

**Toxicological availability of nickel to the benthic oligochaete *Lumbriculus
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1 **Toxicological availability of nickel to the benthic oligochaete *Lumbriculus***
2 ***variegatus***

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13 **Abstract**

14

15 It is generally accepted that the bioavailability of metals in sediments is influenced by
16 the presence of acid volatile sulfides (AVS). The pore water hypothesis predicts that, if
17 the molar concentration of simultaneously extracted metals (SEM) in a sediment is
18 smaller than the molar concentration of AVS, the free metal ion activity in the pore
19 water is very small and that consequently no metal toxicity in short-term toxicity tests is
20 observed. In this study we examined (1) if this concept can be extended to predict the
21 absence of chronic Ni toxicity to the oligochaete deposit-feeding worm *Lumbriculus*
22 *variegatus* and (2) if the organic carbon normalized excess SEM; i.e. $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$
23 predicts the magnitude of Ni toxicity to *L. variegatus*. A 28-day toxicity experiment was
24 performed in which biomass production of *L. variegatus* was determined in two natural
25 sediments with different [AVS] and f_{OC} , spiked at different Ni concentrations. The
26 absence of toxicity is predicted correctly by the $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ criterion when only the
27 0-1 cm surface layer of the sediment is considered, but not when the whole bulk
28 sediment is considered (0-3 cm). In both sediments, the same $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ at the
29 surface corresponds with a similar decrease in *L. variegatus* biomass. Thus, $[\text{SEM-}$
30 $\text{AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ in the surface layer accurately predicts the magnitude of toxicity. This
31 measure is therefore a good estimator of toxicologically available Ni. On the other hand,
32 the free Ni^{2+} ion activity in the overlying water appeared to be an equally good predictor
33 of the magnitude of toxicity. Consequently, it was not possible to determine the relative
34 importance of the overlying water and pore water exposure route with the semi-static
35 laboratory experiments.

36 **Introduction**

37 It has been demonstrated that the simultaneously extracted metals – acid volatile sulfide
38 (SEM-AVS) method is an effective tool in predicting the absence of metal toxicity in
39 sediments in short-term toxicity tests when $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ (Di Toro et al., 1990; Di
40 Toro et al., 1992; Casas and Crecelius, 1994; Pesch et al., 1995; Hansen et al., 1996).

41 The underlying principle is that except for pyrite, all other iron and manganese mono
42 sulfides that may be present in sediments have higher solubility products than other
43 metal sulfides. Thus, Fe and Mn can be displaced by other divalent metals (Cu, Cd, Ni,
44 Pb, Zn) on a mole-to-mole basis. Because these metal sulfides exhibit very low
45 solubility, sediments with an excess of reactive sulfide will exhibit very low dissolved
46 metal concentrations in pore waters and will not cause toxicity (Ankley et al., 1996).

47
48 Sediments with excess SEM do not always exhibit toxicity to invertebrate sediment
49 organisms. Organic matter can bind non-sulfide bound trace metals, thus preventing
50 them to enter the dissolved phase (Mahony et al., 1996). Based on this, $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$
51 has been proposed as a measure of bioavailable metal (Di Toro et al., 2005; Hansen et
52 al., 2005). In a recently proposed biotic ligand model for sediments, it has been shown
53 that $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ determines the free metal activity in the pore water (Di Toro et al.,
54 2005). If this value is greater than a critical threshold, sediments are predicted to be
55 toxic.

56
57 The $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ concept assumes that there is no metal toxicity caused by
58 transformations of the sulfide and organic matter bound metal in the gut of sediment-
59 ingesting organisms or via exposure to contaminated food (Meyer et al., 2005). Some
60 authors (Lee B.G., Griscom S.B. et al., 2000; Lee B.G., Lee J.S. et al., 2000) have

61 observed that benthic organisms can assimilate metals that are associated with sulfides
62 via dietborne exposure. They demonstrated significant bioaccumulation of metals at
63 concentrations where $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$. However, these authors did not measure toxic
64 effects; they assume that dietary exposure as measured by accumulation is related to
65 chronic toxicity (Lee B.G., Griscom S.B. et al., 2000). However, they also note that
66 generic relationships between metal bioaccumulation and toxicity are not well
67 understood. Animal species differ in their abilities to detoxify bioaccumulated metals
68 (e.g. via metallothionein or granule induction) or develop tolerance (Adams et al., 2000;
69 Lee B.G., Lee J.S. et al., 2000). An increase in bioaccumulation may be a sign of active
70 metal uptake and not toxicity in the case of metal deficiency (Muysen and Janssen,
71 2002; Bossuyt and Janssen, 2003). Thus, bioaccumulated metals may not always reflect
72 toxic effects (McGeer et al., 2003).

73

74 To our knowledge, the applicability of the SEM-AVS concept to predict the absence of
75 chronic, sub-lethal toxicity of nickel to a benthic organism exposed in single-species
76 laboratory toxicity tests has not been demonstrated. In this study, the hypothesis tested
77 is that Ni^{2+} in the pore water determines chronic toxicity to *L. variegatus*. In other
78 words, we examined (1) if $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ predicts the absence of chronic Ni toxicity
79 and (2) if $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ predicts the presence and magnitude of Ni toxicity to *L.*
80 *variegatus*, independent of sediment characteristics. The vertical profiles of $[\text{SEM-}$
81 $\text{AVS}]$ and pore water concentrations were considered, since vertical distributions of
82 AVS and SEM can affect metal toxicity in sediments and pore water metal
83 concentrations (Boothman et al., 2001). Two natural sediments with different
84 characteristics were chosen to test the hypothesis, so that at comparable $[\text{SEM}]$,
85 different $[\text{AVS}]$ accounted for differences in $[\text{SEM-AVS}]$. Finally, the applicability of

86 the mentioned sediment-biotic ligand model (sBLM) (Di Toro et al., 2005) will be
87 tested with the data on biomass of *Lumbriculus* in Ni spiked sediments. In this way, the
88 possible use of the sBLM for chronic single-species toxicity tests with Ni will be
89 evaluated.

90

91 **Materials and Methods**

92

93 Sediment sampling, spiking and analysis

94

95 Two natural sediments were sampled. Brakel sediments were taken by scoop sampling
96 from the banks of a small stream (near the source) in a nature reserve in Brakel,
97 Belgium (50°45' N, 3°46' E). Water depth at the sampling time was about 50 cm. Ijzer
98 sediments were taken by grab sampling with a Van Veen grab from the Ijzer river,
99 Belgium (about 50°58'N, 2°48'E). This river is situated in a low density farming zone
100 and has a water depth of about one meter. Plastic buckets were filled with 50-70%
101 sediment, after which overlying water was added to the top of the bucket, which was
102 subsequently closed with a plastic lid. After sampling, sediments were frozen at -20 °C
103 for two days to kill indigenous organisms and subsequently stored at 4 °C until use.
104 Brakel and Ijzer have a moderate and a high AVS content, respectively, and a low to
105 moderate organic carbon content. Sediment characteristics are provided in Table 1.

106

107 Before spiking, the sediments were cleaned by press sieving with a 0.5 cm sieve in
108 deaerated (<0.2 mg O₂/L) overlying water from the site of origin. Cleaned sediments
109 were stored at 4°C for 48h sedimentation, after which the overlying water was carefully
110 poured-off and spiking was started. Ni was added as a NiCl₂-solution (Merck) in

111 deaerated (< 0.2 mg/L O_2) deionised water, which was thoroughly manually mixed with
112 the sediments in airtight sealed plastic bags. Mean measured test concentrations of Ni in
113 the spiked sediments ranged from 127 to 1458 mg/kg dry sediment (Brakel) and from
114 514 to 3847 mg/kg dry sediment (Ijzer) (Table2). After spiking with Ni, sediments were
115 placed into glass test vessels and were stabilized/equilibrated for 70 days before test
116 initiation (Simpson et al., 2004). According to Simpson et al. (2004), equilibration of
117 Ni-spiked sediments occurs within 30-70 days. In natural sediments, AVS consists
118 largely of iron sulfides (Lee J.S. et al., 2000). When the spiked Ni^{2+} binds with AVS,
119 Fe^{2+} is released from the Fe(II)S phase. Fe(II) can be lost by diffusion to the oxic layers,
120 where it can be oxidized to solid Fe-hydroxide precipitates. After 43 days for the Brakel
121 sediments and after 58 days for the Ijzer sediments, precipitated Fe(OOH) was removed
122 by manually scraping it off the top layer. This was done to prevent toxicity due to
123 elevated dissolved Fe in the pore water and overlying water (Gonzalez, 1996) and to
124 prevent artefacts during the determination of SEM and AVS (Simpson et al., 1998).
125
126 At test initiation and termination, samples were taken for determination of dry wt,
127 %OC, total Ni concentration (Ni_T), AVS and SEM_{Ni} . Overlying water was sampled
128 about 1 cm above the sediment surface to assess dissolved Ni, pH, ammonia, hardness,
129 conductivity and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) (Table 3). Pore water was collected at
130 each cm depth by means of inert passive pore water samplers with polyether sulfon
131 membranes, so called mini-peepers (Doig and Liber, 2000). In each chamber, dissolved
132 Ni, DOC, pH and redox potential were measured. Sediment dry weight is defined as the
133 difference between wet and dry sediment (dried 72h at $60^\circ C$). Organic carbon content
134 was determined by loss on ignition (Egeler et al., 2005). AVS and SEM_{Ni} were
135 determined according to the modified diffusion method (Leonard et al., 1996) (5 g

136 sediment extracted for 1 hour in 60 mL of 1N HCl). Samples were taken with a core (2
137 cm diameter) and divided into 1 cm sediment layers. Cores were taken from a replicate
138 test vessel with overlying water present and subsections of 1 cm were immediately
139 (within 5 seconds) inserted into the diffusion systems, to prevent oxidation and loss of
140 AVS. Sediment destruction for total metal content was done by acid microwave
141 digestion. Ni was analyzed using flame AAS (Spectra AA 100-Varian) and/or a graphite
142 furnace AAS (Zeeman, SpectrAA300-Varian). The detection limit of the former is 8.7
143 µg Ni/L. For the lower nickel concentrations, the furnace was used with a detection
144 limit which ranged between 2 and 3.4 µg Ni/L.

145

146 Test designs

147

148 *Lumbriculus variegatus* is an ecologically relevant oligochaete, occurring throughout
149 Europe and the United States (Spencer, 1980). It is an epibenthic/benthic organism
150 subject to contaminant exposure via all routes of concern, including ingestion of
151 sediment particles (Phipps et al., 1993). The test was based on a proposed draft OECD
152 test guideline (Egeler et al., 2005). Organisms were from an in-house culture, with
153 parental organisms provided by Blades Biological LTD (United Kingdom). Biomass per
154 replicate of ten organisms was evaluated as a chronic endpoint integrating growth and
155 survival. *L. variegatus* reproduces parthenogenetically by fragmentation. Therefore
156 survival *sensu stricto* cannot be measured by counting the number of organisms at the
157 end of the test. Overlying water was a medium hard reconstituted water composed of
158 the following salts diluted in deionised water: 4 mg/L KCl, 123 mg/L MgSO₄.7H₂O, 96
159 mg/L NaHCO₃ and 6 g/L CaSO₄ (USEPA, 1985). Sixty to 70 % of the overlying water
160 was renewed twice a week. The temperature was 23± 2 °C and a 16:8 hours light:dark

161 regime was applied. Ten adult organisms with complete regeneration of tail or head were
162 added per replicate jar with 400 g wet sediment and 250 mL overlying water.
163 Organisms were fed ground TetraminTM fish flakes (200 µg per organism per day). Five
164 replicates per concentration were used for biological endpoints, whereas two replicates
165 were used to determine physico-chemical sediment properties. Tests were terminated
166 after 28 days.

167

168 Data treatment

169

170 Concentration - effect curves and EC₅₀s were obtained using the logistic model.
171 Parameter estimates were found by fitting the model to the observed data with a non-
172 linear least squares estimation according to the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm
173 (Levenberg, 1944; Marquardt, 1963). Lowest observed effect concentrations (LOECs)
174 were based on significant differences ($p < 0.05$) of mean biomass between Ni treatments
175 and control treatments, determined using the Mann-Whitney U test, adjusted for ties.
176 All calculations are based on measured Ni concentrations. T-tests were performed on
177 the residuals of fitted data for comparison of relationships between biomass and
178 concentration after checking for normality with Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit
179 test and for homogeneity of variances with Levene's test. All significance levels were
180 set at $p = 0.05$. Statistics were performed using Statistica 6.0 software (Statsoft, Tulsa,
181 OK, USA). Speciation calculations were performed with the Windermere Humic
182 Aqueous Model (WHAM) VI version 6.0.8 (Natural Environment Research Council,
183 UK) (Tipping, 1998) or with the Biotic Ligand Model (BLM) version 2.1.2 (Hydroqual,
184 Mahwah, New Jersey), which incorporates WHAM V and with which BLM
185 calculations were performed.

186

187 **Results and discussion**

188 In comparison with AVS concentrations in different natural sediments reported in
189 literature (van den Hoop et al., 1997; van den Berg et al., 1998; van den Berg et al.,
190 2001), the sediments tested in this study can be regarded as having a medium and high
191 AVS content. The increase in [AVS] at t_0 from the top cm to the 2-3 cm sediment
192 section, i.e. from 3.5 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry sediment to 13.5 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry sediment in Brakel and
193 from 42.1 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry sediment to 118.2 $\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry sediment in Ijzer, can be
194 considered as representative for the AVS stratification observed *in situ* (van den Berg et
195 al., 1998; van den Berg et al., 2001).

196

197 The LOECs expressed as [SEM-AVS] in the different sediment layers are given in
198 Table 4. In the bulk (whole) core of the IJzer sediment $[\text{SEM-AVS}]_{\text{LOEC,bulk}} < 0$. This
199 means that a significant toxic effect was observed, although the concept predicts that no
200 toxicity is expected at $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$. $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ measured on the bulk sediment
201 basis does not predict the absence of chronic toxicity. However, when the surface layer
202 of the sediments is considered (0-1 cm), $[\text{SEM-AVS}]_{\text{LOEC,surface}} > 0$, confirming the
203 concept. Following the SEM-AVS concept, this may suggest that the surface layer of
204 the sediment contributes more to the observed toxicity than the deeper sediment layers
205 when $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ in the deeper layers. Due to oxidation of AVS, more non-sulfide
206 bound Ni will be present at the surface, resulting in the positive [SEM-AVS] values, as
207 observed for other metals by other authors (DeWitt et al., 1996; Liber et al., 1996).
208 Negative values for $[\text{SEM-AVS}]_{\text{surface}}$ were only found at lower Ni concentrations in
209 both sediments, where no significant toxic effect was observed. The use of the SEM-
210 AVS concept for risk assessment procedures or for determining sediment quality criteria

211 should preferentially consider surface layer-based analyses as an alternative to bulk
212 sample analyses (e.g. 10 cm, (van den Hoop et al., 1997)). Obviously, the potential
213 contribution to toxicity from nickel in the overlying water should not be disregarded
214 either in risk assessment (see also further).

215

216 In this study, no effect was observed at $[\text{SEM-AVS}]_{\text{surface}} < 0$. Lee et al. (Lee B.G.,
217 Griscom S.B. et al., 2000; Lee B.G., Lee J.S. et al., 2000) did observe accumulation of
218 metals in clams and marine polychaetes at $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$, explaining this by dietary
219 metal uptake from ingested sediments being the dominant exposure route. These authors
220 assumed, but did not demonstrate, that dietary exposure as measured by
221 bioaccumulation is at least generally related to chronic toxicity (Lee B.G., Griscom S.B.
222 et al., 2000; Lee B.G., Lee J.S. et al., 2000). Possibly, bioaccumulation from the dietary
223 route at $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$ in our study was small enough not to cause significant toxicity.

224

225 To investigate the utility of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ as a measure of toxicologically available
226 Ni, the biomass data of both Brakel and Ijzer sediments were pooled and their
227 relationship with $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ was analyzed. Negative values of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$
228 were omitted, following the concept that no toxicity occurs when $[\text{SEM-AVS}] < 0$, as
229 demonstrated with the positive $[\text{SEM-AVS}]_{\text{LOEC, surface}}$. The effect on biomass of *L.*
230 *variegatus* as a function of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ in the surface layer, $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC, surface}}$,
231 showed a similar trend in Brakel and Ijzer sediments. Using the positive values of
232 $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ in the surface layer (0–1 cm) of the sediments, one concentration-effect
233 curve can be fit to the pooled data of both sediments (Fig. 1a), with the mean of the
234 residuals of both sediments not significantly differing (t-test, $p = 0.14$). This indicates
235 that $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$, or the equivalent (Ni^{2+}) in the pore water, is indeed a good

236 measure for the toxicologically available Ni. However, using the positive values of
237 [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} in the deeper layers (1-2 cm and 2-3 cm), also one concentration-effect
238 curve can be fit to the pooled data of both sediments, although only one positive value
239 of [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} remains for Ijzer (data not shown). This raises the question whether
240 all layers contribute equally to Ni toxicity when there is a positive [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} . If
241 this is the case, the organisms would be exposed to an average [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} over the
242 entire sediment depth. Those averages were calculated for both sediments, with negative
243 values set to zero, following the concept that this cannot elicit a toxic effect. One
244 concentration-effect curve can be fitted to the pooled data (Fig. 1b), also with the means
245 of the residuals for both sediments not significantly differing (t-test, $p = 0.89$). The fit is
246 similar ($R^2 = 0.453$) to the fit in Fig. 1a in which surface layer data only are represented
247 ($R^2 = 0.402$), indicating that *L. variegatus* may also be exposed to the deeper layers with
248 lower [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} . During the test, the organisms were observed to be mainly
249 burrowed in the sediment, down to varying depths of maximum 3 cm.

250

251 The difference between the EC_{50} s for biomass in both sediments is reduced from a
252 factor 2.9 when expressed as total Ni in the bulk sediment ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry sediment) to a
253 factor 1.6 when expressed as [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} in the surface layer. According to a t-test
254 comparing the EC_{50} s in both sediments, the factor 2.9 difference is highly significant (p
255 $= 0.00001$), while the factor 1.6 difference is not significant ($p = 0.51$). Thus, the same
256 intensity of toxic effect (50% reduction of growth) is observed at not significantly
257 differing concentrations of [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} in two different sediments. This suggests
258 again that toxicity to *L. variegatus* relates to [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} or free Ni^{2+} in the pore
259 water. These results support the use of [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} as a predictor of sediment
260 toxicity.

261

262 The concentration of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ determines the free $[\text{Ni}^{2+}]$ in the pore water (Di
263 Toro et al., 2005). Using the dissolved $[\text{Ni}]$ in the pore water of the surface layer of the
264 sediments, one concentration-response curve can be fitted to the pooled data of the
265 Brakel and Ijzer sediments (Fig. 1c). However, this fit was not as good as the one
266 obtained with $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$: there was a significant difference between the residuals
267 of both sediments (t-test, $p = 0.02$). This may be explained by different ratios of
268 dissolved $[\text{Ni}]$ and free (Ni^{2+}) in the pore water in both sediments, due to different pore
269 water characteristics.

270

271 According to the SEM-AVS concept, due to the small solubility product constants of
272 metal sulfides, sediments with an excess of AVS are expected to have very low metal
273 activity in the pore water (Berry et al., 1996). However, in this study rather high Ni
274 concentrations were found in the pore water of sediment layers in which $[\text{SEM} - \text{AVS}]$
275 was smaller than zero. For instance, in the 2-3 cm horizon of Ijzer, $[\text{SEM-AVS}] = -14.5$
276 $\mu\text{mol/g}$, while $[\text{Ni}]_{\text{PW}} = 1221 \mu\text{g/L}$. This is consistent with Gonzalez (1996) and Doig
277 and Liber (2006), who also observed high $[\text{Ni}]_{\text{PW}}$ at SEM/AVS ratios smaller than one.
278 One possible explanation could be that small colloidal NiS particles passed through the
279 $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ peeper membrane and were measured as “dissolved” Ni in the pore water
280 (Leonard et al., 1999). Another possibility could be that nickel polysulfide complexes or
281 nickel bisulfide (NiHS^+) complexes, which are soluble and do not react with solid FeS
282 to form insoluble NiS, were present (Doig and Liber, 2006). A third possibility would
283 be that the system is not in equilibrium yet, even after the 70 days equilibration period
284 as recommended by Simpson et al. (2004). This last option seems less likely because of
285 the visible FeOOH precipitate that formed during the equilibration time as described

286 above, indicating the replacement of Fe by Ni in the FeS. This precipitate did not form
287 again after it was removed, suggesting that the formation of NiS has ended and
288 equilibrium is achieved.

289

290 The recently proposed sediment-biotic ligand model (sBLM) (Di Toro et al., 2005)
291 predicts the toxicity of sediments based on $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$, assuming that organic
292 carbon and AVS are the only relevant metal-partitioning phases in sediments. The
293 LOECs expressed as $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC, surface}}$ are 122 $\mu\text{mol/g OC}$ and 495 $\mu\text{mol/g OC}$ for
294 Brakel and Ijzer, respectively. These results corroborate the observation that the onset of
295 toxicity occurs at $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}} \approx 100 \mu\text{mol/g OC}$. This is an empirical observation
296 by Di Toro et al. (2005) based on a series of sediment toxicity data from acute tests with
297 different metals, mainly with marine amphipods and from chronic tests with Cd and Zn,
298 where effect/no effect was considered as a measure of toxicity in colonization or long
299 term single-species studies. This observation was also made by Burton et al. (2005) for
300 Zn-toxicity in colonization studies with sediments in the field.

301

302 Specifically for Ni, Di Toro et al. (2005) have, with the sBLM, calculated critical values
303 of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ for a range of water types with varying pH, based on the acute
304 *Daphnia* critical gill-Ni accumulation. The chronic LOECs in our study, where the
305 average $\text{pH}_{(\text{surface layer})}$ was 7.6 and 7.1 for Brakel and Ijzer respectively, are lower than
306 the critical acute Ni concentrations (LC_{50}) of 642 - 1057 $\mu\text{mol/g OC}$, calculated with the
307 sBLM, in a standard freshwater at pH 7.0 – 8.0 (Di Toro et al., 2005). Thus, our results
308 do not confirm the sBLM as opposed to the studies cited by Di Toro et al. (2005) in
309 which no chronic effects are observed under the lowest calculated (acute) critical value
310 of $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$. This might be due to the fact that the *chronic* results from these

311 study with Ni and the freshwater organism *L. variegatus* are lower than the *acute* results
312 on which Di Toro et al. based their critical values, and/or due to the fact that the
313 *Daphnia magna* BLM is not applicable to *Lumbriculus variegatus* due to different
314 sensitivities of both organisms. However, Lumbriculidae are generally less sensitive to
315 metals than *Daphnia magna* (Von der Ohe and Liess, 2004), and as such one would
316 expect the LOEC to be higher than the sBLM-predicted critical [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC}. A
317 critical accumulation was calculated based on the 96 h LC50 for *L. variegatus* reported
318 by Schubauer-Berigan et al. (1993). Using this new parameter and the average measured
319 pore water chemistry, the sBLM calculated values of critical [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC} are 2060
320 μmol/g OC and 1780 μmol/g OC at a pH of 7.6 (Brakel) and 7.1 (Ijzer), respectively,
321 which is indeed larger than the values based on *Daphnia magna* sensitivity (Di Toro et
322 al., 2005). Knowing that the acute to chronic ratio for Ni is about 30 for *Daphnia magna*
323 (Hunt et al., 2002), it is more likely that the difference between acute and chronic
324 sensitivity is the major cause of the LOECs being lower than the sBLM-predicted
325 critical [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC}. The sBLM as applied by Di Toro et al. (2005), does not work
326 for our chronic toxicity data of *L. variegatus* biomass. The acute *Daphnia magna* BLM
327 underestimates Ni toxicity in this case and further evaluation of the sBLM for chronic
328 endpoints will be necessary. It is possible, however, that elevated overlying water
329 concentrations at the LOECs in our experiments have a confounding effect on the
330 interpretation of [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC}, as explained below. This can be another explanation
331 for the observation of LOECs expressed as [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC} below model predicted
332 critical values.

333

334 This discussion focused on the [SEM-AVS]/f_{OC} or Ni²⁺ in the pore water of the
335 sediments as exposure route for Ni toxicity to *L. variegatus*. However, it should be

336 noted that the Ni concentrations in the overlying water of the tested sediments were
337 elevated in the higher treatments, e.g. mean overlying water concentrations at the LOEC
338 of 248 $\mu\text{g/L}$ Ni for the Brakel treatment with 544 mg Ni/kg dry wt (mean) and 1135
339 $\mu\text{g/L}$ Ni for the Ijzer treatment with 2234 mg Ni/kg dry wt (mean) (Table 2). Ni^{2+}
340 activity in the overlying water, $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{OW}}$, was calculated with two methods. Firstly,
341 speciation was calculated with WHAM VI, with $\log K_{\text{MA}}(\text{Ni})=1.75$ and assuming that
342 DOC consists of 40% active fulvic acid, as the latter was shown to yield a good fit
343 between observed and measured free Ni^{2+} in natural surface waters (Van Laer et al.,
344 2006). Secondly, speciation calculations were performed following Di Toro et al.
345 (2005), using the BLM software, with the default $\text{p}K_{\text{Ni-HA}} = 2.7$ and 1.4 for humic and
346 fulvic acids respectively and assuming that DOC consists of 84% humic acid and 16%
347 fulvic acid. To investigate the possibility of exposure to Ni via the overlying water, a
348 concentration-effect curve was fitted to the pooled data of $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{OW}}$ in the overlying
349 water of Brakel and Ijzer sediments (Fig. 2). Only concentrations with a positive [SEM-
350 AVS]/ f_{OC} , i.e. concentrations where a significant effect was observed, were considered.
351 This yields a good fit with no significant difference between the residuals of both
352 sediments (t-test, $p = 0.11$ and 0.10 for WHAM VI and BLM speciation respectively).
353 The EC_{50} as (Ni^{2+}) in the overlying water is $9.6 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (95% confidence interval of 6.5
354 to $14.1 \mu\text{mol/L}$) and $4.2 \mu\text{mol/L}$ (95% confidence interval of 2.3 to $7.7 \mu\text{mol/L}$) for the
355 WHAM VI and BLM speciation calculations, respectively.

356

357 The Ni activity in the overlying water is an equally good predictor of toxicity as [SEM-
358 AVS]/ f_{OC} . Thus, it cannot be excluded that Ni in the overlying water is an important part
359 of the toxicologically available Ni in our experiments.

360

361 The $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{OW}}$ as calculated with WHAM VI correlated significantly with [SEM-
362 AVS]/ f_{OC} in the surface layer ($R = 0.96$, $p = 0.008$), but not significantly ($R = 0.84$, $p =$
363 0.08) with the averaged [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} over depth as described above (with negative
364 [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} set to zero). Similar results were found for $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{OW}}$ as calculated with
365 the BLM. This is not surprising, since the Ni in the overlying water originates from a
366 flux from the sediment via the pore water in the surface layer to the overlying water. So
367 although the results of this study do not allow to distinguish $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{OW}}$ from $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{PW}}$
368 (Ni^{2+} activity in the pore water) as the exposure route of Ni for *L. variegatus*, it can be
369 concluded that in these tests, either directly (via pore water) or indirectly (via overlying
370 water), $(\text{Ni}^{2+})_{\text{PW}}$ or the equivalent [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} determines the toxicologically
371 available Ni for *L. variegatus*.

372

373 In historically contaminated sediments in the field, pore water concentrations are likely
374 to be higher than overlying water concentrations, due to higher dilution factors than
375 those occurring in the routinely used laboratory test designs: i.e. static renewal. Also,
376 the proportion of nickel in the solid phase will be higher in natural sediments, as nickel
377 does not ordinarily enter sediments in soluble forms, as was the case with this study.
378 Therefore [SEM-AVS]/ f_{OC} is suggested as a measure of bioavailable Ni for risk
379 assessment procedures, provided that overlying water (Ni^{2+}) is measured and
380 sufficiently low. More research is needed to establish the relative importance of pore
381 water and overlying water as exposure routes for Ni to *L. variegatus*. Care should be
382 taken in laboratory experiments with high Ni concentrations in sediment, if the purpose
383 is to test the toxicity of nickel associated with sediment phases (i.e., particles and pore
384 water) and not of the overlying water.

385

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394

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544 Table 1 – Sediment characteristics of Brakel and Ijzer sediments: [AVS] in the control
 545 treatments at t_0 (test initiation) per horizontal layer under the surface, average
 546 mass fraction of organic carbon in the tested sediments (f_{OC}) and particle size
 547 distribution.
 548
 549

Sediment	[AVS] (mmol/kg dry wt)			f_{OC}	% sand	% silt	% clay
	0-1 cm	1-2 cm	2-3 cm				
Brakel	3.5	9.9	13.5	0.0221	62.9	24.5	12.7
Ijzer	42.1	104.3	118.0	0.0395	23.9	46.4	29.6

550 Table 2: Measured concentrations of total Ni in the sediment, [Ni]_{ow} (dissolved Ni in the overlying water), [SEM-AVS] and [Ni]_{pw}
 551 (dissolved Ni in the pore water) of Brakel and Ijzer sediments, at the beginning (t₀) and at the end (t_{end}) of the 28 day test period, for
 552 the different tested concentrations, per horizontal layer when applicable and mean biomass per replicate of *L. variegatus* at the end
 553 of the test period, expressed as % of the mean biomass per replicate in the control treatments
 554
 555

Brakel

Treatment	Total Ni (mg/kg dry wt)		[Ni] _{ow} (µg/L)		[SEM-AVS] (µmol/g dry wt)						[Ni] _{pw} (µg/L)						Biomass (% of control) t _{end}
					0-1 cm		1-2 cm		2-3 cm		0-1 cm		1-2 cm		2-3 cm		
	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	
control	8	5	7	3	-3.4	-1.5	-9.9	-5.9	-13.4	-10.3	11	32	12	17	28	17	100
C1	132	122	22	24	-2.2	-1.4	-8.3	-7.4	-12.2	-7.9	ND	128	ND	62	51	48	85.9
C2	201	179	21	35	-4.7	-3.4	-7.9	-8.8	-8.7	-5.7	ND	385	64	100	47	126	89.1
C3	547	540	263	233	1.8	3.6	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	351	1949	550	603	219	270	67.1
C4	1075	1068	941	967	12.6	14.1	7.1	10.8	9.4	9.6	1370	ND	1542	3343	3959	ND	39.9
C5	1544	1373	1986	2034	15.5	20.6	19.1	18.8	20.3	17.6	23000	8122	24177	7740	37474	10532	37.9

Ijzer

Treatment	Total Ni (mg/kg dry wt)		[Ni] _{ow} (µg/L)		[SEM-AVS] (µmol/g dry wt)						[Ni] _{pw} (µg/L)						Biomass (% of control) t _{end}
					0-1 cm		1-2 cm		2-3 cm		0-1 cm		1-2 cm		2-3 cm		
	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	t ₀	t _{end}	
control	8	16	13	19	-42.0	-24.0	-104.2	-86.6	-118.1	-87.6	6	7	16	11	13	10	100
C1	460	567	36	46	-39.4	-22.7	-109.7	-66.9	-111.6	-83.0	664	205	62	254	94	63	105.9
C2	759	905	117	88	-47.1	-37.0	-109.2	-77.8	-104.2	-75.8	924	ND	146	ND	57	205	88.4
C3	1486	1484	346	209	-13.5	3.8	-51.5	-49.6	-60.2	-48.4	985	695	1441	608	2284	499	72.1
C4	2271	2197	1141	1128	11.9	27.1	-14.1	-16.0	-14.1	-14.5	3492	2171	4649	1124	4689	1221	54.1
C5	3664	4031	2734	2383	31.5	49.5	9.1	27.3	20.7	23.4	10718	3412	ND	4963	ND	4847	41.8

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557 Table 3 – Overlying water characteristics per treatment for the Brakel and Ijzer sediment tests: pH, dissolved Ca and Mg and DOC, at the
 558 beginning (t_0) and at the end (t_{end}) of the 28 day test period.
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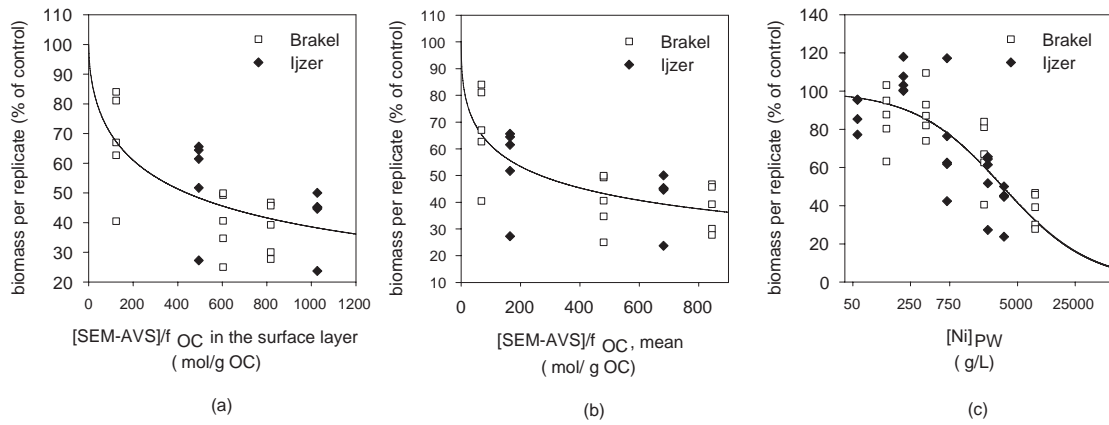
Brakel									
Treatment	pH		[Ca] (mg/L)		[Mg] (mg/L)		[DOC] (mg/L)		
	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	
control	8.03	7.90	36.58	39.06	11.88	14.02	1.318	1.670	
C1	7.94	7.82	33.53	32.96	9.86	13.01	1.067	4.844	
C2	8.17	7.83	33.80	34.64	10.11	12.89	1.173	1.884	
C3	7.82	7.65	27.88	26.65	8.21	11.58	1.013	2.012	
C4	7.87	7.57	29.11	25.51	8.37	11.28	1.118	2.752	
C5	7.69	7.51	30.06	24.66	8.35	11.15	1.369	1.726	

Ijzer									
Treatment	pH		[Ca] (mg/L)		[Mg] (mg/L)		[DOC] (mg/L)		
	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	t_0	t_{end}	
control	7.70	7.99	36.29	48.29	15.952	12.877	1.067	2.403	
C1	7.89	8.03	35.95	41.59	15.23	11.776	1.228	2.032	
C2	7.63	7.77	30.85	23.13	12.631	7.899	1.226	2.547	
C3	7.40	7.63	32.84	25.26	13.91	8.343	1.539	2.471	
C4	7.43	7.42	33.33	26.33	13.586	8.37	1.345	1.934	
C5	7.40	7.37	37.70	25.26	13.479	7.965	1.424	2.23	

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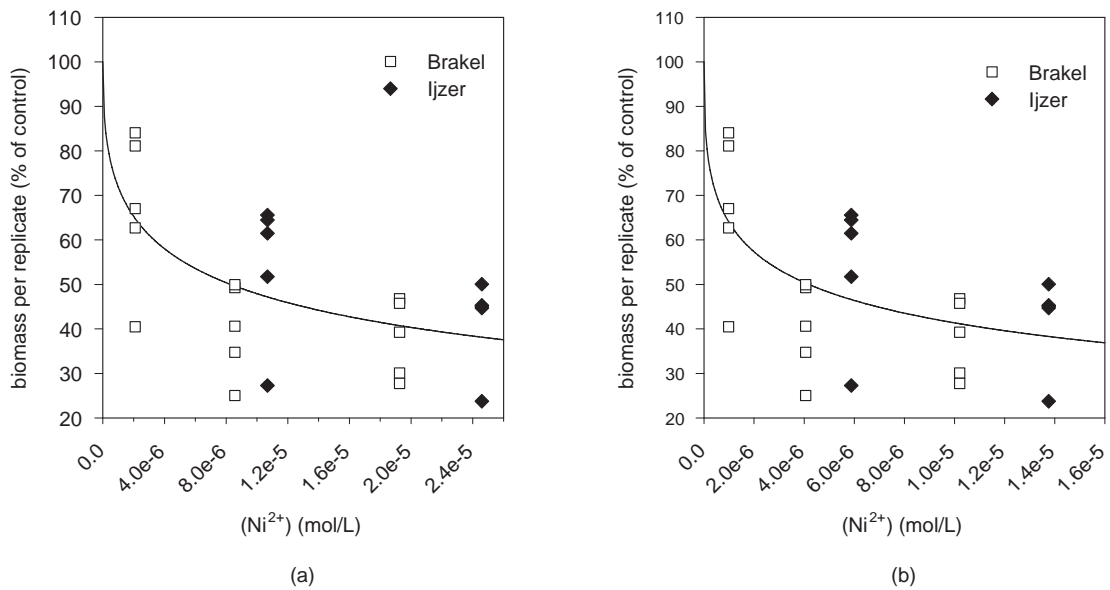
562 Table 4 - LOECs for biomass/replicate of *L. variegatus* in Brakel and Ijzer sediments expressed as [SEM-AVS] ($\mu\text{mol Ni/g}$ dry sediment)
 563 at different depths below the sediment surface at the beginning (t_0) and at the end (t_{end}) of the test, as well as the mean of the [SEM-
 564 AVS]_{LOEC} at t_0 and t_{end}
 565

	Brakel			Ijzer		
	LOEC as [SEM-AVS] at t_0	LOEC as [SEM-AVS] at t_{end}	mean LOEC as [SEM-AVS]	LOEC as [SEM-AVS] at t_0	LOEC as [SEM-AVS] at t_{end}	mean LOEC as [SEM-AVS]
Total core, 0-3 cm	-0.4	1.5	0.6	-9.6	-7.4	-8.5
A-horizon, 0-1 cm	1.8	3.7	2.7	11.9	27.1	19.5
B-horizon, 1-2 cm	0.9	0.9	0.9	-14.1	-16.0	-15.0
C-horizon, 2-3 cm	0.9	1.0	0.9	-14.1	-14.5	-14.3



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Figure 1: (a) Concentration – effect curve of biomass per replicate as a function of mean $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ in the surface layer of Brakel and Ijzer; (b) Concentration – effect curve of biomass per replicate as a function of mean $[\text{SEM-AVS}]/f_{\text{OC}}$ as mean of the three sediment layers (0-1, 1-2 and 2-3 cm depth) of Brakel and Ijzer; (c) Concentration - effect curve of biomass per replicate as a function of dissolved $[\text{Ni}]$ in the pore water of the surface layer of Brakel and Ijzer at the end of the test



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Figure 2: (a) Concentration-effect curve of biomass per replicate as a function of the mean Ni^{2+} activity as calculated with WHAM VI (see text) in the overlying water of those concentrations with positive [SEM-AVS] of Brakel and Ijzer sediments; (b) Concentration-effect curve of biomass per replicate as a function of the mean Ni^{2+} activity as calculated with the BLM speciation programme (see text) in the overlying water of those concentrations with positive [SEM-AVS] of Brakel and Ijzer sediments.