

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

The measurement of illicit drug metabolites in raw wastewater is increasingly being adopted as an approach to objectively monitor population-level drug use, and is an effective complement to traditional epidemiological methods. As such, it has been widely applied in western countries. In this study, we utilised this approach to assess drug use patterns over 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 and analysed for excreted drug residues including cocaine, ketamine, methamphetamine, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA) and key metabolites using liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry. The overall drug use pattern 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 (estimated consumption: 1400–1600 mg/day/1000 people) was the predominant drug followed by methamphetamine (180–200 mg/day/1000 people), cocaine (160–180 mg/day/1000 people) and MDMA (not detected). The levels of these drugs were relatively steady throughout the monitoring period. Analysing samples at higher temporal resolution 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, providing evidence for potential dumping events of cocaine. This study provides the first application of wastewater analysis to quantitatively evaluate daily drug use in an Asian metropolitan community. Our data reinforces the benefit of wastewater monitoring to health and law enforcement authorities for strategic planning and evaluation of drug intervention strategies.

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].

66

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

73

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
78 clients) and hospitals (where withdrawal syndromes are present or individuals self-identify);
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
86 come into contact with the reporting agencies. The majority of consumers identified in CRDA
87 were unemployed and had low education levels, suggesting that the consumers in other

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

91

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
94 approach – in this paper subsequently referred as *wastewater analysis* – to back-estimate drug
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.

104

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.

115

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

121

122

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
127 population living in the mainly urban catchment. The WWTP is fed by two main inlet pipes
128 (channel A and channel B) receiving wastewater from seven preliminary treatment works
129 (PTWs). These PTWs physically remove coarse particles and sediments (screening and de-
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
135 collected throughout the working week in 2011 on April 14th, 17th–21st and 24th–28th,
136 representing the weekdays Sunday through Thursday. Unfortunately, samples from Fridays
137 and Saturdays are missing since the WWTP does not conduct routine sampling on weekends
138 and does not allow access for non-staff.

139

140 Hourly raw wastewater composite samples were collected at both inlet channels applying a
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
146 B were mixed flow-proportionally to two-hour composite samples on April 24th to 28th. Milli-
147 Q water samples were prepared and put aside during the sample composition process as field
148 blanks for quality control. Samples were preserved at pH 2 using 2M hydrochloride acid and
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].

151

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 methamphetamine, 3,4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine (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
158 from Merck (Germany) while hydrochloric acid (37%), formic acid and acetic acid were
159 purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Australia).

160

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
165 QTRAP[®]5500, Ontario, Canada) (LC-MS/MS). Targeted analytes were chromatographically
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).

170

171 For quality assurance and control of the analysis, duplicate samples and wastewater matrix
172 spiked with native chemicals (1 ng/mL) were arranged for analysis. Also, blank samples of
173 Milli-Q water were included to check for contamination in every batch of sample preparation
174 and analysis. Milli-Q water samples were spiked with native chemicals as procedural
175 recovery checks. The coefficient variation (CV) of duplicate samples was on average $<6\%$
176 (n=5). No target chemicals were quantified in the blank samples and field blank samples

177 (Table S1). Procedural and matrix spike recoveries were on average in a range of 97–110%
178 (CV: 4–16%; n=3) and 89–104% (CV: 8–27%; n=5), respectively, and inter-day analytical
179 variability (2 days; n=8) was in a CV range of 2–9% (Table S2). Average recoveries of
180 individual internal standards in the samples were in a range of 62–120% (CV: 5–15%; n=77)
181 (Table S3).

182

183 **2.3 Targeted drug residues**

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

189

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
198 injection) [34-36] and the molecular weight ratio of cocaine to benzoylecgonine (1.1).
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).

206

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
214 wastewater samples in Hong Kong. This contributes, in part, to addressing the paucity of
215 literature describing wastewater analysis of illicit drug use in Asian communities.

216

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 \pm standard deviation of the nine-day monitoring) of
220 ketamine (290 \pm 27 mg/day/1000 people) was the greatest and about one order of magnitude
221 higher than its metabolite, norketamine (23 \pm 4 mg/day/1000 people). The daily load of
222 methamphetamine was the next highest (62 \pm 4 mg/day/1000 people). The load of cocaine
223 (33 \pm 4 mg/day/1000 people) was approximately half that of its metabolite, benzoylecgonine
224 (54 \pm 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.

233

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
251 Southeast Asia, mainly due to its easy production process and high availability of the
252 precursors [46, 47].

253

254 *3.1.2 Comparison with other wastewater studies*

255 Estimated consumption of ketamine was predominated (1500 ± 240 mg/day/1000 people),
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 Queensland [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.

274

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
286 studies and this study broadly suggests that drug excretion rates were often higher during
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).

292

293 ***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.

305

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,
311 49]; for example, our previous study suggested the use of a certain prescription
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.

330

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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358

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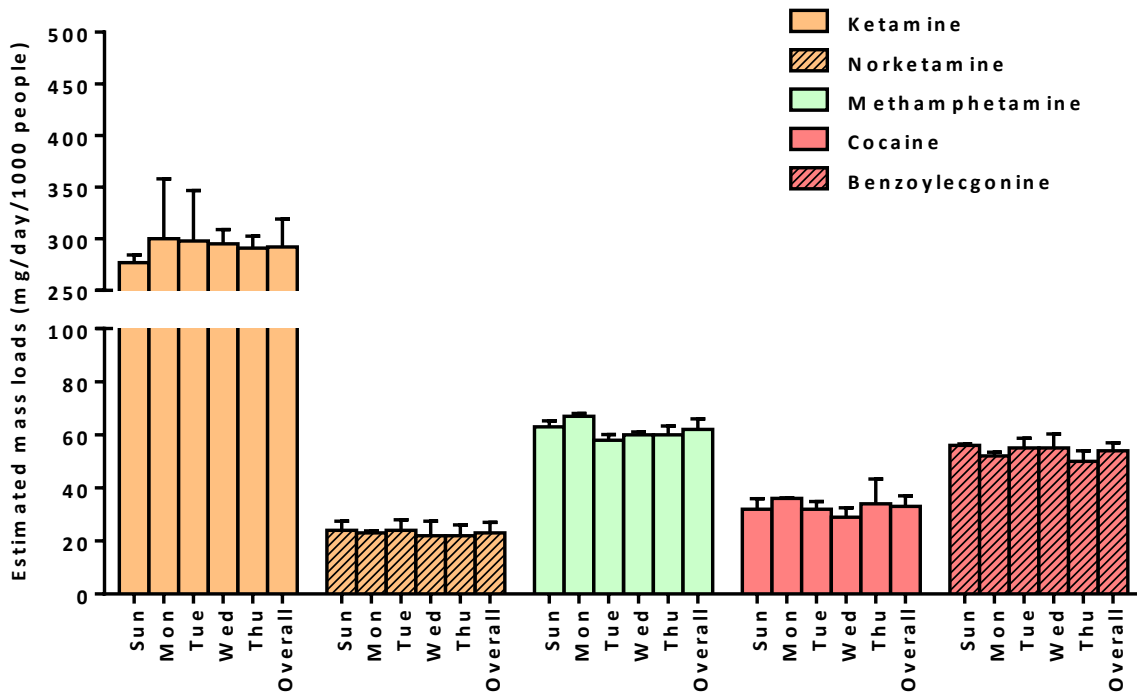
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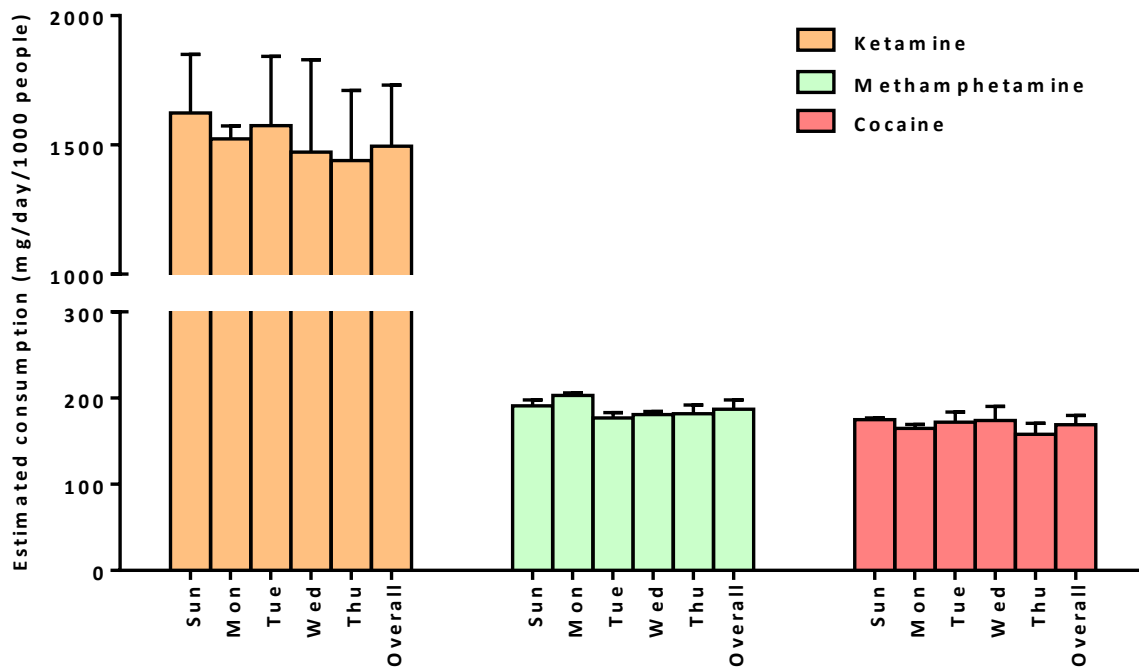
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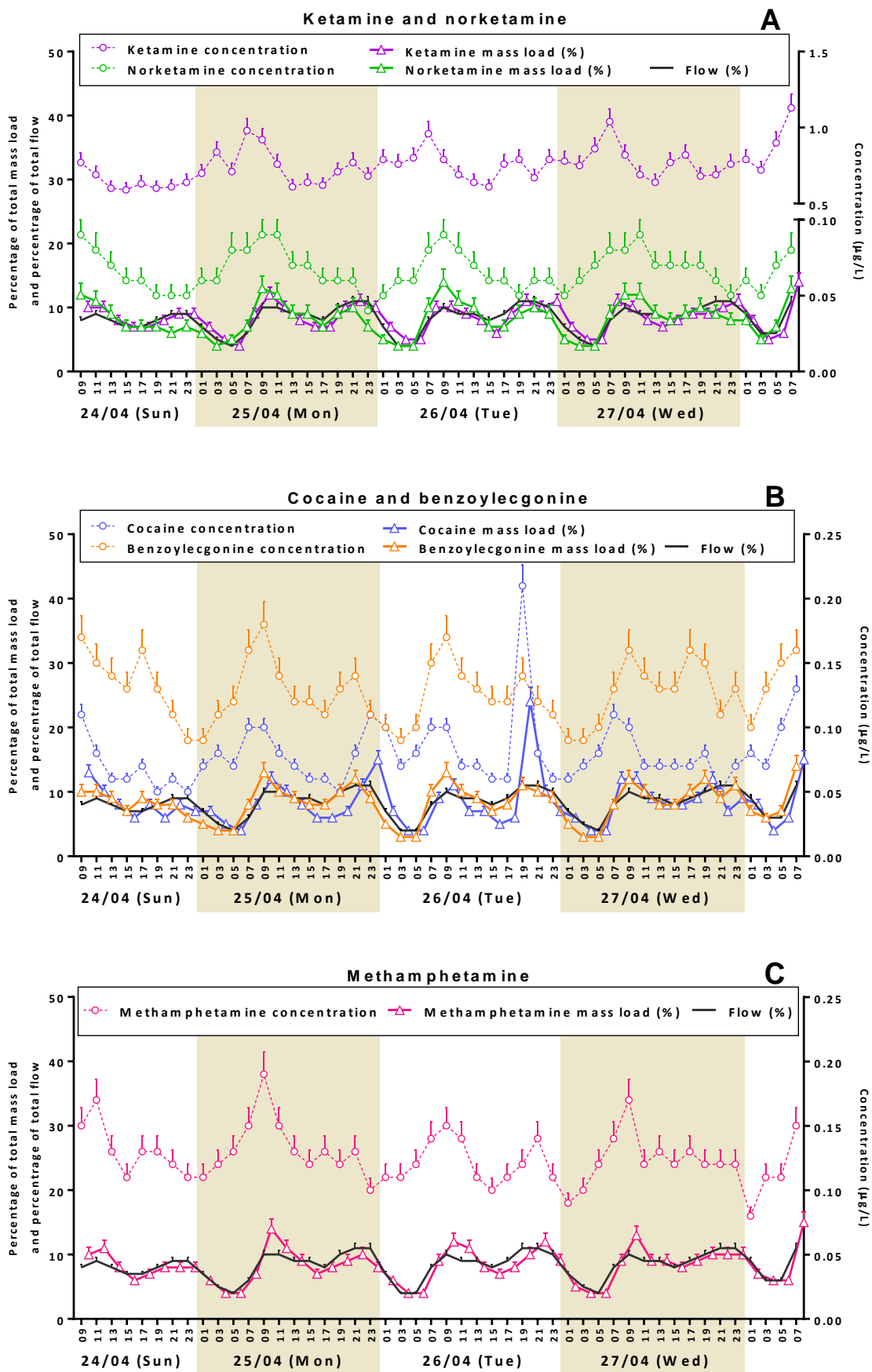


500
 501 **Figure 1:** Comparison of weekly variation in daily mass loads (mg/day/1000 people) of the
 502 targeted drug residues. Concentrations of amphetamine and MDMA were below detection
 503 limits (< 10 mg/day/1000 people). Sampling dates included 14th, 17th–21st and 24th–28th April
 504 in 2011 (n=2 per weekday; the error bar indicates a single standard deviation of the two
 505 samples). Samples from Fridays and Saturdays are missing because the wastewater treatment
 506 plant does not carry out the routine sampling and does not allow access for non-staff on these
 507 two days.
 508
 509

510 **Figure 2**
511



512 **Figure 2:** Estimated consumption (mg/day/1000 people) of ketamine, methamphetamine and
513 cocaine in the studied community. Sampling dates included 14th, 17th–21st and 24th–28th April
514 in 2011 (n=2 per weekday; the error bar indicates a single standard deviation of the two
515 samples). Samples from Fridays and Saturdays are missing because the wastewater treatment
516 plant does not carry out the routine sampling and does not allow access for non-staff on these
517 two days.
518
519



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

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].