

## Journal Pre-proofs

Full length article

### A ONE-HEALTH ENVIRONMENTAL RISK ASSESSMENT OF CONTAMINANTS OF EMERGING CONCERN IN LONDON'S WATERWAYS THROUGHOUT THE SARS-CoV-2 PANDEMIC

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1 **A ONE-HEALTH ENVIRONMENTAL RISK ASSESSMENT OF CONTAMINANTS OF**  
2 **EMERGING CONCERN IN LONDON'S WATERWAYS THROUGHOUT THE SARS-CoV-2**  
3 **PANDEMIC**

4

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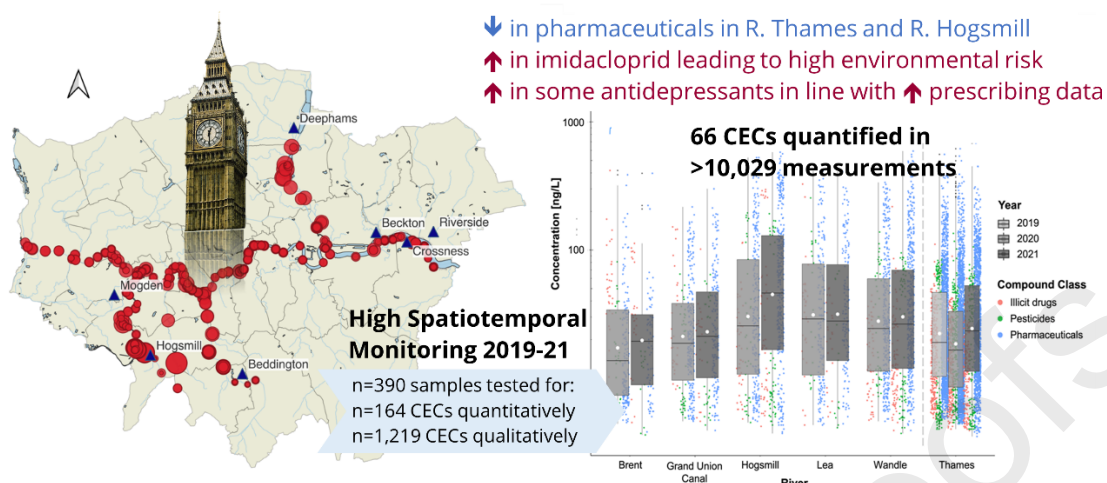
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22 **Highlights**

- 23 • 98 contaminants of emerging concern detected in London's rivers (2019–21)
- 24 • Lower pharmaceutical concentrations during lockdown in Rivers Hogsmill and Thames
- 25 • 21 compounds had risk quotients >0.1 in seven of 14 water bodies tested
- 26 • Imidacloprid of highest and increasing urban risk despite ban in agriculture in 2018
- 27 • Low flow, wastewater-impacted waterways at higher risk from CECs
- 28

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## 29 Graphical abstract



30

**31 Abstract**

32 The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic had huge impacts on global urban populations, activity and health, yet  
33 little is known about attendant consequences for urban river ecosystems. We detected significant  
34 changes in occurrence and risks from contaminants of emerging concern (CECs) in waterways  
35 across Greater London (UK) during the pandemic. We were able to rapidly identify and monitor  
36 large numbers of CECs in n=390 samples across 2019–2021 using novel direct-injection liquid  
37 chromatography-mass spectrometry methods for scalable targeted analysis, suspect screening  
38 and prioritisation of CEC risks. At total of 10,029 measured environmental concentrations (MECs)  
39 were obtained for 66 unique CECs. Pharmaceutical MECs decreased during lockdown in 2020 in  
40 the R. Thames ( $p \leq 0.001$ ), but then increased significantly in 2021 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). For the tributary rivers,  
41 the R. Lee, Beverley Brook, R. Wandle and R. Hogsmill were the most impacted primarily via  
42 wastewater treatment plant effluent and combined sewer overflows. For the R. Hogsmill in  
43 particular, pharmaceutical MEC trends were generally correlated with NHS prescription statistics,  
44 likely reflecting limited wastewater dilution. Suspect screening of ~1,200 compounds tentatively  
45 identified 25 additional CECs at the five impacted sites, including metabolites such as O-  
46 desmethylvenlafaxine, an EU Watch List compound. Lastly, risk quotients (RQs)  $\geq 0.1$  were  
47 calculated for 21 compounds across the whole Greater London freshwater catchment, of which 7  
48 were of medium risk ( $RQ \geq 1.0$ ) and three were in the high-risk category ( $RQ \geq 10$ ), including  
49 imidacloprid ( $RQ=19.6$ ), azithromycin (15.7) and diclofenac (10.5). This is the largest  
50 spatiotemporal dataset of its kind for any major capital city globally and the first for Greater London,  
51 representing ~16 % of the population of England, and delivering a foundational One Health case  
52 study in the third largest city in Europe across a global pandemic.

**53 Keywords**

54 Pharmaceuticals, pesticides, illicit drugs, wastewater, combined sewer overflows, large-scale  
55 analysis

56

**57 1. Introduction**

58 To achieve sustainable urban ecosystems of healthy people, wildlife and environments - a  
59 concept commonly described as the 'One Health' approach - we need to improve our  
60 understanding of how they are altered by human activities, including the growing use of a  
61 diverse range of potentially toxic chemicals. Studying the effect of major perturbations, like the  
62 recent SARS-CoV-2 pandemic can provide valuable insights in this respect (Lefrançois et al.,  
63 2023). The impact of "novel entities", including chemicals, was recently quantified as being of  
64 high risk on a global level (Steffen et al., 2015), and pollution is now considered the third  
65 greatest planetary crisis along with climate change and biodiversity loss (UN environment  
66 programme (UNEP), 2021). There are currently more than 204 million chemicals on the  
67 Chemical Abstracts Service (CAS) Registry, of which ~350,000 are currently licensed for  
68 manufacture and sale globally (Persson et al., 2022) and many are strongly associated with  
69 urban areas. Overall, little is known about the occurrence, effects and toxicity of these  
70 chemicals and their mixtures on human and environmental health. As much as chemicals  
71 enrich our lives, it is estimated that each year chemical pollution causes approximately 10  
72 million excess deaths worldwide, representing more fatalities than war and murder (~1 million),  
73 alcohol use (~2 million), smoking (~7 million), and even severe illnesses such AIDS, malaria,  
74 and tuberculosis (~3 million) (Naidu et al., 2021). The European Union Water Framework  
75 Directive (EU WFD) includes fewer than a hundred chemical substances across two lists for  
76 regulation and/or monitoring: a "priority substances" list of 45 chemicals or chemical groups;  
77 and a "watch list" of 26 chemicals of emerging concern (CECs), which require more urgent  
78 understanding regarding their occurrence, fate and effects across multiple environmental  
79 compartments.

80 Globally, a growing proportion of the human population lives in urban environments  
81 which is expected to reach 68 % by 2050 (European Commission, 2020). Large cities are  
82 particularly complex systems due to the high-density of their resident population, the highly  
83 modified natural environment, and the heavy use of an array of chemical products. In many  
84 countries, the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic led to dramatic large-scale public health interventions  
85 which had a substantial impact on daily life, highlighting the complex interrelations between  
86 natural, chemical and societal systems. Although the surge in global demand for plastic (e.g.,  
87 personal protective equipment) during the pandemic is well documented, such interventions  
88 also resulted in significant changes in the use of a wide range of chemicals (e.g.,  
89 pharmaceuticals), particularly in urban areas. This changing population usage during the  
90 recent pandemic therefore had the potential to modulate the environmental risks of chemicals.  
91 London is the UK's largest city and, given its combined ~8.8 million residential population, its  
92 wider metropolitan area and conurbation, and its well-connected daily commuter belt,  
93 UNESCO ranks it as the third most populous megacity in Europe behind Istanbul and Moscow.  
94 It accounts for >13 % of the UK residential population and therefore its potential for CEC  
95 impacts in the Thames Basin is comparatively much larger than other areas of the country.

96 In 2019, the Environment Agency (EA) reported occurrence of 41 pharmaceuticals and  
97 two lifestyle products in a large-scale study of the R. Thames, from its source to the North Sea,  
98 in 37 samples spanning 33 sites (White et al., 2019) with the urbanised, tidal region within  
99 Central London being the most impacted by CECs. At the same time, the EA has also  
100 pioneered an ambitious programme of semi-quantitative chemical monitoring across England.  
101 Despite these new initiatives, arguably more spatiotemporal resolution is required to  
102 understand CECs and their risks within estuarine urban catchments like London. Firstly, as  
103 waters become saline, the risks of CECs to aquatic life are also predicted to be higher relative  
104 to fresh waters (e.g., predicted no-effect concentrations reported by the Norman Network  
105 Ecotoxicology Database are generally 10-fold lower in marine water), so the footprint of such  
106 a large port city like London demands particular attention. In addition, London's sewer network,  
107 like so many other European cities, is a combined system, with 57 overflow points discharging  
108 >39 million tonnes of raw sewage to the R. Thames annually (Ofwat, 2023). Currently, a major  
109 upgrade to London's sewer system is underway with the construction of a 'Super Sewer' which  
110 aims to reduce pollution in the Thames by >95 %, providing further impetus for obtaining high  
111 resolution baseline data against which projected improvements in water quality can be ground-  
112 truthed.

113 Identification and routine monitoring of so many chemicals is an enormous analytical  
114 challenge, but approaches to rapid monitoring at higher spatiotemporal resolution for larger  
115 numbers of CECs are improving at a rapidly accelerating rate. The vast majority of studies to  
116 date have required sample clean-up and analyte preconcentration to measure concentrations  
117 reliably at the low to sub ng/L concentration range (Menger et al., 2020). However, new direct-  
118 injection liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) and liquid  
119 chromatography-high resolution accurate mass spectrometry methodologies (LC-HRMS) have  
120 emerged, which offer sufficient sensitivity to rapidly identify sources of large numbers of  
121 chemicals in complex environmental samples, such as river water and wastewater (Borrull et  
122 al., 2019; Egli et al., 2021; Ng et al., 2020; Ramos et al., 2017; Rapp-Wright et al., 2023;  
123 Reemtsma et al., 2013). They also bring several additional advantages, including the need for  
124 fewer solvents, reagents and consumables (reducing time and cost), lower sample volume  
125 requirements for analysis and cold storage, and reduced impacts from the selectivity of the  
126 extraction step in limiting the chemical space coverage. Taken together, these advances  
127 represent a step-change with enormous potential to scale up chemical monitoring programmes  
128 over both space and time, to help prioritise CEC risks in the environment far more rapidly and  
129 sustainably than was previously possible.

130 Our central hypothesis was that changing public health, chemical usage and activity during  
131 the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic resulted in a significant change in CECs in urbanised waterways,  
132 using London and the Thames catchment as a case study. Our objectives were: (a) to measure  
133 CECs spatiotemporally in waterways in Greater London in the last quarter of 2019, 2020  
134 (during lockdown) and 2021, using both targeted analysis and suspect screening methods; (b)  
135 determine whether changes in measured environmental concentrations (MECs) between  
136 years were significant and which individual compounds, groups of compounds or classes gave  
137 the strongest signals; (c) to determine whether trends in MECs in rivers for pharmaceuticals  
138 was reflected in regional prescription statistics; (d) to locate likely sources of CECs in the urban  
139 watershed; and (e) to understand what impact changes in MECs had on the environmental  
140 risks of CECs and to prioritise them. To the best of our knowledge, this represents by far the  
141 most comprehensive environmental study of CEC occurrence and distribution in waterways in  
142 any major global city to date. It also acts as an important baseline before the major 'super-  
143 sewer' infrastructure upgrade. Most importantly, it is the first study to focus on how a global  
144 pandemic influenced CEC contamination and risk in urban waterways demonstrating the 'One  
145 Health' approach in practice.

## 146 **2. Materials and methods**

### 147 *2.1 Materials and reagents*

148 HPLC-MS-grade methanol, isopropanol, acetonitrile and formic acid (> 95 %, v/v) were bought  
149 from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Ultrapure water (UP) was generated with a  
150 resistivity of 18.2 mΩ at 25 °C using a Millipore Milli-Q water purification system (Bedford, MA,  
151 USA). A total of 164 reference materials were sourced mostly from Sigma Aldrich (except  
152 trimethoprim, Fluka, Buchs Switzerland) for quantitative analysis and were of 97 % purity or  
153 higher and in three broad classes: pharmaceuticals (n=97), pesticides (n=56) and illicit drugs  
154 (n=11), see the supplementary information for a full list of reference materials. In addition to  
155 this, a further 36 stable isotope-labelled internal standards (ILIS) were purchased from QMX  
156 (Essex, UK) for quality control and for quantification purposes (see SI (S1) for a complete list  
157 of reference materials and ILIS). Several standard mixtures covering all compounds and ILIS  
158 were prepared at 0.1, 0.01 or 0.001 µg/mL in methanol and stored at -20 °C to prevent  
159 degradation. All standards, prepared samples, matrix-matched standards, blanks and controls  
160 were kept in 1.5 mL silanised amber vials (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK). Whatman™  
161 0.2 µm PTFE membrane filters (GE Healthcare Life Science, Little Chalfont, UK) and 1 mL  
162 Plastipak™ syringes (BD, Berkshire, UK) were used for sample pre-filtering after preparation  
163 (i.e., adding appropriate standards and ILIS where necessary) and before LC-MS/MS analysis.

### 164 *2.2 Instrumentation*

165 For all quantitative targeted analysis of trace CECs, a previously published 5.5-minute direct  
166 injection LC-MS/MS analytical method was used employing a Shimadzu LCMS-8060  
167 instrument (Shimadzu Corp., Kyoto, Japan) with just 10 µL injection of the filtered water sample  
168 pre-spiked with ILIS (see Ng et al., (2020) for reference). For a summary of method  
169 performance characteristics, see Table S1. For suspect screening, a similar direct-injection  
170 LC-quadrupole-time-of-flight mass spectrometry (QTOF-MS)-based method was used on a  
171 Shimadzu LCMS-9030 using data-independent analysis (DIA). A slightly larger injection  
172 volume of 40 µL was used to achieve sufficient sensitivity and gradient separations ran over  
173 17.0 minutes. Please see the SI (S2) for more details of both methods.

### 174 *2.3 River water sampling locations and procedures*

175 Building on our previous study of temporal CEC fluxes in the R. Thames in 2014 from CSOs  
176 and wastewater effluents (Munro et al., 2019), we conducted a highly spatially resolved study  
177 of the river in November 2019. Following the onset of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, an additional

178 and unique opportunity arose to study how changing public health, chemical usage and activity  
179 resulted in any significant change in CECs in London's waterways over both space and time.  
180 As a result, we subsequently conducted more extensive sampling campaigns across Quarter  
181 4 in both 2020 and 2021. Across all three years, n=390 samples were taken (Figure 1(a)).  
182 Campaign 1 (2019) focussed on the R. Thames only and comprised 84 samples taken across  
183 29 sites spanning 60 km distance on a single day (27<sup>th</sup> November). Sampling direction was  
184 against the outgoing tide (from Erith in the east to Kingston in the west). Campaign 2 (2020)  
185 ran from 14<sup>th</sup> October to the 17<sup>th</sup> December, covering 14 separate sampling days. Water  
186 samples were collected again from the R. Thames, as well as detailed longitudinal transects  
187 of five auxiliary waterways (n = 133 sites/138 samples) including the Rivers Brent, Hogsmill,  
188 Lee/Lea, Wandle and the Grand Union Canal. Campaign 3 (2021) sampling took place from  
189 5<sup>th</sup> November until 14<sup>th</sup> December, over 15 separate days (total = 150 sites/168 samples).  
190 Several additional single grab samples of other rivers were collected in 2020 and 2021, but  
191 these water bodies were not studied in detailed spatially resolved transects. These included  
192 the R. Crane, Fray's River, Paddington Arm, Pymmes Brook, Slough Arm, R. Lee, Channelsea  
193 River, as well as from the Low Maynard Reservoir near Tottenham Hale, which provides  
194 drinking water to London. In the latter two campaigns, selected sites were visited multiple times  
195 to investigate inter-day variation (see S3 for more details, and Figure S1 for all river locations).

196 Samples were collected in 10 L food-grade buckets each with a 10 m rope attached  
197 (Amazon.com Inc., London, UK). Buckets were cast into the river and sub-samples were taken  
198 in 30 mL Nalgene bottles (Sigma Aldrich, UK). Buckets and sample bottles were pre-washed  
199 with methanol and ultrapure water in the laboratory and rinsed with river water (each three  
200 times) at each site before taking a sample. Samples were taken in the river itself at safely  
201 accessible sites and ~5-10 m from the shoreline, or alternatively from embankments or bridges  
202 (see Table S2 for details for each sample). Sample bottles were stored under ice gel packs  
203 while in transit. The maximum period from sampling to freezing in the laboratory at -20 °C was  
204 8 h (3-4 hours on average) and chemical analysis for each set was all performed within two  
205 weeks of sampling collection.

#### 206 *2.4 Procedures for quantification of target compounds and suspect screening*

207 Quantification was performed using separate external 13-point matrix-matched calibration  
208 curves and quality control (QC) samples at two concentration levels for each river and/or date  
209 of sampling in line with recommendations proposed by Hernández et al. (2023). All MEC  
210 values were derived for each CEC substance in each sample individually and as the average  
211 of triplicate LC-MS/MS runs. Samples from the R. Thames were grouped into multiple river  
212 segments to prepare pooled matrix for separate calibrations. Freshwater sites were quantified  
213 separately from brackish sites. Quantification was performed in the same manner as in  
214 previous work (Egli et al., 2021) and more details including the number, concentrations,  
215 frequency and composition of matrix-matched calibration curves and QCs are provided in the  
216 SI (S3).

217 For suspect screening, Shimadzu Explorer Library Screening software v3.8 SP1 was used  
218 to search a list of n=1,219 compounds, which included the Shimadzu toxicology screening  
219 library, Shimadzu pesticide library and additional in-house reference materials data from  
220 Imperial College London. This library included compound specific retention time ( $t_R$ ), MS1 and  
221 MS2 data and identification included four degrees of confirmation. i.e.,  $t_R \pm 0.5$  min, accurate  
222 m/z 5 ppm of the precursor ion in MS1, at least one fragment in MS2, a library similarity index  
223 >45 and an isotopic distribution score >20. In addition, a threshold of 5,000 minimum peak  
224 height intensity and signal-to-noise (S/N) of  $\geq 3:1$  were used for final shortlisting. Suspect  
225 screening was performed on 10 samples (i.e., two samples from each of five water bodies)  
226 which were selected based on (a) the occurrence of a relatively large number and  
227 concentration of CECs from the R. Brent, R. Hogsmill, R. Wandle, R. Lea and the Grand Union



228 Canal as part of Campaign 3 (2021) measured using targeted LC-MS/MS analysis as well as  
229 (b) a downstream site (see Table S3 for details) on each water body for comparison purposes.  
230 All samples for suspect screening derived from freshwater sites. Assignment of confidence  
231 levels for all compounds was performed as per the Schymanski framework (Schymanski et al.,  
232 2014).

## 233 2.5 Data analysis

234 All graphs were generated using R Studio (Boston, MA, USA, version 1.1.463), Orange  
235 (Bioinformatics Lab at University of Ljubljana, Slovenia, version 3.33.0) and Microsoft Office  
236 (Redmond, WA, USA, version 16.48). All statistical analyses were performed using R Studio.  
237 For comparison with river water measurements, monthly English Prescribing Datasets (EPDs)  
238 released by the National Health Service Business Services Authority (NHSBSA) were  
239 accessed for 2019-2021 (NHS, 2023) and aligned with Clinical Commissioning Groups (CCGs)  
240 whose catchment area overlapped the Greater London catchment area. Prescribed drug  
241 concentration was calculated for all detected substances in g/day using R ([https://www.R-](https://www.R-project.org/)  
242 [project.org/](https://www.R-project.org/) version 3.5.1) by first extracting the quantity (mg) of drug within each medicine  
243 prescribed, then multiplying this value by the number of doses prescribed by each registered  
244 practice within a CCG. This was followed by summing the quantity of prescribed drug across  
245 each of the registered practices. Where the quantity of drug reported for a given medicine  
246 referred to a conjugated form of that drug (e.g., bisoprolol as bisoprolol fumarate) the quantity  
247 of drug in its unconjugated form was calculated by multiplying the quantity by the molecular  
248 weight ratio of drug-to-drug conjugate. The total quantity of each drug prescribed across all  
249 selected CCGs in each month was then converted from mg to g and divided by the  
250 corresponding number of days for that month.

## 251 2.6 Environmental risk assessment (ERA)

252 Risk calculations were based on Equation 1 where MEC is the measured environmental  
253 concentration of a compound from LC-MS/MS analysis (average of triplicate analyses), and  
254  $PNEC_{fw}$  represents the lowest predicted no effect concentration in freshwater of a compound  
255 sourced from the Norman Network Ecotoxicology database as of December 2022.

$$256 \text{ Risk quotient (RQ)} = \frac{\text{MEC}}{\text{PNEC}_{fw}} \quad (1)$$

257 Thresholds for the RQs were aligned with Palma et al. (2014), i.e., high environmental risk was  
258 defined as  $RQ \geq 10.0$ , medium risk as  $1.0 - 10.0$ , low risk as  $0.1 - 1.0$ , and insignificant risk  
259 as  $< 0.1$ . No RQs were calculable for samples taken from the tidal component of the R. Thames  
260 estuary (i.e., brackish water). Interpretation of RQs was performed in two ways including: (a)  
261 the standard approach to classify environmental risk using the largest MEC at a particular site  
262 to calculate the 'worst case scenario' RQ for each compound for the Greater London  
263 catchment overall, a specific water body or timeframe; and (b) the average of all RQs obtained  
264 for each substance at all sites in the Greater London area, water body or specific timeframe  
265 to understand the spatial risks more generally, including its broad scale and variation across  
266 sites ( $RQ=0$  assumed for instances of non-detection of a compound). In addition, and for each  
267 specific freshwater site, the total combined risk of the RQs of all compounds was calculated  
268 as the sum ( $\Sigma RQ$ ).

## 269 3. Results and Discussion

### 270 3.1 CEC occurrence summary in Greater London's rivers: spatial patterns

271 Across all 390 samples taken at all sites over the three years (Figure 1(a)), a total of 98  
272 compounds were detected at least once (73 from targeted analysis and 25 additional

273 substances using suspect screening). Of these, 66 compounds were quantifiable (Table S2)  
274 with MECs ranging between 3 ng/L (clopidogrel, an anticoagulant) and 3,326 ng/L (salicylic  
275 acid, a widely used keratolytic treatment and an aspirin metabolite). The mean of the total  
276 combined MECs for all substances quantified at each site across all years was 1,181 ±905  
277 ng/L (ranging from 87 to 5,505 ng/L at each site) and the mean concentration ±standard  
278 deviation for individual CECs was 46 ±86 ng/L. The top five compounds on average were  
279 pharmaceuticals and were highly variable (Figure 1(b)), i.e., salicylic acid (190 ±295 ng/L),  
280 carbamazepine (an antipsychotic/antiepileptic drug at 127 ±109 ng/L), clarithromycin (a  
281 macrolide antibiotic at 122 ±163 ng/L), tramadol (an opioid analgesic at 109 ±84 ng/L), and  
282 diclofenac (a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug at 100 ±88 ng/L). Of these, both diclofenac  
283 and clarithromycin have been included in previous EU WFD Watch Lists with negative  
284 environmental impacts on wildlife reported (Herrero-Villar et al., 2020) and/or promotion of  
285 antimicrobial resistance (Lee et al., 2021; Paulshus et al., 2019). In total, 11 substances had  
286 quantifiable level frequencies >90 %. The top five compounds by frequency were also all  
287 pharmaceuticals or metabolites, i.e., tramadol (positive in 98 % of all 390 samples),  
288 carbamazepine (97 %), venlafaxine (an antidepressant, 95 %), benzoylecgonine (cocaine  
289 metabolite, 95 %) and bisoprolol (a beta-blocker medication, 94 %). Of these, venlafaxine was  
290 recently included in the latest EU WFD Watch List along with its metabolite O-  
291 desmethylenlafaxine (Official Journal of the European Union, 2022).

292 In comparison to other studies of the region for CECs, MECs were relatively similar for  
293 common substances overall, but the spatial resolution achieved was much larger than any  
294 previous study including the EA's semi-quantitative chemical monitoring programme running  
295 since 2005 (Environment Agency, 2022). Within Greater London, LC-MS data exists within this  
296 programme for just 19 sites (Figure S1) and this is insufficient for exact identification of CEC  
297 sources including regular wastewater and storm water discharges and combined sewer  
298 overflows (CSOs). In addition, a 3 % occurrence of sewer misconnections in London is  
299 estimated (Dunk et al., 2008; Ellis and Butler, 2015), but exact knowledge of where these are  
300 located is lacking. Lastly, agricultural and wastewater contamination is also likely carried into  
301 this region from upriver sites. Maximum total MECs from an EA study in 2019 were  
302 approximately double those reported in our work (10.24 µg/L), but the selection of compounds  
303 for monitoring was also somewhat different (19/43 compounds in common (White et al., 2019)).  
304 Within this, sucralose (an artificial sweetener) alone was estimated to constitute between ~13-  
305 33 % of the total CEC concentrations across all samples, but was not monitored herein as it  
306 likely presents a relatively lower risk to aquatic life (despite being a good marker of wastewater  
307 influx (Li et al., 2020)). The number of pharmaceuticals detected in the EA study was almost  
308 double that recently detected in the R. Thames as part of a global assessment of  
309 pharmaceutical contamination in rivers (n=26 detected out of 61 pharmaceuticals monitored  
310 across nine samples with a mean total concentration of 3,661 ng/L) (Wilkinson et al., 2022),  
311 showing again that there was high variation in CEC occurrence depending on where and when  
312 samples are taken and the number of analytes targeted.

### 313 3.2 Chemical signature analysis and identification of major contamination sites

#### 314 3.2.1. Chemical signature analysis from targeted analysis data

315 Several CEC sources were identified and wastewater was identified as the dominant driver.  
316 Hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA) of all MEC data (Figure 2(a)) and across all campaigns  
317 revealed some clear groupings and these were considered in terms of (a) sites and (b) analytes  
318 detected to indicate potential sources of contamination (for full details of HCA for individual  
319 samples and examples of inter-/intra-day MEC variability in each year, see Figures S2 and S3,  
320 respectively). Firstly, in terms of site groupings in HCA, there were two major clusters, i.e.,  
321 those with and without wastewater source contamination. For the former, this was dominated  
322 by sampling sites on tributary rivers downstream of major WWTPs or CSO discharge points

323 and regardless of the year sampled (Figure S1). All nine WWTPs in the London area run at  
324 an average of 96 % of their population equivalent (PE) capacity, which is higher than the UK  
325 average (88 %) (Defra Data Services Platform, 2020) meaning that CSOs are potentially more  
326 likely sources of contamination, especially in smaller waterbodies. For example, a very small  
327 stream, the Beverley Brook, had the highest MECs across the whole study (maximum total  
328 MEC=5,505 ng/L for n=40 CECs) and it is regularly impacted by CSO discharges. Sampling  
329 points at confluences of these heavily impacted tributary rivers with the R. Thames also  
330 clustered together in this grouping and presented consistently higher MECs even than those  
331 at large WWTP discharge points in the estuary itself (e.g., Mogden, Crossness, Beckton,  
332 Riverside and Longreach WWTPs; combined population equivalent (PE): ~8.5 M (Defra,  
333 2020)). The second grouping of sites contained mostly those from the rest of the R. Thames  
334 grouped together with auxiliary bodies that had no obvious wastewater treatment plant effluent  
335 or major CSO activity (i.e., Rivers Brent, Crane, Grand Union Canal, Fray's River, etc.). Some  
336 contamination was still evident in this grouping, but was likely to originate from other sources,  
337 such as surface run-off, leachate, storm/foul sewer misconnections, leakages and potentially  
338 direct dumping of materials.

339 With respect to chemical clustering, two main CEC groupings existed following HCA,  
340 across all data, which enabled further interpretation for elucidating chemical signatures of  
341 wastewater contamination (Figure 3(a)). The first major grouping of 27 compounds  
342 represented signatures of treated wastewater effluent, such as diclofenac, temazepam and  
343 tramadol (Munro et al., 2019). Other compounds within this cluster have been shown to be  
344 removed only in part or not at all during wastewater treatment (e.g., trimethoprim and  
345 carbamazepine) and were more indicative of general wastewater influx (both treated and  
346 untreated). Within the second larger grouping of 39 compounds, 31 were drug-related and  
347 eight were pesticides. Most compounds were generally lower in concentration than those in  
348 the first group and/or detected at lower frequency. However, those CECs measured at higher  
349 concentration in this second grouping were indicative of raw wastewater influx, either from  
350 CSOs, foul sewer misconnections and/or runoff. The most obvious example was salicylic acid,  
351 which has been shown to be efficiently removed during treatment (Camacho-Muñoz et al.,  
352 2012; Martín et al., 2012). Other recognised markers of CSOs included benzoylecgonine,  
353 cocaine, sulfapyridine, bezafibrate, diazepam, caffeine and furosemide, many of which also  
354 fell within this grouping and occurred together with salicylic acid at some sites, especially  
355 where CSOs were more prevalent (e.g., the Beverley Brook and R. Hogsmill sites). However,  
356 sulfapyridine did not follow this trend and lay in the first grouping of 27 compounds.  
357 Additionally, caffeine was not included in the targeted analysis method due to low retention on  
358 the short analytical column. Similarly high-use polar compounds indicative of wastewater  
359 influx, such as metformin, eluted too close to the void and therefore these data were also  
360 excluded.

### 361 3.2.2 Suspect screening for additional substances

362 Based on the criteria set for compound identification, suspect screening of the most impacted  
363 sites in five water bodies each with a sample from a downstream site for comparison resulted  
364 in detection of 32 compounds at Confidence Level 2(a) (Schymanski et al., 2014). Of these,  
365 25 were additional to the targeted analysis using LC-MS/MS (Table S3). All but three  
366 compounds were related to pharmaceuticals, and these were pesticides. Only one compound  
367 was detected in every sample (i.e., amisulpride, an antipsychotic medication). Seven  
368 compounds were transformation products/metabolites, and four of these had their parent  
369 compound present in the same samples detected using either of the two analytical  
370 methodologies (i.e., O-desmethylcitalopram and O-desmethylvenlafaxine, benzoylecgonine  
371 and O-desmethyltramadol). HCA based on the normalised peak areas of all 32 compounds  
372 resulted in clear groupings of samples from the same water body (Figure 2(b)). The R. Lea  
373 samples contained the most compounds (n=32) and at generally higher signal intensity,

374 followed by the R. Hogsmill (n=31), R. Wandle (n=22), Grand Union Canal (n=12) and R. Brent  
375 (n=7). However, as this is a direct-injection LC-HRMS method, the number of compounds  
376 detected is expected to be lower than if pre-concentration was used for samples. Water bodies  
377 showed particularly high intensity signals for lamotrigine, O-desmethylvenlafaxine (also an EU  
378 WFD Watch List pharmaceutical metabolite) and carbamazepine. Suspect screening of the R.  
379 Thames in 2014 identified lamotrigine and carbamazepine as being more prevalent in  
380 wastewater effluent than influent and most of these samples were close to outfalls of major  
381 WWTPs (Munro et al., 2019). Conversely, caffeine and benzoylecgonine were detected in the  
382 R. Brent site, indicating a predominance of untreated wastewater influx, and aligned with  
383 targeted analysis data.

### 384 3.3 Spatiotemporal variation in CECs across the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic

#### 385 3.3.1 Greater London pandemic timeline, population and impact of CSO events

386 The UK entered its first national lockdown on 23<sup>rd</sup> March 2020 for four months (Brown and  
387 Kirk-Wade, 2021) when non-essential business was closed and strict public restrictions were  
388 applied. A second national lockdown occurred in November 2020. In the 2021 census, the  
389 recorded population of Greater London was 8,799,800. London's weekday population was  
390 previously estimated to increase by 20 % over the residential population (~1.8 million people  
391 (London datastore, 2015)), including mainly the commuting workforce. Examination of  
392 measured ammonia concentrations in influent from the largest WWTP (Beckton, which serves  
393 most of Central and East London) revealed a ~15 % population equivalent reduction during  
394 lockdown (Figure S4(a)). In addition, a drop in total journeys within London of ~60 % occurred  
395 between Campaign 1 and 2, and remained ~30 % lower than pre-pandemic levels by  
396 Campaign 3 (Figure S4(b)) (London datastore, 2023). Regional rail statistics indicated that 340  
397 million fewer journeys (>77 %) were made to/from London from April to March 2020-2021  
398 (Office of Rail and Road, 2022, 2021). Therefore, this drop in daily transitory population was  
399 likely to significantly contribute to lower sewer loadings, particularly of pharmaceuticals and  
400 lifestyle chemicals such as illicit drugs.

401 In London, even a small rainfall event can trigger CSOs, but dates and volumes were  
402 not publicly available, only the number of spill hours and duration. Rainfall (Table S4)  
403 compared across each of the last three months of each year (Q4) were not statistically different  
404 ( $2.7 \pm 3.8$ ,  $3.0 \pm 6.0$  and  $1.9 \pm 4.5$  mm/day in 2019, 2020 and 2021, respectively). In 2019, where  
405 R. Thames sampling occurred on one single day, no CSOs were reported to fall within 48-h of  
406 samples being taken. In 2020, 11 CSOs occurred from October – December in this region and  
407 of these, only one CSO occurred within 48-hours of sampling (14<sup>th</sup> Nov). No formal R. Thames  
408 CSO notifications existed for 2021.

#### 409 3.3.2 CECs in the R. Thames across the pandemic, from 2019-2021

410 Figure 3 shows spatial CEC occurrence across all locations on the R. Thames by compound  
411 class during lockdown in 2020 (for all years, see Figure S5). For the 64 CECs quantifiable in  
412 the R. Thames, the median and interquartile range of MECs decreased slightly in 2020 during  
413 the SARS-CoV-2 lockdown period (Figure 4), and then returned to statistically higher  
414 concentrations in 2021 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). Relevant river flow data in the non-tidal region at Kingston  
415 were only available for 2019 and 2020 and no significant difference was observed (UK Centre  
416 for Ecology & Hydrology, 2023), respectively (Figure S6). However, a deeper assessment of  
417 MECs by compound class revealed important statistical differences, particularly for  
418 pharmaceuticals. The most significant MEC decreases during the 2020 lockdown period were  
419 attributable to three medicinal compounds: (temazepam - an antidepressant and treated  
420 effluent marker; lidocaine - an anaesthetic and cocaine cutting agent; and clopidrogel - an  
421 antiplatelet medication) and a neonicotinoid insecticide (acetamiprid). Each of these MECs

422 rose again by Campaign 3 in 2021 (Figures 5). There were also significant increases in MECs  
423 just in 2020, including bisoprolol and propranolol (both beta-blockers), bezafibrate (an  
424 antilipemic and CSO marker), diclofenac (a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory and treated  
425 effluent marker), salicylic acid (an analgesic and CSO marker) and cocaine (illicit drug and  
426 also a CSO marker). For all MECs across all years please see Figure S7. Despite matching  
427 the trends in some cases, comparison of MECs across all compounds in the R. Thames across  
428 all three years with NHS prescription data for Greater London revealed no consistent or reliable  
429 associations even for prescription-only medications. This was also the case for illicit drugs like  
430 cocaine and its metabolite benzoylecgonine, whose trends did not match as expected, likely  
431 due to varying and complex sources of direct disposal and wastewater influx points to the river.  
432 Analysis of untreated wastewater influent is currently a better approach to track drug use  
433 trends in a catchment and for epidemiology-type studies (González-Mariño et al., 2020). The  
434 UK Chemicals Investigation Programme (CIP) has provided residue measurements in monthly  
435 grab influent/effluent wastewater and river water samples since 2010 in England and Wales  
436 (UK Water Industry Research, 2022). This dataset unfortunately did not cover contamination  
437 in Greater London waterways comprehensively (data available for just four sites in 2020 and  
438 2021 and mostly for only one to two grab samples per month per site, with mostly fewer than  
439 five analytes each). No CIP data existed for any common pharmaceuticals to this study WWTP  
440 influent to help further interpret trends.

441 The temporal trends for pesticide occurrence were mixed. In contrast to acetamiprid,  
442 imidacloprid MECs increased across the three campaigns. CIP data was available for  
443 wastewater for Mogden WWTP (PE=1.96 million) (Defra Data Services Platform, 2020) in West  
444 London between September 2020 and September 2021 which discharges to the R. Thames.  
445 Imidacloprid concentrations increased in this period (i.e., from 62 ng/L, n=12 from Sept 2020-  
446 June 2021 to 154 ng/L, n=6 in Aug-Sept 2021) which may explain some of this riverine MEC  
447 increase. Across all 390 samples, including auxiliary water bodies, it was quantifiable a total  
448 of 162 times (41 %), despite being banned in the EU/UK for all outdoor use in 2018 (Official  
449 Journal of the European Union, 2018) and along with two other neonicotinoids, thiamethoxam  
450 and clothianidin, due to their toxicity to invertebrates (Goulson, 2013; Official Journal of the  
451 European Union, 2009). Imidacloprid's permitted uses now include indoor  
452 gardening/greenhouses and as a veterinary parasiticide, mainly for companion animals. Other  
453 pesticides such as terbutryn, simazine (both now priority hazardous substances under the EU  
454 WFD) and piperophos were quantified for the first time and in statistically higher concentrations  
455 during the lockdown period than in 2021. Apart from any remaining occurrence from CSOs  
456 that year, it remains unclear why this was the case.

### 457 3.3.3. Comparison with CEC occurrence in tributaries and auxiliary water bodies, 2020-2021

458 To assess changes in these smaller water bodies, we focused only on those where detailed  
459 spatiotemporal data were available (i.e., five auxiliary waterways which had detailed  
460 longitudinal transect sampling performed, as Figure 4). On average, decreased MECs overall  
461 were statistically significant only in the R. Hogsmill ( $p \leq 0.001$ ). This river is heavily impacted  
462 from wastewater influx including a major WWTP discharge site and multiple CSOs. Lower  
463 MECs during lockdown were dominated by lower pharmaceutical contamination ( $p \leq 0.001$ )  
464 overall (Figure S8). It was not possible to distinguish MEC changes overall with respect to  
465 contributions from either CSO or treated wastewater markers, with the exception of a few  
466 individual compounds such as benzoylecgonine and diclofenac. Overall however, MECs in this  
467 river followed NHS prescribed medication trends more than any other river studied (see  
468 Figures S9 and S10). This was likely for several reasons: (a) it received treated effluent from  
469 a major WWTP as well as CSOs within the South London area; (b) it had the lowest recorded  
470 flow of the three wastewater-impacted tributaries and likely resulting in lower dilution ( $1.2 \pm 1.8$   
471  $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$  across 2019-21, Figure S6); and (c) the R. Hogsmill, as well as the R. Wandle and R.  
472 Brent all rise within the Greater London catchment area and therefore are unlikely to be

473 influenced by much transport of chemical residues into the sampling zone from beyond the  
474 city. Regarding increases in some anti-depressant MECs (particularly for amitriptyline and  
475 citalopram), prescriptions for antidepressants have generally increased over recent years, and  
476 monthly data peaked during lockdown periods (The Official Journal of the Royal  
477 Pharmaceutical Society, 2021)). Similar peaks were also recorded during the second and third  
478 lockdowns in December 2020 and January 2021. In addition, in the UK, there are about  
479 600,000 people living with epilepsy (~1 in 100 people) (Epilepsy action, 2019). Young Epilepsy  
480 UK conducted a study with nearly 300 young people whereby 23 % of participants reported  
481 difficulties to access medication during lockdown (Young Epilepsy, 2020). The higher use and  
482 MECs for carbamazepine were consistent with findings of increased seizure occurrence of  
483 epilepsy patients following the pandemic. It is important to highlight the limitations of NHS-  
484 prescribing data that might apply to the time-span of this study: as data originate from  
485 reimbursement claims (e.g., from pharmacies), they do not always perfectly align with the date  
486 of prescription and can differ by several months. Secondly, data represent items prescribed by  
487 practices in England, but these can be dispensed in the wider UK. By extension, if the daily  
488 migrant population resides outside of London, their prescriptions may be dispensed in different  
489 locations that might not be included in the Greater London dataset and the latter was therefore  
490 potentially susceptible to mismatches in space and time during the pandemic. Among the  
491 pesticides, both imidacloprid and terbutryn MECs increased in the R. Hogsmill from 2020-21  
492 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ).

493 Like the R. Hogsmill, changes in MECs in the R. Wandle were also significant for  
494 pharmaceuticals ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) and similar general trends were evident for citalopram, ketamine,  
495 lidocaine, diphenhydramine and carbamazepine (Figure S11). In contrast, significant  
496 decreases in MECs for the sulfonamides and diclofenac occurred in the R. Wandle.  
497 Associations of MECs with NHS data for this river were less obvious. In the R. Lee/Lea, the  
498 only overall statistical changes in MECs by class between 2020-21 were for pesticides (driven  
499 by an increase in atrazine, and a decrease in imidacloprid and terbutryn) and an illicit drug  
500 (cocaine, which increased). At the specific compound level however, statistical MEC changes  
501 were observed in the R. Lee/Lea for several pharmaceuticals too, including atorvastatin,  
502 bezafibrate and salicylic acid (which both increased) and sulfamethoxazole and verapamil  
503 (which decreased). The R. Lea passes through ~50 km of rural area before entering Greater  
504 London and so pandemic impacts within the city itself would be unlikely to be the only source  
505 of such changes. No major changes in MECs for any overall compound class were observed  
506 in either the Grand Union Canal or the R. Brent. Some statistical changes were observed for  
507 individual compounds, but generally concentrations were much lower overall and  $< 50$  ng/L in  
508 total (Figures S13 and S14). Further interpretations of MECs in all rivers studied are given in  
509 S4 in the Supplementary Information.

### 510 3.4 *Environmental risk assessment in freshwaters*

511 Aside from MECs, any changes in environmental risk were evaluated across all 151 freshwater  
512 samples. A total of 21 CECs presented a minimum of 'low risk' at least once (from a total of  
513  $n=963$  instances where RQs were  $\geq 0.1$ ). All remaining substances with RQ  $< 0.1$  were  
514 considered of negligible environmental risk. The risk assessment performed here utilised  
515 PNEC data from the Norman ecotoxicology database. Therefore, RQ calculations may be  
516 subject to change if PNECs either become obsolete or are measured more accurately in the  
517 future. With the benefit of hindsight, a limitation of this study was the lack of inclusion of some  
518 antiviral and antibiotic medications used to treat SARS-CoV-2 in the analytical method to  
519 enable an environmental risk assessment to be performed like in other works (Cappelli et al.,  
520 2022; Domínguez-García et al., 2023; Galani et al., 2021; Kumari and Kumar, 2022;  
521 Reinstadler et al., 2021). However, several monitored substances were used for the treatment  
522 of symptoms, including other antibiotics (e.g., trimethoprim and macrolides), analgesics/anti-  
523 inflammatories (e.g., morphine and ibuprofen) and several treatments to combat

524 depression/anxiety (e.g., benzodiazepines and haloperidol (Almeida et al., 2023; National  
525 Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE), 2023)). In terms of maximum risk across the  
526 whole Greater London catchment, and across all years, the top five compounds were  
527 imidacloprid (RQ=19.6, R. Lea close to a WWTP outlet, 2020), azithromycin (RQ=15.7,  
528 Beverley Brook close to a CSO vent, 2021), diclofenac (RQ=10.5, R. Hogsmill close to a  
529 WWTP outlet, 2020), acetamiprid (RQ=8.0, R. Hogsmill close to the same WWTP outlet, 2020)  
530 and clarithromycin (RQ=5.9, Beverley Brook close to the same CSO vent as for azithromycin,  
531 2021) (Figure 6(a)-(c)). Taking the average RQ calculated for all compounds across all  
532 freshwater sites (setting RQ=0 for cases of non-detection), the same top five compounds were  
533 shortlisted and all peaked in 2020. When examining all calculated RQ data combined across  
534 all 151 samples, no statistical difference was observed between 2020 and 2021 across all  
535 waterways. However, on an individual compound level, some differences were significant  
536 (Figure S15). Among the top five highest risk compounds, significantly higher RQs for  
537 imidacloprid ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) and diclofenac ( $p \leq 0.01$ ) were observed on average during lockdown in  
538 freshwaters. Conversely, lower RQs on average were calculated for azithromycin ( $p \leq 0.01$ ).  
539 Upon closer inspection of multiple sites along the auxiliary waterways (Figure 7), high RQs  
540 were especially associated with WWTP outlets and sites with strong CSO impacts. For the  
541 Grand Union Canal and the R. Brent, clear signals for similarly large sources of wastewater  
542 influx were not apparent (Figure S16).

543 The RQs calculated for imidacloprid were of particular concern. It has also been  
544 detected in aquatic invertebrates and recently high concentrations have been reported in urban  
545 catchments in the UK, despite its agricultural ban (Miller et al., 2021, 2019). Sources of this  
546 compound in domestic wastewater have been ascribed both directly and indirectly to pet  
547 treatment activities, with possible sources including wash-off from pet bathing at home,  
548 washing of owner hands following treatment application, washing of bedding and clothing with  
549 contact to treated animals, direct disposal of litter material to sewerage systems, and surface  
550 run-off to shores (Perkins and Goulson, 2023; Preston-Allen et al., 2023). Despite an estimated  
551 22.1 million pets (10.2 million dogs, 11.1 million cats, 1 million rabbits) living in UK households  
552 (PDSA, 2022), no data is currently available to support anecdotal claims of markedly increased  
553 pet ownership across the pandemic, although the individual rate of treatment of animals has  
554 increased in recent years (PDSA, 2019). For any indoor greenhouse usage, some direct  
555 introduction to wastewater networks seems feasible, but this is considered unlikely to be the  
556 major source in comparison to pet applications.

557 Of the other medium-to-high risk compounds, the decreased risks observed for the two  
558 macrolide antibiotics, azithromycin and clarithromycin, during lockdown were interesting. This  
559 finding was not consistent with other studies which monitored these and other substances  
560 used for SARS-CoV-2 treatment elsewhere (Cappelli et al., 2022; Domínguez-García et al.,  
561 2023; Galani et al., 2021; Kumari and Kumar, 2022; Reinstadler et al., 2021). In the UK, the  
562 use of antimicrobials was especially high in hospitalised SARS-CoV-2 patients to treat  
563 secondary or co-infections (Russell et al., 2021) and also in dental treatment, but, perhaps  
564 surprisingly, not in general healthcare practice in London (Palmer and Seoudi, 2021). As a  
565 possible explanation or the latter it has been suggested that 'social distancing' and home  
566 working reduced transmissibility of other infectious diseases and that this was evident also in  
567 the number of emergency room presentations and (remote) consultations with general  
568 practitioners in London during lockdowns (Zhu et al., 2021). However, prescribing remained  
569 lower even after restrictions were relaxed and the evaluation of clinical outcomes regarding  
570 infections, hospital admissions and deaths due to potential delayed treatment is needed. NHS  
571 prescribing data for both clarithromycin and azithromycin decreased generally across Greater  
572 London to its lowest level in 2020 over the period studied (Figure S9). Diclofenac has been the  
573 focus of many published environmental occurrence studies (Sathishkumar et al., 2020),  
574 including in the UK for nearly two decades (Ashton et al., 2004; Johnson et al., 2007; White et  
575 al., 2019). It can be harmful to aquatic organisms and has proposed environmental quality

576 standards (EQS) of 100 ng/L and 10 ng/L for freshwater and saltwater, respectively. Using the  
577 freshwater EQS alone, MECs here were higher than this in 31 % of all samples taken in the  
578 catchment (i.e., 109 of 351 samples where diclofenac was quantifiable). The MECs for some  
579 antidepressants and antipsychotics in freshwaters resulted in potential risks to aquatic life. For  
580 the serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) for example, 18 samples yielded RQs>1.0 for  
581 citalopram (maximum RQ =1.7 in the Beverley Brook near a CSO vent, of n=127 MECs) and  
582 10 for sertraline (maximum RQ = 7.0 in the R. Hogsmill at a WWTP outfall) even though  
583 detection frequency was low for this compound. There has been an increasing focus on these  
584 compounds and their varied effects on aquatic life, including reduced locomotion, feeding, and  
585 decreased body size in fish (Bertram et al., 2018; Kellner et al., 2018; Ziegler et al., 2020) and  
586 premature larval release in freshwater mussels (Hazelton et al., 2013). Recent work in our  
587 group showed that citalopram and sertraline both represented the highest single-contaminant  
588 concentrations measured in the mudsnail *Peringia ulvae* sampled downstream of an urban  
589 WWTP in the UK (Miller et al., 2021). Other antidepressants amitriptyline and venlafaxine  
590 showed a maximum RQ of 0.8 and 0.4, showing that they still both posed low risks overall  
591 despite an increase in prescriptions in Greater London across the pandemic. Lastly, thousands  
592 of houseboats are moored across the entire catchment and such sites generally showed few  
593 obviously increased risks. However, a cluster of houseboats existed at one particular site on  
594 the R. Brent downstream of the confluence with the canal and which coincided with a relatively  
595 larger risk in lockdown in 2020 (Figure S16). A CSO located nearby however could be the  
596 source given the similar general chemical signature obtained. On the R. Thames a similar  
597 cluster of houseboats and a CSO were located near Twickenham and Teddington Lock (Figure  
598 3) with higher MECs for analgesics and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) again  
599 during lockdown in 2020, but RQs could not be reliably calculated due to its brackish nature.  
600 Boat owners are legally required to dispose of onboard waste through approved services (Port  
601 of London Authority, 2014) and, despite these two instances, this source of CEC exposure was  
602 considered minor overall. Further interpretation of risks from specific compounds are given in  
603 S4.

604



605 **5. Conclusion**

606 Large-scale watercourse monitoring at exceptionally high spatial resolution in the Greater  
 607 London area across the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic resulted in detection of 98 CECs, with two-  
 608 thirds of these being quantifiable. In the R. Thames, pharmaceutical MECs decreased  
 609 significantly during the 2020 lockdown period, with riverine concentrations exceeding pre-  
 610 pandemic levels the following year. Potential reasons for this include a large reduction (by >77  
 611 %) in daily migration to and from the city during lockdowns, as well as reduced movement  
 612 within the city itself (by >60 %), which was also reflected in reduced ammonia measurements  
 613 in WWTP influent. The chemical signatures of treated wastewater (34 compounds) and  
 614 CSOs/raw wastewater discharges (27 compounds) were differentiable using HCA, with the  
 615 Beverley Brook and the River Hogsmill being the most impacted sites by both wastewater  
 616 source types overall. For R. Hogsmill in particular, temporal trends in MECs reflected NHS  
 617 prescribing data, including for substances used to treat the symptoms of SARS-CoV-2 (e.g.,  
 618 anti-inflammatories, analgesics and antibiotics). Antiviral drugs were not included in the study.  
 619 Daily prescribed mass of antidepressant and antipsychotic medications in Greater London rose  
 620 across the pandemic, but only some of these were represented in matched trends in riverine  
 621 MECs, likely as a result of extensive metabolism. These generally represented low-  
 622 insignificant risk to aquatic life, except for two SSRIs and one antipsychotic (citalopram,  
 623 sertraline and clozapine, where RQs lay between 1.0 and 10 (i.e., moderate risk)). Of all CECs  
 624 measured in freshwaters, high risk to aquatic life was evident, in decreasing order, for  
 625 imidacloprid, azithromycin and diclofenac (all RQs  $\geq 10$ ). This study delivers a foundational  
 626 baseline to assess not just the historical impact of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic in near real-  
 627 time, but also to gauge future changes in their occurrence and sources at high spatiotemporal  
 628 resolution, including the impacts of a major sewer upgrade in London that is planned to reduce  
 629 aquatic wastewater pollution by 95 %.

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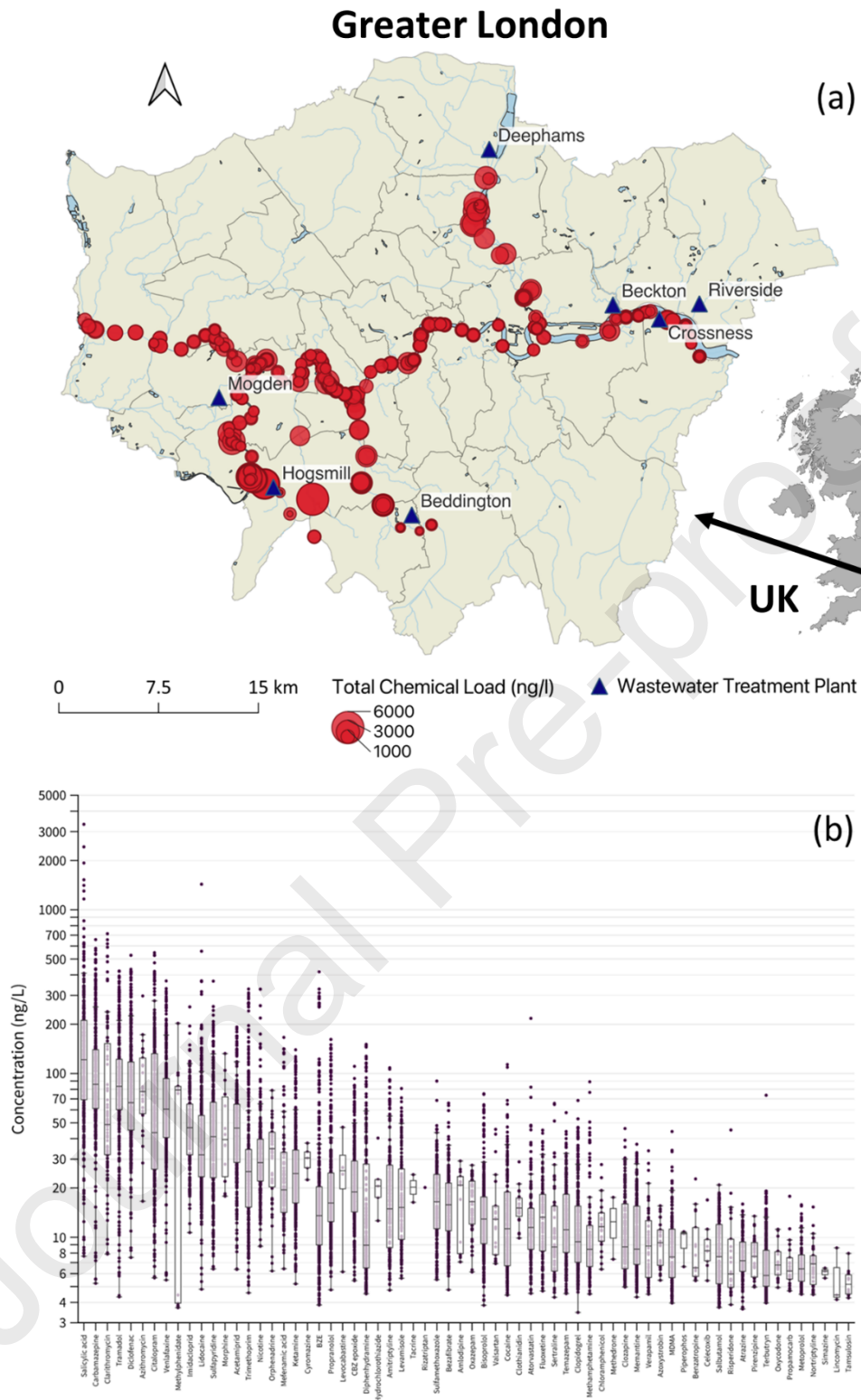
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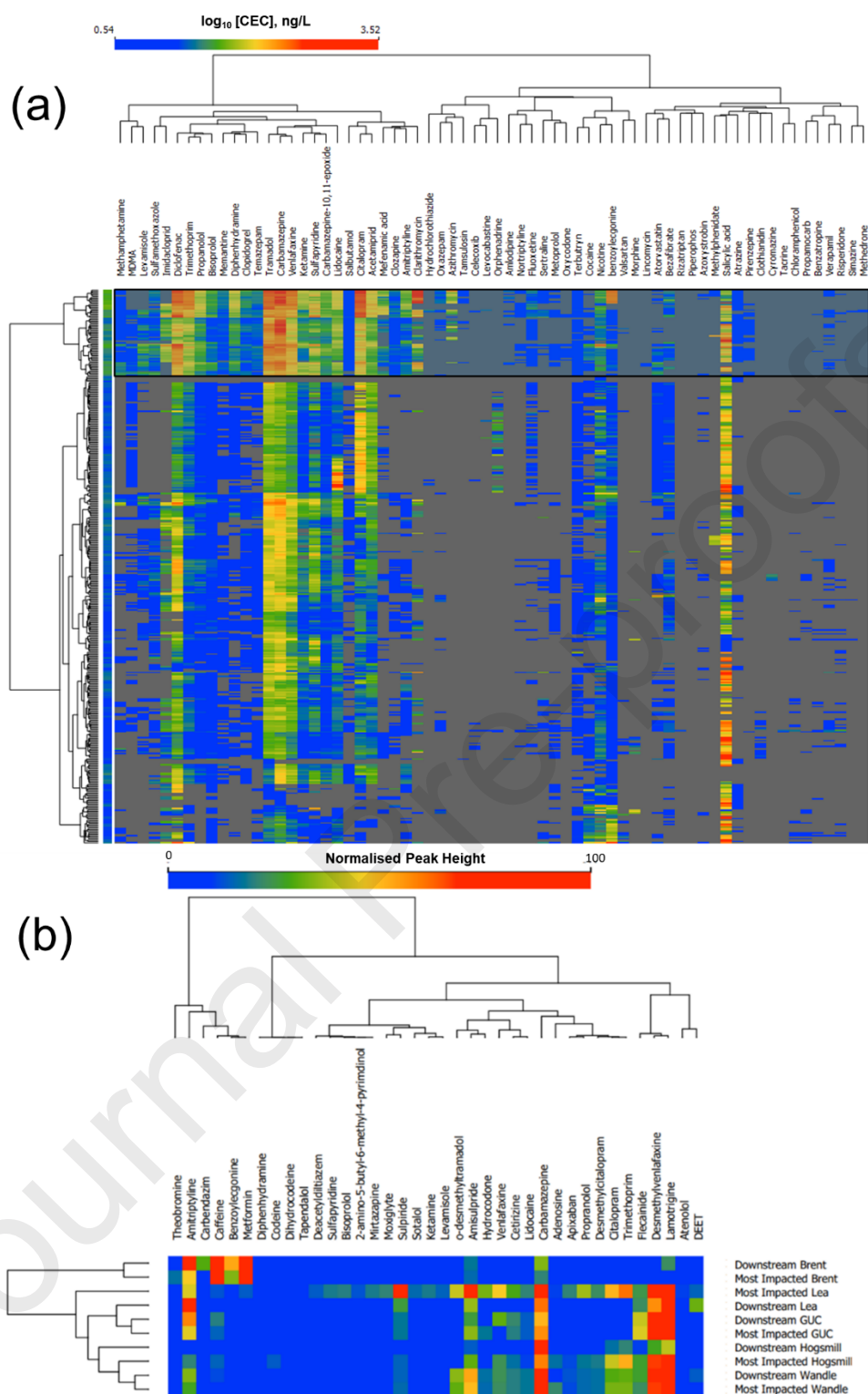
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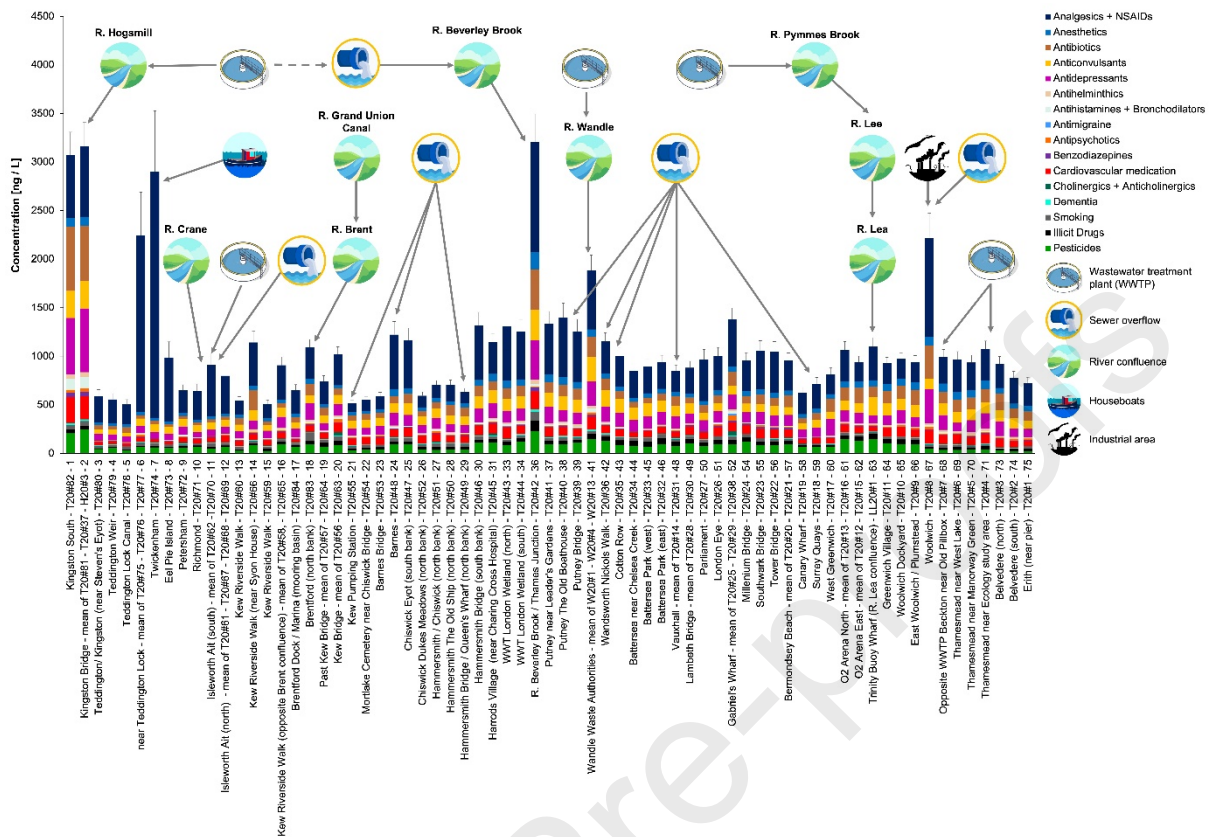
998 **Figure 1.** (a) Cumulative MECs at each site monitored in Greater London, UK, 2019-2021 (size of  
 999 the red circles denote relative total chemical load and triangles represent locations of major  
 1000 WWTPs); and (b) box plot of ranked individual chemical MECs by average and interquartile range  
 1001 in the Greater London area, 2019-2021. Locations of all relevant waterbodies are given in Figure  
 1002 S1.



1004

1005 Figure 2. (a) HCA for all 66 MECs across all 390 water samples (data is  $\log_{10}$  transformed). The  
 1006 black box in the top section highlights clustered samples that were predominantly impacted by  
 1007 wastewater sources. Average MEC at each site is shown in the first coloured column. Individual  
 1008 sample identifier details in HCA are given in Figure S2; (b) HCA of suspect screening data for the  
 1009 most impacted site on five water bodies tested and downstream sites for comparison. Peak area  
 1010 data normalised between 1-100 by compound at each site. No k-means clustering was applied.

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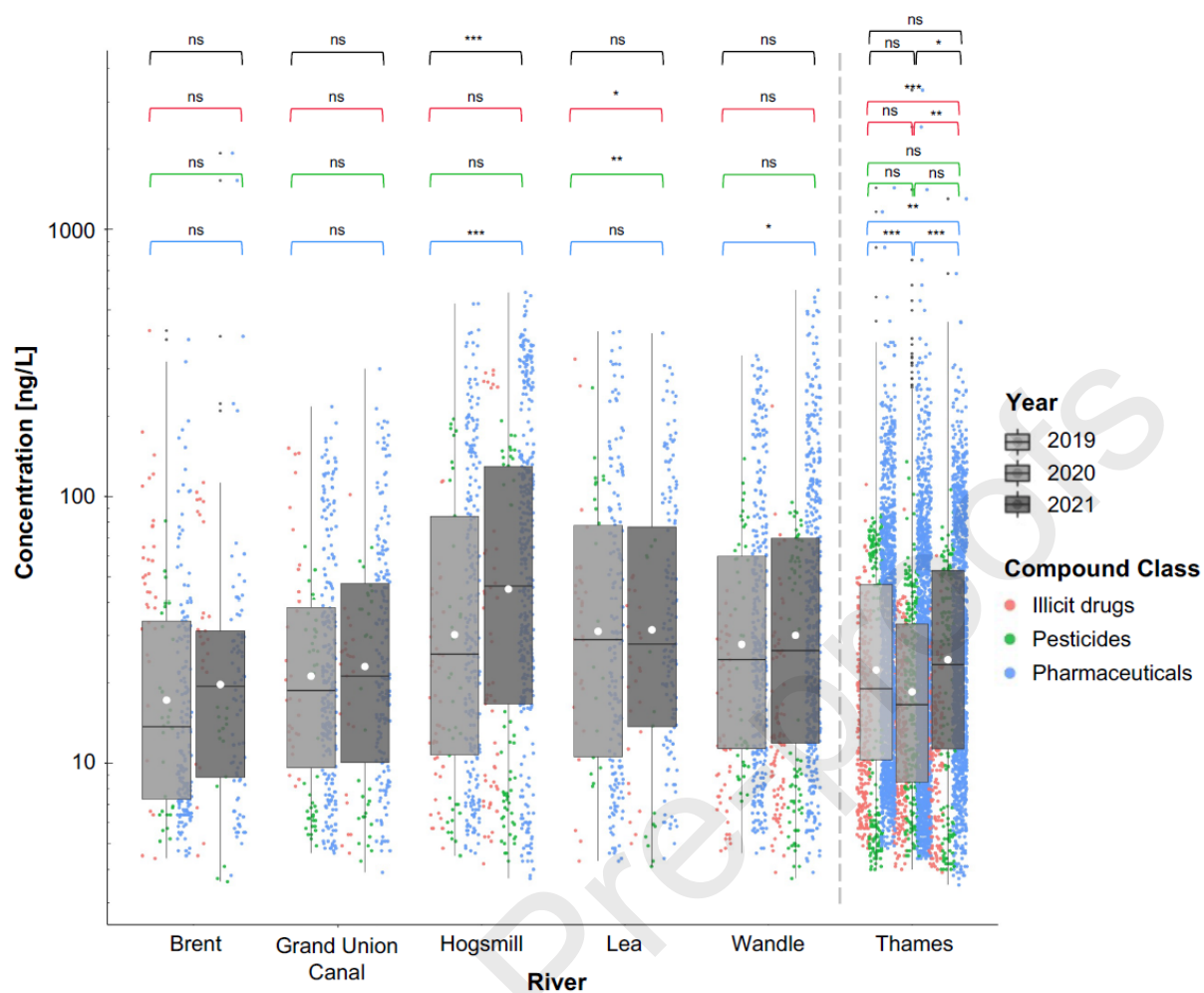


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1014 **Figure 3.** Cumulative CEC MECs across all locations monitored along the R. Thames during  
 1015 lockdown from October to December 2020, and proximity to potential contamination sources and  
 1016 confluences with other watercourses. Arrows represent connectivity between sources and/or  
 1017 discharge sites on the river. Each sample is annotated with its corresponding sample code and  
 1018 bars are sub divided into CEC class. Similar plots for sampling campaigns 2019 and 2021 across  
 1019 all 75 locations along the R. Thames are shown in the SI, as Figure S5.

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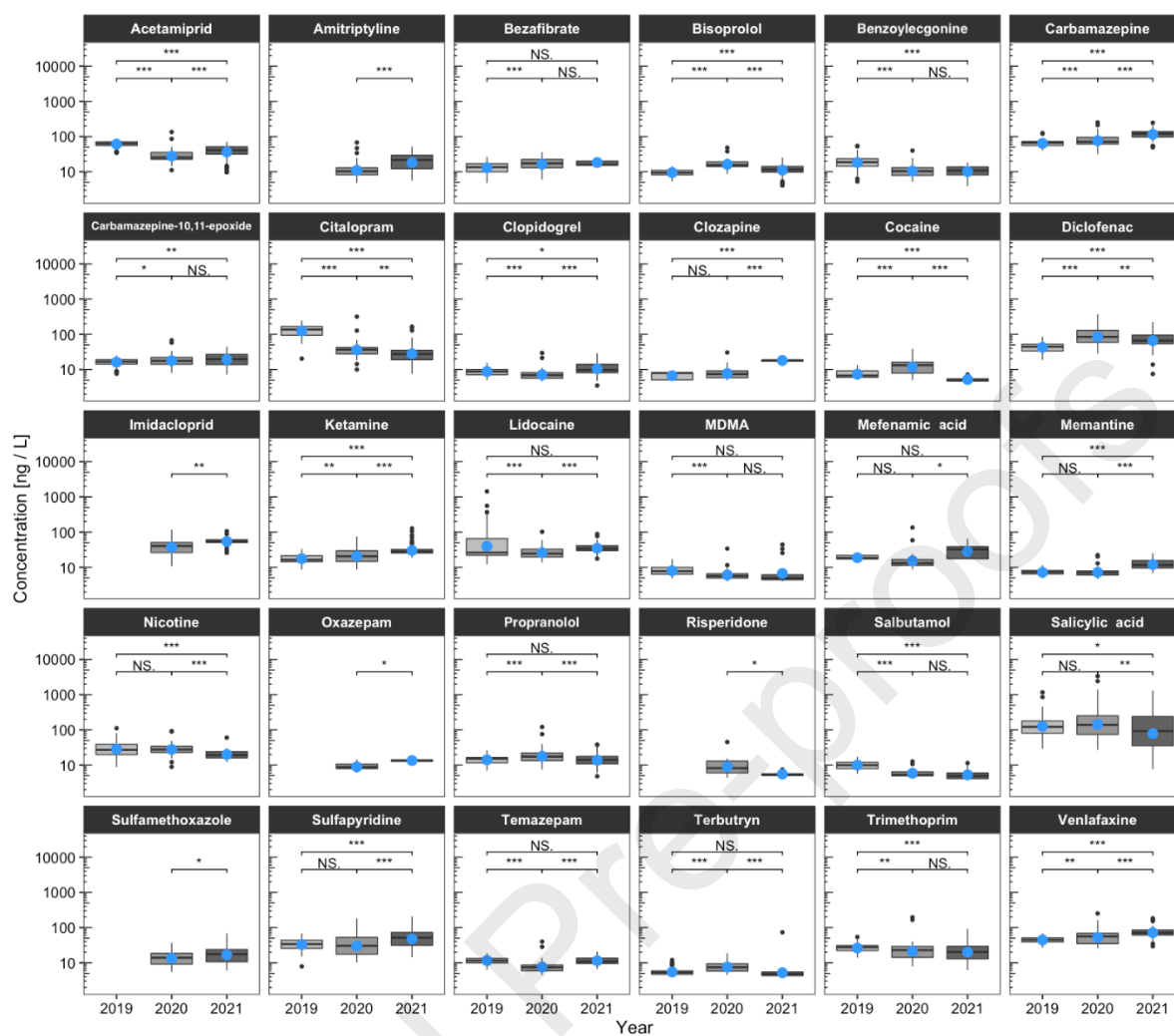


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1024 **Figure 4.** Changes in CEC concentrations by class for selected river catchments across the SARS-  
 1025 CoV-2 pandemic. Sampling on auxiliary waterways only occurred in 2020 and 2021. Statistical  
 1026 significance is represented as \*, \*\*, and \*\*\*, as  $p \leq 0.05$ ,  $\leq 0.01$  and  $\leq 0.001$ , respectively (ns = not  
 1027 statistically different, significance notation in black is for the combined dataset). All individual CEC  
 1028 measurements are given in Table S2.

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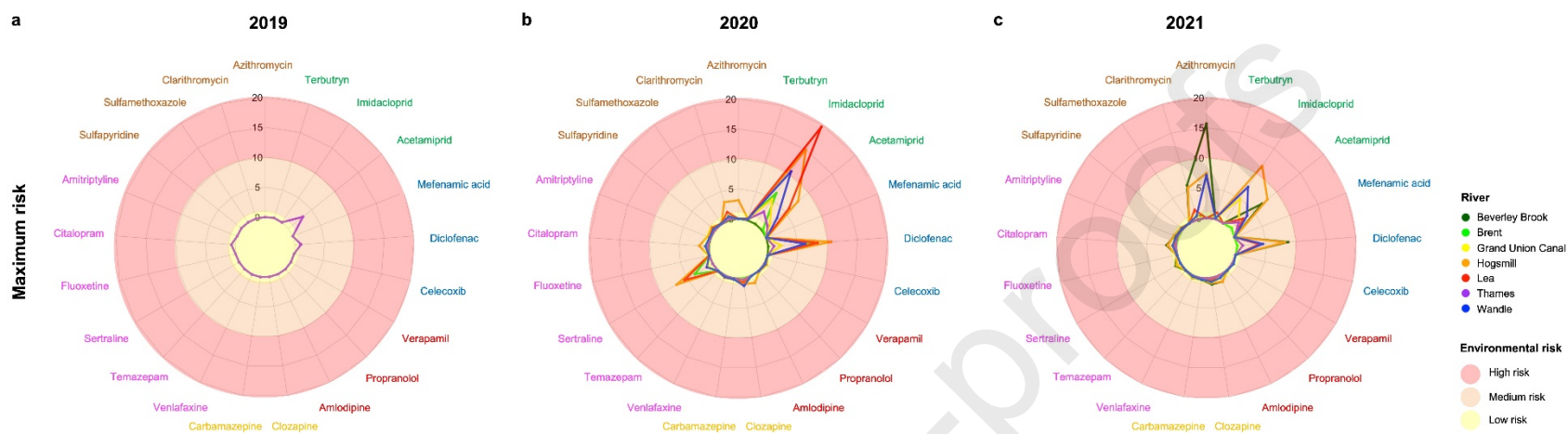


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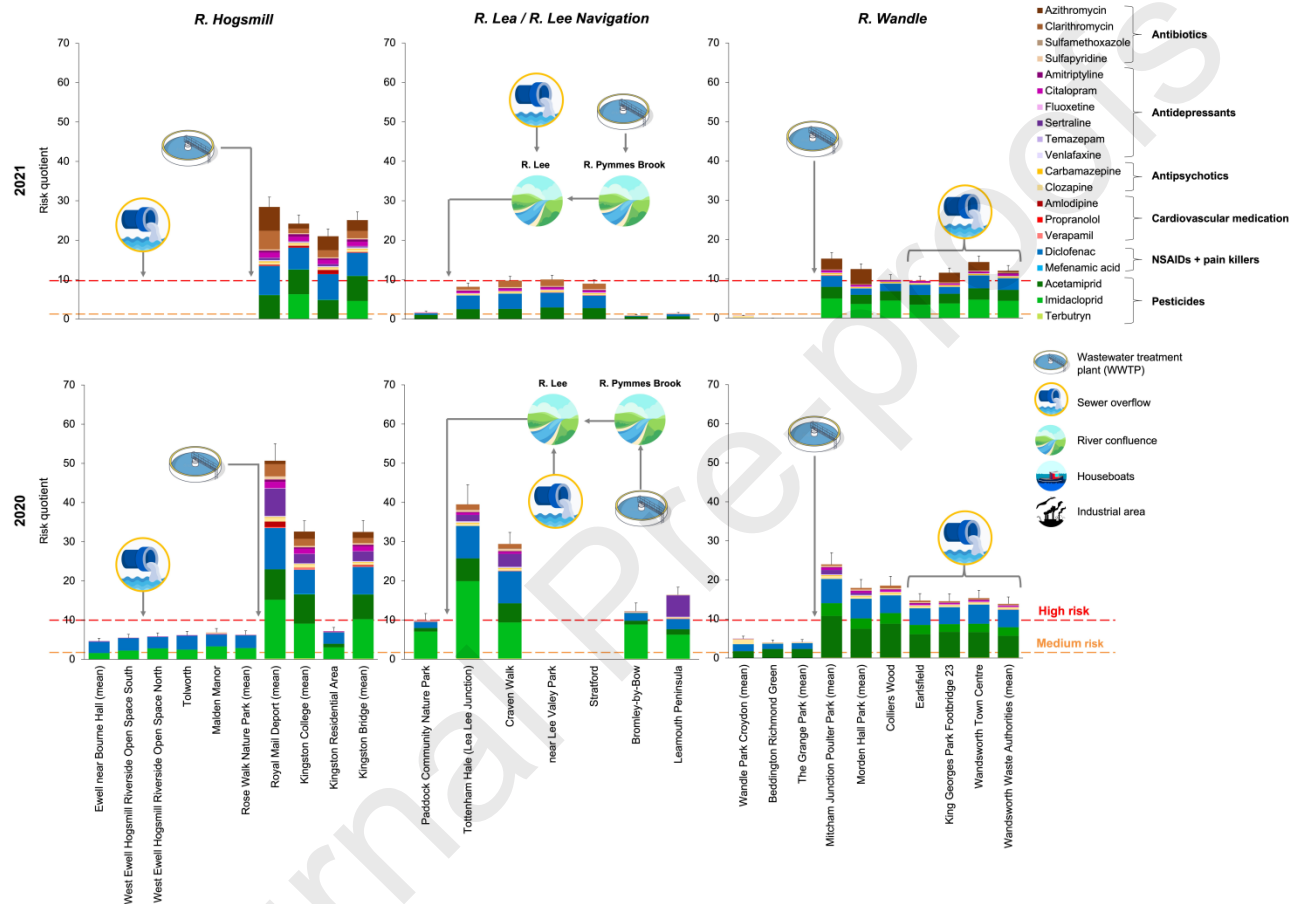
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1032 **Figure 5.** Box plots showing the significant changes in MECs in the R. Thames, 2019-2021. Boxes  
 1033 represent the interquartile range of all data for that year from the longitudinal transect sampling,  
 1034 whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup>-95<sup>th</sup> centile, black dots represent outliers, black lines represent the  
 1035 median and blue dots represent the mean. Statistical differences marked with \*, \*\*, and \*\*\*  
 1036 represent  $p \leq 0.05$ , 0.01 and 0.001 respectively and NS is non-significant. Where boxes do not exist  
 1037 for selected compounds in any year, this means that substance was not detected but samples were  
 1038 analysed. Box plots for all 64 CECs quantified over this period in the R. Thames specifically are  
 1039 given in Figure S7.

1040



**Figure 6.** Risk assessment of 21 compounds with  $RQ \geq 0.1$  (using the highest MEC measured on that water body) in 2019 (a), 2020 (during lockdown) (b) and 2021 (c). Compounds (and rivers) carrying compounds where  $RQs < 0.1$  were excluded. For 2019,  $RQ$  data only represents freshwater samples from the R. Thames (no other rivers sampled that year). Compounds are grouped in colour-coded substance types, i.e., brown for antibiotics, pink for antidepressants, yellow for antipsychotics, red for cardiovascular medication, blue for NSAIDs and analgesics, and green for pesticides. Similar spider charts using average risk are shown in Figure S16 and all  $RQ$  data is given in Table S5.



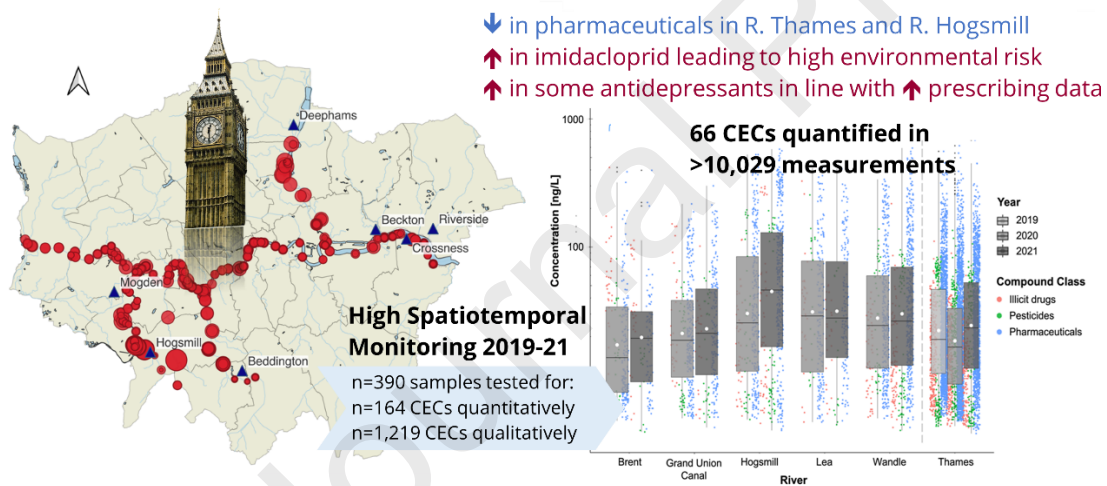
**Figure 7:** Total environmental risk (as  $\Sigma RQ$ ) for all CECs monitored at individual sites on three selected wastewater-impacted tributaries in 2020 (during lockdown) and 2021. Potential sources are indicated with respective icons (e.g., WWTP, sewer/storm overflow, clusters of houseboat moorings and industrial areas). Thresholds for high and medium risk (as the risk quotient, RQ) are indicated at  $RQ \geq 1$  (medium risk) and  $\geq 10$  (high risk threshold), respectively. Where replicate samples exist for overlapping sites, the mean MEC has been taken. Error bars represent the standard deviation.



## Highlights

- 98 contaminants of emerging concern detected in London's rivers (2019–21)
- Lower pharmaceutical concentrations during lockdown in Rivers Hogsmill and Thames
- 21 compounds had risk quotients >0.1 in seven of 14 water bodies tested
- Imidacloprid of highest and increasing urban risk despite ban in agriculture in 2018
- Low flow, wastewater-impacted waterways at higher risk from CECs

## Graphical Abstract



## Author Agreement Statement

03/08/2023

We the undersigned declare that this manuscript is original, has not been published before and is not currently being considered for publication elsewhere.

We confirm that the manuscript has been read and approved by all named authors and that there are no other persons who satisfied the criteria for authorship but are not listed. We further confirm that the order of authors listed in the manuscript has been approved by all of us.

We understand that the Corresponding Author is the sole contact for the Editorial process. He is responsible for communicating with the other authors about progress, submissions of revisions and final approval of proofs.

Signed by all authors as follows:

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- Helena Rapp Wright
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#### Declaration of interests

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Leon Barron reports financial support was provided by Imperial College London.