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Javier Castro-Jiménez, Richard Sempere

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1	Atmospheric particle-bound organophosphate ester flame retardants and
2	plasticizers in a North African Mediterranean coastal city (Bizerte, Tunisia)
3	
4	Javier Castro-Jiménez* and Richard Sempéré
5	Aix Marseille Univ., University of Toulon, CNRS, IRD, Mediterranean Institute of
6	Oceanography (MIO) UM 110, Marseille, France.
7	*Corresponding author. Phone: +33(0)486090524;
8	E-mail: javier.castro-jimenez@mio.osupytheas.fr
9	
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12 Abstract

13 Organophosphate ester (OPE) flame retardants and plasticizers have been detected at generally high frequencies (70-98%) for the first time in the atmosphere over the NW 14 African coastal Mediterranean. Results from sixty air samples (total suspended 15 particles, TSP) collected between March 2015 and January 2016 in an urban coastal site 16 (Bizerte, Tunisia) revealed Σ_9 OPE concentrations of ~100-1060 pg m⁻³ (470 pg m⁻³, 17 median) with TCPPs, EHDPP and TiBP exhibiting the higher median concentrations (~ 18 110, 100 and 85 pg m⁻³, respectively). Spring generally exhibited the lowest 19 concentrations, probably linked to the influence of local meteorological conditions and 20 21 air mass trajectories to a lesser extent. Non-chlorinated OPEs generally predominated, in contrast to the most common reported situation in marine environments (i.e. higher 22 abundance of chlorinated OPEs) pointing to the relevance of local OPE sources in the 23 24 study area. TiBP levels were generally higher than those reported for other marine/coastal environments suggesting this OPE as a good tracer of local sources in 25 Bizerte. Contrarily, the atmospheric levels of other abundant OPEs in the area (e.g. 26 TCPP) seem to be in the range and/or lower than those reported for remote marine 27 environments. These findings point to the interplay of different factors with solar 28 29 irradiance (potentially enhancing atmospheric photochemical oxidation reactions) and meteorological conditions in the study area likely compensating potential local sources 30 of some OPEs. Not all OPEs presented the same seasonality in terms of atmospheric 31 concentrations and pattern. The estimated atmospheric dry deposition fluxes (Σ_9 OPEs) 32 were 18-180 ng m⁻² d⁻¹. Up to ~9 kg y⁻¹ of OPEs (~1 kg y⁻¹ of new organic 33 anthropogenic phosphorus coming from OPEs) can be loaded to the shallow and 34 enclosed Bizerte lagoon (~130 km²), considered as the most important aquaculture area 35

- 36 in Tunisia, with yet unknown implications for the environmental exposure and impacts
- 37 in the ecosystem functioning.

38 Keywords:

- OPEs, plastic additives, marine pollution, dry deposition, environmental risk,
 anthropogenic organic phosphorus

42 Graphical Abstract



There is no doubt today about the multi-media global scale occurrence of 55 organophosphate esters (OPEs) flame retardants and plasticizers in the marine 56 environment. OPE have been found in air, water, sediment and aquatic organisms from 57 different marine areas of the world (Zhong et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2015; Brandsma et 58 al., 2015; Castro- Jiménez et al., 2014; Van der Veen and de Boer, 2012, Bollmann et 59 al., 2012; Möller et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2011), including remote environments such as 60 61 the Arctic (Ma et al., 2017; Sühring et al., 2016a; Hallanger et al., 2015; Salamova et al., 2014a, Möller et al., 2012) and the most pristine areas from the tropical and 62 subtropical Atlantic, Pacific and Indian oceans (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016). In 63 64 addition, most recent reports point to their environmental persistency, bioaccumulation 65 and adverse effects in aquatic organisms and humans (ECHA 2008; 2009; Van der Veen and de Boer, 2012; Wei et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015a,b). These findings have raised 66 67 awareness on their environmental fate and impacts as it already happened in the past for other persistent organic pollutants (POPs). However, the magnitude and spatial 68 distribution of OPE sources in the environment are closely linked to the recent 69 changes/developments in international regulations, with an important expanding 70 production and usage of OPEs from 2009 as a result of the global ban of their 71 72 "predecessors" polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) (UNEP 2009).

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OPE atmospheric levels in remote areas, supposedly far from sources seem to be in many occasions within the range of levels measured in coastal areas close to suspected sources, suggesting complex atmospheric circulation patterns and different environmental processing and dynamics linked to geographic regions (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018). It is, therefore, crucial to better investigate the airborne

occurrence and loadings of OPEs to marine/coastal environments in close relation to 79 80 their potential impacts. A recent study performed in the Mediterranean Sea supports the hypothesis that atmospheric aerosols can elicit a number of toxic effects in marine 81 82 organisms due to the presence of legacy POPs such polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and high molecular 83 weight (HMW) polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Mesquita et al., 2016). 84 85 Other POPs with recognized toxicity too, such as PBDEs and the "emerging" OPEs, can add up to the "contaminant-aerosol cocktail" (De wit, 2002; Vonderheidea et al., 2008). 86 OPEs have been reported in both the atmospheric particle and gaseous phases, but most 87 88 of the studies focus on their particle phase occurrence. The atmospheric degradation processes (e.g. photodegradation and/or OH radical oxidation) will progress more 89 slowly for particle-bound OPEs as they will be "sheltered", increasing therefore their 90 91 long-range atmospheric transport (LRAT) potential (Liu et al., 2014). In addition, OPEs have been described to be enriched in both fine and coarse particles from the 92 93 atmospheric aerosols in urban environments (Clark et al., 2017; Faiz et al., 2018).

The Mediterranean Sea is a semi-enclosed environment of high ecological and socio-94 economic relevance (The Mermex group, 2011). This ecosystem has been documented 95 96 to be largely impacted by legacy POPs and other organic contaminants (Paluselli et al., 2018; The Mermex group 2011; Berrojalbiz et al., 2011, 2011b, 2014; Castro-Jiménez 97 et al., 2008, 2010, 2012; Mandalakis et al., 2005) as well as by plastic fragments (Cózar 98 et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2018), which may be potential sources of OPEs to the 99 100 overlying atmosphere in accumulation zones (Cheng et al., 2013). However, few data exist on OPE baseline levels and environmental behaviour in the Mediterranean Sea. 101 102 Only one study reported surface water and sediment OPE concentrations from rivers draining into the W Mediterranean (Cristale et al., 2013), and the wide-spread OPE 103

104 atmospheric occurrence and inputs to surface waters far from the coast was only 105 recently proved (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014). Coastal measurements of OPEs of any 106 kind are very scarce in the Mediterranean Sea, in particular in the African 107 Mediterranean coast, where even less data on the occurrence of toxic organic 108 contaminants are available.

109 The objectives of this work are: 1) to investigate for the first time the atmospheric 110 occurrence of OPEs in the NW African Mediterranean coast; 2) to estimate their 111 atmospheric dry deposition and loading in Bizerte area (Tunisia) and discuss their 112 potential impacts.

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- 114 **2. Materials and Methods**
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116 2.1. Area description
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118 A detailed area description is offered elsewhere (Barhoumi et al., 2018). Briefly, Bizerte 119 is a medium-size city (~127 000 inhabitants), located in the north of Tunisia, between the Mediterranean Sea and the Bizerte lagoon (Figure 1). Average temperature of 22 °C, 120 with hot summer and mild spring, frequent (200 days per year) NW winds (average 121 122 speed of $6-8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and precipitation episodes mostly in autumn and winter months, 123 characterized the climate of Bizerte area. Even if agriculture and fishery activities are 124 important in the area, a considerable number of light and heavy industries (i.e., cement, 125 plastic, textile, mechanic and electronic, iron and steel metallurgy, petroleum refining and lubricants) are present (Barhoumi et al., 2018) inducing a considerable 126 127 anthropogenic pressure. A certain number of studies focusing on the atmospheric pollution by legacy organic contaminants, like PAHs, PCBs and OCPs, have been 128

performed in the study area (Ben Hassine et al., 2014, Barhoumi et al., 2018). More
recent measurements report on dioxin-like POPs, including PCDD/Fs and DL-PCBs and
also on PBDEs (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2017) but alternative flame retardants like OPEs
have never been studied to the best of our knowledge (nor in the whole NW African
coastal Mediterranean).

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Figure 1. Sampling site location (Bizerte, Tunisia)

- 137
- 138 2.2. Sampling strategy
- 139

Integrated (48 h) aerosol samples (total suspended particles, TSP) were collected from
March 2015 to January 2016 on pre-combusted quartz fibre filters (QFFs) (Whatman
QMA grade, 20.3 x 25.4 cm) using a high volume air sampler (Tisch Environmental

143 Inc., OH, USA). Overall, 60 samples were collected (1920±40 m³, average volume,

Table S1). Sampling was conducted on the roof top (~8 m ASL) of the Faculty of
Science of Bizerte (37° 16' 0.5802" N, 9° 52' 49.875" E) around 1 km far from the city
center, close to the Gulf of Bizerte shoreline and Bizerte lagoon water front (Figure 1).

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148 2.3. Sample processing

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The samples were processed as described in Barhoumi et al. (2018). Briefly, each QFF 150 was cut into two equal parts. One half was used for organic pollutant analyses and the 151 other half for determination of ancillary data like TSP, total organic carbon (TOC) and 152 153 organic nitrogen (TON) (Table S1). The corresponding filter halves were cut into small 154 pieces and spiked with 250 ng of deuterated surrogate standards (tri-n-butyl- d_{27} -155 phosphate, triphenyl- d_{15} -phosphate, tris(2-chloroisopropyl)- d_{18} -phosphate and tris(1,3dichloro-2-propyl)- d_{15} -phosphate). Filters were extracted with dichloromethane (DCM) 156 (3 cycles of 5 min) using an accelerated solvent extraction system (ASE 350, DIONEX) 157 158 at 100 °C, 110 bars, 100% of rinsing volume and 60 s purging time. Few grams of 159 activated copper were added to ASE flanks to remove potential traces of sulphur. The obtained extract was rota-evaporated (with a solvent exchange into hexane) to 160 161 approximately 0.5 ml and then loaded into a silica-alumina chromatography glass 162 column (10 mm internal diameter, i.d.), prepared by adding, from bottom to top; 3 g deactivated alumina (3% w/w), 3 g activated silica, and 1 g dehydrated sodium sulphate. 163 164 After conditioning with 15 mL of n-hexane, the column was subsequently eluted into 165 three fractions (F): with 20 mL of hexane (F1), 40 mL of hexane/DCM (80:20, v/v) (F2) and 40 mL DCM/Acetone (70:30, v/v) (F3). OPEs were analysed in F3, which was rota-166 167 evaporated down to ~0.2 ml, solvent exchanged into isooctane and further concentrated 168 under gentle nitrogen stream up to ~0.1 mL. Prior to injection, 200 ng of deuterated 169 standards (Tri-n-propyl- d_{21} -phosphate, Tris(2-chloroethyl)- d_{12} -phosphate and 170 Malathion- d_7) were added to the extracts to be used as internal standards for 171 quantification.

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173 2.4. Instrumental Analysis

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175 OPE analysis was conducted by gas chromatography (Agilent 7820A Series GC) coupled with mass spectrometry (Agilent 5977E MS) (GC-MS) operating in selected 176 ion monitoring (SIM) and electron impact (EI, 70eV) mode. OPEs were quantified by 177 178 the internal standard procedure. Table S2 shows selected ions for detection and quantification for each compound. The injector temperature was set at 270 °C (splitless). 179 180 The separation was achieved over a 30m x 0.25mm i.d. x 0.25µm HP-5MS capillary 181 column (Agilent J&W). The oven temperature was programmed from 90°C to 132°C at 3°C/min, to 165°C at 10°C/min, to 235°C at 2°C/min, then to 300°C at 25°C/min 182 183 (holding time 5min). The injection volume was of 2 µL and the helium carrier gas flow was 1 mL min⁻¹. The temperatures of the MS transfer line; ion source, and quadrupole 184 were set at 300, 230 and 150 °C, respectively. Samples were analysed for the following 185 OPEs: tris-(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP; CAS: 115-96-8), tris[2-chloro-1-186 187 (chloromethyl)ethyl]phosphate (TDCP; CAS: 13674-87-8), Tris- (1-chloro-2-188 propyl)phosphate (TCPPs, mix of isomers; CAS: 13674-84-5), tripropyl phosphate (TPP; CAS: 513-08-6), tri-iso-butyl phosphate (TiBP; CAS: 126-71-6), tri-n-butyl 189 phosphate (TnBP; CAS: 126-73-8), triphenyl phosphate (TPhP; CAS: 115-86-6), 2-190 191 ethylhexyl diphenyl phosphate (EHDPP; CAS: 1241-94-7), and tri(2-ethylhexyl) phosphate (TEHP; CAS: 78-42-2). TOC and TON were determined in filter subsamples 192

by high temperature combustion (CHN analyser) (Raimbault et al., 2008). Individual native OPE standards were purchased from Dr. Ehrenstorfer GmbH (Germany), whereas labeled standards tri-n-butyl- d_{27} -phosphate, triphenyl- d_{15} -phosphate, tri-npropyl- d_{21} -phosphate and malathion- d_7 were obtained from C/D/N Isotopes Inc. (Canada) and tris(2-chloroisopropyl)- d_{18} -phosphate, tris(1,3-dichloro-2-propyl)- d_{15} phosphate and tris(2-chloroethyl)- d_{12} -phosphate were from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories, Inc. (USA).

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201 2.5. Quality assurance / quality control (QA/QC)

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203 The high volume air sampler was regularly calibrated (each month) following the 204 manufacturer's procedure (Tisch Environmental, HIGH VOL+). QFFs were individually wrapped in double aluminium foil and baked at 450 °C overnight before 205 sampling. After each sampling event, the filters were wrapped in the same aluminium 206 207 foil and stored in double sealed plastic bags in a freezer at -20 °C before processing. The pre- and post-sampling QFF weights were determined after they were placed in a 208 desiccator (25 °C) for 24h. Standards (natives + labelled compounds) were introduced 209 in the chromatographic sequence to evaluate possible variations on the detection 210 211 conditions during the time of analyses. Prior to use, the ASE cells were pre-cleaned by 212 performing an "empty" ASE extraction with DCM. Three field blanks (taken in autumn 213 - summer), consisting on baked QFFs transported to the sampling area, mounted in the sampler, and dismounted, were collected, stored and analysed concurrently with the 214 215 samples. Three laboratory blanks were also performed. Blanks results are presented in Table S3. An unexpected problem occurred during the processing of one of the field 216

blanks, so results are only reported for the two remaining blanks. OPE levels in the 217 218 blanks were generally low, ranging from ~1 to 14 ng for most compounds. Relatively higher blank levels were found for TiBP, EHDPP and TCPP (25 to 74 ng). However, 219 220 these three OPEs exhibited the highest concentrations in the samples. These higher blank levels were suspected to come from the ASE system used for the sample 221 extraction. A high variability was observed, in particular for the most abundant 222 compounds, highlighting the necessity of collecting more field blanks in future long-223 224 term OPE monitoring studies. Laboratory blanks showed lower or similar levels to field blanks, so no contamination during sampling or storage occurred. Results were blank 225 226 corrected by subtracting the filed blank values (autumn). Instrumental limits of detection (LODs), calculated as signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio > 3, and limits of 227 quantification (LOQ), corresponding to a $S/N \ge 10$, ranged from 5 to 50 and from 10 to 228 229 100 pg, respectively depending on the compound (Table S4).

230 Average method recoveries (n=60) (extraction-cleanup-analysis) as monitored by the 231 surrogate OPEs varied from 57±11 to 105±11% (Table S5). In addition, spike experiments for native OPEs were conducted. Clean QFF (n=2) were spiked with a 232 mixture of native OPE (250 ng/sample) and extracted as indicated above. Results 233 confirm the good recoveries of our method; with an average native OPE recovery of 234 235 101 ± 24 % (Table S6). Results were not corrected by recoveries. NIST SRM 2585 was analysed for target OPEs as well. This reference material is not certified for OPEs, 236 however different laboratories have provided concentration of OPEs in this dust 237 reference material, becoming a recommended quality control step (Fan et al., 2014, 238 Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016). The average results for two replicates (blank corrected) 239 240 proved that the analysis of OPE using the described methodologies provided

concentrations generally in good agreement with reported values for most OPEs (FigureS1). Deviations were found for EHDPP and TDCP, only.

243

244 **3. Results and discussion**

- 245
- 246 3.1. Atmospheric occurrence
- 247

248 *3.1.1. Detection frequency and concentrations*

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250 The studied OPEs were detected in the aerosol samples over Bizerte city at generally high frequencies, except for TPP and TDCP (only found in 8% and 12% of the samples, 251 respectively). Low detection frequencies of TDCP in the atmosphere has been 252 previously reported in some environments, like in the Great Lakes (Salamova et al., 253 2014b). The non-chlorinated OPEs (TPhP, EHDPP, TnBP and TEHP) were generally 254 the most frequently found (92-98%), although closely followed by the chlorinated 255 TCEP and TCPPs (85-90%). The other alkyl-OPE measured (i.e. TiBP) was present in 256 the 70% of the samples (Figure S2). However, the minor frequency observed for TiBP 257 can be attributed to the blank subtraction performed (relatively high field blank levels 258 compared to the other alkyl-OPEs) (Table S3). These results confirm the presence of 259 OPEs at the NW Mediterranean African coast, never reported before. 260

Overall, the \sum_{9} OPE particle-bound atmospheric concentrations (considering only detected values) ranged from ~100 to 1060 pg m⁻³ (470 pg m⁻³, median) along the sampling period with TCPPs, EHDPP and TiBP exhibiting the higher median concentrations of ~ 110, 100 and 85 pg m⁻³, respectively. Table S7 shows the compound specific concentrations for all aerosol samples. Very few OPE atmospheric

measurements in coastal areas have been performed so far. The vast majority of 266 267 available data in marine environments come from cruise measurements. The measured values in Bizerte are generally lower than those reported across the Mediterranean Sea 268 $(\sum_{14}$ OPE: 400-5000 pg m⁻³) and the SW Black Sea $(\sum_{14}$ OPE: 1700-6000 pg m⁻³) 269 (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014), the E China Sea (\sum_{8} OPE 230-2900 pg m⁻³) (Möller et al., 270 2012) and tropical and subtropical areas from the Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans 271 (\sum_{14} OPE: 360-4400 pg m⁻³ (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016), but in the range of those from 272 the North Sea (\sum_{8} OPE: 100-1400 pg m⁻³) (Möller et al., 2012) and Svalbard coastal area 273 (\sum_{8} OPE: 30-1450 pg m⁻³) (Salamova et al., 2014a). However, OPE levels in Bizerte 274 were higher than those reported for other semi-enclosed marine environments like the S 275 China Sea (\sum_{9} OPE: 50-160 pg m⁻³) (Lai et al., 2015) and also less impacted areas like 276 the Coral Sea (Σ_4 OPE: 90 pg m⁻³) (Chen et al., 2013). These comparisons should be 277 278 taken with caution though, due to the consideration of different number (and type, in 279 some cases) of compounds included in the sums and the different seasons and years of 280 the studies. Although it may still high variable, a more meaningful comparison would be considering individual compounds. The atmospheric levels of the predominant OPEs 281 in Bizerte (i.e. TCPPs, EHDPP and TiBP) were individually compared with existing 282 283 studies. Table 1 provides an updated compilation of atmospheric particle-bound OPE 284 measurements in marine/coastal environments and some reference inland urban locations for comparison. Interestingly, some different trends were found compared to 285 those of \sum_{9} OPEs; with TCPPs concentrations in Bizerte higher than in the E China Sea 286 and Svalbard, but lower than those in the North Sea. TiBP levels in Bizerte appear to be 287 generally higher than in other marine/coastal environments studied. This compound is 288 used in a wide variety of industrial applications including building, papers, boards, 289 plastics, rubbers, textile and directly as an additive in various products such as lacquers, 290

hydraulic fluids and floor polishes (ECHA website). Therefore, their relatively high
levels measured in this study could be related to the plastic and textile industries located
in Menzel Jemil city, 5 km SE of the sampling station (Figure 1) (Barhoumi et al.,
2018). EHDPP concentrations in Bizerte were in the range of those reported for the
Black Sea but lower than in the W Mediterranean Sea (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014) and
the tropical and sub-tropical Atlantic, Pacific and Indian Oceans (Castro-Jiménez et al.,
2016).

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Despite the variability that the mentioned factors may have induced, it is not completely 299 300 clear why the atmospheric levels measured in Bizerte (a coastal urban city under important anthropogenic pressures) for some of the most abundant OPEs like TCPP 301 (among others, see Table 1), are in the range and/or lower than those reported for 302 303 remote coastal environments or pristine oceanic regions. Most probably a combination 304 of differential regional emission patterns, meteorological conditions and rates of 305 atmospheric processing can explain these data. For example, the important global solar irradiance in the Mediterranean basin (The Mermex group, 2011, Sempéré et a., 2015), 306 reaching annual average values of ~210 W m⁻² in Bizerte city (Chelbi et al., 2015, Ben 307 308 Othman et al., 2018) could enhance atmospheric degradation due to photochemical oxidation reactions. Even if these processes likely progress faster for gas-phase 309 compounds, the atmospheric photochemical oxidation of particle-bound OPEs has also 310 been described (Liu et al., 2014). These conditions would favour the decrease of OPE 311 312 atmospheric levels, even if land-based sources could be higher than in other environments (like the Arctic, with less solar irradiation rates and colder temperatures). 313 314 In addition, the huge expansion of OPE production and usage experienced in EU and other developed countries could have not yet arrived to the NW African edge of the 315

Mediterranean Sea, where OPE consumption (and related emission) may be still moderate. However, no public data on OPE production and consumption exist in this region to the best of our knowledge, highlighting the necessity of OPE emission inventories at the African Mediterranean coast.

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321 *3.1.2. Atmospheric pattern and seasonality*

322

As indicated, TCPPs, EHDPP and TiBP exhibited the higher concentrations and 323 therefore dominated the global OPE atmospheric patter (n=60) over Bizerte, accounting 324 325 for the 25±16 %, 23±10 %, and 20±15% of the Σ_9 OPEs, respectively (Figure S3). A general predominance of Cl-OPEs, in particular TCPP, in atmospheric aerosols in open 326 marine environments has been reported (Li et al., 2018; Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016; 327 328 Möller at al., 2012). However, a higher relative contribution of the alkyl and aryl OPEs 329 have been reported over urban areas or in remote areas under the suspected influence of 330 local sources (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016; Salamova et al., 2014a). The Cl-OPEs (as sum of TCEP, TCPP and TDCP) and the non-Cl-OPEs (as sum of TPP, TiBP, TnBP, 331 TPhP, EHDPP and TEHP) globally (n=60) accounted for the 28% and the 72% (median 332 333 values) of the Σ_9 OPEs over Bizerte area, respectively (Table S8), generally pointing to 334 the influence of current local OPE sources in the study area. This relative distribution is also consistent with the suspected non-Cl-OPEs sources, in particular TiBP, from the 335 plastic industry located SE the sampling site. Generally non-Cl-OPEs are used as 336 337 plasticizers, contrary to Cl-OPEs which are more commonly used as flame retardants (Wei et al., 2015). Interestingly, three samples (Prel 22, 30, 72, Table S8) showed the 338 339 opposite pattern with a clear predominance of Cl-OPEs, accounting from the 77% to 88% of the Σ_9 OPEs, in line with the most common reported situation in marine 340

environments (76% median value of predominance for Cl-OPEs) (Li et al., 2018).
Indeed, the air mass back trajectories (BTs), calculated with the HYSPLIT model
(Draxler and Rolph, 2011), revealed a clear Atlantic Ocean influence for those samples
(Figure S4). All BTs are also available in SI (see discussion below)

345

Samples were grouped by seasons based on local climate of Bizerte city as follows: 346 autumn (September, October, and November), winter (December, January), spring 347 (March, April, and May) and summer (June, July and August). When comparing the 348 OPE atmospheric pattern by seasons (Figure 2) with the annual pattern (Figure S3), 349 350 some differences appeared. Whereas the relative distribution of Cl-OPEs appears to be pretty constant along the year, except for the winter months, when TDCP was not 351 detected at all, some differences in the relative distribution of non-Cl-OPEs were 352 353 observed. First, TiBP and TnBP showed a similar relative distribution in spring, 354 whereas TiBP dominated over TnBP along the rest of the year, in particular in winter. In 355 addition, EHDPP dominated the atmospheric pattern in all seasons except in winter, 356 when TEHP exhibited higher relative concentrations. These findings point to a temporal variability on the OPE atmospheric pattern in the study area. 357



359

Figure 2. OPE atmospheric particle-bound pattern in Bizerte area in the different
seasons (2015-2016)

In order to further investigate the OPE seasonality in the area studied; the differences in 363 contaminant concentrations were evaluated as well (Figure 3). Non-parametric tests 364 (STATA/SE 12.1 statistical software) were used in order to investigate possible 365 significant differences among contaminants. For this data analysis, non-detected values 366 were imputed to the median value between zero and the LOD for each specific 367 contaminant. Results from the Kruskal-Wallis test for OPEs (TPP and TDCP were not 368 considered due to their low detection frequency) showed significant differences (p 369 ≤ 0.003) among seasons for the $\Sigma OPEs$ and all individual OPEs, except TPhP (Table 370 S9). Contaminant concentrations (except for TPhP) were further compared by pairs of 371 372 regions (Wilconxon rank-sum test). Each contaminant level was compared among 4 seasons resulting in a total of 6 pairs of comparisons. The False Discovery Rate (FDR) 373 374 correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995; Benjamini and Yekutieli, 2001), with 375 Simes's method (Simes et al., 1986) was used to account for the effect of the multiple376 comparisons (Table S10).

Overall, the two seasons showing more significant differences were spring and summer 377 (Table S10) with all OPEs and the Σ OPEs exhibiting significantly higher concentrations 378 in summer compared to spring. Indeed, the sum of OPEs and most individual OPEs 379 showed the lowest concentrations in spring (i.e. TCPPs, EHDPP, TiBP and TEHP) with 380 381 median values from 2 to 4-fold significantly lower ($p \le 0.02$) than those measured in the other months of the year (Figure 3, Table S10). However, only three OPEs showed 382 significant differences between the coldest (winter) and the warmest (summer) seasons, 383 384 but with contrasting trends. TCEP and TnBP were the only OPEs showing significantly (p < 0.001) higher levels (~4-fold) in summer compared to winter, whereas TEHP 385 concentration was ~3-fold higher in winter. In addition, TEHP was the only compound 386 387 exhibiting significantly ($p \le 0.01$) higher concentrations in winter (~3-fold) compared to the other three seasons, whereas TnBP showed the opposite trend, with significantly (p 388 389 ≤ 0.03) lower levels in winter (~2-fold) compared to the other three seasons. These observations are consistent with their different relative distribution observed in the 390 winter pattern (Figure 2). 391





Figure 3. Box plots of particle-bound atmospheric concentrations (pg m⁻³) of most frequently found OPEs by season. Lines within the boxes represent the median concentrations.

396 *3.1.3. Potential factors affecting seasonality*

398 OPE concentrations did not correlate with other parameters simultaneously measured in 399 the same samples, like TSP, TOC and TON, which ranged from 9.6 - 119.0, 1.0 - 24.5

and $0.2 - 3.0 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, respectively (Figure S5). The lack of correlation between some 400 OPEs (like TCPP and EHDDP) and the atmospheric TSP and/or TOC levels over urban 401 areas have been previously reported (Clark et al., 2017). However, the authors showed 402 that certain OPE could correlate with other fractions of the atmospheric aerosols, the 403 finest fractions like PM2.5. Indeed, other studies conducted in urban areas confirmed 404 405 the OPE associations with PM2.5 fraction (Faiz et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2016), with 406 strong correlations reported for some OPEs, like TCEP, TnBP and TEHP (Faiz et al., 2018). The form OPEs are emitted to the atmosphere seems to be a key factor 407 408 determining these associations, with higher probability of enrichment in the finest 409 fractions for OPE directly emitted in the gas phase due to the larger surface area of fine 410 particles compared to coarse particles (Faiz et al., 2018; Clark et al., 2017). However, 411 these associations cannot be evaluated in the study area with available data.

412

413 TCEP, TnBP, EHDPP as well as Σ OPEs showed significant positive correlations with temperature ($p \le 0.002$), consistent with their higher levels found in summer (average T= 414 26±2°C) compared to winter (average T=12±2°C), in particular for TCEP and TnBP. 415 416 Even if not all OPEs did show correlations with temperature, this could partially explain the lower levels generally found in spring (average $T = 16 \pm 3^{\circ}C$) compared to summer. 417 Temperature could play a local effect by increasing the OPE volatilization from land 418 419 and water and also affecting their environmental partitioning. Interestingly, TCEP and 420 TnBP show also a weak (but statistically significant, $p \le 0.001$) negative correlation with the relative humidity (RH). Significantly (p=0.02) higher RH values (70±7%) and 421 slightly higher precipitation rates (9.0 mm) and wind speeds (17 ± 7 km h⁻¹) were 422 registered in spring compared to summer (66±5%, 0.6 mm and 15±6 km h⁻¹, 423

respectively) (Figure S5, Table S1) pointing to a most efficient atmospheric particle
washout in spring, which is consistent with our observation too.

The BTs (Figure S6) did not really show a consistent influence on the OPE seasonality, 426 427 except for punctual cases affecting the atmospheric pattern and/or concentrations (as indicated above). The BTs computed for the samples collected in spring generally had a 428 429 longer air mass range with Atlantic Ocean influence, compared to those for summer, 430 when air masses generally showed a shorter range and spent more time circulating over the W Mediterranean and continental Europe. In addition, some samples showed a clear 431 SE influence of air mass trajectory in summer (e.g. Prel_27, 28) leading to higher TiBP 432 433 levels (Tables S7, S8) consistent too with our observation of higher levels in summer compared to spring and suspected influence of plastic industry located at the SE from 434 435 the sampling site. The local wind regimes could have also an influence in the 436 seasonality observed. Figure S7 shows the wind roses for all seasons. A general predominance of winds blowing in the sector WNW-NW was observed for all seasons 437 438 except for winter, when a clear predominance for SE winds was registered. This could partially explain as well the different pattern observed in winter for non-Cl-OPEs, with 439 higher TiBP and TEHP levels potentially coming from the plastic factory located SE 440 441 from the sampling site, as discussed above. In summary, a number of factors, likely acting simultaneously, seem to be affecting the relative abundance and distribution 442 pattern between the Cl- and non-Cl-OPEs and their atmospheric concentrations in the 443 444 study area, like potential local sources and meteorological conditions, influence of air 445 mass trajectories, the LRAT potential of some OPEs travelling from distant sources and/or the atmospheric degradation and depletion processes in the region. 446

447

448 3.2. Atmospheric loading

450 *3.2.1. Dry deposition fluxes*

451

452 Dry deposition fluxes (F_{DD} , ng m⁻² d⁻¹) of target OPEs were calculated as:

453

454

$$F_{\rm DD} = 864 v_{\rm d} C_{\rm A}$$
^[1]

455

where $C_A (ng m^{-3})$ is the specific OPE volumetric concentration in the aerosol, v_d (cm s⁻ 456 ¹) is the particle deposition velocity and 864 is a unit conversion factor. A reference 457 value of 0.2 cm s⁻¹ for v_d was adopted for this site. This value is within the range of v_d 458 experimentally measured (Del Vento and Dachs 2007) in coastal NW Mediterranean 459 460 Sea and has recently been used in the same site for the estimation of dry deposition fluxes of other organic contaminants with similar physical-chemical properties as OPEs 461 462 (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2017). Even if a degree of uncertainty is associated to this calculation due to the lack of v_d measurements during the sampling events, the selected 463 value enables meaningful comparisons with other estimations in the study area and in 464 465 the W Mediterranean Sea. Overall, the Σ_9 OPEs atmospheric dry deposition fluxes ranged from 18 to 180 ng m⁻² d⁻¹ during the sampling period (Table S11). These fluxes 466 were generally lower than previous dry deposition estimations performed in the W 467 Mediterranean Sea and in the SW Black Sea (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014) but within the 468 range of those reported for the North Sea (Möller et al., 2011) and the Philippine Sea 469 (Möller et al., 2012). However, the presented estimations of dry deposition are higher 470 471 than those reported for other semi-enclosed environments like the China Sea (Lai et al., 2015) and also less impacted areas like the Coral Sea (Chen et al., 2013). 472

Table 2 presents the dry deposition fluxes for each OPE by season. The highest median 473 474 atmospheric loading (and associated higher potential exposure) for the assemble of OPEs via atmospheric dry deposition in the study area is estimated to occur in the 475 summer, autumn and winter months (as expected from their relative atmospheric 476 concentrations and the assumptions considered in these calculations) with fluxes 477 ranging from 32 to 38 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹ for these seasons. This loading is 1 to 3 orders of 478 magnitude higher than the reported atmospheric dry deposition fluxes of PBDEs (the 479 OPEs "predecessors") (0.07-3.4 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹ for Σ_{27} PBDEs), and even higher compared to 480 the dry deposition fluxes estimated for other legacy POPs like PCDD/Fs, PCBs and 481 organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) over Bizerte during the same observation period 482 (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2017; Barhoumi et al., 2018). However, the atmospheric dry 483 deposition fluxes of OPEs are in the lower end of those reported for \sum_{34} PAHs (30-1100 484 μ g m⁻² y⁻¹) in Bizerte for the same period (Barhoumi et al., 2018). 485

486

487 3.2.2. Environmental relevance and potential impacts

488

According to these calculations, the nearby coastal lagoon of Bizerte $(1.28 \times 10^8 \text{ m}^2)$ 489 surface, Barhoumi et al., 2016), a well-recognized sensitive environment of ecological 490 and socio-economic importance (the most important aquaculture area in Tunisia, 491 annually producing around 100 tons of Pacific oysters and Mediterranean mussels, 492 Béjaoui-Omri et al., 2014) could receive up to ~ 9 kg of OPEs yearly. This loading of 493 494 OPEs may have, yet unknown, implications for the aquatic organisms and the ecosystem functioning. The input of these hazardous compounds may elicit an effect 495 through environmental exposure, as a single group of contaminants or in combination to 496 other toxic organic chemicals also efficiently incorporated to this aquatic environment 497

via the atmosphere like PCDD/Fs, PCBs, PBDEs, OCPs and PAHs (Castro-Jiménez et 498 al., 2017; Barhoumi et al., 2018). In addition, OPE may interfere the natural phosphorus 499 cycle. Recent estimations performed in the Mediterranean Sea and other oceanic 500 501 environments suggest that atmospheric deposition fluxes of phosphorus due to OPE deposition (and other anthropogenic organic pollutants containing phosphorus) could 502 play an important role in the phosphorus cycle, in particular in oligotrophic 503 504 environments, affecting the ecosystem structure and functioning, for example modifying primary production rates (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014, 2016). The dry deposition fluxes 505 of Σ_9 OPEs given as P averaged ~10 ng_P m⁻² d⁻¹ over Bizerte lagoon area. The maximum 506 estimated loading of new anthropogenic phosphorus coming from OPEs was of ~1 kg y 507 ¹. This input is certainly small, representing only between the 0.02-0.5% of the organic 508 509 phosphorus dry deposition fluxes recently estimated in the W Mediterranean Sea 510 (Violaki et al., 2018). However, these fluxes accounted for both anthropogenic and non-511 anthropogenic organic compounds, and our estimates correspond exclusively to nine 512 compounds belonging to an emerging widely diffused anthropogenic contaminant class 513 contain phosphorous. Moreover, the reported organic phosphorous inputs for the Mediterranean (Violaki et al., 2018) correspond to the entire W Mediterranean basin, 514 515 whereas the organic phosphorous amounts due to OPEs will distribute only on the ~ 130 km² of lagoon surface, a shallow and enclosed environment with limited water 516 517 exchanges. In addition, recent studies confirmed that OPE can also exist in the 518 atmospheric gas phase (Li et al., 2018; Sühring et al., 2016b, Castro-Jiménez et al., 519 2016) and the diffusive deposition fluxes (i.e. the direct input of gas phase OPE to the water dissolved phase) could be 2-3 orders of magnitude higher that the dry deposition, 520 521 potentially triggering up to 1% of the reported primary production in the most oligotrophic oceanic regions (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016). OPE could also enter Bizerte 522

523 lagoon by riverine inputs, a source of new anthropogenic phosphorus associated to OPE 524 not yet evaluated. A global assessment performed with available data before the beginning of the large expansion of OPE production and usage (in 2009) estimated the 525 526 human interference with the phosphorus cycle very close to a threshold of no return (i.e. irreversible disruptive effect) (Rockström et al., 2009). The not yet accounted new 527 anthropogenic phosphorus coming from OPEs and other P-organic containing 528 529 contaminants, even if small at a regional/global scale, may be contributing to reach the mentioned threshold and efforts should be devoted to study these links and the 530 integrated impacts of OPEs in aquatic/marine ecosystems. 531

532

533 **4. Conclusions**

534

535 Organophosphate ester flame retardants and plasticizers have been measured for the 536 first time in the atmosphere of the NW African coastal Mediterranean Sea (Bizerte city 537 area) confirming the general high detection frequency of most common OPEs. A general predominance of non-chlorinated OPEs has been found in the atmospheric 538 aerosols, being different from what is commonly reported in marine environments (i.e. 539 higher predominance of chlorinated OPEs) suggesting current local sources in the area. 540 541 Some compounds could be regarded as useful tracers of local/regional specific activities/sources, like TiBP as tracer of the potential impact of plastic industries in 542 543 Bizerte area. The lowest concentrations were generally found in spring, probably linked 544 to local meteorological conditions and the LRAT of OPEs from other areas to a lesser extent. The atmospheric levels of some of the most abundant OPEs (like TCPP) in 545 546 Bizerte area, a coastal urban city under important anthropogenic pressures, seem to be in the range and/or lower than those reported for remote coastal environments or 547

pristine oceanic regions. These findings suggest a combined effect of differential 548 549 regional emission patterns, meteorological conditions and rates of atmospheric processing (with high solar irradiance, probably leading to a most efficient atmospheric 550 551 OPE depletion processes in the area, likely compensating potential local sources). In addition, the influence of the existing regulatory frameworks in different areas of the 552 globe may contribute to this situation. Although OPE atmospheric concentrations as 553 554 sum of compounds could provide a first useful insight on their environmental levels, the environmental behaviour of OPEs should be better investigated for individual 555 compounds. We found that not all OPEs presented the same seasonality in terms of 556 557 atmospheric concentrations and pattern. The estimated dry deposition fluxes to Bizerte lagoon point to a yearly input of around ~ 9 kg of OPEs (~1 kg of new anthropogenic 558 organic phosphorus) to this shallow and enclosed aquatic environment ($\sim 130 \text{ km}^2$) 559 560 considered as the most important aquaculture area in Tunisia, with yet unknown implications in terms of environmental exposure and impacts in the ecosystem 561 562 functioning. Further research is needed to elucidate the magnitude and potential impacts of these new organic contaminants and associated sources of anthropogenic 563 phosphorous in the study area. 564

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567

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581

582 Supporting information available

583

Additional data on the sampling and analytical procedures, QA/QC, compound-bycompound atmospheric levels and spatial distribution and deposition fluxes are presented in this section.

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Table 1. Updated compilation of atmospheric particle-bound OPE measurements in the marine environment and some reference urban areas

- 859 (concentrations are in pg m⁻³, and median, standard deviation, minimun and maximum values are reported when available)
- 860

Region	Sampling	Date	Compounds, $pg m^{-3}$, median [mix-max]								
Region	Saniping		TCEP	TDCP	TCPPs	TiBP	TnBP	TPhP	EHDPP	TEHP	Reference ^{&}
Northern Hemisphere											
Artic Ocean	cruise (open sea)	2007-2013	n.d 856	n.d 13	n.d 660	n.r.	n.d 97	n.d 1930	n.d 11	n.d 7.5	Sühring et al., 2016
Resolute Bay/Alert (Arctic)	remote (coastal)	2008-2009, 2012	n.d 430	n.d 46	n.d 276	n.r.	n.d 2340	1.2 - 96	n.d 40	n.r.	Sühring et al., 2016
Artic Ocean	cruise (open sea)	Jun-September 2010	126 - 585	n.d 5	85 - 530	16 - 35	n.d - 36	10 - 60	n.r	n.d 6	Moller et al., 2012
Ny-Alesund (Arctic)	remote (coastal)	Jun-September 2007	<200 - 270	87 - 250	<200 - 330	<10 - 140	<200	<50	<200 - 260	n.r.	Green et al., 2008
Longyearbyen (Arctic)	remote (coastal)	September 2012-May 2013	40 - 60	2 - 294	10 - 186	n.r.	6 - 1000	1 - 50	6 - 300	1 - 40	Salamova et al., 2014
North Atlantic Ocean	cruise (open sea)	Dec 2010, Jun-Jul 2011	50 [n.d1230]	80 [n.d425]	770 [n.d1310]	40 [5-380]	90 [10-1700]	10 [n.d50]	780 [20-1730]	140 [60 - 490]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016
North Pacific Ocean	cruise (open sea)	Jun-September 2010	160 - 280	5 - 8	98 - 270	14 - 20	6 - 14	9 - 24	n.r.	1 - 12	Moller et al., 2012
North Pacific Ocean	cruise (open sea)	May-Jun 2011	80 [n.d310]	90 [n.d500]	640 [100-1460]	30 [3-100]	170 [20-2500]	10 [n.d34]	320 [100-1210]	110 [60-380]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016
Sea of Japan	cruise (open sea)	Jun-September 2010	237 - 1960	16 - 52	130 - 620	10 - 63	10 - 33	25 -97	n.r.	5 - 38	Möller et al., 2012
East China Sea	cruise (open sea)	October 2009-March 2010	134	828	9	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Möller et al., 2012 & Chen et al., 2013
South China Sea	cruise (open sea)	September-October 2013	14 - 110	1 - 4	15 - 38	1 - 4	1 - 5	3 - 16	n.r.	2 - 16	Lai et al., 2015
North Sea	cruise (open sea)	March, May, July 2010	6 - 100	7 - 78	30 - 1200	n.d 150	n.d 150	4 - 150	n.r.	n.d 30	Möller et al., 2011
North Sea ^c	coastal	August 2011-October 2012	3±2	1±0.8	10±6	9±6	6±11	3±3	n.r.	11±13	Wolschke et al., 2016
Mediterranean Sea	cruise (open sea)	Jun 2006, May 2007	220# [70 - 854]	75 [#] [n.d 460]	884 [#] [126 - 2340] ^a	240 [#] [4 - 650]	310# [56 - 600]	21 [#] [n.d 80]	540 [#] [n.d 834]	160# [56 - 307]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014
Black Sea	cruise (open sea)	Jun 2006, May 2007	490 [300 - 2420]	86 [n.d 97]	520 [540 - 2720] ^a	150 [66 - 190]	310 [200 - 370]	35 [3 - 40]	180 [n.d 310]	175 [36 - 190]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2014
Philippine Sea	cruise (open sea)	November 2010- March 2011	20 - 156	50 - 780	22 - 410	10 - 23	10 - 100	n.d 155	n.r	6 - 92	Möller et al., 2012
Bonhai & Yellow Seas	cruise (open sea)	Jun-July 2016	28 [14-94]	5 [1-13]	66 [19-390] ^a	12 [24-29]	5 [1-14]	3 [1-15]	n.r.	2 [n.d-8.5]	Li et al., 2018
North Huangchen Island	remote (coastal)	May 2015-March 2016	63 [0.4-1000]	4 [n.d80]	26 [n.n-160] ^a	24 [1-164]	8 [n.d-1100]	11 [n.d-110]	n.r.	1.5 [n.d-180]	Li et al., 2018
Huston ^c	urban (inland)	September 2013	90±30 - 270±130	64±20 - 87±50	700±390 - 1200±440	n.r.	120±10 - 560±320	210±70 - 490±580	300±260 - 470±150	38±30 - 56±20	Clark et al., 2017
Great lakes*	urban (coastal inland)	March 2012 - Dec 2014	270-334	47-100	370-390	n.r.	200-250	130-160	70-80	n.r.	Salamova et al., 2016
Great lakes*	rural (coastal inland)	March 2012 - Dec 2014	274	15	58	n.r.	32	30	27	n.r.	Salamova et al., 2016
Great lakes *	remote (coastal inland)	March 2012 - Dec 2014	41-46	7-11	15-36	n.r.	18-50	34-50	15	n.r.	Salamova et al., 2016
Bizerte (Tunisia)	urban (coastal)	March 2015-Jan 2016	31 [2-96]	20 [7-27]	110 [5-347] ^b	85 [8-528]	36 [1-116]	27 [3-538]	100 [21-429]	45 [20-492]	This study
Southern Hemisphere											
South Atlantic	cruise (open sea)	Jan-Feb 2011	150 [10-540]	130 [n.d540]	570 [20-980]	100 [30-280]	330 [120-1180]	10 [n.d25]	500 [n.d1020]	160 [50-890]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016
South Pacific	cruise (open sea)	Feb-April 2011	140 [34-370]	60 [n.d1000]	530 [50-800]	50 [15-160]	200 [50-2170]	4 [n.d40]	400 [260-800]	160 [40-350]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016
Coral Sea	cruise (open sea)	October 2009-March 2010	88	370	7	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Chen et al., 2013
Indian Ocean	cruise (open sea)	November 2010- March 2011	46 - 570	n.d 220	37 - 550	7 - 96	7 - 75	n.d 74	n.r	4 - 50	Möller et al., 2012
Indian Ocean	cruise (open sea)	Feb-March 2011	100 [50-620]	20 [n.d-290]	370 [30-1250]	40 [n.d110]	230 [70-940]	8 [n.d-12]	370 [n.d-630]	180 [n.d-630]	Castro-Jiménez et al., 2016
Southern Ocean	cruise (open sea)	November 2010- March 2011	74	80	55	16	14	20	n.r	7	Möller et al., 2012
Antartic Peninsula	cruise (open sea)	October 2009-March 2010	40	76	4	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	n.r.	Chen et al., 2013

a sum of three isomers; b sum of two major isomers; caverage±SD; * median values; median value correspond only to Western MED, whereas the rangee correspond to all basins; e see reference section in the main manuscript for complete citation details, n.r =not reported

Table 2. OPE dry deposition fluxes (ng m⁻² d⁻¹, median, average and range) in the different seasons (2015-2016) in Bizerte (Tunisia) 864

	Spring [n=19]				Summer [n	=20]		Autumn [n:	=13]	Winter [n=8]			
Compound	Median	Average	Range	Median	Average	Range	Median	Average	Range	Median	Average	Range	
TPP	0.7	0.6	(0.01 - 1.0)	0.3 ^b	0.3 ^b	/ ^b	n.c	n.c	n.c	1.4 ^b	1.4 ^b	/ ^b	
TiBP	4.8	8.6	(1.7 - 30.0)	16.2	29.5	(1.4 - 91.2)	17.1	18.1	(5.8 - 38.3)	13.8	19.3	(3.6-46.1)	
TnBP	6.1	5.6	(2.5 - 8.7)	9.9	9.8	(2.1 - 20.0)	6.5	7.5	(0.2 - 16.6)	2.8	3.4	(0.9 - 7.6)	
TCEP	3.4	3.5	(0.6 - 7.7)	9.7	9.7	(4.8 - 15.8)	7.9	7.7	(1.1 - 16.5)	2.8	2.7	(0.4 - 4.7)	
TCPPs ^a	7.3	12.6	(0.8 - 58.9)	18.2	24.2	(6.9 - 56.1)	31.4	31.7	(9.2 - 59.9)	25.5	27.5	(3.5 - 59.9)	
TDCP	4.3 ^b	4.3 ^b	/ ^b	3.3	3.3	(1.8 - 4.6)	2.3	2.3	(1.1 - 3.4)	n.c	n.c	n.c	
TPhP	4.3	7.1	(0.5 - 24.8)	4.2	5.7	(2.1 - 25.0)	5.4	15.1	(0.9 - 93.0)	7.1	7.4	(2.3 - 14.6)	
EHDPP	11.0	11.9	(3.7 - 33.4)	21.4	23.3	(8.6 - 49.0)	20.4	25.4	(6.6 - 74.2)	14.7	18.5	(4.4 - 47.8)	
TEHP	6.7	7.0	(3.4 - 13.1)	8.6	8.9	(5.1 - 18.2)	7.2	9.5	(3.5 - 31.8)	21.9	27.4	(5.1 - 85.0)	
Σ_9 OPEs	48.0	49.5	(17.8 - 109.3)	103.7	107.5	(53.2 - 172.5)	93.3	108.0	(66.8 - 183.3)	89.2	95.0	(37.7 - 162.5	

^a sum of the two major TCPP isomers; ^b only one detected value in the season (the values presented under median and mean correspond in this case to the only detected value), n.c = not calcualted (aerosol cocentrations ≤LOD)