Accepted Manuscript

This is an Accepted Manuscript of the following article:

D T Myat, F Roddik, P Puspita, L Skillman, J Charrois, I Kristiana, W Uhl, E Vasyukova, G Roeszler, A Chan, B Zhu, S Muthukumaran, S Gray, M Duke. Effect of oxidation with coagulation and ceramic microfiltration pre-treatment on reverse osmosis for desalination of recycled wastewater. Desalination. Volume 431, 2018, pages 106-118, ISSN 0011-9164.

> The article has been published in final form by Elsevier at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.desal.2017.10.029

© 2018. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

It is recommended to use the published version for citation.

1	Effect of oxidation with coagulation and ceramic microfiltration pre-
2	treatment on reverse osmosis for desalination of recycled wastewater
3	D. T. Myat ¹ , F. Roddick ² , P. Puspita ² , L. Skillman ³ , J. Charrois ⁴ , I. Kristiana ⁴ , W.
4 5	Uhl ^{5,6} , E. Vasyukova ^{5,7} , G. Roeszler ⁸ , A. Chan ⁹ , B. Zhu ¹ , S. Muthukumaran ¹ , S. Gray ¹ , M. Duke ¹
6 7	¹ Institute for Sustainability and Innovation, College of Engineering and Science, Victoria University, Werribee Campus, P. O. Box 14428, Melbourne, Vic 8001, Australia.
8 9	² Water: Effective Technologies and Tools (WETT) Research Centre, RMIT University, G.P.O. Box 2476V, Melbourne, 3001, Australia
10 11	³ School of Engineering and Information Technology, Murdoch University, South Street, Murdoch. WA 6150, Australia
12 13	⁴ Curtin Water Quality Research Centre, Department of Chemistry, Curtin University, Perth, WA 6102, Australia
14 15	⁵ Technische Universität Dresden, Chair of Water Supply Engineering, 01069 Dresden, Germany
16	⁶ Norwegian Institute for Water Research (NIVA), Gaustadalléen 21, 0349 Oslo, Norway
17	⁷ WTE Wassertechnik GmbH, Ruhrallee 185, 45136 Essen, Germany
18	⁸ Water Research Australia (WaterRA), G.P.O. Box 1751 Adelaide 5001, Australia
19	⁹ City West Water, 1 McNab Ave, Footscray, Victoria, 3011, Australia
20	
21	Corresponding author: Mikel Duke. Email: Mikel.Duke@vu.edu.au
22	Abstract

Oxidation and coagulation before ceramic microfiltration (CMF) greatly increases membrane 23 flux, but is unconventional for reverse osmosis (RO) pre-treatment. Impacts to RO and the 24 wastewater recycling scheme operating CMF at high flux conditions is little understood. In 25 this work, wastewater was treated with ozone or ultraviolet/hydrogen peroxide (UVH) 26 oxidation, coagulation, then CMF, to explore RO membrane performance at bench scale. 27 Sustainable high CMF fluxes were confirmed using coagulation with either ozone or UVH. 28 Uniquely for ozone, dosing 13 mg-O₃/L for 15 minutes greatly increased toxic by-product N-29 nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) to 33 ng/L. Dosing chloramine (common for RO biofouling 30 control) added only up to 7 ng/L NDMA. RO tests on all pre-treated waters showed little 31 variation to flux but oxidation significantly altered texture of RO fouling material from 32 33 smooth and dense to porous and granular. Biofouling studies with model bacteria strain RO 22 (Pseudoalteromonas spp) showed higher organic biodegradability but biofilm analysis 34

revealed ozone-coagulant-CMF greatly limited extension of bacteria communities from the membrane surface suggesting oxidation reduces RO biofouling. The novel findings of reduction of RO biofouling risk with oxidation and coagulation for high flux CMF pretreatment identified in this work need to be demonstrated on different wastewater types over longer term.

- 40 Keywords: Biofouling, ceramic membrane, coagulation, oxidation, ozone, pre-treatment,
- 41 recycled water, reverse osmosis, ultraviolet /hydrogen peroxide (UVH)
- 42

43 Introduction

Ceramic membranes are an alternative technology to polymeric membranes for water treatment 44 45 offering superior physical integrity, chemical resistance, higher flux, and longer life [1]. However their application as a pre-treatment for reverse osmosis (RO) desalination of 46 wastewater is unconventional. In considering ceramic membranes, high flux is important to 47 offset their higher material cost but must be operated in a specific way to achieve this, which 48 49 would impact the downstream RO plant operation. For example Dow and co-workers demonstrated that the sustainable ceramic microfiltration (CMF) membrane fluxes for treating 50 clarified wastewater increased 2-3 fold in response to dosing with the common coagulant 51 polyaluminium chloride (PACl) [2, 3]. Coagulation used prior to polymer membranes is 52 already known to reduce fouling as well as to remove organic matter, particularly the large 53 54 molecular weight (MW) components, being biopolymers and humic substances [4-6]. Fan et al. [7] concluded that coagulation treatment reduced organic fouling by removal of these larger-55 sized materials. Further, ozone used in conjunction with coagulation and ceramic membranes 56 was observed to work together to provide >4-fold sustainable flux increases for ceramic 57 membranes [2]. Oxidation processes such as ozonation, and ultraviolet irradiation (UV), are 58 commonly practised as the tertiary treatments to meet appropriate water quality in reclaimed 59 water from secondary wastewater treatment plant (WWTP) effluents for disinfection purposes, 60 odour treatment as well as the removal of colour caused by humic substances. With their wider 61 62 use in water treatment, researchers have more recently considered their specific impact on water organic fractions [6, 8] and membrane fouling [9], which is particularly useful for 63 explaining why such high ceramic membrane fluxes can be achieved. 64

65

66 Studies conducted using ozone-resistant polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) and polysulfone (PS) membrane materials showed that using ozonation upstream of the membrane did enhance the 67 permeate flux and reduce membrane fouling by the degradation of high molecular weight 68 natural organic matter [10-13]. More recently, a study on polymer ultrafiltration (UF) 69 membranes found that the mechanisms are more complex, where ozone reactions with bovine 70 serum albumin (BSA) led to increased fouling, while reactions with alginate led to reduced 71 fouling [9]. On top of altered organics chemistry, theories around the role of ozone regarding 72 its ability to greatly enhance flux have focused on the role of highly reactive hydroxyl radicals 73 74 (OH•) formed by the catalytic breakdown of ozone on the ceramic membrane surface [14]. 75

76 So in the case of upstream oxidation where membranes benefit in terms of performance, there 77 is a clear alteration of the chemical properties of the water borne compounds that will impact other downstream processes. In the case of saline wastewater, low pressure membranes are 78 widely applied prior to reverse osmosis (RO) as a pre-treatment. Normally oxidation would be 79 applied in a water recycling scheme downstream of RO, however, it is generally understood 80 that the mechanisms to increase hydrophilicity of organics in wastewater would be useful in 81 controlling RO membrane fouling. Such benefits including minimising cleaning and membrane 82 replacement, and reduced energy requirements due to reduced RO fouling, were explored in a 83 dedicated study [15]. Membrane bioreactor (MBR) effluent was fed directly to a dual train pilot 84 RO system with one train featuring an ozone stage, while the other fed directly by MBR 85 permeate. The reduction to membrane fouling was demonstrated over 3000 hours of testing. 86 showing reduced membrane permeability deterioration suggesting longer term benefits to RO 87 membranes in terms of longevity, reduced cleaning costs and lower energy requirement [15]. 88 89 Without ozone, RO flux declined by 12% while with ozone only declined by 6%. Similar beneficial effects were reported at bench scale [16]. Recent work on application of ozone and 90 CMF followed by biologically active filtration upstream of RO for water recycling application 91 92 found uniquely that RO foulants after ozone and CMF were easily removed with water rinsing 93 [17]. This promising finding shows that in the case when ozone is applied upstream, reduced cleaning maintenance of the RO membranes is expected. The process was subsequently 94 95 adopted for a 9 month potable reuse trial [18, 19]. However, these used biological processes after oxidation, may not be necessary to apply prior to RO. 96

97

98 Oxidation (i.e., ozone or UV) in practice is typically followed by biological filtration. Ozone breaks down larger molecular weight organic matter increasing the assimilable organic carbon 99 proportion, favouring micro-organism growth [20]. The study by Nguyen and Roddick 100 highlighted that the ozonation of the raw activated sludge effluent produced biodegradable 101 dissolved organic carbon (BDOC), and biological activated carbon (BAC) filter did not 102 completely remove those compounds [21]. Thus it is uncertain if deliberate use of BAC to 103 prevent biofouling of downstream RO membranes would be effective. Recent work has shown 104 that ozone and BAC application prior to ceramic membranes can have a negative impact to 105 106 CMF performance compared to ozone on its own [22] suggesting that despite the BDOC removing ability of BAC, it is not useful for high CMF performance and could be avoided for 107 pre-treatment to RO. 108

109

Disinfection by chloramines is generally practised prior to the RO process to prevent the 110 membrane from biofouling in a conventional RO-based water recycling application [23]. 111 Hence, despite the increase in biodegradability of organics due to ozone, the application of 112 chloramine may assist in controlling biofouling. However, the use of chloramines can lead to 113 the formation of disinfection by-products (DBPs), especially nitrogen-containing DBPs such 114 as N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) and other N-nitrosamine compounds [24]. On top of this, 115 ozone is also well-known to form NDMA as a result of the oxidation of NDMA precursors [25-116 28]. NDMA is an important concern if the intended use of the water is limited by this 117 compound, e.g., potable reuse. A study on ozone application upstream of RO should consider 118 119 use of chloramine disinfectant and the formation of NDMA.

Therefore, it still remains unknown of the viability of using the high CMF flux arrangement 121 (with oxidation and coagulation) as a pre-treatment to RO for saline wastewater recycling 122 purpose, particularly in the case where no post-oxidation biological treatment stage (e.g. BAC) 123 124 is used. At the same time, working towards understanding differences in RO membrane fouling (both organic and bio) of this non-traditional water recycling process compared to the more 125 traditional approach (without oxidation prior to RO) is of more fundamental interest. 126 127 Addressing these points forms the more novel feature of this work. This study therefore has the following objectives 1) to confirm reported high flux performance when ceramic membranes 128 are coupled with coagulation, ozonation and UV/H2O2 (UVH) treatment and their 129 combinations; 2) to demonstrate the impact of the pre-treatment processes on water quality 130 including formation of a well-known wastewater disinfection by-product, NDMA; 3) to test 131 the influence of the pre-treatment options on RO membrane performance; and 4) to determine 132 the potential for biofouling on the downstream RO membranes. The source water collected 133 from a full-scale water recycling plant was used for the purpose of this work. 134

135

136 Materials and Methods

137 Raw water source

The water source used for this study was 'Class A' recycled water from one of Melbourne's 138 wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) run by the authorised operator. The WWTP receives 139 wastewater from both domestic and industrial sources. To meet Class A specification, the 140 incoming sewage is treated via an anaerobic and aerobic process followed by chlorination and 141 UV treatment. The recycled Class A water has characteristics as indicated in Table 1, measured 142 143 by methods described later under the 'Water quality analyses' section. This water is referred to as 'direct Class A' water hereinafter. This water is currently fed to a recently constructed salt 144 reduction plant (SRP) which consists of a polymeric UF/RO system for water recycling 145 application and is therefore a good model water to show an alternative ozone and CMF as a 146 RO pre-treatment. 147

148

Table 1: Representative water quality indicators of Class A recycled wastewater used for thiswork. Method for determination described under 'Water quality analyses' section.

Indicator	Unit	Value
pН	-	7.7
EC	μS/cm	1700
TDS	mg/L	1240
UV ₂₅₄	1/m	17.9
DOC	mg-C/L	10.5
COD	mg/L	38
TN	mg/L	15.8

- 151 EC = electrical conductivity, TDS = total dissolved solids, COD = chemical oxygen demand,
- 152 TN = total nitrogen

154 Pre-treatments

Pre-treatments to CMF included coagulation which was used in conjunction with ozonation or 155 156 UVH. For coagulation treatment with polyaluminium chloride (PACl), 23% w/w as (Al₂O₃) from Ixom Watercare Pty Ltd, was dosed at 3 mg (Al³⁺)/L. This dose was chosen following a 157 series of jar tests where pin-floc was observed to start (visual observation of small flocs in 158 solution). The required amount of PACl coagulant was added to the feed tank prior to CMF 159 membrane, (and after oxidation by ozone or UVH when applied) without filtering the solids, 160 to simulate the inline coagulation process used in pilot trials [2]. Ozone was generated from 161 pure oxygen by an ozone generator (SOZ-6G, A2Z Ozone Systems Inc., USA) with an ozone 162 production capacity of 6 g/h. Further details of the ozone dosing and analysis is provided in the 163 164 Supplementary Material. During the ozone-CMF experiments, the feed water sample was ozonated for 15 minutes which was determined to be equivalent to an applied dose of 13 mg-165 O₃/L. Residual ozone present in the ozonated samples was not quenched, and it was allowed to 166 be in contact with the ceramic membrane surface. Ozone concentration was measured using 167 the Indigo Colorimetric method [29]. For UVH treatment, irradiation was conducted in an 168 annular reactor fitted with a centrally mounted UV lamp. It had a working volume of 900 mL 169 and an average irradiated area of 464 cm², with a path length of 1.95 cm. The UVC lamp 170 emitted monochromatic light at 254 nm. The average fluence rate of the UVC lamp was 171 determined to be 13.1 mW/cm² by hydrogen peroxide actinometry [30]. The effluent samples 172 173 were irradiated for various times with the addition of hydrogen peroxide (1 mM). This treatment is referred to as UVH hereafter. 174

175

176 *Ceramic microfiltration (CMF)*

177 A Membralox T1-70 single channel ceramic membrane (Pall Corporation), which had a separation layer of 0.1 µm nominal pore size, was used for CMF. The ceramic membrane had 178 dimensions of 250 mm length and 77 mm internal diameter, a total surface area of 0.005 m², 179 and was composed of a porous alumina support and selective layer made from zirconia. An 180 181 example clean water flux measured for this membrane was 90 L/(m^2 .h) at 0.1 bar. Further details on the module, performance checking and cleaning are found in the Supplementary 182 Material. The ceramic membrane was tested in dead-end, constant flux, inside-out filtration 183 mode. Hydraulic backwashing was performed every 30 min at 3 bar via pressurised water and 184 a series of valves. A constant flux of 130 $L/(m^2.h)$ was utilised for all CMF tests for the high 185 flux operation. More details of the equipment and the method for determining constant flux are 186 described in the Supplementary Material. 187

188

Filtration performance was evaluated by using indicators such as fouling rate and backwash effectiveness (fouling reversibility). The rate of foulant accumulation on the membrane or fouling rate over time was described as the change in transmembrane pressure (TMP) per unit time (dTMP/dt) on a per cycle basis. The change in fouling rate (%) was calculated by the following equation [31]:

194 Change in fouling rate (%) =
$$\frac{\left(\frac{dTMP}{dt_n}\right) - \left(\frac{dTMP}{dt_1}\right)}{\left(\frac{dTMP}{dt_1}\right)}$$
 100 (1)

where the fouling rate of the final filtration cycle (cycle n) was compared to the initial filtration cycle (cycle 1).

To assess membrane performance data between filtration and backwash cycles, the following method was used based on the unified membrane fouling index (UMFI) developed by Huang et al. (2008) [32] and Nguyen et al. (2011) [33]. All TMP data points were used to calculate specific flux or permeability, J_S , (L/(m².h.bar)) as follows:

203

206

$$J_s = J/TMP = 1/\mu \ (K_{mem} + k_{total} \ V) \tag{2}$$

Where μ is viscosity, K_{mem} is the resistance of the clean membrane, k_{total} is the total resistance (membrane and fouling resistances), and *V* is the specific volume (L/m²).

For a clean membrane, at V = 0, $(J/TMP)_0 = 1/\mu K_{mem}$. Membrane performance can be represented in normalized form, J'_S , by dividing J/TMP at any specific volume by the initial (or clean membrane) condition according to the following equation:

210

211
$$J'_{S} = \frac{\left(\frac{J}{TMP}\right)_{V}}{\left(\frac{J}{TMP}\right)_{0}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{k_{total}}{K_{mem}}V}$$

212

213 or

214

 $\frac{1}{J'_{S}} = 1 + \binom{k_{total}}{K_{mem}} V$ (4)

216

217 Different fouling indices could be calculated from plotting a graph of $1/J'_{s}$ versus *V*. Hydraulic 218 irreversible fouling index (HIFI) can be calculated using the starting TMP data point after each 219 backwash cycle. HIFI is related to the fouling resistance and a low HIFI represents a low rate 220 of membrane fouling while a high HIFI indicates greater membrane fouling rates.

221

222 RO feed chlorination, membrane fouling loading tests and SEM analysis

A dose of preformed chloramine was added to each filtrate of the CMF as per the conditions established on current RO systems (approximately 4 mg/L) and similar to previous studies [16, 34]. For antiscalant dosing, the commonly used Flocon 260 was dosed at 3 mg/L to the solution to represent realistic application to RO feeds.

(3)

The RO membrane fouling loading test for the pre-treated waters was performed on a DOW FILMTEC BW-30 membrane. The schematic diagram of RO membrane filtration set up and further details of the operation are found in the Supplementary Material. The effective membrane area was 0.014 m^2 and cross flow velocity of $0.2-0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, and run in batch concentration to achieve a final volume recovery of 80%. Pressure of the feed was set to 10 bar.

SEM was employed to investigate the morphology of the membrane surface and accumulated
fouling material. The SEM images were produced using a NeoScope JCM5000 (JEOL, Japan)
with a 10 kV electron beam. To improve the imaging of the samples, the membranes were gold
coated using a Neo coater MP-19020NCTR (JEOL, Japan) prior to the observations.

237

238 *Water quality analyses*

The feed samples before and after pre-treatments were analysed for pH, electrical conductivity 239 (EC), ultraviolet absorbance at 254 nm (UV_{254}) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC). Some 240 indicators were measured and shown only in Table 1 to give an overview of the water quality 241 (i.e. includes also TDS, COD and TN). pH and EC were determined using a HACH Sension 242 156 handheld meter. TDS was determined using Standard Method 2504. UV₂₅₄ was measured 243 using an HACH DR 5000 spectrophotometer. Specific UV absorbance (SUVA) was 244 determined by dividing UV₂₅₄ by the DOC concentration. DOC and TN concentrations were 245 measured using a total organic carbon analyser (TOC-V_{CPH}/CPN, Shimadzu, Japan). DOC 246 fractionation was performed by liquid size exclusion chromatography with organic carbon 247 detection (LC-OCD) using a LC-OCD model 8 system (DOC-Labor Dr. Huber, Karlsruhe, 248 Germany) at Technische Universität Dresden, Germany. LC-OCD enables the characterisation 249 and quantification of DOC fractions. Details of the method have been published elsewhere [35, 250 36] and a further summary can be found in the Supplementary Material. 251

- 252 The concentration of biodegradable dissolved organic carbon (BDOC) of the waters before and
- after treatments was determined using the method of Joret and Levi (1986) [37] and modified
- according to the method reported by Volk et al., (1993) [38]. Briefly, a sample of 300 mL was
- exposed to washed biologically active sand $(100 \pm 10 \text{ g})$ for 7 days under aerobic conditions (3
- 256 litres of humidified air per hour). The BDOC was calculated as the initial DOC minus the
- 257 lowest DOC recorded over the 7-day incubation period.
- The chloraminated (4 mg/L as Cl₂) ceramic membrane permeate samples were analysed for Nnitrosamines analysis after 4 mg/L chloramine dosing. N-nitrosamines were analysed by solidphase extraction (SPE) followed by gas chromatograph with mass spectrometer detector (GC-MS), based on the method of Charrois et al. (2004) [39] with minor modifications. Further details of the method are found in the Supplementary Material section.
- 263

264 Bioassay and accelerated RO biofiouling tests

- Biofilm assays were conducted using a crystal violet assay method [40]. A model biofouling
- bacterial strain, RO 22, was used to evaluate the biofouling potential of the treated waters.

RO 22 is a strain of *Pseudoalteromonas* spp isolated from a full scale SWRO plant [41]. 267 Additional details of the organism and methods are found in the Supplementary Material. A 268 single colony of isolate RO 22 was inoculated into 10 mL of tryptone soy broth (TSB) and 269 mixed well. 200 µL of culture broth was pipetted into each well in a 96-well microtitre plate. 270 271 sealed and incubated for 48 hours at room temperature. Optical density of the wells to determine cell density, then removal of solution and addition of crystal violet to measure 272 biofilm thickness, were both measured using light absorbance. For the accelerated biofouling 273 274 tests, RO feeds where spiked with RO 22. The biofouling tests were conducted for a total of 21 h. After 21 h of RO filtration tests, a dose of preformed chloramine (approximately 4 275 mg/L) was added to the feed reservoir to observe effects due to the chloramine addition. At 276 the end of each biofouling experiment, the membrane coupon was carefully removed and the 277 membranes were preserved for confocal microscopic observation. 278

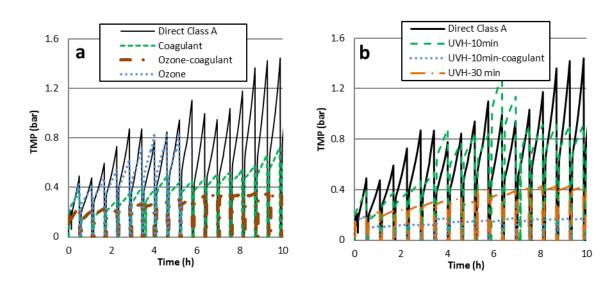
279

280 Results and Discussion

281 Ceramic membrane operation performance

Figure 1 shows the transmembrane pressure (TMP) profile of each process operated at constant CMF flux of 130 L/(m².h). Figure 1a shows TMP profiles during filtration of direct Class A water, and the same waters after adding coagulant, ozone and their combination. The results showed that feeding the Class A water directly to the ceramic membrane led to rapid fouling as observed from the rapid rise in TMP to 1.4 bar within 10 h of filtration time for 130 L/(m².h) flux operation. The fouling rate for direct Class A water increased from 0.64 to 1.6 bar/h at the first (1st) and last (17th) filtration cycle respectively.

289



290

Figure 1: TMP rises as a function of time for direct Class A feed, coagulant feed, ozone feed
and ozone-coagulant feed (a) and UVH-10 min, UVH-30 min and UVH-10 min-coagulant
feed (b). All fluxes were fixed at 130 L/(m².h).

294

Under the same operating conditions, when 3 mg (as Al^{3+})/L of polyaluminium chloride 296 (PACl) coagulant was dosed prior to the membrane, TMP rise was reduced. Compared to 297 direct Class A feed, TMP rose more slowly and approached 0.68 bar for the same volume of 298 water filtered. The reduction was mostly associated with reduced rises between backwashes. 299 When ozone only was added to the feed water, the TMP showed a reduced rise between 300 backwashes initially. Using either coagulant or ozone, the gradual build-up of TMP over the 301 course of the run appeared similar to direct Class A water feed. In the case of ozone, it has 302 303 been recently reported that reduced TMP rise between backwashes could be due to the reduced flow resistance in the oxidised organic matter accumulated on the membrane surface 304 [9]. However, when ozone and coagulation are combined, both overall and between backwash 305 TMP rises were greatly reduced. The finding is supported in pilot trials of CMF on recycled 306 wastewater where ozone was observed to reduce the TMP rise during filtration while 307 coagulation reduced TMP rise after each backwash [1, 2]. Using the data in Figure 1 and 308 Equation 1, change in fouling rate can be calculated to compare performance. The fouling 309 rate increases by up to 150% during the 10 h filtration period for the direct Class A water. In 310 the case of ozone, this reduced to 112%, indicating for the chosen flux of 130 $L/(m^2.h)$ fouling 311 was increasing. When coagulant was instead applied, the change in fouling rate was similar. 312 However the change in fouling rate reduced significantly to 27% with the combined ozone-313 coagulant feed to the ceramic membrane. Coagulant and ozone thus inhibit the need for 314 chemically enhanced backwashes which remove irreversible foulants that cause accelerated 315 fouling rates [3]. The result here confirms the well-known effect of greatly enhanced 316 sustainable fluxes following coagulation and ozonation and the filtrate is suitable for 317 downstream RO processing. 318

319 Figure 1b demonstrates the TMP profile of each process operated at 130 L/(m^2.h) flux for direct Class A feed and feed pre-treated with UVH and combined UVH and coagulation process. 320 Longer UV treatment time from 10 minutes to 30 minutes greatly reduced TMP rise between 321 backwashes, which could be due to similar reasons of reduced filter cake resistance as observed 322 for ozone [9]. Spikes in TMP were observed for some filtration cycles from the 10 minute UVH 323 (UVH-10 min, Fig. 1b), exceeding the TMP of direct Class A feed between 3 and 7 hours. This 324 however was considered to be due to experimental issues, for example air accumulation in the 325 membrane tube which was removed during backwash. Importantly however, TMP rise rate 326 between backwashes was consistently lower than direct Class A highlighting the reduced filter 327 cake resistance. Coagulation was only added to the 10 minute UVH case as it showed a near 328 complete removal of TMP build-up in the 10 hour test period. The effect appears similar to that 329 for ozonation – coagulation treatment. The change in fouling rate was approximately 20%, 330 which is similar to the ozone-coagulant treated water. 331

The HIFIs shown in Table 2 show the normalised quantitative differences between the CMF filtration scenarios, where any oxidation process leads to significantly reduced fouling when used in conjunction with coagulation. Although either may be suitable, previous studies directed to RO membrane fouling benefits found UVH more expensive than ozone [15] suggesting the importance in considering cost in deciding to use either ozone or UVH.

338

<u>Pre-treatment</u>	<u>CMF HIFI (m²/L)</u>
Direct Class A	2.75
Coagulation	2.08
Ozone + Coagulation	1.25
UVH-10min +	
Coagulation	0.37

Table 2. HIFI on CMF for each pre-treated water

341

342 *Ceramic membrane treatment performance*

The measured quality indicators of the untreated Class A water feed and the various pre-343 treatments options are shown in Table 3. Originally, the feed water showed relatively high 344 DOC and low UV₂₅₄ absorbance. DOC removal was <10% for coagulation, ozone or UVH, but 345 when coagulation was combined with oxidation, DOC removal increased to 10% for 346 UVH+coagulation, and 18% for ozone+coagulation possibly by ozone enhanced coagulation 347 effects [42]. Coagulation reduced UV₂₅₄ absorbance by only 13%, but any combination with 348 oxidation led to significant reductions between 44% and 63%, where the highest was measured 349 in the ozone cases. 350

351

352 Table 3. Measured water quality indicators after various pre-treatment options prior to CMF

Pre-treatment	UV ₂₅₄	pН	DOC	SUVA
	(1/m)		(mg/L)	(L/(mg·m))
None (direct Class A)	16	7.43	9.1±0.4	1.74
Coagulation	14	7.53	8.3±0.3	1.70
Ozone	7	7.44	8.4±0.6	0.88
Ozone+coagulation	6	7.39	7.5±0.1	0.78
UVH	9	7.51	8.6±0.2	1.02
UVH+coagulation	8	7.57	8.2±0.4	1.02

353

354 Organic fractions within the various pre-treatment options stages were analysed more closely by LC-OCD and the results are shown in Figure 2. The LC-OCD analysis enables the 355 quantification of organic matter fractions including biopolymers (MW>>20,000 g/mol), humic 356 substances (MW~1000 g/mol), building blocks (MW 300-500 g/mol), low molecular weight 357 (LMW) substances (MW <350 g/mol) which are the sum of low molecular weight neutrals and 358 359 low molecular weight acids. The results show that feed water dissolved organic material consisted of 47% humic-like substances, 17% LMW substances, 14% building blocks, 12% 360 361 biopolymers and 10% hydrophobic organics. Membrane filtration (Figure 2a) removed mostly

the biopolymer proportion (60% removal) due to their high molecular weight and their sticky
properties. Humic substances were almost similar in concentration in the membrane permeate
and the feed. They can readily pass through the membrane pores of 0.1 μm in size. A small
fraction of large humic substances might be retained due to tortuosity effects. For the smaller
components (building blocks and LMW organics) slight increases were observed, which cannot
be explained and may be due to sample handling.

Considering the results with the pre-treatment options prior to CMF biopolymer removals of 368 68%, 60% and 71% for coagulation, ozone+coagulation and UVH+coagulation treatments 369 were observed respectively. Biopolymers are readily removed by coagulation [6] whereas 370 oxidation processes result in a breakdown of the large molecules and production of smaller 371 372 molecules which are harder to be removed by coagulation observed only in the case of ozone. At the first glance it seems that ozonation was more effective in breaking down the 373 biopolymers. However, due to the single sample analysis, it is questionable whether that effect 374 is significant. Application of CMF to complete these pre-treatment options did not contribute 375 376 to large additional differences in the biopolymer concentrations.

Removal of humic substances prior to CMF also occurred in all cases, but was highest in both 377 oxidation cases (Figures 2c and d) at about 40% as opposed to 21% for just coagulation. 378 Application of CMF did not appear to offer humic substances removal applied directly to the 379 feed or after coagulation, but some additional removal occurred after oxidation, leading to a 380 total humic substances removal of about 50% for both ozone and UVH cases. In the case of 381 382 building blocks, no noticeable concentration changes due to the pre-treatment prior to CMF were observed. However, unexpectedly concentrations of the LMW fractions were lower for 383 ozone and UVH than coagulation alone. Previous studies on ozone and UVH reaction with 384 385 wastewater organics coming from the conventional activated sludge process had shown increases in the proportion of LMW acids [8]. The LMW acids make up the LMW fractions 386 presented in Figure 2, and no increase was observed in our case potentially due to the lower 387 relative doses of ozone and UVH where LMW acid formation is lower. Also, while the 388 concentration of humic substances was similar in their work, our water contained less of the 389 other organic fractions and therefore had a different initial organic profile highlighting the 390 differences between various wastewater sources. 391

392

393

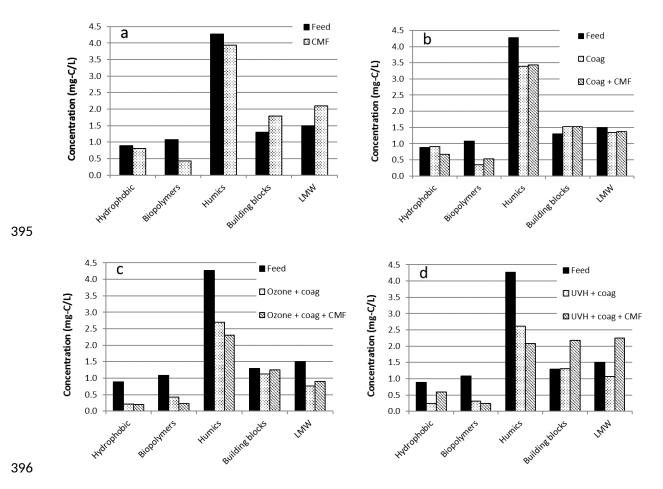


Figure 2: DOC fractionation after various stages within the pre-treatment options of CMF only
(a), coagulation+ CMF (b), ozone+ coagulation + CMF (c) and UVH+ coagulation + CMF (d).

When pre-treatments were used with CMF the membrane generally showed little change to the 400 relative profile of organics. This is expected due to the relatively large pore size $(0.1 \,\mu\text{m})$, but 401 in the case of CMF on its own (Figure 2a), the larger biopolymer molecules were rejected by 402 the membrane. As mentioned earlier, oxidation assisted the CMF to remove additional humic 403 substances. The only other exception was in the case of UVH, which showed unusually high 404 levels of building blocks and LMW organics in the permeate compared to the CMF feed. The 405 reason for this is unknown since the membrane is not expected to increase any organic fraction 406 unless it could come from particle organic matter as a result of advanced oxidation UVH. 407 However this would be the case if also seen in the UVH+coagulation sample. Contributions to 408 LMW fraction by oxidation of other dissolved organic fractions is also known [8], but is not 409 expected to have occurred in just this test with CMF, particularly since this effect occurs only 410 in very high UVH doses as compared to here. The potential for adsorbed organics to be released 411 from the membrane due to oxidation is also ruled out because the samples were taken in batch 412 from the oxidation process to the CMF test unit (enough time for residual oxidants to be 413 consumed prior to contacting membrane). This increase is therefore unexpected and because 414 415 only one sample was analysed, it may relate just to the experimental or preparation of this sample. 416

Considering differences between ozone and UVH, González et al [8] reported ozone and UVH 418 techniques lead to different impacts on the organic fractions as also assessed by LC-OCD. In 419 the case of ozone in Figure 2c, the effect in addition to coagulation (Figure 2b) showed its 420 selective nature participating in removal of humic substances and LMW organics. Low 421 biopolymers in CMF and coagulation+CMF cases were consistently lower in oxidised samples 422 423 hence the oxidation process (including peptide bond cleavage and depolymerisation of polysaccharides) did not lead to any observed breakthrough of biopolymer substances (proteins 424 and polysaccharides) to the CMF permeate. Ozone is also known to react preferably with the 425 highly aromatic humic substances, and the slightly aromatic and hydrophobic LMW neutrals 426 427 [43]. As shown in Figures 2c and d, the oxidation processes can also be seen to increase the hydrophilicity of the DOC, where no large removal of the hydrophobic organic fraction was 428 observed in CMF and coagulation+CMF cases, while oxidation led to 34% to 77% removal 429 across all the pre-treatment steps. In terms of aromaticity, oxidation led to a large reduction as 430 431 indicated by the SUVA results shown in Table 3. Although the humic substances were the mostly dominant organic fraction after pre-treatment, the oxidation processes are expected to 432 deplete the aromaticity of these organics by attack of double bonds and aromatic rings but not 433 to cleave them leading to structure loss, unless high oxidation doses are used where LMW 434 435 fractions are observed to increase [8]. The resistance of humic substances to oxidation has been proposed to be associated with steric obstruction preventing cleavage of the core molecular 436 bonds of humic structures [44]. These changes in chemical composition, together with their 437 lower overall relative abundance, could lead to the reduced fouling of RO membranes observed 438 previously [15, 16] and is expected to greatly alter the biofouling propensity. Both will be 439 explored later in this paper. 440

441

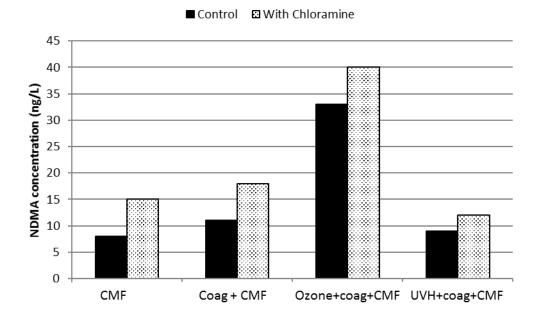
442 *N-nitrosamines analysis of ceramic membrane permeate*

Figure 3 shows NDMA concentrations observed after the various ceramic membrane pre-443 treatment processes. NDMA was detected in the CMF only treated water at 8 ng/L. 444 Coagulation+CMF showed a slightly higher NDMA concentration at 11 ng/L, while 445 ozone+coagulation+CMF caused a large increase to 33 ng/L. UVH+coagulation+CMF on the 446 447 other hand showed a concentration of 9 ng/L, being similar to the CMF or coagulation+CMF treated waters. Chloramine dosing tended to increase NDMA concentrations in any sample 448 by 7 ng/L, except for UVH which increased only by 3 ng/L. Ozone is important to achieving 449 the desirable high CMF fluxes, but clearly its impact to form NDMA is more critical than 450 chloramine which may be used to control RO membrane biofouling. Oxidation is known to 451 greatly reduce the potential for NDMA formation in drinking water application [45] however 452 ozone also induces NDMA formation when applied to wastewater. 7 out of 8 wastewater 453 treatment plants surveyed for DBP formation associated an increase in NDMA as a result of 454 the ozonation stage [46]. Biological filtration following ozone assisted in removing formed 455 NDMA. In the same work, the O_3 /DOC mass ratio was analysed, where plants showed ratios 456 ranging from 0.2 to 1.5 w/w. In our case, the ratio was 1.4 w/w as ozone dose was 13 mg-457

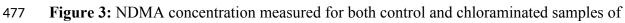
 O_3/L and DOC was 9.0 mg-C/L, which is at the higher end of their reported range. While this 458 higher DOC supports the ability for ozone to form NDMA, their survey of various plants 459 found no conclusive link to O₃/DOC mass ratio, where instead NDMA formation is more 460 likely dependant on the presence of precursors in the wastewater and the extent of treatment 461 462 by the upstream treatment plant. Krasner et al. [47] reported that NDMA can form during ozonation of a limited group of tertiary amine precursors present in drinking water (including 463 wastewater impacted source waters), although the association between ozonation and NDMA 464 465 formation has not yet been found.

The issue of increased NDMA formation from application of ozone upstream of RO has been 466 considered previously [15], where the reduced NDMA formation potential by ozone was not 467 468 offset by its role in producing NDMA. It was concluded that this will be important in applications where NDMA concentration is monitored, for example potable reuse. Use of 469 UVH to avoid NDMA in such applications may offset the potentially higher costs mentioned 470 earlier. Optimisation of the UV and H₂O₂ dose may find a means to achieve the desired 471 472 oxidation with lower energy [34]. The result in Figure 3 suggests that for consideration of the use of the recycled water, the choice of oxidation to achieve high CMF fluxes will have a 473 strong impact on NDMA formation while chloramine dosing will have less of an effect. 474

475



476



478 feed waters (dosed with 4 mg/L pre-formed chloramine) pre-treated with CMF,

481

482

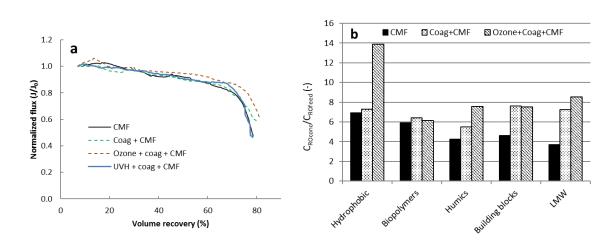
483 Impact of CMF pre-treatments on downstream RO

⁴⁷⁹ coagulant+CMF, ozone+coagulant+CMF and UVH+coagulant+ CMF. Chloraminated waters
480 used as RO feeds.

484 <u>RO performance during fouling loading</u>

The effect of fouling of the RO membranes pre-treated by CMF, coagulation+CMF, 485 ozone+coagulation+CMF and UVH+coagulation+CMF was compared and the data is shown 486 in Figure 4. In these cross-flow batch concentration runs, similar flux decline results were 487 observed for all pre-treatment modes indicating the accumulated fouling under any water feed 488 did not show differences in resistance of water flux through the membrane. The decline 489 experienced by all samples is likely due to the increasing salinity and in turn osmotic pressure 490 which reduces the flux. A slight benefit to performance, however, was observed for the 491 ozone+coagulation+CMF pre-treated water where the drop off in flux occurred at a slightly 492 higher recovery than the other samples. Previous research showed strong benefits of ozone or 493 UVH to prevent increasing flux resistance through the RO membrane between 70 and 120 494 hours of testing [34]. A key difference in our study was application of oxidation prior to 495 membrane filtration, where the CMF must follow from oxidation in order to achieve the high 496 flux effect. Oxidation in our case can therefore react with additional organics (i.e. biopolymers) 497 498 that are removed by membrane filtration (Figure 2), and may have minimised the differences to RO fouling resistance. However, unlike the previously reported benefits of oxidation and 499 the slight benefit from our testing with ozone, we did not see any benefit to RO membrane flux 500 as a result of UVH. Therefore based on our short term test result, applying oxidation prior to 501 502 CMF shows no significant advantage to RO membrane flux as a result of altered organic/inorganic fouling properties. . 503

504



505

Figure 4: Normalized flux decline versus permeate recovery (%) for various feeds (a) and ratio of concentrations of the various organic groups between RO concentrate and RO feed, C_{ROconc}/C_{ROfeed} , with various pre-treatments determined by LC-OCD (b).

The RO test aimed to simulate a RO plant where in a single housing, a series of elements (e.g., 7 elements) operating at effectively the same pressure at a given moment in time within the vessel have decreasing fluxes along the length of the vessel as a function of the concentration (water recovery). Lead elements have higher flux than tail elements. However, the fouling on the membranes in the bench setup differs from the real plant in that it is the same membrane

tested from the initial water rejected (lead element) to the final rejection (tail element). Fouling, 515 (including biofouling) on lead and tail elements has been investigated in pilot sea water and 516 wastewater RO plants showing very different behaviour unique to the fluxes and brine 517 concentrations that differ greatly along the membrane pressure vessel [48]. Respecting these 518 519 differences that are more difficult to replicate at bench scale, the test conducted here conveniently and quickly shows the average fouling across all elements. Tail elements with 520 higher brine concentrations (70% recovery) were shown to have higher degree of mineral 521 522 scaling over biofouling [48]. Therefore, the foulant here represents accumulated organic and inorganic substances across the entire rejection range. 523

EC for both RO concentrate and permeate at 80% volume recovery are summarised for each 524 525 pre-treated water type (with CMF) in Table 4. Prior to testing with samples, benchmark rejection of 99.5% was confirmed using 2000 ppm NaCl at 15.5 bar for 15% recovery. Looking 526 at the permeates from sample testing, higher EC from oxidised samples was observed which 527 was related to the higher concentrations of the feeds used and not due to changes as a result of 528 529 ozone. This finding is supported by previous pilot trials which found no change in salt transport through the membrane due to altered chemical properties as a result of upstream ozone 530 treatment [15]. They also concluded that the ozone did not deteriorate the RO membrane as a 531 result of this observation after 3000 hours of pilot testing due to rapid quenching of ozone by 532 533 the organic and mineral components of the wastewater such that no harmful residual entered 534 the RO membrane unit.

535

Table 4: EC for RO feeds from various pre-treatments, as well as the concentrate and

Pre-treatment	RO feed (µS/cm)	RO concentrate	RO permeate
		(µS/cm)	(µS/cm)
CMF	1298	5470	82
Coagulation+CMF	1298	6660	76
Ozone+coagulation+CMF	1326	6130	158
UVH+coagulation+CMF	1348	5560	102

537 permeate collected at the end of the runs

538

An increase in permeate conductivity due to charged organics from oxidation diffusing though the membrane was also not likely, where previous testing on two wastewater sources found similar or slightly lower DOC concentrations in RO permeates for ozone+CMF treated wastewaters compared to untreated wastewater feeds [17]. Due to the focus in this work on the process train performance and membrane fouling, further analysis of the RO permeate was not conducted but would be an interesting suitable topic for future work to compare the differences between the processes.

Potential depositions on the RO membrane could be explored by observing the organicfractions concentration factors presented in Figure 4b (concentration ratio in the RO

548 concentrate, C_{ROconc} , to the feed, C_{ROfeed}). Factors of 5 would be expected for volume recovery 549 of 80% if little permeated the membrane, or came out of solution (either by precipitation in the 550 system or deposition on the membrane). However, the ratios were instead mostly around 7 and 551 lower, suggesting that the recovery based on the concentration ratio was closer to 85%. The 552 exception to this was the very large ratio (13.9) for the hydrophobic organics in 553 ozone+coagulation+CMF pre-treated water which will be discussed later.

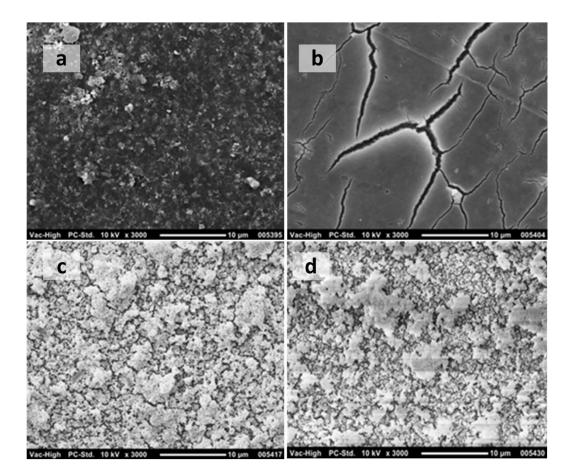
The hydrophobic fraction ratios was similar for CMF only (6.9) to coagulant + CMF (7.3), and 554 close to the concentration ratio around 7 indicating little permeation or deposition of these 555 fractions. Ozone+coagulation+CMF showed a very high ratio (13.9) where C_{ROfeed} was low due 556 to oxidation, but increased more than the RO concentration factor. It cannot be concluded from 557 558 the present data if this was due to an effect to increase hydrophobic property of organics due to concentrating, or sensitivity of the ratio to low feed concentration of hydrophobic organics 559 (0.2 mg-C/L). Looking at biopolymers, all ratios where much closer between 5.9 and 6.4, and 560 lower than the concentration ratio of ~7. Due to their high molecular weight, biopolymers are 561 562 not expected to permeate the membrane and therefore it is suggested they are deposited within the concentrate cycle including depositing on the membrane. In all pre-treatment cases, it is 563 possible that biopolymers contributed to membrane organic fouling. Humic substance 564 concentration ratios on the other hand were different in all RO pre-treatment cases. For CMF 565 566 only, a lower ratio of 4.3 for humics can be seen suggesting their limited ability to concentrate and potential to deposit on, or diffuse through, the membrane. With coagulation+CMF, then 567 ozone+coagulation+CMF, progressively higher increases in humic substance proportions 568 reaching the concentration expected for reduced deposition, or complete rejection, by the 569 membrane. This is especially the case when they were reacted by ozone where it approached 570 the system concentration ratio of ~7. Building blocks and LMW organics, which showed higher 571 deposition on, or passage through, the RO membrane with just CMF and in turn lower increase 572 573 in the RO concentrate, suddenly reached the full concentration factor apparently due just to coagulation. Their association with coagulant appears to have inhibited their ability to attach 574 575 to or transport through the membrane, and they instead concentrate in the RO brine.

576

577 SEM images of the membrane surface taken at the end of the RO treatment process are shown in Figure 5. An SEM image of the original RO membrane is presented in the Supplementary 578 Material Figure S3 for reference. The images of the fouled RO membranes show that each 579 580 treatment type used in conjunction with the ceramic membrane led to very different structural features of the fouling layer deposited on the RO membranes. CMF pre-treated water led to a 581 582 uniformly grainy textured material, with particles around 0.55 µm and less in diameter appearing embedded within a smooth polymeric-like material. The particles may have 583 originally been small enough to permeate the 0.1 µm CMF membrane, and agglomerate on the 584 RO membrane surface. When coagulation+CMF pre-treated water was used, a very smooth 585 texture appeared with no visible particles. It appears the application of coagulant facilitated 586 587 removal of the particulate matter by the ceramic membrane. The fouling layers of the ozone+coagulation+CMF and UVH+coagulation+CMF pre-treated water were similar to each 588 other and very different to CMF or coagulation only pre-treatments. They uniquely showed a 589

grainy texture of highly variable agglomerates of $<1 \mu m$ to several μm in size. It appears that 590 the material that permeated through the CMF after oxidation by ozone or UVH formed 591 aggregated structures rather than a smooth, continuous gel layer as observed for coagulation or 592 direct filtration of the wastewater. A different result was observed on bench and pilot tests 593 594 where RO membranes were fouled with ozonated MBR filtrate. While dense fouling layers were also observed with original (not oxidised) wastewaters, the fouling layer from the 595 ozonated wastewater was also more open [16], but did not show a grainy texture as observed 596 here. This may relate to differences in the wastewater, ozone dose approach, and final water 597 recoveries. Aggregation of biopolymers following ozonation has been observed by Yu et al for 598 synthetic water systems [9]. The aggregates were used to explain mechanisms of reduced or 599 increased fouling of a 10 to 20 nm UF membrane as a result of increasing sizes of alginate and 600 model protein BSA, respectively. While the focus of their work was the fouling of the UF 601 membrane, their results showed the aggregation mechanisms which could relate to organics in 602 603 the CMF permeate which will be fed to RO.

604



605

Figure 5: SEM images of fouled RO membranes, including membrane fouled with CMF only
 treated water (a), with coagulation + CMF (b), ozone + coagulant + CMF and (c) UVH +
 coagulation + CMF (d). Original membrane without fouling shown in Supplementary Material
 Figure S3.

At the end of the RO experiments (i.e., after 80% volume recovery), the membranes were rinsed 611 with clean water and clean water flux was measured. When rinsing with clean water the loosely 612 attached foulants could be expected to detach during hydraulic cleaning, and reversible fouling 613 is a measure of flux that could be restored after hydraulic cleaning. Clean water fluxes of 8.6, 614 20, 16 and 13 L/(m².h) were measured for membrane previously exposed to CMF, 615 coagulation+CMF, ozone+coagulation+CMF and UVH+coagulation+CMF pre-treated feeds, 616 respectively. The higher clean water flux represents higher fouling reversibility, comparing to 617 the new membrane clean water flux of 22 $L/(m^2.h)$ as shown in Figure S4 in the Supplementary 618 Material. Therefore, the action of coagulation (together with ozonation and UVH treatment), 619 on the organics leads to greater fouling reversibility on the RO membranes. Coagulation on its 620 own was most superior in reversing fouling, while either oxidation in addition to coagulation 621 showed less reversibility. This may be due to texture differences of the oxidised foulants as 622 shown in Figure 5, or potentially their chemical differences, where less fouling material was 623 624 removed due to simple water rinsing. The ability of clean water to more easily remove fouling matter after ozone application (without coagulant) was also found by Zhang et al. [17]. In 625 practice, a treatment process that leads to high membrane fouling reversibility suggests that 626 627 less intensive chemical cleaning will be required for the downstream RO membranes.

628

629 <u>Biofouling potential tests</u>

Table 5 shows the BDOC test results specifically for waters pre-treated to be fed to RO. No 630 significant change in BDOC was observed between CMF or coagulation+CMF pre-treatment. 631 632 BDOC however increased after ozone, ozone+coagulation, UVH and UVH+coagulation prior to CMF pre-treatments. This indicates that the oxidation processes used to increase CMF flux 633 lead to increased biodegradability, and in turn increases the potential for biofouling if fed 634 directly to RO as proposed in our work. It is more common in practice for biological filtration 635 to follow oxidation especially to avoid the biofouling risk [49]. For example a biologically 636 activated carbon (BAC) filter was installed between the ozone-ceramic membrane and RO 637 processes, and found to remove 30% to 50% of the DOC [19] and no biofouling issues were 638 identified over 9 months of operation [18]. However, the focus of this work was to assess the 639 potential for biofouling where BAC pre-treatment before RO may not be required, and 640 increased ability to assimilate organics may not directly correlate to the ability for a biofilm to 641 form on the RO membrane. 642

643

644

645

646

648 Table 5. Biodegradability of water samples after various pre-treatments, including those used

649 as feed to RO

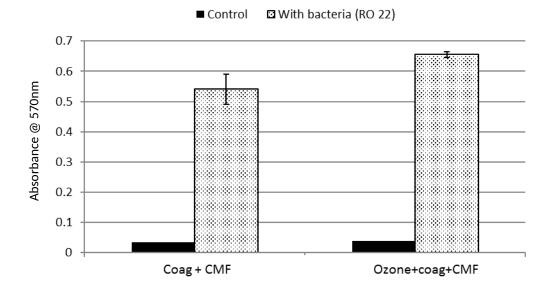
Due tuestue ent	BDOC	RDOC*	DOC	BDOC
Pre-treatment	mg/L	mg/L	mg/L	% of DOC
CMF	0.50	7.83	8.33	6.0
Coagulation+CMF	0.49	7.87	8.36	5.9
Ozone +CMF	1.34	6.46	7.80	17.2
Ozone+ coagulation +CMF	1.17	6.11	7.28	16.1
UVH+CMF	1.11	6.82	7.93	14.0
UVH+coagulation+CMF	1.08	6.75	7.83	13.8

650 *RDOC = Refractory dissolved organic carbon = Total DOC – BDOC

651

652 <u>Bioassay results</u>

The bioassay analysis showed that the concentration of bacterial cells in the 653 ozone+coagulation+CMF treated water was ~ 20% higher than coagulation+CMF treated 654 water (Figure 6). The results also suggest that bacteria can grow in a liquid medium of 655 ozone+coagulation+CMF treated water, which could be rich in assimilable carbon (and 656 potentially nutrients) compared to coagulation+CMF treated water since more biodegradable 657 organic carbon is present. This confirms the BDOC finding, where more DOC was removed 658 659 by biological activity. However, improved assimilability of organics does not directly indicate RO biofouling as attachment of cells to the membrane surface and formation of a biofilm, 660 rather than BDOC only, decides whether the water has more or less ability to facilitate 661 biofouling. 662

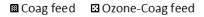


663

Figure 6: Absorbance measurement at 570 nm of RO 22 bacteria suspension of each water.
Error bars show standard error calculated form the standard deviation.

Figure 7 shows the absorbance of biofilm after removing the bacterial suspension for control, 667 coagulant and ozone-coagulant feeds after 48 h. The preformed chloramine (NH₂Cl) was 668 dosed at different concentrations to the feed samples with bacteria (RO 22) to observe its 669 effect on inhibiting growth of the biofilm. It was observed that the presence of biofilm growth 670 was slightly less for ozone-coagulation treated water compared to coagulation alone treated 671 water as indicated by lower light absorbances. Interestingly, the biofilm assay showed 672 chloramine had no measurable impact on the biofilm growth control or its removal. However, 673 674 its known application to control biofouling in RO membranes may work differently to inhibiting biofilm growth which are discussed later during the accelerated RO biofouling 675 tests. 676

677 Another interesting feature of the crystal violet assay was the consistently lower biofilm formation when ozone was used. While it was observed that cell growth is enhanced in the 678 presence of water that was treated by ozone (Table 5 and Figure 6), the formation of an actual 679 biofilm which is responsible for biofouling of RO membranes appears suppressed. Biofouling 680 681 is a complex phenomenon, and recent research has shown that MF pre-treatment of wastewater leads to enhanced biofilm formation [23]. This was found to be due to the removal 682 of 'antibiofilm' substances that inhibited growth of the model bacterium Pseudomonas 683 aeruginosa PAO1. The MF membrane allowed the passage of lectin-like humics which were 684 685 able to attach to the RO membrane to form a conditioning layer which in turn facilitated 686 bioadhesion. In our case, it is possible that the lectin-like humic substances were significantly altered by ozone action which reduced their ability to form the essential conditioning layer 687 needed for biofilm establishment. Indeed as shown earlier, ozone action on organics reduced 688 the proportion of humic and hydrophobic substances (Figure 2c) and reduced aromaticity 689 (Table 3). Also, it was noted during analysis of the RO concentrate (Figure 4b), that humic 690 substances can deposit on, or permeate into, the RO membrane which implies they can attach 691 692 to the polyamide membrane material and further facilitate bioadhesion. The action of ozone to alter their properties limited their ability to be transported through the CMF membrane 693 694 (Figure 2c), but also apparently improved their ability to be rejected by the RO membrane (Figure 4b). 695



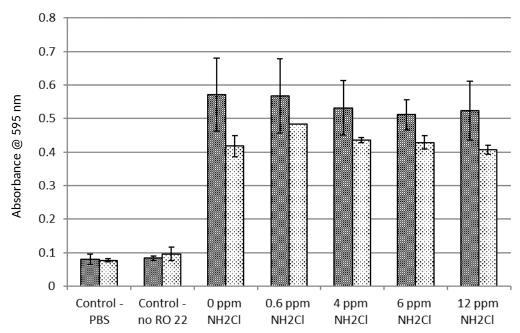


Figure 7: Crystal violet assay measurement at 595 nm for cell density and biofilm
production by each water. Error bars show standard error calculated form the standard
deviation.

700

701 Accelerated RO biofouling test

RO membranes were tested for accelerated biofouling in a cross flow system of two selected 702 water solutions spiked with RO22 bacteria: coagulation+CMF with chloramine (dosed 2 703 704 hours prior to finishing the RO test) and ozone+coagulation+CMF without chloramine 705 dosing. A control with chloramine dosing but no RO22 bacteria was also run. The results of the tests showing the thickness of the fouling layers formed measured by confocal microscopy 706 are presented in Table 6. The addition of RO22 led to additional fouling from biofilm growth 707 on the RO membranes, despite the addition of chloramine. This further supports the crystal 708 violet assay result in Figure 7 where no change in biofilm formation was observed as a result 709 710 of chloramine dosing. The solution treated with ozone showed slightly thicker fouling layer thickness compared to coagulant only. The thickness of the fouling layer in Table 6 was 711 greater than without ozone, which is the opposite trend to that in Figure 7 which may be due 712 to differences between composite fouling layers and biofilms, as well as effects of permeation 713 and cross flow that occur in the case of RO operation. The differences in the results of the RO 714 biofilm for the crystal violet assay will be now looked at more closely using confocal 715 microscopy to observe the abundance of bacterial cells within the biofilm. 716

718 The confocal images presented in Figure 8 show the presence of live (green) and dead (red) cells. In the Figure, x represents the distance from the RO membrane surface, and l represents 719 the estimated total fouling layer thickness from Table 6. The ratio x/l is therefore the relative 720 distance from the RO membrane surface to the fouling layer surface facing the flowing 721 solution. A few live (green) cells appeared on the control membrane without the addition of 722 RO 22, reflecting the presence of low levels of bacteria in the system. In experiments with 723 spiked RO22, many more cells were observed on the membranes. Looking more closely we 724 can see varying quantities and proportions of live and dead cells as a function distance from 725 the membrane surface. For the membrane with coagulant only and chloramine added 2 hours 726 prior to finishing the RO run, live and dead cells were seen near the top of the fouling layer 727 facing the flowing solution at x/l = 0.93 (Supplementary Material Figure S6). Readily 728 available chloramine in the solution was potentially responsible for killing these sessile 729 bacteria. Going deeper to near half the fouling layer thickness (x/l=0.47) in Figure 8 we again 730 731 see a proportion of both dead (red) and live (green) cells. Closer to the membrane surface (x/l)= 0.20 in Figure 8), there were predominantly green (live) cells suggesting that chloramine 732 was not effective for killing these cells, possibly because they were sheltered by the fouling 733 734 layer above. From the thickness of 4 µm to the membrane surface, cells were predominantly 735 dead (red) (observed at x/l = 0.07 in Figure 8), indicating that the cells that first attached to the membrane surface did not survive during the run, potentially as a result of depletion of 736 nutrients required for cell growth as the water diffuses through the fouling layer. Right at the 737 membrane surface (x/l = 0) no cells were found. This could potentially be the conditioning 738 layer, having a thickness of around 2 µm. 739

740 In the case of ozone treated water (without chloramine) no cells were seen from the top of the fouling layer facing the flowing solution down to x/l = 0.33 as shown in Figure 8. However 741 reaching x/l = 0.27 saw abundant numbers of predominantly live (green) cells. Like the 742 743 coagulation pre-treated RO feed, few cells were seen 2 µm from the RO membrane surface (x/l = 0.06), but some dead cells appeared at 4.0 µm (Supplementary Material Figure S7). So 744 745 despite the thicker fouling layer in the presence of ozone treated water as measured by confocal microscopy, it appears the microbial population was much more limited in its 746 thickness compared to the coagulant+CMF pre-treated water case. 747

- Table 6: Fouling layer thickness measured after 22 h cross flow RO run with different watersamples spiked with RO22 bacteria. Chloramine added 2 hours prior to completion of the RO
- test (except for ozone-coagulant where no chloramine was dosed).

Water sample	Biofilm thickness, <i>l</i> (µm)
Coagulant only (control with no RO22 and with 4 mg/L chloramine)	18
Coagulant only (RO22 with 4 mg/L chloramine)	30
Ozone-coagulant (RO22 no chloramine)	36

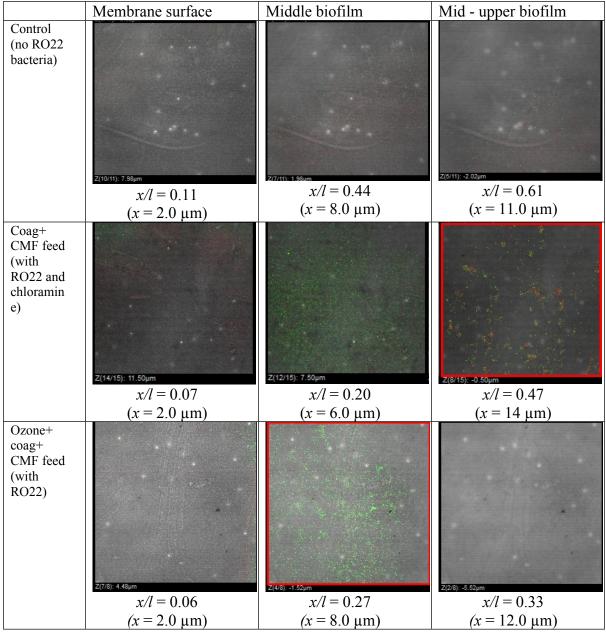


Figure 8: Confocal images of RO membrane fouled by selected pre-treated wastewaters. The distance from the membrane surface is represented by x, and shown as the ratio to the estimated total fouling layer thickness l observed in the confocal imaging.

In considering the application of ozone prior to RO, in a previous pilot trial the lack of 757 biofouling observed was attributed to the use of BAC to digest organics prior to RO [18, 19]. 758 However it may not be required to utilise BAC in all cases. In the 3000 hour pilot trial of RO 759 fed with MBR effluent (one train with added ozone, the other direct from MBR), no 760 operational issues due to biofouling were observed [15]. In fact, they concluded the train with 761 ozone had less biofouling as observed from protein analysis on the lead elements. Therefore, 762 while the biodegradability of organics increases as per the well-known effect of ozone and 763 UVH as shown in Table 5, the prior pilot trial results and our biofouling potential assessment 764 shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8 show that increased biodegradability of organics does not 765

necessarily lead to increased biofilm formation on RO membranes. On the contrary, both our 766 bioassay result (Figure 7), and the previously reported pilot trial, support the concept that 767 ozone reduces biofouling potential. This could be related to the reduced adhesion of organics 768 on the surface of the membrane that form the conditioning layer needed for a biofilm to 769 770 commence growth where recent studies have attributed lectin-like humics, which readily pass MF membranes, as being a key compound in forming the conditioning layer leading to RO 771 membrane biofouling [23]. Ozone was shown earlier to generally reduce aromaticity and the 772 hydrophobic proportion of organics, and in particular to reduce the proportion of humic 773 substances in the organics. Removal of humics was even more enhanced by CMF after 774 oxidation (Figure 2) and less likely to deposit or diffuse into the RO membrane (Figure 4b). 775 Further, the oxidised foulants loaded on the RO membranes were more porous (Figure 5). 776 These may have played a key role in limiting the thickness of the active biofilm, despite the 777 organics being more easily assimilable. It appears that ozone (and potentially UVH) treatment 778 779 prior to RO is not likely to create additional biofouling operation issues. However, further work is needed to confirm similar benefits on other wastewater matrices and process 780 conditions. 781

782

The results presented here are representative of a real system, but do not take into account fouling by the actual biomass present in wastewaters, which vary with water source, for example from sea water to wastewater, as well as between lead and tail elements [48]. Further testing is recommended using long term pilot trials on the water to be treated, particularly at recoveries typical of wastewater RO plants (70% to 90%). This would give a more precise determination of actual biofouling risks and location along the membrane using indigenous biological communities.

790

791 Conclusions

In the current study, pre-treatments of RO feed water with coagulation and oxidation processes
and filtration with ceramic membranes were proposed for application in wastewater recycling.
The main outcomes and recommendations from this work were as follows:

- More sustainable TMP at high CMF flux was achieved when oxidation (either ozone or UVH) and coagulation was applied to the feed water from the WWTP;
- LC-OCD analysis of the various pre-treated waters used as RO feeds showed that CMF can remove the biopolymers and coagulation removes humic substances. Oxidation by ozone or UVH also removed biopolymers, but had a further effect on reducing humic substances concentration. An unconfirmed increase in building blocks and LMW organics was observed in the UVH+coagulation+CMF permeate;
- NDMA analysis of various pre-treated water samples showed an increase in NDMA formation for all samples with chloramine addition, being similar except for UVH which showed a lower relative increase. NDMA increase however was more significant when ozone was used, which could influence the decision for its use (e.g. potable reuse)

in achieving high CMF fluxes. UVH on the other hand showed no NDMA increase,
where instead it reduced it to lower than the incoming feed water and may be more
favourable in such cases where NDMA must be controlled as it also enables high CMF
fluxes;

- The use of ozone or UVH increased the biodegradable organic fraction and growth of 810 • RO22 bacteria in the wastewater, but crystal violet assay with RO22 bacteria showed 811 reduced formation of bacterial biofilm communities using ozone+coagulant+CMF 812 pre-treated waters compared to coagulant+CMF pre-treated. Accelerated RO 813 biofouling tests with RO22 bacteria confirmed the findings that despite having a 814 slightly thicker fouling layer, the active bacterial community in the ozone+coagulant+ 815 CMF treated water was greatly limited in proximity to the membrane surface 816 compared to coagulant+CMF treated water. This was attributed to the reduction of 817 818 humic fraction concentrations and alteration of humic chemical properties (including reduced aromaticity), and formation of more porous fouling layers on RO membranes 819 which are less adhesive and more easily removed by flowing water. The findings 820 provide evidence that biofouling due to biofilm formation on RO membranes may not 821 822 be an issue if upstream oxidation is applied to achieve high CMF fluxes; and
- Chloramine added to biofouling tests did not reduce cell activity in biofilms, but
 appeared to assist in killing bacteria in the biofilm which extended more into the bulk
 fluid;

826 Practical use of CMF as a pre-treatment for RO in advanced water treatment schemes is 827 recommended. However for achieving the high CMF fluxes needed for economical use of ceramic membranes, options must consider the impact of oxidation where ozone leads to 828 potential for NDMA formation while UVH instead could require significant energy. Long term 829 pilot trials in specific contexts are recommended to further explore fouling and operating 830 831 requirements. As shown in our work with ozone, and as supported by bench and pilot tests by other researchers, oxidation applied upstream of RO leads to minimised organic and biofouling 832 maintenance issues. 833

834

835 Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge the financial support of City West Water, and the National Centre of Excellence in Desalination Australia which is funded by the Australian Government through the National Urban Water and Desalination Plan. The contributions to the project and work presented in this paper by Dr David Halliwell from Water Research Australia and Chris Arabatzoudis from City West Water are gratefully acknowledged.

841

842

011	
845	List of abbreviations
846	BAC: biological activated carbon
847	BDOC: biodegradable dissolved organic carbon
848	BSA: bovine serum albumin
849	CMF: ceramic microfiltration
850	DOC: dissolved organic carbon
851	DBP: disinfection by-product
852	HIFI: hydraulic irreversible fouling index
853	LC-OCD: liquid size exclusion chromatography with organic carbon detection
854	LMW: low molecular weight
855	MF: microfiltration
856	MBR: membrane bioreactor
857	NDMA: N-nitrosodimethylamine
858	PACI: polyaluminium chloride
859	PS: polysulfone
860	PVDF: polyvinylidene fluoride
861	RO: reverse osmosis
862	SEM: scanning electron microscopy
863	SRP: salt reduction plant
864	SUVA: specific UV absorbance
865	TDS: total dissolved solids
866	TMP: transmembrane pressure
867	TOrC: trace organic compounds
868	TSB: tryptone soy broth
869	UF: ultrafiltration

870 UMFI: unified membrane fouling index

- 871 UVH: ultraviolet/hydrogen peroxide
- 872 WWTP: wastewater treatment plant

874 **References**

- 876 [1] S.G. Lehman and L. Liu, Application of ceramic membranes with pre-ozonation for treatment of 877 secondary wastewater effluent. Water Research, 2009. **43**(7): p. 2020-2028.
- [2] N. Dow, D. Murphy, J. Clement, and M. Duke, Outcomes of the Australian Ozone/Ceramic
 Membrane Trial on Secondary Effluent. AWA Water, 2013. 40(6): p. 45-51.
- [3] N. Dow, J. Roehr, D. Murphy, L. Solomon, J. Mieog, J. Blackbeard, S. Gray, N. Milne, B. Zhu, A.
 Gooding, J. Currie, G. Roeszler, J. Clement, and M. Duke, *Fouling mechanisms and reduced chemical potential of ceramic membranes combined with ozone*. Water Practice & Technology, 2015. **10**(4): p. 806-813.
- [4] J. Haberkamp, A.S. Ruhl, M. Ernst, and M. Jekel, Impact of coagulation and adsorption on DOC
 fractions of secondary effluent and resulting fouling behaviour in ultrafiltration. Water
 Research, 2007. 41(17): p. 3794-3802.
- [5] W.S. Guo, S. Vigneswaran, and H.H. Ngo, Effect of flocculation and/or adsorption as pretreatment
 on thecritical flux of crossflow microfiltration. Desalination, 2005. 172(1): p. 53-62.
- [6] E. Vasyukova, R. Proft, J. Jousten, I. Slavik, and W. Uhl, Removal of natural organic matter and trihalomethane formation potential in a full-scale drinking water treatment plant. Water
 Science and Technology: Water Supply, 2013. 13(4): p. 1099-1108.
- [7] L. Fan, T. Nguyen, F.A. Roddick, and J.L. Harris, *Low-pressure membrane filtration of secondary effluent in water reuse: Pre-treatment for fouling reduction.* Journal of Membrane Science,
 2008. 320(1-2): p. 135-142.
- [8] O. González, A. Justo, J. Bacardit, E. Ferrero, J.J. Malfeito, and C. Sans, *Characterization and fate of effluent organic matter treated with UV/H2O2 and ozonation*. Chemical Engineering Journal, 2013. 226(0): p. 402-408.
- [9] W. Yu, D. Zhang, and N.J.D. Graham, Membrane fouling by extracellular polymeric substances after
 ozone pre-treatment: Variation of nano-particles size. Water Research, 2017. 120: p. 146-155.
- [10] S. Lee, K. Lee, W.M. Wan, and Y. Choi, Comparison of membrane permeability and a fouling
 mechanism by pre-ozonation followed by membrane filtration and residual ozone in
 membrane cells. Desalination, 2005. **178**(1): p. 287-294.
- M. Hashino, Y. Mori, Y. Fujii, N. Motoyama, N. Kadokawa, H. Hoshikawa, W. Nishijima, and M.
 Okada, Pilot plant evaluation of an ozone-microfiltration system for drinking water treatment.
 Water Science and Technology, 2000. 41(10-11): p. 17-23.
- 906 [12] Y.G. Park, Effect of ozonation for reducing membrane-fouling in the UF membrane. Desalination,
 907 2002. 147(1): p. 43-48.
- [13] X. Wang, L. Wang, Y. Liu, and W. Duan, Ozonation pretreatment for ultrafiltration of the secondary
 effluent. Journal of Membrane Science, 2007. 287(2): p. 187-191.
- [14] B. Zhu, Y. Hu, S. Kennedy, N. Milne, G. Morris, W. Jin, S. Gray, and M. Duke, *Dual function filtration and catalytic breakdown of organic pollutants in wastewater using ozonation with titania and alumina membranes.* Journal of Membrane Science, 2011. **378**(1-2): p. 61-72.
- [15] B.D. Stanford, A.N. Pisarenko, S.A. Snyder, and R.D. Holbrook, *Pilot-scale oxidative technologies* for reducing fouling potential in water reuse and drinking water membranes. 2013, Water
 Reuse Association.
- [16] B.D. Stanford, A.N. Pisarenko, R.D. Holbrook, and S.A. Snyder, *Preozonation effects on the reduction of Reverse Osmosis Membrane Fouling in Water Reuse*. Ozone: Science & Engineering, 2011. 33(5): p. 379-388.

- [17] J. Zhang, K. Northcott, M. Duke, P. Scales, and S.R. Gray, *Influence of pre-treatment combinations* on RO membrane fouling. Desalination, 2016. **393**: p. 120-126.
- [18] J. Zhang, A. Knight, M. Duke, K. Northcott, M. Packer, P.J. Scales, and S.R. Gray, A new integrated
 potable reuse process for a small remote community in Antarctica. Process Safety and
 Environmental Protection, 2016. 104, Part A: p. 196-208.
- [19] J. Zhang, M. Duke, K. Northcott, M. Packer, M. Allinson, G. Allinson, K. Kadokami, J. Tan, S. Allard,
 J.-P. Croué, A. Knight, P. Scales, and S. Gray, *Small scale direct Potable Reuse (DPR) Project for a Remote Area*. Water, 2017. 9(2): p. 94.
- [20] B.S. Oh, H.Y. Jang, Y.J. Jung, and J.-W. Kang, *Microfiltration of MS2 bacteriophage: Effect of ozone* on membrane fouling. Journal of Membrane Science, 2007. **306**(1–2): p. 244-252.
- [21] S.T. Nguyen and F.A. Roddick, Effects of ozonation and biological activated carbon filtration on membrane fouling in ultrafiltration of an activated sludge effluent. Journal of Membrane
 Science, 2010. 363(1-2): p. 271-277.
- [22] K.I. Abdul Hamid, P. Sanciolo, S. Gray, M. Duke, and S. Muthukumaran, *Impact of ozonation and biological activated carbon filtration on ceramic membrane fouling*. Water Research, 2017.
- [23] H. Winters, T.H. Chong, A.G. Fane, W. Krantz, M. Rzechowicz, and N. Saeidi, The involvement of
 lectins and lectin-like humic substances in biofilm formation on RO membranes is TEP
 important? Desalination, 2016. **399**: p. 61-68.
- W.A. Mitch, J.O. Sharp, R.R. Trussell, R.L. Valentine, L. Alvarez-Cohen, and D.L. Sedlak, *N* Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) as a drinking water contaminant: a review. Environmental
 Engineering Science, 2004. 20(5): p. 389-404.
- P. Andrzejewski, B. Kasprzyk-Hordern, and J. Nawrocki, *N-nitrosodimethylamine* (NDMA)
 formation during ozonation of dimethylamine-containing waters. Water Research, 2008.
 42(4-5): p. 863-870.
- P. Andrzejewski and J. Nawrocki, *N*-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) as a product of potassium permanganate reaction with aqueous solutions of dimethylamine (DMA). Water Research, 2009. 43(5): p. 1219-1228.
- [27] T. Bond, J. Huang, M.R. Templeton, and N. Graham, Occurrence and control of nitrogenous disinfection by-products in drinking water A review. Water Research, 2011. 45(15): p. 4341-4354.
- [28] C.K. Schmidt and H.-J. Brauch, N,N-Dimethylsulfamide as precursor for N-Nitrosodimethylamine
 (NDMA) formation upon Ozonation and its Fate During Drinking Water Treatment.
 Environmental Science & Technology, 2008. 42(17): p. 6340-6346.
- [29] APHA, AWWA, and WEF, Standard methods for the examination of water & wastewater. 21st ed,
 ed. A. Eaton, L.S. Clesceri, A.E. Greenberg, and E.W. Rice. 2005: American Water Works
 Association (AWWA)
- [30] H. Bader, V. Sturzenegger, and J. Hoigné, Photometric method for the determination of low
 concentrations of hydrogen peroxide by the peroxidase catalyzed oxidation of N,N-diethyl-p phenylenediamine (DPD). Water Research, 1988. 22(9): p. 1109-1115.
- [31] D.T. Myat, M. Mergen, O. Zhao, M.B. Stewart, J.D. Orbell, and S. Gray, *Characterisation of organic* matter in IX and PACI treated wastewater in relation to the fouling of a hydrophobic
 polypropylene membrane. Water Research, 2012. 46(16): p. 5151-5164.
- [32] H. Huang, T.A. Young, and J.G. Jacangelo, Unified membrane fouling index for low Pressure
 Membrane Filtration of Natural Waters: Principles and Methodology. Environmental Science
 & Technology, 2008. 42(3): p. 714-720.
- [33] A.H. Nguyen, J.E. Tobiason, and K.J. Howe, Fouling indices for low pressure hollow fiber membrane
 performance assessment. Water Research, 2011. 45(8): p. 2627-2637.
- [34] A.N. Pisarenko, D. Yan, S.A. Snyder, and B.D. Stanford, *Comparing oxidative organic oouling Control in RO Membrane Applications*. IDA Journal of Desalination and Water Reuse, 2011.
 3(2): p. 45-49.

- [35] S.A. Huber, A. Balz, M. Abert, and W. Pronk, Characterisation of aquatic humic and non-humic matter with size-exclusion chromatography – organic carbon detection – organic nitrogen detection (LC-OCD-OND). Water Research, 2011. 45(2): p. 879-885.
- [36] S.A. Huber and F.H. Frimmel, A new method for the characterization of Organic Carbon in Aquatic
 Systems. International Journal of Environmental Analytical Chemistry, 1992. 49(1-2): p. 49-57.
- [37] J.C. Joret and Y. Levi, Methode rapide d'evaluation du carbone eliminable des eaux par voie
 biologique. Trib. Cebedeau, 1986. 510: p. 3-9.
- [38] C. Volk, C. Renner, P. Roche, H. Paillard, and J.C. Joret, *Effects of ozone on the production Of Biodegradable Dissolved Organic Carbon (BDOC) During Water Treatment*. Ozone: Science & Engineering, 1993. **15**(5): p. 389-404.
- [39] J.W.A. Charrois, M.W. Arend, K.L. Froese, and S.E. Hrudey, Detecting N-nitrosamines in drinking
 water at Nanogram per Liter Levels Using Ammonia Positive Chemical Ionization.
 Environmental Science & Technology, 2004. 38(18): p. 4835-4841.
- [40] G.A. O'Toole, Microtiter dish biofilm formation assay. Journal of Visualized Experiments : JoVE,
 2011(47): p. 2437.
- [41] V. Nagaraj, L. Skillman, D. Li, A. Foreman, Z. Xie, and G. Ho, *Characterisation of extracellular polysaccharides from bacteria isolated from a full-scale desalination plant*. Desalination, 2017.
 418: p. 9-18.
- 987 [42] M.R. Jekel, Flocculation effects of ozone. Ozone: Science & Engineering, 1994. 16(1): p. 55-66.
- [43] B. Domenjoud, N. Cortés-Francisco, R. Guastalli Andrea, J. Caixach, S. Esplugas, and S. Baig,
 Ozonation of municipal secondary ffluent; Removal of Hazardous Micropollutants and Related
 Changes of Organic Matter Composition, in Journal of Advanced Oxidation Technologies. 2011.
 p. 138.
- [44] R.H.S. Jansen, A. Zwijnenburg, W.G.J. van der Meer, and M. Wessling, *Outside-in trimming of humic Substances During Ozonation in a Membrane Contactor*. Environmental Science & Technology, 2006. 40(20): p. 6460-6465.
- [45] X. Liao, C. Chen, B. Yuan, J. Wang, and X. Zhang, Control of nitrosamines, THMs, and HAAs in heavily impacted Water With O3-BAC. Journal - American Water Works Association, 2017.
 109(6): p. E215-E225.
- 998 [46] D. Gerrity, A.N. Pisarenko, E. Marti, R.A. Trenholm, F. Gerringer, J. Reungoat, and E. Dickenson,
 999 Nitrosamines in pilot-scale and full-scale wastewater treatment plants with ozonation. Water
 1000 Research, 2015. 72: p. 251-261.
- [47] S.W. Krasner, W.A. Mitch, D.L. McCurry, D. Hanigan, and P. Westerhoff, *Formation, precursors, control, and occurrence of nitrosamines in drinking water: A review.* Water Research, 2013.
 47(13): p. 4433-4450.
- [48] M.T. Khan, M. Busch, V.G. Molina, A.-H. Emwas, C. Aubry, and J.-P. Croue, How different is the composition of the fouling layer of wastewater reuse and seawater desalination RO membranes? Water Research, 2014. 59: p. 271-282.
- [49] J.S. Vrouwenvelder and D. van der Kooij, *Diagnosis, prediction and prevention of biofouling of NF* and RO membranes. Desalination, 2001. **139**(1): p. 65-71.