2) may be  
516 released from the sediment. Similarly, Wang et al. (2019) found that Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides  
517 play a role in controlling Cd mobilization in paddy systems, whereas sulfate reduction was  
518 important in immobilizing Cd in reduced conditions but had little or no impact on the  
519 mobilization of cadmium upon oxidation.

### 520 **3.3. Ecotoxicity of bottom sediments**

521

522 In the Phytotoxkit test, the mean percentage inhibition of *L. sativum* seed germination  
523 ranged from 0 (N) to 61% (BK), and the inhibition of the test plant root growth ranged from -  
524 12 (Z) to 57% (Rz), indicating that most of the sediments showed low toxicity (Ch, O, BS) or  
525 were non-toxic (Ro, Ry, B, N, Z, G) to *L. sativum*. The Rz and BK sediments showed the highest  
526 phytotoxicity. In the Ostracodtoxkit test, the mortality of *H. incongruens* ranged from 0 (G) to  
527 67% (Ch), and the growth inhibition of the crustacean ranged from 20 (Z) to 76% (Ch). The  
528 tested sediment samples generally had low toxic effects to *H. incongruens* (Ro, B, Rz, N, O,  
529 BK, G, Z). The sediments from the Chechło, Rybnik, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs were the  
530 most toxic to *H. incongruens* (Table 3). *A. fischeri* luminescence inhibition ranged from 12 (Rz)  
531 to 91% (O). Five out of eleven tested sediments were found to be toxic (Ry, Ch, O, BK, BS) to

532 the bacteria. The sediments from the Rożnów and Głuchów reservoirs turned out to have low  
533 toxicity, while the sediments from the Besko, Rzeszów, and Zesławice reservoirs were non-  
534 toxic to *A. fischeri*. The study determined significantly positive correlations between sediment  
535 toxicity to *A. fischeri* and *L. sativum* as well as *H. incongruens*, indicating similar sensitivity of  
536 the test organisms to contaminants present in the tested sediments (Table 6 SI).

537 Statistical analysis showed significant correlations between the pseudo-total content of  
538 Zn or Pb and the response of *H. incongruens*, as well as between the pseudo-total content of Cd  
539 and the toxicity of sediments to *L. sativum* and *H. incongruens* (Table 6SM). A positive  
540 correlation was also found between all fractions of Zn, Cd, Pb (except F4 of Cd and Pb) and  
541 mortality and growth inhibition of *H. incongruens*, as well as between Cd (F2, F3) and Pb (F2)  
542 and root growth inhibition of *L. sativum*. It indicates that the metal content in bottom sediments  
543 affect their toxicity to the test organisms. Positive correlations were also shown for Cd, Zn, Pb,  
544 and Cu contents and *A. fischeri* luminescence inhibition, but these were not significant.

545 The higher correlations between the *H. incongruens* response and the metal content in  
546 sediments are related to the fact that in the Ostracodtoxkit test crustaceans are exposed to both  
547 soluble contaminants and contaminants absorbed on sediment particles, while the exposure of  
548 bacteria and plants is limited to dissolved and thus more mobile substances (Boguta et al.,  
549 2022). Chial and Persoone (2002) indicated that the *H. incongruens* mortality in Zn-polluted  
550 soils was a result of the substances bound to the solid-phase particles, rather than dissolved  
551 forms in the water phase. The less or lack of significant relationships between the metals content  
552 in individual fractions and the response of test organisms would indicate their relatively low  
553 mobility and bioavailability (Cr, Ni, Cu). Our previous studies showed that the relationship  
554 between the total content of trace element and *A. fischeri* response was insignificant in  
555 sediments from the Rybnik reservoir (Baran et al., 2019). However, in the same study, a positive  
556 correlation was found between all fractions of the trace element and inhibition of luminescence

557 in *A. fischeri* (Baran et al., 2019). Tarnawski and Baran (2018) highlighted that *L. sativum* in  
558 the sediments correlated significantly, positively with Cr, Ni, Zn, Pb, Cu, however most  
559 relations of *H. incongruens* and *V. fischeri* with metals were negative. Rosado et al. (2016)  
560 observed that mobile fractions of metals have a significant influence on toxicity. Gao et al.  
561 (2018) found that the acid-soluble forms of metals caused significant toxicity towards *A.*  
562 *fischeri*. Szara et al. (2020) and Szara-Bąk et al. (2021) found that the trace element content in  
563 the Rożnów reservoir bottom sediments was not responsible for the ecotoxicity of sediments to  
564 plants, but significantly correlated with *H. incongruens* growth inhibition. Gao et al. (2018)  
565 reported that the sediment toxicity observed for *A. fischeri* showed a positive correlation with  
566 the estimated toxic effect based on chemical models. From the literature, it appears that the lack  
567 of significant relationships between the ecotoxicity of bottom sediments and the content of trace  
568 metals could be explained by the fact that ecotoxicological analyses allow for a summary  
569 assessment of the toxicity of all substances present in the tested sample, in many cases acting  
570 synergistically or antagonistically (Heise et al., 2020). The toxicity of bottom sediments could  
571 also be due to other contaminants such as ammonia, pesticide residues, PAHs, dioxins, biogens  
572 present in the studied sediments (Baran et al., 2019; Baran et al. 2020, 2021).

573 Other authors observed that clay, TOC content and pH have a significant influence on  
574 the toxicity of metals (Chial and Persoone, 2003; Baran et al., 2019). In this studies, analysis of  
575 correlation revealed the influence of the physicochemical properties of the sediments (sand, silt,  
576 clay, TOC, pH) on the sediment ecotoxicity for test organisms. There were significant  
577 correlations between the toxicity to *H. incongruens* and either silt or clay content or pH  
578 (negative), or sand content (positive). The response of *L. sativum* was negatively correlated  
579 with pH and positively correlated with TOC content. Response of *A. fischeri* was positively  
580 correlated with sand and TOC and negatively with pH, clay and silt content. The above  
581 environmental factors determine the conditions for the growth of organisms in sediments and



582 have a significant impact on the mobility and bioavailability of metals. Son et al. (2007) found  
583 lower cadmium toxicity to *Paronychiurus kimi* (Lee) in soils with high content of organic matter  
584 content and high pH. García-Lorenzo et al. (2009) indicated a negative correlation between pH  
585 and response of the plants, suggesting that acidic pH increases the sediment toxicity to plants.  
586 Wieczorek and Baran (2022) also found that the bioavailability and toxicity of Cd and Pb in  
587 soils to test organisms (*H. incongruens*, *S. saccharatum*, *L. sativum*) increased at pH lower than  
588 5.5. In our study, the high pH value of most bottom sediments would rather limit the mobility  
589 of metals and thus their toxicity. *H. incongruens* is very sensitivity to the acidic pH of  
590 soils/bottom sediments (Ruiz et al., 2013), which may explain the higher toxicity of the  
591 sediments from Chechło to that crustacean (Table 3). Furthermore, the positive correlation of  
592 sediment ecotoxicity with organic matter content may suggest the effect of other substances  
593 accumulated in sediments on the response of test organisms, although earlier studies suggested  
594 that the complexation of metals with the organic matter in the bottom sediments decreases their  
595 toxicity for *A. fischeri* (Baran et al., 2019).

596 According to the hazard classification proposed by Persoone et al. (2003), sediments  
597 from the Rybnik, Chechło, Ożanna, Rzeszów, and Brzóza Królewska reservoirs were assigned  
598 to toxicity class III, suggesting that they may represent an acute hazard to aquatic environments.  
599 Sediments collected from the Rożnów, Besko, Narożniki, and Głuchów reservoirs were  
600 assigned to class II, i.e., low toxicity, low hazard, and sediments from Zesławice reservoir were  
601 assigned class I, meaning "non-toxic sediments, no acute hazard". Sediments from the Chechło  
602 reservoir were characterised by a high pseudo-total content of Cd, Zn, and Pb, and the Rybnik  
603 reservoir by a high pseudo-total content of Cu. Moreover, bottom sediments from the Chechło,  
604 Ożanna, and Brzóza Królewska reservoirs were acidic, which could have resulted in greater  
605 mobility and thus bioavailability of the contaminants. Bottom sediments of the Ożanna, Brzóza  
606 Królewska, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs also had relatively high contents of Cd, Zn, and

607 Ni in the exchangeable fraction (F1). The share of Cd, Zn, and Ni in F1 was 47%, 31%, 24%  
608 (Ożanna), 32%, 36%, 24% (Brzóza Stadnicka), 25%, 22%, 14% (Brzóza Królewska),  
609 respectively. Moreover, bottom sediment from Chechło and BK reservoir have the highest TOC  
610 content of all. Organic matter is the most important sediment sorption factor and thus influences  
611 the bioavailability and toxicity of metals and other pollutants (PAHs, dioxins) not investigated  
612 in this study but potentially affecting the toxicity of sediments.

613

#### 614 **3.4. Multivariate statistic and assessment of contaminant sources**

615 The first PC analysis for parameters of sediments showed important relationships  
616 between the content of trace elements in bottom sediments, sediment properties and ecotoxicity  
617 (Figure 4a). PC analysis identified four main factors explaining 72.2% of the total variance of  
618 the data set (Table 7SI). PC1 explained 31.8% of the total variance, and the main components  
619 of the first factor were pseudo-total Zn, Pb, and Cd contents, their contents in individual  
620 fractions (except for F4), and sediment toxicity to *H. incongruens* (positive loads > 0.50). The  
621 second factor (PC2) accounted for 16.9% of the total variance and was dominated by the pH  
622 value, the contents of clay, silt, Fe, Mn, Ni (pseudo-total content and F2, F3, F4) and Cr  
623 (pseudo-total content, F2, F4) (positive load), and the sand content and *A. fischeri* response  
624 (negative load). The third factor (PC3) explained 15.5% of the total variance and was related to  
625 the pseudo-total Cu content (total content, fractions) and the content of Ni in F1 and Cr in F3.  
626 The fourth factor (PC4) explained another 7.9% of the total variance and was related to the  
627 contents of F4 Zn, F4 Pb, F4 Cd as well as F2 Ni and F1 Cr.

628 Analysis of the main factors revealed significantly positive correlations between the  
629 studied metals and additionally distinguished three groups of trace elements. PC1 represents a  
630 group of elements: Zn, Cd, and Pb. PC1 also confirmed the effect of the content of the above  
631 elements on the ecotoxicity of sediments to *H. incongruens*. Additionally, the lack of significant

632 correlations between sediment properties and Cd, Pb, and Zn contents may suggest their  
633 anthropogenic sources or may be due to variability in environmental pollution with these  
634 elements among sites. PC2 represents a group of elements including Ni and Cr, which are  
635 characterised by low mobility, and their content in bottom sediments is determined mainly by  
636 natural factors, as evidenced by positive correlations within PC2 between the content of silt and  
637 clay fractions and the content of Mn and Fe in bottom sediments. PC3 is related to the content  
638 and mobility of Cu; that element was a significant environmental problem in sediments of the  
639 Rybnik reservoir. Overall, it could be observed that the obtained principal components represent  
640 both natural (PC2, PC4) and anthropogenic (PC1, PC3) factors determining the content of  
641 metals in sediments and their ecotoxicity.

642         Numerous factors, such as pH, granulometric composition, organic matter, and total  
643 contents, determine the chemical fractions of trace elements and their ecotoxicity in bottom  
644 sediments (Boguta et al., 2022). Our previous studies revealed that organic matter dominates  
645 trace element sorption in the bottom sediments from the Rybnik reservoir, while clay and  
646 carbonate dominate in the Rożnów reservoir. Both the neutral to alkaline sediment pH and the  
647 low element contents in fractions F1 and F2 (Szara-Bąk et al., 2021) suggest that the mobility  
648 of trace elements in the Rożnów reservoir sediments is low. In sediments of the Rzeszów  
649 reservoir, clay and TOC contents are likely to be important factors that control metal  
650 concentrations (Tarnawski and Baran, 2018). In the current study, a significant positive  
651 correlation was also found between the pseudo-total content of metals (Ni, Zn, Pb, Cu, Cd (F1-  
652 F3), Cr (F1, F4)) and their concentration in the analysed fractions (SI Table 6).

653         The second PC analysis, applied for the indices calculated in this study, confirmed the  
654 identification of three groups of trace elements as reported above (Figure 4b, Table 8SI): PC1  
655 represents Zn, Pb, and Cd; PC2 and PC4 represent Ni and Cr; and PC3 represents Cu. All  
656 geochemical and ecological single-element indices were correlated with each other, and clearly

657 assigned elements to individual PCs. Additionally, the PC analysis confirmed a similar pattern  
658 among the three geochemical indices, i.e.  $I_{geo}$ , PI, EF, for the analysed metals (Pb, Cd, Zn, Cu).  
659 These indices are calculated based on the geochemical background and have been quite widely  
660 used for many years in assessing the level of bottom sediment contamination. The disadvantage  
661 of  $I_{geo}$  and PI is that they do not distinguish among sources (natural, anthropogenic) of trace  
662 elements (Kowalska et al., 2018). However, the PCA highlighted differences between  $I_{geo}$ , PI  
663 (PC2) and EF (PC4) for Ni and Cr. The enrichment factor (EF) is a commonly used index that  
664 determines how much metals in samples have increased because of human activity with respect  
665 to the natural content (Bern et al., 2019). Apart from the geochemical background of the  
666 element, the reference value for the element which is characterised by a low variability of  
667 occurrence is needed for its calculation (Kowalska et al., 2018; Bern et al. 2019). Although  
668 based on the geochemical background, similarly to  $I_{geo}$  and PI, it is a standardised index that  
669 allows for the differentiation between natural and anthropogenic sources of trace elements,  
670 which turned out to be useful in the context of the current study.

671           The results from PC analysis overall suggest that sediment contamination with Cd,  
672 Pb, Zn, Cu are generally of anthropogenic origin and high contents of these elements in  
673 sediments may pose a risk to organisms, whereas sediment contamination with Ni and Cr (PC2,  
674 PC4) may be of both natural and anthropogenic origin, but their contents are unlikely to pose  
675 an ecological risk. Moreover, a significant positive correlation ( $p < 0.05$ ) between the  
676 concentrations of Cd, Zn, Pb and Cu in the PMF ( $\sum F1+F3$ ) and corresponding EF values ( $r =$   
677  $0.89$  for Zn,  $r = 0.69$  for Pb,  $r = 0.91$  for Cd,  $r = 0.92$  for Cu) may confirm that anthropogenic  
678 inputs significantly increased trace element concentrations in the reservoir sediments. Since  
679 bioavailability and toxicity depend on the forms of trace metals in sediments, metals with high  
680 EF values and large labile fractions are generally more mobile and toxic to aquatic organisms  
681 (Gao et al. 2018). Moreover, Cd, and Cu with the highest EF values and significant enrichment

682 in F1 (only Cd), along with Cd, Cu, Zn, and Pb, exhibiting the highest concentrations in the  
683 PMF ( $\Sigma F1+F3$ ), might pose a substantial hazard to the test organisms. Zn, Cd and Pb (PC1),  
684 along with Cu (PC3), constituted the highest contamination and potential ecological and health  
685 risks for bottom sediments of the Chechło (Cd, Zn, Pb), Rybnik (Cu and Zn, Cd), and Rzeszów  
686 (Cd) reservoirs.

687           Undoubtedly, high contents of Zn, Cd, and Pb in bottom sediments of the Chechło  
688 reservoir are influenced by the reservoir location and the related anthropogenic sources of metal  
689 emission. Earlier research has shown the elevated contents of Cd, Zn and Pb in bottom  
690 sediments of this reservoir to be related to the historical exploitation of Zn and Pb ores in the  
691 reservoir catchment. The Chechło reservoir is situated in the north-western part of Małopolska,  
692 in the Chrzanów powiat, Trzebinia commune, in close proximity to the Olkusz region and the  
693 Upper Silesian Industrial Region (Koniarz et al., 2022). In this region, the high metal  
694 concentrations in the soil surface is due to metal-bearing minerals whose accumulation depends  
695 on natural and anthropogenic factors. The most important factors include geological structure  
696 and erosion of shallow ore-bearing Triassic formations, historical mining and processing of zinc  
697 and lead ores, which are responsible for surface deposition of zinc-, lead-, and cadmium-rich  
698 waste, the emission of metal-rich dust by the smelter, as well as high emission of industrial dust  
699 from the Upper Silesian Industrial Region (Koniarz et al., 2022). Similarly, one can expect the  
700 relatively high contents of Cd and Zn in bottom sediments of the Rybnik reservoir to be  
701 associated with mine exploitation, dust deposition, and sewage discharge in this area. Both  
702 reservoirs are located in Silesia, a highly urbanised region in Poland with a high concentratin  
703 of industries, including coal and non-ferrous metal mining, power generation, and metallurgy  
704 (Baran et al., 2019). Concerning the Rzeszów reservoir, the high Cd content in its sediments is  
705 presumably related to the location of the reservoir, i.e. almost in the city centre (about 6 km),

706 as well as close to industrial and transport activities, along with local agriculture (Tarnawski  
707 and Baran et al., 2018).

708 A quite significant Cr contamination combined with a low risk to organisms was  
709 observed in bottom sediments of the Rożnów reservoir. The contamination is related to the  
710 activity of tanneries in the area near the reservoir and the inflow of Cr-containing effluents  
711 (Szara-Bąk et al., 2021).

712 The study of de Castro-Catala et al. (2016) showed that a high Ni concentration might  
713 be a good indicator of recent anthropogenic pollution. Nickel has been widely used in industry  
714 and can be found in elevated concentrations in freshwater zones surrounding developed urban  
715 areas (de Castro-Catala et al., 2016; Tarnawski and Baran 2018). In contrast, however, Szarek-  
716 Gwiazda (2014) found that the high Ni content (15.6-83.1 mg/kg dm) in bottom sediments of  
717 sub-mountain reservoirs located in the Carpathian Flysch was mainly explained by a high  
718 natural background content in the area.

719 PC3 was related to the contamination with Cu, which was estimated to be of  
720 significant environmental concern only in sediments of the Rybnik reservoir. Our previous  
721 study showed that the main source of Cu in sediments of this reservoir is its leaching from the  
722 cooling system of the Rybnik power plant and the inflow of municipal wastewater (Baran et al.,  
723 2019). Other authors also pointed out that wastewater from power plants that use Cu alloys in  
724 heat exchangers of the cooling system can be an important source of Cu in bottom sediments  
725 of reservoirs (Loska and Wiechuła, 2003; Bojakowska and Krasuska, 2014).

726 The second PCA also revealed similarities among the multi-element indices. A  
727 significantly positive correlation was found among the geochemical parameters, i.e. PLI and  
728  $PI_N$ , ecological parameters, i.e.  $\sum TU$ ,  $\sum TRI$ , RI,  $PEC_q$ , and those related to the health risk  
729 assessment, i.e. HI total and CR total. PC1 explained 56.4% of the total variance, the main  
730 components of this first factor being single-element indices for Cd, Pb, and Zn along with all

731 multi-element indices (positive loads > 0.50). This essentially suggests that Cd, Zn, and Pb have  
732 the greatest impact on the level of sediment contamination and pose the greatest potential  
733 ecological and health risks to organisms.

734 The third PCA confirmed the previously observed difference among the reservoirs in  
735 the profile of variables analysed as part of the bottom sediment quality assessment indices  
736 (Figure 4c). Most of the points were separated within the plane by the first two principal factors  
737 and were concentrated in a small area near the coordinate centre. These points represent bottom  
738 sediments from the Narożniki, Brzóza Królewska, Brzóza Stadnicka, Ożanna, Besko,  
739 Zesławice, and Głuchów reservoirs (G1, G2). In general, these sediments were contaminated  
740 with metals to a low degree, and showed low to medium ecological risk. Points representing  
741 bottom sediments from the Chechło, Rybnik, Rzeszów, and Rożnów reservoirs differed from  
742 this group. These sediments generally showed contamination or elevated concentrations of  
743 metals (Cr – Rożnów, Ni – Rzeszów) and significant ecological risk associated with Cd, Zn, Pb  
744 (Chechło), Cu (Rybnik), or Cd (Rzeszów). In addition, these reservoirs, as indicated above, are  
745 subject to intensive anthropopressure related to industry (Chechło, Rybnik), transport, and  
746 sewage inflow (Rzeszów, Rybnik, Rożnów).

747 Summarizing the different PCAs, the integration of indices highlighted that the highest  
748 contamination level and the greatest potential ecological risks were related to the presence of  
749 metals in sediments of the Chechło and Rybnik reservoirs. The risk associated with the  
750 sediments of the Rzeszów reservoir was slightly lower, whereas low to medium risk was linked  
751 with the sediments of the Rożnów, Besko, Narożniki, Zesławice, Ożanna, Brzóza Królewska,  
752 Głuchów, and Brzóza Stadnicka reservoirs. According to the applied indices, Zn, Pb, and  
753 especially Cd were responsible for the contamination of the sediments and could pose high  
754 ecological and health risks (Cd and Pb). Additionally, Cd, Zn, and Pb taken altogether have the  
755 greatest impact on the level of sediment contamination and could pose considerable adverse

756 effects on organismism. Geochemical indices revealed local contamination of bottom sediments  
757 with Cr and Ni, although at a level that does not pose a threat to aquatic ecosystems based on  
758 ecological indices. In the case of Cu, sediments from only one reservoir (Rybnik) showed a  
759 high contamination level associated with a high potential ecological risk.

760

### 761 **3.5. Critical comments on the indices used**

762         The geochemical and ecological indices used in this study are based on pseudo-total  
763 metal contents in bottom sediments, and some of them allow for a quantitative assessment of  
764 the cumulative risk from metals acting collectively. Risk assessment based on these indices  
765 seems to be the convenient, and standardized approach, and is quite often used; however, these  
766 indices have several disadvantages. Problems arise, among other things, from the fact that the  
767 selection of parameters for these indices is arbitrary and thus debatable. For geological indices,  
768 the choice of a correct geochemical background is critical, as it will determine the appraisal of  
769 the observed contamination (Birch, 2017; Kowalska et al., 2018; Nawrot et al., 2021). In the  
770 case of ecological indices, which are mostly based on SQGs, problems are related to a variable  
771 degree of bioavailability of metals in sediments, which depends on various properties of  
772 sediments and chemical mixtures between environments (Kwok et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016;  
773 Nawrot et al., 2021). For example, DelValls et al. (2004) reviewed SQGs from many European  
774 countries and found that they differ by up to two orders of magnitude for some substances (e.g.  
775 As, Cu). Moreover, the existing SQGs cover a limited number of substances, and therefore  
776 substances of emerging concern cannot be reliably assessed with this tool (Heise et al., 2020).  
777 Another problem of the above-cited indices is that they often have been calibrated to limited  
778 study areas, while some authors might assume them to be valid within different regions  
779 (Kowalska et al., 2018; Heise et al. 2020).



780 In contrast to indices, bioassays involve a case specific investigation of adverse,  
781 measurable effects on mortality (Ostracodtoxkit), growth (Phytotoxkit, Ostracodtoxkit), and  
782 disturbance of physiological processes (Microtox) of living organisms exposed to sediment  
783 samples. The three bioassays used examined the responses of organisms representing different  
784 trophic levels and adopting various routes of exposure. The use of bioassays can be an effective  
785 approach in risk assessment although for each case, it requires extensive research to recognise  
786 how metals or other pollutants in bottom sediments correlate with the response of the test  
787 organism. The diversity of the test organism responses, the antagonistic and synergistic  
788 relationships between elements and other substances and the matrix, and whether a metal is  
789 essential or not, all affect the actual effects of the metals on the test organisms (Naracci et al.,  
790 2009; Wiczerzak et al., 2016; Goksøyr et al., 2021).

791 The present study uses another important chemical tool, namely fractionation of metals,  
792 which allows to infer about the environmental behaviour of metals (Liang et al., 2017).  
793 However, this method provides information regarding potential bioavailability only, which will  
794 then often need to be validated by other risk assessment tools, as our findings suggested. The  
795 procedure, moreover, is labor intensive (Nawrot et al., 2021).

796 To sum up, the analysis of generic risk associated with metals in bottom sediments is  
797 a complicated process, so it should comprise various methods. In this study, the first step in the  
798 risk assessment was the evaluation of the pseudo-total metal content in bottom sediments using  
799 geochemical and ecological indices. Their application allowed for an assessment of pollution  
800 degree of bottom sediments and potential hazards connected with pseudo-total contents of  
801 metals in the sediments to organisms. The second step in the generic risk analysis was the  
802 identification of the forms in which metals occurred in bottom sediments. In the risk analysis,  
803 the knowledge about the content of readily soluble or exchangeable metal forms is particularly  
804 useful, due to assessment their possible mobilisation from the bottom sediments. The third step

805 in risk analysis was the assessment of sediment toxicity using three bioassays. These show the  
806 responses of different organisms to the different stresses associated with the bottom sediments,  
807 which may include elevated metal contents.

808 Each method proposed for assessing the quality of bottom sediments has its own  
809 advantages and disadvantages. Hence, a combination of these methods should be recommended  
810 for a more robust and comprehensive risk assessment of metals in sediments.

811

#### 812 **4. Conclusions**

813 To appropriately understand the risk associated with metal contamination of bottom  
814 sediments, the choice of assessment indexes is key, and both the properties of bottom sediment  
815 and the purpose of indices calculation should be considered. Geochemical indices require the  
816 use of the geochemical background, and in turn most ecological indices are based on SQG.  
817 Both the geochemical background and appropriate interpretation of SQG play an important role  
818 of the assessment process.

819 In this study, among the individual geochemical indices, EF turned out to be the most  
820 useful, whereas TRI ( $\sum$ TRI) has been found to be the most important ecological index. EF  
821 values allowed for assessment of enrichment whether anthropogenic or natural, and TRI  
822 allowed to assess the potential toxic risk for both acute and chronic effects. All multi-element  
823 indices were in agreement, indicating that Cd, Zn, and Pb taken altogether have the greatest  
824 impact on the level of sediment contamination and pose the greatest potential ecological and  
825 health risks to organisms. Complementarily to these indices, the study of the fractionation of  
826 metals, along with sediment ecotoxicity analyses, agreed with the conclusions obtained from  
827 the generic risk assessment based on numerical indicators.

828 Bottom sediments, in order to be properly managed, require a comprehensive  
829 evaluation. Our study contributed to build further evidence on the importance of integrating

830 multiple indices for the generic assessment of environmental risks related to the presence of  
831 metals in bottom sediments. Future research should focus on pursuing the development of  
832 methods and tools for more comprehensive assessments of sediment quality.

833

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837

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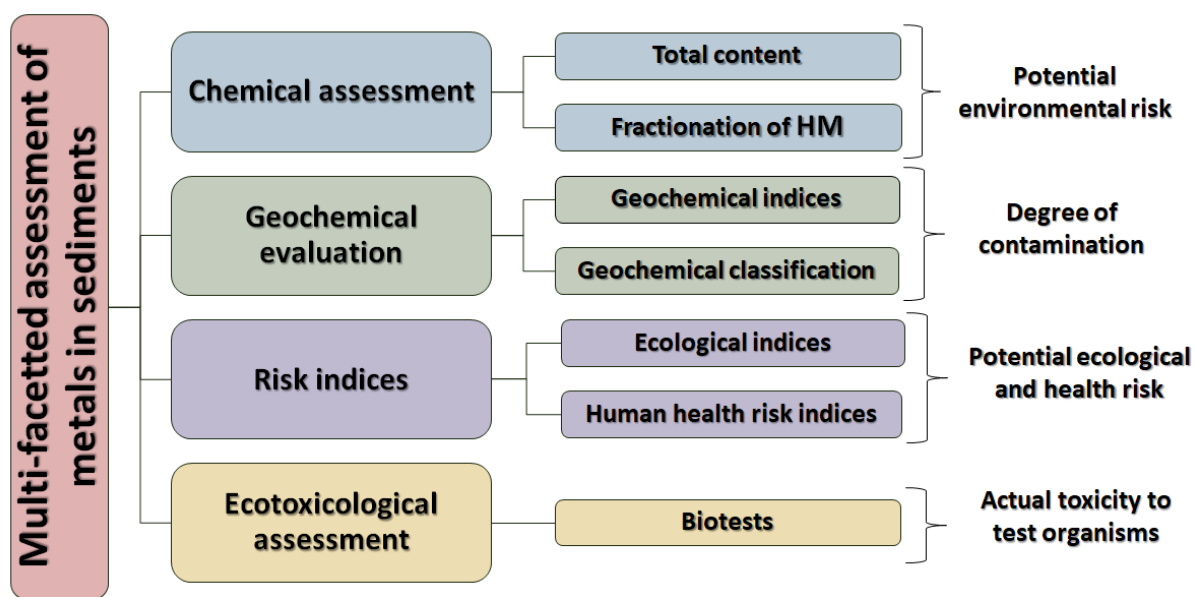
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1071 **Graphical abstract**

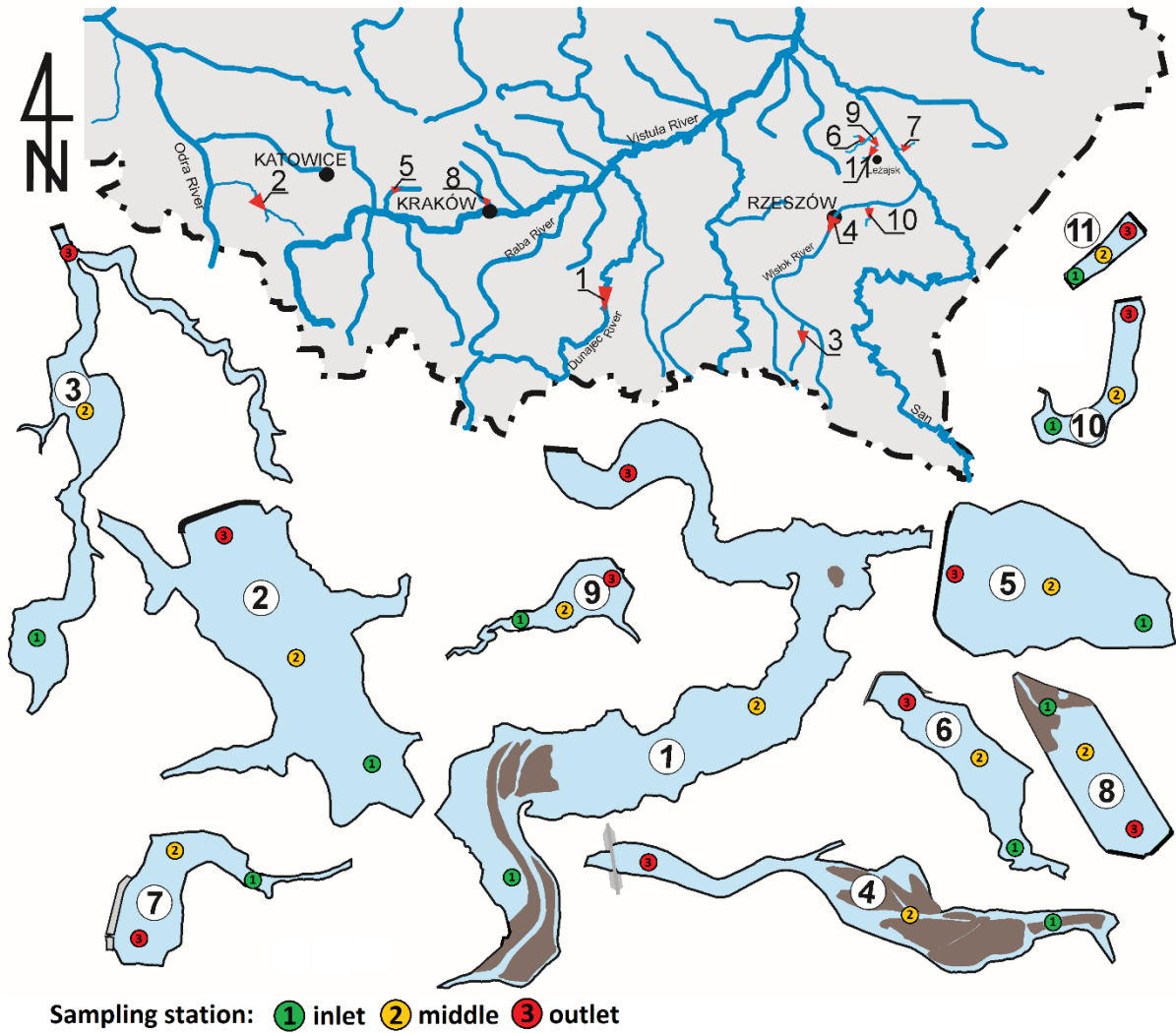


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1073 **Figures**

1074 Figure 1. Location of investigated reservoirs and their schematics indicating sampling stations

1075 (inlet (green), middle (red), and outlet (blue))

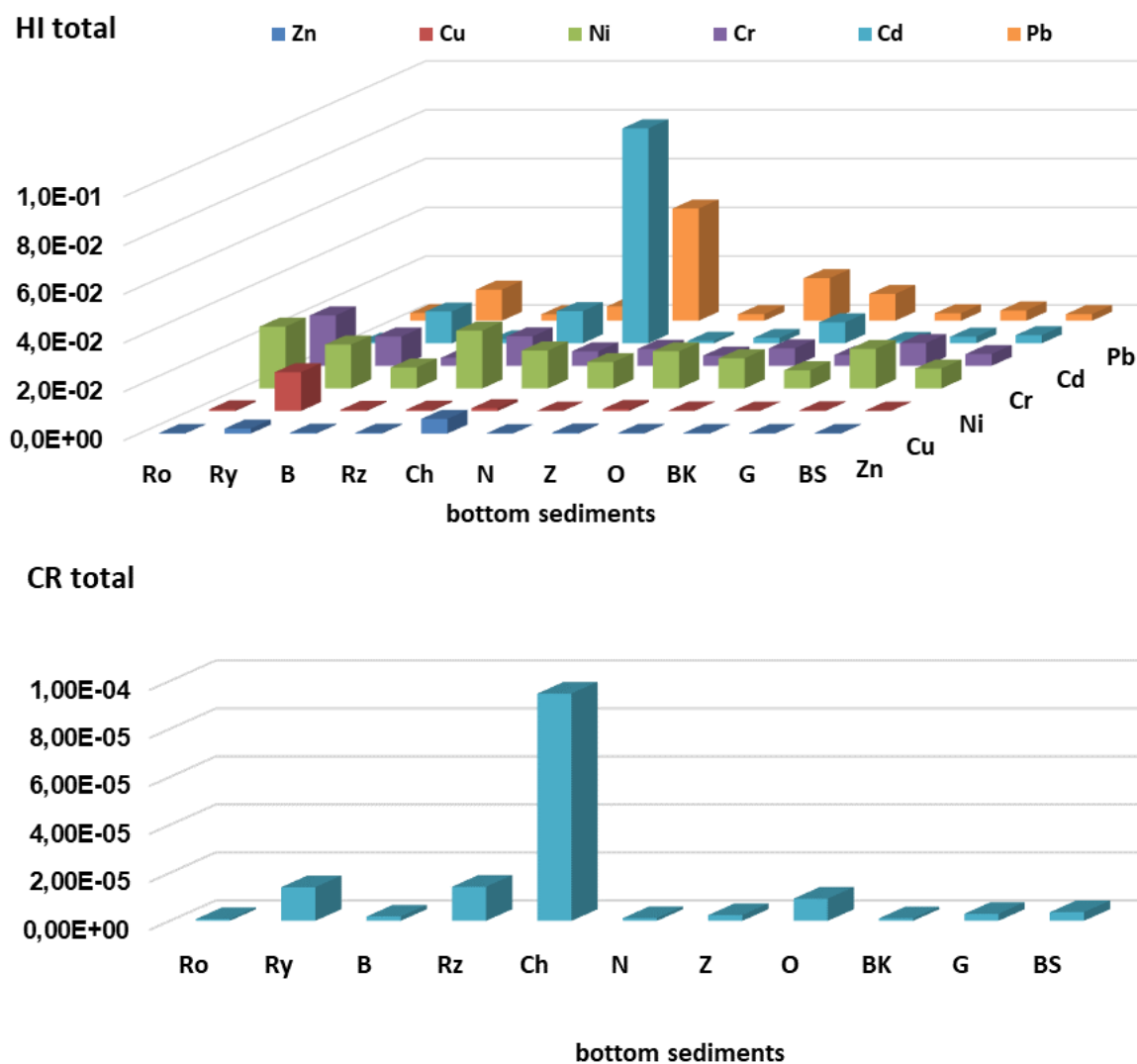


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1078 Figure 2. The hazard quotient (HQ), hazard index (HI) and carcinogenic risk (CR) with analysed  
 1079 metals in bottom sediments

1080 \*Ro – Rożnów, Ry – Rybnik, B – Besko, Rz – Rzeszów, Ch – Chechło, N – Narożniki, Z – Zesławice,  
 1081 O – Ożanna, BK – Brzózka Królewska, G – Głuchów, BS – Brzózka Stadnicka

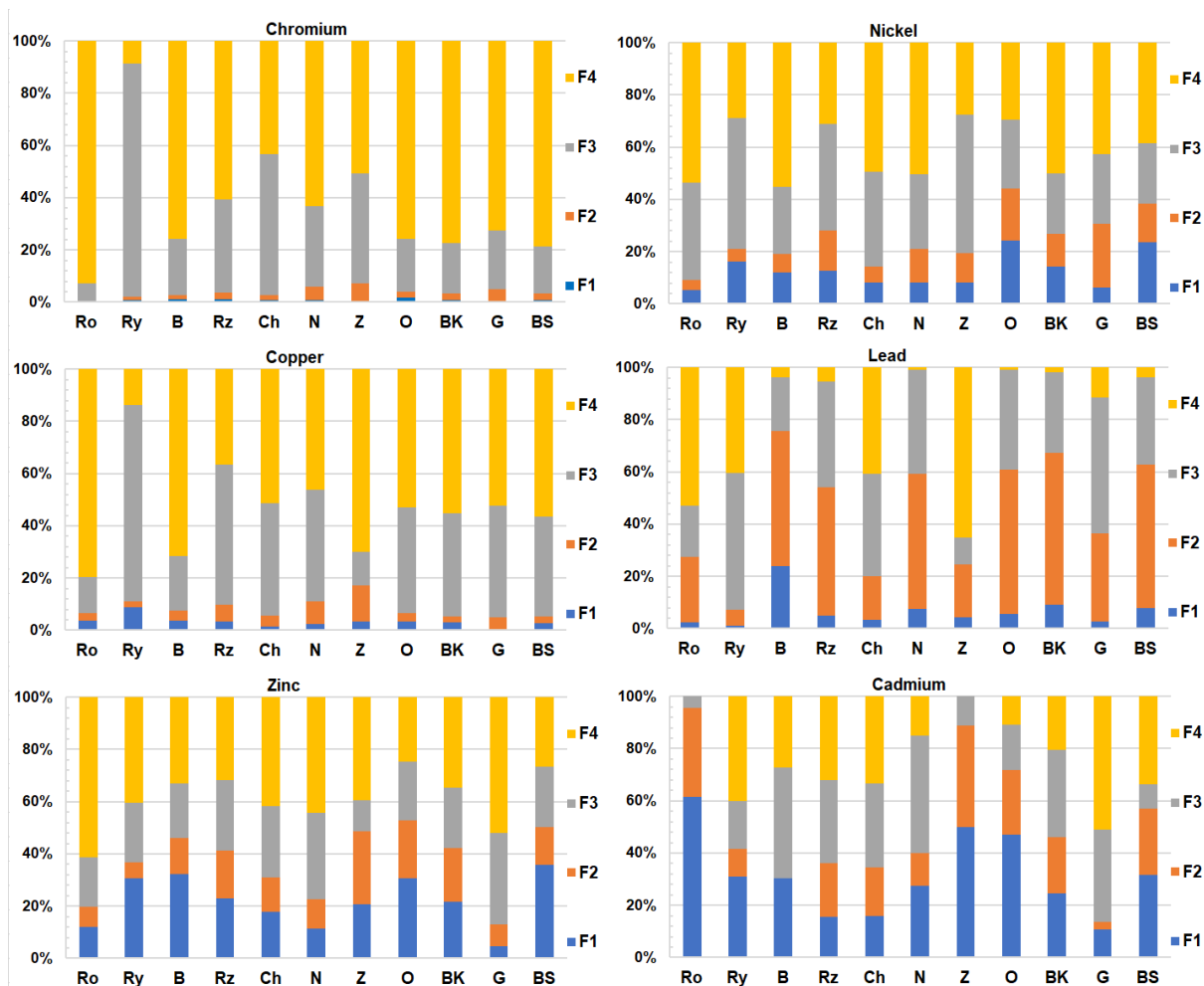


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1084 Figure 3. Fractionation of metals in bottom sediments.

1085 \*Ro – Rożnów, Ry – Rybnik, B – Besko, Rz – Rzeszów, Ch – Chechło, N – Narożniki, Z – Zesławice,  
 1086 O – Ożanna, BK – Brzoza Królewska, G – Głuchów, BS – Brzoza Stadnicka; \*\*Fraction: F1 – exchangeable, F2  
 1087 – reducible, F3 – oxidizable, F4 – residual



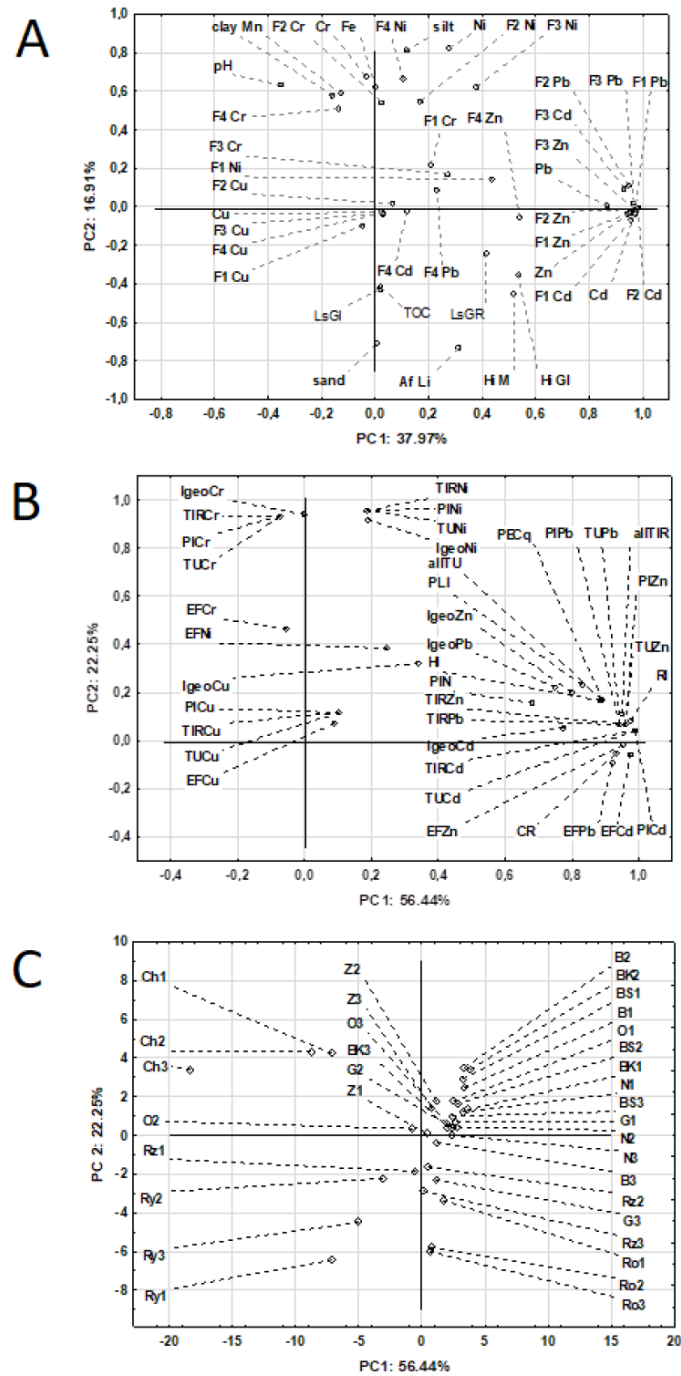
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1090 Figure 4. Principal component analysis (PCA) for: physical, chemical and ecotoxicological  
 1091 properties of bottom sediments (A), all indexes (B), factor loadings obtained as a result of metal  
 1092 indicators in sediments collected from the eleven reservoirs (C).

1093 \* loadings >0.5 are shown in bold; n=33



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1096 **Tables**

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1098 **Table 1. Characteristics of water reservoirs**

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Reservoir / River (abbreviation)	Years of operation	Catchment		Total capacity		Surface area of flooding [ha]	Max/Mean depth [m]
		area [km <sup>2</sup> ]	dominant anthropogenic pressure	[ML]	typ of reservoir		
Rożnów / Dunajec (1Ro)	80	4 874	agricultural	165 000	Large	1 776	32 / 9.5
Rybnik / Ruda and Nacyna (2Ry)	50	316	industrial	24 000		555	11.0 / 5.5
Besko / Wisłok (3B)	44	207	industrial	14 200		126	29 / 12.0
Rzeszów / Wisłok (4Rz)	49	2 061	industrial	1 800		68.2	4.0 / 1.6
Czechło / Czechło (5Ch)	62	42.5	industrial	600	Small	54.4	3.8 / 1.5
Narożniki / Dęba (6N)	21	25.0	agricultural	283		28.0	3.5 / 1.0
Zesławice / Dłubnia (7Z)	56	218	industrial	228		9.5	3.6 / 2.4
Ożanna / Złota (8O)	44	136	agricultural	252		18.0	3.5 / 1.4
Brzóza Królewska / Tarlaka (9BK)	37	30.4	agricultural	49	Very small	6.1	3.2 / 0.8
Głuchów / Graniczna (10G)	27	10.1	agricultural	23		1.5	2.0 / 1.0
Brzóza Stadnicka / Tarlaka (11BS)	27	7.6	agricultural	11		1.2	1.2 / 0.8

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Table 2SI. Calculation of geochemical and ecological indices

Formula	Explanation	Reference
Geoaccumulation index ( $I_{geo}$ ) – individual $I_{geo} = \log_2 \cdot \left[ \frac{C}{1.5 \cdot B} \right]$	$C$ – content of single M* in bottom sediment 1.5 – constant allowing the analysis of fluctuations of M content as result of natural processes $B$ – M's content in reference background (Bojakowska and Sokołowska 1998)	Müller 1969 Kulbat and Sokołowska 2019
Single Pollution Index (PI) – individual $PI = \frac{C}{B}$	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $B$ – M's content in reference background (Bojakowska and Sokołowska 1998)	Wieczorek and Baran 2022
Enrichment factor (EF) – individual $EF = \frac{\left( \frac{C}{C_{ref}} \right)}{\left( \frac{B}{B_{ref}} \right)}$	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $C_{ref}$ – content of Fe in bottom sediment $B$ – M's content in reference background (Bojakowska and Sokołowska 1998) $B_{ref}$ – content of Fe in reference background	Gao et al. 2018 Castro et al. 2021
Pollution load index (PLI) – complex $PLI = \sqrt[n]{PI_1 \cdot PI_2 \cdot \dots \cdot PI_n}$	$n$ – the number of analysed M $PI$ – calculated values of index for single M	Kulbat and Sokołowska 2019
Improved Nemerow pollution index ( $PI_N$ ) – complex $PI_N = \sqrt{\frac{\left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n PI \right)^2 + (PI_{max})^2}{n}}$	$n$ – the number of analysed M $PI$ – calculated values of index for single M $PI_{max}$ – calculated maximum value of index for all M	Wieczorek and Baran 2022
Potential ecological risk (RI) – complex $RI = \sum_{i=1}^n E_r^i$	$n$ – the number of analysed M $E_r$ – single index of the ecological risk factor calculated based on the equation: $E_r^i = T_r^i \cdot PI$ $PI$ – calculated values of index for single M $T_r^i$ – the toxicity response coefficient of single TE (Håkanson 1980)	Aleksander-Kwaterczak et al. 2021
Sediment quality guideline (SQG): $C < TEC$ sample is predicted to be non-toxic $C > PEC$ sample is predicted to be toxic	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $TEC$ – Threshold Effect Concentration $PEC$ – Probable Effect Concentration	MacDonald et al. 2000
Risk assessment code (RAC)	Content % of single elements in mobile fraction (F1 – BCR)	Zhang et al. 2017
Toxic unit TU. $\sum TU$ $\sum TU = TU = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C}{PEC}$	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $PEC$ – Probable Effect Concentration (MacDonald et al. 2000)	Gao et al. 2018
Toxic risk index TRI $\sum TRI = TRI = \sqrt{\frac{\left( \frac{C}{TEC} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{C}{PEC} \right)^2}{2}}$	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $TEC$ – Threshold Effect Concentration (MacDonald et al. 2000) $PEC$ – Probable Effect Concentration (MacDonald et al. 2000)	Gao et al. 2018
PECQ $PECQ = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{C}{PEC} / n$	$C$ – content of single M in bottom sediment $PEC$ – Probable Effect Concentration (MacDonald et al. 2000) $n$ – the number of analysed M	Tarnawski and Baran 2018
Non-carcinogenic risk HQ: ingestion: $HQ_{ing} = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot IR_O \cdot CF_1}{BW \cdot AT \cdot RfD_{ing}}$ dermal:	$CS$ – concentration of M in sediment (mg/kg) $EF$ – exposure frequency (days/year) $ED$ – exposure duration (years) $IR_O$ – ingestion rate for sediments (mg/day) $CF_1$ – conversion factor (10 <sup>-6</sup> kg/mg) $BW$ – body weight (kg)	Wcisło et al. 2016 Li et al. 2020 Gruszecka-Kosowska et al. 2020

$HQ_d = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot SA \cdot AF \cdot ABS_d \cdot CF_1}{BW \cdot AT \cdot RfDd}$ <p>inhalation:</p> $HQ_{inh} = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot IR_1 \cdot 1/PEF}{BW \cdot AT \cdot RfCinh}$	<p><i>AT</i> – exposure averaging time (days)                  = <i>ED</i> 365days/year for noncarcinogenic substances                  = 70 years x 365 days/year for carcinogenic substances  <i>AD</i> – dermally absorbed dose of a substances (mg/kg/day)</p>	
<p>Carcinogenic risk CR:</p> <p>ingestion:</p> $CR_{ing} = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot IR_0 \cdot S_{fing} \cdot CF_1}{BW \cdot AT}$ <p>dermal:</p> $CR_d = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot SA \cdot AF \cdot ABS_d \cdot S_{fing} \cdot CF_1}{BW \cdot AT}$ <p>inhalation:</p> $CR_{inh} = \frac{CS \cdot EF \cdot ED \cdot IR_1 \cdot S_{fing} \cdot 1/PEF}{BW \cdot AT}$	<p><i>SA</i> – skin surface area in contact with dust (cm<sup>2</sup>)  <i>ABS<sub>d</sub></i> – dermal absorption factor. specific for the substance (unitless)  <i>PI</i> – dose of a chemical absorbed through the respiratory route by inhaling particles (mg/kg/day)  <i>IR<sub>1</sub></i> – inhalation rate value of daily lung ventilation (m<sup>3</sup>/day)  <i>PEF</i> – dust particle emission factor (m<sup>3</sup>/kg)  <i>AF</i>- coefficient of dust adhesion to the skin [mg/cm<sup>2</sup>/day]  <i>RfD</i> – reference dose for a given exposure route  <i>SF</i> – slope factor for a given exposure route.  <i>ABS<sub>d</sub></i> – dermal absorption factor. specific for the substance [unitless]</p>	

1103 \*M– metal

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1107 Table 3. Physical, chemical and ecotoxicological properties of bottom sediments  
 1108 (means of reservoir)

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	<sup>1</sup> Ro	Ry	B	Rz	Ch	N	Z	O	BK	G	BS
Physico-chemical properties											
Sand %	14	80	6	8	56	59	8	64	66	18	70
Silt %	67	17	13	38	37	24	63	16	15	47	16
Clay %	19	3	81	54	7	17	29	20	19	35	15
pH	7.1	7.2	7.3	7.1	5.5	7.5	7.4	5.1	5.3	7.0	6.3
TOC %	1.49	5.56	1.75	2.50	5.85	1.42	5.56	3.08	24.7	0.88	2.55
Total content of metals (mg/kg d.m., Fe g/kg d.m.)											
Cr	60.8	35.3	9.7	35.5	17.5	20.4	12.4	21.1	13.2	27.5	14.2
Ni	35.8	25.4	12.2	33.5	21.9	15.2	21.5	17.5	10.5	22.8	11.5
Zn	67	605	113	107	1777	53	126	80	72	55	69
Pb	10.8	43.3	9.1	20.0	156.6	9.2	59.4	37.5	10.4	14.4	9.3
Cu	26.9	626	18.9	20.8	46.2	5.2	32.2	7.3	5.8	10.2	5.3
Cd	0.25	4.87	0.62	4.93	32.9	0.39	0.83	3.21	0.36	1.02	1.25
Mn	680	699	302	646	266	521	216	247	204	924	304
Fe	15.4	9.1	5.9	18.2	10.5	10.8	13.9	14.5	9.3	22.1	11.0
Ecotoxicological properties (*PE%)											
<sup>2</sup> LsGI	13	11	-10	12	14	0	6	36	61	14	4
LsRI	-5	8	11	57	47	-8	-12	43	39	4	24
HiM	10	24	10	2	67	37	0	38	5	0	55
HiGI	40	54	44	26	76	36	20	46	38	38	51
Af LI	38	62	13	12	76	21	16	91	83	20	68
Classes	II	III	II	III	III	II	I	III	III	II	III
Relevance %	67	46	17	22	79	67	100	72	75	67	67

1110 <sup>1</sup>Ro – Rożnów, Ry – Rybnik, B – Besko, Rz – Rzeszów, Ch – Chechło, N – Narożniki, Z – Zesławice, O – Ożanna,  
 1111 BK – Brzoza Królewska, G – Głuchów, BS – Brzoza Stadnicka

1112 <sup>2</sup>LsGI – *Lepidium sativum*, germination inhibition; LsRI – *Lepidium sativum*, root growth inhibition; HiM – *Heterocypris*  
 1113 *incogurensis*, mortality; HiGI – *Heterocypris incogurensis*, growth inhibition; AfLI – *Allivibrio fischeri*, luminescence  
 1114 inhibition

1115 \*PE < 20% the sample is non-toxic; 20% ≤ PE < 50%: the sample is low toxicity; 50% ≤ PE < 100%: the sample is  
 1116 toxic; PE = 100%: the sample is very toxic

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1126 Table 4. Mean values of the geochemical indices  
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Elements	<sup>1</sup> Ro	Ry	B	Rz	Ch	N	Z	O	BK	G	BS	
*Geoaccumulation index ( $I_{geo}$ )												
Cr	2.74	1.91	-0.13	1.97	0.88	1.15	0.45	1.15	0.39	1.55	0.59	
Ni	1.98	1.46	-0.04	1.89	1.14	0.73	1.18	0.92	0.02	1.26	0.29	
Zn	-0.72	2.43	-0.81	-0.05	3.80	-1.12	0.17	-0.52	-1.13	-1.09	-0.77	
Pb	-1.07	0.87	-1.41	-0.18	2.74	-1.39	1.38	-0.04	-1.40	-0.72	-1.35	
Cu	1.32	5.88	0.81	0.98	2.04	-1.06	1.18	-0.58	-1.14	-0.21	-1.12	
Cd	-1.62	2.67	-0.29	2.57	5.33	-0.95	0.10	1.85	-1.39	0.33	0.69	
Single Pollution Index (PI)												
Cr	10.13	5.88	1.61	5.92	2.92	3.40	2.07	3.52	2.19	4.58	2.37	
Ni	5.96	4.23	2.02	5.58	3.66	2.54	3.59	2.91	1.76	3.81	1.91	
Zn	0.92	8.30	1.55	1.46	24.35	0.72	1.73	1.09	0.99	0.76	0.94	
Pb	0.72	2.89	0.61	1.33	10.44	0.61	3.96	2.50	0.69	0.96	0.62	
Cu	3.84	89.42	2.70	2.97	6.61	0.74	4.59	1.05	0.82	1.46	0.76	
Cd	0.51	9.74	1.24	9.86	65.85	0.79	1.66	6.42	0.72	2.04	2.50	
Enrichment factor (EF)												
Cr	7.85	7.72	3.38	4.08	3.27	4.03	1.78	2.90	4.14	2.64	2.65	
Ni	4.62	5.55	3.67	3.84	3.99	3.00	3.08	2.45	3.18	2.18	2.15	
Zn	0.71	10.89	2.42	1.00	26.02	0.85	1.50	0.90	1.20	0.44	1.02	
Pb	0.56	3.79	1.50	0.92	11.79	0.69	3.41	1.80	1.01	0.56	0.68	
Cu	2.97	117.35	7.66	2.05	7.50	0.88	4.00	0.86	1.44	0.78	0.80	
Cd	0.39	12.79	3.47	6.70	72.44	0.95	1.44	5.15	1.05	1.12	3.21	
Pollution load index (PLI)												
All elements	2.06	8.94	1.38	3.46	10.19	1.13	2.53	2.27	1.00	1.79	1.28	
	3.96 (0.84-11.59)				4.03 (0.81-15.96)				1.37 (0.53-2.57)			
Improved Nemerow pollution index ( $PI_N$ )												
All elements	4.40	37.42	1.41	4.55	27.98	1.51	2.74	2.89	1.00	2.09	1.38	
	11.94 (0.88-42.30)				8.78 (1.09-47.76)				1.49 (0.57-2.91)			

1128 <sup>1</sup>Ro – Rożnów, Ry – Rybnik, B – Besko, Rz – Rzeszów, Ch – Chechło, N – Narożniki, Z – Zesławice, O – Ożanna,  
1129 BK – Brzózka Królewska, G – Głuchów, BS – Brzózka Stadnicka

1130 \* $I_{geo} \leq 0$  Class 0 - practically uncontaminated,  $0 < I_{geo} < 1$  Class I - uncontaminated to moderately contaminated,  $1 \leq I_{geo} < 2$  Class  
1131 II - moderately contaminated,  $2 \leq I_{geo} < 3$  Class III - moderately to heavily contaminated,  $3 \leq I_{geo} < 4$ , Class IV - heavily  
1132 contaminated,  $5 \leq I_{geo}$  Class VI - extremely contaminated;  $PI < 1$  unpolluted, low level of pollution,  $1 \leq PI < 3$  moderately  
1133 polluted;  $3 \leq PI$  strongly polluted;  $EF \leq 1$  no enrichment,  $1 < EF \leq 3$  minor enrichment,  $3 < EF \leq 5$  moderate enrichment,  $5 < EF$   
1134  $\leq 10$  moderately severe enrichment,  $10 < EF \leq 25$  severe enrichment,  $25 < EF \leq 50$  very severe enrichment,  $EF > 50$  extremely severe  
1135 enrichment;  $PLI < 1$  unpolluted,  $PLI = 1$  baseline level of pollution,  $PLI > 1$  polluted;  $PI_N < 0.7$ : Grade 1- safety domain,  $0.7 \leq$   
1136  $PI_N < 1.0$ , Grade 2 - precaution domain,  $1.0 \leq PI_N < 2.0$ , Grade 3 - slightly polluted domain,  $2.0 \leq PI_N < 3.0$ , Grade 4 - moderately  
1137 polluted domain,  $PI_N > 3.0$ , Grade 5 - seriously polluted domain

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1139 Table 5. Mean values of the ecological indexes  
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Elements	<sup>1</sup> Ro	Ry	B	Rz	Ch	N	Z	O	BK	G	BS
Toxic Unit (TU)											
Cr	0.55	0.32	0.09	0.32	0.16	0.19	0.11	0.19	0.12	0.25	0.13
Ni	0.73	0.52	0.27	0.68	0.45	0.31	0.44	0.36	0.21	0.47	0.23
Zn	0.15	1.32	0.25	0.23	3.86	0.11	0.27	0.17	0.16	0.12	0.15
Pb	0.08	0.33	0.07	0.15	1.20	0.07	0.46	0.29	0.08	0.11	0.07
Cu	0.24	5.69	0.17	0.19	0.42	0.05	0.29	0.07	0.05	0.09	0.05
Cd	0.05	0.97	0.12	0.99	6.59	0.08	0.17	0.64	0.07	0.20	0.25
Toxic risk index (TRI)											
Cr	1.07	0.62	0.17	0.63	0.31	0.36	0.22	0.37	0.23	0.48	0.25
Ni	0.73	0.52	0.25	0.68	0.45	0.31	0.44	0.36	0.21	0.47	0.23
Zn	0.41	3.69	0.69	0.65	10.82	0.32	0.77	0.48	0.44	0.34	0.42
Pb	0.22	0.88	0.19	0.41	3.19	0.19	1.21	0.76	0.21	0.29	0.19
Cu	0.47	11.05	0.33	0.37	0.82	0.09	0.57	0.13	0.10	0.18	0.09
Cd	0.19	3.55	0.45	3.59	23.97	0.29	0.60	2.34	0.26	0.74	0.91
$\Sigma$ TU											
All elements	1.81	9.15	0.97	2.57	12.68	0.81	1.74	1.72	0.70	1.24	0.88
	3.62 (0.84-11.59)				4.03 (0.81-15.96)				1.37 (0.53-2.57)		
$\Sigma$ Toxicity risk index ( $\Sigma$ TRI) *											
All elements	3.09	20.31	2.08	6.32	39.56	1.56	3.81	4.45	1.46	2.51	2.10
	7.95 (1.16-24.65)				12.34 (1.12-64.41)				2.02 (0.70-3.34)		
PECQ											
All elements	0.30	1.53	0.16	0.43	2.11	0.13	0.29	0.29	0.12	0.21	0.15
	0.60 (0.09-1.83)				0.71 (0.10-3.44)				0.16 (0.07-0.29)		
RI											
All elements	89.1	795	68.5	358	2109	50.6	116	233	43.4	102	97
	327 (50.9-956)				627 (37.1-3362)				80.9 (20.7-125.7)		

<sup>1</sup>Ro – Rożnów, Ry – Rybnik, B – Besko, Rz – Rzeszów, Ch – Chechło, N – Narożniki, Z – Zesławice, O – Ożanna, BK – Brzóza Królewska, G – Głuchów, BS – Brzóza Stadnicka

\* $\Sigma$ TRI value: TRI <5, no toxic risk; TRI 5-10, low toxic risk; TRI 10-15, moderate toxic risk; TRI 15-20, considerable toxic risk; TRI >20, very high toxic risk, PECQ: non-adverse effect (PECQ <0.1), slightly adverse effect (0.1 < PECQ <0.5), moderate effect (0.5 < PECQ <1.0), heavy effect (PECQ > 1.0); RI <150 low ecological risk; 150 ≤ RI <300 moderate ecological risk, 300 ≤ RI <600 considerable ecological risk, RI >600 very high ecological risk

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