

Mikropoluitzaileak araztegietan pandemiaren ondoren

COVID-19aren itxialdian, asko handitu zen botika terapeutikoen erabilera, birusaren aurkako tratamendu berezirik ez zegoelako. Botika horiek, askotan, uretara joaten dira, eta hondakin-uren tratamendu-zentroetan azaltzen dira, uraren analisi kimikoan. Substantzia horiek berriak dira araztegietan, eta metodo berriak bilatu beharko dira urak garbitzeko. Arazte-teknika berriak eskuragarri daudenean, haiek inplementatzeko baliabideak jarri beharko dira.

Pandemian zehar, Europan araztegietako urak analizatu izan ziren, bai birusaren hedapen geografikoari jarraitzeko, bai eta ustezko mikropoluitzaile berriak bilatzeko ere. Euskadin ere egin zuten; ikertzaile-talde batek bi araztegitako urak analizatu zituen, Crispijanakoa Araban eta Galindokoa Bizkaian, 2020ko apiriletik uztailera bitartean.

Zehaztasun handiko analisien bitartez, substantzia askoren aztarnak detektatu zituzten, hondakin-urak tratatzeko instalazioak ez baitziren eraginkorrak substantzia horiek desagerrarazteko. Kasu batzuetan, substantzien kontzentrazioa ohi baino handiagoa zen; medikamentu antibiralena eta antimikrobianoena, adibidez. Gainera, analisi horien emaitzek adierazten dute antsiolitikoen erabilerak gora egin zuela, bai eta legez kontrako zenbait drogarenak ere. Egoera berriak substantzia berriak ekarri ditu araztegietara, eta arriskua dago substantzia horiek ez detektatzeko. Beraz, analisi-teknikak berak ere aztertu behar izan dira, ahalik eta mikropoluitzaile gehien atzeman ahal izateko.

Pandemiaren eragin kimikoa

Crispijanako eta Galindoko araztegietan, ur-laginak hartu, iragazi eta molekulak oso zehaztasun handiz identifikatzen dituen teknika batez aztertu ziren: substantziak likido-kromatografo batez banatu eta gero, banaka identifikatu ziren masaespektroskopiaren bitartez.

Bi araztegietan antzeko substantziak topatu dituzte. Gehienbat, produktu farmazeutikoak dira, baina bestelako substantzia asko ere badaude: estimulatzaileak, pestizidak, hormonak, produktu industrialak, suaren kontrako produktuak eta abar. Ohiko medikamentu batzuk ohi baino kontzentrazio altuagoetan azaldu dira, azetaminofenoa (parazetamola), metformina (diabetesaren kontrako botikarik ohikoena) eta kafeina, adibidez. Beste batzuk lehen aldiz azaldu dira Euskadiko araztegi batean. Arreta berezia jaso du CO-VID-19a tratatzeko ahaleginen ondorioak. Ustezko tratamendu berriei lotutako substantziak agertu dira lehen aldiz araztegietan, hidroxiklorokina eta lopinavir esate baterako. Gainera, antipsikotikoen kopuruak ere handitu dira, eta gauza bera gertatu da legez kanpoko droga batzuekin ere, anfetaminarekin eta ketaminarekin adibidez.

«Araztegietan botiken aztarnak areagotu dira, eta arriskua dago substantzia horiek ez detektatzeko»

Aztertu behar da substantzia horiek ingurumenean kalte egiten ote duten; alegia, haien biotoxikotasuna neurtzeko irizpideak ezarri behar dira. Oro har, molekula bakoitzak berezko inpaktua du.

Araztegietan, helburua da substantzia horiek uretatik kentzea. Hain zuzen ere, arazte-teknikak garatu, eta etorkizunean teknika horiek inplementatzeko baliabideak jarri beharko dira.

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Comprehensive micropollutant characterization of wastewater during Covid-19 crisis in 2020: suspect screening and environmental risk prioritization strategy

N. Lopez-Herguedas^{1,2}, M. Irazola^{1,2}, I. Alvarez-Mora^{1,2}, G. Orive^{3,4}, U. Lertxundi^{4,5}, M. Olivares^{1,2}, O. Zuloaga^{1,2}, A. Prieto^{1,2}

¹ Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU);

² Research Centre for Experimental Marine Biology and Biotechnology (PIE), University of the Basque Country (UPV/EHU); ³ NanoBioCel Group, Laboratory of Pharmaceutics, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU; 4 Bioaraba, NanoBioCel Research Group; 5 Bioaraba Health Research Institute; Osakidetza Basque Health Service, Araba Mental Health Network, Araba Psychiatric Hospital, Pharmacy Service

ABSTRACT: Micropollutants monitoring in wastewater can serve as a picture of what is consuming society and how it can impact the aquatic environment. In this work, a suspect screening approach was used to detect the known and unknown contaminants in wastewater samples collected from two wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) located in the Basque Country (Crispijana in Alava, and Galindo in Vizcaya) during two weekly sampling campaigns, which included the months from April to July 2020, part of the confinement period caused by COVID-19. To that aim, high-resolution mass spectrometry was used to collect full-scan data-dependent tandem mass spectra from the water samples using a suspect database containing >40000 chemical substances. The presence of more than 80 contaminants was confirmed (level 1) and quantified in both WWTP samples, while at least 47 compounds were tentatively identified (2a). Among the contaminants of concern, an increase in the occurrence of some compounds used for COVID-19 disease treatment, such as lopinavir and hydroxychloroquine, was observed during the lockdown. A prioritization strategy for environmental risk assessment was carried out considering only the compounds quantified in the effluents of Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs. The compounds were scored based on the removal efficiency, estimated persistency, bioconcentration factor, mobility, toxicity potential and frequency of detection in the samples. With this approach, 33 compounds (e.g. amantadine, clozapine or lopinavir) were found to be considered key contaminants in the analyzed samples based on their concentration, occurrence and potential toxicity. Additionally, antimicrobial (RQ-AR) and antiviral (EDRP) risk of certain compounds was evaluated, where ciprofloxacin and fluconazole represented medium risk for antibiotic resistance (1>RQ-AR>0.1) in the aquatic ecosystems. Regarding mixture toxicity, the computed sum of toxic unit values of the different effluents (>1) suggest that interactions between the compounds need to be considered for future environmental risk assessments.

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^{*} Corresponding author / Harremanetan jartzeko: N. Lopez-Herguedas, Department of Analytical Chemistry, Faculty of Science and Technology, University of the Basque Country UPV/EHU, Leioa, Basque Country, Spain. e-mail: naroa.lopez@ehu.eus. Contributed by Jon Zarate editoreak egindako ekarpena.

1. Introduction

The year 2020 was marked by the onset of the global pandemic triggered by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, causing millions of deaths all over the world (WHO, 2021). This situation led most of the countries to introduce several measures (e.g. cancellation of public events, closure of schools and various businesses, curfews and lockdowns) in order to avoid the spread of the virus. This standstill of the countries severely affected the health, the economy and the social life of most of citizens all over the world.

During the pandemic period wastewater was used in many research studies to monitor the spread of the virus considering its excretion from infected people (de Araújo *et al.,* 2022; Godini *et al.,* 2021; Kuroda *et al.,* 2021) but also to determine whether people lifestyle changed. In fact, the lack of specific therapeutic treatments to combat COVID-19 led to an unprecedented consumption of different therapeutic drugs (Cappelli *et al.,* 2022; Kuroda *et al.,* 2021), which could end-up in environmental waters (Bandala *et al.,* 2021; Cappelli *et al.,* 2022; Domingo-Echaburu *et al.,* 2022). Particularly, during the confinement time, high amounts of antiviral and/or antimicrobial pharmaceuticals were prescribed for COVID-19 treatment and their inefficient elimination in wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) led to detect such compounds in wastewater effluents and environmental waters (Nannou *et al.,* 2020). Moreover, the potential presence of antivirals and antimicrobials in environmental waters may increase the development of antiviral (Kuroda *et al.,* 2021; Nannou *et al.,* 2020) and antimicrobial resistance (Knight *et al.,* 2021; Usman *et al.,* 2020). In this regard, it is known that the environment constitutes one of the main sources of gene resistance to pathogens (Bengtsson-Palme and Larsson, 2016), but such resistance is not considered in the current regulatory systems (Boxall *et al.,* 2012). Even though efforts have been done to determine the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of certain compounds with antimicrobial activity (Bengtsson-Palme and Larsson, 2016; Booth *et al.,* 2020), adverse effects even

below the MIC values have been reported in the literature (Andersson and Hughes, 2012; Gullberg *et al.,* 2014), pointing out the lack of comprehensive knowledge about the effects of the unknown chemicals' cocktail can pose on the environment and human health (Fonseca *et al.,* 2020; Markert *et al.,* 2020; Nilsen *et al.,* 2019).

The potential of wastewater monitoring to get epidemiological information on human consumption and exposure to chemical residues has been widely demonstrated in many research works, where wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE) approach was used (Alygizakis *et al.,* 2021; Been *et al.,* 2021; Galani *et al.,* 2021; Nason *et al.,* 2022; Perkons *et al.,* 2022; Reinstadler *et al.,* 2021; Wang *et al.,* 2020). By monitoring wastewater samples during the pandemic period, for example, variations in benzoylecgonine use in European countries (Been *et al.,* 2021), increase of methamphetamine consumption (Reinstadler *et al.,* 2021), increase of benzodiazepines (psychoactive pharmaceuticals with anxiolytic activity) use (Alygizakis *et al.,* 2021) and no-alteration of certain pharmaceuticals consumption (Wang *et al.,* 2020) was determined using WBE approach.

As far as Spain is concerned, the monitoring of emerging contaminants (ECs) in wastewaters of WWTPs is widely done using mainly multi-targeted analytical methods (Afonso-Olivares *et al.,* 2017; Díaz-Garduño *et al.,* 2017; Martín *et al.,* 2012; Solaun *et al.,* 2021) and also applying WBE approach (Bijlsma *et al.,* 2021; Estévez-Danta *et al.,* 2022; Montes *et al.,* 2020). Although the unquestionable adequacy of target screening for the monitoring of a fixed set of micropollutants, the unknowns that may occur in the aquatic environment depends on many factors (e.g., land use, proximity to industry, type of sewer system, WWTP processes, population demographics, etc.) and contaminants end up being overlooked. Those limitations move scientists towards the use of more flexible and easily adaptable suspect screening studies that allow (i) addressing a larger amount of micropollutants and/or (ii) performing risk assessment (Cappelli *et al.,* 2022; Gago-Ferrero *et al.,* 2016; González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021; Li *et al.,* 2018; Perkons *et al.,* 2022). The use of those

analytical strategies to analyze wastewater samples can serve to determine as many as possible unknown chemicals which could provide hint information about what the population is consuming in a specific period of time.

Within this context, the main aim of this work was to evaluate the presence of micropollutants via suspect screening, and the subsequent confirmation through a validated target analysis in the influents and effluents of two WWTPs located in the Basque Country (Crispijana, Alava, and Galindo, Vizcaya) during two weekly sampling campaigns (from April to July 2020), in part of the period of confinement caused by COVID-19. The identification of the main potential toxicity drivers based on a prioritization strategy including different categories was assessed. Moreover, antimicrobial and antiviral compounds risks were also evaluated.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Reagents and materials

All chemicals and laboratory materials used in this work are provided in section S1 and the Supporting Information (SI) of Lopez-Herguedas *et al.* (Lopez-Herguedas *et al.,* 2022).

2.2. Sampling

Sampling was carried out 1 or 2 times per week, from April to July 2020 (Figure 1), collecting 24-hour composite aqueous samples (influent and effluents) from two WWTPs located in Vizcaya and Alava, Galindo and Crispijana, respectively (see details in section S2 in SI). Samples began to be collected after the peak incidence of Covid-19 cases in the Basque Country (Spain).

At the Galindo WWTP, composite samples were collected from the influent (IWW), primary treatment (EWW1), secondary treatment (EWW2) and tertiary treatment (EWW3), while at the Crispijana WWTP, the influent (IWW) and effluent after secondary treatment (EWW) were collected. All samples were stored and frozen at –20 °C until their analysis, which was carried out 2 months after their collection.

Figure 1. Timeline of Covid-19 situation in its first wave and sampling dates of composite water samples in both WWTPs (G: Galindo, C: Crispijana)

2.3. Sample treatment

The water samples were thawed and once at room temperature, all samples were filtered through cellulose filters (0.7 µm, 90 mm, Whatman; Maidstone, UK). Three replicates of 250 mL (effluent) or 100 mL (influent) were processed according to a previously validated method in our research group (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021) (see details in section S2 in SI). Briefly, the samples were extracted with 500 mg solid-phase extraction (SPE) cartridges consisting of cation exchange (100 mg, ZT-WCX), anion exchange (100 mg, ZT-WAX) and reverse phase (300 mg, HRX) sorbents for effluent samples, and with 250 mg SPE cartridges containing half of the above-described amounts for influent samples. The cartridges were conditioned using 5 mL of MeOH:EtOAc and 5 mL of Milli-Q water. Subsequently, each sample aliquot was loaded and were left to dry under vacuum before analytes elution using 12 mL of a MeOH:EtOAc mixture (1:1) containing 2% ammonia and 12 mL of a MeOH:EtOAc mixture with 1.7% formic acid. Both extracts were combined, evaporated to dryness using a Turbovap (Zymark, Hopkinton, USA) under a gentle nitrogen stream and reconstituted in 250 µL of MeOH:Milli-Q water (1:1, v:v).

2.4. Analysis by UHPLC-q-Orbitrap

Extracts were analyzed on a Thermo Scientific Dionex Ulti-Mate 3000 UHPLC coupled to a Thermo Scientific Q Exactive Focus quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (UHPLC-q-Orbitrap) equipped with a heated electrospray ionisation source (HESI, Thermo-Fisher Scientific, CA, USA) based on the previously developed methods (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021; Lopez-Herguedas *et al.,* 2022) detailed in section S3 of the SI.

2.5. Quality assurance of the analytical method

The analytical protocol used in this work was thoroughly optimized in a previous work of our research group and is described elsewhere (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021) (see section S4 in SI). Anyhow the QA/ QC criteria of the analyses conducted in this work were assured for 231 compounds in terms of identification limits and apparent recoveries (see Table S1).

2.6. Suspect analysis

Suspect analysis data treatment was carried out using the Compound Discoverer 3.2 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) and the workflow previously reported by González-Gaya *et al.* (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021) (see detailed information in SI). Only Lorentzian peaks were considered and they were manually checked. The SusDat NORMAN database (40,059 compounds, www.norman-network. net, DOI:10.5281/zenodo.2664077) was used as a suspect list with a fixed error lower than \pm 5 ppm in the exact mass. The molecular formulas suggested by the software were only accounted for if MS1 was satisfactorily matched (SFit> 30% and isotopic profile > 70%). Minimum peak areas considered were set at 10e6 units for both negative and positive ionization modes. Additionally, only peaks 10 times larger in the samples than in the blanks and with a relative standard deviation (% RSD) lower than 30% within injection replicates (n=3) were further studied. MS2 spectra were compared with mzCloud database (https://www.mzcloud.org/), and a match of over 70% was set for the identification of the feature. When the standards of the candidates were available, experimental retention time was confirmed with an allowed error of ± 0.1 min. If not available, retention times were estimated from the Retention Time Index (RTI) platform (http://rti.chem.uoa.gr/) and candidates were rejected or accepted depending on whether there was a statistical difference or not with the estimated value within the uncertainty of the model built. Finally, identification criteria according to Schymanski and coworkers (Schymanski *et al.,* 2014) was noted to provide the candidates with a tentative code from 1 to 3 levels of identification. Although this scale is numbered from one to five, in this work we annotated compounds up to level 3 being level 1 the one with the highest confidence level (features with their structure identified and confirmed by reference standard acquisition) and three the least one (features identified as potential

candidates with known structure but more than one candidate is provided since they are potential isomers).

2.7. Quantification and multivariate data analysis

Quantitative data analysis of the suspects annotated as level 1 (target analysis) was performed using Tracefinder 4.2 software (Thermo-Fisher Scientific). Target compounds and their instrumental characteristics including molecular formula, ionization mode, retention time (Rt) and experimental MS/MS fragments were added to the software library according to studies previously performed by the research group (Lopez-Herguedas *et al.,* 2022). To avoid false positives, the experimental retention time window was limited to 60 seconds around the retention time of the pure standard, a mass error equal to or less than 5 ppm, isotopic profile matching at more than 70% and mass accuracy for fragments equal to or less than 5 ppm were considered. Peak integration and calibration curves were checked manually.

Once obtained the data, principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out with PLS toolbox (8.7.1 version, Eigenvector Research, Wenatchee, USA) in the Matlab programming environment (R2019b, Mathworks Inc., Natick, USA). Mean-centering and variance scaling was carried out prior to multivariate statistical analysis. Leave-one-patient-out

cross-validation was used to validate and optimize the PCA model.

2.8. Prioritization strategy forenvironmentalrisk assessment

Risk assessment was accomplished through a prioritization strategy of suspects annotated as level 1 following the approach described by Gros *et al.* with slight modifications (Gros *et al.,* 2017). Six category classes were set to prioritize the most environmentally relevant compounds identified in each WWTP effluent including: (a) removal efficiency (RE, %), (b) estimated persistency (halflife time in days, DT50), (c) bioconcentration factor (BCF), (d) mobility, (e) toxicity potential and (f) frequency of detection in the samples (Table 1). Each micropollutant was scored with a value between 1-5 in each category (a-e) summed up to obtain a total score, being the compounds showing the lowest value the ones posing the highest environmental risk. Compounds that were never detected above the LOQ were excluded in order to avoid overestimation of risks by including compounds that were likely to be absent. Similarly, compounds present at levels < LOQs in the influent samples were not considered since the calculated RE would be biased leading to an overestimation of the risk.

			Score		
Criteria	1	2	3	$\overline{4}$	5
Removal efficiency (RE)	$<40\%$		40-60%		$>60\%$
Biodegradation (predicted half-life time in days)	>180	>60	>37.5	>15	<15
Bioaccumulation (BCFpred)	>10,000	>1000	>100	>10	<10
Mobility ($log K_{ow}$)	< 2.5		$2.5 - 4.0$		>4.0
Risk Quotient (RQ)	>1	>0.1	>0.01	>0.001	< 0.001
Frequency of detection (%) in effluent	100%	>75%	$>50\%$	>25%	<25%

Table 1 **Criteria and scoring system for prioritization of identified micropollutants**

RE (%) of individual ECs was estimated considering their concentrations in wastewater before and after wastewater treatment (Golovko *et al.,* 2021; Li *et al.,* 2018) (see **Equation 1**). Independent two samples t-test was performed at a 95% confidence level to evaluate significant differences among the concentrations quantified in influent and effluent samples for each contaminant to avoid comparison between influent and effluent pairs that do not really show significant differences and their comparison may lead to misleading results. Considering the high variability of the observed values between days, the scoring system for the RE relied on 3 values that were established as follows: (i) effectively removed compounds with RE values higher than 60%, (ii) moderately removed compounds with RE values between 40% and 60%, and (iii) not eliminated compounds with RE values lower than 40% and/or compounds for which influent and effluent mean concentrations are indistinguishable (e.g. DEP shows a RE of 65% in Galindo WWTP but the t-test reveals that values in the IWW and EWW3 are not significantly different).

$$
RE(\%) = \left(\frac{\left(\text{[Influent]} - \text{[Effuent]}}{\text{[Influent]}} \right) \times 100 \tag{1}
$$

The biodegradation potential (due to biological activity, chemical reactivity or physical degradation) of the compounds is a good indicator of their persistence in the environment. The bioaccumulation potential refers to the ability that some chemical compounds have to accumulate in a living organism and can be predicted by the lipophilicity of the chemical. The values for both categories were defined based on Gros *et al.* (Gros *et al.,* 2017), which were established according to the European legislation for chemicals of concern, REACH (EC 1907/2006). In the present work, half-life times (DT50) and BCFs were retrieved from the CompTox Chemical Dashboard (https://comptox.epa.gov/ dashboard/) relying on the OPERA models (Finckh *et al.,* 2022; Mansouri *et al.,* 2018).

The capability of a compound to diffuse the source to other environmental compartments is given by its mobility. Considering that $\log K_{ow}$ serves as a measure of the relationship between lipophilicity (fat solubility) and hydrophilicity (water solubility) of a substance, it was used to score the mobility pattern of compounds using the following criteria: (i) compounds with log K_{ow} < 2.5 were considered to be highly mobile, (ii) compound with log $K_{\alpha w}$ values between 2.5-4.0 were considered to show medium mobility, and compounds with log $K_{\text{ow}} > 4.0$ were considered to be low mobile (Dimitrov *et al.,* 2019; Jones-Lepp and Stevens, 2007; Roveri and Lopes Guimarães, 2023).

The toxicity potential was expressed in terms of risk quotients (RQ), calculated for each compound according to the European Union technical Guidance Document (European Parliament, 2006) as the ratio of the measured environmental concentration (MEC) in WWTP effluents and predicted no-effect concentration (PNEC). 95th percentiles of the measured concentrations for each compound were used as MEC values. The PNEC values were calculated as described by Lopez-Herguedas *et al.* (Lopez-Herguedas *et al.,* 2022) (see details in section S5 in SI).

Considering the sudden increase in the discharge of antimicrobials, including antibiotics and antivirals, to the environment the potential risk of the mentioned compounds was also determined. The Antibiotic Resistance (AR) was assessed based on the RQ metric (RQ-AR) as described by Bengtsson-Palme and Larsson (Bengtsson-Palme and Larsson, 2016). The PNECs for the selection of AR (PNEC-AR) were derived considering the MICs of the antibiotic compounds, which are the lowest concentrations of antibiotic for inhibiting bacterial growth, and the application of an appropriate assessment factor to the MIC (Bengtsson-Palme and Larsson, 2016; Cappelli *et al.,* 2022). On the other hand, the antiviral resistance was determined by the calculation of the Environmentally acquired antiviral Drug Resistance Potential (EDRP) as described by Kuroda and coworkers (Kuroda *et al.,* 2021) (Equation 2):

$$
EDRP = Min\left(\frac{\text{MEC 95}^{\text{th}} \text{perc}}{\text{v EC}_{50} \text{ or vIC}_{50}}, \frac{\text{vEC}_{50} \text{ or vIC}_{50}}{\text{MEC 95}^{\text{th}} \text{perc}}\right)
$$
(2)

Where, vIC₅₀ and vEC₅₀ refer to the antiviral drug concentration which determines the 50% of the vi-

ral growth inhibition expressed as the half maximal inhibitory (IC $_{50}$) and effective (EC $_{50}$) concentrations, respectively. Those values were compiled from (Kuroda *et al.,* 2021). EDRP values vary between 0 and 1, being a value equal to 1 the maximum risk potential.

Given that the environmental samples are constituted by myriads of contaminants, mixture toxicity was also evaluated using the sum of toxic units (STU) approach based on CA (representing the worst-case scenario) in order to avoid an overestimation of the real risk as suggested by Backhaus and Faust, 2012 (Backhaus and Faust, 2012) (Equation 3):

$$
RQ_{STU} = max (STU_{algae}, STU_{daphnids}, STU_{fish}) \times AF
$$

=
$$
max \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{MEC}{EC5o_{i,algae}}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{MEC}{EC5o_{i,depthids}}, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{MEC}{EC5o_{i,fish}} \right) \times AF
$$
 (3)

In this study, more conservative NOEC values corresponding to selected BQE instead of EC_{50} values were considered as reference concentrations for the calculation of STU to assess the impact on the aquatic ecosystem likewise for the calculation of individual RQ values. When experimental chronic NOEC values were not available, EC_{50} experimental values prevail over predicted NOEC values. In each case, an appropriate AF was applied (see section S5 in SI).

A dilution factor (DF) was applied to effluent concentrations to perform a more representative risk assessment caused by chemical exposure (Keller *et al.,* 2014). In both WWTPs, a minimum DF value was applied to simulate "the worst-case scenario"; thus, 10- and 50-fold effluent dilutions were considered for Crispijana and Galindo WWTP, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

The observations obtained in this work were based on a three-step workflow. First, the samples were analyzed using a suspect screening approach in order to detect the largest amount of contaminants present. Then, those candidates annotated as level 1 (i.e., standards available in the lab) were quantified. To end, those chemicals detected in secondary

and tertiary effluent samples were ranked according to their potential hazards based on a prioritization strategy that included six relevant categories (see section 2.8).

3.1. Occurrence of ECsin analyzed samples

3.1.1. Suspect screening

The compounds identified and annotated at levels 1-3 by means of the workflow previously described (see section 2.6) are included in Table 2, where complete information about the annotation as well as the occurrence is compiled**.** In the case of Crispijana WWTP, among the identified candidates, the presence of 79 compounds was confirmed by chemical standards (level 1) (see section 3.2.1. and Table 2), while additionally, 47 candidates were tentatively identified as probable structures (level 2a) (29 candidates in IWW and 18 in EWW), and 4 tentative candidates (level 3) (only in IWW). Among the vast number of candidates identified some compounds stood out as the most frequently identified in Crispijana WWTP: (i) the pharmaceuticals lidocaine (anaesthetic), carbamazepine (anticonvulsant) and tramadol (analgesic) identified at level 1, and febuxostat (uric acid lowering agent) and rosuvastatin (antilipidemic) identified at level 2a; (ii) some transformation products identified at level 2a such as O-desmethylnaproxen, carbamazepine 10,11-epoxide and 11-ketotestosterone; and (iii) illicit drugs identified at level 2a such as ketamine and cocaine. Overall, more compounds with higher chromatographic areas were identified in influent wastewater, pointing out that the treatments implemented at the WWTPs partially removed chemicals present in wastewater.

Regarding the wastewaters from Galindo WWTP (see section 3.2.2. and Table 2), a total of 88 compounds were annotated as level 1, 53 candidates were annotated as level 2a (29 of them in the set of IWW and EWW1, 9 in the EWW2 and the remaining 15 in the EWW3), and 12 candidates (9 in the set of IWW and EWW1, 1 in the EWW2 and 2 in the EWW3) were tentatively identified (level 3). Compared to Crispijana WWTP, an increase in the number of identified compounds and chromatographic

areas was observed in the Galindo WWTP, a fact that may be related to the location (i.e. more populated area) and the influent volume (i.e., Galindo WWTP treats almost twice the flow that Crispijana WWTP treats). This is the case, for example, of methylparaben, nonylphenol, pyrantel or finasteride; compounds that were not identified in any sample from the Crispijana WWTP, but most of which were found in all influent samples belonging to Galindo. On the other hand, the tendency to find higher signals in IWW samples compared to the treated ones (EWW1, EWW2 and EWW3) remained constant, suggesting again a certain removal efficiency of the treatments implemented in the WWTPs.

3.1.2. Quantification of compounds annotated as level 1

The suspects annotated as level 1 were quantified using the chemical standards and following the QA/QC criteria described in section 2.5. The concentrations in ng/L found in all the studied samples ($n = 32$ and $n = 47$, in Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs, respectively) are detailed in Table 3 (see Tables S2 and S3 in SI for more detailed information). Multivariate data analysis was performed by means of PCA aiming to detect differences among the WWTPs studied as well as the different effluent treatments (see section S6 and Figure S1 in SI).

Among all the wastewater samples belonging to Crispijana WWTP, 80 compounds were quantified at ng/L level, whereas, 88 were the total compounds quantified in Galindo WWTP.

Overall, pharmaceutical products (PPs), stimulants, pesticides, phthalates, hormones, industrial agents, perfluorinated compounds and flame retardants were quantified at ng/L levels in both untreated and treated samples (i.e. IWW and EWW regarding Crispijana WWTP, IWW, EWW1, EWW2 and EWW3 regarding Galindo WWTP), being in both WWTPs the group of PPs the most abundant (around 59% and 65% of the detected compounds, respectively) (see Tables S2 and S3 in SI). Moreover, as it is summarized in Table 3, most of the compounds detected in Crispijana WWTP were also

detected in Galindo WWTP. Following the trend observed in suspect screening, the highest concentration levels were found in IWW samples suggesting the removal efficiency of the treatments for some of the detected compounds. Concretely, the pharmaceuticals acetaminophen, (also known as paracetamol, an anti-inflammatory used to treat headaches), metformin (a drug to treat diabetes) and mycophenolic acid (an antibiotic usually used as an immunosuppressant drug, in organ transplants or for the treatment of certain autoimmune diseases), as well as the plasticizer caprolactam or the stimulant caffeine were determined at high ng/L levels in IWW samples of both WWTPs (see Table 3). Although caprolactam, for example, can be degraded up to 40% in 28 days by the action of certain microorganisms (López Rocha *et al.,* 2020), the adequate elimination of ECs in WWTPs is a crucial issue especially if they are present at such high concentration levels. On the other hand, it has to be mentioned that metformin (recently included in the WL-3) (Gomez Cortes *et al.,* 2020) is by far the most popular diabetes medication worldwide, which has been demonstrated to be hardly metabolized in the human body (Krentz and Bailey, 2005). As a result, it is excreted unaltered and dispersed in wastewater, as has been observed in several studies where the concentration of metformin was non-negligible (Alvarez-Mora *et al.,* 2022; Čelić *et al.,* 2021; Finckh *et al.,* 2022; Golovko *et al.,* 2021). According to the German Umweltbundesamt (UBA) database, such high levels of mycophenolic acid have never been reported, being up to now a concentration of 650 ng/L in surface waters (Franquet-Griell *et al.,* 2017) the highest detected value (https://www.umweltbundesamt.de/en/database-pharmaceuticals-in-the-environment-0, accessed October 2022). The detected large amount of caffeine in untreated samples could be attributed to its high consumption in beverages, as an excipient in a wide variety of drugs and cosmetics. Caffeine concentrations up to 20000 ng/L were reported in the literature (Ebrahimzadeh *et al.,* 2021), but it is eliminated during biological treatment reported (Qi *et al.,* 2015) as it was observed also in this work (> 90% of elimination rate).

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Target analysis of features identified as level 1 in Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs **Target analysis of features identified as level 1 in Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs** Table 2

					IWW Crispijana WWTP					EWW Crispijana WWTP					IWW Galindo WWTP		
Compounds	viations Abbre-	LOQproc $\rm (ngn)$	detected Times	Min Conc. (ng/L)	Max Conc. (ng/L)	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Mean} \\ \text{(ng/L)} \end{array}$	Median $(\mathrm{ng/L})$	detected Times	Min Conc. (ng/L)	Max Conc. (ng/L)	Mean $\left(\text{ng/L}\right)$	Median $(\mathrm{ng/L})$	detected Times	Min Conc. (1/gn)	Max Conc. (ng/L)	Mean (ng/L)	Median (ngn)
2-Hydroxybenzothiazole	DBU	15.4	4	245	845	414	365		$88\,$	271	146	137	Ξ	1270	2950	1772	1591
4-tert-octylphenol		138.5	S	235	905	470	360		159	2238	812	425	\circ	101	dOT>		
Acetaminophen		2.9	\approx	7548	24,098	17,275	17,827		163	484	293	233		31,269	58,474	44,466	47,978
Amantadine		3.3	14	$\overline{15}$	31	23	$\boldsymbol{\mu}$	Ľ	Ω	49	35	$\sqrt{2}$		45	51	66	\mathcal{O}
Amitriptyline		5.4	$\overline{13}$	702	2232,000	1081	1019	ᢦ	38	1902	482	219	8	22	47	$\frac{34}{3}$	$\overline{3}3$
Atenolol		\circ	\geq	173	435	316	311		118	236	$\frac{5}{2}$	203		556	964	770	805
Azithromycin		17.2	\circ	<loqproc< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>25</td><td>73</td><td>$\frac{4}{6}$</td><td>$\frac{4}{3}$</td><td></td><td><loqproc< td=""><td><loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<></td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>25</td><td>73</td><td>$\frac{4}{6}$</td><td>$\frac{4}{3}$</td><td></td><td><loqproc< td=""><td><loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<></td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<>				25	73	$\frac{4}{6}$	$\frac{4}{3}$		<loqproc< td=""><td><loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<></td></loqproc<>	<loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<>		
Bendiocarb		6.5	15	\circ	25	27	24	o	<loqpro< td=""><td><loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>۰</td><td>51</td><td>\overline{z}</td><td>$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$</td></loqpro<></td></loqpro<>	<loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>۰</td><td>51</td><td>\overline{z}</td><td>$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$</td></loqpro<>				۰	51	\overline{z}	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$
Bentazone		6.2	\mathfrak{a}	$\overline{ }$	\bullet	$^{\circ}$	$^{\circ}$	\mathbf{r}	$\overline{ }$	21	14	14		Ω	38	26	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}$
Benzophenone		\circ	\circ	26	53	41	¥		<loqpro< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>$\overline{3}9$</td><td>252</td><td>166</td><td>165</td></loqproc<></td></loqpro<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>$\overline{3}9$</td><td>252</td><td>166</td><td>165</td></loqproc<>				$\overline{3}9$	252	166	165
Bezafibrate		2.9	$\overline{13}$	∞	$\overline{16}$		$\overline{12}$		4	24	14	14		$181\,$	293	237	252
Bicalutamide		5.4	\overline{a}	\circ	$\overline{15}$	Q	$^{\circ}$		$\overline{12}$	\overline{z}	45	51		\circ	25	\mathbf{D}	g
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate	DEHP	138.5	\circ	315	2340	920	733		438	1405	1004	984		2225	42,815	14,194	7029
Bisoprolol		3.3	$\overline{ }$	$\overline{18}$	$\sqrt{3}$	25	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Z}}$		$\overline{21}$	δ	5	59		230	327	272	273
Bisphenol A	BPA	$15.1\,$	15	362	2709	1719	1727		$\ddot{ }$	400	149	115		1098	2702	1717	1696
Bupropion		4.7	\circ	dOT>	dOT>				dOT>	dor>				<loqproc< td=""><td><loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<></td></loqproc<>	<loqpro< td=""><td></td><td></td></loqpro<>		
Caffeine		338.3	16	9587	28,480	20,860	20,858		<loqpro< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>30,315</td><td>82,035</td><td>59,811</td><td>62,439</td></loqproc<></td></loqpro<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>30,315</td><td>82,035</td><td>59,811</td><td>62,439</td></loqproc<>				30,315	82,035	59,811	62,439
Caprolactam		31.9	15	702	2232	1147	1021		$\sqrt{2}$	329	152	116		18,054	72,388	34,602	29,917
Carbamazepine		6.6	$\overline{16}$	$20\,$	$\overline{3}3$	25	$24\,$		$\overline{31}$	$176\,$	113	118		$\frac{5}{4}$	86	$\mathbf{68}$	66
Carbendazim		7.6	$\overline{16}$	Ω	83	52	52		$\overline{15}$	$53\,$	32	29		$28\,$	$\bar{\mathrm{g}}$	\mathcal{S}	$\overline{61}$
Celecoxib		4.2	$12 \,$	w	Ξ	r,	\circ		\triangleright	$\overline{12}$	음	$\overline{}$		$\overline{\mathrm{o}}$	Ω	16	$18\,$
Cetirizine		4.5	13	w	173	87	90			252 185	146	149		165	214	196	202
Ciprofloxacin		19.8	$\overline{13}$	52	203	118	109		52 \$		C ₃	56		144	327	228	200
Clarithromycin		5.5	\circ	<loqproc< td=""><td>ϵLOQproc</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>334</td><td>122</td><td>83</td><td></td><td>$\overline{14}$</td><td>$\overline{1}$</td><td>$\overline{14}$</td><td>$\overline{14}$</td></loqproc<>	ϵ LOQproc					334	122	83		$\overline{14}$	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{14}$	$\overline{14}$
Clopidogrel		6.8	\sim	∞	∞	∞	∞		∞	$\overline{13}$	ă	\overline{a}		\overline{a}	Ξ	15	$\overline{5}$
Clozapine		3.2	\circ	<loqproc< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>$\overline{16}$</td><td>\mathfrak{g}</td><td>53</td><td>56</td><td></td><td>$\overline{12}$</td><td></td><td>$\overline{}$</td><td>$\overline{13}$</td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>$\overline{16}$</td><td>\mathfrak{g}</td><td>53</td><td>56</td><td></td><td>$\overline{12}$</td><td></td><td>$\overline{}$</td><td>$\overline{13}$</td></loqproc<>				$\overline{16}$	\mathfrak{g}	53	56		$\overline{12}$		$\overline{}$	$\overline{13}$
Cotinine		6.2	16	434	1529	971	1023		$\frac{48}{5}$	264	182	201		1626	3288	2381	2381
Dibutyl phthalate	DBP	28.3	\mathbf{r}	595	1411	981	971		58	286	139	143		1262	3263	2093	2041
Diethyl phthalate	DEP	130.6	\overline{a}	233	1373	674	724		326	10,897	4759	2544		1819	42,444	6973	3252
Diethyl Toluamide	DEET	6.5	$\overline{16}$	24	264	113	75		Ξ	86	38	28		\mathcal{S}	279	165	153
Dioctyl phthalate	DOP	45	\circ	323	2398	942	751		449	1439	1029	1008		1186	37,220	12,233	6232
Diuron		5.8	6	34	105	65	68		42	206	140	154		3	287	109	$\frac{6}{2}$
Efavirenz		6.6	\circ	$\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$	23	15	\overline{z}			$\overline{7}$	$\frac{8}{3}$	51		\overline{z}	\mathcal{C}	$\overline{41}$	38
Eprosartan		7.4	∞	253	834	547	497		∞	252	72 72	$59\,$		1755	3111	2473	2589
Estriol		55.6	\circ	68	112	8	87		\mathbb{Z}	72		\mathbb{Z}		56	145	106	Ξ
Ethyl-S,S-diphenyldithiophosphate	EDDP	5.7	\circ	dor>	101				dOT>	dOT>					∞	∞	
Finasteride		3.2	\circ	dor>	501				dOT>	$QQ1$ >					32	18	Ξ
Fluconazole		2.9	$\overline{15}$	52	172	108	106		36	421	211	167		293	1321	658	579
Furosemide		6.5	$\overline{15}$	240	623	409	410		51	407	232	258		186	559	351	331
Gabaspentin		15.3	$\overline{13}$	906	8788	2164	2201		110	657	453	494		2646	5013	4028	3943
Genistein		338.3	$\overline{13}$	495	1316	829	777		<loqproc< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>854</td><td>6278</td><td>3009</td><td>3236</td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>854</td><td>6278</td><td>3009</td><td>3236</td></loqproc<>				854	6278	3009	3236
Genistin		6.4	$\overline{16}$	\mathcal{Q}	342	160	149		<loqproc< td=""><td><loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>174</td><td>293</td><td>222</td><td>195</td></loqproc<></td></loqproc<>	<loqproc< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>174</td><td>293</td><td>222</td><td>195</td></loqproc<>				174	293	222	195

After the secondary treatments a removal rate higher than 50% was determined for 22 and 30 compounds (in Crispijana and Galindo WWTP, respectively), and the efficiency of the tertiary treatment from Galindo WWTP was evidenced. By the use of the tertiary treatment, a large number of compounds (n = 32) were significantly removed (see Table S4 in SI). A non-significant elimination rate was observed through the secondary treatment for the rest of identified compounds (i.e., 45 compounds), so that they can be cathegorized as "pseudo-persistent" contaminants that are continuously released into the aquatic ecosystem (see Table S4 in SI).

3.2. Influence of the COVID-19

The lack of knowledge of the virus and the need to rapidly find some effective treatments to combat the virus led to the massive use of several pharmaceutical compounds (or combinations) with antiviral and/or antimicrobial activity (Costanzo *et al.,* 2020). In this work, suspect analysis enabled the identification (at level 1 and 2a) of some of those drugs that were massively used for COV-ID-19 treatment early in the pandemic thereby increasing their occurrence in wastewaters (see Table 4) (Alygizakis *et al.,* 2021; Cappelli *et al.,* 2022;

Galani *et al.,* 2021). Based on some previous occurrence data get in sampling campaigns before COVID-19 time in secondary effluent of Galindo WWTP (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021), the analgesic acetaminophen, the antibiotic azithromycin, the antivirals darunavir and lopinavir, and the antimalarial hydroxychloroquine are some of those drugs with significant occurrence during the pandemic time.

As can be observed in Table 4, there is no prior evidence of the occurrence of the compounds hydroxychloroquine and lopinavir above detection limits, being the first time that the presence of hydroxychloroquine was registered in Basque environmental waters (Domingo-Echaburu *et al.,* 2022). Hydroxychloroquine, typically used for malaria, lupus and rheumatoid arthritis treatment (Drug Bank Online, 2020), was considered as a possible efficient drug to treat COVID-19 disease (either alone or in combination with azithromycin) at the beginning of the pandemic (Gautret *et al.,* 2020). The use of lopinavir (an antiviral often prescribed with ritonavir to treat HIV (Osborne *et al.,* 2020) as an effective virus-fighting agent was also revealed by its high occurrence in wastewaters during the pandemic period. In fact, according to the UBA, the concentration found for lopinavir in the analyzed samples was the highest registered at the European level (https:// www.umweltbundesamt.de/en/database-pharmaceuticals-in-the-environment-0, accessed October 2022). Acetaminophen, typically used in WBE to predict disease outbreaks because it is a short-term application analgesic that can be consumed without prescription (Halwatura *et al.,* 2022), was also used to control some of the COVID-19 symptoms, and hence, its occurrence was detected during the pandemic time but also before that period (see Table 4) (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021). A similar trend was also observed for the previously highlighted azithromycin and darunavir compounds, which were detected during and before pandemic time (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021).

Regarding the antibiotics detected in samples collected in this study, although their occurrence

is positively correlated with the COVID-19 metrics and it is known that they were massively administered during lockdown (Cappelli *et al.,* 2022; Galani *et al.,* 2021; Gonzalez-Zorn, 2021), the presence of broad-spectrum class antibiotics in wastewaters could be a consequence of seasonal diseases. Heterogeneous trend in pharmaceuticals for other therapeutic purposes (e.g. antihypertensives, anti-inflammatories, anticonvulsants) consumption during the pandemic has been reported. On the other hand, post-traumatic stress, depression, insomnia, fear and/or frustration, among others suffered by citizens during the lockdown (Brooks *et al.,* 2020) (Singh *et al.,* 2020) could led to the consumption of illicit drugs. Qualitative comparison of compounds' occurrence before (González-Gaya *et al.,* 2021) and during the pandemic time (this study) revealed negligible differences in the presence of most of the compounds detected in this study at the Galindo WWTP, with only 20 (e.g. hydroxychloroquine, lopinavir, clarithromycin, clozapine, sulpiride and tiapride, among others) compounds more detected in samples collected during the lockdown (see Table 4); particularly, new pharmaceuticals have emerged in Galindo WWTP effluent (e.g., candesartan, clozapine, eprosartan or primidone, among others). In line with other studies (Alygizakis *et al.,* 2021; Nason *et al.,* 2022; Wang *et al.,* 2020), a higher number of antipsychotic drugs (including antidepressants) have been observed compared to the non-COV-ID-19 period, which, as aforementioned, would give more insight into the mental health of the Basque citizens provoked by the different measures applied. Furthermore, certain illicit drugs considered as biomarkers in WBE studies (Alygizakis *et al.,* 2021; Been *et al.,* 2021; Reinstadler *et al.,* 2021) such as amphetamine or ketamine were also detected (see Table 4).

Unfortunately, the lack of previous studies hindered the comparison of the values detected at the Crispijana WWTP. However, an increase in hospital drug consumption of certain selected drugs during the first wave pandemic was previously discussed (Domingo-Echaburu *et al.,* 2022).

3.3. Prioritization strategy forenvironmentalrisk assessment

A prioritization strategy for environmental risk assessment was carried out using the compounds quantified in the effluents of Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs. The compounds were scored based on the (a) removal efficiency (RE, %), (b) estimated persistency (half-life time in days, DT50), (c) bioconcentration factor (BCF), (d) toxicity potential and (e) frequency of detection in the samples (see section 2.8). Those compounds with the lowest total score value were set as the potential drivers of toxicity.

Among the compounds quantified in both WWTPs, the list of the most concerning compounds is constituted by 25 and 22 micropollutants in Crispijana and Galindo, respectively. Pharmaceutical compounds dominated both priority lists (> 70% of the total in both WWTPs), while, lower total scores were obtained in wastewaters from Galindo WWTP for the prioritized contaminants (total score \leq 17 vs 18) (see Figure 2, Table S6 in SI). Several compounds identified as priority compounds in this work have already been considered hazardous elsewhere such as the ones included in WFD priority list (DEHP, diuron and terbutryn) (European Commission, 2013) and the ones included in the current Watch List to be considered for future prioritization (clarithromycin and sulfamethoxazole) (European Commission, 2015; Gomez Cortes *et al.,* 2020). Moreover, some of the compounds considered in here as priority compounds were also pointed out as key chemicals in environmental toxicity studies. In the work of Gros and coworkers, for example, lidocaine (included in both priority rankings) was pointed out as one of the top-risk drivers of Swedish wastewaters, followed by diuron (included in the priority list of Crispijana WWTP) to a lower extent (higher total scores) (Gros *et al.,* 2017). Carbamazepine, irbesartan, sulfamethoxazole and ciprofloxacin were identified as relevant chemicals for marine organisms in the area of Ebro Delta (Spain) in the work of Čelić and coworkers, where a similar prioritization strategy to the one used in the present work was done (Čelić *et al.,* 2019). After the assessment of 52 European WWTPs, Finckh *et al.* pointed out carbendazim, terbutryn and diuron as toxicity-driver compounds (Finckh *et al.,* 2022). Moreover, other recent studies based on the calculation of RQs in WWTP effluents (Figuière *et al.,* 2022; Lopez-Herguedas *et al.,* 2022; Solaun *et al.,* 2021), freshwater (Figuière *et al.,* 2022) and riverine and coastal ecosystems (Čelić *et al.,* 2021) highlighted the need to prioritize some of the concerning compounds pointed out in the present work.

Secondary treatments implemented in both analyzed WWTPs seemed to be not efficient enough to remove completely all the prioritized contaminants (score of 1). The poor elimination rate of the detect-

ed organic micropollutants through conventional secondary treatments implemented in WWTPs is widely reported in the literature (Golovko *et al.,* 2021; Jelic *et al.,* 2011; Köck-Schulmeyer *et al.,* 2013; Kovalova *et al.,* 2012; Le Corre *et al.,* 2012). The associated matrix effect that can result in signal suppression is usually the argument used to explain these "negative" removals. However, typical retransformation of conjugated compounds into the original compound through biological processes, improper sample collection (lack of correlation between influent and effluent samples due to a bad timely collection) or the release of the compounds from fecal particles due to microbial breakdown can also be considered to report negative compound removals (Fernández-López *et al.,* 2016; Köck-Schulmeyer *et al.,* 2013).

Amantadine (score 1) and lopinavir (score 2) stood out as the most persistent compounds in both WWTPs, showing DT50 values exceeding 60 days, with the addition of estriol (Crispijana WWTP, score 2) and testosterone (Galindo WWTP, score 2). The persistency of the remaining compounds was lower (< 37.5 days), suggesting that most of the top compounds were easily degradable (see Figure 2, Table S6 in SI). DEHP and DOP in Crispijana WWTP and clozapine and lorazepam in Galindo WWTP were the compounds showing the highest predicted BCF values, however, none of the detected compounds could be considered as highly bioaccumulative (BCF < 100). Additionally, it is important to note that statements made considering biodegradation and bioaccumulation of the compounds are fully based on predicted values due to the lack of experimental values and contradictions may exist, as was observed when comparing halflife times and REs. Thus, there could be an overestimation of the real risk. In consequence, these categories should not share the same weight as categories based on experimental data in future prioritization strategies.

In terms of mobility, prioritized compounds showed, overall, low log K_{ow} values, suggesting a high mobility potential, with the exception of DOP, irbesartan, lopinavir and telmisartan (see **F**igure 2, Table S6 in SI).

Individual RQs were calculated to assess the maximum concentration at which the ecological status of the ecosystem is preserved. To that aim, predicted values based on in-silico tools (i.e. ECOSAR) for baseline toxicity were considered, since there is a lack of experimental toxicity data available for the assessed compounds (see Table S5). In this case, experimental toxicity values were found for around 50 and 60% of the prioritized compounds for PNEC calculation in Crispijana and Galindo WWTPs, respectively. Estimated individual toxicities highlighted that although most of the detected compounds do not pose a relevant environmental risk, some compounds should be closely tracked, especially ciprofloxacin, telmisartan, DEHP and DOP (RQ > 1), and sulfamethoxazole, clarithromycin, norfloxacin and terbutryn (RQ > 0.1), in a lesser extent. Furthermore, the over/underestimation of the environmental risk led by the use of predicted ecotoxicological data rather than experimental (i.e.

NOEC and/or EC_{50}) for the calculation of RQs emphasizes the need for more empirical evidence to provide more reliable results.

Both priority rankings include compounds that have not been identified in previous studies as concerning and which may be related in some way to COV-ID-19 disease. Lopinavir, as aforementioned, has been used in combination with ritonavir to combat the virus, suggesting that its massive use during this particular period is responsible for increasing the potential environmental risk it may pose. On the other hand, the potential risk of the psychoactive compounds clozapine and lorazepam could be correlated with their raised prescription rates to overcome mental illnesses caused by the lockdown.

Comparing both secondary effluents with the tertiary effluent of Galindo WWTP, slightly higher total scores of the top-ranked contaminants were obtained in the latter (see section S7 in SI).

Considering the high loads of pharmaceuticals with antimicrobial and antiviral activity released into the environment due to the COVID-19 disease, the concern of the development of resistance in the aquatic environment has increased (Knight *et al.,* 2021; Kuroda *et al.,* 2021). The antimicrobial and antiviral potential activity of the drugs of interest was determined with the calculation of RQ-AR and EDRP (see section 2.8). The risk indices determined (see Table 5) suggest that none of the detected compounds might pose a relevant activity, since RQ-AR and EDRP values did not exceed the threshold of > 1. However, in the case of antimicrobial activity, ciprofloxacin and fluconazole reached concentrations of medium antimicrobial resistance risk $(1 > RQ-AR > 0.1)$. Our findings, considering the antimicrobial activity, were contrary to those observed by Cappelli and coworkers, as in that case both azithromycin and ciprofloxacin exceeded the $RQ-AR = 1$ threshold, posing a high potential for developing antimicrobial resistance (Cappelli *et al.,* 2022). Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that any DF (see section 2.8) was applied in that study, representing the worst-case scenario. On the other hand, the negligible risk of EDRP determined in this study is in line with other studies (Cappelli *et al.,* 2022; Kuroda *et al.,* 2021). However, regardless of the determined low RQ-AR and EDRP values, a reduction of antiviral and antimicrobial drug residues is suggested in order to avoid the disruption of natural biological systems as well as the development of resistance in aquatic systems (Kuroda *et al.,* 2021; Usman *et al.,* 2020).

Once the priority list of contaminants was defined, mixture toxicity was assessed via the calculation of STU (see section 2.8). All effluent samples exceeded the threshold of 1 (Figure 3) obtaining the highest mixture risk ($STU = 11.1$) for the secondary effluent of Crispijana WWTP being DOP the main contributor of the mixture toxicity (72% of the total) followed by DEHP and telmisartan (STU values of 1.28 and 1.11, respectively). In the case of the secondary effluent of Galindo WWTP, the risk was almost halved to an STU value of 6.8, predominated by DEHP which contributed to around 90% of the total mixture risk, while more than the remaining mixture toxicity was attributed to norfloxacin. Similarly to the individual risk assessment, the lowest STU value was estimated for the tertiary effluent of Galindo WWTP (STU = 1.6). In this latter case, any of the compounds exceeded the threshold of 1 being DEHP and norfloxacin the most influential compounds in the mixture risk both with moderate risks (0.63 and 0.79, respectively).

Figure 3. STU values for analyzed effluent samples including the main contributors

Chronic ecotoxicological data was considered rather than acute data when possible for the mixture toxicity assessment (see section 2.8). As indicated by Markert *et al.* the choice of acute or chronic toxicity data will have a clear impact on the calculated risks of the mixture, and they recommend that the risk assessment of the mixture should be based not only on the commonly applied acute toxicity data but also on the chronic toxicity data (Markert *et al.,* 2020). In fact, with many of the contaminants, it is known that it is the long-term risks that will really affect the environment. However, the use of fixed ratios for the extrapolation from acute to chronic toxicity is problematic, because some chemicals show different modes of action (MoA) under shortand long-term conditions (Ahlers *et al.,* 2006). In addition, the biological mechanisms of action differ from species to species.

4. Conclusions

A previously validated suspect screening workflow was used for the identification of emerging contaminants present in two different WWTPs located in the Basque Country (Crispijana and Galindo) during COVID-19 confinement. Pharmaceutical compounds used for COVID-19 disease treatment were detected in both WWTP samples including the antivirals ritonavir/lopinavir (level 1) and darunavir (level 2a), the antimalarial hydroxychloroquine (level 1) and the antibiotic azithromycin (level 1). Moreover, other pharmaceuticals used for therapeutic purposes were also detected (e.g. amitriptyline, clozapine, lorazepam, primidone and valsartan, among others), suggesting a positive correlation with the mental illnesses caused by the lockdown. Despite the differences between the number and concentrations of the compounds found in both WWTPs due to their different locations, the population of influence and the treatments implemented, they both coincide in not being able to eliminate most of the drugs found in their influents with any of the treatments implemented.

A prioritization strategy for the ECs detected in WWTP effluent samples was carried out in order to

point out the major contributors to environmental risk. Although several compounds were considered of concern, both prioritization lists consisted mostly of pharmaceutical compounds (e.g. amantadine, telmisartan, lopinavir, clarithromycin, clozapine) highlighting the need for monitoring and thereby concluding whether they should be considered for future regulation. On the other hand, the lack of measured data (e.g. degradation, bioaccumulation and toxicity) for many frequently detected compounds leaves no alternative but to make use of reference QSARs or other in-silico tools for data prediction, which leads to high uncertainty in the affirmations made. Although the values determined to assess antimicrobial and antiviral resistance activity for the compounds of interest were low (RQ-AR and EDRP values < 1), the results of the antimicrobial risk index showed medium environmental concern for the detected levels of ciprofloxacin and fluconazole, demonstrating the need to include these endpoints in current regulatory systems.

Thus, the development of new technologies in the wastewater treatments is required to improve the removal efficiency of those compounds so the potential environmental risk they may pose in receiving water ecosystems decreases. On the other hand, more efforts need to be made to fill the gaps by prioritizing chemicals for effect testing and evaluating the mixture effects (i.e. synergic or antagonistic effects) of the contaminants.

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