



JAMP Guidelines for Monitoring of Contaminants in Seawater

(Agreement 2013-03)

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1. Introduction

These guidelines provide advice on the sampling and analysis of seawater, for determination of trace metals and organic contaminants, including oceanic, coastal, and estuarine waters. Monitoring contaminants in seawater is a complex task which requires carefully designed and conducted sampling campaigns, appropriate sampling equipment and its correct handling, as well as suitable pre-treatment and storage methods for the analytes in question. There are numerous steps that will affect data quality prior to the chemical analysis itself.

Contaminants in seawater can originate from direct point sources, riverine discharges, and atmospheric dry and wet deposition. Their distribution in seawater depends on the physical-chemical characteristics of the compound or element, interactions with the water matrix, sediment and biota as well as hydrographical conditions, such as mixing of water masses. Organic contaminants and metals can occur freely dissolved in water, bound to colloids, or suspended particulate matter. Trace metals can form complexes with organic or inorganic material. This partitioning is the result of environmental conditions and the partitioning may change during sampling and storage, and has implications for analysis and interpretation.

These guidelines are general recommendations on contaminant monitoring in seawater. The techniques described are useful for routine monitoring and ship/campaign-based work. However, this guideline is not intended as a complete laboratory manual. Requirements for specific contaminants or contaminant groups should be further specified by expert groups, for example in associated technical annexes, in order to meet the objectives of the monitoring programme and to ensure consistent and comparable data sets.

2. Purposes

Monitoring of contaminants in seawater of the Northeast Atlantic Ocean is performed within the framework of OSPAR as the regional convention for the protection of the marine environment of this area. OSPAR monitoring also can assist member states of the European Union to fulfil their obligations under the relevant EU directives, such as the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) (EU, 2008) and the Water Framework Directive (WFD) (EU, 2000) with its related directives such as the daughter directive on Environmental Quality Standards in the field of water policy (2008/105/EC).

One of the aims of OSPAR's Hazardous Substances Strategy is that concentrations of naturally occurring chemicals should approach background concentrations, and concentrations of man-made chemicals should be zero. Progress on the implementation of this strategy is monitored through the Joint Monitoring and Assessment Programme (JAMP) of chemicals for priority action and hazardous substances in general. The main objectives of the JAMP for the period 2010–2014, which seek to support the implementation of the OSPAR strategies and the EU MSFD are:

1. the continued implementation and development of existing OSPAR monitoring programmes and, where necessary, the development of additional coordinated monitoring programmes to take account of criteria, methodological standards and indicators for good environmental status, and the pressures and impacts of human activities;
2. development of tools for the delivery of integrated environmental assessments of the OSPAR maritime area or its regions, linking human activities, their pressures, the state of the marine environment, and management responses. Where relevant, these tools should support the exploration of new and emerging problems in the marine environment;
3. the preparation of integrated environmental assessments of the implementation of the OSPAR strategies, including in particular the assessment of the effects of relevant measures on the improvement of the

quality of the marine environment. Such assessments will provide additional information and assessments in respect of the MSFD, enhance the OSPAR quality status reports (QSRs), take into account the Directive's obligations for regional cooperation, and help inform the debate on the development of further measures.

Aqueous inputs (direct or riverine) of contaminants, together with atmospheric deposition, are important sources of contaminants to OSPAR marine waters. Dynamic equilibria exist between the dissolved fractions of the total burden of contaminants, such that contaminants are partitioned between the dissolved state and particulate and colloidal phases in the water column, as well as becoming associated with bottom sediments and biota. The rates of exchange of contaminants between the water and the sediment or biota mean that changes in inputs are likely to be reflected more rapidly in the water than in, for example, bottom sediments. However, this sensitivity to change, and the partitioning between components of the aqueous phase, are also reflected in relatively high spatial and temporal variances in the observed concentrations. The selection of water as a monitoring matrix can therefore be appropriate for a number of reasons. These include the ability to observe short-term variations in contaminant pressure on organisms. Focusing on contaminants that partition strongly into the water rather than the sediment or biota can lead to water being the preferred matrix for monitoring. OSPAR background documents on chemicals for priority action may provide valuable information with regard to the preferred monitoring matrix. In the context of the JAMP, coordinated monitoring of contaminants in seawater may be carried out in relation to the temporal changes in the degree of pollution, its spatial variation, or as an element of integrated monitoring and assessment of contaminants and biological effects.

Temporal trend monitoring can assess the effectiveness of measures taken to reduce contamination of the marine environment. The statistical assessment of a trend over a longer period also supplies a more reliable assessment for the environmental status within a certain period. The fitted value of the last year measured has been used in OSPAR CEMP assessments as the optimum value for comparing against assessment criteria and hence for assessment of the actual environmental status. In such a way, the within- and between-year variability is taken into account.

Spatial distribution monitoring can describe the existing level of marine contamination widely through the convention area. The measured levels can be compared to background or close to background concentrations, as well as to levels describing thresholds below which no chronic effects are expected to occur in marine species, i.e. environmental assessment criteria (OSPAR, 2009).

Contaminant analysis of seawater can be an element of integrated monitoring and assessment, where chemical and biological effects measurements are combined, in order to assess potential harm to living resources and marine life (OSPAR, 2012). The role of chemical measurements in integrated chemical and biological effects monitoring programmes is to support biological effects programmes by providing information to help identify the chemical causes of observed biological effects. In general, chemical measurements in seawater should contribute to improve and extend OSPAR's monitoring framework and better link it with the understanding of biological effects and ecological impacts of individual substances and the cumulative impacts of mixtures of substances.

Furthermore, beyond the objectives of the JAMP, monitoring of contaminants in water can provide information on the fate of contaminants in the environment, e.g. transformation, partitioning, and transport processes.

3. Quantitative objectives

Seawater monitoring should provide concentrations of target analytes in water, which are representative of the location and time of sampling. General considerations regarding the specification of quantitative objectives for

monitoring are given in the JAMP (OSPAR, 2010). More specifically, the following issues should be considered prior to water monitoring: contaminant speciation, detection limits, detectability of temporal and spatial trends, and costs.

3.1. Contaminant speciation

Trace metals and organic contaminants can exist as freely dissolved species in water or bound to colloids and suspended particulate matter (SPM). Trace metals can also exist as inorganic and organic complexes. The targeted contaminant fraction determines which sampling and/or pre-treatment method to use:

- Analysis of unfiltered water samples yields the sum of the concentrations of contaminants that are freely dissolved, complexed, and bound to colloids and SPM. These samples are also referred to as total water or whole water samples.
- Filtered water samples can yield the concentrations in SPM (by analysis of the residue on the filter) and the concentrations of contaminants that are freely dissolved, complexed, and bound to colloids (filtrate). However, many organic contaminants are known to exchange freely between dissolved and other phases in the water. The removal of components of the particulate matter is very likely to alter the position of these equilibria, while the introduction of filter material, container walls, etc. provides additional phases taking part in the equilibration processes. The complete separation of dissolved, colloidal, particulate matter is therefore a difficult task.
- Passive sampling yields the concentrations of freely dissolved contaminants (organics) or freely dissolved and complexed contaminants (trace metals).

The choice of the targeted contaminant fraction may be pre-defined by legal obligations. For example, monitoring under the Water Framework Directive requires the monitoring of metal concentrations in filtered water, and of organic contaminants in total (i.e. unfiltered) water.

3.2. Detection limits

The sample size has to be sufficient to support the desired detection limits for the contaminants of interest, for example to enable descriptions of spatial and temporal trends. For example, one litre discrete water samples may be sufficient for time trend monitoring of PAHs in contaminated harbours, but may be insufficient for monitoring programmes in open waters. For consistency with Commission Directive 2009/90/EC, a limit of quantification (LOQ) should be equal to or below a value of 30% of the relevant assessment criterion, e.g. the Environmental Quality Standard.

3.3. Statistical significance and power

In the context of temporal trend monitoring, it is important to know the statistical power of a time-series to detect changes, i.e. the probability of detecting true trends in concentration in the presence of variance associated with sampling, analysis, and field variability. The necessary or possible power of a monitoring programme will vary with the contaminant and area being investigated. One approach would be to estimate the power of the time series based on the “random” between-year variation. Alternatively, the lowest detectable trend could be estimated at a fixed power. A quantifiable objective could be to detect an annual change (dC/dt) of 5% within a time period of 6 years with a power of 90% at a significance level (α) of 5%. In the case of an expected decrease, the null hypothesis would be chosen as $dC/dt=0$ and the alternative hypothesis as $dC/dt < 0$.

A spatial monitoring programme should enable Contracting Parties to describe the distribution of contaminant concentrations in the survey area, for example to draw maps. These data can provide information to assist in the identification of representative stations for temporal trend studies, or for refinement of spatial surveys, and to implement measures where considered necessary. Statistical procedures can be used to estimate the number of samples and sampling sites needed to meet the required confidence level (i.e. to avoid Type I errors) and statistical power (to avoid Type II errors).

3.4. Costs

The concentrations of contaminants in water, as determined by discrete sampling, are commonly found to be quite variable, both in space and time, and meeting ambitious quantitative objectives may require extensive replication. Seawater sampling for contaminant analysis often requires equipment that is expensive to buy and maintain in good condition to keep the process blanks at low levels. The need for, and cost, of replicate water samples should be carefully considered in determining achievable quantitative objectives for a water-based monitoring programme. Therefore, it is often necessary to balance the scope and performance of monitoring programmes with available budgets.

4. Sampling strategy

The sampling strategy should reflect the purpose of the monitoring programme according to the JAMP (OSPAR, 2010) in relation to the OSPAR Hazardous Substances Strategy. Where applicable, the sampling strategy should consider requirements of the EU WFD (EU, 2000) and MSFD (EU, 2008); in all cases the quantitative objectives of the monitoring programme should be met (see Section 3). In accordance with the JAMP Guideline on Integrated Monitoring of Contaminants and Their Effects, seawater sampling should be carried out at the same time and locations as the sampling of other matrices (sediment, biota) and biological effects measurements (OSPAR, 2012).

A coherent approach to the detailed definition of a sampling strategy should take into account knowledge of the physical and biological oceanography of the area and requires consideration of temporal sources of field variance, such as seasonal factors, and spatial factors, such as the changes in location and water depth within the survey area. The analyte in question (its physical-chemical characteristics and expected concentration), as well as environmental conditions and practicalities, will further determine how samples are taken, e.g. what equipment is used and what volumes are required. However, sampling strategies also include compromises between scientifically advisable approaches and the economical and logistical frames of the sampling effort (see Section 3). It is therefore important that the objectives of monitoring programmes are expressed in quantitative terms and that they are achievable.

4.1. Temporal trend monitoring

The ability of a programme to identify temporal trends strongly depends on the extent to which unwanted sources of variability can be controlled. The short-term (< 1 year) temporal variability of contaminant concentrations in water is potentially very large. Concentrations may be subject to day-night variations in input and removal processes (Jaward *et al.*, 2004). In addition, concentrations at a fixed geographical position may vary over the tidal cycle (e.g. in estuaries). Further temporal variability may arise from variation in local inputs, such as discharges from ships, seasonality in the riverine discharge, changes in atmospheric deposition during rainfall events, and seasonal differences in seawater stratification. Some measures can be taken to reduce short-term temporal variability. These include sampling at pre-defined times of the year and at the same phase of the tidal cycle (e.g. always at high tide), although for ship-based discrete sampling it should be recognized that logistic constraints do not always allow such measures to be taken.

4.2. Spatial distribution monitoring

Analyte concentrations in seawater will vary between locations and with water depth, due to various physical and biogeochemical processes and the distribution of inputs. The expected spatial variability is an important factor in the development of an adequate geographical sampling scheme, i.e. the outline of the station grid and its vertical resolution (Brügman and Kremling, 1999). It should be recognized that the identification of spatial patterns may be obscured by temporal variability (see Section 3.1), and that the same measures to reduce this source of variability also apply here. If the aim of the programme is to identify local sources of contaminants, then the sampling grid should be denser in the vicinity of suspected sources. Often, the variability of salinity or SPM content of the water can give an indication of the variability of pollutants and may even act as "normalization" factors.

4.3. Sampling method considerations

The proportion of the total concentration of a contaminant which is freely dissolved in the water phase increases with polarity of the pollutants (see Section 3). On the other hand, non-polar pollutants sorb to SPM and sediments and are thereby removed from the water column by sedimentation. For these contaminants, additional factors that should be taken into account are the SPM content and the volume of water that is sampled (see Section 3). These factors are important in filtration-extraction methods because the particle-bound and colloiddally bound contaminant fractions that escape phase separation depend on the extent of filter clogging (Hermans *et al.*, 1992). The measurement of SPM concentrations is even more important for monitoring contaminants in total water. The required water volume should be estimated before the sampling campaign, taking into account the method detection limits (see Section 3).

4.4. Supporting data

It is important that as much information as possible is collected concerning the waterbody being sampled. This includes co-factors such as salinity, SPM concentrations, and temperature. Whenever possible, sampling should be done as part of an integrated monitoring programme that includes the measurement of biological effects. These data should be obtained at the same time and locations as sampling for contaminant analysis.

4.5. Statistical considerations

Prior to starting a full-scale monitoring study, the available information on temporal variability should be carefully evaluated, possibly amended by a small-scale pilot programme. This evaluation should include a statistical assessment certifying that the objectives of the monitoring study can be met (see Section 3).

If no previous information exists, the sampling strategy can be based on a combination of general statistical principles and expert knowledge about sources and fate of the studied substances in the investigated sea basin. The statistical approach could include the principles of stratified sampling: First, the sampling area under consideration is partitioned into smaller more homogeneous areas, so-called strata. This can be based on simple information, such as depth, distance to land, or measured or modelled salinity. A successful stratification is characterized by a small variation of the measured concentrations within each stratum and a substantial variation between strata. For optimal allocation of the samples, the size (volume or area) of each stratum should be determined. Assuming that there are m strata with volumes V_1, \dots, V_m and that the standard deviation of the target variable is about the same in all strata, the number of samples n_j in stratum j shall be taken approximately proportional to the volume V_j , i.e.

$$n_j \approx n \frac{V_j}{V}$$

where V is the total volume of the investigated sea basin and n is the total number of samples.

If the standard deviation of the target variable varies from stratum to stratum, more samples should be taken in strata with high standard deviation. More specifically, the sample numbers chosen should aim at making n_j proportional to $S_j V_j$, where S_j is the standard deviation in the j th stratum, i.e. letting

$$n_j \approx n \frac{S_j V_j}{\sum_{j=1}^m S_j V_j}$$

Finally, the average concentration in the study area is estimated to be

$$\sum_{j=1}^m V_j \bar{X}_j / V$$

where \bar{X}_j is the average observed concentration in the j th stratum.

4.6. Discrete sampling versus time-integrated sampling

Concentrations of contaminants in water respond quickly to changes in inputs and other environmental conditions, unlike concentrations in sediments and biota. This low level of time integration can be of advantage in detecting peak events but, on the other hand, concentrations in water are likely to show relatively high variability, which can have drawbacks in long-term monitoring and may require high sampling frequencies, causing high costs.

The influence of temporal variability may be reduced by time-integrated sampling. However, continuous water intake over a prolonged time period, followed by filtration and extraction, may often prove to be impractical and costly, particularly for ship-based sampling programmes. Unattended integrative devices, such as passive samplers (PSDs) also yield a time-integrated concentration if the necessary calibration parameters are available for the target analytes. Considerations for evaluating whether the necessary PSD calibration parameters are available for non-polar organic analytes are given by Lohmann *et al.* (2012). PSDs for polar contaminants (pharmaceuticals, detergents, and personal care products) are insufficiently mature for quantitative spatial and temporal trend monitoring at present, but may be useful in initial surveys. Diffusive gradients in thin films (DGT) is a mature PSD technique for trace metals, but its application in the marine environment has been quite limited so far (Mills *et al.*, 2011). All PSDs require suitable deployment sites, such as jetties, buoys, bottom landers, long-term moorings, etc, which always have to be visited twice and some losses due to other marine activities may be expected. If the monitoring programme requires sampling of total water, this will limit the applicability of PSDs.

5. Sampling equipment

The choice of sampling equipment depends on the physical-chemical properties and expected concentrations of the analytes, on the depth and location of the sampling site, and on the available infrastructure. All materials used for the sampling equipment (sample containers, tubing, connectors, valves, pumps, filters) should neither absorb nor release the target analytes, or any non-target substance that interferes with the chemical analysis. Contaminants are held in a range of dissolved, colloid, and particulate phases. These have a potential to interact differently with sampling equipment, and also for contaminants to exchange between phases during sample processing. Sampling equipment and processing therefore needs to be rigorously tested before adoption in large-scale monitoring programmes.

Since concentrations of organic contaminants and metals in seawater are usually very low, large volumes of water must be sampled. Contamination of the sample by compounds that leach out of the sampling equipment as well as analyte loss due to wall sorption are serious issues which may affect the integrity of seawater samples.

Sample contamination from the atmosphere should be avoided (e.g. paint and rust particles, engine exhausts, atmospheric background). To minimize contamination from the atmosphere, the surfaces of the sampling equipment in contact with the sample should be isolated from the atmosphere before and after the sampling, including storage of the equipment. These surfaces should be cleaned using appropriate solvents prior to sampling. Equipment blanks and recovery samples yield important quality control information that can be used to assess sample contamination and analyte losses, bearing in mind the potentially site-specific nature of airborne contamination.

Concentrations of target analytes in the water may be elevated because of leaching from the sampling platform itself (e.g. polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), organotin, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), iron, and chlorofluoroalkanes can be released from the ship during ship-based sampling). The ship's keel should be at an angle of 20 to 40 degrees to any current coming from the bow at the sampling side (typically starboard side), to minimize any influence from the ship's hull.

Since the sampling equipment passes through the air-water interface, contamination from the sea surface microlayer is a significant risk. Concentrations of dissolved and particulate matter are elevated in this microlayer, and the associated analytes may therefore contaminate samples that are taken at larger depth. Sample contamination from the microlayer can be avoided by closing the sampling equipment during passage through the sea surface and only allowing sample intake at the intended depth.

5.1. Trace metals (including MeHg)

Contamination from the ship has to be avoided at all times. For analyses of trace metals, all contact between the seawater sample and metal must be avoided. On approaching a station, the sampling for trace metals has to be performed immediately. Hydrographical information about water depth and the stratification of the water column should be available.

Discrete samplers that are specially designed for trace metal analysis should be used, available in sizes from 0.5 to 100 litres. They are typically operated on a Teflon, polymer, or Kevlar jacketed stainless steel hydrographic wire, tensioned by a coated bottom weight. The messengers should also be free of metals; any essential metal parts should be of seawater resistant stainless steel (V4A).

Samples should be taken so as to avoid contamination by leachate from the hull of the ship. Sampling bottles should be made of plastic with low metal content, e.g. special low-density polyethylene (LDPE) bottles. For

mercury, glass should be preferred if the samples are stored for a longer period. Teflon bottles may also be used, but they are relatively expensive and, depending on the manufacturing process, may have a relatively rough inner surface.

Pumping using metal-free devices may be an alternative to discrete sampling, e.g. for separating SPM by subsequent centrifugation, but is not preferable when sampling from a ship at distinct sampling depths or in the open sea where concentrations are very low. More details on sampler types are described in the Technical Annex.

After sampling, the sampler should be placed immediately in a plastic bag or box or an aluminium container (if aluminium is not determined), followed by transport to a clean-room or laboratory with a clean-air bench. These measures are particularly critical for open sea samples where the expected concentrations of trace metals are very low.

5.2. Organic contaminants

Concentrations of organic contaminants in seawater are usually very low. In order to reach the projected LOQs in the low pg l⁻¹ range, large water volumes (10 to 100 l or more) have to be collected and extracted. With modern analytical equipment, these LOQs are often not limited by the signal intensity in the instrumental analysis, but by blank levels and interferences from the matrix background.

Hydrophobic compounds occur in a continuum of dissolved, colloidal, and particulate-bound forms. Unless a total concentration is to be determined, the compound partitioning must not be altered during sampling and subsequent treatment. This is very challenging, as the separation process must be contamination-free and should not change the concentration distribution. It should be applied during or immediately after sampling. For details, see Section 6.2.

Sometimes blank problems can only be overcome by increasing the sample size. However, the maximum sample size may be limited by operational constraints, such as container size for discrete samplers, pumping time, and the ability to process large water volumes. Blank levels can be reduced by minimizing the size of the sampling equipment (e.g. short inlet tubes) and by using sampler designs and handling procedures that minimize exposure to the atmosphere (short assembly/disassembly times). The use of *in situ* filtration/extraction equipment that is both compact and easy to operate combines the advantages of small size and short exposure to the atmosphere. This holds even stronger for passive samplers (see Section 4.6), provided that the sampling phase is sufficiently clean and that times of exposure to the atmosphere during deployment and retrieval are sufficiently short.

The materials used for the sampling equipment depend on the target contaminants. Sampling equipment for organic contaminants in seawater is preferably made of glass or stainless steel. Teflon parts are often used for legacy persistent organic pollutants (POPs), while they cannot be used for sampling of fluorinated compounds. Before use, the equipment has to be cleaned, e.g. rinsed with appropriate organic solvents. Examples of sampling equipment suitable for organic contaminants are presented in the Technical Annex.

6. Storage and pre-treatment of samples

The storage and pre-treatment of samples should be carried out in full awareness of the risks of contamination or analyte loss if samples are handled incorrectly. Appropriate measures should be taken to avoid contamination, such as wearing clean gloves, pre-cleaning equipment, etc. All storage and pre-treatment steps should be fully documented for each sample. Field control samples (for assessing sample contamination) and surrogate spikes (for assessing analyte losses) should be processed regularly as part of the quality assurance

and control procedures (see Section 8). All storage and pre-treatment steps should be fully validated prior to the start of a monitoring programme.

6.1. Storage

It is advisable to process samples as soon as possible rather than store them for a longer period of time. Storage of samples increases the risk of changing concentrations, by microbial degradation or sorption processes. However, appropriate laboratory facilities for handling of samples for trace analyses need to be available. If this is not the case, samples may have to be conserved. Water samples for metal analysis are typically acidified for conservation purposes. Sub-sampling of seawater, if required, should preferably be performed immediately after sampling.

Water samples for organic pollutants generally are impractical to store because of their large volumes. Instead, they are extracted onboard by liquid–liquid extraction (LLE) or solid-phase extraction (SPE) and the extracts or adsorbent cartridges are stored under cool ($< 4^{\circ}\text{C}$) and dark conditions. If water samples must be stored, this should also be in the dark and in a refrigerator (4°C). Preferably, internal standards (e.g. isotopically labelled analogues) should be added before extraction or/and storage. Storage times should be kept as short as possible and the stability of all compounds during storage must be checked.

Only appropriate (pre-cleaned) containers should be used for short- or long-term storage. The analytes of interest determine the appropriate container material (plastic, glass, metal), the need for acidification, and the optimal storage temperature. All storage conditions should be fully validated by the laboratory that carries out the monitoring, since sample contamination and loss of analyte may be affected by subtle changes in the materials and procedures for sample storage. SPM samples should always be stored frozen until further analysis.

6.2. Sample pre-treatment

The need for filtration of samples is mainly determined by the monitoring programme which typically will specify the analysis of either filtered or unfiltered water (total water, whole water). No pre-treatment is required for the analysis of whole water, although acidification may be necessary as part of the extraction procedure, depending on the analyte and on the extraction method used.

Filtration is the preferred technique to separate the dissolved phase from the SPM for small volume samples (e.g. for metal analysis). Polycarbonate or cellulose acetate filters with a pore size of $0.45\ \mu\text{m}$ are frequently used for trace metal determinations, whereas glass fibre filters ($0.7\ \mu\text{m}$ or $1.2\ \mu\text{m}$ pore size) are commonly used in the analysis of non-polar and polar organic contaminants. The efficiency of the separation between dissolved and particulate contaminants depends on the pore size of the filters, and may also depend on SPM content of the water and on the sample intake (see Section 4). Adsorption of dissolved analytes to the filter may be an issue for some compounds, and should be addressed during method validation.

A flow-through centrifuge is suitable for obtaining SPM from large volume samples, but less suitable for obtaining particle free water as the separation is incomplete. In general, the efficiency of the separation depends on the geometry and operating conditions of the centrifugation equipment (residence time, effective gravity force), as well as on the density and size of the SPM. Filtration is more effective in this respect, but also more susceptible to artefacts and more time consuming. Ideally, filtration should occur online while sampling or immediately after sampling.

7. Analytical procedures

Analytical methods should be specific to the target analytes and sufficiently sensitive to allow analyses of seawater samples which generally have low concentrations of contaminants. They should meet minimum performance criteria consistent with Commission Directive 2009/90/EC, including an uncertainty on measurements < 50%, estimated at the level of the relevant Environmental Quality Standard, and an LOQ ≤ 30% of the Environmental Quality Standard. If no method meets the minimal performance criteria, the best available analytical method, not entailing excessive costs, should be used. All analytical methods should be capable of being brought under statistical control to ensure adequate quality assurance and quality control. It should be noted that analyses at such low concentrations require extensive experience.

7.1. Trace metals

Analysis of trace metals in seawater generally includes pre-treatment and pre-concentration steps, followed by detection using element-specific spectrometric instrumental procedures, e.g. graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry (GFAAS), inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP–MS), anodic stripping voltammetry (ASV), and total reflection x-ray fluorescence (TXRF). For mercury, further methods and instruments are used, such as cold vapour atomic absorption spectrometry (CVAAS) and cold vapour atomic fluorescence spectrometry (CVAFS). These techniques are usually combined with a pre-concentration by amalgamation. ICP–MS is also used for mercury analysis.

7.2. Organic contaminants

Organic contaminants are usually found in the water phase at low concentrations, entailing the need for an extraction and enrichment step (e.g. SPE, LLE, solid-phase micro extraction (SPME)) and a selective chromatographic/detection step (e.g. GC–MS⁽ⁿ⁾, GC–ECD, LC–MS⁽ⁿ⁾, LC–FI.) within every analytical procedure. Depending on the analytes chosen, the water body studied and expected pollutant concentration, clean-up may be necessary. Although GC–MS/MS and HPLC–MS/MS are very selective techniques, it is good practice to use a second MS transition as a qualifier.

8. Quality assurance (QA)

The quality assurance programme should ensure that the data conform to the quantitative objectives of the programme (see Section 3). The laboratory must establish a quality assurance / quality control system, if necessary consistent with requirements in Commission Directive 2009/90/EC. All field and laboratory procedures should be fully validated, and the laboratory should also participate in intercalibration exercises and proficiency testing to provide external verification of results. The quality assurance procedures should cover sampling design, sampling, sample storage, analytical procedures (including field controls, analytical blanks, and recoveries), equipment maintenance and handling, training of personnel, data management, and an audit trail.

The use of a second (and different) sampling method, carried out simultaneously to the routine procedure, can be included in the validation process. All QA and QC data should be fully documented.

Because of the extremely low concentrations of pollutants in seawater, blank problems are generally more relevant and more difficult to control than in other matrices. Even ultra-pure chemicals and solvents used

sometimes have to be purified before use. Concentrations are often close to the LOQs, which means difficult calibration and integration, and reduced analytical precision.

In addition, the following problems are encountered specifically in seawater analyses of organic contaminants:

- Because of the large sample volumes, it is not possible to analyze replicate samples on a routine basis or to take samples for back-up analysis. However, it is often possible to make a plausibility check by comparing the results with those of samples taken from adjacent stations in a homogeneous water body. Homogeneity can be assessed from oceanographic parameters, like salinity.
- No certified reference materials are available for organic contaminants in seawater. Therefore, laboratory reference materials have to be used, which should preferably be a natural or spiked extract from a typical monitoring station. Extraction efficiencies should be checked by standard addition tests.
- Laboratory performance studies (e.g. by QUASIMEME) are difficult to perform and to evaluate because sample volumes in these studies (max. 1 l) differ from those used in real analysis (>10 l). Thus, concentration ranges in the tests are often higher than in real-life samples.

For temporal trend monitoring in particular, it is extremely important to perform reliable and reproducible high-quality analyses over decades. Therefore, such analyses require well-documented procedures and experienced analysts (see Section 7).

9. Reporting requirements

Secure data storage and appropriate access to the data should be ensured by submission of data to national databases and to the ICES database. Reporting requirements will depend on the database. For entry of OSPAR data into the ICES database, data of trace metals and organic contaminants should be reported in accordance with the latest ICES reporting formats.

The calculation of results and the reporting of data can be major sources of error. Control procedures should be established in order to ensure that data are correct and to avoid transcription errors. This could include comparisons with independently obtained results for the same area or with typical concentration intervals. Data stored in databases should be checked and validated, and checks are also necessary when data are transferred between databases.

Concentrations of trace metals and organic contaminants in seawater should be given in weight per volume (e.g. ng l⁻¹). To ensure correct interpretation, reporting should include information on the sampling method, filtration (filter type and pore size), storage/conservation, and analytical method. Minimum performance criteria such as LOQ and uncertainty measurement along with relevant QA/QC data such as reference material analyses should be included in the report.

The purpose of the monitoring, geographical coordinates, and the name of the sampling stations should be reported in the data as well as being defined in the OSPAR Station Dictionary (<http://www.ices.dk/datacentre/accessions/>). Sample depth, suspended particulate matter concentration, and physicochemical parameters at the time of sampling, such as air and water temperatures, salinity, pH, and weather conditions, should also be reported.

10. References

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Technical Annex: Examples of Sampling equipment for analysis of trace metals and organic contaminants in seawater

1. Trace metals

1.1 Discrete sampling

An example of a discrete sampler is the GO-FLO sampler (Figure 1)¹. This sampler consists of a cylinder with an inner Teflon-coating which can be closed and lowered into the water column and opens automatically at a certain depth (ca. 10 m) by hydrostatic pressure. This avoids contact of the sample with the water surface where some contaminants can accumulate. At the desired depth, a messenger is sent on the hydrographic wire (made of Teflon coated stainless steel, polymer, or preferably Kevlar) to release the closing valves in both ends of the sampler. Each bottle can be equipped with a second messenger that is released when the valves close. Water samples can be collected from a range of depths by mounting a series of bottles along the cable.

A variety of the GO-FLO sampler is the reversing water sampler. The messenger releases the sampler from the upper attachment, it rotates, and closes the two valves. If a special thermometer type is attached to the sampler, it fixes the actual temperature at the sampling depth, which can be determined later on board. This accessory can be used when no CTD-sensor is used to record the temperature profile.

Generally, all samplers must be cleaned before the first use by rinsing the inner surfaces with diluted hydrochloric acid. In the open sea, this may not be necessary between sampling where rinsing with deionised water is sufficient in most cases. In the open sea, seawater is sufficiently clean to rinse the outer surface. Samplers with rubber parts which cannot be acid-cleaned or cannot be closed during deployment should be avoided.



Figure 1 Picture of a GO-FLO sampler (photo courtesy of IFREMER, France).

¹ Figure shows device made by General Oceanics

The MERCOS sampler was originally designed for two 500 ml thick-walled cylindrical or ball-shaped Teflon bottles, which are closed by two silicone tubes of different diameters in the water. As the bottles are filled with air, the operating depth is restricted to about 50 m for the cylindrical and about 200 m for the globular type. A modified version for four bottles was developed by the Bundesamt für Seeschifffahrt und Hydrographie (BSH, Germany), maintaining the triggering device, but using LDPE bottles of low metal content material (NALGENE) that are protected against the water pressure by a polyacrylate mantle. The LDPE bottles are cheaper and easier to clean due to the smooth inner surface compared to the relatively rough texture of the thick-walled Teflon bottles. Therefore, the LDPE usually show much lower blank values.



Figure 2 Modified MERCOS water sampler of the second generation for four bottles, manufactured by BSH, Germany (photo courtesy of S. Schmolke, BSH, Germany).

1.2 Sampling by pumping

For depths down to 100 m, perhaps even 200 m, it can be practicable to pump seawater up through silicone or Teflon tubing, optionally including in-line filtration. The tubing should be cleaned by pumping acid (e.g. 10% hydrochloric acid) prior to sampling. The first litres of seawater sampled should be subsequently discarded. A peristaltic pump or Teflon piston pumps are suitable. The peristaltic pump can be placed between the sampling tube and the filter. The outflow from the in-line filter can then be collected in polyethylene bottles, Teflon bottles, or in glass or quartz bottles for mercury analyses.

2. Organic contaminants

Large volumes of seawater samples are usually needed for the analysis of organic contaminants. Sampling devices depend on the amount of sample to be processed and the method of extraction (liquid–liquid extraction (LLE) or solid-phase extraction (SPE)).

LLE and SPE do not yield exactly the same concentrations as they use different extraction principles. While SPE effectively extracts only freely dissolved compounds, LLE extracts freely dissolved compounds and also compounds complexed with humic acids and, in part, compounds bound to particles (Sturm *et al.*, 1998). Non-polar compounds can be extracted by either LLE or SPE, whereas the extraction of polar compounds generally requires SPE.

Volumes of 1 to 100 l can be sampled by discrete sampling and/or pumping and are usually extracted either by LLE or SPE. Sample volumes >100 l are generally sampled by pumping and extracted by SPE.

2.1 Discrete sampling

Several different sampling devices have been designed for discrete sampling depending on the volumes needed and the extraction techniques to be applied.

All-glass bottle samplers for volumes of 10 L and 100 L are shown in Figure 3. They are mounted in a stainless steel cage and lowered on a hydrographic wire down to the desired sampling depth and opened under water. After filling, the sampler is brought on deck of the ship and the sample can be extracted by LLE directly in the sampler (using a non-polar solvent) or by SPE. For example, non-polar pollutants like organohalogen pesticides (e.g. DDX, HCH, HCB, dieldrin, endrin) can be extracted and enriched from seawater by means of LLE using hexane or pentane.

Gaul and Ziebarth (1983) described a 10 l glass sampler allowing extraction in the sampling flask itself, thereby minimizing uncertainties arising from sample handling, blanks, adsorption, etc. Later, the same principle was expanded to a 100 l flask, thus increasing the sample volume and lowering the limit of quantification (LOQ) by a factor of 10 (Theobald *et al.*, 1990). Figure 3 shows pictures of 10 l and 100 l sampling bowls. Extraction is done by agitating the samplers with 0.2 and 1 liter of pentane, respectively, using a stirrer. The glass sampler can be used to a depth of 2000 m (10 l) and 100 m (100 l).

Collecting samples at greater depth can be done with stainless steel bottles (Figure 4) holding about 30 litres. This type of sampler was developed based on experience with Niskin and Go-Flo type bottles, and has been used in analyzing dissolved herbicides in water samples collected down to 3000 m depth.



Figure 3 Left: BSH all-glass bottle water sampler (10 l). Right: 100 l glass flask sampler for sampling seawater for the analysis of organic contaminants.

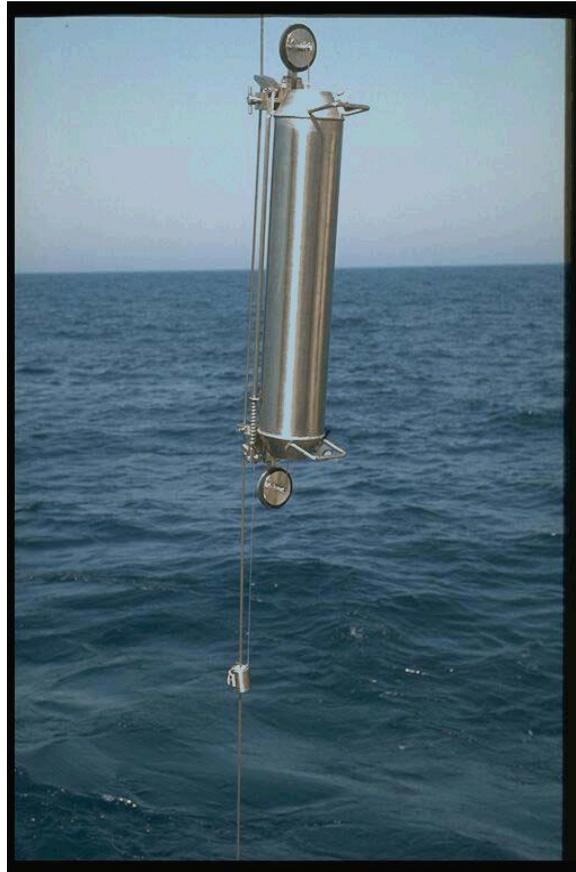


Figure 4 A stainless steel sampling bottle, for subsequent analysis of organic contaminants in seawater.

2.2 Sampling by pumping – *In situ* filtration and extraction

For larger volumes of 200 to 1000 l, Schulz-Bull *et al.* (1995) described an SPE procedure using large extraction cartridges filled with XAD resins. With this adsorbent, they obtained good extraction recoveries for PCBs, DDT, and PAHs, but not for HCH.

Sampling by pumping can be performed with compressed air Teflon pumps (not suitable for subsequent analysis of perfluorinated compounds). In order to equilibrate the system with the sampling water, the water is pumped for about ten minutes before the actual sampling begins. Then the sampling bottles are thoroughly rinsed with the sample, before beginning the sampling itself. The hose is kept away from the ship's hull while the system is being rinsed, and during the collection of the sub-surface samples.

In situ filtration and solid-phase extraction sampling devices may minimize the risk of sample contamination during sampling. A typical *in situ* pump system, the Kiel In-Situ Pump (KISP), has been widely applied to the extraction of organic contaminants in seawater (Petrick *et al.*, 1996). A modified KISP has been described for seawater sampling on-board research vessels (Ebinghaus and Xie, 2006). Briefly, as shown in Figure 5, KISP includes a filter holder, a polymeric resin column, a pump, and a flowmeter. A glass fibre filter (pore size 0.7 µm) is used to recover the particulate phase and a glass column packed with polymeric resin for the dissolved phase. The KISP can be easily operated on board by connecting it to the ship's seawater intake system for sampling seawater at certain depths. The pump system assembly with batteries can be deployed at different depths on a hydrographic wire, and the pumping can be started and ended by remote control.

The original KISP contains some plastic parts and connections, which may present a contamination risk for some organic contaminants, such as brominated flame retardants, alkylphenols, and plasticizers. Low blanks and detection limits have been obtained from KISP samples for legacy persistent organic pollutants (POPs), such as PCBs, DDTs, and HCHs (Lakaschus *et al.*, 2002; Sobek and Gustafsson, 2004). However, it is recommended that these parts are replaced by stainless steel or glass if KISP is to be applied for sampling seawater for the determination of other organic contaminants. Surrogate standards can be added to the resin column before sampling to control the extraction recoveries and storage. It should be noted that the validation of the *in situ* pump sampling method is difficult, and extraction efficiency may depend on dissolved organic matter and humic substances.

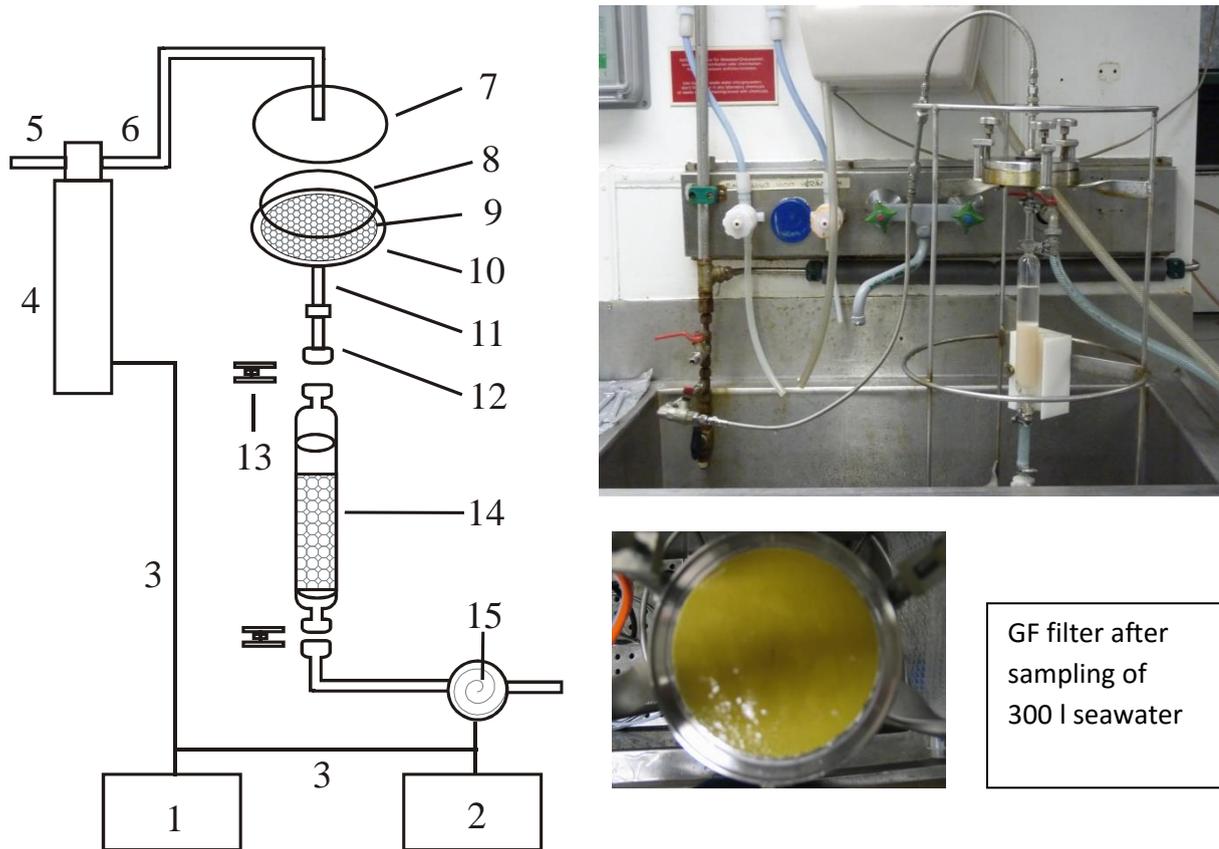


Figure 5 Schematic presentation of the Kiel In-Situ Pump (KISP). 1: flowmeter controller; 2: flowmeter; 3: cable connections; 4: pump; 5: pump inlet; 6: pump outlet; 7: stainless steel deck of filter holder; 8: GF 52 filter; 9: glass plate; 10: filter holder; 11: stainless steel tubing; 12: glass connect; 13: adjustable clip; 14: resins column; 15: counter of flow meter.

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