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[論 文 要 旨]

ハロベンゾキノン類(HBQs)は、新規の消毒副生成物として関心が高まっている物質群である。本研究は日本の水道における HBQs の実態把握を目的として、HBQs のうち 2,6- ジクロロー1,4- ベンゾキノン (DCBQ) について、固相抽出と LC-MS/MS を組み合わせた測定法を検討した。DCBQ の定量は、固相抽出後の窒素吹付による濃縮前の標準添加が適していた。本法の定量下限値を 8 \log L 2 と設定した。夏季と冬季に全国 12 箇所の浄水場系統の水道水中の DCBQ 濃度を測定した結果、DCBQ は 24 試料中 21 試料に存在し、その濃度範囲は 8 ~ 51 \log L であった。1 浄水場を除き、全ての浄水場系統の水道水から DCBQ の存在が確認され、国内の水道水に広く存在することがわかった。水道水中の DCBQ 濃度とクロロホルム濃度との関連性をスピアマンの順位相関係数を用いて評価した結果、両者に関連性が認められた。

キーワード: 消毒副生成物; 2,6- ジクロロ-1,4- ベンゾキノン; クロロホルム; LC-MS/MS; 塩素処理

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Determination of a *N*-Nitrosodimethylamine Precursor in Water Using Ultra-high Performance Liquid Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry

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1,1,5,5-Tetramethylcarbohydrazide (TMCH) is the main precursor of *N*-nitrosodimethylamine upon ozonation in the Yodo River basin, Japan. This study was performed to develop an analytical method for TMCH using solid-phase extraction with ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. TMCH is hydrophilic and a tertiary amine derivative, so Oasis® MCX cartridges were used as solid-phase cartridges. The recoveries of TMCH in tap and river waters as well as secondary effluent from a sewage treatment plant ranged from 75 to 94%. The limit of quantification of TMCH was 4 ng L⁻¹. The source of TMCH in the Yodo River basin was found to be effluent from one sewage treatment plant. The concentrations were < 4 ng L⁻¹ in raw water from water purification plants in regions other than the Yodo River basin, indicating that TMCH was used specifically in the basin.

Keywords *N*-Nitrosodimethylamine precursor, 1,1,5,5-tetramethylcarbohydrazide, Yodo River basin, ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry

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Introduction

N-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) is one of the nitrosamines, a group of potentially carcinogens.¹ The 10⁻⁵ lifetime excess cancer risk of NDMA in drinking water was reported to be 7 ng L⁻¹.² The maximum acceptable concentration of NDMA in drinking water in Canada is 40 ng L⁻¹.³ The guideline value for NDMA reported by the World Health Organization is 100 ng L⁻¹.⁴ In Japanese drinking water regulation, NDMA is an item listed for further study with an index value of 100 ng L⁻¹.⁵

NDMA is known to be a disinfection byproduct upon chloramination and ozonation in water.⁶⁻⁹ Compared to NDMA formation upon chloramination, reports of NDMA formation upon ozonation from water at water purification plants (WPPs) and sewage treatment plants (STPs) have been limited.¹⁰⁻¹³ In the case of WPPs in Germany, *N*,*N*-dimethylsulfamide (DMS) was shown to be an NDMA precursor upon ozonation.¹⁰ In the case of the Yodo River basin, Japan, the effluent from one STP (STP A) was the main source of NDMA precursors upon ozonation, and 1,1,5,5-tetramethylcarbohydrazide (TMCH) was the main NDMA precursor.¹⁴ The origin of TMCH at STP A was industrial effluent discharged into the sewage pipes connected to this plant. TMCH has two *N*,*N*-dimethylhydrazino functional groups, which are functional groups that produce NDMA during ozonation.^{15,16} In addition, two compounds,

4,4'-hexamethylenebis(1,1-dimethylsemicarbazide) 1,1,1',1'-tetramethyl-4,4'-(methylene-di-p-phenylene) disemicarbazide (TMDS), were also identified as being minor NDMA precursors upon ozonation in the Yodo River basin. 14,17,18 In a previous study,14 TMCH concentrations were investigated only in primary, secondary, and final effluents of STP A. However, the results were the first report on the occurrence of TMCH in water. The NDMA formation yield of TMCH upon ozonation was around 140%; this was much higher than those of other reported NDMA precursors, such as DMS, HDMS, and TMDS. 10,17 Thus, it is important to investigate the occurrence of TMCH in many types of water in Japan. In that previous study,14 TMCH was determined using ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (UHPLC-MS/MS). As the samples analyzed were the effluents of STP, the samples were determined without concentrating TMCH and the limits of quantification (LOQ) of TMCH were 20 or 50 ng L⁻¹. ¹⁴ If the TMCH concentration in environmental water is determined, the development of a method for concentrating TMCH as a pretreatment of UHPLC-MS/MS is needed.

In this study, an analytical method for TMCH was developed using solid-phase extraction with UHPLC-MS/MS to achieve lower LOQ than that reported previously. Using the analytical method developed here, the presence of TMCH in the Yodo River basin and other regions in Japan was investigated.

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$$H_3C$$
 H H H H CH_3 H_3C CH_3

Fig. 1 Chemical structure of TMCH.

Experimental

Reagents

Ultrapure water was prepared using a Gradient A10 Ultrapure Water System (Millipore, Bedford, MA). Methanol (pesticide residue-polychlorinated biphenyls analysis grade and HPLC grade), and formic acid (LC-MS grade) were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Osaka, Japan). An ammonium solution [28.0% (v/v)] was purchased from Kanto Chemical (Tokyo, Japan). TMCH (> 99.5%) was synthesized on commission by Tokyo Chemical Industry (Tokyo, Japan). The chemical structure of TMCH is shown in Fig. 1. Other reagents used were of analytical grade.

Analytical method of TMCH

Glassware (e.g., measuring flask) was used for TMCH analysis. It was confirmed that TMCH was not absorbed on the glass under both acidic [1% (v/v) formic acid solution] and neutral conditions. First, formic acid was added to the sample to a final concentration of 1% (v/v). In the case of river water and STP effluent, the acidified samples were filtered with hydrophilic polytetrafluoroethylene membrane filters (0.45 µm; Advantec Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan). Then, 20 mL of the sample was passed through an Oasis® MCX cartridge (60 mg; Waters, Milford, MA) at around 1 mL min-1. The cartridge was preconditioned using 10 mL of methanol and 10 mL of aqueous 1% (v/v) formic acid solution before use. The cartridge was washed using 5 mL of an aqueous 1% (v/v) formic acid solution and 1 mL of methanol after passing the sample. The cartridge was dried using nitrogen gas for 5 min. Elution was performed from the dried cartridge with 3 mL of a mixture of an ammonium solution and methanol (5:95 v/v). The eluate was concentrated to 0.1 mL at 40°C under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas, and filled up to 1 mL using ultrapure water. The final solution was analyzed by UHPLC-MS/MS (Acquity UPLC system and Acquity TQD tandem mass spectrometer; Waters). analytical conditions of UHPLC-MS/MS were mostly the same as those described previously.14 The analytical column was a BEH C18 column (2.1 mm × 150 mm; Waters) and the column temperature was 30°C. The mobile phase for UHPLC was (A) ultrapure water and (B) methanol. The flow rate of the mobile phase was 0.2 mL min-1. The gradient conditions of (B) were as follows: 5% at 0 min, increased linearly to 10% until 6 min, held until 11.5 min, increased linearly to 100% until 12 min, and held until 15 min. The injection volume was 25 μL . MS/ MS was operated in the positive-ion electrospray ionization mode. The capillary voltage was 3.0 kV, the collision energy was 15 V, the ion source temperature was 140°C, the desolvation temperature was 400°C, the desolvation gas flow rate was 900 L h⁻¹, and the cone gas flow rate (argon) was 50 L h⁻¹. The multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) transitions were m/z147 > 59 (quantification), m/z 147 > 85 (confirmation), and m/z147 > 102 (confirmation). Standard solutions of TMCH were prepared in ultrapure water, and the calibration points were 50,

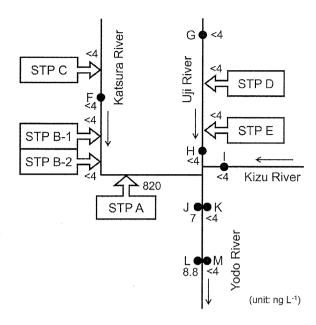


Fig. 2 Sampling points and TMCH concentrations in the final effluents of STPs A - E and river waters at F - M in the Yodo River basin in September, 2014.

100, 200, 500, and 1000 ng L-1.

Recovery test of TMCH

Recovery tests of TMCH in water matrices were performed using tap water [total organic carbon (TOC), 0.9 mg C L⁻¹; pH 7.7], river water I (TOC, 1.4 mg C L⁻¹; pH 7.4), river water II (TOC, 1.7 mg C L⁻¹; pH 7.4), and secondary effluent of STP B (TOC, 2.9 mg C L⁻¹; pH 6.5). Residual chlorine in the tap water was quenched by adding a small amount of a 200 mM (32 g L⁻¹) sodium thiosulfate solution (Wako Pure Chemical Industries) (final concentration: 160 mg L^{-1}). The number of replicates for individual water matrices was five.

Occurrence of TMCH

Brown glass bottles were used for sample containers. investigate the occurrence of TMCH in the Yodo River basin, six samples of final effluents of five STPs (STPs A - E) and eight river water samples (F - M) were collected in September, 2014 (Fig. 2). In the case of STP B, two effluents were collected (STPs B-1 and B-2). Ozonation is applied at STPs C and E, and samples of water before ozonation were also collected from these STPs. The sampling points of J and K were the same bridge (Torikai-Ohashi Bridge), but on the right and left banks, respectively. Similarly, the sampling points of L and M were the right and left banks of Hirakata-Ohashi Bridge, respectively. The final effluent of STP A was collected again in December, 2014. Moreover, raw waters of 26 WPPs at 21 prefectures throughout Japan were collected in November to December, 2014. All of the raw water samples were surface water and the main drinking water sources in the regions.

Results and Discussion

Recovery of TMCH in water matrices

Linearity of the TMCH calibration curve was observed from 50 to 1000 ng L^{-1} ($R^2 > 0.99$) (Fig. 3). The relative standard

deviations (RSDs) of replicate analyses (n = 5) at 50, 100, 200, 500, and 1000 ng L⁻¹ of TMCH were 7.2, 4.1, 4.2, 2.5, and 2.5%, respectively. The mean signal-to-noise ratio of 50 ng L⁻¹ of TMCH of the replicate analyses was 21. TMCH is a highly hydrophilic compound. For example, the predicted logarithm of the octanol-water partition coefficient of TMCH using the US EPA's EPISuite™ is -1.73.19 The predicted logarithm of the distribution coefficient of TMCH at pH 7.4 using the Advanced Chemistry Development, Inc. Percepta Platform is -0.80.19 Thus, solid-phase cartridges for the concentration of hydrophobic compounds (e.g., C18 cartridges) were inappropriate. On the other hand, TMCH is a tertiary amine derivative (i.e., a compound with N,N-dimethylhydrazino functional groups). Thus, Oasis® MCX cartridges filling mixed-mode (reversed phase/strong cation-exchange) water-wettable polymeric sorbents were used for solid-phase extraction.²⁰ Table 1 gives the results of recovery tests of TMCH in tap and river waters and secondary effluent (spiked TMCH concentration, 4 ng L-1;

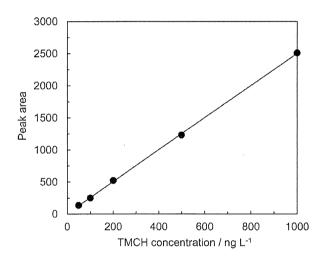


Fig. 3 Calibration curve of TMCH using UHPLC-MS/MS.

Table 1 Recovery of TMCH in water matrix^{a,b}

Matrix	Recovery, %	RSD, %
Tap water	94	4.3
River water I	75	8.4
River water II	84	11
Secondary effluent of STP B	82	9.4

a. Spiked TMCH concentration was 4 ng L-1.

n=5). TMCH was not found in the four water samples without spiking. The mean recoveries of TMCH in the four water samples were 94% (4.3%), 75% (8.4%), 84% (11%), and 82% (9.4%), respectively. The values in parentheses are the RSDs. It is described that RSDs required for organic compounds of standard and complementary items in Japanese drinking water regulation are $\leq 20\%$ at LOQ. 21,22 Also, according to the guideline for validation of drinking water examination method, 23 the goal value of the recovery test is in the range of 70-120%. Since the RSDs and recovery values of TMCH in Table 1 were $\leq 20\%$ and 70-120%, respectively, the LOQ of TMCH was set at 4 ng L⁻¹.

Occurrence of TMCH in the Yodo River basin and other regions in Japan

The TMCH concentrations in river waters and final effluents of STPs in the Yodo River basin were investigated in September, 2014 (Fig. 2 and Table 2). The TMCH concentration in the final effluent of STP A was 820 ng L⁻¹. On the other hand, the TMCH level was < 4 ng L⁻¹ in the final effluents and water before ozonation of other STPs. TMCH concentrations in the river water upstream of STP A (*i.e.*, F - I) were < 4 ng L⁻¹ (Fig. 2). However, in the river water downstream of STP A, TMCH was found on the right bank (7 ng L⁻¹ for J and 8.8 ng L⁻¹ for L) and was < 4 ng L⁻¹ on the left bank (K and M).

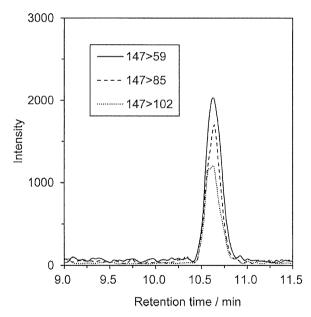


Fig. 4 MRM chromatograms of TMCH of river water at L using UHPLC-MS/MS.

Table 2 TMCH concentrations in final effluents of STPs A - E and river waters at F - M in the Yodo River basin in September 2014

Sample	TMCH concentration/ng L-1	Sample	TMCH concentration/ng L	
Final effluent of STP A	820	River water at G	< 4	
Final effluent of STP B-1	< 4	River water at H	< 4	
Final effluent of STP B-2	< 4	River water at I	< 4	
Final effluent of STP C	< 4	River water at J	7	
Final effluent of STP D	< 4	River water at K	< 4	
Final effluent of STP E	< 4	River water at L	8.8	
River water at F	< 4	River water at M	< 4	

b. The number of replicates was five.

Figure 4 shows MRM chromatograms of TMCH for L. The right bank is easily affected by the effluent from STP A. The results showed that the source of TMCH in the Yodo River basin was STP A. It is notable that at STP A TMCH was originally contained in the influent.¹⁴

The occurrence of TMCH in raw water of 26 WPPs throughout Japan was investigated in November and December, 2014. The TMCH concentrations in all of the raw waters were < 4 ng L⁻¹. One of the 26 WPPs was located downstream of STP A of the Yodo River and the intake point of raw water was the right bank of the river, but the TMCH concentration was also < 4 ng L⁻¹. In addition, the final effluent of STP A was collected again in December, 2014, and the TMCH concentration was $< 4 \text{ ng L}^{-1}$. It was reported that the TMCH concentrations in the final effluent of STP A in January and February 2014 were 70 and 86 ng L⁻¹, respectively. ¹⁴ TMCH is an NDMA precursor on ozonation.14 At WPPs whose raw waters are affected by the effluent of STP A, the NDMA concentrations in water after ozonation were > 90 ng L-1 until April 2011, but subsequently decreased.¹⁴ This indicated that the amounts of TMCH discharge through the effluent of STP A decreased, although the TMCH concentrations in September, 2014 were higher than those in January and February, 2014. In a previous study,17 the occurrence of HDMS and TMDS, minor NDMA precursors found in the Yodo River basin, was investigated in river water throughout Japan. They were frequently detected in the Yodo River basin, but were also detected in other regions (e.g., the Tone River basin). This tendency was different from that of TMCH. Thus, TMCH was specifically found in water affected by the effluent of STP A in the Yodo River basin.

Conclusions

An analytical method for TMCH in water using solid-phase extraction, followed by UHPLC-MS/MS, was developed. The LOQ of TMCH was 4 ng L⁻¹. The source of TMCH in the Yodo River basin was effluent from STP A, although TMCH was originally contained in the influent. TMCH was not found in raw water of WPPs whose raw water samples are the main water systems other than the Yodo River basin.

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トリクロラミン生成能におよぼす オゾン処理の影響

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カルキ臭の主な原因物質の一つであるトリクロラミンについて、浄水場のオゾン/活性炭処理での生成能の挙動を検討した。その結果、トリクロラミン生成能は、オゾン処理後に増加する場合があること、しかし、その後の活性炭処理でオゾン処理前と同程度あるいはそれより低下することが示された。オゾン処理後にトリクロラミン生成能が増加する理由の一つとして、共存する天然有機物の構造が変化し、トリクロラミン生成能を低下させる構成部位が減少したためと考えられた。この反応に対し、フェノール性水酸基が重要な部位であると考えられた。遊離塩素濃度を低く設定したり、pHを8に上げることは、トリクロラミン生成能の低減に有効であることが示された。

Key Words: advanced water purification process, chlorination, chlorinous odor, ozonation, trichloramine

1. はじめに

厚生労働省によると、水道の異臭味被害人口は 1990 年度の 2000 万人台をピークにその後減少したが、2010 年度以降は増減し、2013 年度は約 242 万人と報告されている ¹⁾. 被害の多かった異臭味の種類として、かび臭・土臭、植物性臭気、魚臭を挙げている ¹⁾. 一方、カルキ臭への関心も高く、水道事業体が行っている意識調査では質問項目に挙がることが多い ²³. おいしさの観点から水質目標にしている水道事業体もある ⁹.

カルキ臭の原因物質として、無機クロラミンであるトリクロラミン(NCI₃)やジクロラミン(NHCI₂)、また、N-クロロアルドイミン、有機クロラミン等が知られている。NCI₃はアンモニア(NH₃)や一部の含窒素有機化合物 [Nitrogenous Organic Compounds (NOC)] の遊離塩素との反応で生成する ⁵⁻¹⁰. 水道水や環境水の塩素処

理水中の NC_b 濃度と臭気強度との関係を見た研究では、両者に関連性は認められなかったことが報告されている 10,12 . しかし、臭気強度に対する個別化学物質の寄与を評価した場合、 NC_b の寄与は最も高く、平均で約19%であった 10 .

NH₃の遊離塩素との反応による NCl₃の生成は古くから知られており、その機構についても研究されている ^{5,0}0. 一方、質量分析法等、より低濃度で確度が高い測定方法が開発 ^{8,13)}されたことで、近年、環境水や水道水等を対象とした、より低濃度で実際を想定した系での研究も行われるようになった ^{8,14)-16)}. NCl₃の処理法については、(粉末)活性炭 [Activated Carbon (AC)] 処理、紫外線処理の検討が報告されている ^{17,18}).

一方, オゾン(O₃) 処理の研究事例は少ないが, 実浄 水場の O₃ 処理前後で NCb₃ 生成能 [Formation Potential (-FP)] に変化がなかったことが報告された ^{IO}. 対象水中 の NH3 濃度は比較的高く、主な NCIs 前駆物質であると考えられた。水温が低く生物活性が低下する冬季であったため、Os処理後段の AC 処理でも NH3の除去性能は低く、NCIs-FP もほとんど変化しなかった ¹⁹. ここで、NCIs-FP とは、設定した塩素処理条件で対象水を塩素処理した時の NCIsの生成量である。この研究では NCIs-FP 試験は 20°C で行われており、NCIs-FP が低水温の影響を受けてはいなかった ¹⁹. なお、NCIsの生成は水温が低下すると増加したが、その影響の程度は pH の影響に比べると大きくはなかったことが報告されている ⁷.

ところで、NHa濃度が同じ場合、NCls-FP は、NHsのみの場合に比べて水道原水中の方が小さかったことが報告されている ¹⁹. また、NHs やグリシン (NOC としての NCls 前駆物質) の NCls-FP は、市販の天然有機物 [Natural organic matter (NOM)] が共存した場合に低下したことが報告されている ¹⁹. これら研究は、共存物質、特に共存有機物が NCls-FP に影響をおよぼすことを示しているが、どのような構造(部位)が関係しているかは不明である.

上述の研究 ¹⁹では、NCIs-FP におよぼす O₃処理の影響 は認められなかったが、共存有機物の影響を考慮すれば、O₃ 処理によって共存有機物の構造が変化することで NCIs-FP への影響の程度が変わる場合もありうる. NCIs 前駆物質に関しては、NH₃ は O₃ 処理での反応性が低いが ²⁰、NOC の場合、O₃ 処理によって分解し、NCIs 前駆物質量が増減する可能性もある.

さらに、遊離塩素処理条件(以下、塩素処理条件)に 関しては、NCbの生成が低下する条件として、遊離塩素 濃度を低下させること、pH を上昇させることが知られ ている ^{13/21)}. しかし、実際の給配水過程を想定した場合 に、どの程度効果があるかについての検討は少ない.

本研究では、Os/AC処理を導入している浄水場について、高度浄水プロセスでのNCb-FPの挙動の検討を行った。このとき、塩素処理によるNCb-FPへの影響がないように、Os/AC処理以降に塩素処理を行っている浄水場を対象とした。また、モデル物質を用い、NCb-FPへ影響をおよばす共存有機物の構造について検討を行うとともに、Os処理によるNCb-FPへの影響について評価した。遊離塩素濃度やpHといった塩素処理条件のNCb-FPへの影響についても検討した。

2. 実験方法

(1) 試薬および保存溶液

各溶液の調製には、Gradient A10 (ミリポア) で精製した超純水を用いた、次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液 (ツルク

ロンTW)は、鶴見曹達から入手した。スワニー川天然有機物 [Suwannee River (SR) NOM] とポニー湖フルボ酸 [Pony Lake Fulivic Acid (PLFA)] は、国際腐植物質学会から購入した。NCb標準原液は、5 mMりん酸緩衝液 (pH 6) を温浴 (30°C) し、撹拌しながら塩化アンモニウム水溶液と次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液を1:3.15 mol/molとなるように加えることで作成した³. 標準原液は実験日ごとに作成した。標準原液中のNCb濃度はN,N-ジエチル-p-フェニレンジアミン [N,N-Dimethyl-p-phenylenediamine (DPD)] と第一アンモニウム硫酸 [Ferrous Ammonium Sulfate (FAS)] を用いた滴定法²³で測定した。

(2) O₃AC処理プロセスにおけるNCb-FPの挙動

2010年6~12月に、OyAC 処理を含む高度浄水プロセスを導入している2浄水場(A,B浄水場)の原水と工程水を採取し、NCL-FPの挙動について検討した、NCL。生成は塩素処理の影響を受けるため、AC 処理後に塩素処理を行っている浄水場を選定した。

採取した A, B 浄水場の工程水は、凝集沈殿処理水 (沈殿水), O₃処理水, AC 処理水であった。B 浄水場 は、凝集沈殿処理後に砂ろ過処理を行っているため、砂 ろ過水も採取した。表-1 に、原水の pH, 全有機炭素 [Total Organic Carbon (TOC)], NH:濃度を示す。

NCL-FP 試験はアルミホイルで遮光したガラス製の三角フラスコを用いて行った(試料容量:120 mL). NCL-FP 条件は、上水試験方法における消毒副生成物-FP 試験の条件を参考とし²³⁾、塩素処理の反応時間は24 h,24 h後の遊離塩素濃度は1.0±02 mg Cb/L、pHはpH 7 (6 mM りん酸緩衝液),水温は20℃とした。遊離塩素消費量(以下、塩素消費量)は、試料への添加に用いた次亜塩素酸ナトリウム溶液中の遊離塩素濃度とその添加量から塩素注入率を算出し、その値と24 h後の遊離塩素濃度との差から求めた。また、同様の手順でりん酸緩衝液(6 mM)を用いた試料をブランクとした。NCL-FPは、対象試料とブランク中のNCL。濃度の差と定義した、ブランクのNCL。濃度は20 μg Cb/L 程度であった。

りん酸緩衝液に塩素を添加した試料をブランクとしたのは、りん酸塩等の試薬、ガラス容器等の器具、環境に由来する NH。等の NCI。前駆物質からの NCI。生成の影響を評価するためである. ただし、超純水中に NCI。前駆

表-1 A, B 浄水場原水の水質

浄水場	採取月	pН	TOC (mg C/L)	NH3 (mg N/L)
A	6	7.5	1.8	0.07
	12	75	1.6	0.04
В	7	7.6	1.5	0.04

物質が存在していた場合は、NCIs-FP の値は過小評価となる.一方、NCIsは塩素処理によって生成するため、工程水にりん酸緩衝液を添加し、24 h 静置しただけではNCIsは生成しない.したがって、この試料では上述したりん酸塩等由来のNCIsを評価することができないため、本研究ではブランクには用いなかった.

なお, (3)~(5)の実験を含め, ほとんどの場合で塩素処理後の試料水中の NCIs 濃度は 2 回測定し, 平均値を採用した. 相対標準偏差は多くの場合で10%以下, 数試料を除き 20%以下であった. また, 10 程度の実験条件では異なる日に複数回実験を行った. この実験間のNCIs-FP の相対標準偏差は, 2 条件を除き 3.7~15%の範囲で, 残り 2 条件は 35%, 48%であった. 実験間の標準偏差は、実験結果の図中にエラーバーとして示した.

(3) NCIs-FPにおよぼす共存有機物種の影響

どのような構造(部位)を持つ有機物が NCIa 前駆物質と共存する場合, NCIa-FP に影響をおよぼすか, 代表的な NCIa 前駆物質であり, (4)の検討を考慮し Oa 処理での反応性が低い NHa を用いて検討を行った. NHa 濃度は0.1 mg N/L とした. NHaのみの場合, NHa 濃度が<0.02 mg N/L であっても NCIa 前駆物質として影響する ⁷. 一方,他の NCIa 前駆物質や共存有機物が存在する場合, NCIa 前駆物質として影響をおよぼす NHa 濃度は対象水によって異なる. 例えば,原水中の NHa 濃度が 0.1 mg N/L 以上の場合,概して NHa が主な NCIa 前駆物質であったことが報告されている ¹⁹.

共存有機物として、1種の NOM (SRNOM) と 10種の個別化学物質 (フェノール、レゾルシノール、フタル酸、安息香酸、ホルムアルデヒド、ギ酸、酢酸、シュウ酸、グルコース、エタノール)を用いた (図-1). 個別化学物質は、NOM の構成部位を持つ単純な構造を示す物質、あるいは NOM の O3 処理生成物として知られている物質から選定した. NOM の構成部位を持つ物質 ²⁴⁾

図-1 共存有機物(個別化学物質)の構造

としては、芳香族化合物のうち、O3分子との反応性が高いフェノール性水酸基を持つ物質(フェノール、レゾルシノール)、反応性が低いカルボキシル基を持つ物質(フタル酸、安息香酸)を対象とした。また、糖類、アルコール²⁴としては、それぞれグルコース、エタノールを対象とした。NOMのO3処理生成物²⁵であるアルデヒドおよび低級カルボン酸の中から、それぞれホルムアルデヒド、およびギ酸、酢酸、シュウ酸を対象とした。

共存有機物濃度は、実浄水場の工程水で想定できる濃度として、1 mg C/L を設定した. しかし、個別化学物質(あるいは個別部位)濃度は、1 mg C/L より低いと考えられる. また、一部の物質は 3 mg C/L でも実験を行った. このとき、対象共存有機物として、NOM を構成している部位を持つ物質の中からは、共存影響が顕著に表れたフェノール性水酸基を持つ物質(結果および考察を参照)以外のフタル酸、安息香酸、グルコース、エタノールを、O₃ 処理生成物の中からは、低級カルボン酸の代表として酢酸を選定した.

NH₃のみの場合についても NCl₃-FP を測定した. NCl₅-FP は, (2)と同様の条件で求めた(ただし,りん酸緩衝液濃度は $5\,\mathrm{mM}$).

さらに、 NH_3 (0.45 mg NL) にフェノール ($2 \, \text{mg C/L}$) が共存しない場合とする場合について、塩素処理後の窒素の形態を検討した.窒素として、全窒素 $[Total \ Nitrogen\ (TN)\]$ 、硝酸イオン (NO_3^-) 、亜硝酸イオン (NO_2^-) を測定した.塩素処理条件は、 NCl_5 -FP と同じ条件とした. NH_3 は遊離塩素と速やかに反応すること 20 、反応時間が $24\ h$ で、遊離塩素が $1.0\pm0.2\ mg\ Cl_6/L$ 残存することを塩素処理条件にしているため、塩素処理後の試料水中の NH_3 濃度の測定は行わなかったが、塩素処理後には NH_3 は残存していないと考えられた.

(4) NCI₀-FPにおよぼすO3処理の影響

NCIs 前駆物質と共存有機物が存在する条件で Os 処理を行い、その前後の NCIs-FP を測定し、影響の有無について検討した。 NCIs 前駆物質は、(3)と同様に NHs (0.1 mg NL) とし、pH は7 (5 mM りん酸緩衝液)とした。 NHsは pH が 7 では、Os 処理でほとんど反応しないため つの、処理による共存有機物の構造変化による影響を見ることとなる。 共存有機物は、(3)の実験結果(結果および考察を参照)を踏まえ、SRNOM、フェノール、フタル酸を選定した(いずれも 1 mg CL).

また、PLFA(0.1 mg NL)を O_2 処理した場合の NCl₅FPにおよぼす影響についても検討した [pH 7 (5 mM 9 ん酸緩衝液)]. PLFA は、窒素の含有率が他の NOM に比較して大きく(窒素と炭素の重量比:0.12 w/w)、NCl₅ 前駆物質であったことが報告されている 27 . PLFA

の O₃ 処理による影響は、NCI₈ 前駆物質となる部位の増減と共存影響をおよぼす部位の構造変化の両方が包含された結果となる.

O3 処理の実験は、半回分式で行った。O3 発生器は POX-20(富士電機)を用いた(原料:純酸素). 試料量は1 L, O3濃度は5 mg/L, ガス流量は250 mL/min, 水温は20℃とした。O3 との反応性が高い物質が分解した状態を想定し、O3 処理時間は、溶存 O3濃度として0.1~02 mg/L 程度となるような時間とした。このため、O3の吹込み時間は2~10 min(O3 注入率:2.5~12.5 mg/L)と対象水によって異なった。その後、溶存 O3 が消失するよう1 h程度静置した。O3処理前後の水について、(2)と同様の条件で NCI-FP を評価した(ただし、りん酸緩衝液濃度は5 mM).

(5) NCIo-FPにおよぼす遊離残留塩素濃度、pHの影響

NCIs 生成には、遊離塩素濃度や pH と関連があることが知られている。これら 2 つの影響因子の NCIs-FP への影響について検討を行った。影響因子以外の塩素処理条件は(2)と同様とした。一方、影響因子に関連した塩素処理条件は異なっているが、NCIs-FP は、設定した条件における NCIs 生成量としており、より高い値となるような条件ではないため、本研究では、いずれの場合もNCIs-FP と呼ぶこととした。

塩素処理後(24 h後)の遊離塩素濃度の影響を見る場合, 6, 12 月の A 浄水場 AC 処理水および 7, 11 月の B 浄水場 AC 処理水を対象とし、遊離塩素濃度は 0.1~0.2, 0.5±0.1, 1.0±0.2 mg Cb/L に変化させた. pH の影響を見る場合, 11 月の B 浄水場 AC 処理水を対象とし、pH は 6, 7, 8 で変化させた.

(6) 測定方法

NCI₃ 濃度はヘッドスペースガスクロマトグラフ質量分析法(6890N/5975C; アジレントテクノロジー)で測定した 15 . 内部標準に 1,1,2-トリクロロエタン-a. (ケンブリッジアイソトープラボラトリー)を用いた. 定量下限値は 15 μ g CL/L であった. O_3 濃度は PG-620HA(荏原実業)で,溶存 O_3 濃度はインジゴを用いた吸光光度法で測定した 20 . 遊離塩素濃度は,DPD と FAS による滴定法で測定した 20 . TOC 濃度は TOC 計(TOC-V CPH; 島津製作所)で,TN 濃度は TN 計(TNM-1; 島津製作所)で,TN 濃度は TN 計(TNM-1; 島津製作所)で測定した. NO_3 -および NO_2 -濃度はイオンクロマトグラフ(DX-500;ダイオネクス)で,NH3 濃度はインドフェノール法 20 で測定した.

3. 結果および考察

(1) O₂/AC処理プロセスにおけるNCk-FPの挙動

図-2に、O/AC処理を含む高度浄水プロセスにおける NCb-FPの挙動を示す。6,12月のA浄水場,7月のB浄水場の原水およびAC処理水中のNCb-FPは,それぞれ39~89および21~30 µg Cb/Lの範囲であった。NH-濃度は,それぞれ0.04~0.07および<0.02~0.04 mg N/Lの範囲であった。このNH-濃度範囲の場合、NH-がNCb前駆物質として影響するかどうかは、対象水によって異なると考えられる。

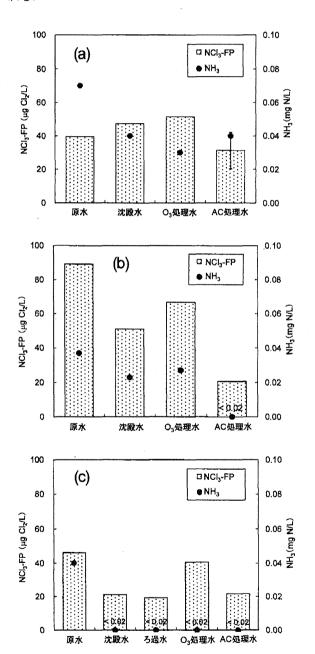


図-2 高度浄水プロセスにおけるNCb-FPの挙動 [(a) 6月および (b) 12月のA浄水場, (c) 7月のB浄水場] (反応時間, 24 h; 24 h後の遊離塩素, 1.0±0.2 mg Cb/L; pH 7; 20°C)

本研究では浄水中のNCla濃度は測定しなかったが、Oy/AC処理を導入している別の浄水場では、AC処理水中のNHa濃度は0~0.05 mg N/L、浄水中のNCla濃度は16~110 μg Cla/Lの範囲であった(値は図からの読み取りを含む) 25. AC処理水中のNHa濃度が<0.02 mg N/Lの場合では、浄水中のNCla濃度は16~約40 μg Cla/Lの範囲であった。この報告26と本研究では対象水や塩素処理条件が異なり、比較することは困難であるが、浄水中のNCla濃度とAC処理水のNCla-FPの値は、NHa濃度も考慮すれば、大幅に異なってはいないと考えられた。

12月のA浄水場と7月のB浄水場の場合,NCl₂FPは沈殿水で低下し、O₃処理水では増加した。しかし、その後のAC処理によって、NCl₂FPは沈殿水と同程度か、それ以下にまで低下する傾向が認められた。砂ろ過を行っているB浄水場では、沈殿水と砂ろ過水のNCl₂FPは同程度の値であった。一方、6月のA浄水場の場合、NCl₂FPの挙動は異なった。すなわち、原水に比べ沈殿水では若干増加し、O₃処理水ではあまり変わらなかった。ただし、AC処理水では低下した。また、NCl₂FPの挙動はNCl₃前駆物質の一つであるNH₃の挙動とは一致しなかった。

これらの結果から、O₅処理によって NCI₅-FP の低減効果は期待できず、場合によっては増加する場合があることがわかった。しかし、O₅AC 処理全体で評価した場合には、その低減に有効であることが示された。以前の研究では、NCI₅-FP は O₅AC 処理を含む高度浄水プロセスでほとんど変わらなかったことが報告されている ¹⁹. O₅処理で変化がなかったのは本研究でも認められたが、AC 処理については、冬季で水温が低く生物活性が低下したため、NCI₅前駆物質の除去性能が低かったことによると考えられた。

NCI₃ 前駆物質のみの場合に比べ、原水や NOM 共存下では NCI₃-FP が低下することが報告されている ²³. O₃処理の影響として、一部の NCI₃ 前駆物質や共存物質(特に共存有機物)はその構造が変化すると考えられる. したがって、O₃処理によって NCI₃-FP が増加する理由の一つとして、NCI₃ 前駆物質濃度の増加、あるいは共存有機物による NCI₃-FP 低下の程度の減少が推測される. (2), (3)において、これらの可能性について検討を進める.

(2) NCb-FP におよぼす共存有機物種の影響

図-3 に、NH₃ (0.1 mg N/L) の NCI₃-FP におよぼす共存有機物種 (1 mg C/L) の影響を示す、NCI₃-FP は、NH₃のみでは 310 µg Cl₃/L であったが、幾つかの共存有機物存在下では低下した、SRNOM、フェノール、レゾルシノールが共存した場合は顕著であった、フェノール、レゾルシノールは代表的な NOM の構成部位の一つである、

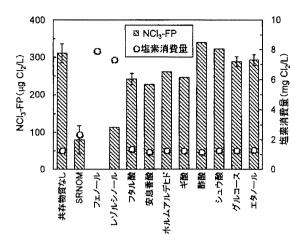


図-3 NH₃のNCb-FPにおよぼす共存有機物種の影響(NH₃, 0.1 mg NL; 共存有機物, 1 mg CL; 反応時間, 24 h; 24 h後の遊離塩素, 1.0±0.2 mg Cb/L; pH7; 20°C)

フェノール性水酸基を有する物質として選定した. したがって,フェノール類は NCI₅-FP を低下させる物質群であり, NOM の共存影響についても,フェノール性水酸基が重要な部位であると考えられた.

遊離塩素濃度が一定の条件で NCI₂-FP が低下する理由として、NCI₃ 前駆物質 [NH₃, モノクロラミン(NH₂CI), NHCI₂] が共存有機物と反応する場合が考えられる. 一般的に、有機物の遊離塩素との反応性は、NH₂CI やNHCI₂よりも速やかであるため、NCI₃-FP の低下は、NCI₃と有機物との反応による方が大きいと推測された. 最近の研究で、NCI₃のフェノール類との反応性は遊離塩素と同等以上であることが報告され²⁹、図-3の結果を支持していると考えられた.

他の 8 物質が共存した場合,塩素消費量は NH₃のみの場合と同程度であった.フタル酸,安息香酸は,電子吸引性であるカルボキシル基を有しており,芳香族化合物でもフェノール類と異なり遊離塩素との反応性は低い.残り 6 物質は,アルコール,カルボニル基(アルデヒド,カルボン酸等)といった含酸素の部位を有しているが,この含酸素の部位と遊離塩素との反応性は,概して低いことが知られている²⁰.つまり,これら 8 物質は遊離塩素との反応性が低いため,塩素消費量に影響をおよぼさなかったと言える.

一方、NCI₃-FP は、フェノール類ほどではないが、一部の物質(フタル酸、安息香酸、ホルムアルデヒド、ギ酸)が共存する場合、NH₃のみの場合に比べて低下した(230~260 μg Cl₃L). したがって、これら 4 物質は遊離塩素との反応性は低いが、NCI₃と反応し、分解したと推測された、フタル酸と安息香酸はフェノール類と同じ芳香族化合物であり、NOM の構成部位の一つとして選

定した. NOM の構成部位の中には、塩素消費量に影響はおよぼさないが、NCl₃-FP を低下させる部位があることがわかった. O₃ 処理生成物の点から選定した物質については、ホルムアルデヒドとギ酸が影響をおよぼした. したがって、O₃ 処理によって、NCl₃-FP を低下させる物質が一部生成されることがわかった. このうち、ギ酸は酢酸、シュウ酸と同様に低級カルボン酸であり、物質群が一緒でも NCl₃との反応性は異なることが示された.

フタル酸、安息香酸、グルコース、エタノール、酢酸の5物質について、共存有機物濃度を3mg C/Lにして検討も行った。共存によって NCI₂-FP が低下した物質は、共存有機物濃度の増加にしたがって低下の程度は大きくなり、低下しなかった物質は共存有機物濃度を変えてもほとんど変わらなった(図省略).

NCIs-FP が低下した場合、NCIs 前駆物質である NHs がどのような物質へと変換したのか、フェノールを共存有機物として、窒素の形態の点から検討した(NHs: 0.45~0.47 mg N/L)、NHsのみの場合、塩素処理後の TN は<0.1 mg N/L、NO3¯, NO2¯はいずれも<0.02 mg N/Lであった。一方、フェノール(2 mg C/L)が共存する場合、塩素処理後の TN は 0.17 mg N/L、NO3¯, NO2¯はいずれも<0.02 mg N/Lであった。 TN と NO3¯, NO2¯はいずれも<0.02 mg N/L であると考えられる(NHs と塩素との反応性は非常に速やかであり 20 , 24 h後は残存していないと考えられたため、測定してはいないが<0.02 mg N/L とみなした)。 したがって、フェノールが共存した場合、NCIsはフェノールと反応し、その一部は NOC へとなったため、NCIs-FP の低下につながったと考えられた

(3) NCIb-FPにおよぼすO₃処理の影響

(1)では、実浄水場において、O3処理後に NCIsFP が増加している傾向が示された(図-2).本節では、モデル物質を用いて O3処理実験を行い、NCIsFP への影響について検討した、NH3 (0.1 mg NL)を前駆物質とし、(2)で NCIsFP が低下した共存有機物のうち、SRNOM、フェノール、フタル酸を共存有機物(1 mg CL)とした.

図4に、共存有機物存在下でのNH₃のNCl₃-FPにおよぼすO₃処理の影響を示す. SRNOMとフェノールの場合、O₃処理後のNCl₃-FPは、O₃処理前に比べて増加し、それぞれ 150 および 240 µg Cl₃Lになった. O₃処理後の塩素消費量はいずれも低下した. 一方、フタル酸の場合、NCl₃-FPはO₃処理前後でほとんど変わらなかった. 塩素消費量は、O₃処理後に増加した. なお、SRNOM、フェノール、フタル酸のいずれの場合も、NH₃濃度は O₃処理前後でほとんど変わらなかった.

フェノール類は、Oa分子との反応性が高い物質群で

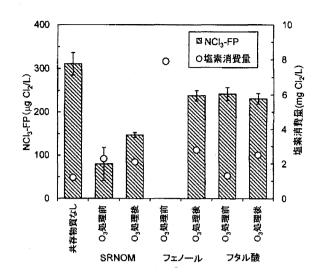


図-4 共存物質存在下でのNH₂のNCb-FPにおよぼすO₅処理の影響 (NH₃, 0.1 mg N/L; 共存物質, 1 mg C/L; 反応時間, 24h; 24h後の遊離塩素, 1.0±0.2 mg Cb/L; pH7; 20°C)

ある²⁰. SRNOM とフェノールの結果は、O₃処理によって、遊離塩素や NCl₃との反応性が高い部位が減少したため、NCl₃FP が増加したと考えられた。なお、フェノールの方が O₃処理後の NCl₃FP が大きかった理由は、本研究では明確にできなかったが、例えば O₃処理で分解しなかった部位や O₃処理生成物の違いが推測された。O₃処理生成物については、(2)において、NCl₃FP に影響をおよぼした物質とおよぼさなかった物質があったことが示されている(図-3参照).

フタル酸については、O₃ 処理によって一部遊離塩素 と反応しやすい物質になったが、その物質の NCI₃-FP へ の共存影響がフタル酸と同程度であったため、O₃ 処理 前後で NCI₃-FP がほとんど変わらなかったと推測された。

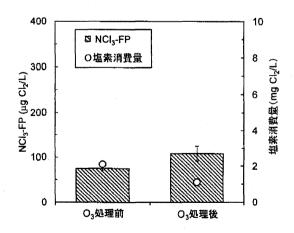


図-5 PLFAのNCh-FPにおよぼすO₅処理の影響 (PLFA, 0.1 mg N/L; 反応時間, 24 h; 24 h後の遊離塩素, 1.0±0.2 mg Ch/L; pH7.0; 20°C)

続いて、NOC が NCI₃前駆物質の場合の O_3 処理による 影響について検討した. 図-5 に、PLFA の NCI₃-FP にお よぼす O_3 処理の影響を示す. O_3 処理によって NCI₃-FP は 74から 110 μ g CI₃Lへと増加し、一方、塩素消費量は 低下した.

PLFA の場合, NCI。前駆物質となる構成部位は、アミノ基, 特に第1級アミノ基と推測される 10. 中性付近での O3 処理によって、NH3の場合と異なり、第一級アミノ基は NCI。前駆物質にならない部位へと変換することもありうる. にもかかわらず、O3 処理によって NCI。FPが増加したのは、NCI。FPを低下する(NCI。との反応性が高い)他の部位が減少した、一部の NOC が NCI。前駆物質となりうる部位へと変換した割合の方が大きかったためと推測された.

これらの結果から、実浄水場において O₃ 処理後に NCI₅-FP が増加した場合があった理由の一つは、共存有機物 (NOM) の構造が変化し、共存によって NCI₅-FP を低下させる構成部位が減少したことによると考えられた.このとき、フェノール性水酸基が重要な部位であると考えられた. NOM の構造変化による影響は、O₃ 処理による反応性が低い NH₃ が主な NCI₃ 前駆物質の場合だけでなく、NOC が NCI₃ 前駆物質の場合にも認められる場合があると考えられた.

(4) NCk-FPにおよぼす遊離残留塩素濃度、pHの影響

図-6に、AC処理水を対象とした場合の、NCb-FPにおよぼす24 h後の遊離塩素濃度の影響を示す。全ての対象水で、遊離塩素濃度を低く設定した方がNCb-FPは減少した。例えば、NCb-FPは遊離塩素濃度が1.0±0.2 mg Cb/Lでは16~39 μg Cb/Lであったが、遊離塩素濃度が0.1~0.2 mg Cb/Lでは0付近であった。このとき、一部の条件を除いて、遊離塩素濃度を低下させた程度以上に、NCb-FPは大きく低下した。

図-7に、B浄水場のAC処理水を対象とした場合の、NCls-FPにおよぼすpHの影響を示す。pHが6、7の場合はNCls-FPは変わらず40 μg Cls/L程度であった。遊離塩素と無機クロラミンは平衡関係にあり、それの関係はpHの影響を受ける9.このため、遊離塩素濃度が同程度であっても、NCls濃度はpHによって異なると言える。例えば、NClsの支配的なpHは<4.4と報告されている30.一方、遊離塩素濃度が同程度で、反応時間が180分までにおいて、pHが5と7で比較を行った研究では、NCls濃度はあまり変わらない、あるいは若干pH 5の方が小さかった(値は図からの読み取り)7.本研究の結果から、反応時間が24 hでも類似の傾向にあることがわかった。一方、pH 8ではNCls-FPが大きく低下した(16 μg Cls/L)が、この傾向も、pHが8の場合、NHsからのNClsの生成が低かった

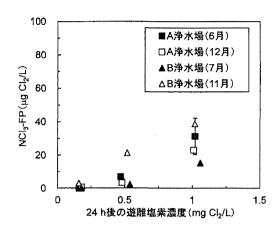


図-6 NCb-FP におよぼす遊離塩素濃度の影響(対象試料, AC 処理水; 反応時間, 24h; pH7; 20°C)

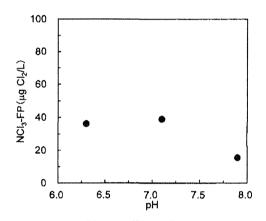


図-7 NCL-FPにおよぼすpHの影響 [対象試料, 11月のB浄水場のAC処理水; 反応時間, 24 h; 24 h後の遊離塩素, 1.0±0.2 mg CL/L; pH7; 20°C]

との報告と一致している¹³⁾. したがって、AC処理水に 対するNCL-FPの傾向は、これまでの報告と同様である と考えられた.

したがって、給配水過程での消毒効果の維持・確保は前提とはなるが、水道水中の遊離塩素濃度を低減化すること、pH を 8 程度まで上昇させることは、給配水過程での NCl₃ の生成を低減するという点では、有効であると考えられた.このうち、pH は水質基準として 5.8~8.6 が定められているが、水質管理目標設定項目として 7.5 程度が示されている ³¹⁾ため、浄水場出口で意図的に 8 程度まで上昇させることは、現実的には運転管理上ありそうにはないと推測される.一方、遊離塩素濃度の低減化は、水道水のおいしさの観点から実施している水道事業体もあり ⁴、本研究の結果も、それを支持するものであると言える.

4. まとめ

- (1) Os/AC処理において、Os処理によってNCb-FPは増加する場合があることがわかった.しかし、その後のAC処理でNCb-FPは低下した.Os/AC処理全体で見ると、Os処理前よりもNCb-FPが低下する場合があることが示された.
- (2) NOMの構成部位のうち、NCL-FPを大きく低下させる 部位は、フェノール性水酸基であることがわかった.フェノール性水酸基ほどではないが、NOMを構成する他 の部位やNOMのOs処理生成物のうち、塩素消費には影響しないがNCL-FPを減少させる部位、物質があること が示された.
- (3) 実浄水場のOs処理によってNCIs-FPは増加する場合があった理由の一つは、NOMの構造が変化し、共存によってNCIs-FPを減少させる部位が減少したことによると考えられた。この現象に対し、特に、フェノール性水酸基が重要な部位であると考えられた。
- (4) 遊離塩素濃度を低く設定すること、pHを8に上昇させることで、NCb-FPは低下することが示された.

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EFFECTS OF OZONATION ON TRICHLORAMINE FORMATION POTENTIAL

Koji KOSAKA, Keisuke FUKUDA, Reina NAKAMURA, Naoya KOBASHIGAWA, Mari ASAMI, Shinya ECHIGO and Michihiro AKIBA

Trichloramine is one of the major chlorinous odor compounds in drinking water. Trichloramine formation potential upon chlorination increased after ozonation at actual water purification processes. The formation potential, however, decreased after following activated carbon process. Thus, the levels of the trichloramine formation potential after activated carbon process was similar to or lower than that before ozonation. It was considered that one of the reasons of the increase of trichloramine formation potential after ozonation was the change of the chemical structures of natural organic matter in the process water by ozonation, and the amounts of reaction sites which affected trichloramine formation potential was decreased. It was also condiered that phenolic groups were important reaction sites for this reaction. Trichloramine formation potential upon chlorinataion decreased when free chlorine concentration decreased and pH of the sample increased at 8.



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Characterization of organic precursors for chlorinous odor before and after ozonation by a fractionation technique



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ABSTRACT

To identify the primary fraction of dissolved organic matter (DOM) responsible for chlorinous odor, waters treated by the conventional treatment (i.e., coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation and rapid sand filtration (RSF)) and ozonation were characterized by a fractionation technique prior to chlorination. Furthermore, chlorinous odor strengths originated from organic fractions were compared with that resulted from trichloramine (NCl₃). Odor strengths and trichloramine concentrations were determined by the triangle sensory test and head space-GC/MS, respectively. The major DOM fraction for outlet water of RSF was hydrophobic acid (HoA), whereas the hydrophilic acid (HiA) fraction was dominant in the ozonated water. For a fixed DOC level (1 mgC/L), the base (Bas) or hydrophilic base (HiB) fraction was found to be the major organic precursor of chlorinous odor for the effluent of RSF. Even the mass percentages of DOM fractions in RSF water were considered, Bas was the major DOM fractions responsible for chlorinous odor. For ozonated water, two major precursors of chlorinous odor were HiA and hydrophilic neutral (HiN) fractions. Furthermore, the influence of trichloramine on chlorinous odor intensity for ozonated water should not be negligible. Under variation of seasonal organic contents, changes in precursors of chlorinous odor were observed.

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1. Introduction

Chlorinous odor, an undesired smell produced during chlorination, can lead to consumers' suspicion on tap water quality (Bruchet et al., 2004; Yanagibashi, 2008). To avoid this negative public perception on water supply service, the appropriate control of chlorinous odor is necessary. Trichloramine (NCl₃) has been considered as a major compound causing chlorinous odor (Yiin and Margerum, 1990), and it is formed when ammonium ion (NH₄⁺) and some nitrogenous organic compounds react with chlorine. However, the odor threshold concentration of trichloramine (3.4 µg/L as NCl₃) is still higher (i.e., its odor is less intense) than those of some chlorinated-organic compounds (e.g., N-chloroaldimines) (Freuze et al., 2004, 2005; Yanagibashi, 2008). Thus, the studies on the chlorinous odor have recently focused on organic odor precursors (e.g., amino acids) (Freuze et al., 2005; Brosillon et al., 2009).

Dissolved organic matter (DOM), a heterogeneous mixture of

organic materials, is believed to be a major precursor of chlorinous odor (Freuze et al., 2005; Brosillon et al., 2009). However, the chemical characteristics of the organic precursors are not fully understood. Identifying the DOM fractions responsible for chlorinous odor formation is an important step for designing treatment processes for chlorinous odor control because different DOM fractions behave differently. For example, compounds with high hydrophobicity and large molecular weight (MW) are easily removed in coagulation/flocculation, sedimentation, and sand filtration, while compounds that are low hydrophobicity or low MW (e.g., amino acids) are not effectively removed in these processes. Also, DOM can be converted into smaller compounds in ozonation (Marhaba and Van, 2000; Chiang et al., 2002). Our previous study found that the ozonation could reduce chlorinous odor formation potential by approximately 50% (Phattarapattamawong et al., 2011). However, it is still unclear which DOM fraction is mainly responsible for chlorinous odor formation and if chemical oxidation (e.g., ozonation) changes the relative importance of DOM fraction with respect to chlorinous odor.

A common approach to isolate the fraction of DOM that has similar chemical properties is a technique of resin-adsorption chromatography. The method is the separation based on the

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amphiphilic and amphoteric properties. Briefly, hydrophobic substances (i.e. humic and fulvic compounds) that is adsorbed at acidic pH onto the XAD-8 resin is separated from hydrophilic fractions (Leenheer, 1981). The XAD-4 resin is used for separating the transphilic fraction, intermediate polar compounds, from hydrophilic fractions. All fractions are more or less reactive to chlorine. Hydrophilic fractions were the greater chlorine consumer than hydrophobic compounds (i.e., humic and fulvic acids) which were more reactive to chlorine than transphilic fractions (Croue et al., 2000). Leenheer (2004) found that amino groups (i.e., common exhibited in hydrophilic base fraction) were highly reactive to chlorine. Then, it is reasonable to believe that hydrophilic fractions of DOM that become predominant in finished water are more significant to be precursors of chlorinous odor, particular in hydrophilic bases. However, little information on chlorinous odor is available due to the complexity and heterogeneity of DOM. Therefore, isolation of DOM prior chlorination is an important step to understand the role of DOM on the formation of chlorinous odor.

The objective of the study is to identify the major DOM fraction causing chlorinous odor in water treated by the conventional treatment (i.e., coagulation, sedimentation, and Rapid Sand Filtration (RSF)) and ozonation. DOM fractions were isolated by a resin chromatography technique prior to chlorination. Also, relative importance of organic odor compounds and inorganic substances (i.e., trichloramine) was compared. Furthermore, the consistency of chlorinous odor precursors under seasonal variation was investigated. The major organic fraction responsible for chlorinous odor was firstly introduced in the study. This can provide information on designing a treatment process after ozonation for control of chlorinous odor.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Water samples

The RSF water was collected several times at a drinking water treatment plant. The treatment process consisted of coagulation/ flocculation, sedimentation, and RSF. The sample water after RSF was collected in 20-L tanks and stored at 4 °C before fractionation. To compare the seasonal contribution of DOM fractions to chlorinous odor, 100 L of RSF waters were collected in the autumn (hereinafter referred to RSFW1: dissolved organic carbon (DOC), 0.84 mg/L; pH, 7.1; ammonium ion (NH₄+), 1 μ g/L; bromide ion (Br^{-}) , 22 $\mu g/L$) and in the spring (hereinafter called to RSFW2: DOC, 0.86 mg/L; pH, 7.4; NH_4^+ , 2 μ g/L, Br^- , 40 μ g/L). These two seasons were selected because they presumably presented high concentrations of amino acids than summer and winter (Brosillon et al., 2009). Also, summer samples may contain too much other odor compounds such as 2-MIB and interfere the evaluation of chlorinous odor. A similar thing could be for winter samples, it may contain too much inorganic ammonia that may interfere the assessment of organic fraction responsible for the odor. To study the effect of ozonation on chlorinous odor precursors, RSFW2 was ozonated with a pilot-scale ozone contactor in the counter-current mode at an ozone dose of 1.75 mgO₃/L for 30 min. The ozonated water was named as OW (DOC, 0.85 mg/L; pH, 7.0; NH_4^+ , 4 μ g/L, Br $^-$, 7 μ g/L).

2.2. Chemicals

All the chemicals were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Japan), except *o*-dianisidine dihydrichloride, which was purchased from Tokyo Kasei Kogyo Co., Ltd (Japan). Ultra-pure water (Milli-Q water), produced by a Millipore (Tokyo, Japan) Acadamic-A10 purification system, was used for preparing stock

solutions. Trichloramine stock solution was prepared by mixing ammonium nitrogen standard solution (NH₄Cl) and sodium hypochlorite solution at a molar ratio of 1:3.15 under an acidic condition (adjusted with sulfuric acid to pH 3–4). Then, the stock solution without headspaces was stored in the dark for 24 h. Trichloramine concentration of the stock solution was measured by direct UV measurement at 336 nm (ϵ = 190 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) (Schurter et al., 1995). The concentration of sodium hypochlorite solution (at least 5%) was determined by the DPD-ferrous titration method (APHA et al. 2005).

2.3. Fractionation

A resin adsorption chromatography technique was used (Leenheer, 2004; Jo. 2008), DAX-8 resin (Sigma-Aldrich), Dowex®-Marathon®- MSC strong cation-exchange resin (Dow Chemical), Amberlite® XAD-4 (Rohm and Haas), and Dowex®-Marathon®-MSA strong anion-exchange resin (Dow Chemical) were employed for separation. For each DAX-8, MSC and MSA columns, 0.5 L (wet volume) of resin was used. For XAD-4, 0.2 L (wet volume) was filled in the cartridge. All columns were cleaned with Milli-Q water till the effluent DOC concentration was less than 0.2 mg/L. The flow diagram of the fractionation procedure is shown in Fig. 1. One hundred litter of the sample water was adjusted to pH 2 with HCl before feeding at the rate of 15 bed volume/hr (BV/hr) to the columns of DAX-8, MSC, and XAD-4, connected in series (Stage 1). The hydrophobic acid (HoA) fraction in the DAX-8 resin at stage 1 was eluted with 0.01 N NaOH at the flow rate of 5 BV/hr. Acetonitrile (75%) with the flow rate of 5 BV/hr was used to elute the organic matters on DAX-8 and XAD-4 resins at stage 1, and the obtained organic matters were referred as hydrophobic neutral (HoN) and transphilic (Trs) fractions, respectively. After stage 1, the sample pH was neutralized (pH 7) and fed to the column of MSA (Stage 2) at the flow rate of 15 BV/hr. The organic fraction desorbed from the MSA column with 1 N NaCl was called as hydrophilic acid (HiA). A fraction of the eluent (1 N HCl solution) from MSC resin was alkalized to pH 12, and was passed through the column of DAX-8 (Stage 3) at the flow rate of 5 BV/hr. The remaining organic matters in the eluent that was not adsorbed by DAX-8 in the stage 3 were called as hydrophilic base (HiB). The fraction of hydrophobic base (HoB) in DAX-8 of stage 3 was eluted with 75% acetonitrile (CH₃CN) with the flow rate of 5 BV/hr. The DOM fraction that was not retained by this operation was considered as hydrophilic neutral (HiN) fraction. The bulk water (i.e., RSFW1, RSFW2, and OW) was called as "Control." The DOC concentrations of each fraction were calculated as below:

$$DOM = DOC1 (1)$$

DOC of HoA = DOC3
$$\times$$
 volume of eluent/sample volume (2)

$$DOC of HoN = DOC1 - DOC2 - HoA$$
 (3)

$$DOC of HoB = DOC7 - DOC8$$
 (4)

DOC of HiB = DOC8
$$\times$$
 volume of eluent/sample volume (5)

$$DOC of Trs = DOC4 - DOC5$$
 (6)

$$DOC of HiA = DOC5 - DOC6$$
 (7)

$$DOC of HiN = DOC6$$
 (8)

The isolates were concentrated by a vacuum evaporator (Rotary evaporator RE71, Yamato). The recovery of DOM was in the range of

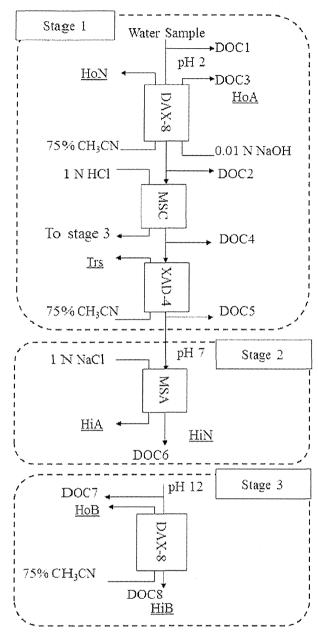


Fig. 1. The schematic diagram of the procedure for DOM fractionations.

78–104% with the averaged DOC recovery of 88-91% (Supplementary Information 1). The pH of the concentrates was neutralized in order to minimize the decomposition of organic compounds, and stored at 4 °C.

2.4. Chlorination

The DOCs of all the fractions were adjusted to approximately 1 mg/L with Milli-Q water. The DOCs of original samples were adjusted by using the vacuum evaporator. The concentration of residual chlorine after 1 day was controlled at 1 mg/L. All the analyses were duplicated for quality control. Note that "odor strength" mentioned in this study means the odor strength after this chlorination process.

2.5. Analytical methods

The DOC of the samples was analysed with a TOC-5000 A analyser (Shimadzu). The specific UV-absorbance (SUVA), an indicator for aromatic content, was calculated as the ratio of the UV₂₅₄ to DOC. Odor strength was determined by a triangle sensory test. The detailed procedure was described elsewhere (Phattarapattamawong et al., 2011). In short, the samples were diluted with Milli-Q water at various dilution ratios (ranging from 5 to 400), and two blanks were prepared for each diluted sample. The sample and blank flasks were incubated at 40 °C for 20 min before delivering to panelists. Six panelists were separately asked to identify the flask with odor out of the three flasks (identical in appearance). The highest dilution ratio that a panellist could detect. the odor strength (dimensionless number), is expressed with the unit of Threshold Odour Number (TON). Any TON value (odor strength) shown in this study is a geometric mean of TON values. obtained from four panellists (excluding the highest and lowest values). The sensory test was duplicated for all the samples. Trichloramine concentrations were measured with a gas chromatograph (GC) (6890 Plus, Agilent) connected to a mass spectrometer (MS) (JMS-AX505H, JEOL). The method originally developed by Kosaka et al. (2009), and used with minor modification (Phattarapattamawong et al., 2011). In short, trichloramine was separated with a HP1MS capillary column (15 m \times 0.25 mm i.d. \times 0.32 μ m, J&W Scientific). Then, it was detected by selected ion monitoring mode (m/z = 118.9096 for quantification; 84.0000 and 86.0000 for confirmation). The detection limit was 15 μ g/L as NCl₃.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. The seasonal contribution of DOM fractions to chlorinous odor in RSFW1 and RSFW2

The DOC concentrations of the DOM fractions (in parentheses) and their percentages to the original DOC for the RSFW1 (0.84 mg/ L) and RSFW2 (0.86 mg/L) are shown in Fig. 2. The HoA fraction was the major DOM fraction and its percentages were 32.3% and 28.6% for RSFW1 and RSFW2, respectively. Both concentrations of HoA were similar (0.27 mg/L for RSFW1 and 0.25 mg/L for RSFW2). The second predominant fraction was difficult to be identified due to it depended on the seasonal variation. The secondary large fraction in the autumn (RSFW1) was HiA fraction, while that in the spring (RSFW2) was the Trs fraction. These indicated that the concentration of hydrophobic compounds in water treated by a series of coagulation/flocculation, sedimentation and RSF was seasonindependent, whereas the non-hydrophobic content was sensitive to season change. The uncertainty in non-hydrophobic content can be explained by the ineffective removal of hydrophilic compounds by physical treatments (i.e., coagulation/flocculation, RSF) (Croué et al., 1993). The concentration of the HoB fraction for RSFW1 was negligible (less than 1% of DOM fractions). Thus, the summation of HoB and HiB (hereinafter called to Bas) was used for fractionation of RSFW2 samples in order to save time for the fractionation process. To obtain the DOC concentration of the Bas fraction in DOC7, DOC4 was subtracted from DOC2.

To compare the odor strength in the DOM fraction, the concentration of DOC was normalized to 1 mg/L prior to the sensory test. For RSFW1, the HiB fraction, which presumably consists of amino acids, exhibited the strongest average odor strength (140 TON) among all DOM fractions as seen in Table 1. The HiN fraction also presented strong odor strength (72 TON), when compared to the odor strength of the control sample (63 TON). The other fractions showed less odor strength than the control sample. Thus, HiB fraction was the major DOM fraction causing chlorinous odor at a

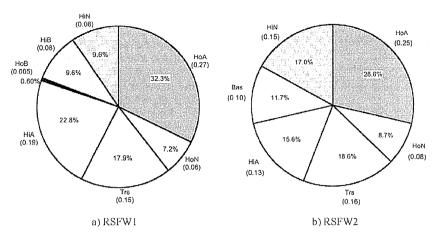


Fig. 2. The DOC concentrations (mg/L), shown in parentheses, and their percentages in the DOM fractions for a) RSFW1 and b) RSFW2.

fixed DOC level for RSFW1. Similar results were observed in RSFW2, indicated by the highest odor strength in the Bas fraction. This is the first time, to our knowledge, that the Bas fraction (or HiB fraction) is identified as the major precursor of chlorinous odor among DOM fractions. Because of the difficulties in the removal of inorganic ions without disturbing the nature of organic matters, the odor strengths were determined in the presence of bromide and ammonium ions, and their effects on chlorinous odor formation will be discussed later.

To identify the DOM fraction responsible for chlorinous odor in bulk water, the odor strength contribution (OSC), the odor strength for DOC of 1 mg/L multiplied by the concentration of DOM isolation, was used. The HiB fraction for RSFW1 and the Bas fraction for RSFW2 showed the highest OSC responsible for 13.4 and 16.4, respectively (Table 1). The OSC of HoB for RSFW1 was extremely low (0.2). Thus, the HiB fraction was the primary precursors of the chlorinous odor in water after RSF. Chlorination of the HiB fraction presented the highest odor strength and OSC even if organic contents in DOM were season-dependent. This is suspected that precursors of chlorinous odor such as amino acids still remains in the water, and its products after reacting to chlorine generate unpleasant smell (Freuze et al., 2004, 2005). Hence, the removal of HiB fraction prior to chlorination is necessary for the control of chlorinous odor. The second major OSC for RSFW1 was dissimilar to that for RSFW2. The second OSC for RSFW1 was the HiA fraction, whereas that for RSFW2 was the HoA fraction. Therefore, seasonal organic contents of DOM caused the different organic precursors of chlorinous odor although the conventional treatment was used for removing large-and-high hydrophobic compounds.

Table 2 shows chemical properties of RSFW1 and RSFW2, and

Table 1Comparing odor strength and odor strength contribution (OSC) in organic fractions between RSFW1 and RSFW2 (DOC ~ 1 mg/L; residual chlorine ~ 1 mg/L after 24 h).

Organic		TON		OSC			
fraction		RSFW1	RSFW2	RSFW1	RSFW2		
Control		63 ± 6	52 ± 5	62.8	52.3		
HoA		25 ± 12	57 ± 23	8.1	16.4		
HoN		42 ± 10	24 ± 10	3.0	1.9		
Trs		51 ± 1	24 ± 10	9.1	4.4		
HiA		46 ± 2	32 ± 17	10.4	4.8		
HiN		72 ± 9	34 ± 10	6.8	5.9		
Bas	HiB	140 ± 65	141 ± 75	13.4	16.4		
	HoB	38 ± 14		0.2			

their DOM fractions after adjusting DOC to approximately 1 mg/L. For RSFW1, the chlorination of HoB fraction under low ammonium ion (3 μg/L) produced very high concentration of trichloramine (251 µg/L as NCl₃), indicated that HoB fraction mainly contained of organic structures with nitrogen. However, the HoB did not exhibit high odor strength after chlorination, indicating that trichloramine is not a major contributor to chlorinous odor. Trichloramine concentrations were extremely low for HiB fraction (below detection limit after chlorination) even though the HiB fraction contained the highest concentration of ammonium ion (90 $\mu g/L$) among the DOM fractions. These unexpected results may be explained by the hypothesis that organic compounds in both HiB and HoB fractions are highly reactive to chlorine (faster than ammonium ion in case of organic compounds in HiB fraction), but their chlorination byproducts are different. The chlorination of HoB fraction primarily produces inorganic chlorinated byproducts (e.g., trichloramines), whereas the chlorination of HiB fraction mainly induces the formation of chlorinated organic byproducts.

Trichloramine concentration was below the detectable level when Bas fractions for RSFW2 were chlorinated (Table 2). This implied that HoB fractions in Bas fractions were rather low reactive than HiB fractions. Therefore, compounds ranking from the highest-to-lowest reactivity in Bas fractions were in HiB fractions, HoB fractions, and ammonium ion, respectively. Furthermore, the fact of Bas fractions giving the highest OSC and odor strength clearly showed that our previous conclusion regarding to trichloramine slightly responsible for chlorinous odor was reproducible.

Bromide ion concentrations can promote the formation of hypobromous acid (HOBr), a stronger oxidant than hypochlorous acid (HOCl) (Chang et al., 2001). This led to awareness of HOBr that may result in the formation of different chlorinous odor compounds. Bromide ion concentrations before chlorination for RSFW1 and RSFW2 are presented in Table 2. The concentrations of bromide ion for each fraction were rather low (less than 50 $\mu g/L$). Our previous study found that the elevation of bromide ion to 100 $\mu g/L$ did not affect the odor strength after chlorination (Phattarapattamawong et al., 2011). Thus, the effects of bromide ions on the formations of chlorinous odor compounds were neglected in this study.

To estimate the chlorine demand of organic compounds in each fraction, chlorine consumption by ammonium ion was considered. The formula to calculate chlorine consumption by ammonium ion (with the molar ratio of 1.5 (chlorine):1 (ammonium ion)) is based on the assumption that nitrogen gas (N_2) is the major end-product. Chlorine demands by organic compounds and ammonium ions in

Table 2
Chemical properties for RSFW1 and RSFW2, and their DOM fractions after adjusting DOC (The presented values were averages of duplicated data, except HoB because of the limited mass of HoB fraction for RSFW1).

Sample	Parameter	Control	HoA	HoN	Trs	HiA	Bas		HiN
							НоВ	HiB	
RSFW1	Chlorine demand (mg/L)	1.90	1.99	1.48	1.42	1.93	1.37	2.70	1.90
	Residual chlorine (mg/L)	0.95	0.80	0.93	1.02	0.85	0.97	0.92	0.98
	Adjusted DOC (mg/L)	0.84	1.00	1.01	1.02	0.93	1.01	0.89	0.85
	NH_4^+ (µg/L)	6	11	11	16	74	3	90	44
	pН	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.1	7.1	7.6
	UV ₂₅₄ (cm ⁻¹)	0.021	0.026	0.010	0.001	0.009	0.001	0.008	0.004
	SUVA (L m ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)	2.37	2.61	0.95	0.07	0.94	0.10	0.91	0.38
	Br ⁻ (μg/L)	22	41	7	4	n/d	n/d	n/d	31
	NCl_3 (µg/L as NCl_3)	103	57	83	169	n/d	251	n/d	44
RSFW2	Chlorine demand (mg/L)	2.00	1.98	1.32	2.39	1.74	3.06		1.70
	Residual chlorine (mg/L)	0.99	0.87	0.89	0.97	0.78	1.12		1,17
	Adjusted DOC (mg/L)	0.86	1.11	0.99	1.09	1.00	1.02		0.81
	NH ₄ " (μg/L)	2	92	19	52	51	121		105
	pH	7.1	7.0	6.8	6.9	7.5	7.2		7.0
	UV ₂₅₄ (cm ⁻¹)	0.009	0.009	0.003	0.010	0.005	0.012		0.000
	SUVA ($L m^{-1} mg^{-1}$)	1.05	0.81	0.30	0.92	0.50	1.18		0.00
	Br (μg/L)	40	19	n/d	n/d	n/d	n/d		47
	NCl_3 ($\mu g/L$ as NCl_3)	43	38	70	111	34	n/d		41

Note: n/d Non detectable.

each fraction are summarized in Table 3. Among the DOM fractions, HiB and Bas fractions accounted for the highest chlorine demand by organic compounds (2.02 mg/L as Cl₂ for HiB fractions and 2.14 mg/ L as Cl₂ for Bas fractions) for a fixed DOC. This is in agreement with a previous study that amino sugars and amino groups in a Bas fraction (HiB + HoB) showed a significant chlorine demand (Leenbeer, 2004). The second largest consumer of chlorine for RSFW1 was different from that for RSFW2. The second largest consumer of chlorine for RSFW1 was the HoA fraction (1.90 mg/L as Cl₂), while that for RSFW2 was the Trs fraction (1.99 mg/L as Cl₂). The organic fraction with high chlorine demands was initially expected to contribute the great odor strength. This is true for the case of Bas fractions. However, the contrast was found for HoA and Trs fractions in RSFW1 and RSFW2, respectively. This indicated that an amount of reacted chlorine did not directly associate with the chlorinous odor intensity. The major factor of odor generation was played on characteristics of organic compounds.

To evaluate the odor strength originated from organic compounds, the term 'estimated odor strength' from trichloramine was used. This is defined as the ratio of the detected trichloramine concentration to the odor threshold concentration of trichloramine (3.4 µg/L as NCl₃) (Yanagibashi, 2008). The assumption for the evaluation is that the total odor strength is equivalent to the summation of individual odor strengths. Thus, the odor strength contributed from organic compounds can be calculated from subtraction of the estimated odor strength from the total odor strength. Odor strengths of the DOM fractions and the contributions of trichloramine to odor strength are shown in Table 4. The

estimated odor strength from trichloramine in the original RSF water (30 and 13 TON for RSFW1 and RSFW2, respectively) was lower than observed odor strengths (63 and 52 TON for RSFW1 and RSFW2, respectively). This indicates that the chlorinous odor does not consist of only trichloramine, but also unidentified odor compounds. In addition, because of very low contribution of trichloramine to the odor strength in Bas (for RSFW2), HiB and HiA fractions (for RSFW1), it is clear that organic compounds in Bas and HiA fractions were the major components causing chlorinous odor as mentioned above. Estimated odor strength for some fractions (i.e., HoB for RSFW1 and Trs for RSFW2) was higher than observed odor strengths. This inconsistency may be explained by the fact that the calculation is based on the maximum potential for trichloramine contributing to odor strength. Note that the odor strength threshold concentration of trichloramine (3.4 µg/L as NCl₃) used in this study is 10-times lower than that reported by Bruchet et al.

3.2. The effect of ozonation on the DOM fractions contributing to chlorinous odor

Water samples were collected at the outlet of RSF process and ozonation to study not only the influence of ozonation on the organic fraction causing chlorinous odor, but also the remaining fractions responsible for chlorinous odor after ozonation. The DOC concentrations of the DOM fraction and their DOC percentages for the water after ozonation were summarized in Fig. 3. Comparing the DOM between RSFW2 and OW, ozonation changed the property

 Table 3

 Chlorine demands of organic compounds in each fraction for RSFW1 and RSFW2.

Sample	Parameter	Control	HoA	HoN	Trs	HiA	Bas		HiN
							HoB*	HiB	
RSFW1	Total chlorine demand (mg/L)	1.90	1.99	1.48	1.42	1.93	1.37	2.70	1.90
	Chlorine consumption by ammonium ions (mg/L)	0.05	0.09	0.08	0.12	0.57	0.02	0.68	0.33
	Chlorine consumption by organic matters (mg/L)	1.85	1.90	1.40	1.30	1.36	1.35	2.02	1.57
RSFW2	Total chlorine demand (mg/L)	2.00	1.98	1.32	2.39	1.74	3.06		1.70
	Chlorine consumption by ammonium ions (mg/L)	0.02	0.70	0.14	0.40	0,39	0.92		0.80
	Chlorine consumption by organic matters (mg/L)	1.98	1.28	1.18	1.99	1.35	2.14		0.90

Note: * Data was not repeated.

Table 4Observed odor strengths compared to the estimated odor strength from trichloramine concentration for RSFW1 and RSFW2.

Sample Parameter	Parameter	Control	HoA HoN		HoN Trs	HiA	Bas		HiN
							HoB*	HiB	
RSFW1	Observed odor strength (observed TON) Estimated odor strength	63 30	25 17	42 24	51 50	46 n/d	38 74	140 n/d	72 44
RSFW2	Observed odor strength (observed TON) Estimated odor strength	52 13	57 11	24 21	24 33	32 10	141 n/d		34 12

Note: * Data was not repeated.

n/d Non detectable.

of DOM significantly. The concentration of Bas fractions in RSFW2 was 0.10 mg/L (Fig. 2). After ozonation, DOC of Bas fraction was reduced by 50% as shown in Fig. 3. Similar trend was also found in the oxidation of hydrophobic fraction (HoA + HoN). After ozonation, the DOC concentration of HoA and HoN fractions decreased by more than 50%, whereas DOC concentrations of HiA, HiN and Trs fractions were increased by 57, 12, and 16%, respectively. This can be explained with the hypothesis that after organic compounds in hydrophobic fraction were oxidized by O₃ and •OH, the products become more hydrophilic (e.g., carboxylic acids and alcohols). This assumption is supported by the fact that O₃ and •OH can react quickly with double bonds, aromatic compounds and deprotonated amines (von Gunten, 2003), Huang et al. (2005) also reported that the concentration of aromatics, amines and amino acids, commonly presented in Bas fraction, could be decreased by ozonation, whereas the increase of alcohols and aliphatic carboxylic acids were observed. Chang et al. (2002) found that ozonation could decrease aromatic C=C double bonds, whereas the structures of single bond (e.g., O-H, C-H) was present in ozonated water. Therefore, hydrophilic fraction (i.e., HiA, HiN, and Bas) became dominant in the ozonated water, accounting for 62% of DOM.

Fig. 4 shows the odor strength and the odor strength contributions (OSC) for the DOM fractions of water before and after ozonation. Under the same concentration of DOC, odor strengths of several non-hydrophobic fractions (HiA, HiN and Trs) increased by 30–50% with ozonation, while the odor strength of the Bas fraction decreased approximately 60%. Furthermore, the odor strength of the HoA fraction decreased from 57 TON to 20 TON, when RSFW2 was ozonated. This indicated that precursors of strong odor compounds in Bas and HoA fractions were oxidized by ozonation and their products were in Trs, HiA, and HiN fractions in which its odor strength (TON) was less than the original odor precursors in HoA and Bas fractions. Previous studies found that ozonation can oxidize and convert amino acids (chlorinous odor precursors) to nitrate ion (chlorine-resistant substances) (Berger et al., 1999; Leitner et al.,

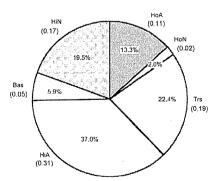


Fig. 3. The DOC concentrations (in parentheses) and the percentages of DOM fractions after ozonation (OW).

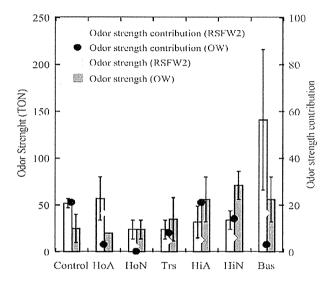


Fig. 4. The odor strengths (TONs) (DOC \sim 1 mg/L; residual chlorine \sim 1 mg/L after 24 h) and odor strength contributions (OSCs) for RSFW2 and OW.

2002 and references therein). This resulted in the odor strength of the control sample (bulk DOC) for OW (25 TON) decreased by 50% compared to RSFW2 (52 TON), while changes in DOC concentration were not observed.

When compared to RSFW2, the DOC concentration of HiA fraction after ozonation greatly increased (by 57%), leading to the higher OSC for HiA fraction (21) than Bas fraction (3). Thus, the major fraction responsible for chlorinous odor changed from Bas to HiA by ozonation. The second dominant contributor to chlorinous odor was the HiN fraction with the OSC of 14. The third major fraction was Trs, indicated by the OSC of 8. OSC for other fractions was less than 3.

Table 5 shows the chemical properties of OW. The SUVA value of OW was lower than that of RSFW2 by 0.94 L m⁻¹ mg⁻¹, accounted

Table 5 Chemical properties of OW.

Parameter	Control	HoA	HoN	Trs	HiA	HiN	Bas
Chlorine demand (mg/L)	1.57	1.32	1.34	1.84	1.32	1.16	2.94
Residual chlorine (mg/L)	1.28	0.94	1.08	1.14	0.77	0.76	1.22
Adjusted DOC (mg/L)	1.10	1.02	0.96	0.98	1.09	0.87	1.06
NH ₄ ⁺ (μg/L)	4	22	2	10	69	33	117
pН	7.3	7.1	7.1	6.9	7.2	7.1	6.9
UV ₂₅₄ (cm ⁻¹)	0.001	0.006	0.003	0.006	0.002	0.000	0.014
SUVA ($L m^{-1} mg^{-1}$)	0.09	0.59	0.31	0.61	0.18	0.00	1.21
104							
Br ⁻ (μg/L)	7	32	6	n/d	n/d	86	n/d
NCl ₃ (μg/L as NCl ₃)	68	39	36	66	34	53	n/d

Note: n/d Non detectable.