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Citation/Publisher Attribution

Xie, Z., Wang, P., Wang, X. *et al.* Organophosphate ester pollution in the oceans. *Nat Rev Earth Environ* (2022). https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00277-w

Available at: https://doi.org/10.1038/s43017-022-00277-w

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Organophosphate esters in the ocean

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21 Abstract

The large-scale application of organophosphate esters (OPEs) as flame-retardants and plasticizers 22 has led to their ubiquitous occurrences in the environment with still unknown environmental 23 impacts. This review summarizes current knowledge on the transport, biogeochemistry and effects 24 25 of OPEs in the marine environment, including polar regions. Atmospheric long-range transport and Ocean currents are responsible for the regional and global distribution of OPEs from 26 industrialized regions to open oceans. During transport, a number of biogeochemical processes 27 such as degradation, settling to deep waters, modulate the OPEs concentrations and ultimately 28 29 their impact and sinks. Trans-ocean studies provide evidence of the importance of air-water interactions, although the impact of this anthropogenic input of organic phosphorous has yet to be 30 constrained. Moreover, the potential for bioaccumulation and biomagnification of OPEs have been 31 32 investigated for different marine species, and OPEs can give rise to toxic effects. Future research needs to be focused on the biogeochemistry of OPEs in the water column, deep ocean sediments 33 34 and organisms, on a better characterization of the total anthropogenic organic phosphorus, and to 35 understand the impacts of a changing climate and human activities to the environmental fate, 36 relevance and ocean health impacts of OPEs.

37 Key points

38 OPEs have been transported from continental sources to the ocean via both atmosphere and 39 riverine discharge.

40 Air-water exchange and atmospheric deposition affect the cycling of OPEs from the coastal area41 to the remote ocean.

Re-emission of OPEs from melting snow and ice in the polar regions can impact their levels in the
water columns in the high Arctic and the Southern Ocean.

Parent OPEs and their transformation products, especially their presence in marine mammals and
fish, have become emerging concerns for the oceanic ecosystem, therefore international strategies
are required to eliminate their environmental emissions.

47

48 **1. Introduction**

Organophosphate esters (OPEs) are synthesized organic chemicals used on large scale as flame-49 retardants, plasticizers and additives in industry production, electronics, household consumer 50 products and personal care products.⁸ The increased demand for alternative flame-retardants due 51 to the regulation applied to polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) in 2003, has driven the 52 rapidly increasing consumption volume of OPEs.⁸ Over the past 20 years, the annual worldwide 53 use of OPEs increased from 300 kilotons in 2004 to 620 kilotons in 2013^{14,15}. It is estimated that 54 the OPEs market grew by 5.2% from 2016 to 2021¹⁶. Presently, OPEs account for approximately 55 15% of the total volume for flame retardants employed globally^{14,24} 56

Because of the risk that pose to human reproductive, genetic, and developmental functions,
tris(2-chloroethyl) phosphate (TCEP) is now included in the European Commission (EC) second

priority list of chemicals developed within the EU-Strategy for Endocrine Disruptors²⁵. Some 59 OPEs such as TCEP, tributyl phosphate (TBP), and tris-(2-butoxyethyl) phosphate (TBEP) are 60 also registered as high production volume (HPV, more than 1000 tons each year) chemicals under 61 European REACH (Registration, Evaluation, Authorization and Restriction of Chemicals)²⁶. 62 However, there is no international regulation existing to tackler the increasing pressure from the 63 64 OPEs emissions. Together with high level of usage and potential toxic risk to human being and ecosystems have made OPEs gain considerable prominence in recent international research.^{8,27,28} 65 The broad application for OPEs and their use as additives in plastic products have contributed 66 to their diffusive release and high environmental mobility, mainly by volatilization, leaching and 67 abrasion^{29,30}. For example, more than 44.7 million tons of electronic waste (e-waste) were 68 generated worldwide in 2016, and most them were treated for re-cycling along the coastal cities, 69 especially in developing countries³¹. The most commonly found flame retardants in older 70 electronics are polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs), which were superseded in newer 71 electronics by non-PBDE brominated flame retardants and OPEs³²⁻³⁴. Open air burning e-wastes 72 may directly release organic additives including OPEs in ambient air³⁵. For instance, OPE 73 concentrations reached 740-1000 ng/m³ in in ambient air of Canadian e-waste recycling facilities,³⁰ 74 and $3.8-57.7 \text{ ng/m}^3$ in the rural e-waste recycling area in south China³⁶. The air mass back 75 trajectories (BTs) from for the coastal sampling site³⁷, demonstrated regional atmospheric 76 77 transport of OPEs adsorbed to fine particulate matter (PM 2.5) from both industrial cities and the e-waste recycling region³⁶. A number of studies have shown river to sea fluxes of OPEs, such as 78 16-160 kg/d from the Elbe to the North Sea³⁸, 16±3.2 t/year from 40 rivers to the Bohai Sea³⁹ and 79 450-16,000 t OPEs to the Canadian Arctic Ocean⁴⁰. Model predictions have shown that OPEs are 80

persistent and mobile in water^{41,42}, which implying the riverine runoff plays an important role for
the transportation of OPEs from terrestrial source to the ocean.

The concentrations of OPEs in seawater, sediment and air are generally 2 to 3 orders of magnitude higher than those of brominated flame retardants and other legacy persistent organic pollutants (POPs) in environmental matrices^{2,43}, highlighting the need for further research on occurrence, environmental fates and biological accumulation in marine organisms and toxic impacts of OPEs in the global ocean^{8,44-48}. In 2021, Suehring et al. reported an estimate of the OPE load in the Canadian Arctic Ocean⁴⁰. While, the total amount of OPEs in the environment, as well the total amount of anthropogenic organophosphorus compounds remains unquantified.

In this Review, we summarize the studies for OPEs in the global ocean, including the Arctic and Antarctic. The major OPE sources are overviewed, and the environmental pathways are discussed for their effects on the transport processes in the ocean. Environmental concentrations and spatial trends of OPEs in air, sediment, seawater, biota and snow are separately presented. The most frequently targeted and detected OPEs in the ocean are covered in this review (**Table 1**). Box 1 | Analytical methodology for OPEs in environmental matrixes

Classical extraction methods including Soxhlet, solvent shaking, ultrasonication, microwave-assisted extraction (MAE), matrix solid-phase dispersion (MSPD), and accelerated solvent extraction (ASE) have been applied to the extraction of OPEs in solid samples¹, such as airborne particles, sediment and organism. OPEs in air are generally sampled using active air sampler composed of glass/quartz fiber filters (GFFs/QFFs) and solid sorbent (such as polyurethane foam plugs, PUFs). Extraction of OPEs from fiber filters and PUFs can be performed with Soxhlet²⁻⁴, ultrasonication^{5,6} or ASE⁷, followed by purification with different columns such as a preconditioned silica gel column (Table S1). Solid phase microextraction (SPME) is a passive sampling device used for the collection of OPEs in gas phase. The trapped compounds can be directly introduced into GC system for analysis after thermal desorption step, which has been developed as a fast and low-cost technique⁹.

For sediment and organism samples, a series of pretreatment procedures including freezedrying and homogenization are generally needed before the extraction. Due to the complexity of these two matrices, ASE, solid phase extraction (SPE), Soxhlet^{1,8,10-13} and ultrasonication¹⁷ are typically used for the extraction and purification of OPEs in sediment and biota (Table S1). For the SPE cartridge, florisil and silica gel are commonly used packing materials. Moreover, the use of QuEChERS (Quick, Easy, Cheap, Effective, Rugged and Safe) could represent a fast and "green" alternative for the quantitative screening of OPEs in sediments and marine organisms¹⁸.

Liquid-liquid extraction (LLE), in which dichloromethane (DCM) is often selected as the extraction solvent^{7,19}, or SPE^{15,17,19-24} have been widely used for the extraction of OPEs from inland and seawater (typically 500-1000 mL sample volume). Several microextraction techniques have also been applied for the extraction of OPEs in water samples, with the advantages of easy operation, reduction of solvent consumption, and improvement in extraction selectivity¹.

The determination of OPEs can be achieved by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) and liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC–MS-MS). It is widely acknowledged that background contamination is a common problem during the sampling and analytical processing of OPEs ^{42,50,56}. Therefore, work in a clean lab, solvent pre-cleaning, avoiding of use of plastics, as well as the monitoring of field and procedure blanks are needed.

96 **2. Environmental sources and pathways**

OPEs have multiple and concurrent sources in the oceanic environment. An important part of 97 these sources is believed to be land-based ⁴⁸, such as direct volatilization from consumer products 98 (for example, electronic waste) to the atmosphere^{36,49,50} and direct inputs from rivers^{39,51,52}. The 99 riverine pathway integrates in turn a variety of sources at the river basin scale such as sewage 100 treatment effluents^{53,54}, direct leaks from industries, potential run-off from plastic and/or electronic 101 waste sites, and atmospheric deposition¹³. These land-based sources result in environmental 102 temporal stocks of OPEs reaching coastal and off-shore areas due to atmospheric transport and 103 deposition^{55,56} and /or waterborne transport associated with currents⁵⁴. There is compelling 104 evidence of the widespread occurrence of OPEs in wastewater^{25,57,58}, inland surface water⁵⁹, 105 ground water⁶⁰ and seawater⁶¹ from Europe, North America and Asia. Additionally, oceanic plastic 106 107 debris may represent in-situ local sources of OPEs and other organic plastic additives due to leaching. For example, between 0.3 and 0.9 Mt/y of phthalic acid esters (PAEs) have been 108 estimated to be leached to the global oceans from marine fragments of polyethylene (PE) based on 109 laboratory release experiments conducted on PE plastic bags⁶². Effective release of OPEs and 110 PAEs from PE and PVC was confirmed in another laboratory study performed on surface and 111 deep-waters collected in the Mediterranean Sea⁶³. Interestingly, a more efficient additive release 112 at the ocean surface than in deep seawater was observed⁶³, suggesting that the local sources of 113 114 plastic additives could vary with depth pointing to differential exposure levels to deep and surface water marine organisms. Both laboratory experiments^{62,63} highlighted as well the important role 115 of marine prokaryotes promoting the release of OPEs. Once in the ocean, OPEs are known to 116 accumulate in marine sediment and aquatic biota, such as fish and in the tissues of marine 117 mammals^{8,19,64-66}(Fig. 1). 118



Figure 1. Major environmental sources, processing and pathways of OPEs in the coastal and open oceans. The major continental sources of OPEs include industries area, wastewater treatment plant, e-waste cycling plants and ambient emissions. OPEs undertake environmental pathways e.g. atmospheric and oceanic transport, air-water exchange, atmospheric dry and wet deposition, sedimentation, bioaccumulation and microbial interactions.

125

126 **2.1. Transport from rivers**

The riverine transport of OPEs has been highlighted as an efficient pathway contributing to their coastal inputs and subsequent water-borne oceanic stocks. Modeling estimations indicate that chlorinated-OPEs are more efficiently transported by rivers than non-chlorinated OPEs due to their higher water solubility and persistency^{40,41}. Field studies investigating the riverine inputs of OPEs are still discrete and not a large spatial distribution is covered allowing for effective integration over regional and oceanic scales. However, available data support the important role of rivers transporting OPEs⁶⁷. For example, the presence of organic plastic additives (OPEs, PAEs and

bisphenols) in the dissolved water phase from the Rhone river (France), the main freshwater source 134 of the NW Mediterranean Sea, accounted for more than 40% of the total dissolved anthropogenic 135 organic contaminants in surface waters of the river, including PAHs, aliphatic hydrocarbons, 136 pesticides and polyfluorinated alkyl substances.⁵¹ The estimated OPEs inputs associated to the 137 water dissolved phase from the Rhone river to coastal NW Mediterranean Sea varied from 2 to 11 138 t/y (Σ_9 OPEs). In addition, important inputs associated with the sedimentary material exported by 139 140 the Rhone are expected in the Gulf of Lion, based on the OPE concentrations measured in the 141 sediments at the river outlet ⁶⁸. OPEs have been measured at high concentrations in the dissolved 142 water phase (up to $\sim 1 \mu g/L$), at the Amazon river plume (in the Western Tropical Atlantic Ocean) suggesting the Amazon River as a major source of these contaminants to the tropical North Atlantic 143 Ocean. This finding points to medium-/long-range contaminant transport, most certainly facilitated 144 by the highly stratified conditions offered by the river plume⁵². Both rivers have been reported to 145 export large amounts of plastic waste^{69,70}. However, a direct link between the organic additive 146 concentrations at the water surface and the abundance of floating plastics couldn't be stablished or 147 was not investigated. The total riverine input of OPEs was estimated to be 18 t/y from 40 major 148 rivers entering into the Bohai Sea, North China³⁹. In Europe, the riverine input of OPs into the 149 North Sea via Elbe, Ems, and Weser was estimated to be about 50 t/y.^{22,71} Overall, the riverine 150 discharges of OPEs to the coastal areas can be transported with ocean currents further to the open 151 152 ocean. 153

- 154
- 155
- 156

157 **2.2. Long-range atmospheric transport**

Long-range transport especially via atmosphere has been considered an important pathway for 158 global distribution of POPs ^{72,73}. Since early predictions of atmospheric half-live times of OPEs 159 were generally below the threshold (2 days) to meet the long-range atmospheric transport (LRAT) 160 criterion of the Stockholm Convention on POPs, these chemicals were thought to be degradable 161 enough as to have low potential for LRAT⁷⁴. However, improved modeling estimations 162 considering episodic transport, sorption to the particle phase, impact of water-mass and the 163 uncertainty of the environmental half-live times show that some of the most used OPEs could 164 travel very long distance⁴². This is consistent with filed observations showing that OPEs are 165 ubiquitous in the atmosphere globally. Indeed OPEs were measured in atmospheric particles from 166 the North Sea, the North American Great Lakes, the Mediterranean Sea, across the Arctic, Pacific, 167 Indian, Atlantic and Southern Oceans, and in ocean and Polar Regions indicating they undergo 168 LRAT ^{2-4,6,43,61,75}. 169

Liu et al.⁷⁶ estimated heterogeneous reaction rate constants for OPEs in air, and demonstrated 170 that particle-bound OPEs are highly persistent in the atmosphere. However, OPEs were initially 171 thought to be degradable enough to have less persistency in the environment and therefore low 172 potential for LRAT ⁷⁴. Reaction with the OH radicals in the atmosphere was expected to be the 173 dominant atmospheric loss process for the OPEs⁷⁷. The half-life time of TCIPP was estimated in 174 the European Risk Assessment from 2008 to be 8.6 hours⁷⁸. This led to the wrong conclusion, that 175 176 LRAT of TCIPP can be excluded. The atmospheric lifetimes for OPEs are estimated to be less than 1.3 days based on their gaseous OH radical rate constants⁷⁶. However, recent evidence that 177 many OPEs present in the gas phase rather than the particle phase^{71,79}. The persistence and LRAT 178 179 potential of OPEs in gas phase might be lower estimated, as they are very water-soluble. Moreover,

heterogeneous OH initiated oxidation was studied for OPEs in air, and approximate atmospheric 180 lifetimes were estimated to be 5.6 (5.2-6.0), 4.3 (3.5-5.6), and 13 (11-14) days for particle-bound 181 TPhP, TEHP, and TDCIPP⁷⁶. This calculated particle phase lifetime suggested medium-range or 182 long-range transport potential of particle bound OPEs in atmosphere. Many studies have revealed 183 the presence of OPEs in remote environments including oceanic and polar regions as discussed 184 above, which also demonstrates their long-range transport potential ^{5,6,43,80,81}. In spite of this, OPEs 185 include both halogenated and nonhalogenated compounds, and show a wide range of physical and 186 chemical properties, suggesting that their atmospheric transport is going to be variable due to wide 187 differences in persistence, particle sorption, and air-water partitioning. Most observations in the 188 remote areas were associated with chlorinated OPEs (TCEP and TCIPP)^{61,81}, which also implied 189 stronger potential of LRAT for specific compounds. 190

191

192 2.3. Air-water exchange and atmospheric dry and wet deposition

During transport from source regions to remote oceans, OPEs will be subject to exchange at the interfaces between different environmental media. ^{82,83} Atmospheric depositional processes play important role in the environmental fate of OPEs, contribute to aquatic ecosystems burden and support OPEs accumulation in marine food webs^{61,84}.

The magnitude of atmospheric deposition or volatilization is a function of the physicochemical properties (especially Henry's law constant) and the concentrations of OPEs in air and water, and will be further affected by a number of environmental variables such as wind speed, temperature, salinity, and precipitation frequency and intensity^{82,83}. There are several major processes causing atmosphere-ocean interaction of OPEs, including diffusive air-water exchange between the gaseous and dissolved phases, atmospheric dry deposition of particle-bound OPEs, and wet 203 deposition by rain and snow^{5,61,81,85}. Briefly, dry deposition (F_{DD}), wet deposition (F_{WD}), and air-204 water exchange (F_{AW}) can be estimated by,

$$205 \quad F_{DD} = v_D C_A \tag{1}$$

 $206 \quad F_{WD} = C_{Rain} p \qquad [2]$

207
$$F_{AW} = k_{AW} \left[\frac{C_G}{H'} - C_W \right]$$
[3]

208 Where C_A , C_G , C_W and C_{Rain} are the chemical's concentrations in particles, gas phase, water 209 (dissolved phase), and rain, respectively. H' is the dimensionless Henry's law constant, v_D is the 210 deposition velocity of the particles, p is the rain precipitation, and k_{AW} is the air-water mass transfer 211 coefficient.⁸⁶

Air-water exchange fluxes of OPEs have been estimated in a few studies. Na et al. collected air 212 and seawater samples simultaneously on an expedition from the North Pacific to the high Arctic⁵. 213 The air-water exchange flux ranged from -0.79 to 0.59 $ng/m^2/d$, and TiBP contributed the largest 214 proportion with seawater to air volatilization ranging from 0.19 to $0.72 \text{ ng/m}^2/\text{d}$. In contrast, TCIPP 215 and TCEP exhibited net deposition fluxes. In the North Atlantic and European Arctic, Li et al. 216 reported the net volatilization flux of 5 to 1080 ng/m²/d, 61 to 12300 ng/m²/d, 12 to 2050 ng/m²/d, 217 and 3 to 943 ng/m²/d for TCEP, TCIPP, TiBP, and TnBP, respectively⁶¹. While in the coastal area 218 of China, the gaseous exchange fluxes fluctuated in both directions⁷. TCIPP showed the highest 219 220 air to seawater deposition flux of $395 \text{ ng/m}^2/d$, however TCEP displayed the highest volatilization flux of 1410 ng/m²/d. McDonough et al. calculated fugacity ratios from average equilibrium-221 corrected OPE concentrations in passive air and water samples, and found OPEs at dynamic 222 equilibrium across the Farm Strait in the Arctic, with the exception of some volatilization of TnBP 223

observed at Cape Bounty lake sites in 2016 and of TDCIPP in Barrow Strait in 2015, and
 deposition of TPHP⁸⁵.

In the tropical and subtropical areas of the North and South Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, Castro-226 Jiménez et al. calculated gaseous concentrations of OPEs from their measured particle 227 concentrations and Henry's law constants resulted from various models⁸¹. The resulting mean 228 gross diffusive fluxes of 14 OPEs with the estimated gaseous phase OPEs varied from 200 to 229 $60000 \text{ ng/m}^2/\text{d}$ depending on the physicochemical properties used in the calculations. These 230 studies showed that H values calculated from different models could cause the fluxes varying in 231 232 1-2 orders of magnitude, which suggesting accurate H values of OPEs need to be determined with appropriate experiment design to decline the uncertainty of air-water exchange flux. 233

The magnitude of air-water exchange direction and flux depends non-linearly on wind speed, 234 with enhanced fluxes at high wind speeds ^{83,87}. In addition, the processes affecting the dissolved 235 and atmospheric concentrations of OPEs can affect the magnitude of air-water exchange. For the 236 237 OPE components with relatively short half-live times in the atmosphere, volatilization from seawater to air may control the diffusion fluxes. In contrast, dissolved concentrations of 238 hydrophobic OPEs such as TEHP and EHDPP can be depleted by partitioning to particular matters, 239 240 which upon settling, may deplete OPEs in the surface ocean, a process known as the biological pump. Photo- and bio- degradation can also deplete dissolved phase OPEs, thus favoring the air-241 242 to-water diffusive fluxes. Therefore, both the biological and degradative pumps favor deposition 243 of OPEs to the marine environment. These biogeochemical controls on atmospheric deposition have been extensively studied for other semivolatile compounds⁸⁸, but remain unquantified for 244 OPEs. 245

The particle-bound OPEs contributed to $67 \pm 17\%$ of the total OPEs in the European Arctic⁶¹, 246 accounted for $52 \pm 23\%$ in the Bohai and Yellow seas⁸⁹, 71-93% in the North Pacific to the Arctic, 247 $35 \pm 17\%$ in the South China Sea⁷⁹, $86 \pm 25\%$ in the North Sea³, 45% at German coast (Büsum)⁷¹, 248 59% at Dalian, China⁹⁰. The other studies have only determined OPEs in particle 249 phase^{2,4,14,43,56,81,91}. In the Northeast Pacific and the Arctic, the dry particle-bound OPEs deposition 250 fluxes were estimated ranging from 13.64 to 94.17 $ng/m^2/d^5$. The same pattern was present in the 251 North Atlantic and European Arctic, while the deposition flux of OPEs was only 2-16 $ng/m^2/day^{61}$, 252 which is similar to those estimated for the South China Sea ^{79,91}. More intensive particle-bound 253 254 OPEs deposition processes were observed in the open Mediterranean ($70 \sim 880 \text{ ng/m}^2/d$) and Black Seas $(300 \sim 1060 \text{ ng/m}^2/\text{d})^4$, the North African coastal Mediterranean $(18 \sim 180 \text{ ng/m}^2/\text{d})^{56}$, and 255 the Bohai and Yellow Seas (21 - 250 ng/m²/d)⁸⁹. These results suggested atmospheric dry 256 257 deposition can significant remove particle bound OPEs from atmosphere.

In the tropical and subtropical Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans, the dry deposition fluxes of particle-bound OPEs ranged from 4 to 140 ng/m²/d, with higher deposition fluxes in the North Pacific and Indian Oceans ⁸¹. In most studies, TCIPP and TCEP dominated the total deposition flux in the oceans. It is estimated that the surface waters of the tropical and subtropical oceans receive a yearly-integrated amount of \sim 2 to 13 kt/year of OPEs (sum of 14 compounds) from the dry deposition of particle-bound OPEs⁸¹.

Wet deposition by rain and snow precipitation can be very important quantitatively in some climatic regions and for some seasons, as an input of OPEs and other organic pollutants to marine environments. Furthermore, both snow and rain amplify the concentrations of organic pollutants in the receiving waters^{92,93}. This amplification of concentrations by snow is driven by the high specific surface area of snow-flakes and raindrops, which increase the rain-air washout ratios. The

high water solubility of some OPEs also favor wet deposition fluxes. Both the washout ratios for 269 snow and rain are generally close to 10⁵ for OPEs⁹². Although the measurements of OPEs in rain 270 water are only available for samples collected on land by few studies^{92,94,95}, these comprise 271 temperate and polar environments. The high concentrations of OPEs measured in rain water imply 272 that wet deposition cannot be ignored, especially for the coastal seas. OPEs in rain water have also 273 been reported for the South Shetland islands (Antarctica)⁹². In the high latitude oceans, snow 274 deposition plays as effective scavenger for atmospheric OPEs in the Arctic, the Southern Ocean 275 and the Antarctic. The importance of snow deposition has been highlighted by the relatively high 276 OPE concentrations found in the snow samples from the Arctic and Antarctic expeditions ^{61,96,97}. 277 Snow scavenging followed by snow melting can represent an important flash of pollutants from 278 coastal land to coastal waters, which has been assessed for other pollutant⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁰, but its relevance 279 280 need to be explored for OPEs.

281

282 **2.4. Re-emission from melting ice and snow**

The areas of sea ice in the Polar Regions react very sensitively to climatic changes. Because of 283 global warming, the areas of sea ice and snow cover are shrinking, and glaciers are transporting 284 their ice toward the low latitudes more rapidly¹⁰¹. Along with the processes of ice retreat and snow 285 melting, chemical contaminants trapped in snow including OPEs could be directly discharged into 286 287 the water column. Consequently, the fresh input from melting ice and snow enhanced the OPE 288 concentrations in seawater from the East Greenland coast, which are 2-5 times higher than those in the Farm Strait⁶¹. Besides, elevated OPE concentrations were measured in the high Arctic Lake 289 Hazen (81°49.5'N, 70°42.8'W) with concentrations from 6.8-19.3 ng/L, which are 5-10 times 290 higher than the North Atlantic Ocean and the Northeast Pacific Ocean^{5,61,102}. 291

In the Southern Ocean and the Antarctic, raised atmospheric concentrations of OPEs have been measured along the Antarctic coast, which can be attributed to the re-emission from the melting snow and ice of the Antarctic⁴³. The studies for organic contaminants in snow and air in the Arctic and Antarctic have shown that melted snow inputs could influence the relative abundance of the chemical components in coastal seawater and amplify their seawater-air fugacity gradient, such as polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), neutral polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFASs) and OPEs^{55,103}.

299 Climate change may lead to an increase of the rain periods with a decrease of snow deposition 300 periods, which would mean that for some regions, such as the western Antarctica peninsula, the 301 deposition by rain could become more important during the coming decades⁹².

302

303 2.5. Ocean current transport

Previous studies indicated that chlorinated-OPEs can be efficiently transported via ocean 304 currents due to their persistence, lower volatility and high solubility ⁴⁰⁻⁴². OPEs have a wide range 305 of physical and chemical properties, and varied from very polar to highly hydrophobic, which may 306 facilitate the transport of some OPEs by water. TCIPP was generally found to be the major 307 chlorinated phosphates in urban rainwater and Elbe River in Germany.^{95,104} Many studies also 308 revealed higher levels of OPEs in the coastal water compared with those in the open seas.^{17,20} The 309 310 importance of water-borne transport for OPEs depends on the deposition and subsequent transfer 311 of OPEs to the water compartment, followed by their persistence and mobility in the water compartment⁴¹. The model results showed larger portions of the OPE emissions could enter the 312 water body, and with motilities from 85% for TPhP to 98% TCIPP⁴¹. The higher mobility of the 313 314 Cl-OPEs versus non-Cl-OPEs was caused by the low degradation rate of Cl-OPE in water, which

have been also proved by the measurements of OPEs in lake water^{105,106} and oceanic water^{40,52,61,107}. 315 Sühring et al determined 11 OPEs in surface water from Canadian Arctic. The median of Σ Cl-316 OPEs (10 ng/L) was 6 times higher than Σ non-Cl-OPEs 1.3 ng/L. High concentrations of OPEs in 317 samples from the Mackenzie River plume suggested riverine discharges acting as an OPE source 318 to the Canadian Arctic. The \sum_{11} OPE inventory was estimated with a median of 4100 tonnes of in 319 the Canadian Arctic Ocean with >99% of the OPE inventory estimated to be in the water column⁴⁰. 320 This study highlighted water-borne OPEs can be subject to long-range transport via oceanic 321 circulations. Morever, OPEs are widely used plasticizers and flame retardants in plastic, and 322 floating debris can transport between continents via ocean circulations¹⁰⁸, it is speculated that 323 ocean gyres can bring OPEs into the open waters such as in the Southern Ocean.⁶ 324

325

326 **2.6. Degradation of OPEs**

The environmental degradation of OPEs is a key issue as it determines the persistence of these chemicals in the environment. The persistence is a key aspect when assessing the risk of anthropogenic chemicals. Furthermore, in the natural environment, photo- and bio- degradation are key sinks modulating the fate of many organic pollutants, including the marine environment^{109,110}.

Generally, the atmosphere is a very efficient medium for the environmental degradation of organic compounds due to the occurrence of OH radicals, among others. There are few mechanistic studies for the atmospheric degradation of OPEs, though reaction rates for the OH heterogeneous oxidation of several OPEs such as TPhP, TBEP, TEHP, TDCIPP have been measured⁷⁶. The very short half-life time proposed by the EU risk assessment in 2008 for TCIPP (8.6 h) leading to the wrong conclusion that TCIPP will be not subjected to LART⁷⁸. From these reaction rates, the atmospheric half-live times of these OPEs range from few days to weeks. These relatively long
residence times in the atmosphere are enough to explain their potential for long-range atmospheric
transport, and their occurrence in the global oceanic atmosphere.

In seawater, the degradation of several OPEs has been evidenced from a number of 341 observations¹⁰⁶. Organophosphate diesters are the degradation products of OPEs flame retardants 342 343 and plasticizers, and their occurrence can be generally considered a field evidence of degradation of OPEs, although some OPE diesters may have also industrial sources (For example directly 344 added to commercial products as flame retardants and plasticizers).¹¹¹ Organophosphate diesters 345 have not only been found in rivers and lakes ^{112,113}, but also in fish from global marine 346 environments ¹¹⁴. However, the degree to which these chemicals came from riverine inputs or were 347 in-situ transformation products is unclear¹¹⁵. Diesters have also been detected in polar bears ¹¹⁶, 348 top predators of the Arctic marine food web. Nevertheless, the in-situ production of diesters in 349 seawater, such as by bacterial degradation, has not been proven so far. 350

351 Photodegradation of OPEs in water has been reported in a few laboratory studies. Although direct photolysis did not account as the main photodegration mechanism, depletion of OPEs 352 occurred in pure water with dissolved oxygen, and the removal rates could be enhanced in river 353 water¹¹⁷. A study with lake water for photodegradation of 5 OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP, TBOEP, TiBP 354 and TnBP) showed the sunlight could degrade TiBP, TnBP and TBOP in 15 days, but was less 355 active for TCEP and TCIPP¹⁰⁶. The photodegradation is more effective for nonchlorinated OPEs 356 were also proved by the depletion of OPEs in snow and rainwater¹⁰⁵ and global presence of TCEP 357 and TCIPP. While the photodegradation process of OPEs in both air and sewater need to be further 358 359 explored.

The capacity of microorganisms to degrade OPEs has been studied mostly in isolated bacteria 360 that represent less than 1% of the wild bacteria inhabiting in the environment¹¹⁸. The isolation of 361 OPE-degrading bacteria has been performed in an attempt to optimize environmental-friendly 362 contamination removal strategies, especially for the chlorinated OPE compounds. However, only 363 few OPE-degrading strains have been cultured to date, mainly from soil habitats. Isolated strains 364 able to degrade and use TCEP and TDCIPP as the sole source of P belong to Alphaproteobacteria 365 Sphingobium and Sphingomonas species^{119,120}, Firmicultes *Brevibacillus brevis sp.* that is able to 366 degrade TCP^{121,122}, and the TPhP- and TCrP-degrading Rhodococcus and Sphingopyxis¹²³ and 367 Roseobacter¹²⁴. 368

Like other organophosphorus triesters, OPEs degradation involves the hydrolysis of the phosphorester bonds mediated by phosphotriesterases, then phosphodiesterases and then phosphomonoesterases. The only phosphotriesterase identified so far that mediates TCEP and TDCIPP biodegradation is a haloalkylphophorus hydrolase (HAD) that differs from the common thee families of phosphotriesterases used to degrade aryl dialkyl phosphates, such as parathion and paraoxon among others¹²⁵⁻¹²⁸.

OPEs can be biodegraded by activated sludge from domestic sewage treatment plants and are 375 readily susceptible to biodegradation in rivers by naturally occurring microbial populations¹²⁹. 376 377 While, the biodegradation of OPEs and characterization of the associated microbial communities 378 in the natural environment is poorly studied. Currently, only two studies have been performed: one 379 in sediments of a river receiving wastewater discharges, that observed TCEP degradation rates in Burkholderiales, Rhizobiales, 380 communities dominated by Rhodobacterales, and Methylophilaceae¹³⁰; and one in phosphorus-limited natural seawater, in which consumption of 381 several OPEs was observed along with an increase of activity of Flavobacteria¹³¹. Given the 382

widespread occurrence of Flavobacteria in the global oceans, OPEs biodegradation could be a 383 common feature in the upper ocean¹³². Furthermore, if OPEs are especially degraded in P limiting 384 waters, then OPEs would be more persistent when P is not a limiting nutrient. Recently, it has been 385 shown that phosphodiesterase activities are much more abundant than expected in the water 386 columns¹³³, and they can account for relevant P acquisition by marine bacteria under inorganic P 387 388 limitation, favoring the link between atmospheric inputs of anthropogenic organic P and its utilization as a nutrient by marine microbiomes. These processes could be important interactions 389 between anthropogenic chemicals and the Earth system functioning¹³¹. In any case, with the 390 391 current knowledge, the half-live of OPEs in marine waters remain unknown, but these may be dependent on the biogeochemical province. 392

393

394

3. Occurrences of OPEs in the global ocean

395 Previous review summarized occurrences of OPEs in various matrices, including atmosphere, water, sediment and biota¹³⁴, which indicated their ubiquity in the world and possible adverse 396 397 effect on ecosystem. Here we emphasized their occurrence of OPEs in the global ocean and Polar 398 Regions as well as environmental fate of OPEs via long-range transport.

399

400 **3.1. OPEs in atmosphere**

401 OPEs have been widely detected in the atmosphere of the marginal as well as the high seas (Fig. 2a). Over the Pacific, Indian, Arctic, and Southern Oceans, the concentrations of \sum OPEs ranged 402 from 120 to 2900 pg/m^3 in airborne particles in 2010-2011, with the predominant compounds of 403 TCEP and TCIPP⁴³. The level and profile were consistent with the observation from the 404 Northwestern Pacific to the Arctic Ocean (232-1884 pg/m³) in 2018⁵. From the tropical and 405 406 subtropical Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans, the concentrations of \sum_{14} OPEs ranged from 360

to 4400 pg/m³ in particle samples collected mostly in 2011 during the MALASPINA
circumnavigation campaign ⁸¹, with TCIPP, TnBP and EHDPP being the predominant OPEs (Fig.
2a). In the West Pacific, the Indian Ocean and the Southern Ocean, OPEs (sum of TBEP, TCEP,
TCIPP and TDCIPP) were at the levels of a few to hundreds of pg/m³ in the particle samples
collected along a global cruise from China to Antarctic over 2009-2010⁶, suggesting their
circumpolar and global distribution (Fig. 2a). These levels were generally two orders of magnitude
higher than those of BFRs in the ocean atmosphere ¹³⁵.

In the Polar Regions, OPEs have been frequently found in the Arctic for the past decade.¹³⁶ For 414 instance, \sum_{13} OPEs in atmospheric particles was found at concentrations up to 1450 pg/m³ in 415 European Arctic from 2012 to 2013.² In Canadian Arctic, the level of Σ_{13} OPEs in atmospheric 416 particles showed a generally increasing tendency from 2007 to 2013 with a median concentration 417 of 50 pg/m³¹⁴. Comparably, the concentrations of eight OPEs were found in the range of 29-180 418 pg/m^3 for the particle phase and 7- 163 pg/m^3 for gas phase in Arctic 2014 (Fig. 2a)⁶¹. Whereas, 419 at Longyearbyen in the European Arctic, a higher level of particle-bound OPEs were found with a 420 median of 334 pg/m³², which might be caused by local emission. Furthermore, elevated 421 concentrations of OPEs $(357-852 \text{ pg/m}^3)$ were observed in the Arctic based on passive air sampling 422 in 2015¹³⁷, and higher level of OPEs (232 to 1884 pg/m³) was even obtained in the air samples 423 from the Northwestern Pacific to the Arctic Ocean.⁵ Recently, 4 OPEs in the particle phase were 424 also found by non-target and suspect characterization of organic contaminants in Arctic air 425 (Zeppelin Station), including TCEP and TCIPP.¹³⁸ 426

427

428

a









Figure 2. Global distribution of OPEs in the oceanic air ^{2,4,6,43,61,81,89,91}(a), which is synthesized
with OPE data from research cruises, e.g. R/V Polarstern (Germany)⁶¹, Snow Dragon (China)⁶ and
Malaspina circumnavigation expedition (Spain)⁸¹. The lower figure shows seasonal variation of
OPEs in air at Yongxing Island in the South China Sea in 2018 (b)⁷⁹

There is limited data on these chemicals in the Antarctic. The concentrations of OPEs ranged 438 from 6.0 to 141 pg/m³ in four particle samples collected nearby the Antarctic Peninsula in 2010^6 . 439 A long-term air monitoring campaign in the Western Antarctic Peninsula over 2014-2018 revealed 440 that the concentrations (gas + particle phases) of \sum_{8} OPEs ranged from 33.9 to 404 pg/m³ with a 441 mean of 119±12.0 pg/m³.¹³⁹ The most abundant OPEs were TnBP and TCIPP in air, and 442 chlorinated-OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP and TDCIPP) accounted for 51% of total OPEs on average. This 443 level was even comparable to those found in Arctic air, suggesting input of OPEs into Antarctic 444 via LRAT in recent years. 445

In general, elevated levels of OPEs in air are found in coast-near regions, especially near urban and industrial areas, followed by the Arctic and finally the Southern Ocean. This ubiquity of OPEs in the global atmosphere contrasts with previous model predictions of limited long-range atmospheric transport. Such discrepancy is probably related to a poor empirical knowledge of the physicochemical properties of OPEs.

451

452 **3.2. OPEs in seawater**

Most available data on OPEs in water were from studies on effluents from the wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs), as well as inland surface waters^{28,41,51,57,134}. WWTPs were considered an important sink of many POPs emitted from urban anthropogenic sources, where the OPEs reach concentrations up to $\mu g/L^{134,140,141}$. Experiments for the removal rate of TCIPP from WWTPs in Germany have shown more than 50% of TCIPP found in effluent, which rinsing the concern for OPEs in surface water. Consequently, OPEs have been found in the surface waters from lakes and rivers with concentrations ranging from 10 to 1000 ng/L ^{41,51,60,67,142}.

a













469 c



470

Figure 3. Concentrations of OPEs (ng/L) in seawater in the global oceans^{5,20,51,52,61,65,104,143-145},
which shows high levels of OPEs present at marginal seas of Asia and Europe (a); OPEs discharged
from the Amazon River were transported in the tropical Atlantic⁵²(b), and oceanic transport of
OPEs from the North Atlantic to the Arctic Ocean⁶¹ (c)

475

In a survey in coastal areas of seven European countries¹⁴⁶, OPEs were detected in all samples and the sum concentrations of OPEs (TBOEP, TCEP, TCIPP, EHDPP, TNBP, TPHP, and TDCIPP) ranged from 0.43 to 867 ng/L in transitional/coastal water (Fig. 3a). High levels were found in the seawaters from the UK (\sum_{7} OPEs, 275±34.9 ng/L) and Portugal (\sum_{7} OPEs, 547±437 ng/L), correlating with the sampling sites that were the closest to urban areas. Comparable levels (mean 243 ± 327 ng/L) were found for the \sum_{9} OPEs in the dissolved water phase samples collected in the

Bay of Marseille (NW Mediterranean Sea)⁶⁵. Likewise, from the German Bight (North Sea), the 482 concentrations of \sum_{18} OPEs were at a range of 5-50 ng/L in the seawater in 2010, correlating 483 negatively (r=-0.94) with salinity²². These results are generally consistent with those in coastal 484 seas of China, where the concentrations of \sum 70PEs were at a range of 8-98 ng/L in the Bohai 485 Sea and Yellow Sea, and TCIPP and TCEP were the dominant pollutants ¹⁴⁷. However, relatively 486 higher levels of OPEs were also observed in seawater near the coastal cities in China, e.g., 91.9-487 507 ng/L in the Yellow Sea and East China Sea ²¹, 87.6 to 969.4 ng/L in the Laizhou Bay⁶⁷, and 488 810-3620 ng/L in the off-shore of Bohai Bay¹⁷ (Fig. 3a). These values are consistent with 489 observations in the Pearl River Delta, South China Sea, Yellow River Estuary and Tokyo Bay, 490 where the sum concentrations of \sum_{14} OPEs in the range of 15-1790 ng/L, 1-147 ng/L, 253-1720 491 ng/L, and 107-284 ng/L, respectively (Fig. 3a).¹⁴⁵ . In the Western Pacific, 10 OPEs were 492 determined in seawater with the contraptions of \sum_{10} OPEs ranging from 3.0 to 48.4 ng/L (mean 493 $25.0 \pm 10.5 \text{ ng/L})^{107}$. TCEP was the predominant OPE. In the tropical North Atlantic, dissolved 494 495 OPEs (1300 ng/L) from the Amazon River were transported more than 3000 km via the North Brazil Current and its retroflection (Fig. 3b)⁵². 496

In the high seas, the sum concentrations of 3 Cl-OPEs ranged from 0.9 to 17.4 ng/L in the Arctic 497 surface water sampled by passive polyethylene samplers (PEs)⁸⁵. Similarly, the concentrations of 498 Σ_8 OPEs in the North Atlantic and the Arctic were measured using liquid-liquid extraction for 0.8 499 L seawater, which ranging from 0.35 to 8.4 ng/L. The four highest concentrations measured at 500 sites near continents⁶¹, implying anthropogenic inputs into ocean. In the Canadian Arctic, the mean 501 concentrations of Schlorinated-OPEs (Cl-OPEs) and Snon-chlorinated-OPEs were 10 ng/L and 502 1.3 ng/L, respectively, in surface water over 2013-2018⁴⁰. Similarly, two chlorinated OPEs 503 (TCIPP and TDCIPP) were observed at 2.7 to 8.4 ng/L in Arctic seawaters sampled by an on-board 504

passive sampling strategy¹⁴⁸. Occurrence of OPEs was observed in seawater from the 505 Northwestern Pacific to the Arctic in 2018, and the sum concentrations ranged from 8.5 to 143 506 ng/L^{5} , which are higher than those from the European Arctic⁶¹ (Fig. 3c). In addition, there is no 507 clear spatial trend for OPEs in seawater from China towards the Arctic, while a declining trend 508 was noticed from the North Atlantic to the Arctic (Fig. 3c)⁶¹, which shows clearly oceanic 509 510 transport from European seas to the Arctic. Interestingly, relatively high concentrations of Σ_6 OPEs were found in the range of <5.0-44.4 ng/L in seawater of Fildes Peninsula, Antarctica¹⁴³, and 19.6-511 9209 ng/L in freshwater from the northern Antarctic Peninsula¹⁴⁹, which are attributed to local 512 emissions from scientific research stations and tourist vessels in the Antarctic Peninsula. 513

514

515 **3.3. OPEs in marine sediment**

Influenced by the different degrees of human activities, average $\Sigma OPEs$ concentrations 516 ranging over two orders of magnitude (0.35-71 ng/g dw) have been reported in sediment from 517 ocean regions, including straits, near-shore and off-shore areas (Figure 4c, Table S2). Elevated 518 levels of Σ 180PEs were found in sediments along the coast of Korea, with the maximum and 519 average values of 347 and 71.0 ng/g dry weight (dw), respectively, among which the higher 520 concentrations usually occurred in harbors¹⁵⁰. In the Bohai region of China, decreasing levels of 521 Σ OPEs were reported in sediment with the extension of sampling areas: Laizhou Bay (6.65-102) 522 $ng/g dw^{151}$; 0.100-96.9 $ng/g dw^{152}$) > Bohai Bay (1.66-28.7 ng/g dw)¹⁷ > Bohai Sea (0.205-4.55) 523 ng/g dw)¹⁵³ (Figure 4b). A few to tens of ng/g dw of $\Sigma OPEs$ were found for sediments from Beibu 524 Gulf (range: 4.35-22.1, ng/g dw)¹⁵⁴, the Taiwan Strait (range: 5.26-34.2 ng/g dw)¹⁰, the Bohai and 525 East China Sea $(1.76-49.9 \text{ ng/g dw})^{155}$, the coast of Hainan Island (range: nd-60.0 ng/g dw)^{11} and 526 the Pearl River Estuary (range: 12.0–66.0 ng/g dw)¹⁵⁶ in China, the Maizuru Bay in Japan (range: 527

528	$<0.500-56.0 \text{ ng/g dw})^{157}$, and the San Francisco Bay in USA (median: 23.0 ng/g dw) ¹⁹ . Recently,
529	Alkan et al. ⁶⁸ reported relatively high levels of Σ_9 OPEs (range: 4-227 ng/g dw) in sediments across
530	the Gulf of Lion in northwest Mediterranean Sea. Limited studies reveal that the levels of OPEs in
531	ocean sediment are substantially lower than those found for the marginal seas. The detected
532	concentrations of Σ_7 OPEs from the North Pacific to the Arctic Ocean ranged from 0.2 to 4.7 ng/g
533	dw, with the average value of 0.9 ng/g dw (Figure 4a) ⁶⁶ . This study revealed that the concentrations
534	of Σ_7 OPEs, especially the chlorinated OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP and TDCIPP), increased from Bering
535	Strait to the Central Arctic Ocean, implying the transference and accumulation of OPEs in oceanic
536	sediments. Gao et al. ¹⁴⁴ reported higher levels of Σ_7 OPEs in the sediment of Ny-Ålesund, Svalbard,
537	the Arctic (range: 0.01-14.9 ng/g dw) in comparison to those in Central Arctic Ocean (range: 0.32-
538	4.7 ng/g dw) reported by Ma et al. ⁶⁶ , suggesting low temperatures limit the degradation of OPEs
539	in polar oceans ¹⁴⁴ . Recently, Sühring et al. reported elevated concentrations of Σ_{11} OPEs (median:
540	8.3 ng/g dw, range: 0.12-57 ng/g dw) in sediment in the Canadian Arctic Ocean, which has been
541	attributed to the local riverine discharge ⁴⁰ . In many studies, chlorinated OPEs (especially TCEP
542	and TCIPP), have been the most abundant detected OPEs in ocean sediments, consistent with their
543	extensive usage and their low degradation rates. Due to the relatively strong hydrophobicity, TEHP
544	(log Kow: 9.49) ^{19,153} and TCrP (log Kow: 5.11) ¹¹ have also been identified as the dominant OPEs
545	in sediments by several studies. In contrast, TnBP and TBOEP were the most abundant OPEs in
546	sediments from Taiwan Strait, China ¹⁰ and Western Scheldt estuary, Netherlands ¹⁵⁸ , respectively.
547	This regional pollution feature should be attributed to the large usage of these compounds locally.
548	Although the deep ocean is commonly considered as the final oceanic repository of OPEs,
549	inventory analysis shows that only a small proportion of the produced OPEs in the world have
550	been preserved in ocean sediment ^{40,66,153} , but the reservoir in the water column remains unknown.

In a study on OPEs inventory in the Canadian Arctic Ocean, Sühring et al. estimated that water 551 column OPEs even accounted for ~99% of the total OPEs inventory⁴⁰. The transfer of OPEs from 552 surface waters to sediments is mediated by the biological pump, thus the sorption of OPEs to 553 settling particles, a process especially relevant for the more hydrophobic OPEs. The study for 554 partitioning of OPEs between the water phase and sewage sludge in WWTPs has shown only 1 % 555 556 of the OPEs entering the WWTP retained by the sludge, and most of the chlorinated OPEs went through the plant with water phase without degradation²⁵. As marine sediment contents less 557 organic matter than sludge, during vertical transport, the microbial degradation of OPEs concurrent 558 with organic matter mineralization might be limited. Generally, the extent of sediments and water 559 column as a final sink of OPEs will depend on the water column biogeochemistry, that needs 560 561 further research.

562

a



564 b



Figure 4. Spatial distribution of OPEs in the sediment from the North Pacific to the high
 Arctic⁶⁶ (a), and in the Bohai and Yellow Seas¹⁵³ (b). OPEs concentrations in sediments from
 different regions are summarized (c), shows the coastal areas play as important sink for
 OPEs.^{13,18,19,40,65,144,153,154,157,159}

572 **3.4. OPEs in snow from Polar Regions**

Freshwater discharge from snow and ice to the ocean is increasing across the Arctic and 573 Antarctic in response to anthropogenic climate change¹⁶⁰. The strong seasonal changes in 574 environmental conditions associated with emissions of organic chemicals from melting ice and 575 snow in the polar regions may amplify their effects on the marine ecosystems⁹³. In the Antarctic, 576 OPEs were detected in surface snow on the ice sheet along a transect from Zhongshan Station 577 (69.3733S, 76.3778E) to Kunlun Station (80.4169S, 77.1161E), near Dome Argus⁹⁷. TCEP was 578 the dominant component of 12 OPEs in all snow samples with concentrations ranging from 0.05 579 580 to 2.0 ng/L, followed by TCIPP, TiBP and TBEP. The appearance of TCEP in fresh snow clearly indicates that TCEP is more persistent and could be transported to the Antarctic ice sheet. This 581 finding is consistent with Xie et al., who reported the occurrence of OPEs in snow samples 582 collected at Dome Concordia in 2016⁹⁶. Nine OPEs were detected in all snow samples with the 583 total concentrations ranging from 7.2 to 20.5 ng/L. TCIPP was the dominant compound and 584 accounted for 64.6% of the sum, followed by TnBP (9.8%) and TCEP (8.9%). The mean 585 concentration of TCIPP was 8.2 ng/L which was 7 times higher than those of TCEP (1.1 ng/L), 586 TnBP (1.2 ng/L) and TEP (0.96 ng/L). Other detected OPEs were TDCIPP (0.32 ng/L), TPhP (0.44 587 588 ng/L), TPeP (0.19 ng/L), TEHP (0.18 ng/L) and TPrP (0.026 ng/L). The ratio TnBP/TCIPP is similar to those in the snow from urban areas and indoor dusts^{95,161,162}, implying that OPEs in snow 589 590 at Dome C might be partially attribute to local sources, e.g. emissions from the research stations. 591 However, LRAT of OPEs to the inland of the Antarctic need to be further explored.

In the Arctic, OPEs have been measured in surface snow collected along a transect between East Greenland and Svalbard⁶¹. The concentrations of \sum_{8} OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP, TDCIPP, TnBP, TiBP, TPhP, TEHP, TPeP) ranged from 4.36 to 10.6 ng/L with a mean of 7.83 ng/L. TCIPP was the most abundant OPEs in Arctic snow with a mean of 3.89 ng/L, followed by TiBP (2.00 ng/L), TCEP (1.29 pg/L) and TnBP (0.63 pg/L). The concentrations of OPEs in snow samples collected from coastal sites were 2 times higher than those from the central Arctic, and the composition pattern of OPEs in snow was comparable with that of OPEs in seawater. These pioneering works showed the major role of long-range atmospheric transport and snow deposition in the global distribution of OPEs¹⁰².

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602 **3.5. OPEs in organisms**

The investigations on OPEs in marine organisms including zooplankton, invertebrates, 603 604 bivalves, fish, birds and mammals have revealed their widespread occurrence of OPEs across food webs in various oceanic environments (Fig. 5a). In general, markedly lower concentrations of 605 OPEs were reported in biota samples collected from North America compared to those from 606 607 European and Asia regions. For example, the levels of Σ_{13} OPEs of bivalve samples in San Francisco Bay, United States (US) ranged from 8.7-25 ng/g lw¹⁹ as compared to those from the 608 coast of Korea (Σ_{13} OPEs: 18.4-1516 ng/g lw)¹⁵⁰, Sweden (Σ_{11} OPEs: 190-1600 ng/g lw)¹⁶³ and 609 Spain (individual OPE: nd-623.6 ng/g lw)⁶⁴. The concentrations of OPEs in harbor seal from US 610 $(nd-56 ng/g lw)^{19}$ and in Polar bear from Canada $(nd-0.902 ng/g lw)^{164}$ were also much lower than 611 those from Svalbard, Norway (nd-372.41 in harbor seal and nd- 52.5 ng/g lw in polar bear)⁸⁴ (Fig. 612 5a). Comparable concentrations of Σ OPEs in fish were reported in several studies on samples from 613 Svalbard, Norway (mean Σ_{14} OPEs: 713 ng/g lw)⁸⁴, Manila Bay, Philippines (mean Σ_{9} OPEs: 683) 614 ng/g lw)¹⁶⁵, NW Mediterranean Sea (mean Σ_{19} OPEs: 526 ng/g lw)¹⁶⁶ and coast of Sweden (mean 615 Σ_{11} OPEs: 342 ng/g lw)¹⁶³, while relatively high levels (mean Σ_{20} OPEs: 1630 ng/g lw) were found 616 for Laizhou Bay, Bohai Sea, China¹⁵². Sala et al. detected OPEs in edible fish from the 617 618 Mediterranean Sea including European sardine (Sardina pilchardus), European anchovy (Engraulis

encrasicolus), and European hake (Merluccius merluccius), with concentrations between 0.38 and
73.4 ng/g wet weight¹⁶⁷. Pattern analysis of OPE congeners shows that TCIPP, TBOEP, TnBP,
TPhP, TEHP and TDCIPP were commonly detected as the predominant OPEs in marine
organisms.^{12,19,65,84,152,154,157,158,163-166} The differences in the OPE patterns among studies may result
from local pollutions from near-shore¹⁶³.

Species-dependent discrepancies in OPEs concentrations have been observed in marine 624 organisms, which were significantly lower in birds and mammals than in fish. Hallanger et al. 625 reported that 9 OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP, TDCIPP, TPHP, EHDPP, TBOEP, TCrP, TEHP and DPhBP; 626 627 mean: 7.81-537.16 ng/g lw) were found in capelin collected from Svalbard, Norway, as compared to those of <5 OPEs found in most of the other species, including kittiwake, brünnich's guillemot, 628 glaucous gull, ringed seal, harbour seal, arctic fox and polar bear (mean: 1.91-955.09 ng/g lw)⁸⁴ 629 (Fig. 5a). Low concentrations of individual OPEs were reported for the peregrine nestlings in the 630 Great Lakes Basin, ranging from 0 to 7.5 ng/g ww¹⁶⁸. Another study measured OPEs in liver and 631 blubber of harbour porpoises from the UK, and reported that only 5 OPEs (TEP, TPhP, TEHP, 632 TBOEP and EHDPP) were detected with low detection frequencies (DFs) of 3-44%¹². Four out of 633 13 OPEs (TCEP, TCIPP, TDCIPP and TPhP) were found in harbor seal blubber in San Francisco 634 Bay, United States with the median concentrations of <LOD to 13 ng/g lw¹⁹. Five out of 17 OPEs 635 were quantifiable at sub-ppb levels in polar bear fat samples, but with variable and low detection 636 frequencies¹⁶⁴. This contrast with high levels of Σ OPEs detected in brain (1530 ng/g lw), muscle 637 (645 ng/g lw) and blubber (267 ng/g lw) in dolphin collected from the Alboran Sea¹⁶⁹. 638

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640

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Figure 5. Concentrations of OPEs (ng/g lw) in organism samples from Antarctic Peninsula and the Arctic ocean^{28,84,164,171-174} (a); and nine OPEs (ng/g, dw) in different species in the South China Sea ¹⁷⁰(b).

In tropical food webs, 11 OPEs were detected in fifteen types of organism from the South China Sea, and the concentrations of OPEs in the organisms decreased with the increase of their trophic levels in the order: phytoplankton (922 ng/g dw) > zooplankton (660 ng/g dw) > oysters (309 ng/g dw) > crabs (225 ng/g dw) > coral tissues (202) > fishes (58.2)¹⁷⁰ (Fig. 5b). TCIPP, TCEP and TCIDPP were dominant OPEs in phytoplankton, zooplankton and in coral tissues. While, Zoobenthos and the eight fish species had similar OPE composition profiles dominated by TCIPPs and TBOEP¹⁷⁰.

656

4. Bioaccumulation and effects in marine organisms

Several studies have shown that higher exposure to OPEs was observed in demersal marine 658 organisms than in zooplankton and phytoplankton, indicating that greater accumulation of OPEs 659 660 occurs in the benthic environment. For examples, in the organisms from coast of Sweden, the concentration of EHDPP was reported 14,000 ng/g lw in eelpout (bottom dwelling fish) compared 661 with those found for other fish (< 78 ng/g lw)¹⁶³. The concentrations of Σ_9 OPEs in demersal fish 662 (230-1900 ng/g lw) were significantly higher than those in pelagic fish (110-760 ng/g lw) from 663 Manila Bay¹⁶⁵. Bekele et al. also observed significant difference in Σ_{20} OPEs between benthic fish 664 (mean: 2120 ng/g lw) and pelagic fish (1200 ng/g lw)¹⁵². However, high OPE concentrations have 665 been found in zooplankton (i.e. at the base of many pelagic food webs) in coastal Mediterranean 666 with vales reaching up to 4.6 μ g/g d.w for the Σ_9 OPEs ⁶⁵. Overall, the profiles of OPEs in marine 667 organisms are influenced by sampling sites, species and even developmental stages of such 668 organisms, which could be attributed to different usage of OPEs in different regions, as well as the 669 670 discrepancies in habitat, diet, and metabolic and accumulation behaviors of OPEs in the organisms^{84,163,165} 671

The bioaccumulation and biomagnification potential of OPEs in marine organisms depends on 672 physicochemical properties, bioavailability and extent of biotransformation¹⁶⁵. 673 their Octanol-water partition coefficient (log K_{ow}) values of OPEs cover a large range from -0.65 (TMP) 674 to 9.49 (TEHP)¹³⁴ (Tab. 1). Significant correlations of bioconcentration factors (BCFs) with log 675 K_{ow} values of OPEs are observed in marine biota, implying that hydrophobicity plays an important 676 role in bioaccumulation of OPEs^{152,154} (Fig. 6 and Tab. S4). While different result was obtained by 677 Schmidt et al. that no relationship between BCFs and log K_{ow} of OPEs was observed⁶⁵. BCFs 678 higher than the threshold value (5000 L/kg) used under the Stockholm Convention on POPs to 679 identify bioaccumulative chemicals were generally found for TCEP, TDCIPP, TiBP, EHDPP and 680 TEHP in this study⁶⁵. Furthermore, several studies showed that most OPEs detected in marine 681 organisms are not correlated with the lipid contents^{150,158,163,165}, with the exception of TEP and 682 TPeP reported by Kim et al. in fish¹⁶⁵. Weak biomagnification of OPEs through food web also 683 implies limited bioaccumulation of these compounds. As stated above, even lower detection 684 frequencies (DFs) and concentrations of OPEs were observed in higher trophic levels (such as 685 birds, seals, arctic foxes and polar bears) than in fish in Arctic biota⁸⁴. This may be due to either 686 poor assimilation from the diet or rapid metabolism of OPEs in these species such as birds and 687 polar bears¹⁶⁴. 688

Kim et al. investigated the biomagnification of OPEs in 20 species of fish in Manila Bay, Philippines by establishing the correlations of δ^{15} N values with concentrations of OPEs in fish¹⁶⁵. The result showed that OPEs did not bio-magnify through the food web except for TPhP in demersal fish¹⁶⁵. However, Brandsma et al. reported that the levels of TPhP decreased with the increasing in trophic levels both in benthic and pelagic food web in Western Scheldt estuary, Netherlands, while the biomagnification of TBOEP, TCIPP and TCEP (trophic magnification

factors >1) through the benthic food web was observed¹⁵⁸. In the food web in Laizhou Bay, China, 695 8 OPEs (including TEP, TnBP, TCIPP, TDCIPP, TBOEP, TEHP, CDPP and TCrP) showed 696 trophic magnification¹⁵². These results may be influenced by the distinct input of OPEs in local 697 species and different metabolic processes among these species. Furthermore, research on 698 bioaccumulation and biomagnification of OPEs through marine food webs is very limited, and just 699 performed in select tissue, such as liver, and plasma in marine mammals⁸⁴. More attention should 700 be paid to the bioaccumulation behavior of OPEs in marine organisms to determine the 701 biomagnification potential of these chemicals. 702

703 At present, little is known about the biological effects the OPEs elicited in marine species, populations, ecological systems, and humans, particularly from a one-health perspective. Wu et al. 704 suggested that TCIPP could disturb the immune system of marine mussel by evaluating the 705 706 endpoints including reactive oxygen species, apoptosis, antioxidant system and related gene expressions¹⁷⁵. Several studies investigated toxic effects of OPEs to algae, which are important 707 primary producers in the marine ecosystem and sensitive to pollutants¹⁷⁶⁻¹⁷⁸, and reported that 708 TDCIPP inhibited the population growth of Phaeodactylum tricornutum in a concentration-709 dependent manner by disrupting photosynthesis¹⁷⁷. Both TDCIPP and TnBP increased the levels 710 711 of reactive oxygen species and led to oxidative damage in *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* cells at the experimental concentrations (2-10 mg/L for TDCIPP and 0.2-1.6 mg/L for TnBP)^{177,178}. Although 712 neurotoxicity, and developmental and reproductive toxicity of some OPE compounds (i.e., 713 TCEP¹⁷⁹⁻¹⁸², TCIPP^{179,181}, TDCIPP^{179,181-189}, TPhP^{179,182,185,187,190}, TCrP^{179,182,187}, TBOEP^{179,180} and 714 TnBP¹⁸⁰) have been reported for freshwater fish models, biological effects of OPEs in marine fish 715 716 and more higher trophic levels of organisms are rarely investigated. A recent study found that 717 TPhP could disrupt ecologically-relevant behaviours inof Coturnix japonica at environmentally

relevant or greater concentrations, implying the health risks of OPEs in wild birds¹⁹¹. In addition, since OPEs tend to accumulate in the benthic marine environment as discussed above, much more attention should be paid to the health risks of bottom dwelling species. The input of OPEs to the marine environment is persistent and therefore, knowledge on potential ecological risks caused by these compounds, especially adverse effects resulting from chronic exposure, antagonistic interactions and biomagnification, is urgently required in the future^{19,152,165}.



Figure 6. Biota-water accumulation factors (log BCF) of OPEs in marine organisms^{65,152,154}

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727 **5. Future perspectives**

Both ocean currents and the atmosphere are relevant pathways for OPEs transport on a global scale, but they have different contributions to the global distribution of individual OPEs, which needs more intensive studies in different oceanic regions. Chlorinated-OPEs can be efficiently transported via ocean currents due to their persistence, lower volatility and high solubility^{14,41},

while non-chlorinated OPEs (excluding TnBP and EHDPP which may relate to local sources) are 732 likely mainly transported via air advection due to potential adsorption onto particles¹⁴. Recently, 733 it has been suggested that sea-spray aerosol can be an important vector for the regional and long-734 term transport of organic pollutants, and the relevance of this process needs to be assessed for 735 OPEs. Furthermore, the role of oceanic plastics as significant in-situ and mobile sources of OPEs 736 737 should be further investigated, also in relation to other potential OPE sources into the Ocean. Particularly, a qualitative and quantitative assessment of OPE leaching from microplastics 738 accumulated in sediments, considered as final sinks of plastic debris, should be addressed. Existing 739 740 data based on laboratory experiments point to a lower release of some OPEs from plastics under deep-sea conditions compared to surface waters⁶³, but no data on direct release from plastics settled 741 on the sediments exists, to the best of our knowledge. The occurrence of OPEs in the deep seafloor 742 (and the water-sediment interface) and organisms should be further investigated, also in relation 743 to the large plastic accumulation in this environment¹⁹² and the potential longer-term or chronic 744 exposure to OPEs and other plastic additives in profound oceanic environments⁶³. 745

Local usage and environmental behaviors of OPEs, as well as discrepancies in habitat, diet, 746 and metabolic behaviors of OPEs in different species, may play important roles in the occurrence 747 748 and bioaccumulation of OPEs in marine organisms. Current studies on occurrence of OPEs in marine organisms mainly focus on near-shore regions. Further investigations in relation to off-749 750 shore regions could help to clarify the natural behaviors of these compounds and environmental 751 impacts on the global ocean. Although OPEs seem not to bio-magnify like other POPs such as PBDEs, potential accumulation of hydrophobic OPEs with a high logKow has been observed in 752 753 marine organisms. The bioaccumulation and biomagnification behaviors of OPEs through food 754 webs, particularly the entry mechanisms at the first steps (such as plankton), still need to be further scrutinized in the future, also in relation to their potential biological effects. In addition, much
attention should be paid to health risks induced by OPEs on benthic species, because benthos
shows greater accumulation of these compounds than pelagic species.

Given the knowledge of OPEs in global ocean summarized in this review and other 758 works^{28,42,193}, it is shown that, OPEs are sufficiently persistent to be distributed globally and 759 760 present health hazards potential to marine organisms due to their bioaccumulation and biomagnification behavior. Given the large volume of OPEs on the market and increasing 761 consummation, national and international policies were called to regulate the production and 762 application of OPEs, and to develop more safe alternative flame-retardants^{193,194}. Especially, TCEP 763 and TCIPP should gain more attention and be considered for global regulatory framework as soon 764 as possible. 765

Phosphate esters could account for over 75% of the total dissolved organic phosphorus in the marine environment¹⁰⁹. However, the contribution to this pool of OPEs and other anthropogenic organophosphate ester compounds (such as pesticides) remains unknown. The related organic phosphorus (OP) inputs coming from diffusive OPEs fluxes are estimated to potentially trigger up to 1.0% of the reported primary production in the most oligotrophic oceanic regions.⁸¹

At present, toxicological data of OPEs in marine organisms as well as environmental quality standards are lacking, which limits not only the accurate evaluation on ecotoxicological risk of OPEs to the oceanic ecosystem, especially under the long-term, chronic and interactive exposure to OPE pollutants, but also important elements to support an efficient chemical contamination management due to these compounds.

The environmental occurrence of OPEs (i.e. triester-OPEs) degradation products in marine environments has been little investigated. Experimental *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies have

demonstrated that a certain number of tri-OPEs can be transformed to di-ether metabolites (di-OPEs)¹⁹⁵, Some di-OPEs could induce comparable or higher toxic effects than their respective
triesters^{111,196}. The few existing studies report di-OPEs in fish^{197,198}, water¹¹² and sediments¹¹⁵ from
inland aquatic ecosystems. Only one study focused on marine sediment to the best of our
knowledge.⁵⁴

The use of airborne OPEs as source of nutrients suggest a direct link between the biogeochemical cycle of phosphorous and the environmental occurrence of OPE¹⁰⁹. However, this is a not yet accounted process that could be of global relevance since phosphorous limits metabolism (primary production and respiration) in large oceanic regions. Future research should constraint the estimates of atmospheric deposition of anthropogenic OP and its use as a nutrient in the large oligotrophic oceanic regions.

789 Pioneering studies have highlighted the importance of atmosphere as a media for the longrange transport of OPEs and air-water exchange and dry deposition fluxes in the global ocean^{41,42,81}. 790 The accuracy of the physicochemical data of OPEs can affect the estimation of air/particle 791 portioning process¹⁹⁹ and air-water exchange flux direction and intensity⁶¹, which requests 792 experimental-derived physicochemical properties in order to constrain the relevance of 793 794 atmospheric inputs of OPEs to the ocean. Further work should establish a budget for OPEs present in the Southern Ocean and focus on the oceanic transport from marginal seas to the open ocean, 795 796 vertical deposition in the water column, microbial and photo degradation and sinking to deep ocean 797 sediments.

In terms of global warming, new input of OPEs from the melting ice sheet and snow may alter the concentrations and vertical profile in the water columns at high latitude. This will subsequently change environmental pathways of OPEs in the ocean environment and related health

- 801 impacts. Consequently, future research will need to understand the various biogeochemical and
- 802 geophysical processes under climate change and anthropogenic pressures to be able to predict the
- 803 environmental fates and the global ocean health impacts of OPEs accurately.

Acknowledgements

We are very grateful to Derek Muir for his detailed and constructive internal review on the 805 manuscript. We thank Wenhan Cheng for providing the data on OPEs in air and snow in the 806 Antarctic. We thank Qicheng Meng, Lijie Mi, Jing Li and Lulu Zhang for technical support in 807 creating Fig. 1, 2 and 3. Z.X. acknowledges the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and 808 809 innovation programme under grant agreement No 689443 via project iCUPE (Integrative and Comprehensive Understanding on Polar Environments). We thank the researches who dedicated 810 original data for OPEs in environmental and biological matrices and modeling predictions. We are 811 812 very grateful to the reviewers for their insightful suggestions.

813 Author of

Author contributions

Z.X. initiated the project and assembled the authorship team. P.W., X.W., C.L., J.C., M.V.,

J.D. and Z.X. researched the data and drafted the manuscript and figures. R.K., W.M. and R.L.

816 contributed to writing and editing of the manuscript.

817 **Competing interests**

818 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Compound	Abb.	CAS No.	Chemical formula	Solubility ^c (mg/L, 25°C)	VP ^{<i>b,c</i>} (Pa, 25 °C)	logKow	logKoa ^c	t _{1/2} (air) ⁴² (h)	t _{1/2} (Water) ⁴² (h)	t(air) ²⁰⁰ (day)	t(particle) ²⁰¹ (day)	t _{1/2} (Microbial) ¹⁰⁹ (h)
Tris (2-chloroethyl) phosphate	TCEP	115-96-8	$C_6H_{12}Cl_3O_4P$	877.9	8.17	1.44	5.311	12	2172	-	-	41.8
Tris (1-chloro-2- propyl) phosphate	TCIPP	13674-84-5	C ₉ H ₁₈ Cl ₃ O ₄ P	51.85	7.53×10 ⁻³	2.59	8.203	7	3270	-	-	-
Tris (1,3-dichloro- 2-propyl) phosphate	TDCIPP	13674-87-8	C ₉ H ₁₅ Cl ₆ O ₄ P	1.50	3.81×10 ⁻⁵	3.65	10.62	12	4320	11-14	7.9-19.4	49.5
Trimethyl phosphate	TMP	512-56-1	$C_3H_9O_4P$	3.004×10 ⁵	55.3	-0.65	5.881	33	360	-	-	-
Triethyl phosphate	TEP	78-40-0	$C_6H_{15}O_4P$	1.115×10 ⁴	22	0.80	6.632	3	360	-	-	-
Tripropyl phosphate	TnPP	513-08-6	$C_9H_{21}O_4P$	826.6	3.08	1.87	6.426	-	-	-	-	-
Tri-isopropyl phosphate	TiPrP	513-02-0	$C_9H_{21}O_4P$	501.1	18.4	2.12	6.375	-	-	-	-	-
Tributyl phosphate	TnBP	126-73-8	$C_{12}H_{27}O_4P$	280	0.151	4.00	8.239	3	208.2	-	-	75.3
Tri-isobutyl phosphate	TiBP	126-71-6	$C_{12}H_{27}O_4P$	16.22	1.71	3.60	7.485	3	360	-	-	73.0
Tripentyl phosphate	TPeP	2528-38-3	$C_9H_{21}O_4P$	0.3318	2.33×10 ⁻³	5.29	8.805	-	-	-	-	-
Trihexyl phosphate	THP	2528-39-4	C ₁₈ H ₃₉ O ₄ P	0.01023	3.29×10 ⁻⁴	6.76	9.905	-	-	-	-	-
Triphenyl phosphate	TPhP	115-86-6	$C_{18}H_{15}O_4P$	1.9	1.49×10 ⁻³	4.59	8.459	24	795	5.2-6.0	3.4-8.5	97.6
Tris(2-butoxyethyl) phosphate	TBOEP	78-51-3	C ₁₈ H ₃₉ O ₇ P	1.963	1.65×10 ⁻⁴	3.75	13.06	2	456.4		2.4-5.8	-
Tris(2-ethylhexyl) phosphate	TEHP	78-42-2	C ₂₄ H ₅₁ O ₄ P	1.461×10 ⁻⁵	1.10×10 ⁻⁵	9.49	14.98	3	240.4	3.5-5.6	2.7-6.6	52.5
2-ethylhexyl diphenyl phosphate	EHDPP	1241-94-7	$C_{20}H_{27}O_4P$	0.06659	4.45×10 ⁻³	5.73	8.384	8	780	-	6.5-15.9	30.5
Tricresyl phosphate	TCrP	1330-78-5	C ₂₁ H ₂₁ O ₄ P	0.2073	1.62	5.11	9.591	19	909	-	2.6-6.5	29.1, 25.2, 27.5
Di-n-octylphenyl phosphate	DOPP	6161-81-5	$C_{28}H_{45}O_4P$	4.246×10 ⁻⁴	9.88×10 ⁻⁶	8.04	11.74	-	-	-	-	-
Methyl diphenyl phosphate	MDPP	115-89-9	C ₁₃ H ₁₃ O ₄ P	61.59	1.55×10-3	2.93	8.786	-	-	-	-	-

Table 1. The names, abbreviations, chemical formulas and physicochemical properties of the most regularly detected organophosphate esters in the ocean

^{*a*} The chemical structures are refered to ChemicalBook (https://www.chemicalbook.com) ^{*b*}Vapor pressure; c Solubility, V_p , $\log K_{ow}$ and $\log K_{oa}$ are adopted from EPIWEB 4.1.

 $t_{1/2}$: Half-life time; t: Life time