

Bioconcentration of Organotin Cations during Molting Inhibits *Heterocypris incongruens* Growth

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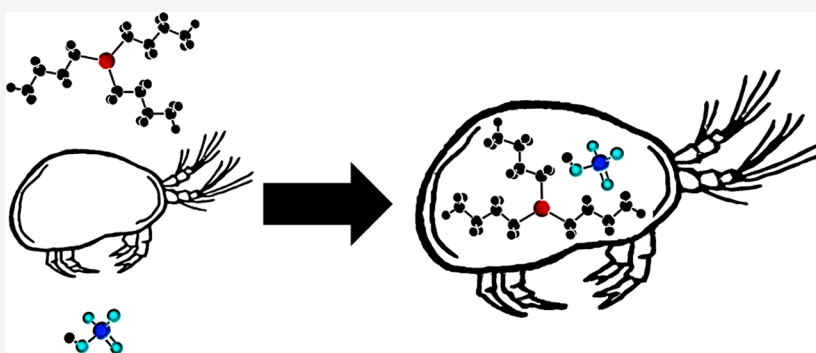
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ABSTRACT: The densely populated North Sea region encompasses catchments of rivers such as Scheldt and Meuse. Herein, agricultural, industrial, and household chemicals are emitted, transported by water, and deposited in sediments, posing ecological risks. Though sediment monitoring is often costly and time-intensive, modeling its toxicity to biota has received little attention. Due to high complexity of interacting variables that induce overall toxicity, monitoring data only sporadically validates current models. Via a range of concepts, we related bio-physicochemical constituents of sediment in Flanders to results from toxicity bioassays performed on the ostracod *Heterocypris incongruens*. Depending on the water body, we explain up to 90% of the variance in *H. incongruens* growth. Though variable across Flanders' main water bodies, organotin cations and ammonia dominate the observed toxicity according to toxic unit (TU) assessments. Approximately 10% relates to testing conditions/setup, species variabilities, incoherently documented pollutant concentrations, and/or bio-physicochemical sediment properties. We elucidated the influence of organotin cations and ammonia relative to other metal(oxides) and biocides. Surprisingly, the tributyltin cation appeared ~1000 times more toxic to *H. incongruens* as compared to "single-substance" bioassays for similar species. We inferred indirect mixture effects between organotin, ammonia, and phosphate. Via chemical speciation calculations, we observed strong physicochemical and biological interactions between phosphate and organotin cations. These interactions enhance bioconcentration and explain the elevated toxicity of organotin cations. Our study aids water managers and policy makers to interpret monitoring data on a mechanistic basis. As sampled sediments differ, future modeling requires more emphasis on characterizing and parametrizing the interactions between bioassay constituents. We envision that this will aid in bridging the gap between testing in the laboratory and field observations.

1. INTRODUCTION

Despite decreasing emissions,^{1,2} persistent chemicals can remain in the aquatic ecosystem for decades (legacy pollutants)³ because they bind physicochemically to sediment.⁴ Changing bio-physicochemical conditions can render pollutants bioavailable again to let them re-initiate adverse effects on aquatic organisms.^{5,6} Thus, sediment "quality" is crucial to the health of an aquatic ecosystem.^{7,8}

As a combination of species from different trophic levels and effect endpoints characterizes an ecosystem's resilience,^{9–11} bioassays/test batteries for daphnia, algae, midge larvae, or bacteria^{12,13} are common to establish a weight of evidence approaches for sediment quality. Toxic effects vary not only

between organisms and life stages^{14,15} but also due to differences in exposure regimes and sediment properties: one can use the solution as extracted from sediment¹⁶ to evaluate "dissolved" contaminants or exposure to whole sediment to elucidate more integrated effects.

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A variety of chemometric methods attempt to explain the observed effects^{17–19} and have shown that toxicity often does not relate to dry weight pollutant concentration.²⁰ Establishing dose–effect relationships with data from field studies is more difficult than that from spiking with single chemicals. Testing may not agree with field observations at all.^{21,22} Many interactions between sediment constituents can attenuate or amplify toxic effects, more so than for surface water, which hampers selection of a proper dose metric.²³ Relations between bioassays and physicochemical constituents of sediment in the field are scarce, and quantitative predictions based thereon are elusive.

Among recent progress,^{24–27} insight into the extent of additional available binding capacity via sediment properties allowed correct identification of toxicity.²⁸ Both the apparent bioavailability and toxicity relate to chemical speciation. Speciation is the quantitative distribution of all chemical forms of a compound over all possible phases, as a function of bio-physicochemical properties of the endemic solution: pH, hardness, redox conditions, and natural catalysts (clays, microorganisms). These factors vary geographically.^{29,30}

The North Sea region has a documented history in pollution linked to industrial (heavy metals, acidification³¹) and agricultural (e.g., eutrophication) activities.^{32–34} An extensive measurement campaign by the Flemish Environmental Agency (VMM)³² has existed in Flanders for approximately 20 years, gathering information on pollutants in 1000+ sampling locations (e.g., metals, polycyclic hydrocarbons), in conjunction with characteristics known to affect speciation/bioavailability. Built hereon, models linked >60% of the observed variance in *Hyalella azteca* mortality bioassays to heavy metals and $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$.³⁵

Given the amount of pollutants and sediments to be evaluated and monitored, bioassay(s) should entail limited redundancy so as to capture the bulk of the potential effects with minimum effort and cost.³⁶ Given their sensitivities, *Chlorella vulgaris*³⁷ and *Ceriodaphnia dubia* may be suitable to evaluate metals,³⁷ whereas *Daphnia magna* and *Raphidocelis subcapitata* may be more applicable to metallic/metal oxide nanomaterials.³⁸ For Flanders, the question would be: which causal relationships between constituents of polluted sediment and ecotoxicological effects allow us to prioritize or complement bioassays?

Ostracod microcrustaceans are keystone meiofauna species in production and community metabolism of micro- or mesocosm freshwater beds.³⁹ Present in diverse freshwater benthic habitats (ponds, lakes) in all continents, ostracods prove to be bioindicators when other species fall short.⁴⁰ Many campaigns entail tests with *Heterocypris incongruens* (seed shrimp).^{41–44} *H. incongruens* is substantially more sensitive than midge larvae⁴⁵ and comparably sensitive (to heavy metals, NH_4^+) with *H. azteca*,⁴¹ but *H. incongruens* growth is particularly sensitive.³⁹ As Flanders is an urbanized coastal (maritime) and agricultural region, concentrations of organotins (antifouling endocrine disruptors)^{46–48} and phosphate^{49,50} could be elevated and particularly relevant for growth.

Given the potentially higher sensitivity of *H. incongruens* growth to sediments in Flanders and its dissimilarity with other bioassays, we set out to build a quantitative model for predicting ostracod growth inhibition. Using extensive monitoring data in Flanders, we accounted for bioavailability and chemical speciation to develop a predictive model based on toxic unit (TU)⁵¹ calculations linking concentration to

effect. We predict ostracod growth inhibition with appreciable certainty, ~90%. Our method underpins that ostracods complement other bioindicators and supplements the existing suite of models.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In the current study, we quantitatively predict the growth inhibition of *H. incongruens* as would be observed when exposed to sediment. As an empirical exercise, we utilized the results from bioassays as obtained from our Flemish VMM monitoring campaign. Bioassays are detailed in Section 2.6 and elsewhere.⁴⁵

Input variables for our predictions were dry weight concentrations of various chemicals. Following a recent study,³⁵ we considered heavy metals, nitrogen, and phosphorus. Given exposure history, we also hypothesized local toxic effects by organotins. As variables, we also used common sediment characteristics: pH, organic carbon, clay, and the nitrogen status. Physicochemical sampling of sediments and analytical methods are detailed in the Supporting Information (Section S0) and elsewhere.^{13,32} We describe the parametrization below (Sections 2.1–2.5).

2.1. Estimation of Ammonia and Phosphate in Sediment. Data on aqueous concentrations of NH_4^+ and $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$ are either scattered, unrepresentative, or their uncertainties are fairly high.^{13,32,35} This is partially due to their high mobilities. Therefore, we estimate H_2PO_4^- and HPO_4^{2-} from the total phosphorus, P_T

$$[\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-]_{\text{sed}} + [\text{HPO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{sed}} = f_p \cdot [P_T]_{\text{sed}} \quad (1)$$

with f being a ratio applied to total P to distinguish for available fractions: a typical natural water body ($P_T \sim 23$ or $\sim 30 \text{ mg/m}^3$) constitutes 3 mg/m^3 soluble $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^- + \text{HPO}_4^{2-}$ and usual $(\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^- + \text{HPO}_4^{2-})/P_T$ ratios of 1:10. Hence, $f_p = 0.1$.⁵²

In turn, we estimate NH_4^+ and NH_3 concentrations from the Kjeldahl nitrogen (KjN) and eq 2

$$[\text{NH}_4^+]_{\text{sed}} + [\text{NH}_3]_{\text{sed}} = f_N \cdot [\text{KjN}]_{\text{sed}} + s \cdot f_N \cdot [\text{KjN}]_{\text{sed}} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{365}d + 65\right) \quad (2)$$

wherein f_N is taken as the fraction of the KjN that is $[\text{NH}_4^+] + [\text{NH}_3]$, taken to be $0.5(\pm 0.1)$.^{53,54} Exclusive for the data in West Flanders ($s = 1$, else $s = 0$), we applied a sinoid term with maximal amplitude (peak) in mid-march ($d = 65$)^{55,56} to account for local seasonal (agricultural) fluctuations^{57,58} (S1). If the data adhering to negative growth inhibition (Section 2.6) did not entail KjN determination, we applied the log-average of samples analyzed throughout Flanders. To prevent bias, we excluded those sediments that we already selected from curation (Section 2.6).

2.2. Bioavailability. Toxicity is most often associated with the fraction of the chemical that is freely bioavailable. Though test vessels contained sediment,^{13,59} we had no information on burrowing behavior. We assumed that all ostracods are exposed to chemicals in the water phase. From our campaign, we obtained only the total sediment concentrations. Since those sediments are applied to the (aqueous) bioassay, we estimate in situ water concentrations from the total in sediment.

We converted sediment (sed) concentrations to water (aq) concentrations via phase partitioning^{60,61}

$$[C_i]_{\text{aq}} = 0.2 \cdot \frac{[C_i]_{\text{sed}}}{1 + K_{\text{SW},\text{local}}} \quad (3)$$

wherein 0.2 represents the sediment to test volume ratio (1:5⁴⁵). Considering that the test medium is prescribed as moderately hard,¹³ we took the value for the solids-to-water partitioning coefficient $K_{\text{SW},\text{local}}$ for $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_3$ and $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$ to be $6.0(\pm 3.0)$ ^{62–65} and 100 L/kg,^{66,67} respectively, for field concentrations^{64–66} representable for Flanders^{13,32,35} and pH = 7.4.

The binding of metals is stronger in sediments with increasing clay and organic carbon (OC),^{68,69} creating a natural “bias”. Thus, we calculated $K_{\text{SW},\text{local}}$ based on %clay and %OC content, analogous to Bruijn and Denneman⁷⁰

$$\log(K_{\text{SW},\text{local},\text{metals}}) = \log(K_{\text{SW}}) - \left[a \cdot \log\left(\frac{5}{\% \text{OC}}\right) + b \cdot \log\left(\frac{11}{\% \text{clay}}\right) \right] \quad (4)$$

wherein we obtained the solid-water partition coefficient (K_{SW}) from the literature,^{60,71,72} representing a mix of speciation states. K_{SW} values were assumed to represent 11% clay and 5% OS.^{13,68} a and b are the concentrations (mg/kg dissolved substances) of metals per %clay and %OS, respectively, based on (log–log) multiple linear regression (MLR) for the entire VMM (Flanders) data set ($N = 1762$):

$$\log([C_i]_{\text{sed},\text{metals}}) = a \cdot \log(\% \text{OS}) + b \cdot \log(\% \text{clay}) \quad (5)$$

Considering their hydrophobicity, we estimated $K_{\text{SW},\text{local}}$ for organotins from their organic carbon partition coefficients (K_{OC}) and the %OC content (varying $10 \gtrsim \% \text{OC} \gtrsim 0.1$ ^{13,32}):

$$K_{\text{SW},\text{local},\text{organotins}} = K_{\text{OC}} \cdot \frac{\% \text{OC}}{100} \quad (6)$$

Sediment and biota affect the in situ ionic composition of the medium,^{73,74} though the influence of salinity^{75,76} on organotin sorption is conflicting (salting out vs. cation exchange). We also lacked information on the relevant OC type.⁷⁵ Hence, we did not consider influences of salinity and pH on K_{OC} . Instead, we applied log-normal averages for K_{OC} values reported for fresh and marine sediments (Table 1).

2.3. Speciation. Toxicity is often the result of a specific speciation state of a chemical; heavy metals, organotins, phosphate, and ammonia are subject to adopt different speciation. Thus, we describe explicitly the influence of the (bio)chemical properties of the endemic solution.

Phosphate may act both as a toxicant⁴⁹ and a nutrient,⁵⁰ whereas organotins and ammonium are toxicants. Prominently, the fraction of nonionized ammonium often relates to observed toxicity.⁷⁷ The species (de)protonate according to

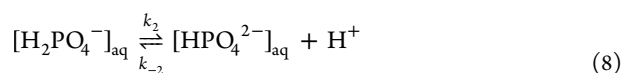
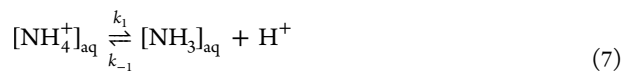
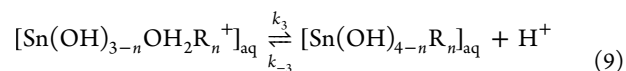


Table 1. Sorption Equilibrium Partitioning Coefficients

chemical	log K_{OC} ⁷⁵	log K_{SW}	ref
tetrabutyltin	5.5(±0.1)	4.2(±0.1) ^a	75
tributyltin	5.3(±0.1)	4.0(±0.1) ^a	75
dibutyltin	5.2(±0.2)	3.9(±0.2) ^a	75
monobutyltin	5.0(±0.2)	3.7(±0.2) ^a	75
triphenyltin	4.9(±0.1)	3.6(±0.2) ^a	75
diphenyltin	4.7(±0.2)	3.4(±0.2) ^a	75
monophenyltin	4.4(±0.3)	3.1(±0.2) ^a	75
$\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_3$	n/a	0.8 ^b	62, 65
$\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$	n/a	2.0(±0.5) ^b	66
Cd	n/a	2.1 ^a	60
Cr	n/a	2.5 ^a	60
Cu	n/a	1.7 ^a	60
Hg	n/a	2.2 ^a	60
Ni	n/a	0.9 ^a	60
Pb	n/a	2.8 ^a	60
Zn	n/a	2.0 ^a	60

^aTaken to represent sediments in Flanders with 5% OC and 11% and clay. ^bTaken for all sediments in Flanders.



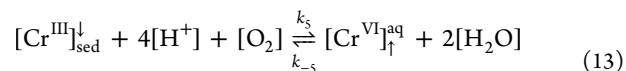
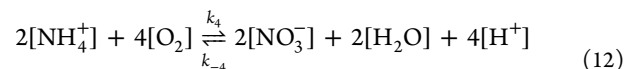
We thus determine their speciation via Henderson–Hasselbalch⁷⁸

$$\log\left(\frac{[\text{X}^n]_{\text{aq}}}{[\text{XH}^{n+1}]_{\text{aq}}}\right) = \text{pH} - \text{p}K_{\text{a},\text{XH}^{n+1}} \quad (10)$$

$$\log([\text{XH}^{n+1}]_{\text{aq}}) = \log([\text{X}^n]_{\text{aq}}) - (\text{pH} - \text{p}K_{\text{a},\text{CX}}) \quad (11)$$

wherein $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}(\text{XH}^{n+1} = \text{NH}_4^+) = 9.25$ and $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}(\text{XH}^{n+1} = \text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-) = 7.2$. We took the $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ values for organotins from the literature (Table 2).

Cr toxicity relates to the presence of CrO_4^{2-} ^{85,86} via microbial (nitrification,^{87–89} eutrophication³³) and redox processes:⁹⁰ $[\text{CrO}_4^{2-}]$ correlates with $[\text{NO}_3^-]$ and pH⁹¹ due to (bio)chemical reactions



Because $K_{\text{SW}}(\text{Cr}^{3+}) \gg K_{\text{SW}}(\text{CrO}_4^{2-})$, the total sediment Cr concentration is dominated by $[\text{Cr}^{3+}]$, i.e.,

$$[\text{Cr}_T]_{\text{sed}} = [\text{Cr}^{3+}]_{\text{sed}} + [\text{CrO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{sed}} \approx (1 + K_{\text{SW}}) \cdot [\text{Cr}^{3+}]_{\text{aq}}$$

Thus, based on eqs 12 and 13, we characterized the ratio between CrO_4^{2-} and Cr^{3+} empirically via³⁵

$$\frac{[\text{CrO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{aq}}}{[\text{Cr}^{3+}]_{\text{aq}}} \propto \frac{[\text{CrO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{aq}}}{[\text{Cr}_T]_{\text{sed}}} \propto \frac{1}{c[\text{O}_2] + d[\text{NH}_4^+] + e[\text{HPO}_4^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-] + f[\text{pH}]} \quad (14)$$

wherein we take $[\text{CrO}_4^{2-}]_{\text{sed}}$ on average to be 4.13% of total Cr⁹¹ and c , d , e , and f are regression coefficients³⁵ (Figure S4).

Table 2. Proton Dissociation Constant (pK_a) Values^a

name	formula	pK_a	ref
tetrabutyltinhydroxide	$\text{Sn}(\text{By})_4$	n/a	n/a
tributyltinhydroxide cation	$(\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2))^{+}(\text{By})_3$	6.25	79–81
dibutyltinhydroxide cation	$(\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2)_1)^{+}(\text{OH})_1(\text{By})_2$	5.1(± 0.2)	82
monobutyltinhydroxide cation	$(\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2)_1)^{+}(\text{OH})_2(\text{By})_1$	5.9(± 0.1)	82
triphenyltinhydroxide cation	$\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2)^{+}(\text{Ph})_3$	5.2	79, 81, 83
diphenyltinhydroxide cation	$(\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2)_1)^{+}(\text{OH})_1(\text{Ph})_2$	4.0	84 ^b
monophenyltinhydroxide cation	$(\text{Sn}(\text{OH}_2)_1)^{+}(\text{OH})_2(\text{Ph})_1$	4.8	** ^c
dihydrogenphosphate	$\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^{-}$	7.2	n/a
ammonia	NH_4^{+}	9.25	n/a

^aSee Table S2 for full details. By = butyl; Ph = phenyl. ^bIn 75% dioxane–water solution. pK_a values of ligands in 75% dioxane–water solutions are higher than those reported in water.⁸⁴ ^cDouble asterisks mean an estimation assuming the substitution of butyl by phenyl has a constant effect on pK_a : $pK_a \text{ MPT} = pK_a \text{ MBT} - ((pK_a \text{ TBT} - pK_a \text{ TPT}) + (pK_a \text{ DBT} - pK_a \text{ DPT})/2)$.

Since K_{SW} of Cr^{VI} ($<1\text{--}50 \text{ L/kg}$) $\gg \text{Cr}^{\text{III}}$ ($850\text{--}5600 \text{ L/kg}$),⁹² $\sim 90\%$ of aqueous Cr is CrO_4^{2-} .

2.4. Median Effect Concentrations (EC50). With the exception of Cr and Sn, we assumed that the total concentration of metals is equal to a single free valent (uncomplexed) M^{2+} oxidation state, as the sole contributor to the observed toxicity. We assume that Cr expresses toxicity only via the CrO_4^{2-} form (Table 3).

In contrast to uncomplexed heavy metals (Table 3), to our knowledge, there are no 6 day EC50 values available for *H. incongruens* growth when exposed to organotins, NH_3 , or $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^{-}/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$. Since we assumed all *H. incongruens* to reside in the water layer, we screened the literature for aqueous

phase EC50 values for related species/studies. Though tributylated organotin is generally more toxic than other organotins,^{93,94} to our knowledge, there is no information on the (relative) *H. incongruens* toxicity due to substituents.

Based on Table S3, we initially estimated (based on log-averages) the EC50 of (neutral) organotins, NH_3 , and HPO_4^{2-} for *H. incongruens* growth to be 50, 2000, and 2,000,000,000 ng/L (Table 3), respectively.

2.5. Toxic Unit (TU). **2.5.1. Initial Approximation.** The TU estimates mixture-toxicity risks to both terrestrial and aquatic communities.⁸ We assessed the total exposure from the sediment by summing the exposures for all of the contaminants (eq 15)⁹⁸

$$\text{TU} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{[C]_{\text{aq}}}{\gamma_i [\text{EC50}]_{\text{aq}}} \quad (15)$$

wherein n reflects the number of pollutants i , taken as heavy metals, organotins, NH_3 , and $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^{-}/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$.

For the current purpose, it was not feasible to parametrize a priori the toxic interaction between chemicals based on their EC50 values only (i.e., without SSD shape parameters).^{51,99} Taking $\gamma_i = 1$ reflects all chemicals to have a similar mode of action (MoA) and negligible interaction between chemicals. As the simple response addition (RA) method does not necessarily produce better results than concentration addition (CA),³⁵ eq 15 produces an “educated guess” for the TU of *H. incongruens*.

2.5.2. Calibration. Assuming a logistic distribution of sensitivities toward the polluted sediment, we described the percentage of growth inhibited as a function of exposure via a cumulative logistic distribution function⁹⁸

$$\% \text{growth inhibition} = \frac{100}{1 + e^{-(\log \text{TU})/\beta}} \quad (16)$$

wherein β is a steepness function and TU is initially the ratio of the measured (bioavailable) chemical concentration $[C]_{\text{aq}}$ to its effect concentration $[\text{EC50}]_{\text{aq}}$.¹⁰⁰ Fitting mortalities with these TU values (Section 2.5.1) produced suboptimal results (Figure 3A; Figures S5, S7).

To acquire statistically better predictions based on the explained variance, we allowed variation in EC50 values to fit the growth inhibition data (Section 2.6) via eq 16. This was done via the factor γ_i in eq 15. The preselected range for γ_i was 1000. The fitting implies the average TU fixed at the exposure for which 50% of the growth is inhibited. We envisioned potential divergences between values for $\gamma_i \text{EC50}$ and EC50 to

Table 3. *H. incongruens* Effect Level Concentrations of Chemicals from the Open Literature^a

chemical	effect (EC50) concentration (ng/L)	effect (EC50) concentration (ng/L cation) ^b	ref
tetrabutyltin	50	n/a	Table S3
tributyltinhydroxide	50	3.5	Table S3
dibutyltinhydroxide	50	0.3	Table S3
monobutyltinhydroxide	50	1.6	Table S3
triphenyltinhydroxide	50	0.3	Table S3
diphenyltinhydroxide	50	0.02	Table S3
monophenyltinhydroxide	50	0.1	Table S3
Cu^{2+}	950,000	n/a	95
Ni^{2+}	2500,000	n/a	95
Hg^{2+}	400,000	n/a	95
Zn^{2+}	14,775,880	n/a	95
Cd^{2+}	70,000	n/a	95
CrO_4^{2-}	4,310,000	n/a	95
Pb^{2+}	39,200,000	n/a	95
NH_3	2000	140,000 ^d	96, 97
$\text{HPO}_4^{2-}/\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^{-}$	3,905,460,000	2,000,000,000 ^e	49

^aThe values for organotins are the means from hatching, developmental, growth, and mortality experiments with varying durations (4 to 28 days); details are shown in Table S3. ^bAssuming pH = 7.4. ^cSince dichromate hydrolyzes in water ($\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons 2 \text{CrO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{H}^{+}$), we multiplied EC50 by 2. ^dRepresents NH_3 . ^eRepresents HPO_4^{2-} .

be the result of unknown testing procedures and conditions altering speciation, bioavailability (e.g., metals as oxides or organometals), or MoAs. Final γ EC50 values are given in Figure 2.

2.6. Bioassay Description and Data Curation. We calibrate and test our methods (eqs 1–16) using data on whole-sediment toxicity assessed by VMM via laboratory bioassays performed on the ostracod *H. incongruens*, a small benthic freshwater crustacean. The data represents a 6 day growth inhibition test (ISO 14371¹⁰¹) with freshly (≤ 52 h old) hatched cysts (i.e., neonates, with lengths of 150–250 μm) incubated at $25(\pm 1)^\circ\text{C}$, in darkness. Details are shown elsewhere.^{45,102} The percentage % of growth inhibition μ because of exposure to sediment is defined⁴⁵ as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{\%growth inhibition} \\ = 100 - \frac{\text{length}_{\text{day6, test}} - \text{length}_{\text{day0}}}{\text{length}_{\text{day6, reference}} - \text{length}_{\text{day0}}} \times 100 \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where the lengths are the averages of a total of 60 organisms distributed across six replicates. The reference refers to a standard sand. For the reference, $\text{length}_{\text{day6, reference}} \geq 1.5 \cdot \text{length}_{\text{day0}}$ and mortality is $\leq 20\%$. To enlarge our modeling domain, we specifically included also bioassays reporting negative growth inhibition (i.e., growth stimulation).

Since the bioassay is aerobic, it should represent aerobic sediments in the field. This implies minimizing speciation-related changes due to in situ anaerobic–aerobic transformations. Also, previous O_2 deprivation in the field may create bias for germination/growth (chemical cues) at the start of the bioassay: crustaceans are sensitive to O_2 deprivation;^{103,104} low O_2 induces dormancy ($\text{HOEC} = 5.5 \text{ mg } \text{O}_2/\text{L}$).¹⁰⁴ Taking $44 \pm 4 \text{ mg/L}$ and 0.21 as solubility ($T \approx 20^\circ\text{C}$) and partial pressure, respectively, this amounts to $60 \pm 5\% \text{ O}_2$. *H. incongruens* does not tolerate acidic conditions.³⁹

Therefore, we exclude all assays for which the field porewater $\text{O}_2 < 65\%$, $\text{O}_2 \geq 100\%$, and $\text{pH} \leq 6.5$, which we consider nonrepresentable sediments.

3. RESULTS

We performed analyses to elucidate the toxicity of sediments in Flanders to *H. incongruens*. According to initial TU results (Figures S5, S7), NH_3 ($\text{TU} = 0.1$) contributed most to *H. incongruens* growth inhibition. Other contributors were Ni and Cu ($\text{TUs} \leq 0.1$), whereas the individual TUs of Zn, Cd, CrO_4 , Hg, and Pb were ≤ 0.01 . Predicting the % growth inhibition via initial TU using initial (standard) EC50 values (Table 3, Section 2.5.1) yielded maximal explained variance lower than 30%. Initially, speciation calculations (eqs 11, 14) did not appear to improve these results. In contrast to Figure S7 (wherein there is a low contribution), organotins are among the species most highly correlating with *H. incongruens* % growth inhibition (Figure S9).

We then performed “semiempirical” analyses to further elucidate the toxicity of sediments by letting γ EC50 values fit the growth inhibition data (Section 2.5.2). This “calibrating” procedure allowed a robust TU analysis for *H. incongruens*. According to the semiempirical analysis, too, NH_3 dominates the TU ($\text{TU} = 0.3$). Additional toxic pressure arises from organotins (as represented by tributyltin, $\text{TU} = 0.3$). Then, the contributions from Ni and Cu appear minor (≤ 0.1) (Figure 1). Inclusion of chemicals other than NH_3 , HPO_4^{2-} , and

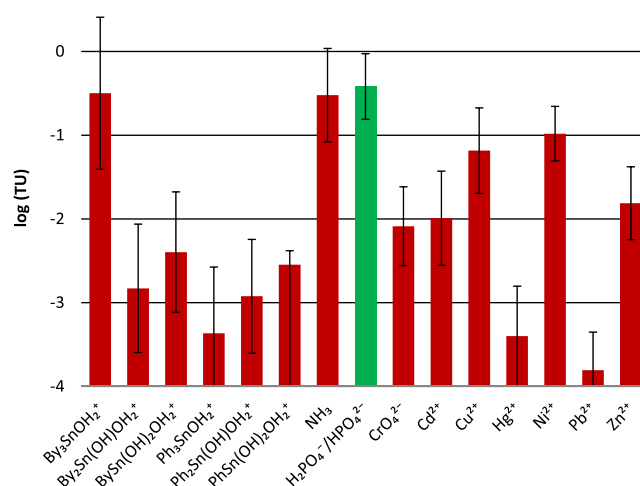


Figure 1. Toxic units for *H. incongruens* ($[\text{C}]_{\text{aq}}/\text{EC50}_{\text{aq}}$) for individual pollutants in sediments from water bodies in Flanders. Table 3 denotes EC50_{aq} values for free metals; Figure 2 denotes EC50 values for NH_3 , $\text{By}_3\text{SnOH}_2^+$, and $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-/\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$, contrasting ranges in Table 3. Hence, the TUs may be both underestimations/overestimations. Error bars denote variability throughout Flanders. For MFT ($\text{PhSn}(\text{OH})_2\text{OH}_2^+$), assuming porewater ($\text{pH} = 7.5$), 99% of samples were below the detection limit (DL); negative errors are 10-fold the SD including the values set at the DL.

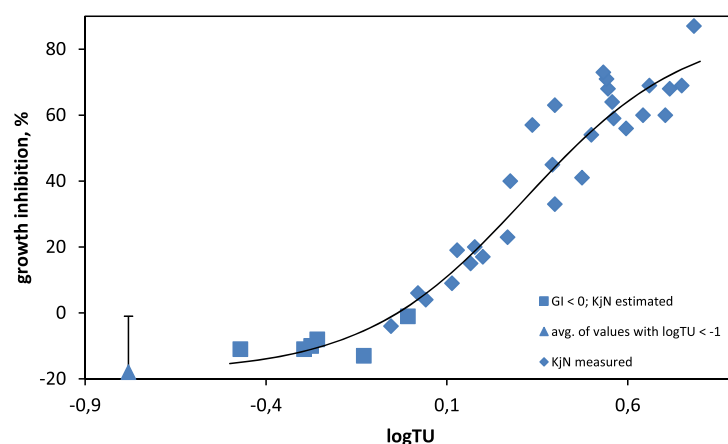
$\text{By}_3\text{SnOH}_2^+$ only marginally improved the fit. Instead, we found a positive influence by HPO_4^{2-} , i.e., growth-promoting ($\text{TU} = -0.3$).

After calibration, we found that speciation calculations (eq 11) significantly improved the results (Figure 3B,C). Then, NH_3 , organotins, and HPO_4^{2-} explain up to 90% of the observed variance in the % growth inhibition for water bodies throughout Flanders. We established γ EC50 values for NH_3 , HPO_4^{2-} , and TBT cation ($\text{By}_3\text{SnOH}_2^+$) at 150,000–39,000 and 0.003 ng/L. The relative importance of the toxicants differs between water bodies. In general, there is a higher toxic pressure in West Flanders than in inland regions (Table S4). In general, predictions for *H. incongruens* growth inhibition are more precise for “uniform” (e.g., large rivers and canals) water bodies than for small “nonuniform” water bodies.

4. DISCUSSION

For sediments in Flanders, we report a maximum growth of *H. incongruens* of 56% (Supporting Information). The curated data depict a leveling (for low toxicant concentrations) between 0 and -40% (Figure 2). In comparison, *H. incongruens* grows in unpolluted soft and hard water ($\text{pH} = 7$) with $0.063(\pm 0.003)$ and $0.072(\pm 0.003) \text{ mm/day}$, respectively.¹⁰⁵ Assuming linear growth, this amounts to $84(\pm 42)\%$ in 6 days, similar to sediments in Flanders with “low” toxicant concentrations. This indicates toxic pressure to *H. incongruens* in the majority of bioassays on sediments from Flanders.

We explain up to 90% of the variance in *H. incongruens* growth. The standard error of model prediction (Figure 2) is lower than that of a similar model for *H. azteca*.³⁵ This is likely related to a better defined testing system and lower physical or metabolic complexity of the organism.^{13,45} Predictions appear more precise for neonate growth than for survival (Figures S9, S13), similar to earlier observations.⁹⁶ A coefficient of variation of 6–20% was reported using parallel mortality assays.¹⁰⁶ Thus, the contribution of other toxicants, erroneous



Chemical	coefficient (fit)	log(average concentration)	average concentration ng/L	contribution (%)	γ_i EC50 (ng/L)
NH ₃	17.8	5.7	512,226	30.1	153,932(±76,966)
HPO ₄ ²⁻	-22.6	5.0	103,904	38.2	-39,699(27,145-85,840)
By ₃ SnOH ₂ ⁺	18.8	-2.0	0.00998	31.7	0.0032±0.0016
By ₃ SnOH					0.06(±0.03)

Figure 2. *H. incongruens* growth inhibition (%) versus the toxic unit. EC50 for organotin cations was taken to be 0.003 ng/L, representing By₃SnOH₂⁺. Simulation was performed using $\beta = 4.5$ (unitless). The far-left triangle denotes the weighted average of values with log TU < -1. Squares denote data wherefore KJN was unknown and taken as a regional average (Section 2.1). The table provides corresponding uncertainties/ranges. For EC50 values, the errors are those carried over from errors in bioavailabilities.

speciation/bioavailability, or mixture effects to the residual variance (~10%, Figure 2) is limited. 10-fold intraspecies uncertainty factors are widely used;¹⁰⁷ our prediction errors are well within this margin.

The average toxic pressure for *H. incongruens* is comparable to that for *H. azteca*.³⁵ Both initial and calibrated TU analyses support our hypotheses that NH₃, along with heavy metals, dominates the effects on *H. incongruens*. Meanwhile, in contrast to *H. azteca*,³⁵ CrO₄²⁻ did not appear to contribute to the apparent toxicity. The analysis also shows that the mixture of organotins, NH₃, and HPO₄²⁻ acts distinctly toward *H. incongruens*. We interpreted this partially as a bioconcentration effect, which we will explain stepwise below. From its distinct sensitivity and the 90% explained variance, we deem the *H. incongruens* sediment contact test to be a complementary bioassay to evaluate sediment and water quality.

4.1. Organotins. Ni and Cu seemed to only marginally inhibit growth (TUs ≤ 0.1), though heavy metal loading as low as 100 μg/kg affecting aquatic species is generally accepted.¹⁰⁸ Organotins, as characterized by TBT, appear significantly more toxic to *H. incongruens* than to similar aquatic species in single-substance tests (Figure 2, Table S3). This is on average a factor of 1000, irrespective of speciation. In other words, the term γ_{TBT} in eq 15 is ~1 × 10⁻³. Metals react with receptors, enzymes, DNA, protein and lipids or produce structural and functional changes resulting in toxic damage. The toxicant can be a derivative of the parent metal or reactive species (ROS or RNS) from (bio)transformations.

The correlation between TBT cation concentrations and growth inhibition is stronger than for the neutral TBT (Figure 3B,C; Figure S10). Since *H. incongruens* is small, the internal (e.g., cytoplasmic) pH may be correlated to medium/porewater pH.^{109,110} This indicates that growth inhibition is associated with the cation. In contrast, organotin toxicity toward yeast increases with cations < hydroxides <

chlorides.¹¹¹ From pH 5.8 to 8.0, the K_{OW} of TBT and TPT increased.^{112,113} As it partitions into the lipid fraction of the biomembrane, the neutral (hydrophobic) form is more bioavailable.¹¹⁴ uptake and bioconcentration of TBT are higher at pH 8.0 (where neutral TBTOH predominates) than at pH 5.0–6.0.¹¹⁵

However, biomembrane–water distribution of the TBT cation exceeds liposome–water distribution, and distribution of the TBT cation exceeds that of the neutral hydroxocomplex. This relates to the cation complexing with ligands and proteins.¹¹⁴ This indicates that the high sensitivity of *H. incongruens* growth on organotin as compared to other aquatic species (Figure 2; Table S2) does not arise from nonpolar (baseline) narcosis.¹¹⁶ In turn, this implies interactions between the TBT cation and proteins with growth regulation activity.¹¹⁷

Endocrine activity of TBT in crustaceans refers to the interactions with the ecdysteroid receptor–retinoid-X receptor dimer (CrcEcR–CrcRXR) complex.^{48,117,118} TBT binds in the electrostatic and neutral areas of CrcRXR.¹¹⁷ The ecdysone (nuclear) receptor is responsible for transcriptional regulation of molting,¹¹⁹ which is critical for growth of crustaceans accumulating (i.e., “feeding on”) phosphate and carbonate. Interaction with vitellogenin and cuticular proteins may cause a second endocrine disruption on the Y-organ–ecdysteroidal endocrine axis and impair growth.¹¹⁷

4.2. Phosphate. In contrast to toxicity ($\gamma_{\text{PO}_4} > 0$), phosphate appears to promote *H. incongruens* growth ($\gamma_{\text{PO}_4} < 0$) (eq 15). The apparent effect level is ~0.04 mg/L, far lower than levels causing toxicity (~2000 mg/L⁴⁹). Given the aqueous concentration of phosphate in the bioassays, 0.02–2 mg/L, and an LC50 value of approximately 3900 mg/L,⁴⁹ toxicity of HPO₄²⁻ to *H. incongruens* is negligible. *H. incongruens* is one of the only two ostracods wherefore Ca²⁺

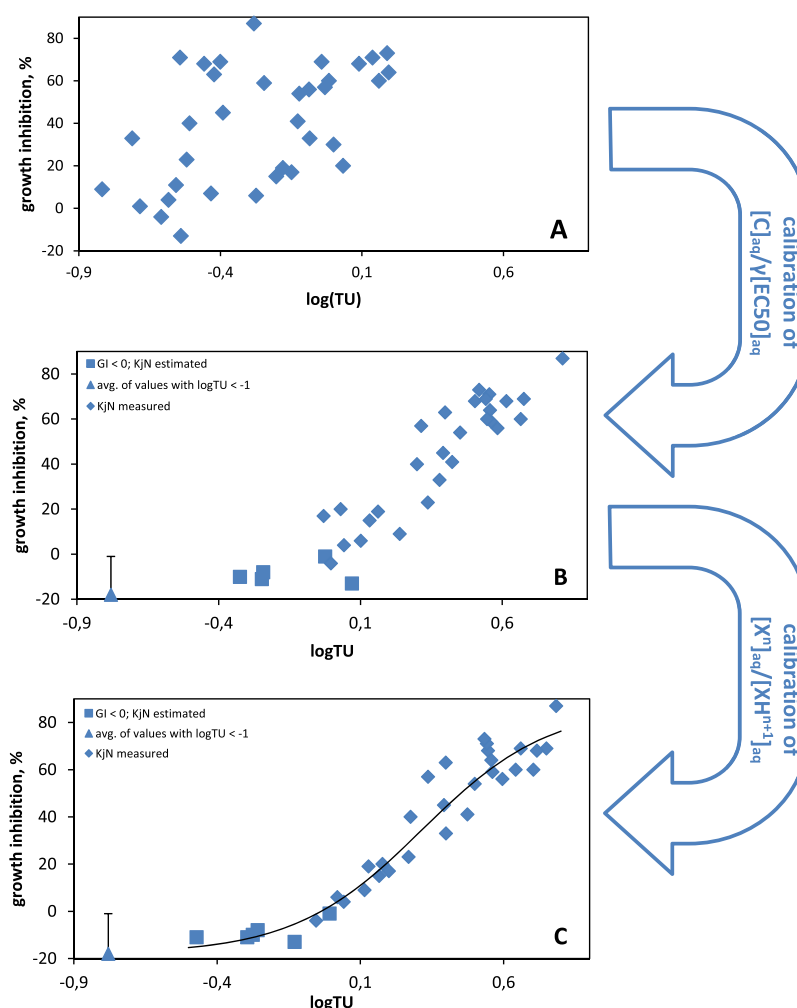


Figure 3. *H. incongruens* growth inhibition (%) versus the toxic unit. GI = growth inhibition. (A) EC50 for organotins (cations) represented 3 ng/L; pH assumed to be 7.5. $R^2 = 0.26$. (B) EC50 for organotins (cations) represented 0.003 ng/L (eq 17); pH assumed to be 7.5. $R^2 = 0.82$. (C) EC50 for organotins (cations) represented 0.003 ng/L (eq 17); pH taken for the porewater. $R^2 = 0.90$.

positively correlates with its natural abundance; Ca^{2+} associates with phosphate.¹²⁰ P content of the carapace differs geographically.³⁹

Prior to molting, ostracods store CaHPO_4 (apatite) granules and chitin precursors in epidermal cells. The granules expulse their content, which is transformed into platelets of CaCO_3 , disintegrated to amorphous calcite and, ultimately, crystals to build the carapace.¹²¹ Note that HCO_3^- is not a limiting factor (relatively constant) since it is added via the synthetic medium.⁴⁵ The carapace may need ~ 7 days to complete its calcification, via up to nine growth stages (instars).⁵⁰

We find a higher correlation for HPO_4^{2-} than for H_2PO_4^- (Figure 3B,C; Figure S11). Indeed, an alkaline environment (high pH) accelerates tissue calcification.^{122,123} Moreover, calcium phosphate crystallinity decreases with an increase in reaction pH,^{123,124} and solubilities decrease with increasing pH.¹²⁵ The combined results indicate that phosphate in bioassays performed with sediments from Flanders, in the HPO_4^{2-} form, promotes *H. incongruens* growth.

4.3. Ammonia. Whereas we initially assigned an EC50 value for NH_3 of 0.002 mg/L, we found an empirical value for γ_{NH_3} EC50 of 0.15 mg/L (implying $\gamma_{\text{NH}_3} > 1$) (eq 15). In analogy, the LC50 value for *H. azteca* exposed to NH_3 is 2–5 mg/L,^{78,126} whereas in bioassays, it appears empirically to be

5000 mg/L.³⁵ The average TU of $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_3$ is 0.3 across Flanders, and NH_3 explains 30% of the variance in growth inhibition. We noted a relatively high toxicity of sediments from West Flanders (e.g., Yser river) collected during (fertilization⁵⁶ in) spring; levels of NH_4^+/KjN in the Yser are structurally high (Table S4); anaerobic conditions are more likely for those sediments.

We found a slightly higher correlation for NH_3 than for NH_4^+ (Figure 3B,C; Figure S12). Aquatic ecotoxicity studies in the 1990s identified $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_3$ (esp. NH_3) as a contributing cause.¹²⁷ More so than NH_4^+ , NH_3 can pass through biological surfaces into tissue fluid. When pH of the tissue fluid is lower than that of the surrounding water, NH_3 can disrupt ionoregulatory functions.^{49,128} In addition, NH_3 may activate N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors in the brain,¹²⁹ leading to intoxication.

4.4. Mixture Effects. The γEC50_i values for HPO_4^{2-} , NH_3 , and organotin used for the analysis differed from the initial estimation (Table 3; Figure 2). With respect to literature EC50 values, much variation exists (Table S3); the values obtained represent extreme values. Thus, the extreme γEC50_i values may not only represent a direct mode of toxic action from HPO_4^{2-} , NH_3 , and organotin individually but also

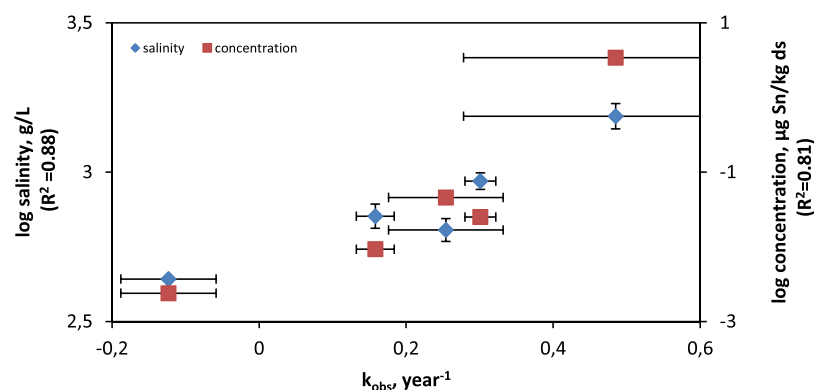


Figure 5. First-order disappearance rate constant for TBT in Flemish sediment (x , in year⁻¹) versus salinity and concentration (y_1 and y_2). Symbols denote distinct sampling locations, having a uniform temporal trend in concentration (continuously increasing or continuously decreasing).

In this study, we have applied explicit descriptions to characterize the speciation and bioavailability of pollutants in ostracod bioassays performed using sediments from Flanders. Semiempirical toxic unit analyses elucidated the effects of heavy metals (esp. organotin) and ammonia inhibiting *H. incongruens* growth. Based on standard approaches, 26% of the variance in the observed effect could be explained. Yet, by acknowledging speciation and interactions between bioassay constituents, we can explain up to 90%. Organotin and ammonia appear more and less toxic, respectively, than what is reported in the existing literature for controlled (single-substance) laboratory tests. We can attribute this to a cascade of bio-physicochemical interactions affecting speciation and transformations of the chemicals in situ. Prominently, organotins appear to bioaccumulate during the molting process of *H. incongruens*. Future modeling ought to focus on the factors controlling the interactions, via more explicit measurement and monitoring of speciation and bioavailability. This is likely to help in bridging the gap between laboratory and field tests so as to enable a more reliable risk assessment for sediments. Despite the need for further study, we deem our model a worthwhile complementary method to evaluate sediments in Flanders. Applying the approach to more spatiotemporal and geochemical settings^{11,161} will evaluate its broader applicability. Thus, we deem it a starting point for more integrated ecotoxicity modeling in general.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.est.0c02855>.

Figure S1: VMM monitoring network for sediment quality assessment. Table S1: Mean characteristics and chemical concentration of sediment samples in Flanders and its three main rivers. Figure S2: Trend of the monthly maximum ammonia concentration. Figure S3: Concentrations of ammonia throughout Flanders. Table S2: Proton dissociation constants (pK_a) values. Table S3: Experimental *H. incongruens* effect concentrations (EC) of chemicals. Figure S4: Total concentration of chromium in sediment (as predicted from metal concentrations, so to prevent bias) versus MLR results using %clay, %OS, KjN, O₂, P_T, and pH as input. Figure S5: % growth inhibition of *H. incongruens* versus the TU before empirical calibration. Figure S6: % growth

inhibition of *H. incongruens* versus the TU after empirical calibration. Figure S7: *H. incongruens* toxic units for different chemicals. Figure S8: *H. incongruens* toxic units for different chemicals. Table S4: Aqueous concentrations of chemicals and corresponding toxic units (TUs) calculated. Figure S9: Correlation coefficients between chemicals, bioassays, and sediment characteristics. Figure S10: Calculation of TBT cation concentration at pH 7.5. Figure S11: Calculation of HPO₄²⁻ concentrations at pH 7.5. Figure S12: Calculation of the NH₃ concentration at pH 7.5. Figure S13: Ostracod mortality (%) versus ostracod growth inhibition (PDF)

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Notes

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