

Influence of pH adjustment on chemical purification efficiency: Neutralisation of acidic effluent from chemically treated runoff water using industrial by-products

Elisangela Heiderscheidt^{1*}, Tiina Leiviskä²

¹Water Resources and Environmental Engineering, Faculty of Technology, 90014 University of Oulu, Finland

²Chemical Process Engineering, Faculty of technology, 90014 University of Oulu, Finland.

*Corresponding author: Water Resources and Environmental Engineering, Faculty of technology, 90014 University of Oulu, Finland. Phone: +358 (0)8 503502435
e-mail:elisangela.heiderscheidt@oulu.fi.

Abstract:

Chemical treatment has long been considered best available technology for purification of humic natural waters, e.g. for treatment of peat extraction runoff. Metal salts of iron are currently used in several treatment facilities in Finland. However, variations in runoff water quality and lack of refinement of process parameters have led to fluctuations in purification efficiency, low pH and high metal concentration in treated waters. This study investigated the suitability of a range of calcium-based alkaline products (including by-products of the paper, cement and mineral industries) for neutralisation of chemically treated runoff water (SUVA = 3.3). The influence of the time of pH adjustment relative to time of coagulant addition and whether observed influences were dependent on the physical form of the coagulant were evaluated. The best performing pH-adjusting products were CKD (CaO and SiO₂) and MAHT (Ca(OH)₂, CaCO₃ and CaO), by-products of the cement and paper industry, respectively. Time of pH adjustment in relation to time of coagulation addition had a significant influence on purification efficiency, especially when solid Fe₂(SO₄)₃ was applied. Adjustment of pH at 30 s before coagulant dosing resulted in a negative effect on treatment results. Furthermore, dosing of Ca(OH)₂ prior to addition of coagulant did not give any measurable benefits in floc formation for the pH levels tested. For effective removal of DOC and SS, suggested points of pH adjustment are during the flocculation stage or at the outlet of sedimentation, particularly if solid coagulants are applied.

Keywords: Coagulation pH, neutralisation products, humic waters

1. Introduction

Chemical purification is considered by the Finnish environmental authorities to be one of the best available technologies for treatment of peat extraction runoff (Finnish Ministry of the Environment, 2015). However, due to cost-related issues, small-scale and low-tech chemical treatment facilities are normally implemented, where solid metal salt coagulants are often dosed without pre-dissolution (Turveteollisuusliitto, 2010; Finnish Environmental Institute, 2015). This has resulted in a lack of control of key process parameters such as mixing and coagulant dosage, which has led to fluctuations in purification efficiency, increased acidity ($\text{pH} < 5$) and elevated metal concentration in the purified water (Heiderscheidt et al., 2013; Finnish Environmental Institute, 2015). Optimisation measures are therefore required to improve process performance and increase the reliability of the method, thereby decreasing the discharge of acidic and metal-rich effluent into the environment.

Chemical treatment (coagulation/flocculation) is a globally widely applied method for purification of water and wastewaters from various sources. Metal salts of iron and aluminium are commonly used as coagulant agents; they are cost-effective products which are particularly efficient in the removal of suspended solids (SS), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), phosphorus etc. (Bratby, 2006). In coagulation by metal salt addition, the pH at which coagulation takes place is a critical factor influencing process efficiency. It affects the properties and characteristics of pollutant substances and the metal hydrolysis species formed when the coagulant is added to the water (Duan and Gregory, 2003; Bratby, 2006; Slavik et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2015). Because the coagulant interacts with dissolved, colloidal and particulate matter via different mechanisms (e.g. complexing, adsorption, neutralisation, entrapment etc.), the optimum pH conditions for effective purification change according to the quality of the water, removal requirements and the type and dose of coagulant applied (Duan and Gregory, 2003, Matilainen et al., 2010; Slavik et al., 2012). An important characteristic of metal salts is that they react with the available alkalinity of the water, thus depressing the water pH. Adjustment of pH or addition of alkalinity may be necessary to regulate the coagulation pH to an optimum range or to increase the pH after treatment, in order to comply with distribution or discharge limits. Moreover, in the treatment of low turbidity and humic waters, pH adjustment via lime-based products can be used to enhance the purification process by promoting the formation of metal hydroxide precipitates and co-precipitation reactions between the coagulant and humic acids (Duan et al., 2012) as well as improving the flocculation process by providing nuclei sites for floc formation (Gregor et al., 1997). The adjustment of pH is therefore an important stage of chemical treatment and its influence on purification efficiency depends not only on the coagulant agent applied, but also on the type of neutralisation agent added and the time of addition (Slavik et al., 2012). A number of studies have examined the effect of pH on coagulation and report benefits and drawbacks of pH adjustment before

or after coagulant addition, as well as the type of neutralisation agent used (Gregor et al., 1997; Yan et al., 2008; Slavik et al., 2012). However, such studies normally use synthetic solutions targeting removal of single pollutants (e.g. DOC, SS etc.) and compare limited points of pH adjustment. Furthermore, studies on the use of solid coagulants are scarce. Therefore, the aim of this work was to decrease the existing lack of information regarding the influence of pH adjustment and of the time and type of neutralisation agent addition on purification efficiency, especially when solid coagulants are applied.

In general, calcium hydroxide $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) are common alkaline materials used in neutralisation of acidic effluents or as providers of alkalinity for the coagulation process. However, while NaOH or $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ are often utilised in water and wastewater treatment due to low required dosage and low costs, they do not provide residual alkalinity (buffering capacity), which makes fine pH control difficult. In the neutralisation of industrial wastewaters and acidic runoff, e.g. from acid sulphide soils and mining areas, CaCO_3 (limestone) is normally used. Although longer retention times are required, due to slower reactions, the use of CaCO_3 eliminates the risk of over-neutralisation ($\text{pH} < 8.5$) and provides residual alkalinity (Stumm and Morgan, 1996). An important aspect is that the need for pH neutralisation increases the costs and overall environmental impacts related to chemical purification. Lime-based products (calcium-containing inorganic materials) are utilised in the production processes of several industries (e.g. paper, cement, mineral etc.) and are often contained in by-products generated by these industries. The potential use of these by-products as neutralisation agents in water and wastewater treatment processes has not yet been fully explored. The use of industrial by-products can decrease costs while supporting the sustainable use of natural resources and the principle of a circular economy, leading to the development of more sustainable water and wastewater purification methods (European Commission, 2015).

The aim of this work was thus to evaluate how pH adjustment affected the chemical purification of peat extraction runoff water (typically humic and low alkalinity). The first objective was to determine the influence of time of pH adjustment (multiple points before and after coagulant addition) and type of pH-adjusting product ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 , CaO , etc.) on purification efficiency. A second objective was to identify whether the influence of pH adjustment was dependent on the physical form (solid or solution) of the coagulant used ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$). A third objective was to determine the suitability of a wide range of neutralising materials (including by-products of the paper, cement and mineral industries) for neutralisation of peat extraction runoff water submitted for chemical treatment.

2. Materials and methods

Peat extraction runoff water was obtained from a field site and the jar test methodology was applied to simulate the chemical purification process. Experimental procedures were designed to evaluate: 1) the dose of coagulant (solid and liquid) required for effective purification; 2) the dose of pH-adjusting products required to achieve a final water pH of 5.5; 3) the influence of pH adjustment on purification results; and 4) the influence on purification efficiency of time of pH adjustment in relation to time of coagulant addition.

2.1 Characteristics of water and tested chemicals

Runoff water (400 L) was collected from a peat extraction site managed by Vapo Oy located in Vaala (E: 3475877, N: 7138725), northern Finland. Periodic water quality analyses were conducted during the 6-week test period to monitor any changes in water characteristics (Table 1). Ferric sulphate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$) was the coagulant agent selected, based on results from a previous study (Heiderscheidt et al., 2013) and the fact that it is the coagulant normally applied in existing treatment facilities in Finland. A commercial-grade solid product (Kemira Oyj, Kemwater; 90% purity) was dosed in its original solid form and as a stock solution (10 g/L). Purification tests were performed using the six-jar (1 L) programmable paddle stirrer jar test equipment Flocculator 2000 (Kemira Kemwater). The pH was adjusted to a final value of around 5.5 by addition of calcium-based products, the characteristics of which are listed in Tables 2 and 3.

Water quality analyses were conducted on samples before and after purification and pH adjustment. The analyses, which were performed by a certified laboratory (using SFS-EN and ISO standard methods) determined: Total phosphorus (tot-P, SFS-EN ISO 6878:2004, detection limit $>0.5 \mu\text{g/L}$), phosphorus (P, ICP-OS: ISO 11885:2007, detection limit $>50 \mu\text{g/L}$), phosphate-phosphorus ($\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$), ammonium nitrogen ($\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$), alkalinity (Alk), acidity (Acid) and sulphate (SO_4). Selected samples were also analysed for concentrations of the following elements: Al, As, Ba, Cd, Ca, Cr, Co, Cu, Fe, Pb, Mg, Mn, Ni, K, Se, Na, Sr, S, Ti, U, V and Zn.

Water quality analyses were also performed at the in-house laboratory using standard methods to determine: Dissolved organic carbon (DOC, SFS-EN 1484:1997, Sievers 900 Portable TOC Analyzer, $0.45 \mu\text{m}$ filtration); suspended solids (SS; (GFC) SFS-EN 872:2005); turbidity (EN 27027:1994; Hach Ratio/XR Turbidity meter), colour (ISO 7887:1994; Lovibond Nessleriser Daylight 2000); and pH (SFS-EN 13037:1994; WTW Universal meter Multiline P4 Sensor: WTW Electrode Sentix 81). Analysis of UV absorbance at 254 nm ($\text{UV}_{254} \text{ abs}$) was conducted using a UV 1800 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, Japan) following the manufacturer's instructions (filtration of samples was not performed). Specific UV

absorbance (SUVA, L/mg-m) was determined by dividing the measured UV_{254} abs. by the DOC content of the samples. Charge quantity (eq/L) measurements were performed using the Müttek particle charge detector PCD 03 PH (Müttek Analytic GmbH, Germany) following the equipment manual. The method measures the total surface charge contained in the suspension using the streaming current principle. The samples were titrated using either cationic or anionic polyelectrolytes (0.001 eq/L) until the charge of the sample was neutralised. The Cq value (eq/L) of the sample was then determined based on the concentration and amount of polymer required for neutralisation of 10-mL samples.

Table 1 – Water quality characteristics of peat extraction runoff water used in tests.

Water quality parameters	Mean \pm Std. dev.	Number of analyses n
DOC (mg/L)	23.5 ± 1.8	5
Colour (mg Pt/L)	339.0 ± 32.7	7
SS (mg/L)	14.0 ± 2.4	5
Turbidity (NTU)	21.3 ± 2.6	7
tot-P (μ g/L)	100 ± 8	3
PO ₄ -P (μ g/L)	43 ± 16	3
NH ₄ -N (mg/L)	186.7 ± 9.4	3
Fe (mg/L)	6.9 ± 0.1	3
Al (μ g/L)	217 ± 5	3
Alkalinity (mmol/L)	0.61 ± 0.01	3
Acidity (mmol/L)	0.12 ± 0.02	3
Cq (μ eq/L)	-83.5 ± 5.0	4
SUVA (L/mg-m)	3.27 ± 0.11	3
pH	6.2 – 6.8	7

The pH-adjusting products tested comprised (Table 2): 1) FC7, a product of the mineral industry normally used as a filler in paints and coatings, adhesives, plastics and rubber compounds, but tested here in a new application; 2) cement kiln dust (CKD), a by-product of the cement industry. It is a fine, powdery material, the composition of which depends on the location within the dust collection system, the type of operation, the dust collection facility and the type of fuel used and thus must be evaluated on a plant-by-plant basis; 3) lime kiln dust (LKD), a by-product of the lime industry; 4) multicone kiln dust (MKD), also a by-product of the lime industry that mostly comprises dry collected kiln dust; 5) paper bleaching sludge (Pmud), a by-product of paper industry mainly composed of CaCO₃ (up to 85%) depending on the process efficiency, and as a primary sludge it contains a high amount of cellulose fibres; and 6) Mahtikalkki (MAHT), the commercial name given to a by-product of the paper industry in Finland. It is generated in the precipitated calcium carbonate process (PCC) and contains a mixture of calcium components, with low residual contaminants and fibres. Analytical quality calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂; Merk KGaA, GER) was also included, as a reference product..

Table 2 – Characteristics of calcium-based products tested for pH adjustment in the treatment of peat extraction runoff by coagulation.

Producer Type of material	Product name	Composition	Particle size distribution original	Pre- treatment	Particle size distribution after pre-treatment
Nordkalk, Lappeenranta, FIN Product of mineral industry	FC7	CaCO ₃ > 98% Other minerals < 2%	98% < 30 µm 50% < 7 µm	Drying	98% < 30 µm 50% < 7 µm
Nordkalk, Tytyri, FIN By-product of mineral industry	LKD	CaCO ₃ 58.5% CaO 27.2% Other minerals 14.3%	91,2% < 125 µm 52,5% < 32 µm	Drying	91.2% < 125 µm 52.5% < 32 µm
Nordkalk, FIN By-product of mineral industry	MKD	CaCO ₃ 95% Other minerals 5%	99,1% < 32 µm 31,2% < 4 µm	Drying	99.1% < 32 µm 31.2% < 4 µm
Finnsementti, Espoo, FIN By-product of cement industry	CKD	CaO 65% SiO ₂ 22%	100% < 1mm 82% < 125 µm	Drying	100% < 1mm 82% < 125 µm
Storaenso Imatra, FIN By-product of paper industry	MAHT	CaO, Ca(OH) ₂ , CaCO ₃	2-12 mm	Drying Grinding	100% < 1 mm 57% < 0.5 mm
Storaenso, Kemi, FIN By-product of paper industry	Pmud	CaCO ₃ (+ cellulose fibres) with at least 30% Ca	2-30 mm (fibre agglomerate)	Drying Grinding	91.3% < 1 mm 72.4% < 0.5 mm
Merk KGaA, GER Analytical quality	Calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH) ₂)	Ca(OH) ₂	Not measured (fine powder)	Drying	Not sieved (fine powder)

The reported properties of the pH-adjusting products tested consist of information provided by the suppliers/producers, in-house measurements (Table 2) and data on elemental composition determined using the X-ray fluorescence (XRF) method (Table 3) by a certified laboratory. All products were pre-treated before elemental analysis and purification tests. This involved drying at 105 °C for 2 hours before further treatment which included grinding or blending and sieving for particle size determination (two replicates, Table 2). A Bruker AXS S4 Pioneer XRF spectrometer was used to determine the elemental composition of pre-treated samples. For XRF analysis, 13.16 g of sample was mixed with 0.84 g of C-wax. A WC/Co mortar HERZOG pulverising mill was used to obtain a homogeneous dispersion and uniform particle size of the resulting mixture (sorbent and C-wax). Pressed pellets for XRF analysis were prepared from the mixture (7-8 g) using boric acid as a binder and applying a hydraulic pressure of 10 ton to compress the sample.

Table 3 – Elemental composition (wt.-%) of the six pH-adjusting by-products tested, according to X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis (for complete XRF results, see Table S1 in Supplementary Material).

Product	CaO	SiO ₂	FeO	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	MgO	Al ₂ O ₃	P ₂ O ₅
FC7	79.0	1.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.4
LKD	67.9	9.4	1.6	0.8	0.3	1.6	2.6	0.4
MKD	75.2	1.0	0.1	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	3.7
CKD	58.0	12.3	1.9	5.4	1.4	1.6	2.2	0.3
MAHT	79.6	1.7	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.4
Pmud	74.5	0.8	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.4

2.2 Experimental procedure

A suspension (10% in mass) of each of the pH-adjusting products tested was created by mixing a suitable amount of product with deionised water in a plastic container. The container was then transferred to rotational shaking equipment and the suspension was mixed (40 rpm) for 12 hours. At the time of application, the suspension was transferred to a glass beaker mounted on a magnetic mixer, allowing full homogenisation prior to dosing, which was carried out with a volumetric pipette.

Experimental procedures were based on the jar test methodology and divided into four phases as follows:

Phase 1) Evaluation of required coagulant dose for effective purification: Increasing doses of Fe₂(SO₄)₃ (solid and stock solution) were added to 1 L samples of runoff water. Mixing parameters applied: 300 rpm for 60 s followed by 50 rpm for 25 min and 30 min of sedimentation. Measurements of colour, turbidity, pH and C_q were performed on the purified samples. The dose that provided the best removal of colour and turbidity (>90%) was identified as the optimum dose for the coagulant and reported in mg of product per litre of water (two replicates).

Phase 2) Evaluation of required dose of pH-adjusting products for a final water pH of 5.5: The optimum dose of solid or pre-dissolved (Fe₂(SO₄)₃) coagulant was added to 1 L water samples while the pH of the water was continuously monitored. This was followed by 60 s of rapid mixing and 5 min of slow mixing before an increasing dose of individual pH-adjusting products was applied to each sample until a pH of 5.5 was achieved (two replicates). The dose of neutralisation products that resulted in pH 5.5 was identified as the optimum dose of the product and reported in mg of product per litre of water.

Phase 3) According to previous studies (Heiderscheidt et al., 2016), effective purification of typically humic and low alkalinity runoff water requires lower coagulant doses at acidic pH levels (4-5) than in neutral conditions. The recommendation is thus that pH adjustment be conducted after the coagulation process, so that discharge limits (pH ≥ 5) can be met. Based on this, in evaluation of the influence of pH adjustment on purification results, the selected point of pH adjustment in this phase was 15 min inside the flocculation stage (total of 25 min). This allowed the coagulation to be completed and the flocculation

process to be well underway, while also providing mixing for dispersion of the pH-adjusting product. The procedure followed was: The optimum dose of solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was added to 1 L samples and mixing was introduced as described in phase 1. For samples where pH adjustment was not conducted, a 400 mL sample of the supernatant water was collected at the end of the sedimentation period for analysis (two replicates). For samples where pH adjustment was conducted, the required dose of individual pH-adjusting products was applied after 15 min of slow mixing and a 400 mL sample of the supernatant water was collected at the end of sedimentation for analysis (two replicates). To evaluate the amount of sludge produced a similar procedure was followed, but samples were not allowed to sediment. The total volume (1 L) of the treated sample was filtered once the slow mixing stage of the purification process ended. The standard method (GFC) SFS-EN 872:2005 was used for determination of SS in the sample and the value obtained was taken as total suspended solids (TSS) and used as an indicator of the amount of sediment produced during the purification process. Based on product availability, status (by-product/product), composition ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 or mixed) and required dose and purification results, three of the pH-adjusting products tested were selected for the next phase of experiments. Priority was given to the CaCO_3 -based by-product MKD over the material FC7, which is used in the construction sector and for which a new application was evaluated in this study.

Phase 4) Evaluation of the influence of time of pH adjustment on purification efficiency: Based on the structure and organisation (dosing equipment, hydraulic conditions, process units etc.) of existing treatment facilities, practical points of pH adjustment or procedures for dosing of pH-adjusting products in relation to coagulant addition were selected as follows: a) -30 seconds (30 s before $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ addition); b) +30 seconds (30 s after ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$) addition); c) + 11 minutes (11 min after $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ addition, 10 min inside the slow mixing stage); d) post-sedimentation (post-sed), emulating the situation where the pH-adjusting product is added at the outflow of the sedimentation basin. The identified optimum dosage of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was added to 1 L samples and mixing was introduced as described in phase 1. For procedures a-c, pH-adjusting product was then added according to the description (-30 s, +30 s and +11 min). At the end of sedimentation, a 400 mL sample of the supernatant water was collected for analysis. For procedure d, at the end of the sedimentation period a 500 mL sample of the supernatant water was transferred to a second beaker, where the pH-adjusting product was added and the following mixing applied: 10 s of fast mixing (300 rpm) followed by 2 min of slow mixing (50 rpm) and 5 min of sedimentation. The supernatant water (250 mL) was collected for analysis. Two replicates of procedures a-d) were performed, as well as two replicates of a run where pH-adjusting products were not added during the purification process. Procedures a-c were performed for $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ in solid and pre-dissolved form, while procedure d) was only

performed for solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. An extra replicate of procedures a-d was conducted in which the pH of the samples was continuously monitored and recorded at 1-s intervals using an YSI 6600 V2 probe.

3. Results

3.1 Required dose of coagulant and pH adjusting product and overall purification efficiency

On evaluating the dose of solid/pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ required for effective purification (Fig. 1), it was found that, when doses lower than the optimum were applied, sharp increases in turbidity and colour values were only observed in samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (Fig. 1a). Comparative doses of solid coagulant were also less effective than pre-dissolved coagulant in neutralisation of surface charges (C_q) contained in solution at a particular pH level (Fig. 1c). The optimum dose of the coagulant identified for efficient removal (90%) of colour and turbidity was 80 mg/L for solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (Fig. 1a) and 75 mg/L for pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (Fig. 1b).

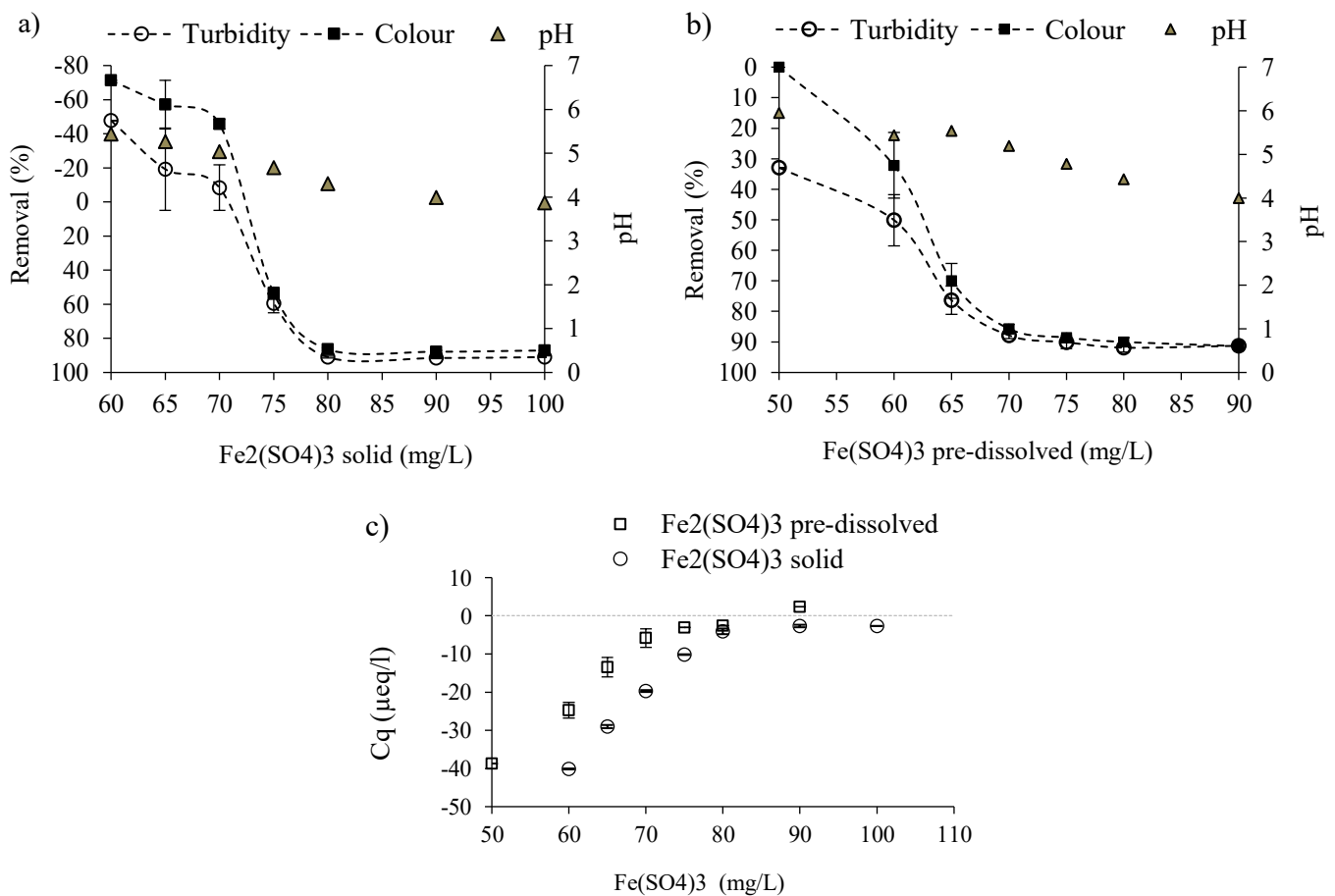


Figure 1 – Removal of colour and turbidity and resulting water pH with increasing dose of coagulant (1a and 1b) and charge quantity (C_q) with increasing dose of coagulant (1c). Minimum and maximum values of replicates indicated by error bars.

Samples treated with the optimum dose of solid and pre-dissolved coagulant had pH values around 4.5 (Fig. 1a and 1b). Thus, pH adjustment of purified water would be necessary to meet the discharge limits and avoid acidification of receiving water bodies. For an initial assessment of the influence of pH adjustment on overall purification efficiency, solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was the coagulant used and pH adjustment was performed 15 minutes inside the flocculation period (total of 25 min).

All pH-adjusting products tested (Table 2) proved capable of increasing the pH of the water to 5-5.6.5 within the provided retention time (10 min of mixing plus 30 min sedimentation). The dose required for the analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ was 8 mg/L, while the other products tested required doses between 20 and 50 mg/L to achieve the desired pH value. Higher residual DOC concentrations (15-30%) were found in samples where pH adjustment took place, with the highest residual observed in samples where the by-product Pmud was applied (Table 4). Adjustment of pH during the flocculation stage appeared not to influence the properties and settling characteristics of the flocs formed. Similar SS concentrations were found in all treated samples at the end of the sedimentation period, despite the addition of pH-adjusting products mid-way through flocculation (Table 4). The only exception was Pmud samples, which displayed a significant increase in SS concentration compared with samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ exclusively.

Table 4 – Dose of pH-adjusting products applied for neutralisation of samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$, mean residual concentration of selected substances and final water pH (mean \pm maximum and minimum values of replicates).

Added chemical	Dosage (mg/L)	DOC (mg/L)	SS (mg/L)	*TSS (mg/L)	P ($\mu\text{g/L}$)	S (mg/L)	Fe (mg/L)	Ca (mg/L)	pH
Untreated water	0	24.0 ± 2.1	14.0 ± 2.6	--	74 ± 0	0.7 ± 0.1	6.9 ± 0.1	6.1 ± 0.0	6.5 ± 0.3
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$	80	7.5 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 1.1	77.0	<50**	14.5 ± 1.0	1.6 ± 0.1	6.1 ± 0.1	4.3 ± 0.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	80+8	8.7 ± 0.3	2.0 ± 0.7	78.0	<50**	15.0 ± 1.0	1.8 ± 0.0	10.3 ± 0.2	5.8 ± 0.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MKD}$	80+40	9.1 ± 0.3	3.3 ± 2.0	93.1	80 ± 20	15.0 ± 0.0	1.3 ± 0.0	12.9 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 0.0
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{FC7}$	80+30	8.6 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 1.9	85.6	<50**	15.0 ± 0.0	1.4 ± 0.1	12.0 ± 0.1	5.8 ± 0.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$	80+40	9.2 ± 0.4	3.2 ± 1.2	81.4	<50**	14.5 ± 1.0	1.8 ± 0.1	11.3 ± 0.1	5.8 ± 0.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{LKD}$	80+30	9.2 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 1.3	93.0	<50**	15.0 ± 0.0	2.5 ± 0.3	11.5 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.0
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{CKD}$	80+23	9.2 ± 0.0	3.7 ± 1.7	82.4	<50**	14.5 ± 1.0	1.9 ± 0.0	11.5 ± 0.1	6.0 ± 0.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Pmud}$	80+50	9.6 ± 0.3	7.3 ± 2.6	112.9	<50**	14.5 ± 1.0	1.7 ± 0.2	13.3 ± 0.2	6.3 ± 0.0

*Total suspended solids, i.e. amount of solids contained in the water after addition of chemicals, but before sedimentation. **Detection limit.

The TSS values (Table 4) show the amount of solids in suspension at the end of the flocculation process, i.e. they give an indication of the amount of sediment that will accumulate at the bottom of the sedimentation basin, which has a clear effect on cost-effectiveness. The TSS concentration found in samples to which analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ was added was very similar to the concentration found in samples treated only with $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. The increased TSS concentrations observed in samples treated with

the other pH-adjusting products were most likely the result of presence of non-reactive material or impurities in their composition (e.g. Pmud and LKD) and of increased formation of metal hydroxides and CaCO_3 precipitates (e.g. FC7 and MKD) after pH adjustment. Satisfactory removal of phosphorus was obtained for all treatment combinations apart from samples treated with $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ + MKD, where no removal or an increase in phosphorus concentration was observed. Results of XRF analysis showed that phosphorus compounds made up around 1.8% of MKD composition (Table 3), confirming that the increase in phosphorus concentration in MKD-treated samples was due to release of phosphorus from the product itself. Elemental analysis conducted on raw water and treated water samples (Table S2 in Supplementary Material) showed a slight increase in compounds such as Ni, Co and S in all treated samples. These can be mostly attributed to the coagulant addition (composition and impurities). Samples treated with FC7 and CKD also showed a small increase in Sr and Cu concentrations.

3.2 Influence of time of pH adjustment on purification efficiency

The influence of time of pH adjustment in relation to time of addition of the coagulant on the overall purification efficiency was evaluated. Whether the influence of pH adjustment was dependent on the physical form (solid or solution) of the coagulant applied was also studied.

3.2.1 Coagulation with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$

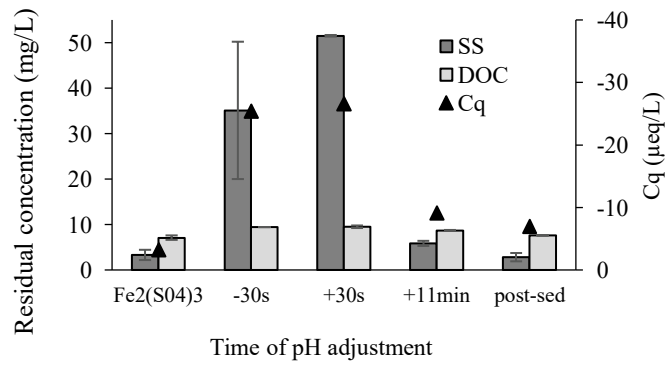
Three pH-adjusting products were selected based on their composition, status, availability and overall efficiency: analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, the mixed composition by-product MAHT ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 and CaO) and the CaCO_3 based by-product MKD. At the time of product selection, results of outsourced water quality analysis from the first phase of tests and of product characterisation by XRF (Table 3) were not available, and thus the fact that use of MKD could result in phosphorus leaching was not known. Although this affects the suitability of the product for the treatment of waters with low phosphorus concentration ($\mu\text{g/L}$), it did not influence the findings obtained in this phase of the study.

The selected pH-adjusting products were systematically added before and after addition of solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ and the purification results compared with those of samples treated only with solid coagulant. The time of pH adjustment had a significant influence on the purification results. Addition of pH-adjusting product 30 s before or after solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ addition had a severe negative effect on the purification process, resulting in significantly higher residual concentrations of DOC and SS (Fig. 2) and of phosphorus and iron (Table 5) in the treated samples. The residual charge quantity (Cq) contained in -30 and +30 s samples was also substantially more negative, especially in samples where the by-products MKD and MAHT were added (Fig. 2). Residual concentrations of SS and DOC in samples where pH adjustment

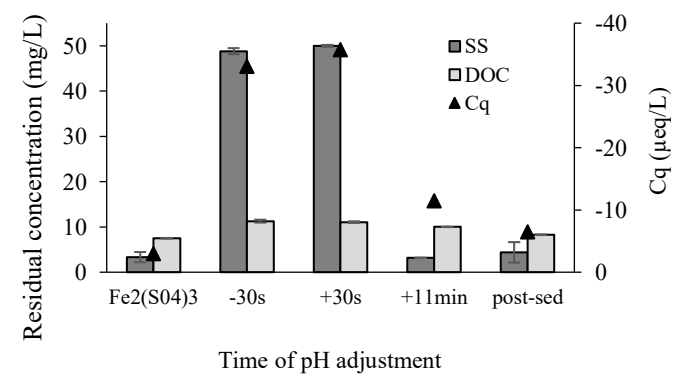
occurred at 11 min after solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ addition were slightly higher than those observed in samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ only (Fig. 2). Samples where pH adjustment occurred in the post-sedimentation stage contained similar DOC and SS concentrations to samples treated with the coagulant only.

Samples treated with MKD contained high residual phosphorus concentrations at all pH adjustment times tested, but especially in the post-sediment stage of the treatment (Table 4). As expected, the adjustment of pH influenced the alkalinity and acidity in the treated water. This influence was found to be dependent not only on the type (carbonate, hydroxide and mixed) and dose of pH-adjusting product added, but also on the time of its addition (Table 5).

a) Solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ 80 mg/L + $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ 8 mg/L



b) Solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ 80 mg/L + Maht 40 mg/L



c) Solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ 80 mg/L + MKD 40 mg/L

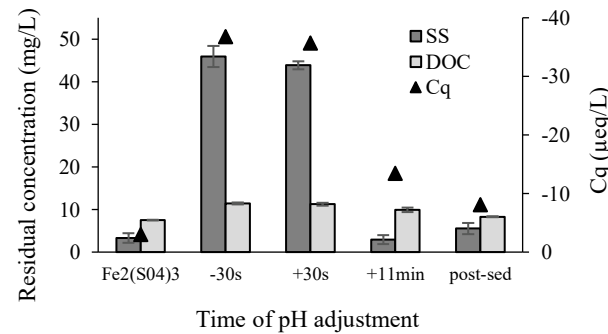


Figure 2 – Influence of the time of pH adjustment on dissolved organic carbon (DOC), suspended solids (SS) and charge quantity (Cq) in samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (maximum and minimum values of replicates indicated by error bars). Adjustment with a) analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, b) the by-product MAHT ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 and CaO) and c) the CaCO_3 based by-product MKD.

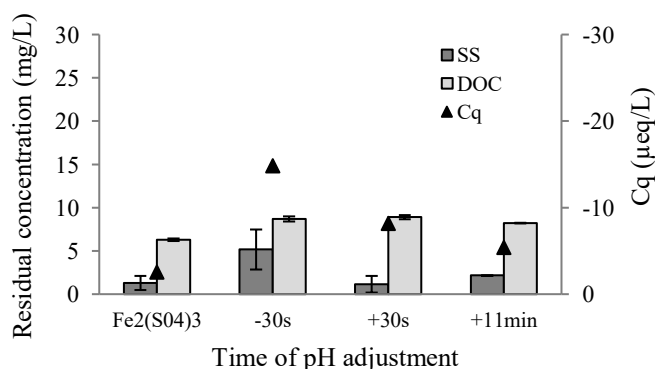
Table 5 – Influence of the time of pH adjustment on the water quality of solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ -treated samples (mean concentration \pm deviation between two experiment replicates).

Sample	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ $\mu\text{g/L}$	Tot-P $\mu\text{g/L}$	$\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ $\mu\text{g/L}$	Alk mmol/L	Acid mmol/L	Fe mg/L	SO_4 mg/L	Ca mg/L	pH
Raw water	180 \pm 0	101 \pm 10	39 \pm 18	0.61 \pm 0.00	0.10 \pm 0.00	7.0 \pm 0.0	1.9 \pm 0.2	6.1 \pm 0.0	6.2-6.8
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ Solid 80 mg/L	275 \pm 15	9 \pm 1	4 \pm 1	-0.06 \pm 0.00	0.26 \pm 0.04	1.8 \pm 0.0	45.5 \pm 0.5	6.1 \pm 0.0	4.3
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ -30 s	240 \pm 10	56 \pm 7	16 \pm 2	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.17 \pm 0.02	17.5 \pm 0.5	44.5 \pm 0.5	10.2 \pm 0.1	5.6
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ +30 s	220 \pm 30	56 \pm 1	16 \pm 0	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.20 \pm 0.01	18.5 \pm 0.5	44.0 \pm 0.0	10.3 \pm 0.0	5.6
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ +11 min	275 \pm 5	13 \pm 2	7 \pm 2	0.09 \pm 0.00	0.12 \pm 0.01	2.6 \pm 0.5	44.0 \pm 0.0	10.2 \pm 0.0	5.7
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ post-sed	265 \pm 25	7 \pm 1	4 \pm 0	0.13 \pm 0.00	0.08 \pm 0.01	1.7 \pm 0.0	43.5 \pm 0.5	10.4 \pm 0.0	5.9
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ -30 s	215 \pm 45	67 \pm 1	45 \pm 1	0.18 \pm 0.02	0.15 \pm 0.00	18.5 \pm 0.5	44.0 \pm 0.0	12.8 \pm 0.4	5.9
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ +30 s	260 \pm 10	70 \pm 0	46 \pm 2	0.19 \pm 0.03	0.15 \pm 0.01	18.5 \pm 0.2	44.0 \pm 0.0	12.9 \pm 0.6	5.9
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ +11 min	275 \pm 5	9 \pm 2	5 \pm 1	0.19 \pm 0.00	0.11 \pm 0.01	2.2 \pm 0.1	44.0 \pm 0.0	12.7 \pm 0.2	6.0
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ post-sed	280 \pm 10	8 \pm 1	5 \pm 0	0.42 \pm 0.01	0.05 \pm 0.00	1.6 \pm 0.0	43.0 \pm 0.0	14.4 \pm 1.4	6.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MKD}$ -30 s	215 \pm 35	175 \pm 15	160 \pm 20	0.25 \pm 0.01	0.15 \pm 0.01	17.5 \pm 0.5	44.5 \pm 0.5	14.2 \pm 0.2	6.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MKD}$ +30 s	215 \pm 15	180 \pm 20	150 \pm 20	0.24 \pm 0.02	0.15 \pm 0.02	17.0 \pm 0.0	44.5 \pm 0.5	14.1 \pm 0.3	6.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MKD}$ +11 min	265 \pm 5	61 \pm 12	58 \pm 12	0.22 \pm 0.00	0.10 \pm 0.01	2.3 \pm 0.7	44.5 \pm 0.5	13.2 \pm 0.2	6.0
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MKD}$ post-sed	280 \pm 0	760 \pm 40	740 \pm 50	0.49 \pm 0.04	0.05 \pm 0.00	1.6 \pm 0.0	43.5 \pm 0.5	19.6 \pm 1.0	6.2

3.2.2 Coagulation with pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$

The influence of pH adjustment on the purification efficiency achieved by pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was evaluated using two pH-adjusting products, the standard $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ and the mixed base product MAHT ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 and CaO). The adjustment of pH before or after coagulation with pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ had a measurable negative influence on purification efficiency (Fig. 3 and Table 6). However, this influence was substantially less pronounced than that observed in samples treated with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (Fig. 2 and Table 5). Residual DOC concentrations were slightly higher in all samples where pH adjustment was performed, compared with samples treated with pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ only (Fig. 3). In general, higher residual concentrations of SS, DOC, phosphorus and iron were found in samples where pH adjustment occurred 30 s before coagulant addition (Fig. 3 and Table 6) compared with other pH adjustment times.

a) Pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ 75 mg/L + $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ 7 mg/L



b) Pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ 75 mg/L + Maht 40 mg/L

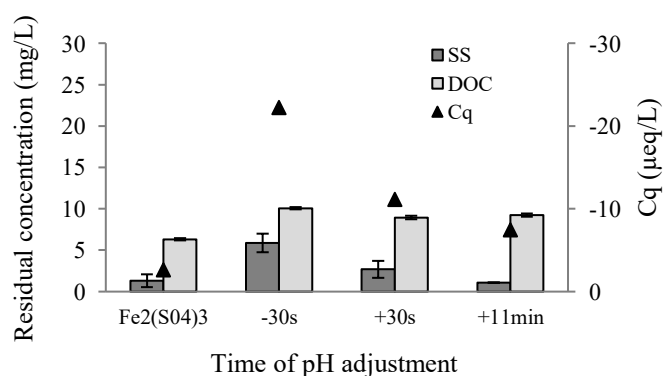


Figure 3 - Influence of the time of pH adjustment on dissolved organic carbon (DOC), suspended solids (SS) and charge quantity (Cq) in samples treated with pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (maximum and minimum values of replicates represented by error bars). Adjustment with a) analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ and b) the by-product MAHT ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, CaCO_3 and CaO).

Table 6 - Influence of the time of pH adjustment on water quality of pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ -treated samples (mean concentration \pm deviation between two experiment replicates).

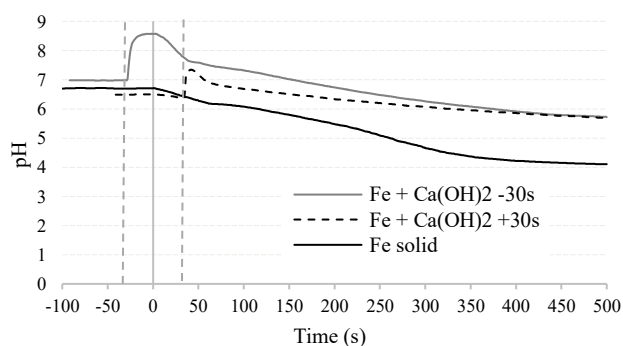
Sample	$\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ $\mu\text{g/L}$	Tot-P $\mu\text{g/L}$	$\text{PO}_4\text{-P}$ $\mu\text{g/L}$	Alk mmol/L	Acid mmol/L	Fe mg/L	SO_4 mg/L	Ca mg/L	pH
Raw water	180 \pm 0	101 \pm 10	39 \pm 18	0.61 \pm 0.00	0.10 \pm 0.00	7.0 \pm 0.0	1.9 \pm 0.2	6.1 \pm 0.0	6.2-6.8
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ Solution 75 mg/L	270 \pm 20	9 \pm 2	5 \pm 1	-0.03 \pm 0.00	0.19 \pm 0.01	1.4 \pm 0.0	40.0 \pm 0.0	6.0 \pm 0.0	4.5
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ - 30 s	245 \pm 5	18 \pm 2	13 \pm 1	0.08 \pm 0.00	0.14 \pm 0.02	4.5 \pm 0.0	41.0 \pm 0.0	9.6 \pm 0.1	5.6
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ + 30 s	260 \pm 20	9 \pm 1	6.0 \pm 0	0.09 \pm 0.01	0.13 \pm 0.00	1.8 \pm 0.0	40.0 \pm 1.0	9.6 \pm 0.1	5.6
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ + 11 min	285 \pm 5	7 \pm 1	5.0 \pm 1	0.07 \pm 0.01	0.12 \pm 0.01	1.3 \pm 0.0	40.5 \pm 0.5	9.4 \pm 0.1	5.6
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ - 30 s	235 \pm 25	22 \pm 1	14 \pm 1	0.19 \pm 0.04	0.12 \pm 0.01	5.7 \pm 0.0	39.5 \pm 0.5	11.6 \pm 0.8	5.9
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ + 30 s	250 \pm 0	10 \pm 0	7 \pm 0	0.18 \pm 0.00	0.11 \pm 0.00	1.7 \pm 0.0	39.0 \pm 0.0	11.5 \pm 0.0	6.1
$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 + \text{MAHT}$ + 11 min	245 \pm 25	8 \pm 0	6 \pm 1	0.21 \pm 0.00	0.11 \pm 0.00	1.1 \pm 0.0	40.0 \pm 1.0	12.4 \pm 0.6	6.1

4. Discussion

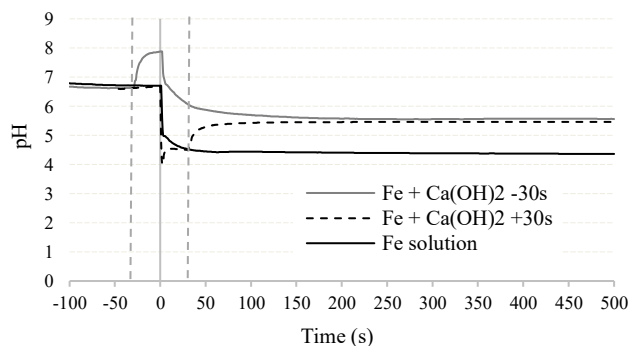
The difference in the required dose for effective coagulation between pre-dissolved and solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ indicates that pre-dissolution of the coagulant had a measurable influence on the coagulation and flocculation processes. The SUVA value of the runoff water (3.27 L/mg-m) indicates its humic nature (Matilainen et al., 2010). In the chemical treatment of acidic and humic waters by metal salt addition, charge neutralisation/precipitation is believed to be the dominant coagulation mechanism (Duan and Gregory, 2003; Wei et al., 2009; Matilainen et al., 2010). In the present study, this was supported by the effect of increasing doses of coagulant on surface charge or charge quantity (Cq) in solution and the near zero charge found in samples where optimum removal of colour and turbidity was achieved (Fig. 1c). Variations in the pH of water samples treated with solid and pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ in which pH adjustment was conducted 30 s before and after coagulant addition are presented (Fig. 4). It is reasonable to conclude that the higher dosage required for solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ compared with pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ is linked to the slow dissolution of the solid coagulant (vestiges of the solid coagulant could be seen up to 5 min after dosing). Portions of the solid coagulant went through hydrolysis reactions at different times, so as the dissolution progressed these reactions occurred under different conditions (e.g. in terms of pH, DOC concentration etc.). This might have resulted in e.g. formation of metal hydroxide species with lower charge neutralisation capacity, as well as less formation of metal hydroxide precipitates. This would explain the additional dosage of solid coagulant required to enable charge neutralisation to occur and for effective coagulation and flocculation to be achieved.

All pH-adjusting products tested were capable of increasing the pH of the water to values between 5.5 and 6.5 (Table 4) at somewhat reasonable doses. The observed differences in required dose can be linked to the purity and chemical composition of individual products. By-products required higher doses than commercially available materials and CaCO_3 -based products required higher doses than products containing Ca(OH)_2 and CaO (Table 4). The neutralisation mechanisms of different products are exemplified in the pH response curves obtained (Fig. 4). Addition of Ca(OH)_2 and the by-product MAHT (Ca(OH)_2 , CaCO_3 and CaO) resulted in a fast increase in pH due to the fast reactions of Ca(OH)_2 and CaO , while addition of the by-product MKD resulted in a gradual increase in pH values due to slower reactions involving CaCO_3 .

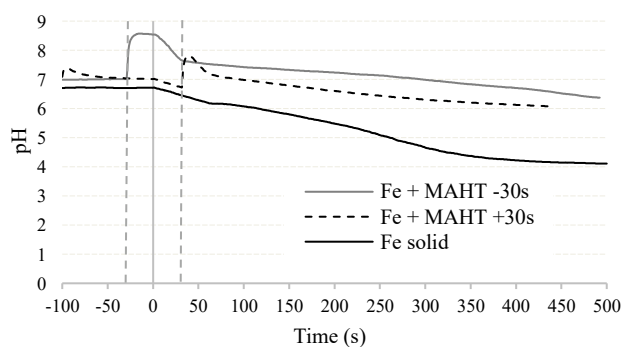
a) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solid 80 mg/L + Ca(OH)_2 8 mg/L



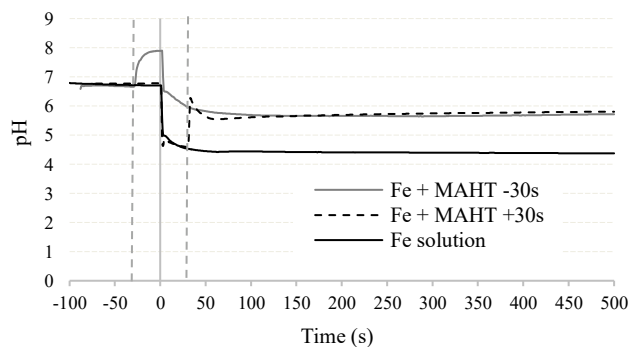
b) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solution 75 mg/L + Ca(OH)_2 8 mg/L



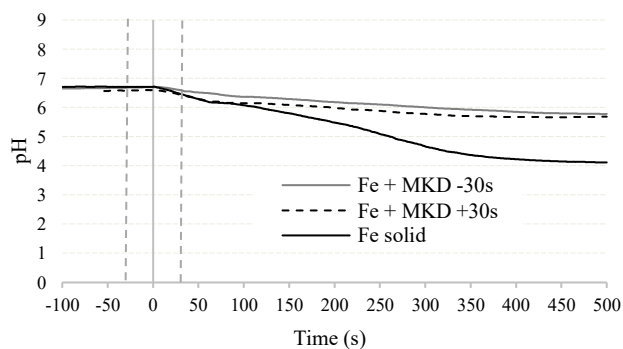
c) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solid 80 mg/L + MAHT 40 mg/L



d) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solution 75 mg/L + MAHT 40 mg/L



e) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solid 80 mg/L + MKD 40 mg/L



f) $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solution 75 mg/L + MKD 40 mg/L

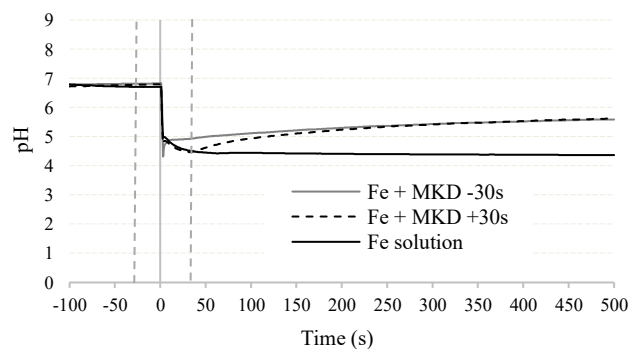


Figure 4 – Variation in pH in the solution over time due to addition of solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (a, c, e) and pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (b, d, f) and pH adjustment with analytical quality $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ (a, b), the by-product MAHT (c, d) and the by-product MKD (e, f) 30 s before or after addition of the coagulant..

The time of pH adjustment in relation to time of coagulant addition had a significant influence on purification results, especially when solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was applied. The pH at which coagulation takes place is known to have a significant effect on the coagulation mechanisms that occur (Duan and Gregory, 2003; Cheng, 2002; Jiang and Wang, 2009; Slavik et al., 2012). Increasing pH levels result in the ionisation of carboxylic and phenolic functional groups of humic acids, leading to a net increase in DOC negative surface charges. Furthermore, at higher pH the hydrolysis species of metal salt coagulants formed are of a monomeric and less positive nature, so as a result the required dose for effective coagulation increases with increasing pH (Cheng, 2002; Jiang and Wang, 2009). The coagulant dose required for samples where pH adjustment was performed prior to addition of the coagulant was not evaluated, as the aim of the study was to investigate the effect of pH adjustment at constant coagulant dosage. Therefore, lower purification efficiency was to some extent expected for samples where pH adjustment occurred prior to coagulant addition. This could be seen during experiments where pre-dissolved coagulant was applied (Fig. 3). Higher SS and DOC residual concentrations were found in samples where pH adjustment was conducted 30 s prior to coagulant addition. Furthermore, no benefits of adding $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ prior to addition of the coagulant, as an aid in floc formation, were observed during our experiments. The influence of pH adjustment 30 s prior to or after coagulant addition was significantly more accentuated than expected for the performance of solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ (Fig. 2). It is clear that the addition of pH-adjusting products had a significant effect on dissolution of the coagulant and mostly halted the coagulation process. In coagulation of humic water, acidic pH levels result in higher removal of DOC at lower coagulant doses. Therefore, pH adjustment prior to coagulant addition is not recommended. When pre-dissolved or liquid coagulants are used the coagulation process is very fast, and thus pH adjustment soon after coagulant dosing can be accomplished.

Purification results obtained when pH adjustment was conducted during the flocculation stage of the treatment processes were very similar. Neutralisation of pH during the flocculation stage was carried out in the third phase of tests (overall purification efficiency was evaluated) and the fourth phase of tests (influence of the time of pH adjustment was evaluated). Slightly higher residual DOC concentrations were found in samples where pH adjustment took place at 15 min (Table 4) or 11 min (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) inside the purification process for both solid and pre-dissolved coagulants. Hence, since coagulation had already occurred when pH adjustment was performed, it can be assumed that the increase in pH caused solubilisation of metal-humic complexes resulting in an overall higher DOC concentration in treated

samples. This was also reported by Slavik et al. (2012), who investigated the influence of changes in water pH on DOC removal during the coagulation and flocculation processes. The adjustment of pH during the flocculation stage appears not to have influenced the properties and settling characteristics of flocs formed. In line with findings by Gregor et al. (1997), similar SS concentrations were found in all treated samples at the end of the sedimentation period, despite the addition of pH-adjusting products mid-way through the flocculation process (Table 4, Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). For samples where pH adjustment was performed after the sedimentation stage (post-sed), the quality of purified water was similar to that obtained in samples treated only with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. Slightly higher SS concentration was found in samples where pH neutralisation was conducted, with the highest values found in samples where the by-products MAHT and MKD were added (Fig. 2).

Regarding the overall performance and suitability of the products tested, the paper industry by-product Pmud cannot be recommended. It required higher doses and its application resulted in low purification efficiency, with high SS, TSS and DOC residual concentrations in the treated samples. The lime industry by-products, LKD and MKD, appear to contain substantial amounts of non-reactive substances, leading to high TSS concentration in treated samples. Higher sediment production results in an increased need for sedimentation basin maintenance and cleaning and a larger sediment/sludge storage area, increasing the costs of treatment. Furthermore, leaching of phosphorus occurred when MKD was applied. Therefore, LKD and MKD can also be considered unsuitable for the use evaluated here. They might represent a viable option for SS- and phosphorus-rich waters subjected to chemical treatment. The product FC7 showed good performance and can be a suitable option for systems where CaCO_3 -based products are applicable. The by-products of the paper industry (MAHT) and cement industry (CKD) performed well and can be considered viable options for adjustment of pH in chemically treated runoff waters. Their cost-effectiveness will depend mainly on transport costs and should be evaluated on a case-by-case basis.

5. Conclusions

A lower dose (5-10%) of pre-dissolved $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was required for effective coagulation of the humic water tested compared with solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. All calcium-based products tested proved capable of increasing the pH of chemically treated runoff water from around 4 to ≥ 5.5 inside the retention time allowed (<60 min) and in moderate doses. The time of pH adjustment relative to time of coagulant addition had a significant influence on the purification results, especially when solid $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was used. Overall, higher residual concentrations of DOC and TSS were found in all samples where pH adjustment occurred. Furthermore, no benefits of adding $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ prior to addition of the coagulant, as an aid in floc formation, were observed in experiments. The increase in pollutant concentration depended on the type of pH-adjusting product and

time of its application, but especially on the type of coagulant (solid or pre-dissolved) used. Adjustment of pH just before or after solid coagulant addition appeared to affect its dissolution and the reactions which followed, and had a significant negative influence on the purification process. Lower coagulant doses and higher removal of DOC were achieved in treatment of humic water samples at acidic pH levels. Therefore, pH adjustment prior to coagulant addition is not recommended. When pre-dissolved or liquid coagulants are used the coagulation process is very fast, and thus pH adjustment soon after coagulant addition is possible. According to the results obtained, pH adjustment should be carried out during the flocculation stage of the chemical purification process or at the outlet of the sedimentation basin. This is especially recommended if solid coagulants are applied. Regarding the performance of the pH-adjusting products tested, based on required dose and overall influence on purification efficiency, the paper industry by-product MAHT and the cement industry by-product CKD performed well and can be considered viable options for adjustment of pH in chemically treated waters.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by i) Maa-ja Vesitekniikan tuki r.y, ii) Water Resources and Environmental Engineering, University of Oulu, iii) Finnish Environment Institute (SYKE) and iv) Chemical Process Engineering, University of Oulu.

References

- Bratby, J., 2006. Coagulation and flocculation in water and wastewater treatment. 2nd ed. London: IWA Publishing
- Cheng, W. P., 2002 Comparison of hydrolysis/coagulation behaviour of polymeric and monomeric coagulants in humic acid solution. *Chemosphere* 47 (2002) 963-969.
- Duan, J., Gregory, J., 2003. Coagulation by hydrolysing metal salts. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* 100-102, 475-502.
- Duan, J., Cao, X., Chen, C., Shi, D., Li, G., Mulcahy, D., 2012. Effect of Ca(OH)₂ assisted aluminium sulfate coagulation on the removal of humic acid and the formation of potentials of tri-halomethanes and haloacetic acids in chlorination. *Journal of Environmental Sciences* 24 (9), 1609-1615.
- European Commission, 2015. Closing the loop – An EU action plan for the circular economy. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX:52015DC0614>. Assessed on 15/02/2017.

- 449 Feng, L., Zhao, S., Sun, S., Wang, W., Gao, B., Yue, Q., 2015. Effect of pH with different purified
 450 aluminium species on coagulation performance and membrane fouling in coagulation/ultrafiltration
 451 process. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 300, 67-74.
- 452 Finnish Environmental Institute, 2015. The formation of peat extraction related water pollution and its
 453 management opportunities – Final report of the SulKa project. Reports of the Finnish Environmental
 454 Institute 23/2015. (Finnish with English abstract). Available at: [www.syke.fi/publications |](http://www.syke.fi/publications|helda.helsinki.fi/syke)
 455 helda.helsinki.fi/syke. Assessed on 13/03/2017.
- 456 Finnish Ministry of the Environment, 2015. Guidelines for environmental protection in peat mining.
 457 (Finnish with English abstract). Available at: [https://helda.helsinki.fi/bitstream/handle/10138/155221/](https://helda.helsinki.fi/bitstream/handle/10138/155221/OH_2_2015.pdf?sequence=1)
 458 [OH_2_2015.pdf?sequence=1](https://helda.helsinki.fi/bitstream/handle/10138/155221/OH_2_2015.pdf?sequence=1). Assessed on 17/03/2017.
- 459 Gregor, J.E., Nokes, C.J., Fenton, E., 1997. Optimising natural organic matter removal from low turbidity
 460 waters by controlled pH adjustment of aluminium coagulation. *Water Resources* 31 (12), 2949-2958.
- 461 Heiderscheidt, E., Saukkoriipi, J., Ronkanen, A-K., Kløve, B., 2013. Optimisation of chemical purification
 462 conditions for direct application of solid metal salt coagulants: Treatment of peatland derived diffused
 463 runoff. *Journal of Environmental Sciences* 25(4), 659-669.
- 464 Heiderscheidt, E., Leiviskä, T., Kløve, B., 2016. Coagulation of humic waters for diffused pollution
 465 control and the influence of coagulant type on DOC fractions removed. *Journal of Environmental*
 466 *Management* 181, 883-893.
- 467 Jiang, J-Q., Wang, H-Y., 2009. Comparative coagulant demand of polyferric chloride and ferric chloride
 468 for the removal of humic acid. *Separation Science and Technology* 44(2009), 386-397.
- 469 Matilainen, A., Vepsäläinen, M., Sillanpää, M., 2010. Natural organic matter removal by coagulation
 470 during drinking water treatment: A review. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* 2, 189-197.
- 471 Slavik, I., Muller, S., Mokosch, R., Azongbilla, A., Uhl, W., 2012. Impact of shear stress and pH changes
 472 on floc size and removal of dissolved organic matter (DOM). *Water Research* 46, 6543-6553.
- 473 Turveteollisuusliitto (Association of Finnish Peat Industries), 2010. Water treatment methods in peat
 474 production. Web document: [http://old.peatociety.org/user_files/files/jkl%20seminars%202010/](http://old.peatociety.org/user_files/files/jkl%20seminars%202010/technology/vayrynen_water_treatment11%206%202010.pdf)
 475 [technology/vayrynen_water_treatment11%206%202010.pdf](http://old.peatociety.org/user_files/files/jkl%20seminars%202010/technology/vayrynen_water_treatment11%206%202010.pdf).
- 476 Stumm, W., Morgan, J.J., 1996. *Aquatic chemistry – Chemical equilibria and rates in natural waters*.
 477 3rd ed. New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- 478 Wei, J., Gao, B., Yue, Q., Wang, Y., Li, W., Zhu, X., 2009. Comparison of coagulation behaviour and flocculation
479 structure characteristic of different polyferric-cationic polymer dual-coagulants in humic acid solution.
480 Water Research 43 (3), 724-732.
- 481 Yan, M., Wang, D., Yu, J., Ni, J., Edwards, M., Qu, J., 2008. Enhanced coagulation with polyaluminum
482 chlorides: Role of pH/Alkalinity and speciation. Chemosphere 71 (9), 1665-1673.