

Sewage Pollution: A Case Study

LABORATORY MANUAL (TUTOR) (Tutor comments in Red)



Photos: ©C. Redshaw

Cover Photos: **Left**-Field store of lime-treated sewage biosolids, southwest England. **Right**-Adjacent field crop after biosolids treatment of soil.

Sewage Pollution: A Case Study

Introduction

Safe disposal of sewage is a major environmental issue for many countries. This case study seeks to illustrate how chemical markers can be used in a forensic manner to trace the fate of sewage applied initially to agricultural land, into a nearby watercourse.

Objectives

By the end of the whole exercise (sessions 1-4) you will have:

1. Been introduced to factors relating to the disposal of sewage in the U.K.
2. Identified some of the organic chemicals which can be used as markers or proxies for the presence of sewage in soil and water.
3. Learned how to safely and accurately use a variety of modern methods for the chemical analysis of sewage markers in soil and water in a simulated real life scenario (case study).
4. Learned how to use the above data to calculate the likely contributions of sewage to soil and water.
5. Learned how to write a professional scientific report.

Background Context

Tutor: The following information should be issued by e-mail as pre-laboratory reading for session 1.

Safe and acceptable disposal of human sewage waste is an ongoing challenge for water engineers and indeed for society generally.

In the U.K. sewage treatment has, for some time, typically involved separation of the aqueous and solid phases. This is accomplished by mechanical screening, followed by settling and anaerobic digestion of the solids. The aqueous phase, sometimes after further treatment, is then typically discharged to rivers. The assimilation into UK law of the 1990 OSPAR (Oslo-Paris) Convention and the 1991 EC Urban Waste Water Treatment Directive banning offshore sewage-sludge dumping in UK coastal waters (which took effect from 1 January 1999) effectively banned disposal of the solid phase at sea, so since 1999, the de-watered solids (sometimes after so-called advanced or enhanced treatment with lime or heat), now known as 'biosolids', are typically spread onto agricultural land, landfilled or incinerated, depending on their composition and origin.

The *Safe Sludge Matrix* is an agreement made between Water UK, representing the 14 UK Water and Sewage Operators, and the British Retail Consortium (BRC) representing the major retailers and including inputs from the Environment

Agency (EA), former Department of Environment Transport and Regions and former Ministry of Agriculture Fisheries and Food. The negotiations were managed by the agricultural advisory service, ADAS, and followed a year of intensive consultation, including discussions with other interested parties such as the National Farmers Union, Country Landowners Association, food manufacturers and food processors. This agreement affects all applications of sewage sludge to agricultural land and this came into force on 31st December 1998. The provisions of the agreement were incorporated into legislation in the Sludge (Use in Agriculture) Regulations and in the Code of Practice for Agricultural Use of Sewage Sludge, both revised during 2001. The *Safe Sludge Matrix* forms the basis of the agreement and consists of a table of crop types, together with clear guidance on the minimum acceptable level of treatment for any biosolids-based product which may be applied to that crop or rotation. The *Safe Sludge Matrix* enables farmers and growers to continue to utilise the beneficial properties in sewage sludge as a valuable and cost effective source of nutrients and organic matter.

As from 31st December 1999, all untreated sludges were banned from application to food crops. The end date for the use of untreated sewage sludge on agricultural land used to grow non-food crops was 31st December 2005. The surface spreading of conventionally treated sludge on grazed grassland was banned from the 31st December 1998. Conventionally treated sludge can only be applied to grazed grassland where it is deep injected into the soil. Conventionally treated sewage sludge can be applied to the surface of grassland or for forage crops such as maize, which will subsequently be harvested, but there can be no grazing of that land within the season of application (i.e. it is not permissible to graze any grass regrowth or aftermath in the season that the sludge was applied). More stringent requirements apply where sludge is applied to land growing vegetable crops and in particular those crops that may be eaten raw (e.g. salad crops). Conventionally treated sludge can be applied to agricultural land which is used to grow vegetables in the rotation, provided that at least 12 months has elapsed between application and harvest of the following vegetable crop. Where the crop is a salad which might be eaten raw, the harvest interval must be at least 30 months. Where enhanced treated sludges are used, a 10 month harvest interval applies.

In the U.K. about 500,000 tonnes per annum of dry biosolids is applied to land used in agriculture, of which about 9% were applied to soils in the south west U.K. in 2000 (latest available public figures). Mean application rates are usually about 3 tonnes of dry biosolids per hectare to arable and pasture land.

Session 1

In the present fictitious case study, fishermen fishing a local river in the south west U.K. have complained (e.g. Figure 1) to the Environment Agency (EA) that fish caught in the area have a sewage-tainted taste and smell. In telephone conversations with the EA the fishermen suggest that the source of the alleged pollution may be illegal treatment of a local field adjacent to the river (Field B; Figure 2) with biosolids (solid sewage). However, when contacted by the EA, the water treatment company who dispose of the biosolids and their contracted spreading operator, claim that only field A, which is not adjacent to the river, has been treated, as per their permit for sewage disposal.

Figure 1

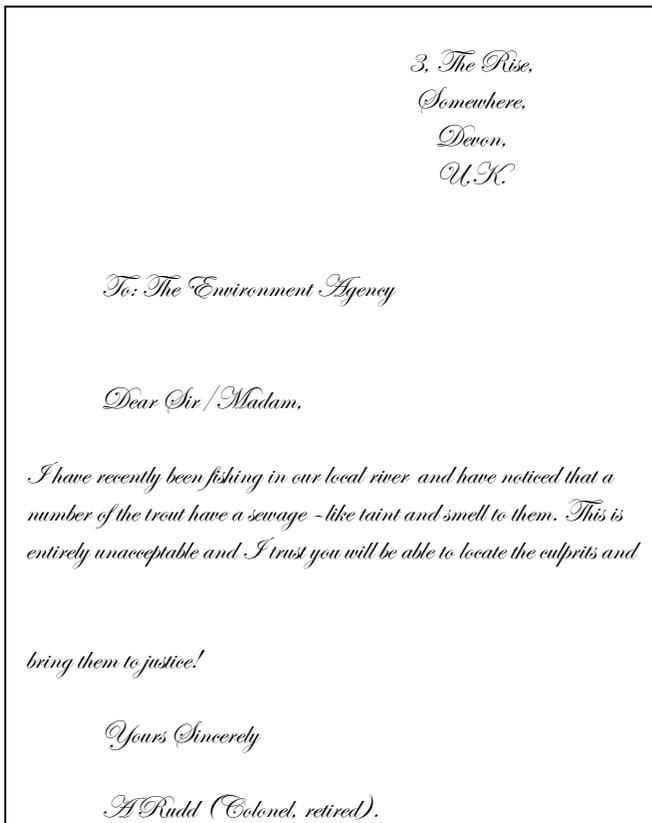
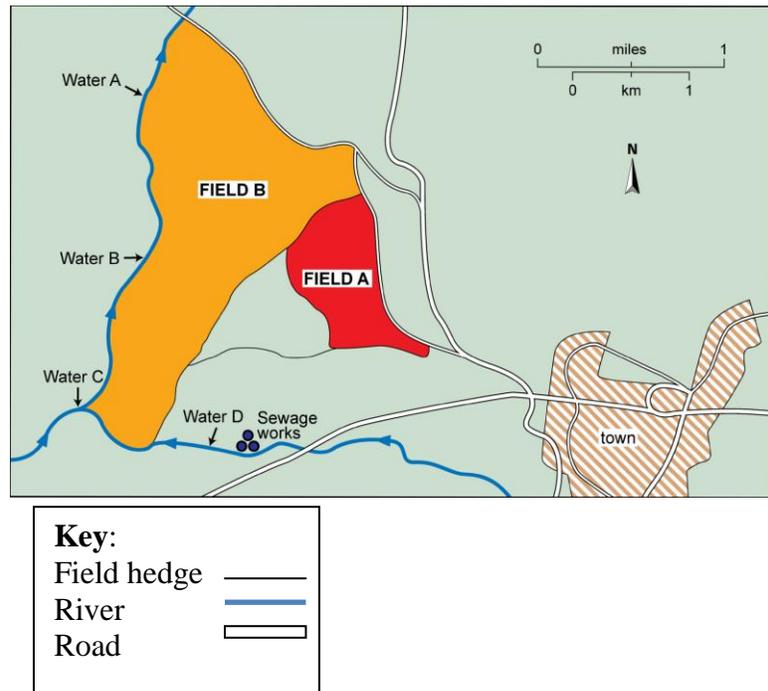


Figure 2



Class discussion

Discuss the background information to this case study using Figure 2 and suggest:

- (a) Some possible explanations of the apparent problem.
- (b) A general experimental approach to solving the problem.

Post Laboratory Exercise

Using Table 1 as a guide, conduct a literature survey of those organic chemicals (and other proxies), which have been proposed previously as markers of sewage pollution. Summarise your findings by completing the table, which you should e-mail to your tutor at least one day before the next session.

Session 2

Pre-Laboratory Exercise

As a class, discuss the amalgamated data resulting in the table of methods found in the scientific literature which have previously been found useful as markers or proxies of sewage pollution.

If the students' data resulting from their literature search is e-mailed to the tutor in advance, the tutor can compile and display a summary table. Students will typically suggest chemical and biological markers such as those reviewed by Vivian (1986), Walker et al., (1982) and Evershed and Bethell (1996) including coprostanol, bile acids, aminopropanone, uric acid and tocopheryl acetate. The tutor can encourage supply of data not provided initially by the students, such as the structures of some of the chemicals, solubility data etc.

Background material on sewage markers for tutors:

The most recent review of the subject seems to be that of Tyagi *et al.*, (2009) who discuss some of the earlier and current methods used to identify the human and non-human sources of fecal pollution in water. The review was focussed mainly on chemical approaches, i.e., fecal sterol and bile acid biomarkers, to identify the sources of fecal pollution. Findings of the study were in agreement with earlier investigations, that it is unlikely for any single determinant to be useful in all situations but a multiple biomarker approach or statistical analysis of microbial and chemical determinants offer the possibility of identifying and apportioning human and animal fecal inputs to natural waters.

Coprostanol

According to Bull *et al.*, (2002), "coprostanol is the major 5 β -stanol in human faeces constituting about 60% of the total sterol content (Leeming et al., 1984) and as such is the main component of interest in studies of domestic sewage pollution that utilise 5 β -stanols. However, the relative quantity of coprostanol observed to occur in the faeces of some other animals is generally much lower (Bull et al., 2002). Faecal material from ruminant organisms such as cows and sheep contains a higher relative proportion of 5 β -campestanol and 5 β -stigmastanol due to the high amount of campesterol and sitosterol derived from a

herbivorous diet. Interestingly, the excreta of other animals such as dogs and birds exhibit little evidence of sterol reduction having occurred during digestion, probably due to the absence of specific bifidobacteria that can reduce cholesterol in the digestive tract of man (Leeming et al., 1996). The hydrophobic nature of 5β -stanols results in a preferential association with particulate matter.” “Whilst less prone to dilution effects exhibited by hydrophilic domestic wastewater biomarker compounds, e.g., aminopropanone (*vide infra*), environmental losses of 5β -stanols occur as a result of degradation by aerobic bacteria in soils and surface sediments” (e.g. Elhmmali et al., 1997). Further degradation and modification may continue under anaerobic conditions.

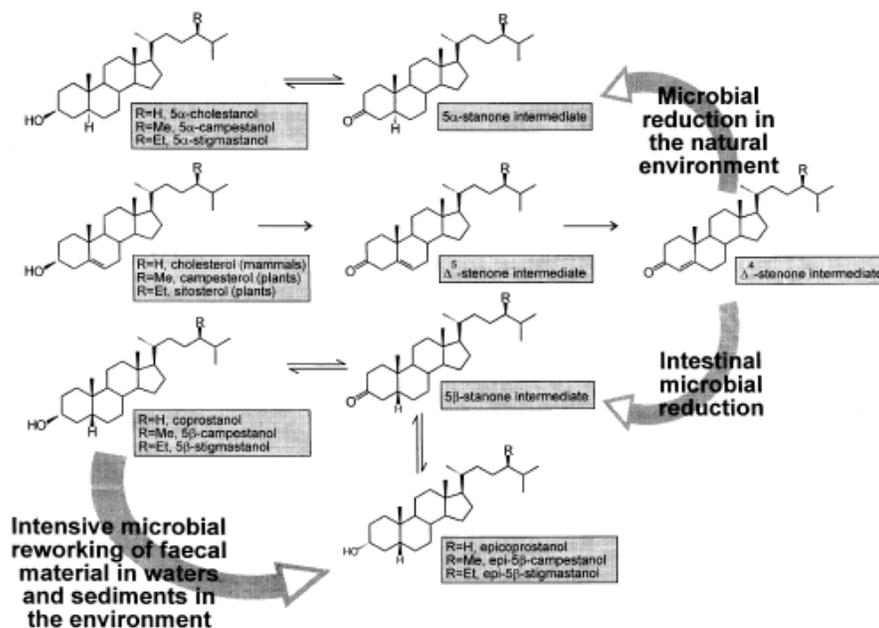


Fig. 1. A schematic detailing the formation of 5α - and 5β -stanols, from their sterol precursors, in the natural environment and the mammalian gut.

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Bile Acids

Also according to Bull *et al.*, (2002) “the bile acids are a group of C_{24} , C_{27} and C_{28} steroidal acids produced in the digestive system of animals.” They have two major physiological roles: “(i) to assist in the enzyme mediated digestion of dietary fats where they act as detergent molecules resulting in more polar products that are readily absorbed by cells, and (ii) to ensure that body cholesterol levels are maintained via faecal elimination of excess sterol from the body. These compounds are characterized by a carboxylic acid group at the C_{23} position on the steroidal carbon side chain and a 3α - or 3β -hydroxyl group on the A ring (like sterols). Bile acids may also have a keto moiety or one or more additional hydroxyl groups attached to the B and C rings of the carbon skeleton. Primary bile acids form from cholesterol in the liver.” They are usually found in the bile as conjugates with taurine and

glycine or other amino acids. The two primary bile acids are secreted into the intestine where they undergo transformations by the action of microorganisms to form secondary bile acids; small proportions are excreted. The polarity, and therefore water solubility, of bile acids increases with the number of hydroxyl moieties.

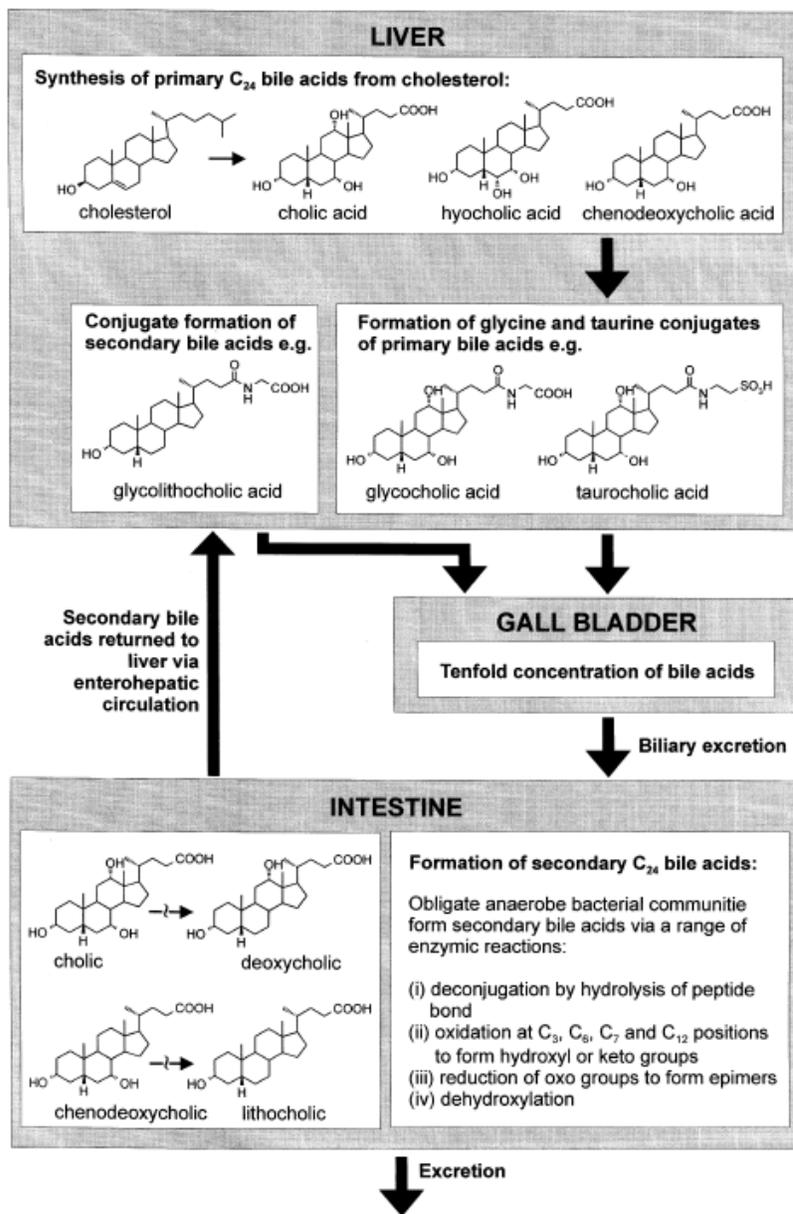


Fig. 2. An overview of the origin of primary bile acids and their conversion, after excretion from the gall bladder, to secondary bile acids in the intestine.

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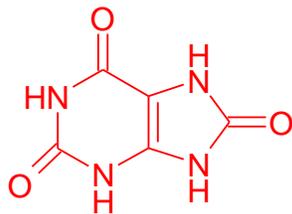
Aminopropanone

1-Aminopropan-2-one (AP) was originally identified in the dissolved phase of untreated sewage samples by Abdul-Rashid (1990) and later in water samples. A half-life of 8 to 10 days was determined in untreated sewage effluent (Fitzsimons *et al.*, 1995). Modification of the original detection methods lowered the limit of

detection (LOD; as the hydrazone derivative by HPLC-UV) to 18nM. Concentrations of about 40 nM in urine and 1.225 μM in primary-treated sewage were found. A later method based on HPLC-atmospheric pressure chemical ionisation mass spectrometry was published with a LOD of 100nM in surface waters, good precision (1.7%) and good recoveries from spiked waters (>88%) but failed to detect any AP in wastewaters (Singh and Gardinalli, 2006).

Uric Acid

Uric acid represents the final step product of the catabolism of purines by humans (and birds and scaly reptiles) and thus its presence in water as been attributed to human waste (O'Shea and Bunch, 1965). They calculated an expected concentration of 1 mg L^{-1} in raw wastewater (i.e. 1000 parts per billion ppb or $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Brown et al., (1982) the devised a simple HPLC-based method for determination of uric acid in fresh and saline waters in the range 1-10,000 ppb with a precision of $\pm 20\%$ at 2 ppb, $\pm 4\%$ at 40 ppb $\pm 2\%$ at 10,000 ppb.



Uric acid

Non-chemical markers

Lipp *et al.*, (2007) collected water and coral mucus samples from throughout the Florida Keys National Marine Sanctuary and the Dry Tortugas for three years and analyzed for human enteric viruses (enteroviruses, noroviruses, hepatitis A virus and adenoviruses) as conservative markers of human sewage using molecular methods. Of the 100 coral and water samples collected, 40 contained genetic material from one or more human enteric viruses.

<i>Proxy or Marker</i>	<i>Structure*</i>	<i>Excretion rate in H. sapiens*</i>	<i>Typical concentration in sewage*</i>	<i>Physical data (e.g. solubility)*</i>	<i>Limit of detection</i>	<i>Advantages</i>	<i>Disadvantages</i>	<i>Key references</i>
Coprostanol								
Bile acids								
Aminopropanone								
Uric Acid								
Vitamin E acetate								
Enteric viruses								
Faecal coliforms								

Table 1. Literature data for organic chemical sewage proxies (and others). * Where applicable.

After further discussions you are engaged by the Environment Agency to obtain analytical chemistry data for four samples (A-D) of filtered water from the river and for soils from fields A and B (Figure 2). You decide to measure the concentrations of two organic chemicals which have been proposed previously as sewage markers; you decide to determine **uric acid** concentrations in water samples A-D and the concentration of **vitamin E acetate** in field soils A and B.

Uric acid (Figure 3a) is actually a member of the group of heteroatomic organic chemicals known as purines. Uric acid is a nitrogenous waste product, particularly of reptiles and birds, but also of humans. Average excretion amounts for an adult human are less than 600-700 mg day⁻¹ (Stapleton, 2005). The parent compound is virtually insoluble in water, but it forms a sodium salt, which is 15 times more soluble, so the concentration of the sodium salt can be determined. A convenient method for this determination without prior purification uses high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) with ultraviolet (UV) detection (Brown *et al.*, 1982). The method involves comparison of the data obtained with those obtained for calibrated solutions of known concentrations of uric acid (sodium salt).

The data for calibration solutions may be provided if time is limited or if the student group size is large.

For the soil samples the concentrations of **vitamin E acetate** (also called alpha-tocopheryl acetate; Figure 3b) are required. Vitamin E acetate is not a natural substance but it is added to foodstuffs as an anti-oxidant. It passes through the human body partially undegraded. Thus it can be used as a sewage marker (Eganhouse and Kaplan, 1985). The best method for determination of vitamin E acetate in soils involves analysis of extracts by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (Eganhouse and Kaplan, 1985) but a convenient laboratory method which you may use instead involves purification of the soil extracts (provided) by thin layer chromatography (TLC)* and quantification of vitamin E acetate in the purified samples by measuring the UV absorption intensity of solutions of the purified material dissolved in cyclohexane and comparing with those obtained for calibrated solutions of known concentrations of vitamin E acetate.

The data for calibration solutions may be provided if time is limited or if the student group size is large. *TLC can be replaced by a simple similar solid phase extraction procedure if finances allow.

The farmer, Mr Giles, who owns the fields, has also agreed that The Environment Agency could assess the biomass in soil samples from the fields and The Environment Agency have provided you with the data and calculated the Shannon-Weiner indices (Table 3). The latter are a measure of species diversity and biomass. Your task is to answer the question: Is there any evidence of

sewage application to field B, and if so how much sewage was applied? Is this likely to be associated with the tainting of the fish or are other factors important, and if so, which? You should present your evidence in a clear and convincing manner in a professional report.

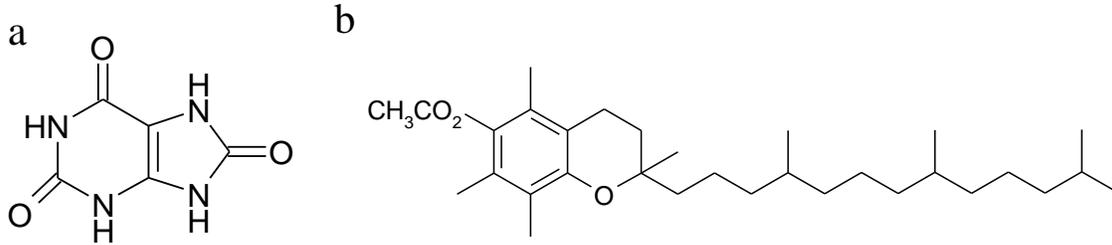


Figure 3

Experimental

Instrumentation

For examination of uric acid in water, an isocratic HPLC system with a ConstaMetric 3200 solvent delivery system, Rheodyne injector, Hyperclone 120 Å C₁₈ HPLC Column (15 cm x 4.6 mm, 5 µm), Merck Hitachi L7420 UV-VIS Detector (290 nm) and a Merck Hitachi D2500 Chromato Integrator are used. Mobile phase: 0.02% phosphoric acid in water. Injection size 100µL. Flow rate 1.2 mL min⁻¹.

There may be some variation in the HPLC equipment, so you should record all the details of the instrumentation that you actually use.

UV spectrophotometry is conducted on a Hewlett Packard (now known as Agilent) 8453 diode array detector. The instrument irradiates at 190-100 nm wavelengths using deuterium and tungsten-halogen lamps, but typically a PC is used to display spectra from 230-330 nm.

There may be some variation in the UV equipment, so you should record all the details of the instrumentation that you actually use.

An older system involved use of a Perkin Elmer Lamda seven spectrophotometer with 230-330 nm display range, 120 nm min⁻¹, 2nm slit width.

Other

UV lamp for TLC plate visualisation (if silica without fluorescent indicator is used as stationary phase).

Nitrogen blow down.

Reagents

These will normally be prepared for you in advance.

1. Vitamin E acetate solution (5% v/v in dichloromethane) for TLC reference.
2. Vitamin E acetate solutions in cyclohexane for UV calibration (100, 175, 200, 275, 300, 400 µg mL⁻¹).

No more than 18h before required, dissolve vitamin E acetate in cyclohexane to provide the required solutions. These samples should be dark stored when not in use.

3. Uric acid (sodium salt) solutions for HPLC-UV calibration (0, 2000, 4000, 6000, 8000, 10,000 µg L⁻¹).

No more than 18h before required, dissolve the sodium salt of uric acid (10 mg) in 0.02% phosphoric acid (100.0mL). Sonicate in a warm water bath for 15 minutes or until all dissolves. Dilute 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 and 1.0 mL of this stock solution each to 10.0 mL to provide the 0, 2000, 4000, 6000, 8000, 10,000 µg L⁻¹ or parts per billion, ppb, solutions. These samples

should be dark stored when not in use. Samples A-D should contain: respectively, A 160, B 2500, C 0 and D 5000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ uric acid (sodium salt). These can be made by suitably diluting the stock solution above.

4. Dichlorofluorescein spray solution dissolved in methanol (0.2%)

Apparatus

Per student:

Auto pipette and tip (0.1 mL)
Beaker (25 mL)
Drawn out melting point tubes (for use as capillaries for TLC spotting)
Aluminium foil
Spatula
Pasteur pipette plug with de-fatted cotton wool
Boss and clamp
Retort stand
Small plastic funnel
Vials (2 mL)
Volumetric flask (25.00 mL)
Pasteur pipette and teat
TLC plate (20 x 20 cm, silica HF254 x 0.25 mm)
TLC tank
TLC solvent mixture (mobile phase) 100 mL hexane (95%): diethylether (5%)
Dichloromethane
Cyclohexane
Water samples A, B, C, D (100 mL each)
Soil extracts A, B (typically 20 mg). Amount of original soil must be stated.

Procedure

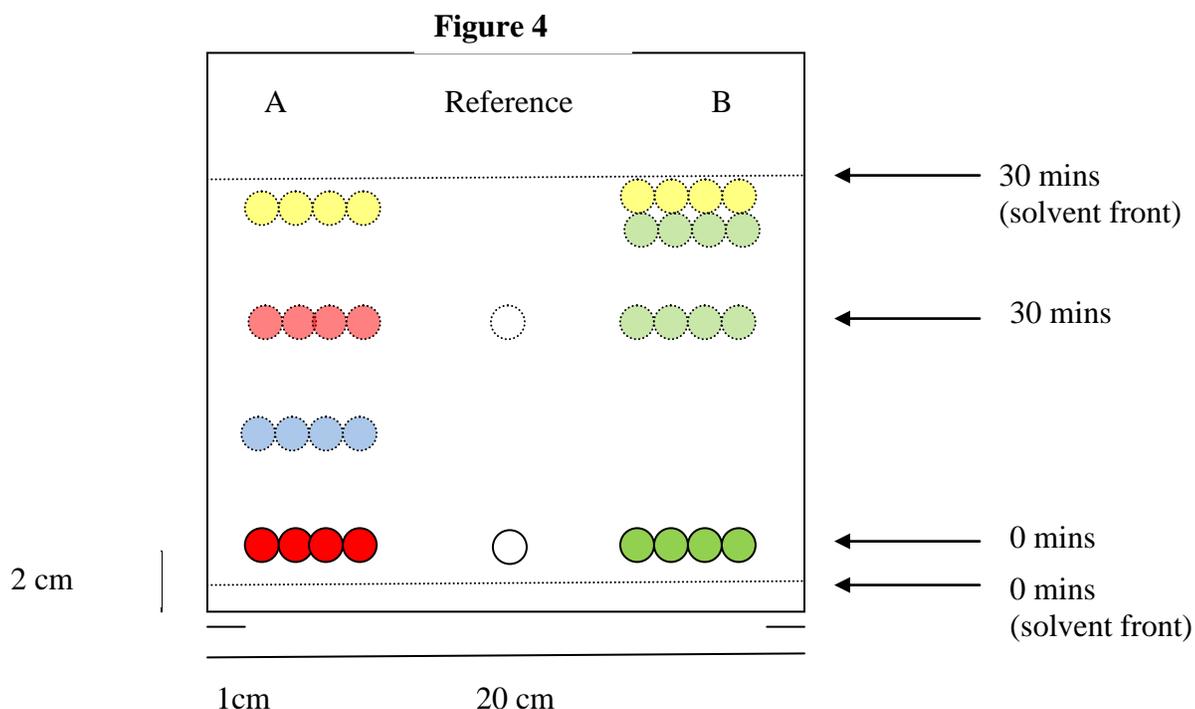
Determination of vitamin E acetate in soil extracts from fields A and B:

You are provided with extracts of organic matter from the soils of fields A and B. These originate from the Soxhlet extraction of 200g each of dry soil A or B with refluxing dichloromethane. These extracts (typically about 20 mg each) will contain many organic compounds.

Tutor: It is useful to encourage students to volunteer examples of the organic compounds found in soil. Typically these include humic substances, lipids, pigments (e.g. chlorophyll), proteins, carbohydrates.

In order to isolate vitamin E acetate you need to remove many of the other compounds, or use a determination method which is specific to vitamin E acetate (or both). You can use various forms of chromatography to purify the crude extracts and then ultraviolet absorption spectrophotometry at a wavelength specific to vitamin E acetate to measure the amount present. To do the latter you will first need to examine a number of solutions (calibration solutions) of known vitamin E acetate content.

Isolate a fraction of esters (vitamin E acetate is an ester) from the crude soil extracts by thin layer chromatography (TLC). Dissolve all of each extract from soil A or B (ca 20 mg) in about 100 μ L of dichloromethane. Apply all of each sample, using a drawn out capillary glass tube **as demonstrated**, in a series of small conjoined spots, to about 2 cm above the bottom and 1 cm in from the edge of a 20 x 20 cm TLC plate coated with a thin layer of silica (Figure 4). Take care not to touch the silica with your hand or sleeve. Mark the top of the plate with an 'A' or 'B' so you know which sample is which (or use a different TLC plate for the second sample if enough are available).



Now apply a spot of a concentrated sample (5% v/v in dichloromethane) of pure vitamin E acetate (supplied) to the bottom centre of the plate in line with the lines of spots of samples A and B (Figure 4). This will act as a reference for the position of the likely band of esters containing vitamin E acetate in samples A and B (if present) once the chromatogram has been developed. Now carefully transfer the silica plate to a chromatography tank containing 100 mL of hexane: diethylether (5:5) and lined with chromatography paper, taking care to allow the solvent (mobile phase) only to ascend by capillary action and not to wash off any of the sample spots. Place a top on the tank and allow it to develop until the solvent reaches about 2 cm from the top of the plate (usually about 30 minutes). Remove the TLC plate carefully and carefully mark the position of the solvent front with a drawn out glass capillary; then place the plate in a fume hood in order that the solvent may evaporate. Place the dry plate under a UV lamp in a dark cabinet and (ensuring that you are wearing safety spectacles), observe and mark the position of any obvious spots or lines. Since vitamin E acetate has a chromophore it absorbs in the UV, so it may be visible. Now stand the TLC plate against a protective cardboard screen and lightly spray the TLC plate with a solution of dichlorofluorescein in methanol. Allow the plate to re-dry and when dry examine it again (ensuring that you are wearing safety spectacles) under the UV light and mark any additional lines or spots. Non UV absorbing compounds will now quench the fluorescence of the spray and be made visible. These will include compounds such as hydrocarbons (usually observed at the solvent front).

With a ruler, starting at the midpoint of the original spots, measure the distance travelled by each of the spots and lines of spots in your developed chromatogram and also of the distance travelled by the solvent front. The distance travelled by each component divided by the distance travelled by the solvent front (the latter is usually about 17 cm) is known as the retardation factor (R_f). Record these data for your unknown spots and lines and for the known reference vitamin E acetate.

Now carefully scrape off any lines of spots in sample A (and next sample B) which you think is possibly vitamin E acetate. **Tutor: it is usually obvious which bands have the same R_f as the vitamin E acetate reference but if not, then an area of silica adjacent to the reference spot at the correct R_f should be taken.** The silica powder (take care not to inhale this fine powder) from the relevant region should be scraped with a spatula onto a small 'boat' of folded aluminium foil. **Tutor: A demonstration of the correct practice is most useful at this point.** The silica should then be carefully transferred to a Pasteur pipette blocked with defatted cotton wool using a small plastic funnel. The pipette should be held to a retort stand with a boss and clamp. Take care not to over tighten the clamp. The analyte (suspected vitamin E acetate) can now be eluted into a preweighed (ca 5mL) glass vial with dichloromethane. **Tutor: Ideally one would elute with cyclohexane as the UV spectrum is to be obtained in this solvent, but experience shows the sorption to silica requires dichloromethane for quantitative elution.** The process is repeated using clean apparatus for sample B. The dichloromethane is now removed from eluted samples A and B by evaporation to dryness in a fume hood under a controlled stream of dry nitrogen. The dry vials are re-weighed. **Tutor: Often the amount of material eluted is unweighable**

(<1 mg). Each sample is now dissolved in a small amount of cyclohexane and the whole of each dissolved sample transferred to a 25.0 mL volumetric flask and made up to the mark. Each sample is now examined by UV spectrophotometry under the conditions listed above, the spectra recorded and the absorbance at 285 nm is recorded. The calibration solutions for 100, 175, 200, 275, 300 and 400 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ solutions of vitamin E acetate in cyclohexane are also examined and the absorbance at 285 nm recorded. A graph of the response of the UV detector versus the concentration of vitamin E acetate should be plotted and used to determine the concentration of vitamin E acetate in the 25 mL solutions of samples A and B.

Post Laboratory Exercise

Summarise all of your data in a table. Send this table to your tutor.

Tutor: On receipt, the class data can be summarised for presentation at the next laboratory session.

Session 3

Pre- Laboratory Exercise

Discuss the summarized class data. Can you begin to conclude anything about the treatment of the fields with sewage?

Determination of uric acid (sodium salt) in river samples A-D:

Uric acid (sodium salt) may be determined directly in water by the HPLC-UV method of Brown *et al.*, (1982). Use the HPLC system described above (Instrumentation) as instructed, to examine uric acid (sodium salt) solutions for HPLC-UV calibration containing 0, 2000, 4000, 6000, 8000, 10,000 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ uric acid (sodium salt). **Tutor: It is useful for the entire HPLC procedure to be demonstrated to the class. Ideally each calibration point should be measured in triplicate at least. This is easy with a class size >3.** Construct a suitable calibration graph by plotting response versus concentration. Now examine each of the river water samples A-D in triplicate and use the calibration graph to deduce the concentration of uric acid in each sample as a mean \pm one standard deviation.

End Laboratory Exercise

Summarise all of your data in a table. Discuss as a class, all of the data (i.e. for vitamin E acetate and for uric acid).

Independently, using the class data but emphasising your own data, calculate the concentrations of vitamin E acetate in soil A and in soil B in $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ dry soil and $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ wet soil (soil moisture content is given in Table 2). Show clearly all your calculations. A table summarising all of the data may be useful. Conduct suitable statistical tests on the data to emphasise any similarities or differences between the fields. Use the concentrations of vitamin E acetate and the known sewage biosolids application data and field sizes (Table 2) to calculate the amount of sewage (if any) which appears to have been applied to field B. Integrate these findings with the measurements of biomass and the Shannon-Weiner diversity indices (Table 3) and of uric acid made in the river waters and use the map (Figure 2) to deduce the likely sewage contamination scenario(s). Conduct suitable statistical tests on the uric acid data to emphasise any similarities or differences between the sites and between your data and those of the whole class. Write a professional report comprising a front page summary or abstract,

an introduction, description of methods, results including figures such as chromatograms and graphs and discussion, calculations/statistics and conclusions.

Tutor: Vitamin E acetate (VEA) in field A.

The common error made by students is in reading the concentration of VEA directly from the calibration graph and not allowing for the 25.0 mL volume. They then commonly don't calculate the concentration of VEA in the dry soil (allowing for 200g sample size) or the wet soil (using moisture data in Table 2, though is strictly not needed to complete the task).

Specimen answers/calculations:

Say the students obtain a UV absorbance reading of 0.4 at 285 for a soil A vitamin E acetate solution in 25.0 mL cyclohexane. They use the calibration graph (or the equation for the line) to obtain a value of, say, $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$. They should then compute that 25 mL of a $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ solution equates to 2500 μg . This from 200g dry soil, equating to 12.5 μg vitamin E acetate g^{-1} dry soil.

The dry sewage biosolids were spread onto a field (A) of 7.3 acres workable area, to a depth of 25 cm. One acre is about 4047 m^2 , so 7.3 acres is about 29543 m^2 or $2.9543 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^2$. At 25 cm depth, the volume of the soil is therefore $7.39 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^3$.

The amount of dry sewage biosolids that gave rise to the concentration of vitamin E acetate was 100 m^3 for the year, or 10^8 cm^3 .

So the concentration of sewage biosolids in the soil A was $10^8 / 7.385775 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^3$ sewage per cm^3 dry soil or (assuming 1 cm^3 sewage is 1 g and given the density of the soil) about 13.5 mg sewage per g dry soil.

If soil B is found to contain, say $25 \mu\text{g}$ vitamin E acetate g^{-1} dry soil (viz: twice that of A) and we assume the relationship between vitamin E acetate and sewage is linear, given that field B is over twice (viz: $15.6/7.3 = 2.137$) as big as field A, clearly, there must have been about four times as much sewage applied to field B (i.e. about 400 m^3).

This can be calculated more accurately by essentially the reverse of the above:

If $12.5 \mu\text{g}$ vitamin E acetate g^{-1} dry soil results from 13.5 mg sewage per g dry soil, then $25 \mu\text{g}$ vitamin E acetate g^{-1} dry soil results from 27.0 mg sewage per g dry soil. Since there are 2.137 times the workable acres in field B (although field B is bigger, this is the workable area), which is $2.137 \times 7.39 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^3$ or $15.783 \times$

10^9 cm^3 (or grams) there must have been $27 \times 15.783 \times 10^9 \text{ mg}$ sewage spread on field B, or 426 m^3 (i.e. about four times that of field A).

Clearly then, field B was treated with a lot of sewage without permission, either by mistake or intentionally and perhaps this should be investigated by the authorities. However, this does not necessarily mean that this is the cause (or anything to do with) the tainting in the fish in the river. There could have been leachate from the field which caused the tainting of course, but also the tainting could be due to poor health in the fish (which may or may not be related to pollution). First class students might look into the causes of taint in fish (amines?) and propose alternative scenarios. Perhaps a taste panel could be set up to verify there really is a taint problem? The biological data appear to show that field B has been polluted; the biomass is high but the diversity is low, suggesting invasion by an opportunistic species. This could be related to the higher sewage treatment of field B, though this is only twice as high as field A.

Now considering the uric acid data: D at $5000 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ uric acid (sodium salt) has a value reflecting untreated raw wastewater. Perhaps the sewage treatment works is not working efficiently or this is storm overload? This seem to be further diluted downstream (B) and stream C seems to give a good control for uncontaminated rivers in the area. At A there seems to have been further dilution, so this perhaps suggests that the solids treatment of field B has nothing to do with the uric acid, which is almost certainly the case. Again the possible scenarios of the relationship with the uric acid, if any, to the tainting should be discussed.

Marking criteria:

Over about ten years of operation of this exercise in various forms, it was found to be well received by students and also adopted by other staff. The following sheet shows the marking criteria which were developed. These sheets, with tick marks at appropriate places (the more ticks the better), were returned to students with their annotated and corrected scripts.

Map (Figure 2) courtesy of the University of Plymouth Cartography Unit. This shows a fictitious location. The field data are also fictitious.

Assessor's Feedback Form

MODULE:

ASSESSMENT: Sewage pollution

ASSESSOR:

DATE:

A **first class** report of this exercise would contain at least the following elements (a tick alongside indicates that your account satisfied that element; a tick in parenthesis indicates partial fulfillment). A **2:1 class** account will have at least 2/3 of the elements ticked, a **2:2 class** account will have at least 1/2 of the elements ticked, whilst a **3rd class** account will have mainly ticks in parentheses.

The whole account should be typewritten, be grammatically correct and contain few typing and spelling errors.

The report should be written in the past tense and an impersonal style. A title page, abstract and contents page should be included.

The abstract should comprise a mini-report in that it should briefly and succinctly outline the aims, methods and results/conclusions. The latter should include a summary of the numerical results and this should lead to a conclusion or recommendation. Essentially anyone reading the abstract should only need to read further to check detail.

An Introduction and/or Background should be given and the Aims stated. A map should be included.

An account of the Methods used should be given. Details might be given in appendices. Diagrams may be useful but if used should be clear and correctly labeled and referred to as Figure 1 etc. in the text.

Results are often best set out in Tables but in any case should be clearly arranged and key results underlined. The units of measurements should be included. It may be appropriate to highlight individual results in a group of class data. Means and standard deviations might be calculated and given with the Results (or in a Calculations section). **The analyses of uric acid and vitamin E acetate should be accurate and agree well with the expected values.**

Calculations should be complete and accurate. The measurements of uric acid give a direct indication of the concentrations in river water but the VEA analyses do not and need to be adjusted for the amount of soil. The concentrations should correspond to the expected values. **The VEA concentrations should be used to compute the amount of biosolids in field A and thence in field B.** Any assumptions made should be stated clearly. The data should be compared with the UA and biomass data to reach a conclusion about the likely treatment of field B and the legitimacy of the fishermen's case.

Additional assessor's comments about your report.

Mark: /100

Table 2. Data for fields A and B shown in Figure 2.

Field Code	A	B
Ordnance Survey Area (acres)	8.1	22.2
Workable area (acres)	7.3	15.6
Biosolids amount spread (m ³ dry solids per yr)	100	0
Biosolids type	Limed	Limed
Soil type*	541B	541B
Soil moisture content	30%	20%
Soil bulk density (dry)	1g cm ⁻³	1g cm ⁻³

If you wish, you may assume sewage is ploughed into a depth of 25 cm and that sewage weighs 1g per cm³.

*Soil classification of the *Soil Survey of England & Wales, Lawes Agricultural Trust*, published by Ordnance Survey (clayey loam).

Table 3. Biological data for soils from fields A and B

	Field A	Field B	Control
Biomass (g m ⁻²)	3.84±0.78	14.39±3.02	1.47±0.29
Shannon-Weiner Diversity index	1.45	0.087	2.25

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Sewage Pollution: A Case Study

COSHH ASSESSMENT

Assessment No. 0

Assessment Date 00/00/0000

Chemicals – Hazardous in quantities used in experiment	
Hexane	Highly Flammable. Harmful by ingestion, inhalation and skin contact. There is evidence of reproductive effects.
Ethanol	Highly Flammable. Irritating to the eyes. Intoxicating if inhaled or ingested. Evacuate if spillage exceeds 700 mL.
Chemicals – Hazardous in other circumstances	
Hexane	Evacuate if spillage exceeds 150 mL.
Dichloromethane	Harmful by inhalation. Extremely irritating and damaging to the eyes. Has been found to cause cancer in laboratory animals. May cause mutagenic or teratogenic effects. Evacuate if spillage exceeds 80 mL. Short term exposure limit (STEL) 15 minutes at 300 parts per million (ppm).
Cyclohexane	Extremely Flammable. Irritating to the skin, eyes and respiratory system. Vapour can be narcotic in high concentrations. Assumed to be an irritant and narcotic if ingested. Evacuate if spillage exceeds 400 mL. STEL 15 minutes at 300 ppm.
First aid for any of the above chemicals	
Eyes	Irrigate thoroughly with water for at least 10 minutes. OBTAIN MEDICAL ATTENTION.
Lungs	Remove from exposure, rest and keep warm. In severe cases OBTAIN MEDICAL ATTENTION.
Skin	Wash off thoroughly with water. Remove contaminated clothing and wash before re-use. In severe cases OBTAIN MEDICAL ATTENTION.
Mouth	Wash out mouth thoroughly with water and give plenty of water to drink. OBTAIN MEDICAL ATTENTION.

ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS: Wear nitrile gloves to handle solvents. Avoid inhalation of silica powder. Wear safety spectacles throughout and especially when viewing TLC plates under UV light. Additional information is available on request.

Author	Simon Belt, Steve Rowland
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