

1 **Reverse osmosis treatment of condensate from ammonium nitrate production:**
2 **insights into membrane performance**

3 Revised manuscript

4 Submitted to

5 **Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering**

6 Hung Cong Duong^{1,2}, Hai Thuong Cao¹, Ngoc Bich Hoang³, and Long Duc Nghiem^{2,3,*}

7 ¹ School of Environmental Engineering, Le Quy Don Technical University, Hanoi, Vietnam

8 ² Centre for Technology in Water and Wastewater, School of Civil and Environmental
9 Engineering, University of Technology, Sydney, Broadway, NSW 2007, Australia

10 ³ Institute of Environmental Sciences, Nguyen Tat Thanh University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18 * Corresponding author:

19 Long D. Nghiem: Centre for Technology in Water and Wastewater, University of Technology Sydney,
20 Ultimo NSW 2007, Australia; E-mail: duclong.nghiem@uts.edu.au

21 **Abstract:** Ammonium nitrate is an important fertilizer and industrial explosive. The production of
22 ammonium nitrate entails the generation of a large volume of condensate laden with nitrogen that must
23 be treated before environment discharge. Results in this study show that through appropriate membrane
24 selection, over 90% rejection of ammonium nitrate can be achieved by reverse osmosis (RO) filtration.
25 Using RO (which is highly compact and efficient) to enrich ammonium nitrate in the condensate would
26 significantly reduce the size of the evaporation separator for ammonia recovery. The results also
27 highlight the importance of membrane selection for this application. Results reported here suggest that
28 a low pressure RO membrane (e.g. ESPA2) is more suitable for the dilute condensate while a high
29 pressure RO membrane (e.g. SW30) is recommended for the concentrated condensate to ensure
30 adequate ammonia and nitrate rejection. Ammonia and nitrate rejections were dependent on key
31 operating parameters including applied pressure (or water flux), temperature, feed solution pH, and
32 initial ammonium nitrate concentration in the condensate. The impact of operating conditions on
33 ammonia and nitrate rejections was more profound for low pressure (thus high flux) than high pressure
34 RO membrane. Since the condensate is a clean matrix of high nitrogen content, results from an
35 extended filtration experiment show no or little risk of membrane fouling as expected.

36 **Keywords:** ammonium nitrate production; industrial wastewater treatment; condensate treatment;
37 reverse osmosis (RO); membrane rejection; ammonium nitrate recovery.

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Nitrogen fertiliser is an essential input for agricultural production [1-3]. According to the
40 International Fertiliser Association, each year the world consumes about 100 million tonnes of nitrogen
41 fertiliser. Nitrogen fertiliser is predominantly used in the form of calcium ammonium nitrate, urea, and
42 liquid ammonium nitrate. The demand for fertiliser is particularly high in the Indo-Pacific given the
43 significant economic development in this region in recent years. As an example, the fertiliser market
44 of Vietnam is estimated at about 2 billion US\$ and is growing at 4.9% over the projected period of
45 2021-2026. In 2020, Vietnam has begun to produce their own calcium ammonium nitrate through
46 VinaComin, which is an industrial conglomerate on coal and mineral mining [4].

47 In addition to its role as a nitrogen fertiliser, ammonium nitrate is also an important industrial
48 explosive widely used in the mining and construction industry. Ammonium nitrate is an oxidiser and
49 can be mixed with fuel oil (or any other fuels) to form a range of customised and controllable explosive
50 blends (called ANFO) for blasting in mining and construction projects. Ammonium nitrate is
51 considered a safe industrial explosive. However, when incorrectly stored or handled, it can cause
52 catastrophic accidents such as the recent deadly Beirut blast on 4 Aug 2020. In the wrong hands,
53 ammonium nitrate can also be converted to improvised explosive devices. Thus, commercial
54 production, trade, and usage of ammonium nitrate are carefully regulated by most authorities.

55 The production and usage of nitrogen fertiliser also entail significant environmental consequences.
56 Nitrogen pollution of surface water has become a global problem [5]. When combined with adverse
57 climatic conditions, nitrogen pollution is main cause of harmful blue green algae blooms with billions
58 of dollar in direct and indirect economic damages [6]. The production of nitrogen fertiliser is also
59 energy intensive. Recent introduction of the Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism and revision of
60 the Emission Trading System (ETS) by the European Commission are expected to significantly affect
61 the nitrogen fertiliser industry, which is responsible for about 1% of global CO₂ emission [7]. There
62 have been many dedicated research works to develop techniques for reducing nitrogen leaching into
63 run-off water and thus increasing nitrogen uptake efficiency for agricultural production. Examples of
64 these techniques include polymer coating and encapsulation to control nitrogen release [8-10], and
65 optimise fertiliser application [11]. In addition to nitrogen leaching during crop production, the
66 production of ammonium nitrate can also result in a significant volume of wastewater laden with
67 nitrogen.

68 Condensate is the most significant waste stream from industrial ammonium nitrate production. It is
69 essentially excess water after the exothermic reaction between ammonia and nitric acid in a reactor.
70 The heat simultaneously released from this exothermic reaction is harnessed to facilitate the
71 evaporation of the excess water to concentrate the ammonium nitrate solution in the reactor. The
72 evaporated steam is then condensed to form condensate. Due to the carried over effect, the
73 concentration of nitrogen in condensate water can be as high as 5 g/L ammonium nitrate and 2.5 g/L
74 as NH_3 [12]. This wastewater has little or no organic carbon content; thus, it is not suitable for
75 biological wastewater treatment unless a carbon source (e.g. methanol or sugar) can be supplied. The
76 high nitrogen content, mostly in the form of ammonia and nitrate, also provides an excellent
77 opportunity for product recovery to improve production efficiency and reduce the overall carbon
78 footprint of ammonium nitrate.

79 Recent research works have explored the potential of ion exchange and reverse osmosis (RO) to
80 recover ammonium nitrate and purify the condensate from ammonium nitrate production for
81 environmental discharge. Kauspediene and Snukiskis [13] investigated the application of cation
82 exchange resin Purolite to recover ammonia from condensate wastewater. Their technique was only
83 effective for ammonia recovery and they did not demonstrate nitrate recovery [13, 14]. In other words,
84 the nitrogen content in the form of nitrate in the effluent was not affected. [Membrane contactor has
85 been used for ammonia recovery from wastewater \[15, 16\]. It is also not suitable for ammonium nitrate
86 condensate.](#) In a pilot study, Noworyta et al. [17] used a three stage RO membrane system to
87 concentrate the condensate for ammonium nitrate recovery. Noworyta et al. [17] did not report detailed
88 performance data of the pilot RO plant, [particularly the membrane rejection against individual ions in
89 the condensate](#); however, they confirmed that it was possible to achieve ammonia and nitrate in the
90 treated water of at below 35 mg/L and 50 mg/L, respectively, for environmental discharge [17]. Apart
91 from the few previous studies discussed above, there has been very little research on ammonium nitrate
92 recovery for practical application. This is in sharp contrast to the recent expansion of the nitrogen
93 fertiliser industry especially in emerging economies in the Indo-Pacific region.

94 RO membrane is modular, highly compact, and can enrich ammonium nitrate for subsequent
95 recovery by the evaporation separator. In other words, a compact RO system can significantly reduce
96 the size of the evaporation separator and improve ammonium nitrate recovery. In fact, modular RO
97 systems have been used for mineral and clean water recovery in mining and a wide range of industrial
98 applications [18-20]. Although information about ammonium nitrate rejection by RO membrane from

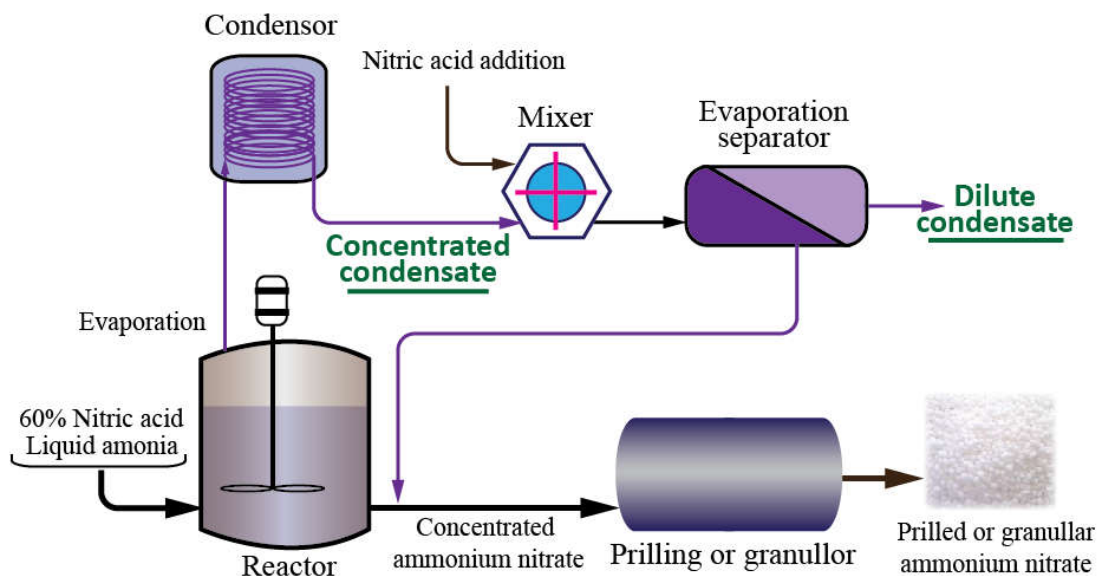
99 condensate water is scarcely available, their individual rejection from a diluted aqueous solution has
100 been widely reported in the literature [21-23]. Ammonium rejection by RO membrane can be lower
101 than other cations [23]. It may also be affected by the speciation between ammonia and ammonium as
102 a function of pH and operating temperature [23]. **It is noteworthy that the condensate from ammonium
103 nitrate production has highly variable pH and temperature.** As a major advantage, RO membrane
104 systems are highly compact, modular, and can be readily integrated or retrofitted to existing production
105 facilities to reduce the footprint of the evaporation separator used for ammonium nitrate recovery.
106 Thus, it is imperative to understand the separation performance under a range of conditions (**e.g. ion
107 concentrations, pH, and temperature of the condensate**) for RO membrane selection and process design.

108 **This study aims to delineate the performance of a range of RO membranes for concentrating the
109 condensate for ammonium nitrate recovery and compliance with treated water discharge standards.**
110 The impact of applied pressure, condensate pH and temperature, and fouling propensity were
111 systematically investigated to evaluate the recovery of ammonium nitrate from condensate water.
112 Operating conditions examined in this study are common to full-scale ammonium nitrate production
113 facilities.

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 **2.1. Process condensate supply and analysis**

116 A simplified flow sheet of ammonium nitrate production is shown in Fig. 1 to describe the two
117 types of condensates from the process. The concentrated condensate is formed from the removal of
118 excess water to produce concentrated or dry ammonium nitrate. Because ammonia is significantly more
119 volatile than nitric acid, the concentrated condensate usually has more ammonia than nitric acid in
120 molar concentration. In some facilities, nitric acid is injected to the concentrated condensate to achieve
121 an equal molarity with ammonia so that ammonium nitrate can be recovered via an evaporation
122 separator. The evaporation separator produces an ammonium nitrate solution and a dilute condensate
123 that must be treated prior to environmental discharge.



124

125

Fig. 1. The schematic diagram of an ammonium nitrate production process.

126

127

128

129

130

131

The concentrated and dilute condensates were collected from a full-scale ammonium nitrate production factory. Major characteristics of these two condensates are summarised in Table 1. As discussed above, the molar ratio of $\text{NH}_3/\text{NO}_3^-$ in the concentrated condensate is 1.36 (i.e., more ammonia than nitrate). On the other hand, the ammonia and nitrate in the dilute condensate has the same molar concentration, resulting from the addition of the nitric acid prior to the evaporation separator (Fig. 1) for ammonium nitrate recovery.

132

Table 1. Major characteristics of the concentrated and dilute condensates

Major characteristics	Concentrated condensate	Dilute condensate
pH	8.98 ± 0.21	7.93 ± 0.07
Conductivity ($\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$)	$11,040 \pm 860$	$4,689 \pm 62$
NH_3 (mg/L)	$2,460 \pm 200$	659 ± 70
NO_3^- (mg/L)	$6,590 \pm 220$	$2,360 \pm 61$

133

2.2. Membranes

134

135

136

137

138

Three flat sheet RO membranes (e.g., BW30, ESPA2, and SW30) were used in this investigation. These membranes consist of a thin polyamide skin layer on a microporous polysulphone supporting layer. The BW30 and SW30 membranes were supplied from Dow Filmtec and were stored dry in room temperature before testing. On the other hand, the ESPA2 membrane samples were extracted from a 4-inch spiral-wound ESPA2 module purchased from Hydranautics. Once extracted from the module, the

139 ESPA2 membrane samples were stored in MilliQ water at 4 °C. It is noted that while BW30 and ESPA2
140 are destined for desalination of brackish water, SW30 is designed for seawater desalination. These
141 three RO membranes have been systematically characterized in a previous study [24] (Table 2).

142 **Table 2.** Characteristics of RO membranes used in this study (Ref: [24]).

Characteristics	BW30	ESPA2	SW30
NaCl rejection (%)	92.8	96.1	99.3
Total dissolved solid rejection (%)	92.8	95.8	99.2
Water permeability (L/(m ² .h.bar))	3.88	6.15	2.63

143 2.3. Filtration protocol

144 A laboratory-scale RO unit with a stainless-steel crossflow cell was used in this study. The
145 crossflow cell had an effective membrane area of 40 cm² (i.e., 4 cm × 10 cm) with a channel height of
146 2 mm. The RO unit used a Hydra-Cell pump (Wanner Engineering Inc., Minneapolis, MN) capable of
147 providing pressures up to 25 bar. The temperature of the feed solution was kept constant using a
148 temperature control unit (Neslab RTE 7) equipped with a stainless-steel heat exchanger coil, which
149 was submerged directly into the feed reservoir. Permeate flow was measured by a digital flow meter
150 (Optiflow 1000, Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA) connected to a computer for data logging, and
151 the crossflow rate of the feed solution was monitored with a rotameter.

152 Prior to all RO experiments with condensate feed solutions, the membrane was compacted using
153 MilliQ water at 25 bar and 25 °C for at least one hour according to a previously reported protocol [25,
154 26]. After membrane compaction, MilliQ water was completely drained from the system and a test
155 solution (i.e., with the initial volume of 7 L unless otherwise stated) was then introduced to the feed
156 reservoir. Prior to sample collection at each operating parameter, the system was equilibrated for one
157 hour. Temperature of the experimental feed solution was kept constant at either 25 °C or 38 °C. Unless
158 otherwise stated, both permeate and retentate were recirculated back to the feed reservoir throughout
159 the entire experiment. Rejection of the RO membrane with respects to conductivity, nitrate, and
160 ammonia was calculated using the equation (1) as below:

$$161 \quad Rejection = \left[\frac{C_f - C_p}{C_f} \right] \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

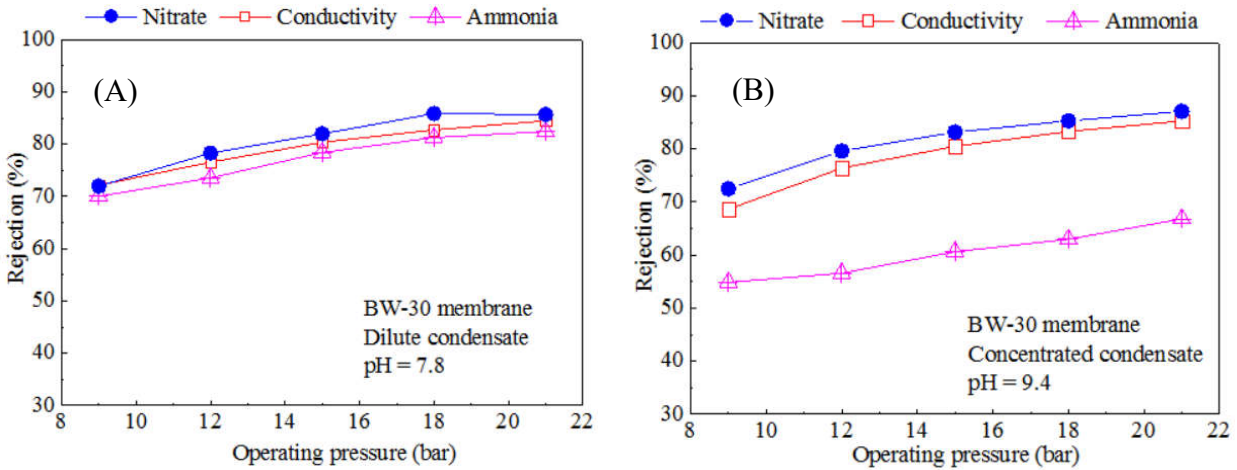
162 where C_f and C_p were the electrical conductivity or the concentration of ammonia or nitrate of the feed
163 and permeate, respectively.

164 During the RO filtration experiments, pH and electrical conductivity of the RO condensate feed
165 solution and permeate were monitored continuously using an Orion pH and conductivity meter,
166 whereas their ammonia and nitrate contents were measured by a Metrom 781 Ion Meter equipped with
167 an ammonia and a nitrate ion selective electrode. The Orion pH and conductivity meter also allowed
168 for the measurement of the RO feed solution temperature during the experiments.

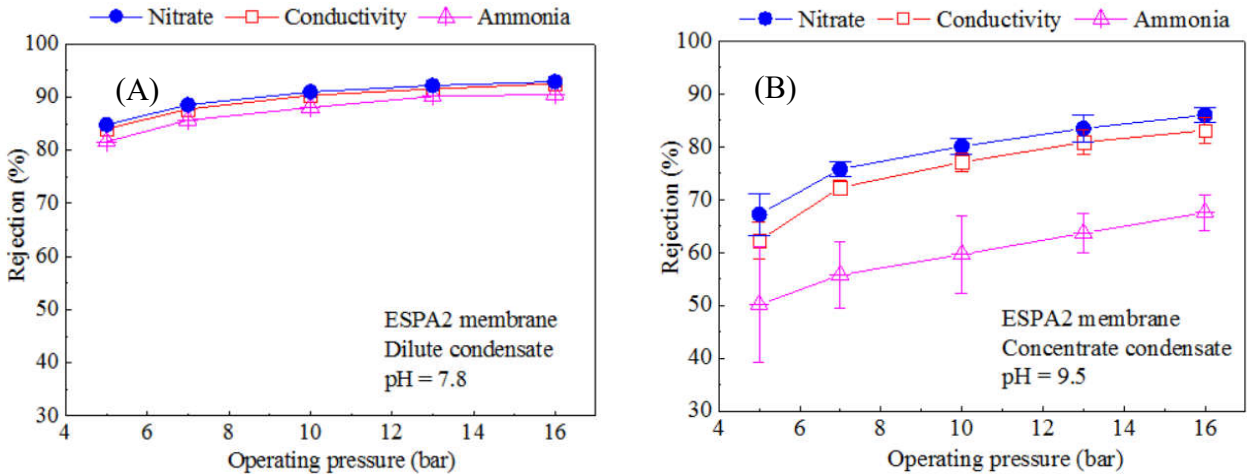
169 **3. Results and discussions**

170 **3.1. Ammonium nitrate rejection by the three selected membranes**

171 Performance of the three selected RO membranes to enrich ammonium nitrate was assessed as a
172 function of applied pressure. As expected, ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection increased when
173 the applied pressure was elevated (Fig. 2–4). However, this observation is more prominent for both
174 brackish water membranes (e.g., BW-30 and ESPA2) (Fig. 2&3) and less discernible for the seawater
175 membrane SW30 (Fig. 4). Moreover, ammonia and nitrate rejection values by the three selected
176 membranes are consistent with their nominal NaCl rejection as reported by the manufacturers. Indeed,
177 both ammonia and nitrate rejections by the SW30 membrane were notably higher than those by the
178 BW30 and ESPA2 membranes. These results are consistent with NaCl rejections by the SW30, ESPA2,
179 and BW30 (e.g., 99.3, 96.1, and 92.8%, respectively) (Table 2). Although these NaCl rejection values
180 were reported under different filtration conditions, it is evident that NaCl rejection can be used as an
181 indicator for membrane selection, should a membrane other than those studied here be considered for
182 the RO treatment of condensate from ammonia nitrate production.



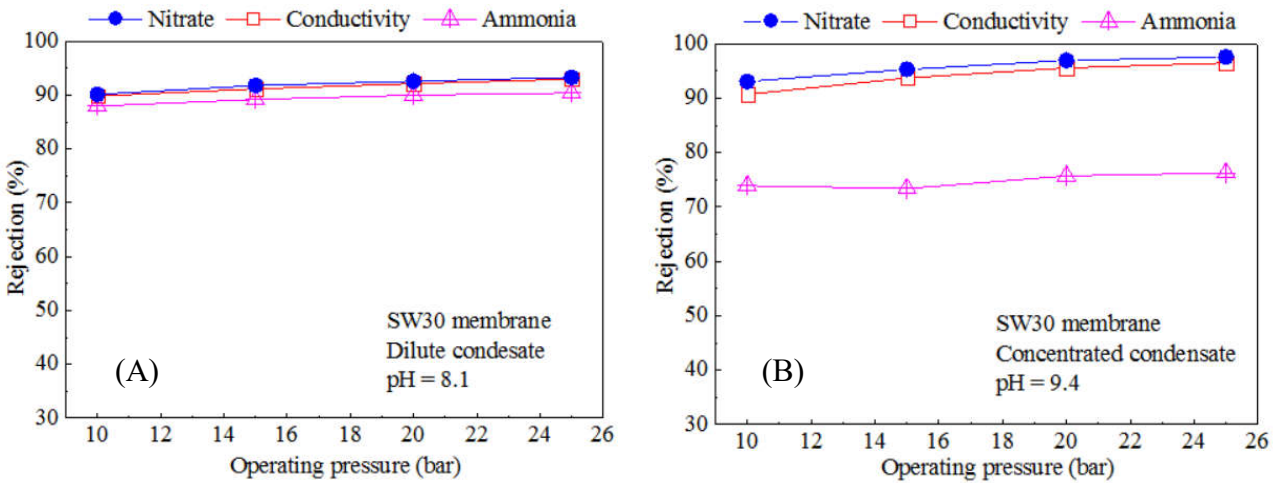
183 **Fig. 2.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the BW-30 membrane as a function of
 184 applied pressure in the RO treatment of (A) dilute condensate and (B) concentrated condensate; the
 185 condensate feed temperature was remained constant at 25 °C.



186 **Fig. 3.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the ESPA2 membrane as a function of
 187 applied pressure in the RO treatment of (A) dilute condensate and (B) concentrated condensate (error
 188 bar shows standard deviation of 3 replicate experiments); the condensate feed temperature was
 189 remained constant at 25 °C.

190 Of a particular note, results from Fig. 2–4 show that ammonia rejection is always lower than nitrate
 191 or conductivity rejection. Indeed, significantly lower ammonia rejection could be observed when the
 192 concentrated condensate was used as the test solution. Lower ammonia rejection can be explained by
 193 the high pH value of the concentrated condensate. Since the pKa value of ammonia is 9.2, at pH 9.4 of
 194 the concentrated condensate, ammonia (NH₃) rather than ammonium (NH₄⁺) is the dominating species.
 195 As expected, RO membrane rejection of the neutral and volatile ammonia is lower than that of the
 196 cationic ammonium. It is noted that ammonia in the feed solution declined as the filtration experiments
 197 progressed, most likely due to its evaporation (i.e., confirmed by a very strong smell of ammoniac gas

198 during all experiments involving the concentrated condensate). It is also noted that the concentrated
 199 condensate was approximately 4 times more concentrated than the dilute condensate. High ionic
 200 strength of the concentrated condensate (i.e., NH_4^+ and NO_3^- of 1600 mg/L and 6,540 mg/L,
 201 respectively) may also contribute to the small reduction in ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection
 202 observed in the RO treatments of the concentrated condensate compared to those of the dilute one (Fig.
 203 2–4). This contribution is small for seawater membrane (Fig. 4) but noticeable for the brackish water
 204 RO membranes (Fig. 2&3).



205 **Fig. 4.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the SW30 membrane as a function of applied
 206 pressure in the RO treatment of (A) dilute condensate and (B) concentrated condensate; the
 207 condensate feed temperature was remained constant at 25 °C.

208 It is noteworthy that conductivity rejection was intermediate between nitrate and ammonia
 209 rejections for all experiments conducted in this project. For the concentrated condensate, conductivity
 210 rejection was similar to nitrate rejection for all three selected membranes. Thus, the data presented in
 211 Fig. 2–4 indicate that conductivity rejection can be used as a conservative indicator for nitrate rejection
 212 during the RO treatment of condensate from ammonium nitrate production. This has an important
 213 implication for practical RO treatment of condensate from ammonium nitrate production as the
 214 measurement of solution conductivity is much more feasible than analysing solution nitrate
 215 concentration.

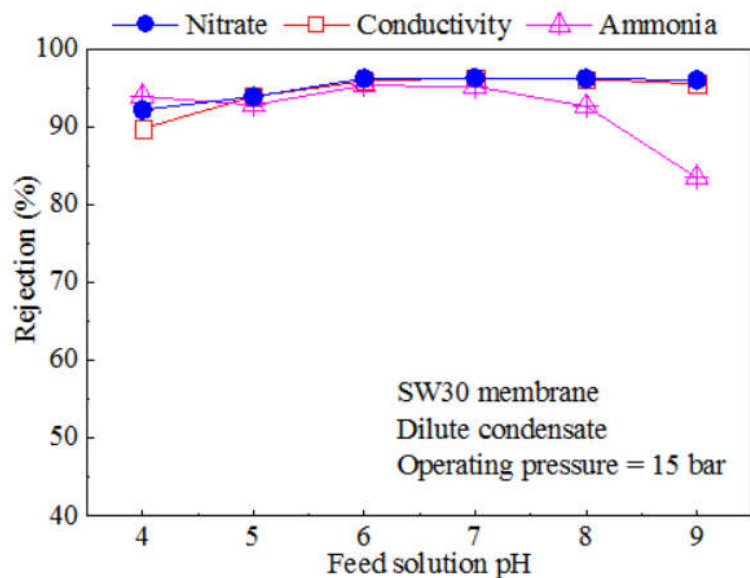
216 It is noted that data represented here were obtained from a lab-scale RO filtration set up. In a full-
 217 scale installation, a thinner filtration channel coupling with the exploitation of the spacer mesh will
 218 create a higher turbulence condition, thus mitigating the effect of concentration polarisation [27]. It is
 219 well-established that the concentration polarisation negatively affects the rejection of RO membranes

220 [28, 29]. Consequently, rejection values reported here can be slightly lower than those that could
221 potentially be realised in a full-scale RO treatment of the condensate from ammonium nitrate
222 production.

223 Experimental reproducibility of this work was examined by repeating one experiment three times
224 using the ESPA2 membrane. As can be seen in Fig. 3B, ammonia rejection was highly variable at low
225 applied pressure with a standard deviation of 10.9%. However, the variability reduced dramatically as
226 the applied pressure increased. At 13 and 16 bar, the standard deviations of ammonia rejection were
227 only 3.6% and 3.3% respectively. This result can be explained by a larger influence of the
228 hydrodynamic condition on membrane rejection at low applied pressure. Both nitrate and conductivity
229 rejections showed adequate reproducibility with standard deviation ranging from 1.3% to 3.9% (Fig.
230 3B). Overall, the experimental reproducibility with respects to ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity
231 rejections indicates that data reported in this work can be interpreted with a high level of confidence.

232 **3.2. Effects of feed solution pH and temperature on the rejection of the membranes**

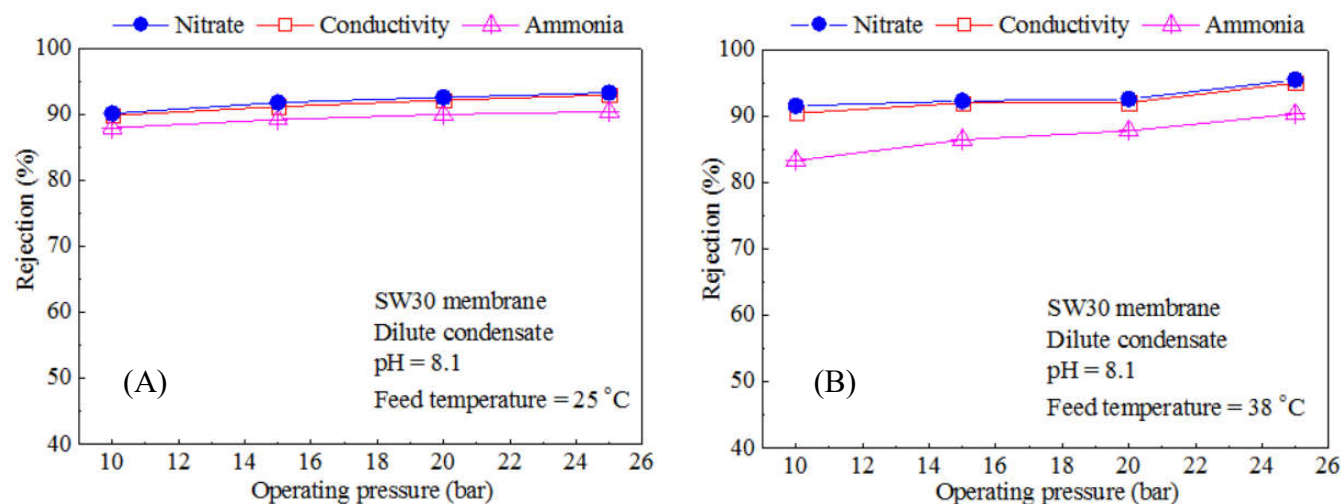
233 The SW30 membrane shown the highest ammonia and nitrate rejection. Thus, it was selected for
234 further investigation on the effects of feed solution pH and temperature on membrane rejections. While
235 feed solution pH did not impart any discernible effects on nitrate and conductivity rejections, a notable
236 reduction in ammonia rejection could be observed when the feed solution pH exceeded 8 (Fig. 5).
237 Indeed, the ammonia rejection of the SW30 membrane at pH 9 was reduced by 13% as compared to
238 that at pH 7. As explained previously, the reduced ammonia rejection of the RO membrane at the feed
239 solution pH over 8 can be attributed to the speciation of ammonia. Therefore, if pH adjustment is
240 feasible, pH less than 8 is recommended for an optimised ammonia rejection during the RO treatment
241 of the condensate from ammonium nitrate production.



242

243 **Fig. 5.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the SW30 membrane as a function of feed
 244 solution pH in the RO treatment of the dilute condensate feed at the constant operating pressure and
 245 feed temperature of 15 bar and 25 °C, respectively.

246 The feed solution temperature also exerted different effects on ammonia rejection and nitrate or
 247 conductivity rejection. As demonstrated in Fig. 6, a small but noticeable decrease in ammonia rejection
 248 was recorded, while nitrate and conductivity rejections were largely unaffected as the feed solution
 249 temperature was increased from 25 °C to 38 °C. This could be attributed to the smaller size of hydrated
 250 ammonium compared to nitrate in the feed solution. The sizes of hydrated ammonium and nitrate
 251 radicals have been reported to be 0.331 nm and 0.340 nm, respectively. Being a smaller hydrated ion,
 252 it is possible that ammonium could become more mobile as the solution temperature increased. Another
 253 possible theory is that at feed solution pH 8.1, there would be approximately 93% ammonium (NH_4^+)
 254 and 7% ammonia (NH_3). Indeed, NH_3 is a neutral ammonia species; therefore, its diffusion through the
 255 membrane would be much more sensitive to the feed solution temperature.



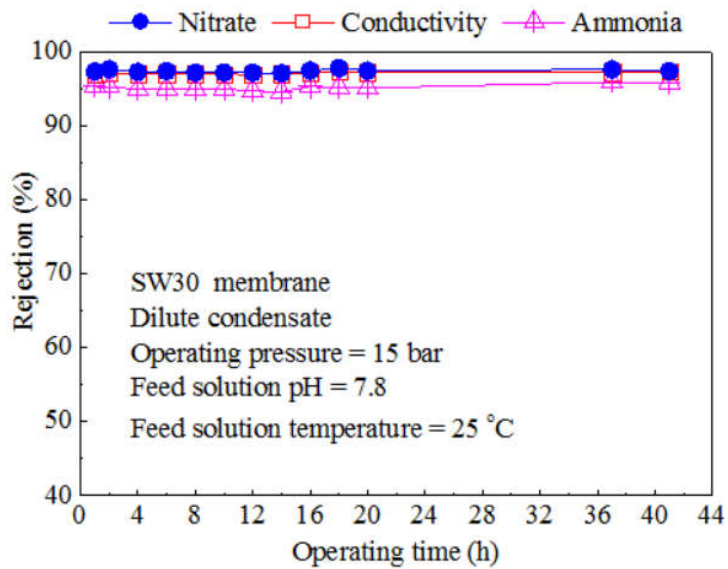
256 **Fig. 6.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the SW30 membrane as a function of applied
 257 pressure at feed solution temperature of (A) 25 °C and (B) 38 °C during the RO treatment of the
 258 dilute condensate.

259 3.3. Rejection stability and permeate flux of the membranes

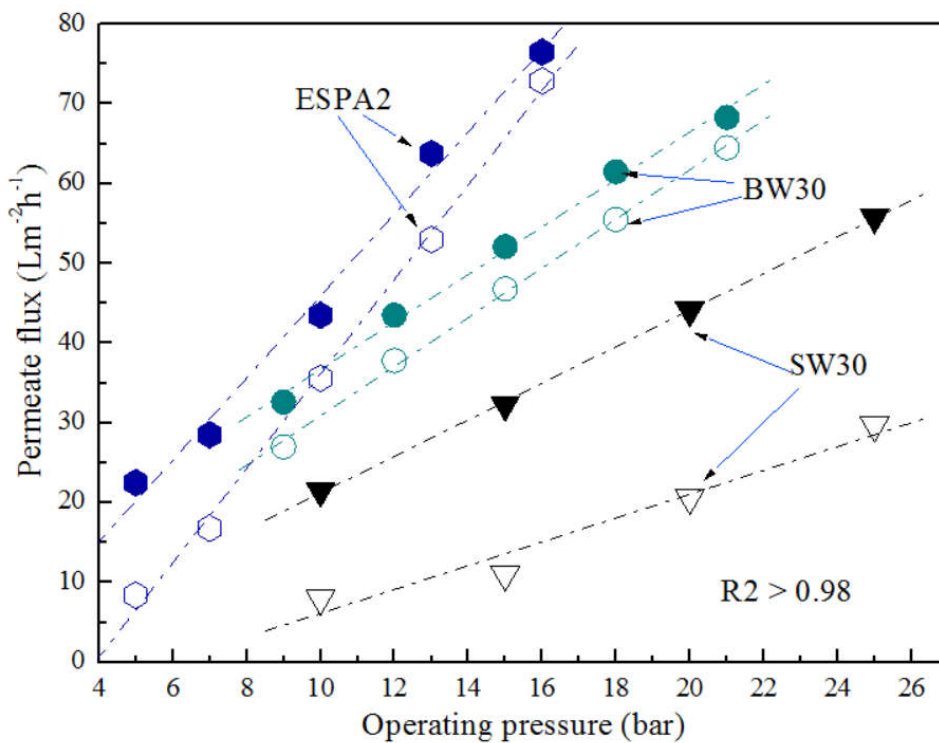
260 To examine the stability of the RO filtration process, one experiment using the SW30 membrane
 261 and dilute condensate was conducted over an extended duration. No discernible variation in membrane
 262 rejection could be observed over 42 hours of operation (Fig. 7). In this experiment, the permeate was
 263 not returned to the feed reservoir to induce a gradual increase in feed concentration to simulate a
 264 condition similar to that occurs along a membrane element or vessel.

265 At up to 25 bar, permeate flux was proportional to applied pressure, with the highest flux recorded
 266 for the ESPA2 membrane and the lowest flux exhibited by the SW30 membrane (Fig. 8). Moreover,
 267 the RO treatment of dilute condensate exhibited higher permeate flux than that of concentrated
 268 condensate for all the three selected membranes, demonstrating the effect of feed solution salinity and
 269 osmotic pressure on the permeate flux of the RO process.

270 It is noteworthy that stable permeate flux was observed with all experiments conducted in this study.
 271 No evidence of membrane fouling occurred within the short time frame of RO experiments conducted.
 272 Even for one extended experiment that was conducted over 2 days, the permeate flux was constant.
 273 The risk of membrane scaling is low although further investigation may be necessary to ascertain the
 274 long-term organic fouling propensity of the condensates.



275
 276 **Fig. 7.** Ammonia, nitrate, and conductivity rejection by the SW30 membrane as a function of operating
 277 time during the RO treatment of the dilute condensate (pH = 7.8). Other operating conditions: applied
 278 pressure = 15 bar, feed solution temperature = 25 °C.



279
 280 **Fig. 8.** Permeate flux as a function of applied pressure during the RO treatment of the dilute and
 281 concentrated condensate using the three selected membranes: the closed boxes (●, ●, ▼) represent
 282 the permeate flux for the dilute condensate feed while the open boxes (○, ○, ▽) are for the
 283 concentrated condensate feed. The feed solution temperature was 25 °C.

284

285 4. Conclusions

286 This study demonstrates the potential of RO membranes for concentrating ammonium nitrate in the
287 condensate for subsequent recovery. Ammonia and nitrate rejections were affected by operating
288 conditions including applied pressure (or water flux), temperature, feed solution pH, and initial
289 ammonium nitrate concentration in the condensate. The impact of operating conditions on ammonia
290 and nitrate rejections was more significant for low pressure (thus high flux) than high pressure RO
291 membrane. Of a particular note, ammonia rejection was lower than nitrate rejection. The difference
292 between ammonia and nitrate rejection was more obvious for low pressure RO membrane. Results
293 reported here suggest that a low pressure RO membrane (e.g. ESPA2) is more suitable for the dilute
294 condensate while a high pressure RO membrane (e.g. SW30) is recommended for the concentrated
295 condensate to ensure adequate ammonia and nitrate rejection. No evidence or significant risk of
296 membrane fouling was observed in this study. A compact membrane system can significantly reduce
297 the size of the evaporation separator for ammonium nitrate recovery. Results in this study are useful
298 for membrane selection and process design to use RO for treating condensate wastewater and
299 recovering ammonium nitrate.

300 References

- 301 1. de Carvalho, A.M., A.D. de Oliveira, T.R. Coser, T.R. de Sousa, C.A. de Lima, M.L.G. Ramos,
302 J.V. Malaquias, A.D.M.D.A. Gonçalves, and W.Q. Ribeiro Júnior, *N₂O emissions from*
303 *sugarcane fields under contrasting watering regimes in the Brazilian savannah*. Environmental
304 Technology and Innovation, 2021. **22**.
- 305 2. Madeira, L., A. Almeida, M. Ribau Teixeira, A. Prazeres, H. Chaves, and F. Carvalho,
306 *Immediate one-step lime precipitation and atmospheric carbonation as pre-treatment for low*
307 *biodegradable and high nitrogen wastewaters: A case study of explosives industry*. Journal of
308 Environmental Chemical Engineering, 2020. **8**(3): p. 103808.
- 309 3. Udvardi, M., F.E. Below, M.J. Castellano, A.J. Eagle, K.E. Giller, J.K. Ladha, X. Liu, T.M.
310 Maaz, B. Nova-Franco, N. Raghuram, G.P. Robertson, S. Roy, M. Saha, S. Schmidt, M.
311 Tegeder, L.M. York, and J.W. Peters, *A Research Road Map for Responsible Use of*
312 *Agricultural Nitrogen*. Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems, 2021. **5**.
- 313 4. Phan, M. and P. Ha, *Vietnam: successful CAN production, in Vietnam Agriculture*. 2021.
- 314 5. Zhang, X., Y. Zhang, P. Shi, Z. Bi, Z. Shan, and L. Ren, *The deep challenge of nitrate pollution*
315 *in river water of China*. Science of the Total Environment, 2021. **770**.

- 316 6. Vu, H.P., L.N. Nguyen, J. Zdarta, T.T.V. Nga, and L.D. Nghiem, *Blue-Green Algae in Surface*
317 *Water: Problems and Opportunities*. Current Pollution Reports, 2020. **6**(2): p. 105-122.
- 318 7. Woodroof, N., *Nitrogen fertilizers to be most affected by tighter ESG policies, warns Fitch*
319 *Ratings, in World Fertilizer*. 2021.
- 320 8. Vo, P.T., H.T. Nguyen, H.T. Trinh, V.M. Nguyen, A.T. Le, H.Q. Tran, and T.T.T. Nguyen,
321 *The nitrogen slow-release fertilizer based on urea incorporating chitosan and poly(vinyl*
322 *alcohol) blend*. Environmental Technology and Innovation, 2021. **22**.
- 323 9. Dubey, A. and D.R. Mailapalli, *Zeolite coated urea fertilizer using different binders:*
324 *Fabrication, material properties and nitrogen release studies*. Environmental Technology and
325 Innovation, 2019. **16**.
- 326 10. Elhassani, C.E., Y. Essamlali, M. Aqlil, A.M. Nzengué, I. Ganetri, and M. Zahouily, *Urea-*
327 *impregnated HAP encapsulated by lignocellulosic biomass-extruded composites: A novel slow-*
328 *release fertilizer*. Environmental Technology and Innovation, 2019. **15**.
- 329 11. Wang, L., J. Xin, H. Nai, and X. Zheng, *Effects of different fertilizer applications on nitrogen*
330 *leaching losses and the response in soil microbial community structure*. Environmental
331 Technology and Innovation, 2021. **23**.
- 332 12. World-Bank, *Environmental, Health, and Safety Guidelines for Nitrogenous Fertilizer*
333 *Production*. 2007, World Bank.
- 334 13. Kauspediene, D. and J. Snukiskis, *Recovering ammonium nitrate from the waste of fertilizer*
335 *production by sulphonic cation exchangers*. Environmental Technology, 2007. **28**(10): p. 1119-
336 1126.
- 337 14. Gefeniene, A., D. Kaušpediene, and J. Snukiškis, *Performance of sulphonic cation exchangers*
338 *in the recovery of ammonium from basic and slight acidic solutions*. Journal of Hazardous
339 Materials, 2006. **135**(1-3): p. 180-187.
- 340 15. Darestani, M., V. Haigh, S.J. Couperthwaite, G.J. Millar, and L.D. Nghiem, *Hollow fibre*
341 *membrane contactors for ammonia recovery: Current status and future developments*. Journal
342 of Environmental Chemical Engineering, 2017. **5**(2): p. 1349-1359.
- 343 16. Rongwong, W. and S. Sairiam, *A modeling study on the effects of pH and partial wetting on*
344 *the removal of ammonia nitrogen from wastewater by membrane contactors*. Journal of
345 Environmental Chemical Engineering, 2020. **8**(5): p. 104240.
- 346 17. Noworyta, A., T. Koziol, and A. Trusek-Holownia, *A system for cleaning condensates*
347 *containing ammonium nitrate by the reverse osmosis method*. Desalination, 2003. **156**(1-3): p.
348 397-402.
- 349 18. Hirsimaki, C., J.G. Outram, G.J. Millar, and A. Altaee, *Process simulation of high pH reverse*
350 *osmosis systems to facilitate reuse of coal seam gas associated water*. Journal of Environmental
351 Chemical Engineering, 2020. **8**(5).

- 352 19. Nghiem, L.D., C. Elters, A. Simon, T. Tatsuya, and W. Price, *Coal seam gas produced water*
353 *treatment by ultrafiltration, reverse osmosis and multi-effect distillation: A pilot study.*
354 *Separation and Purification Technology*, 2015. **146**: p. 94-100.
- 355 20. Kurt, E., D.Y. Koseoglu-Imer, N. Dizge, S. Chellam, and I. Koyuncu, *Pilot-scale evaluation of*
356 *nanofiltration and reverse osmosis for process reuse of segregated textile dyewash wastewater.*
357 *Desalination*, 2012. **302**: p. 24-32.
- 358 21. Shin, C., A. Szczuka, R. Jiang, W.A. Mitch, and C.S. Criddle, *Optimization of reverse osmosis*
359 *operational conditions to maximize ammonia removal from the effluent of an anaerobic*
360 *membrane bioreactor.* *Environmental Science: Water Research and Technology*, 2021. **7**(4): p.
361 739-747.
- 362 22. Ray, H., F. Perreault, and T.H. Boyer, *Rejection of nitrogen species in real fresh and hydrolyzed*
363 *human urine by reverse osmosis and nanofiltration.* *Journal of Environmental Chemical*
364 *Engineering*, 2020. **8**(4).
- 365 23. Imbrogno, A., Y.-A. Boussouga, L.D. Nghiem, and A.I. Schäfer, *Trace Contaminant Removal*
366 *by Nanofiltration*, in *Nanofiltration*. 2021. p. 805-887.
- 367 24. Tu, K.L., T. Fujioka, S.J. Khan, Y. Poussade, A. Roux, J.E. Drewes, A.R. Chivas, and L.D.
368 Nghiem, *Boron as a Surrogate for N-Nitrosodimethylamine Rejection by Reverse Osmosis*
369 *Membranes in Potable Water Reuse Applications.* *Environmental Science & Technology*, 2013.
370 **47**(12): p. 6425-6430.
- 371 25. Fujioka, T., N. Oshima, R. Suzuki, S.J. Khan, A. Roux, Y. Poussade, J.E. Drewes, and L.D.
372 Nghiem, *Rejection of small and uncharged chemicals of emerging concern by reverse osmosis*
373 *membranes: The role of free volume space within the active skin layer.* *Separation and*
374 *Purification Technology*, 2013. **116**: p. 426-432.
- 375 26. Zheng, L., W.E. Price, J. McDonald, S.J. Khan, T. Fujioka, and L.D. Nghiem, *New insights*
376 *into the relationship between draw solution chemistry and trace organic rejection by forward*
377 *osmosis.* *Journal of Membrane Science*, 2019. **587**.
- 378 27. Haidari, A.H., S.G.J. Heijman, and W.G.J. van der Meer, *Optimal design of spacers in reverse*
379 *osmosis.* *Separation and Purification Technology*, 2018. **192**: p. 441-456.
- 380 28. Vogel, D., A. Simon, A.A. Alturki, B. Bilitewski, W.E. Price, and L.D. Nghiem, *Effects of*
381 *fouling and scaling on the retention of trace organic contaminants by a nanofiltration*
382 *membrane: The role of cake-enhanced concentration polarisation.* *Separation and Purification*
383 *Technology*, 2010. **73**(2): p. 256-263.
- 384 29. Xie, M., L.D. Nghiem, W.E. Price, and M. Elimelech, *Impact of organic and colloidal fouling*
385 *on trace organic contaminant rejection by forward osmosis: Role of initial permeate flux.*
386 *Desalination*, 2014. **336**(1): p. 146-152.

387