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COMPARISON OF NANOFILTRATION AND REVERSE OSMOSIS MEMBRANE WATER TREAT MENT SYSTEMS FOR COOLING TOWER BLOWDOWN IN A CO-GENERATION POWER PLANT

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โรงไฟฟ้าหลายแห่งในประเทศไทยตั้งอยู่ห่างไกลจากแหล่งน้ำธรรมชาติและจำเป็นต้องซื้อ ้บ้ำประปาปริมาณมากที่มีราคาแพงเพื่อใช้เป็นน้ำหล่อเย็บใบหอหล่อเย็น และปล่อยน้ำโบล์ดาวบ์ทิ้ง ้ออกไปโดยไม่มีขั้นตอนการรีไซเคิลกลับมาใช้ใหม่ในกระบวนการระบายความร้อน ด้วยเหตุผลดังกล่าว ้ ทำให้เทคโนโลยีที่มีขนาดเล็ก ใช้พลังงานต่ำและมีประสิทธิภาพสำหรับการบำบัดน้ำโบล์ดาวน์ของ โรงไฟฟ้าในชุมชน ดังเช่นเทคโนโลยีเมมเบรนมีความน่าสนใจที่จะศึกษา งานวิจัยนี้ได้ทำการศึกษา ประสิทธิภาพการบ้าบัดน ้าโบล์วดาวน์จากหอหล่อเย็นของโรงไฟฟ้าด้วยเทคนิคเมมเบรนสองเทคนิค คือ นาโนฟิลเตรชัน (NF) และรีเวอร์สออสโมซิส (RO) นอกจากนี ยังให้ความสนใจเกี่ยวกับวิธีการปรับ สภาพน ้าก่อนการบ้าบัดด้วย NF และ RO เมมเบรนเพื่อลดปัญหาการอุดตันของเมมเบรนและเป็นการ ยืดอายการใช้งานเมมเบรน โดยสนใจศึกษาวิธีในการปรับสภาพน้ำสองวิธี ได้แก่วิธีคอนเวนชันแนล ี และวิธีอัลตราฟิวเตรชัน (UF) โดยวิธีคอนเวนชันแนลนั้น ผลการทดลองแสดงให้เห็นว่าสำหรับน้ำ ตัวอย่างที่เติมสารโพลีอะลูมินัมคลอไรด์(PACl) ความเข้มข้น 150 มิลลิกรัมต่อลิตร ร่วมกับการใช้สาร โพลีอะครีลาไมด์ชนิดประจุบวกที่ความเข้มข้น 1 มิลลิกรัมต่อลิตร มีประสิทธิภาพในการปรับสภาพน้ำ ได้ดีที่สุดในแง่ของดัชนีความหนาแน่นของตะกอน (SDI) และความขุ่นที่ และเมื่อเปรียบเทียบผลลัพธ์ ี่ ที่ได้จากการปรับสภาพน้ำด้วยวิธีอัลตราฟิวเตรชั่น ซึ่งมีค่า SDI และค่าความขุ่นที่ต่ำกว่า รวมถึงพื้นที่ ในการก่อสร้างและของเสียจากสารเคมีที่น้อยกว่าวิธีคอนเวนชันแนล และถูกเลือกใช้เป็นวิธีการปรับ ี สภาพน้ำที่เหมาะสมสำหรับการบำบัดน้ำด้วยเมมเบรน สำหรับการบำบัดน้ำด้วยเมมเบรน NF ผล การทดลองแสดงค่าการซึมผ่านของเมมเบรนที่สูง (14.03 ลิตร/ชั่วโมง.ตารางเมตร.บาร์) แต่ไม่ เหมาะสมที่จะนำมาใช้บำบัดน้ำจากหอหล่อเย็นได้เนื่องจากสามารถกำจัดเกลือที่ละลายในน้ำได้ ประมาณ 50% ขณะที่เมมเบรน RO แสดงค่าการซึมผ่านของเมมเบรนที่ต่้ากว่า (6.32 ลิตร/ชั่วโมง. ตารางเมตร.บาร์) แต่สามารถกำจัดเกลือที่ละลายในน้ำได้สูงประมาณ 98% ซึ่งถูกเลือกให้เป็นวิธีที่ เหมาะสมในการบำบัดน้ำจากหอหล่อเย็นของโรงไฟฟ้าได้

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BARAMATE PUNGSANG: COMPARISON OF NANOFILTRATION AND REVERSE OSMOSIS MEMBRANE WATER TREATMENT SYSTEMS FOR COOLING TOWER BLOWDOWN IN A CO-GENERATION POWER PLANT. ADVISOR: CHALIDA KLAYSOM, Ph.D., 147 pp.

Several power plants in Thailand are located in community area far from the natural sources of water and need to buy expensive tap water from private suppliers for use as a cooling water. This water is normally discharged without recycling back to the cooling processes. For this reason, the small size, low power consumption and effectiveness treatment methods like membrane processes for recycle blowdown water in the district power plant are interested. In this work, the performances for treatment blowdown water via two membrane treatment technologies, nanofiltration (NF) and reverse osmosis (RO) were investigated. Furthermore, attention was paid to ensuring that the pretreatment method could enhance the lifespan of the NF and RO membranes and decrease the membranes' fouling characteristics. Two different pretreatment methods, conventional and ultrafiltration (UF) were compared. For the conventional pretreatment, the results showed that the concentration of 150 mg/L of Polyaluminium chloride (PACl) in the presence of 1.0 ppm of anionic polyacrylamide (APAM) showed the best pretreatment performance in terms of silt density index (SDI) and turbidity. However, UF membrane showed a better pretreatment performance with lower SDI, and turbidity values, lower construction area, less chemical waste, and was selected to be appropriate pretreatment method for membrane treatment. For membrane treatment, NF showed the higher membrane permeability values (14.03 L/hr.m².bar) but cannot be used as make up water because lower salts rejection (50%). Whereas RO showed the lower membrane permeability values (6.35 L/hr.m².bar) but higher salts rejection (98%) and available for treatment blowdown water.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Motivation

Water is of crucial importance for all living beings and world economy. Every human activity, including agriculture, power production, industrial manufacturing and tourism, relies on water resources to grow and sustain their businesses*.* However, 97 percent of total global water is saline water that cannot be used directly for most human activities. The majority of the remaining three percent of freshwater is frozen or locked up in glaciers, and not available to the human. While only less than one percent of global water is surface water and ground water, which is appropriate and ready for use **[\(1\)](#page-112-0)**. Figure 1.1 and Table 1.1 showed the distribution of water in the world and the information of quantity and its sources.

Figure 1.1 Percent distribution of water in the world **[\(2\)](#page-112-1)**

Table 1.1 Sources, quantity and quality of water in the world **[\(1-3\)](#page-112-0)**

* Unit: 1,000 cubic kilometers

Available fresh water for people become lesser and two-thirds of the world population could be living under water-stressed situations in 2025 **[\(4\)](#page-112-2)**. Accordingly, water scarcity will be a threat in the future; therefore, reclamation and reuse of wastewater from municipalities are a must-practice.

Recently, in Thailand the accelerated economic growth and the expansion of industries have caused a huge water demand and increasing water withdrawals, particularly in energy production sectors **[\(5\)](#page-112-3)**. Water and energy are both important resources that are inextricably and reciprocally linked. Indeed, energy production requires a lot of water, for example cooling water at thermal power plants. Power production is considered to be an intensive - water - using process. Table 1.2 shows the various sources of water and their quantities used in some power plants in Thailand. Most water used in the power plant is for cooling purpose. Since a significant amount of water is lost due to evaporation, wind action, and drainage (blowdown), a large amount of make-up water is needed to maintain the water balance and keep cooling water operation at a steady state. In this regard, blowdown water which constitutes the biggest portion of feed water loss, was discharged directly to surface water bodies and was not reused as treated make-up water in many countries **[\(6\)](#page-112-4)**.

Power Plant (Province)	Plant Capacity (MWh)	Source of water	Water withdrawal (m^3/day)	Reference
BLCP PP (Rayong)	1,435	Sea water (Gulf of Thailand)	5,340,000	(7)
Bangpakonk PP (Chachoengsao)	760	Bangpakong river	81,500	(8)
Krabi PP (Krabi)	340	Pakasai canal	51,700	(9)
North Bangkok PP (Bangkok)	705	Chaopraya river	40,000	(10)
Chana PP (Songklar)	730	Natub canal	39,000	(11)
Namphong PP (Khon Kaen)	710	Ubonrat Dam	29,200	(12)
Wang Noi PP (Ayutthaya)	800	Rapeepat canal	20,200	(13)
Maemoh PP (Lamphang)	2,400	Majam Dam	100,900	(14)
Rachaburi PP (Rachaburi)	3,645	Mae Klong River	91,700	(15)

Table 1.2 Water withdrawals from various resources by power plants (PP) in Thailand

For economic reasons, most of power plants are, therefore, sited close to the natural water resources like oceans or rivers. However several power plants in Thailand are located far from natural water supply, such the small power plant in community district or industrial estates. These power plants use large amount and high price of tap water supplied from a public sector that increases the plant production cost. Therefore, scarcity of water, large quantities of cooling tower blowdown water, and an increase in water prices were the primary motivations driving recent studies and researches on blowdown water treatment.

With the limited of useful space, membrane technologies such as nanofiltration (NF) and reverse osmosis (RO) were considered to be the most effective processes for removing soluble and insoluble organic and inorganic contaminants in wastewater **[\(16-27\)](#page-113-4)**. However, passing the feed water directly through the NF and RO membranes could render an irreversible fouling that will affect operation costs, energy demand, membrane cleaning, and lifespan of the membrane elements **[\(28\)](#page-114-0)**. Therefore, suitable pretreatment processes for feed water prior to membrane are required. Considering operation parameters and processes, combination of NF or RO with a pretreatment method such as conventional or UF can be effective for treatment blowdown water from power plant.

A 120 megawatt-hour co-generation power plant located near Suvarnabhumi International Airport was used as the case study of the design of blowdown water treatment unit for the power plant with space and water resource limits. This plant currently uses more than 6,000 m^3 per day of tap water supplied from a public sector for cooling water. This water is expensive, but it is discharged without recycle back to the process. Therefore, the main aim of this research is to design a water recycle/treatment membrane based unit for the plant that could improve the efficiency of water usage and reduce the plant production cost.

1.2 Outcomes

This research is advantageous for the power plants and other industry plants with constrains in space and water facility resource. The expected outcomes from this research are as follows.

- 1. The reduction of water consumption by recycling wastewater, which can reduce the production cost of the plant.
- 2. Design of efficient water management process.
- 3. A good reputation in the industry for social responsibility as an environmentally-friendly company.

1.3 Research Objectives
 1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is to design an efficient, economical membrane based system, nanofiltration (NF) and reverse osmosis (RO), for recycle discharged cooling water from a co-generation power plant located near Suvarnabhumi International Airport.

1.4 Scope of the Study

- 1. Survey of potential water treatment options.
- 2. Study the effect of coagulant and flocculant chemical dosage with multimedia filter for conventional pretreatment process before membrane desalting process.
- 3. Study the effect of UF for membrane pretreatment process before membrane desalting process.
- 4. Study the efficiency of NF and RO as a desalting process for treatment of discharged water from the power plant.
- 5. Design the treatment unit of discharged water from the power plant.
- 6. Study the feasibility analysis and sensitivity analysis of treatment unit.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND & LITERATURE REVIEWS

2.1 Introduction

At present, about 20% of fresh water in the world is used by industries in the production process for various purposes, such as washing, cleaning, cooling, transportation of products, and sanitary needs of staff in company **[\(4\)](#page-112-2)**. However, the industrial sector is not only the main water user, but also the major pollution producer. Electrical power production is one of the largest water users that consume more than 70 % of total water in industrial sector **[\(29\)](#page-114-1)**. The power production uses approximately 1,700 L of water to produce a megawatt-hour of electric power and, of this volume, more than 90% is water for cooling system **[\(30\)](#page-114-2)**. To meet the future constraints of limited freshwater resources and for long term water conservation, it is essential for power plants to develop and implement wastewater minimization technologies that can recover most water from the system.

In this chapter, water used for cooling tower in power production plants is explained. Parameters for determining water qualities suitable for the industrial use, especially for the cooling purpose, are provided. In addition, the technologies applied for water treatment in the power plants are reviewed.

2.2 Cooling Systems in Power Plants

Water is boiled to create high pressure steam, which then spins steam turbines to generate electricity in power plants. The heat used to boil water is from combustion of coal, natural gas, and oil, from nuclear reactions, or from geothermal heat sources underground. Once high pressure steam has passed through steam turbines, it is sent to the cooling systems to be condensed back into water phase before being re-circulated back to the system. There are three main types of cooling systems as shown in Figures 2.1-2.3.

(1) Once-through cooling systems

Once-through cooling systems in Figure 2.1 take water called cooling water from nearby sources and circulate it through pipes to absorb heat from the high pressure steam in condensers, and discharge the now warmer water to the local source, such as rivers, lakes and ocean. The pros of once-through systems are simplicity and low costs. However, few power plants use the once-through cooling system because it requires a lot of water withdrawals that interrupt local ecosystems and as well due to the limit in available abundant supplies of water sources.

Figure 2.1 Once-through cooling systems **[\(31\)](#page-115-0)**

(2) Wet-recirculating cooling systems or open-recirculating systems

Unlike once-through systems, wet recirculating systems (Figure 2.2) reuse cooling water by using an ambient air as a heat sink, rather than to immediately discharge it to the environment. There are some water losses from evaporation and the rest is sent back to the condensers. This system requires make-up water to replace the lost water through evaporation in the cooling towers. Wet-recirculating systems use much lower water withdrawals than the once-through systems.

(3) Dry-cooling systems

Dry-cooling systems (Figure 2.3) use air instead of water to cool the high pressure steam. This system can decrease total water consumption of the power plant by more than 90 percent **[\(30\)](#page-114-2)**. However, these water savings come with a high cost and high fuel consumption **[\(32\)](#page-115-1)**. The installations of dry-cooling systems were mostly in small power plants. Table 2.1 shows the comparison of three main types of cooling systems.

Figure 2.3 Dry-cooling systems **[\(31\)](#page-115-0)**

Table 2.1 Comparison of each type of cooling system [\(31\)](#page-115-0)

Cooling type	Water Withdrawal	Water Quality	Capital Cost	Plant Efficiency	Ecological Impact
Once-through	Intense	Moderate	Low	Good	Intense
Wet Cooling	Moderate	Intense	Moderate	Good	Moderate
Dry Cooling	None	None	High	Bad	Low

In Thailand, the once through cooling system and wet re-circulating cooling system are widely used **[\(33\)](#page-115-2)**. The choice of cooling system depends on the quantity and quality of supplied water. According to water scarcity discussed earlier, the wet cooling system is predicted to be more popular in the near future.

2.3 Principle of Operation for Wet Cooling Tower

As earlier mentioned, after the heat exchanging process, this cooling water is heated up and in most cases it cannot be released directly to the environment, or circulated back to the system, unless it is cooled. One way to do this is by spraying the heated cooling water through a cooling tower to exchange the heat with air. The coolant water can thus now be re-circulated to the system for reuse (see Figure 2.2). Some water is lost in the process due to the evaporation and drift loss and thus, the remaining cooling water get more concentrated with dissolved ions and minerals. This recirculation will be repeated until the cooling water reaches critical concentration of ions that could accelerate scaling, and reduce efficiency and life time of the equipment **[\(34\)](#page-115-3)**. To decrease ion concentration, a portion of cooling water is removed as blowdown water. To balance the volume of water in the system, make-up water is added to the cooling tower basin to compensate the loss of water from blowdown, evaporation, and drift loss. Figure 2.2 shows the diagram of water balance in a cooling tower.

The blowdown water contains high values of heavy metals and organic compounds, which typically needs to be subjected to some treatment processes in order to meet effluent standard for use as makeup water for cooling water or boiler in a plant **[\(35\)](#page-115-4)**. However, in many situations the blowdown water is discharged directly to the environment without any recycle back to the process.

2.4 Quality of Water

Natural water generally found in environment is not pure water because it contains minerals, salts, dissolved gases, organic and inorganic compounds, and biological substances. The quality and quantity of these substances vary greatly from water resources and environment or activities that the water is circulated through. Knowing water quality is thus of necessary in order to determine whether the water is suitable for human use and consumption. In addition, monitoring water quality is also of crucial importance for industries, especially for power plants, to avoid corrosion and scaling of equipment. Table 2.2 summaries the information of some common parameters of water quality and their definition.

Table 2.2 Important parameters in water **[\(32\)](#page-115-1)**

Table 2.2 Important parameters in water (continued) **[\(32\)](#page-115-1)**

2.5 Criteria of Water for Cooling Tower

As previously mentioned the concentration of ions in the cooling water increases after cycling through the cooling tower and becomes greater than the concentration in the original make up water. Cooling water quality can affect power plant performance. Water sources must be evaluated for their chemical constituents. Each constituent or constituent pair should be analyzed individually to determine the maximum allowable concentration. The concentration limit is typically defined by the solubility thresholds of one or more constituents. The standard criteria applicable to power plants are shown in Table 2.3.

Parameter	Units	Criteria	Associated problem
pH	pH unit	$6.5 - 9.0$	Lower values can galvanize steel surface.
			Higher values can increase scale
			formation.
TDS	mg/L	< 1,500	Organic, inorganic, salts mineral loading
			in the system can cause many problems.
TSS	mg/L	< 100	Cause of erosion on equipment.
Hardness	mg/L CaCO ₃	< 500	Formation the calcium, magnesium scale.
Alkalinity	mg/L CaCO ₃	< 500	Formation the carbonate scale.
Chloride	mg/L Cl	< 250	Corrode the stainless steel material.
Silica	mg/L	< 150	Hard scale of silica complex.
Sulfates	mg/L	< 250	Scale formation of calcium sulfate.

Table 2.3 Water quality parameters for cooling towers **[\(35\)](#page-115-4)**

2.6 Water Treatment Process for Cooling Tower

To prevent the corrosion and scaling that could shorten the life time of heat exchanger equipment and lead to the inefficient process, the key water quality parameters must be monitored. In many cases, water treatment processes either via chemical or physical methods are applied to control the mineral constituents in water down to the level that is safe for the operation of equipment. For this purpose, three types of treatment options are used, pretreatment of the make-up water, side-stream treatment of the recirculation water and post-treatment of the discharged water. Figure 2.4 shows the descriptions of each treatment operation.

Figure 2.4 Diagram for common water treatments for cooling tower **[\(36\)](#page-115-5)**

2.6.1 Water pretreatment technique

Precipitation softening and ion-exchange processes are used to reduce raw water hardness, alkalinity, silica, and other constituents. These processes prepare water for a direct use as a cooling tower makeup. The added cost of softening and ion-exchange processes is compensated by the decreased chemical and water usage **[\(36\)](#page-115-5)**.

2.6.2 Side stream-treatment technologies

Chemical softening treats water by reacting lime or a combination of lime and soda ash with the hardness and natural alkalinity in the water to form insoluble compounds. These compounds are removed from the water by a side stream filtration, which continuously filters a portion of cooling water to remove suspended solids, organics, and silt particles. These processes can reduce the TSS and turbidity values, which directly decrease fouling and biological growth in systems and return filtered water to the cooling tower basin. This could reduce of the amount of water discharged from the cooling system.

2.6.3 Post-treatment cooling tower technologies

Post-treatment is a process that completely eliminates minerals and contaminants from discharge or blowdown water from cooling tower. Membrane desalination uses the principle of osmosis to remove salt and other impurities, by transferring water through a series of semi-permeable membranes. Thermal desalination uses heat to evaporate and condense water to purify it. When the dissolved solids in wastewater have been removed, the treated water is circulated back to the process.

2.7 Cooling Tower Blowdown Treatment Technologies

Presently, industries are reclaiming and reusing cooling tower blowdown by using different types of treatment processes to desalinate and remove the constituents. A typical flow diagram of the desalination process with inputs and outflows is shown in Figure 2.6. The process can be classified into two categories: thermal and membrane processes. Some basic information on these processes is shown in Tables 2.4. The selection of suitable desalination technology depends on a number of site specific factors, including source water quality, the intended use of the water produced, plant size, capital costs, energy costs, and the potential for energy reuse **[\(37\)](#page-115-6)**.

(1) Thermal processes

Thermal process mimics the hydrological cycle in that saline water is heated to produce water vapor that in turn is condensed to form fresh water. Well-known thermal methods include the multi-stage flash process (MSF), multi effect distillation process (MED) and the vapor compression distillation process (VC). Thermal distillation technologies are mostly used in regions where cheap energy is available **[\(38\)](#page-115-7)**.

(2) Membrane processes

Membranes have ability to transport one component of feed mixture more readily than others due to the differences in physical and/or chemical properties between the membrane and the permeating components. Three membrane desalination processes have been developed: electrodialysis (ED), reverse osmosis (RO) and nanofiltration (NF) **[\(38\)](#page-115-7)**.

Compared to thermal processes, the membrane technologies generally require less energy and have lower capital and operating costs **[\(39\)](#page-115-8)**. However, the quality of product water tends to be lower for membrane desalination (< 500 ppm TDS) than that produced by thermal technologies (< 25 ppm) **[\(39\)](#page-115-8)** In this chapter, only membrane desalination process is reviewed because its low utilization of construction area as same as operation and maintenance cost, which suitable for the process in small power plant. ลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Table 2.4 Characteristics of thermal & membrane desalination technologies **[\(38,](#page-115-7) [40\)](#page-115-9)**

2.8 Membrane Desalination Technologies

Membrane technologies are physical separation procedures, which can be operated without a heating source. Generally, membranes are semi-permeable to one substance; for instance in the case of membrane for water treatment, it will preferably let water pass through, while retaining suspended solids and other substances. Reverse Osmosis (RO) is one of the most widely studied membrane technologies for the treatment of cooling water **[\(6,](#page-112-4) [17-19,](#page-113-5) [21,](#page-114-3) [23-27\)](#page-114-4)**. It has been reported that discharged water from cooling towers treated for re-make up cooling water or other proposes via the RO can achieve high treatment efficiency of more than 95% TDS rejection **[\(6,](#page-112-4) [16-19,](#page-113-4) [21-27\)](#page-114-3)**. In addition, other membrane technologies such as NF and ED are also applied to treat discharged cooling water **[\(6,](#page-112-4) [20,](#page-113-6) [41\)](#page-115-10)**. NF is a commonly known membrane technique that can treat water with high salinity. Though achieving lower TDS rejection, NF is usually preferred over RO for the removal of divalent ions because of lower operating pressure and higher flux of product water **[\(6,](#page-112-4) [38,](#page-115-7) [40\)](#page-115-9)**. ED is a promising membrane process that utilizes electric potential as the driving force to remove charged ions. However, in ED, silica ions are inefficiently removed due to its low ionic strength **[\(42,](#page-116-0) [43\)](#page-116-1)**.

2.8.1 RO/NF membranes principles

When a semi-permeable membrane is placed between two compartments with different salt concentrations, water will flow from a dilute saline solution through a membrane into a higher concentrated saline solution due to the osmotic pressure differences (Figure 2.6). Pressure-driven processes like in reverse osmosis (RO), nanofiltration (NF), ultrafiltration (UF) and microfiltration (MF) apply an external pressure at the high saline solution that overcomes the osmotic pressure difference to revert water flow from the high saline solution to the dilute one. The amount of water flux is proportional to the external pressure applied, which is the driving force of the process.

Figure 2.6 Osmosis and reverse osmosis diagram **[\(44\)](#page-116-2)**

Unlike RO, The NF membrane is not a complete barrier to dissolved salts, depending on the type of salt and the type of membrane **[\(44\)](#page-116-2)**. In practice, RO and NF are applied as a cross-flow filtration process, as shown in Figure 2.7

Figure 2.7 Crossflow filtration diagram **[\(44\)](#page-116-2)**
With a high pressure pump, feed water is continuously pumped at elevated pressure to the membrane system and will be split into a low saline and purified product, called permeate, and a high saline or concentrated brine, called concentrate or reject. The mechanism of separation by NF and RO is quite different except that with NF, less pressure is needed because of larger membrane pore size (0.05 - 0.005 µm) **[\(38\)](#page-115-0)**. NF membranes have lower rejection of monovalent ions when compared to RO, typical rejection efficiency of monovalent ions and divalent ions by NF is 30-80% and 70-95%, respectively **[\(23\)](#page-114-0)**. RO membranes reject monovalent ions at 90-99.9% while rejection divalent ions at higher efficiency **[\(23\)](#page-114-0)** .

2.8.2 Parameters affecting performance of NF/RO

The main performance parameters of a NF and RO process are permeate flux and salt rejection. Normally, the performances of membrane systems are mainly affected by variable parameters including; feed water salt concentration (salinity of feed water), feed pressure, feed water temperature, permeate recovery ratio and membrane compaction and fouling **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**.

(1) Feed water temperature

When all other parameters are kept constant and temperature increases, the salt passage (permeate salinity) and permeate flux will increase by the relation in Equation 2.1 **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**. It is due to the changing in rate of diffusion through membrane,

and also results in lower salt rejection or higher salt passage. This is due to a higher diffusion rate for salt through the membrane. **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**.

$$
J_{25} = J_T \cdot TCF
$$
 Equation 2.1

Where
\n
$$
J_{25}
$$
: Normalized permeate flux at 25^oC (m³/m².h)
\n J_T : Actual permeate flux at temperature T (m³/m².h)
\nTCF : Temperature correction factor which derived as Equations 2.2
\nand 2.3
\nTCF = exp $\left[2640(\frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{273 + T}) \right]$; $T \ge 25^0$ C Equation 2.2
\nTCF = exp $\left[3020(\frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{273 + T}) \right]$; $T \le 25^0$ C Equation 2.3

Where $\qquad \qquad \mathsf{T} \qquad :$ Feed water temperature (0 C)

(2) Feed water salinity

The fluctuation of feed water concentration during NF/RO operation might be due to seasonal change of feed water salinity. Because of osmotic pressure is a function of the type and concentration of salts or organics contained in feed water, while salt concentration increases, so does osmotic pressure (Equation 2.4), and the

amount of driving pressure necessary to reverse the natural direction of osmotic flow. The effect of increasing of feed water salinity could result in declining of both permeate flux (Equation 2.5) and salt rejection (Equation 2.7) **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**. As long as different feed water compositions will not require a change in the system recovery ratio, changing feed water composition will affect only the required feed pressure and permeate water salinity **[\(45\)](#page-116-1)**.

(3) Feed Pressure

Feed water pressure affects both the water flux and salt rejection of RO membranes. With the increasing of effective feed pressure, the permeate salinity will decrease, while the permeate flux will increase (Equation 2.5) **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**. Because RO membranes are imperfect barriers to dissolved salts in feed water, there is always some salt passage through the membrane. As feed water pressure is increased, this salt passage is increasingly overcome as water is pushed through the membrane at a faster rate than salt can be transported **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**.

$$
\pi = 2RT \sum (M_i)
$$
 Equation 2.4

Where

π

: Osmotic pressure (bar)

) $\sum (M_i)$: Sum of Molarity concentration of all constituents in a

solution (mol/L)

R : Gas constant (0.08315 L.bar/mol.K) T : Temperature (K)

$$
f_{\rm{max}}(x)=\frac{1}{2}x
$$

$$
J_{\text{W}} = A_{\text{W}} (\text{TMP} - \pi)
$$
 Equation 2.5

Where
$$
A_W
$$
: Membrane permeability of water $(m^3/m^2.h.bar)$

TMP : Tran membrane pressure (bar) which derived as Equation 2.6

$$
TMP = (\frac{P_f - P_c}{2}) - P_p
$$

Equation 2.6

$$
J_s = B(C_f - C_p)
$$
 Equation 2.7

Where

\n
$$
J_{s} : Salts flux (kg/m2.h)
$$
\nB : Salt permeability coefficient (m/h)

\n
$$
C_{f} : Salinity of feed water (kg/m3)
$$
\n
$$
C_{p} : Salinity of the permeate (kg/m3)
$$

(4) Permeate recovery ratio

The ratio of permeate flow to feed flow is known as recovery ratio. Reverse osmosis occurs when the natural osmotic flow between a dilute solution and a concentrated solution is reversed through application of feed water pressure, while percentage recovery is increased (and feed water pressure remains constant), the salts in the residual feed become more concentrated and the natural osmotic pressure will increase until it is as high as the applied feed pressure. This can negate the driving effect of feed pressure, slowing or halting the reverse osmosis process and causing permeate flux and salt rejection to decrease and even stop **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**.

(5) Membrane compaction and fouling

Deposition of impurity (organic and inorganic substances) on membrane surface and/or blockage of feed channels which could result in non-reversible membrane degradation are called membrane fouling. Membrane fouling somehow ends up with increasing of pressure drop, flux declined, membrane degradation, or even complete destruction of membrane elements **[\(45\)](#page-116-1)**. Table 2.5 below demonstrates a summary of the impact influencing RO/NF's performance. Therefore, it is of necessary to pretreat water before being fed to a membrane.

Table 2.5 Parameters influencing NF/RO performance **[\(44\)](#page-116-0)**.

2.9 Pretreatment for Membrane Processes

In wastewater recycling applications, RO can hardly function on its own without any protection from the fouling materials. Appropriate pretreatment must be provided to achieve stable performance of RO membranes **[\(46\)](#page-116-2)**. The main purpose of pretreatment process is to remove anything that could hamper subsequent treatment processes. In addition, it will improve membrane desalination process efficiency and extend the life span of the system by preventing or minimizing biofouling, scaling, and membrane plugging. Depending on the quality of the feed water, several processes could be required. Table 2.6 shows the description of each pretreatment process.

Table 2.6 Pretreatment process and Its utilization **[\(23,](#page-114-0) [47\)](#page-116-3)**

2.9.1 Conventional pretreatment

To prevent fouling problem in membrane, chemical pretreatment is used for reducing the turbidity, COD, BOD, organic and inorganic values followed by a fast filtration process like SF or MMF filter. This multistep pretreatment process is called conventional pretreatment, applied in most water treatment plants **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**.

Polyaluminium chloride (PACl) is often study to be chemical coagulant for pretreatment blowdown water from power plant **[\(6,](#page-112-0) [21,](#page-114-1) [49\)](#page-116-5)**. Furthermore, previous studies showed that the application of PACl and poly acrylamide (PAM) with MMF filter pretreatment was effective enough to treat feed water for RO **[\(21\)](#page-114-1)**.

In principle of conventional process, most solids suspended in water possess a negative charge; they consequently repel each other. This repulsion prevents the particles from agglomerating, causing them to remain in suspension. Coagulation and flocculation occur in successive steps intended to overcome the forces stabilizing the suspended particles, allowing particle collision and growth of flocs, which then can be settled and removed by sedimentation and filtered out of the water. Figure 2.8 shows the diagram of conventional system.

Figure 2.8 Conventional pretreatment systems **[\(50\)](#page-116-6)**

Firstly, chemical coagulant, PACl is added to the water to destabilize small particles suspended in the water. Once the charge is neutralized, the smallsuspended particles are capable of sticking together. The slightly larger particles formed through this process are called microflocs but are still too small to be visible to the naked eye. A rapid-mix to properly disperse the coagulant and promote particle collisions is needed to achieve good coagulant and formation of the microflocs. Over-mixing does not affect coagulant but insufficient mixing will leave this step incomplete. Proper contact time in the rapid-mix chamber is typically 1 to 3 minutes **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**.

The coagulated water would discharge to flocculation and at the entry to the flocculation tanks, flocculant chemical (PAM) would be added to aid the process. A gentle mixing stage increases the particle size from submicroscopic microfloc to visible suspended particles. The floc size continues to build through additional collisions and interaction with inorganic polymers formed by the coagulant to help bridge, bind, and strengthen the floc, add weight, and increase settling rate. Design contact times for flocculation range from 15 or 20 minutes **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**. Figure 2.9 showed the process of coagulation/flocculation of PACl and PAM.

Flocculated water would be transfer to sedimentation basin to settle the flocs, the times for sedimentation range from 60-120 minutes **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**. Thus, treated water passing through the gravity filters filled with sand granular medium for the single media filter and with anthracite (coal) / sand for the dual media filter.

Figure 2.9 Schematic diagram of coagulation/flocculation process **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**

2.9.2 MF and UF membranes pretreatment principle

MF and UF membranes are continuing to become a go-to process for RO/NF pretreatment to reduce fouling in the process, replacing conventional treatment methods **[\(51\)](#page-116-7)**. The principle of MF and UF is a physical separation, which dissolved solids, turbidity and microorganisms are removed by the size of the pores in the membranes.

The pore size of MF is $0.1 - 10$ µm while UF is $0.001 - 0.1$ µm [\(51\)](#page-116-7). Substances that are larger than the pores in the membranes are fully removed. Substances that are smaller than the pores of the membranes are partially removed, depending on the properties of the selective layer on the membrane

MF and UF have several advantages such as complete particle removal, short treatment time and low demand space **[\(52\)](#page-116-8)**. However, the researchers showed that the treated water from UF is better quality than treated water from MF **[\(53,](#page-116-9) [54\)](#page-117-0)**. Membrane filter processes are associated with membrane fouling, which can decrease the process performance. For reduce this problem, traditional pressure filter like SF **[\(18\)](#page-113-0)** or MMF **[\(16\)](#page-113-1)** are applied before MF or UF as pre-filter process to decrease the particle fouling on MF and UF membrane. The addition of SF and MMF is not an obligation; in fact there is no report of improving performance by investing in such additional steps **[\(16,](#page-113-1) [18\)](#page-113-0)**

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this work, a water treatment unit to treat discharged cooling water from a co-generation power plant was designed. The quality and characteristics of feed water collected from cooling tower were identified. In order to screen the suitable water treatment technologies, both operational constraints, and feasibility was used as the criteria. The selected treatment techniques were tested in a laboratory scale based on the evaluations of constituents present in the discharged water. Experimental works were separated in to 2 parts as shown in Figure 3.1.

- 1) Pretreatment process กรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
	- 1.1) Conventional pretreatment
	- 1.2) UF Membrane pretreatment
- 2) Membrane treatment process
	- 2.1) Nano filtration
	- 2.2) Reverse osmosis

After the study of appropriate method and condition for pretreatment and treatment system were obtained, the treatment unit was designed for the effective operation of the discharged water treated system.

Figure 3.1 Experimental plan diagram

3.2 Sample Water

In a co-generation power plant, cooling towers (shown in Figure 3.2) are used in cooling systems to cool down and remove the heat from processes. Tap water is used as the source for a make-up water with an average conductivity of 350 - 400

 μ S/cm. Around 1,500 m³ per day of blowdown water from the cooling towers are removed to keep the concentration stable.

Figure 3.2 One of cooling tower units in co-generation power plant

Blowdown water was drained from the drain pit of the cooling tower and fed to the chemical and physical pretreatment system. The quality of water was rich of organic and inorganic components, which were the major foulant of membrane desalination system.

3.3 Conventional Pretreatment

(a) Chemical pretreatment

The discharged water from cooling tower was collected in the 500 Liter tank as sample water. The jar test method was conducted according to the standard jar test procedure at room temperature (25-28[°]C) **[\(55\)](#page-117-1)**. The proper chemical coagulant and coagulant aid with the most effective dosage were determined based on the best flocculation time and the most floc settled out. Supernatant sample was taken out for measuring water characteristics, such as turbidity and SDI.

In this study, the use of a commercial coagulant, poly aluminium chloride (PACl), was tested. PACl is in a powder form with the formula of Al_2 (SO₄)₃.18H₂O, supplied by Interpretive, China. For the flocculants, cationic polyacrylamide (CPAM) and anionic polyacrylamide (APAM) were purchased from Interpretive, China. The coagulant and flocculant dosages were determined using a jar-test apparatus (JLT 4, VELP-Scientifica, Italy). The test conditions were summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Conditions of jar test for coagulation-flocculation process

Firstly, PACl was added in the raw water at varied concentrations. The solution was mixed with a rapid mixing rate at 200 rpm for 1 min, and a slow mixing rate at 20 rpm for 15 min. Then it was set for 60 min for sedimentation. Afterwards, the supernatant was collected using a syringe from about 2 cm below the water surface to measure the turbidity.

To investigate the effect of different flocculant, APAM and CPAM, the flocculant was added into the testing solution to get the final concentration of the flocculation in testing solution of 1 mg/L at 45 seconds after the rapid mixing step had started. The PACl concentration was fixed to be constant. The characteristic of floc formation and the residual turbidity at various setting time of each flocculants type were observed. The experiments were test in triplicate for the accuracy of the results. The diagram and procedure of chemical pretreatment process was shown in Figure 3.3 and Table 3.2.

Figure 3.3 Chemical pretreatment process diagrams

Investigation	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	
Dosage of	Varied	No.	60 min	Measurement	
PACL	amount of	chemical	sedimentation	turbidity	
	PACL	added			
Type of	Fixed	Add 1 ppm	60 min	Measurement	
floculant	dosage of	of Cationic	sedimentation	turbidity every 5	
	PACL	PAM		min and observe	
	(optimal			the floc size	
	value for	Add 1 ppm	60 min	Measurement	
	lowest	of Anionic	sedimentation	turbidity every 5	
	turbidity)	PAM		min and observe	
				the floc size	

Table 3.2 Procedure of chemical pretreatment process

(b) Physical pretreatment

Multimedia filter system was applied after the chemical pretreatment

process. The experiments were carried out with a clear PVC column (4.0 cm in diameter and 45 cm in length) packed with 12 cm filter depth of anthracite layer, 8 cm of fine sand layer, and 5 cm of coarse sand layer from top to bottom, respectively (Figure 3.4). The bottom layer was supported by a 5 cm of gravel layer. This filter medias were conducted according to the standard multimedia filter test procedure **[\(56\)](#page-117-2)** and the characteristics of each media layer are summarized in Table 3.3 . The filter medias were washed with deionized water and dried before used.

Deionized water was pumped through the column before the filtration experiment. The supernatant solution of the settling sample (from coagulation-flocculation experiments) was withdrawn from the beaker and transferred to another glass beaker as the raw water for filtration experiments. The raw water was continuously stirred at 100 rpm during the filtration experiment, and it was fed into the column at a constant flow rate of 15 L/h, which is the recommended flux for rapid filtration procedure **[\(56\)](#page-117-2)**. The filtrate water was collected for further water quality analysis.

Table 3.3 Physical properties of filter media used

Figure 3.4 Multimedia filter for physical pretreatment test

3.4 Membrane Filtration Pretreatment

For comparison the effectiveness of chemical and physical pretreatment processes by chemical coagulation/flocculation and multimedia filter, the ultrafiltration (UF) were selected to be tested. The discharged water from cooling tower was collected in the 500 Liter tank as sample water and directly fed to the pretreatment membrane after the pre-filter process with 5 micron of cartridge filter (Polypropylene, PP filter). The dead end UF system especially designed for research

purpose was used. UF-1812-PS-50K, hollow fiber configurations were purchased from VIFIL Company. Membranes specifications are given in the Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Characteristics of MF and UF membrane

Filtration experiments were carried out at room temperature. The feed pressure was fixed at 2 barg, the flow rate of treated water was measured in order to calculate the flux as well as the turbidity. The samples were collected every 10 minutes for 1 hour or until the steady state flow was reached and the quality of treated water was characterized.

3.5 Membrane Treatment Process

The feed water for the membrane unit was synthesized by keeping its quality and components to be the same as those received from the selected pretreatment process. Table 3.5 provides the chemical lists used for the synthetic blowdown water.

Table 3.5 Chemical compositions of the synthetic cooling tower blowdown water

No.	Chemical name	MW	Supplier	Simulate salts ion	lon
	CaCl*18H20	160	Sigma Aldrich	Calcium ion	$2+$
2	MgCl*18H20	180	Sigma Aldrich	Magnesium ion	$2+$
\mathcal{R}	NaHCO	160	Sigma Aldrich	Bicarbonate ion	

A cross flow lab-scale desalination system especially designed for research purpose was used. AMI NF-1812-36 membrane (spiral wound configuration) and Filmtec TW-1812-50 RO membrane (spiral wound configuration) were purchased from Applied Membrane Company and Dow-Filmtec Company, respectively. Both membrane specifications were given in the Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Characteristics of NF and RO membrane

The filtration was tested in total recycle mode. The total volume of the system was 8 Liters and both permeate and concentrate line were returned to the feed tank in order to keep a constant concentration. A high pressure pump was used to circulate the feed solution through the membrane module and a valve was installed at the concentrate outlet to adjust the pressure and the volumetric flow rate. A schematic representation of the equipment was illustrated in Figure 3.5

Figure 3.5 Schematic representation of the NF/RO setup

Filtration experiments were carried out at different pressure and temperature of 25°C. The feed pressure was varied at different values, the flow rate of permeate and concentrate were measured in order to calculate the flux and hydraulic permeability as well as the salt concentration. The samples were collected from permeate line every 10 minutes for 1 hour or until the steady state flow was reached.

3.6 Calculating parameters

3.6.1 Flux (J_{W})

The permeate flux was determined by measuring the volume of the

permeate in a given time interval by the relation in Equation 3.1

$$
J_{\rm W} = \frac{Q_{\rm P}}{A}
$$
 Equation 3.1

Where w J : Permeate flux $(m^3/m^2.h)$

- P Q : Permeate flow rate (m^3/h)
- A : Effective membrane area (m^2)

3.6.2 Rejection (R)

The salt rejection describes the quantity of salt removed from the feed water

stream by the semi-permeable membrane as shown Equation 3.2.

$$
R = \left(\frac{C_f - C_p}{C_f}\right) 100\%
$$
 Equation 3.2

Where R : Rejection rate (%)

- c_{ρ} : Concentration of permeate water (mg/L)
- c_f : Concentration of feed water (mg/L)

3.6.3 Recovery

Recovery calculates percent of the membrane feed water which is converted into permeate as shown in Equation 3.3.

$$
Y = \frac{Q_p}{Q_f}
$$
 Equation 3.3

Where Y : recovery

 \overline{Q}_f : Feed flow rate (m³/h)

3.6.4 Concentration Factor

The concentration factor is related to RO/NF systems recovery, when salt solubility limits are a concern, the concentration factor must be considered in the brine stream by Equation 3.4.

EXAMPLE 3.4 EXAMPLE Example 3.4 Equation 3.4
$$
(1 - Y)
$$

3.6.5 Osmotic pressure

Osmotic pressure is the pressure required to prevent the flow of water across a semi-permeable membrane separating two solutions having different ionic strengths using the equation 2.1. A useful "rule of thumb" is for every 100 mg/L of TDS difference between feed and permeate, 1 psi (0.069 bar) of osmotic pressure exists **[\(59\)](#page-117-5)**.

3.6.6 Trans Membrane Pressure (TMP)

The TMP is defined as the pressure gradient of the membrane, or the average feed pressure minus the permeate pressure by the relation in Equation 2.6. The feed pressure is often measured at the initial point of a membrane module and equals around 4 to 20 times of osmotic pressure **[\(60\)](#page-117-6)**.

3.6.7 Membrane permeability (A_{W})

The membrane permeability with the pure water and electrolyte solution can be obtained from the slope of the plot of $J_{\overline{W}}$ versus the TMP using the Equation 2.5.

3.7 Analytical Methods

The analytical methods given in Table 3.7 were used to determine the properties of raw water and effluent of each process.

3.8 Unit design and Feasibility Study

The design of treatment system was done by using the result from selected pretreatment data and membrane treatment data from lab scale experiment. For case study of this power plant, the initial capacity of the treatment unit was 1,500 m^3 /d using safety factor of 1.3 to avoid the high investment cost and operation and maintenance cost (O&M costs) as for future plant expansion the treatment unit was thus designed at 2,000 m^3 /day flow capacity.

Capital and O&M costs of water treatment plants are essential for planning and design of the treatment facilities. These costs were used to evaluate the financial and economic benefits of the project. The accuracy of the estimate depends upon how well the variables and uncertainties within the scope of the project are defined and understood **[\(62\)](#page-117-8)**. Various components of the capital and O&M costs are shown in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6 Components of capital, and operation and maintenance costs **[\(62\)](#page-117-8)**

In this case study, the capital costs of rapid mixing, slow mixing, clarifier (for sedimentation), and multimedia filter depend on unit size and were calculated by an Qasim's equation model **[\(63\)](#page-117-9)** and USEPA's cost curve **[\(64,](#page-117-10) [65\)](#page-117-11)**. Membrane pretreatment and membrane desalination system were designed using the flux and permeability values from the experiment. The cost of this system depends on unit size, calculated by an estimating model, Suratt's equation model **[\(66\)](#page-118-0)** and WATER's program **[\(67\)](#page-118-1)**. The cost information of whole system was estimated and updated to actual year cost by ENR*'s* construction and building cost index **[\(68\)](#page-118-2)**. However, electricity cost and labor cost were evaluated from the domestic price in year 2016. All cost information in US currency was converted to Thai Baht currency with average exchange rate, one USD equal to around 35 Thai Baht (October 2016) **[\(69\)](#page-118-3)**.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

In this chapter, the results which reflect to the objectives listed in Chapter I were divided into three main parts, the experimental study of pretreatment and membrane desalination of blowdown water, the decision making for selection the suitable pretreatment systems, and the design of blowdown treatment unit and its feasibility study.

Part I Experimental study of pretreatment and membrane desalination of blowdown water

4.1 Quality of discharged cooling tower water

Table 4.1 shows the annually averaged values of some important parameters in cooling tower blowdown water, which discharged from a co-generation power plant. However, based on the guidelines for feed water quality for membrane process like NF and RO in Table 3.7, this discharged water needs to be pretreated to reduce some parameters. Turbidity is an important parameter to indicate the suspended solid and colloidal particles that can cause fouling in membrane. The turbidity of the feed water for membrane has to be less than 1.0 NTU **[\(23,](#page-114-0) [70\)](#page-118-4).** In addition, SDI index is the best method to tell the feed water quality of membrane

unit **[\(6,](#page-112-0) [53\)](#page-116-9)** and it should be less than 5 **[\(6,](#page-112-0) [23,](#page-114-0) [70,](#page-118-4) [71\)](#page-118-5)**. Furthermore, the presence of chlorine could damage membrane and must be kept at less than 0.1 ppm **[\(72\)](#page-118-6)**. Furthermore, COD, hardness and silica representted the organic and inorganic foulants for membrane **[\(21,](#page-114-1) [23\)](#page-114-0)**.

From Table 4.1 it was clearly seen that the turbidity and SDI of the discharged water were over the limited values and must be removed before being fed to the membrane unit.

No				Annual value	NF and RO
	Parameter	Unit	Value		feed water
			range		Control
Overall characteristics					
$\mathbf{1}$	pH		$8.7 - 8.9$	8.8	$2 - 11$
$\overline{2}$	Conductivity	µS/cm	1,148-1,814	1,459	
3	TDS	mg/L	688-1,130	969	
4	TSS	mg/L	$5 - 12$	9	
5	Oil and Greece	mg/L	< 1	<1	
6	BOD ₅	mg/L	$2.0 - 3.4$	2.6	
$\overline{7}$	COD	mg/L	19-47	35	
8	Turbidity	NTU	$1.8 - 5.4$	3.5	$<\!1$
9	SDI		$16 - 19$	18	< 5
Salt ions					
10	Total Alkalinity	mg/L CaCO ₃	260-430	380	
11	Calcium	mg/L CaCO ₃	250-395	325	
12	Magnesium	mg/L CaCO ₃	115-180	145	
13	Sulphate	mg/L SO ₄	95-175	135	
14	Chloride	mg/L Cl	115-340	205	
15	Silica	mg/L SiO ₂	10-80	50	
16	Total Iron	mg/L Fe	$0.02 - 0.15$	0.08	
17	Phosphate	mg/L PO ₄	$0.2 - 1.0$	0.6	
18	Chlorine	mg/L	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
19	Heavy metals				
	- Manganese	mg/L	< 0.03	< 0.03	
	- Copper	mg/L	$0.01 - 0.03$	0.02	

Table 4.1 Discharge water quality from cooling tower

4.2 Pretreatment of Feed Water

4.2.1 Conventional pretreatment

Coagulation and flocculation are the conventional pretreatment methods used to separate suspended and colloidal organic and inorganic particles from raw water. The effective application of coagulation and flocculation depends upon the characteristic of suspended particles such as charge, size, shape, and density **[\(48\)](#page-116-4)**. Most suspended solids in water normally have a negative charge that repels each other when they come close together. This makes it hard to clump together and settle out of the water, unless proper coagulation and flocculation is used.

Coagulation and flocculation processes occur in sequential steps, allowing particle collision and growth of floc. This is then followed by sedimentation. In addition, for the efficient treatment the right dosages of coagulants and flocculants need to be determined. จนาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

a) Effect of PACl dosage on turbidity removal

The effect of coagulant dosage on the turbidity of pretreated water was illustrated in Figure 4.1 and 4.2.

Figure 4.2 Percent turbidity removal vs PACl dosage

The residue turbidity gradually increased with the PACl addition, but then started to fall at PACl dosage of 60 ppm and got to a steady value at around 0.5 NTU at 120 ppm PACl dosage. The increasing trend of turbidity when 10-60 ppm of the coagulant was added might be attributed to the increase in suspended particles from the chemical addition itself. In addition, the small coagulant addition was not efficient enough to destabilize the colloidal particles, more coagulant chemicals may need to be added. Once the charge is neutralized, the small particles are capable of sticking together and water surrounding the newly formed micro-flocs should be clear. The optimum dosage of PACl was defined as a value above which there is no significant increase in removal efficiency with further addition of the coagulant. The optimum dosage of PACL for discharge cooling water in this study was 120 ppm, but 150 ppm of PACl was selected to be our operating dosage to ensure the effective removal of the suspended particles in the case of fluctuation of feed water quality. This dosage can reached the turbidity lower than 1.0 NTU which is the requirement of feed water for membrane processes. Approximately 0.4 NTU and 88% of turbidity removal could be achieved.

b) Effect of Flocculant Chemical on Settling Time

Two types of flocculant, CPAM and APAM, were added to the jar at slow stirring step and their effects were compared. The settling behavior of coagulant aids was investigated at dosage of 1.00 ppm and selected PACl dosage at 150 ppm. Figure 4.3 shows the residual turbidity at various settling time of sample water from coagulation-flocculation process with and without flocculant. It can be clearly observed that the addition of a small amount of the flocculant could significantly reduce the settling time of coagulation-flocculation process, which could reduce the sedimentation time for settling step.

Figure 4.3 Residual turbidity at settling time of each pretreatment

Both polymers were added to help the flocs to bridge and bind together and also to strengthen their interaction, forming bigger flocs with heavier weight and accelerating their settling rate. From 4.4, both polymers showed no significant difference in reducing turbidity of the raw water with similar settling rate. However,
from Figure 4.4, the flocs from the mixture of PACl and APAM were larger than those from PACl and CPAM. This added a big advantage in the following separation step of the flocs for PACL/APAM over the PACL/CPAM system **[\(73\)](#page-118-0)**. This may be because the anionic PAM neutralized the positive charge of PACl coagulants and helped them form the larger flocs that can be visible with agglomerate sizes in the range of 0.1 to 2.0 mm **[\(74\)](#page-118-1)**. APAM was thus selected to be the flocculant for the conventional treatment process that required 45 minute of settling time to reduce the turbidity of blowdown water down to 0.41 NTU.

Figure 4.4 Characteristic of floc formation at the first minute of settling step (a) PACl 150 ppm (b) PACl 150 ppm + CPAM 1.00 ppm (c) PACl 150 ppm + APAM 1.00 ppm

c) Effect of media filtration pretreatment

When only filtration was used as the pretreatment for the raw water, the residual turbidity remained unchanged (see Table 4.2). It should be noted that the low value of turbidity (0.4 NTU) to meet the requirement for membrane separation process can already be achieved by coagulation and flocculation steps. However, the SDI value still exceeded the control value required by membrane separation process and it is of necessary to further complete the pretreatment with the multimedia filtration. Only when the combination of pretreatments using the multimedia filter after chemical pretreatment process, the pretreated water could meet feed water quality with low turbidity and low SDI value for membranes.

Parameter		Turbidity	COD	Hardness	Silica	SDI	
(unit)	рH	(NTU)	(mg/L)	(mg/L)	(mg/L)		
Required quality		< 1.0				5	
Raw water	$8.8 + 0.1$	3.74 ± 0.57	$33+3$	$440 + 8$	$38 + 1$	18.1 ± 0.1	
Filtration	$8.8 + 0.1$	2.46 ± 0.98	$31+3$	$340 + 8$	$23 + 1$	14.2 ± 0.5	
PACL	8.2 ± 0.1	0.64 ± 0.08	$23 + 1$	$447 + 5$	$25+2$	19.1 ± 0.1	
$PACI + APAM$	8.3 ± 0.1	0.56 ± 0.09	$21+1$	$443 + 5$	$27+2$	18.8 ± 0.1	
$PACI + CPAM$	8.2 ± 0.1	0.59 ± 0.04	$20 + 1$	$440 + 8$	$24+2$	18.9 ± 0.2	
PACL + Filtration	8.3 ± 0.1	0.75 ± 0.06	21 ± 1	350 ± 16	19 ± 1	13.3 ± 0.4	
$PACI + APAM +$	8.3 ± 0.1	0.41 ± 0.05	$20 + 1$	$452 + 2$	$25 + 3$	4.1 ± 0.5	
Filtration							
$PACI + CPAM +$	8.2 ± 0.1	0.42 ± 0.04	$21+1$	$445 + 4$	$24+1$	4.5 ± 0.3	
Filtration							

Table 4.2 Raw and effluent water qualities from each pretreatment step.

Figure 4.5 shows the surface of used polymer filter (polyamide membrane with pore diameter at 0.45 µm) from SDI measurement of water from different pretreatments. For the raw blowdown water, the dark brown color was observed on the membrane filter (Figure 4.5 a), implying that the water contained high amount of suspended particles and colloidal. This raw water was not suitable for feeding to membrane separation process. When the water was pretreated by coagulation and flocculation chemical, the tiny particles are combined and settled out by gravity; this was clearly observed from the reduced observable cake-layer on the filter (Figure 4.5 b). The membrane surface after pretreatment with coagulation/flocculation and multimedia filtration had a more whitish appearance, indicating less foulants remaining (Figure 4.5 c) and can be used for membrane pretreatment process.

Figure 4.5 Used filter from SDI test of raw water and water for pretreatment by (a) new membrane (b) after raw effluent, (c) after treatment by coagulationflocculation (APAM), (d) after treatment by coagulation-flocculation (APAM) and multimedia filtration

The results obtained for the pretreatment study showed that the combination of coagulation/flocculation (APAM) with multimedia filtration was the most effective method that could pretreat raw water to meet the required quality of the feed for the NF/RO systems.

4.2.2 Membrane pretreatment process

For the membrane pretreatment, the large particles in blowdown water was filtrated out by 5 µm polypropylene pre-filter before the UF membrane filter tests. The UF experiment was carried out for 1 hour of operation time. Feed pressure was fixed at 3 barg and every ten minute sample was collected to check turbidity of permeate water. The result of flux and turbidity was shown in Figures 4.6 and 4.7.

Figure 4.6 Operation flux of UF membranes

Figure 4.7 Turbidity of treated water form UF membrane

From Figure 4.6, at constant trans-membrane pressure the flux of treated water was relative stable at the average value around 65 L/hr.m². In fact, for the longer operation, normally the gradual flux decline should be observed. Dow, the membrane producer, recommended to do membrane cleaning cycle to prolong the lifespan of the membrane by a short back-washing every 30 minutes and by chemical cleaning with liquid chlorine, HCl acid, and NaOH basis every 12 hour **[\(75\)](#page-118-2)**.

Water samples after the membrane pretreatment step were collected and analyzed, as the result; average turbidity and SDI by prefilter is about 1.56 NTU and 16.9. On the other hand, average turbidity and SDI of pre-treated water from the UF was only 0.24 NTU and 2.7, which was good enough as RO feed. However, other parameters like pH, COD, hardness and silica values were not changed. The water qualities after membranes pretreatment were summarized in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Raw water and effluent water qualities from UF pretreatment membrane

Compared to the conventional pretreatment, membrane pretreatment showed to be more efficient. Figure 4.8 shows the surface of used polymer filter from SDI measurement of the pretreated water from 5 micron pre-filter and UF filter. The membrane surface was quite clean with only small area of black droplets (Figure 4.8 c), indicating only small amount of foulants remaining.

Figure 4.8 Used filter from SDI test of raw water and water for pretreatment by (a) new membrane (b) raw water effluent (c) after 5 micron pre-filter (d) after treatment by UF membrane

4.3 NF/RO membrane treatment process

Feed water for membrane process was synthesized to have the same composition as the pretreated water from the UF method. Two types of membranes,

NF and RO, were used and compared. Water flux of the membranes was measured under different operation pressures and was presented in Figure 4.9. The fluxes increased linearly with the increased operation pressure. The linear evolution of fluxes with the transmembrane pressure shows that Darcy's law is valid (Equation 3.7). This linear behavior is described by a slope which corresponds to water permeability.

Figure 4.9 Effect of TMP on the permeate flux of pure water and tested water for NF and RO membrane

From Figure 4.9, the NF membranes exhibited higher permeate flux values to pure water compared to the RO membrane. The higher slope means the higher permeability characteristic, which generally indicates a high porosity. On the other hand, the lower slope value was obtained for the examined RO membrane, which is expected due to its denser selective layer. The molecular weight cut off (MWCO) of the investigated membranes and permeability values, which are proportional to the pores size of membranes, was given in Table 4.4.

The rejection of the investigated membranes for synthesis water was plotted against the different trans-membrane pressures as shown in Figure 4.10. In RO, the salt rejection remained considerably constants with increasing operating pressure, because the ion permeation is only a function of feed concentration and is independent of the operating pressure **[\(76\)](#page-118-3)**. On the other hand, in NF membrane the rejection increased gradually with the applied pressure. This could be explained by considering salts transport through the membrane as a result of diffusion and convection due to concentration and pressure gradients across the membrane. At a low operation pressure, diffusion contributes substantially to the salts transport resulting in a lower retention while increasing pressure, the salts transport by diffusion becomes relatively less important, so that salts retention is higher **[\(77\)](#page-118-4)**.

Figure 4.10 TDS rejection as a function of TMP for NF and RO membranes

The RO membranes as expected showed the best performance on salts rejection with almost 98 %. For the NF membrane, 50 % of salts rejection was obtained; this because the MWCO of membrane is larger than diameter of salts. The RO membrane can be used to treat blowdown water from cooling tower in this power plant. Based on this result, the selected pressure for operating RO unit is 7 bar.

Table 4.4 Values of MWCO and membrane permeability of the membranes

*Values were obtained from the literature (**[40\)](#page-115-0)**

From the data in Table 4.4, TDS 514 ppm of treated water from NF membrane was higher than TDS value of tap water quality in this power plant (around 200-300 ppm) and higher than criteria TDS for cooling tower make-up water, which should not be more than 500 ppm **[\(34\)](#page-115-1)**. Unlike the treated water from RO membrane, 19 ppm of TDS was achieved and can be used for further design

Part II Decision making for selection the suitable pretreatment systems

Several factors including removal efficiency, cost, and area require were taken into account in order to make the decision for the suitable and most economic pretreatment systems for the blowdown water pre-treatment unit. Figure 4.12 compares the steps required in conventional and membrane pre-treatment before being feed to the RO membrane. For conventional pretreatment, 150 ppm of PACl coagulant was dosed into the raw water and mixed through a baffle plates for 1 minute, and afterwards 1 ppm of APAM flocculant was added and kept mixing for 15 minute to form dense flocs. The flocs was then allowed to settle in sedimentation clarifiers for 1 hour. The clarified water was fed to the media filters with filtration rate of 8 L/hour.m², which was the recommended filtration rate for a media filter.

In the case of UF system, the process started with 5 µm pre-filters for screening large particulate before UF membrane. The filtration flux of UF is 65 L/hour.m². Therefore, 17 of UF membrane modules (77 m² per module) were required to treat 2000 m^3 of blowdown water per day.

Figure 4.11 Process diagram of conventional and membrane pretreatment

From the design flow rate, 2,000 m^3 /day of blowdown water from power plant, an economic analysis of the comparative conventionally versus membrane (UF) pretreated system for RO plant was evaluated. The cost data and economic analysis are summarized in Table 4.5 and 4.6, respectively.

Table 4.5 Comparative cost for conventional and membrane pretreatment systems (The costs in this Table is 2016's costs, See Appendix D)

Pretreatment type	Conventional	UF	
Investment cost (Million Baht, MB)			
- Pre-filter		0.39	
- Rapid mixer basin	1.79		
- Slow mixer basin	4.68		
- Sedimentation basin	5.13		
- Filtration system and chemical	21.2		
feed system			
- Membrane cleaning equip.		4.4	
- UF Membrane system		28.19	
Total capital cost (MB)	32.80	32.98	
Fixed O&M cost (MB/year)			
- Materials	0.065	0.319	
- Media filter replacement	0.042		
- Membrane replacement		0.376	
Variable O&M Cost (MB/year)			
- Energy	0.069	0.157	
- Chemical	0.997	0.080	
- Labor	0.082	0.133	
Total O&M Cost (Baht/year)	1.26	1.07	

Table 4.6 Main design data and economic analysis for conventional and membrane pretreatment systems (See Appendix D)

*Water losses through sludge discharged and backwash filter **[\(52\)](#page-116-0)**

** Water losses through sludge discharged and backwash filter **[\(52\)](#page-116-0)**

Capital cost

The total investment in the 2,000 m^3 /day pretreatment plant was estimated to be 32.8 million Baht for the case where conventional filtration was used and 32.98 million Baht for the plant used UF pretreatment. The total capital cost of UF system was only slightly higher than the conventional method (around 5% higher).

Operation & Maintenance (O&M) costs

From Tables 4.5 and 4.6, the total O&M cost of the conventional method was approximately 18% higher than those of UF system. The major O&M cost of the

conventional method was contributed to the chemicals, while for the UF system was to electricity

Quality of treated water and the fluctuation of raw water quality

UF system has exhibited its ability to constantly produce low turbidity (high quality) of filtrate in comparison to conventional method. The key feature of UF is its capability to control the permeate quality by pore size. However the major drawback of UF in large-scale application is membrane fouling which is tedious to control and likely to happen when turbidity of raw water is increased. The control turbidity for UF membrane should be less than 200 NTU **[\(75\)](#page-118-2)**. On the other hand, conventional pretreatment plants are settling the particles out of process and in the case of high turbidity of raw water, conventional pretreatment are preferred. However, the annual water quality of the power plant in this study is rarely fluctuated, so the UF pretreatment are preferred.

Water loss and waste disposal

Water losses are mainly due to sludge discharge, cleaning the filter media and UF membrane through backwash process. It has been reported in commercial-scale studies that water losses of UF membrane can be as high as 13.3% **[\(78\)](#page-119-0)** to allow more frequent sludge discharge interval and backwash to alleviate membrane fouling. On the other hand, the conventional system water losses are within the recommended level of less than 7% **[\(79\)](#page-119-1).**

However, sludge with chemical coagulant, aluminium, could lead to heavy metal accumulation in the environment and thus required further treatment and proper sludge management **[\(80\)](#page-119-2)**. This was considering one of the major disadvantages of the conventional system.

Land required

The land required for a UF plant operating at a membrane pretreatment was only 30% of the area needed for a system used a conventional pretreatment. For plants limited in size especially in the case of power plant located in a community area, membrane system was preferred. The fact that UF membrane price has been decreasing and smaller land requirements have made this treatment process very affordable to be implemented in large-scale

The primary purpose of this study was to evaluate the sustainability of industrial-scale UF and conventional pretreatment systems in terms of commercial and environmental. The comparisons between both systems indicated that the UF system might eventually be more commercially viable than conventional systems. In addition, the membrane system could produce consistently good quality of filtrate with lower O&M cost, smaller land requirement, non-toxic sludge discharge and highly automated process with less manpower required. Therefore, in this work, UF membrane was selected to be pretreatment process before RO membrane desalination plant for blowdown water from power plant.

Part III Design membrane treatment plant

4.4 RO Membrane Desalination Unit Design

4.4.1 Design basis of the membrane treatment blowdown water from power plant

Based on experimental data in section 4.2 and 4.3, 19 mg/L of TDS in permeate water was too clean for cooling make up water and make the productivity of membrane treatment plant was very low. For this reason, blending stream has to use for increase the TDS of product water and product flow as well. Valuation blending flow rate stream showed in Equation 4.1 **[\(67\)](#page-118-5)** below, where Q_B is Blending flow rate in cubic meter per day and the flow diagram showed in Figure 4.13.

$$
Q_B = Q_f \times \frac{TDS_{Target}}{TDS_{Permeate}} \times \frac{TDS_{feed}}{TDS_{Permeate}} \text{ Equation 4.1}
$$

Where B Q is Blending stream volumetric flow rate and

> Q_f is Feed stream volumetric flow rate

However, TDS in brine stream are concern according to the standards for wastewater discharge from industrial plants (Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment) **[\(81\)](#page-119-3)** which should not be more than 3,000 ppm. From this point, CF of RO unit from equation 3.4 should less than 3 and Y value or recovery ratio equal to 65 percent. Quantity and quality of RO desalination unit showed in Figure 4.13.

Figure 4.12 Flow diagram of RO membrane unit with blending stream

From Figure 4.13, membrane feed flow rate is 1,794 m^3 /day which UF product water is used to calculate the number of membrane element via the membrane permeability value (6.352 Lph/m².bar). From this information, 1,280 m² of membrane area are used at 7 bar feed pressure, equal to 34.6 elements of BW30-400 membrane (8'' diameter and 40'' length) with active area of 37 m^2 per element. The design basis of membrane water treatment was shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Design basis of membrane water treatment plant

Figure 4.13 Process flow diagram of membrane treatment

4.4.3 Process description

Figure 4.14, showed the process flow diagram of the membrane treatment blowdown water from power plant. The production of the membrane treated water was a continuous process and can be simply described as follows.

Raw water

Raw water was fed from blowdown pit in power plant with design flow rate 2,000 m^3 /day. The high values of turbidity and SDI were observed and cannot be fed directly to the membrane without pretreatment process to avoid the block up in membrane unit.

UF membrane pretreatment

Blowdown water was fed to feed tank and transfer to UF system by UF feed pump at constant pressure 3 bar (65 LPH of flux). The back wash pump was used to clean the membrane at pressure 3.1 bar every 30 minute as same as the chemically enhanced backwash (CEB) systems which conduct acid and caustic chemical to clean the membrane every 12 hour for prevent the fouling on UF membrane. The filtrated water was kept at filtrated water tank. Membrane system size can be calculated to 17 modules. Constructions were developed for complete UF plants include housing, structural steel, chemical tanks, piping, valves, flow meters, cartridge filters and also cleaning equipment.

RO membrane

After the pretreatment system, treated water was transferred from the holding tank to the high pressure pump by water transfer pump. The efficiency of the membrane elements may be impaired by scaling, then small quantities of antiscale solution (recommended value 0.5 ppm), which prepared in a tank and then pumped by a diaphragm metering pump to the line was add-up. Membrane system size could be calculated to 36 modules. Constructions developed for complete RO plants include housing, structural steel, chemical tanks, piping, valves, high pressure pumps, pressure vessels, flow meters, cartridge filters and also cleaning equipment. The blending stream was used to achieve the higher TDS value and product water flow. The concentrate stream flow which TDS control of 3,000 ppm was rejected to the waste water drain pit.

Chlorine feed

To prevent the bacteria growth in product water, feed of small quantities (1.0 ppm) of sodium hypochlorite solution, which prepared in a day tank and then pumped by a diaphragm metering pump to the point of application. Construction is identical for chemical feed systems with capacity up to 500 kg/day.

4.4.4 Overall Flow and TDS balance

Overall volumetric flow and TDS balanced of the membrane treatment plant for cooling tower blowdown are summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Flow and TDS balance for process flow diagram in Figure 4.14

4.4.5 Equipment sizing

All equipment of the membrane treatment blowdown water from power plant are sized and summarized in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Equipment sizing (See Appendix D)

4.5 Feasibility study capital and production cost

The total capital investment cost for 2,000 m^3 per day of maximum design flow which sum of the fixed capital investment and the working capital, indirect cost of UF and RO system showed in Table 4.10-4.11 below (See Appendix D). From these data, RO system occupied more than 50% of the total investment cost of system.

Moreover, all operation and maintenance cost from show in Table 4.12, which was estimated with 1,500 m_1^3 per day of operation flow rate, included chemicals consumption cost, power cost, membrane replacement cost, and maintenance cost for whole year round. Power cost and membrane cost for UF and RO system is the major cost of overall operation costs.

According to data from Table 4.10-4.12, the calculated cost of treatment per cubic meter of blowdown water daily when operate at 30 years plant life was 12.73 Baht per cubic meter. On the other hand, currently this plant was paying around 17 baht per cubic meter on tap water to use in cooling tower and it is profitable for the company to install these treatment systems.

Table 4.10 The total capital investment of the UF water treatment units (The costs in this table is 2016's costs, see Appendix D)

Table 4.11 The total capital investment of the RO water treatment (The costs in this table is 2016's costs, see Appendix D)

Table 4.12 Operation and maintenance costs of major system (The costs in this table is 2016's costs, see Appendix D)

* Electricity cost based on 2 Bath / KWatt-hr

** Labor cost based on 20,000 Bath / month

4.6 Profitability analysis

There are essentially three bases used for the evaluation of profitability;

- (1) Time base (Payback period, PBP)
- (2) Cash base (Cumulative Cash Ratio, CCR and Net Present Value, NPV)
- (3) Interest rate base (Return on Investment, ROI)

For each of these bases, it can consider discounted and non-discounted techniques. Both types of techniques were presented in this work, and the considered plant will require the following basis.

The cumulative cash flow for the tap water production is illustrated in Table 4.13. Using this data, the cumulative cash flow diagram is drawn in Figure 4.14 below.

				Discount rate 0%		Discount rate 3%	
Year	Invest.	O&M	Net	Cash	Cum.	Cash	Cum.
	Cost	Costs	Profit	flow	Cash flow	flow	Cash flow
\sqrt{a}							
$\mathbf{1}$	(68.42)		(68.42)	(68.42)	(68.42)	(66.43)	(66.43)
$\overline{2}$		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(64.664)	3.540	(62.887)
3		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(60.909)	3.437	(59.450)
4		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(57.153)	3.337	(56.113)
5		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(53.398)	3.240	(52.874)
6		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(49.642)	3.145	(49.729)
7		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(45.886)	3.054	(46.675)
8		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(42.131)	2.965	(43.710)
9		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(38.375)	2.878	(40.832)
10		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(34.620)	2.795	(38.037)
11		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(30.864)	2.713	(35.324)
12		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(27.108)	2.634	(32.690)
13		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(23.353)	2.557	(30.133)
14		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(19.597)	2.483	(27.650)
15		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(15.842)	2.411	(25.239)
16		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(12.086)	2.340	(22.899)
17		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(8.330)	2.272	(20.627)
18		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(4.575)	2.206	(18.421)
19		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	(0.819)	2.142	(16.279)
20		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	2.936	2.079	(14.200)

Table 4.13 Non-discounted & discount cash flow (All numbers is in million Thai Baht)

				Discount rate 0%		Discount rate 3%		
Year	Invest.	O&M	Net	Cash	Cum.	Cash	Cum.	
	Cost	Costs	Profit	flow	Cash flow	flow	Cash flow	
21		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	6.692	2.019	(12.181)	
22		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	10.448	1.960	(10.221)	
23		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	14.20	1.903	(8.318)	
24		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	17.96	1.848	(6.470)	
25		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	21.71	1.794	(4.677)	
26		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	25.47	1.741	(2.935)	
27		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	29.23	1.691	(1.244)	
28		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	32.98	1.641	0.397	
29		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	36.74	1.594	1.991	
30		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	40.49	1.547	3.538	
31		(2.373)	3.756	3.756	44.25	1.502	5.040	
* Number in () are negative cash flow								
CCR or NPV			44.25 MB		5.040 MB			
PPB or DPBP			18.2 Year		27.7 Year			
ROI or DROI			65 Percent		8 Percent			

Table 4.14 Non-discounted & discount cash flow (All numbers is in million Thai Baht)

Payback period (PBP)

Payback period is the time in which the initial cash outflow of an investment is expected to be recovered from the cash inflows generated by the investment. The formula to calculate payback period of a project for even cash flow per period from the project is in Equation 4.2.

$$
PBP = \frac{Initial\,Insert}{Cash\,inflow\,per\,Period}
$$
 Equation 4.2

From Table 4.19, it was found that the PBP is 18.2 years for non-discount rate

and 27.7 years at discount rate at 3%.

Net Present Value (NPV) and Cumulative Cash Ratio (CCR)

CCR is the cash criterion for non-discounted technique, which is simply the worth of the project at the end of its life and showed in Equation 4.3.

$$
CCR = \frac{Sum of all positive cash flows}{Sum of all negative cash flows}
$$
 Equation 4.3

NPV is a formula used to determine the present value of an investment by

the discounted technique. The formula for the discounted sum of all cash flows can

be rewritten as Equation 4.4.

NPV =
$$
-C_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{C_i}{(1+r)i}
$$

Equation 4.4

When $-C_0$ is a negative cash flow, and $\frac{C_1}{(1+r)^{1}}$ i \subset is cash flow with discount rate of each year. These two values considering that the money going out is subtracted from the discounted sum of cash flows coming in, the values would need to be positive in order to be considered a valuable investment. From Table 4.19, it was found that the CCR is 44.25 million Baht for non-discount rate, so this project would be estimated to be a valuable venture. The NPV is 5.040 million Baht at discount rate at 3% from the start of the project, which may not be worth investing in when expecting such profits.

Rate of Return on Investment (ROI)

ROI is used to measures a [profitability](http://www.myaccountingcourse.com/financial-ratios/profitability-ratios) ratio that calculates the profits of an investment as a percentage of the original cost. The ROI formula is calculated by subtracting the average cost from the total income and dividing it by the initial investment cost as in Equation 4.5.

$$
ROI = \frac{Average annualnet profit}{Initial investment}
$$
 Equation 4.5

From Table 4.19, it was found that the ROI is 65% for non-discount rate, and 8.0% for discount rate at 3%. Generally, any positive ROI is considered a good return and means that the total cost of the investment was recouped in addition to some profits left over. A negative return on investment means that the revenues weren't even enough to cover the total costs.

Figure 4.14 Cumulative cash flow diagrams for discounted and non-discounted rate
4.7 Sensitivity analysis

Similar to other industrial plant projects, factors and assumption used in estimation may fluctuate by different extents and lead to a variation in the economic performance of the entire project. Analysis on the major factors affecting the performance is therefore necessary in order to find out the implication of these factors on the profitability of the proposed plant. Figure 4.16 showed the results of the sensitivity analysis by varying five major factors. These factors include:

- (1) Tap water cost
- (2) Operation flow rate
- (3) RO membrane cost
- (4) Fixed cost
- (5) Electricity cost

Figure 4.15 Sensitivity analyses in the variation factor of \pm 30%

Tap water cost

In present, tap water price for this co-generation power plant is 17 Baht/m³, which lower than the general industrial plant (25-35 Baht/m³). As the matter of fact, increment of tap water price is likely to happen in the near future, because of the clean water shortage in Thailand. The variation of tap water price in the range of 11.9-22.1 Baht/m³ may result in a difference of ± 119 % to the NPV at the discount rate of 0%.

Blowdown water rate

The operation rate for treatment plant increased when blowdown water from power plant increased. The proposed plant was designed to support the blowdown water at a maximum rate 2,000 m³/day and it seems to be possible to be operated at its full in the future because the demand of electricity and cooling load of the airport. The variation of operation flow in the range of 1,050–1,950 m^3 per day is result in a difference of ±93 % to the NPV at the discount rate of 0%.

Capital cost

Total capital cost of this project is estimated to be 68,661,135 Baht. If the lower fixed capital investment (lower cost of equipment) is possible, the NPV could be improved. The capital cost has been varied in the range of 48-89 million Baht, changing the NPV at the 0% discount rate of \pm 45 %.

RO membrane cost

Cost of RO membrane (model BW-300) for this project is 24,500 Baht/element, which is the average price in distributor companies in abroad and will be less by more import quantities in the future. The RO membrane price has been varied in the range of 17,150-31,850 Baht/element, changing the NPV at the 0% discount rate of ± 4 %.

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APPENDIX A

Cooling Tower Blowdown Water Quality

No	Parameters	Units	Month / year 2015					
			July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
$\mathbf{1}$	pH		8.8	8.7	8.8	8.9	8.8	8.8
$\overline{2}$	Conductivity	µS/cm	1,814	1,735	1,159	1,487	1,430	1,425
3	TDS	mg/L	1,111	1,130	906	1,110	1,052	1,006
$\overline{4}$	TSS	mg/L	$<$ 5	$<$ 5	$<$ 5	$<$ 5	$<$ 5	$<$ 5
5	Oil and Greece	mg/L	< 1.0	<1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0
6	BOD ₅	mg/L	3.2	2.0	2.0	2.5	2.0	<2.0
$\overline{7}$	COD	mg/L	45.3	18.9	29.7	34.1	39.5	31.8
8	Turbidity	NTU	1.84	3.39	2.30	3.13	5.35	3.53
9	T-Alkalinity	mg/L^*	345	260	400	400	325	405
10	Calcium	mg/L*	355	250	395	325	320	315
11	Magnesium	mg/L^*	135	160	145	135	115	160
12	Sulphate	mg/L	156	142	111	128	137	174
13	Chloride	mg/L	253	338	158	307	205	218
14	Silica	mg/L	10	19	45	74	78	79
15	Total Iron	mg/L	0.10	0.09	0.1	0.14	0.13	0.15
16	T-PO4	mg/L	0.73	0.45	0.99	0.15	0.16	0.83
17	Manganese	mg/L	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
18	Copper	mg/L	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02
19	Chlorine	mg/L	< 0.1	0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1

Table A-1 Annual Quality of Cooling Tower Blowdown Water

 $*$ mg/L as CaCO₃

No	Parameters	Units	Month / year 2016					
			Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	June
$\mathbf{1}$	pH		8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8
$\overline{2}$	Conductivity	µS/cm	1,431	1,556	1,148	1,537	1,348	1440
3	TDS	mg/L	978	1,008	688	990	834	815
4	TSS	mg/L	12	$<$ 5	$<$ 5	5	$<$ 5	<5
5	Oil and Greece	mg/L	< 1.0	<1.0	<1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0	< 1.0
6	BOD ₅	mg/L	3.4	2.0	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.0
$\overline{7}$	COD	mg/L	45	40	31	29.4	22.3	47
8	Turbidity	NTU	2.63	3.68	4.81	4.10	3.92	2.98
9	T-Alkalinity	mg/L*	420	430	425	395	360	376
10	Calcium	mg/L*	320	280	355	345	329	320
11	Magnesium	mg/L*	130	150	140	125	181	168
12	Sulphate	mg/L	107	160	95	144	147	113
13	Chloride	mg/L	180	190	115	156	142	192
14	Silica	mg/L	57	62	50	67	64	26
15	Total Iron	mg/L	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.14	0.02
16	T-PO4	mg/L	0.75	0.69	0.99	0.65	0.26	0.30
17	Manganese	mg/L	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
18	Copper	mg/L	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02
19	Chlorine	mg/L	< 0.1	0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1

Table A-1 Annual Quality of Cooling Tower Blowdown Water (continued)

 $*$ mg/L as CaCO₃

APPENDIX B

Preparation of Synthesis Cooling Water

No.	Parameters	Value	Unit
	Volume		Liter
2.	Alkalinity	400	mg/L as $CaCO3$
3	Calcium	300	mg/L as $CaCO3$
4	Magnesium	150	mg/L as $CaCO3$

Step 1: Specification of cooling water requirement

Step 2: Specification of chemical

Step 3: Change mg/L as CaCO³ to mg/L as each ion (Eq. weight of CaCO³ is 50)

3.1 NaHCO₃ 400 mg/L as CaCO₃ equal to $(400 \times 61) / 50 = 488$ mg/L as bicarbonate

3.2 CaCl₂•2H₂O 300 mg/L as CaCO₃ equal to (300×20) / 50 = 120 mg/L as calcium 3.3 MgCl₂•6H₂O 150 mg/L as CaCO₃ equal to $(150 \times 12.2) / 50 = 36.6$ mg/L as magnesium

Step 4: Weight of each ion as required concentration

Step 5: Weight of each chemical

Step 6: Weight each chemical in table 2 as in Step 5

Step 7: Dissolve in demineralization water and adjust volume to 4 liters in volumetric flask

Step 8: Specification of cooling water requirement in step 1 are done

APPENDIX C

SDI (Silt density index) Determination

SDI (Silt density index) determination

In this experiment Rizon Manual SDI Test Kit model HAK-120 (Horizon Environmental Technology, Co., Ltd) was used to determine SDI index.

Calculation: $SDI_5 = (1 - t_0 / t_5) \times (100 / 5)$

When: t_0 is necessary time (sec) to collected 500 ml of water at the begin (t_0) of filtration test

 t_5 is necessary time (sec) to collected 500 ml of water at 5 minute (t_5) of filtration test

	Run2				
No.	Pretreatment	t_0 (Sec)	t_5 (Sec)	SDI	
$\mathbf{1}$	Feed water	19	191	18.0	
2	Multimedia filter (MMF)	16	61	14.8	
3	PAC α 150 ppm	22	512	19.1	
4	PACl @ 150 ppm + APAM 1.0 ppm	25	465	18.9	
5	PACL @ 150 ppm + CPAM 1.0 ppm	33	621	18.9	
6	PACl @ 150 ppm + MMF	16	51	13.7	
$\overline{7}$	PACL @ 150 ppm +APAM 1.0 ppm + MMF	14	17	3.5	
8	PACL @ 150 ppm +CPAM 1.0 ppm + MMF	15	19	4.2	

Table C-1 SDI of conventional pretreatment (continued)

Table C-2 SDI of UF membrane pre-treatment

	Run1 42 Y						
No.	Pretreatment	t_0 (Sec)	t_5 (Sec)	SDI			
1	5 micron filter จหาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยา	12 ี่ลัย	80	17.0			
$\overline{2}$	UF filter	9	10	2.2			
	Run2						
No.	Pretreatment	t_0 (Sec)	t_5 (Sec)	SDI			
$\mathbf{1}$	5 micron filter	13	79	16.8			
2	UF filter	9	10	2.4			
	Run3						
No.	Pretreatment	t_0 (Sec)	t_5 (Sec)	SDI			
$\mathbf{1}$	5 micron filter	12	79	16.9			
$\overline{2}$	UF filter	8	10	3.4			

APPENDIX D

Cost Calculation for Pretreatment Systems

Table D-1 Cost indices data for conventional pretreatment systems

Table D-2 Package pressure filtration cost calculations

Cost calculations	Value	Units	Remark
Design flow	2,000	m /day	

*Include 2 chemical feed systems (PACl and PAM)

Table D-3 Rapid mixing system cost calculations

Equation 1: 239.7 \times (V^{^1.055}) + 13,640

Equation 2: 5,610.0 x ($V^{0.494}$) x EXP (0.000024 x V)

Cost calculations	Value	Units	Remark
Design flow rate	2,000	m^3 /day	
Retention Time	40	min.	
Assumed Depth	2.5	m	
Calculated Settling Area	22.22	$\overline{2}$ m	
Design Settling Area: A	25.0	2 m	Application range 20-450 (63)
<u>(Oct 1978) Capital Cost:</u>	43,720	Dollar	Equation $3(63)$
(Oct 1978) O&M Cost:	2,138	Dollar	Equation $4(63)$
Update Capital cost			
Cost calculations	Percent	Cost (MB)	Remark
Manufactured & Electrical	0.29		Update cost components
Equip.		1.6	(63)
Housing	0.00		
Excavation, Site Work &	0.24	1.5	
Labor			
Piping and Valves	0.10	0.37	
Steel UTIL	0.27	1.3	
Concrete	0.10	0.36	
(Dec 2016) Capital Cost:	1.00	5.13	2016's Costs
Update O&M cost			
Cost calculations	Percent	Cost (MB)	Remark
Materials	0.16	0.029	O&M cost components (63)
Energy (2,983 Kwh/year)	0.04	0.0057	
Labor (173 hr/year)	0.80	0.017	
<u>(Dec 2016) O&M Cost:</u>	0.0517	MB/year	2016's Costs

Table D-5 Rectangular clarifier system cost calculations

Equation 3: $30,290 + (537.2 \times A)$

Equation 4: $8.4 \times (A^{1.0386}) + 1,900$

Table D-6 Cost indices data for membrane treatment systems $\sqrt{ }$ \mathbb{R}^n **January October**

UF Cost calculations (2016)	Cost (MB)	Cost index	Remark
			1,580\$ per module
Total membrane cost	0.94		[Dow]
Building area cost	0.74		857\$ per m^{2}
Construction cost			
- Electrical	5.2	Manf&Elect	614\$ per m ³ (67)
- Instrumentation & Controls	4.2	Manf&Elect	65,000\$ per skid (67)
- Feed pump	0.66	Piping	Equation $10(67)$
- Back Wash pump	0.66	Piping	Equation $10(67)$
- Process piping	2.1	Piping	Equation 11 (67)
- Yard piping	2.0	Piping	50,000\$ per m ³ (67)
- Cartridge filters	0.39	Materials	Equation 12 (67)
- Concentrate treatment & piping	0.19	Piping	13\$ per m ³ (67)
- Membrane cleaning equipment	4.4	Manf&Elect	67,000 \$ per Skid (67)
- Cont. engineering & training	1.00		1,000,000 Baht**
- Site work	1.3	Sk. labor	14.53\$ per m ³ (67)
Total direct capital cost	23.78	MB	
Indirect capital costs			
- Interest during construction	1.4	MB	6% of direct cost (67)
- Contingencies	4.8	MB	20% of direct cost (67)
- A&E Fees, Proj. Management	2.4	MB	10% of direct cost (67)
- Working capital	1.0	MB	4% of direct cost (67)
Total indirect capital cost	9.5	MB	Total 40%
Total capital cost	32.98	MB	2016's cost

Table D-7 UF system cost calculations (continued)

O&M Cost calculations per year	Cost	Cost	Remark
(2016) 's costs)	(MB)	index	
Chemical Costs			
Chlorine (per ton)	0.0047		Interpretive Co.
HCl 35% Acid (per ton)	0.0084		Interpretive Co.
NaOH 50% (per ton)	0.0084		Interpretive Co.
UF Energy Costs			
Feed pump (37,895 KWh/year)	0.076	÷	
Backwash p. (40,422 KWh/year)	0.081		
UF Materials Costs			
Membrane Replace (per year)	0.13	Material	Equation 14 (67)
Repairs and Replace (per year)	0.23	Material	Equation 15 (67)
Cartridge Filters (per year)	0.25	Material	Equation 16 (67)
Insurance (per year)	0.091	Material	Equation 17 (67)
Cleaning chemical (per year)	0.080		Equation 18 (67)
UF Labor cost			
Labor (730 hour/year)	0.073		
Lab fee *** CHILLAL ONGE	0.060		
Total O&M Costs:	1.093	MB/year	2016's cost

Table D-7 UF system cost calculations (continued)

* Assume 25,000 Baht/m² for building cost in Thailand

** Assume 1,000,000 Baht for Contractor engineering & training in Thailand

*** Assume 1,000 Baht/time, 6 times per year

Equation 5: (Backwash flow x Backwash duration / Backwash frequency)

Equation 6: (Design feed flow x 1.277244) / 100

Equation 7: (Primary treatment flow x 1,000 / 3.785) x (0.0013/10.734)

Equation 8: Capacity per pump (m^3/s) / 2.5

Equation 9: ((\triangle Height x gravity force) + (0.5 x Velocity)² + \triangle pressure) x Capacity per

pump x 1,000 / (746 x Motor eff. x Pump eff. x Coupling eff. $^{-1}$))

Equation 10: (85,000 x (Hp/100 $^{0.65}$) x [cost index]

Equation 11: 15.852 x (Primary treatment flow / recovery) x [cost index]

Equation 12: 112,836 x ((Primary treatment flow / 24 / 3,600) $^{0.8031}$) x 1.2 x [cost index]

Equation 13: (Concentration (ppm) x Primary treatment flow / recovery x [cost index] + 20,000

Equation 14: (Number of operate elements x cost per element) / membrane life time (year)

Equation 15: (0.5% x Total construction cost) x [cost index]

Equation 16: (23,097 x (Plant production flow / 24 / 3,600 / recovery) - 6.245) \times 12

Equation 17: (0.2% x Total construction cost) x [cost index]

Equation 18: (Number of operate elements x cleaning rate) x (pi x membrane radius (cm) 2×102) x 1.15 x (0.001 x cost of NaOH (per kg) + 0.001 x cost of NaOCl (per kg) + 0.05 x cost of HCl (per kg)) / 1,000

Table D-8 RO system cost calculations

Table D-8 RO System Cost Calculations (continued)

Transfer Pumps (to HPP)	Value	Unit	Pump Style VST
Height Difference	3	m	Assumed value
Motor Efficiency	0.94		Assumed value
Pump Efficiency	0.75		Assumed value
Coupling Efficiency	1.00		Assumed value
Pressure Differential	100	kPa	Assumed value
Capacity per Pump	0.021	m^3/s	Equation $6(67)$
Pipe X-Sectional Area	0.008	m	Equation $7(67)$
Size	5	hp	Equation $8(67)$
Product water pump			Pump Style VST
Height Difference	25	m	Assumed value
Motor Efficiency	0.94		Assumed value
Pump Efficiency	0.75		Assumed value
Coupling Efficiency	1.00		Assumed value
Pressure Differential	100	kPa	Assumed value
Capacity per Pump	0.021	m^3/s	Equation 10 (67)
Pipe X-Sectional Area	0.008	2 m	Equation 11 (67)

Table D-8 RO System Cost Calculations (continued)

Equation 6: (Primary treatment flow x 1,000 / 3.785) x (0.0013/10.734)

Equation 7: Plant production flow $(m^3/day) \times 24$ / 3,600

Equation 8: Capacity per pump (m^3/s) / 2.5

Equation 9: (($\Delta H \times g$) + (0.5 x Velocity)² + Δp) x Capacity per pump x 1,000 / (746 x Motor eff. x Pump eff. x Coupling eff. $^{-1}$))

Table D-8 RO System Cost Calculations (continued)

VITA

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