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1 **BASELINE**

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3 **Low abundance of floating marine debris in the northern Baltic Sea**

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27 **Abstract**

28 We determined the spatial and seasonal distribution of Floating Marine Debris (FMD) by visual  
29 ship surveys across the northern Baltic Sea between Finland and Sweden. FMD density was  
30 comparatively low, and we found the highest debris density close to major port cities. The  
31 seasonal variation in debris density was not pronounced although we observed more FMD items  
32 during the summer surveys. Plastic bags were the most common identifiable litter items, and we  
33 also found other consumer items (plastic bottles and cups). Styrofoam items suggest fishing or  
34 aquaculture activities as potential sea-based sources of FMD. These are the first data on FMD  
35 density in the Baltic Sea, and they are substantially lower than those reported for other coastal  
36 waters, which may be due to (i) lower human population densities, and (ii) higher environmental  
37 awareness in the Scandinavian countries.

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39 **Keywords:** visual ship based surveys, plastics, pollution, single-use items, public marine  
40 transport, ferry surveys

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44 The Baltic Sea is one of the world's largest brackish water systems and under strong  
45 anthropogenic influence. The high degree of industrialization of the Baltic coasts, intense ship  
46 traffic, extensive nutrient runoff, contamination by anthropogenic hazardous substances, and  
47 excessive extraction of living and non-living resources are major environmental stressors that  
48 make the Baltic Sea one of the most impacted marine ecosystems (Reusch et al., 2018).  
49 Accordingly, the environmental status of the Baltic Sea has declined continuously over recent  
50 decades in many respects (Ojaveer and Eero, 2011).

51 As in most other regions of the world's oceans the pollution of the environment by  
52 anthropogenic marine debris (primarily plastics) has become evident also in the Baltic Sea. An  
53 extensive large-scale study involving citizen scientists has demonstrated the pollution of beaches  
54 in the southern Baltic Sea by anthropogenic debris (Honorato-Zimmer et al., 2019). Routine  
55 samples taken within the ICES International Bottom Trawl Survey have shown noticeable  
56 marine litter quantities of 5 items km<sup>-2</sup> on the seafloor of the southern Baltic Sea, which were,  
57 however, still lower than on the seafloor of the southern North Sea (17 items km<sup>-2</sup>) (Kammann et  
58 al., 2018). Moreover, a constantly growing number of studies from various regions of the Baltic  
59 Sea are revealing contamination of the water column, sediments, and marine organisms by  
60 microplastics (Gewert et al., 2017; Graca et al., 2017; Rummel et al., 2016).

61 The Baltic Sea catchment area has a population density of approximately 30 to 50 habitants  
62 per km<sup>2</sup>, with a total population size of over 85 million (BSEP87-HELCOM), and anthropogenic  
63 marine debris enters the sea from diverse sources along the urbanized coasts, including tourism,  
64 industries, and riverine input but also from shipping and fishing (Hengstmann et al., 2017;  
65 Schernewski et al., 2018; Stolte et al., 2015). Accumulation of pollutants in the semi-enclosed  
66 Baltic Sea is promoted by the restricted exchange of water masses with adjacent marine regions  
67 (i.e. the North Sea – Witt and Matthäus, 2001) similar to the situation in the Mediterranean,  
68 which is one of the most heavily polluted marine regions of the world with regard to marine  
69 debris (Cincinelli et al., 2019; Cózar et al., 2015).

70 Extensive environmental observation programs have documented the pollution of enclosed  
71 seas such as the Mediterranean or the Black Sea, making use of intense public marine transport  
72 by ferries, which allows for an opportunistic cost-effective quantification of floating marine  
73 debris (FMD) in offshore areas (Arcangeli et al., 2018; Campana et al., 2018). FMD is of  
74 concern as it potentially impacts numerous species from various compartments of the marine

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4 75 ecosystem, including pelagic organisms and marine mammals, reptiles and seabirds, with well  
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6 76 documented harmful effects on the biota (Roman et al., 2019; Thiel et al., 2018). FMD items that  
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8 77 lose buoyancy, e.g. as a consequence of dense overgrowth by fouling organisms, constitute a  
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10 78 continuous flux of marine debris to sensitive seafloor habitats (Fazey and Ryan, 2016; Ye and  
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12 79 Andrady, 1991). Moreover, FMD may transport associated organisms over extensive distances  
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14 80 thereby facilitating the spread of non-indigenous species (Carlton et al., 2017).

15 81 Although many harbors of the Baltic Sea are connected by intense ferry traffic, opportunistic  
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17 82 monitoring programs for FMD, as those conducted in the Mediterranean, do not seem to exist in  
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19 83 this region, and information on the quantities, composition and dynamics of FMD in the Baltic  
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21 84 Sea is as yet entirely missing. This information is, however, essential for a comprehensive  
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23 85 evaluation of the pollution status of the Baltic Sea, as well as to identify sources of marine debris  
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25 86 and to monitor future trends. Here, we report the first data on FMD from the northern Baltic Sea  
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27 87 collected during seasonal ferry transects between the Finnish city of Turku and the Swedish  
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29 88 capital of Stockholm.

30 89 FMD was quantified on a total of eight seasonal ferry voyages from aboard MS Galaxy  
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32 90 (Silja Line) along a fixed route, connecting Turku in the east with the Åland Archipelago and  
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34 91 Stockholm in the west (Figure 1). Each cruise covered four marine regions from east (Turku) to  
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36 92 west (Stockholm): the Archipelago Sea, the Åland Archipelago, the Åland Sea, and the  
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38 93 Stockholm Archipelago. Two spring cruises were conducted in April 2012 and May 2013, three  
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40 94 summer cruises in July and August 2012, and three autumn cruises in October and November  
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42 95 2012. Observations were performed from one side of the ship, the port side close to the bow, and  
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44 96 at the lowest outdoor deck situated 11 m above the sea surface. During the cruises, two to three  
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46 97 dedicated observers recorded all FMD items passing the ship. The GPS was connected to a  
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48 98 laptop that automatically recorded the fixed ferry route. When a debris item was encountered its  
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50 100 GPS position was marked as a waypoint along with specifications of the item, such as type and  
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52 101 distance from the ship. We also roughly estimated the size of the items and separated them into  
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54 102 three groups, namely 0 to 10 cm, 10 to 30 cm, and 30 to 70 cm. The three size categories were  
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56 103 pooled when calculating the density.

57 104 Afterwards, the length of each voyage was calculated from the GPS tracks and sub-divided  
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59 105 into 5 km transects. We chose a transect width of 50 m because of the gradually diminishing  
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106 densities (items km<sup>-2</sup>) were calculated as the number of items recorded along the 5 km transects  
107 within the transect width of 50 m. All observations were made under conditions of good  
108 visibility and calm sea state, in a range of speed between 8 knots in the archipelagoes and 20  
109 knots in the more open sea regions.

110 In total, we conducted eight ship surveys, one less in spring due to logistical problems. Since  
111 FMD in spring was surveyed during two subsequent years, 2012 and 2013, the data were  
112 combined for the analysis of a seasonal pattern in FMD densities. For each cruise, the transect  
113 length of 5 km resulted in 16 replicate transects for the Archipelago Sea, 17 transects for the  
114 Åland Archipelago, and 9 transects for the Sea of Åland. In the Stockholm Archipelago, 18  
115 replicate transects were surveyed during the summer cruises, but only 9 during the autumn  
116 cruises because of limited daylight hours in autumn. Each of the surveyed 5 km transects was  
117 considered an independent replicate.

118 The FMD densities were tested separately for seasonal and regional variation by a  
119 generalized linear mixed model implemented by SAS 9.4 procedure Glimmix (Littell et al.  
120 2006), where the cruise identity was treated as a random factor. Negative binomial distribution  
121 was used for the error variation. Good model fit was confirmed with the generalized chi-square  
122 divided by the degrees of freedom being close to one. We conducted the analyses separately  
123 because the two-way statistical models fitted poorly our data.

124 A total of twenty-seven FMD items were counted during the eight ferry cruises (Figure 1).  
125 Twenty-six items (96 %) were identified as plastics, comprising four styrofoam items (22 %),  
126 five plastic bags (18 %), three plastic beverage containers (bottles and cups – 11 %, 1 and 2  
127 respectively), and twelve unspecified plastic items (44 %). A single non-plastic item (4 %) was  
128 recorded, which consisted of paper.

129 We found FMD items ranging in size from 5 to 70 cm. Four items were found in the size  
130 class from 0-10 cm, sixteen from 10-30 cm, and seven from 30-70 cm. The smaller items were  
131 on average ( $\pm$  SD) observed closer to the vessel, namely size classes of 0-10 cm at  $10.0 \pm 7.7$  m  
132 (range of distance, minimum = 3 m, maximum = 20 m) whereas size classes of 10-30 cm and 30-  
133 70 cm, were observed further away at  $31.0 \pm 11.9$  m (minimum = 12 m, maximum 50 m) and  
134  $32.6 \pm 10.0$  m (minimum = 18 m, maximum 40 m), respectively.

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4 135 The FMD density did not vary significantly among the seasons ( $F_{3, 3.9} = 0.91$ ,  $p = 0.47$ ) but  
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6 136 tended to be higher in summer than in autumn (Figure 2A). The overall average ( $\pm$  SE) FMD  
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8 137 density in the survey region was  $0.2 \pm 0.1$  items  $\text{km}^{-2}$ .

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10 138 The density of FMD varied among the 5 km transects from zero to  $11.9$  items  $\text{km}^{-2}$ . Most  
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12 139 items were observed in the vicinity of land or large islands. In six out of eight cruises, no FMD  
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14 140 was encountered in the Åland Sea, whereas the highest density was observed in July 2012 in the  
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16 141 Stockholm Archipelago. However, FMD densities did not significantly vary among the four sea  
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18 142 regions ( $F_{3, 618} = 1$ ,  $p = 0.39$ , Figure 2B).

19 143 Abundance of FMD in the northern Baltic Sea was very low. Average densities of  $< 1$  item  
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21 144  $\text{km}^{-2}$  have been reported in recent times only from very few marine regions. Ryan et al. (2014)  
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23 145 counted on average between 0.03 and 0.58 FMD items  $\text{km}^{-2}$  in the African sector of the Southern  
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25 146 Ocean. Accordingly, the authors classified the Southern Ocean as the least polluted marine  
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27 147 region with regard to FMD. Densities of FMD in the northern Baltic Sea were about two orders  
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29 148 of magnitude lower than in the adjacent North Sea ( $\sim 30$  items  $\text{km}^{-2}$  – Gutow et al., 2018; Thiel  
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31 149 et al., 2011), suggesting only very limited import of FMD from the North Sea into the Baltic  
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33 150 basin. This can be explained by the predominance of surface currents from the Baltic to the  
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35 151 North Sea (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009). Substantially higher densities of FMD have been  
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37 152 reported from the Mediterranean, which is, similar to the Baltic Sea, a semi-enclosed basin with  
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39 153 limited water exchange with the open ocean. In the Mediterranean, FMD densities varied  
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41 154 between 2-5 items  $\text{km}^{-2}$  (Arcangeli et al., 2018; Campana et al., 2018) and about 250 items  $\text{km}^{-2}$   
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43 155 (Zeri et al., 2018), whereas in the Atlantic Ocean average densities of FMD of about 0.8 items  
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45 156  $\text{km}^{-2}$  and 1.7 items  $\text{km}^{-2}$  were counted around the Azores and throughout the S Atlantic,  
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47 157 respectively (Barnes et al., 2018; Chambault et al., 2018). Similarly high abundances of FMD (1-  
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49 158 240 items  $\text{km}^{-2}$ ) as in the Mediterranean were counted in the fjord system of southern Chile (SE  
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51 159 Pacific) with highest densities in the semi-enclosed inner parts of the fjords (Hinojosa and Thiel,  
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53 160 2009) and declining FMD densities towards offshore waters (Thiel et al., 2003). Highest  
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55 161 densities of FMD of 40-2440 items  $\text{km}^{-2}$  were observed off the Mexican Pacific coast (Díaz-  
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57 162 Torres et al., 2017).

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59 163 Out of all FMD seen, 25% were small sized and observed relatively close to the ship. A  
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61 164 lower detectability of small FMD items at larger distance from the ship has also been observed  
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63 165 by Ryan (2013) and may lead to a slight underestimation of the overall FMD densities, especially  
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166 of small items. We found that FMD in the northern Baltic Sea was composed almost exclusively  
167 (96 %) of plastic items (including styrofoam). Similarly high contributions of plastics have been  
168 observed among FMD in the Southern Ocean (Ryan et al., 2014), in the Mediterranean (Palatinus  
169 et al., 2019; Suaria and Aliani, 2014) and the Black Sea (Suaria et al., 2015), whereas in other  
170 regions the share of plastics was substantially lower. For example, in the North Sea 70 % of the  
171 total FMD consisted of plastics (Gutow et al., 2018; Thiel et al., 2011), whereas the contribution  
172 of plastics in the Mediterranean varied between 65 and 95 % (Campana et al., 2018; Suaria and  
173 Aliani, 2014) and was above 80 % in coastal waters of the SE Pacific (Hinojosa and Thiel, 2009;  
174 Thiel et al., 2003).

175 The share of plastics was mostly lower in other marine habitats of the Baltic Sea. Densities  
176 of beach debris in the southern Baltic Sea have been found to vary significantly between  
177 sampling sites and among seasons (Hengstmann et al., 2017; Schernewski et al., 2018),  
178 suggesting complex dynamics of supply and deposition of debris. There, the contribution of  
179 plastics ranged between 30 and 91 % (Balčiūnas and Blažauskas, 2014; Honorato-Zimmer et al.,  
180 2019; Schernewski et al., 2018; Urban-Malinga et al., 2018). Similarly, the contribution of  
181 plastics to marine litter on the seafloor of the southern Baltic Sea was 67 % (Kammann et al.,  
182 2018). The high contribution of plastics of 96 % to the total amount of FMD in the northern  
183 Baltic Sea can be explained by the buoyancy and long persistence of plastics at the sea surface.  
184 On beaches and on the seafloor, the share of other materials, such as metal, glass and ceramics,  
185 was much higher (Kammann et al., 2018). These items do not float and, therefore, disappear  
186 quickly from the sea surface, resulting in a corresponding increase in the proportion of floating  
187 plastics among the remaining floating material. Moreover, the general sea surface circulation  
188 pattern of the Baltic Sea (Leppäranta and Myrberg, 2009) suggests that buoyant debris is  
189 transported from the southern Baltic Sea to the north.

190 The most common FMD types were objects made of styrofoam, plastic bags, and plastic  
191 beverage containers, including bottles and cups. Styrofoam is often used as floating device in  
192 aquaculture and fisheries but it can also originate from land because it is excessively used in the  
193 building sector as insulation material (Aditya et al., 2017). Plastic beverage containers have  
194 constituted a conspicuous fraction of debris on beaches of Poland already in the 1990s (Jóźwiak,  
195 2005). That study suggested emissions to come primarily from land-based sources as the amount  
196 of plastic beverage containers on beaches correlated with the development of tourism but also

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4 197 with the overall increasing use of these items by the Polish society. Beverage containers were not  
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6 198 particularly abundant on beaches of the southern Baltic Sea (Hengstmann et al., 2017), indicating  
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8 199 again qualitative and quantitative differences in marine debris between the northern and the  
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10 200 southern Baltic Sea. Also beverage containers such as plastic bottles are highly buoyant and have  
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12 201 the chance to move offshore from land-based source areas (Ryan et al., 2015). The considerable  
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14 202 share of plastic bags among FMD in the northern Baltic Sea also suggests emissions primarily  
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16 203 from land. Accordingly, plastic bags are being banned in many countries of the world and the EU  
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18 204 parliament recently agreed to ban single-use plastics (including e.g. straws, cutlery, plates) by  
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20 205 2021 in order to reduce their excessive use and discharge into the environment (Xanthos and  
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22 206 Walker, 2017).

23 207 Densities of FMD were slightly (though not significantly) elevated during summer while it  
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25 208 decreased towards autumn. Previous studies identified recreational activities and tourism as  
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27 209 important sources of marine debris in the Baltic Sea (Balčiūnas and Blažauskas, 2014;  
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29 210 Hengstmann et al., 2017; Honorato-Zimmer et al., 2019). This may lead to elevated amounts of  
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31 211 marine debris during summer, with lower amounts in autumn/winter similar as shown for the  
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33 212 Mediterranean Sea (Arcangeli et al., 2018; Campana et al., 2018). However, just as in our study  
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35 213 on FMD, the seasonality in the overall debris accumulation on various beaches of the Baltic Sea  
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37 214 was low (Balčiūnas and Blažauskas, 2014; Schernewski et al., 2018).

38 215 The northern Baltic Sea is relatively clean with regard to FMD. A likely explanation is the  
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40 216 low human population density in this region (e.g.  $< 10$  inhabitants  $\text{km}^{-2}$  in Finland and Sweden  
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42 217 versus  $> 500$  inhabitants  $\text{km}^{-2}$  in Poland, Germany and Denmark, BSEP87-HELCOM), which  
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44 218 mainly consists of sparsely inhabited archipelagos, where the input of debris into the sea may be  
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46 219 low. Additionally, international actions to combat the input of litter from land- and sea-based  
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48 220 sources into the sea may have led to low FMD densities in some regions of the Baltic Sea (see  
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50 221 e.g. the HELCOM Regional Action Plan for Marine Litter 2015). Overall, FMD densities were  
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52 222 low despite intense ferry traffic and the potential of FMD to become transported via sea surface  
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54 223 currents from south to north.

55 224 The pollution by anthropogenic marine debris seems to differ between regions of the Baltic  
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57 225 Sea. The observed low FMD densities suggest a declining pollution gradient from south to north  
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59 226 as beaches in the southern Baltic Sea showed debris densities that were well in the range of  
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61 227 beaches in substantially polluted marine regions (Honorato-Zimmer et al., 2019; Jang et al.,  
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228 2018; Ourmieres et al., 2018). Contrary to the Mediterranean, marine debris apparently has not  
229 accumulated massively in the semi-enclosed basin of the Baltic Sea (Beer et al., 2018). However,  
230 a conclusive regional comparison is currently not possible due to low data availability. The use  
231 of the intense public ferry traffic may provide a valuable opportunity for cost-effective  
232 monitoring of FMD in various regions of the Baltic Sea to achieve a more complete estimation of  
233 the pollution status of the sensitive Baltic ecosystem. Clearly, more investigations on a larger  
234 spatial scale, considering all marine compartments from beaches down to the seafloor, are  
235 needed to comprehensively evaluate the litter pollution of the Baltic Sea and to understand the  
236 processes that shape the distribution of anthropogenic marine debris within the Baltic Sea basin.

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405 Figure 1. Map of study area in the northern Baltic Sea. Dotted Line shows the ship route,  
406 symbols indicate the type and location of floating marine debris (FMD); n = 27 FMD items.  
407 Colors indicate the sampling season: green – spring 2012 and 2013, blue – summer 2012, red –  
408 autumn 2012.

409

410 Figure 2. Average ( $\pm$  SE) seasonal density of floating marine debris in the northern Baltic Sea  
411 among (A) seasons and (B) sea regions during the study period of 2012 to 2013. Numbers in  
412 parentheses represent number of surveys (first number) and number of transects (second  
413 number).

Figure1  
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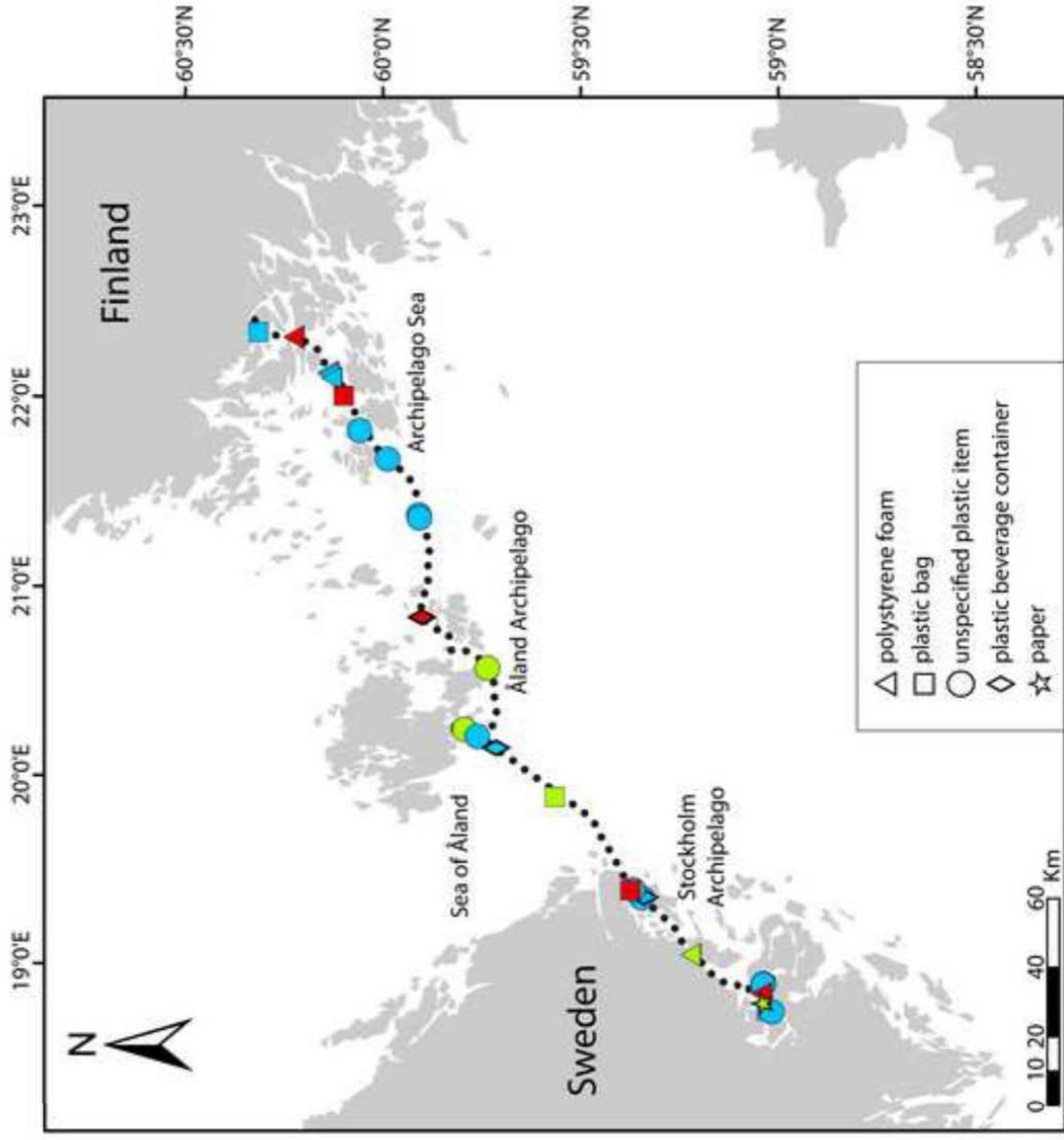


Figure2  
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