

1     **Distribution patterns and ecological risk of endocrine-disrupting**  
2     **chemicals at Qingduizi Bay (China): A preliminary survey in a**  
3     **developing maricultured bay**

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24 **Abstract**

25 The occurrence and estrogenic activities of seven phenolic endocrine-disrupting  
26 chemical (EDC) compounds (nonylphenol (NP), octylphenol (4-OP), 2,4-  
27 dichlorophenol (2,4-DCP), 4-tertbutylphenol (4-*t*-BP), 4-tert-octylphenol (4-*t*-OP),  
28 tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), and bisphenol A (BPA)) in the sediments of  
29 Qingduizi Bay (Northern Yellow Sea, China) in superficial sediments were investigated  
30 to evaluate their potential ecological impacts on the health of aquaculture organisms.  
31 All compounds, except 4-OP and 4-*t*-BP, were recorded in most sampling sites (1.06 -  
32 28.07 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw in maricultural ponds (MPs), 1.98 - 8.22 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw in outer bay (OB)).  
33 BPA and 4-*t*-OP were the predominant EDC compounds in MPs and OB, respectively.  
34 Correlation between BPA and 4-*t*-OP indicated these compounds may share a similar  
35 source or pathway. Analyzed estrogenic activity revealed a low risk of total EDCs.  
36 The ranking of risk quotient showed 4-*t*-OP posed a median risk and TBBPA posed a  
37 high risk to the aquatic ecosystem.

38 **Keywords:** Endocrine-disrupting chemicals, Sediment, Pond mariculture, Risk  
39 quotient, Estrogenic activity, Qingduizi Bay.

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41 Endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs) are listed as priority substances in the  
42 Directive (Directive, 2013) due to evidence of significant estrogenic activity and  
43 teratogenicity to aquatic species, wildlife, and humans (Choi et al., 2004; Roepke et al.,  
44 2005; Yang et al., 2006). Alkylphenols (APs), tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), and  
45 bisphenol A (BPA) mimic hormones and thus impair the reproductive systems of  
46 organisms (Fowler et al., 2012). They are considered to be xenoestrogens leading to  
47 metabolic disorders and imbalance of homeostasis in aquatic life (Maqbool et al., 2016).

48 APs are widely applied as a raw material in the manufacture of alkylphenol  
49 ethoxylates (APEOs), as well as in the preparation of curing agents, phenolic resins,  
50 heat stabilizers, polymers, and antioxidants (Ying et al., 2002; Esteban et al., 2014; Liao  
51 and Kannan, 2014). Nonylphenols (NPs) and octylphenols (OPs), present in the water  
52 column, sediments and living organisms, are the most prevalent APs (Lye et al., 1999;  
53 David et al., 2009). Similarly, BPA is also an important industrial material used for food  
54 cans, powder paints, engineering plastics, and dental fillings (Staples et al., 1998).

55 Xenoestrogenic phenols in the marine environment have been extensively  
56 investigated due to their ubiquitous occurrence and potential negative ecological effects  
57 (Tiwari et al., 2016; Diao et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2019). Domestic and industrial sewage  
58 discharges are the primary pathways for EDC release into the environment, including  
59 coasts and estuarine regions (Tiwari et al., 2016).

60 Organic pollutants, such as EDCs and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, are  
61 adsorbed onto particulate matters and accumulated into sediments due to their  
62 hydrophobicity (Ying and Kookana, 2003; Keshavarzifard et al., 2018). Surface

63 sediments are the main reservoir for organic pollutants and are efficient proxies for  
64 monitoring and evaluating benthic environmental quality (Yuan et al., 2015; Yang et al.,  
65 2018). Resuspended sediments can release organic pollutants into the seawater via  
66 physicochemical and biological processes, leading to secondary pollution in the  
67 ecosystem (Gui et al., 2014). Investigating the levels of EDCs in mariculture areas using  
68 sediment cores provides historical trends of organic pollutants, offering critical  
69 information to support management strategies. However, analysis of surface sediments  
70 to determine current concentrations of xenobiotic pollutants may offer adequate  
71 baseline information for public health risk management (Sugni et al., 2007).

72 Qingduizi Bay (39°41'59"–39°49'31"N, 123°11'41"–123°26'06"E) is an  
73 important estuarine semi-enclosed bay in the northern Yellow Sea of China, covering a  
74 tidal flat area of 130 km<sup>2</sup> (Compilation committee for survey of China bays, 1991) and  
75 exposed to sewage discharge (e.g. organic pollutants: aquaculture food residues and  
76 pesticides) from pond culture, dockyards, and sea farming along the coastline (Wu et  
77 al., 2011). This bay is considered the most developed mariculture area in China, with  
78 sea cucumber, jellyfish, and razor clam as the main productive species. Here, farming  
79 areas increased from 5958.74 to 8356.55 hm<sup>2</sup> between 1990 and 2013, with pond  
80 aquaculture covering approximately 5384 hm<sup>2</sup> (Liu et al., 2018).

81 The ubiquity of EDCs in freshwater ecosystems is evident (Zhang et al., 2016).  
82 However, the presence of these compounds in this area is limited. EDCs have been  
83 studied in water and organisms of coastal systems worldwide (Salgueiro-González et  
84 al., 2015; Chiu et al., 2018). However, few reports have addressed EDCs in developing

85 mariculture bays, which are considered sensitive and hazardous not only to the natural  
86 system but to human health. The main objectives of the present work are as follows: (i)  
87 perform a comparative study concerning the occurrence and distribution of EDCs in the  
88 surface sediments of mariculture ponds and outer bay (OB) of Qingduizi Bay; (ii)  
89 clarify the relationship among different phenolic EDC components and the correlation  
90 of these components with geochemical characteristics; and (iii) assess the potential risk  
91 of EDCs in sediments for benthic organisms. The results of this study will provide  
92 efficient baseline information for environmental monitoring and further policy  
93 decision-making on governance of aquaculture strategy and seafood safety.

94 The sediment samples were collected in August 2012 in two sites or aquatic  
95 systems in terms of presence or absence of aquaculture activity: (i) a maricultural pond  
96 (MP) occupied by numerous aquaculture ponds, and (ii) an OB without aquaculture  
97 activity. A total of 31 stations (15 in MPs and 16 in OB) perpendicular to the bay mouth  
98 were sampled (Fig. 1).

99 0–5 cm of sediments were sampled from the seabed surface using a van Veen grab  
100 (0.02 m<sup>2</sup>). The samples were stored in a pre-cleaned glass jar in a freezer, and kept at  
101 –20 °C in the laboratory for further analysis. The wet samples were freeze-dried under  
102 conditions of –52 °C and <20 Pa with a vacuum refrigeration dryer (FD-1C-50, Beijing  
103 Biocool Instrument Co., Ltd., Beijing, China) for 36 h to a constant weight. Each dried  
104 sample was divided into two sub-samples: one for geochemical analysis and the other  
105 for EDC analysis. The sub-samples for EDC analysis were sieved through a 100 mesh  
106 sieve to remove large items (e.g., stones, sticks, and shells), homogenized, and stored

107 at 4 °C for further analysis.

108 Six geophysical indicators, including the percentage of total carbon (TC), total  
109 nitrogen (TN), total organic carbon (TOC), organic matter (OM), mud fractions (silt–  
110 clay), and ratios of TC and TN (C/N) of sediments, were estimated from the composite  
111 sub-sample in each site. For TOC, samples were treated with 0.1 mol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl solution  
112 for 18 h to remove inorganic carbon and then freeze-dried before analysis. The  
113 sedimental TN, TC, and TOC were determined using a Vario Macro CHN element  
114 analyzer (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany). C/N values were  
115 calculated using TN and TC ratios. OM was determined through loss on ignition (24 h  
116 at 450 °C) according to the method described by Craft et al. (1991). The proportions of  
117 mud (silt–clay fractions, <0.63 µm) were determined by sieving the dried samples  
118 following Soares et al. (1999).

119 Seven phenolic EDC components, namely, BPA, TBBPA, nonylphenol (NP),  
120 octylphenol (4-OP), 2,4-dichlorophenol (2,4-DCP), 4-tertbutylphenol (4-*t*-BP), and 4-  
121 tert-octylphenol (4-*t*-OP), which are commonly detected in marine environments, were  
122 selected for analysis in the present study. All the standards and chemicals applied in the  
123 analysis were purchased from Chem Service (West Chester, USA).

124 Prior to machine analysis for EDCs, the sediment samples were pretreated  
125 following the methodology described by Yuan et al. (2017). Briefly, the freeze-dried  
126 sediments (approximately 5.0 g) were mixed with 1.0 g celite and ground into a powder  
127 using a pre-cleaned pestle. Then, 100 µL of BPA-d<sub>16</sub> (1 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>) was added to the  
128 samples to create a surrogate standard. The mixtures were extracted twice with

129 dichloromethane/acetonitrile (1:1, v/v) in the extract pond using an ASE350 apparatus  
130 (ASE350, Dionex, USA). The extraction conditions were: 2000 psi pressure,  
131 temperature 60 °C and 5 min, 60 s N<sub>2</sub> purge, static cycle three times. The crude extract  
132 was concentrated using a rotary evaporator and then diluted to 1 ml with  
133 water/methanol (20:80, v/v).

134 The determination of EDCs was performed on a high-performance liquid  
135 chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS/MS) comprising a Finnigan  
136 Surveyor MS Pump and Finnigan Surveyor autosampler (Thermo Electron Corporation,  
137 San Jose, CA, USA) with a Thermo Finnigan TSQ Quantum Discovery Max triple  
138 quadrupole mass spectrometer. A Waters Symmetry C18 column (150 mm × 2.1 mm  
139 i.d., 3.5 μm) connected to a Javelin guard column (Betasil C18, 2.1 × 20 mm, 5 μm)  
140 was used for separation. The flow rate of the mobile phase comprising methanol and 2%  
141 ammonia was 0.20 mL/min, and 10 μL of the extract was injected. The proportion of  
142 methanol was linearly increased from 50% to 80% within 3 min, held for 1 min,  
143 increased to 100% within 1 min, held for 5 min, reverted to 50%, and then held for 2  
144 min. The negative ion multiple reaction monitoring mode was used, and the transitions  
145 of monitored ions are listed as follows: BPA: 227.10/212.30; TBBPA: 543.00/81.03;  
146 OP: 205.00/106.06; NP: 219.10/106.03; 2,4-DCP: 161.30/125.30; 4-*t*-BP:  
147 149.00/133.30; 4-*t*-OP: 205.00/134.10. Nitrogen was used as the curtain and collision  
148 gas.

149 Strict quality control procedures were followed to ensure reliable results during  
150 analysis. The procedural blank and the spiked sample with standards were applied in

151 every twenty sediment samples to circumvent cross-contamination and interference.  
152 Extracted blank samples, calibration curves, and verification standards were analyzed  
153 at the beginning, middle, and end of each sample batch, respectively. The coefficient of  
154 determination ( $r^2$ ) for each calibration curve was satisfactory ( $>0.99$ ). 10 $\mu$ L, 50 $\mu$ L, and  
155 100 $\mu$ L of BPA-d<sub>16</sub> (1 $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>) were spiked in blank control samples before extraction  
156 and analysis in recovery tests. Meanwhile, three parallel experiments were conducted  
157 in each blank and sediment samples, and the mean recovery of surrogate standards  
158 ranged from 72.3% to 81.2%. The limits of detection, defined as the concentration that  
159 yields an S/N equal to three, were 0.27 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for BPA and 4-*t*-BP, 0.13 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for  
160 TBBPA, 0.28 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for NP, 0.26 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for 4-OP, and 0.24 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for 2,4-DCP, 4-*t*-OP.  
161 The final concentrations were corrected based on the recoveries. The results showed  
162 remarkable repeatability and reproducibility of the measurement.

163 Pearson correlation analysis was executed in R (R Core Team, 2017) with the  
164 package “ggcorrplot” to test the relationship between phenolic EDC compounds and  
165 geochemical factors. Concentrations below detection limits were assigned a value equal  
166 to half of the detection limit (Arditsoglou and Voutsas, 2012).

167 The estrogen equivalent concentrations (EEQs) of EDCs and their risk quotient  
168 were used to evaluate the potential ecological risk. The calculation of EEQs is based on  
169 the estradiol equivalency factor (EEF), which is defined as the relative potencies of  
170 individual EDC compounds with respect to  $\beta$ -estradiol (Gutendorf and Westendorf,  
171 2001), as shown in equation (1):

$$172 \quad \text{EEQ}_i = \text{EEF}_i \times C_i, \quad (1)$$



173 where  $i$  refers to the compound  $i$  with concentration  $C$ . The EEFs were obtained from  
174 Gutendorf and Westendorf (2001) and Sun et al. (2013). To measure the level of  
175 estrogenic potential in sediment the total EEQ (EEQ<sub>t</sub>) based on the EEQ of single  
176 estrogenic EDC was calculated by using Equation (2). EEQ<sub>t</sub> was obtained according to  
177 the total EEQ concentrations of 4-*t*-OP, BPA, and NP. The EEF values of TBBPA and  
178 2,4-DCP were not available. The equation is given as follows:

$$179 \quad \text{EEQ}_t = \sum \text{EEQ}_i. \quad (2)$$

180 The ranking of risk quotient (RQ) is defined as the ratio of measured  
181 environmental concentration (MEC) of the target compound to the predicted no-effect  
182 concentration (PNEC), as follows:

$$183 \quad \text{RQ} = \text{MEC} / \text{PNEC}. \quad (3)$$

184 The PNEC values were obtained by dividing the lowest observed toxicity value  
185 with the most sensitive species by an assessment factor based on eco-toxicity data (Yu  
186 et al., 2013). The data are normally derived from the chronic (i.e., no observed effect  
187 concentration) or acute toxicity data (EC<sub>50</sub>) when chronic data are unavailable  
188 according to experimental situations (Garay et al., 2000). Risk ranking criteria for RQ  
189 were widely used to evaluate the potential risk of certain pollutants as follows: minimal  
190 risk if RQ was below 0.1, median risk if RQ was between 0.1 and 1, and high risk if  
191 RQ was larger than 1 (Blair et al., 2013). The PNEC values for 2,4-DCP, TBBPA, NP,  
192 4-*t*-OP, and BPA were obtained from Sweeney and Currie (2002), Britain (2005),  
193 Sverdrup et al. (2006), Liu (2012), Zhou et al. (2017), respectively.

194 The sampling sites located in MPs showed higher levels and wider ranges of total

195 EDCs than those of the sites located in OB (Fig. 2). BPA, TBBPA, NP, 2,4-DCP, and 4-  
196 *t*-OP, were detected in most of the sites in Qingduizi Bay. 4-OP and 4-*t*-BP remained  
197 undetected (Table S1). Consistently, high concentrations of EDCs were found in the  
198 sites near the mouths of the Inna, Huli, and Diyin rivers.

199 4-*t*-OP, BPA, and TBBPA were the most dominant components, contributing  
200 53.09%, 25.04%, and 8.04 % to the total concentration of EDCs ( $\Sigma$ EDCs), respectively.  
201 Overall, 4-*t*-OP was the predominant component detected in all sites, with  
202 concentrations ranging from not detected (n.d.) to 12.23 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw, and with the highest  
203 concentrations near the mouth of the Diyin River. BPA was the second most abundant  
204 phenolic EDC compound, with concentrations ranging from n.d. to 14.78 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw.  
205 Levels of BPA in MPs were significantly higher than those in OB, whereas other EDC  
206 compounds showed no significant statistical differences (Fig. 3). These results should  
207 be interpreted locally or should be compared with similar studies in other areas, since  
208 the study includes only one maricultural site and one non maricultural site. For a better  
209 estimation of the confidence intervals of the mean concentrations further global and  
210 transferable studies will require site replication for both MP and OB zones (Hurlbert,  
211 1984).

212 BPA Levels in Qingduizi Bay were similar to those in the Yangtze River Estuary  
213 and its adjacent East China Sea (0.72–13.2 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw) (Bian et al., 2010). However the  
214 maximum concentrations observed were higher in the Shuangtaizi Estuary, China (n.d.  
215 –68.17 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw) (Yuan et al., 2017), the Beibu Gulf, China (3.07–22.80 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw)  
216 (Yang et al., 2013), and Masan Bay, Korea (2.70–50.30 ng g<sup>-1</sup> dw) (Khim et al., 1999).

217 For other EDC compounds, such as TBBPA, NP, and 2,4-DCP, the levels were generally  
218 far below those of developed and industrial estuaries and bays around the world (Khim  
219 et al., 2001; Koh et al., 2006; Klosterhaus et al., 2013; Duan et al., 2014; Dong et al.,  
220 2015). NP and OP are more susceptible to biodegradation under aerobic conditions due  
221 to their straight side chain, and the half-lives of 2,4-DCP are relatively short, resulting  
222 in low concentrations of these compounds in the sediment of Qingduizi Bay (Ying and  
223 Kookana, 2003). The results also suggest old alkylphenols and 2,4-DCP inputs in the  
224 bay.

225 Organic contaminants are known to adsorb suspended and sediment particles due  
226 to their low solubility (Golding et al., 2005). The log octanol–water partition coefficient  
227 values ( $K_{ow}$ ) of EDC compounds are above 4.0. Compounds with this values have a  
228 tendency to attach to particles and sediments containing high TOC (Khim et al., 2001).  
229 Contrary to the results of previous studies (Dong et al., 2015), correlation between  
230 EDCs and all measured sedimental geochemical factors was not significant (Table S2).  
231 These results confirm that proximity to sources (e.g., river mouths, aquaculture sewage  
232 discharge and channel excavation) may be the most important determinant for the  
233 dominance of EDCs (Khim et al., 2001; Yuan et al., 2017). Poor relationships among  
234 concentrations of TBBPA, NP, 2,4-DCP, and BPA suggest that their sources are  
235 independent of each other, while the significant correlation between BPA and 4-*t*-OP  
236 implies similar sources and transport pathways for both EDCs.

237 Phenolic EDCs have been proven to cause adverse effects on aquatic life due to  
238 their estrogenic activities (Campbell et al., 2006). These effects include feminizing,

239 malformation, and even death (Schwaiger et al., 2002; Bernet et al., 2008; McNair et  
240 al., 2015). Estrogenic activity is commonly used to describe interference effects of  
241 EDCs on the endocrine system of organisms. This activity was calculated in terms of  
242 the estradiol equivalent concentrations (EEQs). The screening of xenoestrogens will  
243 normally be conducted by representing its potency relative to a similar estrogen-like  
244 estradiol. To our knowledge, no systematic guideline refers to the harmful potential of  
245 EDCs in sediment.

246 On average,  $EEQ_t$  value in MPs was higher than that in OB, resulting, potentially,  
247 in higher ecological and health risk for aquaculture populations. These results may be  
248 underestimated since 2,4-DCP, TBBPA, and other measured EDCs, such as estrone,  
249  $17\beta$ -estradiol, and synthetic estrogens, were not considered for the total EEQs.

250 The RQ values of 2,4-DCP, BPA, and NP at all sites ( $<0.1$ ) suggest low risks for  
251 NP (Table 2). The RQ values of 4-*t*-OP reveal median risks. Site (P12) near the mouth  
252 of the Diyin River with an  $RQ>1$  indicated a particularly high risk for the organisms.  
253 Regarding TBBPA, RQ values indicate high ecological risk for the system.

254

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421

422 **Figure legends**

423 **Fig. 1** Study area and locations of sampling sites in Qingduizi Bay

424

425 **Fig. 2** Spatial distribution of ECDs in the surface sediments of Qingduizi Bay

426

427 **Fig. 3** Box plots for EDC components in surface sediments of maricultural ponds (MPs)

428 and outer bays (OB). The Shuangtaizi Estuary. The lower and upper hinges and the line

429 in the box indicate the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile EDC values, respectively. Circles

430 represent outliers

431

432 **Fig. 4** Pearson correlations of phenolic EDC compounds and physicochemical

433 characteristics of sediments in Qingduizi Bay

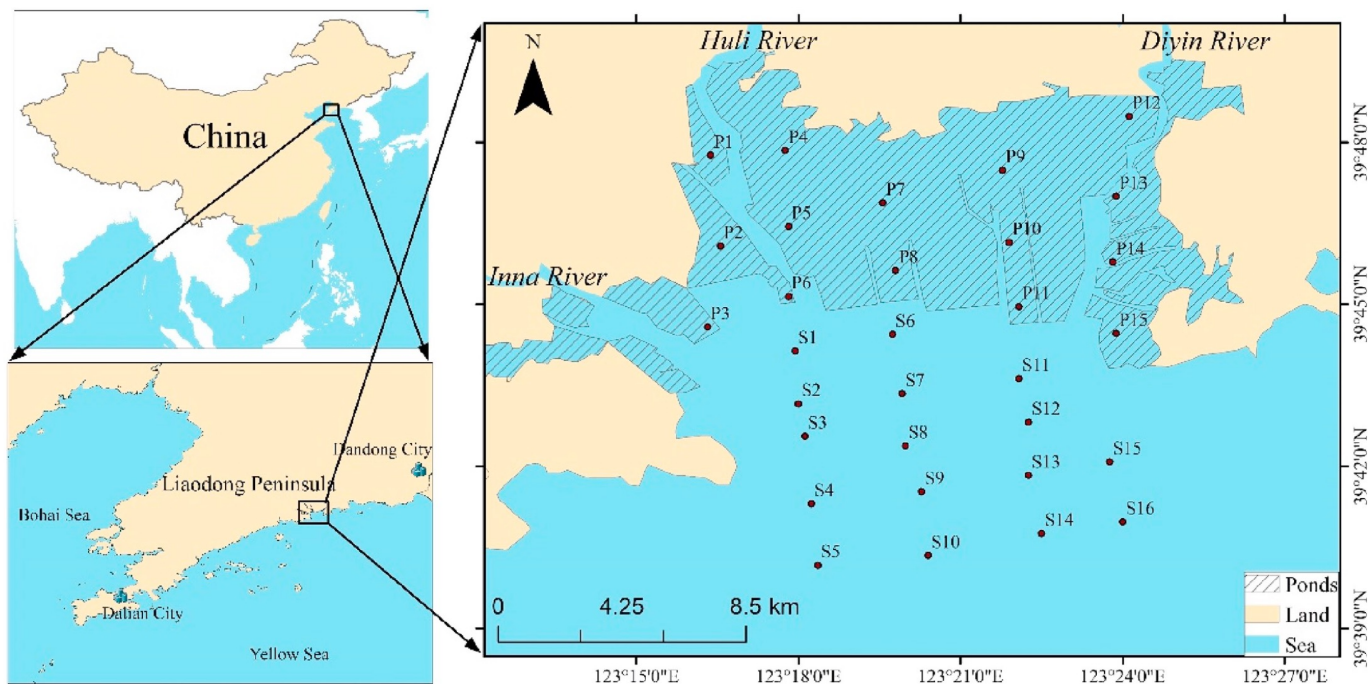


Fig. 1. Study area and locations of sampling sites in Qingduizi Bay.

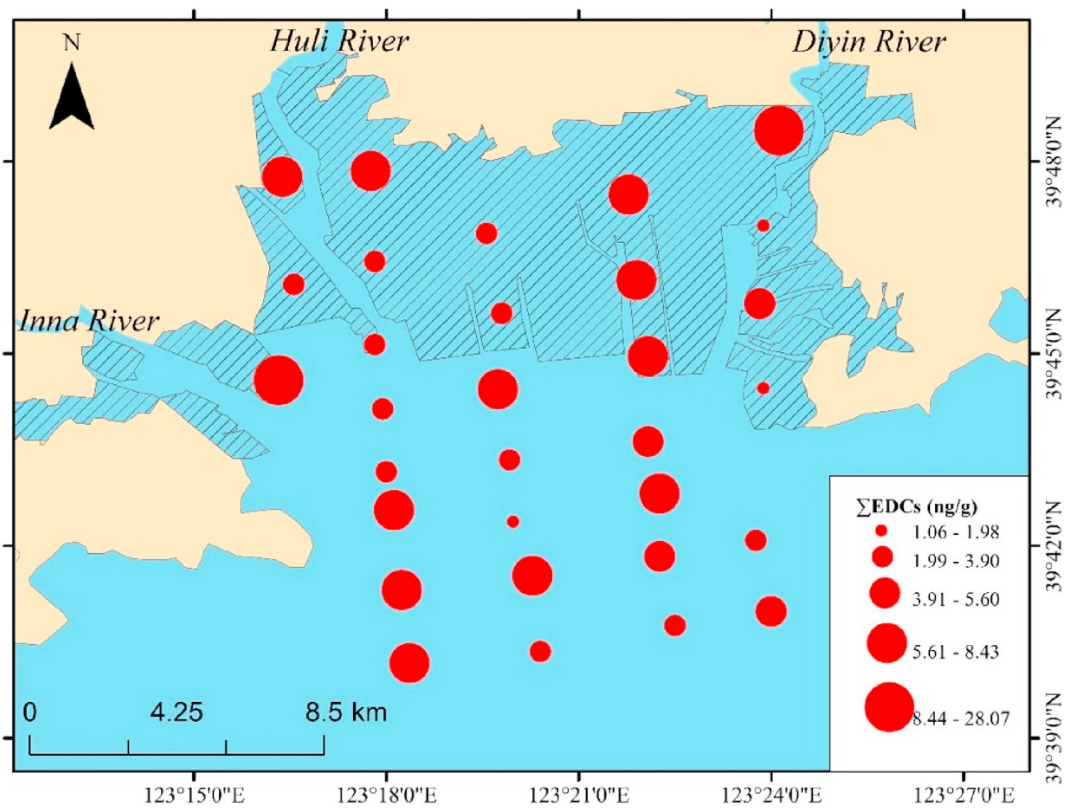
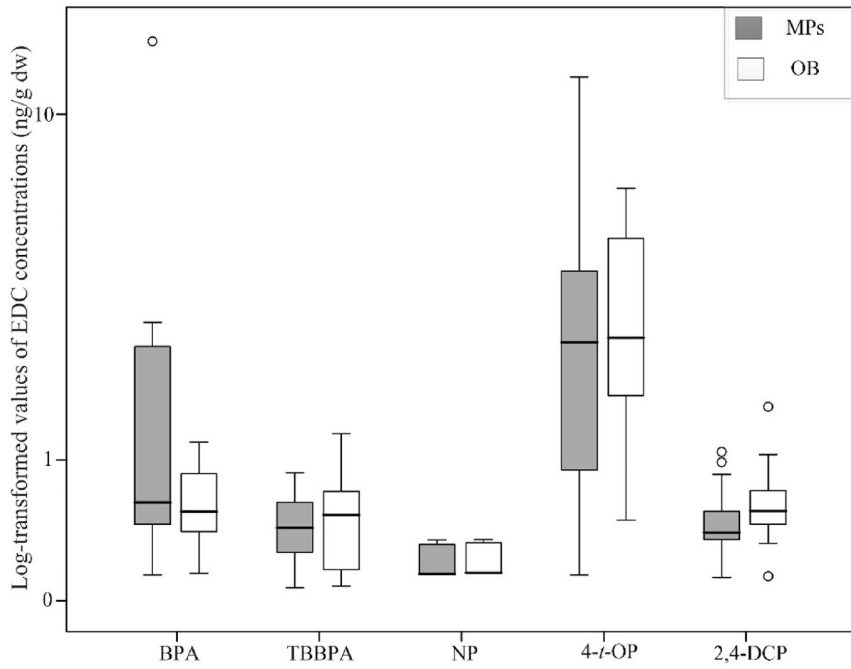
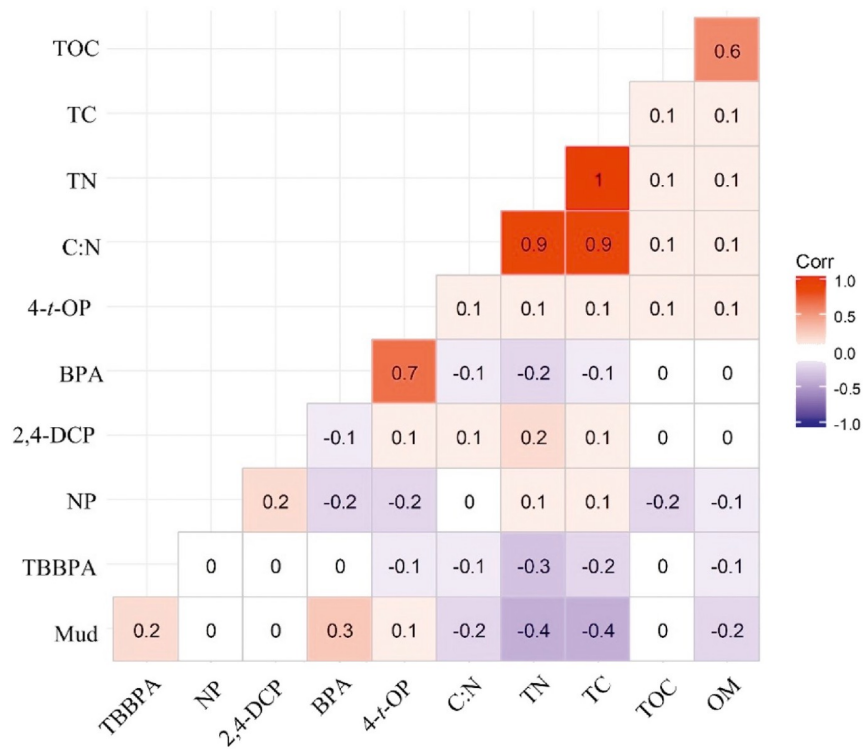


Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of EDCs in the surface sediments of Qingduizi Bay.



**Fig. 3.** Box plots for EDC components in surface sediments of maricultural ponds (MPs) and outer bays (OB). The Shuangtaizi Estuary. The lower and upper hinges and the line in the box indicate the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentile EDC values, respectively. Circles represent outliers.



**Fig. 4.** Pearson correlations of phenolic EDC compounds and physicochemical characteristics of sediments in Qingduizi Bay.

434 **Tables**

435 **Table 1** Estrogenic activity of sediments ( $\text{ng g}^{-1}$  dw) measured in the mariculture ponds  
436 and outer bay of Qingduizi Bay.

EDC compounds	EEF ( $10^{-3}$ )	Mariculture Ponds ( $10^{-3}$ )		Outer Bay ( $10^{-3}$ )	
		Ranges	Average	Ranges	Average
4- <i>t</i> -OP	<sup>a</sup> 6.5	0.88–79.49	20.18	3.09–42.84	20.08
NP	<sup>a</sup> 2.3	0.32–0.80	0.47	0.32–0.79	0.51
BPA	<sup>b</sup> 1.0	0.14–14.78	2.37	0.14–1.17	0.61
EEQ <sub>t</sub>	--		23.02		21.20

437 Estradiol equivalent factor (EEF)

438 Total estrogen equivalent concentration (EEQ<sub>t</sub>),

439 <sup>a</sup> Gutendorf and Westendorf (2001),

440 <sup>b</sup> Sun et al. (2013)

441



442 **Table 2** Variations in the risk quotient (RQ) of five phenolic EDC compounds in  
 443 Qingduizi Bay.

Compound	PNEC (ng g <sup>-1</sup> dw)	Mariculture Ponds (%)			Outer Bay (%)		
		RQ < 0.1	0.1 < RQ < 1	RQ > 1	RQ < 0.1	0.1 < RQ < 1	RQ > 1
4- <i>t</i> -OP	7.4	6.7	86.6	6.7	12.5	87.5	0
TBBPA	0.3	0	40.0	60.0	0	37.5	62.5
NP	39.0	100	0	0	100	0	0
BPA	46.0	100	0	0	100	0	0
2,4-DCP	41.7	100	0	0	100	0	0

444 Predicted no-effect concentration (PNEC) for target compound.

445 Risk quotient (RQ) and the number of sites (in percent).

446