International Journal of Innovative Research in Engineering and Management (IJIREM)
ISSN: 2350-0557, Volume-9, Special Issue-6, June-2022
Innovative Projects 2022
Organized by Presidency University, Bangalore, India

Deposition, Storage and Bio Concentration

Dr. Muralidhar Sunil
Assistant Professor,
Master In Business Administration (General Management), Presidency University, Bangalore, India
Email Id:sunilrashinkar@presidencyuniversity.in

For many years, it was assumed that chemicals dumped into receiving waterways would simply be diluted enough to be disregarded. It has been painfully evident in recent years that dilution is no longer adequate. The second chapter discussed how chemicals travel through the body in predictable patterns, which is a cornerstone of toxicology; the same is true for chemicals in ecosystems, including hydrologic cycles. The destiny of a chemical in receiving waters is determined by both its physical and chemical properties. The extent to which a chemical may partition into sediments or biota is determined in part by its partition coefficient, which is a measure of its relative affinity for an organic solvent octanol and water. This, in turn, is influenced by solubility and hydrophobicity measurements [1], [2].

Bioavailability

An organism is unlikely to take up an insoluble metal salt such as cadmium, lead, or copper sulphide, or an organic pollutant that is firmly adsorbed to sediment particles. Some substances, on the other hand, are physically and chemically accessible for absorption and are referred to be bioavailable. This notion requires careful clarification. While pollutants in undisturbed sediments may not represent an immediate concern to human health, their chemical properties may predispose them to accumulate in biological tissues. Nonpolar hydrophobic, or water-fearing organic or organometallic compounds are more common than polar ones hydrophilic, or water-loving. They are somewhat insoluble in water, but since they are easily soluble in lipids, they may accumulate along the food chain if swallowed, for example, by benthic invertebrates that dig in the sediments. Good textbooks on the intricacies of chemical partitioning in sediments, water, and biota are available, for example, Schwarzenbach, Gschwend, and Imboden, 1993; Morel and Hering, 1993.

Environmental Reservoirs

As a result, many habitats are potential contamination reservoirs. Several of the synthetic organic chemicals listed i are examples of persistent organic pollutants POPs, which are organic molecules that breakdown slowly in the environment. Due of their poor solubility, they tend to partition to sediments, particulate matter, or the biota in aquatic systems, where they are thought to be no longer bioavailable. Polychlorinated biphenyls are one class of POPs that has gotten a lot of attention in the recent two decades PCBs. PCBs, which were originally thought to be innocuous, were widely employed in the electronics sector as dielectric materials in capacitors and transformers, as well as binding or insulating materials for a variety of uses, including construction materials. As a consequence of previous dumping techniques, there are currently multiple locations in the United States and across the world where PCB concentrations approach tens of thousands of parts per million. Two of the most well-known PCB-contaminated Superfund sites in the United States are the Hudson River in New York and New Bedford Harbor in Massachusetts [3]–[5].

Regrettably, evidence is mounting that PCBs cause cancer and other adverse health consequences in animals, and are therefore potentially hazardous to human health. Sediment bacteria break down PCBs at exceedingly slow rates. While anaerobic organisms may remove chlorine atoms from highly chlorinated

PCBs, the resultant molecules are resistant to further breakdown until exposed to aerobic circumstances where other types of bacteria complete the degradation process. Despite extensive study on strategies to speed biodegradation in situ, these biological processes are so sluggish that it may take decades or centuries to reveal significant levels of degradation. Sediments, barring considerable dredging, will continue to be PCB reservoirs and sources of exposure throughout the food chain for the foreseeable future.

People have known since ancient times that human and animal excrement may pollute water and endanger health. Water contains a large number of harmful organisms. Several of them are along with the infectious doses and illnesses they induce. Biological contamination, like chemical contaminants, may originate from single point sources.

Since the majority but not all biological pollutants are derived from human or animal waste, waste management procedures have a significant impact on water contamination. Sewage is treated in a variety of methods, ranging from rudimentary to highly technological, as. Human faeces may be released directly into receiving waterways through surface water runoff from open defecation sites, as is prevalent in many underdeveloped nations, or it can be handled in a variety of methods ranging from a simple shallow pit to a major community sewage system. Since these latter systems need significant quantities of water to operate efficiently, enormous amounts of wastewater are created, necessitating further treatment before discharge to receiving waters. In terms of pathogens, nutrients, and hazardous compounds, wastewater treatment and release may impose a significant load on receiving waterways. During dry seasons, wastewater is the dominant flow in several river systems. Human infections may potentially enter groundwater via leaky septic systems, polluted runoff entering wellheads, and seepage from animal feedlots.

The Milwaukee epidemic was the countrys greatest reported waterborne illness outbreak. An estimated 400,000 individuals fell sick, and more than 50 people died as a result. Water was treated completely coagulation, sedimentation, fast sand filtration, and chlorination in this epidemic, disinfection 1.5 mg/L chlorine was neither insufficient or stopped, and coliforms 1100 ml and turbidity 1 NTU [nephelometric turbidity unit] criteria were fulfilled. Poor mixing during coagulation and restarting unclean filters without backwashing were noted as operational flaws. The underlying cause, however, was undoubtedly enormous amounts of C. parvum oocysts washed into Milwaukees supply water, Lake Michigan, near the citys water intakes. Many sources of pollution were suspected, including agricultural runoff, sewage treatment, and other undisclosed sources during the heavy rains before the epidemic Mac Kenzie and others, 1994. Stored stool samples later revealed that the C. parvum was completely of the human genotype type 1, strongly implying that human sewage was the source Sulaiman and colleagues, 1998.

The E. coli O157 epidemic in Walkerton, Ontario, in 2000 infected hundreds of people and killed seven. The indicator bacterium, E. coli, was detected in drinking water in this instance, but no action was done right after. The underlying cause was most likely E. coli O157 and other infections, such as Campylobacter, infecting a shallow well that was placed too near to a neighbouring cow farm. Retrospective analyses identified E. coli O157:H7 and Campylobacter as the principal agents of the epidemic, with bacteria matched by molecular typing techniques between stool samples, water samples, and manure samples discussed in Hrudey and Hrudey, 2004. Box 18.1 contains a timeline of the epidemic. But, the reader is also directed to the Walkerton Commission of Investigation Report OConnor, 2002 for intriguing insights into this terrible occurrence, the lessons gained, and the political repercussions of waterborne illness mortality that few would believe could occur in modern nations [6]–[8].

Techniques for detecting and quantifying coliform numbers have gotten more sophisticated. Growth of bacteria on a nutrient agar plate at 37°C was considered to be symptomatic of probable contamination by enteric organisms in the early 1900s reviewed in Payment, Sartory, and Reasoner, 2003. In recent decades, coliform bacteria in selected liquid culture medium were counted using a technique called as the most likely number approach. The membrane filtering technology is increasingly widespread, and enzymespecific tests that are accurate and simple to perform by water utility workers are gaining favour. Geldreich, 1996, has an excellent overview of these tests.

Nevertheless, the indicator notion, which relies on total coliform levels, has lately been called into question. After human infections have infiltrated ground and surface waterways, their destiny is entirely dependent on the organism. In fact, the coliform group is swiftly inactivated, while other human diseases may live for lengthy periods of time. This is especially true for pathogenic protozoa that create extremely resistant cysts or oocysts, as well as viruses that seem to persist when adsorbed to particulate material. As a consequence, a low coliform count may mask a harmful number of other pathogens. Other techniques to water quality monitoring might include employing E. coli as the major indication of faecal contamination rather than total coliforms, as well as additional markers of virus and protozoan contamination.

Environmental Pathogens

Environmental pathogens are organisms that, although being discharged in human sewage, are differentiated by their capacity not only to remain in the surroundings but also to develop and propagate. Legionella pneumophila and environmental mycobacteria are two well-known examples of this class of pathogen. Waterborne pathogen exposure, like chemical exposure, may occur through many transmission channels. Some are evident, such as ingesting contaminated water or being exposed via recreational usage, either through unintentional ingestion or by skin abrasions or alternate entry points eye, ear, anal, urogenital. Breathing polluted aerosols from showers, toilet flushing, dish washing, garden hoses, fountains, waterfalls, and cooling towers, as well as air conditioner, humidifier, and refrigerator drop pans, are other, albeit less visible, ways of exposure.

Transformations

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Vibrio cholerae, the bacterium that causes cholera, is an example of a pathogen-plankton interaction that may be considered as an environmental change. The Vibrio forms associations with plankton, especially zooplankton such as copepods, which seems to enable it to proliferate and concentrate to infectious dosages. While this does not directly enhance virulence, it seems to play a role in starting the epidemic cholera cycle. Antibiotics in large amounts are delivered to receiving waterways through wastewater discharge, agricultural, and aquaculture operations. The most probable outcome of these discharges is increasing antibiotic resistance within naturally existing microorganisms, with the possibility of resistance elements being transferred to human pathogens.

Deposition, Storage, and Bioconcentration

Pathogens may accumulate in organisms. Filter feeding shellfish, such as oysters and clams, are the most well-known example. Food poisoning outbreaks are often caused by the eating of shellfish with concentrated planktonic bacteria. Algae, viruses, bacteria, and even protozoa are examples of microorganisms. Hepatitis A, norovirus, campylobacteriosis, salmonellosis, cryptosporidiosis, and Vibrio-related infections such as cholera may result from consuming infected shellfish, crustacea, and fish that contain concentrated faecal wastes. In fact, any infectious disease agent that may be transmitted by water might be concentrated in aquatic creatures.

What about pathogen storage reservoirs? Early research found that faecal coliform indicator organisms Table 18.6 were 100- to 1,000-fold more prevalent in bottom sediments than in overlying waters. Salmonella and other infections have also been demonstrated to live in sediments for lengthy periods of time. Salmonella may also be spread from polluted sediments through chironomids, according to new study. The biofilm, or slime, that grows on any surface in contact with water but is especially problematic in drinking-water pipes, is an essential storage space. Biofilms create protective habitats that may enable germs to tolerate chemical stresses in the surrounding water, such as disinfectants, and may even allow some infections to grow for example, Legionella, the mycobacteria, and others. Biofilms have also been linked to pipeline deterioration, dirty water, odour, and obstruction Ford, 1993. They are also nutrient-rich settings that may offer excellent circumstances for gene transfer virulence genes, antibiotic resistance factors between bacteria in close proximity [9]–[11].

Wildfowl and wildlife. Wildlife and wildfowl are another important reservoir for diseases in the environment. Several enteric pathogens, such as Salmonella species, are natural occupants of both warm-blooded and cold-blooded animals digestive systems. Others may be transmitted by chance via the digestive systems of animals and wildfowl as a result of their presence in garbage from humans and animals. Wildfowl have arisen as a significant priority for watershed protection. No matter how carefully a surface waters perimeter is walled, only the tiniest parts can be successfully protected. Scavenger birds, such as gulls, may be a particular issue since they are drawn to human waste. Campylobacter, Listeria, Salmonella, Escherichia coli, Cryptosporidium, Chlamydia, Rotavirus, and other potentially pathogenic microbes have been isolated from the faeces of wildfowl, including gulls, Canada Geese, and ducks, according to a recent USGS report Convers.

The Global Burden of Waterborne Disease

The World Health Organization is the principal source of information on the worldwide illness burden. Each year, WHO publishes the World Health Report see, for example, WHO, 2003c, which includes a number of annexes describing mortality and morbidity expressed as disability-adjusted life years, or DALYs, to indicate both illness severity and years lost due to premature death. This data is provided for the previous year through national registries, which are estimated to account for around 30% of the worldwide illness burden. While waterborne illness is not officially specified, the category diarrheal disease, as well as malaria and a number of other tropical diseases associated to water, is usually included. In the case of diarrheal sickness, there are several channels of infection and chemical exposure, including water, food, and person-to-person transmission. Yet, distinguishing these channels is almost difficult since the spread of diarrheal illness within a community might be dominated by secondary transmission. In other words, an illness induced by drinking polluted water may quickly spread via person-to-person transmission or by food tainted by the water or by the affected people.

Waterborne infections are estimated to cause between 2 and 3 million fatalities in children under the age of five each year for example, Ford and Colwell, 1995. The official WHO morbidity and death numbers from In 2002, there were roughly 1.8 million fatalities and 61.1 million DALYs due to diarrheal illnesses WHO, 2003b. This toll is similar to that of other major infectious illnesses in terms of death and morbidity: HIV/AIDS caused 2.8 million fatalities and 86.1 million DALYs; TB caused 1.6 million deaths and 35.4 million DALYs; and malaria caused 1.2 million deaths and 44.7 million DALYs. Many factors must be considered when assessing the worldwide burden of waterborne disease:

Vector-Borne Diseases

Several of the most common and deadly infectious illnesses in the world are spread by water-related vectors Water, in reality, plays an important role in vector-borne illness transmission. Malaria fatality and morbidity numbers from 2003 show a modest rise from 2001. Obviously, the global toll of malaria remains enormous. Other significant vector-borne illnesses with water-related life cycles include blood, liver, lung, and intestinal flukes, hemorrhagic viruses, hemoflagellate protozoa, blood and tissue nematodes, and tapeworms. Mosquitoes, blackflies, crustacea, and fish are among their carriers.

Waterborne illnesses may be regulated, and in some instances abolished, by changing water sources, water quality, and human behaviour, opening up great opportunities for public health advancement. Apart from the smallpox eradication campaign, the endeavour to suppress dracunculiasis is possibly the greatest example of a successful eradication programme. Dracunculiasis is a crippling illness induced by the eating of copepods containing the guinea worm. People in underdeveloped countries that rely on contaminated water suffer greatly as a result of the sickness. With hygiene education and water source protection, a disease that historically affected millions of people With hygiene education and water source protection, a disease that historically affected millions of people depicts the dramatic drop in dracunculiasis cases as well as the ongoing efforts to eliminate the disease.

SO2 Health Effects

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Dracunculiasis Eradication

Millions of people were sick with dracunculiasis guinea worm disease in the 1980s, and hundreds of millions were thought to be at danger from polluted water. The larvae of the guinea worm live in water in copepods. When a person consumes contaminated water, the larvae that have been consumed begin to burrow into surrounding tissues and breed. Environmental psychology examines behaviour in its sociochemical context. Environmental psychology posits that people and communities have a dynamic and reciprocal interaction with the settings in which they reside, work, play, learn, relax, and travel. Environmental psychologists investigate the many ways in which sociochemical environments, or contexts, impact people and communities, including their health. The kind of house in which a person dwells, social and physical qualities of his or her neighborhood, and components of his or her commute among home and work may all be considered. Yet, environmental psychology is more than just objective observations of these aspects. Perceptions or sentiments regarding each of these things are likely to have a significant impact on an individuals emotional and physical well-being. Environmental psychology also includes a knowledge of environmental views and emotions.

Environmental psychologists see settings as complete, complex, naturally existing entities that change throughout time. Moreover, they consider the social and physical components of environments to be highly interrelated hence the name sociochemical environment and to influence an individuals physically and psychologically well-being in tandem. Environmental psychology, as opposed to conventional approaches to healthcare system, focuses on all elements that may impact an individuals health, including components of the physical and ambient surroundings, social connections, and anything else that may result in environmental stress. This discipline is also referred to by a broader name, environment and behaviour studies EBS.

The Perspective of Environmental Health

Environmental health has generally concentrated on the negative impacts of peoples exposure to chemicals, infections, radiation, and other dangerous physical environmental conditions Environmental psychology is more widely concerned with the conceptualization, measurement, and evaluation of complex environmental contexts such as buildings, communities, and public spaces, as well as the ways in which they impact behaviour, health, and well-being. Environmental psychologists define health as more than the absence of sickness or damage; it also includes physical and psychological well-being, or wellbeing.

In the turbulent social change and ecological awareness of the 1960s, the field of environmental health began to expand beyond its longstanding concern with the negative health effects of physical hazards, toxins, and pathogens, at the same time that the field of environmental psychology began to emerge as a viable discipline. Cassel 1964, 1976, for example, recommended public health experts at this time to pay more attention to the critical function of social ties in moderating people resilience to hazardous surroundings. Cassels study marked a change away from germ theory theories of health and sickness which focused on the negative impacts of individual viruses once they infiltrated a human host and towards a social epidemiological model of public wellness and the avoidance of illnesses.

Lindheim and Syme 1983 reaffirmed Cassels appeal for a stronger focus on social variables in health throughout the 1980s, emphasising the combined effect of several net impact that is, the natural, social, symbolic, and constructed environment on emotional and physical well-being. More recently, Frumkin 2001, Chapter Twenty-Nine defined the greening of environmental health and emphasised the necessity of documenting the favourable health effects related with peoples exposure to natural vistas and wilderness settings. He has also highlighted various aspects of healthy locations and provided studies demonstrating that peoples sense of place has a significant impact on their mental and physical well-being. These and other efforts by researchers to broaden the scope of environmental health reflect a convergence with some of the basic principles and themes of environmental psychology, particularly an emphasis on salutogenic as well as pathogenic processes as they occur in relation to healthy as well as built, social as well as physical, and subjective as well as objective dimensions of human environments Antonovsky, 1987.

Mapping the Sociophysical Context of Health

Environmental psychology holds that the health consequences of our environment are the result of a range of contextual variables interacting. Because of the cumulative impact of many environmental stressors encountered by low-income families, the negative health consequences of regular exposure to residential density and noise, for example, are far more severe in impoverished homes than in rich ones Evans, 2004. Similarly, field experiments have shown that people who are exposed to cold viruses are much more likely to develop cold symptoms when they are stressed in one or more parts of life for example, in their relationships with family members, friends, or coworkers than when they report low levels of chronic stress. Males die, while females may grow to be a metre long and hold millions of embryos. The female ultimately migrates to the skins surface and breaks through, producing excruciating agony and an increased risk of secondary infection of the ulcerated tissue. The victim may be unaware of the illness until the female bursts through the skin, roughly one year after the first infection.

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