This is the final draft of the contribution published as:

Altenburger, R., Ait-Aissa, S., Antczak, P., Backhaus, T., Barceló, D., Seiler, T.-B., Brion, F., Busch, W., Chipman, K., López de Alda, M., De Aragão Umbuzeiro, G., Escher, B.I., Falciani, F., Faust, M., Focks, A., Hilscherova, K., Hollender, J., Hollert, H., Jäger, F., Jahnke, A., Kortenkamp, A., Krauss, M., Lemkine, G.F., Munthe, J., Neumann, S., Schymanski, E.L., Scrimshaw, M., Segner, H., Slobodnik, J., Smedes, F., Kughathas, S., Teodorovic, I., Tindall, A.J., Tollefsen, K.E., Walz, K.-H., Williams, T.D., van den Brink, P.J., van Gils, J., Vrana, B., Zhang, X., Brack, W. (2015): Future water quality monitoring — Adapting tools to deal with mixtures of pollutants in water resource management *Sci. Total Environ.* 512-513, 540 - 551

The publisher's version is available at:

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2014.12.057

1 Future water quality monitoring - Improving the balance between exposure and 2 toxicity assessments of real world pollutant mixtures

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19 **Graphical abstract**





24 Abstract

Environmental water quality monitoring aims to provide the data required for safeguarding the environment against adverse biological effects from multiple chemical contamination arising from anthropogenic diffuse emissions and point sources. Here, we integrate the experience of the international EU-funded project SOLUTIONS to shift the focus of water monitoring from a few legacy chemicals to complex chemical mixtures and to identifying relevant drivers of toxic effects.

31 Monitoring serves a range of purposes, from control of chemical and ecological status 32 compliance to safeguarding specific water uses, such as drinking water abstraction. Various 33 water sampling techniques, chemical target, suspect and non-target analyses as well as an 34 array of in vitro, in vivo and in situ bioanalytical methods were advanced to improve 35 monitoring of water contamination. Major improvements for broader applicability include 36 tailored sampling techniques, screening and identification techniques for a broader and 37 more diverse set of chemicals, higher detection sensitivity, standardised protocols for 38 chemical, toxicological, and ecological assessments combined with systematic evidence 39 evaluation techniques.

40 No single method or combination of methods is able to meet all divergent monitoring 41 purposes. Current monitoring approaches tend to emphasise either targeted exposure or 42 effect detection. Here, we argue that, irrespective of the specific purpose, assessment of 43 monitoring results would benefit substantially from obtaining and linking information on 44 the occurrence of both chemicals and potentially adverse biological effects. In this paper, 45 we specify the information required to: (1) identify relevant contaminants, (2) assess the 46 impact of contamination in aquatic ecosystems, or (3) quantify cause-effect relationships 47 between contaminants and adverse effects. Specific strategies to link chemical and 48 bioanalytical information are outlined for each of these distinct goals. These strategies 49 have been developed and explored using case studies in the Danube and Rhine river basins 50 as well as for rivers of the Iberian Peninsula.

51 Current water quality assessment suffers from biases resulting from differences in 52 approaches and associated uncertainty analyses. While exposure approaches tend to ignore 53 data gaps (i.e. missing contaminants), effect-based approaches penalise data gaps with 54 increased uncertainty factors. This integrated work suggests systematic ways to deal with 55 mixture exposures and combined effects in a more balanced way and thus provides 56 guidance for future tailored environmental monitoring.

57

58 Keywords

- 59 water monitoring, mixture toxicity, water framework directive, bioanalysis, ecological
- 60 assessment, chemical and ecological status
- 61
- 62

64 **1 Introduction**

65 The Water Framework Directive (WFD) (EU Dir 2000/60) is a visionary piece of environmental legislation that strives to achieve a good water status in Europe. However, 66 67 the first and second round of European water monitoring efforts have shown that European water bodies fail to achieve a good status to a large extent (EEA 2012, 2018). In this case, 68 69 the WFD foresees that: 'Member States shall use the information collected above, and any 70 other relevant information including existing environmental monitoring data, to carry out 71 an assessment of the likelihood that surface waters bodies within the river basin district 72 will fail to meet the environmental quality objectives set for the bodies ...' (EU Dir 73 2000/60). The WFD is due for review in 2019. To meet its goals, there seems to be a 74 widespread consensus that effort towards monitoring and assessing the chemical and 75 ecological status should be readjusted into a more coherent approach to achieve a better quality of European freshwaters (Brack et al. 2017). 76

77 Issues to be addressed in future water monitoring include more systematic efforts to 78 identify contaminants relevant for compromised water qualities, as well as improved quantification of compounds that are of high biological activity. To improve detection of 79 80 bioactive compounds, sampling strategies tailored for specific exposure situations, effectbased detection, and protection goals are required. Also, accommodating for the 81 82 occurrence of mixtures of contaminants and combined effects requires revision of 83 assessment perspectives that focus on single compounds (Altenburger et al. 2015). Further 84 needs include options for indication of site-specific biological effects and sources of 85 contamination, evaluation of management measures, and allocation of the magnitude of different stressors accounting for the dynamics of changes in stressor impact. 86

87 Methodological progress has been made in many fields relevant for monitoring 88 approaches, such as contaminant screening based on high resolution mass spectrometry, 89 effect monitoring using transfected receptor bioassays and open access data repositories. 90 Clearly, however, it is not sufficient to rely on individual technical inventions to meet the 91 challenges outlined above. Malaj and coworkers (2014) using EU water monitoring data as 92 well as Moschet et al.(2014) exploring multi-compound detection in a case study 93 demonstrated that the assessed environmental risk increases with the number of chemicals 94 being analysed in water bodies. This finding is the result of how we deal with missing 95 values when assessing monitoring data. In risk assessment, detected concentrations of 96 preselected chemical(s) are compared with their environmental quality standard (EQS). 97 EQS are derived using worst case assumptions and the concept of an overall threshold. The 98 predicted no effect concentration (PNEC) across all protected receptors becomes central 99 for the EQS derivation (EU-CIS 2011). Thus, while on the chemical exposure side missing 100 detections are generally ignored (i.e. the less we know about chemical occurrence in 101 surface waters, the better the result in status assessment), on the effect assessment side 102 knowledge gaps are penalised with uncertainty factors. The latter approach of dealing with 103 uncertainty is adopted from prospective chemical risk assessment. Here, the less we know 104 about the adverse effects of a contaminant, the more caution (i.e. higher safety factors) we use to derive assessment values. Our current assessment may thus be severely confounded 105 106 due to a bias in data generation, where only a few pre-selected chemicals are monitored and assessed against laboratory-based toxicity information. Furthermore, the highly 107 108 complex structural biological parameters used to assess an ecological status are monitored 109 independently and are not considered in relation to contaminant exposure. In this setting, it 110 remains difficult to identify contamination as a causative factor for an insufficient 111 ecological status or to identify sources or drivers of adverse effects.

112 To better link the information already available with reasonable additional efforts in the 113 context of chemical contamination and ecological status assessments, we aimed to develop more balanced approaches for exposure and effect monitoring of freshwater quality. As laid 114 out in Altenburger et al. (2015), we think it is essential for future water monitoring to 115 116 account for chemical mixture occurrence and effects. Moreover, we suggested developing 117 distinct solution-oriented monitoring strategies. The three strategies developed here are 118 designed to (1) identify compounds of concern for specific river basins, (2) assess ecological impact of contamination across different sites, and (3) establish causal 119 120 relationships between chemical contamination and biological effects. Each of the strategies 121 builds on specific combinations of information from chemical and biological analyses, 122 with a primary focus on organic contaminants. We build on the experience of five years of 123 research in the EU-funded SOLUTIONS project (http://www.solutions-project.eu/) with 124 regard to the development of experimental and observational tools (Altenburger et al. 125 2015) and their application in various case studies (Brack et al. 2015). The suggestions laid 126 out here document a synthesis of many different ideas and studies. We thus intend to 127 provide guidance for policy makers and water resource managers, demonstrating improved 128 strategies to deal with mixtures of pollutants in water resource management.

129

130 **2 Identification of river basin specific pollutants**

131 Within the WFD context, members are obliged to monitor certain agreed contaminants 132 across all EU member states (so-called priority substances) but also to identify pollutants 133 of regional or local importance and monitor these eventually as river basin specific 134 pollutants (RBSPs) (Phia et al. 2010). The current means of identifying RBSPs is typically 135 to list candidate substances from existing legislation and select certain substances using 136 monitoring information and/or modelling-based priority setting schemes (Phia et al. 2010). 137 These procedures depend on the availability of suitable data both on the exposure and 138 effect side, which often remains fragmentary. Significant progress in dealing with data 139 gaps has been achieved through an initiative of the NORMAN association (Dulio et al. 140 2018) which suggests a framework to cope with uncertainty and thus assists the 141 consideration of compounds with incomplete data sets (von der Ohe et al. 2011). 142 Nonetheless, the identification of RBSPs depends on the availability of suitable chemical 143 analytical methodologies, which are able to demonstrate the occurrence of contaminants at 144 biologically relevant concentrations, i.e. concentrations around the PNECs of the 145 individual compounds.

146 Development of improved, cost-efficient methodologies is key to overcome these current 147 limitations. In SOLUTIONS we focused on passive sampling methods that provide 148 estimates of time-weighted average freely dissolved concentrations of trace organic 149 compounds, and high volume sampling techniques that provide simultaneous access to 150 chemical and bioanalytical analysis, and development of multi-residue methods of higher sensitivity. These sampling techniques provide improved exposure estimates that can 151 152 subsequently be used in conjunction with available effect information for biological quality 153 elements (BQEs: fish, macroinvertebrates, phytoplankton, macrophytes) to identify the 154 specific toxicological relevance of contaminants.

155

156 *Passive sampling*

157 Using passive sampling methods to identify RBSPs during (chemical) monitoring offers 158 several advantages for biological exposure characterisation. Firstly, passive sampling can 159 provide time-integrated information about specific aquatic pollutants over extended time

160 periods (several weeks to months). This is a more realistic reflection of aquatic organism 161 exposure in surface waters, compared to grab sample analysis (unless monitoring a discrete pollution event, where grab sampling may be more suitable). Secondly, passive samplers 162 provide a measure of freely dissolved concentrations, rather than total concentrations. 163 164 Freely dissolved concentrations are thought to be more comparable with single-chemical 165 effect concentrations for aquatic species from laboratory studies (used in risk assessment 166 for aquatic environments), due to their proportionality to the chemical potential and chemical activity (Reichenberg and Mayer, 2006). Finally, passive sampler concentrations, 167 168 after equilibration with sampled media, allow for a direct comparison of chemical levels in 169 various compartments, thus helping to assess the compartmental distribution and to consider source and sink relationships, as well as to study accumulation and magnification 170 171 of chemicals in aquatic biota. A guidance document on the use of passive sampling 172 methods, resulting from the various efforts in SOLUTIONS, is provided (Vrana et al 173 2019).

174 A novel mobile dynamic passive sampling approach was introduced, which is applicable 175 for characterising chemical pollution along large rivers, lakes or sea transects, providing 176 samples with chemical patterns integrated in time and space. This approach was applied in 177 the Joint Danube Survey JDS3 (Novák et al. 2018, Vrana et al. 2018). A case study on the 178 combination of passive sampling, multi-residue analysis, and bioassays demonstrated the 179 occurrence of 107 (out of 168) priority and emerging pollutants in the river Bosna (Bosnia 180 and Herzegovina) (Toušová et al. 2019). The city of Sarajevo was identified as a major source of pollution, with downstream samples showing significant responses in all 181 182 bioassays. While the estrogenic activity was largely explained by the specific estrogens 183 measured, the drivers of the other observed effects remain largely unknown. Various 184 compounds (diazinon, diclofenac, 17β-estradiol. estrone. benzo[k]fluoranthene, 185 fluoranthene and benzo[k] fluoranthene) exhibited potential risks to aquatic biota, and 186 indicated an inadequate water treatment infrastructure (Toušová et al. 2019).

187

188 In situ large-volume solid phase extraction

189 Combining chemical and bioanalytical techniques to characterise water samples shows 190 great potential for identifying pollutants of potential concern more coherently, as 191 component-based effect assessment can be compared with effect observations in the same 192 sample (Reineke et al. 2002). Current limitations mostly relate to the amount of sample 193 required for biological analysis, which typically involves multiple bioassays and enriched 194 samples (Altenburger et al. 2015). To overcome the logistical challenges associated with 195 providing access to hundreds of litres of water samples, a novel, automated solid phase 196 extraction (LV-SPE) device was developed and tested for organic compound recoveries 197 (Schulze et al. 2017). Good recoveries were observed for more than 200 compounds 198 exhibiting a wide range of physico-chemical properties. Moreover, the generated extracts 199 proved suitable for biotesting using various in vitro and in vivo bioassays (Schulze et al. 200 2017), with effect recovery observations similar to those for chemical recovery for LV-SPE (Neale et al. 2018b). The device was used in various case studies comparing chemical and 201 bioanalytical findings, to study how much of an observable effect in freshwater might be 202 203 explained through chemical analysis using a bioanalytical equivalent concentration (BEO) 204 approach (e.g. König et al. 2017, Toušová et al. 2017, Neale et al. 2015).

205

206 *Chemical analytical methods*

207 The identification of RBSPs is desirable for chemical monitoring. Analytical methods to

208 detect contaminants in low concentrations in water have improved progressively over time. 209 A review of water contaminant detection performed at the onset of the SOLUTIONS 210 project demonstrated that over 400 organic compounds were detected in European freshwaters, but that the overlap in the compounds analysed was low due to the different 211 212 multi-compound methods used (Busch et al. 2016). Only 13 of the 426 compounds found 213 were analysed in all of the seven studies reviewed. Thus, it is currently difficult to tell 214 whether reports on specific compound detections are site or method specific (or both). To 215 improve transparency and allow for more rational choice and comparison of methods we 216 compiled standard operating procedures (SOPs) for more than 250 water contaminants. 217 These SOPs were in two main forms. Firstly, 'Master Methods' contained detailed information on the multi-residue approaches developed to analyse different classes of 218 priority and emerging pollutants (e.g. polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, polychlorinated 219 220 biphenyls, organochlorine pesticides, polybrominated diphenyl ethers, novel brominated 221 flame retardants, musks, perfluorinated compounds, currently used pesticides, 222 pharmaceuticals and personal care products). Secondly, 'Individual Compound Information 223 Sheets (INCISE)' contained essential and relevant information on the individual target 224 compounds. These SOPs which were designed to simplify the identification and 225 application of the developed methods by other research groups and laboratories, and to facilitate the effective monitoring and control of the targeted compounds, are compiled in a 226 publicly available SOLUTIONS deliverable (Zonja et al. 2019). Kuzmanovic et al. (2015) 227 228 applied some of these multi-residue methods in the rivers of the Iberian Peninsula.

The analytical efforts mentioned above are restricted to target chemicals that are either known or suspected to occur and for which analytical standards are commercially available. To extend the universe of chemicals considered during water monitoring (for illustration see Figure 1), we further explored novel routes of non-target chemical analysis using modern high resolution mass spectrometry techniques.

234



235

Figure 1: Domains of GC-MS and LC-MS techniques for emerging contaminants in terms of hydrophobicity and volatility. Atmospheric pressure techniques result in increasing overlap for both LC and GC-MS. The figure follows the concept of Ternes et al. (2006).

241 Suspect screening and non-target analysis

242 While in target analysis the analytes are known and standards are available, thus allowing for compound specific method optimisations, in suspect analysis standards are not 243 244 necessarily available up front and in non-target analysis even the structures of the 245 compounds detected are not necessarily known. Daily non-target monitoring of Rhine river water revealed its potential to support monitoring, revealing significant time series of 246 247 unknown compounds at high intensities, for which the structures were subsequently 248 elucidated and ultimately identified as industrial contaminants (Figure 2 in Hollender et al. 249 2017).

250 A major bottleneck hindering the widespread use of non-target analysis in RSPB 251 identification results from the currently time-consuming and limited means of identifying compound structures out of the data-rich and complex mass spectral information. Within 252 the SOLUTIONS project we developed a workflow (Figure 2) that ensured a systematic 253 254 approach towards unknown compound identification, utilising as much open data and 255 software as possible. The workflow has been applied in several case studies, including the 256 formation and elimination of transformation products through wastewater treatment 257 including ozonation and several post-treatment steps (Schollée et al. 2018). Hierarchical 258 cluster analysis across all treatment steps indicated that only a small portion of the nontarget signals (9%) was formed during ozonation, while 54% - 83% of these signals were 259 260 removed during post-treatment. The effectiveness of the advanced treatment and comparison of different post-treatment steps could already be demonstrated by bulk 261 characterization parameters such as peak numbers or overall reduction in mass. The results 262 263 of effect-based tools supported these conclusions regarding the effectiveness of treatment.

264



Figure 2: The SOLUTIONS workflow for structure assignment in target, suspect and non-target analysis.
Source: (https://solutions.marvin.vito.be/docs/products_enduser/FS003.pdf)

Beyond the identification of new compounds, NTS data may be used to characterise 270 271 chemical contamination up to a continental scale by considering "chemical fingerprints" in 272 surface water samples that may relate back to specific sources of chemicals or toxicity profiles (Brack et al. 2018). The rapid progress in technology and distribution of powerful 273 274 LC- and GC-HRMS technology for comprehensive NTS, open data repositories for digital 275 freezing of samples together with the increasing availability of tools for big data evaluation 276 and pattern analysis will pave the way for a more comprehensive assessment of chemical 277 contamination in the near future.

278

279 Deconstructing mixtures into bioactive components

280 An approach is needed to identify (bioactive) candidate chemicals in complex mixtures 281 that may be relevant on a larger spatial scale (Eide et al. 2004, Hug et al. 2015). The goal 282 of an methodology the has been labelled virtual effect-directed analysis (vEDA) (Eide et 283 al. 2004) is to assist explaining of biological effects by reducing the complexity of mixture 284 components via multivariate statistics and pattern recognition methods on large sample 285 numbers using a decomposition approach. This approach is able to handle peaks from non-286 target analysis and thus is not restricted to previously known chemicals. Virtual EDA helps to identify peaks that co-vary with observed biological effects, suggesting these as 287 288 candidate causative chemicals (Figure 3). Obviously, this approach does not directly 289 provide cause-effect relationships, but allows hypothesis generation, which must be 290 confirmed using e.g. literature and database review, calculation of toxic units using 291 quantitative structure activity relationships (QSAR), or a full chemical and effect 292 assessment with reference standards. Successful vEDA generally requires that:

- The observed effect is caused by a limited (small) number of toxicants among those
 present in the samples.
- 295
 2. Sufficient variance (larger than the data uncertainty) of the observed effect and chemical composition patterns occurs across the different samples.
- 297



Figure 3: Workflow for virtual effect-directed analysis to reduce mixture complexity and to identify candidates that emerge from multi-site data correlation analysis.
Adapted from Brack et al. (2016, with reprint permission from the publisher).

304 A case study on a time series of mutagenic wastewaters from a mixed industrial and municipal WWTP serves as an example. Varying levels of mutagenicity were detected at 305 306 different time points over approx. 6 weeks, along with thousands of chemical signals of 307 varying intensity from LC-MS non-target screening. Applying partial least squares 308 analysis, the number of peaks of interest to explain the variability in mutagenicity was 309 reduced to about 200 signals (Hug et al., 2015). The overrepresentation (30 times larger) of 310 nitrogen-containing compounds among the selected peaks, along with enhanced 311 mutagenicity in a diagnostic Ames Salmonella stem (YG 1024) suggested aromatic amines 312 as drivers of mutagenicity. After specific derivatisation techniques were applied (Muz et al. 313 2017a) several of these compounds could be identified. The intensity of two peaks, in fact 314 two diaminophenazine isomers, were found to correlate with mutagenicity and were eventually confirmed as the drivers of the observed mutagenicity (Muz et al. 2017b). 315

316

317 **3 Impact assessment**

318 The ultimate goal of water quality management under the WFD is to ensure a good water 319 quality of European surface and groundwater water bodies (EU directive 2000/60/EC). 320 Operationally, this has been separated into the assessment of both a chemical and 321 ecological status, which complicates management actions aiming to reduce the impact of major drivers of degradation (Brack et al. 2017). Any approach to identify ecological 322 323 impacts caused by chemical contamination on community composition has to overcome 324 this divide. Furthermore, approaches need to discriminate the impact of toxic chemicals 325 from non-chemical stressors, which often have a strong impact on community composition. Starting from the contamination perspective, analytically undetected but 326 327 toxicologically relevant compounds, transformation products and mixture effects may be 328 overlooked in an approach that is purely based on target chemical measurements. We 329 explored approaches aiming to render ecological monitoring observations more accessible 330 for diagnosis of potential chemical impacts and amended techniques to link chemical 331 contamination measurements with effect information relevant for assessing biologically 332 adverse effects.

333

334 Ecological health status diagnosis

335 Monitoring the presence and abundance of different species forms the basis for an 336 ecological status assessment of water bodies. Exposure to toxic chemicals can affect 337 freshwater aquatic life and may lead to shifts in the composition of freshwater 338 communities through the loss of sensitive species. Toxic pressure is, however, not the only 339 possible reason for variations in the health of aquatic biota. Other non-chemical factors 340 such as hydrological conditions or general water quality parameters can have a strong 341 impact on aquatic ecology, possibly confounding diagnostic efforts.

342 Chemically induced shifts in community composition are expected to correlate with chemical exposure and can thus be used as detectors. Additionally, considering species 343 344 traits, i.e. biological characteristics relevant for the elucidation of chemical effects, rather 345 than using the occurrence of different species can help to increase diagnostic power or ecological information (van den Brink et al. 2013). Therefore, an approach statistically 346 347 separating chemical from non-chemical impacts on taxonomy or traits-based community 348 composition was developed and tested in SOLUTIONS (Rico et al. 2016). It builds on the 349 variance partitioning technique of Borcard et al. (1992).

350 Prerequisites for the application of the variance partitioning method are chemical exposure 351 data and information about other stressors such as general water quality parameters (pH, water hardness, nutrient levels, etc.) or hydro-morphological characteristics. A 352 353 comprehensive statistical analysis of the relative importance of the different stressor groups 354 for community composition can be obtained by a stepwise refinement of the explaining 355 factors, increasing the resolution of the method by 'zooming' into single factor groups 356 (Rico et al. 2016, Sabater et al. 2016). In addition to the correlative analysis of the impact 357 on variance, groups of chemicals (e.g. by use class or modes-of-action) can be ranked and 358 statistically tested concerning their impact on the composition of species or their properties across a number of sampling sites using Monte Carlo permutation testing. The 359 360 methodology can be used to check whether measured chemicals show a statistically 361 significant influence on existing community composition data.

362 This method was applied for a data-rich case study from the 3rd Joint Danube Survey, 363 where information on the community compositions of aquatic macroinvertebrates, 364 concentrations of about 300 organic pollutants and data on habitat characteristics, 365 hydromorphology and general water quality parameters were available for 55 sampling 366 sites along the whole Danube (Rico et al. 2016). In this study (Figure 4), variation of structure and trait composition of the invertebrate community were mainly explained by 367 368 habitat and water quality parameters, whereas hydromorphological alterations were found 369 to play a less important role. Physico-chemical water quality parameters explained a larger 370 part of the variation in the invertebrate community, compared to metals or organic 371 contaminants (Figure 4). Nevertheless, 8.7 and 12.5 % of the variation in the community 372 compositions in this study were significantly correlated with organic pollutants, while the 373 'flat' exposure profile along the Danube sampling sites probably impaired the identification 374 of a larger share (Rico et al., 2016). This evaluation is dependent on the number of 375 chemicals analysed (here, 227 metals and organic compounds were considered) and the 376 availability of toxicity data (75% of which had to be estimated using QSARs). Accounting 377 for more contaminants and using more measured effect data would therefore also lead to an 378 increased contribution. A second application on data from the Swiss EcoImpact study 379 confirmed the usability of the variance partition approach. Up to 12.7% of variation in the 380 community data was explained by chemical pollutants (Burdon et al. 2019). A related 381 partition of variance exercise (redundancy analysis - RDA) was applied to Iberian Rivers 382 (Sabater et al. 2016). The total explained variance on the biofilm and invertebrate 383 communities was 86%, where 2.2% was directly attributed to organic micropollutants, 384 5.7% to land uses, and 10.6% of the environmental variables (nutrients, altered discharge, 385 dissolved organic matter). The total shared variance of the three groups of stressor 386 variables amounted to 41%.



- Figure 4: Results of the variation partitioning analyses from three consecutive analyses (panels from top to bottom) for data from the Joint Danube Survey 3.
 Environmental parameters were used as explanatory variables for biological outputs analysed as taxonomic composition and as traits composition.
 Consecutive analyses grouped explanatory variables according to different levels of specificity. Adapted from Rico et al. (2016, with reprint permission from the publisher).
- 396

The developed methodological approach allows additional information to be extracted by
 pooling different existing data. Moreover, it can be standardised and may be applied on a
 routine basis.

400

401 *Effect detection using bioassay panels*

402 Clearly, using ecological data to determine the link to specific chemical pollutants will 403 remain elusive and of limited resolution for the foreseeable future due to the lack of 404 diagnostic power of existing methods and/or the presence of multiple stressors, e.g. in 405 urbanised areas. Bioassays are a complementary method to improve the detection of potential adverse effects from toxicologically relevant compounds and to help account for 406 407 combination effects from mixture exposure (Wernersson 2015, Altenburger et al. 2015, Di 408 Paolo et al. 2016, Brack et al. accepted). Moreover, if we strive to exit from the uncertainty 409 bias (i.e. drive effect assessments by uncertainty factors to bridge the knowledge gaps), it is 410 vital to add effect-based observations to the samples being assessed for chemical 411 contamination.

412 Comprehensive analysis of uncharacterised but biologically active mixtures of organic 413 contaminants requires additional effect-based approaches to be adopted for analysing 414 enriched water samples, as a complement to chemical analysis. We developed a systematic 415 approach for capturing anticipated effects from such complex chemical mixtures. First, we 416 compiled lists of water contaminants found in monitoring studies and translated these into mode-of-action (MoA) categories (Busch et al. 2016). These MoAs were then used to 417 418 devise panels of bioassays designed to comprehensively capture biological effects of 419 chemicals expected in water (Altenburger et al. 2015, EEA 2019). Subsequently, bioassay 420 panels were applied to single water contaminants to test the MoA categorisations (Neale et 421 al. 2017), as well as mixture effect recovery in complex contaminated samples 422 (Altenburger et al. 2018) and in various monitoring case studies (Neale et al. 2015, 2017b, 423 König, 2017, Novák et al.2018, Toušová et al. 2019).

424 The construction of a comprehensive diagnostic bioassay panel that captures all known 425 MoAs using a specific bioassay is not yet realistic. For two thirds of the 426 organic 426 chemicals detected in monitoring studies of European freshwater, about 100 distinct 427 biological molecular targets were identified and subsequently grouped into 30 categories of 428 MoA. For the remaining chemicals, mostly transformation products, insufficient 429 information was available to allocate a MoA (Busch et al. 2016). There are few bioassays 430 (typically, but not exclusively, *in vitro* assays) that are suitable for the proposed monitoring 431 and capable of detecting specific biological effects beyond endocrine activity, photosystem 432 II inhibition, mutagenicity and metabolic activation. Thus, for effect categories such as 433 neurotoxicity or inhibition of mitosis and sterol biosynthesis, relevant water contaminants 434 could escape attention (Schmidt et al. 2018).

435 At this stage, we suggest using modular panels of bioassays in effect-based water 436 monitoring (Figure 5). A module consists of different bioassays that allow similar 437 interpretation in terms of specificity of exposure and effect observations. Different modules 438 may be combined, depending on the monitoring scope, which may range from surveillance 439 of individual contaminants or critical effects through to comprehensive status assessment. 440 Modules are thus distinct from a tiered testing scheme as used in environmental risk 441 assessment for single compounds. The first module comprises a set of short-term exposure 442 organism assays, to capture an array of apical effects. While the diagnostic value for 443 exposure will be restricted to the discrimination between phyla-specific effects, the 444 assessment can be directly related to biological quality elements used in ecological status 445 assessment. Thus, if the monitoring question relates to determining whether a 446 compromised ecological status may be caused by chemical contamination, effect-based 447 tools from the module using endpoints easily related to biological quality elements (fish, 448 macroinvertebrates, phytoplankton, macrophytes) may be the first choice. The second 449 module comprises of bioassays, cell and organism-based, that detect specific chemicalbiosystem interactions that are indicative of chronic effects. Depending on our knowledge 450 about the toxicodynamics related to a certain chemical-biosystem interaction, the assay 451 452 responses may be used to either detect exposure for a defined group of compounds or 453 indicate long-term effects, which may be overlooked when using short-term assays only. 454 Here a driving objective for the selection of bioassays would be the surveillance of 455 drinking water abstraction and safeguarding against potential human health effects.



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460 461

- Figure 5: Effect-based methods for water monitoring and its complementarity to chemical and ecological observations. The analysis of RBSPs would follow the same assessment approach, but are reported under the WFD ecological status. This figure extends concepts from Brack et al. (in press) and EEA (2019).
- 462

463 Indication of a long-term effect after exposure to a compound group may be performed 464 through an established adverse outcome pathway, e.g. endocrine disturbance. The associated bioassays may be regarded as indicative for a defined long-term effect. For 465 example, receptor-mediated endocrine disruptive activity of various types can be detected 466 467 with high sensitivity using receptor-based assays that are either cell-based or employ 468 transgenic organisms. While a detailed discussion of AOPs is out of the scope of the 469 current manuscript, it is fair to say that currently we lack fully established AOPs ready for 470 ecotoxicological application. It is, however, possible to integrate exposure detection across 471 a larger number of compounds for stress response bioassays such as oxidative stress 472 response or mutagenicity. This builds on the detection of signals downstream of a primary 473 chemical-biosystem interaction and while they detect exposure, it remains context-474 dependent whether the responses indicate compensation of or propagation towards adverse 475 effects. Similarly, metabolic activation assays, such as AhR binding assays, which are 476 typically promiscuous in their binding specificity, are known to elucidate pleiotropic 477 responses and are thus easiest to use for mixture exposure detection.

Typical additional factors that determine the bioassay selection comprise rapidity, sensitivity, adequacy, statistical robustness, high reproducibility, accepted level of standardisation, automated protocol, and demonstrated use for monitoring purpose, potential for inference, cost effectiveness and degree of representativeness as a biological proxy. Again the purpose of the study is most important, e.g. if assessment of contamination by lipophilic compounds is of concern, dioxin-like effects measurable with different types of bioassays, such as AhR receptor-binding assays, will be important. However, if more polar and water soluble compounds are of concern, these assays are unlikely to detect much bioactivity. To foster the application of the bioassays applied in the case studies summarised above, one may refer to the standard operating procedures documented in the supporting information of Neale et al. (2017).

489 Bioassay findings cannot always be explained by monitored chemicals, as demonstrated in 490 several case study investigations in surface (Escher et al. 2013, Neale et al. 2015, 2016, 491 König et al. 2017) and groundwater (Küster et al. 2004). This is particularly true for assays 492 indicative of more integrative effects. Therefore, it is useful to develop bioassay-specific 493 trigger values that can serve for the assessment of observed effects at a given level of 494 sample dilution/concentration. Whole effluent testing using bioanalytical methods, such as 495 fish embryo, daphnia, luminescent bacteria or algae testing is performed already for 496 wastewater surveillance in the German Waste Water Ordinance (2009) under the Federal 497 Water Act (2000). This regulation adopts the EU-WFD and provides a reference case for 498 effect-based monitoring and assessment. Here the lowest inhibitory dilution in an apical 499 bioassay deemed acceptable for a specific type of effluent is defined. In SOLUTIONS, the 500 single chemical fingerprinting and mixtures studies were used to derive bioassay-specific 501 effect-based trigger values (EBT), which would allow assessment of other effects beyond 502 apical effect-based monitoring findings. The derivation of a more generalised approach for 503 setting EBT values was based on the European environmental quality standards (AA-504 EQS), on data generated in SOLUTIONS, and on literature data (Escher et al. 2018). The 505 derived EBTs are still preliminary, because bioanalytical effect data is generally only 506 available for chemicals with existing EQS. More single chemical data must be obtained for 507 the different assays before specific EBT values can be considered ready for harmonisation.

508

509 4 Cause-effect relationships

Eventually, when management options for water contamination are considered, the 510 511 establishment of cause-effect relationships may be essential for determining appropriate 512 actions. Strategies to establish causal relationships between multiple contaminants and 513 deleterious biological effects in SOLUTIONS were explored in terms of different levels of 514 biological outcomes. Firstly, we operationalised the WFD concept of biological quality 515 elements using effect-based methods, deconstructing biological effects observed for water samples using sample fractionation and analytical techniques, an approach called effect-516 517 directed analysis (EDA) (Brack 2003). Secondly, we synthesised different lines of evidence (LOE) (cf. Chapman and Hollert 2006) to explain observable biological effects on 518 519 communities in the field, which we call ecology-directed analysis.

520

521 *Effect-directed analysis*

522 Despite the presence of mixtures of multiple compounds in environmental media, 523 theoretical considerations and experimental findings suggest that the overall risk to 524 individual organisms or populations of a species may be driven by only a few mixture 525 components (Altenburger et al. 2004). Thus, identification of the most significant 526 chemicals contributing to observed effects will help to establish the corresponding cause-527 effect relationships and provide focus for potential management measures.

528 In some cases, well-known chemicals can explain observed biological responses (e.g., 529 estrogenicity detected in surface water using *in vitro* assays often results from only a few 530 natural and synthetic steroid estrogens such as estrone, estradiol, and ethinyl-estradiol 531 (Neale et al. 2015, König et al. 2017, Hashmi et al. 2018, Könemann et al. 2018). 532 However, in other cases routinely analysed chemicals cannot explain observed biological responses (e.g., Escher et al. 2013; Neale et al. 2015, 2017b). In these cases, bioassays provide a more comprehensive picture of the chemical burden in the aqueous environment. Efforts in the SOLUTIONS project therefore aimed to better understand which (organic) chemicals contribute to observable effects and what fraction of the effect is caused by unidentified chemicals, using a stepwise approach shown in Figure 6.

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Figure 6: Stepwise identification of cause-effect relationships between chemical contaminants and selected biological effects using $\Sigma TU =$ sum of toxic units and effect-directed analysis. The confirmation of candidate or suspect drivers requires an additional step.

544 When determining drivers of mixture toxicity using this approach, initially chemical target 545 monitoring data should be evaluated using component-based mixture toxicity predictions. 546 For chemicals with known effect concentrations (ECs), Toxic Units (TU) can be calculated 547 as the ratio between environmental concentrations and ECs for a specific water quality 548 element (e.g. phytoplankton or invertebrate fauna). This can be used to identify candidate 549 drivers of toxicity. Assuming concentration addition as a model for mixture toxicity, the 550 sum of toxic units (Σ TU) can be used as a default approach (Backhaus and Faust 2012). 551 This step may already provide a basis for a tentative prioritization of sites and rivers of 552 concern, as well as for the identification of sensitive biological quality elements. Existing 553 chemical monitoring data may subsequently be compared with effect-based monitoring using a panel of biological endpoints (see above), that may be adapted for specific 554 diagnostic purposes. More recent work has shown that it may be reasonable to expect a full 555 556 mass balance for specific responses, for example receptor-mediated effects. An iceberg 557 model (Tang et al. 2014) can be used to quantify the differences between expected 558 (component-based) and observed (bioassay-based) mixture effects.

559 Subsequently, a full, unbiased EDA investigation can be used to investigate whether 560 unidentified chemicals account for unexplained biological effects. The EDA methodology 561 works without any previous information on the types and sources of pollution. The data 562 evaluation and investigations suggested in the first step will help to decide if EDA should 563 be applied to unravel any remaining unexplained toxicity. Basically, EDA reduces 564 environmental sample extracts to less complex mixtures or individual compounds by 565 fractionation and subsequent bioassay-directed selection of subsamples so that relevant 566 toxicants can be isolated and identified by chemical analysis (Brack et al. 2016). Finally, 567 identified toxicants need to be confirmed as the cause of the measured effect. This is carried out using analytical confirmation of identified structures as well as effect 568 confirmation by testing neat standards and artificial mixtures. Furthermore, it may involve 569 570 mixture toxicity modelling, and finally hazard confirmation, which should account for 571 effects at higher levels of biological organisation, such as populations and communities under realistic exposure conditions (Brack et al. 2008). The power of this approach has 572 573 been demonstrated e.g. for anti-androgenic effects detected in vitro in a small river in 574 Germany impacted by treated wastewater (Muschket et al. 2018). Parallel fractionation 575 with different stationary phases together with testing and chemical screening of the resulting fractions was able to reduce the number of candidate peaks to very few peaks, 576 577 eventually identifying and confirming the fluorescent dye coumarin 47 as the driver of the 578 measured effect in vitro and in vivo in Medaka embryos. Site-specific compounds from 579 local economic and social activities, such as in this example, typically go unrecognized in 580 chemical analyses, as well as in ecological monitoring.

581 Effect-based monitoring combined with EDA and mixture effect experiments also support 582 the identification and understanding of effects driven by the interaction of different 583 compounds. This has been demonstrated by partial unravelling of mutagenic effects in the 584 river Rhine, establishing synergistic effects of industrial aromatic amines with natural 585 carboline alkaloids, which co-occur frequently in river water (Muz et al. 2017c).

As EDA is a time and resource-consuming approach, the problem formulation should be carried out with great care, prerequisites thoroughly checked and the methods and approaches selected appropriately. Conducting a full EDA to identify specific toxic compounds may not be needed if abatement options that reduce the toxic effect can be identified. In these cases, the solution to an existing problem can be found and implemented without the final knowledge of the actual causative agents (as also discussed above). Applying an EDA is meaningful if

- 593 1. Effects can be observed for organic extracts of environmental samples (also implying
 594 the cause may be organic chemicals);
- 595 2. The observed effects can be related to a specific toxicological endpoint, which can be
 596 assessed using bioassays applicable to environmental sample extracts and fractions
 597 within a reasonable time and cost scale;
- 598 3. The observed effect is likely caused by a limited (small) number of toxicants amongst
 599 those present in a sample, i.e. only a small number of active fractions are detected in
 600 EDA. This is mostly the case for bioassays with specific, often receptor-mediated
 601 responses.
- 602

603 *Ecology-directed analysis*

604 The WFD aims to ensure a good ecological status for European water bodies, as well as a 605 good chemical status. A major challenge hindering implementation of appropriate water management measures is to differentiate chemical-induced ecological impacts from e.g. the 606 607 ecological impacts of habitat change. This requires that the aforementioned lines of 608 evidence are tied together with data from biomonitoring efforts, higher tier ecotoxicological assessments and in situ studies. To tease out the causal link between the 609 occurrence of complex chemical mixtures and ecologically relevant effects, we developed 610 and explored a multiple LOE approach (Backhaus at al. 2018). The following four LOEs 611 612 were considered:

613 1. Chemical occurrence data for the sites of interest, analysed with predictive mixture

- 614 modelling approaches to indicate potential mixture risks;
- 615 2. Bioanalytical data from samples and fractioned subsamples studied to establish616 concentration-effect relationships;
- 617 3. *In situ* functional responses, comparatively assessed at potentially polluted sites and 618 reference situations; and
- 619 4. Surveys on species and trait abundance as well as population and community structure
 620 (biodiversity) at potentially impacted sites and reference sites.

This approach provides an adaptive and integrative method that systematically synthesises
 the evidence from the different LOEs and provides optimum decision support for an
 ecologically oriented water management.

624 The overall status of each of the four individual LOEs is condensed and categorised into 625 classes that indicate clear or moderate signals of pollution-driven impacts (Figure 7). In an 626 application example, data obtained for the single LOEs from the 3rd Joint Danube Survey 627 were analysed (Backhaus et al. 2018). Results from in-depth chemical analyses of water 628 samples (see above) were used for predictive mixture toxicity modelling (Σ TU). Results 629 from a battery of *in situ* biomarkers in sentinel fish (Alburnus alburnus and Neogobius sp.) 630 (Deutschmann et al. 2016), including mainly markers for exposure (enzyme activities for 631 biotransformation, oxidative stress and neuronal activation) and effects at cellular levels 632 (genotoxicity), were analysed and aggregated using an index for the average biomarker response. Finally, taxonomy- and trait-based analyses of fish and macroinvertebrate 633 community data were performed to indicate ecological impacts (Rico et al., 2016). A 634 635 particular problem was the limited spatial overlap between sampling sites for the different LOEs. Results from a suite of *in vitro* bioassays, performed with extracts from LV-SPE and 636 equilibrium passive sampling, were considered (Schulze et al. 2015, Neale et al. 2015) but 637 could not be fully included due to the spatial mismatch. An independent analysis regarding 638 the evidence of genotoxic bioactivity was performed instead (Shao et al. 2019). 639

640





effects; Spectrum of outcomes between chemistry (mixture toxicity potential) and ecology (effects at community levels). *In situ* responses can link between those ends; four main LOEs, including the elements of evidence for which additional information may be included. The *in situ* LOE include tests from the sub-organism to the community level. Mechanistic information for different action by pollutants is conserved by differentiation among the LOEs for the different biological quality elements.

642

643 Despite these constraints, the toolbox application helped identify a number of sites in the Danube where component-based mixture risk predictions, biomarker responses and 644 645 community level responses, consistently indicated a chemical-driven impact. Many of the 646 Danube sampling sites show clear indications of anthropogenic impacts, and in all cases 647 the estimated toxic pressure suggests that pollutants are likely a contributing cause. However, the functional in situ responses for many sites indicate that the link from 648 functional measures of toxic pressure to community effects is not as clear as anticipated 649 650 when comparing chemical pressure and community effects. Here, biomarkers and average biomarker responses could provide additional information to support the overall evaluation 651 652 of the chemical and ecological quality of water bodies.

The LOE-based approach transformed the multi-dimensional JDS3 data into a simplified matrix suitable for water managers and decision makers, without losing crucial information. This matrix can serve as a basis for conclusive statements about the impairment of the ecological status at the various sites. It also pinpoints critical data gaps, which might stimulate and guide future chemical monitoring and ecological testing.

658

659 **5 Perspectives for water quality monitoring**

660 Given the dynamics of chemical innovation, production, consumption, use, disposal, and 661 consequent emission into the aquatic environment, the challenge for a successful 662 amendment and implementation of the European Water Framework Directive (EU Dir 663 2000/60) is to define more specific strategies for protecting and enhancing the status of 664 aquatic ecosystems. In particular, strategies for identifying river basin specific pollutants, 665 improvements in the diagnostics of ecological impacts and more powerful approaches for 666 establishing causal links between chemical and ecological assessments are required.

667 By synthesising the developments within the SOLUTIONS project in terms of water sampling techniques, chemical analytical and effect-based methods and describing their 668 application to various case studies, we can now offer advanced approaches for water 669 670 quality monitoring and assessment. In particular, we can overcome the focus on a few 671 selected pollutants that is so obviously inadequate to achieve the goals of the WFD. Instead 672 of disconnected environmental assessment of compounds and products for pesticidal, 673 biocidal, pharmaceutical, industrial and other uses, a more comprehensive assessment 674 approach is now a realistic option. In the field of economic instruments, well-developed 675 and moderately-priced bioassays could also serve in a modernisation of, e.g., WWTP 676 effluent taxation. Some European countries have already implemented effluent charges (EEA, 2013). One perspective could be to replace one bioassay - BOD - with another 677 bioassay, e.g. on endocrine disruption or mutagenicity. Such a shift could be designed to be 678 679 cost-neutral to the current situation in the setting of new tariffs. This would mark a change 680 in the focus from impacts related to direct oxygen depletion (often a solved issue) to 681 toxicity related impacts (an emerging issue) and provide an incentive for WWTP managers 682 to reduce such emissions.

683 Given the technological accomplishment made with the joint efforts of the SOLUTIONS 684 consortium and other efforts in the last years, it is now possible to consider mixture 685 occurrence and mixture toxicity in aquatic organisms and ecosystems. The real impact on 686 improving water quality will ultimately be measured by policy uptake for amending 687 monitoring demands in a revised Water Framework Directive.

688 We believe that more balanced generation and utilisation of exposure and effect data helps 689 to foster evidence-based water quality assessments. Moreover, we are convinced that such 690 an improved knowledge-base will help (i) develop more streamlined approaches to link 691 chemical and ecological status monitoring and (ii) focus resources on major management tasks. Application of the advanced tools developed for comprehensive chemical 692 693 fingerprinting and toxicity profiling, to test the proposed strategy, are still required. 694 Nonetheless, the experience gained from SOLUTIONS will substantially help in 695 supporting this development along with other international networks such as the 696 NORMAN network on emerging pollutants.

697

699	Abbreviations
700	
701	AA – Annual average
702	AOP – Adverse outcome pathways
703	BEQ – Bioanalytical equivalent concentration
704	BQE – Biological quality elements
705	CIS – Common European implementation strategy
706	EDA – Effect-directed analysis
707	EQS – Environmental quality standard
708	EU – European Union
709	GC-MS – Gas chromatography mass spectrometry
710	GC-MS/MS – Gas chromatography tandem mass spectrometry
711	HPCCC – High performance counter current chromatography
712	JDS3 – Joint Danube survey monitoring study 2013
713	KE – Key event
714	LC-MS – Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry
715	LC-HRMS/MS – Liquid chromatography high resolution tandem mass spectrometry
716	LOE – Lines of evidence
717	LV-SPE – Large volume solid phase extraction
718	MIE – Molecular initiating event
719	MoA – Mode-of-action
720	NTS – Non target screening
721	PNEC – Predicted no-effect concentration
722	QSAR – Quantitative structure activity relationship
723	RBSPs – River basin specific pollutants
724	RDA – redundancy analysis
725	SOLUTIONS – EU project (www.solutions-project.eu)
726	SOP – Standard Operating Procedure
727	TU – Toxic units
728	ΣTU – Sum of toxic units
729	WFD – Water Framework Directive
730	WWTP – Waste Water Treatment Plant

733 **Declaration**

734

735 Ethics approval and consent to participate

- 736 There are no issues in the reported work that required ethic approval in any of the
- 737 contributing institutions. Consent on participation was obtained from all co-authors.
- 738

739 **Consent for publication**

- 740 I, the corresponding author have written consent for publications from all co-authors.
- 741

742 Availability of data and material

- 743 This work is an aggregating synthesis project and contains in large parts reflections of
- 744 various specific methodological work and case studies. The availability of data is provided
- 745 through reference to the original publications and where not yet published the relevant
- 746 deliverables will be made publically available through the SOLUTIONS website
- 747 (https://www.solutions-project.eu/) as referenced specifically.
- 748

749 **Competing interests**

- 750 HH is Editor in Chief of this Journal.
- 751 All other authors declared no conflicting interests. 752

753 Funding

- 754 The SOLUTIONS Project is supported by the Seventh Framework Programme (FP7-ENV-
- 755 704 2013) of the European Union under grant agreement no. 603437. G.A. Umbuzeiro
- 756 thanks 705 FAPESP Projects 2013/16956-6 and 2015/24758-5.
- 757

758 **Authors' contributions**

- 759 R.A. designed and drafted the original manuscript with major support by Martin Krauss.
- 760 The concepts developed for the different strategies discussed were revised with the support
- 761 of Werner Brack, Robert M. Burgess, Wibke Busch, Beate I. Escher, Andreas Focks, L.
- 762 Mark Hewitt, Bo N. Jacobsen, and Miren López de Alda. All other co-authors, contributed
- 763 intellectually to various methodological and technical aspects of the MS and re-analysed
- work of the case studies. Also, every co-author provided amendments and revision to the 764 765 third draft manuscript.
- 766 767

768 Acknowledgments

- 769 The SOLUTIONS Project is supported by the Seventh Framework Programme (FP7-ENV-
- 770 2013) of the European Union under grant agreement no. 603437. G.A. Umbuzeiro thanks
- FAPESP Projects 2013/16956-6 and 2015/24758-5. We like to thank all partners for their 771
- 772 continued efforts in making this project a success story. 773

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