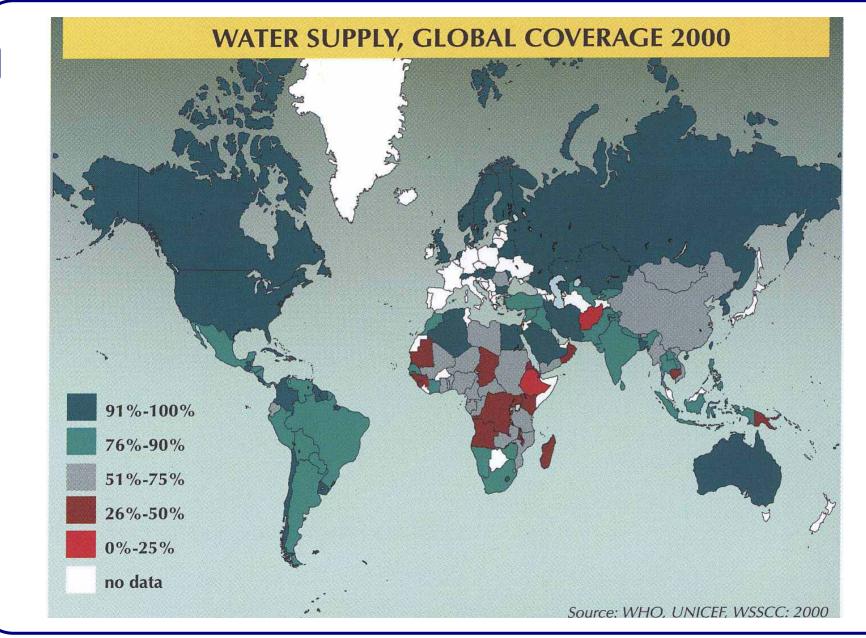
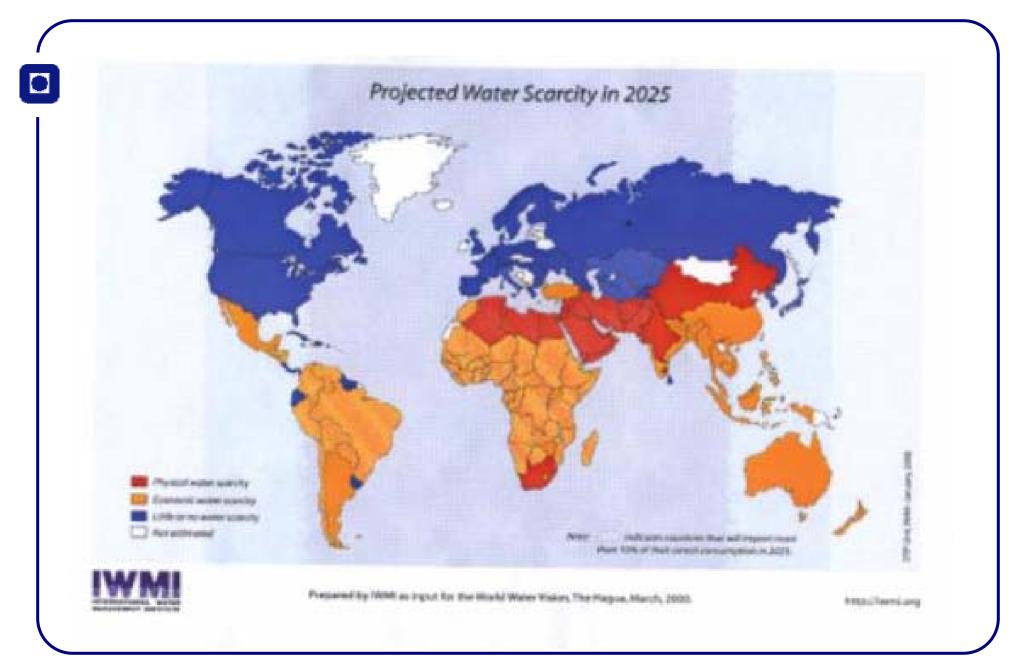


NTNU/XUAT Postgraduate course 21.05.02-31.05.02: Wastewater as a resource

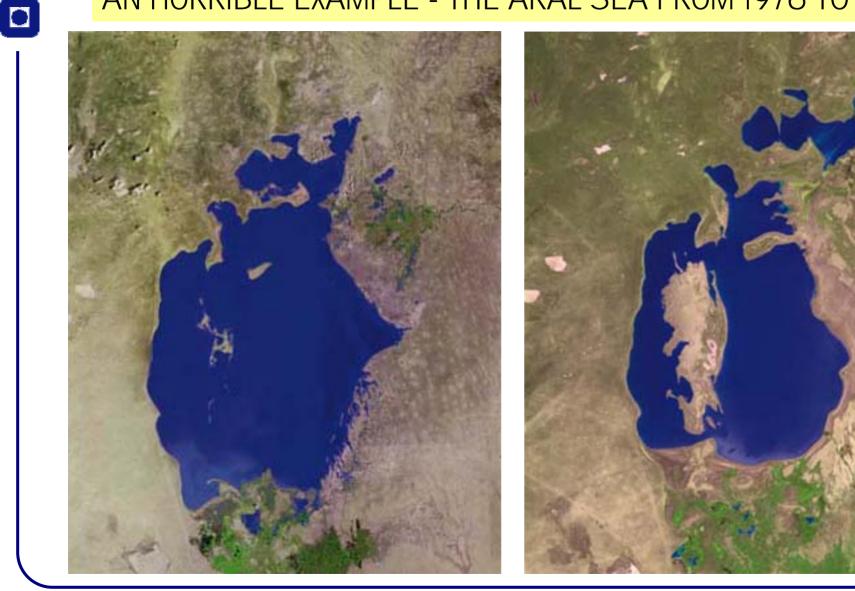
### REUSE OF WASTEWATER – POSSIBILITIES AND LIMITATIONS (with an emphasis on potable water reuse)

Hallvard Ødegaard





#### AN HORRIBLE EXAMPLE - THE ARAL SEA FROM 1976 TO 1997

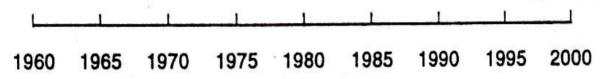


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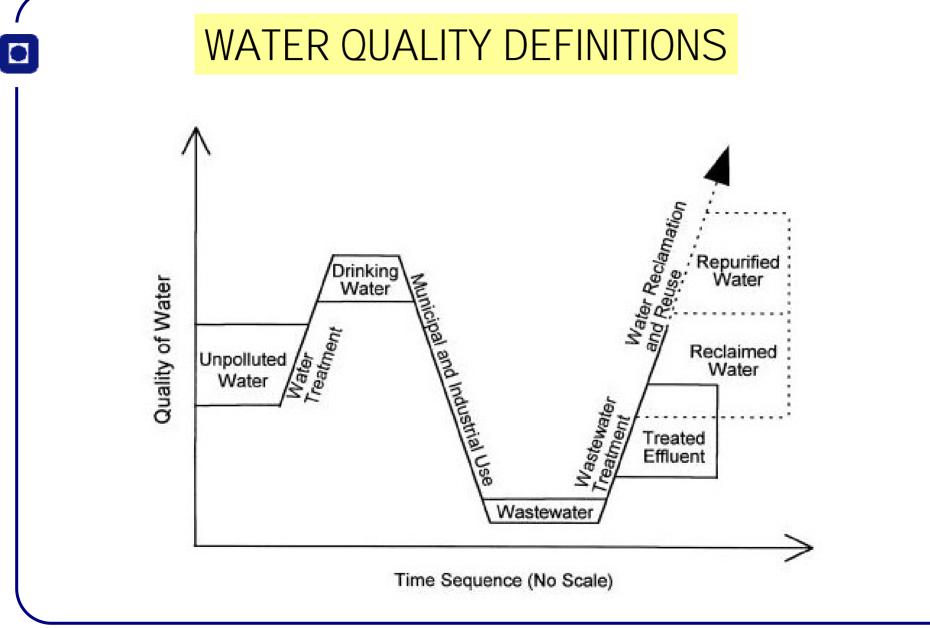
#### ERA OF WASTEWATER RECLAMATION, RECYCLING AND REUSE: POST 1960

California legislation encourages wastewater reclamation, recycling and reuse

- Use of secondary effluent for crop irrigation in Israel
  - Research on direct potable reuse in Windhoek, Namibia
    - US Clean Water Act to restore and maintain water quality
      - Pomona Virus Study; Pomona, CA
        - California Wastewater Reclamation Criteria (Title 22)
          - Health effects study by LA County Sanitation Districts, CA
            - Monterey Wastewater Reclamation Study for Agriculture, CA
              - WHO Guidelines for Agricultural and Aquacultural Reuse
                - Total Resource Recovery Health Effects Study; City of San Diego, CA
                  - Potable Water Reuse Demonstration Plant; Denver, CO Final Report -- plant operation began in 1984



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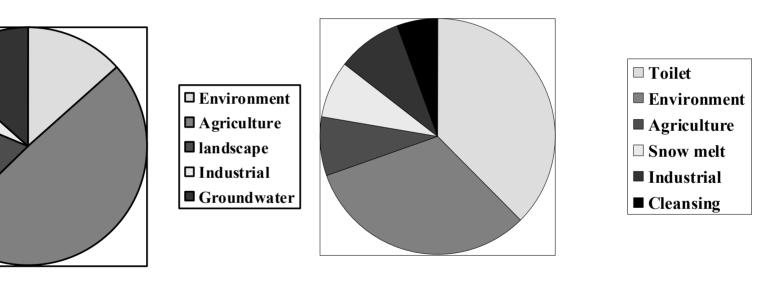
### CATEGORIES OF WATER REUSE

- 1. Agricultural irrigation
- 2. Landscape irrigation
- 3. Industrial recycling and reuse
- 4. Recreational & environmental applications
- 5. Non-potable urban reuse
- 6. Groundwater recharge
- 7. Potable reuse



#### WASTEWATER REUSE IN CALIFORNIA AND JAPAN

California: 401,910 acre-ft/yr.



496 x 10<sup>6</sup>m<sup>3</sup> (2000 data)

 $206 \text{ x} 10^6 \text{ m}^3$  (1997 data)

Japan: 167,000 acre-ft/yr.



WASTEWATER REUSE FOR AGRICULTURAL AND LANDSCAPE IRRIGATION

Most iomportant : The water itself – but also its inherent nutrients

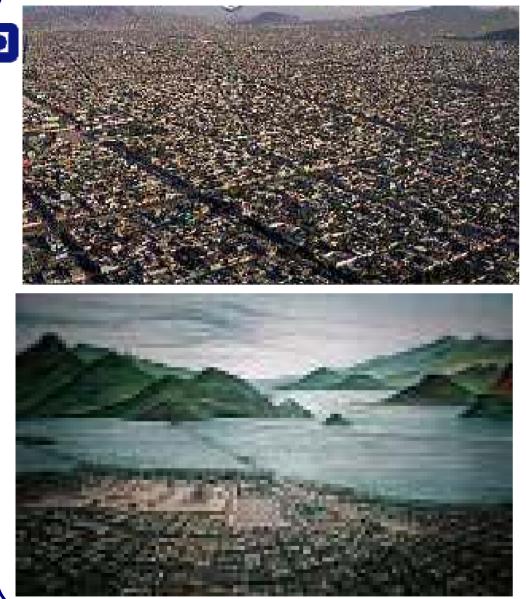
- Irrigation of agricultural land and crops
- Irrigation of sporting grounds (golf courses)
- Irrigation of parks and lawns

The most important challenges:

- Secure hygienic quality
- Prevent soil pollution
- Prevent ground water pollution

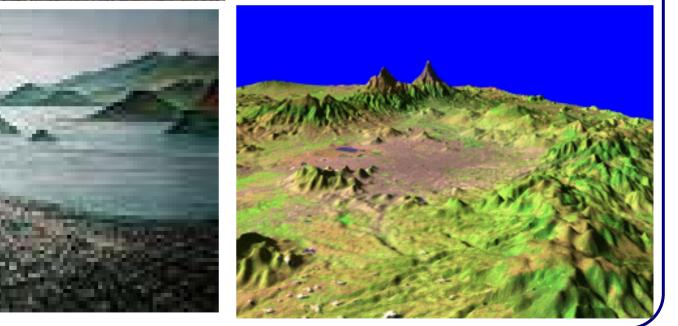






### CASE : Mexico city

- Hydrological cycle out of balance
- Ground water level sinks 1m/year
- Ground sinks 10-15 cm/year
- 45 m<sup>3</sup>/sec wastewater
- Only 29 m<sup>3</sup>/sec stays within area

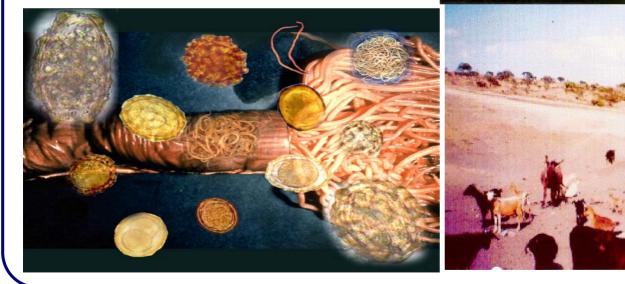


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Prof. Hallvard Ødegaard

RAW WASTEWATER IRRIGATION IN MEXITAL VALLEY WHERE VEGETABLES ARE GROWN Ascaris frequent among population





Before irrigation

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### REUSE OF WASTEWATER FOR URBAN LANDSCAPING

Treated wastewater for landscaping (ponds, creeks, wetlands etc)

Wetland

Creek from wastewater



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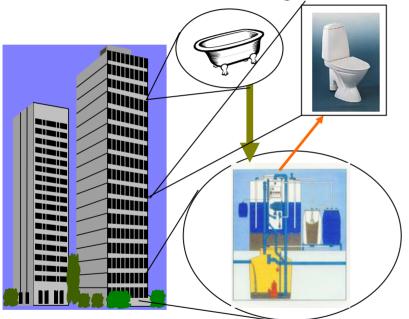
#### CALIFORNIANS ARE BATHING IN THE WWTP OUTLET



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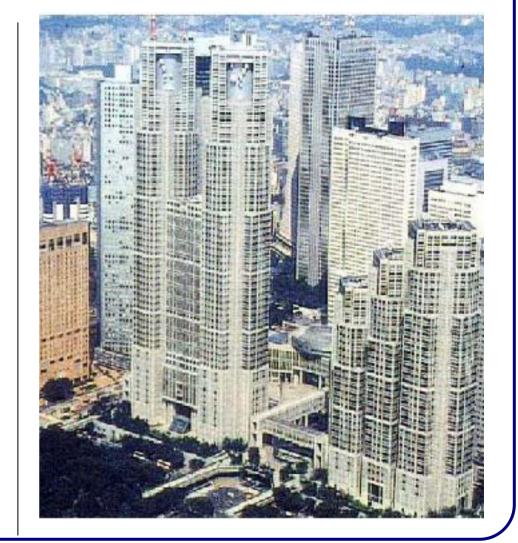
### REUSE OF WASTEWATER FOR URBAN USE

Treatment of grey-water to be used for toilet flushing



Two principal systems:

- one for the whole town
- local, small-scale systems



NTNU - Norwegian University of Science and Technology Dep. Hydraulic and Environmental Engineering REUSE OF WASTEWATER IN MEGACITIES (Example Tokyo)





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### RECLAIMED WASTEWATER FOR INDUSTRIAL REUSE

### Reuse within the industry

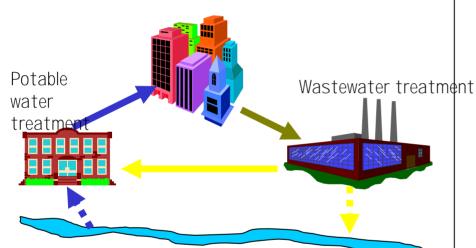


Reuse of reclaimed municipal wastewater

- cooling-system make-up water
- boiler feed water
- process water for production
  - manufacturing
  - iron and steel
  - textile
- wash-down water (car wash)

### RECLAIMED WASTEWATER FOR POTABLE WATER SUPPLY

### Direct potable reuse:



Very seldom - Not because of inability to treat sufficiently, but because of the public's objection to drink former sewage Example : Windhoek, Namibia

### Groundwater recharge



### Quite common -

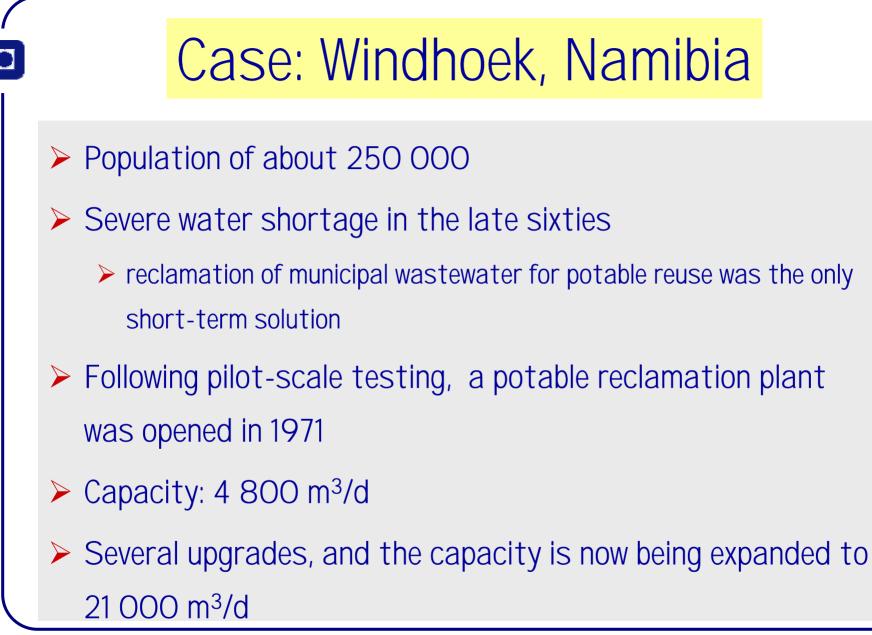
- Arresting the decline of water level
- Storage of surface water
- Self purification in soil
- Example: West Basin, California

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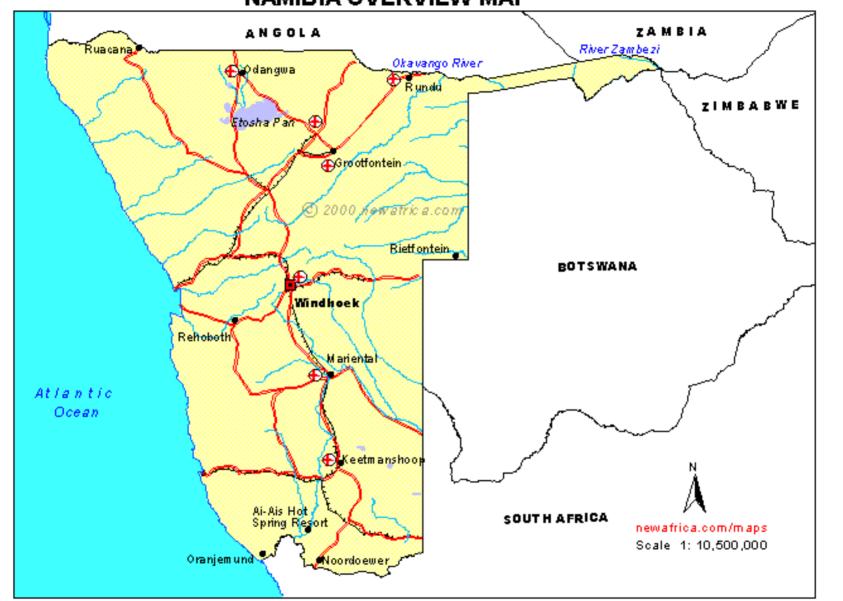


### WHY POTABLE WATER REUSE?

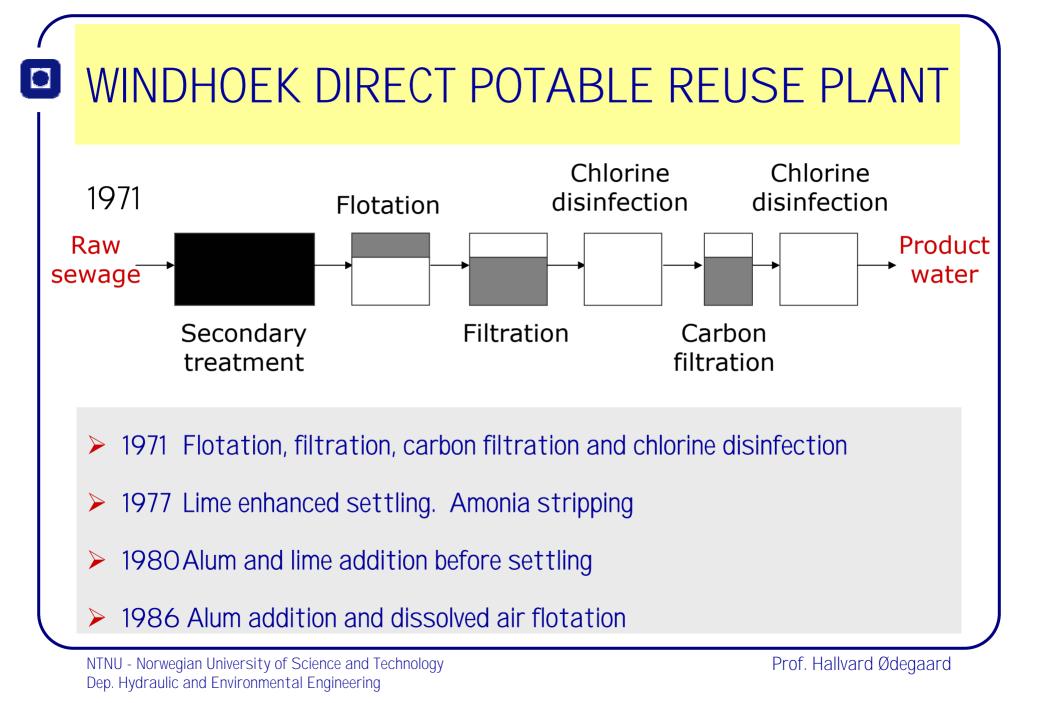
- Introduced due to water shortage
- Made possible because of advanced treatment technologies
- Health and safety aspects have resulted in a cautious attitude
- Implemented in communities with no other freshwater supply options
- Small volumes, but great interest from a technological and public health point of view



#### NAMIBIA OVERVIEW MAP



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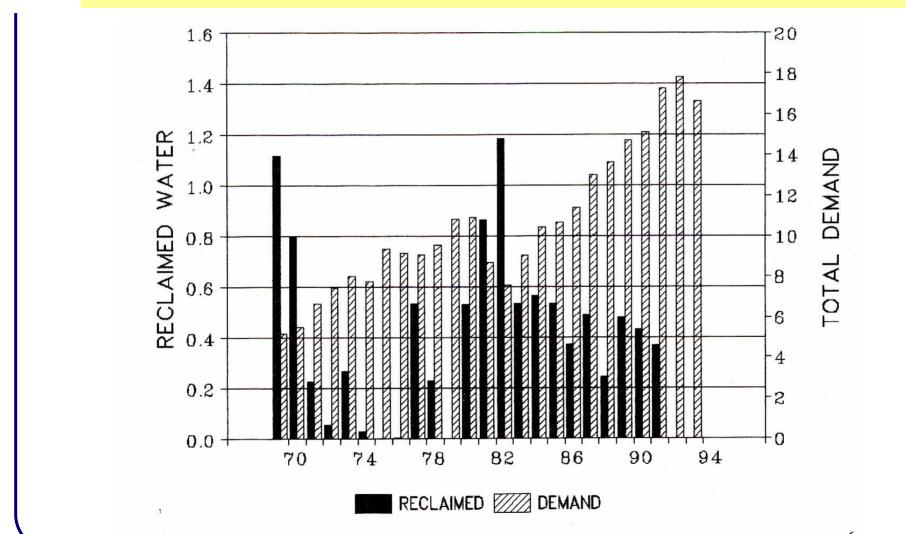
### BLENDING OF RECLAIMED WATER

Blended with conventionally treated water in two steps

- Blending with treated surface water at the treatment plant
  Minimum of 1:1 dilution, average 1:3,5
- > In the bulk water system of Windhoek
  - Distribution only to a limited number of supply zones

In the future, the surface water supply will have almost no benefit compared to the reclaimed water due to deterioration of the surface water

Increased use of reclaimed water

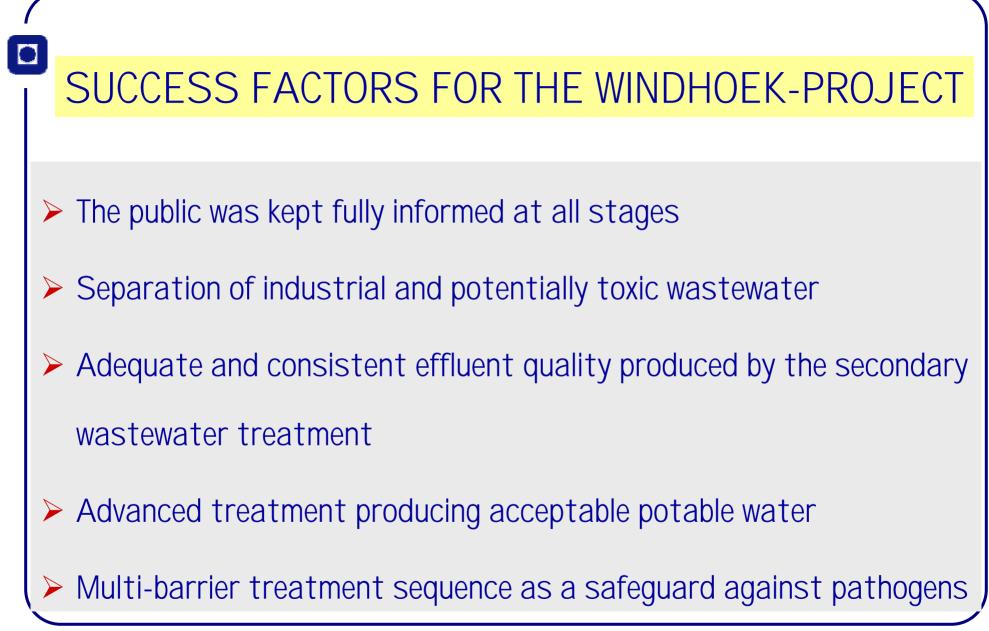


### CONTRIBUTION FROM RECLAIMED WATER

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# MONITORING OF THE WATER QUALITY

➢ Chemical Main chemical constituents > Toxicity Water flea lethality, urease enzyme activity, bacterial growth inhibition Somatic coliphages is used as an > Virological indicator for the precence of viruse, 100 % negative Bacteriological 86%<100 CFU/ml, 3 + on coliform > Algal chlorofyll levels > Mutagenicity Ames salmonella mutagenicity Mortality pattern Patterns of mortality and cancer were not affected by reclamation Monitoring represents 20 % of the total production cost

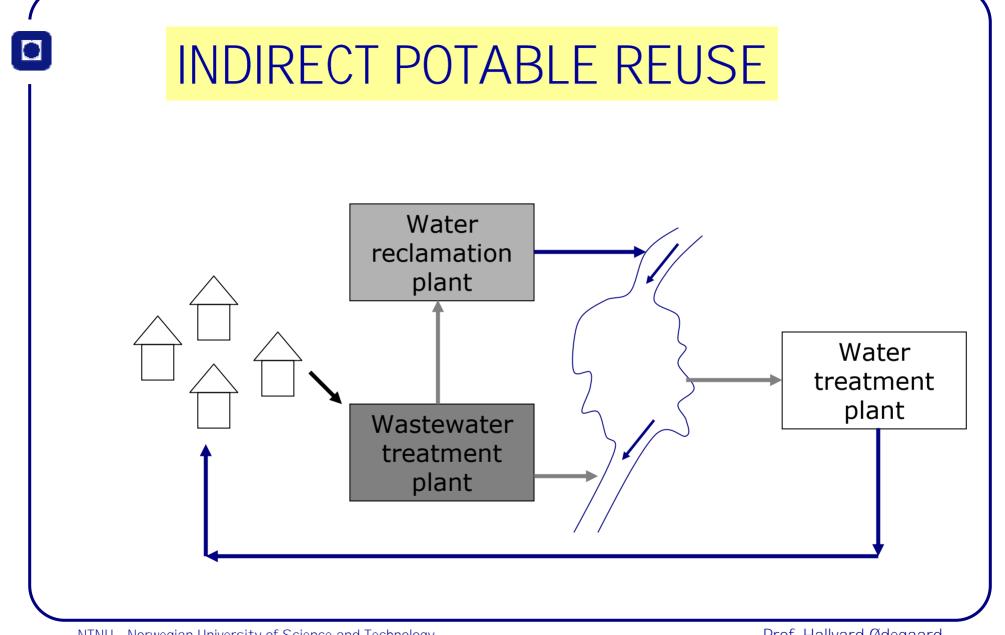


### WINDHOEK, EXPERIENCES AND CONCLUSIONS

- The Windhoek experience with wastewater reclamation to potable drinking water standards was an unqualified success during its first 25 years
- If properly informed, consumers will fully accept this perhaps controversial option
- The cost of reclamation was less than the cost of diverting water over long distances from other sources
- Reclamation and reuse is a practical option, not only for technologically advanced countries

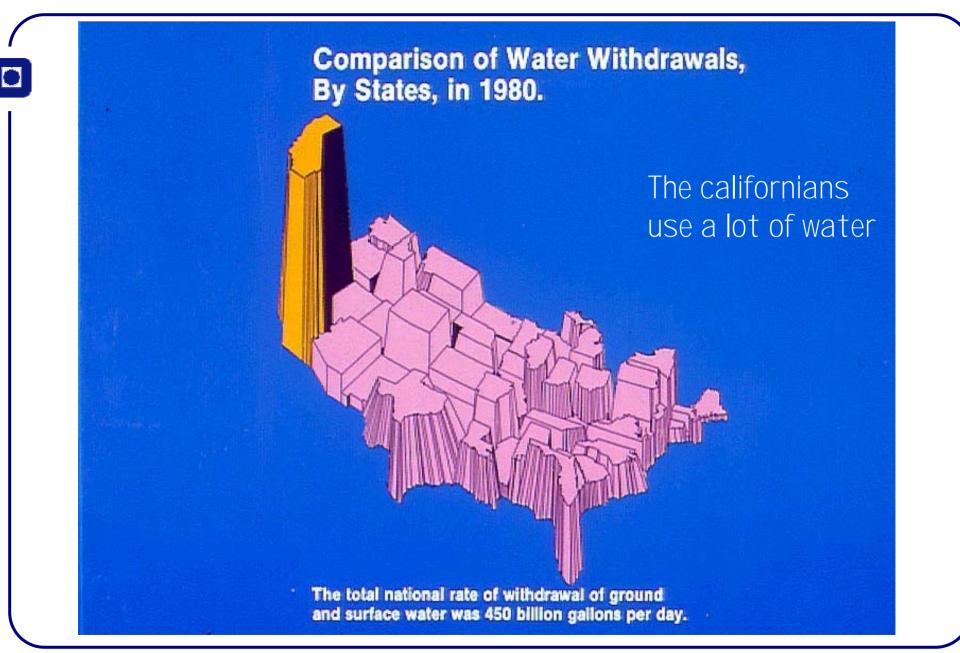
Dr. Lucas van Vuuren:

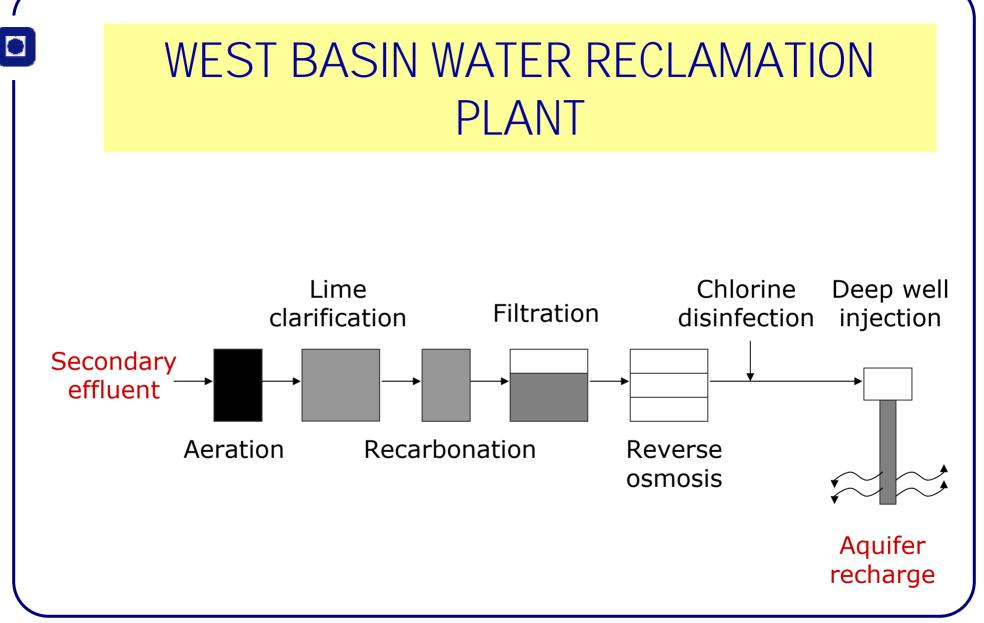
"Water should not be judged by its history, but by its quality"





- From the 1950's imported water have been injected into the ground to protect the aquifers against sea water intrusion
- Groundwater accounts for more than 20 % of the water consumption
- From June 1995, 19 000 m<sup>3</sup>/d of highly treated reclaimed water was mixed with imported surface water and injected into the West Coast Basin Barrier.
  - A baseline groundwater monitoring program was initiated in 1991 for comparison purposes





#### WATER QUALITY REGULATIONS Reclaimed water (to meet drinking water standard) BOD mg/l < SS < mg/l Turbidity 2 < NTU TOC < 2 mg/l 2,2 per Total coliform < 100 ml 6,5-8,5 pН

Oil and grease < 1 mg/l

- Groundwater recharge proposed regulations
  - Retained in aquifer for 12 months prior to extraction
  - Maximum 50 % reclaimed water within 700 m from extraction well
  - Injected water should travel at least 700 m prior to extraction

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## TRACE ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

- Traditionally organic micropollutants have been monitored according to drinking water standards by following some target compounds
- Several investigations have shown that many other "nontarget" compounds are present
- > Levine et al.(2001):
  - Trace organic compounds found were primarily disinfection byproducts as chloroform and bromoform
  - A possible release of base neutral compounds after lime clarification due to the high pH
  - > RO is an effective remover of organic micropollutants

## EXPERIENCES AND CONCLUSIONS, WEST COAST BASIN

- Use of 50 % reclaimed water for injection is anticipated to improve groundwater quality
- Cost of the 19 000 m<sup>3</sup>/d reclamation plant was about \$22 million
- Will be built out in 19 000 m<sup>3</sup>/d increments to 76 000 m<sup>3</sup>/d (extra \$40 million)
- The goal is to substitute all the treated, imported surface water currently used for the West Coast Bassin Barrier by reclaimed water



### THE POTENTIAL FOR POTABLE WATER REUSE

- Treatment technology exist and is continuously improved
  Pioneer projects have showed that it is possible, and this might help public acceptance
   Possibilities for multi-quality recycled water production
   Diversion of industrial and potential toxic wastewater
  - from the main wastewater stream



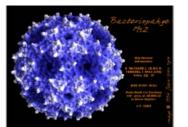
## LIMITATIONS IN POTABLE REUSE

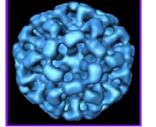
- Public acceptance
- Pathogen transmission control
- Cost competitive compared to other possibilities (desalination, water import)
- Organic chemicals from reclaimed watewater and their toxicological effect
- > Demands highly advanced analysis technology

### HEALTH AND PUBLIC SAFETY ASPECTS

- Drinking water standards are normally based on the assumption that high quality water sources are used
  - The concept of multiple barriers was introduced primarily for increased safety against pathogenic organisms
- Goal: indirect potable reuse should provide a degree of safety at least equal to that of a communities current water supply
- Health effect testing based on the effects of indirect potable reused water as compared to conventional water supplies
- Additional safeguards:
  - Blending and dilution with conventional raw water
  - Retention time
  - Natural treatment



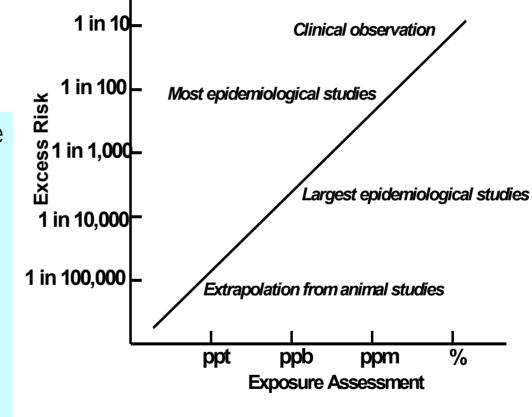


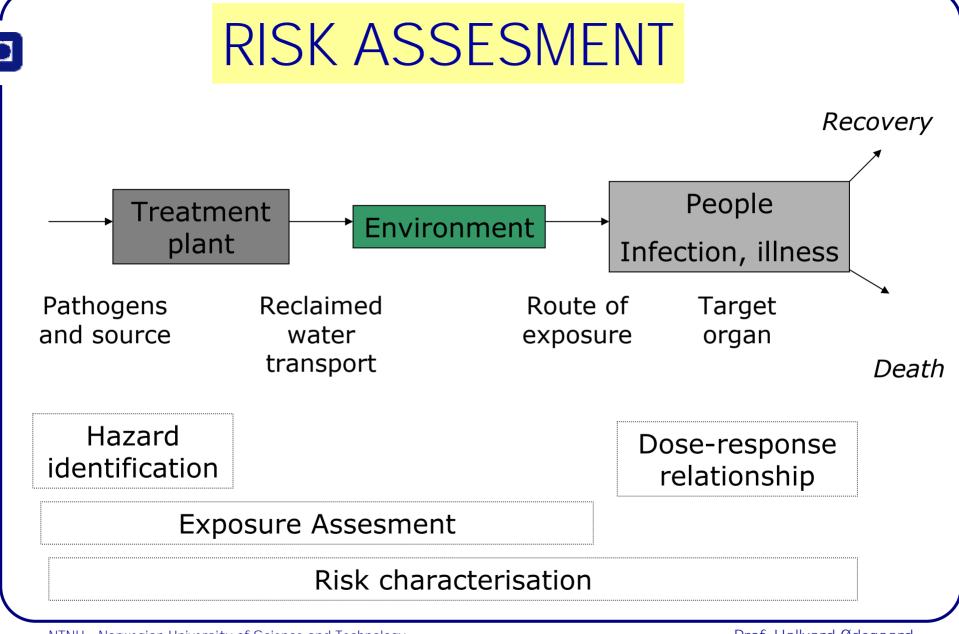




### HOW SAFE IS WATER REUSE?

- Acceptable health risks debate
- Absolute risk vs. relative risk
- Microbiological risk assessment
- Enteric virus control by treatment technologies
- Regulatory oversight
- Chemical exposure risk assessment





# POTABLE REUSE REGULATIONS

- ➤ International level
  - ➢ No regulations for potable reuse
- ≻U.S
  - ➢ No federal regulations state level
  - > California, Proposed regulations for potable recharge
    - The groundwater supply should meet all drinking water standards and require no treatment prior to distribution

### ➤ In general:

Reclaimed water for potable reuse must meet drinking water standards

 What is the likelihood that hazardous substances will be present in the reclaimed water at harmful levels?

 What is the known chemistry and toxicology of the reclaimed water or groundwater and how much of the organic material present is uncharacterized?

• What is the best disinfectant or disinfection process for groundwater recharge?

 What are the upper bound, lower bound and most probable risks that could be attributed to lifetime consumption of the reclaimed water, as well as other sources of drinking water?

 To what degree do costs influence the treatment alternatives, at the margin, relative to upper bound and most probable risks?

 Which portion of the TOC and the total halogenated organics should be removed by treatment barriers?

 What additional costs would be incurred if groundwater quality changes resulting from recharge necessitated in the future the centralized treatment and distribution of extracted groundwater?

• Is the indirect potable reuse the last resort?



### TREATMENT TECHNOLOGIES THAT PROBABLY WILL HAVE TO BE INCLUDED

Oxidation/disinfection technologies Ozonation/UV,  $H_2O_2$  etc



Advanced separation technologies Membrane separation

