Responses to the Referee 1 comments:

1)

Many statistical analyses make the manuscript complex and confusing. Indeed, the result of NMDS is not fully discussed. What foraminiferal species are related to NMDS 1 and 2, and what can we learn from the temporal changes of NMDS 1 and 2? Figure 7 is not fully used in discussion. So, I think there is no need to show figure 7 in this manuscript".

We think that unconstrained ordination - NMDS (Figure 7) - is important because it directly depicts the differences between foraminiferal assemblages from different stratigraphic intervals/time periods, independently of environmental data. We note that the stratigraphic order is rather lost in both RDA and clustering - they just show two distinct groups, with no trends and no continuous compositional gradient. We have rather decided to move Figure 8 with constrained ordination to the Supplement (see also below). We have expanded the description of NMDS in results, related it to the information on what taxa are associated with positive and negative scores, and have now provided some further explanation in the chapters Results and Discussion:

Chapter Results, page 14:

"In the NMDS space, samples from the lower and middle part of the core (150-35cm) are associated with positive scores along the first axis and are tightly grouped, indicating relatively homogeneous faunal composition... In contrast, the samples from the upper 35cm of the core are associated with negative scores along the first axis and are widely distributed in the ordination space. The separation of the uppermost part of the core from the rest of the core in the ordination space suggests a continuous, but a relatively strong shift in the assemblage composition at the onset of the 20^{th} century (Fig. 7)."

Chapter Discussion, page 19:

"However, the overall assemblage composition in the 20th century changed markedly relatively to the pre-20th century assemblage composition. The uppermost parts of the core show a very strong and directional change in composition lasting up to the present (Fig. 7), whereas the lower and middle parts of the core were characterized by a relatively constant taxonomic composition, with a much smaller multivariate dispersion in NMDS (Fig. 7)."

"I think that figure 6 (b) and (c) are enough for the conclusion of the manuscript. It is also same to figure 8. What is PC1 in figure 8? I think PC1 is the result of PCA of geochemical data (Fig. 4). However, the values are not equal".

As explained above, the results of NMDS analysis directly show stratigraphic order of foraminiferal assemblages and thus we would like to keep it as a part of the manuscript. The component PC1 in the Figure 8 (RDA plot) is based on relative abundances of foraminifera, while the geochemical data are reduced to total nitrogen concentration along RDA1. Because there is only one environmental variable selected by the forward model selection in the redundancy analysis (TN), there is only one RDA axis. We have clarified the caption to Figure 8 (in the revised version Figure S1) as follows:

"Given that only one environmental variable is used, the second axis corresponds to the first principal component that visualizes the residual compositional variation unconstrained by geochemical data."

We moved the Figure 8 to supplementary data and added the Table S4 to the main part of the manuscript (The results of the forward model selection in the redundancy analysis; in the revised version named Table 1), because it provides detailed information about elements that explain the highest proportion of variation in assemblage composition. The results shown in this table are important for the conclusions of the manuscript, as previously explained on the page 21, lines 517-519, page 23, lines 577-578).

2)

"The authors concluded that the foraminiferal community has adapted to naturally elevated trace element concentrations, but such adaptation cannot be evaluated from this study because anthropogenic impact is found even in the bottom of the core".

To avoid confusion, we have omitted "naturally".

3)

"There are no explanations about dash line, solid line, and grey circle in figure 2. The explanations are needed in caption. I think dash line means the range between maximum and minimum ages of shells. If so, the range of ages between 90cm and 120cm are very wide (i.e. it shows "modern" to "old" ages)."

We have added our clarification to the caption of the Figure 2 as follows:

"The dashed line represent the total range of ages of Varicorbula gibba, i.e., bounded by the minimum and maximum age, the solid line represents the inter-quartile range of ages, i.e., it is bounded by the 25th and 75th quantiles, and the grey circle refers to the median age. We note that age range and inter-quartile age range increase downcore and death assemblages in the basal core increments are time-averaged to few centuries, most likely due to bioturbational mixing. Therefore, although median age of V. gibba in the lowermost (145-150 cm) increment is 1616 AD, interquartile range of ages of V. gibba in this increment includes shells that died in the 16th century."

Additionally, as the lowermost sample includes shells that died in the 16th century, the core effectively captures the past 500 years of environmental history in the Bay of Panzano. We corrected this within the title and the manuscript and added an explanation about this in chapter Chronological framework, page 12:

"Median age of V. gibba in the lowermost (145-150 cm) increment is 1616 AD, but interquartile range of ages of V. gibba in this increment includes shells that died in the 16th century. Therefore, we used median ages to set the chronology of events, but the core effectively captures the past 500 years of environmental history in Panzano Bay (Fig. 2)."

"Moreover, calculated sedimentation rate between 120cm and 140cm is very high (ca. 2cm/yr). The concentration of Al decreases abruptly during this period. This may indicate the change of depositional environment. Evaluations about these points are needed".

If we use median age in each increment, the difference of ~100 years between 120 and 140cm would imply sedimentation rate ~0.2cm per year, not 2cm per year. Although some elements (like Al) show some fluctuations that are in phase with grain size variations, absolute changes in sediment grain size are very minor (as already described in manuscript at page 12, lines 295-299) and we thus think that it is difficult to infer changes in environment based on it. We additionally discuss this in chapter Discussion, page 16:

"In the Panzano Bay sediments, trace (Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, Mn) and conservative elements (Fe, Al) have relatively higher concentrations in the lower part of the core and a pronounced decrease in the upper 35cm. The only discrepancy of this trend occurred in the latest 17th century, when the concentrations of all these elements declined, with simultaneous change in grain size (Fig. 3). Although this elemental fluctuation is in phase with grain size variations, absolute changes in sediment grain size are very minor and it is thus difficult to infer changes in environment based on it."

"The authors argue that short term decline of Ammonia sp. in the latest 17th century may have caused by the increases of pollutants, because Ammonia sp. is sensitive to pollutants (p. 17 line 410 to 413). However, this short term drop is only one sample, and the drop of Al during this period may indicate the change of depositional environment as mentioned above. It may be the taphonomic effect. Indeed, it seems that the change in grain size distribution occurs simultaneously with Al drop. So, we cannot discuss the decrease of Ammonia in relation to anthropogenic impacts. Moreover, the authors describe that the increase of Ammonia sp. during the late 20th century is correlated with the increase of persistent organic pollutants (p. 21 line 511 to 516). These two interpretations of Ammonia species are inconsistent (Ammonia sp. is sensitive or tolerant to pollution? Ammonia sp. increases after 1950 when some pollutants increase rapidly.)".

To avoid ambiguity and avoid difficulty with disentangling sampling issues and taphonomic effects, we have omitted the inference about the decline in *Ammonia* sp. in the lower part of the core from the Discussion (pages 17 and 18, lines 421-425, 428-431). We keep the information that most *Ammonia* species are tolerant to pollution.

4)

"Major foraminiferal change during 1700s to 1800s is fluctuation of Valvulineria species (Fig. 5). The authors argue that the distinct peak of Valvulineria in the early 19th century coincides with the coldest and most humid phases of the LIA by citing previous study. However, the same distinct peak of Valvulineria also occurs in the early 18th century. The authors also

describe that Valvulineria is adapted to large seasonal variability of organic matter, periodic hypoxic conditions, increased fluvial runoff and increased turbidity. However, nutrient concentrations and grain size are relatively stable rather than variable. The authors do not discuss this point".

We have downplayed the inference about seasonality, mainly because of the likely effect of time averaging and mixing. The constancy of nutrient concentrations can be further explained by less dense spacing of samples where nutrients were measured. In the Discussion (page 18), we have added:

"In contrast to fluctuations in abundance of these foraminifer taxa, vertical changes in the concentration of nutrients in the lower and middle part of the core are mild. However, the spacing of increments that were analyzed for nutrients is larger than dense spacing of increments analyzed for the composition of foraminiferal assemblages. In addition, concentrations of nutrients, grain size distribution and vertical changes in foraminiferal assemblages are likely further affected by vertical homogenization by bioturbation, as evidenced by decadal to centennial time averaging of Varicorbula gibba (Fig. 2), thus making difficult to detect the effects of environmental fluctuations occurring at higher (seasonal or yearly) temporal resolution"

5)

Ammonia during the 17th to 19th century suggest strong seasonal variations of river runoff and organic matter input based on the result of RDA (p. 17 line 425 to 429). However, I think that RDA results are strongly influenced by top 20cm (20th century) data of the core, because N. tot is relatively stable below 20cm. Gradual decrease of N. tot may indicate decomposition process. Indeed, if my understanding is right, high positive correlations occur within top 20cm (Figs. 4 and 8) ".

Yes, this is correct; we have removed our reference to RDA in this part of the Discussion (page 19, lines 455, 461). Our inference here is primarily based on known and described ecological requirements of these taxa.

Regarding nitrogen concentrations, we have added this statement into Discussion (page 20): "Although upward increasing concentrations of TOC and TN can be party related to their recycling dynamic, the corresponding increase in pollutants (PAH and PCB) and other observations of major increase in pollutants and organic enrichments in the Gulf of Trieste (Heath et al., 2006) imply that the nutrient increase also reflects intensifying agricultural and maricultural activities in the Gulf of Trieste during the 20th century. "

6)

"The authors propose the three hypotheses in introduction section, so inspection result of the hypotheses should be written in conclusion section. Especially, hypothesis three (relationship between foram diversity and pollutants) was not incompatible with the result. Many previous

studies have already suggested that early phase of eutrophication cases increase in foram diversity".

We added the inspection of the hypotheses as follows:

In the Discussion, page 20:

"The increase in diversity observed in the uppermost parts of the core not only correlates with nutrient enrichment (in accord with observations that early stages of eutrophication can increase species richness, Martinez-Colón et al. 2009) but also with higher concentrations of pollutants, thus rather contrasting with the hypothesis that pollution inevitably decreases species richness."

In the conclusions (pages 24 and 25):

"This is reflected in increasing concentrations of trace elements and persistent organic pollutants (PAH, PCB), as well as in progressive nutrient enrichment, as it was presumed within the first two hypotheses. However, mining activity did not produce a progressive enrichment of mercury as anticipated in the second hypothesis, due to the improvement of the methods for the metal recovery. Increased pollutants did not cause a decline of species abundance and diversity as suggested by the third hypothesis, as foraminiferal response to such anthropogenic impacts in Panzano Bay are shaped by their long history of adaptation to elevated trace element concentrations, but also as initial stages of eutrophication can positively affect species richness."

7)

"p. 18 line 453 to p. 19 line 473: The authors associate the increases in the abundances of Miliolinella, Triloculina, and Haynesina with enhanced microalgal biomass (mainly diatoms) as a consequence of nutrient enrichment. However, certain Elphidium species feed diatoms and prefer organic rich sediments. Ammonia tepida decreases during this period, but A. tepida is herbivorous and tolerant to all kinds of stress conditions, including organic enrichment as the authors describe in the manuscript. So, this faunal change cannot be explained only by enhanced microalgal biomass and nutrient enrichment".

It is true that certain *Elphidium* species feed on diatoms, but those are only keeled species. Non-keeled *Elphidium* species prefer an infaunal mode of life and can be associated with food enrichment of the sediments. In Panzano Bay, only non-keeled *Elphidium* species dominate in the lower part of the core and we relate their abundances with the LIA, increased river run-off and organic matter input.

In the 20th century, taxonomic change of foraminiferal communities happened, including the decrease of non-keeled elphidiids and increase of herbivorous taxa. Such a shift in the trophic mode of foraminiferal species we interpreted as an indication of enhanced phytoplankton, reflecting higher nutrient levels. Therefore, non-keeled elphidiids decline here probably because of the shift in the available food. This inference is explained in the manuscript (page 18, lines 432-436, pages 20, 21, lines 502-508, page 21, lines 509-514).

Yes, A. tepida slightly decreases during this period and does not fit this trend. However, Ammonia sp. and A. inflata increase here. We added a comment about it on page 20:

"Additionally, in the second part of the 20^{th} century herbivorous genus Ammonia also slightly increases its abundances, with only A. tepida not following this trend."

9)

"p. 20 line 504 to p. 21 line 506: The authors describe that the presence of PAH is probably related to industrial activities, and it started to increase from the middle of the 20th century. However, it seems that PAH concentration start to increase from the latest 18th century, although it increases rapidly from the middle of the 20th century. So, industrial activities was advanced from the latest 18th century".

We have modified our statement as follows (chapter Discussion, page 22):

"The presence of PAH and PCB in Panzano Bay sediments is probably related to industrial activities in the port. Their concentrations are low throughout the core and start to increase in the 19th century and especially since the middle of the 20th century (Fig. 3)...,"

10)

"Foraminiferal discussions in subsection 5.1 and 5.3 are same although different pollutants are described in each section. So, subsection 5.1 and 5.3 should be combined to avoid confusion."

Subsections 5.1. and 5.3. concern each source of pollution separately, namely maricultural and agricultural in the chapter 5.1. and port activities in the chapter 5.3.

We estimate the effects of maricultural and agricultural activities based on trace element concentrations and nutrients. Consequently, we provide the information on the responses of foraminiferal assemblages to elevated trace element concentrations and nutrients.

In the chapter 5.3. we evaluate the effects of port activities by using the concentrations of persistent organic pollutants: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) and we discuss possible effects of these pollutants on foraminiferal assemblages. Therefore, we would like to retain these subsections as they are.

Additionally, we further split the Discussion into pre-20th and 20th century changes in foraminiferal assemblages.

"Figure 4: In the text, the authors describe "the first two axes explaining 75.8% of the variance", but the value of PC2 is 14.8% in the figure 4 (sum of axes is 74.8%). Which is correct? Names of each arrow are piled and indistinct. Please redraw in the clearest way possible. Figure 5: "sp." is not italic. "References: Di Leonardo et al. (2006) and Solis-Weiss et al. (2001) are not cited in the text. There are discrepancies of publish year between the text and the references. P. 18 Line 440: Naeher et al. (2014) P. 11 Line 270: R Core Team (2015) P. 4 Line 104: Xuschin and Piller (1994)".

Figure 4: The correct number is 74,8% of variance. We redrew the Figure 4 as suggested and corrected all listed spelling mistakes.

Responses to the Referee 2 comments:

it may be is useful to show Idrija in the map of Fig. 1

We agree, but Idria mercury mine is located outside the coverage of the map, far away in the central Slovenia. Therefore, we added the direction of the mercury input on the map of Fig. 1.

diversity indices: There is no need to measure diversity in three ways when one is enough

We use three different indices, as they depict the diversity in a different way. Also, we use them to prove that the results are consistent and not dependent on the used metric.

Additionaly, these indices are frequently used in ecological studies (and not only in the ones dealing with foraminifera) to define the ecological status of the research area. Therefore, by keeping all three of them in this manuscript, we would thus allow easy comparison of results between different studies.

Line 209: normalised

We corrected this spelling mistake.

Line 307: 12.74mg/kg do not correspond to the reported in Table S2

Actually, it does correspond to the table, but it was not written clearly. The submitted version was: "The concentration of Hg sharply increases at 100-130cm, from 12.74mg/kg to 44.7mg/kg."

And the revised version is: "The concentration of Hg sharply increases from 12.74mg/kg at 145-150cm of the core depth, to 44.7mg/kg at 100-130cm."

Line 367: Campos et al., 2003 missing in References

Campos et al., 2003 is spelling mistake. It is Campos, 2003 and we corrected it accordingly.

Line 489: Aquavita should be Acquavita

We corrected this spelling mistake.

Line 1047: 1993 should be 1994

We corrected this spelling mistake.

1 Anthropogenically induced environmental changes in the northeastern Adriatic Sea in the last

- 2 400.500 years (Panzano Bay, Gulf of Trieste)
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15 Abstract

- 16 Shallow and sheltered marine embayments in urbanized areas are prone to the accumulation of
- 17 pollutants, but little is known about the historical baselines of such marine ecosystems. Here we
- 18 study foraminiferal assemblages, geochemical proxies and sedimentological data from 1.6m long
- 19 sediment cores to uncover $\sim 400 500$ years of anthropogenic pressure from mining, port and
- 20 industrial zones in the Gulf of Trieste, Italy.
- 21 From 1600 to 1900 AD, <u>normalized</u> element concentrations and foraminiferal assemblages point to
- 22 negligible effects of agricultural activities. The only significant anthropogenic activity during this
- 23 period is mercury mining in the hinterlands of the gulf, releasing high amounts of mercury into the
- 24 bay and significantly exceeding today's Italian sediment quality guidelines (SQG) and the standards
- on the effects of trace elements to benthic organisms (ERL and ERM). Nonetheless, the fluctuations
- 26 in the concentrations of mercury do not correlate with changes in the composition and diversity of
- 27 foraminiferal assemblages due to its nonbioavailability. Intensified agricultural and maricultural
- activities in the first half of the 20th century caused slight nutrient enrichment and a minor increase
- 29 in foraminiferal diversity. Intensified port and industrial activities in the second half of 20th century

- 30 increased the normalized trace element concentrations and persistent organic pollutants (PAH,
- 31 PCB) in the topmost part of the core, with solely Ni exceeding Italian SQG, ERL and ERM. This
- 32 increase caused only minor changes in the foraminiferal community because foraminifera in
- Panzano Bay have a long history of adaptation to naturally elevated trace element concentrations.
- 34 Our study underlines the importance of using an integrated, multidisciplinary approach in
- 35 reconstructing the history of environmental and anthropogenic changes in marine systems. Given
- 36 the prolonged human impacts in coastal areas like the Gulf of Trieste, such long term baseline data
- 37 are crucial for interpreting the present state of marine ecosystems.

39 **Keywords**

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40 Marine pollution, Trace elements, Nutrients, Persistent organic pollutants, Benthic foraminifera

1. Introduction

- 43 The northern Adriatic Sea is densely urbanized and polluted (Lotze et al., 2006; Cozzi and Giani,
- 44 2011), and the areas around the Po River, the Venice Lagoon and in the Gulf of Trieste bear the
- 45 highest pressure (Solis-Weiss et al., 2007; Raccanelli et al., 2009). Panzano Bay, located in the
- 46 northeastern part of the Gulf of Trieste, is a shallow and sheltered embayment prone to the
- 47 accumulation of pollutants, with recent anthropogenic pressure coming from agricultural,
- 48 maricultural, mining and industrial activities (Horvat et al., 1999).
- 49 The impact here started nearly 500 years ago with the onset of mercury mining in the hinterland of
- 50 the bay (Singh and Turner 2009, Covelli et al., 2012), enhanced in the late 20th century with
- 51 intensifying agriculture and mariculture (Aleffi et al., 2006; Rampazzo et al., 2013; Finch et al.,
- 52 2014), and continued to the present times with increasing port and industrial activities
- 53 (thermoelectric plant) of the City of Monfalcone (Notar et al., 2001; Pozo et al., 2009).
- 54 Such intensive anthropogenic pressures have prompted a growing scientific effort to estimate the

55 effects of pollution on ecosystem composition here. Most attempts have addressed modifications of the marine habitats that occurred in the 20th century, using only geochemical (Horvat et al., 1999, 56 57 Faganeli et al., 2003; Acquavita et al., 2012) or biological proxies (Solis-Weiss et al., 2007). There 58 is however, a growing tendency towards integrated assessments of its present state (Cibic et al., 59 2007; Melis and Covelli, 2013, Franzo et al., 2015), but until today there are no multidisciplinary 60 studies assessing the long term history of the environmental changes in the northeastern Adriatic 61 and thus capturing its preindustrial, undisturbed state. Such a historical record requires an integrated geochemical and paleoecological approach. Benthic 62 63 foraminifera, among the most abundant microorganisms in shallow and marginal marine 64 environments, are often used in paleoecological studies. This is because they are highly sensitive to 65 short term environmental changes (Schönfeld, 2012), they have a high preservation potential and thus provide an excellent temporal record of ecosystem states over the past hundreds to thousands 66 67 of years (Yasuhara et al., 2012). The present multidisciplinary study is designed to provide a high resolution historical record of 68 69 environmental changes in Panzano Bay, to obtain information on the state of the ecosystem prior to 70 the onset of the most intensive impact, and to evaluate the effects of anthropogenic activities in the 71 bay. We obtained geochemical data and foraminiferal assemblages from a 1.6m long sediment core 72 containing a centennial scale record of environmental and anthropogenic changes. The core covers 73 approximately the last 400-500 years, as indicated by radiocarbon calibrated AAR dating of the 74 molluskes shells (Tomasovych et al., submitted). 75 Taking into account the history of potential anthropogenic stressors in Panzano Bay, we assess the 76 following hypotheses: (1) agricultural and maricultural activities produce upcore increases in the 77 concentrations of organic matter, nutrients and trace elements, (2) mining activities and 78 thermoelectric plants generate a progressive enrichment of mercury and persistent organic 79 pollutants, (3) increased pollutants alter the taxonomic composition of foraminiferal assemblages

- and cause a decline of species abundance and diversity.
- 81 To test these hypotheses, we evaluate the pollution in the bay using geochemical proxies (major,
- 82 minor and trace elements, nutrients, persistent organic pollutants) and quantify the composition and
- 83 diversity of foraminiferal assemblages. Finally, we reconstruct the chronology of environmental
- 84 changes in Panzano Bay over the last 400-500 years and underline the applicability of our results to
- 85 disturbed shallow coastal ecosystems elsewhere.

2. Study area

- 87 The Gulf of Trieste is a shallow marine basin in the northernmost part of the Adriatic Sea,
- occupying an area of about 500 km², with an average water depth of 17m and a maximum of about
- 89 25m (Fig. 1). Seasonal variations of water temperature range between 8 to 24°C at the surface and 8
- 90 to 20°C in the bottom layer. The salinity of the water in the gulf is typically marine, ranging
- 91 between 33 and 38.5‰ (Ogorelec et al., 1991).
- 92 The water enters the gulf in the southeast and continues to the northwest, following the general
- 93 anticlockwise circulation pattern of the Adriatic Sea. However, the water circulation in the gulf is
- 94 mostly controlled by tides (range ~0.5m), winds (strong northeastern Bora) and seasonal variations
- 95 of freshwater inflow. The Isonzo/Soča and Timavo rivers are the most significant sources of
- 96 freshwater to the Gulf, with average inflows of about 100-130m³/s each (Ogorelec et al., 1991).
- 97 The Gulf of Trieste generally shows mesotrophic to oligotrophic conditions, with episodic
- 98 eutrophication events, accompanied by summer thermal stratification of the water column
- 99 (Ogorelec et al., 1991; Horvat et al., 1999; Turk et al., 2007).
- 100 The main sediment supply comes from the Isonzo River in the north and from the weathering of the
- 101 Paleogene flysch deposits outcropping along the southern coast of the gulf. The sediment
- accumulation rates are approximately 1 mm/yr in the central part of the gulf and increase to about
- 2.5mm/yr towards the mouth of the Isonzo River located in Panzano Bay (Ogorelec et al., 1991, our
- unpublished data). Surface sediments in this area are mostly silt clays and clay silts (Zuschin and

Piller, 1994) occupied by a high biomass epifauna (Zuschin et al., 1999).

The Gulf of Trieste is affected by many sources of organic and inorganic pollutants, coming from agricultural and industrial activities in the hinterland as well as from tourist and maricultural activities along its coasts (Notar et al., 2001; Covelli et al., 2006). Panzano Bay is one of the highly impacted areas, with organic pollution coming from mussel farms located along the eastern part of the Gulf of Trieste (Melaku Canu and Solidoro, 2014) and industrial and port areas of the city of Monfalcone, including a thermoelectric plant and several coal, petroleum and other cargo handling piers (Fig. 1). The Monfalcone thermoelectric plant consists of four thermoelectric generator sets powered by coal and fuel oil and became operative in 1965 ("The Monfalcone Thermoelectric Plant"). Finally, there is substantial Hg pollution originating from the Idrija mercury mine in the hinterlands and delivered to the bay through the Isonzo river flow (Horvat et al., 1999; Notar et al., 2001). Idrija, situated 50km west of Ljubljana (Slovenia), was the second largest Hg mine in the world, operating for nearly 500 years until its definite closure in 1995 (Faganelli et al., 2003; Covelli et al., 2012). During this period, over 5 million tonnes of Hg ore were mined and much of the residues were spread around the town and its vicinity (Miklavčič, 1999). Most of the Isonzo riverine input of Hg is in particulate form (1500kg/yr), followed by dissolved Hg at 8.6kg/yr (Faganelli et al., 2003). Dissolved mercury is biogeochemically reactive and tends to accumulate in certain seafood from mariculture, presenting social and economic problems for the local population (Faganelli et al., 2003).

124 **3. Methods**

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125 **3.1. Sampling**

Three sediment cores, two for sedimentological and one for foraminiferal analyses, 1.6m long with a diameter of 9cm, were acquired using an UWITEC piston corer with hammer action (Gallmetzer et al., in press2016) from a research vessel in summer 2013. The drilling station is located in the central part of Panzano Bay (45°44,122' N; 13°36,029' E) at a water depth of 12.5m. The

uppermost 20cm of each core were sliced into 2cm thick intervals in order to attain high resolution data. The rest of the core was sliced into 5cm thick samples. For analytical purposes and in order to improve compatibility with the lower part of the core, the uppermost 2cm thick samples were merged into 4cm thick intervals (reducing the number of samples from 36 to 31). Sediment samples were used to determine grain size, the content of major, minor and trace elements, nutrients and persistent organic pollutants. Core chronology is based on molluscan shells dated by ¹⁴C calibrated amino acid racemisation.

3.2. Sediment parameters

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The grain size of 36 samples was analyzsed using a sedigraph (SediGraph III 5120 Particle Size 138 139 Analyzer) for the small fractions (<63µm) and dry sieving for fractions from <63µm to >1mm. The sediments were classified according to the Shepard's classification (1954). 140 141 The concentrations of elements, nutrients and pollutants were determined at specific core sections: 1cm, 5cm, 9cm, 24cm, 46cm, 69cm, 85cm, 105cm, 126cm and 151cm core depth. Geochemical 142 analyses included the content of major (Fe, Al), minor (Mn, P) and trace elements (As, Cd, Cr, Cu, 143 Hg, Ni, Pb, Zn), nutrients (total organic carbon – TOC and total nitrogen – TN-tot), persistent 144 organic pollutants (polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons – PAH, polychlorinated biphenyls – PCB) 145 and total inorganic carbon (C-tot). 146 147 To analyzse elemental concentrations, each sediment sample was gently squeezed to break down 148 aggregates and screened through a PE sieve to remove particles bigger than 1mm. A part of the screened sediment was dried in an oven at 105°C until reaching a constant weight (to measure water 149 150 content). The dried sediment was ground to powder using an agate mortar and pestle before further analyzsing the contents of heavy metals and As. The sample (about 0.4g d.w.) was digested with 151 8ml HNO₃ in a microwave oven (Multiwave 3000, Anton Paar, Austria). The digested material was 152 left to cool at room temperature and then filtered through a 0.45µm nitrocellulose membrane filter. 153 154 The filtered digestates were diluted with distilled deionizsed water to 40ml in a volumetric flask

(USEPA, 1994A). The concentrations of the elements (Al, As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, Zn) 155 were determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) (Optima 156 2100DV, Perkin Elmer, USA) (USEPA, 1994B). Mercury analyses were carried out using atomic 157 158 absorption spectrophotometry with cold vapour (Analyst 100, Perkin Elmer, USA) (USEPA, 1976). The quality acceptance protocols required that one blank sample or one certified reference material 159 160 (BCR-277r estuarine sediment, Community Bureau of Reference) were digested and analyzed with 161 each batch of fifteen samples. The blank results indicated that the analytical procedure was free from contamination because the concentrations of all metals were below the respective method 162 detection limits. Mean recovery from the certified material ranged between 84% (Zn) and 103% 163 164 (Hg), except for Al (40%) because the extraction method was not strong enough to break crystalline aluminosilicates. The analytical precision, determined using five replicates of homogenized samples, 165 was estimated to be better than 10% for all elements. Calibration for ICP-AES and AAS analysis 166 was achieved with prepared external standards via the standard curve approach. Full calibration was 167 performed after every set of 48 samples. The method detection limit for element analysis was 168 169 defined as 3 times the standard deviation of 10 blank measurements. Carbon and nitrogen determination was performed following the method of Hedges and Stern 170 171 (1984), using an elemental analyzer (CHN 2400, Perkin Elmer, USA). The total concentration-(TC 172 and TN) was determined on an aliquot of the sample as is (about 10mg of dry sediment); the organic fraction of carbon (TOC) was determined after treatment of another aliquot of the sample 173 with acid vapors. The inorganic fraction (C-tot) was calculated by the difference between the total 174 and organic concentrations. For the instrument calibration, before each daily series of analyzes, 175 three replicates of Acetanilide standard were performed. For the quality acceptance protocols one 176 177 blank sample every five samples was analyzed. To analyzse the concentrations of persistent organic pollutants, sediment samples were thoroughly 178 mixed, sieved through a 1mm mesh to remove any debris, and subsequently air dried in the dark at 179

180 room temperature for 48h on hexane rinsed aluminum foil. The dry samples were finely ground in 181 an agate mortar. The extraction was performed using a Microwave Sample Preparation System 182 (Multiwave 3000, Anton Paar Graz, Austria), in accordance with the EPA recommendation (method 183 3546). Two grams of dried sediments were weighed into lined microwave extraction vessels. Then, 184 a 25ml 1:1 acetone/hexane solvent mixture was added. The vessels were then assembled as 185 instructed by the manufacturer and the extraction was conducted during 15 min at 110°C and 6-10 186 bars. At the end of the oven program, vessels were cooled to room temperature and the extracts 187 were filtered and rinsed with the same solvent mixture. 188 The samples were concentrated in a rotating evaporator (Rotavapor-R Buchi, CH), and the sulphur 189 compounds were removed by soaking the extracts with activated copper powder. Purification and 190 fractionation were performed by eluting extracts through chromatography glass columns packed 191 with Silica gel/Alumina/Florisil (4+4+1gr). The first fraction, containing PCBs, was eluted with 192 25ml of n-hexane, whereas the second fraction, containing the PAHs, was eluted with 30ml of 8:2 n-hexane/methylene chloride solvent mixture (Fossato et al., 1996, 1998). After concentration with 193 194 a rotary evaporator, the samples were ready for the instrumental analysis. 195 The identification of PAHs and PCBs was based on matching retention time, and the quantification 196 was obtained from calibration curves established for each compound by analyzsing four external standards. Average determination coefficients R² of the calibration curves exceeded 0.99 for both 197 PAH and PCB, and the relative standard deviations of the calibration factors were always less than 198 199 20% (average 10%). The detection limits were 0.05-0.1ng/g and 0.05ng/g for PAHs and PCBs, 200 respectively. Blanks were run for the entire procedure. Recovery and accuracy were validated with 201 IAEA-417 and IAEA-159 sediment sample certified reference materials. Laboratory methods were 202 also validated by intercalibration activities (IAEA, 2001, 2007, 2012). Raw concentrations of Hg, Cr, Pb, As, Cd and PCB were compared to Italian sediment quality 203 204 guidelines (SQG), following the directive D. L.vo n. 172 of 13/10/2015, whereas PAH and Ni threshold concentrations were taken from directive DM 367/2003. Additionally, raw concentrations were compared to two sediment quality criteria used around the world: effects range low (ERL), representing the threshold level below which effects to benthic organisms rarely occur, and effects range medium (ERM), above which effects are likely to occur (Burton, 2002). Finally, trace elements were noirmalized to a reference element (Al) in order to compensate for grain size and mineralogical effects on the metal variability in samples (Covelli et al., 2006).

3.3. Foraminiferal analyses

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A total of 36 sediment samples were washed with water through a set of sieves with 63, 125, 250 and 500µm meshes. Each obtained subsample was split with a microsplitter in order to yield around 300 specimens. Individuals were identified under a binocular microscope following the classification of Loeblich and Tappan (1987) and Cimerman and Langer (1991). Foraminiferal species were categorizsed into different ecological categories; according to their substrate relation (infaunal, epifaunal, epiphyitic, epifaunal/infaunal and an epiphytic/infaunal group for ambiguous literature data) and according to their tolerance to different types of pollution, namely organic or chemical (referring to trace elements and persistent organic pollutants), (hereafter referred to as stress tolerant taxa. This classification was based on a total of 84 sources, including studies carried out in the Adriatic (Jorissen, 1987, 1988; Van der Zwaan & Jorissen, 1991; Jorissen et al., 1992; Barmawidjaja et al., 1992, 1995; Hohenegger et al., 1993; Vaniček et al., 2000; Donnici and Serandrei Barbero, 2002; Albani et al., 2007,; Frontalini and Coccioni, 2008, 2011; Di Bella et al., 2008, 2013; Vidović et al., 2009, 2014; Coccioni et al., 2009; Popadić et al., 2013; Melis and Covelli, 2013; Langlet et al., 2013, 2014). Additionally we used important primary and secondary literature about foraminiferal ecology (Murray, 1991, 2006; Langer, 1993), the most recent studies about improved tools and methods when using benthic foraminifera in environmental monitoring (Barras et al., 2014; Alve et al., 2016; Dimiza et al., 2016) and Paleobiology Database (Behrensmeyer and Turner, 2013). A full list of used sources is given in the Supplement: Table S1.

3.4. Statistical analyses

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Before further statistical treatment, 18 environmental variables (grain size and raw concentrations of nutrients and organic and inorganic pollutants) were checked for normality, log transformed when non normal distribution was detected, and z standardized to account for different units and scales. Pearson correlations among environmental variables and principal component analysis (PCA) based on these 18 variables were performed to assess their collinearity and stratigraphic distribution. Only clay content was used in the multivariate analyses because other grain size fractions correlate with the percentage of clay. The total foraminiferal assemblages were used in all analyses by pooling all mesh size fractions for each sample. Species diversity was measured using species richness, the exponential of Shannon entropy, and Fisher's a. The exponent of the Shannon index (H) corresponds to the number of equally abundant species that would produce the given value of H (Hill, 1973; Jost, 2006). As all three diversity measures strongly depend on the number of sampled individuals, we rarefied our abundance data down to the size of the smallest sample (240 specimens). This procedure was repeated 1000 times and the mean values of species richness, exp (H) and α with corresponding 95% confidence intervals were computed across all iterations. Species relative abundance data were square root transformed before multivariate analyses. Non metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis distances was used to visualize gradients in community composition. Rescaling the NMDS space according to the underlying dissimilarity matrix and rotating it with the principal component analysis maximized the compositional variation among samples along the first ordination axis (Oksanen et al., 2015). NMDS axis 1 scores thus correspond to the relative position of samples along the main gradient in species composition. The Pearson correlation was used to measure the association between the environmental variables and NMDS axis 1 scores for the subset of samples with available values of elemental concentrations.

Redundancy analysis (RDA) combined with the forward model selection approach was employed to quantify variation in the multivariate composition of foraminiferal assemblages explained by environmental variables. The effects of environmental variables were first tested in single regressions. Most environmental variables, however, show some degree of collinearity, and the forward model selection approach was thus employed to find a subset of factors that maximizes the explanatory power of environmental variables. At each step of the model building algorithm, an environmental variable with the highest partial R² was added while considering the effects of the already selected variables, and the significance of the additional contribution was evaluated through a permutation test (10 000 permutations) (Blanchet et al., 2008). To identify the timing of the major shifts in assemblage composition, we performed chronological clustering, a type of constrained cluster analysis that takes into account the temporal sequence of samples (Birks, 2012), by using the CONISS algorithm (constrained incremental sum of squares agglomerative clustering) implemented in "chclust" function from the "rioja" package (Juggins, 2015). The number of significantly distinct temporal bins was determined by comparing the amount of variance accounted for by a given number of clusters to a random expectation based on the broken stick model (Bennett, 1996). Clustering was performed on the Bray-Curtis distance matrix based on relative abundance data. All statistical analyses were performed in R 3.2.1 (R Core Team, 20145) using "vegan" (Oksanen et al., 2015) and "rioja" (Juggins, 2015) packages.

3.5. Chronological framework

Core chronology is based on the radiocarbon calibrated amino acid racemization dating of the bivalve species *Varicorbula gibba* (Tomasovych et al., submitted). First, 13 shells of *V. gibba* were selected for 14 C dating and analyzed at the Poznan Radiocarbon Laboratory. Radiocarbon ages were converted to calendar years using Calib7.1 (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993), the Marine13 data (Reimer et al., 2013), and a regional marine reservoir correction (Δ R) in the northeastern Adriatic equal to = -61 years (standard deviation = 50 years) (Siani et al., 2000). The extent of amino acid

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racemization (AAR) in 329 shells was analyzed at Northern Arizona University using reverse phase high pressure liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) and the procedures of Kaufman and Manley (1998). Thirty specimens of *V. gibba* were randomly selected from eleven, more or less evenly spaced, 4cm or 5cm thick intervals covering the whole core thickness. The rate of AAR was calibrated based on the 13 shells dated with ¹⁴C and three live collected individuals with the Bayesian model fitting according to Allen et al. (2013). The time dependent reaction kinetic model with the initial D/L value estimated from data and lognormal uncertainty showed the best calibration between D/L values of aspartic acid and calendar ages. AAR data in 18 shells did not pass screening criteria, and ages of 311 specimens in total were used for core chronology (Fig. 2).

Median age of *V. gibba* in the lowermost (145-150cm) increment is 1616 AD, but interquartile range of ages of *V. gibba* in this increment includes shells that died in the 16th century. Therefore, we used median ages to set the chronology of events, but the core effectively captures the past 500 years of environmental history in Panzano Bay (Fig. 2).

4. Results

4.1. Sediment parameters and geochemistry

The grain size distribution is rather homogeneous throughout the Panzano Bay core, with only a slight increase in the contribution of the >1mm fraction in the uppermost part (up to 8.9%). The sediment in the lowermost part of the core is composed of silty clay (50.4-54.5% clay). Starting from 135cm toward the upper section of the core, the amount of clay decreases to 43.5-50% and the sediment changes into clayey silt (Fig. 3). Principal component analysis (PCA) based on raw elemental concentrations illustrates the correlation between elements, with the first two axes explaining 7574.8% of the variance of the data (Fig. 4). This approach distinguishes two major groups of elements with different vertical distribution trends (Fig. 3, Table S2), and three elements (Hg, As, C-tot) that do not fall into this grouping and have distinct position in the ordination space. The first group comprises trace (Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, Mn) and conservative elements (Fe, Al), characterized by positive mutual correlations (Table S3) and a pronounced decrease in the upper 35cm. The second group includes organic and inorganic pollutants and nutrients whose raw concentrations are stable (Pb, Zn, PCB) or increase only slightly (PAH, TN-tot, TOC, P) in the lower part of the core, but sharply increase in the uppermost 35cm. Concentrations of PAH increase markedly in the upper 35 cm, although it also shows high values at 75cm. Normalizsation to Al reveals two pronounced peaks in the concentrations of the elements from the first group: at 125-130cm core depth and in the uppermost 10cm. The latter peak is also visible in normalizsed Pb and Zn values (Fig. 3). The concentration of Hg sharply increases from 12.74mg/kg at 145-150cm of the core depth,100-130cm, from 12.74mg/kg to 44.7mg/kg at 100-130cm. The Hg values then decrease upcore to a minimum in the surface sediment (8.22mg/kg). Concentrations of As vary in the lower core (2.14-9mg/kg) but gradually decrease to 4.3mg/kg in the surface sediment (0-20cm). Normalizsation to Al reveals one concentration peak of As in the upper 10cm; it coincides with the peak of all other trace elements. Total carbon remains constant throughout the core (8-9.35%), except for the lowermost part (3.7% C-tot).

4.2. Trends in foraminiferal assemblages

A total of 69 benthic foraminiferal species were identified in the sediments from Panzano Bay, with raw species richness varying between 29 and 41 species in individual samples (26.2-36.4 species after rarefaction to 240 individuals; Table S1). The highest percentage of individuals belongs to the suborder Rotaliina (63-89%), followed by Miliolina (8-29%) and Textulariina (1.5-11%). Relative abundances of suborders are generally stable throughout the core and vary notably only in the uppermost 20cm (Fig. 5). Diversity is high throughout the core and increases only in the second half of the 20^{th} century. Values of Fisher α index vary from 7.5 in the lower core to 12 in the uppermost sample; the exponential of Shannon index ranges from 14.2 to 23 and shows the same vertical trend (Fig. 6A).

330 Epifaunal/infaunal and infaunal taxa dominate the assemblages, having variable abundances in the lower core (late 17th and 18th century) and more stable abundances in its upper part (Fig. 6D). In 331 contrast, the number of infaunal species increases distinctly during the 20th century (Fig. 6E). 332 333 Foraminiferal species tolerant to both chemical and organic pollution dominate the assemblages (40-60%), with maximal abundances in the 18th, 19th and the second half of the 20th century. 334 Species known to tolerate only organic pollution make up 18.5 to 421.7% of the assemblage and 335 336 have opposite temporal trends than the organic/chemical group, with decreasing trends in the above 337 mentioned time intervals (Fig. 6F, Table S1). 338 NMDS ordination and chronological cluster analysis of the assemblages reveal two main groups of 339 samples, with the major shift in relative species abundances starting around 35cm (Figs. 6B, 6C and 7). This depth approximately corresponds to the late 19th century, ~1860 AD (Fig. 2). In the NMDS 340 341 space, samples from the lower and middle part of the core (150-35cm) are associated with positive scores along the first axis and are tightly grouped, indicating relatively homogeneous faunal 342 composition. These assemblages are characterizsed by dominance of Valvulineria sp., Nonionella 343 sp., non keeled elphidiids, Ammonia sp., A. tepida and Haynesina depressula (Fig. 5). The 130-344 135cm sample (latest 17th century) represents an outlier with unusually low abundance of *Ammonia* 345 346 sp. and an increased share of epiphytic species. In contrast, the samples from the upper 35cm of the 347 core are associated with negative scores along the first axis and are widely distributed in the ordination space, with gradually decreasing axis 1 scores. The separation of the uppermost part of 348 the core from the rest of the core in the ordination space This suggests a continuous, but relatively 349 strong shift in the assemblage composition at the onset of the 20th century (Fig. 7)in the uppermost 350 core. Here, the major drop in the abundance of Valvulineria sp. and non keeled elphidiids is 351 352 accompanied by a growing share of Miliolinella sp., Triloculina sp., Haynesina sp. and Nonion sp. 353 (Fig. 5).

Within each of the two major groups of samples, further clusters are recognizable, defined by the

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breaks at 85 and 20cm (Fig. 6C). The lowermost part of the core (150-85cm) corresponds to the
period from ~1600 to ~1800 AD and has variable foraminiferal distribution trends. The middle part
of the core (85-35 cm, ~1800 to ~1860 AD) is characterized by more stable foraminiferal
abundances and a pronounced decline of the genus *ValvIulineria*. At 35-20cm (~1860 to 1950 AD)
the diversity of the foraminiferal assemblages starts to increase, as do the abundances of epiphytic
species. The uppermost sediment (20-0cm, 1950 until today) is characterized by a further increase
in biodiversity and in the abundance of textulariids (Figs. 5 and 6A).

4.3. Relationship between foraminiferal assemblages and geochemical proxies

- NMDS axis 1 scores are positively correlated with concentrations of Cu, Ni, Cd, Mn, Fe, Al and negatively with total nitrogenTN and PCB (Table S3). The amount of clay does not correlate with axis 1 scores (Table S3).

 Total nitrogen content explains the highest proportion of variation in assemblage composition
 - Total nitrogen content explains the highest proportion of variation in assemblage composition (42.4%) and is the only explanatory variable included in the RDA analysis following the forward model selection procedure (Table S41). Nonetheless, other elements that closely (positively or negatively) correlate with total nitrogen content explain a significant amount of variation in single RDA analyses (Table S41), including TOC, organic pollutants (PAH and PCB), and trace elements (Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Cd, Zn). The assemblages from the topmost sediment layers (20th century) are clearly separated from the middle core assemblages and from assemblages at the base along RDA axis 1 (Fig. S1). This separation reflects the stratigraphic increase in the content of nitrogen, organic carbon and pollutants and the stratigraphic decline in several trace elements (Fig. 83).

5. Discussion

5.1. The effects of agricultural and maricultural activities

The agricultural use of pesticides and of organic or inorganic fertilizers releases considerable amounts of pollutants into the environment (Campos et al., 2003; He et al., 2005; Finch et al., 2014).

Pesticides contain pollutant elements such as As, Hg, Cr and Pb (Campos, 2003), while fertilizer

380 contamination includes the discharge of macronutrients (N, P, K) and trace elements, including Co, Cu, Fe, Mn and Zn (Finch et al., 2014). Maricultural activities, in turn, disperse organic matter 381 (waste feed and faeces) and nutrients (Mantzavrakos et al., 2007), leading to elevated 382 383 concentrations of P, N and TOC in the sediment (Holby and Hall, 1991; Hall et al, 1990, 1992; Mook et al., 2012). 384 In the Panzano Bay sediments, trace (Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, Mn) and conservative elements (Fe, Al) have 385 386 relatively higher concentrations in the lower part of the core and a pronounced decrease in the upper 35cm. The only discrepancy of this trend occurred in the latest 17th century, when the 387 388 concentrations of all these elements declined, with simultaneous change in grain size (Fig. 3). 389 Although this elemental fluctuation is in phase with grain size variations, absolute changes in 390 sediment grain size are very minor and it is thus difficult to infer changes in environment based on it. In the Panzano Bay sediments, only Ffew elements (Cd. Cr and Pb) sporadically and slightly 391 392 exceed the limits imposed by the Italian SQG (Fig. 3, Table S2). Only Ni has elevated values throughout the core, even when compared to the standards evaluating the effects of trace elements 393 394 to benthic organisms (ERL and ERM). Ni, Cd and Cr have a high positive correlation with the major constituents of clay minerals (Al and Fe), the main scavengers of trace elements (Romano et 395 396 al., 2013). This points to a possible grain size and mineralogical effect on the accumulation of these 397 elements throughout the core because the sediment in Panzano Bay is composed of silt and clay 398 fractions (Fig. 3). In order to account for such natural processes, to identify background levels and to determine 399 400 excess trace elements related to anthropogenic contamination, normalizsed values (trace 401 elements/Al ratios) are usually applied (Covelli et al., 2006; Romano et al., 2013). Normalizsed 402 concentrations of Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, Zn and Mn in Panzano Bay are low before the 1950s and, together with As and Pb, increase only in the last 30 years (Fig. 3). Such an increase can reflect the rapid 403 development of technology and the intensification of agricultural activities during the 20th century. 404

Similar vertical trends have been recorded in the Marano Lagoon, located 20km west of Panzano Bay (Covelli et al., 2013). The Ni concentrations are almost the same in the two areas, while Pb values are slightly higher in Panzano Bay (starting from 1980 until today). The additional source of Pb here could come from industrial or port activities (see below). The responses of foraminiferal assemblages to elevated trace element concentrations generally include declining species abundance and diversity as well as altered taxonomic composition because more sensitive species die off and more tolerant taxa prevail (Debenay et al., 2000; Coccioni et al., 2009). Foraminifera can assimilate potentially toxic elements by ingesting contaminated detritus or algae, but also by incorporating these elements during test crystallization, leading to test abnormalities (Le Cadre and Debenay, 2006; Frontalini et al., 2009; Martinez-Colón et al., 2009). In foraminiferal assemblages from Panzano Bay, however, no test abnormalities occurred, indicating that the threshold of elemental concentrations for such an impact was never reached during the last 5400 years.

5.2 Changes in foraminiferal assemblages before the 20th century

During the period 1600-1900 AD, foraminiferal assemblages in Panzano Bay are characterized by stable diversity indices and a high, variable abundance of stress tolerant genera and species, including *Valvulineria* sp., *Ammonia* sp., *A. tepida* and non keeled elphidiids (Figs. 5 and 6F). The only major discrepancy of this trend occurred in the latest 17th century, when species richness and Fisher's α decrease, following an abrupt, short term decline of *Ammonia* sp. (Figs. 5 and 6A). This event approximately coincides with a peak of Cr, Cu, Ni and Cd recorded just above this interval (Fig. 3). The genus *Ammonia* (and especially *A. tepida*) is usually described as being tolerant to all kinds of stress conditions, including organic and heavy metal pollution (Jorissen, 1988; Coccioni et al., 1997; Armynot du Châtelet et al., 2004; Ferraro et al., 2006; Frontalini and Coccioni, 2008). However, some species of this genus (namely *Ammonia parkinsoniana*) are known for their poor tolerance to high levels of trace elements (Jorissen, 1988; Frontalini and Coccioni, 2008; Coccioni

species may have caused the decline of Ammonia sp. in this interval. 431 432 Non keeled *Elphidium* species prefer an infaunal mode of life (Murray, 2006) and can be associated 433 with- food enrichment of the sediments (Donnici and Serandrei Barbero, 2002; Vidović et al., 2009, 434 2014). Theise requirements are is similar to the infaunal genus Valvulineria, which is adapted to large seasonal variability of organic matter and periodic hypoxic conditions (Jorissen, 1987; 435 436 Donnici and Serandrei Barbero, 2002; Piva et al., 2008). Moreover, Valvulineria is considered to be 437 representative of environmental conditions prevailing during the "Little Ice Age" (LIA), that include enhanced rainfall, increased fluvial runoff and increased turbidity (Piva et al., 2008). 438 Interestingly, the distinct peak of *Valvulineria* in Panzano Bay in the early 19th century (Fig. 5) 439 coincides with the maximal abundances of this genus in sediments from the central and south 440 441 Adriatic. This peak is attributed to one of the coldest and most humid phases of the LIA, 442 characterizsed by substantially increased river discharge (Piva et al. 2008). The second peak of Valvulineria in Panzano Bay occurred in the 18th century (Fig. 5), thus pointing that humid 443 conditions prevailed in the bay also during this period. To conclude, 444 hHigh abundances of Ammonia, non keeled Elphidium and Valvulineria the above three genera 445 during the 17th to 19th century suggest <u>fluctuations</u> strong seasonal variations of <u>the</u> river runoff and 446 447 organic matter input in Panzano Bay. In contrast to fluctuations in abundance of these foraminiferal taxa, vertical changes in the concentration of nutrients in the lower and middle part of the core are 448 mild. However, the spacing of increments that were analyzed for nutrients is larger than dense 449 spacing of increments analyzed for the composition of foraminiferal assemblages. In addition, 450 concentrations of nutrients, grain size distribution and vertical changes in foraminiferal assemblages 451 452 are likely further affected by vertical homogenization by bioturbation, as evidenced by decadal to centennial time averaging of Varicorbula gibba (Fig. 2), thus making difficult to detect the effects 453 of environmental fluctuations occurring at higher (seasonal or yearly) temporal resolution. 454

et al., 2009). Such a sensitivity to increased trace elemental concentrations of certain Ammonia

Accordingly, food availability was the primary controlling factor for foraminiferal community composition during this time. This conclusion is supported by the RDA results, which show high correlation between organic enrichment (N tot) and assemblage composition (Fig. 8, Table S4). Similar correlations between community composition/diversity and the type of substrate/food availability (higher abundance of infauna in organic rich muddy sediments) have been reported for modern foraminiferal assemblages in the northern Adriatic (Jorissen, 1987; Donnici and Serandrei Barbero, 2002). The foraminiferal community from Panzano Bay is also highly correlated with several trace elements (Table S3) that naturally accumulated in fine grained sediments during this period (as discussed above). Although the assemblages show no effects of elevated trace element concentrations in terms of decline of species abundance or diversity, they remain dominated by taxa tolerant to both chemical and organic pollution (Fig. 6F), as observed also in other foraminiferal assemblage in the northern Adriatic (Jorissen, 1987; Donnici and Serandrei Barbero, 2002). These results imply that the community in Panzano Bay has a long history of adaptation to elevated trace element concentrations.

5.3 Changes in foraminiferal assemblages during the 20th century

With the onset of the 20th century, the diversity of foraminiferal assemblages starts to increase (mainly with the increase of infaunal taxa, as reported in Naeher et al., 20142012), but this trend becomes pronounced only from 1950 AD onwards (Figs. 6A and 6E). However, the overall assemblage composition in the 20th century changed markedly, relatively to the pre-20th century assemblage composition. The uppermost parts of the core show a very strong and directional change in composition lasting up to the present (Fig. 7), whereas the lower and middle parts of the core were characterized by a relatively constant taxonomic composition, with a much smaller multivariate dispersion in NMDS (Fig. 7). Nutrient concentrations (TN-tot, TOC and P) display the same dynamics of increase during this period (Fig. 3), and we interpret these to have caused the observed increase in foraminiferal diversity. The nutrient increase can be attributed both to

intensifying agricultural and maricultural activities. Although upward increasing concentrations of TOC and TN can be party related to their recycling dynamic, the corresponding increase in pollutants (PAH and PCB) and other observations of major increase in pollutants and organic enrichments in the Gulf of Trieste (Heath et al., 2006) imply that the nutrient increase also reflects intensifying agricultural and maricultural activities in the Gulf of Trieste during the 20th century. The increase in diversity observed in the uppermost parts of the core not only correlates with nutrient enrichment (in accord with observations that early stages of eutrophication can increase species richness, Martinez-Colón et al., 2009) but also with higher concentrations of pollutants, thus rather contrasting with the hypothesis that pollution inevitably decreases species richness. Moreover, total TN and P in Panzano Bay sediments are similar to the values measured in sediments beneath adjacent mussel farms (Rampazzo et al., 2013; Franzo et al., 2014). Mussel farming here became an important activity by the middle of the 20th century, reaching peak production in 1990 (Melaku Canu and Solidoro, 2014). Intense mussel biodeposition enriches surface sediments underneath the farms in organic matter, causing anoxic conditions (Rampazzo et al., 2013). Nonetheless, the impact of this farming does not significantly alter the overall coastal marine system (Danovaro et al., 2004; Vidović et al., 2009, 2014). Rather, strong winds disperse and resuspend surface organic rich sediments over the broader area of the gulf (Franzo et al., 2014). Besides the increase in diversity, the 20th century is marked by a taxonomic change in foraminiferal assemblages: the abundances of Valvulineria sp., Ammonia sp. and non keeled elphidiids decrease, whereas Haynesina sp. and epiphytic genera (Miliolinella sp., Triloculina sp.) become more abundant (Figs. 5 and 6D). Additionally, in the second part of the 20th century herbivorous genus Ammonia also slightly increases its abundances, with only A. tepida not following this trend. Relatively higher abundances of these epiphytic, herbivorous genera during this period suggest the presence of seagrasses or macroalgae meadows near the sampling station (e.g., Langer, 1993; Mateu-Vicens et al., 2010). Furthermore, a slight shift in the trophic mode of foraminiferal species

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in the 20th century (increase of herbivorous taxa) indicates enhanced phytoplankton, probably reflecting higher nutrient levels. The distribution of the genera Miliolinella and Triloculina in the Gulf of Trieste has already been related to their feeding preference for diatoms in addition to organic detritus and bacteria (Hohenegger et al., 1993). Haynesina, another genus commonly found in the studied sediments, is also herbivorous, known to be tolerant to high concentrations of organic matter (Debenay et al., 2001; Armynot du Châtelet et al., 2004; Murray, 2006; Romano et al., 2008). Higher abundances of *Haynesina*, together with the increase in overall foraminiferal diversity, may be related to the 20th century nutrient enrichment (Fig. 3) because the representatives of this genus indirectly benefit by feeding on enhanced microalgal biomass (Ward et al., 2003). The faunal shift in dominance of Valviulineria to Haynesina, together with higher abundance of epiphytic species, suggests milder seasonal variations of river discharge and enhanced microalgal biomass as a consequence of nutrient enrichment. These conclusions are supported by the RDA analysis, pointing to organic enrichment as a key factor controlling the composition of foraminiferal communities in Panzano Bay (Fig. 8, Table \$41). Finally, the increase in abundance of the suborder Textulariina in this uppermost part of the core may be the result of taphonomic processes: agglutinated taxa are susceptible to postdepositional degradation, and the destruction of their tests explains the downcore reduction of their relative

5.42. Idrija mercury mine

abundances (Diz and Francés, 2009).

The activity of the Idria mercury mine is well recorded in Panzano Bay sediments. The Hg concentrations during the last 5400 years are high and significantly exceed the limits imposed by the Italian SQG, but also ERL and ERM standards (Fig. 3, Table S2). Interestingly, there are some distinct trends: the concentrations are considerably higher during the 18th century and decrease in the 19th and 20th century (Fig. 3), corresponding to the history of the mine: the onset of its

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significant impact on Panzano Bay occurred in the 18th century, when mining activity sharply increased (Covelli et al., 2012). In the early 19th century, metal recovery from the mine improved, thus releasing less Hg into the river (Covelli et al., 2006). Foraminiferal assemblages in Panzano Bay remained mostly unaffected by these elevated Hg values throughout the observed period. This implies that speciation of mercury and the bioavailability of its species are more relevant than its total concentration (Martinez-Colón et al., 2009; Acquavita et al., 2012). Most of the Hg enters Panzano Bay in particulate (unreactive) form, with only a small fraction of dissolved Hg (Faganeli et al., 2003). This suggests that the mercury species found here are not accessible to foraminiferal assemblages or, if they are bioavailable, their concentrations do not reach values sufficient to produce toxic effects.

5.53. The port of Monfalcone

Panzano Bay is also affected by the industrial and port activities of the City of Monfalcone. Although the first port features were established in the early 19th century, the port as it is known today was designed and built in the 1930s ("CPM"). In 1965, a thermoelectric plant powered by coal and fuel oil was opened in the industrial area ("The Monfalcone Thermoelectric Plant"). One of the main byproducts of coal and oil combustion are persistent organic pollutants: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB), contaminants that potentially form highly carcinogenic and mutagenic derivatives (Notar et al., 2001; Pozo et al., 2009). Moreover, the use of antifouling paints in ports produces trace elements as residues, namely Cu and Zn, but also Cd, Cr, Ni and Pb (Singh and Turner, 2009).

The presence of PAH and PCB in Panzano Bay sediments is probably related to industrial activities in the port. Their concentrations are low throughout the core and start to increase in the 19th century and especially since from the middle of the 20th century on (Fig. 3), corresponding to the opening of the thermoelectric plant. However not even the highest measured concentrations exceed Italian SQG, or ERL and ERM values. In contrast, the concentration peaks of As, Cr, Cu, Ni, Cd, Zn and

Pb in the late 20th century reflect not only agricultural sources (see above) but also intensifying port 555 (antifouling paints) and industrial activities (coal and oil burning). 556 Certain changes in foraminiferal taxonomic composition correlate with the concentrations of 557 558 persistent organic pollutants (as detected by RDA in Table S4). These include the decrease of the genus Valvulineria and the increase in the abundance of taxa tolerant to chemical pollution (Fig. 6F), 559 primarily the genus Ammonia (Fig. 5). Nevertheless, as the genus Ammonia is also known to 560 tolerate organic enrichment, a synergistic interaction of both processes (chemical and organic 561 562 pollution) may have caused such community change. 5.46. The chronology of environmental changes in Panzano Bay over the last 400 years 563 564 Integration of foraminiferal and geochemical proxies, combined with a robust chronological framework based on extensive radiometric dating of molluske shells, reveals four major phases in 565 566 the recent history of Panzano Bay. During the 17th and 18th century, the effects of port activities, as well as of agriculture in the 567 surrounding area on the composition of foraminiferal assemblages are negligible. In the early 18th 568 569 century, the release of high amounts of mercury into the environment is related to increasing activity at the Idrija mercury mine (Faganelli et al., 2003). These high inputs, however, did not 570 571 affect foraminiferal communities because the dominant particulate form of Hg is not bioavailable. 572 Environmental conditions in Panzano Bay during this period are—were probably characterized by strong seasonal variations fluctuations in the discharge of the Isonzo River -runoff- and thus in the 573 574 amount of variable organic matter input.: -Tthe foraminiferal community was therefore composed 575 predominantly of stress tolerant species adapted to such unstable conditions. During the 19th century, metal recovery at the Idrija mine improved (Covelli et al., 2006) and less 576 577 mercury was released into the bay. The onset of maricultural activities here area dates back to this

period, when bivalve farming was established along the eastern coast of the Gulf of Trieste (Melaku

Canu and Solidoro, 2014). This also marks the construction of the port of Monfalcone. The effects

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580 of bivalve farming as well as of agricultural and port activities remain negligible during this period. The first half of the 20th century, however, is marked by rapid technological development. In Panzano Bay, agricultural, maricultural and port activities intensified. The associated slight increase 582 583 of nutrients caused an increase in foraminiferal diversity and a shift in the trophic mode of the 584 species. In the second part of the 20th century, the Monfalcone thermoelectric plant, powered by coal and 585 fuel oil, became operative. This slightly increased the concentrations of persistent organic pollutants 586 587 caused a minor change in the foraminiferal community composition. The nutrient increase that started in the early 20th century extended to this period. As a consequence, the trend of increasing 588 589 foraminiferal diversity continues until today.

6. Conclusions

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The chronology of changes in the geochemical composition of sediments and foraminiferal assemblages in shallow and sheltered marine embayments of the northern Adriatic reflects agricultural and industrial development, coastal eutrophication and natural variations. Mercury is a major pollutant in the area, whose concentrations during the last 5400 years have significantly exceeded Italian sediment quality guidelines, ERL and ERM. Surprisingly, these high concentrations have not affected the ecosystem because the mercury species are not bioavailable to foraminifera. The impact of agricultural, maricultural and industrial activities intensified during the second half of the 20th century and is ongoing. This is reflected in increasing concentrations of trace elements and persistent organic pollutants (PAH, PCB), as well as in progressive nutrient enrichment, as it was presumed within the first two hypotheses. However, mining activity did not produce a progressive enrichment of mercury as anticipated in the second hypothesis, due to the improvement of the methods for the metal recovery. Increased pollutants did not cause a decline of species abundance and diversity as suggested by the third hypothesis, asThe foraminferal response to such anthropogenic impacts in Panzano Bay are shaped by their long history of adaptation to naturally elevated trace element concentrations, but also as initial stages of eutrophication can positively affect species richness. Consequently, the shift in community composition during the 20th century reflects a combination of factors, including the recorded increase of pollutants, varying natural conditions, but also a natural, preindustrial predisposition of foraminifera here to tolerate trace elemental pollution. This combination of factors - and therefore our results - are clearly applicable to many other shallow coastal areas impacted by human activities, which are largely synchronizsed ony a global scale. Finally, our approach points to the importance of using long term baseline data for evaluating the environmental and ecological status of present day marine ecosystems.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1. Results of the forward model selection in the redundancy analysis (10000 permutations were used). Proportion of variance explained in the community data (R²), F-statistic and P-values from permutation tests are reported for (a) models with a single explanatory variable and (b) for the effects of a second variable added to the model already including total nitrogen.

<u>a)</u>				<u>b)</u>			
	<u>Variance</u>				<u>Variance</u>		
<u>Variable</u>	<u>explained</u>	<u> </u>	<u> Pr(>F)</u>	<u>Variable</u>	<u>explained</u>	<u> </u>	<u>Pr(>F)</u>
				_			
<u>TN</u>	<u>0.424</u>	<u>5.885</u>	<u>0.001</u>	<u>clay</u>	<u>0.179</u>	<u>1.522</u>	<u>0.103</u>
<u>PCB</u>	<u>0.410</u>	<u>5.553</u>	<u>0.001</u>	<u>Ni</u>	<u>0.177</u>	<u>1.507</u>	<u>0.104</u>
<u>Zn</u>	0.339	<u>4.105</u>	0.007	<u>Fe</u>	<u>0.177</u>	<u>1.502</u>	<u>0.095</u>
<u>Mn</u>	<u>0.339</u>	<u>4.101</u>	0.002	<u>Cd</u>	<u>0.169</u>	<u>1.421</u>	<u>0.139</u>
<u>Pb</u>	0.328	<u>3.899</u>	<u>0.011</u>	<u>Pb</u>	<u>0.155</u>	<u>1.286</u>	<u>0.217</u>
<u>Cd</u>	0.324	<u>3.835</u>	0.003	<u>PAH</u>	<u>0.155</u>	<u>1.280</u>	<u>0.235</u>
<u>TOC</u>	0.323	3.825	0.008	<u>Cu</u>	<u>0.132</u>	1.062	<u>0.406</u>
<u>Cu</u>	<u>0.266</u>	2.903	0.036	<u>TOC</u>	<u>0.125</u>	0.998	0.472
<u>Ni</u>	0.248	2.644	0.047	<u>Zn</u>	<u>0.124</u>	<u>0.991</u>	<u>0.473</u>
<u>Fe</u>	0.225	2.322	0.057	PCB	<u>0.120</u>	<u>0.951</u>	<u>0.543</u>
<u>PAH</u>	0.225	2.320	0.063	<u>Hg</u>	<u>0.114</u>	0.897	<u>0.587</u>
<u>P</u>	<u>0.185</u>	<u>1.817</u>	0.121	<u>C</u>	<u>0.113</u>	<u>0.891</u>	<u>0.538</u>
<u>Hg</u>	<u>0.168</u>	<u>1.612</u>	0.128	<u>As</u>	<u>0.103</u>	0.807	0.667
<u>Al</u>	<u>0.157</u>	<u>1.491</u>	<u>0.169</u>	<u>Mn</u>	<u>0.084</u>	0.638	0.823
<u>Cr</u>	<u>0.128</u>	<u>1.176</u>	0.269	<u>P</u>	0.072	0.543	0.924
<u>C</u>	0.082	0.712	<u>0.654</u>	<u>AI</u>	<u>0.055</u>	<u>0.411</u>	0.977
<u>clay</u>	<u>0.081</u>	0.702	0.649	<u>Cr</u>	0.052	0.381	<u>0.981</u>
<u>As</u>	0.077	<u>0.665</u>	0.689				

Figure 1. Study area and location of sampling site in Panzano Bay.



Figure 2. Radiocarbon calibrated AAR dating of shells of the bivalve species *Varicorbula gibba*. The dashed line represent the total range of ages of *V. gibba*, i.e., bounded by the minimum and maximum age, the solid line represents the inter-quartile range of ages, i.e., it is bounded by the 25th and 75th quantiles, and the grey circle refers to the median age. We note that age range and inter-quartile age range increase downcore and death assemblages in the basal core increments are time-averaged to few centuries, most likely due to bioturbational mixing. Therefore, although median age of *V. gibba* in the lowermost (145-150cm) increment is 1616 AD, interquartile range of ages of *V. gibba* in this increment includes shells that died in the 16th century.

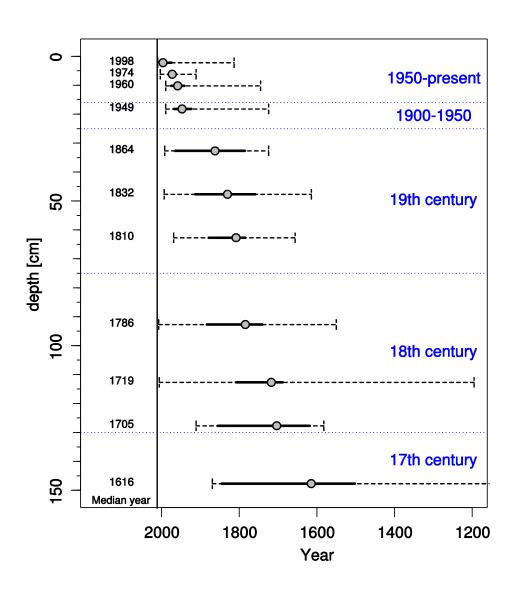


Figure 3. Vertical changes in grain size, major, minor and trace elements, nutrients and persistentorganic pollutants.

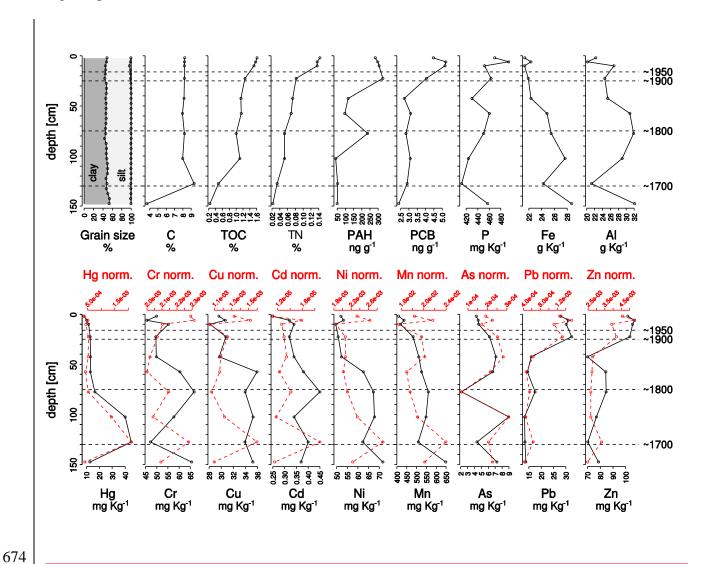


Figure 4. Principal component analysis (PCA) plot of geochemical data.

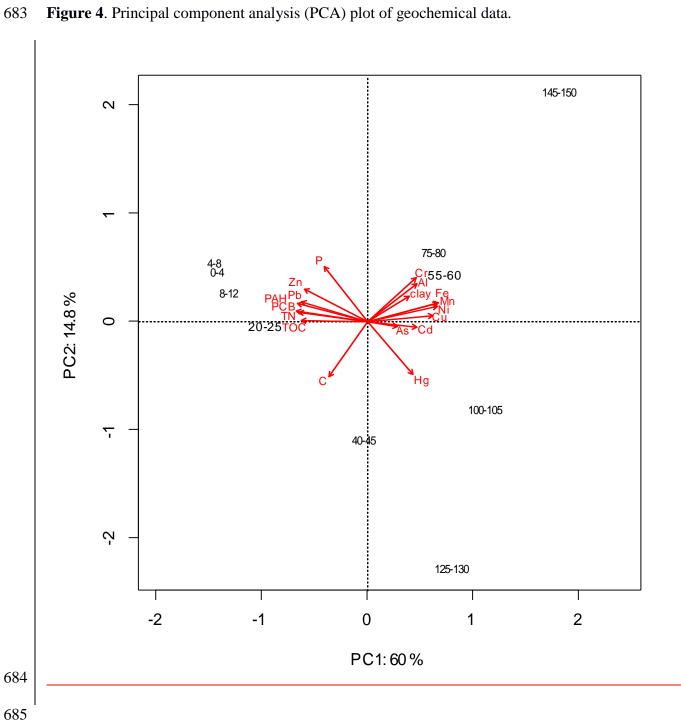


Figure 5. Temporal trends in the relative abundance of foraminiferal suborders (following suprageneric classification of Loeblich and Tappan, 1987) and dominant genera and species (represented by >2 % of individuals in the pooled data).

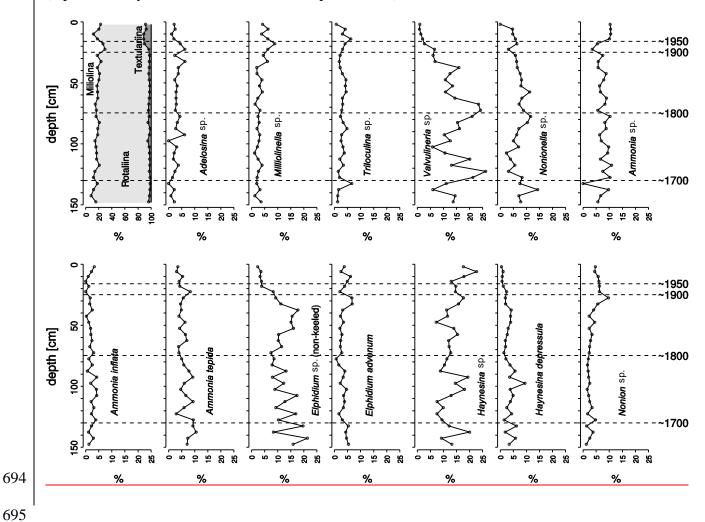


Figure 6. (a) Temporal trends in species richness, Fisher's α index, the exponent of the Shannon index. Shown are mean values with 95% CI after rarefying to 240 individuals per sample. (b) Temporal trends in species composition summarized by NMDS axis 1 scores, (c) Chronological clustering of foraminiferal assemblages (different colours group samples separated by a major compositional shift, with the number of temporal bins determined by the broken stick model), (d) Temporal trends in the relative abundances of substrate relation groups, (e) Temporal trends in the rarefied species richness of each substrate relation group, (f) Temporal trends in the relative abundances of two foraminiferal groups according to their tolerance to different types of pollution (organic and organic/chemical). Figures D-F are plotted based on data in Table S1.

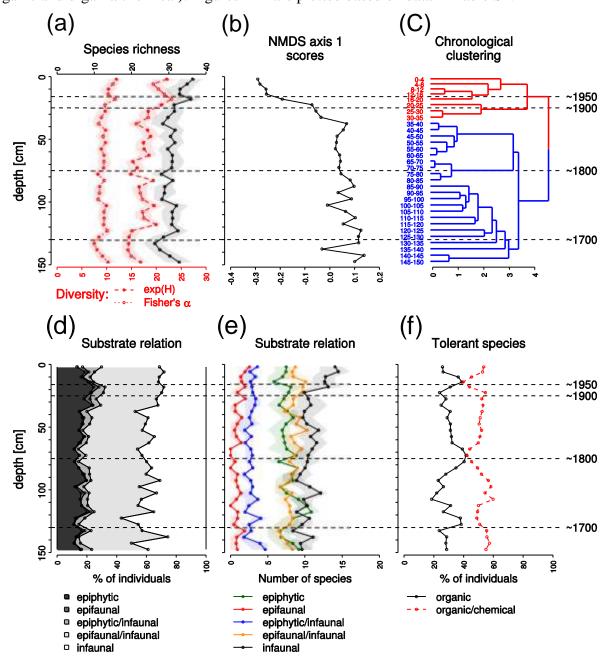


Figure 7. Non metric multidimensional scaling ordination of the foraminiferal assemblages.

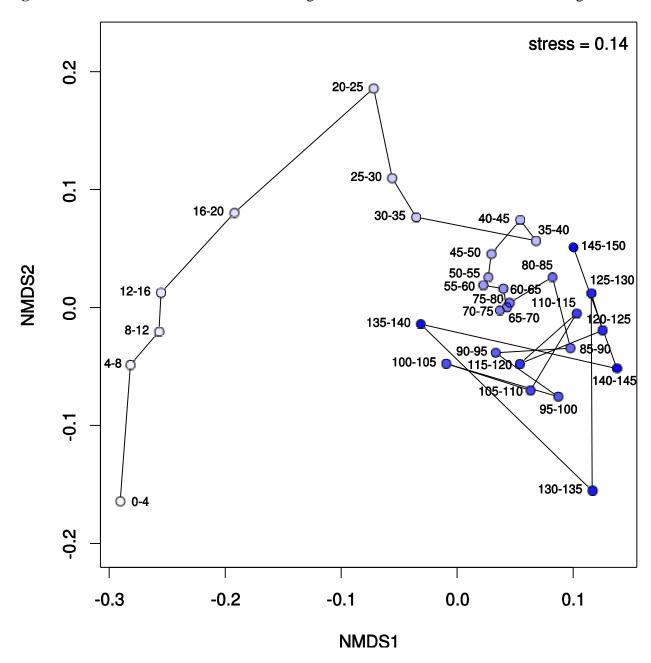
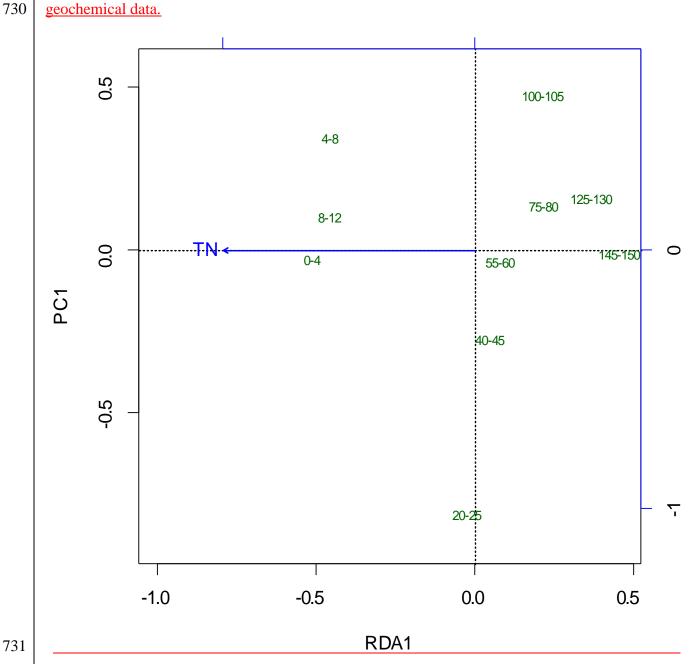


Figure 851. Redundancy analysis triplot of the foraminiferal and geochemical data based on the results of the forward model selection. Nitrogen concentrations were the only selected variable. The first canonical axis explains 42.4 % of the total variance in the data. Nitrogen concentrations were the only selected variable that explains 42.4 % of the total variance in the foraminiferal community composition. Given that only one environmental variable is used, the second axis corresponds to the first principal component that visualizes the residual compositional variation unconstrained by geochemical data.



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Table S1. (a) Absolute abundances of foraminiferal species with their ecological characteristics and tolerances to organic and chemical pollutants, (b) full list of all used sources; (c) diversity of foraminiferal community including rarefied species richness, Shannon index, the exponential of Shannon index and Fisher's α. Table S2. Concentrations of major, minor and trace elements, Italian national sediment quality guidelines (SQG), ERL and ERM standards. Table S3. Pearson's correlation coefficients between clay content, geochemical data, NMDS axis 1 scores and rarefied species richness in the subset of samples with measured elemental concentrations. Table S4. Results of the forward model selection in the redundancy analysis. Proportion of variance explained in the community data (R²). F-statistic and P-values from permutation tests are reported for (a) models with a single explanatory variable and (b) for the effects of a second variable added to the model already including total nitrogen.

Titles for supplementary tables

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