ENVE 301

Environmental Engineering Unit Operations

CHAPTER: 8

Coagulants

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Coagulants

The most widely used coagulants in water treatment :

 \rightarrow Aluminum sulfate (Al₂(SO₄)₃.14H₂O or Al₂(SO₄)₃.18H₂O)

 \rightarrow Iron salts

(e.g. ferrous sulfate, ferric sulfate, ferric chloride)

Aluminum (III) and Fe (III) accomplish destabilisation of colloidal particals by 2 mechanisims :

- **1**. Adsorption and charge neutralization
- 2. Enmesment in precipitate

If an Aluminum (III) and Fe (III) salt is added to water in

concentrations less than the solubility limit of the metal hydroxide:

The hydrolysis products will form and adsorb onto the colloidal

particles, causing destabilization by charge neutralization.

If the amount of Aluminum (III) and Fe (III) salts added to water is sufficient to exceed the solubility of metal hydroxide;

The hydrolysis products will form as intermediate in the formation of metal hydroxide precipitate

- Adsorption and charge neutralization by intermediate hydrolysis products
- \rightarrow Enmeshment of colloids in precipitate (Al(OH)₃ or Fe(OH)₃) formed

Aluminium Sulfate (Alum)

 $Al_2(SO_4)_3.14H_2O \longrightarrow Commercial grade$ (MW=594.4 Density=600-1100 kg/m³)

 $Al_2(SO_4)_3.18H_2O \longrightarrow Reagent grade$

\rightarrow Tan to gray green in color





Available in dry or liquid form

(liquid form requires special shipping containers because of its corrosiveness)

dry form is most common

- granular (most widely used)
- powdered
- lump form
- \rightarrow The dry chemical may be shipped in;
 - bags

 \rightarrow



barrels

Feeding of Alum in Water Treatment Plants:

→Alum is dissolved in water at concentration of 3-7%
 (5% most common)

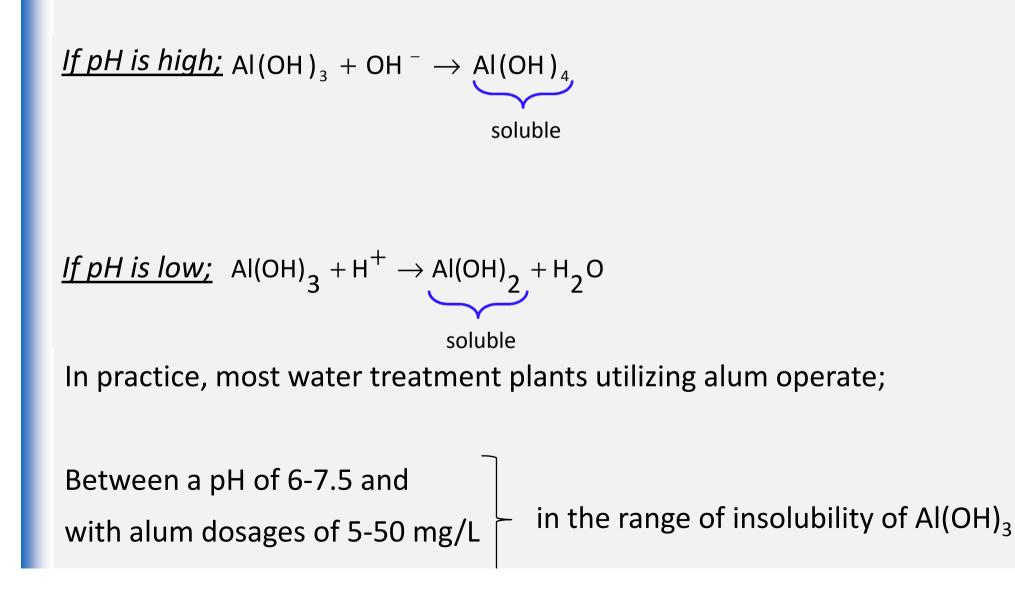
Then fed to the raw water by chemical feeders (e.g, dosage pumps)

<u>Reason of diluting coagulant before injection into raw water :</u>

large volumes are easier and quicker to disperse into a large body of raw water than smaller volumes

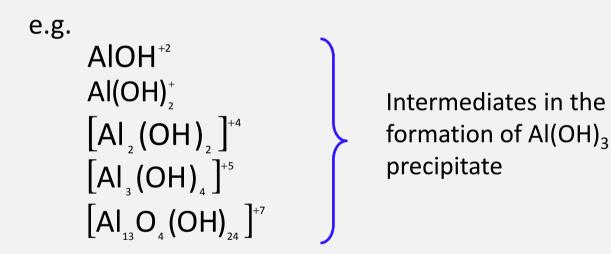
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\rightarrowThe optimum pH range = 6-8
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(aluminum hydroxide is relatively insoluble within this range)



When Al₂(SO₄)₃.14H₂O (18H₂O) is added to water

- \rightarrow It is hydrated to form AI(H₂O)₆⁺³
- \rightarrow This complex is then pass through a series of hydrolytic reactions in which H₂O molecules in the hydration shell are placed by OH⁻ ions.
 - \rightarrow Formation of a variety of soluble species



These species may adsorb very strongly onto the surface of most negative colloids

Coagulation with adsorption and charge neutralization mechanism occurs.

(charge reversal due to overdosing is possible)

If solubility limit of Al(OH)₃ is exceeded (typical in water treatment)

- Adsorption and charge neutralization by intermediate soluble species formed
- Enmeshment in Al(OH)₃

Both contribute to coagulation

$Al_{2}(SO_{4})_{3}.14H_{2}O + 6H_{2}O \rightarrow 2Al(OH)_{3}(\downarrow) + 6H^{+} + 3SO_{4} + 14H_{2}$

Liberated H⁺ ions

Depression of pH below the range in which the alum is effective

Optimum pH for Al(OH)₃ precipitate formation \rightarrow 6-8

Natural alkalinity of water (which is in the form of bicarbonate ion for the ph range involved) will react with liberated H⁺ ions and reduces the variation in pH.

$$\mathsf{Al}_{2}(\mathsf{SO}_{4})_{3}\mathsf{14H}_{2}\mathsf{O}+\mathsf{3Ca}(\mathsf{HCO}_{3})_{2}\rightarrow\mathsf{2Al}(\mathsf{OH})_{3}\Downarrow+\mathsf{3CaSO}_{4}+\mathsf{14H}_{2}\mathsf{O}+\mathsf{6CO}_{2}$$

If the natural alkalinity of water is insufficient, alkalinity in the form of

- $Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow hydrated lime (calcium hydroxide)$
- CaO \rightarrow quick lime (calcium oxide)
- $Na_2CO_3 \rightarrow sodium carbonate (soda ash)$

must be added to increase buffer capacity

 $AI_{2}(SO_{4})_{3}14H_{2}O + 3Ca(OH)_{2} \rightarrow 2AI(OH)_{3} + 3CaSO_{4} + 14H_{2}O$

 $AI_{2}(SO_{4})_{3}14H_{2}O + 3Na_{2}CO_{3} + 3H_{2}O \rightarrow 2AI(OH)_{3} + 3Na_{2}SO_{4} + 3CO_{2} + 14H_{2}O$

Example: (Benefield, p.221)

A raw water supply is treated with an alum dosage of 25 mg/L. Calculate the followings:

- 1. The amount of alum required to treat a flow of 1 MGD (million gallon /day)
- The amount of natural alkalinity required to react with the alum added in terms of CaCO₃
- The volume of sludge produced per MGD if it is collected at 2% solids. Assume that the sludge has a specific gravity of 1.011 (at 4°C)

Calculation of Sludge Amount

To evaluate the daily sludge production the following equation can be used:

 $M = Q \times (0.44A + SS + others) \times 10^{-3}$

where

M = dry sludge produced (kg / day) Q = plant flow (L / day) A = alum dose (mg / L) SS = suspended solids in raw water (mg / L)

others \rightarrow miscellaneous chemical additions such as polymers, pH neutralizing chemical etc. (mg / L)

The insoluble aluminum hydroxide complex $Al(H_2O)_3(OH)_3$ is thought to predominate in most water treatment plant sludges when alum is used. According to the chemical equilibrium, when one mole of alum is used, 2 moles of $Al(H_2O)_3(OH)_3$ precipitate. This species results in the production of 0.44 kg of chemical sludge for each kg of alum added. "0.44" comes from this data.

MW of Al(H₂O)₃(OH)₃ = 131.98 g $(2 \times 131.98) / 594.4 = 0.44$ MW of Al(SO₄)₃.14H₂O = 594.4 g

Source:

http://www.patentstorm.us/patents/5543056-description.html

Iron Salts

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Ferric sulfate (Fe_2(SO_4)_3)
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Ferric chloride (FeCl₃)

Ferrous sulfate (FeSO₄)

Less expensive than alum but can cause colorproblem if the precipitate is not removed completely



Ferric sulfate



Ferric chloride



Ferrous sulfate (copperas)

Ferric Sulfate

 $Fe_2(SO_4)_3.yH_2O_{y=3,7,9}$ MW=399,9 g/mol

 \Rightarrow Available in dry form, as granules (most common) or as powder



 \Rightarrow **Optimum pH range =** 3.5 – 7 and above 9 (up to 12)

(ferric hydroxide is relatively insoluble within this range)

Typical dosage for $Fe_2(SO_4)_3.9H_2O \rightarrow 10-250 \text{ mg/L}$

Reaction of ferric sulfate with natural bicarbonate alkalinity:

 $Fe_2(SO_4)_3.yH_2O + 3Ca(HCO_3)_2 \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_3 \Downarrow + 3CaSO_4 + 6CO_2 + yH_2O$

The reaction produces a dense, rapid settling floc.

If the natural alkalinity is insufficient for the reaction:

 $Fe_{2}(SO_{4})_{3}.yH_{2}O + 3Ca(OH)_{2} \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_{3} \Downarrow + 3CaSO_{4} + yH_{2}O$

Hydrated lime

 $Fe_{2}(SO_{4})_{3}.yH_{2}O + 3Na_{2}CO_{3} + 3H_{2}O \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_{3} \Downarrow + 3Na_{2}SO_{4} + 3CO_{2} + yH_{2}O$

 \Rightarrow The chemical is usually dry fed

Ferric Chloride

 $\text{FeCl}_3 \rightarrow \text{MW}=162.2 \text{ g/mol}$

Available in dry (powder or lump, lump is most common) or liquid form



(FeCl₃) anhydrous form (FeCl₃.6H₂O) heptahydrate form Liquid form → green-black powder → yellow-brown lump → dark brown solution

 \rightarrow Typical dosage = 5-150 mg/L as FeCl₃.6H₂O

 \rightarrow Working pH range = 3.5-6.5 (or above 8.5)

Simplified reaction with natural alkalinity:

 $2FeCl_{3} + 3Ca(HCO_{3})_{2} \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_{3} + 3CaSO_{4} + 6CO_{2}$

If the natural alkalinity is insufficient;

 $2FeCl_{3} + 3Ca(OH)_{2} \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_{3} + 3CaCl_{2}$

 $2FeCl_{3} + 3Na_{2}CO_{3} + 3H_{2}O \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_{3} + 6NaCl_{3} + 3CO_{2}$

Ferrous Sulfate (Copperas)

 $FeSO_4.7H_2O = 287 \text{ g/mol}$

 $FeSO_4.5H_2O = 242 \text{ g/mol}$

 \Rightarrow Effective pH range = 8.5 or above



Slaked (or hydrated) lime is usually added to raise the pH to a level where the ferrous ions are precipitated as ferric hydroxide.

 $FeSO_4.7H_2O + 2Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow Fe(OH)_2 + CaSO_4 + 7H_2O$

 $4Fe(OH)_2 + O_2 + 2H_2O \rightarrow 4Fe(OH)_3$

 $\Rightarrow\,$ is available in dry (granule or lump) or liquid form. Dry form is most common

Chlorinated Copperas

 $3FeSO_4.7H_2O + 1.5Cl_2 \rightarrow Fe_2(SO_4)_3 + FeCl_3 + 21H_2O$

Effective coagulants

This reaction occurs at a pH as low as about 4

effective pH range = 3.5-6.5 or above 8.5

Polyelectrolytes (Polymeric Coagulants)

Polymer → Long chain, high molecular weight molecules Comprises of many subunits (MONOMERS)

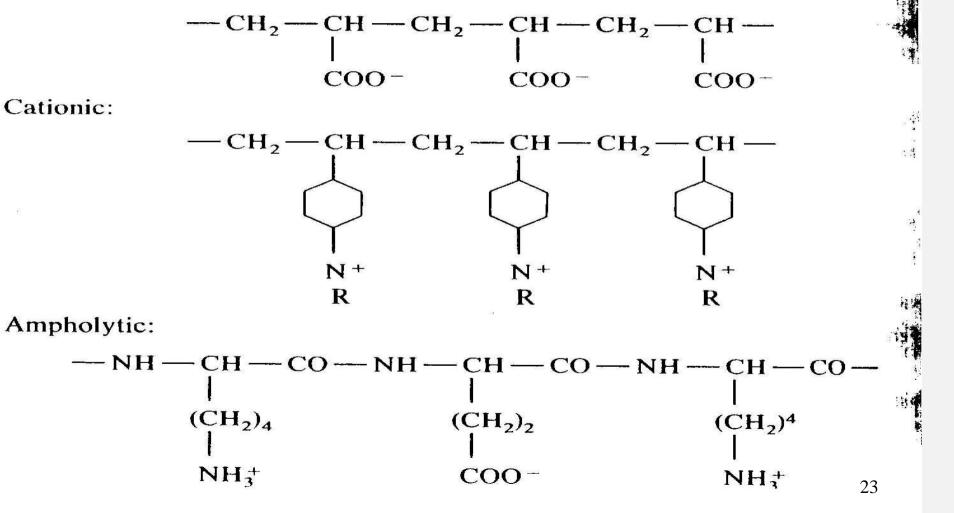
may be classified according to their ionic characteristics as:

- Anionic (negatively charged)
- Cationic (positively charged)
- Ampholytic (contains both positive and negative groups)

may be of <u>natural origin</u> (e.g. starch, polysaccharide gums) OR *synthetic in* <u>origin</u>

Polymeric coagulants or polyelectrolytes are long-chain, high-molective weight molecules which bear a large number of charged groups. The net char on the molecule may be positive, negative, or neutral. Representative lecular structures are

Anionic:



May be used as coagulant \rightarrow not cost effective

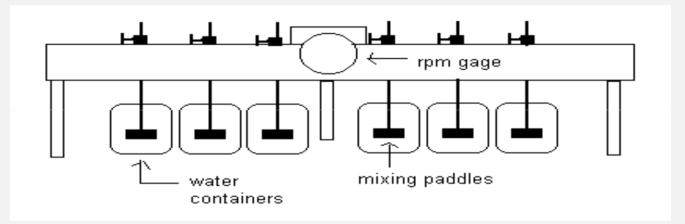
Commonly used as coagulant aid in conjuction with coagulants

When they are added to water,

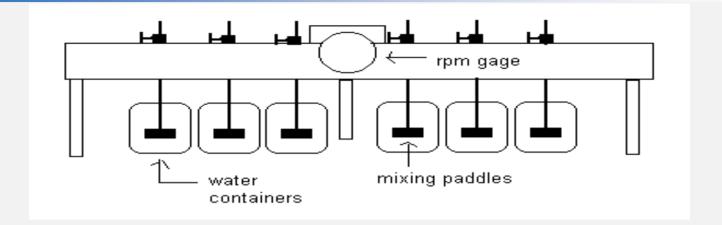
- Chemical bridging between reactive groups on the polyelectrolyte and floc occurs
- Polyelectrolyte binds small flocs together by bridging to make larger masses for settling

- Usual dosage as coagulant aid = 0.5-1.5 mg/L
- Overdosing \rightarrow will result in restabilization of colloids
- are not acidic and do not lower the pH of water as alum does

Determination of Coagulant Dosage JAR TEST



is used to determine the most effective and economical dose of coagulant for a particular mixing intensity and duration



Samples of the
water are poured
into a series of
glass beakersVarious dosages of the
coagulant and
coagulant aid are
added to beakersContents are rapidly
stirred to simulate
RAPID MIXING
(coagulation)

Then the coagulants are gently stirred to simulate FLOCCULATION

After a given time, the stirring is ceased and the floc formed is allowed to settle

Determination of Optimum Coagulant Dose

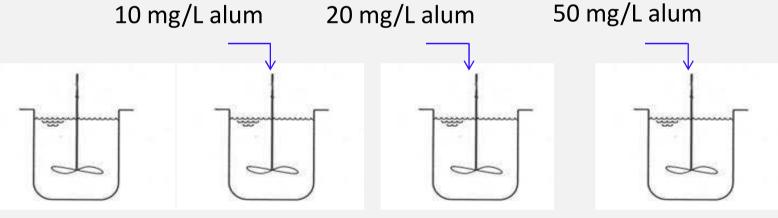
 \rightarrow Raw sample pH and turbidity measurement

Flash mix (at 80 rpm) 1-3 min

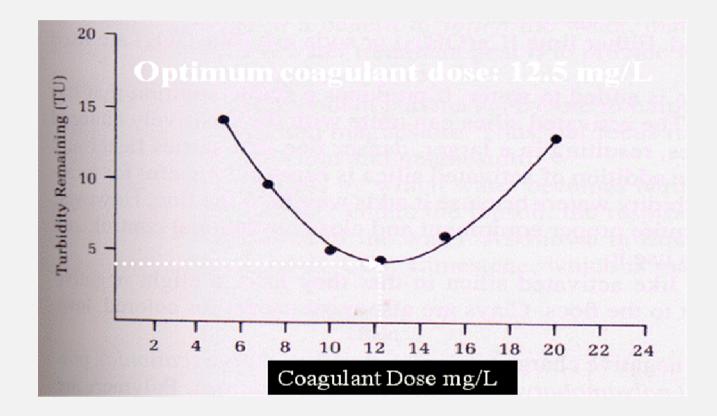
Slow mix (at 10-20 rpm) 30 min

Settle for 20 min

Turbidity of supernatant



No coagulant (blank)



Determination of Optimum pH for Optimum Coagulant Dose

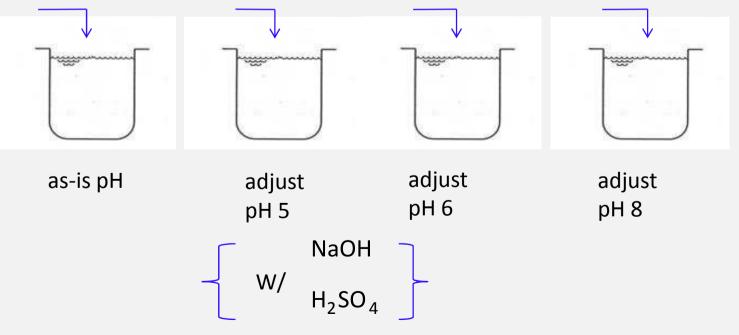
Rapid mix 1-3 min (at 80 rpm)

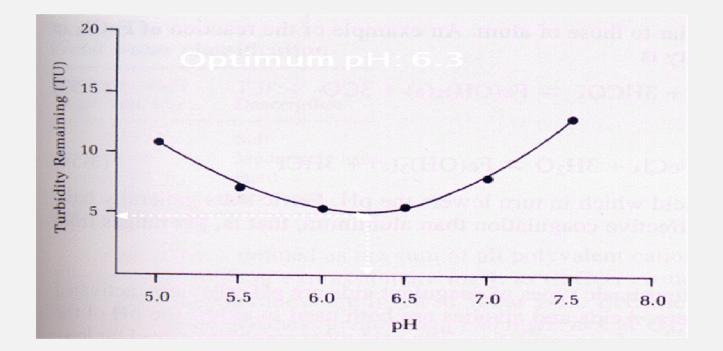
Slow mix 30 min (at 10-20 rpm)

Settle for 20 min

Turbidity of supernatant

Optimum coagulant dosage determined in part A





The most important aspects to note during the JAR TEST:

- Time for floc formation
- The floc size
- Floc's settling characteristics
- Turbidity removed
- pH

APPARATUS REQUIRED

- Jar tester (a stirring machine with 3 to 6 paddles, variable speed adjustment for the paddles from 0 to 100rpm to simulate rapid mix and slow quiescent motion for floc formation)
- 2. Turbidimeter for turbidity measurement.
- 3. A titration set up for both alkalinity and hardness
- 4. A large dial timer to note time of mixing, stirring, and floc formation.
- 5. pH meter
- 6. Analytical hot plate for lime dissolution.
- 7. An analytical balance that will weigh to 0.010 mg accuracy.
- 8. Four 1L beakers for the jar tester.
- 9. An assortment of beakers of 250 ml to 1000 ml capacity to aid in making solutions.
- **10.** Several 1000 ml capacity volumetric flasks.
- 11. Several 1, 5, and 10 ml pipettes graduated in 0.1 ml graduations.

REAGENTS NEEDED

 Standard Aluminum Sulfate Solution [Al₂(SO₄)₃.18 H₂O] (1 % solution by weight) (1 ml of solution is equivalent to 10 mg Aluminum sulfate)

Prepare 1 L of solution by dissolving 18.9 g of $AI_2(SO_4)_2$.18 H_2O in 1000 ml of distilled water in a liter volumetric flask. This solution contains 10 mg as aluminum sulfate for each ml. Store in a screw-capped glass or plastic reagent bottle and make fresh annually.

Polymer Solution (0.05 - 0.1% solution by weight)

0.05% polymer : 1 ml of solution is equivalent to 0.5 mg polymer. 0.1% polymer : 1 ml of solution is equivalent to 1 mg polymer.

Standard Lime Solution [CaO, unslaked lime] (1 % solution by weight) (1 ml of solution is equivalent to 10 mg lime)

Prepare 1L of solution by dissolving 13 g of lime (CaO) in 800 ml of distilled water in a liter beaker. Heat the suspension to almost boiling and stir continuously to dissolve as much suspension as possible. *[Caution: If the distilled water used contains carbon dioxide, the lime will react with the carbondioxide and form calcium carbonate which will not dissolve under the present conditions.* Cool to room temperature and transfer to a liter volumetric flask. Wash the beaker one or three times with CO₂ -free distilled water (do not overshoot the liter mark on volumetric flask)] Once the dissolution takes place dilute to exactly 1L of final solution. Store in a screw-capped plastic bottle and make fresh annually. *Caution:* Lime slurries should be mixed by shaking every time they are used.

Sodium Hydroxide [NaOH] (0.1 N)

Dissolve 4 g of reagent grade NaOH in 1000 ml of distilled water in a liter volumetric flask. Store in a plastic reagent bottle and prepare fresh once every six months.

Caution: An exothermic reaction occurs during the dissolution of NaOH in water.

Sulfuric Acid solution (H₂SO₄) (0.02 N)

Dilute exactly 200 ml of a stock $0.1N H_2SO_4$ to exactly one liter using a liter volumetric flask with distilled or deionized water. Store in a glass or plastic reagent bottle and prepare fresh once every six months. *Caution:* An exothermic reaction occurs during the dilution of acids. Acids are always added onto water.

A- Determination of optimum coagulant dose

- 1. Initialy, the raw sample prior to testing mus be measured for the following:
 - pН

Turbidity

2. Fill each of the 500 ml beakers on the stirring machine with sample to be tested. Then add the following volumes of 1% standard alum solution to each of 4 beakers.

Beaker	Coagulant (alum) to be added
#1	no coagulant
#2	4 ml alum -> 40 mg alum / 500 ml sample = 80 mg / L_alum
#3	8 ml alum -> 80 mg alum / 500 ml sample = 160 mg / Lalum
# 4	12 ml alum->120 mg alum / 500 ml sample= 240 mg / L alum

- 3. Flash mix (at 80 rpm) each beaker, 1 to 3 minutes.
- 4. Set timer for 30 minutes, and slow paddles down to 10 to 20 rpms and slowly mix and watch floc formation. Note how long it takes before a floc begins to form in each of the beaker. Measure and record pH of each sample 10 minutes before the end of the 30-minute solution mixing period. Note the floc type observed as follows :

Floc Size Observed	Floc Type
extremely fine floc	PIN POINT
3 - 4 mm in diameter	FINE
7 - 8 mm in diameter	SMALL
8 - 12 mm in diameter	FAIR
12 - 23 mm in diameter	GOOD
60 mm or larger in diameter	LARGE STRAGGLER

5. After the stirring period is over, stop the stirrer, allow the mixture to settle for 20 minutes. Note how long it takes for the floc to settle to the bottom of the beaker. Note the comments on settling as follows:

Minutes to settle	Comment
Less than 2	Excellent
2 to 4	Good
4 to 7	Fair
More than 10	Poor

- 6. After allowing the floc to settle, determine the turbidity of the supernatant(the liquid above the settled floc).
- Plot coagulant(alum) dose (mg /L) vs. turbidity (NTU) graph and determine the optimum coagulant dose for maximum removal of turbidity.

B- Determination of optimum pH for optimum coagulant dose

- 1. Fill each of the four beakers with a new 500 ml of original sample.
- 2. Add the optimum coagulant dosage determined from A to each of four beakers.
- 3. Adjust the pH of each beaker as follows:

Beaker	What to do to each beaker				
# 1	no adjustment but measure the "as is" pH				
#2	adjust the pH to 5.0				
#3	adjust the pH to 6.0 \succ use 0.1 N NaOH and 0.02 N H ₂ SO ₄ for pH adjustment.				
# 4	adjust the pH to 8.0				

- 4. Rapid mix (80 rpm) for 1 to 3 minutes.
- Set timer for 30 minutes, and slow paddles down to 10 to 20 rpms and slowly mix and watch floc formation. Note how long it takes before a floc begins to form in each of the beaker.
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6. After the stirring period is over, stop the stirrer, allow the mixture to settle for 20 minutes. Note how long it takes for the floc to settle to the bottom of the beaker. Note the comments on settling as follows:

Minutes to settle	Comment
Less than 2	Excellent
2 to 4	Good
4 to 7	Fair
More than 10	Poor

- 8. After allowing the floc to settle, determine the turbidity of the supernatant(the liquid above the settled floc).
- 9. Plot pH vs. turbidity (NTU) graph and determine the optimum pH dose for maximum removal of turbidity.

C- Determination of necessary lime amount

- 1. Once the optimum coagulant dose and pH are determined, then fill a new beaker with 500 ml of raw sample.
- 2. Add the optimum coagulant and rapid mix (80 rpm) for 3 minutes.
- 3. Then insert a pH electrode and set speed of paddle at 20 rpm. slowly add the lime until the optimum pH is achieved, recording the amount of lime solution consumed.

D- Determination of coagulant aid (Polyelectrolyte) dose:

1. To determine if polyelectrolytes can help the coagulation - flocculation process, fill each of the four beakers with a 500 ml raw water.

Add the optimum coagulant dosage determined from A to each of four beakers.

2. Then add the following volumes of 0.05% polymer solution to each of 4 beakers.

Beaker	Polymer to be added
# 1	no polymer
#2	0.5 ml polymer-> 0.25 mg polymer / 500 ml sample = 0.5 mg / L polymer
#3	0.8 ml polymer-> 0.40 mg polymer / 500 ml sample = 0.8 mg / L polymer
# 4	1.0 ml polymer-> 0.50 mg polymer / 500 ml sample= 1.0 mg / L polymer

3. Add the lime dosage determined from C to each beaker to adjust optimum pH value.

RECORDING SHEETS FOR JAR TESTING

DATE 2

RAW WATER ANALYSIS

Turbidity : NTU pH

A - DETERMINATION OF OPTIMUM COAGULANT DOSE

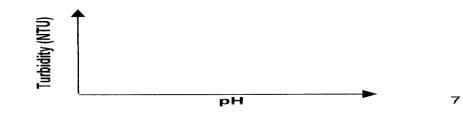
JAR	ALUM (mg / L)	Floc Form (min)	рН (20 min)	FLOC TYPE	Settling Rate (min)	Comment on settling	Supernatant Turbidity (NTU)
1							
2							
3							
4							



Coagulant (alum) dosage, mg/L

B - DETERMINATION OF OPTIMUM PH FOR OPTIMUM COAGULANT DOSE

JAR	рН	Floc Form (min)	рН (20 min)	FLOC TYPE	Settling Rate (min)	Comment on settling	Supernatant Turbidity (NTU)
1							
2							
3							
4							



36

C - DETERMINATION OF NECESSARY LIME AMOUNT

Optimum coagulant dose added to each beaker	: mg / L
	ml mg / L

D- DETERMINATION OF COAGULANT AID (POLYELECTROLYTE) DOSAGE

Optimum coagulant dose added to each beaker Lime dosage added to each beaker

JAR	POLYMER (mg / L)	Floc Form (min)	рН (20 min)	FLOC TYPE	Settling Rate (min)	Comment on settling	Supernatant Turbidity (NTU)
1							
2							
3						<u> </u>	
4							

(NLN) AjpiqunL Coagulant aid (polymer) dosage (mg/L)

37

: mg / L

Classification of Surface Water with Regard to Coagulation

Low turbidity < 10 JTU

High turbidity > 100 JTU

Low alkalinity < 50 mg/L as CaCO₃ High alkalinity >250 mg/L as CaCO₃

Group 1 (High turbidity – Low alkalinity)

→ With relatively small dosages of coagulant water of this type should be easily coagulated by "adsorption and charge neutralization"

 \rightarrow May need to add alkalinity if ph drops during treatment

Group 2 (High turbidity – High alkalinity)

- → Because of the high alkalinity, adsorption and charge neutralization will be less effective mechanism than in waters of low alkalinity
- \rightarrow Higher coagulant dosage should be used to ensure sweep coagulation
- \rightarrow The pH will be relatively unaffected by coagulant addition

Group 3 (Low turbidity – High alkalinity)

- → The small number of colloids make coagulation difficult. Addition of some turbidity may decrease the amount of coagulant needed.
- The principal coagulation mechanism is sweep flocculation with moderate coagulant dosage

Group 4 (Low turbidity – Low alkalinity)

- → The small number of colloids make coagulation difficult and low alkalinity prevents effective Al(OH)₃ formation
- Additional turbidity can be added to convert this water to that of group 1 or additional alkalinity can be added to convert it to group 3
- \rightarrow It may be adventegous to add both turbidity and alkalinity