# Profiles of dissolved organic matter and haloacetic acid formation potential in drinking water treatment by a comprehensive fractionation technique

I. Jo, S. Echigo and S. Itoh

#### **ABSTRACT**

A comprehensive fractionation technique was applied to a set of water samples obtained along a real drinking water treatment plant with ozonation and granular activated carbon (GAC) treatment to obtain detailed profiles of dissolved organic matter (DOM) and to evaluate the haloacetic acid (HAA) formation potentials of these DOM fractions. The results indicated that ozonation and GAC treatment showed limited ability to remove hydrophilic fractions (23%), while removal of hydrophobic fractions was 72%. The contribution of hydrophilic fractions to HAA formation increased from 30 to 61% along the treatment train because of better removal for hydrophobic fractions both in concentration and reactivity. Similar trends were also found for trihalomethanes.

Key words | disinfection byproducts, dissolved organic matter, fractionation, haloacetic acids

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#### INTRODUCTION

The precursors of disinfection byproducts (DBPs) – toxic compounds produced by the reaction between disinfectants and organic or inorganic constituents in source water - were believed to be mainly hydrophobic compounds (i.e., humic and fulvic acids). However, recent studies have suggested that the hydrophilic fraction is a major contributor to the formation of trihalomethanes (THMs,  $CHX_3$ , where X = Cl, Br, or I) (Imai et al. 2003). THM formation potential per unit of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) from the hydrophilic fraction was shown to be comparable to that of aquatic humic substances (hydrophobic fraction), and the hydrophilic fraction could be a dominant precursor of THMs for low humic waters. Nagai et al. (2005) also found that the hydrophilic fraction of lake dissolved organic matter (DOM) was a major precursor of THMs. These and other studies clearly highlighted the importance of hydrophilic fractions for DBP formation, and have changed our view of DBP precursors.

This may also be true for other DBPs. Indeed, it has been reported that hydrophilic fraction could be a major precursor of haloacetic acids (HAAs,  $CH_{3-n}X_nCOOH$ , where

X = Cl, Br, or I), another important class of DBPs (Liang & Singer 2003; Lu *et al.* 2009). In addition, the contribution of the hydrophilic fraction is significant for the formation of dichloroacetonitrile and *N*-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) (Lee *et al.* 2007). These findings suggest that hydrophilic fractions are important as precursors of various DBPs.

Japan

Most of the studies mentioned above focused on characterization of DOM and on evaluation of the DBP formation potentials of raw waters. However, the composition of DOM changes along the treatment system and the major precursors of DBPs could depend on the type of drinking water treatment. Thus, it is desirable to characterize DOM after treatment to identify the major fractions contributing to DBP formation in actual drinking water. Kim & Yu (2005) compared DOC profiles and DBP formation potentials between conventional rapid sand filtration and membrane treatment systems (ultrafiltration and nanofiltration). While this was a major advance in the field of DBP chemistry, their evaluation did not include ozonation, a key treatment step in advanced drinking water treatment

plants. In addition, DOM was divided into only two fractions (hydrophilic and hydrophobic).

The combination of ozonation and granular activated carbon (GAC) is a common and effective approach to control DBPs. However, to our knowledge, there have been no detailed reports regarding the DOM profile (e.g., the percentage of hydrophilic fraction) along the treatment train with ozonation and GAC treatment, or how the most important fractions for DBP formation shift with each unit operation. While both THMs (0.06, 0.03, 0.1, 0.09, and 0.1 mg/L for chloroform, bromodichloromethane, dibromochloromethane, bromoform, and total THMs, respectively) and HAAs (0.02, 0.04, and 0.2 mg/L for chloroacetic acid, dichloroacetic acid, and trichloroacetic acid, respectively) are regulated as chlorination byproducts in Japan, much less information is available for HAAs. In the present study, we applied a comprehensive fractionation technique of DOM to a set of water samples obtained along a real drinking water treatment plant with ozonation and GAC treatment, and evaluated the HAA formation potentials of these DOM fractions to identify the major precursors at each treatment step. THM formation potentials were also measured for comparison.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Water samples

Water samples were collected at an actual drinking water plant in the Osaka area, Japan, on 17 December 2007. The pH, bromide ion concentration, DOC, and specific UV absorbance (SUVA) at 258 nm of the source water were 7.3, 32 µg/L, 2.5 mg/L, and 2.7 L/(m·mg), respectively. This plant employs ozonation (ozone dose: 0.3 - 0.5 mg/L on the day of sampling) and GAC treatment (contact time: 24 min) after coagulation with polyaluminum chloride (PAC), sedimentation, and rapid sand filtration. Four samples were collected in this study: inlet, after sand filtration, ozonation, and GAC.

#### Fractionation

The samples were fractionated into six fractions by a method similar to that described previously by Leenheer (2004). In our experiment, no colloidal fraction was isolated. The method consisted of a series of adsorption onto DAX-8 resin (Supelco), XAD-4 resin (Supelco), and ion-exchange resins (Marathon MSA-1 and MSC-1; Dowex) under several different pH conditions (Figure 1). As a small but nonnegligible level of bromide ions was found in hydrochloric acid and sodium chloride used in this study, sulfuric acid and sodium sulfate were used for desorption and pH adjustment. The fractions obtained by this procedure were hydrophobic acid (HoA), hydrophobic neutral (HoN), transphilic acid and neutral (Trs), base (Bas), hydrophilic acid (HiA), and hydrophilic neutral (HiN). These fractions were used for evaluation of HAA formation potentials without further purification (i.e., desalting).

#### Chlorination

Chlorination of each DOM fraction was performed at pH 7.0. Other conditions were as follows: chlorine dose. 3 mg/L; DOC, 2 mg/L, bromide ion, 0.17 mg/L (adjusted

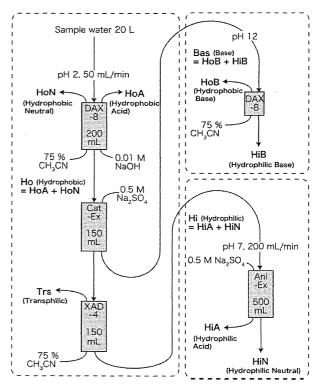


Figure 1 | Schematic of DOM fractionation

to the highest concentration among the six fractions); incubation time, 24 h for most samples (see caption of Figure 2 for more details). The presence of free chlorine after 24 h was confirmed by the DPD method (APHA *et al.* 2005).

### **Analytical methods**

The concentrations of nine HAAs (those with Cl and/or Br) were determined by GC/MS (QP2010-Plus; Shimadzu) analysis with a DB-5 ms capillary column (30 m  $\times$  0.25 mm i.d., 0.32  $\mu m$  film thickness; J&W Scientific) after derivatization to the corresponding methyl esters (USEPA 2003). The limits of quantification were 1  $\mu g/L$  for tribromoacetic acid (TBA) and 0.25  $\mu g/L$  for the other eight HAAs. For this analysis, 1,2,3-trichloropropane was used as an internal standard. For comparison, THMs (with Cl and/or Br) were also measured by GC/MS analysis using

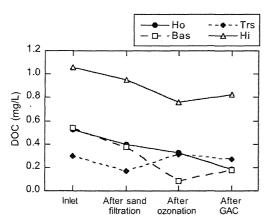


Figure 2 | Summary of DOM profile along the drinking water treatment with ozonation and GAC (Ho: the sum of HoA and HoN; Hi: the sum of HiA and HiN).

the same column as in HAA analysis following liquid–liquid extraction with pentane (APHA et al. 2005). The quantification limits of THMs were 0.5  $\mu$ g/L, and 1,2-dibromopropane was used as an internal standard for this analysis. DOC concentration was measured with a TOC analyzer (TOC-5000A; Shimadzu) in non-purgeable organic carbon (NPOC) mode. The detection limit for this analysis and the standard deviation for 200  $\mu$ g C/L were 30  $\mu$ g C/L and 4%, respectively. All analyses were performed in duplicate.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### DOC profile

Figure 2 shows the DOM profile along the treatment plant. The detailed DOM contents at each treatment step are also summarized in Table 1. To our knowledge, this is one of the most detailed DOM profiles along with a treatment train with ozone and GAC treatment obtained by a comprehensive fractionation technique. The hydrophilic fraction (i.e., HiA + HiN) was the dominant DOM fraction throughout the treatment process at this drinking water treatment plant, with percentages of 41 and 57% for the inlet water and after ozonation, respectively. The removal percentage of the hydrophilic fraction (Hi) was only 23%, while hydrophobic (HoA+HoN) and basic compounds (Bas) were decreased by 72 and 67%, respectively. The base fraction consisted mostly of hydrophilic compounds (i.e., the HoB fraction was negligibly small). These observations clearly indicated that the behaviors of different

Table 1	Detailed DOM	profile along the	drinking water	treatment plant	(Unit: mg C/L)
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	Inlet	After rapid sand filtration	After ozonation	After GAC
HoA	0.48	0.37	0.22	0.18
HoN	0.17	0.03	0.11	0.00
Bas	0.54	0.38	0.08	0.18
Trs	0.30	0.17	0.32	0.27
HiA	0.61	0.35	0.38	0.35
HiN	0.45	0.61	0.38	0.47
Total	2.55	1.90	1.49	1.43

DOM fractions are different at various stages during drinking water treatment. It should be noted that the hydrophilic fraction remained dominant even following ozonation and GAC treatment. Thus, the combination of ozone and GAC may not be relevant in terms of DOC removal for source waters with high levels of hydrophilic compounds.

With regard to the various treatment steps, rapid sand filtration (coagulation and sedimentation) was effective for removal of five fractions other than HiN. The levels of removal for HoA, HoN, Bas, Trs, and HiA were 23, 82, 30, 43, and 43%, respectively. Ozonation increased the DOC levels of HoN, Trs, and HiA, while it decreased those of HoA, Bas, and HiN. The increase in Trs was attributed to the formation of low molecular weight compounds from hydrophobic fractions. The HiA fraction increased by 9% probably due to the formation of more hydrophilic functional groups during oxidation reactions with molecular ozone and hydroxyl radicals. Higher HoN after ozonation has also been reported previously (Swietlik et al. 2004); based on the results of size-exclusion chromatography, they suggested that the increase in HoN was mainly due to the formation of small hydrophobic compounds. After GAC treatment, only the Bas and HiN fractions increased presumably because of the release of organic compounds from the extracellular membranes of bacteria in GAC. HoN was removed completely in this treatment step.

Although GAC was used to serve as biological activated carbon at this plant, no removal of hydrophilic compounds was observed with this treatment.

# HAA formation characteristics from different DOM fractions

Figure 3 shows a summary of HAA formation per unit DOC from different DOM fractions. No mono-HAA (i.e., chloroacetic acid and bromoacetic acid) was detected in this series of experiments. HAA formation per unit DOC decreased for HoA, HoN, and Trs along the treatment train; HoA and Trs showed 58 and 51% removal, respectively, and HoN was removed completely after GAC. In contrast, that of HiA remained constant throughout the treatment process. The levels of HAA formation per unit DOC from HiN increased along the treatment train by 89%. This change may have been due to the release of organic compounds from GAC, as mentioned above. Alternatively, the residual DOM may have had higher HAA formation potential. In addition, the ratio of dihaloacetic acids to trihaloacetic acids was higher in the Bas fraction. These observations indicated the dominance of aliphatic compounds in this fraction (Echigo et al. 2007). As the Bas fraction consists mostly of hydrophilic compounds, this observation was consistent with the pattern of HAA formation from DOM surrogates reported previously (Bond et al. 2009).

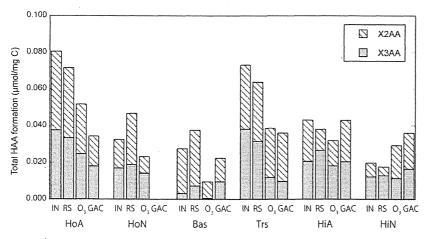


Figure 3 | HAA formation potentials from different DOM fractions (Total concentrations of nine HAAs are presented here. Chlorination conditions: chlorine dose, 3 mg/L; DOC, 2 mg/L: (1.5 mg/L for the Bas sample after GAC because of lack of DOM amount recovered), bromide ion, 0.17 mg/L; incubation time 24 h; pH, 7.0. IN; inlet; RS; after rapid sand filtration; O3, after ozonation; GAC; after GAC treatment).

The differences in HAA formation among the DOM fractions after GAC were smaller than those after other treatment steps and the raw water, thus indicating very similar precursor structures among the different fractions.

Figure 4 shows a comparison of the subclasses of HAAs (in µmol/mg C) along the treatment train. While the levels of chlorinated HAAs (HAAs with only Cl) per DOC decreased, those of brominated (HAAs with only Br) increased. This observation suggested a shift in the contents of HAAs from chlorinated to brominated species. As the bromide/chlorine/carbon matrix was adjusted at approximately the same level in this study, this result was attributed to the changes in reactivity of DOM. It is likely that brominated HAAs were preferentially produced for the DOM after ozonation or GAC because bromination by HOBr (an intermediate species from the reaction of bromide and chlorine ions) occurs more rapidly than chlorination (e.g., Acero *et al.* 2005). As brominated compounds are known

to more toxic than their chlorinated counterparts in general (Echigo et al. 2004) and among the HAAs (Plewa et al. 2002) regulations and monitoring focusing only on chlorinated HAAs may not be sufficient to guarantee the safety of finished water.

Figure 5 shows the relative contributions of DOM fractions to HAA formation potential at each treatment step. The total formation potential decreased by 55% along the treatment train, while the relative contribution of the hydrophilic fractions increased from 30 to 61%. Thus, the major contributor to HAA formation was different for the inlet sample and the sample after ozonation and GAC treatment. There are two major reasons for these results: (1) better removal of the hydrophobic fractions and (2) decreased yields of HAAs for hydrophobic fractions, but remaining constant for hydrophilic fractions.

These findings are important because most previous studies to identify the fraction important for DBP formation

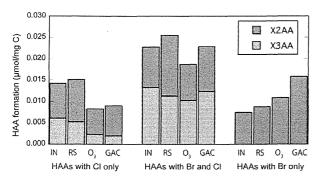


Figure 4 | Types of HAAs produced at each treatment step (See caption of Figure 3 for conditions).

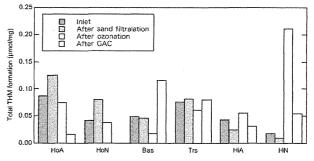


Figure 6 | THM formation potentials from different DOM fractions (Total concentrations of four THMs are presented here. See caption of Figure 2 for chlorination conditions).

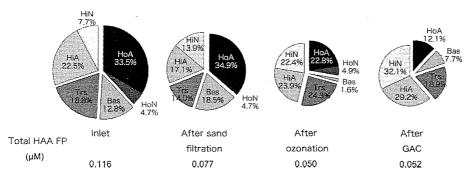


Figure 5 | Relative contributions of DOM fractions to HAA formation potential at each treatment stage (Relative contributions were calculated with the DOC percentages and HAA formation potentials. That is, HAA formation potentials were weighted by DOC percentages).

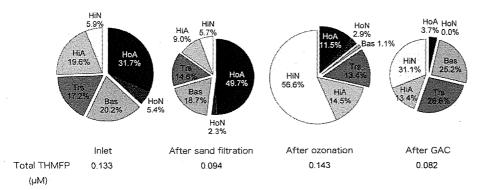


Figure 7 | Relative contributions of DOM fractions to THM formation potential at each treatment step (Relative contribution was calculated from the DOC percentages and THM formation potentials. That is, THM formation potentials were weighted by DOC percentages).

were conducted with source waters. Our results clearly indicated that the DOM content after treatment is completely different from that of the source water in terms of DBP formation, especially after ozone + GAC treatment (note: there was no HoN fraction after GAC) and that it is more appropriate to characterize DOM in the treatment train to identify the DOM fraction responsible for DBP formation.

Figure 6 shows the THM formation potentials per unit DOC at each treatment step for DOM fractions. THM formation potentials of hydrophilic fractions decreased along the treatment process, but those of other fractions did not change or even increased. Similar to HAAs, these observations indicated the importance of hydrophilic fractions after treatment as the precursors of THMs. Figure 7 shows this more clearly. The contribution of hydrophilic fractions was very small (3.7%), and this trend was similar to that of HAA formation potentials.

#### CONCLUSIONS

A comprehensive fractionation technique was applied to water samples obtained along a real drinking water treatment process with ozonation and GAC treatment to evaluate HAA formation potentials of these DOM fractions. The results indicated only limited removal of hydrophilic fractions by ozonation and GAC treatment (23%), while that of hydrophobic fractions was 72%. The contribution of hydrophilic fractions to HAA formation increased from 30 to 61% along the treatment train due to better removal and lower reactivity after treatment. Similar trends were

found for THMs. These observations suggested that the combination of ozonation and GAC treatment may not be relevant in terms of DOC removal and control of DBPs for source waters with high levels of hydrophilic compounds.

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# 東京の地下水中の塩素酸イオンおよび 過塩素酸イオンの実態調査

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東京の地下水を対象に塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンの実態調査を行った. 試料は2007, 2009年に採取した. 塩素酸イオンは49試料中24試料が、過塩素酸イオンは52試料中28試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で、その割合は被圧地下水より不圧地下水や湧水で高かった. 試料の25%程度は塩素酸イオンまたは過塩素酸イオンが比較的高い濃度で存在し、塩素酸イオンでは1試料で水道水質基準値を超えていた(2000 μg/L). 東京の地下水は、国内の他の地下水(市販のナチュラルウォーターや専用水道の原水)に比べ、これらイオン濃度が高い試料は多かったが、定量下限値以上の濃度の試料の割合は最も低かった. これらイオン濃度が比較的高かった地下水では、その多くが水道水や下水の影響を受けている可能性が考えられた.

Key Words: chlorate, perchlorate, groundwater, Tokyo

# 1. はじめに

塩素酸イオンは、水溶性のイオンで、水中では安定で、移動性が高い物質である。塩素酸塩として、除草剤、酸化剤、二酸化塩素の原料、火薬、マッチ、花火等に使用されている <sup>1)</sup>他、消毒剤である次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液中に不純物として含まれている <sup>2)</sup>。除草剤としての塩素酸塩の使用量は農薬の中でもとりわけ多く(2009 農薬年度での農薬原体としての国内生産量:1080 t) <sup>3)</sup>,開墾地、公園、駐車場、道路、宅地等で使用されている <sup>4)</sup>、毒性としては、赤血球細胞への酸化ダメージが知られており <sup>1)</sup>、水道水質基準項目に指定されている (基準値:600 μg/L) <sup>5)</sup>

過塩素酸イオンは、塩素酸イオンと同様、水溶性で水中では安定な物質である。過塩素酸塩や過塩素酸として製造、使用され、用途としては、ロケットやミサイルの推進剤、火薬、マッチ、花火、エアバッグ等が知られている <sup>6,8)</sup>. 塩素酸イオン同様に、次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液中にも不純物として含まれている <sup>8,9)</sup>. 過塩素酸イオンは、甲状腺におけるヨウ素の取り込みを抑制する作

用があることが知られ  $^{10}$ , 米国環境保護庁では、暫定健康勧告値(Health advisory level、HAL)として  $15 \,\mu \text{g/L}$  を公表している  $^{11}$ . カリフォルニア州、マサチューセッツ州では、それぞれ州の基準値として 6,  $2 \,\mu \text{g/L}$  を定めている  $^{12 \,\! \text{L}3 \,\! \text{L}3}$ . 日本では、水道の要検討項目に指定されている(目標値: $25 \,\mu \text{g/L}$ ) $^{5}$ .

1990 年代以降、米国では、環境水や水道水中の過塩素酸イオンの調査が広く実施されてきた 899,149. 近年では、米国以外の国々でも調査が進められ、その存在が報告されている 9. 国内では、利根川流域上流にある発生源の影響で、同流域中に広く分布していることが知られている 159,169. また、過塩素酸イオンは、花火の使用によって湖沼中の濃度が一時的に増加したことも報告されている 179. 過塩素酸イオンは、自然起源でも存在し、大気からの降下物中の調査も行われている 9.

地下水中の過塩素酸イオンについても、飲用井戸や汚染地域の周辺、都市部や地方部を含む全米調査(ただし、塩素消毒の影響を受けていない地下水)等、様々な調査が行われている 9,18,19. ところで、国内の都市部では、地下水は水道の原水としての割合は低いが 20, 専用水道

として利用されている場合がある。また,災害時における生活用水の確保の観点から,防災井戸(災害時協力井戸等)の設置等,その有効活用が進められている  $^{21}$ . 東京では,災害時には多数の帰宅困難者も想定され,断水が発生した場合,地下水は生活用水として期待されている  $^{22}$ . このとき,平常時の水質情報をもとに,利用者の適切な判断において,飲料用としても活用される状況もありうると考えられる  $^{22}$ .

都市部での水収支の調査によると、都市部は不浸透面が多く、地下水涵養に対する雨水浸透量が小さいため、東京や大阪では、水道からの漏水の寄与が無視できないことが報告されている<sup>23)</sup>. 東京都 23 区の場合、2004 年において、雨水浸透による地下水涵養量が 123 mm/年、水道からの漏水による涵養量が 91 mm/年と推定されている<sup>23)</sup>. また、東京都 23 区の場合、下水管からの漏れ等を通じた下水による涵養量が 19~38 mm/年と医薬品のカルバマゼピンを下水マーカーに使うことで推定されている<sup>24)</sup>.

過塩素酸イオンは、2009年4月に水道の要検討項目に指定され<sup>25</sup>,2011年4月に目標値(25 μg/L)が定められたが<sup>5</sup>,それ以前には、利根川中流域の水道水中からは25 μg/Lと同等以上の濃度での存在が報告されている<sup>15)26</sup>.しかし、同流域の地下水中の過塩素酸イオン濃度は、地下水を原水としている上流域の浄水場については報告されているが<sup>16</sup>,それ以外についての報告はほとんど行われていない。塩素酸イオンの場合、水道水質基準項目であるため、国内では原水、浄水中の測定は数多く行われており<sup>25</sup>,また、過塩素酸イオンと同様に環境水中の調査も行われている<sup>26</sup>.一方、外国では水道水や地下水等を対象に調査した事例はあるものの<sup>18)27)28</sup>,過塩素酸イオンに比較して調査は限定的である.

本研究では、東京の地下水を対象に、塩素酸イオン、 過塩素酸イオンの実態調査を行った。このとき、過去に 行われた国内の他の地下水、河川水、水道水中の塩素酸 イオン濃度、過塩素酸イオン濃度と比較するとともに、 同じ地下水を対象に行われた医薬品類等の他の項目の調 査結果を参考に、塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンの起源 について推測を行った。

#### 2. 調查方法

#### (1) 試料の採取

2007年 10~12 月および 2009年 10 月, 東京都 23 区中 19 区を対象に, それぞれ 50 および 2 地点の地下水を採取した. 52 地点の内訳は不圧地下水 31 地点, 被圧地下水 18 地点, 湧水 3 地点であった (図-1). 図中, 各調

査地点の記号は、同一地下水中の他の項目の結果と比較できるように、統一してある <sup>24,29,30</sup>. 試料は、採取後、速やかにガラス繊維ろ紙(GF/F,Whatman)によりろ過した後に、冷暗所に保管した. 試料の測定は 2010 年 2月に行った. 水試料中の過塩素酸イオンの安定性について検討した研究では、ろ過後、冷暗保存状態の場合、2地下水中の過塩素酸イオンはいずれも調査期間中(330、370日)変化しなかったことが報告されている <sup>31)</sup>. 塩素酸イオンの場合、水試料中の安定性についての報告はないが、本調査のように、長期保存した地下水中の塩素酸イオン濃度を測定し、報告が行われている <sup>18)</sup>.

地下水を採取した井戸は、防災井戸等の公共井や私有井で<sup>24)30</sup>、その用途は、井戸によって異なり、生活雑用水用、浴場用、飲料用、災害用等多岐にわたっている。所有者等からの聞き取り情報、およびポンプ形式・仕様、帯水層の状況等による井戸の深さは、不圧地下水では10~30 m、被圧地下水では20~500 mであった<sup>24)</sup>.

# (2) 測定方法

標準液や溶離液の作成は、水道水を Gradient A10 (Millipore) により精製した超純水を用いて行った. 試料中の塩素酸イオン濃度、過塩素酸イオン濃度の測定は、イオンクロマトグラフータンデム質量分析法 (IC-MS/MS法) により行った <sup>15)26)</sup>. 過塩素酸イオン濃度の測定では、 <sup>18</sup>O<sub>4</sub>- 過塩素酸イオン (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories) を内部標準物質として用いた. 電気伝導度が高かった場合等、一部の試料については、OnGuard II Ba/Ag/H カートリッジ(Dionex)を用いて、ハロゲン化物イオンと硫酸イオンの除去を行った後に測定を行った. IC は ICS-2000 (Dionex) を、ガードカラムは IonPac AG20 (2×50 mm, Dionex) を、分離カラムは IonPac AS20 (2×250 mm, Dionex) を、サプレッサーは ASRS ULTRA II (2 mm, Dionex) を使用した. 溶離液は水酸化

カリウムを用い、グラディエント条件は、水酸化カリウム濃度で 10~mM  $(0~\text{min}) \rightarrow 80~\text{mM}$  (22~min) とした、溶離液流量は、0.25~mL/min とした、ポストカラムにより、アセトニトリル/水 (9:1~v/v) 溶液を流量 0.2~mL/min で加えた、試料注入量は  $100~\text{\muL}$  とした、

MS/MSはAPI 3200QTrap(Applied Biosystems)を使用した. イオン化法は, エレクトロスプレーイオン化法(エガティブイオンモード)とした. Multiple Reaction Monitoring(MRM)は, 塩素酸イオンについては83/67を, 過塩素酸イオンについては99/83(定量用)と101/85(確認用)を,  $^{18}$ O<sub>4</sub>-過塩素酸イオンについては107/89を選択した. 定量下限値は, 塩素酸イオンでは0.05  $\mu$ g/L, 過塩素酸イオンでは0.01  $\mu$ g/Lであった.

## (3) 過去の調査結果の再解析

過去において、著者らが実施した塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオン濃度の調査結果<sup>15,16,26,25,325</sup>を再解析し、本調査の結果と比較した。再解析した調査結果は、地下水(市販の国内のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水)、表流水(利根川中流域の河川水および他流域の表流水)、浄水(利根川流域)についての結果である。

市販の国内のナチュラルウォーターの調査結果は, 2007年9~10月に購入した49試料のうち,外国製の3試料 と、聞き取り調査で塩素添加の影響を受けていることが わかった国内製の3試料を除いた結果である $(n=43)^{32}$ . 専用水道の原水の調査結果は、2006年10月に採取した20 施設の結果である (n=20) <sup>26)</sup>. 利根川中流域の河川水の 調査結果は、2006年3~4月に採取した荒川(武蔵水路合 流地点より下流)の4試料と江戸川の1試料、および2006 年4月に採取した3浄水場,2006年9月に採取した4浄水場, 2007年1月に採取した2浄水場の原水の結果である(n= 14) (2浄水場は3回, 1浄水場は2回調査) 15,16,26, 利根 川流域以外の表流水の調査結果は、2006年3~4月に採取 した4浄水場,2007年1月に採取した20浄水場の原水の結 果である (n=24) (1浄水場は2回調査. 同調査では淀 川下流域の浄水場も含まれていたが上流の下水処理場の 影響を受けているため除いた)20. 利根川中流域の浄水 は、2006年2~5月に採取した10給水栓水、および2006年 4月に採取した4浄水場,2006年9月に採取した4浄水場, 2007年1月に採取した2浄水場の浄水場出口水である (n= 20) (2浄水場は3回, 1浄水場は2回調査) 15,16,26). これ ら過去の調査での塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオン濃度の

測定方法は前項で述べた方法と同様である. 定量下限値は, 塩素酸イオンでは0.05 μg/L (一部の浄水場の結果は0.1 μg/L), 過塩素酸イオンでは0.05 μg/Lであった.

#### 3. 結果および考察

## (1) 東京の地下水中の塩素酸イオンと過塩素酸イオン

図-1に採取地点の分布と塩素酸イオン,過塩素酸イオン濃度の結果を示す.表-1に,調査結果のまとめを示す.塩素酸イオンの場合,49試料中24試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で,その範囲は<0.05~2000 μg/L,中央値は<0.05μg/Lであった.濃度分布を見ると,<1,1~10,10μg/L以上であった試料は,それぞれ31,9,9試料であった.水道水質基準と比較すると,3試料がその10%値以上で,そのうち1試料が基準値よりも高い値であった.過塩素酸イオンの場合,52試料中28試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で,その範囲は<0.01~42μg/L,中央値は0.03μg/Lであった.濃度分布を見ると,<0.1,0.1~1,1μg/L以上であった試料は,それぞれ28,11,13試料であった.

目標値と比較すると、5 試料がその 10%値以上であった. しかし、水道水中からは過塩素酸イオンは目標値と同等以上の濃度での存在が報告されていたが 15,250, 地下水の場合はそのような試料は認められなかった. なお、塩素酸イオンの試料数が少ないが、これは、一部の試料は少量であったため過塩素酸イオン濃度のみを測定したことによる.

これらの結果から、本研究で対象とした東京の地下水

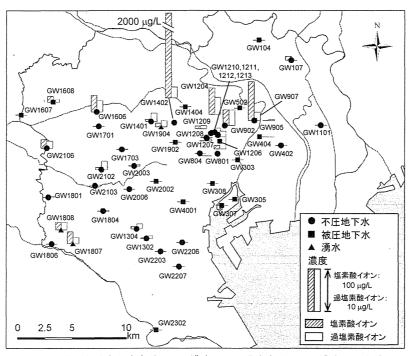


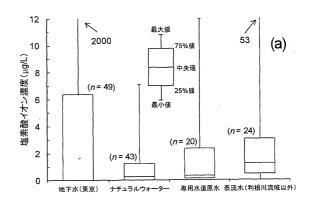
図-1 調査対象地点と塩素酸イオン濃度および過塩素酸イオン濃度の調査結果

表-1	東京の地下水中の塩素酸イオン濃度および
	過塩素酸イオン濃度

JE.	国温茶酸イイン 仮	<b> </b>	
試料	定量下限値	油店 (	中央値
	以上の割合*	濃度(μg/L)	(µg/L)
不圧地下水	17/30	<0.05~2000	0.71
被圧地下水	4/16	<0.05~14	< 0.05
湧水	3/3	9.3~28	17
合計**	24/49	<0.05~2000	< 0.05
		過塩素酸イオン	
試料	定量下限値	<b>進在 (// )</b>	中央値
	以上の割合*	濃度(μg/L)	(µg/L)
不圧地下水	20/31	<0.01~4.1	0.24
被圧地下水	5/18	<0.01~4.2	< 0.01
湧水	3/3	1.4~1.8	1.5
合計**	28/52	<0.01~4.2	0.03

<sup>\*</sup>定量下限値以上の試料数/測定試料数, \*\*試料数が異なるのは一部の試料でで過塩素酸イオン濃度のみを測定したため

の場合, その75%程度は, 塩素酸イオン, 過塩素酸イオ ンが定量下限値未満の濃度、あるいは存在していてもそ の濃度は低いが、残り25%程度は塩素酸イオンあるいは 過塩素酸イオンが比較的高い濃度で存在していることが 示された。また、様々な用途の地下水が調査対象ではあ ったが、水道水質基準や目標値と比較した場合、10%程 度の試料はそれらの10%値以上であり、塩素酸イオンに ついては、基準値を超える地下水もあることがわかった. 地下水を不圧地下水、被圧地下水、湧水に分類した場 合、塩素酸イオンは、それぞれ 30 試料中 17 試料, 16 試 料中 4 試料, 3 試料中 3 試料で定量下限値以上の濃度で あった. 過塩素酸イオンは、それぞれ 31 試料中 20 試料、 18 試料中 5 試料, 3 試料中 3 試料で定量下限値以上の濃 度であった.全ての分類の地下水からも塩素酸イオン, 過塩素酸イオンは定量下限値以上の濃度の試料があった が,不圧地下水,湧水からの割合が高い傾向にあった. 本研究の調査結果を、国内の過去の調査での地下水(市 販のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水)中の塩素 酸イオン濃度、過塩素酸イオン濃度の結果と比較する (図-2) 26,32, 市販のナチュラルウォーターの場合,塩 素酸イオン, 過塩素酸イオンは 43 試料中それぞれ 28, 24 試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で、その範囲は<0.05~ 7.1、<0.05~0.57 μg/L であった <sup>32)</sup>. 専用水道の原水中の 塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンは 20 試料中それぞれ 17, 15 試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で、その範囲は<0.05~ 12, <0.05~1.2 μg/L であった<sup>20</sup>. したがって,これら過 去の調査の地下水において、塩素酸イオン濃度、過塩素 酸イオン濃度が、それぞれ 10、1 µg/L以上と比較的濃度 が高かった試料は、専用水道の1試料のみであり、本研 究の調査対象の地下水と比べると低い濃度範囲であった. また, 利根川流域以外の表流水では(n=24), 塩素



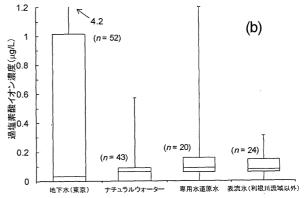


図-2 東京の地下水, 市販のナチュラルウォーター, 専用水道の原水, 利根川流域以外の表流水中の (a) 塩素酸イオン濃度および (b) 過塩素酸イオン濃度 (定量下限値未満は0と表記) 26,327

酸イオン濃度が 10 μg/L 以上であった試料は 1 試料で、 過塩素酸イオン濃度が 1 μg/L 以上であった試料はなかった(図-2)<sup>20</sup>. すなわち、本研究の対象試料は、利根川 流域以外の表流水と比較しても、比較的高い濃度の試料 の割合は高かった.

一方、東京の地下水、市販のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水において、定量下限値以上の濃度であった試料の割合は、過塩素酸イオンでは、それぞれ 49%、65%、85%、過塩素酸イオンでは、それぞれ 48%、55%、75%であり、両イオンとも東京の地下水が最も低い値であった(過塩素酸イオンでは、定量下限値を過去の調査での値に合わせて評価).また、中央値については、本調査と過去の調査の地下水との間で大きな違いは認められなかった(図-2).

図-3 に、塩素酸イオン濃度が 10 μg/L 未満、過塩素酸イオン濃度が 1 μg/L 未満であった試料について、塩素酸イオン濃度と過塩素酸イオン濃度の関係を示す。東京の地下水、市販のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水、利根川流域以外の表流水のいずれも両イオンに関連性は認められなかった。しかし、東京の地下水、市販のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水については、塩素酸

イオン濃度より過塩素酸イオン濃度の方が高い場合が認められた(図中の y=x の上側). これら過塩素酸イオン濃度の方が高い試料の場合,塩素酸イオン濃度,過塩素酸イオン濃度はそれぞれ $<0.05\sim0.16$ ,  $0.03\sim0.17$   $\mu g/L$  であり,両イオン(特に塩素酸イオン)濃度は低い範囲であった.

利根川流域以外の表流水の場合、両イオンともに定量 下限値未満の場合はあったものの、塩素酸イオンの方が 常に濃度が高かった. 北極圏の雪中の塩素酸イオン濃度 と過塩素酸イオン濃度の調査の場合、各地点での両イオ ンの平均濃度の比は 1.0~15.6 の範囲であった 33). また, 南西テキサスのビッグ・ベンド国立公園、東プエルトリ コのエルヴェルデの湿性沈着物中の塩素酸イオンと過塩 素酸イオンの濃度比はそれぞれ 0.12 ± 0.02, 2.00 ± 0.40 で あった<sup>19</sup>. したがって、自然起源の場合、地域によって 塩素酸イオン濃度の方が高い場合と低い場合があると考 えられるが、図-3の結果も考慮すると、国内では、塩 素酸イオン濃度の方が高い場合が多いと推測された、と ころで、塩素酸イオンと過塩素酸イオンの生物分解は溶 存酸素濃度が低い状態で進むこと34,塩素酸イオンの方 が速やかであることが報告されている<sup>35</sup>. このとき,過 塩素酸イオンや塩素酸イオンは、過塩素酸イオン→塩素 酸イオン→亜塩素酸イオン→塩化物イオン(および酸 素) へと還元されていく 34,35). また、電子供与体である 有機物がある環境で、より進むことが報告されている34. 本研究の調査対象試料のうち溶存酸素濃度が 1.0 mg/L未 満であった試料は18試料で、これら試料中の溶存有機

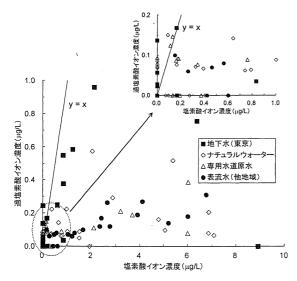


図-3 東京の地下水,市販のナチュラルウォーター,専用水道 の原水,利根川流域以外の表流水中の塩素酸イオン濃度 と過塩素酸イオン濃度の関係(定量下限値未満は0と表 記)<sup>20)32)</sup>

物濃度は, 1.3~13 mg CL と地下水としては高い範囲に あった 24). この 18 試料中, 両イオンとも定量下限値未 満であったのは 12 試料, それ以上の濃度であった場合 でも, 塩素酸イオン濃度が 10 µg/L 以上, 過塩素酸イオ ン濃度が1 μg/L以上であった試料はなかった. また, 過 塩素酸イオン濃度の方が塩素酸イオン濃度より高かった 試料も3試料あった.加えて、両イオンとも定量下限値 未満であった 12 試料中 6 試料からは医薬品類が存在し ていた24: 下水の影響を受けて医薬品類が存在したとす れば、これら6試料は、利根川流域の河川水や次亜塩素 酸ナトリウム溶液の影響で、塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イ オンの存在が考えられる試料である 10,200. これらの結果 から、本研究で対象とした東京の地下水の場合、少なく とも、溶存酸素濃度が低い試料については、塩素酸イオ ン、過塩素酸イオンの生物分解が進んでいることが示唆 された. ただし、溶存酸素濃度が 1.0 mg/L以上の試料で も、両イオン濃度が定量下限値未満であった場合もあり、 また、硝酸イオン濃度も塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオン の生物分解の速度に関連しているという報告 34,39もある ため、これらの点については検討が必要であると考えら れた.

これらの結果から判断すると、東京の地下水、市販のナチュラルウォーター、専用水道の原水において、塩素酸イオン濃度より過塩素酸イオン濃度の方が高い場合があった原因は、両イオンの生物分解とその速度の違いが関与していると推測された。特に、東京の地下水については、全体的に溶存有機物濃度が比較的高く、また35%程度は溶存酸素濃度が低い状態にあり<sup>24</sup>、生物分解が進みやすい環境であった試料が比較的多かったと考えられた。

### (2) 塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンの起源の推測

過去の調査において、人為的な汚染がないと考えられる地点での結果から、何らかの人為的な原因が推測される濃度のオーダーは、経験的にではあるが、塩素酸イオンで10 μg/L以上、過塩素酸イオンが1 μg/L以上と見積もられた<sup>24</sup>. 本研究で調査した地下水の場合、該当する試料は、塩素酸イオンのみでは1試料、過塩素酸イオンのみでは5試料、両方では8試料で合計14試料であった。また、塩素酸イオンの水道水質基準値、あるいは過塩素酸イオンの水道での目標値の10%以上であったのは、6試料であった。14試料の中で、被圧地下水は2試料(GW1206、1208)、残りは不圧地下水(GW902、907、1204、1304、1401、1402、1606、2102、2106)、湧水(GW1807、1808、1904)であった。また、これら14試料中の溶存酸素濃度は全て1.0 mg/L以上であった。本節では、これら比較的濃度が高かった試料を対象に、その

起源について推測する.

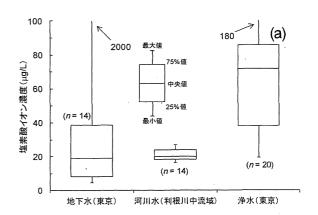
図4 に、塩素酸イオン濃度、過塩素酸イオン濃度が 比較的高かった東京の 14 地下水、利根川中流域の河川 水、東京の浄水中の塩素酸イオン濃度、過塩素酸イオン 濃度を示す <sup>1626</sup>.

河川水と浄水の結果を比較すると、塩素酸イオン濃度は浄水中の方が高かったが、過塩素酸イオン濃度は、浄水中ではばらつきはあるものの同程度であった。この理由は、塩素酸イオンの場合、多くの浄水場で、その主な起源である次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液(あるいは生成次亜)を消毒剤として用いていたためと考えられた<sup>20</sup>.ただし、一部の浄水場では、消毒剤として液化塩素を用いており、この場合、浄水中の塩素酸イオン濃度は増加しなかったことが報告されている<sup>20</sup>.また、過塩素酸イオン濃度が、河川水中よりも低い場合があった。過塩素酸イオンは浄水処理では除去困難な物質であることから<sup>10</sup>、この理由は、利根川上流域の発生源の影響を受けていない水を原水としている浄水場の影響によるものと考えられた。

荒川、その派川の隅田川、あるいは江戸川沿いに幾つか調査地点があるが、GW907以外は、塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンともに濃度は低かった。したがって、利根川上流域の発生源近くの下流の川沿いの地下水の場合と異なり「626」、明らかな汚染は認められなかった。GW907の場合、塩素酸イオン濃度(92 μg/L)は、河川水中の濃度よりも高かった。また、塩素酸イオン濃度と過塩素酸イオン濃度比をとると、その値(46)は、河川水の場合よりも1桁程度大きい値であった(図-5)。このことから、GW907での塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンへの河川水の浸透による影響は小さいと考えられた。なお、図-5 における東京の地下水の結果は、塩素酸イオン濃度が非常に高かった GW1402を除いている。

14 地下水のうち不圧地下水は 9 試料であったが、塩素酸イオン濃度(2000  $\mu$ g/L)が水道水中の濃度よりも高かった GW1402 以外は、両イオンの濃度は浄水と同程度あるいはそれより低い濃度(4.9~92  $\mu$ g/L)であった.

塩素酸イオンと過塩素酸イオンの濃度比(2.5~46)も浄水と同程度であった.このうち,GW902,907,1401,1606,2102,2106の6試料からは、ジエチルトルアミド,クロタミトン、エテンザミド,カルバマゼピンの4種の医薬品類のうち、1種類以上の存在が確認された<sup>24)</sup>、東京の不圧地下水中の医薬品類は、下水による影響を受けていると推測されている<sup>24,37)</sup>、したがって,GW1402を除くこれら8試料中の塩素酸イオン,過塩素酸イオンは、水道水や下水の影響を受けていると推測された.また,湧水3試料についても、塩素酸イオン濃度,塩素酸イオンと過塩素酸イオンの濃度比、医薬品類や大



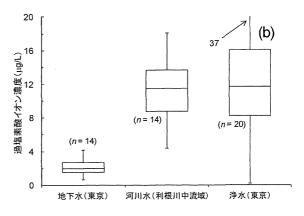


図4 東京の地下水、利根川中流域の河川水、東京の浄水中の (a) 塩素酸イオン濃度および(b) 過塩素酸イオン濃度 (東京の地下水については、塩素酸イオンまたは過塩素 酸イオン濃度が比較的高かった14試料を対象) 1626)

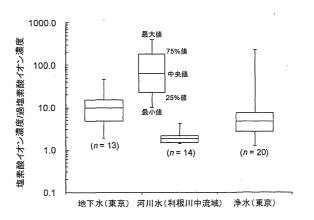


図-5 東京の地下水、利根川中流域の河川水、東京の浄水中の 塩素酸イオン濃度と過塩素酸イオン濃度の比(東京の地 下水については、塩素酸イオンまたは過塩素酸イオン濃 度が比較的高かった 14 試料のうち GW1402 以外の 13 試 料を対象) <sup>16)26)</sup>

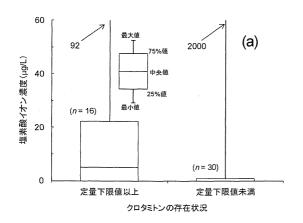
腸菌の存在状況から判断すると<sup>24</sup>,同様に、下水による 影響を受けていると推測された.

GW1402 は、墓地に隣接した民家の生活用井戸水で、

深さ  $20\sim30$  m の不圧地下水である. 上述したように、塩素酸イオンは 2000  $\mu g/L$  と非常に高濃度で、過塩素酸イオンも 2.6  $\mu g/L$  と比較的高濃度であった. また、GW1206 と 1608 は、被圧地下水であるが、塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンは比較的高濃度であった. これら地点について、医薬品類  $^{24}$ や有機フッ素化合物類濃度  $^{20}$ も測定していたが、本研究では、それらの情報からは、塩素酸イオンや過塩素酸イオン濃度が高かった理由については明らかにはできなかった.

これまで、塩素酸イオン、過塩素酸イオンの起源について、地下水中の医薬品類の存在状況を比較に用いてきた。医薬品類のうち、地下水の下水汚染状況を示すマーカーとして利用されている鎮痒薬のクロタミトン<sup>24</sup>について、両イオンとの関連性について評価した。

図-6 に、本研究の調査対象試料のうち、クロタミトンを測定した試料について、クロタミトンが定量下限値以上の濃度で存在していた場合としていなかった場合の塩素酸イオン濃度を示す<sup>24)</sup>. ノンパラメトリックな検定である、マン・ホイットニーのU



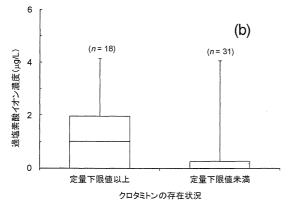


図-6 東京の地下水でクロタミトンが定量下限値以上の濃度で存在していた場合としていなかった場合の(a) 塩素酸イオン濃度および(b) 過塩素酸イオン濃度(定量下限値未満は0と表記)<sup>24)</sup>

検定を用いると、両イオン濃度ともに、クロタミトンが 定量下限値以上の濃度で存在した場合としなかった場合 で有意差が認められた (P<0.05). すなわち、下水の影響を受けていると考えられる地下水中の塩素酸イオン濃度, 過塩素酸イオン濃度は、そうでない場合よりも高い 傾向にあることが示された.

#### 4. まとめ

- (1) 本研究で対象とした東京の地下水中の塩素酸イオンは、49試料中24試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で、その範囲は<0.05~2000 μg/L、過塩素酸イオンは、52試料中28試料が定量下限値以上の濃度で、その範囲は<0.01~42μg/Lであった。調査対象試料のうち、25%程度は塩素酸イオンあるいは過塩素酸イオンが比較的高い濃度で存在していた。
- (2) 東京の地下水中の塩素酸イオン濃度,過塩素酸イオン濃度を,国内の他の地下水(市販のナチュラルウォーター,専用水道の原水)と比較したところ,東京の地下水中の方が比較的高い濃度の試料が多かったが,定量下限値以上の濃度の試料の割合は最も低く,中央値は同程度であった.
- (3) 塩素酸イオン濃度, 過塩素酸イオン濃度が比較的高かった試料について, その起源を推定したところ, 不圧地下水や湧水の場合, 塩素酸イオン濃度が2000 μg/LであったGW1402以外では, 水道水や下水による影響を受けている可能性があると考えられた.

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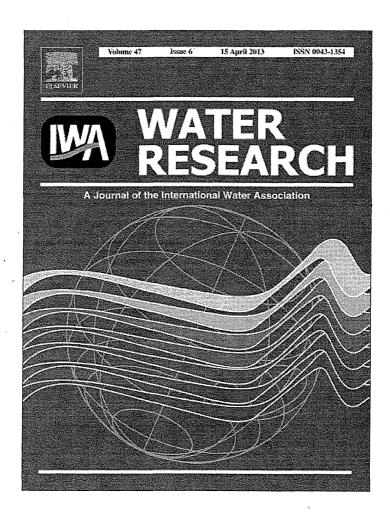
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# OCCURRENCE OF CHLORATE AND PERCHLORATE IN GROUNDWATER IN TOKYO

Koji KOSAKA, Keisuke KURODA, Michio MURAKAMI, Nobue YOSHIDA, Mari Asami, Kumiko OGUMA, Satoshi TAKIZAWA and Michihiro AKIBA

Occurrence of chlorate and perchlorate in groundwater in Tokyo was investigated. The samples were collected in 2007 and 2009. Chlorate and perchlorate were detected at the concentrations larger than their determination limits in 24 of 49 and 28 of 52 samples, respectively. Their detection rates in unconfined aquifers and springs were higher than those in confined aquifers. The concentrations of chlorate and perchlorate in about 25% of samples were relatively high, particularly chlorate concentration in one sample (2000 µg/L) exceeded its standard value in drinking water. Compared to other groundwater in Japan (i.e., commercially available natural water and raw water in private water supply), the percentages of the samples with relatively high concentrations of chlorate and perchlorate were higher in groundwater in Tokyo. On the other hand, the percentages of the samples in which chlorate and perchlorate concentrations were larger than determination limits were the lowest. The medians of chlorate and perchlorate in the in groundwater in Tokyo were similar to those in other groundwater in Japan. It was suggested that origins of chlorate and perchlorate in groundwater were drinking water and/or sewage in many cases when their concentrations in groundwater were relatively high.

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# Minimizing residual aluminum concentration in treated water by tailoring properties of polyaluminum coagulants

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#### ABSTRACT

Aluminum coagulants are widely used in water treatment plants to remove turbidity and dissolved substances. However, because high aluminum concentrations in treated water are associated with increased turbidity and because aluminum exerts undeniable human health effects, its concentration should be controlled in water treatment plants, especially in plants that use aluminum coagulants. In this study, the effect of polyaluminum chloride (PACI) coagulant characteristics on dissolved residual aluminum concentrations after coagulation and filtration was investigated. The dissolved residual aluminum concentrations at a given coagulation pH differed among the PACls tested. Very-high-basicity PACl yielded low dissolved residual aluminum concentrations and higher natural organic matter (NOM) removal. The low residual aluminum concentrations were related to the low content of monomeric aluminum (Ala) in the PACl. Polymeric (Alb)/colloidal (Alc) ratio in PACl did not greatly influence residual aluminum concentration. The presence of sulfate in PACl contributed to lower residual aluminum concentration only when coagulation was performed at around pH 6.5 or lower. At a wide pH range (6.5-8.5), residual aluminum concentrations <0.02 mg/L were attained by tailoring PACl properties (Ala percentage  $\leq$ 0.5%, basicity ≥85%). The dissolved residual aluminum concentrations did not increase with increasing the dosage of high-basicity PACl, but did increase with increasing the dosage of normal-basicity PACl. We inferred that increasing the basicity of PACl afforded lower dissolved residual aluminum concentrations partly because the high-basicity PACls could have a small percentage of Ala, which tends to form soluble aluminum-NOM complexes with molecular weights of 100 kDa-0.45 μm.

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#### 1. Introduction

Alum and polyaluminum chloride (PACl) coagulants are widely used at water treatment plants to remove turbidity and dissolved substances from water. However, concerns have been raised that the use of such coagulants may increase aluminum concentrations in treated water (Miller et al., 1984;

Ohno et al., 2009). High aluminum concentrations in treated water are associated with several problems, including increased turbidity due to the formation of aluminum precipitates. Also of concern are human health hazards (Flaten, 2001; World Health Organization, 2004; Gupta et al., 2005).

The concentration of residual aluminum remaining in water treated with aluminum coagulants is influenced by

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many factors. Among these, control of solution pH is key to minimizing the aluminum concentration (Licsko and Szakal, 1988; Van Benschoten and Edzwald, 1990; Van Benschoten et al., 1994; Driscoll and Letterman, 1995). The use of aluminum coagulants at around pH 6.5 is one approach for minimizing residual aluminum concentrations. Although residual aluminum concentrations can be controlled by adjusting pH to slightly acidic values, this strategy is not widely practiced, because it requires a pH increase post-treatment to control corrosion in water distribution networks. In addition, small water treatment facilities still experience difficulties in attaining this pH optimization, because the small size of the plant provides little buffering for fluctuation in operation. Moreover, such small facilities often have limited resources and limited access to the expertise needed to control acid/ base addition and to optimize pH conditions. In Japan, the drinking water quality guideline for aluminum is 0.1 mg/L, but water treatment plants usually set stricter values for finished water, e.g., <0.05 mg/L. However, meeting such values is often difficult, particularly when the pH of raw water is high due to algae growth. Under such alkaline conditions, high concentrations of residual aluminum often remain following water treatment. Therefore, the development of coagulants that can easily decrease residual aluminum concentrations to <0.05 mg/L, even for treated water in which coagulation pH is not optimized, is highly desired.

Residual aluminum concentrations after water treatment can also vary with coagulants (alum and PACls). For example, Jekel (1991) conducted jar tests with alum and four commercial prehydrolyzed aluminum salts and reported that, at pH values of >7.5, the use of two of the four prehydrolyzed products resulted in lower residual aluminum concentrations than did the use of alum. Simpson et al. (1988) suggested the use of PACl instead of alum as an approach for reducing residual aluminum concentrations. Yan et al. (2008a) reported that the dissolved residual aluminum concentrations for highbasicity (basicity = OH/Al = 2.0 or OH/(Al  $\times$  3)  $\times$  100 = 67%) PACl at acidic and basic pH (<5.5 and >7.5) were lower than that for medium-basicity PACl and AlCl<sub>3</sub>. However, at neutral pH (7.0), dissolved residual aluminum concentrations were the same for AlCl<sub>3</sub> and the PACls. These investigators attributed the lower aluminum concentrations to the low content of monomeric aluminum species in the high-basicity PACl (Yan et al., 2007). However, a low residual aluminum concentration (<0.1 mg/L) was not attained at any pH for any coagulants with basicities 0-2.5. In practice, controlling residual aluminum concentration to <0.1 mg/L is difficult, in particular when PACls are used at pH > 7.5 (Matsukawa et al., 2006). Very recently, Yang et al. (2011) reported that residual aluminum concentrations varied in the following order: PACl of basicity  $1.5 > 2.3 \ge 2.0$ . However, the comparison, which was made on different coagulation pH values because pH after dosing coagulants depressed differently depending on coagulant basicity, might be imprecise. Overall the previous results suggest that the residual aluminum concentration could be controllable by adjusting PACl properties, but the specific PACl properties for lowering residual aluminum concentrations <0.05 mg/L have yet to be investigated. It should also be noted that most of the previous studies used non-sulfated PACls, although sulfated PACls are widely applied in practice because

sulfate enhances the flocculation performance of PACls. However, inclusion of sulfate ions in high-basicity PACls with high aluminum content limits the PACls' long-term chemical stability, so the basicity of practically applied PACls with Al content >5% (w/w) is typically limited to 2.0 to allow storage of the compounds for >6 months.

In this study, we evaluated the efficacy of PACls, including those with an extremely high basicity of 2.7, in terms of residual aluminum concentration at neutral and alkaline pH.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Coagulants

Five aluminum-based coagulants were evaluated in the first set of experiments (Table 1S, Supplementary Information). Commercially available PACls with standard basicities of 1.8 and 1.5 (designated PACl-61s and PACl-51s, respectively. The numbers, "51" and "61", in the names indicate percent basicity values. "s" indicates "sulfated".) were provided by Taki Chemical Co. (Kakogawa, Japan). PACl-71s is a trial coagulant product (presently commercially available) provided by the same company. These PACls were produced by dissolving Al(OH)3 solids in hydrochloric and sulfuric acid (as described by, e.g., Itoh and Sato, 1995; Sato and Matsuda, 2009). Alum was provided as a solution (Taki Chemical Co.). The PACIs and alum were used in jar tests immediately after dilution with Milli-Q water. AlCl<sub>3</sub> solution was prepared by dissolving reagent-grade AlCl<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) in Milli-Q water (Milli-Q Advantage, Nihon Millipore, Tokyo, Japan); this solution was considered as a reference PACl with a basicity of zero (Yan et al., 2008a).

After the experiments using the five coagulants described above were completed, we conducted the second set of experiments by using 12 additional coagulants. Four PACls out of 12 were prepared by a base titration method in the authors' laboratory (Shen and Dempsey, 1998; Yan et al., 2008b). PACl-72b and PACl-90by ("b" in the name indicates high Alb percentage relative to other PACIs of the same basicity. "x", "y", and "z", some of which appear later, have no special meaning.) was prepared with the following procedure. NaOH (0.3 M) was titrated to a 500-mL Erlenmeyer flask containing an 80 mL of AlCl<sub>3</sub> solution (0.5 M) by a peristaltic pump at rate of 4 mL/ min to bring the target basicity. During the titration the solution in the flask was agitated and the temperature was kept at 85–90 °C by a combined hot-plate magnetic-stirrer device. PACl-90bx was prepared from 0.6 M NaOH and 1.0 M  $AlCl_3$ solutions by the same method. For PACl-72c ("c" in the name indicates high Alc percentage), after titrating 0.9 M NaOH into 1.5 M AlCl<sub>3</sub> solution, the solution was kept at 85-90 °C for 12 h. PACl-50, PACl-61, and PACl-70 were trial coagulant products (Taki Chemical Co.) produced from NaOH and AlCl<sub>3</sub>. PACl-85x, y, and z and PACl-90x and y were also trial coagulant products that produced from commercial aluminum chlorohydrate solution (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> 23%, sulfate ion 0%, relative density of 1.3, Taki Chemical Co.) and soda ash.

The distributions of aluminum species in the coagulants were analyzed by the ferron method. On the basis of their reaction rates with ferron reagent (8-hydroxy-7-iodo-5quinoline sulfonic acid, Wako Pure Chemical Industries), the aluminum species were divided into three categories: Ala, Alb, and Alc. Ala denotes aluminum species that reacted with ferron instantaneously (within 30 s). Alb denotes species that reacted within 120 min. Alc denotes species that did not react. These species were assumed to be monomeric, polymeric, and colloidal aluminum species, respectively (Wang et al., 2004). Ferron analyses of the coagulants were conducted immediately (1-2 min) after diluting coagulants with Milli-Q water to 2.7 g-Al/L (Wang et al., 2004; Jia et al., 2004). Dilution reportedly has little effect on the ferron speciation distribution of PACl (Wang et al., 2004), and we also observed a negligible effect of dilution on ferron speciation distribution in the present study (data not shown). After adding the ferron reagent into diluted coagulant, the mixture was immediately shaken, and then the absorbance at 366 nm in an 1-cm or 5-cm cell was measured by using at the predetermined times.

Using membranes with various molecular weight cutoffs (MWCOs), we also investigated the MW distributions of aluminum species in the coagulants. Coagulants containing 2.7 g-Al/L (the same concentration as that used for the ferron method) were filtered through ultrafiltration (UF) membranes with nominal MWCOs of 500 Da (cellulose acetate membrane, Amicon YC, Nihon Millipore) and 3 kDa (regenerated cellulose membrane, Ultracell PL, Nihon Millipore) in a 50-mL stirred cell (Amicon 8050 series, Nihon Millipore) under 0.5 MPa pressure immediately after preparation of the solution. Filtration was performed until 2 mL was collected from a 50-mL sample. Aluminum concentrations were analyzed with an inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICPMS, HP-4500 and HP-7700, Agilent Technologies, Inc.).

#### 2.2. Jar tests

Jar tests were performed with a jar test apparatus at room temperature ( $\sim$ 20 °C) unless otherwise noted. Raw water (Table 1) was transferred to a 1-L square plastic beaker. After a predetermined volume of HCl (0.1 N) or NaOH (0.1 N) was added to bring the final coagulation pH to a target value, a coagulant was injected into the raw water sample. The mixture was stirred rapidly for 1 min ( $G=200~\text{s}^{-1}$ , 136 rpm) and then slowly for 10 min ( $G=20~\text{s}^{-1}$ , 30 rpm). The mixture was then left to rest for 1 h so that the aluminum floc particles generated would settle. Then samples were taken from the beaker and filtered through a 0.45- $\mu$ m polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) membrane filter (DISMIC-25HP; Toyo Roshi Kaisha, Ltd.,

Tokyo) unless otherwise noted for quantification of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC; Sievers 900 TOC Analyzer, GE Analytical Instruments, Boulder, Colorado, USA) and aluminum. The coagulation pH and turbidity were measured after settling. Decreases in turbidity were high in most of the experiments because the coagulant dosages were sufficient for formation of floc particles. Therefore, coagulant performance was evaluated mainly in terms of DOC removal. For the first set of experiments, we investigated the size distribution of the residual aluminum particles by using membranes with nominal MWCOs of 100 k, 3 k, and 500 Da, as well as 0.45-μm pore size. Jar tests were performed at a constant dosage with varying pH. The data at a fixed pH value were obtained by interpolation because final coagulation pH hardly coincided with the target value, e.g., the interpolation of the results for two pH ranges (pH 7.2-7.4 and 7.6-7.8) surrounding the target pH value of 7.5.

#### Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Coagulant properties

The percentages of aluminum species in the coagulants, as determined by means of the ferron method, are shown in Fig. 1A and C. Aluminum species distributions were very different depending on basicity and production methods. Among the PACls, Alc percentage generally increased with increasing basicity. The inclusion of sulfate in the PACls did not largely influence aluminum species distribution (compare PACl-50 and -51s, PACl-61 and -61s and PACl-70 and -72s in Fig. 1C). The aluminum speciations of PACl-51s (basicity 1.5) was similar to the speciation observed for another Japanese commercial PACl (basicity 1.4) analyzed by Lin et al. (2008). Most of the PACls, except some laboratory-prepared PACls (PACl-72b, -90bx, and -90by), contained small amounts of Alb, which is typically observed for commercial PACl products (Wang and Hsu, 1994; Chen et al., 2006).

MW distributions of aluminum species were determined for PACl-71s, -61s, and -51s, and for AlCl $_3$  and alum. PACl-71s had the highest percentage of aluminum in the high-MW fraction (>3 kDa), followed by -61s, -51s, alum, and AlCl $_3$ , in that order (Fig. 1B). The results from the ferron method and the MW distribution analysis strongly agree in indicating that, of the tested coagulants, PACl-71s contained the smallest amount of monomeric aluminum (low MW) and the largest amount of colloidal aluminum (high MW).

Designation	рН	Turbidity (NTU)	Alkalinity (mg/L as CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	DOC (mg/L)	UV <sub>260</sub> (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Source	Sampling date
Toyohira River A	7.7	1.4	40	1.0	0.033	Toyohira River, Hokkaido, Japan	26 September 2008
Toyohira River B	7.5	0.96	21	1.0	0.031	Toyohira River, Hokkaido, Japan	8 July 2009
Toyohira River C	7.4	9.0	17	1.0	0.031	Toyohira River, Hokkaido, Japan	24 June 2011
Chibaberi River A	7.7	4.9	105	4.0	0.25	Chibaberi River, Hokkaido, Japan	13 August 2008
Chibaberi River B	7.4	2.4	31	2.1	0.10	Chibaberi River, Hokkaido, Japan	13 November 2009
Wani River	7.6	5.4	80	3.2	0.065	Wani River, Ibaraki, Japan	26 December 2011