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Consideration of unmeasured micropollutants

released from WWTP for potential impact

estimations

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15 Abstract: During wastewater treatment, micropollutants are only partly eliminated and

may present a risk for human health and aquatic ecosystems. The potential impacts

these substances may have are currently underestimated due to the lack in available

concentrations that lie below the limit of quantification (LOQ) for an important set of

micropollutants. Here, the potential impacts due to 261 organic micropollutants on

human health and aquatic environments were investigated at the scale of France. Even

with concentrations below the LOQ, certain micropollutants were found to have a

significant potential impact. For unmeasured concentrations, a global concentration distribution built from several datasets with different LOQ was used. By disregarding the unmeasured micropollutants, the potential impacts have been underestimated by more than 300% on both human health and aquatic environments. Certain substances, such as hydrazine, endrin, or 2,3,7,8-TetraCDD, could lead to very strong potential impacts, even with unmeasured concentration levels. Moreover, the usual convention of LOQ/2 to replace unmeasured concentrations also appeared to overestimate the potential impact. The present work can be adapted to any other compartment or geographical context.

- **Keywords:** characterization factors; limit of quantification; (eco)-toxicity; continental
- freshwater; human health; Life Cycle Assessment.

Highlights:

- Potential impacts for micropollutants with concentrations below LOQ are derived.
- Some micropollutants can have a significant impact with an unmeasured
 concentration.
- Ignoring the unmeasured substances leads to a strong underestimation of the
 impacts.
 - This could contribute to the prioritization of unmeasured micropollutants.
- The more robust value to impute the missing concentrations seems to be
 LOQ/3.

1. Introduction

Thanks to the implementation of the Water Framework Directive (Directive 2008/105/CE, 2008), many European countries have launched organic micropollutant monitoring campaigns, either in the effluents of urban and industrial wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) or in the receiving rivers. Indeed, many articles refer to the quantification of thousands of compounds including pharmaceutical products, hormones, pesticides, hydrocarbons, and solvents in treated wastewater, thus indicating the incomplete removal capacity of conventional treatments (Addamo et al., 2005; Bisognin et al., 2021; Yao et al., 2021). Furthermore, thanks to increasingly accurate and efficient analytical technologies more and more low concentration compounds can be detected (from ng.L⁻¹ to μ g.L⁻¹) in rivers, groundwater, surface water, and drinking water (Bayer et al., 2014; Kiefer et al., 2019; Muter et al., 2020; Postigo et al., 2021). The incomplete removal and release of micropollutants into aquatic environments lead to a potential danger for human health and the aquatic environments of continental freshwater systems. To ensure the identification and quantification of the potential impacts of toxic substances, the development of novel sustainable process technologies for targeted substances has become crucial. This ambitious challenge would thus contribute to the safety of aquatic ecosystems (Rosenbaum et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2015). Recently, Aemig et al. (2021) identified 261 organic micropollutants in the effluents of French WWTP. The toxicological and ecotoxicological potential impacts of 94 and 88 micropollutants respectively, were quantified by multiplying the emitted mass of the compound in the total volume of effluents from French WWTPs by their characterization factors (CFs) (Fantke et al., 2018) as is usually carried out in Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) frameworks. Some compounds could not be assessed because they had no known concentration or because their CFs were unavailable.

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Servien et al. (2022a) developed a method based on machine learning approaches and 40 easy-to-obtain molecular descriptors to predict missing CFs. Thanks to this model, toxicological and ecotoxicological CFs in continental freshwater could be predicted, within an acceptable margin of error. An upgraded assessment could then be made for the overall potential impacts (on human health and aquatic environments) of 153 organic micropollutants in continental freshwaters at the scale of France. As usually observed (Marlatt et al., 2022), results demonstrated that a molecule could be highly hazardous for aquatic environments without necessarily representing an issue for human health, and vice versa. Moreover, a high potential impact could be driven by a high CF, a high mass, or a combination of both. As machine learning models now allow for the prediction of the CF of any new compound, the missing concentrations represent the only obstacle for a complete potential impact estimation. Nevertheless, building models based on easy-to-obtain inputs does not seem to be easily attainable for compounds with missing concentrations and the lack of data for some micropollutants has currently become an acknowledged issue (Leenhardt et al., 2022). Cantoni et al. (2020) tackled this problem by comparing several statistical methods to estimate concentrations below the LOQ. Their work is promising but was limited to a small number of micropollutants and could not be applied to compounds with no value above the LOQ. By omitting to consider micropollutants with a high number of concentrations below the LOQ within the potential impact estimations, their potential impact would be equivalent to zero, which obviously implies a strong underestimation of the potential impacts. Consequently, the objective of this work was to investigate the potential impacts of micropollutants for which no measured concentrations were available or for which more than 90% of the measurements were below the limit of quantification (LOQ) threshold, including those with no measurement greater than the

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LOQ. Considering those unmeasured micropollutants in the potential impact assessment is the major novelty of this study as they are usually not taken into account whatever their CFs. In this aim, an estimation procedure was developed and is detailed in the following section. A complete assessment of the individual potential impacts (on human health and aquatic environments) can thus be made for each organic micropollutant of interest in continental freshwaters at the scale of France.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Molecules

Aemig et al. (2021) identified 261 organic micropollutants that present a potential danger for human health and aquatic environments in continental freshwaters. The choice for these molecules was initiated by (i) the Water Framework Directive (WFD, Directive 2008/105/CE, 2008), (ii) the national action for the survey and reduction of hazardous substances in water (called RSDE) (INERIS, 2016), and (iii) the AMPERES French project in which micropollutants (registered in the WFD and pharmaceuticals) were analysed in influents and effluents of 15 WWTP (Martin Ruel et al., 2016). Among these 261 organic micropollutants, 153 emitted compounds were estimated from at least ten measuring sites and from 90% of the measured data above the limit of quantification. The potential impacts of these 153 compounds were assessed by Aemig et al. (2021) for those present in the USEtox® database (Rosenbaum et al., 2007) and by Servien et al. (2022a) for the compounds that are not present in this latter database.

2.2 Characterization factors

Among the remaining 108 compounds, 58 have a CF for ecotoxicological potential impacts (CF_{ET}) and 43 a CF for human potential impacts (CF_{HT}) in the USEtox® database version 2.12 with a default landscape (to remain consistent with Servien et al. (2022a,b)). USEtox[®] is an international consensus for characterizing the human and ecotoxicological potential impacts of chemicals (UNEP-SETAC, 2019). It was developed by the life cycle initiative under the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) and the Society for Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry (SETAC) (Henderson et al., 2011) to produce a transparent and unanimous characterization model. Within a single characterization factor, this model assembles the chemical fate, exposure and effect for each of the several thousands of organic and inorganic compounds. While the structure of the USEtox® multimedia model is always the same, the CF of a molecule can be established using numerous physicochemical parameters (such as solubility, hydrophobicity, degradability) and detailed toxicological and ecotoxicological data must be provided. In detail, CFs were calculated in the USEtox database via the following formula: CF = FF x XF x EF. FF was the fate factor indicating the residence time in the environment and was estimated with physicochemical properties for organic micropollutants or speciation for inorganic micropollutants. XF was the exposure factor i.e. the fraction of micropollutants in the environment that was available for organisms. EF was the effect factor corresponding to the effect on the aquatic environment (considering three trophic levels) or the effect on Human health. For human toxicity CFs, USEtox calculated the intake fraction (iF) i.e. the amount of micropollutants absorbed through air, water, and food after release into the freshwater compartment. iF was equal to XF x FF. LCA tool was preferred to approaches such as Toxic Unit or Risk Quotient because both the potential impacts of

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each micropollutant and the overall potential impact of the mixture had to be estimated.

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The remaining CFs were computed using machine learning models developed by Servien et al. (2022a). These models predict ecotoxicological or toxicological characterization factors using 40 selected easy-to-obtain molecular descriptors (see the list in Table S1). For further details concerning the choice and calculation of these descriptors, the reader can refer to Servien et al. (2014). These models are based on a comparison between different linear or non-linear (machine learning) models and, according to a cluster-then-predict approach, could be either global or local. The modelled CFs were compared to USEtox® database values. The differences between the modelled CFs and the USEtox® CFs were minor, therefore the models were considered to be applicable. The best approaches were then selected for each cluster and each characterization factor. To apply the cluster-then-predict approaches, the cluster of each new compound needed to be estimated using a supervised clustering approach based on clusters previously obtained by Servien et al. (2022a). This was applied using the well-known k-nearest neighbour approach through the *knn* function of the R package *class* (Ripley, 1996). The models selected by Servien et al. (2022a) were then applied without any modification, with the assumption that they had been previously tested on a large diversity of molecules covering the diversity of the compounds assessed in the present study. These previous tests have proven the reliability of the models to predict the CFs missing in USEtox®.

It is noteworthy that the tributylstannanylium (CAS 36643-28-4) contains an atom of tin. Consequently, its molecular descriptors, thus its CFs, cannot be computed by the above-mentioned methods. In addition, chloroalkanes C10-13 (CAS 85535-84-8) were

also excluded, since they compose a mixture of different molecular structures that can lead to varying molecular descriptors and CFs.

The 106 corresponding characterization factors have been compiled in Table S2. A schematic of the whole study is summarized in Figure S1, available in the Supplementary Material.

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2.3 Quantification of significant potential impacts

The annual volume of water effluent released into the environment by WWTP in France was estimated to be 5.109 m³ (Aemig et al., 2021). This volume was computed by multiplying the daily flow arriving at the WWTP by 365 days, and by assuming that it was equal to the effluent. The emitted mass of micropollutants was calculated by multiplying each concentration of micropollutants, when available, by the volume of the effluent. The concentrations and masses were obtained from the Supplementary Material in Aemig et al. (2021) and are compiled in Table S3. Total potential impacts on human health and aquatic environments in continental freshwaters were quantified by summing the potential impacts of all the compounds, as is usually performed in LCA (Heijungs and Suh, 2002). As explained above, insufficient data were available for the remaining 106 micropollutants in order to correctly estimate their concentrations. Therefore, the risk threshold concentration for these compounds was calculated to reach 1% of the total sum of potential impacts obtained previously for the 153 micropollutants considered in Servien et al. (2022b). Note that this 1% threshold is obviously arbitrary and fully depends upon the compound selection that was performed in the study. Nevertheless,

this methodology could easily be adapted to any chosen threshold, any selection of compounds (even containing transformation products), and any compartment of interest. It could also be applied to other endpoints that are based on measured concentrations such as risk quotients. When the LOQ of a micropollutant was available, this risk threshold concentration was also expressed in terms of the percentage of the LOQ to be comparable among different micropollutants. For 42 compounds, no data (no measurements or LOQ) were available, resulting in the expression of the risk threshold concentration in μ g.L⁻¹. Obviously, since the potential impacts are linearly related to the estimated concentration, a measured concentration defined by the risk threshold concentration multiplied by a constant k would lead to corresponding potential impacts defined by k% of the total sum of the previously calculated potential impacts.

2.4 Estimation of values below the LOQ

According to Table S3, for these 106 micropollutants, a very high amount (more than 90%) of the values were below the LOQ of the corresponding study. As usually applied in environmental studies, data values lower than the LOQ are usually estimated as half the quantification limit (INERIS, 2016). This very strong assumption could have a major impact on the estimated concentration (and thus the potential impact) when there are many concentrations below LOQ. It would be advantageous to test this strong assumption.

In the RSDE samples, as the compounds are measured using routine methods, most of the LOQ are quite high. This is not always the case for the other sources of quantified concentrations. Therefore, certain concentration values that lie below the LOQ of the

main dataset of the study, i.e. the RSDE LOQ, were obtained from other sources. These values relative to the RSDE LOQ for all compounds could then be scaled in order to have a sufficient number of measured concentrations lying below the RSDE LOQ. This provided a dataset of 141 samples with concentrations denoted $(c_j)_{1 \le j \le 141}$ issued from 25 different compounds. The distribution of these samples was then used for computing the probability that the risk threshold concentration c_i of compound i had been reached in case of quantification below the LOQ. This probability p_i was computed as the number of measurements above the corresponding risk threshold concentration c_i divided by the total number of measurements (i.e. 141): $p_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{141} \mathbb{I}_{(c_i < c_j)}}{141}$ and is detailed in the following Figure 1. In other terms, when the risk threshold concentration c_i is close to the LOQ, the probability to get a value above c_i is low.

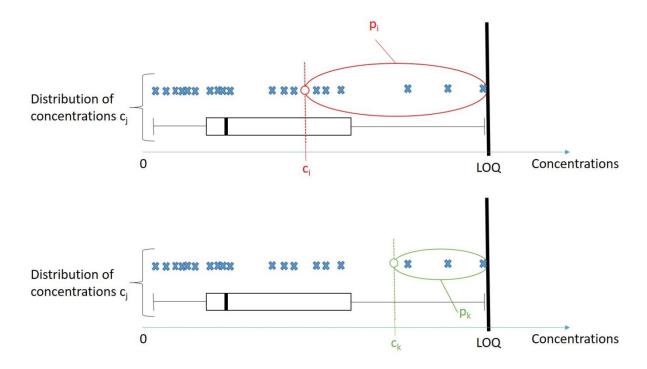


Figure 1: Summary of the computation of the probability to reach a risk threshold concentration. The RSDE LOQ is represented by a large black line whereas the distribution of concentrations $(c_j)_{1 \le j \le 141}$ provided by other sources is represented by blue crosses and their corresponding boxplot. On the top subfigure, a risk threshold concentration c_i is estimated for a new compound i this results in the corresponding p_i , calculated by counting all concentrations $c_j > c_i$. On the bottom subfigure, another risk threshold concentration c_k is estimated for another compound k, with $c_k > c_i$. Obviously, the probability p_k that the risk threshold concentration for the compound k would be attained is below p_i .

Note that if a sample that was not obtained from RSDE has a measured concentration lower than its LOQ (and, thus, lower than the RSDE LOQ), it would not be taken into account. Therefore the final distribution will probably be only slightly overestimated. Indeed, if these unknown measurements relying on different relative LOQ values were

taken into account, they would add many uncertainties to the following LOQ distribution calculations.

2.5 Calculation of the total potential impacts

As usually performed in LCA, the total potential impacts on human health and aquatic environments in continental freshwaters were quantified by summing the potential impacts of all the compounds. Human potential impact is expressed in DALY representing the number of negatively impacted human years, and the ecotoxicological potential impact is expressed in PDF representing the potential fraction of disappeared species. In order to compute these potential impacts, values below the LOQ were imputed by the median values below the LOQ for all compounds (see Figure 2), namely LOQ/3. For compounds without a LOQ, the median value of the LOQ, namely 0.05 µg.L⁻¹, was used.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Global analysis of characterization factors

Regarding the CFs, the different values were reported in the boxplots of Figure 2 below. As usual, the CFs are log-transformed with the addition of 1e-10 for the CF_{HT} in order to avoid a computational issue with log₁₀(0). 1e-10 was chosen to be less than the minimum of the USEtox[®] database (5e-9).

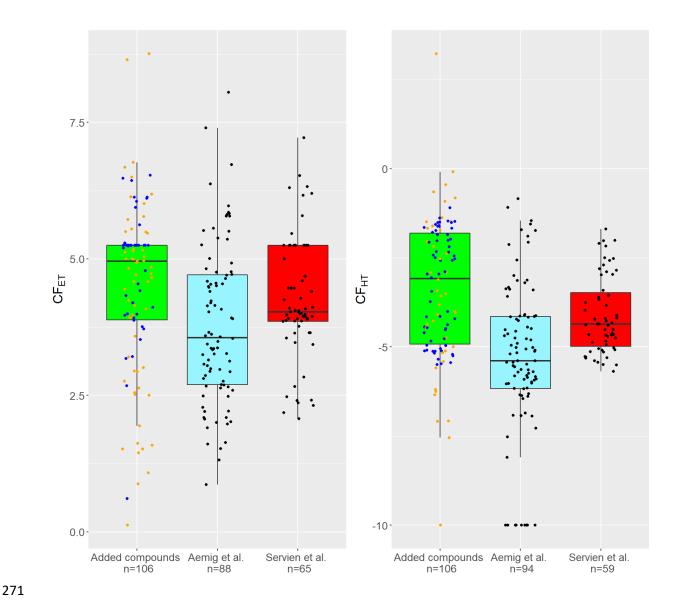


Figure 2. Comparison between the CF_{HT} and CF_{ET} (both in log10 scales), for the previously investigated and for the added compounds. For the added compounds, the CFs in orange originated from USEtox[®] whereas those in blue were computed using Servien et al. (2022a).

Figure 2 points out that the added compounds globally presented a higher CF than those already included in previous studies. More specifically, for the CF_{HT} and CF_{ET},

the maximum, the 1st and 3rd quartile, the median and the mean of the added compounds lay above those of the previously studied compounds. However, there were also very low CF values that were significantly lower than those from previous studies. All the descriptive values are provided in Table S4. Extremely high values were also observed for certain compounds already included in USEtox[®]. For the CF_{ET}, these two strong values concerned the 1,2,3,7,8-PentaCDD (CAS 40321-76-4) and the 2,3,7,8-TetraCDF (CAS 51207-31-9) from the polychlorodibenzodioxin/furane family. Their extreme values could lead to significant potential impacts if their concentrations were not too low. For the CF_{HT}, the extreme value concerns the 2,3,7,8-TetraCDD (CAS 1746-01-6). This is the only value within the whole USEtox® database that is log-positive for this variable. Nevertheless, the estimation of the available CF_{HT} in the environmental footprint database (Fazio et al., 2018) also seems to corroborate this very high value. This dioxin is a well-studied and recognized endocrine disrupter presenting a highest affinity for the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), a cytosolic protein present in most vertebrate tissues, that mediates the toxic and biological effects of such compounds (Van den Berg et al., 2006). Its very high CFET and CFHT are related to its high endocrine-disrupting potency. If this compound were not considered, five others present a CF_{HT} above the maximal value already included in previous studies. These compounds are all pesticides: chlordane (CAS 57-74-9), 1,1-bis(4-Chlorophenyl)-2,2-Dichloroethane (CAS 72-54-8), dieldrin (CAS 60-57-1), heptachlor epoxide (CAS 1024-57-3) and toxaphene (CAS 8001-35-2).

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3.2 Estimation of concentrations below the LOQ

The following Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of the measured concentrations from other sources and that lie below the RSDE LOQ.

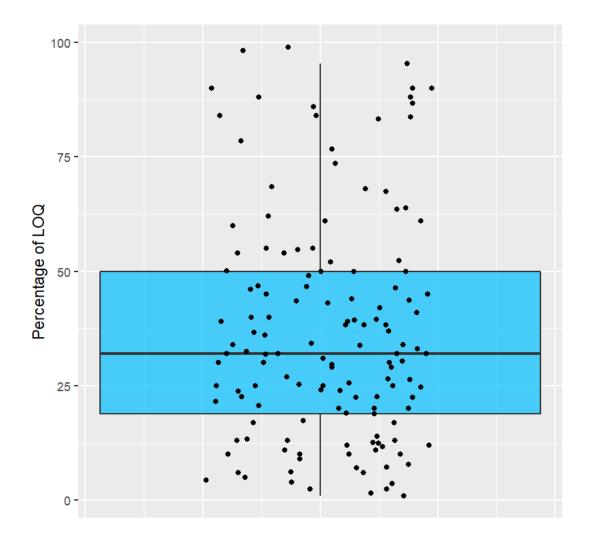


Figure 3: Boxplot of the 141 measured concentrations below the RSDE LOQ on another dataset with lower LOQ (expressed in % of the RSDE LOQ).

The median (as well as the mean) value of this distribution seems to be close to LOQ/3, and not LOQ/2 as generally used in calculations when data are below the LOQ. Furthermore, since the concentration values below the smaller LOQ were not taken into account, LOQ/3 might even probably be an overestimation, when faced with a value below LOQ in the RSDE dataset. This is also confirmed by the conclusions of Cantoni et al. (2020) where the LOQ and LOQ/2 are found to be overestimations.

3.3 Potential impact on the aquatic environment

For the aquatic environment, all the 64 risk threshold concentrations that could be expressed in percentages of LOQ have been compiled in Table S5 and the smallest (i.e. below the LOQ) are reported in Table 1. These 64 compounds remain after the 42 compounds with no data at all are subtracted from the 106 that do not have sufficient data for deriving an above-mentioned concentration.

Table 1 – Estimation of the concentrations needed to reach 1% of the sum of the potential impacts on ecotoxicity, when the risk threshold concentration is below the RSDE LOQ. Computed using the distribution of subsection 3.2, it represents the assumption that a measurement below the LOQ is above the risk threshold concentration. The results for all compounds are compiled in Table S5.

	Risk threshold concentration	Risk threshold concentration (% of	
Name	(μg.L ⁻¹)	RSDE LOQ)	Probability
Hydrazine	4.0E+00	4%	0.96
Endrin	1.0E-02	19%	0.75
Chlordecone	9.0E-02	46%	0.29
Chlorpyrifos	2.0E-02	88%	0.04
	Hydrazine Endrin Chlordecone	$\begin{array}{c} \text{concentration} \\ \text{Name} \\ \text{($\mu g.L^{-1}$)} \\ \text{Hydrazine} \\ \text{Endrin} \\ \text{Chlordecone} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{4.0E+00} \\ \text{1.0E-02} \\ \text{9.0E-02} \\ \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{concentration} & \text{concentration (\% of} \\ \text{Name} & (\mu g. L^{-1}) & \text{RSDE LOQ)} \\ \\ \text{Hydrazine} & 4.0 \text{E} + 00 & 4\% \\ \\ \text{Endrin} & 1.0 \text{E} - 02 & 19\% \\ \\ \text{Chlordecone} & 9.0 \text{E} - 02 & 46\% \\ \end{array}$

There are only 4 compounds for which a concentration below the LOQ might still cause a significant potential impact on ecotoxicity and for 2 of them, the risk threshold concentration also lies below LOQ/3. For the 60 other compounds, the risk threshold concentration being above the LOQ and the measured concentration being frequently below, their contribution to the environmental potential impact could be considered as very low. For hydrazine, a very small concentration of only 4% of the RSDE LOQ, with a high probability of occurrence, would lead to a significant potential impact. Hydrazine and its derivatives are widely used compounds in chemical industries and pharmaceuticals (propellant, blowing agent, pesticide, antituberculosis, etc.). It is a very small molecule (32 g/mol), very soluble and volatile. No bioconcentration factor (BCF) has been found in the literature, nor degradation half-life (DT50). It was

classified by US EPA as a human carcinogen (group B2): an intermediate inhalation minimal risk level of 4 µg/L was calculated and a minimum limit for cancer was fixed at 10 μg/L (Qi et al., 2020). The risk threshold concentration was found to be 4 μg/L and is largely below the RSDE LOQ, which is very high (100 µg/L) by comparison to that of endrin (0.052 µg/L) as well as RSDE LOQ of other compounds. However, very recent papers refer to the development of spectroscopic methods and sensors to analyse hydrazine in environmental samples including water up to pico-molar levels (0.03 to 3.2 µg/L, Arulraj et al., 2015; Qi et al., 2020). Yet, no data have been provided in real water samples. Due to their hydrophobicity, the three pesticides are usually quantified in solid matrices such as soil, sediment, and biota. However, concentrations of endrin have also been reported in river water between 0.17 and 484 ng/L (Matsumo et al., 2009) and concentrations of chlorpyrifos between 1 and 32 ng/L (Wan et al., 2021). Their presence in such an environment is mainly due to their use in agriculture. They are also targeted by the WFD. The Environmental Quality Standard (EQS) (yearly average value) for the sum of the 4 cyclodiene pesticides in the WFD (aldrin, isodrin, endrin, dieldrin) is 10 ng/L (inner surface water) and 5 ng/L (other water). For chlorpyrifos, the EQS is 30 ng/L. The three calculated risk threshold concentrations to reach 1% of the sum of the potential impacts lie within the same range as these environmental and

The compounds lacking information on LOQ are gathered in the following Table 2.

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regulatory values.

Table 2. Risk threshold concentrations for each compound to reach 1% of the sum of the potential impacts on ecotoxicity. The compounds in this table do not have any measurement or LOQ.

Risk threshold	concentration
. 4.	

CAS number	Name	(μg.L ⁻¹)	
40321-76-4	1,2,3,7,8-P5CDD	9.62E-0	<u></u>)5
51207-31-9	2,3,7,8-T4CDF	1.23E-0)4
1746-01-6	2,3,7,8-T4CDD	1.16E-0)2
57653-85-7	1,2,3,6,7,8-H6CDD	3.61E-0)2
72-54-8	DDD 44'	4.04E-0)2
28159-98-0	Cybutryne	5.31E-0)2
72-55-9	DDE 44'	1.56E-0)1
19408-74-3	1,2,3,7,8,9-H6CDD	3.08E-0)1
39227-28-6	1,2,3,4,7,8-H6CDD	3.08E-0)1
57117-44-9	1,2,3,6,7,8-H6CDF	3.08E-0)1
70648-26-9	1,2,3,4,7,8-H6CDF	3.08E-0)1
72918-21-9	1,2,3,7,8,9-H6CDF	3.08E-0)1
57117-41-6	1,2,3,7,8-P5CDF	3.09E-0)1
3268-87-9	1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-O8CDD	3.10E-0)1
35822-46-9	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-H7CDD	3.10E-0)1
39001-02-0	1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-O8CDF	3.10E-0)1
446255-20-5	Heptabromodiphenylethers	3.10E-0)1
55673-89-7	1,2,3,4,7,8,9-H7CDF	3.10E-0)1
57117-31-4	2,3,4,7,8-P5CDF	3.10E-0)1
60851-34-5	2,3,4,6,7,8-H6CDF	3.10E-0)1
67562-39-4	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-H7CDF	3.10E-0)1
789-02-6	DDT 24'	5.58E-0)1
2032-65-7	Methiocarb	6.08E-0)1
25167-83-3	Tetrachlorophenols	6.50E-0)1
131860-33-8	Azoxystrobin	1.43E+0	00
139968-49-3	Metaflumizone	1.59E+0	00
118-79-6	2,4,6-tribromophenol	1.98E+0	00
564-25-0	Doxycycline	2.11E+0	00
153719-23-4	Thiamethoxam	2.61E+0	00
111988-49-9	Thiacloprid	4.24E+0	00
2303-17-5	Triallate	5.88E+0	00
21312-10-7	Acetyl sulfamethoxazole	6.67E+0	00
5466-77-3	Octinoxate	7.36E+0	00
615-58-7	2,4-dibromophenol	9.62E+0	00
135410-20-7	Acetamiprid	1.05E+0)1
210880-92-5	Clothianidin	1.65E+0)1
14297-93-9	4-epi-chlortetracycline	3.37E+0)1
25167-80-0	Monochlorophenol	3.67E+0	
25167-82-2	Trichlorophenols	5.41E+()1
128-37-0	Butylhydroxytoluene	6.19E+0)1
57-62-5	Chlortetracycline	1.27E+0	
95-56-7	2-bromophenol	1.55E+0)2

For these compounds, only the risk threshold concentration with the usual unit (µg.L⁻¹) is available. Although this leads to results that are more challenging to interpret, 2 compounds from the dioxin/furane family (1,2,3,7,8-PentaCDD and 2,3,7,8-TetraCDF) with concentrations above 0.01 and 0.1 ng.L⁻¹ respectively, are found to be sufficient for a significant potential impact to occur. The 15 other congeners of this family have risk threshold concentrations between 11 and 310 ng/L. These compounds, produced during waste incineration, and chemical manufacturing, are classified as very hydrophobic and persistent compounds, and accumulate in environmental compartments such as soil, and sediment as well as in biota (Srogi, 2008). For example, Villanneau et al (2011) found soil concentrations of 23.8 ng I-TEQ/kgDM for the Σ 17 PCDD/F. The regulatory limit in meats for the sum of dioxin and furan is 1 to 5 ng I-TEQ / kg of fat. In such organic and fat matrices, low concentrations can be observed, although the probability to find such low concentrations in water matrices may be very low. Dioxins and furans are also on the list of priority substances of the WFD but no EQS for water is provided. Only EQS for biota is fixed at 6.5 ng/kg DW (I-TEQ for 7 PCDD+10 PCDF+12 PCB). Such low concentrations could probably be reached locally (see Lu et al., 2016, for PCDD/F concentrations in raw and treated drinking water and Ellis et al., 2008, for data on lake Chelan). DDD 44' and DDE 44' are transformation products of DDT that is not used anymore in western countries since the 1990s. All congeners are hydrophobic and persistent compounds with a tendency to accumulate in biota (Garrison et al., 2014). Total DDT, including several DDT isomers, DDE, and DDD, is listed on the WFD with an EQS of 25 ng/L implying its monitoring by the French RSDE program. Cybutryne is a biocide from the triazine family and is used mainly in anti-fouling paints for the protection of boat hulls. It was included on the WFD priority list for monitoring

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and control in 2012 with an EQS of 2.5 ng/L (yearly average) and a maximal admissible 390 concentration of 16 ng/L. In Switzerland, Ollers et al. (2001) have quantified cybutryne 391 in effluents at very low frequencies around 15 ng/l, which is below the calculated risk 392 threshold concentration (53 ng/L). 393 At the bottom of Table 2, the listed compounds present high-risk threshold 394 concentrations ranging from 10 to 155 µg/L. As such, chlorophenols, present on EU 395 and US EPA priority lists, are widely used for dyestuff, pharmaceutical, and pesticide 396 synthesis and are also by-products of their degradation in the environment (Ganigar et 397 al., 2010). These compounds were mainly monitored in industrial wastewaters where 398 399 they are treated by biological and physicochemical processes before discharge into the environment or domestic sewage; this could explain why no concentration of such 400 compounds was detected in the studied domestic effluents. Gao et al. (2008) have 401 402 quantified 2,4,6-trichlorophenol in 54.4 % of their river water samples (600 sites) at a median value of 2 ng/L. These low measured values also suggest the existence of low 403 404 limits of quantification such as that provided by Suliman et al. (2006) around one µg/L for TCP. These data suggest that it may not be realistic to obtain such a risk threshold 405 concentration in the effluent. To reinforce this idea, compounds like chlortetracycline 406 and its metabolite, 4-epi-chlortetracycline were investigated, since their risk threshold 407 concentrations reaching 1% of the total ecotoxicological potential impacts are 408 respectively 127 and 33 µg/L: these compounds were detected in the effluent of many 409 WWTP but at lower concentrations than the risk threshold one. For example, Li and 410 Zhang (2011) measured chlortetracycline levels around 24 and 33 ng/L in secondary 411 effluents of 2 WWTP in Hong Kong. Chlortetracycline concentrations in effluents of 412 American WWTPs (<8.1–60 ng L⁻¹) (Yang et al., 2005; Spongberg and Witter, 2008) 413 and Australian WWTPs (5-250 ng L⁻¹) (Watkinson et al., 2009) were also found. 414

3.4 Potential impact on human health

For human toxicity, all the 64 risk threshold concentrations that could be expressed in percentages of LOQ are compiled in Table S6 and the smallest (i.e. below their LOQ) are reported in the following Table 3.

Table 3 – Estimation of the concentrations needed to reach 1% of the sum of the potential impacts on human toxicity, when the risk threshold concentration is below the RSDE LOQ. It is computed using the distribution of subsection 3.2 and is based on the estimation that a measurement below the LOQ is above the risk threshold concentration. With a probability equal to one, there is no measured value below this percentage of LOQ. The results for all compounds are gathered in Table S6.

		Risk threshold	Risk threshold concentration	
CAS number	Name	concentration (µg.L ⁻¹)	(% of RSDE LOQ)	Probability
302-01-2	Hydrazine	2.1E-01	0.2%	1
1024-57-3	Heptachlor epoxide	8.2E-05	0.4%	1
8001-35-2	Toxaphene	2.9E-04	0.6%	1
143-50-0	Chlordecone	1.6E-03	0.8%	1
60-57-1	Dieldrin	4.4E-04	0.9%	1
57-74-9	Chlordane	5.5E-04	2.8%	0.97
309-00-2	Aldrin	2.0E-03	4.0%	0.96
2385-85-5	Mirex	2.7E-03	5.4%	0.94
72-20-8	Endrin	3.5E-03	7.0%	0.91
62-53-3	Aniline	6.6E+00	13%	0.79
76-44-8	Heptachlor	3.1E-03	15%	0.77
50-29-3	DDT 44'	1.0E-02	20%	0.71
50-32-8	Benzo(a)pyrene	2.1E-03	21%	0.7
470-90-6	Chlorfenvinphos	2.3E-02	23%	0.67
67-56-1	Methanol	2.4E+03	24%	0.67
36483-60-0	Hexabromodiphenylethers	6.2E-03	31%	0.52
36355-01-8	Hexabromobiphenyl	6.9E-03	35%	0.44
75-01-4	Chloroethene	1.9E+00	38%	0.42
32536-52-0	Octabromodiphenylethers	2.5E-02	50%	0.26
120-12-7	Anthracene	2.3E-02	56%	0.18
39635-31-9	PCB 189	2.9E-03	59%	0.18
124495-18-7	Quinoxyfen	6.0E-02	60%	0.18
118-74-1	Hexachlorobenzene	7.2E-03	72%	0.12

3424-82-6	DDE 24'	7.6E-02	76%	0.11
87-68-3	Hexachlorobutadiene	4.3E-01	86%	0.06
32774-16-6	PCB 169	4.7E-03	94%	0.02

If these results were compared with those from the previous subsection, more compounds (26 against previously only 4) would be found to have a non-zero probability to reach their risk threshold concentrations. For these 26 compounds, 16 present a risk threshold concentration below LOQ/3 which implies that they will have an individual potential impact over 1% of the total sum of potential impacts if their missing concentrations were replaced by the default value of LOQ/3. Among the four previous compounds (hydrazine, endrin, chlordecone, chlorpyrifos) with a significant ET potential impact, only chlorpyrifos is not present here. Many of these compounds are pesticides, hydrocarbons, and fire retardants. They are persistent and hydrophobic compounds that are usually quantified in soil, sediment, and biota and for which the risk threshold concentration is between 10 pg.L⁻¹ (heptachlor epoxide) and 100 ng.L⁻¹ (hexachlorobutadiene). Smaller molecules, such as aniline, chloroethene, and methanol, are used as solvents and intermediate chemicals for dye and pharmaceutical industries and present higher risk threshold concentrations between one µg.L⁻¹ and one mg.L⁻¹ (methanol). These latter compounds are present in industrial wastewater at very high concentrations but are quite efficiently degraded in WWTP (Chaturvedi and Katoch, 2020), thus leading to low residual concentrations in urban effluents. The compounds without any information on LOQ are compiled in Table 4.

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Table 4. Risk threshold concentrations for each compound that reach 1% of the sum of the HT potential impacts. The compounds in this table do not have any measurement or LOQ.

CAS number	Name	Risk threshold concentration (µg.L-1)
CAS HUILIDEI	INAIIIC	NISK LITIESTICIA COTICETILI ALIOTI (LIG.L.)

1746-01-6	2,3,7,8-T4CDD	3.97E-08
72-54-8	DDD 44'	1.87E-04
39001-02-0	1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-O8CDF	8.37E-04
3268-87-9	1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9-O8CDD	1.60E-03
55673-89-7	1,2,3,4,7,8,9-H7CDF	1.93E-03
35822-46-9	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-H7CDD	2.02E-03
67562-39-4	1,2,3,4,6,7,8-H7CDF	2.10E-03
57653-85-7	1,2,3,6,7,8-H6CDD	2.14E-03
39227-28-6	1,2,3,4,7,8-H6CDD	2.18E-03
72918-21-9	1,2,3,7,8,9-H6CDF	2.41E-03
19408-74-3	1,2,3,7,8,9-H6CDD	2.65E-03
70648-26-9	1,2,3,4,7,8-H6CDF	2.73E-03
57117-44-9	1,2,3,6,7,8-H6CDF	2.78E-03
57117-41-6	1,2,3,7,8-P5CDF	3.11E-03
60851-34-5	2,3,4,6,7,8-H6CDF	3.56E-03
57117-31-4	2,3,4,7,8-P5CDF	4.12E-03
40321-76-4	1,2,3,7,8-P5CDD	4.72E-03
51207-31-9	2,3,7,8-T4CDF	1.03E-02
446255-20-5	Heptabromodiphenylethers	1.45E-02
72-55-9	DDE 44'	1.59E-02
789-02-6	DDT 24'	2.09E-02
118-79-6	2,4,6-tribromophenol	3.53E-01
25167-83-3	Tetrachlorophenols	9.29E-01
131860-33-8	Azoxystrobin	9.47E-01
139968-49-3	Metaflumizone	1.08E+00
2303-17-5	Triallate	1.56E+00
564-25-0	Doxycycline	1.59E+00
615-58-7	2,4-dibromophenol	1.82E+00
14297-93-9	4-epi-chlortetracycline	1.92E+00
57-62-5	Chlortetracycline	2.05E+00
25167-82-2	Trichlorophenols	2.66E+00
28159-98-0	Cybutryne	8.56E+00
2032-65-7	Methiocarb	8.65E+00
95-56-7	2-bromophenol	8.79E+00
111988-49-9	Thiacloprid	9.89E+00
153719-23-4	Thiamethoxam	1.07E+01
210880-92-5	Clothianidin	1.17E+01
25167-80-0	Monochlorophenol	1.46E+01
128-37-0	Butylhydroxytoluene	1.70E+01
5466-77-3	Octinoxate	1.81E+01
135410-20-7	Acetamiprid	1.95E+01
21312-10-7	Acetyl sulfamethoxazole	2.05E+01

As described previously, the very high value of the CF_{HT} for the 2,3,7,8-TetraCDD leads to a very low value for its risk threshold concentration. Many other compounds of the same family only need around 1 ng.L⁻¹ to produce significant potential impacts. However, as already discussed for environmental potential impacts, such low concentrations ought to be measured with a low probability in aqueous media. Other compounds such as doxycycline, chlortetracycline, and acetyl sulfamethoxazole have already been quantified in effluents of WWTP but at concentrations largely below the calculated risk threshold concentrations (Verlicchi et al., 2012).

3.5 Influence on the sum of the potential impacts

According to all the assumptions previously made, the sum of the potential impacts of the 106 micropollutants of this study were compared with the 153 of the Servien et al. (2022b) study. For the environmental potential impacts, the sum of the potential impacts of this study was nearly 4 fold higher than the previous one. This is illustrated in the following Figure 4 where the environmental potential impacts of the 259 compounds are represented.

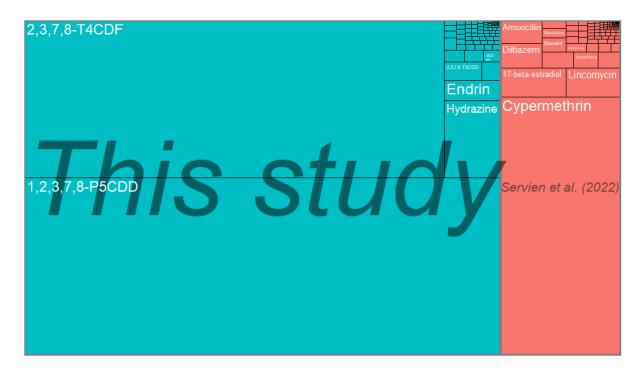


Figure 4. Graphical representation of the environmental potential impacts of the 259 compounds studied in Servien et al. (2022b) (in red) and in this study (in blue). Each compound has an estimated environmental potential impact proportional to its rectangular area.

Concerning potential impacts on human health, they were more than 8 fold higher, even without accounting for the 2,3,7,8-TetraCDD molecule. If it is considered, this unique molecule presents a greater than 500 000 fold potential impact than all the others, highlighting its very high potential potential impact, even at extremely low concentrations. The other potential impacts are illustrated in the following Figure 5.

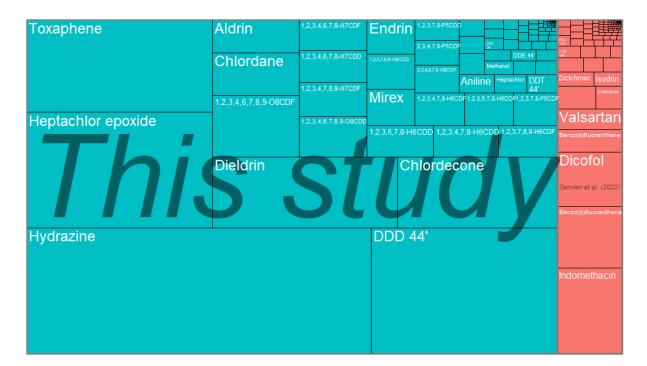


Figure 5. Graphical representation of the human potential impacts of the 258 compounds studied in Servien et al. (2022b) (in red) and this study (in blue). Note that the 2,3,7,8-T4CDD has been removed. Each compound has an estimated environmental potential impact proportional to its rectangular area.

The choice of the imputation value for the measured concentrations below the LOQ is also crucial. Indeed, a choice of LOQ/2 instead of LOQ/3 could lead to an overestimation of 50.0% of the overall potential impacts on human health and 49.7% on environmental potential impacts.

The potential impact predictions provided by this approach could not be validated using a classical train and test approach. Nevertheless, the USEtox model is well-known and recommended approach (Frischknecht and Jolliet, 2019) with a known margin of error and the performances of the machine learning models (Servien et al. (2022)) have already been assessed. The choice of the median of the values below the LOQ to impute the missing concentrations leads us to LOQ/3 instead of LOQ/2 was made to have a robust estimation, as the median is known to be a robust indicator with a 50%

breakdown point. We hope that advances in measurement capabilities will enable further lowering of the LOQ and, through this, help to enlighten the choice of using LOQ/3.

4 Conclusion

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In a previous study, 261 organic micropollutants were selected and their potential impacts on human health and aquatic environments in continental freshwaters were investigated at the scale of France. However, lack of data only allowed for the quantification of the potential impacts for 1/3 of these substances (88 for aquatic environments and 94 for human health). Using a new modelling approach, it became possible to estimate the potential impact of 153 organic micropollutants, i.e. for all associated with an estimated mass released into the environment (Servien et al., 2022). The one hundred remaining compounds that did not have an accurate concentration measurement were not taken into account. This implies that their potential impacts were considered equal to zero, even though their characterization factors were high and could be dangerous. In the present work, the potential impacts of all these compounds have been considered. New individual compound results were derived under this new framework, which could contribute to the selection of new substances for which specific efforts should be made in tertiary treatments to be implemented in WWTP. It was particularly possible to obtain a rough estimation of the probability for a compound to produce a non-negligible potential impact, even though the measured concentration lies below a LOQ. Obviously, due to the lack of concentration data, no precise results on the total sum of the potential impacts could be obtained. Nevertheless, given a few strong assumptions, such a study was made possible. Results point out that by ignoring compounds with unmeasured concentrations, significant underestimations of total potential impacts could be made.

The new estimation methodology defined in this study could help to estimate this underestimation and to make her closer to the real one. Future investigations could involve the balancing of the individual potential impacts of these compounds with a probability of occurrence or the consideration of a cocktail effect, which is not currently possible in the present-day LCA framework. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that this entire methodology (from the computation of missing CFs using machine learning models to the individual compound potential impact estimations with missing concentrations) could be adapted to any other compartment and to any other geographical context, with predictive models that are still to be developed.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

- Rémi Servien: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Writing original draft, and
- Writing review & editing. **Kevin Bonnot**: Software. **Eric Latrille**: Conceptualization.
- 534 Arnaud Hélias: Conceptualization and Writing review & editing. Dominique
- **Patureau**: Conceptualization and Writing review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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