



Analysis and assessment of trace element contamination in offshore sediments of the Augusta Bay (SE Sicily): A multivariate statistical approach based on canonical correlation analysis and mixture density estimation approach



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ABSTRACT

An application of multivariate statistical methods is provided to identify anthropogenic contaminants and lithogenic elements in offshore sediments collected near the heavily industrialized Augusta Bay, Sicily. An exploratory statistical technique, based on canonical correlation analysis (CCA) and mixture density estimation approach, is used for distinguishing between natural and anthropogenic contributions of trace elements in the investigated sediments.

Following the intensive industrialization of Augusta area, marine sediments reveal the severe impact of local anthropogenic activities for many elements (e.g. As, Cd, Hg, Pb, and Sb), which are considered very dangerous for the environment. In contrast, a prevalent natural/lithogenic origin can be ascribed to Co, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, V, and Zn.

The multivariate statistical approach used in this study, which aims to estimate and to classify trace element pre-industrial levels and sources, could be easily applied to other different contaminated areas.

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1. Introduction

Coastal environments are globally declining in ecological quality because pollutants/contaminants tend to accumulate in these sensitive ecosystems (Alley, 2000). Among others, nutrients, trace elements, and persistent organic pollutants derived from watersheds where urban, agricultural, and industrial activities are major contributors to that decline. Previous geochemical studies demonstrate the usefulness of box-cores for monitoring marine environmental contamination (Baptista Neto et al., 2000; Hung and Hsu, 2004; Mil-Homens et al., 2006; Pekey et al., 2004; Romano et al., 2009; Zonta et al., 2007). Analysis of these records reveals past changes produced in marine ecosystems and show overall contamination trends (Tuncel et al., 2007). The evaluation of natural trace element concentrations is indispensable to estimate the effective anthropogenic contamination of an investigated area, especially when the trace element backgrounds are naturally high (Qi et al., 2010).

Trace elements emitted by natural processes (such as erosion of ore-bearing rocks, wind-blown dust, volcanic activity, and forest fires) and human activities enter the coastal and estuarine regions by means of rivers in particulate form (Gibbs, 1977; Martin and Meybeck, 1979),

through wet and dry atmospheric depositions (Guieu et al., 1997), and through direct discharges or dumping (Clark, 2001). Here, marine sediments act as sink, accumulating many persistent pollutants/contaminants (Szefer et al., 1995). Therefore, geochemical investigations of marine sediments can reveal the weathering trends and the sources of pollution/contamination (e.g., Förstner and Salomons, 1980; Nath et al., 2000; Nesbitt et al., 1996).

The Sicilian coastal areas have been intensely modified and transformed by industrial and urban activities particularly over the last 60 years. Notably, the Augusta area (SE Sicily), located along the Ionian coast of the Hyblean mountain range, has been extensively modified at the beginning of the 1950s, when the natural gulf, dominated by Holocene and Late Pleistocene alluvial and fluvial deposits together with coarse sands, calcarenites and limestone as old as Late Cretaceous (Lentini et al., 1986), has been walled up with breakwaters, forming an important harbor in connection with the open sea through two narrow inlets (Sirocco and Levante).

Since 1955 the Augusta Bay has hosted a variety of different chemical and petrochemical refining plants, a commercial harbor, and part of the bay is a basis of the Italian Navy and NATO activities. Due to the dangerous contamination of air, seawater, and marine biota documented in this area, Augusta coastal area has been included by the Italian Government in the national remediation plan (G.U.R.I., L. 426/1998) and evaluated by the World Health Organization as providing

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a high environmental risk (Martuzzi et al., 2002). In fact, since the 1970s very frequent episodes of seawater eutrophication were registered inside the Augusta Bay, causing many fish die-offs (De Domenico, 1972; Genovese and De Domenico, 1975); indeed, elevated concentrations of trace elements and hydrocarbons measured inside the bay appeared to be correlated with industrial emissions (Sciacca and Fallico, 1978). High concentrations of polychlorobiphenyls (PCBs: 2.3 to 6.1 mg kg⁻¹) were recorded in the edible part of some marine organisms (Castelli et al., 1983). According to the contamination degree registered by some biomarkers, Augusta Bay was divided in different zones at increasing pollution (Cantone and Pilato, 1981; Di Geronimo, 1983). Librando and Fazzino (1993) documented high concentrations of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their nitro derivatives in atmospheric particulate matter of Augusta city; Magazzù et al. (1995) correlated the high state of degradation of seawater quality in the Augusta Bay, due to elevated concentrations of Dissolved/Dispersed Petroleum Hydrocarbons (DDPH), ionic and non-ionic detergents (ABS, BIAS), and inorganic N, with occasional eutrophication caused by urban and industrial run-off. The lowlands facing the sea in the Augusta coastal area are drained by several small rivers and streams, which could carry pollutants/contaminants into the marine environment deriving from urban and industrial activities. In our knowledge, only Cundy et al. (1998) have investigated a short saltmarsh core collected from “Mulinello” estuary in the northern part of the Augusta Bay to evaluate the impact of rapid coastal development in the area. The authors have demonstrated that despite saltmarsh and intertidal areas in the Mulinello estuary has undergone extensive modification, the documented change in trace element flux may be a result of increased input of trace element-rich alluvial deposits, derived from basic igneous and volcanic sequences in the Mulinello catchment, rather than trace element of anthropogenic origin (Cundy et al., 1998). Weekly intake for total Hg and methylmercury in *Merluccius merluccius* and *Mullus barbatus* have been estimated by Storelli et al. (2005). Values of anthropogenic trace element input to the Augusta Bay for the year 2005, including discharges from wastewater treatment facilities and industrial atmospheric emissions, are reported in the European pollutant emission register (http://www.eper.sinanet.apat.it/site/it-IT/Registro_INES/Ricerca_per_complesso_industriale/). Sediments collected inside the Augusta Bay registered extreme Hg and PAHs concentrations, exceeding national and international regulatory guidelines (ICRAM, 2005). Ausili et al. (2008) suggested a still active Hg release mechanism from Augusta polluted sediments to marine biota (*M. barbatus* and *Mytilus galloprovincialis*), which exhibited marked genotoxic damages. Recently, Di Leonardo et al. (2007, 2008) analyzed box-core sediments from the Ionian Sea and proved a significant alteration of the natural fluxes of Hg in the offshore sedimentary environment from the Sicilian coastal zone seawards of the industrial area of Augusta. This finding is probably related to the presence of a chlor-alkali plant that employed Hg as cathode electrolysis, dumping directly into the sea the enriched Hg sewages. Although the combined presence of different chemicals in sediments could theoretically enhance the risk for the marine ecosystem, sedimentary records of trace metals and metalloids in this area are lacking.

To overcome this difficulty, some statistical analysis procedures (e.g. CCA, principal component analysis—PCA, factor analysis—FA) are useful tools to interpret the environmental data. Both univariate and multivariate statistical methods have been widely applied to detect correlations between variables, to allow a deep interpretation of data, and, specifically, to investigate trace element distribution in sediments (Apitz et al., 2009; Araújo et al., 2002; Emmerson et al., 1997; Liu et al., 2003; Ratha and Sahu, 1993; Reid and Spencer, 2009; Romano et al., 2004; Spencer, 2002). According to these authors trace element distribution in sediments can be studied applying both multivariate analysis techniques (e.g. CCA, PCA, and FA) and frequency distribution analysis. In this study, the geochemical distribution patterns of major (Al, P, Fe, Mg, Ca, K, Si, Ti) and trace elements (As, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, V, and Zn) of sediments collected offshore of the Augusta

urban/industrial area (SE Sicily) are described by the application of multivariate exploratory statistical (CCA and FDA) techniques. Data of major elements, total Hg, and pseudo-total Mn, previously measured for the same sediments by Di Leonardo et al. (2007, 2008), were enclosed to the dataset. The CCA, used to describe symmetric relationships between two sets of variables without assuming causality, allows to evaluate the relationship between trace element concentrations in marine sediment and to identify their mutual concentration dependence to their source/origin. This procedure is applied twice: first on logarithmic normalized data and then on residuals provided by linear regressions accounting for sediment depth and sampling site effects. Usually, some attempts have been made to establish the regional background level of trace elements: by using older deep sediments not perturbed by anthropogenic activities (Rémy et al., 2003), or different statistical approaches, such as the probability plots that partitioned data into component populations thus obtaining background and anomalous values (Tobías et al., 1997). Here, the frequency distribution analysis can give directions to assess the pre-industrial contaminant levels and to easily compare the recent and historical inputs of toxic substances to coastal areas with evaluated natural background, when available (Apitz et al., 2009; Reid and Spencer, 2009). These statistical approaches, which allow to understand the geochemical processes controlling the elemental concentrations, including possible anthropogenic influences, and to identify the effects of those anthropogenic sources of trace elements over the natural geochemical background, can successfully be employed in other polluted/contaminated environment.

2. Materials and methods

Five box-cores were collected using a United States Geological Survey (USGS)-modified Naval Electronics Laboratory (NEL) box-corer sampler from the Sicilian coastal zone seawards of the industrial area of Augusta (Fig. 1). Sampling was carried out during two oceanographic cruises on board R/V “URANIA” in the summers of 2003 and 2004 along a west-east transect. Sediment was immediately sub-sampled on board using an acrylic tube, sealed in polyethylene flasks, and stored at –20 °C until analysis. In the laboratory, the cores were sliced at 1 cm intervals with a stainless steel bandsaw, and oven dried at 40 °C prior to geochemical analyses. A total of 79 samples were obtained.

Pseudo-total trace element concentrations were obtained by digesting 0.5 g of dried sample with 10 ml of *Aqua Regia* in Teflon vessel using a microwave oven (CEM-MSD 2000 equipment). This digestion method, while not completely destroying silicates, is widely used in environmental geochemical studies to remove non lattice-bound elements, giving an estimation of the potentially mobile fraction that could be mobilized (Chan et al., 1998; Rubio et al., 2001; Salvaggio Manta et al., 2002).

Blank (n = 15), duplicate sample (n = 25) and standard reference material (n = 15; MESS-3, Marine Sediment Reference Materials, National Research Council of Canada) were prepared with the same amount of acids for quality-control purposes. Working calibration standards were prepared with serial dilution of stock standard solutions containing 10 mg kg⁻¹ of each element using the same acid matrix utilized for sample digestion. Caution was used in preparing and analyzing samples to reduce contamination from air, glassware and reagents. Only reagents of Suprapur quality and MilliQ water were used during the laboratory procedures. All glassware and the reaction vessels were previously soaked overnight with 10% nitric acid solution and then rinsed with ultra pure water. Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, and Zn analyses were performed by using an ICP-MS (Perkin-Elmer model ELAN-DRC-e). All determinations were performed with the external standard calibration method, using In and Re as internal standards. As and V were performed by using an ICP-OES. The accuracy and precision of analytical procedures were checked by analyzing replicated measures of an international reference material (MESS-3), reagent blanks and duplicated samples. As the published certified values for MESS-3 referred to

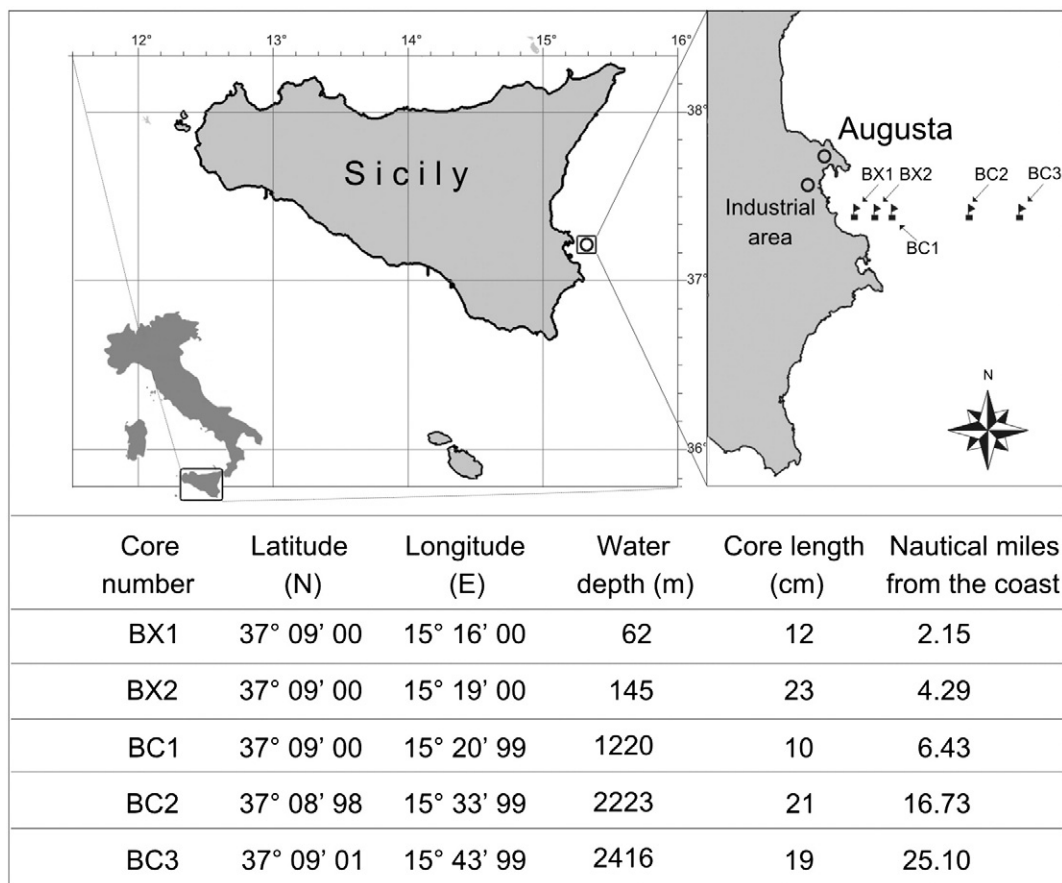


Fig. 1. Location of sampling stations, with core length, water depth and geographic parameters at each station (modified after Di Leonardo et al., 2008).

completely digested samples (using HF + HCl + HNO₃), measured values were lower than reference values. Recovery was about 90% for Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, V, and Zn and about 80% for As, Cd, and Sb. The quality control gave good precision (S.D. <5%) for duplicate samples. In order to assess differences among pseudo-total and total extraction methods, analyses for total trace element concentrations were carried out on 8 representative selected Augusta sediments, via induced coupled mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) at Activation Laboratories Ltd (ActLabs; Ancaster, ON, Canada). For sample preparation, 0.5 g of bulk sample was acid-digested in the following stages: (i) hydrofluoric acid; (ii) a mixture of nitric and perchloric acids; (iii) dried using precise programmer controlled heating in several ramping and holding cycles; and (iv) brought back into solution using hydrochloric acid. The ICP-MS used was a Perkin-Elmer Elan 6000 (Weltech Enterprises, Inc., Capitol Heights, MD, USA). Detection limits were 0.1 mg kg⁻¹ for As, Cd, and Co, 0.2 mg kg⁻¹ for Cu and Zn, 0.5 mg kg⁻¹ for Cr, Ni, and Pb, 1 mg kg⁻¹ for Mn and V. Sb was not analyzed. After comparing results from partial and total digestion methods, recovery was averagely >70% for Ni and Zn, and >90% for As, Co, Cr, Cu, Pb, and V. Only for Cd, recovery was averagely about 64%: this low value could be attributed to the low pseudo-total Cd concentrations measured in Augusta sediments, lower than the detection limit of Cd in the total extraction method. The good recovery obtained for the majority of trace elements permits to validate the use of Augusta dataset to infer pre-industrial trace element concentrations.

Mineralogical phases, major elements, total Hg, and pseudo-total Mn were previously measured for the same sediments by Di Leonardo et al. (2007, 2008). Briefly, sediment mineralogy was investigated by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD, Philips PW 14 1373 apparatus) using CuK α radiation filtered by Ni. The relative proportions of minerals were established according to methods and data of Schultz (1964).

Major element concentrations were determined by X-ray fluorescence using a RIGAKU ZSX PRIMUS spectrometer (Rigaku International Corp., Osaka, Japan) on pressed, boric-acid backed pellets of bulk samples. Data reduction was achieved using the method described by Franzini et al. (1975). Mercury concentrations were determined by using atomic absorption spectroscopy after thermal combustion of the dried sample and Hg pre-concentration on a single gold trap with an AMA 254 Solid/liquid Hg Analyzer (FKV).

3. Data analysis

3.1. Al-normalization

Geochemical normalization of major and trace element data to a variety of conservative elements, such as Al (Din, 1992), Zr (Dellwig et al., 2000), Fe (Schiff and Weisberg, 1999), Li (Loring, 1990), Sc (Loring, 1991), and Ti (Dellwig et al., 2000), is commonly employed, although caution is recommended in the use of these “reference elements” (Reimann and de Caritat, 2005). The application of these normalizers as a normalizing factor implies a strong correlation to the fine-grained sediment fraction and naturally occurring trace elements. If these relationships are established, anthropogenic trace element enrichments can be identified by deviations from the trend defined between the trace element concentrations and the normalizing elements (Liu et al., 2003). In this study, major and trace element concentrations from the investigated sediments are normalized to Al before applying the CCA and estimating the trace element background. Advantages of using Al as “reference element” are that it is the second most abundant element in the earth’s crust and, owing to its scarce mobility, is not significantly influenced by diagenetic processes and anthropogenic inputs. As Al concentrations in sediments can be reasonably related to the clay

component, which is dominant carrier for adsorbed trace elements, the element/Al ratio is commonly utilized to reduce the impact of grain-size variability (Carral et al., 1995; Daskalakis and O'Connor, 1995). Therefore, changes of element/Al ratios can be indicative of diagenetic, biogenic or anthropogenic inputs of trace elements into the environment.

3.2. Statistical treatment of the data

The data set acquired for the investigated sediments consists of 20 variables and 79 samples. Multivariate analysis of these data is performed by using the R software package (R Development Core Team, 2010, <http://www.R-project.org>).

In this paper, the comparability of data is achieved by logarithmic normalization of all elements to Al and to highlight the relationships among a large number of interrelated variables a multivariate CCA is applied on the entire Augusta log Al-normalized datasets.

Indeed, the use of CCA could be a useful and fast method to characterize the kind of trace element contamination registered by Augusta offshore sediments and at the same time could be an innovative exploratory method easily applicable to environmental geochemistry studies.

Though CCA has frequently been used in social sciences and bioinformatics researches (Pugh and Hu, 1991; Steinfath et al., 2007), the method has been rarely applied to environmental contamination assessment (Statheropoulos et al., 1998). CCA is here applied in order to identify a lower dimension set of variables with the highest mutual dependence, and therefore to find the main geochemical associations, distinguishing original parent material from other source contributions. The canonical correlation has often been applied to social sciences and bioinformatics (Pugh and Hu, 1991; Steinfath et al., 2007; Stevens, 1986), its use in environmental assessment has recently improved (Liu et al., 2009). The reason of this choice is that, in a natural system influenced by human activities, some variables may be associated together and can be considered as independent variables (predictors) while others (predicted) are dependent on the previous variables. With respect to other statistical approaches for the study of multiple correlation, such as multiple linear regression (Apitz et al., 2009) that computes coefficients for each single trace elements depending on the major ones, CCA has the advantage of providing simultaneous estimates of coefficients of the linear combination of trace elements and linear combination of major elements with the best possible correlation.

More formally, CCA is a way of measuring the linear relationship between two multidimensional variables, say $X_{p \times n}$ and $Y_{m \times n}$ (Hotelling, 1936). The dimensionality of these new bases is equal to or less than the smallest dimensionality of the two variables. The goal of the canonical correlation is to describe the relationships between the two sets of variables, looking for the canonical weights (coefficients) a_1, a_2, \dots, a_p to be applied to the p X variables and b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m to be applied to the m Y variables in such a way that the linear correlation between the new variables U_1 and V_1 is maximized, where:

$$U_1 = a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_pX_p, \quad V_1 = b_1Y_1 + b_2Y_2 + \dots + b_mY_m$$

U_1 and V_1 are the first pair of canonical variables, and ρ_1 is their correlation. If one of the two sets of variables has only one variable, the ordinary multiple regression coefficients would be obtained, and ρ_1^2 equals R^2 , i.e. the coefficient of determination, that is the quotient of the variances of the fitted values and observed values of the dependent variable.

CCA proceeds looking for new pairs of vectors with the highest correlation, but uncorrelated with the first pair of canonical variables; this gives the second pair of canonical variables with correlation ρ_2 . This continues until the maximum number of pairs (which equals the smaller of m and p) has been found.

An important property of canonical correlations is that they are invariant with respect to affine transformations of the variables: CCA finds the coordinate system that is optimal for correlation analysis, and the eigenvectors defines this coordinate system.

4. Results

4.1. Elemental composition of sediments

Bulk mineralogy and geochemistry of the box-cores from the Augusta area are well-established and are detailed in Di Leonardo et al. (2007, 2008). Briefly, the coastal box-core BX1 contains aluminosilicates and quartz associated with moderate to abundant biogenic carbonate; in the box-cores BX2, BC1, BC2, and BC3 clay fraction and quartz are dominant.

Bulk sediment major element compositions for the Augusta sediments suggest that, with the exception of the more coastal sediments from core BX1, the other distal sediments display a typically terrigenous

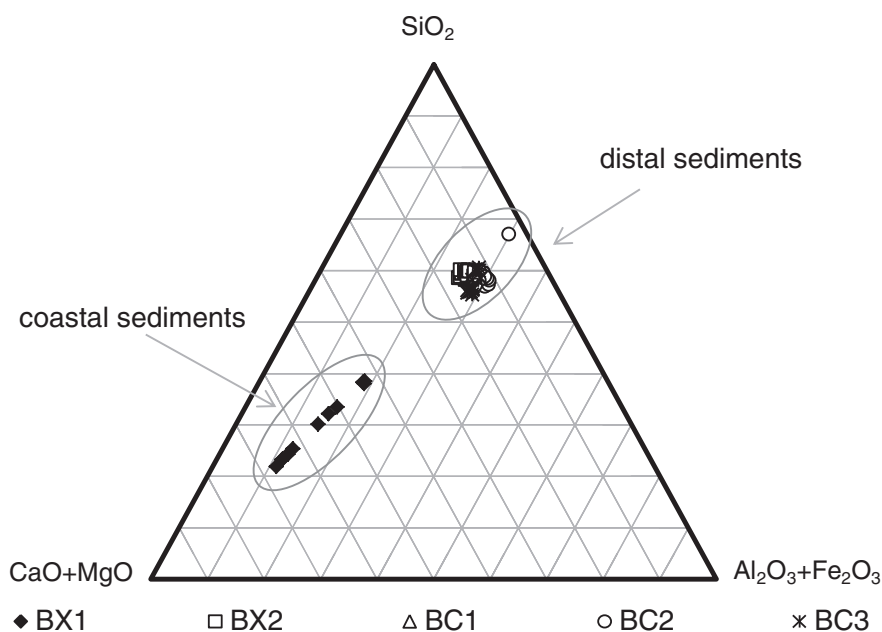


Fig. 2. Ternary plot of major element concentrations in bulk sediments from the studied cores (modified from Di Leonardo et al., 2008).

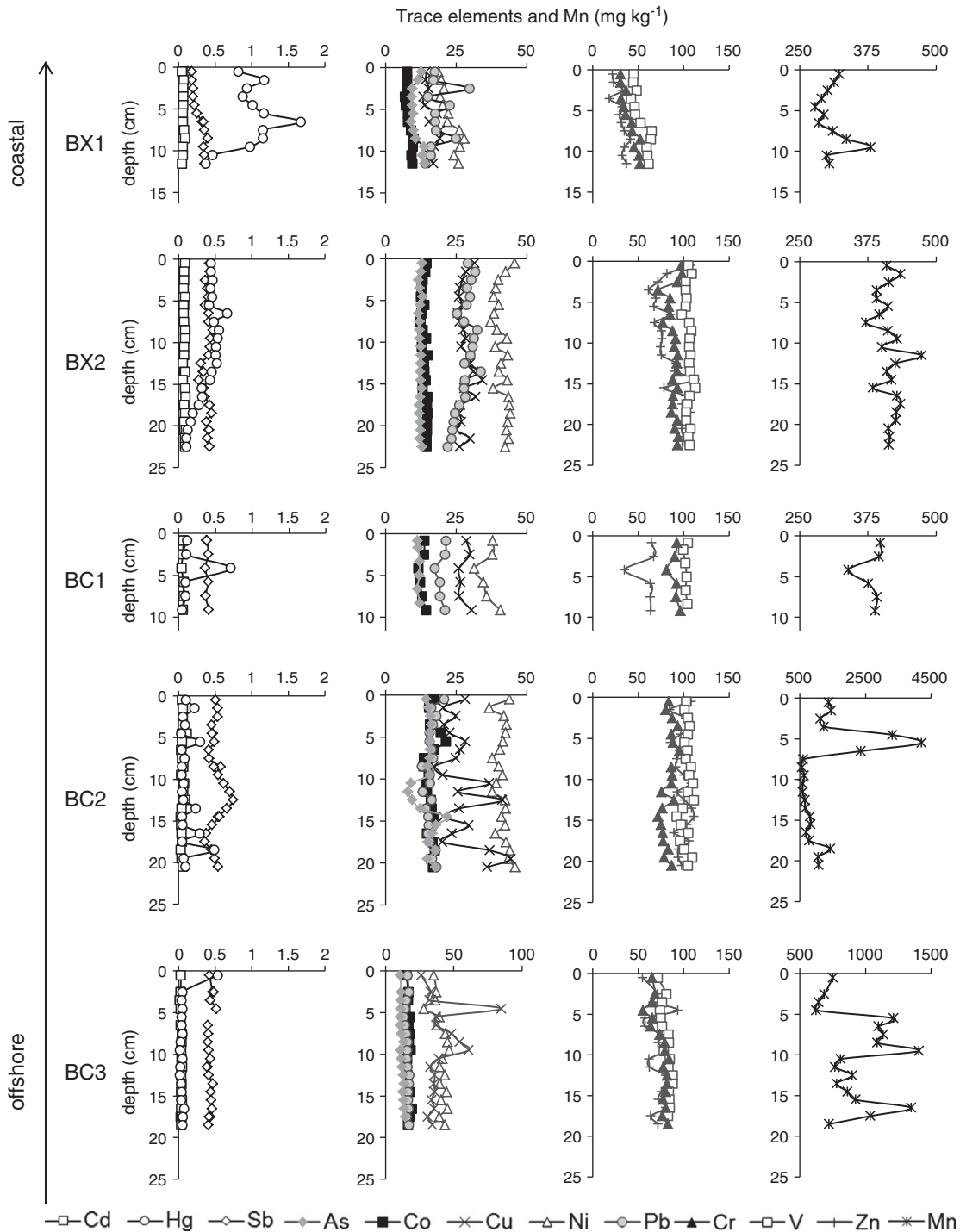


Fig. 3. Trace element and Mn concentrations vs. depth in the studied box-cores; Hg and Mn concentrations vs. depth reported from Di Leonardo et al. (2008) (note the different scale for As, Co, Cu, Ni, and Pb values of BC3 and for Mn values of BC2 and BC3).

geochemical composition, with SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 concentrations generally greater than 47% and 14%, respectively (Fig. 2). At station BX1, Al_2O_3 concentrations are lower than 10%, whereas $\text{CaO} + \text{MgO}$ mean concentration is higher than 36%, with a downcore decrease, accounting for a substantial calcareous biogenic component. Trace element depth profiles from the five box-cores are displayed in Fig. 3. The dominant element is Mn, followed by V, Cr, Zn, Ni, Cu, Pb, Co, As, Sb, Hg, and Cd. With the exception of the box-core BX1, many of the investigated

trace elements exhibited similar concentrations through the other box-cores (BX2, BC1, BC2, and BC3), although there were some sporadic anomalously high values of Hg and Mn, especially in BC2 and BC3 cores, explained as effect of recent turbidites (see Di Leonardo et al., 2008 for a discussion). Certainly, biogeochemical cycles of trace elements in marine sediments could be impacted by early diagenetic processes (D'Hondt et al., 2004; Mitterer, 2010; Schlesinger, 1997; Schrenk et al., 2010; Vairavamurthy et al., 1995), mainly driven by organic matter fluxes

Fig. 4. Al-normalized trace element and Mn concentrations vs. depth in the studied box-cores; Hg/Al ratios vs. depth reported from Di Leonardo et al. (2007) (note the different scale for Mn values of BX2 and BC1).

Al-normalized trace elements * 10⁻⁴

coastal

offshore

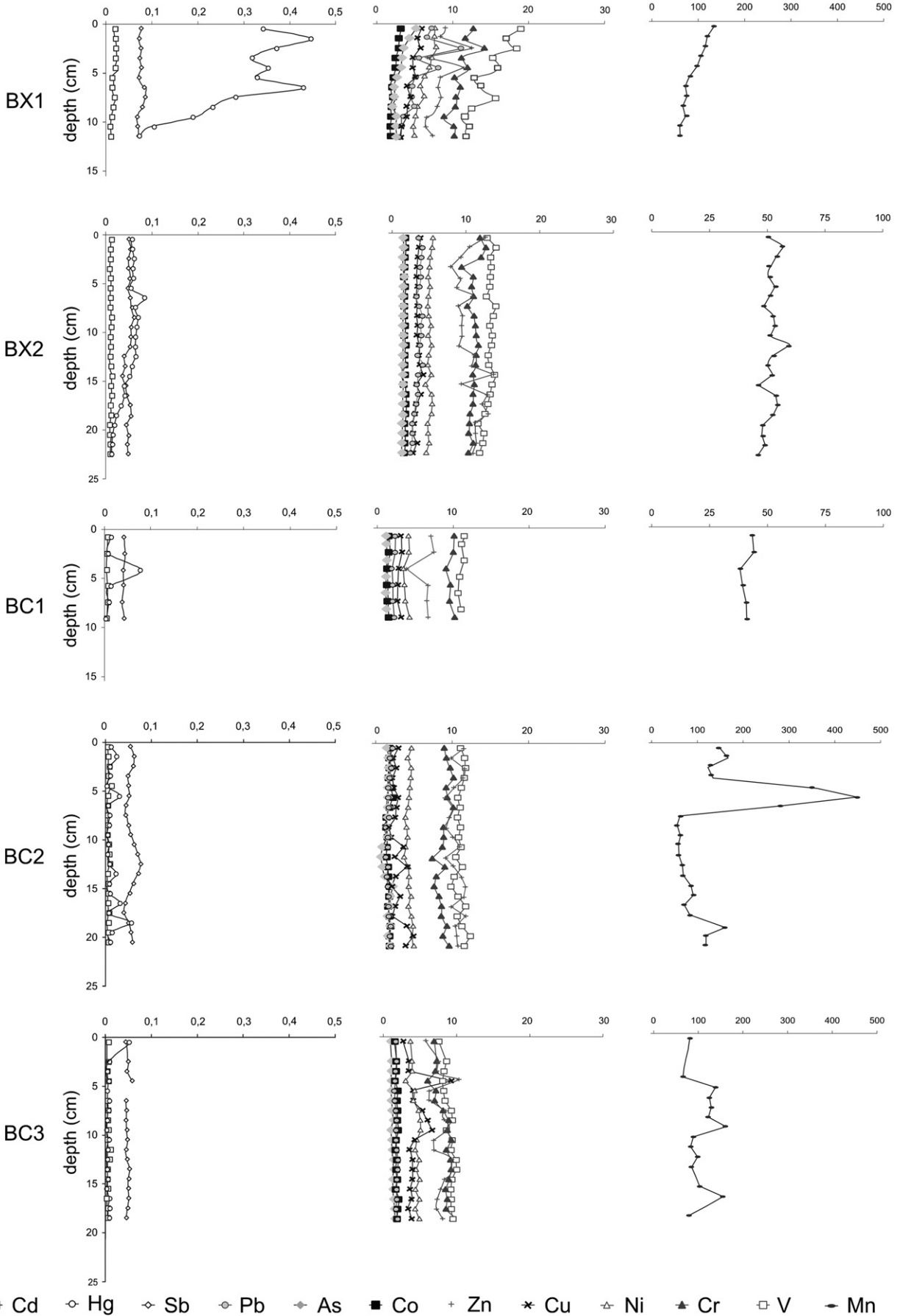


Table 1
Estimated coefficients a_i ($i = 1, \dots, 7$) and b_i ($i = 1, \dots, 7$) for the sets of log values of Al-normalized major (denoted with U variables) and trace elements (V variables) respectively, and correspondent canonical correlations.

| | ρ_1 | ρ_2 | ρ_3 | ρ_4 | ρ_5 | ρ_6 | ρ_7 |
|----|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | 0.989 | 0.900 | 0.737 | 0.682 | 0.541 | 0.493 | 0.329 |
| | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | a6 | a7 |
| P | -0.001 | -0.023 | 0.063 | -0.052 | 0.083 | 0.056 | 0.343 |
| Fe | 0.194 | 0.035 | -2.339 | 1.734 | -0.371 | 2.116 | 0.456 |
| Mg | 0.069 | -0.256 | 0.435 | 0.059 | 1.255 | -1.965 | -0.429 |
| Ca | 0.052 | 0.249 | 0.045 | 0.002 | -0.797 | 0.764 | 0.144 |
| K | -0.301 | 0.153 | 2.464 | 0.07 | -2.283 | -1.738 | 0.776 |
| Si | 0.13 | 0.976 | 0.899 | 1.738 | 2.72 | 2.531 | -0.977 |
| Ti | 0.065 | -1.745 | 1.476 | -1.658 | -3.151 | -3.455 | 0.207 |
| | b1 | b2 | b3 | b4 | b5 | b6 | b7 |
| Mn | -0.025 | 0.096 | 0.023 | 0.057 | 0.186 | 0.195 | -0.234 |
| Co | 0.144 | -0.45 | -0.619 | 0.656 | -0.079 | -1.787 | 0.847 |
| Ni | -0.014 | 0.489 | 0.625 | -0.224 | -1.003 | 1.063 | -0.678 |
| Cu | 0.017 | 0.099 | 0.084 | 0.031 | -0.154 | 0.051 | -0.171 |
| Zn | -0.051 | -0.075 | 0.051 | 0.073 | 0.28 | 0.072 | -0.053 |
| Pb | 0.078 | -0.088 | 0.416 | 0.187 | 0.351 | 0.129 | 0.237 |
| V | 0.000 | -0.388 | -0.086 | 0.761 | -0.099 | -0.456 | 0.481 |
| Cr | -0.073 | -0.218 | -0.686 | -0.378 | -0.423 | 0.359 | 0.502 |
| Sb | 0.003 | 0.199 | 0.198 | -0.306 | 0.032 | 0.002 | 0.575 |
| Cd | 0.063 | 0.004 | -0.255 | -0.143 | 0.05 | -0.275 | -0.385 |
| Hg | 0.008 | 0.000 | 0.031 | -0.037 | 0.036 | 0.041 | -0.086 |
| As | 0.112 | 0.223 | -0.239 | -0.15 | 0.04 | 0.361 | 0.075 |

and mineralization (Klinkhammer, 1980; Petersen et al., 1995). In many coastal environments, trace elements could be diagenetically remobilized or trapped from the water column initiated by aerobic decomposition of biogenic or sewage-derived organic matter or by sulfate reduction (e.g., Jørgensen et al., 2004; Parkes et al., 2005; Passier et al., 1998; Schippers et al., 2005; Teske and Sørensen, 2008). Both processes are equally important in mineralizing organic matter in marine systems where sedimentation rates are above about 0.1 cm y^{-1} (Matthai et al., 1998) and they could be misleading for the data statistical elaborations. Nevertheless, the low concentrations of total organic carbon ($\text{TOC} = 0.54\%$) averagely measured in Augusta sediments (Di Leonardo et al., 2008), in agreement with data reported by Emelyanov and Shimkus (1986) for Mediterranean sediments, together with the absence of evident redox potential discontinuity layers in sediment samples allow to suppose that generally diagenetic processes might not play significant role for the trace element cycling in the investigated sediments; they probably could be limited to some depth layers in cores BC2 and BC3, where Di Leonardo et al. (2008) measured a Mn-TOC covariation patterns.

In the coastal station BX1, trace element concentrations were lower than those registered in the more seaward box-cores and the depth profiles exhibited a downwards increase, excepting Hg. This distribution can be reasonably attributed to carbonate-dominated mineralogy and the coarse grain-size of sediments at the station BX1 against the alumino-silicate nature of the other sediments. Accordingly, after removing the grain size effect by normalization to Al, element/Al depth profiles for the coastal site BX1, with the exception of Sb, showed a clear downcore decrease (Fig. 4). For the other investigated cores, the normalization of trace elements to Al generally confirmed the spatial variability patterns, indicating considerable landward enrichments for Cd, Cr, Hg, Ni, Pb, and V. By using the core dating established in Di Leonardo et al. (2007, 2008) limited to BX1 and BX2 sediments, trace element concentrations, with the exception of As, Cd, and Co for BX2 core, began to increase from ca. 1940 to 1950, probably due to developments of the Augusta industrial area.

4.2. First application of canonical correlation

In this application CCA allowed to identify correlations between groups of elements and recognize those having similar behavior and

a common origin (natural or anthropogenic) along the studied area. With respect to an ordinary correlation matrix, which displayed pairs correlation measures, the CCA, described in Section 3.2, allowed to find relationships between the two sets of variables, that in this case corresponded to log values normalized to Al of major (7 variables) and trace elements (12 variables) for this reason the set of variables reduces to 19 elements (excluding Al; Table 1). All the estimated canonical correlations were statistically significant (p -value < 0.05). In Fig. 5a the first six canonical variables for major elements and trace elements are reported; in particular, the first six pairs of canonical variables corresponding to the first three canonical correlations are plotted in the first row, while in the second row the pairs of canonical variables from the fourth to the sixth canonical correlations are reported. Analyzing the plot of the first pairs of vectors of the scores (Fig. 5a) for the first canonical correlation, a good correlation between sets was observed ($\rho_1 = 0.989$); all points are distributed along the bisector between the two axis of the plot, with each investigated box-core perfectly noticeable from the others. From the interpretation of the scores associated with the second canonical correlation variables (Fig. 5a, second plot on the first row), two distinct groups of points can be easily identified, one coinciding with box-cores BX2 and BC1 (open square and open triangle symbols, respectively) and the other with the other three box-cores (BX1, BC2, and BC3, respectively in full rhombus, open circle and cross symbols). The interpretation of remaining scatterplots is not as well interesting, reflecting the value of the associated estimated canonical correlations of Table 1.

4.3. Second application of canonical correlation

Actually part of the canonical correlation can be explained by the clustered nature of data, induced by the belonging of sediments at fixed box-core. To verify if this effect had a significant influence on the results of the CCA, a linear regression model was performed on each of the 19 elements vs. sediment depth and sampling site. The sampling site was a measure of the distance from the coast and was a qualitative variable that assumed levels BX1, BX2, BC1, BC2, and BC3. The results of this fitting (Table 2) suggested that the variable “depth” had not always a significant effect on the response variables, unlike the “sampling site”,

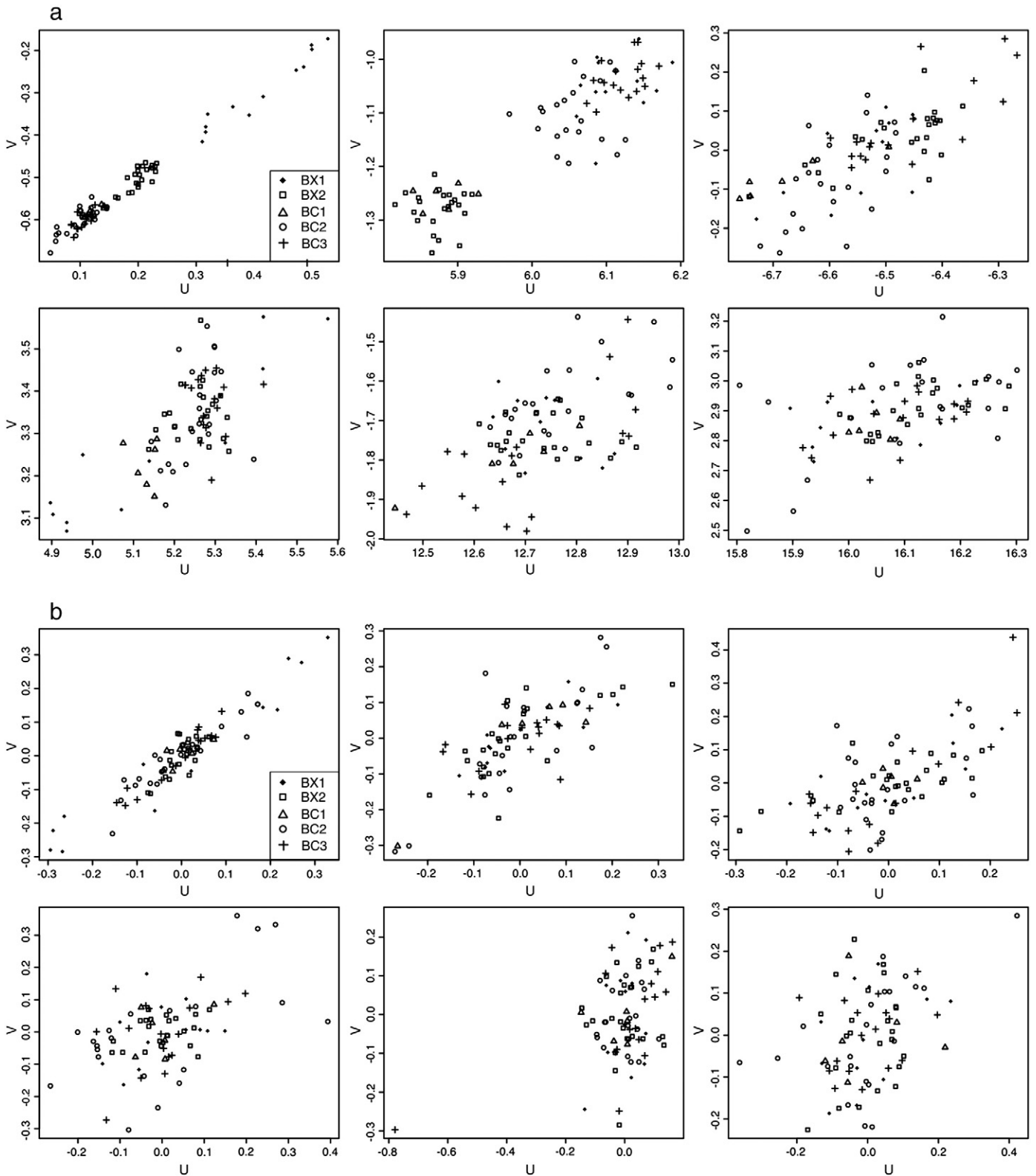


Fig. 5. (a) Canonical variables for the U variables (major elements) and V variables (trace elements); (b) Canonical variables for the U variables (major elements) and V variables (trace elements) once removed the effects of depth and coast distance.

which suggested that the distance from the coast had a significant influence on the responses.

Therefore, to remove the effects of sediment depth and coast distance, residuals defined by the difference between log Al-normalized variables and the predicted values obtained by a regression on sediment depth and sampling site were computed. Then, a new CCA was carried

out on the 19 residuals of log-variables normalized to Al (Table 3). A useful adjunct to the analysis of the elements of the predictors and response sets was provided by the plots of the canonical components (Fig. 5b). For instance, the first canonical component identified two new variables: U_1 (that was a linear combination of residual major elements with coefficients given by the vector a_1), and a linear combination

Table 2

P-values of the ANOVA table obtained from the linear regression models estimated for all elements vs depth and sampling site.

| | Depth | Sampling site |
|----|-------|---------------|
| Mn | 0.112 | 0.000 |
| Co | 0.057 | 0.000 |
| Ni | 0.484 | 0.000 |
| Cu | 0.343 | 0.000 |
| Zn | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Pb | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| V | 0.006 | 0.000 |
| Cr | 0.255 | 0.000 |
| Sb | 0.002 | 0.000 |
| Cd | 0.001 | 0.000 |
| Hg | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| As | 0.008 | 0.000 |
| P | 0.009 | 0.000 |
| Fe | 0.107 | 0.000 |
| Mg | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Ca | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| K | 0.000 | 0.000 |
| Si | 0.008 | 0.000 |
| Ti | 0.002 | 0.000 |

4.4. Pre-industrial level estimations

To evaluate the 12 trace element background levels of the Augusta offshore sediments, a mixture density estimation approach of log Al-normalized trace element concentrations was considered. Moreover, looking into the nature of the source of each element distribution components of a mixture normal were estimated based on a maximum likelihood approach. In particular, the best estimates of the parameters (proportions π_i , means μ_i and standard deviations σ_i , $i = 1, 2$) are obtained by the numerical maximization of the likelihood, given the observed data, using a combination of a Newton-type method and EM algorithm (Dempster et al., 1977; Mineo, 1964; Ypma, 1995). The fitting results are provided in Fig. 6. The estimated number of components, reported in Table 4, has been determined on the basis of a classical T test for the means of two distributions assuming different variances. In particular, the presence of two normal populations that overlapped in the case of Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, and V have been observed, while clear separate density components can be identified for Hg and Pb. On the basis of the statistical test, two components are also estimated for As, Cd, Sb, and Zn, although it does not appear so clear from a graphical point of view.

Standard errors for the means of the two populations were computed to verify the graphical results reported in Fig. 6 and to distinguish between anthropogenic and/or natural input of trace elements (Table 4). From the values of the estimated parameters together with their standard errors and the results of the T test above, for the variables As, Cd, Hg, Pb, Sb, and Zn, the two normal populations had significantly different means, implying that together with a natural source an anthropogenic input should be also evaluated in Augusta sediments for that trace element. Contrarily, the normal density distributions were overlapped in mean for Co, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, and V, and, therefore, a natural source for these elements can be assumed in the studied area. For Mn only one component has been considered, since all the observations were assigned to one population as deduced from the estimated proportion values.

By using the above described approach and selecting Al as a normalization element, the regionally geochemical background of the study area has been established for As Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Hg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, V,

of the residual of trace elements V_1 (with coefficients given by b_1 vector) (Fig. 5b top left), with a correlation $\rho_1 = 0.944$. Now the distinct groups were not observable, since the effect of the box-core variable has been removed by the estimation of the linear models introduced above. Particularly, the residuals of elements that contributed mainly in the identification of the first canonical variable were rNi, rV, and rAs in the set of trace elements and rK, rSi, and rTi in the set of major elements (Table 3). The second canonical correlation ($\rho_2 = 0.738$) identified a couple of new variables (U_2 and V_2) reported in the second plot (first row) of Fig. 5b.

Although after the second application of CCA, a decrement of coefficients of canonical correlation performed on the residual variables appeared clear (p -values < 0.05), among the analyzed trace elements only Hg never manifested significant weight to the found correlation variables, suggesting that Hg had a clear different behavior with respect to the other variables.

Table 3

Estimated coefficients a_i , ($i = 1, \dots, 7$) and b_i , ($i = 1, \dots, 7$) for the sets of log values of Al-normalized major (U variables) and trace elements (V variables) respectively, once removed the effects of sampling depth and coast distance, and correspondent canonical correlations.

| | ρ_1 | ρ_2 | ρ_3 | ρ_4 | ρ_5 | ρ_6 | ρ_7 |
|-----|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | 0.944 | 0.738 | 0.643 | 0.506 | 0.394 | 0.379 | 0.106 |
| U | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | a6 | a7 |
| rP | -0.023 | -0.082 | 0.067 | -0.071 | 0.294 | -0.101 | -0.165 |
| rFe | -0.123 | 2.907 | 0.461 | -2.555 | 2.171 | 2.872 | 2.687 |
| rMg | 0.422 | -0.167 | 1.125 | 0.742 | -1.734 | -0.903 | -2.02 |
| rCa | 0.32 | -0.595 | -0.927 | 0.246 | 0.517 | 0.331 | 0.493 |
| rK | -0.739 | -2.377 | 1.969 | 2.951 | 0.847 | 1.228 | 1.96 |
| rSi | 0.62 | -2.63 | 1.956 | -4.141 | -1.393 | 4.036 | -0.054 |
| rTi | -0.447 | 1.245 | 0.51 | 4.05 | 0.145 | -7.01 | 1.76 |
| V | b1 | b2 | b3 | b4 | b5 | b6 | b7 |
| rMn | -0.031 | -0.058 | -0.339 | -0.197 | -0.292 | -0.292 | -0.257 |
| rCo | 0.087 | 1.311 | 2.205 | 0.262 | 0.993 | 1.083 | 1.457 |
| rNi | 0.275 | -0.834 | -1.841 | 0.769 | -0.816 | -1.175 | 0.422 |
| rCu | 0.069 | -0.231 | -0.023 | 0.064 | -0.111 | 0.321 | 0.084 |
| rZn | -0.073 | 0.223 | 0.039 | -0.179 | -0.467 | -0.408 | -0.295 |
| rPb | 0.118 | -0.26 | 0.246 | -0.11 | 0.541 | -0.295 | -0.556 |
| rV | 0.452 | -0.408 | 0.377 | 0.499 | -0.765 | -0.423 | -0.974 |
| rCr | -0.28 | 0.548 | -0.227 | 0.159 | 1.32 | 1.247 | 0.487 |
| rSb | -0.088 | -0.188 | -0.191 | -0.143 | 0.343 | -0.756 | 0.198 |
| rCd | 0.092 | 0.331 | 0.054 | 0.015 | -0.215 | 0.215 | -0.017 |
| rHg | 0.021 | -0.037 | 0.001 | -0.031 | -0.081 | 0.034 | 0.071 |
| rAs | 0.255 | -0.016 | -0.246 | -0.594 | 0.041 | 0.078 | -0.003 |

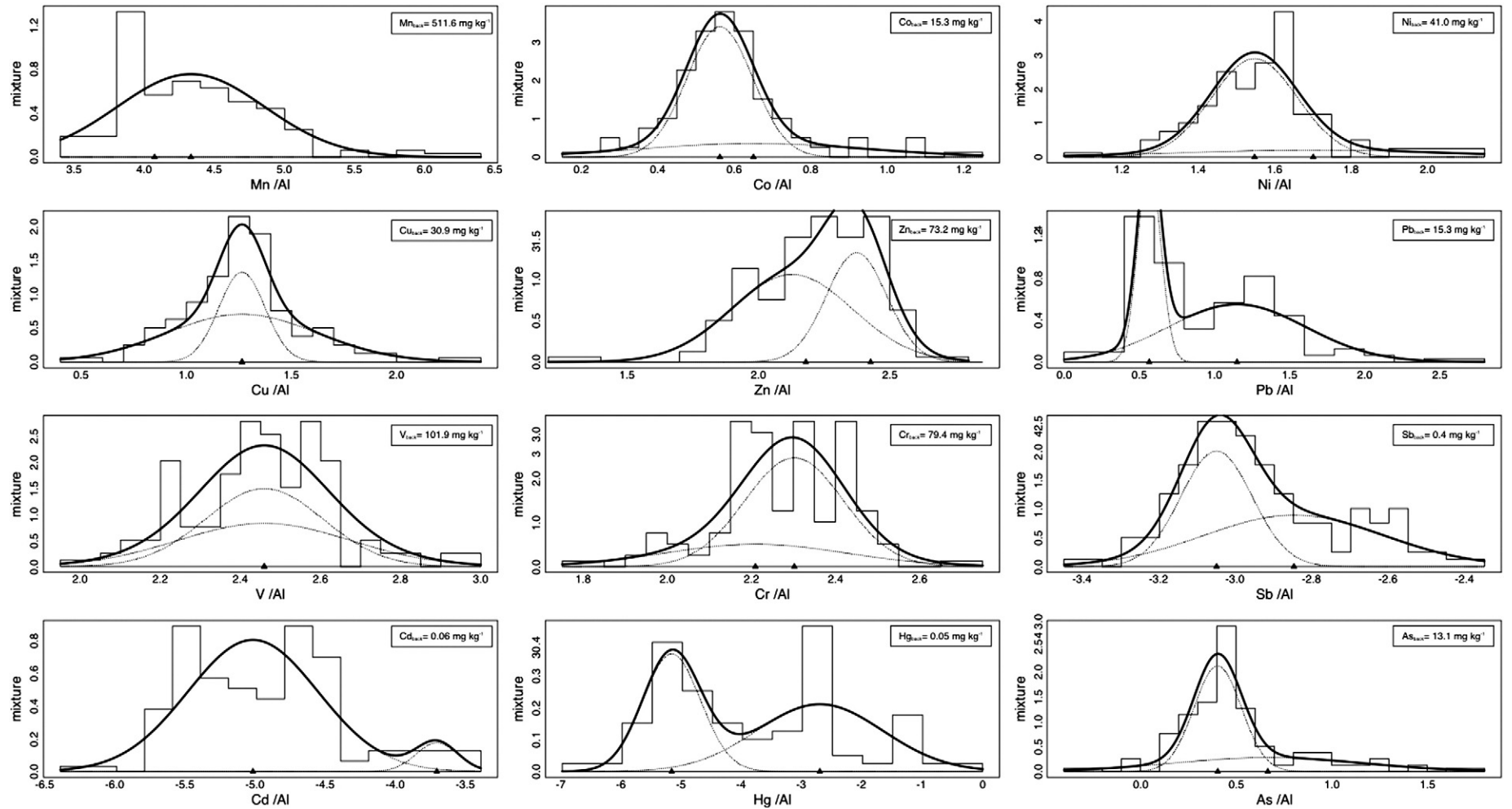


Fig. 6. Mixture probability density function of Al-normalized trace element concentrations (solid line) and single normal component distributions (dotted lines). For each trace element the estimated background concentration has been reported.

Table 4

Estimated values for parameters of component distributions (in order the proportions, means, and standard deviations), a significance level (P-value) for the goodness-of-fit test, and number of estimated components for each log Al-normalized element. Estimated standard errors of means for the variables with two normal components are reported inside brackets.

| | π_1 | π_2 | μ_1 | μ_2 | σ_1 | σ_2 | p-value | N. comp. |
|----|---------|---------|-----------------|-----------------|------------|------------|---------|----------|
| Mn | 0.00 | 1.00 | 4.07 | 4.33 | 0.03 | 0.53 | 0.00 | 1 |
| Co | 0.74 | 0.26 | 0.56 | 0.65 | 0.09 | 0.29 | 0.59 | 1 |
| Ni | 0.82 | 0.18 | 1.55 | 1.70 | 0.11 | 0.35 | 0.27 | 1 |
| Cu | 0.37 | 0.63 | 1.26 | 1.26 | 0.11 | 0.36 | 0.75 | 1 |
| Zn | 0.62 | 0.39 | 2.13 (0.08) | 2.37 (0.07) | 0.23 | 0.12 | 0.14 | 2 |
| Pb | 0.37 | 0.64 | 0.57 (0.06) | 1.15 (0.17) | 0.08 | 0.46 | 0.13 | 2 |
| V | 0.55 | 0.45 | 2.46 | 2.46 | 0.15 | 0.22 | 0.04 | 1 |
| Cr | 0.27 | 0.73 | 2.21 | 2.30 | 0.22 | 0.12 | 0.01 | 1 |
| Sb | 0.47 | 0.53 | -3.05 (0.02) | -2.85 (0.06) | 0.09 | 0.24 | 0.91 | 2 |
| Cd | 0.94 | 0.07 | -5.03 (0.06) | -3.71 (0.17) | 0.46 | 0.15 | 0.00 | 2 |
| Hg | 0.45 | 0.56 | -5.18 (0.12) | -2.71 (0.28) | 0.48 | 1.05 | 0.00 | 2 |
| As | 0.66 | 0.34 | 0.40 (0.02) | 0.67 (0.12) | 0.12 | 0.49 | 0.28 | 2 |

and Zn, respectively, using the mean value of the first normal density distribution (μ_1 in Table 4).

5. Discussion

5.1. Exploratory statistical techniques for the interpretation of geochemical data

As suggested by the plot of the transformed scores of the first observational factor (Fig. 5a), the similarity of distribution patterns and the significant correlation between log Al-normalized trace and major element concentrations in the Augusta sediments indicate that these variables might have the same origin. The CCA results provide also statistical evidence that trace elements were not homogeneously distributed along the coast. In fact, distinct groups of elements are recognized, and each group could be associated with a specific sampling site (Fig. 5a). A probable link between trace element mobility in the water column and each sampling site and, therefore, with their different capacity of the sediment to entrap trace elements could not be excluded. Probably, a major input of trace elements to the seawater close to the industrialized coastal area has reasonably implied their enrichments in the matching sediments (core BX1).

Among the trace elements, Hg displays low weights in the CCA (Table 3), suggesting an anthropogenic source for the more coastal stations (see discussion below).

5.2. Pre-industrial element assessment and spatial distribution of trace element contamination

It is difficult to quantify the anthropogenic input of trace elements into many contaminated/polluted environments as frequently sediment trace element concentrations from pre-industrial periods are unknown. Therefore, defining appropriate trace element pre-industrial levels for sediments is an essential precursor for discriminating and quantifying anthropogenic input. Usually, if no specific information was available for the investigated area, the average shale is a broadly approved analog for the lithogenic background, being its composition comparable to that of the upper continental crust (Taylor and McLennan, 1985; Turekian and Wedepohl, 1961). However, it is generally accepted that each specific coastal system, depending on local geological properties, can be characterized by regional pre-industrial background concentrations that might be different to globe-scale reference levels. Therefore,

the use of the average shale or the upper continental crust as lithogenic background of trace elements could be misleading (Gibbs, 1993), while a clarification of the regional background or pre-industrial trace element concentrations is essential in environmental assessment and legislation (Matschullat et al., 2000; Salminen and Gregorauskiene, 2000).

In this study, the pre-industrial levels for each investigated trace elements can be set up on the basis of the frequency histograms of Al-trace element log-concentrations, and, consequently, natural and other than natural enrichments can be distinguished. Sediment samples are considered to be trace element-enriched when two components for each log-values element normalized to Al have been estimated.

The two normal populations have substantially different means (μ_1 and μ_2 values in Table 4) for Cd, Hg, Pb, and Sb, and moderately different means for As and Zn, indicating for the first elements an undoubted anthropogenic source, instead of As and Zn an anthropogenic input mixed to a natural source could not be excluded. If the results of canonical correlation clearly indicate that mercury is the most dangerous pollutant/contaminant in the investigated sediments, the frequency histograms allow to better discriminate among trace element sources, suggesting for the Augusta offshore sediments also a possible As, Cd, Pb, and Sb contamination.

The trace element pre-industrial values determined for the Augusta offshore sediments are compared with those estimated for sediments from the Strait of Sicily applying the same method of maximum likelihood of lognormal distribution parameter to sediments older than 1920 AD recovered along three coastal-offshore transects and with concentration values of the average shale and upper crustal materials (Table 5; Di Leonardo et al., 2006; Tranchida et al., 2010). This comparison does not reveal significant differences; in particular, Augusta pre-industrial trace element values are similar with those previously determined in the Strait of Sicily; only the As pre-industrial level is significantly lower than that estimated for the Strait of Sicily (Tranchida et al., 2010), probably because this area is influenced by geothermal and/or magmatic activities.

This resemblance suggests the robustness of the reasoning about background interpretation and about the validity of the method chosen in this work. Indeed, the background evaluation approach based on the frequency plots is innovative compared to others (Apitz et al., 2009; Rémy et al., 2003), because it permits the establishment of background concentrations from the raw data set (only after normalization procedure) where anomalous values may be present and when no information about sediment radiometric dating are available.

Once each element pre-industrial values are established, a further way to explore element variability is to look at the spatial variations using Al as normalizing element. The normalized-enrichment factor of

Table 5

Comparison among trace element pre-industrial concentrations estimated for the Augusta sediments, the Strait of Sicily, the average shale, and the continental crust, respectively (data are expressed in mg kg⁻¹).

| | Augusta area | Strait of Sicily | Average shale | Continental crust |
|----|--------------------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| As | 13.1 [#] | 38.00 [*] | 13 [^] | 1.5 ⁺ |
| Cd | 0.06 [#] | 0.12 [*] | 0.3 [^] | 0.098 ⁺ |
| Co | 15.3 [#] | 11.48 [*] | 19 [^] | 17 ⁺ |
| Cr | 79.4 [#] | 67.61 [*] | 90 [^] | 85 ⁺ |
| Cu | 30.9 [#] | 17.38 [*] | 45 [^] | 25 ⁺ |
| Hg | 0.05 [#] | 0.038 ^{**} | 0.40 [^] | - |
| Mn | 511.6 [#] | 478.63 [*] | 850 [^] | 542 ⁺ |
| Ni | 41 [#] | 38.90 [*] | 68 [^] | 44 ⁺ |
| Pb | 15.3 [#] | 20.89 [*] | 20 [^] | 20 ⁺ |
| Sb | 0.4 [#] | 0.52 [*] | 1.5 [^] | 0.2 ⁺ |
| V | 101.9 [#] | 107.15 [*] | 130 [^] | 107 ⁺ |
| Zn | 73.2 [#] | - | 95 [^] | 71 ⁺ |

[#] This study.

^{*} Tranchida (2005).

^{**} Di Leonardo et al. (2006).

[^] Turekian and Wedepohl (1961).

⁺ Taylor and McLennan (1985).

chemical species with respect to a pre-industrial value is often used and calculated as “[TE_(sample)/Al_(sample)]/[TE_(pre-industrial)/Al_(pre-industrial)],” with TE = trace element. The enrichment factors of the investigated trace elements highlight a meaningful relationship between trace element enrichments and the distance from the coast (Fig. 7). For some elements (Hg, Pb, and As), the more coastal sediments from site BX1 display the greatest upcore relative enrichment values (EF mean values of 50.8, 3.1, and 2.1 for Hg, Pb, and As, respectively). Considering the proximity of industrial and urban activities, these values presumably reflect significant anthropogenic inputs in the coastal studied area. Sb and Cd display elevated EFs in all the box-cores studied, with means values of 8.8 and 8.9, respectively. Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, and V EFs are close to the geochemical background. Despite the low EF values, at core BX1 these trace elements display upcore EF increases, similar to the other trace elements (As, Hg, Pb) derived from anthropogenic sources, suggesting a recent anthropogenic inputs.

Inside the Augusta Bay, mercury was found in alarmingly high concentrations in sediments and marine organisms sampled close to the chlor-alkali plant (Ausili et al., 2008; ICRAM, 2008). Indeed, ICRAM (2008) indicated that inside the bay the first meter of sediment was seriously polluted also by hydrocarbons and hexachlorobenzene. In many portions of the bay, and, especially, in the surface sediments, exceedances of the national regulatory guidelines (G.U.R.I., D.M. 56/2009) for As, Cd, Cu, Pb, V, Zn, PAHs, and PCBs have been extensively registered. Enrichments of As, Cd, Hg, Pb, and Sb registered in this study for sediment box-cores collected offshore of the Augusta show that, unfortunately, the strong contamination of the Augusta Bay, though extremely severe and dangerous, is not confined and localized to the enclosed area. This result is consistent with the findings of Sprovieri et al. (2011) who, based on mass-balance of total mercury (HgT) in the Augusta basin, demonstrated an essential role played by this area as mercury point source for the whole Mediterranean Sea, as well as other Hg sources to the Mediterranean Sea represented by the Idrja region in the Gulf of Trieste (Foucher et al., 2009) and by the The Pierre Blanche Lagoon in the southwestern French Mediterranean coast (Elbaz-Poulichet et al., 2011). The bay has been subjected to numerous dredgings over time and harbor dredged materials have been for a long time discharged without any cleaned treatments in marine zones outside and also very close to the bay. Already, Molinier and Picard (1953) stated that in the Augusta Bay many anthropogenic activities, such as the digging to expand the harbor area, the construction of access channels to large ships and the excavation of land along the coast, were frequently carried out and, at the most, without to follow any specific legislative regulation. These practices caused the deconstruction of the original benthic communities inside the bay, such as seagrass population of *Posidonia oceanica* (L.) Delile. Furthermore, during the 1980s, Augusta Bay was repeatedly dredged and the resulting material was transported and discharged about two nautical miles from the coast (ESTRAMED s.p.a., 1982), close to BX1 and BX2 sampling stations. Recently, Bellucci et al. (2012) suggested that the original environment of the bay was modified over time by sediment dredging and partial nourishment using materials of unknown origin. Moreover, Budillon et al. (2008) recognized different possible sediment dumping sites at several places on the shelf offshore the Augusta Bay (see also Di Leonardo et al., 2008, 2009) and also large seabed areas deeply scratched by trawls and anchorages. Like Hg, the other anthropogenic trace elements also registered enrichments especially in the more coastal sediments (site BX1) of the Augusta offshore. Since the role of the Augusta basin as a critical point source of Hg for the Mediterranean Sea cannot be excluded, it is reasonable that together with Hg a net output of As, Cd, Pb, and Sb from the Augusta basin can be suggested.

6. Conclusions

The distributions of major and trace element concentrations in the Augusta sediments provide a solid database to examine the influence

and the extent of anthropogenic contamination on the Augusta offshore sediments.

Despite the restrictive environmental legislation, Augusta Bay is probably still the main source of contamination for the offshore marine zone, reflecting the legacy of past anthropogenic emissions that will be maintained for a long time in the environment. The results of this study suggest as source of contamination the industrialized zones bordering the Augusta Bay, and are consistent with the previous studies on the same area about Hg (Di Leonardo et al., 2008) and the response of benthic foraminifera to environmental stress (Di Leonardo et al., 2007).

The CCA discriminates among major and trace elements on the basis of the anthropogenic activity influence, and evidences the unambiguous anthropogenic origin of mercury. The geochemical background for trace elements in the Augusta offshore is provided by mixture density estimation approach. Its definition provides an appropriate basis for comparison in other independent environmental investigations and helps to identify database deviations, reliability, metal-rich contributions from source sediment, and impact from human activities; indeed, the geochemical background is valuable for documenting differences between geographic areas as well as environmental change over time.

The multivariate exploratory statistical techniques (CCA and Frequency Distribution Analysis) used in this study constitute a powerful and economic tool in distinguishing between anthropogenic and natural origin for trace elements and can be adequately applied to other similar environments.

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