## **PROCESS SELECTION**

## O.J. Morin

Misty Morn Pl., Longwood, Florida, USA

**Keywords :** Source Water, Brine Disposal, Energy Supply, Evaluation and Selection, Pre-treatment

## Contents

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Source Water
- 3. Pre-treatment
- 4. Energy Supply Alternatives
- 5. Brine Disposal Alternatives
- 6. Post-treatment
- 7. Process Design and Cost Criteria
- 8. Process Alternatives Studies
- 9. Process Evaluation and Selection
- 10. Procurement

Glossary

Bibliography and Suggestions for further study

## **1. Introduction**

## 1.1. Background

The selection of which desalting process to use is dependent on many factors. Key among these are the site specific items, such as plant location, local costs, etc. Other factors affecting the selection of process type include:

- Feedwater quality and availability
- Pre-treatment
- Process considerations
- Product water quality
- Post-treatment
- Concentrate disposal
- Economics
- Regulatory requirements
- Construction requirements

This section attempts to show how each of these factors affect the selection of a desalting process.

The desalting processes discussed in this section included only those that have attained commercial acceptance and include:

- Multi-stage flash (MSF)
- Multiple effect (ME)
- Vapor compression (VC)
- Reverse osmosis (RO)
- Electrodialysis (ED)

## 1.2. Purpose

This section outlines the methodology employed for selecting the desalting process to use for the removal of minerals from a water supply.

## 2. Source Water

## **2.1. Introduction**

Feed water supplies can be obtained from surface water impoundments or from ground water aquifers. The volume of the feed water source must be such that the desalting plant operation can remain at design capacity over the service life of the unit. Typically, a 20-year service life is expected for desalting processes.

## 2.2. Water Quality

The water quality is defined as the amount of water available for treatment. This factor sets the maximum size of the treatment process (capacity). For example, in most instances for a ground water supply the volume of the supply, and its ability to recharge itself, will normally result in a recommended "safe" withdrawal rate. That is, a constant rate that does not result in depleting the supply over the service life of the plant. Surface water supplies are normally readily recharged and, in most cases, are not under the restrictions of ground water supplies. Seawater will, of course have no limits as to capacity.

The calculation of the volume available for treatment of the surface water supply is straightforward. The establishment of the volume of the ground water supply is more difficult to predict, but normally can be established with some certainty by hydraulic modeling. Volume, however, is not the only concern when judging the availability of a water supply. The second concern is the quality of the supply.

## 2.3. Water Supply

The single most important consideration when designing the demineralization process is the water quality. The quality of the water will determine the process requirements, such as the pressure, and recovery.

The type of process to be used for the treatment of a particular water supply will depend upon the amount of organic and inorganic materials to be removed from the supply. Normally, surface water (excluding seawater) contain small concentrations of inorganic constituents but have a high organic content. Ground water supplies on the other hand, contain high concentrations of inorganics while the organic content is low. The specific amounts of the constituents to be removed set the process design requirements.

Inorganics are made up of positive ions (e.g., calcium, magnesium, etc.) and negative ions (e.g., bicarbonates, chlorides, etc.). These are quite soluble in water and their source is from the weathering, erosion and dissolution of the materials of the Earth's surface. Also, from volcanic activity releases constituents such as hydrogen sulfide, hydrogen chloride, etc. from the Earth's interior. These constituents are dissolved in the Earth's water systems and eventually flow into the sea. Also, as the Earth's surface relative to the ocean has shifted in elevation this has caused large quantities of seawater to be trapped inland. This trapped water contains deposits of rock, gypsum, limestone, and other constituents. These are eventually re-dissolved by rain and once again return to the sea.

This continual load of dissolved solids coupled with the evaporation of the sea's surface produce a concentration of dissolved solids in the sea of approximately 35 000 mg  $l^{-1}$ . The seawaters make up about 97 per cent of the world's water, which is constantly recycled by evaporation and condensation to produce rain.

## 2.4. Process Removal Capabilities

The product water quality from the desalting process varies with process type. The membrane processes will also vary as the feedwater quality changes.

## **2.4.1.** Thermal Processes

The thermal processes (i.e., MSF, VC and ME) are quite good at removing dissolved minerals from water. Typically, a unit that is in good mechanical condition and is operated properly can achieve a water quality of less than  $1.0 \text{ mg l}^{-1}$ , when treating water of any quality including seawater. The removal of organics, including volatile organics is also quite good. Although volatile organics can be expected to evaporate with the pure water, there is little chance of them redissolving in the product water if the venting system is designed and operated properly. Volatile organics can be expected to be removed along with the "sweep" steam used to ensure the removal of other non-condensible gases.

Pathogens and bacteria may also be killed in the high temperature plants (i.e., those operating at temperatures of 190°F or more). However, their removal in low-temperature plants (i.e., those operating at 160°F or less) is questionable. The application of disinfectants in the pre-treatment or post-treatment systems, will destroy these agents. Thus, there is little chance of these contaminants entering the potable water system.

## 2.4.2. Reverse Osmosis

The reverse osmosis (RO) process is capable of removing all constituents in feedwater with the exception of a small number of the volatile organics. The amount of minerals removed, however, is dependent upon the membrane used. For example the NF membrane has an approximate overall rejection rate of 70 per cent whereas, seawater

membranes reject minerals on the order of 99 per cent or more.

## 2.4.3. Electrodialysis

The electrodialysis systems only remove ionized or charged constituents from waters. Examples of minerals dissolved in the feedwater by this process are calcium, magnesium, etc. No other substances are removed.

## 2.4.4. Comparison

Table 1 gives a comparison of the removal capabilities of each process for various constituents.

Desalination process						
	Thermal		Membrane			
Constituent	Low temperature*	High temperature**	Reverse osmosis	Electrodialysis		
Inorganics	3	3	3	3		
Organics (TOC)	3	3	3	0		
Synthetic Organics	3	3	3	0		
Volatile Organics	2	2	1	0		
Bacteria	1	3	3	0		
Viruses	1	3	3	0		

Ratings: 3 =satisfactory; 2 =fair; 1 =poor; and 0 =unsatisfactory.

\* Low temperature =  $150-190^{\circ}F(65-88^{\circ}C)$ 

\*\* High temperature = 210-235°F (100-115°C)

Table 1. Process separation comparison.

## 2.5. Feed Water Classification

For this discussion, feed water characteristics are divided into three categories:

- Fresh water
- Brackish water
- Seawater

Each of these waters is composed of a different amount of mineral content described as total dissolved solids (TDS). Fresh waters are those with a TDS of up to 1000 mg  $\Gamma^{-1}$ . Brackish waters have a wide range of mineral content. This range extends from the maximum concentration of fresh water to the concentration of seawater. Seawater has a typical (standard) TDS concentration of 35 000 mg  $\Gamma^{-1}$ . These waters are given the characteristics shown in Table 2:

Туре	Total dissolved solids
Fresh	Less than 1000 mg l <sup>-1</sup>
Brackish	1000 to 35 000 mg l <sup>-1</sup>
Seawater	$35\ 000\ \mathrm{mg}\ \mathrm{l}^{-1}\ \mathrm{or}\ \mathrm{more}$

Table 2. Feed water characteristics.

At TDS concentrations above 35 000 mg  $l^{-1}$ , waters are generally classified as brines. The concentrations of these water exceeds that of seawater.

## 2.6. Surface Water Supply

Surface water supplies take their supply from lakes, rivers, streams and the sea. The intake system is composed of an intake pipe and an intake structure. The types of intakes include:

- (a) *Open intake*. The open intake is composed of an intake structure which contains the feed water pumps and an intake chamber designed to effect good flow to the pump. The intake structure can also contain auxiliary equipment as required to remove debris, such as trash racks and traveling screens, if required. The water supply to the intake structure is conveyed by a channel or similar open conveyance system.
- (b) *Pipe type intake*. The pipe type intake structure is the same as that for the open intake. This type of intake differs from the open intake by the type of water conveyance system. In the pipe type intake a pipeline is laid from the intake structure to the point of water intake. At this point a terminal is provided for the initial screening of the supply. This can be constructed of concrete or a screen can sometimes suffice.
- (c) *Ranney collector*. A Ranney collector is constructed on the shoreline. It is composed of a caisson that is sunk into the underlying water table. Perforated pipes are then placed in a radial direction extending from the caisson bottom. Thus, it resembles a well supply system. This type of supply is particularly beneficial to the RO process because the water supply from such a system will not contain colloidal material.

## 2.7. Ground Water

Ground water supplies are, of course, taken from wellfields. Wellfields are composed of a number of wells sunk into the ground water aquifer. They are sized and located such that the withdrawal of water from the aquifer does not cause undue drawdown problems in the aquifer.

## 3. Pre-treatment

## **3.1. Introduction**

The amount of pre-treatment required depends upon:

- The desalting process used
- The operating temperature
- The type of source water used (ie, surface or ground water)

The extent of pre-treatment required for each process and source water type is summarized in Table 3. In the thermal systems, the higher the operating temperature, the more complex the pre-treatment required. Also, for RO system, surface water supplies require considerably more pre-treatment steps than do ground water supplies.

## **3.2. Pre-treatment Goals**

The raw water to each process must be treated to meet certain water quality requirements before being emitted to the process. These requirements are necessarily different for each process type. Table 4 lists these requirements. Of the processes listed, the RO system requires the highest water quality. This results from the requirement that the colloidal content be quite low. Colloids can lodge in the membrane pores causing an irreversible performance loss.

Process	Operating	Source	Pre-treatment requirements**		
	temperature	type*			
Multistage flash	190	S or G	Polyphosphate addition		
Multistage flash or	235	S or G	Acid or polyelectrolyte addition,		
Multiple effect			degasification*** and deaeration		
Multiple effect	160	S or G	Polyphosphate addition		
Vapor compression	Ambient	S or G	None		
Vapor compression	190	S or G	Polyphosphate addition		
Reverse osmosis	Ambient	G	Scale inhibitor and/or acid addition cartridge filter		
Reverse osmosis	Ambient	S	Polymer addition filtration, (one or two step)		
			Cartridge filtration scale inhibitor and/or acid		
			addition		
Electrodialysis	Ambient	S or G	Scale inhibitor and/or acid addition		

\* S = Surface water; G = Ground water.

\*\* In addition, surface waters normally require chlorination.

\*\*\* Degassification is not required when using polyelectrolyte treatment only.

Goal	Thermal distillation		Reverse osmosis			EDR	
	HT <sup>b</sup>	LT <sup>c</sup>	CA <sup>d</sup>	CTA <sup>e</sup>	PA <sup>f</sup>		
Suspended solids	None	None	None	None	None	None	
Turbidity, NTU	NL <sup>g</sup>	NL	< 0.5	< 0.5	< 0.5	<2.0	
Silt density index	NL	NL	< 0.3	< 0.3	< 0.3	NL	
Temperature, °F	NL	Nl	86	86	95	110	
Oxygen (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	<.005	<.005	NL	NL	NL	NL	
Bicarbonate (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	0.0	0.0	NL	NL	NL	NL	
Residual chlorine (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	NL	NL	<2.0	<1.0	0.0	0.0	
Iron (mg $l^{-1}$ )	NL	$NL^h$	NL <sup>i</sup>	< 0.7	<0.1 <sup>h</sup>	< 0.2	
Manganese (mg $l^{-1}$ )	NL	NL	NL	<1.3	< 0.1	< 0.2	
Strontium (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	NL	NL	DT <sup>j</sup>	NS <sup>k</sup>	<15.0	<1.0	
Barium (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	NL	NL	NL	NS	< 0.1	<1.0	
Silica (mg $l^{-1}$ )	NL	NL	<135.0	<100.0	<150.0	NL	

Table 3. Pre-treatment requirements.

Table 4. Process feed water quality goals<sup>a</sup>.

<sup>a</sup> Before entering process. <sup>b</sup> High temperature operation. <sup>c</sup> Low temperature operation. <sup>d</sup> Cellulose acetate. <sup>e</sup> Cellulose triacetate. <sup>f</sup> Polyamide. <sup>g</sup> No limit. <sup>h</sup> No limit for copper nickel construction, no metals for aluminum construction. <sup>i</sup> No limit for iron in the

ferrous state. <sup>j</sup> Maximum amount depends on the pre-treatment used. <sup>k</sup> Not specified.

## **3.3. Surface Water Supplies**

Surface water supplies consist of some sort of intake chamber connected to the source water by pipeline or channel. This type of intake can be cost effective as a method for transferring the raw water to be treated. Pre-treatment of the raw water for this type of supply is straight forward with the exception of RO systems.

RO systems must be nearly completely free of colloidal constituents prior to the water entering the process. However, surface water systems contain a significant amount of colloids. Thus, for RO systems, the colloidal content must be reduced. This can be accomplished using filtration such as dual media or coarse and dual media filtration, microfiltration or ultrafiltration. The dual media and/or coarse filtration systems can be of the pressure type for small systems. For large flow rates, gravity filtration is normally used. At the present time, the microfiltration and ultrafiltration systems are more costly than the conventional systems. But as these newer filtration systems are developed they are expected to become more cost effective.

Figure 1 gives the diagrammatic sketch of the pre-treatment system using gravity filtration for RO systems. This assumes that a two stage system is used.



Figure 1. Reverse osmosis pre-treatment diagrammatic surface water system.

## 3.4. Ground Water Supplies

Ground water supplies offer the advantage of natural filtration of the raw water. Thus, for the RO process, further filtration is not required for the pre-treatment of this type of supply.

## 3.5. Artificial Ground Water Supplies

An artificial ground water supply can be constructed that acts like a well supply. This is the Ranney collector system. Use of this type of intake offers the benefit of filtration as with the well system.

## **3.6. Scale Prevention**

The scaling of membrane or tubing surfaces must be controlled in order to maintain plant performance. This is carried out by a further pre-treatment step by the addition of chemicals that act as scale inhibitors or prevent scale formation. For example, the addition of acid as a pre-treatment step will prevent calcium carbonate and magnesium hydroxide scale formation. The use of polymers or polyelectrolytes products do not prevent scale from forming, they simply provide a site for the scale to form on preferentially to the membrane or tubing surface.

Scale inhibition chemicals normally used for scale control are listed in Table 5.

Process	Chemical	Scale control					
		CaCO <sub>3</sub>	MgOH	CaSO <sub>4</sub>	BaSO <sub>4</sub>	SrSO <sub>4</sub>	CaF
LTMSF	Polyphosphate	Y <sup>a</sup>	Y	$NA^{b}$	NA	NA	NA
HTMSF	Acid and/or polyelectrolyte	Y	Y	NA	NA	NA	NA
LTME	Polyphosphate ion trap <sup>c</sup>	Y	Y	NA	NA	NA	NA
HTME	Acid and/or polyelectrolyte	Y	Y	NA	NA	NA	NA
RO	Acid and/or polymer	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
ED/EDR	Acid and/or polymer	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

<sup>a</sup> Y = yes.

<sup>b</sup> NA = not applicable.

<sup>c</sup> Required for plants using aluminum tubing materials.

Table 5. Pre-treatment chemicals.

# TO ACCESS ALL THE **76 PAGES** OF THIS CHAPTER, Visit: <u>http://www.desware.net/DESWARE-SampleAllChapter.aspx</u>

#### **Bibliography and Suggestions for further study**

ASTM, (2002), "D4189-95—Standard Test Method for Silt Density Index (SDI) of Water," ASTM Book of Standards (Print and CD-ROM), Volume 11.02,..

Darwish M.K. Al-Gobaisi (1994), Conceptual specification for improved automation and total process care in large-scale desalination plants of the future Desalination, Volume 95, Issue 3, Pages 287-297

Delyannis E., Belessiotis V. (1996) A historical overview of renewable energies, Proc. Mediterranean Conference on "Renewable Energy Sources for Water Production", 10-12 June 1996, Santorini, Greece, EURORED network, CRES, EDS, p. 13-17.

E. Mathioulakis, V. Belessiotis, E. Delyannis, (2007), *Desalination by using alternative energy: Review and state-of-the-art*, Desalination 203, Elsevier, pp. 346-365.

El-Dessouky H.T. and Ettouney H.M. (2002) Fundamentals of Salt Water Desalination. Elsevier, Amsterdam

Hazim Mohameed Qiblawey, Fawzi Banat, (2008), *Solar thermal desalination technologies*, Desalination 220, Elsevier, pp. 633-644.

Human Development Report 2006. Beyond scarcity: Power, poverty and the global water crisis (2006). *United Nations Development Programme* (UNDP).

Ian C. Watson, PE.; O.J. Morin, Jr., PE.; Lisa Henthorne (2003), Desalting Handbook for Planners, 3rd Edition, Desalination and Water Purification Research and Development Program Report No. 72

J. Morin, M.V. Carrigan, J.R. Aillet and D.G. Argo (1991), Desalting Cost Update, Proceedings of the AWWA Membrane Process Conference, Orlando, USA,.

J.R. Stange, W.S. Hsieh (1979), Considerations in the site selection and equipment specification for the Yanbu 380 m3/hr desalination plant

Jacques Andrianne, Félix Alardin(2004) ,Desalination site selection on North-African coasts , Desalination ,Volume 165, Pages 231-239

Joachim Gebel, Süleyman Yüce, (2008), A new approach to meet the growing demand of professional training for the operating and management staff of desalination plants, Desalination 220, Elsevier, pp. 150-164.

M.A. Darwish, A.M. Darwish, (2007) *Energy and water in Kuwait: A Sustainability View Point, Part II*, Conference Proceedings, Sharm El-Sheikh, Egypt, ADST.

M.A. Darwish, F.M. Al-Awadhi, A.M. Darwish, (2007) *Energy and water in Kuwait: A Sustainability View Point, Part I*, Conference Proceedings, Sharm El-Sheikh, Egypt, ADST.

M.A. Darwish, Hassan K. Abdulrahim, (2008), *Feed water arrangements in a multi-effect desalting system*, Desalination 228, Elsevier, pp. 30-54.

MEDRC R&D Report (2002) A comprehensive study of solar desalination with a humidificationdehumidification cycle, ZAE Bayern, Munich, Germany.

Michelle K. Wittholz, Brain K. O'Neill, Chris B. Colby, David Lewis, (2008), *Estimating the cost of desalination plants using a cost database*, Desalination 229, Elsevier, pp. 10-20.

Mickley and Associates, (2001). ,"Membrane Concentrate Disposal Practices and Regulations," Bureau of Reclamation, Desalination Water Purification Report Series No. 69, Denver, Colorado.

Mohamed Al-bahou, Zamzam Al-Rakaf, Hassan Zaki, Hisham Ettouney, (2007), *Desalination experience in Kuwait*, Desalination 204, Elsevier, pp. 403-415.

Nabil M. Abdel-Jabbar, Hazim Mohameed Qiblawey, Farouq S. Mjalli, Hisham Ettouney, (2007), *Simulation of large capacity MSF brine circulation plants*, Desalination 204, Elsevier, pp. 501-514.

O .J.Morin (1999), "Desalting Plant Cost Update: 2000," International Desalination Association, San Diego Conference.

O .J.Morin (1996), "Optimizing the Design of RO Facilities," Proceedings of the American WaterWorks Association Membrane Processes Conference, ..

O .J.Morin( 1991), "Desalting Costs Update," Proceedings of the First American Water Works Association Membrane Processes Conference .

Rheinlaender J. and Graeter F. (2001) Technologies for desalination of typically 10 m3 of water per day, Desalination, 139, p. 393-397.

Rommel M., Hermann M., Koschikowski J. (2000) The SODESA project: development of solar collectors with corrosion-free absorbers and first results of the desalination pilot plant, Proc. Mediterranean Conference on Policies and Strategies for Desalination and Renewable Energies, , Santorini, Greece.

Young M. Kim, Seung J. Kim, Yong S. Kim, Sangho Lee, In S. Kim, Joon Ha Kim (2009), Overview of systems engineering approaches for a large-scale seawater desalination plant with a reverse osmosis network Desalination, Volume 238, Issues 1-3,Pages 312-332