12	Disinfection
	Three basic strategies to keep microbiological contaminants out of drinking water:
	1. Keeping microbiota out of water source 2. Treating water to remove contaminants 3. Maintaining safe water distribution system
	Disinfection has two components:
	1. Primary disinfection - inactivation of microorganisms in the water 2. Secondary disinfection - maintaining disinfecting
	residual in distribution system
	History Source water protection and filtration used in second half of 1800s
	1880 Koch showed chlorine could mactivate bacteria
	1902 First used of chlorination for disinfecting water in Belgium
	1908 First use in US: Jersey City, NJ with calcium hypochlorite
	1913 First use of chlorine gas - Philadelphia
	1941 8590 of public supplies chlorinated
	mid-1970s Formation of THMs demanstrated
	1980s Giardia identified as important pathogen Cryptosporium identified more recently

Disinfection methods

- 1 Free chlorine most common
- 2 combined chlorine (chloramines)
- 3 Ozone strongest oxidant
- 4 Chlorine dioxide
- 5 UV light

Chemical disinfection kinetics

Chick's Law - Harriet Chick, 1908

phenol, mercuric chloride, silver nitrate

dh = -KN

N = number of organisms per volvine [1-3] K = Chick's Law constant [T-1]

Integrate to get:

 $Ln\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) = -kt$

No = starting number of organisms

Chick-Watson Model - Herbert Watson, 1908

cht = K achieves particular level of disinfection (i.e. N/No)

C = concentration of disinfectant

n = empirical const called "coefficient of dilution"

K = constant (function of microorganisms)

If n>1, disinfectant efficiency decreases
with dilution - concentration
is more important than time

n<1, time is more important than conc.

n = 1, time and conc equally important

n is slope of log C vs log t plot (see pg 4)
by convention, 9970 inactivation is plotted

If n = 1, then Chick- Watson model is=

 $\ln\left(\frac{N}{N_0}\right) = -\Lambda_{cw} Ct$

New = Chick-Watson coefficient
of specific lethality [L/mg·min]

Other models also exist - see MWH, 2005

Ct is specified by USEPA rules for Giardia and Cryptosporidium for different disinfectants and pH - unlike backeria, no easy tests for Giardia and Crypto, so regulation focuses on technology (expressed as Ct) rather than monitoring

Page 5 (from MWH, 2005, p. 1063) shows Ct to achieve 9990 removal by various technologies

Note: chlorine is relatively ineffective against

Cryptosporidium (C. Parvum)

UV is particularly effective against

Giadia and Crypto.

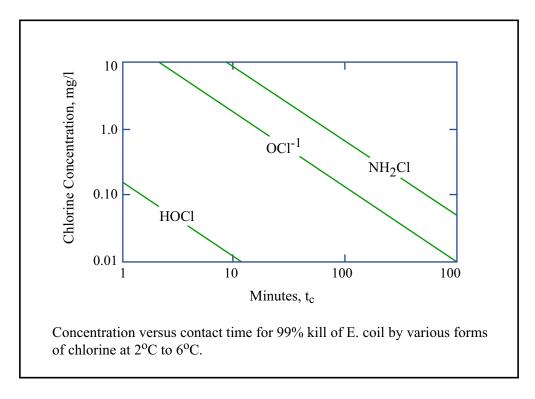


Figure by MIT OCW.

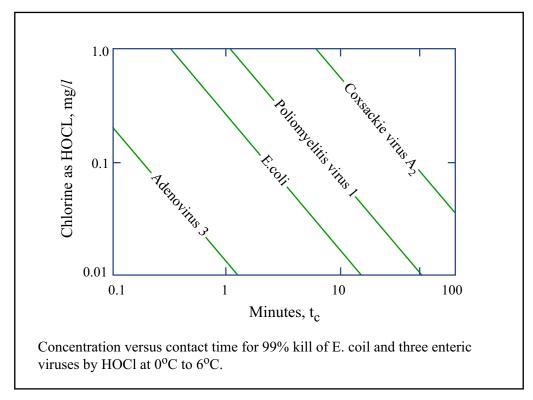
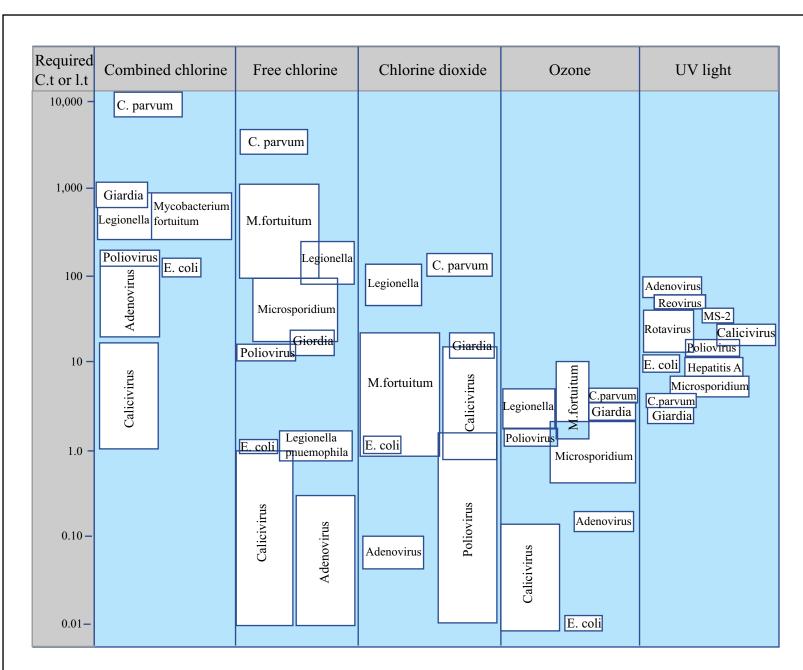


Figure by MIT OCW.

Adapted from: Reynolds, T. D., and P. A. Richards. *Unit Operations and Processes in Environmental Engineering*. 2nd ed. Boston, MA: PWS Publishing Company, 1996, pp. 742-743.



Overview of disinfection requirements for 99 percent inactivation.

Figure by MIT OCW.

Adapted from: MWH, J. C. Crittenden, R. R. Trussell, D. W. Hand, K. J. Howe, and G. Tchobanoglous. *Water Treatment: Principles and Design*. 2nd ed. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2005, p. 1063.

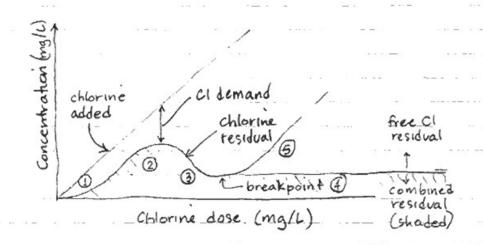
Most widely used	- effective at forms residue Drawback: fi	
Applied as d	hlorine gas or hy	pachlorite
Acts by oxi	dizing enzymes of etabolic processes	cells, preventing
Chlorine gas:	C12 + H20 -	+ HCI + HCI
		hypochlorous
	HOCL = H	+ + OCL-
	favored belowPH_7.5	hypochlorite ion (favored above pH 7.5)
Hypochlorite:		$\stackrel{0}{\Rightarrow} Ca^{+2} + 20Cl^{-}$
	119010	-> Nat + OCI-
chlorox is	5.2570 Na OCI	
v 12 11 1		equilibrates with HOCI

but both are excellent

HOCI reacts with ammonia = hypochlorous acid NH3 + HOC -> NH2C1 + H2O monochloramine favored at pH > 6 NH2C1 + 2HOCL -> NHC12 + 2H2O favored at pH 5 dichloramine NHC12 + 3HOCL -> NC13 + 3H20 nitrogen trichloride (trichloramine) chloramines are effective against bacteria (e.g. pipe growth) much less effective against viruses chloramine contributes to chlorine residual along with residual free chlorine (HOCL & OCL-) chloramines are longer lasting Chlorine also reacts with organics With phenol to form chlorophenols - strong taste and odor With NOM (natural organic matter, e.g. humic acids) to form tri-halo methanes (THMs) CHC13 chloroform bromodichloromethane CH Clabr CHCI Bry dibromochloromethane CHBr3 bromoform Known as DBP - disinfection by-products Problematic because IHMs are suspected human carcinogens

Chlorine dosage is determined so as to ensure adequate residual - known as breakpoint chlorination

Determined by lab experiments in which chlorine is added and residual is measured:



Chlorine demands =

ND3 , H25, Fe2+

1 At first, inorganic reducing chems Cl2 → 2CI

- 2 After satisfaction of initial demand, chloramines formed, creating combined residual
- 3 With increasing Cl dosage, formation favors
 dichloramine over monochloramine, then
 trichloramine over dichloramine. Trichloramine
 is unstable, breaks down to No and reduces
 chlorine residual
- 1 Low point of chlorine residual is "breakpoint"
- 5 Further increase in CI adds free residual

Desired dosage for water treatment is beyond the breakpoint Actual breakpoint concentration varies with the water quality of the raw water - typically 4-10 mg/L Desired residual = 0.2 mg/L at furthest point in distribution system

(Note 0.5 mg/L is generally objectionable to consumers)

Dechlorination

chlorination is also used as a final step in wastewater treatment but here residual chlorine has adverse effects on aquatic life and is not desired

Sulfur dioxide used to remove residual CI: $50_2(g) + H_2O \Rightarrow H_2SO_3 \Rightarrow H^+ + HSO_3$ $\Rightarrow Ulfile ion$ $\Rightarrow 2H^+ + SO_3^-$ Sulfile ion $\Rightarrow SO_3^{2^+} + HOCL \Rightarrow SO_4^{-2} + CI^- + H^+$ $\Rightarrow SO_3^{2^+} + NH_2Cl + H_2O \Rightarrow SO_4^{-2} + CI^- + NH_4^+$

Chlorination

Cl_added with proprietary chlorinators (see Fig 11.17 in VH text)

Desired Ct is best achieved in plug flow (or nearly plug flow) reactors

Typical chlorine confact chamber is serpentine chamber with baffles - see pg 10 - Figure from Droste, 1997, p. 522

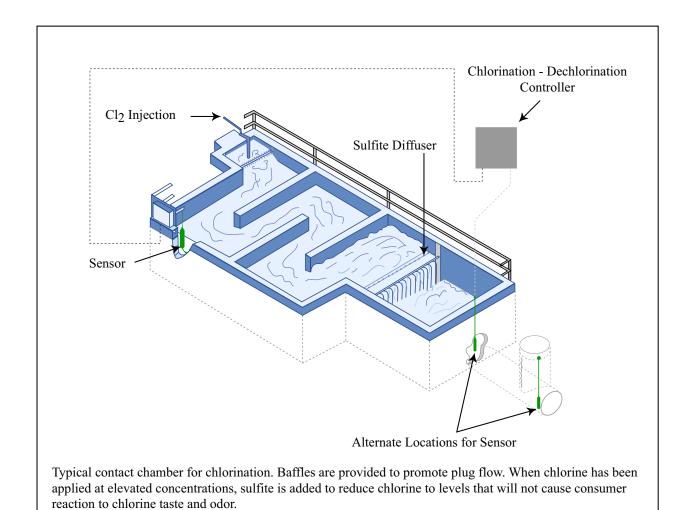


Figure by MIT OCW.

Adapted from: Binnie, C., M. Kimber, and G. Smethurst. Basic Water Treatment. 3rd ed. Cambridge, UK: Royal Society of Chemistry, 2002.

Ozonation

Ozone (03) is more powerful oxidant than HOCI

Ozone inactivates microorganisms by

- 1. Direct oxidation
- 2. Decomposition into hydroxyl radicals HO. which are also strong reactants

Widely used in Europe, increasingly used in Us

Advantages: excellent disinfectant (including for
Giardia and Cryptosporidium)

does not form THMs, chlorophenols

effective against taste and odor

requires short contact time

Disadvantages: short contact-time reactors prone
to short-circuiting
more costly than Cl2
does not create disinfecting residual

may produce harmful by-products ozone gas is potentially explosive

Ozone treatment design based on Ct, with consideration of ozone decay over time

Ozone is sparingly soluble - usually introduced as gas by fine-bubble porous diffusers in deep basins

Ozone consumption by specific water to be treated measured in lab (analogous to determining chlorine demand) Cresidual = Cdose - Cdemand

Decay of cresidual over time measured in lab reactors pulsed with ozone - c vs. t

Integrate Cys.t to get Ct

Ozone contactors usually introduce Oz and get water contact in same tank (pg 13 from MWH pg 1121)

Ozone bubbled into chamber creates fully-mixed

But desire plug flow to ensure Ct is achieved

Solution is to create tanks-in-series to approximate PFR

some designs seek counter-current flow to achieve better Oz transfer (bubble rise is slowed by counterflow of water)

Ozone is generated on-site in a corona discharge - electric arc generated by high voltage between two plates separated by air gap

oxygen radical

 $o_2 \longrightarrow 20^{\circ}$

 $O \cdot + O_2 \rightarrow O_3$

(Same effect as lightning storm)

Chlorine Dioxide Cloz

stronger oxidant than Cl2
creates long-lasting residual
effective against taste and odor
produces few by-products, however chlorate and chlorite
ions are produced but limited by regulations to non-toxic conc.
Widely used in Europe, less common in U.S.
More expensive than Cl2

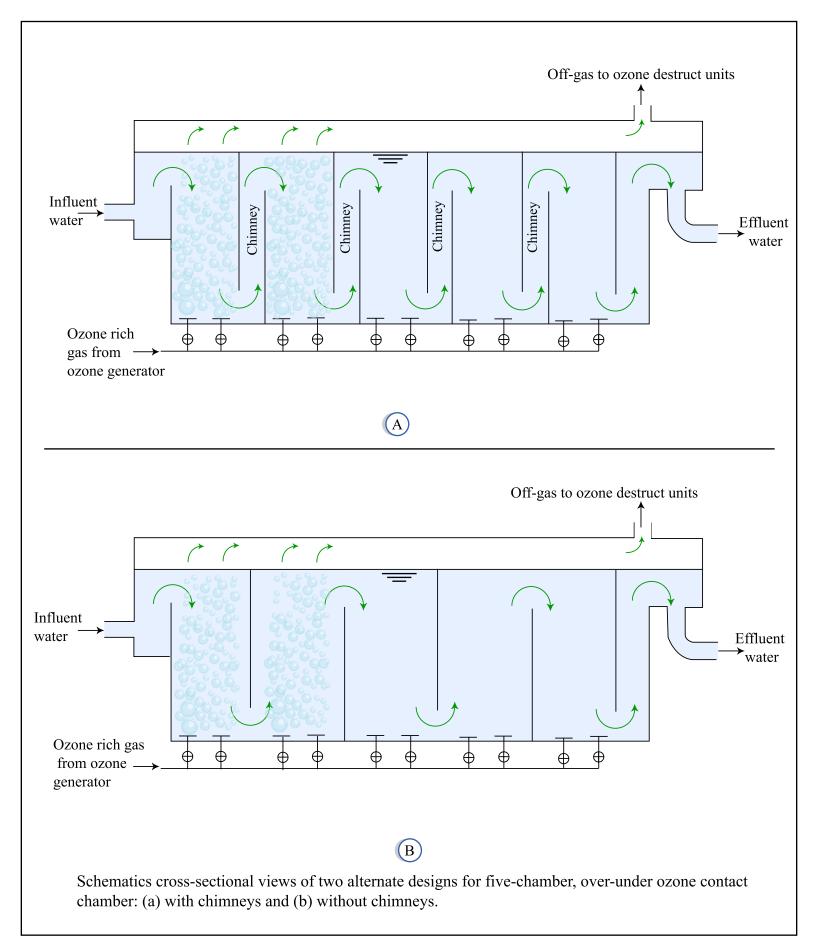


Figure by MIT OCW.

Adapted from: MWH, J. C. Crittenden, R. R. Trussell, D. W. Hand, K. J. Howe, and G. Tchobanoglous. *Water Treatment: Principles and Design*. 2nd ed. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2005, p. 1121.

UV radiation

Disinfects by:

damaging nucleic acids - DNA, RNA forms hydroxyl radicals - strong oxidant

200-300 nm wavelength is absorbed by DNA -> disinfecting range for UV (also range likely to cause skin cancer)

Very effective against cryptosporidum

Radiation produced by lamps

Low-pressure UV lamp - 254 nm only | see | Medium-pressure UV lamp - 210-300 nm range | Pg 15 | Medium pressure disinfects more but takes more power

Interferences due to

Absorption by dissolved substances in water shading of organisms by particulates

W contactors have very short residence times seconds to minutes Short-circuiting is a potential problem Somewhat move expensive than chlorination

Treatment equipment consists of array of electricity - powered lamps suspended in water flow - see picture pg. 16

Or, pipe with long lamp down the middle - pg. 17

SODIS - solar disinfection - is low-tech solution that uses sunlight to disinfect water

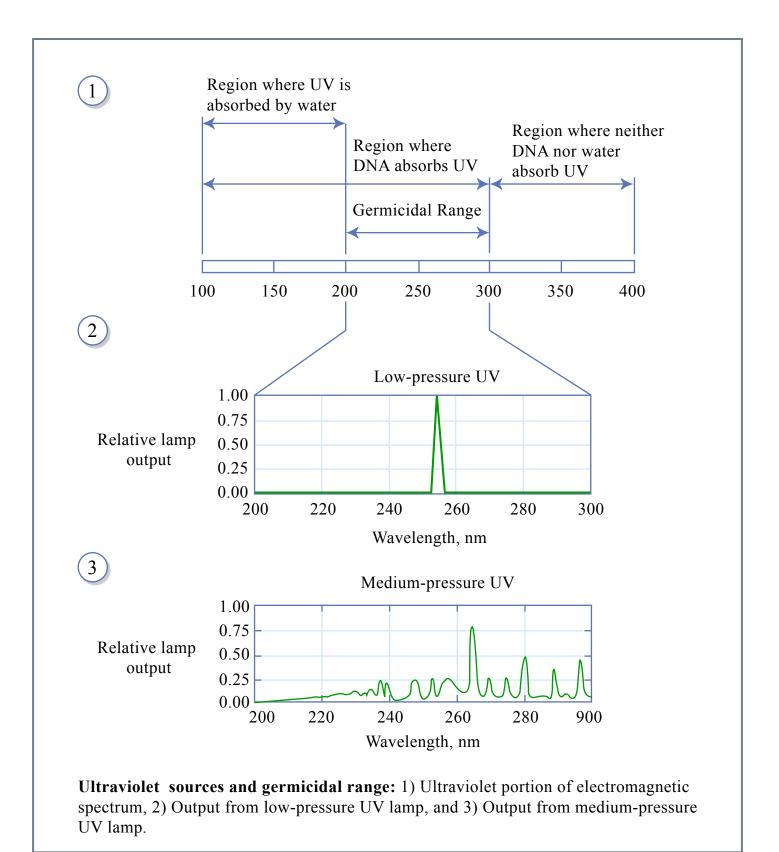
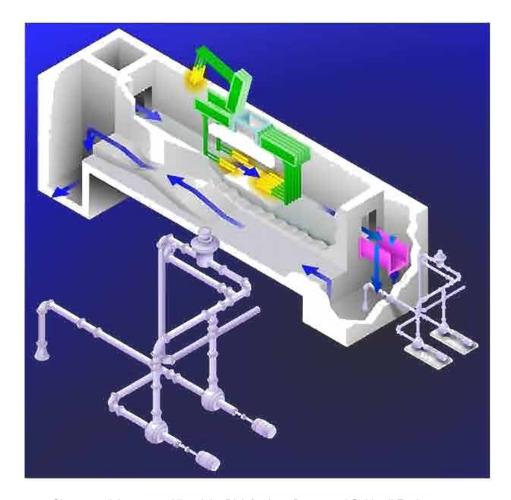


Figure by MIT OCW.



Clements, John, 2004. Ultraviolet Disinfection. Brown and Caldwell Engineers. February 2004. http://www.xaraxone.com/FeaturedArt/jc/html/08.htm Accessed 3/13/05

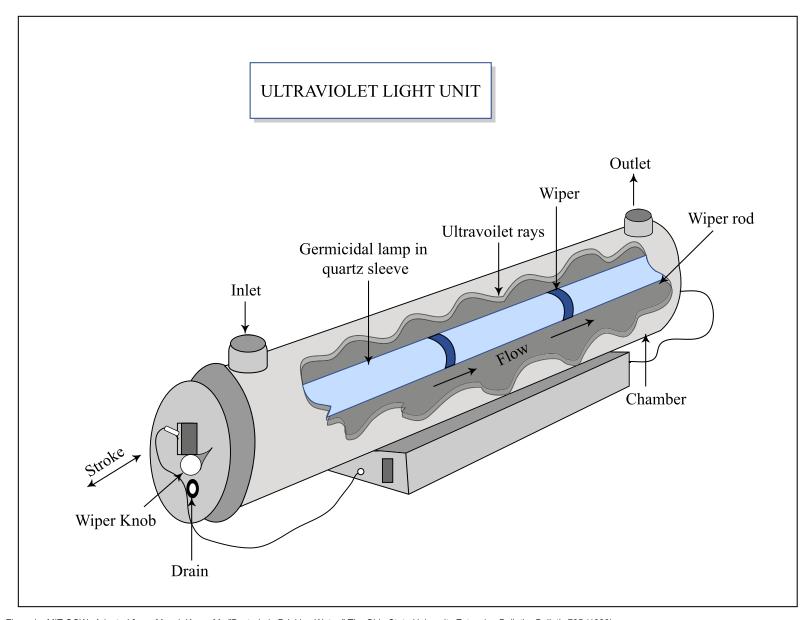


Figure by MIT OCW. Adapted from: Mancl, Karen M.. "Bacteria in Drinking Water." The Ohio State University Extension Bulletin. Bulletin 795 (1989).