of 400 to 700 nm. This method is an extension of 2120C. Tristimulus values may be calculated from transmittance measurements, preferably by using the weighted ordinate method or by the selected ordinate method. The method has been described by Allen et al.,[2] who include work sheets and worked examples.

5. References

1. MCLAREN, K. 1970. The Adams-Nickerson colour-difference formula. *J. Soc. Dyers Colorists* 86:354.
2. ALLEN, W., W.B. PRESCOTT, R.E. DERBY, C.E. GARLAND, J.M. PERET & M. SALTZMAN. 1973. Determination of color of water and wastewater by means of ADMI color values. *Proc. 28th Ind. Waste Conf.,* Purdue Univ., Eng. Ext. Ser. No. 142:661.
3. BRIDGEMAN, T. 1963. Inversion of the Munsell value equation. *J. Opt. Soc. Amer.* 53:499.

6. Bibliography

JUDD, D.B. & G. WYSZECKI. 1963. Color in Business, Science, and Industry, 2nd ed. John Wiley & Sons, New York, N.Y. (See Tables A, B, and C in Appendix.)

WYSZECKI, G. & W.S. STILES. 1967. Color Science. John Wiley & Sons, New York, N.Y. (See Tables 6.4, A, B, C, pp. 462-467.)

2130 TURBIDITY*#(15)

2130 A. Introduction

1. Sources and Significance

Clarity of water is important in producing products destined for human consumption and in many manufacturing operations. Beverage producers, food processors, and potable water treatment plants drawing from a surface water source commonly rely on fluid-particle separation processes such as sedimentation and filtration to increase clarity and insure an acceptable product. The clarity of a natural body of water is an important determinant of its condition and productivity.

Turbidity in water is caused by suspended and colloidal matter such as clay, silt, finely divided organic and inorganic matter, and plankton and other microscopic organisms. Turbidity is an expression of the optical property that causes light to be scattered and absorbed rather than transmitted with no change in direction or flux level through the sample. Correlation of turbidity with the weight or particle number concentration of suspended matter is difficult because the size, shape, and refractive index of the particles affect the light-scattering properties of the suspension. When present in significant concentrations, particles consisting of light-absorbing

materials such as activated carbon cause a negative interference. In low concentrations these particles tend to have a positive influence because they contribute to turbidity. The presence of dissolved, color-causing substances that absorb light may cause a negative interference. Some commercial instruments may have the capability of either correcting for a slight color interference or optically blanking out the color effect.

2. Selection of Method

Historically, the standard method for determination of turbidity has been based on the Jackson candle turbidimeter; however, the lowest turbidity value that can be measured directly on this device is 25 Jackson Turbidity Units (JTU). Because turbidities of water treated by conventional fluid-particle separation processes usually fall within the range of 0 to 1 unit, indirect secondary methods were developed to estimate turbidity. Electronic nephelometers are the preferred instruments for turbidity measurement.

Most commercial turbidimeters designed for measuring low turbidities give comparatively good indications of the intensity of light scattered in one particular direction, predominantly at right angles to the incident light. Turbidimeters with scattered-light detectors located at 90° to the incident beam are called nephelometers. Nephelometers are relatively unaffected by small differences in design parameters and therefore are specified as the standard instrument for measurement of low turbidities. Instruments of different make and model may vary in response.†#(16) However, interinstrument variation may be effectively negligible if good measurement techniques are used and the characteristics of the particles in the measured suspensions are similar. Poor measurement technique can have a greater effect on measurement error than small differences in instrument design. Turbidimeters of nonstandard design, such as forward-scattering devices, may be more sensitive than nephelometers to the presence of larger particles. While it may not be appropriate to compare their output with that of instruments of standard design, they still may be useful for process monitoring.

An additional cause of discrepancies in turbidity analysis is the use of suspensions of different types of particulate matter for instrument calibration. Like water samples, prepared suspensions have different optical properties depending on the particle size distributions, shapes, and refractive indices. A standard reference suspension having reproducible light-scattering properties is specified for nephelometer calibration.

Its precision, sensitivity, and applicability over a wide turbidity range make the nephelometric method preferable to visual methods. Report nephelometric measurement results as nephelometric turbidity units (NTU).

3. Storage of Sample

Determine turbidity as soon as possible after the sample is taken. Gently agitate all samples before examination to ensure a representative measurement. Sample preservation is not practical; begin analysis promptly. Refrigerate or cool to 4°C, to minimize microbiological decomposition of solids, if storage is required. For best results, measure turbidity immediately without altering the original sample conditions such as temperature or pH.

Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater

2130 B.   Nephelometric Method

1. General Discussion

a. Principle: This method is based on a comparison of the intensity of light scattered by the sample under defined conditions with the intensity of light scattered by a standard reference suspension under the same conditions. The higher the intensity of scattered light, the higher the turbidity. Formazin polymer is used as the primary standard reference suspension. The turbidity of a specified concentration of formazin suspension is defined as 4000 NTU.

b. Interference: Turbidity can be determined for any water sample that is free of debris and rapidly settling coarse sediment. Dirty glassware and the presence of air bubbles give false results. ''True color,'' i.e., water color due to dissolved substances that absorb light, causes measured turbidities to be low. This effect usually is not significant in treated water.

2. Apparatus

a. Laboratory or process nephelometer consisting of a light source for illuminating the sample and one or more photoelectric detectors with a readout device to indicate intensity of light scattered at 90° to the path of incident light. Use an instrument designed to minimize stray light reaching the detector in the absence of turbidity and to be free from significant drift after a short warmup period. The sensitivity of the instrument should permit detecting turbidity differences of 0.02 NTU or less in the lowest range in waters having a turbidity of less than 1 NTU. Several ranges may be necessary to obtain both adequate coverage and sufficient sensitivity for low turbidities. Differences in instrument design will cause differences in measured values for turbidity even though the same suspension is used for calibration. To minimize such differences, observe the following design criteria:

1) Light source—Tungsten-filament lamp operated at a color temperature between 2200 and 3000°K.

2) Distance traversed by incident light and scattered light within the sample tube—Total not to exceed 10 cm.

3) Angle of light acceptance by detector—Centered at 90° to the incident light path and not to exceed ±30° from 90°. The detector and filter system, if used, shall have a spectral peak response between 400 and 600 nm.

b. Sample cells: Use sample cells or tubes of clear, colorless glass or plastic. Keep cells scrupulously clean, both inside and out, and discard if scratched or etched. Never handle them where the instrument's light beam will strike them. Use tubes with sufficient extra length, or with a protective case, so that they may be handled properly. Fill cells with samples and standards that have been agitated thoroughly and allow sufficient time for bubbles to escape.

   Clean sample cells by thorough washing with laboratory soap inside and out followed by multiple rinses with distilled or deionized water; let cells air-dry. Handle sample cells only by

the top to avoid dirt and fingerprints within the light path.

Cells may be coated on the outside with a thin layer of silicone oil to mask minor imperfections and scratches that may contribute to stray light. Use silicone oil with the same refractive index as glass. Avoid excess oil because it may attract dirt and contaminate the sample compartment of the instrument. Using a soft, lint-free cloth, spread the oil uniformly and wipe off excess. The cell should appear to be nearly dry with little or no visible oil.

Because small differences between sample cells significantly impact measurement, use either matched pairs of cells or the same cell for both standardization and sample measurement.

3. Reagents

a. Dilution water: High-purity water will cause some light scattering, which is detected by nephelometers as turbidity. To obtain low-turbidity water for dilutions, nominal value 0.02 NTU, pass laboratory reagent-grade water through a filter with pore size sufficiently small to remove essentially all particles larger than 0.1 μm;*#(17) the usual membrane filter used for bacteriological examinations is not satisfactory. Rinse collecting flask at least twice with filtered water and discard the next 200 mL.

Some commercial bottled demineralized waters have a low turbidity. These may be used when filtration is impractical or a good grade of water is not available to filter in the laboratory. Check turbidity of bottled water to make sure it is lower than the level that can be achieved in the laboratory.

b. Stock primary standard formazin suspension:

1) Solution I—Dissolve 1.000 g hydrazine sulfate, $(NH_2)_2 \cdot H_2SO_4$, in distilled water and dilute to 100 mL in a volumetric flask. CAUTION: *Hydrazine sulfate is a carcinogen; avoid inhalation, ingestion, and skin contact. Formazin suspensions can contain residual hydrazine sulfate.*

2) Solution II—Dissolve 10.00 g hexamethylenetetramine, $(CH_2)_6N_4$, in distilled water and dilute to 100 mL in a volumetric flask.

3) In a flask, mix 5.0 mL Solution I and 5.0 mL Solution II. Let stand for 24 h at 25 ± 3°C. This results in a 4000-NTU suspension. Transfer stock suspension to an amber glass or other UV-light-blocking bottle for storage. Make dilutions from this stock suspension. The stock suspension is stable for up to 1 year when properly stored.

c. Dilute turbidity suspensions: Dilute 4000 NTU primary standard suspension with high-quality dilution water. Prepare immediately before use and discard after use.

d. Secondary standards: Secondary standards are standards that the manufacturer (or an independent testing organization) has certified will give instrument calibration results equivalent (within certain limits) to the results obtained when the instrument is calibrated with the primary standard, i.e., user-prepared formazin. Various secondary standards are available including: commercial stock suspensions of 4000 NTU formazin, commercial suspensions of microspheres of styrene-divinylbenzene copolymer,†#(18) and items supplied by instrument manufacturers,

such as sealed sample cells filled with latex suspension or with metal oxide particles in a polymer gel. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency[1] designates user-prepared formazin, commercial stock formazin suspensions, and commercial styrene-divinylbenzene suspensions as ''primary standards,'' and reserves the term ''secondary standard'' for the sealed standards mentioned above.

Secondary standards made with suspensions of microspheres of styrene-divinylbenzene copolymer typically are as stable as concentrated formazin and are much more stable than diluted formazin. These suspensions can be instrument-specific; therefore, use only suspensions formulated for the type of nephelometer being used. Secondary standards provided by the instrument manufacturer (sometimes called ''permanent'' standards) may be necessary to standardize some instruments before each reading and in other instruments only as a calibration check to determine when calibration with the primary standard is necessary.

All secondary standards, even so-called ''permanent'' standards, change with time. Replace them when their age exceeds the shelf life. Deterioration can be detected by measuring the turbidity of the standard after calibrating the instrument with a fresh formazin or microsphere suspension. If there is any doubt about the integrity or turbidity value of any secondary standard, check instrument calibration first with another secondary standard and then, if necessary, with user-prepared formazin. Most secondary standards have been carefully prepared by their manufacturer and should, if properly used, give good agreement with formazin. Prepare formazin primary standard only as a last resort. Proper application of secondary standards is specific for each make and model of nephelometer. Not all secondary standards have to be discarded when comparison with a primary standard shows that their turbidity value has changed. In some cases, the secondary standard should be simply relabeled with the new turbidity value. Always follow the manufacturer's directions.

4. Procedure

a. General measurement techniques: Proper measurement techniques are important in minimizing the effects of instrument variables as well as stray light and air bubbles. Regardless of the instrument used, the measurement will be more accurate, precise, and repeatable if close attention is paid to proper measurement techniques.

Measure turbidity immediately to prevent temperature changes and particle flocculation and sedimentation from changing sample characteristics. If flocculation is apparent, break up aggregates by agitation. Avoid dilution whenever possible. Particles suspended in the original sample may dissolve or otherwise change characteristics when the temperature changes or when the sample is diluted.

Remove air or other entrained gases in the sample before measurement. Preferably degas even if no bubbles are visible. Degas by applying a partial vacuum, adding a nonfoaming-type surfactant, using an ultrasonic bath, or applying heat. In some cases, two or more of these techniques may be combined for more effective bubble removal. For example, it may be necessary to combine addition of a surfactant with use of an ultrasonic bath for some severe

Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater

conditions. Any of these techniques, if misapplied, can alter sample turbidity; *use with care*. If degassing cannot be applied, bubble formation will be minimized if the samples are maintained at the temperature and pressure of the water before sampling.

Do not remove air bubbles by letting sample stand for a period of time because during standing, turbidity-causing particulates may settle and sample temperature may change. Both of these conditions alter sample turbidity, resulting in a nonrepresentative measurement.

Condensation may occur on the outside surface of a sample cell when a cold sample is being measured in a warm, humid environment. This interferes with turbidity measurement. Remove all moisture from the outside of the sample cell before placing the cell in the instrument. If fogging recurs, let sample warm slightly by letting it stand at room temperature or by partially immersing it in a warm water bath for a short time. Make sure samples are again well mixed.

b. Nephelometer calibration: Follow the manufacturer's operating instructions. Run at least one standard in each instrument range to be used. Make certain the nephelometer gives stable readings in all sensitivity ranges used. Follow techniques outlined in ¶s 2*b* and 4*a* for care and handling of sample cells, degassing, and dealing with condensation.

c. Measurement of turbidity: Gently agitate sample. Wait until air bubbles disappear and pour sample into cell. When possible, pour well-mixed sample into cell and immerse it in an ultrasonic bath for 1 to 2 s or apply vacuum degassing, causing complete bubble release. Read turbidity directly from instrument display.

d. Calibration of continuous turbidity monitors: Calibrate continuous turbidity monitors for low turbidities by determining turbidity of the water flowing out of them, using a laboratory-model nephelometer, or calibrate the instruments according to manufacturer's instructions with formazin primary standard or appropriate secondary standard.

5. Interpretation of Results

Report turbidity readings as follows:

Turbidity Range NTU	Report to the Nearest NTU
0–1.0	0.05
1–10	0.1
10–40	1
40–100	5
100–400	10
400–1000	50
>1000	100

When comparing water treatment efficiencies, do not estimate turbidity more closely than specified above. Uncertainties and discrepancies in turbidity measurements make it unlikely that

results can be duplicated to greater precision than specified.

6. Reference

1. U.S. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY. 1993. Methods for Determination of Inorganic Substances in Environmental Samples. EPA-600/R/93/100 - Draft. Environmental Monitoring Systems Lab., Cincinnati, Ohio.

7. Bibliography

HACH, C.C., R.D. VANOUS & J.M. HEER. 1985. Understanding Turbidity Measurement. Hach Co., Technical Information Ser., Booklet 11, Loveland, Colo.

KATZ, E.L. 1986. The stability of turbidity in raw water and its relationship to chlorine demand. *J. Amer. Water Works Assoc.* 78:72.

MCCOY, W.F. & B.H. OLSON. 1986. Relationship among turbidity, particle counts and bacteriological quality within water distribution lines. *Water Res.* 20:1023.

BUCKLIN, K.E., G.A. MCFETERS & A. AMIRTHARAJAH. 1991. Penetration of coliform through municipal drinking water filters. *Water Res.* 25: 1013.

HERNANDEZ, E., R.A. BAKER & P.C. CRANDALL. 1991. Model for evaluating turbidity in cloudy beverages. *J. Food Sci.* 56:747.

HART, V.S., C.E. JOHNSON & R.D. LETTERMAN. 1992. An analysis of low-level turbidity measurements. *J. Amer. Water Works Assoc.,* 84(12): 40.

LECHEVALLIER, M.W. & W.D. NORTON. 1992. Examining relationship between particle counts and *Giardia*, *Cryptosporidium*, and turbidity. *J. Amer. Water Works Assoc.* 84(12):54.

2150 ODOR*#(19)

2150 A. Introduction

1. Discussion

Odor, like taste, depends on contact of a stimulating substance with the appropriate human receptor cell. The stimuli are chemical in nature and the term ''chemical senses'' often is applied to odor and taste. Water is a neutral medium, always present on or at the receptors that perceive sensory response. In its pure form, water is odor-free. Man and other animals can avoid many potentially toxic foods and waters because of adverse sensory response. These senses often provide the first warning of potential hazards in the environment.

Odor is recognized[1] as a quality factor affecting acceptability of drinking water (and foods prepared with it), tainting of fish and other aquatic organisms, and esthetics of recreational waters. Most organic and some inorganic chemicals contribute taste or odor. These chemicals