



Environmental risk assessment of effluents as a whole emerging contaminant: Efficiency of alternative tertiary treatments for wastewater depuration



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 17 November 2016

Received in revised form

3 April 2017

Accepted 8 April 2017

Available online 10 April 2017

Keywords:

Microalgae-culture

Aquatic ecosystem

Removal efficiency

Advance oxidation processes

Pharmaceutical and personal care products

Regulated compounds

ABSTRACT

Emerging contaminants (ECs) and regulated compounds (RCs) from three different WWTP effluents were measured in the current study. The efficiency of two tertiary treatments, Photobiotreatment (PhtBio) and Multi-Barrier Treatment (MBT), for removing contaminants was determined. Results indicated different percentages of removal depending on the treatment and the origin of the effluent. Risk Quotients (RQs) were determined for different species of algae, *Daphnia*, and fish. RQ results revealed diverse risk values depending on the bioindicator species. Tonalide, galaxolide (fragrances), and ofloxacin (antibiotic) were the most persistent and harmful substances in tested effluents. “Negligible risk” category was reached since a wide diversity of ECs were removed by MBT with high removal percentages. Contrarily, PhtBio was effective only in the depuration of certain chemical compounds, and its efficiency depended on the composition of the raw effluent.

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1. Introduction

Currently, detection of emerging contaminants (ECs) at very low concentrations due to the advances in analytical techniques, has revealed a worldwide issue (Stuart et al., 2012). During the last decade, research studies regarding the environmental impact of chemical pollution have switched from conventional priority contaminants to compounds that are present at lower concentrations as ECs (Papa et al., 2013). Municipal effluents have been recognized as a major source of many environmental contaminants such as regulated compounds (RCs) including: polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), pesticides

(Pintado-Herrera et al., 2014); or heavy metals (Fu and Wang, 2011).

Recently, pharmaceutically active compounds (PhACs) and personal care products (PCPs), among other ECs, have been identified in municipal effluents (Lara-Martín et al., 2014; Maranhão et al., 2015; Pintado-Herrera et al., 2014). Adverse effects have been reported in previous publications for aquatic environments such as neuroendocrine, mutagenic, or health effects due to the exposition of ECs (e.g. François et al., 2015; Quinn et al., 2011). Additionally, several ECs (e.g. synthetic musks) are persistent and bio-accumulative due to their hydrophobicity, even though it occurs at very low concentrations (μg – ng/L) (Deblonde and Hartemann, 2013). Hydrophobic compounds come into the aquatic organisms through different pathways like gills or cellular walls to their circulatory fluid (Lee et al., 2015). Presence of these xenobiotics activates the defensive mechanism of the organisms and provokes metabolic responses, and consequently adverse effects in their bodies. Likewise, recent studies of PCPs have documented adverse effects in aquatic biota exposed to wastewaters

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Acronyms

AHTN	Tonalide	MEC	Measured environmental concentration
ALBU	Albuterol	MK	Musk ketone
ALOL	Atenolol	MLOL	Metoprolol
AMT	Amitriptyline	MNS	Monensin
AOP	Advance oxidation process	MNZ	Metronidazole
AZMYC	Azithromycin	MS	Mass Spectrometry
BFIF	Benzafibrate	MTCS	Methyl-Triclosan
BOD	Biological oxygen demand	MX	Musk xylene
BP3	Benzophenone	NANO	Nadolol
BpA	Bisphenol A	NCIN	Norfloxacin
CAFF	Caffeine	NPX	Naproxen
CBZ	Carbamazepine	O&M	Operational and Maintenance
CELE	Celestolide	OCIN	Ofloxacin
CHLO	Chlorpyrifos	OTNE	1-(1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 Octahydro-2,3,8,8-tetramethyl-2-naphthalenyl) ethanone
CLIND	Clindamycin	PAHs	Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
COD	Chemical oxygen demand	PCBs	polychlorinated biphenyls
CWPO	Catalytic wet peroxide oxidation	PCPs	Personal care products
DDT	Dichloro diphenyl trichloroethane	PhACs	Pharmaceutically active compounds
DEET	N,N-Dietil-meta-toluamida	PHE	Phenazone
DIC	Diclofenaco	PHEN	Phenantreno
EC ₅₀	Half maximal effective concentration	PhtBio	Photobiotreatment
ECs	Emerging Contaminants	PNEC	Predicted no-effect concentration
EMYC	Erythromycin	PRLOL	Propranolol
EST	Estrone	RANI	Ranitidine
FAMO	Famotidine	RCs	Regulated Compounds
FENO	Fenofibrate	RMYC	Roxithromycin
FLUX	Fluoxetine	SBSE	Stir bar sorptive extraction
FURO	Furosemide	SMZ	Sulfamethoxazole
GAC	granular activated carbon	SMZO	Sulfamethizole
GEMF	Gemfibrozil	SPE	Solid phase extraction
GLYB	Glyburide	SS	Suspended solids
HCTZ	Hydrochlorothiazide	STZ	Sulfathiazole
HHCB	Galaxolide	TCS	Triclosan
RQ	Risk Quotient	TLOL	Timolol
HRAP	High rate algal ponds	TMT	Trimethoprim
IBU	Ibuprofen	TPP	Triphenylphosphate
KPF	Ketoprofen	UV	Ultraviolet
LINCO	Lincomycin	WET	Whole effluent toxicity
MBT	Multibarrier treatment	WWTPs	Wastewater treatment plants

(e.g. Vallecillos et al., 2015).

Worldwide consumption of substances containing ECs has increased along with their detection in wastewater and receiving aquatic ecosystems (Lara-Martin et al., 2015; Maranhão et al., 2015). Following the legislation requirements, WWTPs are designed to eliminate suspended solids, organic matter, and nutrients. Nevertheless, several studies have pointed out that conventional methodologies used to depurate municipal wastewater treatment plant (WWTPs) effluents are generally unable to effectively remove ECs (Gracia-Lor et al., 2012; Verlicchi et al., 2012b).

In recent years, many international research groups and governmental institutions have directed their efforts on assessing together the environmental quality of wastewater discharges and the potential adverse effects on the receiving ecosystems. Moreover, researchers have also focused on the incorporation of an additional tertiary treatment to the traditional ones in order to achieve a higher level of depuration aiming to remove specific groups of chemicals, pathogens, etc. that are not removed with

traditional technologies (Gupta and Thakur, 2015).

Together with the sequestration of heavy metals (Suresh Kumar et al., 2015), organic pollutants (Hemalatha and Venkata Mohan, 2016) and pathogen organisms (García et al., 2008), the use of microalgae biotechnology for wastewater treatment is particularly attractive because of its photosynthetic capabilities, producing useful biomass using solar energy and incorporating nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus) causing eutrophication (Mennaa et al., 2015).

Using microalgae for wastewater treatment was first published sixty years ago by Oswald and Gotaas (1957). Since then, it has been intensively tested and nowadays there are some examples of full-scale application of microalgae processes in WWTP (e.g. EU FP7 ALL-GAS project, n° ENER/FP7/268208) (All-Gas, 2016). The main disadvantages of the traditional advanced Biological Nutrient Removal technologies (BNR) for nutrients removal are high costs, complex operation and great volume of waste sludge production (Lugowski et al., 2007). In the case of tertiary treatments for

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