## University of Wollongong

## **Research Online**

Faculty of Science, Medicine and Health - Papers: part A

Faculty of Science, Medicine and Health

1-1-2013

## N-nitrosamine rejection by nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes: The importance of membrane characteristics

Takahiro Fujioka University of Wollongong, tf385@uowmail.edu.au

Stuart J. Khan University of New South Wales, s.khan@unsw.edu.au

James A. McDonald University of New South Wales

Annalie Roux Veolia Water Australia

Yvan Poussade Veolia Water Australia, yvan.poussade@veoliawater.com.au

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://ro.uow.edu.au/smhpapers

Part of the Medicine and Health Sciences Commons, and the Social and Behavioral Sciences Commons

#### **Recommended Citation**

Fujioka, Takahiro; Khan, Stuart J.; McDonald, James A.; Roux, Annalie; Poussade, Yvan; Drewes, Jorg E.; and Nghiem, Long D., "N-nitrosamine rejection by nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes: The importance of membrane characteristics" (2013). *Faculty of Science, Medicine and Health - Papers: part A*. 259.

https://ro.uow.edu.au/smhpapers/259

Research Online is the open access institutional repository for the University of Wollongong. For further information contact the UOW Library: research-pubs@uow.edu.au

# N-nitrosamine rejection by nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes: The importance of membrane characteristics

## Abstract

The influence of membrane characteristics on the rejection of eight N-nitrosamines was investigated using one nanofiltration (NF), one seawater reverse osmosis (SWRO) and six low pressure reverse osmosis (LPRO) membranes. The rejection of the two lowest molecular weight N-nitrosamines, namely N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) and N-nitrosomethylethylamine (NMEA), varied in the range from 8-82% to 23-94%, respectively. In general, the rejection of NDMA and NMEA increased with decreasing membrane permeability. The impact of membrane characteristics became less important for higher molecular weight N-nitrosamines. Among the four LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2, LFC3, TFC-HR and 70LW) that are commonly used for water reclamation applications, similar rejections were obtained for NDMA (37-52%) and NMEA (69-82%). In addition, rejection values of NDMA and NMEA among two LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2 and 70LW) were almost identical when compared under variable permeate flux and feed temperature conditions. However, it is noteworthy that the ESPABmembrane could achieve very high rejection of NDMA (as high as 71%) despite having a similar permeability to the LPRO membranes. Results reported here suggest that membrane characteristics associated with permeability such as the pore size and thickness of the active skin layer can be a key factor determining N-nitrosamine rejection.

## Keywords

rejection, n, membrane, nanofiltration, characteristics, nitrosamine, reverse, osmosis, membranes, importance, GeoQuest

## Disciplines

Medicine and Health Sciences | Social and Behavioral Sciences

## **Publication Details**

Fujioka, T., Khan, S. J., McDonald, J. A., Roux, A., Poussade, Y., Drewes, J. E. & Nghiem, L. D. (2013). Nnitrosamine rejection by nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes: The importance of membrane characteristics. Desalination, 316 67-75.

#### Authors

Takahiro Fujioka, Stuart J. Khan, James A. McDonald, Annalie Roux, Yvan Poussade, Jorg E. Drewes, and Long D. Nghiem

membranes: the importance of membrane characteristics
Revised Version Submitted to
Desalination
January 2013
Takahiro Fujioka <sup>1</sup> , Stuart J. Khan <sup>2</sup> , James A. McDonald <sup>2</sup> , Annalie Roux <sup>3</sup> , Yvan Poussade <sup>4</sup> , and Jörg E. Drewes <sup>2, 5</sup> , Long D. Nghiem <sup>1,*</sup>
<sup>1</sup> Strategic Water Infrastructure Laboratory, School of Civil Mining and Environmental Engineering, The University of Wollongong, NSW 2522, Australia
<sup>2</sup> UNSW Water Research Centre, School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The University of New South Wales, NSW 2052, Australia
<sup>3</sup> Seqwater, Level 2, 240 Margaret Street, Brisbane, QLD 4000 Australia
<sup>4</sup> Veolia Water Australia, Level 15, 127 Creek Street, Brisbane, QLD 4000, Australia
<sup>5</sup> Advanced Water Technology Center (AQWATEC), Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, CO 80401, USA

<sup>18 \*</sup> Corresponding author: Long Duc Nghiem, Email: longn@uow.edu.au, Ph +61 2 4221 4590

## 19 Abstract

20 The influence of membrane characteristics on the rejection of eight N-nitrosamines was 21 investigated using one nanofiltration (NF), one seawater reverse osmosis (SWRO) and six low pressure reverse osmosis (LPRO) membranes. The rejection of the two lowest molecular 22 23 N-nitrosamines, namely N-nitrosodimethylamine weight (NDMA) and N-24 nitrosomethylethylamine (NMEA), varied in the range from 8-82% and 23-94%, respectively. 25 In general, the rejection of NDMA and NMEA increased with decreasing membrane 26 permeability. The impact of membrane characteristics became less important for higher 27 molecular weight N-nitrosamines. Among the four LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2, LFC3, 28 TFC-HR and 70LW) that are commonly used for water reclamation applications, similar 29 rejections were obtained for NDMA (37-52%) and NMEA (69-82%). In addition, rejection 30 values of NDMA and NMEA among two LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2 and 70LW) were 31 almost identical when compared under variable permeate flux and feed temperature 32 conditions. However, it is noteworthy that the ESPAB membrane could achieve very high 33 rejection of NDMA (as high as 71%) despite having a similar permeability to the LPRO 34 membranes. Results reported here suggest that membrane characteristics associated with 35 permeability such as the pore size and thickness of the active skin layer can be a key factor 36 determining N-nitrosamine rejection.

## 37 Keywords: Water recycling; N-nitrosamines; NDMA; reverse osmosis; nanofiltration.

## 39 **1. Introduction**

40 The occurrence of trace organic chemicals in reclaimed water has received significant scientific attention in recent years due to the practice of augmenting drinking water resources 41 42 with reclaimed water by an increasing number of municipalities. These trace organic 43 chemicals are numerous and although they have only been found in secondary treated effluent 44 at very low concentrations (i.e. several tens of nanograms per litre or less) some might lead to 45 adverse impacts on public health [1]. N-nitrosamines, which are an increasingly regulated 46 group of disinfection by-products, are notable examples of these trace organic chemicals [1]. 47 In recent years, extensive research has been conducted to elucidate the fate and formation of 48 N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) during water and wastewater treatment processes [2-3]. In 49 addition to NDMA, N-nitrosomorpholine (NMOR) is also frequently found in treated 50 wastewater, and NMOR concentration of as high as 12.7 µg/L has been detected in the 51 wastewater from an industrial catchment [4]. Other N-nitrosamines that are often detected in 52 treated effluent include N-nitrosomethylethylamine (NMEA), N-nitrosopyrrolidine (NPYR), 53 N-nitrosodiethylamine (NDEA), N-nitrosopiperidine (NPIP), N-nitrosodipropylamine 54 (NDPA), N-nitrosodi-n-butylamine (NDBA) and N-Nitrosodiphenylamine (NDPhA) [5-6]. 55 Most of these chemicals have been identified as probable human carcinogens [7-8]. For 56 recycled water intended for augmenting drinking water resources, Australia has set guideline 57 values for NDMA and NDEA at 10 ng/L and NMOR at 1 ng/L [9]. A notification level for 58 NDMA, NDEA and NDPA has also been established at 10 ng/L by the California Department 59 of Public Health [10].

60 In response to increasingly stringent regulations on reclaimed water quality, reverse osmosis (RO) treatment has been employed in most of the recent water reclamation systems intended 61 62 for potable reuse [11]. Because the salinity of municipal wastewater is significantly lower 63 than that of seawater, the so-called low pressure reverse osmosis (LPRO), and to a lesser 64 extent nanofiltration (NF), membranes could also be considered for these applications. These 65 membranes offer high separation performance but with a much lower applied pressure 66 compared to seawater reverse osmosis (SWRO) membranes [12]. LPRO membranes have 67 been reported to show high rejections of a wide range of trace organic chemicals [13-16]. 68 Nevertheless, NDMA rejections by LPRO membranes observed at pilot- and full-scale plants 69 are often low and highly variable [1].

70 Although most LPRO membranes available to date are able to achieve NaCl rejection of more 71 than 99% under similar recovery and flux conditions [17], there are no specific criteria for 72 selecting LPRO membranes in terms of the rejection of trace organic chemicals including N-73 nitrosamines. Several laboratory-scale studies have investigated the rejection of N-74 nitrosamines by several LPRO membranes in pure water matrices and reported NDMA 75 rejections to be in the range of 45 - 70% and the rejection of the other N-nitrosamines to be 76 over 75% [5, 18-19]. On the other hand, a recent laboratory-scale study carried out by Fujioka 77 et al. [20] demonstrated that LPRO membranes specifically designed for boron removal (such 78 as the ESPAB) may achieve as high as 80% NDMA rejection. These studies suggest that a 79 considerable variation in the rejection of N-nitrosamines exists amongst the LPRO 80 membranes. Operating conditions (such as feed pH, feed salt concentration, feed temperature 81 and permeate flux) can significantly influence the rejection of low molecular weight Nnitrosamines including NDMA [5, 18]. Because the reported rejection values currently 82 83 available in the literature were obtained under different filtration conditions, it is unclear 84 whether the significant variation in the rejection of NDMA by LPRO membranes can also be 85 attributed to intrinsic differences in separation efficiency among the membranes.

The aim of this study was to evaluate the impact of membrane characteristics on Nnitrosamine rejection. This investigation was carried out with eight NF and RO membranes, with a specific focus on LPRO membranes used for water reclamation applications. The rejection of N-nitrosamines was further examined under various permeate flux and feed temperatures to elucidate the impact of operating conditions on the rejection of Nnitrosamines and the underlying rejection mechanisms.

## 92 **2.** Materials and methods

## 93 2.1. RO membranes

94 Eight NF/RO membranes were selected for this study. They are thin film composite 95 membranes with a thin polyamide active skin layer on a porous polysulfone supporting layer. 96 The NF90 and ESPA1 membranes are typically used for brackish water treatment. The 97 ESPA2, LFC3, TFC-HR and 70LW are LPRO membranes which have been widely employed 98 for water reclamation applications [1, 21-23]. The ESPAB is another LPRO membrane which 99 is particularly designed to achieve a high rejection of boron during second pass seawater 100 desalination. A SWRO membrane (namely SWC5) was also used in this study. The nominal 101 salt rejection values of these membranes are summarised in Table 1. It is noteworthy that for comparison purposes, the pure water permeability values of the different membranes were 102 103 measured under the same filtration condition (Table 1). Given the variety of membranes used 104 in this study, our filtration condition is not necessarily identical to the filtration protocol used 105 by each manufacturer to specify the performance of their membranes. Moreover, membrane 106 properties such as permeability are not always uniform in a membrane sheet. As a result, the 107 pure water permeability values reported in Table 1 may differ from what specified by the 108 manufacturer by up to 20%.

109 **Table 1**: Properties of the membranes used in this study (salt rejection values were specified

Membrane	Membrane type	Manufacturer	NaCl rejection	MgSO <sub>4</sub> rejection	Pure water permeability <sup>f</sup>	Contact ang
			[%]	[ %]	[L/III II0al at 20°C]	
NF90	NF	Dow/Filmtec	-	> 97 <sup>e</sup>	12.6 (±0.2)	69
ESPA1	LPRO	Hydranautics	99.3 <sup>a</sup>	-	8.1 (±0.3)	61
ESPA2	LPRO	Hydranautics	99.6 <sup>a</sup>	-	5.2 (±0.2)	53
LFC3	LPRO	Hydranautics	99.7 <sup>a</sup>	-	2.9 (±0.3)	35
TFC-HR	LPRO	KMS	99.6 <sup>b</sup>	-	2.8 (±0.3)	52
70LW(TML)	LPRO	Toray	99.7 <sup>c</sup>	-	2.5 (±0.2)	41
ESPAB	LPRO	Hydranautics	99.3 <sup>a</sup>	-	4.3 (±0.5)	47
SWC5	SWRO	Hydranautics	99.8 <sup>d</sup>	-	1.9 (±0.1)	61

110 by the manufacturers).

- <sup>a</sup> Filtration condition: 1,500 ppm NaCl, 1.05 MPa, 25 °C and pH 6.5 7.0.
- <sup>b</sup> Filtration condition: 2,000 ppm NaCl, 1.55 MPa, 25 °C and pH 7.5.
- <sup>c</sup> Filtration condition: 2,000 ppm NaCl, 1.55 MPa, 25 °C and pH 7.0.
- <sup>d</sup> Filtration condition: 32,000 ppm NaCl, 5.5 MPa, 25 °C and pH 6.5 7.0.
- <sup>e</sup> Filtration condition: 2,000 ppm MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.48 MPa, 25 °C and pH 8.
- <sup>f</sup> Determined with Milli-Q water at 1,000 kPa and 20 °C feed temperature. Errors represent
   the standard deviation of two replicates.

## 118 2.2. <sup>g</sup> Measured with a Rame-Hart Goniometer (Model 250, Rame-Hart, 119 Netcong, NJ, USA) using the standard sessile drop Chemicals

120 Eight N-nitrosamines with molecular weight in the range from 74 to 158 g/mol were used in 121 this study. Their molecular structures and molecular weights are summarised in Table 2. They 122 were of analytical grade and were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). A 123 stock solution was prepared in pure methanol at 10 mg/L of each N-nitrosamine. Eight 124 deuterated N-nitrosamines used as surrogates include N-nitrosodimethylamine-D6, N-125 nitrosomethylethylamine-D3, N-nitrosopyrrolidine-D8, N-nitrosodiethylamine-D10, N-126 nitrosopiperidine-D10, N-nitrosomorpholine-D8, N-nitrosodipropylamine-D14 and N-127 nitrosodi-n-butylamine-D9. These deuterated chemicals were supplied by CDN isotopes 128 (Pointe-Claire, Quebec, Canada). A surrogate stock solution was also prepared in pure 129 methanol at 100 µg/L of each deuterated N-nitrosamine. The stock solutions were always kept 130 at -18 °C in the dark and were used within 1 month of preparation. Chemicals selected for 131 background electrolytes (NaCl, CaCl<sub>2</sub> and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) were also of analytical grade and were 132 supplied by Ajax Finechem (Taren Point, NSW, Australia).

133 **Table 2:** Physicochemical properties of the selected N-nitrosamines.

Compound	Structure	Molecular formula	Molecular weight [g/mol]	Low $K_{ow}^{a}$	Dipole moment <sup>b</sup> [Debye]
----------	-----------	----------------------	--------------------------------	------------------	--

NDMA	N <sup>N</sup>	$C_2H_6N_2O$	74.05	-0.64	3.71
NMEA	N <sup>-N<sup>-O</sup></sup>	$C_2H_8N_2O$	88.06	-0.15	3.71
NPYR	N <sup>-N<sup>-0</sup></sup>	$C_4H_8N_2O$	100.06	0.23	3.74
NDEA	N <sup>N</sup>	$C_4H_{10}N_2O$	102.08	0.34	3.72
NPIP	N <sup>-N<sup>-0</sup></sup>	$C_5H_{10}N_2O$	114.08	0.74	3.73
NMOR	0NO	$C_4H_8N_2O_2$	116.06	-1.39	2.68
NDPA	N <sup>-N<sup>-0</sup></sup>	$C_6H_{14}N_2O$	130.11	1.35	3.77
NDBA	N-N-0	$C_8H_{18}N_2O$	158.14	2.31	3.82

- <sup>a</sup> GSI chemical properties database (GSI ENVIRONMENTAL INC), http://www.gsi net.com/en/publications/gsi-chemical-database.html.
- 136 2.3. <sup>b</sup> Millsian 2.1 software (Millsian INC).

## 137 *Membrane filtration system*

138 A bench-scale cross flow filtration system was used for this investigation (Figure 1). The 139 system mainly comprises a stainless steel reservoir, high pressure pump (Hydra-Cell, Wanner 140 Engineering Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA), stainless steel membrane cell, and bypass and 141 back-pressure valves (Swagelok, Solon, OH, USA). The membrane cell holds a 4 cm × 10 cm 142 flat-sheet membrane with a channel height of 2 mm. During the system operation, the 143 permeate flow and retentate flow were continuously monitored with a digital flow meter 144 (FlowCal, GJC Instruments Ltd, Cheshire, UK) and rotameter, respectively. The feed solution 145 temperature was controlled with a chiller/heater unit (Neslab RTE 7, Thermo Scientific Inc., 146 Waltham, MA, USA) using a cooling coil installed in the feed reservoir. The feed reservoir 147 and pipe work between the reservoir and membrane cell was fully covered with insulation 148 materials to maintain a constant feed temperature during filtration.



149

150 **Figure 1** 

## 151 2.4. Filtration experiments

152 Prior to the experiment, each membrane sample was rinsed with a few litres of Milli-Q water 153 to remove any water soluble preservatives on surface. Each filtration experiment started with 154 a compaction step where the membrane was compacted at 1,800 kPa for at least 1 h using 155 Milli-Q water feed. The cross-flow velocity was maintained at 0.42 m/s during the 156 experiment. Unless otherwise stated, the feed temperature was maintained at 20±0.1 °C. After 157 the permeate flux stabilised, the feed pressure was adjusted to 1,000 kPa and pure water 158 permeability was measured using the feed pressure. The feed solution was then conditioned at 159 20 mM NaCl, 1mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 1 mM NaHCO<sub>3</sub> by adding the stock solution of background 160 electrolytes. A similar composition of background electrolytes simulating treated wastewater 161 effluent has been reported in previous studies [5, 24]. The stock solution of N-nitrosamines 162 was spiked into the feed to make up an initial concentration of 250 ng/L of each target compound. The system was then operated at 20 L/m<sup>2</sup>h permeate flux, which is typically used 163 164 for water reclamation applications [1]. Following at least 1 h of operation, 200 mL of feed 165 and permeate samples were taken for analysis. Immediately following each sampling, the 166 surrogate stock solution was dosed into each feed and permeate sample to make up 50 ng/L 167 of each N-nitrosamine surrogate. For the experiments using variable permeate flux, the permeate fluxes was first set at 40 or 60 L/m<sup>2</sup>h and was stepwise decreased down to 5 L/m<sup>2</sup>h. 168 169 Experiments with variable feed temperature started with low temperature (10 or 14 °C) and 170 the feed temperature was stepwise increased up to 40 °C. In each experiment, the filtration 171 system was operated for at least 1 h prior to any samplings to stabilise N-nitrosamine 172 rejections. Conductivity and pH were both measured using an Orion 4-Star Plus 173 pH/conductivity meter (Thermo scientific, USA).

## 174 2.5. *N*-nitrosamine analytical methods

N-nitrosamine concentrations in the permeate and feed samples were determined using a previously developed analytical method consisting of solid phase extraction (SPE), gas chromatography and determination using a mass spectrometer detector (GC/MS) [25]. Only a brief summary of the procedure is described here. Supelclean<sup>TM</sup> Coconut Charcoal SPE cartridge (2 g) purchased from Supelco (St Louis, MO, USA) was used for the SPE process. The extraction of N-nitrosamines to a SPE cartridge was performed at a flow rate of less than 5 mL/min. After drying the SPE cartridge with a gentle high purity nitrogen gas stream, the

SPE cartridges were eluted using 12 mL dichloromethane. The eluent was then added with 50  $\mu$ L of toluene, and concentrated to 1 mL with a Turbovap LV (Caliper Life Sciences, Hopkinton, MA, USA) under a gentle nitrogen gas stream. The concentration of Nnitrosamines was quantified using an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph coupled with an Agilent 7000B triple quadrupole mass spectrometer using electron ionisation. The quantitative detection limits of this analytical technique are 5 ng/L for NDMA, NDEA and NDPA and 10 ng/L for NMEA, NPYR, NPIP, NMOR and NDBA.

## 189 2.6. Transport model description

190 A numerous number of previous studies reported in the literature have been carried out based 191 on the irreversible thermodynamics model [26]. Kedem and Katchalsky described water  $(J_v)$ 192 and solute  $(J_s)$  flux through an NF/RO membrane with the following equations [27]:

193 
$$J_{\nu} = L_{p} (\Delta P - \sigma \Delta \pi)$$
(1)

194 
$$J_s = P_s \Delta x \frac{d}{dx} C + (1 - \sigma) C J_v$$
(2)

195 where  $L_p$  is pure water permeability;  $\Delta P$  is pressure difference between the feed and permeate 196 sides;  $\sigma$  is reflection coefficient;  $\Delta \pi$  is osmotic pressure difference between the feed and 197 permeate sides;  $P_s$  is solute permeability coefficient;  $\Delta x$  is membrane thickness; x is position 198 in a pore from inlet; and C is solute concentration. The reflection coefficient ( $\sigma$ ) represents 199 the fraction of solute reflected by the membrane in convective flow [28]. Equation 2 is 190 integrated with boundary limits (x = 0,  $C = C_p$  and  $x = \Delta x$ ,  $C = C_m$ ) and is described with the 191 following Spiegler-Kedem equations [29]:

202 
$$R_{real} = 1 - \frac{C_p}{C_m} = \frac{\sigma(1-F)}{(1-\sigma F)}$$
(3)

203 
$$F = \exp\left(-\frac{(1-\sigma)}{P_s}J_{\nu}\right)$$
(4)

where  $C_p$  and  $C_m$  are permeate and membrane concentration, respectively. Because solute concentration in the feed ( $C_b$ ) can be obtained from experiments, the real rejection ( $R_{real}$ ) is calculated using the observed rejection ( $R_{obs}=1-C_p/C_b$ ) as follows [30]:

207 
$$R_{real} = \frac{R_{obs} \exp\left(\frac{J_{v}}{k}\right)}{1 + R_{obs} \left[\exp\left(\frac{J_{v}}{k}\right) - 1\right]}$$
(5)

208 where k is mass transfer coefficient. The value of k is calculated by the Sherwood number 209 (*Sh*) using the following Grover equation [31]:

210 
$$Sh = \frac{d_h k}{D} = 0.664 \operatorname{Re}^{0.5} Sc^{0.33} \left(\frac{d_h}{L}\right)^{0.33}$$
(6)

where Reynolds number (Re) = ( $d_hu/v$ ), Schmidt number (Sc) = (v/D),  $d_h$  = hydraulic diameter, u = feed velocity, v = kinetic viscosity and D = diffusion coefficient. Further details of the calculation are also available elsewhere [18].

214 **3. Results and discussion** 

## 215 3.1. N-nitrosamine rejection by NF/RO membranes

216 3.1.1. N-nitrosamine rejection

217 The rejection of low molecular weight N-nitrosamines (i.e. NDMA and NMEA) by the eight 218 NF/RO membranes used in this study varied significantly in the range from 8 - 82% and 23 - 82%219 94%, respectively (Figure 2). The type of membrane was less significant for other N-220 nitrosamines with higher molecular weights. NDPA and NDBA, which are the two largest N-221 nitrosamines selected in this study, were rejected by approximately 70% by the NF90 and 222 over 90% by any of the RO membranes. A small but discernible variation in the rejection of 223 N-nitrosamines was observed among the four LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2, LFC3, TFC-224 HR and 70LW) which have been widely used for water reclamation applications. For 225 example, NDMA rejection by these membranes ranged from 37% to 52%. The variation was 226 less apparent for NMEA (69-82%) followed by NPYR (84-94%) and NDEA (86-95%), and 227 was negligible for all the other N-nitrosamines. The results reported here suggest that the rejections of N-nitrosamines by LPRO membranes commonly used for water recycling 228 229 applications under an identical filtration condition may differ from one another by about 15% 230 despite the similarity in their nominal NaCl rejection values (Table 1). In other words, the

nominal salt rejection value specified by the manufacturers may be not an appropriate criterion to accurately predict the rejection of low molecular weight N-nitrosamines by LPRO membranes. It is noteworthy that a model aquatic solution was used in this study. The presence of effluent organic matter in treated effluent can lead to membrane fouling, which may exert a small influence on the rejection of N-nitrosamines and inorganic salts by NF/RO membranes [20].





In general, the rejection of N-nitrosamines by a given membrane increased in the increasing 239 order of their molecular weight (Figure 2). In addition to molecular weight, other solute 240 properties such as charge, hydrophobicity and dipole moment can be also important factors 241 determining solute rejections [32-35]. Van der Bruggen et al. [32] investigated the rejection 242 of various organic compounds using NF membranes and reported that, for compounds with

243 similar molecular weights, charged and hydrophilic compounds could be better rejected than 244 hydrophobic compounds. This is because the apparent size of charged and hydrophilic 245 compounds becomes larger due to hydration once they are in an aqueous solution. On the 246 other hand, adsorption followed by diffusion could be a considerable transport mechanism for 247 hydrophobic compounds to permeate NF/RO membranes [32, 34]. It has also been reported 248 that compounds with higher dipole moments could have a lower rejection in comparison to 249 another compound of similar molecular size but with a lower dipole moment [33, 35]. 250 Nevertheless, the eight N-nitrosamines investigated here are neutral, quite hydrophilic and 251 have very similar dipole moment (Table 2) and thus molecule weight (rather than charge, 252 hydrophobicity, and dipole moment) appears to be the most important parameter when 253 evaluating the rejection of N-nitrosamines by NF/RO membranes.

## 254 3.1.2. Impact of membrane permeability

255 The separation performance of NF/RO membranes can be evaluated by pure water 256 permeability and solute rejection. A comparison between these parameters revealed that the rejection of NDMA and NMEA was inversely proportional to membrane permeability 257 258 (Figure 3). For example, the SWC5 membrane revealed a high NDMA rejection (82%) but 259 low permeability (1.9 L/m<sup>2</sup>hbar), while the NF90 membrane revealed a high permeability (13) L/m<sup>2</sup>hbar) but negligible rejection (8%). Permeability and N-nitrosamine rejection values 260 261 obtained using the LPRO membranes were both within these limits of the SWC5 and NF90 262 membranes. Importantly, among the LPRO membranes the ESPAB membrane revealed a 263 remarkably higher rejection of NDMA (71%) and NMEA (91%) despite of its relatively high permeability (4.3 L/m<sup>2</sup>hbar). In fact, the exclusion of the ESPAB membrane data improved 264 265 the correlation of the rejections and permeability significantly, changing the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  of the linear regression between NDMA or NMEA rejection and the 266 267 membrane permeability from 0.61 to 0.70 and from 0.86 to 0.95, respectively. The 268 underlying reason for this notably better performance of the ESPAB with respect to NDMA 269 and NMEA rejection observed here is currently unknown and is the subject for a future study.

- 270 In the surface force-pore flow model, membrane permeability  $(L_p)$  increases with increasing
- 271 membrane pore size  $(r_p)$  and with decreasing the thickness of the membrane active layer  $(\Delta x)$
- as described with the Hagen-Poiseuille equation [36-37].

273 
$$L_p = \frac{r_p^2 A_k}{8\mu\Delta x} \tag{7}$$

where  $A_k$  is membrane porosity; and  $\mu$  is viscosity of water. Because the changes in membrane pore size and the thickness of the membrane active layer also affect solute rejection [37], it can be hypothesized that the variation in NDMA and NMEA rejection by these NF/RO membranes is associated with the difference in the properties (i.e.  $r_p$  and  $\Delta x$ ) of these membranes.



*279 3.2*.



## 281 3.2.1. Permeate flux

282 In general, solute rejection increases when water permeate flux increases, because water flux increases with applied feed pressure while the applied pressure has only a negligible impact 283 284 on solute flux [38]. As expected, an increase in permeate flux led to the increased rejection of 285 conductivity and N-nitrosamines (Figure 4). For the 70LW membrane, permeate flux of 60 L/m<sup>2</sup>h was excluded from the experiment due to the feed pressure limitation of the filtration 286 setup. For both membranes, the impact of the changes in permeate flux on N-nitrosamine 287 rejection was stronger in lower ranges (e.g. 5-10 L/m<sup>2</sup>h). In addition, the rejection of low 288 289 molecular weight N-nitrosamines was significantly affected by the changes in permeate flux. 290 For instance, NDMA rejection by the ESPA2 dropped from 53 to 36% when permeate flux decreased from 42 to 10 L/m<sup>2</sup>h. The rejection trends observed in this investigation are 291 292 consistent with a previous study using the LPRO TFC-HR membrane [18]. In addition, the 293 difference in N-nitrosamine rejection value between the ESPA2 and 70LW membranes was





The real rejection of N-nitrosamines by the ESPA2 and 70LW membranes was well described by the irreversible thermodynamic model (Figure 6). For the 70LW membrane,

300 NPYR, NPIP, NMOR, NDPA and NDBA were excluded from the modelling because some 301 of their permeate concentrations were below their analytical detection limits. The reflection 302 coefficient ( $\sigma$ ) of all N-nitrosamines was generally high (>0.9) (Table 3) which is consistent 303 with a previous study using the TFC-HR membrane [18]. These observations suggest that 304 these LPRO membranes may be comparable in terms of N-nitrosamine rejection even in 305 different permeate flux conditions.





Table 3: Transport parameters of N-nitrosamines through the ESPA2, 70LW and TFC-HR 308 [18] membranes of the irreversible thermodynamics model.

N-nitrosamine	1. [m./n]	σ[-]			P [m/s]		
	K [m/s]	ESPA2	70LW	TFC-HR	ESPA2	70LW	TFC-HR
NDMA	2.26×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.953	0.926	0.949	5.35×10 <sup>-6</sup>	3.32×10 <sup>-6</sup>	4.15×10 <sup>-6</sup>
NMEA	1.99×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.958	0.963	0.968	1.14×10 <sup>-6</sup>	8.24×10 <sup>-7</sup>	1.07×10 <sup>-6</sup>
NPYR	1.99×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.973	-	0.989	5.12×10 <sup>-7</sup>	-	6.74×10 <sup>-7</sup>
NDEA	1.99×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.985	0.978	0.998	2.26×10 <sup>-7</sup>	1.47×10 <sup>-7</sup>	2.49×10 <sup>-7</sup>
NPIP	2.09×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.993	-	-	9.25×10 <sup>-8</sup>	-	-
NMOR	2.18×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.991	-	0.988	2.06×10 <sup>-7</sup>	-	1.99×10 <sup>-7</sup>

NDPA	$2.02 \times 10^{-5}$	0.992	-	-	6.02×10 <sup>-8</sup>	-	-
NDBA	1.99×10 <sup>-5</sup>	0.990	-	0.983	4.33×10 <sup>-8</sup>	-	1.01×10 <sup>-7</sup>

#### 310 3.2.2. Feed temperature

311 An increase in feed temperature resulted in the decreased rejection of conductivity and Nnitrosamines (Figure 7). For example, an increase in the feed temperature from 20 to 40 °C 312 313 led to a decrease in NDMA rejection by the ESPA2 and 70LW membrane from 41 to 15% 314 and from 52 to 22%, respectively. In response to the feed temperature increase, NMEA and 315 NPYR rejections also dropped significantly. The impact of feed temperature was less 316 pronounced with increasing their molecular weight, and the rejection of high molecular 317 weight N-nitrosamines (i.e. NDPA and NDBA) equally remained almost constant and high 318 (>94%) within the ranges of feed temperature tested here (Figure 7). When feed temperature 319 increases, the pore size within an active skin layer of membranes can enlarge slightly [39] 320 and the permeability coefficient of solutes also increases [28, 30], both of which cause more 321 solute passage through membranes. Thus, these combination effects may have decreased the 322 rejection of N-nitrosamines against the increase in feed temperature. Between the two LPRO 323 membranes, the difference in the rejection vales of NDMA, NMEA, NPYR and NDEA was 324 always less than 13% at the feed temperature of both 20 and 40 °C (Figure 8). The 325 observations reported here indicate that the impact of feed temperature on the rejection of N-326 nitrosamines is similar among the LPRO membranes tested.



## 329 **4.** Conclusions

330 The rejection of NDMA by NF/RO membranes varied significantly in the range of 8-82% 331 depending on the membrane and operating conditions. The impact of membrane 332 characteristics was less apparent for higher molecular weight N-nitrosamines and the 333 rejection of NPYR, NMOR, NDPA and NDBA were over 90% by any of the tested RO membranes. Using these NF/RO membranes, a correlation was found between membrane 334 335 permeability and the rejection of low molecular weight N-nitrosamines (i.e. NDMA and 336 NMEA). The variation in NDMA and NMEA rejections among the LPRO membranes 337 frequently used for water reclamation applications (i.e. ESPA2, LFC3, TFC-HR and 70LW) 338 was relatively small, at 37-52% and 69-82%, respectively. However, a high rejection of 339 NDMA (71%) and NMEA (91%) was obtained with the ESPAB membrane which is also an 340 LPRO membrane but is specifically designed for the removal of boron. Results reported here 341 suggest the potential of using boron removal LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPAB) for wastewater recycling applications where NDMA concentration in the final water is a critical parameter 342 343 under water quality regulations. Similar rejection behaviours of N-nitrosamines were 344 obtained with two different LPRO membranes (i.e. ESPA2 and 70LW) when compared with 345 variable permeate flux and feed temperature conditions. In particular, the rejection of low 346 molecular weight N-nitrosamines such as NDMA and NMEA decreased significantly when 347 the permeate flux decreased or the feed temperature increased. In practice, some variations in 348 permeate flux and temperature are inevitable. Thus, the impact of permeate flux and solute 349 temperature on the rejection of N-nitrosamines reported here has an important implication to 350 full-scale operation of NF/RO systems for water reclamation applications. Results reported 351 here also suggest that membrane properties associated with membrane permeability such as the pore size and thickness of the active skin layer might determine N-nitrosamine rejection. 352 353 Thus, further work is necessary to elucidate the impact of physicochemical properties of 354 NF/RO membranes on N-nitrosamine rejection.

## 355 **5.** Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Australian Research Council Linkage Projects LP0989365 (with industry support from Veolia Water and Seqwater). The authors acknowledge the University of Wollongong for a PhD scholarship awarded to Takahiro Fujioka.

- 359 Hydranautics/Nitto Denko, Toray, Dow Chemical, and Koch Membrane Systems are thanked
- 360 for the provision of membrane samples.

## 361 6. Nomenclatures

- $C_b$  concentration in the feed (ng/L)
- $C_m$  membrane concentration (ng/L)
- $C_p$  permeate concentration (ng/L)
- $d_h$  hydraulic diameter (m)
- D diffusion coefficient (m<sup>2</sup>/s)
- $J_s$  solute flux (m/s)
- $J_{\nu}$  water flux, permeate flux (m/s)
- k mass transfer coefficient (m/s)
- L the length of the membrane (m)
- $L_p$  pure water permeability (L/m<sup>2</sup>h)
- $P_s$  solute permeability coefficient (m/s)
- *Re* Reynolds number (-)
- $R_{obs}$  observed rejection (-)
- $R_{real}$  real rejection (-)
- *Sc* Schmidt number (-)
- 377 Sh Sherwood number (-)
- *u* feed velocity (m/s)
- $\Delta P$  Pressure difference between the feed and permeate sides (Pa)
- x position in a pore from inlet (m)
- $\Delta x$  membrane thickness (m)
- $\sigma$  reflection coefficient (-)
- $\Delta \pi$  osmotic pressure difference between the feed and permeate sides (Pa)

## **7. References**

T. Fujioka, S.J. Khan, Y. Poussade, J.E. Drewes, L.D. Nghiem, N-nitrosamine
removal by reverse osmosis for indirect potable water reuse – A critical review based
on observations from laboratory, pilot and full scale studies, Separation and
Purification Technology, 98 (2012) 503-515.

- A.D. Shah, W.A. Mitch, Halonitroalkanes, Halonitriles, Haloamides, and N Nitrosamines: A Critical Review of Nitrogenous Disinfection Byproduct Formation
   Pathways, Environmental Science & Technology, 46 (2011) 119-131.
- W.A. Mitch, J.O. Sharp, R.R. Trussell, R.L. Valentine, L. Alvarez-Cohen, D.L.
  Sedlak, N-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) as a drinking water contaminant: A review,
  Environmental Engineering Science, 20 (2003) 389-404.
- M. Krauss, P. Longrée, F. Dorusch, C. Ort, J. Hollender, Occurrence and removal of
   N-nitrosamines in wastewater treatment plants, Water Research, 43 (2009) 4381-4391.
- E. Steinle-Darling, M. Zedda, M.H. Plumlee, H.F. Ridgway, M. Reinhard, Evaluating
  the impacts of membrane type, coating, fouling, chemical properties and water
  chemistry on reverse osmosis rejection of seven nitrosoalklyamines, including NDMA,
  Water Research, 41 (2007) 3959-3967.
- 401 [6] J.E. Drewes, C. Hoppe, T. Jennings, Fate and transport of N-Nitrosamines under 402 conditions simulating full-scale groundwater recharge operations, Water Environment 403 Research, 78 (2006) 2466-2473.
- 404 [7] IARC, IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans: Overall
  405 evaluations of carcinogenicity: An updating of IARC monographs volumes 1 42:
  406 Supplement 7, International agency for research on cancer, (1987).
- 407[8]USEPA, N-Nitrosodimethylamine (CASRN 62-75-9) Integrated risk information408system (IRIS), <a href="http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0045.htm">http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0045.htm</a> (1993).
- 409 [9] NRMMC, EPHC, AHMC, Australian guidelines for water recycling: Managing health
  410 and environmental risks (Phase 2): Augmentation of drinking water supplies,
  411 Environment Protection and Heritage Council, National Health and Medical Research
  412 Council, Natural Resource Management Ministerial Council, Canberra, 2008.
- NDMA 413 [10] CDPH, and other Nitrosamines Drinking water issues \_ 414 (http://www.cdph.ca.gov/certlic/drinkingwater/Pages/NDMA.aspx), California Department of Public Health 2011. 415
- 416 [11] J. Drewes, S. Khan, Chapter 16: Water reuse for drinking water augmentation, in:
  417 American Water Works Association, J.K. Edzwald (Eds.) Water Quality &
  418 Treatment: A Handbook on Drinking Water, 6th Edition, McGraw-Hill Professional,
  419 2011.
- 420 [12] C. Bellona, J.E. Drewes, Viability of a low-pressure nanofilter in treating recycled
  421 water for water reuse applications: A pilot-scale study, Water Research, 41 (2007)
  422 3948-3958.
- 423 [13] K.O. Agenson, J.-I. Oh, T. Urase, Retention of a wide variety of organic pollutants by
  424 different nanofiltration/reverse osmosis membranes: controlling parameters of process,
  425 Journal of Membrane Science, 225 (2003) 91-103.

- 426 [14] L.D. Nghiem, A.I. Schäfer, M. Elimelech, Removal of natural hormones by 427 nanofiltration membranes: Measurement, modeling, and mechanisms, Environmental 428 Science & Technology, 38 (2004) 1888-1896.
- 429 [15] C. Bellona, D. Heil, C. Yu, P. Fu, J.E. Drewes, The pros and cons of using 430 nanofiltration in lieu of reverse osmosis for indirect potable reuse applications, 431 Separation and Purification Technology, 85 (2012) 69-76.
- 432 [16] A.R.D. Verliefde, E.R. Cornelissen, S.G.J. Heijman, I. Petrinic, T. Luxbacher, G.L.
  433 Amy, B. Van der Bruggen, J.C. van Dijk, Influence of membrane fouling by
  434 (pretreated) surface water on rejection of pharmaceutically active compounds
  435 (PhACs) by nanofiltration membranes, Journal of Membrane Science, 330 (2009) 90436 103.
- 437 [17] C. Bellona, J.E. Drewes, G. Oelker, J. Luna, G. Filteau, G. Amy, Comparing
  438 nanofiltration and reverse osmosis for drinking water augmentation, Journal AWWA,
  439 100 (2008) 102-116.
- T. Fujioka, L.D. Nghiem, S.J. Khan, J.A. McDonald, Y. Poussade, J.E. Drewes,
  Effects of feed solution characteristics on the rejection of N-nitrosamines by reverse
  osmosis membranes, Journal of Membrane Science, 409–410 (2012) 66-74.
- Y. Miyashita, S.-H. Park, H. Hyung, C.-H. Huang, J.-H. Kim, Removal of N-Nitrosamines and their precursors by nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes, Journal of Environmental Engineering, 135 (2009) 788-795.
- T. Fujioka, S.J. Khan, J.A. McDonald, R.K. Henderson, Y. Poussade, J.E. Drewes,
  L.D. Nghiem, Effects of membrane fouling on N-nitrosamine rejection by
  nanofiltration and reverse osmosis membranes, Journal of Membrane Science, 427
  (2013) 311-319.
- 450 [21] M.J. Farré, J. Keller, N. Holling, Y. Poussade, W. Gernjak, Occurrence of NDMA
  451 precursors in wastewater treatment plant effluent and their fate during UF-RO
  452 membrane treatment, Water Science and Technology, 63 (2011) 605-612.
- M. Krauss, P. Longrée, E. van Houtte, J. Cauwenberghs, J. Hollender, Assessing the
  fate of Nitrosamine precursors in wastewater treatment by physicochemical
  fractionation, Environmental Science & Technology, 44 (2010) 7871-7877.
- 456 [23] G. Kang, Y. Cao, Development of antifouling reverse osmosis membranes for water 457 treatment: A review, Water Research, 46 (2012) 584-600.
- 458 [24] W.S. Ang, N.Y. Yip, A. Tiraferri, M. Elimelech, Chemical cleaning of RO
  459 membranes fouled by wastewater effluent: Achieving higher efficiency with dual-step
  460 cleaning, Journal of Membrane Science, 382 (2011) 100-106.
- 461 [25] J.A. McDonald, N.B. Harden, L.D. Nghiem, S.J. Khan, Analysis of N-nitrosamines in
  462 water by isotope dilution gas chromatography-electron ionisation tandem mass
  463 spectrometry, Talanta, 99 (2012) 146-152.

- 464 [26] S. Sobana, R. Panda, Review on modelling and control of desalination system using
  465 reverse osmosis, Reviews in Environmental Science and Biotechnology, 10 (2011)
  466 139-150.
- 467 [27] O. Kedem, A. Katchalsky, Permeability of composite membranes. Part 1.-Electric
  468 current, volume flow and flow of solute through membranes, Transactions of the
  469 Faraday Society, 59 (1963) 1918-1930.
- 470 [28] T. Tsuru, S. Izumi, T. Yoshioka, M. Asaeda, Temperature effect on transport
  471 performance by inorganic nanofiltration membranes, AIChE Journal, 46 (2000) 565472 574.
- 473 [29] K.S. Spiegler, O. Kedem, Thermodynamics of hyperfiltration (reverse osmosis):
  474 criteria for efficient membranes, Desalination, 1 (1966) 311-326.
- T. Tsuru, K. Ogawa, M. Kanezashi, T. Yoshioka, Permeation characteristics of
  electrolytes and neutral solutes through titania nanofiltration membranes at high
  temperatures, Langmuir, 26 (2010) 10897-10905.
- 478 [31] G.B. van den Berg, I.G. Rácz, C.A. Smolders, Mass transfer coefficients in cross-flow ultrafiltration, Journal of Membrane Science, 47 (1989) 25-51.
- 480 [32] B. Van der Bruggen, A. Verliefde, L. Braeken, E.R. Cornelissen, K. Moons, J.Q.J.C.
  481 Verberk, H.J.C. van Dijk, G. Amy, Assessment of a semi-quantitative method for
  482 estimation of the rejection of organic compounds in aqueous solution in nanofiltration,
  483 Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology, 81 (2006) 1166-1176.
- 484 [33] B. Van der Bruggen, J. Schaep, D. Wilms, C. Vandecasteele, Influence of molecular
  485 size, polarity and charge on the retention of organic molecules by nanofiltration,
  486 Journal of Membrane Science, 156 (1999) 29-41.
- 487 [34] L.D. Nghiem, A.I. Schäfer, M. Elimelech, Nanofiltration of Hormone Mimicking
  488 Trace Organic Contaminants, Separation Science and Technology, 40 (2005) 2633489 2649.
- 490 [35] L.D. Nghiem, A.I. Schäfer, M. Elimelech, Pharmaceutical retention mechanisms by 491 nanofiltration membranes, Environmental Science & Technology, 39 (2005) 7698-492 7705.
- 493 [36] T. Matsuura, S. Sourirajan, Reverse osmosis transport through capillary pores under
  494 the influence of surface forces, Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Process Design
  495 and Development, 20 (1981) 273-282.
- 496 [37] Y. Kiso, K. Muroshige, T. Oguchi, M. Hirose, T. Ohara, T. Shintani, Pore radius estimation based on organic solute molecular shape and effects of pressure on pore radius for a reverse osmosis membrane, Journal of Membrane Science, 369 (2011) 290-298.
- 500 [38] J.G. Wijmans, R.W. Baker, The solution-diffusion model: a review, Journal of 501 Membrane Science, 107 (1995) 1-21.

R.R. Sharma, R. Agrawal, S. Chellam, Temperature effects on sieving characteristics
of thin-film composite nanofiltration membranes: pore size distributions and transport
parameters, Journal of Membrane Science, 223 (2003) 69-87.