T284

CENTRAL LIBRARY	•
TEZPUR UNIVERDIT	
Accession No. <u>T-284</u>	
Date_21/7/14.	

THESES & DISSERTATION SECTION CENTRAL LIBRARY, T.U.

REMOVAL OF ARSENIC AND IRON FROM GROUNDWATER BY OXIDATION-COAGULATION AT OPTIMIZED pH

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Shreemoyee Bordoloi

Registration No. 005 of 2011



Department of Chemical Sciences School of Sciences

> Tezpur University Napaam, Tezpur - 784028 Assam, India

> > November, 2013

Dedicated to Maa and Deuta

(Ms. Minu Bordoloi and Mr. Rajen Bordoloi)

REMOVAL OF ARSENIC AND IRON FROM GROUNDWATER BY OXIDATION-COAGULATION AT OPTIMIZED pH

ABSTRACT

This thesis describes a systematic laboratory and field study of arsenic and iron removal from contaminated groundwater by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH (OCOP) technique. Sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), potassium permanganate (KMnO₄) and ferric chloride (FeCl₃) were chosen as pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant, respectively. The thesis has been organized in four chapters dealing with different aspects of the study as follows:

- 1. Introduction: Narrates the background, motivation and the scope, objectives and plan of the present work.
- 2. Experimental: Describes the materials and the general experimental methods.
- 3. Results and Discussion: Presents the results, their interpretation, explanation and study of the mechanism involved in the removal process.
- 4. Conclusions: Summarizes the important findings and future scopes of the present investigation.

Chapter 1

1. Introduction

Chapter 1 contains the introduction part of the thesis. A detail analysis of arsenic contamination, its health impacts and mechanism of affect, the existing arsenic removal technologies, their merits and demerits are discussed in this chapter with reference to the literature. Since the removal of arsenic and iron is pH-dependent, different pH-conditioners *viz.*, lime, ash, carbonate and bicarbonate salts of sodium and potassium are used for pH conditioning to facilitate removal of arsenic. Choosing of the suitable pH-conditioner for removal of arsenic with an appropriate dose is necessary to ensure maximum removal of arsenic without adding residual ions arising from the dose and to avoid readjustment of the final pH of the treated water. These facts lead us to think it worthwhile to carry out a systematic study of arsenic removal by oxidation-coagulation by KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ through optimization of pH.

Iron in ferrous form usually coexists with arsenic in groundwater. The coexisting iron when removed by aerial oxidation also removes a part of the arsenic. We have chosen to carry out a pH-optimization for iron removal alone before taking up the works on pHoptimization for simultaneous removal of iron and arsenic, and the OCOP technique. The lacuna remaining in the area and the scope of the present topic of research has been discussed. The aims and objectives along with the strategy of the present work have been described towards the end of this chapter.

The main points considered for this investigation were to study the efficiency of different pH-conditioners with respect to dose and residence time, quantity of oxidant and · coagulant required for the treatment, pH, influence of competing anions on removal rate, analysis of the various water quality parameters before and after treatment, analysis of the precipitate obtained after treatment through different analytical tools and the cost of the treatment per liter of water. The whole work was driven by an instinct to provide a viable solution to the arsenic affected poor rural people.

Chapter 2

2. Experimental

This chapter consists of the description of the materials and the methods applied in this study. The ashes were obtained from banana pseudostem which is still used for cooking as a substitute of edible soda by villagers of Assam, a North-Eastern state in India. All the other required chemicals were analytical grade quality, obtained from Merck and Sigma Aldrich and used as such. The procedure of batch experiments for removal of arsenic and iron has been described here. Also the methods used for physico-chemical analyses of the water were described in details.

Concentration of arsenic, iron and other heavy metal ions were determined by using a Perkin Elmer Atomic Absorption spectrophotometer or an Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission spectrophotometer. The pH of the solutions was measured using a Orion multiparameter kit. The characterization of precipitate obtained after treatment was done by using FTIR, XRD, SEM and EDX analysis. The detailed description of the instruments along with methods has been included in this chapter.

Chapter 3

3. **Results and Discussion**

This chapter describes the results of the experiments, their interpretation, explanation and study of the mechanism involved in the removal process. For systematic organization, this chapter has been sub-divided into four major sections as follows.

3.1 pH-conditioning for removal of iron

As mentioned earlier, we have studied the effects of pH-conditioning on removal of iron from groundwater since iron usually coexists with arsenic and also influences the removal of arsenic. The results on the experiments on removal of iron by using bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium, and banana ash, and their 1:1 binary mixture as pH-conditioner have been discussed in this section. Results of the batch tests have been analysed to assess performance and optimize the process for iron removal by these pHconditioners. The different parameters considered for this experiment were the quantity of ash or/and salt required, the effect of residence time, the effluent water pH and effect of initial concentration of iron. Both distilled water containing iron and groundwater amended with iron have been used in the study. The bicarbonates, especially, that of potassium, have been found to be the most effective for removal of iron. The pH of the treated water remains in the acceptable range for drinking when the bicarbonates are used. The sludge produced after the treatment were analysed by using various analytical techniques, *viz.*, FTIR, XRD, SEM-EDX and the mechanism involved in the treatment process have been discussed in detail in this section.

3.2 pH-conditioning for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron

In the second section the results of the experiment on simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron by using lime, banana ash, bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium and their 1:1 binary mixture as pH-conditioner have been discussed in this section. The parameters considered for this experiment were similar to that of the previous section. The arsenic removal in presence of the pH conditioners has been found to increase in the order: banana ash < carbonates < bicarbonates < lime. However, only the bicarbonate salts provide the suitable pH condition for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions. The potassium salts are more efficient than the corresponding sodium salts.

Abstract

However, sodium bicarbonate has also been found to be useful. Lime is disadvantageous because it requires post-treatment correction of highly alkaline pH.

3.3 Arsenic and iron removal by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH (OCOP) method

The results of the batch tests of simultaneous removal of iron and arsenic by OCOP method by using sodium bicarbonate as pH-conditioner, potassium permanganate as oxidant and ferric chloride as coagulant have been discussed in this section. The different parameters considered in this study were the effect of doses of pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant, pH of the effluent water, effects of initial concentration of dissolved arsenic and iron, and effect of the presence of coexisting competing amons. Based on these, the doses of the pH-conditioner, oxidant and the coagulant have been optimized. The sludge produced after the treatment were analysed by using various analytical techniques, *viz.*, FTIR, XRD, SEM-EDX and the mechanism involved in the treatment process have been discussed. The sludge has also been examined with respect to leaching of arsenic and sludge-disposal.

3.4 Field trial of the OCOP method

User trial of the OCOP method with optimized doses of pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant was carried out in different arsenic affected areas in Assam. The doses used for water with arsenic along with iron less than 1 mg/L were: 0.1 g/L of NaHCO₃, 0.5 mg/L of KMnO₄ and 25 mg/L of FeCl₃ as solid powder, 5% and 25% stock solutions, respectively. For the water containing 1-5 mg/L iron ions a higher dose of 4 mg/L of KMnO₄ was used. For the water containing above 5 mg/L iron ions, we added KMnO₄ solution until it imparts a light pink colour to the water. The colour however disappears after coagulation.

Different types of low-cost units with different capacities were installed at household and small community levels. User trainings were conducted for application of the method as well as for collection of samples of treated water for further analysis. The field trial was conducted at all together 16 spots water sources which included 10 households with 10 L, 5 schools with 25 L and 1 school with 200 L capacity units. The results obtained after treatment of arsenic containing water with the OCOP technique has been described in this section. The initial concentration of arsenic and iron were in the ranges of 196.43-238.12 μ g/L and 0.136-16.25 mg/L, respectively. In all cases, the final

concentration of arsenic and iron were found to be in the ranges of $3.57-9.21 \ \mu g/L$ and $0.064-0.360 \ mg/L$, respectively. Arsenic removal was found to be better with lower concentration of co-existing iron.

Chapter 4

4. **Conclusions and future scope**

This is the concluding chapter of the thesis. It delineates the final remarks and future scope of this work. The bicarbonate salts of Na and K provide the best pH condition for removal of arsenate and iron ions. The bicarbonates retain the final pH within the acceptable range for drinking. Though, potassium bicarbonate has been found to be more efficient pH-conditioner than sodium bicarbonate, the later is more preferable due to its easy availability and familiarity among common people.

Removal of arsenic and iron by the OCOP method using NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ as pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant, respectively, is highly efficient for simultaneous removal of both arsenic and iron from groundwater. The results of the field trial including the potability of the treated water are promising. This together with high efficiency, low-cost, simplicity of operation, safety and environment-friendliness and option of non-requirement of electricity suggest that the OCOP method has a great potential for arsenic removal in rural areas where alternate arsenic-free water is not available.

Finally, the findings of the present work and the proven applicability of the present method of arsenic and iron removal open up scopes for future research and development works, *viz.*, better management and utilization of the solid sludge, developing sophisticated domestic arsenic and iron removal units and field trial of the technique at large community water supply system. The present OCOP method can also be studied for removal of other heavy metals from groundwater.

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

The thesis entitled "Removal of arsenic and iron from groundwater by oxidationcoagulation at optimized pH" is being submitted to the Tezpur University in partial fulfillment for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Chemical Sciences is a record of bonafide research work accomplished by me under the supervision of Dr. Robin K. Dutta.

All helps received from various sources have been duly acknowledged. No part of this thesis has been submitted elsewhere for award of any degree.

Date: 06/11/2013 Place: Tezpur Skreemoyee Bordoloi

Shreemoyee Bordoloi Department of Chemical Sciences Tezpur University



TEZPUR UNIVERSITY (A Central University by an Act of Parliament) Napaam, Tezpur-784028 DISTRICT: SONITPUR::ASSAM::INDIA

Ph. 03712-267008 (O) 9435006674 (M) Fax: 03712-267006 Email: robind@tezu.ernet.in

CERTIFICATE OF THE SUPERVISOR

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "Removal of arsenic and iron from groundwater by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH" submitted to the School of Sciences, Tezpur University in partial fulfillment for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Chemical Sciences is a record of research work carried out by Miss Shreemoyee Bordoloi under my supervision and guidance.

All helps received from various sources have been duly acknowledged.

No part of this thesis has been submitted elsewhere for award of any degree.

Date: 6/11/2013 Place: Tezpur Robin K. Dutta Professor Department of Chemical Sciences Tezpur University

Preface

Water is considered as "the life line" for every living organism. Arsenic is a carcinogenic, inorganic water pollutant contaminates groundwater as well as surface water originating from some geological and anthropogenic activities. It is creating menace worldwide as a long time exposure of arsenic of drinking water can cause severe health problems including cancer. Therefore, removal to arsenic from groundwater has a prime importance in context of water purification. Various conventional and advanced treatment methods have been proposed for removal of arsenic from groundwater under both laboratory and field conditions. However, still an efficient method of arsenic removal which is economic, with minimized disadvantages and suitable for household and small community scale application in the rural areas is yet to be developed.

Coagulation-precipitation is one of the most cost-effective and efficient methods for removal of arsenic. Ferric salts have been found to be quite promising in removing arsenic and effective over a wider range of pH. A coagulant alone cannot give efficient removal of arsenic in +III state. Since, As(V) is easier to remove than As(III), oxidation prior to coagulation to convert As(III) to As(V) species should be considered first. This can be achieved by the addition of efficient oxidizing agents prior to coagulation. $KMnO_4$ is a preferred oxidizing agent for the oxidation of As(III) to As(V) as it is cost-effective, easy to preserve and to handle in practice, especially for small systems in rural areas. Although the pH dependence of arsenic and iron removal by coagulation-precipitation is well known, there has been no report of any systematic comparative study of the efficiencies of different pH-conditioners in the simultaneous removal. Therefore, efficiencies of lime, ash, carbonates and bicarbonates of Na and K are studied as pH-conditioners to remove arsenic from water. The aim of the present work is to systematically study (including field trial) simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron based on oxidationcoagulation at optimized pH (OCOP) to develop a simple, efficient, low-cost, user and environment friendly method. We have chosen NaHCO₃ as pH-conditioner, KMnO₄ as oxidant and $FeCl_3$ as coagulant for the OCOP method.

This research was carried out in the Department of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University with financial assistance from the Department of Science and Technology (DST), Govt. of India, in the form of a project to my supervisor (DST/TSG/WP/2007/14) and latter from the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), Govt. of India, in the form of a Senior Research Fellowship to me.

Shreemoyee Bordoloi

Acknowledgements

It is a matter of great pleasure and privilege for me to express my deepest sense of gratitude and indebtedness to my PhD supervisor Dr. Robin K. Dutta for his constant support and valuable guidance to undertake the present research work. I am always thankful to him for introducing me to this exciting and interesting field of research. His tireless enthusiasm, valuable suggestions, constructive criticisms were always a source of inspiration for me to complete the work with ease and confidence. I am very much thankful to his family, Dr. Mira Dutta, his wife, and two cute daughters Narji and Tora for their love and support.

I take this opportunity to express my sincere thanks to the Head, Department of Chemical Sciences, for giving me the opportunity to work in this department. With the deep sense of gratitude, I would like to thank my doctoral committee members, Prof. S. K. Dolui, Dept. of Chemical Sciences and Dr. R. R. Houque, Dept. of Environmental Sciences, Tezpur University for their constant inspiration and valuable suggestions during my research work. I specially want to thank Prof. P. K. Gogoi, Dept. of Chemistry, Dibrugarh University and every faculty members of the Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University for their encouraging words and helpful advice.

I am grateful to the administrative and technical staff of the Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Dr. B. Gohain, M. Sarma, N. Dutta, S. Phukon, R. K. Borah, B. Borah, A. Chakraborti, B. Das and H. Gogoi for their help and technical support.

I would like to thank M. Nath of NERIWALM, Tezpur for his help in metal analysis. My sincere thanks goes to technical staff of the Dept. of Physics and Dept. of Environmental Sciences, Tezpur University for XRD, SEM-EDX and ICP analyses.

I am very much thankful to DST, New Delhi for financial assistance through the project, (No. DST/TSG/WP/2007/14) and CSIR, New Delhi for an award of SRF to carry out the research work conveniently.

I am thankful to the library staff and administrative staff of Tezpur University for their cooperation. I would like to express my sincere thanks and gratitude to the authorities of Tezpur University for giving the permission to carry out this work.

I cannot express enough my gratitude to my labmates, Suresh da, Bornali ba, Anisha and Sweety for being always available when I needed their help, their stimulating suggestions and encouragement in the time of research and completion of this thesis.

I am very much thankful to some research scholars of Tezpur University, specially, Pinkee ba, Kanan ba, Amar, Madhurjya, Dhruba, Rasna, Jeena, Rashmi, Murshid, Rekha, Nibedita, Bhaskar, Pronab, Manalisha, Chandramika, Shymalima, Prasanta, Debabrata and Pankoj for their help and encouragement. I want to share love and gratitude to my entire research scholar friends from the Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Dept. of Physics, Dept. of EVS, Dept. of MBBT and

Acknowledgement

Dept. of FPT for their support and valuable conversations during my research work in Tezpur University.

My special thanks to Dr. Surajit Konwer for his help and moral support in this period of work. Also I am grateful to my friend Pallabi, Pranjol and Korobi for their timely help in many situations.

I would like to give special and sincere thanks to my beloved parents and my sisters Pori and Maina, my brother Polash, brother-in-law Montu and Jaan and all other family members for their unwavering encouragement.

Finally, I acknowledge my indebtedness to the Almighty who made everything possible for me.

Shreemoyee Bordoloi Tezpur University Contents'

Contents	Pages
Abstract	i-v
Preface	viii
Acknowledgements	ix-x
Contents	xi-xviii
List of Tables	xix-xxii
List of Figures	xxiii-xxvi
Abbreviations and symbols	xxvii-xxviii

Chapter 1

,

.

1.	Intr	roduction					
	1.1	Arsenic, the element					
		1.1.1	Natural a	abundance and distribution of arsenic	1		
		1.1.2	State of a	arsenic in water	2		
		1.1.3	Arsenic	distributions vs. pH	3		
		1.1.4	Drinking	water criteria for arsenic	4		
	 1.2 Global scenario of arsenic contamination 1.2.1 Indian scenario of arsenic contamination 1.2.2 Arsenic contamination in North-East India 				4		
					5		
					5		
		1.2.3	Arsenic	contamination of groundwater in Assam	6		
		1.2.4	Toxicity	oxicity and health effects of arsenic exposure			
	1.2.4.1 Mechanism of arsenic toxicity				7		
	1.3	Mitiga	ation of ar	senic menace	8		
		1.3.1	Alternati	ve water sources	8		
		1.3.2	Removal	of arsenic from groundwater	9		
	1.3.3 Better nutrition				9		
	1.4	Existi	ng arsenic	removal methods	9		
		1.4.1	Precipita	tive techniques	9		
	1.4.1.1 Coagulation/precipitation				9		

		1.4.1.2	Coagulation assisted microfiltration	11
	1.4.2	Adsorpti	ve techniques	11
		1.4.2.1	Activated alumina	11
		1.4.2.2	Granular Ferric Hydroxide	12
		1.4.2.3	Nanoadsorbents	12
	1.4.3	Membra	ne processes	12
		1.4.3.1	Microfiltration	12
		1.4.3.2	Ultrafiltration	13
		1.4.3.3	Nanofiltration	13
		1.4.3.4	Reverse osmosis	13
		1.4.3.5	Electrodialysis	14
	1.4.4	Ion exch	ange	14
	1.4.5	Other tec	chnologies	15
		1.4.5.1	Iron-manganese oxidation	15
		1.4.5.2	Iron Oxide coated sand	15
		1.4.5.3	Zero-valent iron	15
		1.4.5.4	Lanthanum compounds	16
		1.4.5.5	Zeolites	16
		1.4.5.6	Manganese greensand	16
		1.4.5.7	Goethite	16
		1.4.5.8	Manganese coated sand	16
		1.4.5.9	In situ (sub-surface) arsenic immobilization	16
		1.4.5.10	Biological treatment	17
		1.4.5.11	Solar oxidation	17
1.5	A con	nparison o	f the existing arsenic removal methods	17
1.6	Arsen	ic removal	by oxidation-coagulation	20
	1.6.1	pH-cond	itioning in arsenic and iron removal by	22
		oxidation	n-coagulation methods	
	1.6.2	Correlati	on between arsenic and iron contamination	22
		of groun	dwater	
		1.6.2.1	Iron distribution vs. pH	23
1.7	The L	acuna		24
1.8	Aim of the present work 25			

Contents

		1.8.1	Selection	n of the pH-conditioner, the oxidant and the	26	
			coagular	nt		
	1.9	Object	tives		26	
	1.10	The st	rategy		27	
Cha	pter	2				
2.	Mate	Iaterials and Methods				
	2.1	Materi	ials		29	
		2.1.1	Banana	ash	29	
		2.1.2	Chemica	als	29	
		2.1.3	Water		29	
			2.1.3.1	Preparation of synthetic iron-containing water	30	
			2.1.3.2	Preparation of synthetic arsenic-containing water	30	
	2.2	Analy	tical Tool	S	30	
	2.3	·		31		
		Methods	Methods of study of pH-conditioning for removal			
			of iron			
			2.3.1.1	Batch experiments	31	
			2.3.1.2	Analysis of the iron precipitate	31	
		2.3.2	Methods	s of study of pH-conditioning for simultaneous	31	
			removal	of arsenate and iron		
			2.3.2.1	Batch experiments	31	
			2.3.2.1	Analysis of the precipitate	32	
		2.3.3	Methods	s of study of removal of arsenic and iron by	32	
			OCOP			
			2.3.3.1	Batch experiments	32	
			2.3.3.2	Effect of initial concentration of arsenic	32	
			2.3.3.3	Effect of the presence of co-existing anions	32	
				in the water		
			2.3.3.4	Study of the precipitation of arsenic and iron	32	

	2.3.3.5	2.3.3.5 Leachability test of the precipitate obtained				
		after OCOP treatment				
	2.3.3.6	Pilot study	33			
	2.3.3.7	Study of the relevant water quality parameters	34			
		before and after OCOP treatment				
2.3.4	Field Trial					
	2.3.4.1	Selection of site	34			
	2.3.4.2	User training and demonstration	35			
	2.3.4.3	Design and fabrication of Arsiron Nilogon	38			
		systems of different capacities				
	2.3.4.4	Monitoring of the user trial	41			
	2.3.4.5	Collection of solid sludge	42			

Chapter 3

3.	Res	Results and discussion				
	3.1	pH-co	conditioning for removal of iron			
		3.1.1	Batch st	udy	43	
			3.1.1.1	Iron ion removal from high initial	43	
				concentration using banana ash		
			3.1.1.2	Iron ion removal with K ₂ CO ₃ and Na ₂ CO ₃	45	
			3.1.1.3	Iron ion removal with KHCO3 and NaHCO3	47	
			3.1.1.4	The reason for better performance of	50	
				bicarbonate salts than carbonate salts of		
				Na and K		
			3.1.1.5	The reason for better performance of K-salts	50	
				than the corresponding Na-salt		
			3.1.1.6	Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures	50	
				of the carbonate and bicarbonate salts with		
				the ash		
			3.1.1.7	Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures	52	
				of the potassium bicarbonate and carbonate		
				salts of Na and K		

	3.1.1.8	Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures	54
		of the sodium bicarbonate and carbonate	
		salts of Na and K	
	3.1.1.9	Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures	56
		of the bicarbonate salts of Na and K	
	3.1.1.10	The shapes of the curves of remaining iron	58
		and final pH vs. dose	
	3.1.1.11	KHCO ₃ alone is the best choice	58
	3.1.1.12	Effect of initial iron ion concentration on	59
		removal with KHCO3 from distilled water	
		and groundwater	
	3.1.1.13	Minimum dose of potassium bicarboante	61
		required for removal of iron to 0.3 mg/L	
		from different initial concentration of iron	
	3.1.1.14	General remarks on effect of residence time	62
		and dose	
3.1.2	Analysis	of iron ion precipitate	63
	3.1.2.1	XRD analysis	63
	3.1.2.2	FTIR analysis	64
	3.1.2.3	SEM-EDS analysis	65
	3.1.2.4	About slower iron ion removal by	65
		bicarbonates	
3.1.3	Cost-ben	nefit and suitability analysis	65
3.1.4	Summar	у	66
pH-ce	onditioni	ng for simultaneous removal of arsenate	67-88
and i	ron		
3.2.1	Batch ex	periments	67
	3.2.1.1	Removal with individual pH conditioners	67
	3.2.1.2	Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron	68
		with lime and banana ash	
	3.2.1.3	Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron	70
		with carbonate salts of Na and K	

		3.2.1.4	Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron	71
			with bicarbonate salts of Na and K	
		3.2.1.5	pH of the treated water	73
		3.2.1.6	Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron	74
			with 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonate	
			salts with the ash	
		3.2.1.7	Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron	76
			using 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonates	
			and carbonates of Na and K	
		3.2.1.8	Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron	77
			using 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonates	
			of Na and K	
		3.2.1.9	The optimum dosage	79
		3.2.1.10	Effect of initial concentrations of iron ion	81
			on arsenate removal	
	3.2.2	Mechani	sm of removal	83
3.2.3 Precipita		Precipita	ate study	
		3.2.3.1	FTIR analysis	85
		3.2.3.2	XRD analysis	86
		3.2.3.3	SEM-EDS analysis	87
	3.2.4.	Summar	у	87
3.3	Arser	nic and ir	on removal by oxidation-coagulation at	89-108
	optim	nized pH	(OCOP) method	
	3.3.1	Batch ex	periments	90
		3.3.1.1	Effect of coagulant dose on As and Fe	90
			removal	
		3.3.1.2	Effect of oxidant dose on As and Fe removal	94
		3.3.1.3	Effect of pH-conditioner dose on As and Fe	96
			removal	
		3.3.1.4	Effect of initial dissolved iron ions	97
	3.3.2	Effect o	f competing ions	98
	3.3.3	Analysi	s of the precipitate	101

			3.3.3.1	FTIR analysis	101
			3.3.3.2	XRD analysis	102
			3.3.3.3	SEM-EDS analysis	103
		3.3.4	Potabili	ty of the treated water	104
			3.3.4.1	Relevant water quality parameters before	104
				and after treatment	
			3.3.4.2	Bacteriological quality of the water	106
		3.3.5	Environ	mental impact	106
			3.3.5.1	Leachability test for arsenic in the sludge	106
				after water treatment	
		3.3.6	Suitabil	ity assessment	106
		3.3.7	Summa	ry	107
	3.4	Field (trial of th	e OCOP method	109-115
		3.4.1	Field tr	al of the OCOP method with $< 1.0 \text{ mg/L}$	109
			dissolve	ed iron	
			3.4.1.1	Procedure of the OCOP method	109
			3.4.1.2	Performance of the OCOP method with	111
				<1.0 mg/L dissolved iron	
		3.4.2	Field tri	al of the OCOP method with 1-5 mg/L	113
			dissolve	ed iron	
		3.4.3	Field tri	al of the OCOP method with $> 5 \text{ mg/L}$	113
			dissolve	ed iron	
		3.4.4	Post fie	ld-trial status	114
		3.4.5	Summa	ry	115
Chaj	pter 4	,			117-119
4.	Conc	lusion	s and fut	ure scope	117-119
	4.1	Conclu	usions		117
	4.2	Future	scope		119
Refe	rence	S			121-148
List	of pu	blicatio	ons		149-151

Table	Title	Pages
	Chapter 1: Introduction	
1.1	Advantages and disadvantages of some existing arsenic removal techniques.	18-19
1.2	Comparison of different oxidizing agents.	21
	Chapter 2: Experimental	
2.1	Relevant parameters of groundwater used in laboratory experiments.	29
	Chapter 3: Results and discussion	
3.1	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by banana ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	44
3.2a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	45
3.2b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	46
3.3a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by potassium bicarbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	48
3.3b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by sodium bicarbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	48
3.4a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	51
3.4b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	51
3.5a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	53
3.5b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	53

3.6a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	55
3.6b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	55
3.7	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 mixture of bicarbonate salts of Na and K from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].	57
3.8a	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by KHCO ₃ from distilled water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L.	59
3.8b	Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by KHCO ₃ from groundwater water prefabricated with different initial [Fe] in mg/L.	60
3.9	Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by lime and banana ash from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	68
3.10	Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by carbonate salts of K and Na from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	70
3.11	Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by bicarbonate salts of K and Na from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	72
3.12a	pH of the water after treatment by bicarbonate and carbonate salts of K and Na, lime and ash alone.	73
3.12Ъ	pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonate and carbonate salts of K and Na, and ash.	74
3.13	Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonate salts of K and Na and banana ash from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	75
3.14	Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of potassium bicarbonate and carbonates of K and Na from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	76

...

List of Tables

•

3.15	Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of sodium bicarbonate and carbonates of Na and K from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	76
3.16	Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonates of Na and K from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	78
3.17	$D_{As,max}$ and $D_{Fe,min}$ of the pH conditioners that can simultaneously remove the arsenate and iron ions to the respective guideline values at fixed initial concentrations of iron and arsenate ions of 20 mg/L and 0.25 mg/L, respectively, along with ΔW and ΔpH for distilled water.	80
3.18	$D_{As,max}$ and $D_{Fe,min}$ of KHCO ₃ that can simultaneously remove arsenate and iron ions to the respective guideline values from different initial concentrations of iron ion and a fixed initial arsenate concentration of 0.25 mg/L along with ΔW and ΔpH with distilled water and groundwater.	80
3.19	Remaining [Fe] and [As] of the water after treatment by KHCO ₃ from distilled water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L and fixed initial [As] of 0.25 mg/L.	82
3.20	Remaining [Fe] and [As] of the water after treatment by KHCO ₃ from ground water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L and fixed initial [As] of 0.25 mg/L.	82
3.21	Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As] ₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of FeCl ₃ with fixed doses of KMnO ₄ (3.16 μ M) and NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM).	90-91
3.22	Residual [Fe] in μ M after treatment of arsenic from different initial [As] ₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) with varying dose of FeCl ₃ with fixed doses of KMnO ₄ (3.16 μ M) and NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM).	91-92
3.23	Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As] ₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of KMnO ₄ with fixed doses of FeCl ₃ (154.1 μ M) and NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM)	94
3.24	Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As] ₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of NaHCO ₃ with fixed doses of FeCl ₃ (154.1 μ M) and KMnO ₄ (3.16 μ M).	96

•

•

3.25a	Physicochemical water quality parameters and anion concentrations in water before and after arsenic removal by the OCOP treatment.	105
3.25b	Concentration of the metal ions in water before and after arsenic removal by the OCOP treatment.	105
3.26	Bacteriological quality of the As-containing water before and after treatment.	106
3.27	Doses of the chemicals in mg/L for iron-free and iron containing water with arsenic concentration in the range of 100-500 μ g/L.	110
3.28a	[As] (in μ g/L) and [Fe] (in mg/L) before and after treatment by the present OCOP method in some field water from tube wells at schools (S) and households (H) in Jorhat district along with standard deviations (SD).	112
3.28b	[As] (in μ g/L) and [Fe] (in mg/L) before and after treatment by the present OCOP method in some field sample at schools (S) and households (H).	112

Figure	Title	Pages
	Chapter 1: Introduction	
1.1	The Eh-pH diagram for arsenic at 25°C.	3
1.2	The Eh-pH diagram for iron at 25°C	24
	Chapter 2: Experimental	
2.1	Picture of the bench scale pilot experimental set up.	34
2.2	Instruction manual that we supplied to the village people and schools in English language.	36
2.3	Instruction manual that we supplied to the village people and schools in local Assamese language.	37
2.4	Photographs taken during demonstration of 'Arsiron Nilogon' in different areas in Assam.	38
2.5	Arsenic removal systems of different capacities.	39
2.6	Various 'Arsiron Nilogon' units installed at different areas in Assam.	40
2.7	Kit supplied to the schools and the families.	41
2.8	An earthen pot sand filter for collecting the sludge.	42
	Chapter 3: Results and discussion	
3.1	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of added ash in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	45
3.2	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of added carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	47
3.3	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	49
3.4	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K and ash in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	52

3.5	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added potassium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	54
3.6	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of sodium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L at varying residence time from initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	56
3.7	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.	57
3.8	Remaining [Fe] in mg/L after treatment and pH vs. amount of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L of water from varying initial concentration of iron.	60
3.9	The minimum dose of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L required to bring iron to below 0.3 mg/L.	62
3.10	XRD of the precipitate formed after treatment.	63
3.11	FTIR spectra of the precipitate formed after treatment.	64
3.12	SEM-EDS of the precipitate formed after treatment.	65
3.13	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L and pH vs. amount of pH-conditioners in mg/L lime (a), banana ash (b) of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)]= 20 mg/L and [As(V)]= 0.25 mg/L.	69
3.14	Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of carbonate salts of K (a) and Na (b) in mg/L of of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)]= 20 mg/L and initial [As(V)]= 0.25 mg/L.	71
3.15	Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of bicarbonate salts of K (a) and Na (b) in mg/L of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L and initial [As(V)]= 0.25 mg/L.	72
3.16	pH of the filtered water after treatment with various pH-conditioners.	74
3.17	Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of bicarbonates of K and Na with ash in mg/L of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L and [As(V)]= 0.25 mg/L.	75

`

List of Figures

-

3.18	Remaining [As], [Fe] in mg/L and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonates and carbonates of Na and K of distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.	77
3.19	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of bicarbonates of Na and K of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)]= 20 mg/L.	78
3.20	Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L of water from fixed initial arsenic concentration of 0.25 mg/L and varying initial iron ion concentration.	83
3.21	FTIR spectra of the precipitate formed after treatment.	85
3.22	XRD of the precipitate formed after treatment.	86
3.23	SEM-EDS of the precipitate formed after treatment.	87
3.24	Remaining [As] (a) and residual [Fe] (b) in μ M from different [As] ₀ vs. varying dose of FeCl ₃ at fixed doses of NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM) and KMnO ₄ (3.16 μ M) at residence time of 2 h in distilled water.	92
3.25	Plots of $[FeCl_3]_{min} \nu s$. $[As]_0$ at 3.16 μM (dotted line) and at 4.45 μM (solid line) of KMnO ₄ at fixed dose of NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM).	93
3.26	Remaining [As] from different $[As]_0 vs$. varying dose of KMnO ₄ with fixed doses of NaHCO ₃ (1.19mM) and FeCl ₃ (154.1µM) at residence time of 2h in distilled water.	94
3.27	Plot of $[KMnO_4]_{min} \nu s$. $[As]_0$ at fixed doses of FeCl ₃ (154.1 μ M) and of NaHCO ₃ (1.19 mM).	95
3.28	Remaining [As] from different $[As]_0 vs.$ varying dose of NaHCO ₃ with fixed doses of KMnO ₄ (3.16µM) and FeCl ₃ (154.1µM), at residence time of 2 h in distilled water.	96
3.29	Plot of $[NaHCO_3]_{min}$ vs. $[As]_0$ at fixed doses of KMnO ₄ (3.16 μ M) and FeCl ₃ (154.1 μ M).	97
3.30	Effects of the competing ions on arsenic removal.	99
3.31	Effect of the coagulant dose on arsenic removal from distilled water in presence of competing anions.	101

•

3.32	FTIR spectrum of the precipitate obtained after OCOP treatment.	102
3.33	XRD pattern of the precipitate obtained after OCOP treatment.	103
3.34	SEM-EDS image of the precipitate obtained after OCOP treatment.	104
3.35	The settling of the precipitate after treatment.	111

* Abbreviations and symbols

UF	Ultrafiltration
USA	United States of America
USEPA	United State Environmental Protection Agency
UV	Ultraviolet
UV-vis	Ultraviolet Visible
WHO	World Health Organization
XRD	X-ray Diffraction
ZVI	Zero Valent Iron

Symbols used in the thesis

.

°C	degree centigrade
cm	centimeter
eV	electron volt
g	gram
L	liter
М	mole
mg/L	milligram per liter
mL	milliliter
min	minute
ppm	parts per million
ррb	parts per billion
μΜ	micromole
mM	millimole
h	hour
S	siemen
vol	volume
w	weight
θ .	theta
α	alpha
λ	lamda

.

Abbreviations and symbols

Abbreviations used in the thesis

Abbreviations used in the thesis		
AA	Activated Alumina	
AAS	Atomic Adsorption Spectroscopy	
ADP	Adenosine Diphosphate	
ATP	Adenosine Triphosphate	
BIS	Bureau of Indian Standards	
DMA	Dimethylarsinic acid	
ED	Electrodialysis	
EDS	Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy	
FTIR	Fourier Transform Infra Red	
GFH	Granular Ferric Hydroxide	
Н	Household	
ICDD	International Centre for Diffraction Data	
ICP-OES	Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectroscopy	
IOCS	Iron Oxide Coated Sand	
IX	Ion Exchange	
JCPDF	Joint Committee on Powder Diffraction File	
MCL	Maximum Contaminant Level	
MF	Microfiltration	
MMA	Monomethylarsonic acid	
MPN	Most Probable Number	
NF	Nanofiltration	
OCOP	Oxidation-Coagulation at Optimized pH	
PDH	Pyruvate dehydrogenase	
PET	Polyethylene Terephthalate	
RO	Reverse osmosis	
S	School	
SD	Standard Deviation	
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscopy	
SORAS	Solar Oxidation and Removal of Arsenic	
TCLP	Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure	
TDS	Total Dissolved Solid	
TMA	Trimethylarsine	

Chapter 1

Introduction

1. Introduction

This thesis describes a systematic laboratory and field study of arsenic and iron removal from contaminated water by a technique based on oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH.

Crisis of drinking water is now a global problem in the urban as well as rural areas of many countries. Millions of people die each year from largely preventable diseases caused by lack of access to clean water and proper sanitation. Access to clean water will become, increasingly, a source of international conflict in the future. Increasing population along with global rise in industrialization is creating environmental problems of massive dimensions. A huge amount of water pollutants like organic, inorganic, bacteriological, etc. entering the aquifer from different sources adds to this crisis. Arsenic, an inorganic pollutant contaminates groundwater as well as surface water originating from some geological and anthropogenic activities. It is a highly toxic element, when dissolved in water it is colorless, odorless and tasteless and cannot be easily detected. Arsenic is creating menace worldwide as a long time exposure to arsenic through drinking water can cause severe health problems including cancer.

1.1 Arsenic, the element

Arsenic (As) is a group V heavy metal element with atomic number 33 with a name derived from the Greek word 'arsenikon', meaning yellow orpiment (arsenic trisulphide). Arsenic is a silver-grey brittle crystalline solid with atomic weight 74.9 amu; specific gravity 5.73 g/cm³, melting point 817 °C (at 28 atm), boiling point 613 °C and vapor pressure of 1 mm Hg at 372 °C. Arsenic occurs in both inorganic and organic forms in the environment¹ with different degrees of toxicity^{2, 3}. Inorganic arsenic dissolved in groundwater is more harmful than the organic arsenic present in food^{2, 4}.

1.1.1 Natural abundance and distribution of arsenic

Arsenic is a ubiquitous element found in the atmosphere, soils, rocks, natural waters and organisms with serious health effects upon prolonged intake of even with low concentrations. It is the 20th most abundant element in the earth's crust, 14th in sea water and 12th most common in the human body¹. Arsenic is a major constituent of over 300 minerals and is commonly found in non-ferrous ores such as of copper, lead, zinc, gold and uranium⁵. Arsenic can be mobilized in the environment through the combination of natural processes such as weathering reactions, biological activity and volcanic emissions. Arsenic is released into the aquifer mostly due to the reductive dissolution of arsenic containing iron hydroxides, (FeOOH), stimulated by microbial activity and organic materials. This is regarded as the most important mechanism of releasing arsenic into the aquifer⁶⁻¹³. It is also caused by some anthropogenic activities such as metal mining, groundwater abstractionand by use of arsenical pesticides in agriculture and wood preservation. Arsenic is also used in the manufacture of desiccants, glass, alloys, electronic components (semiconductors), pigments, and pharmaceuticals¹⁴.

1.1.2 State of arsenic in water

Arsenic can occur in the environment in several oxidation states (-3, 0, +3 and +5)in both inorganic and organic forms. Trivalent arsenic can exist as arsenous oxide (As₂O₃), arsenious acid (HAsO₂), arsenite (H₂AsO₃⁻, HAsO₃²⁻, AsO₃³⁻) ions, arsenic trichloride (AsCl₃), arsenic sulfide (AsS₃) and arsine (AsH₃). Pentavalent arsenic commonly exist as arsenic pentoxide (As₂O₅), orthoarsenic acid (H₃AsO₄), metaarsenic acid (HAsO₃) and arsenate (H₂AsO₄⁻, HAsO₄²⁻, AsO₄³⁻) ions. The presence of different forms of organic arsenic, such as monomethylarsonic acid [MMA, CH₃AsO(OH)₂], dimethylarsinic acid [DMA, (CH₃)₂AsO(OH)], trimethylarsine oxide [(CH₃)₃AsO], methylarsine (CH₃AsH₂), dimethylarsine [(CH₃)₂AsH] and trimethylarsine [TMA, (CH₃)₃As], has also been observed in contaminated soil and water¹⁵. The toxicity of the different arsenic species varies in the order: arsenite [As(III)] > arsenate [As(V)] > MMA > DMA^{16, 17}. Toxicity of arsenic in trivalent state [As(III)] is higher than that of its pentavalent [As(V)] species¹⁸. Thus, different valency states of arsenic play an important role for the behavior of the element in the aqueous system. The valency state of arsenic also determines the sorption behavior and consequently the mobility in the aquatic environment. In 2000, Jain and Ali have reported about the occurrence, toxicity and speciation techniques for arsenic¹⁹. The toxic effect of arsenic as well as its mobilization in the natural environment was described by Duker et al. in 2005²⁰.

In natural waters, arsenic is mostly found in inorganic form as oxyanions of trivalent arsenite [As(III)] or pentavalent arsenate [As(V)]. In surface waters under oxidizing conditions, the predominant species is pentavalent arsenic, which is mainly present in the protonated oxyanionic forms ($H_2AsO_4^-$, $HAsO_4^{2-}$). However, under mildly reducing conditions and lower redox potential such as in anoxic ground waters, As(III) is the thermodynamically stable form, which at the pH values of most natural waters is present as nonionic arsenious acid (H_3AsO_3)²¹⁻²⁶. As⁰ and As³⁻ are rare in aquatic

environments. Organic arsenic forms may be produced by biological activity, mostly in surface waters, but are rarely quantitatively important. Organic forms may however occur where water is significantly impacted by industrial pollution. As(III) is more toxic and relatively mobile than As(V) in contaminated soils. Both As(III) and As(V) compounds are highly soluble in water and may change valency states depending on the pH and redox conditions.

1.1.3 Arsenic distributions vs. pH

Redox potential (Eh) and pH play major roles in the alternation of the oxidation state of arsenic. The Eh vs. pH phase diagrams (Figure 1.1) indicate the stability fields and boundary lines of the different arsenic species^{25, 27}

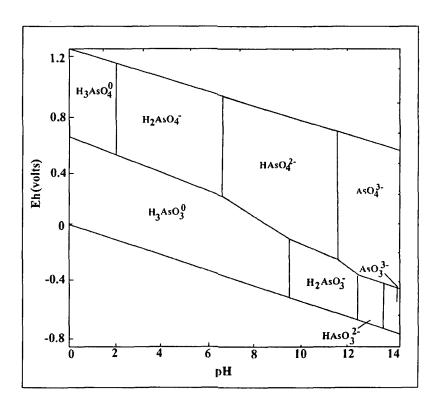


Figure 1.1. The Eh-pH diagram for arsenic at 25°C.

Dissolution of arsenic takes place in low acidic pH (<2.0), but it can be dissolved at higher pH (2–11) also, under suitable chemical and physical conditions. Uncharged species of arsenious acid, H₃AsO₃ predominates at low pH (<9.2) under mildly reduced conditions and it is easily replaced by H₂AsO₃⁻ when pH increases. HAsO₃²⁻ is usually formed at very high alkaline pH (>12). In case of As(V), however, a different situation is encountered. H₂AsO₄⁻ dominates at low pH (less than about 6.9) under oxidizing conditions. At higher pH, HAsO₄²⁻ becomes dominant. H₃AsO₄ and AsO₄³⁻ may be present in extremely acidic

and alkaline conditions, respectively. It is also apparent from the Figure 1.1 that at a particular Eh and pH value, both As(III) and As(V) species may coexist though under reducing condition As(III) species should prevail over $As(V)^{28}$.

1.1.4 Drinking water criteria for arsenic

The most important source of arsenic exposure in humans and animals is ingestion of arsenic contaminated drinking water. Presence of inorganic arsenic in drinking water has been recognized as a carcinogen for human even at relatively low concentrations. Long term exposure to arsenic through drinking water causes skin, lung, bladder, liver and kidney cancer as well as pigmentation changes, skin thickening (hyperkeratosis), anemia, burning sensation of eyes, solid swelling of legs, liver fibrosis, chronic lung disease, gangrene of toes, neuropathy neurological disorders, muscular weakness, loss of appetite, and nausea²⁹⁻³¹. Therefore, it is very important to document the levels of arsenic in drinking water, and its chemical speciation, and for establishing regulatory standards and guidelines³².

According to the Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS), arsenic concentration in drinking water should not exceed 50 μ g/L³³. The World Health Organization (WHO) provisional guideline value for arsenic in drinking water is 10 μ g/L³⁴. However, it is reported that arsenic concentration in drinking water as low as 0.17 μ g/L can be toxic³⁵. But such low levels are not feasible to determine due to detection limit of analytical techniques. This is why the less protective guideline was adopted³⁶⁻³⁸. Recently, the United State Environmental Protection Agency' (USEPA) has established a health-based, non-enforceable Maximum Contaminant Level Goal (MCLG) of zero As and an enforceable Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL) of 10 μ g As/L in drinking water^{39, 40}. This would apply to both non-transient, non-community water systems, as well as to the community water systems, as opposed to the previous MCL of 50 μ g As/L set by the USEPA in 1975⁴¹. However, the current drinking water guideline for As adopted by both the WHO and the USEPA is 10 μ g/L. This is higher than the proposed Canadian and Australian maximum permissible concentrations of 5 and 7 μ g As/L, respectively^{42, 43}.

1.2 Global scenario of arsenic contamination

The arsenic contamination of groundwater of vast areas all over the world and prevalence of arsenic related health problems, *viz.*, arsenicosis due to consumption of such water is a serious worldwide problem¹⁴. Arsenic is considered as a worldwide recurring

pollutant with serious health effects upon prolonged intake of even low concentrations⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. Although trace levels of arsenic is beneficial for plant and animal nutrition⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹, no comparable data are available for humans⁵⁰. Elevated concentrations of arsenic in the biosphere pose a significant threat to mankind. Arsenic contamination of surface and groundwaters occurs worldwide and has become a sociopolitical issue in several parts of the globe. Thousands of As-contaminated sites have been reported around the world^{51, 52}. For example, several million people are at risk from As-contaminated drinking water in India^{53, 54} and Bangladesh⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷. Natural occurrences of arsenic in groundwater have also been found in many parts of the United States⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰, China⁶¹⁻⁶⁶, Japan^{67, 68}, Vietnam⁶⁹⁻⁷², Taiwan⁷³⁻⁷⁸, Chile^{79, 80} Canada^{81, 82} Argentina⁸³⁻⁸⁵, Southern Thailand^{86, 87}, Ghana^{88, 89}, Hungary^{90, 91}, Finland⁹², Mexico⁹³⁻⁹⁵, Spain⁹⁶, Australia^{97, 98}, Bolivia⁹⁵, Cambodia⁹⁹⁻¹⁰¹, Greece^{102, 103}, Germany¹⁰⁴, Italy¹⁰⁵, Nepal¹⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁸, Pakistan¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹², Poland¹¹³ and Romania¹¹⁴.

1.2.1 Indian scenario of arsenic contamination

In India, arsenic contamination in groundwater was first reported in 1983 from 33 affected villages in four districts in West-Bengal. This number of villages has increased to 3417 in 111 blocks in nine districts till 2008 in West Bengal alone¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁸. Groundwater contamination of arsenic and its health effects of Rajnandgaon district of Chattisgarh state came to light in 1999¹¹⁹⁻¹²¹. In 2002, two villages, Barisban and Semaria Ojhapatti, in Bhojpur district, located in the western part of the Bihar state, were reported having arsenic contaminated groundwater¹²². In 2008, it was reported that groundwater of 57 blocks from 15 districts (out of 38 districts) in Bihar having population nearly 10 million is affected by arsenic¹²³. During 2003, 25 arsenic affected villages of Ballia district in Uttar Pradesh and people suffering from skin lesions came into limelight¹²⁴. The groundwater arsenic contamination and consequent suffering of hundreds of people were reported from 17 villages of the Sahibgunj district of Jharkhand state, in the middle Ganga plain during 2003-2004^{125, 126}. In 2004, a large scale arsenic contamination in groundwater in Assam, Tripura, Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland and Manipur was also reported¹²⁷⁻¹²⁹.

1.2.2 Arsenic contamination of groundwater in North-East India

Contamination of the groundwater of the entire north-eastern states of India, in general and in the plains on both sides of the Brahmaputra in Assam, in particular, with high level of As has come to light in 2004_{127}^{127} . As per the available information, arsenic has been detected over 50 µg/L in the groundwater in 23 out of 27 districts of Assam, 6 out of

13 districts of Arunachal Pradesh, 3 out of 4 districts of Tripura, 2 out of 8 districts of Nagaland and 1 out of 9 districts of Manipur. The maximum level of arsenic was found in Midland block of Dibang valley district in Arunachal Pradesh was 618 μ g/L. In Manipur, arsenic was found with very high concentration (798-986 μ g/L) in Kakching block of Thoubal district¹³⁰. Groundwater of some parts in West Tripura and Dhalai districts contains arsenic in the range of 65-444 μ g/L. Arsenic was also found in seven locations in Mokokchung and five locations in Mon district in Nagaland.

1.2.3 Arsenic contamination of groundwater in Assam

Groundwater quality of Assam valley is highly ferruginous and among 27 districts, 23 are contaminated with arsenic¹²⁷. Symptoms of arsenicosis have been reported in some residents in Assam in 2010^{131} . As per the available report, maximum concentration of arsenic was observed in four districts of Assam *viz.*, Jorhat, Lakhimpur, Nalbari and Nagaon districts in the range of 112-601 µg/L¹²⁷. Other districts where arsenic concentration in groundwater was found in between 100-300 µg/L are Baksa, Barpeta, Darrang, Dhemaji, Dhubri, Golaghat, Sivsagar and Sonitpur. Arsenic concentration in groundwater of remaining 11 districts of Assam was found in between 50-100 µg/L¹²⁷.

1.2.4 Toxicity and health effects of arsenic exposure

Millions of people are exposed to arsenic containing drinking water worldwide. Long time exposure of arsenic-contaminated drinking water leads to serious health problems including cancer. The toxicology of arsenic is a complex phenomenon and generally classified into acute and chronic arsenic poisoning.

Acute arsenic poisoning usually occurs through ingestion of contaminated food or drink. Symptoms of acute intoxication usually occur within 30 min of ingestion but may be delayed if arsenic is taken with food. Symptoms include burning and dryness of the mouth and throat, dysphasia, colicky abnormal pain, projectile vomiting, profuse diarrhea, and hematuria. The acute arsenic poisoning requires prompt medical attention. The muscular cramps, facial edema and cardiac abnormalities, shock can develop rapidly as a result of dehydration¹³². Following the gastrointestinal phase, multisystem organ damage may occur due to acute arsenic poisoning¹³³.

Chronic arsenic poisoning is much more insidious in nature. Arsenicosis is a chronic illness resulting from drinking water with high levels of arsenic exposure over a long period of time^{134, 135}. In general, there are four recognized stages of arsenicosis¹⁴:

Preclinical: In this case no symptoms can be seen in the patient, but arsenic can be detected in urine or body tissue samples.

Clinical: Various symptoms can be seen such as darkening of the skin (melanosis); dark spots on the chest, back, limbs or gums; oedema (swelling of hands and feet); keratosis or hardening of skin into nodules, etc.

Complications: In this stage, clinical symptoms become more pronounced and internal organs are affected. Enlargement of liver, kidneys, spleen, conjunctivitis (pink eye), bronchitis, destruction of erythrocytes, high blood pressure, bone marrow depression, diabetes and cardiovascular disease have been reported.

Malignancy: Malignant arsenical skin lesions may be tumors or cancers (carcinoma) of skin or other organs, *viz.*, kidney, liver, lung and bladder¹³⁶. Cancer usually takes more than 10 years to develop.

Over 12% of the population in Antofagasta exhibiting dermatological manifestations due to consumption of high arsenic containing drinking water¹³⁷. In Taiwan, intake to arsenic containing drinking water (groundwater) has been reported to cause a severe disease of blood vessels leading to gangrene, known as "blackfoot disease"¹³⁸. According to some estimates in 2000, 35 out of 77 million people in Bangladesh have been chronically exposed to arsenic through their drinking water¹³⁹.

1.2.4.1 Mechanism of arsenic toxicity

The detailed mechanisms of arsenic toxicity and carcinogenicity are not well understood. The mechanisms of toxicity of trivalent and pentavalent arsenic are discussed below:

Mechanism of pentavalent arsenic toxicity

Arsenate can replace phosphate in many biochemical reactions because they have similar structure and properties¹⁴⁰. It reacts with glucose and gluconate *in vitro* to form glucose-6-arsenate and 6-arsenogluconate, respectively^{141, 142}. These compounds resemble glucose-6-phosphate and 6-phosphogluconate, respectively. Glucose-6-arsenate is a substrate for glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and can inhibit hexokinase¹⁴¹. Arsenate can also replace phosphate in the sodium pump and the anion exchange transport system of the human red blood cell¹⁴³. Arsenate damages the formation of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) by a mechanism known as arsenolysis^{144, 145}. Arsenolysis occurs during glycolysis which inhibit the generation of ATP during glycolysis in presence of phosphote¹⁴⁶. Arsenolysis may also occur at the mitochondrial level during oxidative phosphorylation.

Here, in presence of arsenate, adenosine-5-diphosphate (ADP) form ADP-arsenate¹⁴². ADP-arsenate hydrolyzes easily compared to ADP-phosphate, which is formed during oxidative phosphorylation. Thus, arsenolysis diminishes *in vitro* formation of ATP by the replacement of phosphate with arsenate in the enzymatic reactions. Arsenite is ineffective in depleting ATP in human erythrocytes.

B. Mechanism of trivalent arsenic toxicity

Thiols or vicinal sulfhydryls play a major role in the activity of enzymes, receptors and coenzymes. Trivalent arsenic readily reacts *in vitro* with thiol-containing molecules^{147,} ¹⁴⁸. The binding of arsenite to critical thiol groups may inhibit important biochemical events which could lead to toxicity. However, binding of arsenite at nonessential sites in proteins may be a detoxication mechanism¹⁴⁹. Pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH) is a multi subunit complex that requires the cofactor lipoic acid, a dithiol, for enzymatic activity. Arsenite binds with lipoic acid moiety and thus inhibits PDH¹⁵⁰. PDH oxidizes pyruvate to acetyl–CoA, a precursor to intermediates of the citric acid cycle. The citric acid cycle degrades the intermediates, and this provides reducing equivalents to the electron transport system for ATP production. Inhibition of PDH may ultimately lead to decreased production of ATP. Also, intermediates of the citric acid cycle can be used in gluconeogenesis. Inhibition of these enzymes may alter cellular redox status and eventually lead to cytotoxicity.

1.3 Mitigation of arsenic menace

Arsenic contamination of groundwater is a big threat to human life as well as for plant and other animal life. To overcome the problem of contamination of drinking water by arsenic, there are three possible options.

1.3.1 Alternative water sources

Use of alternate arsenic-free water sources is the best solution to get rid of arsenic contamination. This includes surface water and rainwater. Normally, surface water is heavily contaminated with biological and chemical pollutant and it is not possible for the poor communities to use that water, because purification or disinfection becomes costly. Transportation of arsenic-free surface water from other places to arsenic affected areas needs high amount of investments and proper cooperation of government and public. Rainwater is usually a much cleaner water source but its uneven distribution and limited

storage capacity in communities or households has made it unsuitable. Moreover, rainwater doesn't contain the required minerals for nutrition, so it cannot be used for drinking purpose. It is unlikely for a developing country to switch the source of water from groundwater to surface water in a short period of time for sparse rural populations. Therefore, one must consider arsenic removal techniques and the economic feasibility and simplicity of the systems in making arsenic remediation strategy^{151, 152}.

1.3.2 Removal of arsenic from groundwater

Arsenic remediation technology in drinking water is almost as old as detection of arsenic in drinking water and knowledge of its toxic effects. Various conventional and advanced treatment methods have been proposed for removal of As from groundwater under both laboratory and field conditions. Most of the existing methods for sequestering As from contaminated water by physicochemical treatment methods are based on one or combinations of the following simple principles: a) Coagulation / co-precipitation, b) adsorption, c) Membrane process, d) Ion exchange¹⁵³⁻¹⁵⁷. The performance and the drawback of the existing techniques are further illustrated specifically in section 1.4.

1.3.3 Better nutrition

In Asia, primary food source, rice, is directly contaminated by arsenic accumulation in paddy soil. Thus additional arsenic consumed in rice, cooked in arsenic contaminated water contributes 30-60% of dietary intake of arsenic of polluted regions¹⁵⁸. Low socioeconomic status and malnourishment enhance the disease conditions because such population has no alternative but to drink the available arsenic-contaminated water^{159, 160}. Nutritious diet may be able to inhibit and/or reverse the toxic mechanism of arsenic, ⁻ whereas a deficient diet can increase the susceptibility to adverse effects of arsenic in drinking water¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶³. Several epidemiological and experimental studies suggested that nutritious diet reduces the arsenic toxicity by increasing methylation of arsenic^{164, 165}.

1.4 Existing arsenic removal methods

1.4.1 Precipitative techniques

1.4.1.1 Coagulation/precipitation

Coagulation/precipitation is the oldest and a widely practiced arsenic remediation technique¹⁶⁶. Coagulants change surface charge properties of solids to allow agglomeration and/or enmeshment of particles into a flocculated precipitate. In either case, the final

products are larger particles, or floc, which more readily filter or settle under the influence of gravity. Coagulation-flocculation processes with alum and iron-containing compounds such as ferric chloride, ferric sulfate etc. as coagulant are most commonly used in arsenic remediation techniques because they are both cheap and effective¹⁶⁷⁻¹⁷⁰. They are more extensively tested in both laboratory and field studies than other technologies. Other synthetic coagulants, *viz*, lanthanum compounds¹⁷¹, manganese oxides¹⁷² and granular ferric hydroxide^{173, 174} have also proved effective for arsenic removal. Clays and mineral-containing rocks are also used in this purpose¹⁷⁵⁻¹⁸¹.

Since both alum and ferric salts are more efficient at removing As(V), oxidation of As(III) is required to achieve maximum removal efficiency^{182, 183}. On a weight basis, ferric salts are more efficient and preferable to remove arsenic than alum and also because of the suspected ill effect of the later causing Alzheimer's disease¹⁸⁴. Ferric salts are also effective in removing arsenic over a wider range of pH than alum^{185, 186}.

In 1997, McNeill and Edwards¹⁸⁷ reported that solubility and stability of the metal hydroxide flocs play an important role in arsenic removal. In case of ferric coagulants, most of the ferric ends up as ferric hydroxide whereas in alum coagulation, a significant portion of the added aluminium salts remains as soluble complexes. Thus particulate metal hydroxide formation decreases which decreases the overall arsenic removal. Removal percentage increases with increased coagulant dosages¹⁸⁸.

The enhanced coagulation process involves modifications to the existing coagulation process such as increasing the coagulant dosage, reducing the pH, or both¹⁸⁹. Cheng et al.¹⁸⁸ (1994) reported that more than 90% removal of As(V) can be achieved under enhanced coagulation conditions. With ferric salt enhanced coagulation pH does not have a significant effect between 5.5 and 7.0 while lowering pH during enhanced coagulation by alum improved arsenic removal. However, post-treatment for pH adjustment may be required for corrosion control when the process is operated at a low pH.

Lime softening removes hardness caused by calcium and magnesium compounds in solution by creating a shift in the carbonate equilibrium. The addition of lime converts bicarbonate to carbonate as the pH increases, and as a result, calcium is precipitated as calcium carbonate. Lime removes As(III) and As(V) also along with the hardness^{190, 191}. Soda ash (sodium carbonate) is added if insufficient bicarbonate is present in the water to remove hardness to the desired level. Softening for calcium removal is typically accomplished at a pH range of 9 to 9.5 while magnesium hydroxide precipitates at pH levels greater than 10.5. Neutralization is required if the pH of the softened water is

excessively high (above 9.5) for potable use. The most common form of pH adjustment in softening plants is recarbonation with carbon dioxide. The optimum pH for As(V) removal by lime softening is ≈ 10.5 , and the optimum pH for As(III) removal is $\approx 11^{192}$.

1.4.1.2 Coagulation assisted microfiltration

Microfiltration is used as a membrane separation process in coagulation techniques to remove particulates, turbidity and microorganism. Microfiltration is used in a similar manner to a conventional gravity filter. The advantages of microfiltration over conventional filtration are outlined below¹⁹³:

- smaller floc sizes can be removed (smaller amounts of coagulants are required); and
- increased total plant capacity

In 1997, Ghurye et al.¹⁹⁴ reported that coagulation assisted microfiltration could reduce arsenic levels to below 2 μ g/L in waters with a pH of between 6 and 7, even when the influent concentration of Fe(III) is approximately 2.5 mg/L. With an iron and manganese removal system, it is critical that all of the iron and manganese be fully oxidized before they reach the membrane to prevent fouling¹⁹⁵.

1.4.2 Adsorptive techniques

1.4.2.1 Activated Alumina

Activated Alumina (AA) is a physical/chemical process by which ions in the feed water are sorbed to the oxidized AA surface. It is referred to as an adsorption process, although the chemical reactions involved are actually exchanges of ions^{196, 197}. Activated alumina is prepared through dehydration of $Al(OH)_3$ at high temperatures, and consists of amorphous and gamma alumina oxide¹⁹⁸. Feed water is continuously passed through AA packed beds to remove the contaminants. The contaminant anions are exchanged with the surface hydroxides on the alumina. When adsorption sites on the AA surface become filled, the bed must be regenerated. Regeneration is accomplished through a sequence of rinsing with regenerant, flushing with water, and neutralizing with acid. The regenerant is a strong base, typically sodium hydroxide; the neutralizer is a strong acid, typically sulfuric acid.

Several researchers have reported that optimum pH for arsenic removal by AA to be in the range of 5.5 to 6.0 for tests conducted on synthetic waters¹⁹⁹⁻²⁰¹. Field studies involving AA indicate that this technology can remove arsenic to $3 \mu g/L^{202a, b}$. But alumina tends to dissolve over successive cycles due to the strong base/strong acid cycling during regeneration. As a result of this, alumina beds may become cemented if close care is not given²⁰³. Backwashing the AA media may help prevent cementation. When pretreatment is used to reduce the pH to low levels (less than 6.0) to optimize the process, the effluent pH will be less than typically desired in the distribution system. For this reason, post-treatment corrosion control to raise the pH would be necessary for those systems.

1.4.2.2 Granular Ferric Hydroxide

In 1998, Driehaus et al.²⁰⁴ reported about a new efficient adsorbent of arsenic granular ferric hydroxide (GFH). Pal et al.²⁰⁵ concluded that granular ferric hydroxide is a superior adsorbent because it meets four important criteria: high removal efficiency, safety, simple operation, and minimum residual mass. The most significant weakness of this technology appears to be its cost. Currently, GFH media costs approximately \$4,000 per ton.

1.4.2.3 Nanoadsorbents

Nanoadsorbents for arsenic removal from water are gaining momentum globally. Although they are mostly still in the laboratory research stage, some have made their way to pilot testing or even commercialization²⁰⁶. Some potential nanoadsorbents for arsenic removal are metal oxide nanoparticles (e.g., oxides of iron, titanium, copper, aluminium, zirconium, and manganese) and polymeric nanoadsorbents^{207a, b}. Though may be temporary, these nanoadsorbents face certain challenges including technical hurdles, high cost, and potential environmental and human risk²⁰⁶.

1.4.3 Membrane processes

Membranes are selective barriers, allowing some constituents to pass while blocking the passage of others. There is a driving force i.e. a potential difference between the two sides of the membrane which controls the movement of constituents across a membrane. Membrane processes are often classified by the type of driving force, including pressure, concentration, electrical potential, and temperature. Among them pressure driven membrane processes and electrical potential-driven membrane processes are commonly used.

Pressure-driven membrane processes with arsenic removal, are often classified by pore size into four categories: microfiltration (MF), ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF), and reverse osmosis (RO). High-pressure processes (i.e., NF and RO) have a relatively small pore size compared to low-pressure processes (i.e., MF and UF)²⁰⁸⁻²¹¹. NF and RO primarily remove constituents through chemical diffusion while MF and UF through physical sieving. An advantage of high-pressure processes is that they tend to remove a broader range of constituents than low-pressure processes. However, the drawback to broader removal is the increase in energy required for high-pressure processes. Electrical potential-driven membrane processes can also be used for arsenic removal e.g. electrodialysis reversal^{212, 213}.

1.4.3.1 Microfiltration

This technique is highly dependent on the size distribution of arsenic-bearing particles in the source water. MF pore size is too large to substantially remove dissolved or colloidal arsenic. Although MF can remove particulate forms of arsenic, this alone does not make the process efficient for arsenic removal unless a large percentage of arsenic is present in particulate form. To increase removal efficiency in source waters with a low percentage of particulate arsenic content, MF can be combined with coagulation processes.

1.4.3.2 Ultrafiltration

UF alone, like MF, may not be a viable technique for arsenic removal for groundwaters, however, UF may be appropriate for surface waters with high colloidal and particulate arsenic concentrations^{214, 215}.

1.4.3.3 Nanofiltration

Nanofiltration membranes are capable of removing significant portions of the dissolved arsenic compounds in natural waters due to their small pore size. NF will primarily remove divalent ions (e.g., Ca, Mg), but not monovalent salts (e.g., Na, Cl). Through size exclusion, NF can remove both dissolved As(V) and As(III). This makes NF a reliable arsenic removal process for groundwater^{216, 217}. The small pore size, however, makes NF membranes more prone to fouling than UF or MF membranes. Therefore, application of NF for surface water treatment is typically not accomplished without extensive pretreatment for particle removal and possibly pretreatment for dissolved constituents to prevent fouling.

Several NF studies have been undertaken for arsenic removal, and the results show that NF processes are effective for the removal of $\operatorname{arsenic}^{218}$. Arsenic removal through NF depends on operating parameters, membrane properties, and arsenic speciation^{219, 220}. In 1994, Chang et al. ²²¹ revealed that the removal efficiency dropped significantly during pilot-scale tests where the process was operated at more realistic recoveries. When the membrane unit was operated at a recovery of 65%, the arsenic removal efficiency dropped to 65% and when the recovery was increased to 90%, the arsenic removal efficiency dropped down to $16\%^{220, 222}$

1.4.3.4 Reverse Osmosis

Reverse osmosis (RO) is the oldest membrane technology, traditionally used for the desalination of brackish water and sea water. RO is a filtration method that removes molecules and ions from solutions by applying pressure when it is on one side of a selective membrane. The solute is retained on the pressurized side of the membrane and the

pure solvent is allowed to pass to the other side. Several bench- and pilot-scale studies reveal RO as capable of removing arsenic to below the WHO guideline value.²²³⁻²²⁵. RO removes As(V) to a greater degree than As(III), so, maintaining oxidative conditions may be important to the process^{226, 227}. Compared to other membrane techniques, osmotic pressure becomes great in RO due to the concentration of salts on the feed side of the membrane. The majority of the feed water passes through the membrane; however, the rest is discharged along with the rejected salts as a concentrated stream.

1.4.3.5 Electrodialysis

Electrodialysis (ED) is a process in which ions are transferred through membranes that are selectively permeable towards cations or anions under the influence of direct electric current. The separation mechanism is actually an ion exchange process. The ions travel from a lesser to a higher concentrated solution. In this process, the membranes are arranged in an array or stack placed between opposite electrodes, with alternating cation and anion exchange membranes. The mobility of the cations or anions is restricted to the direction of the attracting electrodes, and this result in alternating sets of compartments containing water with low and high concentrations of the ions. ED can achieve high removals of total dissolved solid (TDS) from water and typically operates at a recovery of 70 to 80 $\%^{228, 229}$. Very few studies have been conducted to exclusively evaluate this process for the removal of arsenic.

1.4.4 Ion exchange

Ion exchange (IX) is a physical/chemical process by which ion on the solid phase is exchanged for an ion in the feed water. The solid phase is a synthetic resin which can preferentially adsorb the particular contaminant of concern. In this process feed water containing contaminants is continuously passed through a bed of ion exchange resin beads in a downflow or upflow mode until the resin is exhausted i.e. all sites of the resin beads have been filled by contaminant ions. At this point, the bed is regenerated by rinsing the IX column with a regenerant - a concentrated solution of ions initially exchanged from the resin. The chloride-arsenate exchange chemical reaction typically occurs in the range of pH 8 to 9 when using chloride-form, strong-base resins²³⁰. Recent studies have also found that sulfate-selective resins tend to be superior to nitrate-selective resins for arsenic removal²³¹. The ion exchange method can remove arsenic to below the WHO guideline value but requires high capital cost²³².

1.4.5 Other technologies

Besides the methods discussed above several new methods have been studied recently. Some of the interesting methods are briefly described below.

- Iron-manganese oxidation
- Iron oxide coated sand (IOCS)
- Zero-valent iron (ZVI)
- Lanthanum compounds
- Zeolites
- Manganese Greensand
- Goethite
- Manganese coated sand
- In situ (sub-surface) arsenic immobilization
- Biological treatment for arsenic removal
- Solar Oxidation

1.4.5.1 Iron-manganese oxidation

Conventional iron and manganese removal can result in significant arsenic removal, through coprecipitation and sorption onto ferric or manganic hydroxides²³³. Most of the low-cost methods for arsenic and manganese removal based on aeration and filtration through porous media such as sand and gravel. Any method that effectively removes iron and manganese could be evaluated to see if arsenic is also removed effectively.

1.4.5.2 Iron oxide coated sand

IOCS sand showed promise as a medium for use in small systems or hometreatment units in developing areas of the world, for removing As(III) and As(V) from ground water^{234, 235}. Iron oxide-coated sand is a suitable adsorbent for reducing As(III) concentration to 50 μ g/L²³⁶.

1.4.5.3 Zero-valent iron

Many studies reported ZVI (Fe⁰) as an effective agent at removing As(III) and As(V), and the predominant mechanistic pathways seems to be surface precipitation or adsorption^{237, 238}. Fe⁰ is nontoxic and inexpensive. From literature, it is found that Fe⁰ is effective at removing arsenic at low pH and in high-sulfide-containing water²³⁹. Although the reducing strength of Fe⁰ decreases significantly at neutral pH, the hydroxide species

forming on the surface of Fe^0 are effective adsorption sites for both As(V) and As(III) at neutral and basic pH.

1.4.5.4 Lanthanum compounds

Lanthanum is one of the cheapest rare-earth elements. Lanthanum hydroxide, lanthanum carbonate, and basic lanthanum carbonate were investigated for removing As(V) ion from aqueous solutions²⁴⁰. The proposed mechanism for arsenic removal by lanthanum compounds is adsorption by exchange of CO_3^{2-} and/or OH⁻ group with As(V) ions in the neutral-to-basic pH range²⁴¹.

1.4.5.5 Zeolites

Zeolites are an important group of minerals due to their catalytic, sieve, and exchange properties. They are naturally abundant and are potentially low-cost materials for arsenic removal²⁴². Arsenic removal was also investigated with zeolite modified with iron²⁴³.

1.4.5.6 Manganese greensand

Manganese greensand is a zeolite-type glauconite mineral, artificially coated with a layer of active hydrous manganese dioxide and other high oxides of Mn^{244} . In the presence of iron (Fe:As ratio= 20:1), manganese greensand was more effective at removing arsenic than iron-oxide-coated sand and resin²⁴⁵.

1.4.5.7 Goethite

Goethite is an α -iron(III) hydroxy-oxide mineral [FeO(OH)] and is the most stable form of iron oxide in soil. Many researchers investigated synthetic goethite particles for removal of As(V) from dilute aqueous solutions²⁴⁶⁻²⁴⁹. The small size of the particles necessitated an efficient solid/liquid separation technique.

1.4.5.8 Manganese coated sand

Manganese dioxide can both oxidize As(III) and adsorb As(V). Many studies reveal that manganese dioxide coated sand is efficient in removal As(III) and As(V)²⁵⁰⁻²⁵².

1.4.5.9 In situ (sub-surface) arsenic immobilization

It is possible to immobilize the arsenic in groundwater under reducing condition by creating oxidized conditions in the subsurface. In Germany, in order to remediate an aquifer containing high arsenite, high ferrous iron, low-pH groundwater, potassium permanganate was injected directly into contaminated wells, oxidizing arsenite, which coprecipitated with ferric oxides as ferric arsenate. Over 99% (from 13,600 to 60 μ g/L) of arsenic removal can be obtained in this process. In another project atmospheric oxygen was used to reduce arsenic concentrations *in situ* from approximately 20 to 5 μ g/L, while iron and manganese levels were also lowered²⁵³. *In situ* immobilization has the great advantage of not producing any wastes that must be disposed of. However, experience is limited, and the technique should be considered with caution.

1.4.5.10 Biological treatment

In microbiological processes employed for arsenic removal, two types of metalmicrobe interactions can be potentially used: (a) microbial oxidation of arsenic (III) to arsenic (V) to facilitate its removal by conventional arsenic removal processes, and (b) bioaccumulation of arsenic by microbial biomass²⁵⁴. The Biological Activated Carbon system is a biologically active filtration unit developed by the Mainstream BMS Ltd., Vanscoy, Saskatchewan and Davnor Water Treatment Technologies Ltd., Calgary, Alberta²⁵⁵. In this system a granular activated carbon filter is used, which are continuously aerated to enhance the growth of biological activity within the filter media. This system has been used in rural Saskatchewan on experimental basis for seven years with consistent arsenic removal exceeding 90%²⁵⁶. This system could also remove more than 99% of iron and also dissolved organic material along with arsenic.

1.4.5.11 Solar Oxidation

Solar Oxidation and Removal of Arsenic (SORAS) is a simple method developed by Swiss Federal Institute of Environmental Science and Technology, Switzerland (EAWAG) and Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC)²⁵⁷. The method is based on photochemical oxidation of As (III) followed by precipitation or filtration of As(V) adsorbed on Fe (III) oxides. It uses irradiation of water with sunlight in Polyethylene Terephthalate (PET) or other Ultraviolet (UV) transparent bottles to reduce arsenic level from drinking water. Arsenic removal efficiency of SORAS was found in between 45-78%. In field tests in Bangladesh, it shows an average of 67% removal efficiency.

1.5 A comparison of the existing arsenic removal methods

All the existing technologies described above have their merits and demerits. Though most of the existing methods are efficient, there are many difficulties associated with them such as wide range of initial arsenic concentration in water, other co-existing ions, optimization of right dose for generalization, filtration of the treated water, adjustment of pH in water, post treatment requirement, handling of waste and proper operation and maintenance. Thus selection of an arsenic removal method is really complex. There are many technologies which are successful in the laboratory but they do not work properly in the field condition. A comparison of some existing arsenic removal processes can be seen in Table 1.1.

Techniques	Advantages	Disadvantages
Coagulation/Coprecipitation		
Alum coagulation	Low capital costs, available chemicals	Pre-oxidation is must, Low removal of As(III), toxic sludge produced
Iron coagulation	Relatively low-cost, efficient, simple operation common chemicals, effective over a wide range of pH	Medium removal of As(III), pre-oxidation may be required to get efficient removal
Lime Softening	Common chemicals	Readjustment of pH is required
Enhanced coagulation	High removal efficiency, also removes organic matter and metal hydroxides	Emerging technique, not proven in practical scale
Adsorption		
Activated alumina	Well known, efficient, no daily sludge, commercially available, low maintenance	· · ·
Iron based sorbent	Well defined technique, no regeneration, comparatively cheap, plenty of possibilities	
Nanoadsorbents	High capacity and efficiency	Technical hurdles and high cost ²⁰⁶
Membrane technique		
Microfiltration	Can remove particulate forms of arsenic	Additional removal process is , essential

Table 1.1. Advantages and disadvantages of some existing arsenic removal techniques.

		Introduction Chapter 1
Reverse osmosis	Capable of removing As to below WHO guideline value, easy monitoring, no chemicals required, no toxic solid waste produced	Removal of As(III) is lower than As(V), large reject water with high As, high investment cost, high technical operation and maintenance, pretreatment steps are often required, efficiency is very low with high concentration As contaminated water.
Electrodialysis	Capable of removal of other contaminants	Re-adjustment of water quality is required, interference by oxidizing agents, toxic waste water
Nanofiltration	Well-defined, high removal efficiency	Very high capital and running cost
Ultrafiltration		Not viable for arsenic removal for groundwaters
Ion exchange Anion resin	Capable of removing As to below WHO guideline value, easy monitoring, well defined medium, removal efficiency does not depend on pH	Only removal of As(III) is not possible and prior oxidation necessary, interference from other anions, monitoring is difficult high cost, Produce large volume of toxic brine during regeneration of resins
Oxidation/precipitation Aerial oxidation	Relatively simple, low-cost	Partial removal of arsenic, additional removal process is essential, very slow process
Chemical oxidation	Relatively simple, fast oxidizes impurities and kill microbes	Toxic chemicals and carcinogens are produced as by-products, interfering substances decreases the removal efficiency, additional removal process is essential

To make the methods suitable in rural condition particularly in low income regions,

they have to be modified based on their pilot-scale implementation with the objectives to:

- improve effectiveness in arsenic removal
- reduce the capital and operation cost of the systems
- make the technology user friendly
- overcome maintenance problems

.

• resolve sludge and arsenic concentrates management problems.

A major determinant in the selection of a treatment option by the users is the cost associated with a technique. Arsenic removal from tubewell water is a suitable option for water supply for rural people habituated in drinking tubewell water. In many arsenic affected areas, arsenic removal may be the only option in the absence of an alternative safe source of water supply.

1.6 Arsenic removal by oxidation-coagulation

Coagulants such as aluminium sulfate $(Al_2(SO_4)_3.18H_2O)$, ferric chloride (FeCl₃) and ferric sulfate (Fe₂(SO₄)₃.7H₂O) are effective in removing arsenic from water. Ferric salts have been found to be quite promising in removing arsenic than alum on a weight basis and effective over a wider range of pH²⁵⁸⁻²⁶³. In alum coagulation, the removal is most effective in the narrow pH range 7.2-7.5 and in iron coagulation, efficient removal is achieved in a wider pH range usually between 6.0 and 8.5^{264} . During coagulation and filtration, arsenic is removed through three main mechanisms²⁶⁵: (1) precipitation: the formation of the insoluble compounds, Al(AsO₄) or Fe(AsO₄); (2) coprecipitation: the incorporation of soluble arsenic species into a growing metal hydroxide phase; (3) adsorption: the electrostatic binding of soluble arsenic to the external surfaces of the insoluble metal hydroxide.

Several studies have been reported that arsenic removal from drinking water by coagulation with ferric chloride is more effective than other coagulants²⁶⁶⁻²⁶⁸. Arsenic exists in near neutral reductive groundwater conditions mainly in the +III oxidation state as trihydrogen arsenite (H₃AsO₃) which is much less adsorbed on coagulates than the +V species which exists predominantly as anionic dihydrogen arsenate (H₂AsO₅⁻) ion²⁶⁹. A coagulant alone is not capable of lowering arsenic in +III state to below 10 μ g/L. Therefore, if As(III) is present, oxidation prior to coagulation to convert As(III) to As(V) species should be considered first. This can be achieved by the addition of efficient oxidizing agents prior to coagulation.

Among the oxidizing agents, oxygen (introduced as air), ozone, hydrogen peroxide, chlorine, sodium hypochlorite, potassium permanganate, solid iron (III) or manganese (IV) compounds and water soluble iron (II) compounds + hydrogen peroxide, also known as Fenton's reagent²⁷⁰ are commonly used for oxidation in developing countries. Air oxidation of arsenic is very slow and can take weeks for oxidation but chemicals like chlorine and permanganate can rapidly oxidize arsenite to arsenate under wide range of conditions. All

these oxidizing agents are associated with some advantages as well as disadvantages which are summarized in Table 1.2.

Oxidizing agents	Advantages	Disadvantages
Oxygen (from air)	Readily available everywhere and is not hazardous	Slow and additional equipment requirement to speed it up increases system capital and operating costs
Ozone	No chemical storage or handling is required, no by-products left in water, reaction is fast and it is generated at point of use which reduces exposure to ozone	Ozone is a known health hazard and the oxidation system has high operating and maintenance costs
Hydrogen Peroxide	It is a safe solution that can be manually or automatically metered in	•
Liquid Chlorine		It is difficult to store or transport safely and system parts can be degraded by corrosion
Hypochlorite	Reaction is relatively fast and removes any potential disease carriers	The system parts can be degraded by corrosion and oxidant solution can lose oxidation power with time
Permanganate	Reaction is very fast, oxidizes arsenic in less than 1 minute. It is a safe solution that can be manually or automatically metered in, unreactive with membranes	compound that may interfere with
Iron (III) or Mn (IV) Compounds	The system design allows oxidation and filtration steps to be combined in one unit	Iron (III) compounds can hydrolyze to form gelatinous solids which may plug up the oxidation/filtration bed
Fenton's Reagent	The oxidation rate is faster than hydrogen peroxide and oxidant solution is more stable	Operator error in mixing the iron (II) compound with the hydrogen peroxide can degrade the results, high cost involved

 Table 1.2. Comparison of different oxidizing agents.

Borho et al. carried out pilot-scale experiments with a very low initial As(III) concentration varying from 34 to 44 μ g/L and revealed that the coupling of manganese dioxide coated quartz sand for As(III) oxidation with iron(II)/oxygen to bind the generated As(V) molecules was very effective for removing As(III)²⁷¹. Potassium permanganate and potassium ferrate were applied to oxidize As(III) to As(V) and then removed As(V) by

Fe(III) coagulation^{272, 273}. Guan et al. evaluated the synergetic performance of permanganate and Fe(II) in removing $As(III)^{274}$.

The oxidation of As(III) to As(V) was critical for achieving optimal performance for most processes and former studies demonstrated the feasibility of employing ozone, permanganate, sodium hypochlorite, for As(III) oxidation and subsequent enhanced arsenic removal. Potassium permanganate is a preferred oxidizing agent for the oxidation of As(III) to As(V) as it is cost-effective, easy to preserve and to handle in practice, especially for small systems in rural areas^{259, 275}.

1.6.1 pH-conditioning in arsenic and iron removal by oxidation-coagulation methods

The pH of water is known to play an important role in removal of arsenic and iron from water²⁷⁶. Since the removal of arsenic and iron are pH-dependent, different pH-conditioners have been tried for providing favourable pH for removal of these ions by precipitation-coagulation^{27, 277}. As(V) exists in anionic forms of H₂AsO₄⁻, HAsO₄²⁻ or AsO₄³⁻ depending upon the pH of the solution above 3.0^{278} . When iron is precipitated at increasing pH, it could facilitate the conversion of soluble arsenic species to insoluble iron-arsenic complex^{268, 279}. A pH around 7.3 is required for Fe(OH)₃ particles to have a net positive charge. Arsenic removal may also occur at higher pH levels, but not as effectively as at lower pH values^{280, 281}. Arsenic removal decreases with increasing pH values above 8.5^{168} . On the other hand, at highly alkaline condition, Fe(OH)₄⁻ ions are formed in water^{282, 283}, which is also expected to decrease the adsorption of the negatively charged arsenate ions on their precipitate.

Lime, ash, carbonates and bicarbonates of Na and K are used for pH conditioning to facilitate removal of arsenic. While using these pH-conditioners, one not only has to ensure efficient removal of arsenic to desired levels, but sometimes also needs a careful adjustment of the dose of the pH-conditioner for regulating the final pH or readjustment of the pH of treated water, which may be avoided by choosing the appropriate pH-conditioner and its dose.

1.6.2 Correlation between arsenic and iron contamination of groundwater

The use of co-existing dissolved iron for removal of arsenic by adsorption is a promising method²⁸⁴. Generally, tubewell water contains high concentration of dissolved iron. Geological formations as well as waste effluents of industrial processes are responsible for occurrence of iron in groundwater²⁸⁵. In India, groundwater contamination

with high concentrations of iron (>15 mg/L) has been reported in several states including Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Chattisgarh, Karnataka and Orissa²⁸⁶⁻²⁸⁹. Iron has been attracting attention of researchers as one of the heavy metals that causes problems especially at high levels of contamination²⁹⁰. Presence of iron in water above a certain level makes the water unusable mainly for aesthetic considerations such as discoloration of food and beverage, metallic taste, odor, turbidity, staining of laundry and plumping fixtures, etc.²⁹¹. Ferric hydroxide precipitates formed under an aerobic condition at neutral or alkaline pH²⁹² can generate toxic derivatives²⁹³ and develop infection, neoplasia, cardiomyopathy, arthropathy, and various endocrine and neurodegenerative disorders²⁹⁴⁻²⁹⁶ in human. In addition to that, growth of microorganisms promoted by iron oxide in water inhibits some industrial processes^{297, 298}. Since iron in the water is able to induce several problems, it has been regarded as one of the major target materials to be removed. The WHO recommends a guideline value of 0.3 mg/L of iron in drinking water³⁴. Among the different technologies of iron removal²⁹⁹⁻³⁰³, aeration and separation is the most commonly employed method, which works fairly well at lower iron concentrations, however, not so popular at rural and semi-urban communities lacking piped water supply. Other techniques, such as ionexchange method³⁰⁴, oxidation with oxidizing agents including chlorine and potassium permanganate³⁰⁵, filtering with activated carbon and other filtering materials^{306, 307}, supercritical fluid extraction³⁰⁸, bioremediation³⁰⁹ and treatment with limestone³¹⁰ have been applied for the removal of high amounts of iron.

Although there is no good correlation between concentrations of iron and arsenic, iron in ferrous form and arsenic in arsenite form have been found to co-exist in ground water. The iron precipitates [Fe(OH)₃] formed by oxidation of dissolved iron present in groundwater have the affinity for the adsorption of arsenic. Only aeration and sedimentation of tubewell water rich in dissolved iron has been found to remove arsenic. From literature it has been found that iron removal plants can lower arsenic content of tubewell water to half to one-fifth of the original concentrations^{1, 151, 311}.

1.6.2.1 Iron distribution vs. pH

Ferrous (Fe²⁺) and ferric (Fe³⁺) ions occur in aqueous solutions in a wide variety of aquatic context. The spontaneous chemical oxidation from ferrous to ferric by oxygen is a complex process involving a variety of partially oxidized ferrous-ferric intermediate species³¹². These intermediates are difficult to characterize and ultimately these iron-intermediates transform into a variety of stable iron oxide end-products such as hematite,

magnetite, goethite and lepidocrocite. pH plays an important role in determining the solubility of iron. Iron will be soluble more with lowering the pH. Ranges of concentrations of iron in water can be predicted as a function of Eh and pH together (Figure 1.2)³¹³.

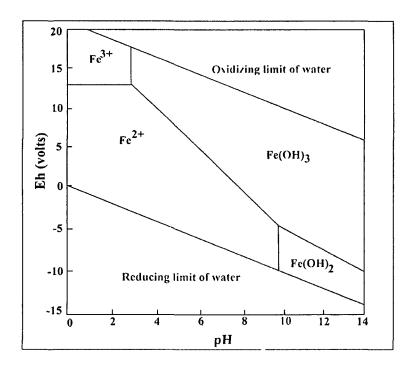


Figure 1.2. The Eh-pH diagram for iron at 25°C

1.7 The Lacuna

The groundwater of vast areas of Assam, a north-eastern state of India, is contaminated with arsenic much above the WHO guideline value of 10 μ g/L. Arsenic contamination of groundwater of Assam came to light in 2004¹²⁷, but, till now, no adequate effort has been made to mitigate the problem. During the last few years many small and community scale based arsenic removal technologies have been developed^{314, 315}. But, there always arise questions regarding the efficiency and applicability/appropriateness of these technologies. There are many technologies which are successful in the laboratory but they are not popular in the field conditions mainly due to wide range of initial concentration of arsenic, post-treatment requirement, optimization of right dose of chemicals, source water composition etc. Though a number of arsenic removal methods are available, a more cost-effective, environment friendly technology with minimized disadvantages and suitable for household use in rural areas is yet to be developed. A system to become practically successful must be economically viable and socially acceptable.

During a research for evaluation of new method for removal of arsenic from water some factors are to be considered essentially, *viz.*,

- a) The method should be simple and can be used by a layman,
- b) The method should be low-cost, the overall cost treatment per liter of water should be affordable for the rural area people,
- c) The treatment should not produce any hazardous chemical after the treatment,
- d) Treatment time should be minimum,
- e) The method should be applicable to different ranges of arsenic concentration,
- f) The method should work efficiently in the presence of other cations and anions present in the groundwater,
- g) The energy requirement of the process should be minimum,

It is not so easy to fulfill all these above mentioned conditions during the evaluation of a method for removal of arsenic. Hence, no such method fulfilling all the above criteria has been possible yet. Research on arsenic removal aiming to get the simplest method to be used in household and community purpose is thus urgently needed.

As it is evident from previous discussions, oxidation-coagulation appears to be one of the most cost effective and efficient arsenic removal methods. Although the pH dependence of arsenic and iron removal by coagulation-precipitation is well known, there has been no report of any systematic comparative study of the efficiencies of different pH conditioners in the simultaneous removal. These pH conditioners produce different concentrations of OH⁻ ions in water due to hydrolysis of the oxides or salts; thereby affect the pH of water, which consequently affect the removal of iron and arsenate ions. Both As(V) and As(III) have a strong pH dependent sorption affinity for iron hydroxide and oxyhydroxide minerals such as ferrihydrite and goethite³¹⁶. It was therefore worthwhile to carry out a detail systematic study (including field trial) of simultaneous arsenic and iron removal based on oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH (OCOP) to develop a simple, efficient, low-cost, user friendly and environment friendly method executing most of the above criteria. Such a study can be complete with finding out the appropriate pHconditioner and its adequate use.

1.8 Aim of the present work

The aim of the present work is to systematically investigate the pH-conditioning for efficient removal of arsenic and iron and subsequently to study of the OCOP method for removal of arsenic and iron from contaminated water through laboratory experiments and user trial.

1.8.1 Selection of the pH-conditioner, the oxidant and the coagulant

Arsenic adsorption onto ferric chloride coagulations or hydrous ferric oxide 27, 317, ³¹⁸, IOCS^{319, 320} or ZVI³²¹⁻³²³, zeolite³²⁴, iron-rich natural adsorbents^{325, 326} considering various factors which influence the adsorption have been reported. Among them several studies reported FeCl₃ as quite promising coagulant in comparison to other coagulants. As we have discussed earlier that a coagulant alone is not capable of lowering arsenic from +III state to below 0.01 mg/L and oxidation of As(III) to As(V) needs to be considered prior to coagulation. The oxidation of As(III) to As(V) is critical for achieving optimal performance for most arsenic removal processes. The feasibility of employing ozone, potassium permanganate and sodium hypochlorite for As(III) oxidation and subsequent enhanced arsenic removal have been demonstrated³²⁷⁻³²⁹. Potassium permanganate is preferable over other oxidizing agents for the oxidation of As(III) as it is cost-effective, easy to preserve and to handle in practice, especially for small systems in rural areas^{259, 275}. As the removal of arsenic and iron is a pH-dependent process, we planned to study the efficiencies of carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K, banana ash and lime as pHconditioners and to use the most efficient pH conditioners for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron.

1.9 Objectives:

We proposed to meet this aim with the objectives set as follows:

- Laboratory evaluation of the performance and suitability of different pH conditioners for removal of iron.
- Laboratory evaluation of the performance and suitability of different pH conditioners for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron.
- Laboratory optimization of the doses of pH conditioner, oxidant and coagulant.
- Examination of the applicability of the method in certain defined range of operational variables.
- Evaluation of the effect of dependent and extraneous variables on the removal characteristics.
- Study of the potability of the purified water.

Evaluation of effectiveness of the process in the field through user trial at household and small community level.

1.10 The strategy

We have studied the removal of arsenic and iron by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH method. For this purpose we have to choose the appropriate pH-conditioner, the oxidant, the coagulant to obtain efficient removal of arsenic and iron. To meet this, we prepared a plan of work in the order described below:

- Batch tests on removal of iron to evaluate the efficiencies of different pHconditioners. The pH-conditioners chosen were bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium, banana ash and their binary mixtures.
- Batch tests on simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron to evaluate the efficiencies of bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium, banana ash and their binary mixture as pH-conditioner.
- Comparison of the batch test results to choose the suitable pH-conditioner.
- Batch tests on simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron to obtain the optimum doses of pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant.
- To investigate the influence of initial concentration of arsenic on removal rate of arsenic by OCOP method.
- Study of the effects of the coexisting ions on removal of arsenic as the groundwater contains several different anions which may interfere in the adsorption or precipitation of arsenic removal during the OCOP treatment.
- Study of the mechanism of removal of arsenic and iron in the process by using various analytical tools.
- A laboratory bench scale pilot study to examine the performance of the OCOP method in real water purification set-ups with sand-gravel filter.
- Evaluation of the performance of OCOP technique using the optimized doses for removal of arsenic and iron in the field through user trial at domestic and small community levels in various arsenic-affected areas of Assam. The field trial was to involve the following steps:
 - Selection of some suitable arsenic-affected spot sources of groundwater of villages and schools of arsenic-affected areas for the user trial.
 - Conveying the users of the health-hazards of consuming arsenic through drinking water and trained with our method for arsenic removal.

- Arsenic removal and collection of samples of treated water by the users.
- Collection and testing of the samples of treated water for arsenic and other water quality parameters.
- Evaluation of the performance of the arsenic removal method.
- Study of the environmental aspect of the method.

Chapter 2

Experimental

.

2. Experimental

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Banana ash

The ash was obtained from banana pseudostem. Banana pseudostem is used for making 'Kolakhar', a substitute of edible soda by villagers of Assam. The major constituent of banana ash is potassium carbonate³³⁰⁻³³³. The ash was prepared by burning 500 mg of dried banana pseudostem in a porcelain basin at 500°C in muffle furnace for 4 hour³³⁴.

2.1.2 Chemicals

Analytical grade potassium carbonate (K_2CO_3), sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3), potassium bicarbonate (KHCO₃), sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), calcium oxide (CaO), potassium permanganate (KMnO₄), ferric chloride (FeCl₃), ferrous sulphate heptahydrate (FeSO₄.7H₂O), sodium sulphate (Na_2SO_4), disodium hydrogen phosphate (Na_2HPO_4) and sodium meta-silicate ($Na_2SiO_3.9H_2O$) were obtained from Merck, Mumbai and used as such. Sodium meta-arsenite ($NaAsO_2$) and sodium arsenate heptahydrate ($Na_2HAsO_4.7H_2O$) were obtained from Sigma Aldrich and used as such.

2.1.3 Water

Doubly distilled water was used for the preparation of arsenic and iron solution for the experiments. The groundwater used during the experiments was drawn from a shallow tube well of depth of approximately 14 m. Some relevant chemical parameters of the groundwater are mentioned in Table 2.1.

Parameter	Concentration in mg/L except pH
рН	7.44
Sodium, Na⁺	5.62
Potassium, K ⁺	8.75
Calcium, Ca ²⁺	0.72
Magnesium, Mg ²⁺	2.61
Mercury, Hg ²⁺	<0.001
Fluoride, F	0.206
Sulphate, SO4 ²⁻	200
Phosphate, PO ₄ ³⁻	. <0.003
Silica, SiO ₂	4.35
Total Hardness	12.6
Total Alkalinity	69.5

Table 2.1. Relevant parameters of groundwater used in laboratory experiments.

2.1.3.1 Preparation of synthetic iron-containing water

The Fe(II) stock solutions of different concentrations were prepared by dissolving the appropriate amount of FeSO₄.7H₂O in distilled water. Synthetic iron-containing groundwater was prepared by amending the iron concentration by addition of the required quantity of iron to freshly withdrawn groundwater.

2.1.3.2 Preparation of synthetic arsenic-containing water

The As(V) and As(III) stock solutions of different concentrations were prepared by dissolving the appropriate amounts of $Na_2HAsO_4.7H_2O$ and $NaAsO_2$, respectively in distilled water. Synthetic arsenic-containing groundwater was prepared by amending the arsenic concentration by addition of the required quantity of arsenic to freshly withdrawn groundwater.

2.2 Analytical tools

A Perkin Elmer Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS, model Analyst 200 Thermo iCE 3000 series, USA) and an Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrophotometer (ICP-OES, model Optima 2100 DV, Perkin Elmer, USA) were used for determination of As, Fe, and other heavy metal ion concentration in treated water. Concentration of Fe in the filtrates were sometimes determined also by 1,10phenanthroline method using a Shimadzu UV-2500 UV-visible Spectrophotometer³³⁵.

The pH of the solutions was measured using a multiparameter kit (model 5 Star pH.ISE.Cond.DO Benchtop, Orion, USA) with temperature compensation. The calibration of the pH was done with standard buffer solutions of pH 7.00 and pH 10.00. The field water samples were preserved in dilute HNO₃ (final concentration 0.1% and pH <2) for determination of metal ions³³⁶.

Arsenic and pH were determined in the field using a mobile As detection kit, (Merckoquant 1.17927.0001, Merck, Mumbai) and a pocket-sized pH meter (model HI96107, Hanna instruments, USA), respectively.

The surface micrographs of the precipitate were obtained from a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM, model JSM-6390LV, Jeol, Japan) with Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectra (EDS) at an accelerating voltage of 15.0 kV. The surface of the sample was platinum coated before SEM analysis. The X-ray Diffraction (XRD) carried out at room temperature (298K) on a X-ray diffractometer (model Miniflex, Rigaku, Japan) with graphite monochromated CuK α radiation (= 0.15 nm) at 30 kV and 15 mA using a scanning rate of 0.050°/s, over the range of 2 θ = (10-90)°. The Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded on an IR spectrophotometer (model Impact 410 FTIR spectrophotometer, Nicolet, Japan).

2.3 Methods

The methods used in the study have been presented in four sub-sections (from 2.3.1 to 2.3.4), each corresponding to one of four major parts of the study.

2.3.1 Methods of study of pH-conditioning for removal of iron

2.3.1.1 Batch experiments

Batch experiments were carried out to study the efficiency of different pHconditioners in removal of iron. The experiments were carried out by adding varying quantities of banana ash and carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K, their 1:1 binary mixture with 50 mL of iron containing water in Erlenmeyer flasks. Then the flasks were shaken manually for 1 minute moderately and allowed to settle. The efficiencies of the ash and the salts in precipitating iron ion were studied in terms of the effects of dose and residence time. The flasks were taken out one by one at predetermined time intervals and the liquid and solid phases were separated immediately by filtration using Whatman 42 filter paper and the residual Fe concentrations in the filtrates were determined.

2.3.1.2 Analysis of iron precipitate

The precipitates obtained after removal of Fe at different pH were collected. After that, the precipitates were oven-dried before they were subjected to various analytical tools, *viz.*, FTIR, XRD and SEM-EDS to know their characteristics.

2.3.2 Methods of study of pH-conditioning for removal of arsenate and iron

2.3.2.1 Batch experiments

The efficiency of the ash, lime and carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K in precipitating arsenate with iron were studied as a function of dose. The arsenic removal experiments were carried out in batches by mixing varying quantities of the ash or/and the salts with 100 mL of Fe(II) and As(V) containing water in Erlenmeyer flasks. The experiments were performed under open condition to allow natural aerial oxidation. The

flasks were shaken moderately in a mechanical shaker for 5 minutes and allowed to settle. The flasks were taken out one by one and the liquid and solid phases were separated after 2 h of residence time by filtration using Whatman 42 filter paper. After that the residual As, Fe concentrations and final pH of the treated water were determined.

2.3.2.2 Analysis of the precipitate

The precipitates obtained after simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron at different pH were collected. After that, the precipitates were oven-dried before they were subjected to various analytical tools, *viz.*, FTIR, XRD and SEM-EDS to know their characteristics.

2.3.3 Methods of study of removal of arsenic and iron by OCOP

2.3.3.1 Batch experiments

A working solution for experiments was freshly prepared from the stock solution of arsenic and iron. The laboratory batch tests were carried out in Erlenmeyer flasks in triplicate using arsenic containing distilled water and arsenic-amended groundwater. The pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant were added in a successive manner with mild stirring after each addition. The mixtures were allowed to settle for 2 h, and then filtered by using Whatman 42 filter paper. The final pH and remaining concentration of As and Fe in the filtrate were determined.

2.3.3.2 Effect of initial concentration of arsenic

The influence of initial concentration of arsenic on its removal by OCOP method was studied with initial arsenic concentrations of 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 mg/L.

2.3.3.3 Effect of the presence of co-existing anions in the water

To investigate the interference of co-existing ions, i.e., $SO_4^{2^2}$, $PO_4^{3^2}$, and $SiO_3^{2^2}$ on arsenic removal, respective sodium salts have been added to the arsenic containing solution before treatment of the water in the concentration ranges of 0-5.20 mM, 0-0.10 mM and 0-0.40 mM, respectively, in which they usually occur in groundwater.

2.3.3.4 Study of the precipitate of arsenic and iron

The precipitates obtained after removal of arsenic by OCOP method were analysed to know the mechanism of the removal methods of iron and arsenic. The precipitate of iron and arsenic were collected and oven-dried before they were subjected to various analytical tools, *viz.*, FTIR, XRD and SEM-EDS to know their characteristics.

2.3.3.5 Leachability test of the precipitate obtained after OCOP treatment

The sludge generated after treatment of arsenic containing water was collected and tested for leachability of arsenic from the sludge. The leaching behaviour of arsenic in the sludge sample was evaluated with the toxicity characteristic leaching procedure (TCLP)³³⁷. The extraction fluid according to the TCLP consists of 0.10 M acetic acid and 0.064 M sodium hydroxide. The pH of this fluid should be 4.93. The sludge sample was mixed with the extraction fluid, in a liquid-to-solid weight ratio of 20:1 for 18 h. After 18 h of agitation, the sample was filtered and the concentration of arsenic in the filtrate was measured.

2.3.3.6 Pilot study

For the laboratory bench scale pilot experiments, we have employed a setup as shown in Figure 2.1. It consists of two PET containers as coagulation cum sedimentation chamber and a sand-gravel filter. In the coagulation chamber, calculated quantities of solid NaHCO₃, 5% KMnO₄ and 25% FeCl₃ solutions were added to 1 L of groundwater spiked with arsenic in a stepwise manner with mild intermittent stirring for a while for mixing. For convenient application of the chemicals KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ were added as 5% and 25% solution, respectively. After 2 h, the precipitates get settled and the clear supernatant water was transferred to the sand-gravel filter. The sand-gravel filter removes the insoluble iron-arsenic complex.

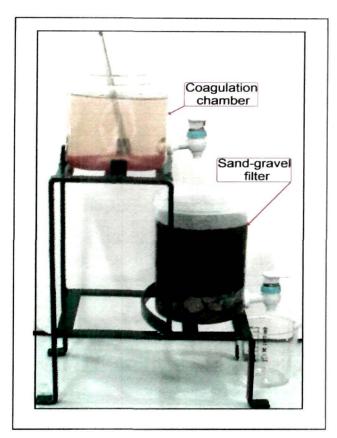


Figure 2.1. Picture of the bench scale pilot experimental set up.

2.3.3.7 Study of the relevant water quality parameters before and after OCOP treatment

The relevant water quality parameters *viz.* pH, conductivity, dissolved solids, suspended solids, concentration of other ions such as chloride, fluoride, nitrate, phosphate, sulphate, silica, concentration of heavy metal ions such as cadmium, calcium, chromium, cobalt, copper, lead, magnesium, manganese, mercury, potassium, sodium, zinc of the water samples were measured before and after the OCOP treatment using standard methods. Water purified by the OCOP method using the laboratory scale sand-gravel pilot set-up was used for these studies. The water before and after the treatment were also tested for microbial contamination by using multiple tube method and biochemical assays³³⁸.

2.3.4 Field Trial

2.3.4.1 Selection of site

Based on available reports¹²⁷, we have made our first visit to some arsenic affected areas in Assam during June, 2010. We have determined the concentrations of As and pH on the spot using a mobile arsenic detection kit and a pocket-sized pH meter, respectively. Samples were also collected for analysis of As, Fe, etc., in the laboratory by AAS or ICP- OES. On the basis of the results, we had initially selected two villages, *viz.*, Tatigaon and Kharikotia at Titabor sub-division of Jorhat district of Assam to carry out the user trial.

During our second visit, we have carried out initial field experiments on the selected sites. For this, we have used 15 L tub or bucket to carry out the OCOP treatment with 10 L of arsenic containing groundwater from the arsenic affected sources. The concentration of arsenic and pH of the treated water were determined on the spot. We brought samples of such experiments and again we have analysed for concentrations of As and Fe by AAS or ICP-OES. Later on we had chosen a few more spot sources in other districts for the user trial.

2.3.4.2 User training and demonstration

During the field study we faced some problems mainly due to the lack of awareness of people about arsenic contamination and toxicity. Therefore, we made some attempts for creating awareness about arsenic contamination and the importance of arsenic removal from drinking water among the affected rural people. We demonstrated the method to the villagers and school teachers and taught them how to follow the procedure. We also trained them to set up the systems for removal of arsenic from groundwater at household and small community level. We have also supplied one page instruction manual to the users describing the method in details in English or Assamese language as shown in Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3, respectively. Some photographs of user training in different arsenic affected areas are shown in Figure 2.4.

We felt the necessity of a suitable name for the method to make the method familiar to the users whose participation in the field trial was vital for the study as well as for popularity of the method. Since the present OCOP method simultaneously removes both arsenic and iron ions, the method was named as 'Arsiron Nilogon' (আৰ্ছিৰন নিলগন). Here, 'Arsiron' (আৰ্ছিৰন) stands for 'Arsenic and iron. 'Nilogon' (নিলগন) is the local Assamese equivalent for 'removal'.



A SIMPLE HOUSEHOLD ARSENIC AND IRON REMOVAL METHOD

In 10 litre of arsenic water

- 1.Add half of the tube (1g) of baking soda to the water with mild stirring to dissolve.
- 2. Add 3 drops* (0.1 mL) of potassium permanganate from the dropper bottle with mild stirring to mix.

*If iron is also present in the water then add more potassium permanganate until the pink color continues to be decolorized.

3.Add one cup (1mL) of the Iron solution and add to the water bucket and stir mildly to mix. Now, allow the water bucket to stand for 1-2 hour.

After 1-2 hour reddish brown coloured precipitate will appear at the bottom of the bucket. Now, decant the supernatant portion of the water carefully to the sand-gravel filter. Now, the water is arsenic-free.

Precautions:

- 1. Clean your hand before starting the procedure.
- 2. The Iron solution should be handled carefully because if it comes into contact with skin, irritation may occur. If such thing happens wash your hands with water immediately.
- 3.Do not throw the reddish brown precipitate remained at the bottom of the bucket here and there. It contains arsenic. Make a small hole in an earthen pot and insert some small bamboo sticks in that hole and place it above another bucket as shown in the picture. Fill half of the earthen pot with sand and decant the reddish brown precipitate to the pot. The water will come out and precipitate will remain above the sand particles. This water is also arsenic-free and can be used.

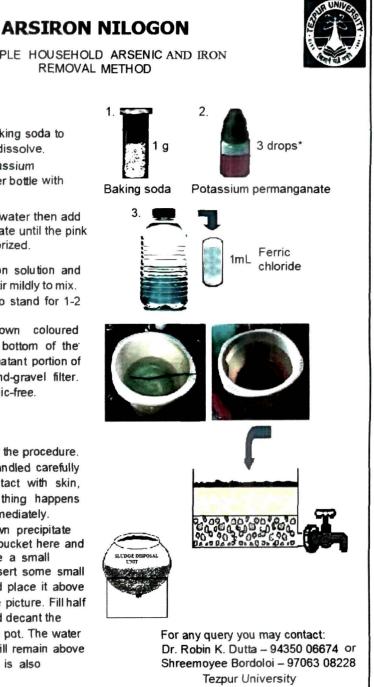


Figure 2.2. Instruction manual that we supplied to the village people and schools in English language.



<u>আৰ্ছিৰন নিলগন</u>

<u>ঘৰতে পানীৰ পৰা আৰ্ছেনিক আৰু আইৰন নাইকিয়া, কৰা সহজ পদ্ধতি</u>

১০ নিটাৰ গানী গৰিম্কাৰ বন্দি ব চৌবাচ্চা এটাত লঙক

- টেউরটোৰ আধালৈকে (১গ্রাম) খ্যেরা চ'র্ডা ভবাই পানীখিনিত ঢানি দিয়ক, তালদৰে লবাই নিয়ক।
- ২। সৰু ড্ৰপাৰ বটলটোৰ পৰা ৩ টোপাল প টাচ (০.১ মিনিনিটাৰ) পানীত দিয়ক, পুনৰ গানীথিনি ভালদৰে লৰাই দিয়ক।

ংপানীত আইৰন থাকিলে পটাচ অলপ ৰেছিকৈ দিব লাগে, এনে ৰুৰোতে পানীত যাতে ৰেঙুপীয়া ৰং ৰৈ নাযায়, সেই কথা লক্ষ্য কৰিব লাগে৷

৩। বটনত থকা তাইৰনৰ দ্ৰৱণবিধ সৰু কাগটোৰে একাপ (১ মিনিনিটাৰ) লৈ পানীখিনিত ঢানি নি মাৰি এডানেৰে পানীখিনি নৰাই ১ৰ পৰা ২ ফটা থৈ নিয়ক।

তাৰ পিছত তনত মুগা ৰঙৰ গেদ পৰিব। স্নৱধানতাৰে ওপৰত থকা পৰিম্কাৰ পানীখিনি শিন-বলিৰ ফিন্টাৰত ঢানি ফিন্টাৰ কৰক।এতিয়া পানীখিনি ব্যৱহাৰৰ উপযোগি।

ল কাগীয়া **সা**ৱধানতা:

- ১। পদ্ধতিটো আৰম্ভ কৰাৰ আগতে হাতখন পৰিম্কাৰ কৰি ল'ব।
- ২। আইৰনৰ দ্ৰৱণবিধ কাপেৰে পানীত ঢানোতে সাৱধান হ'ব। হাতত লাগিনে ধন্ধুৱাব পাৰে। হাতত লাগিলে নগে নগে ধুই পেনাব।

৩। বন্দিৰ তলত ৰৈ যোৱা গেনখিনি য'তে ড'তে নেপেনাব. তাতে আছেনিক আছে । এটা মটিৰ টেকেলিৰ চলফালে সৰুকৈ ফুটা কৰি ৰৰিকা তৰাই টেকেলিটো এটা পাত্ৰত চিত্ৰত দেখুওৱা ধৰণে ৰাখক । টেকেলিটোত তাধলৈকে বলি ভৰাই গেদখিনি চলি দিয়ক ৷ তলৰ পাত্ৰত পৰি যোৱা পানীখিনিত আছেণিক নাই ৷ এই গেদখিনি পুনৰ শাক-পাছনিৰ বা পানীৰ যোগোদ ষতে অমাৰ শৰীৰত প্ৰৱেশ কৰিব নোৱাৰে সেইটো মন কৰিবলগীয়া। গতিকে গেদখিনি গোটাই নিৰাপদ হানত পেলাব লগে ৷

কিৱা অসুবিধা গালে ষেগধোগ কৰিব পাৰে ১। ভগ ৰবিন কৃষ্ণৰ দন্ত – ৯৪৩৫০.০৮৬৭৪ ২। প্ৰীষয়ী বৰুলৈ – ৯৭০৬৩.০৮২২৮



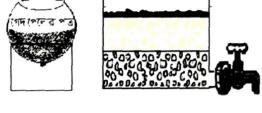


Figure 2.3. Instruction manual that we supplied to the village people and schools in local Assamese language.



Figure 2.4. Photographs taken during demonstration of '*Arsiron Nilogon*' in different areas in Assam (a) at Kharikotia Lower Primary School, Titabor, Jorhat; (b), (c) at Tatigaon, Titabor, Jorhat; (d) at Bholukaguri Lower Primary School, Gohpur, Sonitpur; (e) at Kakila Chariali Upper Primary School, Gohpur, Sonitpur; (f) at Kakila Chariali Lower Primary School, Gohpur, Sonitpur; (g) at N. N. Saikia College, Titabor, Jorhat; (h) in a workshop in Tezpur University; (i) at Asom Kesori Jatiya Vidyalaya, Kaithalkuchi, Nalbari (The author and her PhD supervisor are in the extreme left of Figure 2.4e and 2.4d, respectively).

2.3.4.3 Design and fabrication of Arsiron Nilogon systems of different capacities

There is no limitation in the technology with respect to quantity of water to be treated. The system can be custom-designed to meet the requirements of a household or a community. Some of the model designed and/fabricated for use in household or small community scales are shown in Figure 2.5.

A household *Arsiron Nilogon* system of 10 L capacity with a sand-gravel filter on a stand has been shown in Figure 2.5a. It requires a bucket (strong enough to withstand the weight of the sand and the gravels) of 25-30 L capacity as a sand-gravel filter. The arsenic containing water is treated in a bucket and poured into the sand-gravel filter after at least one hour when the precipitate is settled down. The filtered arsenic free water is collected in another bucket. This system can provide about 100 L of arsenic-free water a day against a requirement of 20-30 L of drinking water for a family.



Figure 2.5. Arsenic removal systems of different capacities (a) 10 L; (b) 25 L;(c) 200 L; (d) 500 L.

A small community scale *Arsiron Nilogon* system shown in Figure 2.5b consists of two treatment tanks of about 30 L drums at the top fitted with a tap each, a sand-gravel

filter of a 40 L drum in the middle and a storage tank of a 60 L drum at the bottom fitted with a tap. The water can be treated in the two treatment tanks alternately in order to save time. This system can give 300 L arsenic free water a day. Though any filtration system is found to be useful for the purpose, sand filtration has been found to be a good option. Other small community systems shown in Figure 2.5 (c & d) can have higher capacities. Some household and small community scale *Arsiron Nilogon* units installed at various places are shown with the users in Figure 2.6.



Figure 2.6. Various '*Arsiron Nilogon*' units installed at (a) Family no. 1; (b) Family no. 2 at Tatigaon, Titabor, Jorhat; (c) Kharikotia High School, Titabor, Jorhat; (d) Kharikotia Lower Primary School, Titabor, Jorhat; (e) Titabor Tatigaon Child and Women Care Centre, Jorhat; (f) N. N. Saikia College, Titabor, Jorhat.

Initially, we applied the method for removal of arsenic from spot sources which did not have dissolved iron above 1.0 mg/L. After that we tested the method with water containing dissolved iron above 1.0 mg/L.

2.3.4.4 Monitoring of the user trial

The chemicals were distributed in a kit (Figure 2.7) to the families and schools. NaHCO₃ is used as white solid powder, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ were used as 5% and 25% solution, respectively as shown in Figure 2.7. Filtered water samples were collected from the households and schools periodically and were analyzed for As, Fe and other water quality parameters.

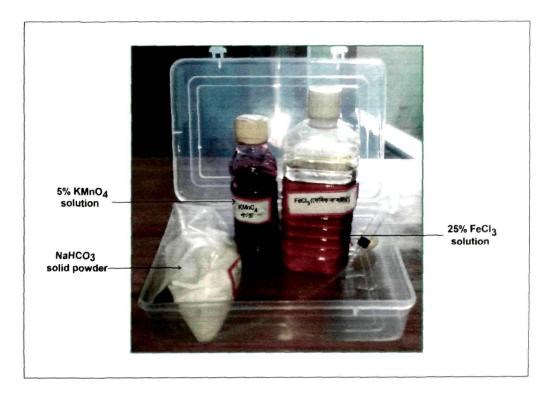


Figure 2.7. The chemicals needed for the treatment process in the form of a handy kit supplied to the schools and the families.

2.3.4.5 Collection and study of the solid sludge

Earthen pot (1–3 L) sand filters were used to filter the concentrated sludge, from the coagulation-sedimentation chamber, to collect the sludge in solid form as shown in Figure 2.8. The solid sludge of very small volume deposited in the pot. The nature of the sludge was studied including the TCLP test.

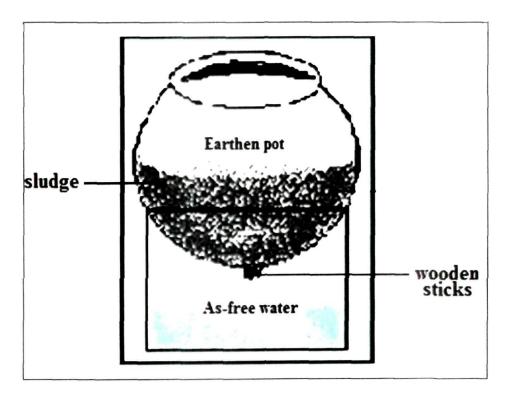


Figure 2.8. An earthen pot sand filter for collecting the sludge.

Chapter 3

Results and discussion

-

3. **Results and Discussion**

3.1 pH-conditioning for removal of iron

We have studied the effects of pH-conditioning on removal of iron from groundwater since iron usually coexists with arsenic and also influences the removal of arsenic. The results on the experiments on removal of iron by using bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K, banana ash, and their 1:1 binary mixture as pH-conditioner have been discussed in this section. Results of the batch tests have been analysed to assess performance and optimize the process and dose for iron removal by these pH-conditioners. The different parameters considered for this experiment were the quantity of ash or/and salt required, the effect of residence time, the effluent water pH and the effect of initial concentration of iron.

3.1.1 Batch study

Batch tests in Erlenmeyer flasks were performed to determine the efficiency of different pH-conditioners and hence to optimize the doses required to get efficient removal of iron. Different quantities of the pH-conditioners were added to the iron containing water with different residence time. The results of this experiment have been discussed here.

3.1.1.1 Iron ion removal from high initial concentration using banana ash

Iron ion removal from initial concentrations of 2.2 and 5.2 mg/L by banana ash was reported earlier²⁸⁶. As iron ion is found in groundwater also with much higher concentrations than 5.2 mg/L, we have examined its removal from a higher initial iron ion concentration of 20 mg/L by varying quantity of banana ash from 2 mg/L to 500 mg/L at residence time of 1/2 to 2 h. The results of the remaining concentration of iron after treatment against various doses of banana ash added along with the final pH of the treated water for different residence times are shown in Table 3.1 and Figure 3.1.

As can be seen from the Table 3.1, the iron ion concentration comes down from 20 mg/L to about 17 mg/L in the blank experiments performed without addition of the ash. It is well known that groundwater is generally anoxic and iron ion exists in ferrous state, i.e., as Fe^{2+} ion, which when comes into contact with atmospheric oxygen, e.g. during

^{*} This work has been published in **Desalination**, 281, 190-198, 2011

aerial oxidation of iron ion practiced in community piped water supply schemes, is oxidized to ferric state. As the present experiments have been carried out in open condition, the observed decrease in the concentration of the iron ion in the blank sample from 20 mg/L to 17 mg/L can be attributed to aerial oxidation of iron ion.

A quantity of 400 mg/L of ash is required to bring down the iron ion concentration from 20 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L as can be seen from Table 3.1. This dose of the ash leaves the pH of the treated water above 9.5. An increase in the residence time to 2 h led to a further increase in the final pH. Such a high final pH can be attributed to the presence of a small amount of K_2O along with K_2CO_3 in the ash. High final pH makes banana ash unsuitable to use as pH-conditioner as the pH above 8.5 is not acceptable for drinking water³³⁹. Thus, to avoid the presence of K_2O , iron ion removal abilities of pure carbonates of Na and K have been investigated.

Banana ash/	-	[Fe] after treath residence time		pH of the treated water			
(mg/L)	½ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h	
0	17.11	17.02	16.81	5.8	5.8	5.8	
2	15.49	12.38	10.22	5.8	5.8	5.9	
5	12.48	11.67	9.48	5.9	5.9	5.9	
10	10.21	9.42	7.81	5.9	6.0	6.1	
20	10.02	8.21	7.66	6.0	6.1	6.2	
30	8.47	7.37	7.04	6.1	6.2	6.3	
40	8.26	6.89	5.18	6.2	6.3	6.5	
50	6.77	4.79	3.24	6.3	6.5	6.6	
60	6.11	3.55	2.19	6.5	6.7	6.7	
70	5.45	3.11	2.02	6.6	6.7	7.0	
80	4.22	3.04	1.55	7.0	7.3	7.7	
90	3.56	2.61	1.49	8.1	8.2	8.4	
100	3.21	2.45	1.22	8.9	9.0	9.0	
200	2.41	1.78	1.09	9.4	9.8	9.8	
300	1.45	1.12	1.01	9.5	9.8	9.8	
400	1.26	1.02	0.29	9.6	9.9	9.9	
500	1.04	0.89	0.21	9.6	9.9	9.9	

Table 3.1. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by banana ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

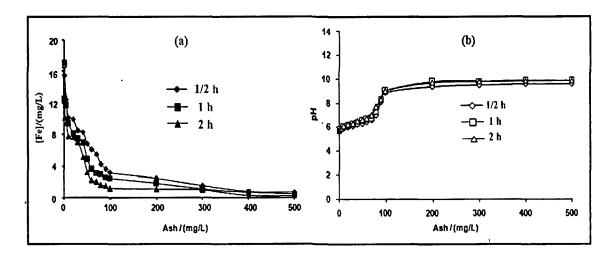


Figure 3.1. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of added ash in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

3.1.1.2 Iron ion removal with K_2CO_3 and Na_2CO_3

The results of the iron ion removal with carbonate salts of Na and K have been shown in Table 3.2 (a & b) and Figure 3.2.

Potassium carbonate/	-	[Fe] after treat residence time		y pH of the treated water			
(mg/L)	¹∕₂ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h	
0	17.04	16.91	16.78	5.6	5.7	5.7	
2	15.45	12.37	10.18	5.7	5.8	5.8	
5	12.51	10.11	8.38	5.7	5.8	5.9	
10	8.49	7.36	6.92	5.8	5.9	6.0	
20	8.27	6.87	5.18	5.9	6.0	6.2	
30	6.81	4.76	3.17	6.1	6.3	6.3	
40	6.04	4.11	3.02	6.2	6.4	6.6	
50	5.11	3.78	2.68	6.2	6.4	6.7	
60	4.55	3.21	2.17	6.3	6.6	7.0	
70 ·	3.11	2.59	1.78	6.5	6.9	7.1	
80	2.89	2.38	1.58	7.0	7.3	7.5	
90 `	2.48	1.88	1.16	7.3	7.8	8.0	
100	1.56	1.46	0.99	7.5	7.9	8.2	
200	1.38	1.21	0.69	7.9	8.2	8.5	
300	1.18	1.01	0.28	8.2	8.5	89	
400	1.11	0.89	0.18	9.1	9.2	9.4	
500	1.02	0.58	0.12	9.2	9.4	9.6	

Table 3.2a. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

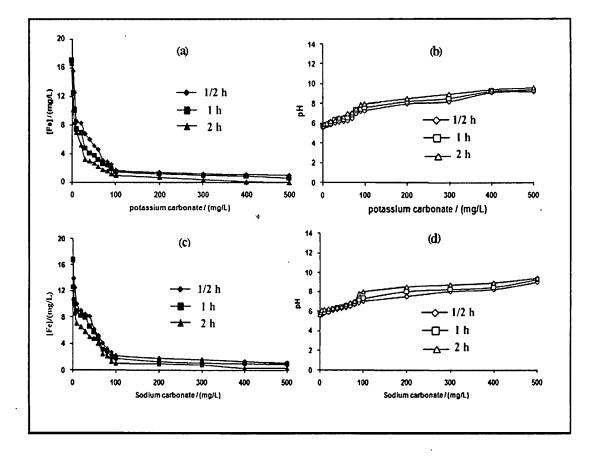
Sodium carbonate/	-	[Fe] after treat residence time		pH of the treated water			
(mg/L)	½ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h	
0	16.79	16.78	16.77	5.6	5.7	5.7	
2	13.96	12.67	10.09	5.6	5.7	5.9	
5	12.48	10.21	8.67	5.7	5.8	6.1	
10	10.11	8.77	7.01	5.8	5.9	6.2	
20	8.91	8.28	6.56	5.9	6.0	6.3	
30	8.48	8.04	5.89	6.1	6.2	6.3	
40	8.18	6.56	5.09	6.2	6.3	6.4	
50	6.21	5.77	4.78	6.3	6.4	6.5	
60	5.29	4.78	4.01	6.4	6.6	6.7	
70	4.09	3.18	2.45	6.5	6.6	6.9	
80	3.28	2.87	2.22	6.7	6.8	7.0	
90	2.78	1.89	1.36	6.9	7.2	7.8	
100	2.16	1.78	1.09	7.0	7.3	8.0	
200	1.28	1.28	0.98	7.5	8.0	8.5	
300	1.57	1.09	0.76	8.0	8.2	8.7	
400	1.29	0.97	0.31	8.2	8.4	8.9	
500	1.09	0.88	0.28	9.0	9.3	9.4	

Table 3.2b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

In the plots in Figure 3.2 (a-d), remaining concentration in mg/L of iron ion after treatment along with the final pH against various doses of carbonate salts of Na and K as pH-conditioner in the range of 0-500 mg/L at residence times of $\frac{1}{2}$ h to 2 h have been shown. The iron removal by the carbonate salts of Na and K has been found to be slightly better than that by the banana ash. The iron removal again showed improvement on increase in the residence time from $\frac{1}{2}$ h to 2 h. A residual Fe of 0.3 mg/L was achieved with 300 mg/L of K₂CO₃ at residence time of 2 h. From Table 3.2a, it is clear that the remaining Fe concentration can be further reduced to below 0.3 mg/L on increasing the quantity of potassium carbonate.

In case of Na_2CO_3 , the quantity required to achieve the removal of iron to 0.3 mg/L was 400 mg/L. Thus, the removal of iron in case of potassium salt is slightly better than the sodium salt of carbonate. The pHs of the treated water with the carbonates have been found to be within 9.5 up to the salt concentrations of 500 mg/L, which is slightly lower than that observed with the ash but still above the acceptable limit of 8.5. This led us to investigate



the iron ion removal using the bicarbonate salts of Na and K in an attempt to further reduce the final pH to below 8.5.

Figure 3.2. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of added carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

3.1.1.3 Iron ion removal with KHCO₃ and NaHCO₃

The results of iron ion removal by Na and K bicarbonates have been shown in Table 3.3 (a & b) and Figure 3.3. The observed curves for the residual iron ion and the final pH vs. quantity of the bicarbonate salts reveal an interesting fact that the iron ion removal is far better with both of the bicarbonates than the corresponding carbonate salts. On the other hand, the final pH obtained with the bicarbonates were lower than that with the carbonate salts. In case of NaHCO₃, less than 200 mg/L of the salt can reduce the iron ion concentration from 20 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L at residence time of 2 h. Again, a dose more than 200 mg/L of NaHCO₃ can further reduce the concentration of iron ion to below 0.3 mg/L (Table 3.3b).

Potassium bicarbonate/ (mg/L)	-	[Fe] after treat residence time		pH of the treated water		
~ U /	½ h	1 h	2 h	1/2 h	1 h	2 h
0	17.18	16.89	16.91	5.7	5.7	5.7
2	12.47	11.67	6.17	5.9	5.9	6.2
5	10.17	9.38	3.11	6.0	6.1	6.2
10	8.89	8.09	2.46	6.1	6.2	6.3
20	8.21	7.51	2.27	6.2	6.3	6.4
30	7.67	7.46	1.78	6.2	6.4	6.6
40	6.97	6.45	1.35	6.3	6.6	6.8
50	6.89	5.77	1.08	6.5	6.8	7.3
60	5.48	4.78	0.94	6.8	7.0	7.4
70	4.85	4.37	0.27	6.9	7.2	7.4
80	3.76	3.18	0.21	7.1	7.3	7.5
90	2.77	2.21	0.14	7.3	7.5	7.6
100	2.45	1.78	0.08	7.5	7.6	7.9
200	2.09	1.27	0.06	7.6	7.8	8.2
300	1.67	1.11	0.05	7.8	8.0	8.5
400	1.37	0.88	0.04	8.1	8.3	8.6
500	1.16	0.51	0.04	8.3	8.5	8.7

Table 3.3a. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by potassium bicarbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

.

Table 3.3b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by sodium bicarbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Sodium bicarbonate/ (mg/L)	•	[Fe] after treat residence time		pH of the treated water		
× -8 -7	½ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.18	16.95	16.92	5.6	5.7	5.7
2	12.45	11.66	9.46	5.9	6.4	6.3
5	10.18	9.41	7.78	6.1	6.5	6.6
10	8.89	8.05	5.22	6.4	6.6	6.7
20	8.17	7.53	4.51	6.5	6.6	6.9
30	7.67	7.45	3.94	6.5	6.7	7.2
40	6.99	6.48	3.82	6.6	6.9	7.4
50	6.91	5.78	3.18	6.8	7.2	7.4
60	5.46	4.78	2.19	7.0	7.3	7.6
70	4.89	4.36	1.82	7.2	7.5	7.8
80	3.78	3.21	1.47	.7.4	7.6	7.8
90	2.77	2.17	1.11	7.7	7.7	7.9
100	2.45	1.76	0.82	7.9	7.8	8.2
200	2.07	1.29	0.28	8.0	8.2	8.6
300	1.67	1.06	0.14	8.3	8.4	8.8
400	1.38	0.92	0.12	8.6	8.7	8.9
500	1.17	0.54	0.09	8.7	8.8	9.1

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

The removal effeciency of Fe by KHCO₃ is found to be better than that of NaHCO₃, analogous to that observed with the carbonate salts of Na and K. A quantity of 70 mg/L of KHCO₃ can remove iron ion to below 0.3 mg/L (Table 3.3a). Again, a quantity of 100 mg/L of KHCO₃ removed iron ion almost to an undetectable level. It is also interesting to note that in case of KHCO₃, the final pH remains within the acceptable range for drinking, *i.e.*, within 6.5 to 8.5 up to 300 mg/L of KHCO₃ dose.

Thus, in case of KHCO₃ the dose required to bring iron concentration to 0.3 mg/L from an initial concentration of 20 mg/L is the minimum among all other salts and ash. The final pH also remains within the acceptable range for drinking water unlike the carbonate salts of Na and K and banana ash. Hence, KHCO₃ is the most suitable candidate among all four salts and the banana ash from the consideration of dose of salt/ash and the final pH of water.

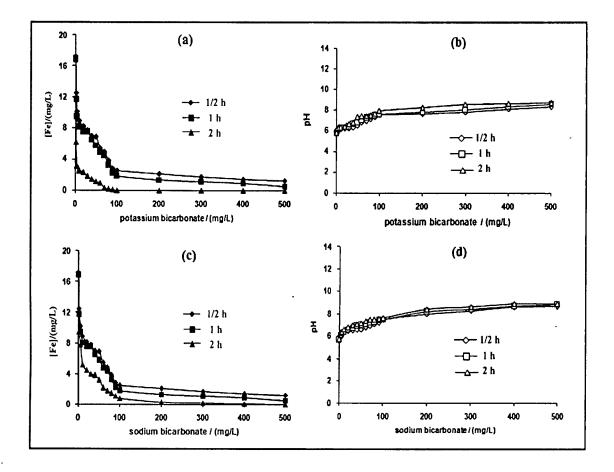


Figure 3.3. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment *vs.* amount of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

3.1.1.4 The reason for better performance of bicarbonate salts than carbonate salts of Na and K

It is well known that iron ion is precipitated as ferric oxide (Fe₂O₃) from neutral water, as goethite (FeOOH) from mild alkaline water and as ferric hydroxide (ferrihydrite, Fe(OH)₃) from highly alkaline water in presence of sufficient oxygen³⁴⁰. The reactions of formation of goethite and ferrihydrite can be represented as^{246, 341-344}:

$$2Fe^{2+} + O_2 + 2OH^- \rightarrow 2FeOOH\downarrow$$
 Eq. (3.1)

$$4\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{O}_2 + 8\text{OH}^- + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 4\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3\downarrow \qquad \qquad \text{Eq. (3.2)}$$

The solubility of these compounds decreases in the order Fe₂O₃>FeOOH>Fe(OH)₃ due to increasing OH⁻ groups in the same order. Iron ion is precipitated as goethite and ferrihydrite in the alkaline pH range of 7.0 to 9.8. The bicarbonates of Na and K produce milder alkaline solution than the corresponding carbonates. Therefore, it is likely that the goethite: ferrihydrite ratio in the precipitate is higher in the case of the bicarbonates than that in the case of equivalent quantity of the corresponding carbonate salt or banana ash, lime or NaOH. This is supported also by the fact that the removal of iron ion is slower with the bicarbonates than with the corresponding carbonates, which can be seen in Figure 3.2a and c and Figure 3.3a and c, since the precipitation of goethite is expected to be slower compared to that of ferrihydrite³⁴⁵. Although the overall iron ion removal was much better with the bicarbonates than the corresponding carbonates after residence time of 2 h, the reverse was however observed after residence time of ½ h and 1 h.

3.1.1.5 The reason for better performance of K-salts than the corresponding Na-salt

The equivalent concentration of potassium is less than that of sodium with equal concentrations in mg/L of their salts having the same anion. On the other hand, potassium is more basic than sodium. These mutually opposing factors may cancel each other, as reflected in the plots of pH vs. salt concentrations shown in Figure 3.2 and 3.3. Thus, the observed slightly higher iron removal by the K-salts than the corresponding Na-salts can be attributed to the slightly lower pH produced by the K-salts than that by the corresponding Na-salts.

3.1.1.6 Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures of the bicarbonate salts with the ash

The effect of 1:1 weight by weight mixture of ash with the bicarbonate salts of Na and K on removal of iron ion was investigated. The results were shown in Table 3.4 and Figure 3.4.

1:1 Potassium bicarbonate &		g [Fe] after treat residence time		pH of the treated water		
ash/ (mg/L)	¹ ∕₂ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.28	17.17	16.91	5.5	5.5	5.6
2	12.67	11.89	9.99	5.6	5.6	5.7
5	11.89	10.09	9.11	5.6	5.7	5.9
10	9.98	9.58	7.97	5.7	5.9	6.0
20	9.57	7.78	7.47	5.9	6.0	6.3
30	8.43	6.88	5.33	6.1	6.3	6.6
40	5.68	5.17	3.97	6.2	6.4	6.8
50	3.77	2.98	2.37	6.5	6.7	7.0
60	2.98	2.58	2.12	6.6	6.8	7.1
70	2.48	2.04	1.76	6.9	7.1	7.3
80	1.87	1.89	1.17	7.1	7.2	7.3
90	2.11	1.77	1.07	7.3	7.4	7.6
100	1.77	1.38	0.99	7.5	7.7	8.0
200	1.56	1.18	0.77	8.1	8.2	8.4
300	1.38	0.92	0.32	8.5	8.6	8.9
400	1.17	0.64	0.28	8.9	9.0	9.1
500	0.92	0.12	0.09	9.0	9.1	9.2

Table 3.4a. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

Table 3.4b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & ash from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

1:1 Sodium bicarbonate &		g [Fe] after treat residence time		pH of	the treated w	ater
ash/ (mg/L)	¹ ∕2 h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.17	17.02	16.78	5.5	5.5	5.6
2	12.87	11.97	10.11	5.6	5.6	5.7
5	11.77	11.12	9.91	5.6	5.7	5.9
10	10.27	9.78	8.56	5.7	5.9	6.1
20	9.56	7.84	7.48	5.9	6.0	6.2
30	8.56	6.89	5.26	6.2	6.3	6.5
40	6.17	5.47	4.12	6.3	6.3	6.7
50	5.12	4.26	3.09	6.4	6.5	6.9
60	3.27	2.96	2.37	6.6	6.7	7.0
70	2.89	2.28	1.89	7.2	7.3	7.3
80	2.48	2.09	1.37	7.3	7.4	7.5
90	1.98	1.89	1.17	7.4	7.6	7.7
100	1.89	1.47	1.09	7.5	7.8	8.2
200	1 67	0.98	0.56	8.3	8.5	8.7
300	1.37	0.92	0.27	8.9	9.1	9.2
400	1.04	0.74	0.12	9.0	9.2	9.3
500	0.92	0.18	0.09	9.1	9.3	9.5

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

١

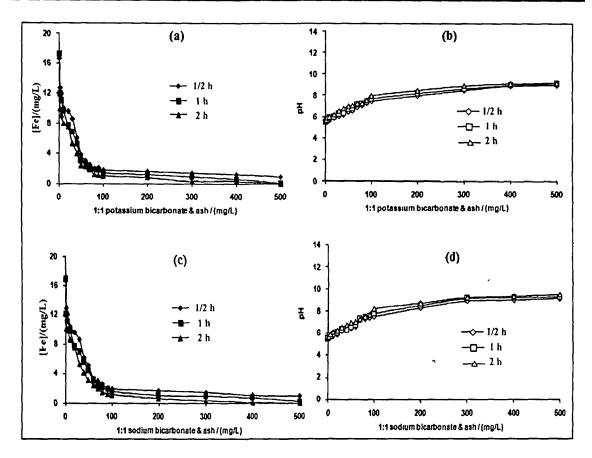


Figure 3.4. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K and ash in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

It has been found that the mixtures of NaHCO₃ and KHCO₃ with the ash showed lower iron ion removal abilities than the corresponding bicarbonate salts alone. The final pHs of the water treated with the mixtures were higher than that with the corresponding bicarbonate salts alone and were found to surpass 9.0, which is above the acceptable maximum limit for drinking water. The poor iron ion removal by the mixtures of bicarbonate and carbonate salts compared to the corresponding bicarbonates alone can be attributed to lower goethite: ferrihydrite ratio in the precipitate obtained with the mixtures than that obtained with the corresponding bicarbonates alone.

3.1.1.7 Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures of the potassium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K

Removal of iron ion with 1:1 binary mixture of potassium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K with the final pH of the treated water has also been studied. The results were shown in Table 3.5 and Figure 3.5.

1:1 potassium bicarbonate &,		[Fe] after treat residence time		pH of the treated water		
potassium carbonate/ (mg/L)	½ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.21	17.14	17.12	5.6	5.6	5.5
2	12.67	11.89	9.98	5.6	5.6	5.8
5	11.89	10.96	9.08	5.8	5.9	5.9
10	10.14	9.56	7.95	5.9	6.0	6.1
20	9.39	9.18	7.78	5.9	6.1	6.3
30	8.67	8.49	6.17	6.1	6.3	6.5
40	6.54	5.52	3.21	6.2	6.4	6.7
50	5.68	3.19	2.17	6.5	6.7	6.8
60	4.09	3.29	1.89	6.7	· 6.8	7.0
70	2.78	2.46	1.38	7.0	7.1	7.2
80	2.09	⁻ 1.78	1.14	7.2	7.3	7.8
90	1.88	1.51	0.78	7.3	7.5	8.0
100	1.16	1.27	0.72	7.4	7.7	8.1
200	1.14	0.98	0.31	8.0	8.2	8.6
300	0.91	0.48	0.27	8.2	8.4	8.9
400	0.58	0.32	0.12	8.7	8.9	9.0
500	0.31	0.11	0.09	9.2	9.4	9.5

Table 3.5a. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

Table 3.5b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 potassium bicarbonate & sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

1:1 potassium bicarbonate & sodium		[Fe] after tre residence tim		pH of the treated water		
carbonate/ (mg/L)	י∠ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.09	17.21	16.94	5.5	5.5	5.6
2	12.99	12.21	10.31	5.6	5.7	5.7
5	12.12	11.38	9.29	5.7	5.8	5.9
10	10.18	10.04	9.78	5.8	6.0	· 6.1
20	9.89	9.45	8.94	6.0	6.2	6.3
30	8.91	9.12	7.12	6.1	6.4	6.5
40	8.66	8.46	6.18	6.2	6.3	6.5
50	7.46	7.19	6.48	6.4	6.5	6.7
60	5.11	4.81	4.17	6.6	6.7	6.9
70	4.29	3.94	2.19	6.7	6.8	7.2
80	3.38	3.09	1.52	6.9	7.0	7.7
90	2.67	2.47	1.22	7.3	7.5	7.9
100	1.89	1.67	0.98	7.4	7.6	8.1
200	1.38	1.14	0.77	8.0	8.1	8.8
300	1.18	0.94	0.39	8.1	8.3	9.1
400	1.04	0.42	0.24	8.4	, 8.8	9.2
500	0.67	0.12	0.08	8.9	9.2	9.4

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

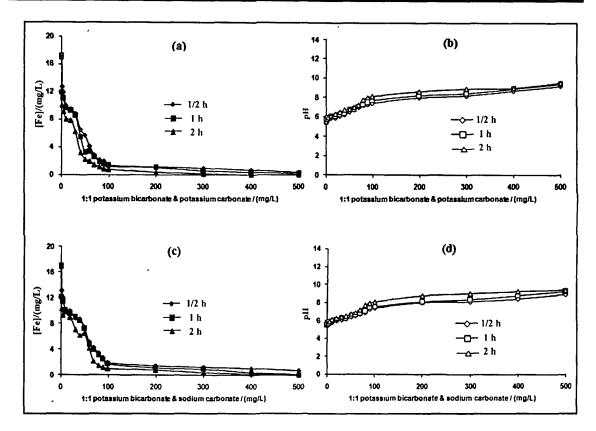


Figure 3.5. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added potassium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L of water at varying residence time with initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

The results obtained with the 1:1 mixture of carbonate and bicarbonate salts of potassium were found to be poor than that obtained with potassium bicarbonate alone but showed slight better performance than that with potassium carbonate. That means presence of more basic carbonate salts along with potassium bicarbonate lowers the ability of the later to remove iron by increasing the final pH of the water.

Again, 1:1 binary mixture of potassium bicarbonate and sodium carbonate showed similar trend as shown in Table 3.5b and Figure 3.5 (c & d). Thus, potassium bicarbonate alone is found to be far better than the 1:1 mixture of potassium bicarbonate with sodium carbonate.

3.1.1.8 Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures of the sodium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K

Table 3.6 and Figure 3.6 show the results of removal of iron ion and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixtures of sodium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K. In this case also, iron removal becomes lesser than that obtained with sodium bicarbonate alone but slightly better than that with carbonate salts alone.

,

.

.

1:1 sodium bicarbonate &	-	[Fe] after trea	pH of the treated water			
potassium carbonate/ (mg/L)	different	residence tim	e / (mg/L)			
	1∕2 h	1 h	2 h	Կ⁄₂ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.09	17.11	16.79	5.6	5.6	5.5
2	12.54	12.04	10.38	5.6	5.7	5.7
5	12.09	11.56	10.09	5.8	5.9	6.0
10	10.48	10.17	9.31	5.8	5.9	6.1
20	9.56	9.38	8.17	5.9	6.0	6.3
30	8.89	8.67	6.97	6.0	6.3	6.6
40	6.8	6.11	4.47	6.3	6.5	6.8
50	6.09	4.78	3.08	6.6	6.7	6.9
60	4.48	4.28	2.35	6.7	6.9	7.0
70	2.96	2.89	1.47	7.0	7.2	7.2
80	2.17	1.97	1.16	7.2	7.3	7.3
90	1.97	1.57	0.97	7.5	7.2	7.5
^{`)} 100	1.57	1.38	0.91	7.6	7.5	8.0
200	1.28	1.03	0.57	8.0	8.4	8.8
300	0.97	0.67	0.28	8.3	. 8.5	9.2
400	0.67	0.32	0.17	8.7	9.2	9.6
500	0.37	0.28	0.09	9.3	9.4	9.8

Table 3.6a: Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & potassium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

Table 3.6b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 sodium bicarbonate & sodium carbonate from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

1:1 sodium bicarbonate & sodium carbonate/ (mg/L)	Remaining [Fe] after treatment from different residence time / (mg/L)			pH of the treated water		
	½ h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	16 89	16.86	17.02	5.5	5.5	5.6
2	13.37	12.67	10.98	5.6	5.7	5.8
5	12.17	11.48	10.02	5.7	5.8	6.0
10	11.19	11.04	10.78	5.8	6.0	6.1
20	10.42	10.22	9.82	5.9	6.2	6.3 *
30	9.94	9.18	7.67	6.0	6.2	6.5
40	9.12	8.62	6.98	6.2	6.3	6.5
50	8.06	7.31	6.38	6.4	6.5	6.7
60	6.94	6.57	6.17	6.5	6.6	6.9
70	5.52	5.12	3.18	6.6	6.8	7.2
80	4.56	4.27	2.19	6.9	7.0	7.3
90	3.62	3.35	1.89	7.3	7.3	7.4
100	2.98	2.67	1.38	7.3	7.5	8.2
200	2.21	1.89	0.97	7.6	7.8	8.5
300	1.78	1.38	0.56	8.1	8.3	8.8
400	1.22	1.12	0.12	8.3	8.7	9.0
500	1.04	0.21	0.09	8.8	9.1	9.3

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

-

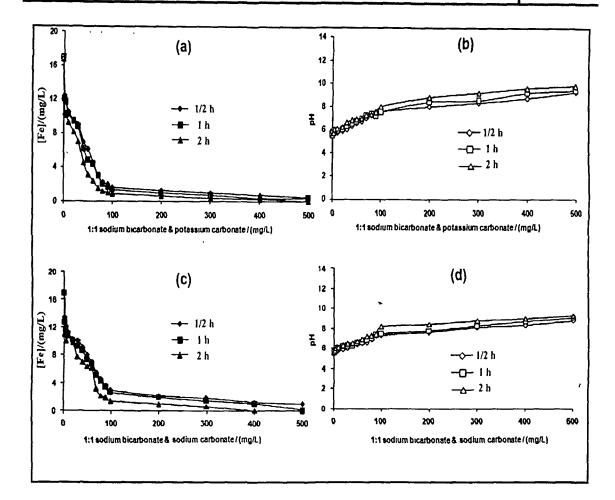


Figure 3.6. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of sodium bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L at varying residence time from initial [Fe] of 20 mg/L.

3.1.1.9 Iron ion removal with 1:1 binary mixtures of the bicarbonate salts of Na and K

Table 3.7 and Figure 3.7 show the results of removal of iron ion and final pH by 1:1 binary mixtures of the bicarbonate salts of Na and K. Among all the mixtures of salts, NaHCO₃ and KHCO₃ mixture showed the highest ability to remove iron ion, of which, 100 mg/L can remove iron ion almost completely. The removal of iron ion by the binary mixtures of the carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K, after a constant residence time of 2 h, was found to increase in the order (NaHCO₃+Na₂CO₃) < (NaHCO₃+K₂CO₃) < (KHCO₃+Ka₂CO₃) < (NaHCO₃+KHCO₃). In terms of the final pH of the treated water also the combination of NaHCO₃ and KHCO₃ has been the best, for which the pH remained within 8.5 up to the concentrations of the salts of 500 mg/L.

1:1 potassium	Remaining [I	Fe] after treat	ment from	pH of	the treated	water
bicarbonate & sodium	different re	sidence time	/ (mg/L)			
bicarbonate/ (mg/L)	1⁄2 h	1 h	2 h	½ h	1 h	2 h
0	17.28	17.11	16.79	5.7	5.7	5.7
2	12.31	10.96	6.11	5.9	5.9	6.2
5	10.05	9.21	2.96	6.1	6.2	6.2
10	8.78	7.98	2.67	6.1	6.2	6.3
20	8.39	7.29	2.11	6.2	6.4	6.5
30	7.98	7.12	1.88	6.3	6.4	6.8
40	7.12	6.38	1.36	6.4	6.5	6.9
50	6.67	5.27	1.28	6.6	6.8	7.1
60	5.16	4.26	1.09	6.9	7.0	7.3
70	3.09	1.78	0.34	7.0	7.1	7.5
80	3.14	1.18	0.31	7.2	7.3	7.7
90	2.67	1.04	0.18	7.3	7.6	7.8
100	2.19	1.08	0.14	7.4	7.8	7.9
200	1.66	0.94	0.09	8.0	8.3	8.5
300	1.39	0.89	0.08	8.1	8.4	8.6
400	1.11	0.34	0.06	8.2	8.4	8.6
500	1.02	0.31	0.06	8.4	8.5	8.7

Table 3.7. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 mixture of bicarbonate salts of Na and K from distilled water containing 20 mg/L of initial [Fe].

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

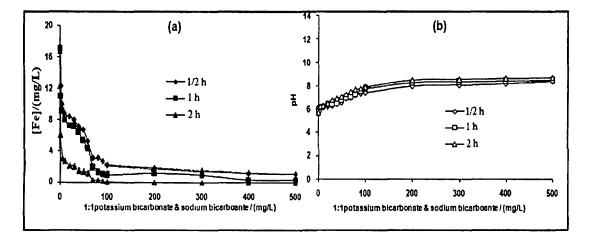


Figure 3.7. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of added bicarbonate salts of Na and K in mg/L at varying residence time with initial [Fe]of 20 mg/L.

3.1.1.10 The shapes of the curves of remaining iron and final pH vs. dose

The following common characteristics can be noticed in the shapes of the curves of the remaining iron and the final pH vs. dose of ash/salts in Figure 3.1-3.7:

- a. There are three distinct regions in the curves a steep fall in the concentration of remaining iron up to a dose of about 5 mg/L (limit A), then a moderate fall between about 5 mg/L and about 90 mg/L (limit B) of the dose and finally a very blunted decrease in the concentration of remaining iron above the dose of about 90 mg/L.
- b. The limits A and B also correspond to distinct changes in trend in the pH variation. There is a moderate increase in the pH upto the limit A, then a relatively blunted increase till the dose approaches the limit B followed by a sharp increase in the pH around the limit B and finally a more blunted or an almost leveled off curve beyond that.

The three regions of the curves may be attributed to removal of iron in three different forms, *viz.*, as iron oxide at pH lower than 6.5 within limit A, as goethite at moderate pH between the limits A and B and as ferrihydrite at high pH above the limit B.

3.1.1.11 KHCO₃ alone is the best choice

The best iron removals have been achieved with KHCO₃ alone and 1:1 mixture of KHCO₃ and NaHCO₃. Only 70 mg/L of the KHCO₃ is sufficient to reduce the Fe from initial concentration of 20 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L, the WHO guideline value. A dose of 100 mg/L of the salt can remove iron almost completely. Moreover, with KHCO₃ alone as well as with the 1:1 mixture of KHCO₃ and NaHCO₃, the pH of the treated water does not exceed 8.5. However, the presence of NaHCO₃ did not improve the performance of KHCO₃ in removal of iron. Hence, given equal efficiency of KHCO₃ alone with its 1:1 mixture with NaHCO₃ having double total salt concentration, the former alone has a practical advantage in addition to the advantage of less cost. Thus, it has been found that KHCO₃ is the best candidate for iron precipitation compared to banana ash and other carbonates and bicarbonates of Na and K and their binary mixtures. Having known this fact, the further investigation of removal of iron from fabricated iron containing distilled water and groundwater having different initial Fe concentrations has been restricted only to the treatment with KHCO₃.

3.1.1.12 Effect of initial iron ion concentration on removal with $KHCO_3$ from distilled water and groundwater

The iron removal ability of KHCO₃ with initial iron ion concentrations of 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 mg/L has been investigated with iron containing distilled water as well as synthetically prepared iron containing groundwater with residence time of 2 h and the results have been summarized in Table 3.8 and Figure 3.8. It can be seen from the figure that the quantity of KHCO₃ required to bring down the iron ion concentration to 0.3 mg/L increased with increase in the initial concentration of iron ion in distilled water as well as groundwater.

Interestingly, the iron removal by KHCO₃ from groundwater has been found to be considerably better than that from distilled water at all initial concentrations of iron ion. While 30 mg/L of KHCO₃ is required to bring down the iron ion concentration from 2 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L in distilled water, the required quantity of the salt is only 10 mg/L in the case of groundwater. Similarly, while 70 mg/L of KHCO₃ is required to bring down the iron ion concentration from 20 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L in distilled water, the required quantity of the salt is only 10 mg/L in the iron ion concentration from 20 mg/L to 0.3 mg/L in distilled water, the required quantity of the salt is only 50 mg/L in the case of groundwater.

KHCO ₃	HCO ₃ Remaining [Fe] after treatment from						pH of the treated water			
dose /		differe	ent initia	l [Fe] / (pj	om)					
(mg/L)									_	
	2	5	10	15	20	2	5	10	15	20
0	1.78	3.28	8.56	11.11	16.94	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8
2	1.29	2.11	2.94	5.07	6.21	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.3	62
5	1.11	1.89	2.18	2.98	3.11	6.5	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.2
10	0.78	1.68	1.99	2.51	2.48	6.6	6.5	6.5	6.4	6.3
20	0.48	1.09	1.78	2.18	2.27	6.8	6.7	6.6	6.5	6.4
30	0.28	0.91	1.45	1.97	1.78	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.6
40	0.12	0.69	1.09	1.28	1.36	7.0	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.8
50	0.09	0.48	0.89	1.08	1.09	7.6	7.5	7.5	7.4	7.3
60	0.09	0.28	0.78	0.79	0.89	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.5	7.4
70	0.08	0.13	0.31	0.29	0.28	7.9	7.8	7.6	7.5	7.4
80	0.07	0.09	0.23	0.14	0.22	8.0	7.9	7.7	7.6	[`] 7.5
90	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.12	0.13	8.2	8.1	7.9	7.7	7.6
100	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.08	0.09	8.4	8.2	8.0	7.7	7.9

Table 3.8a. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by KHCO₃ from distilled water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L.

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

KHCO ₃	Remaining [Fe] after treatment from					pH of	the treate	d water		
dose /	different initial [Fe] / (ppm)									
(mg/L)										
	2	5	10	15	20	2 .	5	10	15	20
0	1.48	3.12	5.09	8.19	10.88	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1
2	0.91	1.09	2.96	3.31	5.12	7.5	7.5	7.4	7.4	7.3
5,	0.47	0.92	1.79	2.99	3.19	7.6	7.5	7.5	7.4	7.4
10	0.32	0.68	1.48	2.04	2.18	7.7	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.4
20	0.14	0.24	0.79	1.29	1.28	7.8	7.7	7.6	7.5	7.4
30	0.09	0.12	0.36	0.37	1.09	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.6	7.5
40	0.09	0.09	0.18	0.28	0.89	7.9	7.8	7.7	7.7	7.5
50	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.12	0.29	7.9	7.8	7.8	7.7	7.6
`60´	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.22	8.0	7.9	7.9	7.8	7.7
70	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.12	8.1	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.7
80	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.09	8.2	8.12	8.0	7.9	⁷ 7.8
90	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.07	0.08	8.3	8.3	8.2	8.0	7.9
100 -	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.06	0.08	8.5	8.4	8.3	8.1	8.0

•

Table 3.8b. Remaining [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by KHCO₃ from groundwater water prefabricated with different initial [Fe] in mg/L.

Error limits: Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

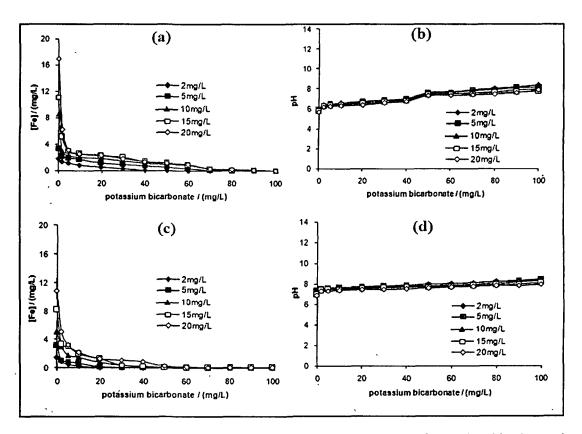


Figure 3.8. Remaining [Fe] in mg/L after treatment and pH vs. amount of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L of water from varying initial concentration of iron 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 mg/L (a, b) in distilled water and (c, d) in groundwater with residence time of 2 h.

The better iron ion removal from groundwater than distilled water can be attributted to an optimum pH required for the formation of ferrihydrite which has prevailed in the groundwater in the presence of iron ion and KHCO₃, whereas, the pH of distilled water up to KHCO₃ dose of 40 mg/L remained below 7.00, which may be lower than the optimum range of pH that is required for the formation of ferrihydrite. Some relevant chemical parameters of the groundwater were mentioned in Table 2.1. It has been seen that the presence of the other ions in the groundwater did not have any negative effect on the removal of the iron.

The initial pH of the double distilled water was 6.02 which was due to dissolved CO₂. The pH of iron ion solutions in the distilled water in the presence of iron ion was found to be lower than 6 which can be attributed to hydrolysis of FeSO₄. Similarly, the initial pH of the groundwater was 7.44, which also decreased slightly on addition of iron ion. As expected, the pH increased with increasing the dose of KHCO₃ and decreased with increase in the initial iron concentration. The final pH with initial iron concentrations from 2 to 100 mg/L was in the ranges of 6.20 to 8.40 and 7.30 to 8.50 for distilled water and the groundwater, respectively. The increments in the pH after treatment from its initial value slightly decreased with increase in the initial iron ion concentration. This is because, more hydroxide ions are used up in precipitating iron ion as goethite or ferrihydrite with higher initial iron ion concentration²⁸⁶. The results indicate that a dose of 10-50 mg/L of KHCO₃ and a residence time of 2 h seem to be quite sufficient for removal of iron from a level 2 to 20 mg/L from groundwater retaining the pH within acceptable range for drinking water.

3.1.1.13 Minimum dose of KHCO₃ required for removal of iron to 0.3 mg/L from different initial concentration of iron

It can be seen from the Figure 3.8 that there is a correlation between the iron ion removal and the final pH. The minimum required doses for achieving an iron ion removal from distilled water and groundwater, from 2 to 20 mg/L initial iron ion to 0.3 mg/L, corresponded to final pH ranges of 6.88 to 7.62 and 7.61 to 7.72, respectively.

The minimum dose required to bring iron ion to below 0.3 mg/L increased with the initial iron ion concentration in both disttilled water as well as in groundwater as can be seen from Figure 3.9. The figure also shows that the final pH showed a slight nearly linear decrease with increase in the initial iron ion in the case of groundwater. The same trend was observed in case of distilled water except that the final pH corresponding to 2 mg/L of initial iron ion was considerably low.

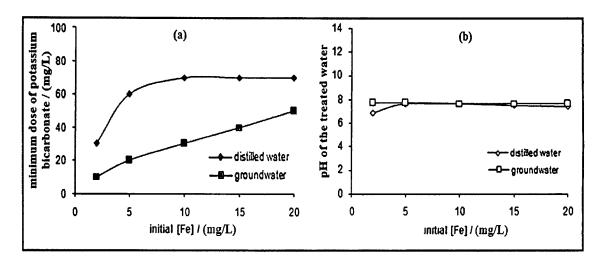


Figure 3.9. The minimum dose of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L required to bring iron to below 0.3mg/L from initial iron concentration of 2-20 mg/L and pH of the treated water in both distilled as well as in groundwater.

3.1.1.14 General remarks on effect of residence time and dose

The effects of residence time on removal of iron by bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K and banana ash and their binary mixtures can be seen in Figure 3.1-3.7. It has been observed that the most of the iron removal takes place within first half an hour and then the removal continued to increase slowly thereafter. Though the removal appears to improve a little more beyond 2 h, we have confined our study to a maximum residence time of 2 h considering practicality of the technique.

The effect of varying the dose of banana ash, carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K and also their 1:1 mixtures on iron removal and final pH of the water can be seen in Figure 3.1-3.7. The doses of ash and salts were varied between 2 and 500 mg/L. One can see from the figures that even without addition of ash or/and salts the concentration of Fe decreased from 20 mg/L to about 17 mg/L, which can be attributed to removal of iron due to aerial oxidation alone. The dose of salts and ash has an influence on the extent of iron precipitation. The final pH of water has been found to increase with the increase in the quantity of the material or salts added. Although no health-based guideline value was proposed for pH in the guideline of WHO³⁴, it is one of the most important operational water quality parameters, the acceptable maximum pH limit for public water supply is considered as 8.5³³⁹. The recommended upper pH limit in India is also 8.5³⁴⁶. The results indicate that a dose of 10-50 mg/L of KHCO₃ and a residence time of 2 h is sufficient for removal of iron from a level 2-20 mg/L of groundwater retaining the pH within acceptable range for drinking water.

3.1.2 Analysis of iron ion precipitate

A characterization of the precipitate of iron ion formed after treatment using different tools, presented below, will help in understanding the observed iron ion removal in the present experiments.

3.1.2.1 XRD analysis

From the XRD analysis (Figure 3.10a, b), distinct difference has been observed between the precipitants obtained by using bicarbonate salts and carbonate salts.

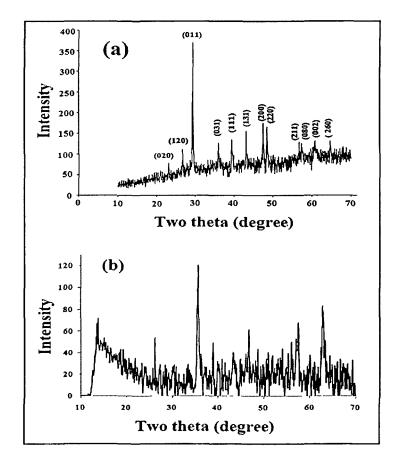


Figure 3.10. XRD of the precipitate formed after treatment with (a) bicarbonate salts in the pH range 7-8 (b) carbonate salts in the pH range 9-10.

The precipitate obtained with bicarbonate salts (Figure 3.10a) has the characteristic peaks at 23° , 26.7° , 29.4° , 36° , 39.4° , 43.1° , 47.5° , 48.45° , 56.7° , 58° , 60° and 65° matching the planes (020), (120), (011), (031), (111), (131), (200), (220), (211), (080), (002) and (260), respectively. This resembles of orthorhombic crystal structure of iron oxyhydroxide or goethite [FeO(OH)] [Ref. no- PCPDFWIN -74-1877, Calculated from ICSD using

POWD-12++, (1997)]³⁴⁷. This clearly indicates a dominant presence of goethite in the precipitate.

On the other hand, the precipitate obtained after the treatment with carbonate salts (Figure 3.10b) has the characteristic 20 values of 13.9° , 26.3° , 36.1° , 38° , 47° , 58° , 64° matching the corresponding peaks of ferric hydroxide [Fe(OH)₃] [Ref. no- PCPDFWIN - 38-0032]³⁴⁸. This indicates dominant presence of Fe(OH)₃ in the precipitate after the treatment with the carbonate salts.

3.1.2.2 FTIR analysis

Figure 3.11 (a & b) shows the FTIR spectrum of the precipitates obtained with bicarbonate salts (pH=7-8) and carbonate salts (pH=9-10), respectively.

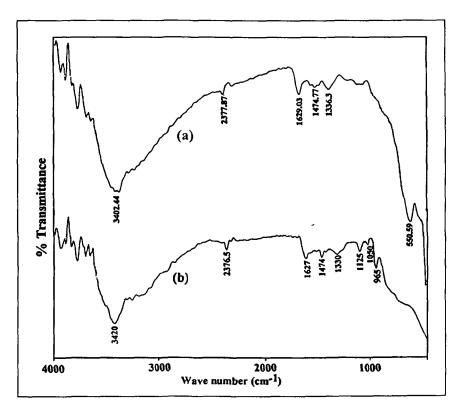


Figure 3.11. FTIR spectra of the precipitate formed after treatment by (a) bicarbonate salts in the pH range 7-8 (b) carbonate salts in the pH range 9-10.

In Figure 3.11a, the absorption band at 3418 cm⁻¹ indicates O-H stretching. The band at 1629 cm⁻¹ may be attributed to bending of HOH ^{349, 350}. The absorption band for δ (OH) was obtained at 1474 cm⁻¹ & 1336 cm⁻¹. These bands together with an absorption band at 550 cm⁻¹, indicating the presence of Fe-O bond, confirm the formation of goethite ^{351, 352}

On the other hand, with the carbonate salts, three peaks at 1125, 1050, and 976 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the bending vibration of the (Fe-OH) group have been found in the precipitate (Figure 3.11b). These peaks indicate the presence of ferric hydroxide in the precipitate obtained with the carbonate salt^{352, 353}.

3.1.2.3 SEM-EDS analysis

The SEM-EDS images of the precipitate obtained with $KHCO_3$ are presented in Figure 3.12. From the SEM micrograph (Figure 3.12a) the larger-sized fraction of these precipitates showed irregularly shaped crystallized particles. The particles were randomly aggregated, and rough surfaces were observed. The EDS analysis showed the presence of K and significant quantities of Fe in the precipitant (Figure 3.12b).

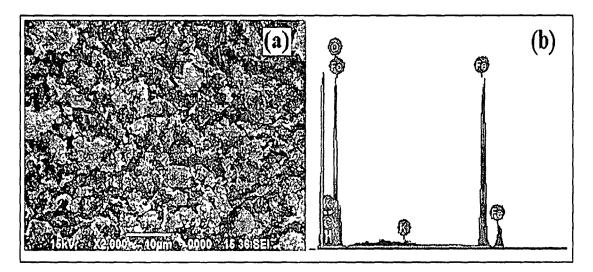


Figure 3.12. SEM-EDS of the precipitate formed after treatment by bicarbonate salts.

3.1.2.4 About slower iron ion removal by bicarbonates

The analysis of the precipitate in case of bicarbonate salt reveals it to be predominantly goethite. Precipitation of iron ion as ferrihydrite to a greater extent in the presence of the carbonates and banana ash than that in the presence of bicarbonates may be responsible for comparatively faster but lower iron ion removal in the cases of the carbonates and the ash than that in the case of the bicarbonates.

3.1.3 Cost-benefit and suitability analysis

The recurring cost of KHCO₃ per liter of water has been estimated on the basis of the minimum quantity of KHCO₃ required for bringing down the iron ion concentration to

below 0.3 mg/L taking the retail price of KHCO₃ as US\$ 2 per kg. The recurring costs per liter for initial iron ion concentrations of 2 and 20 mg/L have estimated to be approximately US\$ 0.00001 and 0.0001 (or INR 0.00045 and 0.0045), respectively. The recurring cost of the present method of iron ion removal using KHCO₃ is quite competitive compared to that of other existing methods such as ion-exchange method, electrocoagulation, oxidation with oxidizing agents including chlorine and potassium permanganate, supercritical fluid extractions, etc.

The treatment with bicarbonate salts of Na and K does not affect colour, odor, and taste of the water. The process does not need electrical and thermal power or pressure except for plumbing. The process can give satisfactory iron ion removal within 1-2 h without needing any post-treatment including pH correction as the materials used are common and nontoxic.

3.1.4 Summary

The following conclusions have been drawn from the present study:

- The carbonate and bicarbonate salts of sodium and potassium, banana ash and their binary mixtures are effective in the removal of iron ion from water.
- The bicarbonate salts especially that of potassium, have been found to be very effective for removal of iron ion, which also retains the pH of water in the acceptable range for drinking.
- Upto 99-100% removal of iron ion from initial 2-20 mg/L can be achieved with a quantity of KHCO₃ as low as 70-100 mg/L within 1-2 h retaining the pH between 6.8 and 7.7.
- The removal rate has been found to improve with increase in the amount of the dose and residence time.
- The bicarbonates remove iron ion mostly as goethite.
- The removal becomes poor in presence of the carbonate salts and the ash because of formation of ferrihydrite.
- Given the high efficiency, low-cost and simplicity of application, the bicarbonate salts of Na and K have potential for application in removal of iron ion from groundwater.

3.2 pH-conditioning for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron

We have described in the previous section 3.1 about iron ion removal efficiency of bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium, banana ash and found that the bicarbonate salts are more efficient than the carbonate salts and the ash. While the iron ion removal efficiency was found to increase in the order: banana ash $< CO_3^{2-} < HCO_3^{-}$, the K-salts were found to be slightly more efficient than the corresponding Na- salts. The better iron ion removal by the bicarbonate salts was attributed to lower pH of the water and the resulting lower solubility of the iron oxyhydroxide prevailing in the presence of the bicarbonate salts. Since arsenic is removed along with removal of iron ions, we intended to carry out a systematic study on simultaneous removal of arsenate and ferrous ion from water in the presence of different pH conditioners, *viz.*, banana ash, lime, the carbonates and the bicarbonates of sodium and potassium and their binary mixtures. Banana ash has been included in the study because it is used in the removal of arsenic and iron^{286, 354}.

3.2.1 Batch experiments

The batch tests for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron from water were carried out by following a similar procedure as in case of iron removal. Different amount of pH-conditioners were added to the arsenic and iron containing water in Erlenmeyer flasks. The efficiency of the pH conditioners in precipitating arsenate with iron ions were studied as a function of the dose. The results of the batch experiments are discussed here.

3.2.1.1 Removal with individual pH conditioners

Each of the pH conditioners enhanced the simultaneous removal of both iron and arsenate ions to different extents. The results of addition of lime, banana ash, carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K and their 1:1 binary mixtures as pH-conditioner on arsenate and iron ion removal from initial concentrations of 0.25 mg/L for arsenic and 20 mg/L for iron are shown in Table 3.9-3.16 and Figure 3.13-3.19. Though the iron ions are removed to some extents even in the absence of any pH conditioner, the removal is significantly improved on addition of the pH conditioners. On the other hand, the arsenate ions are hardly removed in the absence of the pH conditioners due to predominance of the

This work has been published in Process Saf. Environ. Prot. 91,405-414, 2013

less adsorbed $H_2AsO_4^-$ forms at the prevailing low pH (≈ 5.72) caused by the slightly acidic ferrous salt²⁵. Arsenate is removed well even at very low concentrations (~2 mg/L) of the pH conditioners due to increase in the easily adsorbed $HAsO_4^{2-}$ ions with increase in the pH to a favourable range. The removal of iron ion increases on increasing the dose of the pH conditioners but the higher doses lowered the arsenate removal. The higher doses also increased the pH of the water to different extents. The precipitates of iron subsequently remove the arsenate ions also. It appears from the figures that a competition of the OH ions with the arsenate ion for adsorption on iron precipitate plays a major role in the arsenate removal in the present method. Thus, the simultaneous removal of iron and arsenate ions is facilitated by the pH conditioners in a complex manner. Interestingly, the arsenic removal to below the guideline value of WHO can be achieved with the final pH of the water below 8.5, the upper acceptable limit. The bicarbonate salts leave the water pH within the acceptable range of drinking water at all concentrations but an excess of the carbonate salts and the ash makes the water pH higher than the acceptable range for drinking. The effects of these materials on the removal of iron and arsenate ions are discussed in details below.

3.2.1.2 Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron with lime and banana ash

The results of removal of arsenate along with residual iron and final pH after treatment with lime are shown in Table 3.9 and Figure 3.13.

Wt. of salt /	Remain	ing [Fe], [A	s] in mg/L	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L &				
(mg/L)	6	& pH with C	aO	pН	pH with banana ash			
	[Fe]	[As]	pН	[Fe]	[As]	pН		
0	17.18	0.249	5.7	16.78	0.249	5.7		
2	15.48	0.006	5.9	8.82	0.001	6.4		
10	14.67	0.005	6.1	7.67	0.002	6.7		
40	6.18	0.005	10.1	4.51	0.005	7.5		
80	2.09	0.005	11.8	2.19	0.019	8.8		
100	1.48	0.005	12.1	1.78	0.025	9.3		
200	0.56	0.004	12.3	1.28	0.043	9.8		
300	0.29	0.004	12.4	0.91	0.048	9.8		
400	0.14	0.004	12.7	0.28	0.052	9.9		
500	0.11	0.004	12.8	0.11	0.089	9.9		

Table 3.9. Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by lime and banana ash from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Error limits: Δ [As] = ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe] = ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH = ±0.1

Arsenate is removed to below 0.01 mg/L from water containing 0.25 mg/L of arsenate and 20 mg/L ferrous ion by adding lime of very small quantities, i.e., 2 mg/L and above (Table 3.9)³⁸.

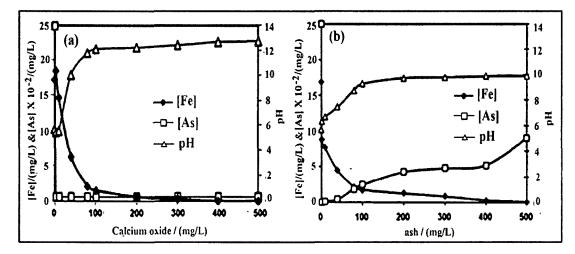


Figure 3.13. Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L and pH vs. amount of pH-conditioners in mg/L lime (a), banana ash (b) of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)]= 20 mg/L and [As(V)]=0.25 mg/L.

However, the removal of iron was poor at low dosage of lime which improved to 0.3 mg/L above 200 mg/L of lime. Though higher dose of lime shows satisfactory simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ion, it makes the pH greater than 12 which is far above the acceptable range of pH (pH 6.5-8.5) for drinking water^{14, 34}. The method for controlling increased pH after removal of iron and arsenic using lime may not cost much but this will add one more step in the treatment. Moreover, one has to add more chemicals for the pH correction. Thus, the requirement of post-treatment pH correction of the strongly alkaline water makes use of lime less preferable even though lime costs the minimum among all pH conditioners.

From the Figure 3.13b, it can be seen that on addition of banana ash, both the iron and arsenate are removed considerably from initial concentrations of 20 mg/L and 0.25 mg/L, respectively. We have examined the effect of dose of banana ash from 2 mg/L to 500 mg/L on the removal of arsenate and iron ion. A small dose of 2 mg/L of banana ash removed arsenate ion from an initial 0.25 mg/L to an undetectable level, but removed iron ion to 9 mg/L only. With the doses of banana ash between 2-40 mg/L the final pH was in the range of 6.0-8.0 and the arsenate ion was removed to undetectable level with a residual iron concentration of about 4.5 mg/L. The removal of iron ion improved with the increase in the dose of banana ash and with about 400 mg/L of the ash the iron ions were removed to 0.3 mg/L. However, higher doses of the ash increased the pH of the treated water to above 9.5 which is above the acceptable limit for drinking ³³³. On the other hand, as reported earlier³³⁹, the removal of arsenate ion decreased when the pH increased over 8.5. The high final pH observed with high dose of the ash can be attributed to the presence of a small amount of K₂O along with K₂CO₃ in the ash. In order to avoid the presence of K₂O, the arsenic and iron ion removal abilities of pure carbonates of Na and K have been investigated.

3.2.1.3 Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron with carbonate salts of Na and K

Table 3.10 and Figure 3.14 show the results of arsenate and iron ion removal with 2 to 500 mg/L of the carbonate salts of Na and K with residence time of 2 h. There were only slight improvements in simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions with the carbonate salts, which is indicated by a decrease in the common areas under the curves for remaining arsenate and iron ions vs. the quantity of the pH-conditioner.

Wt. of salt /	Remainin	ng [Fe], [As] in mg/L	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L &			
(mg/L)	& I	oH with K₂(CO ₃	pН	pH with Na ₂ CO ₃		
	[Fe]	[As]	pH	[Fe]	[As]	pН	
0	16.78	0.249	5.7	16.18	0.249	5.7	
2	7.56	0.001	6.3	7.38	0.001	6.3	
10	5.11	0.001	6.5	5.48	0.004	6.6	
40	3.47	0.002	7.0	3.78	0.005	7.2	
80	1.48	0.009	8.5	1.81	0.025	8.6	
100	0.92	0.019	8.7	0.98	0.042	8.7	
200	0.68	0.022	8.7	0.92	0.051	8.8	
300	0.28	0.025	8.9	0.48	0.068	9.0	
400	0.14	0.048	9.2	0.21	0.091	9.2	
500	0.11	0.051	9.7	0.12	0.101	9.6	

Table 3.10. Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by carbonate salts of K and Na from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Error limits: $\Delta[As] = \pm 0.0004 \text{ mg/L}$, $\Delta[Fe] = \pm 0.05 \text{ mg/L}$ and $\Delta pH = \pm 0.1$

Though an arsenate removal to less than 0.01 mg/L could be achieved in the ranges of 2 to 60 mg/L of K_2CO_3 and 2 to 50 mg/L of Na_2CO_3 , the simultaneous removal of iron ion is still unsatisfactory. With 60 mg/L of K_2CO_3 and 50 mg/L of Na_2CO_3 , residual iron ions of 2.2 mg/L and 3.2 mg/L remained with the two salts, respectively. So, one needs to

increase dose of salts to remove iron to <0.3 mg/L which increases the pH of the water resulting in poor removal of arsenate ion. Increase in the dose of carbonate salts however increases the pH of the water which results in the poor removal of arsenate ion. This prompted us to investigate the arsenate and iron ion removal with the bicarbonate salts of Na and K in an attempt to maintain the final pH in the acceptable range for drinking water.

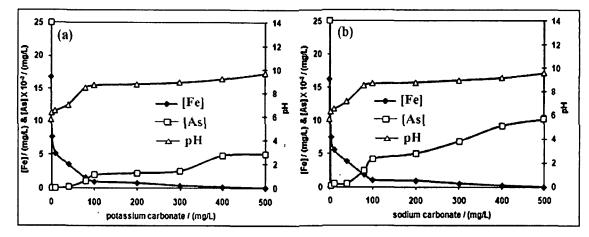


Figure 3.14. Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of carbonate salts of K (a) and Na (b) in mg/L of distilled water at residence time of 2h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L and initial [As(V)] = 0.25 mg/L.

3.2.1.4 Simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron with bicarbonate salts of Na and K

The results of arsenate and iron ion removal by NaHCO₃ and KHCO₃ are shown in Table 3.11 and Figure 3.15. The observed curves for the bicarbonate salts reveal that the arsenate as well as iron ion removal is far better with both of the bicarbonates than their corresponding carbonate salts. On the other hand, the final pHs obtained with the bicarbonate salts were lower than that of the carbonate salts of Na and K. In the case of NaHCO₃, 200 mg/L of the salt can remove arsenate and iron ion to <0.01 mg/L and <0.3 mg/L, respectively with a final pH ≈8.0. Whereas, in the case of KHCO₃, 80 mg/L of the salt can remove both the arsenate and iron ion to <0.01 mg/L, respectively, with final pH ≈7.5. Interestingly, with a dose of 100 mg/L of KHCO₃, both the ions are removed to undetectable levels with the final pH too remaining within the acceptable upper limit of 8.5. Thus, in terms of the dosage, KHCO₃ is the most efficient pH conditioner for simultaneous removal of iron and arsenate ion. It may also be noted that the cost of 80 mg/L of KHCO₃ is just US\$ 0.16 per 1000 L of water. Moreover, 80 mg/L of KHCO₃ increases [K⁺] by only ≈31 mg/L which is not a matter of concern.

Wt. of salt	Remainin	g [Fe], [As]	in mg/L	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L &			
/ (mg/L)	& p1	H with KHC	CO ₃	pH w	pH with NaHCO ₃		
	[Fe]	[As]	pН	[Fe]	[As]	pН	
0	16.81	0.249	5.7	16.47	0.249	5.7	
2	10.19	0.001	6.2	12.21	0.001	6.3	
10	9.67	0.001	6.4	10.78	0.002	6.7	
40	4.09	0.005	6.8	4.47	0.005	7.1	
80	0.29	0.005	7.5	2.97	0.005	7.6	
100	0.11	0.005	7.9	1.45	0.005	7.8	
200	0.09	0.005	8.1	0.27	0.009	8.4	
300	0.08	0.009	8.5	0.11	0.009	8.6	
400	0.06	0.011	8.6	0.07	0.023	8.9	
500	0.06	0.013	8.7	0.07	0.024	8.9	

Table 3.11. Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by bicarbonate salts of Na and K from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

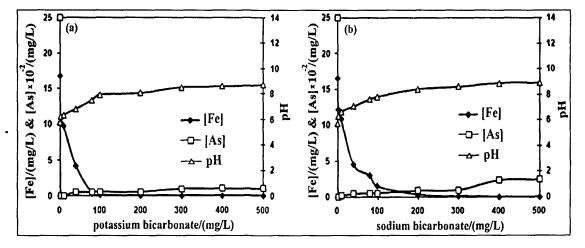


Figure 3.15. Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of bicarbonate salts of K (a) and Na (b) in mg/L of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L and initial [As(V)] = 0.25 mg/L.

The iron removal in the presence of arsenate ion has been found to be exactly similar with that in absence of arsenate ions also at high doses of the bicarbonate salts alone under otherwise similar conditions. However, at low doses of the bicarbonate salts, the iron removal in the presence of arsenate ion is less than that observed earlier in the absence of arsenate ion. The observed lower iron removal at low dosages of the bicarbonate salts in the presence of arsenate ions may be due to ionization of hydrogen arsenate releasing hydrogen ions which should slow down the iron removal. This effect is insignificant in the presence of more strongly basic materials like the ash, lime or the carbonate salts.

3.2.1.5 pH of the treated water

pH is one of the most important parameters controlling the metal ion sorption process³⁵⁵. The initial pH of our experimental double distilled water was ≈ 6.00 due to dissolved CO₂. This pH is decreased on the addition of iron ion to ≈ 5.72 due to hydrolysis of FeSO₄. The final pH of the water after treatment with various pH-conditioners and their 1:1 binary mixtures are shown in Table 3.12 (a & b) and Figure 3.16.

In the present cases, the removal of As(V) increases with increase in the pH initially and then decreased markedly above pH of \approx 7.5 as expected. While the initial increase, up to pH 7.5, is due to increase in ionization of the arsenate³⁵⁶, the decrease in the arsenate removal at high dose, above pH 7.5, is due to increase in the concentration of OH⁻, HCO₃⁻ and CO₃²⁻ ions which compete with arsenate ion for adsorption on iron precipitate²⁷⁶. The very good removal of arsenate with lime, which is independent of the pH, has been attributed to precipitation of calcium arsenate, Ca₃(AsO₄)₂³⁵⁷.

Wt. of	pH of t	pH of the treated water with bicarbonate and carbonate salts									
salt /		of sodium and potassium, ash and lime alone									
(mg/L)	CaO	Ash	K ₂ CO ₃	Na ₂ CO ₃	KHCO ₃	NaHCO ₃					
0	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7					
2	5.9	6.4	6.3	6.3	6.2	6.3					
10	6.0	6.7	6.5	6.6	6.4	6.6					
40	10.0	7.5	7.0	7.2	6.8	7.1					
80	11.8	8.8	8.5	8.6	7.5	7.6					
100	12.1	9.3	8.7	8.7	7.9	7.8					
200	12.3	9.8	8.7	8.8	8.1	8.4					
300	12.4	9.8	8.9	9.0	8.5	8.6					
۰ 400	12.7	9.9	9.2	9.2	8.6	8.9					
500	12.8	9.9	9.7	9.6	8.7	8.9					

Table 3.12a. pH of the water after treatment by bicarbonate and carbonate salts of K and Na, lime and ash alone.

Error limit: $\Delta pH = \pm 0.1$

Wt. of	I	pH of the treated water with bicarbonate and carbonate salts of									
1:1 salt		sodium and potassium, ash and lime alone									
mixture	KHCO ₃ :	NaHCO ₃ :	KHCO ₃ :	KHCO ₃ :	NaHCO ₃ :	NaHCO ₃ :	KHCO3:				
/ (mg/L)	Ash	Ash	NaHCO ₃	K ₂ CO ₃	Na ₂ CO ₃	K ₂ CO ₃	Na ₂ CO ₃				
0	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7	5.7				
2	6.4	6.4	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.3	6.3				
10	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.5	6.6	6.5	6.5				
40	6.9	7.0	6.9	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.1				
80	7.9	8.3	7.7	8.3	8.4	8.2	8.3				
100	8.6	8.5	7.9	8.6	8.7	8.5	`8.6				
200	8.7	8.8	8.5	8.8	8.9	8.6	8.8				
300	9.1	9.1	8.6	8.9	9.1	9.0	8.9				
400	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.2	9.3	9.2	9.2				
500	9.4	9.5	8.7	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.5				

Table 3.12b. pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonate and carbonate salts of K and Na, and ash.

Error limit: $\Delta pH = \pm 0.1$

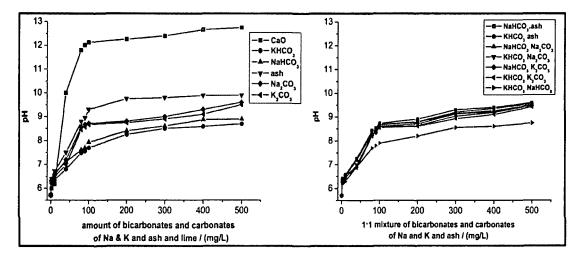


Figure 3.16. pH of the filtered water after treatment (a) with bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K, ash and lime alone (b) with their 1:1 mixture.

3.2.1.6 Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron with 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonate salts with the ash

The effect of 1:1 weight by weight mixture of ash with bicarbonate salts of Na and K on removal of iron and arsenate ion was shown in Table 3.13 and Figure 3.17. It can be seen that the mixtures of NaHCO₃ and KHCO₃ with the ash showed lower iron ion removal as well as arsenate removal than that of the individual bicarbonate salts alone.

This can be attributed to higher pH in presence of the mixtures than that in presence of the individual bicarbonate salts. Almost similar iron removal was observed in the presence of the mixtures of the binary mixtures of the bicarbonate salts with the ash in the presence and the absence of the arsenate ions under otherwise similar conditions as discussed earlier in section 3.1.

Table 3.13. Remaining [As], [Fe] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonate salts of K and Na and banana ash from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Wt. of 1:1 binary salt mixture/ (mg/L)	Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L & pH with KHCO ₃ :ash			Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L & pH with NaHCO ₃ :ash		
	[Fe]	[As]	рН	[Fe]	[As]	pH
0	16.78	0.249	5.7	17.16	0.249	5.7
2	11.81	0.001	6.4	11.56	0.001	6.4
10	10.39	0.001	6.6	10.78	0.002	6.6
40	2.11	0.003	6.9	3.67	0.005	7.0
80	1.17	0.005	7.9	2.08	0.009	8.3
100	0.78	0.009	8.6	1.17	0.011	8.5
200	0.68	0.011	8.7	0.89	0.019	8.8
300	0.45	0.012	9.1	0.38	0.025	9.1
400	0.14	0.012	9.3	0.14	0.033	9.3
500	0 1 1	0.013	9.4	0.11	0.049	9.5

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

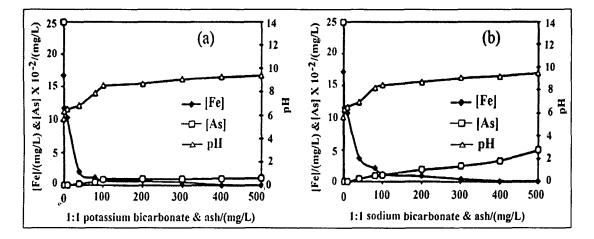


Figure 3.17. Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of 1:1 mixture of bicarbonates of K and Na with ash in mg/L of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L and [As(V)] = 0.25 mg/L.

3.2.1.7 Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron using 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonates and carbonates of Na and K

Removal of iron and arsenate ion by 1:1 mixtures of the bicarbonate salts and carbonate salts of Na and K has also been studied. The results were summarized in Table 3.14 and 3.15. The plots of remaining [Fe], [As] and final pH of the water after treatment with these mixtures is shown in Figure 3.18.

Table 3.14. Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of potassium bicarbonate and carbonates of K and Na from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Wt. of 1:1 binary salt		ng [Fe], [As] vith KHCO3:		Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L & pH with KHCO ₃ :Na ₂ CO ₃			
mixture/ (mg/L)	[Fe]	[As]	pH	[Fe]	[As]	pН	
0	16.89	0.249	5.7	16.89	0.249	5.7	
2	10.21	0.001	6.3	10.38	0.001	6.3	
10	6.12	0.001	6.5	7.99	0.002	6.5	
40	1.97	0.005	7.1	3.11	0.005	7.1	
80	0.94	0.011	8.2	1.08	0.011	8.3	
100	0.48	0.024	8.5	0.58	0.024	8.6	
200	0.21	0.025	8.6	0.38	0.025	8.8	
300	0.14	0.032	8.9	0.22	0.032	8.9	
400	0.11	0.046	9.0	0.14	0.046	9.2	
500	0.09	0.049	9.5	0.10	0.049	9.5	

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

Table 3.15. Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of sodium bicarbonate and carbonates of Na and K from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Wt. of 1:1 binary salt		ing [Fe], [As] vith NaHCO ₃		Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L & pH with NaHCO3:K2CO3			
mixture/ (mg/L)	[Fe]	[As]	pH	[Fe]	[As]	pН	
0	16.88	0.249	5.7	16.89	0.249	5.7	
2	10.45	0.001	6.3	10.46	0.001	6.4	
. 10	8.25	0.001	6.5	8.21	0.002	6.6	
40	3.21	0.008	7.2	3.36	0.005	7.2	
80	1.92	0.015	8.2	1.78	0.015	8.4 -	
100	1.08	0.022	8.5	0.89	0.028	8.7	
200	0.92	0.024	8.6	0.69	0.031	8.9	
300	0.71	0.035	9.0	0.28	0.045	9.1	
400	0.14	0.044	9.2	0.14	0.048	9.3	
500	0.09	0.051	9.6	0.11	0. 048	9.6	

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

Here also, the removal of both arsenate and iron ions were found to be lesser than that of bicarbonate salts alone due to higher pH in presence of the mixtures than that in presence of the individual bicarbonate salts.

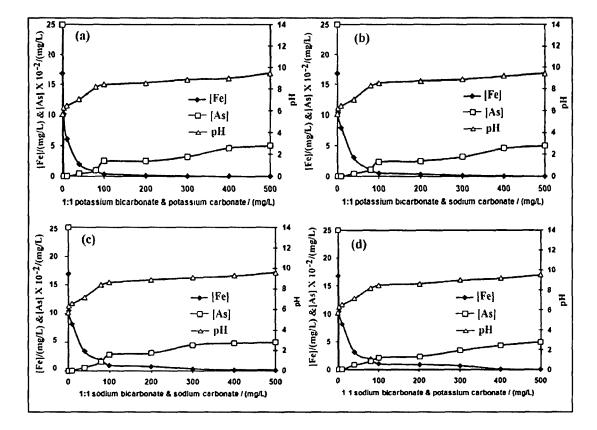


Figure 3.18. Remaining [As], [Fe] in mg/L and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonates and carbonates of Na and K of distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

3.2.1.8 Simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron using 1:1 binary mixtures of bicarbonates of Na and K

The results obtained after treatment of arsenic and iron with 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonate salts of Na and K have been shown in Table 3.16 as well as Figure 3.19. Among all the combinations, the mixture of the bicarbonate salts of Na and K showed the best performance, 70 mg/L of which removed both iron and arsenate ion to undetectable levels with a fine final pH of 7.5.

The simultaneous removal of iron and arsenate ion by the binary mixtures of the carbonate and bicarbonate salts of Na and K, after a constant residence time of 2 h was found to improve in the order: $(NaHCO_3+Na_2CO_3) < (NaHCO_3+K_2CO_3) < (KHCO_3+K_2CO_3) < (NaHCO_3+KHCO_3)$. The 1:1 weight by weight

mixture of the bicarbonates of Na and K is also best in terms of final pH of the treated water, in which, the pH remained within 8.5 upto 400 mg/L of the mixture. Thus, the presence of more basic salts has been found to reduce the arsenate removal effectiveness of the less basic salt in a binary mixture. For example, the presence of Na₂CO₃ reduces the effectiveness of NaHCO₃, NaHCO₃ reduces the effectiveness of KHCO₃, etc.

Table 3.16. Remaining [Fe], [As] and pH of the water after treatment by 1:1 binary mixture of bicarbonates of Na and K from distilled water containing 0.25 mg/L and 20 mg/L of initial [As] and [Fe] respectively.

Wt. of 1:1 binary salt		Fe], [As] in mg/l KHCO₃:NaHCO	•
mixture/ (mg/L)	[Fe]	[As]	pН
0	17.18	0.249	5.7
2	9.48	0.001	6.2
10	8.98	0.001	6.3
40	3.89	0.003	6.9
80	0.14	0.005	7.7
100	0.11	0.005	7.9
200	0.09	0.015	8.5
300	0.07	0.021	8.6
400	0.06	0.024	8.6
500	0.04	0.025	8.7

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.1

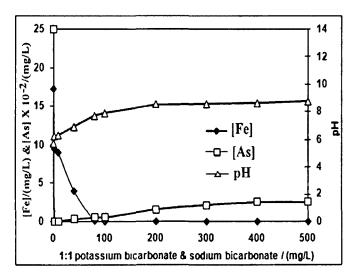


Figure 3.19. Remaining [Fe], [As] in mg/L and pH after treatment vs amount of 1:1 mixture of bicarbonates of Na and K of distilled water at residence time of 2 h with initial [Fe(II)] = 20 mg/L.

It has been observed that KHCO₃ alone is the most effective candidate for arsenic removal, followed by the 1:1 mixture of the bicarbonate salts and then NaHCO₃ alone, when the individual materials alone and their binary mixures are considered together. Hence, the further investigation of integrated removal of iron and arsenate ions has been restricted to the use of only KHCO₃.

3.2.1.9 The optimum dosage

It has been seen that there is a maximum amount of a particular pH conditioner dose that can remove the arsenate to the guideline value ($D_{As,max}$) and a minimum amount the pH conditioner required to remove the iron ions to the guideline value ($D_{Fe,min}$). Table 3.17 shows these maximum and minimum quantities along with the corresponding pH values. The difference between these two quantities, $\Delta W = (D_{As,max} - D_{Fe,min})$, indicates the range within which a pH conditioner can remove both arsenate and the iron ions to the respective guideline values.

It can be seen from Table 3.17 that only KHCO₃, (KHCO₃+NaHCO₃) and NaHCO₃ have a positive ΔW , i.e., the minimum concentration of the material required for removal of iron ion to its guideline value is smaller than the maximum concentration of the material required for removal of arsenate to its guideline value. The ΔW is a measure of the flexibility for variation in the concentration of the pH conditioner for simultaneous removal of arsenate and the iron ion to their respective guideline values. The ΔW values for KHCO₃, (KHCO₃+NaHCO₃) and NaHCO₃ were found to be 220, 130 and 100 mg/L indicating a decrease in the flexibility in the concentration of the materials to be added in the same order.

The ranges between the final pH values, $pH_{As,max}$ and $pH_{Fe,min}$ corresponding to $D_{As,max}$ and $D_{Fe,min}$, respectively, i.e., $\Delta pH = (pH_{As,max} - pH_{Fe,min})$, are also included in Table 3.17. It is interesting to note that the ΔpH obtained for both bicarbonate salts and their binary mixture are within the acceptable range for drinking water and increases in the order: NaHCO₃ < (KHCO₃+NaHCO₃) < KHCO₃. Thus, KHCO₃ not only has the maximum flexibility in the concentration, for satisfactory simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions, but also needs the least care in adjustment of its dose for regulating the initial and the final pH. Therefore, KHCO₃ is more suitable pH conditioner than other basic substances including NaHCO₃ for simultaneous removal of arsenate and ferrous ions from groundwater.

Material	Arsenate	removal	Iron ion	removal	ΔW	ΔpH
	D _{As,max}	pН	$\mathbf{D}_{Fe,min}$	pН	/(mg/L)	
	/(mg/L)		/(mg/L)			
Lime	>500	12.8	300	12.4	>200	0.35*
Banana ash	70	8.7	400	9.9	- 330	– ive
K ₂ CO ₃	70	8.3	300	8.9	- 230	– ive
Na ₂ CO ₃	60	8.2	400	9.2	- 340	– ive
KHCO ₃	400	8.5	80	7.5	220	1.05
NaHCO ₃	300	8.5	200	8.4	100	0.12
1:1 KHCO ₃ : ash	100	8.6	400	9.3	- 300	– ive
1:1 NaHCO3: ash	90	8.4	400	9.3	-310	– ive
1:1 KHCO3: K2CO3	80	8.2	200	8.6	- 120	– ive
1:1 NaHCO3: K2CO3	60	8.1	400	9.2	- 340	– ive
1:1 KHCO3: Na2CO3	70	8.2	300	8.9	- 230	– ive
1:1 NaHCO3: Na2CO3	60	8.1	300	9.1	- 240	— ive
1:1 KHCO3: NaHCO3	200	85	70	7.5	130	1.20

Table 3.17. $D_{As,max}$ and $D_{Fe,mun}$ of the pH conditioners that can simultaneously remove the arsenate and iron ions to the respective guideline values at fixed initial concentrations of iron and arsenate ions of 20 mg/L and 0.25 mg/L, respectively, along with ΔW and ΔpH for distilled water.

*Unacceptable for drinking

Table 3.18. $D_{As,max}$ and $D_{Fe,mun}$ of KHCO₃ that can simultaneously remove arsenate and iron ions to the respective guideline values from different initial concentrations of iron ion and a fixed initial arsenate concentration of 0.25 mg/L along with ΔW and ΔpH with distilled water and groundwater.

Initial	Type of water	Arsen		Iron ion re	emoval	ΔW	ΔрН
iron ion		remov				/(mg/L)	
/(mg/L)		$D_{As,max}$	pН	D _{Fe,min}	pН		
		/(mg/L)		/(mg/L)			
	Distilled water	20	6.5	60	7.4	- 40	- 0.96
2							
	Groundwater	30	6.5	20	6.4	10	0.09
	Distilled water	30	6.6	70	7.5	- 40	-0.84
5	,						
	Groundwater	40	6.7	20	6.4	20	0.32
	Distilled water	60	7.4	80	7.5	- 20	-0.13
10							
	Groundwater	60	7.4	40	6.7	20	0.66
	Distilled water	300	8.5	80	7.5	220	1.01
15							
	Groundwater	300	8.4	40	6.7	260	1.70
	Distilled water	400	8.5	80	7.5	320	1.05
20							
	Groundwater	400	8.5	80	7.5	320	1.03

Table 3.18 shows that the ΔW and the ΔpH increased with increase in the initial iron ion concentration. The tables again show better simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ion from groundwater than that from distilled water. While at least 15 mg/L of initial iron ion is required for simultaneous removal of both arsenate and iron ions satisfactorily with KHCO₃ from distilled water, a concentration of just 2 mg/L is enough for the purpose in the case of groundwater. The requirement of the much lower initial iron ion concentration in the case of groundwater than that in the case of distilled water owes mainly to the better iron removal in the former.

3.2.1.10 Effect of initial concentrations of iron ion on arsenate removal

The removal of arsenate ion on addition of varying concentrations of KHCO₃, from arsenate ion containing distilled as well as fabricated groundwater, has been studied at different initial ferrous ion concentrations of 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 mg/L and at fixed initial arsenate ion concentration of 0.25 mg/L with a residence time of 2 h. It can be seen from the Table 3.19 & 3.20 and Figure 3.20 that the arsenate could be removed to below 0.01 mg/L in the presence of iron ion concentration of as low as 2 mg/L with KHCO₃ doses of 20 mg/L and 30 mg/L, for distilled water and groundwater. The observed slightly less arsenate removal from groundwater than from distilled water can be attributed to competition by the other anions present in groundwater with arsenate for adsorption ^{151, 274, 358}.

The simultaneous removal of iron ion by KHCO₃ from the fabricated groundwater (Figure 3.20c) has been found to be considerably better than that from distilled water (Figure 3.20a) at all initial concentrations of iron ion as was observed in the presence of arsenate. The minimum dose of the bicarbonate salt required to simultaneously bring down iron concentrations also to below 0.3 mg/L decreased with decrease in the initial concentration of iron. The initial pH of the groundwater was \approx 7.44 which decreased slightly on addition of iron ion. The higher initial pH of the groundwater than that of the distilled water and the presence of other ions may be the reasons for the observed better iron removal from the groundwater than from distilled water in the presence of arsenate (Table 3.20).

KHCO ₃	Rer	naining	[Fe] after	treatmen	t from	Remaining [As] after treatment from					
dose /	dif	ferent in	itial [Fe]	and fixed	initial	different initial [Fe] and fixed initial [As]					
(mg/L)			[As] / (m	g/L)		/ (mg/L)					
	2	5	10	15	20	2	5	10	15	20	
0	1.78	3.78	8.21	11.18	16.78	0.249	0.249	0.249	0.249	0.248	
2	1.56	2.57	4.38	6.21	10.22	0.011	0.011	0.005	0.006	0.001	
5	1.38	2.17	3.98	4.89	10.04	0.012	0.013	0.005	0.006	0.002	
10	1.18	1.89	3.56	4.18	9.67	0.013	0.012	0.005	0.006	0.003	
20	0.99	1.56	2.78	3.48	8.99	0.012	0.012	0.005	0.005	0.005	
30	0.91	1.41	2.28	2.96	6.46	0.011	0.012	0.005	0.005	0.005	
40	0.56	1.09	1.89	2.19	4.09	0.012	0.011	0.005	0.005	0.004	
50	0.42	0.91	1.52	1.78	2.96	0.021	0.012	0.005	0.005	0.005	
60	0.29	0.48	1.09	1.18	2.21	0.022	0.011	0.012	0.005	0.005	
70	0.11	0.37	0.56	0.89	1.11	0.024	0.022	0.021	0.005	0.005	
80	0.09	0.36	0.35	0.34	0.32	0.025	0.023	0.021	0.005	0.005	
90	0.08	0.11	0.14	0.14	0.28	0.042	0.025	0.025	0.005	0.005	
100	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.049	0.031	0.031	0.005	0.005	

Table 3.19. Remaining [Fe] and [As] of the water after treatment by $KHCO_3$ from distilled water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L and fixed initial [As] of 0.25 mg/L.

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L and Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L

Table 3.20. Remaining [Fe] and [As] of the water after treatment by $KHCO_3$ from ground water containing different initial [Fe] in mg/L and fixed initial [As] of 0.25 mg/L.

KHCO3	Re	maining	[Fe] after	treatment	t from	Re	Remaining [As] after treatment from				
dose /	dit	fferent in	itial [Fe] a	and fixed	initial	different initial [Fe] and fixed initial [As]					
(mg/L)			[As] / (mg	g/L)				/ (mg/L)			
	2	5	10	15	20	2	5	10	15	20	
0	1.51	3.18	5.19	7.98	10.89	0.249	0.249	0.249	0.248	0.247	
2	0.98	1.31	3.48	3.96	8.12	0.009	0.013	0.005	0.001	0.001	
5	0.78	0.99	2.21	3.48	5.45	0.009	0.012	0.005	0.001	0.001	
10	0.48	0.82	2.81	2.28	4.56	0.008	0.011	0.005	0.001	0.002	
20	0.31	0.31	0.98	1.48	3.78	0.009	0.009	0.005	0.004	0.003	
30	0.11	0.13	0.81	0.48	3.18	0.009	0.008	0.005	0.004	0.005	
40	0.09	0.11	0.34	0.3	2.16	0.009	0.009	0.005	0.004	0.005	
50	0.09	0.09	0.16	0.15	1.67	0.018	0.009	0.005	0.005	0.005	
60	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.14	1.08	0.021	0.016	0.009	0.005	' 0.005	
70	0.06	0.08	0.11	0.11	0.81	0.025	0.022	0.018	0.005	0.005	
80	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.28	0.025	0.021	0.025	0.005	0.005	
90	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.14	0.046	0.025	0.025	0.005	0.005	
100	0.04	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.11	0.051	0.032	0.031	0.005	0.005	

Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.0004 mg/L and Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L

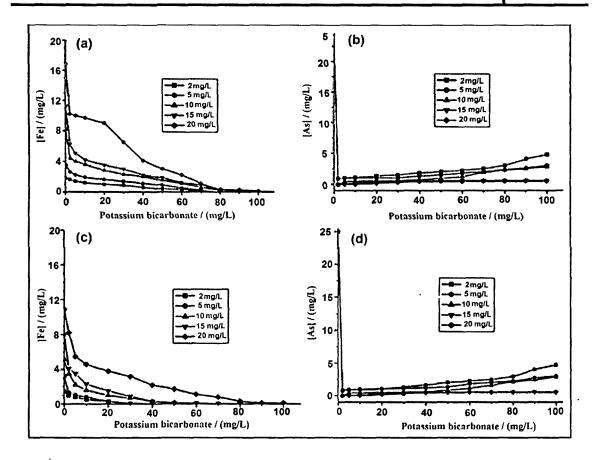


Figure 3.20. Plots of remaining [Fe] and [As] in mg/L vs. amount of potassium bicarbonate in mg/L of water from fixed initial arsenic concentration of 0.25 mg/L and varying initial iron ion concentration of 2, 5, 10, 15 and 20 mg/L with residence time of 2 h: (a, b) in distilled water and (c, d) in groundwater.

3.2.2 Mechanism of removal

The observed order of increasing simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions with various pH conditioners excluding lime: bicarbonates > carbonates > banana ash is in agreement with that observed earlier for iron ion removal. The bicarbonates of Na and K produce milder alkaline solution than the corresponding carbonates. An observed better iron ion removal ability of bicarbonate salts than the corresponding carbonate salts of Na and K was attributed to lower solubility of iron oxide/hydroxide in the presence of the bicarbonates than in the carbonates. Fe(II) is precipitated as ferric oxide (Fe₂O₃) from neutral water, as goethite (FeOOH) from mild alkaline water and as ferric hydroxide (ferrihydrite, Fe(OH)₃) from highly alkaline water in presence of sufficient oxygen³⁴⁰. The solubility of these compounds decreases in the order Fe(OH)₃ > FeOOH > Fe₂O₃ due to decreasing OH⁻ groups which is the reason for the observed order of efficiency of the pH conditioners for simultaneous removal of iron ion and arsenate. The adsorption of arsenate

ions is expected to be more with greater precipitation. However, it can be seen from the Figure 3.13-3.15 that with a particular material, although the iron ion removal increased considerably with increase in the quantity of the material, the arsenate ion removal showed an opposite trend. The decrease in arsenate removal with increase in the amount of a pH conditioner may be attributed to increase in the pH, *i.e.*, OH⁻ ions, which compete with the arsenate ions for adsorption on iron precipitate^{168, 194, 280, 282, 359}.

As(V) exists in anionic forms of $H_2AsO_4^-$, $HAsO_4^{2-}$ or AsO_4^{3-} depending upon the pH of the solution above 3.0^{278} . Thus, when added iron salt is precipitated with the pH conditioners by increasing pH, it could facilitate the conversion of soluble arsenic species to insoluble reaction products²⁷⁸. These products might form through three major steps: (i) precipitation in forms of Fe(AsO₄) solid; (ii) coprecipitation where soluble arsenic species were incorporated into a growing hydroxide phase via inclusion, occlusion, or adsorption; and (iii) adsorption involving the formation of surface complexes between soluble arsenic and the solid hydroxide surface site³⁶⁰. A pH around 7.3 is required for Fe(OH)₃ particles to have a net positive charge. Since arsenate is an anion and will adsorb onto positively charged Fe(OH)₃ particles by surface complexation, arsenic removal should be optimized at a pH of 7.3 or less. Arsenic removal may also occur at higher pH levels, but not as effectively as at lower pH values²⁸⁰. Arsenate removal decrease with increasing pH values above 8.0¹⁶⁸. On the other hand, at highly alkaline condition, $Fe(OH)_4^-$ ions are formed in water²⁸², which is also expected to decrease the adsorption of the negatively charged arsenate ions on their precipitate. As(V) ions present in the water are more highly charged at pH 9.0¹. So, both of these two factors tend to suggest that arsenate should be more readily removed from solution by both co-precipitation and adsorption at higher pH. However at pH 9, the high concentration of OH⁻ tends to make the surface of iron precipitates and dissolved iron complexes more negatively charged, so hindering the approach of arsenate anions to the surface³⁵⁸. The better arsenic removal at low pH values is attributted also to decreased concentration of hydroxide anion, which is an excellent ligand that strongly competes with arsenic for adsorption sites¹⁹⁴. Thus, the charges on the iron precipitate and the arsenate ions play a greater role in arsenate removal than the quantity of the iron precipitate available for arsenate adsorption. In the present case, arsenate is probably removed mainly through co-precipitation with iron ion and adsorption on goethite at slightly alkaline pH and ferrihydrite at alkaline pH as shown in the following equations:

$$xFeOOH \downarrow + yHAsO_4^{2-} \rightarrow (FeOOH)_x.(HAsO_4^{2-})_y \downarrow$$
 Eq. (3.3)

The observed slightly higher arsenate ion removal by the K-salts than the corresponding Na-salts can also be attributed in a similar way to the slightly lower pH produced by the K-salts than that by the corresponding Na-salts.

3.2.3 Precipitate study

3.2.3.1 FTIR analysis

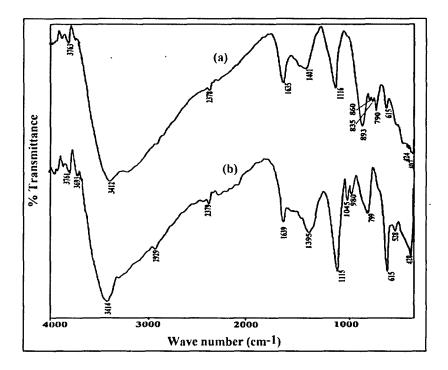


Fig. 3.21. FTIR spectra of the precipitate formed after treatment by (a) bicarbonate salts in the pH range 7-8 (b) carbonate salts in the pH range 9-10.

The FTIR spectra of the precipitates obtained at pH 7-8 with bicarbonate (Figure 3.21a) showed absorption bands at 3412 cm⁻¹, 1635 cm⁻¹ and 1401 cm⁻¹ due to OH stretching, bending of HOH^{349, 350} and δ (OH), respectively. Intense peaks, characteristic of goethite, corresponding to γ and δ -OH bending modes of out and in plane modes were seen at 790 and 893 cm⁻¹³⁶¹. Symmetric stretching of Fe-O is indicated by a band at 615 cm⁻¹²⁴⁷. Small absorption peaks at 860 cm⁻¹ and 835 cm⁻¹ could be assigned to the presence of HAsO₄²⁻ ion and As-O-Fe groups^{362, 363}. The IR spectrum of the precipitate obtained at pH 9-10 with the carbonate salts (Figure 3.21b) is quite similar with the spectrum obtained with the

bicarbonates except the peaks at 1045 and 980 cm⁻¹ corresponding to the bending vibration of (Fe-OH) groups suggesting formation of ferric hydroxide, $Fe(OH)_3^{352, 353}$.

3.2.3.2 XRD analysis

The XRD patterns of the precipitates obtained by using carbonate and bicarbonate salts are shown in Figue 3.22.

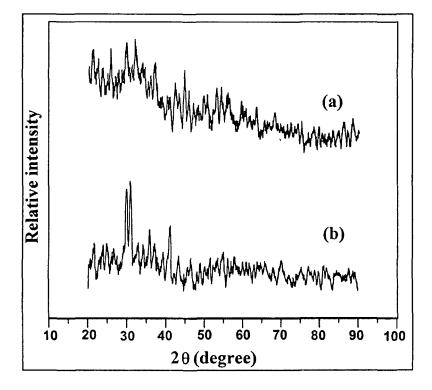


Figure 3.22. XRD of the precipitate formed after treatment with (a) bicarbonate salts in the pH range 7-8 (b) carbonate salts in the pH range 9-10.

As the XRD patterns show the poorly crystaline nature of the precipitate, it was difficult to differenciate between arsenate and ferric oxide phase using simple powder XRD analysis^{362, 364}. A comparison of the XRD pattern of the precipitate obtained at both the pH with JCPDF-ICDD database³⁶⁵ and with literature indicated that the XRD pattern showed similarity with that of ferric arsenate³⁶⁶. Two characteristic broad XRD bands were observed at ~29° and ~57° 20 for poorly crystalline ferric arsenate in the both cases.

3.2.3.3 SEM-EDS analysis

The SEM-EDS image of the precipitate obtained by using bicarbonate salts is shown in Figure 3.23. SEM image showed randomly aggregated large and irregularly shaped particles suggestive of poor crystallinity of the precipitate. The poor crystallinity may be attributted to incorporation of arsenate. From the EDS analysis the presence of significant quantities of Fe and As in the precipitate obtained by using potassium bicarboante salt can be seen clearly (Figure 3.23b).

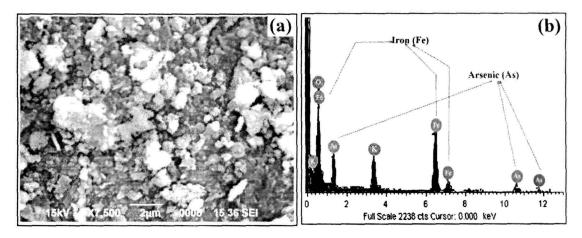


Figure 3.23: SEM-EDS of the precipitate formed after treatment by bicarbonate salts.

3.2.4 Summary

The following conclusions have been drawn from the present study:

The arsenic removal in presence of the pH conditioners increases in the order: banana ash < carbonates < bicarbonates < lime. However, the bicarbonate salts provide the best pH condition for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions.

- The potassium salts are more efficient than the corresponding sodium salts. Lime is disadvantageous because it requires post-treatment correction of highly alkaline pH. The bicarbonates retain the final pH within the acceptable range for drinking.
- Arsenate and iron ions can be removed simultaneously to below 0.01 mg/L and 0.3 mg/L, respectively, retaining the pH of water within the acceptable range for drinking, using only the bicarbonate salts alone or their mixture as the pH conditioner.

- The use of KHCO₃ is more advantageous over the use of the more basic substances including NaHCO₃ because, with it, one not only needs the smallest dose but also can avoid careful adjustment of the dose for regulating the initial and the final pH.
- The arsenate ion is removed predominantly through goethite or ferrihydrite in the presence of the bicarbonates and through ferric hydroxide in the presence of the more alkaline pH-conditioners.

From the present study, KHCO₃ is expected to be the most effective pH-conditioner for application along with other precipitating/coagulating agents for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions.

3.3 Arsenic and Iron Removal by Oxidation-Coagulation at Optimized pH (OCOP) method

The efficiencies of bicarbonate and carbonate salts of Na and K, ash and lime have been studied in removal of arsenic and iron ions as pH-conditioners for precipitationcoagulation as discussed in section 3.1 and 3.2. It was found that KHCO₃ and NaHCO₃ are the most efficient pH conditioners for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron. Though KHCO₃ is more efficient than NaHCO₃, the later may be more suitable because of easier availability and its familiarity as baking soda among common people. Moreover, NaHCO₃ does not impart any unpleasant taste to water unlike KHCO₃.

Since arsenic is present in groundwater mainly as difficult-to-remove arsenite ions, different oxidants have been used for oxidizing the arsenite to easy-to-remove arsenate ions. KMnO₄, a popular oxidizing agent used in water treatment, has another edge over its competitors because of its stable solid form with high solubility²⁷⁵. The oxidation potential and reduction products of KMnO₄ are also pH-dependent. Under weak acidic, neutral and weak alkaline conditions, the half-reaction is³⁶⁷:

$$MnO_4^- + 2H_2O + 3e^- = MnO_2(S) + 4OH^ E^\circ = +0.588 V$$
 Eq. (3.5)

In the presence of 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L) NaHCO₃, the possible reaction through which KMnO₄ would oxidize As(III) to As(V) at the prevailing mild alkaline pH is²⁷⁴:

$$3H_3AsO_3 + 2KMnO_4 + 4OH^- = 3HAsO_4^{2-} + 2MnO_2 + 5H_2O + 2K^+$$
 Eq. (3.6)

Therefore, after oxidising others in the presence of NaHCO₃, manganese separates as insoluble MnO₂ without leaving any dissolved manganous ions in the treated water²⁵⁹. The As(III) oxidation efficiencies obtained under basic conditions for Mn(VII)-As(III) system is also reported to be higher than those under acidic conditions³²⁹. Thus, we thought it worthwhile to carry out a detail systematic study of simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron ion from groundwater by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH using NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ as the pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant, respectively. We have studied the effects of dosage of the oxidant, the coagulant and the pH-conditioner on the simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron ions.

^{*}This work has been published in J. Hazard. Mater., 260, 618-626, 2013.

3.3.1 Batch experiments

Batch tests were carried out to optimize the doses of NaHCO₃ as pH-conditioner, KMnO₄ as oxidant and FeCl₃ as coagulant in the OCOP method for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron. The effect of dissolved Fe(II), sulfate, phosphate and silicate on removal of arsenic and iron were also studied through batch experiments. The results of the batch experiments are discussed here.

3.3.1.1 Effect of coagulant dose on As and Fe removal

Water having initial arsenite concentrations, $[As]_0$ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) was treated with varying doses of FeCl₃ in the range of 0-191.1 μ M (0-31 mg/L) in presence of fixed concentrations of 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L) of NaHCO₃ and 3.16 μ M (0.5 mg/L) of KMnO₄. The variations in the remaining arsenic concentrations after the treatment along with the residual iron ion concentrations originating from the added FeCl₃ are shown in Table 3.21-3.22 and Figure 3.24.

Table 3.21. Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As]₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of FeCl₃ with fixed doses of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM) and KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M).

Dose of	Rema	aining [As] f	rom different	initial conc	entrations of
FeCl ₃ /			arsenio		
μM	6.67	5.34	4.00	2.60	1.33
0	6.54	5.08	3.74	2.54	1.20
6.2	3.60	2.53	1.29	1.01	0.67
12.3	2.24	1.73	0.76	0.53	0.33
18.5	1.88	1.33	0.54	0.32	0.23
24.6	1.60	1.07	0.34	0.24	0.13
30.8	1.28	0.80	0.29	0.20	0.13
36.9	1.12	0.64	0.21	0.17	0.12
43.2	0.98	0.51	0.15	0.13	0.12
49.3	0.80	0.40	0.14	0.12	0.11
55.5	0.64	0.31	0.13	0.12	0.10
61.6	0.51	0.24	0.13	0.12	0.10
67.8	0.47	0.15	0.13	0.11	0.09
73.9	0.38	0.13	0.12	0.10	0.09
80.1	0.33	0.12	0.12	0.1 0	0.09
86.3	0.26	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.08
92.5	0.22	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.08
98.6	0.20	0.11	0.11	0.09	0.08
104.8	0.19	0.10	0.10	0.09	0.07
110.9	0.18	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.07
117.1	0.17	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.07

,					Results and discussion		Chapter 3
	123.3	0.15	0.09	0.09	0.08	0.07	
					0.08	0.07	
	129.5	0.14	0.09	0.08			
	135.6	0.14	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.06	
	141.8	0.13	0.08	0.07	0.06	0.05	
	147.9	0.12	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.04	
	154.1	0.11	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	
	160.3	0.11	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.03	
	166.4	0.10	0.07	0.04	0.03	0.02	
	172.6	0.08	0.06	0.04	0.02	0.02	
	178.8	0.08	0.06	0.03	0.02	0.01	
	184.9	0.07	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.01	
	191.1	0.06	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.01	

Table 3.22. Residual [Fe] in μ M after treatment of arsenic from different initial [As]₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) with varying dose of FeCl₃ with fixed doses of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM) and KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M).

Dose of	Residual	[Fe] with dif	fferent dose	of FeCl ₃ aft	er treatment
FeCl ₃ /		c from differ		-	
μM	6.67	5.34	4.00	2.60	1.33
0	0	0	0	0	0
6.2	4.65	4.65	4.48	4.47	4.12
12.3	6.08	6.09	6.27	6.09	6.27
18.5	7.16	7.16	7.34	7.52	7.16
24.6	7.70	7.88	8.06	8.24	8.24
30.8	8.42	8.59	8.59	8.77	8.77
36.9	9.85	9.49	9.49	9.85	9.67
43.2	10.74	10.38	10.2	10.74	10.56
49.3	11.64	10.74	11.10	11.46	11.64
55.5	11.99	11.46	11.82	12.17	12.53
61.6	13.07	12.53	12.89	12.71	13.43
67.8	13.61	13.25	13.43	13.43	14.32
73.9	14.32	14.32	14.14	14.32	15.04
80.1	15.04	15.22	15.22	15.04	15.93
86.3	15.93	16.11	16.29	15.94	16.65
92.5	16.47	16.65	16.83	16.65	17.73
98.6	17.55	17.73	17.70	17.73	18.80
104.8	18.80	19.16	18.60	18.98	19.52
110.9	19.69	20.59	19.87	20.05	20.23
117.1	20.59	21.49	20.76	21.30	21.49
123.3	21.48	23.27	22.38	22.20	22.56
129.5	23.27	24.35	23.28	23.28	23.28
135.6	24.17	25.43	25.07	24.35	23.99
141.8	25.78	26.86	26.32	25.78	24.89
147.9	27.75	28.65	27.93	27.04	25.78
	30.44	30.08	29.54	28.65	27.21

.

				Results ar	Chapter 3	
160.3	32.23	31.87	30.97	29.54		
166.4	35.81	34.02	32.77	30.97	30.08	
172.6	41.18	39.39	35.81	32.59	31.87	
178.8	46.55	42.97	39.39	35.81	34.38	
184.9	53.71	50.13	46.55	42.97	39.39	
191.1	59.08	57.3	51.92	50.13	46.55	

From the Figure 3.24a we see that removal of arsenic increased on increase the coagulant dose as expected.

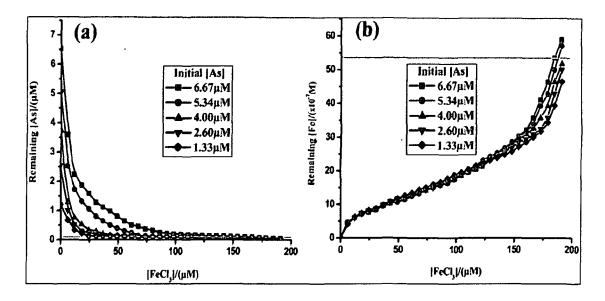


Figure 3.24. Remaining [As] (a) and residual [Fe] in μ M (b) from different [As]₀ vs. varying dose of FeCl₃ at fixed doses of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM) and KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M) at residence time of 2 h in distilled water. The horizontal yellow lines represent the respective WHO guideline values.

It can further be seen that the FeCl₃ dose required to remove arsenic to a particular concentration increases also with [As]₀. The minimum dose of FeCl₃, [FeCl₃]_{mun} required for lowering the arsenic concentration to below the WHO guideline value has been found to increase linearly with [As]₀ until the [As]₀ exceeded the stoichiometric equivalent i.e., $2/3^{rd}$ of the molar concentration (4.45 µM) of the KMnO₄ dose. The [FeCl₃]_{mun} increased more rapidly beyond that As-Mn equivalence point in alkaline condition (Figure 3.25). Thus, the excess arsenic over the stoichiometric equivalent of KMnO₄ remains in the arsenite form which requires a larger quantity of FeCl₃^{27, 268}. This explanation is supported by the fact that the plot of [FeCl₃]_{mun} *vs.* [As]₀ is linear in the entire range of 1.33-6.67 µM (0.1-0.5 mg/L) of [As]₀ when the highest [As]₀ was less than the Mn equivalent at the

KMnO₄ dose of 4.45 μ M in alkaline condition (Figure 3.25). The linear relation between [FeCl₃]_{min} vs. [As]₀ at 4.45 μ M KMnO₄ has been found to be

$$[FeCl_3]_{min} = 12.39[As]_{0-1} + 2.316; R^2 = 0.994$$
 Eq. (3.7)

The linear relation between $[FeCl_3]_{mun}$ and $[As]_0$ suggests a minimum molar stoichiometric ratio of approximately 12.39:1 between them for efficient sorption of arsenic under the experimental conditions.

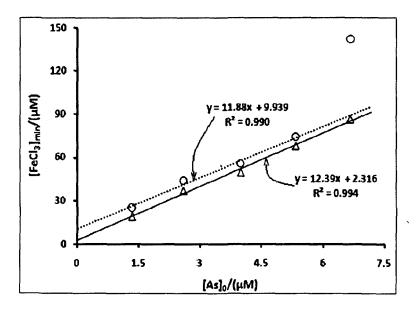


Figure 3.25. Plots of $[FeCl_3]_{mun}$ vs. $[As]_0$ at 3.16 μ M (dotted line) and at 4.45 μ M (solid line) of KMnO₄ at fixed dose of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM).

The residual iron ion concentration increases on increasing the dose of FeCl₃ for fixed $[As]_0$ as can be seen in Figure 24(b) and Table 22. The residual iron increases also with the increase in $[As]_0$ for a fixed dose of FeCl₃, particularly, at higher doses of FeCl₃. However, the residual iron ion remains within the WHO guideline value of 0.3 mg/L for drinking water at the $[As]_0$ range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) when the dose of FeCl₃ was less than 184.9 μ M (30 mg/L).

Thus, both of the remaining arsenic and residual iron ions remain below their respective WHO guideline values within a range of the FeCl₃ dose of 123.3-184.9 μ M (20-30 mg/L). It may also be mentioned here that the concentration of arsenic in the groundwater sources in Assam is normally below 0.4 mg/L (5.34 μ M). Therefore, we have chosen 154.1 μ M (25 mg/L) as the optimum dose of FeCl₃ and used the same in the, remaining studies.

3.3.1.2 Effect of oxidant dose on As and Fe removal

The effect of variation of the KMnO₄ dose at fixed doses of FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M) and of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM) on removal of As(III) from different [As]₀ is shown in Figure 3.26. As expected, the arsenic removal increased with increase in the concentration of KMnO₄ which can be seen clearly from Table 3.23.

Table 3.23. Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As]₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of KMnO₄ with fixed doses of FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M) and NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM).

[KMnO ₄] /	Remaining [As] from different initial [As] ₀ with						
μM		vary	ing dose of h	KMnO₄			
	6.67	5.34	4.00	2.60	1.33		
0	3.58	3.27	2.80	1.99	0.95		
0.63	2.01	1.73	1.29	1.05	0.39		
1.26	1.04	0.77	0.51	0.32	0.16		
1.89	0.51	0.31	0.12	0.09	0.07		
2.53	0.24	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.04		
3.16	0.07	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.03		
3.79	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.02		
4.43	0.04	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01		
5.06	0.04	0.02	0.01	0.009	0.007		
5.69	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.006	0.005		
6.32	0.02	0.01	0.006	0.005	0.001		

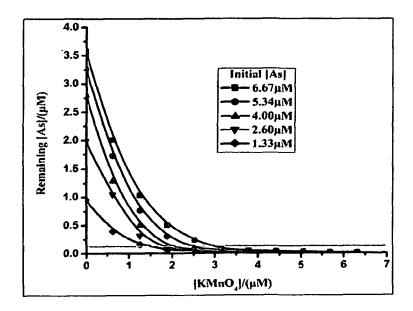


Figure 3.26. Remaining [As] from different $[As]_0 vs$. varying dose of KMnO₄ with fixed doses of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM) and FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M) at residence time of 2 h in distilled water. The horizontal yellow line represent the WHO guideline value for arsenic in drinking water.

The minimum amount of KMnO₄ required to remove arsenic to below the WHO guideline value, $[KMnO_4]_{min}$ also increased with increase in the [As]₀. The plots of $[KMnO_4]_{min}$ vs. [As]₀ is also linear in the experimental range of [As]₀ (Figure 3.27):

$$[KMnO_4]_{min} = 0.31[As]_0 + 1.037; R^2 = 0.993$$
 Eq. (3.8)

A zero intercept and a slope of 2/3 are expected from the redox reaction between KMnO₄ and arsenite. The observed deviations from the expected intercept and slope can be attributed to the contribution of MnO₂ to arsenic removal by adsorption in addition to the oxidation of arsenite²⁶⁸. A zero intercept is possible at the limit of $[As]_0 \rightarrow 0$. It can be mentioned here that the pH of 8.3 observed after addition of NaHCO₃ decreases to \approx 7.49 after addition of FeCl₃. The final pH of \approx 7.49 is a result of the hydrolysis of FeCl3 and the oxidation of As(III) by KMnO₄. In this pH range, KMnO₄ oxidizes arsenite to more easily removable arsenate form while itself is reduced from Mn(VII) to Mn(IV), i.e., to insoluble MnO₂ and not to soluble Mn(II). Dissolved Mn(II) is unwanted in drinking water. The solid hydrous MnO₂, which also adsorbs ionic As(V) species is reported to be coprecipitated through complex surface reactions¹⁷².

It can be seen from Figure 3.26 that 3.16 μ M (0.5 mg/L) of KMnO₄ is sufficient to remove arsenic to below the WHO guideline value from the [As]₀ range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) under the experimental conditions. Therefore, 3.16 μ M (0.5 mg/L) of KMnO₄ has been chosen as the optimum dose of KMnO₄ for arsenic removal from water in the absence of initial iron contaminant.

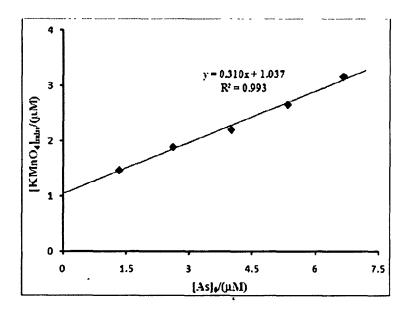


Figure 3.27. Plot of $[KMnO_4]_{mun}$ vs. $[As]_0$ at fixed doses of FeCl₃(154.1 μ M) and of NaHCO₃ (1.19 mM).

3.3.1.3 Effect of pH-conditioner dose on As and Fe removal

The effect of the dose of NaHCO₃ on arsenic removal from different $[As]_0$ at fixed concentrations of KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M) and FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M) is shown in Table 3.24 and Figure 3.28.

Table 3.24. Remaining [As] in μ M from different initial [As]₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) after treatment with varying dose of NaHCO₃ with fixed doses of FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M) and KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M).

[NaHCO ₃]	Remaining [As] from different initial [As] ₀							
/ mM	with varying dose of KMnO ₄							
	6.67	5.34	4.00	2.60	1.33			
0	3.47	3.07	2.4	1.73	0.67			
0.059	1.73	1.45	1.30	1.04	0.60			
0.119	1.30	1.07	0.96	0.83	0.53			
0.24	1.07	0.84	0.75	0.61	0.43			
0.36	0.89	0.72	0.63	0.51	0.31			
0.48	0.75	0.57	0.52	0.37	0.23			
0.59	0.61	0.47	0.40	0.31	0.15			
0.71	0.44	0.35	0.27	0.21	0.11			
0.83	0.27	0.20	0.16	0.12	0.09			
0.95	0.15	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.08			
1.07	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.05			
1.19	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.02			

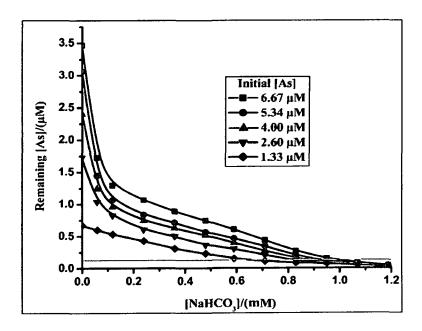
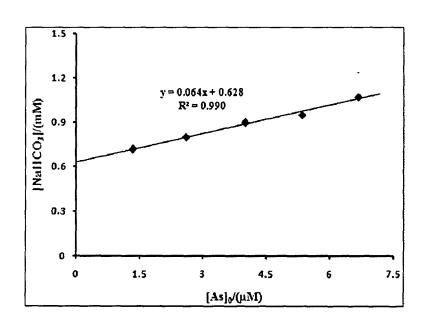


Figure 3.28. Remaining [As] from different $[As]_0 vs$. varying dose of NaHCO₃ with fixed doses of KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M) and FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M), at residence time of 2 h in distilled water. The horizontal yellow line represent the WHO guideline value for arsenic in drinking water.

The arsenic removal increased with increase in the concentration of NaHCO₃. The quantity of NaHCO₃ required to bring down the arsenic concentration to a particular concentration also increased with increase in [As]₀. It can be seen from the figure that the arsenic concentration from [As]₀ in the range of 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) is lowered to below the WHO guideline value with a minimum dose of \approx 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L) of NaHCO₃. Therefore, 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L) was considered as the optimum concentration of the pHconditioner for the remaining study.

The plots of the minimum amount of NaHCO₃ required to remove arsenic to below the WHO guideline value, $[NaHCO_3]_{min}$ vs. $[As]_0$ is also linear in the experimental conditions (Figure 3.29):



$$[NaHCO_3]_{min} = 0.064[As]_0 + 0.628; R^2 = 0.990$$
 Eq. (3.9)

Figure 3.29. Plot of $[NaHCO_3]_{min}$ vs. $[As]_0$ at fixed doses of KMnO₄ (3.16 μ M) and FeCl₃ (154.1 μ M).

The observed increase in $[NaHCO_3]_{min}$ with increase in $[As]_0$ may be attributed to sorption of OH⁻ ions in the coagulates and consumption of OH⁻ ions in the oxidation of arsenite. As OH⁻ ions are removed by these mechanisms, more NaHCO₃ is required to maintain the optimal pH for sorption of H₂AsO₄⁻ ions by coagulates (Eq. 3.6).

3.3.1.4 Effect of initial dissolved iron ions

In the presence of appreciable concentration of dissolved Fe(II) ions along with arsenic, the ferrous ions consume KMnO₄ for the oxidation to ferric ions before KMnO₄

can oxidize arsenite to arsenate²⁷⁴. Therefore, in such cases, an additional amount of KMnO₄ is necessary to oxidize the ferrous ions. Under mild alkaline condition, the oxidation reaction of Fe(II) and As(III) by permanganate can be represented as²⁷⁴:

$$3Fe^{2+} + MnO_4^- + 5H_2O = 3Fe(OH)_3 + MnO_2 + H^+$$
 Eq. (3.10)

According to eqs. (3.6) and (3.10), 2.2 μ M and 29.8 μ M permanganate are required for complete oxidation of 3.34 μ M As(III) and 89.5 μ M Fe(II), respectively, under mild alkaline condition. The dose of KMnO₄ was varied in a range of 2-35 μ M in water containing 3.34 μ M As(III) and ferrous sulfate in a range of 17.9-89.5 μ M (1-5 mg/L) to study the effect of permanganate dose in arsenic removal in the presence of soluble Fe(II) by the present OCOP method. It was found that, in the presence of ferrous iron up to 89.5 μ M, a KMnO₄ dose of 25.3 μ M is enough for removal of arsenic from 1.33-6.67 μ M (0.1-0.5 mg/L) to below the WHO guideline value.

3.3.2 Effect of competing ions

Anions, particularly, the di-anions and tri-anions directly compete for available surface binding sites and indirectly influence adsorption by alteration of the electrostatic charge at the solid surface³⁶⁸. Therefore, the effects of such ions, *viz.*, sulphate, phosphate and silicate in the OCOP process were examined through batch laboratory experiments. The concentrations of these ions were taken in selected ranges in which they normally occur in groundwater²⁷⁶.

In the present OCOP method, the optimized doses of the pH-conditioner at 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L), the oxidant at 3.16 μ M (0.5 mg/L) and the coagulant at 154.1 μ M (25 mg/L) was added successively with mixing by mild stirring with a glass rod after each addition. The removals of arsenic from [As]₀ of 3.34 μ M (0.25 mg/L) by the present method in the presence of sulphate, phosphate and silicate ions separately in their concentrations in the ranges of 0-5.20 mM (0-500 mg/L as sulphate), 0-0.10 mM (0-3 mg/L phosphate as P) and 0-0.40 mM (0-10 mg/L silicate as Si), respectively, in distilled water are shown in Figure 3.30.

Sulfate has been reported to influence the adsorption of both arsenate and arsenite in many surface and subsurface aquatic systems. In the present case, Figure 3.30a shows that the presence of sulfate had negligible effect on As(III) removal at low concentration of sulfate, while As(III) removal was decreased by 5-16% the presence of 100-500 mg/L SO_4^{2-} . However, the results of our study and those in the literature suggested that sulfate can compete with arsenate and occupy surface sites for which the arsenate has weak affinity²⁷⁶.

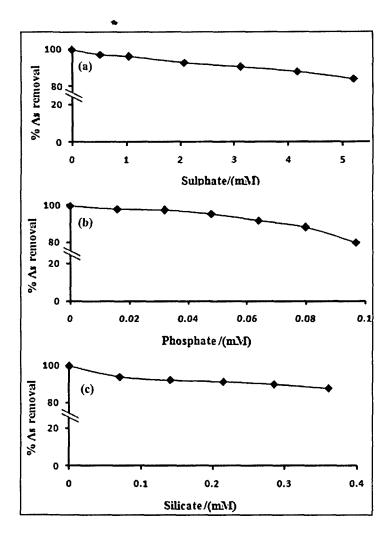


Figure 3.30. Effects of the competing ions on arsenic removal from $[As]_0$ of 3.34 μ M (0.25 mg/L) by the present OCOP method: (a) sulphate, (b) phosphate, (c) silicate in distilled water.

Phosphate has a similar structure and deprotonation constants as arsenate in solution and these similarities between phosphate and arsenate complexes make it a possible competing ion for arsenate. Therefore, the effects of phosphate on As(III) removal in the present method were examined at various phosphate concentrations as demonstrated in Figure 3.30b. Presence of low phosphate concentration showed negligible effect on As(III) removal while 0.08-0.1 mM (2.5-3 mg/L) phosphate as P reduced As(III) removal by 12-20%.

Silicate species are common oxyanions in natural water, with concentration ranging from 0.45 to 14 mg/L Si $(0.016-0.5 \text{ mM})^{151}$. Figure 3.30c shows the effect of silicate ion of

different concentrations on As(III) removal and it was revealed that silicate ion at low concentration as Si had no effect on arsenic removal under this condition. With the presence of 0.35 mM (10 mg/L) of soluble silicate as Si, the removal percentage of arsenic decreased by 12%. When silica is dissociated under alkaline conditions, its affinity for iron hydroxide surface increases significantly, resulting in a stronger competition with arsenic.

Thus we see that the presence of each of these ions has been found to inhibit the arsenic removal indicating that these ions compete for the surface adsorption sites as was reported earlier³⁵⁸. The removal of arsenic gradually decreases with increase in the concentrations of each of the competing ions. The removal of arsenic at the highest experimental concentrations of the ions have been found to be 84%, 80% and 88% in the presence of sulphate, phosphate and silicate ions, respectively, compared to >99% in their absence.

The inhibitory effect of phosphate has been found to be nonlinear and has been found to increase more rapidly above 0.048 mM (1.5 mg/L of phosphate as P). The inhibitory effect of sulphate and silicate were linear. Phosphate has a similar structure and deprotonation constants as arsenate in solution unlike sulphate and silicate. The different inhibitory behaviour of phosphate may be attributed to suppression of the 1^{st} acid dissociation of H₃AsO₄ by high concentration of phosphate which is not there in the cases of sulphate and silicate in the experimental conditions. The inhibitory effects of these competing anions on arsenic removal by ferric chloride coagulation with permanganate oxidation at optimized pH is associated with the affinity of the competing anions for the surface and degree of these anions influencing the arsenic removal increases in the order: sulphate < silicate < phosphate.

As the inhibitory effects of these ions are mainly due to competition for the adsorption sites of coagulates, one may have to increase the coagulant dose if they are present in significant concentrations. To investigate the effect of FeCl₃ dose on arsenic removal in the presence of these co-existing anions, we have varied the dose of FeCl₃ in the range of 154.1-308.2 μ M (25-50 mg/L) in presence of fixed concentrations of sulphate at 3.12 mM (300 mg/L), phosphate at 0.064 mM (2 mg/L as P) and silicate at 0.214 mM (6 mg/L as Si), separately. The results are shown in Figure 3.31. It can be seen from the figure that with the increase of FeCl₃ dose from 154.1 μ M (25 mg/L) to 184.9 μ M (30 mg/L), the removal of arsenic increased from 90% to more than 96% and increasing the dose of FeCl₃ upto 308.2 μ M (50 mg/L) more than 98% removal has been achieved even in

presence of the significant concentrations of sulphate, phosphate and silicate. Thus, the effects of the competing ions can be offset by appropriately increasing the coagulant dose.

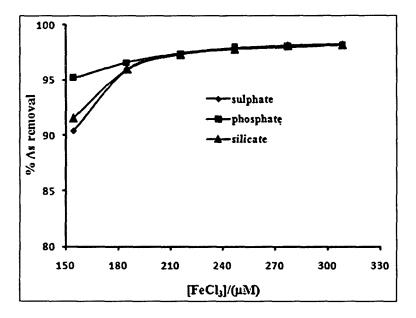


Figure 3.31. Effect of the coagulant dose on arsenic removal from distilled water in presence sulphate (3.12 mM), phosphate (0.064 mM) and silicate (0.214 mM) in the OCOP method.

3.3.3 Analysis of the precipitate

3.3.3.1 FTIR analysis

The IR adsorption patterns of the precipitate obtained after the OCOP treatment in presence and the precipitate of only iron obtained in the absence of arsenic in distilled water are shown in Figure 3.32. The vibrational band observed at 3443 cm⁻¹ in presence of arsenic (3395 cm⁻¹ in absence) is supposed to be the OH stretching band³⁴⁹. The adsorption bands at 1637 and 1466 cm⁻¹ (1619 and 1466 cm⁻¹ in absence) may be ascribed to HOH bending³⁵⁰ and ∂ (OH), respectively. Symmetric stretching of Fe–O is indicated by a band observed at 599 cm⁻¹ (a small shoulder in absence)²⁴⁷. The peak at 778 cm⁻¹ observed in the presence of arsenic, which is absent in the absence of arsenic, can be assigned to the As–OH stretching^{363, 369}. It may be due to sorption of HAsO₄²⁻ on iron precipitate.

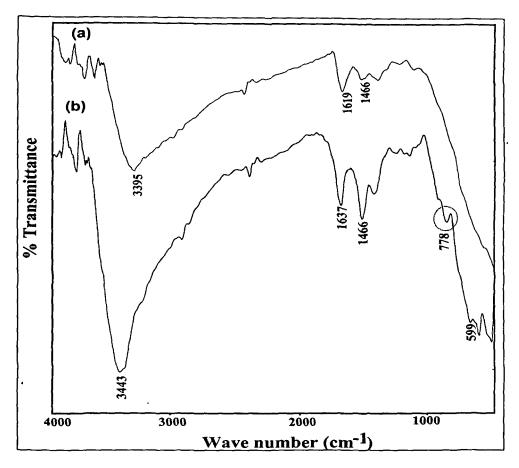


Figure 3.32. FTIR spectrum of precipitate obtained after treatment (a) in absence of arsenic (b) in presence of 3.34 μ M (0.25 mg/L) arsenic from distilled water with 1.19 mM NaHCO₃ (100 mg/L), 3.16 μ M KMnO₄ (0.5 mg/L) and 154.1 μ M FeCl₃ (25 mg/L).

3.3.3.2 XRD analysis

The XRD of the precipitates (Figure 3.33) obtained in presence of arsenic shows only two major peaks with overall poor crystallinity. A strong peak at 20 of 31.75 which may correspond to iron oxide^{365, 370}, formed due to dehydration of water from ferric hydroxide. Another peak at 20 of 45.55 may correspond to ferric hydroxide^{365, 371}. Thus, the mostly amorphous precipitate contains some crystalline iron oxides and hydroxides in it. The appearance of some crystallinity in the present XRD spectra which were not seen in the XRD spectra of the precipitate of section 3.2.3.2 may be attributed to the presence of additional ferric ions from ferric chloride and MnO₂ in the present case. The XRD pattern does not show similarity with that corresponding to FeAsO₄ · xH₂O in the literature³⁷². This may be due to very small As:Fe ratio in the water and due to the presence of Mn. The dominant arsenic removal mechanism involved in the OCOP method is supposed to be the sorption of arsenic onto the surface of poorly crystalline precipitate of ferric hydroxide

instead of the precipitation of arsenic as insoluble crystalline iron-arsenic compound such as $FeAsO_4 \cdot xH_2O^{317, 372}$.

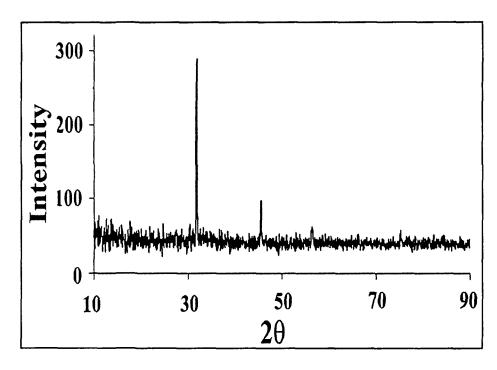


Figure 3.33. XRD pattern of the precipitate obtained after the OCOP treatment of arsenic (3.34 μ M) containing distilled water with 1.19 mM NaHCO₃ (100 mg/L), 3.16 μ M KMnO₄ (0.5 mg/L) and 154.1 μ M FeCl₃ (25 mg/L).

3.3.3.3 SEM-EDS analysis

The morphology and surface elements distribution of the precipitate obtained after treatment were studied by a SEM combined to an EDS. The SEM image of the precipitate reveals a 1-3 μ m platelike morphology with smooth surfaces (Figure 3.34a).

The EDS analysis (Figure 3.34b) of the precipitate shows the presence of a small amount of arsenic in addition to iron and manganese. EDS analysis provided direct evidence that arsenic was adsorbed on a complex iron oxide precipitate. The observed manganese is from MnO_2 . Other elements detected such as Na, K, Cl come from the chemicals used in the treatment.

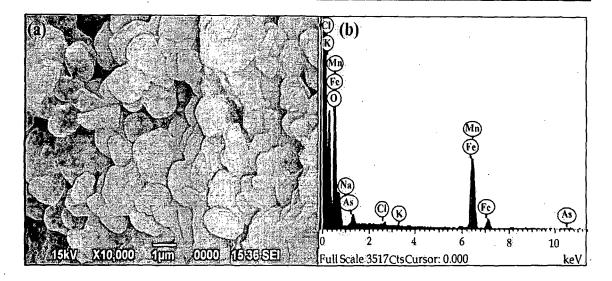


Figure 3.34. SEM-EDS image of the precipitate obtained after the OCOP treatment of arsenic (3.34 μ M) containing distilled water with 1.19 mM NaHCO₃ (100 mg/L), 3.16 μ M KMnO₄ (0.5 mg/L) and 154.1 μ M FeCl₃ (25 mg/L).

3.3.4 Potability of the treated water

3.3.4.1 Relevant water quality parameters before and after treatment

The relevant water quality parameters of the water samples before and after the OCOP treatment determined using standard methods³³⁶ are given in Table 3.25a and 3.25b. The final pH of the treated water is also well within the acceptable range for drinking water. All the water quality parameters determined after treatment were within the respective WHO guideline values for drinking water³⁴. The concentrations of Fe, Mn, Na, K and Cl, which are present in the materials used, also remain within the WHO guideline values. The conductivity, total dissolved solids and total alkalinity showed marginal increase but within the respective WHO guideline values. It may be noted that anions, *viz.*, fluoride and silicate showed a decrease after the treatment. Also from Table 3.25b, one can see that final concentrations of some metal ions, *viz.*, Ca, Mg, Zn, Cd, Co, Mn and Cu decreased from their initial values after OCOP treatment.

Physicochemical property	WHO guideline	Before	After
	value		
pH	6.5-8.5	7.44	7.49
Conductivity (µS/cm)	NS	199	248
Dissolved Solids (mg/L)	600	130	166
Suspended Solids (mg/L)	NS	10	12
Total Alkalinity as CaCO ₃ (mg/L)	200	84.0	92.0
Total Hardness as CaCO ₃ (mg/L)	200	82.0	82.0
Chloride (mg/L)	250	6.0	12.0
Fluoride (mg/L)	1.50	0.33	0.31
Nitrate (mg/L)	50	<1.0	<1.0
Phosphate as P (mg/L)	NS	< 0.003	< 0.003
Silica (mg/L)	NS	4.35	2.51
Sulphate (mg/L)	500	6.2	6.2

Table 3.25a. Physicochemical water quality parameters and anion concentrations in water before and after arsenic removal by the OCOP treatment.

Table 3.25b. Concentration of the metal ions in water before and after arsenic removal by the OCOP treatment.

Metals / (mg/L)	WHO guideline values	Before	After
Cadmium	0.003	0.001	ND
Calcium	75	0.72	0.64
Chromium	0.05	ND	ND
Cobalt	NS	0.001	ND
Copper	2	0.009	0.003
Lead	0.01	ND	ND
Magnesium	NS	2.61	1.1
Manganese	0.5	0.092	ND
Mercury	0.006	<0.001	< 0.001
Potassium	NS	8.75	7.5
Sodium	50 ×	5.62	18.9
Zinc	3.0	0.58	0.13

Ns: Not specified; ND: Not detectable

3.3.4.2 Bacteriological quality of the water

•

The water before and after treatment by the OCOP method was tested for microbial contamination by using multiple tube method and biochemical assays³³⁸. Analysis was done to determine most probable number (MPN) of coliform organisms per milliliter of

water as well as to determine the presence of pathogenic bacteria such as Escherichia coli. The results were recorded as MPN of coliform per 100 ml of water (Table 3.26). The MPN value for the water samples before and after treatment of arsenic was found to be <1.8 and thus acceptable for drinking with respect to bacteriological contamination³⁴. The observed low MPN value may be attributed to disinfection property of potassium permanganate which is used as the oxidant in the present method³³⁸.

Type of water				Es thern	Bacterio- logical quality		
	MPN/ 100ml	Low Conf. limit	High Conf. limit	MPN/ 100ml	Low Conf. limit	High Conf. limit	
Before treatment	<1.8	•	6.8	<1.8		6.8	Acceptable
After treatment	<1.8	-	6.8	<1.8	-	6.8	Acceptable

Table 3.26. Bacteriological quality of the As-containing water before and after treatment.

3.3.5 Environmental Impact

3.3.5.1 Leachability test for arsenic in the sludge after water treatment

The sludge generated after treatment of arsenic containing water was collected and tested for leachability of arsenic from the sludge. The leaching behaviour of arsenic in the sludge sample was evaluated with the toxicity characteristic leaching procedure $(TCLP)^{337}$. Arsenic concentration in the TCLP leachate of the sludge sample was only <10 µg/L against the maximum permissible TCLP limit of the US-EPA of 5 mg/L. Thus, the arsenic concentration in the TCLP extract of the solid sludge of the present OCOP method is very low and more than 500 times lower than the US-EPA TCLP limit for disposing in land-fill³¹⁷. The solid sludge can therefore be disposed in land-fill safely.

3.3.6 Suitability assessment

Arsenic removal technologies have to compete with the other technologies in which cost is a major determinant in the selection of a treatment option by the users. Considering the Indian retail prices of NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ as INR 13.50, 134.00 and 26.00 per

kg, respectively, the recurring cost of treatment in the present method has been estimated as INR 0.0079 (USD 0.000158) per liter. The method can efficiently remove both arsenic and iron to below the respective WHO guideline values.

3.3.7 Summary

The laboratory batch studies have revealed that the present OCOP method using NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ as the pH-conditioner, oxidant and coagulant, respectively, is highly efficient for removal of both arsenic and iron from groundwater. The following conclusions have also been drawn from the present study:

- Arsenic can be removed from an initial concentration range of 1.33-6.67 μM (0.1-0.5 mg/L) to below 0.067 μM (0.005 mg/L) by OCOP method by using NaHCO₃ as buffering agent, KMnO₄ as oxidant and FeCl₃ as coagulant.
- The optimized dose of NaHCO₃ is 1.19 mM (0.1 g/L), KMnO₄ is 3.16 μM (0.5 mg/L) and FeCl₃ is 154.1 μM (25 mg/L) for removal of arsenic from an initial concentration range of 1.33-6.67 μM (0.1-0.5 mg/L) when there is no initial soluble iron in the water.
- The minimum dose of each of NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃, required to bring arsenic to below 10 μ g/L (0.133 μ M), when plot individually against initial arsenic concentration at fixed chosen doses of the others, have been found to be linear in all three cases.
- In presence of soluble Fe(II), KMnO₄ dose should be increased to achieve the efficient removal of arsenic. About 25.3 μM (4 mg/L) of KMnO₄ is required for the complete oxidation of As(III) in presence Fe(II) up to 89.5 μM (5 mg/L).
- The inhibitory effects of competing ions on the arsenic removal by the present method increases in the order sulphate < silicate < phosphate.
- The inhibitory effects of the competing ions on the arsenic removal can be taken care of by increasing the dose of coagulant if they are present in significant concentration.
- Arsenic is removed through adsorption on a solid consisting of ferric hydroxide and Mn probably as MnO₂.
- Other relevant water quality parameters after treatment showed that the treated water is safe for drinking purpose.
- The OCOP process does not add any bacteriological contamination to the water.

- The recurring cost of treatment in the present method has been estimated as INR 0.0079 (USD 0.000158) per liter, which is competitive.
- The method is safe, environment friendly and has potential for rural application.

3.4 Field trial of the OCOP method

The field trial of the OCOP method was started in a phased manner at all together 16 spot water sources which included 10 households with 10 L, 5 schools with 25 L and 1 school with 200 L capacity systems. Though started in a phased manner, the trials later on continued simultaneously. An initial survey of use of household water and public tube well water was undertaken at the start of the field trial. These households were using groundwater for drinking and washing purpose. The tube well water in the schools was particularly used for drinking purpose. Arsenic levels in the water source of the household and schools were measured using Merck field test kits.

3.4.1 Field trial of the OCOP method with < 1.0 mg/L dissolved iron

In the first phase, the field trial was started on 9th of June, 2010 at the village of Tatigaon, in Titabor sub-division of Jorhat district of Assam, where the dissolved iron in the water was less than 1.0 mg/L. Water did not have dissolved iron but had about 200 μ g/L of arsenic. Groundwater from 4 such hand tube wells, *viz.*, H1a, H2a, H3a and S1 were treated by the OCOP method with doses as mentioned in Table 3.27. The removal of arsenic was done at three households with water from each of the sources H1a, H2a and H3a. The arsenic removal from water from the source S1 was done at a child and woman care centre. The doses used for water with arsenic along with iron less than 1.0 mg/L were: 0.1 g/L of NaHCO₃, 0.5 mg/L of KMnO₄ and 25 mg/L of FeCl₃ as solid powder, 5% and 25% stock solutions, respectively. The procedure of application of the method has been described below:

3.4.1.1 Procedure of the OCOP method

The three steps involved in the procedure are as follows:

Step 1. A specified quantity of NaHCO₃ (baking soda or cooking soda) is added to the arsenic containing water in a bucket or a container and thoroughly mixed by stirring with a stick. It controls the pH of the water in an optimum range where the chemicals added in the subsequent steps work as desired. It dissolves and mixes immediately.

^{*}This work has been published in J. Hazard. Mater., 260, 618-626, 2013.

Step 2. A specified quantity of KMnO₄ is added to the water with thorough mixing by stirring. At the prevailing pH, KMnO₄ oxidizes arsenite to more easily removable arsenate form while reducing manganese from Mn(VII) to Mn(IV) state, i.e., to MnO₂ and not to Mn(II) state. Mn(II) is soluble in water and is unwanted in drinking water whereas MnO₂ is an insoluble solid and is removed in the process. The presence of bicarbonate also accelerates oxidation of arsenite to easily adsorbed arsenate.

Step 3. After mixing of the KMnO₄ solution, a specified quantity of FeCl₃ is added to the water with thorough mixing by stirring for at least a minute. FeCl₃ is the most popular coagulating agent used in water treatment worldwide which is highly acidic and corrosive in aqueous solution but is safe in alkaline solution, e.g., in the presence of the specified quantity of baking soda. Ferric chloride coagulates sufficiently in the presence of baking soda.

Table 3.27.	Doses	of the	chemicals	for	iron-free	and	iron	containing	water	with	arsenic
concentratio	n in the	range	of 100-500	μg	/L.						

Groundwater type	NaHCO ₃	ŀ	KMnO ₄		FeCl ₃
	in mg/L	in mg/L	in ml (of 5%	in mg/L	in ml (of 25%
	1		aqueous		aqueous
			solution) per		solution) per
			10L of water		10L of water
Having < 1.0 mg/L dissolved iron	100	0.5	0.1	25	1
Having 1.0 – 5.0 mg/L dissolved iron	100	4	0.8	25	1
Having > 5.0 mg/L dissolved iron	100		that imparts a urple colour*	25	1

*For the water containing iron concentration above 5 mg/L, $KMnO_4$ was added until it imparts a light purple colour to the water. The colour, however, disappears after coagulation.

Coagulation in the form of reddish brown particles will be visible within minutes as shown in Figure 3.35. The water is then allowed to settle for at least an hour. The supernatant clear water can be decanted and filtered through sand-gravel filters.



Figure 3.35. The settling of the precipitate after treatment.

3.4.1.2 Performance of the OCOP method with <1.0 mg/L dissolved iron

The results of the field trial with groundwater having less than 1.0 mg/L dissolved iron are shown in Table 3.28a&b. The water samples after treatment were collected from the households and schools for one month and analysed for remaining [As] and [Fe] in the sample after arsenic removal. The average value of 15 samples from each source for remaining [As] and [Fe] with standard deviations are included in the table. From the results, it can be seen that arsenic was removed to below 5 μ g/L when the initial iron ion concentration in the water was less than 1.0 mg/L. Concentrations of Fe were also reduced to below 0.1 mg/L in all cases of initial iron of less than 1.0 mg/L. Small standard deviations indicate close agreements among the results (Table 3.28a). The pH of the treated water remained within 7.4 to 8.2, which is within the acceptable range for drinking, i.e., 6.5-8.5. In addition to the results of the arsenic removal from the sources H1a, H2a and H3a, presented in Table 3.28a, results of arsenic removal at some more households with the same sources of water are also shown in Table 3.28b. This table includes one more groundwater source H4. The results shown in this table are averages of at least three. The results of Table 3.28b are similar to those of Table 3.28a. These results can be compared with the results available in the literature³⁷³. Thus, the results show that over 95% arsenic removal can be achieved with the used doses of the pH conditioner, oxidant and coagulants from arsenic-containing water with low dissolved iron. The process also lowers the iron concentrations and retains the pH within the acceptable range for drinking.

Table 3.28a. [As] (in μ g/L) and [Fe] (in mg/L) before and after treatment by the present OCOP method in some field water from tube wells at schools (S) and households (H) in Jorhat district along with standard deviations (SD). The sample number was 15 from each source.

Source [♥]	Capacity	[A	s]/(µg/L	2)*	[Fe	e]/(mg/L)	pH*		
	/L	Before After SD [#]		Before	After	$SD^{\#}$	Before	After	
H1a		196.4	3.7	1.0	0.19	0.06	0.01	7.5	7.7
H2a	10	208.5	4.1	1.1	0.28	0.08	0.01	7.8	8.1
H3a		211.2	3.9	1.4	0.14	0.08	0.02	7.6	7.9
S 1		204.7	3.9	1.4	0.41	0.08	0.01	7.5	7.8
S2	25	238.1	7.6	0.7	2.61	0.14	0.60	7.3	7.5
S 3		229.1	7.4	1.2	3.15	0.17	0.73	7.0	7.4

^{Ψ}H1a, H2a, H3a and S1 were at Tatigaon village. S2 and S3 were at Kharikotia village. *Error limits: Δ [As]= ±0.4 µg/L, Δ [Fe]= ±0.05 mg/L and Δ pH= ±0.03. [#]SD's are for water samples after treatment. Other data are averages of at least three.

Table 3.28b. [As] (in μ g/L) and [Fe] (in mg/L) before and after treatment by the present OCOP method in some field sample at schools (S) and households (H).

Source	Capacity	[As]/(µ	g/L)*	[Fe]/(n	ng/L)*	pH*		
	/L	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	
H1b [#]		196.4	5.3	0.19	0.06	7.5	7.7	
H1c [#]		196.4	4.5	0.19	0.06	7.5	7.7	
H2b [#]	2	208.5	5.2	0.28	0.08	7.8	8.2	
H2c [#]	10	208.5	6.1	0.28	0.08	7.8	8.1	
H3b [#]		211.2	3.6	0.14	0.08	7.6	7.9	
H3c [#]		211.2	5.2	0.14	0.08	7.6	7.8	
H4		220.2	4.3	0.25	0.07	7.7	7.9	
S4	25	127.4	6.6	2.35	0.15	7.6	7.9	
S5		185.4	8.2	5.73	0.20	7.5	7.7	
S 6	200	106.5	9.2	16.25 [♥]	0.36	7.4	7.8	

*Error limits: $\Delta[As] = \pm 0.4 \ \mu g/L$, $\Delta[Fe] = \pm 0.05 \ mg/L$ and $\Delta pH = \pm 0.03$. The data presented here are averages of at least three.

[#]Indicates same source as in Table 3.28a but As removal done at different households or schools. H4 was at Tatigaon village in Jorhat district. S4 and S5 were at Kakila and Kutumgaon villages in Sonitpur district and S6 was Kaithalkuchi village in Nalbari district.

 $^{\psi}$ KMnO₄ was added until it imparted a light pink colour to the water to oxidize ferrous iron. The colour disappeared after coagulation.

3.4.2 Field trial of the OCOP method with 1-5 mg/L dissolved iron

The second phase of the field trial was started a fortnight latter on 9th of September, 2010 at 2 schools (Sources S2 and S3 in Table 3.28a), *viz.*, Kharikatia High School and Kharikatia Lower Primary School with about 500 and 50 students, respectively, at Kharikatia in Titabor sub-division, Jorhat district. The water here had initially about 235 $\mu g/L$ of arsenic and about 3 mg/L of iron. Latter, we started a field trial of arsenic and iron removal at one more school (Source S4 in Table 3.28b), *viz.*, Kakila Chariali Lower Primary School, Kakila, in Gohpur subdivision of Sonitpur district of Assam where the arsenic and iron concentrations were 127 $\mu g/L$ and 2.4 mg/L, respectively.

An arsenic removal to 25 μ g/L only was achieved with a KMnO₄ dose of 0.5 mg/L from the groundwater of S2 and S3 which had about 3 mg/L dissolved iron. The lower arsenic removal in presence of dissolved iron indicates oxidation of ferrous ions before oxidation of arsenite ions. However, we noticed better arsenic removal on increasing the dose of the oxidant. We had chosen a KMnO₄ dose of 4 mg/L, which is at least equivalent to the total initial arsenic and iron ions, assuming the entire initial arsenic and iron to be in arsenite and ferrous forms, respectively, for removing arsenic to below the WHO guideline value for arsenic affected groundwater containing dissolved iron in the range of 1-5 mg/L (Table 3.28). It can be mentioned here that the colour of KMnO₄ was not noticed in the treated water as any excess KMnO₄ was removed during the coagulation.

The results of the arsenic and iron removal of the groundwater sources, S2, S3 and S4, which had dissolved iron in the range of 1-5 mg/L are included in Table 3.28a&b. With this dose, both arsenic and iron were removed to below their respective WHO guideline values. It can be seen from the tables that despite addition of higher dose of KMnO₄, arsenic was lowered only to below 8 μ g/L when the water contained iron >1.0 mg/L, which is slightly poorer than that in the presence of lower dissolved iron concentrations. This indicates that though initially present iron can remove arsenic to some extent²³⁸, there is a negative effect of initially present iron on the arsenic removal to below 5 μ g/L, even if the initial ferrous ions are oxidized in the process. However, with the chosen dose of KMnO₄, the OCOP process could remove both arsenic and iron to below their respective WHO guideline values.

3.4.3 Field trial of the OCOP method with > 5 mg/L dissolved iron

In the third phase, the field trial was conducted at 2 arsenic affected water spot sources, *viz.*, S5 and S6 at Bholukaguri Lower Primary School, Kutumgaon, in Chaiduwar sub-division of Sonitpur district and at Asom Kesori Jatiya Vidyalaya (a high school) at Kaithalkuchi village in Nalbari district of Assam, respectively. The groundwater of the tube wells of S5 and S6 had arsenic concentrations of 185 and 106 μ g/L, respectively; whereas, they had dissolved iron concentrations of 5.73 and 16.25 mg/L, respectively. A 25 L *Arsiron Nilogon* unit for S5 and a 200 L *Arsiron Nilogon* unit for S6 (Figure 2.5c) were installed on 12 April, 2011 and on 15th of November, 2012, respectively. The difference in the timing was due to the time taken for choosing an appropriate and convenient site for the studies.

Arsenic from groundwater from S5 and S6 could be lowered only to 25 μ g/L using 0.5 mg/L of KMnO₄. In these cases, rather than using a fixed dose of KMnO₄, we had chosen to determine the optimum doses for the individual groundwater sources. For this, we add KMnO₄ solutions slowly with stirring until a light pink colour remains in the water. A dose of KMnO₄, slightly little less than that imparts colour to the water was chosen and used in the OCOP process for the groundwater sources S5 and S6 in order to achieve removal of arsenic to below the WHO guideline values. The results are included in Table 3.28). Iron is also removed from 5.73 mg/L to 0.2 mg/L in case of S5 and from 16.25 mg/L to 0.36 mg/L in case of source S6. Thus, removal of arsenic to below the WHO guideline value and iron upto 97% have been achieved with this method retaining the final pH within the acceptable limit for drinking.

3.4.4 Post field-trial status

The State public health engineering department of Assam has, on 28 May 2013, started supplying river water to most of the arsenic-affected areas of Titabor sub-division. Therefore, the users there have stopped arsenic removal by the OCOP method. Two of the household users, however discontinued the arsenic removal after a few months. We attributed their discontinuation too their lack of awareness about the ill effects of arsenic because a large number of villagers from that area came forward and used the method with our help for removal of arsenic from their drinking water. We of course did not include these households (about 20) in the user trial study. Overall, the responses of the villagers and schools during the field-trial in the Titabor sub-division were encouraging.

The other schools, *viz.*, S4, S5 and S6, are continuing the method for arsenic and iron removal. All of them have time to time expressed their happiness with the *Arsiron*

Nilogon method. Moreover, to our knowledge at least one more school and 5-6 households in other areas have been using *Arsiron Nilogon* for removal of arsenic and iron from water.

In addition to the above, we receive enquiries and advice about application of the method every now and then from different people. Based on these we can conclude that the present OCOP method, *Arsiron Nilogon* has acceptability among rural arsenic affected people. Provided that the people are aware of the groundwater arsenic toxicity and provided that adequate measures are taken to popularize the present OCOP method in rural arsenic as well as iron affected areas where alternate source of arsenic-free or iron-free water is not available.

3.4.5 Summary

From the field trial, we found that the present OCOP technique has shown a good performance in arsenic removal in the field with real arsenic and iron containing groundwater. The following conclusions have also been drawn from the present study:

- The Arsiron Nilogon units can remove arsenic and iron simultaneously from contaminated groundwater to below their respective WHO guideline values for drinking.
- The procedure is simple to be practised by a layman within about 3 min for a household application.
- This method is a promising way of providing arsenic free drinking water in the areas where there is no alternative to removal of arsenic from contaminated groundwater in the state of Assam as well as elsewhere.
- From the experience during the field study, it can be said that awareness amongst the people and their whole hearted participation is very much essential to achieve success at field level.
- The high efficiency, simplicity of operation and the option of non-requirement of electricity make the present OCOP method highly competitive with other existing arsenic removal methods, *viz.*, ion exchange, nanofiltration, reverse osmosis and electrodialysis.

Results and discussion Chapter 3

Chapter 4

Conclusions and future scope

4. Conclusions and Future scope

4.1 Conclusions

In the present work, we have chosen banana ash, lime, bicarbonate and carbonate salts of sodium and potassium as pH-conditioners and studied their efficiencies in arsenic and iron removal. After finding the best pH-conditioner to be used for arsenic removal, we have developed a method for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron by pre-oxidation and coagulation in presence of the pH-conditioner in the prospect of field application. The method is named oxidation coagulation at optimized pH (OCOP). The conclusions of the study carried out in four stages, *viz.*, pH-conditioning for removal of iron, pH-conditioning for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron, a laboratory study of the OCOP method and a field trial of the OCOP method, have been summarized here.

4.1.1 pH-conditioning for removal of iron

- The iron removal efficiencies of various pH-conditioners, *viz.*, the carbonate and bicarbonate salts of sodium and potassium, banana ash and their binary mixtures have been studied. Among them, potassium bicarbonate alone has been found to be the most effective pH-conditioner in the removal of iron from water followed by sodium bicarbonate.
- The pH of the treated water remains within the acceptable range for drinking when potassium bicarbonate or sodium bicarbonate is used.
- The removal rate has been found to improve with increase in the amount of the dose and residence time.
- The bicarbonates remove iron ion mostly as goethite, whereas, carbonates and ash precipitate iron mostly as ferrihydrite.
- Thus, the sodium or potassium bicarbonates may be the most potential pHconditioners for simultaneous removal of iron and arsenic.

4.1.2 pH-conditioning for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron

• For the simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron, the removal efficiency of different pH-conditioner has been found to be in the order: banana ash < carbonates < bicarbonates < lime.

- With the bicarbonate salts the final pH remains within the acceptable range for drinking, whereas, with lime the final pH is too high requiring a post treatment pH-adjustment.
- Among all the pH-conditioners KHCO₃ is the most effective, followed by NaHCO₃, for application along with other precipitating/coagulating agents for simultaneous removal of arsenate and iron ions.

4.1.3 Arsenic and Iron Removal by the OCOP method

- The present OCOP method using NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ as the pHconditioner, oxidant and coagulant, respectively, is highly efficient for removal of both arsenic and iron ions simultaneously from groundwater.
- Arsenic can be removed from an initial concentration range of 100-500 μ g/L to about 1-2 μ g/L with the OCOP method.
- The doses of NaHCO₃, KMnO₄ and FeCl₃ have been optimized at 0.1 g/L, 0.5 mg/L and at 25 mg/L, respectively, for removal of arsenic from an initial concentration range of 100-500 μ g/L in the absence of dissolved initial iron contamination in the water.
- The results of the analysis of the water quality parameters of treated water suggest that the treated water is suitable for drinking.
- In presence of dissolved Fe(II), KMnO₄ dose should be increased to get the efficient removal of arsenic.
- The inhibitory effects of competing ions on the arsenic removal by the present method can be taken care of by increasing the dose of coagulant.
- The method is low-cost, safe and environment friendly and is a potential method for rural application.

4.1.4 Field trial of the OCOP method

- The field trial of the OCOP method showed good performance.
- Arsenic removal to below the WHO guideline value from an initial concentration range of As of about 100-240 µg/L for drinking can be achieved with the present method in practical field along with lowering of the iron concentrations and retaining the pH within the acceptable range for drinking.

• The method is simple to be easily used by rural people.

Finally, from the systematic study that we have carried out with laboratory experiments and field trial, we have been able to present a simple, low-cost, safe, environment friendly and user friendly method, *viz.*, *Arsiron Nilogon*, based on oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH, for simultaneous removal of arsenic and iron ions from contaminated groundwater by the affected rural people.

4.2 Future scope

The findings of the present work and the proven applicability of the present OCOP method open up scopes for future research and development works in the following areas:

- Better management and utilization of the solid sludge may be explored.
- Sophisticated domestic arsenic and iron removal units based on the present method may be developed.
- Field trial of the technique at large community water supply system may be carried out.
- The present OCOP method can also be studied for removal of other heavy metals from groundwater.

	1
Conclusion	Chapter 4

•

-

,

References

- 1. Kartinen, E.O., & Martin, C.J. An overview of arsenic removal processes, Desalination 103, 79--88, 1995.
- ATSDR. Case studies in environmental medicine: arsenic toxicity. Agency for toxic substances and disease registry, Atlanta: US public health service (Department of health and human services), 1990.
- Clifford, D., & Zhang, Z. Arsenic chemistry and speciation, in American Water Works Association Annual Conference, New York, 1994.
- 4. DeSesso, J.M., et al. An assessment of the developmental toxicity of inorganic arsenic, *Reprod. Toxicol.* **12**, 385--433, 1998.
- O'Neill, P. Arsenic, in *Heavy metals in soil*, B. J. Alloway, eds., Blackie Academic & Professional, Glasgow, 1995.
- Nickson, R., et al. Arsenic poisoning of groundwater in Bangladesh, Nature 395, 338, 1998.
- 7. Nickson, R.T., et al. Mechanism of arsenic release to groundwater, Bangladesh and West Bengal, *Appl. Geochem.* 15, 403--413, 2000.
- Ravenscroft, P., McArthur, J.M., & Hoque, B.A. Geochemical and palaeohydrological controls on pollution of groundwater by arsenic, in *Arsenic Exposure and Health Effects*, W.R., Chappel et al. eds., Elsevier Science Ltd., Oxford, 2001, 53--78.
- Smedley, P.L., et al. Mobilisation of arsenic and other trace elements in fluviolacustrine aquifers of the Huhhot Basin, Inner Mongolia, Appl. Geochem. 18, 1453--1477, 2003.
- Ahmed, K.M., et al. Arsenic enrichment in groundwater of the alluvial aquifers in Bangladesh: an overview, Appl. Geochem. 19, 181--200, 2004.
- 11. McArthur, J.M., et al. Arsenic in groundwater: testing pollution mechanisms for sedimentary aquifers in Bangladesh, *Water Resour. Res.* 37, 109--117, 2001.
- 12. McArthur, J.M., et al. Natural organic matter in sedimentary basins and its relation to arsenic in anoxic ground water: the example of West Bengal and its worldwide implications, *Appl. Geochem.* **19**, 1255--1293, 2004.
- 13. Zheng, Y., et al. Redox control of arsenic mobilization in Bangladesh groundwater, *Appl. Geochem.* **19**, 201--214, 2004.

.

14.	Choong, T.S.Y., et al. Arsenic toxicity, health hazards and removal techniques
	from water: an overview, Desalination 217, 139166, 2007.
15.	Gao, S., & Burau, R.G. Environmental factors affecting rates of arsine evolution
	from and mineralization of arsenicals in soil, J. Environ. Qual. 26, 753763, 1997.
16.	Penrose, W.R. Arsenic in the marine and aquatic environments. Analysis,
	occurrence and significance, CRC Crit. Rev. Environ. Contr. 4, 465482, 1974.
17.	Stugeron, R.E., et al. Quantification of arsenic species in a river water reference
	material for trace metals by graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry
•	technique, Analyst 114, 13931396, 1989.
18.	Berman, E. Toxic metals and their analysis, Heyden and Sons, London, 1980.
19.	Jain, C.K., & Ali, I. Arsenic: occurrence, toxicity and speciation techniques, Water
	<i>Res.</i> 34, 43044312, 2000.
20.	Duker, A.A., Carranza, E.J.M., & Hale, M. Arsenic geochemistry and health,
	Environ. Int. 31, 631641, 2005.
21.	Cullen, W.R., & Reimer, K.J. Arsenic speciation in the environment, Chem. Rev.
	89 , 713764, 1989.
22.	Bose, P., & Sharma, A. Role of iron in controlling speciation and mobilization of
	arsenic in subsurface environment, Water Res. 36, 49164926, 2002.
23.	Kim, M.J., Nriagu, J.O., & Haack, S. Arsenic species and chemistry in groundwater
	of southeast Michigan, Environ. Pollut. 120, 379390, 2002.
24.	Ryu, J.H., et al. Arsenic distribution speciation and solubility in shallow
	groundwater of Owen Dry lake California, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 66, 2904
	2981, 2002.
25.	Smedley, P.L., & Kinniburgh, D.G. A review of the source, behaviour and
	distribution of arsenic in natural waters, Appl. Geochem. 17, 517568, 2002.
26.	Katsoyiannis, I.A., & Katsoyiannis, A.A. Arsenic and other metal contamination of
	groundwaters in the industrial area of Thessaloniki, Northern Greece, Environ.
	Monit. Assess. 123, 393406, 2006.
27.	Mohan, D., & Pittman Jr., C.U. Arsenic removal from water/wastewater using
	adsorbents- A critical review, J. Hazard. Mater. 142, 153, 2007.
28.	Jain, C.K., & Singh, R.D. Technological options for the removal of arsenic with
	special reference to South East Asia, J. Environ. Manage. 107, 118, 2012.

.

29.	Basu, A. A review on sources, toxicity and remediation technologies for removing
	arsenic from drinking water, Res. Chem. Intermed. in press.
30.	Booth, B. Cancer rates attributable to arsenic in rice vary globally, Environ. Sci.
	Technol. 43, 12431244, 2009.
31.	Tseng, C.H., et al. Long-term arsenic exposure and ischemic heart disease in
	arseniasis-hyperendemic villages in Taiwan, Toxicol. Lett. 137, 1521, 2003.
32.	Welch, A.H., et al. Arsenic in ground water of the United States-occurrence and
	geochemistry, Ground Water 38, 589604, 2000.
33.	Bureau of Indian Standards, Indian standard: drinking water specification (first
	revision), Amendment No 2, New Delhi, 2003.
34.	WHO, Guidelines for drinking-water quality, recommendations, 4 th ed., World
	Health Organization: Geneva, 2011.
35.	Kapaj, S., et al. Human health effects from chronic arsenic poisoning- a review, J.
	Environ. Sci. Health, Part A, 41, 23992428, 2006.
36.	WHO Guidelines for drinking-water quality, Vol. 1 recommendations, 2 nd edition,
	Geneva, 1993.
37.	WHO Guidelines for drinking-water quality, Vol. 1 Recommendations, 2 nd edition,
	Geneva, 1998.
38.	WHO, Environmental Health Criteria 224, Arsenic and arsenic compounds. WHO,
	Geneva, 2001.
39.	NRC. Arsenic in Drinking Water, National Academy Press, Washington, DC, 1999
	310.
40.	USEPA. National Primary Drinking Water Regulations, Arsenic and clarifications
	to compliance and new source contaminants monitoring. Final Rule, Federal
	Register, Part VIII. Environmental Protection Agency: Washington, DC, vol. 66,
	2001, 69767066.
41.	USEPA. US EPA Drinking Water Regulations and Health Advisories, EPA 822-B-
	96-002, Washington, DC, 1996.
42.	Health Canada. Arsenic in drinking water. It's your health,
	http://www.hcsc.gc.ca/english/iyh/environment/arsenic.html
43.	Arsenic in drinking water, Government of Western Australia, Department of health,
	http://www.public.health.wa.gov.au/cproot/2408/2/Arsenic.pdf

- Berg, M., et al. Arsenic removal from groundwater by household sand filters: Comparative field study, model calculations, and health benefits, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 40, 5567--5573, 2006.
- 45. Abernathy, C.O. Arsenic: health effects, mechanisms of actions, and research issues, *Environ. Health Perspect.* 107, 593--597, 1999.
- 46. Jomova, K., et al. Arsenic: toxicity, oxidative stress and human disease, J. Appl. Toxicol. 31, 95--107, 2011.
- 47. Leonard, A. Arsenic, in *Metals and their compounds in the environments:* Occurrence, analysis, and biological Relevance, E. Merian eds., Weinheim, VCH, 1991, 751--773.
- 48. Smith, A.H., et al. Marked increase in bladder and lung cancer mortality in a region of northern Chile due to arsenic in drinking water, Am. J. Epidemiol. 147, 660--669, 1998.
- 49. USEPA, Integrated risk information system on arsenic, Office Health Environ Assèss, Cincinnati, OH, 1993.
- 50. Adriano, D.C. Trace elements in terrestrial environments: Biogeochemistry, bioavailability and risks of metals, 2nd edn., Springer, New York, 2001.
- 51. Eisler, R. Arsenic hazards to humans, plants, and animals from gold mining, *Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.* 180, 133--165, 2004.
- 52. Mahimairaja, S., et al. Arsenic contamination and its risk management in complex environmental settings, *Adv. Agronomy* **8**, 61--82, 2005.
- 53. Chakraborti, D., et al. Arsenic calamity in the Indian subcontinent: What lessons have been learned? *Talanta* 58, 3--22, 2002.
- 54. Chatterjee, A., et al. Arsenic in ground-water in six districts of West-Bengal, India
 the biggest arsenic calamity in the world. I. Arsenic species in drinking-water and urine of the affected people, *Analyst* 120, 643--650, 1995.
- 55. Roberts, L.C., et al. Arsenic dynamics in porewater of an intermittently irrigated paddy field in Bangladesh, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **45**, 971--976, 2011.
- 56. Karim, M.M. Arsenic in groundwater and health problem in Bangladesh, *Water Res.* 34, 304--310, 2000.
- 57. Milton, A.H., et al. Non-cancer effects of chronic arsenicosis in Bangladesh: preliminary results, J. Environ. Sci. Health, Part A 38, 301--305, 2003.

58.	Welch, A.H., Lico, M.S., & Hughes, J.L. Arsenic in ground water of the Western
	United States, Ground Water 26, 333347, 1988.
59.	Foust Jr., R.D., et al. Groundwater arsenic in the Verde Valley in central Arizona,
	USA, Appl. Geochem. 19, 251255, 2004.
60.	Steinmaus, C., et al. Case-control study of bladder cancer and drinking water
	arsenic in the western United States, Am. J. Epidemiol. 158, 11931201, 2003.
61.	Xia, Y., & Liu, J. An overview on chronic arsenism via drinking water in PR
	China, <i>Toxicology</i> 198 , 2529, 2004.
62.	Lian, F.W., & Jian, Z.H. Chronic arsenicism from drinking water in some areas of
	Xinjiang, China, in Arsenic in the Environment, Part II: Human Health and
	Ecosystem Effects, J. Nriagu eds., John Wiley Inc.: New York, 1994, 159172.
63.	Guo, X., et al. Arsenic contamination of groundwater and prevalence of arsenical
	dermatosis in the Hetao plain area, Inner Mongolia, China, Mol. Cell. Biochem.
	222 , 137140, 2001.
64.	Mukherjee, A., et al. Chemical evolution in the high arsenic groundwater of the
	Huhhot basin (Inner Mongolia, PR China) and its difference from the western
	Bengal basin (India), Appl. Geochem. 24, 1835-1851, 2009.
65.	Deng, Y., et al. Speciation and enrichment of arsenic in strongly reducing shallow
	aquifers at western Hetao Plain, Northern China, Environ. Geol. 56, 14671477,
	2009.
66.	Xie, X., et al. Geochemistry of redox-sensitive elements and sulfur isotopes in the
	high arsenic groundwater system of Datong Basin, China, Sci. Total Environ. 407,
	38233825, 2009.
67.	Kondo, H., et al. Naturally occurring arsenic in the groundwaters in the southern
	region of Fukuoka Prefecture, Japan, Water Res. 33, 19671972, 1999.
68.	Shimada, N. Geochemical conditions enhancing the solubilization of arsenic into
	groundwater in Japan, Appl. Organomet. Chem. 10, 667674, 1996.
69.	Berg, M., et al. Arsenic contamination of groundwater and drinking water in
	Vietnam: A human health threat, Environ. Sci. Technol. 35, 26212626, 2001.
70.	Agusa, T., et al. Genetic polymorphisms in glutathione S-transferase (GST) super
	family and arsenic metabolism in residents of the Red River Delta, Vietnam,

-

•

Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 242, 352--362, 2010.

•

- 71. Kim, M., et al. Arsenic removal from Vietnamese groundwater using the arsenicbinding DNA aptamer, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **43**, 9335--9340, 2009.
- 72. Saha, B., & Orvig, C. Biosorbents for hexavalent chromium elimination from industrial and municipal effluents, *Coord. Chem. Rev.* 254, 2959--2972, 2010.
- 73. Chen, S.L., et al. Arsenic species in groundwaters of the Blackfoot disease area, Taiwan, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 28, 877--881, 1994.
- 74. Tseng, C.H., et al. Arsenic exposure, urinary arsenic speciation, and peripheral vascular disease in Blackfoot disease-hyperendemic villages in Taiwan, *Toxicol.* Appl. Pharmacol. 206, 299--308, 2005.
- Wang, S.W., Liu, C.W., & Jang, C.S. Factors responsible for high arsenic concentrations in two groundwater catchments in Taiwan, *Appl. Geochem.* 22, 460--476, 2007.
- Liu, C.W., Jang, C.S., & Liao, C.M. Evaluation of arsenic contamination potential using indicator kriging in the Yun-Lin aquifer (Taiwan), Sci. Total Environ. 321, 173--188, 2004.
- T. Lin, Y.B., et al. Mapping of spatial multi-scale sources of arsenic variation in groundwater on ChiaNan floodplain of Taiwan, *Sci. Total Environ.* 370, 168--181, 2006.
- 78. Liu, C.C., et al. Geochemical characteristics of the fluids and muds from two southern Taiwan mud volcanoes: Implications for water-sediment interaction and groundwater arsenic enrichment, *Appl. Geochem.* 24, 1793--1802, 2009.
- 79. Marshall, G., et al. Fifty-year study of lung and bladder cancer mortality in Chile related to arsenic in drinking water, J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 99, 920--928, 2007.
- Caceres, D.D., et al. Exposure to inorganic arsenic in drinking water and total urinary arsenic concentration in a Chilean population, *Environ. Res.* 98, 151--159, 2005.
- 81. Koch, I., et al. Arsenic in the Meager creek hot springs environment, British Columbia, Canada, Sci. Total Environ. 236, 107--117, 1999.
- Boyle, D.R., Turner, R.J.W., & Hall, G.E.M. Anomalous arsenic concentrations in groundwaters of an island community, Bowen Island, British Columbia, *Environ. Geochem. Health* 20, 199--212, 1998.
- 83. Smedley, P.L., et al. Hydrogeochemistry of arsenic and other inorganic constituents in groundwaters from La Pampa, Argentina, *Appl. Geochem.* 17, 259--284, 2002.

- 84. Bates, M.N. Case-control study of bladder cancer and exposure to arsenic in Argentina, Am. J. Epidemiol. 159, 381--389, 2004.
- Bhattacharya, P., et al. Distribution and mobility of arsenic in the Río Dulce alluvial aquifers in Santiago del Estero Province, Argentina, Sci. Total Environ. 358, 97--120, 2006.
- 86. Wattanasen, K., et al. An integrated geophysical study of arsenic contaminated area in the peninsular Thailand, *Environ. Geol.* **51**, 595--608, 2006.
- 87. Oshikawa, S., et al. Long-term changes in severity of arsenical skin lesions following intervention to reduce arsenic exposure, *Environ. Sci.* 8, 435--448, 2001.
- 88. Bowell, R.J., Morley, N.H., & Din, V.K. Arsenic speciation in soil pore waters from the Ashanti mine, Ghana, *Appl. Geochem.* 9, 15--22, 1994.
- 89. Kortatsi, B.K., et al. Hydrogeochemical evaluation of groundwater in the lower Offin basin, Ghana, *Environ. Geol.* 53, 1651--1662, 2008.
- 90. Varsanyi, I., Fodre, Z., & Bartha, A. Arsenic in drinking water and mortality in the Southern Great Plain, Hungary, *Environ. Geochem. Health* **13**, 14--22, 1991.
- 91. Schaeffer, R., et al. Arsenic speciation in freshwater organisms from the river Danube in Hungary, *Talanta* 69, 856--865, 2006.
- 92. Kurttio, P., et al. Arsenic concentrations in well water and risk of bladder and kidney cancer in Finland, *Environ. Health Perspect.* **107**, 705--710, 1999.
- 93. Del Razo, L.M., et al. The oxidation states of arsenic in well water from a chronic arsenicism area of Northern Mexico, *Environ. Pollut.* 64, 143--53, 1990.
- 94. Armienta, M.A., & Segovia, N. Arsenic and fluoride in the groundwater of Mexico, *Environ. Geochem. Health* **30**, 345--353, 2008.
- 95. Nordstrom, D.K. Worldwide occurrences of arsenic in ground water, *Science* 296, 2143--2145, 2002.
- 96. Llobet, J.M., et al. Concentrations of arsenic, cadmium, mercury, and lead in common foods and estimated daily intake by children, adolescents, adults, and eniors of Catalonia, Spain, J. Agric. Food Chem. 51, 838--842, 2003.
- Ashley, P.M., & Lottermoser, B.G. Arsenic contamination at the Mole River mine, Northern New South Wales, *Aust. J. Earth Sci.* 46, 861--874, 1999.
- Appleyard, S.J., Angeloni, J., & Watkins, R. Arsenic-rich groundwater in an urban area experiencing drought and increasing population density, Perth, Australia, Appl. Geochem. 21, 83--97, 2006.

List of references

- 99. Buschmann, J., et al. Arsenic and manganese contamination of drinking water resources in Cambodia: coincidence of risk areas with low relief topography, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 41, 2146--2157, 2007.
- Polya, D.A., et al. Arsenic hazard in shallow Cambodian groundwaters, *Mineral.* Mag. 69, 807--823, 2005.
- Kubota, R., et al. Urinary 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine in inhabitants chronically exposed to arsenic in groundwater in Cambodia, J. Environ. Monit. 8, 293--299, 2006.
- 102. Katsoyiannis, I.A., Zikoudi, A., & Hug, S.J. Arsenic removal from groundwaters containing iron, ammonium, manganese and phosphate: a case study from a treatment unit in northern Greece, *Desalination* 224, 330--339, 2008.
- 103. Casentini, B., Hug, S.J., & Nikolaidis, N.P. Arsenic accumulation in irrigated agricultural soils in Northern Greece, *Sci. Total Environ.* **409**, 4802--4810, 2011.
- 104. Driehaus, W. Arsenic removal experience with GEH process in Germany, *Water Sci. Technol. Water Supply* **2**, 275--280, 2002.
- 105. Carraro, A., et al. Arsenic anomalies in shallow Venetian Plain (Northeast Italy) groundwater, *Environ. Earth Sci.* in press.
- 106. Shrestha, R.R., et al. Groundwater arsenic contamination, its health impact and mitigation program in Nepal, J. Environ. Sci. Health, Part A 38, 185--200, 2003.
- Pokhrel, D., Bhandari, B.S., & Viraraghavan, T. Arsenic contamination of groundwater in the Terai region of Nepal: An overview of health concerns and treatment options, *Environ. Int.* 35, 157--161, 2009.
- 108. Thakur, J.K., et al. Arsenic contamination of groundwater in Nepal- an overview, Water 3, 1--20, 2011.
- Nickson, R.T., et al. Arsenic and other drinking water quality issues, Muzaffargarh District, Pakistan, Appl. Geochem. 20, 55--68, 2005.
- Baig, J.A., et al. Evaluation of arsenic and other physico-chemical parameters of surface and ground water of Jamshoro, Pakistan, J. Hazard. Mater. 166, 662--669, 2009.
- 111. Fatmi, Z., et al. Health burden of skin lesions at low arsenic exposure through groundwater in Pakistan. Is river the source? *Environ. Res.* **109**, 575--581, 2009.

112.	Arain, M.B., et al. Respiratory effects in people exposed to arsenic via the drinking
	water and tobacco smoking in southern part of Pakistan, Sci. Total Environ. 407,
	55245530, 2009.

- 113. Niedzielski, P., & Siepak, M. The occurrence and speciation of arsenic, antimony, and selenium in ground water of Poznan city (Poland), *Chem. Ecol.* 21, 241--253, 2005.
- 114. Rowland, H.A.L., et al. Geochemistry and arsenic behaviour in groundwater resources of the Pannonian Basin (Hungary and Romania), Appl. Geochem. 26, 1--17, 2011.
- 115. Chowdhury, U.K., et al. Groundwater arsenic contamination in Bangladesh and West Bengal, India, *Environ. Health Perspect.* 108, 393--397, 2000.
- Das, D., et al. Arsenic in groundwater in six districts of West Bengal, India, Environ. Geochem. Health 18, 5--15, 1996.
- 117. Das, D., et al. Arsenic in groundwater in six districts of West Bengal, India: the biggest arsenic calamity in the world. Part II: Arsenic concentration in drinking water, hair, nail, urine, skin scale and liver tissues (biopsy) of the affected people, Analyst 120, 917--924, 1995.
- 118. Mandal, B.K., et al. Impact of safe water for drinking and cooking on five arsenic-affected families for 2 years in West Bengal, India, Sci. Total Environ.
 218, 185--201, 1998.
- Acharyya, S.K. Arsenic contamination in groundwater affecting major parts of southern West Bengal and parts of western Chhattisgarh: Source and mobilization process, Curr. Sci. 82, 740--744, 2002.
- Shukla, D.P., et al. Sources and controls of Arsenic contamination in groundwater of Rajnandgaon and Kanker District, Chattisgarh Central India, J. Hydrol. 395, 49--66, 2010
- 121. Das, S., Jean, J.S., & Kar, S. Bioaccessibility and health risk assessment of arsenic in arsenic-enriched soils, Central India, *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.* 92, 252-257, 2013.
- 122. Chakraborti, D., et al. Arsenic groundwater contamination in Middle Ganga Plain,
 Bihar, India: A future danger? *Environ. Health Perspect.* 111, 1194--1201, 2003.

- 123. Shah, B.A. Role of quaternary stratigraphy on arsenic-contaminated groundwater from parts of Middle Ganga Plain, UP-Biliar, India, *Environ. Geol.* 53, 1553--1561, 2008.
- 124. Ahamed, S., et al. Arsenic groundwater contamination and its health effects in the state of Uttar Pradesh (UP) in upper and middle Ganga plain, India: A severe danger, *Sci. Total Environ.* **370**, 310--322, 2006.
- 125. Chakraborti, D., et al. Groundwater arsenic contamination and its health effects in the Ganga-Meghna-Brahmaputra plain, J. Environ. Monit. 6, 74--83, 2004.
- Bhattacharjee, S., et al. Metal contents in the groundwater of Sahebgunj district, Jharkhand, India, with special reference to arsenic, *Chemosphere* 58, 1203--1217, 2005.
- 127. Singh, A.K. Arsenic contamination of groundwater of North Eastern India, in Proceedings of National seminar on Hydrology with local theme on Water Quality, National Institute of Hydrology, Roorkee, Nov. 22--23, 2004.
- 128. Patra, S.C., Dutta, R.K., & Dewan, S.M. Arsenic contamination in groundwater of North Eastern region: approach for mitigation for use as drinking water, in Souvenir of seminar on mitigation of arsenic menace in groundwater in the state of Assam held at IPHE, Guwahati, 2006.
- Nickson, R., et al. Current knowledge on the distribution of arsenic in groundwater in five states of India, J. Environ. Sci. Health, Part A, 42, 1707--1718, 2007.
- Chakraborti, D., et al. Groundwater arsenic contamination in Manipur, one of the seven North-Eastern Hill states of India: a future danger, *Environ. Geol.* 56, 381--390, 2008.
- Symptoms of arsenicosis detected in some Tatigaon residents, Assam Tribune, Wednesday, August 4, 2010, p8.
- 132. Saha, J.C., et al. A review of arsenic poisoning and its effects on human health, Crit. Rev. Env. Sci. Technol. 29, 281--313, 1999.
- Ratnaike, R.N., et al. Acute and chronic arsenic toxicity, *Postgrad. Med. J.* 79, 391--396, 2003.
- IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer). Some drinking- water disinfectants and contaminants, including arsenic, *IARC Monogr. Eval. Carcinog. Risk Hum.* 84, 1--19, 2004.

135.	Singh, N., Kumar, D., & Sahu, A.P. Arsenic in the environment: effects on human
	health and possible prevention, J. Environ. Biol. 28, 359365, 2007.
136.	Smith, A.H., et al. Increased mortality from lung cancer and bronchiectasis in
	young adults after exposure to arsenic in utero and in early childhood, <i>Environ</i> .
	Health Perspect. 114, 12931296, 2006.
137.	Borgono, J.M., et al. Arsenic in the drinking water of the city of Antofagasta:
	epidemiological and clinical study before and after the installation of a treatment
	plant, Environ. Health Perspect. 19, 103105, 1977.
138.	Liu, C.W., Lin, K.H., & Kuo, Y.M. Application of factor analysis in the
	assessment of groundwater quality in a blackfoot disease area in Taiwan, Sci.
	Total Environ. 313, 7789, 2003.
139.	Smith, A.H., Lingas, E.O., & Rahman, M. Contamination of drinking water by
	arsenic in Bangladesh: A public health emergency, Bull. WHO 78, 10931103,
	2000.
140.	Dixon, H.B.F. The biochemical action of arsonic acids especially as phosphate
	analogues, Adv. Inorg. Chem. 44, 191227, 1997.
141.	Lagunas, R. Sugar-arsenate esters: thermodynamics and biochemical behavior,
	Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 205, 6775, 1980.
142.	Gresser, M.J. ADP-arsenate, J. Biol. Chem. 256, 59815983, 1981.
143.	Kenney, L.J., & Kaplan, J.H. Arsenate substitutes for phosphate in the human red
	cell sodium pump and anion exchanger, J. Biol. Chem. 263, 79547960, 1988.
144.	Winski, S.L., & Carter, D.E. Arsenate toxicity in human erythrocytes:
	characterization of morphologic changes and determination of the mechanism of
	damage, J. Toxicol. Environ. Health, Part A, 53, 345355, 1998.
145.	Hughes, M.F. Arsenic exposure and toxicology: A historical perspective, Toxicol.

- Sci. 123, 305--332, 2011.
 146. Crane, R.K., & Lipmann, R. The effect of arsenate on aerobic phosphorylation, J.
- Biol. Chem. 201, 235--243, 1953.
- Scott, N., et al. Reactions of arsenic (III) and arsenic (V) species with glutathione, Chem. Res. Toxicol. 6, 102--106, 1993.

ĩ

148. Delnomdedieu, M., et al. Reduction and binding of arsenate and dimethylarsinate by glutathione: a magnetic resonance study, *Chem. Biol. Interact.* 90, 139--155, 1994.

List of references

- Aposhian, H.V. Biochemical toxicology of arsenic, in *Reviews in Biochemical Toxicology*, E. Hodgson et al. eds., Elsevier, New York, 1989, 265--299.
- Hu, Y., Su, L., & Snow, E.T. Arsenic toxicity is enzyme specific and its affects on ligation are not caused by the direct inhibition of DNA repair enzymes, *Mutat. Res.* 408, 203-218, 1998.
- 151. Ciardelli, M.C., Xu, H.F., & Sahai, N. Role of Fe(II), phosphate, silicate, sulfate, and carbonate in arsenic uptake by coprecipitation in synthetic and natural groundwater, *Water Res.* 42, 615--624, 2008.
- 152. Litter, M.I., et al. Small-scale and household methods to remove arsenic from water for drinking purposes in Latin America, *Sci. Total Environ.* **429**, 107--122, 2012.
- 153. Daus, B., Wennrich, R., & Weiss, H. Sorption materials for arsenic removal from water: a comparative study, *Water Res.* 38, 2948--2954, 2004.
- 154. Dutta, T., et al. Removal of arsenic using membrane technology- A review, Int. J. Eng. Res. Technol. 1, 1-23, 2012.
- 155. Zouboulis, A.I., & Katsoyiannis, I.A. Removal of arsenates from contaminated water by coagulation-direct filtration, *Sep. Sci. Technol.* **37**, 2859-2873, 2002.
- 156. Cundy, A.B., Hopkinson, L., & Whitby, R.L.D. Use of iron-based technologies in contaminated land and groundwater remediation: a review, *Sci. Total Environ.* 400, 42--51, 2008.
- 157. Hering, J.G., & Elimelesh, M. International Perspective on Arsenic in Groundwater: Problems and Treatment Strategies, in Proceedings of American Water Works Association, Annual Conference, 1995, 18--22.
- 158. Rahman, M.A., et al. Arsenic accumulation in rice (Oryza sativa L.): human exposure through food chain, *Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf.* **69**, 317--324, 2008.
- 159. McCarty, K.M., et al. The impact of diet and betel nut use on skin lesions associated with drinking-water arsenic in Pabna, Bangladesh, Environ. Health Perspect. 114, 334--340, 2006.
- Zablotska, L.B., et al. Protective effects of B vitamins and antioxidants on the risk of arsenic-related skin lesions in Bangladesh, *Environ. Health Perspect.* 116, 1056-1062, 2008.
- 161. Vahter, M.E. Interactions between arsenic-induced toxicity and nutrition in early life, J. Nutr. 137, 2798--2804, 2007.

162.	Lindberg, A.L., et al. Gender and age difference in the metabolism of inorganic
	arsenic in a highly exposed population in Bangladesh, Environ. Res. 106, 110120,
	2008.

- Singh, N., et al. Adverse health effects due to arsenic exposure: Modification by dietary supplementation of jaggery in mice, *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 242, 247--255, 2010.
- 164. Mitra, S.R., et al. Nutritional factors and susceptibility to arsenic-caused skin lesions in West Bengal, India, *Environ. Health Perspect.* **112**, 1104--1109, 2004.
- 165. Gamble, M.V., et al. Folate, homocysteine, and arsenic metabolism in arsenicexposed individuals in Bangladesh, Environ. Health Perspect. 113, 1686--1688, 2005.
- 166. USEPA, Office of Water: Technologies and costs for removal of arsenic from drinking water, EPA 815-R-00-028, 2000.
- 167. Hering, J.G., et al. Arsenic removal by ferric chloride, J. Am. Water Works Assn.
 88, 155--167, 1996.
- 168. Gulledge, J.H., & O'Connor, J.T. Removal of arsenic (V) from water by adsorption on aluminum and ferric hydroxides, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 8, 548--552; 1973.
- 169. Su, C., & Puls, W.R. Arsenate and arsenite removal by zerovalent iron: Kinetics, redox transformation, and implications for in situ groundwater remediation, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 35, 1487--1492, 2001.
- 170. Jiang, J.Q. Removing arsenic from groundwater for the developing world A review, Water Sci. Technol. 44, 89--98, 2013.
- 171. Tokunaga, S., Wasay, S.A., & Park, S.W. Removal of arsenic (V) ion from aqueous solutions by Lanthanum compounds, *Water Sci. Technol.* 35, 71--78, 1997.
- 172. Manning, B.A., et al. Arsenic (III) oxidation and arsenic (V) adsorption reactions on synthetic birnessite, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 36, 976--981, 2002.
- 173. Guan, X.H., Wang, J., & Chusuei, C.C. Removal of arsenic from water using granular ferric hydroxide: Macroscopic and microscopic studies, J. Hazard. Mater. 156, 178--185, 2008.
- Badruzzaman, M., Westerhoff, P., & Knappe, D.R.U. Intraparticle diffusion and adsorption of arsenate onto granular ferric hydroxide (GFH), *Water Res.* 38, 4002--4012, 2004.

- 175. Elizalde-Gonzalez, M.P., et al. Sorption on natural solids for arsenic removal, Chem. Eng. J. 81, 187--195, 2001.
- 176. De, S., & Maiti, A. Arsenic removal from contaminated groundwater using laterite based adsorption technique, TERI Press, New Delhi, 2011.
- 177. Maiti, A., Basu, J.K., &, De, S. Removal of arsenic from synthetic and natural groundwater using acid-activated laterite, *Environ. Prog. Sustainable Energy* 29, 457--470, 2010.
- 178. Maiti, A., et al. Comparison of treated laterite as arsenic adsorbent from different locations and performance of best filter under field conditions, *J. Hazard. Mater.*, in press.
- Maiti, A., et al. Adsorption of arsenite using natural laterite as adsorbent, Sep. Purif. Technol. 55, 350--359, 2007.
- Maiti, A., Basu, J.K., & De, S. Development of a treated laterite for arsenic adsorption: Effects of treatment parameters, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 49, 4873--4886, 2010.
- Maiti, A., et al. Modeling of arsenic adsorption kinetics of synthetic and contaminated groundwater on natural laterite, J. Hazard. Mater. 172, 928--934, 2009.
- 182. Andrianisa, H.A., et al. Biotransformation of arsenic species by activated sludge and removal of bio-oxidized arsenate from waste water by coagulation with ferric chloride, *Water Res.* 42, 4809--4817, 2008.
- Baskan, M.B., & Pala, A. A statistical experiment design approach for arsenic removal by coagulation process using aluminum sulfate, *Desalination* 254, 42--48, 2010.
- 184. Simate, G.S., et al. Human health effects of residual carbon nanotubes and traditional water treatment chemicals in drinking water, *Environ. Int.* 39, 38--49, 2012.
- 185. Ahmed, M.F. An overview of arsenic removal technologies in Bangladesh and India, in *Technologies for Arsenic Removal from Drinking Water*, M.F. Ahmed et al., eds. Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka, 2001.
- Neumann, A., et al. Arsenic removal with composite iron matrix filters in Bangladesh: a field and laboratory study, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 47, 4544--4554, 2013.

- McNeill, L.S., & Edwards, M. Arsenic removal during precipitative softening. J. Environ. Eng. 125, 453--460, 1997.
- 188. Cheng, R.C., et al. Enhanced coagulation for arsenic removal, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 9, 79--90, 1994.
- 189. Lacasa, E., et al. Removal of arsenic by iron and aluminium electrochemically assisted coagulation, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* **79**, 15--19, 2011.
- ¹ 190. Fields, K.A., Chen, A., & Wang, L. Arsenic removal from drinking water by coagulation/filtration and lime softening plants, Diane publishing co., 2000.
 - 191. Chen, A.S.C. Field evaluation of As removal by conventional plants, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 94, 64--77, 2002.
 - 192. Sorg, T.J., & Logsdon, G.S. Treatment technology to meet the interim primary drinking water regulations for inorganics: Part 2, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 7, 379--392, 1978.
 - Muilenberg, T. Microfiltration Basics: Theory and Practice, in Proceedings of Membrane Technology Conference, New Orleans, LA, February 23-26, 1997.
 - 194. Ghurye, G.L., Clifford, D.A., & Tripp, A.R. Pilot study of an iron coagulationdirect microfiltration process for arsenic removal from groundwater, *J. Am. Water Works Assn.* **96**, 143--152, 2004.
 - 195. Goosen, M.F.A., et al. Fouling of reverse osmosis and ultrafiltration membranes: A critical review, *Sep. Sci. Technol.* **39**, 2261--2297. 2005.
 - 196. AWWA. Water Quality and Treatment- A Handbook of Community Water Systems, McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, New York, 1990.
 - 197. Khan, M.H., et al. Arsenic removal from drinking water with conventional and modified adsorbents: the factorial design of experiments, *Desalin. Water Treat.*, in press.
 - 198. Tripathy, S.S., & Raichur, A.M. Enhanced adsorption capacity of activated alumina by impregnation with alum for removal of As(V) from water, *Chem. Eng. J.* 138, 179-186, 2008.
 - 199. Hathaway, S.W., & Rubel Jr., F. Removing arsenic from drinking water, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 79, 61--65, 1987.
 - 200. Lin, T.F., & Wu, J.K. Adsorption of arsenite and arsenate within activated alumina grains: Equilibrium and kinetics, *Water Res.* **35**, 2049--2057, 2001.

- 201. Singh, T.S., & Pant, K.K. Equilibrium, kinetics and thermodynamic studies for adsorption of As(III) on activated alumina, *Sep. Purif. Technol.* **36**, 139--147, 2004.
- a. Stewart, H.T., & Kessler, K.J. Evaluation of arsenic removal by activated alumina filtration at a small community public water supply, J. New Eng. Water Works Assn. 105, 179--199, 1991.
 b. Wang, L., Sorg, T., & Chen, A. Arsenic Removal by Full Scale Ion Exchange and Activated Alumina Treatment Systems, AWWA Inorganic Contaminants Workshop,

Albuquerque, NM, February 27--29, 2000.

- 203. EPA, Review of the Draft Drinking Water Criteria Document on Inorganic Arsenic, EPA SABDWC-94-004, 1994.
- 204. Driehaus, W., Jekel, M., & Hildebrandt, U. Granular ferric hydroxide- A new adsorbent for the removal of arsenic from natural water, *Aqua* 47, 30--35, 1998.
- 205. Pal, B.N. Granular ferric hydroxide for elimination of arsenic from drinking water, in Technologies for Arsenic Removal from Drinking Water, M.F. Ahmed et al., eds., Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka, 2001.
- 206. Qu, X., Alvarez, P.J.J., & Li, Q. Applications of nanotechnology in water and wastewater treatment, *Water Res.* 47, 3931--3946, 2013.
- 207. a. Cumbal, L., & Sengupta, A.K. Arsenic removal using polymer-supported hydrated iron(III) oxide nanoparticles: Role of Donnan membrane effect, *Environ. Sci.Technol.*, 39, 6508--6515, 2005.
 b. Reddy, K.J., McDonald, K.J., & King, H. A novel arsenic removal process for water

using cupric oxide nanoparticles, J. Colloid Inter. Sci. 397, 96--102, 2013.

- 208. Aptel, P., & Buckley, C.A. Categories of Membrane Operations, in *Water Treatment Membrane Processes*, McGraw Hill, American Water Works Research Foundation, 1996.
- 209. Macedonio, F., & Drioli, E. Pressure-driven membrane operations and membrane distillation technology integration for water purification, *Desalination* 223, 396-- 409, 2008.
- 210. Shih, M.C. An overview of arsenic removal by pressure driven membrane processes, *Desalination* 172, 85--97, 2005.
- 211. Yoon, J., et al. Removal of toxic ions (chromate, arsenate, and perchlorate) using reverse osmosis, nanofiltration, and ultrafiltration membranes, *Chemosphere* 77, 228--235, 2009.
- 212. Prakash, P., & Sengupta, A.K. Selective coagulant recovery from water treatment plant residuals using donnan membrane process, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 37, 4468--4474, 2003.

÷

- 213. Sarkar, S., Sengupta, A.K., & Prakash, P. The donnan membrane principle: Opportunities for sustainable engineered processes and materials, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 44, 1161--1166, 2010.
- 214. Brandhuber, P., & Amy, G. Arsenic removal by a charged ultrafiltration membrane- influences of membrane operating conditions and water quality on arsenic rejection, *Desalination* 140, 1--14, 2001.
- 215. Iqbal, J., et al. Removal of arsenic from groundwater by micellar-enhanced ultrafiltration (MEUF), *Chemosphere* **66**, 970--976, 2007.
- 216. Sato, Y., et al. Performance of nanofiltration for arsenic removal, *Water Res.* 36, 3371--3377, 2002.
- 217. Chang, F.F., & Liu, W.J. Arsenate removal using a combination treatment of precipitation and nanofiltration, *Water Sci. Technol.* **65**, 296--302, 2012.
- 218. Xie, Y., et al. Effect of dissolved organic matter on arsenic removal by Nanofiltration, *Desalin. Water Treat.* 51, 2269--2274, 2013.
- 219. Harisha, R.S., et al. Arsenic removal from drinking water using thin film composite nanofiltration membrane, *Desalination* **252**, 75--80, 2010.
- 220. Figoli, A., et al. Influence of operating parameters on the arsenic removal by nanofiltration, *Water Res.* 44, 97--104, 2010.
- 221. Chang, S.D., Bellamy, W.D., & Ruiz, H. Removal of arsenic by enhanced coagulation and membrane technology, in Proceedings of AWWA Annual Conference, New York, 1994.
- 222. Das, C., et al. Treatment of tanning effluent using nanofiltration followed by reverse osmosis, Sep. Purif. Technol. 50, 291--299, 2006.
- 223. Ning, R.Y. Arsenic removal by reverse osmosis, Desalination 143, 237--241, 2002.
- 224. Greenlee, L.F., et al. Reverse osmosis desalination: Water sources, technology, and today's challenges, *Water Res.* **43**, 2317--2348, 2009.
- 225. Akin, I., et al. Removal of arsenate [As(V)] and arsenite [As(III)] from water by SWHR and BW-30 reverse osmosis, *Desalination* **281**, 88--92, 2011.
- 226. Fox, K.R. Field experience with point-of-use treatment systems for arsenic removal, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 2, 94--101, 1989.
- 227. Shahalam, A.M., Al-Harthy, A., & Al-Zawhry, A. Feed water pretreatment in RO systems in the Middle East, *Desalination* **150**, 235--245, 2002.

- 228. Kempic, J.B. Arsenic removal technologies: An evaluation of cost and performance, in Arsenic: Exposure and Health Effects, Chapman and Hall Publishing Company, 1994, 393--405.
- 229. Ribeiro, A.B., et al. Electrodialytic removal of Cu, Cr, and As from chromated copper arsenate treated timber water, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, **34**, 784--788, 2000.
- 230. Clifford, D., & Lin, C.C. Ion Exchange, activated alumina, and membrane processes for arsenic removal from groundwater, in Proceedings of the 45th Annual Environmental Engineering Conference, University of Kansas, February, 1995.
- Clifford, D., Ghurye, G., & Tripp, A. Arsenic removal by ion exchange with and without brine reuse, in AWWA Inorganic Contaminants Workshop, San Antonio, TX, February 23-24, 1998.
- 232. Donia, A.M., Atia, A.A., & Mabrouk, D.A. Fast kinetic and efficient removal of As(V) from aqueous solution using anion exchange resins, J. Hazard. Mater. 191, 1--7, 2011.
- 233. Giles, D.E., et al. Iron and aluminium based adsorption strategies for removing arsenic from water, J. Environ. Manage. 92, 3011--3022, 2011.
- 234. Joshi, A., & Chaudhuri, M. Removal of arsenic from ground water by iron oxidecoated sand, J. Environ. Eng. 122, 769--771, 1996.
- 235. Maji, S., Kao, Y.H., & Liu, C.W. Arsenic removal from real arsenic-bearing groundwater by adsorption on iron-oxide-coated natural rock (IOCNR), *Desalination* 3, 72--79, 2011.
- 236. Gupta, V.K., Saini, V.K., & Jain, N. Adsorption of As(III) from aqueous solutions by iron oxide-coated sand, *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* **288**, 55--60, 2005.
- 237. Sun, F., et al. Reduction of As(V) to As(III) by commercial ZVI or As(0) with acidtreated ZVI, J. Hazard. Mater. 196, 311–317, 2011.
- 238. Dou, X., et al. Arsenate removal from water by zero-valent iron/activated carbon
 galvanic couples, J. Hazard. Mater. 182, 108-114, 2010.
- 239. Klas, S., & Kirk, D.W. Advantages of low pH and limited oxygenation in arsenite removal from water by zero-valent iron, J. Hazard. Mater. 252, 77--82, 2013.
- 240. Tokunaga, S., Yokoyama, S., & Wasay, S.A. Removal of arsenic(III) and arsenic(V) ions from aqueous solutions with lanthanum(III) salt and comparison with aluminum(III), calcium(II), and iron(III) salts, *Water Environ. Res.* 71, 299-306, 1999.

241.	Biswas, B.K., et al. Effective Removal of arsenic with lanthanum(III)- and
	cerium(III)-loaded orange waste gels, Sep. Purif. Technol. 43, 21442165, 2008.
242.	Chutia, P., et al. Arsenic adsorption from aqueous solution on synthetic zeolites, J.
	Hazard. Mater. 162, 440447, 2009.
243.	Baskan, M.B., & Pala, A. Removal of arsenic from drinking water using modified
	natural zeolite, Desalination 281, 396403, 2011.
244.	Viraraghavan, T., Subramanian, K.S., & Aruldoss, J.A. Arsenic in drinking water.
	Problems and solutions, Water Sci. Technol. 40, 6976, 1999.
245.	Subramanian, K.S., et al. Manganese greensand for removal of arsenic in drinking
	water, Water Qual. Res. J. Can. 32, 551561, 1997.
246.	Asta, M.P., et al. Arsenic removal by goethite and jarosite in acidic conditions
	and its environmental implications, J. Hazard. Mater. 171, 965972, 2009.
247.	Lakshmipathiraj, P., et al. Adsorption of arsenate on synthetic goethite from
	aqueous solutions, J. Hazard. Mater. 136, 281287, 2006.
248.	Guo, H., et al. Enhancement of arsenic adsorption during mineral transformation
	from siderite to goethite: Mechanism and application, Environ. Sci. Technol. 47,
	10091016, 2013.
249.	Singh Thakur, L., & Semil, P. Removal of arsenic in aqueous solution by low cost
	adsorbent: A short review, Int. J. Chem. Tech. Res. 5, 12991308, 2013.
250.	Bajpai, S., & Chaudhuri, M. Removal of arsenic from ground water by
	manganese dioxide-coated sand, J. Environ. Eng. 126, 782783, 1999.
251.	Chang, Y.Y., et al. Removal of arsenic from aqueous solution by iron-coated sand
	and manganese-coated sand having different mineral types, Water Sci. Technol.
	65 , 683688, 2012.
252.	Yang, J.K., et al. Arsenic removal by iron and manganese coated sand, Water Sci.
	Technol. 56, 161169, 2007.
253.	Johnston, R., & Heijnen, H. Safe Water Technology for Arsenic Removal. in
	Technologies for Arsenic Removal from Drinking Water, M.F. Ahmed et al., eds.,
	Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka, 2001.
254.	Rahman, A.A., & Ravenscroft, P. Groundwater Resources and Development in
	Bangladesh, in Options for Arsenic Removal from Groundwater, F. Mallick, eds.,
	The University Press Limited, 2003.

- 255. Dussert, B.W., & Stone, G.R.V. The biological activated carbon process for water purification- The solutions source of the water & wastewater industry, 2000.
- 256. Pokhrel, D., Viraraghavan, T., & Braul, L. Evaluation of Treatment Systems for the Removal of Arsenic from Groundwater, *Pract. Period. Hazard. Toxic Radioact. Waste Manage.* 9, 152--157, 2005.
- 257. Wegelin, M., et al. SORAS a simple arsenic removal process, EAWAG and SDC, Bangladesh.
 http://www.eawag.ch/organisation/abteilungen/sandec/publikationen/publications _ws/downloads_ws/SORAS.pdf
- 258. Mamtaz, R., & Bache, D.H. Low-cost technique of arsenic removal from water, in *Technologies for arsenic removal from drinking water* M.F. Ahmed et al., eds., Bangladesh University of Engineering and Technology, Dhaka 2001.
- 259. Lihua, S., et al. Enhanced As(III) removal with permanganate oxidation, ferric chloride precipitation and sand filtration as pretreatment of ultrafiltration, *Desalination* 243, 122--131, 2009.
- 260. Meng, X.G., et al. Treatment of arsenic in Bangladesh well water using household coprecipitation and filtration system, *Water Res.* **35**, 2805--2810, 2001.
- 261. Jekel, M., & Amy, G.L. Arsenic Removal during Drinking Water Treatment, in *Interface Science and Technology*, N. Gayle et al., eds., Elsevier, 2006, 193--206.
- 262. Laky, D., & Licsko I. Arsenic removal by ferric-chloride coagulation Effect of phosphate, bicarbonate and silicate, *Water Sci. Technol.* 64, 1046--1055, 2011.
- Violante, A., et al. Coprecipitation of arsenate with metal oxides: nature, mineralogy, and reactivity of aluminium precipitates, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 40, 4961--4967, 2006.
- 264. Ahmed, M., & Rahman, M.M. Water Supply and Sanitation -Rural and Low-Income Urban Communities, ITB-Bangladesh Centre for Water Supply and Waste Management, Dhaka, Bangladesh, 2000.
- 265. Edwards, M. Chemistry of arsenic removal during coagulation and Fe-Mn oxidation, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 86, 64--78, 1994.
- 266. Han, B., et al. Arsenic removal from drinking water by flocculation and microfiltration, *Desalination* 145, 293--298, 2002.

267.	Wickramasir	ighe,	S.R.,	et al.	Arsenic	rem	oval	by	coagula	tion	and	filtration	
	comparison	of	ground	lwaters	s from	the	Uni	ted	States	and	l Ba	angladesh,	
	Desalination	. 169,	, 2312	244, 20	04.								

- Qiao J., et al. Arsenate and arsenite removal by FeCl₃: Effects of pH, As/Fe ratio, initial As concentration and co-existing solutes, *Sep. Purif. Tech.* 92, 106--114, 2012.
- 269. US EPA, Arsenic treatment technology evaluation handbook for small systems, EPA 816-R-03-014, Washington, DC, Vol. 8-9, 2003, 18--22.
- 270. Pettine, M., & Millero, F.J. Effect of Metals on the Oxidation of As (III) with H_2O_2 , J. Mar. Chem. 70, 223--234, 2000.
- Borho, M., & Wilderer, P. Optimized removal of arsenate(III) by adaptation of oxidation and precipitation processes to the filtration step, *Water Sci. Technol.* 34, 25--31, 1996.
- 272. Lee, Y., Um, I.K., & Yoon, J. Arsenic(III) oxidation by iron(VI) (ferrate) and subsequent removal of arsenic(V) by iron(III) coagulation, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*37, 5750--5756, 2003.
- 273. Liu, R.P. Effectiveness and mechanisms of permanganate and permanganate composites removing pollutants through integrated oxidation and adsorption, Dissertation, Harbin Institute of Technology, Harbin, 2005.
- 274. Guan, X.H., et al. Removal of arsenic from water: Effect of calcium ions on As(III) removal in the KMnO₄-Fe(II) process, *Water Res.* **43**, 5119--5128, 2009.
- 275. Sorlini, S., & Gialdini, F. Conventional oxidation treatments for the removal of arsenic with chlorine dioxide, hypochlorite, potassium permanganate and monochloramine, *Water Res.* 44, 5653--5659, 2010.
- 276. Meng, X., Bang, S., & Korfiatis, G.P. Effects of silicate, sulphate, and carbonate on arsenic removal by ferric chloride, *Water Res.* **34**, 1255--1261, 2000.
- 277. Al-Mutaz, I.S., & Al-Ghunaimi, M.A. pH control in water treatment plant by the addition of carbon dioxide, Presented at the IDA World Congress on Desalination and Water Reuse, Bahrain, 2001.
- Katsoyiannis, I.A., & Zouboulis, A.I. Removal of arsenic from contaminated water sources by sorption onto iron-oxide-coated polymeric materials, *Water Res.* 36, 5141--5155, 2002.

279.	Song, S., et al. Arsenic removal from high-arsenic water by enhanced coagulation
	with ferric ions and coarse calcite, Water Res. 40, 364372, 2006.

- 280. Chwirka, J.D., et al. Arsenic removal from drinking water using the coagulation/microfiltration process, J. Am. Water Works Assn. 96, 106--114, 2004.
- 281. Bissen, M., & Frimmel, F.H. Arsenic a review. Part I: occurrence, toxicity, speciation, mobility, *Clean* 31, 9--8, 2003.
- Raven, K.P., Jain, A., & Loeppert, R.H. Arsenite and arsenate adsorption on ferrihydrite: Kinetics, equilibrium, and adsorption envelopes, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 32, 344--349, 1998.
- 283. Jain, A., Raven K.P., & Loeppert, R.H. Arsenite and arsenate adsorption on ferrihydrite: surface charge reduction and net OH⁻ release stoichiometry, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 33, 1177--1184, 1999.
- 284. Roberts, L.C., et al. Arsenic removal with iron(II) and iron(III) in waters with high silicate and phosphate concentrations, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **38**, 307--315, 2004.
- 285. DeZuane, J. Handbook of Drinking Water Quality: Standards and Control, Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, 1990.
- 286. Das, B., et al. Removal of iron from groundwater by ash: A systematic study of a traditional method, J. Hazard. Mater. 141, 834--841, 2007.
- 287. Mahanta, D.B., Das, N.N., & Dutta, R.K. A chemical and bacteriological study of drinking water in tea gardens of central Assam, *Indian J. Environ. Prot.* 24, 654--660, 2004.
- 288. Rao, N.S. Iron content in groundwaters of Visakhapatnam environs, Andhra Pradesh, India, *Environ. Monit. Assess.* 136, 437--447, 2008.
- 289. Ahamad, K.U., & Jawed, M. Kinetics, equilibrium and breakthrough studies for Fe(II) removal by wooden charcoal: A low-cost adsorbent, *Desalination* 251, 137--145, 2010.
- 290. Sarin, P., et al. Iron release from corroded iron pipes in drinking water distribution systems: effect of dissolved oxygen, Water Res. 38, 1259--1269, 2004.
- 291. Loan, M., et al. Defining the paragoethite process for iron removal in zinc hydrometallurgy, *Hydrometallurgy* **81**, 104--129, 2006.

292.	Chen, G. Electrochemical technologies in wastewater treatment, Sep. Purif.
	Technol. 38, 1141, 2004.
293.	Wessling-Resnick, M. Biochemistry of iron uptake, Crit. Rev. Biochem. Mol.
	<i>Biol.</i> 34 , 285314, 1999.
294.	Weinberg, E.D., & Weinberg, G.A. The role of iron in infection, Curr. Opin.
	Infect. Dis. 8, 164169, 1995.
295.	McCord, J.M. Effects of positive iron status at a cellular level, Nutr. Rev. 54, 85
	88, 1996.
296.	Weinberg, E.D. Patho-ecological implications of microbial acquisition of host
	iron, Rev. Med. Microbiol. 9, 171178, 1998.
297.	Al-Anber, M.A. Removal of high-level Fe ³⁺ from aqueous solution using natural
	inorganic materials: Bentonite (NB) and quartz (NQ), Desalination 250, 885
	891, 2010.
298.	Lehtola, M.J., et al. Removal of soft deposits from the distribution system
	improves the drinking water quality, Water Res. 38, 301610, 2004.
299.	Vasudevan, S., Lakshmi, J., & Sozhan, G. Studies on the removal of iron from
	drinking water by electrocoagulation- A clean process, Clean 37, 4551, 2009.
300.	Cho, B.Y. Iron removal using aerated granular filter, Process Biochem. 40, 3314
	3320, 2005.
301.	Ghosh, D., Solanki, H., & Purkait, M.K. Removal of Fe (II) from tap water by
	electrocoagulation technique, J. Hazard. Mater. 155, 135143, 2008.
302.	Nemade, P.D., Kadam, A.M., & Shankar, H.S. Removal of iron, arsenic and
	coliform bacteria from water by novel constructed soil filter system, Ecol. Eng.
	35 , 11521157, 2009.
303.	Azher, N.E., et al. Study of ferrous iron oxidation in Morocco drinking water in
	an airlift reactor, Chem. Eng. Process. 47, 18771876, 2008.
304.	Vaaramaa, K., & Lehto, J. Removal of metals and anions from drinking water by
	ion exchange, Desalination 155, 157170, 2003.
305.	Ellis, D., Bouchard, C., & Lantagne, G. Removal of iron and manganese from
	groundwater by oxidation and microfiltration, Desalination 130, 255264, 2000.
306.	Munter, R., Ojaste, H., & Sutt, J. Complexed iron removal from groundwater, J.
	Environ. Eng. 131, 10141020, 2005.

,

- 307. Mondal, P., Mohanty, B., & Majumder, C.B. Effect of pH and treatment time on the removal of arsenic species from simulated groundwater by using Fe³⁺ and Ca²⁺ impregnated granular activated charcoals, *Chem. Eng. Sci.* **1**, 27--31, 2013.
- Andersen, W.C., & Bruno, T.J. Application of a gas-liquid entraining rotor to supercritical fluid extraction: Removal of iron(III) from water, Anal. Chim. Acta 485, 1--8, 2003.
- 309. Berbenni, P., et al. Removal of iron and manganese from hydrocarboncontaminated groundwaters, *Bioresour. Technol.* 74, 109--114, 2000.
- 310. Aziz, H.A., et al. Physico-chemical removal of iron from semi-aerobic landfill leachate by limestone filter, *Waste Manage*. 24, 353--358, 2004.
- 311. Dahi, E., & Liang, Q. Arsenic Removal in Hand Pump Connected Iron Removal Plants in Noakhali, Bangladesh in International Conference on Arsenic Pollution of Ground Water in Bangladesh: Causes, Effect and Remedies, Dhaka, 8-12 February, 1998.
- 312. Morgan, B., & Lahav, O. The effect of pH on the kinetics of spontaneous Fe(II)
 oxidation by O2 in aqueous solution- basic principles and a simple heuristic
 description, *Chemosphere* 68, 2080--2084, 2007.
- 313. Benefield, L.D., Judkins, J.F., & Weand, B.L., Iron and manganese removal, from process chemistry for water and wastewater treatment, J.M. Chege ed., Prentice -Hall, Inc., Englewood CliffS, N.J., 1982.
- Sarkar, S., et al. Well-head arsenic removal units in remote villages of Indian subcontinent: Field results and performance evaluation, *Water Res.* 39, 2196--2206, 2005.
- 315. Cheng, Z., et al. Performance of a household-level arsenic removal system during
 4-month deployments in Bangladesh, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 38, 3442--3448, 2004.
- 316. Miretzky, P., & Cirelli, A.F. Remediation of arsenic-contaminated soils by iron amendments: A review, *Crit. Rev. Environ. Sci. Technol.* 40, 93--115, 2010.
- 317. Pierce, M.L., & Moore, C.B. Adsorption of arsenite and arsenate on amorphous iron hydroxide, *Water Res.* 16, 1247--1253, 1982.
- 318. Greenleaf, J.E., et al. Abiotic As(III) oxidation by hydrated Fe(III) oxide (HFO) microparticles in a plug flow columnar configuration, *Process Saf. Environ. Prot.*81, 87--98, 2003.

- 319. Thirunavukkarasu, O.S., Viraraghavan, T., & Subramanian, K.S. Arsenic removal from drinking water using iron oxide-coated sand, *Water Air Soil Pollut.* 142, 95--111, 2003.
- 320. Jessen, S., et al. Sorption and desorption of arsenic to ferrihydrite in a sand filter, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 39, 8045--8051, 2005.
- 321. Leupin, O.X., Hug, S.J., & Badruzzaman, A.B.M. Arsenic removal from Bangladesh tube well water with filter columns containing zerovalent iron filings and sand, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **39**, 8032--8037, 2005.
- 322. Beaulieu, B., & Ramirez, R.E. Arsenic remediation field study using a sulfate reduction and zero-valent iron PRB, *Ground Water Monit. Rem.* 33, 85--94, 2013.
- 323. Mondal, P. Remediation of inorganic arsenic in groundwater for safe water supply: A critical assessment of technological solutions, *Chemosphere* 92, 157--170, 2013.
- 324. Jeon, C.S., et al. Adsorption characteristics of As(V) on iron-coated zeolite, J. *Hazard. Mater.* 163, 804--808, 2009.
- 325. Maiti, A., et al. Batch and column study: Adsorption of arsenate using untreated laterite as adsorbent, *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* 47, 1620--1629, 2008.
- 326. Maiti, A., Basu, J.K., & De, S. Experimental and kinetic modeling of As(V) and As(III) adsorption on treated laterite using synthetic and contaminated groundwater: Effects of phosphate, silicate and carbonate ions, *Chem. Eng. J.* 191, 1--12, 2012.
- 327. Dodd, M.C., et al. Kinetics and mechanistic aspects of As(III) oxidation by aqueous chlorine, chloramines, and ozone: relevance to drinking water treatment, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 40, 3285--3292, 2006.
- 328. Kim, M.J., & Nriagu, J. Oxidation of arsenite in groundwater using ozone and oxygen, *Sci. Total Environ.* 247, 71--79, 2000.
- Li, N., et al. Oxidation of As(III) by potassium permanganate, J. Environ. Sci. 19, 783²-786, 2007.
- Wall, M.M. Ascorbic acid, vitamin A and mineral composition of banana (Musa sp.) and papaya (carica papaya) cultivars grown in Howaii, J. Food Comp. Anal. 19, 434--445, 2006.
- Anhwange, B.A. Chemical composition of *Musa Sapientum* (banana) peels, J. Food Technol. 6, 263--268, 2008.

332.	Mahapatra, D., Mishra, S., & Sutar, N. Banana and its by-product utilisation: An
	overview, J. Sci. Ind. Res. 69, 323329, 2010.
333.	Cordeiro, N., et al. Chemical composition and pulping of banana pseudo-stems,
	Ind. Crops Prod. 19, 147154, 2004.
334.	Hanlon, E.A. Elemental determination by atomic absorption spectrophotometer, in
	Handbook of reference method for plant analysis, Y.P. Kalra eds., CRC Press, New
	York, 1998, 157163.
335.	Jeffery, G.H., et al. Vogel's Textbook of Quantitative Chemical Analysis, fifth ed.,
	Longman Scientific & Technical, New York, 1989, 691.
336.	APHA/AWWA/WEF. Standard methods for the examination of water and
	wastewater, 19 th Edition, 1995.
337.	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), Method 1311: Toxicity
	characteristic leaching procedure, 1992.
338.	Dufour, A., et al. Assessing microbial safety of drinking water, improving
	approaches and methods, WHO/OECD, 2003, 11.
339.	European Union Council Directive 98/83/EC of 3 November, On the quality of
	water intended for human consumption, Off. J. Eur. Comm. 330, 3254, 1998.
340.	Cornell, R.M., & Schwertmann, U. The iron oxides: Structure, properties,
	reactions, occurrence and uses, VCH, New York, 1996.

- Sarkar, S., et al. Arsenic removal from groundwater and its safe containment in a rural environment: Validation of a sustainable approach, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 42, 4268--4273, 2008.
- 342. Houban, G.J. Iron oxide incrustations in wells. Part 1: Genesis, mineralogy and geochemistry, *Appl. Geochem.* 18, 927--939, 2003.
- 343. Houban, G.J. Iron oxide incrustations in wells. Part 2: Chemical dissolution and modeling, *Appl. Geochem.* 18, 941--954, 2003.
- 344. Komintsas, K., Bartzas, G., & Pasparialis, I. Efficiency of limestone and red mud barriers: laboratory column studies, *Miner. Eng.* 17, 183--194, 2004.
- 345. Schwertmann, U., & Cornell, R.M. Iron Oxides in the Laboratory: Preparation and Characterization. VCH, New York, 1991.
- 346. BIS 18:100500, Specification for drinking water, Bureau of Indian Standards, New Delhi, 1999.

347.	Ewing, F.J. The crystal structure of lepidocrocite, J. Chem. Phys. 3, 420424, 1935.
348.	Yeung, S.C.F.A., et al. A Novel Synthetic Route to "Iron tribydroxide, Fe(OH) ₃ ": characterization and magnetic properties, <i>Inorg. Chem.</i> 23, 15131517, 1984.
349.	Gast, R.G., Landa, E.R., & Meyer, G.W. The interaction of water (α -FeOOH) and amorphous hydrated ferric oxide surfaces, <i>Clays Clay Miner</i> . 22 , 3139, 1974.
350.	Falk, M. The frequency of the H-O-H bending fundamental in solids and liquids,
	Spectrochim. Acta, Part A 40, 4348, 1984.
351.	Caki, M.D., Nikoli, G.S., & Ili, L.A. FTIR spectra of iron(III) complexes with
	dextran, pullulan and inulin oligomers, Bull. chemists and technologists of
	Macedonia 21, 135146, 2002.
352.	Zhang, G.S., et al. Removal mechanism of As(III) by a novel Fe-Mn binary oxide
	adsorbent: Oxidation and sorption, Environ. Sci. Technol. 41, 46134619, 2007.
353.	Zhang, Y., et al. Arsenate adsorption on an Fe-Ce bimetal oxide adsorbent: Role of
	surface properties, Environ. Sci. Technol. 39, 72467253, 2005.
354.	Das, D., et al. A simple household device to remove arsenic from groundwater and
	two years performance report of arsenic removal plant for treating groundwater
	with community participation, in Technologies for Arsenic Removal from Drinking
	Water, M.F. Ahmed, et al., eds., Bangladesh University of Engineering and
	Technology, 2001.
355.	Seco, A., et al. Effect of pH, cation concentration and sorbent concentration on
	cadmium and copper removal by a granular activated carbon, J. Chem. Technol.
	Biotechnol. 74, 911918, 1999.
356.	Clara, M., & Magalhaes, F. Arsenic. An environmental problem limited by
	solubility, Pure Appl. Chem. 74, 18431850, 2002.
357.	Yen, J.H.G., & Woolwich, N. J. Hot lime precipitation of arsenic from wastewater
	or groundwater, US Patent, No. 5378366, 1995.
358.	Bang, S., & Meng, X. A review of arsenic interactions with anions and iron
	hydroxides, Environ. Eng. Res. 9, 184192, 2004.
359.	Amin, N., et al. Removal of arsenic in aqueous solutions by adsorption onto waste
	rice husk, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 45, 81058110, 2006.
360.	Baskan, M.B., & Pala, A. Determination of arsenic removal efficiency by ferric
	ions using response surface methodology, J. Hazard. Mater. 166, 796801, 2009.
	147

361.	Sun, X., & Doner, H.E. An investigation of arsenate and arsenite bonding
	structures on goethite by FTIR, Soil Sci. 161, 865872, 1996.
362.	Jia, Y.F., et al. Infrared spectroscopic and X-ray diffraction characterization of the
	nature of adsorbed arsenate on ferrihydrite, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 71, 1643
	1654, 2007.
363.	Myneni, S.C.B., et al. Experimental and theoretical vibrational spectroscopic
	evaluation of arsenate coordination in aqueous solutions, solids, and at mineral-
	water interfaces, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 62, 32853300, 1998.
364.	Jia, Y.F., et al. Observation of surface precipitation of arsenate on ferrihydrite,
	Environ. Sci. Technol. 40, 32483253, 2006.
365.	ICDD: Mineral Powder Diffraction File Data Book, No.5-586, 1993.
366.	Krause, E., & Ettel, V.A. Solubility and stability of scorodite, FeAsO ₄ .2H ₂ O: New
	data and further discussion, Am. Mineral. 73, 850854, 1988.
367.	Weast, R.C. Handbook of chemistry and physics, CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL,
	1990.
368.	Jain, A., & Loeppert, R.H. Effect of competing anions on the adsorption of arsenate
	and arsenite by ferrihydrite, J. Environ. Qual. 29, 14221430, 2000.
369.	Goldberg, S., & Johnstony, C.T. Mechanisms of arsenic adsorption on amorphous
	oxides evaluated using macroscopic measurements, vibrational spectroscopy, and
	surface complexation modeling, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 234, 204216, 2001.
370.	Eggleton, R.A., & Fitzpatrick, R.W. New data and the revised structural model for
	ferrihydrite, Clays Clay Miner. 36, 111124, 1988.
371.	Birch, W.D., et al. Fe(OH) ₃ , a new mineral from Broken Hill New South Wales:
	description and structure, Am. Miner. 78, 827834, 1993.
372.	Phenrat, T., Marhaba, T.F., & Rachakornkij, M. Leaching Behaviors of Arsenic
	from Arsenic-Iron Hydroxide Sludge during TCLP, J. Environ. Eng. 134, 671
	682, 2008.
373.	Holm, T.R., & Wilson, S.D. Chemical oxidation for arsenic removal, ISWS contact
	report, Illionis state water survey, Champaign, Illionis, 2006.

•

.

•

Appendices

Papers in Journals

- 1. S. Bordoloi, S.K Nath, R.K. Dutta, Iron ion removal from groundwater using banana ash, carbonates and bicarbonates of Na and K, and their mixtures, *Desalination* 281, 190-198 (2011).
- S. Bordoloi, M. Nath, R.K. Dutta, pH-conditioning for Simultaneous Removal of Arsenic and Iron Ions from Groundwater, *Process Saf. Environ. Prot.* 91, 405-414 (2013).
- S. Bordoloi, S.K. Nath, S. Gogoi, R.K. Dutta, Arsenic and iron removal from groundwater by oxidation-coagulation at optimized pH: laboratory and field studies, J. Hazard. Mater. 260, 618-626 (2013).
- 4. S.K. Nath, S. Bordoloi, R.K. Dutta, Effect of acid on morphology of calcite during acid enhanced defluoridation, J. Fluorine Chem. 132, 19-26 (2011).
- 5. S. Gogoi, S.K. Nath, S. Bordoloi, R.K. Dutta, Fluoride removal from groundwater by limestone treatment in presence of phosphoric acid. (Communicated)

Patents applied/published

- R.K. Dutta, S.K. Nath, S. Bordoloi, Iron Removal From Water using HCO₃⁻ or CO₃²⁻ salts of K⁺ or Na⁺ Retaining the pH within the Acceptable Limit For drinking (Application No.2132/KOL/2008; Publication Date : 25/12/2009).
- R.K. Dutta, S. Bordoloi, S.K. Nath, Arsenic Removal from Groundwater by Oxidation-Coagulation at Controlled pH for Domestic and Community Applications (Application No. 704/KOL/2010; Publication Date: 29/07/2011).
- R.K. Dutta, S.K. Nath, S. Bordoloi, Arsenic removal from water using NaHCO₃ or KHCO₃ or plant ash or their mixtures (Application No. 508/KOL/2009 dated 23/03/2009 12:54:55).

Presentation in conferences

 Bordoloi, S., Nath, S.K., & Dutta, R.K. Removal of iron from contaminated groundwater by carbonate or bicarbonate salts of Na and K with banana ash, National Seminar on Crisis of Fresh Water, A Challenge to Humanity and Life Processes, What is the Solution? August 17-18, 2010. Dept. of Chemistry, D.R. College, Golaghat, Assam, India (Oral Presentation).

- 2. Bordoloi, S., & Dutta, R.K. Iron Removal from Groundwater using Banana Ash, Carbonates and Bicarbonates of Na and K, and their Mixtures, National Seminar on Green Chemistry for Sustainable World on 4-5 February, 2011 at Gargaon College, Assam (Oral presentation).
- 3. Bordoloi, S., & Dutta, R.K. Integrated removal of arsenic and iron from contaminated groundwater by carbonate or bicarbonate salts and banana ash, UGC sponsored National Seminar on Sustainable soil & water resources management and environmental challenges of the 21st Century, on 19th & 20th November, 2011, Chaiduar College, Gohpur, Sonitpur, Assam (Oral presentation).
- Bordoloi, S., & Dutta, R.K. Removal of Arsenic and Iron by banana ash, carbonate and bicarbonate salts of sodium and potassium as pH-conditioner, International Seminar and workshop on Energy, sustainability and development on 12-14 October, 2012 at Sibsagar College, Joysagar, Assam, India. (best poster awarded)
- Bordoloi, S., Nath, S.K., & Dutta, R.K. Removal of Arsenic from groundwater by Oxidation-coagulation at Optimum pH, National conference on Chemistry, Chemical technology and Society on 11th-12th November, 2011at Department of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University (Poster presentation).
- Bordoloi, S., & Dutta, R.K. pH-conditioning in Simultaneous Removal of Arsenic and Iron from Groundwater by Coprecipitation-adsorption, National Conference on Hydrology and water quality management on 20-22 September, 2012 at Morigaon College, Morigaon, Assam (Oral presentation).
- Bordoloi, S., & Dutta, R.K. A laboratory study on Removal of Arsenic from Contaminated Groundwater by Oxidation-Coagulation Process at optimized pH, 2nd International Science Congress on 8th-9th December, 2012 held at Bon Maharaj Engineering College, Vrindavan, Mathura, UP, India (Oral presentation).

Conferences and school/workshops participated

 Summer School on Green Chemistry, 2-22nd June 2009, Sponsored by Department of Science and Technology (DST), New Delhi, India and organized by Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam, India.

- 2. Frontier Lecture Series, 20-22 Nov 2009, Organized by Jawaharlal Nehru Centre for Advanced Scientific Research (JNCASR) Bangalore, India in collaboration with Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam, India.
- Workshop on Integrated Arsenic and Iron removal from Ground Water, "Arsiron Nilogon", 25th June, 2011, Sponsored by Department of Science and Technology (DST), New Delhi, India and organized by Dept. of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam, India.
- 4. Workshop on Arsenic and iron removal from groundwater on 18th July, 2011 at Sonari College, Sonari, Sivsagar, Assam, India.
- Workshop on Groundwater Arsenic: Its Effects and Removal on 22nd March, 2013 at Majuli College, Jorhat, Assam.
- Workshop on Groundwater Arsenic: Its Effects and Removal, on 23rd March, 2013 at Uttar Majuli College, Jorhat, Assam.
- 7. Workshop on Spectroscopic tools and their applications on 6th April, 2013 at Department of Chemical Sciences, Tezpur University
- Workshop on Intellectual Property rights Sensitization: IPRSW-2010 on 23rd December, 2010 at Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam.
- International Congress on renewable energy on 2-4th November, 2011 at Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam.
- 10. **DST Workshop on Water Purification Possibility and Prospects**, 2011, Dept. of Chemistry, J.N.V. University, Jodhpur, India.