

Ozone-based advanced oxidation processes for the removal of harmful algal bloom (HAB) toxins: a review

Kavithaa Loganathan

Qatar Environment and Energy Research Institute (QEERI), Hamad bin Khalifa University (HBKU), Qatar Foundation, Doha, Qatar, Tel. +974 77968323, Fax +974 4454 1528, email: kloganathan@qf.org.qa

Received 27 March 2016; Accepted 12 June 2016

ABSTRACT

Cyanotoxin is one of the emerging water contaminants that pose serious health risks to humans. high performance liquid chromatography and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) are commonly used analytical tools for the detection and quantification of cyanotoxins. Recommended Environmental Protection Agency drinking water guidelines for majority of cyanotoxins is 1 µg/L and is followed by majority of drinking water treatment plants to ensure public health and safety. Ozone is an effective method for removing cyanotoxins present in water. Some stable cyanotoxin species can be removed by ozone-based advanced oxidation processes. UV irradiation and H₂O₂ when used along with ozone, and TiO₂ catalyzed ozonation can accelerate the cyanotoxin removal process in water. Water chemistry plays an important role in determining the efficiency of advanced oxidation processes. This paper summarizes the recent studies that are carried out targeting the removal of cyanotoxins in water, and evaluates benefits of ozonation as a pre- or post-oxidation process for drinking water desalination plants.

Keywords: Cyanobacteria; Blue-green algae; Cyanotoxins; Water treatment; ozone; Ozone-based advanced oxidation; Drinking water

1. Introduction

The occurrence and severity of harmful algal blooms (HABs) also known as blue-green algae have posed a serious threat of illness to humans. Cyanobacterial poisoning in humans and animals was first reported in literature by Hunter [1]. Many investigations were carried and confirmed cyanobacterial poisoning in humans, mammals and birds [2–5]. Cyanobacterial poisoning exists also in many other animals and plants [6–8]. Much attention was paid to cyanotoxins and clinical investigations related to hepatotoxicosis following the confirmed acute outbreaks of poisoning and human death in Brazil [9–11]. The main causes of poisoning were found to be haemodialysis and oral routes, and control measures were taken to eliminate cyanotoxins from the drinking water supply systems in many countries [12,13]. The direct contact with HABs can cause more serious health problems. 2-h exposure by direct contact with the bloom, which involved immersion, oral ingestion and inhala-

tion in the water containing 48.6 µg/L of microcystin-LR (MC-LR), has caused gastrointestinal disorder (nausea, vomiting, fever, headache), followed by hepatotoxicosis and multiple organ failures [14–18]. Cyanobacterial toxins differ both in their chemical structure and properties. Some of the chemical structures of cyanobacterial toxins are cyclic peptides, alkaloids, lipopolysaccharides and organophosphates. Cyanobacterial toxins are primarily classified on the basis of their toxic effect on the organs, tissues and cells of organisms. MCs and cylindrospermopsin (CYN) of hepatotoxins group, Anatoxin-a and Saxitoxin of neurotoxin group are some important cyanotoxins that cause poisoning in humans. Concerns regarding the contamination by cyanotoxins of drinking water have stimulated the development of a range of detection methods for their identification and quantification [19–26]. Screening protocols included initial microscopic analysis of phytoplankton and evaluation of cyanobacterial cell density followed by toxin analysis for monitoring cyanotoxin risks efficiently [27]. In addition, many sen-

sors have been developed for the estimation of cyanobacterial abundance and even the estimation of toxic species [28,29]. Cyanotoxins can be eliminated from water by a variety of methods, for example, flocculation, membrane filtration, and adsorption on activated carbon, oxidation by permanganate, ozonation and chlorination [11,30–46]. However, the conventional treatment methods when used alone are unable to remove cyanotoxins completely. On the other hand, when different treatment methods are combined, toxin elimination becomes expensive process. The combination of flocculation by ferric chloride and slow sand filtration does cause cyanobacterial lysis leading to an increase in dissolved MC concentrations in drinking water [47]. Thus, they are effective methods for the removal of cell-bound toxins but not suitable for dissolved cyanotoxins. Combination of flocculation-filtration-chlorination demonstrated poor removal of MC. The methods that lead to cell lysis are not advisable because toxins are released from cells. Methods such as chlorination, activated carbon adsorption or ozonation can be applied to eliminate dissolved cyanotoxins. Flootation, filtration and pumping methods can be applied to reduce HABs. However, these methods are not suitable for open water columns where the floating algae are not thick enough and also because of high costs [48]. Chlorination-based disinfection is widely used in the treatment of drinking water and reduces the concentration of cyanotoxins [49]. However, studies have shown that MC degradation is strongly dependent on chlorine doses, contact time and pH [50]. The conversion of various toxins to non-toxic compounds requires different conditions [49], and investigations have shown that the optimal conditions for the transformation of all toxins in the mixture cannot be achieved with chlorination process. The risk of toxin release from cells may also increase following chlorination [51]. Alternative process such as ozonation methods was proved to be efficient for the removal of MC [52,53]. The purpose of this article is to provide some background information on cyanotoxin detection and removal using ozone and ozone-based advanced oxidation processes (AOPs).

2. Cyanotoxin detection and quantification

Detection of cyanotoxin at very low concentrations is required for potable water applications. For such low concentration measurements, toxicity-based bioassays are impractical in terms of pre-concentration of water samples. Sensitivity of enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and Phosphatase assay methods are very high; however, cross-reactivity was found to be a major problem which causes overestimation or underestimation of toxin concentrations. ELISA and Phosphatase assay methods are useful qualitative screening tools but not suitable for cyanotoxin quantification [9,54]. For monitoring the potential hazard of cyanotoxins in water, some qualitative methods can be employed. After sampling, identification and quantification of cyanotoxins can be precisely carried out by the various analytical techniques in the laboratory (Table 1).

High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) is a commonly used analytical procedure for the determination of cyanotoxins. Separation of toxins have been successfully carried out using a reverse phase C18 packed column, amide C16 column, internal surface reverse phase column or ion exchange column, and with an aqueous mobile phase containing methanol or acetonitrile. For accurate quantification of cyanotoxins, good resolution and separation of peaks are required; the mobile phase determines whether toxins are resolved from each other and from co-extracted compounds. MC-LR and MC-YR co-elute with acetonitrile/ammonium acetate as mobile phase. However, good separation and resolution can be obtained with methanol-based mobile phases. UV absorbance is one of the commonly employed techniques for detecting these toxins following chromatographic separation. Most MCs have a UV absorption maximum at 238 nm; however, MC-LW that contains aromatic amino acid constituents has absorbance maxima at lower wavelengths (222 nm). One of the drawbacks of UV detector is the interference from co-eluting components in the sample extract and their effects on the quantification of toxins. A photo-diode array (PDA) detector records both UV response and the spectrum of a separated analyte. It provides better evidence of the presence of a specific cyanotoxin than using single wavelength

Table 1
List of analytical techniques used for the removal of cyanotoxins

| Analytical techniques | Sensitivity range | Measurements |
|--|-------------------|--|
| HPLC-MS [55–59] | 0.01–2.64 µg L | Measures individual toxin. May assist in identification of particular toxins. Quantification still depends on available standards. |
| HPLC-PDA [60–63] | 0.02 µg L | Measures individual toxins, subject to availability of standards |
| HPLC-UV [64] | 0.02 µg L | Measures individual toxins, subject to availability of standards |
| MALDI-TOF-MS [65] | <7 µg L | Measures individual toxins, lack of available and versatile internal standards has limited its use |
| NMR [66, 67] | Sub-µg levels | Measures individual toxins, subject to availability of standards |
| Electrochemical-based biosensors [68–71] | <1 µg L | Extremely specific and highly sensitive method |
| Capillary electrophoresis (CE, CE-MS) [68] | – | Measures individual toxins, subject to availability of standards |

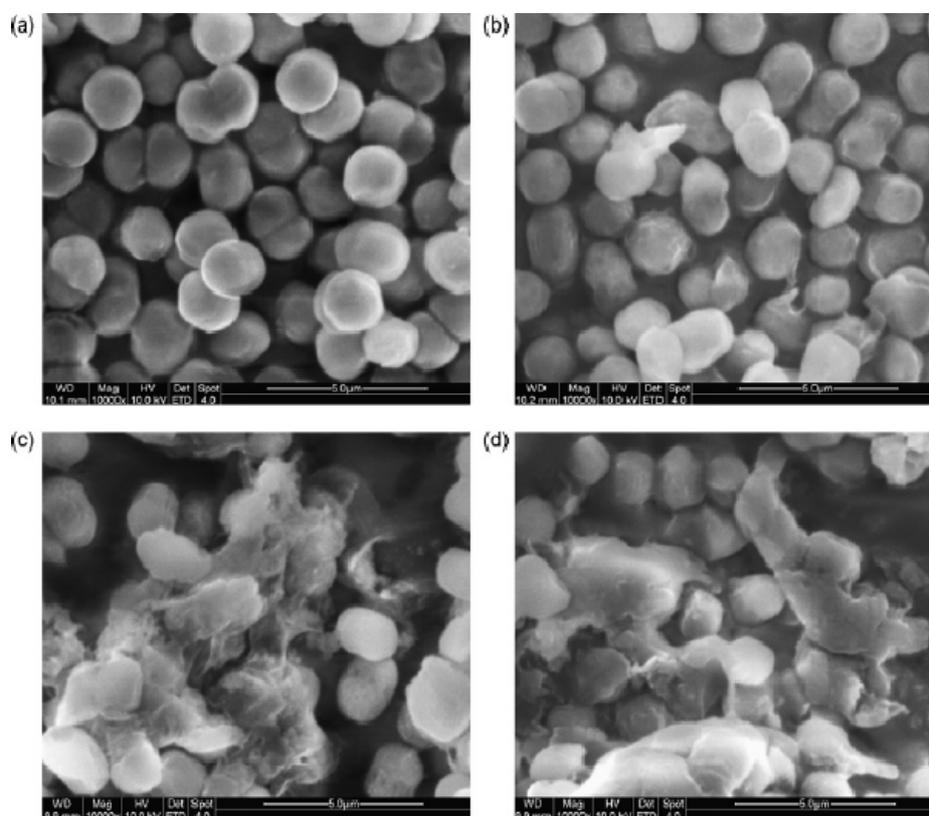


Fig. 1. SEM image of cyanotoxin before and after ozonation: (a) No ozone, (b) 1 ppm ozone, (c) 3 ppm ozone, and (d) 5 ppm ozone [73]. [AQ17]

detection. However, when the concentrations of cyanotoxins are low and spectra are not well defined, the identification of peaks is difficult and depends on the experience of the analyst. Concentrations of cyanotoxins can be obtained by quantification of peaks relative to a standard. Mass spectrometry detection following HPLC separation is a better method for identification of individual cyanotoxins as long as a mass spectrum of an authentic standard is available. MS/MS detections offer better resolution where the fragmentation pattern can be used to greatly assist in determining the identities of unknown cyanotoxins. matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry has

also been successfully used as a detection method following chromatographic separation. Capillary electrophoresis can be employed to separate and quantify cyanotoxins; however, this method is less sensitive when compared with HPLC method. Nevertheless, the above-mentioned instrumental methods require expensive equipment, skilled personnel, time consuming and less suitable for routine and field analysis. Biosensors are attractive and valuable tools for routine analysis and quick monitoring of cyanotoxins in water. Optical, enzyme-based, immune sensors, nanomaterials (gold, silver, carbon nanoparticles) have been successfully applied in biosensors for the detection of cyanotoxins.

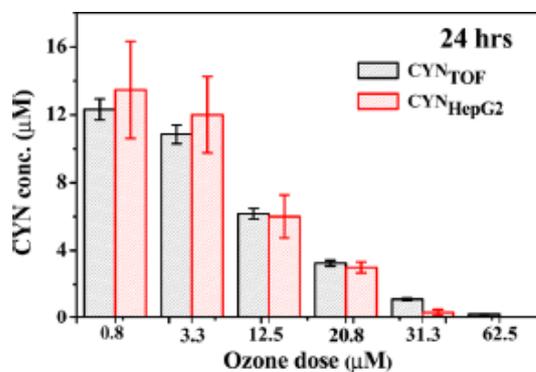


Fig 2. Chart illustrating degradation of cylindrospermopsin at various ozone doses. Concentrations of cylindrospermopsin measured by LC-MS method are shown in black; concentrations calculated out of cytotoxicity assessment are shown in red [76].

3. Ozonation process and cyanotoxin removal in water

Ozone is a powerful oxidant for the removal of some classes of cyanotoxins. Cyanotoxins such as Anatoxins-a, CYN, MC and nodularin in water can be successfully removed by ozonation process. Oxidation of MC-LR and nodularin in pure water appears to be complete within few minutes. Saxitoxin is the least susceptible to ozone-based destruction. To ensure cyanotoxin removal, ozone must be applied and dissolved at the required residual concentration in water. Water quality parameters such as pH and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) strongly influence required ozone dosage levels and contact time. In general, ozone residual dose of 0.2 mg/L with a contact time of 5 min will be required for destruction of cyanotoxins [72]. Reaction kinetics will not be favorable for oxidation of cyanotoxins when organic material is present in

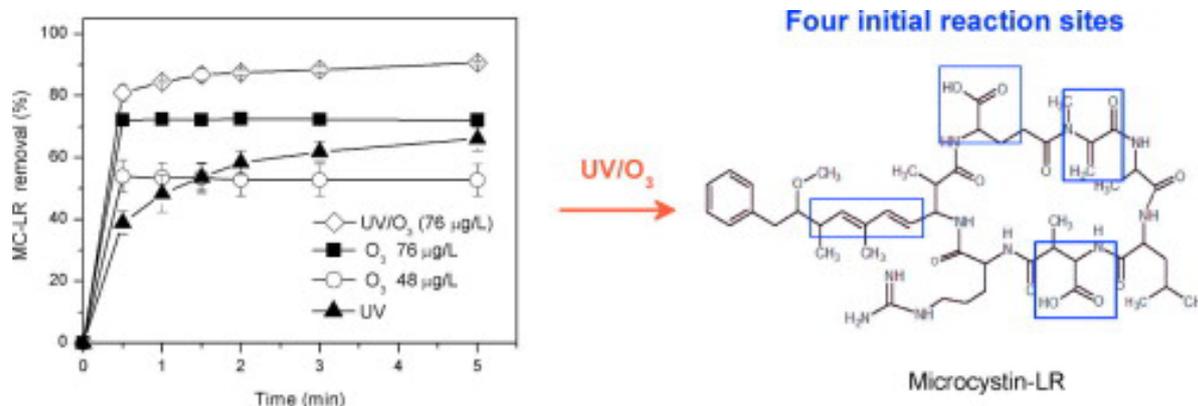


Fig. 3. Degradation of microcystin-LR with UV/O₃ process and the representation of reaction sites of microcystin-LR [79].

raw water. Studies have shown that the ozonation when applied in early phase of water treatment process is prone to destroy cyanobacterial cells (as seen in Fig. 1.), increases DOC and eventually results in increase in cyanotoxin concentrations in water [73–75]. Effect of ozonation on the cellular morphology of *Microcystis aeruginosa* is shown in Fig. 3. When the concentration of Ozone dose increased during treatment; cell wall gets damaged; and cellular cytoplasm gets released from the cells, which in turn increased DOC concentrations in water. Performance of ozone process was found to be different for the cells from natural bloom conditions when compared with laboratory cultured cells. In addition, the cyanobacterial biomass and the initial MC concentration are factors affecting the effectiveness of the oxidation process. O₃/DOC and alkalinities are some of the factors which would define the inter-bloom reactivity and describe the differences in ozone decay. Studies have also demonstrated that during direct ozonation of toxin cells from natural blooms, MCs were resistant with least complete cell lysis and lowest lysis rate [74].

Reactivity of ozone varies dramatically with different organic functional groups. Reaction of CYN with ozone is strongly pH dependent, and the detailed reaction pathways

of ozonation process have been recently reported by Yan et al. [76]. Common ozone reaction mechanisms include double bond cleavage, electron transfer, hydroxyl radical oxidation and oxygen atom transfer. The degradation begins with carbon-carbon double bond cleavage of the toxic uracil moiety of CYN, and complete degradation occurs as the ozone dose is increased (Fig. 2). Cytotoxicity measurements have confirmed that ozone-based oxidation is an effective and practical method for the removal of CYN in drinking water [76].

Arid countries are increasingly reliant on seawater desalination for drinking water and industrial purposes. An emerging threat to public health is due to unpredicted rapid growth of HABs/cyanotoxins in seawater. Contributors to the growth of blooms are anthropogenic inputs from industrial and agricultural waste stream disposal into sea, and also climate change. For the effective removal of cyanotoxins and to avoid lysis in source water, ozonation process should be applied at the later phase of water treatment/desalination process for potable water applications.

4. Ozone-based advanced oxidation

Ozone-based AOP produces hydroxyl radicals which can react with and destroy a wide range of cyanotoxins. The effectiveness of an AOP relies on its ability to generate hydroxyl radicals. Ozone-H₂O₂ and UV are some of AOPs employed for cyanotoxin removal. The addition of hydrogen peroxide facilitates the decomposition of ozone leading to the formation of hydroxyl radicals. Once the hydroxyl radicals are formed, the propagation of chain reaction happens while destructing target contaminants. The efficiency of MC destruction was enhanced by the ozone-H₂O₂ process when compared with ozone alone. With the H₂O₂:O₃ ratio of 0.5, 1 mg L of MC-LR was completely destroyed within 30 min [52]. Effectiveness of toxin removal can be improved by UV irradiation along with consequent ozonation process. MC degradation was found to be more efficient when UV/O₃ processes applied sequentially. Similar to hydrogen peroxide, UV irradiation helps to promote the decomposition of ozone to generate strong hydroxyl radicals. With 5 min of UV irradiation (intensity 1.9 mW cm²) and consequent 5 min of ozonation at 0.5 mg L, 90% of MC removal can be achieved for the waters loaded with 1 mg L MC concentrations [77]. Process efficiencies of ozone, UV and UV/O₃ for MC removal

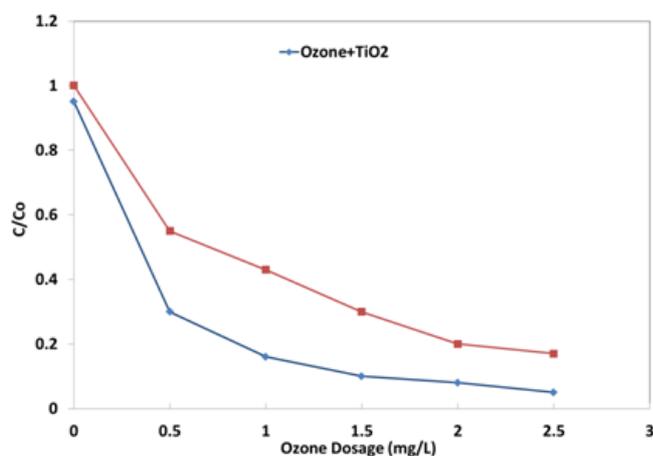


Fig. 4. Degradation of CYN present in lake water, Taiwan, by ozonation and catalytic ozonation. Experiments were performed at pH 7.5 at 20°C. HPLC-MS analytical tool was used for CYN quantification [79].

with elucidation of reaction pathways and possible mechanisms were recently reported by Chang et al. [78].

The study confirmed that high pH and DOC in water inhibited the degradation of the toxin for UV/O₃ process [78]. The degradation of MC-LR initially occurred at four sites as pointed out by Chang et al. as shown in Fig. 3.

One of the common and stable cyanotoxin present in drinking water is CYN (C15H₂₁N₅O₇S). USEPA drinking water guidelines state that CYN concentration must be less than 1 µg/L to avoid any kind of health risks to humans. As an AOP, heterogeneous catalytic ozonation accomplishes both O₃ and the adsorptive and oxidative properties of solid-phase metal oxide catalysts. Wu et al. has recently demonstrated TiO₂-based catalytic ozonation to remove CYN at room temperature [79].

The study carried by Wu et al. demonstrated that TiO₂ facilitates the decomposition of O₃ in the oxidation of CYN by forming radicals and increased the rate of oxidation reaction (Fig. 4).

5. Conclusion

Cyanotoxins is one of the emerging water contaminants that pose serious health risks to humans. Several monitoring and detection tools are available to date for qualitative screening and quantification of cyanotoxins. HPLC-MS/MS technique can detect even trace amount of cyanotoxin present in water. Biosensors are best suited for routine monitoring of cyanotoxins. Studies have demonstrated that ozonation is an effective and safe method for removal of cyanotoxins. AOP when used with ozone accelerates the decomposition of ozone, and increases cyanotoxin removal efficiency. During AOP/ozonation, water quality parameters such as pH, DOC are some of the factors to be taken into account for the successful removal of cyanotoxins. Drinking water treatment plants while targeting cyanotoxin removal, it is essential and important to use ozone and ozone-based AOP in the later phase as a final polishing process. Around the world, there are wide variety of cyanotoxin species present in lakes, river and in sea. It is worthwhile to perform a region specific study to identify and target the right cyanobacterial species for ensuring public health and safety.

Acknowledgments

The author would like to acknowledge the Qatar Environment and Energy Research Institute (QEERI), Hamad Bin Khalifa University, and Qatar National Research Fund (a member of The Qatar Foundation) for the NPRP award [NPRP9-159-2-087].

References

- [1] P.R. Hunter, Cyanobacterial toxins and human health, *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, (Symp. Suppl.), 84 (1998) 35S–40S.
- [2] L. Chen, J. Chen, X. Zhang, P. Xie, A review of reproductive toxicity of microcystins, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, 301 (2016) 381–399.
- [3] A.L. Bogomolni, A.L. Bass, S. Fire, L. Jasperse, M. Levin, O. Nielsen, G. Waring, S. De Guise, Saxitoxin increases phocine distemper virus replication upon in-vitro infection in harbor seal immune cells, *Harmful Algae*, 51 (2016) 89–96.
- [4] B. Poniedziałek, P. Rzymiski, K. Wiktorowicz, Toxicity of cylin-drospermopsin in human lymphocytes: proliferation, viability and cell cycle studies, *Toxicol. In Vitro*, 28 (2014) 968–974.
- [5] A. Pal, Y. He, M. Jekel, M. Reinhard, K.Y.-H. Gin, Emerging contaminants of public health significance as water quality indicator compounds in the urban water cycle, *Environ. Int.*, 71 (2014) 46–62.
- [6] T. Papadimitriou, I. Kagalou, C. Stalikas, G. Pilidis, I.D. Leonardos, Assessment of microcystin distribution and biomagnification in tissues of aquatic food web compartments from a shallow lake and evaluation of potential risks to public health, *Ecotoxicology*, 21 (2012) 1155–1166.
- [7] M. Puerto, D. Gutiérrez-Praena, A.I. Prieto, S. Pichardo, A. Jos, J.L. Miguel-Carrasco, C.M. Vazquez, A.M. Cameán, Sub-chronic effects of cyanobacterial cells on the transcription of antioxidant enzyme genes in tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), *Ecotoxicology*, 20 (2011) 479–490.
- [8] A.S. Ferrão-Filho, B. Kozłowsky-Suzuki, Cyanotoxins: bio-accumulation and effects on aquatic animals, *Mar. Drugs*, 9 (2011) 2729–2772.
- [9] C.A. Weirich, T.R. Miller, Freshwater harmful algal blooms: toxins and children's health, *Curr. Probl. Pediatr. Adolesc. Health Care*, 44 (2014) 2–24.
- [10] M. Kozdęba, J. Borowczyk, E. Zimoląg, M. Wasylewski, D. Dziga, Z. Madeja, J. Drukala, Microcystin-LR affects properties of human epidermal skin cells crucial for regenerative processes, *Toxicol.*, 80 (2014) 38–46.
- [11] S. Merel, D. Walker, R. Chicana, S. Snyder, E. Baurès, O. Thomas, State of knowledge and concerns on cyanobacterial blooms and cyanotoxins, *Environ. Int.*, 59 (2013) 303–327.
- [12] B.W. Ibelings, L.C. Backer, W.E.A. Kardinaal, I. Chorus, Current approaches to cyanotoxin risk assessment and risk management around the globe, *Harmful Algae*, 40 (2014) 63–74.
- [13] R. Baum, U. Amjad, J. Luh, J. Bartram, An examination of the potential added value of water safety plans to the United States national drinking water legislation, *Int. J. Hyg. Environ. Heal.*, 218 (2015) 677–685.
- [14] I. Teneva, D. Klaczowska, T. Batsalova, Z. Kostova, B. Dzhambazov, Influence of captopril on the cellular uptake and toxic potential of microcystin-LR in non-hepatic adhesive cell lines, *Toxicol.*, 111 (2016) 50–57.
- [15] D. Sedan, M. Laguens, G. Copparoni, J.O. Aranda, L. Giannuzzi, C.A. Marra, D. Andrinolo, Hepatic and intestine alterations in mice after prolonged exposure to low oral doses of microcystin-LR, *Toxicol.*, 104 (2015) 26–33.
- [16] C.S. Romero-Oliva, V. Contardo-Jara, S. Pflugmacher, Antioxidative response of the three macrophytes *Ceratophyllum demersum*, *Egeria densa*, and *Hydrilla verticillata* to a time dependent exposure of cell-free crude extracts containing three microcystins from cyanobacterial blooms of Lake Amatitlán, Guatemala, *Aquat. Toxicol.*, 163 (2015) 130–139.
- [17] V.R. Oliveira, V.G.L. Mancin, E.F. Pinto, R.M. Soares, S.M.F.O. Azevedo, M. Macchione, A.R. Carvalho, W.A. Zin, Repeated intranasal exposure to microcystin-LR affects lungs but not nasal epithelium in mice, *Toxicol.*, 104 (2015) 14–18.
- [18] G.M.C. Carvalho, V.R. Oliveira, N.V. Casquilho, A.C.P. Araujo, R.M. Soares, S.M.F.O. Azevedo, K.M.P. Pires, et al., Pulmonary and hepatic injury after sub-chronic exposure to sublethal doses of microcystin-LR, *Toxicol.*, 112 (2016) 51–58.
- [19] F. Gas, B. Baus, J. Queré, A. Chapelle, C. Dreanno, Rapid detection and quantification of the marine toxic algae, *Alexandrium minutum*, using a super-paramagnetic immunochromatographic strip test, *Talanta*, 147 (2016) 581–589.
- [20] Z. Luo, B. Krock, K.N. Mertens, A.M. Price, R.E. Turner, N.N. Rabalais, H. Gu, Morphology, molecular phylogeny and azaspiracid profile of *Azadinium poporum* (Dinophyceae) from the Gulf of Mexico, *Harmful Algae*, 55 (2016) 56–65.
- [21] L.A. Lawton, H. Chambers, C. Edwards, A.A. Nwaopara, M. Healy, Rapid detection of microcystins in cells and water, *Toxicol.*, 55 (2010) 973–978.
- [22] H. Savela, K. Harju, L. Spoof, E. Lindehoff, J. Meriluoto, M. Vehniäinen, A. Kremp, Quantity of the dinoflagellate sxtA4 gene and cell density correlates with paralytic shellfish toxin production in *Alexandrium ostenfeldii* blooms, *Harmful Algae*, 52 (2016) 1–10.

- [23] M. Adamski, P. Żmudzki, E. Chrapusta, B. Bober, A. Kaminski, K. Zabaglo, E. Latkowska, J. Białczyk, Effect of pH and temperature on the stability of cylindrospermopsin. Characterization of decomposition products, *Algal Res.*, 15 (2016) 129–134.
- [24] M. Fraga, N. Vilariño, M.C. Louzao, D.A. Fernández, M. Poli, L.M. Botana, Detection of palytoxin-like compounds by a flow cytometry-based immunoassay supported by functional and analytical methods, *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 903 (2016) 1–12.
- [25] L.M. Rangel, M.C.S. Soares, R. Paiva, L.H.S. Silva, Morphology-based functional groups as effective indicators of phytoplankton dynamics in a tropical cyanobacteria-dominated transitional river–reservoir system, *Ecol. Indic.*, 64 (2016) 217–227.
- [26] P. Rzymiski, B. Poniedziałek, In search of environmental role of cylindrospermopsin: a review on global distribution and ecology of its producers, *Water Res.*, 66 (2014) 320–337.
- [27] T. Triantis, K. Tsimeli, T. Kaloudis, N. Thanassoulis, E. Lytras, A. Hiskia, Development of an integrated laboratory system for the monitoring of cyanotoxins in surface and drinking waters, *Toxicon*, 55 (2010) 979–989.
- [28] R.S. Lunetta, B.A. Schaeffer, R.P. Stumpf, D. Keith, S.A. Jacobs, M.S. Murphy, Evaluation of cyanobacteria cell count detection derived from MERIS imagery across the eastern USA, *Remote Sens. Environ.*, 157 (2015) 24–34.
- [29] P. Hunter, A.N. Tyler, L. Carvalho, G.A. Codd, S. Maberly, Hyperspectral remote sensing of cyanobacterial pigments as indicators for cell populations and toxins in eutrophic lakes, *Remote Sens. Environ.*, 114 (2010) 2705–2718.
- [30] C. Zhao, M. Pelaez, D.D. Dionysiou, S.C. Pillai, J.A. Byrne, K.E. O’Shea, UV and visible light activated TiO₂ photocatalysis of 6-hydroxymethyl uracil, a model compound for the potent cyanotoxin cylindrospermopsin, *Catal. Today*, 224 (2014) 70–76.
- [31] Y. Zhang, J. Tian, J. Nan, S. Gao, H. Liang, M. Wang, G. Li, Effect of PAC addition on immersed ultrafiltration for the treatment of algal-rich water, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, 186 (2011) 1415–1424.
- [32] A. Zamyadi, S. Dorner, S. Sauvé, D. Ellis, A. Bolduc, C. Bastien, M. Prévost, Species-dependence of cyanobacteria removal efficiency by different drinking water treatment processes, *Water Res.*, 47 (2013) 2689–2700.
- [33] I. Xagorarakis, D. Kuo, Water pollution: emerging contaminants associated with drinking water, In: K. Heggenhougen, S. Quah (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of Public Health*, Academic Press, Oxford (2008), pp. 539–550.
- [34] H.-Q. Wang, T.-G. Mao, B.-D. Xi, L.-Y. Zhang, Q.-H. Zhou, KMnO₄ pre-oxidation for *Microcystis aeruginosa* removal by a low dosage of flocculant, *Ecol. Eng.*, 81 (2015) 298–300.
- [35] M.R. Teixeira, M.J. Rosa, Comparing dissolved air flotation and conventional sedimentation to remove cyanobacterial cells of *Microcystis aeruginosa*: Part II. The effect of water background organics, *Sep. Purif. Technol.*, 53 (2007) 126–134.
- [36] M.R. Teixeira, M.J. Rosa, Integration of dissolved gas flotation and nanofiltration for *M. aeruginosa* and associated microcystins removal, *Water Res.*, 40 (2006) 3612–3620.
- [37] C. Stoquart, P. Servais, P.R. Bérubé, B. Barbeau, Hybrid membrane processes using activated carbon treatment for drinking water: a review, *J. Membr. Sci.*, 411–412 (2012) 1–12.
- [38] S. Sorlini, F. Gialdini, C. Collivignarelli, Removal of cyanobacterial cells and microcystin-LR from drinking water using a hollow fiber microfiltration pilot plant, *Desalination*, 309 (2013) 106–112.
- [39] E. Rodríguez, G.D. Onstad, T.P.J. Kull, J.S. Metcalf, J.L. Acero, U. von Gunten, Oxidative elimination of cyanotoxins: comparison of ozone, chlorine, chlorine dioxide and permanganate, *Water Res.*, 41 (2007) 3381–3393.
- [40] M. Ribau Teixeira, M.J. Rosa, Neurotoxic and hepatotoxic cyanotoxins removal by nanofiltration, *Water Res.*, 40 (2006) 2837–2846.
- [41] H.-Y. Pei, C.-X. Ma, W.-R. Hu, F. Sun, The behaviors of *Microcystis aeruginosa* cells and extracellular microcystins during chitosan flocculation and flocs storage processes, *Bioresour. Technol.*, 151 (2014) 314–322.
- [42] Y. Ji, J.-I. Huang, J. Fu, M.-s. Wu, C.-w. Cui, Degradation of microcystin-RR in water by chlorine dioxide, *J. China Univ. of Mining & Tech.*, 18 (2008) 623–628.
- [43] L. Ho, P. Lambling, H. Bustamante, P. Duker, G. Newcombe, Application of powdered activated carbon for the adsorption of cylindrospermopsin and microcystin toxins from drinking water supplies, *Water Res.*, 45 (2011) 2954–2964.
- [44] X. He, M. Pelaez, J.A. Westrick, K.E. O’Shea, A. Hiskia, T. Triantis, T. Kaloudis, M.I. Stefan, A.A. de la Cruz, D.D. Dionysiou, Efficient removal of microcystin-LR by UV-C/H₂O₂ in synthetic and natural water samples, *Water Res.*, 46 (2012) 1501–1510.
- [45] A.J. Gijbetsen-Abrahamse, W. Schmidt, I. Chorus, S.G.J. Heijman, Removal of cyanotoxins by ultrafiltration and nanofiltration, *J. Membr. Sci.*, 276 (2006) 252–259.
- [46] L.F. Delgado, P. Charles, K. Glucina, C. Morlay, The removal of endocrine disrupting compounds, pharmaceutically activated compounds and cyanobacterial toxins during drinking water preparation using activated carbon—a review, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 435–436 (2012) 509–525.
- [47] D.R. de Figueiredo, U.M. Azeiteiro, S.M. Esteves, F.J.M. Gonçalves, M.J. Pereira, Microcystin-producing blooms—a serious global public health issue, *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.*, 59 (2004) 151–163.
- [48] G. Pan, B. Yang, D. Wang, H. Chen, B.-H. Tian, M.-I. Zhang, X.-Z. Yuan, J. Chen, In-lake algal bloom removal and submerged vegetation restoration using modified local soils, *Ecol. Eng.*, 37 (2011) 302–308.
- [49] S. Merel, M. Clément, O. Thomas, State of the art on cyanotoxins in water and their behaviour towards chlorine, *Toxicon*, 55 (2010) 677.
- [50] K. Tsuji, T. Watanuki, F. Kondo, M.F. Watanabe, H. Nakazawa, M. Suzuki, H. Uchida, K.-I. Harada, Stability of microcystins from cyanobacteria—iv. effect of chlorination on decomposition, *Toxicon*, 35 (1997) 1033–1041.
- [51] J. Koreivienė, O. Anne, J. Kasperovičienė, V. Burškytė, Cyanotoxin management and human health risk mitigation in recreational waters, *Environ. Monit. Assess.*, 186 (2014) 4443–4459.
- [52] C. Svrcek, D.W. Smith, Cyanobacteria toxins and the current state of knowledge on water treatment options: a review, *J. Environ. Eng. Sci.*, 3 (2004) 155–185.
- [53] A. Bruchet, F. Bernazeau, I. Baudin, P. Pieronne, Algal toxins in surface waters: origins and removal during drinking water treatment processes: algal toxins in surface waters: analysis and treatment, *Water Supply*, 16 (1998) 619–623.
- [54] B.C. Nicholson, Evaluation of analytical methods for detection of cyanotoxins in relation to Australian drinking water guidelines, NHMRC (2001). Available from: <http://www.nhmrc.gov.au>.
- [55] K.-i. Harada, Laboratory analysis of cyanotoxins WHO, Chapter 13 Toxic Cyanobacteria in Water: A guide to their public health consequences, Monitoring and management, I. Chorus and J. Bartram eds., © 1999 WHO, ISBN 0-419-23930-8.
- [56] R. Guzmán-Guillén, I. Moreno, A.I. Prieto Ortega, M.E. Soria-Díaz, V. Vasconcelos, A.M. Cameán, CYN determination in tissues from freshwater fish by LC–MS/MS: validation and application in tissues from subchronically exposed tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), *Talanta*, 131 (2015) 452–459.
- [57] P.B. Fayad, A. Roy-Lachapelle, S.V. Duy, M. Prévost, S. Sauvé, On-line solid-phase extraction coupled to liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry for the analysis of cyanotoxins in algal blooms, *Toxicon*, 108 (2015) 167–175.
- [58] A. Zastepa, F.R. Pick, J.M. Blais, A. Saleem, Analysis of intracellular and extracellular microcystin variants in sediments and pore waters by accelerated solvent extraction and high performance liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry, *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 872 (2015) 26–34.
- [59] S. Valsecchi, S. Polesello, M. Mazzoni, M. Rusconi, M. Petrovic, On-line sample extraction and purification for the LC–MS determination of emerging contaminants in environmental samples, *Trends Environ. Anal. Chem.*, 8 (2015) 27–37.
- [60] D.C. Szlag, J.L. Sinclair, B. Southwell, J.A. Westrick, Cyanobacteria and cyanotoxins occurrence and removal from five high-

- risk conventional treatment drinking water plants, *Toxins*, 7 (2015) 2198–2220.
- [61] F. Gurbuz, G.A. Codd, Microcystin removal by a naturally-occurring substance: pumice, *Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.*, 81 (2008) 323–327.
- [62] D. Gutiérrez-Praena, A. Campos, J. Azevedo, J. Neves, M. Freitas, R. Guzmán-Guillén, A.M. Cameán, et al., Exposure of *Lycopersicon Esculentum* to microcystin-LR: effects in the leaf proteome and toxin translocation from water to leaves and fruits, *Toxins*, 6 (2014) 1837–1854.
- [63] A.M. Dolman, J. Rücker, F.R. Pick, J. Fastner, T. Rohrlack, U. Mischke, C. Wiedner, Cyanobacteria and cyanotoxins: the influence of nitrogen versus phosphorus, *PLoS One*, 7(2012) 1–14.
- [64] T. Fotiou, T.M. Triantis, T. Kaloudis, K.E. O’Shea, D.D. Dionysiou, A. Hiskia, Assessment of the roles of reactive oxygen species in the UV and visible light photocatalytic degradation of cyanotoxins and water taste and odor compounds using C-TiO₂, *Water Res.*, 90 (2016) 52–61.
- [65] A.F. Roegner, M.P. Schirmer, B. Puschner, B. Brena, G. Gonzalez-Sapienza, Rapid quantitative analysis of microcystins in raw surface waters with MALDI MS utilizing easily synthesized internal standards, *Toxicon*, 78 (2014) 94–102.
- [66] R.P. Rastogi, R.P. Sinha, A. Incharoensakdi, The cyanotoxin-microcystins: current overview, *Rev. Environ. Sci. Biotechnol.*, 13 (2014) 215–249.
- [67] D. Dagnino, J. Schripsema, ¹H NMR quantification in very dilute toxin solutions: application to anatoxin-a analysis, *Toxicon*, 46 (2005) 236–240.
- [68] S. Singh, A. Srivastava, H.-M. Oh, C.-Y. Ahn, G.-G. Choi, R.K. Asthana, Recent trends in development of biosensors for detection of microcystin, *Toxicon*, 60 (2012) 878–894.
- [69] Z. Lin, H. Huang, Y. Xu, X. Gao, B. Qiu, X. Chen, G. Chen, Determination of microcystin-LR in water by a label-free aptamer based electrochemical impedance biosensor, *Talanta*, 103 (2013) 371–374.
- [70] C. Zhao, R. Hu, T. Liu, Y. Liu, R. Bai, K. Zhang, Y. Yang, A non-enzymatic electrochemical immunosensor for microcystin-LR rapid detection based on Ag@MSN nanoparticles, *Colloids Surf., A*, 490 (2016) 336–342.
- [71] L. Lvova, C.G. Gonçalves, K. Petropoulos, L. Micheli, G. Volpe, D. Kirsanov, A. Legin, et al., Electronic tongue for microcystin screening in waters, *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 80 (2016) 154–160.
- [72] <http://epa.ohio.gov/portals/28/documents/HAB/AlgalToxinTreatmentWhitePaper.pdf>.
- [73] H. Miao, W. Tao, The mechanisms of ozonation on cyanobacteria and its toxins removal, *Sep. Purif. Technol.*, 66 (2009) 187–193.
- [74] A. Zamyadi, L.A. Coral, B. Barbeau, S. Dorner, F.R. Lapolli, M. Prévost, Fate of toxic cyanobacterial genera from natural bloom events during ozonation, *Water Res.*, 73 (2015) 204–215.
- [75] L.A. Coral, A. Zamyadi, B. Barbeau, F.J. Bassetti, F.R. Lapolli, M. Prévost, Oxidation of *Microcystis aeruginosa* and *Anabaena flos-aquae* by ozone: impacts on cell integrity and chlorination by-product formation, *Water Res.*, 47 (2013) 2983–2994.
- [76] S. Yan, A. Jia, S. Merel, S.A. Snyder, K.E. O’Shea, D.D. Dionysiou, W. Song, Ozonation of cylindrospermopsin (cyanotoxin): degradation mechanisms and cytotoxicity assessments, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 50 (2016) 1437–1446.
- [77] X. Liu, Z. Chen, N. Zhou, J. Shen, M. Ye, Degradation and detoxification of microcystin-LR in drinking water by sequential use of UV and ozone, *J. Environ. Sci.*, 22 (2010) 1897–1902.
- [78] J. Chang, Z.L. Chen, Z. Wang, J. Kang, Q. Chen, L. Yuan, J.M. Shen, Oxidation of microcystin-LR in water by ozone combined with UV radiation: the removal and degradation pathway, *Chem. Eng. J.*, 276 (2015) 97–105.
- [79] C.C. Wu, W.J. Huang, B.H. Ji, Degradation of cyanotoxin cylindrospermopsin by TiO₂-assisted ozonation in water, *J. Environ. Sci. Health., Part A*, 50 (2015) 1116–1126.