Assessing bacterial infiltration through reverse osmosis membrane

Takahiro Fujioka^{*} and Sandrine Boivin

Graduate School of Engineering, Nagasaki University, 1-14 Bunkyo-machi, Nagasaki 852-8521, Japan

- 6 7 * Corresponding author: Takahiro Fujioka, Email: tfujioka@nagasaki-u.ac.jp, Tel: +81 095 819 2695, Fax:
- 8 +81 95 819 2620

3

4

5

9 Abstract

10 The attenuation of pathogenic microorganisms in potable water reuse is critical to ensure 11 recycled water safety. Thus, this study sought to identify bacterial communities capable of 12 passing through a commercial reverse osmosis (RO) membrane as well as to characterize the 13 passage of these bacteria through the membranes. Three-quarters of the bacteria in the RO 14 permeate were found to belong to the Burkholderiaceae family, although this family only 15 accounted for 0.2% of the RO feed (i.e., ultrafiltration-treated wastewater) bacterial 16 composition. The infiltration routes of bacteria through the RO membranes was also 17 evaluated using a unique approach—capturing bacteria-sized surrogates (i.e., 0.5 µm 18 fluorescent (FL) microspheres) with a track-etched micro-filter after passing through the RO 19 membrane. Our results demonstrated that a considerable number of FL particles passed 20 through the membranes that were obtained from an RO membrane element. Overall, it was 21 determined that certain bacterial families in wastewater could pass through the passage 22 located in the entire surface of the RO membrane rather than in localized areas. Thus, this study highlights the need to reinforce RO membrane integrity in order to ensure the safety of 23 24 recycled water for potable water reuse.

Keywords: Bacterial removal; membrane integrity; RO membrane; gene sequencing; potable
water reuse.

27

1

28 **1 Introduction**

29 Pathogen control in potable water reuse is a critical public health measure (Pecson et al., 30 2017). Potable water reuse is accomplished by converting conventionally treated wastewater 31 (i.e., secondary wastewater effluents) to highly purified drinking water. Thus, the attenuation 32 of pathogenic microorganisms (e.g., virus, protozoa, and bacteria) through advanced 33 wastewater treatment is critical. Advanced wastewater treatment systems encompass multiple 34 barriers and treatment procedures such as microfiltration (MF) or ultrafiltration (UF), reverse 35 osmosis (RO) membranes, advanced oxidation processes (AOP), and chlorine disinfection 36 (Fujioka et al., 2012). Furthermore, the attenuation of pathogens in potable water reuse can be 37 quantitatively managed by implementing a log reduction credit approach. For instance, 38 California (USA) requires advanced wastewater treatment systems to meet a reduction value 39 of 12-log, 10-log, and 10-log for virus, Cryptosporidium, and Giardia, respectively. Further, 40 a 9-log reduction target has been suggested for total coliform bacteria for direct potable water reuse (NWRI, 2013). 41

42 Among advanced wastewater treatment processes, the RO membrane treatment has been 43 undervalued with as little as a 2.0-log reduction credit value based on conservative surrogate 44 indicators (e.g., electrical conductivity removal, which achieves up to 99% removal) that 45 have widely been used to monitor and ensure RO membrane integrity (Tchobanoglous, 2015; 46 WHO, 2017). Increasing the log reduction value of RO membranes could reduce the 47 dependence on other bacterial removal processes, including AOP. For instance, recent 48 advances in analytical technology (e.g. real-time bacteriological counters) could allow for 49 continuous bacterial attenuation monitoring, thus potentially increasing the log reduction credit value for RO membranes (Fujioka et al., 2018b; Fujioka et al., 2019b). 50

51 In addition to improved monitoring techniques, the reliability of RO treatment for effective 52 bacterial removal is also critical. To date, RO membrane reliability has been evaluated via 53 integrity breaches caused by intentionally damaging the RO membrane (e.g., by creating pinholes on their surface) or the pressure vessel components (e.g., O-rings) (Antony et al., 54 55 2012; Kitis, Mehmet et al., 2003; Kitis, M. et al., 2003; Mi et al., 2004; Pype et al., 2016; 56 Zhang et al., 2016). However, bacterial passage through intact (i.e., undamaged) RO membrane elements has been seldom addressed. Bacterial size (i.e., typically > 0.2 μ m) is 57 58 three orders of magnitude greater than the free-volume hole size of RO membranes (< 0.001 59 µm) (Fujioka et al., 2018c), meaning that in theory all bacteria should be rejected by RO 60 membranes. However, many studies have identified high concentrations of bacteria in pilot-61 and full-scale RO system permeates (Ishida and Cooper, 2015; Kantor et al., 2019; Laurent et 62 al., 1999; Liikanen et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2017; Park and Hu, 2010), indicating that RO is 63 not an infallible barrier against bacteria. A recent study (Fujioka and Boivin, 2019) also 64 confirmed the passage of particles through RO membranes using 0.5 µm fluorescent (FL) 65 microspheres, which are surrogates similarly-sized to bacteria (e.g., Escherichia coli that has 66 a diameter of 0.5 μ m and a length of 2 μ m).

67 A better understanding of bacterial passage through RO membranes could potentially lead to 68 enhanced bacterial removal and improve the reliability of RO membranes. Our previous 69 study (Fujioka et al., 2019a) found that bacteria could pass through intact O-ring seals, which 70 connect multiple RO membrane elements and pressure vessel end caps. Our study also found 71 that bacteria-sized surrogates (i.e., fluorescent microspheres) passed through different types 72 of 4-inch RO membrane elements even after bonding the O-ring seals between the RO 73 membrane element and the pressure vessel end-ports, indicating that bacterial passage can 74 occur through the RO membranes themselves. Another recent study (Fujioka and Boivin, 75 2019) found that the integrity of RO membrane sheets for bacterial removal could be compromised during their assembly processes. However, the previous study did not identify
the bacterial communities that were passing through, nor did it explain how they passed
through the RO membrane.

Therefore, the present study sought to identify bacterial communities that pass through RO membranes as well as their infiltration routes. Bacteria in RO feed and permeate were identified via bacterial cell counts by fluorescent staining and fluorescence microscopy, and 16S rRNA gene sequencing. In addition, their infiltration routes were evaluated using a unique approach—capturing bacteria-sized surrogates (i.e., 0.5 µm fluorescent microspheres) with a track-etched micro-filter after passing through the RO membrane.

85 2 Materials and methods

86 2.1 Membranes and treatment systems

87 2.1.1 Pilot-scale system

88 Bacterial infiltration through RO membranes was evaluated using a 4-inch spiral-wound 89 polyamide (PA) composite RO membrane element (ESPA2-LD-4040, Hydranautics; 90 Oceanside, CA, USA). The pilot-scale cross-flow RO system (Fig. 1a) consisted of a 4-inch 91 end-port fiberglass pressure vessel (40E30N, Codeline/Pentair Water; Goa, India), a 65-L 92 stainless steel reservoir, a high-pressure pump (25NED15Z, Nikuni Co., Ltd.; Kawasaki, 93 Japan), digital flow indicators (FDM, Keyence Co.; Osaka, Japan), digital pressure indicators 94 (GPM, Keyence Co.; Osaka, Japan), and a chiller unit (CA-1116A, Tokyo Rikakikai Co. 95 Ltd.; Tokyo, Japan). The O-ring seal between the RO membrane element and the pressure 96 vessel end-ports was bonded with adhesives to prevent bacteria from passing through the seal.





100 (b) Bench-scale cross-flow RO system

101 Fig. 1 Diagrams of the (a) pilot-scale and (b) bench-scale RO treatment systems.

102 **Bench-scale system** 2.1.2

103 The location in the RO membrane sheets where bacterial passage occurred was examined in 104 bench-scale experiments. Two different RO membrane conditions were examined herein: (a) 105 RO membrane sheets without undergoing an RO element assembly process (i.e., hereafter 106 referred to as "intact RO") and (b) RO membrane sheets after disassembling the RO element 107 (i.e., hereafter referred to as "disassembled RO"). Previously inspected and certified 108 polyamide composite RO membrane samples were supplied by an RO membrane 109 manufacturer. Disassembled RO membrane samples were prepared by dismantling two RO 110 membrane elements that had satisfied the manufacturer's specified performance. The bench-111 scale cross-flow RO system (Fig. 1b) was comprised of a 47-mm cross-flow stainless steel 112 filter holder (XX440470, Merck; Tokyo, Japan), a dual plunger pump (KP-22, FLOM; Tokyo, 113 Japan), a flow gauge, a pressure indicator, and a chiller unit (ACE-1100, Tokyo Rikakikai Co. Ltd.; Tokyo, Japan) (Fig. 1a). To capture all particles passing through the RO membrane, a 114

track-etched polycarbonate MF filter with a uniform pore size of 0.2 μm (Merck; Tokyo,
Japan) was placed between the RO membrane and the support screen (i.e., permeate spacer).

117 2.2 Experimental protocol

118 2.2.1 Pilot-scale system

119 A pilot-scale test was conducted with 50 L of UF-treated wastewater, which was prepared by filtering a secondary wastewater effluent with a UF membrane module (SFP-2860XP, Dow 120 121 Chemical; Midland, MI, USA). The UF membrane module had a membrane surface area of 51 m^2 and a nominal pore size of 0.03 $\mu m.$ Secondary wastewater effluents (3.05 mS/cm 122 123 conductivity) were collected from a wastewater treatment plant that implemented primary 124 settling and activated sludge. Before testing, the pilot-scale RO system outflow was 125 disinfected using a commercial sterilant especially designed for such purpose (Minncare Sterilant, Mar Cor Purification; Plymouth, MN, USA). Afterward, filtered tap water was 126 127 recirculated through the system for >12 hours until the RO treatment condition was stable. Then, the water was replaced with the 50 L of UF-treated wastewater. The RO system was 128 then operated at a permeate flux of 16 L/m²h, an feed temperature of 25 ± 0.5 °C, and a 14% 129 130 recovery (permeate and concentrate flow rate = 2.0 and 10 L/minute, respectively) for 27 h. 131 Both the RO permeate and concentrate were recirculated to the feed reservoir. RO feed and 132 permeate samples were periodically collected in a sterile polypropylene bottle and underwent 133 bacterial analysis soon thereafter. Additionally, RO feed and permeate conductivity was analyzed using Orion StarTM A322 Conductivity meters (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, 134 135 MA, USA). Bacterial biomass for 16S rRNA gene sequencing was collected from the RO 136 feed and permeate by filtering the samples with a track-etched polycarbonate MF filter (0.2 µm pore size; Merck, Tokyo, Japan) at a flow rate of 2 and 150–200 mL/min, respectively. 137

138 2.2.2 Bench-scale system

139 Bench-scale tests were conducted using a stable fluorescent particle (FL; 0.50 µm diameter, diameter variation coefficient = 3%) solution containing Fluoresbrite[®] Yellow Green 140 141 Carboxylate Microspheres (Polysciences, Inc.; Warrington, PA, USA). These stable FL 142 particles were used as surrogates, as bacteria may occur on the intact RO membrane sheets and become the source of bacterial contamination. The FL solution was mixed into a 10 mM 143 144 NaCl matrix. Before each test, the RO membrane was compacted to stabilize its performance by treating pure water at 0.6 MPa. Afterward, the water was replaced with 500 mL of 145 146 solution containing 10 mM NaCl, and the pressure was reestablished to 0.6 MPa. Further, the FL stock solution was added to the RO feed solution at the concentration of approximately 147 2.2×10^7 particles/mL. The system was then operated at a constant permeate flux of 22 L/m²h, 148 149 a feed flow rate of 40 mL/min, and a feed temperature of 25 °C for 120 min. Following the 150 filtration test, the track-etched polycarbonate MF membrane placed underneath the RO 151 membrane was carefully removed and underwent fluorescence microscopy.

152 **2.3** Analytical protocols

153 2.3.1 Bacterial counts

Intact and damaged bacterial counts were determined using a fluorescence microscope (BZ-X800, Keyence Co.; Osaka, Japan). Each 1-mL sample was stained with the LIVE/DEAD BacLight Bacterial Viability Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA, USA) for 15 minutes in the dark at room temperature (i.e., approximately 23 °C). The staining kit contained two dyes: SYTO[®]9 and propidium. Afterward, 200 μ L of the stained sample was passed through a 0.2 μ m pore size track-etched polycarbonate MF filter (Merck; Tokyo, Japan) and analyzed using a green filter (excitation wavelength = 470 ± 40 nm, absorption 161 wavelength = 525 ± 50 nm) and a red filter (excitation wavelength = 545 ± 25 nm, absorption 162 wavelength = 605 ± 70 nm).

Bacterial counts in RO permeate were also monitored using a real-time bacteriological counter (IMD-WTM, Azbil Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The real-time bacteriological counter is capable of counting bacterial particles in real time by measuring the intensity of scattered and fluorescent light that occur in response to the excitation light with a wavelength of 405 nm. Details of the instrument are provided elsewhere (Fujioka et al., 2018a).

168 **2.3.2 Bacterial community analysis**

169 Bacterial community analysis with 16S rRNA gene sequencing was conducted at Hokkaido 170 System Science (Sapporo, Japan). Genomic DNA was extracted from the RO feed and 171 permeate biomass samples using the Extrap Soil DNA Kit Plus ver.2 (Nippon Steel Eco-Tech Corporation; Tokyo, Japan). Using the extracted DNA samples, a first-stage PCR 172 173 amplification of 16S rRNA genes was performed following the 16S Metagenomic 174 Sequencing Library Preparation protocol provided by Illumina K.K. (Tokyo, Japan). The 175 forward and reverse 16S rRNA amplicon polymerase chain reaction (PCR) primer pair used 176 in this study were 341F (5'- TCG TCG GCA GCG TCA GAT GTG TAT AAG AGA CAG 177 CCT ACG GGN GGC WGC AG) and 805R (5'- GTC TCG TGG GCT CGG AGA TGT 178 GTA TAA GAG ACA GGA CTA CHV GGG TAT CTA ATC C), respectively. The 179 amplified products were then purified using AMPure XP beads, after which a second PCR 180 (i.e., indexed PCR) was performed with dual indices and Illumina sequencing adapters using 181 the Nextera XT Index Kit. The purification of the final library was performed with AMPure 182 XP beads. The products were then sequenced (paired-end, 300 bp) using the MiSeq platform 183 (Illumina K.K., Tokyo, Japan). The resulting sequences were initially processed by base 184 calling, filtering, and trimming of each sequence to yield high-quality reads. Afterward, sequence assembly and cluster generation were performed to create OTUs (i.e., operational
taxonomic units). The QIIME (v1.8.0) bioinformatics pipeline was used for cluster generation.
Analysis of the bacterial community was conducted for each OTU by searching homology in
the 16S rRNA gene sequence database (Greengenes v13.8).

189 **2.**

2.3.3 Membrane characterizations

190 FL particles that passed through RO membranes and deposited on the track-etched MF filter with a diameter of 47 mm were analyzed using a fluorescence microscope (BZ-X800, 191 192 Keyence Co.; Osaka, Japan). The filter area was analyzed using a green filter as indicated above, but without the addition of stains. A 118 mm² (11.6×10.2 mm) area at the center of 193 194 each filter was examined. FL particle counts were also determined automatically with 195 specialized software (BZ-X800 Analyser, Keyence Co.; Osaka, Japan). Field emission -196 scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) (S-4800, Hitachi, Japan) was used to obtain a cross-197 sectional image of ESPA2 RO membrane. Prior to the analysis, a membrane sample 198 underwent freeze-fracturing, air drying, and coating with conductive material (Fujioka et al., 199 2018c).

200 **3 Results**

201 3.1 Passage through an RO element

202 3.1.1 Bacterial counts

Bacterial passage through the RO membrane element was quantitatively evaluated with manually stained and counted bacteria using fluorescence microscopy (i.e., intact and damaged bacterial counts). The UF-treated wastewater used in this study contained high bacterial concentrations of $> 10^5$ counts/mL (Fig. 2). It is noted that although bacterial counts determined by heterotrophic plate counting method in RO feed (i.e., counts of colony208 forming bacteria) are typically found at < 100 CFU/mL, high concentrations of total bacterial 209 cells determined by fluorescent staining in RO feed (e.g., 10^3-10^6 counts/mL) have been 210 reported during pilot- or full-scale studies (Ishida and Cooper, 2015; Kantor et al., 2019; 211 Miller et al., 2020). Thus, the UF-treated wastewater used in this study was not unusual. Pore size of the UF membrane element of this study (0.03 µm) was considerably smaller than 212 213 typical bacterial size (> $0.2 \mu m$). However, UF membrane element with a large membrane 214 surface area has a potential of lesser membrane integrity than a small membrane samples that 215 are typically at bench scale; thus, the log reduction of bacteria or bacteria-sized particles by 216 UF membrane elements can range between 2 and 3-log (Hagen, 1998; Jacangelo et al., 1989).



217

Fig. 2 Intact and damaged bacterial counts in the RO feed and permeate (transmembrane pressure of 270 kPa, permeate flux of 16 L/m²h, feed temperature of 25 ± 0.5 °C, and system recovery of 14%). The symbols and error bars of bacterial counts represent the average and ranges of duplicated analysis samples.

Throughout the pilot-scale RO treatment, the numbers of both intact and damaged bacteria in the RO feed and permeate gradually decreased (**Fig. 2**). Bacterial removal value after 5 h were 1.7-1.8-log (i.e., 98% removal), which was similar to the conductivity rejection during the test (98.2–98.5%). It should be noted that the RO system was operated at a permeate flux of 16 L/m²h, which was slightly lower than a typical permeate flux (20 L/m²h), and a higher 227 permeate flux can enhance the rejection of constituents including salts (Wijmans and Baker, 228 1995). A recent pilot-scale study (Miller et al., 2020) also reported that nanofiltration and RO 229 membranes achieved low bacterial removal values (1.7-1.8-log) when bacterial cells were 230 counted based on fluorescent staining and flow cytometry. This indicated that approximately 231 2% of bacterial cells in the RO feed were continuously passing through the RO membrane 232 regardless of whether they were intact or damaged. It is noted that high concentrations of 233 bacteria in the RO permeate was detected during the first 30 min after changing water matrix 234 (i.e. from pure water to UF-treated wastewater) (Fig. 3). The online bacterial counting results 235 also confirmed the reduction in bacterial counts determined by epifluorescence microscopy 236 and continuous passage of bacteria through the RO membrane element.



Fig. 3 Bacterial counts in the RO permeate that were online monitored using a real-time bacteriological counter during the pilot-scale test (flow rate of 10 mL/min).

240 3.1.2 Bacterial communities

237

Bacterial communities in both the RO input and permeate of the pilot-scale system were analyzed. Proteobacteria was found to be the major phylum (75%; **Fig. 4a**) in the RO feed, whereas it accounted for 97% of bacteria in the RO permeate (**Fig. 4b**); compared to other phyla, Proteobacteria were the least affected by RO treatment. Proteobacteria have been frequently identified in RO permeates (Bereschenko et al., 2008; Stamps et al., 2018); therefore, the identification of bacterial passage mechanisms through RO filters could mainly focus on this bacterial phylum. In this study, Proteobacteria in the RO permeate were further sub-classified. The class Betaproteobacteria accounted for the majority of bacterial classes in the RO permeate (84%), followed by the classes Alphaproteobacteria (13%) and Gammaproteobacteria (0.5%). It is worth noting that *E. Coli* (i.e., a typical bacterial indicator) belongs to the Gammaproteobacteria.



252

Fig. 4 Relative abundance of bacteria in the (a) RO feed and (b) permeate. Proteobacteria were further classified into major classes, orders, and families. "Unk" indicates unknown.

Almost all of the Betaproteobacteria found in the RO permeate were represented by the order Burkholderiales. The Burkholderiales included the families Burkholderiaceae (75%), Comamonadaceae (5%), and Oxalobacteraceae (3%). Notably, the Burkholderiaceae in wastewater are known to include the genera *Burkholderia*, *Pandoraea*, *Paraburkholderia*, 259 and Ralstonia (Stamps et al., 2018); however, their specific species were not identified in the 260 present study. Three-quarters of the bacteria in the RO permeate belonged to the family 261 Burkholderiaceae, although it accounted for only 0.2% of the bacterial composition in the RO 262 feed. It should be noted that the contamination of microbial DNA that can occur through 263 commonly used DNA extraction kits and other laboratory reagents influences the results of 264 the samples containing a low microbial biomass (Salter et al., 2014); thus, the presented data 265 needs careful assessment. Despite this limitation, the results of this study indicate that the 266 Burkholderiaceae predominantly passed through RO membranes, despite representing a 267 minor proportion of the RO feed bacterial community; however, most other bacterial families 268 were effectively retained by the RO membrane.

269 Bacterial passage mechanisms were further explored in the literature. Burkholderiales (i.e., 270 85% of the RO permeate bacterial community) are relatively small and rod-shaped bacteria, 271 which are presumably more likely to pass through membranes than other bacterial orders. For 272 example, some species in this family have been reported to exhibit a diameter of 0.4–0.9 µm 273 and a 1.0–2.8 µm length (Gao et al., 2018; Sahin et al., 2011). The Comamonadaceae, which 274 accounted for 5% of the RO permeate bacterial community, include the species Ramlibacter 275 tataouinensis, which exhibit a diameter of only 0.2 µm and a 3 µm length (Heulin et al., 276 2003). However, size estimation for nonculturable bacteria is a major challenge; thus, the size of many bacterial species is not well known. Bacteria smaller than 0.1 μ m³ in volume are 277 278 classified as ultramicrobacteria (Liu et al., 2018; Silbaq, 2009). Moreover, bacteria size can 279 vary greatly depending on the environment and growing conditions (Colwell and Grimes, 280 2000). Therefore, the mechanisms of bacterial passage through RO membranes cannot be 281 solely attributed to differences in bacterial size. Rather, identification of the bacterial species 282 in the RO permeate and their properties (e.g., shape and size) may be instrumental for the development of more effective RO membrane elements for bacterial removal. 283

284 3.2 Infiltration routes

Evaluations for the passage of bacteria in this study have been conducted based on bacterial 285 286 concentrations in the RO permeate. Similarly, our previous study (Fujioka and Boivin, 2019) 287 evaluated the removal of bacterial particle by intact and disassembled RO membranes by 288 measuring the concentrations of bacteria-sized surrogates (i.e., FL particles) in the RO feed 289 and permeate, and determined their removal values of 6.8 and 6.0-log, respectively. However, 290 these concentration-based evaluations cannot provide the infiltration routes of bacteria through the RO membranes. Therefore, the specific infiltration routes of bacteria through RO 291 292 membranes were evaluated using a unique approach—capturing the bacteria-sized surrogates on a 0.2 µm pore size MF filter, which was placed on the permeate side of the intact or 293 294 disassembled RO membrane (Fig. 1b). This study used stable and similarly-sized 0.5 µm FL 295 microspheres as bacteria-sized surrogates to accurately quantify the particle passage without 296 the influence of convective self-aggregation in the RO feed.

When the FL particle solution was treated with the disassembled RO membranes, a 297 substantial number of FL particles (i.e., 532 ± 343 particles/cm²; n = 4) were observed on the 298 299 track-etched MF membrane (Fig. 5a). For example, the captured FL particles formed a spot 300 pattern on the left corner of the filter, and an enlarged representative image demonstrated that 301 these FL particles pass through specific areas of the RO membranes. Contrary to the 302 disassembled RO membranes, the intact RO membranes exhibited very high efficiency for 303 FL particle removal (Fig. 5b). A negligible number of FL particles were found to pass 304 through the intact RO membranes (16 ± 1 particles/cm²; n = 2), which was far less than the observed for the disassembled RO membranes. Many FL particles that passed through the 305 306 disassembled RO membrane gathered in the same places and might have been counted as a 307 single FL particle by the auto-counting software; thus, the measured FL counts are provided 308 only as a qualitative analysis. Moreover, many FL particles appeared to stay behind or inside

- 309 of the RO membranes without being captured on the MF filter, which may have caused an FL 310 particle count underestimation. Despite these limitations, the major difference in the number 311 of FL particles that passed through the disassembled versus the intact RO membranes 312 indicates that disassembled RO membranes are much more permeable to particles.
 - (a) Disassembled



(i) Membrane center (11.6 × 10.2 mm)(b) Intact



(ii) Enlarged representative image









- Fig. 5 Images of fluorescent (FL) particle captured on the track-etched microfiltration (MF) filter after treating the FL particle solution by (a) disassembled or (b) intact reverse osmosis
- 114 Inter after treating the FL particle solution by (a) disassembled of (b) intact reverse osmosis (BQ) membranes at a normasta flux of 22 L/m2h and a feed town protuce of 25 % for 120 min
- 315 (RO) membranes at a permeate flux of 22 L/m2h and a feed temperature of 25 °C for 120 min.

316 3.3 Implications

317 The passage of FL particles through the disassembled RO membrane sheet occurred likely 318 due to damage caused by an element spacer, as suggested in our previous study (Fujioka and 319 Boivin, 2019). The element spacer is placed between RO membranes in a spiral-wound 320 element to maintain an opening in the RO feed channel (Fig. 6). In fact, traces of a spacer 321 were observed on the disassembled RO membrane surface, which is typically observed in disassembled RO membranes provided by many manufacturers. Typical commercial RO 322 323 membranes have a thin polyamide (PA) skin layer (approximately 0.2–0.4 µm). The skin 324 layer has a hollow interior of crumpled nodules and a ridge-and-valley structure (Fujioka et 325 al., 2018c); thus, the actual thickness of its crumpled film can be as low as 30 nm (i.e., 0.03 326 μm) (Yan et al., 2015).





Fig. 6 Schematic cross-sectional images of a feed spacer and reverse osmosis (RO)
 membrane and a field emission - scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) cross-sectional
 images of ESPA2 RO membrane.

The diameter of a feed spacer thread is approximately 300 μ m, which is far greater than the thickness of the skin layer and UF polysulfone (PS) support layer (**Fig. 6**). Therefore, the skin layer and UF support layer that contacted with the feed spacers can be damaged during the compression of an element assembling process, which may compromise the specific RO membrane regions with a spot pattern, as presented in **Fig. 5**. The compromised regions of the RO membrane surface can allow some small bacterial families in wastewater to predominantly pass through. It should be noted that small constituents in wastewater may influence the passage of these small bacteria during long-term operation, since they may penetrate into the compromised regions and enhance bacterial removal. Because the compromised regions induced by feed spacers can occur throughout the RO membrane sheets, reinforcement of the entire RO membrane surface is required to improve bacterial removal performance. In addition, a future study will explore an approach that visualizes the compromised regions induced by feed spacers.

344 4 Conclusions

The results of this study using an epifluorescence microscopy and a real-time bacteriological 345 counter indicated continuous passage of bacteria through an RO membrane element. Among 346 347 bacteria in the UF-treated wastewater, Burkholderiaceae family predominantly passed 348 through RO membrane, although this family only accounted for 0.2% of the RO feed 349 bacterial composition. The results showed that disassembled RO membranes are more 350 permeable to bacterial particles than intact RO membranes, because the thin polyamide skin 351 layer can be damaged by contacting with the RO feed spacers. They are placed between RO 352 membranes throughout the RO membrane element. Therefore, this study suggests that some specific bacterial families in wastewater are particularly capable of passing through the 353 354 passage located in the entire surface of the RO membrane.

355 **5** Acknowledgement

The authors acknowledge Hydranautics/Nitto for providing an RO membrane element. Theauthors also acknowledge Azbil Corp. for providing real-time bacteriological monitors.

358 6 References

Antony, A., Blackbeard, J., Leslie, G., 2012. Removal Efficiency and Integrity Monitoring
 Techniques for Virus Removal by Membrane Processes. Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.
 42(9), 891-933.

- Bereschenko, L.A., Heilig, G.H.J., Nederlof, M.M., van Loosdrecht, M.C.M., Stams, A.J.M., Euverink, G.J.W., 2008. Molecular characterization of the bacterial communities in the different compartments of a full-scale reverse-osmosis water purification plant. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 74(17), 5297-5304.
- Colwell, R.R., Grimes, D.J., 2000. Nonculturable Microorganisms in the Environment.Springer.
- Fujioka, T., Boivin, S., 2019. Assessing the passage of particles through polyamide reverse
 osmosis membranes. Sep. Purif. Technol. 226, 8-12.
- Fujioka, T., Hoang, A.T., Aizawa, H., Ashiba, H., Fujimaki, M., Leddy, M., 2018a. RealTime Online Monitoring for Assessing Removal of Bacteria by Reverse Osmosis. Environ.
 Sci. Technol. Letters.
- Fujioka, T., Hoang, A.T., Aizawa, H., Ashiba, H., Fujimaki, M., Leddy, M., 2018b. RealTime Online Monitoring for Assessing Removal of Bacteria by Reverse Osmosis. Environ.
 Sci. Technol. Letters 5(6), 389-393.
- Fujioka, T., Hoang, A.T., Ueyama, T., Nghiem, L.D., 2019a. Integrity of reverse osmosis
 membrane for removing bacteria: new insight into bacterial passage. Environ. Sci.: Water
 Res. Technol. 5(2), 239-245.
- Fujioka, T., Khan, S.J., Poussade, Y., Drewes, J.E., Nghiem, L.D., 2012. *N*-nitrosamine removal by reverse osmosis for indirect potable water reuse – A critical review based on observations from laboratory-, pilot- and full-scale studies. Sep. Purif. Technol. 98, 503-515.
- Fujioka, T., Makabe, R., Mori, N., Snyder, S.A., Leddy, M., 2019b. Assessment of online
 bacterial particle counts for monitoring the performance of reverse osmosis membrane
 process in potable reuse. Sci. Total Environ. 667, 540-544.
- Fujioka, T., O'Rourke, B.E., Michishio, K., Kobayashi, Y., Oshima, N., Kodamatani, H.,
 Shintani, T., Nghiem, L.D., 2018c. Transport of small and neutral solutes through reverse
 osmosis membranes: Role of skin layer conformation of the polyamide film. J. Membr. Sci.
 554, 301-308.
- Gao, Z.-h., Zhong, S.-f., Lu, Z.-e., Xiao, S.-y., Qiu, L.-h., 2018. Paraburkholderia
 caseinilytica sp. nov., isolated from the pine and broad-leaf mixed forest soil. Int. J. Syst.
 Evol. Microbiol. 68(6), 1963-1968.
- Hagen, K., 1998. Removal of particles, bacteria and parasites with ultrafiltration for drinking
 water treatment. Desalination 119(1), 85-91.

- Heulin, T., Barakat, M., Christen, R., Lesourd, M., Sutra, L., De Luca, G., Achouak, W.,
- 2003. Ramlibacter tataouinensis gen. nov., sp. nov., and Ramlibacter henchirensis sp. nov.,
 cyst-producing bacteria isolated from subdesert soil in Tunisia. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol.
 53(2), 589-594.
- Ishida, K.P., Cooper, W.J., 2015. Analysis of parameters affecting process efficiency, energy
 consumption, and carbon footprint in water reuse. WateReuse Research Foundation,
 Alexandria, VA.
- Jacangelo, J.G., Aieta, E.M., Cams, K.E., Cummings, E.W., Mallevialle, J., 1989. Assessing
 Hollow-Fiber Ultrafiltration for Particulate Removal. Journal AWWA 81(11), 68-75.
- Kantor, R.S., Miller, S.E., Nelson, K.L., 2019. The Water Microbiome Through a Pilot Scale
 Advanced Treatment Facility for Direct Potable Reuse. Frontiers in Microbiology 10(993).
- 405 Kitis, M., Lozier, J.C., Kim, J.-H., Mi, B., Mariñas, B.J., 2003. Microbial removal and
- 406 integrity monitoring of ro and NF Membranes. Journal American Water Works Association
- 407 95(12), 105-119.
- 408 Kitis, M., Lozier, J.C., Kim, J.H., Mi, B., Mariñas, B.J., 2003. Evaluation of biologic and
- 409 non-biologic methods for assessing virus removal by and integrity of high pressure
 410 membrane systems. Water Science and Technology: Water Supply 3(5-6), 81-92.
- 411 Laurent, P., Servais, P., Gatel, D., Randon, G., Bonne, P., Cavard, J., 1999. Microbiological
- 412 quality: Before and after nanofiltration. American Water Works Association. Journal 91(10),
- 413 62-72.
 - Liikanen, R., Miettinen, I., Laukkanen, R., 2003. Selection of NF membrane to improve quality of chemically treated surface water. Water Res. 37(4), 864-872.
 - Liu, J., Zhao, R., Zhang, J., Zhang, G., Yu, K., Li, X., Li, B., 2018. Occurrence and Fate of
 Ultramicrobacteria in a Full-Scale Drinking Water Treatment Plant. Frontiers in
 microbiology 9, 2922-2922.
 - Mi, B., Eaton, C.L., Kim, J.-H., Colvin, C.K., Lozier, J.C., Mariñas, B.J., 2004. Removal of
 biological and non-biological viral surrogates by spiral-wound reverse osmosis membrane
 elements with intact and compromised integrity. Water Res. 38(18), 3821-3832.
 - Miller, S.E., Nelson, K.L., Rodriguez, R.A., 2017. Microbiological Stability in Direct Potable
 Reuse Systems: Insights from Pilot-Scale Research Using Flow Cytometry and HighThroughput Sequencing. Proceedings of the Water Environment Federation 2017(14), 10161023.
 - Miller, S.E., Rodriguez, R.A., Nelson, K.L., 2020. Removal and growth of microorganisms
 across treatment and simulated distribution at a pilot-scale direct potable reuse facility.
 Environ. Sci.: Water Res. Technol.
 - NWRI, 2013. Examining the Criteria for Direct Potable Reuse, in: Panel, I.A. (Ed.).
 WateReuse Research Foundation Project 11-02, National Water Research Institute: Fountain
 Valley, CA, USA
 - 431 Valley, CA, USA.

- 432 Park, S., Hu, J.Y., 2010. Assessment of the extent of bacterial growth in reverse osmosis system for improving drinking water quality. Journal of Environmental Science and Health,
- 433
 - 434 Part A 45(8), 968-977.
 - 435 Pecson, B.M., Triolo, S.C., Olivieri, S., Chen, E.C., Pisarenko, A.N., Yang, C.-C., Olivieri,
- A., Haas, C.N., Trussell, R.S., Trussell, R.R., 2017. Reliability of pathogen control in direct 436
- 437 potable reuse: Performance evaluation and QMRA of a full-scale 1 MGD advanced treatment
- 438 train. Water Res. 122, 258-268.
- 439 Pype, M.-L., Lawrence, M.G., Keller, J., Gernjak, W., 2016. Reverse osmosis integrity 440 monitoring in water reuse: The challenge to verify virus removal – A review. Water Res. 98, 441 384-395.
- Sahin, N., Tani, A., Kotan, R., Sedláček, I., Kimbara, K., Tamer, A.U., 2011. Pandoraea 442 443 oxalativorans sp. nov., Pandoraea faecigallinarum sp. nov. and Pandoraea vervacti sp. nov.,
- isolated from oxalate-enriched culture. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 61(9), 2247-2253. 444
- 445 Salter, S.J., Cox, M.J., Turek, E.M., Calus, S.T., Cookson, W.O., Moffatt, M.F., Turner, P.,
- Parkhill, J., Loman, N.J., Walker, A.W., 2014. Reagent and laboratory contamination can 446
- 447 critically impact sequence-based microbiome analyses. BMC Biol. 12(1), 87.
- 448 Silbaq, F.S., 2009. Viable ultramicrocells in drinking water. J. Appl. Microbiol. 106(1), 106-449 117.
- 450 Stamps, B.W., Leddy, M.B., Plumlee, M.H., Hasan, N.A., Colwell, R.R., Spear, J.R., 2018.
- 451 Characterization of the Microbiome at the World's Largest Potable Water Reuse Facility. 452 Frontiers in Microbiology 9(2435).
- 453 Tchobanoglous, G., Cotruvo, J., Crook, J., McDonald, E., Olivieri, A., Salveson, A., Trussell,
- 454 R.S., 2015. Framework for direct potable reuse. WateReuse Association, American Water 455 Works Association, Water Environment Federation, National Water Research Institute,
- 456 Alexandria, VA.
- 457 WHO, 2017. Potable reuse: guidance for producing safe drinking-water. World Health 458 Organization, Geneva.
- 459 Wijmans, J.G., Baker, R.W., 1995. The solution-diffusion model: a review. J. Membr. Sci. 460 107(1-2), 1-21.
- Yan, H., Miao, X., Xu, J., Pan, G., Zhang, Y., Shi, Y., Guo, M., Liu, Y., 2015. The porous 461 structure of the fully-aromatic polyamide film in reverse osmosis membranes. J. Membr. Sci. 462 475(0), 504-510. 463
- 464 Zhang, J., Cran, M., Northcott, K., Packer, M., Duke, M., Milne, N., Scales, P., Knight, A., Gray, S.R., 2016. Assessment of pressure decay test for RO protozoa removal validation in 465 466 remote operations. Desalination 386, 19-24.
- 467