MOURA, D.S., LIMA NETO, I.E., CLEMENTE, A., OLIVEIRA, S., PESTANA, C.J., APARECIDA DE MELO, M. and CAPELO-NETO, J. 2020. Modeling phosphorus exchange between bottom sediment and water in tropical semiarid reservoirs. *Chemosphere* [online], 246, article ID 125686. Available from: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.125686</u>

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2020



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Diana S. Moura, Iran E. Lima Neto, Allan Clemente, Samylla Oliveira, Carlos J. Pestana, Maria Aparecida de Melo, José Capelo-Neto

PII: S0045-6535(19)32926-1

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.125686

Reference: CHEM 125686

To appear in: ECSN

Received Date: 2 October 2019

Revised Date: 10 December 2019

Accepted Date: 16 December 2019

Please cite this article as: Moura, D.S., Lima Neto, I.E., Clemente, A., Oliveira, S., Pestana, C.J., Aparecida de Melo, M., Capelo-Neto, José., Modeling phosphorus exchange between bottom sediment and water in tropical semiarid reservoirs, *Chemosphere* (2020), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2019.125686.

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Modeling phosphorus exchange between bottom sediment and water in 1 tropical semiarid reservoirs 2

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Diana S. Moura^{a,b}, Iran E. Lima Neto^a, Allan Clemente^a; Samylla Oliveira^a, Carlos J. 4 Pestana^b, Maria Aparecida de Melo^a, José Capelo-Neto^a 5

^a School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Department of Hydraulic and 6

7 Environmental Engineering, Federal University of Ceará, Fortaleza, Brazil.

^b School of Pharmacy and Life Sciences, Robert Gordon University, Aberdeen, UK 8

Graphical abstract:



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Modeling phosphorus exchange between bottom sediment and water in tropical semiarid reservoirs

3

4 Abstract

5 This study investigated phosphorus (P) dynamics in the sediment-water interface of 6 three distinct reservoirs located in a tropical semiarid region. Sequential chemical 7 fractioning of the P content in the sediment and controlled experiments of the sediment-8 water interface were performed to understand and model the effect of the different P 9 fractions on the exchange dynamics under anoxic and oxic scenarios. The results 10 revealed that the older the reservoir, the higher the amount of iron and aluminum-bound 11 P in the sediment, and that this fraction was responsible for a 10-fold increase in P 12 concentration in the water during anoxic conditions. After aeration, P in water decreased 13 but did not return to its initial concentration. The most recently constructed reservoir showed the lowest P concentration in the sediment and dominance of the unavailable P 14 15 fraction, resulting in no potential impact on water quality. Phosphorus release and precipitation rates were well described by zero- and first-order models, respectively. 16 Reservoirs with high P availability in the sediment, not only released more phosphorus 17 18 but also presented a lower precipitation rate, resulting in higher potential damage to 19 water quality and making some in-lake treatment techniques ineffective.

20

Keywords: Bottom sediments; eutrophication; internal load; mathematical modeling;
phosphorus availability.

24 1. Introduction

25

26 Phosphorus (P) present in bottom sediment has a major influence on eutrophication and 27 water quality deterioration (Baker et al., 2014; Jarvie et al., 2017; Kane et al., 2014; 28 Chen et al., 2018). High P concentration can favor the formation of harmful algal 29 blooms (HABs), increase biomass, turbidity, and the risks associated with toxic or 30 noxious secondary metabolites. HABs represent a significant challenge to water 31 treatment, increasing the economic burden of water utilities as filter run time is 32 decreased and additional chemicals are needed (He et al., 2016). The problem of P in 33 sediments is prolonged since it is persistent and P can be released from sediment as deep as 20 cm (Søndergaard et al., 2003). In order to assess the magnitude of the 34 35 problem, the likelihood of P release needs to be evaluated, since various P fractions have different solubility under different water conditions (Cong et al., 2014). This 36 37 assessment can be achieved by sequential chemical fractionation of the inorganic 38 phosphorus (P₁) present in the bottom sediment of a reservoir. According to Rydin 39 (2000), P_I can be fractionated into:

- 40 a) Mobile P (P_M): the soluble fraction that can be considered readily available for
 41 release to the water column;
- 42 b) P linked to iron and aluminum (P_{FeAl}): a fraction only available under anoxic
 43 conditions;
- 44 c) Calcium-bound P (P_{Ca}): considered very difficult to release, practically
 45 unavailable;

46 d) Residual P (P_{Re}): considered unavailable for release.

47 A number of authors (Mortimer, 1971; Chapra and Canale, 1991; Ruley and Rusch,

48 2004; Beutel et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2018) have discussed the dynamics of P exchange

49 across the sediment-water interface. However, because of the complexities involved, it 50 has not been found in the recent literature a conceptual model describing P exchange 51 based on P fractions. Three major challenges are: the proportion and amount of the 52 aforementioned P fractions can vary considerably among different lakes and reservoirs 53 sediments; the impact of P fractions on the exchange rates between sediment and water 54 is still not fully understood, and; environmental factors such as pH, temperature, and 55 dissolved oxygen affect the exchange rates differently. Therefore, further studies are 56 needed to elucidate these dynamics.

In tropical semiarid regions, like the Brazilian Northeast, a dense network of thousands 57 of surface water reservoirs has been built to meet increasing water demand (Campos et 58 al., 2016). However, these reservoirs face a nutrient-enriched sediment deposition 59 60 (Braga et al., 2019) associated with high water temperatures, which promote 61 stratification in the water column (Dantas et al., 2008) and fast organic degradation, frequently forcing anoxic conditions over the bottom sediment. Therefore, P internal 62 63 loading is expected to significantly impact water quality in these reservoirs. Moreover, 64 reservoirs in the tropical semiarid regions are usually shallow and present high water 65 level variation because of recurrent droughts and high evaporation rates (Barbosa et al., 66 2012). The combination of these factors perpetuates eutrophication and HAB, significantly overloading water treatment (Pestana et al., 2019) and requiring in-lake 67 68 treatment techniques such as artificial aeration (Pacheco and Lima Neto, 2017) or 69 application of phosphorus binding clay (Oosterhout and Lürling, 2013) to mitigate the 70 impacts on water quality.

A recent study carried out by Cavalcante et al. (2018) evaluated the potential
contribution of P sediment load in reservoirs in the State of Rio Grande do Norte, also
located in the Brazilian semiarid region. The results revealed high amounts of soluble

74 and easily bioavailable forms of P in the sediments, thereby enhancing eutrophication 75 and phytoplankton growth. Hence, when the hypolimnion of a reservoir becomes anoxic 76 and depending on the fraction of P present, a significant release of P to the water would 77 be expected. However, how different fractions of P will contribute to P concentration in 78 the water under this scenario is still not fully understood. To the authors' best 79 knowledge, this is the first study modeling the potential exchange between bottom 80 sediment and water in artificial water reservoirs of different P fractions. The hypothesis 81 raised in this paper is that, by elucidating the distribution of the P fractions in the 82 bottom sediment, it would be possible to assess the P exchange potential in different 83 reservoirs. Therefore, the objective of this work was to mathematically model P exchange dynamics in reservoirs with different characteristics under oxic and anoxic 84 85 conditions considering the different fractions available.

86 2. Materials and Methods

87 88

2.1 Study site and sediment sampling

The semiarid region of northeastern Brazil provides the ideal study ground for drinking 89 90 water reservoirs that undergo periodical drought-and-refill cycles. The selected study 91 area is located in the central region of the Ceará state, in the experimental watershed of the Forquilha River. This region encompasses a geomorphological diversity 92 93 representative of the crystalline area of the Brazilian semiarid region. The experimental 94 watershed has an area of 221 km² and an average elevation of 315 m. The vegetation is 95 shrub-like, heavily degraded due to the widespread practice of fires for the preparation of agricultural areas. Preceding this study, the selected area experienced five years of 96 97 precipitation below the historical average. This situation was confirmed in the field surveys when the selected reservoirs were completely dry. Three reservoirs R#1, R#2 98

99 and R#3 with capacities of about one hm³ and different ages were selected (figure 1 and 100 table 1). Sediment sampling was carried out in duplicate in the lacustrine zone of each 101 reservoir until a depth of approximately 5 cm with the aid of a sediment trap. In total, 102 three composite samples were collected.



103

Figure 1. Selected reservoirs (R#1, R#2 and R#3) in the experimental watershed of Forquilha, in the State of Ceará, Brazilian semiarid region.

107	Table 1. Coordinates of	the sediment sampling points,	, maximum depth and ages	s of the studied reservoirs.
	Reservoir	Age (years)	Maximum depth	Geo-coordinates

Reservon	Age (years)	(m)	Geo-coordinates
D#1	20	5.5	5°18'57" S
N#1	20		39°33'25" W
R#7	8	4.0	5°21'27'' S
11172	0		39°36'29" W
R#3	3	4.6	5°21'35" S
11775	5		39°36'14" W

108

109 2.2 Phosphorus extraction of from sediment and analysis

110 Analysis of P in the sediment was performed before the water-sediment interface 111 simulation in order to characterize the sediment and to assess its interaction with the 112 water. Total phosphorus (P_T) content in the sediments was analyzed as soluble

113	phosphate after extraction by heating the sediment at 500 °C for 1 hour followed by
114	high temperature (340 °C) acid hydrolysis, according to the methodology proposed by
115	Hedley et al. (1982). $P_{T_{\!\!\!\!,}}$ in turn, can be subdivided into inorganic (P_I) and organic
116	phosphorus (P_0). P_0 was obtained by subtracting P_T from P_I concentration (Eq. 1)
117	$P_{\rm O} = P_{\rm T} - (P_{\rm M} + P_{\rm FeAl} + P_{\rm Ca} + P_{\rm Re}) \tag{1}$
118	Extracting $P_{\rm I}$ from the sediment was carried out by sequential chemical fractionation
119	until that fraction became soluble phosphate. This method consists of sequentially
120	fractioning P_I into mobile phosphorus (P_M), iron and aluminum-bound phosphorus
121	(P_{FeAL}), calcium-bound phosphorus (P_{Ca}) and residual phosphorus (P_{Re}). The methods
122	used for each P-fractioning are listed in Table 2. For the analysis of soluble phosphate,
123	the method 4500-P from APHA (2017) was used.
124 125	Table 2. Methods of P extraction from the sediment by sequential chemical fractionation of the inorganic phosphorus

Fractioning sequence	P fraction	Extraction solution (Conc.)	Conditions	Method
1^{st} .	P _M	NH ₄ Cl (0.5 N)	10 minutes	Adapted from
2^{nd}	P _{FeAL}	NaOH (0.1 N)	17 hours	Psenner et al.
3 rd	P _{Ca}	HCl (0.1 N)	24 hours	(1998)
4 th	P _{Re}	HCl (0.1 N)	Heating (500 °C) for 1 hour followed by high temperature (340 °C) acid hydrolysis for 10 minutes.	Adapted from Hedley et al. (1982)

126

127 Water-sediment interface simulation 2.3

128 To simulate sediment-water interaction in a controlled environment, 25 g of bottom sediment from the top 5-cm layer from each reservoir was ground with a pestle and 129 130 mortar and placed into sealed glass vessels (microcosms), in duplicate (figure 2). The 131 sediment was slowly and gently covered in order to prevent resuspension until a height 132 of H = 15 cm with 1600 mL (size of the microcosms used) of natural water. Since all 133 three reservoirs were completely dry, natural water from another reservoir was used to 134 approximate the experiments to the natural conditions found in the sediment. The

135 microcosms were protected from light to avoid oxygen generation by photosynthetic

136 organisms.



137

138 Figure 2. Experimental setup for the sediment-water column interaction: (a) microcosms sparged initially 139 with nitrogen and then with air; and (b) single microcosm containing sediment, natural water and gas 140 input/output details.

141

142	Natural water quality was determined prior (Table 3) and during the experiment
143	including Total phosphorus - TP (APHA, 2017 - Method 4500-P), orthophosphate - OP
144	(APHA, 2017 - Method 4500-P), dissolved oxygen - DO (YSI 55, USA), 254 nm
145	absorbance (Spectrophotometer GENESYS 10S UV - VIS, USA), and pH (AN 2000,
146	China). Absorbance at 254 nm was determined as an estimation of dissolved organic
147	material in the water. All reagents used were of analytical grade.
148	Table 3. Water quality parameters for the natural water used in the sediment-water interface studies.

	Parameter	Result
	Dissolved oxygen - DO (mg L^{-1})	4.7
	254 nm absorbance	0.369
	pН	7.1
	Total phosphorus - TP (μ g L ⁻¹)	197.5
	Orthophosphate - $OP(\mu g L^{-1})$	56.4
149		

The microcosms were submitted to anoxic followed by oxic condition. In the anoxic 150 phase, nitrogen (N₂) was sparged gently in order to maintain DO below 0.5 mg L^{-1} for 151 152 25 days or until phosphorus concentrations in water stabilized. This value is consistently lower than the limit of 1.0 mg L⁻¹ proposed by Mortimer (1971) for triggering anaerobic 153

154 release. Note that other authors such as Chapra and Canale (1991) and Ruley and Rusch (2004) assumed higher limits of 1.5 and 3.0 mg L^{-1} , respectively, in order to compensate 155 156 for the fact that the hypolimnion of real lakes is actually not well mixed, differently 157 from our lab conditions. The next stage consisted of gently sparging air in order to reach DO of approximately 4.5 mg L⁻¹, a condition normally found in the reservoirs, 158 maintained for 25 days or until phosphorus concentrations in the water stabilized. 159 Observe that this upper limit (4.5 mg L^{-1}) is also higher than the above-mentioned 160 161 thresholds suggested by Chapra and Canale (1991) and Ruley and Rusch (2004). It is also important to stress that no visible resuspension of sediment occurred during 162 163 sparging. Change in phosphorus concentration was calculated based on the initial water concentration, considering the volume of the aliquot subtracted for analysis. 164

165 **2.4 Phosphorus exchange model**

166 Neglecting the inflow, outflow and atmospheric P exchange in the water column, the167 phosphorus balance equation of Ruley and Rusch (2004) can be written as:

168
$$V\frac{dc}{dt} = k_r A - k_s A C$$
(2)

169 where C (mg m⁻³) is the concentration of TP or OP, A (m²) and V (m³) are the cross-170 sectional area and water volume of the experimental chambers (figure 2), respectively, 171 k_r (mg m⁻² day⁻¹) and k_s (m day⁻¹) are the reaction coefficients to account for release and 172 precipitation of P, respectively, while t is the elapsed time. Note that the above equation 173 is equivalent to that proposed by Larsen et al. (1979). A one-compartment model was 174 used here instead of the two-comportment model of Chapra and Canale (1991), as P 175 burial was neglected under the present experimental conditions.

Thus, in order to model the behavior of TP and OP in the microcosm water, it was assumed that P net-release occurred during the anoxic stage, while P net-precipitation occurred in the oxic stage, resulting in the following analytical solutions from Eq. (2):

179	Release (anoxic stage):	$C = C_0 + 1/H(k_r t)$	(3)
-----	-------------------------	------------------------	-----

180 Precipitation (oxic stage): $C = C_0 exp[1/H(-k_s t)]$ (4)

181 where $C_0 \text{ (mg m}^{-3})$ is the initial concentration of TP or OP, and H (=V/A) is the water

- 182 depth in the chambers (figure 2).
- 183 2.5 Statistical analysis

Shapiro-Wilk normality test was performed on the TP and OP data for the three 184 185 sediments (R # 1, R # 2 and R # 3) under anoxic and oxic conditions. Normality was 186 observed in all tests at a significance level of 5%. Pearson's correlation coefficient was 187 calculated considering three association intensities: Strong: above 80%; Medium: 188 between 60 and 80% and; Weak: below 60%. The same significance level was 189 considered (5%). To confirm the causality between the number of days of the 190 experiment and the concentrations of TP and OP in the microcosms, a linear regression analysis was performed and R^2 and adjusted R^2 were calculated. For such, it was 191 192 assumed:

- Normally distributed dependent variable (p<0.05) at the significance level of
 5%;
- Independent variable coefficients significant (p <0.05) by t-test;
- Obtained model shows significant F-statistics (p <0.05);
- Homoscedasticity of the residues (p> 0.05) by F-statistic;
- 198
- Normally distributed residues (p> 0.05);
- Graphic analysis of residues.

We used nonparametric one-tailed pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum tests with Bonferroni correction with a level of significance of 5% to verify a significant reduction in TP and OP between microcosmos. Details of the statistical analyses mentioned above are available in the supplementary materials.

204

205

206 **3.** Results and Discussion

207 **3.1 Sediment phosphorus analysis**

Sediment pH increased slightly while P_T content decreased to a greater extent from R#1 to R#3 (Table 4). Wu et al. (2014) evaluated the effects of pH on P release from sediments under laboratory conditions and demonstrated that more P was released under alkaline than acidic conditions. According to Boström et al. (1988), low pH increases the phosphorus binding capacity of iron in lakes, decreasing the phosphorus flux from sediment to the water column.

Reservoir R#1 presented the highest P_T (998.72 mg kg⁻¹) and P_{FeAI} (567.43 mg kg⁻¹, 214 215 57% of P_T) (table 4), indicating a high potential of P-recharge to water, as Fe-bond are mostly responsible for the release of P from sediments (Chen et al., 2018). In R#2, P_T 216 was 671.31 mg kg⁻¹ with P_{Ca} predominating (421.90 mg kg⁻¹) and representing 61% of 217 P_T. As P_{Ca} can be considered hardly available (Rydin, 2000), this sediment should have 218 219 a moderate impact on this reservoir's trophic level. The lowest concentration of P_T $(302.91 \text{ mg kg}^{-1})$ was observed in R#3, with the unavailable fraction (P_{Re}) representing 220 221 68%, indicating that this sediment should have little or no influence on water quality in 222 the reservoir.

Calcium-bond P found in lake sediments are normally associated with the adsorption of calcium carbonate and the formation of calcium phosphates (Brown, 1980; Golterman,1998). Huang et al. (2005) observed that the quantity of Ca-P fraction retained in the sediments, after a release experiment, increased with the increase of the pH values in solutions indicating that that calcium-bound P release to water mainly occurred at lower pH, while the amounts of Ca-P released would reach bottom at pH 8

to 10. The high amount of Ca-P fraction in the sediment of reservoir R#2 could be explained if its water were normally alkaline. However, it was not possible to verify that hypothesis since the reservoir was completely dry during the sampling campaign.

232 It is also interesting to stress that as P_I increased with reservoir age, P_o decreased (Table 233 4). This trend is supported by the study of Shinohara et al. (2017), in which the 234 concentration of inorganic P in the sediment of a shallow eutrophic lake in Japan 235 increased over time whereas the concentration of organic P decreased. Such a result 236 suggests that organic P is converted into inorganic P, as bacteria in the sediment can decompose the organic matter, consuming oxygen and releasing inorganic P. 237 238 Additionally, we can observe that the fraction of P_{FeAl} is the only one shown in Table 4 that clearly increases with reservoir age. 239

240

241
242Table 4. Concentration of phosphorus in the sediment, phosphorus forms, P_1 fractions and percentage in
relation to the P_T for each reservoir.ParameterR#1% of P_T R#3% of P_T Depth(cm)0-5-0-7-0-7-

Parameter	K#1	% OI P _T	K# 2	% 01 P _T	K#3	% OI P _T
Depth(cm)	0-5	<u> </u>	0-7	-	0-5	-
pН	5.88	-	6.03	-	6.47	-
$P_T (mg kg^{-1})$	998.72	100	694.2	100	368.17	100
$P_{M} (mg kg^{-1})$	58.17	6	11.96	2	11.96	3
$P_{FeAl}(mg kg^{-1})$	567.43	57	177.74	26	28.18	8
$P_{Ca} (mg kg^{-1})$	329.47	33	421.9	61	13.76	4
$P_{Re} (mg kg^{-1})$	191.57	19	59.71	9	249.01	68
$P_{I}(mg kg^{-1})$	998.72	100	671.31	97	302.91	82
$P_O(mg kg^{-1})$	0	0	20.83	3	65.26	18

244	Overall, the P concentrations measured were lower in comparison to those reported by
245	Cavalcante et al. (2018) in other tropical semiarid reservoir sediments, but within the
246	values obtained in other climatic regions (Rydin, 2000; Wang et al., 2006; Roy et al.,
247	2017). Sediment R#1 presented the highest concentrations of P_{FeAl} , followed by R#2
248	and R#3, at a significance level of 5%. Considering the reservoirs in this study, it is

observed that as the age increased, the concentration of P in the sediment also increased, as well as the dominant fraction P_{FeAl} , and consequently, the potential P-release. This trend is consistent with the results of Cavalcante et al. (2018) who reported higher P_{FeAl} concentrations in older reservoirs (60 and 90 years). Combining our results with those of Cavalcante et al. (2018), we were able to fit the following linear relationship to describe the effect of reservoir age on the concentration of P_{FeAl} (figure 3):

255
$$P_{FeAl} = 17(age)$$

where P_{FeA1} and age are given in mg kg⁻¹ and years, respectively. Note that this linear relationship better fitted the data than the exponential curve also shown in figure 3, which implies that, for the range of ages evaluated here, no clear P_{FeA1} saturation is observed.

(5)



260

Figure 3. Effect of reservoir age on the concentration of phosphorus linked to iron and aluminum in
 tropical semiarid reservoirs, which is responsible for phosphorus release from anoxic sediments.

264 **3.2** Water-sediment interface simulation

265 3.2.1 Phosphorus in water

The experiment was run for approximately 50 days under identical conditions. The water
 temperature was maintained at 27±2°C and the pH varied according to table 5. As stated

in the materials and methods section, the DO in the anoxic phase was maintained at approximately 0.5 mg L^{-1} , while, in the aerated phase, DO was approximately 4.5 mg L^{-1} 270 ¹.

271 Except for microcosms containing R#1 sediment, where pH average and standard 272 deviation (SD) in water did not remarkably change in both phases, both values increased 273 during the oxic phase (Table 5). Jiang et al. (2006) performed P release experiments 274 using bottom sediments and also observed a pH increase from 8.6 to 9.5 in the water at 275 the anoxic condition but no obvious changes in the aerobic condition. Sediment pH did not appear to influence the pH of the supernatant water. Likewise, Herlihy and Mills 276 (1986) observed that the pH values of sediments (between 6.0 and 7.0) did not reflect 277 the pH values (as low as 3.5) of the underlying water in Lake Anna, Virginia. 278

Table 5. pH average and standard deviation (SD) during the experiment's anoxic and oxic phases.

Sediment	Anoxic		Oxic	
	average	SD	average	SD
#1	7.15	0.15	7.12	0.13
#2	7.13	0.34	7.55	1.45
#3	7.03	0.16	7.41	0.37

Water-sediment P fluxes varied between anoxic to oxic phases and between the three different sediments tested (Figure 4). For both TP and OP, at a significance level of 5%, the water concentration in R # 1 was greater than in R # 2 ($p_{TP} = 0.046$ and $p_{OP} = 0.002$) which in turn was greater than in R # 3 ($p_{TP} = 0.002$ and $p_{OP} = 0.004$).



285

Figure 4. OP and TP concentration variation in microcosms containing sediments R# 1, R# 2, and R# 3 in
the anoxic and oxic phases.

288

289 In the anoxic phase, the TP concentration in the water of the microcosms containing the 290 sediment of reservoirs R#1 and R#2 showed significant (p <0.05) positive correlations with the number of days of the experiment (Figure 5) while in the oxic phase, there 291 292 were significant negative correlations for both (p < 0.05). For R#3 the correlations were 293 not significant (p > 0.05) in both phases (Figure 5). A significant (p < 0.05), strong and 294 positive correlations in R # 1, R # 2 and R # 3 was observed between OP and the 295 number of days of the experiment in anoxic phase, while in the oxic phase, only R # 1 296 showed a significant (p > 0.05), but moderate, negative correlation. Thus, the behavior 297 of the OP differed slightly from that observed for the TP.

According to Cong et al. (2014), P_{FeA1} is easily desorbed from the sediments and released into the supernatant water. In R#1, sediment showed the greatest potential to 300 impact the water quality due to the P release significantly higher than in the other 301 reservoirs presenting after 22 days, 1842 mg m^{-3} of TP and 1704 mg m^{-3} of OP.

302 Iron oxides and hydroxides are involved in phosphorus sorption/desorption and 303 precipitation/dissolution on water and sediment in lakes (Boström et al., 1988; Holtan et 304 al., 1988; Ruttenberg, 2003). Iron oxides and hydroxides in water and in sediments 305 come ultimately from the catchment soil (Dillon and Molot, 2005) and are connected to 306 site geology and climate conditions and can influence TP concentration in water 307 columns and in the sediment (Buol et al., 2011). Bottom sediments of two small shallow 308 reservoirs in Poland were investigated by Smal et al. (2013). The researchers established 309 a strong linear relationship between TP content and Fe and Al concentrations in the 310 sediments, implying that the high levels of Fe and Al in sediments contributed to the TP 311 accumulation.





Figure 5. Linear regression fit of TP and OP versus time for both anoxic and oxic conditions using three

- sediments (R#1, R#2, R#3). The symbol (*) indicates that the fit was not significant (p > 0.05). The values in parentheses after R² represent the adjusted R².
- 317

Figure 5 also shows the equations of the straight lines obtained by linear regression for 318 319 the experimental data. Under anoxic conditions, the sediment from R#1 presented the highest solubilization rate of TP (69.8 mg m⁻³ day⁻¹) to the microcosmos water, while 320 the sediment R#2 presented a rate of 26.4 mg m⁻³ day⁻¹, and R # 3 showed no significant 321 322 solubilization (p > 0.05). Similarly, OP solubilization was also higher in R#1 (73.0 mg $m^{-3} day^{-1}$) followed by R#2 (25.6 mg $m^{-3} day^{-1}$) and than R#3 (6.7 mg $m^{-3} day^{-1}$). In the 323 324 case of microcosms containing R # 1 and R # 2 sediments, the solubilization rate of TP 325 and OP were statistically the same (p > 0.05) indicating that P release occurred in 326 soluble format.

In the oxide phase, the microcosm water containing R#1 sediment also presented the highest precipitation rate, reducing the TP concentration by approximately 17 mg m⁻³ day⁻¹, while in the R# 2 the precipitation rate observed was 10.8 mg m⁻³ day⁻¹. R # 3 also showed no significant precipitation (p > 0.05). Regarding OP, the R # 1 sediment microcosm presented a precipitation rate of 7.3 mg m⁻³ day⁻¹ while the other microcosm showed no significant reductions.

After 10 days into the oxic phase in microcosms R#1, TP and OP were 1108 and 1013 mg m⁻³, respectively, representing total precipitation of only around 40% of TP and OP. Contrary to what was observed in our experiment, Beutel et al., (2008) found that the concentrations of Soluble Reactive Phosphorus (SRP), referred to in our study as orthophosphate (OP), practically returned to the initial conditions after aeration. In their anoxic phase, the amount of SRP released was approximately 250 mg m⁻³, practically the same amount returned to the sediment after aeration.

In R#1, the OP released was 2449 mg m⁻³ and the precipitated was 937 mg m⁻³, 340 341 representing a 38% reduction of P in the water column. Beutel et al. (2008) experiments presented approximately 300 mg m⁻³ at the end of the anoxic phase but only 50 mg.m⁻³ 342 343 at the end of the oxic phase. However, in Beutel et al. (2008) dissolved oxygen went up to 9 mg L⁻¹, whereas the conditions found in the Ceará state reservoirs and in the 344 microcosms were about half of that (4.5 mg L⁻¹). Although several environmental 345 346 variables influence the P release from bottom sediment (Kleeberg & Kozerski, 1998), 347 DO in the overlying water is probably the most important one (Wang et al., 2008). The mechanism of the effects of DO on the P-release from sediments is related basically to 348 349 the redox and pH variations (Baudo, 1990).

In microcosms R#2, the concentrations of TP and OP in the water increased during the anoxic phase, reaching 931 and 842 mg m⁻³ after 29 days, respectively, similar to what happened in microcosms R#1 but with a lower final concentration. This behavior may be explained by the dominant P_I fractions found in the sediments of R#2, the not readily available P_{Ca} (421.9 mg kg⁻¹, 61% of P_T). After 21 days of aeration, the concentration of TP and OP in the water was reduced to 520 mg m⁻³ and 357 mg m⁻³, respectively.

In R#3, a high concentration of P_{Re} (249.01 mg kg⁻¹, 68 % of P_T), which is considered unavailable, was present in the sediment. In contrast to the other reservoirs, the easily available fractions in the sediment represented only 11% of P_T and therefore, the concentrations of TP in the water showed very little variation in the anoxic phase and no significant (p> 0.05) variation in the oxic stages (figure 5).

According to Singleton and Little (2006), the aeration of the reservoir's hypolimnion can be used as a recovery measure. In addition to preventing the release of P to the water column, this technique helps precipitate it, thus improving water quality.

However, the present study showed that this measure alone may not be able to revert therelease of P during anoxic conditions.

Knowing the concentration of each easily available fraction (P_{FeAl} and P_M) at the sediment (25g), the amount of P that could potentially be released to the water was calculated. Although R#1 sediment released a higher amount of P, it represented only 25% of the potentially available P to water, while at R#2, P released was 35% of the potentially available P in the sediment (Figure 6).



Figure 6. Available phosphorus $(P_{FeAl} + P_M)$ present in 25 g of sediment in 1600 mL compared to the concentration of total phosphorus released at the end of the anoxic and oxic phases for each reservoir.

375 3.2.2 P exchange rates

376

371

The model fit (Eqs. 3 and 4 presented at the Materials and Methods section) to the TP 377 and OP experimental data resulted in the release coefficients k_r of 11.0 and 4.0 mg m⁻² 378 day⁻¹ and in the precipitation coefficients k_s of 0.004 and 0.07 m day⁻¹ for microcosms 379 R#1 and R#2, respectively (table 6 and figure 7). Note that the same k_r and k_s values 380 381 were used for adjusting the data of TP and OP for each microcosm, resulting in coefficients of determination (R^2) ranging from 0.770 to 0.973 for TP and from 0.540 to 382 383 0.995 for OP. This may indicate that the exchange rates between sediment and water 384 were well represented by zero- and first-order models, respectively, as proposed by

385	Larsen et al. (1979) and Ruley and Rusch (2004). Furthermore, it suggests that the
386	models can be used to simulate the release and precipitation of P in tropical semiarid
387	reservoirs. It is also important to note that the adjusted values of P exchange rates
388	obtained for microcosms R#1 and R#2 were lower than those summarized by Ruley and
389	Rusch (2004). This probably occurred because, here, we avoided sediment resuspension
390	and growth of photosynthetic organisms in the experimental chambers, potentially
391	reducing the k_r and k_s values, respectively. Contrastingly to the above-mentioned trends
392	for the anoxic and oxic stages in R#1 and R#2, the microcosm R#3 did not present any
393	clear trend over time, and the k_r and k_s values were considered zero (table 6 and figure
394	7). Observe that the k_r -values decreased from R#1 to R#3, as the available P fractions in
395	the sediment also decrease accordingly (figure 5). On the other hand, the k_s -values were
396	higher for R#2, which suggests that reservoirs with high available P fractions, such as
397	R#1, not only release more P but also present a lower precipitation rate of P, resulting in
398	higher potential impacts on water quality than R#2 and R#3.

399 400

 Table 6. Fitted phosphorus release and precipitation rates obtained in the present study compared with the ranges reported in the literature.

Parameter	R #1	R#2	R#3	Ruley & Rusch (2004)
$k_r (mg m^{-2} day^{-1})$	11.0	4.0	0.0	19.0 - 46.0
$k_s (m day^{-1})$	0.004	0.007	0.0	0.009 - 0.120



402 Time (days)
403 Figure 7. Model Fit to the experimental data of TP (A) and OP (B) during the anoxic and oxic phases for each reservoir sediment.
405

406 Figure 8 shows the fitting of the adjusted values of k_r (table 6) to the 407 concentration of P_{FeA1} for each microcosm (R#1, R#2 and R#3). It is clearly seen that k_r 408 can be linearly related to P_{FeA1} :

409
$$k_r = 0.0196 (P_{FeAI})$$
 (6)

410

411 where k_r and P_{FeAl} are given in mg m⁻² day⁻¹ and mg kg⁻¹, respectively.

As already discussed, the dominant fraction for P release from sediments (P_{FeAl})
is also linearly related to reservoir age by equation 5 (figure 3). Thus, as the reservoirs

414 studied here (R#1, R#2 and R#3) had a relatively small age (< 20 years), we expect, as a 415 consequence, lower values of k_r as compared to the older reservoirs studied by 416 Cavalcante et al. (2018). Hence, applying equation 6 to these reservoirs, with ages of 60 and 90 years, we obtain values of k_r of 19.4 and 29.1 mg m⁻² day⁻¹, respectively, which 417 418 are within the typical range reported by Ruley and Rusch (2004) in table 5. On the other 419 hand, as already mentioned, one possible cause of lower k_s-values (table 6) is the 420 absence of algae in the experimental chambers, which would also contribute to 421 dissolved P removal from the water column (Chapra and Canale, 1991). The explanation for the lower precipitation rates found here remains to be explored in future 422 423 experiments.



Figure 8. Fitting of phosphorus release rate as a function of the concentration of phosphorus linked to iron
 and aluminum for each reservoir.

427

428 **4.** Conclusions

429 The sediments of three reservoirs of different ages located in the semiarid Northeast of Brazil were investigated regarding P content and chemical fraction 430 431 distribution. Special attention was given to the potential of P release and precipitation at 432 the sediment-water interface in experimental chambers (microcosms) under anoxic 433 followed by oxic conditions. The older the reservoir, the higher the concentration of P 434 and of iron and aluminum linked-P in the sediment. The concentration of P in the water 435 column during the anoxic experiment using R#1 sediment showed a 10-fold increase 436 due to the amount and fraction of P present (P_{FeA1}). After oxic condition was reached, the P concentration in the water column decreased but did not return to pre-anoxic phase 437 values. The results also indicated that the contribution of P from the sediment occurred 438 439 mainly in the form of orthophosphate (OP), which increases the primary productivity 440 and the chances of harmful algal blooms in water. Contrastingly, the most recently constructed reservoir showed the lowest concentration of P in the sediment with the 441 442 dominance of unavailable P fraction (P_{Re}), resulting in low potential impact on water 443 quality. The release and precipitation rates of P between sediment and water were well 444 represented by zero- and first-order models, respectively. Reservoirs with high available 445 P fractions not only released more phosphorus but also proportionally presented lower 446 precipitation rate, increasing the potential impacts on water quality. This study provided 447 new findings regarding phosphorus dynamics at the sediment-water interface and new 448 models and parameters that can be used to simulate the exchange rates of P in tropical 449 semiarid reservoirs.

450 **5.** Acknowledgments

This research was funded by Financier of Studies and Projects - FINEP [01.14.0130.001107/13 MCTI/FINEP/CT- HIDRO-01/2013], by the Coordination for the Improvement

- 453 of Higher Education Personnel CAPES [Research Grant PROEX 20/2016], by Ceará
- 454 State Research Foundation FUNCAP [PNE-0112-00042.01.00/16], and by Brazilian
- 455 National Research Council CNPq [403116/2016-3].
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Journa

Highlights:

- Phosphorus (P) release potential was directly proportional to reservoir age;
- Sediments rich in iron and aluminium-bond P may have higher impact on water quality;
- P release rates were higher than precipitation rates.
- Not all P released at the anoxic phase precipitated after oxic condition was restablished;
- Release and precipitation rates are well described by zero- and first-order models;

Johnalbreigi

1. Author contributions

- Diana S. Moura and Samylla Oliveira conducted the field and laboratory studies, literature review, designed the figures and drafted the manuscript.
- Maria Aparecida de Melo helped to conduct laboratory studies and processed the experimental data.
- Carlos J. Pestana reviewed the article and provided critical feedback.
- Iran E. Lima Neto performed the mathematical modeling, analyzed the data, and contributed to the manuscript;
- José Capelo-Neto helped to draft the field and laboratory planning, helped to conduct the field and laboratory studies, analyzed the data, and contributed to the manuscript.
- Allan Clemente improved the statistics analysis, analyzed the data, and contributed to the manuscript.
- All authors have approved the final article.

Declaration of interests

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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