

Assessing alcohol consumption through wastewater-based epidemiology: Spain as case study

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43 **Abstract**

44 *Background:* Estimating alcohol consumption in the population has received great interest
45 given the social, health and economic problems that it generates. In this study, wastewater-
46 based epidemiology (WBE), an alternative method to estimate licit and illicit drug consumption
47 rates in a given population through the analysis of chemicals and/or metabolites in wastewaters,
48 was applied to estimate alcohol consumption at the local and national level in Spain.

49 *Methods:* Composite (24-h) wastewater samples were collected at the inlet of 17 wastewater
50 treatment plants (WWTPs) located in 13 cities for seven consecutive days in spring of 2018.
51 The sampled area covered 12.8% of the Spanish population. Wastewater samples were analyzed
52 by an ion-pair liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) method to
53 determine the concentration of ethyl sulphate (EtS), the biomarker used to back-calculate
54 alcohol consumption.

55 *Results:* Alcohol consumption ranged from 4.5 to 46 mL/day/inhabitant. Differences in
56 consumption were statistically significant among the investigated cities and also between
57 weekdays and weekends. At the local level, in each investigated population WBE provided,
58 mostly, estimates of alcohol consumption comparable to those reported by its corresponding
59 region in the Spanish National Health Survey. Also at the national level, comparable results
60 were obtained between WBE-derived annual consumption rate (5.7 ± 1.2 L ethanol per capita
61 (aged 15+) and that reported for Spain in the National Health Survey (4.7 L ethanol per capita
62 (aged 15+)).

63 *Conclusions:* This is the largest WBE study carried out to date in Spain to estimate alcohol
64 consumption rates. It confirms that this approach is useful for establishing spatial and temporal
65 patterns of alcohol consumption which could contribute to the development of health care
66 management plans and policies. Nevertheless, further studies are needed to reduce the
67 uncertainties associated with WBE and to obtain more comparable data with established
68 indicators.

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78 1. Introduction

79 In 2016, the consumption of alcohol was responsible for 3 million deaths worldwide and it
80 became one of the main health risk factors for the population, being more harmful than digestive
81 diseases, road injuries, diabetes or violence (World Health Organization (WHO), 2018). In
82 Spain, alcohol is the psychoactive substance most consumed (Observatorio Español de las
83 Drogas y las Adicciones (OEDA), 2019). In 2017 (last reported year), 91% of the Spanish
84 population aged 15-64 years had consumed alcohol at some point in their lifetime, while 75%
85 had consumed alcohol in the last year, and 63% did it in the last month. Overall, the
86 consumption by men is higher than by women and the average age at which alcohol begins to
87 be consumed is 16.6 years (OEDA, 2019). According to the 2018's Global status report on
88 alcohol and health provided by the WHO, the annual intake of alcohol in Spain in 2016 was 10
89 L of pure alcohol per capita (aged 15+), which is similar to the European average (9.8 L) (WHO,
90 2018). These estimates are traditionally obtained from population surveys, recorded alcohol
91 data (alcohol taxation or sales) and unrecorded alcohol data (homemade or informally produced
92 alcohol, smuggled alcohol, alcohol for industrial or medical uses, alcohol obtained through
93 cross-border shopping, or surrogate alcohol) (WHO, 2018). Through surveys, consumption
94 figures can be disaggregated for specific population groups by age or gender. However, the use
95 of these tools/data to derive alcohol consumption figures is time consuming and relatively
96 expensive, and consequently it does not allow obtaining real-time estimates (i.e., consumption
97 data in Spain are given with a delay of two years). Furthermore, the data obtained by surveys
98 may not be representative of actual population consumption due to misreport of alcohol
99 consumption by survey participants (Stockwell et al., 2016; van Wel et al., 2016) or to
100 inaccurate estimates of unrecorded alcohol (Probst et al., 2019). Therefore, it is necessary to
101 propose alternative approaches that provide quick and precise information and that, together
102 with the traditional ones, can help to obtain a more reliable picture of alcohol consumption
103 rates.

104 Wastewater-based epidemiology (WBE) is a novel approach that has been applied in the last
105 decade to estimate illicit drug use at city level (González-Mariño et al., 2019). The European
106 Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) has adopted it, indeed, as a
107 complementary indicator to established methods for illicit drugs use estimation (EMCDDA,
108 2016). The WBE approach is based on the fact that, after consumption, the substances are
109 excreted via urine and faeces, either unaltered or as a metabolite, and conducted through the
110 sewage network to a wastewater treatment plant (WWTP). Thus, a raw wastewater sample
111 contains specific biomarkers of the drugs that can be used to back-calculate the amount of
112 substance that has been actually consumed. In the case of alcohol, after human consumption,
113 about 95% is metabolized in the liver via oxidation to acetaldehyde and acetic acid, about 5%
114 is excreted unaltered, and a small part (<0.1%) is excreted as ethyl sulphate (EtS) and ethyl
115 glucuronide (EtG) after conjugation with sulphate and glucuronic acid, respectively. EtS and
116 EtG can be detected in urine after 1 hour of alcohol intake (Helander and Beck, 2005), so they
117 have been proposed as good indicators for recent alcohol consumption. However, only EtS is
118 stable in wastewater (Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2014) and its occurrence in wastewater is
119 exclusively due to alcohol consumption and not to the metabolism of unaltered alcohol by

120 endogenous bacteria (Reid et al., 2011). Thus, EtS has been pointed out as the best biomarker
121 to estimate alcohol consumption by means of WBE.

122 WBE was first applied to estimate alcohol consumption in 2011 in Oslo (Norway) (Reid et al.,
123 2011) and, since then, many studies have been carried out in cities from other European
124 countries (Andrés-Costa et al., 2016; Baz-Lomba et al., 2016; Gatidou et al., 2016; Mastroianni
125 et al., 2014, 2017; Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2014, 2015; van Wel et al., 2016) Vietnam (Nguyen
126 et al., 2018), China (Gao et al., 2020), United States (Chen et al., 2019), Canada (Ryu et al.,
127 2016), and Australia (Zheng et al., 2020). The main objective of these studies was not only to
128 investigate spatial differences of alcohol consumption between populations or to assess changes
129 in alcohol consumption due to special events (Andrés-Costa et al., 2016), but also, to compare
130 WBE-derived alcohol estimates with alcohol consumption figures obtained by means of
131 traditional methods, such as, official data provided by the WHO or by national surveying
132 institutions. In these studies, the alcohol consumption rates were estimated from data gathered
133 from a single WWTP, which only serves a city or part of it, after a sampling period of one week
134 in most of the cases, except for Milan and Santiago (Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2015), Oslo (Reid
135 et al., 2011), Lied (Belgium) (van Wel et al., 2016), U.S (Chen et al., 2019) and Australia
136 (Zheng et al., 2020), for which longer sampling periods were used (namely, 2 weeks, 3 weeks,
137 four-two weeks periods, one weekday every month during eleven months, and one week every
138 two months during 6 years, respectively). To date, only two studies have conducted nation-wide
139 investigations by collecting samples from different WWTPs: a study conducted in Australia, in
140 which 18 WWTPs were sampled, covering 45% of the whole population (Lai et al., 2018); and
141 another one carried out in Belgium, which covered 8 WWTPs and 12.8% of the total population
142 (Boogaerts et al., 2016).

143 The present study is one of the few nation-wide applications of WBE to estimate alcohol
144 consumption rates, and the largest conducted so far in Spain. Wastewater samples were
145 analyzed from 17 WWTPs, covering 12.8% of the Spanish population. The specific objectives
146 of this work were: i) to assess spatial differences in alcohol consumption between the different
147 investigated areas in Spain, ii) to assess weekly consumption patterns, and iii) to extrapolate
148 the estimated alcohol consumption in the studied areas to the whole Spanish population, and to
149 compare it with official data reported by the WHO or national institutions.

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151 **2. Material and methods**

152 **2.1. Reagents**

153 Analytical standards of ethyl sulphate (EtS) and its isotopically labeled compound, EtS-d₅, were
154 obtained as EtS sodium salt and ethyl-d₅ sulphate salt from Cerilliant (Round Rock, TX, USA)
155 as solutions in methanol (MeOH) at a concentration of 1 mg/mL. Water and MeOH, both HPLC
156 grade, and acetic acid (98% purity) used as a mobile phase modifier, were purchased from
157 Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Dibutylamine (>99.5% purity), also used as a mobile phase
158 modifier, was obtained from Sigma Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany).

159 2.2. Standard solutions

160 Stock standard solutions were prepared at different concentrations in the range of 10 to 20,000
161 $\mu\text{g/L}$ by appropriate dilution of the commercial EtS standard in MeOH, with a constant
162 concentration of EtS- d_5 of 2,500 $\mu\text{g/L}$, and were stored in the dark at -20°C until analysis.
163 Before analysis, working standard solutions were freshly prepared by dilution of these stock
164 standard solutions in HPLC water (1:100, v/v).

165 2.3. Sample collection and preparation

166 Influent wastewater samples were collected from 17 WWTPs located in 13 Spanish cities that
167 belong to 7 out of the 17 regions of Spain. Figure S1 in the Supporting Information shows the
168 location of the sampled WWTPs. The sampling covers populations of various sizes (i.e.,
169 between 47,961 and 1,163,154 inhabitants). In total, the population reached with the sampling
170 was 5,981,848 inhabitants, which corresponds to 12.8% of the Spanish population. The cities
171 sampled were Barcelona, Bilbao, Castellón, Guadalajara, Lleida, Madrid, Móstoles, Palma de
172 Mallorca, Reus, Santiago de Compostela, Tarragona, Toledo, and Valencia, including in some
173 cases part of their metropolitan area. Except for Barcelona, Madrid and Móstoles, where
174 WWTPs only covered 35, 30 and 90% of their total population, respectively, all other main
175 cities were fully covered (100% of their population). Table S1 shows the populations served by
176 each WWTP as well as the sampling protocol carried out in each of them.

177 From each WWTP, 24-h composite influent wastewater samples were collected during seven
178 consecutive days in spring of 2018 using time or flow proportional techniques (Table S1). The
179 sampling was conducted during a “normal week”, so that special events such as holidays or
180 festivals were avoided. After collection, samples were immediately stored at -20°C . They were
181 sent frozen by courier in less than 24 hours to the laboratory in Barcelona, where all samples
182 were analyzed. Once in the laboratory, an aliquot of 10 mL was spiked with EtS- d_5 at a
183 concentration of 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and one mL of this sample was transferred to a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge
184 tube and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at a temperature of 4°C (Eppendorf 5810R,
185 Hamburg, Germany). Then, the supernatant was transferred to a glass vial and stored at -20°C
186 in the darkness until its analysis by liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass
187 spectrometry (LC-MS/MS).

188 2.4. Sample analysis

189 The analysis of EtS was performed with a previously described methodology based on ion-pair
190 LC-MS/MS (Mastroianni et al., 2014) using a SymbiosisTM Pico System (Spark Holland,
191 Emmen, The Netherlands) equipped with a 100 μL sample loop. The LC system was coupled
192 to a 4000QTRAP hybrid triple quadrupole-linear ion trap (QqLIT) mass spectrometer equipped
193 with a Turbo Ion Spray source (AB-Sciex, Foster City, CA, USA) set in the negative ionization
194 mode (ESI-). Chromatographic separation was performed with a Purospher Star RP-18 end-
195 capped column (125 mm \times 2 mm, particle size 5 μm) preceded by a guard column of the same
196 packing material and particle size, both from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and a mobile phase
197 consisting of MeOH and water both containing 5 mM of dibutylammonium acetate (DBAA) at
198 a constant flow rate of 0.3 mL/min. MS/MS detection was performed in selected reaction

199 monitoring mode (SRM) recording 2 SRM transitions for EtS (125→97, 125→80) and one for
200 EtS-d₅ (130→98). Data acquisition and evaluation was performed with Analyst 1.5 software
201 (AB-Sciex, Foster City, CA, USA). Quantification of the samples was based on the isotope
202 dilution method.

203 2.5. Alcohol consumption estimates

204 Back calculation of alcohol consumption was made according to the following equation:

$$205 \frac{mL\ EtOH}{day * inhabitant} = C_{EtS} \left[\frac{\mu g}{L} \right] * 10^{-6} \left[\frac{g}{\mu g} \right] * Q \left[\frac{m^3}{day} \right] * 10^3 \left[\frac{L}{m^3} \right] * \frac{1}{P} * 3047 * \frac{1}{\rho_{EtOH} \left(\frac{g}{mL} \right)}$$

206 where C_{EtS} is the concentration of EtS measured in the wastewater sample, Q is the water flow
207 entering the WWTP, P is the total population served by the WWTP (Table S1), 3047 is the
208 correction factor applied which takes into account the molar mass ratio between ethanol (MW:
209 46.07 g/mol) and EtS (MW: 126.13 g/mol) and the excretion rate of EtS in urine (0.012%)
210 (Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2015), and ρ_{EtOH} is ethanol density (0.789 g/mL).

211 2.6. Statistical data analysis

212 Data were statistically analysed to compare alcohol consumption rate between populations,
213 regions, weekdays and weekend, and between populations grouped according to their size
214 (above or below 300,000 inhabitants). Since data were not normally distributed (after Shapiro
215 Wilk test) or sample size was too small (n<10) in some cases, non-parametric tests were applied.
216 The U Mann Whitney test was used to compare two independent samples, whereas Kruskal
217 Wallis test was used to compare three or more individual groups. If the latter revealed
218 significant differences among groups, they were subsequently investigated after applying U
219 Mann Whitney test to each two populations. False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction for
220 multiple testing was applied to reduce the number of “false positive”. Spearman correlation test
221 was also applied to assess correlation between WBE-derived data and those reported by
222 established indicators. All the analysis were done using the software R (version R 3.5.3) and
223 considering a 95% confidence level (α = 0.05).

224

225 3. Results

226 3.1. Occurrence of EtS in wastewater samples and alcohol consumption estimations

227 Table 1 shows the concentrations of EtS, the mass loads of EtS that reached each WWTP and
228 the estimated alcohol consumption in each investigated area, expressed as average, median and
229 range; whereas Figure 1 depicts alcohol consumption in the form of boxplots by each
230 investigated population and in the various considered regions. EtS was found in all samples
231 above LOQ (0.07 μg/L) at concentrations ranging from 1.4 μg/L (Santiago de Compostela) to
232 74 μg/L (Tarragona). The average weekly concentrations of EtS ranged from 2.9 to 43 μg/L,
233 with the lowest values being found in the WWTPs that serve the cities of Santiago de
234 Compostela, Lleida, and Guadalajara (below 10 μg/L) and the highest values in the WWTPs

235 that serve Móstoles (31 µg/L) and Tarragona (43 µg/L). The average weekly levels of EtS
236 measured in the remaining WWTPs were between 11 (Toledo) and 21 µg/L (Reus).

237 The alcohol consumption estimated from levels of EtS in the analyzed samples ranged from 4.5
238 (Santiago de Compostela) to 46 mL/day/inhabitant (Tarragona). The cities with the highest
239 average alcohol consumption were Tarragona, Bilbao, and Móstoles, with average weekly
240 consumption of 27, 20, and 17 mL/day/inhabitant, respectively. The lowest average alcohol
241 consumptions (<10 mL/day/inhabitant) were estimated in Toledo (7.4), Santiago de
242 Compostela (8.4), Lleida (8.5), Madrid-Centre (8.9), Castellón (9.0), and Valencia-QB (9.4).
243 In the remaining investigated areas (Guadalajara, Barcelona, Reus, Madrid-North, Valencia-PI,
244 Valencia-P II and Palma de Mallorca), average alcohol consumption was between 11 and 14
245 mL/day/inhabitant.

246 Comparing with previous studies conducted in Spain, similar alcohol consumption rates were
247 previously reported in Barcelona (18 mL/day/inhabitant (aged 15+)) (Mastroianni et al., 2017)
248 and Castellón (6.6 mL/day /inhabitant) (Baz-Lomba et al., 2016). On the contrary, higher
249 alcohol consumption in Santiago de Compostela (13.6-16.3 mL/day/inhabitant) (Rodríguez-
250 Álvarez et al., 2015, 2014), and lower alcohol consumption in Valencia-PI (6.2
251 mL/day/inhabitant (aged 15+)), Valencia-P II (3 mL/day/inhabitant (aged 15+)) and Valencia-
252 QB (9.4 mL/day/inhabitant (aged 15+)) (Andrés-Costa et al., 2016) were previously reported.

253 Comparing with other international studies, the estimated rates in the investigated Spanish
254 populations (average alcohol consumption from 7.4 to 27 mL/day/inhabitant), were similar to
255 those reported by other investigated cities (Table S2) except in Ho Chin Minh (Vietnam)
256 (Nguyen et al., 2018), Lesvos (Greece) (Gatidou et al., 2016), Milan (Italy) (Baz-Lomba et al.,
257 2016; Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2015) and Lugano (Switzerland) (Ryu et al., 2016) where
258 alcohol consumption rates (from 3.4 to 6.6 mL/day/inhabitant) were lower than those estimated
259 for Spanish populations. On the contrary, Copenhagen (Denmark) and Granby (Canada) (Ryu
260 et al., 2016), showed higher alcohol consumption rates, 40 and 44 mL/day/inhabitant,
261 respectively.

262

263 **3.2. Spatial variation in alcohol consumption**

264 Statistical test applied to evaluate spatial variation in alcohol consumption among different
265 population showed that populations belonging to the same region showed no statistically
266 significant differences in alcohol consumption (p-value > 0.05, U Mann Whitney test) (Table
267 S3) while, statistically significant differences between populations belonging to different
268 regions were found (p-value < 0.05, U Mann Whitney test) (Table S3). Particularly, alcohol
269 consumption estimated for the population served by Bilbao WWTP was different to that
270 observed in 9 other populations, namely, Castellón, Guadalajara, Lleida, Madrid-Centre,
271 Santiago de Compostela, Toledo, Valencia-PI, Valencia-P II and Valencia-QB, with median
272 alcohol consumption in Bilbao between 1.5 (Valencia-P II) and 3 (Toledo) times higher than in
273 the aforementioned cities. Also, statistically significant differences were observed between
274 Palma de Mallorca and Toledo (consumption in Palma de Mallorca 2 times higher than in

275 Toledo) and between Móstoles and Castellón (consumption in Móstoles 1.7 times higher than
276 in Castellón) (Table 1 and S3).

277 At the regional level (Figure 1b, Table S4) differences of alcohol consumption were statistically
278 significant (p -value < 0.05 , U Mann Whitney test) between Basque Country and all the other
279 investigated regions, except Catalonia, and between Balearic Islands and the region of Castilla-
280 La Mancha and Galicia (Table S4). The median consumption of alcohol in the Basque Country
281 (19 mL/day/inhabitant) was between 1.5 and 2.2 times higher than the median consumption
282 observed in Balearic Islands (12), Community of Madrid (11), Valencian Community (9.5),
283 Castilla-La Mancha (8.7) and Galicia (8.5 mL/day/inhabitant). Balearic Islands presented a
284 median figure of alcohol consumption 1.5 times higher than those obtained in Castilla-La
285 Mancha and Galicia.

286 As for the city size, small cities, i.e., those with official census populations $< 300,000$
287 inhabitants (Toledo, Guadalajara, Santiago de Compostela, Reus, Tarragona, Lleida, Castellón
288 and Móstoles), showed significantly lower alcohol consumption rates per capita than large
289 cities, i.e., those with official census population $>300,000$ (p -value < 0.05 , U Mann Whitney).

290 **3.3. Weekly patterns**

291 Figure 2 shows the daily alcohol consumption expressed as mL/day/inhabitant or as the
292 contribution of each day to the total weekly consumption observed in each population. The
293 difference in the amount of alcohol consumed during the weekend (Saturday and Sunday)
294 (median=15 mL/day/inhabitant) and during the weekdays (Monday to Friday) (median=9.0
295 mL/day/inhabitant) was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$, U Mann Whitney).

296 Figure S2 shows the weekly trends of alcohol consumption in the investigated populations. The
297 strongest differences in alcohol consumption between weekdays and weekends were observed
298 in Reus and Toledo (with average consumption figures 2.2 and 2.0 times higher, respectively,
299 during the weekend than during weekdays), and the weakest in Madrid-North (where Monday
300 is the day of highest consumption) and Tarragona (where, in fact, large variations in alcohol
301 consumption were observed throughout the week (Figure S2)).

302 Figure 2 also shows a general high contribution of Mondays to total weekly alcohol
303 consumption figures when compared with the other weekdays. According to Høiseth et al., EtS
304 can remain in urine for several hours (between 25 and 48) depending on the dose of ethanol
305 ingested (Høiseth et al., 2008), so, the high value of alcohol consumption estimated on Monday
306 could be attributed to the presence of EtS in wastewater from its consumption during the
307 weekend.

308 **3.4. Nationwide extrapolation**

309 The total daily alcohol load (Kg/day) that arrived at each WWTP was used to back-calculate
310 alcohol consumption at national level. Data were extrapolated taking into account that the
311 population covered by the study was about 6.0 million inhabitants (12.8% of the Spanish
312 population) and the total population of Spain in 2018 accounted for 46.7 million inhabitants
313 (INE, 2018). The extrapolation resulted in an annual consumption of 4.8 ± 1.1 L of pure ethanol

314 per capita in Spain, which increases to 5.7 ± 1.2 L or 5.9 ± 1.3 L of pure ethanol when only
315 population above 15 years (aged 15+) or adult population (aged 18+) is considered, respectively
316 (Table S5). This value is in line with official data reported by the National Health Survey (INE)
317 (Table S6) that reports an average weekly consumption of 13 mL/day/inhabitant (aged 15+)
318 equivalent to an average annual consumption of 4.7 L of pure ethanol per capita (aged 15+),
319 and also with official data published by the Spanish Ministry of Agriculture, Fishing and Food,
320 which indicates a consumption of beer of 51.8 L per capita (+18) (MAPA, 2018), equivalent to
321 4.3 L of pure ethanol per capita (aged 18+) taking into account that alcohol consumption by
322 type of alcoholic beverage is distributed as 54% beer, 18% wine and 28% spirits and the alcohol
323 content in each one is 4.5, 12 and 40%, respectively (WHO, 2018). On the contrary, higher
324 alcohol consumption rate (10 L of pure ethanol per capita (aged 15+)) was reported for Spain
325 in the WHO report (WHO, 2018).

326

327 **4. Discussion**

328 In this study, alcohol consumption in different populations of Spain was estimated by means of
329 WBE. The population investigated covers 12.8% of the total Spanish population and is
330 distributed around 13 main cities and 7 different regions. Results showed spatial variations in
331 alcohol consumption among specific populations and among regions. Although Tarragona,
332 Bilbao and Móstoles were the cities with the highest average alcohol consumption figures,
333 Bilbao was the only one where alcohol consumption was significantly different to several other
334 populations (see Table S3 and Figure 1). Also, alcohol consumption in Palma de Mallorca and
335 Móstoles was significantly higher than in Toledo and Castellón, respectively. WBE-derived
336 alcohol consumption figures were compared with the latest data reported by the National Health
337 Survey carried out by the Spanish Ministry of Health, Consumption and Social Welfare in
338 collaboration with the National Institute of Statistics (INE) (INE, 2017) and with prevalence
339 data reported in the Annual Report of the Spanish Observatory on Drugs and Drugs Addiction
340 (OEDA, 2019). Since official data are only provided at the level of regions, the average alcohol
341 consumption obtained in each investigated population was compared with consumption data
342 reported for its corresponding region. Figure 3 compares WBE data and INE National Health
343 Survey data. WBE-derived alcohol consumption figures in five of the investigated populations
344 (Toledo, Lleida, Madrid-Centre, Castellón, and Valencia-QB) showed good correlation with
345 INE official data at the region level, being the differences of consumption figures lower than
346 13%, whereas a weaker correlation (differences of consumption between 22 and 30%) was
347 observed in 4 populations (Palma de Mallorca, Reus, Valencia-PI, and Valencia-PII). WBE-
348 derived data in the remaining populations (Bilbao, Guadalajara, Barcelona, Tarragona, Madrid-
349 North, Móstoles, and Santiago de Compostela) showed larger differences with official INE
350 data.

351 On the other hand, comparison of WBE-data with prevalence data of alcohol consumption
352 reported for each region, showed poor correlation when all investigated populations were
353 considered (see Figure S3). However, as shown in Figure 4, when the data from the 7
354 populations that did not correlate with official INE consumption figures (Bilbao, Guadalajara,

355 Barcelona, Tarragona, Madrid-North, Móstoles, and Santiago de Compostela) were removed,
356 a significant correlation was observed (r^2 “Lifetime prevalence”: 0.4499, p-value < 0.05; r^2
357 “Last year prevalence”: 0.5407, p-value < 0.05). WBE-data showed that the population
358 belonging to the Basque Country presented a significantly higher consumption than populations
359 belonging to the other regions (except Catalonia) and also that alcohol consumption in the
360 Balearic Islands was significantly higher than in those belonging to Castilla-La Mancha and
361 Galicia. These results are in agreement with prevalence data only in the case of Balearic Islands
362 since according to prevalence data reported by the Annual Report (Figure S4), Balearic Islands
363 shows higher prevalence of consumption than Castilla-La Mancha and Galicia. However, in the
364 case of the Basque Country, prevalence of alcohol consumption, although above the Spanish
365 average, is similar to that reported for the Valencian Community or Galicia (Figure S4).

366 The differences observed between WBE-derived alcohol consumption figures and established
367 indicators could have different explanations. On the one hand, the populations sampled may
368 not be representative of alcohol consumption in the whole region. As previously demonstrated,
369 significant differences in alcohol consumption were observed between small and large
370 populations (section 3.2). In addition, in some cases, only one municipality was sampled in a
371 specific region (i.e., Balearic Islands and Galicia) which may not adjust to the alcohol
372 consumption patterns of the whole region. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that within
373 the same region, WBE-data derived from some populations correlated well with the INE survey
374 data, whereas others did not (see Castilla-La Mancha, Catalonia and Community of Madrid in
375 Figure 3). Thus, increasing the population sampled or sampling populations of different size
376 within one region, could lead to a more representative picture of the habits of consumption of
377 the whole region. Despite this, at the national level, the annual alcohol consumption rate
378 obtained by means of WBE approach was comparable to that reported by the National Health
379 Survey, which may indicate that the sampled population is quite representative of the whole
380 country.

381 On the other hand, data reported by established methods may also not represent the actual
382 consumption by the population since they are also affected by certain uncertainty. In fact, the
383 two established indicators used to compare the WBE-derived estimates, provide different
384 results, in the sense that the highest prevalence data are reported for Balearic Islands (see Figure
385 S4), whereas the highest alcohol consumption rate was reported for Galicia in the INE National
386 Health Survey (Figure 3).

387 As expected, the weekly consumption patterns in most populations showed an increase in
388 alcohol consumption during the weekend. Saturday and Sunday were the days when alcohol
389 consumption contributed the most to the total weekly consumption, with a median contribution
390 of 20%, while the remaining days of the week contributed between 11% (Tuesday) and 14%
391 (Monday) (Figure 2b). Similar results were obtained in Australia, where each weekend day
392 contributed with 20% to the weekly consumption rate, while the rest of the days of the week
393 varied between 11% and 13% (Lai et al., 2018). The increase in alcohol consumption during
394 the weekend was also reported in an international study conducted in 11 different countries
395 worldwide (Baz-Lomba et al., 2016), in Norway (Reid et al., 2011), Belgium (Boogaerts et al.,
396 2016; van Wel et al., 2016), and in Spain, where previous studies, far less ambitious than the

397 present study, were done in Barcelona (Mastroianni et al., 2017, 2014), Santiago de Compostela
398 (Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2015, 2014) and Valencia (Andrés-Costa et al., 2016). The increase
399 of alcohol consumption during the weekend was also reported by the INE National Health
400 Survey for all regions investigated in the present study in terms of consumption rate (see Table
401 S6) (INE, 2017), so again, good correlation was obtained between WBE approach and
402 established indicators.

403 Unlike the Spanish National Health Survey, WBE-derived data show low correlation to those
404 reported by the WHO. This fact was also observed in the nation-wide study carried out in
405 Belgium (Boogaerts et al., 2016) in which the national alcohol consumption rate estimated by
406 WBE approach was half than that reported by WHO. Such differences can be attributed to the
407 fact that WHO data may not be appropriately represent the actual consumption of alcohol by
408 the population. WHO data are derived from production, import, export and sale data, which in
409 countries where there is not a strict control, like Spain, can lead to an overestimation of
410 consumption, since alcohol can be stored and not consumed shortly after purchase. In this sense,
411 it has been checked that in countries like Norway, where sales statistics are among the most
412 accurate in the world, good correlation was obtained between WBE and WHO data (Reid et al.,
413 2011). Also it is important to mention that, in this study, WBE data have been obtained from
414 samples collected during only one week which may not be representative of alcohol
415 consumption throughout the entire year. Increasing the sampling period, several times a year or
416 during consecutive years, could be used to obtain temporal trends in alcohol consumption
417 within one year and throughout the years.

418 Although, good correlation has been mostly obtained between WBE-derived data and those
419 obtained with established indicators, the estimates of alcohol consumption by means of WBE
420 have associated other uncertainties that should be taken into consideration. On the one hand, it
421 has been shown that EtS is stable in wastewater (one week at room temperature and more than
422 1 month at -20°C) (Rodríguez-Álvarez et al., 2014), however, in sewage systems EtS could be
423 degraded to some extent (Banks et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2018). This could lead to an
424 underestimation of the real alcohol consumption, which could (partially) explain the lower
425 consumption estimates obtained by means of WBE compared to those reported by the WHO.
426 Although, as demonstrated in a recent study conducted in Australia, degradation can be
427 corrected by applying a correction factor (Zheng et al., 2020). On the other hand, the excretion
428 rate used to back calculate alcohol consumption was obtained from two studies in which only
429 10 men (Høiseth et al., 2008) and one man (Wurst et al., 2006) were investigated, respectively.
430 Further studies involving more volunteers of different age, gender or race, or studying the
431 excretion rate among Spanish population could help to obtain a more representative excretion
432 rate which would increase the accuracy of back-calculations. Finally, other sources of
433 uncertainty may come from the sampling (collection of a not representative sample), inaccurate
434 measurement of the water volume entering the plant, and the calculation of the size of the
435 population that contributes to the total EtS load measured in wastewater (Castiglioni et al.,
436 2013). In the present study, the latter was assessed using different methods (census data,
437 population connected to the WWTP, water quality parameters), following in each case the

438 recommendations provided by the experts of the WWTP in order to obtain the value that best
439 reflects the population served by each WWTP.

440 Regardless of the aforementioned limitations, the WBE approach appears as a promising,
441 convenient tool for alcohol consumption assessment, which surely needs to be refined in the
442 next few years. WBE is much useful to establish spatial and temporal variations in alcohol
443 consumption in a fast, objective and inexpensive way, providing data in nearly real-time. WBE
444 can complement in this way the information gained with the established methodologies which
445 are also affected by some uncertainties. In this sense, the use of different indicators and sources
446 of information would definitely improve the alcohol consumption estimates and hence,
447 contribute to a better development and evaluation of health care management plans and policies.

448

449 **5. Conclusions**

450 The present work represents the first nation-wide study conducted in Spain to evaluate alcohol
451 consumption through the application of the WBE approach, and is one of the first nation-wide
452 assessments available worldwide. The study has covered 13 main cities (in some cases
453 including surrounding towns) that represent 12.8% of the Spanish total population. The results
454 show that WBE is a useful tool to define spatial and temporal variations in alcohol consumption
455 in a fast, objective and inexpensive way, providing complementary data to the information
456 gained with the established methodologies. The WBE-derived alcohol consumption data
457 correlated well (within $\pm 15\%$) with official data reported by conventional methods at the region
458 level in 5 out of the 16 populations investigated (31% of the total population examined), and
459 satisfactorily (within $\pm 30\%$) in 9 of the populations studied (accounting for 56% of the
460 scrutinized population). Also, extrapolation of WBE-derived alcohol consumption estimates to
461 the national territory led to an annual consumption of alcohol in Spain comparable to that
462 reported for Spain by the National Health survey, although, lower than that reported by the
463 WHO. The comparison of WBE data with those obtained with established consumption
464 indicators should be done with caution because both methodologies are subject to some
465 uncertainties. Increasing the sampling period, the sampled population, and conducting further
466 studies on alcohol metabolism to establish appropriate correction factors would help to reduce
467 the main uncertainties associated with WBE and, therefore, to improve the accuracy of the
468 consumption estimates.

469

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489

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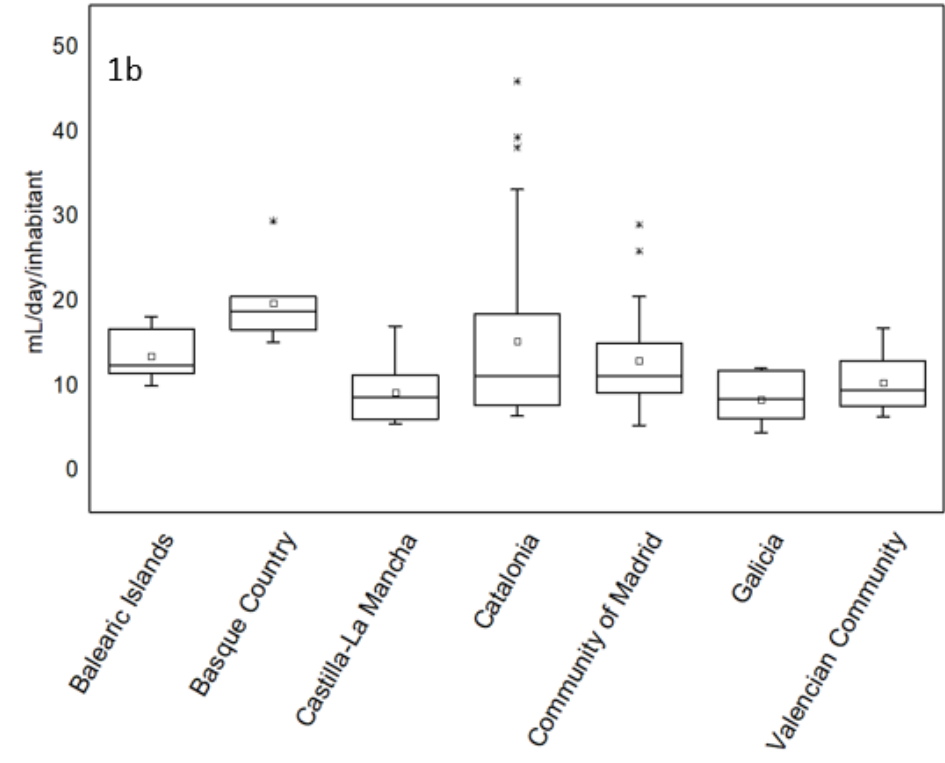
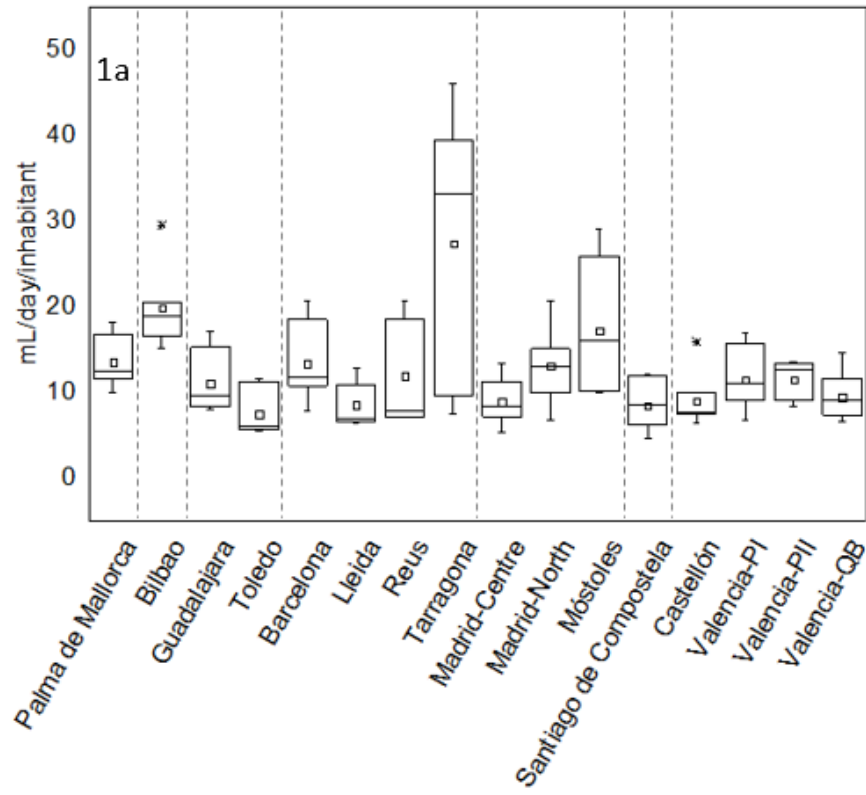
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622

623 **Table 1.** Frequency of detection of EtS (%), EtS concentration ($\mu\text{g/L}$), EtS load (mg/day/inhabitant) and alcohol consumption (mL/day/inhabitant)
 624 in the investigated cities (expressed as average, median and range).

	Freq. (%)	Concentration ($\mu\text{g/L}$)			EtS load (mg/day/inhabitant)			Alcohol (mL/day/inhabitant)			Average weekdays	Average weekend
		Average	Median	Range	Average	Median	Range	Average	Median	Range		
Palma I	100	15	15	11-21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Palma II	100	18	16	14-26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Palma de Mallorca ^a	-	-	-	-	3492	3221	2581-4702	14	12	10-18	12	17
Bilbao	100	17	16	18-29	5133	4867	3906-7632	20	19	15-30	19	23
Guadalajara	100	9.3	7.8	6.5-15	2857	2499	2051-4417	11	9.7	7.9-17	9.0	16
Toledo	100	11	9.1	7.8-19	1926	1555	1426-3007	7.4	6.0	5.5-12	5.8	11
Barcelona	100	16	14	5.9-25	3455	3021	2030-5352	13	12	7.8-21	11	20
Lleida	100	7.4	6.9	5.6-10	2208	1807	1663-3333	8.5	7.0	6.4-13	7.2	12
Reus	100	21	13	12-39	3081	2036	1814-5363	12	7.9	7.0-21	8.8	20
Tarragona	100	43	50	11-74	7091	8597	1935-11906	27	33	7.5-46	27	28
Madrid-Centre	100	15	15	9.4-23	2301	2175	1381-3431	8.9	8.4	5.3-13	7.6	12
Madrid-North	100	18	17	9.4-26	3375	3342	1719-5327	13	13	6.6-21	13	14
Móstoles	100	31	28	18-50	4430	4147	2592-7520	17	16	10-29	15	22
Santiago de Compostela	100	2.9	2.7	1.4-4.4	2178	2197	1173-3124	8.4	8.5	4.5-12	7.0	12
Castellón	100	12	11	7.3-23	2325	1964	1635-4101	9.0	7.6	6.3-16	7.4	13
Valencia-PI	100	13	13	7.5-19	2977	2829	1722-4364	12	11	6.6-17	9.6	16
Valencia-PII	100	12	11	6.9-19	2957	3282	2168-3483	11	13	8.4-13	11	13
Valencia-QB	100	14	11	10-22	2438	2339	1693-3770	9.4	9.0	6.5-15	8.0	13

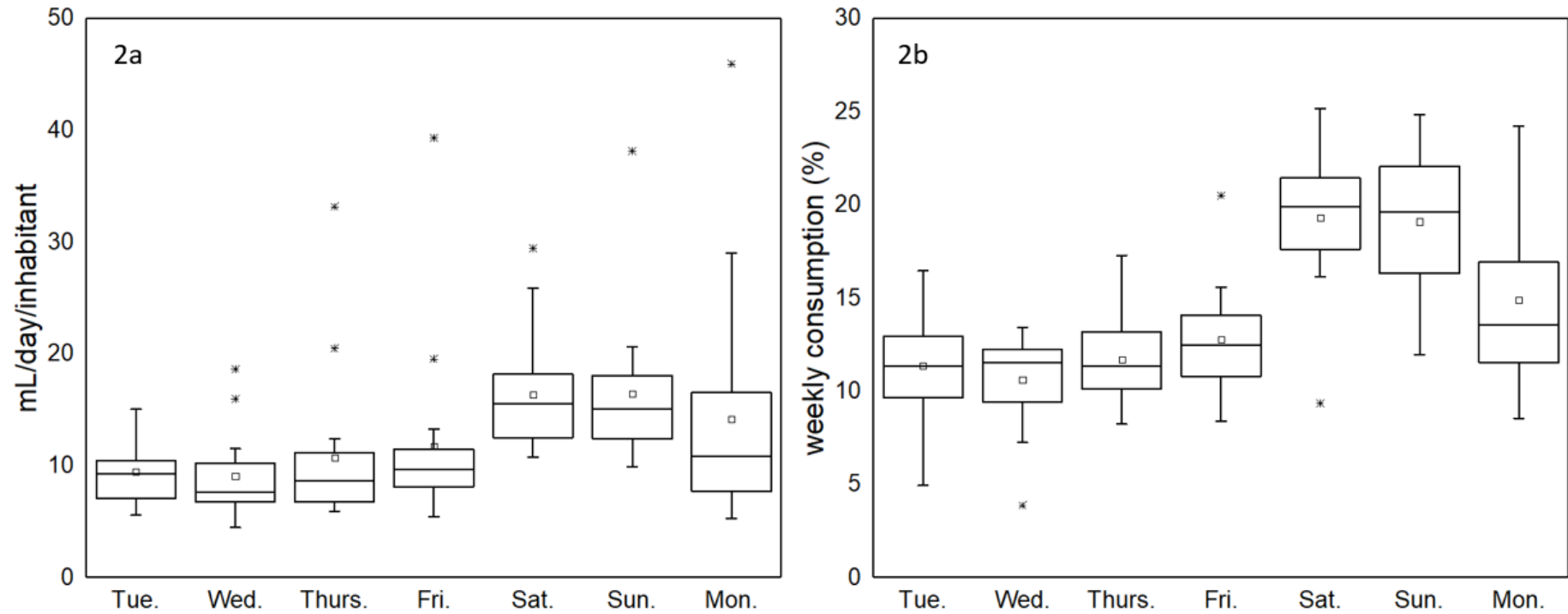
625 ^aDuring sampling period Palma I derived part of its water flow to Palma II, so to calculate EtS load and to estimate alcohol consumption, Palma I
 626 and Palma II were jointly treated as Palma de Mallorca.



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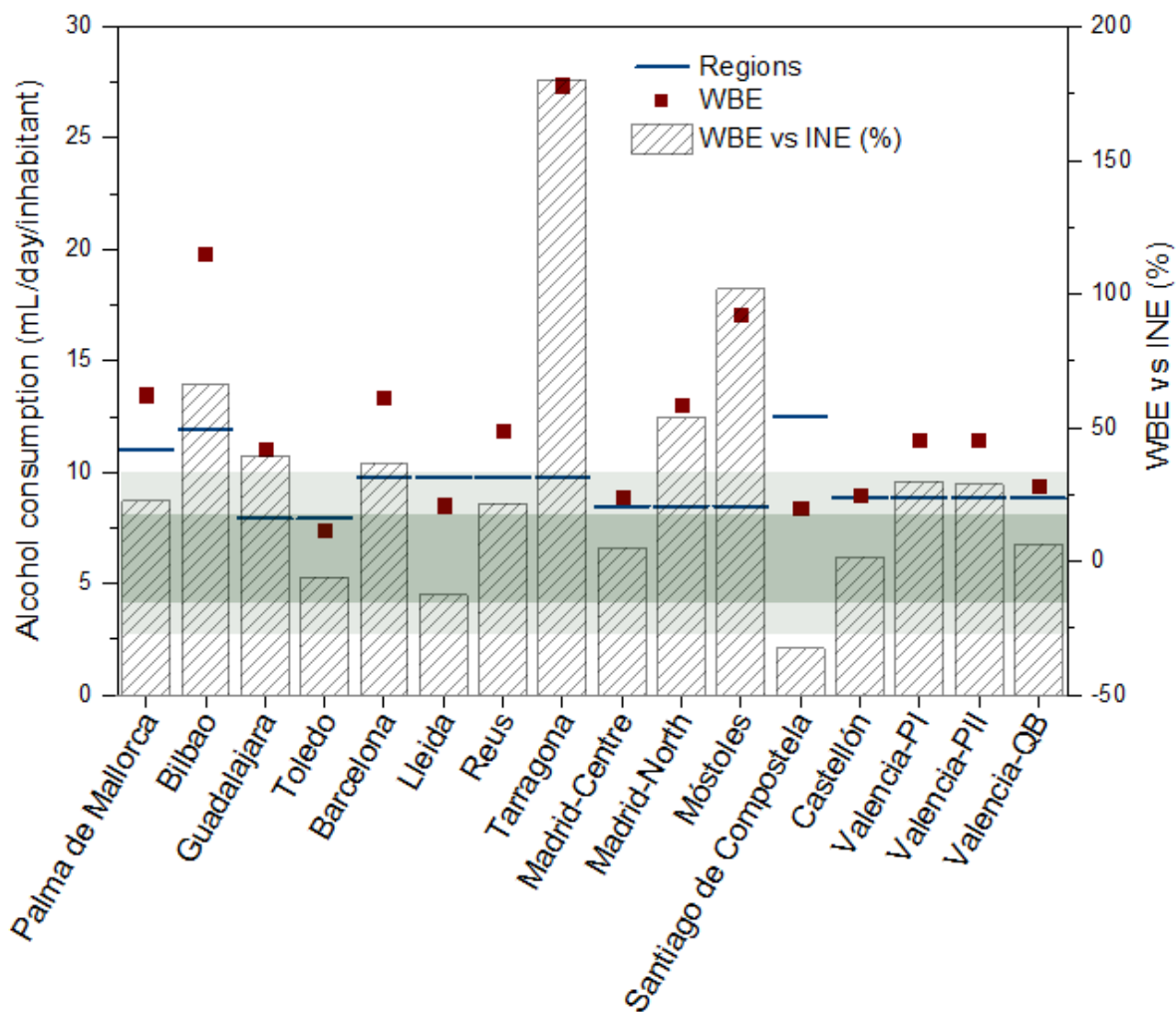
628 **Figure 1.** Distribution of alcohol consumption among investigated populations (Figure 1a) and among regions (Figure 1b). (In Figure 1a,
629 populations belonging to the same region are shown between vertical lines; * Outlier).

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631

632 **Figure 2.** Distribution of alcohol consumption throughout the week expressed as mL/day/inhabitant (Figure 2a) and contribution of each day to
633 the total weekly consumption (%) (Figure 2b). (*Outlier)



635

636 **Figure 3.** Alcohol consumption estimated in the investigated populations by means of WBE
 637 (red square), data reported for the corresponding region in the INE National Health Survey
 638 (blue line) and differences of consumption between WBE data and survey data (grated bars)
 639 (%). (The bars within the dark green zone delimit consumption differences between both
 640 methodologies below 15% and those within the light green zone below 30%)

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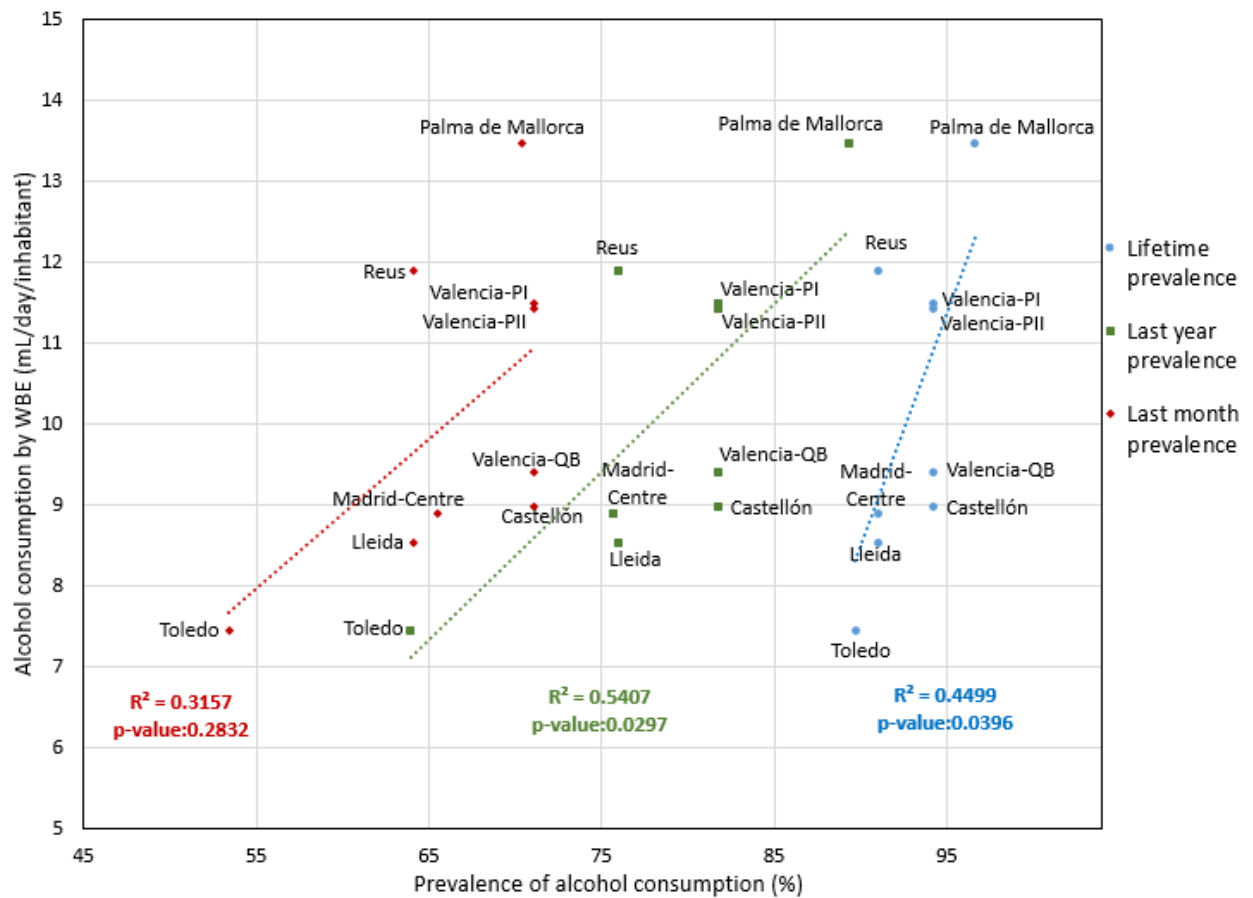
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651 **Figure 4.** Correlation between average alcohol consumption estimated in each city by WBE
652 (mL/day/inhabitant) and prevalence data (“Lifetime prevalence”, “Last year prevalence” and
653 “Last month prevalence”) reported by its region in the Annual Report of the Spanish
654 Observatory on Drugs and Drugs Addiction 2019. (Data from Guadalajara, Barcelona,
655 Tarragona, Madrid-North, Móstoles, Santiago de Compostela and Bilbao were excluded;
656 Spearman correlation $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant).