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[Marine Pollution Bulletin xxx \(xxxx\) xxx–xxx](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.05.052)

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/0025326X)

Marine Pollution Bulletin

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/marpolbul

Baseline

Mangrove sediments reveal records of development during the previous century (Coffs Creek estuary, Australia)

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Mangroves are important to estuarine systems by protecting shorelines from erosion, trapping sediments and acting as heavy metal and nutrient sinks ([Duarte et al., 2013; Machado et al., 2016; Sanders et al.,](#page--1-0) [2014a\)](#page--1-0). Retention of contaminants is related to mangrove roots reducing tidal and fluvial water flow, promoting sediment deposition ([Kirwan and Megonigal, 2013](#page--1-1)). Metal and nutrients in mangrove sediments may be linked to land use in adjacent catchments [\(Brady et al.,](#page--1-2) [2014; Defew et al., 2005; Harbison, 1986; Nath et al., 2014a; Nath](#page--1-2) [et al., 2014b\)](#page--1-2). Mangrove sediments may therefore be considered an appropriate setting for studying historical activities in a catchment ([Defew et al., 2005; Marchand et al., 2011; McCa](#page--1-3)ffrey and Thomson, [1980; Serrano et al., 2011\)](#page--1-3), particularly when baseline levels can be defined ([Miola et al., 2016; Nienhuis, 1986; Serrano et al., 2011\)](#page--1-4).

Spatial distributions of heavy metal contaminants originating from point sources have previously been constructed using sediments from mangroves [\(Harbison, 1984](#page--1-5)). For instance, [Machado et al. \(2016\)](#page--1-6) estimated Hg fluxes into sediments in an estuary in Brazil. The Hg flux increased during rapid industrialization in the 1950s and decreased after emission control in the 1980s. [Sanders et al. \(2014b\)](#page--1-7) revealed that mangrove sediments are also efficient in accumulating nutrients as a result of enrichment of the catchment. Here, we use a mangrove sediment core from Coffs Creek estuary (Coffs Harbour, Australia) to assess the heavy metal and nutrient depositional history in the catchment.

Coffs Creek estuary runs through the center Coffs Harbour, on the north coast of New South Wales, Australia. Coffs Harbour has a humid subtropical climate with seasonal variations in rainfall (wet summers and dry winters). Average yearly rainfall is 1699 mm with an average of 142 precipitation days and a yearly average of 63% relative humidity ([BOM, 2017](#page--1-8)). Coffs Creek estuary is wave-dominated and intermittently infilled. The catchment area is small relative to the surrounding catchments and comprises the urban and residential center of Coffs Harbour [\(Fig. 1\)](#page-1-0). Residential and agricultural land comprise 66% of the 25 km^2 catchment area [\(Ryder et al., 2012\)](#page--1-9). The mangrove forests of Coffs Creek are dominated by Avicennia marina and have an area of 20.07 ha ([Brown et al., 2016](#page--1-10)). The main anthropogenic pressures on Coffs Creek estuary include elevated sediment and nutrient loads in runoff and stormwater, increased concentrations of pesticides, herbicides and potential sewage inputs from on-site systems and overflows from the city sewage system [\(Ryder et al., 2012\)](#page--1-9).

The history of Coffs Harbour includes agriculture and urban expansion. From ~1950 banana cultivation dominated in the basin ([Yeates, 1990\)](#page--1-11) and aerial spraying of bananas began in 1958 [\(Hedditch,](#page--1-12) [2014\)](#page--1-12). More recently, blueberry agriculture has taken the place of some banana cultivation, accompanied by steady population increase and intense urban development. Agricultural substances of particular concern in Coffs Harbour are arsenic (As) from pesticides and phosphorus (P) from fertilizers. In addition, copper (Cu) fungicides are also used in blueberry, banana, and avocado farms in in this region [\(Van Zwieten](#page--1-13) [et al., 2007](#page--1-13)). An increase in traffic through Coffs Harbour commenced in the 1950s as a result of the construction of a major highway, Pacific

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2017.05.052>

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Received 21 April 2017; Received in revised form 10 May 2017; Accepted 19 May 2017 0025-326X/ © 2017 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

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S.R. Conrad et al. *Marine Pollution Bulletin xxx (xxxx) xxx–xxx*

Fig. 1. A. Map of Coffs creek catchment (outlined in blue) with land historically used for banana plantations (yellow). Plantation area data provided by Coffs Harbour City Council ([CHCC, 2016a, b](#page--1-18)). The catchment area is 25 km² and comprises the major urban center of Coffs Harbour. Residential and agricultural use makes up 66% of the catchment area ([Ryder et al.,](#page--1-9) [2012](#page--1-9)). B. Coffs Creek lower estuary with mangroves (green). Areal extent of Coffs Creek mangroves is 20.07 ha [\(Brown et al., 2016\)](#page--1-10). Sediment core location indicated by red dot. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Highway ([Yeates, 1990](#page--1-11)). Furthermore, a small airport is located approximately 5 km from Coffs Creek.

To investigate possible pollution in the estuary, a 50 cm long sediment core was collected from the upper tidal mangroves near the estuary mouth (30°18′3.63″S, 153° 8′2.23″E, [Fig. 1\)](#page-1-0) with a 5 cm diameter Russian peat auger on March 16, 2016. The sediment core was sectioned into 2 cm intervals. Sediments were dried to estimate the dry bulk density (DBD) ([Brown et al., 2016\)](#page--1-10). The content of As, Cu, lead (Pb), nickel (Ni), zinc (Zn), mercury (Hg), aluminum (Al) and P were measured at each 2 cm interval. Metals were extracted from sediments using 1:3 HNO3/HCl acid digestion and an APHA Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer (ICPMS). Sediment reference materials were digested (AGAL 12) with every batch (sourced from National Measurement Institute) to confirm the recovery of the digest. To confirm accuracy and precision of the instrument we analyzed certified reference materials after the calibration and monitored drift by re-analyzing our mid-point standards every 20 samples and routinely use internal standards Sc, Ge, Rh and Ir. Nitrogen (N) concentration were determined in a Thermo Finnigan Model Delta Plus XP with analytical precision of $N = 0.1\%$.

Enrichment factors (EF) were calculated to distinguish natural and anthropogenic sources of heavy metal and nutrients in Coffs Creek mangrove sediment. Enrichment factors compare preindustrial baseline levels to more recent sediment elemental content. Metals and nutrients were normalized to naturally abundant metals that are often unrelated to anthropogenic sources, such as Al ([Abrahim and Parker, 2008; Weiss](#page--1-14) [et al., 1999](#page--1-14)). Enrichment factors between 0.5 and 1.5 indicate natural fluctuations related to normal geological weathering, while a value of EF > 1.5 or patterns of increasing EF from 1 indicate anthropogenic sources ([Zhang and Liu, 2002](#page--1-15)). To calculate enrichment factor, we normalized metal content to Al ([Abrahim and Parker, 2008; Miola et al.,](#page--1-14) [2016\)](#page--1-14), as follows:

$$
EF = \frac{\frac{[meta]_x]}{[Al_x]}}{\frac{[meta]_baseline]}{[Al_{baseline}]}}
$$

where EF is enrichment factor and $[metal_x]$ is content of desired element at depth x and $[Al_x]$ is content of Al at depth x and $[metal_{baseline}]$ and [Al_{baseline}] are baseline contents. The baseline content was defined as the concentration found in the bottom subsample of each core ([Abrahim and Parker, 2008\)](#page--1-14).

Radionuclide dating (^{210}Pb) was used to determine the sediment age and accumulation rates (SAR) [\(Appleby and Old](#page--1-16)field, 1992). Sediment intervals were combined and homogenized in 4 cm intervals for dating due to limited mass. Combined intervals were dated up to 40 cm depth. Five to eight grams of sediment were packed in vials and sealed with epoxy resin for at least 21 days to allow for 222Rn to establish secular equilibrium between ²²⁶Ra and its granddaughter ²¹⁴Pb. ²¹⁰Pb activity

was determined by measuring the 46.5 keV gamma peak in a Canberra high-purity germanium (HPGe) well gamma detector. ²²⁶Ra activity was determined by averaging peaks from the daughters ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi (295.2 keV, 351.9 keV and 609.3 keV) ([Moore, 1984](#page--1-17)). The 210Pb and 226 Ra activities were calculated by multiplying the counts per minute by a correction factor that includes the gamma ray intensity and detector efficiency determined from standard calibrations. Excess ²¹⁰Pb activity was calculated by subtracting the supported 210 Pb (i.e., 226 Ra activity) from the total 210 Pb activity. Excess (unsupported) 210 Pb was used to determine ages of sediment intervals using the Constant Initial Concentration (CIC) method described by [Appleby and Old](#page--1-16)field (1992). Age of sediments is calculated by the following equation:

Sediment age = Year of collection

\n
$$
-\left(\frac{\text{average depth of sediment interval}}{\text{SAR}}\right)
$$

Heavy metal and nutrient accumulation rates are defined as amount of material entering the sediment per unit area per unit time (μg m−² yr−¹):

 $MAR = [metal_x] * SAR * DBD$ where $[metal_x]$ is trace metal content in sediment sample, SAR is sediment accumulation rate, and DBD is dry bulk density of the sample. Metal accumulation rates (MAR) were calculated for each metal and each 2 cm interval in the mangrove core.

The excess ^{210}Pb ($^{210}Pb_{ex}$) vertical profile revealed a log-linear decay ([Fig. 2](#page-1-1)) with counting errors below 10%. The slope shows a significant correlation between ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} and depth ($R^2 = 0.65$; n = 5; p < 0.05) which allows an estimate of the sedimentation rates using the CIC method. The CIC dating method assumes that the sediment accretion rate has not varied during the encompassed time span ([Appleby and Old](#page--1-16)field, 1992). According to the 210Pb CIC dating method, the SAR is 0.51 cm yr^{-1} . The sediments from the bottom interval of the core date back to 1928.

Fig. 2. Excess ²¹⁰Pb activity (Bq kg⁻¹) plotted against sediment depth (cm).

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