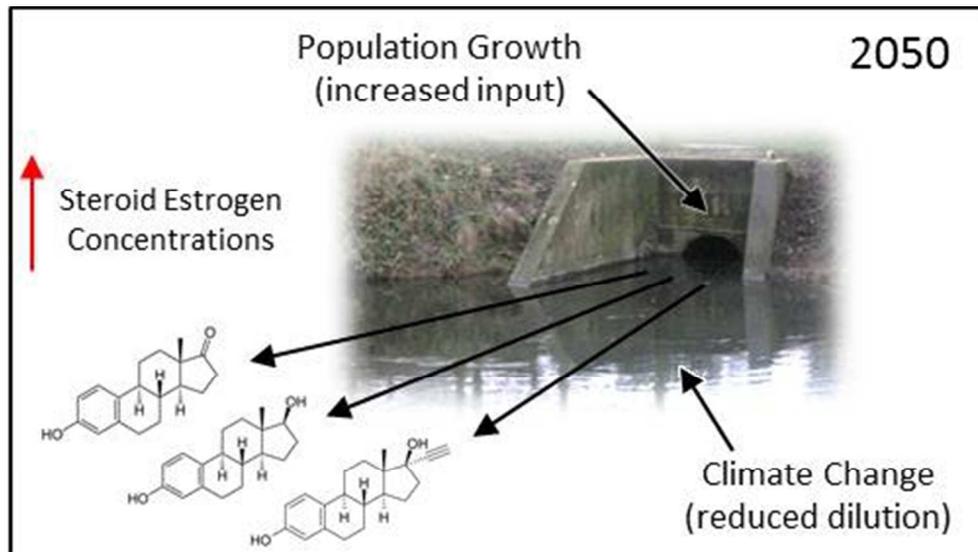


**MODELLING OF STEROID ESTROGEN CONTAMINATION IN
UK AND SOUTH AUSTRALIAN RIVERS PREDICTS MODEST
INCREASES IN CONCENTRATIONS IN THE FUTURE**

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hydrological models to estimate concentrations of pharmaceutical and natural steroid estrogens in a water stressed catchment in South Australia alongside a UK catchment and to forecast their concentrations in 2050 based on demographic and climate change predictions. The results show that despite their differing climates and demographics, modeled concentrations of steroid estrogens in effluents from Australian sewage treatment works and a receiving river were similar to those observed in the UK and Europe, exceeding the combined estradiol equivalent's predicted no effect concentration for feminization in wild fish. Furthermore, by 2050 a moderate increase in estrogenic contamination and the potential risk to wildlife was predicted with up to a two-fold rise in concentrations.

KEYWORDS:

Modeling; Steroid Estrogens; Climate Change; Population Growth; Endocrine Disruption; Fish

INTRODUCTION

In the last two decades the steroid estrogens, estrone (E1), 17 β -estradiol (E2) and the pharmaceutical 17 α -ethinylestradiol (EE2) have been identified as aquatic pollutants globally¹⁻⁴. Originating from human excretion⁵ as natural steroids and from pharmaceutical use, they are continuously discharged into rivers via sewage treatment works' (STW) effluents, which can constitute up to 100% of river flow during dry periods⁶⁻⁸. As a result, contamination of river networks with steroid estrogens is widespread and there are extensive data to suggest they are the primary endocrine disruptors responsible for feminization of male fish⁹⁻¹¹, particularly downstream of STW effluent discharges. Indeed, environmental concentrations of steroid estrogens can cause feminization effects in fish species maintained under laboratory conditions^{10,12-14}, including the abnormal development of both ovarian and testicular tissue in the gonads. This intersex condition has been well characterized in the UK where it is widespread in the normally dioecious roach (*Rutilus rutilus*)¹⁵ inhabiting freshwater rivers^{6,7,11,16,17}. Since reproductive performance of wild male fish has been negatively correlated with intersex severity, there

1 44 has been cause for concern for wild fish populations¹⁸. In fact, during a whole lake experiment with
2
3 45 regular dosing of EE2 at concentrations consistent with untreated effluent (mean 4.8-6.1 ng/L), an entire
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5 46 fish population collapsed¹⁹. This has led to the recent addition of E2 and EE2 to the list of “priority
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7 47 substances” by the European Commission in December 2012 as the first pharmaceuticals to be
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10 48 considered for regulation under the European Water Framework Directive²⁰.

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14 50 In order to map the distribution of steroid estrogen contamination, pioneering hydrological modeling
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17 51 methods have been used to predict concentrations of these chemicals in effluents and river networks,
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19 52 detecting “hot spots” of potentially at risk areas^{4,21-23}. The results correlate well with measured effluent
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21 53 concentrations as well as the intersex incidence and severity in wild roach that inhabit the modeled river
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24 54 stretches¹¹. Hydrological modeling with Low Flows 2000-WQX has been subsequently used in a risk
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26 55 assessment of the entire UK river network, predicting that around 39% of the river stretches were at risk
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29 56 of inducing intersex in wild fish due to steroid estrogen contamination⁴. These modeling techniques
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31 57 have since been applied to investigate a range of mitigation options at STWs²⁴ as well as the mixture
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33 58 effects of estrogens and xenoestrogens in a UK river catchment²⁵. They have also been exported
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36 59 internationally for use in national risk assessments in the USA²⁶ and Japan²⁷, as well as for effluent
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38 60 modeling in Chile²⁸.

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43 62 Although the identification of at risk areas in the present day and the future is one of the top 20
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45 63 research questions for pharmaceuticals and personal care products²⁹, in many countries these types of
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47 64 risk assessments for steroid estrogens have not been completed since the hydrological models to enable
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50 65 this process have not been developed. In water stressed areas of the world, such models could be highly
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52 66 informative as lower water availability in these areas potentially reduces the dilution of these
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55 67 contaminants in the aquatic environment relative to other areas, increasing their concentrations and their
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57 68 risks to aquatic organisms. Moreover, the anticipated global population growth during this century
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59 69 alone³⁰, coupled with climate induced changes in precipitation³¹, provides an additional need to assess

70 the consequences of changing water availability on future estrogen concentrations and their potential
71 impacts such that any mitigation options proposed are of an appropriate scale to be effective in the
72 longer term. To this end, this study uses hydrological modeling techniques to predict effluent and river
73 concentrations of steroid estrogens in moderately water stressed catchments in the UK and South
74 Australia. In addition, the models were modified to reflect population growth and climate-change
75 scenarios, producing the first future projections of steroid estrogen contamination and its potential
76 impacts in UK and South Australian rivers by 2050 in an approach which can be used as a tool for risk
77 management strategies involving large investments in improvements in waste water treatment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sites

81 Four UK STWs (UK1-4) located in the Severn-Trent catchment, typical of the UK's urbanized
82 environment, were compared with 12 STWs in South Australia (Table S1), representing a variety of
83 rural and urban scenarios. Both catchments are considered to be moderately water stressed, since the
84 demand and allocation of water is a high proportion of the total availability³²⁻³⁵. The river hydrology of
85 the two catchments contrast with cooler, permanently flowing waters in the UK and warmer more
86 ephemeral hydrology dominated by winter flow in South Australia.

Modeling Natural Estrogens: Estrone (E1) and 17 β -Estradiol (E2)

89 The model was based on an approach provided by Johnson and Williams, which has been applied to
90 predict environmental concentrations of steroid estrogens in effluents in Europe²³, as well as in
91 hydrological models used for national risk assessments of endocrine disruption in rivers in the UK,
92 Japan and the USA^{4,26,27}. Our modified model provides a per capita load for E1 and E2 in $\mu\text{g}/\text{day}$
93 arriving at a STW, based on the proportions of different estrogen-excreting cohorts within a population.
94 This was calculated as follows:

$$SE2 = 0.5 \sum_{i=1}^n f_i (UE2)$$

$$SE1 = \sum_{i=1}^n f_i (UE1) + 0.5 SE2$$

Where S is the per capita load arriving at a STW ($\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$), n is the number of cohorts and U is the total estrogen excreted in urine (in free, glucuronide and sulfate forms) and feces for each cohort percentage (f_i) of the population. For E2, a factor of 0.5 is incorporated assuming that 50% will be degraded to E1 in transit through the sewerage system to a STW. The mean estrogen excretion of each cohort percentage is shown in Table 1 and is based on a literature review for the original model that focused on Caucasian omnivorous women²³. Upper and lower excretion values were also used to provide a range in the load arriving at a STW. A worked example can be found in the Supplementary Information.

Cohort	Criteria	Mean (range) excretion ($\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$)		% of population	
		E2	E1	UK	Australia
Menstrual females	Age 15-50	3.2	11.7	23.5%	24.2%
	(minus pregnant women)	(1.7-4.6)	(7.5-15.4)		
Menopausal females	Age >51	1	1.8	16.1%	13.7%
	(minus menopausal women on HRT)	(0-3.5)	(0-5.7)		
Menopausal females on HRT	7.6% UK and 11.8% Australian menopausal females (>51)	56.1 (51.5-61.5)	28.4 (24-33)	1.3%	1.8%
Pregnant Females	1/22 UK and 1/19 Australian menstrual females	393 (340-445)	550 (432-668)	1.1%	1.3%
Males	Age 15-50	1.8	2.6	39.0%	39.2%
		(1.3-2.4)	(1.4-2.9)		

Table 1. The population breakdown with the estrogen excreting cohorts by criteria and the composition of each census population: UK 2001 and Australia 2006.

1 108 **Cohort Criteria:** The percentages of the populations made up by each cohort were based on age and
2
3 109 determined from national census data, which was assumed to be relevant to local demographics. This
4
5 110 utilized the national report for England and Wales (age by sex and resident type) from the 2001 census
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7 111 by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) and the Australian 2006 census (age by sex based on place
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9
10 112 of usual residence) from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS). Pre-pubescent males and females
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12 113 were not incorporated since sex steroid production is low until puberty and their inclusion would have
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14 114 little effect on the final prediction²³. As a result, the male cohort included those from age 15 onwards
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16
17 115 and menstrual females were assumed to be between 15 and 50 with menopausal females taken from the
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19 116 age of 51 onwards. The number of females on hormone replacement therapy (HRT) using E2 based
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21 117 pharmaceuticals was updated for our model where 11.8% of women over 50 were estimated to use HRT
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23
24 118 in Australia³⁶ compared to 7.6% of women in the UK, calculated by combining population data from the
25
26 119 2001 census with data on HRT use in the UK in 2004³⁷. These percentages were applied to the
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28
29 120 menopausal female cohort do determine the number of women on HRT, although it should be taken into
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31 121 account that HRT use has fluctuated in the last decade in both countries^{36,37}. The number of pregnant
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33 122 females was estimated using the census data assuming that the number of live births (people aged 0)
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35
36 123 was representative of the number of pregnant females. Using this model, per capita loads of 3.4 (2.7-
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38 124 4.1) and 3.9 (3.2-4.7) $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ were produced for E2 in the UK and Australia respectively, as well as 14
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40 125 (10-18) and 16 (12-20) $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ for E1.
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45 127 ***Modeling Pharmaceuticals: 17 α -Ethinylestradiol (EE2)***

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48 128 The per capita load of EE2 was calculated based on the number of prescriptions in the UK and
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50 129 Australia, which were determined from the National Health Service's Prescriptions Cost Analysis
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52 130 (2009) for England³⁸ and Wales³⁹ and the Australian Statistics on Medicines (2008)⁴⁰, using a method
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54
55 131 from Runnalls et al⁴¹. About 17.4kg of EE2 were prescribed in England and Wales in 2009 in
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57 132 comparison to 5.55kg in Australia in 2008. With populations of 54,809,100 (mid 2009 estimate for
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59 133 England and Wales, ONS) and 22,000,000 (ABS estimation) for Australia and an excretion rate of 40%
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1 134 of the dose²³, the per capita loads were estimated at 0.35 and 0.28 $\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$ for the UK and Australia,
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3 135 respectively. The higher per capita load in the UK due to the higher prescription level of EE2
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5 136 contrasted with that of E1 and E2, where the differences in population demographics resulted in a higher
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7 137 per capita load in Australia.
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10 138 11 12 139 ***Predicting Concentrations of Steroid Estrogens in STW Effluent*** 13

14 140 Flow and population data for the STWs were provided by Severn Trent Water, UK and SA Water
15
16
17 141 Corporation, Australia (Table S1). To predict effluent concentrations reflecting a 24-hour composite
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19 142 sample of effluent, the total load arriving at a STW (the per capita load ($\mu\text{g}/\text{d}$) of each estrogen
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21 143 multiplied by the population serviced) was divided by the total flow (L/day) through the STW (domestic
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23 144 plus non-domestic flow). Removal rates of 69% and 83% were incorporated for E1 and E2 respectively,
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25
26 145 based on a review of removal during the activated sludge process (ASP)⁴². The average, upper and
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29 146 lower per capita loads of E1 and E2 were all calculated based on the excretion range, whilst for EE2,
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31 147 average, upper and lower concentrations were produced in effluent using removal rates of 83%, 71.2%
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33 148 and 94.8% based on the average and standard deviation observed in the ASP review⁴². However, it
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36 149 should be recognized that in reality removal rates vary, even in a single STW, based on the treatment
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38 150 process and environmental conditions⁴³.
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42 43 152 ***The Relevance to Real World Effluents*** 44

45 153 To determine the relevance of modeled data to real world steroid estrogen concentrations in effluent,
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48 154 modeled concentrations were compared with measured data from UK2, where data from 19 24-hour
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50 155 composite samples of its activated sludge treated effluent were available from a previous study⁴⁴. These
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52 156 were collected between July and December 2009 and analyzed by liquid chromatography-tandem mass
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55 157 spectroscopy (LC-MS/MS) as described previously⁴⁵. LC-MS/MS measurements were compared with
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57 158 the average concentrations of the modeled estrogens, which were produced based on flow data provided
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59 159 by Severn Trent Water on the day of the composite sampling at UK2.
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1 186 representing SA2 based on a time series of daily concentrations modeled from the daily flow rates from
2
3 187 the STW in 2008 to simulate a continuous influx. Another inflow function was incorporated at a node
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5 188 downstream representing the inter-basin transfer of raw River Murray water from the Murray Bridge-
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7 189 Onkaparinga pipeline by adding flow only as no STWs discharge within 500 km from this additional
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10 190 water source. The steroid estrogens were transported through the interconnected stretches from their
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12 191 source with their concentrations calculated on each stretch based on the available dilution from
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14 192 simulated flows and a simple exponential decay model using half-lives based on their typical
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17 193 degradation rates in UK rivers at 20°C water temperature⁴⁶ (Table S2). However, this was not
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19 194 temperature dependent and it should be recognized that their degradation could differ in Australian
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21 195 rivers due to different environmental conditions. However, no data are available to support this
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24 196 possibility. Again, no loss to sediment was assumed and in contrast to LF2000-WQX, the conversion of
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26 197 E2 to E1 was not included, which could result in a small underestimation in concentrations of E1. In
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28
29 198 addition, the model does not incorporate the farm dam directly downstream of the STW which abstracts
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31 199 some water for irrigation, potentially affecting the concentrations of estrogens entering the main river
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33 200 stretch, below this point particularly during the summer months. However this could not be quantified.
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37 38 202 ***Risk Assessment of the Equivalent Estrogenic Activity*** 39

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41 203 Since estrogens exist in the environment in combination and act additively to induce similar
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43 204 biological effects, it is appropriate that a combined “toxic equivalent” is incorporated into any risk
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45 205 assessment. This is presented as the estradiol equivalent (EEQ) in ng/L, calculated based on their
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47 206 comparative estrogenic activity as $([EE2]/0.1 + [E2]/1 + [E1]/3)$ with a PNEC of 1 ng/L⁵⁰. To
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49
50 207 determine the risk to wild fish populations, the hydrological models of the rivers were used to map
51
52 208 potential “hot spots” for estrogen concentrations: categorizing stretches as “no risk”, “at risk” or “high
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55 209 risk”, based on the EEQ (<1, 1-10 and >10 ng/L EEQ respectively)⁴. This method of predicting the
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57 210 presence of “risk” stretches from the effluent model and LF2000-WQX has recently been compared
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1 211 with LC-MS/MS analysis on the Erewash, where modeled and measured concentrations both produced
2
3 212 the same risk categories for the river stretches based on the EEQ⁵¹.
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7 214 *Predicting Estrogen Concentrations in 2050: The Effects of Population and Climate Change*

9
10 215 To determine how levels of steroid estrogens in effluents and rivers could change in the future,
11
12 216 concentrations were modeled based on data relevant to 2050. These were then compared back to the
13
14 217 predictions detailed above, produced from sources dating from 2001-2011, which are henceforth
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16
17 218 referred to as predictions for the present day. Data on population change was gathered from the
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19 219 “National Population Projections, 2010-based Projections” publication released in 2011 by the ONS,
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21 220 UK⁵² and “Population Projections Australia, 2006-2101” released in 2008 by the ABS⁵³. Since
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24 221 projections were available for 2051 for both countries, these were assumed to be representative of 2050
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26 222 and relevant to the local catchment areas. Three main projections were used for each country based on
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28
29 223 demographic assumptions of future fertility, mortality and migration to produce different scenarios for
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31 224 population change. These included a principal projection (B) which assumed that current trends in these
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33 225 demographic assumptions would prevail in the future and high (A) and low (C) population projections
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35
36 226 to provide a range.
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40 228 Since the data were available on an age by sex basis, new per capita loads for E1 and E2 were
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43 229 produced based on new estrogen excreting cohorts relevant to 2050 to incorporate the change in
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45 230 population composition (Table S3). Additionally, the per capita load of EE2 was changed in line with
46
47
48 231 the proportion of menstrual females: the users of the contraceptive pill. The effluent concentrations at
49
50 232 the STWs under each population projection relevant to 2050 were then calculated using the new per
51
52 233 capita loads and assuming that the populations serviced changed in line with the population change from
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54
55 234 2011-2051 (Tables S4 and 5). No changes were made to the DWF at the STWs, which remained at
56
57 235 present day levels to provide a worst case scenario which assumed that no additional water was
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59 236 available for dilution.
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1 237
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3 238 The river models used the data above at the STW inflows and were modified to incorporate predicted
4
5 239 climate-induced changes to flow. In the UK, the flow on the Erewash in LF2000-WQX was modified
6
7 240 with flow data from the UK Climate Projections (UKCP09) simulation afgcx, which is one of 11
8
9
10 241 physically plausible simulations relevant to a medium emissions scenario in the UK⁵⁴. As a result the
11
12 242 flows were on average 5.2% lower than the 2009 model on each stretch. Estrogen concentrations along
13
14 243 the river were again calculated with inflow from the STWs based on the updated population data
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16
17 244 relevant to each projection. Again, no changes were made to the DWF. Due to the lack of available
18
19 245 data for South Australia, the Source Catchments model was modified by reducing flow on each stretch
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21 246 by 17.5% from its 2008 level to provide a medium range climate model. This was based on a 15-25%
22
23
24 247 reduction in annual stream flow for the Murray River projected for 2050 using two medium sensitivity
25
26 248 climate scenarios, A1 and B1, from the Special Report on Emissions Scenarios⁵⁵.
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28 29 249 30 31 250 *Statistical Analyses*

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33 251 Predicted estrogen concentrations based on the average per capita load from STW effluents in the UK
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35
36 252 and South Australia were compared by two sample *t*-test assuming equal variances. Variation in
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38 253 concentrations between STWs was assessed by Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).
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40 254 Statistical significance was taken as $P < 0.05$.
41

42 43 255 44 45 256 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

46 47 48 257 *Predicted Concentrations of Estrogens in STW Effluents*

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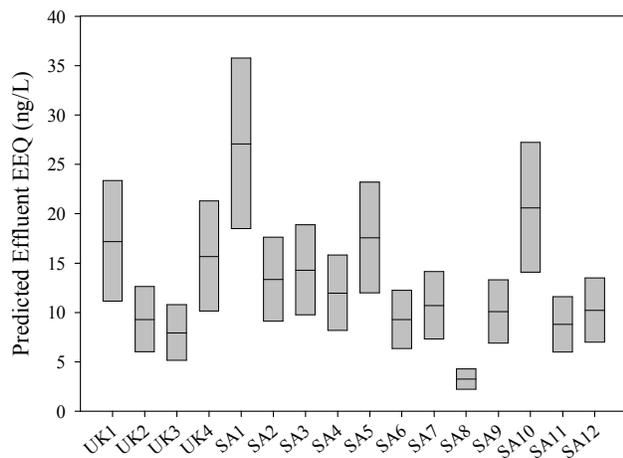


Figure 1. The predicted EEQs of effluents from UK and South Australia STWs predicted based on the average, upper and lower per capita loads of the steroid estrogens. Boxes represent the EEQ based on the median (solid line), 5th and 95th percentiles.

Using the estrogen model the total load arriving at Australian STWs in the present day was found to be lower than the UK due to the lower population serviced on average. However, the lower flow through Australian STWs produced a similar dilution factor (the per capita flow) to the UK (Table S1). As a result, the predicted concentrations of E1, E2, EE2 (Figures S1) and the EEQ were similar in both the UK and South Australian effluents (Figure 1), corresponding with the overlapping measured data range from the two countries and a review of effluents globally⁵⁶. Significant variation in concentrations of E1, E2 and the EEQ also originated from the differences in per capita flow, demonstrating the importance of dilution in predicting estrogen concentrations. No significant variation in concentrations of EE2 was observed due to the range in concentrations at each STW caused by the inclusion of the upper and lower removal rates.

The Relevance to Real World Effluents

In previous studies predictive modeling has been shown to produce environmentally relevant estimations for STWs⁴³. On a national scale the range of concentrations predicted by this study for both

the UK and South Australia were within the range of measured concentrations from 43 UK STWs⁵⁷ and over 70 STWs in Australia^{3,56,58-64} (Table S6). The exception to this was SA1, which exceeded the 54 ng/L reported maximum observed concentration of E1 in Australia⁶³. Although the range provided by the assessment of 70 effluents is relatively extensive, it only represents a small proportion of Australian STWs and it is plausible that higher concentrations could occasionally occur in some of the older STWs.

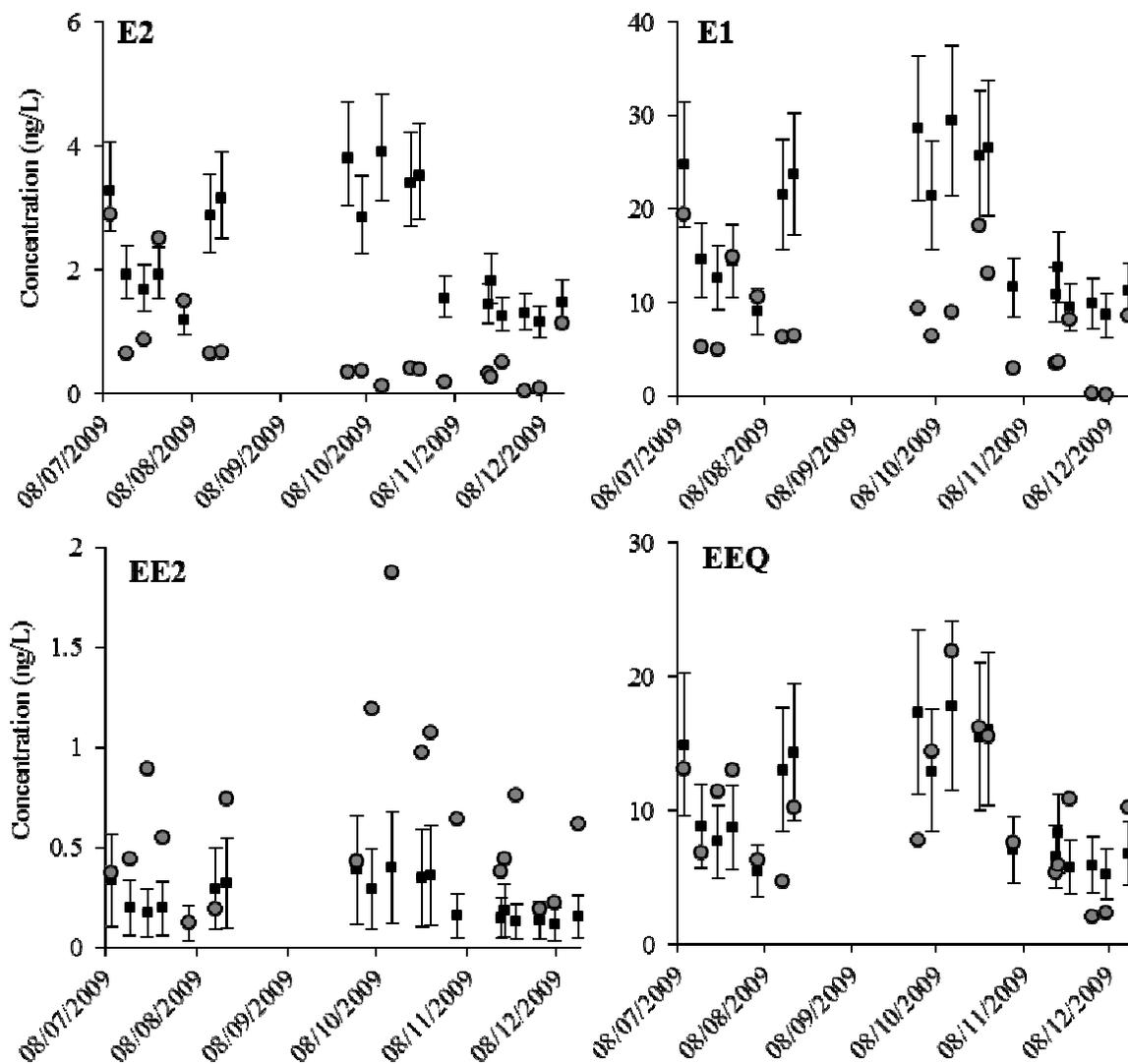


Figure 2. A comparison of modeled and measured estrogen concentrations with the EEQ (ng/L) in effluent from UK2 over 19 sampling points from July to December 2009. A data gap exists between 27.8.11 and 21.9.09 due to the lack of available flow data to produce modeled concentrations. Dots represent the analytical measurement at each sampling point. Square points show the corresponding

1 287 average modeled concentration, with error bars showing the range based on the upper and lower per
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3 288 capita loads.
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7 290 In a review of comparisons between modeled and measured data, predicted concentrations of
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10 291 pollutants in effluent were routinely predicted within a factor of 5 of the measured values⁴³. At UK2,
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12 292 when modeled concentrations were compared with measured concentrations from effluent samples
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14 293 collected between July and December 2009, clear temporal variation was observed in both datasets
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16
17 294 (Figure 2). The differences between measured and modeled concentrations at each sampling point also
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19 295 varied where predictions for E1 and E2 both tended to be higher than the measured by a factor of 0.9-54
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21 296 (median 3.1) and 0.8-33 (median 4.7) respectively. However, modeled concentrations of EE2 tended to
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24 297 be lower than the measured by a factor of 0.2-1.5 (median 0.4). These deviations in opposing directions
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26 298 produced a smaller deviation in the modeled EEQ, which was generally higher than the measured by a
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29 299 factor of 0.5-3.0 (median 1.0). However, it is important to note that every STW is unique and that the
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31 300 deviations in the datasets observed at UK2 may be very different in another STW.
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36 302 A majority of modeled data points were within the measured range for the STW for each steroid
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38 303 estrogen, demonstrating that the model can be considered to produce environmentally relevant
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40 304 preliminary estimates for steroid estrogens applicable to a specific STW effluent. However, it is clear
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43 305 that changes in flow alone cannot explain the fluctuations in the measured data. This is likely to be due
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45 306 to the additional impact of changing estrogen input and removal, which fluctuate naturally instead of
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48 307 remaining constant as the model assumes. Significant changes in input are unlikely to be a common
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50 308 occurrence, so fluctuating removal is likely to be a major cause of sudden changes in the deviation
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52 309 factor between the modeled and measured data. Removal rates not only vary between STWs dependent
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55 310 on the treatment process but will also vary day to day within a single STW dependent on the effects of
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57 311 environmental conditions and flow on biodegradation⁶⁵. Indeed, at UK2 removal rates are reported to
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59 312 be higher than those assumed in the model for E1 and E2 (95 and 98% respectively) and lower for EE2
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1 313 (32%)⁶⁶. When these measured removal values were input into the model, the deviation factor lowered
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3 314 to 0.2-9.4 (median 0.53) for E1, 0.1-3.8 (median 0.55) for E2, 0.7-6.1 (median 1.53) for EE2 and 0.5-3.0
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5 315 (median 1.1) for the EEQ. In addition, with these new removal rates incorporated, all modeled data was
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7 316 within the measured range, demonstrating that the model can benefit from more specific data from a
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10 317 given STW. This also implies that river models will be more accurate with up to date removal data,
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12 318 although due to the impact of dilution, modeled estrogen concentrations based on the removal rates that
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15 319 overestimated concentrations by up to 10 fold still predicted concentrations within the same risk
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17 320 category as measured data⁵¹.

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22 322 ***Predicted River Concentrations in the Present Day and Risk Assessment for Endocrine Disruption***
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24 323 ***in Fish***

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26 324 LF2000-WQX and Source Catchments were used in the UK and South Australia to identify potential
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29 325 hot spots of “at risk” areas for endocrine disruption in fish based on predicted concentrations of steroid
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31 326 estrogens in the present day. On the River Erewash, UK, in agreement with data from the Johnson and
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33 327 Williams model⁵¹ almost the entire river was categorized as “at risk” of endocrine disruption in wild fish
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36 328 (Figure 3), with an average EEQ of 2 (0-7) ng/L along the entire river. This resulted from the
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38 329 assumption of constant influx of steroid estrogens from the eight STWs along the river which
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41 330 maintained the EEQ above 1 ng/L. On the Onkaparinga River in South Australia, concentrations were
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43 331 also predicted to exceed the 1 ng/L EEQ PNEC (Figure 3) downstream of SA2. Around 9 km of the
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45 332 river was categorized as “at risk,” with concentrations decreasing with the distance downstream due to
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48 333 degradation and dilution from tributaries, eventually dropping below the PNEC upstream of the Mount
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50 334 Bold reservoir. An average EEQ of 3 (0.4-9) ng/L was predicted over these river stretches and
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52 335 individual steroid estrogen concentrations were comparable with those measured at five river sites in
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55 336 Queensland at effluent outfalls and 1 km downstream of STWs⁶⁰. They also compared with
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57 337 concentrations measured globally⁶⁷.

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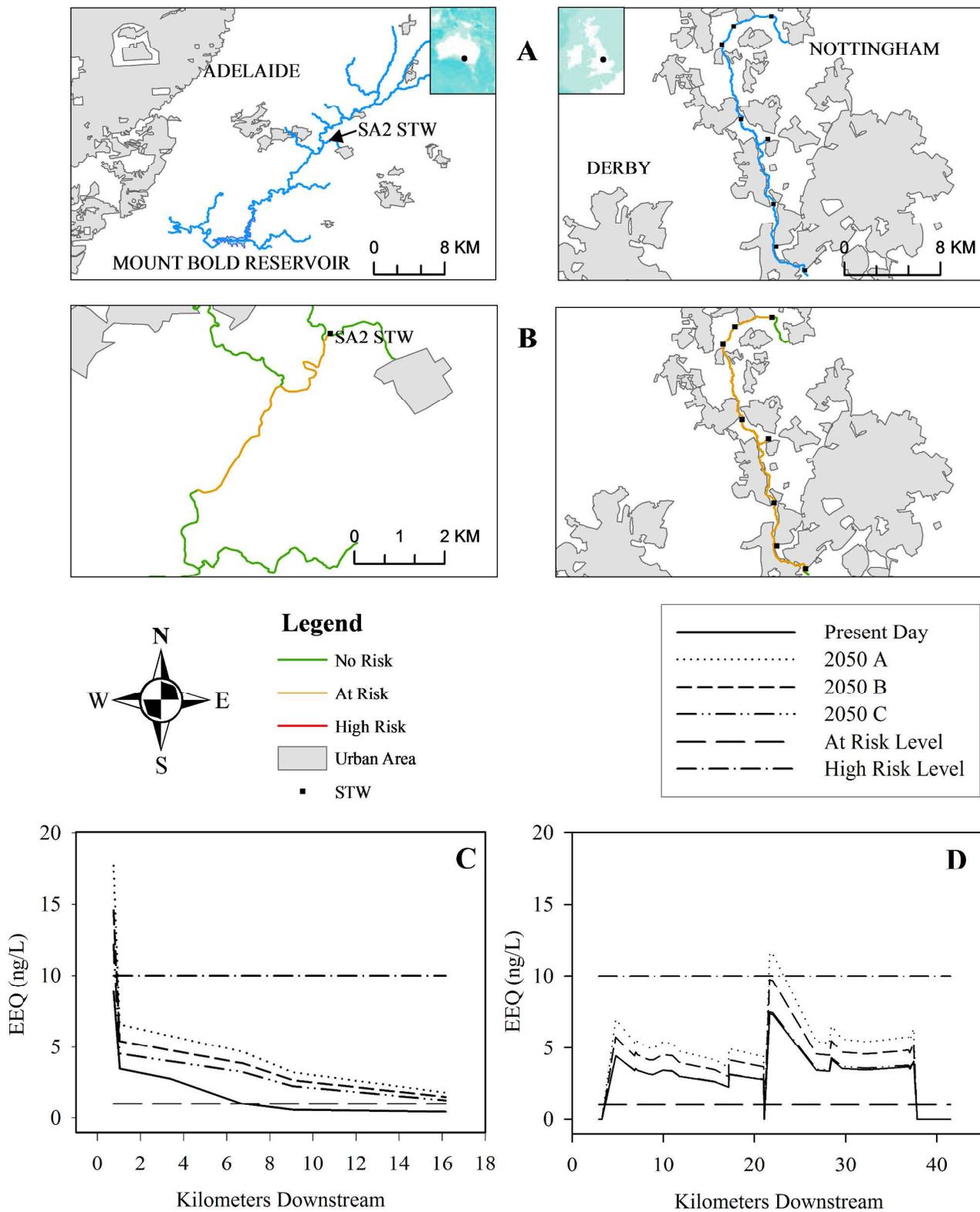


Figure 3. Maps showing: (A) The location of the Onkaparinga River, South Australia (left) and the River Erewash, UK (right); (B) Predicted hotspots for endocrine disruption in fish with the risk

1 342 categories for each stretch based on the average predicted EEQs (ng/L) for the present day on the
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3 343 Onkaparinga (left) and the Erewash (right);. Graphs showing the average predicted EEQs along the
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5 344 Onkaparinga River downstream of the SA2 STW (C) and the River Erewash downstream from the
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7 345 source (D) in the present day and under the three future population projections, high (2050A), principal
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9 (2050B) and low (2050C), with river flows reduced for medium range climate change scenarios. Risk
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11 levels are also indicated. A color version is available online at pubs.acs.org.
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15 348 16 17 18 349 *Scenarios for Concentrations of Steroid Estrogens in 2050*

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20 350 **Effluent concentrations:** In both countries three population projections representative of 2050,
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22 351 including high (A), principal/medium (B) and low (C) projections, were used to determine how the
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24 change in human population size (Figure S2, Table S5) and composition (Table S3) affected modeled
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26 estrogen concentrations. Interestingly the population composition had a small impact on the per capita
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28 load. A small increase occurred under the high projection and a small decrease occurred under the
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30 principle and low projections (Figure S3, Table S4) as a result of changes in the proportions of high
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32 355 estrogen producing menstrual females and pregnant females relative to low estrogen producing
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34 356 menopausal females. Population growth had a much greater impact, resulting in an increase in the total
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36 357 estrogen load arriving at the STW (Figure S4) and an increase in their subsequent concentrations in
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38 effluents to be discharged into the environment (Figure 4, Table S7). The exception to this was the UK
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40 projection C, where effluent concentrations reduced since the increase in population was not sufficient
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42 to compensate for the lower per capita load. The worst case scenario was observed with the high
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44 360 population projections, where effluent concentrations almost doubled by 2050 under the Australian
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46 361 projection A.
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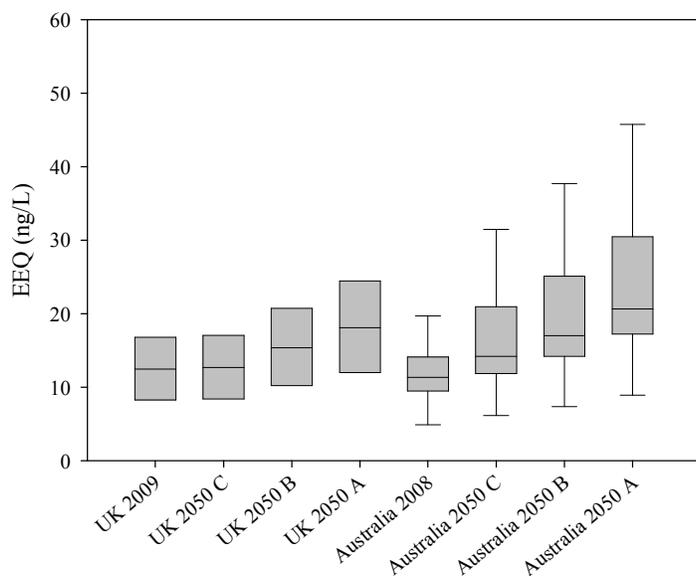


Figure 4. The predicted EEQs of effluents in the UK and South Australia under present day and future projections assuming no change in DWF at the STWs. Boxes represent the median (solid line) with 5th and 95th percentiles (UK) and 25th and 75th percentiles (South Australia). Error bars in South Australian boxes extend to the 5th and 95th percentiles.

River Concentrations: The river models were modified for medium range climate scenarios with reduced flow and used in conjunction with population projections and future estrogen loads to determine how river concentrations may change by 2050 (Figure 3). On the River Erewash, decreased dilution and increased estrogen input in effluent under projections A and B caused increases in the average EEQ on impacted stretches from 3.7 (2.3-7.4) ng/L to 5.9 (3.6-11.6) and 4.9 (3-9.7) ng/L respectively. In addition, two stretches became “high risk” areas in projection A (Table S8). However, in projection C the increase was smaller with an average EEQ on impacted stretches of 3.8 (2.3-7.5) ng/L due to the reduced input of steroid estrogens from the STWs. An increase in average EEQ was also predicted between the SA2 discharge and the Mount Bold reservoir on the Onkaparinga River under all population projections, from 2.9 (0.4-8.9) ng/L to 6.6 (1.8-18), 5.5 (1.5-15) and 4.6 (1.2-12) ng/L EEQ for projections A, B and C respectively. Importantly, the length of river downstream of the STW

1 382 considered “at risk” increased under all three projections to include the entire 16 km modeled stretch
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3 383 upstream of the reservoir, whilst in projections A and B the stretch immediately downstream of SA2
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5 384 became “high risk”. However, it is important to note that additional variables exist in the prediction of
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7 385 estrogen concentrations in the future. For example, measures to conserve water may further reduce
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10 386 dilution of estrogens arriving at STWs, whilst increasing anthropogenic control of river flow and the use
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12 387 of recycled wastewater could result in additional changes to their dilution in rivers. Furthermore, an
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14 388 increasing occurrence of extreme weather events could cause greater changes in flow which could have
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17 389 more dramatic implications for estrogen concentrations than our model suggests. Indeed, variation in
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19 390 flow and dilution may be a much greater driver than population change alone, causing increases or
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21 391 decreases in concentrations that may differ from our model, depending on water availability. Since a
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23 392 better understanding of the drivers that cause at risk areas has been called for²⁹, these scenarios may
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26 393 provide interesting subjects for more detailed assessment in the future.
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31 395 Mitigation to combat rising estrogen concentrations may be achieved with increased removal
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33 396 efficiency at STWs with improved uptake of modern treatment technologies, many of which are already
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35 397 used for treating drinking water and recycled wastewater. This has already been demonstrated in the
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37 398 UK^{24,44,66} and similar results have been found in Australia^{68,69}. Indeed, in Western Australia the
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39 399 induction of the estrogenic biomarker vitellogenin was found in male fish downstream of a secondary
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41 400 treated rural effluent but not downstream of tertiary treatment⁶⁸. However, a number of studies have
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43 401 also detected steroid estrogen concentrations which exceed the PNECs upstream of STWs,
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45 402 demonstrating the importance of considering multiple origins of environmental steroid estrogens^{3,60,68},
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47 403 such as agricultural runoff⁷⁰ as well as sewage effluent. In addition, other chemicals with the potential
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49 404 to cause feminizing effects in wildlife, such as the nonylphenol ethoxylates, which have been restricted
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51 405 under EU legislation, are still in use in Australia and have been detected in surface water⁶⁰.
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1 407 This study demonstrates the first use of predictive effluent and river modeling of steroid estrogens in
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3 408 South Australia as an effective tool for estimating concentrations and predicting the presence of “at
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5 409 risk” areas. The results suggest that effluents discharged in South Australia could cause concentrations
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7 410 of steroid estrogens in rivers to exceed the 1 ng/L EEQ PNEC, implying that there is a risk of endocrine
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10 411 disruptive effects occurring in wild fish. Evidence of feminization of non-native fish has already been
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12 412 observed in effluent contaminated areas^{68,71,72}, whilst native species have been shown to be susceptible
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14 413 to steroid estrogens under laboratory exposure^{73,74}. As a result, further investigation is warranted to
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17 414 determine how susceptible Australian species are to estrogens from all sources, particularly from
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19 415 effluents derived from different levels of sewage treatment, which will allow Australian PNECs to be
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21 416 derived that accurately reflect the risks and mitigation required to protect Australian biota. In the
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24 417 absence mitigation strategies we could anticipate an increase in estrogen concentrations in rivers in both
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26 418 the UK and Australia by 2050 as a result of the growing populations coupled with reductions in river
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29 419 flow through changing climate. Moreover the magnitude of this change may increase further with
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31 420 continued reduction in flow and population rise by 2100 and beyond. This suggests that endocrine
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33 421 disruption in wild fish may be a long-term management issue for which effective investment in
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36 422 preemptive mitigation today may pay off in the future.

40 424 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

44 425 Supporting Information Available

47 426 The supplementary data section includes: a simple worked example of effluent modeling at a South
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49 427 Australian STW; Tables of the parameters for each STW; half-lives for the steroid estrogens used in the
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52 428 Source Catchments model; cohort percentages from census data for the present day and future
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54 429 projections; per capita loads for the present day and future projections; fold change in population
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56 430 between 2011 and 2051; the measured and modeled data range of estrogens from UK and Australian
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58
59 431 STW effluents; predicted effluent EEQs for the present day and 2050 scenarios; risk categories of river
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1 432 stretches for the present day and future projections; Graphs of the predicted effluent concentrations of
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3 433 the steroid estrogens in UK and Australian effluents; population change; per capita load of estrogens
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5 434 and total estrogen load arriving at a STW up to 2050 for all population scenarios. This material is
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7 435 available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.
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30 444 **Author Contributions**

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47
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50 452 Water Ltd are on the basis that they are for the sole use in connection with “*An integrated approach to*
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53 453 *assess safety of treated wastewaters as environmental flows in the Australian riverine environment: The*
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55 454 *UK-Australia collaboration*” and are not to be used for any other purpose. Any views expressed are
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57 455 those of the author/s and do not necessarily represent those of Severn Trent Water Ltd. The copyright
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60 456 of the data remains with Severn Trent Water Ltd.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABS, Australian Bureau of Statistics; ASP, Activated Sludge Process, DWF, Dry Weather Flow; E1, estrone; E2, 17 β -estradiol; EE2, 17 α -Ethinylestradiol; EEQ, E2 equivalent concentration; GAC, Granular Activated Carbon; HRT, Hormone Replacement Therapy; LC-MS/MS, Liquid Chromatography-tandem Mass Spectroscopy; LF2000-WQX, Low Flows 2000 Water Quality eXtention model; ONS, Office of National Statistics; PNEC, Predicted No Effect Concentration; STW, sewage treatment works, UKCP09, UK Climate Projections 2009.

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