

1    **A Novel Photobiological Process for Reverse Osmosis Concentrate**  
2    **Treatment Using Brackish Water Diatoms**

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13    **Abstract:** A unique aqueous silica removal process using naturally occurring diatoms for water reuse and desalination is  
14    described. Several strains of brackish water diatoms have been isolated and tested. Among them *Pseudostaurosira* and  
15    *Navicula* species showed promise. Reverse osmosis (RO) concentrate samples from two full-scale advanced water  
16    purification facilities and one brackish groundwater RO plant in Southern California have been successfully treated by this  
17    process. This new photobiological process could remove aqueous silica, as well as phosphate, ammonia, nitrate, calcium,  
18    iron and manganese very effectively. Under non-optimized conditions, 95% of 78 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> reactive silica in an RO  
19    concentrate sample could be removed within 72 hours. In most cases, addition of nutrients was not necessary because the  
20    RO concentrate typically contains sufficient concentrations of macronutrients derived from the source water (i.e., treated  
21    wastewater and brackish groundwater). Preliminary characterization of organics indicated that there was no major  
22    generation of dissolved organics, which could potentially foul membranes in the subsequent RO process. This new algal  
23    process has a strong potential for its application in desalination and water reuse in the United States and around the world.

25    **Keywords:** Advanced water purification, bacillariophyta (diatoms), concentrate management, potable reuse, reverse  
26    osmosis

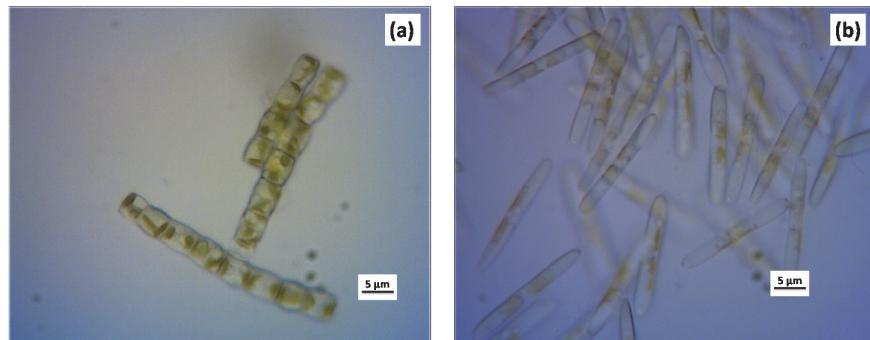
29    **Introduction**

30    The drought in California is an unprecedented crisis and has made the state's water supply  
31    more vulnerable than it has ever been. Not only in California, but other arid and semi-arid states  
32    and countries are facing an urgent need for alternative water resources as well. In recent years,  
33    more and more water utilities in the southwestern United States and around the world have  
34    begun exploring water from unconventional water resources, such as reclaimed water and  
35    brackish groundwater, using reverse osmosis (RO) (Greenlee *et al.*, 2009; Pérez-González, *et*  
36    *al.*, 2012). Brine (concentrate) management and minimization has become a critical issue in  
37    RO-based water reuse and desalination projects, especially in inland areas where the means of  
38    brine disposal are limited. In order to minimize the volume of RO concentrate further, many  
39    advanced water treatment facilities are considering adding an additional stage of RO process  
40    to recover another 10 to 15% of usable water, although serious scaling due to the presence of  
41    inorganic scalants, including silica, calcium, and phosphate is a major obstacle (Asano *et al.*,  
42    2007). In order to solve this challenge, a unique photobiological process utilizing selectively  
43    cultured diatoms has been developed to efficiently remove these inorganic scalants from RO  
44    concentrate so that additional RO can be employed to recover more fresh water (Ikehata *et al.*,  
45    2017). This approach will help reduce the environmental impacts of water reuse and brackish  
46    water desalination by harnessing the natural power of microalgae that has been known for  
47    decades, but largely overlooked in water and wastewater treatment.

48    Previously, rapid removal of reactive silica and orthophosphate was observed in a silica-  
49    rich brackish agricultural drainage water and an RO concentrate sample from the Groundwater  
50    Replenishment System (GWRs), Orange County Water District (OCWD) using a mixed  
51    diatom culture obtained from an evaporation pond in the Central Valley of California (Ikehata  
52    *et al.*, 2017). Silica was likely utilized by the diatoms in the silicification process (Lewin,  
53    1954; Martin-Jezequel *et al.*, 2000). One strain of diatom, *Pseudostaurosira trainorii*  
54    PEWL001, was isolated from the mixed culture, and additional three strains, including

55 *Nitzschia communis* PEWL002, *Anomoeoneis sphaerophora* PEWL003, and *Halamphora*  
56 *sydowii* PEWL004, were isolated from another water-sediment sample from the evaporation  
57 pond. In this study, these isolated strains, in particular *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N. communis*  
58 PEWL002 (Figure 1), were used to treat RO concentrate samples from different full-scale RO  
59 facilities in Southern California. The impacts of this algal treatment on dissolved organic  
60 matter (DOM) in the selected ROC were also studied.

61



62

63 **Figure 1** Photomicrograph of (a) *P. trainorii* PEWL001, and (b) *N. communis* PEWL002

64

## 65 **Material and Methods**

66 A brackish water diatom *P. trainorii* E. Morales PEWL001 was isolated from agricultural  
67 drainage water collected in the Central Valley of California, USA during the summer of 2010  
68 as described earlier (Ikehata et al., 2017). First, the drainage water sample was incubated at  
69 room temperature (~ 25°C) under continuous illumination over a period of time (~10 days)  
70 until visible algal colonies became visible. Strains were then isolated from the colonies by a  
71 combination of serial dilution, agar plate, and micropipette techniques (Andersen and  
72 Kawachi 2005). Another brackish water diatom *N. communis* Rabenhorst PEWL002 was  
73 isolated from a drainage water sample collected from the same area in November 2015. The  
74 diatom seed cultures were maintained in 15-mL or 50-mL VWR clear polypropylene  
75 centrifuge tubes containing 0.2-μm filtered diluted synthetic seawater containing Guillard's  
76 F/2 medium (Guillard, 1975) or 0.2-μm filtered RO concentrate sample from the GWRS (see  
77 below). The concentration of total dissolved solids (TDS) in the F/2 medium was 7 g·L<sup>-1</sup>,  
78 which is similar to that of the RO concentrate samples treated in this study.

79 RO concentrate samples were obtained from three full-scale RO facilities, including the  
80 GWRS of the OCWD in Fountain Valley, CA, USA, the Leo J. Vander Lans Advanced Water  
81 Treatment Facility (LVL AWTF) of the Water Replenishment District of Southern California  
82 (WRD) in Long Beach, CA, USA, and the Chino I Desalter of Chino Basin Desalter  
83 Authority/Inland Empire Utilities Agency (IEUA) on April 22<sup>nd</sup>, 2016, November 21<sup>st</sup>, 2013,  
84 and August 25<sup>th</sup>, 2016, respectively. The collected RO concentrate samples were  
85 characterized for basic water quality (Table 1) and kept refrigerated until use. The analytical  
86 methods used are also listed in Table 1.

87 A HACH DR-2800 spectrophotometer and a HACH 2100N turbidimeter (Loveland, CO,  
88 USA) were used for the colorimetric and turbidity analyses, respectively. A HACH  
89 ISENA38101 combined with an HQ40d portable meter was used for sodium analysis. Boron  
90 analysis was performed by TestAmerica (Irvine, CA, USA). An Oakton pHTestr2 and a  
91 TDSTestr2 (Vernon Hills, IL, USA) were used for the pH, TDS, and temperature  
92 measurement. UV-Vis and fluorescence analyses were conducted with a Varian Cary 100 Bio

93 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and a Horiba  
 94 FluoroMax-4 spectrofluorometer (Horiba Scientific, Edison, NJ, USA) in the Urban Water  
 95 Research Center at the University of California, Irvine, CA, USA.

96 **Table 1** Basic water quality of RO concentrate samples collected from three full-scale RO  
 97 facilities in Southern California

Parameter	Analytical Method	OCWD GWRS	WRD LVL AWTF <sup>†</sup>	Chino I Desalter
Sodium (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH ISENA38101	1,167	667	337
Potassium (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8049	171	71	11
Calcium (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8204	456	416	1,264
Magnesium (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	Calculated	139	99	118
Iron (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8008	<0.02	0.24	0.03
Copper (μg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8143	<1	4	5
Manganese (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8149	0.396	0.358	0.375
Ammonia-N (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 10023/10031	5.2	4.1	<0.02
Boron (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	EPA 200.7 Rev 4.4	0.9	Not tested	Not tested
Chloride (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8207	1,900	810	760
Sulfate (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8051	980	800	570
Bicarbonate (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8203	1,077	1,318	1,732
Nitrate-N (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 10206	25	23	248
Reactive silica (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8185	133	78	146
Orthophosphate (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8048	5.6	8.5	1.04
Total dissolved solids (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	Oakton TDSTestr2	6,690	3,880	4,260
Turbidity (NTU)	EPA 180.1	1.16	2.07	0.623
Total hardness (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> as CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	HACH 8213	1,720	1,453	3,650
Alkalinity (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> as CaCO <sub>3</sub> )	HACH 8203	883	1,080	1,420
Total chemical oxygen demand (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> )	HACH 8000	245	154	129
Dissolved chemical oxygen demand (mg·L <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>*</sup>	HACH 8000	217	104	53
Temperature (°C)	Oakton TDSTestr2	20.2	Not tested	30.6
pH	Oakton pHTestr 2	7.98	8.2	7.3
Color at 455 nm (PtCo unit)	HACH 8025	271	96	7

98 **Note:** \*Filtered through 0.2 μm membrane filter, <sup>†</sup>This sample was collected before the recent facility expansion, which  
 99 involved the addition of third stage RO and completed in 2014.

100

101 A series of RO concentrate treatment experiments were conducted in a bench-scale semi-  
 102 batch mode using 500-mL polyethylene terephthalate (PETE) bottles (Φ = 65 mm) and VWR  
 103 SuperClear 50-mL polypropylene centrifuge tubes with screw caps (Φ = 29 mm, VWR  
 104 International, USA). These containers were placed in an illuminating reflective incubator with  
 105 9-W light-emitting diode (LED) bulbs (light temperature 5000 K, 800 lm each; Cree, Inc.,  
 106 Durham, NC, USA). The LED bulbs emitted visible light radiation ranging from 400 to 750  
 107 nm with a sharp peak at 450 nm and a broader peak at 550 nm. The relative radiant power  
 108 was two times higher at the former peak than at the latter one. The photosynthetically active  
 109 radiation was measured as 1.6 μE·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-2</sup> using an International Light Technologies ILT 1400  
 110 Portable radiometer with an attenuated PAR sensor (Peabody, MA, USA). The incubation  
 111 temperature was at 25±2 °C. Prior to the diatom inoculation, RO concentrate samples were  
 112 filtered through 0.2-μm membrane filters. No chloramine residual was detected in the RO  
 113 concentrate samples at the time of the treatment experiment. Pre-cultured diatom suspension  
 114 (500 μL or 5 mL, respectively) was added to the 50- or 500-mL containers to initiate the  
 115 photobiological treatment. The seed culture was pre-grown in the GWRS ROC or Guillard's  
 116 F/2 medium as described above. The initial biomass concentration in each container was  
 117 about 0.15 g dry weight L<sup>-1</sup>. Aliquots of samples were withdrawn periodically from the  
 118 containers to measure color, reactive silica and orthophosphate concentrations during the  
 119 treatment. Once reactive silica concentration was reduced below 1 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>, supernatant was  
 120 removed from the containers by decantation while a majority of algal biomass was kept in the

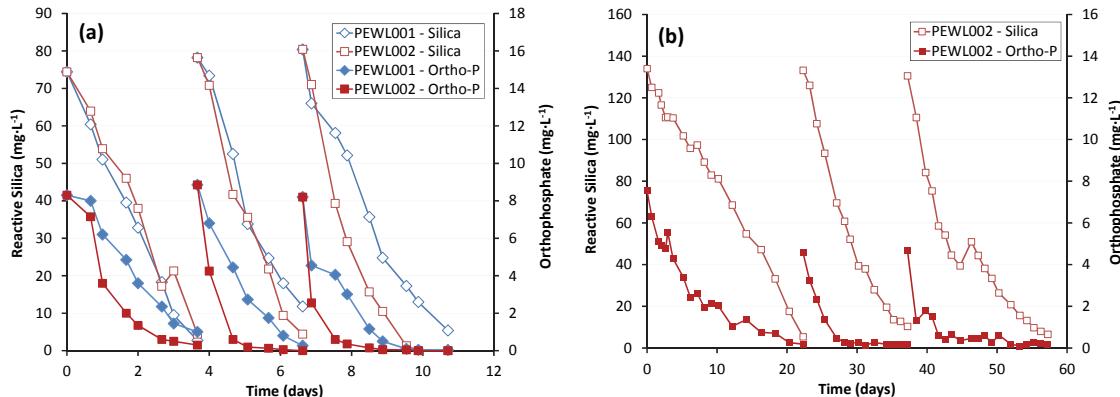
121 container. Fresh RO concentrate was added to the container for another semi-batch cycle.  
 122 The supernatant was further analyzed for water quality. At the end of the last cycle of semi-  
 123 batch experiment, the dry weight of biomass was determined using the method described  
 124 earlier (Ikehata *et al.*, 2017). In the case of brackish groundwater RO concentrate treatment,  
 125 sodium phosphate monobasic (ACS reagent; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) or F/2 medium  
 126 concentrate (no silica, F/2 Algae Food; Fritz Aquatics, Mesquite, TX) was added to adjust the  
 127 initial orthophosphate concentration.

128

## 129 Results and Discussion

130 As shown in Figure 2 the photobiological treatment using isolated diatoms was very effective  
 131 in removing reactive silica and orthophosphate from RO concentrate samples obtained from  
 132 two full-scale advanced water purification facilities, namely LVL AWTF and GWRS. Three  
 133 semi-batch cycles were successfully performed in both cases, although the silica removal was  
 134 apparently faster in the former RO concentrate sample (up to  $35 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ ) than the latter  
 135 (up to  $8 \text{ mg L}^{-1} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ ). The diatom growth and silica uptake might be inhibited by certain  
 136 dissolved inorganic constituents, such as ammonia (Natarajan, 1970; Azov and Goldman,  
 137 1982) and copper (Florence and Stauber, 1986), as well as organics such as herbicides  
 138 (Debenest *et al.*, 2009). In addition, the color of the latter RO concentrate sample was almost  
 139 three times higher than the former sample (Table 1) and might have reduced the light available  
 140 for photosynthesis. The rate of silica removal by the purified *N. communis* PEWL002 from  
 141 GWRS RO concentrate was similar to that observed during the RO concentrate treatment using  
 142 a mixed diatom culture (Ikehata *et al.*, 2017). The silica removal accelerated in the second and  
 143 third cycles, which implies that the diatom biomass concentration is an important factor. At  
 144 the end of the third cycle, the biomass concentration was  $2.1 \text{ g dry weight L}^{-1}$ .

145



146

147 **Figure 2** Removal of reactive silica and orthophosphate from (a) LVL AWTF and (b) GWRS  
 148 RO concentrate samples by the photobiological treatment using *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N.*  
 149 *communis* PEWL002

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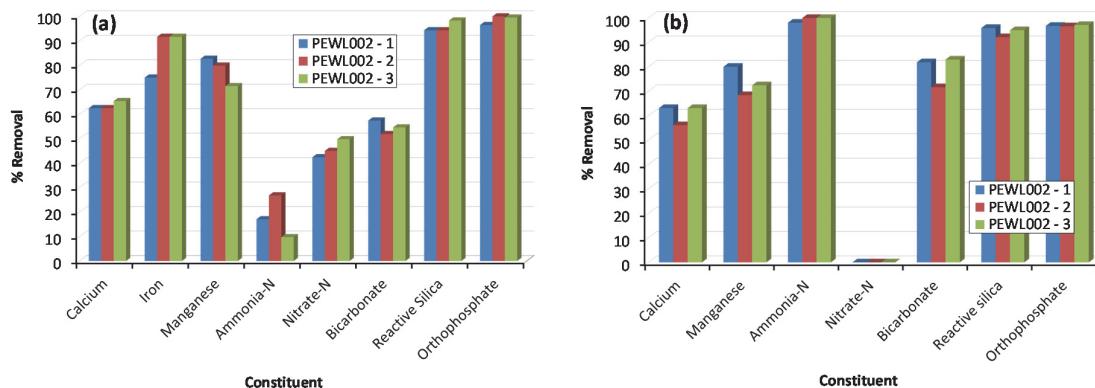
151 The rates of silica removal by two diatom species were almost identical in LVL AWTF RO  
 152 concentrate in the first and second cycles. However, the silica removal by *P. trainorii*  
 153 PEWL001 slowed down significantly in the third cycle, likely due to contamination by green  
 154 algal cells (Ikehata *et al.*, 2017). No contamination was observed during the LVL AWTF RO  
 155 concentrate treatment with *N. communis* PEWL002, whereas a very similar contamination  
 156 issue occurred in the case of the GWRS RO concentrate treatment with *P. trainorii* PEWL001,

157 which implied that further purification of the latter diatom strain would be required. At the end  
158 of the third cycle, the biomass concentrations of *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N. communis*  
159 PEWL002 were 0.61 and 1.5 g dry weight L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

160 Figure 3 shows the removal of nutrients and RO scaling constituents by the photobiological  
161 treatment of LVL AWTF and GWRS RO concentrate samples using *N. communis* PEWL002.  
162 A similar result was obtained with *P. trainorii* PEWL001 (data not shown). A majority (>70%)  
163 of iron and manganese were removed by the photobiological treatment. In addition, two other  
164 major RO scaling factors, calcium and bicarbonate, were removed by more than 60%. The  
165 precipitation of calcium carbonate as calcite or aragonite was speculated (Borowitzka, 1987).

166 In those RO concentrates from the advanced water reclamation facilities, phosphorus was  
167 apparently the limiting nutrient. While ammonia was the preferred nitrogen source and was  
168 completely removed in the case of GWRS RO concentrate treatment (Figure 3b), both nitrate  
169 and ammonia were consumed simultaneously in the case of LVL AWTF RO concentrate  
170 treatment (Figure 3a). The reason for this difference is unclear because these RO concentrate  
171 samples contained fairly similar levels of phosphorus and nitrogen compounds (Table 1).  
172 Additional experiments are currently being conducted to explore this issue.

173



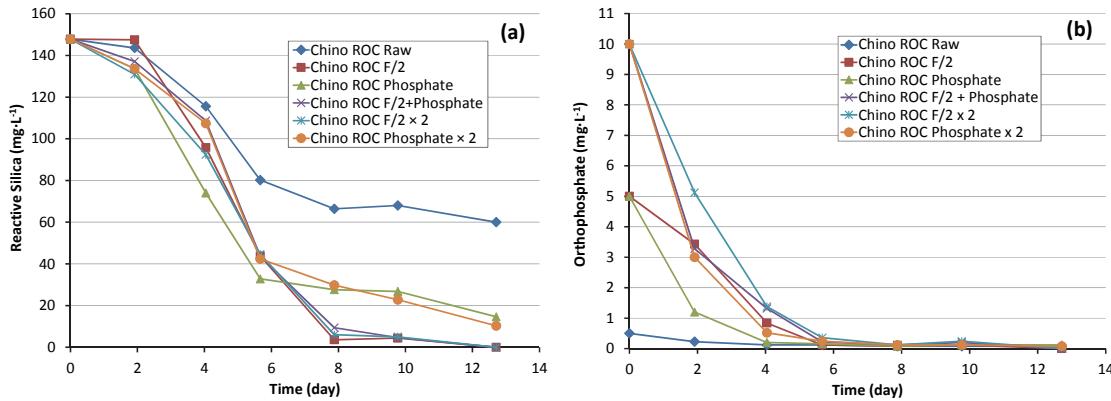
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175 **Figure 3** Removal of nutrients and scaling constituents from (a) LVL AWTF and (b) GWRS  
176 RO concentrate samples by the photobiological treatment using *N. communis* PEWL002

177

178 In addition to the RO concentrate samples from the two advanced water reclamation  
179 facilities, another sample from Chino I Desalter, which is a brackish groundwater desalination  
180 facility, was treated by the photobiological treatment. It was found that phosphorus in the RO  
181 concentrate sample was not enough (1.0 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> as orthophosphate) to complete the silica  
182 removal (Figure 4; blue diamonds). Therefore, phosphate was added as sodium phosphate or  
183 F/2 medium component. It was found that 5 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> of orthophosphate was enough to  
184 completely remove 146 mg·L<sup>-1</sup> of silica. The silica removal rate was 18 mg·L<sup>-1</sup>·day<sup>-1</sup>, although  
185 it accelerated in the second and third cycles (data not shown). Also, pure sodium phosphate  
186 was less effective than F/2 medium to facilitate silica removal (Figure 4). Trace minerals  
187 and/or vitamins in the F/2 medium (Guillard, 1975) might have enhanced the diatom growth  
188 and silica uptake.

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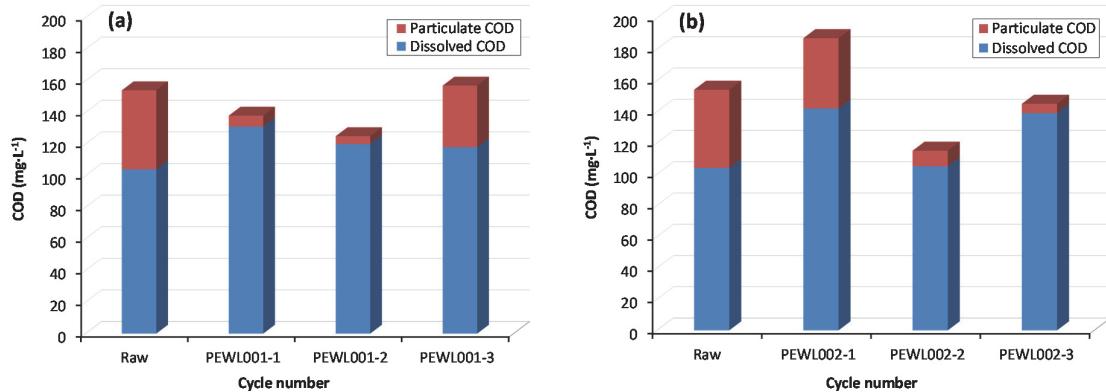
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191 **Figure 4** Removal of reactive silica from Chino I Desalter RO concentrate sample by the  
192 photobiological treatment using *P. trainorii* PEWL001: (a) reactive silica removal, and (b)  
193 orthophosphate uptake

194

195 Since the goal of this photobiological RO concentrate treatment is to enable the secondary  
196 RO without fouling and scaling, it is very important to characterize the organic matter after the  
197 photobiological treatment. Besides, it is well known that phytoplankton, including diatoms,  
198 excrete dissolved and particulate organic matter (Bjørnisen, 1988; Biddanda and Benner, 1997)  
199 and that seawater RO desalination is often affected by harmful algal brooms and organic  
200 particulate matter called transparent exopolymer particles associated with them (Caron *et al.*,  
201 2010; Villacorte *et al.*, 2013). The preliminary analysis appeared to be very encouraging.

202 After the photobiological treatment of LVL AWTF RO concentrate sample using brackish  
203 water diatoms *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N. communis* PEWL002, filtered color (not shown),  
204 UV absorbance at 254 nm (not shown), and chemical oxidation demand (COD; Figure 5) were  
205 not significantly increased. A similar result was obtained when GWRS RO concentrate was  
206 treated in the same way.

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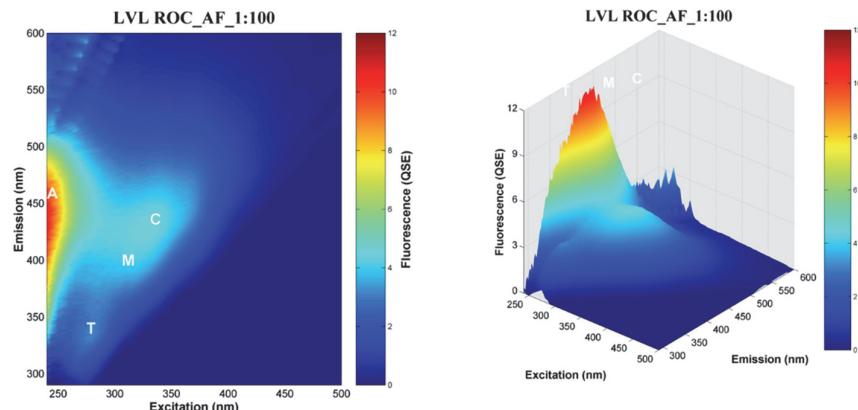
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209 **Figure 5** Changes in dissolved and particulate chemical oxygen demand (COD) before and  
210 after the photobiological treatment of LVL AWTF RO concentrate sample using (a) *P. trainorii*  
211 PEWL001, and (b) *N. communis* PEWL002

212

213 Preliminary analysis of DOM was attempted using the fluorescence spectrometry. As  
214 shown in Figure 6, the strong fluorescence peak due to UV humic-like component (A peak), as

215 well as weaker peaks due to visible humic-like component (C peak), marine humic-like  
 216 component (M peak), and protein-like component (T peak), was present the excitation-  
 217 emission matrix (EEM) of raw (untreated) LVL AWTF RO concentrate sample, which is  
 218 similar to that of raw GWRS RO concentrate sample (not shown), as well as the reported EEM  
 219 of RO concentrate from another RO facility (Bagastyo *et al.*, 2011). The appearance of EEM  
 220 of photobiologically treated LVL AWTF RO concentrate was very similar to that of untreated  
 221 ROC even after three semi-batch cycles (Figure 2a). The peak integrals and fluorescence were  
 222 compared before and after the treatment as shown in Figure 7. Overall peak integral was  
 223 decreased by the photobiological treatment using both *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N. communis*  
 224 PEWL002. Peak A intensity decreased significantly (about 21%), especially with *P. trainorii*,  
 225 indicating the humic-like component was degraded by the photobiological treatment. While  
 226 the intensities of Peaks C and M were also slightly decreased (14% of Peak C, 18% of Peak M  
 227 in the case of the treatment with *P. trainorii*), the intensity of Peak T did not change  
 228 significantly in the RO concentrate samples after the photobiological treatment with the both  
 229 diatom species. More detailed analysis of DOM with EEM and size exclusion chromatography  
 230 is currently underway. The impact of the photobiological treatment on trace organic  
 231 compounds, such as pharmaceuticals and personal care products, and disinfection byproducts,  
 232 in the RO concentrate samples is also being investigated.

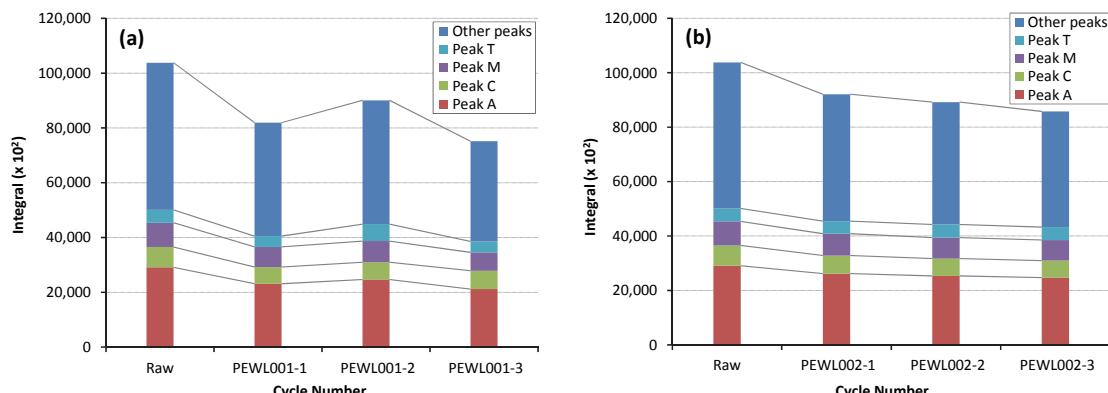
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235 **Figure 6** Excitation-emission matrix (EEM) spectra of untreated LVL AWTF RO concentrate  
 236 sample

237



238

239 **Figure 7** Impact of the photobiological treatment on the LVL AWTF RO concentrate EEM

240 peak integrals: (a) *P. trainorii* PEWL001, and (b) *N. communis* PEWL002

241

## 242 **Conclusions**

243 Three RO concentrate samples from three full-scale RO facilities in Southern California have  
244 been successfully treated by the photobiological treatment using isolated brackish water  
245 diatoms, *P. trainorii* PEWL001 and *N. communis* PEWL002, in laboratory-scale photo-  
246 bioreactors. The photobiological treatment could be performed at least three cycles in a semi-  
247 batch mode. The rate of silica removal varied in the different RO concentrate samples, which  
248 indicated the presence of some inhibitory components in certain samples. Nutrient addition  
249 was not needed when the RO concentrate samples from advanced water treatment facilities  
250 (LVL AWTF and GWR) were treated. However, the brackish groundwater RO concentrate  
251 tested in this study (Chino I Desalter) did not contain enough phosphorus to complete silica  
252 removal and required its supplementation. In addition to silica, orthophosphate, calcium, iron,  
253 manganese, bicarbonate, ammonia, and nitrate were effectively removed by the  
254 photobiological treatment. Since many of them are responsible for RO scaling, there is a  
255 potential to use this technology as a pretreatment of RO concentrate from the primary RO to  
256 make the secondary RO more feasible, cost effective and environmentally friendly.  
257 Preliminary analysis of DOM showed no significant increase in organic matter that could cause  
258 RO membrane fouling.

259

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272

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