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10 **NON-TARGETED ANALYSIS BY DLLME-GC-MS FOR THE MONITORING**
11 **OF POLLUTANTS IN THE MAR MENOR LAGOON**

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15

16 **ABSTRACT**

17 Water from the Mar Menor lagoon (SE Spain) was analysed for the presence of
18 organic pollutants resulting from agricultural and industrial practices, plastics and
19 pharmaceutical products. The impact of rain on the input of 54 toxic chemical
20 compounds and their distribution close to the shores of the Mar Menor lagoon
21 was assessed in three sampling campaigns (a total of 42 samples). The
22 combination of a miniaturised sample treatment based on dispersive liquid-liquid
23 microextraction (DLLME) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS)
24 allowed the determination of the pollutants at low levels. Six deuterated
25 compounds were used as internal standards for the quantification of different
26 group of analytes. A total of nine targeted pollutants, dibutyl phthalate, diisobutyl
27 phthalate, diethyl phthalate, bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate, anthracene, 1-
28 methylnaphthalene, hexachlorocyclopentadiene, bis(2-ethylhexyl) adipate and
29 oleamide were detected and quantified in the samples at concentrations that
30 ranged from 3 to 264 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate and dibutyl phthalate,
31 respectively.

32 On the other hand, the use of MS allowed the identification of nine putative
33 compounds, (2,4-diterbutyl phenol, butyl citrate, triethyl phosphate, phthalic
34 anhydride, ethyl oleate, erucamide, Irganox 1076, lidocaine, and oxandrolone)
35 based on MS libraries. It was statistically shown that both targeted and untargeted

36 pollutants are affected by rainy conditions. However, there were no significant
37 differences in the compounds content concerning the sampling location.

38

39 *Keywords:* organic pollutants, targeted analysis, untargeted analysis, seawater,
40 DLLME, GC-MS

41 **1. Introduction**

42

43 One of the most critical environmental problems nowadays is the presence
44 of toxic compounds in aquatic environments because of their persistence, long-
45 range transportability and potentially negative effects on any form of aquatic life.
46 The input of pollutants into the aquatic systems occurs mainly through river
47 discharges, air deposition, wastewater effluents of industrial and urban origin,
48 groundwaters and surface overflows (Carratalá et al., 2017). The more important
49 anthropogenic sources of pollutants include waste from farmlands, pulp mills and
50 wood treatment facilities, accidental spillage during loading and transportation,
51 and leachates from waste sites and landfills (Baker, 2005; Yusof et al., 2009).
52 Unfortunately, conventional wastewater treatment practices face problems in
53 removing certain pollutants that may otherwise be released into rivers and the
54 sea (Happonen et al., 2016; Gómez-Gutiérrez et al., 2006; Steen et al., 2001).
55 Among the different organic pollutants, of particular concern are phenolic
56 compounds such as phenol itself, nitrophenols (NPs) and chlorophenols (CPs),
57 phthalate esters (PAEs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and polycyclic
58 aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). CPs and NPs are important intermediates in the
59 production of pesticides, preservatives and dyes (Faludi et al., 2015). CPs are
60 toxic and carcinogenic compounds, which have been shown to bioaccumulate

61 and be resistant to degradation, with negative effects on humans and animals
62 (Xu et al., 2017). NPs, which are mainly used in the manufacture of paints,
63 adhesives, explosives, pesticides and pharmaceutical products, are also toxic to
64 humans, their effects including irritation of the eyes, skin and respiratory tract
65 (Pastor-Belda et al., 2018). PAEs are a class of synthetic chemical compounds
66 widely used as plasticisers in common household products, cosmetics,
67 detergents, flame retardants, plastics, inks, adhesives and medical devices. Their
68 entry into surface waters may come directly from the production of plastics or
69 from leaching from PAEs contained in materials such as plastics and consumer
70 products (Net et al., 2014).

71 This study focuses on an ecosystem of high biological and social value
72 that has been severely degraded in the last decades, the Mar Menor lagoon
73 (Murcia, SE Spain), which is one of the largest (135 km²) Mediterranean coastal
74 lagoons. The effects observed in the flora and fauna of the Mar Menor in recent
75 years are signs of trophic changes and ecosystem deterioration. In 2001 it was
76 officially acknowledged as susceptible area. Due to its ecological importance,
77 several studies have been performed with the objective to improve the lagoon
78 protection state (Bayo et al., 2019; Carratalá et al., 2017; Erena et al., 2019;
79 Jiménez-Martínez et al., 2016). There have also been published several studies
80 concerning the occurrence and evaluation of pesticides, endocrine-disrupting
81 compounds (bisphenol A and alkylphenols), PAHs and pharmaceuticals in the
82 Mar Menor lagoon and other areas around the Mediterranean Sea (Moreno-
83 González et al., 2014; Salgueiro-González et al., 2019; Carratalá et al., 2017;
84 Desbiolles et al., 2018; Gros et al., 2012).

85 Liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC-
86 MS/MS) (Gómez-Gutiérrez et al., 2006; Moreno-González, et al., 2015; Moreno-
87 González et al., 2014) and the combination of gas chromatography with mass
88 spectrometry (GC-MS) (Campillo et al., 2013; Moreno-González et al., 2013) are
89 the most common methodologies used for pollutant determination in waters.
90 Regarding sample preparation, different approaches have been applied, ranging
91 from conventional techniques such as liquid-liquid extraction (Haiba, 2009) and
92 solid-phase extraction (Moreno-González et al., 2014) to miniaturised techniques
93 like stir bar sorptive extraction (Campillo et al. 2013; León et al., 2018), solid-
94 phase microextraction (Huang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017) and dispersive
95 liquid-liquid microextraction (DLLME) (Salgueiro-González et al., 2019; Chormey
96 et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018). The use of techniques of sample preparation
97 applying liquid phase microextraction strategies in analytical chemistry is
98 continuously increasing due to its simplicity and economy in terms of time and
99 solvents used (Campillo et al., 2017).

100 This study evaluates the levels and distribution of a wide range of targeted
101 toxic compounds (a total of 54) from different chemical families and different
102 origins, including phenols, NPs, CPs, PAEs, PCBs, PAHs, aromatic, heterocyclic
103 and aliphatic compounds, in the Mar Menor lagoon in different rainy conditions
104 by means of GC-MS after a easy to apply preconcentration step using DLLME.
105 Considering the wide range of compounds studied, the selection of adequate
106 internal standards was considered important to achieve an accurate and precise
107 quantification of the different species. Moreover, untargeted pollutants were
108 identified in the studied samples, simultaneously with the targeted analysis, using
109 MS libraries (NIST and Willey).

110

111 **2. Materials and methods**

112

113 *2.1. Materials and reagents*

114

115 The standard analyte mixture of 4-methylphenol, N-nitroso-di-n-
116 propylamine, hexachloroethane, nitrobenzene, 3,5,5-trimethyl-2-cyclohexen-1-
117 one, 2-nitrophenol, 2,4-dimethylphenol, bis(2-chloroethyl) ether, 2,4-
118 dichlorophenol, 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene, naphthalene, 4-chloroaniline,
119 hexachlorocyclopentadiene (CICP), 4-chloro-3-methylphenol, 1-
120 methylnaphthalene (1-MeNP), 2-methylnaphthalene (2-MeNP), cyclopentadiene,
121 2,4,6-trichlorophenol, 2,4,5-trichlorophenol, 1-chloronaphthalene, 3-nitroaniline,
122 1,4-dinitrobenzene, dimethyl phthalate, biphenylene, 1,2-dinitrobenzene,
123 dibenzofuran, 2,4-dinitrotoluene, diethyl phthalate (DEP), fluorene,
124 diphenylamine, azobenzene, bromophenoxy benzene, hexachlorobenzene,
125 2,3,4,6-tetrachlorophenol, 2,3,4,5-tetrachlorophenol, phenanthrene, anthracene,
126 carbazole, diisobutyl phthalate (DIBP), di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP), fluoranthene,
127 pyrene, bisphenol A, oleamide, benzyl butyl phthalate, bis(2-ethylhexyl) adipate
128 (DHEA), benzo(a)anthracene, triphenylene, bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DHEP),
129 di-n-octyl phthalate, benzo(a)pyrene, benzo(k)fluoranthene,
130 benzo(g,h,i)perylene, and 1,2,7,8-dibenzophenanthrene at 1000 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ in
131 dichloromethane, as well as an internal standard (IS) mixture of 1,4-
132 dichlorobenzene- d_4 , naphthalene- d_8 , acenaphthene- d_{10} , phenanthrene- d_{10} ,
133 chrysene- d_{12} and perylene- d_{12} at 4000 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ were purchased from Restek

134 (Bellefonte, PA, USA). Working solutions at $1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ were prepared by dilution
135 of concentrated solutions in dichloromethane and kept at $4 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in amber vials.

136 Organic solvents as methanol, acetonitrile, carbon tetrachloride,
137 dichloromethane and 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane (chromatographic grade) were
138 obtained from Sigma (Steinheim, Germany). Ethanol (96% v/v) was obtained
139 from Fisher Scientific (Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and 37% v/v hydrochloric
140 acid from Panreac (Barcelona, Spain). A Milli-Q system (Millipore, Bedford, MA,
141 USA) was used for water purification. Potassium dibasic phosphate anhydrous
142 and sodium chloride purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) were used.

143 In order to avoid PAEs contamination, glassware materials were used in
144 the laboratory instead of plastic devices, being cleaned by rising with distilled
145 water and acetone. After that, the materials were dried in an oven at $60 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Blanks
146 were carried out between sample sets.

147

148 *2.2. Apparatus and software*

149

150 An Agilent 6890N gas chromatograph (Agilent, Waldbronn, Germany)
151 connected to an Agilent 5973 quadrupole mass spectrometer with an inert ion
152 source was used. Helium was used as mobile phase with a 1 mL min^{-1} constant
153 flow. Splitless injection ($2 \mu\text{L}$) was used. The samples were placed in 2 mL vials
154 with microinserts of $250 \mu\text{L}$ with polymeric feet. The analyses were performed
155 using an Agilent HP-5MS (5% diphenyl-95% dimethylpolysiloxane) capillary GC
156 column ($30 \text{ m} \times 0.25 \text{ mm I.D.}$, $0.25 \mu\text{m}$ film thickness). The GC initial temperature
157 was $50 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and then it was increased to $175 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (3 min), at $15 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$. Then, the
158 temperature was raised to $250 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ with a speed of $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$. Finally, temperature

159 increased to 270 °C at 20 °C min⁻¹. The compounds were eluted with retention
160 times ranging from 5.11 to 16.15 min (Table 1). The analysis time was around 20
161 min. The quadrupole, ion source and transfer line were set at temperatures of
162 150, 230 and 300 °C, respectively. The electron-impact (EI) mode at 70 eV was
163 used for the mass spectrometer. Chromatograms were obtained in full scan mode
164 at *m/z* 35-500.

165 The identification of the compounds was carried out using the Wiley and
166 NIST mass spectra libraries. The software programs used were the MSD
167 Chemstation Data Analysis application, Version G1701EA, revision E.02.02.SP2,
168 Minitab 19 and Simca-P 14.1 (Umetrics, Malmö, Sweden).

169 For the sample treatment, an LLG-uniTEXER vortex mixer (LLG-Labware,
170 Constantí, Tarragona), an EBA 20 (Hettich, Tuttlingen, Germany) centrifuge and
171 an IKA-KS-130-Basic orbital shaker (IKA, Staufen, Germany) were used. An
172 AS220/C/2 balance from Radwag Wagi Elektroniczne (Radom, Poland) was used
173 as well. Cellulose acetate filters (0.6 µm) were used for sample filtration (Filter-
174 lab, Barcelona, Spain).

175

176 *2.3. Sampling sites and sample collection*

177

178 A total of 42 samples were obtained throughout three sampling
179 campaigns. Samples were collected on 19 October 2019 (day 1, after a flood
180 event), 22 November 2019 (day 2, rainy day) and 18 January 2020 (day 3, dry
181 day) from various sites around the Mar Menor lagoon using 250 mL capacity low-
182 density polyethylene bottles which were completely filled. The bottles were pre-
183 rinsed with ultrapure water and the seawater sample before the sample collection.

184 The samples were collected at around 0.5 metres depth approximately 5 metres
185 from the shoreline. The rainfall measurements obtained for the five days
186 preceding each of the sampling times were 0.6, 5.2, and 0 mm for days 1, 2 and
187 3 (data obtained from the National Meteorology Agency, 2020). At each sampling
188 site, duplicate water samples were taken close to the same site. All the samples
189 were stored at 4 °C before analysis, which was carried out normally within 48 h
190 following their arrival in the laboratory. Seven sampling sites were selected for
191 this study along the Mar Menor lagoon as shown in Fig. 1. Some of these
192 sampling locations have been described as potentially contaminated areas by
193 other authors (Salgueiro-González et al., 2019).

194 These sampling sites were selected to obtain information for the three
195 main areas into which the Mar Menor lagoon may be divided. The northern region
196 includes sampling points 1, 2 and 3, which are the nearest to the connexion area
197 with the Mediterranean Sea; the southern area (the most confined) which
198 includes sampling points 6 and 7; and the intermediate region (sampling points 4
199 and 5). In the intermediate region (a coastal resort town) there is a wastewater
200 treatment plant (WWTP), whose effluent discharges into the Mar Menor lagoon
201 through the Albujión watercourse.

202

203 *2.4. Analytical procedure*

204

205 Seawater samples were filtered through 0.6 µm cellulose acetate filters.
206 For the DLLME preconcentration stage, 1 mL of ethanol (disperser solvent) and
207 125 µL of chloroform (extractant solvent) were mixed and injected quickly with a
208 microsyringe into a 10 mL sample of the seawater containing the internal

209 standard mixture at $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ previously placed in a 15 mL screw-cap glass
210 centrifuge tube with conical bottom. The cloudy solution resulting from the
211 dispersion of the fine organic droplets through the aqueous solution was
212 centrifuged for 3 min at 600 g for deposition of chloroform droplets. This solvent
213 was collected and positioned in a GC microvial insert and submitted to GC-MS.

214 The recovery study was performed using two seawater samples spiked
215 with the standards at two concentration levels (5 and $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and the internal
216 standard mixture at $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$.

217 The spiked samples were homogenised and left to rest for 1 h to allow the
218 analytes to disseminate regularly in the sample interacting with the matrix
219 substances, before conducting the analytical procedure.

220

221 **3. Results and discussion**

222

223 *3.1. Optimisation of chromatographic conditions*

224

225 The separation parameters were optimized using a $1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ standard
226 mixture dissolved in chloroform, and injecting into the GC system a volume of 2
227 μL , which corresponded to the maximum allowed for this solvent. Several
228 temperature programs were studied, and the finally selected started at $50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$,
229 increasing to $175 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ (3 min) at $15 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. A ramp of $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ led the
230 temperature to $250 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, and finally to $270 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, being the analysis
231 time 19.8 min. The carrier gas flow was assessed from 0.5 to the highest value
232 recommended by the manufacturer (1 mL min^{-1}). Best results were obtained with
233 a helium flow rate of 1 mL min^{-1} , allowing a good monitorization of the 54

234 pollutants in less than 20 min. The temperature of the injection port was varied in
235 the 240-300 °C range, to achieve analyte vaporization preventing retention on the
236 glass liner. The analytical signals were greater at 280 °C because higher
237 temperatures produce thermal degradation of some compounds.

238

239 *3.2. Optimisation of DLLME conditions*

240

241 The first DLLME step was to optimize the nature of the extractant solvent
242 by adding 150 µL of different extractant solvents to 10 mL of a spiked seawater
243 sample (100 µg L⁻¹) along with 1 mL of acetonitrile as disperser solvent.
244 Chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, dichloromethane and 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane
245 (with higher density than water) and 1-octanol (less dense than water) were
246 proved. Fig. S1 (**Supplementary Fig. S1**) shows the results obtained for eight
247 selected analytes representing the different chemical families. 1-Octanol, which
248 is the only tested extractant lighter than water, provided a low microextraction
249 efficiency. However, the chlorinated solvents permitted good extraction of the
250 analytes, and, as the extraction efficiency of chloroform was slightly higher than
251 that of carbon tetrachloride, it was selected.

252 Several solvents (acetonitrile, acetone and ethanol) which are all soluble
253 in the acceptor and donor phases were evaluated as disperser agents. The study
254 was carried out by using a 1 mL volume of the dispersant solvent and 150 µL of
255 chloroform. Ethanol was selected as the optimum dispersant agent since it gave
256 the best results in terms of sensitivity and cleanness of the enriched extracts.

257 To study the influence of the factors extractant and disperser volumes and
258 pH of the aqueous phase (each studied at three levels) on DLLME efficiency, a

259 full factorial experimental design method was carried using a 10 mL of a spiked
260 seawater sample, at a concentration of $100 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for each analyte. The volume
261 of the extractant and disperser solvents were varied in the 50-200 μL and 0.5-1.5
262 mL ranges, respectively and the effect of pH was studied between 3 and 8, for a
263 total of 10 runs. The variation in pH did not affect the response, while the volume
264 of the extractant and disperser solvents had a significant effect on the analyte
265 signals. Then, a response surface design was carried out to determine optimal
266 conditions. As shown in Fig. 2, the highest extraction efficiency expressed as the
267 total area of all the compounds was obtained with 1 mL of ethanol and 150 μL of
268 chloroform. As regards the pH, the best results were obtained when the pH was
269 left unmodified, corresponding therefore to that of the samples, which was around
270 6.

271

272 3.3. Validation of the method

273

274 Calibration curves were obtained for standard solutions prepared at six
275 concentrations, ranging from 2.5 to $400 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (with the IS mixture at $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$),
276 by least-squares linear regression analysis of the analyte peak area ratio with
277 respect to IS area *versus* analyte concentration. Each IS was selected for the
278 quantification of chemical compounds showing similar retention times. In
279 addition, for use in the MS detector, the deuterated compounds were selected as
280 IS, which can be easily discriminated from the standards based on their mass
281 spectra. Therefore, the following six deuterated compounds were used. 1,4-
282 Dichlorobenzene- d_4 (retention time (RT)= 5.20 min) was applied for the
283 quantification of the compounds with RTs up to 6.5 min. Naphthalene- d_8 (RT=

284 6.45 min) and acenaphthene- d_{10} (RT= 8.10 min) were applied for the quantification
285 of compounds eluting in the 6.5-8.13 and 8.2-9.68 min ranges, respectively.
286 Phenanthrene- d_{10} (RT= 9.60 min) and chrysene- d_{12} (RT= 12.84 min) were added
287 for the quantification of compounds eluting from 9.7 to 12 min and from 12 to 14
288 min, respectively. Finally, perylene- d_{12} (RT=14.05 min) was used for the
289 compounds eluting above 14 min.

290 The standard additions method was applied to two different seawater
291 samples in order to evaluate any potential matrix effect. The slopes obtained by
292 the application of the standard addition method for the seawater samples and
293 those obtained by the aqueous standard calibration graphs did not show
294 significant differences at 95% confidence level, as confirmed by an ANOVA test,
295 when the “p” values obtained were higher than 0.05 for all the compounds.
296 Therefore, quantification of the seawater samples was carried out against
297 aqueous standards.

298 The sensitivity of the method was evaluated from the limits of detection
299 (LODs) and quantification (LOQs), which were calculated using signal-to-noise
300 ratios (S/N) of 3 and 10, respectively. LODs ranged from 0.008 to 1.5 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ and
301 LOQs from 0.025 to 5.0 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (Table 1). To evaluate the precision of the method,
302 seawater samples fortified at 50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ with the analytes and the ISs were
303 submitted to ten consecutive DLLME with GC-MS analyses, which provided the
304 average relative standard deviation (RSD). The RSD values were between 5.0
305 and 12%, corresponding to fluoranthene and triphenylene, respectively
306 **(Supplementary Table S1)**.

307 Since no reference materials were available, in order to evaluate the
308 accuracy of the method, experiments were carried out by fortifying two seawater

309 samples at two levels, 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$, for each compound and adding the IS
310 mixture at 50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. The recovery values for all pollutants were in the 94-105%
311 range, the average values being $97\pm 1\%$ (n=216) and $97\pm 1\%$ (n=216) for the
312 lowest and highest recovery levels, respectively.

313 Fig. 3 shows the chromatogram for a seawater sample fortified at 50 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$
314 for all the compounds using the optimised DLLME and GC-MS method.

315 As can be observed in the chromatogram, the first forty compounds eluted
316 between 5 and 10 min. The overlapping of certain peaks in the initial part of the
317 chromatogram (from 5 to 6 min) was solved by checking the characteristic m/z
318 ions of each analyte. From 10 min to the end, there was almost no overlapping
319 of the signals in the chromatogram.

320

321 3.4. Analysis of samples

322

323 3.4.1. Targeted analysis

324 The procedure was applied to the analysis of 42 seawater samples.
325 Identification of the fifty-four targeted compounds was based on their MS
326 spectrum libraries and retention times. The MS detector was worked in SCAN
327 mode to allow the simultaneous determination of targeted and untargeted
328 compounds, avoiding the need to carry out two different chromatographic runs.
329 The analytes were quantified using the ratio of the peak area of their
330 characteristic m/z ions (Table 1) and the peak area of their corresponding IS.

331 A total of nine targeted compounds were detected and quantified in the
332 lagoon samples: five PAEs (DBP, DEHA, DIBP, DEP, DEHP), two PAHs (1-
333 MeNP and anthracene), one halogenated aromatic compound (CICP) and

334 oleamide. The concentration of these targeted compounds ranged from 2.9 to
335 264 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ for DEHP and DBP, respectively, as shown in Table 2.

336 As can be observed in Fig. 4, of the nine targeted pollutants found in the
337 samples, the PAEs and oleamide were the most frequently found, with DEP and
338 DIBP present in all the samples. However, PAHs were found in low percentages
339 in positive samples (in a third of the total) from the study area.

340 Anthracene is included in the list of priority water pollutants by Directive
341 2008/105/EC of the European Parliament on environmental quality standards in
342 the field of water policy (European Commission, 2008). The maximum permitted
343 concentration for this compound in surface waters is 0.4 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. The results
344 showed that this contaminant reached higher levels than those permitted in the
345 Mar Menor on the dry sampling day (day 3). The main sources of contamination
346 of this compound are industrial and urban activities, transport and chemical
347 products used in the maintenance of boats. PAHs have been detected at lower
348 levels (ng L^{-1}) by other authors in several Mar Menor water samples (Moreno-
349 González et al., 2013), while average anthracene concentrations were 3.5 ng L^{-1}
350 in waters sampled in 2010 by Campillo et al. (2013). A study carried out by Haiba
351 (2019) identified the presence of the 16 priority PAHs in the River Nile, where
352 they ranged from 14.8 to 648 ng L^{-1} .

353 The DBP levels observed in the samples on sampling day 1 (10.2-264 μg
354 L^{-1}) exceeded the environmental risk limit (10 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) proposed by Van Wezel et
355 al. (2000). The higher concentration of this compound on sampling day 1 may be
356 have been due to lixiviation of this pollutant following a strong storm that had
357 occurred a few days before that sampling day. DBP, as well as the other PAEs
358 found in the samples, are mainly used as plastic additives, so that one of main

359 sources of contamination of the Mar Menor would be plastic residues. Plastic
360 contamination of the lagoon has previously been detected by Bayo et al. (2019),
361 who quantified microplastics throughout the Mar Menor lagoon. For their part,
362 Zhang et al. (2017) found PAEs in the Changjiang River Estuary, with DBP
363 present in the 46.6-2412 ng L⁻¹ range. Recently, four PAEs were detected in
364 several aquatic environments in different countries, DEHP being present in the
365 0.02-28.4 µg L⁻¹ range in some river waters of China (Heo et al. 2020).

366

367 *3.4.2. Spatial distribution of targeted contaminants and effect of rain in different* 368 *parts of the Mar Menor lagoon*

369 The mean overall concentration of the targeted pollutants in the lagoon
370 (seven sampling sites) on three different sampling days was statistically analysed
371 using one-way ANOVA (**Supplementary Table S2**). The results showed that
372 sampling day influenced the concentration of most of the organic pollutants ($p \leq$
373 0.05) except for oleamide and DIBP. In addition, sampling day 3 was significantly
374 different from sampling days 1 and 2 ($p \leq 0.05$). The lower concentration found
375 on the rainy days (1 and 2) compared with those found on the dry sampling day
376 (3), except in the case of DBP and oleamide, showed that pollutant
377 concentrations are affected by rainfall.

378 However, the results indicated that sampling location does not affect the
379 concentration of any compound in the lagoon ($p \geq 0.05$ in all cases).

380 Multivariate statistics using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was also
381 carried out on the raw data to evaluate the influence of co-variables on the
382 observed levels and patterns of the contaminants.

383 Positions assigned in the PCA to each analysed pollutant along the two
384 main factor axes appear in Fig. 5 (t1 vs. t2), where it can be observed that
385 seawater from sampling day 3 (red) was clearly differentiated from the pollutant
386 concentrations on sampling days 1 and 2 (green and blue, respectively). The
387 location of sampling day 3 is due to the high levels of anthracene, DEHA, DEP,
388 1-MeNP and CICP and low levels of oleamide and DBP. By contrast, the location
389 of sampling days 1 and 2 is due to the high levels of oleamide and DPB and low
390 levels of anthracene, DEHA, DEP, 1-MeNP and CICP (**Supplementary Fig. S2**).

391 Other authors have evaluated the effect of seasonal inputs on the pollutant
392 concentrations in seawater samples, reaching several conclusions. For example,
393 Heo et al. (2020) indicated that PAEs concentrations in the seawater near
394 beaches are sensitive to rainfall events being the effect different depending on
395 each PAE analyte. Huang et al. (2015) found that the effect of rain on the PAH
396 concentrations in the Pearl River Estuary was of no significance due to the
397 different sources of this type of pollutant. It has been concluded that the input of
398 contaminants into the surface water environment depends on the
399 physicochemical characteristics of the environment (soils, pH, rainfall level) and
400 the pollutant properties. Therefore, it is difficult to generalise about the
401 conclusions (Heo et al., 2020; Moreno-González et al., 2013).

402 The spatial distribution of contaminants did not vary statistically between
403 different sites of the Mar Menor. However, the concentration of DBP, oleamide
404 and DIBP was higher in areas close to the WWTP (location 4) at the rainy day
405 (day 2). These results agree with the ANOVA statistical data shown in this section
406 (3.4.2) (**Supplementary Table S2**). Other authors have found that the distribution

407 of several PAEs in seawater near coastal areas was not homogeneous (Heo et
408 al., 2020).

409

410 *3.4.3. Untargeted analysis. Spatial distribution and climate effect of putative*
411 *compounds along the Mar Menor watercourse*

412 A database including other potential contaminants based on the literature
413 was created (**Supplementary Table S3**). All these compounds were checked in
414 the studied seawater samples by reference to their characteristic *m/z* ions, using
415 the Wiley and NIST MS libraries for identification. A total of 9 putative compounds
416 were detected in several samples: triethyl phosphate (TEP), 2,4-ditertbutyl
417 phenol (DP), lidocaine, phthalic anhydride (PA), butyl citrate (BC), oxandrolone,
418 ethyl oleate, erucamide and Irganox 1076 (Table 3). Most of these compounds
419 are used as additives in the production of plastic devices (TEP, PA, BC, ethyl
420 oleate, erucamide and Irganox 1076) or their degradation compounds (DP).
421 These results showed plastic products to be one of the main sources of the
422 lagoon's pollution. On the other hand, lidocaine and oxandrolone are species
423 related to pharmaceutical products, which could reach the lagoon mainly in
424 wastewaters.

425 A similar statistical study was carried out to evaluate the effect of the
426 sampling location and rainy conditions on the untargeted pollutants. These
427 compounds were not quantified because of the lack of standards for them, so
428 peak area values were used as observational response for the multivariate
429 statistical evaluation.

430 The mean overall peak area for the untargeted pollutants for the different
431 points of the lagoon on the three sampling days was statistically analysed using

432 one-way ANOVA (**Supplementary Table S4**). The results showed that the
433 sampling day influenced the concentration of most of the untargeted pollutants (p
434 ≤ 0.05) except BC, lidocaine and oxandrolone. By contrast, sampling location did
435 not affect the concentration of any compound in the lagoon ($p \geq 0.05$ in all cases).
436 Therefore, targeted and untargeted pollutants showed similar tendencies.

437 In the multivariate PCA analysis, as can be observed in Fig. 6, seawater
438 samples from sampling day 3 (red) were clearly differentiated from the those of
439 sampling days 1 and 2 (green and blue, respectively). The location of sampling
440 day 3 is due to the high levels of PA, ethyl oleate, and oxandrolone and low levels
441 of DP, erucamide, TEP and Irganox 1076 (**Supplementary Fig. S3**). By contrast,
442 most of the samples from sampling days 1 and 2 showed high levels of DP,
443 erucamide, TEP and Irganox 1076, and low levels of PA, ethyl oleate, and
444 oxandrolone.

445 As regards sampling location, no differences were observed among
446 seawater samples collected in the Mar Menor.

447

448 **4. Conclusions**

449

450 A sensitive DLLME with GC-MS method has been proposed for evaluation
451 of the effect of rain on the input of toxic chemical compounds and their distribution
452 in the coastal surface waters the Mar Menor lagoon. This allowed the
453 simultaneous quantification of 54 targeted pollutants (those expected to be
454 present in surface water) and the identification of untargeted species that may
455 also act as potential contaminants in surface water environments. The targeted
456 compounds were mainly PAEs and PAHs. Among the untargeted compounds,

457 the nine putative contaminants identified were DP, BC, TEP, PA, ethyl oleate,
458 erucamide, Irganox 1076, lidocaine and oxandrolone. The statistical analyses
459 carried out (ANOVA and PCA) showed that rainy conditions affect the
460 concentration of pollutants at the different points of the lagoon sampled. However,
461 the location of the different sampling points had no effect in this respect.

462

463 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

464

465 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. The manuscript was
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467

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469

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474

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616 **Legends for the figures**

617

618 **Fig. 1.** Map showing the sampling sites in the Mar Menor lagoon (1-7) and nearby
619 areas. Image Source: Google maps

620 **Fig. 2.** Surface plot of the average area of the total compounds *versus* dispersant
621 and extractant volumes.

622 **Fig. 3.** Chromatogram of a seawater sample spiked with the compounds and the
623 internal standard mixture at $50 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. The numbers on the peaks are related to
624 the different analytes, as numbered in Table 1. The peaks named A (1,4-
625 dichlorobenzene- d_4), B (naphthalene- d_8), C (acenaphthene- d_{10}), D
626 (phenanthrene- d_{10}), E (chrysene- d_{12}) and F (perylene- d_{12}) correspond to the
627 internal standard compounds.

628 **Fig. 4.** Percentage of positive samples of the nine targeted compounds detected
629 in the samples during the study period.

630 **Fig. 5.** Principal component analysis for the nine targeted pollutants defining
631 absolute contaminant concentration at a given sampling site and in specific
632 weather conditions. Cxy identifiers mean “x” sampling day (1-3) and “y” sampling
633 location (1-7).

634 **Fig. 6.** Principal component analysis for the nine untargeted pollutants, defining
635 contaminant peak area at a given sampling site and in specific weather
636 conditions. Cxy identifiers mean “x” sampling day (1-3) and “y” sampling location
637 (1-7).

638