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Highlights

In this study we present the mineralogy of the Guadiana estuarine sediments.

The geochemical speciation and the mineralogy explain the element distribution.

We combine multiple techniques (XRD, SEM, BCR extraction and risks assessment)

The study reveals the environmental vulnerability of the Guadiana estuarine sediments.

1	SPECIATION AND ECOLOGICAL RISK OF TOXIC ELEMENTS IN ESTUARINE SEDIMENTS
2	AFFECTED BY MULTIPLE ANTHROPOGENIC CONTRIBUTIONS (GUADIANA
3	SALTMARSHES, SW IBERIAN PENINSULA): I. SURFICIAL SEDIMENTS.
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14	Recent studies have demonstrated that the Guadiana Estuary contains metal concentrations in
15	excess of background values. Therefore, this work aims to document the potential
16	environmental hazards associated with the availability of these metals in this environment of
17	high ecological value. Mineralogical analysis shows that the sediments are composed mainly of
18	quartz, albite, and clay minerals (illite, smectite, kaolinite, and vermiculite) along with several
19 20	small, reactive compounds (including soluble sulphated salts, Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, organic
20	matter, and pyrite) capable of retaining metals, which can be subsequently released, causing
21 22	environmental degradation. BCR sequential extraction shows that As, Cd, Cu, Mn, Pb, and Zn present mobile fractions with respect to the total metal content (41, 100, 57, 53, 70, and 69%,
22	respectively) in any of the described reactive phases $(F1+F2+F3)$. Calculated environmental
23 24	risk indices demonstrate moderate to considerable ecological risk for almost the entire estuary,
25	associated mainly with acid mine drainage from the nearby Iberian Pyrite Belt. In addition, the
26	indices highlight several zones of extremely high risk, which are related to industrial and urban
27	dumps in the vicinity of the estuary and to heavy traffic on the international bridge.
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29	Keywords: Guadiana Estuary, sediment pollution, metal speciation, sequential extraction, ecological risk indices.
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1 **1. Introduction**

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3 The Guadiana River drains the western part of the Iberian Pyrite Belt (IPB), one of the world's 4 most important metallogenetic sulphide provinces (Figure 1), where mining dates back to the 5 Third Millennium B.C. (Nocete et al., 2005). Associated with these mining areas are acidic 6 leachates containing high concentrations of metals, metalloids, and sulphates, collectively 7 known as acid mine drainage (AMD). Extractions of minerals from the IPB were particularly intense in the middle of the 19th century (Morral, 1990); since then, activity has declined with 8 9 only a small number of currently active mines. However, the environmental impact of AMD 10 still exists. There are several sources of AMD, including outcrops of polymetallic sulphide 11 deposits, the products related to the exploitation of these deposits (such as waste piles, residues 12 from the smelting process, ashes, and low-grade stockpiles), and the abandoned underground 13 stopes and chambers. Metals and metalloids leaching from abandoned, sulphide-rich mines are a 14 very important source of environmental pollution of water, soils, and sediments in the IPB 15 (Romero et al., 2006; Pérez-López et al., 2008). These leachates are responsible for the 16 present pollution and the degradation in water quality of the lower part of the Guadiana River 17 Basin (GRB) and, consequently, of the estuarine sediments, which act as the final continental 18 filters prior to fluvial discharge into the Gulf of Cádiz.

19 The consequences of these intense mining activities in the GRB have been documented in 20 various recent studies (e.g. Álvarez-Valero et al., 2008; Pérez-López et al., 2008; Delgado et 21 al., 2009). However, there has been only limited investigative effort made to evaluate the 22 consequences of these activities in the estuarine area. The estuarine area is recognised as having 23 high ecological value and contains the Natural Area "Marismas de Isla Cristina" in the Spanish 24 sector of the estuary and the Natural Reserve "Sapal de Castro Marim y Vila Real de Sto. 25 António" in the Portuguese sector. However, existing studies of the polluting agents in the 26 Guadiana Estuary (Morales, 1997; Ruiz et al., 2001; Delgado et al., 2009b; Delgado et al., 27 **2010**) are not sufficient to evaluate their total environmental impact because the chemical state 28 in which elements are present in the sediments (easily exchangeable ions, metal carbonates,

1 oxides, sulphides, organometallic compounds, ions in crystal lattices of minerals, etc.) needs to

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be known to evaluate their mobility, bio-availability, and toxicity (e.g. Usero et al., 1998;

3 Weisz et al., 2000; Yu et al., 2001; Pérez-López et al., 2008).

4 When environmental conditions change (pH, redox potential, organic matter, etc); some of the 5 sediment-bound metals can be remobilised and released back into the water, where they can 6 have adverse effects on living organisms (e.g. Li et al., 2001; Morillo et al., 2002; Peng et al., 7 2009). The most crucial property of metal ions is that they are bioavailable and not 8 biodegradable in the environment and that their uptake by benthonic organisms depends largely 9 on their mobility, total concentration, and chemical form (Morillo et al., 2007). Several 10 analytical methodologies based on sequential extraction procedures (SEP) have been devised to 11 study metal mobility and the potential level of bioavailability (Sundaray et al., 2011) in 12 sediments based on the sum of the exchangeable and associated carbonate fractions (e.g. 13 Kabala et al., 2001; Fuentes et al., 2004; Karbassi et al., 2005; Vanek et al., 2005). 14 Sequential extractions provide quantitative information about the distributions of various 15 elements among operationally defined geochemical fractions in soils, sediments, and waste 16 materials. Numerous sequential extraction methods are used at present, and they differ 17 according to the types of reagent used, the experimental conditions applied, and the numbers of 18 steps involved (e.g. Tessier et al., 1979; Gibson and Farmer, 1986; Dold, 2003). One of the 19 most common methods is the BCR sequential extraction scheme, a simple three-stage procedure 20 that has been thoroughly tested by inter-laboratory trials (Cappuyns et al., 2007). The original 21 sequential extraction was proposed by the European Community Bureau of Reference (BCR) to 22 standardize various existing procedures, obtaining three separate fractions (acid soluble-23 extractable, reducible, and oxidable) (Ure et al., 1993) and to achieve comparability when 24 sequential extraction is used (Quevauviller, 1997). This scheme has been improved in 25 subsequent studies (Rauret et al., 1999; Sahuquillo et al., 1999; Arain et al., 2008). The 26 digestion methods applied generally provide information on the total or pseudo-total content of 27 trace elements in sediments without giving a direct evaluation of anthropogenic contributions 28 and the consequent pollution level of the sites (Perez-Santana et al., 2007).

1 The objectives of the present study were to investigate the mobility of the most toxic elements 2 (As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Mn, Ni, Pb, S, and Zn) in the Guadiana saltmarsh sediments by 3 applying the BCR (modified) sequential extraction scheme to this environment affected by 4 multiple anthropogenic contaminants, to combine the sequential extraction data with 5 mineralogical analyses from X-ray diffraction (XRD) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), 6 and to determine the mineral reactivity occurring in the estuary. The aforementioned techniques, 7 along with the calculation of ecotoxicity indexes, should allow us to establish monitoring 8 strategies for future action plans on this site of high ecological value. In addition, based on the 9 results obtained in this work, a detailed study of two boreholes through the Holocene infill of 10 the Guadiana Estuary is currently underway, using the same methodology and also examining 11 rare earth elements (REEs). The drilling is expected to reveal the evolution of the ecological 12 evolution of the Guadiana Estuary during the last 13,000 years and should improve our 13 understanding of metal fractionation in environments historically affected by AMD.

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15 **2. Materials and methods**

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17 2.1. Description of sampling sites and superficial sediments

The physiographic and geological characteristics of the study area have been thoroughly
described in recent studies (Boski et al., 2002; Boski et al., 2008; Delgado et al., 2009a;
20 2010).

For sampling of surficial sediments, 20 representative sampling points in the estuarine area were selected. The sampling points were positioned in the lower estuary within 30 km of the shoreline, coinciding with the marine domain (Figure 1). The surface sediments correspond to the margins of the principal channels in the estuary (Figure 1); these include the main channel of the Guadiana River itself, the "Carrasqueira" and "Castro Marim" stream channels (Portuguese basin), and the stream channels "La Canela", "San Bruno", and "Carreras" (Spanish basin). The channels' active margins are situated between the mean spring low-water and mean neap

28 high-water (Borrego et al., 1995). For this reason, they undergo tidal action (flooded during

high tide) and represent the current environmental state of the sedimentary system of interest
 (Delgado et al., 2010). Further details about the sampling and sample pre-treatment are
 described in Delgado et al. (2010).

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2.1.1. Sequential extractions procedure (SEP)

6 The SEP applied in this study was the improved version of the initial BCR three-step scheme
7 (Quevauviller et al., 1997). The procedure is summarized below and full details are reported
8 elsewhere (e.g., Rauret et al., 1999; Sahuquillo et al., 1999).

9 Step 1. (water/acid soluble and exchangeable fraction/carbonate included): acetic acid (20 ml of 0.11 M solution) was added to 0.5 g of accurately weighed sample in 50 ml polyethylene centrifuge tubes, and shaken for 16 h at room temperature. The extracts were then separated from the residue by centrifuging for 20 min at 3000 rpm, decantation into polyethylene containers and storage at 4° C for analysis. The residues were washed with 10 ml de-ionized water by shaking for 15 min and centrifuged.

15 Step 2. (reducible fraction): 20 ml of 0.1 M hydroxylammonium chloride (adjusted to pH of 16 around 2 by adding HNO₃) were added to residues from Step 1. The extraction was performed 17 as described in Step 1.

18 **Step 3.** (oxidisable): 10 ml of 8.8M H_2O_2 (pH 2.0–3.0) was added drop-by-drop to the residues 19 from Step 2. The tubes were covered and the contents were digested for 1 h at room temperature 20 and 1 h at 85° C in a water bath. Volume was reduced to around 2–3 ml by evaporation. Step 3 21 was performed twice. Finally, 25 ml of 1M ammonium acetate (adjusted to pH 2 by adding 22 HNO₃) was added to the cool residues, which were separated and rinsed as described in Step 1.

Step 4. (residual fraction): The residue from Step 3 was treated by the procedure used for determination of the pseudo-total trace elements content by *aqua regia* digestion (10 ml of a mixture of 12M HCl and 15.8 M HNO₃ in a 3:1 ratio) in teflon reactors. Reactors were maintained for 20 h in a fume hood and then simmered on a hot plate for 1 h at 100° C.

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2.1.2. Analysis and quality control of the data

2 Total element concentrations were measured by Acme Analytical Laboratories Ltd (Vancouver, 3 Canada), accredited under ISO 9002, through its Italian affiliate (ERS Srl, Napoli), by 4 inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) and inductively coupled 5 plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). A total of 36 elements (Ba, Al, K, Mg, Mn, Si, Ag, As, 6 Be, Bi, Ca, Cd, Ce, Co, Cr, Fe, Cu, Li, Mo, Na, Ni, P, Pb, Sb, S, Se, Sn, Sr, Te, Ti, Tl, U, V, W, 7 Y, and Zn) were reported for a 0.1-g sample analysed by ICP-emission spectrometry following 8 a lithium metaborate/tetraborate fusion and dilute nitric acid digestion. The most polluting 9 elements form the basis for subsequent discussion: S, Fe, As, Cd, Cr, Co, Cu, Ni, Pb, Zn, and 10 Mn. Hereafter, the term "metal" includes both metals (e.g. Cd) and metalloids (e.g. As). 11 Although the sequential extraction procedure is usually applied for assessing metal mobility, S 12 is also discussed within this group because it is the most abundant element in AMD; Ca is also 13 discussed because of the important role of CaCO₃ in the incorporation of trace metals that are 14 released under acid conditions (Ayyamperumal et al. 2006). Total carbon and sulphur were 15 determined by loss on ignition (LECO) and have been reported in a recent paper (Delgado et 16 al., 2010).

Accuracy was calculated with respect to Acme's in-house reference materials DS7 and SO-18.
These were calibrated for an *aqua regia* digestion/ICP-MS determination with published values
for concentrated HCl and HNO₃ digestion in the Canadian Certified Reference Materials Project
(CCRMP) TILL-4 and LKSD-2.

In addition, four replicates were analysed to check the quality of the analysis. The relative
percentage difference (% RPD) was calculated (Equation 1). The results for % RPD (Table 1)
were reasonably good and close to zero, the expected value. Most values were below 0.5%,
except for Cr at 2.14%. All RPD values were lower than 5%.

Evaluation of the analytical performance of the total concentration was made by analysing the certified reference materials (CRMs) STSD-1 and STSD-2 (from stream sediments). The measured concentrations of all analytes (Table 1) coincide with, or are very close to, the standard reference values. Generally, the recovery ranges (Equation 2) of the principal elements under study (Fe, Al, As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, and Zn) were between 78.5 and 105%, except
 those for Cd and Cr, for which there were no certified reference values.

3 For the studied elements, an internal check of the results was performed by comparing the sum 4 of the four steps from the SEP (acid-soluble + reducible + oxidisable + residual) with the 5 analysis of total element concentration (Acme Analytical Laboratories) reported in Table 3. 6 These calculations can be used to validate the results and for inter-laboratory comparisons 7 (Pérez-López et al., 2008). The recovery percentage of the sequential extraction was calculated 8 using Equation 3. The calculations revealed good percentage recoveries for As, Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, 9 Ni, Pb, and Zn, indicating the reliability of the data (except for Cd, because of its low 10 concentrations). The average recovery value for the studied major elements and metals was $90 \pm$ 11 17% (Table 2).

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13	% RPD = (S-D)/(S+D)/2) X 100.	Equation 1
14	Where: $S =$ determined value of the samples, $D =$ value of the duplicates.	
15	% Recovery = (Obtained value/Certified value) X 100	Equation 2
16	%Recovery = (F1 + F2 + F3 + R/ Total Concentration) x 100	Equation 3
17	With the Tradition of the standard standa	•

17 Where: Total concentration refers to the values obtained by Acme Laboratories.

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In addition, the results obtained for extractable concentrations were compared with indicative or certified values following the procedures for the standard reference material (BCR-701), and they showed that certified (or indicative) and obtained values were not significantly different (Table 2). All these considerations provided an assurance of the quality of the analytical extraction data.

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25 2.2. Mineralogical characterisation

26 Mineralogical characterisation of the sediment was performed by X-ray diffraction (XRD)
27 techniques on a Bruker AXS model D8 Advance diffractometer. Working conditions were as
28 follows: slit fixed at 12 mm, CuKα monochromatic radiation, 20 mA, and 40 kV. Random

powders were scanned from 3 to $65^{\circ} 2\theta$ at 0.5 s counting time per step. For clay mineral identification, oriented aggregates of the <2-µm fraction were obtained by sedimentation and then saturated with ethylene glycol (EG) under vacuum for 48 h. This was followed by a thermal treatment (TT) at 550°C for 2 h. Treated, oriented aggregates were scanned from 3 to 20° 20 at 0.5 s counting time per step. Semi-quantitative mineralogical determination was estimated with *XPowder* software (**Martin, 2004**).

In order to complete the mineralogical characterization, selected samples were examined on a JEOL JSM-5410 scanning electron microscope (SEM) operating with an accelerating voltage of 20 kV, using back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging and energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) microanalysis (Link ISIS system) to identify amorphous or poorly-crystallised phases and accessory heavy minerals. Additionally, a sequential mineralogical study was developed on each residue of the SEP to understand the reactivity of the metal in the different geochemical fractions of the sediments.

14 2.3. Statistical analysis

15 Multivariate statistical analysis of the principal components (PCA) was performed using a 16 Pearson's correlation matrix (0.05 significance level) to evaluate the levels of association of the 17 variables (metals-metalloids) at the different steps of the SEP. This technique has been widely 18 used to distinguish the factors that control the geochemical behaviour of metals in the estuarine 19 system (e.g. Wu et al. 2007). The values of the factor matrix can be improved by using the 20 varimax rotation method, which maximizes factor variance (Kaiser et al., 1958), because it is an 21 orthogonal rotation that minimises the number of variables that have high loadings on each 22 factor, thereby simplifying the transformed data matrix and assisting interpretation.

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24 2.4. Quantification of sediment pollution

A significant number of indicators designed to approximate the quality of sediments and soils and the risk that these pose to aquatic ecosystems can be found in the literature (**e.g. Caeiro et al., 2005**). To establish the environmental risk of the Guadiana Estuary sediments, the potential ecological risk was estimated by calculating some of these frequently used pollution indices as
 follows.

3 Potential ecological risk was defined by Hakånson et al., (1980) and was used as a diagnostic 4 tool for water pollution control purposes: This empirical index provides a simple comparative 5 tool for assessing the level of heavy metal pollution (Bhuiyan et al., 2010) and allows 6 comparisons to be made between several estuarine systems.

7 The distribution of metal and metalloid pollution in the different phases of the modified BCR 8 procedure offers an indication of their availability, which, in turn, enables a risk assessment to 9 be made of the present pollutants in the aquatic environment (Chen et al., 2010). In this 10 context, the sediments were classified according to a Risk Assessment Code (RAC) used in 11 previous investigations of heavy metal pollution of sediments (e.g. Perin et al., 1985). The 12 RAC is assigned by taking into account the percentage of metal associated with the 13 soil/sediment in the exchangeable and carbonate fractions: there is no risk when the F1 BCR 14 fraction is lower than 1%; low risk for a range of 1-10%; medium risk for a range of 11-30%; 15 high risk from 31 to 50%; and very high risk for higher F1 percentages.

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17 **3. Results and Discussion**

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3.1. Sediment characteristics

Table 3 shows the total concentrations obtained for major oxides (%) and for the main metals and metalloids (mg kg⁻¹) that can be hazardous to the environment. The mineral phases and the semiquantitative mean percentages determined by "*Xpowder*" software from 20 sediment samples are shown in Figure 2. The XRD study shows that the surface sediments are composed mainly of quartz, feldspar type *albite*, and clay minerals in average proportions of 69.89, 6.67 and 23.44%, respectively (Figure 2A).

The clay-group minerals present in the sediments were determined by means of specific treatments. The oriented aggregates allowed the distinction of *illite* in all samples, with a mean of 6.67%. Subsequently, oriented aggregates were treated with EG to distinguish the presence of 1 smectites and vermiculites (Figure 2B, top). The results show that the smectite- and kaolinite-2 type phylosilicates dominate over the *vermiculite*-type in surface samples. Thus, the mean 3 percentage of vermiculite is 6.38, while *smectites-kaolinites* have higher values, with a mean of 4 10.49%. Moreover, oriented aggregates were subjected to a thermal treatment at 550°C, which 5 destroys kaolinite, thus allowing distinction between it and the chlorite-group minerals. As 6 shown in Figure 2B (bottom), a collapse of the 7Å peak is produced, which implies that kaolinite is the detected mineral phase. The results for the peak located at 14Å are consistent 7 8 with the results of treatment with EG, because at that temperature the collapse of vermiculite 9 can also be seen.

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3.2. SEM data

12 A scanning electron microscope was used to aid in characterizing the mineralogy of the 13 sediments, focusing on the main metallic phases that are unlikely to be distinguished by XRD. 14 The SEM spectra (Figures 3 and 4) indicate that the sediments are composed mainly of Si, Al, 15 Fe, Mg, Mn, and, to a lesser extent, Ca and K. In addition, Fe oxyhydroxides [probably low 16 crystalline or amorphous phases (Figure 3A)], fine-grained sulphide minerals, and native 17 sulphur were identified (Figure 3C). Pyrite appears in two neoformational habits: small 18 aggregated crystals occupying hollows or on other mineral surfaces (Figure 3B up) and 19 framboidal pyrite (Figure 3B down), both suggesting *in situ* secondary precipitation (Sarmiento 20 et al., 2009). In this case, perfectly spherical framboids could be identified in the sediments 21 (Figure 3B, down), characteristic of a slow-growing mineralization according to **Butler and** 22 **Rickard**, (2000). In general, the framboids show a size distribution below 10 µm, suggesting 23 formation in an anoxic environment (Hawkins and Rimmer, 2002).

Various studies have attempted to explain the formation of framboidal pyrite (**Ohfuji and Richard, 2005**). Some authors claim that this morphology is the result of the pyritisation (DOP) of bacteria (**Love, 1957**); while others claim it is a process of DOP up to organic particles or colloids (**Kribek, 1975**). More recent studies suggest another mineral (*greigite* - Fe₃S₄) as a precursor to inorganic oxidation (**Butler and Rickard, 2000**). In summary, although the exact mode of production of framboidal pyrite in sediment remains contentious, it obviously implies a
 process of sulphide reduction.

Nevertheless, the pyrite/Fe-oxyhydroxide association could also point to their formation at the expense of the amorphous or poorly crystallized Fe oxyhydroxides, which abound in these sediments. Thus, the Fe oxyhydroxides' reactivity (**Haese, 2001**) depends on their crystalchemical parameters as well as on other factors like the selectivity of the organisms involved in the reduction process. As an example, according to **Lovely and Phillips (1986)**, *Geobacter metallireducens* are capable of reducing amorphous and poorly crystalline Fe phases but not crystalline ones.

In recent studies (**Otero and Macías, 2002a, b**), the presence of Fe oxyhydroxides in anoxic environments is argued based on two modes: I) sediment is colonized by vascular plants (mainly *Spartina maritima*) and high pyrite concentrations, and part of the Fe is mobilized to the surface, where it is oxidised and precipitates, generating high quantities of reactive Fe; and II) the Fe²⁺ generated by amorphous Fe oxyhydroxides is adsorbed on the surface of the crystalline Fe oxyhydroxides, thus preserving their structure.

16 The presence of lanthanide group elements (La and Ce) was detected, associated with P (Figure 17 3A bottom) and with other major constituents, which points to the precipitation of secondary 18 minerals such as *monazite*, whose presence may be controlled by P inputs related to the 19 extended use of phosphate fertilizers in the inner zones of the basin. In this case, REE 20 fractionation is probably attributable to the presence of P in the estuarine waters, although 21 recent studies in the source area show MREE enrichment of the leachates originating from the 22 massive sulphides (**Pérez-López et al., 2010**).

The presence of Cu associated with S (Figure 4A) enables the existence of secondary sulphated salts capable of retaining heavy metals that can be subsequently liberated, causing estuarine degradation when environmental conditions, such as pH and salinity, change (Pérez et al., 1991).

The sequential mineralogical study (Figure 4) allowed the reactivity of the metal phases to be
determined. Therefore, the resistance of the Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides and pyrite to neutral or acetic

acid (0.11 mol/l) solutions (F1) was checked (see Figure 4A for an example). The SEM images
confirmed that the Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides were dissolved in step 2 and pyrite in step 3 associated
with the oxidisable fraction. *Monazite*, as previously described, was still observed after step 2
(Figure 4B, sample CAN-1). According to the literature (Oelkers et al, 2002), monazite
dissolution rates are relatively low, as they are controlled by the breaking of strong O-REE
links.

Also of note is the association between Ca and elements such as S and Fe (Figure 4A, top), as
previously described for the Holocene sediments of the Guadiana Estuary (Boski et al., 2008).
This association could explain pyrite oxidation processes under locally acidic conditions in the
presence of shell fragments that release Ca, favouring the precipitation of secondary carbonates
like *siderite* (FeCO₃) that usually incorporate metals such as As, Cd, or Cu.

Finally, heavy accessory minerals resistant to the sedimentary cycle (*zircon* and *titanite*) were identified, according to previous studies of the Huelva littoral sediments (**Fernández-Caliani et al., 1997**), as well as other accessory minerals originating from the source area, such as *apatite*, preserving its typical prismatic habit (Figure 4C).

16 The progressive removal of metallic phases is shown in Figure 4D, which depicts the sequence 17 of the treatment from F1 to F4 (attack with *aqua regia*, pseudo-total concentrations). Most of 18 the bright metallic elements (images of back-scattered electrons) present in F1 disappear after 19 F4 treatment because of the progressive dissolution of soluble salts, Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, 20 authigenic sulphides, and, lastly, silicate minerals strongly resistant to the steps of the treatment.

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3.3. Geochemical fractionation

To determine the reactivity of the mineral phases capable of incorporating metals and
metalloids, the leachates from each step of the SEP of the sediments of the Guadiana Estuary
were analysed and are shown in Figure 5 as percentages of As, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni,
Pb, S, and Zn.

27 Considering the mobile fraction (F1+F2+F3) of surficial sediments (Pérez-López et al.,
28 2008), high percentages of As, Cd, Co, Cu, Mn, Pb, S, and Zn (41, 100, 51, 57, 53, 70, 96, and

1 69%, respectively) were recovered. Among the considered elements, Fe, Cr, and Ni have similar 2 distributions, with recovery percentages below 30%. These elements show natural 3 concentrations and are associated with the finer fraction of the sediments and with Al content 4 (Delgado et al., 2010). On the other hand, the distribution of Fe (Figure 5A) is important, as the 5 higher proportions (average concentrations above 5000 ppm) were extracted in the reducible 6 fraction (F2), associated with Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, and thus it plays an important role in the 7 leaching of metals into the environment. Such metals are still labile and may be released upon 8 decomposition of the oxides under the suboxic conditions produced during high tide periods; 9 consequently, they could present a significant risk to soil quality and biota (Chlopecka, 1996).

10 Chromium (36 ppm) and Ni (29 ppm) concentrations (Table 3) are low, similar to that of Co, 11 which, in spite of extraction percentages above 51%, has low concentrations (average 18 ppm). 12 These three elements are at close to the background values determined by Delgado et al., 13 (2009b) and do not pose overall risks for the estuary. However, recent studies (Delgado et al., 14 2010) have demonstrated that, in some areas (e.g. Castro Marim tidal channel), Ni can 15 represent an environmental risk, reaching values 12 times above the background of the area. 16 Preferable extraction of Cr in the oxidisable fraction has been previously reported in estuarine 17 environments (e.g. Pazos-Capeans et al., 2005), associated with sulphides or with organic 18 matter. The similar extraction of Co, Cr, and Ni in the F2 and F3 stages indicates that Fe oxide 19 (Sakan et al., 2009) and sulphide/organic matter, respectively, are the most significant phases 20 for binding these elements.

21 The rest of the studied elements (As, Cd, Cu, Pb, Zn, and S) are generally associated with 22 sulphide mineral oxidation processes and the generation of AMD. These elements have the 23 highest extraction percentages, reaching values near 100% in the water-soluble fraction (F1) for 24 Cd as well as rather high percentages of Zn, S, and Mn. This fraction poses the main 25 environmental risk for aquatic ecosystems (Morillo et al., 2007) because the metals contained 26 are easily leached in neutral or slightly acidic waters and are thus amenable to assimilation by 27 organisms. For this reason, numerous authors have proposed F1 as the more bio-available 28 fraction (e.g. Kabata-Pendias, 1993; Alvarez-Valero et al., 2009) in the environment and could therefore be used to assess the potential ecological risk. These weakly absorbed metals,
 retained on the sediment surface by relatively weak electrostatic interaction (such as within clay
 minerals, organic matter, and hydrous oxides), can be released by ion-exchange processes and
 precipitated or co-precipitated with the carbonates present in many soils (Marín et al., 1997;

5 Filgueiras et al., 2004).

6 The hazardousness of Cd should be highlighted, because it was recovered in the F1 fraction 7 up to 88% in all samples of the estuary (mean value of 0.15 ppm), with particularly high 8 concentrations in samples such as CAN-1 (0.5 ppm), S-00-15 (0.7 ppm), and LEZ-6 (1.4 ppm).

9 The high percentages of Cd obtained from F1 leaching could be related to the selective 10 oxidisation of the pyrite and to the formation of secondary carbonates (siderite) capable of 11 retaining heavy metals. This notion is supported by its high affinity with Ca under alkaline and 12 oxidising conditions; Cd with Ca, which showed high concentrations in this phase, were 13 released from carbonates. Apart from this source, which is clearly related to AMD, Cd can also 14 be released from several sources in the area, including fuel combustion, phosphate fertilizers, 15 road traffic, sewage sludge, and waste disposal (Hutton, 1983), all related to demographic 16 pressure in the vicinity of the mouth of the Guadiana River.

The mean recovery percentages for Mn in F1 were 25% (around 124 ppm), but they reached maximum values of 45% in samples RG-17, CARR-11, and CAR-11. High values of Mn associated with F1 have been reported in other sediment studies (**Sakan et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2010**). In this case, Mn^{2+} can be more easily adsorbed on the surfaces of fine granules than can other ions, and it can be precipitated under higher pH conditions ranging from 8.5 to 10 (**Lui et al., 2005**), a range that has been determined in the study area by **Delgado et al., (2009a)**. Furthermore, it could interact with CO_3^{2-} to form $MnCO_3$ (*rhodochrosite*).

Zinc was extracted in F1 in average proportion of 36% of the total concentration (66 ppm)
and S in mean proportion of 42%. These elements are likely related to water or acid-soluble
sulphidic compounds, typical of metal-enriched environments (e.g. Cánovas et al., 2007; **Barba-Brioso et al., 2009**), and to the formation of organo-metallic compounds associated with
the F3 fraction, as previously documented in the IPB (Morillo et al., 2008).

1 Lead and Cu are mainly associated with the reducible fraction (F2), accompanied by 2 noticeable proportions of Zn, attaining mean values of 65, 35 and 26%, respectively. 3 Concentrations of these elements as high as 22, 20 and 50 ppm, respectively, were extracted, 4 similar to the results reported in several previous studies (e.g., Morillo et al., 2008; Wang et 5 al., 2009). The accumulation of hazardous metals in the reducible fraction is in accordance with 6 many studies showing that Fe-Mn-oxyhydroxides are important scavengers of these metals in 7 soils and that they play an important role in controlling their mobility in the environment (Burt 8 et al., 2003; Kaasalainen and Yli-Halla, 2003; Alvarez et al., 2006; Davidson et al., 2006). 9 Arsenic also appears to be associated with F2, probably related to Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, as 10 arsenate is commonly adsorbed onto Fe (III) hydroxides (Dold and Fontboté, 2001). This 11 element shows slightly higher mean values in the oxidisable fraction (F3) (12% of the total 12 concentration, 7 ppm), mainly associated with S (mean values 52%, 29 ppm). These 13 concentrations are probably related to the authigenic Fe-Cu sulphide formation and organic 14 matter, which play an important role in controlling the mobilization of As (Bhuiyan et al., 15 2010).

The elements associated with AMD processes in the inner zones of the GRB (**Delgado et al., 2009**) occur in the same association in the Guadiana sediments (**Delgado et al., 2010**). Moreover, recent isotopic studies (**Company et al., 2008**) confirm their association with polymetallic, massive sulphides upstream. Nonetheless, there exist other discrete sources, such as port activities, that are likely to be adding Zn and Pb (paint and fuel), or traffic on the international bridge, contributing to levels of Pb (**Delgado et al., 2010**) and to levels of other traffic-related elements such as As and Cd.

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3.4. Relationship between variables: PCA

Principal components analysis of the association of metal-metalloids with different reactive phases showed that the variables analysed account for 62, 66, 66, and 73% of the total sample variability from steps F1, F2, F3, and F4, respectively (Figure 6). In fact, the PCA simulation shows two groups of elements with a high level of association (correlation coefficient > 0.5) in step 1 of SEP (F1 fraction, water-soluble fraction and carbonates) based on the factor loading obtained. Group I is characterized by elements such as As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, and Zn preferentially associated with S, suggesting the association of metal-metalloid elements with sulphated salts precipitated during dry periods (Figure 6). Group II is characterized by an association of Fe, Ca, Mn, and Pb, which confirms the presence of secondary carbonate precipitates, such as *siderite* (Fe carbonate) or *rhodochrosite* (Mn carbonate), capable of retaining metallic elements.

8 The analysis for step 2 (F2, reducible fraction) of SEP is characterized by the distribution of two 9 groups of elements. Group I, composed of As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Zn, and Pb associated with Fe, 10 confirms the important role of Fe oxyhydroxides in the retention of the metallic elements in the 11 F2 fraction. Group II contains elements not associated with the Fe oxyhydroxides, such as Co, 12 Ni, Ca, and Mn.

The analysis for F3 (oxidisable fraction) seems to show the relationship between the trace elements and sulphides/organic matter. Figure 6 shows a concentrated group of elements (S, Fe, Cu, and Zn) that confirm this association. Finally, for F4 (residual fraction), there is no clear relationship evident between the elements. However, a visual assessment of the distribution of elements in Figure 6 shows that a group of elements (Mn, Fe, Cu, Co, Cr, Ni, and Zn) characterized by their affinity to the silicate minerals can be distinguished.

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3.5. Ecological risk assessment

It should be noted that the RAC does not take into account the total metal concentration (Keller and Hammer 2004). However, the RAC code may be useful in assessing the environmental risk using sequential extractions as a characterization method (**Jain**, **2004**; **Singh** et al., **2005**; **Liu et al.**, **2009**; **Rodriguez et al.**, **200**9). Based on this premise, the RAC results show that Cd (FI = 88.01%) represents a very high ecological risk, and Zn (F1 = 36.13%) and Mn (F1 = 25%) a medium risk. The rest of the metals (except Pb with F1 = 0.19%, no risk) represent a low environmental risk in the Guadiana Estuary (Figure 5 and Table 4).

1 Other parameters have been used in the literature to estimate the risk associated with metals 2 and metalloids in aquatic environments. The pollution load index (PLI) (Wilson and Jeffrey, 3 1987; S. Caeiro et al., 2005; Bhuiyan et al., 2010) and the degree of contamination (Dc) 4 (Hakånson et al., 1980; Chen et al., 2010) are based on the sum of the contamination factors 5 (C_{f}^{i}) , equivalent to the enrichment factors (EF). In general, the highest values of PLI (Table 4) 6 are indicative of the highest environmental risk for the Guadiana Estuary and are particularly 7 high in areas close to coastal populations (S-00-15; CAN-1; CAN-9; CARR-4), near the 8 international bridge (S-00-5), and in the Castro Marim tidal channel (LEZ-6; RG-3), all sites 9 that have been proposed by **Delgado et al. (2010)** as ecologically vulnerable. Similarly, the high 10 Dc values present in most of the estuary correspond to the most vulnerable areas identified 11 using the PLI, with the risk ranges established varying between moderate and very high in all 12 cases.

13 In spite of the good quality of these indexes for representing environmental risks, they do not 14 take into consideration the toxic response to the elements (T_r^{i}) , based mainly on the effects of 15 bio-production and of lipophilic substances engaged in the pattern of metals (Hakanson et al., 16 **1980**). For this reason, the potential ecological risk (Table 4) should be taken into consideration 17 for sustainable development (Chen et al., 2010). The RI (Håkanson et al., 1980) provides 18 information regarding the potential ecological risk that the sediments could pose in aquatic 19 environments resulting from the release of metals. For this reason, RI has been used frequently 20 as a diagnostic tool for water pollution control purposes, but the RI considers that the source of 21 contamination in water is the sediments and has therefore been used in a wide range of 22 ecological risk assessments of heavy metals in sediments. The calculations of RI values in the 23 present study have identified some environmental risk ranges lower than those for the other 24 reported indexes, although most of the vulnerable sites listed above remain consistent in the new 25 calculations. Samples such as S-00-5, S-00-12, and S-00-15 continue to indicate high ecological 26 risk values, while samples such as LEZ-6, CAN-1, and CARR-4 decrease from very high to 27 considerable risk, and others such as CAN-9 and RG-3 change from very high to moderate risk.

1 Sequential extraction investigations, widely described and used in the literature, normally 2 estimate the potential risk of a waste-soil-sediment based on relative comparison. However, 3 these indexes are an approach to environmental risk associated with metals and the effects they 4 may cause in this environment of high ecological value. These effects are currently not 5 significant, but they could be more evident with the human impacts on the environment such as 6 the recent proposal to dredge the main channel of the estuary to increase tourism in the 7 emergent coastal area. Nevertheless, the results obtained using the most relevant potential 8 toxicity indexes suggest that a toxicological study should be made for a better characterization 9 of the total bioavailability of pollutants in the study area.

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11 4. Conclusions

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This research has examined the ecological risks posed by toxic elements in the surficial sediments of the Guadiana Estuary on the border between Spain and Portugal. A mineralogical study of the sediments showed that the main components of the sediments are quartz, albite, illite, smectite-kaolinite, and vermiculites. Although XRD did not identify reactive phases capable of containing potentially mobilised metals, the SEM analysis showed the presence of soluble sulphated salts, low crystalline Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides, and authigenic pyrite, all capable of retaining elements such as As, Cd, Cu, Pb, and Zn.

The association of Fe, Ca, Mn, and Pb obtained in the F1 (mobile fraction) of the PCA points to the possible presence of secondary carbonate precipitates, such as *siderite* or *rhodochrosite*, capable of retaining metallic elements. The analysis also revealed a relationship between metalmetalloids and Fe oxyhydroxides in F2 (reducible fraction) and between trace elements and sulphides/organic matter in F3 (oxidisable fraction).

Based on the BCR F1 extraction percentages, the elements can be ordered in terms of their potential hazards: Cd > Zn > Mn > Cu > As > Pb. Elements such as Co, Cr, Ni, and Fe are present in sediments at natural (background) concentrations and do not pose any environmental risk, although the pattern of Fe oxyhydroxides may play an important role in the release of
 metals.

Because of the high F1+F2+F3 extraction percentages of Cd, Zn, Mn, Cu, As, and Pb, these elements could pose a potential environmental risk, especially for biota. Cadmium is of particular concern because it is highly toxic, while Zn and Mn have very high concentrations in the mobile and consequently more available fraction (F1) of the sediments.

7 Overall, environmental risk analysis for the metals investigated shows a moderate to 8 considerable ecological risk over almost the entire estuary, associated mainly with acid mining 9 drainage processes in the nearby Iberian Pyrite Belt. In addition, the analysis reveals the 10 existence of discrete zones of extremely high risk, particularly related to high concentrations of 11 As, Cd, Zn, Pb, and Hg, probably derived from industrial and urban dumps in the vicinity of the 12 estuary and from heavy volumes of traffic on the international bridge. The results of this 13 research should provide a reference point for future activities affecting the sediments of the 14 Guadiana estuary, such as construction of new bridges or dredging of the main channel to 15 improve its navigability.

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		CAN STSD-1			CAN STSD-2		
	Obteined value	Certified value	% Recovered	Obteined value	Certified value	% Recovered	% RPD
Al ₂ O ₃	8.67	9.00	96.3	16.0	16.1	99.4	1.49
Fe ₂ O ₃	6.28	6.50	96.6	7.35	7.50	98.0	0.34
CaO	3.66	3.60	102	4.18	4.00	105	0.66
MnO	0.47	0.50	94.0	0.13	0.10	130	0.06
TiO ₂	0.64	0.80	80.0	0.73	0.80	91.3	0.45
As	19.8	23.0	86.1	33.3	42.0	79.3	0.60
Cd	0.90	not data	-	0.80	not data	-	0.10
Со	16.3	17.0	95.9	20.0	19.0	105	0.40
Cr	54.4	not data	-	102	not data	-	2.14
Cu	34.6	36.0	96.1	41.2	47.0	87.7	0.90
Ni	19.3	24.0	80.4	49.2	53.0	92.8	0.50
Pb	37.4	35.0	107	68.5	66.0	104	0.50
Zn	150	178	84.3	193	246	78.5	0.90

Mayor in %, mirrors in ppm. % RPD (Relative Percentage Difference)

Table 1. Evaluation of the performance of the analysis using the % RPD and comparison with certified values.

ST	EPS / ELEMENT	As	Cd	Co	Cr	Cu	Ni	Fe	Mn	Pb	S	Zn	Ca
F1	Obtained value	-	7.05 ± 0.09	-	2.10 ± 0.15	48.0 ± 1.5	14.1 ± 0.1	-	-	2.55 ± 0.01	-	184 ± 7	-
	Certified value	-	7.34 ± 0.35	-	$\textbf{2.26} \pm \textbf{0.16}$	49.3 ± 1.7	15.4 ± 0.9	-	-	3.18 ± 0.21	-	205 ± 6	-
		-		-				-	-		-		-
F2	Obtained value	-	3.21 ± 0.02	-	47.0 ± 0.9	138 ± 3	27.5 ± 1.1	-	-	121 ± 3	-	98 ± 6	-
	Certified value	-	3.77 ± 0.28	-	45.7 ± 2.0	124 ± 3	26.6 ± 1.3	-	-	126 ± 3	-	114 ± 5	-
F3	Obtained value	-	0.09 ± 0.07	-	129 ± 13	46.9 ± 4.9	13.8 ± 3.7	-	-	9.5 ± 1.8	-	43.3 ± 13.3	-
	Certified value	-	0.27 ± 0.06	-	143 ± 7	55.2 ± 4.0	15.3 ± 0.9	-	-	9.3 ± 2.0	-	45.7 ± 4.0	-
		-		-				-	-		-		-
R	Obtained value	-	0.05 ± 0.01	-	52.3 ± 7.7	32.6 ± 3.8	31.3 ± 0.8	-	-	12.0 ± 0.7	-	69.6 ± 0.1	-
	Indicative value	-	0.125 ± 0.075	-	62.5 ± 7.4	38.5 ± 11.2	41.4 ± 4.0	-	-	11.0 ± 5.2	-	94.6 ± 12.2	-
%	Recovery (Eq. 3)	104	47	83	90	91	89	95	89	88	116	86	105

Certified BCR-701 References Material Values

Table 2. Quality control of data using: (1) measured, certified, and indicative values for extractable amounts in certified reference material BCR-701; and (2) comparative results (% recovery) calculated using Equation 3.

Sample	Al_2O_3	Fe ₂ O ₃	MnO	CaO	TOT/S	As	Cd	Со	Cr	Cu	Hg	Ni	Pb	Zn
BRU 2	15.39	6.13	0.07	0.94	0.07	21.8	0.20	17.4	37	48.5	0.33	26.8	30.5	136
BRU 5	16.46	5.95	0.04	0.63	0.42	29.4	0.40	21.0	40	69.3	0.40	32.1	42.5	234
CAN 1	16.26	6.12	0.05	0.84	0.23	44.6	0.50	20.5	35	64.8	0.57	28.9	47.9	271
CAN 9	16.35	6.31	0.06	0.99	0.53	26.1	0.40	20.9	38	65.8	0.47	30.5	43.4	205
CAR 4	15.78	5.86	0.05	0.81	0.09	21.2	0.20	14.1	32	39.4	0.31	22.7	25.6	123
CAR 12	15.88	6.33	0.11	0.62	0.23	39.6	0.20	16.8	39	49.5	0.24	30.9	39.0	182
CARR 4	13.59	5.04	0.04	0.92	1.22	27.4	0.40	15.1	31	43.3	0.45	23.0	32.3	173
CARR 11	15.29	6.07	0.06	0.84	0.08	30.8	0.10	17.1	37	64.9	0.42	26.0	41.4	181
CARR 15	16.59	6.12	0.04	0.69	0.33	28.8	0.20	16.1	41	66.6	0.53	28.9	46.8	215
LEZ 6	16.82	6.77	0.05	0.85	0.50	55.6	1.40	21.8	36	71.9	0.53	30.8	45.6	483
LEZ 11	16.02	6.20	0.06	0.91	0.18	25.2	0.30	18.5	31	48.0	0.34	28.0	34.0	173
RG 3	14.74	5.24	0.04	0.74	0.38	25.8	0.20	12.6	32	57.6	0.34	24.1	30.2	102
RG 5	16.11	5.52	0.05	0.88	0.13	25.5	0.30	15.3	42	65.3	0.39	29.7	36.4	207
RG 12	16.76	6.45	0.14	1.00	0.06	23.8	0.10	20.8	49	51.5	0.19	41.6	30.0	147
RG 15	17.89	7.18	0.19	0.86	0.05	19.1	0.30	22.6	46	47.5	0.16	38.1	23.9	119
RG 17	18.08	7.06	0.15	0.61	0.03	25.7	0.10	19.9	43	56.6	0.21	34.3	32.1	169
S-00-5	14.08	5.32	0.05	1.41	0.19	16.1	0.20	16.2	31	34.5	4.43	22.7	26.6	108
S-00-12	14.14	5.23	0.06	1.15	0.28	23.4	0.40	18.2	31	49.2	3.76	25.1	29.2	161
S-00-15	14.71	6.97	0.09	1.02	0.13	81.8	0.70	17.5	36	68.9	2.97	29.8	28.1	311
S-4	12.82	4.61	0.06	1.75	0.20	19.4	0.20	13.7	14	32.5	0.27	20.8	22.9	147

Mayor Oxides and total sulfur (TOT/S) in %, Trace Elements in ppm

Table 3. Total concentrations of major elements (presented as oxides) and the main metals and metalloids (presented in mg kg⁻¹) in surficial sediments of the Guadiana Estuary.

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1.47 7.33	1.81		59.15 0.89 - 0.90 1.81	0.89 - 0.90 1.81	1.97 59.15 0.89 - 0.90 1.81
1.83 9.15	1.96	- 0.98 1.96	58.78 1.05 - 0.98 1.96	1.05 - 0.98 1.96	1.96 58.78 1.05 - 0.98 1.96
2.51 12.5	1.85	- 0.92 1.85	388.5 1.29 - 0.92 1.85	1.29 - 0.92 1.85	12.95 388.5 1.29 - 0.92 1.85
1.76 8.80	1.94	- 0.97 1.94	87.40 1.15 - 0.97 1.94	1.15 - 0.97 1.94	2.91 87.40 1.15 - 0.97 1.94
2.34 11.7	96 1.91	- 0.96 1.91	143.5 1.25 - 0.96	1.25 - 0.96	4.78 143.5 1.25 - 0.96
2.36 11.8	33 2.06	- 1.03 2.06	114.2 1.27 - 1.03	1.27 - 1.03	3.81 114.2 1.27 - 1.03
1.85 9.25	11 2.02	- 1.01 2.02	60.65 1.12 - 1.01	1.12 - 1.01	2.02 60.65 1.12 - 1.01
2.47 12.4	37 1.73	- 0.87 1.73	113.4 1.27 - 0.87	1.27 - 0.87	3.78 113.4 1.27 - 0.87
1.44 7.19	11 2.02	- 1.01	66.30 1.14 - 1.01	1.14 - 1.01	2.21 66.30 1.14 - 1.01
2.04 10.2	11 2.02	- 1.01 2.02	132.0 1.28 - 1.01	1.28 - 1.01	4.40 132.0 1.28 - 1.01
2.75 13.7	38 1.76	- 0.88	222.1 1.18 - 0.88	1.18 - 0.88	7.40 222.1 1.18 - 0.88
1.87 9.35	36 1.72	- 0.86	137.4 1.10 - 0.86	1.10 - 0.86	4.58 137.4 1.10 - 0.86
2.49 12.5	2 2.03	- 1.02 2.03	30.52 1.11 - 1.02	1.11 - 1.02	1.02 30.52 1.11 - 1.02
2.36 11.8	94 1.87	- 0.94	56.27 0.96 - 0.94	0.96 - 0.94	1.88 56.27 0.96 - 0.94
2.29 11.5	38 1.76	- 0.88	63.33 0.85 - 0.88	0.85 - 0.88	2.11 63.33 0.85 - 0.88
2.38 11.9	15 2.09	- 1.05 2.09	86.91 0.94 - 1.05	0.94 - 1.05	2.90 86.91 0.94 - 1.05
1.80 9.02	3 1.85	- 0.93	27.85 1.23 - 0.93	1.23 - 0.93	0.93 27.85 1.23 - 0.93
1.56 7.79	11 2.03	- 1.01	78.27 1.26 - 1.01	1.26 - 1.01	2.61 78.27 1.26 - 1.01
1.84 9.19	3 1.86	- 0.93	25.81 1.09 - 0.93	1.09 - 0.93	0.86 25.81 1.09 - 0.93
1.49 7.44	1 1.82	- 0.91 1.82	72.81 1.06 - 0.91	1.06 - 0.91	2.43 72.81 1.06 - 0.91
8.96			14	88.01	1.63 88.01
			HUIF		

Table 4. Risk indexes and grades of potential ecological risk assessment of sediments polluted by As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Ni, Pb, and Zn in the Guadiana Estuary.

Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Map of the study area (Guadiana saltmarshes, SW Iberian Peninsula), showing the different sub-systems of the area and the locations of sample points.

Figure 2. A. Average percentages obtained by "*Xpowder*" semi-quantitative analysis for major minerals and clays in the sediments. **B.** Examples of solvation with Ethylene glycol (sample RG-17) and thermal treatment (sample S-00-15) for distinguishing clay mineral phases. Abbreviations of mineral names recommended by SCMR (**Siivola and Schmid, 2007**). Qtz, quartz; Ab, albite; Ill, Illite; Sme, smectite; Kln, kaolinite; Chl, Chlorite; Vrm, vermiculite.

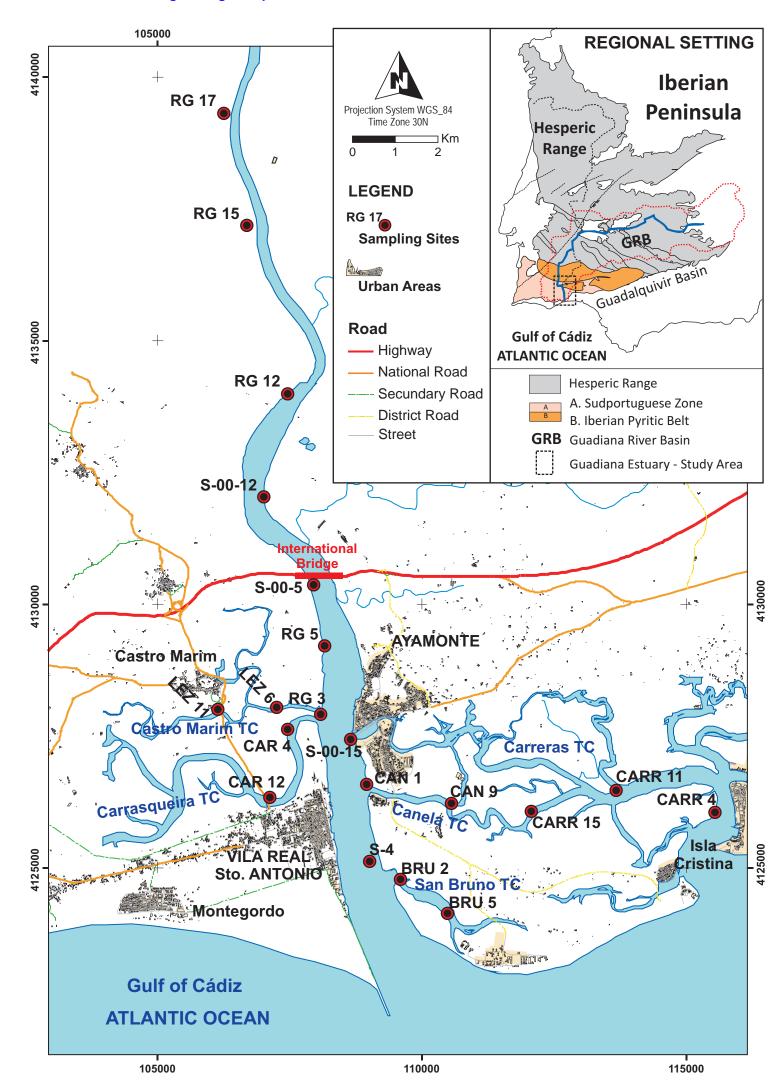
Figure 3. Mineralogical characterisation (by SEM) of the surficial samples. **A. Top:** Example of presence of Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides (sample CAN-1), **Bottom:** Phosphorous and lanthanides in surficial sediments; Mnz, monazite (sample CAN-1). **B.** Example of the presence of sulphide minerals in surficial sediments (CAN-1 and LEZ-6 samples); Py (N), newly-formed pyrite and Py (NF) newly-formed framboidal pyrite. **C.** Native sulphur (sample LEZ-6). **D.** Example of accessory minerals: Zrn, zircon and Ttn, titanite.

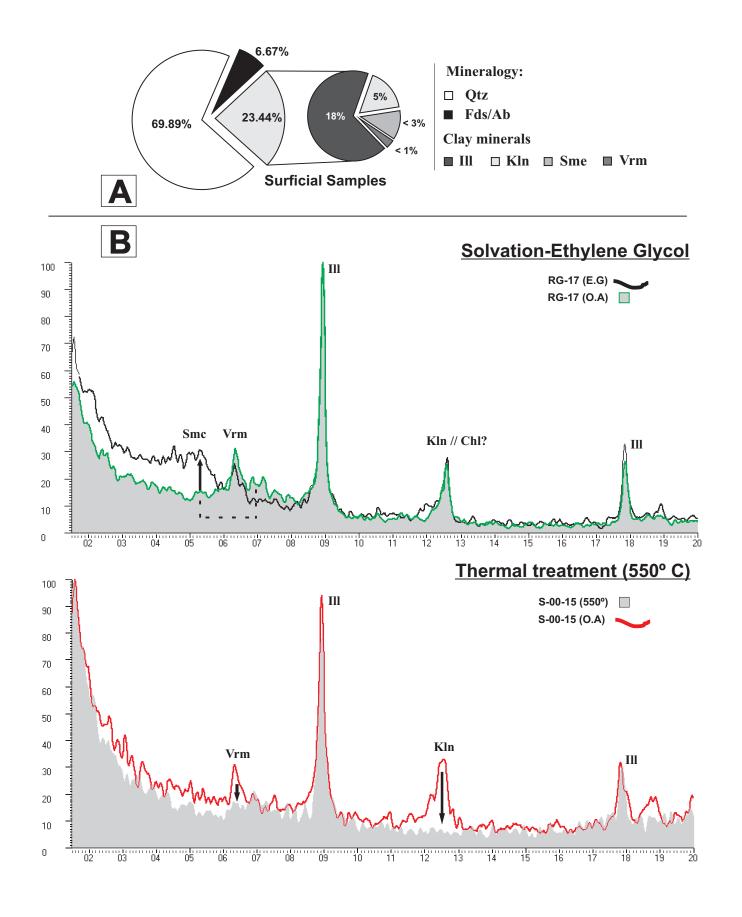
Figure 4. Mineralogical characterisation (by SEM) of the different steps to the SEP. **A.** Example of the presence of sulphide minerals Py (N), new-formed pyrite and Py (NF) newly-formed framboidal pyrite, associated with Fe-Mn oxyhydroxides (S-00-15). **B.** Phosphorous and lanthanides association; Mnz, monazite (CAN-1). **C.** Accessory minerals in surficial sediments (S-00-5) and main constituents of sediments. **D.** Evolution between steps 1 and 4, progressive destruction of the metallic mineral phases.

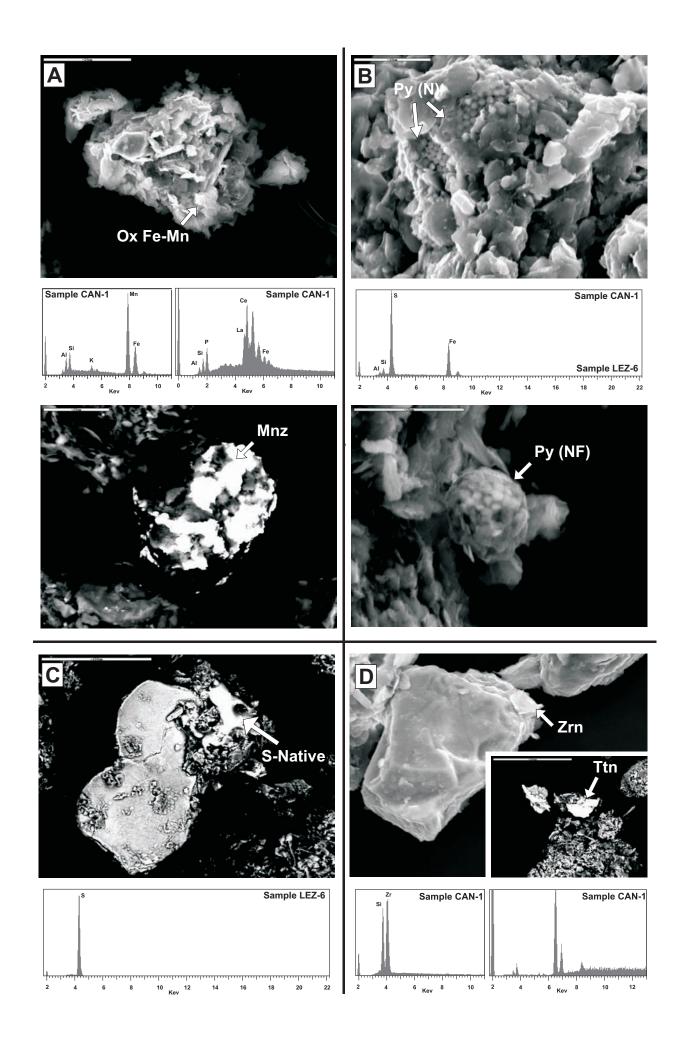
Figure 5. Percentages of As, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, S, and Zn extracted in each step of the sequential extraction procedure for the surficial sediments of the Guadiana Estuary.

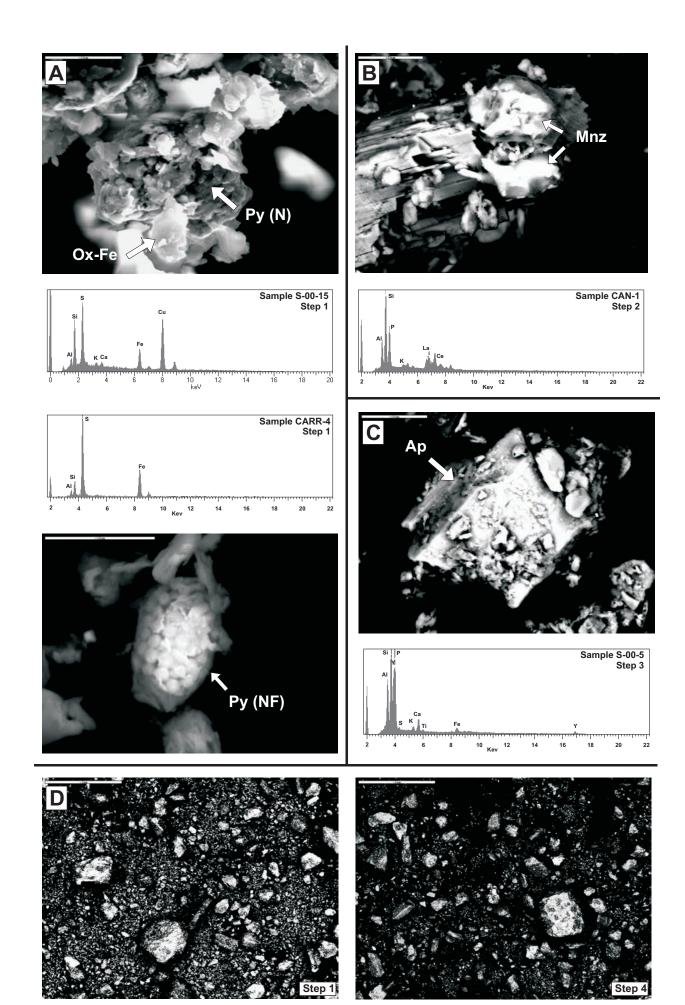
Figure 6. Representation of the principal component analysis (PCA) for the different steeps recovered in the SEP. F1, water-soluble fraction and carbonates; F2, reducible fraction; F3, oxidisable fraction; F4, residual fraction. Alpha significance level 0.05.

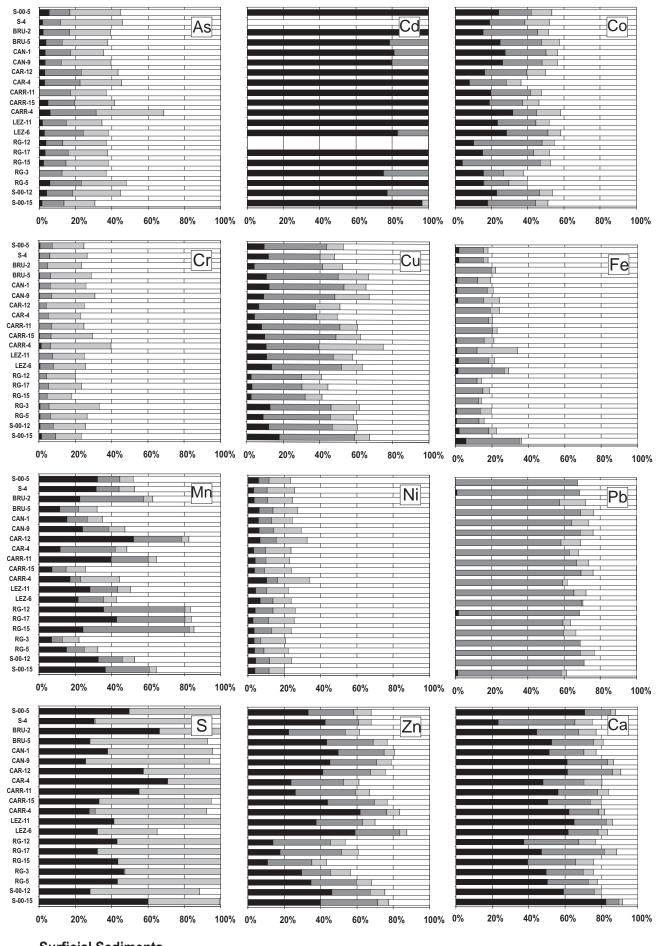
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Surficial Sediments

■ F1 Water/acid soluble ■ F2 Reducible fraction

□ F3 Oxidizable fraction □ R Residual fraction

