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Historical sedimentary deposition and flux of PAHs, PCBs and DDTs in sediment cores from the western Adriatic Sea

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### 18 **Abstract**

19 The sources and depositional history of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and 20 organochlorine compounds (OCs) over the last century were investigated in sediment 21 cores from the North Adriatic Sea (Po River prodelta) and the South-Western Adriatic 22 Margin (SWAM). Contaminant concentrations were higher in the Po River prodelta. 23  $\sum_{16}$ PAHs ranged from 193 to 533 ng g<sup>-1</sup>,  $\sum_{5}$ PCBs ranged from 0.9 to 5.2 ng g<sup>-1</sup> and 24  $\sum$ DDTs (*p,p'*-DDD + *p,p'*-DDE) ranged from 0.1 to 2.5 ng g<sup>-1</sup>. In the SWAM,  $\sum$ PAHs 25 ranged from 11 to 74 ng  $g^{-1}$  while ∑PCB and ∑DDT concentrations were close to the 26 MQL. Accordingly, contaminant fluxes were much higher in the northern (mean values 27 of  $152 \pm 31$  ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> and  $0.70 \pm 0.35$  ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> for PAHs and OCs, respectively) than 28 in the southern Adriatic (2.62  $\pm$  0.9 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> and 0.03  $\pm$  0.02 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> for PAHs and 29 OCs, respectively).The historical deposition of PAHs seemed to be influenced by the 30 historical socioeconomic development and by changes in the composition of fossil fuel 31 consumption (from petroleum derivatives to natural gas) in Italy from the end of the  $19<sup>th</sup>$ 32 century to the present. Similarly, vertical variations in DDT concentrations matched its 33 historical use and consumption in Italy, which started around in the mid- late 1940s to 34 fight typhus during the II World War. Contaminant concentrations detected in 35 sediments does not seem to pose ecotoxicological risk for marine organisms in the 36 Adriatic Sea.

37

38 **Key-words:** Persistent organic pollutants (POPs); Sediment cores; Fluxes; Western 39 Adriatic Sea; Eco-toxicological implications.

### 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are among the most concerning groups of legacy 42 contaminants due to well-known characteristics as high persistence in the environment, 43 hydrophobicity and toxicity (Lohmann et al., 2007). Among POPs, the organochlorine 44 compounds (OCs), including polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and dichlorodiphenyl-45 trichloroethanes (DDTs), are the most relevant (Jones and de Voogt, 1999).

46 PCBs are commonly considered as key representatives of the ''industrial'' POPs and 47 were massively produced from the 1930s to the beginning of the 1980s in industrialized 48 countries (Breivik et al., 2004; Hosoda et al., 2014). In spite of the production and use 49 ban, PCBs are still in use (in closed systems, e.g., electrical transformers) and broadly 50 distributed in the environment (Hornbuckle and Robertson, 2010). In turn, DDT is the 51 best known and one of the most widely used pesticides in the world, with an estimated 52 production around 50 million kg per year in the mid-1950s, especially because of its 53 wide spectrum, long-lasting properties, and low cost in comparison to arsenicals and 54 other inorganic insecticides (Matsumura, 2009). Currently, DDT is still in use in some 55 countries in the Southern Hemisphere, though current world usage is small ( $\sim$ 1kt v<sup>-1</sup>) 56 compared with historical use  $(>40kt y^{-1})$  from 1950 to 1980 (de Boer et al., 2008; Geisz 57 et al., 2008).

58 Due to their long-range atmospheric transport potential and harmful effects on man and 59 wildlife, regulatory efforts and international agreements have been made in past decades 60 in order to reduce future environmental burdens (Breivik et al., 2004; Vallack et al., 61 1998). At global scale, POPs are regulated by the Stockholm Convention under which 62 the signatory countries are legally required to eliminate the production, use, and 63 emissions of POPs, with the ultimate goal of reducing human and ecosystem exposure 64 (Holoubek and Klánová, 2008; Nizzetto et al., 2010). Parallel efforts have been made at

65 European level; for instance the recent Directive 2013/39/EU established a list of 45 66 substances identified for priority action at Union level, including some POPs as 67 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and dichlorodiphenyl-trichloroethanes (DDTs), and 68 some polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (European Commission, 2013; Viganò 69 et al., 2015).

70 These regulatory actions have led to the reduction or elimination of major primary 71 sources associated with the production and use of POPs, followed by a gradual decline 72 on environmental levels of these contaminants over time, especially after the 1980's 73 (Franců et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2009; Combi et al., 2016; Neves et al., 2018). 74 However, there are still ongoing primary releases from diffuse sources that are difficult 75 to target for reduction or elimination, such as volatilization from old stockpiles or from 76 old equipment that is still in use (Breivik et al., 2002; Nizzetto et al., 2010). 77 Additionally, these compounds are highly persistent in the environment and continue to 78 be found in different environmental media, and their current levels are not expected to 79 decrease significantly within the next decades (Breivik et al., 2007). Evidence of this 80 unlike decline or even an increase in DDTs and/or PCBs levels has been recently 81 observed in the Arctic Fjords, glaciers and snow (Bartlett et al., 2019; Pouch et al., 82 2017; Garmash et al., 2013), in the Baltic Sea (Sobek et al., 2015), the Gulf of Thailand 83 (Kwan et al., 2014), and the Korea Strait (Guerra et al., 2019), due to unintentional 84 sources released from by-products of manufacturing (e.g. paint pigments; Hu and 85 Hornbuckle, 2010), from thermal sources (e.g. steel making processes; Baek et al, 2010) 86 and e-waste (Breivik et al., 2016), or from melting glaciers and the cryosphere affected 87 by climate change-related processes (Sun et al., 2018; Pavlova et al., 2015). Therefore, 88 it is essential to understand the temporal trends of contaminant loads into the

89 environment, in order to both assess the effects of environmental legislation and to 90 identify potential old and new sources of contamination (Kannan et al., 2005).

91 Although PAHs as not listed as POPs, they are recognized as priority substances for 92 environmental monitoring especially due to environmental risks associated with these 93 compounds, which are related to the high toxicity and carcinogenic character of several 94 individual PAHs. A wide variety of PAHs are ubiquitously found in the environment 95 mostly as a result of the incomplete combustion of organic material (pyrolytic PAHs) 96 and storm runoff, industrial discharges and petroleum spills (petrogenic PAHs) (Alebic-97 Juretic, 2011). Thus, understanding the pollution levels of PAHs and their source 98 identification is of significant environmental concern.

99 The aim of this work is to reconstruct the historical inputs and estimate the annual 100 fluxes of PCBs, DDTs and PAHs in sediment cores from: (a) a coastal region subject to 101 intense urban, agricultural and industrial pressures in the North Adriatic Sea (Po River 102 prodelta); and (b) a deep-sea area on the South-Western Adriatic Margin (SWAM) 103 which represents the ultimate sink of sediment coming from the Po river system. This 104 work is part of the PERSEUS EU FP7 Project (Policy-oriented Marine Environmental 105 Research in the Southern European Seas), which presented as one of the main goals the 106 understanding of the contaminants transfer of contaminants from coastal areas to deep 107 sea sediments along Mediterranean margins.

- 108
- 109 **2. Material and methods**
- 110

111 *2.1. Study area and sediment cores sampling* 

112 The Adriatic Sea is a semi-enclosed basin connected to the Mediterranean Sea through 113 the Strait of Otranto (Gomiero et al., 2011; Manca et al., 2002). While the northern and 114 middle Adriatic are relatively shallow regions (up to  $\sim$ 270 m water depth), the southern 115 Adriatic can reach up to 1200 m depth in the South Adriatic Pit (Artegiani et al., 1997; 116 Turchetto et al., 2007). The main water masses in the Adriatic Sea are: Adriatic Surface 117 Water (ASW) flowing on the western Italian side; the Levantine Intermediate Water 118 (LIW), coming from the eastern Mediterranean; the North Adriatic Deep Water 119 (NAdDW), formed over the northern shelf; and the South Adriatic Deep Water 120 (SADW), formed in the southern Adriatic (Artegiani et al., 1997; Manca et al., 2002; 121 Turchetto et al., 2007).

122 The water circulation in the Adriatic Sea has three major components: river runoff 123 derived mainly from the Po river; wind and heat forcing at the surface, producing deep-124 water masses in the northern and southern Adriatic; and the Otranto Channel forcing 125 (Artegiani et al., 1997). The water circulation as well as the transport of materials in the 126 Adriatic basin is very dependent on thermohaline factors. As a result, riverborne 127 material is distributed southwards, accumulating in a continuous belt of deltaic and 128 shallow-marine deposits which forms the late-Holocence mud wedge along the western 129 Adriatic shelf (Frignani et al., 2005; Tesi et al., 2013). Another relevant area for material 130 accumulation is the Bari canyon system, in the southern Adriatic. The Bari canyon 131 system receives material from the northern Adriatic, including the Por river, especially 132 through the cascading of the North Adriatic Dense Water (NAdDW) in the area 133 (Langone et al., 2016; Turchetto et al., 2007).

134 In the context of the task 'ADREX: Adriatic and Ionian Seas Experiment' within the 135 PERSEUS project, sediments were collected in the western Adriatic Sea in October 136 2014 on board the O/V OGS Explora at the following key stations: the Po River

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137 prodelta (station 9; ~27 m water depth); off the Bari Canyon (station 1; ~709 m water 138 depth); and in a giant sediment drift (Foglini et al., 2016) in the centre of the South 139 Adriatic (station 2; ~1040 m water depth; Figure 1). Undisturbed sediment cores (length 140  $\leq$  50 cm; diameter: 10 cm) were retrieved using a cylindrical box-corer or the gravity 141 sediment corer SW104, and sectioned onboard at 1-2 cm intervals. Sediments were 142 placed into pre-cleaned glass containers and stored at -20 °C until processing and 143 analysis.

144

145 *2.2. Sediment characteristics* 

146 Sediment samples were weighed, oven-dried at 55  $\degree$ C, and then re-weighed to determine 147 water content. Porosity (ϕ) was calculated from the loss of water between wet and dry 148 sediments according to equations suggested by Berner (1971), assuming a sediment 149 density of 2.6 g cm<sup>-3</sup> and a water density of 1.034 g cm<sup>-3</sup>. Grain size was determined 150 after a pre-treatment with  $H_2O_2$  and wet sieving at 63  $\mu$ m to separate sands from fine 151 fractions. Total carbon (TC) and total nitrogen (TN) content were determined by 152 elemental analysis (EA) of combusted aliquots with a Fison CHNS-O Analyzer EA 153 1108, and organic carbon  $(C_{\text{org}})$  was measured on decarbonated samples (1 M HCl). 154 Stable isotopic analyses of organic C  $(\delta^{13}C)$  were carried out on the same samples using 155 a FINNIGAN Delta Plus mass spectrometer directly coupled to the FISONS NA2000 156 EA by means of a CONFLO interface for continuous flow measurements.

157

158 *2.4. Extraction and clean-up* 

159 Sediments were extracted using an accelerated solvent extraction ASE 200 system 160 (Dionex, USA) according to the extraction and in-cell clean-up method optimized by

161 Pintado-Herrera et al. (2016a). Briefly, the extraction cells were prepared with 1 g of 162 activated alumina (150°C for 16 hours; USEPA method 3610b) and 0.5 g of activated 163 copper powder. Approximately 4 g of air-dried and milled sediments were homogenized 164 with 1g of alumina and placed into the extraction cells. A mixture of deuterated 165 compounds was added to the sediments before extraction to account for matrix 166 interferences. The extraction procedure consisted of three static extraction cycles using 167 dichloromethane, where the samples were pre-heated for 5 minutes and extracted for 5 168 minutes in each cycle at a temperature of 100°C and a pressure of 1500 psi. The eluates 169 were evaporated to dryness and re-dissolved in 0.5 mL of ethyl acetate. The final 170 extracts were centrifuged (10000 rpm for 10 minutes) and filtered in 171 polytetrafluoroethylene filters (PTFE; 0.22 µm pore size) to remove possible 172 interferences.

173

### 174 *2.5. Instrumental analysis*

175 Separation, identification and quantification of target compounds were performed using 176 gas chromatography (SCION 456-GC, Bruker) coupled to a triple quadrupole mass 177 spectrometer equipped with a BR-5ms column (length: 30 m, ID: 0.25 mm, film 178 thickness: 0.25 um). The oven temperature was programmed to 70 °C for 3.5 min. 179 increasing at 25 °C min<sup>-1</sup> to 180 °C, increasing at 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup> to 300 °C, holding this 180 temperature for 4 min. Internal standards (mixture of deuterated compounds) were 181 added to the samples prior to the injection. Calibration curves were prepared for each 182 target compound at different concentrations (from 5 to 500 ng  $g^{-1}$ ). Target compounds 183 were identified and quantified by comparison of retention times and two transitions of 184 each analyte (one for quantification and one for confirmation) of the samples with 185 external standard solutions.

186 The compounds analyzed in this study were (i) the 16 priority PAHs: naphthalene (Na), 187 acenaphthylene (Acy), acenaphthene (Ace), fluorene (Flo), phenanthrene (Phe), 188 anthracene (An), fluoranthene (Fl), pyrene (Py), benzo[a]-anthracene (BaA), chrysene 189 (Chr), benzo[b]fluoranthene (BbF), benzo[k]fluoranthene (BkF), benzo[a]pyrene (BaP), 190 indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene (IcdP), dibenzo[a,h]anthracene (DahA), and 191 benzo[g,h,i]perylene (BghiP); (ii) PCBs (PCB52, PCB138, PCB153, PCB180 and 101; 192 and (iii) dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane and derivatives (*p,p′-*DDT, *p,p′*-DDD, *p,p′-* 193 DDE). Results are given as sum of congeners for PCBs, sum of the 2 DDT metabolites 194  $(p, p' \text{-DDE} + p, p' \text{-DDD})$  and DDT for DDTs, and sum of 16 unsubstituted compounds 195 for PAHs (ng  $g^{-1}$ ).

196

### 197 *2.6. Quality assurance and quality control (QA/QC)*

198 Procedural blanks were performed for each extraction series of 10 samples using 199 alumina and analyzed in the same way as samples. Method quantification limits (MQL) 200 were determined for each analyte as 3 times the signal to noise ratio in spiked sediment 201 samples and were between 0.01 ng  $g^{-1}$  (PCB 138) and 1.8 ng  $g^{-1}$  (indeno[123-cd]pyrene) 202 depending on the target compound. Further information on the methodology, standards 203 and other reagents can be found in Pintado-Herrera et al. (2016a).

204

### 205 *2.7. Data analysis*

206 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to depict the vertical differences among 207 the groups of contaminants (DDTs, PCBs, and PAHs) and sediment characteristics (fine 208 sediments and  $C_{\text{or}}$ ) in the sediment cores. All variables were centered and scaled before 209 performing the PCA. The analysis and graph were produced using the R programming 210 environment (R Core Team, 2019).

### 211

### 212 *2.8. Sediment dating and fluxes*

213 Since information on sediment accumulation rates (SARs) have been extensively 214 assessed in the northern Adriatic Sea, different datasets were combined based on 215 triangle-based linear interpolation (Frignani et al., 2005; Palinkas and Nittrouer, 2007; 216 Tesi et al., 2013) to estimate the SARs for the sediment core from the Po River prodelta 217 (station 9). Conversely, information on strata chronologies in the deep Adriatic is rather 218 scarce. Thus, sediment cores from the southern Adriatic (Stations 1 and 2) were 219 measured for <sup>210</sup>Pb activities. Alpha counting of daughter isotope  $^{210}$ Po, considered in 220 secular equilibrium with its grandparent  $Ra^{226}$ , was used for <sup>210</sup>Pb analyses. Estimated 221 SARs (0.107 cm  $y^{-1}$  at Station 1, 0.100 cm  $y^{-1}$  at Station 2, and 0.52 cm  $y^{-1}$  at Station 9) 222 were used to estimate the date for each section of the sediment cores as follows:

223 Estimated date [anno Domini (A.D.)] = 
$$
a - \left(\frac{b}{c}\right)
$$

224 where *a* is the year in which the core was collected, *b* is the depth of the section in the 225 core and *c* is the SAR of each core.

226 Contaminant fluxes (ng cm<sup>-2</sup> 
$$
y^{-1}
$$
) were estimated as

$$
227 \quad C_i \times r \times \rho_i
$$

228 where  $C_i$  is the concentration of contaminants ( $\sum PCBs$ ,  $\sum DDTs$ , and  $\sum PAHs$ ) in sediment layer *i* (ng g<sup>-1</sup>), *r* is the SAR in the sediment core (cm y<sup>-1</sup>) and  $\rho_i$  is the bulk dry 230 density of the sediment layer  $i$  (g cm<sup>-3</sup>).

231

232 *2.9. Ecological Risk Assessment* 

233 In order to assess the potential ecotoxicological risks posed by contaminants present in 234 sediments from the Adriatic Sea, we compared our data with four sets of Sediment 235 Quality Guidelines (SQGs): Effects Range-Low value (ERL), Effects Range-Median 236 value (ERM), Probable Effects Level (PEL), and Threshold Effects Level (TEL) (Long 237 et al., 1995; Macdonald et al., 2000). Additionally, mean SQG quotients were 238 calculated to evaluate the combined effects that the presence of a mixture of organic 239 contaminants in sediments may pose to aquatic organisms (Macdonald et al., 2000; 240 Jafarabadi et al., 2017b). Mean ERM and mean PEL (i.e., m-ERM and m-PEL) were 241 calculated as follows:

$$
m-SQG=\frac{\sum\frac{c_i}{SQG_i}}{n}
$$

242 Where C*i* concentration of each contaminant in the sample; SQG*i* is the SQG for the 243 contaminant; and *n* is the number of considered contaminants. Mean SQGs were 244 calculated for: *(i)* individual PAHs (Na, Acy, Ace, Flo, Phe, An, Fl, Py, BaA, Chr, BaP, 245 and DahA) and *(ii)* ∑PCBs, ∑DDTs, and ∑PAHs.

246

### 247 **3. Results**

### 248 *3.1 Sediment characteristics*

249 Sediment cores were collected in areas where preferential accumulation of fine-grained 250 sediments was previously reported (Frignani et al., 2005; Tesi et al., 2007). 251 Accordingly, fine sediments (i.e. silt + clay) were detected in percentages above 90% in 252 the analyzed samples. Vertical distribution of fine sediments was relatively constant in 253 the sediment cores, with mean values of  $96.9 \pm 1.3\%$  at station 1 (off the Bari canyon), 254 97.4  $\pm$  0.7% at station 2 (sediment drift), and 98.5  $\pm$  1% at station 9 (Po River prodelta,

255 Table 1). In general, organic carbon ( $C_{org}$ ) was also constant (mean values of 0.5  $\pm$ 256 0.06%, 0.45  $\pm$  0.08%, and 0.9  $\pm$  0.09% at station 1, station 2, and station 9, 257 respectively), with a slight increase from the bottom to the top sections of the sediment 258 cores.

259

### 260 *3.2 Organochlorine compounds*

261 The highest concentrations of organochlorine compounds (OCs) were detected in the Po 262 River prodelta. Total PCBs ( $\Sigma$ <sub>5</sub>PCBs) ranged from 0.9 to 5.2 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (2.4  $\pm$  0.8 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), 263 with predominance of congeners PCB 138 and PCB 180, which accounted for 45% and 264 20% of total PCBs, respectively.  $\sum$ DDTs  $(p, p'$ -DDD +  $p, p'$ -DDE) ranged from 0.1 to 265 2.5 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (1.0  $\pm$  0.4 ng g<sup>-1</sup>). The isomer *p,p'*-DDE, which is the degradation product of 266 *p,p′-*DDT under aerobic conditions, was the prevalent compound corresponding to 267 ~70% of total DDTs.

268 In the deep southern Adriatic, OCs levels were close to the MQL (0.01 to 0.06 ng  $g^{-1}$  for 269 PCBs and 0.04 to 0.3 ng  $g^{-1}$  for DDTs) and were detected in roughly half of the 270 samples. Only PCB congeners 138 and 180 were detected in measurable amounts and 271 their sum ranged between 0.1 and 2.1 ng  $g^{-1}$  (0.5  $\pm$  0.3 ng  $g^{-1}$ ), and between <DL and 1.4 272 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (0.3  $\pm$  0.3 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) off the Bari canyon and at the sediment drift (stations 1 and 2), 273 respectively. The ∑DDTs ranged from <DL to 2.1 ng  $g^{-1}$  (0.6 ± 0.6 ng  $g^{-1}$ ) at station 1 274 and from <DL to 0.7 ng  $g^{-1}$  (0.3 ± 0.3 ng  $g^{-1}$ ) at station 2.

275

276 *3.3 PAHs* 

277 PAHs were the prevalent contaminants in the sediment cores from the Adriatic Sea and 278 were detected in all sediment strata. The concentrations of  $\sum_{16}PAHs$  ranged from 24 to

279  $\frac{74 \text{ ng g}^{-1} (48.3 \pm 16 \text{ ng g}^{-1})}{279}$  in sediment core 1 (off the Bari canyon; Figure 2); from 11 280 to 49 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (25  $\pm$  9 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) in sediment core 2 (sediment drift; Figure 3); and from 193 281 to 533 ng  $g^{-1}$  (mean  $\pm$  SD of 363  $\pm$  59 ng  $g^{-1}$ ) in sediment core 9 (Po River prodelta; 282 Figure 4).

283 The relative abundance of individual PAHs was calculated as their concentrations in 284 relation to the average  $\sum_{16} PAHs$  concentration over the entire depth of sediment cores 285 to evaluate sedimentary PAH compositions and potential spatial differences (Liu et al., 286 2012). PAHs in sediments of the western Adriatic Sea exhibited a quite uniform 287 distribution, with a predominance of high-molecular weight PAHs (HMW: 4-6 rings). 288 From these, 5- and 6-ring PAHs (BbF, BkF, BaP, IcdP, DahA, and BghiP) accounted 289 for 50 to 65% of total PAHs, while 4-ring PAHs (Fl, Py, BaA, and Chr) accounted for 290 20 to 33%. The presence of low-molecular weight PAHs (LMW: Na, Acy, Ace, Flo, 291 Phe, and An) PAHs was somewhat higher in the sediment taken in the sediment drift 292 (station 2; ~30%) in comparison to sediment cores taken off the Bari canyon (station 1; 293 15%) and in the Po River prodelta (station 9; 13%). The ratio between LMW and HMW 294 PAHs ranged from 0.1 to 1.4 in the sediment cores.

295 Diagnostic ratios have been widely used for interpreting PAHs composition and 296 sources. Since ratios calculated from LMW PAHs can be altered during transport from 297 sources to receptor sites (Cai et al., 2016), only the  $F1/(F1 + Py)$  and  $IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP)$ 298 ratios are discussed in our study. Values of  $F1/(F1 + Py)$  and  $IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP)$  were 299 usually close to or above 0.5 in the southern Adriatic (stations 1 and 2). In the Po River 300 prodelta (station 9), the Fl/(Fl + Py) ratio was generally above 0.5 while the IcdP/(IcdP 301 + BghiP) ratio was between 0.4 and 0.5 (Figure S1 from Supplementary Material).

302

### 303 *3.4 Fluxes and vertical distribution of OCs and PAHs*

304 Similarly to concentration data, annual fluxes of OCs were lower in the southern 305 Adriatic (from 0 to 0.15 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> and from 0 to 0.1 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup> in stations 1 and 2, 306 respectively) in comparison to the northern Adriatic (0.02 to 2.2 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>; Table 1). 307 Annual fluxes and concentrations of OCs ( $\Sigma$ <sub>5</sub>PCBs and  $\Sigma$ DDTs) followed a similar 308 vertical pattern in the three sediment cores (Figures 2, 3, and 4). In general, OCs were 309 un-detectable or negligible before the 1940s, when they first occurred in sediments from 310 the western Adriatic, followed by an increasing trend up to the middle/late 1970s - early 1980s. This sediment stratum displayed the highest concentrations of  $\sum_{5}$ PCBs (2.1 ng g<sup>-</sup> 311 312 <sup>1</sup>, 0.7 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, and 5.2 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in stations 1, 2, and 9) and ∑DDTs (2.1 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, 0.7 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, 313 and 2.5 ng  $g^{-1}$  in stations 1, 2, and 9, respectively). After the 1980s, annual fluxes and 314 concentrations of OCs decreased upwards until recent sediments, where PCBs presented 315 concentrations of 0.5 ng  $g^{-1}$ , <LO, and 2.7 ng  $g^{-1}$  and DDT presented concentrations of 316 0.7 ng  $g^{-1}$ , 0.6 ng  $g^{-1}$ , and 0.9 ng  $g^{-1}$  in stations 1 (off Bari canyon), 2 (sediment drift), 317 and 9 (Po river prodelta), respectively.

318 PAHs presented the highest fluxes (152  $\pm$  31 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) in the Po River prodelta 319 (station 9), followed by off the Bari canyon (station 1;  $3.2 \pm 0.9$  ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) and the 320 sediment drift (station 2; 1.8  $\pm$  0.5 ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>). PAHs fluxes and concentrations 321 presented similar patterns along the sediment cores. The oldest sections of the sediment cores (before 1940) displayed the lowest mean concentrations of  $\Sigma_{16}$ PAHs (32 ± 4 ng g<sup>-</sup> 322 323 <sup>1</sup>, 16  $\pm$  4 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, and 227  $\pm$  26 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in, off the Bari canyon, the sediment drift and the 324 Po River prodelta (stations 1, 2, and 9, respectively). Afterwards, mean concentrations 325 of  $\sum_{16}$ PAHs increased to 62  $\pm$  8 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, 48  $\pm$  1 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, and 392  $\pm$  32 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in sediment 326 cores off the Bari canyon (station 1), in the Sediment rift (station 2), and in the Po River 327 prodelta (station 9), respectively. Mean concentrations of  $\Sigma_{16}$ PAHs show a somewhat

328 decrease in this period, reaching  $66 \pm 12$  ng g<sup>-1</sup> in station 1, 38  $\pm$  8 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in station 2, 329 and  $348 \pm 12$  ng g<sup>-1</sup> in station 9.

330

331 *3.5 Ecological Risk Assessment* 

332 Data regarding ecological risk assessment in the Adriatic Sea is presented in Tables S1 333 and S2 from Supplementary Material. In general, contaminant levels in our study did 334 not exceed the proposed SQGs (ERL, ERM, TEL, and PEL), except for 335 dibenzo[a,h]anthracene (DahA), which was above TEL in 88% of the samples from the 336 Po river prodelta (station 9). Mean-ERM and mean-PEL for individual PAHs ranged 337 between 0.01 and 0.02 and between 0.02 and 0.04, respectively. For the ∑PCBs, 338 ∑DDTs, and ∑PAHs, m-ERM ranged from <0.01 to 0.01 and m-PEL ranged from 0.01 339 to 0.02.

340

341 **4. Discussion** 

342

343 *4.1. Levels of OCs and PAHs in sediments* 

344 Few studies have reported the temporal distribution of organic contaminants along the 345 Adriatic Sea. PAHs levels detected in the Po River prodelta in our study were slightly  $\mu$  346 higher when compared to those previously detected in the same area (102 to 346 ng g<sup>-1</sup>; 347 Guzzella and Paolis, 1994), whereas PCBs and DDTs concentrations were lower and/or 348 comparable to previous levels (Caricchia et al., 1993; Combi et al., 2016). Regarding 349 the deep southern Adriatic, such data are even scarcer and PCB levels in our study were 350 slightly higher than previously reported (<DL-0.2 ng  $g^{-1}$  for  $\Sigma_5$ PCBs; Combi et al., 351 2016).

352 PAH concentrations in our study were lower in comparison to those reported in 353 sediment cores from coastal areas subject to industrial activities such as the northwest 354 coast of Spain (Pérez-Fernández et al., 2016) and Izmit Bay, Turkey (Giuliani et al., 355 2017). While PAH levels in the Po river prodelta were higher in comparison to less-356 impacted and open sea areas (Table 2), concentrations in the southern Adriatic were 357 comparable to those detected in the continental shelf of the East China Sea (Cai et al., 358 2016), the Gulf of Thailand (Boonyatumanond et al., 2007), and in remote areas such as 359 the Arctic (Zaborska et al., 2011) and Antarctica (Martins et al., 2010b). Overall, the 360 levels of OCs in our study were comparable to those detected in the East China Sea, the 361 Gulf of Thailand, and the Western Barents Sea (Boonyatumanond et al., 2007; Cai et 362 al., 2016; Zaborska et al., 2011) whilst PCBs were fairly below the maximum values 363 reported in Izmit Bay (Giuliani et al., 2017) and Antarctica (Combi et al., 2017).

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### 365 *4.2 Source assessment*

366 PCB congeners detected in our study are the main contributors to the commercial 367 mixtures Aroclor 1260 and Aroclor 1254 (Schulz et al., 1989), which were the most 368 frequently imported mixtures in Italy until the 1980s, being used mainly in electrical 369 transformers and hydraulic fluids (Parolini et al., 2010; Pozo et al., 2009). As for 370 DDTs, in developed countries, where DDT has been banned for a long time, higher 371 amounts of DDE in comparison with DDD and DDT have been reported in the aquatic 372 environment (Bossi et al., 1992; Mandalakis et al., 2014; Viganò et al., 2015) and may 373 indicate that the process of on-land weathering tends to favor the formation and 374 preservation of DDE, as compared to DDD (Zhang et al., 2002).

375 The incomplete combustion or pyrolysis of organic material (e.g. biomass, waste, fossil 376 fuels) under high temperatures is one of the main sources of PAHs, as well as natural

377 and anthropogenic petroleum spillages (Magi et al., 2002; Readman et al., 2002). 378 Generally, pyrolytic sources are depleted in low-molecular weight PAHs (LMW: 2–3 379 rings) and enriched in high-molecular weight PAHs (HMW: 4–6 rings) leading to 380 LMW/HMW ratio < 1 (Merhaby et al., 2015; Jafarabadi et al., 2017). Thus, the ratios 381 between LMW and HMW PAHs reported in our study indicate the predominance of 382 pyrolytic sources in the western Adriatic Sea. Similarly, the diagnostic ratios  $F1/F1$  + 383 Py) and IcdP/(IcdP + BghiP) indicated pyrolytic sources of PAHs related to biomass 384 combustion in the southern Adriatic (stations 1 and 2). A separated cluster can be 385 identified for the Po River prodelta (station 9; Figures S1 and S2 from Supplementary 386 Material) probably because, in addition to biomass combustion, petroleum combustion 387 also represented a source of PAHs in this sediment core.

388

389 *4. 3 Historical records of PAHs, PCBs and DDTs in the Western Adriatic Sea* 

390 PCA can provide insights on relationships among the three groups of contaminants and 391 sediment characteristics, allowing the recognition of similarities and differences among 392 them. PCA (Figure 5) revealed two factors in our study, with PC1 explaining 57.5% of  $393$  the total variation and mostly related to increasing concentrations of DDTs, PCBs,  $C_{\text{obs}}$ , 394 and PAHs.

395 PC1 strongly controls the variability between the sediment cores from the southern 396 (stations 1 and 2) and northern Adriatic (station 9), the latter being mostly related to 397 higher concentrations of all the above-mentioned variables. PC2 explained 19.5% of the 398 total variation and was mostly related to vertical variations in the cores. The vector 399 scores show a positive correlation between PCBs and  $C_{\text{org}}$  in the northern Adriatic, 400 suggesting that the deposition of these compounds can be partly explained by their 401 affinity for the organic matter.

402 Another factor influencing PCBs vertical patterns (Figures 2, 3, and 4) is related to the 403 production and use of these compounds worldwide. PCB peak concentrations coincide 404 with the beginning of the production of PCB by the Caffaro industry in northern Italy 405 (1935-1983; Panizza and Ricci, 2002), as well as with the predicted trends on PCB 406 consumption and emission in the country (Breivik et al., 2002, 2007; Combi et al. 407 2016).

408 Similarly, the historical deposition of DDTs in sediments from the western Adriatic Sea 409 matches its historical use and consumption in Italy. DDTs first appeared in detectable 410 concentrations in sediments in the mid- late 1940s following its first massive use to 411 fight a sever typhus epidemics affecting the civilians and military personnel in 1943- 412 1944 (Wheeler, 1946; Soper at al., 1947). After end of the II World War, DDT was 413 extensively used in indoor and outdoor treatment mainly in the Central and Southern 414 regions, major islands and North-eastern coastal areas, and continued into the mid-415 1950s and even later in some hyperendemic areas (Majori, 2012) as evidenced by the 416 1960s subsurface peak in the Po River prodelta station. In the 1970s and 1980s, 417 agricultural use of DDT was banned in most developed countries including Italy, and 418 this is reflected in the decreasing historical deposition observed in the sediments from 419 the western Adriatic Sea (Figures 2, 3, and 4).

420 Vertical variations in PAH concentrations  $(\sum_{16} PAHs)$  and compositions (relative 421 abundances of LMW and HMW PAHs) in our study seem to follow the shift in 422 contamination sources influenced by the historical socioeconomic development and by 423 changes in the composition of fossil fuel consumption in Italy from the  $19<sup>th</sup>$  century to 424 the present (Figure 6). Historical data on electricity production and consumption in Italy 425 was obtained from reports of the Italian energy company (Terna Group, 2015).

426 Historical deposition of PAHs showed a common trend in sediment cores from the Po 427 River prodelta (station 9), off the Bari canyon and at the sediment drift (stations 1 and 428 2). The lowest concentrations were reported in the bottom strata (end of the 1880s – 429 beginning of the 1900s). This finding is consistent with the relatively low consumption 430 and production of energy in Italy from the end of the 1800 until the Second World War 431 (Malanima, 2011). In comparison to periods after ~1940, LMW PAHs were relatively 432 more abundant in the oldest sections of the sediment cores (Figure S3 from 433 Supplementary Material). These PAHs are usually generated by moderate temperature 434 combustion processes such as biomass and coal burning in homes and small factories 435 (Cai et al., 2016; Yunker et al., 2002), The predominance of LMW PAHs is particularly 436 evident in the sediment core from the sediment drift (station 2), that dates back to the 437 1870's when Italy was almost completely dependent on biomass burning as a source of 438 energy and firewood accounted for half of the total energy consumption (Malanima, 439 2006).

440 Afterwards, concentrations increased from the lower strata to the middle sections of 441 sediment cores (1960s – 1990s).  $\Sigma$ PAH,  $\Sigma$ PCB and  $\Sigma$ DDT displayed a synchronous 442 deposition with maximum peak values recorded in the mid-1970s in the Po prodelta 443 station, and at the beginning of the 1980s for  $\Sigma$ DDT and  $\Sigma$ PAH in the South-Western 444 Adriatic Margin (SWAM) stations. This period corresponds to the modern stage of 445 economic and industrial development in Italy, the so-called ''Economic Miracle'' 446 (~1945-1970), marked by mass motorization, switch from coal to oil, and industrial 447 development (Romano et al., 2013). In this section, there is a change in the relative 448 abundances of low- and high-molecular weight PAHs: whereas the former decreases, 449 the latter increases until the middle of the  $20<sup>th</sup>$  century (Figure S3 from Supplementary 450 Material). Since HMW PAHs are usually generated during high-temperature

451 combustion of coal and petroleum (Cai et al., 2016; Yunker et al., 2002), this variation 452 reflects a shift of contamination sources from domestic biomass burning to vehicle and 453 industrial emissions as fossil fuels represented almost 50% of the energy used in Italy 454 by the 1950s (Malanima, 2006). Historical shift from biomass to petroleum combustion 455 is also revealed by variations on PAH ratios (Flt / Flt + Pyr; Figure S2 from 456 Supplementary Material).

457 After the mid-1970s, the energy production was still growing but at a much lower rate 458 (ten- and two-fold increase from 1945 to 1975 and from 1975 to 2014, respectively). 459 Although natural gas was used since the end of the  $19<sup>th</sup>$  century, it surpassed the use of 460 coal in the 1970s (Malanima, 2006). In turn, relative proportions of HMW PAHs 461 showed a slight decrease specially after the 1980's. In this period, the consumption of 462 natural gas was still growing while the consumption of oil showed and important 463 decrease (from 81 to 54% of fossil fuel consumption in Italy from 1970 to 2000; 464 Malanima, 2006). This period is also marked by increasing consumption of cleaner 465 energies (e.g. aeolian energy) (Malanima, 2006) and the beginning of environmental 466 awareness and environmental legislation (Romano et al., 2013).

467 Contaminants deposition in the Po River prodelta (station 9) is influenced by episodic 468 flood sedimentation (Palinkas and Nittrouer, 2007) (Figure 4). During the XX century, 469 several flooding events with daily peak discharge above  $8,000 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$  occurred, 470 specifically in 1926, 1928, 1951, 1976, 1994 and 2000, with the absolute maximum 471 daily discharge observed on 20 May 1926  $(9,780 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1})$ ; Zanchettin et al., 2008).  $\Sigma \text{PAH}$ ,  $472$   $\Sigma$ PAH,  $\Sigma$ DDT presented the first onset in the beginning of the 1950s; according to data 473 obtained from the Italian Regional Agency for Environmental Protection and Control 474 (ARPA, 2014), a peak daily discharge of 8940  $m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>$  was registered during a major flood 475 event in November 1951. Although concentrations started to decrease after the mid- late

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476 1970's, a subsurface peak in  $\Sigma$ PAH, and to a lesser extent an increase in OCs 477 concentrations, can be identified after a Po River's flood occurring in November 2000. 478 This event represents the largest flood occurring in the previous century and recorded a 479 mean daily maximum water discharge above 9,000  $m<sup>3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>$  as well as the longest duration 480 of high river discharge ( $> 4,000 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ ) (Tesi et al., 2008). The signature of this flood 481 event is clearly marked by the concurrent heaviest  $\delta^{13}C$  signal, indicating the 482 predominance of riverine sources within the same period (Miserocchi et al.; 2007). 483 Large floods can mobilize upstream contaminants sources, resulting in inputs of 484 contaminated sediments, and thus affect pollutants distribution (Mourier et al., 2014).

485 The OCs concentration reduction over time observed from the 1980s to the mid-late 486 1990s levelled off in the last two decades in the Po River prodelta, and concentrations 487 of ΣDDT and ΣPCBs appear to be at or near a steady-state condition in the XXI century. 488 The presence of DDD and DDE isomers, but not DDT, and more highly chlorinated 489 PCBs (PCB 138 and PCB 180) seems to suggest that even the most recent ΣDDT and 490 ΣPCBs residues had undergone extensive ageing under terrestrial conditions before their 491 transport and deposition onto recent sediments, rather than long-range transport and/or 492 secondary sources inputs. This pattern is consistent with the marked  $d^{13}C$  terrigenous 493 (allochthonous) fluvial signal in the sedimentary OC (Tesi et al., 2013), and seems to 494 suggest that the most active transport pathway of ΣDDT and ΣPCBs is the Po River 495 draining previously contaminated soils from its drainage basin and slowly releasing 496 contaminants in the North Western Adriatic Sea (Lopes da Rocha et al., 2017).

497

### 498 *4.4 Ecological Risk Assessment*

499 Our data suggests that the presence of PAHs, DDTs and PCBs in sediments from the 500 Adriatic Sea pose limited risk of toxicity to marine organisms. An exception is the

501 presence of dibenzo[a,h]anthracene (DahA) in levels that exceed TEL, which represents 502 the concentration below which adverse effects to marine organisms are not expected to 503 occur frequently. Regarding the mean-SQGs, our data revealed that both m-ERM and 504 m-PEL were below 0.1, indicating that low or no adverse biological effect is expected 505 (Long, 1998).

506

507 **5. Conclusions** 

508 PAHs, PCBs and DDTs were investigated in sediment cores from the North Western 509 Adriatic Sea and selected deep-sea areas from the South-Western Adriatic Margin 510 (SWAM). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study on their historical 511 deposition in the SWAM. The main findings of this research can be summarized as 512 follows:

513 a) Concentrations of PCBs and DDTs present a decreasing trend in sediment cores 514 from the Western Adriatic Sea after the 1980s due to international restrictions 515 and national regulations, and their deposition matched their historical use in 516 Italy in agreement with consumption and accumulation patterns detected in other 517 regions and countries of the world;

- 518 b) The vertical profiles of PAHs seem to reflect the shifts in contamination sources 519 along the sediment cores, which is ultimately related to historical energy 520 production and consumption in Italy;
- 521 c) Sedimentary PAHs in the western Adriatic Sea are a mixture of combustion 522 related emissions among which LMW, more susceptible to degradation 523 processes, represent a minor fraction of the detected compounds. PAHs related 524 to emissions from coal or biomass combustion show higher abundances in the 525 bottom of the sediment cores (up to the ~1940s), while the abundance of PAHs

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**Table 1.** Mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum and maximum values for fine sediments (silt and clay, %), organic carbon  $(C_{org}, %)$ , and contaminant annual fluxes (ng cm<sup>-2</sup>  $y$ <sup>-1</sup>) for the sediment cores from the Bari canyon (station 1), sediment Drift (station 2), and Po River prodelta (station 9).

		Min.	Max.	Mean	<b>SD</b>
Station 1	$Silt + clay$	93.3	99.1	96.9	1.3
	Corg	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.06
	PAHs	1.8	4.9	3.3	0.9
	<b>PCBs</b>	0.0	0.15	0.03	0.02
	<b>DDTs</b>	0.0	0.14	0.04	0.04
Station <sub>2</sub>	$Silt + clay$	96.2	98.7	97.4	0.7
	Corg	0.3	0.6	0.45	0.08
	<b>PAHs</b>	0.9	3.3	1.8	0.55
	<b>PCBs</b>	0.0	0.1	0.02	0.03
	<b>DDTs</b>	0.0	0.05	0.02	0.02
Station 9	$Silt + clay$	90	99.6	98.5	1.0
	Corg	0.6	1.0	0.9	0.09
	<b>PAHs</b>	90	228	151	30
	<b>PCBs</b>	0.4	2.2	$\mathbf{1}$	0.32
	<b>DDTs</b>	0.02	1.1	0.42	0.18

Study area	Time interval	$\sum$ PAHs	$\Sigma$ PCBs		$\Sigma$ DDTs References
Po river prodelta	1920- 2014	$193 - 533^a$	$0.9 - 5.2$ <sup>g</sup>	$0.1 -$ $2.5^{\rm m}$	This study
Off Bari Canyon	1880- 2014	$24 - 74^a$	$0.1 - 2.1$ <sup>g</sup>	$\n  -1.4^{\rm m}$	This study
Dauno seamount	1880- 2014	$11 - 49^a$	$\n  2.1^{g}$	$\n  0.7^{\rm m}$	This study
Po river prodelta	1966- 1990	$152 - 383^b$	80.0 <sup>h</sup>	< 1.0 <sup>n</sup>	Caricchia et al. (1993)
Po river prodelta	1974- 1990	$102 - 346^{\circ}$			Guzzella and Paolis (1994)
Po river prodelta	1939- 2012		$0.7 - 3.0g$		Combi et al. (2016)
Gondola slide (southern Adriatic)	1894- 2007		$<$ DL- 0.2 <sup>g</sup>		Combi et al. (2016)
Northwest coast of Spain	1950- 2011	$49.6 -$ $2489$ <sup>d</sup>			Pérez-Fernández et al. (2016)
Izmit Bay, Turkey	1954- 2006	258- $1632^e$	$5.4 - 29i$		Giuliani et al. (2017)
East China Sea	1860- 2009	18.8- $96.5^{\rm a}$	$0.1 - 2.5$ <sup>J</sup>	$\n  1.5^{\circ}$	Cai et al. (2016)
Gulf of Thailand	1940- 2004	$10 - 120$ <sup>f</sup>	$<$ DL- $2.3^{k}$		Boonyatumanond et al. (2007)
<b>Western Barents Sea</b>	1850- 2000	$35.3 -$ $132^b$	$0.7 - 3.5$ <sup>g</sup>		Zaborska et al. (2011)
Admiralty Bay, Antarctica	1861- 2006	$\n  454.9a$			Martins et al. (2010)
	1931- 2006		$\n  11.91$		Combi et al. (2017)

Table 2. Comparison of total PAH, PCB and DDT concentrations (in ng g<sup>-1</sup> dry weight)

<sup>a</sup>:  $\sum_{16}$ PAHs; <sup>b</sup>:  $\sum_{12}$ PAHs; <sup>c</sup>:  $\sum_{10}$ PAHs; <sup>d</sup>:  $\sum_{35}$ PAHs; <sup>e</sup>:  $\sum_{15}$ PAHs; <sup>f</sup>:  $\sum_{18}$ PAHs<br><sup>g</sup>:  $\sum_{5}$ PCBs; <sup>h</sup>: not informed; <sup>1</sup>:  $\sum_{127}$ PCBs; <sup>J</sup>:  $\sum_{20}$ PCBs; <sup>k</sup>:  $\sum_{24}$ PCBs; <sup>1</sup>:  $\sum_{7}$ P

DDT, o,p′-DDD, o,p′-DDE

DL: detection limit

in sediment cores from other locations.



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- **Figure 1.** Map of the study area showing the sampling stations in the Adriatic Sea.

**South** 



**Figure 2.** Historical records of PAHs, DDTs and PCBs in sediment cores taken off the Bari canyon (station 6 1) on deep South-Western Adriatic Margin (SWAM). Circles represent contaminant concentrations (ng  $g^{-1}$ ) 7 and triangles represent contaminant fluxes (ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>).





**Figure 3.** Historical records of PAHs, DDTs and PCBs in sediment cores taken in the Sediment Drift

- 11 (station 2) on deep South-Western Adriatic Margin (SWAM). Circles represent contaminant concentrations
- 12 (ng  $g^{-1}$ ) and triangles represent contaminant fluxes (ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>).

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**Figure 4.** Historical records of PAHs, DDTs and PCBs,  $\delta^{13}$ C variation (‰) in the Po River prodelta (station 9); chronological reconstruction of maximum daily discharges with marked major flood events (> 8,000  $m^3s^{-1}$ ). Circles represent contaminant concentrations (ng  $g^{-1}$ ) and triangles represent contaminant fluxes (ng cm<sup>2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>).

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Figure 5. Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of contaminant ( $\Sigma$ PAHs,  $\Sigma$ PCBs, and  $\Sigma$ DDTs) and sediment characteristics (mud (i.e. silt + clay) and  $\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{org}})$  data.



Figure 6. Historical variation of PAHs concentrations in the sediment cores from the Adriatic Sea (ng  $g^{-1}$ ) and energy production (GWh) in Italy.

### **Highlights:**

- Unprecedented data of historical deposition of contaminants in the SWAM were assessed

- The first use of DDT in Italy followed the typhus epidemics during the II World War

- Concentrations of PCB and DDT decreased after 1980 due to international restrictions

- Historical variation of PAHs seem to follow shifts in energy production in Italy

- The deep Adriatic basin represents as an important repository for contaminants

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### **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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