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The presence and partitioning behavior of flame retardants in waste, leachate, and air particles from Norwegian

waste-handling facilities

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ABSTRACT

Flame retardants in commercial products eventually make their way into the waste stream. 18 Herein an investigation of the presence of flame retardants in Norwegian landfills, incineration 19 facilities and recycling sorting/defragmenting facilities is presented. These facilities handled 20 waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE), vehicles, digestate, glass, combustibles, 21 bottom ash and fly ash. The flame retardants considered included a suite of polybrominated 22 diphenyl ethers (Σ BDE-10) as well as dechlorane plus, polybrominated biphenyls, 23 hexabromobenzene, pentabromotoluene and pentabromoethylbenzene (collectively referred 24 to as Σ FR-7). Plastic, WEEE and vehicles contained the largest amount of flame retardants 25 (ΣBDE-10: 45,000–210,000 μg/kg; ΣFR-7: 300–13,000 μg/kg). It was hypothesized leachate and air 26 concentrations from facilities that sort/defragment WEEE and vehicles would be the highest. 27 This was generally supported for total air phase concentrations (SBDE-10: 9000–195,000 pg/m³ 28 WEEE/vehicle facilities, 80–900 pg/m³ in incineration/sorting and landfill sites), but not for water 29 leachate concentrations (e.g., SBDE-10: 15-3500 ng/L in WEEE/Vehicle facilities and 1-250 ng/L 30 in landfill sites). Results showed that landfill leachate could exhibit similar concentrations as 31 leachate from WEEE/vehicle sorting and defragmenting facilities. To better account for 32 concentrations in leachates at the different facilities, waste-water partitioning coefficients, 33 Kwaste were measured (for the first time to our knowledge for flame retardants). WEEE and 34 plastic waste had elevated K_{waste} compared to other wastes, likely because flame retardants are 35 directly added to these materials. The results of this study have implications for the 36 development of strategies to reduce exposure and environmental emissions of flame retardants 37 in waste and recycled products through improved waste management practices. 38 Q5

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54 Introduction

Flame retardants include a large range of organic and inorganicchemicals that are added to polymeric materials and textiles to

prevent and retard fires (Bergman et al., 2012). For these 57 purposes, flame retardants have been produced in vast quanti- 58 ties. For instance, the total historic production of the group of 59 flame retardants known as polybrominated diphenylethers 60

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(PBDEs) has been estimated to amount to 1.3-1.5 million tons 61 between 1970 and 2005 (UNEP, 2010). These PBDEs are persistent, 62 63 bioaccumulative, toxic, and prone to long-range transport in the environment (de Wit et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2013). This has led to 64 restrictions on their use, including a the ban in the EU on 65 the penta- and octa-diphenylether mixtures (pentaBDE and 66 octaBDE) in products from 2004 (UNEPPOP, 2006, 2007), and 67 restrictions for pentaBDE under the UNEP Stockholm Convention 68 69 (chm.pops.int).

70 Waste treatment facilities constitute a large repository for both banned and emerging flame retardants, and can be 71 72 considered hotspots for their environmental emissions 73 (Abbasi et al., 2014; Earnshaw et al., 2013; Leung et al., 2007; Robinson, 2009; Stubbings and Harrad, 2014). Flame retardants 74 75 are added in particularly high concentrations to plastics found in electronic products, and therefore waste electrical and 76 electronic equipment (WEEE) recycling facilities can have 77 particularly high concentrations (Sjödin et al., 2001; Wong et 78 79 al., 2007), unless precautionary actions are taken (Thuresson et al., 2006). It follows that the recycling of WEEE and plastics 80 81 may result in a reintroduction of banned flame retardants into 82 commercial products. Recently, several types banned flame retardants were identified in black polymeric food-contact 83 84 products on the European market, with the most likely source being recycled WEEE (Puype et al., 2015; Samsonek and Puype, 85 86 2013).

87 In addition to emissions from WEEE recycling facilities, 88 brominated flame retardants (BFRs) such as PBDE have been reported to be emitted from waste incinerators, landfills, and 89 90 water treatment plants (WTPs). PBDE along with minor levels of 91 polybrominated biphenyl (PBB) flame retardants have been quantified in flue gases and in the vicinity of a municipal solid 92 93 waste incinerator (L.-C. Wang et al., 2010; M.-S. Wang et al., 94 2010b). Several studies have reported that landfills can contain large accumulated amounts of BFRs, which can be emitted via 95 96 water leachate (Arp et al., 2011; Nyholm et al., 2013; Odusanya et al., 2009; Osako et al., 2004) and through air emissions 97 (Weinberg et al., 2011). In a previous Norwegian study, PBDEs 98 99 as well as several emerging BFRs, such as hexabromobenzene (HBB), pentabromotoluene (PBT), pentabromoethylbenzene 100 (PBEB), and 1,2-dibromo-4-(1,2-dibromoethyl) cyclohexane 101 102 (TBECH), were identified near a metal recycling station and a landfill (Arp et al., 2011; Nyholm et al., 2013). Several PBDEs have 103 been quantified in outgoing water from WTPs, with key sources 104 being indoor dust, textiles, human excretion, and industrial 105 discharges (Melymuk et al., 2014; Nyholm et al., 2013; Vogelsang 106 et al., 2006). WTPs, along with tributary runoff were one of the 107 largest sources of PBDE emissions to Lake Ontario from the 108 109 Toronto area (Melymuk et al., 2014).

In order to obtain a more systematic understanding of the 110 111 sources and mechanisms regulating emissions of BFRs and other flame retardants at recycling, incineration and 112 landfilling waste-facilities, this study presents a comprehen-113 sive field campaign to measure the presence of various flame 114 115 retardants at 12 different facilities in Norway. The waste categories found at these facilities comprised of plastic, WEEE, 116 117 vehicle fluff, combustible waste sorted for incineration, glass, bottom ash, fly ash and digestate. Leachate and air samples 118 from these sites were sampled over the summer, autumn and 119 120 spring seasons.

This study focused on ten PBDEs: 244'-tribromodiphenylether 121 (BDE-28), 22'44'-tetrabromodiphenylether (BDE-47), 22'44' 122 5-pentabromodiphenylether (BDE-99), 22'44'6-pentabromo-123 diphenylether (BDE-100), 22'44'55' hexabromodiphenylether 124 (BDE-153), 22'22'56'-hexabromodiphenylether (BDE-154), 125 22'344'5'6-heptabromodiphenylether (BDE-183), 22'33'44' 126 56-octabromodiphenylether (BDE-196), 22'33'44'55'6-nona-127 bromodiphenylether (BDE-206), and 22'33'44'55'66'-deca-128 bromodiphenylether (BDE-209), and seven other BFRs: HBB, 129 PBT, PBEB, 22'44'55-hexabromobiphenyl (BB-153), decabromo-130 biphenyl (BB-209), and two isomers of dechlorane plus (DP): 131 DP-syn and DP-anti. 132

The European Food Safety Authority has indicated HBB as 133 a compound of potential concern due to its bioaccumulation 134 potential (EFSA, 2012) and it has recently been detected in air 135 masses over the North Sea (Moller et al., 2012b). BB-153 was 136 banned for use as flame retardants after the Michigan farm 137 incident in 1973 (Chanda et al., 1982), and production of 138 BB-209 ceased in Europe by 2000 (De Wit, 2002). Both BB-153 139 and BB-209 have recently been discovered in the blood of 140 indoor cats (Norrgran et al., 2015), have been found to be 141 formed during incineration of municipal solid waste (L.-C. 142 Wang et al., 2010; M.-S. Wang et al., 2010) and are together 143 with PBDEs regulated as BFRs in electronic products by the 144 RoHS directive (ec.europa.eu). In addition, BB-153 is listed 145 under the UNEP Stockholm Convention on POPs (chm.pops. 146 int). DP is still produced in large quantities, and has been 147 shown to be ubiquitous in the environment, with elevated 148 concentrations near WEEE (Guerra et al., 2011; Moller et al., 149 2012a; Sverko et al., 2011; Tomy et al., 2007; Xiao et al., 2013). 150

Due to the large amounts of flame retardants added to 151 plastic and WEEE materials (Ortuno et al., 2015; Tamade et al., 152 2002; Wong et al., 2007), the two central hypotheses of the 153 study were: (1) plastic-containing waste, such as plastic WEEE 154 and vehicle waste fractions, have elevated flame retardant 155 concentrations compared to other types of waste sampled in 156 this study (combustibles, glass, ash, digestate); (2) concentra- 157 tions in the leachate and air from WEEE and vehicle 158 defragmentation and sorting sites are substantially larger 159 than from landfills and waste incinerators. To better account 160 for the link between solid concentrations and concentrations 161 in leachates, and incidentally the link between these two 162 hypotheses, waste-water partitioning coefficients, K_{waste}, 163 were measured for the sampled waste fractions. Many of the 164 data reported in this study are presented for the first time.

1. Materials and methods

1.1. Chemicals

The flame retardants studied included the PBDEs (BDE-28, -47, 169 -99, -100, -153, -154, -183, -196, -206 and -209), PBT, PBEB, HBB, 170 BB-153, BB-209, and DP-syn and DP-anti. Their physical chemical 171 properties are presented in Appendix A-Table S1. The sum of the 172 BDE compounds are here referred to as \sum BDE-10 (all 10 173 congeners) or \sum BDE-6 (congeners 28, 47, 99, 100, 153 and 154). 174 The sum of the other flame retardants are referred to as \sum FR-7. 175

Analytical standards (¹²C) of the PBDEs and the brominated 176 benzenes (BBs, comprising HBB, PBT and PBEB) were purchased 177

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