

Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019

2018

Disinfection By-Product Reduction Study of a Small Central Florida Public Water System

Paul Staubus
University of Central Florida

 Part of the [Environmental Engineering Commons](#)
Find similar works at: <https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd>
University of Central Florida Libraries <http://library.ucf.edu>

This Masters Thesis (Open Access) is brought to you for free and open access by STARS. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019 by an authorized administrator of STARS. For more information, please contact STARS@ucf.edu.

STARS Citation

Staubus, Paul, "Disinfection By-Product Reduction Study of a Small Central Florida Public Water System" (2018). *Electronic Theses and Dissertations, 2004-2019*. 5997.
<https://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/5997>

DISINFECTION BY-PRODUCT REDUCTION STUDY FOR A SMALL CENTRAL
FLORIDA PUBLIC WATER SYSTEM

by

PAUL C. STAUBUS, E.I.
B.S.Env.E. University of Central Florida, 2016

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Science
in the Department of Civil, Environmental, and Construction Engineering
in the College of Engineering and Computer Science
at the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

Summer Term
2018

Major Professor: Steven J. Duranceau

©2018 Paul C. Staubus

ABSTRACT

The disinfection of water for potabilization has proven to be one of the most significant public achievements of the 20th century. Although chemical disinfectants are successfully utilized to inactivate acute pathogenic organisms, they may react with natural organic matter (NOM) to produce potentially-harmful disinfection by-products (DBPs). As a result, the United States Environmental Protection Agency regulates DBPs such as total trihalomethanes (TTHMs) and haloacetic acids (HAAs). The research herein is focused on the formation, removal, and control of TTHMs and HAAs in a small public water system (PWS) in Polk County, Florida (County). Pilot-scale tests were implemented to determine the efficacy of stripping TTHMs using single-pass spray and recirculating tray aeration systems, both operating at flows of 3 gallons per minute. In the spray aerator evaluation, an average TTHM reduction of 29.5% was recorded. With tray aeration, a 46.7% reduction of TTHMs was observed after a single pass through the assembly. The benefits of additional recirculation appeared to decrease significantly after four passes, at a TTHM removal of 85.5%. A raw water blending effort was conducted to model bypass around granular activated carbon (GAC) adsorption vessels. The results demonstrated the feasibility of a 50% blend in full-scale treatment operations. With this blend, chlorine residuals and HAA concentrations were able to be controlled throughout 48 hours of incubation at 30°C. From the data collected, a water quality plan was developed for the County's Waverly PWS. The plan to control the formation of DBPs integrated a recirculating tray aeration process for TTHM stripping complemented with GAC adsorption process for removing DBP precursors.

The estimated conceptual operating cost was approximated at \$24,000 annually. This cost considered carbon replacement as well as the recirculation pump operation. If the recommended 50% GAC bypass is applied, the conceptual operating cost reduces to approximately \$15,250 annually.

This thesis is dedicated to my family. Their support was unfailing throughout my entire education.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I thank God for everything I have been given in life, my family being the most important. My family has supported me endlessly through every venture I have taken and every setback I have experienced in life. Without question, my family is the most important thing in my life and I owe a great majority of my success to them.

I would like to thank Dr. Steven Duranceau for serving as my advisor. I would also like to thank Dr. Andrew Randall and Dr. Anwar Sadmani for serving on my thesis committee and helping to refine my research with their skills and knowledge. I learned a great deal from Dr. Randall's lectures in grad school and I highly respect both men.

I would like to thank the Polk County Utilities personnel, particularly Jason Hopp. His assistance during site visits, provision of historical data, and general advice during the research was greatly appreciated. I also want to thank Dr. Adam Redding at Evoqua Water Technologies for his time conducting the GAC analyses and providing a vast amount of information.

Finally, I would like to thank the present and former members of my graduate research team. Thanks to Dr. Benjamin Yoakum for his insight and for paving the way for my research. Thank you to Carlyn Higgins, Daniel Whalen, Mia Arenas, and Martin Coleman for their assistance with water collections and site visits. Thank you to Angela Rodriguez, Jessica Cormier, Dr. Carolina Franco, Hadi Toure, Zachary Protas, Frances Martinez, and Aric Hawkins for their insight, assistance, and each of their individual contributions to our team.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xvi
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	3
Introduction to Groundwater.....	3
Disinfection of Water and Aqueous Chlorine Chemistry	4
Disinfection By-Products and Associated Regulations	6
Factors Affecting THM and HAA Formation	8
Common Methods to Control DBPs.....	9
Air Stripping	12
CHAPTER THREE: EXISTING CONDITIONS	16
Waverly Public Water System.....	16
Waverly Water Treatment Plant	17
Hodge Street Water Treatment Plant	19
CHAPTER FOUR: MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	22
Overview of Studies.....	22

Standard Equipment and Protocols	22
Methods, Equipment, and Chemical Reagents	23
TOC/GAC Analysis	25
Water Quality and Baseline DBP Data	25
Spray Aeration	26
Purpose.....	26
Materials	26
Methods.....	28
Tray Aeration	29
Purpose.....	29
Materials	29
Methods.....	31
Simulation of GAC Bypass Study	32
Purpose.....	32
Materials	33
Methods.....	33
Field and Laboratory Quality Control.....	36
Accuracy	36
Precision.....	37

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	38
Basic Water Quality and Baseline DBP Data.....	38
TOC Data and GAC Findings.....	38
Raw Water Quality	38
Hodge Street WTP Water Quality	39
Waverly WTP Water Quality.....	40
DBP Assessments	41
Single-Pass Spray Aeration Assessment.....	45
Tray Aeration Assessment	47
GAC Bypass and Blending Simulation.....	51
Chlorine Demand	51
TTHM Analysis	55
HAA Analysis.....	57
Statistical Analysis.....	60
CHAPTER SIX: CONCEPTUAL COST CONSIDERATIONS	62
Conceptual Plan	62
Economic Comparison.....	67
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	71
APPENDIX A: PLANT AND SYSTEM DATA	75

APPENDIX B: LABORATORY RESULTS 78

APPENDIX C: EVOQUA’s TOC AND GAC STUDIES REPORT 87

REFERENCES 98

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Diagram of the Two-Film Model for Stripping (Edzwald, 2001).....	13
Figure 2: Waverly Public Water System	16
Figure 3: Simplified Waverly WTP Treatment Process Diagram	19
Figure 4: Simplified Hodge Street WTP Treatment Process Diagram	21
Figure 5: BETE Spray Nozzle	27
Figure 6: Spray Aeration Assembly (not to scale).....	27
Figure 7: Simple Schematic of Tray Aerator	30
Figure 8: Tray Aerator from (a) Front (b) Side.....	31
Figure 9: TTHM Species Distribution	41
Figure 10: Waverly WTP Baseline THM Formation Curve.....	42
Figure 11: Hodge Street WTP Baseline THM Formation Curve	43
Figure 12: Waverly WTP Baseline HAA Formation.....	44
Figure 13: Hodge Street WTP Baseline HAA Formation	44
Figure 14: Spray Aerated vs Un aerated THM Formation	46
Figure 15: TTHM Concentration vs Number of Tray Passes	48
Figure 16: Re-formation Potential after 2-Hour Aeration (12 Passes)	49
Figure 17: Re-formation Potential after 12-Hour Aeration (72 Passes)	50
Figure 18: Chlorine Consumption of Various Raw Water Blends	52
Figure 19: 6.5 mg/L Chlorine Dose	54
Figure 20: 3.25 mg/L Chlorine Dose	54
Figure 21: THM Formation of Blended Waters	56

Figure 22: Pre-established Hodge Street THM Curve (August 2017).....	57
Figure 23: 24-Hour HAA Formation	58
Figure 24: HAA Formation of 100% Raw Water.....	59
Figure 25: HAA Formation of 50% Blend	60
Figure 26: Control Chart for THM Precision	61
Figure 27: Control Chart for THM Accuracy.....	61
Figure 28: Hodge Street WTP Current Operations.....	63
Figure 29: Hodge Street WTP with Recirculating Ground Storage Tank	64
Figure 30: Hodge Street WTP Master Plan with Aeration and Adsorption	65
Figure A.1: Chlorine Demand Curve from Hodge Street WTP (July 2017)	84
Figure A.2: Chlorine Demand Curve for Hodge Street WTP (August 2017)	85
Figure A.3: Chlorine Demand Curve for Waverly WTP (October 2017)	86

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Regulated DBPs under the EPA's D/DBPR	6
Table 2: Chlorinated DBPs of Interest.....	7
Table 3: Henry's Constant Values.....	14
Table 4: Waverly WTP Flow and Chemical Process Data	17
Table 5: Waverly WTP Raw and Finished Water Quality	18
Table 6: Hodge Street WTP Raw and Finished Water Quality	20
Table 7: Hodge Street WTP Flow and Chemical Process Data.....	21
Table 8: Miscellaneous Standards and Protocols.....	23
Table 9: Chemical Reagents Used	23
Table 10: List of Methods and Equipment for Water Analyses	24
Table 11: BETE Spray Nozzle Specifications	26
Table 12: Raw Water Quality – Field Data	38
Table 13: Raw Water Quality - Laboratory Data.....	39
Table 14: Hodge Street WTP Water Quality (July 2017).....	39
Table 15: Hodge Street WTP and System Data during Hodge Street-Only Operation	40
Table 16: Waverly WTP and System Data during Waverly-Only Operation	41
Table 17: Hodge Street WTP Water Quality during Spray Aeration Study	45
Table 18: Spray Aeration Effects on TTHM Concentration.....	46
Table 19: Hodge Street WTP in Situ HAA Data	47
Table 20: TTHM Concentration and Chlorine Residual vs Number of Tray Passes.....	48
Table 21: Re-formation Potential of Aerated Water.....	49

Table 22: Initial Chlorine Demands.....	51
Table 23: Chlorine Consumption Over 96 Hours	52
Table 24: Initial Chlorine Demands of Different Doses.....	53
Table 25: Free Chlorine Residual of Different Doses Over 48 Hours.....	53
Table 26: TTHM Concentrations Over 96 Hours with 6.5 mg/L Chlorine	55
Table 27: 24-Hour HAA Formation.....	58
Table 28: HAA ₅ Re-formation at Different Blends and Chlorine Doses.....	59
Table 29: Hodge Street Option 1: Current Operations	63
Table 30: Hodge Street Option 2: Ground Storage Tank with Recirculating Tray Aeration	64
Table 31: Hodge Street Option 3: Master Plan with Aeration and Adsorption	65
Table 32: Example Recirculating Operation Schedule	67
Table 33: Bypass Percentage vs Effluent TOC and Carbon Utilization.....	69
Table 34: Economic Comparison of Alternate Strategies.....	70
Table A.1: Hodge Street WTP Flow and Process Data	76
Table A.2: Waverly WTP Flow and Process Data	77
Table A.3: Hodge Street WTP Baseline GC Results	79
Table A.4: Waverly WTP Baseline GC Results	80
Table A. 5: Spray Aeration GC Data	81
Table A.6: Tray Aeration GC Data.....	82
Table A.7: Chlorine Demand Curve from Hodge Street WTP (July 2017).....	84
Table A.8: Chlorine Demand Data from Hodge Street WTP (August 2017).....	85

Table A.9: Chlorine Demand Data for Waverly WTP (October 2017) 86

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AC1230CX	AquaCarb 1230 CX
AEL	Advanced Environmental Laboratories
BAC	Biological activated carbon
BDCM	Bromodichloromethane
Cl ₂	Elemental chlorine
ClO ₂	Chlorine dioxide
County	Polk County, Florida
D/DBPR	Disinfectant/disinfection by-products rule
DBCM	Dibromochloromethane
DBP	Disinfection by-product
DBPFP	Disinfection by-product formation potential
DHAA	Dihaloacetic acid
DI	De-ionized
DOC	Dissolved organic carbon
EBCT	Empty bed contact time
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
FP	Formation potential
GAC	Granular activated carbon
gpd	Gallons per day
gpm	Gallons per minute
HAA	Haloacetic acid
HAAFP	Haloacetic acid formation potential
HAA ₅	Five regulated species of HAA
HOCl	Hypochlorous acid
hp	Horsepower
LRAA	Locational running annual average
MCL	Maximum contaminant level
MDF	Maximum daily flow
mg/L	Milligrams per liter
MRDL	Maximum residual disinfectant level
NaOCl	Sodium hypochlorite
NDMA	N-Nitrosodimethylamine
NOM	Natural organic matter
NPDOC	Non-purgeable dissolved organic carbon
O ₃	Ozone
ppb	Parts per billion

ppm	Parts per million
psi	Pounds per square inch
PWS	Public water system
QA	Quality assurance
QC	Quality control
RAA	Running annual average
RSSCT	Rapid small-scale column test
TOC	Total organic carbon
THM	Trihalomethane
TTHM	Total trihalomethanes
TTHMFP	Total trihalomethane formation potential
UC1240AW	UltraCarb 1240 AW
UCF	University of Central Florida
VFD	Variable-frequency drive
WTP	Water treatment plant
µg/L	Micrograms per liter

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Since its inception, disinfection in the realm of drinking water has saved countless lives. Proper disinfection techniques inactivate pathogenic organisms that spread infectious disease. Despite the benefits, effective disinfection may lead to the formation of undesirable substances known as disinfection by-products (DBPs). While the toxicity of some of these compounds remains to be discovered, some have been shown to be carcinogenic in laboratory settings and pose other health risks. As a result, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) implemented Stage 1 and Stage 2 of the Disinfectant and Disinfection By-Products Rule (D/DBPR) to safeguard public health. Maximum contaminant levels (MCLs) were established for several types of DBPs and maximum residual disinfectant levels (MRDLs) were created to regulate disinfectant residuals in the distribution system. Compliance became based on a locational running annual average (LRAA) as opposed to the previously-used running annual average (RAA). The organic DBPs specified in Stage 1 of the D/DBPR include four species of trihalomethane (THM), collectively referred to as total trihalomethanes (TTHMs) and five species of haloacetic acid (HAA), collectively referred to as HAA₅.

This thesis presents assessments of two pilot-scale aeration methods for THM removal, a blending study designed to simulate granular activated carbon (GAC) bypass, and water quality data from within Polk County's (County) Waverly Public Water System (PWS) located near Waverly, FL. The Waverly PWS is fed from two different facilities treating groundwater: the Waverly Water Treatment Plant (WTP) and the Hodge Street WTP. Because both systems disinfect water via free chlorine, the DBPs of concern in this research are THMs and HAAs.

Pilot-scale spray and tray aeration systems were evaluated and blending study trials were conducted to examine their respective effects on DBP reduction; the acquired data was considered along with GAC-related findings based on vendor-provided data generated using bulk raw water samples from the Hodge Street WTP. The aeration studies were performed to assess the feasibility of utilizing spray and tray aerators to strip THMs from the water stream. Pilot-scale spray aeration was investigated to evaluate its potential for County use, possibly as an operation prior to entering a water storage tank. Recirculating tray aeration was also analyzed on a pilot-scale for possible use by the County to recirculate treated water through a storage tank equipped with a tray aerator. Both methods aim to remove THMs but fail to address HAA formation or proactively reduce DBP formation. For precursor and HAA removal, the strategy of GAC adsorption was considered. The blending study was conducted to explore bypass options around a GAC operation and investigate the extent to which blending affects the DBP formation potential (DBPFP) of the water. Concurrently, two types of GAC were compared by Dr. Adam Redding using isotherm adsorption models and rapid small-scale column tests (RSSCTs), as presented in Appendix C. The data from each facet of this research was compiled and evaluated to identify options available to reduce DBPFP and control associated chlorine residual levels within the Waverly PWS, considering the D/DBPR. The research culminated in a water quality master plan which combines recirculating tray aeration with GAC adsorption to address both THM and HAA reduction. The conceptual master plan was based on technical and economic considerations related to integrating GAC and recirculating aeration technologies to meet the Waverly PWS's compliance needs.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to Groundwater

Water that exists in the pore spaces between sand, rocks, and other earthen media below the surface is known as groundwater. In the United States, about 35% of consumers of public water are supplied with groundwater (Crittenden, Trussell, Hand, Howe, & Tchobanoglous, 2012). However, in Florida, about 17.7 million people or 93% of the population rely on groundwater for consumption as of 2012 (USGS, 2014). Hence, groundwater is an extremely valuable resource for Florida's population.

The Floridan Aquifer underlies the entire state of Florida, parts of southern Alabama and South Carolina, and southeastern Georgia. In total, it underlies approximately 100,000 square miles of the Southeastern United States and provides a source of drinking water for millions of people, both in urban and rural areas. The Floridan Aquifer is characterized by Karst topography; it is comprised of a sequence of carbonate rocks, particularly limestone and dolomite. The dissolution of carbonate rocks into water percolating into the reservoir creates numerous pores, fissures, and conduits that allow for greatly increased hydraulic conductivity when compared to many other subterranean reservoirs (USGS, 2015).

Groundwater has less particulate matter than surface water due to the filtration that occurs as the water percolates down toward the aquifer. However, it may still possess undesirable contaminants, anthropogenic or naturally-occurring. Some natural contaminants that may necessitate treatment include: metals, other inorganics such as arsenic, dissolved gasses, and a wide variety natural

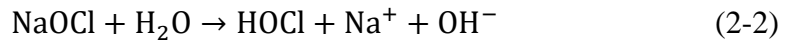
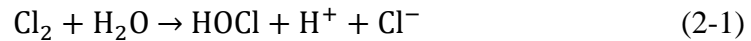
organic matter (NOM). NOM is an important component because it serves as a precursor for a variety of organic DBPs.

Disinfection of Water and Aqueous Chlorine Chemistry

Because raw water may contain pathogenic organisms, effective disinfection is arguably the most important step in the treatment process. Proper disinfection of potable water should aim to achieve the following: (1) proper elimination or inactivation of pathogens during treatment (2) prevention of pathogen recontamination in the distribution system, and (3) minimizing the formation of disinfection by-products in the distribution system. Inactivation occurs when the microorganisms are altered so that they are unable to cause disease; they may be outright killed or simply lose their ability to reproduce while infecting a host. Several different compounds have proven efficient in the task of disinfection. Chemicals such as chlorine gas (Cl_2) and chlorine dioxide (ClO_2) disinfect by oxidation mechanisms. These substances kill or inactivate microbes by oxidizing enzymes which are essential to the organism's metabolism (Richards, 1996). Ultraviolet radiation, conversely, disinfects by damaging the nucleic acids of pathogens, preventing reproduction of the targeted organism (Crittenden, et.al., 2012).

First implemented in a United States public water system in 1909, free chlorine is the traditional disinfectant and is effective at inactivating a vast array of pathogens (Sawyer, McCarty, & Parkin, 2003). Chlorine is commonly added to water streams via injection of elemental chlorine gas (Cl_2) or a hypochlorite-containing bleach such as sodium hypochlorite (NaOCl). Free chlorine produces a residual which helps prevent recontamination in the distribution system. In aqueous solutions,

both elemental chlorine and sodium hypochlorite react to form hypochlorous acid (HOCl). Equations (2-1) and (2-2) show the formation of HOCl by the means of Cl₂ and NaOCl addition.



The by-products formed, hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide, are a strong acid and a strong base, respectively. Hence, they ionize completely in aqueous solutions, often leading to changes in pH and/or alkalinity. Excess sodium hydroxide due to bleach addition, for example, will tend to cause an increase in pH and alkalinity (Crittenden et. al., 2012).

Hypochlorous acid is a weak acid; thus, it does not fully ionize in aqueous solutions. The degree of ionization and relative speciation between hypochlorous acid and its conjugate base, the hypochlorite ion, depends on pH. Equation (2-3) shows the dissociation of hypochlorous acid.



Free chlorine is considered the sum of the concentration of HOCl and OCl⁻. The pK_a of hypochlorous acid is 7.53 (Harris, 2009). In solutions with a pH below this level, hypochlorous acid prevails; above this level the hypochlorite ion quickly begins to dominate. Hypochlorous acid displays accelerated disinfection kinetics when compared to the hypochlorite ion and is typically the preferable species (Crittenden et. al., 2012). Hence, a slightly acidic pH is desirable (albeit not necessary) in processes where chlorine-based disinfection occurs. During disinfection with free chlorine, the species are ultimately reduced to chloride while pathogens are inactivated.

Disinfection By-Products and Associated Regulations

Chemical disinfectants operate via oxidation-reduction chemistries. These reactions involve the transfer of electrons and can lead to the decomposition of compounds as well as the formation of new species. As the study of water treatment progresses, more by-products are likely to become regulated and current regulations may become stricter.

The EPA began to expand on their existing DBP regulations in 1998 with the issuing of Stage 1 of the D/DBPR (Crittenden et. al., 2012). The purpose of Stage 1 was to reduce exposure of the public to DBPs, thereby improving immediate and long-term public health. Table 1 shows the MCLs established by the rule, given in mg/L and parts per billion (ppb). 1 microgram per liter ($\mu\text{g/L}$) is equivalent to 1 ppb. In addition to establishing MCLs for certain DBPs, Stage 1 also established MRDLs for chlorine, chloramines, and chlorine dioxide. The MRDL for chlorine is 4.0 mg/L as Cl_2 (USEPA, 2006).

Table 1: Regulated DBPs under the EPA's D/DBPR

By-Product	MCL under the D/DBPR	By-Product of
Total THMs (four species)	0.080 mg/L or 80 ppb	Chlorine
Five haloacetic acids (HAA ₅)	0.060 mg/L or 60 ppb	Chlorine
Bromate (BrO_3^-)	0.010 mg/L or 10 ppb	Ozone
Chlorite (ClO_2^-)	1.0 mg/L or 1 ppm	Chlorine dioxide

Stage 2 of the D/DBPR, enacted in 2006, tightened compliance monitoring for THMs and HAAs. It required utilities to conduct an initial distribution system evaluation to identify locations with the greatest DBP levels. In addition, it mandated that compliance of the new MCLs be assessed via LRAA as opposed to the RAA (USEPA, 2006). LRAAs require that the running annual average at each individual sampling location remain within the mandated MCLs. Using previous

RAA methods, compliance was determined based on an annual average of sampling sites throughout the entire system. The concentrations reported took the average of the entire distribution system. Hence, the LRAA provides better protection to public health and helps assure that the entirety of a system's consumers are receiving consistent DBP protection.

THMs and HAAs are halogenated organic molecules with one and two carbon atoms, respectively. While THMs strictly have three halogen atoms (and one hydrogen atom) attached to the single carbon atom, the regulated HAA species may possess one, two, or three halogen atoms. Of the halogens, the most commonly-found comprising halogenated DBPs are chlorine and bromine. Table 2 includes the specific DBP species of interest for the studies relating to this document. The four THMs and five HAA species are referred to as TTHMs and HAA₅, respectively. The TTHM concentration is found by adding together the individual concentrations of these four species; the same principle applies for the HAA₅ concentration. Other halogenated species such as iodinated DBPs exist but these listed have been specifically identified by the EPA for compliance testing.

Table 2: Chlorinated DBPs of Interest

Class of Compound	By-Product Name	Chemical Formula	By-Product of
Trihalomethanes	Chloroform	CHCl ₃	Chlorine
	Bromodichloromethane (BDCM)	CHBrCl ₂	Chlorine
	Dibromochloromethane (DBCM)	CHBr ₂ Cl	Chlorine
	Bromoform	CHBr ₃	Chlorine
Haloacetic acids	Dichloroacetic acid	CHCl ₂ COOH	Chlorine
	Trichloroacetic acid	CCl ₃ COOH	Chlorine
	Monochloroacetic acid	CH ₂ ClCOOH	Chlorine
	Dibromoacetic acid	CHBr ₂ COOH	Chlorine
	Monobromoacetic acid	CH ₂ BrCOOH	Chlorine

An important difference between THMs and HAAs is their relative volatilities. THMs are halogenated species of methane and are volatile. The most chlorinated of the species, chloroform, has the greatest volatility. As bromine atoms replace the chlorine atoms in the molecule, the volatility decreases due to bromine's increased mass and greater resistance to phase change. Bromoform, the most brominated of the THMs, may experience little, if any, volatilization with passive aeration methods, especially when compared to chlorine-containing THMs (Duranceau & Yoakum, 2017).

Factors Affecting THM and HAA Formation

THMs and HAAs are formed in water by reduction-oxidation reactions that occur between free chlorine and NOM. Both physical and chemical aspects can influence the rate and magnitude of DBP formation. Physical factors include qualities such as temperature and chlorine contact time; chemical characteristics such as the water's NOM profile, free chlorine dose, and presence of certain inorganic constituents also impact THM and HAA formation. Because free chlorine is typically dosed to achieve a residual that persists in the distribution system, systems using free chlorine typically experience continuous DBP formation throughout their distribution systems. However, certain microbes have the ability to biodegrade HAAs and microbes that lend to HAA degradation have been found in distribution system conduits. Generally, though, as the time NOM is exposed to residual chlorine in the distribution system increases, the concentrations of THMs and HAAs in the water can be expected to increase as well.

When oxidizing, the disinfectant tends to attack NOM at carbon-carbon double-bonds and reduced heteroatoms (i.e. nitrogen or sulfur). Although both hydrophobic and hydrophilic NOM can

contribute to the formation of these classes of DBP, one study demonstrated that hydrophobic fractions of NOM produced higher THM and HAA FPs in low-humic water. The same researchers found that hydrophilic NOM was more reactive with bromine than the corresponding hydrophobic fractions (Liang & Singer, 2003). Experimental evidence has suggested that HAA precursors tend to be of higher aromatic content than THM precursors (Rook, 1976). With respect to TTHMFP, it has been suggested that the molecular weight and physical properties of organic precursors may be more important than aromaticity (Karapinar, Uyak, & Topal, 2014). In addition, it was revealed that as the average molecular weight of NOM decreased, THM yield coefficients increased (Ozdemir, Toroz, & Uyak, 2013). In several studies, the formation of THMs increased while formation of HAAs decreased in response to increasing pH (Hung, B., Yemmireddy, & Huang, 2017). However, results in one study showed that concentrations of dihaloacetic acids (DHAAs) did increase under alkaline conditions (Hua & Reckhow, 2012). Lastly, temperature has shown to have a positive correlation with the formation of THMs and HAAs. The reaction kinetics of both compounds are temperature-sensitive and increase as water temperature increases.

Common Methods to Control DBPs

As knowledge of DBPs increases, new DBPs are identified, and regulations tighten, the ability to control DBP levels will become an increasingly important aspect of water treatment. Some traditional strategies employed for chlorine-based DBPs include:

1. Removal of DBP precursors (NOM, bromide, etc.)
2. Use of alternate disinfectant (i.e. chloramines, ozone, chlorine dioxide)
3. Removal of DBPs after formation (i.e. aeration or adsorption)

4. Optimization of chlorine contact and water age (i.e. system management and flushing)

Multiple strategies can be used in conjunction, if necessary. The overall choice may depend on many variables. Each approach to reducing DBPs has a unique set of consequences and specifications that must be considered if the solution is to prove both effective and efficient.

The first technique, removal of precursors, is highly effective in DBP control as it proactively prevents the creation of the unwanted by-products. Precursor removal is a common technique for reducing DBP formation. Organic precursors can be removed through a variety of methods. Conventional treatment with coagulation, GAC adsorption, and ion exchange are viable strategies (Richards, 1996). Waters with higher UV absorbance have been shown to be better candidates for organic removal via coagulation with alum than low-absorbance waters (Liang & Singer, 2003). With ferric chloride, it was shown that coagulation was able to remove approximately 85% of the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in a highly-organic Florida surface water (Duranceau and Yonge, 2012). GAC is a common and extremely effective solution for controlling precursors but can have limitations for economical removal if influent total organic carbon (TOC) levels are high (USEPA Technical Support Division, 1996).

Disinfectants other than free chlorine have become an increasingly popular choice in the United States. Each alternate disinfectant or disinfection approach will have different stipulations and effects that should be taken into consideration. For instance, disinfection with ozone and UV are not known to form THMs and HAAs yet neither of these disinfection processes provides a residual to protect the water from recontamination in the distribution system. Also, ozone can produce both organic (i.e. formadehyde) and inorganic (i.e. bromate) DBPs (Plummer & Edzwald, 2001).

Free chlorine can be carefully dosed with ammonia to form chloramines. The number of utilities using chloramines, also termed combined chlorine, rose to 30% in 2007 (Crittenden et. al., 2012). Although chloramines prevent the formation of the aforementioned DBPs, they have their own concerns. Retarded reaction kinetics, the creation of the toxic carcinogen N-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA), and possible chemical cost increases are some examples of consequences that may be incurred when utilizing combined chlorine for disinfection.

Once DBPs are formed, several methods exist to remove them from the water stream. These methods are generally dependent on the characteristics of the substance that is being targeted. For example, if the compound is known to be hydrophobic, adsorption with GAC or an ion exchange resin may be preferable. If the contaminant is volatile like THMs, air stripping may be a feasible method. Previous spray aeration conducted in Polk County has demonstrated a TTHM removal efficiency of approximately 50% when averaged between two tested spray nozzles (Duranceau & Smith, 2015). Additionally, a 43% reduction in TTHMFP over 96 hours was accomplished with multi-pass spray aeration (Duranceau & Yoakum, 2017).

DBP control can also be approached by proper management of chlorine contact and water age in the distribution system. Currently, the County aims to reduce DBP levels by managing these parameters. Chlorinated DBPs form following reaction kinetics; therefore, reducing the amount of time the water is in contact with free chlorine assists in reducing DBP levels. The County currently manipulates water age by utilizing automated flushing programs. Reducing volume in ground storage tanks also assists in decreasing water age and the time that DBPs are allowed to form. Although flushing programs may be effective at keeping DBP concentrations within compliance, improvement of the initial treatment process is often advantageous and should be

investigated to minimize water loss during flushing protocols. Both plants that feed the Waverly PWS have the immediate ability to convert to combined chlorine, if necessary. Chemical storage tanks, piping, and valves have been installed should DBP issues force the County to implement combined chlorine.

Air Stripping

In water treatment, it is often desirable to transfer contaminants from one phase to another. One such example is aeration techniques. The addition of gasses into the water is known as absorption while the removal of volatile substances from the water is known as desorption. While the general term ‘aeration’ refers to both absorption and desorption, air stripping specifically refers to desorption, converting matter from the liquid to gaseous phase and removing it from the water stream. Commonly stripped compounds during the treatment process include hydrogen sulfide, ammonia, and volatile organics (i.e. THMs).

Mass transfer between the liquid and gas phases requires a driving force such as a concentration gradient or pressure differential. The driving force in air stripping is primarily the difference between the existing and equilibrium concentrations in the two phases (Crittenden et. al., 2012). When the liquid remains in contact with a gas, a stationary film can form on each side of the interface, giving rise to the two-film model of mass transfer across an interface. Figure 1 shows the two-film model of air stripping. The concentration of solute in the air is less than the concentration in the bulk solution.

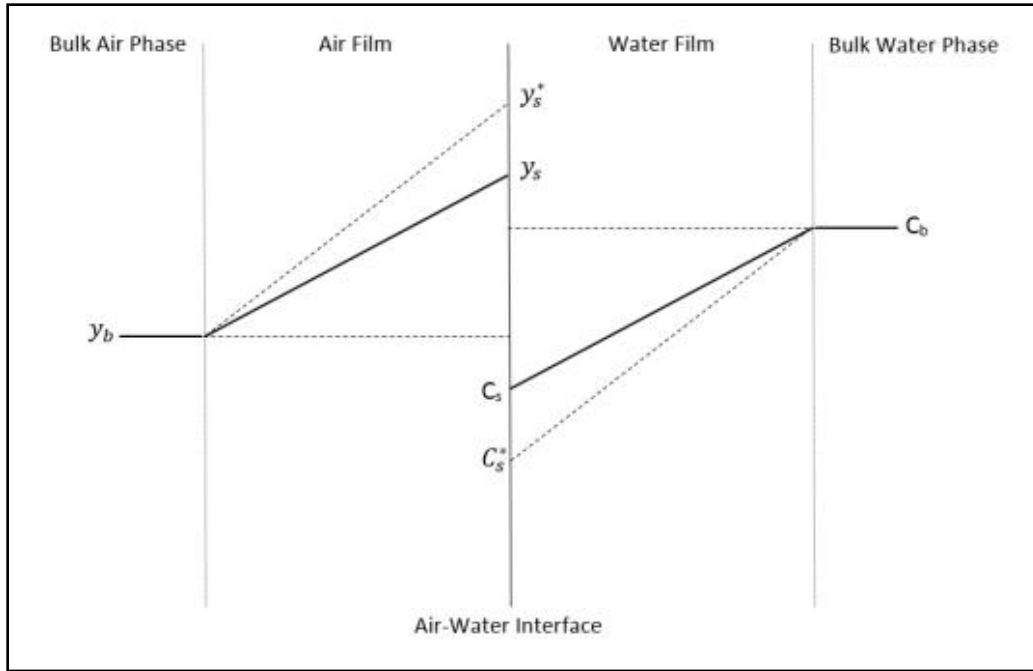


Figure 1: Diagram of the Two-Film Model for Stripping (Edzwald, 2001)

If the solute in the mixture is dilute, the separation of the substance between the liquid and gas interface is described by Henry's law:

$$H_{PX} = \frac{P_A}{X_A} \quad (2-4)$$

Where H_{PX} is termed Henry's constant, P_A is the partial pressure of the solute above the liquid interface, X_A is the mole fraction of solute in the liquid. In this form, the units of Henry's constant (H_{PX}) will be in terms of pressure (i.e. bar). A useful form of Henry's law occurs when the solute in both the gas and liquid phases is expressed as a concentration (Crittenden et. al., 2012).

$$H_{YC} = \frac{Y_A}{C_A} \quad (2-5)$$

Here, H_{YC} is the dimensionless form of Henry's constant while Y_A and C_A are the gas phase and liquid phase concentrations of solute A, respectively. This dimensionless form is commonly used in environmental engineering; the greater its value, the more volatile a substance is and, consequently, the more prone the substance is to being stripped from the water stream. Factors that can influence Henry's constant include temperature, pH, and ionic strength or the solution (Richards, 1996). The values of two forms of Henry's constant are given in Table 3. The dimensionless values were taken from (Duranceau & Smith, 2015).

Table 3: Henry's Constant Values

Trihalomethane	Henry's Constant @ 20°C (atm)	Dimensionless Henry's Constant @ 23°C
Chloroform	170	0.148
Bromodichloromethane	118	0.095
Dibromochloromethane	47	0.035
Bromoform	35	0.024

Aerators exist in many different forms and may facilitate both absorption and desorption simultaneously, stripping an undesirable contaminant while allowing for the absorption of air to oxygenate the water. The type of aerator used often depends on the primary goal of the aeration, whether it be absorption, desorption, or both. For example, tray aerators allow water to fall onto consecutive trays to produce thin films of water and tend to be used for the purpose of releasing gases. Mechanical aspirators, conversely, disperse a gas stream into the water with the main goal of adding gasses to the water. Spray aerators commonly allow for absorption and desorption simultaneously by spraying water through a nozzle, creating small droplets and resulting in a relatively large liquid-air interface. Diffusion (fine bubble) aerators convey compressed air or ozone through porous diffusers submerged in the water; this allows small bubbles to travel through

the water column, capturing volatile substances and transferring oxygen to the liquid phase during the bubbles' ascent (Richards, 1996).

The aeration assessments conducted in this study are focused on the stripping of THMs via spray and tray aerators. Important factors that affect the removal of contaminants include pH, water temperature, and the extent of the water-air interface. As the surface area of this interface increase, so does the ability of the solute to transfer across the interface and between phases. Therefore, when dealing with spray aeration, the average droplet diameter is important as is the travel distance of the droplet. In at least once instance, droplet travel distance appeared to be much more influential to THM removal than the diameter of the droplets (Brooke and Collins 2011). This same team found that spray aeration achieved THM removal rates of 20 to >99.5% while diffused aeration achieved THM removals ranging from 9 to >99.5%. In another past study, a single pass through a BETE TF10 spray nozzle was shown to remove approximately 55% and 48% of THMs at two different Central Florida locations (Duranceau and Smith 2012).

CHAPTER THREE: EXISTING CONDITIONS

Waverly Public Water System

The Waverly Public Water System (PWS #653-5707) is located in Polk County, Florida (County) and lies within the East Regional Utility Service Area. With over 600 service connections, the system services approximately 1,600 consumers. Source water for the Waverly PWS is groundwater from the Floridan Aquifer. The system distributes water provided by two separate production facilities: the Hodge Street WTP and the Waverly WTP. According to the County's 2017 capacity report, the entire Waverly system has an average daily flow rate of 138,000 gallons per day (gpd), only 32% of its permitted limit of 434,000 gpd (Polk County Utilities, 2017). The typical demand is such that, if necessary, one plant can feed the entire system while the other remains on standby. The location of the two plants that supply the Waverly PWS can be seen in Figure 2.

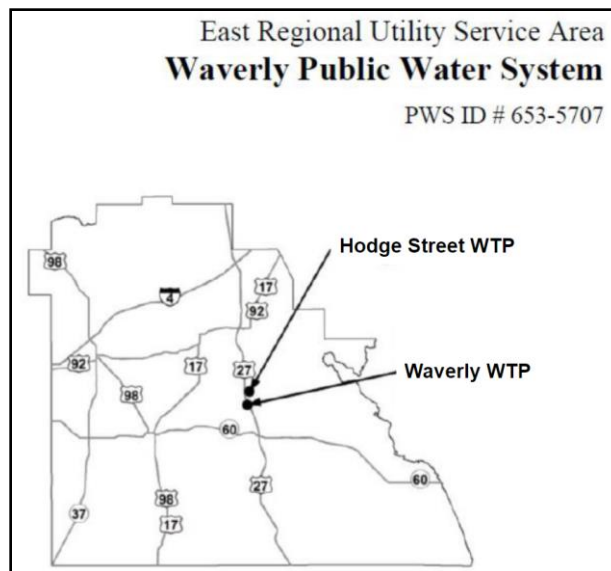


Figure 2: Waverly Public Water System

Waverly Water Treatment Plant

The Waverly WTP is located at 860 ½ Thompson Nursery Road in Lake Wales, FL 33853 and is supplied raw groundwater by a single 12-inch diameter well. The well is cased to 168 feet and fully extends to a depth of 700 feet. Raw water is drawn from the well by a 100-horsepower (hp) pump with a rated capacity of 1,500 gallons per minute (gpm). The facility’s treatment process consists of dosing blended poly-orthophosphate and sodium hypochlorite to the raw water for corrosion control and disinfection, respectively. Finished water is stored in two 30,000-gallon hydro-tanks. These larger hydro-tanks operate with an on pressure of 46 pounds per square inch (psi) and an off pressure of 60 psi.

The average monthly flow of the Waverly WTP is approximately 91,000 gpd and the maximum monthly average is almost 120,000 gpd. In the past 24 months, the maximum daily flow (MDF) experienced at the facility was 257,000 gpd. Table 4 displays average and extreme historical flow and process data recorded by the County over the last 24 months. A table displaying this data in greater detail can be found in Appendix A.

Table 4: Waverly WTP Flow and Chemical Process Data

	Monthly Avg. Flow	Monthly Max. Day Flow	POE Avg. Chlorine Residual	POE Max. Chlorine Residual	POE Phosphate Residual
Average	91,075	153,417	1.89	2.56	0.66
Minimum	54,800	75,000	1.61	2.09	0.45
Maximum	118,710	257,000	2.58	3.38	1.10

Table 5 shows the facility’s raw and finished water quality. The table comes from Tetra Tech’s 2017 Waverly evaluation and is a compilation of data acquired primarily by the University of Central Florida (UCF) and the County (Tetra Tech, 2017). Lastly, Figure 3 shows a simple diagram of the facility’s treatment process.

Table 5: Waverly WTP Raw and Finished Water Quality

Water Quality Parameter	Units	Raw Water	Finished Water
Temperature	°C	24.5	26.1
pH	-	7.9	7.5
Conductivity	µS/cm	308	345
Free Chlorine	mg/L	n/a	1.89
Oxidation Reduction Potential (ORP)	mV	-20	679
Calcium	mg/L as CaCO ₃	107	117
Magnesium	mg/L	13.4	13.2
Total Hardness	mg/L as CaCO ₃	162	159
Alkalinity	mg/L as CaCO ₃	143	142
Iron	mg/L	0.025	0.038
Manganese	mg/L	n/a	0.001
Ortho-phosphate	mg/L	n/a	1.3
Chloride	mg/L	8	18
Sulfate	mg/L	0.51	0.96
TDS	mg/L	151	188
Total Sulfides	mg/L	0.55	n/a
Hydrogen Sulfide	mg/L	0.2	n/a
Turbidity	NTU	0.07	0.55
Color	CU	<5	3.8
UV-254	cm ⁻¹	0.060	0.039
NPDOC	mg/L	1.76	1.73

n/a = not an applicable or tested parameter

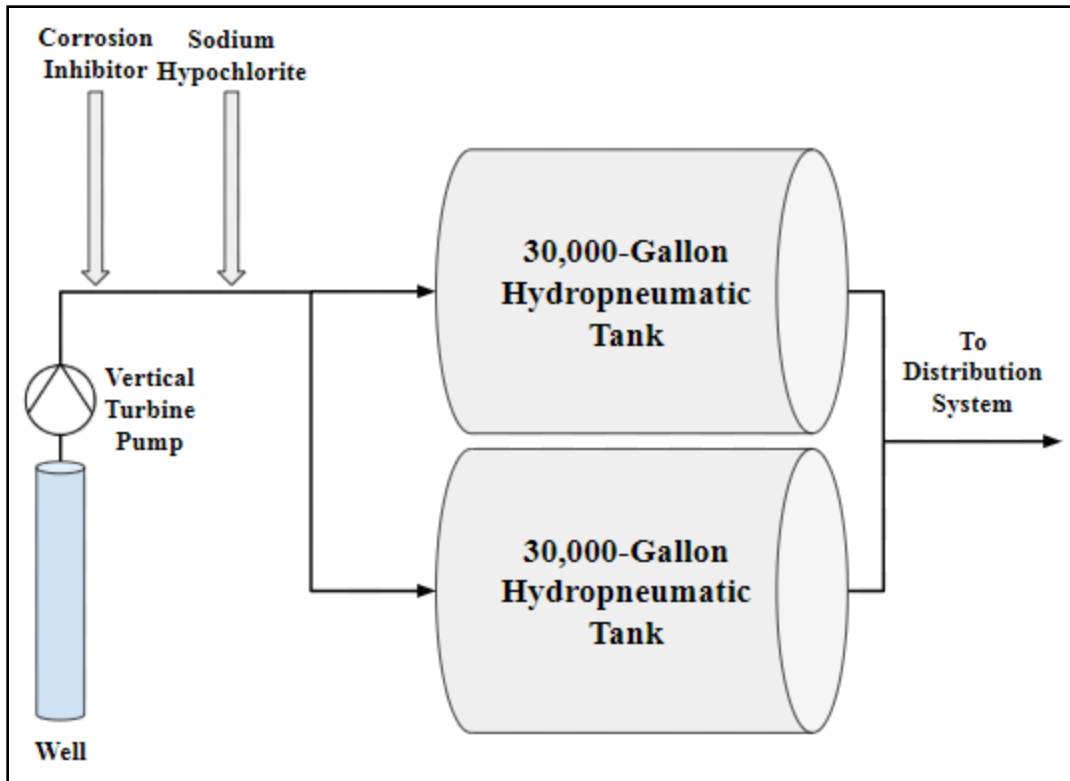


Figure 3: Simplified Waverly WTP Treatment Process Diagram

Hodge Street Water Treatment Plant

The Hodge Street Water Treatment Plant is located at 253 Hodge St. in Waverly, FL 33877. The raw source water is supplied by a single groundwater well. The well possesses a 12-inch diameter casing down to 400 feet while the entirety of the boring extends down to a depth of 700 feet. The well is equipped with a 100 hp vertical turbine pump with a rated capacity of 1,500 gpm. A blended poly-orthophosphate is added for corrosion inhibition after which the water is disinfected with sodium hypochlorite. The disinfected water flows into a single 15,000-gallon hydro-pneumatic storage tank, or hydro-tank where it is stored before entering the distribution system. The on and off pressures of this tank are 30 and 70 psi, respectively.

The facility's historical raw and finished water quality, shown in Table 6, also comes from Tetra Tech's 2017 evaluation.

Table 6: Hodge Street WTP Raw and Finished Water Quality

Water Quality Parameter	Units	Raw Water	Finished Water
Temperature	°C	23.6	23.0
pH	-	7.7	7.6
Conductivity	µS/cm	350	356
Free Chlorine	mg/L	n/a	1.17
Oxidation Reduction Potential (ORP)	mV	-47	626
Calcium	mg/L as CaCO ₃	132	108
Magnesium	mg/L	13.3	13.4
Total Hardness	mg/L as CaCO ₃	159	163
Alkalinity	mg/L as CaCO ₃	158	151
Iron	mg/L	0.04	0.03
Manganese	mg/L	0.01	0.002
Ortho-polyphosphate	mg/L	n/a	0.2
Chloride	mg/L	19	19
Sulfate	mg/L	0.77	2.07
TDS	mg/L	183	198
Total Sulfides	mg/L	0.41	n/a
Hydrogen Sulfide	mg/L	0.25	n/a
Turbidity	NTU	0.60	0.90
Color	CU	11.81	8.00
UV-254	cm ⁻¹	0.11	0.04
TOC	mg/L	3.02	n/a
NPDOC	mg/L	2.96	1.84

n/a = not an applicable or tested parameter

The average monthly flow of the facility is just over 17,000 gpd and the maximum monthly average is approximately 60,000 gpd. The MDF from the facility in the last 24 months was more

than 180,000 gpd. Table 7 shows extreme and average flow and process data from the past 24 months; Appendix A gives this data in greater detail. A process flow diagram of the facility is shown in Figure 4. The Hodge Street facility possesses one fourth of the storage volume of the Waverly WTP. Aside from this, the diagrams are very similar.

Table 7: Hodge Street WTP Flow and Chemical Process Data

	Monthly Avg. Flow	Monthly Max. Day Flow	POE Avg. Chlorine Residual	POE Max. Chlorine Residual	POE Phosphate Residual
Average	17,094	54,083	1.17	1.97	0.73
Minimum	133	3,000	0.41	0.73	0.51
Maximum	59,484	182,000	2.64	3.29	1.39

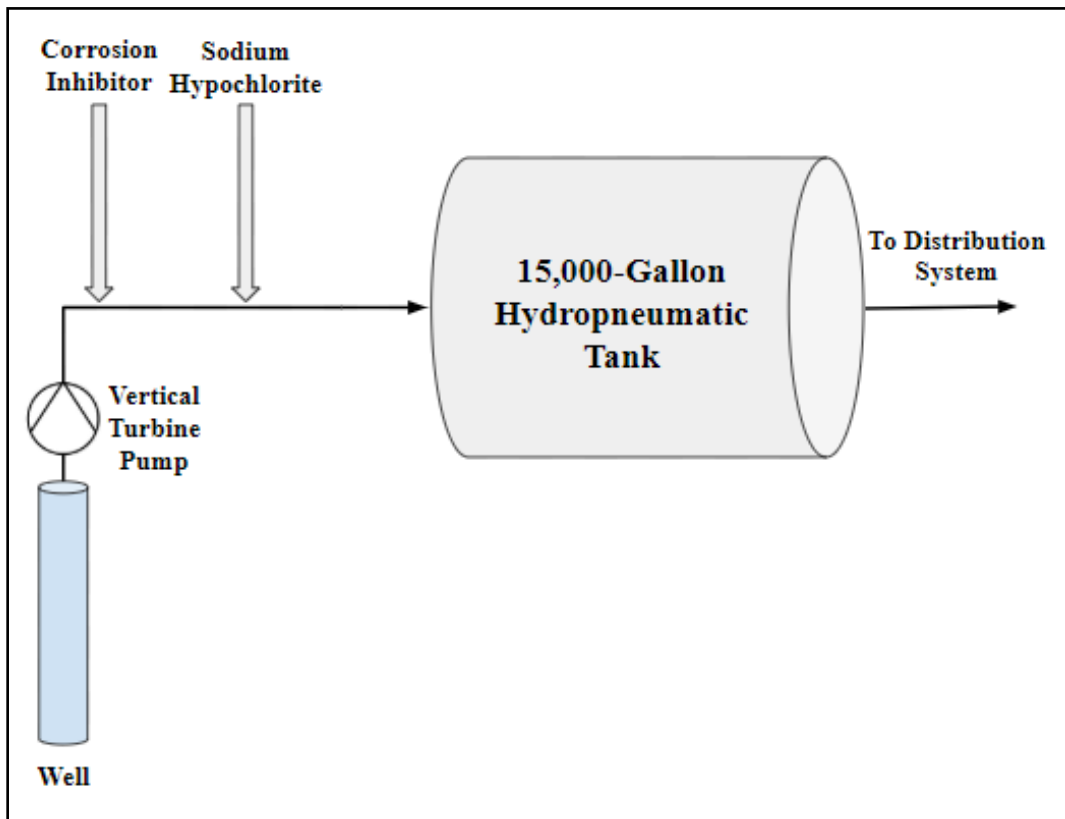


Figure 4: Simplified Hodge Street WTP Treatment Process Diagram

CHAPTER FOUR: MATERIALS AND METHODS

Overview of Studies

The objective of this research was to investigate methods to control DBP levels throughout the Waverly PWS with a particular focus on air stripping methods and GAC adsorption. Different studies were conducted, and data collected from the studies was compiled and used to develop a conceptual master plan for the County. The studies discussed herein include: (1) Assessing basic water quality and DBP information for the Hodge Street WTP, Waverly WTP, and distribution system points in the Waverly PWS, (2) Evaluating single-pass spray aeration's effects on THM concentration and FP as well as associated chlorine residual, (3) Evaluating the same THM and chlorine properties with recirculating tray aeration, and (4) Raw water blending study intended to model GAC bypass and its effects on HAA formation and chlorine residual.

Standard Equipment and Protocols

Table 8 shows some of the additional standards that were kept constant across the different studies and trials of the research. Samples were collected and handled in accordance with Standard Methods 1060 B: Collection of Samples and 1060 C: Sample Storage and Preservation (American Public Health Association, 2017). An incubation temperature of 30°C was used for both THM and HAA analyses; this was to simulate summer conditions when elevated temperatures can lead to increased DBP levels in the distribution system. Samples assessed in the laboratory were brought to ambient laboratory temperature (20°C) before testing began.

Table 8: Miscellaneous Standards and Protocols

Parameter	Standard Protocol
Water quality collections	1-liter amber glass or plastic vessel
THM collections	60-mL amber glass
HAA collections	125-mL amber glass
Chlorine residual collections	60-mL amber glass
Sample storage temperature	4°C
Laboratory temperature	20°C
THM incubation temperature	30°C
HAA incubation temperature	30°C

Methods, Equipment, and Chemical Reagents

A variety of chemical substances were used during the research. Table 9 shows the chemical reagents that were used throughout the research and a brief description of each. Table 10 provides a tabulated list of the tests conducted as well as some information regarding the location, methods, and equipment used.

Table 9: Chemical Reagents Used

Chemical	Description
DPD free chlorine reagent	Powder pillows used in measuring free chlorine residual
pH standard solutions	For calibration of pH probe; includes standards of pH 4,7, and 10
KCl standard solution	For calibration of conductivity probe
Sodium sulfite	Crystalline powder; used to make quenching solution to halt formation of THMs
Ammonium chloride	Crystalline powder; used to make quenching solution to halt formation of HAAs
Hexane	ACS-grade; used for liquid-liquid THM extractions
Trihalomethane calibration standard	100 g/L stock solution; used in creation of standard curves and spikes in THM analyses
Sodium hypochlorite	Measured at 4.6%; used for simulating plant chlorination during blending assessment
Sulfuric acid	0.185 N solution; used in titrations to calculate alkalinity

Table 10: List of Methods and Equipment for Water Analyses

Test	Test Location	Method	Equipment Description	Minimum Reporting Level	Preservation Technique
pH	UCF Laboratory/field	SM: 4500-H+ B. Electrometric Method	HACH HQ40D pH and temperature probe	0.1 pH units	Analyze immediately
Temperature	UCF Laboratory/field	SM: 2550 B. Laboratory and Field Methods	HACH HQ40D pH and temperature probe	0.1 °C	Analyze immediately
Free Chlorine	UCF Laboratory	HACH Method 8021	HACH Spectrophotometer DR5000	0.02 mg/L as Cl ₂	Analyze immediately
HAA ₅	Advanced Environmental Laboratory (AEL)	SM:5710C	Agilent 6890N Network Gas Chromatograph	3 µg/L	Ammonium chloride, 4 °C in the dark
TTHM	UCF Laboratory	SM: 6232 B: Liquid-Liquid Extraction Gas Chromatographic	Perkin Elmer Clarus 580 Gas Chromatographer	8.0 µg/L TTHM	Sodium sulfite, 4 °C in the dark
Alkalinity	UCF Laboratory	SM: 2320 B. Titration Method	Sulfuric acid; glass burette; Accumet XL600 dual-channel analyzer	5.0 mg/L as CaCO ₃	Analyze immediately
Conductivity	UCF Laboratory/field	SM: 2510 B. Laboratory Method	HACH HQ40D conductivity probe	0.01 µS/cm	Analyze immediately
Turbidity	UCF Laboratory/field	SM: 2130 B. Nephelometric Method	HACH 2100N Laboratory Turbidity Meter	0.01 NTU	Analyze immediately
Calcium	UCF Laboratory	SM: 3120 B. Inductively Coupled Plasma (ICP) Method	Perkin Elmer Optima 2100 DV	0.01 mg/L	2% Nitric Acid
Magnesium	UCF Laboratory	SM: 3120 B. Inductively Coupled Plasma (ICP) Method	Perkin Elmer Optima 2100 DV	0.001 mg/L	2% Nitric Acid
NPDOC	UCF Laboratory	SM: 5130 C. Persulfate-Ultraviolet or Heated-Persulfate Oxidation Method	Teledyne Tekmar Total Organic Carbon Fusion UV/Persulfate Analyzer	0.01 mg/L	2% Phosphoric Acid
UV-254	UCF Laboratory	SM: 2120C Spectrophotometric Single-Wavelength Method	HACH Spectrophotometer DR5000	0.001 cm ⁻¹	Analyze immediately

TOC/GAC Analysis

The first site visit was to the Hodge Street facility on June 29, 2017. Water was collected in 2.5-gallon collapsible polyethylene vessels, kept refrigerated overnight at UCF, and transferred to Evoqua personnel the next day for TOC and GAC analyses at their laboratories. The full report generated by Evoqua's Dr. Adam Redding can be found in Appendix C. Results developed by his studies were used in design considerations for the master plan.

Water Quality and Baseline DBP Data

Several site visits were made to the Waverly and Hodge Street facilities and surrounding distribution system to assess raw water quality and FP of DBPs in the finished waters. Formation curves were generated by collecting freshly chlorinated water samples from the facilities' hydro-tanks and incubating them to allow DBPs to form. In order to acquire freshly chlorinated water that was relatively free of DBPs, the hydro-tanks were flushed prior to collection. Periodic chlorine readings helped indicate when complete flushing had occurred. Each DBP sample was incubated for specific pre-designated time-period before being quenched with the exception of the time-zero points which were quenched immediately upon collection. The time points included in the Waverly DBP formation curve were: 0, 1, 4, 10, 22, 46, and 94 hours. The time points for the Hodge Street DBP formation curve included: 0, 2, 12, 24, and 48 hours. Time points were reflective of both logistics as well as each water's individual TTHMFP; it was preferable that the

final time point measured be sufficiently long enough to begin to show somewhat asymptotic behavior in the curve.

Spray Aeration

Purpose

The effects of single-pass spray aeration on TTHM concentrations and formation potential were investigated. The feasibility of spray aeration as a control method for THMs in the Waverly PWS was explored. As HAA species are not removed effectively via aeration, analysis of these compounds was limited in the study.

Materials

The nozzle used in the study was the BETE TF 10CFM brass spray nozzle, shown in Figure 5. The nozzle was chosen due its simplistic one-piece design, consistent spray pattern, and resistance to particulate fouling and plugging. Some of the nozzle's specifications are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: BETE Spray Nozzle Specifications

Parameter	Value
Manufacturer	BETE
Model	TF 10 FCN
Material of construction	Brass
Nozzle/spray shape	Spiral/ full cone
Spray angle	60 degrees
Rated flow	4 gpm, 15.1 L/min
Standard pressure	40 psi, 2.8 bar



Figure 5: BETE Spray Nozzle

The tubing used to attach the spray nozzle to the Hodge Street hydro-tank's sampling port was a US Plastics braided PVC tubing. A clean 2000mL glass beaker was used to collect the spray-aerated droplets after they passed through the nozzle. Droplet fall distance was approximately 18 inches. Figure 6 shows a simple diagram of the assembly.

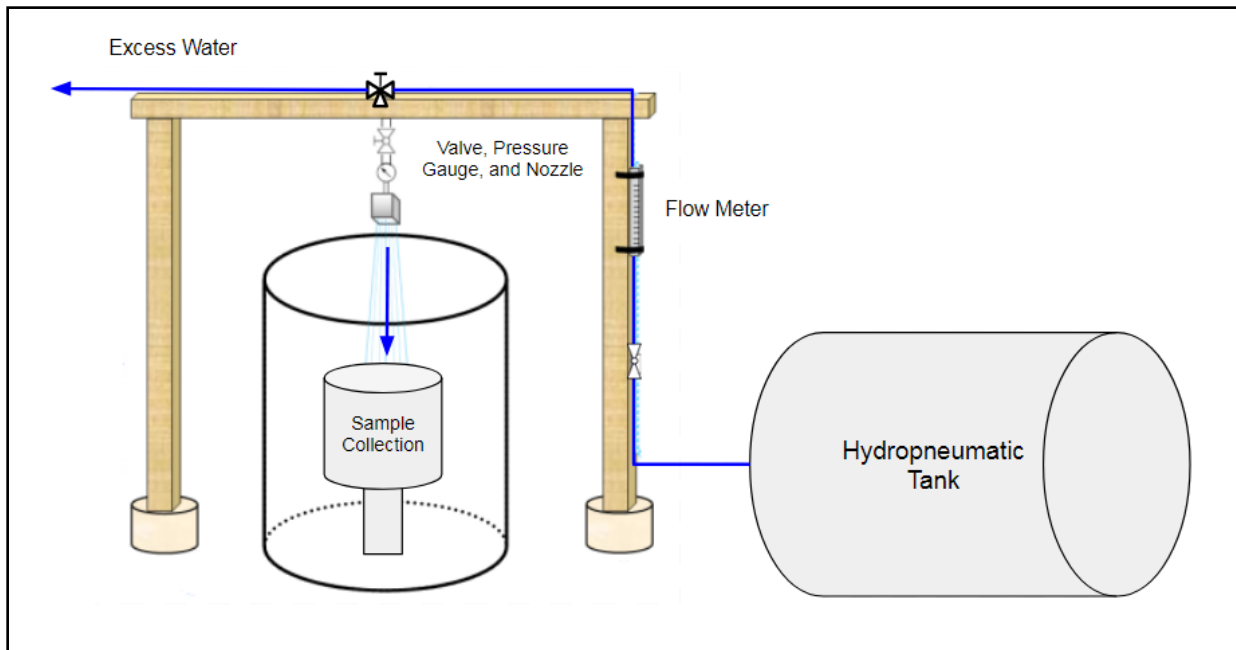


Figure 6: Spray Aeration Assembly (not to scale)

Methods

On August 14, 2017, a site visit was made to the Hodge Street facility. Unlike the generation of the baseline DBP curves, assessing the efficacy of spray aeration on THM reduction required that the water inside the hydro-tank (termed in-situ water) possess a sufficient concentration of THMs. To accomplish this, the hydro-tank was not flushed prior to spray aeration and collection. Instead, the in-situ water had been residing in the tank upward of 12 hours. The free chlorine residual of this in-situ water was 2.1 mg/L.

First, water was taken directly from the hydro-tank without being passed through the spray nozzle and collected in the 2000 mL glass beaker. This water was termed 'unaerated' and was transferred to the necessary amber glass vessels. The TTHMFP curve consisted of five different time points: 0, 4, 7, 24, and 48 hours with two samples taken for each time point. Therefore, ten (10) THM samples were collected. In addition, two (2) HAA samples were collected from the unaerated water.

The BETE spray nozzle was then attached to the hydro-tank's sampling port by the PVC tubing and a threaded PVC fitting. Water was passed through the spray nozzle once at a flow rate of 3 gpm and collected in the glass beaker. The pressure was measured to be 28 psi and was kept constant during the study. Once sufficient water had accumulated in the glass vessel, it was transferred to the appropriate amber glass vessels. Like the unaerated water, ten (10) mL THM samples and two (2) HAA samples were collected for the spray-aerated water.

The four (4) time-zero THM samples were quenched immediately upon collection using sodium sulfite while the other 16 THM samples were taken back to UCF labs and incubated at 30°C for

their pre-designated time periods. Each sample was quenched after it had been incubated for its specified amount of time.

Of the four (4) total HAA samples collected, one (1) of the spray-aerated water's HAA samples was incubated at 30°C for 24 hours before quenching while the other remaining aerated sample was incubated for 48 hours. This same procedure was followed for the two (2) unaerated samples with quenching after 24 and 48 hours. Because the HAA species have extremely low volatility, it was expected that spray aeration would have unnoticeable effects on HAA concentrations. Samples which had been incubated for comparable periods of time were expected to have negligible differences in concentrations and could essentially be considered duplicates of each other, regardless of whether the sample had been aerated or not.

Tray Aeration

Purpose

This assessment analyzed the reduction of TTHM concentration and formation potential after aeration with a tray aerator. However, unlike the spray aeration which examined a single pass through the aerator, a recirculating assembly was designed to allow for successive passes to be made through the cascading, tray-type aerator. The DBP formation potentials of waters aerated for various periods of time were compared and respective chlorine residuals were also analyzed.

Materials

A pilot-scale tray aerator was constructed for the purpose of assessing THM volatilization via tray aeration for the Waverly system's groundwater. The five trays that comprise the tray aerator were 55-centimeter (cm) long corrugated splash blocks. The width of these trays tapered in from 24 cm

to 15 cm, giving each tray an approximate surface area of 0.11 square meters (m^2). With five trays, the entire configuration possesses a total tray surface area of 0.55 m^2 . These trays were arranged in such a way that they allowed water to cascade through each successive tray and into a reservoir. The reservoir, a 55-gallon vessel manufactured by US Plastics, was equipped with a small Iwaki magnetic-driven centrifugal pump. The pump would allow for water in the reservoir to be recirculated back to the top of the tray aerator, allowing for multiple passes through the tray assembly. Trays were coated with clean aluminum foil to prevent the water from contacting non-NSF approved materials. A brief schematic of the tray aerator is shown in Figure 7; Figure 8 shows the trays from two different angles.

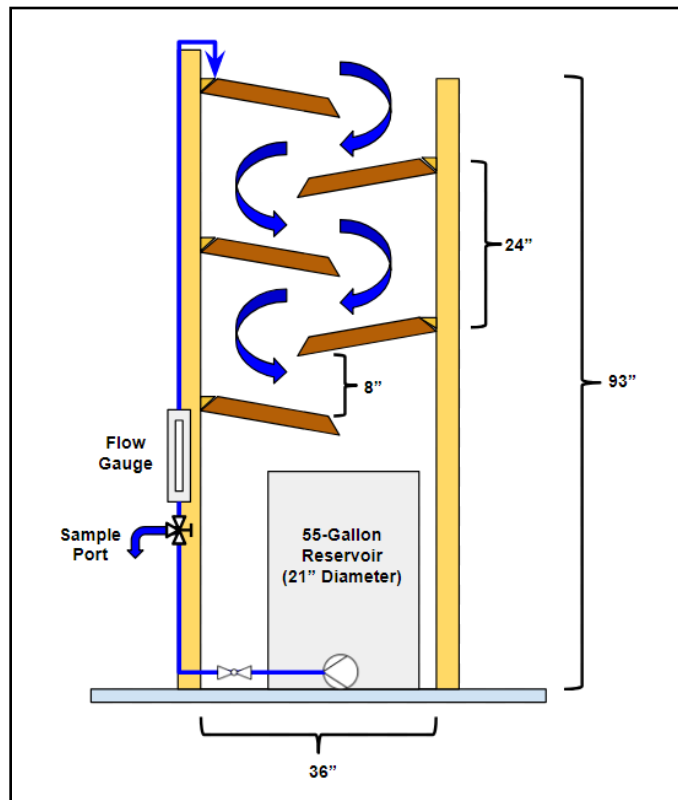


Figure 7: Simple Schematic of Tray Aerator

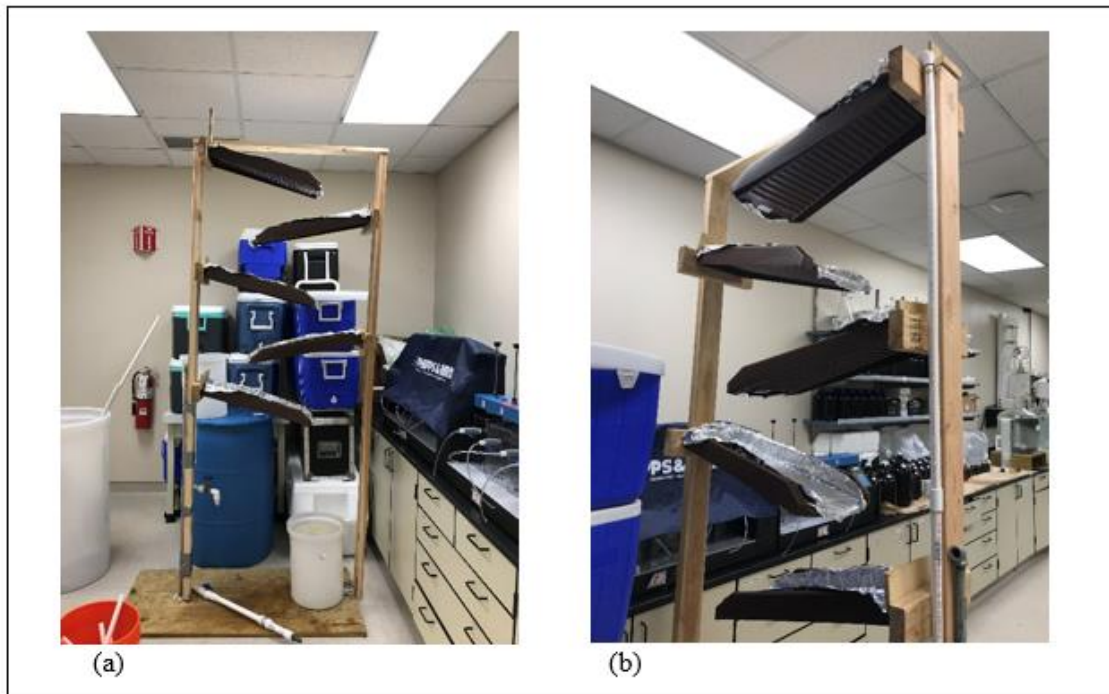


Figure 8: Tray Aerator from (a) Front (b) Side

Methods

On September 26, 2017, in situ water from the Hodge Street facility's hydro-tank was collected in a large drum. As with the spray aeration study, it was necessary to use water that had resided in the hydro-tank for sufficient time to possess an adequate concentration of THMs. Three (3) THM samples and one (1) HAA sample were collected and quenched immediately in the field to explore the in situ DBP levels prior to aeration. The samples and collected bulk water were transported to UCF laboratories where the study was conducted.

30 gallons of the water was transferred to the aerator's 55-gallon reservoir in a manner that minimized turbulence and aeration. Three (3) time-zero THM samples and one (1) time-zero HAA sample were collected and quenched immediately prior to the study's commencement. Once tray

aeration was initiated, THM samples were taken in triplicate every ten (10) minutes and quenched along with two (2) free chlorine readings. Because the pump operated at three (3) gpm and the reservoir contained 30 gallons of chlorinated water, every ten (10) minutes constituted a volumetric turnover of the reservoir, herein defined as a 'pass'. Three (3) THM samples continued to be collected and quenched after each pass until six (6) passes had occurred. At this point, the triplicate THM samples were collected, quenched, and the water was left to recirculate for an additional hour.

After 12 passes (two hours of recirculation) had occurred, six (6) THM samples and three (3) HAA samples were collected and analyzed; six (6) free chlorine samples were also taken to monitor chlorine consumption over time. Two (2) of the THM samples and one (1) HAA sample were quenched immediately. The same number of samples (two THMs and one HAA) were quenched at a later time, after being incubated for approximately 12 hours. The last set was quenched after approximately a full day of incubation had passed. This procedure was repeated after the water had recirculated through the tray aerator for 12 hours (72 passes). Monitoring the THM re-formation in the aliquots which had been aerated for two (2) and 12 hours helped gauge the degree to which air stripping impacted the water's ability to create THM species after they have been removed.

Simulation of GAC Bypass Study

Purpose

This study aimed to gain a better understanding of the DBP and chlorine-related effects of various raw water blends. The conceptual master plan specific to Hodge Street includes an opportunity to

complement granular activated carbon (GAC) adsorption treatment for the effective removal of organic precursors with aeration technologies for the removal of formed THMs. However, passing the entirety of the facility's supply water through the GAC adsorption vessels is neither necessary nor cost-effective. Therefore, different bypass ratios should be examined to determine a feasible flow that could be slip-streamed around the GAC vessels. To investigate the characteristics and impacts of bypass blending, an evaluation consisting of two trials was conducted. The trials assessed DBP formation potential and chlorine consumption for Hodge Street's raw water and for various blended raw water ratios.

Materials

Raw groundwater from the Hodge Street WTP was collected in 20-L low-density polyethylene collapsible vessels. To represent water which had passed through GAC adsorption, distilled water from the UCF laboratory was used as it is virtually free of organics. The choice to blend the raw water with de-ionized water as opposed to water that had been passed through GAC was made due to time constraints within the project's scope. Chlorination was accomplished with a laboratory-grade sodium hypochlorite solution. Both the Waverly and Hodge Street WTPs accomplish disinfection by injection sodium hypochlorite into the water stream.

Methods

On December 8, 2017, a site visit to the Hodge Street Water Treatment Plant (WTP) was made. Raw groundwater was pumped to the surface via the facility's well, collected in plastic vessels, and returned to UCF's laboratories. The vessels were kept at 4°C until initiation of testing, at which point the vessels were warmed up to ambient laboratory temperature ($\approx 20^\circ\text{C}$). The water

was not chlorinated or chemically altered prior to commencement of testing. Three (3) different ratios of raw water to de-ionized (DI) water were chosen for the first trial: 1:0 (100% raw), 3:1 (75% raw), and 1:1 (50% raw). When creating the different blend ratios, DI water was used to simulate GAC-treated water as it is virtually free of NOM.

The hypochlorite solution was standardized and found to be 4.6% pure. The dose of hypochlorite solution was then adjusted until an initial free chlorine reading of approximately 3 mg/L was obtained in a 200 mL sample of raw water. When the raw water was dosed at 6.5 mg/L, the free chlorine residual after the initial chlorine demand was satisfied was 3.4 mg/L. Thus, a chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L was used for the first trial of this study.

Four (4) liters of each blend were produced and dosed with identical amounts of hypochlorite solution and initial free chlorine readings were taken after the solution had been allowed to mix for about 20 seconds on a magnetic stir plate. Because protected ground water supplies are essentially free of DBPs prior to disinfection, initial THM and HAA concentrations were assumed to be zero. Aliquots were prepared for each of the three blends to allow for one (1) THM and two (2) free chlorine samples to be quenched every 24 hours, for up to 96 hours (12 samples for each blend). Four (4) HAA samples (one for each blend with a duplicate for the 100% raw water) were collected and quenched with ammonium chloride after 24 hours of incubation. The samples were incubated at 30°C until their designated quenching times to simulate summer-time conditions and encourage DBP formation. Quenched THM and HAA samples were placed in a walk-in cooler at 4°C. HAA analysis was conducted off-site by Advanced Environmental Laboratories (AEL), 528 Northlake Blvd., No. 1016, Altamonte Springs, FL (32701).

Another site visit to the Hodge Street facility was made on February 22, 2018 to conduct a second trial. Raw water was gathered in five (5)-gallon plastic vessels and brought back to UCF laboratories. This trial differed from the first in the following ways:

1. Increased focus on water quality data (NPDOC, UV-254, alkalinity)
2. Increased focus on HAA concentrations (no THMs)
3. Two different chlorine doses were analyzed (6.5 mg/L and 3.25 mg/L)
4. Only 100% raw water and the 50% blend were analyzed

The water was stored at 4°C and brought to ambient temperature (20°C) before performing laboratory tests. First, four (4) liters of the 50% blend was prepared in a large plastic container and a water quality assessment was conducted. One (1) liter of the blend was then taken for NPDOC, UV-254, and other analyses. Next, the 50% blend was dosed at 3.25 mg/L of free chlorine; this dose is half of the 6.5 mg/L dose used in the first trial. After 20 seconds on a stir plate, the free chlorine residual was measured. As the initial chlorine measurements were being taken, two (2) free chlorine samples were taken for future readings, one to be read at the 24-hour mark and one at the 48-hour mark. Also, two (2) HAA samples were collected to be read at the 24- and 48-hour marks. After these samples were collected, the plastic container that had held the blend was emptied and cleaned. The same procedure was followed using the first trial's chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L.

After both chlorine doses had been applied to the 50% blend and the necessary aliquots were collected, the undiluted raw water was prepared and the procedure was repeated as with the 50% blend. The lower chlorine dose of 3.25 mg/L was added and, after the one (1) NPDOC sample, two (2) free chlorine samples, and two (2) HAA samples were taken, the plastic container

was emptied and cleaned, the water was replaced, and the higher chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L was added with the same sample collections being made for a fourth time.

Field and Laboratory Quality Control

The quality assurance (QA) and quality control (QC) parameters were derived in accordance with Standard Methods SM: 1010B Statistics and SM: 1020B Quality Control. Two types of control charts commonly used in laboratories: accuracy (means) charts for QC samples and precision (range) charts for replicate or duplicate analyses (American Public Health Association, 2017).

Accuracy

The average and standard deviation of spiked THM samples were used in the creation of the accuracy chart. Percent recovery was calculated for each spiked sample processed by the GC using Equation (3-1).

$$\% Recovery = \left(\frac{C_{sample+spike} - C_{sample}}{C_{spike}} \right) \times 100\% \quad (4-1)$$

Warning and control levels were established to assess consistency of spiking methods and GC analysis. The upper and lower warning limits were defined as plus or minus two standard deviations from the mean while the control limits were plus or minus three standard deviations, as shown in Equations (3-2) and (3-3).

$$UWL = \mu + 2s \text{ and } LWL = \mu - 2s \quad (4-2)$$

$$UCL = \mu + 3s \text{ and } LCL = \mu - 3s \quad (4-3)$$

In these equations, μ is the mean and s is the standard deviation of the data set. Data points that fell outside of the control limits were considered illegitimate and disregarded.

Precision

The industrial “I-statistic” is calculated using Equation (3-4); it helps monitor variations of replicates and duplicates during THM analyses. Unlike accuracy charts, only upper warning and control limits are meaningful in precision charts.

$$I = \frac{|sample\ result - duplicate\ result|}{(sample\ result + duplicate\ result)} \quad (4-4)$$

$$UWL = I_{avg} + 2s \quad (4-5)$$

$$UCL = I_{avg} + 3s \quad (4-6)$$

As with the accuracy charts, values that fell outside of the control limits were not considered. If any two successive points exceeded the warning limits, a control violation was declared.

Many of the data gathered for this research was compiled from several different sources, including the County, previous UCF studies, and private firms. Consequently, it was necessary to rely on the historical data provided and assume that the data had been evaluated with a sufficient QA protocol. Judgement was exercised concerning which sources were most reliable and historical data was sometimes cross-referenced to assess consistency.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Basic Water Quality and Baseline DBP Data

TOC Data and GAC Findings

Evoqua’s testing showed that the Hodge Street facility’s raw water had an average TOC concentration of 3.6 mg/L. While both GACs tested were able to adsorb the vast majority of the raw water’s organics, the coal-based UC1240AW demonstrated an advantage both in the RSSCTs and isotherm adsorption tests when compared to the AC1230CX. The UC1240AW appeared to keep effluent TOC levels lower for longer periods of time. A complete report detailing the results of the study can be found in Appendix C.

Raw Water Quality

Table 12 shows raw water quality data collected in the field. Basic water quality parameters were assessed on-site during site visits. The raw water was taken prior to the disinfection process; therefore, free chlorine is not included in the table.

Table 12: Raw Water Quality – Field Data

Water Quality Parameter	July 2017	August 2017	December 2017	February 2018
Temperature (°C)	27.5	27.3	24.9	22.8
pH	7.40	7.52	7.61	7.73
Conductivity (µS/cm ²)	336	363	350	338
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	1.0	1.7	2.2	2.0
Turbidity (NTU)	0.33	0.55	0.30	0.19

Table 13 shows additional data regarding some of the organic and inorganic constituents of the raw water. Apart from the TOC measurement, the values were derived from tests conducted at UCF’s laboratories.

Table 13: Raw Water Quality - Laboratory Data

Water Quality Parameter	Average Value
TOC* (mg/L)	3.6
Non-purgeable dissolved organic carbon (NPDOC) (mg/L)	2.7
Calcium (mg/L)	41.3
Magnesium (mg/L)	8.6
Alkalinity (mg/L as CaCO ₃)	153
UV-254	0.104

*Conducted by Evoqua Water Technologies

Hodge Street WTP Water Quality

Table 14 shows the basic water quality data recorded on the initial site visit to the Hodge Street WTP. Table 15 contains data from a more detailed water quality assessment in which water residing in the hydro-tank for a considerable period was analyzed along with four different points in the distribution system. During the sampling event, the entire Waverly PWS was being fed water solely from the Hodge Street facility; the Waverly facility was on standby.

Table 14: Hodge Street WTP Water Quality (July 2017)

Water Quality Parameter	Well (Raw)	Raw w/ Polymer	Chlorinated	POE
Temperature (°C)	27.5	27.3	27.3	28.2
pH	7.40	7.46	7.47	7.43
Conductivity (µS/cm ²)	336	349	368	392
Dissolved Oxygen (mg/L)	1.0	1.4	2.7	3.0
Turbidity (NTU)	0.33	0.17	0.69	0.50
Free Chlorine (mg/L)	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.9

Table 15: Hodge Street WTP and System Data during Hodge Street-Only Operation

Parameter/Sample	In-Situ	HS Site #0 (POE)	HS Site #1	HS Site #2	HS Site #3
pH	7.64	7.49	7.47	7.44	7.47
Temperature (°C)	26.3	26	24.9	25.2	25.6
Turbidity (NTU)	2.26	0.56	0.94	1.71	0.16
Conductivity (µS/cm ²)	400	403	362	366	404
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L).	5.59	5.35	5.73	5.69	4.32
Free chlorine (mg/L)	2.1	2.0	0.7	1.0	0.6
NPDOC (mg/L)	2.46	2.48	1.97	2.35	1.76
Calcium (mg/L)	41.2	41.4	40.3	41.1	40.5
Magnesium (mg/L)	8.8	8.7	9.1	8.9	9.0
Alkalinity (mg/L as CaCO ₃)	157	167	148	150	148
UV-254 (cm ⁻¹)	.07	.069	.04	.054	.045
TTHM concentration (ppb)	45	57	46	93	72
HAA ₅ concentration (ppb)	65	72	41	68	60

Waverly WTP Water Quality

During the site visit to the Waverly WTP, a basic water quality assessment was conducted with water that had been residing in the hydro-tank for some time. The tank was flushed, and an additional assessment was conducted. Also, three distribution system points were analyzed. The data gathered from the event is shown in Table 16. During the time of sampling, the entire Waverly PWS was being supplied with water from the Waverly WTP; the Hodge Street facility was in standby at the time.

Table 16: Waverly WTP and System Data during Waverly-Only Operation

Water Quality Parameter	In Situ	Flushed Tank (POE)	W Site #1	W Site #2	W Site #3
Temperature (°C)	26.2	26.4	27.8	26.9	27.3
pH	7.6	7.6	7.55	7.54	7.5
Conductivity (µS/cm ²)	368	374	381	371	382
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	1.57	4.01	1.8	2.94	1.4
Free chlorine (mg/L)	3.2	3.8	2.1	2.3	1.5
TTHM concentration (ppb)	41	22	46	52	58

DBP Assessments

A profile of the THM species distribution is shown in Figure 9. The primary component was chloroform at 81% by mass. Chloroform is the most volatile of the EPA’s regulated THMs. Its prevalence suggests that aeration methods are a viable option for removal of formed THMs.

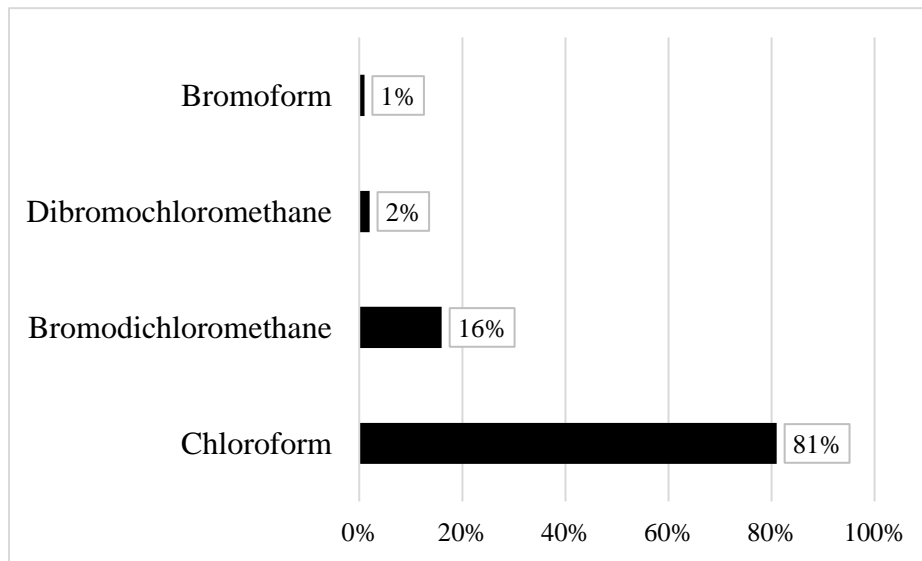


Figure 9: TTHM Species Distribution

The DBP curves created for the two facilities showed discrepancies between their TTHMFPs. Although both waters had comparable initial TTHM concentrations, they exceeded the EPA's mandated MCL after different periods of elapsed incubation time. The Waverly facility's water exceeded the 80 ppb MCL after approximately 35 hours as shown in Figure 10. Hodge Street's curve, shown in Figure 11, reached this same level after just over 15 hours. Ambient and water temperatures were comparable during the two site collections. The chlorine residuals in the flushed Waverly and Hodge Street hydro-tanks were 3.8 mg/L and 3.3 mg/L, respectively.

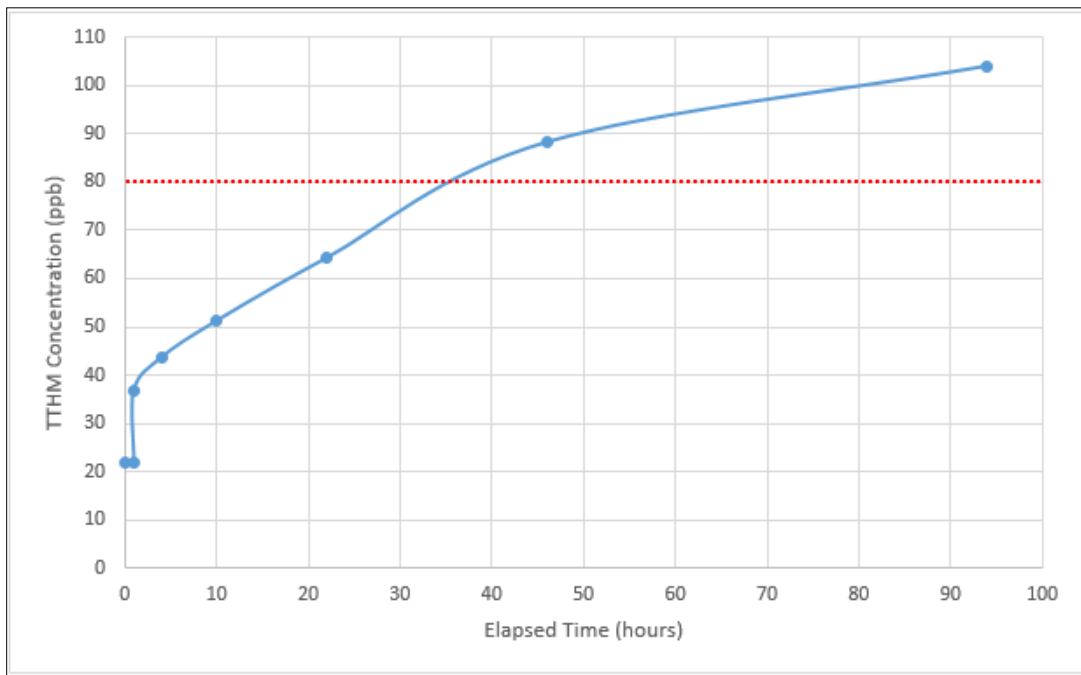


Figure 10: Waverly WTP Baseline THM Formation Curve

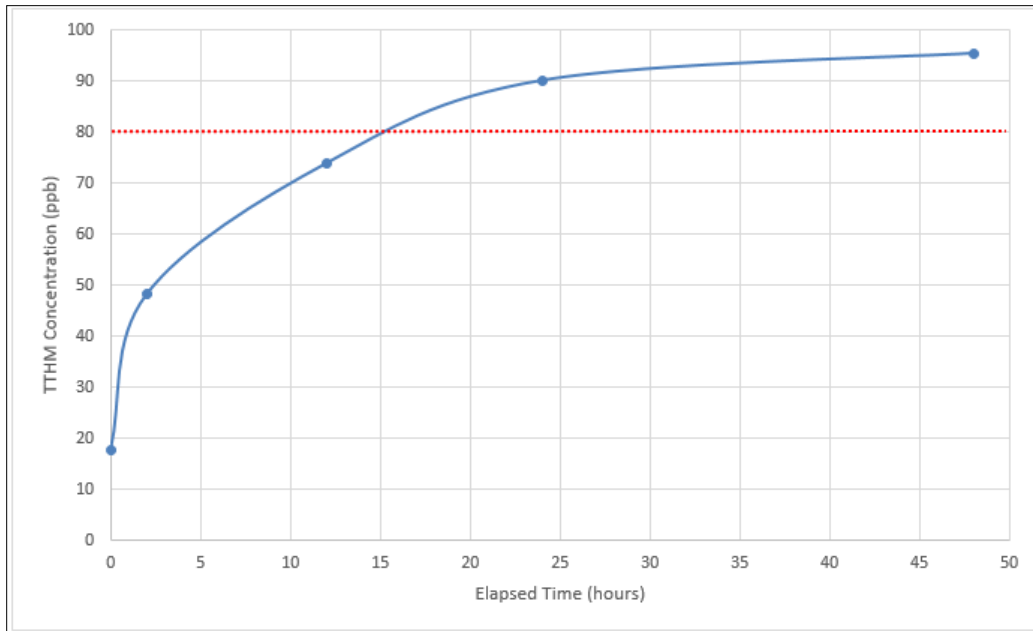


Figure 11: Hodge Street WTP Baseline THM Formation Curve

Figure 12 and Figure 13 illustrate the formation of the HAA species at the Waverly and Hodge Street WTPs, respectively. After approximately two days of incubation, both waters remained below the regulatory MCL of 60 ppb. The Waverly WTP's water, after two days of incubation at 30°C, possessed an HAA₅ concentration 49 ppb while Hodge Street's water had an HAA₅ concentration of 59 ppb. When comparing the initial formation curves, TTHM concentrations reach the EPA's MCL sooner than the HAA₅ concentrations. This hints that TTHM levels may be more at risk of MCL violations than HAA₅ concentrations.

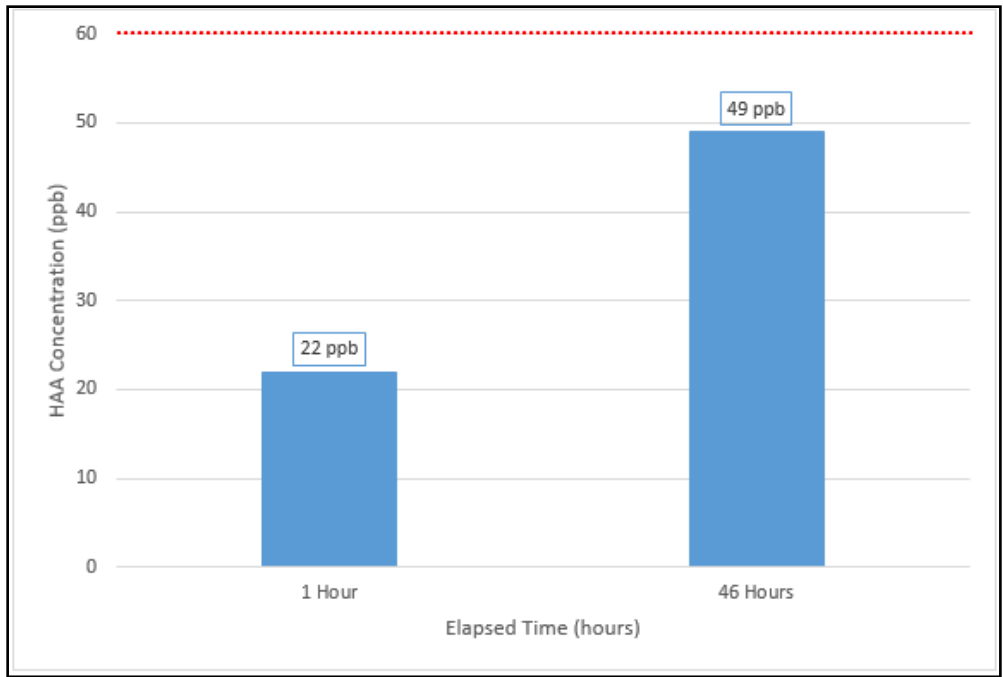


Figure 12: Waverly WTP Baseline HAA Formation

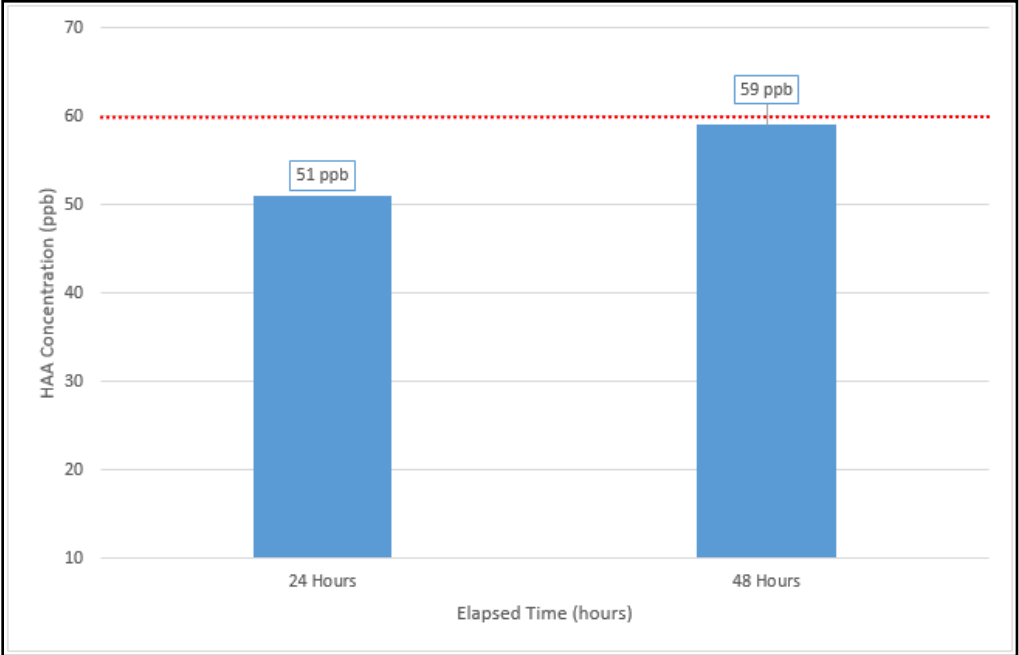


Figure 13: Hodge Street WTP Baseline HAA Formation

Single-Pass Spray Aeration Assessment

Table 17 shows the water quality data that was obtained from the Hodge Street WTP during the spray aeration evaluation. To better evaluate the effects of the spray aeration on Hodge Street water quality, each water quality parameter was analyzed for both the spray-aerated and unaerated samples. The unaerated samples were labeled *Chlorinated Unaerated* and water that was passed through the spray aerator was defined as *Chlorinated Aerated*. Aside from dissolved oxygen concentration, basic water quality characteristics did not appear to be altered significantly with single-pass spray aeration.

Table 17: Hodge Street WTP Water Quality during Spray Aeration Study

Water Quality Parameter	Well (Raw)	Raw w/ Polymer	Chlorinated Unaerated	Chlorinated Aerated	POE
Temperature (°C)	27.3	27.4	27.4	27.1	29.2
pH	7.52	7.49	7.51	7.68	7.63
Turbidity (NTU)	0.55	1.06	0.58	0.68	1.05
Conductivity (µS/cm ²)	363	362	402	406	393
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	1.7	2.1	4.4	7.6	3.1
Free chlorine (mg/L)	0	0	2.4	2.6	1.5

Table 18 displays the TTHM concentrations of both the aerated and unaerated waters over the course of 48 hours. Figure 14 offers a graphical representation of this data. The unaerated water taken from the hydro-tank exceeded the EPA’s TTHM MCL after 7 hours. Passing the sample once through the spray aerator allowed the water to remain under the MCL for 17 hours. The water that was passed through the spray aerator experienced an immediate 29.5% reduction in TTHM concentration and a 15.7% reduction in TTHMs formed after 48 hours.

Table 18: Spray Aeration Effects on TTHM Concentration

Condition	Elapsed Time (hours)	TTHM Concentration (ppb)
Unaerated	0	44
	4	57
	7	82
	24	106
	48	108
Aerated	0	31
	4	41
	7	59
	24	87
	48	91

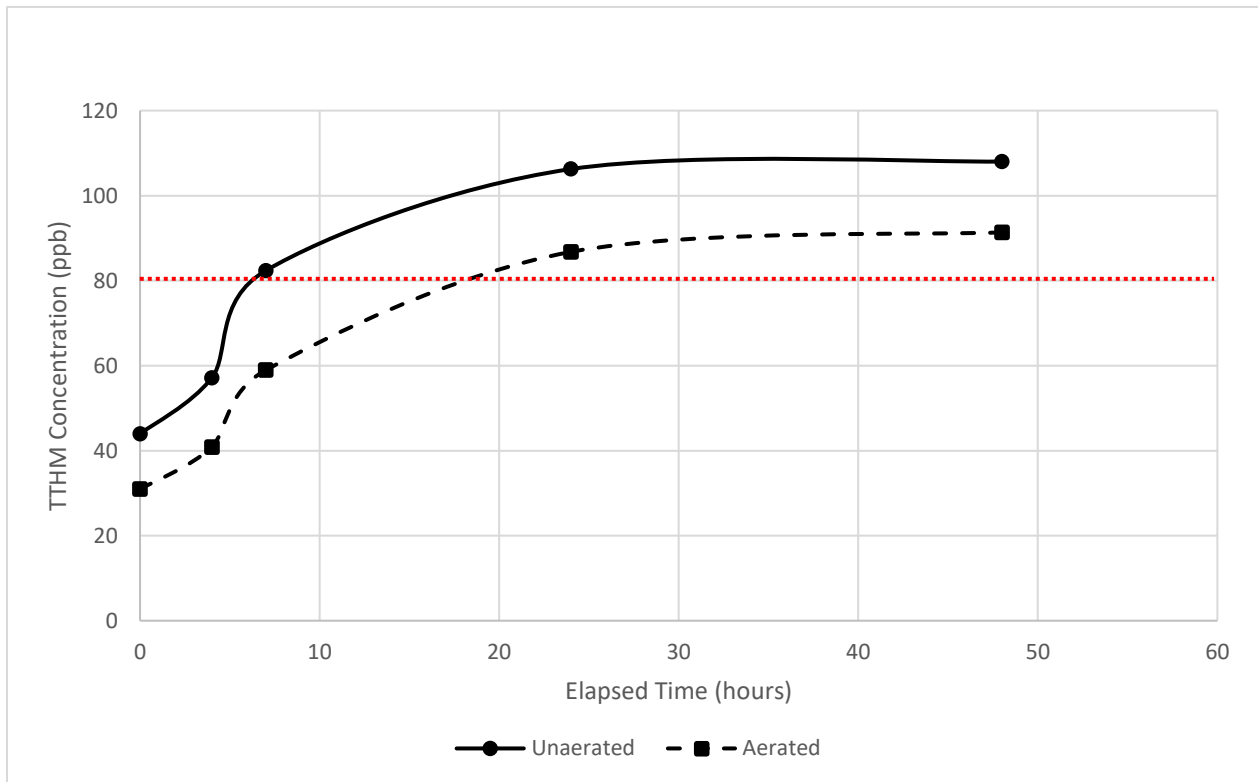


Figure 14: Spray Aerated vs Unaerated THM Formation

The concentrations given in Table 19 demonstrate that HAA₅ concentrations were unaffected by spray aeration; samples which had been incubated for equal periods of time had very similar concentrations regardless of whether they were aerated or not.

When the baseline DBP formation curves were generated, the hydro-tanks were flushed beforehand to allow for water collection immediately after chlorination before DBPs have had the chance to form. Conversely, for studies focused on removal such as this, it was necessary to use water which already possessed a certain concentration of DBPs. Water with a considerable residence time in the hydro-tank was used for this purpose. The TTHM concentration of this in situ water was 44 ppb. As a result, it is expected that the aeration DBPFP curves achieve MCL concentrations noticeably sooner than the baseline DBP curves. This discrepancy illustrates the importance of optimizing chlorine contact time and how, if mismanaged, variances in chlorine contact time can greatly affect DBP concentrations in the water.

Table 19: Hodge Street WTP in Situ HAA Data

Elapsed Time (hours)	Aerated HAA₅ Concentration (ppb)	Unaerated HAA₅ Concentration (ppb)	Average HAA₅ Concentration (ppb)
24	64	67	66
48	77	74	76

Tray Aeration Assessment

The field samples taken prior to the assessment indicated an in situ TTHM concentration of 64 ppb, 20 ppb more than the in situ TTHM levels recorded during the spray aeration evaluation. Because ambient temperatures were comparable during the two months, the increase in concentration was attributed mostly to a greater detention time within the hydro-tank. Table 20

presents the TTHM removal and free chlorine residual as a result of successive passes through the tray aerator. The data is illustrated in Figure 15. The data displays a diminishing reduction of THMs after each successive pass indicating that, after 3 passes or so, additional passes have limited benefits. The TTHM concentration fell below detection after five passes. Free chlorine residual did not appear to be impacted noticeably by THM volatilization.

Table 20: TTHM Concentration and Chlorine Residual vs Number of Tray Passes

Sample	TTHM Concentration (ppb)	TTHM Removal Efficiency (%)	Free Chlorine Concentration (mg/L)
Field sample	64	-	2.8
0 passes	62	-	1.6
1 pass	33	46.7	1.5
2 passes	19	69.4	1.5
3 passes	12	80.6	1.5
4 passes	9	85.5	1.5
5 passes	< 8	> 85.5	1.5
6 passes	< 8	> 85.5	1.4

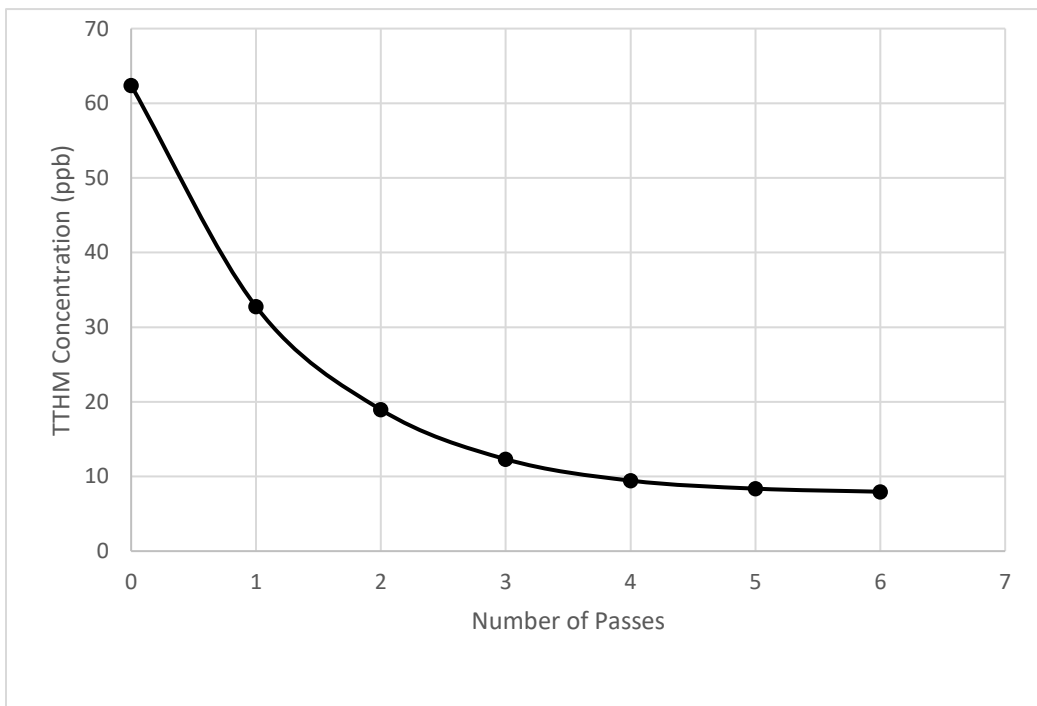


Figure 15: TTHM Concentration vs Number of Tray Passes

Results of the DBP re-formation analyses are shown in Table 21 while the re-formation of THMs is illustrated specifically in Figure 16 and Figure 17. While initial TTHM concentrations were unchanged between 2 hours and 12 hours of aeration, they had different re-formation capabilities. Free chlorine levels dropped to 0.05 mg/L after 12 hours of aeration, demonstrating the impracticality of such a lengthy tray aeration cycle in realistic operation.

Table 21: Re-formation Potential of Aerated Water

Aeration Time (hours)	Incubation Time (hours)	TTHM Concentration (ppb)	HAA₅ Concentration (ppb)	Free Chlorine Concentration (mg/L)
2	0	< 8	59	1.20
	16	38	73	0.62
	22	52	75	0.48
12	0	< 8	61	0.05
	14	< 8	69	0.02
	29	10	69	0.01

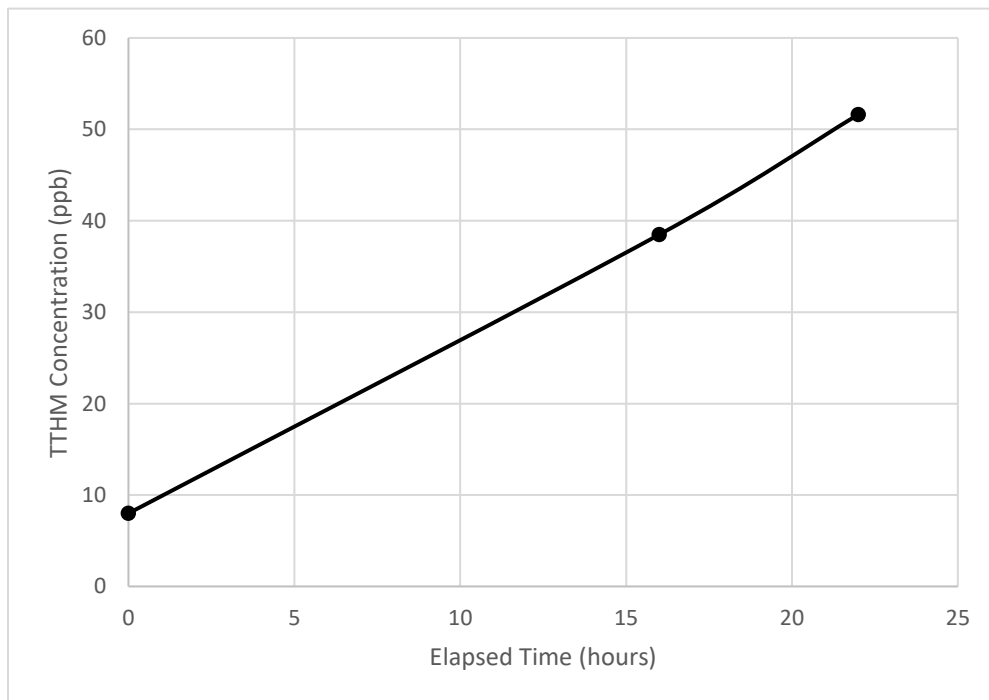


Figure 16: Re-formation Potential after 2-Hour Aeration (12 Passes)

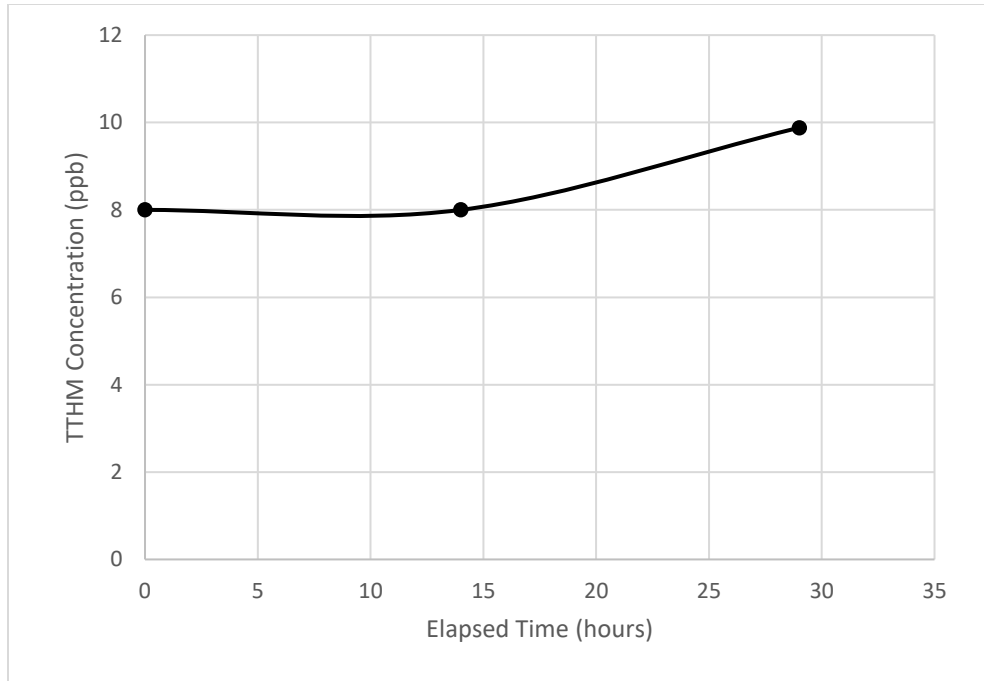


Figure 17: Re-formation Potential after 12-Hour Aeration (72 Passes)

Water that had been incubated after 2 hours of recirculation (12 passes) generated an average re-formation of 2 ppb of TTHMs per hour over 22 hours, rising to 52 ppb. After the water had been passed recirculated for 12 hours (72 passes), its THM formation rate was significantly less (an average of 0.069 ppb per hour over 29 hours) as was the ultimate TTHM concentration that was achieved. After over a full day of incubation, the 12-hour aerated sample possessed a non-detectable level TTHMs. This indicates that after a certain amount of aeration time, the TTHM formation potential of water becomes nearly exhausted. However, it is not feasible for a full-scale system to recycle water through a tray aerator 72 times. When analyzing the collected data, two to three passes appears to be the optimal choice for a realistic engineering design.

GAC Bypass and Blending Simulation

Chlorine Demand

To assess the feasibility of integrating GAC adsorption with aeration, each sample tested was initially dosed with sufficient sodium hypochlorite to provide a theoretical free chlorine concentration of 6.5 mg/L. The difference between this dose and the initial free chlorine residuals of each sample is the water's chlorine demand; chlorine demands for each sample are shown in Table 22. Typically, greater concentrations of NOM and inorganics such as sulfides correlate with a larger chlorine demand. The 100% raw water had the greatest chlorine demand, 3.1 mg/L, while the 50% blend's demand was only 2 mg/L. The 75% blend's demand fell between the two values at 2.1 mg/L.

Table 22: Initial Chlorine Demands

	100% Raw	75% Raw	50% Raw
Chlorine Demand (mg/L)	3.1	2.1	2.0

Chlorine consumption of the 100%, 75%, and 50% blended waters was monitored over 96 hours. The data is displayed in Table 23 and illustrated in Figure 18. The free chlorine residual in the 100% raw water dropped below 1 mg/L after 24 hours and was exhausted after 96 hours. Conversely, the 50% blend possessed a 2.4 mg/L chlorine residual after 96 hours. The chlorine residuals for the 75% blend tended to fall almost directly between the two extrema.

Table 23: Chlorine Consumption Over 96 Hours

Elapsed Time (hours)	Free Chlorine (mg/L)		
	100% Raw	75% Raw	50% Raw
0	3.4	4.4	4.5
24	0.9	2.1	3.4
48	0.4	1.6	2.8
72	0.2	1.4	2.7
96	0.0	1.1	2.4

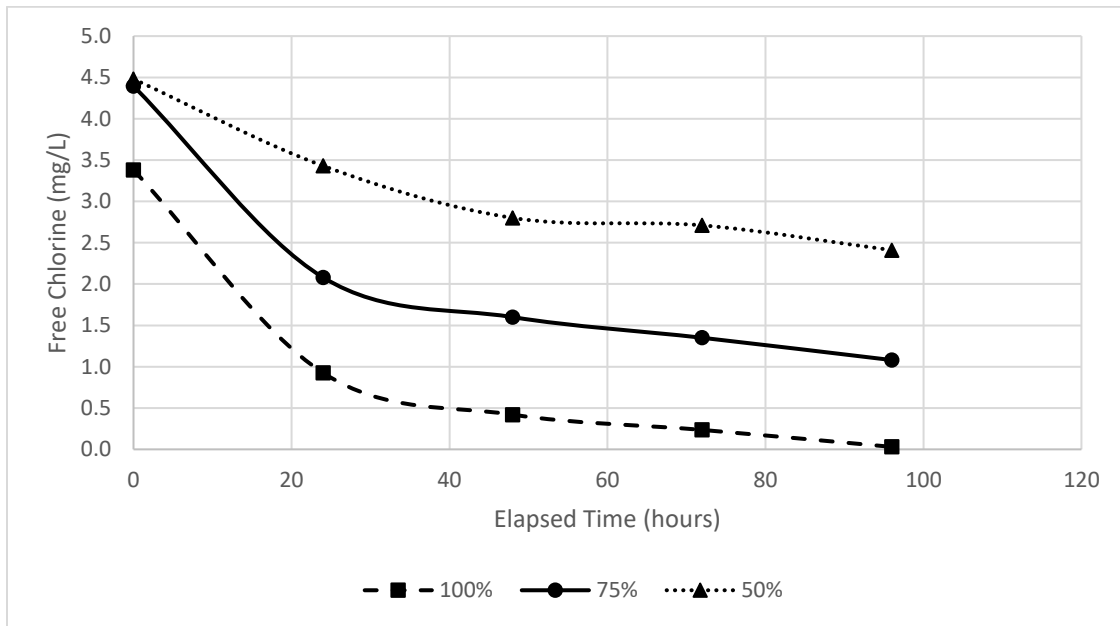


Figure 18: Chlorine Consumption of Various Raw Water Blends

When two different chlorine doses were applied, initial chlorine demands changed. As shown in Table 24, a lower chlorine dose corresponded with lower chlorine demands for both the 100% raw water and the 50% blend. The 75% blend was not studied in subsequent simulations.

Table 24: Initial Chlorine Demands of Different Doses

	6.5 mg/L Chlorine Dose		3.25 mg/L Chlorine Dose	
	100% Raw	50% Raw	100% Raw	50% Raw
Chlorine Demand (mg/L)	3.2	1.7	2.2	1.4
% of Chlorine Dose	49%	26%	66%	42%

Chlorine consumption of the 100% and 50% waters at the two different chlorine doses is included in Table 25. The demand curves were conducted over 48 hours as opposed to the 96-hour curves used in the first trial. Figure 19 shows the demand curve for the higher chlorine dose, while Figure 20 displays the demand curve of the lower chlorine dosage. Both the 100% raw water and the 50% blend had a free chlorine residual remaining after 48 hours when the 6.5 mg/L chlorine dose was applied. Conversely, when dosed at 3.25 mg/L of free chlorine, the 100% raw water had a residual of 0.02 mg/L after 24 hours while the 50% blend possessed a residual of 0.5 mg/L after the same 24-hour period.

Table 25: Free Chlorine Residual of Different Doses Over 48 Hours

Elapsed Time (hours)	6.5 mg/L Chlorine Dose		3.25 mg/L Chlorine Dose	
	100% Raw	50% Raw	100% Raw	50% Raw
0	3.3	4.8	1.1	1.9
24	1.2	3.3	0.02	0.5
48	0.6	2.7	0.02	0.3

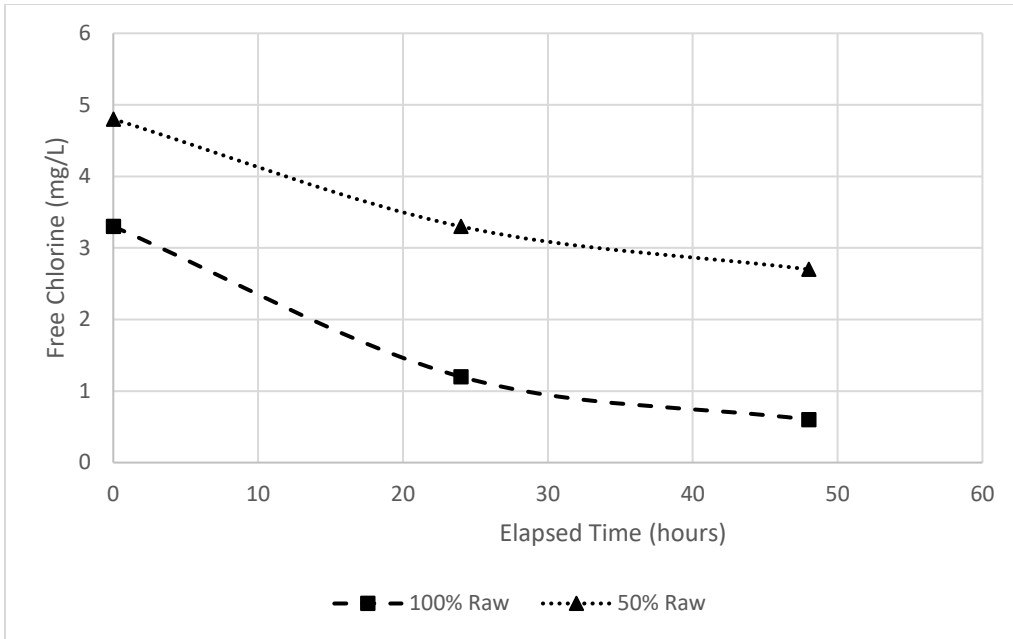


Figure 19: 6.5 mg/L Chlorine Dose

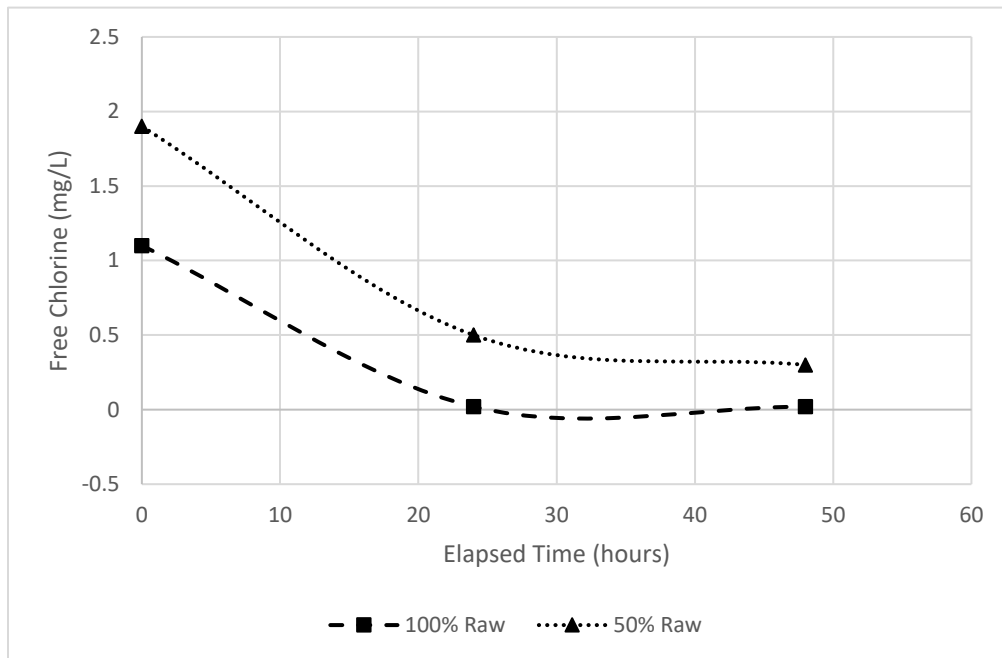


Figure 20: 3.25 mg/L Chlorine Dose

TTHM Analysis

A slightly larger chlorine residual was used than what is typically aimed for at the Hodge Street facility (3.4 mg/L vs 3.0 mg/L). This required the previously-mentioned chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L. Because of these factors, both DBP formation kinetics and ultimate concentrations were greater than what is typically experienced at the facility. The THM formation over 96 hours is displayed in Table 26 and conveyed graphically in Figure 21.

The 100% raw water exceeded the established TTHM MCL of 80 ppb after approximately 17 hours, the 75% blend after approximately 26 hours, and the 50% blend after approximately 42 hours. After the test period concluded, the formation curves possessed an upward trend, indicating that formation of THMs was still occurring.

Table 26: TTHM Concentrations Over 96 Hours with 6.5 mg/L Chlorine

Elapsed Time (hours)	TTHM Concentration (ppb)		
	100% Raw	75% Raw	50% Raw
0	0	0	0
24	101	75	58
48	124	108	85
72	138	111	93
96	146	123	102

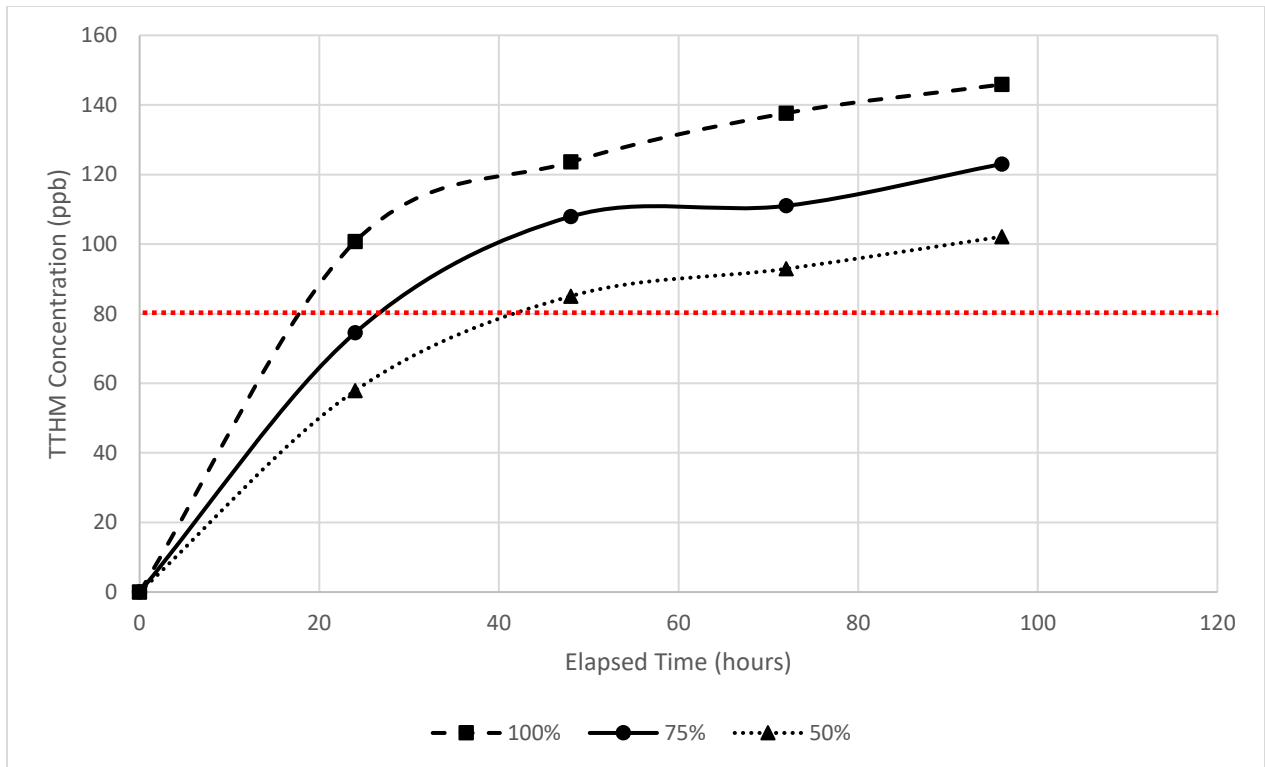


Figure 21: THM Formation of Blended Waters

Figure 22 shows the previously constructed baseline THM formation curve collected from the Hodge Street facility. This water was chlorinated by the facility’s disinfection process and collected from the plant’s hydro-pneumatic tank. As the time-zero value indicates, this water had resided in the hydro-tank long enough to allow a concentration of 18 ppb of TTHMs to be present. Because this water was not diluted, it should be compared with the 100% raw water’s curve in Figure 21. The historical curve surpasses the MCL sooner than the study’s 100% raw water curve, but this can be partially attributed to the fact that the water collected from the hydro-tank already had a measurable concentration of THMs.

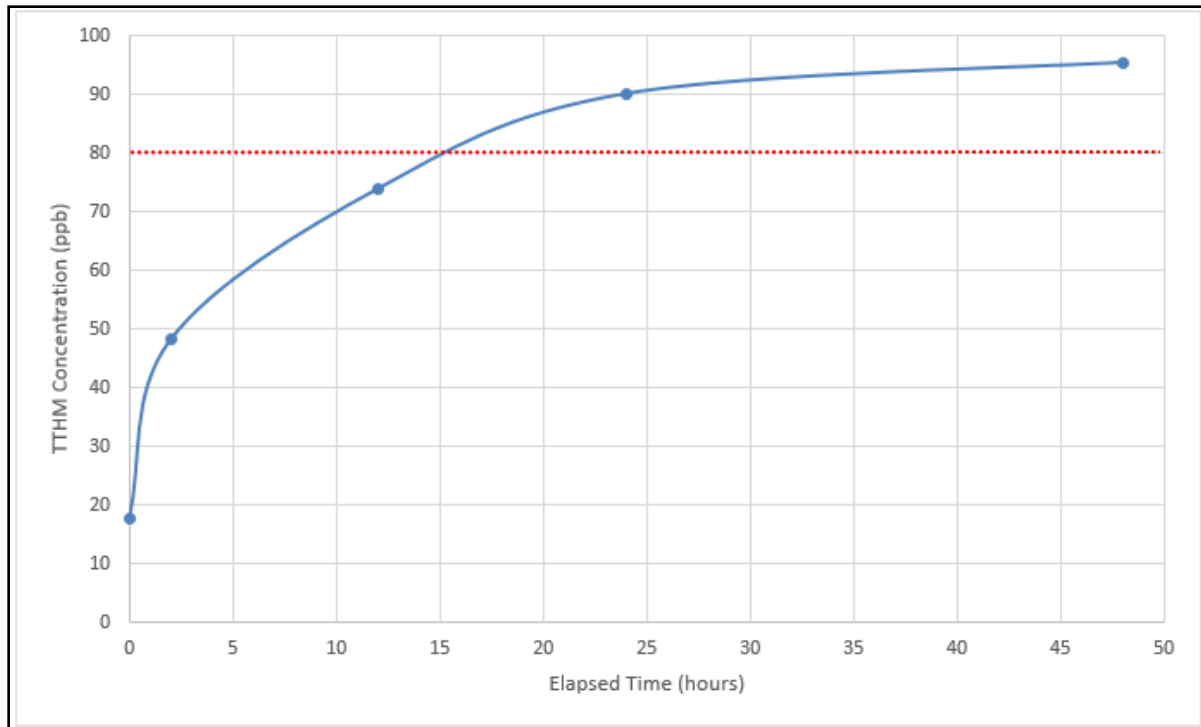


Figure 22: Pre-established Hodge Street THM Curve (August 2017)

HAA Analysis

The first HAA analysis was conducted using the same incubation temperature as the THM curves (6.5 mg/L and 30°C). Four (4) HAA samples were transported from UCF to AEL for analysis. Each water had a single sample incubated for 24 hours with a duplicate for the 100% raw water. Results indicated that 24 hours after chlorination, the MCL of 60 ppb had not been exceeded by any sample. After 24 hours, the 100% raw water had an HAA₅ concentration of 56 ppb, the 75% blend had a concentration of 44 ppb, and the 50% blend had a concentration of 33 ppb. Table 27 conveys this data while Figure 23 relates the values graphically to the MCL.

Table 27: 24-Hour HAA Formation

	100% Raw	100% Raw Duplicate	75% Raw	50% Raw
24-Hour HAA₅ Concentration (µg/L)	56	55	44	33

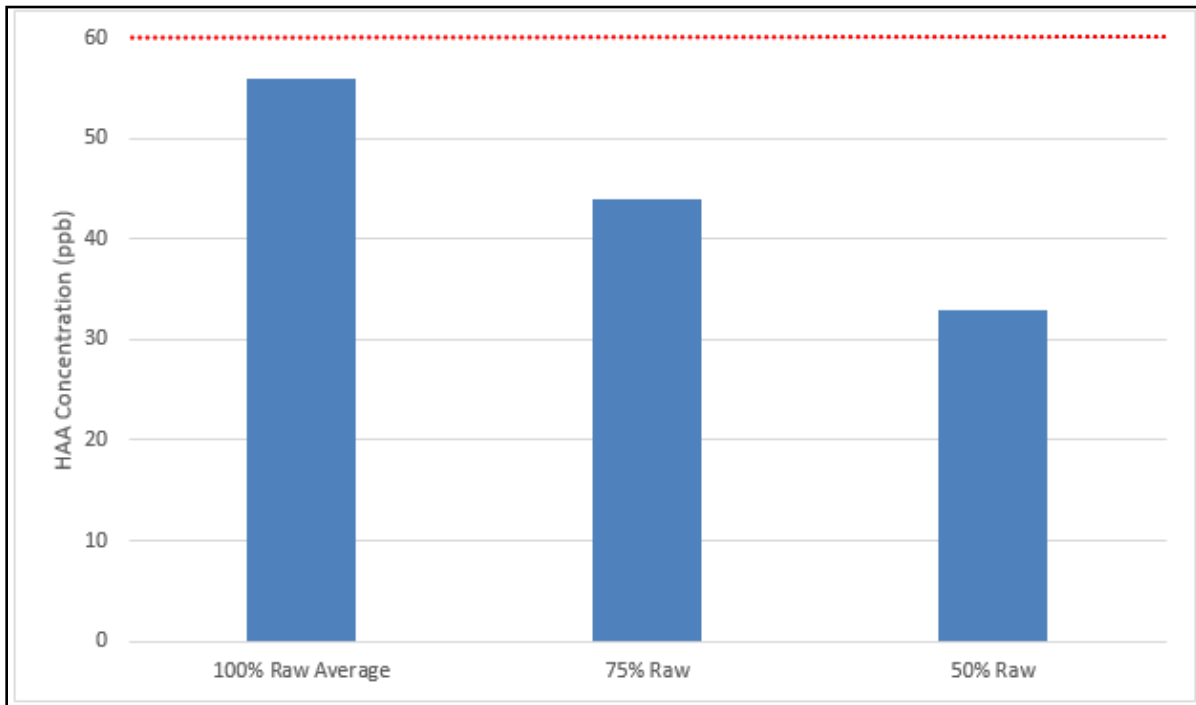


Figure 23: 24-Hour HAA Formation

When the effects of the two chlorine doses were compared, the 100% raw water dosed with 6.5 mg/L of chlorine possessed the same HAA₅ concentration after 24 hours as it did in the first trial (55 ppb). After 48 total hours of incubation, this 100% raw water’s HAA₅ concentration increased to 72 ppb. This was the singular sample to exceed the 60 ppb MCL. The 50% blend that received the 6.5 mg/L chlorine dose experienced an increase of only two ppb between the 24-hour and 48-hour incubation periods. When the lower chlorine dose of 3.25 mg/L was applied to the waters,

negligible changes in the HAA₅ concentrations occurred between the 24-hour and 48-hour incubation periods. This re-formation data is summarized in Table 28 and shown graphically in Figure 24 and Figure 25.

Table 28: HAA₅ Re-formation at Different Blends and Chlorine Doses

Elapsed Time (hours)	6.5 mg/L Chlorine Dose		3.25 mg/L Chlorine Dose	
	100% Raw Water	50% Raw Water	100% Raw Water	50% Raw Water
24	55 ppb	44 ppb	14 ppb	27 ppb
48	72 ppb	46 ppb	14 ppb	27 ppb

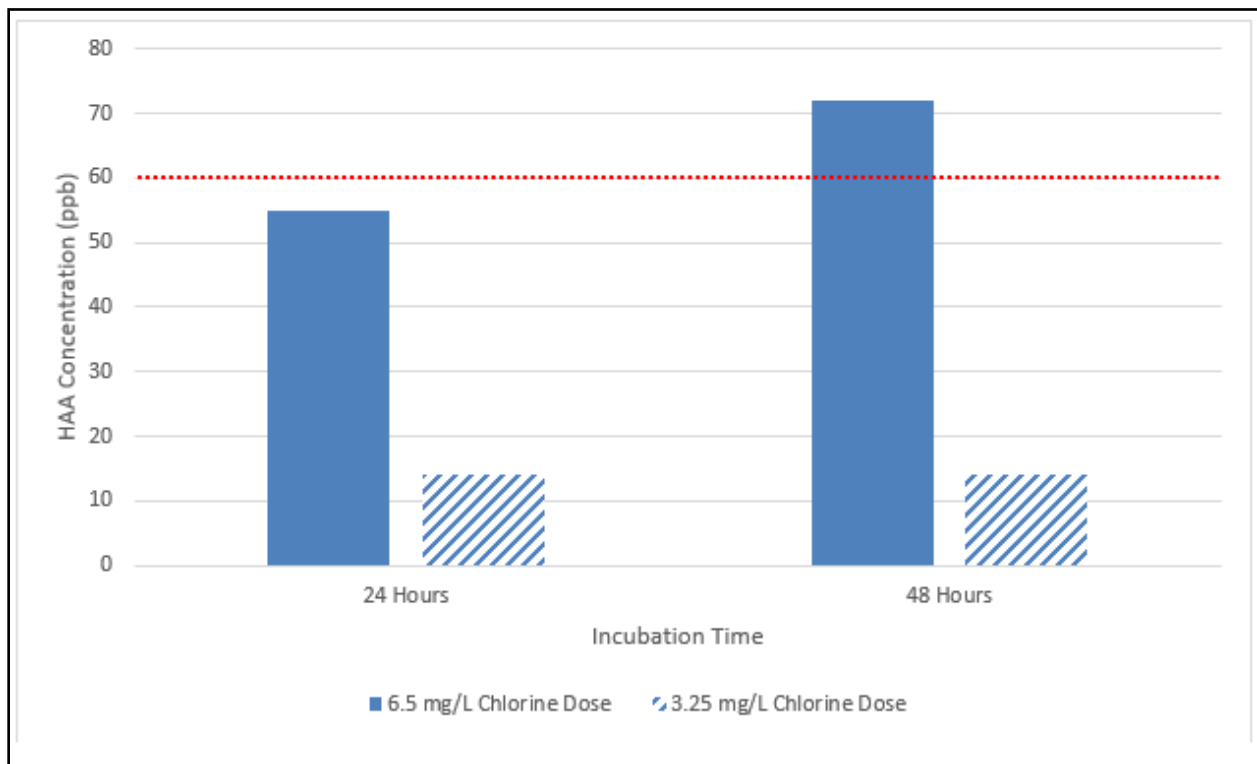


Figure 24: HAA Formation of 100% Raw Water

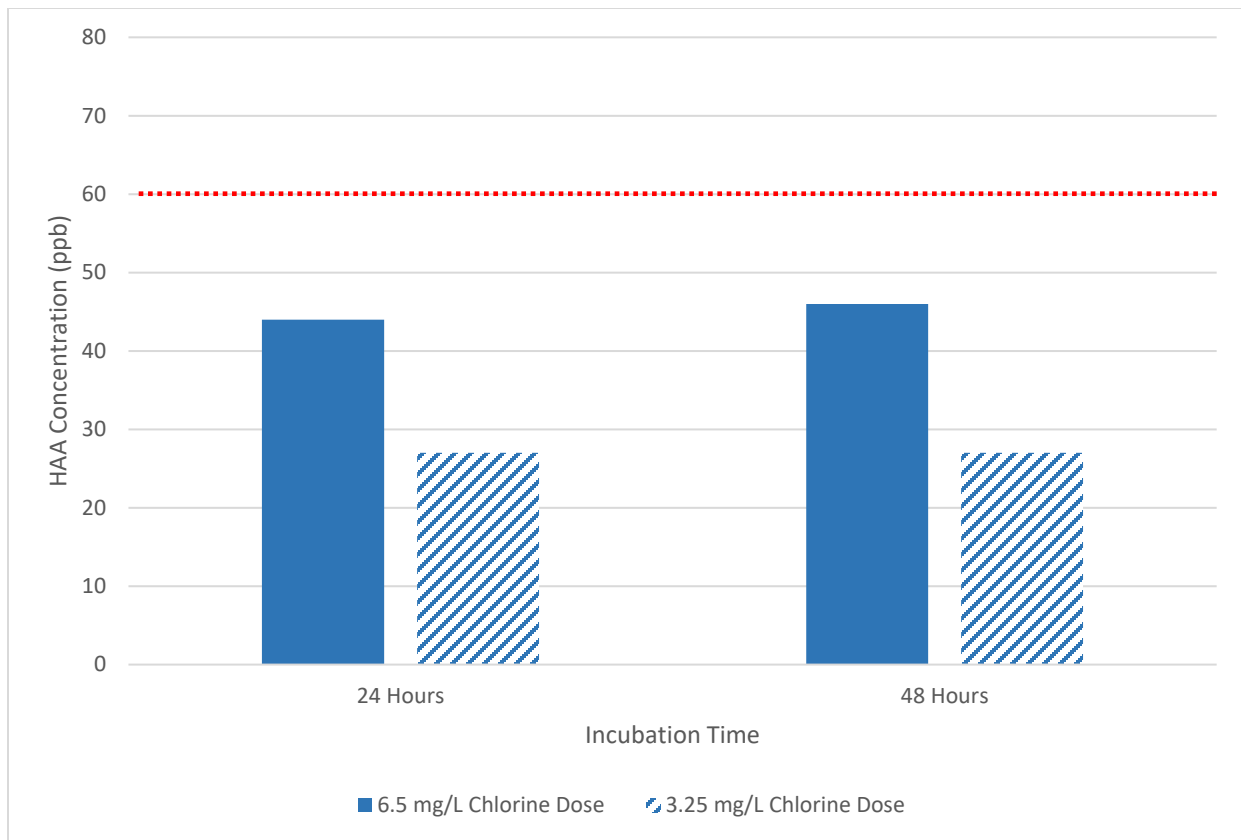


Figure 25: HAA Formation of 50% Blend

Statistical Analysis

Accuracy and precision control charts were constructed as according to the methods described in the previous chapter. The THM samples prepared via liquid-liquid hexane extraction and analyzed by gas chromatography were analyzed for precision and accuracy. The QC charts for precision is shown in Figure 26 while Figure 27 displays the control chart for accuracy. One data point exceeded the control limit in the precision chart and was discarded from the data.

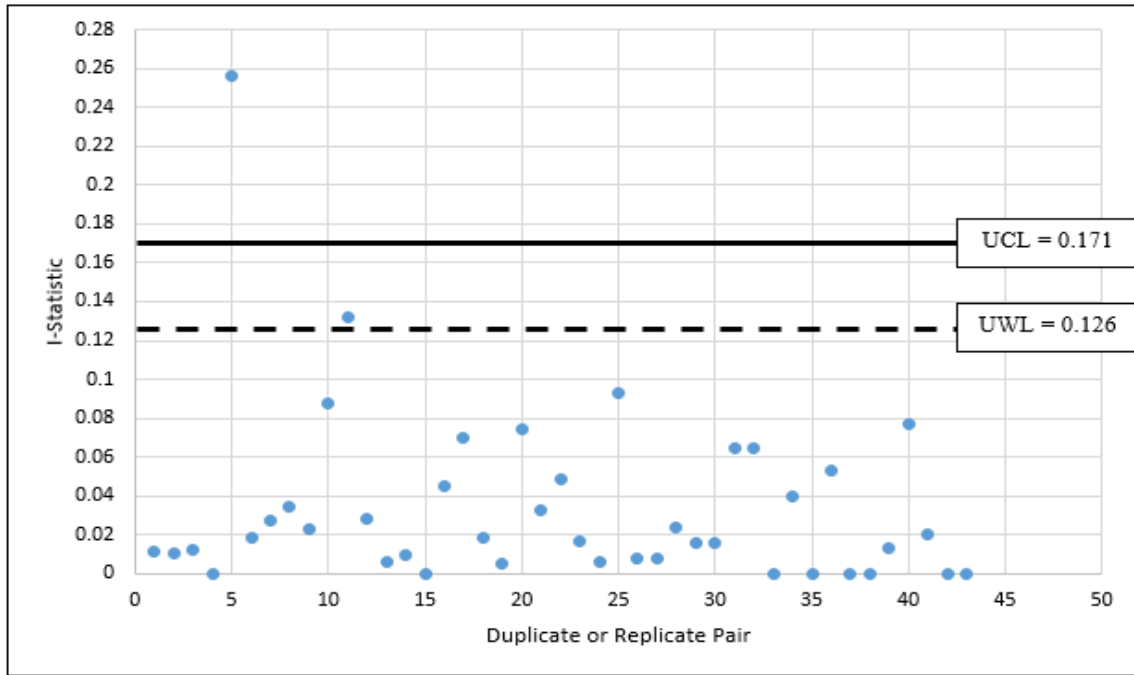


Figure 26: Control Chart for THM Precision

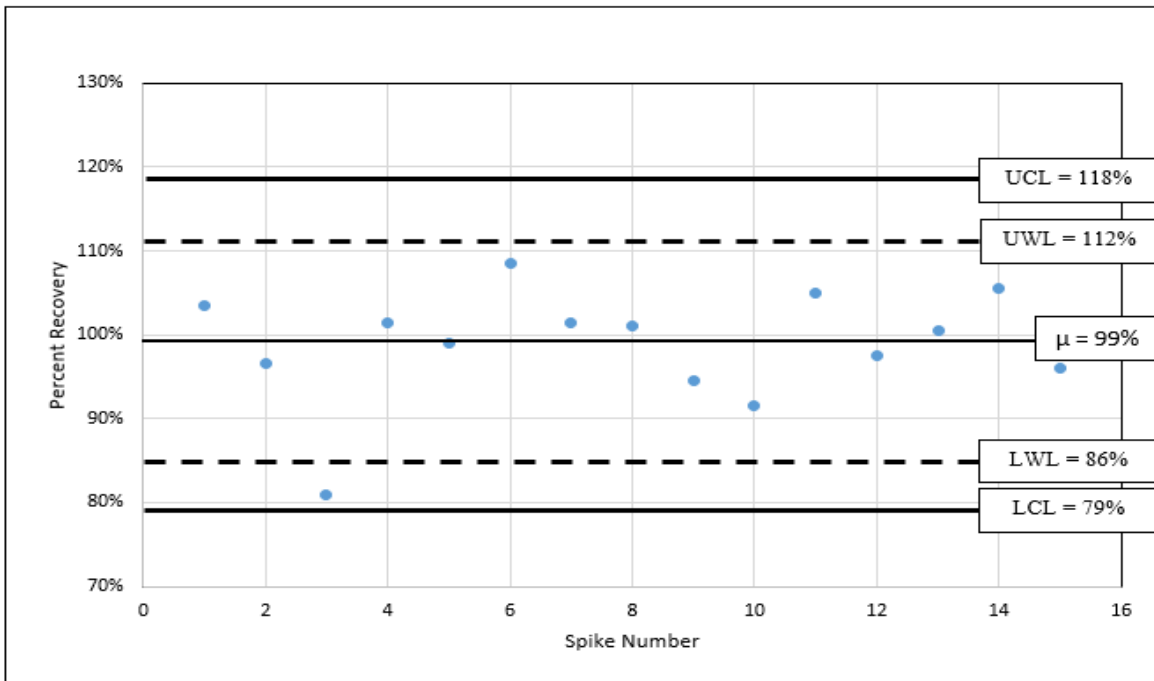


Figure 27: Control Chart for THM Accuracy

CHAPTER SIX: CONCEPTUAL COST CONSIDERATIONS

Conceptual Plan

Upon completion of the studies, a conceptual plan was developed for the Waverly PWS. Hodge Street's current treatment process is shown in Figure 28 accompanied by some brief notes in Table 29. It is compared with two suggested systems (one temporary and one master). Each process option has some pros and cons listed and was given an overall rating. The first improvement suggested for the Hodge Street WTP is the addition of a 100,000 to 150,000-gallon ground storage tank, based on fire flow requirements; the ground storage tank should be equipped with a tray aerator and an internal recycle line to allow for recirculating aeration. Table 30 conveys a few notes about the theoretical system and a general schematic is shown in Figure 29. This improvement would greatly reduce the TTHM concentrations in the distribution system; however, the formation of the HAA species is not curtailed by this option. Also, this option only removes formed DBPs and does not pre-emptively reduce DBPFP. Therefore, a master plan that addresses both DBPs as well as DBPFP was also developed. The master plan compliments the suggested recirculating tray aeration with the addition of a side-stream GAC adsorption operation, as shown in Figure 30. Some pros and cons of the master plan are presented in Table 31. The carbon adsorption upstream of the storage tank will remove organic precursors as well as certain dissolved substances and inorganics, effectively reducing the FP of both THMs and HAAs. In addition, the GAC's removal of these substances should greatly reduce chlorine consumption rate and, consequently, distribution system flushing. Water may also be bypassed around the GAC vessels as needed to reduce carbon utilization and reduce costs.

Table 29: Hodge Street Option 1: Current Operations

PROS	CONS
Simplest operation	Does not remove NOM or synthetic organics
No recycle expenses	No aeration for volatile compound removal
No additional capital costs or materials needed	May struggle in maintaining EPA compliance
OVERALL RATING	○

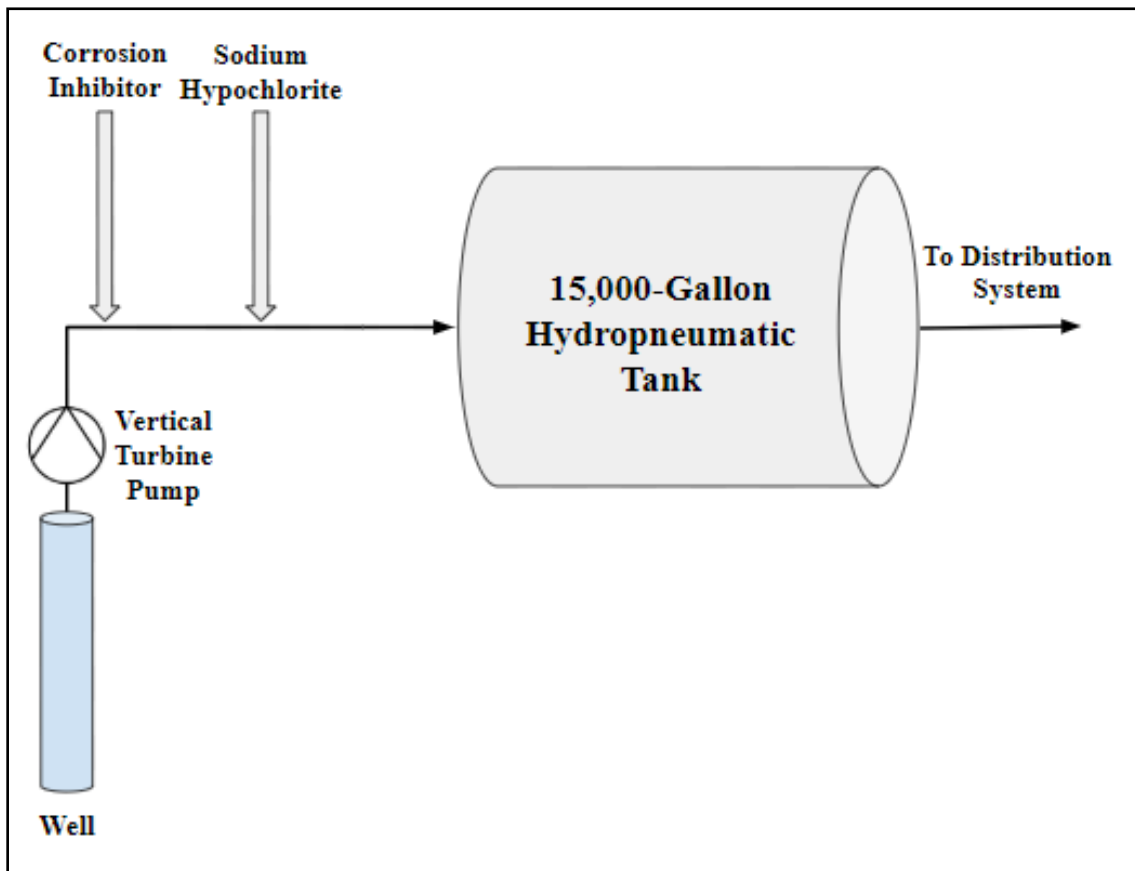


Figure 28: Hodge Street WTP Current Operations

Table 30: Hodge Street Option 2: Ground Storage Tank with Recirculating Tray Aeration

PROS	CONS
Relatively simple operation	Capital costs will be incurred
Provides aeration for THM control	Does not address HAA formation or removal
Recirculation is variable to allow for system flexibility	Does not remove NOM or synthetic organics; only removes THMs after they are formed
OVERALL RATING	◐

NEEDS IMPROVEMENT
 GOOD
 EXCELLENT

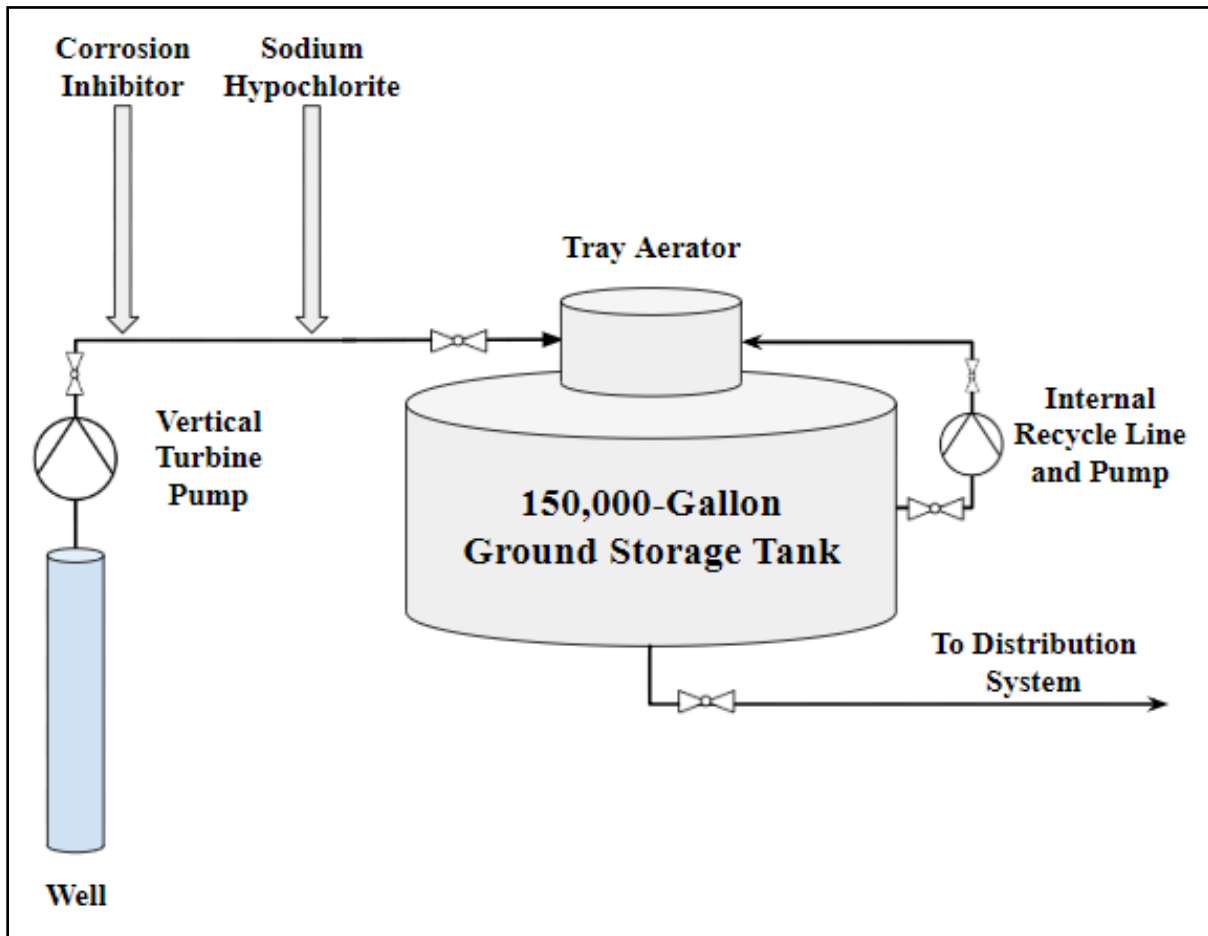


Figure 29: Hodge Street WTP with Recirculating Ground Storage Tank

Table 31: Hodge Street Option 3: Master Plan with Aeration and Adsorption

PROS	CONS
Provides the best control for variable influent	More operational attention is needed
Controls formation of THMs and HAA	Greatest capital costs
Bypass allows for system flexibility	
OVERALL RATING	●

○ NEEDS IMPROVEMENT ◐ GOOD ● EXCELLENT

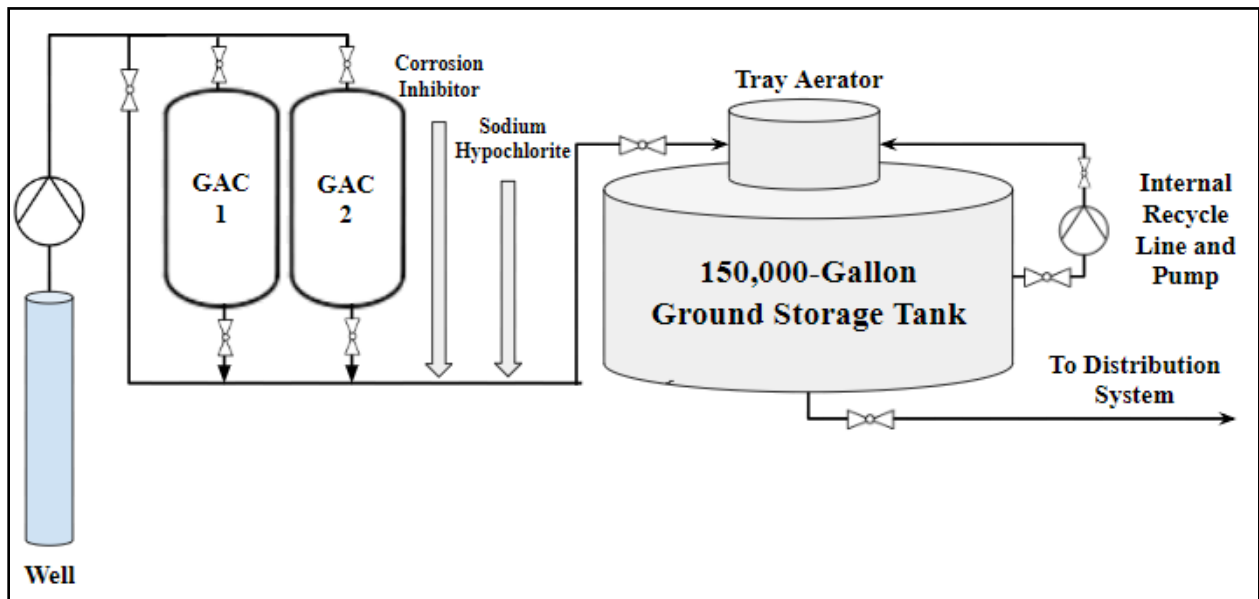


Figure 30: Hodge Street WTP Master Plan with Aeration and Adsorption

The installation of variable frequency drive (VFD) motors on pumps should be considered as it will allow for increased control over a broader range of flow demands. The VFD addition may be coupled with flow throttling via valves for maximum control in regulating the bypass and blending around the GAC operation. Another area of interest regarding the GAC process is its ability to operate in biological mode. The growth of specific microbes can support NOM removal either with or without the assistance of pre-ozonation or other pre-oxidizing processes. The ability of favorable microbes to grow onto GAC media is highly dependent on the water's chemistry and, thus, water quality should be analyzed to determine which microbial species can be supported. Additional studies may wish to expound on biological operation and explore its efficacy at removing organic compounds and/or inorganic nutrients. Lastly, multiple tray aerators with differing surface areas could have their stripping efficacies compared to determine the most appropriately-sized tray aerator for the improved system.

Previous studies conducted by UCF have investigated the efficacy of using BAC adsorption to remove DBP precursor material. Pilot and full scale tests were conducted at the Babson Park WTP #2 and the Imperial Lakes WTP, both in Polk County, FL. The pilot runs demonstrated an approximate average removal of 40% of the influent dissolved organic carbon (DOC). Full scale monitoring at the two facilities revealed an average DOC removal of 55%. The conclusion was that BAC adsorption could be a viable treatment option for the Babson Park #2 facility (Duranceau & Yoakum, 2017). However, differences in water chemistry (i.e. sulfide species/concentrations, organic and inorganic profiles) can impact BAC's removal efficacies. Therefore, it cannot be assumed the DBP precursor removal experienced at the Hodge Street facility by BAC will be equal to the reductions experienced at the Babson Park #2 facility.

Table 32 displays an example of a schedule for operating the internal recycle pump. A batch-type concept may be implemented where pre-determined flows of water are pumped into a ground storage tank and ceased before the water in the hydro-tank begins to be recirculated through the aerator. The entire volume of the ground storage tank need not be filled entirely; smaller batches of water may be chosen for recirculation, depending on current daily demand or other factors. The recycling periods should occur when the potable water demand is not particularly high. It is recommended that times be altered to best suit the system and its demands. 12 hours has been chosen in this example because, at a recirculation flow of 250 gpm, it would take 12 hours to recycle the maximum monthly average flow (60,000 gpd) three times. These 12 hours could be divided into three periods of four hours, four periods of three hours, or in a way that best suits the operators. A batch-type concept is flexible for small systems, allowing the volume of water being recirculated as well as the recirculation periods to be adjusted to allow for operational freedom.

Table 32: Example Recirculating Operation Schedule

Time	Recirculating Aeration Status
12:00 am – 2:00 am	Off
2:00 am – 6:00 am	On
6:00 am – 12:00 pm	Off
12:00 pm – 4:00 pm	On
4:00 pm – 8:00 pm	Off
8:00 pm – 12:00 am	On
11:00 pm – 12:00 am	Off

Economic Comparison

The maximum monthly average flow for the Hodge Street plant is about 60,000 gpd, which equates to approximately 42 gpm if the water flows continuously. However, in reality, this is not how the

plant operates. If the pump is run for four hours a day, the flow through the GAC vessels would be approximately 250 gpm. The well pump at the Hodge Street WTP is rated at 1,500 gpm, suggesting that the selected flow rate and time of pump operation seem appropriate to provide the facility with 60,000 gallons of water in a day.

When looking to reduce carbon usage, the ability to bypass water around the GAC reactors and blend with the treated water is an effective and economical option. The operational flow of 250 gpm (flowing 4 hours per day) would result in a carbon utilization rate of 24 lbs. per day to meet the maximum average monthly demand. Using the unit price of \$2 per lb. of carbon, this equates to approximately \$18,000 per year (Redding, 2017).

When considering different GAC contactor units, there may be considerable capital cost differences, depending on size and manufacturer. If influent TOC remains relatively constant, the carbon usage will vary directly with the total amount of water passed through the GAC beds. Table 33 shows theoretical effluent TOC concentrations and carbon utilization that would result at different bypass percentages while using the previously-described flow regime of 250 gpm pumped over 4 hours. Additional evaluations are recommended to explore what TOC reduction is satisfactory for sufficiently limiting DBP formation and to minimize the amount of water passed over the beds. This will result in lower annual carbon replacement costs. The system can also be implemented as a seasonal operation, if necessary. Because water temperature increases and DBP levels rise during the months from May to October, the choice of when to run the system as described or keep it on standby can be made by the County as needed.

Table 33: Bypass Percentage vs Effluent TOC and Carbon Utilization

% Bypass	Flow to GAC (gpm)	Flow Bypassing GAC (gpm)	Effluent TOC (mg/L)	Daily Carbon Utilization (lbs.)	Annual Carbon Cost
100%	0	250	3.60	0	\$ 0
90%	25	225	3.31	2	\$ 1,460
80%	50	200	3.02	5	\$ 3,650
70%	75	175	2.73	7	\$ 5,110
60%	100	150	2.44	10	\$ 7,300
50%	125	125	2.15	12	\$ 8,760
40%	150	100	1.86	15	\$ 10,950
30%	175	75	1.57	17	\$ 12,410
20%	200	50	1.28	19	\$ 13,870
10%	225	25	0.99	22	\$ 16,060
0%	250	0	0.70	24	\$ 17,520

The three different treatment strategies should be compared with regard to their economic feasibility. For the purposes of this document, the capital analysis assumes that each strategy will result in similar capital costs; consequently, the analysis used in this report will focus on operational considerations. Because the operation of the 1,500 gpm well pump is dependent upon demand and is identical with each treatment method, its cost will not be included. The recycle pump, on the other hand, may operate 9-14 hours a day recirculating water through the aerator and its cost must be considered. As previously mentioned, the storage tank may undergo a recirculation cycle with smaller volumes of water to lessen wear on the pump and associated costs. Recirculating the maximum monthly average flow (60,000 gpd) three times through the tray aerator would take 12 hours at a flow rate of 250 gpm. The calculations for the cost of running the recycle pump 12 hours a day at 80 psi with a pump efficiency of 70% are shown here in equation (6-1):

$$250 \frac{\text{gal}}{\text{min}} * \left(\frac{60 \text{ min}}{\text{hour}}\right) * 12 \text{ hours} * \left(\frac{8.345 \text{ lbs}}{\text{gal}}\right) = 1,502,100 \text{ lbs} \quad (6-1)$$

$$1,502,100 \text{ lbs} * (80 \text{ psi}) * \left(\frac{2.31 \text{ ft head}}{\text{psi}}\right) = 277,588,080 \text{ ft} - \text{lbs}$$

$$277,588,080 \text{ ft} - \text{lbs} * \left(\frac{\text{kWh}}{2,655,220 \text{ ft} - \text{lbs}}\right) = \frac{104.5 \text{ kWh}}{.7} = 149.3 \text{ kWh}$$

$$149.3 \text{ kWh} * \left(\frac{\$0.12}{\text{kWh}}\right) = \frac{\$17.92}{\text{day}} * \left(\frac{365 \text{ days}}{\text{year}}\right) = \frac{\$ 6,541}{\text{year}} \text{ or } \approx \$ 6,500 \text{ annually}$$

Thus, the annual costs for GAC adsorption are more than the two aeration costs. Even if 50% of the influent is bypassed around the GAC beds, the cost remains nearly double that of spray and tray aeration. More water may be bypassed to keep the cost of GAC treatment competitive with the other two methods; however, the DBP formation potential of Hodge Street water may cause compliance issues if there is a sufficient TOC concentration in the effluent. The annual costs of each strategy are presented in Table 34.

Table 34: Economic Comparison of Alternate Strategies

Treatment Strategy	Recirculation Costs (\$/year)	Carbon Replacement Costs (\$/year)	Annual Costs (\$/year)
Spray aeration	\$ 6,500	n/a	\$ 6,500
Tray aeration	\$ 6,500	n/a	\$ 6,500
GAC adsorption	n/a	\$ 17,520	\$ 17,520
GAC + aeration	\$ 6,500	\$ 17,520	\$ 24,020

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings from the compilation of studies and recommended responses are as follows:

- The County's raw water, particularly from the Hodge Street WTP, has a considerable immediate chlorine demand. Studies of the facility's raw water have shown instances where an initial free chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L falls to a residual of 3.1 mg/L within one minute. On more than one occasion, the free chlorine residual decreased by more than 1 mg/L between Hodge Street's hydro-tank and the facility's POE, indicating stagnation. Other times, the drop in free chlorine between the same two points was only 0.1 mg/L. Investigation of the Waverly PWS and development of a protocol for mapping the water quality throughout the system is recommended. A protocol of this sort would provide a more detailed and accurate representation of the water chemistry at different points throughout the distribution system. Water quality mapping may be implemented via sample collection and/or use of a computerized hydraulic model. It is recommended that these samples be taken repeatedly at different times of the year and day, ensuring that sufficient samples be taken during worse-case conditions for DBPs (Mid-day during late summer).
- On average, chloroform comprised over 80% of the THM species in the Waverly system's finished water, followed by BDCM ($\approx 16\%$), DBCM ($\approx 2\%$), and lastly bromoform ($\leq 1\%$). This distribution suggests favorable volatilization potential with proper aeration methods.
- Single-pass spray aeration demonstrated an initial average TTHM removal of 29.5%, a reduction of 17.9% after 24 hours of incubation at 30°C, and a 15.7% reduction after 48

hours of incubation. Chloroform and bromoform experienced the greatest and least amount of volatilization, respectively. The single pass through a quality spray aerator increased the time the water remained within compliance levels for an additional ten hours; this may prove an opportunity for small-system utilities that slightly exceed TTHM limits or have seasonal THM issues and chloroform as the primary THM species. However, it is not likely to provide sufficient THM reduction for full-scale application at the Hodge Street facility.

- Stripping via tray aeration showed an immediate TTHM reduction of 46.7% after a single pass. Diminishing returns existed with each subsequent pass. After four passes, 85.5% of the initial TTHMs had been removed; further passes brought TTHM concentrations down to non-detectable levels. The data collected during the evaluation suggests that, after three or four passes, THMs are mitigated for current conditions. Utilization of a ground storage tank with a recirculating tray aerator for batch-type removal of THMs at the Hodge Street facility appears feasible. It is recommended that the volume of water used for recirculation and other operating parameters be adjusted as needed to accommodate for seasonal and demand fluctuations.
- Neither single-pass spray aeration nor recirculating tray aeration appeared to have a significant effect on the water's free chlorine residuals. Free chlorine levels diminished at considerable rates, whether aeration was occurring or not.
- The blending study showed that the chlorine dose applied to the water had a considerable impact on instantaneous chlorine demand as well as DBP formation kinetics. Elevated chlorine doses were shown to water's initial chlorine demand and noticeably accelerate by-

product formation. Data reported herein suggests that a 50% bypass across the planned GAC operation can keep chlorine costs manageable and provide a sufficient reduction of DBPFP. Even when exposed to a chlorine dose of 6.5 mg/L, the 50% blend endured approximately 42 hours of contact time before the TTHM concentration exceeded 80 ppb. The lower chlorine dose of 3.25 mg/L, when applied to the 50% blend, had an HAA₅ concentration of 27 ppb and a free chlorine residual of 0.3 mg/L after 48 hours of incubation. Thus, according to the findings, remaining below the 4 mg/L maximum residual disinfectant level (MRDL) while applying a 50% bypass appears to be an appropriate option for providing safe chlorine residuals in the distribution system while effectively reducing DBP formation.

- The proposed master plan recommends the combination of recirculating tray aeration and GAC adsorption. This strategy shows promise for effectively and efficiently removing both formed DBPs as well as their precursors. The plan suggests using UC1240AW carbon in the adsorption vessels with a 50% bypass around the GAC units. It is recommended that the recirculating storage tank be operated in such a manner as to allow for three passes through the tray aerator assembly.
- Associated operational costs were based on providing the maximum monthly average flow of 60,000 gpd. The proposed master plan has a conceptual operating cost of approximately \$24,000 annually for carbon replacement and operation of the recirculation pump. However, if the recommended 50% bypass around the GAC is implemented, carbon costs are cut in half and the conceptual operating cost is reduced to approximately \$15,250 annually.

APPENDIX A: PLANT AND SYSTEM DATA

Table A.1: Hodge Street WTP Flow and Process Data

	Monthly Avg. Flow	Monthly Max. Day Flow	12-MADF Flow	POE Avg. Chlorine Residual	POE Max. Day Chlorine Residual	POE Phosphate Residual	Remote Phosphate Residual
Feb '16	1,138	22,000	28,975	0.79	1.37	1.13	1.27
Mar '16	1,548	26,000	23,402	0.73	1.30	1.18	1.16
Apr '16	133	3,000	14,642	0.72	1.90	1.39	1.28
May '16	1,097	15,000	11,746	0.53	1.00	0.75	0.76
Jun '16	600	7,000	8,366	0.63	1.49	0.85	0.86
Jul '16	3,226	13,000	6,230	0.49	0.73	0.86	0.86
Aug '16	1,935	36,000	1,902	0.54	1.10	0.88	0.88
Sep '16	750	5,000	1,939	0.82	2.18	0.72	0.72
Oct '16	2,177	5,000	1,161	0.56	0.82	0.82	0.85
Nov '16	2,433	31,000	1,290	0.41	0.74	0.63	0.64
Dec '16	194	5,000	1,292	0.57	1.10	0.64	0.63
Jan '17	613	6,000	1,325	0.45	0.81	0.77	0.75
Feb '17	250	4,000	1,258	0.91	1.66	0.62	0.61
Mar '17	48,258	137,000	5,225	1.32	2.55	0.70	0.64
Apr '17	29,867	91,000	7,668	1.19	2.61	0.65	0.59
May '17	59,484	134,000	12,627	1.91	2.57	0.59	0.64
Jun '17	34,767	96,000	15,436	2.11	2.76	0.51	0.61
Jul '17	22,516	182,000	17,074	1.35	2.30	0.59	0.65
Aug '17	55,516	119,000	21,625	2.21	3.04	0.52	0.56
Sep '17	51,667	108,000	25,810	2.64	3.29	0.53	0.55
Oct '17	14,129	44,000	26,825	1.61	3.26	0.59	0.59
Nov '17	21,633	38,000	28,403	1.71	2.23	0.52	0.56
Dec '17	31,258	73,000	31,041	1.85	3.19	0.55	0.57
Jan '18	25,065	98,000	33,118	1.94	3.20	0.55	0.58
Average	17,093.92	54,083.33	13,682.50	1.17	1.97	0.73	0.74
Minimum	133.33	3,000.00	1,161.20	0.41	0.73	0.51	0.55
Maximum	59,483.87	182,000.00	33,117.81	2.64	3.29	1.39	1.28

Table A.2: Waverly WTP Flow and Process Data

	Monthly Avg. Flow	Monthly Max. Day Flow	12-MADF Flow	POE Avg. Chlorine Residual	POE Max. Day Chlorine Residual	POE Phosphate Residual	Remote Phosphate Residual
Feb '16	94,690	158,000	212,846	1.77	2.09	1.18	1.26
Mar '16	99,000	158,000	74,221	1.92	2.31	0.98	1.16
Apr '16	98,800	136,000	79,481	1.98	2.69	1.10	1.26
May '16	109,839	172,000	84,270	1.80	2.49	0.63	0.75
Jun '16	105,167	175,000	89,525	1.94	2.44	0.73	0.86
Jul '16	102,000	147,000	93,292	1.96	2.72	0.70	0.86
Aug '16	118,710	184,000	99,708	1.79	2.50	0.79	0.88
Sep '16	105,650	142,000	101,042	1.95	2.80	0.67	0.73
Oct '16	104,403	138,000	103,161	1.71	2.71	0.70	0.83
Nov '16	114,533	165,000	104,538	1.61	2.34	0.62	0.66
Dec '16	109,339	144,000	105,537	1.86	2.40	0.58	0.64
Jan '17	109,887	145,000	106,063	1.72	2.30	0.51	0.63
Feb '17	100,679	141,000	106,553	1.93	2.35	0.55	0.62
Mar '17	75,097	257,000	104,523	1.87	2.57	0.50	0.60
Apr '17	94,633	206,000	104,181	1.71	2.89	0.45	0.57
May '17	68,000	165,000	100,627	1.67	2.36	0.62	0.63
Jun '17	54,800	79,000	96,488	1.77	2.84	0.56	0.65
Jul '17	72,935	146,000	94,019	2.07	2.85	0.56	0.62
Aug '17	55,613	80,000	88,660	1.91	2.24	0.52	0.56
Sep '17	55,117	75,000	84,507	1.99	2.77	0.51	0.54
Oct '17	97,500	203,000	83,921	2.58	3.38	0.53	0.58
Nov '17	88,567	193,000	81,786	2.08	2.69	0.58	0.60
Dec '17	65,935	107,000	78,100	1.78	2.16	0.63	0.63
Jan '18	84,910	166,000	75,979	1.93	2.45	0.66	0.64
Average	91,075.17	153,416.67	98,042.83	1.89	2.56	0.66	0.74
Minimum	54,800.00	75,000.00	74,221.31	1.61	2.09	0.45	0.54
Maximum	118,709.68	257,000.00	106,553.42	2.58	3.38	1.10	1.26

APPENDIX B: LABORATORY RESULTS

Table A.3: Hodge Street WTP Baseline GC Results

Sample Name	Chloroform Conc. (ppb)	BDCM Conc. (ppb)	DBCM Conc. (ppb)	Bromoform Conc. (ppb)	TTHM Conc. (ppb)
0 hour	14.5	0.9	1.2	1.0	18
2 hour	38.5	7.7	1.0	1.0	48
12 hour	58.6	12.4	1.8	1.0	74
24 hour	70.9	14.8	2.2	1.0	89
24 hour dup	72.6	15.2	2.3	1.0	91
48 hour	75.3	16.5	2.5	1.0	95
48 hour rep	76.6	16.6	2.5	1.0	97
48 hour spike	120.7	69.8	57.5	54.8	303

Table A.4: Waverly WTP Baseline GC Results

Sample Name	Chloroform Conc. (ppb)	BDCM Conc. (ppb)	DBCM Conc. (ppb)	Bromoform Conc. (ppb)	TTHM Conc. (ppb)
In situ	32.8	6.0	0.8	0.7	40
In situ dupe	33.8	6.2	0.8	0.7	41
t=0 hour	17.5	2.6	0.7	0.7	21
t=0 hour dup	17.4	2.6	0.7	0.7	21
t=1 hour tank	10.9	2.1	0.7	0.7	27
t=1 hour tank rep	12.8	2.1	0.7	0.7	16
t=1 hour tank spike	56.2	48.1	50.9	54.2	209
t=1 hour tank dup	22.7	3.8	0.7	0.7	28
t=1 hour bottle	29.2	6.7	1.1	0.7	38
t=1 hour bottle dup	27.9	6.3	1.0	0.7	36
t=4 hours	32.6	7.8	1.3	0.7	42
t=4 hours dup	34.5	8.2	1.3	0.7	45
t=4 hours dup rep	33.9	8.0	1.3	0.7	44
t=4 hours dup spike	79.2	57.6	54.2	55.6	247
t=10 hour	43.4	9.8	1.6	0.7	56
t=10 hour dup	36.9	8.0	1.3	0.7	47
t=22 hour	44.6	9.1	1.4	0.7	56
t=22 hour dup	57.2	12.6	2.2	0.7	73
t=46 hour	71.5	15.4	2.6	0.7	90
t=46 hour rep	68.1	14.3	2.4	0.7	85
t=46 hour spike	111.5	64.9	55.2	54.4	286
t=46 hour dup	70.4	15.1	2.7	0.7	89
t=94 hour	82.7	16.5	2.8	0.7	103
t=94 hour dup	84.5	17.1	2.9	0.7	105
Site 2	45.0	9.0	1.5	0.7	56
Site 2 dup	45.3	8.8	1.4	0.7	56
Site 2 dup rep	28.6	5.5	0.7	0.7	35
Site 2 dup spike	78.2	60.3	59.3	61.6	259
Site 3	41.6	8.4	1.3	0.7	52
Site 3 dup	41.2	8.3	1.3	0.7	52
Site 4	35.5	6.8	1.0	0.7	44
Site 4 dup	58.1	11.8	2.1	0.7	73

Table A. 5: Spray Aeration GC Data

Sample Name	Chloroform Conc. (ppb)	BDCM Conc. (ppb)	DBCM Conc. (ppb)	Bromoform Conc. (ppb)	TTHM Conc. (ppb)
Un aerated t=0 hour	37.3	6.9	1.1	0.7	46
Un aerated t=0 hour dup	34.0	6.3	1.0	0.7	42
Un aerated t=4 hour	49.4	9.2	1.7	0.7	61
Un aerated t=4 hour dup	42.4	8.5	1.4	0.7	53
Un aerated t=7 hour	65.5	15.5	2.4	0.7	84
Un aerated t=7 hour dup	63.3	14.4	2.2	0.7	81
Un aerated t=24 hour	84.3	18.9	2.9	0.7	107
Un aerated t=24 hour dup	83.5	18.6	2.9	0.7	106
Un aerated t=48 hour	92.8	19.2	3.3	0.7	116
Un aerated t=48 hour dup	83.0	13.2	3.1	0.7	100
Aerated t=0 hour	25.3	3.5	0.3	0.7	30
Aerated t=0 hour dup	27.0	4.1	0.3	0.7	32
Aerated t=4 hour	31.2	5.9	1.3	0.7	39
Aerated t=4 hour dup	33.2	7.9	1.2	0.7	43
Aerated t=7 hour	47.8	10.0	1.6	0.7	60
Aerated t=7 hour dup	46.5	9.2	1.4	0.7	58
Aerated t=24 hour	70.2	14.1	2.3	0.7	87
Aerated t=24 hour dup	69.6	13.8	2.2	0.7	86
Aerated t=48 hour	81.6	15.4	2.5	0.7	100
Aerated t=48 hour dup	68.8	11.5	1.6	0.7	83

Table A.6: Tray Aeration GC Data

Sample Name	Chloroform Conc. (ppb)	BDCM Conc. (ppb)	DBCM Conc. (ppb)	Bromoform Conc. (ppb)	TTHM Conc. (ppb)
field1	51.2	9.9	1.7	1.0	64
field2	51.8	10.0	1.8	1.0	65
field3	50.4	9.7	1.7	1.0	63
t=0	49.8	11.4	2.1	1.0	64
t=0 dup	47.1	10.6	1.9	1.0	61
t=0 dup rep	48.0	10.9	1.9	1.0	62
t=0 dup spike	88.4	59.9	57.3	59.8	265
t=0 trip	48.5	10.9	1.9	1.0	62
t=10	22.0	4.9	0.6	1.0	29
t=10 dup	25.2	5.5	1.0	1.0	33
t=10 trip	25.7	5.1	0.9	1.0	33
t=20	14.0	2.7	1.0	1.0	19
t=20 rep	14.4	2.9	1.0	1.0	19
t=20 spike	59.9	50.2	53.8	57.1	221
t=20 dup	14.1	2.9	1.0	1.0	19
t=20 trip	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=30	9.3	1.5	1.0	1.0	13
t=30 dup	8.2	1.4	1.0	1.0	12
t=30 trip	9.1	1.4	1.0	1.0	13
t=30 trip rep	9.2	1.4	1.0	1.0	13
t=30 trip spike	51.7	44.9	50.5	55.3	202
t=40	6.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	10
t=40 dup	6.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	9
t=40 trip	6.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	10
t=50	5.5	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=50 dup	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=50 dup rep	5.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	8
t=50 dup spike	47.0	42.6	47.9	53.1	191
t=50 trip	5.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	9
t=60	5.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=60 dup	4.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=60 trip	4.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=120	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=120 rep	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8

t=120 spike	54.1	49.0	54.4	60.2	218
t=120 dup	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=120+16	32.7	4.0	1.0	1.0	39
t=120+16 dup	32.3	3.9	1.0	1.0	38
t=120+22	41.6	5.1	0.7	1.0	48
t=120+22 dup	48.2	6.2	0.9	1.0	56
t=120+22 dup rep	42.6	5.6	0.9	1.0	50
t=120+22 dup spike	85.3	51.6	52.1	56.0	245
t=12	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=12 dup	5.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=12+14	4.6	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=12+14 dup	4.8	1.0	1.0	1.0	8
t=12+29	6.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	10
t=12+29 rep	6.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	10
t=12+29 spike	56.3	47.2	51.6	55.8	211
t=12+29 dup	6.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	10

Table A.7: Chlorine Demand Curve from Hodge Street WTP (July 2017)

Elapsed Time (hours)	Free Chlorine (mg/L)
0	2.4
2	1.04
12	0.52
24	0.2
48	0.02
72	0.01

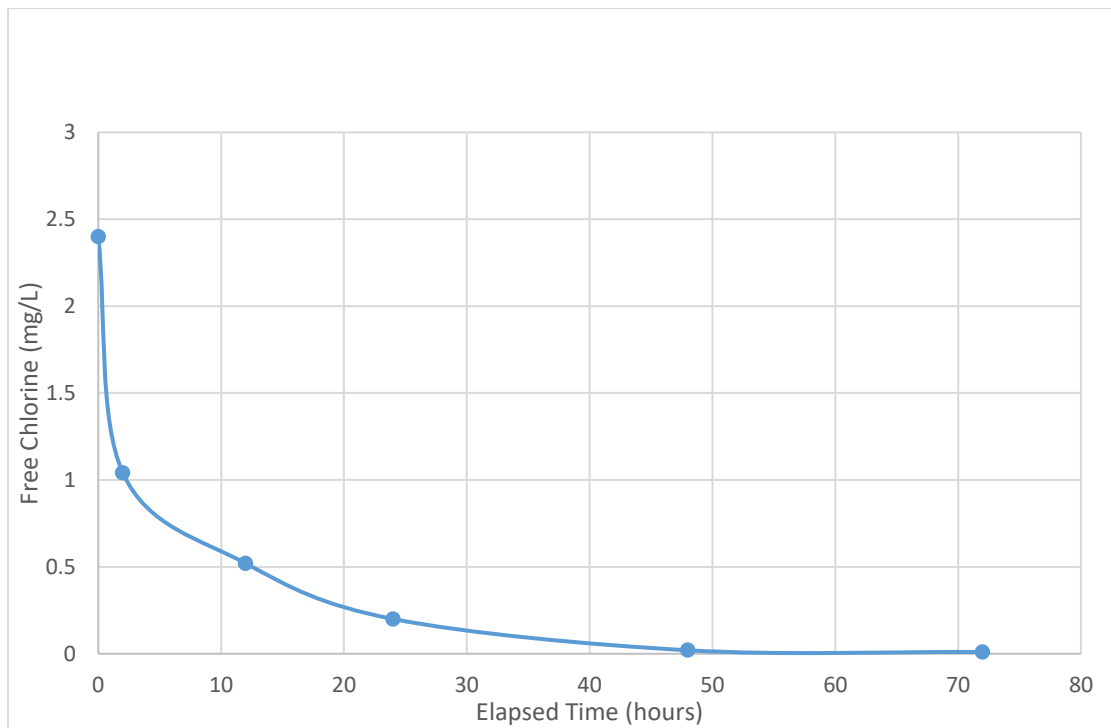


Figure A.1: Chlorine Demand Curve from Hodge Street WTP (July 2017)

Table A.8: Chlorine Demand Data from Hodge Street WTP (August 2017)

Elapsed Time (hours)	Free Chlorine (mg/L)
0	3.3
4	1.73
7	1.47
24	0.9
48	0.37

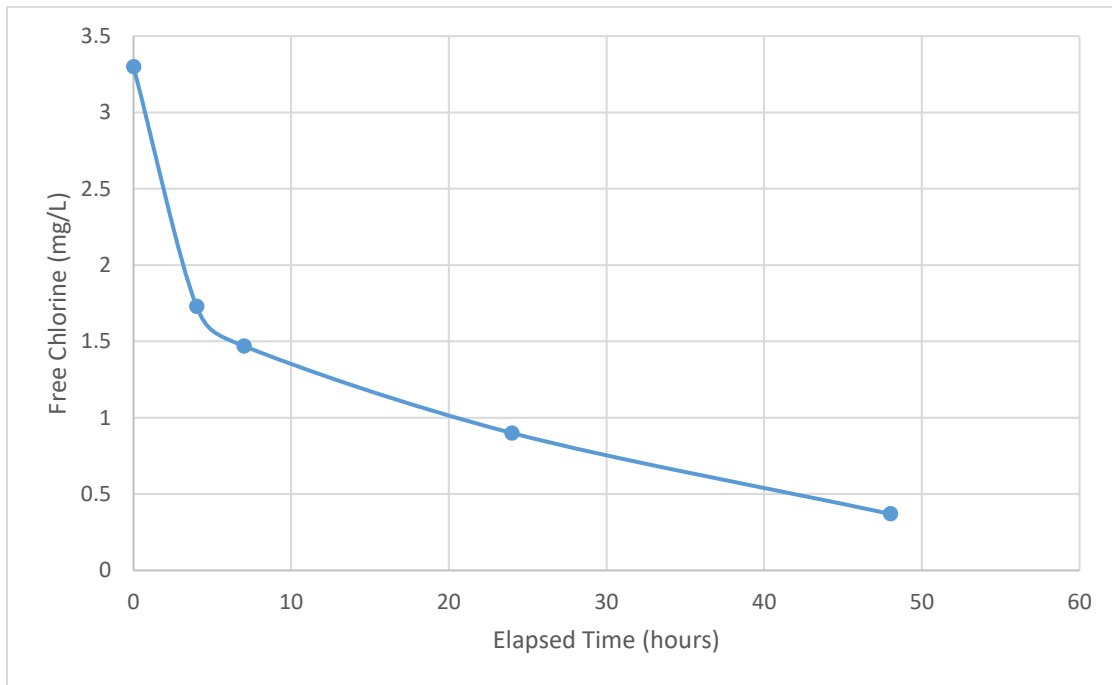


Figure A.2: Chlorine Demand Curve for Hodge Street WTP (August 2017)

Table A.9: Chlorine Demand Data for Waverly WTP (October 2017)

Elapsed Time (hours)	Free Chlorine (mg/L)
0	3.7
1	3.2
4	2.7
10	2.3
22	1.8
46	1.6

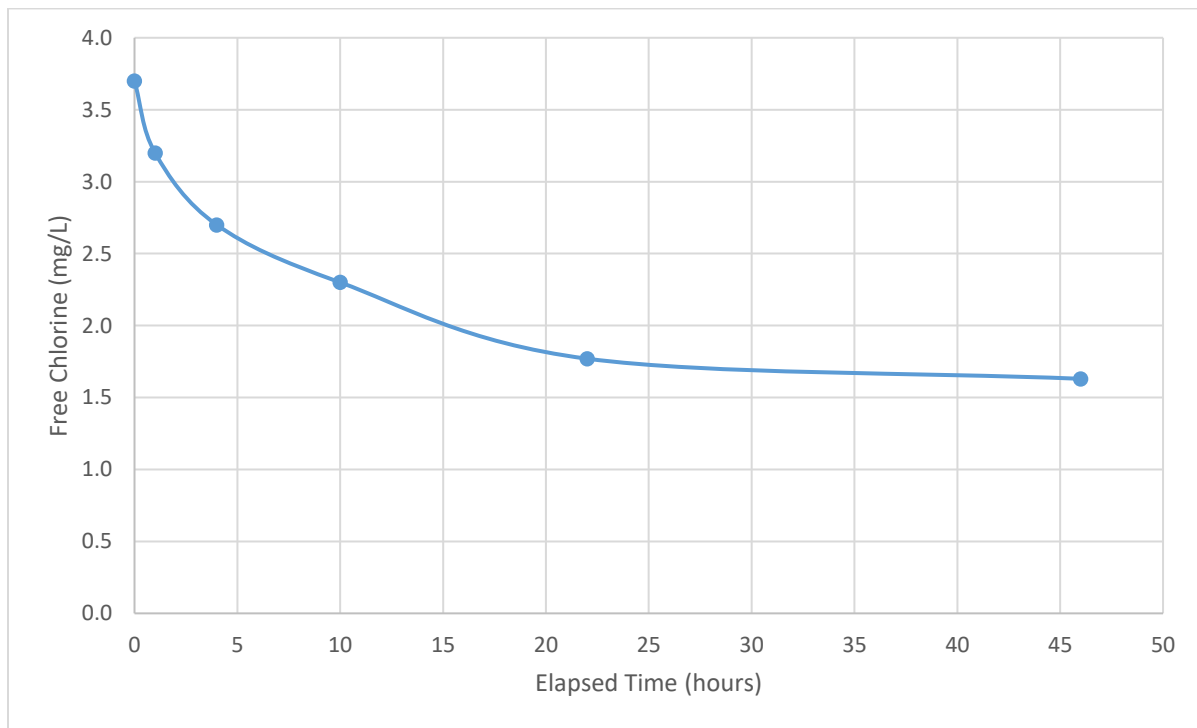


Figure A.3: Chlorine Demand Curve for Waverly WTP (October 2017)

APPENDIX C: EVOQUA'S TOC AND GAC STUDIES REPORT



TOC AND GAC STUDIES

Isotherm Adsorption and Rapid Small-Scale Column Tests for the Removal of Total Organic Carbon from Groundwater Using Granular Activated Carbons

Prepared for: Polk County Utilities, Winter Haven, FL
Prepared by: Adam Redding, PhD, Evoqua Water Technologies LLC, Bellefonte, PA 16823

Executive Summary

The work herein aimed to predict the performance of granular activated carbon (GAC) adsorbers using both isotherm adsorption tests and the Rapid Small-Scale Column Test (RSSCT) when that GAC is treating groundwater for the removal of total organic carbon (TOC). To that end, GAC performance was measured with two (2) GAC types: virgin Westates[®] AquaCarb[®] 1230CX (AC1230CX) and virgin Westates UltraCarb[®] 1240AW (UC1240AW). The influent water for testing was provided by Polk County via the University of Central Florida to Evoqua Water Technologies LLC on 30 June 2017. The full-scale-size GACs were ground to <325 US Mesh for isotherm tests and 170 × 200 US Mesh size grains for the RSSCTs.

Isotherm tests indicated similar TOC capacities for the UC1240AW and AC1230CX carbons, with UC1240AW having a slightly higher capacity. Results implied that at an influent concentration of ~3.6 mg/L the UC1240AW carbon would have a capacity of 128 mg TOC / g GAC. At this same influent concentration, the AC1230CX material would have a capacity of 113 mg TOC / g GAC.

UC1240AW provided markedly more-favorable removal of TOC in RSSCTs. Using 2.0 mg/L as a point of comparison, breakthrough to this level with UC1240AW occurred at 60 days versus the same level of breakthrough with AC1230CX at 24 days. Both GACs appeared to reach a plateau with regards to removal at ~80 days although UC1240AW continuously removed TOC to a level below 2.5 mg/L while AC1230CX removed TOC steadily at 2.7 mg/L.

1. Overview and Objective

GAC is widely used in water purification for the removal of synthetic and naturally occurring organic compounds from groundwater and surface water. During the disinfection of drinking water using chlorine, harmful byproducts can form via reaction of that chlorine with natural organic matter (NOM). Removal of NOM prior to disinfection is one method by which the formation of disinfection by-products (DBPs) can be controlled. GAC is applied for this purpose where the concentration of NOM is measured as TOC and the GAC performance measured as TOC reduction.

Adsorption isotherms provide a measure of the equilibrium capacity for a given adsorbent at a given adsorbate concentration. These tests are limited thus to estimating carbon performance in terms of ultimate sorption capacity. Since adsorption is allowed to occur over several days, with the goal of reaching equilibrium, isotherm tests cannot be used to infer adsorption kinetics. Tests of adsorption kinetics have demonstrated that carbons with a high equilibrium capacity may concurrently have unfavorable kinetics; conversely a low equilibrium capacity carbon may display relatively fast kinetics (Newcombe et al., 2002). For this reason, RSSCTs are preferred over isotherm tests as a more accurate lab-scale predictor of full-scale performance (Rangel-Mendez and Cannon, 2005).

RSSCTs offer a method for the prediction of full-scale activated carbon performance by mimicking the dynamics of a full-scale GAC bed. By reducing the size of the bed and the carbon grains, a relatively small water sample (10 gal - 100 gal) is required per test and that the test can be conducted in a matter of days or weeks. As a progression in the development of a GAC application, RSSCTs are often applied prior to commencing pilot studies, where pilot studies would use the full-scale grains under full-scale hydraulic loading rates.

The objective of this work was to use isotherms and RSSCTs to estimate the potential full-scale performance of two GACs, AC1230CX and UC1240AW, for removal of TOC from a groundwater sample as supplied by Polk County.

2. Experimental Methods

2.1. Activated Carbon Material and Preparation

Virgin UltraCarb 1240AW (Lot 26630) and virgin AC1230CX (Lot 27062) was acquired from Evoqua Water Technologies in June 2017. UC1240AW is offered as 12×40 US Mesh and AC1230CX is offered as 12×30 US Mesh-size material at full-scale grain size. GAC for use in isotherms was prepared by grinding the as-received GAC, wet-sieving using a 325-US mesh sieve (0.044 mm), and then collecting the fraction passing that size. GAC for use in RSSCTs was prepared by grinding the as-received GAC and then wetsieving it using a 170-US mesh (0.090 mm) sieve combined with a 200-US mesh (0.075 mm) sieve to obtain the 170×200 fraction. In wet-sieving, the surface of the sieve is rinsed with distilled water to remove fines and prevent particles from adhering to each other or the surface of the mesh. Dry-sieving is not adequate as electrostatics prevent the correct particle size from passing the mesh. After rinsing with about 5 L of additional distilled water per gram of ground GAC, the samples were dried under vacuum at 105°C for 24 hours before storage. After preparation the samples were stored in a vacuum desiccator. This storage technique aims to minimize exposure to atmospheric oxygen and moisture, decreasing the potential for a change in surface chemistry due to oxidation (Li and Knappe, 2002).

2.2 Isotherm Tests

Isotherm tests for TOC adsorption were conducted per ASTM D5919, Standard Practice for Determination of Adsorptive Capacity of Activated Carbon by a MicroIsotherm Technique for Adsorbates at ppb Concentrations (ASTM, 2014). GAC was ground and wet-sieved to <325 US mesh and test bottles were held at 20°C for 5 days while being stirred via magnetic stir bar. Final TOC concentrations ranged from 1.2 to 3.3 mg/L across GAC dosages ranging from 2 to 50 mg/L.

2.3. Rapid Small-Scale Column Tests

RSSCTs were used as a measure of fixed-bed GAC adsorption performance for contaminant removal. The RSSCTs were performed similarly to the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) Standard Practice D6586, assuming proportional diffusivity scaling.

Specifically, the ratio of the empty-bed contact times was set equal to the ratio of the grain diameters between the small-scale and large-scale grains. At the small-scale, 0.36 mL of the ground GAC was used per test, and thus each BV was equal to 0.36 mL. For a broad range of compounds the work of Crittenden and colleagues (Crittenden et al., 1986 and 1991) has demonstrated this approach and that RSSCTs are useful for predicting fullscale and pilot-scale adsorber performance. Detailed calculations for the RSSCT scaling are included in Appendix I.

To compare with the full-scale, ~76 BV were processed through the RSSCT in 1 hour at an RSSCT contact time of ~0.80 minutes (Table 1), versus 4 BV per hour at the full scale contact time of 15 minutes. The small-scale columns were constructed of polycarbonate with stainless steel fittings and polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) interconnecting tubing (Figure 1).

The tests of AC1230CX and UC1240AW were run concurrently using the same influent water that was refrigerated during testing at 4°C.

Table 1: Full-scale operating conditions compared to RSSCTs.

	Full-Scale		Small-Scale		
			AC1230CX	UC1240AW	
Bed Diameter	12	ft	0.48	0.48	cm
Fill Weight*	40,000	lb	0.148	0.145	g
Apparent Density	0.50	g/cc	0.41	0.38	g/cc
Bed Depth	12.6	ft	2.0	2.0	cm
Bed Volume**	1428	ft ³	0.36	0.36	mL
Hydraulic Loading	6.3	gpm/ft ²	0.67	0.67	gpm/ft ²
Empty-Bed Contact Time	15.0	min	0.73	0.79	min
Particle Size	12 × 30 or 12 × 40	US Mesh	200 × 400	200 × 400	US Mesh

cm – centimeter, g – gram, lb – pound, cc – cubic centimeter, ft – foot, gpm – gallon-per-minute, mL/min – milliliters-per-minute, US – United States.

*Assuming an apparent density of 0.50 g/cc.

**Assuming media backwashed and drained to 92% of apparent density.

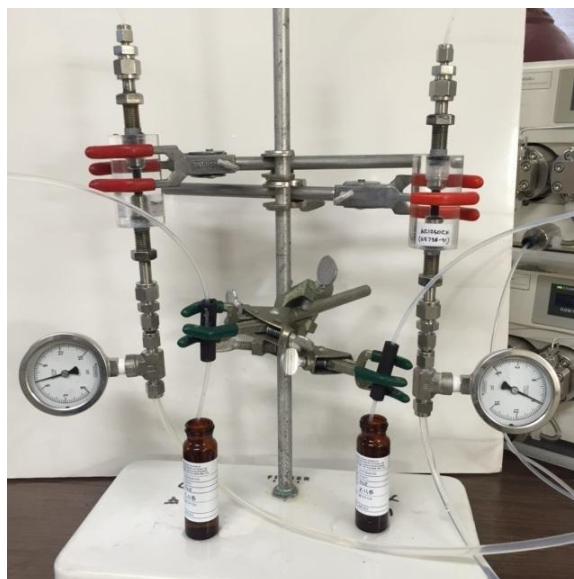


Figure 1. Example of RSSCT columns as typically configured. The GAC beds are visible within the red clamps. Shown also are the pressure gauges, located on the lower end of the columns since operation is in an up-flow direction.

2.4. Analytical

Analytical for the isotherm samples was conducted in the Evoqua Warrendale, PA laboratory using a Teledyne Tekmar Lotix Model 15-1600-000 combustion type analyzer. Analytical for the RSSCT samples was conducted by Eurofins-Eaton Analytical (Monrovia, CA) and samples were collected in containers provided by this laboratory (Table 2). Samples were refrigerated at 4°C until shipment on-ice to the laboratory. All appropriate temperatures and sample hold times were maintained. Influent samples for TOC analysis were collected at two points near the beginning and end of the test run. Eight (8) effluent samples per GAC were collected, spread across the ~20,000 BV test duration.

Analytical results for the RSSCT are included in Appendix II.

Table 2. Details of Applied Analytical Methods

Analytical	Compound	Reporting Limit (Typ.)	Sample Size	Preservative
SM5310B	Total Organic Carbon (TOC)	0.1 mg/L	1 × 125 mL Brown Amber Bottle	Sulfuric Acid

mg/L – milligrams-per-liter, mL – milliliter

2.5. Water Source

The water sample for testing was received in multiple 2.5-gal low-density polyethylene collapsible bags by Evoqua on June 30th, 2017, with the sample having been collected from Polk County and refrigerated by University of Central Florida personnel the previous day. The samples were kept refrigerated at 4°C until use in testing.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. TOC Isotherms

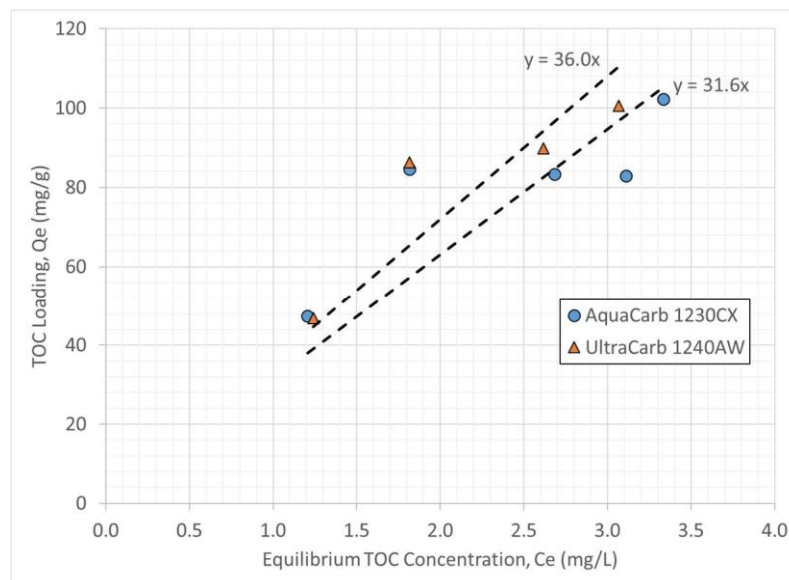


Fig. 2 – Equilibrium loading of TOC on two activated carbons as compared to equilibrium concentration of TOC in the source water.

Across the range of equilibrium TOC concentrations (1.3 mg/L to 3.3 mg/L) the isotherm curves for both GACs appear to be linear with respect to TOC loading (Figure 2). The TOC in the as-received sample of TOC was measured as 3.6 mg/L. UC1240AW provided 12% greater loading than AC1230CX across the range of equilibrium TOC concentration. Both isotherm curves trend toward the origin (0,0) implying that all of the compounds comprising the TOC were indeed adsorbable. Conversely if an isotherm curve intersects the x-axis, the point of intersection indicates the portion of the TOC that is not adsorbable.

From the isotherm curve constants, usage rates can be estimated assuming the water influent to the GAC system has a TOC of 3.6 mg/L as measured in the control water sample. This usage rate assumes a flow of 500 gallons-per-minute (gpm) and a goal of 100-percent removal of the TOC. Greater flow rates would increase the usage rate by the corresponding multiple of the flow, e.g. 1000 gpm would amount to twice the usage rate at 500 gpm.

Example Usage Rate Estimate for 500 gpm of Flow – 100% TOC Reduction

Given:

Flow = 500 gpm

Influent TOC Concentration = 3.6 mg/L

For UC1240AW:

$$Q_e \text{ (mg/g)} = 36 \times C_e \text{ (mg/L)}$$

1) Loading of TOC: $36 \cdot 3.6^{mg/L} = 130 \text{ mg TOC/g carbon}$

2) Usage Rate:

$$\left(\frac{500 \text{ gal}}{\text{min}}\right) \left(\frac{3.785 \text{ L}}{\text{gal}}\right) \left(\frac{1440 \text{ min}}{\text{day}}\right) \left(\frac{3.6 \text{ mg TOC}}{\text{L}}\right) \left(\frac{\text{g GAC}}{130 \text{ mg TOC}}\right) \left(\frac{\text{lb}}{453 \text{ g}}\right) (1.75)$$

$$\approx \frac{290 \text{ lb GAC}}{\text{day}}$$

The factor of “1.75” in the above equation is applied to roughly account for difference between the amount of adsorbate loading achieved at equilibrium and the adsorbate loading achieved at breakthrough. Since at initial breakthrough the GAC at the forward edge of the mass

transfer zone is not exposed to the full influent concentration the loading of adsorbate is considerably less than that at equilibrium with the influent.

To estimate a changeout frequency, the calculated usage rate (above) must be applied against the weight of GAC in a given vessel. A “40,000 lb” GAC vessel is sized with a bed volume of ~1428 ft³ assuming an average apparent GAC density of 28 lb/ft³; when using a low density GAC however such as UC1240AW the fill weight is approximately 28,000 lb. Using this weight of UC1240AW and the usage rate above, the bed life can be estimated as ~96 days to breakthrough of TOC.

4. RSSCTs

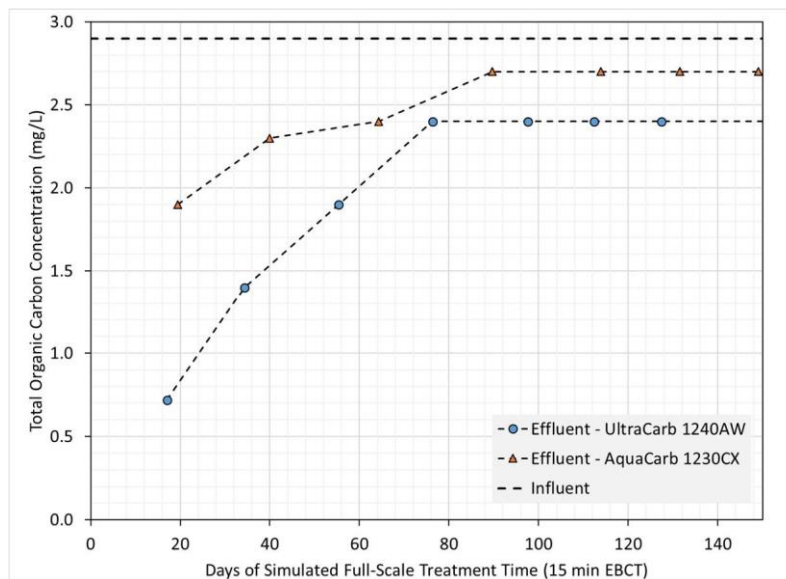


Fig. 3 – Breakthrough of TOC in terms of simulated service time in RSSCTs scaled for a 15minute EBCT.

The performance of UC1240AW for removal of TOC in RSSCTs was noticeably more-favorable than that of AC1230CX (Figure 3). Using 2.0 mg/L as a point of comparison, breakthrough to this level with UC1240AW occurred at 60 days versus the same level of breakthrough with AC1230CX at 24 days. Both GACs appeared to reach a plateau with regards to removal at ~80 days although UC1240AW continuously removed TOC to a level below 2.5

mg/L while AC1230CX removed TOC steadily at 2.7 mg/L. The steady removal of TOC beyond initial breakthrough suggests that capacity remains in the GAC but that the mass transport rate is too slow for a greater portion of the TOC to be adsorbed.

In comparing the results of the RSSCTs to the isotherm usage rate estimate, the isotherm approach appears to markedly over-predict the GAC performance. It should be noted however that although the isotherm curves did not indicate a non-adsorbable fraction, that fraction may still have been present since none of the GAC dosages removed TOC below a level of 1.1 mg/L.

Biological activity is a common occurrence in GAC beds when removing TOC and this activity can offer extended and continuous reduction of TOC. RSSCTs cannot simulate this phenomenon since several weeks are typically required for biogrowth to occur. Instead a pilot study using full-scale carbon grains is the best approach for determining the efficacy of biological activity.

4. Conclusions

- UC1240AW offered a slightly higher capacity for TOC in isotherm tests.
- The estimated usage rate from the isotherm test was 290 lb/day of GAC, equating to ~96 days until TOC breakthrough.
- UC1240AW performed most-favorably in RSSCTs, providing 50% removal of TOC until approximately 40 days of scaled operation.
- The estimate based on isotherm results appeared to over-predict the expected GAC performance.

References

Crittenden, J. C., Berrigan, J. K., Hand, D. W., 1986. Design of Rapid Small-Scale Adsorption Tests for a Constant Diffusivity. *Journal Water Pollution Control Federation* 58 (4), 312-319. 551

Crittenden, J. C., Reddy, P. S., Arora, H., Trynoski, J., Hand, D. W., Perram, D. L., Summers, R. S., 1991. Predicting Gac Performance with Rapid Small-Scale Column Tests. *Journal American Water Works Association* 83 (1), 77-87.

Li, L., Quinlivan, P. A., Knappe, D. R. U., 2002. Effects of activated carbon surface chemistry and pore structure on the adsorption of organic contaminants from aqueous solution. *Carbon* 40 (12), 2085-2100.

Newcombe, G., Morrison, J., Hepplewhite, C., Knappe, D. R. U., 2002. Simultaneous adsorption of MIB and NOM onto activated carbon - II. Competitive effects. *Carbon* 40 (12), 2147-2156.

Rangel-Mendez, J. R., Cannon, F. S., 2005. Improved activated carbon by thermal treatment in methane and steam: Physicochemical influences on MIB sorption capacity. *Carbon* 43 (3), 467-479.

REFERENCES

- American Public Health Association. (2017). *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater*. Washington DC: American Public Health Association.
- Crittenden, J. C., Trussell, R. R., Hand, D. W., Howe, K. J., & Tchobanoglous, G. (2012). *Water Treatment: Principles and Design (3rd Ed.)*. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Duranceau, S., & LaBerge, E. (2014). *Study of the Formation and Control of Disinfection Byproducts Originating from a Surface Water Supply on the Volcanic Island of Guam*. Orlando: UCF.
- Duranceau, S., & Smith, C. T. (2015). *Trihalomethane Removal and Re-Formation in Spray Aeration Processes Treating Disinfected Groundwater*. Orlando: UCF.
- Duranceau, S., & Yoakum, B. (2017). *Investigating Novel Water Treatment Methods and Monitoring Techniques for Sulfide-Laden Grounwater Supplies*. Orlando: UCF.
- Duranceau, S., & Yonge, D. (2012). *A Comparison of Aluminum and Iron-Based Coagulants for Treatment of Surface Water in Sarasota County, Florida*. Orlando: UCF.
- Harris, D. C. (2009). *Exploring Chemical Analysis*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Hua, G., & Reckhow, D. A. (2012). Effect of Alkaline pH on the Stability of Halogenated DBPs. *American Water Works Association*, E107-E120.

- Hung, Y.-C., B., W. B., Yemmireddy, V., & Huang, C.-H. (2017). pH Effect of the Formation of THM and HAA Disinfection Byproducts and Potential Control Strategies for Food Processing. *Journal of Integrative Agriculture*, 2914-2923.
- Karapinar, N., Uyak, V., & Topal, T. (2014). Seasonal Variations of NOM Composition and their Reactivity in a Low-Humic Water. *Environmental Progress and Sustainable Energy*, 962-971.
- Liang, L., & Singer, P. (2003). *Factors Influencing the Formation and Relative Distribution of Haloacetic Acids and Trihalomethanes in Drinking Water*. Environmental Science.
- Ozdemir, K., Toroz, I., & Uyak, V. (2013). Assessment of Trihalomethane Formation in Chlorinated Raw Waters with Differential UV Spectroscopy Approach. *The Scientific World Journal*.
- Plummer, J., & Edzwald, J. (2001). Effect of Ozone on Algae as Precursors for Trihalomethane and Haloacetic Acid Production. *Environmental Science*.
- Polk County Utilities. (2017). *Water and Wastewater Capacity Summary Report*. Polk County.
- Richards, R. a. (1996). *Unit Operations and Processes in Environmental Engineering*. Boston: PWS Publishing.
- Rook, J. (1976). Haloforms in Drinking Water. *American Water Works Association*, 168-172.
- Sawyer, C. N., McCarty, P. L., & Parkin, G. F. (2003). *Chemistry for Environmental Engineering and Science (5th Ed.)*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Tetra Tech. (2017). *Polk County Waverly Water System Evaluation*. Orlando: Tetra Tech.

USEPA. (2006, January). *Stage 1 and Stage 2 Disinfectants and Disinfection Byproducts Rules*.

Retrieved from EPA: <https://www.epa.gov/dwreginfo/stage-1-and-stage-2-disinfectants-and-disinfection-byproducts-rules>

USEPA. (2009, May). *National Drinking Water Standards*. Retrieved from Drinking Water

Contaminants: <https://www.epa.gov/ground-water-and-drinking-water/table-regulated-drinking-water-contaminants>

USEPA. (2009). *National Primary Drinking Water Regulations (EPA 816-F-09-004)*.

USEPA Technical Support Division. (1996). *ICR Manual for Bench and Pilot-Scale Treatment Studies*. USEPA.

USGS. (2014). *What is Ground Water?* Reston: USGS.

USGS. (2015). *Ground Water Atlas of the United States*. Reston: USGS.