

Heavy Metal Distribution and Bioaccumulation Combined with Ecological and Human Health Risk Evaluation in a Typical Urban Plateau Lake, Southwest China

Xi Liu

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Junqian Zhang

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Xiaolong Huang

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Lu Zhang

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Chao Yang

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Enhua Li

Chinese Academy of Sciences

Zhi Wang (✉ zwang@whigg.ac.cn)

Innovation Academy for Precision Measurement Science and Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences

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1 **Heavy metal distribution and bioaccumulation combined with ecological and**
2 **human health risk evaluation in a typical urban plateau lake, Southwest China**

3 Xi Liu^{1,2}, Junqian Zhang³, Xiaolong Huang², Lu Zhang¹, Chao Yang¹, Enhua Li¹, Zhi Wang^{1*}

4 ¹Key Laboratory for Environment and Disaster Monitoring and Evaluation of Hubei, Innovation
5 Academy for Precision Measurement Science and Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan
6 430077, China

7 ²Yangtze River Basin Ecological Environment Monitoring and Scientific Research Center, Yangtze
8 River Basin Ecological Environment Supervision and Administration Bureau, Ministry of Ecological
9 Environment, Wuhan 430010, China

10 ³The Key Laboratory of Aquatic Biodiversity and Conservation, Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese
11 Academy of Sciences, Wuhan 430072, China

12 *Corresponding author.

13 E-mail addresses: zwang@apm.ac.cn.

14 **Abstract**

15 Heavy metal contamination in lakes caused by the rapid industrialization and urbanization is a serious problem.
16 In this study, 12 heavy metals were systematically surveyed in aquatic environment and organisms of Dianchi Lake.
17 Results showed that heavy metals pollutions in surface water exhibited a decreasing order of Ba > Fe > Zn > Mn >
18 As > Ni > Cr > Cu > Pb > Cd > Co, equipped a consistency in spatial distribution, seriously contaminating the northern
19 and southern parts. The average concentration of sedimentary heavy metals appeared in an order of Fe > Mn > Zn >
20 Ba > Cu > Pb > Cr > As > Ni > Co > Cd > Ag. The main existing fraction (51.9%–75.0%) of Cu, Pb, Cr, As, Fe, Co,
21 Ni, Ag, and Ba in sediments was residual fraction, whereas the exchangeable fraction (40.9%–62.0%) was the

22 dominant component for Cd, Zn, and Mn. Among the selected aquatic organisms, Cu, Pb, Zn, and Ag possessed a
23 strong bioaccumulation effect, followed by Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni. Ecological risk assessment indicated that Cu, Cr, and
24 Zn were the dominant heavy metal contaminants in surface water; Cd presented the disastrous risk and accounted for
25 the considerable proportion of ecological risk in sediments. Human health risk evaluation showed that the selected
26 aquatic products of Dianchi Lake were not absolutely safe, and As was the major contributor. This study
27 systematically revealed heavy metal distributions in aquatic environments, which was conducive to environmental
28 safety and human health.

29 **Keywords:** Dianchi Lake; Heavy metals; Bioaccumulation; Source identification; Risk assessment

30 **Main findings of the work**

31 This work revealed heavy metal distributions in a typical plateau lake, and comprehensively evaluated
32 the ecological risk and human health risk.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Heavy metal pollution in aquatic ecosystem has become a serious environmental problem in the world because
35 of its potential toxicity and accumulation in organisms (Peng et al. 2009; Tang et al. 2010; Fu et al. 2013). These
36 contaminants in aquatic environment not only generate direct toxic effects on aquatic organisms, but also bring
37 potential threats to human health through the domestic water and food chain (Järup et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2018). In
38 addition, heavy metals tend to accumulate in sediments and become the internal source of water pollution (Zhang et
39 al., 2007; Bradl, 2004). After resuspension, heavy metals in sediments can be released into surface water again,
40 thereby causing secondary pollution (Kelderman and Osman, 2007; Baran and Tarnawski, 2015). Therefore,
41 systematically studying the distribution of heavy metals in surface water, sediments, and organisms is necessary for
42 contamination control and environmental management. Moreover, identifying the pollution source will provide an

43 important reference for ecosystem restoration and remediation (Wang et al., 2019).

44 The monitoring, risk assessment, and prevention of heavy metal pollution have been widely concerned for
45 several decades (Kumar et al., 2019). Long-term heavy metal pollution is regarded to disrupt the aquatic ecological
46 balance and cause serious adverse effects on aquatic ecosystem (Jaiswal et al. 2018). In freshwater ecosystem,
47 numerous natural and anthropogenic sources contribute to the heavy metal pollution, including direct atmospheric
48 precipitation, geological process, and discharge of abundant human activities (Saha and Paul, et al., 2018). For urban
49 and suburban lakes, these environmental problems usually become more prominent because of the intensive human
50 impact when compared with remote lakes (Cheng et al., 2015). With the rapid development of industrialization and
51 urbanization in China, suburban and urban lakes have received considerable pollutants impacted by human activities
52 and suffered ecological deterioration (Li et al., 2020; Qian et al., 2020). Previous literature indicated that the major
53 rivers and lakes in China had been generally polluted by heavy metals at different levels, with the sedimentary
54 pollution proportion over 80% (Wang et al., 2010). Hence, focusing on the pollution level and bioaccumulation of
55 heavy metals in urban and suburban lakes is important to compare the contribution of rapid economic development
56 to heavy metal pollution with remote plain lakes (Xia et al., 2011; Fu et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2012). Although heavy
57 metal investigation and risk assessment in Chinese lakes have been reported, the comprehensive heavy metal
58 evaluation of surface water, sediments, and organisms in a typical urban plateau lake is still limited (Fu et al., 2013;
59 Tang et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2015). When a large number of these contaminants are transported into the aquatic
60 ecosystem, the bioaccumulation of metals and biomagnification of the food chain may cause a series of environmental
61 problems, such as ecosystem degradation and public health risks (Altindag and Yigit, 2005; Xia et al., 2019). However,
62 few research reports have focused on the bioaccumulation of heavy metals, their interaction with environmental
63 parameters, and the transmission of metals from edible aquatic organisms to humans (Fu et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2011).

64 Dianchi Lake, located in the southwest of China near Kunming City, is the largest freshwater plateau lake in

65 China with an altitude of 1886.5 m above sea level (Fig. 1). In general, the lake provides water for agriculture,
66 industry, drinking, and other activities (Wan et al., 2011). However, since the last century, rapid industrialization and
67 urbanization in the watershed had contributed a serious eco-environmental problem in and around the lake (Guo et
68 al., 2017). The lake receives numerous contaminants from its connected rivers and suffers from serious anthropogenic
69 pollution, gradually evolving into a eutrophic lake (Wang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019). Reports indicated that the
70 eutrophication of Dianchi Lake was closely correlated to human activities (Gao et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2018). In
71 recent years, the heavy metal evaluation in Dianchi Lake has also been carried out (Li et al., 2020). However, previous
72 studies have only focused on the concentrations of heavy metals in sediments, and their pollution levels in multiple
73 environmental media and source identifications are lacking, particularly for several trace elements such as Co, Ag,
74 Ba, and Ni (Kumar et al., 2019; Qian et al., 2020). These less concerned heavy metals are also closely related to
75 certain human health diseases (Li et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2011). Meanwhile, several aquatic species in Dianchi Lake
76 are generally important food resources, and their human health risks must be considered. Chinese white prawn,
77 *Macrobrachium nipponense*, *Hemisalanx prognathus* Regan, and *Rhinogobius giurinus* are four of the major
78 commercial aquatic products consumed frequently by local residents. Although several studies had investigated
79 heavy metals in fish community, only few of them addressed the transportation of metals in aquatic environments to
80 the high trophic level and result in potential health risks through the food chain (Yang et al., 2017; Qian et al., 2020).
81 Hence, comprehensive investigation of various heavy metals in Dianchi Lake ecosystem is of great significance for
82 pollutant control and restoration. Furthermore, human health and ecological risk assessment of heavy metals in
83 surface water and sediments, associating with bioaccumulation, will provide valuable basic information and
84 important management strategies.

85 In the present study, distributions, risks, and source identifications of 12 heavy metals were focused on, including
86 Cu, Cd, Cr, As, Pb, Zn, Mn, Fe, Co, Ag, Ba, and Ni. In particular, the species sensitivity distribution (SSD) model

87 was used to evaluate the risk of heavy metal pollution in surface water; the geoaccumulation index (Igeo) and
88 potential ecological risk index (RI) were selected to assess the sedimentary risk, and the bioaccumulation factor (BAF)
89 was applied to illustrate the impact of heavy metals on organisms. The main purposes of this study included four
90 aspects: 1) to systematically investigate the concentration of heavy metals in surface water, sediments, and organisms;
91 2) to identify the pollution source of heavy metals in Dianchi Lake; 3) to assess the ecological and human health risks
92 of these contaminants in different media; and 4) to provide guidance for pollutant management and aquatic production
93 consumption in Dianchi Lake.

94 **2. Materials and methods**

95 **2.1. Study area and sample procedure**

96 The Dianchi Lake (N24°40'-25°02', E102°02'-102°47'), covering approximately 298 km² of water area and
97 2920 km² of watershed area, is the largest freshwater lake in the Yunnan–Guizhou Plateau of Southwest China. The
98 lake is separated into two parts by artificial water conservancy facilities (Fig. 1). The northern part (Caohai) is
99 adjacent to Kunming City, having only 3% of the total lake area and an average depth of 2.5 m. The southern part
100 (Waihai) accounts for the most part of the lake area, having an average depth of 4.4 m. The climate of the Dianchi
101 Lake is characterized by subtropical southwest monsoon, with an annual mean temperature of 14.4 °C and an average
102 precipitation of 1000 mm (Wang et al., 2018). The hydraulic retention time of surface water in the Dianchi Lake is
103 approximately 2.7 years, which limits the self-purification capacity of the lake (Li et al., 2020). Since the last century,
104 rapid population and economic growth in this area have resulted in a serious eco-environmental problem, such as
105 eutrophication and heavy metal pollution (Ma and Wang, 2015).

106 The locations of sampling samples in the lake were presented in Fig. 1 and Table S1. All samples were collected
107 from the Dianchi Lake in July 2014. Organism samples, including shrimps (Chinese white prawn and *M. nipponense*)

108 and fishes (*H. prognathus* Regan and *R. giurinus*), were stochastically obtained according to the actual situation
109 (Table S8). Mixed water samples from three depths (~0.5, ~1.5, and ~2.5 m above the bottom) were collected. Surface
110 sediment samples (0–10 cm) were obtained using a Peterson dredge. Organism samples were obtained by a trawl.
111 The above-mentioned collected samples were stored in a –4 °C freezer until laboratory analysis.

112  Fig. 1

113 2.2. Laboratory analysis

114 Twelve heavy metals, including Cu, Cd, Cr, As, Pb, Zn, Mn, Fe, Co, Ag, Ba, and Ni, were measured in surface
115 water, sediments, and organism samples. Four different forms of heavy metals in sediments were extracted, which
116 were classified into residual, oxidizable, reducible, and exchangeable. The detailed sedimentary fractionation
117 procedure was presented in Table S2. Before heavy metal analysis, sediment and organism samples were pretreated
118 according to previous reports (Fu et al., 2013; Xing et al., 2013). All samples were treated using microwave digestion
119 and analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry.

120 Electrical conductivity (EC), dissolved oxygen (DO), water temperature (WT), pH, suspended solid (SS), total
121 dissolved solid (TDS), oxidation–reduction potential (ORP), and chlorophyll a (Chla) were determined in situ using
122 EXO2 detector (YSI, USA). Other environmental parameters, including total nitrogen (TN), nitrate nitrogen (NO₃⁻-
123 N), nitrite nitrogen (NO₂⁻-N), ammonium nitrogen (NH₄⁺-N), activated phosphorous (PO₄³⁻-P), total phosphorus
124 (TP), and chemical oxygen demand (COD_{Mn}), were measured according to the standard methods in the laboratory
125 (APHA, 1998). The moisture content of sediments was measured by drying at 105 °C, and sedimentary organic matter
126 (SOM) was determined by calcination at 550 °C.

127 **2.3. Data analysis**

128 **2.3.1. Multivariate statistical and geostatistical analysis**

129 Pearson correlation analysis was performed to study the relationship among heavy metals. Principal component
130 analysis (PCA) was used to identify the significant clusters and potential sources of heavy metals. A geostatistical
131 approach called inverse distance weighting was applied to evaluate the distribution of heavy metals in unsampled
132 areas and generate the spatial map. These statistical procedures for heavy metals in surface water and sediments were
133 similar to our previous works (Wang et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2020). All data in this study were analyzed by SPSS 19.0,
134 Origin 8.0, and ArcGIS 10.4.

135 **2.3.2. Bioaccumulation factor (BAF)**

136 The bioaccumulation factor (BAF) has been widely applied to quantify the bioaccumulation of environmental
137 pollutants in previous studies (Hao et al., 2019). In this study, the BAF illustrated the impact of heavy metal
138 concentrations in surface water on aquatic organisms (Ahmed et al., 2019). In general, BAF is the ratio between
139 heavy metal concentrations in the organisms and those in their main living environment (Qiu, 2015; Zhang et al.,
140 2015). Therefore, BAFs for each freshwater organism sample and selected heavy metals were calculated with the
141 following formula:

$$142 \quad \text{BAF} = C_{\text{organism}}/C_{\text{freshwater}}$$

143 where C_{organism} is the heavy metal concentration in freshwater organisms (mg/Kg), and $C_{\text{freshwater}}$ is the concentration
144 of heavy metals in a freshwater ($\mu\text{g/L}$) or sediment (mg/Kg) medium. BAF-freshwater can be categorized according
145 to the following ranges: $\text{BAF} < 1$ indicates low probability of accumulation; $1 < \text{BAF} < 5$ indicates moderate, and
146 $\text{BAF} > 5$ indicates highly bio-accumulative (Arnot and Gobas, 2006). As for BAF-sediment, the calculated value > 1
147 indicates a potential accumulation of heavy metals, and the accumulative effect makes a significant difference when

148 the BAF-sediment exceeds 100 (Zhang et al., 2015).

149 **2.3.3. Species sensitivity distribution model (SSD)**

150 The ecological risks of selected heavy metals in surface water were evaluated using SSD, which were introduced
151 in detail in our previous study (Liu et al., 2018). In recent years, the SSD method has been widely used in risk
152 assessment because of its simplicity and specific ecological significance (Xu et al., 2015). This risk assessment model
153 has two important indicators: the potentially affected fraction (PAF) and concentration with 5% cumulative
154 probability (HC5). The fundamental principle is illustrated in Fig. S1.

155 **2.3.4. Sedimentary risk evaluation model**

156 The RI, initially proposed by a Swedish scientist in 1980, has been proven to be an effective method and widely
157 used to evaluate sedimentary pollution (Hakanson, 1980; Zhao et al., 2018). In this evaluation model, the toxicity
158 characteristic, contaminant level, and background value of heavy metals were considered. The RI value was
159 calculated using the following equations:

$$160 \quad \text{RI} = \sum_{i=1}^n E_r^i = \sum_{i=1}^n T_r^i \times \frac{C_i}{C_0}$$

161 where E_r^i is the individual potential risk factor; T_r^i is the toxicity factor for a selected metal (i.e., 30 for Cd, 5
162 for Ni, 5 for Cu, 5 for Pb, 2 for Cr, 1 for Zn, and 10 for As) (Hakanson, 1980). C_0 is the regional metal background
163 value in the soil, and C_i represents the heavy metal concentration in sediments. In general, the potential ecological
164 risk was classified into the following five levels (Wang et al., 2011; Hakanson, 1980): low risk ($E_r^i < 30$; $\text{RI} < 100$),
165 moderate risk ($30 < E_r^i < 50$; $100 < \text{RI} < 150$), considerable risk ($50 < E_r^i < 100$; $150 < \text{RI} < 200$), very high risk
166 ($100 < E_r^i < 150$; $200 < \text{RI} < 300$), and disastrous risk ($E_r^i > 150$; $\text{RI} > 300$).

167 According to previous literature, the high heavy metal background value in this study area might overestimate

168 the adverse effect of metals when using the RI and hazard quotient (HQ) models (Qian et al., 2020). Therefore, the
169 Igeo was selected to assess the risks of heavy metals in sediments, whose calculation formula was as follows:

$$170 \quad I_{geo} = \log_2 \left(\frac{C_n}{1.5B_n} \right)$$

171 where C_n is the measured concentration of each heavy metal in sediment samples; B_n is the geochemical
172 background concentration of the corresponding metal in this study area. The soil evolution and its influence on the
173 eco-environment were important, representing the various geochemical processes in this area (Yuan et al., 2014).
174 Therefore, the mean concentration of heavy metals in local soils was used as the background value (B_n) for sediments.
175 According to the soil element background value investigation performed by China National Environmental
176 Monitoring Center (1990), the B_n values were identified as 46.3 mg/kg for Cu, 0.218 mg/kg for Cd, 65.2 mg/kg for
177 Cr, 18.4 mg/kg for As, 40.6 mg/kg for Pb, 89.7 mg/kg for Zn, 626 mg/kg for Mn, 52,200 mg/kg for Fe, 17.5 mg/kg
178 for Co, 0.152 mg/kg for Ag, 346 mg/kg for Ba, and 42.5 mg/kg for Ni. Constant term 1.5 was the background matrix
179 correction factor originated by lithospheric effects (Reddy et al., 2004). Based on the Igeo, the degree of risk is
180 divided into seven levels: $I_{geo} \leq 0$ (practically unpolluted), $0 < I_{geo} < 1$ (unpolluted to moderately polluted), $1 <$
181 $I_{geo} < 2$ (moderately polluted), $2 < I_{geo} < 3$ (moderately to heavily polluted), $3 < I_{geo} < 4$ (heavily polluted), $4 < I_{geo}$
182 < 5 (heavily to extremely polluted), and $I_{geo} > 5$ (extremely polluted; Bhuiyan et al., 2010).

183 **2.3.5. Human health risk assessment**

184 Human health risk assessment is the approach of estimating contaminant adverse effects on humans through
185 aquatic products, and target hazard quotients (THQ) is regarded as an effective evaluation model (USEPA, 2014;
186 Qian et al., 2020). Fishery and shrimp resources are important food resources for local residents around Dianchi Lake;
187 therefore, evaluating the potential health risk related to their long-term consumptions is important (Guo et al., 2017;
188 Wang et al., 2019). In general, no significant health risk is found if THQ is less than 1, but a potential health risk will

189 occur if the index is greater than 1. The THQ value was obtained by the following formula (Yi et al., 2011; Qian et
190 al., 2020):

$$191 \quad THQ = \frac{EF_r \times ED_t \times FIR \times C_{factor} \times C}{RfDo \times BW_a \times AT_n} \times 10^{-3},$$

192 where THQ is the target hazard quotient; EF_r is the exposure frequency (365 days/year); ED_t is the exposure
193 duration (70 years, average lifetime); FIR is the food ingestion rate (134 g/day, wet weight); C_{factor} is the conversion
194 factor (0.085) that is used to convert fresh weight into dry weight; C is the heavy metal concentration in fish (mg/Kg);
195 $RfDo$ is the oral reference dose (mg/kg/day, Table S11); BW_a is the average adult body weight (60 kg); and AT_n is
196 the average exposure time for non-carcinogens (assuming 70 years). Total THQ (TTHQ) was calculated to estimate
197 the additive effects of exposure to all the metals accumulated in fish:

$$198 \quad \text{Total THQ} = THQ (\text{toxicant } 1) + THQ (\text{toxicant } 2) + \dots + THQ (\text{toxicant } n)$$

199 **3. Results and discussion**

200 **3.1. Descriptive statistics for physicochemical parameters in surface water and sediment**

201 The surface waters were weakly alkaline, with mean pH of 9.3 (ranging from 7.9 to 10.0). During the sampling
202 period, the average WT and DO were 23.9 °C and 9.77 mg/L, respectively. The EC, TDS, SS, and COD_{Mn} values
203 ranged from 503 to 647 $\mu\text{S/cm}$ (average 540 $\mu\text{S/cm}$), 331.5 to 435.5 mg/L (average 358.9 mg/L), 29 to 176 mg/L
204 (average 84 mg/L), and 6.0 to 27.3 mg/L (average 15.8 mg/L), respectively. The mean concentrations of TN and TP
205 were 4.62 and 0.21 mg/L, with the maximum of 9.56 and 0.56 mg/L, respectively. These typical water quality
206 parameters suggested that the lake has suffered serious eutrophic pollution and algae bloom (Table S3; Qian et al.,
207 2020). As shown in Table S4, the sediments in Dianchi Lake were reductive, with the mean pH and ORP values of
208 6.9 and -209.5 mV, respectively. The average SOM was 16.0%, ranging from 10.0% to 41.1%. Given the long-term
209 eutrophication and weakly hydrodynamic processes of Dianchi Lake, a large number of nutrients had been enriched

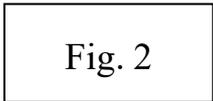
210 in sediments (Zhu et al., 2010). The mean concentration of sedimentary TN and TP was 5626 and 3584 mg/Kg,
211 respectively. According to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, sediment was regarded as heavily polluted
212 when sedimentary TN > 2000 mg/Kg and TP > 650 mg/Kg (USEPA, 2014). Important phosphorus industrial bases
213 were found in China around Dianchi Lake, which might indicate the high phosphorus content in sediments (Zhu et
214 al., 2010). However, the mean concentration of TN and TP in sediments of Taihu Lake (a eutrophic lake in China)
215 was only 1110 and 930 mg/Kg, respectively (Fang et al., 2019). Therefore, based on the water and sediment quality
216 characteristics of Dianchi Lake and previous literature, Taihu Lake was generally regarded as a typical hyper-
217 eutrophic lake, which was suffering from the deterioration of the ecological environment (Huang et al., 2014; Cao et
218 al., 2016).

219 **3.2. Heavy metal distribution**

220 **3.2.1. Surface water**

221 The pollution level of heavy metals in surface water exhibited a wide range, and the average concentration was
222 arranged in a decreasing order: Ba (average 171.73 µg/L) > Fe (average 146.70 µg/L) > Zn (average 20.64 µg/L) >
223 Mn (average 4.32 µg/L) > As (average 2.78 µg/L) > Ni (average 2.05 µg/L) > Cr (average 1.54 µg/L) > Cu (average
224 1.36 µg/L) > Pb (average 0.54 µg/L) > Cd (average 0.22 µg/L) > Co (average 0.13 µg/L, Figs. 2 and S3). Nearly all
225 heavy metals equipped a great consistency in spatial distribution, seriously contaminated in the north and south part
226 but less polluted in the middle part (Fig. 2). This differential spatial distribution might be due to the following reasons:
227 the northern part was connected with Kunming City, and the southern part was densely distributed with residential
228 communities. In general, the city and high-density population could remarkably contribute to the heavy metal
229 pollution (Islam et al., 2015). By contrast, for example, the average Cu concentration in Dianchi Lake (1.4 µg/L) was
230 lower than that in Poyang Lake (5.4 µg/L), Taihu Lake (2.9 µg/L), and Chaohu Lake (3.4 µg/L) but slightly higher

231 than that in Liangzi Lake (1.1 $\mu\text{g/L}$). The Pb pollution level in this lake was lower than that in Poyang Lake, Taihu
232 Lake, Chaohu Lake, and Liangzi Lake, whose average concentrations were 4.4, 3.8, 6.3, and 10.1 $\mu\text{g/L}$, respectively
233 (Liu et al., 2018). The different metal pollution levels in various lakes of China were probably due to the different
234 physical geography backgrounds and human activity impacts, thereby suggesting that the systematic investigation of
235 metal pollution levels in different lakes was important.

236  Fig. 2

237 3.2.2. Sediment

238 The average concentration of sedimentary heavy metals appeared in a decreasing order: Fe (average 50720.35
239 mg/Kg) > Mn (average 813.03 mg/Kg) > Zn (average 496.80 mg/Kg) > Ba (average 273.35 mg/Kg) > Cu (average
240 146.19 mg/Kg) > Pb (average 108.83 mg/Kg) > Cr (average 74.78 mg/Kg) > As (average 61.95 mg/Kg) > Ni (average
241 45.81 mg/Kg) > Co (average 15.24 mg/Kg) > Cd (average 13.20 mg/Kg) > Ag (average 2.06 mg/Kg). Concentrations
242 of Cu, Cd, Pb, Zn, As, Ni, and Ag in sediments had a similar spatial distribution. Remarkably, a decreasing trend was
243 found from the northern (S1–S4) to the southern (S5–S12) part of Dianchi Lake ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 3). As for
244 concentrations of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, and Ba in sediments, their spatial distributions were basically consistent, varying
245 within a limited range (Fig. 3). Fe was the most abundant metal in the sediment, exceeding the pollution level of
246 other metals. According to previous literature and available data, several heavy metals were selected for comparison
247 with published metal levels in Chinese lake sediments (Table S14). In this study, the mean concentration of heavy
248 metals was consistent with the earlier report in Dianchi Lake (Yuan et al., 2014). Interestingly, contrary to that of
249 surface water, the heavy metal concentration in sediments of Dianchi Lake was significantly higher than that of
250 Chaohu Lake and Taihu Lake. For example, the concentrations of Cu and Pb in sediments of Dianchi Lake were
251 about 8.5 times and 73.3 times higher than that of Chaohu Lake, respectively. This phenomenon was probably due to

252 the following reasons. First, Dianchi Lake had higher density and biomass of algae compared with the other lakes,
253 and the algae biomass could easily uptake or adsorb metals from water (De Philippis et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2019).
254 Second, the average depth of Dianchi Lake (approximately 5.0 m) was deeper than that of Taihu Lake (approximately
255 1.8 m) and Chaohu Lake (approximately 3.0 m) (Zhang et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2010; Shang et al., 2007). The deeper
256 water depth in Dianchi Lake could resist sediment re-suspension by wind wave, which could reduce the metal release
257 from sediments (Gao et al., 2005; Bai et al., 2012).

258 Fig. 3

259 The characteristic of heavy metal fractions was important to reveal their potential mobility and toxicity (Maiz
260 et al., 2000). The main existing fraction of Cu, Pb, Cr, As, Fe, Co, Ni, Ag, and Ba in sediments was residual fraction,
261 with values of 60.95%, 57.06%, 66.56%, 61.98%, 75.03%, 39.36%, 51.90%, 91.94%, and 63.41%, respectively (Fig.
262 3 and Fig. S2). For Cd, Zn, and Mn, the exchangeable fraction was the dominant component, accounting for 62.05%,
263 49.08%, and 40.94%, respectively (Fig. 3 and Fig. S2). Based on the bioavailability of heavy metals, a decreasing
264 order was found: exchangeable > oxidizable > reducible > residual (Li et al., 2000; Prasad et al., 2006). The
265 exchangeable fraction was generally regarded as the most unstable sedimentary part, which exhibited a strong
266 relationship with water environments (Alves et al., 2007). Therefore, the environmental mobility and risk of heavy
267 metals showed a positive correlation with this fraction proportion. In this study, the exchangeable fraction of heavy
268 metals was arranged in the following order: Cd (62.5%) > Zn (49.08%) > Mn (40.94%) > CO (21.82%) > Ni
269 (20.52%) > Ba (5.35%) > Cr (4.27%) > Cu (3.51%) > As (3.40%) > Fe (3.30%) > Pb (2.05%) > Ag (0.09%), indicating
270 their different interactions with environments. This result suggested that Cd, Zn, Mn, Co, and Ni had the strongest
271 association with the aquatic ecosystem in Dianchi Lake and likely reflected highly potential risks.

272 3.2.3. Bioaccumulation of heavy metals

273 Chinese white prawn (CWP), *M. nipponense* (MBN), *H. prognathus* Regan (HPR), and *R. giurinus* (RGG) were
274 selected to evaluate metal bioaccumulation because they were usually consumed by the local residents. Heavy metal
275 levels in selected organisms showed great differences (Table S9), and the concentration of heavy metals in selected
276 fish (*H. prognathus* Regan and *R. giurinus*) was significantly lower ($P < 0.05$) than that in surveyed shrimp (*C. prawn*
277 and *M. nipponense*). These results indicated that the ability of benthic shrimp to accumulate heavy metals was
278 stronger than that of fish, which was consistent with previous studies (De Mora et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2010). Firstly,
279 benthic shrimps mainly live in the sediment-water interface, which probably straightly affected by the heavy metals
280 in the sediment (2-3 orders of magnitude higher than that in the water body). Secondly, metal concentrations in
281 organisms were also adjusted by their biological metabolisms (Markert, 1987).

282 In the present study, the BAF of organisms to heavy metal in surface water (BAF-water) was further explored
283 (Fig. 4 and Table S10). Different organisms exhibited distinct bio-accumulative capacities in response to various
284 heavy metals. In our study, a high accumulative possibility of Ag in *H. prognathus* Regan; Cu and Ag in Chinese
285 prawn; Cu, Pb, Zn, and Ag in *M. nipponense*; and Pb, Zn, and Ag in *R. giurinus* was found. Notably, Cd, Cr, As, and
286 Ba presented a low accumulative probability for all selected organisms. Moreover, Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni showed a
287 moderate accumulative probability for at least one species. Hence, based on the probability heatmap between
288 organisms and heavy metals (Fig. 4), we found that Cu, Pb, Zn, and Ag possessed a strong bioaccumulation effect,
289 followed by Mn, Fe, Co, and Ni. In general, Cu and Zn were regarded as a crucial biological trace element and
290 demanded for abundant enzymatic oxidation–reduction activities; however, excessive levels of these two metals
291 could also cause high toxicity (Bonanno et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2020). Pb and Ag were immobile
292 in aquatic environment, and they showed toxicity. When Pb and Ag were absorbed by organisms through the food
293 chain, they would exist for a long period (Samecka et al., 2001).

Fig. 4

294

295 **3.3. Principal component and correlation analysis (CA)**

296 PCA and CA were applied to identify and explain the pollution source of heavy metals (Fig. 5 and Fig. S4). In
297 surface water, two principal components were extracted, which accounted for 62% of the total variance in the data
298 matrix. The first principal component (PCA1) in surface water generated 37% of the total variance, which was
299 primarily characterized by heavy metals. Among the heavy metals, Ag, Zn, Co, Fe, Mn, Cr, Cu, Cd, and Pb were the
300 most important, followed by Ni and As, and Ba was relatively small. The second principal component (PCA2)
301 accounted for 25.36% of the total variance, which was heavily weighted by conventional water quality parameters.
302 Our results indicated that the pollution sources of heavy metals and eutrophic elements in surface water were probably
303 inconsistent because of three reasons. First, heavy metals were strictly controlled in the effluent of sewage treatment
304 plant when compared with organic contaminants (Ignatowicz, 2017). Second, heavy metals induced by non-point
305 source pollution tended to be precipitated under the long-distance water transport, whereas nutrients were gradually
306 accumulated (Ouyang et al., 2016; Jeong et al., 2020). Lastly, heavy metals cannot be easily degraded, and the
307 sedimentary resuspension would lead to their release, whereas the conventional pollutants were biodegradable (Baran
308 and Tarnawski, 2015). In sediments, two principal components were extracted, which accounted for 69% of the total
309 variance in the data matrix. The first principal component (PCA1), including Ag, Zn, Cd, Pb, Cu, As, and Ni, was
310 primarily characterized by most heavy metals. However, the second principal component (PCA2) was completely
311 dominated by Fe, Mn, and Ba, whereas Cr and Co remarkably contributed to both axes. In particular, PCA1 and
312 PCA2 accounted for 47% and 22%, respectively. PCA1 probably originated from anthropogenic activities, as Cu and
313 Pb were strongly associated with human activities (Audry et al., 2004). However, PCA2 was heavily weighted by Fe
314 and Mn, which might be closely related to the surrounding mining areas (Zhao et al., 2018).

Fig. 5

315

316 **3.4. Ecological and human health risk assessment**

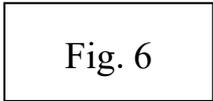
317 **3.4.1. Potential ecological risk**

318 In our previous study on the SSD model, five heavy metals were selected to evaluate their ecological risks in
319 Dianchi Lake because of their occurrence and toxicity. These metals with HC5 values of 7.76 (Cd), 2.29 (Cr), 2.09
320 (Cu), 12.59 (Pb), and 31.62 (Zn) posed great toxicity to aquatic environments (Table S7; Liu et al., 2018). In general,
321 these metals were considered to be at risks only when their concentrations exceeded individual HC5 values (Hose
322 and Van den Brink, 2004). The maximum concentration of Cu, Cr, Cd, Pb, and Zn in Dianchi Lake was 4.06, 3.17,
323 0.71, 2.25, and 74.49 µg/L, respectively. Therefore, Cu, Cr, and Zn exhibited ecological risks with the maximum PAF
324 of 14%, 8%, and 13%, respectively (Table S7). Therefore, about 14% of species in Dianchi Lake were probably
325 adversely impacted by Cu, whereas 8% by Cr and 13% by Zn. Therefore, based on the SSD model, Cu, Cr, and Zn
326 were the dominant heavy metal contaminants in surface water of Dianchi Lake. These heavy metals should be strictly
327 controlled to ensure the health of aquatic organisms in Dianchi Lake.

328 The Igeo was applied to evaluate sedimentary metal contamination in Dianchi Lake, and the calculated result
329 was presented in Fig. 6b. The mean values of Igeo for Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, and Ba were lower than 0, suggesting that
330 no pollution was caused by these metals. However, the average of Cu, Pb, and As ranged from 0 to 1, indicating
331 unpolluted to moderately polluted. Cd, Zn, and Ag showed heavily polluted (average Igeo 3.24), moderately polluted
332 (average Igeo 1.08), and moderately to heavily polluted (average Igeo 2.81), respectively. Regarding the individual
333 Igeo value, the pollution status in sediments followed the order of Cd > Ag > Zn > As > Cu > Pb > Mn > Cr > Ni >
334 Fe > Co > Ba (Fig. 6b). The result of this methodology indicated that Cd, Zn, and Ag were the most polluted metals,

335 which was consistent with previous literature in this area (Qian et al., 2020). Hence, the anthropogenic inputs of
336 heavy metals in this area were Cd, Zn, and Ag, with $I_{geo} > 1$.

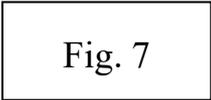
337 In addition, the calculated RI values of sedimentary metals were summarized in Fig. 6a and Table S13. The RI
338 values from S1 to S4 (Caohai, closely related to Kunming city) were more than 900, indicating that these sediments
339 in Caohai were heavily polluted, which showed more disastrous risks than other areas. In general, the RI value was
340 clearly related to the degree of anthropogenic disturbance (Yi et al., 2011). About 45% of sediment samples (S1, S2,
341 S3, S4, S6, S7, S8, S15, and S17) were disastrous risks ($RI > 300$), and the remaining 55% (S5, S9, S10, S11, S12,
342 S13, S14, S16, S18, and S19) showed very high risks ($200 < RI < 300$). In particular, the contributions for individual
343 metals were in the order of $Cd (94.6\%) > Cr (1.8\%) = As (1.8\%) > Cu (0.8\%) > Pb (0.7\%) > Zn (0.3\%)$. Remarkably,
344 Cd presented disastrous risks and accounted for the considerable proportion of ecological risks in sediments, whereas
345 other metals (As, Zn, Cr, Cu, and Pb) showed low-to-moderate risks. Sediments in Dianchi Lake, particularly
346 Northern Caohai, suffered from potential ecological risks caused by heavy metals, and Cd was the most important
347 contaminant element. Based on the RI and I_{geo} , heavy metals in sediments of Dianchi Lake exhibited high ecological
348 risks.

349  Fig. 6

350 **3.4.2. Human health threat from edible organisms**

351 Based on the bioaccumulation of heavy metals (Fig. 4), the investigated organisms in Dianchi Lake exhibited
352 different accumulation effects on these contaminants. Long-term consumption of these polluted aquatic productions
353 might cause human health risks (Kumar et al., 2019). Therefore, the human health threat from four common edible
354 organisms was evaluated for residents around the lake. Given the absence of Fe and Co human chronic ingestion data,
355 the remaining 10 heavy metals were used in human health risk assessment. The calculated THQ and total THQ

356 (TTHQ) values were presented in Table S12 and Fig. 7. Human health risks of selected aquatic products decreased
357 in the order of *M. nipponense* (1.998) > *C. prawn* (1.450) > *R. giurinus* (1.213) > *H. prognathus* Regan (0.355), and
358 THQ of As was the major contributor to TTHQ. This study was consistent with previous reports in Dianchi Lake, in
359 which As in aquatic products showed the most significant health risk (Qian et al., 2020). Except for the THQ of As
360 in Chinese white prawn (1.119) and *M. nipponense* (1.187), the THQ of other metals to each aquatic consumption
361 was generally less than 1, indicating that residents would not experience significant health risks from the intake of
362 individual metal through selected organisms (Table S12). Therefore, human health risks induced by As were found
363 in the consumption of Chinese white prawn, *M. nipponense*, and *R. giurinus*. Considering the impact of heavy metal
364 pollution on human health, this study revealed that *H. prognathus* Regan was a priority of healthy food resource in
365 Dianchi Lake. The heavy metals in the environment had various chemical forms that exhibited different toxicity to
366 human health, and the THQ > 1 might not suggest people who were experiencing direct adverse health effects (Yi et
367 al., 2011; Jia et al., 2018). In our future work, evaluating human health risks of metals by considering chemical
368 speciation was necessary.

369  Fig. 7

370 **4. Conclusion**

371 The distribution, ecological risk, and source identification of heavy metals in surface water, sediments, and
372 organisms of Dianchi Lake had been systematically investigated. The pollution level of heavy metals exhibited a
373 wide range in surface water, with a decreasing order of Ba > Fe > Zn > Mn > As > Ni > Cr > Cu > Pb > Cd > Co.
374 Nearly all heavy metals in surface water equipped a great consistency in spatial distribution, seriously contaminating
375 the northern and southern parts. We found that the residual and exchangeable fractions of heavy metals were primarily
376 presented in sediments. The primary existing fraction of Cu, Pb, Cr, As, Fe, Co, Ni, Ag, and Ba was residual fraction,

377 whereas the exchangeable fraction was the dominant component for Cd, Zn, and Mn, which suggested that Cd, Zn,
378 Mn, Co, and Ni had the strongest association with the aquatic ecosystem in Dianchi Lake. Furthermore, the average
379 concentration of sedimentary heavy metals appeared in a decreasing order: Fe > Mn > Zn > Ba > Cu > Pb > Cr > As >
380 Ni > Co > Cd > Ag. We found that Cu, Pb, Zn, and Ag possessed a strong bioaccumulation effect, followed by Mn,
381 Fe, Co, and Ni. Ecological risk assessment indicated that Cu, Cr, and Zn were the dominant heavy metal contaminants
382 in surface water, whereas Cd and Ag were the most polluted metals in sediments. As in selected aquatic products had
383 the most significant health risk, and *H. prognathus* Regan was a priority of healthy food resource for residents.

384 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

385 **Xi Liu:** Software, Data analysis, Writing - original draft. **Junqian Zhang:** Investigation, Project administration,
386 Writing - review & editing. **Xiaolong Huang:** Writing - review & editing. **Lu Zhang:** Software, Writing - review &
387 editing. **Chao Yang:** Writing - review & editing. **Enhua Li:** Investigation, Funding acquisition, Writing - review &
388 editing. **Zhi Wang:** Investigation, Project administration, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Writing - review &
389 editing.

390 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

391 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could
392 have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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397 **Declarations**

398 ● **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** Not applicable.

399 ● **Consent for publication:** Not applicable.

400 ● **Availability of data and materials:** The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available
401 from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

402 ● **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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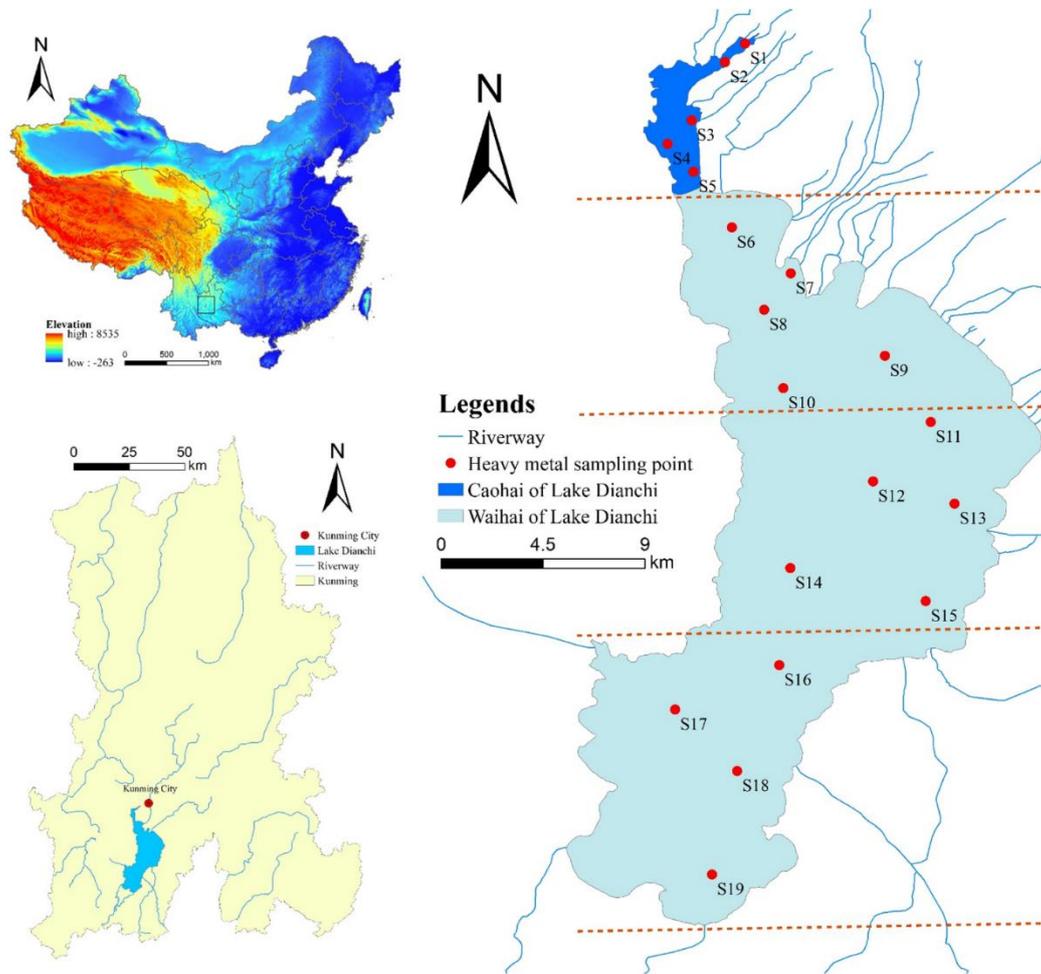
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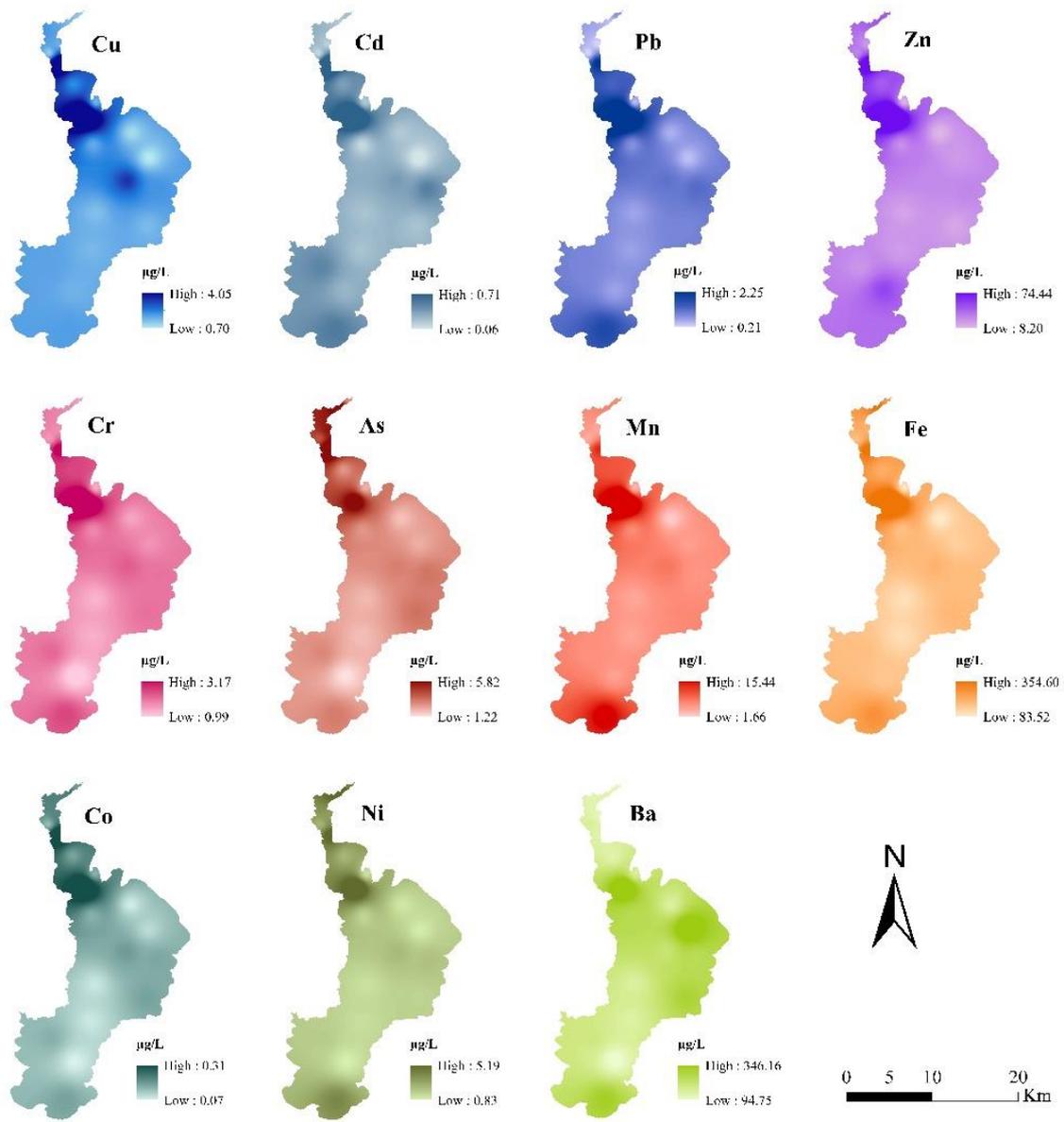
572 **Figure captions**



573

574 **Fig. 1.** Location of Lake Dianchi and sampling sites in the study area: S1–S5 in Caohai of Lake Dianchi, S6–S10 in Northern Waihai,

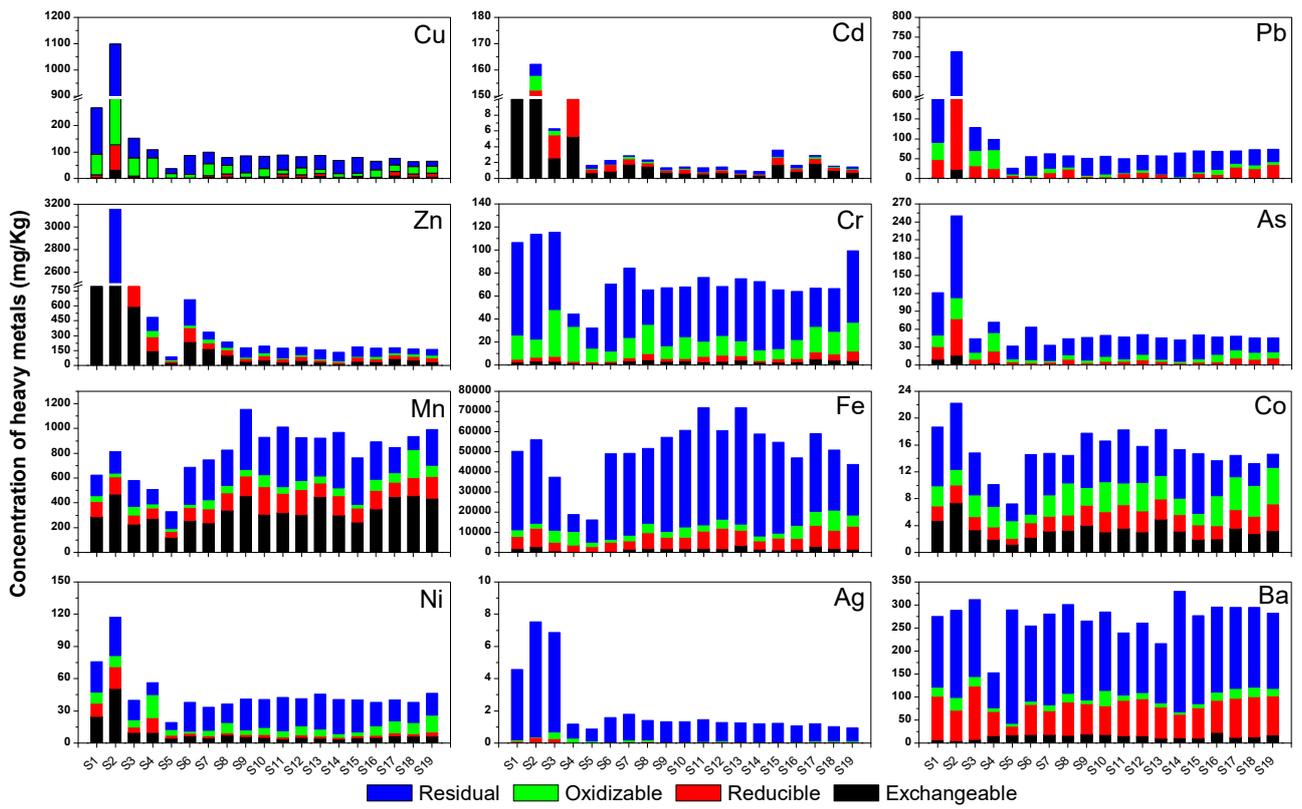
575 S11–S15 in Central Waihai, and S16–S19 in Southern Waihai.



576

577 **Fig. 2.** Spatial variations of heavy metal concentration in surface water, including Cu, Cd, Pb, Zn, Cr, As, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, and Ba. Ag

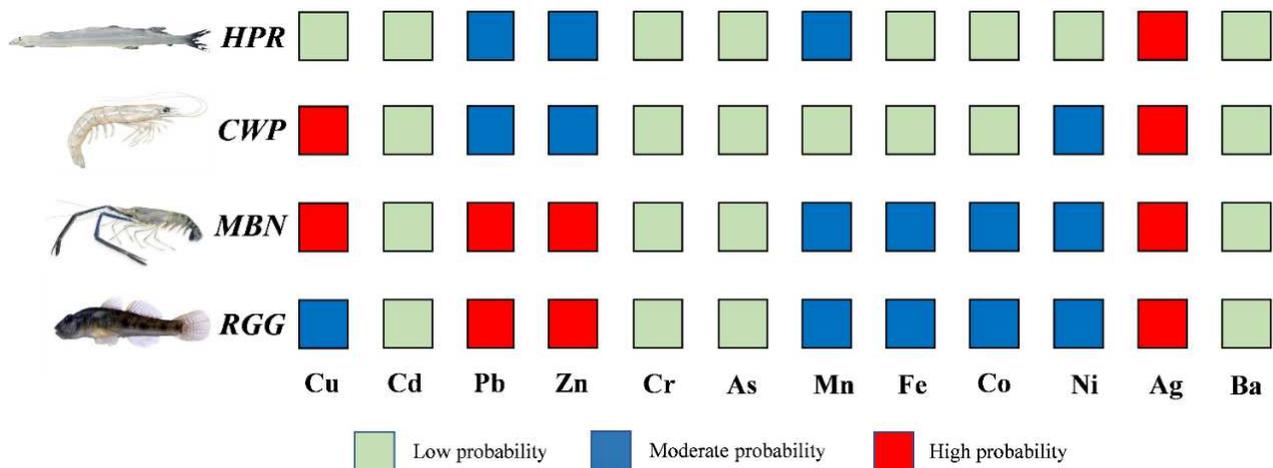
578 was not presented because of its low concentration in surface water.



579

580 Fig. 3. Heavy metal concentrations in sediment samples. Blue: residual fraction; Green: oxidizable fraction; Red: reducible fraction;

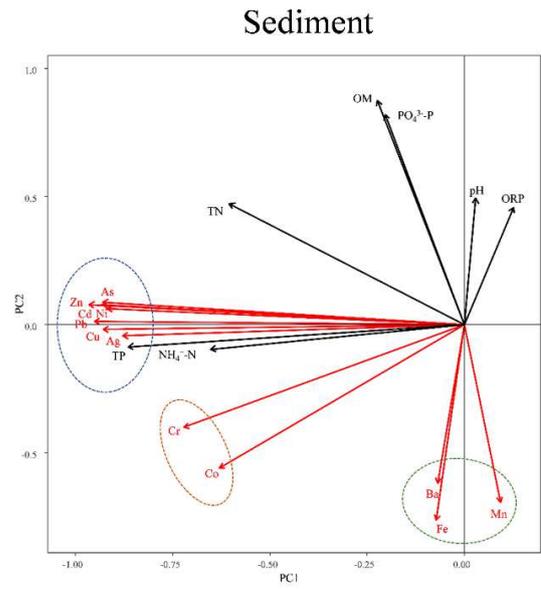
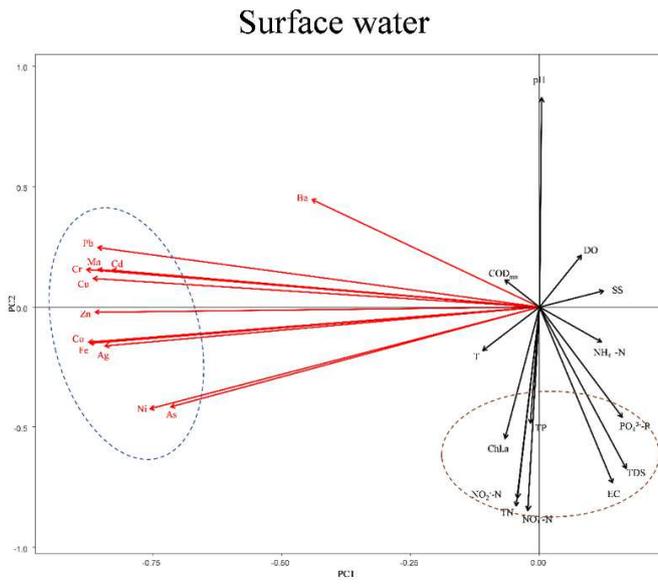
581 Black: exchangeable fraction.



582

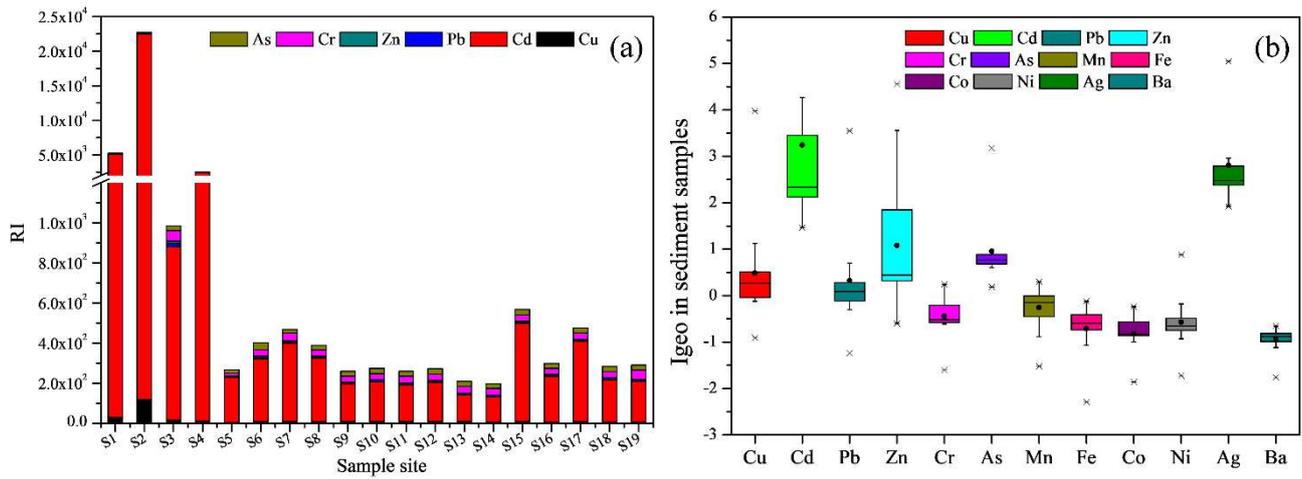
583 **Fig. 4.** Bioaccumulation factor of organisms to heavy metals in surface water (BAF-water). Green: low probability; Blue: moderate

584 probability; Red: high probability.



585

586 **Fig. 5.** Principal component analysis (PCA) of aquatic environmental parameters and heavy metals.

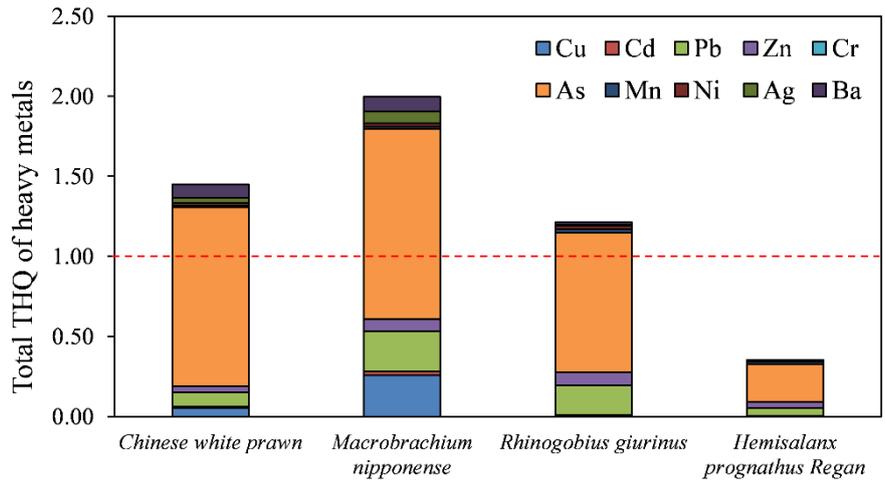


587

588 **Fig. 6.** Risk assessment for selected heavy metals in sediments: (a) RI of selected heavy metals in sediments. As: brownness; Cr: pink;

589 Zn: green; Pb: blue; Cd: red; Cu: black. (b) Igeo of selected heavy metals in sediments. The box plots display the values from surface

590 water samples (median, 25% and 75% quartiles [boxes], 10% and 90% percentiles [whiskers]).



591

592 **Fig. 7.** Contributions of THQ to TTHQ for the 10 selected heavy metals via consumption of four aquatic species collected from

593 Dianchi Lake. Red dash line indicated the acceptable total THQ threshold value (< 1).

Supplementary Files

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