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Field application of a novel active-passive sampling technique for the simultaneous measurement of a wide range of contaminants in water

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Field application of a novel active-passive sampling technique for the simultaneous

measurement of a wide range of contaminants in water

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23 ABSTRACT.

24 A first test of the field capabilities of a novel *in situ* sampling technique combining active and 25 passive sampling (APS) was conducted in the sea. The proof-of-concept device uses a pump 26 to draw water into a diffusion cell where dissolved target substances are accumulated onto sorbents which are selective for different classes of contaminants (i.e., metal cations, polar and 27 28 non-polar organic compounds), simultaneously. A controlled laminar flow established in the 29 diffusion cell enables measurements of contaminant concentrations that are fully independent from the hydrodynamic conditions in the bulk solution. APS measurements were consistent 30 31 with those obtained using conventional passive sampling techniques such as organic diffusive 32 gradients in thin films (o-DGT) and silicone rubber (SR) samplers (generally < 40%33 difference), taking into account the prevailing hydrodynamic conditions. The use of 34 performance reference compounds (PRC) for hydrophobic contaminants provided additional information. Field measurements of metal ions in seawater showed large variability due to 35 issues related to the device configuration. An improved field set-up deployed in supplementary 36 37 freshwater mesocosm experiments provided metal speciation data that was consistent with 38 passive sampling measurements (DGT), taking into account the hydrodynamic conditions. 39 Overall, the results indicate that the APS technique provides a promising approach for the 40 determination of a wide range of contaminants simultaneously, and independently from the 41 hydrodynamic conditions in the bulk solution.

42

43 Keywords: Passive sampling; active sampling; DGT; silicone rubber; HLB; seawater

44 1 INTRODUCTION

45 Passive sampling has been increasingly used for monitoring contaminants in water, and several 46 studies have shown its potential for applications in large scale monitoring programmes (Booij 47 et al., 2016; Lohmann et al., 2017; Morin et al., 2012; Poulier et al., 2014). However, concerns 48 remain on the quantitative interpretation of passive sampling measurements due to difficulties 49 in accounting for the impact of environmental factors on the uptake of passive sampling devices 50 (Harman et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2012; Poulier et al., 2014). Passive sampling involves the 51 deployment of in situ devices which accumulate substances dissolved in aqueous media on 52 specific sorbent materials. It is generally assumed in the passive sampling literature that when 53 the system is far from partition equilibrium and when all physicochemical forms of the target 54 analytes are labile on the measurement timescale (i.e., kinetics can be ignored), the 55 accumulation of substances is rate-limited by diffusion across the diffusion layer in solution at the sorbent/medium interface, with thickness δ (Challis et al., 2016; Estoppey et al., 2014; 56 57 Rusina et al., 2010). Hydrodynamic conditions in the bulk medium have a strong impact on δ , 58 and as a consequence, also on the uptake rate of passive sampling devices (unless additional 59 diffusion layers are used to control mass transport to the device - see further in the text). Thus, 60 calibration is needed to estimate the effect of flow rate, as well as the effect of other 61 environmental factors such as temperature, salinity and pH, on the uptake of passive sampling 62 devices.

Calibration procedures usually involve the estimation of the sampling rate (R_s , m³ s⁻¹) of a given passive sampling device, and in the majority of the cases, these procedures are carried out in the laboratory (Estoppey et al., 2019; Harman et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2012); however, the lack of standardised calibration procedures often results in estimations of R_s that vary significantly for the same compound (Challis et al., 2018; Harman et al., 2012; Morin et al., 2012). In addition, unless the experimental conditions used in the calibration exercise match those in the field, measurements are likely to yield to semi-quantitative results at best. Calibrations performed *in situ* may offer a more adequate approach for estimating R_s (Ahrens et al., 2018; Kaserzon et al., 2012; Mazzella et al., 2010), however, field calibrations are rarely performed, and care should be taken to verify that environmental conditions do not significantly differ from those recorded during the calibration exercise.

74 Alternative approaches exist to account for, or reduce, the impact of hydrodynamic 75 conditions on passive sampling measurements. The diffusive gradients in thin films (DGT) 76 technique relies on the use of a diffusive (hydro)gel to control the mass transport of 77 contaminants from the exposure medium to the device (Challis et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2017; 78 Davison and Zhang, 2012). The diffusive gel is placed at the interface between the sorbent and 79 the sampling medium, acting as an additional diffusion layer (of thickness Δg). The basic 80 concept of the DGT technique relies on the assumption that $\Delta g \gg \delta$, and thus, the 81 hydrodynamic conditions in the exposure medium are expected to have a negligible impact on the accumulation process. While this assumption may be satisfied in many aquatic 82 83 environments, in some cases δ may become significant relative to Δg due to poor mixing of the 84 bulk medium, resulting in inaccurate estimations of contaminant concentrations (Challis et al., 85 2016; Uher et al., 2013; Warnken et al., 2006).

86 Hydrophobic contaminants in water are commonly measured using sorbents such as 87 polyethylene (PE) and silicone rubber (SR) (Estoppey et al., 2016; Lohmann et al., 2017; 88 Smedes, 2019). These sorbents can be dosed with performance reference compounds (PRC), 89 which are compounds that have physico-chemical properties similar to those of target 90 substances, and that do not occur in the environment (Huckins et al., 2002). PRC-based 91 methods inherently assume that both the uptake of target substances from the bulk water and the release of PRCs from the sorbent phase follow first order kinetics with the same rate 92 93 constants. On this basis the measured dissipation rate of PRC is used to estimate *in situ* R_s by

means of non-linear least-squares regression analysis (Booij and Smedes, 2010). PRC methods
have also been used for the measurement of polar organic compounds, however, poor results
were obtained due to different uptake and release kinetics observed for these compounds within
the range of sorbents investigated (Buzier et al., 2019; Harman et al., 2012, 2011; Harman and
Booij, 2014; Liu et al., 2013).

99 Recently, a novel active-passive sampling (APS) device was developed for the in situ 100 determination of metal, polar and non-polar compound concentrations in water, simultaneously 101 (Amato et al., 2019, 2018). The proof-of-concept device uses a diffusion cell loaded with three 102 different sorbents to accumulate contaminants with varying physico-chemical properties (e.g., 103 metals, polar and non-polar organic compounds). The diffusion cell is supplied with exposure 104 medium by means of a pump, and a flow meter ensures accurate measurements of flow rates 105 within the diffusion cell. A controlled laminar flow is established within the cell, enabling 106 reliable estimations of δ . This feature allows measurements to be obtained that are fully 107 independent from the hydrodynamic conditions in the bulk exposure medium, and overcomes 108 limitations of conventional passive sampling approaches. In this study, the performance of the 109 APS approach was assessed in the field through the comparison with conventional passive sampling devices, i.e., DGT, organic DGT (o-DGT), and the SR sampler. The benefits and 110 111 limitations of this approach are discussed, and recommendations are provided for the future 112 development of this technique.

113

114 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

115 2.1 Chemicals and reagents

All reagents and solvents were analytical reagent grade or of equivalent analytical purity.
Chelex 100 and acrylamide solution (40%) were purchased from Bio-Rad. Oasis HLB powder
was obtained from Waters (USA). Silicone rubber (SR) sheets (SSP-M823, 250 µm thickness)

119 were purchased from Shielding-solutions (UK). Certified reference standards (CRS) of the 120 polar target analytes (carbamazepine, diuron, isoproturon) and mass labelled analogues 121 (carbamazepine-d2, diuron-d6, isoproturon-d6) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. CRS of 122 the non-polar target compounds (PCBs 28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153 and 180, acenaphthylene (ACY), acenaphthene (ACE), fluorene (FLE), phenanthrene (PHE), anthracene (ANT), 123 124 fluoranthene (FLU), pyrene (PYE), benz[a]anthracene (BaA), chrysene (CHR), 125 benzo[a]pyrene (BaP), benzo[b]fluoranthene (BbF), benzo[k]fluoranthene (BkF), 126 indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene (IDP), dibenz[a,h]anthracene (DBahA), benzo[ghi]perylene (BghiP)) 127 were purchased from LGC Standards (Germany), their mass labelled analogues (13C-PCBs 128 and d-PAHs) from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (UK) and PRCs (biphenyl-d10, PCBs 1, 2, 129 3, 10, 14, 21, 30, 50, 55, 78, 104, 145, and 204) from Dr. Ehrenstorfer (Germany).

130

131 2.2 Active-passive sampling device

132 The APS device consists of a polyether ether ketone (PEEK) diffusion cell (Figure S1 of the 133 Supporting Information (SI)) which features a pump on the inlet, and a flow meter on the outlet 134 (Amato et al., 2019). A two-layer stainless steel filter, containing a mesh of 400 µm followed by a mesh of 120 µm, was connected to the pump to prevent coarse material from entering the 135 136 diffusion cell. During exposure to seawater, biofouling forming on filters was removed weekly. 137 The diffusion cell is comprised of two blocks separated by a 5 mm thick spacer. One block 138 contains two pockets to accommodate a polyacrylamide Chelex binding gel (compartment A1) 139 and an agarose HLB binding gel (compartment A2), respectively, whilst the second block 140 contains a pocket designed to host a SR strip (compartment B) (Figure S1). Chelex and HLB 141 binding gels were topped with a 800 µm thick polyacrylamide and a 750 µm thick agarose 142 diffusive gel, respectively. Finally, the polyacrylamide diffusive gel was topped with a filter membrane (polyethersulfone (PES), 0.45 µm pore size, 100 µm thickness). The procedures 143

used for the preparation, handling and extraction of gels and SR strips are analogous to thoseused for conventional passive sampling techniques and are described in the SI.

146

147 2.3 Field study

148 Field experiments were conducted in the Port of Zeebrugge, on the Belgian coastline of the 149 North Sea. Sampling devices were hung from a floating pontoon at a depth of 0.3 m (Figure 150 S2). DGT and o-DGT devices were loaded on plastic and aluminium holders, respectively, 151 fixed onto the pontoon using plastic ropes. SR sheets were attached to stainless steel bars that 152 were fixed to the pontoon by means of metal chains. APS devices were fixed on the pontoon 153 by means of metal chains, with the diffusion cell held a few centimetres above the water level, 154 and the filter submerged a few centimetres below the water level. For all sampling devices, 155 measurements were performed in triplicate. Details on the preparation and handling of DGT, 156 o-DGT and SR devices are provided in the SI. Sampling devices specifications are reported in 157 Table S1.

APS and passive sampling devices were deployed simultaneously and a range of deployment times were implemented: the HLB sorbent for polar organic compounds was left *in situ* for periods of 6, 8, and 15 days (an additional 3.5 day deployment was performed for the APS device); the SR sorbent for non-polar organic compounds was left for 6 and 30 days; and the Chelex sorbent for metal cations was left *in situ* for 8 and 15 days.

Discrete water samples (DWS) were periodically collected for the determination of
metal and polar organic compounds concentrations, filtered (PES, 0.45 μm) and stored at 4 °C.
Polar organic compound concentrations were determined by liquid-liquid extraction following
procedures adapted from previous work (Amato et al., 2018); to improve detection, the volume
of sample was increased from 5 to 25 mL. Physicochemical parameters of the exposure
medium (pH, conductivity, temperature and oxygen) were monitored throughout each

169 exposure period (Table S2). Details on the analytical methods used for sample preparation and170 analysis are provided in the SI.

171

172 2.4 QA/QC

For each sampling event, one set of passive sampling devices was deployed in water in triplicate, and another set was exposed to the air during installation and retrieval operations and used as field blanks. For the APS device, blanks consisted of unexposed sorbents. Additional information is provided in the SI.

177

178 2.5 Data analysis

Concentrations measured by the DGT, o-DGT, and APS device were estimated assuming a steady-state limiting diffusive flux (here-on simply referred to as steady-state diffusive flux) for the entire duration of the exposure (i.e., at the water/sorbent interface the concentration of the target species in the aqueous medium is zero, there is negligible contribution from the initial transient, and uptake conditions remain far from partition equilibrium). The time-averaged flux measured by the DGT and APS devices can be used to estimate the concentration of free and labile species (mmol dm⁻³) in the bulk medium according to:

186
$$C_{\text{DGT/APS}} = \frac{N(\Delta g + \delta)}{DAt}$$
 [mmol dm⁻³] (1)

187 where *N* (mol) is the moles of substance accumulated on the receiving sorbent phase, δ the 188 thickness of the aqueous diffusion layer at the device/medium interface (m), Δg is the combined 189 thickness of the diffusive gel and filter membrane (when included) (m), *D* the diffusion 190 coefficient (m² s⁻¹) of a given contaminant in the exposure media at a given temperature, *A* 191 (m²) the sampling area of the device, and *t* (s) the duration of the exposure (Davison and Zhang, 192 2012). Diffusion coefficients of metal ions in water and polyacrylamide diffusive gels were 193 obtained from Li and Gregory (1974) and Scally et al. (2006), respectively; diffusion 194 coefficients for organic compounds measured in agarose hydrogels (1.5 % m/v agarose) were obtained from our previous work (Amato et al., 2018), and used as an approximation of 195 196 diffusion coefficients in water. All diffusion coefficients were temperature-corrected (Amato 197 et al., 2018). For DGT measurements of metal cations, δ was assumed to be 200 μ m (Gaulier 198 et al., 2019), whereas for o-DGT measurements of polar organic compound measurements, δ 199 was estimated experimentally (see further in the text). The average thickness of the aqueous 200 diffusion layer $\overline{\delta}$ at the interface of the sorbents loaded in the APS diffusion cell was estimated 201 using

202
$$\bar{\delta} = 1.4327 D^{1/3} d^{1/3} h^{2/3} L^{1/3} \left(\frac{1}{V_f}\right)^{1/3}$$
 [m] (2)

203 where d, h and L are geometric parameters that refer to $\frac{1}{2}$ the width, $\frac{1}{2}$ height, and the length of the exposed area of the sorbent (m), respectively, and v_f is the flow rate (m³ s⁻¹) within the 204 205 diffusion cell (Amato et al., 2019; Tomaszewski et al., 2003). In this study, the average flow rate within the diffusion cell ranged between 7.1 and 7.5 mL s⁻¹ (equivalent to a flow velocity 206 of 7.1-7.5 cm s⁻¹, estimated by dividing the flow rate by the cross-sectional area of the exposure 207 chamber within the diffusion cell; Figure S1), and estimated $\overline{\delta}$ ranged between 71 and 90 µm, 208 209 85 and 98 µm, and 73 and 80 µm, for metals, polar and non-polar organic compounds, 210 respectively.

Non-polar organic compound concentrations measured using the SR sampler were estimated following a method described by Smedes and Booij (2012). According to this method, the fraction of PRC (f) retained in the SR sheet is described by

214
$$f = \frac{N_t}{N_0} = \exp\left(-\frac{B t}{K_{pw} MW^{0.47} m}\right)$$
 (3)

where N_t is the amount of PRC found at the end of the exposure (mol), N_0 is the dosed amount measured in the reference SR sheets (mol), *B* is an empirical constant that depends on the temperature and hydrodynamic conditions in the bulk medium and is proportional to the exposed surface area of the sorbent ($g^{0.47}$ m³ mol^{-0.47} s⁻¹), K_{pw} is the polymer-water partition coefficient (m³ kg⁻¹) (Smedes, 2019), adjusted to salinity according to Jonker and Muijs (2010), and *m* is the mass of polymer sheet (kg). The parameter *B* is estimated by plotting *f* against $K_{pw} MW^{0.47}$ and by fitting data using non- linear least- squares analysis (Booij and Smedes, 2010). Once *B* is estimated, concentrations (C_{SR}) in the bulk medium can be calculated using

223
$$C_{SR} = \frac{N_t}{K_{pw}m\left(1 - \exp\left(-\frac{B t}{K_{pw} MW^{0.47}m}\right)\right)}$$
 [mmol dm⁻³] (4)

PRC were spiked also on SR strips loaded on the APS device, and thus, C_{APS} could be calculated using both Eq.1 and Eq. 4. First-order kinetics were assumed for the estimation of the half-time to equilibrium partition ($\tau_{1/2}$) according to

227
$$\tau_{1/2} = \frac{\ln(2)K_{pw}mMW^{0.47}}{B} = \frac{\ln(2)K_{pw}m\delta}{AD}$$
 [s] (5)

228 All average values are reported with standard error (SE).

229

230 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

231 3.1 Polar organic compounds

232 Concentrations of carbamazepine measured using the APS and o-DGT devices were in good 233 agreement (<15% difference) following deployments of 6 days and 8 days (Table 1). After 15 234 days exposure, extensive damage and loss of diffusive gels (and in some cases also of HLB 235 binding gels) were observed for both APS and o-DGT devices. In contrast, no damage was 236 observed after 4 (performed only for the APS device), 6 and 8 days exposures, suggesting that 237 the loss of diffusive/binding gels was linked to the duration of the exposure to seawater. 238 Previous o-DGT measurements performed in a similar location and using analogous agarose 239 gels (i.e., 1.5% (w/v) agarose) did not show damage or loss of gels after an exposure of 14 days 240 likely because the devices included a protective filter membrane placed on top of the diffusive 241 gel (Guo et al., 2019). A previous study also reported damage to the agarose diffusive gel,

which was attribute to grazing of aquatic insects (Challis et al., 2018). However, it may be
useful to investigate alternative gel materials such as polyacrylamide, which have been seldom
used for measurements of polar organic compounds (Stroski et al., 2018).

245

Table 1. Dissolved organic compound concentrations measured using the APS, o-DGT and discrete water samples (DWS) (mean \pm SE). All measurements were performed in triplicates, except for DWS (*n* = 4 or 5). All concentrations are reported in pmol dm⁻³.

		6 days			8 days			
Substance	APS	o-DGT	DWS	APS	o-DGT	DWS		
Carbamazepine	52.8 ± 1.3	60.3 ± 1.0	39.5 ± 2.4	74.4 ± 6.1	80.8 ± 7.3	52.0 ± 5.8		
Diuron	<3	<16	<15	13.7 ± 1.5	13.5 ± 1.2	<15		
Isoproturon	<2	<8	<7	1.34 ± 0.15	<3	<7		
		6 days			30 days			
Substance	APS-SS	APS-PRC	SR	APS-SS	APS-PRC	SR		
ACY	4.11 ± 0.09	10.4 ± 0.1	12.4 ± 0.3	0.555 ± 0.059	8.16 ± 0.69	5.95 ± 0.22		
ACE	112 ± 3	148 ± 2	183 ± 7	16.1 ± 1.6	90.7 ± 7.7	59.6 ± 0.8		
FLE	32.2 ± 1.4	38.4 ± 0.6	50.8 ± 2.2	4.87 ± 0.39	20.6 ± 1.3	15.2 ± 0.2		
PHE	37.3 ± 3.3	38.4 ± 1.3	48.3 ± 0.3	6.91 ± 0.22	16.9 ± 0.3	12.2 ± 0.4		
ANT	11.4 ±1.7	11.2 ± 1.2	10.9 ± 0.4	1.95 ± 0.09	4.01 ± 0.20	2.83 ± 0.07		
FLU	47.0 ± 2.6	44.7 ± 1.1	61.7 ± 2.4	28.1 ± 0.2	32.4 ± 0.5	32.1 ± 0.5		
PYE	30.3 ± 1.9	28.3 ± 0.1	36.5 ± 1.0	15.9 ± 0.2	16.5 ± 0.3	12.4 ± 0.5		
BaA	2.53 ± 0.15	2.42 ± 0.07	3.67 ± 0.13	1.58 ± 0.05	1.31 ± 0.01	1.25 ± 0.06		
CHR	4.38 ± 0.08	4.20 ± 0.22	6.25 ± 0.56	3.29 ± 0.10	2.74 ± 0.09	3.16 ± 0.05		
BbF	1.09 ± 0.02	1.08 ± 0.07	1.83 ± 0.11	1.01 ± 0.03	0.798 ± 0.010	0.874 ± 0.040		
BkF	<0.45	<0.45	0.537 ± 0.063	0.333 ± 0.015	0.264 ± 0.004	0.362 ± 0.017		
BaP	<0.45	<0.45	0.367 ± 0.017	0.156 ± 0.006	0.125 ± 0.002	0.109 ± 0.007		
IDP	<1.20	<1.20	0.291 ± 0.046	<0.20	<0.20	0.071 ± 0.003		
DBahA	<1.20	<1.20	<0.124	<0.20	<0.20	0.022 ± 0.001		
BghiP	<1.06	<1.06	0.380 ± 0.070	<0.18	<0.18	0.062 ± 0.005		
CB28	<0.25	<0.25	0.047 ± 0.002	0.047 ± 0.000	0.038 ± 0.001	0.035 ± 0.001		
CB52	<0.14	<0.14	0.050 ± 0.003	0.046 ± 0.001	0.038 ± 0.001	0.034 ± 0.001		
CB101	<0.13	<0.13	0.033 ± 0.001	0.028 ± 0.001	0.024 ± 0.001	0.019 ± 0.000		
CB118	<0.41	<0.41	<0.026	<0.07	<0.07	0.009 ± 0.000		
CB153	<0.36	<0.36	0.037 ± 0.001	<0.06	<0.06	0.019 ± 0.001		
CB138	<0.22	<0.22	0.018 ± 0.001	<0.04	<0.04	0.007 ± 0.000		
CB180	3180 <0.38 <0.38		< 0.026	< 0.06	< 0.06	< 0.005		

The uptake of the APS device was linear up to 8 days (Figure S3), and, given the 250 251 identical diffusive gel and the similar amount of sorbent used (i.e., $\Delta g = 750 \,\mu$ m), linear uptake 252 was assumed also for the o-DGT device. This assumption can be made if $\Delta g \gg \delta$. For the APS 253 device, δ was calculated using Eq. 2 (~90 µm). For the o-DGT device, δ was calculated using 254 a method which involves the simultaneous deployment of devices with varying Δg (e.g., 250, 255 500 and 750 µm). According to this method, the reciprocal of the accumulated mass measured 256 after exposure is plotted against Δg , and the x-intercept of the obtained regression curve gives 257 an estimate of δ (Figure S3) (Challis et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2013). The regression analysis 258 provided a δ of 130 µm, which is in the range of δ observed for polar organic compounds under 259 similar hydrodynamic conditions (Challis et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2019), and 260 was about 6 times smaller than the Δg commonly used for standard o-DGT deployments (i.e., 261 750 µm).

262 While carbamazepine concentrations in seawater measured using the APS and the o-263 DGT devices were overall in good agreement, they were consistently greater than 264 concentrations measured in DWS (~30 and ~50% for APS and o-DGT, respectively) (Table 1). 265 Since DWS concentrations represent a measure of all dissolved chemical species of a substance present in the aqueous phase (i.e., the total dissolved fraction), C_{APS} and C_{o-DGT} are expected 266 267 to be $\leq C_{\text{DWS}}$. Overestimation of dissolved concentrations may also be linked to the degradation 268 of the agarose diffusive gel, which may have led to a decrease in Δg , and thus an increase in 269 the accumulation rate (Eq. 1).

Isoproturon concentrations were between LOD and LOQ of the respective methods, except for APS measurements performed for 8 days (Table 1; Table S3). This was due to the larger exposed surface area of the APS sorbent compared to that of the o-DGT $(8.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ and}$ $3.14 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$, respectively; Table S1). Similarly, diuron concentrations were consistently between LOD and LOQ, except for APS and o-DGT exposures of 8 days, which were in strong agreement with each other (Table 1; Table S3). These results overall indicated that the APS
device allows reliable measurements of polar organic compounds. In addition, by removing the
diffusion gel placed on top of the HLB gel, the uptake rate of the APS will increase, thereby
allowing lower detection limits to be achieved while maintaining controlled flow conditions
(Amato et al., 2019).²⁵

280

281 3.2 Non-polar organic compounds

282 3.2.1 PCBs

APS measurements of both PCBs and PAHs were interpreted using two approaches: (i) by 283 284 assuming a steady-state diffusive flux throughout the entire duration of the exposure (Eq. 1), 285 and (ii) by using dissipation rates of PRC from dosed SR sorbents (Eq. 4). After 30 days 286 exposure, all target PCB were detected by both the APS and SR devices, however, CB-118, -138, -153, and -180 were below the LOQ of the APS device (Figure 1A; Table 1; Table S3). 287 This was due to the considerably smaller exposed surface area of the sorbent used in the APS 288 device compared to that used by the SR device $(2.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ and } 7.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 \text{ respectively}; \text{ Table}$ 289 290 S1). For the compounds that exceeded the LOQ, APS-PCB concentrations estimated assuming 291 a steady-state diffusive flux (C_{APS-SS}) were in strong agreement with, but consistently greater 292 (~20%) than concentrations estimated using the PRC approach ($C_{APS-PRC}$) (Figure 1A; Table 293 1). The PRC method allows to estimate concentrations in water irrespective of whether the 294 system is far from, has attained, or is approaching equilibrium (Booij and Smedes, 2010). Thus, 295 the agreement observed between C_{APS-SS} and $C_{APS-PRC}$ indicates that a steady-state diffusive 296 flux existed for essentially the entire duration of the deployment, validating the use of Eq. 1 to 297 estimate PCB concentrations under the experimental conditions used. This was also in agreement with estimations of the linear uptake range obtained based on K_{pw} (Eq. 5), which 298 indicated that the deployment time was $\ll \tau_{1/2}$ (Table S4). APS measurements were also in 299

satisfactory agreement with those obtained using the SR device, i.e., C_{APS-SS}/C_{SR} ratios were between 1.3 and 1.5, and $C_{APS-PRC}/C_{SR}$ were between 1.1 and 1.3, respectively (for $C_{APS} >$ LOQ) (Figure 1).





Figure 1. Comparison between PAH and PCB concentrations in the bulk aqueous medium measured using the APS (C_{APS}) and SR (C_{SR}) devices (mean ± SE). Panels (A) and (B) refer to deployments of 30 and 6 days, respectively. APS concentrations were calculated assuming a

steady-state diffusive flux for the entire duration of the exposure (red circles), and using the
retained fraction of PRC (blue circles). The solid line represents a 1:1 relationship.

310

After 6 days exposure, concentrations of all PCB congeners were below the LOQ (and often also the LOD) of the APS device (Table 1; Table S3). This was due to the very low concentration levels in the water body and the relatively short exposure time, which contributed to the small amount of PCB accumulated on the device. In contrast, due to its considerably larger exposed surface area, CB-28, -52, -101, -138 and -153 concentrations could be quantitatively measured by the SR device $(1.5 \sim 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ pmol dm}^{-3})$.

317

318 3.2.2 PAHs

319 All PAHs were detected after APS and SR deployments of 30 days, although some compounds 320 were < LOQ of the APS device (i.e., IDP, DBahA, BghiP) (Table 1; Table S3). For 321 concentrations that exceeded the LOQ, C_{APS-SS} were in strong agreement with $C_{APS-PRC}$ (< 30%) 322 difference) for compounds that were expected to be far from equilibrium (i.e., $t < \tau_{1/2}$, FLU, 323 PYE, BaA, CHR, BbF, BkF, BaP; Figure 1A, Table S4), whilst $C_{APS-SS} \ll C_{APS-PRC}$ for 324 compounds predicted to have attained equilibrium (i.e., $t > \tau$ for ACY, ACE, FLE, PHE, ANT; Figure 1A; Table S5). This was expected because C_{APS-SS} is calculated based on the assumption 325 326 of steady-state diffusive flux (Eq. 1), which was incorrect for these compounds under the 327 experimental conditions used. A similar trend was observed when comparing APS-SS to SR measurements, with C_{APS-SS} differing from C_{SR} of < 30% for compounds predicted to follow 328 329 steady-state uptake kinetics (except for BaP, 43% difference), and $C_{APS-SS} < \text{or} \ll C_{SR}$ for compounds predicted to have attained equilibrium (Figure 1A, Table S5). In contrast, CAPS-PRC 330 331 were in good agreement with C_{SR} irrespective of whether compounds attained equilibrium or 332 not (< 40% difference, except for ACE) (Figure 1A). This is due to the term 1 − exp $\left(-\frac{Bt}{K_{pw}MW^{0.47}m}\right)$ 333 → 1 for $t \rightarrow \infty$, which reduces Eq. 4 to

334
$$C_{\rm SR} = C_{\rm eq} = \frac{N_t}{K_{pw}m}$$
(mmol dm⁻³) Eq. 6

where C_{eq} corresponds to the equilibrium concentration of the sorbent-partitioning form(s) of the substance in the bulk aqueous medium. $C_{APS-PRC}$ closely approached C_{eq} for compounds that were expected to have attained equilibrium (i.e., $C_{APS-PRC}/C_{eq} = 1.03, 1.03, 1.03, 1.06$ and 1.09 for ACY, ACE, FLE, PHE, and ANT, respectively), consistent with the theory described above. A similar trend was observed for C_{SR} , although C_{SR} appeared to slightly underestimate C_{eq} (i.e., $C_{SR}/C_{eq} = 0.75, 0.59, 0.76, 0.75$ and 0.77 for ACY, ACE, FLE, PHE and ANT, respectively).

342 Measurements performed over a 6 days exposure showed trends similar to those 343 observed for the 30 day exposure (Figure 1; Table 1). PAH concentrations were generally 344 above the LOQ of the APS device, except for BaP, IDP, DBahA and BghiP, whilst for the SR device, all compounds could be quantified. Overall, CAPS-SS were in strong agreement with 345 $C_{\text{APS-PRC}}$ (< 16% difference) except for ACY, which was predicted to have approached 346 347 equilibrium (Figure 1B, Table S5). This was confirmed by the strong agreement between C_{APS} -PRC (10.3 ± 0.1 pmol dm⁻³) and C_{eq} (9.7 ± 0.1 pmol dm⁻³). ACE and PHE were predicted to be 348 in the semi-linear uptake phase towards the end of the exposure (i.e., $\tau_{1/2} \le t \le \tau$; Table S4; 349 Table S5), however, the good agreement between C_{APS-SS} and $C_{APS-PRC}$ suggests that a steady-350 351 state uptake was predominant. In general, APS and SR measurements were also in good agreement, with C_{APS} within 40% of C_{SR} for compounds found at concentrations > LOQ 352 353 (Figure 1B; Table S3), except for ACY, which was predicted to have attained equilibrium 354 (Table S5).

356 *3.3 Metals*

APS metal concentrations were consistently lower than those measured using the DGT device, except for lead and zinc, for the 8 day exposure, and nickel, for the 15 day exposure, respectively (Figure 2A; Table 2). Greater APS concentrations could be due to corrosion of some parts of the stainless steel filters placed at the inlet of the APS device, which may have caused leaching of metal ions resulting in greater diffusive fluxes towards the Chelex binding gel.



Figure 2. Comparison between metal ion concentrations in the bulk aqueous medium derived
from APS and DGT measurements (A) after 8 and 15 days exposure, and (B) with Chelex
binding gels loaded in compartments A1 and A2 of the APS device (7 days exposure) (mean ±
SE). The solid lines represent 1:1 relationships.

Table 2. Dissolved metal concentrations measured using the APS, DGT, and discrete water samples (DWS) (mean ± SE). All measurements were performed in

triplicates, except for APS measurements of 4 hours (n = 2) and DWS (n = 4 or 5). NA = not available. All concentrations are reported in nmol dm⁻³.

370

		Seawater - 8 days	;	S	Seawater - 15 days			Seawater - 7 days		Lal	boratory - 4 h	ours	Fresh	water Mesocosm - 4	4 days
Substance	APS	DGT	DWS	APS	DGT	DWS	APS - A1	APS - A2	DGT	APS - A1	APS - A2	DWS	APS	DGT	DWS
Cd	<0.03	0.05 ± 0.00	<0.22	0.03 ± 0.01	0.10 ± 0.00	<0.22	< 0.03	<0.02	< 0.03	663	707	753 ± 12	4.92 ± 0.12	5.53 ± 0.06	6.86 ± 0.08
Co	0.14 ± 0.13	1.12 ± 0.06	<0.42	0.36 ± 0.17	1.12 ± 0.03	<0.42	0.54 ± 0.38	1.48 ± 0.09	3.48 ± 0.32	1385	1485	1550 ± 16	8.95 ± 0.33	10.8 ± 0.1	16.9 ± 0.3
Cu	1.97 ± 1.11	9.41 ± 0.17	30.2 ± 2.3	2.23 ± 0.75	6.47 ± 0.40	19.3 ± 2.7	0.79 ± 0.64	2.48 ± 0.08	2.55 ± 0.19	259	257	323 ± 2	4.11 ± 0.19	8.88 ± 0.27	50.2 ± 1.9
Mn	21.3 ± 8.2	158 ± 6	183 ± 36	34.6 ± 10.5	148 ± 6	187 ±26	na	na	na	1543	1675	1710 ± 14	13.70 ± 0.41	18.8 ± 0.2	30.4 ± 1.4
Ni	1.41 ± 0.87	5.66 ± 0.11	<0.43	21.3 ± 8.8	6.33 ± 0.20	<0.43	2.73 ± 1.62	7.01 ± 0.36	5.45 ± 0.01	1297	1390	1457 ± 16	8.85 ± 0.27	15.9 ± 0.2	36.6 ± 0.7
Pb	0.13 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.00	<0.12	0.08 ± 0.03	0.08 ± 0.02	<0.12	0.08 ± 0.06	0.05 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.03	71	70	87 ± 3	0.55 ± 0.01	0.59 ± 0.00	5.28 ± 0.02
Zn	82.1 ± 42.2	53.4 ± 0.9	101 ± 26	23.4 ± 5.2	43.0 ± 2.8	100 ± 25	126 ± 43	179 ± 70	847 ± 99	930	1023	1040 ± 7	123 ± 6	118 ± 2	194 ± 4

372 The difference between APS and DGT measurements varied largely among metals, ranging 373 between $\sim 10\%$ and $\sim 500\%$. The reproducibility of APS measurements was surprisingly poor 374 and inconsistent with previous laboratory studies (Amato et al., 2019, 2018), i.e., SE% varied 375 from 39 to 91%, and from 22 to 47%, for deployments of 8 and 15 days, respectively (n = 3). In contrast, SE% for DGT measurements were < 9% (except for Pb for the 15 day deployment, 376 377 SE% = 27%; n = 2 and 3 for 8 day and 15 day measurements, respectively), and overall in good 378 agreement with results from previous measurements performed in this location (Gaulier et al., 379 2019). Dissolved metal concentrations in DWS were generally below the LOQ of the method, 380 except for copper, manganese, and zinc (Table 2). DGT-Cu concentrations were 31 and 34% 381 of dissolved concentrations for 8 and 15 day deployments, respectively. This was in agreement 382 with previous speciation analysis performed in this location (Gaulier et al., 2019), and 383 consistent with the reduced lability of copper due to the presence of relatively strongly 384 complexing organic ligands (Macoustra et al., 2019; Strivens et al., 2020). DGT-Mn and -Zn 385 concentrations were 13~19%, and 47~57% lower than dissolved zinc concentrations measured 386 in DWS, respectively.

387 To investigate potential issues related to the position of the sorbent within the diffusion 388 cell, additional APS measurements were performed by loading Chelex binding gels in 389 compartment A1 as well as A2, and compared to parallel DGT deployments. As previously 390 observed, concentrations measured using compartment A1 were consistently lower than those 391 measured by DGT, and displayed the same large variability (Figure 2B; Table 2). In contrast, 392 measurements performed using compartment A2 were considerably more reproducible for all 393 metals, and the level of agreement between APS and DGT concentrations significantly 394 improved for lead, copper and nickel, with C_{APS}/C_{DGT} ratios of 1.21, 0.97, and 1.29, 395 respectively (Figure 2B; Table 2). This suggested that the field set-up did not allow for accurate 396 measurements using compartment A1; it is unclear how field conditions may have affected the 397 measurement in this specific compartment of the diffusion cell, however, the intense tidal 398 movement in the field may have contributed to the formation of air pockets in the proximity of 399 compartment A1. Also cobalt measurements were more consistent between the two techniques, 400 with a C_{APS}/C_{DGT} ratio of 0.42. Different results were obtained for zinc measurements, i.e., 401 APS concentrations were 5-fold lower than those measured by the DGT technique. C_{APS}/C_{DWS} 402 and $C_{\text{DGT}}/C_{\text{DWS}}$ ratios for zinc were 0.53 and 2.49, respectively. $C_{\text{APS}}/C_{\text{DWS}}$ ratios were in 403 agreement with C_{DGT}/C_{DWS} ratios obtained for the 8 and 15 days exposures (0.53 and 0.43, 404 respectively), suggesting that DGT-Zn measurements in this last comparative test may have 405 not been reliable (i.e., $C_{APS}/C_{DWS} = 2.49$). However, DWS largely varied during the 7-day 406 exposure, and may have not adequately represented the real time-averaged concentrations.

407 Since the set-up used in the field appeared to yield inconsistent APS metal 408 measurements, additional tests were carried out using a custom-made casing consisting of a 409 floating device designed to host the diffusion cell, pump, and flowmeter (Figure S4). First, the 410 APS device was exposed to artificial freshwater (Table S2) for 4 hours under laboratory 411 conditions, and after, directly deployed in an artificial freshwater pond (3500 L) (Table S2) for 412 4 days. One day prior to the test commencement, the exposure media were spiked with a 413 mixture of metals and allowed to equilibrate under gentle stirring. For both tests, diffusive gels 414 were not included in the APS diffusion cell to allow for a more accurate evaluation of the effect 415 of the new set-up on the metal accumulation rate. The results of the laboratory experiment 416 indicated a strong agreement between APS metal concentrations and average dissolved metal 417 concentrations measured using DWS (<20% difference), irrespective of whether the Chelex 418 gel was placed in compartment A1 or A2 (Figure 3A; Table 2). The average accuracies (i.e., 419 $C_{APS}/C_{DWS} \times 100$) were 87 and 92% for measurements performed using compartment A1 and 420 A2, respectively. Since metal measurements performed using this new set-up were satisfactory, 421 the following tests were carried out by loading the Chelex gel in A1 only.



Figure 3. (A) Comparison between APS (n = 2) and DWS (mean ± SE, n = 4) metal ion concentrations measured in the laboratory test (4 hours exposure); (B) comparison between APS, DGT and DWS metal ion concentrations (mean ± SE, n = 3, 3, and 5, respectively) measured in the mesocosm test (4 days exposure). Error bars that are smaller than data points do not appear on graphs. The solid lines represent 1:1 relationships.

428 Metal concentrations measured in the freshwater mesocosm followed the general trend $C_{APS} \le C_{DGT} \le C_{DWS}$ (Figure 3B; Table 2). This was probably due to the presence of relatively 429 high concentrations of DOC (4.54 mg dm⁻³), which likely formed metal complexes that have a 430 431 lower mean diffusion coefficient than that for the free metal ion and/or are partially labile (kinetically controlled contribution) or inert on the DGT timescale ($\left[\Delta g^2/(2D)\right] \approx 900$ s), and, 432 even more so, on the APS timescale ($[\Delta g^2/(2D)] \approx 5$ s). Overall, in the mesocosm experiment 433 434 APS concentrations were consistent with DGT concentrations (<27% difference), except for 435 nickel (44% difference) and copper (54% difference). These results indicate that, with the 436 upgraded APS device, reliable field measurements may be achieved also for metals. For both 437 laboratory and mesocosm tests, the moles of metal accumulated on the APS device were from 438 8 to 16 times greater than those accumulated on the DGT. This indicates that, for a given 439 exposure time, the APS device can achieve much lower detection limits compared to the DGT 440 device (provided that the sorbent is far from approaching equilibrium).

441

442 3.4 Considerations on the use of the APS device

443 The conditions necessary to interpret APS measurements as time-averaged concentrations (i.e., 444 steady-state uptake flux) were verified for deployments of 8 and 30 days for polar organic 445 compounds and PCB, respectively, while for PAHs, the linear uptake range varied based on 446 the compound (and relative K_{ow}). However, longer measurements of polar organic compounds 447 that still fall within the linear uptake range are likely to be feasible (Challis et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2019). Comparisons between APS concentrations measured assuming steady-state 448 449 diffusive flux conditions and using PRCs indicated that, under the experimental conditions 450 used, a simple and reliable approximation of the integrative window can be obtained using Eq. 451 5. This allows to evaluate whether APS measurements can be interpreted as time-averaged concentrations or equilibrium concentrations. Results indicated that (i) for $t < \tau_{1/2}$, C_{APS} -452

453 $_{SS}/C_{APS-PRC} = 1.02 \pm 0.07 \ (n = 19);$ (ii) for $\tau_{1/2} < t < \tau$, $C_{APS-SS}/C_{APS-PRC} = 0.86 \pm 0.10 \ (n = 3);$ 454 (iii) for $t > \tau$, $C_{APS-SS} = C_{APS-PRC} = C_{eq}$ (based on measurements for which concentrations > 455 LOQ). In principle, the same approach could be applied to polar organic compounds. These 456 results indicate that the APS approach overcomes the need to use PRCs, and also diffusive gels 457 (Amato et al., 2019).

458

459 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

460 The APS technique provides a relatively simple and effective method for the reliable 461 interpretation of contaminant concentrations in water irrespective of the hydrodynamic 462 conditions in the bulk exposure medium. Longer exposure times are required to match LOQ of 463 passive sampling devices for monitoring of hydrophobic compounds, however, APS 464 deployments of 30 days are adequate for compliance with water quality guidelines. In addition, 465 increased accumulation and lower LOQ can be achieved by increasing the flow within the cell (i.e., by reducing $\overline{\delta}$) and/or the exposed surface area (obtained upon modification of the 466 467 diffusion cell). Overall, after accounting for the hydrodynamic conditions, the performance of 468 the APS and passive sampling devices were similar, indicating that the APS approach is useful 469 for monitoring a wide range of contaminants simultaneously. In seawater deployments, 470 diffusive gels were used to allow a direct comparison with DGT and o-DGT measurements, 471 however, by excluding diffusion gels from the APS device, the uptake of metals and polar 472 organic compounds will dramatically increase, providing much lower LOQ (as shown in the 473 freshwater mesocosm and laboratory experiments). In addition, when polyacrylamide diffusive 474 gels are used, the interpretation of DGT data requires further considerations for measurements 475 that are made (i) at low ionic strengths typical of freshwaters, where a Donnan potential 476 difference is established between the gel phase and the bulk aqueous medium (Yezek and van Leeuwen, 2005; Yezek et al., 2008), and (ii) in the presence of humic substances which 477

478 accumulate in the gel phase (van der Veeken et al., 2010; van der Veeken and van Leeuwen, 479 2010; van Leeuwen, 2016). In seawater, agarose gels may suffer damage, as observed in this 480 study. Furthermore, DGT measurements performed under relatively low flow conditions may 481 result in increased uncertainty and require additional measurements for estimating δ (Chen et 482 al., 2017). Metal measurements performed in freshwater complexing media (i.e., mesocosm 483 experiment) suggested that the APS device can be useful for dynamic speciation analyses of contaminants in water due to its ability to manipulate δ by controlling the flow within the 484 485 diffusion cell (Amato et al., 2019). This offers the possibility to make speciation measurements 486 over a range of timescales, thereby generating a kinetic spectrum of data that can be interpolated to address questions of bioavailability (van Leeuwen et al., 2005). This feature has 487 488 important implications for environmental risk assessment and merits further investigation.

489

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496

497 Supporting Information

498 Analytical methods; Limits of quantification; Preparation and handling of passive 499 sampling devices and sorbents; additional QA/QC; Figure S1. Schematic drawing of the 500 APS diffusion cell; Figure S2. Picture of the field set-up; Figure S3. Moles of carbamazepine 501 accumulated on the APS device as a function of time and mass of carbamazepine measured on 502 o-DGT binding gels as a function of Δg ; Figure S4. Sketch of the floating device used for the

503	mesocosm experiment; Table S1. Sampling devices specifications; Table S2. Physicochemical
504	parameters of the exposure media; Table S3. Limits of quantification (LOQ) for the different
505	sampling methods; Table S4. Estimations of the linear uptake range; Table S5. Estimations of
506	the time to equilibrium.

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