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Modeling Risk Dynamics of Contaminants of Emerging Concern in a Temperate-region Wastewater Effluent-dominated Stream

Hui Zhi,^{§,¶} Danielle T. Webb,^{§,¶} Jerald L. Schnoor,^{§,¶} Dana W. Kolpin,^Δ Rebecca D.
Klaper,[¥] Luke R. Iwanowicz,[#] Gregory H. LeFevre^{§,¶,*}

[§]Department of Civil & Environmental Engineering, University of Iowa, 4105 Seamans Center,
Iowa City, IA 52242, United States;

[¶]IHR-Hydrosience & Engineering, 100 C. Maxwell Stanley Hydraulics Laboratory, Iowa City,
IA 52242, United States;

^ΔU.S. Geological Survey, Central Midwest Water Science Center, 400 S. Clinton St, Rm 269
Federal Building, Iowa City, IA 52240, United States;

[#]U.S. Geological Survey, Eastern Ecological Science Center, 11649 Leetown Road,
Kearneysville, WV 25430, United States;

[¥]University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, School of Freshwater Sciences, 600 E. Greenfield Ave,
Milwaukee, WI 53204, United States.

***Corresponding Author:**

gregory-lefevre@uiowa.edu; Phone: 319-335-5655; 4105 Seamans Center for Engineering,
University of Iowa, Iowa City Iowa, United States

Abstract

Wastewater effluent-dominated streams are becoming increasingly common worldwide, including in temperate regions, with potential impacts on ecological systems and drinking water sources. We recently quantified the occurrence/ spatiotemporal dynamics of pharmaceutical mixtures in a representative temperate-region wastewater effluent-dominated stream (Muddy Creek, Iowa) under baseflow conditions and characterized relevant fate processes. Herein, we quantified the ecological risk quotients (RQs) of 19 effluent-derived contaminants of emerging concern (CECs; including: 14 pharmaceuticals, 2 industrial chemicals, and 3 neonicotinoid insecticides) and 1 run-off-derived compound (atrazine) in the stream under baseflow conditions, and estimated the probabilistic risks of effluent-derived CECs under all-flow conditions (i.e., including runoff events) using stochastic risk modeling. We determined that 11 out of 20 CECs pose medium-to-high risks to local ecological systems (i.e., algae, invertebrates, fish) based on literature-derived acute effects under measured baseflow conditions. Stochastic risk modeling indicated decreased, but still problematic, risk of effluent-derived CECs (i.e., $RQ \geq 0.1$) under all-flow conditions when runoff events were included. Dilution of effluent-derived chemicals from storm flows thus only minimally decreased risk to aquatic biota in the effluent-dominated stream. We also modeled in-stream transport. Thirteen out of 14 pharmaceuticals persisted along the stream reach (median attenuation rate constant $k < 0.1 \text{ h}^{-1}$) and entered the Iowa River at elevated concentrations. Predicted and measured concentrations in the drinking water treatment plant were below the human health benchmarks. This study demonstrates the application of probabilistic risk assessments for effluent-derived CECs in a representative effluent-dominated stream under variable flow conditions (when measurements are less practical) and provides an enhanced prediction tool transferable to other effluent-dominated systems.

Water Impact Statement

We used chemical and continuous flow data for stochastic risk modeling to demonstrate that risks to aquatic biota from effluent-derived chemicals decrease only minimally when diluted with storm flows. Stochastic risk modeling is useful for assessments when chemical data are limited but flow data are available. This work is generalizable to effluent-dominated systems critical for *defacto* water reuse management decisions.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Climate change and urbanization are increasing the influence of wastewater effluent on
3 receiving waters, leading to an increase in contaminants of emerging concern (CECs) loadings
4 including pharmaceuticals, personal care products, pesticides, and industrial chemicals from
5 wastewater to drinking water supplies (i.e., de facto reuse).¹⁻⁶ Because some CECs such as
6 pharmaceuticals and pesticides are biologically active at low concentrations by design and have
7 potential to accumulate in aquatic and terrestrial species,⁷⁻⁹ occurrence of these contaminants in
8 drinking water, irrigation water, and food webs may pose risks/concerns to wildlife and human
9 health.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ For example, neonicotinoid insecticides (i.e., clothianidin, imidacloprid,
10 thiamethoxam) and more human-toxic metabolites have been found in finished drinking water
11 (i.e., tap water);^{10,15,16} potential concerns include inflammation of the liver and central nervous
12 system due to chronic exposure.¹⁷ Pharmaceuticals such as metformin (antidiabetic) and
13 venlafaxine (antidepressant) can cause behavior changes,¹⁸ potential endocrine disruption
14 effects,^{19,20} and reduced size and fecundity in fish.²¹ Despite several studies that suggest
15 negligible adverse effects of different CECs to humans,^{22,23} knowledge is limited for chronic
16 effects via long-term exposure or exposure to complex contaminant mixtures.²⁴ Effluent-
17 dominated streams, where treated wastewater represents the majority of flow, can represent a
18 ‘worst-case scenario’ for risk assessment of different CEC mixtures under baseflow conditions,
19 but characterizing the potential risks to biota under elevated flow conditions (i.e., including
20 events with surface runoff that dilute wastewater influence) is important to reflect real-world
21 conditions.

22 For a robust assessment of the potential risks of CECs in effluent-dominated systems,
23 high spatiotemporal-resolution sampling synergized with comprehensive analytical analysis and

24 the application of appropriate simulation models are imperative. The risk quotient (RQ),
25 expressed as the ratio of the measured environmental concentration (MEC) to the predicted no
26 effect concentration (PNEC), is often used for risk characterization of ecological systems.²⁵
27 Numerous studies have quantified the occurrence and distribution of different CECs and
28 associated RQs in the aquatic environment;^{5,26–28} however, environmental variability makes
29 assessing risk dynamics of CECs under variable conditions challenging (i.e., logistically difficult,
30 expensive). Stochastic risk modeling has been used for assessing risk at contaminated sites under
31 various input sources and hydrologic conditions.^{29,30} Stochastic approaches apply probability
32 distributions to describe random variability in input parameters; these distributions are then
33 propagated to the output variables through mathematical models using statistical sampling
34 algorithms.²⁹ For example, a Monte Carlo simulation is an effective approach for characterizing
35 risks and uncertainty where a considerable amount of data describing the system dynamics is
36 available.³⁰ Although such simulations do not account for possible interactive effects to
37 organisms (e.g., antagonistic, synergistic interactions) from chemical mixtures, stochastic risk
38 modeling can serve as an important tool for probabilistically assessing the contaminant risk and
39 identifying dominant risk drivers.³¹

40 The spatial and temporal heterogeneity of environmental variables controlling attenuation
41 processes makes investigation of CECs in-stream transport challenging. Thus, a simulation
42 approach can help integrate varied environmental conditions (e.g., hydrologic conditions,
43 microbial activity, etc.) and quantitative information to predict the transport of CECs under
44 various flow conditions that generate chronic exposure to aquatic biota with changing spatial and
45 temporal dynamics.³² QUAL2K is a one-dimensional stream water quality model intended to

46 represent a well-mixed channel³³ that does not require extensive data inputs beyond basic first-
47 order kinetic rates,^{34–36} and is commonly applied.^{34,37}

48 Our prior work demonstrated that Muddy Creek (Coralville, IA) is a representative
49 effluent-dominated stream in temperate region, and it is also an ideal study site where we
50 conducted long-term monitoring of chemical and hydrologic data.^{38–42} In the previous work, we
51 quantified the occurrence/ spatiotemporal dynamics and fate mechanisms of pharmaceutical
52 mixtures^{38,43} and neonicotinoid insecticides³⁹ in an effluent-dominated stream under baseflow
53 conditions. Nevertheless, the potential risks to the local ecological system under all-flow
54 conditions and the drinking water source have not yet been evaluated. One may assume dilution
55 of WWTP effluent-derived CECs from run-off events would substantially decrease overall risks
56 to biota, but comprehensively evaluating exposure can be difficult because capturing samples
57 under variable flow conditions is inherently more logistically onerous than measuring at
58 baseflow. Therefore, appropriate simulation approaches can fill this knowledge gap and help
59 develop a comprehensive risk assessment for pharmaceuticals and other CECs in this
60 representative effluent-dominated stream to provide an enhanced prediction tool transferable to
61 other effluent-dominated systems.

62 The present study objectives were to: (1) quantify the ecological exposure risks of
63 pharmaceuticals and other CECs in an effluent-dominated stream and assess changes in risk
64 exposure for effluent-derived chemicals simulated under variable all-flow conditions due to
65 dilution with storm flows; and (2) estimate the in-stream transport and input of pharmaceuticals
66 and other CECs from the effluent-dominated stream to a drinking water source and their
67 potential exposure risks to human health. We hypothesized that: (1) the in-stream ecological risk
68 of effluent-derived CECs was lower under non-baseflow conditions, but CECs can still pose

69 risks to aquatic biota; and (2) CECs from the effluent-dominated stream posed minimal risks to
70 drinking water intakes following substantial dilution after entering the larger waterbody. Herein,
71 we demonstrate a novel framework to characterize exposure risks of aquatic biota from effluent-
72 derived chemicals in an effluent-dominated stream under variable flow conditions. We use
73 collected chemical data and real-time flows data for stochastic risk modeling to demonstrate that
74 risks to aquatic biota from effluent-derived chemicals decrease only minimally when diluted with
75 storm flows. Stochastic risk modeling helps inform temporal risk dynamics and transport
76 modeling informs spatial attenuation dynamics. The present study integrated our previously
77 released chemical data^{38,39,42} for simulation and risk assessment and collected new chemical data
78 to quantify intra-day variability of CECs in the stream and potential impacts on the drinking
79 water intakes.

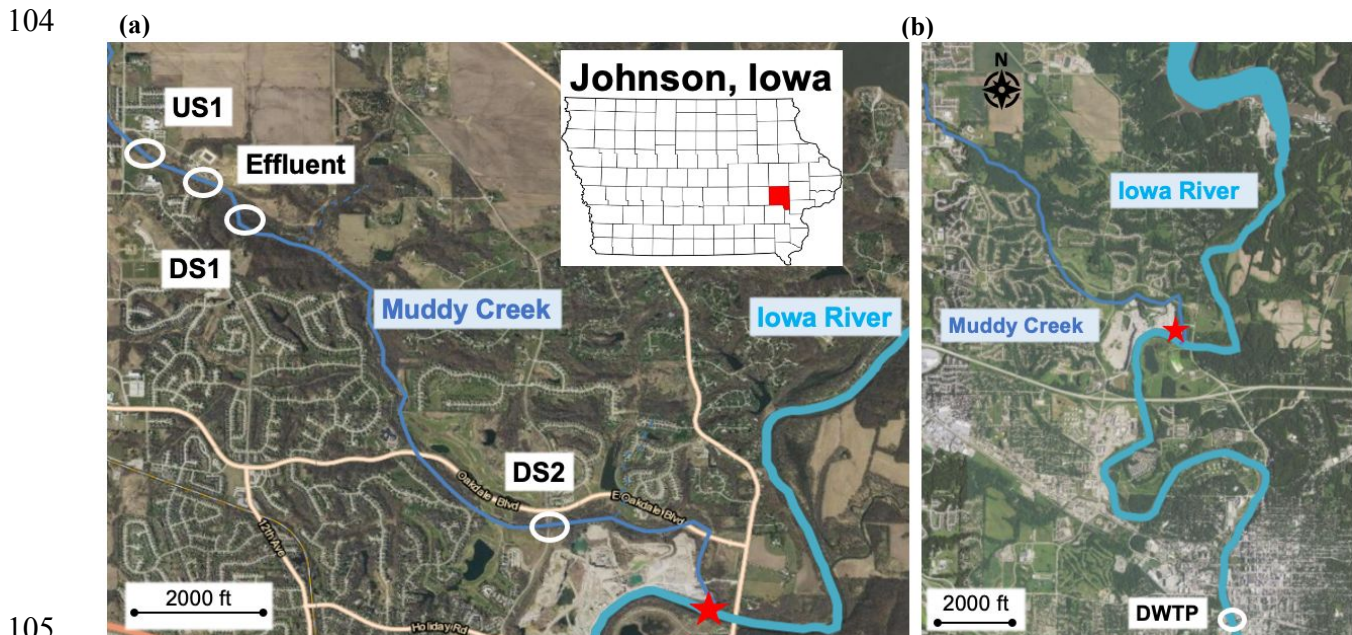
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81 **2. Materials and Methods**

82 **2.1 Study site**

83 Muddy Creek, Iowa, USA (Latitude 41°42'00", Longitude 91°33'46") has a drainage area
84 of 22.5 km² composed of both agricultural (17.45%–20.72%) and urban (60%–72.5%) land use
85 (details in Table S.1), and discharges into the Iowa River (Figure 1). The long-term median flow
86 during two years (September 2017 to August 2019) of Muddy Creek (station ID 05454090)⁴¹ and
87 Iowa River at Iowa City (station ID 05454500)⁴⁴ was 0.18±1.14 m³/s (median±standard
88 deviation) and 74±103 m³/s, respectively. The mixing ratio of Muddy Creek stream flow to Iowa
89 River flow was roughly 1:411 based on the long-term median flow discharge. Muddy Creek is a
90 wastewater effluent-dominated stream, with effluent discharged from the North Liberty
91 Wastewater Treatment Plant (WWTP). North Liberty, Iowa, has an estimated population⁴⁵ of
92 19,240 and is the second-fastest growing city in Iowa. The WWTP has a modern membrane

93 bioreactor facility built in 2008, which removes particles $>0.02 \mu\text{m}$ and thus no further
 94 disinfection is used. This facility also implements biological nitrogen and phosphorus removal.
 95 The current wastewater discharge averages approximately $5,300 \text{ m}^3/\text{day}$ ($0.061 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$).⁴⁶ The
 96 Muddy Creek streamflow varied from $0.03 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ to $0.30 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ (median $0.12 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$) at the sampling
 97 time points during 2 years of baseflow sample collection (at U.S. Geological Survey [USGS]
 98 gaging station 05454090; DS2).^{38,41} Muddy Creek has a generally sandy streambed and heavy
 99 tree canopy riparian zone. Four USGS sampling sites were established for this study: (1) 0.1 km
 100 upstream from WWTP outfall (US1; station ID 05454050); (2) wastewater effluent outfall
 101 (Effluent; station ID 05454051); (3) 0.1 km downstream from WWTP outfall (DS1; station ID
 102 05454052); and (4) 5.1 km downstream from WWTP outfall (DS2, USGS gaging station; station
 103 ID 05454090) (Figure 1a). The estimated distance from DS2 to the Iowa River is roughly 2 km.



105
 106 **Figure 1:** (a) Sampling map of Muddy Creek, Coralville, Johnson County, Iowa, USA. The sampling location
 107 values include: US1 (station ID 05454050, 0.1 km upstream from the wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) outfall),
 108 Effluent (station ID 0545405, wastewater effluent outfall), DS1 (station ID 05454052, 0.1 km downstream from
 109 WWTP outfall) and DS2 (USGS gaging station, station ID 05454090, Latitude $41^{\circ}42'00''$, Longitude $91^{\circ}33'46''$, 5.1
 110 km downstream from WWTP outfall). (b) Sampling map of drinking water treatment plant, roughly 8km
 111 downstream of where Muddy Creek enters the Iowa River. The red star represents where Muddy Creek joins the
 112 Iowa River. Base map is from Iowa Geographic Map Server.⁴⁷

113

114 **2.2 Data Sources**

115 **Hydrologic data.** During monthly sampling events (September 2017 to August 2018),
116 streamflow at US1 and DS1 was measured via a flow tracker using established USGS methods.⁴⁸
117 Effluent discharge at the specific time of sampling was determined indirectly by subtracting the
118 streamflow measured above from that measured below the WWTP effluent. Stream stage at DS2,
119 located 5.1 km downstream from the effluent outfall, was continuously monitored by the USGS
120 gaging station (station ID 05454090) to calculate flow based on a stage/discharge rating curve
121 developed for this specific site (Figure S.3).⁴¹ Baseflow discharge and all-flow discharge at DS2
122 during 2-year period were 0.137 ± 0.067 m³/s (mean \pm standard deviation) and 0.372 ± 1.142 m³/s,
123 respectively.⁴¹ Bulk water quality parameters including dissolved oxygen, pH, water temperature,
124 and conductivity were also monitored by USGS for the monthly sampling time points during
125 Year 1.⁴²

126 **Chemical data.** Chemical data sources consisted of previously released data and additional
127 newly collected data. Previously reported data of 20 CECs included: 1) Monthly pharmaceutical
128 data (n=14 compounds; 12 data sets in total; September 2017-August 2018; “Year 1” of the
129 study; Table S.2) collected and analyzed by USGS,⁴² used to simulate the first-order attenuation;
130 and monthly pharmaceutical data (n=14 compounds; 12 data sets in total; September 2017-
131 August 2018; “Year 1”; Table S.2) collected and analyzed by University of Iowa (UIowa), used
132 to validate the attenuation simulation;³⁸ 2) Neonicotinoid insecticide data (n=3 compounds; 17
133 data sets in total; collected approximately twice-monthly during weather-dependent baseflow
134 conditions; September 2018-August 2019; “Year 2”; Table S.2) were collected and analyzed by
135 UIowa;³⁹ and 3) Other chemicals (n=3) including atrazine and benzotriazole and 5-methyl-
136 benzotriazole (Table S.2).^{38,42} All chemical data from Year 1 that are described above were used

137 for risk assessment (but only effluent derived chemical were used for stochastic risk modeling;
138 see below). Each data set included four samples from each of our four established sampling sites.
139 All the sampling procedures, sample pretreatments and analytical methods were fully described
140 in our prior publications.^{38,39} Although the occurrence of 20 CECs from Muddy Creek was
141 released previously,^{38,39} no prior ecological and human risk assessments have been conducted.

142 New to this study, additional water samples were collected over a more-intensive four-
143 day period in the wastewater effluent and along the stream reach to capture a higher resolution of
144 daily variation of CECs (i.e., 14 pharmaceuticals and 2 industrial chemicals). During July 14-18,
145 2019 (a total of 96 h), sampling occurred three time daily (8am, 12pm, and 7pm) at four
146 sampling sites [US1, Effluent, DS1, and DS2] to capture the intra- and inter-daily variation of
147 CECs in the effluent and along the stream reach. A one-time water sampling event also occurred
148 at the UIowa drinking water treatment plant (DWTP; roughly 8km distance downstream from
149 where Muddy Creek enters the Iowa River; Figure 1b) where raw and finished drinking water
150 was sampled to evaluate potential impacts of Muddy Creek on a local drinking water source.
151 Detailed analytical method and quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) were previously
152 published.^{38,39} Chemicals are fully described in Table S.3.

153

154 **2.3 Risk assessment**

155 The potential risks of CECs in the effluent dominated stream to aquatic organisms were
156 assessed using a risk quotient (RQ), calculated as the ratio of the measured environmental
157 concentration (MEC) to the predicted no effect concentration (PNEC; based on cited literature
158 values) of a target compound for 3 different aquatic organism types: algae, invertebrates, and fish
159 (Eqn. 1; Table S.4-S.7).²⁵ The measured concentration along the stream reach during the 2-year

160 period (including all the monitored pharmaceuticals, pesticides, and industrial chemicals from
 161 three in-stream sites: US1, DS1, and DS2) was used to generate the MEC value. For the
 162 ecological risk assessment, the measured chemical data from the different stream sites were
 163 pooled due to the relatively short stream reach (~5.2km, where some aquatic species such as fish
 164 living in the stream could swim freely throughout the reach) and thus the study reach was
 165 effectively treated as a single ‘site’ for the purposes of risk analysis. We recognize that this
 166 spatial simplification has limitations, particularly for less mobile aquatic organisms that do not
 167 move throughout the reach. The Effluent site was not considered an “in-stream site” because this
 168 was an outfall pipe above the stream where effluent is discharged into the stream and thus no
 169 biota directly inhabits this site. For acute toxicity, the lowest values of half-maximal effective
 170 concentration (EC50) or half-lethal concentration (LC50) divided by an assessment factor (AF)
 171 of 1,000 corresponds to the PNEC acute value (Eqn. 2; Table S.4). For chronic toxicity, no
 172 observed effect concentrations (NOEC) or lowest observed effect concentrations (LOEC) were
 173 used and the applied AF value was 10.⁴⁹ If different toxicity data were available for the same
 174 species from the database, the lowest value was chosen to provide a conservative assessment
 175 (Table S.5, S.7).

$$176 \quad RQ = \frac{MEC}{PNEC} \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

$$177 \quad PNEC = \frac{EC50 \text{ or } LC50}{AF} \text{ for acute toxicity} \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$

$$178 \quad PNEC = \frac{NOEC \text{ or } LOEC}{AF} \text{ for chronic toxicity} \quad \text{Equation (3)}$$

179 Commonly-used ranking criteria^{32,50} were adopted in this work: $RQ \geq 1$, high ecotoxicological
 180 risk; $0.1 \leq RQ < 1$, medium ecotoxicological risk; $RQ < 0.1$, low ecotoxicological risk.

181

182 **2.4 Stochastic risk modeling**

183 Risk Quotients (RQs) were calculated based on measured chemical data and flow data
184 under baseflow conditions; however, uncertainties and variabilities exist when considering all-
185 flow conditions for risk characterization in the deterministic method. Thus, a stochastic risk
186 approach can be useful, whereby risk output is a probability distribution. Risk uncertainty was
187 considered by conducting Monte Carlo simulations using Minitab (version 19). Individual
188 compounds were selected for stochastic risk analysis when the 75th percentile of the total
189 measured RQs under baseflow conditions exceeded the lowest problematic risk level (i.e.,
190 $RQ=0.1$) for at least one of the three different aquatic biota types. For pharmaceuticals, RQs
191 generated from acute toxicity data were used for risk modeling purpose, whereas for industrial
192 chemicals and pesticides, both RQs generated from acute toxicity and chronic toxicity were
193 applied and discussed in the present study; decisions were based on acute/chronic data
194 availability.

195 In Monte Carlo simulations, each random variable is defined by a probability distribution
196 with a corresponding mean and a standard deviation. First we selected compounds based on
197 when the 75th percentile RQ exceeded the lowest problematic risk level (i.e., $RQ=0.1$) for at least
198 one of the three different aquatic species types (Figure 3, S.6) under baseflow conditions. For
199 acute effects 10 compounds (bupropion, citalopram, tramadol, sulfamethoxazole, desvenlafaxine,
200 lidocaine, methocarbamol, imidiclopid, clothianidin and thiamethoxam) were selected and for
201 chronic effects, 3 compounds (imidaclopid, clothianidin and thiamethoxam) were selected. We
202 then examined the log-normality distribution of the RQs calculated from all our monitoring
203 chemical data (from the in-stream sites US1, DS1 and DS2 during 2-year period) via
204 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. All compounds except lidocaine, citalopram, and thiamethoxam
205 selected for the risk analysis passed the log normality test (i.e., were not significantly different

206 from a log-normal distribution, $\alpha=0.05$); thus, we considered this distribution model a valid
207 approximation. Flow discharge at DS2 at the time of sampling events were used to characterize
208 long-term baseflow conditions.⁴¹ Continuous flow discharge (every 15 min) at DS2 during the 2-
209 year period (over which the chemical samples were taken) was used to characterize the “all-flow”
210 conditions.⁴¹ The flow data under baseflow conditions and all-flow conditions at DS2 also passed
211 the log normality test. Although we only had one site (DS2) with long-term continuously
212 monitored flow data from the USGS gaging station, the flow variation at DS2 is representative of
213 the hydrologic dilution factor conditions for the stream reach. This assumption is reasonable for
214 contaminants primarily originating from the point-source WWTP (i.e., effluent-derived) because
215 overland flow contributions of pharmaceuticals are expected to be minimal; we recognize that
216 this assumption has limits for substances contributed by nonpoint sources such as many
217 pesticides (previously, however, we demonstrated that neonicotinoid insecticides in the stream
218 are driven by contributions of wastewater).³⁹

219 For stochastic risk modeling, we treated the entire stream reach as a single segment; thus,
220 we included RQ data from all three in-stream sites (US1, DS1 and DS2) under baseflow
221 conditions to generate the probabilistic distribution. Although this can neglect spatial differences
222 within the segment, based on the relatively short distance (~5.2km) that permits aquatic species
223 such as fish to readily move freely within the stream, this approach appeared reasonable to
224 generate an average risk distribution in the stream reach (we recognize that limited-mobility
225 organisms likely move less within the segment). This assumption is also reasonable for
226 evaluating changes in risk from effluent-derived chemicals under different storm flow conditions
227 in an effluent-dominated stream, but may not be applicable under all scenarios. Based on our
228 recent work probing attenuation mechanisms in the stream,⁴³ the single-segment assumption is

229 likely reasonable because most compounds persist except for citalopram, which rapidly sorbs to
230 bed sediments and concentrations change greatly along the stream reach even over short
231 distances. The corresponding mean and standard deviation of RQs under baseflow conditions
232 and flow discharge from baseflow and all-flow conditions, respectively, were used to generate
233 probabilistic distributions for each input variable (i.e., baseflow RQ, baseflow discharge, and all-
234 flow discharge). The output was a probabilistic distribution of RQs under all-flow conditions.
235 The Monte Carlo simulation performed 1,000 iterations for each variable considered to ensure
236 numerical stability. The Monte Carlo simulation workflow (using pharmaceutical fexofenadine
237 as an example) is shown in Figure S.4. Detailed input values for Monte Carlo simulations are
238 shown in Tables S.9, S.10, and S.13.

239

240 **2.5 Attenuation modeling in the stream**

241 Based on our prior investigation demonstrating that Muddy Creek is well-mixed laterally
242 and vertically,³⁸ the QUAL2K model is appropriate to simulate the attenuation dynamics of
243 CECs in the effluent-dominated stream used as a study reach. Transport modeling of effluent-
244 derived CECs (i.e., 14 pharmaceuticals) was conducted using the QUAL2K software (version
245 2.07) to simulate multiple CECs along the stream reach that were mainly discharged from the
246 wastewater effluent. The QUAL2K software was developed by the United States Environment
247 Protection Agency (USEPA). It consists of an Excel workbook (QUAL2K.xls) that provides the
248 user interface to the model and a Fortran executable (Q2KFortran2_04.exe) that runs the
249 calculations. Full details of QUAL2K and its use are described in the QUAL2K User Guide.³³
250 The model allows users to segment the stream into several reaches and further divide each reach
251 into a series of equally spaced elements, which are fundamental computational units of the model.

252 Muddy Creek is a relatively small stream during baseflow conditions ($0.137 \pm 0.067 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$;
253 mean \pm standard deviation) and does not contain substantial contributing branches, thus a
254 mainstem with four segments was used for simulation (Figure S.5) A steady-state flow balance is
255 implemented for each model element. The QUAL2K model allows specification of the many
256 kinetic parameters on a reach-specific basis, such as a chemical attenuation rate based on the
257 first-order kinetics, which makes it suitable for CEC simulations in the effluent-dominated
258 stream.^{34,51,52}

259 The input hydraulic data and chemical data for this study were based on field
260 measurements (see SI; Table S.15, Figure S.9). First-order kinetics (Eqn. 4) were used for target
261 CECs based on the QUAL2K model.

$$262 \quad \frac{C}{C_0} = e^{-kt} \quad \text{Equation (4)}$$

263 Rate constant (k) and half-life ($t_{1/2}$) values for individual compounds were calculated
264 based on the USGS monthly data (chemical and discharge) in the effluent and at both
265 downstream sites (DS1 and DS2) during Year 1 (Table S.15, S.16). The monthly chemical data
266 measured by UIowa at the corresponding sites were used for model validation. Upstream site
267 US1 was excluded because the primary source of pharmaceuticals³⁸ (and most neonicotinoids³⁹)
268 to this system was almost completely derived from the wastewater effluent. The initial
269 concentration in the effluent was multiplied by an immediate dilution factor (Eqn. 4) due to the
270 dilution by upstream flow.

$$271 \quad \text{Immediate dilution factor} = \frac{\text{Effluent flow rate}}{\text{Effluent flow rate} + \text{Upstream flow rate}} \quad \text{Equation (5)}$$

272 Risk assessment was conducted by comparing the predicted CEC concentrations to human health
273 benchmark values at the point where Muddy Creek enters the Iowa River.

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3. Results and Discussion

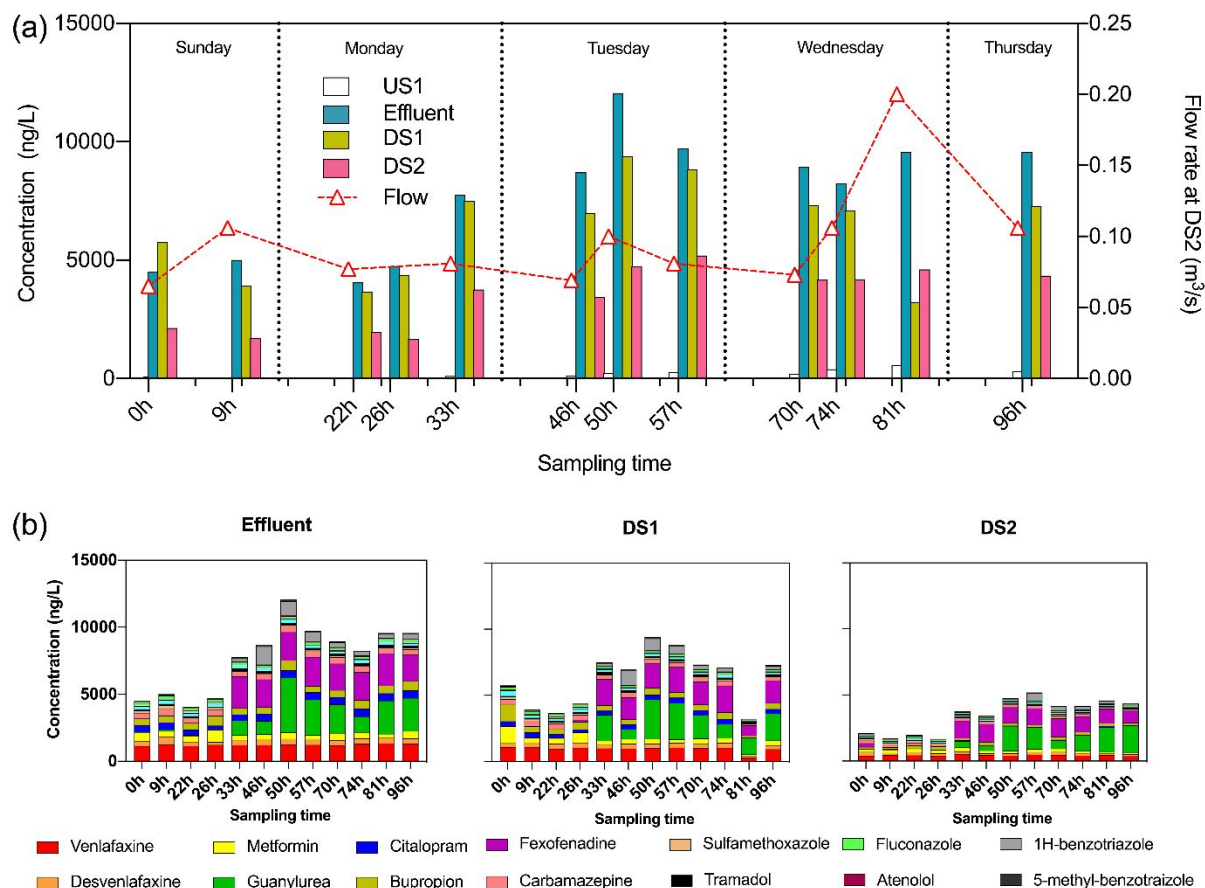
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3.1 Ecological risks quantification and stochastic modeling

279 We demonstrated that the suite of CECs measured were consistently released to the
280 receiving water from the WWTP, indicating our long-term monitoring data source was
281 representative for risk assessments under baseflow conditions. During a higher-resolution short-
282 period monitoring (4 day; three times per day) of the pharmaceuticals and industrial chemicals in
283 the effluent and along the stream reach, we observed reasonably consistent intra-day
284 concentrations (Effluent: within 86–124% variability; DS1: 46–119%; DS2: 73–117%) and
285 compositions of CECs (Figure 2), indicating that a single sample within a day was representative
286 of daily loadings under baseflow conditions. We did observe inter-day concentration variability
287 between weekday and weekend samples (Figure 2), demonstrating the value of long-term field
288 monitoring to capture temporal variation under baseflow conditions. For example, the total
289 pharmaceutical concentrations on Sunday were roughly 50% lower than those on weekdays.
290 During this time, the daily flow from the WWTP was stable and consistent (between 0.08-0.09
291 m³/s; Figure S.2). This was only one short-period sampling campaign during a single season
292 (summer); however, similar weekday/weekend pharmaceutical variations have been reported
293 previously elsewhere.⁵³ Although pharmaceuticals constituted the highest concentrations and
294 were regularly released from the WWTPs into Muddy Creek, our present and prior studies
295 demonstrated unknown upstream sources combined with wastewater effluent contributed
296 pesticides and industrial chemicals to the stream,^{38,39,42} creating more-complex evolving CEC
297 mixtures along the stream with potential implications to aquatic biota. Despite the continuously
298 high inputs of pharmaceuticals and industrial chemicals, research on chronic and acute effects

299 are limited compared to pesticides.^{54–58} For example, previous research indicated that the acute
 300 toxic pressure was mainly driven by pesticides including clothianidin in a wastewater-impacted
 301 stream, while the total concentration sums downstream were clearly dominated by
 302 pharmaceuticals or other household chemicals.⁵⁹ Nevertheless, long-term chronic effects from
 303 high levels of pharmaceuticals and other household chemicals are still poorly understood.⁵⁹ Thus,
 304 more long-term baseflow exposure and associated toxicity data for pharmaceutical mixtures is
 305 warranted for a more comprehensive risk assessment in effluent-dominated streams.

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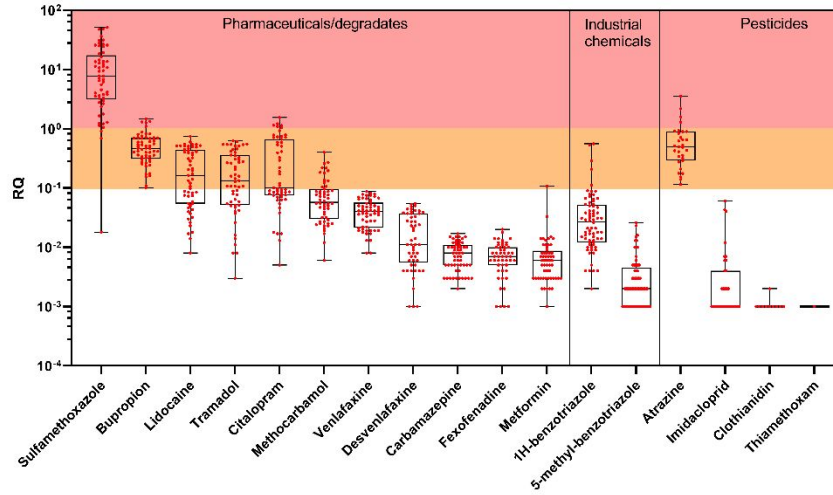


308 **Figure 2:** Daily total (a) and individual (b) concentration variations of pharmaceuticals and industrial chemicals
 309 during 4-day period (total=96h, sampling events n=12) at three sampling sites [Effluent, DS1, DS2] in Muddy Creek
 310 (Coralville, Iowa). Sampling occurred between 10am July 14, 2019 and 10am July 18, 2019.
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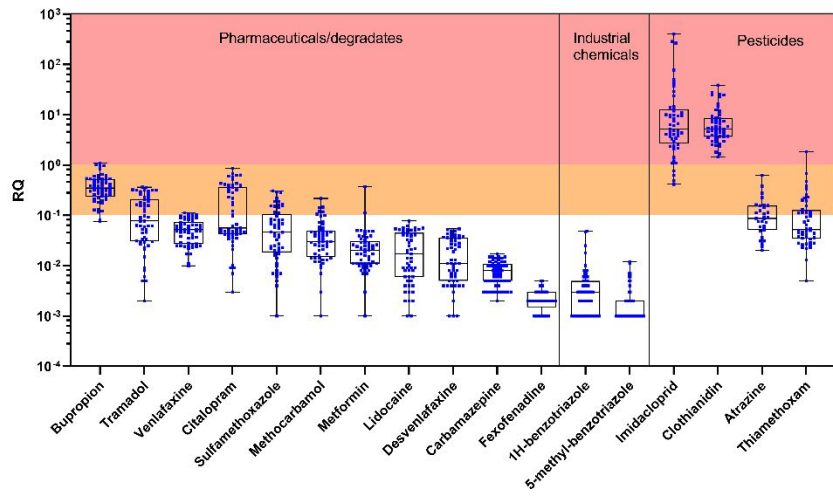
313 We quantified the RQs (based on acute effects) for different CECs in the stream under
314 baseflow conditions, and demonstrated that 11 out of 18 CECs (two CECs do not have toxicity
315 data available) can pose medium to high risks to local ecological systems (i.e., within the stream).
316 For algae, sulfamethoxazole can pose high risks ($RQ \geq 1$) under baseflow conditions, and five
317 CECs including 4 pharmaceuticals (bupropion, lidocaine, tramadol, and citalopram) and 1
318 pesticide (atrazine) can pose medium risks ($0.1 \leq RQ < 1$) under baseflow conditions (Figure 3).
319 For invertebrates, 2 pesticides (clothianidin and imidacloprid) can pose high risks under
320 baseflow conditions and 5 CECs can pose medium risks, whereas the other CECs pose minimal
321 risks under baseflow conditions. Although imidacloprid mainly originated from the WWTP
322 effluent,³⁹ atrazine was mainly present in the upstream runoff and not present in the effluent;³⁸
323 thus, effluent effectively diluted atrazine under baseflow conditions and decreased the risks
324 posed by atrazine. Moreover, only 2 CECs (methocarbamol and desvenlafaxine) exhibited
325 medium risks to fish, whereas all other CECs exhibited minimal risks. Despite the common
326 occurrence and/or high concentrations of pharmaceutical transformation product (i.e.,
327 guanylurea), their toxicity data are not available and consequently RQs could not be determined;
328 transformation products may pose additional presently unquantified risks. We also quantified the
329 RQs of chronic effects for industrial chemicals and pesticides including neonicotinoids and
330 atrazine, and the results demonstrated that imidacloprid and clothianidin can pose medium to
331 high risks to algae and invertebrate, respectively, whereas other chemicals exhibited minimum
332 risks (Figure S.6). Risk assessment for both acute and chronic effects are critical to
333 comprehensively evaluate the ecological risks of CECs in Muddy Creek, however, chronic
334 toxicity data for pharmaceuticals are generally lacking due to regulatory requirements for
335 pharmaceuticals worldwide and limited data access.

336 When assessing the environmental risk of mixtures, substantial knowledge gaps exist on
337 the mechanisms and drug-drug interactions of pharmaceuticals and their metabolites in non-
338 target organisms. Although single-compound risk assessments are crucial to identifying key risk
339 drivers, aquatic biota globally are exposed to CEC mixtures that may affect each taxonomic
340 group differently. Thus, risk assessments to specific taxonomic groups, such as fish, crustaceans,
341 and algae using the concentration addition model have been developed and reported in the
342 literature to estimate the cumulative risks.³² Nevertheless, the simultaneous presence of different
343 CECs can result in not only additive effects, but also synergistic and antagonistic toxic effects at
344 concentrations lower than the PNEC for each individual compound;⁶⁰ thus, considering the
345 interactive effects of CEC mixtures makes risk assessment inherently tenuous. For example,
346 toxicity tests exposing aquatic organisms to combinations of various pharmaceuticals including
347 carbamazepine, diclofenac, and ibuprofen revealed stronger effects than what would be expected
348 singly.^{61,62} Therefore, summing up individual RQs may be an overly simplified approach to
349 estimate the risk of a mixture and indeed may underestimate the synergistic or antagonistic
350 effects from CEC mixtures.^{63,64}

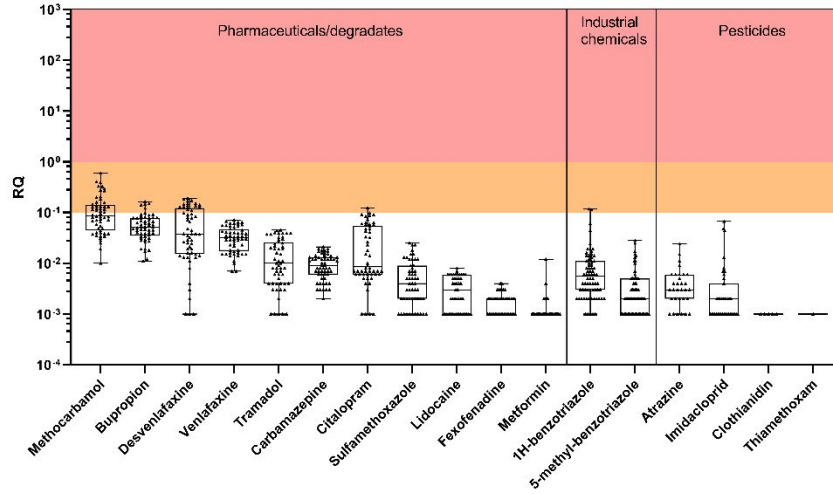
(a) Algae



(b) Invertebrate



(c) Fish



352 **Figure 3:** Measured risk quotients (RQs) for algae (a), invertebrates (b) and fish (c) of contaminants of emerging
353 concern (CECs) aggregated from all three in-stream sites (US1, DS1, DS2) based on acute toxicity data in Muddy
354 Creek. RQs $<10^{-4}$ were considered negligible risks and were not included in the figure. Atenolol was excluded in (a-
355 c) due to all RQs were $<10^{-4}$. No risk assessment data are available for fluconazole and guanylurea due to a lack of
356 literature on toxicity. Red shade indicates high risk ($RQ \geq 1$), orange shade indicates medium risk ($0.1 \leq RQ < 1$), no
357 shade indicates low risks. The box and whiskers from bottom to top represent minimum value, 25th percentile,
358 median value, 75th percentile and maximum value.
359

360

361 The presence of CECs under both baseflow conditions and elevated flow conditions (i.e.,
362 runoff events) generated chronic exposure to aquatic species with changing dynamics; thus, it is
363 critical to assess risk comprehensively under all-flow conditions. We demonstrated decreasing
364 risk of effluent-derived CECs (14 pharmaceuticals, 2 industrial chemicals and 3 neonicotinoids)
365 under all-flow conditions via stochastic risk modeling based on acute and chronic toxicity data,
366 which covers a broader range of conditions than baseflow alone and can help us better
367 understand the dynamics of effluent-dominated streams integrated with environmental
368 uncertainties. Compounds were selected for stochastic risk simulation when at the 75th
369 percentile of the total measured RQs under baseflow conditions exceeded the lowest problematic
370 risk level (i.e., $RQ=0.1$) for at least one of the three different aquatic species types (Figure 3, S.6).

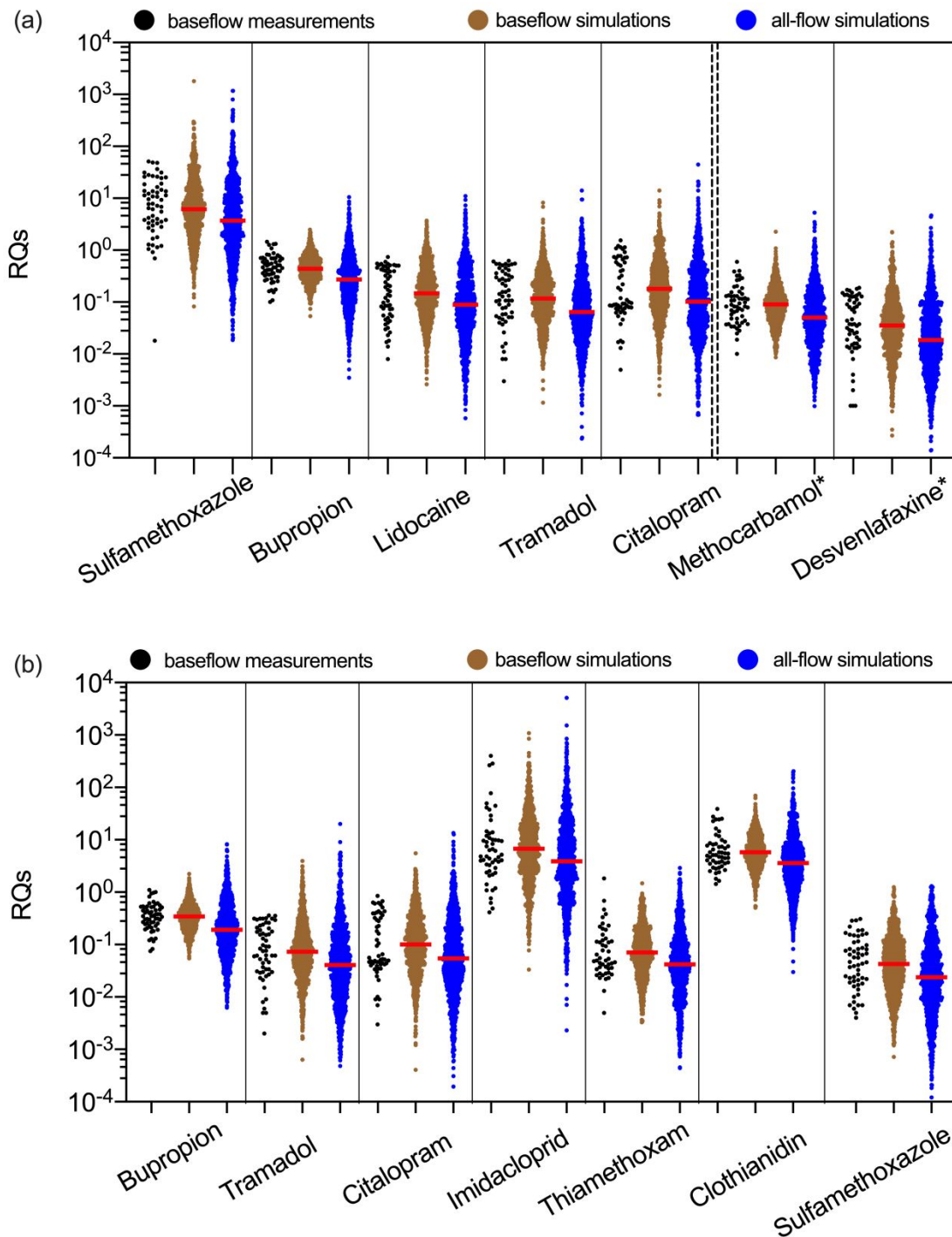
371 Our results of the all-flows simulation demonstrate that compounds that posed medium-
372 to-high risks under baseflow conditions were still problematic (i.e., $RQ \geq 0.1$) when runoff events
373 were included (Figure 4, S.7; Table S.11, S.14). For acute effects, 9 out of 11 CECs still pose
374 medium to high risks to at least one of the three different aquatic species (Figure 4; Table S.11),
375 whereas 2 out of 3 neonicotinoids can pose medium to high risks for chronic effects (Figure S.7;
376 Table S.14). Although the ‘worst-case’ risk exposure conditions can be conservatively
377 characterized under baseflow conditions, our stochastic simulation results indicate that lower
378 frequency runoff events do not substantially decrease the potential risks of the effluent-derived
379 CECs we measured (0.21-0.59 fold-change for acute RQ; 0.17-0.95 fold-change for chronic RQ).

380 In other words, dilution due to storm flows does not meaningfully decrease risk to aquatic biota
381 from effluent-derived chemicals in the effluent-dominated stream. Our stochastic risk assessment
382 was predicated on the assumption that during elevated flow conditions, RQs would decrease
383 mainly due to dilution; this is very reasonable for a point-source of contaminants that are less
384 frequently present in overland flow. This assumption, however, may underestimate non-point
385 source pesticides and other CECs that are transported by overland flow (e.g., atrazine mainly
386 from the upstream sources,³⁸ PAHs from stormwater runoff,⁶⁵ etc.).

387 Indeed, our approach is limited to risks associated from effluent-derived chemicals.
388 Nevertheless, because Muddy Creek is a relatively small watershed with mixed agricultural
389 (17.45%) and urban (60%) land use (Table S.1), we expect more contaminants to enter Muddy
390 Creek from urban non-point sources (e.g., heavy metals, urban-use pesticides) rather than from
391 agricultural non-point sources (e.g., atrazine, clothianidin) during runoff events. Additionally,
392 some agricultural pesticides such as clothianidin (solubility in water: 0.327 g/L) and atrazine
393 (0.0347 g/L) can leach into agricultural drainage tiles, particularly post-application, and enter
394 streams under baseflow conditions.⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸ In prior work, we demonstrated that the WWTP is a
395 significant, year-round point-source of imidacloprid but that imidacloprid also has some
396 upstream origins;³⁹ thus, this pesticide could be present from both point and nonpoint sources in
397 the watershed. The composition of pharmaceutical mixtures can also reportedly be affected by
398 flow conditions (e.g., carbamazepine dominated under baseflow conditions and caffeine
399 dominated in flood events).³² Therefore, we recognize the limits to the stochastic risk model and
400 the primary utility in estimating changing risk dynamics for the effluent-derived chemicals (e.g.,
401 pharmaceuticals) in this study reach. Nevertheless, the mixed-use watershed across an
402 agricultural to urban gradient and the variety of potential non-point source contributions of

403 chemicals means we also cannot necessarily assume simple changes in risk dynamics under
404 changing flows (e.g., that risk of agricultural pesticides automatically increases under elevated
405 flow conditions). The described modeling approach is very useful for evaluating changes in
406 exposure risk associated with effluent-derived chemicals under variable flow conditions,
407 including dilution of effluent by storm flows in an effluent-dominated stream. This approach is
408 ideal when there may be limitations to the quantity of chemical data, but there is sufficient flow
409 characterization (as is common in continuously gaged streams). Stochastic risk modeling can
410 provide an important basis for changing risk conditions especially in effluent-dominated streams,
411 even if there are limits to the scope of application.

412



413
 414 **Figure 4:** Measured and simulated risk quotients (RQs) of acute effect related to stochastic risk modeling. Measured
 415 values occurred under baseflow conditions, whereas the simulated conditions were generated via Monte Carlo
 416 simulations for baseflow and all flows during the two-year sampling period (flows determined at site DS2 using the
 417 USGS flow gage). Red solid lines represent median values for each simulated data set. Compounds were selected for
 418 stochastic risk simulation when the 75th percentile of the total measured RQs under baseflow conditions exceeded
 419 the lowest problematic risk level (i.e., $RQ=0.1$) for at least one of the three different aquatic species types (i.e., algae,
 420 invertebrates, fish). (a) RQ comparisons of CECs for algae and fish. (b) RQ comparisons of CECs for invertebrates.

421 * indicates RQs for fish. Only two compounds methocarbamol and desvenlafaxine exhibited medium or higher risks
422 to fish.
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424 For the majority of compounds, the measured RQs and simulated RQs under baseflow
425 conditions exhibited similar distributions, demonstrating the robustness of the stochastic
426 modeling approach (Figure 4, S.7). When comparing the RQ distribution and median values
427 under baseflow conditions and all-flow conditions, RQs under all-flow conditions had a broader
428 distribution (12–204% broader) with a decreased median RQ (Figure 4) which was expected due
429 to dilution with non-effluent water as well as a wider flow distribution that encompassed a
430 broader range of hydrologic conditions. Due to the relatively limited data available and the fact
431 that we aggregated all concentrations from within the reach (i.e., all sites pooled together), some
432 compound RQs in the simulation are likely quite accurate—while others may be less accurate.
433 For example, citalopram is a rapidly-attenuated compound that is mainly derived from the
434 effluent,^{38,43} thus the measured RQs at DS1 are significantly higher than RQs at DS2 (roughly 9-
435 fold; $p < 0.0001$; Figure 4). In contrast, imidacloprid and sulfamethoxazole, are highly soluble
436 compounds that both persist in the stream and are found at similar RQs between sites DS1 and
437 DS2 ($p > 0.05$; Figure S.8) and thus spatial differences within the reach are less important. For
438 compounds that substantially changed concentrations along the reach, differences in
439 concentration along the reach used as model inputs are only expressed as a broader input
440 distribution to the model (due to the single segment assumption) and thus result in decreased
441 overall accuracy. For example, because citalopram is rapidly attenuated via sorption within the
442 reach, this assumption would systematically underestimate actual risk closer to the WWTP
443 outfall and underestimate risk farther downstream while exhibiting greater overall uncertainty in
444 the model results. We excluded atrazine from this model, due to the fact that atrazine is highest
445 in US1 and is diluted by the treated effluent rather than derived from the treated effluent.

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3.2 Attenuation modeling in the stream and risks to a drinking water source

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Attenuation modeling predicted in-stream transport dynamics of effluent-derived CECs (i.e., 14 pharmaceuticals), and demonstrated that the majority pharmaceuticals (13 out of 14) persisted along the stream reach (median attenuation rate constant $k < 0.1 \text{ h}^{-1}$) and entered the Iowa River at elevated concentrations. First, we used different measured field data (collected/analyzed by UIowa during Year 1 of the study) to validate the simulation model calibration, and to demonstrate that the attenuation behaviors of pharmaceuticals can be well-predicted by the attenuation model during baseflow conditions (i.e., the model was externally validated with additional field data, Figure S.10) and match our prior results probing mechanistic fates.⁴³ For example, both measured results and simulation results indicate that citalopram was substantially attenuated (>80%) along the 5.1 km stream reach, while for venlafaxine only moderate attenuation (~50%) occurred along the stream reach. Citalopram and venlafaxine were selected to represent rapidly-attenuated and moderately-attenuated compounds in the stream reach, respectively.

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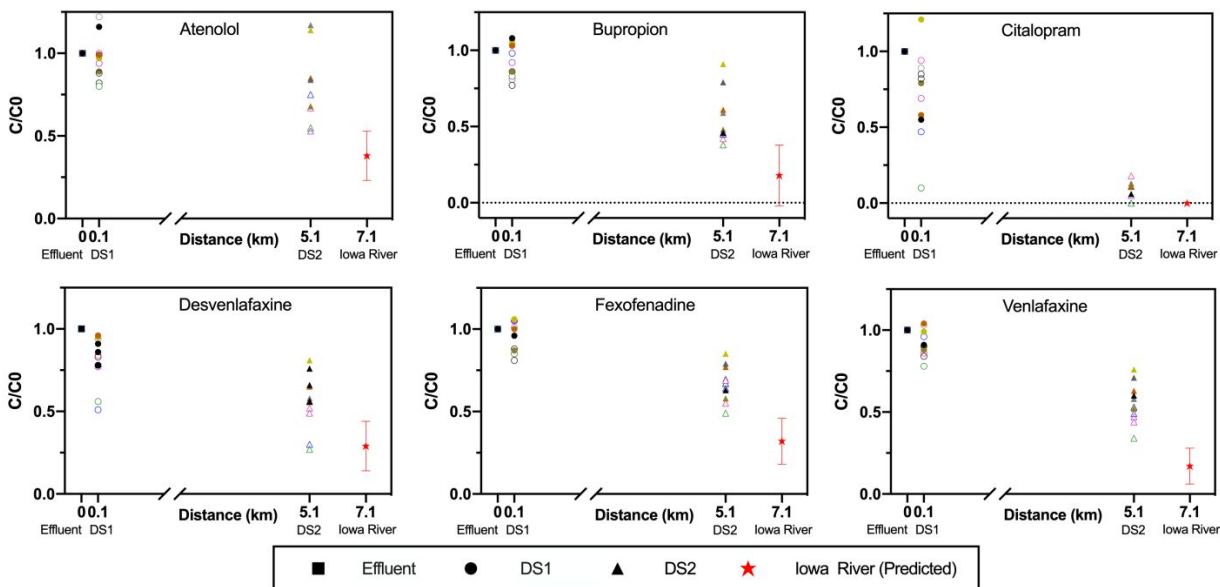
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Compared to some of the pesticides and industrial chemicals, pharmaceuticals were likely exclusively derived from the WWTP discharge, making them more suitable to fit in the first-order kinetics assumptions in the stream. The attenuation rate constants (k) of 14 pharmaceuticals determined were compound-specific.⁴² Citalopram exhibited rapid attenuation ($k = 0.2187 \pm 0.0172 \text{ h}^{-1}$, median \pm standard deviation,) compared to other pharmaceuticals (Figure S.9; Table S.16). The rapid attenuation for citalopram is likely due to sorption,^{69,70} as we demonstrated in recent research using Muddy Creek stream bed sediments.⁴³ Other pharmaceuticals persisted along the stream reach with median k -values 4–22 fold lower (0.0098–

470 0.0554 h⁻¹; half-life 12–71 h) compared to citalopram (Figure S.9; Table S.16). In the present
471 study, metformin and guanyurea had median k-values of 0.0399 ±0.0038 h⁻¹ and 0.0172 ±0.0094
472 h⁻¹, respectively. This agrees with previously reported attenuation rate constants of metformin
473 (0.0028–0.0162 h⁻¹) and guanyurea (0.0058–0.0263 h⁻¹).⁷¹ Persistence of carbamazepine
474 (median k-value: 0.0021–0.0074 h⁻¹) and desvenlafaxine (median k value: -0.0004–0.0077 h⁻¹)
475 has been reported,^{71,72} which is one order of magnitude lower than k measured in the present
476 study (0.0291±0.0023 h⁻¹ and 0.0348±0.0022 h⁻¹, respectively). In contrast, a mean k value of
477 0.17 h⁻¹ was measured for carbamazepine from four rivers in Spain.⁷³ Based on the attenuation
478 model, limited attenuation from the Effluent to site DS2 during baseflow conditions indicated a
479 substantial amount of CECs (ranging 0–47% of the initial concentration in the wastewater
480 effluent) are constantly entering the Iowa River year-round, posing potential risks to aquatic
481 biota throughout the Muddy Creek study reach and to the downstream drinking water source
482 (Figure 5, S.12). Although dilution by a larger receiving water can substantially lower the
483 concentrations when Muddy Creek enters the Iowa River, the continuous chemical input from
484 the wastewater outfall to Muddy Creek still poses potential risks due to long-term consistent
485 inputs, along with the existing complex chemical mixtures in the Iowa River.⁷⁴ For example, it is
486 likely that elevated concentrations of pesticides are already present in the Iowa River.⁷⁴ Thus, the
487 dilution effects by the Iowa River to in-situ biota under real-world conditions may not be as
488 substantial as predicted due to mixtures present in the receiving water. Nevertheless, this
489 modeling approach can be a useful prediction tool to help us understand changing ecological
490 exposure risk throughout the stream reach. Thus, conducting attenuation modeling at Muddy
491 Creek as a representative study reach, can improve our understanding of the ecological impacts
492 and/or potential human exposure to CEC mixtures in effluent-dominated systems.

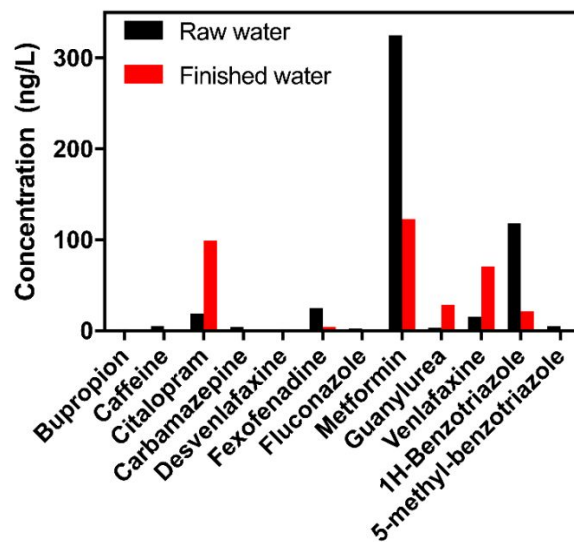


493
 494 **Figure 5:** Measured (Effluent, DS1, DS2 in Muddy Creek, Iowa) and predicted concentrations (Iowa River) of
 495 selected pharmaceuticals in the effluent and along the stream reach (full figure in Supporting Information, Figure
 496 S.11). Distance “0” km represents the point at which the effluent mixes with the stream. The red star with standard
 497 error bar is the predicted concentration of the given chemical within Muddy Creek when Muddy Creek reaches the
 498 confluence with the Iowa River (i.e., before mixing with the Iowa River) based on the rate constant; it also
 499 corresponds the location of the red star in Fig. 1. Other data points at a given location are individual sampling dates
 500 measured results during Year 1.³⁸ Different shapes represent corresponding sampling locations. Different colors
 501 represent individual sampling dates.

502
 503
 504 The predicted concentrations of CEC mixtures after joining the Iowa River, as well as the
 505 measured concentrations in the DWTP influent and effluent, were below the human health
 506 benchmark concentrations (HHBs; Table S.18), indicating minimal exposure risks to humans.
 507 Despite the high levels of CECs (i.e., measured up to ~5,000 ng/L at DS2) in the stream, the
 508 concentrations are predicted to substantially decrease after dilution in the Iowa River (i.e., 55-
 509 100% attenuation, Table S.16). Nevertheless, as a ‘worst-case scenario’, CECs such as
 510 neonicotinoids and metformin will not be removed by the (conventional coagulation-flocculation)
 511 drinking water treatment plant, and thus may be present in the finished drinking water.^{10,15,75}
 512 Previous studies from our laboratory indeed were the first to report the presence of three
 513 neonicotinoids in finished drinking water and demonstrated their general persistence during
 514 conventional drinking water treatment processes.^{10,15} In the present study, our one-time snapshot

515 sampling of raw and finished drinking water from the UIowa DWTP also demonstrated the
 516 potential impacts of CECs in Muddy Creek on drinking water treatment intakes. CEC residuals
 517 of 0.2–325 ng/L were measured in the raw and finished drinking water (Figure 6). Despite
 518 concentrations being below HHBs, these CECs could still have potential deleterious effects when
 519 considered with the suite of other contaminants (e.g., pesticides, disinfection byproducts) known
 520 to be present in drinking water from this DWTP.⁷⁶ This was a single sampling event and we
 521 cannot track the specific sources of the CECs detected because multiple sources contribute to
 522 such concentrations in the Iowa River. These exploratory results, however, suggest the potential
 523 for CECs in effluent-dominated streams to affect corresponding drinking water sources (i.e., *de*
 524 *facto* water reuse), consistent with established work.^{1–5} Furthermore, groundwater recharge (due
 525 to wastewater effluent influx) could cause CECs to be transported along subsurface pathways
 526 into adjacent aquifers and could pose potential risks to groundwater sources.⁷⁷

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529 **Figure 6:** Select contaminants of emerging concern (CECs) measured in University of Iowa drinking water
 530 treatment plant (DWTP) for raw and finished drinking water during a one-time exploratory sampling event (May 12,
 531 2018). Collected water samples followed the same procedures including sample process and analytical method with
 532 Muddy Creek water samples. “Raw water” is the screened raw water intake from the Iowa River, and the “finished
 533 drinking water” is the treated drinking water prior to the distribution system.

534

535 In the present work, we used two different modeling approaches, stochastic risk and
536 attenuation transport modeling, to predict ecological risks of CECs in the stream under all-flow
537 conditions and simulate the transport of effluent-derived CECs in the stream, respectively. The
538 transport model provided attenuation rate constants that help us understand the attenuation
539 behaviors of individual chemicals. Nevertheless, the transport model can only yield the
540 attenuation percentage (C/C_0) rather than the actual environmental concentration, which is
541 essential for RQ calculation and prediction. Stochastic risk modeling can help examine a wide
542 range of biological endpoints under dynamic stream hydrologic conditions, and appears
543 particularly useful to characterize changing risk dynamics of effluent-derived chemicals in an
544 effluent-dominated stream. Furthermore, field work under baseflow conditions is inherently
545 more feasible and thus incorporation of a stochastic modeling approach can serve as a useful risk
546 prediction tool under variable input source and hydrologic conditions. However, the stochastic
547 risk model yielded an average risk for the entire reach but could not account for changing risk
548 due to in-stream attenuation. Thus, as described above, the approach we used worked well for
549 compounds that persisted through the reach and were derived from the point source, but greater
550 spatial resolution via accounting for in-stream attenuation is required for highly sorptive or labile
551 compounds. Based on our recent work investigating attenuation mechanisms within the stream,⁴³
552 our approach would work well for most of the compounds studied (the single segment
553 assumption does not approximate citrapram well). Integration of the two modelling approaches
554 with additional data would develop a comprehensive risk assessment tool for effluent-dominated
555 streams and could be the aim of future work; such a probabilistic transport model would provide
556 greater accuracy and less uncertainty at a given site rather than the averaged approach for the
557 entire risk taken here. Nevertheless, both the attenuation model and stochastic risk model in their

558 current forms provide fundamental insights on the fate of CEC mixtures and potential ecological
559 risks of effluent-dominated streams to local ecosystems and to the drinking water source. In
560 addition, current approaches to measured risk assessments in a stream often consider only limited
561 site data / locations.^{59,78} Thus, our proposed framework of integrating measured baseflow
562 concentrations and gaged streamflow to probabilistically estimate risk may improve the
563 practicality of estimating exposure risks to aquatic biota under variable conditions because
564 baseflow conditions are inherently more practical to measure than runoff events (i.e., samples
565 can be more-easily assured as representative). It is impractical (and too costly) to expect to
566 address the needs for additional aquatic life risk assessment from effluent-derived chemical
567 under variable flow conditions solely through the additional data acquisition. With enhanced
568 understanding of temperate-region effluent-dominated streams, the long-term goal is to develop a
569 comprehensive and easy-to-use prediction tool that can be applicable to other effluent-dominated
570 streams and inform sustainable water resources decision making.

571

572 **4. Conclusions**

573 We assessed the ecological risks of different CECs in the stream under baseflow
574 conditions and demonstrated that 11 out of 18 CECs (2 compounds did not have available
575 toxicity data) may pose medium to high risks to local ecological systems (i.e., within the stream).
576 Stochastic risk modeling shows a decreased risk of effluent-derived CECs due to dilution from
577 stormflows; however, the overall decrease in risk exposure is relatively small and does not
578 eliminate the risk. Indeed, this work highlights that mere dilution does not fully attenuate risk to
579 aquatic biota in effluent dominated streams. We demonstrate that stochastic risk modeling is a
580 useful approach to characterize exposure risk dynamics from effluent-derived chemicals under

581 variable flow conditions (i.e., dilution of effluent-derived chemicals by storm flows), and is
582 particularly useful when there is limited chemical data but adequate flow information (as is
583 common in continuously gaged stream)—this approach appears highly useful to characterize
584 effluent-dominated streams. Attenuation modeling predicted in-stream transport dynamics of
585 effluent-derived CECs (i.e., 14 pharmaceuticals), and demonstrated that the majority
586 pharmaceuticals (13 out of 14) persisted along the stream reach (median attenuation rate constant
587 $k < 0.1 \text{ h}^{-1}$) and entered the Iowa River at elevated concentrations. The predicted concentrations
588 of CEC mixtures after joining the Iowa River, as well as the measured concentrations in the raw
589 and finished drinking water within the DWTP, were below the human health benchmark
590 concentrations, indicating minimal risks to humans exposed to the target contaminants on an
591 individual basis. Nevertheless, these CECs could still have potential deleterious effects when
592 considered with mixtures of other contaminants (e.g., pesticides, disinfection byproducts) known
593 to be present in the raw and finished drinking water from this water source.

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595

596 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL.** Additional method details, statistical analysis, quality
597 assurance / control, additional detailed data / results / analysis in figures and tables.

598

599 **AUTHOR INFORMATION.**

600 *Corresponding Author:

GHL: gregory-lefevre@uiowa.edu; Phone: 319-335-5655; 4105 Seamans Center for Engineering,
University of Iowa, Iowa City IA, United States

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602 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST.**

603 There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

604

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