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Influence of combustion-originated dioxins in atmospheric deposition on water quality of an urban river in Japan

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ABSTRACT

Bulk (wet and dry) deposition samples were collected in Saitama Prefecture, Japan 14 throughout a year (February 8, 2012 to February 7, 2013) to estimate the influence of 15 dioxins emitting from waste incinerators on river water quality. The annual deposition flux 16 of dioxins was 3.3 ng-toxic equivalent (TEQ)/m²/year. Source identification using indicative 17 congeners estimated that 82% of dioxin TEQ in the bulk deposition (2.7 ng-TEQ/m²/year) 18 was combustion-originated, indicating that most of the dioxins in the deposition were 19 derived from waste incinerators. In Saitama prefecture the annual flux of combustion- 20 originated dioxins in depositions was apparently consistent with that of dioxin emission 21 into the air from waste incinerators. The TEQ of combustion-originated dioxins in the 22 deposition per rainfall was 2.4 pg-TEQ/L on annual average, exceeding the environmental 23 quality standard (EQS) for water in Japan of 1 pg-TEQ/L. This suggests there is a possibility 24 that dioxins in atmospheric deposition have a significant influence on the water quality of 25 urban rivers which rainwater directly flows into because of many paved areas in the basins. 26 The influence of combustion-originated dioxin in the deposition on the water quality of 27 Ayase River, an urban river heavily polluted with dioxins, was estimated at 0.29 pg-TEQ/L 28 on annual average in 2015. It seems that dioxins in atmospheric deposition from waste 29 incinerators have a significant influence on water quality of some urban rivers via rainwater 30 though the dioxins in the ambient air have achieved the EQS for atmosphere at all 31 monitoring sites in Japan. 32

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48 Introduction

50In the 1990s, environmental pollution by polychlorinated 51dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDDs), polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) and dioxin-like polychlorinated biphenyls (DL-PCBs) 52(these compounds are referred to as dioxins in this study) 53emitted from waste incinerators was a serious problem in 54 Japan. To reduce the dioxin emission, the Law Concerning 55 Special Measures against Dioxins (Environment Agency of 56Japan, 1999) enacted in 1999 and went into effect in 2000. The 57dioxin emission had been drastically reduced after the Law 58

(MOE, 2016b). The concentrations of dioxins in the ambient air 59 have achieved the environmental quality standard (EQS) for Q4 air of 0.6 pg-toxic equivalent (TEQ)/m³ at all monitoring sites Q5 throughout Japan since 2006; however, dioxin concentrations 62 in some river waters have continuously exceeded the EQS for 63 water of 1 pg-TEQ/L (MOE, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, 64 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016a). Ayase 65 River, which is an urban river flowing from the eastern part 66 of Saitama prefecture to Tokyo Bay *via* Tokyo metropolitan, 67 is one of such rivers. Dioxins in the water of Ayase River have 68 been largely accounted for by herbicide-originated dioxins 69

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followed by combustion-originated ones (Minomo et al., 2011b). 70 A large amount of pentachlorophenol (PCP) and Chlomitrofen 71 (CNP, 4-nitrophenyl-2,4,6-trichlorophenyl ether) formulations 72was widely used as herbicides for the paddy fields in Japan, 73 and the herbicides contained dioxins as impurities (Masunaga 74 et al., 2001; Seike et al., 2003). The herbicide-originated dioxins 75 still remain in the soil of paddy fields (Seike et al., 2003; Kiguchi 76 77 et al., 2007), and the dioxins flow from paddy fields into the 78 surrounding catchments (Seike et al., 2007). The herbicide-79 originated dioxins in the water of Ayase River are also derived from runoff water from paddy fields (Minomo et al., 2011b). On 80 the other hand, it is presumed that combustion-originated 81 dioxins in the river water are transferred from waste inciner-82 ators through the atmosphere. However, it is not well under-83 stood how much dioxins derived from waste incinerators affect 84 water quality in these days when the dioxin emission from 85 incinerators is controlled. 86

Most of the dioxin discharge to the environment in Japan 87 has been evaluated as the emission from waste incinerators 06 into the air (MOE, 2016b). Assuming that all dioxins emitted to 89 the air were captured by rainwater, we estimated dioxin 90 concentration in rainwater in Saitama Prefecture by using the 91 data of dioxin discharge (Saitama Prefectural Government, 92 93 2017) and rainfall (JMA web site) (Table 1). The estimated 94 values have been higher than the EQS for water, implying 95 there is a possibility that combustion-originated dioxins in 96 atmospheric deposition have a significant influence on the

t1.1	Table 1 – Dioxin emission flux in Saitama, Japan.				
t1.3 t1.4	Year	Dioxin inventory (g-TEQ/year) ^a	Rainfall (mm) ^b	Emission flux (ng-TEQ/m ² / year) ^c	Emission flux per rainfall (pg-TEQ/L)
t1.5	1997	338.2	1085	90	83
t1.6	1998	287.7	1841	76	41
t1.7	1999	199.2	1553	53	34
t1.8	2000	118.2	1404	31	22
t1.9	2001	49.8	1551	13	8.5
t1.10	2002	26.3	1448	7.0	4.8
t1.11	2003	16.1	1389	4.3	3.1
t1.12	2004	14.4	1490	3.8	2.6
t1.13	2005	16.2	1310	4.3	3.3
t1.14	2006	12.5	1525	3.3	2.2
t1.15	2007	12.8	1299	3.4	2.6
t1.16	2008	10.7	1519	2.8	1.9
t1.17	2009	9.4	1248	2.5	2.0
t1.18	2010	9.0	1485	2.4	1.6
t1.19	2011	9.1	1534	2.4	1.6
t1.20	2012	9.2	1328	2.4	1.8
t1.21	2013	6.8	1305	1.8	1.4
t1.22	2014	8.4	1571	2.2	1.4
t1.23	2015	7.5	1389	2.0	1.4
41.94	TEO: toric conjunctiont				

t1.24 TEQ: toxic equivalent.

 ^a Emission into the air; data were cited from Saitama Prefectural Government (2017); TEQ values from 1997 to 2007 were based on WHO-1998 TEF (Van den Berg et al., 1998) and those from 2008 to 2015 were based on WHO-2006 TEF (Van den Berg et al., 2006).
^b Rainfall data were openly available on the web (JMA web site).

Values are the average of 14 AMeDAS rainfall stations in Saitama t1.27 (Fig. 1).

t1.28 ^c Calculated by the land area of Saitama prefecture (3768 km²).

water quality of smaller rivers which rainwater directly flows 97 into. Thus, in this study, we measured the dioxins in the 98 atmospheric deposition and estimated the influence of the 99 combustion-originated dioxins *via* runoff rainwater on water 100 quality of an urban river. 101

1. Materials and methods

1.1. Sample collection

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The locations where atmospheric deposition samples were 105 collected, Kazo-city, Saitama-city and Yorii-town in Saitama 106 prefecture, are shown in Fig. 1. The Kazo-city (latitude: 107 36.0848° north, longitude: 139.5609° east), located in the 108 eastern part of the prefecture and surrounded by paddy 109 fields, is the main sampling site where sample collections 110 were performed throughout a year from February 8, 2012 111 to February 7, 2013. In addition to the Kazo-city site, other 112 sample collections were also carried out in parallel at Saitama- 113 city site (latitude: 35.8689° north, longitude: 139.6136° east; 114 urban area) and Yorii-town site (latitude: 36.0973° north, 115 longitude: 139.2191° east; hilly area) four times during the 116 period (May 16–23, July 23–August 7, October 19–24, and January 117 15–February 7).

Bulk (wet and dry) depositions were collected as water 119 samples by using three stainless-steel vessels (40 cm in height 120 and 30 cm in diameter) in accordance with the previous 121 studies (Seike et al., 1998; Moon et al., 2005). It is assumed 122 that dioxins from waste incinerators fall to the surface of 123 the ground, then flow into rivers with rainwater. Thus, each 124 sample collection was performed from the end of a rainfall 125 event to the end of the next rainfall event. The rainfall was 126 monitored at Kazo-city site. 127

1.2. Dioxin analysis

The analysis of dioxins in the deposition (water) samples was 129 performed in accordance with the official method for water 130 quality designated by JSA (2005). Prior to the dioxin extraction, 131 acetone (Kanto Chemical, Japan) solution of ¹³C₁₂-labeled 132 dioxin cleanup spikes (17 2,3,7,8-chlorine-substituted PCDDs/ 133 PCDFs and 12 DL-PCBs; Wellington Laboratories, Canada) were 134 added to the water sample. The water was filtrated by glass 135 fiber filters (GFFs; GC-50H 142 mm, ADVANTEC, Japan). The 136 filtrate was passed through 2 pieces of polyurethane foam 137 plugs (PUFs; 90 mm in diameter, 50 mm in tall; SIBATA, Japan) 138 which are usually used for the collection of dioxins in the air. 139 In addition to octadecyl group-modified extraction disc, the 140 official method (JSA, 2005) approves PUF using for the solid 141 phase extraction. Because PUF is easy to handle, we used it 142 for solid phase extraction. The emptied stainless-steel vessels 143 were rinsed with acetone, and the GFFs and the PUFs were 144 Soxhlet extracted with toluene (Kanto Chemical) for 24 hr. 145 The vessel rinsed solution and the GFF/PUF extract were 146 combined and subjected to the cleanup procedure. 147

The cleanup procedure and dioxin detection were per- 148 formed according to the way in the previous study (Minomo 149 et al., 2011b). In brief, the extract was treated with concen- 150 trated sulfuric acid (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Japan) 151

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