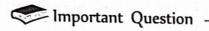
- (c) Temporary hardness is also known as carbonate hardness or alkaline hardness.
- (d) Alkaline hardness is due to the presence of bicarbonate, carbonate and hydroxides of the hardness-producing metal ions. This is determined by titration with HCl using methyl orange as indicator.

(2) Permanent Hardness

- (a) It is due to the presence of dissolved chlorides and sulphates of calcium, magnesium, iron and other heavy metals. Hence, the salts responsible for permanent hardness are : CaCl₂, MgCl₂, CaSO₄, MgSO₄, FeSO₄, Al₂(SO₄)₃ etc. [UPTU, 2000]
- Unlike temporary hardness, permanent hardness is not destroyed on boiling.
 - (c) It is also known as non-carbonate or non-alkaline hardness.
 - (d) The difference between the total hardness and the alkaline hardness gives the non-alkaline hardness.



Q. What is carbonate and non-carbonate hardness?

Ans. Temporary hardness due to the presence of carbonates and bicarbonates is referred to as the Carbonate Hardness (CH) and the amount of hardness in excess of CH (*i.e.*, permanent hardness) is referred to as the non-carbonate hardness (NCH).

:. Total hardness = CH + NCH

Advantages and disadvantages of hard water are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Hard Water

S. No.	Hard Water				
	Advantages .	Disadvantages			
1.	The taste of hard water is usually better than soft water. The label on the bottle of mineral water shows that it contains Mg ²⁺ and Ca ²⁺ ions and it tastes good.	Hard water produces scum with soap. Thus, the washed clothes look dull. Efficiency of soap decreases in hard water so economy decreases. Boiler feed water should be free from			
2.	The dissolved calcium in hard water can help to produce strong teeth and healthy bones in children.				
3.	In old houses, lead piping was used for distribution of water. Hard water coats these water. In old houses, lead piping was used for distribution of water. Hard water coats these water.				

egree of Hardness

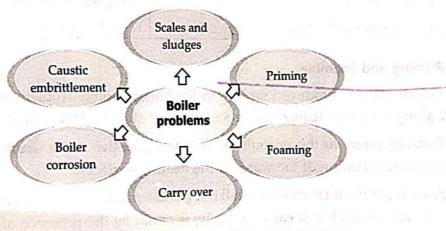
Although hardness of water is never present in the form of calcium carbonate because it is insoluble in water, hardness of water is conventionally expressed in terms of equivalent amount (equivalents) of CaCO₃.

BOILER FEED WATER (WATER FOR STEAM GENERATION)

Water is mainly used in boilers for the generation of steam (for industries and power houses). For such water all the impurities are not necessarily eliminated, and only those impurities which lead to operational troubles in boilers are eliminated or kept within the tolerable limits. A boiler-feed water should correspond with the following composition:

- (i) Its hardness should be below 0.2 ppm.
- (ii) Its caustic alkalinity (due to OH⁻) should lie in between 0.15 and 0.45 ppm.
- (iii) Its soda alkalinity (due to Na₂CO₃) should be 0.45-1 ppm. Excess of impurities, if present, in boiler feed water generally cause the following problems: Scale and sludge formation, corrosion, priming and foaming, caustic embrittlement.

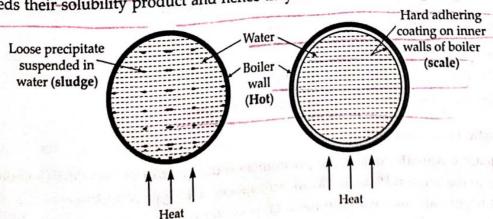
PROBLEMS CREATED BY HARD WATER IN BOILER [UPTU, 2010, 2005]



Summary of Boiler problems

Sludge and Scale Formation in Boilers [UPTU, 2007]

In a boiler, water is continuously evaporated to form steam. This increases the concentration of dissolved salts. Finally a stage is reached when the ionic product of these salts exceeds their solubility product and hence they are thrown out as precipitates.



Sludge and scale formation in boilers.

If the precipitates formed are soft loose and slimy, these are known as sludges; while if the precipitate is hard and adhering on the inner walls, it is called as scale.

The essential differences between sludges and scales are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4 Differences between Sludges and Scales

S.No.	Sludges	Scales	
1.	Sludges are soft, loose and slimy precipitate.	Scales are hard deposits.	
2.	They are non-adherent deposits and can be easily removed. They are non-adherent deposits and can be easily boiler and are very difficult to removed.		
3.	Formed by substances like CaCl ₂ , MgCl ₂ , MgSO ₄ , MgCO ₃ etc. Formed by substance like CaSO ₄ CaCO ₃ , CaSiO ₃ etc.		
4.	Formed at comparatively colder portions of the boiler. Formed generally at heated portions boiler.		
5.	They decrease the efficiency of boiler but are less dangerous. Decrease the efficiency of boiler and close of explosions are also there.		
6.	Can be removed by blow-down operation.	Cannot be removed by blow-down operation.	

6.2 Priming and Foaming

When steam is produced rapidly in the boilers, some droplets of the liquid water are carried along-with the steam. This process of 'wet-steam' formation, is called priming.

Priming refers to the propulsion of water into the steam drum by extremely rapid, almost explosive boiling of the water at the heating surfaces.

Foaming is the formation of small but persistent foam or bubbles at the water surface in boilers, which do not break easily. Foaming is caused by the presence of an oil and alkalis in boiler-feed water. Actually oils and alkalis react to form soaps which greatly lowers the surface tension of water and thus increase the foaming tendency of the liquid.

6.3 **Boiler Corrosion**

Boiler corrosion is "decay" or "disintegration" of boiler body material either due to chemical or electrochemical reaction with its environment having O_2 , CO_2 and mineral acids.

The disadvanatages of corrosion are:

- (i) Shortening of boiler life,
- (ii) leakages of the joints and rivets;
- (iii) increased cost of repairs and maintenance.

Caustic Embrittlement 6.4

Caustic embrittlement is the phenomenon during which the boiler material becomes brittle due to the accumulation of caustic substances. This type of boiler corrosion is caused by the use of highly alkaline water in the high pressure boiler. to read the place that appeals

ZEOLITE OR PERMUTIT PROCESS

Zeolites are naturally occurring hydrated sodium alumino silicate minerals capable of exchanging reversibly its sodium ions for hardness-producing ions in water. Zeolites are also known as permutits and in Greek it means 'boiling stone'.

The chemical formula of zeolite. [UPTU, 2011]

 $Na_2O.Al_2O_3.xSiO_2.yH_2O$ where x = 2-10 & y = 2-6.

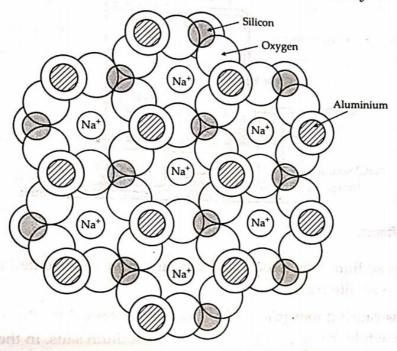


Figure 3 Structure of a naturally occuring zeolite, NaAlSiO₄. The sodium ions are loosely held in holes in the lattice.

A zeolite crystal can be considered to result from the linking of several SiO₄ tetrahedra, each oxygen of a tetrahedron being shared with an adjacent one. The empirical formula is thus (SiO₂)_n. However, some of the Si⁴⁺ ions may be isomorphostly replaced by Al³⁺ ions and in ^{order} to balance the charges an extra positive-ion such as Na⁺ and K⁺ must also be incorpotated for every Al3+ introduced. The linking of these tetrahedra results in an open structure with capities. The porous nature of the structure permits free movement of water molecules and ions.

Zeolites are of two types viz. natural and synthetic.

(i) Natural zeolites are non-porous, amorphous and durable for example, natrolite, Na₂O. Al₂O₃ . 4SiO₂ . 2H₂O.

(ii) Synthetic zeolites are porous and possess a gel structure. They are prepared by heating together sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), alumina (Al₂O₃) and silica (SiO₂).

Synthetic zeolites possesses higher exchange capacity per unit weight compared to hatural zeolites.

nifferences between Soft Water and Demineralised Water

	Soft Water	Demineralised Water	
	Soft water has hardness <= 85 ppm (CaCO ₃ eq.). Thus, soft water has more hardness than demineralised water.	Demineralised water does not have any salt (or cations & anions) present in it. So, hardness <<= 2 ppm.	
2.	It is fit for domestic use.	It is not recommended as such for drinking purposes.	
3.	It can be made by using either Lime-Soda process or Zeolite process.	It can be made either by distillation or by using cation & anion exchangers.	
4.	Soft water is unfit for feeding into boilers.	It is very good for use in high-pressure boilers.	

Regeneration. When capacities of cation and anion exchangers to exchange H+ and 0H ions respectively are lost, they are then said to be exhausted.

The exhausted cation exchange column is regenerated by passing a solution of dil. HCl or dil. H₂SO₄. The regeneration can be represented as :

$$(RSO_3^-)_2 M^{2+} + 2H^+ \longrightarrow 2RSO_3^-H^+ + M^{2+}$$
(Washing)

The column is washed with deionized water and washing (which contains Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, etc. and Cl^- or SO_4^{2-} ions) is passed to sink or drain.

The exhausted anion exchange column is regenerated by passing a solution of dil. NaOH. The regeneration can be represented as:

$$[RN^{+}(CH_{3})_{3}]_{2} A^{2-} + 2OH^{-} \longrightarrow 2[RN^{+}(CH_{3})_{3}]OH^{-} + A^{2-}$$
(Washing)

The column is washed with deionized water and washing (which contains Na+ and $\mathfrak{S}_4^{2^-}$ or Cl^- ions) is passed to sink or drain. The regenerated ion exchange resins are then used again.

Advantages

- (i) The process can be used to soften highly acidic or alkaline waters.
- (ii) It produces water of very low hardness (say 2 ppm). So, the treated water is very good for use in high pressure boilers.

Disadvantages

- (i) Capital cost is high since chemical and equipment both are costly.
- (ii) If water contains turbidity then the efficiency of the process is reduced.

In domestic water softening by ion exchange, total deionization is not necessary. Only the cations responsible for water hardness need to be removed. So, only a cation-exchanger in Na⁺ form is used. Its operation is reversible and regeneration is carried out using readily available, inexpensive NaCl solution (brine).

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The Pros and Cons of ion-exchange, zeolite and lime-soda processes are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6 Comparison of Ion-exchange, Zeolite (or Permutit) and Lime-soda processes
[UPTU, 2004, 2008, 2011]

S.No.	Characteristic	Ion-exchange process	Zeolite process	Lime-soda process
1.	Requirements	Cation and anion exchangers	zeolite	Lime, soda and coagulants
2.	Exchange of ions	Exchange of both cations and anions takes place	Exchange of only cations takes place	No exchange of ions.
3.	Capital cost	Very high	High	Low townster 5
4.	Operating expenses	High	Low	High
5.	Raw water	Should be non-turbid Both acidic or alkaline water can be treated Prior knowledge of hardness not required	 Should be non-turbid Should not be acidic Prior knowledge of hardness not required. 	Prior knowledge of hardness is essential
6.	Automation	Possible	Possible	Not possible
7.	Residual hardness	Least (0-2ppm)	Low (0-15 ppm)	High (15-50 ppm)

NOTES

- 1. Colloidal conditioning. Scale formation can be avoided in low pressure boilers by adding substances like kerosene, tannin, agar-agar, etc. which get adsorbed over the scale forming precipitates, thereby yielding non-sticky and loose deposits, which can easily be removed by blow-down operation.
- **2. Carbonate conditioning.** For a salt to be precipitated, the ions constituting the salt must be present in sufficient concentration so that the product of their concentrations (i.e., ionic product) exceeds a limiting value known as the solubility product. Thus, for a salt like $CaCO_3$ to be precipitated, the product of the concentrations of Ca^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} must exceed the solubility product of $CaCO_3$, represented as $K_{sp}^{CaCO_3}$.

When sodium carbonate solution is added to boiler water, the $[CO_3^{2-}]$ increases and when it becomes greater than K' $[SO_4^{2-}]$, only $CaCO_3$ gets precipitated. Moreover, $CaSO_4$ remains in solution so the deposition of scale-forming calcium sulphate is prevented.

$$CaSO_4 \xrightarrow{Na_2 CO_3} CaCO_3 \downarrow + Na_2SO_4$$

In high-pressure boilers, scale formation cannot be avoided by adding sodium carbonate to boiler water. This is because, in high pressure boiler, the CO_3^{2-} tons undergo hydrolysis to from OH $^-$ ions.

(i)
$$CO_3^{2-} + H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{High pressure}} HCO_3^- + OH^-$$

(ii)
$$HCO_3^- + H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{High pressure}} H_2O + CO_2 + OH^-$$

Because of the above two hydrolysis reactions (i) and (ii), the concentration of carbonate ions {i.e., $[CO_3^2]$ } gets reduced. Thus, it becomes impossible for solution to become saturated w.r.t. calcium or magnesium carbonate. As a consequence, precipitation and subsequent loose sludge formation due to $CaCO_3$ or $MgCO_3$ becomes impossible.

Moreover, due to hydrolysis reactions (i) and (ii), the hydroxide ion concentration {i.e., [OH]} becomes high which can lead to caustic embrittlement.

To sum up,

Carbonate conditioning is not done in high pressure boilers, because (a) it is not applicable, (b) It may lead to caustic embrittlement.

11 CALGON CONDITIONING [UPTU, 2007, 08]

It involves in adding sodium hexa meta phosphate (also known as **calgon**) to boiler water to prevent the scale and sludge formation. Calgon converts the scale forming impurity (like CaSO₄) into soluble complex compound, which are harmless to boiler.

$$Na_{2} [Na_{4}(PO_{3})_{6}] \Rightarrow 2Na^{+} + [Na_{4}(PO_{3})_{6}]^{2-}$$

$$Calgon$$

$$2CaSO_{4} + [Na_{4}(PO_{3})_{6}]^{2-} \longrightarrow [Ca_{2}(PO_{3})_{6}]^{2-} + 2Na_{2}SO_{4}$$

$$Soluble complex$$

$$(NaPO_{3})_{6}$$

Addition of 0.5-5 ppm of calgon prevents scale formation in one of the following ways:

- At low temperatures and pressures, it forms quite stable and soluble complexes with calcium salts,
- (ii) At high temperatures and pressures, calgon is converted into sodium orthophosphate which reacts with calcium salts to form calcium orthophosphate.

$$2\text{Na}_{2}[\text{Na}_{4}(\text{PO}_{3})_{6}] + 6\text{H}_{2}\text{O} \longrightarrow 6\text{Na}_{2}\text{P}_{2}\text{O}_{7} + 6\text{H}_{2}\uparrow$$

$$Ca\text{SO}_{4} \xrightarrow{\text{Na}_{2}\text{P}_{2}\text{O}_{7}} Ca\text{P}_{2}\text{O}_{7} + \text{Na}_{2}\text{SO}_{4}$$

$$Calcium \text{ orthophosphate (loosesludge)}$$

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Calcium orthophosphate appears as loose sludge and thus can be removed by blow-down operation.

Limitations of Calgon Conditioning

Calgon conditioning is not applicable for the prevention of iron oxide and copper depositions.

However, iron oxide and copper depositions can be prevented by adding EDTA or its sodium salt to the boiler water. In this method, the problem causing cations are converted into complexes, which will stay in "dissolved form" in water and thus do not cause any harm.

12 POTABLE WATER [UPTU, 2007]

Drinking or potable water is fit for human consumption. The common specifications or standards prescribed and recommended for drinking water are as follows:

- (i) It should be colourless and odourless,
- (ii) It should be good in taste,
- (iii) It should not be hot,
- (iv) Its turbidity should be less than 10 ppm,
- (v) It should be free from objectionable dissolved gases like H2S,
- (vi) It should be free from objectionable minerals such as lead, arsenic, chromium and manganese salts,
- (vii) Its alkalinity should not be high. pH should be in the range of 7.0 8.5.
- (viii) It should be reasonably soft, total hardness should be less than 500 ppm.
 - (ix) It should be free from diseases-producing microorganisms.
 - (x) chloride, Fluoride and sulphate contents should be less than 250 ppm, 1.5 ppm and 250 ppm respectively.

13 REVERSE OSMOSIS

13.1 Principle of Reverse Osmosis [UPTU, 2006]

Osmosis is the phenomenon by virtue of which flow of solvent takes place from a region of low concentration to high concentration when two solutions of different concentrations are separated by a semi-permeable membrane. The flow continues till the concentration is equal on both the sides. The driving force for osmosis is osmotic pressure. However, if a hydrostatic pressure in excess of osmotic pressure is applied on the concentrated side, the flow of solvent reverses as it is forced to move from concentrated side to dilute side across the membrane. This is the basis of reverse osmosis.