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1	Characterizing the anthropogenic-induced trace
2	elements in an urban aquatic environment: a source
3	apportionment and risk assessment with uncertainty
4	consideration
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# 26 Keywords

- 27 Trace elements; Self-organizing map; Positive matrix factorization; Stochastic risk
- 28 assessment; Uncertainty analysis

29

#### 30 Abstract

31 The spatial distribution of water quality status, especially in water bodies near 32 intensively urbanized areas, is tightly associated with patterns of human activities. For 33 establishing a robust assessment of the sediment quality in an urban aquatic 34 environment, the source apportionment and risk assessment of Cr, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, 35 Cd, Hg, and Pb in sediments from an anthropogenic-influenced lake were carried out 36 with considering uncertainties from the analysis methods, random errors in the sample 37 population and the spatial sediment heterogeneity. The distribution analysis of the trace 38 metals with inverse distance weighting-determined method showed that the pollutants 39 were concentrated in the middle and southern areas of the lake. According to the self-40 organizing map and constrained positive matrix factorization receptor model, 41 agricultural sources (24.8%), industrial and vehicular sources (42.5%), and geogenic 42 natural sources (32.7%) were the primary contributors to the given metals. The 43 geogenic natural had the largest random errors, but the overall result was reliable 44 according to the uncertainty analysis. Furthermore, the stochastic contamination and 45 ecological risk models identified a moderate/considerable contamination level and a 46 moderate ecological risk to the urban aquatic ecosystem. With consideration of 47 uncertainties from the spatial heterogeneity, the contamination level of Hg, and the 48 ecological risk of Cd in had a 20-30% probability of the increase.

49

#### 50 1. INTRODUCTION

51 Water resources are vital for human survival and sustainable development of urban 52 regions (Chen et al., 2019; Kaeseberg et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019b; Wang et al., 2019c). 53 However, the unprecedented increase in population and rapid growth of urbanization 54 has relevant impacts on the quality of the urban aquatic environment (Ayeni et al., 2011; 55 Chen et al., 2019; Chetelat and Gaillardet, 2005; Zhang et al., 2017b). On one hand, 56 several anthropogenic activities, including agrochemical usage (Li et al., 2014; Marrugo-Negrete et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017a), industrial practices (Cheung et al., 57 58 2003; Jain, 2004; Quevauviller et al., 1989; Zhang et al., 2015a), and traffic (Men et al., 59 2019; Pekey et al., 2004; Sutherland, 2000; Zhang et al., 2019b) are potential drivers of 60 the deterioration of the quality of water resources. On the other hand, the land surface 61 modification in highly-urbanized areas alters the regional hydrological processes of 62 infiltration and runoff. The increasing amount of surface runoff with non-point source 63 pollutants flows into the water bodies near the urban area, causing the water quality 64 degradation in the urban aquatic environment (Chen et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2020; Qin 65 et al., 2010; Tong and Chen, 2002). In consequence, water pollution in the urban aquatic 66 environment is a major concern. As a typical urban aquatic environment, the urban water channel has been regarded as the fore-end part of the natural water bodies and 67 68 the primary pollutant carrier that receives wastewater and polluted surface runoff. The 69 variation of anthropogenic associated pollutants makes it difficult for cities to maintain 70 a good status of urban surface waters.

71	Among these pollutants, trace metals have drawn a wide concern as they have
72	toxicity, persistence, bioaccumulation, and biomagnification (Lin et al., 2013;
73	Raghunath et al., 1999; Yang et al., 2014). In the aquatic environment, sediment is
74	recognized as the main sink for trace metals, thereby posing long-term serious risks to
75	benthic organisms and, in turn, humans (Fu et al., 2013; Ning et al., 2014; Yi et al.,
76	2011). Therefore, the trace metal pollution in sediments can be a typical indicator
77	revealing the impact of anthropogenic activities on the aquatic environment. As the first
78	step to improve the quality status of urban water channels, it is essential to evaluate the
79	spatial variation of trace metals, identify major source contributors to trace metals, and
80	understand their contamination characterization in the sediments.
81	Cluster analysis is an adopted method to evaluate the spatial variation in water
82	quality in the water resources and ecosystems (Li et al., 2019a; Nguyen et al., 2020).
83	More recently, self-organizing map (SOM) was frequently used as a clustering method
84	to spatially analyze water quality due to its good noise tolerant and ability to handle
85	complex data with non-linear relationships, missing data and outliers (Alvarez-Guerra
86	et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2020; Li et al., 2018a). The visualization map with clustering
87	information yielded by SOM can enhance the understanding of trace metal pollution in
88	the urban water channels.

89 Conventional source apportionment approaches (e.g., principal component 90 analysis; PCA) and pollution assessment approaches (e.g., contamination factor and 91 ecological risk factor models) are commonly used to identify the source contributors (Lin et al., 2016; Shil and Singh, 2019; Wijesiri et al., 2019) and assess trace metal
pollution risk in sediments, respectively (Cao et al., 2018; Hossain et al., 2019; Liang
et al., 2016). However, such approaches have limits in interpreting the uncertainty of
the samples caused by sampling errors, measurement errors, and sediment
heterogeneity (Feng et al., 2019b; Norris et al., 2014), and it is hard to judge the fitness
of the result as a basis for decision making.

98 The analysis of uncertainty can overcome these problems and improve the 99 reliability of the results. Regarding the source apportionment, it could improve the 100 solution especially if small datasets were used (Manousakas et al., 2017), and could be 101 a useful method to judge the accurate number of sources (Brown et al., 2015b). Besides, 102 the uncertainty consideration could also increase the robustness of the solution in risk 103 assessments (Park et al., 2019). Several mathematical approaches with uncertainty 104 consideration, such as the positive matrix factorization (PMF) receptor model for 105 source apportionment (Niu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019c) and the advanced stochastic 106 model considering probability theory for pollution assessment (Feng et al., 2019a) have 107 been newly developed, but not been applied for pollution assessment in the urban 108 aquatic environment.

Accordingly, the primary focus of this study was to conduct the source apportionment and risk assessment with uncertainty consideration to facilitate the source-oriented mitigation of trace metals in the urban aquatic environment. The detailed objectives were to: (1) characterize the spatial distribution of the trace elemental contents in urban aquatic sediments, (2) identify the major contributor(s) of the trace metals through an artificial neural network of self-organizing map model and constrained PMF receptor model associated with uncertainty analysis, and (3) assess the pollution and ecological risk levels based on a stochastic contamination model and ecological risk determination model with uncertainty consideration.

#### 118 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

119 2.1 Study area

The study area was Wanshan Lake (31° 35' 34.78" N, 120° 31' 4.17" E), which is 120 121 the largest lake on the west bank of the Wangyu River in the Taihu catchment, China. It is situated east of Xishan District in Wuxi (396.8 km<sup>2</sup>) and adjacent to Suzhou. It has 122 a planimetric area of  $1.9 \text{ km}^2$  with an average depth of 1.12 m (0.65 - 4.2 m) (JPDWR, 123 124 2006). The annual precipitation and mean temperature are 1,048 mm and 18°C, 125 respectively, in the study area. It is a typical urban aquatic environment that connects the downtown area of Wuxi, the Wangyu River, and Taihu Lake. Therefore, the 126 127 pollutant status in Wanshan Lake could be regarded as an indicator of the regional 128 aquatic environment.

Nine trace metals (Cr, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Hg, and Pb) in sediments was
monitored at 30 sampling sites, namely, 10 sites (N1–N10), 7 sites (M1–M7), and 13
sites (S1–S13) in the northern, middle, and southern area of the channel, respectively
as given in Fig. 1a.

# 133 2.2 Sampling and chemical analysis

134	The sampling and field surveys were conducted in April 2019. Three parallel
135	sediment samples were collected at depths of 0-3 cm at each sampling site using a
136	bucket dredger, transferred into polyethylene ziploc bags, and stored in a freezer at -
137	20 °C in the laboratory. To analyze the trace metals (Cr, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Hg,
138	and Pb) in the sediments, the samples were freeze-dried (Biosafer-10A lyophiliser) and
139	subsequently sieved with a 200-mesh nylon sieve after being carefully ground.
140	After microwave-assisted digestion, the determination of trace elements was
141	conducted by a TAS-986AFG atomic absorption spectrophotometer, 240ZAA graphite
142	furnace atomic absorption spectrometer, or PF32 atomic fluorescence spectrometer
143	according to GB/T 22105.2-2008 (As), GB/T 17141-1997 (Cd and Pb), HJ 491-2009
144	(Cr), GB/T 17138-1997 (Cu and Zn), GB/T 17139-1997 (Ni), and LY/T 1256-1999/5.2
145	(Mn) standards. The limit of detection for each metal was 5.000 mg/kg for Cd, 5.000
146	mg/kg for Mn, 5.000 mg/kg for Ni, 1.000 mg/kg for Cu, 5.000 mg/kg for Zn, 1.000
147	mg/kg for As, 0.010 mg/kg for Cd, 0.002 mg/kg for Hg, and 0.100 mg/kg for Pb.
148	2.3 Geostatistical analysis
149	Inverse distance weighting (IDW) has simple computation and straightforward
150	interpretable features, thus it is used extensively for analyzing the spatial distribution
151	of pollutants in sediments (Dai et al., 2018; Gu and Gao, 2019; Li et al., 2013). IDW
152	method with a weighting power of 2.0 was conducted to illuminate the spatial variation

153 of the trace metal concentrations and source contributions (Fang et al., 2019b; Gu and

Gao, 2019). The geostatistical analysis was implemented by QGIS 3.2 with the
coordinate reference system of WGS 84. The GIS information of Wanshan Lake was
provided by Nanjing Institute of Geography and Limnology, Chinese Academy of
Sciences.

158 2.4 Self-organising map (SOM)

The dimensionality reduction is conducted in a way that neurons or units in the SOM, which are represented by the weight vector, are trained to find the minimum distance to the input vector by the best matching unit (Alvarez-Guerra et al., 2008; Kiang, 2001). Euclidean metrics were used to calculate the distance between the vectors in this study. The detailed algorithms were provided by Kohonen (1990). The unit setting was described in **Supplementary Material Part B**.

setting was described in **Supplementary Material Part B**.

165 The SOM clustering was yielded by the K-means algorithm, and the optimal 166 clustering was found according to the lowest Davies–Bouldin validity index (DBI)

167 (Davies and Bouldin, 1979). All SOM calculations in the study were performed using

168 SOM toolbox 2.1 in the MATLAB R2017b platform (Vesanto et al., 2000).

169 2.5 Positive matrix factorisation (PMF)

170 The identification and apportionment of pollutant sources were conducted by PMF

171 receptor model 5.0 released by the United States Environmental Protection Agency.

- 172 Non-negativity constraints were imposed in the PMF, and the missing data points and
- 173 outliers were down-weighted employing a point-by-point estimation of uncertainty
- 174 (Jain et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a).

175 The uncertainties of the PMF results including the random errors and rotational ambiguity were analyzed by the Bootstrap (BS) method and Displacement (DISP) 176 177 method. BS method can identify the disproportionately influence of the observations 178 on the PMF solution, or random errors, which describe a variation in the sample 179 population (Paatero et al., 2014). The DISP method is able to explicitly determine the 180 rotational ambiguity of a PMF solution which is an uncertainty generated by the PMF 181 receptor model (Brown et al., 2015a). The uncertainties could be visualized as the upper 182 uncertainty interval, an increase of uncertainty estimates from the base factor 183 concentration to the BS or DISP upper uncertainty limits.

184 The result with the lowest PMF object function in 200 realizations was selected in 185 the study, and a constraint method was applied to reduce the effect of rotational 186 ambiguity. The PMF algorithm, pre-treatment of input data, determination of the PMF 187 parameters and constrained model operation were described in detail in 188 **Supplementary Material Part A.** The detailed computation of PMF was described by 189 Comero et al. (2009) and Norris et al. (2014). The source identification referred to the review of source fingerprints of each element for individual potential sources 190 191 summarised in Table S1.

192 2.6 Stochastic contamination and ecological risk determination model

193 The conventional contamination factor (CF) model and ecological risk factor (ER)

194 model are widely used to evaluate the contamination level and ecological risk condition

195 of trace metals in sediments according to the following equations:

196 CF (Cabrera et al., 1999; Tomlinson et al., 1980):

$$CF_i = \frac{C_i}{C_{ref,i}}$$
 Eq. 1

197 where  $C_i$  and  $C_{ref,i}$  are the content value and background level of the  $i^{th}$  specific element 198 observed in sediments, respectively.

$$ER_i = Tr_i \times CF_i$$
 Eq. 2

where the value of Tr is 40 for Hg, 30 for Cd, 10 for As, 5 for Pb, Ni, and Cu, 2 for Cr,

and 1 for Mn and Zn (Hakanson, 1980; Sharifi et al., 2016).

The *CF* index can rank the sediment quality according to four classes of contamination levels, namely, low (*CF* < 1), moderate ( $1 \le CF < 3$ ), considerable ( $3 \le$ *CF* < 6), and very high (*CF*  $\ge$  6), while the *ER* can describe five classes of potential ecological risk levels, namely, low (*ER* < 40), moderate ( $40 \le ER < 80$ ), considerable ( $80 \le ER < 160$ ), high ( $160 \le ER < 320$ ), and very high (*ER*  $\ge 320$ ).

However,  $C_i$  in the model cannot describe the uncertainty of spatial sediment heterogeneity (Sharifi et al., 2016), which can be overcome by the stochastic contamination model (SCM) and ecological risk determination model (SERM), which are developed based on probability theory.  $C_i$  is not a concrete value but lies in the interval [a<sub>i</sub>, b<sub>i</sub>]. In this study, a<sub>i</sub> and b<sub>i</sub> were defined as the first quartile (Q1) and third quartile (Q3), respectively, of the concentration values of the *i*<sup>th</sup> trace element in the northern, middle, or southern area of the channel to avoid biased results caused by 214 extreme values. The maximum entropy principle determined the uniform statistical 215 distribution of  $C_i$  within the interval, and the possibility of the contamination and the 216 ecological risk condition of the pollutants in each corresponding class was calculated 217 based on the interval and the classification standards of CF and ER. The detailed 218 computation is elaborated in **Supplementary Material Part C**.

#### 219 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

220 3.1 Spatial distribution of trace metals in sediments

221 Descriptive information of Cr, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Cd, Hg, and Pb in the sediments 222 of the study area as well as the geogenic background value in sediments are listed in 223 
**Table 1**. The background values of trace elements were referenced from their content
 224 contained in Xiashu loess owing to the strong effect of loess on the river sediments in 225 the Taihu Basin (Bian et al., 2016). The average elemental contents in the sediments 226 followed a descending order of concentrations as follows: Mn (696.90 mg/kg) > Zn 227 (418.07 mg/kg) > Cr (152.90 mg/kg) > Cu (103.86 mg/kg) > Ni (88.69 mg/kg) > Pb 228 (17.38 mg/kg) > As (14.00 mg/kg) > Hg (0.17 mg/kg) > Cd (0.10 mg/kg). All trace 229 metal concentrations, except for Mn and Pb, exceeded the corresponding background 230 levels. Comparable to the published data in the other rivers/lakes in China (Table 1), 231 the contents of Cr, Ni, Cu, and Zn in the sediments of the study area were significantly 232 higher than those found in other studies, ranging from 65.79 mg/kg (Qin et al., 2015) 233 to 151.00 mg/kg (Jiang et al., 2018) for Cr; 23.60 mg/kg (Yan et al., 2016) to 43.00 234 mg/kg (Bian et al., 2016) for Ni; 21.80 mg/kg (Wang et al., 2019b) to 86.00 mg/kg

235 (Bian et al., 2016) for Cu; 68.4 mg/kg (Yan et al., 2016) to 224.00 mg/kg (Jiang et al.,

236 2018) for Zn. The aforementioned results indicate a strong influence of anthropogenic237 activities on trace element pollution in the studied urban channel.

The coefficient of variation of Cu (78.12%), Cd (62.58%), and Cr (60.10%) 238 239 showed the large spatial heterogeneity of these metal concentrations. Its values of the 240 other trace metals were in the range of 28.67–44.65%. The spatial distribution of the 241 content in sediments (Fig. 1b-e) shows that the pollutants tended to be concentrated in 242 the middle or southern area of the channel. The concentrations in the middle area and 243 the southern area were 18%-91% and 6%-92% higher on average than those in the 244 northern area. Most of the elements, except for Mn, showed the maximum content in sediments at M6 which should be affected by a particular source. 245

246 3.2 Cluster analysis according to the self-organizing map

247 According to the SOM component distribution as shown in Fig. 2a, the trace 248 metals were classified into three interpretable groups. Group I was characterized by Cr, 249 Ni, Cu, Zn, Cd, and Hg owing to their significant similarity with high values (red) in 250 the sites at the bottom-right corner and relatively low values (blue) in the top-left corner. 251 These elements mostly originate from anthropogenic sources, such as industrial 252 activities, traffic, and agricultural work (Adekola and Eletta, 2007; Li et al., 2018b; 253 Omwene et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Group II and III, characterized by As and Mn 254 respectively, displayed completely different component distributions. The component 255 distribution of Pb illustrated both outlook patterns of II and III, which means that Pb

content in sediments was possibly influenced simultaneously by the contributors foundin these two groups.

258 Fig. 2b showed clusters of the sampling sites and four different clusters (clusters 259 I-IV) were classified by the K-means algorithm. The distance between the map units and the diagram of the DBI against the number of clusters is shown in Fig. S1 and S2. 260 261 Cluster I was characterized as an As-influenced area. It grouped the sites (N6, N8, M1, 262 S12, and S13) with a considerably high content of only As in sediments in the range of 263 17.0–21.5 mg/kg. Cluster II was the low-concentration area, which included seven 264 northern sites, two middle sites, and three southern sites. Comparatively, Cluster III 265 contained 10 sites that are all located at the middle or southern parts of the channel with relatively higher concentrations of trace elements monitored. The last three sites (I9, 266 267 L1, and M3) were distinguished as Cluster IV. They shared a common feature in that 268 they had considerably higher concentrations of varied pollutants than those of the other 269 sites. The maximum concentrations of Zn (761.00 mg/kg) and Hg (0.34 mg/kg) were 270 found at N10, while most of the pollutants showed significantly high content in 271 sediments at M5 and especially M6.

- 272 3.3 Spatial changes in the sources of trace elements
- 273 3.3.1 Source identification

The fractional contributions of three factors to the elements are illustrated in Fig.
3a. Factor 1 was characterized by Cd, Cu, and Hg with the contributions of 68.35%,
45.73%, and 54.76%. Cd and Hg are traditionally found in many agrochemical Page 14 of 36

applications, such as fungicides, pesticides, and phosphate fertilizers (Dai et al., 2018;
Ji et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2009). Cu is also related to seed
disinfectants and herbicides for agricultural purposes (Ruiz-Fernández et al., 2009). It
is a widely used element in Chinese approved agrochemicals, and 5000 tons of Cu is
estimated to be used in farmland in China (Chen et al., 2016). Hence Factor 1 might be
associated with the agricultural sources.

283 Factor 2 explained high loadings of Cu (42.85%), Zn (43.42%), Cr (42.25%), and 284 Ni (34.36%). Cu and Zn are extensively found in auto brake erosion, road and pavement 285 erosion, vehicle wear, and other traffic-related activities (Adekola and Eletta, 2007; 286 Pekey et al., 2004; Sutherland, 2000; Zhang et al., 2015b). Cu, Zn, Cr, and Ni can be 287 released into the environment through metal plating, metal casting, fuel combustion, 288 leather production, and other industrial activities (Özmen et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2018; 289 Wang et al., 2019c; Yang et al., 2009; Zhang and Qu, 2001). It also explained 42.10% 290 of Mn, which possibly caused by industrial sources including goods processing and 291 welding (Pinsino et al., 2012). Therefore, Factor 2 probably represented industrial and 292 vehicular sources.

Factor 3 explained the significant loadings of As (57.43%), Pb (55.62%), and Mn (43.86%). Mn bound with As could have originated from the weathering of parent minerals and paedogenic processes (Yin et al., 2011; Zaharescu et al., 2009). Pb was the only element that had below-background concentrations in the study. Thus, Factor 3 might be interpreted as geogenic natural sources. 298 3.3.2 Influence of local economic structure on contributor distribution

299 Agricultural sources, industrial and vehicular sources, and geogenic natural sources accounted for 24.8%, 42.5%, and 32.8% of the total metals respectively 300 301 according to the PMF results. The source contributions in mg/kg in the entire Wanshan 302 Lake were spatially distributed in **Fig. 3b-d**. The results almost matched the patterns of 303 land use types near the channel (Fig. S4). The contribution of agriculture mainly existed 304 in the middle area and part of the northern area where a large area of agricultural land and green land was located. N10 was a representative site near farming land where the 305 306 highest contribution of 938.5 mg/kg occurred. Conversely, there was a significant 307 occurrence of industry and vehicle in the southern area (averagely 923.7 mg/kg), which 308 was surrounded by several industrial areas and manufacturing plants.

309 Furthermore, according to the Chinese Statistical Yearbook that the industrial 310 wastewater emissions from the downtown area of Wuxi were 35.17 tons per capita in 311 2017, which was considerably higher than that in Jiangsu Province (averagely 22.42 312 tons per capita), Beijing (3.92 tons per capita), and Shanghai (13.07 tons per capita). 313 Additionally, the gross domestic product of primary and secondary industries in Wuxi accounted for 3.3% and 12.8% (2<sup>nd</sup> place), respectively, in 2017 in Jiangsu Province. 314 315 This reveals that agriculture and industry are the two dominant factors in the economic structure in the intensively urbanized city of Wuxi, which was consistent with the 316 317 source apportionment from this study.

#### 318 3.3.3 Uncertainty analysis

319	The uncertainty intervals between the constrained-based factor concentration of all
320	trace metals and the upper uncertainty limits for BS method and DISP method were
321	illustrated in Fig. 4. The ratio between the upper uncertainty intervals and the PMF-
322	simulated concentrations, expressed as the uncertainty ratio, was 19% (Ni) to 96% (Cd)
323	for BS method and 28% (As) to 45% (Mn) for DISP for all metals in total concentration.
324	The BS upper uncertainty intervals of Cu, As, Cd, Hg, and Pb in all three sources were
325	higher than those for DISP method. Here, the upper uncertainty intervals for BS method
326	of Cd in agricultural sources (0.04 mg/kg) were nearly 4 times higher than those for
327	DISP method (0.01 mg/kg). The BS intervals of Mn in agricultural sources as well as
328	industrial and vehicular sources (78.38 mg/kg; 150.12 mg/kg) were approximated to
329	DISP intervals (80.62 mg/kg; 189.85 mg/kg). The results indicate that the random error
330	of the most metals was more dominant than rotational ambiguity (Wu et al., 2019). It
331	can be explained by the fact that the effect of rotational ambiguity was reduced by the
332	constraint method but the small datasets resulted in the increase of random errors.
333	Among three sources, the uncertainty ratios for BS/DISP were in the range of 4%-
334	100%/13%-103% for agricultural, 2%-187%/8%-114% for industrial and vehicular,
335	and 51%-270%/16%-181% for geogenic natural sources. Obviously, the factors of
336	agricultural sources as well as industrial and vehicular sources demonstrated fewer

337 uncertainties than geogenic natural sources, indicating a robust identification of these

two source contributors. The large uncertainty ratio of geogenic natural sources resulted 338

in high uncertainty in this factor, suggesting a poorly-defined factor. As, for characterizing the factor, was the metal with the worst fitting score ( $r^2 = 0.5001$ ) determined by PMF receptor model (**Fig. S3**). The result of SOM also demonstrated two independent clusters characterized by As and Mn. Both reasons suggest that information characterized by As in PMF could cause the increase of uncertainty of geogenic natural sources and overestimate the contribution of the factor.

345 Nevertheless, all PMF results were still reliable according to the > 95% BS
346 mapping factors and the zero swap for dQmax for DISP method (Supplementary
347 Material Part 1).

#### 348 3.4 Contamination and ecological risk assessment

The contamination level and ecological risk of each trace element in the northern, middle, and southern parts of the channel were identified by the SCM and SERM, and the results are illustrated in **Fig. 5** and **Table S2**. The uncertainty of the spatial sediment heterogeneity was described as the probability distribution in the classes of contamination level and ecological risk. Additionally, Mn was not considered in the risk assessment owing to the lack of background information and its low toxicity in a non-acidic environment.

# Fig. 5a shows that Pb showed low contamination levels in the water channel while Cr, Ni, As, Cd, and Pb reached moderate contamination levels. The contamination levels (probability in %) of Cu, Hg, and Zn in the northern area were moderate (93%), moderate (100%), and considerable (100%), respectively, while those in the

360 middle/southern area were considerable (100%/80%), considerable (100%/0%), and 361 very high (70%/76%), respectively. Considering the spatial variation of contamination, 362 the highest metal contamination was found in the middle area, whereas the lowest was 363 found in the northern area. Hg in the north and south had 18% and 4% probability, 364 respectively, in moderate contamination levels but could possibly deteriorate the water 365 quality to the next contamination category.

As shown in **Fig. 5b**, Most elements were identified as posing low risks to the aquatic ecosystem. However, Hg showed a significantly higher ecological risk. Besides, the presence of Cd in the northern and southern areas had probabilities of 30% and 21%, respectively, increasing the ecological risk from low to moderate.

The relatively lower contamination level and ecological risk in the northern area were caused by the fact that the northern area of the channel was developed as a pilot wetland where the water quality was significantly improved. In contrast, the channels in the middle and southern areas were the main shipping channels connecting Wuxi and the Wangyu River, and the anthropogenic activities were relatively more intensive in the middle and southern area than in the northern area, which resulted in a higher trace metal pollution in sediments and greater ecological risk to benthic organisms.

377 **5. CONCLUSION** 

The results show that Ni, Cu, Zn, and Cr, had higher contents in sediments than those of the geogenic background concentrations, indicating a significant impact of anthropogenic activities on the enrichment of trace pollutants in the given area. 381 According to the SOM cluster analysis and constrained PMF source apportionment, the 382 primary human-related sources were agricultural, industrial and vehicular, and 383 geogenic natural sources. Agricultural sources showed high contributions mainly in the 384 middle area of the lake. Industrial and vehicular sources contributed significantly to the southern area of the lake. The geogenic natural sources had a relatively higher 385 386 uncertainty than the other two sources, but the uncertainty can be acceptable. According to the results derived from the SCM and SERM, moderate and considerable 387 388 contamination levels were mostly found in the lake, which was strongly related to 389 human activities. Hg and Cd in the sediments had the potential to increase risk in the 390 studied urban aquatic system.

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Study area		Cr	Mn	Ni	Cu	Zn	As	Cd	Hg	Pb
This	Mean	153.00	697.00	89.00	104.00	418.00	14.00	0.10	0.17	17.40
study	Median	129.00	645.00	87.00	90.00	375.00	13.85	0.09	0.17	17.10
	Dense	75.00-	340.00-	59.00-	31.00-	203.00-	7.82–	0.02-	0.04–	8.50-
	Range	533.00	1170.00	183.00	479.00	895.00	21.50	0.37	0.38	27.80
	CV (%)	60.10	33.66	28.67	78.12	42.47	30.72	62.58	44.65	29.89
	Background (mg/kg) <sup>1</sup>	83.000	/	35.200	27.000	69.000	9.200	0.082	0.060	23.900
Taihu Basin (Bian et al., 2016)		89.42	/	43.00	86.00	147.20	10.98	0.66	0.13	50.83
Yangtze-Taihu section (Qin et al., 2015)		65.79	/	/	26.60	124.73	10.57	1.78	/	44.11
Han River (Cao et al., 2018)		77.50	/	29.60	46.00	144.20	/	0.26	/	40.10
Chaohu Lake (Fang et al., 2019a)		72.5		/	26.0	137.8	10.4	0.44	0.114	47.1
East Lake, Wuhan (Jiang et al., 2018)		151.00	/	27.60	56.10	224.00	200.00	0.92	0.18	7.60
Lihu Lake (Wang et al., 2019a)		77.400	/	29.100	31.000	102.200	12.400	0.360	0.097	74.500
Poyang Lake (Dai et al., 2018)		135.9	/	/	62.0	132.9	/	0.7	/	77.4
Yellow River (Yan et al., 2016)		62.400	/	23.600	40.700	68.400	2.460	0.085	/	15.200

Table 1 Comparison between the trace metal (Cd, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Cr, Hg, and Pb) concentrations in the study, the geogenic background, and

410 the average concentrations in other rivers/lakes in China (mg/kg dry weight).

409

Weihe Basin (Wang et al.,	75 70	/	26.61	21.80	70 70	/	0.10	1	20.91
2019b)	73.70	/	20.04	21.80	70.79	/	0.19	/	20.81

411 Note:

- <sup>412</sup> <sup>1</sup>The background values of trace elements were referenced from their contained in Xiashu loess owing to the strong effect of loess on the
- 413 river sediments in the Taihu Basin (Bian et al., 2016)

#### 414 **Figure captions**

415 Fig. 1 a) Map of the study area of Wanshan Lake, Wuxi, China and b-e) spatial
416 distribution of the trace metal (Cd, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Cr, Hg, and Pb) contents in
417 sediments.

- 418 **Fig. 2** a) Component planes of trace metals obtained by performing self-organising map
- 419 (SOM) analysis and b) the map unit labels with clusters I–IV derived from the K-means
- 420 algorithm. The hexagon in a certain position corresponds to the same map unit.
- 421 **Fig. 3** a) Fractional contributions of each factor to the trace metal content in sediments
- 422 and spatial contribution distribution percentage of b) agricultural sources, c) industrial
- 423 and vehicular sources, and d) geogenic natural sources among the total pollution
- 424 contribution in Wanshan Lake without considering M6.
- 425 Fig. 4 Simulated concentrations Upper uncertainty intervals of the trace metals by BS
  426 method and DISP method for each factor.
- 427 **Fig. 5** Rose chart of the a) contamination level and b) ecological risk of trace metals in
- 428 sediments through the stochastic contamination model (SCM) and risk determination
- 429 model (SERM). The angular axis presents the probability of a variable in a specific

430 class.











Fig. 4



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