



NEW YORK STATE WATER RESOURCES INSTITUTE

Department of Biological and Environmental Engineering

230 Riley-Robb Hall, Cornell University
Ithaca, NY 14853-5701
<http://wri.cals.cornell.edu>

Tel: (607) 254-7163
Fax: (607) 255-4449
Email: nyswri@cornell.edu

***N*-Nitrosamine Formation upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains**

Changcheng Pu (Ph.D. student), Syracuse University, Email: cpu101@syr.edu
Teng Zeng (Principal Investigator), Syracuse University, Email: tezeng@syr.edu



Abstract

Blooms of blue-green algae (cyanobacteria) cause many water quality management issues. Water utilities oftentimes need to treat source waters laden with various cyanobacterial populations, which may contribute to the formation of harmful disinfection byproducts (DBPs), such as *N*-nitrosamines, in downstream drinking water treatment. This preliminary study investigated the formation of total and specific *N*-nitrosamines upon chloramination and chlorination of laboratory cultures of cyanobacteria. Two *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains (one confirmed microcystin producer and one non-toxin producing strain) were cultivated and harvested at different growth phases. Chloramination of cyanobacterial samples revealed that the toxin producing strain produced more *N*-nitrosamine precursors per dry cell weight than the non-toxin producing strain, and that the production of *N*-nitrosamine precursors from cyanobacteria was growth phase-dependent. Filtration of cyanobacterial samples through 0.7- μm glass fiber filters removed over 90% of *N*-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) and *N*-nitrosopyrrolidine (NPYR) precursors, which predominantly existed in the dissolved and/or colloidal phases. In contrast, filtration only removed around 50% of total *N*-nitrosamine (TONO) precursors, highlighting the importance of unknown precursors associated with cyanobacterial cells. Chlorination of cyanobacterial samples at varying chlorine doses led to enhanced TONO formation at and beyond the breakpoint, although the toxin producing strain released a significant amount of ammonium. The addition of ammonium chloride to non-toxin producing, low-ammonium cyanobacterial samples prior to chlorination did not result in statistically significant increases in TONO formation, suggesting that organic chloramines may play a role in the absence of *in situ* formation of inorganic chloramines during chlorination. Preliminary characterization of cyanobacterial samples using fluorescence spectroscopy and high resolution mass spectrometry revealed differences in optical and molecular properties of cyanobacterial organic matter derived at exponential and stationary growth phases.

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

Three Summary Points of Interest

- The toxin producing *Microcystis aeruginosa* strain produced more *N*-nitrosamine precursors per dry cell weight than the non-toxin producing strain;
- *N*-nitrosamine precursors originated from both particulate and dissolved and/or colloidal fractions of cyanobacterial organic matter;
- In situ formation of organic chloramines likely played a role in *N*-nitrosamine formation upon chlorination of cyanobacterial cultures.

Keywords

***N*-Nitrosamines; Precursors; Cyanobacteria; Chloramination; Chlorination**

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

Introduction

Freshwater harmful algal blooms (HABs) represent one of the greatest water quality threats to public health and aquatic ecosystems. Over the past few years, the frequency, magnitude, and duration of HAB events have increased in U.S. inland freshwater systems. For example, more than 200 HAB events were reported for various ponds, reservoirs, and lakes across New York in 2017, and over 100 beaches were closed for at least part of the summer. HABs occur when colonies of blue-green algae, or cyanobacteria, develop to excessive levels while releasing toxins that have been implicated in human and animal illness or death.

HABs pose significant threats to drinking water safety because cyanobacteria not only release cyanotoxins (e.g., microcystins)⁵⁻⁷ of immediate risks but also react with chemical disinfectants applied during drinking water treatment to form carcinogenic disinfection byproducts (DBPs) of greater long-term public health concern. Previous research has shown that cyanobacteria-derived DBP precursor materials exhibit different reactivity towards disinfectants (e.g., free chlorine and chloramines) than those derived from other natural or anthropogenic sources⁸⁻¹⁰ and that cyanobacteria-derived precursors contribute to the formation of both regulated (e.g., trihalomethanes and haloacetic acids) and non-regulated DBPs, including *N*-nitrosamines. Nevertheless, comparatively limited information exists regarding the identities of cyanobacteria-derived *N*-nitrosamine precursors and the specific formation pathways of *N*-nitrosamines.

N-Nitrosamines are a group of nitrogenous organic contaminants present in wastewater or formed during drinking water disinfection¹². *N*-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) is by far the most studied *N*-nitrosamine species in the field of environmental engineering because of its known carcinogenicity and frequent detection in chlorinated and chloraminated drinking water and wastewater^{13,14}. Besides NDMA, a few other *N*-nitrosamines species have been routinely targeted in past studies, including *N*-nitrosomorpholine (NMOR), *N*-nitrosodipropylamine (NDPA), *N*-nitrosopyrrolidine (NPYR), *N*-nitrosodibutylamine (NDBA), and *N*-nitrosodiethylamine (NDEA). However, NDMA and the few other *N*-nitrosamines of current interest only constitute a fraction of the larger pool of total *N*-

nitrosamines (TONO) in source waters and wastewater, while the rest of *N*-nitrosamines in the TONO pool remains largely unidentified¹⁵.

In practice, water utilities oftentimes need to treat source waters containing numerous algal species with constantly changing environmental factors that also impact algal growth^{24,25,27}. Yet, previous studies have largely ignored the potential effects of growth phase and toxin-producing ability of cyanobacteria on DBP formation. For instance, most studies extracted algal organic matter from single cyanobacterial strains at early exponential growth phase in light of the easiness of cultivation²¹⁻²³. However, the metabolism of algae varies at different growth phases and among different strains, leading to the production of distinct profiles of primary and secondary metabolites that may in turn serve as DBP precursors during disinfection^{6,10,24-26}.

The overall goal of this 1-year study is to characterize the formation patterns of *N*-nitrosamines from two cyanobacterial strains under controlled chloramination and chlorination conditions. Our hypothesis is that the composition and reactivity of *N*-nitrosamine precursors vary with the growth phase and toxin-producing ability of cyanobacteria.

Results & Discussion

Laboratory cultivation of model cyanobacterial strains

Two cultures of *Microcystis aeruginosa*, LB 2385 and LB 2386, were purchased from the Culture Collection of Algae at the University of Texas at Austin. LB 2385 is a confirmed microcystin producer²⁸, while LB 2386 is a non-toxin-producing strain. Cyanobacterial strains were cultured in a temperature and light controlled environmental chamber. The chamber temperature was maintained at 30 °C. The LED light setting was programmed to provide 12 hours of light exposure followed by 12 hours of darkness. Cyanobacterial growth was monitored by periodically measuring the absorbance of aliquots of cell suspensions at 600 nm using a UV-visible spectrophotometer. The measured optical density (OD) was correlated with the cell dry weight (cdw), yielding a cdw-to-OD conversion factor of 0.278 for LB 2385 and 0.272 for LB 2386, respectively. The concentration of ammonium in cyanobacterial samples was measured by the HACH salicylate method at

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

the end of cultivation. The concentration of ammonium was 5.6 mg/L for LB 2385 and 0.02 mg/L for LB 2386, respectively. The higher ammonium level measured in LB 2385 likely resulted from the decomposition of algal organic matter²⁹.

Figure 1 shows the growth curves of two different batches of cyanobacterial strains, which were cultivated for 60 days (Batch 1) and 21 days (Batch 2), respectively, to allow for comparison of the release of *N*-nitrosamine precursors at different growth phases. The growth rate during the exponential growth phase was 0.384 mg/mL-day for LB 2385 and 0.393 mg/mL-day for LB 2386, respectively, for the 60-day cultivation. Similarly, the growth rate was 0.416 mg/mL-day for LB 2385 and 0.466 mg/mL-day for LB 2386, respectively, for the 21-day cultivation.

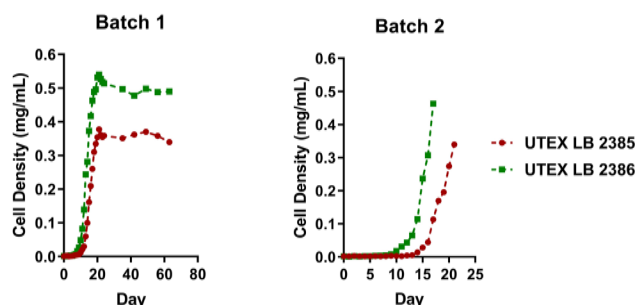


Figure 1. Growth curves of *Microcystis aeruginosa* strains.

N-Nitrosamine formation patterns

Cyanobacterial samples were subjected to standardized chloramination and chlorination tests to evaluate the formation patterns of *N*-nitrosamines. For chloramination, preformed monochloramine (NH_2Cl) at the concentration of 140 mg/L (as Cl_2) was applied following the Formation Potential test protocol described previously³⁰. The high NH_2Cl concentration was chosen to maximize the conversion of all potential cyanobacteria-derived precursors into *N*-nitrosamines such that the *N*-nitrosamine formation potential could be compared across different experimental conditions. Preformed NH_2Cl solution was spiked into 100 mL of agitated cyanobacterial samples, which were then held in the dark at 20 °C for a reaction time of 7 days. For chlorination, free chlorine (Cl_2) solution was spiked into 100 mL of agitated cyanobacterial samples to achieve a predetermined initial chlorine concentration. The Cl_2

residual was measured after 24 hours using the DPD method. For both chloramination and chlorination experiments, samples were buffered at pH 7.0 with 10 mM phosphate buffer.

Figure 2 illustrates the level of *N*-nitrosamines measured in different chloraminated samples. Chloramination of LB 2385 and LB 2386 was performed with unfiltered (“UF”, group A in Figure 2) and filtered (“F”; group B in Figure 2) samples taken during the exponential growth phase as well as unfiltered samples taken during the stationary growth phase (“aged”; group C in Figure 2). The measured *N*-nitrosamine concentration was converted to NDMA equivalents and further normalized by the cell density (i.e., expressed in the unit of nmol as NDMA/g cell) to facilitate comparisons among different samples. LB 2385 produced TONO (35 nmol as NDMA/g cell) even in the absence of NH_2Cl (“Raw”; group D in Figure 2), while LB 2386 did not form a measurable amount of TONO, indicating that certain primary or secondary metabolites of LB 2385 likely constituted unknown *N*-nitroso compounds. Comparing *N*-nitrosamine concentrations within each sub-group also revealed that LB 2385 generally produced a higher level of *N*-nitrosamine precursors. However, it remains unclear to what extent the production of these precursors is regulated by genetic and metabolic diversity of cyanobacteria and whether the *mcy* gene cluster (which produces microcystins) plays a role.

Filtration of cyanobacterial samples through 0.7- μm glass microfiber filters reduced the level of TONO precursors by 46% for LB 2385 and 58% for LB 2386, respectively. On the other hand, filtration reduced the level of NDMA precursors by up to 95% for LB 2385 and 92% for LB 2386, respectively. Likewise, filtration reduced the level of NPYR precursors by 90% for LB 2385 and 97% for LB 2386, respectively. Given that the 0.7- μm filters have a pore size smaller than a cyanobacterial cell (3.0-5.0 μm)³¹, these results suggest that NDMA precursors were mainly associated with cyanobacterial cells, presumably intracellular organic materials, concurring with observations from a previous study²¹, while TONO precursors were derived from both intracellular and extracellular materials.

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

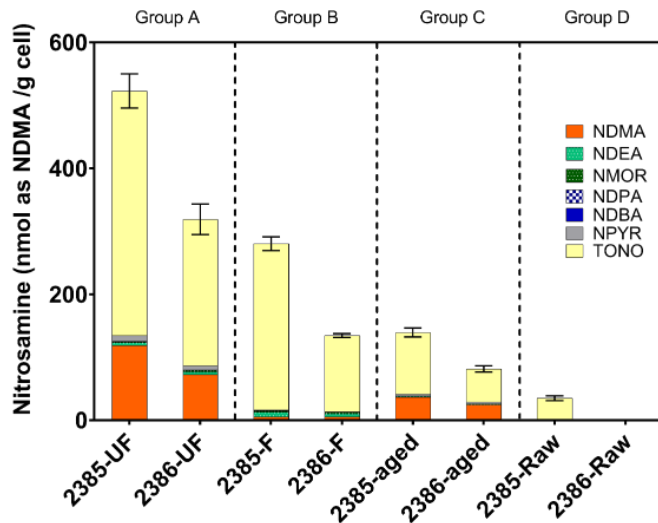


Figure 2. N-Nitrosamine concentrations in chloraminated samples.

The levels of TONO and NDMA precursors in “aged” cyanobacterial samples (i.e., cultivated for two months; group C in Figure 2) were ~75% and ~67% lower than those in fresher cyanobacterial samples (i.e., cultivated for less than three weeks; group A in Figure 2). Since cyanobacterial cells in group C exhibited a slightly lower growth rate than those in group A, these results point to the potential impacts of cyanobacterial cell age on the production of N-nitrosamine precursors.

Figure 3 shows the level of N-nitrosamines measured in a series of chlorinated samples. Chlorination of LB 2385 was performed at various Cl₂ doses to simulate different chlorine to ammonium-N ratios around the breakpoint ([Cl₂]:[NH₄-N] ratio of ~7.6)^{32,33}. No NDMA precursors were detected at all Cl₂ doses. Prior research suggests that NDMA precursors are most likely derived from intracellular organic materials. The fact that NDMA was not detectable suggests that the applied Cl₂ doses were not sufficiently high to lyse cells and release intracellular NDMA precursors. On the other hand, the concentration of TONO ranged from 20-200 nmol as NDMA /g cell, highlighting the extracellular origin of TONO precursors. The TONO concentration in chlorinated samples was ~4%-40% of that in chloraminated samples, suggesting that the Cl₂ dose is a key factor driving TONO formation from cyanobacteria.

Earlier mechanistic work has suggested that N-nitrosamine formation is enhanced in breakpoint

chlorination³³. To probe the formation mechanism of N-nitrosamine in cyanobacterial samples, LB 2386 was amended with NH₄-N ([NH₄-N] = 5.60 mg/L) and chlorinated. Compared to the samples without NH₄-N addition ([NH₄-N] = 0.02 mg/L), the concentration of N-nitrosamines formed in NH₄-N amended samples did not show a statistically significant increase. Previous studies have reported that organic nitrogen derived from cyanobacteria is an important precursor pool for organic chloramine formation during chlorination^{34,23}. The reaction rate constants of Cl₂ with amino acids/organic amines are much higher than that with NH₄-N³⁵. Furthermore, organic chloramines have proven to serve as intermediates of DBPs during chlorination³⁶. These results suggest that organic chloramine rather than inorganic chloramines likely formed upon chlorination of cyanobacterial samples, and that organic chloramine may play an important role in N-nitrosamine formation.

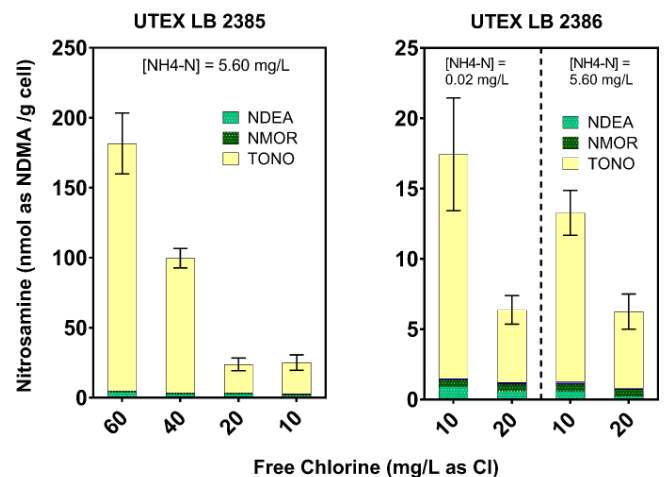


Figure 3. N-Nitrosamine concentrations in chlorinated samples.

Characterization of AOM

To further characterize the properties of cyanobacteria-derived N-nitrosamine precursors, non-target screening of cyanobacterial samples was performed on a liquid chromatograph-high resolution mass spectrometer to identify mass spectral features that might be responsible for differences in N-nitrosamine formation among samples. In addition, fluorescence excitation-emission matrix (EEM) spectra of raw, chlorinated, and chloraminated samples were recorded on an Aqualog spectrofluorometer to examine changes in fluorescent properties of cyanobacteria-derived organic matter.

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

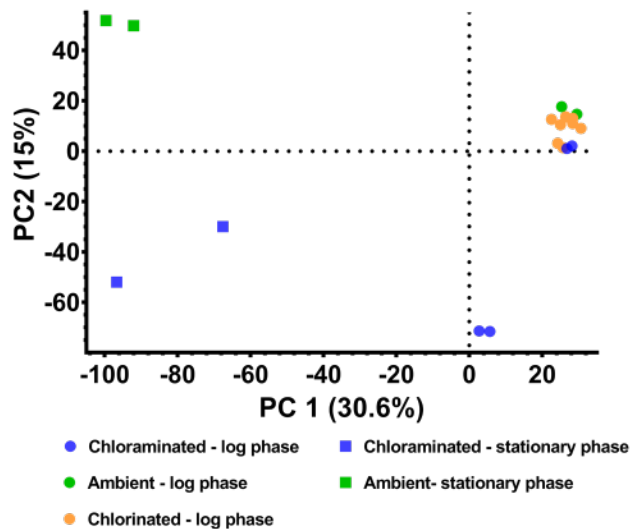


Figure 4. PCA of mass spectral features in cyanobacterial samples.

Figure 4 illustrates the principle component analysis (PCA) of mass spectral features identified in cyanobacterial samples. Component PC 1 (30.6%) is mainly driven by the “freshness” of cyanobacterial samples, while component PC 2 (15.0%) mainly differentiates the extent of sample treatment (ambient / chloraminated / chlorinated). This analysis highlighted the impact of growth stage on the mass spectral features in cyanobacterial samples.

Figure 5 shows a volcano plot of all mass spectral features detected in a LB 2385 sample during its stationary growth phase versus a LB 2385 sample during its exponential growth phase. Over 1000 mass spectral features (green area) showed a significant decrease in peak intensities during the exponential phase compared to the stationary phase. Considering the relatively low concentration of *N*-nitrosamine precursors during the stationary phase, these mass spectral features are likely unknown *N*-nitrosamine precursors, but further work is warranted to confirm their structural properties.

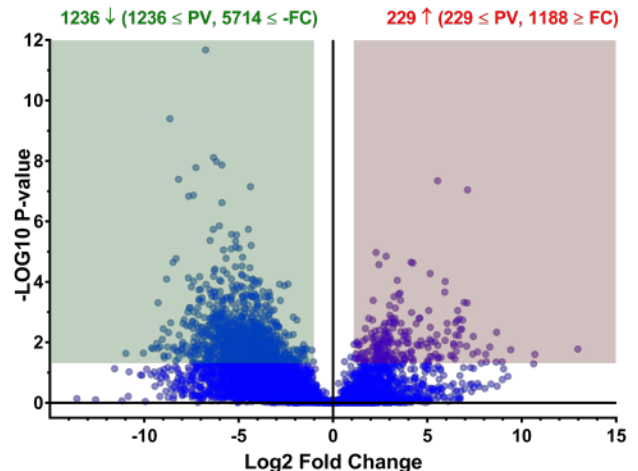


Figure 5. Volcano plot of mass spectral features detected in toxin-at stationary vs. log phase. PV : p-value (= 0.05); FC: fold change (=1).

Figure 6 shows the EEMs of LB 2385 samples upon chloramination (Figure 6-1), chlorination with 60 mg/L Cl₂ (Figure 6-2), and chlorination with 10 mg/L Cl₂ (Figure 6-3), as well the EEM of raw LB 2385 sample (Figure 6-4). The normalized region-specific EEM volume at excitation (250-400) / emission (280-380) increased successively from Figure 6-1 to Figure 6-4, reflecting the increasing abundance of the soluble microbial byproduct-like material based on previous literature³⁷. The abundance of this portion of DOM in these samples is negatively correlated to the amount of oxidant (chloramine/chlorine) and levels of TONO formed, indicating a potential pool of TONO precursors in AOM.

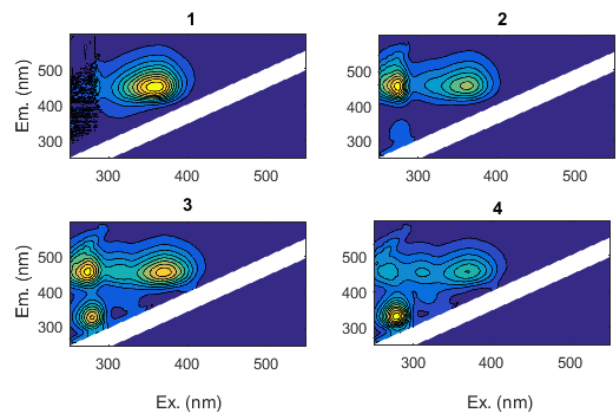


Figure 6. EEMs of LB 2385 samples under different treatment conditions.

Being qualitative and preliminary, these results may still provide new insights into the properties of *N*-nitrosamine precursors to guide further investigation.

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

Policy Implications

To date, no federal standards are established to regulate *N*-nitrosamines in drinking water; however, the U.S. EPA has included five *N*-nitrosamines on the Contaminant Candidate List 4, and is considering nationwide regulatory limits on these contaminants. Fifteen States in the U.S., such as California, Massachusetts, and New Jersey, have set drinking water and groundwater guidelines for NDMA, but not New York. Given the increasing frequency, magnitude, and geographic extent of HAB events in New York State, water utilities relying on HAB-impacted source waters may find balancing algal toxin removal and *N*-nitrosamine control a challenging task. We advocate for comprehensive assessment of *N*-nitrosamine formation potential in New York freshwater lakes that serve as public water supplies.

Methods

A solid-phase extraction (SPE) protocol adapted from previous research³⁸ was used to extract *N*-nitrosamines from cyanobacterial samples to maximize the recoveries of *N*-nitrosamines with a range of polarities. The final SPE extracts were concentrated by rotary evaporator and reconstituted prior to analysis. The concentration of total *N*-nitrosamines in samples was determined by a chemiluminescence assay³⁹ and reported as NDMA equivalents. The concentrations of specific *N*-nitrosamine species (e.g., NDMA, NPYR, NMOR) were determined by an isotope-dilution method by liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry.

Outreach Comments

No direct outreach was conducted. However, the research team has established a strong collaborative relationship with the Citizens Statewide Lake Assessment Program (CSLAP) over the course of this project.

Student Training

This project directly supported part of the dissertation work of one Syracuse University Ph.D. student, who will continue working on an expanded study in Fall 2019. Although not supported, two Syracuse University undergraduate students will participate in the Fall 2019 research. The project also supported a local high school student for summer research during Summer 2018.

Notable Awards & Achievements

Not applicable.

Publications/Presentations

Pu, C.; Zeng, T., Formation of *N*-nitrosamines upon chloramination and chlorination of cyanobacterial strains. *Gordon Research Conference Drinking Water Disinfection By-Products*, South Hadley, MA, 2019.

References

1. Brooks BW, Lazorchak JM, Howard MDA, et al. In some places, in some cases, and at some times, harmful algal blooms are the greatest threat to inland water quality. *Environ Toxicol Chem.* 2017;36(5):1125-1127. doi:10.1002/etc.3801
2. Paerl HW, Huisman J. Climate change: a catalyst for global expansion of harmful cyanobacterial blooms. *Environ Microbiol Rep.* 2009;1(1):27-37. doi:10.1111/j.1758-2229.2008.00004.x
3. Vanderploeg HA, Liebig JR, Carmichael WW, et al. Zebra mussel (*Dreissena polymorpha*) selective filtration promoted toxic *Microcystis* blooms in Saginaw Bay (Lake Huron) and Lake Erie. *Can J Fish Aquat Sci.* 2011;58(6):1208-1221. doi:10.1139/f01-066
4. Knoll LB, Sarnelle O, Hamilton SK, et al. Invasive zebra mussels (*Dreissena polymorpha*) increase cyanobacterial toxin concentrations in low-nutrient lakes. *Can J Fish Aquat Sci.* 2008;65(3):448-455. doi:10.1139/f07-181
5. Preece EP, Hardy FJ, Moore BC, Bryan M. A review of microcystin detections in Estuarine and Marine waters: Environmental implications and human health risk. *Harmful Algae.* 2017. doi:10.1016/j.hal.2016.11.006
6. Chen W, Peng L, Wan N, Song L. Mechanism study on the frequent variations of cell-bound microcystins in cyanobacterial blooms in Lake Taihu: Implications for water quality monitoring and assessments. *Chemosphere.* 2009. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2009.09.037
7. Tillett D, Dittmann E, Erhard M, Von Döhren H, Börner T, Neilan BA. Structural organization of microcystin biosynthesis in *Microcystis aeruginosa* PCC7806: An integrated peptide-polyketide synthetase system. *Chem Biol.* 2000. doi:10.1016/S1074-5521(00)00021-1
8. Nguyen M-L, Westerhoff P, Lawrence Baker J, Hu Q, Esparza-Soto M, Sommerfeld M. Characteristics and Reactivity of Algae-Produced

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

- Dissolved Organic Carbon.
doi:10.1061/ASCE0733-93722005131:111574
9. Graham NJD, Wardlaw VE, Perry R, Jiang JQ. The significance of algae as trihalomethane precursors. *Water Sci Technol.* 1998;37(2):83-89. doi:10.1016/S0273-1223(98)00013-4
 10. Huang J, Graham N, Templeton MR, Zhang Y, Collins C, Nieuwenhuijsen M. A comparison of the role of two blue-green algae in THM and HAA formation. *Water Res.* 2009;43(12):3009-3018. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2009.04.029
 11. United States Environmental Protection Agency. *National Primary Drinking Water Regulations: Stage 2 Disinfectants and Disinfection Byproducts Rule.*; 2006. <http://www.regulations.gov>. Accessed June 10, 2019.
 12. Nawrocki J, Andrzejewski P. Nitrosamines and water. *J Hazard Mater.* 2011;189(1-2):1-18. doi:10.1016/j.jhazmat.2011.02.005
 13. EPA. *Six-Year Review 3 Technical Support Document for Nitrosamines.*; 2016.
 14. Mitch WA, Sharp JO, Trussell RR, Valentine RL, Alvarez-Cohen L, Sedlak DL. N-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) as a Drinking Water Contaminant: A Review. *Environ Eng Sci.* 2003;20(5):389-404. doi:10.1089/109287503768335896
 15. Dai N, Mitch WA. Relative importance of N-nitrosodimethylamine compared to total N-nitrosamines in drinking waters. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2013;47(8):3648-3656. doi:10.1021/es305225b
 16. Krasner SW, Mitch WA, McCurry DL, Hanigan D, Westerhoff P. Formation, precursors, control, and occurrence of nitrosamines in drinking water: A review. *Water Res.* 2013;47(13):4433-4450. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2013.04.050
 17. Choi J, Valentine RL. A kinetic model of N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) formation during water chlorination/chloramination. *Water Sci Technol.* 2002;46(3):65-71.
 18. Chen WH, Young TM. Influence of nitrogen source on NDMA formation during chlorination of diuron. *Water Res.* 2009;43(12):3047-3056. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2009.04.020
 19. Marti EJ, Pisarenko AN, Peller JR, Dickenson ER V. N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) formation from the ozonation of model compounds. *Water Res.* 2015;72:262-270. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2014.08.047
 20. Lee C, Yoon J. UV-A induced photochemical formation of N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) in the presence of nitrite and dimethylamine. *J Photochem Photobiol A Chem.* 2007;189(1):128-134. doi:10.1016/j.jphotochem.2007.01.022
 21. Wert EC, Rosario-Ortiz FL. Intracellular organic matter from cyanobacteria as a precursor for carbonaceous and nitrogenous disinfection byproducts. *Environ Sci Technol.* 2013;47(12):6332-6340. doi:10.1021/es400834k
 22. Gonsior M, Powers LC, Williams E, et al. The chemodiversity of algal dissolved organic matter from lysed *Microcystis aeruginosa* cells and its ability to form disinfection by-products during chlorination. *Water Res.* 2019;155:300-309. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2019.02.030
 23. Zhang TY, Lin YL, Xu B, et al. Formation of organic chloramines during chlor(am)ination and UV/chlor(am)ination of algae organic matter in drinking water. *Water Res.* 2016;103:189-196. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2016.07.036
 24. Bozarth CS, Schwartz AD, Shepardson JW, Colwell FS, Dreher TW. Population Turnover in a *Microcystis* Bloom Results in Predominantly Nontoxic Variants Late in the Season †. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2010;76(15):5207-5213. doi:10.1128/AEM.00001-10
 25. Guan DX, Wang X, Xu H, Chen L, Li P, Ma LQ. Temporal and spatial distribution of *Microcystis* biomass and genotype in bloom areas of Lake Taihu. *Chemosphere.* 2018. doi:10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.06.141
 26. Gągała I, Izydorczyk K, Jurczak T, et al. Role of Environmental Factors and Toxic Genotypes in the Regulation of Microcystins-Producing Cyanobacterial Blooms. *Microb Ecol.* 2014;67:465-479. doi:10.1007/s00248-013-0303-3
 27. Xu Y, Yang F, Liu Y, et al. Genetic diversity of *Microcystis* populations in a bloom and its relationship to the environmental factors in Qinhuai River, China. *Microbiol Res.* 2011. doi:10.1016/j.micres.2011.02.005
 28. Hughes E, Gorham P. Toxicity of a unialgal culture of *Microcystis aeruginosa*. *Can J.*

Formation of N-Nitrosamines upon Chloramination and Chlorination of Cyanobacterial Strains

- 1958;4(3):225-236.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1353690>
7. Accessed June 10, 2019.
29. Yang Z, Lü K, Chen Y, Montagnes DJS. The Interactive Effects of Ammonia and Microcystin on Life-History Traits of the Cladoceran *Daphnia magna*: Synergistic or Antagonistic? *PLoS One*. 2012;7(3):32285. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032285
30. Mitch WA, Sedlak DL. Characterization and Fate of N-Nitrosodimethylamine Precursors in Municipal Wastewater Treatment Plants. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2004;38(5):1445-1454. doi:10.1021/es035025n
31. Kim BH, Choi MK, Chung YT, Lee JB, Wui IS. *Blue-Green Alga Microcystis Aeruginosa* Kütz. in *Natural Medium*. Vol 59.; 1997. <https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007/s001289900440.pdf>. Accessed June 4, 2019.
32. Charrois JWA, Hrudehy SE. Breakpoint chlorination and free-chlorine contact time: Implications for drinking water N-nitrosodimethylamine concentrations. *Water Res*. 2007;41(3):674-682. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2006.07.031
33. Schreiber IM, Mitch WA. Enhanced nitrogenous disinfection byproduct formation near the breakpoint: Implications for nitrification control. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2007;41(20):7039-7046. doi:10.1021/es070500t
34. Henderson RK, Baker A, Parsons SA, Jefferson B. Characterisation of algogenic organic matter extracted from cyanobacteria, green algae and diatoms. *Water Res*. 2008. doi:10.1016/j.watres.2007.10.032
35. Yoon J, Jensen JN. Distribution of Aqueous Chlorine with Nitrogenous Compounds: Chlorine Transfer from Organic Chloramines to Ammonia. *Environ Sci Technol*. 1993;27(2):403-409. doi:10.1021/es00039a022
36. Joo SH, Mitch WA. Nitrile, aldehyde, and halonitroalkane formation during chlorination/chloramination of primary amines. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2007;41(4):1288-1296. doi:10.1021/es0612697
37. Chen W, Westerhoff P, Leenheer JA, Booksh K. Fluorescence Excitation-Emission Matrix Regional Integration to Quantify Spectra for Dissolved Organic Matter. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2003;37(24):5701-5710. doi:10.1021/es034354c
38. Krauss M, Hollender J. Analysis of nitrosamines in wastewater: Exploring the trace level quantification capabilities of a hybrid linear ion trap/orbitrap mass spectrometer. *Anal Chem*. 2008;80(3):834-842. doi:10.1021/ac701804y
39. Kulshrestha P, McKinstry KC, Fernandez BO, Feelisch M, Mitch WA. Application of an Optimized Total N-nitrosamine (TONO) Assay to Recreational Waters: Placing N-nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) Determinations into Perspective (Supporting Information). *Environ Sci Technol*. 2010:1-9.

Appendices (if needed)

Disclaimer

The views and conclusions contained in this document are those of the authors and should not be interpreted as representing the opinions or policies of the U.S. Geological Survey. Mention of trade names or commercial products does not constitute their endorsement by the U.S. Geological Survey.