



Variables affecting the plankton network in Mediterranean ports

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ABSTRACT

Attention on port waters is increasing since these economically important infrastructures are embedded in the coastal environment and their management needs to be considered in the monitoring programmes of coastal ecosystems. To implement the sustainable development (blue growth) of port areas, a general knowledge on the ongoing processes in their waters needs to be obtained, considering both abiotic and biotic variables. The present study aimed at inspecting the relationships among plankton components to provide insights into the ecology of ports. Seasonal samplings were carried out in three Mediterranean touristic ports where bacterio-, phyto- and zoo-plankton were simultaneously assessed at a large spatial scale and compared with respect to environmental variables and anthropogenic inputs. Factor analysis revealed the effects of load of inland waters, seasonality, water turbulence and hydrocarbon pollution on the planktonic components and zooplankton variability in port sectors characterized by different depths and uses.

1. Introduction

In recent decades international policies have converged toward a coherent management of coastal areas, integrating land and sea ecosystems in the coastal zone and their interactions (Newton and Icely, 2008) on one side, and environmental and economic issues on the other. The key concept “sustainability” represents the main focus of many of the current policies, but a general failure is observed, primarily due to a lack of coordination among the different stakeholders (McGuire and Perivier, 2011) and the conflict between economic development and environmental quality. The European Community established a framework of actions and provided directives to define and improve the ecological water quality (Water Framework Directive, WFD 2000/60/EC; Marine Strategy Framework Directive, MSFD 2008/56/EC; Maritime Spatial Planning Directive, MSPD 2014/89/EU) with the aim of protecting the marine ecosystems and ensuring the delivery of their important ecological services.

In the restricted space of the Mediterranean coasts, the number of ports and marinas is constantly increasing, competing with bathing waters and protected areas (Piante and Ody, 2015). Port waters are not only directly linked to marine waters through the port entrance, but also to inland waters through inlets and discharge pipes. Therefore, the expansion of port areas could exponentially contribute to the decline of coastal water quality (Durrieu de Madron et al., 2011), potentially affecting the ecosystem services provided (e.g. fisheries, biodiversity, water regulation, cultural benefits). Despite their strategic role

in coastal development, the main controls carried out in ports and adjacent areas are those related to chemical emissions and consequent pollution in water and sediments (Peris-Mora et al., 2005; Di Vaio and Varriale, 2018) as well as sanitary aspects linked to microbial pathogens (EEA, 2017), as basic controls to protect human health. Nevertheless, the most suitable Biological Quality Elements (BQEs: macroinvertebrates, angiosperms, macroalgae, phytoplankton and fish) as defined by WFD (2000/60/EU) for the environmental impact assessment in natural water bodies have also been suggested for ports, but not yet extensively implemented (Hering et al., 2010; Ondiviela et al., 2013).

In ecological monitoring, the analysis of sediments and associated benthic biota are currently the most used approaches to develop ecological quality indexes (Quintino et al., 2006; Teixeira et al., 2016). The stable and long-life characteristics of benthic communities, whose structure accumulates with time nutrients and contaminant loadings in the sediments, strikingly differ from the greater variability of the planktonic biota (Caroppo et al., 2013). Under the EU directive framework, water quality has been therefore analysed using indices based on benthos (Diaz et al., 2004) and standards have been developed for coastal waters (WFD, 2000/60/EU). Only chlorophyll-*a* has been extensively used as the most shared ecological quality indicator of the water column (Dimitriou et al., 2015).

From an ecological point of view, bacterioplankton, phytoplankton and zooplankton are the main planktonic components present in the water column in terms of abundance, biomass, diversity, trophic net-

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works and ecosystem services provided (Beaugrand et al., 2010; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010; Tweddle et al., 2018). Planktonic taxa show a large spectrum of size, trophic and ecological roles and have been rarely considered together as descriptors of the marine ecological quality (Caroppo et al., 2013). In the water column, physical-chemical and biotic parameters undergo higher variability at shorter temporal scales than benthic ones, with regard to seasonal changes and inflow/outflow from the connected marine and inland water bodies. The planktonic taxa can thus be perceived as a “moving interface”, rapidly reacting to the environmental variations and connected with the more stable benthic communities. Thanks to their biological properties, the planktonic communities have been proposed as early warning indicator of several types of impacts. More specifically, bacterioplankton abundance and activities have been acknowledged as sensitive sentinels of environmental changes (Munawar and Weisse, 1989; Caruso et al., 2016a,b), phytoplankton blooms have been related to eutrophication processes (Karydis, 2009) and several other pressures (MSFD criterion 4.1.), while zooplankton variation has been linked to regime shifts in ecosystem state (Pace et al., 2013), climatic changes (Roemmich and McGowan, 1995; Beaugrand, 2005; Sundstrom et al., 2017) and pollution (Uriarte et al., 2016). In this perspective, an all-inclusive control strategy is desirable in order to monitor the ecological status of water bodies (WFD, 2000/60/EC). Considering the continuity of coastal areas (which include marine protected areas, coastal lagoons, river mouths, bathing areas, tourist and commercial infrastructures, marinas and harbours, etc.), an in-depth knowledge of the planktonic components is an essential step to assess the mutual influence between linked water bodies, which are potential sources of abiotic and biotic variability (e.g. eutrophication, hydrocarbons, heavy metals, presence of euryhaline species, etc.).

Based on these concepts, a pilot study using an integrated planktonic approach was needed to build a knowledge framework on trophic processes of the networks prevailing in port waters, since morphol-

ogy, hydrodynamics and human activities in harbours (heavily modified water bodies, WFD, 2000/60/EC) may specifically affect bacterio-, phyto-, and zooplankton as well as their relationships (Caroppo et al., 2013).

The present study was conducted under the framework of the ENPI-CBC MED project MAPMED (Management of Port areas in the Mediterranean Sea Basin), a multidisciplinary project aimed at improving the environmental sustainability in Mediterranean tourist ports (Zakhama-Sraieb et al., 2016; Chatzinikolaou et al., 2018; Massi et al., 2019; Vitali et al., 2019). In this study, the planktonic components of three Mediterranean tourist ports in different periods of the year, related to the tourist season, were analysed with the following specific aims: i) to assess zooplankton abundance and composition variability, ii) to define its relationships with the other planktonic components (bacterioplankton and phytoplankton) and with the water physical and chemical parameters, and iii) to identify the potential impacts of coastal pressures, port activities and linked infrastructures on the planktonic network. The different parameters (physical, chemical and biological) were analysed by means of a multivariate analysis in order to compare and interpret the ecological relationships in the water column of the investigated ports.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Brief description of the three ports

Among the three studied ports (Fig. 1), Cagliari (Sardinia, Italy) and Heraklion (Crete, Greece) are both commercial and touristic harbours with a larger surface (2.07 km² and 0.87 km² respectively) than the artificial marina (0.04 km²) of El Kantaoui (Sousse, Tunisia), where activities linked to tourism and fishing are operated. The three ports have an inner and more protected shallow area hosting small leisure and/or fishing boats; from there to the port entrance, higher

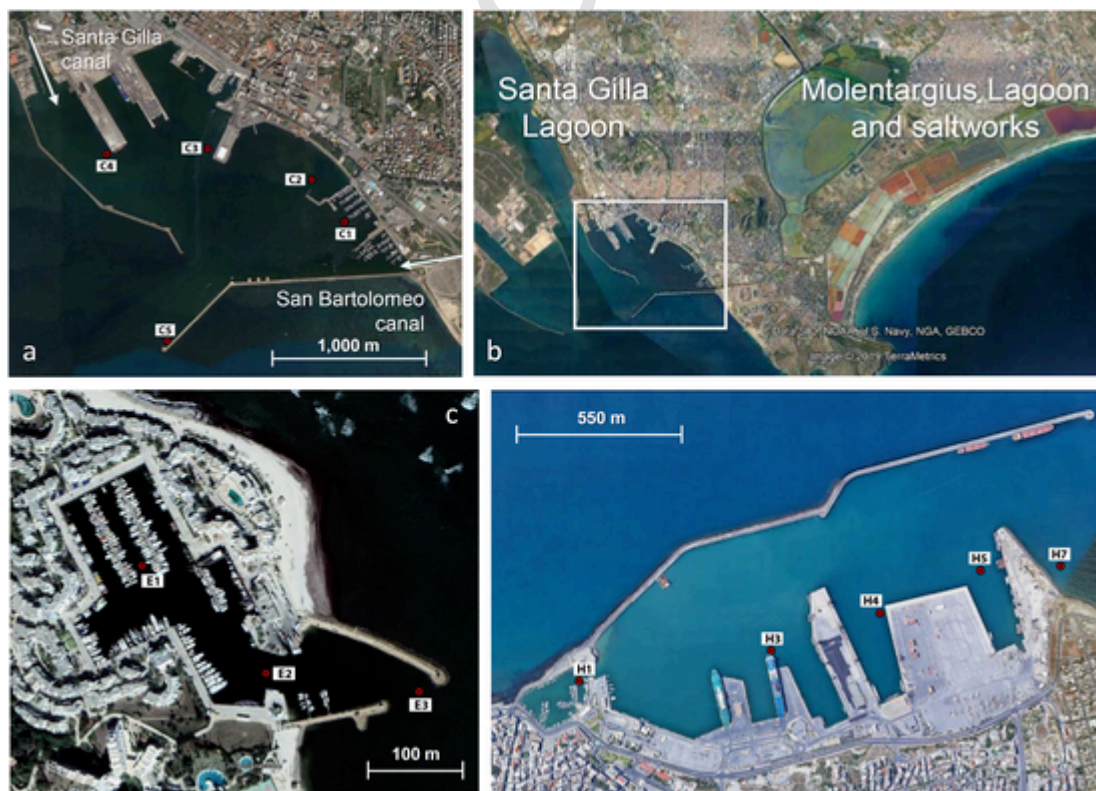


Fig. 1. Maps of the three Mediterranean ports and sampling stations. a) Port of Cagliari (Italia, Sardinia) and inlets of freshwaters (arrows); b) Systems of lagoons and canals surrounding the Port of Cagliari (in the box); c) Port of El Kantaoui (Sousse, Tunisia); d) Port of Heraklion (Crete, Heraklion) (Google Earth © 2017, v. 7.1.8.3036).

depths and larger infrastructures (quays or docks) allow for activities involving bigger ships and cargoes in Cagliari and Heraklion.

Within each port, three to five sampling stations were selected to achieve a good spatial coverage of the whole port area and represent discrete sectors dominated by specific port activities, potentially exposed to different impacts (Table 1, Fig. 1). In detail, the Cagliari port hosts quays for the anchoring of small leisure boats (station C1), military navy, commercial and passenger ships (stations C2, C3, C4, respectively). The port entrance (station C5) faces south-west. The opening of Molentargius Lagoon loads brackish waters into the port main basin at station C1, while a canal running along the east side of the Santa Gilla Lagoon drains wastewater of urban runoff in the proximity of station C4 (Fig. 1a and b). The marina of El Kantaoui is the second tourist port in Tunisia and hosts small and medium-size leisure boats (station E1). Only a small part of the marina is dedicated to other activities, as shipyard and fuel supplying (station E2). The port entrance (station E3) faces south-east (Fig. 1c). The Heraklion port is constituted by the Old Venetian Harbour, hosting leisure and fishing boats (station H1), and the new Ferry Port, where passenger and cargo ships (stations H3, H4, respectively) are hosted along with a shipyard (station H5). Heraklion port entrance (station H7) faces east (Fig. 1d). Discharges of sewage effluents from urban activities have been documented in the three port areas (Chatzinikolaou et al., 2018; Massi et al., 2019; Vitali et al., 2019).

2.2. Sampling campaigns

Three sampling campaigns were performed in 2012 during winter (February), spring-early summer at the beginning of the tourist season (May), and late summer-autumn at the end of the tourist season (September). The samplings were performed during the day, from 9 am to 6 pm, to avoid the effects deriving from day-night plankton migra-

Table 1

Location of the sampling stations in the three Mediterranean ports (Cagliari, Sardinia, Italy; El Kantaoui, Sousse, Tunisia; Heraklion, Crete, Greece) and main uses of the sectors within each port (Chatzinikolaou et al., 2018; Massi et al., 2019; Vitali et al., 2019).

| Station | Latitude | Longitude | Water depth (m) | Sector use |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|--|
| Cagliari | | | | |
| C1 | 39°12'11.40"N | 9° 7'24.12"E | 7.8 | Leisure - small boats |
| C2 | 39°12'20.46"N | 9° 7'15.06"E | 4.5 | Intermediate (military navy vessels) |
| C3 | 39°12'27.12"N | 9° 6'46.44"E | 8.3 | Passenger ships |
| C4 | 39°12'25.98"N | 9° 6'18.60"E | 13.5 | Cargo ships |
| C5 | 39°11'52.94"N | 9° 6'41.10"E | 11.4 | Port entrance (oriented to south) |
| El Kantaoui | | | | |
| E1 | 35°53'38.64"N | 10°35'53.16"E | 2.5 | Leisure - small boats |
| E2 | 35°53'34.44"N | 10°35'58.92"E | 4.0 | Intermediate (fuel station) |
| E3 | 35°53'34.65"N | 10°36'4.44"E | 3.2 | Port entrance (oriented to south-east) |
| Heraklion | | | | |
| H1 | 35°20'36.32"N | 25° 8'9.93"E | 3.7 | Leisure - small boats |
| H3 | 35°20'44.70"N | 25° 8'40.87"E | 19.5 | Passenger ships |
| H4 | 35°20'42.70"N | 25° 8'52.28"E | 10.5 | Cargo ships |
| H5 | 35°20'48.72"N | 25° 9'7.94"E | 19.0 | Shipyard |
| H7 | 35°20'50.82"N | 25° 9'17.88"E | 7.0 | Port entrance (oriented to east) |

tions. This sampling design does not account for the planktonic taxa life cycle variation (from few days, to months and years, depending on the taxon), but was conceived to capture the major environmental variations due to both climatic factors and human activities and the consequences they may have on the planktonic communities. In the Mediterranean region, winter and spring are normally rainy seasons, with lower temperatures and higher fresh water load, which accounts for a slightly lower salinity along the coasts (Mehta and Yang, 2008); summer is warm and dry, with major effects on water salinity in early autumn because of the increased evaporation. The tourist season starts in late spring and ends in early autumn, resulting in water scarcity, intense use of coastal facilities, high volume of marine traffic, as well as increased discharge/spill of wastewaters and pollutants (e.g. sewage effluents, lubricating oils, fuel oils and combustion products).

2.3. Sampling procedures and laboratory analyses

2.3.1. Physical and chemical variables

The physical properties of surface water (temperature, salinity, oxygen and pH) were measured on board using a 3420 WTW multi-meter. Three replicate samples (5 L each) of surface seawater were collected at each station during each sampling campaign and used for chemical analyses (Table 1S - Supplementary material).

For the chemical analyses of inorganic nutrients (NO_2 , NO_3 , NH_4 , PO_4 , SiO_2), particulate organic carbon (POC) and chlorophyll-*a*, the seawater samples were filtered immediately after collection through Whatman GF/F filters (47 mm). Filters were stored at -20°C and used for the determination of chlorophyll-*a* according to the fluorometric method of Yentsch and Menzel (1963) and Arar and Collins (1992). The filtered water samples were stored at -20°C and used for the determination of NO_2 , NO_3 , PO_4 , SiO_2 , following the techniques proposed by Strickland and Parsons (1972) and for NH_4 , those by Ivančić and Degobbi (1984).

For hydrocarbons, samples of 1 L of unfiltered water were extracted with hexane spiked with surrogate standards of aliphatic hydrocarbons (AHs) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). The extracts were concentrated, fractionated and the concentrations of AHs and PAHs were measured using gas chromatography-mass spectrometer (Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph interfaced with mass spectrometer).

Determination of heavy metals in water samples was performed by Inductively Coupled Plasma Spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin Elmer Optima DV 7000). Concentrations resulted below the detection limits of the analytical method in all samples for As, Cd, Cr, Ni, Pb, Sb, and V, and in $>50\%$ of the samples for Cu; therefore metals were not further included in the analyses (MAPMED Consortium, 2013).

2.3.2. Bacterioplankton

Water samples were collected at the surface (within 1 m depth) using sterilized 15 L low-density polyethylene collapsible carboys (washed with 10% bleach and rinsed with sterile MilliQ water). Samples were immediately fixed with filtered formaldehyde (final concentration 1.8%) for 1 h at 4°C . One milliliter aliquots were filtered onto black polycarbonate membranes ($0.2\ \mu\text{m}$ pore size, 25 mm diameter), rinsed with ultra-pure water, air-dried, and transported to the laboratory at room temperature (Beardsley et al., 2008). The filters were stained with DAPI ($10\ \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) for 5 min, then washed six times with ultra-pure water and six times with ethanol 80%. Filters were mounted onto microscope slides using UV-transparent fluorescence-free immersion oil. Cells (diameter $< 20\ \mu\text{m}$) were counted via epifluorescence microscopy (Olympus BX51) equipped with a mercury burner power supply unit (OLYMPUS U-RFL-T) in five fields per filter on three replicate filters for each station and each sampling period.

2.3.3. Phytoplankton

Samples of 250 mL of water were collected at the surface (within 1 m depth) at each station and each sampling period, fixed with neutralized formalin (final concentration 1%) and stored in dark glass bottles. Subsamples of variable volumes were observed under an invertoscope (Zeiss IM35, ph. c., 40×) after sedimentation, following standard methods (Zingone et al., 2010).

Phytoplankton taxa were identified and assigned to the classes of diatoms, dinoflagellates and coccolithophores; cryptophytes, chlorophytes, cyanobacteria and nanoflagellates which could not be identified further, were included in the mixed group labelled as “other phytoplankton”.

2.3.4. Zooplankton

An Apstein net for zooplankton (200 µm mesh width, 40 cm mouth diameter, 1 m net length) was used and five vertical tows were performed (Zunini Sertorio, 1990; Camatti and Ferrari, 2010) at each station and during each sampling period in the three ports, avoiding the net touching the bottom. The volume of filtered water was calculated as: $V = \text{mouth surface} \times \text{station depth}$ and was used to estimate the densities of zooplankton (ind m^{-3}). The samples were stored in 8% normalized formalin and analysed. The individuals were sorted, counted and identified under a stereomicroscope using a Bogorov counting chamber for zooplankton (40 mL). The counts and taxonomic identifications of the five independent zooplankton replicates were retained as separate samples for statistical analysis (Table 2S - Supplementary material).

2.4. Statistical analysis

For each station and each sampling period in the three ports, a data matrix was constructed including the values of physical-chemical parameters, total bacterial counts, densities of total phytoplankton and its groups (diatoms, dinoflagellates, coccolithophores, “other phytoplankton”), and densities of total zooplankton and its groups (five replicates, Table 1S). The bacterioplankton, phytoplankton and zooplankton counts were log transformed to approach normal distribution. The same set of physical-chemical, bacteria and phytoplankton data collected in a station was used for the five zooplankton replicates collected in the same station.

For univariate analysis, 2-way-ANOVAs with port and sampling period as main effects and 1-way-ANOVAs by stations within each port were performed (Statistical Analysis System, package version 9.4, SAS, 2002–2008). When ANOVA detected significant effects ($p < 0.05$), the Scheffé multicomparison of means was performed. The Scheffé test was selected because it can compare groups with different number of observations (Scheffé, 1959).

The relationships among variables were evaluated with the multivariate technique of factor analysis (SAS, package version 9.4) to identify the environmental variables and groups of planktonic taxa accounting for the main variability of the data without assuming pre-defined cause-effect relationships (Kim and Mueller, 1978; Milstein, 1993; Nourisson et al., 2018). In this analysis we included the physical-chemical variables, total bacterial counts, densities of the four phytoplankton groups and densities of the zooplankton taxa that presented at least 50 ind m^{-3} in the overall database. Among the several available techniques to extract factors, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) calculated from the correlation matrix among variables was selected, which allows the factor analysis to be applied as exploratory tool, without requiring a normal distribution of all the variables included in the data matrix (Kim and Mueller, 1978). The method computes the linear combination of the original variables, which accounts for as much of the variation contained in the samples as possible, called first factor (Factor1). The second factor (Factor2) is the second linear function of the original variables, which accounts for most of the remaining variability, and so on. The factors are independent one from another, have no units and are standardized variables (normal distribution, mean = 0, variance = 1). The value of a factor in a given sample is the result of the sum of all the variables included in the factor calculation, each one multiplied by a coefficient. The values of the factors calculated for each station and sampling period in the three investigated ports were graphically analysed. The coefficients of the linear functions defining the factors were used to interpret their meaning, considering the sign (+/-) and relative size of the coefficients as an indication of the weight of each variable.

3. Results

3.1. Description of the physical-chemical variables in the three ports

Temperature and salinity were significantly lower and the majority of the other variables were significantly higher in Cagliari port than in El Kantaoui and Heraklion ports (Tables 2a, 3 for ANOVA). The

Table 2a
Mean values of physical and chemical variables by port and sampling period in the three Mediterranean ports.

| Variable | Unit | Cagliari | | | El Kantaoui | | | Heraklion | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|----------|-------|------|-------------|------|------|-----------|------|------|
| | | Feb | May | Sep | Feb | May | Sep | Feb | May | Sep |
| Physical-chemical variables | | | | | | | | | | |
| Temperature | °C | 10.3 | 21.0 | 22.3 | 11.7 | 23.7 | 26.5 | 14.6 | 21.0 | 25.3 |
| Salinity | ‰ | 33.2 | 33.2 | 34.2 | 37.0 | 36.9 | 36.1 | 38.2 | 38.3 | 37.3 |
| DO | mg L^{-1} | 9.3 | 11.5 | 7.5 | 8.7 | 6.3 | 4.5 | 7.8 | 7.0 | 6.7 |
| pH | | 8.1 | 8.3 | 8.4 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 8.4 |
| Ammonia | µM | 10.9 | 14.9 | 12.6 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 2.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 |
| Nitrite | µM | 1.65 | 3.00 | 1.62 | 0.00 | 0.03 | 0.17 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 0.04 |
| Nitrate | µM | 26.7 | 18.5 | 12.9 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 7.7 | 9.8 | 6.9 |
| Phosphate | µM | 1.40 | 3.78 | 3.08 | 0.07 | 0.05 | 0.22 | 0.14 | 0.04 | 0.02 |
| Silicate | µM | 11.52 | 9.93 | 6.29 | 1.39 | 0.39 | 1.81 | 6.26 | 3.74 | 4.44 |
| POC | $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ | 1270 | 2781 | 1768 | 1013 | 906 | 1202 | 1202 | 1068 | 1094 |
| Chlorophyll-a | $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ | 2.80 | 10.50 | 5.18 | 0.35 | 0.95 | 0.34 | 0.39 | 0.50 | 0.99 |
| AHs | ng L^{-1} | 5257 | 3888 | 2720 | 3133 | 3867 | 3196 | 2340 | 1969 | 3031 |
| PAHs | ng L^{-1} | 137 | 68 | 43 | 103 | 42 | 37 | 46 | 60 | 67 |

DO: dissolved oxygen; POC: particulate organic carbon; AHs: aliphatic hydrocarbons; PAHs: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons.

only exceptions were the concentrations of AHs in El Kantaoui and nitrate and silicate in Heraklion (Table 3). No significant difference was found in pH among ports. As expected in the Mediterranean region, temperature increased from winter (February) to early summer (May) to late summer (September) and dissolved oxygen (DO) was significantly lower in September than in February and May. The variable pH was significantly higher in September than in February, with intermediate values in May. Both POC and chlorophyll-*a* were significantly higher in May than in February, with intermediate values in September (Tables 2a, 3 for ANOVA). On the overall dataset, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) were significantly higher in February than in the remaining months. Overall, the variability among ports was higher than the variability among sampling periods, since 12 of the 13 analysed physical-chemical variables presented significant differences among ports and only 6 among periods (2-way-ANOVAs, Table 3).

The variability among stations within each port was lower than the variability among ports and among periods, as indicated by the low number of variables with significant differences among stations when 1-way-ANOVAs were performed separately for each port (i.e. 7 in Cagliari, 1 in Heraklion, 0 in El Kantaoui, not shown). The comparison among stations in Cagliari is shown in Table 3 (Scheffé mean multicomparison by stations), where most of the among-station variability was recorded (whole dataset in Table 1S). In Cagliari port, nutrient concentrations were significantly higher and salinity significantly lower in the leisure boat area (C1) than in the other stations. The only exceptions were the intermediate values (not significantly different from those measured in the other stations) found at the port entrance (C5) for salinity and levels of nitrate, phosphate and silicate, as well as at the station hosting the military navy vessels (C2) for the concentration of nitrate. The concentration of total PAHs was significantly higher at the station hosting the military navy vessels (C2) than at the cargo ships station (C4), with intermediate values not significantly different from either in the remaining stations. The overall variance accounted for by PAHs model was 18% of the total variance, as shown by the lower coefficient of determination of PAHs ($r^2 = 0.18$, Table 3) as compared to the other variables ($r^2 > 0.70$, Table 3). In the Heraklion port, the only difference found among stations was for silicate, with a coefficient of determination $r^2 = 0.69$. Silicate concentration in Heraklion was significantly higher in the cargo ship area (H4) than at the port entrance (H7), while values obtained in the other stations were intermediate and not significantly different from either.

3.2. Planktonic biota in the three ports

The highest bacterial densities (around 10^7 cell mL⁻¹) were found in Cagliari port in May at all stations (Table 2b, Table 1S) and in the three sampling periods at the station hosting leisure boats (C1). On the contrary, the lowest bacterial abundances (around 10^6 cell mL⁻¹) were detected in El Kantaoui in February (all stations) and in Heraklion in September (at the port entrance, H7). The total bacterial counts were significantly higher in Cagliari than in the other two ports (Table 3). No significant differences were found between El Kantaoui and Heraklion ports.

Considering the overall abundance of phytoplankton, Cagliari port had the significantly highest phytoplankton density at all (total, diatoms and “other phytoplankton”; Tables 2b, 3), whereas no significant differences resulted for the other two ports. Heraklion was the port with the highest abundances of coccolithophores, which at El Kantaoui presented the lowest values with a significant difference between the two ports; intermediate densities were found in Cagliari (Tables 2b, 3). The abundances of total phytoplankton showed a general increasing trend in the three ports from the lowest values in February (around 10 cell mL⁻¹) to the maxima recorded in May (El Kantaoui) and September (Cagliari and Heraklion), when phytoplankton

reached densities over 10^3 cell mL⁻¹ in Cagliari and El Kantaoui, and 10^2 cell mL⁻¹ in Heraklion (Table 2b). Overall, diatoms were the dominant class representing on average more than the 80% of the total phytoplankton in September in the three ports, in May in Cagliari and El Kantaoui, and in February exclusively in Cagliari at stations C1 and C2 (Table 2b, Table 1S). Indeed, in February diatoms and dinoflagellates showed their lowest contribution, when coccolithophores dominated in Heraklion (all stations) and Cagliari (excluding C1 and C2) and “other phytoplankton” dominated in El Kantaoui (particularly cryptophytes) and Cagliari (particularly cryptophytes, freshwater chlorophytes and cyanobacteria). In El Kantaoui (May), Cagliari (May and September) and in Heraklion (September, to lesser extent) diatom blooms with different taxonomic contributions were responsible for the highest densities of total phytoplankton. Dinoflagellates prevailed in Heraklion in May, together with a lower contribution of “other phytoplankton” (cryptophytes and chlorophytes).

Zooplankton mean abundances ranged between 19 ind m⁻³ in El Kantaoui in February and 941 ind m⁻³ in Heraklion in the same month (Table 2b). Peaks of 2257 ind m⁻³ in El Kantaoui (September, station E3), 2206 ind m⁻³ in Heraklion (February, Station H3) and 1542 ind m⁻³ in Cagliari (February, station C3) (Table 2S) were recorded. In Heraklion and Cagliari, the highest densities were mostly found in February at the stations hosting passenger and cargo ships (C3 and C4, H3 and H4) and the lowest at the stations hosting leisure boats (C1, H1) in the three sampling periods (Fig. 2a, Table 2S). A different pattern was identified in El Kantaoui, where the lowest densities were observed in February and the highest in September (Table 2b, Fig. 2a).

Overall, 39 zooplankton groups were recognized (Table 2b). The most abundant were copepods (67% of the total of all samples), followed by appendicularians (12%) and cladocerans (7%), all belonging to holoplankton (Fig. 2a). Meroplankton constituted 12% of the total zooplankton in all the analysed samples, with barnacle nauplii (Cirripedia) contributing with 5%, polychaetes with 3% (mainly spionid larvae) and gastropod larvae and hydromedusae with 1% each.

Concerning holoplankton, calanoid copepods represented the 60% of the total zooplankton, with the genus *Acartia* accounting for 44% of the total zooplankton and 67% of the copepods (Fig. 2b). Other common calanoid genera identified in the three ports were *Isias* (14% of copepods) very abundant in February in Heraklion, *Paracalanus*, *Parvocalanus*, *Clausocalanus* and *Calocalanus* (reported here as other Calanoida, together with other less abundant or non-identified calanoids, 6% of copepods) and *Centropages* mostly ubiquitous with a 4%. The genus *Acartia* was mostly present in February in Heraklion port, where it formed swarms, declining in May and September. *Acartia* was also observed in Cagliari, mainly in February and May at stations C4 and C5, and in El Kantaoui, mainly in September at the inner stations E1 and E2 (Fig. 2b). Cyclopoid copepods were 7% of the copepods, with the genus *Oithona* as the most represented (5%, Fig. 2b) and very low percentages of Corycaeidae including *Corycaeus*, *Oncoea*, *Farranula* and *Copilia* (3%), the last one exclusively in Heraklion. Harpacticoid copepods were recorded with 2% (Fig. 2b), mostly *Diarthrodes* (only at El Kantaoui) and *Euterpina*. The other copepods are included in the group “others” (Fig. 2b) and represented <1% of the copepods.

Appendicularians were the second holoplanktonic dominant taxon, mainly represented by the genus *Oikopleura*, mostly present in Cagliari in February, and in Heraklion and El Kantaoui in September (Fig. 2a). Cladocerans were observed with all the three genera known for the Mediterranean: *Podon*, *Evadne* and *Penilia*. *Podon* was mostly present in Cagliari in February, with decreasing densities in May and September, whereas *Evadne* was the main genus in Heraklion in September. In El Kantaoui, all the three cladoceran genera occurred with low abundances during the three sampling periods, except for the numerically dominant cladoceran *Penilia* in September.

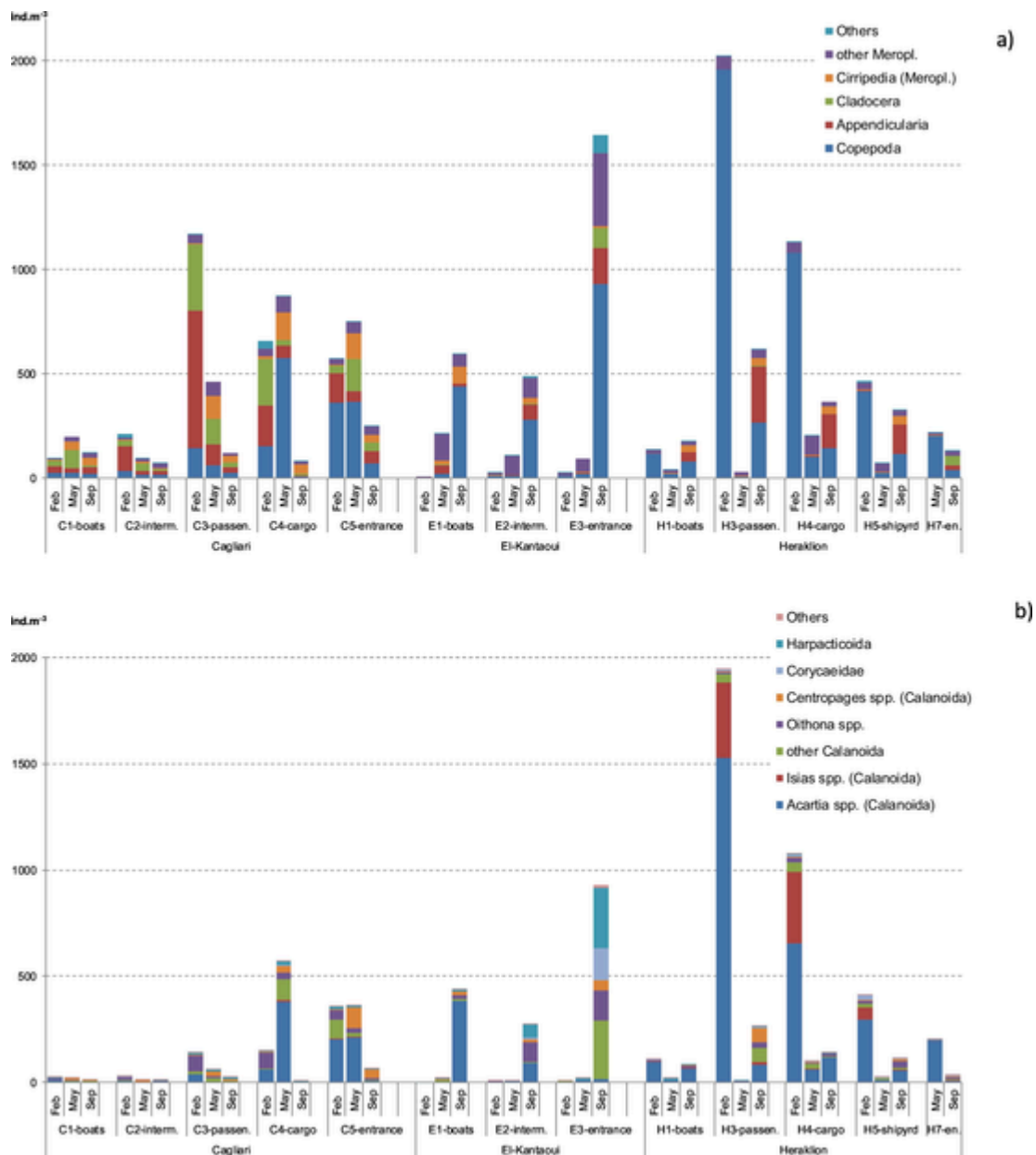


Fig. 2. Densities of the zooplankton taxonomic groups that mostly contributed to the total zooplankton in different stations and sampling periods. a) Total zooplankton. For clarity of representation only the components contributing $> 5\%$ to the total zooplankton were represented. (Copepoda 67%; Appendicularia 12%; Cladocera 7%; Cirripedia 5%; other Meroplankton 7%; others 2%). b) Copepods. For clarity of representation only the components contributing $> 1\%$ to the copepods were represented. (*Acartia* spp. (Calanoida) 67%; *Isias* spp. (Calanoida) 14%; other Calanoida 6%; *Oithona* spp. 5%; *Centropages* spp. (Calanoida) 4%; *Corycaeidae* 1%; *Harpacticoida* 2%; others $< 1\%$). Explanations of the labels and station uses are in Table 1. Further details in text.

The results of the 2-way-ANOVAs, performed with port and sampling period as main effects on the abundances of total bacteria, total and main groups of phytoplankton, and total zooplankton (Table 3), showed that the variability of the biotic components among ports was higher than the variability among sampling periods, since five of the seven variables presented significant differences among ports (highest abundances in Cagliari for the majority of the variables) and only two among periods (highest abundances of dinoflagellates in May and coccolithophores in February). No significant differences were observed for total zooplankton at all.

3.3. Linking abiotic conditions and planktonic elements by factor analysis

The combined effects of the variables were analysed through factor analysis and the first four factors explained 57% of the whole data vari-

ability (Table 4). Each factor includes a different combination of variables with coefficients, which reflects different sources of variability in the studied data. The coefficients of each variable are relevant for the interpretation of the factor itself (Table 4). The values of the four factors calculated for each station and sampling period in the three investigated ports are reported in Fig. 3.

The first factor (Factor1, Table 4) accounted for 24% of the overall data variability. It is a bipolar factor showing in its positive pole a strong positive correlation (high positive coefficients) among DO, concentrations of nutrients (NH_4 , NO_2 , NO_3 , PO_4 , SiO_2), POC, chlorophyll-*a*, total bacterial counts, as well as abundances of diatoms, “other phytoplankton” and zooplanktonic cladocerans and barnacles nauplii (Cirripedia), while a weaker correlation (mid positive coefficients) was found with the abundances of appendicularians and decapod larvae. These variables were negatively correlated with those in the nega-

Table 2b
Mean values of biological variables by port and sampling period in the three Mediterranean ports.

| Variable | Unit | Cagliari | | | El Kantaoui | | | Heraklion | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------|----------|---------|---------|-------------|---------|--------|-----------|-------|--------|
| | | Feb | May | Sep | Feb | May | Sep | Feb | May | Sep |
| Bacteria & phytoplankton | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total bacterial counts $\times 10^6$ | cells mL ⁻¹ | 7.6 | 8.9 | 7.0 | 1.9 | 4.2 | 6.3 | 4.7 | 3.8 | 2.7 |
| Total phytoplankton | cells mL ⁻¹ | 221.00 | 3813.00 | 4364.00 | 29.00 | 1421.00 | 141.00 | 24.00 | 65.00 | 100.00 |
| Diatoms | cells mL ⁻¹ | 171.00 | 3280.00 | 3754.00 | 10.10 | 1338.00 | 115.00 | 1.40 | 11.90 | 73.30 |
| Dinoflagellates | cells mL ⁻¹ | 3.40 | 16.00 | 14.00 | 1.20 | 38.00 | 2.90 | 4.10 | 27.00 | 13.00 |
| Coccolithophores | cells mL ⁻¹ | 6.70 | 0.40 | 1.80 | 0.06 | 0.20 | 0.00 | 14.00 | 3.40 | 1.40 |
| Other phytoplankton | cells mL ⁻¹ | 40.00 | 516.00 | 594.00 | 17.00 | 45.00 | 23.00 | 3.80 | 23.00 | 12.00 |
| Zooplankton | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total zooplankton | ind m ⁻³ | 540.0 | 475.0 | 128.0 | 19.0 | 140.0 | 910.0 | 941.0 | 112.0 | 322.0 |
| Holoplankton | | | | | | | | | | |
| Proportion of holoplankton | % | 94.4 | 72.7 | 57.8 | 48.9 | 25.9 | 77.6 | 95.6 | 67.2 | 83.0 |
| Hydromedusae | ind m ⁻³ | 5.4 | 3.1 | 4.8 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 45.0 | 0.8 | 3.1 | 3.1 |
| Scyphomedusae | ind m ⁻³ | 7.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Siphonophora | ind m ⁻³ | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.7 | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| Pteropoda | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.4 |
| Ostracoda | ind m ⁻³ | 0.3 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 0.1 |
| <i>Podon</i> spp. | ind m ⁻³ | 125.5 | 85.4 | 18.3 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| <i>Evadne</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 11.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 9.6 |
| <i>Penilia</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 24.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| <i>Acartia</i> spp. | ind m ⁻³ | 64.4 | 119.6 | 2.4 | 1.1 | 6.3 | 163.0 | 644.1 | 56.3 | 67.0 |
| <i>Centropages</i> spp. | ind m ⁻³ | 2.4 | 34.3 | 11.3 | 0.0 | 2.6 | 27.6 | 3.4 | 1.6 | 18.3 |
| <i>Isias</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 0.4 | 1.8 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 187.1 | 0.4 | 3.5 |
| Other Calanoida | ind m ⁻³ | 24.2 | 28.4 | 3.6 | 2.2 | 2.3 | 98.7 | 27.6 | 6.7 | 17.2 |
| <i>Corycaeus</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 54.3 | 9.6 | 0.6 | 1.1 |
| <i>Oithona</i> spp. | ind m ⁻³ | 41.9 | 13.3 | 2.8 | 2.2 | 1.4 | 82.4 | 13.3 | 2.9 | 17.9 |
| Other Cyclopoida | ind m ⁻³ | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 1.8 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| <i>Diarthodes</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 1.5 | 64.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| <i>Euterpina</i> sp. | ind m ⁻³ | 4.2 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 13.4 | 0.4 | 1.1 | 0.8 |
| Other Harpacticoida | ind m ⁻³ | 1.8 | 4.6 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 1.3 | 37.9 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 2.2 |
| Monstrilloida | ind m ⁻³ | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| Siphonostomatoida | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.6 | 2.2 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Copepoda nc | ind m ⁻³ | 2.1 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 0.3 | 0.7 |
| Amphipoda | ind m ⁻³ | 3.5 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 2.2 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 0.6 | 0.2 |
| Chaetognata | ind m ⁻³ | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 29.0 | 2.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Appendicularia | ind m ⁻³ | 229.0 | 50.0 | 29.0 | 0.3 | 14.0 | 85.0 | 2.2 | 1.3 | 127.0 |
| Meroplankton | | | | | | | | | | |
| Proportion of meroplankton | % | 5.6 | 27.3 | 42.2 | 51.1 | 74.1 | 22.4 | 4.4 | 32.8 | 17.0 |
| Gastropoda larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 3.0 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 0.0 | 2.7 | 26.9 | 6.2 | 11.2 | 1.3 |
| Bivalvia | ind m ⁻³ | 2.6 | 2.2 | 0.8 | 0.1 | 2.7 | 11.7 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 2.6 |
| Polychaeta larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 8.8 | 8.2 | 4.4 | 3.6 | 15.0 | 76.9 | 19.8 | 11.5 | 6.0 |
| Platyhelminthes larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.1 | 69.9 | 0.7 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.0 |
| Nemertea larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Cirripedia nauplia | ind m ⁻³ | 5.8 | 82.5 | 31.6 | 0.5 | 8.4 | 37.4 | 0.6 | 2.5 | 29.5 |
| Decapoda larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 3.1 | 12.8 | 1.5 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.2 | 2.8 |
| Mysidacea | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Cumacea | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Tanaidacea | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Isopoda | ind m ⁻³ | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Phoronida | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Ascidacea larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 0.4 | 10.9 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 0.4 | 2.1 | 3.3 |
| Echinodermata larvae | ind m ⁻³ | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.9 | 1.1 |
| Ichthyoplankton | ind m ⁻³ | 1.1 | 1.3 | 0.5 | 4.6 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 11.3 | 4.8 | 5.6 |

tive pole, strongly (high negative coefficient) with salinity and weakly (mid negative coefficient) with the abundance of ichthyoplankton (Table 4). Factor1 differentiated Cagliari from the other two ports, with higher values for Cagliari than El Kantaoui and Heraklion in all stations and sampling periods, as result of lower salinity, higher nutrient levels and higher plankton abundances (Fig. 3a). In time and at station scale, the Cagliari port presented higher values of Factor1 in May at all stations and in the three sampling periods at the stations hosting leisure

boats (C1) and military navy vessels (C2) as well as at the port entrance (C5). In the ports of Heraklion and El Kantaoui, Factor1 values were rather similar among different stations in the same sampling period, showing an increasing trend with time.

The second factor (Factor2, Table 4) accounted for a further 15% of the remaining data variability. It reflected the abundances of most zooplankton taxa (both holoplanktonic and meroplanktonic), more specifically, higher coefficients were found for copepods (harpactic-

Table 3

Results of 2-way-ANOVAs of physical, chemical and biological variables by port and sampling period (Cagliari: C, El Kantaoui: E, Heraklion: H) and 1-way-ANOVA by stations in Cagliari port.

| Variable | 2-Way-ANOVA by port and sampling period | | Scheffé mean multicomparison by port main effect | | | Scheffé mean multicomparison by sampling period main effect | | | 1-Way-ANOVA | Scheffé mean multicomparison by stations in Cagliari | | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|--|----|----|---|-----|-----|-------------|--|----------------|----|----|----|----|
| | Significance | r ² | C | E | H | Feb | May | Sep | | Significance | r ² | C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 |
| Number of observations | | | 15 | 9 | 14 | 12 | 13 | 13 | | | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Physical-chemical variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Temperature | *** | 0.95 | b | a | a | c | b | a | ns | | | | | | |
| Salinity | *** | 0.59 | b | a | a | | | | ** | 0.76 | b | a | a | a | ab |
| DO | *** | 0.68 | a | b | b | a | a | b | ns | | | | | | |
| pH | ** | 0.37 | | | | b | ab | a | ns | | | | | | |
| Ammonia (NH ₄) | * | 0.26 | a | b | b | | | | ** | 0.80 | a | b | b | b | b |
| Nitrite (NO ₂) | ** | 0.37 | a | b | b | | | | *** | 0.83 | a | b | b | b | b |
| Nitrate (NO ₃) | ** | 0.35 | a | b | ab | | | | ** | 0.73 | a | ab | b | b | ab |
| Phosphate (PO ₄) | * | 0.28 | a | b | b | | | | ** | 0.77 | a | b | b | b | ab |
| Silicate (SiO ₂) | * | 0.32 | a | b | ab | | | | ** | 0.81 | a | b | b | b | ab |
| POC | *** | 0.52 | a | b | b | b | a | ab | ns | | | | | | |
| Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> | *** | 0.54 | a | b | b | b | a | ab | ns | | | | | | |
| AHs | * | 0.26 | a | ab | b | | | | ns | | | | | | |
| PAHs | *** | 0.32 | a | b | b | a | b | b | ** | 0.18 | ab | a | ab | b | ab |
| Bacterio-, phyto- & zoo-plankton | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total bacterial counts | *** | 0.57 | a | b | b | | | | ns | | | | | | |
| Total phytoplankton | *** | 0.43 | a | b | b | | | | ns | | | | | | |
| Diatoms | *** | 0.43 | a | b | b | | | | ns | | | | | | |
| Dinoflagellates | *** | 0.46 | | | | b | a | b | ns | | | | | | |
| Coccolithophores | *** | 0.51 | ab | b | a | a | b | b | ns | | | | | | |
| Other phytoplankton | ** | 0.35 | a | b | b | | | | ns | | | | | | |
| Total zooplankton | ns | | | | | | | | ns | | | | | | |

r² = coefficient of determination of the ANOVA model. In each of the three multi-comparisons, different letters indicate significant differences at $p < 0.05$. Letter 'a' represents a higher value than letter 'b' that represents a higher value than letter 'c'. Asterisks indicate significant differences: * at $p < 0.05$, ** at $p < 0.01$, *** at $p < 0.001$. Ns and empty spaces: not significant ($p > 0.05$). DO: dissolved oxygen; POC: particulate organic carbon; AHs: aliphatic hydrocarbons; PAHs: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons.

coids, cyclopoids, calanoids and monstrilloids), hydromedusae, chaetognats, appendicularians, molluscs (both gastropods and bivalves) and polychaetes, while lower coefficient values were found for barnacle nauplii. Among the investigated ports, the variability range of Factor2 was wider and the differences through time were larger for El Kantaoui (Fig. 3b), with lower values in February and higher in September, mainly at the port entrance (E3). On the contrary, the variability ranges were rather similar and narrow in Cagliari and Heraklion, with higher differences between ports than sampling periods. In the two larger ports, the Factor2 generally increased from the inner leisure boat area toward the port entrance (in Heraklion up to H4, not reaching H5 and H7) and at each station from February to May and September (Fig. 3b). Overall, Factor2 differentiated zooplanktonic communities between El Kantaoui and the other two ports, but also among different stations within each port and through time, representing the second main source of variability in the analysed data.

The third factor (Factor3, Table 4) accounted for a further 11% of the remaining data variability. It can be described as a bipolar factor showing negative correlations between concentrations of nitrate and silicate, abundances of coccolithophores and cyclopoid copepods on the positive pole, and temperature, abundances of dinoflagellates, diatoms and platyhelminth larvae on the negative pole. A similar trend was recognized in Cagliari and Heraklion (Fig. 3c), with higher values of Factor3 in February (as result of the maxima of coccolithophores and

the minima of diatoms and dinoflagellates) and lower values in May and September (as result of the maxima of dinoflagellates in May and the maxima of diatoms in May and September). On the contrary, a different trend was found in El Kantaoui, with the lowest values of Factor3 in May, corresponding to a synchronous variation of the planktonic taxa included in the factor at the negative pole at the three sampling stations. In all ports and stations, Factor3 differentiated samples collected in winter (February) from samples collected during the warmer months (May and September, Fig. 3c). Moreover, in February the Factor3 values discriminated between the two large ports (Cagliari and Heraklion with higher values of Factor3) and the marina of El Kantaoui (lower values of Factor3).

The fourth factor (Factor4, Table 4) accounted for a further 7% of the remaining data variability. It is a bipolar factor showing negative correlation between the abundances of siphonophores, echinoderm larvae and ichthyoplankton in the positive pole, and concentrations of AHs and PAHs as well as abundances of amphipods in the negative pole. Moreover Factor4 resulted significantly correlated with water depth (Pearsons $r^2 = 0.34$, $p < 0.05$; $r^2 = 0.44$, $p < 0.05$ excluding the winter Cagliari samples). The shallow El Kantaoui and the deep Heraklion ports presented opposite patterns, while the intermediate-depth Cagliari port was similar to El Kantaoui in February and to Heraklion in May and September (Fig. 3d). In El Kantaoui, the coefficients of Factor4 were lower as compared to the other ports at all stations

Table 4

Results of factor analysis of the physical-chemical data and log-transformed densities of planktonic organisms in three Mediterranean ports. Factor coefficients in bold were used for interpretation. $n = 190$ observations.

Expand

| Variable | Coefficients | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| | Factor1 | Factor2 | Factor3 | Factor4 | |
| Physical-chemical variables | | | | | |
| Temperature | | -0.01 | 0.34 | -0.77 | 0.12 |
| Salinity | | -0.87 | 0.06 | -0.21 | 0.10 |
| DO | | 0.58 | -0.18 | 0.26 | 0.25 |
| Ammonia | | 0.76 | -0.24 | 0.25 | 0.02 |
| Nitrite | | 0.86 | -0.20 | 0.21 | 0.09 |
| Nitrate | | 0.65 | -0.11 | 0.49 | 0.02 |
| Phosphate | | 0.79 | -0.22 | 0.13 | 0.12 |
| Silicate | | 0.68 | -0.14 | 0.50 | 0.12 |
| POC | | 0.76 | 0.04 | -0.17 | 0.38 |
| Chlorophyll-a | | 0.85 | -0.02 | -0.15 | 0.31 |
| AHs | | 0.40 | -0.11 | 0.21 | -0.44 |
| PAHs | | 0.16 | -0.19 | 0.36 | -0.42 |
| Bacteria & phytoplankton | | | | | |
| Total bacterial counts | | 0.70 | 0.20 | 0.04 | 0.01 |
| Diatoms | | 0.77 | 0.01 | -0.53 | -0.11 |
| Dinoflagellates | | -0.19 | 0.06 | -0.73 | 0.27 |
| Coccolitophores | | -0.38 | -0.09 | 0.48 | 0.23 |
| Other phytoplankton | | 0.79 | -0.11 | -0.36 | -0.01 |
| Zooplankton | | | | | |
| Holoplankton | | | | | |
| Cnidaria Scyphomedusae | | 0.04 | 0.18 | 0.32 | -0.28 |
| Cnidaria Siphonophora | | -0.35 | -0.01 | 0.41 | 0.49 |
| Ostracoda | | 0.04 | 0.18 | 0.03 | 0.08 |
| Amphipoda | | 0.03 | 0.05 | -0.04 | -0.47 |
| Cladocera | | 0.65 | 0.40 | 0.20 | -0.21 |
| Calanoida (Copepoda) | | -0.13 | 0.67 | 0.31 | 0.38 |
| Cyclopoida (Copepoda) | | -0.03 | 0.76 | 0.47 | -0.05 |
| Harpacticoida (Copepoda) | | 0.07 | 0.85 | 0.00 | -0.13 |
| Monstrilloida (Copepoda) | | -0.05 | 0.59 | -0.09 | -0.09 |
| Siphonostomatoida (Copepoda) | | 0.43 | -0.17 | -0.30 | 0.15 |
| Chaetognata | | -0.24 | 0.65 | 0.17 | -0.04 |
| Appendicularia | | 0.46 | 0.58 | 0.09 | -0.26 |
| Meroplankton | | | | | |
| Cnidaria Hydromedusae | | 0.09 | 0.76 | 0.09 | -0.16 |
| Ascidacea | | 0.36 | 0.35 | -0.37 | 0.18 |
| Platyhelmintha | | -0.05 | -0.09 | -0.56 | -0.29 |
| Polychaeta larvae | | -0.14 | 0.71 | 0.08 | 0.04 |
| Gasteropoda larvae | | 0.09 | 0.58 | -0.03 | 0.33 |
| Bivalvia larvae | | 0.02 | 0.74 | -0.04 | -0.19 |
| Echinodermata larvae | | 0.00 | 0.03 | -0.12 | 0.43 |
| Cirripedia nauplia | | 0.58 | 0.46 | -0.35 | 0.03 |
| Decapoda larvae | | 0.46 | 0.41 | 0.00 | 0.28 |
| Ichthyoplankton | | -0.44 | 0.07 | 0.33 | 0.52 |
| Variance explained (%) | | 24 | 15 | 11 | 7 |
| Interpretation | Freshwater input, nutrient loading | Zooplankton variability | Seasonality, water turbulence | Anthropogenic activities | |

DO: dissolved oxygen; POC: particulate organic carbon; AHs: aliphatic hydrocarbons; PAHs: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. The zooplankton taxa are those groups in Table 2b that presented at least 50 ind m^{-3} in the whole dataset.

and in all sampling periods (Fig. 3d), with the exception of the samples collected in winter in Cagliari at the stations hosting the military navy vessels (C2), passenger (C3) and cargo ships (C4) (Fig. 3d). The generally lower Factor4 values in El Kantaoui were the result of higher levels of AHs and amphipods and lower (or zero) levels of the three positive coefficient variables (i.e. abundances of siphonophores, echinoderms larvae and ichthyoplankton). An opposite situation was found in Heraklion, where the coefficients of Factor4 were higher than in the other two ports in almost all the sampling stations and periods, as related to higher abundances of ichthyoplankton, echinoderm larvae

and siphonophores and lower levels of AHs, PAHs and amphipods (Fig. 3d). In Cagliari port, the coefficients of Factor4 presented lower values in February (more similar to those measured in El Kantaoui) than in the other sampling periods, when higher levels of hydrocarbons and amphipods were measured in the port waters. On the contrary, higher Factor4 values (more similar to those observed in Heraklion) were found at all the stations of the Cagliari port in May, when concentrations of PAHs were lower and echinoderm larvae were more abundant (Table 2b).



Fig. 3. Variation of each factor through space (ports, stations) and time (seasons); the most relevant variables for each factor, based on the coefficients in Table 4, are reported on the left. a) Factor 1; b) Factor 2; c) Factor 3; d) Factor 4. Arrows indicate the presence of both positive and negative coefficients (Factors 1, 3, 4) or only positive (Factor 2). Explanations of the labels and station uses are in Table 1.

4. Discussion

4.1. Differences in freshwater inputs and nutrient loading

At the space and time scales of the present study, the main variability occurred among ports as it was identified by Factor1. Overall, statistical analyses cogently differentiated the port of Cagliari from the port of Heraklion and the marina of El Kantaoui (Table 3 and Fig. 3a). The specificity of the Cagliari port can be attributed to the input of inland brackish waters into the port area, a hydrological feature that does not occur in the other two harbours. The Natural Protected Area of Molentargius is a system of coastal lagoons, ponds and saltworks protected by the RAMSAR Convention. Within this system, the San Bartolomeo

canal (Fig. 1b) receives water from the brackish lagoon “Stagno del Molentargius” and collects treated wastewaters from the surrounding Municipalities, discharging brackish waters mainly into the leisure boat area (C1) of the Cagliari port (Fig. 1a, b). A plume of this water likely extends to cover the area of the port entrance (C5) providing a distinct water profile within the port. The effects were mainly visible in February in the area hosting leisure boats (C1, minimum salinity 28‰) and at the port entrance (C5, minimum salinity 30‰). This discharge affected not only salinity but also nitrate, phosphate and silicate (at the negative pole of Factor1, Table 4) with high levels of the three nutrients at stations C1 and C5, and high level of nitrate at station C2 (1-way-ANOVA, Table 3). In the proximity of the quays for the anchoring of cargo ships (C4), the Santa Gilla canal drains wastewaters of ur-

ban runoff into the port area (Fig. 1b). Despite this freshwater inlet, the station C4 seemed to be marginally influenced, probably due to a low flow rate and/or the quality of the discharged waters. Finally, the sector of the Cagliari port hosting passenger ships (C3), more distantly located from the two discharges of inland waters, was the least affected area of the port (highest salinity and lowest nutrient levels during all the studied periods).

The brackish water input of the Molentargius lagoon not only drains into the Cagliari port high levels of inorganic nutrients and organic matter (Massi et al., 2019), but also plankton. Freshwater chlorophytes, cyanobacteria (namely “other phytoplankton”, Table 3) and the freshwater pennate diatom *Tabellaria fenestrata*, typical of eutrophic waters, were exclusively found in Cagliari among the studied ports, particularly at stations C1 and the nearby C2. The high trophic level of waters in the Cagliari port was also likely responsible for the development of diatom blooms and the proliferation of bacteria, which affected station C1 (and also C2 for diatoms) in the three studied periods, and influenced all the stations in May, probably due to persistent effects of nutrient rich brackish waters from the Molentargius lagoon after the winter-spring rainy period. More specifically, these high trophic conditions promoted the May–September blooms of typical coastal fast-growing and individually small diatoms, as *Skeletonema pseudocostatum* and *Thalassiosira pseudonana*. Indeed, *Skeletonema* species are well known blooming diatoms in coastal and estuarine Mediterranean waters (Moncheva et al., 2001; Kooistra et al., 2008; Abboud-Abi Saab et al., 2008), while *T. pseudonana*, typical of coastal and brackish water bodies, is favoured by high temperatures (Hegseth and Sakshaug, 1983).

Concerning zooplankton, three variables of the positive pole of Factor1 highlighted the association of the euryhaline and neritic cladoceran *Podon* (Factor1, Table 4) with crustacean larvae and the appendicularian *Oikopleura dioica*. The first two groups are known in disturbed and shallow areas subjected to river discharges (Christou et al., 1995) and the latter depends on chlorophyll and temperature for its development (Harris et al., 2005). Specifically, the genus *Podon* is described as a raptorial feeder on big particles, such as microzooplankton and large phytoplankton (Jagger et al., 1988) that are abundant in the water column in eutrophicated areas with high nutrient loading. Accordingly, this taxon was present in Cagliari with the highest densities during all the sampling periods, constituting one of the distinct features of the Cagliari port among the studied harbours.

As compared to the Cagliari port, more saline waters with lower levels of nutrients, bacteria, phytoplankton and lower abundance of zooplankton with positive coefficients in Factor1 prevailed in Heraklion and El Kantaoui ports in all the studied periods. A trend is observed in these ports with a mild increase of Factor1 from winter to summer (Factor1, Fig. 3a), which may be attributed to an increased nutrient loading during the tourist warm season together with increases of some plankton organisms. In El Kantaoui, the diatom blooming in May was found exclusively for *S. pseudocostatum*. As a matter of fact, *Skeletonema* blooms have been observed in the port waters of Malta (De Bono, 2001/2002; Nuccio, unpublished data) and other southern Mediterranean ports (Abdel Halim and Khairy, 2007; Heneash et al., 2015). In September, a contribution to the aforementioned increasing trend was given by the large occurrence in El Kantaoui port of the filter-feeder cladoceran *Penilia avirostris*, described as more typical of warm season and waters (Margaritora, 2010), and by the high abundances in Heraklion of barnacle larvae and *Oikopleura* (Fig. 2a), the latter probably dependent on food availability as one of the most critical limiting factors (Tomita et al., 2003).

The further variable contributing to the different patterns observed between Cagliari port, on one side, and El Kantaoui and Heraklion, on the other side, was the higher density of ichthyoplankton that occurred in the last two ports. Ichthyoplankton seemed more connected

with open sea processes and was indeed mainly observed at the outer stations of El Kantaoui and Heraklion ports. Its low abundance in Cagliari might be related with the freshwater inputs and/or advection from neighbouring areas.

From the point of view of the relationships among the biotic components highlighted by Factor1, bacteria and phytoplankton directly benefit of nutrient loading whereas the zooplankton organisms, like cladocerans, barnacle larvae and appendicularians, take advantage of both suspended particles and high phytoplankton abundances even if bacterioplankton should not be excluded (Bernàt et al., 1994). Among abiotic parameters, the three biotic components are also strongly influenced by salinity. At the highest trophic level in the studied sites (Rice and Williamson, 1970), decapod larvae benefit of the presence of the other planktonic groups.

4.2. Zooplankton variability

Besides the seasonality of the different zooplanktonic species, local processes as tidal oscillations, bottom processes, wind stress and turbulence causing turbidity and/or low hydrodynamics are considered the main drivers enhancing or reducing abundances, and structuring zooplanktonic communities and their biological interactions in harbours and bays (Dawson and Pieper, 1993). Parallel considerations may be made for the present study in which Factor2 shows a non-homogeneous distribution of the relevant zooplanktonic taxa and their variability among stations within each port and with season (Factor2, Table 4, Fig. 3b).

In both large ports of this study (Cagliari and Heraklion), the wide connection between the port area and the open sea through their wide port entrance, the relatively deep bathymetry and the wide area between docks and breakwaters (C3-C5 and H3-H5, Fig. 1) allow a rather free water penetration from the open sea. These conditions result in a higher abundance of specific groups of zooplankton (as shown by Factor2, Table 4) at the port entrance (C5 and H7) as compared to the respective shallower and more protected areas (C1, C2 and H1, Fig. 3b), where open sea water penetration is more difficult. Furthermore, in C1 and C2 a disturbance element for zooplankton grazing could have been the presence of cyanobacteria (included in “other phytoplankton” and found exclusively in Cagliari), for their eventual toxin production and poor manageability by zooplankton (Hogfors et al., 2014, and references therein). In contrast, the shallow and narrow port entrance in the smaller El Kantaoui port is likely to reduce water penetration inside the marina (Fig. 1, Table 1). Despite plankton advection can be supposed to influence plankton changes in stations close to the port entrance, investigation of the phenomenon was out of the aim of the study and cannot be achieved through the present sampling protocol.

In the El Kantaoui marina in February, the relatively higher winter water mixing and the zooplankton seasonality would explain the similar low zooplankton abundance in the port entrance (E3) and intermediate area (E2), and the even lower abundance in the leisure boat station (E1) (Fig. 3b); this spatial difference suggests that the open sea water should have penetrated into the port up to station E2. From May to September, the low hydrodynamism seems to have favoured a local zooplankton development inside the port (positive value of Factor2 at station E1, Fig. 3b). Indeed, very still water was documented during the whole sampling campaign in September, which could account for the much higher zooplankton abundance found at the port entrance (E3) than at the inner stations (peak of Factor2, Fig. 3b). It is worth noting that at station E3 the open sea taxa (e.g. hydromedusae, appendicularians and gastropod larvae) were observed in higher abundances compared to the densities in the other stations, while opportunistic taxa (e.g. calanoids and barnacle larvae) were more abundant in the inner station E1 (Table 2S).

Among copepod genera, harpacticoids, cyclopoids and calanoids had a considerable weight in the zooplankton communities as indicated by Factor2 (Table 4). Among cyclopoids, the most abundant taxon was *Oithona*, which represents an opportunistic zooplankter, belongs to the coastal neritic or shallower waters (Williams and Muxagata, 2006) and is known to feed on a wide range of particles, such as organic matter and phytoplankton of small size (Lampitt and Gamble, 1982; Turner, 2004). The calanoid *Acartia* was the most conspicuous copepod at the three ports (Fig. 2b). It is a well-known swarming genus (Ueda et al., 1983; Santu et al., 2016) that may take advantage of coastal areas with suitable conditions like sheltered bays rich in nutrients, but also port areas (Siokou-Frangou et al., 1995; Belmonte et al., 2018; Vidjak et al., 2018). In literature, it has been reported that much of *Acartia* seasonality depends on temperature, salinity and hydrology and eventually oxygen or chlorophyll-*a* (proxy of phytoplankton) (Siokou-Frangou et al., 1998; Kang, 2011). The *Acartia* abundances observed in this study (Fig. 2b) apparently followed the trends typical of naturally enclosed coastal areas with the booster effect of nutrient abundance that favoured phytoplankton blooms (Siokou-Frangou and Papathanassiou, 1991). An inverse relationship between the relative quantities of phytoplankton and zooplankton have been observed by many authors and were explained with zooplankton grazing, animal exclusion in phytoplankton patches, or the different reproduction rates of vegetal and animal populations (Cattani and Corni, 1992). In this study, the sampling periodicity was not frequent enough to define a seasonal relationship between phyto- and zooplankton. Nevertheless, in El Kantaoui high abundances of calanoids (*Acartia*) were observed in May and September along with diminishing abundances of diatoms, most likely ascribable to the action of copepods grazing (Ryther and Sanders, 1980) favoured by the sheltered waters of the inner stations E1 and E2 (Table 2S).

Predators like hydromedusae and chaetognaths that have restricted ranges of tolerance to pollution and variation of environmental parameters, were present in the outer port stations, where advection can affect the plankton community structure (Bracco et al., 2009). On the other hand, other more opportunistic or tolerant taxa like polychaetes, bivalves and appendicularians seemed to benefit of the port environment, mainly occupying the intermediate area of the port, but not the inner one (Table 2S). A similar pattern was described by Siokou-Frangou and Papathanassiou (1991), who summarised how the most opportunistic species populate the most disturbed areas characterized by the absence of carnivorous species.

With the exception of the cladoceran *Podon* sp. strongly contributing to Factor1, most zooplankton taxa have very low coefficients in Factor1 and Factor3 (Table 4). Therefore, the zooplanktonic communities are marginally influenced by those variables playing a crucial role for phyto- (Factor1 and 3) and bacterio-plankton (Factor1). Specifically, copepods and hydromedusae (that have high coefficients in Factor2, Table 4) depend on interspecific interactions as observed by Pestorić et al. (2018) and polychaete and bivalve larvae are interconnected to the other taxa, even if belonging to the lower levels of the food web.

4.3. Seasonality and water turbulence

Seasonal differences among ports were highlighted by Factor3 (Table 4, Fig. 3c) with rather opposite trends between Cagliari and Heraklion on one side, and El Kantaoui, on the other, reasonably related to changes in water temperature and seasonal dominance of specific phytoplankton groups (diatoms, dinoflagellates, coccolithophores). Winter conditions of major wind stress, water mixing and turbulence, likely contributed to particle re-suspension from the bottom and could favour higher concentrations of nitrate and silicate in the water column (Table 2a). This phenomenon was more evident in the two larger

ports of Cagliari and Heraklion as compared to the marina of El Kantaoui (Fig. 3c). Under these environmental conditions, seasonal changes in phytoplankton composition and cyclopoid density have an important role in accounting the variance in Factor3 (Tables 3, 4).

Coccolithophores resulted generally more abundant in winter, most noticeably in the two larger ports and at the stations most exposed to seawater fluxes, likely shaped by currents and greatly reduced during the warmer periods (Table 2b). This taxon was demonstrated to constitute a large part of the nano-phytoplankton fraction in the Mediterranean Sea, and was recorded mainly in autumn and winter in south-eastern waters (Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010). Moreover, their presence in ports was linked to seawater flux by Massi et al. (2019). Compared to coccolithophores, in Cagliari and Heraklion diatoms and dinoflagellates had an opposite trend, increasing their abundances from February to May and September (Table 2b). Moreover, the observed negative correlation of diatoms with silicate concentration at opposite poles of Factor3 (Table 4) may depend on the feeding of diatoms consuming the nutrient. In El Kantaoui a different pattern of Factor3 was evident for the absence of coccolithophores in winter, except for a very scarce density at the port entrance, as well as the high diatom bloom and the increment of dinoflagellates in May. These blooming diatoms are typical of shallow waters over a wide range of temperatures for their opportunistic features of exploiting nutrients and organic matter (Carstensen et al., 2015).

Concerning the zooplanktonic components at the Factor3 positive pole, almost all the cyclopoids belonged to the genus *Oithona*, which are typical of neritic areas and enclosed systems, frequently associated with nutrients and presenting very flexible relationships with temperature (Mazzocchi and Ribera d'Alcalà, 1995; Calbet et al., 2001; Dvoretzky and Dvoretzky, 2015; Ben Ltaief et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017). *O. plumifera* (Wang et al., 2017) and *O. similis* (Dvoretzky and Dvoretzky, 2015) have been demonstrated to be negatively influenced by water temperature, while *O. nana* seasonality was described as changing also based on latitude (Williams and Muxagata, 2006). Therefore it is not to be excluded the same response in Cagliari and Heraklion ports where cyclopoids contributed to Factor3 in February with respect to the opposite trend observed in El Kantaoui, characterized by increasing concentrations of *Oithona* and other cyclopoids from February and May to September. Moreover, as for the other planktonic components, in rich and favourable conditions the environmental variables affecting life cycles of specific zooplanktonic taxa may shift to a different hierarchy driven by local dynamics.

Factor3 highlighted the importance of the variation of abundances of plathelminthes, a taxon that showed similar pattern of diatoms and dinoflagellates and was mostly found in calm and warmer conditions. Indeed, the taxon was mainly represented by Müller larvae and was collected mostly in May in El Kantaoui. This result may depend on the species local life cycle and feeding preferences (Rawlinson, 2014). As a matter of fact, a high concentration of Müller larvae was as well found during a further sampling in June 2015 in the same marina (Rossano, unpublished data).

4.4. Impacts of anthropogenic activities

The fourth factor explaining the variability in the analysed biotic and abiotic parameters is related to anthropogenic activities as the main sources of PAHs and AHs contaminating port waters (Factor4, Table 4). Pyrogenic emission sources associated to the incomplete combustion of fuels and biomasses (e.g. fuel combustion in engines) are the main origin of PAHs in the three studied ports (Vitali et al., 2019), in line with several other Mediterranean harbours (Merhaby et al., 2015; Schintu et al., 2015). In addition, accidental oil spills and leakages of refined oil products (e.g. diesel, lubricating oils) are anthropogenic sources of petrogenic PAHs and AHs entering the port wa-

ters, even if AHs may also derive from natural origins, such as biomass of marine microorganisms (i.e. phytoplankton, algae and bacteria) and transfer of terrestrial plant detritus from the land into the sea (Head et al., 2006; Mandalakis et al., 2014; Chatzinikolaou et al., 2018; Vitali et al., 2019).

The concentrations of PAHs in surface waters of the three ports (24–336 ng L⁻¹, Table 1S) were within the ranges previously recorded in Mediterranean open sea (10–30 ng L⁻¹ in North Aegean Sea, Abdulla and Linden, 2008) and coastal waters (20–40,000 ng L⁻¹ in Turkish coasts, Abdulla and Linden, 2008) and the levels were well below the concentrations leading to 50% mortality (300,000–2,500,000 ng L⁻¹, Kennish, 1998) or producing chronic effects on most marine organisms (50,000–150,000 ng L⁻¹, ANZECC, 1999). Therefore, the concentration of PAHs did not seem high enough to have a strong impact on the zooplankton, as it was also established in the same sites by Chatzinikolaou et al. (2018) for benthic macrofauna and by Tamburini et al., 2020 for benthic prokaryotes.

Among the investigated harbours, the Cagliari port exhibited the highest concentrations of PAHs in surface water, according to the levels of PAH contamination in sediments (Vitali et al., 2019). Nevertheless, sediment levels of PAHs in the three studied ports spanned within a wider range (25–49,000 ng g⁻¹) as compared to concentrations in the water column (Vitali et al., 2019). Hydrocarbons, and particularly PAHs, tend to associate with particulate matter due to their low water solubility, sinking to the bottom and accumulating in sediments over time (Readman et al., 2002; Zakaria et al., 2002). This explains why their concentrations in the studied sites were considerably higher in sediments than in the overlying water column, as frequently observed in literature (Abdulla and Linden, 2008). On the other hand, hydrocarbon degrading bacteria were found to be abundant in surface waters at the three studied ports, where they seem to be involved in the fate of hydrocarbons (Bullita et al., 2014, 2016). Indeed, decreasing concentrations from winter to the warm periods was evident in Cagliari both for AHs and PAHs and in El Kantaoui for PAHs, which may be at least partially ascribed to the low degradation rate at winter temperature (Head et al., 2006; Bullita et al., 2016).

In shallow waters, besides the direct inputs of hydrocarbons by anthropogenic activities, sediment re-suspension occurs through different processes (e.g. navigating vessels, turbulence due to storms, wind and winter water mixing, tides) and may cause hydrocarbon re-mobilization into the water column (Roberts, 2012). In the investigated ports, this phenomenon seems to occur in the small marina of El Kantaoui, characterized by a low bathymetry in the whole port area, as well as at the shallow stations of the two bigger ports of Cagliari (C2) and Heraklion (H1) (Table 1), where low Factor4 values and high hydrocarbon levels were mostly found (Fig. 3d). More specifically, benthos samples collected at station C2 in Cagliari revealed a black fatty substance that glued the sediments making the sieving process very difficult (Chatzinikolaou et al., 2018; Rossano C., personal field observations). Indeed, the levels of PAHs in sediments of station C2 (49,000 ng g⁻¹) resulted one order of magnitude higher than the concentrations found in the other sectors of the Cagliari port and the highest among the three investigated harbours (Vitali et al., 2019); consistently, the highest concentration of PAHs in surface water were found in the present study at station C2 (336 ng L⁻¹ in February). In Cagliari, burning of coal and biomass are the main source of PAHs entering the port water by atmospheric deposition and street run-offs emitted from the adjacent city (Vitali et al., 2019), a pollution usually characterized by recalcitrant compounds with a long-term persistence in marine environments (Yunker et al., 2002; Duran and Cravo-Laureau, 2016). Therefore, the local high contaminations of PAHs at the station C2 could be reasonably attributed to the presence in the past of a water drainage channel, which collected city run-offs

to this shallow area of the Cagliari port (RAS-ARDIS local Authorities, personal communication, 2015).

In line with the close interconnection between water column and benthos, Factor4 was significantly correlated with water depth, a parameter that is directly linked to the specific anthropogenic activities operated in each port sector (Table 1). Therefore, water depth seems to be an important descriptor of the on-going processes in ports. An exception to this trend was the negative Factor4 values found in February in the Cagliari port not only at the shallow water station C2, but also in the deep water stations (Fig. 3d), which may be reasonably explained by an increased water turbulence and consequent sediment re-suspension under the particularly windy conditions during the winter sampling.

Concerning fauna at the shallow water stations, benthic amphipods (the only biotic component at the negative pole of the Factor4) were found in the water column likely because of their increased mobility, or due to the particle re-suspension and consequent hydrocarbon mobilization. On the opposite, the positive pole organisms (siphonophores, echinoderms, ichthyoplankton) prevailed in Cagliari and Heraklion ports and were more abundant in the deep stations (Fig. 3d, high values in Heraklion in H3-H5 and in Cagliari in C3 and C4), likely related to local variation in community composition and more favourable conditions in waters with less sediment re-suspension.

5. Conclusions

This study assessed for the first time the three components of the planktonic biota (bacterio-, phyto- and zooplankton) in different ports at a large spatial scale (i.e. Mediterranean basin) and compared them with respect to environmental variables and anthropogenic inputs. The description of the planktonic biota in the three ports (aims i and ii) revealed generally abundant and complex communities with different relationships with water abiotic components (aim ii) in the three ports. A high influence of brackish eutrophic water discharge was highlighted in the port of Cagliari causing high abundances of bacterioplankton and spring-summer blooms of phytoplankton. Unlike the other two components of plankton, many zooplankton taxa resulted influenced by complex interspecific interactions, but in general, nutrient loading played an important role in their distribution both among different ports and within ports. Seasonality had also clear effects, depending more on meteorological factors (temperatures, winds and storms) than on human activities (tourist season). The studied ports seem to guarantee rich ecosystems, favouring the growth of zooplanktonic communities with a specific periodicity (aim iii), obviously facilitating those opportunistic species that are already known in nutrient-rich coastal areas. The different port activities apparently did not affect planktonic networks, which were more linked to inland loading and seasonal conditions. Hydrocarbon pollution did not specifically affect phyto- and zooplankton components and seemed to be controlled by degradation activities of bacterioplankton. The described ecosystem variability emphasizes the importance of the relative contribution of inland, port and marine waters, and suggests eventual critical points to take into account in view of a sustainable management of port areas. It is therefore suggested to include the planktonic community as a whole (bacterioplankton, phytoplankton and zooplankton), in the monitoring programmes of port areas to control the quality of these heavily modified water bodies and their impacts on coastal waters.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Claudia Rossano: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Ana Milstein:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Caterina Nuccio:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing -

original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Elena Tamburini**: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **Felicita Scapini**: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

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SAS, 2002–2008

Declaration of competing interest

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