

Problems and research needs on Emerging Pollutants in urban waters of Sri Lanka



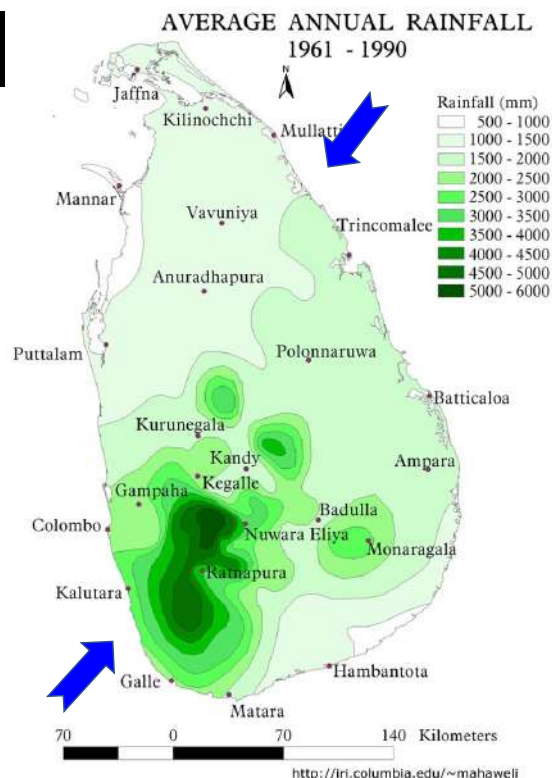
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Faculty of Engineering,
University of Ruhuna,
Galle, Sri Lanka.**

Climate in Sri Lanka

The island receives rain mainly through **two monsoons**.

The rainfall intensity varies markedly across the island (*Annual average rainfall: 2,000 mm*)



Water in Sri Lanka

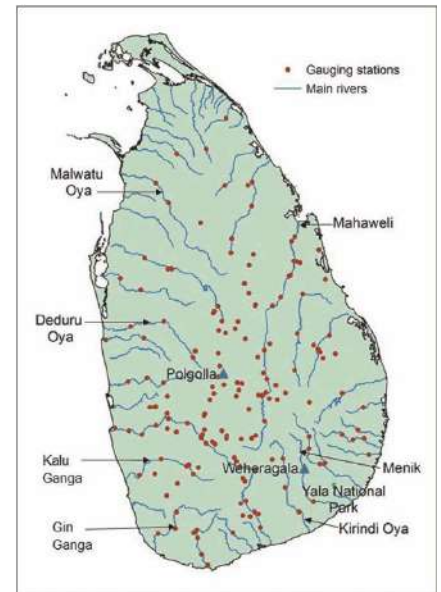
➤ Water Resources

- No. of river basins: 103
- Major reservoirs and dams: 80
- Small tanks: 14,204
- Small anicuts: 12,942

➤ Land extent: 65,610 km²

➤ Total volume of water: 131.22 bil. m³

➤ Discharge to sea: **66.18 bil. m³ (>50%)**



**Water Availability:
2437 m³ / per year / per capita**

Only 45% of the population have access to piped water

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Water problems in Sri Lanka :

➤ Drinking water

- Quality
- Guaranteed supply
- Adequate pressure
- Service restricted to urban areas only

➤ Irrigation water

- Wastage
- Irrigation efficiency
- Water productivity

➤ Water pollution

- Non-enforceable laws
- Education and sense of responsibility
- Lack of proper waste disposal mechanisms and facilities

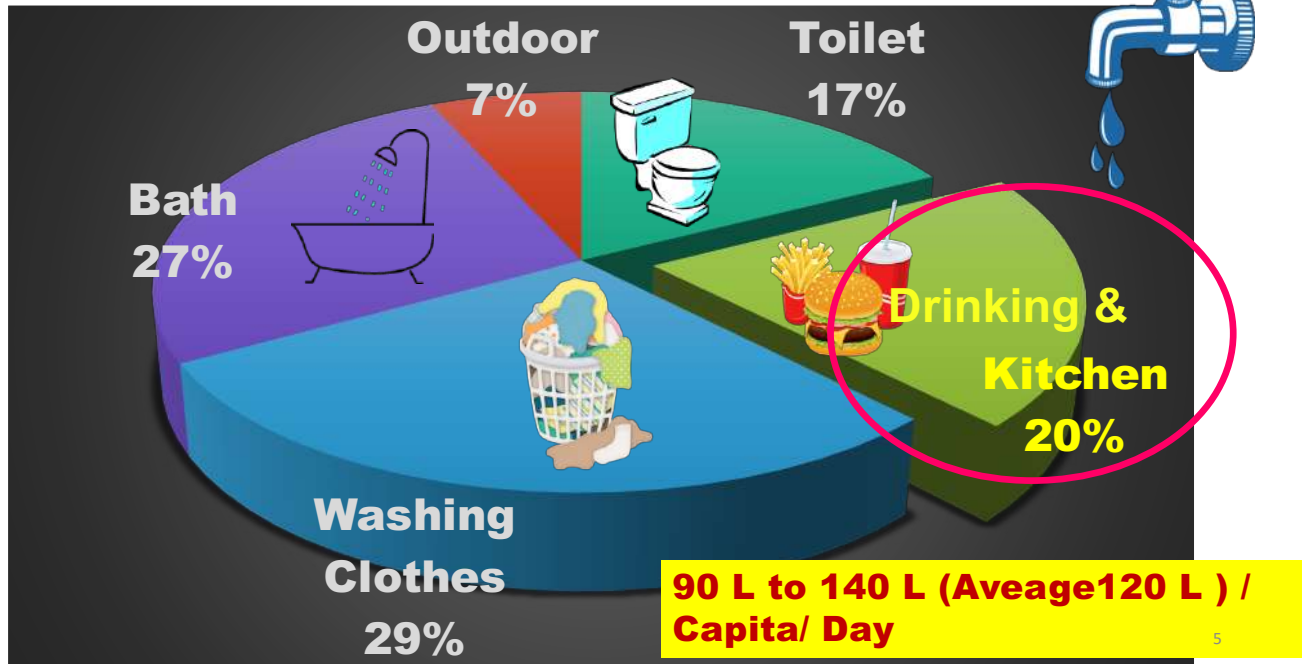
➤ Water governance

- Political
- Institutional

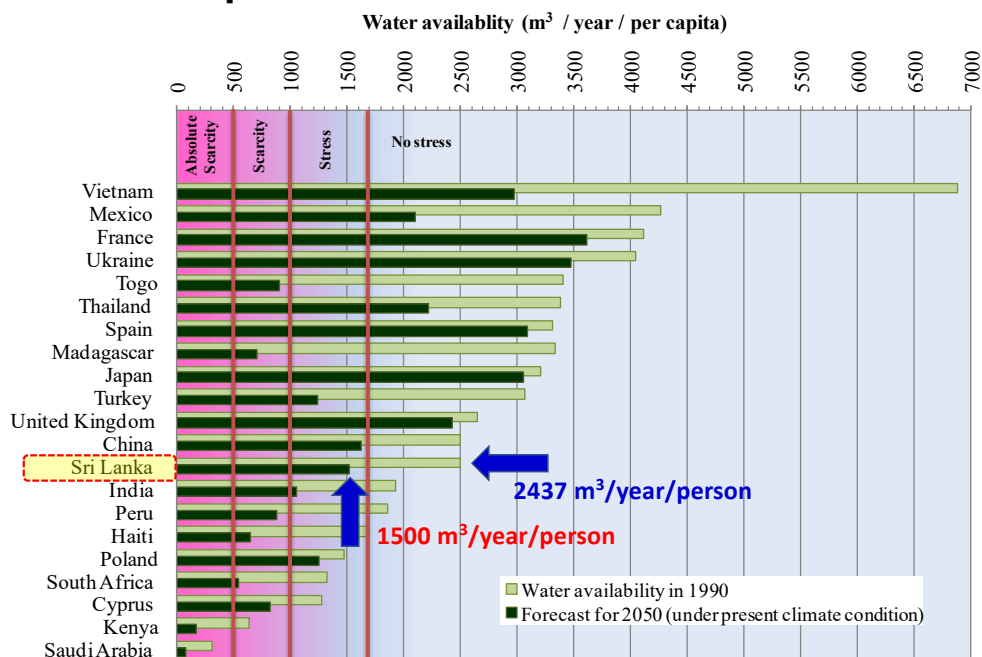


Per-capita Daily water consumption in Sri Lanka

(Yurina Otaki et al, 2022)



Forecast for water availability (m³/year/per capita) in 2050 for the present climatic conditions



(Modified by Chaminda, 2010, after report of the IPCC (1995) cited in K. D. Frederick and d. C. Major, 1997)

Climate change and increased **water demand** through **population growth / rapid urbanization** have significantly impacted on freshwater resources



Impact on freshwater resources

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 **SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS**

6 CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION



129 COUNTRIES ARE NOT ON TRACK TO HAVE SUSTAINABLY MANAGED WATER RESOURCES BY 2030

CURRENT RATE OF PROGRESS NEEDS TO DOUBLE

Reused water or alternative waters are increasingly recognised as a potential 'new' source of clean water for potable and non-potable uses, resulting in social, environmental and economic benefits.....

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SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Emerging pollutants can be understood in a broad sense as any **synthetic or naturally-occurring chemical or any microorganism** that is not commonly monitored or regulated in the environment with potentially known or suspected adverse ecological and human health effects.

(Source: UNESCO Project on “Emerging Pollutants in Wastewater Reuse in Developing Countries”)



Target 6.1: Achieve universal and equitable access to **safe and affordable drinking water for all**

Target 6.3: Improve water quality by **reducing pollution**

Emerging pollutants are addressed under the following 2030 Agenda's of SD goals and targets:



Target 1.4



Target 3.3

Target 3.9



Target 12.4



Target 15.1

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Contaminants of Emerging Concern :

Origins of Emerging Pollutants and routes to the Environment



Source:
Tushara Chaminda, et al., 2018

Derived from **3 broad categories:**

- **Pharmaceuticals (PhACs)**
- **Personal Care Products (PCPs)**
- **Endocrine Disrupting Compounds (EDCs)**

Chemicals that had not previously been detected (or lesser concentrations) are discovered in the water supply are known as “contaminants of emerging concern” or simply “emerging contaminants.” Emerging contaminants are important because the risk they pose to human health and the environment is not yet fully understood

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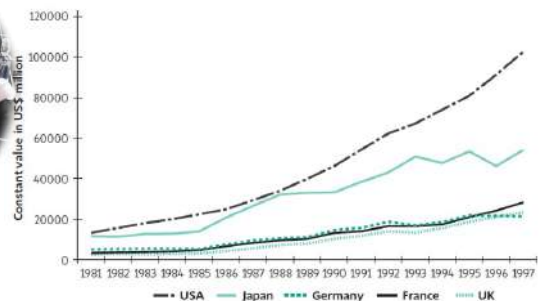
Pharmaceuticals and Personal Care Products (PPCPs)

Pharmaceuticals

Products used by individuals for personal health or agribusiness to enhance growth or health of livestock. The global consumption of drugs used by humans >100,000 metric tons per year



Pharmaceutical production trends (constant US\$ million), top five countries 1981–1997



(Source: WHO, 2004)

Personal care products

Products used by individuals for personal care or cosmetic reasons (Fragrances, Cosmetics, Sun-screen products, Shampoo, Insect repellents, etc)



PPCPs . . .

❖ Persistence:

The physicochemical properties of PPCPs, means that many are **not easily removed by conventional water treatment process**

❖ Bioaccumulation

Although PPCPs are available in aquatic environment at relatively low concentrations, many of them and their metabolites are **biologically active and can impact non-target aquatic organisms**, especially fish.



❖ Toxicity

The major concern about the **toxic implications** of pharmaceuticals is that they were designed specifically to **maximise their biological activity at low doses** and to target certain metabolic, enzymatic, or cell-signalling mechanisms.

Rise of **superbug** tuberculosis hampers global control efforts

By Kate Kelland



**Antibiotic
Resistance
Bacteria**

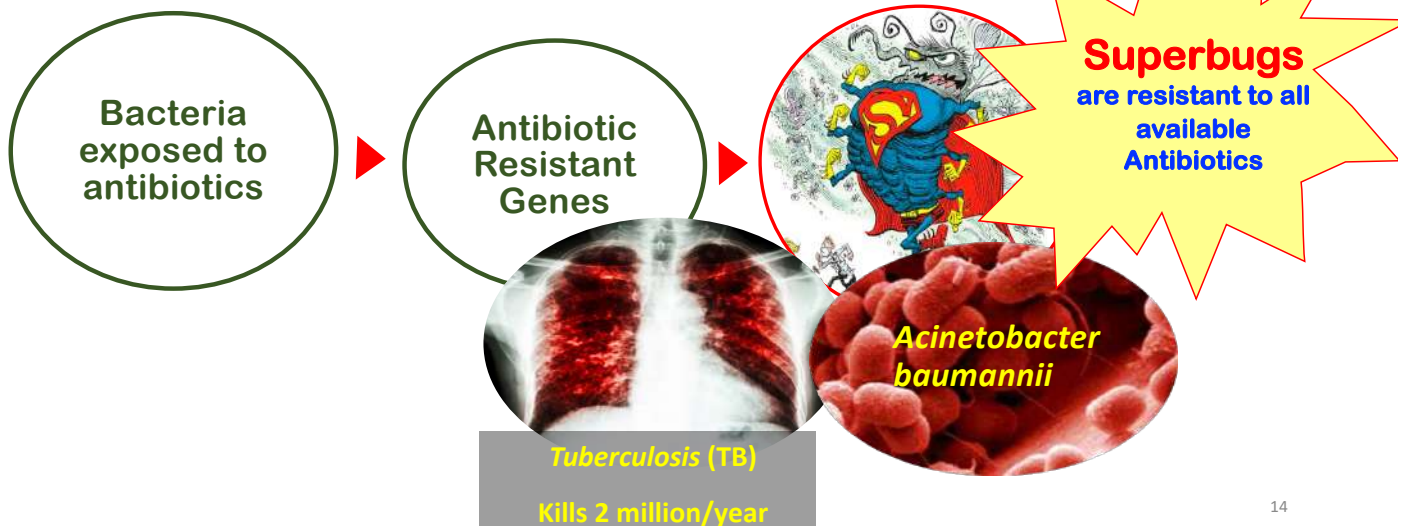
London (Reuters) - Rising rates of superbug tuberculosis (TB) are threatening to derail decades of progress against the contagious disease, experts said on Thursday, and new drugs powerful enough to treat them are few and far between.



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PPCPs → Antibiotics

Most significant fact is the possible Antibiotic Resistance. Antibiotic resistance occurs When the antibiotic becomes no longer capable of controlling or preventing bacterial growth



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PPCPs as an emerging contaminants in urban waters, Sri Lanka

Collaborative Research
with *Ochanomizu University* and
Hitotsubashi University



- ✓ Ground water : 19 samples (Galle)
- ✓ Surface water : 6 samples (Galle)
- ✓ STP (Influent) : 2 sample
- ✓ STP (effluent) : 2 sample



STP influent



STP effluent



Surface water



Ground Water

Occurrence of PPCPs in Urban Waters of Sri Lanka

Methodology

- 1 Spiked 0.2ml Surrogate standards and keep it 1 hour.
- 2 Conditioned cartridges using 4ml of MeOH and 4ml Mili Q.
- 3 Samples were passed through cartridges at 3 ml/min speed.
- 4 Cartridges were washed using 4 ml Mili Q after filtration.
- 5 Kept 30 minute for fully dryness. Sealed until further studies.

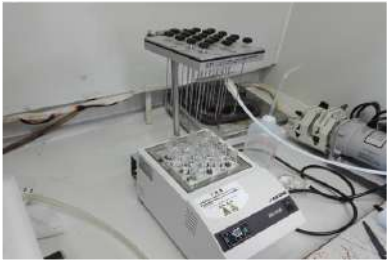


Collaborative Research
with *Ochanomizu University* and
Hitotsubashi University



Methodology

- 6 Eluted the cartridges with 6 ml of MeOH.
- 7 The Elute was evaporated using Nitrogen evaporator. (40 °C).
- 8 Internal standard vortex mixing was spiked.
- 9 Conditioned the LC/MS spectrometer.
- 10 The final analysis was done by using LC/MS spectrometer.

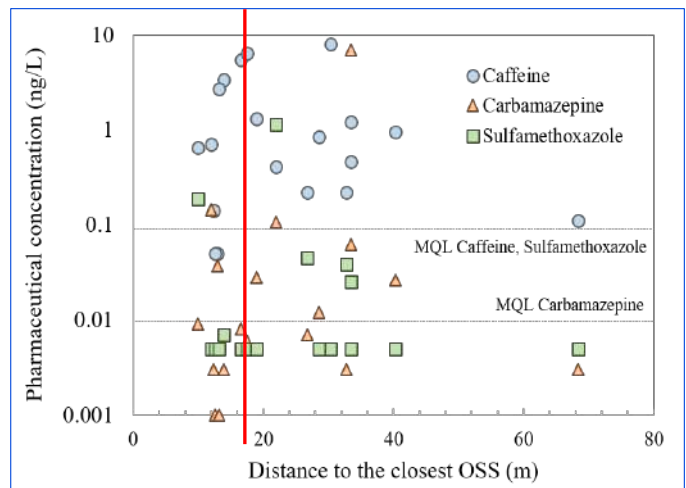
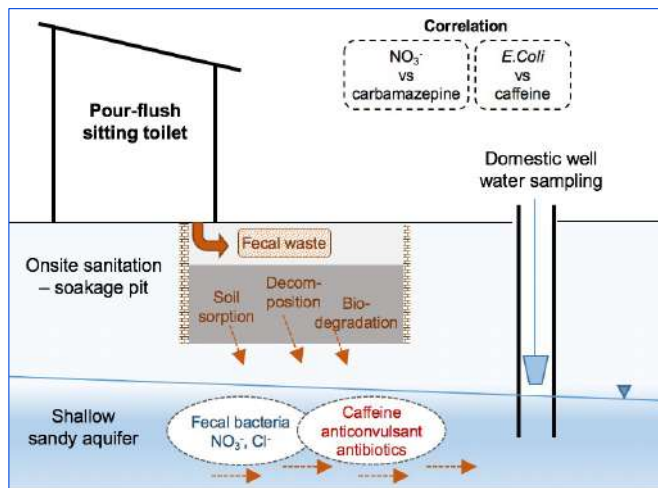


High Performance Liquid Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry



Maximum value (ng/L) of analyzed pharmaceuticals in 19 domestic wells in comparison to previous studies (Quyen et al, 2021)

	This study (Sri Lanka)	DF	(Schaidler <i>et al.</i> , 2014) (Cape Cod USA)	(Phillips <i>et al.</i> , 2015) (New York, USA)
Caffeine	7.9	89%	< 10 (MRL)	n.d
Carbamazepine	6.9	42%	72	79
Sulfamethoxazole	1.1	10%	113	n.d
Acetaminophen	n.d	n.a	n.a	n.d
Atenolol	n.d	n.a	0.8	n.d
Cofinine	n.d	n.a	1 _c	24
Sufapyridine	n.d	n.a	n.a	n.a
OSS type	Soakage pits		Conventional septic systems	Cesspools
Research setting	19 shallow drinking wells laterite aquifer,		20 shallow wells, sand gravel aquifer	2 temporary wells, 1 monitoring well, surficial sandy aquifer
# analytes detected	3/7		9/45	14/103



- Presence of PPCPs in well (Ground) waters indicated the vulnerability of the drinking groundwater source to fecal contaminants from the outdated sanitation system. A setback distance >18 m is unlikely to protect groundwater from OSSs contamination.
- We observed that *E.Coli* and total coliform had a significant positive correlation with Caffeine concentration in groundwater.
- Occurrence of the persistent pollutants, such as Carbamazepine and Sulfamethoxazole indicated the extent of pollutant transport from OSSs.

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Concentration ranges and means (g/L) for wastewater compounds in urban STP influent and hospital effluent and three previous studies (Quyen et al, 2021).

Target Compounds	IQL ^a $\mu\text{g/L}$	STP Influent		Hospital Wastewater				
		This Study		Previous Studies	This Study		Previous Studies	
		Range	Mean		Effluent	Effluent	Influent	Effluent
				Influent	Range	Mean	Mean/Median Value	
ACT	0.15	29.7–44.3	39.0	116.0 ^a 77.7 ^b	70.2–123.6	92.8	813.5 ^a	0.04 ^a
CAF	0.15	16.2–68.7	49.1	35.2 ^b	12.5–23.7	16.6	28.2 ^c	0.35 ^c
CBZ	0.003	0.07–0.24	0.13	0.53 ^a 0.37 ^b	0.44–0.60	0.50	0.3 ^a 0.08 ^c	0.63 ^a 0.015 ^c
COT	0.1	1.9–2.2	1.9	n.a.	1.36–2.35	1.86	n.a.	n.a.
SFM	0.1	0.1–0.2	0.17	0.5 ^a 0.01–0.1 ^d	2.20–2.96	2.58	3.9 ^a 1.4 ^c 0.1–1 ^d	0.81 ^a 0.21 ^c 0.001–0.01 ^d
SFP	0.1	0.38–0.47	0.44	0.072–1 ^d	2.05–2.32	2.18	0.01–0.1 ^d	bql ^d
ATE	0.15	0.19–0.48	0.30	2.4 ^a	0.54–1.11	0.79	3.2 ^a	0.019 ^a
ACS	0.15	8.2–10.6	9.0	11.5 ^b	0.98–2.0	1.43	n.a.	n.a.

^a Urban WWTP in France with a flow rate of $5355 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$; hospital with 450 beds, $n = 27$ [22]; ^b WWTP in Singapore, $n = 16$ [23]; ^c Ioannina Hospital in Greece, 800 beds, flow rate $550 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$, $n = 32$ [24]; ^d 24 h composite sample of two urban WWTPs in Netherland; hospital with an on-site pharmafilter process including a membrane bioreactor, ozonation, granulated activated carbon, and UV treatment [25]. n.a.: not available; bql: below quantification limit; ^a CM: concentration magnitude; ACT: acetaminophen; CAF: caffeine; CBZ: carbamazepine; COT: cotinine; SFM: sulfamethoxazole; SFP: sulfapyridine; ATE: atenolol; ACS: acesulfame.

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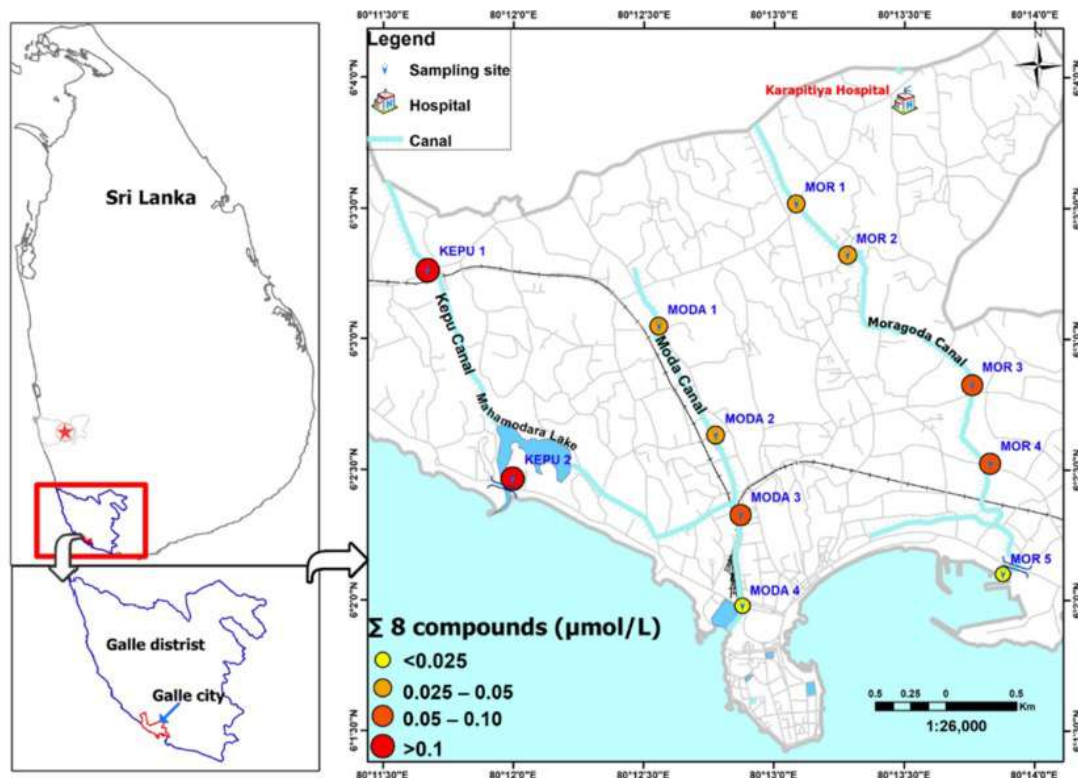
Marker	Category	Persistency	Excretion Rate (%)	Potential Pathway	Hospital Discharge CM **	Urban Sewage CM
ACS	Artificial sweetener	Y	>99 [32]	B, G	<10	60
ACT	Antipyretic	N	<5 [33]	B	625	260
ATE	Beta-blocker	Y	50 [34]	B	<10	<10
CAF	Stimulant	N	<5 [35]	G	111	327
CBZ	Neuroactive drugs	Y	<1 [36]	B	167	43
COT	Tobacco metabolite	Y	13 * [37]	B	21	21
SFM	Antibiotic	Y	<20 [38]	B	29	<10
SFP	Antibiotic	Y	<2 [39]	B	24	<10

CAF indicates the magnitude of graywater loading at each sampling site.

ACT indicates the impact of untreated human excretion over short distances.

ACS indicates the general impact of domestic wastewater (both black and gray) on surface water.

CBZ indicates the presence of hospital residues over long distances.

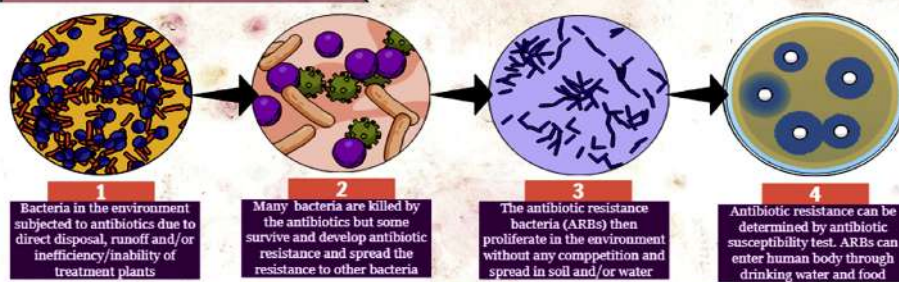


- Despite their high concentrations in raw wastewater, up to **99%** of **CAF** (124 $\mu\text{g/L}$) and **ACT** (24 $\mu\text{g/L}$) was removed by the STP
- Consideration of the magnitude, persistency, and metabolism rates of eight target sewage markers in urban wastewater (including black water, greywater, and hospital wastewater) suggests that **CAF is useful for understanding the magnitude of greywater discharge**.
- **Presence of labile ACT** is evidence of the **mixing of raw black water in surface water**.
- Treated hospital wastewater included trace amounts of active pharmaceutical ingredients that could contribute to surface water pollutants. The use of persistent indicators, such as **CBZ, to identify hospital wastewater discharges** into the drainage network proved useful.

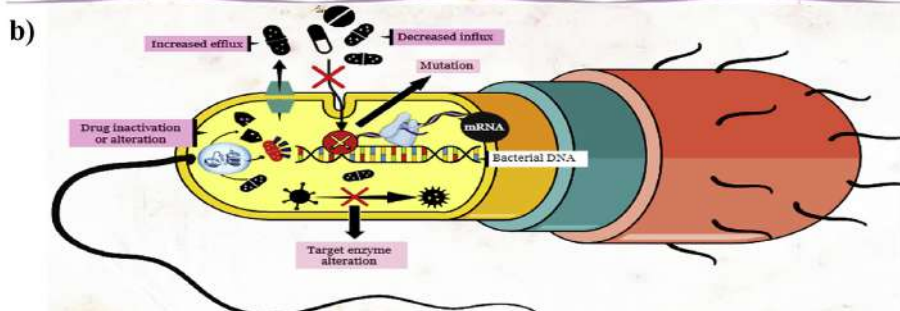
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Schematic flow diagram representing antibiotic-resistance dissemination in the environment and within the bacteria

a) **Antibiotic resistance spread** (Source: Kumar et al, 2020)



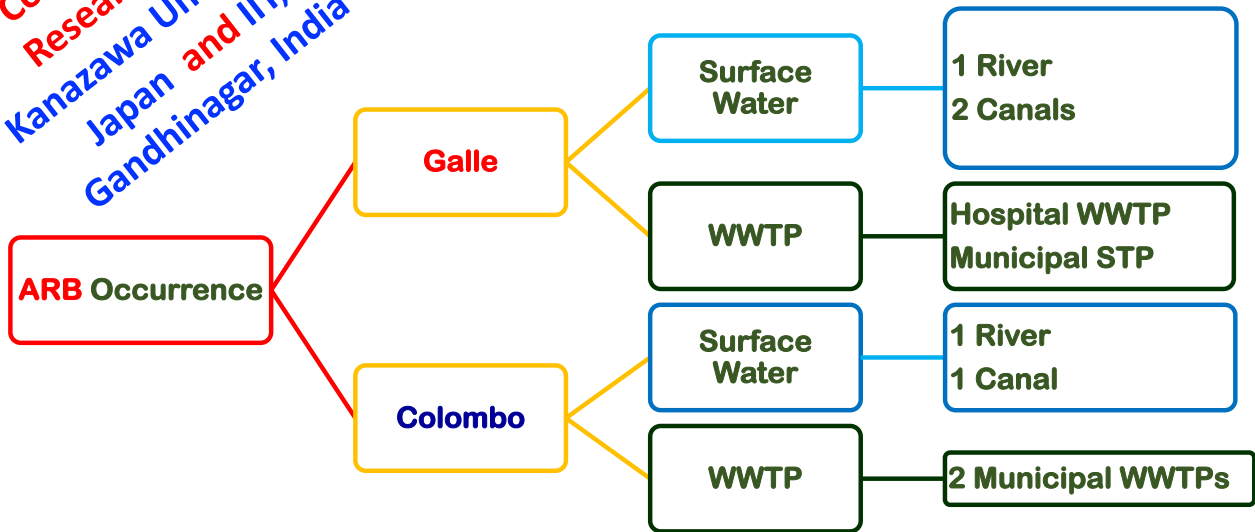
**Antibiotic
Resistance
Bacteria
(ARB)**



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Sampling:

Collaborative
Research with
Kanazawa University,
Japan and IIT,
Gandhinagar, India



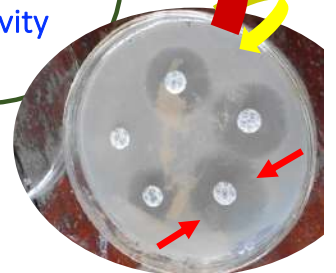
Experimental procedure

Based on Standard Operating Procedures Antibiotic-resistance test for *E.coli* in water samples (R. Honda, et al, 2016).

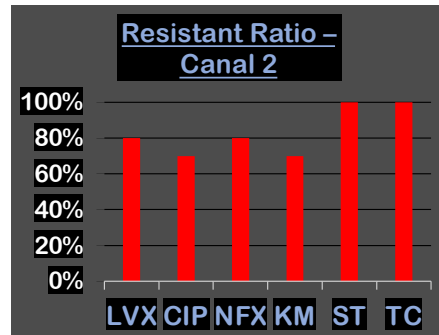
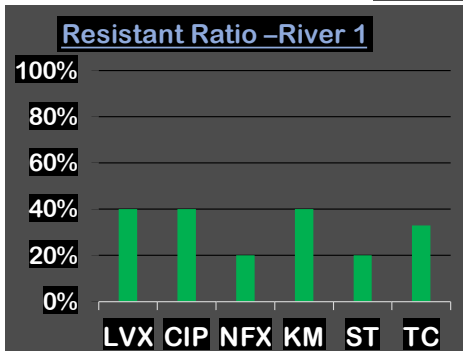
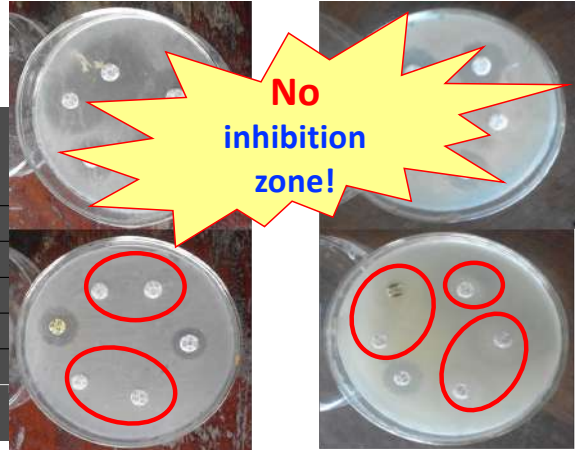
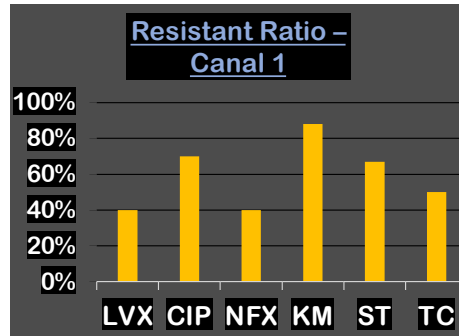
$$\text{Resistant ratio} = \frac{\text{no. of resistant colonies}}{\text{no. of isolated colonies}}$$

KB Disc	Diameter of inhibition circle (mm)		
	Resistant	Intermediate	Sensitive
Kanamycin Monosulphate (KM)	=<13	14-17	>=18
Tetracycline (TC)	=<11	12-14	>=15
Norfloxacin (NFX)	=<12	13-16	>=17
Ciprofloxacin (CIP)	=<15	16-20	>=21
Levofloxacin (LVX)	=<13	14-16	>=17
Sulfamethoxazole (ST)	=<10	11-15	>=16

measuring
antibiotic
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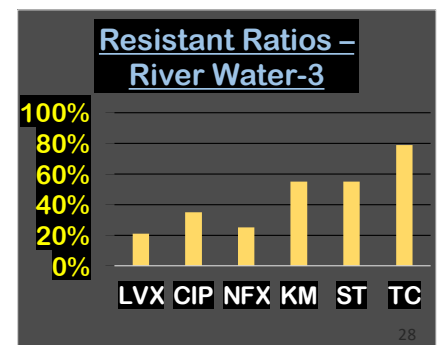
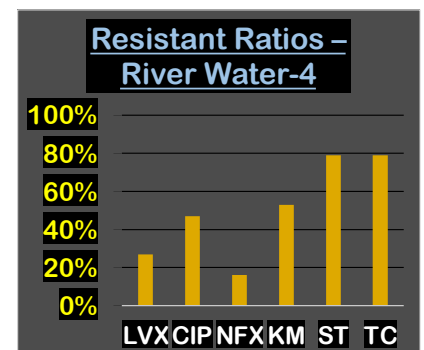
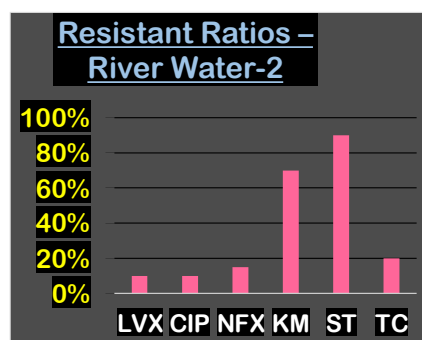
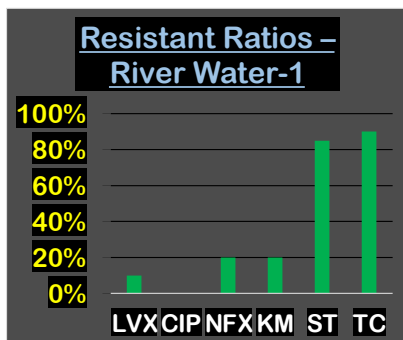


Surface water – Galle, Sri Lanka



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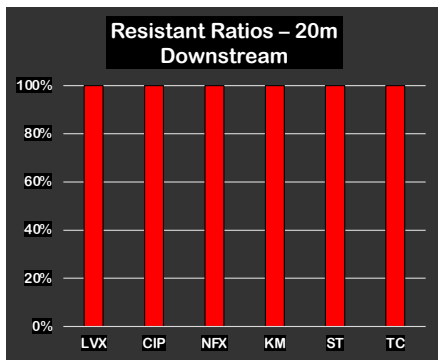
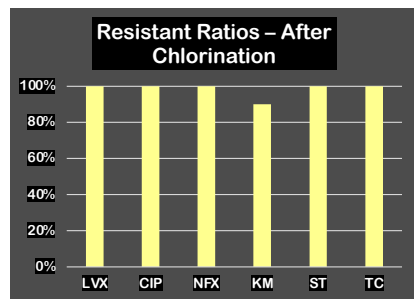
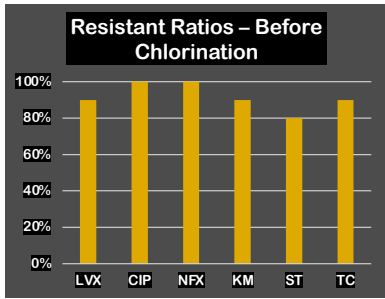
Surface water – Colombo, Sri Lanka



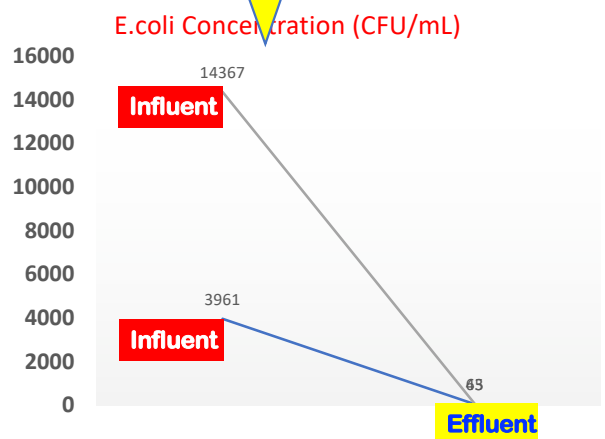
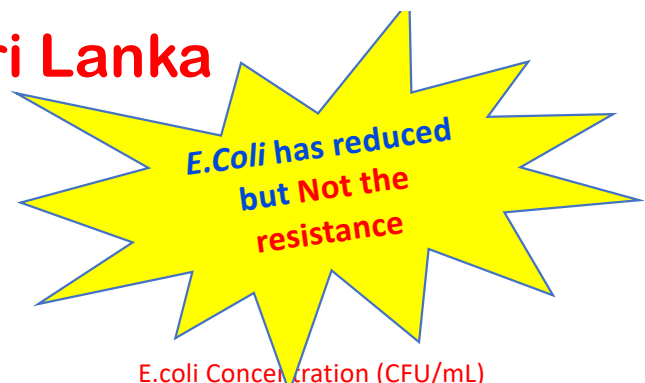
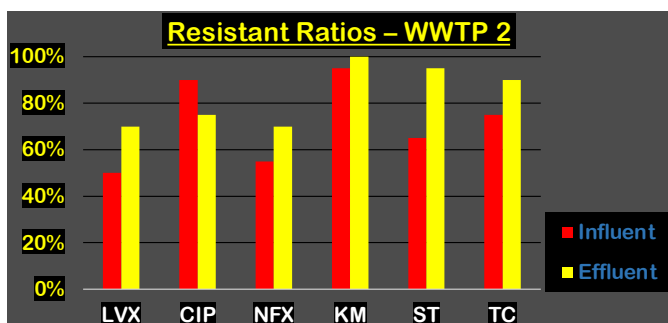
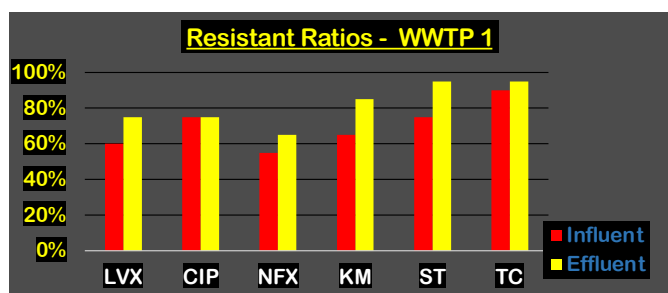
- LVX, CIP and NFX resistant ratio increased when moving downstream
- ST and TC having higher resistant ratio

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Wastewater – Galle, Sri Lanka



Wastewater – Colombo, Sri Lanka



Conclusions :

- **43 PPCPs** were detected in **Urban Waters** (Surface, WW, Groundwater)
- A setback **distance >18 m** is unlikely to protect groundwater from OSSs contamination.
- We observed that ***E.Coli*** and **total coliform** had a **significant positive correlation** with **Caffeine** concentration in groundwater.
- Despite their high concentrations in raw wastewater, up to **99%** of **CAF (124 µg/L)** and **ACT (24 µg/L)** was **removed by the STP**
- **Presence of labile ACT** is evidence of the **mixing of raw black water** in **surface water**

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- All sampling points subjected to Antibiotic Resistance Test had colonies **resistance to more than one antibiotic** category.
- **Municipal canals** having **higher resistive bacteria** than major rivers
- **WWTP effluents** contain **higher resistant** colonies than influents.
- It was observed that 100% resistance for all the 6 AB in a canal where **20m downstream** to the discharge point of **Hospital WWTP**

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- **E. coli** prevalence was reduced during treatment, but the remaining bacteria can adapt in the presence of antibiotics and lead to a further increase in resistance.
- **E. coli strains** of all the locations exhibited multidrug resistance implying some health concern in the near future
- The hospital WWTP had more resistance than the municipal WWTPs due to a higher concentration of antibiotics and less dilution.
- We found higher resistance to old generation antibiotics like tetracycline (TC), and sulfamethoxazole (ST)

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Future directions :

- Treatments need to be developed and implemented to control antibiotic concentrations in wastewater and surface water.
- Continuous monitoring of the river and tributaries for emerging pollution loads (PPCPS, etc), as on-going assessments are required for management.
- Provide proper waste collection systems (including used medicines).
- Develop strict rules and policies for industrial, hospital and municipal wastewater discharge backed with robust local community effecting monitoring and implementation.

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Contents lists available at ScienceDirect
2019
 Environmental Research
 journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/envres

Collaborative Research with Japan and India

Treatment enhances the prevalence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria and antibiotic resistance genes in the wastewater of Sri Lanka, and India

Manish Kumar^{a,*}, Bhagwana Ram^b, Himaya Sewwandi^c, Sulfikar^d, Ryo Honda^e, Tushara Chaminda^e

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Prevalence of antibiotic resistance in the tropical rivers of Sri Lanka and India

Manish Kumar^{a,*}, Sulfikar^b, Tushara Chaminda^c, Arbind K. Patel^d, Himaya Sewwandi^e, Madhvi Joshi^e, Ryo Honda^f

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npj Clean Water **2020**
 www.nature.com/npjcleanwater

ARTICLE OPEN
 Seasonality impels the antibiotic resistance in Kelani River of the emerging economy of Sri Lanka

Manish Kumar^{a,*}, G. G. Tushara Chaminda^b and Ryo Honda^c

Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry—Volume 00, Number 00—pp. 1–9, 2021
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Environmental Chemistry

Pharmaceutical Contaminants in Shallow Groundwater and Their Implication for Poor Sanitation Facilities in Low-Income Countries

Quyen Thi Thuy Do,^{a,*} Masahiro Otaki,^b Yurina Otaki,^c Chaminda Tushara,^d and Mhara Weasinghe Sanjeeva^e

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^c Graduate School of Social Sciences, Hiroshima University, Tokyo, Japan
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water **2021** MDPI

Article
 Sewage Markers as Determinants to Differentiate Origins of Emerging Organic Pollutants in an Urban Sri Lankan Water Drainage Network

Do Thi Thuy Quyen^{1,2,*}, Otaki Masahiro³, Yurina Otaki⁴ and Tushara Chaminda⁵

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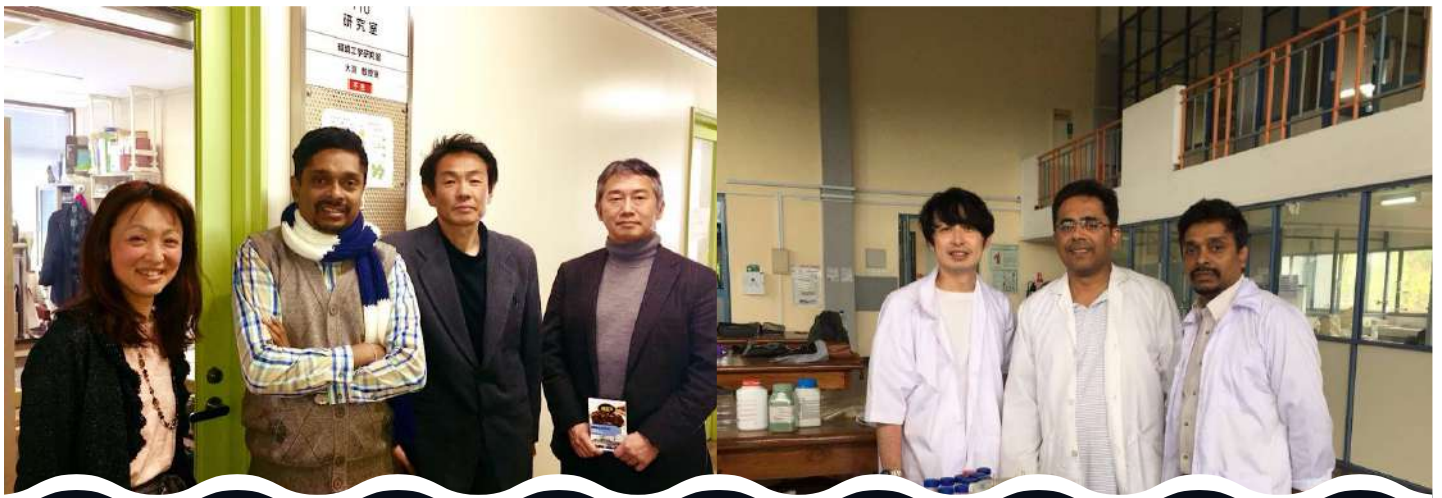
EDITORIAL

Occurrence and Spread of Emerging Organic Pollutants and Antibiotic Resistance in Urban Waters of Sri Lanka

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Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Ruhuna

Abstract: Emerging pollutants such as Pharmaceuticals and Personal Care Products (PPCPs) in water resources are now considered a global water quality issue. Concerns associated with the presence of PPCPs in the environment include abnormal physiological processes and reproductive impairment, increased cancer incidence, the development of antibiotic-resistant bacteria, and the potential for increased toxicity of chemical mixtures. However, the number of studies on PPCPs in the aquatic environment and their use in wastewater tracking in developing countries, such as Sri Lanka, remains limited. Consequently, during the last five years, we have conducted various research to establish the comparative occurrence of PPCPs and antibiotics in urban waters in Sri Lanka. Our studies detected around 20 PPCPs in urban waters in Sri Lanka. Acetaminophen was



Research Collaborators:

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Future Water Management in Sri Lanka - National Level :

Natural Pollution

(Mn, Fe, F, Hardness, etc.)



Manmade Pollution
 (Agrochemicals, Industrial discharges, Heavy metals, Organic pollutants, PPCPs, and Other Micropollutants, etc)

Water sharing

Resources

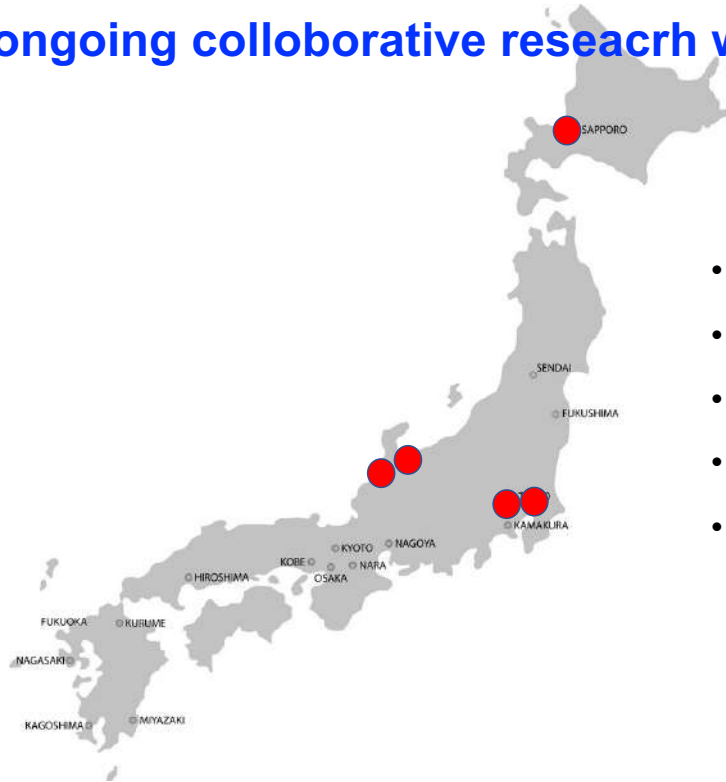


Climate Change

Lack of policies

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My ongoing collaborative research with Japan



- ***Ochanomizu University***
- ***Hitotsubashi University***
- ***Kanazawa University***
- ***Toyama Prefectural University***
- ***Hokkaido University***

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Our Publications related to above researches :

- Sewage Markers as Determinants to Differentiate Origins of Emerging Organic Pollutants in an Urban Sri Lankan Water Drainage Network
<https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4441/13/20/2898>
- Pharmaceutical Contaminants in Shallow Groundwater and Their Implication for Poor Sanitation Facilities in Low-Income Countries
<https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5110>
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AYUBOWAN

May all living-beings live long

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ありがとう ✨
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**Thank
You !**