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9	Organophosphate esters (OPEs) in the marine environment: spatial distribution and
10	profiles in French coastal bivalves
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19	Abstract
20	Organophosphate esters (OPEs), chemicals widely used in industrial production, electronics
21	and domestic products, have become ubiquitous environmental contaminants. In this study,
22	the levels and spatial distribution of 11 OPEs (aryl, alkyl and halogenated) were investigated
23	in over 100 samples of filter-feeding bivalves collected yearly between 2014 and 2021 at sites
24	of contrasted pressure along the French coasts. OPEs were found in virtually all samples,
25	indicating their widespread spatial and temporal occurrence in coastal bivalves and the
26	relevance of their biomonitoring. The median concentrations were between 0.4 (TMPP) and
27	4.9 ng g ⁻¹ dry weight (TCIPP), with TCIPP, TNBP and EHDPP found at the highest median
28	values. TCEP and TBOEP were not frequently detected overall, but each year, the same sites

showed repeatedly high concentrations. Structurally-related OPEs generally correlated, but the geographical distributions were not predictable from known anthropogenic pressures (population in the catchment area, industry), with little comparability with other hydrophobic contaminants. If the relation between sources of OPEs and bioaccumulated levels remains uncertain, local hotspots, rather than riverine/atmospheric transportation, could account for their geographical distribution. A systematic review of the levels of OPEs found in filter-feeding bivalves worldwide revealed comparable levels in our study with those reported elsewhere; however, the levels across and within (when available) studies generally spanned several orders of magnitude, indicating high spatial and temporal heterogeneity. In view of the growing concerns regarding OPEs, this study provides essential reference data for future studies of their occurrence on European coasts and supports the need for a more systematic (bio)monitoring of this class of contaminant.

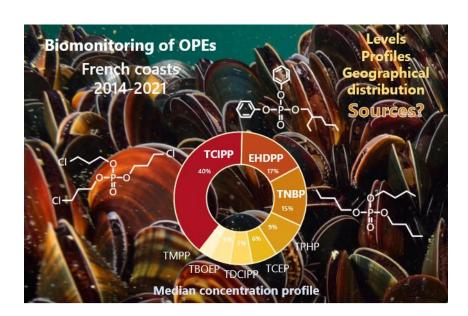
Keywords

Coastal marine environment; Bioaccumulation; Shellfish; Flame retardants; Plasticizers

Highlights

- Investigation of OPEs in bivalves from French coasts collected between 2014–2021
- 47 TDCIPP, TPHP and TNBP found in over half of the samples
- 48 Highest median concentrations were found for TCIPP, EHDPP, and TNBP
- 49 OPE profiles are site-specific

Graphical abstract



1. Introduction

methylphenyl phosphate (TMPP), and 2-ethylhexyl diphenyl phosphate (EHDPP). Beside their high usage, OPEs are suspected to exert toxic effects on humans and ecosystems (Wei et al., 2015). OPEs have been proposed as an alternative to brominated flame retardants (BFRs), since the production and use of several BFRs, including penta-, octa-, and decabromodiphenyl ethers (PBDEs) have been banned for their persistence, toxicity, and bioaccumulation (Stockholm Convention, 2009; van der Veen and de Boer, 2012). Unlike BFRs, OPEs differ widely in their structures and chemical and physical properties, resulting in potentially contrasted environmental behaviour within this class. OPEs span $\log K_{ow}$ from 0.8 for TEP to 9.49 for TEHP (Reemtsma et al., 2008). Light-weight OPEs, such as TEP and tris(2chloroethyl) phosphate (TCEP), have high volatility, with a vapor pressure higher than that of naphthalene (a known volatile contaminant) and 6 orders of magnitude higher than the least volatile of the HPV OPEs, TMPP and TEHP (van der Veen and de Boer, 2012). The soil adsorption coefficient and bioconcentration factors computed in their study also showed a wide range of values. OPEs are released from consumer and industrial products to the environment by volatilization, leaching, and abrasion (Xie et al., 2022). Emissions from direct industrial inputs, wastewater treatment facilities, and e-waste recycling activities are of importance, and their relative contributions depend on the anthropogenic pressures on a given watershed (Liu et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2015). To better apportion OPE sources in the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay (China), the correlations between water concentrations from 16 sites were tested against several socio-economic indicators (Gao et al., 2021). The authors showed that population density, wastewater discharge, manufacturing industry, construction industry, vehicles, and shipping transport were determinants of OPE levels. In addition to these multiple sources, leaching from plastic debris is also a speculated source (Xie et al., 2022), but a substantiated evaluation of its magnitude with regards to other sources is lacking.

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Riverine and atmospheric transportation, as well as direct coastal discharges, lead to their presence in the global ocean and in remote marine regions (McDonough et al., 2018).

First detected in river waters in the USA (Sheldon and Hites, 1978), OPEs have been reported ubiquitously in the marine environment. In surface waters of the German Bight, the total concentration of 16 OPEs ranged from 5 to 50 ng L⁻¹, with a riverine export of 50 t y⁻¹ into the North Sea from the German tributaries alone (Bollmann et al., 2012). Concentrations of individual OPEs in harbour waters in the United Kingdom were as high as 100–260 ng L⁻¹ (EHDPP, TCIPP), with an enrichment in the surface microlayer (Aminot et al., 2017). In sediments of the Korean coast, 10 out of the 18 studied OPEs were detected with >50% detection rate, with TCIPP having the highest median concentrations of 30 ng g⁻¹ dry weight (dw) (Choi et al., 2020). With significantly higher concentrations in harbour zones, the authors identified shipping activity as a putative source of OPEs in coastal environments. In San Francisco Bay (USA), OPEs were also widely detected in sediment, particularly the most hydrophobic OPEs like TEHP (median: 8.2 ng g⁻¹ dw), TMPP (3.4 ng g⁻¹ dw) and TPHP (1.9 ng g⁻¹ dw) (Sutton et al., 2019). Water and sediment concentrations were over one order of magnitude higher for OPEs than for PBDEs.

Alongside hydrophobicity, metabolizability is a key driver of bioaccumulation (Walters et al., 2016). With reports of OPE biotransformation (Muir and Grift, 1981; Wang et al., 2019), there is conflicting evidence on the potential for bioaccumulation and biomagnification of OPEs, although they are found in measurable quantities in marine organisms (Xie et al., 2022). Here, we focus on bivalves, organisms of lower trophic levels which show a low ability to metabolize organic contaminants in comparison to fish and crustaceans (Farrington et al., 2016). In mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) and oysters (*Crassostrea gigas*) from Korea, 5 OPEs (TEHP, TCIPP, EHDPP, TEP and TCEP) were found in over half of the samples, with median concentrations between 0.56 and 1.4 ng g⁻¹ dw, except for TCIPP, which was found at

11.7 ng g⁻¹ dw (Choi et al., 2020). In San Francisco Bay, TDCIPP was found in all 6 samples of transplanted mussels (*Mytilus californianus*) at the highest levels (median: 4.5 ng g⁻¹ dw, comparable to BDE-47, 3.1 ng g⁻¹ dw), with TPHP, EHDPP, TNBP, TBOEP, and TCIPP being detected in over half of the samples (Sutton et al., 2019). In several European aquaculture sites, OPE levels were several orders of magnitude higher than other chlorinated and brominated FRs, with a predominance of TNBP in the studied mussels (Aznar-Alemany et al., 2018). Filter-feeding bivalves, particularly mussels and oysters, are widely-used organisms for the biomonitoring of bioaccumulative contaminants (Beyer et al., 2017).

Beyond the commonly-monitored legacy contaminants (PCDD/Fs, PCBs, OCPs, and PAHs), contaminants of emerging concern have been included in such biomonitoring programs worldwide, ultimately contributing evidence for their widespread occurrence in biota and leading to regulations (e.g. PBDEs, HBCDDs).

In light of the paucity of data on OPEs in marine bivalves, we have expanded the French national biomonitoring program to this class of compounds on a yearly basis since 2017. The objective of this study was to investigate their occurrence and spatial distribution in marine shellfish collected from sites under contrasted anthropogenic pressure along French coasts.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Chemicals and reagents

All chemicals were of trace analysis grade. Picograde® solvents (methanol, ethyl acetate, acetone, cyclohexane, n-hexane) and Florisil® (100–200 mesh) were purchased from Promochem (Germany) or LGC Standards (France). Aminopropyl cartridges (Discovery® DSC-NH₂, 500 mg, 6 mL) and graphite cartridges (Supelclean[™] ENVI-Carb[™], 500 mg, 6 mL) were obtained from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Trimethylphenyl phosphate (TMPP),

methylphenyldiphenyl phosphate (MPDPP), 2-ethylhexyldiphenyl phosphate (EHDPP), isodecyldiphenyl phosphate (IDDPP), triphenyl phosphate (TPHP), triethyl phosphate (TEP), tripropyl phosphate (TPRP), tripentyl phosphate (TPEP), tri-n-butyl phosphate (TNBP), tris(2ethylhexyl) phosphate (TEHP), tris(2-butoxyethyl) phosphate (TBOEP), tris(2-chloroethyl) phosphate (TCEP), tris(chloro-2-propyl) phosphate (TCIPP), tris(1,3-dichloro-2-propyl) phosphate (TDCIPP), tris(2,3-dibromopropyl) phosphate (TDBPP), tris(tribromoneopentyl) phosphate (TTBNPP) were acquired from Accustandards (New Haven, USA). Triphenyl phosphate-¹³C₈ (TPHP-¹³C₈), triphenyl phosphate-D₁₅ (TPHP-D₁₅), triethyl phosphate-D₁₅ (TEP-D₁₅), tripropyl phosphate-D₂₁ (TPRP-D₂₁), tri-n-butyl phosphate-D₂₇ (TNBP-D₂₇), tris(2-butoxyethyl) phosphate-¹³C₂ (TBOEP-¹³C₂), tris(2-chloroethyl) phosphate-D₁₂ (TCEP-D₁₂), and tris(1,3-dichloro-2-propyl) phosphate-D₁₅ (TDCIPP-D₁₅) were acquired from Wellington Laboratories (Guelph, Canada). Trimethylphenyl phosphate-D₂₁ (TMPP-D₂₁), tris(2-ethylhexyl) phosphate-D₅₁ (TEHP-D₅₁), tris(2-butyloxyethyl) phosphate-D₂₇ (TBOEP-D₂₇), tris(1-chloro-2-propyl) phosphate-D₁₈ (TCIPP-D₁₈), and tris(2,3-dibromopropyl) phosphate-D₁₅ (TDBPP-D₁₅) were acquired from TRC Canada (Toronto, Canada).

2.2 Sampling strategy

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Mussels (*Mytilus spp*) and oysters (*Crassostrea gigas*) were collected annually in autumn (out of spawning season) from 2017 to 2021 at the same selected locations in the English Channel, the Atlantic Ocean and along Mediterranean coasts, as shown in Figure 1, for a total of 103 samples (an additional 5 samples from 2014–2016 were analysed to confirm site specificities). These locations cover main estuaries and deltas (Seine, Loire, Gironde, Rhône), together with smaller tributaries and sites away from direct sources. The shellfish were collected and handled in accordance with international guidelines for the monitoring of contaminants in biota (OSPAR, 2018). Briefly, a composite sample consisted of at least 50 mussels of similar size (30–60 mm shell length) or 10 oysters (90–140 mm shell length), and each individual had spent

at least 6 months *in situ* beforehand. All samples were depurated in settled water from the site for 24 h, shelled, homogenized (whole soft body), and stored at -20 °C prior to freeze-drying. The average dry weight (dw) was 19.9 ± 5.2 % (n = 108), and the average total lipid content was 9.7 ± 1.8 % dw (determined gravimetrically from a dried hexane/acetone [80:20 v:v] extract). The dried samples were stored in amber glass containers in a cool, dry, dark place until further analysis.

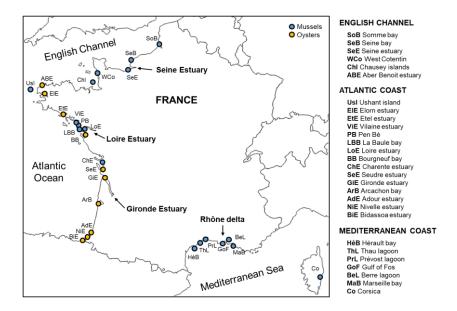


Figure 1. Sampling sites for bivalves collected from 2017 to 2021 from the English Channel,

Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean coasts.

2.3 Extraction method

Samples were extracted using pressurized liquid extraction (ASE350, Dionex, USA), in a precleaned 66 mL stainless steel cell, filled with: cellulose filter, Florisil (15 g, 100–200 mesh), and dry sample (1 g). Before extraction, 5 ng (50 μ L, 0.1 ng μ L⁻¹ in toluene) of each labelled standard (Table S2) were added to the sample for internal standard quantification by isotopic dilution. The extraction cell was filled with ethyl acetate/cyclohexane (4:1 v:v) and brought to 100 °C and 100 bar for a 5 min static extraction (constant P and T). Fresh solvent was introduced

into the cell (flushing volume 100%), and the extraction cycle was repeated once more. The extraction cells were precleaned by running a first complete cycle with Florisil and no sample, a step found to be essential to limit blank contamination. The extract was concentrated to 1 mL with a rotary evaporator before clean-up.

2.4 Solid phase extraction clean-up method

Clean-up was performed on NH₂ and graphite sorbents. The NH₂ sorbent was conditioned with 5 mL of ethyl acetate/cyclohexane (1:1 v:v) followed by 5 mL of cyclohexane. After sample loading, OPEs were eluted in two separate fractions of: (1) ethyl acetate/cyclohexane (4 mL, 1:4 v:v) and (2) ethyl acetate/cyclohexane (5 mL, 1:1 v:v). Each fraction was concentrated to 100 μ L under nitrogen, and 1 mL of hexane/acetone (1:1 v:v) was added before loading on an ENVI-Carb sorbent (conditioned with 10 mL of acetone and 10 mL of hexane/acetone, 1:1, v/v). OPEs were eluted with 20 mL of hexane/acetone (1:1, v/v) and this fraction was concentrated to 100 μ L under nitrogen and transferred to a glass injection vial. The recoveries obtained for standards on NH₂ and graphite sorbents are provided in Figure S1. Injection standards (Table S2) were added (5 ng), and the final extract was evaporated to dryness and further reconstituted in 100 μ L of methanol and 100 μ L of water.

2.5 Instrumental method

Analysis of the OPEs was performed on an ultra-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) I-Class coupled to a triple quadrupole Xevo TQS- μ (Waters, USA) using positive electrospray ionization mode (ESI+). Separation was achieved on a 50 mm x 2.1 mm BEH C_{18} column (particle size 1.7 μ m, Waters, France), maintained at 50 °C, using a gradient of methanol and ammonium acetate (20 mM) at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min. The gradient from solvent A (ammonium acetate 20 mM) to solvent B (100% methanol) was as follows: 0 min (25% B), 0.5

min (25% B), 5 min (85% B), 5.1 min (100% B), 6 min (100% B), 6.1 min (25% B), 9 min (25% B).

The mass spectrometric detection was completed in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode (Table S2), with the following source parameters: capillary voltage 3 kV, cone voltage 10 V, and desolvation flow 900 L/hr.

The method was validated according to the accuracy profile procedure (NFT90-210, 2009).

Briefly, it consisted of assessing the accuracy of the calibration function, the intermediate

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2.6 Method validation, quality assurance and quality control

precision, and bias and comparing it to tolerance intervals (more details in supplementary information Text S1 and S2, Table S3). Validation criteria were met for 11 of the 16 targeted OPEs. With high absolute bias for TPEP, IDDPP and MPDPP, their analysis was considered semi-quantitative only. In addition, TEHP and TTBNPP were not detected because of an important matrix effect. The method limit of quantification (LOQ), as per the EU commission regulation 2017/644, is defined for each analyte in each sample as the concentration for which the instrumental response of the less sensitive MRM transition yields a S/N (signal/noise) ratio of 3:1 (Table 1). TBOEP, TCIPP, TPHP, and TDCIPP have been commonly detected at high levels (>1 ng m⁻³) in both indoor particulate and gas phases (Brandsma et al., 2013; Brommer et al., 2014). OPE glassware contamination can be expected from deposition from ambient air and potential carryover. All glassware was treated at 450 °C overnight and pre-cleaned with ethyl acetate before use. The entire sample preparation and subsequent analyses were performed in clean laboratories, under a low-dust atmosphere and positive pressure (ISO 8 class according to NF EN ISO 14644). As contamination can also come from the detection system itself (Brandsma et al., 2013), a delay column was installed between the pump and the injector to separate instrument-related peaks from the actual sample peaks. This approach, commonly used in the analysis of analyses perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), was successfully implemented for OPEs here (see Figure S2). Procedural blanks (excluding sampling, freeze-drying and homogenization) were extracted, purified, and analyzed within each sample batch. Concentrations in samples were corrected for blank contamination: the mass of analyte (ng) found in the blanks was subtracted from the mass (ng) found in the samples, provided that the analyte mass in the sample was above 3 times that of the blank. According to the EU commission regulation 2017/644, the reporting level shall be demonstrated to be different from the procedure's blank samples at least by a factor of three. The LOQ was therefore fixed at three times the value of blank. In addition to the initial method validation described in SI Text S2, one in-house spiked reference material was extracted for each batch of 10-12 analyses, with overall deviation between 7% (TNBP) and 48% (TDBPP). In all samples together (n = 108), the labelled internal standards were recovered with a mean between 24% (TMPP-D₂₁) and 137% (TNBP-D₂₇), indicative of a matrix effect. Laboratory blank levels (8 blanks processed in total) were between 73 pg g⁻¹ dw (TMPP) and 1379 pg g⁻¹ dw (TCIPP), with acceptable repeatability over the 5 years of analysis (23%–88%). The highest values (>500 pg) were observed for the chlorinated OPEs TCIPP and TCEP, TEP and TNBP (alkyl), and EHDPP (aryl). These values led to LOQs higher than those strictly instrument-derived and ranged on average from 54 pg g⁻¹ dw (TPRP) to 3089 pg g-1 dw (TCIPP). Blank contamination (see Figure S3) was partly attributed to the contribution of the solvents used and concentrated in the final extract as between 5% (TBOEP) and 64% (TCEP) of the blank contamination could be traced to the solvents. The levels of OPEs found after evaporation of an ASE cell blank, without Florisil, were not significantly different from the levels found after evaporation of the same volumes, without running through the ASE system, suggesting its minimal contribution. Analysis of diatomaceous earth (Hydromatrix,

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Agilent Technologies) exposed prior to sample extraction revealed that neither sampling, handling or freeze-drying caused a significant contamination of the samples (Figure S4).

Table 1. QA/QC parameters: labeled compound recoveries, limits of quantification (LOQs) resulting from blank contamination, LOQs extrapolated from the method sensitivity, and detection frequencies per contaminant.

Individual compound	n samples / n batches	² H / ¹³ C standard recoveries (%)	LOQ blank pg g ⁻¹ dw	LOQ method	Detection frequency
		` '	pg g uw	100	(%)
TEP	108 / 12	80 ± 15	678 ± 677	223 ± 30	0
TPRP		no labelled std	not found in blanks	54 ± 38	0
TNBP		137 ± 53	669 ± 223	27 ± 2	61
TBOEP		98 ± 16	254 ± 130	53 ± 3	13
TCEP		65 ± 17	994 ± 910	53 ± 3	37
TCIPP		73 ± 17	3089 ± 1158	214 ± 14	42
TDCIPP		64 ± 24	252 ± 107	53 ± 3	85
TDBPP		44 ± 23	not found in blanks	95 ± 33	0
TPHP		80 ± 9	281 ± 96	53 ± 3	69
TMPP		24 ± 9	159 ± 81	88 ± 51	43
EHDPP		no labelled std	806 ± 208	107 ±7	37

3. Results

3.1 Levels and profiles of OPEs

Among the 103 samples analysed over the 5-year study, TDCIPP, TPHP, and TNBP were quantified in over half of the samples (detection frequency, DF: 85%, 69%, and 61%, respectively), TMPP, TCIPP, TCEP and EHDPP in 37%–43%, and TBOEP in 13% of the samples (DFs). OPEs were not quantified in only 3 samples, indicating their widespread occurrence. The highest median concentrations (Figure 2) were found for TCIPP at 4.93 ng g⁻¹ dw (range: 1.9–18.6 ng g⁻¹ dw), EHDPP at 2.07 ng g⁻¹ dw (range: 0.6–12.3 ng g⁻¹ dw), and TNBP at 1.82 ng g⁻¹ dw (range: 0.4–13.9 ng g⁻¹ dw). As reported by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA; https://echa.europa.eu/), these higher concentrations are consistent with their usage in Europe (TCIPP reported at 10 000-100 000 t v⁻¹ in

2018 [no production/import reported in 2022]; TNBP and EHDPP tonnage band 1,000–10,000 t y^{-1} in 2022). Conversely, the absence of the bromine-containing TDBPP is consistent with its heavy restrictions in the EU; this compound is indeed rarely found in the environment or at very low concentrations (Allan et al., 2018). Also undetected despite high production/import tonnage (>10,000 t y^{-1} for TEP), the alkyl OPEs TEP and TPRP, have low log K_{ow} (0.8 and 1.87, respectively), suggesting lower bioaccumulative tendencies (Mackay and Fraser, 2000). However, the chlorinated OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP, and TDCIPP) are also of relatively low log Kow (1.47, 2.59, and 3.27, respectively) but were found in our study at relatively higher concentrations and/or detection frequencies. This observation suggests that hydrophobicity only is insufficient to describe their bioaccumulation or that levels in surrounding waters are high. The field-derived bioconcentration factor (BCF) of TCEP in zooplankton has also been reported to be one of the highest among the monitored OPEs (Schmidt et al., 2021), whilst no relationship was found between BCFs and log K_{ow} . In Korean coastal waters, the biotasediment accumulation factor calculated for TCEP in mussels and oysters was higher than those determined for TEP, TCIPP, and TEHP (Choi et al., 2020), suggesting the peculiarity of this compound.

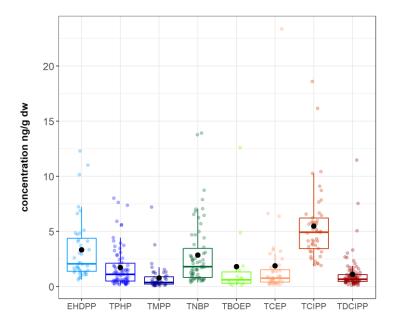


Figure 2. Concentration (ng g^{-1} dw) distributions of the OPEs found in coastal bivalves of the French coasts above LOQs (n = 14 [TBOEP] to 92 [TDCIPP]). The black circles represent the mean value for individual OPEs.

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Statistically significant correlations (Spearman's rank correlations) were generally observed for structurally-related OPE concentrations. In particular, all three aryl OPEs were correlated, suggesting similar sources and/or environmental behaviour (Table S4), with TMPP and TPHP having the strongest correlations ($\rho = 0.69$, p < 0.0001; compounds co-occurring in 39% of the samples). Other significantly correlated OPEs were TCIPP and TDCIPP ($\rho = 0.43$, p = 0.004; co-occurrence 40%), TPHP and TNBP ($\rho = 0.41$, p = 0.002; co-occurrence 50%), and TCEP and EHDPP ($\rho = -0.671$, p= 0.02, but co-occurrence only 11%). In a previous study, it was found that similar OPEs to those studied here did not correlate in bivalve tissues, even if they had strong positive correlations in the surrounding sediments, a result attributed to their likely rapid biotransformation (Choi et al., 2020). Similarly, the significant correlation observed between the chlorinated OPEs TCEP, TCIPP, and TDCIPP, in the dissolved phase were not found in mussel tissues nor in harbour seal blubber from San Francisco Bay (Sutton et al., 2019). If the existence of OPE-specific differences in biotransformation kinetics is a plausible hypothesis, it may also relate to the range of log Kow (and subsequent bioaccumulation factor, BAF) spanned by the whole family, as compounds with higher BAF take longer to reach steady state. This would cause compound-specific exchange kinetics between bivalves and the dynamic tidal waters and confound relative concentrations in water vs. in bivalves. In our study, the correlation found between TCIPP and TDCIPP still suggests some similarities in their partition behaviour. Regarding aryl OPEs, concentrations of MPDPP and IDDPP were not calculated because of their low accuracy in our method (see Section 2.6); however, it is noteworthy that the highest signals for these aryl compounds were measured in samples with high Σ aryl OPE levels (TPHP, EHDPP, TMPP). A Mann-Whitney non-parametric test indicates significantly higher TPHP levels (p = 0.0002) in those 59% of samples for which MPDPP was also qualitatively detected in comparison with those where it was not. The same difference was observed when considering the 18% of samples in which IDDPP was also detected (p = 0.003). OPEs were the most abundant of all hydrophobic contaminants analysed in the same samples (for further details, refer to Aminot et al., 2021; Munschy et al., 2019, 2015, 2013), with concentrations decreasing as follows: OPEs > polycyclic musks (ng g^{-1} dw); followed by: perfluorocarboxylates (Σ)

 C_9 – C_{14} PFCAs) > perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS) ~ polybrominated diphenyl ethers (\sum 8 OSPAR PBDE congeners) > hexabromocyclododecane (hundreds of pg g⁻¹ dw); followed by: nitromusks and alternative brominated flame retardants (BTBPE, DBDPE) tens of pg g⁻¹. OPEs are rarely reported alongside other hydrophobic contaminants in the literature on mollusc contamination. When they have been, their concentrations were comparable or exceeded those of other contaminants, which is in agreement with our findings (Aznar-Alemany et al., 2018; Brandsma et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2020; Sutton et al., 2019).

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3.2 Geographical distribution

The relative interquartile range (RIQR; IQR divided by the median, in percentage) was calculated to evaluate the spread of OPE concentrations over the 5-year study. The RIQR was high for the sum of all quantified OPEs (147%) and for the individual compounds EHDPP (145%), TPHP (146%), TMPP (173%), TNBP (147%), TBOEP (167%), and TCEP (146 %), indicating notable spatiotemporal variability; however, the RIQR for TCIPP and TDCIPP was 56% and 91%, respectively, indicating a more uniform distribution. Interestingly, the highest concentrations of Σ OPEs were consistently found in the same sites. For each year, concentrations found in the Nivelle (NiE), Elorn (ElE), and Etel (EtE) estuaries, as well as the Arcachon Bay (ArB), were above the 3rd quartile of all measurements. Specific OPE contributions indicate different patterns in these samples (Figure 3). TNBP is abundant in these four sites with median values in the range of 1.6–7.5 ng g⁻¹ dw and to a lesser extent in other sites of the Atlantic coast (Vilaine: ViE; Seudre: SeE; Adour: AdE; Bidassoa: BiE; estuaries that have values above the 3rd quartile). High TNBP concentrations were also found in additional samples taken prior to 2017 in the Etel estuary (2014–2016, 3–7.9 ng g⁻¹ dw), in the Elorn estuary (2016, 1.8 ng g⁻¹ dw), and the Arcachon Bay (2016, 3.6 ng g⁻¹ dw), which suggests regular inputs of this contaminant in these sites. If the Nivelle and Elorn estuaries have been previously identified as sites under anthropogenic pressure (Aminot et al., 2021; Munschy et al., 2015), the case of the Etel estuary is peculiar, considering this is a site under the influence of a small rural catchment area, with no major city or particular industry, and for which the other contaminants followed in our surveys have always been

low. The high TNBP concentrations detected in the above-mentioned low impacted sites warrant further research into the sources of this compound into coastal waters, as most of the industrial sources identified by Gao et al. (2021) are unlikely here. Used in particular for its thermal stability, resistance to oxidation, and viscosity, some TNBP applications include coating products, polymers, adhesives, and sealants. ECHA identified potential releases of TNBP in relation with transports (ships), and previous reviews indicate its inclusion as a plasticizer in marine paint in particular (Brigham and Landrigan, 1985). Yachting and/or shipbuilding, generally found in the previously mentioned sites, are speculative sources of these compounds to the marine environment. It is corroborated by results from Korea, where sediments from near-harbour sites showed the highest Σ OPE concentrations, although contributions from single compounds were not specified (Choi et al., 2020). TNBP was also predominant in coastal waters of the Beibu Gulf (China), a result attributed to lubricants used in fishing vessels (Liu et al., 2022), whilst shipping activity near Hong Kong remained a source of TNBP in the bay (Gao et al., 2021). Most of the positive detections of the other alkyl OPE, TBOEP, occurred in four neighbouring sites on the Atlantic coast (8 out of the 14 > LOQ), with consistently high concentrations in the site Pen-Bé (PB) and generally low levels of other monitored contaminants. The specific sources of TBOEP in this area need investigation, as none of its described uses clearly relate to local activities (used in washing and cleaning products, polishes and waxes, as a plasticizer in vinyl plastics and rubber stoppers, in plant protection products and water treatment chemicals, ECHA). Consistently high concentrations of TCEP occurred in the Hérault Bay (HéB, range: 3.2–23.4 ng g⁻¹ dw) and the Thau Lagoon (ThL, range: 0.49–6.4 ng g⁻¹ dw), two neighbouring Mediterranean sites of otherwise low OPE contamination. This high level of concentrations in mussel tissues is noteworthy considering its nearabsence in most sites. Identified as a substance of very high concern by ECHA, TCEP is not currently being manufactured in and / or imported to the European Economic Area, and such contamination might result from historical inputs or release from articles containing it and used in this area. Regarding aryl OPEs, concentrations of all three compounds were high in the Nivelle estuary (NiE; means between 3.0 and 6.7 ng g⁻¹ dw), a site also showing higher contamination of PBDE and HBCDD flame retardants (Munschy et al., 2013). The neighbouring sites of the Adour estuary (AdE)

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and particularly the Bidassoa estuary (BiE), all three within a 30-km distance and added to the survey in 2020–2021, also have high concentrations, indicating a regional contamination rather than a local hotspot. Concentrations of TPHP were generally higher on the Atlantic coast and in the Gulf of Fos (GoF, Mediterranean coast). High EHDPP concentrations were observed on the Atlantic coast in the Elorn and Etel estuaries and in Arcachon Bay, as well as in Marseille Bay (MaB) on the Mediterranean coast. These compounds have previously been attributed to the industry of electronic equipment (in thermoplastics of electric enclosures for televisions, computers, monitors, and printers) or in relation with electronic waste recycling facilities (Gao et al., 2021). The aforementioned sites do not share a similar pressure pattern (e.g. Arcachon Bay and the Nivelle and Etel estuaries are exempt of major industrial discharge) and unequivocal source tracking of aryl OPEs remains challenging.

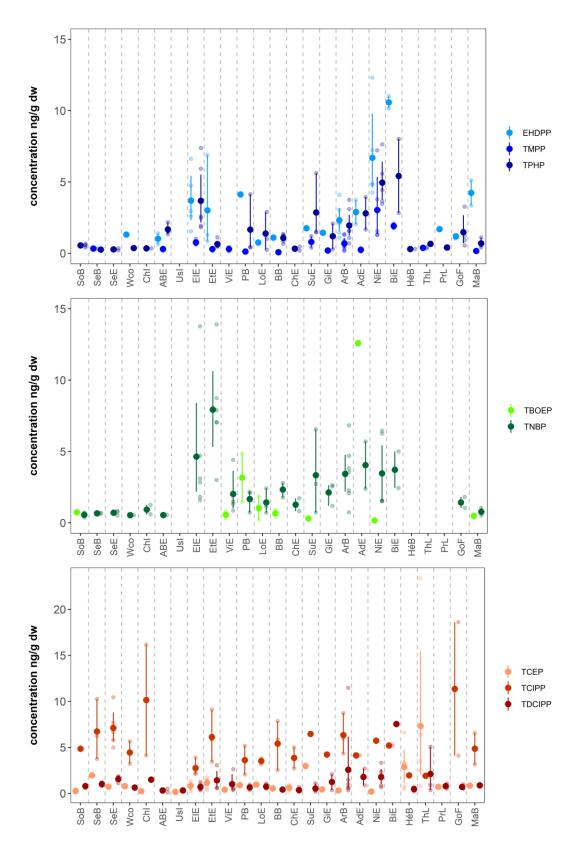


Figure 3. Geographical distribution of the OPE concentrations (ng g^{-1} dw) found in coastal bivalves of the French coasts above LOQs. Data shown as mean \pm standard deviations (individual values in transparency).

390 391 Previous studies often related OPE levels in the marine coastal environment to wastewater discharges 392 (Kim et al., 2011; Sutton et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2015), as effluents have been reported as an important 393 source of OPEs (Xie et al., 2022). Here, concentrations in mussels from the Seine estuary (SeE) and 394 bay (SeB) were low for all OPEs (within the exception of the ubiquitous TCIPP), despite being under 395 the influence of its highly anthropized catchment area (ca. 17 million inhabitants and industries). A 396 Spearman correlation test between AHTN, a synthetic musk of known urban origin (Aminot et al., 397 2021 and references herein), and any of the OPEs in our dataset revealed no significance. We also 398 observed a different geographical distribution to the one found for hydrophobic organic contaminants 399 (Munschy et al., 2015), which have shown higher concentrations in sites such as estuaries and deltas with large catchment areas, industrial areas, and urban areas (e.g. Seine estuary and Rhône delta). 400 401 Previous studies on OPE distribution and source apportionment have generally focused on study sites 402 of regional scale. A thorough spatial pattern analysis of Hong Kong Bay waters revealed multiple 403 sources of OPEs, including human settlement, wastewater, manufacturing industry, construction 404 industry, vehicles, and shipping transport (Gao et al., 2021). In addition to shipping, other sources 405 include aquaculture (Aznar-Alemany et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020) or influences of local point sources such as airports (Sundkvist et al., 2010). Besides, evidence for OPEs' degradability in marine 406 407 environments (Castro-Jiménez et al., 2022) suggests a rather limited potential for widespread 408 distribution, unlike other hydrophobic organic contaminants. Based on our data and literature 409 evidence, we hypothesize here that the OPE levels in coastal bivalves mostly relate to local hotspots 410 and that our understanding of contamination patterns in the marine environment is impeded by both the huge diversity of their applications and their lower persistence. Selecting study sites based on 411 412 expected pressure and on the knowledge gained from other contaminants may consequently fail to

encompass the breadth of coastal OPE contamination. This limitation affects biomonitoring studies,

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3.3 Comparison with worldwide levels

including ours, until better source identification is achieved.

A systematic review was conducted to screen for OPE concentrations reported in marine bivalves in the published literature (see SI Text S3 for search terms). Since 2007, 12 articles were found and 1 report was also included (NIVA - Norwegian Environment Agency), with a total of 15 distinct zones available (some studies described separate sampling areas) in Europe, Asia, and North America (Figure 4 and Table 2). TCEP, TCIPP, TDCIPP, TBOEP, TPHP and TNBP were the most studied compounds, reported in 11 zones. TMPP, EHDPP, and TEHP were also frequently reported (9 zones), whilst TEP, MPDPP, TPEP, TPRP, and TDBPP were only studied in 1-3 zones. Globally, the concentrations reported in our study compare with the concentrations reported worldwide, but with ranges spanning several orders of magnitude, a fine comparison is challenging. TCIPP, the prevailing OPE in our study (median: 4.93 ng g⁻¹ dw) and the most homogeneously distributed, is also the most abundant OPE worldwide (inter-study median: 17.3 ng g⁻¹ dw). High concentrations of TBOEP (interstudy median: 8.1 ng g⁻¹ dw) have also been reported elsewhere, which tend to be higher than our findings (median: 0.61 ng g⁻¹ dw). We showed that this compound exhibited one of the highest IQR, indicating strong spatial and temporal variabilities. We also found that TCEP concentrations were strongly site-dependent, and if our median concentration (0.77 ng g⁻¹ dw) is lower than the inter-study median of concentrations retrieved from other published studies (4.1 ng g⁻¹ dw), concentrations in HeB and ThL, the two sites of the Mediterranean coastline with repeatably high levels, are comparable (median of both sites: 3.28 ng g⁻¹ dw. maximum 23.4 ng g⁻¹ dw). Conversely, TNBP in our study (median: 1.81 ng g⁻¹ dw) was above the median of concentrations reported worldwide (inter-study median: 1.40 ng g⁻¹ dw). Undetected in our study, TEP was also generally unquantified or found at low levels elsewhere. Regarding aryl OPEs in our samples, comparable levels were reported worldwide for TPHP and EHDPP. In 8 studies (9 zones), TMPP was investigated with contrasted results, either unquantified or found at notably high values. With the highest interquartile range reported in our study, this compound also appears to be heterogeneously distributed. Quantified across the 2 studies where MPDPP was targeted, it was qualitatively found in a large number of our samples and deserves further interest. TEHP was not included in our work because of methodological limitations, but we recommend further monitoring as it has been reported in several other studies.

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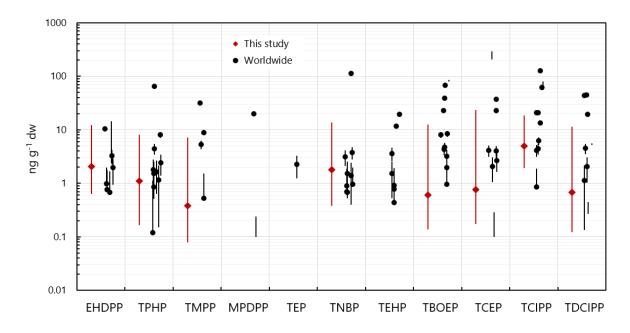


Figure 4. OPE concentrations (ng g⁻¹ dw) in this study (median and minimum – maximum) and in other studies on marine filter-feeding bivalves worldwide (median or mean, and minimum – maximum when available). MPDPP and TEHP, not quantified in this study; TEP, not detected in this study.

Table 2. OPE concentrations (range and mean or median, in g^{-1} dw) in marine filter-feeding bivalves from all coastal locations found in a systematic review. na: not analysed.

	year of sampling	OPE cond	centration i	ng/g dw. r	min-max/me	an or medi	ian								
	, ,	EHDPP	TPHP	TMPP	MPDPP	TEP	TPRP	TNBP	TEHP	TBOEP	TCEP	TCIPP	TDCIPP	TDBPP	Reference
Europe															
France, whole coast	2014-2021	0.63- 12.3/2.0 7	0.17- 8.01/1.1 2	0.08- 7.21/0.3 8	detected	<1.0	<0.05	0.38- 13.9/1.8 2	detected	0.14- 12.6/0.6 1	0.17- 23.4/0.7 7	1.91- 18.6/4.9 3	0.12- 11.5/0.6 8	<0.10	This study
France, Bay of Marseille	2018	10.4	2.4	na	na	na	<10	1.4	11.8	na	4.1	21	19.5	na	Castro-Jiménez and Ratola, 2020
Netherlands, Scheldt estuary	2008	<0.44	1.64	<0.24	na	na	na	na	0.44	8.4	<0.24	4.4	2.04	na	Brandsma et al., 2015
Sweden, North Sea	2007	0.67	0.86	0.53	na	na	na	0.67	na	<0.34	<0.53	6.2	<0.16	na	Sundkvist et al., 2010
Sweden, Baltic Sea	2007	0.768	4.46	5.28	na	na	na	0.96	na	<0.82	2.64	62	<0.39	na	Sundkvist et al., 2010
Norway, Oslo fjord	2014	<3.6-8.4	<31.6	<0.8	na	na	na	<59	<2.4	<80-85	<206- 293	77-81	5.2-5.6	na	Ruus et al., 2019
Spain, Galician coast	2017	<1-2	<0.8- 291/64.5	na	na	na	na	<0.4- 4.4/3.1	<0.5- 2.0/1.5	2-5.8/4.7	na	<1- 14/4.2	na	na	Castro et al., 2020
Spain, Ebro Delta	2013	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	3.2	<0.75	<1.5	na	na	Álvarez-Muñoz et al., 2015
Italy, Po Delta	2013	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	39.4	<0.75	<1.5	na	na	Álvarez-Muñoz et al., 2015
Portugal, Tagus estuary	2013	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	22.8	<0.75	na	na	na	Álvarez-Muñoz et al., 2015
Portugal, Aveiro lagoon	2016-2017	<0.7	<0.7	na	<0.1- 0.24	na	na	<0.7	<0.2	<0.1	<0.7	<1.5	0.27- 0.45	na	Gadelha et al., 2019
Asia Japan, Maizuru Bay	2009	na	8	32	20	<4	<4	92- 136/112	na	<4-48/8	<4-12/4	na	24-60/44	na	Harino et al., 2014
China, Beibu Gulf	2015	na	0.12	<1.36	na	na	na	0.49- 1.3/0.9	0.11- 1.4/0.78	<1.6- 3.9/2.0	18-28/23	6.7- 25/14	<0.37- 3/1.1	na	Zhang et al. 2020
Korea, whole coast	2016	<0.3- 9.6/3.3	<0.3- 31/1.5	<0.5- 58/8.9	na	<0.1- 2.2/2.2	na	<0.08- 9.4/1.5	<0.13- 18/3.6	<0.37- 48/4.3	<0.12- 5.1/2.1	<0.3- 216/21	<0.26	na	Choi et al. 2020
China, Weizhou Island	2018	na	1.81	<0.45	na	na	na	3.8	19.4	68	37	126	45	na	Ding et al., 2020
North America															
USA, San Francisco Bay	2014	<0.4- 4/0.98	<0.4- 1.6/1.2	<0.25	na	<0.1	<0.25	<0.15- 1.6/0.69	<0.3- 1.3/0.9	<0.3- 2.0/1.0	<0.1-0.3	<0.15- 3.6/0.9	0.38- 8.9/4.5	<0.8-1.6	Sutton et al. 2019

4. Conclusions

Widespread occurrence of OPEs was revealed, confirming the relevance of their inclusion in biomonitoring programs. TCIPP, TNBP, and EHDPP were found at the highest median concentrations, indicating that out of the targeted compounds all three subclasses of OPEs (chlorinated, aryl, and alkyl) were of environmental relevance. Interestingly, we noted that TCEP, TCIPP, and TDCIPP, of relatively low log Kow (1.47, 2.59, and 3.27, respectively), could be found at high concentrations in the sampled bivalves, highlighting that the processes leading to bioaccumulation in marine organisms remain unclear (Xie et al., 2022). Geographical distributions were not predictable from known anthropogenic pressures such as population in the catchment area, or previously identified industrial sources and differed from those established for other flame retardants (Munschy et al., 2015) or urban-related synthetic musks (Aminot et al., 2021). In line with other studies, we suggest that ports and/or marinas in relation with shipping and yachting are potential sources of TNBP, hypothesis needing further investigations. Less persistent than other POPs, local hotspots, rather than riverine/atmospheric transportation, could drive the geographical distribution of OPEs in coastal environments. Still, ubiquitous detection at levels exceeding those of brominated flame retardants deserves a stronger focus from regulators and environment monitoring authorities. With some recent regulations (e.g. TCIPP and TDCIPP in the EU) and growing scientific concerns (Blum et al., 2019), it is essential to acquire baseline levels and continue (bio)monitoring with the objective of identifying long-term time trends in the environment.

Author statement

Y. Aminot: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Statistical analysis, QA/QC, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. C. Munschy: Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. L. Tao: Methodology, Investigation, Writing – original draft. M. O'Loghlin: Investigation, Data curation. K. Héas-Moisan: Data acquisition, QA/QC. C. Pollono: Methodology, Data acquisition, QA/QC.

Declaration of competing interest

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

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