1	Estimating daily and diurnal variations of illicit drug use in Hong Kong: A
2	pilot study of using wastewater analysis in an Asian metropolitan city
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### Abstract

36 The measurement of illicit drug metabolites in raw wastewater is increasingly being adopted 37 as an approach to objectively monitor population-level drug use, and is an effective 38 complement to traditional epidemiological methods. As such, it has been widely applied in 39 western countries. In this study, we utilised this approach to assess drug use patterns over 40 nine days during April 2011 in Hong Kong. Raw wastewater samples were collected from the largest wastewater treatment plant serving a community of approximately 3.5 million people 41 42 and analysed for excreted drug residues including cocaine, ketamine, methamphetamine, 3,4-43 methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) key metabolites and using liauid 44 chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry. The overall drug use pattern 45 determined by wastewater analysis was consistent with that seen amongst people coming into contact with services in relation to substance use; among our target drugs, ketamine 46 (estimated consumption: 1400–1600 mg/day/1000 people) was the predominant drug 47 48 followed by methamphetamine (180-200 mg/day/1000 people), cocaine (160-180 49 mg/day/1000 people) and MDMA (not detected). The levels of these drugs were relatively 50 steady throughout the monitoring period. Analysing samples at higher temporal resolution 51 provided data on diurnal variations of drug residue loads. Elevated ratios of cocaine to benzoylecgonine were identified unexpectedly in three samples during the evening and night, 52 53 providing evidence for potential dumping events of cocaine. This study provides the first 54 application of wastewater analysis to quantitatively evaluate daily drug use in an Asian 55 metropolitan community. Our data reinforces the benefit of wastewater monitoring to health and law enforcement authorities for strategic planning and evaluation of drug intervention 56 57 strategies.

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59 Keywords: cocaine, China, ketamine, MDMA, methamphetamine, substance consumption

### 61 **1. Introduction**

62 Illicit drug consumption is among the top 20 contributors to the global burden of disease and 63 injury [1] and has a substantial negative economic impact [2]. As such, systematic 64 surveillance of the extent of substance use and changes over time is important, particularly, to 65 plan and to determine the success of law enforcement and health intervention strategies [3].

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Hong Kong is one of the most densely populated cities in the world and its role as one of the key international financial centres draws a large number of international visitors each year. With such dynamic flow in people of different nationalities and high efficiencies in finance and transportation exchanges, Hong Kong is attractive for drug trafficking organisations [4]; for example, Hong Kong is found a key embarkation point for drugs to other Asian cities from China where illegal drug manufacturing appears often active [5].

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74 The Narcotics Division of the Security Bureau in Hong Kong reports trends in substance use 75 through its "Central Registry of Drug Abuse (CRDA)" reports. This report compiles data 76 from law enforcement agencies (all arrests for substance use), drug rehabilitation and 77 treatment centres, welfare and social work services (where substance use is suspected in clients) and hospitals (where withdrawal syndromes are present or individuals self-identify); 78 79 and demographic and substance use information is collected [6]. The figures recorded in the 80 CRDA are based on those drug consumers who have been identified with the agencies 81 reporting in the system. While this dataset is the primary source for understanding drug use 82 trends in Hong Kong, it is highly likely that many consumers may not be identified through 83 this system. For example, for a population of seven million, just 12,400 consumers were 84 identified for the 2010 CRDA report: <0.2% of the total population, which is extremely low 85 by global standards (3.4-6.6% of adults) [3]. It is likely that infrequent consumers will not come into contact with the reporting agencies. The majority of consumers identified in CRDA 86 87 were unemployed and had low education levels, suggesting that the consumers in other

demographics are not well captured by the system. To obtain more comprehensive information about substance use, multiple methods can help overcome the limitations of individual datasets [7].

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92 An alternative method to estimate drug use is the quantification of drug metabolite residues in 93 raw wastewater sampled at inlets of wastewater treatment plants. The feasibility of this approach – in this paper subsequently referred as *wastewater analysis* – to back-estimate drug 94 95 consumption has been widely demonstrated [e.g. 8, 9, 10]. The basic concept of the approach 96 is that excreted drug residues are collectively delivered from toilet systems to wastewater 97 treatment plants in a catchment. Thus, a raw wastewater sample represents a pool of the 98 excreted drug residues within a population and allows tracing back per capita consumption 99 rates in the catchment. Daily composite samples are commonly collected for understanding 100 day-to-day changes in population's drug use; higher consumption is typically identified in 101 weekends than weekdays [e.g. 11, 12-16]. Analysing shorter time periods allows evaluating 102 intra-daily variations in drug use [17, 18]. Such diurnal monitoring to date is less common in 103 the literature.

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105 Despite the fact that this approach cannot reveal patterns of individual drug use such as dose 106 or the presence of poly-drug use, the final estimates from wastewater analysis are objective 107 and maintain the anonymity of individual consumers. Hence, it produces less ethical issues 108 compared to traditional epidemiological methods such as self-reporting surveys [19]. Another 109 benefit of wastewater analysis is that it provides information about the use of chemically 110 specified substances, which is particularly relevant to tablets sold as 'ecstasy', which may 111 vary substantially in purity and content over time without the knowledge of the consumers 112 [20, 21]. As such, wastewater analysis has been widely applied across different cities in 113 western countries such as Australia, Canada, Europe and North America [e.g. 18, 22-28] but 114 to date has not been conducted in any Asian communities.

In this study, we applied wastewater analysis to estimate the extent of use of ketamine, cocaine, methamphetamine and MDMA over nine days in the major urban community of Hong Kong. The data was then compared with that from the existing CRDA drug reporting system. Additionally, we examined diurnal variations of drug residue loads in the community through analysis of two-hourly composite wastewater samples.

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### 123 **2.** Materials and methods

### 124 2.1 Wastewater sampling

125 Samples were collected at the inlet of the largest wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) in 126 Hong Kong. It serves approximately 3.5 million people, which is about half of the local population living in the mainly urban catchment. The WWTP is fed by two main inlet pipes 127 128 (channel A and channel B) receiving wastewater from seven preliminary treatment works (PTWs). These PTWs physically remove coarse particles and sediments (screening and de-129 130 gritting) and continuously pump the wastewater to the WWTP under study. The average 131 overall hydraulic residence time of wastewater collected and pumped into the WWTP through 132 channel A is approximately three hours and four hours for channel B. The sewer layout and 133 hydraulic properties provide considerable mixing of wastewater and attenuation of short-term 134 concentration variations facilitating the collection of representative samples. Samples were collected throughout the working week in 2011 on April 14<sup>th</sup>, 17<sup>th</sup>-21<sup>st</sup> and 24<sup>th</sup>-28<sup>th</sup>, 135 representing the weekdays Sunday through Thursday. Unfortunately, samples from Fridays 136 137 and Saturdays are missing since the WWTP does not conduct routine sampling on weekends 138 and does not allow access for non-staff.

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Hourly raw wastewater composite samples were collected at both inlet channels applying a 140 141 time-proportional sampling mode, 250 mL every 15 minutes. With a few exceptions, intra-142 hour flow coefficient variations (CV) were relatively small: 3.6-53% (channel A) and 1.2-143 29% (channel B) (Fig. S1 and Table S1). Individual hourly samples were flow-proportionally 144 mixed onsite in the laboratory of the WWTP to obtain representative daily composite samples 145 for both channels. Additionally, to assess diurnal variations, the hourly samples from channel B were mixed flow-proportionally to two-hour composite samples on April 24<sup>th</sup> to 28<sup>th</sup>. Milli-146 147 Q water samples were prepared and put aside during the sample composition process as field blanks for quality control. Samples were preserved at pH 2 using 2M hydrochloride acid and 148 149 frozen until analysis. The method of preservation has been widely applied and demonstrated 150 to stabilise target analytes in wastewater during storage [29-31].

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## 152 2.2 Materials and chemical analysis

153 Reference materials, sample preparation and analytical measurement applied in this study 154 have been previously reported [32]. Briefly, cocaine, benzoylecgonine, amphetamine, 155 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine methamphetamine, (MDMA), ketamine and 156 norketamine, together with their corresponding deuterated analogues, were purchased from 157 Cerilliant (USA) (purities  $\geq$  99%). Methanol and acetonitrile (LC grade) were purchased from Merck (Germany) while hydrochloric acid (37%), formic acid and acetic acid were 158 159 purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Australia).

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161 Samples were filtered (0.45 µm, RC, Phenomenex) before spiking with deuterated standards 162 (i.e. internal standards, 1–10 ng/mL) and then analysed together with seven calibration 163 standards (0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 5, 10, 50 ng/mL) using liquid chromatograph (Shimadzu Nexera 164 UHPLC system, Kyoto, Japan) coupled with tandem mass-spectrometry (AB SCIEX QTRAP<sup>®</sup>5500, Ontario, Canada) (LC-MS/MS). Targeted analytes were chromatographically 165 166 separated using a Luna C18 column, 3 µm, 150X2 mm, (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA). 167 Scheduled multiple reaction monitoring with positive electrospray ionisation were operated to 168 identify and quantify the masses of analytes (see Lai et al. [32] for details of analytical 169 conditions).

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For quality assurance and control of the analysis, duplicate samples and wastewater matrix spiked with native chemicals (1 ng/mL) were arranged for analysis. Also, blank samples of Milli-Q water were included to check for contamination in every batch of sample preparation and analysis. Milli-Q water samples were spiked with native chemicals as procedural recovery checks. The coefficient variation (CV) of duplicate samples was on average <6% (n=5). No target chemicals were quantified in the blank samples and field blank samples (Table S1). Procedural and matrix spike recoveries were on average in a range of 97–110%
(CV: 4–16%; n=3) and 89–104% (CV: 8–27%; n=5), respectively, and inter-day analytical
variability (2 days; n=8) was in a CV range of 2–9% (Table S2). Average recoveries of
individual internal standards in the samples were in a range of 62–120% (CV: 5–15%; n=77)
(Table S3).

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### 183 2.3 Targeted drug residues

Seven drug residues, including parent drugs and/or its major metabolites, were targeted.
These are methamphetamine, amphetamine, cocaine, benzoylecgonine, ketamine,
norketamine and MDMA. The drugs have been reported to be commonly consumed in Hong
Kong [6] and are regulated under Schedule 1 of the Dangerous Drugs Ordinance in the Laws
of Hong Kong [33], meaning that use is illegal without authorised licenses.

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## 190 2.4 Back calculation of drug consumption

191 The back calculation method was based on the model previously proposed [11] and has been 192 commonly applied in the literature [e.g. 23, 26, 28]. A mass load of a given chemical was 193 estimated by multiplying concentrations by the wastewater flow. The figure is then multiplied 194 with a correction factor which comprised of the average urinary excretion rate and molecular 195 mass ratio of a parent drug to its metabolite. The correction factor of 3.14 (1.1/0.35) was used 196 to back estimate cocaine consumption. This was derived from the average excretion rate of 197 cocaine to benzoylecgonine (35%, covering administration routes of smoking, snorting and injection) [34-36] and the molecular weight ratio of cocaine to benzoylecgonine (1.1). 198 199 Similarly, the average excretion of methamphetamine itself (33%, covering administration 200 routes of oral, smoking, snorting and injection) [37, 38] was used to calculate the correction 201 factor of 4.06 (1.0/0.33) for back estimating methamphetamine consumption. The correction 202 factor of 65 (1.06/0.016) was used to estimate ketamine consumption based on its metabolite 203 norketamine (1.6%, injection) [37, 39, 40]. Daily drug loads and consumption in the entire

- 204 catchment was estimated from the sum of measured drug residue loads in both channels. The
- 205 data was normalised to the total population (3.5 million people).

### 207 **3. Results and discussion**

208 With the collected samples representative of half the Hong Kong population, the results are 209 adequate to provide an understanding of the illicit drug use profile in this metropolitan city. 210 Additionally, the catchment area covers about 60% of the residential addresses of the reported 211 drug consumers in the Central Registry of Drug Abuse (CRDA) report, which is the primary 212 source for drug use trends in Hong Kong. Our results revealed patterns of inter- and intra-day 213 variability in illicit drug residues through analysis of daily and two-hourly composite raw wastewater samples in Hong Kong. This contributes, in part, to addressing the paucity of 214 215 literature describing wastewater analysis of illicit drug use in Asian communities.

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# 217 3.1 Daily drug use patterns detected in wastewater samples

218 Five out of seven illicit drug residues were quantified in all the samples (Fig. 1). Among the 219 drug residues, the daily load (average±standard deviation of the nine-day monitoring) of 220 ketamine (290±27 mg/day/1000 people) was the greatest and about one order of magnitude 221 higher than its metabolite, norketamine (23±4 mg/day/1000 people). The daily load of 222 methamphetamine was the next highest (62±4 mg/day/1000 people). The load of cocaine 223 (33±4 mg/day/1000 people) was approximately half that of its metabolite, benzoylecgonine 224 (54±3 mg/day/1000 people). Amounts of amphetamine and MDMA were below the limit of 225 detection (<10 mg/day/1000 people) in any of the samples. The load of each drug residue was 226 steady from day to day during the monitoring period (coefficient of variations is relatively 227 low: 5–17%). Thus, intra-week variations in drug use were not apparent. It should be noted 228 that the weekly drug use pattern in this study comprised of four weekdays and only Sundays 229 on the weekends, but still was inconsistent to a range of previous wastewater studies showing 230 higher drug use during weekends than weekdays with a peak use particularly found on 231 Sundays [e.g. 11, 13, 15]. This may suggest that regular and chronic users may be more 232 predominant than infrequent consumers in this community.

#### 234 3.1.1 Comparison with the CRDA report

235 The daily drug use pattern (ketamine > methamphetamine > cocaine > MDMA) detected by 236 wastewater analysis conformed to the CRDA report [6]. In 2011, the pattern of illicit 237 substance consumers identified in the CRDA was heroin (52% of cases) > ketamine (32%); 238 methamphetamine (14%) > benzodiazepines and related substances (11%) > cocaine (8%) > 239 cannabis (4%) > ecstasy (1%) [41]. While heroin is predominant (50% of consumers 240 identified in CRDA in 2010), reports of ketamine use have quickly escalated, doubling 241 between 2001 and 2010 to the point that one-third of consumers identified in the CRDA 242 report were ketamine consumers. Rates of ketamine use are substantially greater than that of 243 ecstasy, and rates of ecstasy use have been steadily declining since 2005 [6]. This high rate of 244 ketamine use among illicit substance consumers in Hong Kong is relatively unique 245 internationally [42]. Compared to ecstasy, ketamine is more readily available, less costly [5], 246 higher and more consistent in purity [43-45] and easy to sociably share with others due to its 247 distribution in powder form. This study found that mass loads of methamphetamine were 248 consistently greater than those of amphetamine in the samples. This is in agreement to the 249 finding in CRDA and also in United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime reporting that 250 methamphetamine is the most widely used amphetamine-related substance in East and Southeast Asia, mainly due to its easy production process and high availability of the 251 252 precursors [46, 47].

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3.1.2 Comparison with other wastewater studies

Estimated consumption of ketamine was predominated (1500±240 mg/day/1000 people), 255 256 followed by methamphetamine (190±11 mg/day/1000 people) and cocaine (170±11 257 mg/day/1000 people) (Fig. 2). Compared to the wastewater study across 19 European cities in 258 2011, the average methamphetamine consumption in Hong Kong was estimated at about two 259 to ten times higher than that in London (the U.K.), Stockholm (Sweden), Valencia (Spain) 260 and Milan (Italy), but at about three to five times lower than that in Oslo (Norway) and 261 Helsinki (Finland) [23]. The estimated consumption of methamphetamine in Hong Kong was 262 on average similar to that in other wastewater studies in Australian communities [28, 48]. A 263 different pattern of cocaine consumption among these countries was observed. The estimated 264 consumption of cocaine in Hong Kong was three to ten times lower than the cities in the west 265 and central of Europe and London but similar to the northern European cities, including Oslo, 266 Stockholm and Helsinki [23]. Cocaine consumption was estimated to be two and six times 267 more in Hong Kong than in the Australian urban communities of southeast Oueensland [28] 268 and Adelaide in South Australia [48], respectively. Such comparison of drug consumption 269 across different major and urban cities worldwide demonstrates that wastewater analysis 270 provides a standardised platform to equally gauge international drug use levels. This kind of 271 data is rare in national and/or international drug monitoring systems but is valuable for any 272 law enforcement authorities to estimate the rate of growth of the drug markets among various 273 types of communities within a country or around the world.

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## 275 **3.2** Diurnal variations in drug residue loads

276 Drug residue concentrations and loads are plotted together in Figure 3 to facilitate the 277 interpretation of diurnal variations: parent compounds and metabolites follow similar patterns 278 throughout the four monitoring days (see Table S4 for total loads). The mass loads of the drug 279 residues peaked in the mornings and at nights every day. The morning peak was generally 280 apparent over two to four hours (7-9AM and/or 9-11AM), accounting for about 10-14% of 281 the total mass load per two-hour period. The night peak extended four to six hours, starting in 282 the evening (about 7PM) until midnight, reflecting approximately 10-15% of the total mass 283 load per two-hour period. Similar wastewater studies with high resolution sampling was also 284 conducted in Oslo, Norway (six-hour composite samples) [17] and the United States (one-285 hour composite samples) [18]. The variation of diurnal patterns among the international studies and this study broadly suggests that drug excretion rates were often higher during 286 287 mornings and selectively during evenings. The daily mass loads of drug residues estimated

288 from physical daily composite sample and the sum of 12 two-hourly composite samples 289 allow verifying the flow-proportional mixing process of individual samples. The deviations 290 are within the expected range of analytical uncertainty and do not show any systematic 291 deviations (Tables S5–6).

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# 3.3 Ratio of a parent drug to its metabolite

294 The concentration ratio of the parent drug to its metabolite remained consistent in the 295 analysed daily composite samples (ketamine/norketamine: 13±1.8; cocaine/benzoylecgonine: 296 0.61±0.08). However, three data points from the two-hourly samples were identified as 297 outliers (Fig. 4): the cocaine/benzoylecgonine ratios were 1.05 and 1.52, rather than the usual 298 value observed in this community. This may imply that part of the cocaine identified in these 299 samples could be attributed to direct dumping events rather than human metabolism. These 300 time points were between Monday midnight and Tuesday morning (April 25th-26th; 11PM-301 3AM) and on Tuesday night (April 26th; 7-9PM) (Fig. 3B). Such high resolution data of 302 wastewater analysis could provide more information on drug use activities in the sewer 303 catchment than daily composite samples. Direct dumping of cocaine can be due to different 304 reasons, such as raids by police forces and/or hand-washing after handling cocaine.

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#### 306 3.4 Methodological limitations

307 While our study provides drug use data that complements the existing epidemiology reports, 308 a few methodological constraints should be remarked for better interpretation of the results. 309 Recent studies have proposed different human markers to estimate the number of people 310 contributed in a wastewater sample for better estimation of per capita illicit drug use [18, 32, 49]; for example, our previous study suggested the use of a certain prescription 311 312 pharmaceutical [32]. However, these kinds of pharmaceutical data are not readily available in 313 Hong Kong for estimating the population that contributed to a sample. As such, we had to 314 rely on a nominal figure for the population contributing to the wastewater treatment plant and 315 assumed that this population was consistent throughout the study period. Another issue, 316 which also requires pharmaceutical data and thus limits this study, is to exclude potential 317 contributions from legal sources of methamphetamine in wastewater samples as 318 methamphetamine can be metabolised after prescribing selegiline for diagnosing Parkinson's 319 disease [15, 28]. However, this may only produce a minor influence on the data presented 320 here; studies showed that Parkinson's disease is less prevalent in Hong Kong than Australian 321 communities [50]. Regarding the use of literature-based pharmacokinetic data for 322 extrapolating drug use, there are two notable limitations: (a) the currently available studies 323 reporting urinary excretion values were mainly conducted in Western countries, and thus 324 cannot account for possible variations in metabolism due to different racial demographics (i.e. 325 potential differences in people of Asian descent in comparison to Western samples); and (b) 326 smaller urinary excretion fractions potentially increase uncertainty levels of estimations, 327 particularly in the back-estimation of ketamine use from norketamine. Lastly, this study only 328 monitored drug use across about two weeks and thus the results cannot be generalised to 329 patterns of drug use over the whole year in Hong Kong.

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## 331 **4.** Conclusions

332 This study for the first time applied wastewater analysis to quantitatively determine the level 333 of drug use between and within days in an Asian metropolitan community. The overall pattern 334 of drug use detected in daily wastewater samples was consistent with that in the current drug 335 reporting system. Elevated concentration ratios of cocaine to benzoylecgonine were identified 336 in three samples of the high-temporal resolution diurnal monitoring, suggesting possible 337 dumping events of cocaine. Given that the current drug reporting system in Hong Kong only 338 obtains limited data from drug users identified by health and law enforcement, setting up 339 more sophisticated national monitoring systems with wastewater analysis as complementary 340 means can provide more comprehensive assessments on drug use. These are valuable for 341 health and law enforcement authorities to strategically plan and systematically evaluate the 342 effectiveness of drug use intervention programmes in the community.

343

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**Figure 1:** Comparison of weekly variation in daily mass loads (mg/day/1000 people) of the targeted drug residues. Concentrations of amphetamine and MDMA were below detection limits (< 10 mg/day/1000 people). Sampling dates included  $14^{th}$ ,  $17^{th}$ – $21^{st}$  and  $24^{th}$ – $28^{th}$  April in 2011 (n=2 per weekday; the error bar indicates a single standard deviation of the two samples). Samples from Fridays and Saturdays are missing because the wastewater treatment plant does not carry out the routine sampling and does not allow access for non-staff on these two days.

498 Figure 1499





Figure 2: Estimated consumption (mg/day/1000 people) of ketamine, methamphetamine and cocaine in the studied community. Sampling dates included 14<sup>th</sup>, 17<sup>th</sup>-21<sup>st</sup> and 24<sup>th</sup>-28<sup>th</sup> April in 2011 (n=2 per weekday; the error bar indicates a single standard deviation of the two samples). Samples from Fridays and Saturdays are missing because the wastewater treatment plant does not carry out the routine sampling and does not allow access for non-staff on these two days.

Figure 3 520 521



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Figure 3: Diurnal variations of drug residues (dt = 2 h). Right Y-axis: drug residue 524 concentrations (dashed lines). Left Y-axis: Percentage of total daily drug residue loads

- 525 (coloured solid lines) and percentage of the total wastewater flow (black solid line). Total
- 526 wastewater flow and mass loads for each drug are reported in Table S4. An error bar included
- 527 the uncertainty of chemical analysis, sampling and/or flow measurement (Table S6) [32].