

ANALYSIS OF WATER QUALITY PARAMETERS IN KAMINENIPALLE VILLAGE, NANDYAL DISTRICT

**A MINI PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF
BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY
IN
CIVIL ENGINEERING**

K.VEERA SIVUDU (20095A01A1)
M.CHENNA KESAVA NAIK (20095A0115)
P.DHANUSH KUMAR REDDY (19091A0109)
P.SRAVAN KUMAR REDDY (20095A0178)
B.SREENATH (20095A0180)

Under the Esteemed Guidance of
Mr. V. MADHU M.Tech
Assistant Professor of Civil Engineering



Department of Civil Engineering
R. G. M College of Engineering and Technology
(Autonomous),
Nandyal 518 501, A. P., INDIA
(Affiliated to J. N. T. U. Ananthapur, A. P., INDIA)
(Approved by AICTE, Accredited by N.B.A, New Delhi, NAAC-A⁺ Grade)

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the mini project report entitled "ANALYSIS OF WATER QUALITY PARAMETERS IN KAMINENIPALLE VILLAGE, NANDYAL DISTRICT" that is being submitted by

K.VEERA SIVUDU	(20095A01A1)
M.CHEENNA KESAVA NAIK	(20095A0115)
P.DHANUSH KUMAR REDDY	(19091A0109)
P.SRAVAN KUMAR REDDY	(20095A0178)
B.SREENATH	(20095A0180)

in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of B.Tech in Civil Engineering in the **RAJEEV GANDHI MEMORIAL COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY**, Nandyal (Affiliated to J.N.T U, Anantapur) is a bonafide record of confide work carried out by them under our guidance and supervision. The results embodied in this mini project report have not been submitted to any other university or institute for the award of any Degree.

Signature of the Guide

Mr.V.MADHU M.Tech

Assistant Professor

Examiner:

Date:

Signature of Head of the Department

Dr.G.SREENIVASULU Ph.D

Professor and HOD

Dedicated to my beloved parents, and teachers who have worked hard throughout my education.

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Abstract

Water is the most important in shaping the land and regulating the climate. It is one of the most important compounds that profoundly influence life. The quality of water usually described according to its physical and chemical characteristics. Rapid industrialization and indiscriminate use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides in agriculture are causing heavy and varied pollution in aquatic environment leading to deterioration of water quality and depletion of aquatic biota. Due to use of contaminated water, human population suffers from water borne diseases. It is therefore necessary to check the water quality at regular interval of time. Parameters that may be tested include taste, odour, pH, nitrates and alkalinity. An assessment of the aquatic macro invertebrates can also provide an indication of water quality.

KEYWORDS: Alkalinity, Dissolved Oxygen , Acidity, Chloride, pH, Total hardness, Nitrates.

Contents

Abstract	iv
1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Drinking water	1
1.3 Distribution of water on earth	2
1.4 Study Area	3
1.5 Aim and Objective of Study	4
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	5
3 METHODOLOGY	9
4 DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE PARAMETERS	14
4.1 pH	15
4.2 Alkalinity and Acidity	17
4.2.1 Alkalinity	17
4.2.2 Acidity	19
4.3 Dissolved Oxygen	21
4.4 Electrical Conductivity	24
4.5 Total Dissolved Solids	26
4.6 Chloride Concentration	28
4.7 Taste and Odour	31
4.7.1 Taste	31
4.7.2 Odour	31
4.8 Hardness of water by EDTA titration method	33
4.9 Total Solids	35
4.10 Nitrates	37

5 RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS	40
5.1 Results	40
5.2 Conclusions	40

List of Figures

1.1	Distribution of Water	3
1.2	Kamineni palle (V)	4
3.1	Block Diagram of Water Purification	9
4.1	pH meter	15
4.2	Starting point of alkalinity	18
4.3	End point of alkalinity	18
4.4	Starting point of Acidity	20
4.5	End point of Acidity	20
4.6	Starting point of dissolved oxygen	22
4.7	End point of dissolved oxygen	23
4.8	Electrical conductivity	25
4.9	Electrical conductivity	27
4.10	Starting point of chloride	29
4.11	End point of chloride	29
4.12	Starting point of hardness	34
4.13	End point of hardness	34
4.14	Total Solids (W1)	36
4.15	Total Solids (W2)	36
4.16	UV-spectrophotometer	38

List of Tables

4.1	Results of pH	17
4.2	Results of alkalinity	19
4.3	Results of acidity	21
4.4	Results of Dissolved oxygen	24
4.5	Results of Chloride concentration	30
4.6	Results of taste water	32
4.7	Results of odour water	33
4.8	Results of Hardness water	35
5.1	Results of parameters	40

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

All plants and animals need water to survive. There can be no life on earth without water. Because 60 percent of our body weight is made up of water. Our bodies use water in all the cells, organs, and tissues, to help regulate body temperature and maintain other bodily functions. Because our bodily functions. Because our bodies lose water through breathing, sweating, and digestion, it's crucial to rehydrate and replace water by drinking fluids and eating foods that contain water.

1.2 Drinking water

Fluids and hydration are crucial for the bodily functions of humans, especially when it comes to drinking water. As you probably remember, 60-80 percent of the human body is water. However, the amount of fluid in our bodies varies, depending on certain factors, such as age, condition of internal organs, and health.

1. Delivering essential nutrients to all organs.
2. Oxygen supply to the lung and maintaining heart function.
3. Release of recycled substances and ensuring the stability of the internal environment.
4. Maintaining the normal body temperature.
5. Helping the immune system resist diseases.

Other Benefits of Drinking Water:

- It improves the condition of nails, skin, and hair, while dehydrated skin always looks dry and may cause acne problems together with aging.
- Water prevents urinary infections: directly, water does not improve the kidney function, it helps remove toxins, when those accumulate and start corroding the mucous membrane, causing inflammation and pain.
- Improved digestion: the stomach produces the necessary amount of gastric juice, with the right amount of water in the body.
- Lower blood pressure: the body can compress blood vessels, when it lacks water, which could lead to increased pressure.
- water relieves joint pain: it helps to stay in good shape and does not allow cartilage to wear out.
- Less headaches: if the body is dehydrated, headache is the first signal.

1.3 Distribution of water on earth

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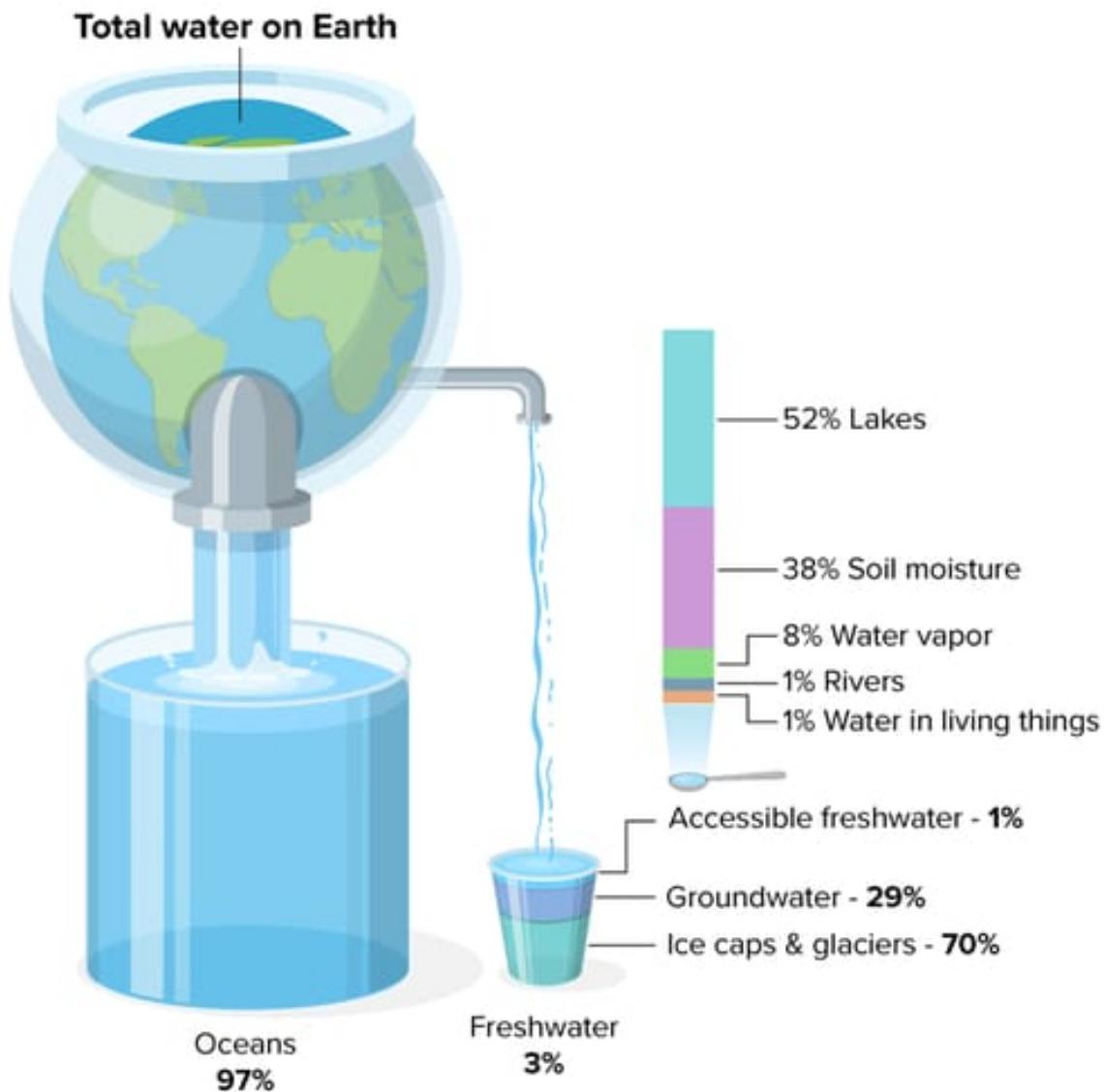


Figure 1.1: Distribution of Water

1.4 Study Area

- Kaminenipalle is a village in Sirivella Mandal in Nandyal district of Andhra Pradesh state, India. It belongs to Rayalaseema region.
- It is located 2km from sirivella.
- The total geographical area of village is 635hectares.

- There are about 366 houses in Kaminenipalle Village.
- An individual consumes eight litres of water per day, an average village requires almost 4.5 million litres per year.



Figure 1.2: Kamineni palle (V)

1.5 Aim and Objective of Study

Based on the above discussed information the present minor project titled "ANALYSIS OF WATER QUALITY PARAMETERS IN KAMINENIPALLE VILLAGE, NANDYAL DISTRICT" is selected. The objectives of the project are:

- To determine the physical parameters like taste and odour, colour, solids and electrical conductivity.
- To determine the chemical parameters like pH, acidity, alkalinity, chloride, nitrogen, etc.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

S. P. Gorde1, M. V. Jadhav, 2008. Assessment of Water Quality Parameters

Water is the most important in shaping the land and regulating the climate. It is one of the most important compounds that profoundly influence life. The quality of water usually described according to its physical, chemical and biological characteristics. Rapid industrialization and indiscriminate use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides in agriculture are causing heavy and varied pollution in aquatic environment leading to deterioration of water quality and depletion of aquatic biota. Due to use of contaminated water, human population suffers from water borne diseases. It is therefore necessary to check the water quality at regular interval of time. Parameters that may be tested include temperature, pH, turbidity, salinity, nitrates and phosphates. An assessment of the aquatic macro invertebrates can also provide an indication of water quality.

The suggested measures to improve the lake water quality includes total ban on the activities that causes pollution. Result of water quality assessment clearly showed that most of the water quality parameters slightly higher in the wet season than in the dry season. Water quality is dependent on the type of the pollutant added and the nature of self purification of water.

C.R Rama Krishnaiah, C.Sadasivaiah and Rangana,2013. Assess-

ment of water quality parameters in Tumkur Taluka, Karnataka state, INDIA.

The present work is aimed at assessing the water quality parameters for the ground water of Tumkur Talak. This has been determined by collecting ground-water samples and subjecting the samples to a comprehensive physicochemical analysis, For calculating the following parameters have been considered: PH, TOTAL HARDNESS, CALCIUM CHLORIDE, TASTE AND ODOUR, NITARTES, TOTAL DISSOVELD SOLIDS. The WQI for these samples ranges from 89.21 to 660.56. The high value of WQI has found to be mainly from the higher values of nitrate, total dissolved solids, hardness in the ground water. The results of analysis have been used to suggest models for predicting water quality. The analysis reveals that the groundwater of the area needs some degree of treatment before consumption, and it also needs to be protected from the perils of contamination.

NAYLA HASSAN OMER,2019.Water Quality Parameters

Since the industrial revolution in the late eighteenth century, the world has discovered new sources of pollution nearly every day. so, air and water can potentially become polluted everywhere. Little is known about changes in pollution in rates. The increase in water-related diseases provides a real assessment of the degree of pollution in the environment. This chapter summarizes water quality parameters form an ecological perspective not only for humans but also for other living things. According to its quality, water can be classified into four types. Those four water quality types are discussed through an extensive review of their important common attributes including physical, chemical and biological parameters.

P Payment, M Waite, A Dufour, 2020. Introducing parameters for the assessment of drinking water quality.

The index and indicator concept and outlined a number of microorganisms (and group of microorganisms) that have been adopted in quest to determine whether or not drinking water is microbiological safe to drink. This chapter examines the range of both microbial and non-microbial parameters and briefly outlines their uses and applications. For drinking water from wholesome it should not present in a risk of infection, or contain unacceptable concentrations of chemical hazardous to health and should be aesthetically accepted to the consumer. The infectious risks associated with drinking water are primarily those posed by faecal pollution, and their control depends on being able to assess the risk from any water source and to apply suitable treatment to eliminate the identified risk. Rather than trying to detect the presence of pathogens, at which time the consumer is being exposed to possible infection, There are a number of microbial parameters that are of some value as indices or indicators are those are discussed. Water quality can deteriorate in distribution due to ingress or regrowth and measures of regrowth potential and described. A number of non-microbial parameters are described, which can provide useful information about quality, and changes in quality, of source waters and the effectiveness of treatment processes.

Vinod suman vii, Kothari, sonesh Kumar Sharma, Neha Gupta, 2021. Correlation of various water quality parameters and water quality index of districts of Uttarakhand.

The study is based on hydrogeochemical and biological parameters and calculation of water quality of a rural tract in five districts of Garhwal and Kumaon district of Uttarakhand, India. The drinking water quality parameters are PH,

CHLORIDE, TOTAL HARDNESS, ALKALINITY, DISSOLVED SOLIDS, NITRATE (NO₃). It was observed that the physicochemical properties were as BIS standards and found suitable for drinking purposes. However bacteriological parameters i.e., Total coliform and fecal coliform of some sampling sites ranged from 20 to 300CFU/100ml, which were higher than permissible limits (0 CFU/100ml) as per BIS standards. Statistical analysis had been used to calculate the correlation coefficient of different parameters with WQI and the study showed significant linear relationship and the high correlation coefficient between different Pairs of water quality parameters. The correlation matrix shows that iron concentration, total coliform, and faecal coliform have a significant effect on water quality index. Among these parameters ,TDS has the highest correlation with conductivity, chloride ion concentration with presence of nitrate in drinking water.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

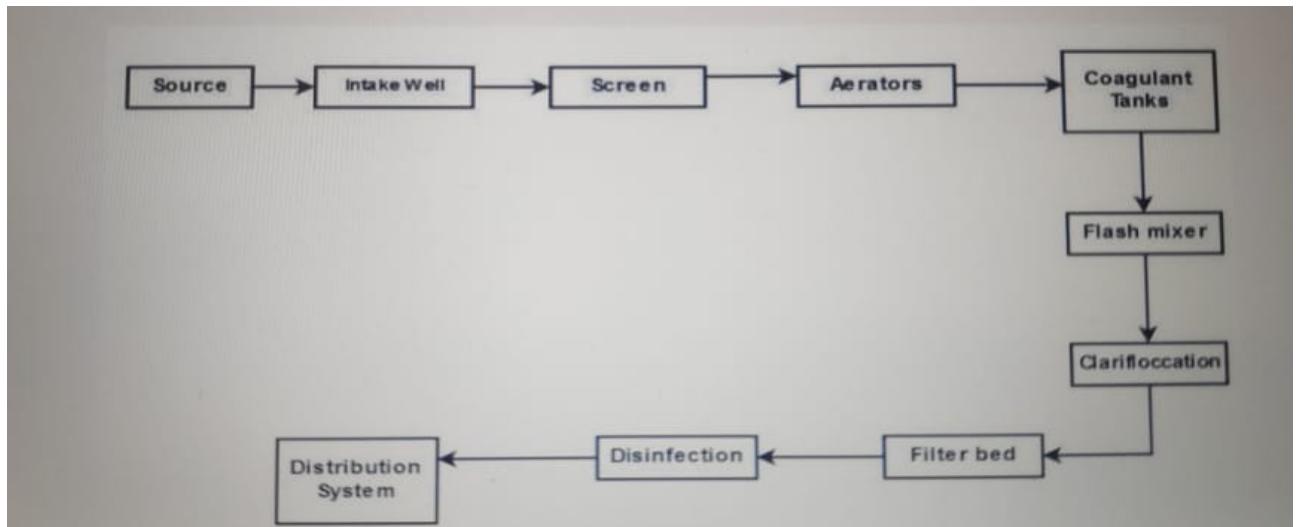


Figure 3.1: Block Diagram of Water Purification

Source

The source water for a municipal surface water treatment plant is typically a local river, lake, or reservoir. There must be a method to get this water to the water treatment plant. Quite often, a series of pumps and pipelines transport the water to the treatment plant. Sometimes, as is the case of San Angelo, water from a reservoir such as Twin Buttes can be transported to the water treatment plant via a river. Twin Buttes Reservoir is one of the water sources for San Angelo. The water is released into Lake Nasworthy where it is transported down the Concho River to the water treatment plant. At the water plant, large pumps are used to transfer the water up to the treatment facility. Treatment

facilities are often engineered to utilize gravity water flow as much as possible to reduce pumping costs. Many water treatment plants utilize water from more than one source. Blending groundwater with surface water is a method often used to improve the quality of the final product.

Screening and Straining

If you think about surface water sources, i.e., lakes, rivers, and reservoirs, you realize they contain varying amounts of suspended and dissolved materials. This material may include turbidity, color, taste, odour, microorganisms, fish, plants, trees, trash, etc. The material may be organic or inorganic, suspended or dissolved, inert or biologically active, and vary in size from colloidal to a tree trunk. Some of these larger items can impede equipment in the treatment process, such as a tree limb getting stuck in a water pump impeller. So the first process in conventional water treatment is to screen or strain out the larger items. This is often accomplished using a large metal screen, often called a bar screen, which is placed in front of the water source intake. Large items are trapped on the screen as the water passes through it. These screens must routinely be raked or cleaned off.

Chemical Addition

Once the pre-screened source water is received into the treatment plant, chemicals are added to help make the suspended particles that are floating in the water clump together to form a heavier and larger gelatinous particle, often called floc. In this process, a chemical is added that reacts with the natural alkalinity in solution to form an insoluble precipitate. There are many different chemicals on the market that are used in this process. These chemicals are called coagulants. One of the most common that has been used for many years is aluminium sulphate, or alum. Some other very popular coagulants are ferrous sulphate, ferric chloride, sodium aluminate, activated silica, and com-

pounds called polymers that are manufactured chemicals made up of repeated small units of low molecular weight combined into molecules with very large molecular weights. These polymers are classified as cationic polymers (positively charged), anionic polymers (negatively charged), and nonionic polymers (neutrally charged). Regardless of which coagulant or combination of coagulants is used, they must be mixed very well with the water before they can form a heavier floc.

Coagulation and Flocculation

A rapid mix unit is usually used where the coagulant is added to the water to provide a very quick and thorough mixing. The water mixing is then slowed to allow the water to come in contact with the forming floc and allow it to increase in size. The continued mixing must be gentle to allow the floc to grow and gain weight, but fast enough to keep it in suspension until you are ready for it to settle in the clarifiers. The process of adding a chemical to cause the suspended material to “clump” into larger particles is called flocculation or coagulation. The treatment unit where coagulation and flocculation is performed is called the “flocculator”.

Sedimentation and Clarification

Once the flocculation process is complete, the water then passes over the weir in the flocculator and travels to the center of the clarifier, or sedimentation basin. Here, the water makes its way from the center of the clarifier to the saw tooth weir at the perimeter of the unit. As the water makes its way towards the weir, the large floc particles are allowed to settle out to the bottom of the clarifier. A rake continuously travels across the bottom of the clarifier and scrapes the settled floc to the center of the unit. Pumps are used to pull the settled “sludge” out of the clarifier and send it to a sedimentation / disposal pond. The water that passes over the weir is collected and transferred to the filters. The reason

clarification occurs before filtration is so the majority of suspended material can be removed prior to filtration, which avoids overloading the filters and thus allowing much more water to be filtered before the filters must be backwashed.

Filtration

Clarified water enters the filters from the top. Gravity pulls the water down through the filters where it is collected in a drain system at the bottom of the unit. There are many different types of materials (media) used in filters. The most common being sand and gravel. Many conventional plants are now using granular activated carbon as the media of choice because it not only provides excellent mechanical filtration of particulate matter, but also removes organic compounds which can cause taste and odor problems.

Disinfection

Once the water has gone through the filtration process, it is about as clear and clean as it can get. However, there may still be bacteria and viruses remaining. To ensure these are destroyed, there must be a disinfection process employed. The most common disinfection process used in the United States is chlorination. Chlorine comes in many different forms including chlorine gas (most common), chlorine dioxide, hypochlorite (bleach), and others. Whichever method is used, chlorine is added to the water in an amount to ensure all microorganisms are destroyed. Water plants monitor the chlorine levels continuously and very carefully in the treated water. They must add enough chlorine to ensure thorough disinfection of the water, but avoid adding excesses that can cause taste and odor problems when delivered to the consumer.

Storage

Once the disinfection process is complete, the water is stored. Storage usually takes place in an underground storage tank called a “clear well”, and also in elevated storage tanks that are visible around town. There must always be an

ample supply of water available in the event of emergencies. These can include power outages, fires, floods, etc.

Distribution

So how does the water come out of your kitchen tap? The stored water is pushed through underground pipelines all over town in what is called a “distribution system”. The distribution system consists of large water pumps at the treatment plant, overhead water storage tanks, large pipelines, smaller pipelines, fire hydrants, valves, and water meters in your front yard.

Chapter 4

DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE PARAMETERS

Water sample is collected from the area of KAMINENIPALLE VILLAGE,SIRIVELLA MANDAL,NANDYALA DISTRICT and its tested for drinking purpose.The different parameters which are determined in this project are :

1. pH of water
2. Alkalinity and acidity of water
3. Dissolved oxygen(DO)
4. Electrical conductivity(EC) of water
5. Hardness of water
6. Total dissolved solids
7. Total solids
8. Chloride
9. Taste and odour

4.1 pH

Introduction

pH stands for hydrogen (H) potential and it represents the measure of concentration of H^+ ions in a solution. As a mathematical consequence of the formula that defines pH, the units on the pH scale range from 0 to 14. A value of 7 indicates neutrality, values less than 7 are called acidic, and values greater than 7 are called basic or alkaline. Values close to 0 to 14 represent extremes acidity and basic, respectively. In general, the pH of water for drinking purpose should be between 6.5 and 8.5.



Figure 4.1: pH meter

PROCEDURE

Calibration

Using the buffer solutions calibrate the instrument.

Step 1: In a 100 ml beaker take pH 7.0 buffer solution and place it in a magnetic stirrer, insert the Teflon coated stirring bar and stir well.

Now place the electrode in the beaker containing the stirred buffer and check

for the reading in the pH meter. If the instrument is not showing pH value of 7.0, using the calibration knob adjust the reading to 7.0.

Take the electrode from the buffer, wash it with distilled water and then wipe gently with soft tissue.

Step 2: In a 100 ml beaker take pH 9.2 buffer solution and place it in a magnetic stirrer, insert the Teflon coated stirring bar and stir well. Now place the electrode in the beaker containing the stirred buffer and check for the reading in the pH meter.

If the instrument is not showing pH value of 9.2, using the slope knob adjust the reading to 9.2.

Take the electrode from the buffer, wash it with distilled water and then wipe gently with soft tissue.

TESTING OF SAMPLE

1. In a clean dry 100 mL beaker take the water sample and place it on a magnetic stirrer, insert the Teflon coated stirring bar and stir well.
2. Now place the electrode in the beaker containing the water sample and check for the reading in the pH meter. Wait until you get a stable reading.
3. The pH of the given water sample is given.
4. Take the electrode from the water sample, wash it with distilled water and then wipe gently with soft tissue.

Table 4.1: Results of pH

Sample No	Sample Description	Temperature of Sample (C)	pH
1	Sample 1	27°	6.99
2	Sample 2	27°	7.2

4.2 Alkalinity and Acidity

4.2.1 Alkalinity

Introduction

Water alkalinity is a measure of the concentration of bases in a solution or the ability to neutralize acids in water. It can also be referred to as the buffering capacity of water. Examples of bases are carbonates, bicarbonates, magnesium bicarbonate, ammonia, borates, phosphates, silicates, and organic bases. For all practical purposes, carbonates and bicarbonates are the main contributors to the alkalinity of water. Since corrosion is caused by calcium carbonate, the corrosion process is dependent on the pH and alkalinity of the water.



Figure 4.2: Starting point of alkalinity



Figure 4.3: End point of alkalinity

PROCEDURE

Take 100ml of sample in a conical ask. Add 3-4 drops of phenolphthalein indicator. If no color is produced, the phenolphthalein alkalinity is absent. If the sample

turns pink, titrate with N/50 H_2SO_4 till the pink colour disappears. Record the ml of acid used (P).

Add 1 drop of methyl orange to same sample to the titrated mixture and re-titrate with N/50 H_2SO_4 until first change from yellow to orange colour is noted (T).

$$Alkalinity(mg/lit) = \frac{m * N * 50 * 1000}{vol.of sample} \quad (4.1)$$

Table 4.2: Results of alkalinity

Sample detailed source	Volume (ml)	pH	Phenolphthalein			Methyl Orange		
			Initial	Final	Final H_2SO_4	Initial	Final	Final H_2SO_4
Sample 1	100	6.99	0	0	0	0	5.8	5.8
Sample 2	100	7.2	0	0	0	0	6	6

4.2.2 Acidity

Introduction

The acidity of natural water is primarily due to dissolved CO_2 and is defined as the capacity to neutralize bases. However in water polluted by trade wastes acidity may be because of mineral acids (below pH 4). Acidity due to CO_2 is present within a pH range 4.5-8.3. When the pH of a Sample is more than 8.3, acidity is absent.

Procedure

Place 100 ml water in a conical ask and add to it one drop of Methyl orange



Figure 4.4: Starting point of Acidity

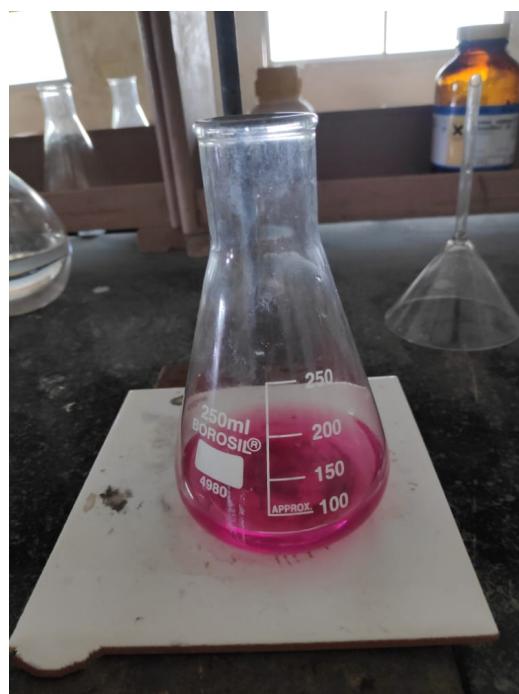


Figure 4.5: End point of Acidity

indicator. If it gives an orangeish red colour, mineral acidity is present. Titrate it with N/50 NaOH to a yellow end point. Note the ml of N/50 NaOH used. In another ask place 100 ml water and add 0.5 ml phenolphthalein indicator. If it does not give any color, titrate with N/50 NaOH to light pink (first permanent change) end point. Note the ml of solution used. If Phenolphthalein gives a pink

color on addition of the sample, acidity is not available.

$$MineralAcidity(mg/lit) = \frac{mlofNaOHusedinMethylOrange * 1000}{Vol.ofsample} \quad (4.2)$$

$$CO_2Acidity(mg/lit) = \frac{mlofNaOHusedinPhenolphthalein * 1000}{Vol.ofsample} \quad (4.3)$$

Table 4.3: Results of acidity

Sample detailed source	Volume (ml)	pH	Phenolphthalein			Methyl Orange		
			Initial	Final	Final NaOH reading	Initial	Final	Final Na
Sample 1	100	6.99	0	10.6	10.6	0	0	0
Sample 2	100	7.2	0	9.6	9.6	0	0	0

4.3 Dissolved Oxygen

Introduction

The term Dissolved Oxygen is used to describe the amount of oxygen dissolved in a unit volume of water. Dissolved oxygen (DO) is essential for the maintenance of healthy lakes and rivers. It is a measure of the ability of water to sustain aquatic life. The dissolved oxygen content of water is influenced by the source, raw water temperature, treatment and chemical or biological processes taking place in the distribution system.

The presence of oxygen in water is a good sign. Depletion of dissolved oxygen in water supplies can encourage the microbial reduction of nitrate to nitrite and sulfate to sulfide. It can also cause an increase in the concentration of ferrous iron in solution, with subsequent discoloration at the tap when the water is aerated.

In a healthy body of water such as a lake, river, or stream, the dissolved oxygen is about 8 parts per million. The minimum DO level of 4 to 5 mg/L or ppm is desirable for survival of aquatic life. The wastes serve as the food for certain aerobic bacteria. As it moves downstream, the conc. of bacteria increases. Because these bacteria remove oxygen from water, their population increase causes a decline in the amount of DO.

Beyond certain point, most of the wastes break down. The conc. of DO rises as the river recovers oxygen from the atmosphere and aquatic plants. Thus DO test is the basis for BOD test which is an important parameter to evaluate organic pollution potential of a waste.

Introduction



Figure 4.6: Starting point of dissolved oxygen

Procedure :

1. Take 300 ml glass stoppered BOD bottle and fill it with sample to be tested. Avoid any kind of bubbling and trapping of air bubbles.
2. Take the sample collected from the field. It should be collected in BOD

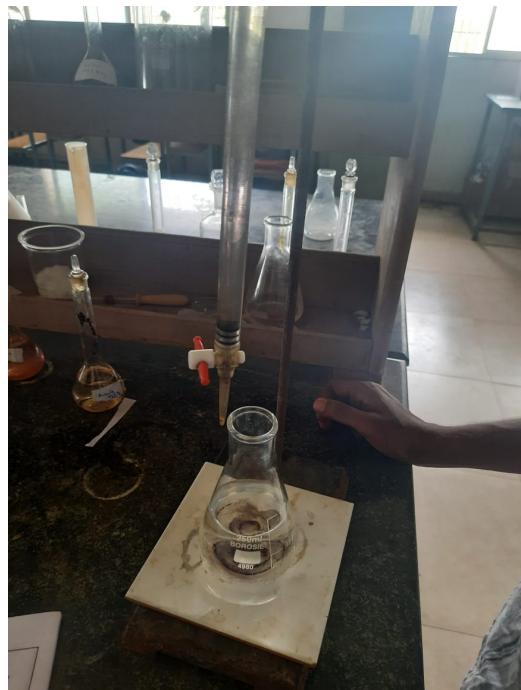


Figure 4.7: End point of dissolved oxygen

bottle filed up to rim.

3. Add 2 ml of manganese sulfate to the BOD bottle by inserting the calibrated pipette just below the surface of the liquid.
4. Add 2 ml of alkali-iodide-azide reagent in the same manner.
5. If oxygen is present, a brownish-orange cloud of precipitate or flocc will appear.
6. Allow it to settle for sufficient time then add 2 ml of concentrated sulfuric acid via a pipette held just above the surface of the sample.
7. At this point, the sample is "fixed" and can be stored for up to 30 minutes if kept in a cool, dark place.
8. Rinse the burette with sodium thiosulphate and then it with sodium thiosulphate. Fix the burette to the stand.
9. Measure out 203 ml of the solution from the bottle and transfer to an conical ask.
10. Titrate it against sodium thiosulphate using starch as indicator (add 3-4 drops of starch indicator solution).

11. End point of the titration is first disappearance of blue color to colorless.
12. Note down the volume of sodium thiosulphate solution used.

$$DO(\text{mg/lit}) = \text{Vol. of Sodiumthiosulphate} * \frac{1000}{\text{vol. of sample used}} \quad (4.4)$$

Table 4.4: Results of Dissolved oxygen

Trial No	Temperature (^C)	Volume of sample (ml)	Burette Reading (ml)		Volume of Titrant (ml)	Dissolved Oxygen (mg/l)
			Initial	Final		
1.	27°	203	0	9	9	9
2.	27°	203	0	8.6	8.6	8.6

4.4 Electrical Conductivity

Introduction

This method is used to measure the conductance generated by various ions in the solution/water.

Rough estimation of dissolved ionic contents of water sample can be made by multiplying specific conductance (in S/cm) by an empirical factor which may vary from 0.55 to 0.90 depending on the soluble components of water and on the temperature of measurement.

Conductivity measurement gives rapid and practical estimate of the variations

in the dissolved mineral contents of a water body.

Procedure



Figure 4.8: Electrical conductivity

1. Switch ON the instrument half an hour before the conduction of experiment. Electrode probe is to be washed with Distilled water and do not dip in any solution.
2. Press ENTER for getting SELECTION MODE. Select mode as (EC) using direction keys(\uparrow or \downarrow) and presses ENTER.
3. Enter Cell constant value as 1.00 (Press ESC key, if cell of different cell constant say 0.5., is being used and enter the cell constant value) and press Enter.
4. If automatic temperature meant is desired and thermo probe is not connected in which case connect it and press Enter key to get temperature.
5. If the temperature is desired to be entered manually, press ESC key and enter temperature.
6. If the actual temperature is not what is displayed as default, measure the

temperature with a thermometer, press ESC key and enter the temperature.

7. Keep the sample-filled-container near the cell/probe stand and lower the holding clamp to dip the sensor part of the cell in the sample. Insert thermo-probe also into the sample.

Press ENTER key and it display cell constant value as 1.00 and then dip the cell in the sample and press Enter. There temperature and EC values are displayed.

4.5 Total Dissolved Solids

Introduction

The term ‘solid’ refers to matter either filterable or non-filterable that residue upon evaporation and subsequent drying at a defined temperature. Further categorization depends upon the temperature employed for drying and ignition. Different forms of solids are defined on the basis of method applied for their determination. Solids may affect water or effluent quality adversely in number of ways. Water with high dissolved solids may induce an unfavorable physiological reaction in the transient consumer and generally are of inferior palatability. Highly mineralized water are unsuitable for many industrial applications. High suspended solids in waters may be aesthetically unsatisfactory for such purposes as bathing. Analysis of total solids is important to decide upon the various unit operations and processes in physical and biological waste water treatment and to assess its performance evaluation. For assessing compliance with regulatory agency, waste water effluent Limitation for various forms of solid act as indicating parameters.

procedure

1. Switch ON the instrument half an hour before the conduction of experi-



Figure 4.9: Electrical conductivity

ment.

2. Electrode/probe is to be washed with Distilled water and do not dip in any solution.
3. Press ENTER for getting SELECTION MODE. Select mode as (TDS) using direction keys(\uparrow or \downarrow) and presses ENTER.
4. Enter TDS Factor as 0.50. (Press ESC if it is desired to enter a different TDS Factor say 0.56.,) and press Enter.
5. Enter Cell constant value as 1.00. (Press ESC key, if cell of different cell constant say 0.5., is being used and enter the cell constant value) and press Enter.
6. If automatic temperature meant is desired and thermo probe is not connected in which case connect it and press Enter key to get temperature.
7. If the temperature is desired to be entered manually, press ESC key and enter temperature.
8. If the actual temperature is not what is displayed as default, measure the temperature with a thermometer, press ESC key and enter the temperature.
9. Keep the sample-filled-container near the cell/probe stand and lower the holding clamp to dip the sensor part of the cell in the sample. Insert thermo-

probe also into the sample. Press ENTER key and it display cell constant value as 1.00 and then dip the cell in the sample and press Enter. There temperature and TDS values are displayed.

4.6 Chloride Concentration

Introduction

Chlorides are widely distributed as salts of calcium, sodium and potassium in water . In potable water, the salty taste produced by chloride concentrations is variable and dependent on the chemical composition of water.

The major taste producing salts in water are sodium chloride and calcium chloride. The salty taste is due to chloride anions and associated cations in water. In some water which is having only 250 mg/L of chloride may have a detectable salty taste if the cat-ion present in the water is sodium. On the other hand, a typical salty taste may be absent even if the water is having very high chloride concentration for example 1000 mg/L. This is because the predominant cation present in the water is not sodium but either calcium or magnesium may be present.



Figure 4.10: Starting point of chloride



Figure 4.11: End point of chloride

Procedure

1. Before starting the titration rinse the burette with silver nitrate solution. Fill the burette with silver nitrate solution of 0.0141 N. Adjust to zero and fix the burette in stand.

Table 4.5: Results of Chloride concentration

Sample No	Volume of Sample (ml)	Burette Reading (ml)		Volume of $AgNO_3$ (ml)
		Initial	Final	
Sample 1	20	0	11.8	11.8
Blank	20	11.8	13.2	1.4

2. Take 20 mL of the sample in a clean 250mL conical flask. Add 1 mL of Potassium Chromate indicator to get light yellow color.
3. Titrate the sample against silver nitrate solution until the color changes from yellow to brick red. i.e., the end point.
4. Note the volume of Silver nitrate added (A).
5. Repeat the procedure for concordant values.

Blank Titration

1. Take 20 mL of the distilled water in a clean 250mL conical flask.
2. Add 1 mL of Potassium Chromate indicator to get light yellow color.
3. Titrate the sample against silver nitrate solution until the color changes from yellow to brick red. i.e., the end point.
4. Note the volume of silver nitrate added for distilled water (B).

$$Chloride(mg/lit) = \frac{(vol.sample(V_s) - Vol.of Blank(Vb) * N * 35.45 * 1000)}{Vol.of Sample used} \quad (4.5)$$

4.7 Taste and Odour

4.7.1 Taste

Introduction

The "Flavour Threshold Number" [FTN] is calculated corresponding to the greatest dilution of the sample with taste free water yielding a definitely perceptible change in taste.

FTN is defined as:

$$FTN = \frac{(A + B)}{A} \quad (4.6)$$

Where:

A = ml of sample

B = ml of odour free water

Procedure

1. A sample of water was diluted in a solution and eight aliquots of different dilutions were prepared.
2. Taste the individual samples in ascending order starting from sample no eight.
3. Determine the sample for which a perceptible taste is first noticed.
4. Report the corresponding FTN.

4.7.2 Odour

Introduction

Table 4.6: Results of taste water

Sample No.	Sample Volume (ml)	Diluents Volume (ml)	FTN	FTN
1	200	0	1	
2	100	100	2	2
3	50	150	4	
4	25	175	8	
5	12	188	17	
6	6	194	33	
7	3	197	67	
8	2	198	100	

The "Threshold Odour Number" (TON) is calculated corresponding to the greatest dilution of the sample with odour-free water yielding a definitely perceptible odour.

$$TON = \frac{(A + B)}{A} \quad (4.7)$$

Where:

A = ml of sample

B = ml of odour free water

Procedure

1. A sample of water was diluted in a solution and eight aliquots of different dilutions were prepared.
2. Taste the individual samples in ascending order starting from sample no eight.
3. Determine the sample for which a perceptible taste is first noticed.
4. Report the corresponding TON.

Table 4.7: Results of odour water

Sample No.	Sample Volume (ml)	Diluents Volume (ml)	TON	TON
1	200	0	1	
2	100	100	2	2
3	50	150	4	
4	25	175	8	
5	12	188	17	
6	6	194	33	
7	3	197	67	
8	2	198	100	

4.8 Hardness of water by EDTA titration method

INTRODUCTION

1. Hardness is caused due to the presence of multivalent cations, mainly Ca^+ and Mg^+ in water.
2. Hard water have many disadvantages capacity to precipitate soap. Thus measurement of water hardness is very necessary.
3. Total hardness of water is the sum of Ca^+ and Mg^+ concentration of water. The results are expressed as calcium carbonate, in mg/L, that is, "mg/L as $CaCO_3$
4. When total hardness is numerically greater than the sum of carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity for a water sample, the amount of hardness equivalent to the carbonate plus bicarbonate alkalinity is called "carbonate hardness". The amount of hardness in excess of this is called "non carbonate hardness". When hardness numerically is equal to or less than the sum of carbonate and bicarbonate alkalinity, all hardness is carbonate hardness, and non carbonate hardness is absent.

Procedure

TOTAL HARDNESS DETERMINATION



Figure 4.12: Starting point of hardness

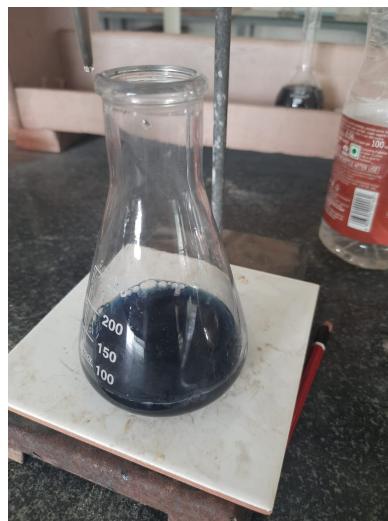


Figure 4.13: End point of hardness

1. Take 50 ml well mixed sample in conical flask.
2. Add 1-2 ml buffer solution of ammonia.
3. To each aliquot add a pinch of Eriochrome Black-T powder (indicator) or 2 drops of Eriochrome Black-T. The aliquots are wine-red in colour.
4. Titrate each aliquot using the standard EDTA(0.01M)solution (in burette).
5. Note down the volume of EDTA required(A).
6. Run a reagent blank if buffer is not checked properly. Note the volume of EDTA required for blank (B).
7. Calculate the volume of EDTA required for sample i.e., (A-B).

Table 4.8: Results of Hardness water

Identification of sample	Volume of sample taken in ml	Burette reading		EDTA solution used in ml	Hardness (mg/l) as $CaCO_3$
		Initial	Final		
Total hardness	50	0	7.5	7.5	150
Calcium hardness	50	7.5	10.6	3.1	62
Magnesium hardness					88

8. Value B may be taken as 0, if double distilled water and "A R" grade chemicals are used.

CALCIUM HARDNESS DETERMINATION

1. Take a 50 ml of sample in conical flask.
2. Add 1 ml NaOH to raise PH to about 12.0.
3. Add a pinch of ammonium purpate (murexide) powder (indicator).
4. Titrate using the standard EDTA solution (in burette) until colour change occurs from pink to purple.
5. Note the volume of EDTA used(C).

$$Total\ hardness(mg/lit) as CaCO_3 = \frac{Vol. of sample used(A - B) * 1000}{ml of sample taken} \quad (4.8)$$

$$Calcium\ hardness(mg/lit) as CaCO_3 = \frac{Vol. of sample used(EDTA) * 1000}{ml of sample taken} \quad (4.9)$$

4.9 Total Solids

INTRODUCTION

All matter except the water content in liquid materials classified as "solid

waste". The usual definition of solids however refers to the matter that remains as residue upon evaporation and drying at 103°C to 105°C.



Figure 4.14: Total Solids (W1)



Figure 4.15: Total Solids (W2)

PROCEDURE:

Determination of total solids and dissolved solids

1. Take an evaporating dish and clean it properly to remove all the impurities.

2. Dry it 103°C In an oven for 1hr and weigh [W1]. Weighing should be carried out after transferring the evaporation dish in the desiccator.
3. Take 20ml of water sample and transfer it in an evaporating dish.
4. put it on a steam bath and allow the to evaporate.
5. After complete evaporating dry the evaporating dish with residue in oven at 103°C for 1 hour.
6. cool the evaporating dish in desiccator and take weight (W2).
7. Take another 50 ml sample and filter it on filter paper to remove suspended solids.
8. collect the filtrate in evaporating dish.
9. put it on stream bath and allow the sample to evaporate.
10. Dry the evaporating dish in oven at 180°C FOR 1 hour.
11. Cool the evaporating dish in desiccator and take weight (W4).

$$Total solids = \frac{W2 - W1}{m\text{lof sample}} * 10^6 \quad (4.10)$$

4.10 Nitrates

INTRODUCTION

Determination of nitrate (NO₃) is difficult because of the relatively complex procedure required, the high probability that interfering constituents will be present and the limited concentration ranges of the various techniques. Nitrate is the most highly oxidized from the nitrogen compounds commonly present in natural waters. Significant sources of nitrate are chemical fertilizers, decayed vegetable and animal matter, domestic effluents, sewage sludge disposal to land, industrial

discharge, and leachates from refuse dumps and atmospheric washout. Depending on the situation, these sources can contaminate streams, rivers, lakes and ground water. Unpolluted natural water contains minute amounts of nitrate. Excessive concentration in drinking water is considered hazardous for infants because of its reduction to nitrate in intestinal track causing methemoglobinemia. In surface water, nitrate is a nutrient taken up by plants and converted into cell protein. The growth stimulation of plants, especially of algae may cause objectionable eutrophication.

procedure



Figure 4.16: UV-spectrophotometer

Calibration procedure of UV-Spectrophotometer

- 1.Switch on the instrument and wait for 10-15 minutes.
- 2.Select the source as "UV". clear water (colourless)-UV
- 3.UV sample press the source button such that the light makes visible on the source.
- 4.Select 6th filter"Dark" and then close the door.
- 5.Press the "%T" mode.
- 6.Again wait for 10-15 minutes.
- 7.Set zero(000)using "SETZERO" knob.
- 8.Select wave length by pressing "CLEAR" and then enter wave length of 220(nm)(desirable).
- 9.Take blank water sample (distilled water)and keep in 1st hole and select 1st filter by taking the filter wheel and close the door.
- 10.Set the "COARSE" knob to very high.
- 11.By rotating the "FINE"knob clockwise set to 100.
- 12.press "ABS"(absorbance)button.
- 13.Again using the "FINE"knob set to zero(000).
- 14.Place the sample in the 4th filter hole and note the reading.

Chapter 5

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Results

As per BIS for drinking water (IS 10500-2012)

Table 5.1: Results of parameters

S.NO	PARAMETERS	RANGES	WEEK 1	WEEK 2	WEEK 3	WEEK 4	AVERAGE	REMARKS
1.	pH	6.5-8.5	6.99	7.2	7.0	7.06	7.0625	With in limits
2.	Electrical conductivity	200-800 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	776.7 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	728.57 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	656.57 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	774.7 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	734.13 $\mu\text{s}/\text{lit}$	With in limits
3.	Alkalinity	20-200 mg/lit	58 mg/lit	60.5 mg/lit	62.7 mg/lit	63.4 mg/lit	61.15 mg/lit	With in limits
4.	Total hardness	0-75 mg/lit - Soft water 75-150 mg/lit - Moderate 150-300 mg/lit - Hard water >300 mg/lit - Very hard water	150 mg/lit	135.5 mg/lit	140.3 mg/lit	149.9 mg/lit	143.92 mg/lit	Moderate
5.	Dissolved oxygen	6.5-8.5 mg/lit	8.86 mg/lit	7.45 mg/lit	7.34 mg/lit	8.37 mg/lit	8 mg/lit	With in limits
6.	Chloride	<250 mg/lit	36.86 mg/lit	38.4 mg/lit	39.65 mg/lit	38.3 mg/lit	38.30 mg/lit	With in limits
7.	Total dissolved solids	< 500 mg/lit	690 mg/lit	650.4 mg/lit	644.6 mg/lit	703.45 mg/lit	672.12 mg/lit	Out of limits
8.	Total solids	< 2000 mg/lit	800 mg/lit	810.5 mg/lit	822.6 mg/lit	792.7 mg/lit	806.45 mg/lit	With in limits
9.	Nitrogen	< 10 mg/lit	8.9 mg/lit	8.43 mg/lit	8.56 mg/lit	7.05 mg/lit	8.23 mg/lit	With in limits
10.	Taste	< 3	2.3	2.1	2.7	2.4	2.3	With in limits
11.	Odour	< 3	2.2	2.6	2.3	2.5	2.4	With in limits

5.2 Conclusions

- From this results of this study it has been conclude that: The physico-chemical analysis of the study revealed that. All the groundwater samples

collected were having the concentrations of many parameters are within the standard limits and few parameters are below and above the permissible limits.

- By using pressure filters and double filtration we can reduce the total dissolved solids
- The quality of groundwater is objectionable in few parameters and most of the parameters are good for drinking and domestic uses.

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