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2340   HARDNESS*#(31)

2340 A.   Introduction

1. Definition

Originally, water hardness was understood to be a measure of the capacity of water to precipitate soap. Soap is precipitated chiefly by the calcium and magnesium ions present. Other polyvalent cations also may precipitate soap, but they often are in complex forms, frequently with organic constituents, and their role in water hardness may be minimal and difficult to define. In conformity with current practice, total hardness is defined as the sum of the calcium and magnesium concentrations, both expressed as calcium carbonate, in milligrams per liter.

When hardness numerically is greater than the sum of carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity, that amount of hardness equivalent to the total alkalinity is called ''carbonate hardness''; the

amount of hardness in excess of this is called ''noncarbonate hardness.'' When the hardness numerically is equal to or less than the sum of carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity, all hardness is carbonate hardness and noncarbonate hardness is absent. The hardness may range from zero to hundreds of milligrams per liter, depending on the source and treatment to which the water has been subjected.

2. Selection of Method

Two methods are presented. Method B, hardness by calculation, is applicable to all waters and yields the higher accuracy. If a mineral analysis is performed, hardness by calculation can be reported. Method C, the EDTA titration method, measures the calcium and magnesium ions and may be applied with appropriate modification to any kind of water. The procedure described affords a means of rapid analysis.

3. Reporting Results

When reporting hardness, state the method used, for example, ''hardness (calc.)'' or ''hardness (EDTA).''

2340 B.   Hardness by Calculation

1. Discussion

The preferred method for determining hardness is to compute it from the results of separate determinations of calcium and magnesium.

2. Calculation

Hardness, mg equivalent $CaCO_3/L$ = 2.497 [Ca, mg/L] + 4.118 [Mg, mg/L]

2340 C.   EDTA Titrimetric Method

1. General Discussion

a. Principle: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid and its sodium salts (abbreviated EDTA) form a chelated soluble complex when added to a solution of certain metal cations. If a small amount of a dye such as Eriochrome Black T or Calmagite is added to an aqueous solution containing calcium and magnesium ions at a pH of 10.0 ± 0.1, the solution becomes wine red. If EDTA is added as a titrant, the calcium and magnesium will be complexed, and when all of the magnesium and calcium has been complexed the solution turns from wine red to blue, marking the end point of the titration. Magnesium ion must be present to yield a satisfactory end point. To insure this, a small amount of complexometrically neutral magnesium salt of EDTA is added to the buffer; this automatically introduces sufficient magnesium and obviates the need for a blank correction.

The sharpness of the end point increases with increasing pH. However, the pH cannot be

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increased indefinitely because of the danger of precipitating calcium carbonate, $CaCO_3$, or magnesium hydroxide, $Mg(OH)_2$, and because the dye changes color at high pH values. The specified pH of 10.0 ± 0.1 is a satisfactory compromise. A limit of 5 min is set for the duration of the titration to minimize the tendency toward $CaCO_3$ precipitation.

b. Interference: Some metal ions interfere by causing fading or indistinct end points or by stoichiometric consumption of EDTA. Reduce this interference by adding certain inhibitors before titration. MgCDTA [see 2*b*3)], selectively complexes heavy metals, releases magnesium into the sample, and may be used as a substitute for toxic or malodorous inhibitors. It is useful only when the magnesium substituted for heavy metals does not contribute significantly to the total hardness. With heavy metal or polyphosphate concentrations below those indicated in Table 2340:I, use Inhibitor I or II. When higher concentrations of heavy metals are present, determine calcium and magnesium by a non-EDTA method (see Section 3500-Ca and Section 3500-Mg) and obtain hardness by calculation. The figures in Table 2340:I are intended as a rough guide only and are based on using a 25-mL sample diluted to 50 mL.

Suspended or colloidal organic matter also may interfere with the end point. Eliminate this interference by evaporating the sample to dryness on a steam bath and heating in a muffle furnace at 550°C until the organic matter is completely oxidized. Dissolve the residue in 20 mL 1*N* hydrochloric acid (HCl), neutralize to pH 7 with 1*N* sodium hydroxide (NaOH), and make up to 50 mL with distilled water; cool to room temperature and continue according to the general procedure.

c. Titration precautions: Conduct titrations at or near normal room temperature. The color change becomes impractically slow as the sample approaches freezing temperature. Indicator decomposition becomes a problem in hot water.

The specified pH may produce an environment conducive to $CaCO_3$ precipitation. Although the titrant slowly redissolves such precipitates, a drifting end point often yields low results. Completion of the titration within 5 min minimizes the tendency for $CaCO_3$ to precipitate. The following three methods also reduce precipitation loss:

1) Dilute sample with distilled water to reduce $CaCO_3$ concentration. This simple expedient has been incorporated in the procedure. If precipitation occurs at this dilution of $1 + 1$ use modification 2) or 3). Using too small a sample contributes a systematic error due to the buret-reading error.

2) If the approximate hardness is known or is determined by a preliminary titration, add 90% or more of titrant to sample *before* adjusting pH with buffer.

3) Acidify sample and stir for 2 min to expel CO_2 *before* pH adjustment. Determine alkalinity to indicate amount of acid to be added.

2. Reagents

a. Buffer solution:

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1) Dissolve 16.9 g ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl) in 143 mL conc ammonium hydroxide (NH_4OH). Add 1.25 g magnesium salt of EDTA (available commercially) and dilute to 250 mL with distilled water.

2) If the magnesium salt of EDTA is unavailable, dissolve 1.179 g disodium salt of ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid dihydrate (analytical reagent grade) and 780 mg magnesium sulfate ($MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$) or 644 mg magnesium chloride ($MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$) in 50 mL distilled water. Add this solution to 16.9 g NH_4Cl and 143 mL conc NH_4OH with mixing and dilute to 250 mL with distilled water. To attain the highest accuracy, adjust to exact equivalence through appropriate addition of a small amount of EDTA or $MgSO_4$ or $MgCl_2$.

Store Solution 1) or 2) in a plastic or borosilicate glass container for no longer than 1 month. Stopper tightly to prevent loss of ammonia (NH_3) or pickup of carbon dioxide (CO_2). Dispense buffer solution by means of a bulb-operated pipet. Discard buffer when 1 or 2 mL added to the sample fails to produce a pH of 10.0 ± 0.1 at the titration end point.

3) Satisfactory alternate ''odorless buffers'' also are available commercially. They contain the magnesium salt of EDTA and have the advantage of being relatively odorless and more stable than the NH_4Cl-NH_4OH buffer. They usually do not provide as good an end point as NH_4Cl-NH_4OH because of slower reactions and they may be unsuitable when this method is automated. Prepare one of these buffers by mixing 55 mL conc HCl with 400 mL distilled water and then, slowly and with stirring, adding 300 mL 2-aminoethanol (free of aluminum and heavier metals). Add 5.0 g magnesium salt of EDTA and dilute to 1 L with distilled water.

b. Complexing agents: For most waters no complexing agent is needed. Occasionally water containing interfering ions requires adding an appropriate complexing agent to give a clear, sharp change in color at the end point. The following are satisfactory:

1) *Inhibitor I:* Adjust acid samples to pH 6 or higher with buffer or 0.1*N* NaOH. Add 250 mg sodium cyanide (NaCN) in powder form. Add sufficient buffer to adjust to pH 10.0 ± 0.1. (CAUTION: *NaCN is extremely poisonous. Take extra precautions in its use.* Flush solutions containing this inhibitor down the drain with large quantities of water after insuring that no acid is present to liberate volatile poisonous hydrogen cyanide.)

2) *Inhibitor II:* Dissolve 5.0 g sodium sulfide nonahydrate ($Na_2S \cdot 9H_2O$) or 3.7 g $Na_2S \cdot 5H_2O$ in 100 mL distilled water. Exclude air with a tightly fitting rubber stopper. This inhibitor deteriorates through air oxidation. It produces a sulfide precipitate that obscures the end point when appreciable concentrations of heavy metals are present. Use 1 mL in ¶ 3*b* below.

3) *MgCDTA:* Magnesium salt of 1, 2-cyclohexanediaminetetraacetic acid. Add 250 mg per 100 mL sample and dissolve completely before adding buffer solution. Use this complexing agent to avoid using toxic or odorous inhibitors when interfering substances are present in concentrations that affect the end point but will not contribute significantly to the hardness value.

Commercial preparations incorporating a buffer and a complexing agent are available. Such

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mixtures must maintain pH 10.0 ± 0.1 during titration and give a clear, sharp end point when the sample is titrated.

c. Indicators: Many types of indicator solutions have been advocated and may be used if the analyst demonstrates that they yield accurate values. The prime difficulty with indicator solutions is deterioration with aging, giving indistinct end points. For example, alkaline solutions of Eriochrome Black T are sensitive to oxidants and aqueous or alcoholic solutions are unstable. In general, use the least amount of indicator providing a sharp end point. It is the analyst's responsibility to determine individually the optimal indicator concentration.

1) *Eriochrome Black T:* Sodium salt of 1-(1-hydroxy-2-naphthylazo)-5-nitro-2-naphthol-4-sulfonic acid; No. 203 in the Color Index. Dissolve 0.5 g dye in 100 g 2,2′,2″-nitrilotriethanol (also called triethanolamine) or 2-methoxymethanol (also called ethylene glycol monomethyl ether). Add 2 drops per 50 mL solution to be titrated. Adjust volume if necessary.

2) *Calmagite:* 1-(1-hydroxy-4-methyl-2-phenylazo)-2-naphthol-4-sulfonic acid. This is stable in aqueous solution and produces the same color change as Eriochrome Black T, with a sharper end point. Dissolve 0.10 g Calmagite in 100 mL distilled water. Use 1 mL per 50 mL solution to be titrated. Adjust volume if necessary.

3) Indicators 1 and 2 can be used in dry powder form if care is taken to avoid excess indicator. Prepared dry mixtures of these indicators and an inert salt are available commercially.

If the end point color change of these indicators is not clear and sharp, it usually means that an appropriate complexing agent is required. If NaCN inhibitor does not sharpen the end point, the indicator probably is at fault.

d. Standard EDTA titrant, 0.01*M*: Weigh 3.723 g analytical reagent-grade disodium ethylenediaminetetraacetate dihydrate, also called (ethylenedinitrilo)tetraacetic acid disodium salt (EDTA), dissolve in distilled water, and dilute to 1000 mL. Standardize against standard calcium solution (¶ 2*e*) as described in ¶ 3*b* below.

Because the titrant extracts hardness-producing cations from soft-glass containers, store in polyethylene (preferable) or borosilicate glass bottles. Compensate for gradual deterioration by periodic restandardization and by using a suitable correction factor.

e. Standard calcium solution: Weigh 1.000 g anhydrous $CaCO_3$ powder (primary standard or special reagent low in heavy metals, alkalis, and magnesium) into a 500-mL erlenmeyer flask. Place a funnel in the flask neck and add, a little at a time, $1 + 1$ HCl until all $CaCO_3$ has dissolved. Add 200 mL distilled water and boil for a few minutes to expel CO_2. Cool, add a few drops of methyl red indicator, and adjust to the intermediate orange color by adding 3*N* NH_4OH or $1 + 1$ HCl, as required. Transfer quantitatively and dilute to 1000 mL with distilled water; 1 mL = 1.00 mg $CaCO_3$.

f. Sodium hydroxide, NaOH, 0.1*N*.

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3. Procedure

a. Pretreatment of polluted water and wastewater samples: Use nitric acid-sulfuric acid or nitric acid-perchloric acid digestion (Section 3030).

b. Titration of sample: Select a sample volume that requires less than 15 mL EDTA titrant and complete titration within 5 min, measured from time of buffer addition.

Dilute 25.0 mL sample to about 50 mL with distilled water in a porcelain casserole or other suitable vessel. Add 1 to 2 mL buffer solution. Usually 1 mL will be sufficient to give a pH of 10.0 to 10.1. The absence of a sharp end-point color change in the titration usually means that an inhibitor must be added at this point (¶ 2*b* et seq.) or that the indicator has deteriorated.

Add 1 to 2 drops indicator solution or an appropriate amount of dry-powder indicator formulation [¶ 2*c*3)]. Add standard EDTA titrant slowly, with continuous stirring, until the last reddish tinge disappears. Add the last few drops at 3- to 5-s intervals. At the end point the solution normally is blue. Daylight or a daylight fluorescent lamp is recommended highly because ordinary incandescent lights tend to produce a reddish tinge in the blue at the end point.

If sufficient sample is available and interference is absent, improve accuracy by increasing sample size, as described in ¶ 3*c* below.

c. Low-hardness sample: For ion-exchanger effluent or other softened water and for natural wat ers of low hardness (less than 5 mg/L), take a larger sample, 100 to 1000 mL, for titration and add proportionately larger amounts of buffer, inhibitor, and indicator. Add standard EDTA titrant slowly from a microburet and run a blank, using redistilled, distilled, or deionized water of the same volume as the sample, to which identical amounts of buffer, inhibitor, and indicator have been added. Subtract volume of EDTA used for blank from volume of EDTA used for sample.

4. Calculation

$$\text{Hardness (EDTA) as mg CaCO}_3/\text{L} = \frac{A \times B \times 1000}{\text{mL sample}}$$

where:

A = mL titration for sample and
B = mg $CaCO_3$ equivalent to 1.00 mL EDTA titrant.

5. Precision and Bias

A synthetic sample containing 610 mg/L total hardness as $CaCO_3$ contributed by 108 mg Ca/L and 82 mg Mg/L, and the following supplementary substances: 3.1 mg K/L, 19.9 mg Na/L, 241 mg Cl^-/L, 0.25 mg NO_2^--N/L, 1.1 mg NO_3^--N/L, 259 mg SO_4^{2-}/L, and 42.5 mg total alkalinity/L (contributed by $NaHCO_3$) in distilled water was analyzed in 56 laboratories by the

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EDTA titrimetric method with a relative standard deviation of 2.9% and a relative error of 0.8%.

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2350   OXIDANT DEMAND/REQUIREMENT*#(32)

2350 A.   Introduction

1. Significance and Chemistry

Oxidants are added to water supplies and wastewater primarily for disinfection. Other beneficial uses include slime removal, oxidation of undesirable inorganic species (e.g., ferrous ion, reduced manganese, sulfide, and ammonia) and oxidation of organic constituents (e.g., taste- and odor-producing compounds). Oxidant demand refers to the difference between the added oxidant dose and the residual oxidant concentration measured after a prescribed contact time at a given pH and temperature. Oxidant requirement refers to the oxidant dose required to achieve a given oxidant residual at a prescribed contact time, pH, and temperature.

The fate of oxidants in water and wastewater is complex. For example, chlorine reacts with sample constituents by three general pathways: oxidation, addition, and substitution. First, chlorine can oxidize reduced species, such as Fe^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, and sulfide. In these reactions, chlorine is reduced to inorganic chloride (Cl^-). Second, chlorine can add to olefins and other double-bond-containing organic compounds to produce chlorinated organic compounds. Third, chlorine can substitute onto chemical substrates. The addition and substitution reactions produce