2 in wastewater-impacted streams

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Abstract

The overarching aim of this field study was to examine causal links between <i>in-situ</i> exposure to
complex mixtures of micropollutants from wastewater treatment plants and effects on freshwater
microbial communities in the receiving streams. To reach this goal, we assessed the toxicity of
serial dilutions of micropollutant mixtures, extracted from deployed passive samplers at the
discharge sites of four Swiss wastewater treatment plants, to in situ periphyton from upstream
and downstream of the effluents. On the one hand, comparison of the sensitivities of upstream
and downstream periphyton to the micropollutant mixtures indicated that algal and bacterial
communities composing the periphyton displayed higher tolerance towards these micropollutants
downstream than upstream. On the other hand, molecular analyses of the algal and bacterial
structure showed a clear separation between upstream and downstream periphyton across the
sites. This finding provides an additional line of evidence that micropollutants from the
wastewater discharges were directly responsible for the change in the community structure at the
sampling sites by eliminating the micropollutant-sensitive species and favouring the tolerant
ones. What is more, the fold increase of algal and bacterial tolerance from upstream to
downstream locations was variable among sampling sites and was strongly correlated to the
intensity of contamination by micropollutants at the respective sites. Overall, our study highlights
the sensitivity of the proposed approach to disentangle effects of micropollutant mixtures from
other environmental factors occurring in the field and, thus, establishing a causal link between
exposure and the observed ecological effects on freshwater microbial communities.

- Keywords: Pollution-induced community tolerance; passive samplers; wastewater treatment
- 43 plants; causality; micropollutant mixture; biofilm

1. Introduction

Fresh waters are among the most threatened ecosystems in terms of species extinctions and
losses in ecosystem services, and micropollutants, such as pharmaceuticals or pesticides, are
considered as one of the major threats (Bernhardt et al. 2016, Gessner and Tlili 2016, Stehle and
Schulz 2015, Vörösmarty et al. 2010). Because wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) were
primarily designed to retain organic matter, nutrients and microbes, micropollutants are not
completely removed by common treatment steps (Joss et al. 2008, Rodriguez-Mozaz et al. 2015).
Consequently, effluents represent a point source for complex mixtures of micropollutants into
fresh waters, potentially leading to the degradation of the chemical and ecological status of the
receiving ecosystems. Furthermore, input of micropollutants from wastewater discharges into
fresh waters is usually associated with other stressors such as an increase of temperature or high
loads of nutrients and organic matter (Petrie et al. 2015). In such a complex situation, one of the
key challenges is to diagnose specific micropollutant effects and their contribution to the general
degradation of the ecosystem status (Bundschuh 2014, Stamm et al. 2016).
Current methods and tools applied in regulatory contexts do not pinpoint the specific in situ
impacts of micropollutant mixtures on ecosystem status (Bundschuh 2014). On the one hand,
assessment of chemical status is based on comparing measured concentrations of selected
compounds to concentrations considered safe for the environment (environmental quality
standards, EQS). This approach allows for quantification of specific compounds within the
mixture of micropollutants but does not reflect the dynamic composition of pollutants in the
environment or their in situ effects on the biota. EQS are derived from single-species bioassays
that measure the sensitivity of a single organism to micropollutants by observing parameters such
as survival, growth or photosynthesis. On the other hand, assessment of the ecological status of
ecosystems relies on diverse bioindicators, focusing on species taxonomy or abundance, which

68	are designed to provide an overall picture of the aquatic system status but cannot ascribe a change
69	to a specific effect of micropollutants or other stressors (Coste et al. 2009, Feio et al. 2007).
70	Periphyton, a consortium of microorganisms composed by algae, bacteria, fungi and
71	protozoa that grow on submerged substrata surfaces, has been recognised as an important
72	biological indicator to classify water bodies according to their pH, salinity, or saprobic state, as
73	well as increasingly to examine micropollutant effects (Battin et al. 2016, Sabater et al. 2007). In
74	streams of small to moderate size, periphyton plays a crucial ecological role as a basis of the food
75	web; and it is sensitive to environmental stressors. Therefore, a large set of functional and
76	structural descriptors using periphyton has been developed to evaluate the risks posed by
77	environmental stressors in fresh waters (Sabater et al. 2007). Here again, if solely applied to
78	periphyton in the field, these descriptors do not allow for distinction between the contribution of
79	micropollutants and other stressors to the effects observed in the environment.
80	A shift in community composition that results from the replacement of sensitive species by
81	tolerant ones upon chronic exposures of communities to micropollutants is a common response in
82	contaminated ecosystems and is considered as a reliable indicator of in situ micropollutant
83	impacts (Amiard-Triquet 2011). The difference in sensitivity to micropollutants among species
84	forms the basis of the pollution-induced community tolerance (PICT) concept (Blanck et al.
85	1988). The rationale of the concept is that disappearance of sensitive species and dominance of
86	tolerant ones is an expected outcome of chronic exposure. Thereby a community that was
87	previously affected through exposure to micropollutants is anticipated to display a higher
88	tolerance to those micropollutants than a reference community that has never been exposed.
89	Increased community tolerance following exposure to micropollutants has been
90	demonstrated with periphyton (Blanck 2002) but PICT studies with periphyton in the field
91	remain rare. One continued difficulty is to disentangle micropollutant from other stressor effects.

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To overcome this difficulty, an assessment of tolerance to passive sampler extracts obtained from the studied sites has recently been proposed (Kim Tiam et al. 2016, Tlili et al. 2016). Passive samplers accumulate chemicals by diffusion and sorption, mimicking the bioaccumulation of these chemicals within biological matrices. They can provide an integrative picture of pollutants over a period of time, allowing for quantification of average concentrations to which organisms have been exposed (Alvarez et al. 2008). Indeed, some studies have used this approach with periphyton grown in indoor microcosms, which were chronically exposed to extracts from passive samplers that had been deployed in streams contaminated with pesticides (Foulquier et al. 2015, Kim Tiam et al. 2015, Morin et al. 2012). Furthermore, Pesce et al. (2011) examined the tolerance to passive sampler extracts of in situ periphyton from a stream with a gradient of agricultural pollution. Although these studies focused only on the phototrophic but not the heterotrophic component of periphyton, they showed that upon chronic exposure to micropollutant algal communities developed tolerance to the passive sampler extracts. Given this background, the overarching goal of our study was to determine the contribution of complex mixtures of micropollutants from wastewater discharges to the ecological status of in situ microbial communities in fresh waters, using periphyton as a biological model. The specific aims were (i) to examine phototrophic and heterotrophic periphyton tolerance from upstream and downstream of WWTPs towards micropollutants extracted from passive samplers deployed in the wastewater discharges, (ii) to link the changes of diversity in the phototrophic and heterotrophic communities composing the periphyton to the micropollutants released from the WWTPs and (iii) to compare the PICT approach with traditionally used approaches such as single species bioassays and functional and structural bioindicators of periphyton. We hypothesized that even at low concentrations of individual chemical compounds, the continuous input of complex mixtures of micropollutants will alter the chemical and ecological status of the receiving streams, affecting

the diversity of downstream periphyton and leading to increased tolerance towards these micropollutants.

2. Material and methods

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2.1. Experimental design

Periphyton was grown on artificial glass substrates upstream and downstream of four WWTPs located in north-eastern Switzerland. During the colonisation period, Chemcatcher[®] passive samplers were deployed at each discharge site in the receiving streams to accumulate polar to semi-polar organic micropollutants. After 6 weeks, periphyton and passive samplers were retrieved from the field and transported to the laboratory. Micropollutants accumulated in the passive samplers were extracted and extracts were used to assess tolerance to micropollutants. For this, upstream and downstream periphyton from each site were exposed to a series of increasing dilutions of the corresponding extract during 12 hours. Afterward, inhibition of various functional endpoints, specifically targeting the heterotrophic and phototrophic components of periphyton, was assessed. Toxicity of the extracts to a single green alga, Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata, was also evaluated to specifically inform on the activity of photosynthesis inhibitors. Additionally, various functional descriptors as well as the structure of the upstream and downstream periphyton were examined. Finally, during the colonisation period, two litres of grab water samples were collected every two weeks at each sampling location to measure 8 water quality parameters.

2.2. Study sites

Four WWTPs, located in Switzerland and named Steinach, Herisau, Buttisholz and Hochdorf, were selected as study sites (Fig. 1). Buttisholz, Herisau and Hochdorf were selected based on the surveys conducted by Munz et al. (2016) in 2013 and 2014 to investigate

concentration patterns of 57 to 400 micropollutants in 24 wastewater-impacted streams in
Switzerland as well as in the wastewater effluents. Their results showed that concentrations of the
majority of the measured micropollutants were significantly higher downstream than upstream of
the wastewater discharges (Table S2). Similarly, the Steinach site was also selected because the
analyses of 57 selected compounds in grab water samples showed higher micropollutant
concentrations downstream than upstream at this site (Table S2). Another criterion for the sites
selection is that the WWTPs contributed by a minimum of 20 % of wastewater to the total stream
flow at the downstream locations. All sites corresponded to small to moderately sized streams. At
each study site, one upstream and one downstream location was selected as reference and
impacted site, respectively. Upstream and downstream sites were chosen to be as similar as
possible with regard to stream morphology, riparian land use and vegetation. Furthermore,
downstream sites were selected so that water from the effluent was completely mixed with the
stream water during low flow conditions (Burdon et al. 2016, Munz et al. 2016, Stamm et al.
2016).

2.3. Periphyton colonisation and sampling

This study was conducted from the 15th of March to the 30th of April 2014. Three large glass slides (380 cm² per slide) were fixed vertically in perforated plastic boxes (60×40×14.5 cm) and used as artificial substrata to allow biofilm colonisation. At each sampling location, three boxes were installed at the centre of the stream and considered as biological replicates. After six weeks of colonisation, the glass slides were retrieved, placed individually in plastic bags containing stream water from the corresponding sampling location and transported to the laboratory in cooling boxes within five hours after sampling. Immediately after arrival at the laboratory, periphyton growing on the three glass slides from the same box was carefully scraped using a polypropylene spatula and suspended in 250 mL of Evian mineral water. In order to allow

comparison among sampling sites, Evian mineral water was used as medium to avoid the
influence of different stream water compositions on the bioavailability of micropollutants, which
can affect the biological responses of periphyton during the assays. Evian water is a commonly
used medium in microbiological and ecotoxicological studies because of its uniform quality.
2.4. Passive samplers
In order to accumulate the polar to semi-polar micropollutants which are released from
the studied WWTPs, Chemcatcher® passive samplers – styrenedivinylbenzene (SDB) discs – (47
mm diameter, Sigma Aldrich, Switzerland) were chosen for our study (Vermeirssen et al. 2009).
During the six weeks of periphyton colonisation, Chemcatchers® were placed at the discharge site
in the receiving stream of each WWTP. In order to be in the linear uptake phase, two passive
samplers were deployed during two weeks before being replaced by two new ones, leading to a
total of six passive samplers per sampling site. The retrieved SDB discs were put in 6 mL of
acetone, brought to the lab and stored at -20 °C until use. After extraction of the accumulated
micropollutants in the SDB discs as described in Vermeirssen et al. (2013), the extracts from the
six passive samplers deployed at the same site were pooled. Afterward, the solvents were
completely evaporated under a gentle nitrogen stream and the extracts were suspended in 7 ml of
Evian mineral water for the PICT assays, the algae bioassay and the micropollutant analyses.
2.5. Physicochemical measurements and micropollutant analyses
During the study, water temperature, pH, conductivity, oxygen concentrations (WTW
Meters, Germany) and water velocity (FlowTracker Handheld ADV, YSI, Inc., USA) were
measured every two weeks at each sampling location. Additionally, two-litres water samples
were collected in glass bottles for measurements of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved

nitrogen (DN), orthophosphates, and silica using standard methods as described for the Swiss

186	National River Monitoring and Survey Programme (NADUF;
187	www.bafu.admin.ch/wasser/13462/14737/15108/15109).
188	In total 56 polar to semi-polar micropollutants were measured and quantified in grab
189	water samples from upstream and downstream of each sampling site and in the passive samplers
190	extracts (Tables S2-3). The compounds were selected based on their frequent detection, higher
191	concentration, toxicity as well representation of different substance classes and exposure
192	pathways (Munz et al. 2016). Thirty-one of these compounds were pesticides including nine
193	herbicides, twelve insecticides and ten fungicides. Twenty compounds were pharmaceuticals,
194	including antibiotics, analgesics, antidiabetics, anti-inflammatory, antihypertensive drugs, β -
195	blockers, diuretics, histamine analogues and psychiatric drugs. The five remaining compounds
196	were household chemicals and included two anticorrosion compounds, one tracer for human
197	excretion contamination in wastewater, one food additive and a personal care product. The water
198	samples and passive sampler extracts were enriched with an online solid phase extraction similar
199	to Huntscha et al. (2012) and subsequently analysed with a liquid chromatography high
200	resolution tandem mass spectrometry method as described in Munz et al. (2016).
201	2.6. Periphyton characterisation
202	2.6.1. Total, algal and bacterial biomass
203	The total periphyton biomass was evaluated by calculating the ash-free dry weight
204	(AFDW) in three subsamples of each periphyton suspension (2 mL) as described in Tlili et al.
205	(2008). Results are expressed as g m ⁻² .
206	Chlorophyll-a content in 5 mL from each periphyton suspension was used as a proxy for
207	algal biomass and quantified by high-performance liquid chromatography using an external
208	calibration with purified chlorophyll-a (C55H72MgN405, Carl Roth GmBH & Co) as described
209	in Tlili et al. (2008). Final concentrations are given as μg g ⁻¹ AFDW.

210	Bacterial biomass was estimated according to Frossard et al. (2012) with few
211	modifications. Briefly, 5 mL from each periphyton suspension were put in 5 mL of phosphate-
212	buffered formalin (2% final concentration). After an ultrasonic treatment for 1 min (Branson
213	Digital Sonifier 250, Germany), periphyton suspensions were centrifuged at 2000 g for 15 min.
214	One mL of the supernatant containing bacterial cells was stained with 0.1µL mL ⁻¹ of SYBER [®]
215	Green I (Promega, Switzerland) in anhydrous dimethylsulfoxide and incubated during 15 min in
216	the dark. Fluorescent beads (Flowcount flurospheres, Beckman Coulter, Switzerland) with a
217	known concentration were spiked to the samples as a standard to determine the cell
218	concentration. Samples were analysed using a Gallios flow cytometer (Beckman Coulter,
219	Switzerland). Bacterial numbers were converted to bacterial biomass considering a mean
220	bacterial biomass of 20 fg cell ⁻¹ (Norland 1993) and data expressed as $\mu g \ g^{-1}$ AFDW.
221	2.6.2. Functional analyses
222	Photosynthetic efficiency, which is based on measurement of the effective quantum yield
223	of algae, was assessed using an Imaging-PAM (pulse amplitude-modulated) fluorimeter (Heinz
224	Walz GmbH, Germany). Chlorophyll-a fluorescence from each periphyton suspension was
225	measured at 665 nm after applying a single saturation pulse to calculate the effective quantum
226	yield (ϕ') as: $\phi' = (F'_m - F'_0) / F'_m$; where F'_m is the maximum fluorescence after the saturation
227	pulse and F' ₀ is the steady-state fluorescence.
228	Algal production was measured by ¹⁴ C-carbonate incorporation rate as described in
229	Dorigo and Leboulanger (2001). Briefly, a 2-mL aliquot from each periphyton suspension was
230	put into a 20-mL glass scintillation vial containing 25 μ L of NaH ¹⁴ CO ₃ (2.09 GBq mmol ⁻¹ ,
231	Hartmann Analytic GmbH, Germany) and incubated under the light at 16°C during 2 hours. The
232	reaction was stopped by adding formaldehyde (final concentration of 3.7%), followed by 100 μ L
233	of glacial acetic acid to remove the inorganic carbon. Periphyton suspensions were dried

234	overnight at 60°C before adding 1 mL of DMSO and incubating for one hour at 60°C to dissolve
235	the labelled organic matter. Ten mL of scintillation cocktail (Ultima Gold LLT, GmbH,
236	Germany) were added, and radioactivity was measured in a Tri-Carb 2810 TR liquid scintillation
237	counter (PerkinElmer GmbH, Germany) with quench correction. Results are expressed as µg C g
238	¹ AFDW day ⁻¹ .
239	Bacterial production was measured by ¹⁴ C-leucine incorporation into protein according to
240	Buesing and Gessner (2003) with few modifications. Briefly, 2.9 mL from each periphyton
241	suspension were put into a 20-mL glass scintillation vial and incubated at 16°C for 30 min with
242	4.5 μM ¹⁴ C-leucine (12.32 GBq mmol ⁻¹ ; Hartmann Analytic GmbH, Germany) and 2.5 mM of
243	non-radioactive leucine. Incubations were stopped by adding trichloroacetic acid (TCA) to a final
244	concentration of 5%. After ultrasonic treatment for 1 min (Branson Digital Sonifier 250,
245	Germany), samples were centrifuged at 4000 g for 30 min. Afterward, the pellets were
246	consecutively washed with 5% TCA, 40 mM cold leucine, 80% ethanol and sterile ultrapure
247	water. After the last washing, the pellets were resuspended in 1.5 mL of 0.3% SDS, 75 mM
248	EDTA and 1.5 M NaOH and heated for 1 h at 90 °C to dissolve proteins. After cooling to
249	ambient temperature, the tubes were centrifuged for 10 min at $14.000 \times g$ and $500 \mu L$ of the
250	supernatant was transferred to a scintillation vial containing 5 mL Hionic Fluor scintillation
251	cocktail (PerkinElmer GmbH, Germany). The radioactivity incorporated into the dissolved
252	proteins was measured in a Tri-Carb 2810 TR liquid scintillation counter (PerkinElmer GmbH,
253	Germany) with quench correction. Results are expressed as μg C g ⁻¹ AFDW day ⁻¹ .
254	Microbial substrate-induced respiration (SIR) of the heterotrophic periphyton component
255	was measured using the MicroResp TM technique and glucose as carbon source following the
256	procedure described in Tlili et al. (2011c). The system consists of two 96-well microplates placed
257	face-to-face. One is a 1.2 mL deep-well microplate in which each well contains 500 μL of the

periphyton suspension and 30 μ L of D-glucose (6.2 mg of C per well, pH = 7). The second
microplate contained the detection gel. The two microplates were joined with a silicone seal, with
interconnecting holes between the corresponding wells. The assembly was clamped together and
the system was incubated in the dark at 16 °C for 15 h. Absorbance of the detection gel was
measured at 572 nm (Tecan Infinite 200 PRO microplate reader, Tecan Trading AG, Switzerland)
immediately before sealing to the deep-well plate and after incubation. Quantities of the produced
CO ₂ by the microbial communities were calculated using a calibration curve of absorbance values
versus CO ₂ quantity measured by gas chromatography (MTI 200 thermal conductivity detector).
Results were then expressed as $\mu g \ CO_2.mg^{-1}$ of AFDW.h ⁻¹ .
Potential activities of the three extracellular hydrolytic enzymes, β -glucosidase (BG; EC
3.2.1.21), alkaline phosphatase (AP; EC 3.1.3.1-2) and leucine-aminopeptidase (LAP; EC
3.4.11.1), which are involved in the degradation of polysaccharide compounds, organic
phosphorus compounds and peptides respectively, were measured following the methodology
described by Romani et al. (2004). Because they reflect the ability of organisms to decompose
and assimilate nutrients, enzyme activities have been used to assess changes in ecosystem
functioning due water quality alterations. BG (4-methylumbelliferyl- β -D-glucopyranoside) and
AP (4-methylumbelliferyl-phosphate) activities were measured using MUF (methylumbelliferyl)
fluorescent-linked substrates while LAP (L- Leucine-7-amido-4-methylcoumarin hydro-chloride)
activity was measured using AMC (aminomethyl-coumarin) fluorescent-linked substrate. Briefly,
one mL from each periphyton suspension was incubated with MUF- or AMC-substrates at
saturating substrate concentrations (i.e. 1 mM) in the dark during one hour at 16 °C. After
incubation, 1 ml of glycine buffer (pH 10.4) was added to the samples in order to stop microbial
metabolism. Then, fluorescence was measured at 365-455 nm (excitation-emission wavelengths,
respectively) for MUF-substrates and at 364-445 nm for AMC-substrate (Tecan Infinite 200 PRO

microplate reader, Tecan Trading AG, Switzerland). Enzyme activity was expressed as μ mole MUF or AMC g⁻¹ AFDW h⁻¹.

2.6.3. Diversity analyses

Molecular fingerprints of the periphyton community were obtained by using denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE). Subsamples of 2 mL from each periphyton suspension were centrifuged at 14,000 ×g for 30 min at 4 °C. Then, the supernatants were removed and the pellets kept at -80 °C. Nucleic acid extraction was performed on the periphyton pellets using the PowerBiofilm DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories, CA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

PCR amplification of algal 18S rRNA gene fragments and bacterial 16S rRNA gene fragments and their DGGE analysis were performed according to Tlili et al. (2008). Briefly, 60 ng of template DNA and the Euk1Af and Euk516r-GC primers were used to amplify the algal 18S rRNA gene fragment. PCR amplification of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene fragment was done with 30 ng of template DNA, and the primers 341f, to which a GC-rich fragment was attached, and 907rM. DGGE analyses were performed as described in Dorigo et al. (2007). Images were processed with the software ImageJ in which nucleic acid bands, corresponding to taxonomic operational units (OTUs), were identified and their presence or absence at a given height in each lane was scored as 1 or 0, respectively.

2.6.4. PICT measurements

In order to measure induced tolerance to micropollutants from WWTPs effluents, upstream and downstream periphyton from each sampling site were subjected to short-term exposure assays with serial dilutions of the passive sampler extracts from the corresponding effluent. Semi-logarithmic series of concentrations of the micropollutant extracts (six increasing concentrations) were freshly prepared, with a multiplication factor of $10^{0.5}$, by serial dilutions of

the stock solutions in Evian mineral water. Periphyton suspension aliquots (9 mL) from upstream and downstream locations were exposed in glass Erlenmeyer to 1 mL of the six dilutions of the corresponding micropollutant extract, in addition to one control in which 1 mL of mineral water was added and one abiotic control with 1 mL of formaldehyde (three biological replicates per sampling location). Based on previous tests to determine the optimal bioassays duration (data not shown), samples were incubated during 12 hours at 15 °C under artificial light and gentle shaking. Afterward, subsamples from the periphyton suspensions were taken from each Erlenmeyer for photosynthetic efficiency, primary production and secondary production measurements as described previously in section 2.6.2.

2.7. Algal bioassay

In order to compare between the toxicity of photosynthesis inhibitors contained in the passive sampler extracts at the single-species and the community levels a combined algae assay with the green alga *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* was performed according to Escher et al. (2008). *P. subcapitata* is among the most widely used and recommended species for freshwater toxicity testing (Katsumata et al. 2006, Pavlić et al. 2005), for which standard guidelines have already been established (OECD 1984, USEPA 1994). In brief, a culture of *P. subcapitata* was added to a 96-well plate containing increasing dilutions (1:2 dilution series) of the passive samplers extracts and of diuron as reference substance. The effective quantum yield of photosynthesis (see section 2.6.2) was measured after 2 and 24 h of exposure using an Imaging-PAM.

2.8. Data analyses

Student's *t*-tests were performed to compare physicochemical (n = 4) and functional (n = 3) data between upstream and downstream locations in each sampling site. The significance level was set at 5%. In order to assess induced tolerance in periphyton as well as the sensitivity of the

green alga P. subcapitata to micropollutants, concentration-effect curves were plotted as a function of decreasing passive sampler dilutions and fitted to a four-parameter logistic equation based on the Hill model, which allowed calculating EC_{50} values. The x-axis of the concentration-effect curves was expressed in unitless relative dilution factor (RDF) of the passive sampler extract and therefore also the EC_{50} values are expressed in RDF. Bootstrap-Monte-Carlo simulations were used to calculate 95% confidence intervals (n = 21). All tests were performed with GraphPad Prism5 software (GraphPad Software, California USA).

Presence and absence matrices of OTUs obtained from the DGGE analysis were used to determine algal and bacterial diversity differences in the sampling sites. Data were submitted to detrended correspondence analysis (DCA). Maximum gradient length was < 3 SDs for all measured parameters, indicating that linear methods were appropriate. Consequently, principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out. PCA allows the ordination of the samples, making it possible to visually assess similarities and differences between samples and determine whether they can be grouped. The closer are the samples to each other along a given axis the more similar they are, and vice versa. DCA and PCA were performed using the CANOCO version 4.5 software.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Physicochemical measurements and micropollutant analyses

General chemical parameters showed a clear impact of the wastewater discharges on the receiving waters. Indeed, when compared to the corresponding upstream, all downstream locations were characterised by higher conductivity and nutrient loads represented by DOC, dissolved nitrogen, P-PO₄ and SiO₂ (Table S1). The highest differences between upstream and downstream locations were measured at Herisau and Steinach for DOC and dissolved nitrogen,

respectively. Additionally, P-PO ₄ concentrations markedly increased downstream of Steinach,
Herisau and Buttisholz and to a lesser extent at Hochdorf. Micropollutants increased as well from
upstream to downstream at all sampling sites, especially for pharmaceuticals and the household
chemicals (Table S2, Fig. 2). Similarly to nutrients, the composition and relative concentrations
of micropollutants differed among the sampling sites. Downstream of Steinach and Herisau had
the highest concentrations of micropollutants for all categories (up to 1 $\mu g L^{1}$) and Buttisholz
had the lowest ones except for pesticides that were dominated by the herbicide terbuthilazine (3
μg L ⁻¹) (Table S2). Altogether, the chemical data indicate that there were significant differences
among sampling sites in how WWTP effluents influenced chemical status of the receiving
streams. This is due to differences in the land use pattern in the catchments as well as to the
treatment technologies that removed differently the nutrients and micropollutants (Burdon et al.
2016, Munz et al. 2016).
The measured concentrations of micropollutants in the passive sampler extracts from the
effluents sites indicated also a dominance of pharmaceuticals and household chemicals within the
analysed mixtures followed by herbicides (Fig. 3, Table S3). Interestingly, the herbicidal
compounds found in the effluents of Steinach and Herisau are not of agricultural origin but are
dominated by two biocides (i.e. diuron and terbutryn) amongst others used to protect facades
against algae. Since enrichment in the samplers is varying for different compounds and samplers
were exposed to the WWTP effluents, measured concentrations in the extracts cannot directly be
compared with the water concentrations downstream (Vermeirssen et al. 2010). However, the
detection frequency of the compounds in both samples indicates that passive sampling provides a
practical tool for strong enrichment of the real micropollutant mixture of roughly thousand,
justifying its use in biological assays as applied also in other studies (Creusot et al. 2014,
Vermeirssen et al. 2010).

3.2.1. Algal and bacterial tolerance as a specific indicator for micropollutant mixture effects

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Increased community tolerance following exposure to micropollutants, as a basis of the PICT
concept, is an expected outcome in contaminated ecosystems. As a consequence, it is considered
as a reliable indicator to disentangle impacts of organic micropollutants from potential effects of
other stressors (Blanck and Wängberg 1988, Guasch et al. 2007, Millward and Klerks 2002, Tlili
et al. 2010, Tlili et al. 2016). In the present study, the results show clearly that all downstream
periphyton displayed higher tolerance towards the extracted micropollutants from the passive
samplers than the communities upstream (Table 1; Fig. S1). Based on photosynthetic yield and
algal primary production measurements, calculated EC ₅₀ values were higher downstream than
upstream, reflecting an increased tolerance of the phototrophic communities to the micropollutant
mixtures. These results were in agreement with the chemical analyses of the micropollutants.
Indeed, compounds targeting phototrophs such as herbicides, were present in the effluents of all
assessed WWTPs and their concentrations were higher downstream than upstream. What is more,
when tolerance measurements were based on photosynthesis efficiency, fold increase of the EC_{50}
values was variable among sites, ranging from 2 to 152, with the highest increase being observed
at Buttisholz, followed by Herisau, Steinach and Hochdorf (Table 1). Most striking, differences
in herbicide concentrations between upstream and downstream locations followed the exact same
order (Table S2, Fig. 2), which clearly reflects the strong correlation between community
tolerance and the intensity of contamination by micropollutants.

Besides phototrophs, heterotrophs such as bacteria are an important component of periphyton and direct targets for a high number of micropollutants released by WWTPs. Based on bacterial production measurements, the results showed that, except at Herisau for which EC_{50} was higher downstream than upstream location but statistically not significant, EC_{50} values for periphyton

from downstream of Steinach, Buttisholz and Hochdorf were significantly higher than EC₅₀ for upstream periphyton (Table 1, Fig. S1), reflecting again a significant increased tolerance to the passive sampler extracts, this time for bacteria. As for algae, the fold increase of the calculated EC_{50} values for bacteria differed among sites. Compared to upstream locations, bacterial tolerance in downstream periphyton increased by 86 times at Hochdorf, 22 times at Buttisholz and twice at Steinach. These findings concur with the chemical analyses that indicated the presence at higher concentrations downstream of compounds effective on bacteria, such as the antibiotics clarithromycin and sulfamethoxazole, the antiinflammatory drug diclofenac and the β-blockers atenolol and metoprolol (Table S2). One possible explanation of the low fold increase of bacterial tolerance at Steinach is the lower difference between upstream and downstream concentrations of bactericides at this site compared to Buttisholz and Hochdorf (Table S2). Furthermore, the concentrations of these compounds and especially antibiotics where higher downstream of Hochdorf than downstream of Buttisholz which might explain the 86-fold increase of EC₅₀ value at Hochdorf while at Buttisholz it increased by 22 times. The differences among sites for the concentrations of these compounds was confirmed by further measurements presented in Munz et al. 2016. These findings suggest that different fold increase in tolerance reflects different composition and relative concentrations of compounds driving the effects within the micropollutant mixtures.

3.2.2. Shifts in algal and bacterial community structure

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A greater community tolerance can result from the replacement of sensitive species by tolerant ones under toxic exposure (termed "toxicant-induced succession" (Blanck 2002)), which can be observed as a change in community structure. In the present study, the principal component analysis applied to the DGGE data (Fig. 4), showed that for bacteria and algae axes PC1 and PC2 together explained more than 63% and 54 % of the total variability, respectively.

PC1 in both cases was clearly related to the sampling location and separated Steinach and
Herisau from Hochdorf and Buttisholz (Fig. 1). Such results underline the fact that a combination
of local, regional and biogeographic factors might influence the natural variation of stream
community composition, as conceptualized by the context-dependency concept (Clements et al.
2016).
Most importantly, either for algae or bacteria, PC2 were clearly correlated to the influence of
the wastewater discharge and separated all upstream from downstream locations. In a similar
vein, earlier studies have shown changes of the microbial structure in periphyton upon chronic
exposures to organic micropollutants (Corcoll et al. 2014, Dorigo et al. 2007). For instance, a
shift in bacterial (Dorigo et al. 2010) and algal (Pesce et al. 2011) structure has been observed in
periphyton along a contamination gradient by agricultural runoff. Similarly, Corcoll et al. (2014)
showed that WWTP effluents altered the phototrophic diversity in periphyton with an increase of
the relative abundance of cyanobacteria and a decrease of the relative abundance of diatoms.
Clearly, the restructuring of the microbial communities composing periphyton, as observed in our
study, cannot be strictly related to the released micropollutants from the effluents. However, the
measured increase of algal and bacterial tolerance provides an additional line of evidence that
micropollutants were directly responsible for the change in the community structure in the
sampling sites by eliminating the micropollutant-sensitive species and favouring the tolerant
ones.
3.2.3. Traditional descriptors of periphyton as water quality indicators
Unlike for tolerance measurements, most of the traditional periphyton descriptors such as
biomass, photosynthesis or algal and bacterial production did not respond consistently between
upstream and downstream locations across the sampling sites (Table 2). Indeed, no significant
correlation has been found between the periphyton descriptors and physicochemical

characteristics of the stream water from all sites (Spearman's correlation; data not shown). For
instance, algal and bacterial productions increased from upstream to downstream of Steinach
while it remained unchanged at the other sites. Microbial respiration (SIR) responded also
differently among sites and was lower downstream than upstream of Herisau and similar between
upstream and downstream of the three other sites. Because of a consistent increase of
pharmaceutical and herbicide concentrations downstream of all sites, negative effects on algal
and bacterial communities, as target organisms, should be expected across the four sites. At low
levels, however, environmental factors such as nutrients, organic matter and increased
temperature are beneficial for autotrophic and heterotrophic organisms (Aristi et al. 2015). As a
consequence, they could mitigate negative micropollutant effects as it has been conceptualized in
the subsidy-stress concept (Wagenhoff et al. 2011). Clearly, such results underscore that
traditional descriptors for periphyton are relevant to reflect general alterations of the water quality
in streams, but not to disentangle specific impacts of micropollutants from the other
environmental factors on freshwater biota and ecosystems.
3.3. Sensitivity to photosynthesis inhibitors of periphyton <i>versus</i> the green alga <i>P. subcapitata</i>
Another interesting finding in our study is that based on photosynthesis efficiency
measurements, all upstream periphyton were significantly more sensitive to the passive sampler
extracts than the single alga P. subcapitata (Table 3; Fig. S2). The higher sensitivity of
periphyton was even observed at shorter exposure duration than for the alga; i.e. 12 hours and 24
hours for periphyton and P. subcapitata, respectively. Assessment of the environmental risks
posed by micropollutants typically relies on effects on single-species, with a few model
organisms, which are extrapolated to ecosystems using safety margins. Although sensitivity of
only one algal species has been measured in the present study, results indicate that micropollutant
effects could be exacerbated when assays are performed at the community level. Along this line.

McClellan et al. (2008) measured the sensitivity to diuron of freshwater periphyton, using photosynthesis efficiency as descriptor, and showed that effects were not predictable from single-species tests in which species interactions are not considered. Clearly, considering species interactions at the community level is an important aspect to strengthen the assessment of micropollutant impacts in fresh waters.

4. Conclusions

- PICT measurements combined with the use of extracts from passive samplers appear to be very sensitive and efficient to assess the effects of micropollutant mixtures from WWTPs effluents on *in situ* periphyton. This approach greatly increases the environmental relevance of the assessment and allows the establishment of a causality between exposure to complex mixtures of micropollutants and community-level effects.
- PICT field studies can provide a diagnostic tool for retrospective risk assessment of
 micropollutants from wastewater effluents. Their integration within regulatory frameworks
 to link between the ecological and chemical status of aquatic ecosystems can lead to more
 ecological relevance and ecotoxicological specificity in the currently used battery of
 bioindicators.
- Given the robust link between the proportional increase in tolerance and the intensity of
 exposure to micropollutants, PICT can be used as an effect-based tool, in combination with
 passive samplers, to monitor the recovery of impacted streams following for instance the
 upgrading or the removal of the WWTPs.

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Table 1. EC_{50} and tolerance ratios (R) for photosynthetic efficiency, primary production and secondary production for upstream (Up) and downstream (Dn) periphyton from the four sampling sites. Higher EC_{50} downstream than upstream means increased tolerance to the micropollutant mixture. The x-axis of the concentration-effect curves was expressed in unitless relative dilution factor (RDF) and therefore also the EC_{50} values are expressed in RDF. Values in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals (n = 21). Ratio EC_{50} was calculated for each site by dividing the EC_{50} Dn by the corresponding EC_{50} Up (R = 1 = no induced tolerance; R > 1 = induced tolerance).

		Photosynthetic efficiency	Primary production	Secondary production
Steinach	EC ₅₀ Up	1.9 (1.6 - 2.2)	31 (24 - 37)	28 (14 - 42)
	EC ₅₀ Dn	6.5 (3.5 - 11.7)	101 (70 - 132)	73 (34 - 112)
	R	3.5	3	2
Herisau	EC ₅₀ Up	1.5 (0.8 - 2.4)	29 (23 - 36)	118 (11 - 224)
	EC ₅₀ Dn	6.5 (2.8 -14.5)	98 (37 - 159)	147 (115 - 178)
	R	4.5	3	1
Buttisholz	EC ₅₀ Up	0.5 (0.3 - 0.8)	89 (75 - 103)	0.4 (0.2 - 0.6)
	EC ₅₀ Dn	76 (65.5 - 88)	187 (131-242)	9 (2 - 16)
	R	152	2	22
Hochdorf	EC ₅₀ Up	2.6 (1.3 - 5)	8 (0.4 - 17)	0.3 (0.01 - 0.6)
	EC ₅₀ Dn	5.7 (3 - 11)	47 (31 - 63)	26 (2 - 50)
	R	2	6	86

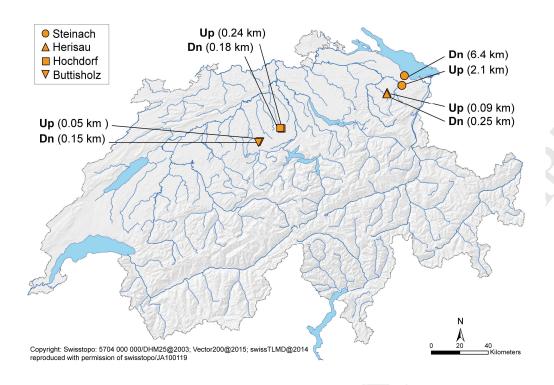
Table 2. Measured descriptors of upstream (Up) and downstream (Dn) periphyton from the four sampling sites. Data are means \pm standard deviation (n = 3). Asterisks indicate significant differences between Up and Dn samples at each sampling site according to the Student's *t*-test (* p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001).

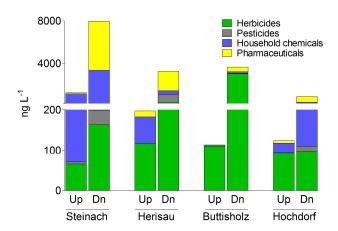
	Steinach		Herisau		Buttishol	z	Hochdor	f
	Up	Dn	Up	Dn	Up	Dn	Up	Dn
AFDW (g cm ⁻²)	1.56 ± 0.55	1.32 ± 0.03	1.20 ± 0.14	1.46 ± 0.53	1.78 ± 0.61	2.05 ± 0.48	2.55 ± 0.20	2.39 ± 0.40
Chlorophyll-a (mg g ⁻¹ AFDW)	9.44 ± 2.30	19.25** ± 1.19	4.53 ± 1.22	13.93** ± 1.82	8.76 ± 1.37	17.53** ± 1.85	6.96 ± 0.26	10.76** ± 1.05
Bacterial biomass (µg g ⁻¹ AFDW)	1.04 ± 0.44	2.03 ± 0.90	1.95 ± 0.79	1.62 ± 0.16	0.96 ± 0.57	0.73 ± 0.43	0.85 ± 0.38	0.64 ± 0.06
Quantum yield (ϕ')	0.21 ± 0.01	0.21 ± 0.08	0.23 ± 0.04	0.21 ± 0.01	0.15 ± 0.07	0.16 ± 0.04	0.22 ± 0.03	0.24 ± 0.06
Algal Production (μg C g ⁻¹ AFDW day ⁻¹)	10.90 ± 0.91	21.23*** ± 1.41	12.18 ± 2.43	14.13 ± 2.98	11.32 ± 6.10	12.58 ± 7.30	11.66 ± 4.21	12.61 ± 7.46
Bacterial Production (μg C g ⁻¹ AFDW day ⁻¹)	2.63 ± 1.42	6.77* ± 1.18	8.29 ± 1.49	17.78 ± 8.56	2.92 ± 0.42	3.79 ± 1.42	12.88 ± 4.20	$3.62^* \pm 0.71$
Substrate induced respiration (μg CO ₂ g ⁻¹ AFDW day ⁻¹)	265.15 ± 71.35	323.71 ± 2.62	324.73 ± 17.87	193.61** ± 20.48	317.00 ± 68.64	323.99 ± 66.30	259.94 ± 48.85	267.90 ± 30.29
β-glucosidase (µmole MUF g ⁻¹ AFDW h ⁻¹)	20.72 ± 11.79	88.12** ± 17.06	0.59 ± 0.23	$16.70^* \pm 9.26$	34.67 ± 15.12	16.37 ± 8.35	15.00 ± 2.90	18.68 ± 3.38
Alkaline phosphatase (µmole MUF g ⁻¹ AFDW h ⁻¹)	38.96 ± 15.00	92.94 [*] ± 27.09	81.02 ± 18.92	75.57 ± 12.57	101.90 ± 46.01	40.25 ± 11.21	47.17 ± 7.53	55.88 ± 11.20
Leucine amino-peptidase (µmole AMC g ⁻¹ AFDW h ⁻¹)	85.39 ± 23.41	122.60 ± 20.94	121.23 ± 20.06	57.11** ± 9.49	67.97 ± 17.24	38.14 ± 11.48	46.00 ± 6.35	34.27 ± 12.08

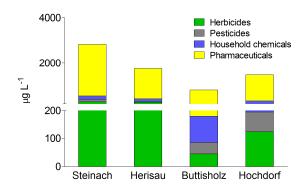
Table 3. EC₅₀ values based on photosynthetic efficiency for upstream periphyton exposed to a dilution series of the passive samplers extract from the corresponding site during 12 hours and for the green alga *Pseudokirchneriella subcapitata* exposed to the same dilution series of the extract during 2 and 24 hours. The x-axis of the concentration-effect curves was expressed in unitless relative dilution factor (RDF) of the passive sampler extract and therefore also the EC₅₀ values are expressed in RDF. Values in parentheses are 95% confidence intervals (n = 21 and 24 for periphyton and *P. subcapitata*, respectively)

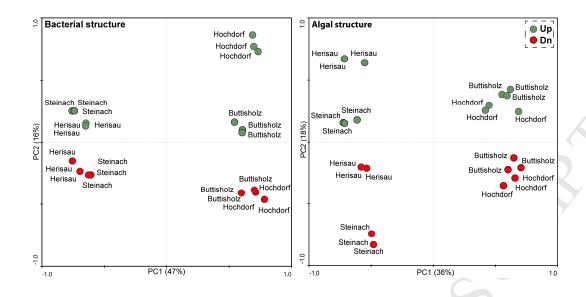
		EC ₅₀ (RDF)	
Passive sampler extract	Periphyton 12h	P. subcapitata 2h	P. subcapitata 24h
Steinach	1.9 (1.6 - 2.2)	55.8 (52.1 - 59.8)	46.2 (43.1 - 49.5)
Herisau	1.5 (0.8 - 2.4)	12.8 (12.2 - 13.4)	11.6 (11.1 -12.1)
Buttisholz	0.5 (0.3 - 0.8)	137.8 (131.2 - 144.8)	102.2 (94.7 - 110.4)
Hochdorf	2.6 (1.3 - 5)	11.5 (11.2 - 11.8)	5.6 (5.4 - 5.9)

717	Figure captions
718	Fig. 1 Upstream (Up) and downstream (Dn) locations for each of the four studied sites in
719	Switzerland. Values in parentheses are distances in Km between the upstream or downstream
720	location and the corresponding wastewater effluent
721	Fig. 2. Concentrations in ng L ⁻¹ of the 56 analysed organic micropollutants grouped into four
722	categories (herbicides, pesticides other than herbicides, household chemicals and
723	pharmaceuticals) in the grab water samples from upstream (Up) and downstream (Dn) of the
724	sampling sites.
725	Fig. 3. Concentrations in $\mu g L^{-1}$ of the 56 analysed organic micropollutants grouped into four
726	categories (herbicides, pesticides other than herbicides, household chemicals and
727	pharmaceuticals) in the passive samplers extracts
728	Fig. 4. Principal component analysis ordination of the bacterial and algal structure in periphyton
729	(n = 3) sampled from upstream (Up) and downstream (Dn) locations of the four sampling site
730	
731	









- *In situ* periphyton developed tolerance to micropollutants
- Increased tolerance to micropollutants correlates to the *in situ* contamination
- Microbial restructuring reflects selection of tolerant species to micropollutants