

Article (refereed) - postprint

Williams, Richard J.; Harrison, Samuel; Keller, Virginie; Kuenen, Jeroen; Lofts, Stephen; Praetorius, Antonia; Svendsen, Claus; Vermeulen, Lucie C.; van Wijnen, Jikke. 2019. **Models for assessing engineered nanomaterial fate and behaviour in the aquatic environment.**

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1 **Models for assessing engineered nanomaterial fate and behaviour in the aquatic**
2 **environment**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23

24 Engineered nanomaterials (ENMs, material containing particles with at least one dimension less than
25 100 nm) are present in a range of consumer products and could be released into the environment
26 from these products during their production, use or end-of-life. The high surface to volume ratio of
27 nanomaterials imparts a high reactivity, which is of interest for novel applications but may raise
28 concern for the environment. In the absence of measurement methods, there is a need for
29 modelling to assess likely concentrations and fate arising from current and future releases. To assess
30 the capability that exists to do such modelling, progress in modelling ENM fate and since 2011 is
31 reviewed. ENM-specific processes represented in models are mainly limited to aggregation and, in
32 some instances, dissolution. Transformation processes (e.g. sulphidation), the role of the
33 manufactured coatings, particle size distribution and particle form and state are still usually
34 excluded. Progress is also being made in modelling ENMs at larger scales. Currently models can give
35 a reasonable assessment of the fate of ENMs in the environment, but a full understanding will likely
36 require fuller inclusion of these ENM specific processes.

37

38 Keywords: modelling, Engineered Nanomaterials, aggregation, transformation, aquatic environment

39

40 **Highlights**

41

- 42 • Models of nanomaterial release are needed to drive nanomaterial fate models
- 43 • Nanomaterial-specific processes are now being included in fate models
- 44 • The form and state in which particles are released needs to be considered
- 45 • There is progress towards process based modelling at large scales

46

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49

50 Engineered nanomaterials (ENMs) are increasingly being used in a range of consumer products and are likely
51 to be released into the environment from these products during their production, use or end-of-life phases.
52 Nanomaterials are defined by their size (e.g. according to the EU recommendation for the definition of a
53 nanomaterial as a material containing particles with one or more dimensions in the size range 1- 100 nm [1]
54 see Box 1) rather than their chemical composition. The high surface to volume ratio of nanomaterials imparts a
55 high reactivity which is of interest for novel applications but raises concern for human and environmental
56 health. In both these areas the general concern is whether the size of the particles will mean that they have
57 behaviours and effects that might not be predictable from knowledge of the behaviour of the “conventional”
58 form of the material.

59

60 **Box 1**

61

62 Engineered nanomaterials are challenging to identify and quantify in the environment [2-6], although recent
63 progress has been made for graphene based ENMs [7] and various inorganic ENMs [8-10]. It is therefore
64 difficult to get a real sense of the extent of the distribution, concentrations and therefore impacts that ENMs
65 are likely to have in the environment. In the absence of widespread observational data, modelling provides a
66 means of estimating likely concentrations in the environment from materials that are already in use or from
67 new-to-market products. The outputs of such appropriately constructed models could predict concentrations
68 in environmental compartments and likely hotspots of exposure. As with “conventional” chemicals, such data
69 can be used to assess the extent of exposure of organisms in the environment which is one part of the risk
70 assessment processes. It is very likely that policy makers, manufacturers, environmental agencies and citizens
71 will want to know how ENMs move through the environment; whether, for example, they accumulate in
72 sediments in lakes and rivers or are taken up by animals and plants. A major route for ENMs into the
73 environment is through sewage treatment plant (STP) discharges [11,12] and therefore modelling their fate
74 and behaviour in aquatic systems (rivers and lakes) is an important area of study.

75

76 A key aspect of ENMs both from the regulatory and scientific point of view is their definition, specifically that a
77 material is classed as a “nanomaterial” as a result of its physical characteristics rather than its chemical

78 properties. This means that ENMs can in principle and reality be highly diverse in their chemistries. Examples
79 of ENMs in current commercial use include metal-based materials such as cerium, titanium and zinc oxide,
80 copper and copper oxide, metal sulphides, selenides and tellurides, and carbon-based materials including
81 single and multiwalled carbon nanotubes. Further potential developments include nanosized micelle-based
82 structures for targeted drug delivery [13] and nanocarrier-type materials as nanopesticides [14]. The challenge
83 for simulation of aquatic (and indeed environmental) fate of ENMs is thus in part a challenge of simulating the
84 potentially diverse behaviours of these materials. We will show that previous modelling efforts, at least those
85 for distributed (spatial) simulation of ENM fate, have tended to have a relatively narrow focus, while what is
86 needed is an approach to generalise the principles of ENM behaviour as far as possible while allowing for new
87 behaviours to be incorporated.

88 This review considers how the state of modelling has developed since 2011, to show the progress that has
89 been made in developing ENM-specific fate models. A number of previous workers have reviewed aquatic
90 ENM fate modelling efforts within this fast-developing field [15,16]. In this paper, we will assess past and
91 current modelling efforts in the context of (i) the most up to date knowledge of nanomaterial speciation,
92 particularly speciation at entry points into the environment, and (ii) the specificity of current models for
93 particular types of nanomaterials, and how models may be made more generic in order to anticipate new
94 types of nanomaterials.

95 Modelling water quality can take place at a range of scales from the catchment through to regions, whole
96 continents and even more recently at the global scale [17]. For pollutants global models exist for nutrients
97 [18], plastics [19], pathogens [20,21], pharmaceuticals[22] and in a simple way (see Section 4), ENMs [23]
98 among others (see this issue for more details of these types of model [24,25]) . Such models are useful for
99 scenario analysis of climate, socio-economic change, policy assessment [26], estimating concentrations where
100 observed data are not available[27] or giving a global picture for a particular water quality indicator of
101 concern[28]. This review therefore concludes by looking forward to the prospects for modelling ENMs in a
102 physically realistic way at large scales.

103

104 **2. Nanomaterial Behaviour in the Environment**

105

106 The key behaviours of ENMs in aquatic environments are reasonably well established and have been
107 incorporated into a number of models previously. Models of chemical fate need to consider mass

108 flows among different environmental compartments [29,30]. In the aquatic systems considered
109 here, that means advection with flowing water and exchange with the suspended matter and bed
110 sediments. ENMs may attach to each other (homoaggregation) or to particulate matter in the water
111 column (heteroaggregation). These processes are irreversible, or, at least, the reversible process is
112 so slow as to be negligible, and so equilibrium-based methods to compute distributions of chemicals
113 between particle-associated and dissolved forms, such as the partition coefficient, are not
114 applicable to nanomaterials [31]. Aggregates so formed, might then be deposited to the river (or
115 lake) bed sediments [32,33]. Here they might be removed from the system by burial to depth or be
116 re-suspended back into the water column as flow conditions change. There could also be loss of
117 ENMs to the bed sediment by direct interaction or deposition, for example in rivers that lose flow to
118 groundwater or have a very active hyporheic zone. ENMs in the water column can also undergo
119 dissolution into an ionic form (e.g. nano-ZnO) [29,34]. The presence of metal-complexing ligands,
120 particularly NOM, in solution, and the aggregation state of the particles, may change solubility rates
121 [35-37] or sorb to the particle surfaces and influence their stability against agglomeration [38]. Other
122 surface reactions include sulphidation (e.g. Ag nanoparticles to Ag₂S [39]) or oxidation, for example,
123 photooxidation of Ag nanomaterial surfaces to Ag₂O [40] and oxidation of Cu to CuO in the presence
124 of organic ligands[41] have been demonstrated. Furthermore, a loss or transformation of the
125 manufactured coating on the nanomaterial surface can lead to a change of its properties [42].

126

127 ENMs may thus be present in the environment in numerous forms and states [29,34,43] as
128 illustrated in Figure 1. It is useful to separately consider the structure and composition of
129 nanomaterials at the level of the individual particles and in terms of overall physical state. We use
130 the term form to describe the structure and composition at the level of the individual particle. This
131 encompasses, such considerations as whether the particle retains a manufactured coating, an
132 environmental corona of adsorbed material such as NOM, or a shell (outer layer) of differing
133 physicochemical properties to that of the core (inner layer) wherein by design or as a result of

134 chemical transformation during the particle lifecycle. We use the term state for the physical state of
135 particle populations in the environment, such as, the degree to which they are present as free
136 particles, homoaggregates or heteroaggregates or attached to the solid matrix in a soil. The form
137 and state of nanomaterials is key to their fate, through their influence on properties such as
138 aggregation behaviour, solubility and particle density. By way of illustration: (i) particles
139 heteroaggregated to suspended sediments in waters are subject to transfer to the bed sediments if
140 the suspended sediment is deposited out of the water column; (ii) particles having an environmental
141 corona may have modified surface properties that reduce their tendency to heteroaggregate to
142 particulate matter. Not all types of nanomaterials may adopt all the possible forms and states – for
143 instance, not all particles are manufactured with a surface coating.

144
145 **Figure 1**

146
147

148 **3. Modelling nanomaterials in the Aquatic Environment.**

149

150 The current status of models to predict environmental concentrations of engineered nanomaterials
151 (ENMs) for the purpose of assessing risk was reviewed as recently as 2012 [15]. At that time the
152 authors identified a number of existing nano-specific models (i.e. those specifically designed to
153 account for the processes that determine fate and behaviour for ENMs); six for surface waters, six
154 for sub-surface transport and another six multimedia models. A number of other modelling systems
155 that are currently used for regulatory assessment of non-nano chemical forms were also assessed to
156 make reasonable assessment of ENMs with some modifications. Subsequently, four further reviews
157 were published. Gottschalk et al. [44] traced the evolution of ENM specific models to 2012 and
158 provided an assessment of a dozen different models. Dale et al. [45] reviewed models for aquatic
159 systems and made an assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. Nowack [46] looked specifically
160 at modelling ENMs from a regulatory context, while Baalousha et al. [16] took a more general view
161 of modelling ENM fate, but with a specific emphasis on aquatic systems.

162 ENM models that have been published since 2012 are summarised in terms of some of their key
163 features (Table 1); it is from this point that efforts in ENM-specific modelling started to accelerate.
164 There is still a range in complexity in the models in terms of the representation of ENM fate, from
165 only considering advection [47], through to multiple processes representing heteroaggregation,
166 dissolution, sediment deposition and resuspension, sediment burial, soil runoff and biotic uptake
167 (e.g. MendNano [48,49]). However, in ENM specific terms, most models only take heteroaggregation
168 and dissolution into account. Notable exceptions are the NanoDUFLOW modelling study of nano-
169 TiO₂ [50,51] in the River Dommel, (the Netherlands) and the modelling of nano-TiO₂, nano-ZnO and
170 nano-Ag in the River Rhine [52,53]. The former adds homoaggregation to the other two processes
171 mentioned, while the latter further considers transformation (removal of ENM coating) and
172 mineralisation (although these mechanisms were not implemented in the actual model application
173 to the River Rhine). The most recently published ENM model currently available is NanoFATE [54],
174 which is a dynamic multimedia fate and transport model accounting for aggregation, dissolution,
175 sorption to suspended particles and subsequent sedimentation. It is designed to be able to account
176 for other ENM-specific processes such as oxidation, sulfidation and loss of the original coating when
177 these processes are sufficiently well understood to be incorporated into a model. However, it has
178 only limited spatial resolution in the estimates of ENM concentrations.

179 Despite progress to date, there is still scope for improving ENM models through collaboration
180 between modellers and experimentalists [45]. The review of Dale et al. looks specifically at this point
181 and identified eight key areas for collaboration including; better descriptions of heteroaggregation,
182 and reactive ENM chemistry, model spatial resolution of models, sensitivity analysis and model
183 testing.

184 The testing of ENM model predictions against observed data is challenging, because ENMs are
185 present in low concentrations and non-nano material (e.g. ionic metal) could be associated with
186 nano-sized particles that occur naturally in the environment. Therefore, concentrations of material
187 measured in appropriate size fractions might not originate from an ENM source. In order to test the

188 NanoDUFLOW model [50] when applied to the River Dommel in the Netherlands, observed
189 concentrations of colloidal (2- 450 nm) Ce, Al, Ti and Zr based particles were compared to
190 concentrations of those materials in the < 450nm size class predicted by the model. Very good
191 simulations were achieved for Ce and acceptable simulations for the other materials. The authors
192 suggested that this goes some way to validating the simulation of aggregated ENMs (a likely form in
193 the environment depending on ENM size and particulate concentration [55,56]) in their model, if not
194 a formal validation of ENM modelling *per se*. Generally speaking, even if a formal validation of ENM
195 models may not be achievable in the near future, basic model assumptions may be validated by
196 small scale micro-/mesocosm set-ups or controlled laboratory studies [57].

197

198 **Table 1**

199

200 Three of the previous model reviews make the very useful distinction between materials flow
201 analysis (MFA) models and environmental fate models (EFM) [44-46]. MFA models estimate the
202 release into the environment of ENMs from products during their use, recycling and final disposal,
203 while EFM describe the fate and behaviour of ENMs in one or more environmental compartments
204 (EFMs are summarised in Table 1). Most MFA models typically do not include mechanistic nano-
205 specific process descriptions, but rather average transfer coefficients between different, mostly
206 technical, compartments [45]. While the main goal of MFA models is to provide estimates of ENM
207 release, most then use this information to make broad estimates of environmental concentrations.
208 Such an approach was used to calculate the possible release of TiO₂ from sunscreen by means of a
209 simple dilution model to estimate concentrations in rivers across two regions of the UK [47]. Another
210 more sophisticated approach used probabilistic estimates of release from products across the
211 European Union in general and for the specific country cases of Switzerland and Denmark to make
212 estimates of accumulations of a number of different ENMs in soils and concentrations of ENMs in
213 river waters averaged across these geographical areas [11,58-61]. This approach has subsequently
214 been developed to provide country specific estimates for all the European Union member states

215 [62]. The reader is directed to Nowack [46] for a more complete review of these models. The
216 importance of quantifying the forms and states in which ENMs are released into the environment
217 was discussed above. Recently a first estimation of the quantities in which nano-Ag and nano-TiO₂
218 are released as different forms and states into the environment at the European scale has been
219 made [63]. In that publication, five different releases were considered; dissolved, transformed (ENM
220 subjected to chemical reaction), matrix embedded (in a solid material e.g. in cement), pristine (non-
221 transformed released ENM), and product-embedded (ENM still contained within the complete
222 product).

223
224 Modelling concentrations of ENM in the environment relies heavily on information regarding their
225 release rates. While for small-scale models this may be available through local measurements, for
226 large-scale models a different approach is required (described above). However, these inventories so
227 far lack the spatial and temporal disaggregation needed for use in large-scale fate models. A clear
228 next step on this aspect is to make the releases spatially and temporally more explicit by distributing
229 the annual releases for the modelled area (e.g. European Union) to a grid and distributing them
230 temporally over the year. A major issue with the release data is the large uncertainties that exist
231 around the production of ENMs as independent estimates may vary by more than one order of
232 magnitude [65]. Attempts to better quantify the amount of releases are hampered by the fact that
233 this information is often considered confidential, and therefore estimates are usually based on
234 expert judgement.

235 236 **4. Modelling ENMs at large scales**

237
238 Several of the available ENM models are spatially explicit [23,33,45,50-52,54], i.e. they make
239 predictions that vary over the geographical domain of the simulation. Primarily, these simulations
240 are along rivers and estuaries systems, with the river catchment being the geographical unit of
241 choice (Table 1). The GWAVA model [23] is the only one that makes estimates over very large areas
242 – in this case continental Europe – with spatial discrimination (approximately 6km by 9km grid cells).

243 The model takes estimates of the material flows of nano-Ag and nano-ZnO for the modelled area
244 [11], which are then assumed to be discharged through sewage treatment works into the European
245 river system. The spatial variation comes from the location and size of the sewage treatment works
246 discharges and the local dilution in receiving waters. There are no nano-specific processes modelled,
247 but there is scope for a removal in sewage treatment and sedimentation of ENMs as they move
248 downstream. Despite this simple approach, the authors were able to investigate the sensitivity of
249 the model to different parameter assumptions through a series of scenarios; best case, worst case
250 and expected case. Predicted no-effect concentrations (PNECs) were available for both of the ENM
251 models, and maps could be produced that indicated where these PNECs might be exceeded and
252 under what model assumptions. In addition, looking at this larger scale allowed an assessment of the
253 total river lengths that might be affected by higher than desirable concentrations of nano-Ag and
254 nano-ZnO.

255

256

257 **5. Discussion**

258

259 Models for the fate of ENMs in aquatic systems have been developed at a range of levels of
260 complexity and with a range of approaches to describing the processes of nanomaterial
261 transformation. Focusing on the models in Table 1, some general strengths and weaknesses can be
262 identified:

- 263 • Modelling of aggregation features in the majority of models, reflecting the perceived
264 importance of attachment to other particles and suspended sediments as an intermediate
265 fate process. Current models do not however generally account for whether rates of
266 attachment are a function of water chemistry variables;
- 267 • Dissolution processes are generally recognised as important for those metal/metal-based
268 nanomaterials for which dissolution is considered thermodynamically possible. However a
269 relatively small number of models explicitly consider dissolution. This is in part because

270 some modelling studies have focused on ‘insoluble’ ENMs such as TiO₂ and CeO₂, but also in
271 part due to perceived challenges in robustly modelling dissolution (e.g. [52]);

- 272 • Transformation processes such as particle sulphidation are generally not included, again
273 partly because the particles modelled do not undergo such transformations;
- 274 • The potential roles of manufactured coatings and formation of an environmental corona
275 (adsorbed monolayer of molecules) in influencing fate are not currently modelled;
- 276 • The importance of particle size distribution is generally acknowledged, but not necessarily
277 modelled explicitly;
- 278 • The importance of form and state on entry to the aquatic environment are sometimes
279 acknowledged, but not explicitly set in modelling, with the exception of Dale and co-workers
280 [30] and the recent MFA modelling of Adams and co-workers [63];

281 The implications of form and state on entry to the aquatic environment is of particular note. Specific
282 examples of where this may be important may be readily found; for example, the sulphidation of
283 nano-Ag particles within wastewater treatment systems prior to discharge reduces the solubility of
284 Ag considerably, with potential implications for its tendency to remain in particle form within the
285 environment as opposed to dissolving. Particles associated with material such as biosolids, applied
286 to land, may enter surface waters following soil erosion, already attached to soil particles that
287 become part of the river sediment load. Generally, these examples suggest that modelling ENM fate
288 within aquatic systems needs to be seen in the context of transformations through the whole ENM
289 lifecycle. This implies a need for a generalised approach to ENM transformation modelling, for
290 example based around the concepts of form and state which we have presented (Figure 1), and
291 transformations of these both prior to and following ENM entry to the aquatic environment. If
292 implemented well, such an approach ought to be sufficiently flexible to allow for a range of
293 complexity in approaches to transformation modelling within the same model framework. The
294 approach also has the advantage of being potentially more applicable to new types of nanomaterial

295 not the subject of past and current modelling (for example functionalized carbon nanotubes
296 developed for drug delivery [66]).
297 A further consideration not covered in modelling approaches to date is the potential for fate
298 behaviour, e.g. rate of ENM attachment to sediments, to be dependent upon the physicochemical
299 properties of the immediate environment such as pH and sediment composition.
300 Taking a life cycle approach implies modelling of aquatic ENM fate in the wider context of
301 environmental fate, i.e. a multimedia approach. A number of ENM fate models already take a
302 multimedia approach [49,52], but this has not yet been combined with spatiotemporal modelling.
303 This is in part due to concerns regarding the robustness of spatiotemporal estimation of
304 nanomaterial releases (Section 4).
305 Despite these concerns, there is current research into joining up temporally and spatially distributed
306 MFA models with similarly distributed multi-media fate models for ENMs (e.g. in the novel
307 framework for urban environments proposed by Domercq et al. [67]). A further example is the
308 European Commission H2020 funded project, NanoFASE [68]. This project is moving towards the
309 general requirement for a framework for regional or catchment scale modelling of ENMs based on a
310 multimedia modelling and life cycle analysis approach [43]. Such a framework would allow
311 investigations of environmental fate under a range of putative scenarios.

312

313 **6. Conclusions**

314

315 There has been considerable scientific effort over the past decade to understanding ENM fate in the
316 environment. This review has shown that this knowledge is being translated into mathematical
317 models of ENM fate which account for specific ENM processes in the aquatic environment. Presently
318 however, this is currently limited in the main part to aggregation processes and (less often)
319 dissolution. Transformation processes (e.g. sulphidation), the role of the manufactured coatings,
320 particle size distribution and particle form and state are still usually excluded. As with all

321 conventional modelling there is the need to drive these models with reliable data on ENM releases.
322 Such data are not currently available and so a number of other related modelling approaches have
323 been put in place to generate the required inputs. Despite this, these models are moving in the right
324 direction to provide realistic estimates of the fate of ENMs in the environment and likely
325 concentrations. However, there is still progress to be made and research is needed on methods to
326 generate observed ENM concentrations to test both the models of environmental fate and ENM
327 releases against observed data. This is the main route to raise confidence in the models and the
328 predictions they make, as well as the policy decisions based on those predictions.

329

330 **7. Acknowledgements**

331

332 This paper evolved from a workshop titled “Water Quality: a new challenge for global scale
333 modelling” held at Wageningen University 18-21 September 2017. Funding for this workshop came
334 from the OECD-CRP, the support of which is gratefully acknowledged. Part of this research was
335 supported by the NanoFASE project (Grant Agreement No. 646002) within the framework of the EU
336 Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme.

337

338 The authors declare no conflict of interest

339

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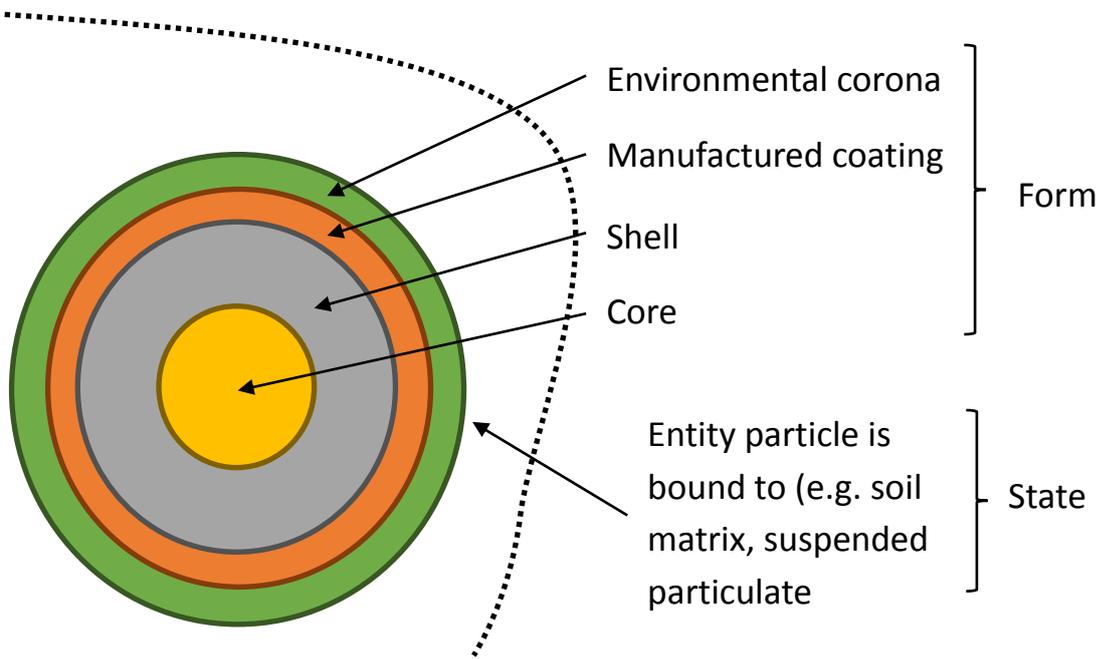
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Figures, Boxes and Tables



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Figure 1. Illustration of the possible forms and states of an engineered nanomaterial in the environment.

Box 1: European Union Recommendation on the Definition of Nanomaterials:

Nanomaterial means a natural, incidental or manufactured material containing particles, in an unbound state or as an aggregate or as an agglomerate and where, for 50 % or more of the particles in the number size distribution, one or more external dimensions is in the size range 1 nm–100 nm. In specific cases and where warranted by concerns for the environment, health, safety or competitiveness the number size distribution threshold of 50 % may be replaced by a threshold between 1 and 50 %. By derogation, fullerenes, graphene flakes and single wall carbon nanotubes with one or more external

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Table 1 Summary of models for predicting concentrations of Engineered Nano Materials in the environment published since 2011

Reference Model name	Environmental compartments	Spatially explicit (Locale, Grid system)	Temporally explicit	Processes considered <i>Nano-specific</i>	Materials	ENM sizes	Comments
Johnson et al. (2011) [47]	Rivers	Yes Regional concentrations for Anglian and Thames region, UK	Not explicitly Hydrological model predicts annual and monthly flow duration curves from daily-time step runoff	Only advective transport through river, including abstractions	TiO ₂	Not explicitly modelled	River water concentrations for sunscreen TiO ₂ , using LF2000-WQX software [69]
Money et al. (2012) [70]	Surface water Biota	No	Yes As component in Bayesian network	Implicitly included as components in Bayesian network: <i>Homoaggregation</i> <i>Heteroaggregation</i> Sediment deposition	Ag	Size distribution included as component in Bayesian network	Bayesian network approach to predict aquatic exposure concentrations of Ag
Praetorius et al. (2012) [33]	River Sediment	Yes Rhine river, Germany River split into boxes (520 for 700 km). Length of boxes smallest closest to emission source.	No ENM concentration as function of distance from source is at steady-state	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution (not implemented for TiO₂)</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial Bed transport	TiO ₂	Suspended particulate matter and ENMs split into discrete size classes from log-normal distributions	No spatial heterogeneity in water composition and thus single rate constants for entire river Sani-Kast et al. [71] extends to add spatial heterogeneity in water
Liu and Cohen (2014) [72]	Air Surface water Sediment	No	Yes Time step dynamically selected to reduce numerical errors	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial	TiO ₂ SiO ₂ ZnO	Size distribution discretised into size classes	Dynamic multimedia mass balance model with time-independent rate constants
MendNano	Soil Biota			Atmospheric deposition/resuspension	CeO ₂ Al ₂ O ₃ Ag		RedNano [73] is a web simulation tool that integrates MendNano with a life-cycle

				Soil runoff Biotic and root uptake	Cu Fe Carbon nanotubes Nano-clay		inventory assessment to predict release rates
Meesters et al. (2014) [49]	Air Surface water	No	No	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution</i>	TiO ₂ ZnO	Size distribution specified as input parameter, e.g., uniform distribution in particle diameters from 1 to 100 nm	Multimedia mass balance model with 1 st order rate constants
Meesters et al. (2016) [48]	Sediment Soil			Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial Atmospheric deposition Soil runoff Soil leaching	CeO ₂		Jacobs et al. [74] implements SimpleBox4Nano in 2D Monte Carlo model
SimpleBox4Nano							
Dale et al. (2015)[30]	River Sediment Soil (runoff only)	Yes James River Basin, Virginia	Yes	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial Soil runoff	Ag ZnO	No explicit modelling of size, but implicitly included in dissolution rates, which are averages from data including many sizes/coatings	Coupling of Chesapeake Bay Watershed Model [75] to USEPA water quality modelling suite (https://www.epa.gov/ceam/water-quality-analysis-simulation-program-wasp)
WSM/WASP7		River split into 68 segments with mean length of 30 km.					
Dumont et al. (2015) [23]	Surface water Sediment	Yes Europe 5' by 5' grid (~6 by 9 km)	Yes 31 years, monthly time steps	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial	ZnO Ag	Not explicitly modelled	Uses GWAVA [76] to model ENM concentration from household loading via sewage treatment plants
Gottschalk et al. (2015) [58]	Air Surface water Marine water Sediment (freshwater and sea)	No Constrained by geographical data for Denmark	No	Implicitly included as mass flows: <i>Dissolution</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Atmospheric deposition	TiO ₂ Quantum dots (material agnostic)	Not explicitly modelled	Mass flow based on probabilistic material flow, using probabilistic production and use estimates

	Soil Technical compartments (landfill, recycling, incineration, sewage)			Soil runoff	Carbon black CuCO ₃ ZnO Ag Carbon nanotubes CeO ₂		
Quik et al. (2015) [51] de Klein et al. (2016) [50]	River Sediment	Yes Dommel, Netherlands Default scenario: 477 sections with mean length of 88 m.	Yes Scenarios run over a number of days with small time steps (~1 min)	<i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Homoaggregation (size classes interact)</i> <i>Dissolution/degradation</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension Sediment burial	TiO ₂	Five size classes of ENMs and SPM.	Links ENM-specific processes to spatially explicit hydrological model (DUFLOW – STOWA, 2013)
NanoDUFLOW							
Markus et al. (2016) [52]	River Sediment	Yes Rhine river, Germany	Yes Model run from 2007-2009	<i>Homoaggregation</i> <i>Heteroaggregation</i> <i>Dissolution</i> <i>Transformation</i> <i>Removal of TiO₂ coating</i> <i>Mineralisation</i> Sediment deposition/resuspension	TiO ₂ ZnO Ag	Instead of size classes, ENMs are distinguished as free (unabsorbed) homoaggregates and heteroaggregates	Spatial heterogeneity in water component (unlike, e.g., Praetorius et al [33]) Builds on Markus et al, [77] but excludes dissolution and transformation of coated TiO ₂)
Wang et al. (2016) [78]	Air Surface water Sediment Soil Technical compartments (landfill, incineration, cement works, waste water,	No	No	Only mass flows between compartments considered; no explicit processes modelled	Silica	Not explicitly modelled	Material flow analysis of nano-silica in EU and Switzerland

Garner et al. (2017) [54]	sewage treatment, recycling)						
	Air	Yes, but limited to a small number of soil and water compartments in which the ENMS are considered homogeneous	Yes	<i>Heteroaggregation</i>	CeO ₂	Instead of size classes, ENMs are distinguished as free and small homoaggregates.	Has been written to be extensible to other ENMs and ENM processes
NanoFATE	Surface water (fresh and coastal)			<i>Dissolution</i>	CuO		
	Sediment			Sediment deposition/resuspension	TiO ₂		
	Soil			Sediment burial	ZnO	heteroaggregates and dissolution products	
				Atmospheric deposition			
				Soil runoff			
				Soil leaching			
				splashback from sea water			
Adam et al, 2017[62]	Air	Yes – for individual country	No	Implicitly included as mass flows:	Ag	Not explicitly modelled	Mass flow based on probabilistic material flow, using probabilistic production and use estimates but for individual countries
	Surface water			<i>Dissolution</i>	TiO ₂		
	Marine water			Sediment deposition/resuspension	ZnO		
	Sediment (freshwater and sea)			Atmospheric deposition	Carbon nanotubes		
	Soil			Soil runoff			
	Technical compartments (landfill, recycling, incineration, sewage)						
Adam et al, 2018	Air	No	No	Implicitly included as mass flows:	Ag	Not explicitly modelled, but different forms are estimated – transformed, matrix embedded, pristine and product embedded	Mass flow based on probabilistic material flow, using probabilistic production and use estimates
	Surface water			<i>Dissolution</i>	TiO ₂		
	Marine water			Sediment deposition/resuspension			
	Sediment (freshwater and sea)			Atmospheric deposition			
	Soil			Soil runoff			
	Technical compartments (landfill, recycling,						

incineration,
sewage)

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