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## **Copper, zinc and lead isotope signatures of sediments from a Mediterranean coastal bay impacted by naval activities and urban sources**

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### **Abstract**

Toulon bay is severely impacted by metal contamination induced by past and recent naval activities. In this work, Cu, Zn and Pb isotope compositions and elemental concentrations of fifty-five surface sediments were determined in order to map the spatial distribution of anthropogenic and natural sources along this land-sea continuum. Two sub-systems of Toulon Bay, the Small and Large bays, showed well-marked patterns on metal contamination levels and isotope signatures for Cu and Pb. The Small bay had the highest metal concentrations, and displayed average Pb and Cu isotope compositions of  $1.1664 \pm 0.0043$  (1s, expressed as  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios) and  $-0.17 \pm 0.19\%$  (1s, expressed as  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values), respectively. It contrasted with the Large bay, with moderate to pristine metal concentrations and average Pb and Cu isotope compositions of  $1.1763 \pm 0.0079$  (1s) and  $+0.08 \pm 0.23\%$  (1s), respectively. Lead isotope systematics indicated a binary source mixing process involving industrial and natural sources, while Cu isotope systematics showed a ternary mixing process involving two distinct anthropogenic signatures, interpreted as associated to new diffuse anthropogenic sources and old warfare material. In contrast, Zn isotope compositions in the Small and Large bays were practically the same:  $+0.06 \pm 0.05\%$  and  $+0.06 \pm 0.11\%$  (1s, expressed  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  values), respectively, denoting an overlap between isotope signatures of natural and anthropogenic sources. This study presents the first detailed spatial distributions of Cu and Zn isotope compositions for an aquatic system, and demonstrates the feasibility to use Cu isotopes as tracers of anthropogenic sources in coastal environments.

**Keywords:** metal isotopes; isotope tracers; geochemical isotopes; environmental pollution; coastal pollution; Toulon Bay;

## 1. Introduction

The trace metal contamination of coastal systems, notably by copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and lead (Pb), is a global environmental problem that imposes major risks for human health and ecological damages (Barletta et al., 2019; de Souza Machado et al., 2016; Naser, 2013). Toulon bay (NW Mediterranean Sea) is an emblematic coastal environment severely impacted by a multi-metallic contamination for Cu, Zn, Pb, As, and Hg originating from legacy to present recent naval and seashore human activities (marinas, industry, ship-building and maintenance, Navy). While a large load of these contaminants was released into the bay during the Second World War (WWII) as result of the French Navy fleet bombardment and scuttling (Tessier et al., 2011; Grasset, 2011), it has been reported trends of increasing on metal releasing by diffuse sources, including urban effluents, industry and anti-fouling paints (Coclet et al., 2018; Cossa et al., 2014; Dang et al., 2015a,b; Jean et al., 2012; Pougnet et al., 2014; Tessier et al., 2011).

Metal inputs of Cu, Zn and Pb into the bay since-WWII period are estimated to be about 595, 1091 and 817 tons respectively (Tessier et al., 2011). Most part of this stock (about 80%) rests confined in sediments along the military and civils ports of the bay, favored by the long water residence time and low hydrodynamic energy (Tessier et al., 2011). However, the rest of this metal inventory (~ 20%) is accessible to resuspension and transport toward the open sea associated to sediment particles (Dang et al., 2015a). This availability imposes major ecological and health risks to marine trophic webs and to local aquaculture activities, like as fishing and aquaculture farming (Dang et al., 2015b; Rossi and Jamet, 2008). Thus, understanding the origin of metal sources, pathways and sinks in this ecosystem are of utmost priority to develop effective environmental management, policy strategies, and monitoring programs.

To get a better appreciation of spatial distribution of sources and dynamics of metal contaminants, we combined complementary information from the stable isotopes of copper ( $^{63}\text{Cu}$ ,  $^{65}\text{Cu}$ ), zinc ( $^{64}\text{Zn}$ ,  $^{66}\text{Zn}$ ,  $^{67}\text{Zn}$ ,  $^{68}\text{Zn}$ ) and radiogenic Pb isotopes ( $^{206}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{207}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{208}\text{Pb}$ ) in conjunction with a high-resolution surface sediment sampling in Toulon bay. The variability of Pb isotope compositions in environmental samples is induced by the radioactive decay of uranium (U) and thorium (Th) radionuclides and depends on the initial proportion between the parental and radiogenic nuclides (Komárek et al., 2008). The magnitude of lead isotope fractionation due to natural and anthropic processes is negligible in comparison to variations induced by U and Th decay. Thus, Pb isotope ratios (eg.,  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ) are conservative through biogeochemical processes (Komárek et al., 2008). Therefore, their ratios are

convenient environmental tracers in the diverse or multiple pollution contexts like the urban atmosphere (Souto-Oliveira et al., 2019, 2018), mining operations and metallurgy (Dolgoplova et al., 2006), urban sewage, and agricultural practices (Charalampides and Manoliadis, 2002). Zinc isotopes fractionate significantly during redox and evaporation processes during ore refining (smelting and electroplating industry), and coal combustion (Gonzalez and Weiss, 2015; Kavner et al., 2008; Yin et al., 2015). This results in zinc manufactured products and byproducts being isotopically distinct from their natural compartments (Gonzalez and Weiss, 2015; Shiel et al., 2010; Sivry et al., 2008), allowing to trace Zn anthropogenic inputs and their transfers in the sediment-water-biota interfaces (Araújo et al., 2016; 2017a,b; 2018, 2019). Unlike Zn, Cu does not fractionate during smelting ore refining due its high boiling point (2562 °C). Manufactured, slag and other metallurgical by-products inherit the isotope signature of Cu ore concentrates (Šillerová et al., 2017). As Cu isotope compositions of minerals formed in high temperature (>250 °C) - such as chalcopyrite,  $\text{CuFeS}_2$  - are different from low temperature (<100°C) minerals - such as chalcocite,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$  - , Cu has become a promising tool to trace origins of archeological materials and archeometallurgical processes (Jansen et al., 2018; Klein et al., 2009). Since anthropogenic Cu may derive either from sulfides or oxide ore deposits, Cu isotope systematics can help discriminate the different anthropogenic and natural sources. In environmental studies, Cu isotopes have been a useful tracer in urban aerosol samples (Souto-Oliveira et al., 2019, 2018) and in surrounding soils impacted by metallurgical (Mihaljevič et al., 2019; Šillerová et al., 2017) and vineyard activities (Babcsányi et al., 2016; El Azzi et al., 2013), however their applicability in complex and reactive aquatic systems has been more challenging (Araújo et al., 2019; Petit et al., 2013; Viers et al., 2018).

The particular feature of Toulon bay with anomalous metal enrichment in nearshore sediments contrasting against more pristine offshore sediments, provides a unique opportunity to test a multi-isotope approach (Cu-Zn-Pb) as an environmental forensic tool able to deconvolute spatial source distribution of metal and inferring dispersion mechanisms for these contaminants along the land-sea continuum.

## **2. Materials and methods**

### **2.1 Study area and sampling**

Toulon Bay is an urbanized French coastal ecosystem of approximately 600,000 inhabitants separated from the open sea to the East and South by the peninsula of Giens, and

St.Mandrier, respectively (Tessier et al., 2011, Fig. 1). Two main urban rivers bring freshwater into this bay: the Las and Eygoutier rivers (Misson et al., 2016, Fig.1). A seawall built in the 19<sup>th</sup> century nearly isolates two sub-basins labelled the “Small bay” (9.8 km<sup>2</sup>, semi-enclosed), on the northwestern side, and “Large bay” (42.2 km<sup>2</sup>), on the southeastern part (Fig. 1). On the Small bay shore are located urbanized areas, an arsenal and military port, industrial, recreational and commercial ports and former shipyards (closed in 1989). The Large bay is open to Mediterranean Sea to its east, and hosts a single military zone and several small beaches and tourist ports. A wastewater treatment plant releases treated effluent to the open sea close to sampling point 34 (Fig.1), and a second in the western, outer part of the Bay (Cap Sicié, not visible in Fig. 1).

Fifty-five sampling sites of surface sediment (0-5 cm) were considered to this study (Fig.1), accounting for twenty-four sites in the Small bay (Cs, Mis, Petite Mer, SMS and Stations 1-19) and twenty-eight in the Large bay (Stations 21-52). The samples were collected between November 2008 and June 2009 in the frame of the CARTOCHIM project driven by the PROTEE laboratory at the University of Toulon. They were characterized for their trace metal concentrations and Pb isotopes (Dang et al., 2015b; Tessier et al., 2011), Sn and butyl-Sn species in previous studies (Pougnnet et al., 2014). Here, new aliquots from the same sediment samples were dissolved for trace elements and Cu, Zn and Pb isotope analyses.

## 2.2 Sample preparation and instrumental analysis

All reagents, labware acid cleaning and solution dilutions for elemental and isotope analyses were performed using 18.2 M $\Omega$ .cm<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>2</sub>O (Nanop System®) and ultra-pure acids (PlasmaPure *Plus* grade, SCP science®). Unsieved dry aliquots of sediments were digested in Teflon® bombs on a coated graphite block using multiple-step acid procedure with HF, HCl and HNO<sub>3</sub>. The final extract solution was split for subsequent elemental and isotope analyses. Procedural blanks and international certified reference materials (MESS-3 and PACS-2 from NRC – CNR®) were processed in each batch of sediment samples and followed the complete procedure (digestion, elemental analysis, ion chromatography and isotope measurements). Elemental concentrations of Cu, Zn, Pb, Cd, Ag, Ni, Co, Cr, V, Li, Mn, Al and Fe were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (Q-ICP-MS, iCAP Qc, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at the Laboratoire de Biogéochimie des Contaminants Métalliques (LBCM, Ifremer, Nantes). The accuracy, as average bias, was always within 10% of the certified values of both reference materials for considered elements. Lead isotope ratio (<sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>206</sup>Pb) measurements were performed with the same instrument. Mass bias and

instrumental drift were corrected with a standard bracketing method using the NIST SRM-981 standard reference material. The  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{206}\text{Pb}$  internal relative standard deviations average were of  $0.20 \pm 0.07\%$  and  $0.47 \pm 0.17\%$  (1s, n = 60), respectively, for unknown samples and sediment reference materials (MESS-3 and PACS-2). Lead isotope ratios obtained for the reference materials are included in the Table 1S (Supplementary Material).

For isotope analysis, Zn and Cu were isolated from matrix elements by ion-exchange chromatography technique adapted from protocol of Maréchal *et al.* (1999). The whole chromatography procedure was performed in an overpressured air-filtered cleanroom (Class 1000) at the *Laboratoire de Biogéochimie des Contaminants Métalliques* (LBCM, Ifremer, Nantes). The recovery yields (around  $100 \pm 10\%$ ) were systematically checked by ICP-MS at the same laboratory. The total procedural blanks were below 1% of Zn and Cu mass content of the samples. Copper and Zinc isotopes were measured at the Pôle Spectrométrie Océan (Ifremer, Brest, France) using MC-ICP-MS (Neptune, Thermo Scientific). Samples were dissolved in 2% (v/v)  $\text{HNO}_3$  and introduced at concentrations between 100 and 300  $\text{ng.g}^{-1}$  with a stable introduction system (SIS: cyclonic spray chamber) and a low flow PFA nebulizer ( $50 \mu\text{L.min}^{-1}$ ). The final isotope compositions are expressed as  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$  and  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$  values in relation to NIST SRM 976 and to the “JMC-Lyon” (Johnson Matthey Company 3-0749-L), respectively, as follow:

$$\delta^{66/64}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}} (\text{‰}) = \left( \frac{R\left(\frac{^{66}\text{Zn}}{^{64}\text{Zn}}\right)_{\text{sample}}}{R\left(\frac{^{66}\text{Zn}}{^{64}\text{Zn}}\right)_{\text{JMC}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

$$\delta^{65/63}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST 976}} (\text{‰}) = \left( \frac{R\left(\frac{^{65}\text{Cu}}{^{63}\text{Cu}}\right)_{\text{sample}}}{R\left(\frac{^{65}\text{Cu}}{^{63}\text{Cu}}\right)_{\text{NIST 976}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (\text{Eq.2})$$

Sediment reference materials measured three times along each analytical session were used for analytical quality control. The  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  and  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  average values obtained for marine sediments (MESS-3 and PACS-2) are reported in the Table 1S. External precision (2s) average obtained from two to three measurements of unknown samples and sediment certified

materials was  $\pm 0.05\%$  and  $\pm 0.06\%$  for  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  and  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$ , respectively. This corresponds to the uncertainty bars presented in the data plots (Fig. 5 and 6).

### 2.3 Enrichment Factor

The Enrichment Factor (EF) of trace metals is an index used to estimate the degree of anthropogenic contamination. Dilution effects related to grain size and mineralogical heterogeneities are decreased by the normalization of a metal concentration in the sample to the concentration of a reference element (Chen et al., 2009). In this work, aluminum (Al) was used as reference element and EF values were calculated as follows:

$$EF = \left( \frac{(M/Al)_{\text{sample}}}{(M/Al)_{\text{background}}} \right) \text{ (Eq.3)}$$

where “M” is the concentration of the metal of interest and “Al” is the reference element concentration, whereas “(M/Al)<sub>sample</sub>” represents the concentration ratio in the sample and “(M/Al)<sub>background</sub>” refers to the concentration ratio considered as free of anthropogenic influence, i.e., the representative of natural background. In this work, the sample station 31 was chosen as a representative natural sample based on its Pb isotope compositions ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb} = 1.1998$ , Table 1S), which is consistent with natural Pb isotope signatures referred in previous studies performed in Toulon bay ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}_{\text{natural}} = 1.195$ ; Dang et al., 2015b). EF values were classed as suggested in other studies (Chen *et al.*, 2007): EF < 1 indicates no enrichment; EF < 3 is minor enrichment; EF = 3–5 is moderate enrichment; EF = 5–10 is moderately severe enrichment; EF = 10–25 is severe enrichment; EF = 25–50 is very severe enrichment; and EF > 50 is extremely severe enrichment.

### 2.4 Statistics and geostatistical methods

All descriptive and multivariate statistics were performed using the SPSS® software v.18.0 (IBM®). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied as exploratory tool to examine and identify the main interrelations among the isotope and elemental variables. PCA is useful for simplifying or extracting main dataset information by grouping inter-correlated variables in a smaller number of underlying factors, also known as principal components (Meglen, 1992). Before run PCA, linearity of variables was checked by scatter plots, while sampling adequacy of the dataset and its suitability for data reduction was validated with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index and Bartlett's test, respectively. PCA factor loads were

calculated using the correlation matrix with varimax rotation. Factor loads express the influence of each variable in the principal components (Field, 2017). The sample factor scores were calculated using the regression method to assess the influence of each component in individual samples (Field, 2017; Araújo et al., 2017c;). The principal components (PCs) that had eigenvalues higher than 1 were selected for discussion (Mar da Costa et al., 2016; Mulholland et al., 2012). The communalities values of all variables equal or higher than 0.5 were used as thresholds for PCA results acceptance (Araújo et al., 2017c).

Interpolation maps were used for a better spatial visualization of elemental and isotope data and were performed using the Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW) method with ArcGIS® software v. 10.5(ESRI®). The IDW is the simplest interpolation method that uses the surrounding measured values to derive a prediction for an unmeasured location (Tessier et al., 2011).

### **3. Results and discussions**

#### *3.1 Enrichment factor values and spatial distribution of trace metals*

All elemental isotope data for trace metals are presented in Table 1S (Supplementary Material). The calculated enrichment factors are shown in Table 2S (Supplementary Material). Copper, Zn, Pb, Ag and Cd present the highest enrichment factor values in sediments of Toulon bay (Fig. 2). In the Small bay, Zn, Ag, Pb reached severe enrichment levels ( $10 < EF < 25$ ), while Cu and Cd presented a very severe enrichment ( $25 < EF < 50$ ). EF decrease significantly for these elements in the Large bay (Fig.2), reaching levels of minor enrichment ( $EF < 3$ , for Zn, Ag, Pb, Cd) and moderate enrichment ( $3 < EF < 5$ , for Cu). It is noted in the Large bay two anomalous EF Cu values for the sampling stations 37 and 42 (Fig. 2).

The elements Li, V, Cr, Co and Ni display a homogenous distribution between the Small and Large bays, with low EF values ( $< 3$ ). These low values indicate no enrichment or a minor enrichment, suggesting few or practically no anthropogenic influence (Fig. 2). Overall, Mn also displayed low EF values ( $< 3$ ) through the bay, but with a noticeable enrichment in the Large bay (average EF of 1.70) in relation to Small bay (average EF of 0.9). This increase in Mn contents in surface sediments is apparent in the Fig.2. The most exceptional sampling stations are 37, 47, 50, reaching the highest Mn EF values ( $3 < EF < 5$ , Fig. 2).

PCA analysis identified two main components, together explaining 82% of total variance of all dataset. The PCA component plots (Fig.3a) provides a general pattern of metal associations in the Small and Large bays. Supported by EF values, these associations show that: (i) Cu, Zn, Pb, Ag and Cd represent elements of dominant anthropogenic origin and are grouped along the first component (x-axis); (ii) Li, Co, V, Cr and Ni represent elements predominantly issued from natural sources and are grouped along the second component (y-axis); and (iii) that Mn stands apart in relation to the other elemental groups representing an element of dominant natural origin influenced by diagenetic processes. The diagenesis occurring in sediments under anoxic conditions in the Small bay reduces Mn oxyhydroxides to Mn(II), which is mobilized into the pore waters, and subsequently precipitating as Mn-oxides or carbonates in the dominant oxic conditions of the Large bay (Araújo et al., 2017c; Dang et al., 2015a). This diagenetic Mn remobilization from the Small bay toward the Large bay explains the well-marked Mn enrichment zones between these systems (Fig. 2).

The plot of sample factor scores (Fig.3b) allow verify the weight of each component obtained in the PCA analysis for individual sediment samples. For the surface sediments located in the Small bay, it is observed an association with elements of anthropogenic origin identified in the first component (Cu, Zn, Pb, Ag, Cd). On the other hand, both Small and Large bays present similar factor scores for the second component associated to natural elements (Li, Co, V, Cr and Ni). This reflects a homogenous natural metal baseline within the entire bay. Also, the associations and spatial distribution of trace metals match well with the spatial patterns of EF values observed in the maps of interpolation (Fig. 2). In summary, multivariate statistics and geostatistical approach shows a clear inter-bay contrast, highlighting the highest concentrations for Cu, Zn, Pb and Ag in the vicinity of civil and military ports with a strong punctual anomaly at the MIS station (collected inside the military zone). Moreover, an additional anthropogenic metal input coming from the basin drainage and delivered by the Las river water outlet is plausible.

In the following sections, Pb, Cu and Zn isotope systematics are discussed in order to characterize the natural and anthropogenic signatures and possibly to deconvolute potential multiple anthropogenic sources. Use of Cu and Zn stable isotopes as environmental tracers of surficial sediments requires that early diagenetic processes do not alter significantly source isotope records and that the sediment column remains undisturbed. Diagenetic reactions induced by microbial degradation of organic matter change redox conditions in sedimentary strata in the surrounding water, which in turn, promotes mineral dissolution or the formation of new mineral phases, including sulfides, carbonates and oxides (Machado et al., 2008;

Mason, 2013). These mechanisms of adsorption of metals onto mineral surfaces, or in their inclusion in crystal lattices control their mobility and speciation and affect their isotope fractionation (Dekov et al., 2014; Ducher et al., 2016; Jamieson-Hanes et al., 2017; Ratié et al., 2015; Veeramani et al., 2015). In Toulon bay, earlier examination of sediments and porewaters demonstrated increases of trace metals concentrations (Co, Cu, Pb) due to such processes mediated by Mn and Fe oxyhydroxides reduction under anoxic conditions (Dang et al., 2015a). However, the metal loads delivered from sediments to the overlying water column account for less than 1% of sediment pool, suggesting that changes of the Cu and Zn isotope compositions due to such biogeochemical processes are negligible. This is coherent with other studies that have also pointed out that Cu and Zn isotope compositions in bottom or particulate sediments are essentially controlled by source mixing processes (Araújo et al., 2017a; Babcsányi et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2009; Guinoiseau et al., 2018; Thapalia et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). The second criterion based on integrity of the stratigraphy is met since geochemical profiles of these trace metals in dated cores of Toulon bay were consistent with historical events of metal contamination indicating a good preservation of geochemical records (Tessier et al., 2011).

From an ecological perspective, understanding the diagenesis effects on elemental speciation and bioavailability at sediment-water interface are of prime importance to determine the bioaccumulation routes of metals in the trophic chain. This can occur directly from the sediment, as in the case of benthic organisms living in the sediments, or by the dissolved fraction of interstitial surface waters, in the case of primary producers (phytoplankton, macrophytes and bacteria) (Ahlf et al., 2009; Briant et al., 2017; Chouvelon et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2008; Zuykov et al., 2013). Then, a better understanding of the diagenesis influence on Cu and Zn isotope fractionation at sediment-water interface will be helpful to exploit the isotope records in biological tissues.

### *3.2 Pb isotope systematics*

Bulk lead concentrations varied from 13 to 470  $\mu\text{g.g}^{-1}$ , matching well with the previous concentration range reported by Tessier et al. (2011). The Small bay has an average Pb concentration of 144  $\mu\text{g.g}^{-1}$ , while the Large bay has an almost threefold lower Pb concentration at around 49  $\mu\text{g.g}^{-1}$  (Table 1).

Lead isotope ratios ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$ ) are ranging from 1.1591 to 1.1998 in the entire sediment dataset. Averages ratios of  $1.1664 \pm 0.0043$  and  $1.1763 \pm 0.0079$  are observed in the Small and Large bays, respectively (Table 1). The lowest  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratio values found in

sediments from the Small bay are close to the anthropogenic signature value proposed by Dang et al., 2015 ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}_{\text{anthrop.}} \sim 1.166 \pm 0.003$ , Fig. 4), while sediments from the Large bay tend to approximate a more natural baseline ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}_{\text{natural}} \sim 1.18 - 1.20$ , Fig. 4). Plotting  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios vs. EF Pb values denotes a binary source mixing processes between natural and anthropogenic end members (Fig. 5a). The latter dominates in the Small bay and is attributed to multi-uses of Pb in the Navy and industrial activities (Dang et al., 2015b). The spatial interpolation map of  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios indicates a gradual attenuation of Pb contamination from the Small bay toward the open sea, as a result of transport and dilution by natural particles (Fig. 4).

### 3.3 Cu isotope systematics

Copper concentrations range from 4.4 to 666  $\mu\text{g. g}^{-1}$ , while  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  ranged between -0.79 and +0.34‰ (Table 1). In the Small bay, the average Cu concentration reach 147  $\mu\text{g. g}^{-1}$  and an average  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  of  $-0.17 \pm 0.19\%$  (1s), while in the Large bay, Cu concentration average is lower (ca. 32  $\mu\text{g. g}^{-1}$ ), and  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  tends to more positive and heavier values ( $+0.08 \pm 0.23\%$ , 1s).

The contrast between Cu isotopes fingerprints in sediments of Small and Large bays is noticeable in the Fig. 4. In the plot of  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  vs.  $1/[\text{Cu}]$  (Fig. 5b) well-defined data clusters are identified for each bay. However, in both sub-bays isotopic outliers are observed: the Small bay clusters overall light Cu isotope compositions, but the sampling stations MIS ( $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = +0.19$ ), Petit Mer ( $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = +0.01$ ) and St.16 ( $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = +0.34$ ) stand out with positive  $\delta$ -values (Fig. 5b). In turn, the Large bay is most dominated by positive and narrow range of  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values, from -0.04 to +0.24‰, but the negative  $\delta$ -values of sampling St.25 ( $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = -0.22$ ) and 26 ( $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = -0.79$ ) diverge from the Large bay clustering data (Fig. 5b). In terms of EF Cu values, the St.37 and 42 differ from the rest of sediments of the Large bay. Unfortunately, we do not dispose of their Cu isotope compositions. Disregarding these outlier data, a general trend toward lighter  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  associated with an increase of Cu concentrations or EF Cu (Fig. 5c) is noticeable, which suggests a source mixing process involving anthropogenic and natural sources.

The overall positive and heavier  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values and associated low Cu EF values in the Large bay reflect a dominant signature of natural Cu. As coastal sediments integrate inorganic and organic compounds derived from detrital and autochthonous materials – such as, clay minerals, amorphous solids, biogenic carbonates, organic debris- (Bianchi, 2007; de Souza Machado et al., 2016; Turner and Millward, 2002), a finer description of Cu

speciation/partition and isotope compositions would require additional data characterization of samples (e.g. with synchrotron-based X-ray absorption). Fortunately, previous application of selective chemical leaching (ascorbate, acid dilute and alkaline solution) have already indicated that Fe/Mn oxy-hydroxides and sulphides are the main carrier phases controlling Cu mobility in Toulon bay (Dang et al., 2015). Clay minerals play this important role on Cu dynamics due to their abundance and high charge surface. In these solid phases, Cu may occur within the lattice of aluminosilicates, adsorbed on the surface of clays and amorphous solids or complexed by organic matter (Sparks, 2005). As a trace component of silicates, Cu probably inherits the lithogenic Cu isotope composition close to the average of the Upper Continental Crust (UCC,  $+0.07 \pm 0.10\%$ , Liu et al., 2015; Savage et al., 2015). For other carrier phases, laboratory experiments under controlled conditions show a preferential association of the heavy isotope into solid surfaces, such as oxy-hydroxides (Balistrieri et al., 2008; Pokrovsky et al., 2008) and organic complexes (Bigalke et al., 2010). Therefore, the natural Cu partition in sediments and associated isotope signatures of the Large bay seems consistent with previous field and laboratory findings reported in the literature.

On the other hand, the outlier  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values corresponding to the sampling stations 25 and 26 are similar to the light isotope signatures found in the Small bay. This can be related to a zone of dredge spoils near St. Mandrier (Fig.1) or a preferential hydrodynamic deposition of fine particles enriched in contaminants in this area (Tessier et al. 2011). This area was used in the 1980's for contaminated spoils from the north of the Small bay. Subsequent transport and dispersion promoted by reworking and resuspension (large boat traffic, storm events) of the Cu-enriched dredged sediments could explain the anomalous value of -0.79 at St.26.

The dominant anthropogenic Cu signature in the Small bay (Fig. 4) tending to negative  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values can result from the mixing of ancient and modern Cu anthropogenic sources by reworking of sediments. It potentially includes a broad spectrum of Cu materials employed in harbor and Navy activities, including alloys, plumbing, antifouling paints, warfare, etc.

In turn, the sample at MIS station, collected in the military harbor, and that presents the highest Cu concentration in the sampling grid, constitutes a remarkably punctual anthropogenic source with a positive  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}} = +0.19 \pm 0.05\%$  (2s). The isotope signature could be attributed to the burning of warfare material enriched in Cu (explosives, driving bands, fuses and shell casings) during WWII. In 1942, The French Navy scuttled more than 70 ships including battleships, cruises, destroyers and submarines (Grasset, 2011) of its own

navy fleet to avoid its capture by the Nazi forces (Grasset, 2011). It is evident that such source attribution requires additional Cu isotope characterization of ancient and modern industrialized materials as well historical information of manufacturing processes and ore purchasing. High contamination of Cu and other metals induced by bullet shells have been reported for battlefields of the Great War: in Verdun (France), burning of arsenic-containing shells resulted in anomalous concentrations in soils for Cu ( $9113 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ), Pb ( $5777 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ ) and Zn ( $90190 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , Bausinger et al., 2007), while in the region around Ypres (Belgium) was estimated an input of 2800 t of Cu in the upper 0.5 m of soil due to shelling accumulation (Meirverne et al., 2008). These findings support our preliminary interpretation of Cu isotope signatures in the military zone of Toulon bay.

Similarly to “MIS” sample, the “Petite Mer” and “St.16” samples present also relatively heavy  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  values. However, Petite Mer sample has a very low Cu content (ca.  $15 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , EF Cu = 1.9) and a typical radiogenic  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratio (1.1801), which supports a natural Cu origin, as lattice component of minerals. A possible explanation for its heavy  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  and low Cu concentration value would be a granulometry effect associated to coarser mineral grains (e.g. quartz) with low mineral surface charge that sorbs anthropogenic Cu (Sparks, 2005). Instead, the sampling St.16 (c.a.  $44 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , EF Cu = 5.0) is moderately enriched, suggesting that its heavy  $\delta^{65}\text{Cu}_{\text{NIST}}$  value (+0.34‰) reflects an anthropogenic origin. Several sedimentary archives studied previously by Dang *et al.* 2015a have showed a remarkable peak of Cu concentration corresponding to WWII events followed by a continuous decreasing of Cu inputs in the period post-WWII. However, the sediment core collected near this zone presented no attenuation of Cu concentrations in the profile. This could be explained by sediment reworking of Cu-enriched layers and mixing of Cu isotope compositions related to past events of WWII impacts. Alternatively, a punctual unknown anthropogenic source cannot be discarded. A temporal analysis of Cu isotopes will be useful to discriminate past and present anthropogenic inputs, and hence, elucidating this question.

### 3.4 Zn isotope systematic

Zinc concentrations varied from 19 to  $1471 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ , while  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  ranged from -0.27 to +0.28‰ (Table 1, Fig. 4). Unlike Cu and Pb isotope systems, Zn isotope compositions in the Small and Large bays greatly overlap:  $+0.06 \pm 0.05$  (1s) and  $+0.06 \pm 0.11$  (1s), respectively. Indeed,  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  and Zn concentrations do not correlate (Fig. 6a) neither in the Small or Large bay, limiting interpretations in terms of source mixing processes. Interestingly, Zn concentrations correlate very well with Pb concentrations and  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios (Fig. 6b,c).

This allows using Pb isotopes to identify the best representative Zn anthropogenic and Zn natural samples. Using the Pb isotope ratios associated to natural ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb} \sim 1.180$ ) and anthropogenic ( $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb} \sim 1.165$ ) sources as cut-off lines (Fig. 6d), we sort them in two groups. The natural Zn samples with Zn concentrations lower than  $60 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  and a  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  average of  $+0.14 \pm 0.12 \text{ ‰}$  (2s, n= 9), and anthropogenic Zn samples with average concentrations of  $383 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$  and  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  values of  $+0.04 \pm 0.08 \text{ ‰}$  (2s, n= 12). These  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  values estimated as the best representative of natural and anthropogenic Zn sources are statically equal (test  $t$ ,  $p > 0.5$ ) and show an overlap between isotope signatures of natural and anthropogenic sources in Toulon bay.

It is noted that the estimated anthropogenic  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  values of  $+0.04 \pm 0.08$  (2s, n= 12) are close to the isotope range reported for Zn sulfide (from  $+0.13$  to  $+0.15 \text{ ‰}$ ) and silicates ores ( $-0.06$  to  $+0.41 \text{ ‰}$ , (Mondillo et al., 2018), and are clearly distinguished from those attributed to industrial atmospheric emissions ( $< -0.6 \text{ ‰}$ , Souto-Oliveira *et al.*, 2018; from  $-0.52$  to  $+0.02 \text{ ‰}$ , Mattielli *et al.*, 2009; from  $-0.27$  to  $+0.15 \text{ ‰}$ , Ochoa *et al.*, 2016; from  $+0.16$  to  $+0.63 \text{ ‰}$ , Cloquet *et al.*, 2006), or slags ( $\delta^{66}\text{Zn} > 0.5 \text{ ‰}$ , Yin *et al.*, 2005; Araújo et al., 2017a,b). The final refined Zn metal ( $\text{Zn}^0$ ) approximates the average Zn isotope composition of ores (John et al., 2007), when Zn processing yields in metallurgical plants are higher than 95% (Sivry et al., 2008; Yin et al., 2015). This implies that Zn anthropogenic signatures of alloys used in shipyard or in shells are similar and thus, not discriminable by Zn isotopes (John et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2015).

Natural Zn inputs in coastal systems are associated to inorganic particles issued from weathered soils and lithogenic materials, detrital and authigenic organic matter and in-situ formed minerals, as carbonates and solid sulfide minerals (Araújo et al., 2017a; Mortimer and Rae, 2000; Zhang et al., 2018). The detrital-inorganic materials dominate sediment compositions of Toulon bay. However, the estimated natural  $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC}}$  values of  $+0.14 \pm 0.12 \text{ ‰}$  are slightly lighter than the Zn isotopes values reported to the Upper Earth Crust, estimated as  $+0.28 \pm 0.05 \text{ ‰}$  (Chen et al., 2013) and other unpolluted sediments from estuaries worldwide: ( $+0.28 \text{ ‰}$ , Sepetiba bay, Araújo et al., 2017a;  $+0.3 \text{ ‰}$ , Gironde estuary, Petit et al., 2015 ;  $+0.3 \text{ ‰}$ , the Loire estuary, Araújo et al., 2019). This slight enrichment in light isotopes could be attributed to the regional geology.

Overall, igneous, sedimentary and metamorphic rocks worldwide present homogenous isotope compositions clustering around  $+0.2$  to  $+0.3 \text{ ‰}$  (Moynier et al., 2017), but discrete and detectable Zn isotope heterogeneities on geological settings may occur as result of magmatic differentiation, weathering, crustal subduction processes, mantle melting and volcanisms, and

past biological activity (Chen et al., 2013; Doucet et al., 2018; Inglis et al., 2017; John et al., 2017; Kunzmann et al., 2013; Lv et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017). Recent studies have demonstrated how Zn isotope heterogeneity in the continental lithosphere is useful to elucidate petrogenesis evolution, e.g, for discriminating the influence of differentiation processes from melting products in felsic rocks (Doucet et al., 2018). The local geology of Toulon bay basin encompasses mainly Permian and Triassic sediments, Paleozoic metamorphic rocks ([www.geoportail.gouv.fr](http://www.geoportail.gouv.fr)). Evoking possible mechanism of Zn isotope fractionation during high-temperature such as magmatic differentiation could explain this slight tendency to lighter isotope values in the local geology of Toulon bay. Alternatively, this light Zn isotope geochemical baseline of sediments of Toulon bay could be associated to the contribution of sedimentary rocks sources. Weathering processes occurring in the formation of these rocks lead to the progressive breakdown of primary minerals and the associated formation of phyllosilicates and iron oxides depleted in Zn content (Suhr et al., 2018). Changes on Zn-mineral bearing phases combined with biotically- and kinetically-controlled sorption reactions in Fe-oxyhydroxides and clay minerals surfaces could explain the enrichment of light Zn isotopes present in the weathered residual material (Guinoiseau et al., 2017, 2016; Little et al., 2014; Suhr et al., 2018). In turn, the heavy Zn isotope would be leached and enriched in the dissolved phase (Little et al., 2016). Further studies focused in the Mediterranean French geology will be helpful to establish the baseline of Zn isotopes in the region.

#### **4. Conclusions**

Toulon bay surface sediments present a remarkably anthropogenic contamination for Cu, Zn, Pb, Ag and Cd elements. Overall, these anthropogenic elements display a similar spatial distribution in the Toulon sub-bays, with the highest levels of contamination occurring in the Small bay and the lowest in the Large bay. Multivariate and geostatistics approaches show a clear inter-bay differences, highlighting the highest concentrations for Cu, Zn, Pb and Ag in proximity to civil and military ports and the Las river outlet. However, these methods cannot deconvolute the multiple origins of Pb, Zn, and Cu.

The Pb isotope systematics indicate a binary source mixing process involving industrial and natural sources, while Cu isotope records discriminated, at least two distinct anthropogenic signatures, preliminarily interpreted as associated to shipyard alloys and warfare materials. In turn, Zn isotope composition of natural and anthropogenic sources

overlap. For Zn, analysis of specific mineral phases of sediments rather than bulk could be more effective to decipher its natural and anthropogenic origins.

This study presents the first detailed spatial distribution of Pb, Cu and Zn isotope compositions for an aquatic system and demonstrates the use of Cu isotopes as tracers of anthropogenic sources in coastal environments. Considering the crucial role of surface sediments in the transfer of metal contaminants to water column and biota, this first isotope characterization will be useful to track the metal contaminant pathways from abiotic compartments to marine food webs in future studies. Further investigations on Cu, Zn and Pb isotope compositions of surface sediments will be useful to identify potential new anthropogenic inputs, and thus, to better assess the change of source apportionment since WWII.

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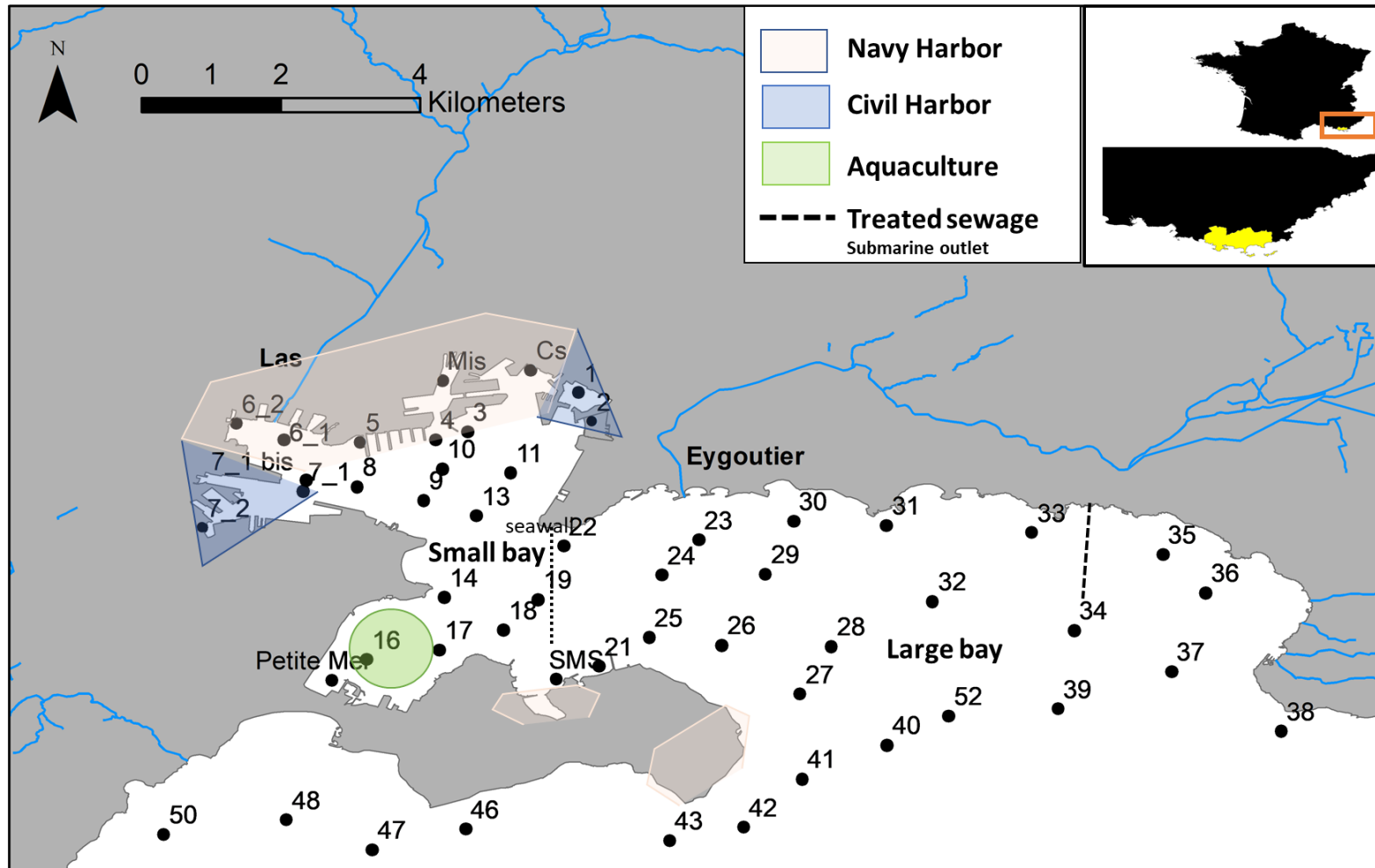
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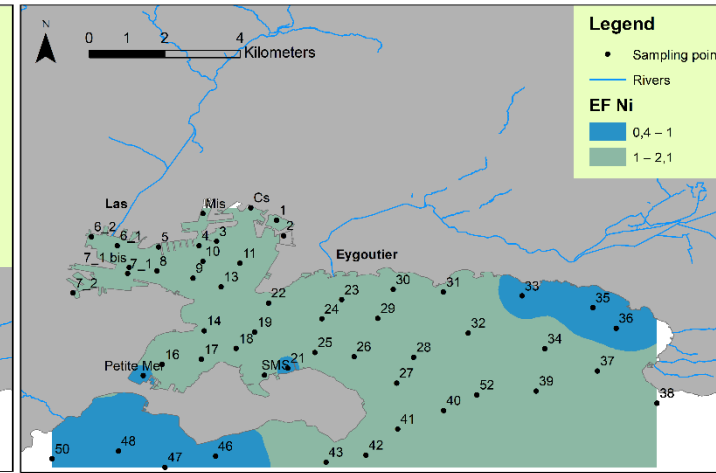
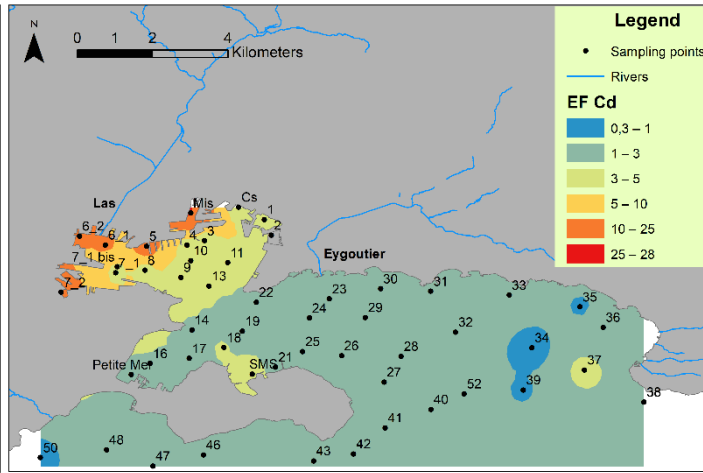
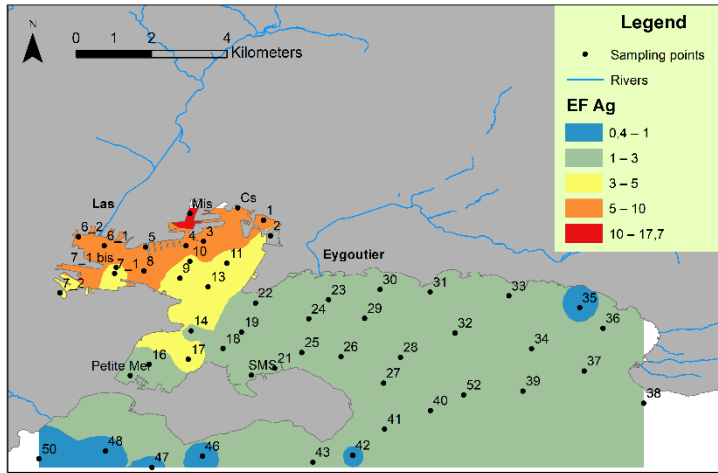
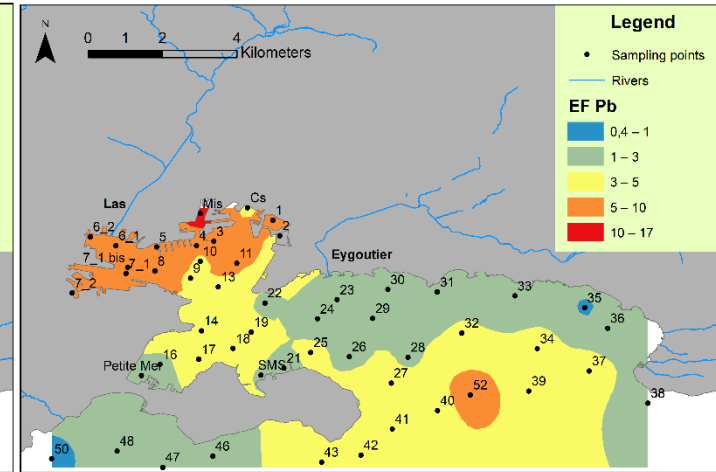
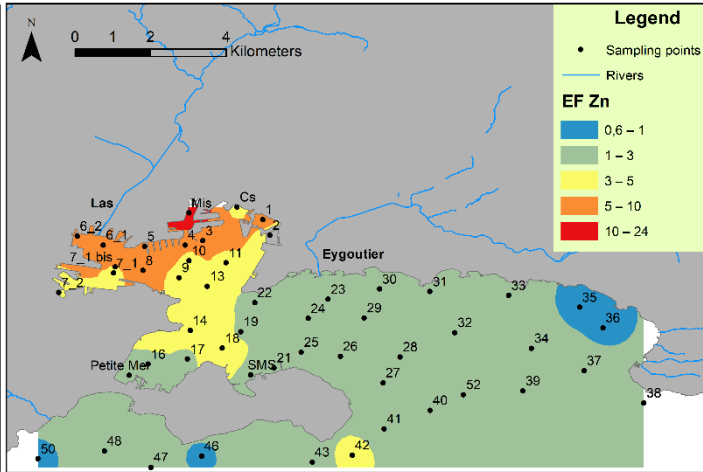
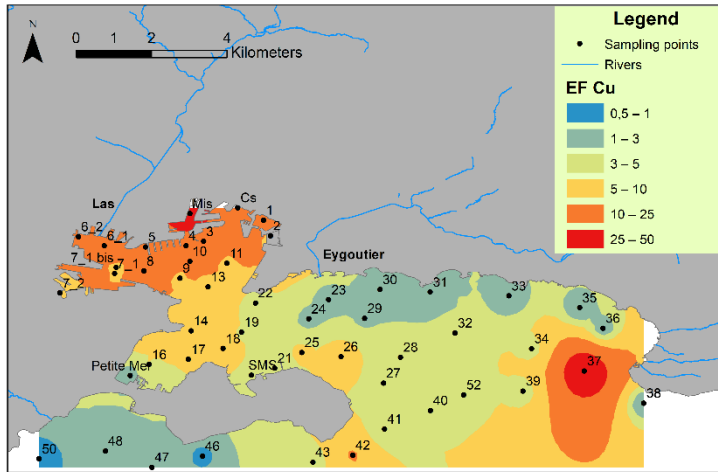
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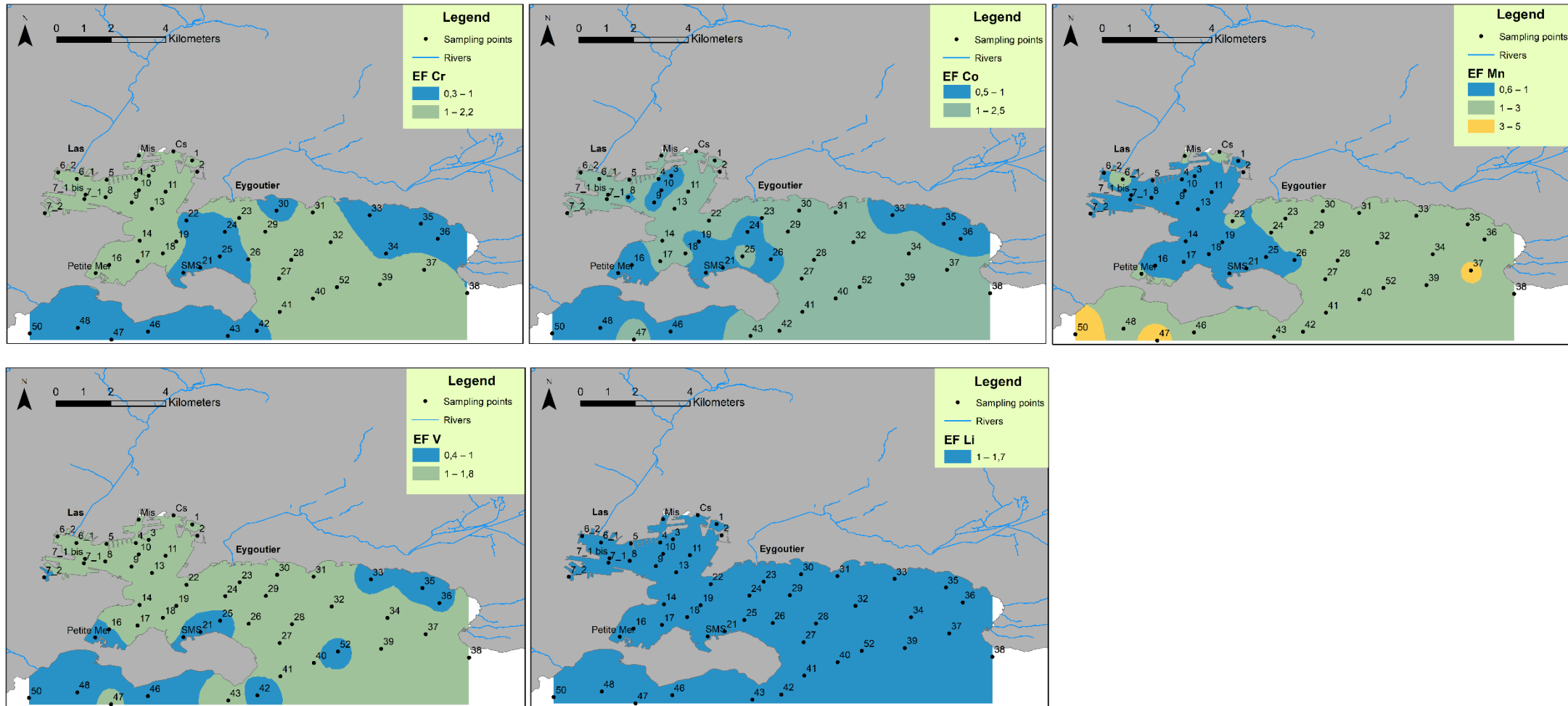
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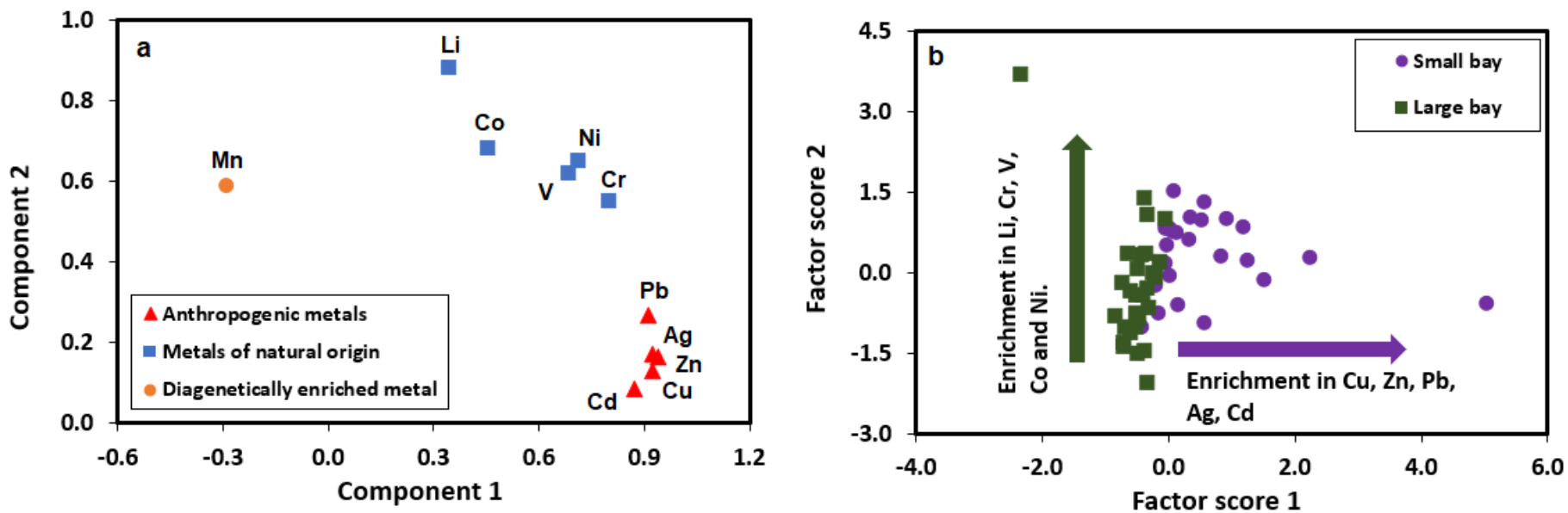


**Fig. 1.** Map of Toulon bay and sampling sites of surface sediments.





**Fig. 2.** Interpolation maps of trace elements enrichment factors (EF) in surface sediments. Enrichment factor values were classed as suggested in other studies (Chen *et al.*, 2007): EF < 1 indicates no enrichment; EF < 3 for minor enrichment; EF = 3–5 for moderate enrichment; EF = 5–10 for moderately severe enrichment; EF = 10–25 for severe enrichment; EF = 25–50 for very severe enrichment; and EF > 50 for extremely severe enrichment.



**Fig. 3.** Principal component analysis of surface sediments from Toulon bay: (a) the main components and factor loads; (b) the sample factor scores.

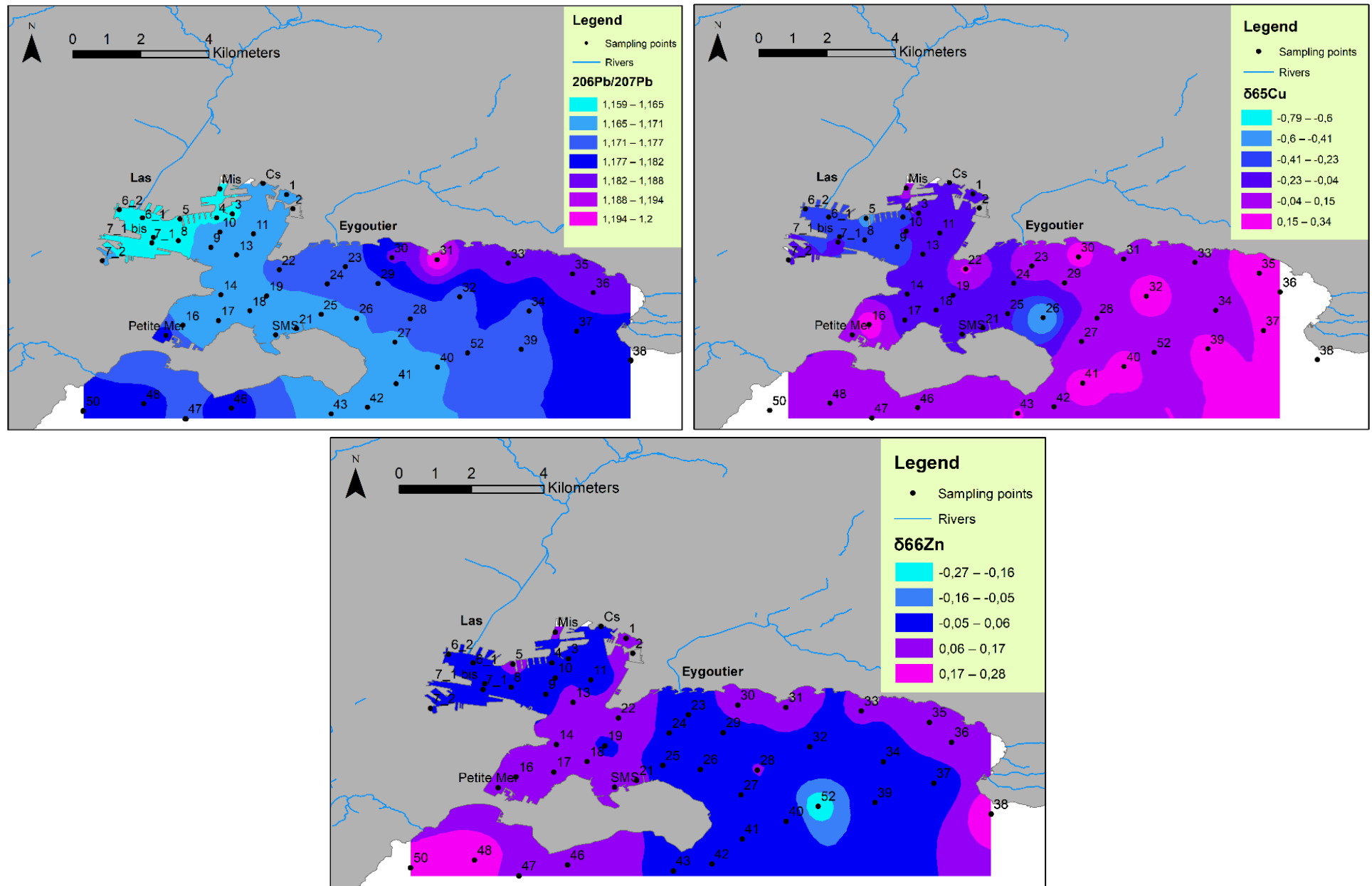
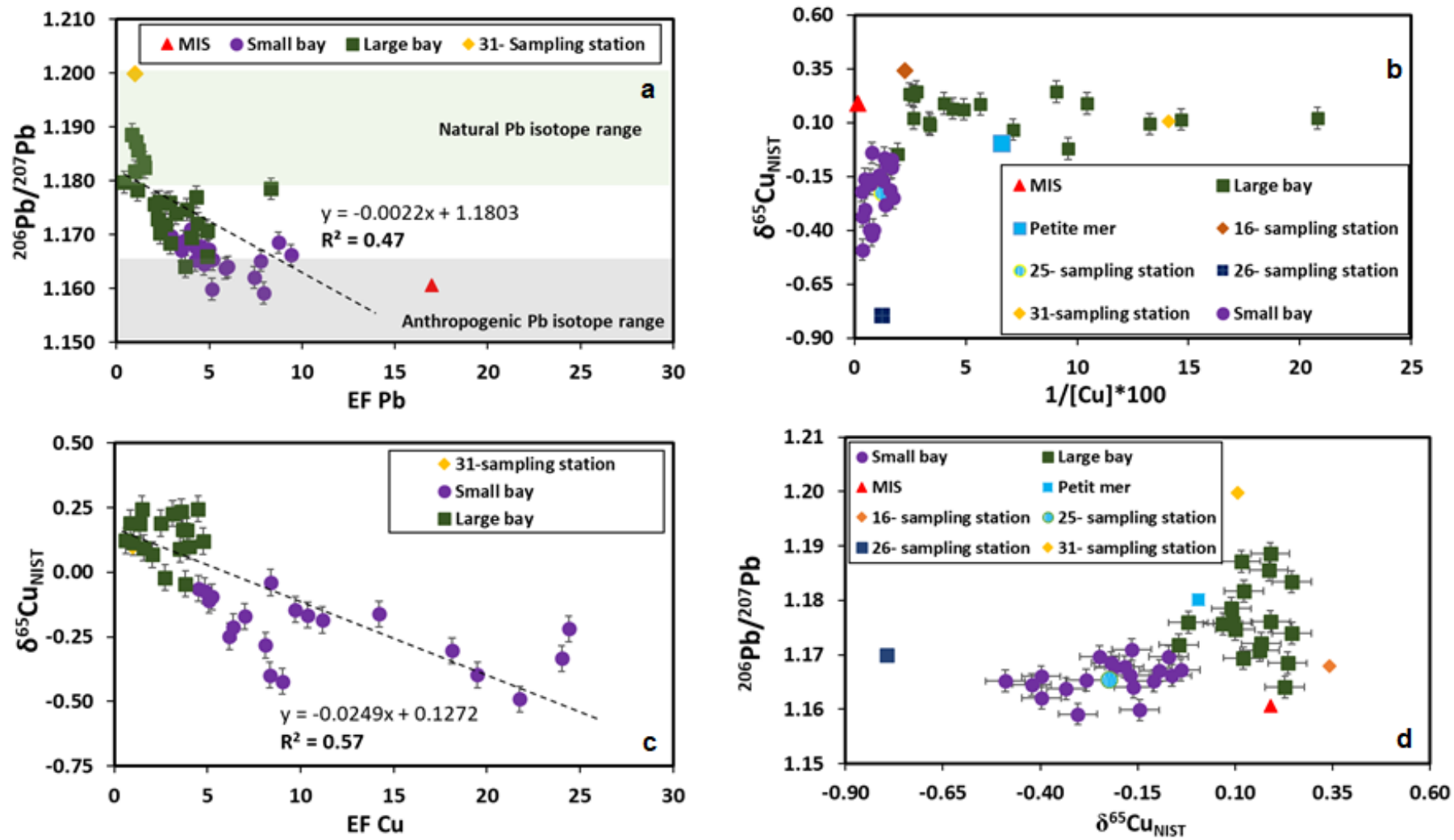
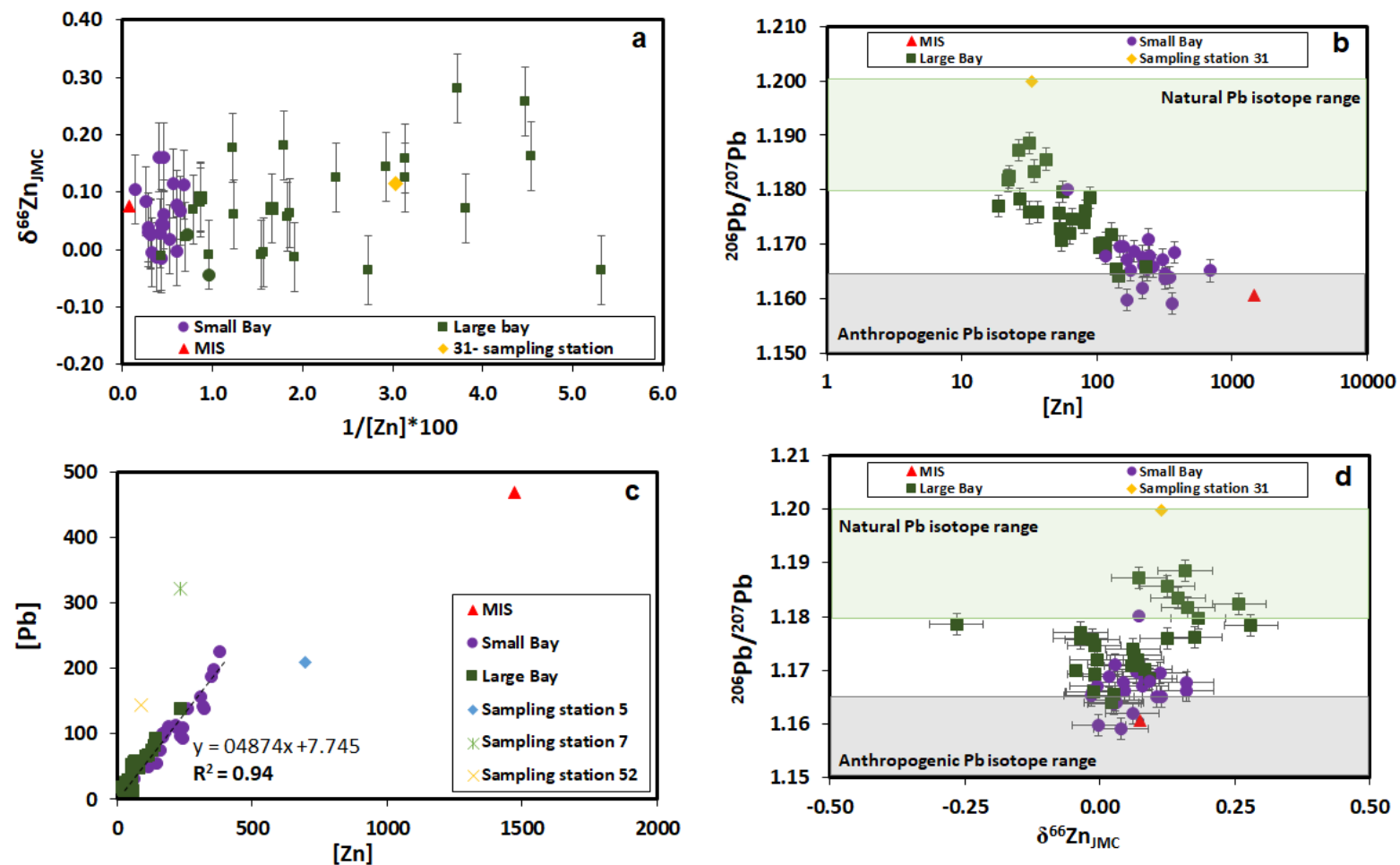


Fig. 4. Interpolation map of isotope compositions of Pb, Cu and Zn in surface sediments.



**Fig. 5.** Plots of elemental and isotope data of Cu and Pb. Copper concentrations [Cu] are expressed in  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$ .



**Fig. 6.** Plots of elemental and isotope data of Zn. Zinc concentrations  $[\text{Zn}]$  are expressed in  $\mu\text{g. g}^{-1}$ .

**Table 1.** Copper, zinc and lead data description of Toulon bay sediments.

<b>All Toulon bay</b>						
	<i>n</i>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation (1s)</b>
$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	44	1.13	-0.79	0.34	-0.05	0.24
$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	52	0.55	-0.27	0.28	0.06	0.09
$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$	52	0.0407	1.1591	1.1998	1.1717	0.0081
<b>Cu</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	52	662	4	666	85	111
<b>Zn</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	52	1452	19	1471	178	223
<b>Pb</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	52	456	13	470	93	83
<b>Small bay</b>						
	<i>n</i>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation (1s)</b>
$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	23	0.83	-0.49	0.34	-0.17	0.19
$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	24	0.18	-0.02	0.16	0.06	0.05
$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$	24	0.0210	1.1591	1.1801	1.1664	0.0043
<b>Cu</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	24	651	15	666	147	137
<b>Zn</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	24	1411	60	1471	302	278
<b>Pb</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	24	438	32	470	144	94
<b>Large bay</b>						
	<i>n</i>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Minimum</b>	<b>Maximum</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation (1s)</b>
$\delta^{65}\text{Cu}$ (‰)	21	1.03	-0.79	0.24	0.08	0.23
$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ (‰)	28	0.55	-0.27	0.28	0.06	0.11
$^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$	28	0.0357	1.1641	1.1998	1.1763	0.0079
<b>Cu</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	28	141	4	145	32	32
<b>Zn</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	28	214	19	233	72	50
<b>Pb</b> ( $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ )	28	131	13	145	49	35