

**LINKING ORGANOCHLORINE CONTAMINANTS WITH DEMOGRAPHIC
PARAMETERS IN FREE-RANGING COMMON BOTTLENOSE DOLPHINS FROM
THE NORTHERN ADRIATIC SEA**

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42 HIGHLIGHTS

- 43 • Male bottlenose dolphins have significantly higher PCB concentrations than females
- 44 • Nulliparous females have significantly higher concentrations than parous ones
- 45 • There are no differences among social groups
- 46 • Majority of animals exceed the toxicity thresholds
- 47 • Pollutant concentrations can successfully be linked with demographic parameters

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49 ABSTRACT

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51 Marine top predators, including marine mammals, are known to bio-accumulate persistent pollutants
52 such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), a serious conservation concern for these species. Although
53 PCBs declined in European seas since the 1970s-1980s ban, considerable levels still persist in European
54 and Mediterranean waters. In cetaceans, stranded animals are a valuable source of samples for
55 pollutant studies, but may introduce both known and unknown biases. Biopsy samples from live, free-
56 ranging cetaceans offer a better alternative for evaluating toxicological burdens of populations,
57 especially when linked to known histories of identified individuals. We evaluated PCB and other
58 organochlorine [contaminants](#) in free-ranging common bottlenose dolphins (*Tursiops truncatus*)
59 from the Gulf of Trieste (northern Adriatic Sea), one of the most human-impacted areas in the
60 Mediterranean Sea. Biopsies were collected from 32 male and female dolphins during 2011–2017. All
61 animals were photo-identified and are part of a well-known population of about 150 individuals
62 monitored since 2002. We tested for the effects of sex, parity and social group membership on
63 contaminant concentrations. Males had significantly higher organochlorine concentrations than
64 females, suggesting offloading from reproducing females to their offspring via gestation and/or
65 lactation. Furthermore, nulliparous females had substantially higher concentrations than parous ones,
66 providing further support for maternal offloading of contaminants. Overall, 87.5% of dolphins had PCB
67 concentrations above the toxicity threshold for physiological effects in experimental marine mammal

68 studies (9 mg/kg lw), while 65.6% had concentrations above the highest threshold published for marine
69 mammals based on reproductive impairment in ringed seals (41 mg/kg lw). The potential population-
70 level effects of such high contaminant levels are of concern particularly in combination with other
71 known or suspected threats to this population. We demonstrate the utility of combining contaminant
72 data with demographic parameters such as sex, reproductive output, etc., resulting from long-term
73 studies.

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75 KEYWORDS:

76 Organochlorine contaminants, PCBs, ecotoxicology, *Tursiops truncatus*, Adriatic Sea, Mediterranean
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95 INTRODUCTION

96 Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are chemical compounds that occur in the marine environment
97 and have far-reaching consequences for human and ecosystem health. Marine top predators, including
98 marine mammals, are known to bioaccumulate POPs, which represent a conservation and health
99 concerns for these species and their environment (Tanabe et al. 1994, Aguilar et al. 2002, Vos et al.
100 2003, Jepson and Law 2016). Of these, organochlorines such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and
101 organochlorine pesticides (OCPs) are of particular concern, as they are persistent in the environment,
102 highly lipophilic, bioaccumulate in individuals over time, and biomagnify in marine top
103 predators through trophic transfer (Green and Larson 2016). These toxic compounds may cause
104 anaemia (Schwacke et al. 2012), immune system suppression (Tanabe et al., 1994) and the subsequent
105 increased vulnerability to infectious disease (Aguilar and Borrell 1994a, Jepson et al. 2005, **Randhawa**
106 **et al. 2015**), endocrine disruption (Tanabe et al. 1994, Vos et al. 2003, Schwacke et al. 2012),
107 reproductive impairment (Schwacke et al. 2002) and developmental abnormalities (Tanabe et al. 1994,
108 Vos et al. 2003) in marine mammals, thereby representing a serious health risk for these top predators.
109 Such health risks are likely to have direct impacts on marine mammal abundance, through reduced
110 reproduction or survival (Hall et al. 2006, Hall et al. 2017). Because of their trophic position, propensity
111 for bio-accumulating organochlorines, and long life span, marine mammals are often considered
112 ecosystem sentinels (Ross 2000, Wells et al. 2004, Moore 2008).

113 Due to concerns about toxicity and suspected carcinogenicity to humans, their effects on biota
114 and environmental persistence, the use of PCBs and OCPs such as dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane
115 (DDT) was banned in most of Europe in the 1970s-1980s. Subsequent monitoring of POPs in tissues of
116 several marine mammal species demonstrated their decline in several European seas (Law et al. 2012),
117 including the Mediterranean Sea (Aguilar and Borrell 2005, Borrell and Aguilar 2007). However, a
118 recent European-wide study showed that PCB levels continue to be high in European and
119 Mediterranean cetaceans (Jepson et al. 2016). In particular, very high PCB concentrations were linked

120 to small populations, range contraction, or population declines in some striped dolphin (*Stenella*
121 *coeruleoalba*), common bottlenose dolphin (*Tursiops truncatus*) and killer whale (*Orcinus orca*)
122 populations (Jepson et al. 2016).

123 Linking organochlorine concentrations with individual-level effects in wild marine mammals
124 (and especially cetaceans) is challenging at best, while linking them with potential population-level
125 effects is extremely difficult. It is therefore unsurprising that few quantitative approaches for
126 estimating such effects have been developed (Hall et al. 2017). Stranded animals can be a valuable
127 source of samples for pollutant studies in wild populations (Geraci and Lounsbury 2005), and are often
128 the only source of samples used in toxicological analysis (Jepson et al. 1999, Jepson et al. 2005, Law et
129 al. 2012). However, the use of stranded animals, especially in some contexts or in some locations, may
130 introduce substantial biases. For example, stranded animals may not be representative of the
131 population or area of interest, but may originate from other areas, due to winds, currents, or abnormal
132 behaviour prior to stranding (Hansen et al. 2004). Moreover, putrefaction processes, resulting from
133 exposure to the sun, high temperatures, wind and bacterial activity, can lead to altered organochlorine
134 concentrations and potentially misleading results (Borrell and Aguilar 1990). Finally, it has also been
135 suggested that the presence of disease may lead to abnormal rates of pollutant metabolism or
136 excretion (Borrell and Aguilar 1990). On the other hand, blubber biopsy samples (Noren and Mocklin
137 2012) collected from live, free-ranging cetaceans offer a good alternative for evaluating the
138 toxicological burden of populations (Fossi et al. 2000), especially when linked to long-term re-sighting
139 histories of known individuals (Ross et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001, Wells et al. 2005). For example,
140 information on pollutant levels can be combined with mark-recapture techniques to estimate the
141 impact of contaminants on survival or reproduction (Hall et al. 2009). Moreover, an appropriate study
142 design can ensure that the sampling is representative of the population or area in question. It was
143 previously recognised that the proper evaluation of pollutants on marine mammals will require efforts
144 directed toward long-term studies of known individuals in wild populations (Hall et al. 2006).

145 The common bottlenose dolphin is a long-lived marine top predator (Wells and Scott 1999,
146 2009). In many parts of the world, including the Mediterranean Sea, it is essentially “coastal” and
147 mainly found nearshore (Bearzi et al. 2009). This makes it particularly susceptible to a range of
148 anthropogenic impacts, including the exposure to organochlorine contaminants. This species is
149 regularly present in the Gulf of Trieste and adjacent waters, where it has been continuously studied
150 since 2002 (Genov et al. 2008, Genov et al. 2016, Genov et al. 2017). As a coastal, mobile and long-
151 lived top predator with strong site fidelity, it is a particularly good candidate for investigating the
152 effects of organochlorine contaminants, and for regional monitoring of organochlorine pollution.

153 In this study, we evaluated organochlorine levels, particularly PCBs, in free-ranging common
154 bottlenose dolphins in relation to demographic parameters, as part of a long-term investigation into
155 their ecology, behaviour and conservation status in the Gulf of Trieste and adjacent waters in the
156 northern Adriatic Sea. In particular, we tested for the effects of sex, parity and social group
157 membership on organochlorine concentrations, in one of the most heavily human-impacted areas
158 within the Mediterranean Sea.

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171 MATERIAL AND METHODS

172 *The study population*

173 The Gulf of Trieste, together with its surrounding waters (Fig. 1), is probably one of the most heavily
174 human-impacted areas within the Adriatic and Mediterranean Seas, due to shipping, fishing,
175 industrialisation, tourism, aquaculture and agriculture (Horvat et al. 1999, Faganeli et al. 2003, David
176 et al. 2007, Mozetič et al. 2008, Codarin et al. 2009, Grego et al. 2009). The dolphin population
177 inhabiting these and surrounding waters (Fig. 1) has been the focus of a long-term study and
178 monitoring by Morigenos – Slovenian Marine Mammal Society since 2002, primarily through boat-
179 based surveys and photo-identification, and is now relatively well studied (Genov et al. 2008, Genov
180 2011, Genov et al. 2016, Genov et al. 2017). The population is present within the area year-round
181 (Genov et al. 2008, Genov 2011) and appears to be demographically and genetically distinct (Genov et
182 al. 2009, Gaspari et al. 2015). The annual abundance estimates range between about 70 and 150
183 animals (Genov 2011; Morigenos, *unpublished data*). Most encountered individuals have extensive re-
184 sighting histories over the study period, and several are of known sex and reproductive output.

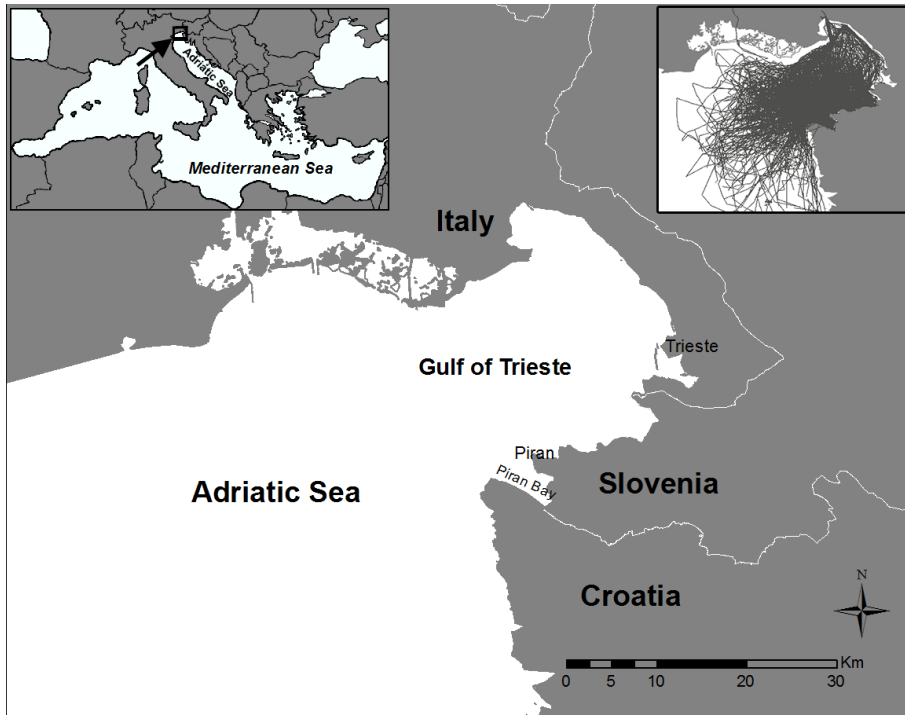


Fig. 1. Study area in the northern Adriatic Sea. The upper left inset shows the location of the study area in the Adriatic Sea. The upper right inset shows the survey effort (navigation tracks).

Sample collection

Biopsy samples were collected from free-ranging common bottlenose dolphins between 2011 and 2017. Sampling followed standard methodology (Gorgone et al. 2008, Kiszka et al. 2010) and was carried out exclusively in good weather conditions (Beaufort sea state ≤ 2 , good visibility, no precipitation). Samples of skin and blubber tissue were obtained using custom made bolts and stainless steel sampling tips (tip length 25 mm, internal diameter 7 mm), made by Ceta Dart, Copenhagen, Denmark. Sampling tips were sterilised using 96% ethanol and burning prior to being used. Bolts with sterile sampling tips were fired into the dorso-lateral area below the dorsal fin (Fig. 2), at distances of

197 4–10 m, using a Barnett Panzer V crossbow with 68 kg draw weight. A high-pressure moulded stopper
198 prevented the tip from penetrating more than about 20 mm and ensured the re-bouncing of the bolt.
199 The floating bolt was retrieved from the water by hand. Blubber samples were removed and excised
200 with sterilised forceps and surgical scissors, placed in aluminium foil and stored at –20°C until chemical
201 analysis.

202 Sampling was only attempted on adults. No sampling was attempted on offspring or mothers
203 with offspring. Care was taken not to attempt sampling of animals accompanied (followed) by another
204 animal in their slipstream, to prevent potential shots in the head. All biopsy attempts were
205 accompanied by concurrent photo-identification (Würsig and Jefferson 1990) of targeted individuals
206 and other dolphins in their group. This ensured that the identity of the sampled animal was known, in
207 order to prevent re-sampling the same individuals, and to be able to link organochlorine
208 concentrations to various individual-specific parameters known from photo-identification. During each
209 attempt, the behavioural reactions of the target animal and the focal group were recorded, together
210 with information on distance of the target animal, the area hit and the sea state. Biopsy sampling was
211 conducted under the permit 35601-102/2010-4 by the Slovenian Environmental Agency.

212 In addition to biopsies, one sample was collected from an adult male found entangled in fishing
213 gear – due to the freshness of the carcass, it could be identified with confidence, determined to be one
214 of the local dolphins, and therefore included in the analysis. Stranded animals too decomposed to be
215 identified were not included in the analyses, as they were of unknown origin and may not be
216 representative of the population in question.

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Fig. 2. Biopsy sample collected from a free-ranging common bottlenose dolphin in the Gulf of Trieste, northern Adriatic Sea. Photo: Ana Hace, Morigenos

Demographic parameters

Sex of individuals was determined by a) observations of temporally stable adult-offspring associations (adults consistently accompanied by offspring were assumed to be mothers and therefore females); b) photographs of the genital area during bowriding or aerial behaviour and c) molecular methods from biopsy samples. For molecular sex determination, DNA was extracted with phenol/chloroform and ethanol precipitation from tissue samples preserved in 95 % ethanol. Sex was determined through

differential amplification of the zinc finger gene regions present in the X and Y chromosomes (ZFX and ZFY, respectively), as described by Bérubé and Palsbøll (1996).

Parity was assessed based on re-sighting histories and reproductive output of photo-identified females. Females known to have produced at least one offspring during the study period were considered parous. Females never observed with offspring were assumed to be nulliparous. One of these females appeared older based on external appearance, and could potentially be of post-reproductive age, although evidence for reproductive senescence in bottlenose dolphins is limited (Marsh and Kasuya 1986, Wells and Scott 1999, Ellis et al. 2018).

Previous work on social network analyses has shown that the local dolphin population is structured into distinct social groups, which exhibit [temporal partitioning](#), differences in behaviour [with respect to fisheries](#) and may have different feeding preferences (Centrih et al. 2013; 2014; Genov et al. 2014; 2015; Genov et al., [in press](#)).

Chemical analysis

[Blubber samples were stored frozen at –20.0 °C. Samples were analysed using the method reported in detail in Jepson et al. \(2016\). In brief, samples were subjected to Soxhlet extraction using of acetone: *n*-hexane 1:1 \(v:v\) and cleaned up and fractionated using alumina \(5% deactivated\) and silica \(3% deactivated\) columns, respectively. The total extractable lipid content was determined gravimetrically after evaporation of the solvent from an aliquot of the uncleaned extract. Lipid content varied from 3.4 to 33.8%. PCB concentrations in dolphin samples were determined with an Agilent 6890 GC with \$\mu\$ ECD. The PCB standard solutions contained the following 27 compounds in iso-octane: Hexachlorobenzene; *p,p'*-DDE; CB101; CB105; CB110; CB118; CB128; CB138; CB141; CB149; CB151; CB153; CB156; CB158; CB170; CB18; CB180; CB183; CB187; CB194; CB28; CB31; CB44; CB47; CB49; CB52; CB66, together with the internal standard CB53. Quantification was performed using internal standards and 11 calibration levels \(range 0.5 – 400ng/ml\). CEFAS follows a strict QA/QC regime for analysis of samples. The laboratory biannually participates in proficiency testing scheme Quasimeme](#)

(Quality Assurance of Information for Marine Environmental Monitoring in Europe) as external quality assurance. All analyses were carried out under full analytical quality control procedures that included the analysis of a certified reference material (BCR349 cod liver oil; European Bureau of Community reference) and a blank sample with every batch samples analysed so that the day-to-day performance of the methods could be assessed. Wet weight analyte concentrations were converted to lipid-normalised concentrations using measured lipid contents. Values below the limit of quantification (LOQ) were reported as <LOQ. In addition to the compounds mentioned above, four samples (two males, one female and one animal of unknown sex) were also analysed for *p,p'*-TDE (also known as *p,p'*-DDD) and *p,p'*-DDT. The limited budget available for analysis prevented us from doing this for the entire sample set.

~~Blubber samples were stored frozen at -20.0 °C. Samples were analysed using the method reported in Jepson et al., 2005 and Law et al., 2012. A total of 25 PCB congeners plus the organochlorines hexachlorobenzene and *p,p'*-DDE were determined in the samples. Additionally, dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) was determined in four of the samples. In preparation for analysis, samples were defrosted and dissected in a strictly controlled, contaminant free environment. Samples were chopped with solvent rinsed scalpels and homogenised. Tissue samples were stored frozen at -20°C until required for analysis. After thawing, the homogenised subsamples were dried by mixing with anhydrous sodium sulphate and storing in a freezer for a minimum of 12 hours prior to further analysis. The samples were subjected to Soxhlet extraction using acetone: *n*-hexane 1:1 (v:v) for 5.5 hours. The total extractable lipid content was determined gravimetrically after evaporation of the solvent from an aliquot of the uncleaned extract. Lipid content varied from 3.4 to 33.8%. Depending on the lipid content of the samples, varying volumes of the blubber extracts were cleaned to have <50 mg of lipid in the samples for PCB analysis. Aliquots of the extracts were cleaned up and fractionated using alumina (5% deactivated) and silica (3% deactivated) columns, respectively. The~~

final gas chromatography (GC) ready fractions were spiked with PCB53 internal standard and made up to a final volume of 1 ml. PCB concentrations in dolphin samples were determined with an Agilent 6890 GC with μ ECD. The separation of analytes was performed on a 50.0 m \times 200 μ m, 0.33 μ m film-thickness DB-5 capillary column (J&W). The carrier and ECD make-up gas were hydrogen (32.2 psi constant pressure, initial velocity 50 cm/s) and argon/methane (95:5), respectively. The initial oven temperature was 90°C, held for 2.00 min, then increased to 165°C at 15°C/min, to 285°C at 2°C/min, and finally held for 23 min. The injector temperature and detector temperature was 270°C and 300°C, respectively. A 1 μ l extract was injected in splitless mode with a purge time of 2 min. The PCB standard solutions contained the following 27 compounds in iso-octane: Hexachlorobenzene; *p,p'*-DDE; CB101; CB105; CB110; CB118; CB128; CB138; CB141; CB149; CB151; CB153; CB156; CB158; CB170; CB18; CB180; CB183; CB187; CB194; CB28; CB31; CB44; CB47; CB49; CB52; CB66, together with the internal standard CB53. Quantification was performed using internal standards and 11 calibration levels (range 0.5–400 ng/ml). CEFAS follows a strict QA/QC regime for analysis of samples. The laboratory biannually participates in proficiency testing scheme Quasimeme (Quality Assurance of Information for Marine Environmental Monitoring in Europe) as external quality assurance. All analyses were carried out under full analytical quality control procedures that included the analysis of a certified reference material (BCR349 cod liver oil; European Bureau of Community reference) and a blank sample with every batch samples analysed so that the day-to-day performance of the methods could be assessed. If levels of target analytes in the samples were outside of the range of the instrument calibration, extracts were diluted to be within range and re-analysed. The results obtained for the reference materials were plotted as Shewhart quality control charts for each compound or determined. The charts had previously been created by the repeated analysis of the above certified reference materials in the CEFAS Lowestoft Laboratory using the North West Analytical Quality Analyst software™ (Northwest Analytical Inc., USA). Warning and control limits had been defined for the charts as 2 σ and 3 σ —2 σ and 3 \times the standard deviation from the mean for each compound or trace element, respectively. The results obtained for all samples analysed were accepted as valid as the results for the certified

reference materials were within the limits set by the control charts. Concentrations were converted to on a lipid weight basis using measured lipid contents. Values below the limit of quantification (LOQ) were reported as <LOQ. In addition to the compounds mentioned above, four samples (two males, one female and one animal of unknown sex) were also analysed for *p,p'*-TDE and *p,p'*-DDT. The limited

Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis, congener concentrations below the limit of quantification (LOQ) were set to one-half of the LOQ (Darnerud et al. 2006, Lignell et al. 2009, Law et al. 2012). We compared this approach of treating <LOQ values with two alternative approaches: 1) replacing <LOQ values with zero and 2) keeping <LOQ values at the LOQ value. The choice of the approach had negligible effect on the results, and had no effect on conclusions. We therefore considered this approach the best compromise between underestimating and overestimating toxicological burden.

The values of individual 25 PCB congeners for each sample were summed to obtain the $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$ for each individual. In addition, the sum of priority PCB congeners (28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153 and 180) listed by the International Council for the Exploration of the Sea (ICES) was also calculated and displayed, for ease of comparison with some of the previous studies. The lipid content of each sample was used to obtain concentrations as mg/kg lipid weight (mg/kg lw).

Tests of normality revealed non-normal distribution of data. Both arithmetic and geometric means across individuals were calculated for $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$, ΣICES7 and *p,p'*-DDE. HCB values were too low (below the limit of quantification) to allow any useful analysis (Table 1). The contribution of each individual PCB congener to the $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$ was also calculated across all individuals.

We tested for the effects of 1) sex, 2) parity (whether a female has previously had a calf or not) and 3) social group membership on contaminant concentrations. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to examine differences between males and females, and between nulliparous and parous females. The

Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine differences among social groups. Statistical analyses were carried out in program R (R Core Team 2017).

Assessing toxicity

Two PCB toxicity thresholds or reference values were used, following Jepson et al. (2016). A lower PCB toxicity threshold was used for the onset of physiological endpoints in marine mammals of 17 mg/kg lipid weight (lw) (as Aroclor 1254, Kannan et al. 2000), that was calculated to be equivalent to 9.0 mg/kg lw ($\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$) in Jepson et al. (2016) and in this study. A higher PCB toxicity threshold, the highest reported in marine mammal toxicology studies, of 77 mg/kg lw (as Clophen 50) for reproductive impairment in Baltic ringed seals (*Pusa hispida*, Helle et al. 1976) was calculated to be equivalent to 41 mg/kg lw (as $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$) in Jepson et al. (2016) and in this study.

RESULTS

Between 2011 and 2017, samples were obtained from 32 adult dolphins, including 18 males, 9 females and 5 animals of unknown sex (Table 1). Six of these samples were included in the study by Jepson et al. (2016). Six females were previously observed with offspring, while three were not.

PCBs

$\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$ ranged from 4.13 to 293 mg/kg lipid weight, with an arithmetic mean of 81.5 (95% CI = 57.2 – 105.8) and a geometric mean of 53.4 (95% CI = 36.9 – 77.3, Table 2). Males had significantly higher $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$ concentrations than females (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 155$, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 3). Furthermore, nulliparous females had significantly higher concentrations than parous ones (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 17$, $P < 0.05$, Fig. 4). There were no statistically significant differences among social groups (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H = 1.21$, $P = 0.75$, Fig. 5).

357 Figure 6 shows female and male PCB concentrations in relation to two toxicity thresholds.
358 Overall, 87.5% of dolphins had PCB blubber concentrations above the toxicity threshold of 9 mg/kg lw
359 for physiological effects in experimental marine mammal studies (Kannan et al. 2000), while 65.6% had
360 concentrations above the highest threshold (41 mg/kg lw) published for marine mammals based on
361 reproductive impairment in ringed seals (Helle et al. 1976). In males, mean $\Sigma 25$ PCB were above the
362 higher of the two thresholds, even when the lower confidence limit is considered (Fig. 6). One male
363 had a $\Sigma 25$ PCB concentration of 293 mg/kg lw. In females, mean $\Sigma 25$ PCB were above the lower toxicity
364 threshold of 9 mg/kg lw, but did not reach the higher one of 41 mg/kg lw, not even when the upper
365 confidence limit is considered (Fig. 6). The lower confidence limit of Σ PCB in females was just below
366 the lower toxicity threshold (Fig. 6). The Σ ICES7 concentrations follow a similar pattern and are
367 presented in Tables 1 and 2.

368 Among dioxin-like PCBs, these represented 2.3% (PCB 118, found in 90.6% of samples), 0.8%
369 (PCB 156, found in 75% of samples) and 0.7% (PCB 105, found in 75% of samples) of the total PCB
370 burden, respectively. Concentrations of the PCB congener 28 was below LOQ for all samples. PCB
371 congeners 153, 138, 180, 187, 149 and 170 had the highest mean values across individual dolphins
372 (Table 3, Fig. 7). Combined, they contributed 77.9% of the total PCB burden. Congeners 44, 31, 28, 18,
373 141, 49 and 110 had the lowest mean values, with a combined contribution of 2.2% to the total PCB
374 burden (Table 3, Fig. 7).

375 ~~samples), 0.8% (PCB 156, found in 75% of samples) and 0.7% (PCB 105, found in 75% of samples) of~~
376 ~~the total PCB burden, respectively. Concentrations of the PCB congener 28 was below LOQ for all~~

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380 DDE and DDT

381 The concentrations of *p,p'*-DDE ranged from 0.3 to 32.9 mg/kg lw, with an arithmetic mean of 11.6
382 (95% CI = 8.3 – 14.8) and a geometric mean of 6.7 (95 % CI = 4.2 – 10.7, Table 2). As with PCBs, males

383 had significantly higher p,p' -DDE concentrations than females (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 152$, $P <$
384 0.001 , Table 2), and nulliparous females had significantly higher concentrations than parous ones
385 (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 18$, $P < 0.05$). Like for PCBs, there were no statistically significant differences
386 among social groups (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H = 1.15$, $P = 0.76$). The values of total DDT (the sum of p,p' -
387 DDE, p,p' -TDE and p,p' -DDT) for four individuals are shown in Table 1. For these four samples, the mean
388 contribution of p,p' -DDE to total DDT was 89.7% (range = 83.9 – 92.6%), showing that p,p' -DDE is the
389 predominant metabolite of total DDT.

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391 *HCB*
392 Most HCB values were below the limit of quantification (Table 1). Using half the LOQ for calculations,
393 the HCB concentrations ranged from 0.03 to 0.22 mg/kg lw, with an arithmetic mean of 0.09 (95% CI =
394 0.08 – 0.12) and a geometric mean of 0.09 (95% CI = 0.07 – 0.10, Table 2). Due to these low values, no
395 further analysis was carried out on HCB concentrations.

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Table 1. Summary of common bottlenose dolphin samples from the Gulf of Trieste (northern Adriatic Sea), analysed in this study. F = female, M = male. Parity is indicated by + (parous) and – (nulliparous). Σ 25PCB, Σ ICES7, p,p' -DDE, DDT and HCB values expressed as mg/kg lipid weight. DDT represents total DDT. The “<” indicates that the concentration was below the limit of quantification.

Sample	Year	Sex	Parity	Source	% Lipid	Σ 25PCB	Σ ICES7	p,p' -DDE	Σ DDT	HCB
1	2011	M		Biopsy	23.3	64.2	40.9	9.03		<0.098
2	2011	M		Biopsy	9.7	80.2	50.9	11.3		<0.144
3	2011	M		Biopsy	16.2	58.7	37.1	8.02		<0.166
4	2011	M		Biopsy	11.7	139.8	94.8	13.7		0.102
5	2011	M		Biopsy	19.5	293	190	32.9		0.128
6	2011	F	+	Biopsy	17.5	29.0	14.9	1.54		<0.091
7	2013	M		Biopsy	15.2	34.2	21.2	4.49		<0.197
8	2013	F	+	Biopsy	12.9	7.96	3.96	0.44		<0.341
9	2013	F	+	Biopsy	10.9	17.9	9.89	0.95		<0.202
10	2013	M		Biopsy	3.4	23.0	14.4	2.67		<0.414
11	2014	F	–	Biopsy	10.5	27.2	17.5	9.41		<0.208
12	2014	F	+	Biopsy	27.9	4.13	2.12	0.25		<0.093
13	2014	M		Biopsy	6.6	32.2	20.2	16.7		<0.441
14	2014	M		Biopsy	13.5	43.7	27.0	5.51		<0.228
15	2014	M		Biopsy	6.9	56.7	35.6	7.72		<0.305
16	2014	M		Biopsy	23.9	123	81.2	17.5		<0.092
17	2014	F	–	Biopsy	19.3	30.7	19.2	4.25		<0.124
18	2014	F	–	Biopsy	33.8	48.9	31.0	6.45		<0.141
19	2014	M		Biopsy	10.1	131	84.8	21.9		<0.217
20	2014	M		Biopsy	18.8	65.9	40.7	9.55		<0.333
21	2014	M		Biopsy	9.3	93.8	60.9	13.5		<0.139
22	2014	M		Biopsy	14.5	76.8	48.8	10.1		<0.200
23	2015	M		Bycatch	6.6	152	96.5	25.9		<0.166
24	2015	M		Biopsy	7.9	111	74.2	16.0	17.3	<0.164
25	2015	U		Biopsy	7.7	58.3	37.8	8.17		0.195
26	2016	U		Biopsy	13.7	145	96.6	20.3	22.04	<0.080
27	2016	F	+	Biopsy	14.4	6.82	3.88	0.54	0.54	<0.104
28	2016	M		Biopsy	4.4	121	80.3	16.7	18.6	<0.215
29	2016	U		Biopsy	11.3	150	98.2	23.5		<0.194
30	2017	U		Biopsy	18.9	157	102	23.5		<0.106
31	2017	U		Biopsy	11.8	219	144	27.2		<0.126

32	2017	F	+	Biopsy	25.3	7.64	4.37	0.47	<0.059
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Table 2. Σ25PCB, ΣICES7, *p,p'*-DDE and HCB concentrations by sex: mean, median, geometric mean with 95% confidence interval, and range. All values are in mg/kg lipid weight. “Mean” is arithmetic mean. “Geomean” is geometric mean.

	N	Mean	Median	Geomean	Geomean 95% CI	Range (min–max)
Σ25PCB						
<i>Males</i>	18	94.5	78.5	78.3	58.3 – 105.1	23.0 – 293.0
<i>Females</i>	9	20.0	17.9	14.9	8.5 – 26.1	4.1 – 48.9
<i>Unknown</i>	5	145.7	150	134.1	87.0 – 206.7	58.3 – 219.0
OVERALL	32	81.5	61.5	53.4	36.9 – 77.3	4.1 – 293.0

ΣICES7						
<i>Males</i>	18	61.1	49.9	50.1	37.0 – 67.9	14.4 – 190.0
<i>Females</i>	9	11.9	9.9	8.5	4.6 – 15.4	2.1 – 31.0
<i>Unknown</i>	5	95.7	98.2	88.0	56.8 – 136.3	37.8 – 144.0
OVERALL	32	52.7	39.3	33.2	22.4 – 49.1	2.1 – 190.0

<i>p,p'</i>-DDE						
<i>Males</i>	18	13.5	12.4	11.4	8.5 – 15.3	2.7 – 32.9
<i>Females</i>	9	2.7	0.9	1.3	0.6 – 3.1	0.3 – 9.4
<i>Unknown</i>	5	20.5	23.5	19.0	12.5 – 29.1	8.2 – 27.2
OVERALL	32	11.6	9.5	6.7	4.2 – 10.7	0.3 – 32.9

HCB						
<i>Males</i>	18	0.11	0.1	0.1	0.08 – 0.12	0.05 – 0.22
<i>Females</i>	9	0.07	0.06	0.07	0.05 – 0.09	0.03 – 0.17
<i>Unknown</i>	5	0.09	0.06	0.08	0.04 – 0.13	0.04 – 0.20
OVERALL	32	0.09	0.09	0.09	0.07 – 0.10	0.03 – 0.22

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432 **Table 3.** Summary statistics for individual PCB congeners. All values are in mg/kg lipid weight.

PCB congener	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Geomean	Geomean 95% CI
C101	1.35	1.33	0.89	0.05	3.16	0.93	0.64 - 1.35
C105	0.42	0.39	0.27	0.03	0.94	0.32	0.23 - 0.43
C110	0.14	0.10	0.10	0.03	0.35	0.11	0.09 - 0.14
C118	1.57	1.48	1.05	0.05	4.10	1.09	0.75 - 1.57
C128	1.67	1.40	1.31	0.05	5.13	1.01	0.66 - 1.56
C138	14.64	11.05	12.47	0.48	51.33	8.86	5.83 - 13.47
C141	0.10	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.09	0.07 - 0.1
C149	5.83	4.56	5.51	0.15	27.72	3.42	2.2 - 5.31
C151	2.40	1.92	1.97	0.05	8.21	1.45	0.94 - 2.24
C153	24.30	16.89	21.43	0.76	92.40	14.53	9.55 - 22.11
C156	0.61	0.43	0.56	0.03	2.41	0.39	0.27 - 0.56
C158	0.81	0.64	0.65	0.03	2.77	0.52	0.35 - 0.77
C170	3.52	2.61	2.89	0.25	11.81	2.39	1.69 - 3.37
C18	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.08	0.07 - 0.09
C180	9.71	6.34	8.72	0.68	36.96	6.31	4.42 - 8.99
C183	2.25	1.67	1.81	0.15	7.19	1.51	1.06 - 2.15
C187	8.07	6.09	6.76	0.58	30.80	5.45	3.86 - 7.7
C194	1.45	1.31	1.09	0.17	4.47	1.05	0.78 - 1.43
C28	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.08	0.06 - 0.09
C31	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.08	0.06 - 0.09
C44	0.09	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.08	0.06 - 0.09
C47	0.57	0.55	0.42	0.03	1.51	0.38	0.26 - 0.56
C49	0.10	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.22	0.09	0.07 - 0.11
C52	0.99	0.91	0.76	0.03	2.71	0.6	0.39 - 0.92
C66	0.68	0.46	0.71	0.03	2.79	0.31	0.19 - 0.52

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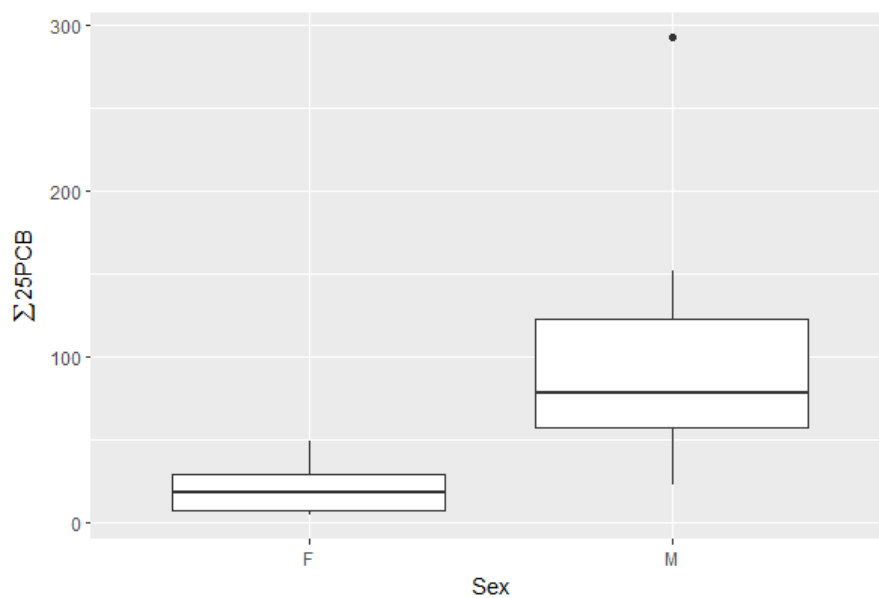


Fig. 3. Boxplots showing differences in Σ25PCB concentrations (mg/kg lipid weight) between females (F, $n = 9$) and males (M, $n = 18$). The difference is statistically significant (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 155$, $P < 0.001$).

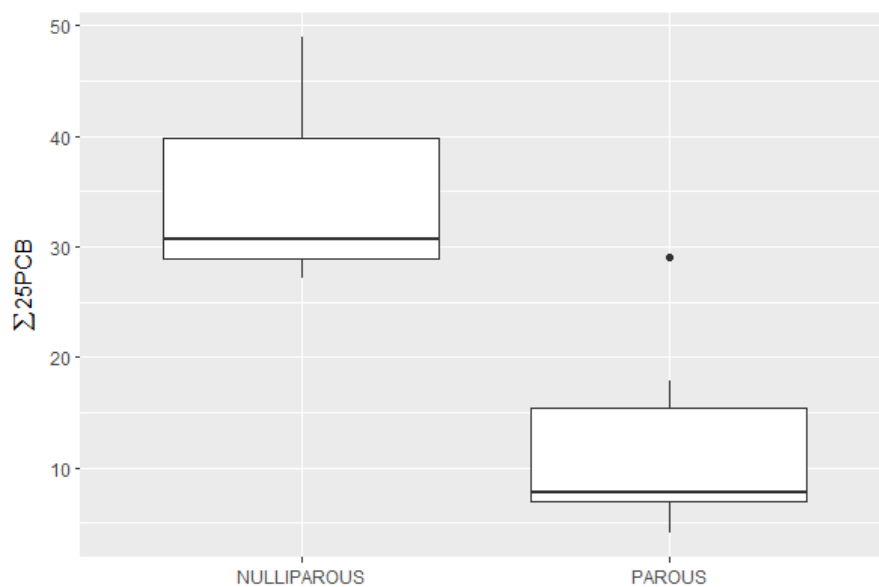


Fig. 4. Boxplots showing differences in Σ25PCB concentrations (mg/kg lipid weight) between nulliparous ($n = 3$) and parous ($n = 6$) females. The difference is statistically significant (Mann-Whitney U test, $U = 17$, $P < 0.05$).

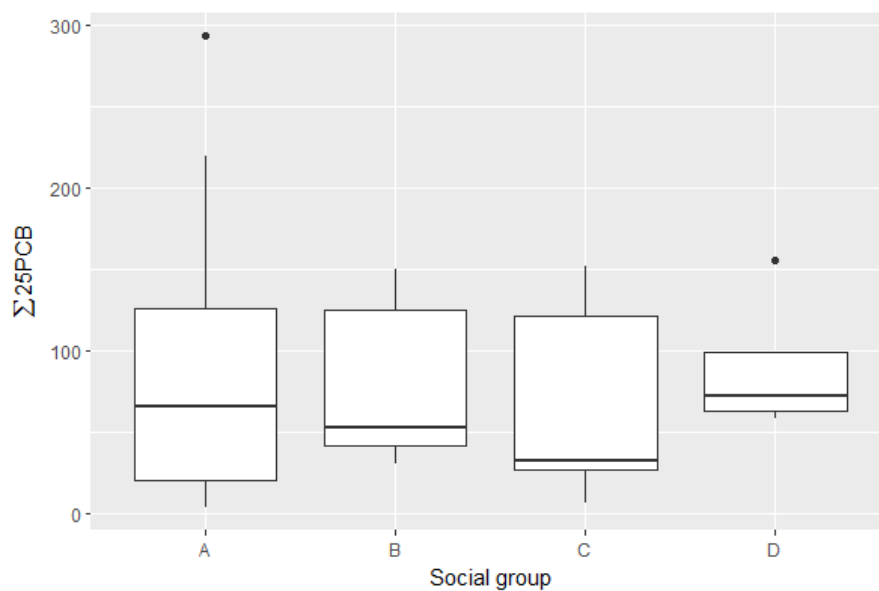


Fig. 5. Boxplots showing differences in $\Sigma 25\text{PCB}$ concentrations (mg/kg lipid weight) among social groups A (n = 15), B (n = 8), C (n = 5) and D (n = 4). Differences are not statistically significant (Kruskal-Wallis test, $H = 1.24$, $P = 0.743$).

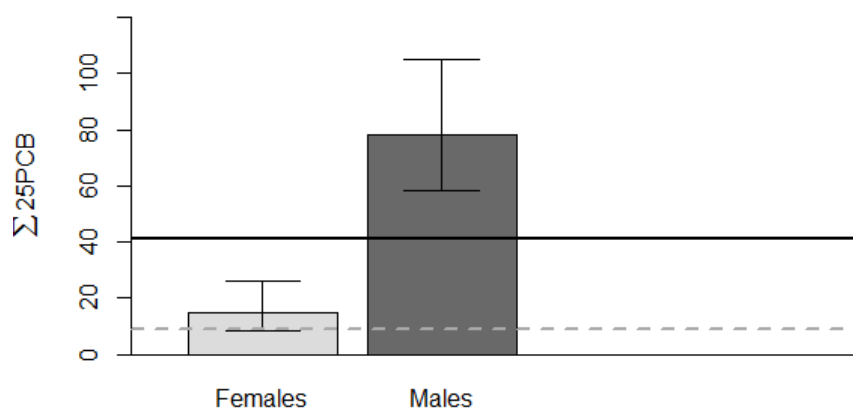


Fig. 6. Geometric mean Σ25PCB (mg/kg lipid weight) concentrations for females and males, in relation to published toxicity thresholds. Error bars are the 95 % confidence intervals for geometric means. The lower dashed grey line represents the lower toxicity threshold (9 mg/kg lw) for onset of physiological effects in experimental marine mammal studies (Kannan et al. 2000). The solid black line represents the highest threshold (41 mg/kg lw) published for marine mammals based on reproductive impairment in ringed seals from the Baltic Sea (Helle et al. 1976).

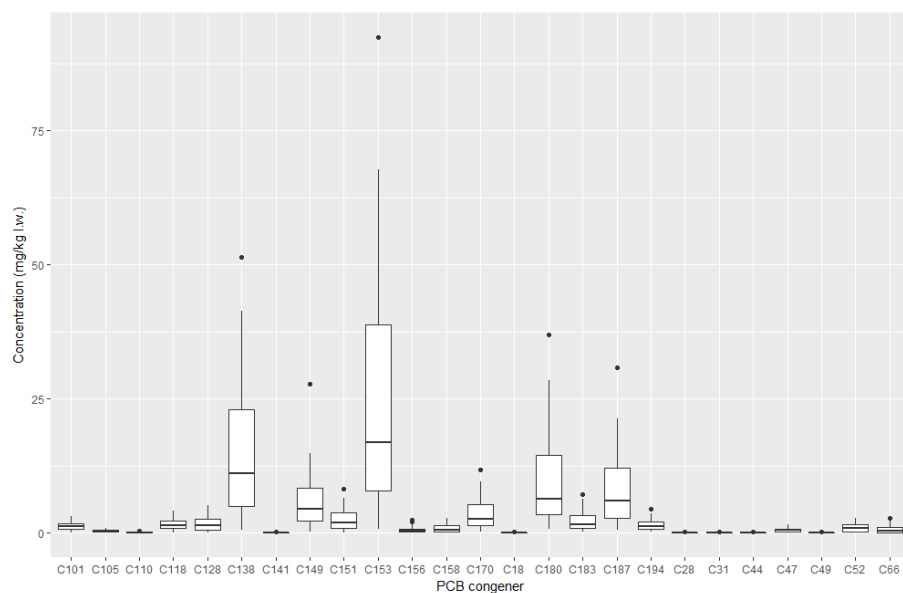


Fig. 7. Contribution of individual PCB congeners to the total PCB burden.

477 DISCUSSION

478 In this study, we assessed the organochlorine levels in free-ranging common bottlenose dolphins from
479 the Gulf of Trieste and adjacent waters in the northern Adriatic Sea. We show that organochlorine
480 concentrations vary with sex and reproductive status, but not with social group membership. With the
481 largest sample size analysed in the Adriatic Sea to date, and samples coming from live resident animals
482 with known resighting histories, this study provides an unprecedented insight into the organochlorine
483 burden in Adriatic dolphins. Judging from the literature, this study may also represent the largest
484 sample size of live free-ranging animals in the Mediterranean Sea or Europe published for this species
485 to date, and is comparable to some of the world's largest sample sizes analysed (Table 4).

486 To date, a number of studies looked at contaminant levels in different cetacean species in the
487 Adriatic Sea. Marsili and Focardi (1997) investigated organochlorines in cetaceans stranded around the
488 Italian coasts, but only three samples were from bottlenose dolphins from the northern Adriatic.
489 Storelli and Marcotrigiano (2000) assessed organochlorines from three Risso's dolphins (*Grampus*
490 *griseus*) stranded in the southern Adriatic. Storelli and Marcotrigiano (2003) and Storelli et al. (2007)
491 assessed organochlorines in bottlenose dolphins stranded on the southern Adriatic Sea coast, but the
492 latter study did not include analysis of blubber tissue. In the same area, Storelli et al. (2012) measured
493 organochlorines in stranded striped dolphins. In the northern Adriatic Sea, on its eastern side, Lazar et
494 al. (2012) analysed different tissues in a single common dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*), a species
495 considered extremely rare in the basin nowadays (Bearzi et al. 2004, Genov et al. 2012). Finally, Herceg
496 Romanić et al. (2014) analysed organochlorine contaminants in various tissues in thirteen bottlenose
497 dolphins stranded along the Croatian coast in the northern Adriatic, providing the most comprehensive
498 organochlorine assessment for dolphins in the northern part of the Adriatic Sea until now. All of these
499 studies provided valuable insights, but due to limited sample sizes and the use of stranded animals,
500 the inferences that can be made are somewhat limited.

501 In most cases, cetacean studies typically involve either a) collecting photo-identification data
502 of free-ranging individuals, or b) analysing pollutant concentrations in stranded animals. However,

503 studies combining these two important aspects, the analysis of pollutants in conjunction with long-
504 term photo-identification of live animals (e.g. Ross et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001, Wells et al. 2005) are
505 relatively rare. In our study, all biopsied animals were photo-identified and are part of a well-known
506 population of about 150 individuals monitored since 2002 (Genov et al. 2008, Genov et al. 2009, Genov
507 et al. 2016, Genov et al. 2017), which adds additional value to this dataset. This allowed us to
508 successfully combine long-term photographic records of identifiable individuals with individually-
509 specific organochlorine concentrations, which in turn enabled us to link contaminant loads to certain
510 demographic parameters in a known resident dolphin population. In the long term, the continued
511 organochlorine monitoring in conjunction with photo-identification may provide further useful insights
512 and we hope to be able to expand on this in the future by including additional parameters. Such
513 integrated information, linking pollutant levels to demographic and other parameters, holds a lot of
514 potential, as PCB concentrations can be linked to sex, reproductive output and other parameters (Ross
515 et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001, Wells et al. 2005). Such information is often lacking for wild populations
516 and is of considerable importance for evaluating the impacts of pollutants on marine top predators.

517 When considering potential caveats, it should be noted that the sampling of live free-ranging
518 animals meant that there was some heterogeneity in the origin of samples with respect to the exact
519 body location, despite the same general body area being targeted. This could potentially affect the
520 resulting organochlorine concentrations, as contaminant concentrations may vary across the body
521 parts sampled (Aguilar 1987). However, because we expressed the concentrations on a lipid weight
522 basis and quantified the proportion of lipid, the resulting concentrations can be considered unbiased
523 (Aguilar 1987). Moreover, previous studies have shown that biopsy samples yield representative
524 details on chlorinated and brominated aromatic compounds in marine mammal blubber, regardless of
525 the quantity and type of blubber sampled, provided that lipid normalization is performed on the
526 resulting concentrations (Ikonomou et al. 2007).

Even though known males were not preferentially targeted over known females, and several animals were of unknown sex at the time of sampling, the skewed sex ratio is likely driven by the fact that females with accompanying calves were not sampled.

PCB concentrations

We detected relatively high PCB concentrations. This is in agreement with other studies that showed the continued persistence of PCBs in large marine predators in Europe (Law et al. 2012, Jepson et al. 2016). In a previous European-wide study (Jepson et al. 2016), PCB levels were shown to be high in six Gulf of Trieste bottlenose dolphins, but the sample size from this area was limited. Here, using a larger sample size, we corroborate that PCB levels in this population are indeed high in relation to published reference values (Kannan et al. 2000, Jepson et al. 2016). It is probably safe to assume that organochlorine threats to this population are mainly restricted to PCBs, as is the case for other Mediterranean areas (Jepson et al. 2016). Other studies in Europe have shown that following the 1970s-1980s ban the declines of PCBs have been slower than those of DDTs (Aguilar and Borrell 2005) and levels have subsequently reached a plateau in harbour porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) around the United Kingdom (Law et al. 2012) and in striped dolphins (*Stenella coeruleoalba*) in the western Mediterranean Sea (Jepson et al. 2016).

The main part of the PCB profile was represented by congeners 153, 138 and 180 (Table 3, Fig. 7), which is in agreement with other studies from the region (Storelli and Marcotrigiano 2003, Lazar et al. 2012, Herceg Romanić et al. 2014) and elsewhere (Fair et al. 2010, García-Álvarez et al. 2014).

Comparing organochlorine levels across various literature sources is not always straightforward and can in fact be challenging. The reasons for this include different methods of organochlorine quantification, differences in compounds analysed (e.g. the total number and selection of individual PCB congeners), the basis on which the concentrations are expressed (e.g. lipid, wet or dry weight basis - especially if the proportion of lipid or water is not reported), the summary statistics used (e.g. arithmetic mean, geometric mean or median) together with measures of spread (e.g.

standard deviation, confidence intervals or range); the sources of samples (controlled live captures, biopsies, bycaught animals or stranded animals), sample size, the sex and age classes included or excluded from the analysis, period of sampling, etc. For these reasons, not all studies are directly comparable.

Still, considering these caveats, some general comparisons can be made (Table 4). Looking at a regional perspective, it appears that PCB concentrations in our study are relatively similar to those found in stranded bottlenose dolphins along the eastern Adriatic coast of Croatia (Herceg Romanić et al. 2014), but substantially higher than in stranded bottlenose dolphins along the Adriatic coast of south-eastern Italy (Storelli and Marcotrigiano 2003), stranded along the coast of Israel, eastern Levantine Basin (but note the extremely small samples size, Shoham-Frider et al. 2009), or biopsied in the Gulf of Ambracia, western Greece (Gonzalvo et al. 2016). Looking at the wider Mediterranean and European picture, concentrations in our study are higher than those found in bottlenose dolphins from Ireland (Berrow et al. 2002, Jepson et al. 2016), but lower than in bottlenose dolphins from western Mediterranean (Borrell and Aguilar 2007, Jepson et al. 2016) and those from Portugal, north-western Spain, Wales, England and Scotland (although note that the patterns are somewhat different between males and females, Table 4, Jepson et al. 2016). Based on the above, it appears that within the Mediterranean, generally speaking, PCB concentrations tend to decline from west to east, and from north to south, which is consistent with the general geographical pattern of anthropogenic impacts (particularly pollution and exploitation of marine resources) in the Mediterranean basin (Coll et al. 2012).

On a global scale, our reported concentrations are higher than those found in bottlenose dolphins in Taiwan (Chou et al. 2004), around Canary Islands (García-Álvarez et al. 2014), off Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Lailson-Brito et al. 2012), [Bermuda \(Kucklick et al. 2011\)](#), Beaufort, North Carolina, USA (Hansen et al. 2004), [southern Biscayne Bay, Florida, USA \(Kucklick et al. 2011\)](#), [and along the coasts of Louisiana, Mississippi and northwestern Florida \(Kucklick et al. 2011, Balmer et al. 2015\)](#), relatively similar to those from Indian River Lagoon, Florida, USA (Fair et al. 2010), Sarasota Bay,

579 Florida, USA (Yordy et al. 2010) and Charleston, South Carolina, USA (Fair et al. 2010, Adams et al.
580 2014), and lower than in [New Jersey \(Kucklick et al. 2011\), northern Biscayne Bay and Tampa Bay in](#)
581 [Florida, USA \(Kucklick et al. 2011\), and](#) waters of Georgia, USA (Balmer et al. 2011). With respect to
582 other species, our bottlenose dolphins had higher PCB concentrations than striped dolphins from the
583 southern Adriatic Sea (Storelli et al. 2012), harbour porpoises from the United Kingdom (Law et al.
584 2012), Guiana dolphins (*Sotalia guianensis*) from north-eastern Brazil (Santos-Neto et al. 2014),
585 common dolphins (*Delphinus* sp.) from New Zealand (Stockin et al. 2007) or northern resident killer
586 whales from British Columbia, Canada (Ross et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001), but substantially lower
587 than striped dolphins from the western Mediterranean Sea (Jepson et al. 2016), killer whales from the
588 United Kingdom, Canary Islands and the Strait of Gibraltar (Jepson et al. 2016), or southern resident
589 and transient killer whales from the waters of British Columbia, Canada, and the states of Alaska and
590 Washington, USA (Ross et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001). In addition, male dolphins in our study had
591 higher concentrations than male pilot whales, male sperm whales and male fin whales from the
592 western Mediterranean Sea (Pinzone et al. 2015), while female dolphins in our study had lower
593 concentrations than female pilot whales, similar concentrations as female sperm whales and higher
594 concentrations than female fin whales from the western Mediterranean Sea (Pinzone et al. 2015).

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608 **Table 4.** PCB blubber concentrations in *Tursiops truncatus* across different studies for males, females

609 and both sexes. Whenever possible, reported values pertain to adult animals. All concentrations are in

610 mg/kg, and expressed on lipid weight basis, unless otherwise noted. Concentrations expressed in

611 different units in source literature were converted to mg/kg. Concentrations are shown as either

612 arithmetic mean (A) \pm standard deviation, (or with range in parentheses), or geometric mean (G) with

613 95% confidence intervals in parentheses. Summary statistics were obtained from text or tables of cited

614 sources, or calculated from raw data reported in tables. Note that both the number and choice of

615 individual PCB congeners tested varied across studies. See cited sources for details.

Location	N	Mean	M	F	M-F	Source
Croatia, north-eastern Adriatic Sea	13	A	-	-	97 \pm 133	Herceg-Romanić et al. 2014
Italy, southern Adriatic Sea	9	A	30.3	28.8	32.7 (7.3–53)	Storelli & Marcotrigiano 2003
Gulf of Ambracia, western Greece	14	A	23.4 \pm 18.0	32.9 \pm 43.3	26.9 \pm 28.3	Gonzalvo et al. 2016
Israel, eastern Levantine Basin	2	A, wet weight	6.3 \pm 2.3	-	-	Shoham-Frider et al. 2009
South-east Spain, western Mediterranean	36	A	336.0 \pm 241.1	246.4 \pm 183.5	286.6 \pm 274.6	Borrell & Aguilar 2007
Spain, western Mediterranean	27	A	182.7 (27.4–399)	193.2 (45.3–601.4)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Strait of Gibraltar	8	A	324.0 (28.3–879.3)	123.1 (20.8–179.7)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Gulf of Cadiz, south-west Spain	21	A	247.3 (98.5–445.3)	150 (3.7–426.4)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Portugal	12	A	85.7 (19.4–164.7)	88.5 (35.0–226.8)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
North-western Spain	11	A	118.9 (5.1–382.2)	34.7 (5.4–82.0)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Wales, UK	7	A	91.8 (8.2–175.4)	111.9 (9.1–307.5)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
England, UK	10	A	176.9 (22.1–446.6)	91.2 (4.1–358.5)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Scotland, UK	21	A	96.6 (1.8–698.0)	46.1 (8.5–125.1)	-	Jepson et al. 2016

Shannon Estuary, Ireland	8	A	29.5 ± 21.0	7.1 ± 8.7	23.9 ± 20.8	Berrow et al. 2002
Shannon Estuary, Ireland	8	A	46.9 (13.0–95.1)	11.4 (1.5–21.2)	-	Jepson et al. 2016
Canary Islands	25	A	-	-	47.2 ± 53.9	García-Álvarez et al. 2014
Cape May, New Jersey, USA	3	G	139 (95% CI 62.8–130)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Beaufort, North Carolina, USA	5	G	53.3 (15.9–52.2)	11.6 (3.3–40.6)	-	Hansen et al. 2004
Charleston, South Carolina, USA	9	G	50.4 (23.6–84.6)	7.9 (2.7–31.2)	-	Hansen et al. 2004
Charleston, South Carolina, USA	47	G	94 (28.6–255)	14.3 (4.5–131)	-	Fair et al. 2010
Charleston, South Carolina, USA	40	G	76.6 (25.9–246)	-	-	Adams et al. 2014
Sapelo area, Georgia, USA	46	G	115.7 (95% CI 91.7–146.1)	48.3 (95% CI 27.3–85.5)	-	Balmer et al. 2011
Mixed area, Georgia, USA	22	G	253.6 (95% CI 177.9–361.5)	45.9 (95% CI 20.8–101.7)	-	Balmer et al. 2011
Brunswick area, Georgia, USA	34	G	509.6 (95% CI 369.0–703.6)	116.5 (95% CI 78.1–173.6)	-	Balmer et al. 2011
Indian River Lagoon, Florida, USA	11	G	20 (14.7–27.9)	9.3 (5.0–17.0)	-	Hansen et al. 2004
Indian River Lagoon, Florida, USA	48	G	79.8 (35–227)	25.5 (1.5–105)	-	Fair et al. 2010
Biscayne Bay – North, Florida, USA	15	G	157 (95% CI 110–224)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Biscayne Bay – South, Florida, USA	15	G	33.7 (95% CI 23.6–48.2)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Sarasota Bay, Florida, USA	47	G	98.6 ± 159	4.7 ± 5.4	-	Yordy et al. 2010
Tampa Bay, Florida, USA	5	G	109 (95% CI 58.9–203)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
East of Apalachicola Bay, Florida, USA	20	G	33.1 (95% CI 24.3–45.1)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011

St. Joseph Bay to St. Andrews Bay, Florida, USA	38	G	63 (95% CI 50.4–78.9)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Mississippi Sound, Mississippi, USA	55	G	68 (95% CI 56.4–81.9)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Barataria Bay, Louisiana, USA	19	G	51.4 (95% CI 38.5–68.6)	-	-	Balmer et al. 2015
Bermuda	3	G	38.8 (95% CI 17.4–86.1)	-	-	Kucklick et al. 2011
Rio de Janeiro State, Brazil	2	A	11.8 ± 2.4	-	-	Lailson Brito et al. 2012
Taiwan	6	A	6.78	2.3	5.4 ± 3.6	Chou et al. 2004

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626 *Effects of demographic parameters on PCB concentrations*

627 Males had significantly higher PCB concentrations than females (Fig. 3). Animals of unknown sex also

628 had high PCB levels, with values more similar to known males than to females (Table 2). This suggests

629 most of these animals were likely also males. The significant differences between males and females

630 are suggestive of PCB offloading from reproducing females to their offspring via gestation and/or

631 lactation (Borrell et al. 1995, Schwacke et al. 2002, Wells et al. 2005, Weijs et al. 2013). The significant

632 differences in PCB concentrations between nulliparous and parous females (Fig. 4) further support this,

633 despite limited sample size. Even though the premise of maternal offloading is well established,

particularly based on experimental laboratory or captive studies involving mammals (Kannan et al. 2000) and samples from whaling operations (Aguilar and Borrell 1994b, Borrell et al. 1995), it is informative to be able to demonstrate that this is indeed happening in a wild, free-ranging cetacean population. In Sarasota Bay, Florida, research initiated in the 1970s, combining tagging, photo-identification monitoring and capture-release operations for health assessments, provided an unparalleled opportunity to investigate the relationships between organochlorine levels and life-history and reproductive parameters in the world's best-studied bottlenose dolphin population (Wells et al. 2005). In the eastern North Pacific, long-term identification records of one of the best-studied killer whale populations in the world enabled similar comparisons (Ross et al. 2000, Ylitalo et al. 2001). However, such studies remain relatively rare, especially in the Mediterranean Sea, the largest enclosed sea in the world, with substantial anthropogenic pressure.

There is some evidence of first-born offspring mortality in our dolphin population, as a few of the observed newborns (presumed to be the first offspring of respective females) did not survive to the following year (T. Genov, *pers. obs.*). This would support the notion that first-borns may receive a very high (or even lethal) dose of PCBs from their mothers, as females may transfer up to 80% of their burden to the offspring (Cockcroft et al. 1989). This may lead to poor survival of first-borns, with an improved survival of subsequent offspring (Schwacke et al. 2002, Wells et al. 2005). However, related evidence from our study area is limited and circumstantial, so further inferences are not possible. Given the long-term and ongoing monitoring of this population, future work incorporating PCB monitoring, individual re-sighting histories and information on reproductive rates may provide further insight into the temporal accumulation of PCBs by females and the possible links between pollutant loads and recruitment, as recommended by Hall et al. (2006).

Even though this dolphin population is structured into several social groups that display differences in behaviour as well as feeding strategies in relation to fisheries (Centrih et al. 2013, Genov et al. 2015), it appears that PCBs pose a threat to these animals regardless of social group membership and potential associated dietary differences (Fig. 5).

660

661 *Potential toxicological effects*

662 The vast majority of animals in our study exceeded the lower toxicity threshold (Kannan et al. 2000),
663 with more than 50% also exceeding the higher threshold (Helle et al. 1976, Fig. 6). As discussed by
664 Jepson et al. (2016), the lower toxicity threshold may in fact overestimate the true PCB risk to
665 cetaceans, but PCB levels reported here nevertheless provide a compelling case for the inherent PCB
666 toxicity risk to these animals. In previous studies, high PCB levels were linked to pathological findings
667 consistent with immunosuppression and increased susceptibility to disease, including macro-parasitic
668 and bacterial pneumonias, high lung and gastric macro-parasite burdens, and generalised bacterial
669 infections in harbour porpoises (Jepson et al. 2016). In Mediterranean striped dolphins, high levels of
670 PCBs were associated to increased mortality during a morbillivirus epizootic outbreak, possibly due to
671 immunosuppression (Aguilar and Borrell 1994a).

672 Our results are of concern, particularly in combination with other known or suspected threats
673 to this population, including marine litter, disturbance from boat traffic, frequent interactions with
674 fisheries, overfishing and occasional bycatch (Genov et al. 2008, Haze et al. 2015, Genov et al. 2016,
675 Kotnjek et al. 2017). Hopefully, the quantification of organochlorine concentrations and establishing
676 links with various demographic parameters as presented here, will enable placing the effects of
677 contaminants in context with other anthropogenic stressors (Hall et al. 2017).

678

679 *DDE and DDT*

680 We were only able to determine PCB concentrations, but not DDT
681 in our samples, except for four samples referred to above. DDE
682 concentrations could be determined as they were obtained as a “side product” of
683 PCB analyses. In these four samples, DDE was the majority component of the total DDT,
684 representing 89.7% (Table 1).
685 Biotransformation processes of DDT in vertebrates largely end

up as DDE (Aguilar and Borrell 2005). Unless there is a recent source, DDE tends to be the highest concentration DDT metabolite present (Storelli et al. 2004, Pinzone et al. 2015), and can be used as an indicator of DDT contamination (but see Kljaković-Gašpić *et al.* 2010 on possible recent input). ~~supported by the four samples in which total DDT could be determined, and which showed that DDE~~
Our results are similar to several other studies and is indicative of DDT ageing (Lailson-Brito et al. 2012, Adams et al. 2014, García-Álvarez et al. 2014, Gonzalvo et al. 2016). This suggests that DDE (and hence DDT) levels are fairly low, as is the case in the western Mediterranean Sea and around the United Kingdom (Aguilar and Borrell 2005, Borrell and Aguilar 2007, Law et al. 2012). In the Eastern Mediterranean Sea, however, levels of DDTs appear higher than those of PCBs (Shoham-Frider et al. 2009, Gonzalvo et al. 2016). For HCB, the extremely low levels in our study, consistent with studies on other biota from the Adriatic Sea (Storelli et al. 2004), suggest that recent environmental input of this compound is negligible (Borrell and Aguilar 2007).

Future monitoring perspectives

Our results represent a useful baseline for future research and monitoring. With the ongoing monitoring of this local dolphin population and new insights into its ecology, future sampling may provide a better understanding of the population-level impacts of organochlorine pollution. It should be noted that concentrations in top predators with high lipid stores will inevitably lag behind any reductions in environmental concentrations (and those in the prey), due to the slow depuration of POPs out of the population (through the legacy from female to calf, as well as the cycling of POPs in the marine environment). Nevertheless, this approach may represent a tool for monitoring of pollutants in relation to EU legislation such as the Habitats Directive and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive. The presence of pollutants in tissues of marine biota is already included as a Descriptor 8 of the EU European Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD), while marine mammals are one of the indicators of the “Good Environmental Status” under Descriptor 1 of the MSFD. Jepson

and Law (2016) proposed that at a European policy level, PCB levels in relation to established toxicity thresholds should also be used to assess “Favourable Conservation Status” of marine mammals under the EU Habitats Directive.

Even though biopsy sampling took place within Slovenian waters, the extensive spatial survey coverage (Fig. 1) and the fact that sampled dolphins have been re-sighted throughout the study area shown in Figure 1 (Genov et al. 2008), the reported organochlorine levels can likely be considered representative of this part of the northern Adriatic Sea. At the same time, individual dolphin re-sighting frequencies have shown that the sampled individuals are part of a resident population inhabiting this area over the long term (Genov et al. 2008, Genov 2011), while both photo-identification (Genov et al. 2009) and genetic data (Gaspari et al. 2015) suggest that this population is distinct. This adds confidence to the notion that the reported PCB levels are representative of the area in question, rather than being a result of acute PCB exposure elsewhere (Phillips and Segar 1986).

Molluscs have typically been used as model species to monitor contaminants in the Gulf of Trieste, elsewhere in the Adriatic Sea (Kljaković-Gašpić et al. 2010), and other parts of the world (Phillips and Segar 1986, Farrington et al. 2016). This is primarily due to their widespread distribution, abundance, sessile nature, tolerance to various types of stress, and the ability to accumulate a wide range of contaminants (Phillips and Segar 1986, Kljaković-Gašpić et al. 2010), but probably also due to ease of access to the animals. However, while molluscs may be better indicators for local point sources of contamination, cetaceans may be more representative over larger spatial and temporal scales. For example, dolphins are long-lived predators that integrate contaminant concentrations over time. They have been shown to be incapable of metabolizing certain PCB congeners, making them accumulate these compounds more readily than other mammals or taxa of comparable life history (Aguilar and Borrell 2005). Moreover, being highly mobile, they are likely better regional rather than local indicators, due to their propensity to move around more. Finally, as top predators, they are likely representative of the ecosystem as a whole (Borrell and Aguilar 2007).

738 CONCLUSIONS

739 It is important to review current methods of PCB mitigation in the marine environment, at a European
740 and international level. In Europe, much greater compliance with the Stockholm
741 Convention is urgently needed and by many EU member states, in order
742 to significantly reduce PCB contamination of the marine and terrestrial environment by
743 2028 (Jepson et al. 2016, Jepson and Law 2016, Stuart-Smith and Jepson 2017). Measures may include
744 the safe disposal or destruction of large stocks of PCBs and PCB-containing equipment, limiting the
745 dredging of PCB-laden rivers and estuaries, reducing PCB leakage from old landfills, limiting PCB
746 mobilization in marine sediments, and regulating demolition of PCB-containing precast buildings such
747 as tower blocks built in the 1950s to 1980s (Jepson et al. 2016, Jepson and Law 2016, Stuart-Smith and
748 Jepson 2017).

749 Our results show that PCB levels are relatively high in northern Adriatic dolphins, and may be
750 high enough to potentially cause population-level effects in this dolphin population. We provide
751 important baseline data of a considerable sample size, against which future trends can be assessed.
752 We demonstrate that POP monitoring combined with long-term photo-identification and population
753 ecology studies can be highly informative for assessing the impacts of organochlorine pollution.

754

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