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Pre- and post-industrial levels of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in sediments from the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence (eastern Canada)

Anne Corminboeuf^{1,*}, Jean-Carlos Montero-Serrano^{1,*}, Richard St-Louis², Allyson Dalpé^{1,2,3}, Yves Gélinas⁴

¹ Institut des sciences de la mer de Rimouski, Université du Québec à Rimouski, 310 Allée des Ursulines, Rimouski, QC, G5L 3A1, Canada

² Université du Québec à Rimouski, 300 Allée des Ursulines, Rimouski, QC, G5L 3A1, Canada

³ Département de Chimie, Université Laval, Pavillon Alexandre-Vachon, 1045 avenue de la Médecine, Université Laval, Québec, QC, G1V 0A6, Canada

⁴ Geotop and Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Concordia University, 7141 Sherbrooke St. West, Montréal, Québec H4B 1R6, Canada

* Corresponding authors: A. Corminboeuf (<u>annecorminboeuf@hotmail.com</u>) and J.-C. Montero-Serrano (<u>jeancarlos_monteroserrano@uqar.ca</u>)

Highlights

- The PAH contents are similar to those in other well-urbanized estuarine systems.
- The PAH contents between 1937 and 1943 CE are 2.5 times higher than modern values.
- PAHs mainly originate from pyrogenic sources with little petrogenic influence.
- A few urbanized sector samples exhibit a possible ecological risk to organisms.

Abstract

The concentrations of 23 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs; 16 parent PAHs and 7 alkyl-PAHs) were determined in 45 surface sediment and 7 basal sediment box core samples retrieved from the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence in eastern Canada. The concentration sums of 16 priority PAHs (Σ_{16} PAHs) in the surface sediments ranged from 71 to 5672 ng g⁻¹. Σ_{16} PAHs in the basal sediments ranged from 93 to 172 ng g⁻¹ among the pre-industrial samples and from 1216 to 1621 ng g⁻¹ among the early post-industrial samples. The highest Σ_{16} PAH values occurred in samples retrieved from the Baie-Comeau-Matane area, an area affected by intense industrial anthropogenic activities.

Source-diagnostic PAH ratios suggest a predominance of pyrogenic sources via atmospheric deposition, with a minor contribution of petrogenic seabed pockmark sources. The PAH concentrations in the sediments from the study areas reveal low ecological risks to benthic or other organisms living near the water-sediment interface.

Keywords: St. Lawrence Estuary, sediments, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, baseline, risk assessment, spatial distribution.

The St. Lawrence River and Estuary System, located in eastern Canada, originates in the Great Lakes and flows along a distance of more than 3200 km until reaching the Cabot Strait and Atlantic Ocean (Government of Canada, 2017). With a hydrological basin of more than 1 million km², it ranks among the largest rivers in North America (El Sabh and Silverberg, 1990; Camu et al. 2019). This large estuarine system is generally divided into three regions with distinct oceanographical features, i.e., the Upper Estuary, Lower Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence (Fig. 1; El Sabh and Silverberg, 1990). This system is as wide as 50 km and as deep as ~ 350 m at its center, where a depression is formed, namely, the Laurentian Channel (Loring and Nota, 1973; Normandeau et al., 2015). Moreover, this system is a major international trade route connecting eastern Canada to the Atlantic Ocean (Camu et al. 2019). In 2017, shipments via the Great Lakes to the St. Lawrence Waterway System (i.e., from the Great Lakes to the St. Lawrence Gulf) generated 59 billion dollars (CAD) through economic activities for Canada and the United States (Martin Associates, 2018). This system is also the main route for the transit of 231 million metric tons of cargo and directly supports more than 105000 U.S. and Canadian jobs (Martin Associates, 2018). Approximately 4000 vessels travel along this seaway every year, transporting mainly agricultural, mining and manufactured products (St. Lawrence Seaway Corporation Management, 2019). More than 15 million Canadians reside in the hydrographic system of St. Lawrence, who have contributed, combined with industrial activities, to past and present anthropogenic stress levels in regard to many pollutants, including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs; Government of Canada, 1994).

PAHs constitute a wide class of organic pollutants comprising fused benzene rings (Haritash and Kaushik, 2009; AMAP, 2017). In the 1970s, 16 PAHs mainly emitted during fuel combustion were listed as priority environmental pollutants by the Environmental

Protection Agency of the United States (US EPA) and Government of Canada (Meek et al., 1994; Keith, 2014; AMAP, 2017; Roslund et al., 2018). Pyrogenic PAHs are produced via incomplete organic matter combustion (e.g., forest fires, volcanic eruptions and fossil fuel burning), while petrogenic PAHs are introduced into aquatic systems via natural oil seeps, accidental oil spills and rock weathering (Lima et al., 2005; Pampanin and Sydnes, 2017; Chen et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2019). PAHs are therefore derived from either natural processes or anthropogenic sources, but anthropogenic activities are the predominant PAH sources in the environment (Yanik et al., 2003; Morillo et al., 2008). PAHs do not readily degrade under natural conditions, and they thus tend to be moderately persistent (Pelletier et al., 2008; Haritash and Kaushik, 2009). Given their general low vapor pressure and hydrophobicity, PAHs typically accumulate in sediments, where they are ultimately trapped (Page et al., 1999; Haritash and Kaushik, 2009; AMAP, 2017). Bioaccumulation of PAHs might occur in certain invertebrates, such as blue mussels, upon exposure, but most vertebrates can readily metabolize these substances (Xue et Warshawsky, 2005; Haritash and Kaushik, 2009; Klungsøyr et al., 2010). The main concern arises from their carcinogenic/mutagenic potential during phase I metabolism in vertebrates (Van Schooten, 1991; Xue and Warshawsky, 2005; Haritash and Kaushik, 2009).

The aims of this baseline study are therefore to (1) assess the PAH distribution and level in modern sediments retrieved from the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence (EGSL); (2) determine their origin (i.e., pyrogenic or petrogenic) via diagnostic ratios, and finally (3) compare PAH levels between surface (post-1900) and basal (pre-1900) sediment samples obtained from selected cores. To achieve these goals, a total of 45 surface sediment samples was collected in the EGSL, i.e., from Québec city in the riverine section of the St. Lawrence System to the Old Harry oil and gas field in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (Fig. 1), with a Van Veen grab sampler (14 samples) or a box corer (31 samples). The uppermost 1-cm sediment layer was recovered using a spatula and stored in plastic bags (WhirlPack) at 4°C until further analysis. In addition, 7 push cores were subsampled from a box core collected in the Upper Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence and stored at 4°C (Fig. 1). Once at the laboratory, these push cores were sampled at the bottom (the last cm of each core). High-resolution seismic profiles were considered to target coring sites where sediment accumulation was not influenced by mass wasting events (Montero-Serrano *et al.*, 2018,

2019, 2020a,b). All samples were retrieved during the 2018, 2019, and 2020 Odyssée St-Laurent winter expeditions (hereinafter referred to as AMD18-OSL, AMD19-OSL, and AMD20-OSL, respectively) onboard the Canadian Coast Guard Ship (CCGS) icebreaker Amundsen and the 2020 Québec Maritime Network (Réseau Québec Maritime or RQM)-Marine Environmental Observation Prediction and Response Network (MEOPAR) expedition onboard the research vessel (R/V) Coriolis II (hereinafter referred to as COR2001). As modern sedimentation rates in the EGSL diminish exponentially from ~0.50 – 0.74 cm yr⁻¹ at the head of the estuary to 0.11–0.25 cm yr⁻¹ in the gulf (Smith and Schafer, 1999; Muzuka and Hillaire-Marcel, 1999; St-Onge *et al.*, 2003; Barletta *et al.*, 2010; Genovesi *et al.*, 2011; Thibodeau *et al.*, 2013), we estimate that surface sediments correspond to modern times at the head of the estuary, and they correspond the last decade at most in the gulf.

In regard to PAH extraction, the samples were sieved through a 150-µm Nitex® mesh to avoid any influence related to grain size variability. The $<150 \ \mu m$ fraction was freeze dried and crushed, and homogenized aliquots were employed for PAH extraction. All reagents were of analytical or high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade. PAHs were extracted via the one-step integrated accelerated solvent extraction (ASE) method developed by Choi et al. (2014) and implemented in other baseline studies targeting PAHs (e.g., Corminboeuf et al., 2021). Copper powder (<425 µm), which was activated with hydrochloric acid (HCl) 6 N, was employed to remove elemental sulfur, after which the samples were shaken for 3 min, rinsed with distilled water until a neutral pH was attained and then rinsed 3 times with both methanol and dichloromethane. Two deuterated spikes, i.e., 1-methylnaphthalene and benz(a)anthracene, were directly added onto each sediment sample before the packed extraction cells were left unsealed and loosely covered for 2 h at room temperature (Fig. S1). One blank, one duplicate, and one standard reference material NIST-1944 (National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) were analyzed with every batch of samples (12 samples/batch) to assess the method precision and accuracy. The adopted Dionex ASE 200 system (Thermo CO., Sunyvale, CA, USA) was set to the following conditions: hexanes and dichloromethane were applied as the solvent (4:1 v/v) at a temperature of 100°C and pressure of 1700 psi, with a flush volume of 60%, a purge time of 100 s and two static cycles of 5 min. With the use of a rotating evaporator, the extracts were evaporated to approximately 5 mL and then to exactly 0.5 mL under a nitrogen gas stream at room temperature. The obtained extracts were then analyzed using a gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies 6850 series II) coupled to a mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies 5975B VL MSD). Splitless injection of 1 μ L was performed with an autosampler (Agilent Technologies Auto Sampler 6850 series) with helium as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL min⁻¹. An Rxi®-5ms capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm inner diameter (ID) x 0.25 μ m FT, 5% diphenyl and 95% polysiloxane) was adopted. The oven temperature program was set as follows: 50°C for 2 min, 15°C/min until 275°C followed by a hold period of 2 min, 15°C/min until 325°C followed by a hold period 15 min, and a postrun of 2 min at 300°C. PAH Mix manufactured by AccuStandard was used to build calibration curves, together with a homemade alkylated PAH mix.

A total of 23 PAHs (the 16 priority PAHs identified by the US EPA and 7 alkyl-PAHS) was targeted in this study: naphthalene, 1-methylnaphthalene, 2methylnaphthalene, 2,6-dimethylnaphthalene, acenaphthylene, acenaphthene, 2,3,5trimethylnaphthalene, fluorene, phenanthrene, anthracene, 1-methylphenanthrene, 3,6dimethylphenanthrene, fluoranthene, 9,10-dimethylanthracene, pyrene, benz(a)anthracene, chrysene, benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, benzo(a)pyrene, indeno(1,2,3-c,d)pyrene, dibenz(a,h)anthracene and benzo(g,h,i)perylene. The PAH concentrations were not blank corrected since the detected contamination measured in the procedural blanks was below 0.01 µg mL⁻¹ (Table S1). The spike recoveries were $45 \pm 17\%$ (n=55) for 1-methynaphthalene-d10 and $64 \pm 27\%$ (n=55) for benz(a)anthracene-d12, and the samples were hence all spike corrected. The recoveries for 1-methynaphthalene-d10 were used to correct the results obtained for the 15 first PAHs in the above list (from napthalene to 9,10-dimethyanthracene), and the recoveries for benz(a)anthracene-d12 were used to correct the results obtained for the remaining PAHs (from pyrene to benzo(g,h,i)perylene. The method detection limit (MDL) for each PAH was calculated as suggested by the US EPA (Oblinger Childress et al., 1999). Thus, 7 replicates of the second-lowest calibration point were analyzed. The MDL was then obtained by multiplying the standard deviation of the determined concentration for each compound by 3.143. The MDL ranged from 1.6 ng g^{-1} for benz(a)anthracene to 31.2 ng g⁻¹ for acenaphthylene (Table S2). Diagnostic ratios of fluoranthene over the sum of fluoranthene and pyrene (Fla/[Fla+Pyr]) and of benz(a)anthracene over the sum of benz(a)anthracene and chrysene (BaA/[BaA+Chr]) were considered to discriminate PAH sources (i.e., pyrogenic vs petrogenic).

Sediment grain size analysis was performed on the <150 μ m sediment fraction with a Beckman Coulter LS13320 laser particle size analyzer in regard to the AMD19-OSL samples, and a Malvern Panalytical Mastersizer 3000 was adopted to analyze the AMD18-OSL, AMD20-OSL and COR2001 samples. Prior to grain size analysis, all samples were treated with ~5 mL of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and ~5 mL of hydrochloric acid (HCl 1 M) and then rinsed 3 times with distilled water before the addition of ~20 mL of sodium hexametaphosphate.

The total carbon (TC) and total organic carbon (TOC) contents in the <150 μ m sediment fraction were quantified at the Geotop Light Stable Isotope Geochemistry Laboratory (Montréal, Québec) with a Carlo-Erba NC 2500 elemental analyzer and following the acidification in solution method described in Hélie (2009). The analytical precision and accuracy were determined via duplicate sample analysis and replicate analyses of in-house and international standards (low-organic content soil, cyclohexanone-2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazone, atropine and acetanilide), respectively, and were better than $\pm 0.02\%$ (1 σ).

Regarding data processing, we followed the approach presented in Corminboeuf *et al.* (2021) and used R software (R Core Team, 2021) to perform statistical analysis. Briefly, values below the detection limit were imputed via multiplicative lognormal replacement with the zCompositions package (Palarea-Albaladejo and Martin-Fernandez, 2015) to preserve the geometry of the compositional data while accounting for corresponding detection limit thresholds. A log-centered (clr) transform was applied to the data with the compositions package (van den Boogaart and Tolosana-Delgado, 2008) to allow the valid application of classical (Euclidean) statistical methods to the compositional data (Aitchison, 1986, 1990; Montero-Serrano *et al.*, 2010). The NbClust (Charrad *et al.*, 2014) and factoextra (Kassambara and Mundt, 2020) packages were employed to determine the optimum number of clusters. Samples possessing similar PAH compositions within the EGSL were identified via fuzzy c-means (FCM; Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 2009)

clustering analysis with the cluster package (Maechler *et al.*, 2019). The FCM clustering results were visualized through principal coordinate ordination and silhouette plots, which allow visualization of the robustness of clusters (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 2009; Borcard *et al.*, 2011; Gamboa *et al.*, 2017). Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed of the PAH data and FCM clustering results with the goal of determining PAH associations with similar relative variation patterns (von Eynatten *et al.*, 2003; Montero-Serrano *et al.*, 2010). PCA was conducted with the compositions and factoextra packages. Finally, the FCM clustering results and TOC and Σ_{16} PAH data were employed to produce interpolated maps in Ocean Data View software (Schlitzer, 2021). These interpolated maps were generated using a weighted-average gridding algorithm with a quality limit of 1.2.

All analytical data presented are available electronically in Table S4. FCM clustering analysis revealed that there were two regional PAH clusters within the EGSL (hereinafter referred to as PAH C#1 and PAH C#2; Fig. 2A-C). PAH C#1 represents the samples collected in the Lower Estuary, mostly in the Baie-Comeau-Matane area (Fig. 2C), an area influenced by intense industrial anthropogenic activities (Pellerin-Massicotte, 1993; Working Group on the State of St. Lawrence Monitoring, 1994; Gagnon and Bergeron, 1997; Lee et al., 1999). This cluster also seems to be dominated by both mediummolecular weight (MMW = 4-5 rings) and high-molecular weight (HMW = 6 rings) PAHs (Fig. 2D). Note that low-molecular weight (LMW= 2-3 rings) PAHs are minor contributors to both clusters (Fig. 2D). PAH C#2 mostly represents samples retrieved from the Upper Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence. PAH C#2 samples also contain a higher proportion of HMW and MMW PAHs (Fig. 2D). The generated principal coordinate ordination diagram (Fig. 2B) and silhouette plot (Fig. S1) confirm the robustness of the above clusters. However, 5 samples retrieved from PAH C#1 and 7 samples retrieved from PAH C#2 attain lower than average (0.15) or negative silhouette values, indicating a questionable assignment (Figs. 2C and S1). Indeed, these samples are located at the boundary between PAH C#1 and PAH C#2, as shown in Fig. 2B, suggesting a mixture of PAH assemblages and sources.

The TOC content in the surface samples ($<150 \mu m$ fraction) ranges from 0.1 in the coarse-grained sediment samples (sand and silty sand) to 2.3% in the fine-grained sediment samples (sandy silt and silt) (Figs. 3 and 4A, respectively). Both PAH clusters exhibit an

average TOC content of $1.1 \pm 0.4\%$. Higher TOC contents (>1.7%) are found in the Baiedes-Chaleurs inlet area, a biologically highly productive area, offshore Matane near a pockmark, and close to the mouth of the Saint-Charles River in Québec city, an area strongly influenced by anthropic activities.

The sums of the concentrations of the 16 priority PAHs (Σ_{16} PAHs, dry weight or dw) identified by the US EPA in the surface sediments of the EGSL range from 71 to 5672 ng g^{-1} with a mean value of 325 ng g^{-1} (three statistical outliers are not considered; Fig. 4B). Specifically, samples retrieved from PAH C#1 exhibit Σ_{16} PAH concentrations ranging from 265 to 5672 ng g⁻¹ with a mean value of 427 ng g⁻¹, while the Σ_{16} PAH concentration in the PAH C#2 samples ranges from 72 ng g^{-1} to 2018 ng g^{-1} with a mean value of 267 ng g^{-1} (Fig. 5A). The highest PAH values are obtained in samples collected near Baie-Comeau (PAH C#1), at 2429 ng g^{-1} (COR2001-02VV, in a harbor area near an aluminum smelter) and 5672 ng g^{-1} (COR2001-06BC, ~ 5 km offshore of the same aluminum smelter harbor). Indeed, the Baie-des-Anglais area, home to an aluminum smelter harbor, a pulp and paper mill, a grain storage facility and a municipal sewage water discharge outlet, contains high concentrations of hydrocarbons and other pollutants in its sediments (Pellerin-Massicotte, 1993; Lee et al., 1999). The area was targeted for longterm monitoring and further pollutant analysis because of the possible risks posed to beluga whales frequenting the area (Multipartite Committee on Contaminated Sites of Concern for the St. Lawrence Beluga, 1998). Moreover, during the 1990s, the PAH content in surface sediments in this area exceeded the PAH toxic effect threshold for beluga whales (Gagnon and Bergeron, 1997). Most obtained values for the surface samples from PAH C#2 fall within the ranges of PAH sum values measured elsewhere along the St. Lawrence River, but they are lower than those in areas under heavy anthropogenic pressure, such as the Saguenay Fjord, Baie-Comeau area and upstream sectors of the St. Lawrence Estuary (e.g., the Great Lakes, Montréal and Québec city) (Table 1). The PAH concentration in estuarine environments near urban centers is generally high given their proximity to watersheds and airsheds (Latimer and Zheng, 2003). Compared to worldwide values (Table 1), the EGSL exhibits PAH levels similar to those in well-urbanized and moderately polluted areas, such as the Pearl River Delta in southern China (Mai et al., 2002). Moreover, the EGSL values are higher than those determined for other rivers with moderate anthropogenic impacts, such as the San Joaquin River in western USA (Pereira *et al.*, 1996), but lower than those in highly polluted areas, such as Boston Harbor in northeastern USA (Shiaris and Jambard Sweet, 1986). However, given the large differences between published PAH studies (i.e., extraction and quantification methods and number of analyzed PAHs), direct comparisons should be carefully performed.

It has been suggested in several studies that the grain size, sedimentary TOC and black carbon particles (i.e., highly condensed residues and products of incomplete combustion) are important factors influencing the sorption, sequestration, and fate of PAHs in marine sediments (e.g., Oen et al., 2006; Sánchez-García et al., 2010; Gu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Gu et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2017). In this study, grain size variation (<150 µm fraction) in the EGSL sediments does not influence the PAH concentration in the samples, suggesting that the grain size is a noncritical parameter affecting the regional distribution of PAHs (Fig. 3). Moreover, the nonparametric Spearman rank method was performed to measure the correlation between the TOC and PAH concentrations in each cluster. Note that coarse-grained sediment samples with <0.5% TOC were not included in the above correlation analysis, as these samples are mainly influenced by local coastal processes and therefore considered outliers. A poor correlation is observed between the TOC and PAH concentrations in both PAH clusters (Fig. 5B), which may indicate that sedimentary TOC does not play an important role in the PAH distribution in the EGSL sediments. Poor correlations between the PAHs and TOC concentrations can be obtained when organic pollutant concentrations are strongly influenced by anthropogenic inputs instead of natural inputs (e.g., Mai et al., 2002; Gu et al., 2013, 2016; Ma et al., 2017). Published data on TOC and PAHs (including Σ_{15} PAHs) based on two sediment cores collected in the Lower Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence (Panetta, 2009) also revealed a poor correlation between TOC and PAHs (Fig. 5C), in agreement with our results. However, nonpublished black carbon data (measured in the organic geochemistry environmental laboratory of Y. Gélinas at Concordia University) based on these same sediment cores indicated a significant positive correlation between the soot black carbon and Σ_{15} PAH concentrations (Fig. 5D). Based on these results, we hypothesize that the distribution of PAHs in EGSL sediments is likely controlled by combustion-derived black carbon particles associated with the intense industrial and marine transport activities occurring in this region.

In regard to the core samples, the approximate age of the basal sediment samples was estimated according to the sedimentation rates reported for collected sediment cores that are similar those obtained in this study (Table 2; Smith and Schafer, 1999). We estimated that the basal sediments of cores AMD18-OSL-03BC, 05BC, 06BC, 07BC and 08BC were most likely deposited prior to 1900 common era or CE (the pre-industrial period), while in terms of cores AMD18-OSL-01BC and 02BC, sediments accumulated after 1900 CE (the post-industrial period). Thus, these sediment core samples provide an opportunity to document the PAH distribution and concentration during the pre- and post-industrial periods.

These core samples exhibit a wide range of the Σ_{16} PAH concentration (Fig. 5A). Indeed, the Σ_{16} PAH concentration in the five pre-industrial samples (1006-1822 CE) ranges from 93 to 172 ng g^{-1} (mean value of 130 ng g^{-1}), which is relatively low and comparable to that in worldwide regions under little to no anthropogenic pressure. For example, the Σ_{16} PAH concentration in sediments retrieved from northern Baffin Bay ranges from 26 – 199 ng g^{-1} (mean value of 106 ng g^{-1} ; Foster *et al.*, 2015), and it ranges from 8 to 248 ng g^{-1} in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (mean value of 57 ng g^{-1} ; Corminboeuf *et al.*, 2021). Conversely, the Σ_{16} PAH concentration in the two postindustrial samples (1937-1943 CE) is higher, ranging from 1216 to 1621 ng g^{-1} (mean value of 1419 ng g^{-1}), which is 2.5 times higher on average than the PAH concentration in all surface samples (Fig. 5A). The industrialization process ensuing in North America until the mid-20th century was a source of many pollutants, including PAHs, in the St. Lawrence River (Working Group on the State of the St. Lawrence Monitoring, 2014). It is thus expected that the highest Σ_{16} PAH values occur in sediments deposited during this period (Table 2). In 1988, the St. Lawrence Action Plan targeted 50 priority plants discharging suspended solids, organic matter, oils, greases and metals directly into the St. Lawrence River (Working Group on the State of the St. Lawrence Monitoring, 1994). These plants mainly stemmed from the pulp and paper sector and metallurgy sector. Following the first phase of the St. Lawrence Action Plan, which occurred between 1988 and 1993, a 74% reduction in liquid toxic waste (including PAHs, metals and polychlorinated biphenyls or PCBs) released into the St. Lawrence River was achieved in 1993. Specifically, the Canadian Reynolds Metal Company at Baie-Comeau (which was later bought by Alcoa and is an actual aluminum smelter) successfully reduced its PAH emissions by 99% (Working Group on the State of the St. Lawrence Monitoring, 1994). This reduction in industrial PAH emissions could explain the lower PAH values determined in the surface sediments retrieved from the EGSL than those in sediment samples deposited in the early 20th century (Fig. 5A).

Because PAHs are emitted as a mixture and since their relative proportions depend on the emission sources, it is possible to determine the origin based on the diagnostic ratios between specific compounds (Tobiszewski and Namieśnik, 2012). The ratios of fluoranthene over the sum of fluoranthene and pyrene (Fla/[Fla+Pyr]) and of benz(a)anthracene over the sum of benz(a)anthracene and chrysene (BaA/[BaA+Chr]) are generally considered for sediments (e.g., Yunker et al., 2002; Foster et al., 2015; Gu et al., 2013, 2016; Ma et al., 2017; Corminboeuf et al., 2021). Fla/[Fla+Pyr] values below 0.4 suggest a petrogenic source, while values between 0.4 and 0.5 are characteristic of fossil fuel combustion, and values above 0.5 indicate a biomass combustion source (Yunker et al., 2002). Generally, BaA/[BaA+Chr] diagnostic ratio values below 0.2 indicate a petrogenic source, while ratio values between 0.2 and 0.35 correspond to mixed sources, and ratio values above 0.35 suggest a pyrogenic source (Yunker *et al.*, 2002). In our dataset, the PAH C#1 samples exhibit Fla/[Fla+Pyr] values ranging from 0.35 to 0.60 with a mean value of 0.46 and BaA/[BaA+Chr] values ranging from 0.25 to 0.45 with a mean value of 0.35 (Fig. 6). These two ratios suggest that both fossil fuel combustion and pyrogenic sources are responsible for the PAHs detected in our samples. The PAH C#1 samples are positively correlated with parent PAHs containing 4 to 6 rings, such as dibenz(a,h)anthracene, benz(a)anthracene, indeno(1,2,3-c,d)pyrene, benzo(g,h,i)perylene, benzo(b)fluoranthene and benzo(a)pyrene (Fig. 7), which are commonly associated with pyrogenic PAHs (Balmer et al., 2019). These results are consistent with anthropogenic signatures in urbanized areas and the deposition of pyrogenic atmospheric PAHs.

The PAH C#2 samples exhibit Fla/[Fla+Pyr] values ranging from 0.05 to 0.56 (mean value of 0.38) and BaA/[BaA+Chr] values ranging from 0.19 to 0.40 (mean value of 0.31) (Fig. 6). Both clusters and ratios indicate a mixed/pyrogenic source for the detected

PAHs. The primary natural atmospheric source of PAHs in Canada is forest fires, while the main anthropogenic atmospheric sources in the province of Québec include residential wood heating and aluminum smelters (Working Group on the State of the St. Lawrence Monitoring, 2014). The main sources of PAHs in water and sediments are spills of petroleum products, various industries (e.g., metal manufacturing and coke plants) and atmospheric deposition (Working Group on the State of the St. Lawrence Monitoring, 2014). Additionally, atmospheric deposition accounts for a major PAH source near urban areas (Laflamme and Hites, 1978; Latimer and Zheng, 2003), which can explain the pyrogenic signature observed in our samples. However, certain samples retrieved from the PAH C#2 cluster also occur within the petrogenetic signature zone (Fig. 6). The PAH C#2 samples are strongly correlated with alkylated PAHs (i.e., 1-methylnaphthalene, 2methylnaphthalene, 2,6-dimethylnatphthalene and 1-methylphenanthrene; Fig. 7), which are mostly associated with noncombustion-derived petrogenic PAHs (Balmer et al., 2019). The presence of active pockmarks in the Laurentian Channel (Pinet et al., 2008; Lavoie et al., 2010) might explain the observed strong correlation between the PAH C#2 samples and naturally derived alkylated PAHs (e.g., Boitsov et al., 2009). More than 2000 pockmarks with a diameter ranging from a few tens of meters up to 700 m have been identified in the Lower Estuary, with approximately 109 pockmarks located offshore of Matane (Pinet et al., 2010; Lavoie et al., 2010). In the gulf, many pockmarks have also been found along the Laurentian Channel (mainly in the Old Harry sector) and Baie-des-Chaleurs area (Fader, 1991; Lavoie et al., 2009), but these pockmarks remain scarcely documented (Sirdeys, 2019). Overall, the PAH C#2 samples are therefore influenced by both petrogenic PAHs stemming from pockmarks and pyrogenic PAHs attributed to atmospheric deposition.

The source-diagnostic PAH ratios determine for the basal sediments in the cores exhibit a clear separation between the pre- and post-industrial samples (Fig. 6). Indeed, the Fla/[Fla+Pyr] values for the pre-industrial samples (1006-1822 CE) range from 0.25 to 0.49 (mean value of 0.41), which indicates a greater petrogenic influence with some fossil combustion contribution (Fig. 6). The only two BaA/[BaA+Chr] values available for the pre-industrial samples are 0.20 and 0.22, which occur on the ratio boundary between petrogenic and pyrogenic sources, in agreement with the Fla/[Fla+Pyr] ratio. Conversely,

the Fla/[Fla+Pyr] values for the two post-industrial samples (1937-1943 CE) are 0.45 and 0.49, suggesting a fossil fuel combustion source (Fig. 6). The BaA/[BaA+Chr] values for these 2 same samples are 0.37 and 0.42, respectively, which suggest a pyrogenic influence consistent with the previous ratios. These results highlight the impact of anthropogenic PAH inputs into the sediments retrieved from the EGSL during the industrialization period. This also enables us to document that the efforts implemented during the 1980s and 1990s targeting toxic liquid discharge reduction (including PAHs) into the St. Lawrence River not only led to a reduction in the PAH content in sediments but also drove the corresponding PAH source signatures slightly more into the petrogenic and natural zones.

The effects range-low (ERL, the probability of adverse biological effects is <10%) and effects range-median (ERM, the probability of adverse biological effects is >50%) are useful and easily accessible guideline values proposed by Long *et al.* (1995) to quickly determine the potential ecological risk of the PAH content in sediments. In most of the sediment samples collected across the EGSL, the PAH content is below both values (Table 3). However, the ERL threshold value is exceeded at certain stations, namely, those stations with acepathene, phenanthrene, benzo(a)pyrene and dibenz(a,h)anthracene concentrations above the ERL are located in the Baie-Comeau area, which is understandable given the known industrial anthropogenic influences, as documented above (Fig. 4B). A station with fluorene and pyrene levels exceeding the corresponding ERL values is located offshore of Matane and is therefore likely influenced by the well-documented active pockmarks in this area (Pinet *et al.*, 2010). Excluding these stations, no results exceed the ERL values (Table 3), indicating that benthic or other organisms living near the water-sediment interface are exposed to a low ecological risk regarding these pollutants.

This study provides a robust spatial distribution inventory of pre- and postindustrial PAH levels in EGSL sediments. Statistical analysis indicates that the Lower Estuary sediments (mainly in the Baie-Comeau-Matane area) exhibit distinct PAH signatures over the Upper Estuary and Gulf sediments. The highest Σ_{16} PAH values in surface sediments were found in the Baie-Comeau area (2429 - 5672 ng g⁻¹), which is consistent with the known anthropogenic pressure stemming from the industrialized sector. The basal sediments in the cores corresponding to the early post-industrial period reveal higher Σ_{16} PAH levels (mean value of 1419 ng g⁻¹) than those in modern sediments (mean value of 325 ng g⁻¹), while the pre-industrial core samples reveal the lowest values (mean value of 130 ng g⁻¹). Most of the surface sediment samples collected in the EGSL exhibit Σ_{16} PAH concentrations similar to those in other well-urbanized estuarine systems. The PAH concentration and distribution in the EGSL sediments are mainly governed by black carbon particles derived from anthropogenic emissions. Indeed, the source-diagnostic PAH ratios suggest that (1) pyrogenic PAHs originating from atmospheric deposition dominate, with a minor influence of petrogenic sources derived from seabed pockmarks, and (2) pyrogenic sources constitute the primary sources of PAHs in Lower Estuary sediments deposited during the early postindustrial period. Finally, most of the sediment samples obtained from the EGSL contain PAH contents below the ERL value, which indicates a low ecological risk to benthic or other organisms living near the water-sediment interface. Overall, the baseline data provided here are of great value for resource management of the marine areas in the EGSL.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data for this article can be found online at http: XXX.

CRediT authorship contribution statement Anne Corminboeuf: investigation, writing – original draft. Allyson Dalpé: Sample preparation, investigation. Jean-Carlos Montero-Serrano: conceptualization, resources, writing – review and editing, funding acquisition. Richard St-Louis: resources, writing – review and editing. Yves Gélinas: investigation, writing – review and editing

Declaration of competing interest

All authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest regarding the publication of this

paper. The first two authors contributed equally to this paper.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Locations of the sediment samples collected in the Estuary and Gulf of St. Lawrence (EGSL) in eastern Canada. The white labels and dashed lines indicate EGSL subdivisions, while the black squares indicate the selected cities. The orange pentagons indicate the location of the two sediment cores collected by Panetta (2009) and discussed in this study. Abbreviations: BC = box core; VV = Van Veen grab sampler; SF = Saguenay Fjord; PdM = Pointe-des-Monts; BdC = Baie-des-Chaleurs; MS = Magdalen Shallows; LC = Laurentian Channel; AC = Anticosti Channel.

Fig. 2. (A) Optimal number of PAH clusters based on the average silhouette method; (B) ordination of the fuzzy clusters (principal coordinate analysis, PCoA). In this figure, each cluster is associated with a small pie chart whose segment radii are proportional to its membership coefficient; (C) map illustration of the FCM clustering results for the surface samples; (D) ternary diagram for the surface samples showing the relative contributions of the low-molecular weight (LMW, 2-3 rings), medium-molecular weight (MMW, 4-5 rings) and high-molecular weight (HMW, 6 rings) parent PAHs.

Fig. 3. Ternary diagram showing Shepard's sediment classification (Shepard, 1954) of the $<150 \mu m$ fraction in the EGSL surface sediments.

Fig. 4. Spatial distributions of the (A) TOC (%) content and (B) Σ_{16} PAHs (ng g⁻¹, dw) in the EGSL surface sediments. The red rectangles indicating the stations in (B) correspond to the basal samples from the sediment cores studied here.

Fig. 5. (A) Box plots for Σ_{16} PAHs separated by the clusters and pre- and post-industrial sediment samples. (B-C) Correlation of TOC versus the PAH concentration for each PAH cluster and for the two sediment cores collected in the Lower Estuary (core 23) and Gulf (core 20). Note that in (B), the three outlier samples (AMD18-OSL-03BC, COR2001-06BC, and COR2001-02VV) with the highest sums of PAHs (>1500 ng g⁻¹, dw) are excluded from the correlation analysis. (D) Correlation between the soot organic carbon (OC) (black carbon) and Σ_{15} PAH concentrations in the two identical sediment cores in (C). The TOC and PAH data pertaining to cores 23 and 20 are obtained from Panetta (2009), while the soot OC data for these same cores are nonpublished data stemming from the organic geochemistry environmental laboratory of Y. Gélinas at Concordia University.

Fig. 6. (A) Ratios of fluoranthene over the sum of fluoranthene and pyrene (Fla/[Fla+Pyr]) and (B) ratios of benz(a)anthracene over the sum of benz(a)anthracene and chrysene (BaA/[BaA+Chr]) for all EGSL sediment samples.

Fig. 7. Biplot of principal component analysis (PCA) based on centered log-ratio PAH data for the EGSL surface samples. The color scale gradient on the right indicates the contribution percentage of each PAH to the overall variance in the data. The center of each cluster is plotted as a larger circle.

Table captions

Table 1. Comparison of the Σ PAH values in EGSL marine sediments, as well as those in the sediments of other regions of the St. Lawrence River hydrological basin and worldwide river and estuarine sediments. SLE = St. Lawrence Estuary. ^a The mean value, if available, is reported in parentheses. * Only the median value is available.

Table 2. Estimated age (common era, CE) of the basal core samples based on the sedimentation rates estimated by Smith and Schafer (1999) for nearby sediment cores, as well as their Σ_{16} PAH concentrations. The bold dates indicate the post-industrial samples.

Table 3. Risk assessment of the PAHs in the sediments retrieved from the study area. The red values indicate detected PAH levels that are higher than the ERL values. *The ERL and ERM values are obtained from Long *et al.* (1995).

Supplementary material

Fig. S1. Silhouette plot of fuzzy clustering of the surface samples retrieved from the EGSL based on the PAH concentration. This plot allows visualization of the robustness of clusters, where lower than average negative or negative silhouette values indicate an incorrect and/or questionable assignment. The plot indicates that most of the surface samples are correctly classified.

Table S1. Results of procedural blanks from the PAH analysis. * < MDL = Not detected.</th>

Table S2. Method detection limit (MDL) calculated from the 7 replicates.

Table S3. Content range (ng g^{-1} , dw) for each PAH detected in this study. The mean value is reported in parentheses.

Table S4. Coordinates, water depths, cluster, grain size ($<150 \mu m$ fraction), TOC, and PAH data for the studied surface sediment samples.















Table 1. Comparison of the Σ PAH values in EGSL marine sediments, as well as those in the sediments of other regions of the St. Lawrence River hydrological basin and worldwide river and estuarine sediments. SLE = St. Lawrence Estuary. ^a The mean value, if available, is reported in parentheses. * Only the median value is available.

| Region | Number of PAHs analyzed | Values ^a (ng g ⁻¹) | Reference | |
|---|-------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|--|
| San Joaquin River (USA) | Σ16 ΕΡΑ | 5 - 756 (160) | Pereira et al., 1996 | |
| Boston Harbor (USA) | Σ14 | 483 - 718 364 (50 990) | Shiaris and Jambard-Sweet, 1986 | |
| Pearl River Delta (China) | Σ16 ΕΡΑ | 156 - 10 811 (2 056) | Mai et al., 2002 | |
| Owen Sound Bay (Lake Huron, Great Lakes, Canada) | Σ16 ΕΡΑ | 85 – 46 499 (7243) | Buell et al., 2021 | |
| Montréal Harbor | Σ12 | 14 200* | Government of Canada, 1994 | |
| Stn. 23 (head of the Lower SLE) Stn. 20 (Lower SLE/Gulf) | Σ15 | 238 - 351 (260) 51 - 131 (82) | Panetta, 2009 | |
| Saguenay Fjord (SLE tributary) Lower SLE | Σ12 Σ12 | $200 - 22\ 000$ $700 - 5\ 000$ | Gearing et al., 1994 | |
| Saguenay Fjord, SLE tributary | Σ18 | 213 - 496 | Pelletier et al., 2009 | |
| Baie des Anglais (Lower SLE, near Baie-Comeau) | Σ16 ΕΡΑ | 373 – 38 483 | Lee et al., 1999 | |
| SLE – PAH C#1 | Σ16 EPA | 247 - 5672 (835) | | |
| SLE – PAH C#2 | Σ16 ΕΡΑ | 72 – 2018 (353) | This study | |
| SLE – core sediments | $\Sigma 16 EPA$ | 93 – 1621 (498) | | |

Table 2. Estimated age (common era, CE) of the basal core samples based on the sedimentation rates estimated by Smith and Schafer (1999) for nearby sediment cores, as well as their Σ_{16} PAH concentrations. The bold dates indicate the pos-tindustrial samples.

| Core from this study and their analyzed depth AMD18-OSL- | Sedimentation rate calculated by Smith and Schafer (1999) (cm yr ⁻¹) | Estimated year for the base of our cores (CE) | $\Sigma_{16} \text{ PAHs}$ (ng g^{-1}) |
|--|--|---|---|
| 01BC (43-44cm) | 0.539 | ~ 1937 | 1215.9 |
| 02BC (43-44cm) | 0.580 | ~ 1943 | 1621.2 |
| 03BC (48-49cm) | 0.248 | ~ 1822 | 147.8 |
| 05BC (42-43cm) | 0.042 | ~ 1006 | 92.6 |
| 06BC (35-36cm) | 0.150 | ~ 1781 | 171.9 |
| 07BC (43-44cm) | 0.115 | ~ 1640 | 135.0 |
| 08BC (44-45cm) | 0.139 | ~ 1698 | 103.5 |

Table 3. Risk assessment of the PAHs in the sediments retrieved from the study area. The red values indicate detected PAH levels that are higher than the ERL values. *The ERL and ERM values are obtained from Long et al. (1995).

| | Content range | e (ng g ⁻¹ dw) | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|------|------|
| Compound | Surface sediments | Basal sediments | ERL* | ERM* |
| Naphthalene | 2.1 – 33.9 | 4.3 - 55.0 | 160 | 2100 |
| 2-Methylnaphthalene | < 17.2 | < 17.2 | 70 | 670 |
| Acenaphthylene | < 31.2 | < 31.2 | 44 | 640 |
| Acenaphthene | < 15.8 - 36.0 | < 15.8 | 16 | 500 |
| Fluorene | < 3.0 - 57.1 | < 3.0 - 22.1 | 19 | 540 |
| Phenanthrene | < 2.6 - 314.5 | 9.9 - 144.3 | 240 | 1500 |
| Anthracene | < 2.6 - 73.6 | < 2.6 - 27.7 | 85.3 | 1100 |
| Fluoranthene | 3.4 - 520.0 | 2.0 - 283.0 | 600 | 5100 |
| Pyrene | 8.8 - 700.2 | 6.0 - 294.1 | 665 | 2600 |
| Benz(a)anthracene | < 1.6 - 254.3 | < 1.6 - 48.3 | 261 | 1600 |
| Chrysene | 4.9 - 315.6 | 2.1 - 67.4 | 384 | 2800 |
| Benzo(a)pyrene | 3.4 - 664.6 | 0.3 - 95.8 | 430 | 1600 |
| Dibenz(a,h)anthracene | < 3.0 - 210.4 | < 3.0 - 24.2 | 63.4 | 260 |