

CLASS I WATER OPERATOR COURSE MANUAL



2016

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Overview/Preface

This manual is designed for operators taking the Class I water operator certification course and exam. This tool, along with your operating experience and review of the Office of Water Programs California State University Sacramento manuals, will help you prepare for the certification exam. Prior review of this manual does not eliminate the need for prospective operators to attend the required Class I training course.

Originally, this manual was written as a “need to know” study guide for individuals taking the water operator certification exam. However, it was decided this manual should be a stand alone resource to assist operators in their overall understanding of the treatment process at any Class I system, large or small. With the great diversity and dynamics present in the water treatment industry, it is important for operators to be resourceful – at least know enough to ask the right questions to the right people.

Information contained within this manual should give you a basic understanding of any water system you may work with. Operators should use this manual as a catalyst or springboard for further research and inquiry into your individual system(s). We encourage your continued educational growth.

Disclaimer

All reasonable precautions have been taken in the preparation of this document, including both technical and non-technical proofing. The West Virginia Department of Health and Human Resources and West Virginia Rural Water Association and all staff assume no responsibility for any errors or omissions.

Should the summarized information in this document be inconsistent with a governing rule or statute, the language of the rule or statute shall prevail.

Reference herein to any specific commercial products, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise, does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the West Virginia Department of Health and Human Resources and West Virginia Rural Water Association.

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INTRODUCTION

The **U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)** is federal agency charged with protecting human health and with safeguarding the natural environment: air, water, and land. On July 9, 1970, Richard Nixon transmitted Reorganization Plan No. 3 to the U.S. Congress by executive order, creating the EPA as a single, independent, agency from a number of smaller arms of different federal agencies. Prior to the establishment of the EPA, the federal government was not structured to make a coordinated attack on the pollutants which harm human health and degrade the environment. The EPA was assigned the task of repairing the damage already done to the natural environment and to establish new criteria to guide Americans in making a cleaner, safer America.

The agency conducts environmental assessment, research, and education. It has the primary responsibility for setting and enforcing national standards under a variety of environmental laws, in consultation with state, tribal, and local governments. It delegates some permitting, monitoring, and enforcement responsibility to U.S. states and Native American tribes. EPA enforcement powers include fines, sanctions, and other measures.

EPA headquarters in Washington, D.C. EPA comprises 17,000 people in headquarters program offices, 10 regional offices, and 27 laboratories across the country. More than half of its staff are engineers, scientists, and environmental protection specialists; other groups include legal, public affairs, financial, and computer specialists.

Each EPA regional office is responsible within its states for implementing the Agency's programs, except those programs that have been specifically delegated to states.

- Region 1 - responsible within the states of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont.
- Region 2 - responsible within the states of New Jersey and New York in addition it's also responsible for the U.S. territories of Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands.
- **Region 3 - responsible within the states of Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia.**
- Region 4 - responsible within the states of Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Tennessee.
- Region 5 - responsible within the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin.
- Region 6 - responsible within the states of Arkansas, Louisiana, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.
- Region 7 - responsible within the states of Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska.
- Region 8 - responsible within the states of Colorado, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming.
- Region 9 - responsible within the states of Arizona, California, Hawaii, Nevada, and the territories of Guam and American Samoa.
- Region 10 - responsible within the states of Alaska, Idaho, Oregon, and Washington.

The Environmental Protection Agency's **Office of Groundwater and Drinking Water (OGWDW)**, together with states, tribes, and its many partners, protects public health by ensuring safe drinking water and protecting groundwater. OGWDW, along with EPA's ten regional drinking water programs, oversees implementation of the **Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA)**, which is the national law safeguarding tap water in America. The SDWA requires **public water systems (PWSs)** to provide drinking water that meets safety standards and protects sources of drinking water, including rivers, lakes, reservoirs, springs, or groundwater wells. Approximately 90% of Americans rely on public water systems for their drinking water at home; the other 10% have private wells, which are not federally regulated. Almost everyone drinks water from a public system at some point: while at school, at work, in a restaurant, or on vacation.

OGWDW develops and helps implement national drinking water standards; oversees, assists and helps fund state drinking water programs and source water protection programs; helps small drinking water systems; protects underground sources of drinking water through the Underground Injection Control Program; and provides information to the public. OGWDW also works in cooperation with states, tribes, and EPA's Office of Enforcement and Compliance Assurance to guarantee that water systems meet these protective standards.

OGWDW sets national standards for drinking water, which either limit the amount of a particular contaminant in drinking water or require a certain treatment to remove or inactivate a contaminant. Both types of standards protect public health. When setting these standards, OGWDW uses sound data and peer-reviewed science to focus on the contaminants which present the greatest public health risk and which appear most frequently in drinking water. OGWDW also identifies sub-populations most vulnerable to drinking water contaminants, such as infants, children, pregnant women, the elderly, and the immunocompromised, and considers the risk to these sensitive sub-populations when setting safety standards. As part of the standard-setting process, OGWDW relies on input from all interested parties, looks at whether drinking water regulations are cost effective, determines appropriate procedures for analyzing samples of drinking water, and identifies affordable ways to treat drinking water.

States and tribes work directly with water systems to implement the national drinking water program. To implement the drinking water program, each state or tribe must establish a drinking water program that is at least as stringent as the federal program (some states have stricter programs), assure that water systems meet safety standards, and adopt and implement adequate enforcement procedures (called primacy). If a state or tribe is unable to meet the requirements for primacy, or is simply unwilling, EPA's regional offices will directly implement the drinking water program in that jurisdiction. OGWDW provides grants, training, and technical assistance to help states and tribes successfully carry out the provisions of the SDWA. OGWDW also administers the drinking water state revolving loan fund, and grants funds to states, that loan money to water systems to install or upgrade facilities and to replace aging pipes and other infrastructure. The fund's policy is to support all water systems in need, including assisting small and disadvantaged communities, and protecting sources of drinking water from contamination.

The vast majority of water systems in the U.S. serve fewer than 3,300 people. Small water systems incur greater costs per household because they must spread the cost of infrastructure improvement over a smaller customer base. In fact, small systems could incur three times as

much cost per household to continue to provide safe drinking water in the future as compared to that of larger systems. OGWDW assists small systems by identifying affordable and effective ways for small systems to treat water for their customers and providing technical and financial assistance.

The Partnership for Safe Water is a unique cooperative effort between OGWDW and over 100 large water systems that join the partnership to provide protection beyond what is currently required by federal law to their customers from *Cryptosporidium*, *Giardia lamblia* (herein referred to as *Giardia*) and other microbial contaminants.

OGWDW is working with states so that they can determine how susceptible drinking water sources are to contamination. States and water suppliers will share this information (compiled into source water assessments) with the public so that communities can protect their drinking water sources. OGWDW also oversees programs that protect aquifers which serve as the primary source of drinking water for one or more communities (sole source aquifers), and works with states to implement wellhead protection programs, under which states protect the land around wells from contaminants. Through the Underground Injection Control program, OGWDW protects underground sources of drinking water. Injection deep into the earth is a common way of disposing of hazardous waste. If not injected properly, these wastes can contaminate sources of drinking water. OGWDW sets standards for safe injection practices, and bans certain types of injection altogether. A number of other EPA programs also protect drinking water from potential sources of contamination. For instance, the Superfund program cleans-up hazardous waste sites, while other programs regulate landfills, discharges to water, underground storage tanks, and chemicals used on farms and lawns. OGWDW works with other EPA offices to support efforts to coordinate these and many other programs to provide comprehensive protection of the nation's groundwater resource.

Public information and public involvement are critically important to the successful implementation of the drinking water program. OGWDW works through an advisory committee, the National Drinking Water Advisory Council, and solicits other input through public meetings with states, tribes, water systems, environmental and other groups, and the public. OGWDW is working with these partners and others to provide information to citizens and communities on the quality of their local drinking water. OGWDW collects information on every public water system, such as how many people each system serves and whether each is meeting drinking water standards. This information is stored in the Safe Drinking Water Information System, and is used to help OGWDW understand whether systems are complying with drinking water safety standards. OGWDW is also collecting information on the occurrence of contaminants which may need to be regulated in the future, and storing this information in the National Contaminant Occurrence Database. OGWDW is providing materials to help water systems prepare annual water quality reports (consumer confidence reports) and notify consumers of water emergencies, and is helping consumers use this information to make decisions.

OGWDW maintains a web site (www.epa.gov/safewater/) and the **Safe Drinking Water Hotline (1-800-426-4791)** to make drinking water information easily available, and has also recently established the Drinking Water Academy to provide further training.

DRINKING WATER REGULATIONS

Prior to 1976, water quality was regulated by individual state standards. In many cases, these standards were only recommendations rather than enforceable regulations. In December 1974, the Federal **Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA)** (P.L. 93-523) was passed by Congress. The SDWA was amended in 1986 and 1996. The SDWA establishes a Federal program to monitor and increase the safety of the nation's drinking water supply. The SDWA authorizes the EPA to set and implement health-based standards to protect against both naturally occurring and man-made contaminants in drinking water. The EPA is also responsible for assessing and protecting drinking water sources; protecting wells and collection systems; making sure water is treated by qualified operators; ensuring the integrity of distribution systems; and making information available to the public on the quality of their drinking water. The EPA works closely with each state to establish public drinking water standards and enforce the requirements of the SDWA. In West Virginia, the state government agency with primacy authority is the **WV Department of Health and Human Resources (WVDHHR), Bureau for Public Health (BPH), Office of Environmental Health Services (OEHS)**. Therefore, OEHS has the same primary drinking water regulation enforcement authority over public water systems within the state as EPA. Local governments should be aware that while secondary drinking water standards are not federally enforceable, individual states may adopt any of the secondary standards as part of their own regulations, thus making them enforceable at the state level.

The EPA establishes and implements the SDWA and its amendments through Title 40 **Code of Federal Regulations (CFR)** Parts 141-142, "**National Primary Drinking Water Regulations (NPDWR)**" and Title 40 CFR Part 143 "**National Secondary Drinking Water Regulations (NSDWR)**." These regulations allow the EPA to enforce federally established drinking water standards by setting goals to ensure the highest quality of drinking water, from the source to the tap.

The EPA establishes health goals based on risk and sets a legal limit, or **maximum contaminant level (MCL)**, to help ensure consistent quality of the water supply. MCLs are established based on known or anticipated adverse health effects, the ability of available technology to remove contaminants, their effectiveness, and the cost of treatment. The limit is based on lifetime exposure and represents the highest permissible level of a contaminant in water that is delivered to any user of a public water system. MCLs have been set for over 90 potential drinking water contaminants, seven of which are new standards enforceable as of January 1, 2002. The NPDWR also codifies other specific requirements of the SDWA, including monitoring and analytical requirements, reporting and record keeping, maximum contaminant level goals (MCLG), filtration and disinfection, control of lead and copper, treatment techniques, and information collection requirements for public water systems. This regulation also provides **best available treatment technologies (BAT)**.

Secondary drinking water standards under the NSDWR are established for contaminants that primarily affect aesthetic qualities relating to public acceptance of drinking water. These secondary standards are not federally enforceable, but rather serve as guidelines for state use.

The EPA has drinking water regulations for more than 90 contaminants. The SDWA includes a process the EPA must follow to identify new contaminants which may require regulation in the

future. The EPA must periodically release a **Contaminant Candidate List (CCL)**. The EPA uses this list of unregulated contaminants to prioritize research and data collection efforts to help determine whether specific contaminants should be regulated.

In February 2005, the EPA published the second CCL of 51 contaminants and provided an update on the efforts to improve the CCL process for the future that is based, in part, on recommendations from the National Research Council and the National Drinking Water Advisory Council. In addition to making the process used for selecting contaminants easier to understand, the EPA goals for the future are to:

- Evaluate a wider range of information;
- Screen contaminants more systematically; and
- Develop a more comprehensive CCL by expanding the number of contaminants being reviewed for inclusion on the next CCL.

WEST VIRGINIA DRINKING WATER REGULATIONS

West Virginia has received approval from EPA to have primacy authority for enforcing public drinking water regulations at the state level. In other words, OEHS ensures all federal and state drinking water requirements are met. These state regulations can be accessed online at the West Virginia Legislature web site at www.legis.state.wv.us/. The OEHS **Environmental Engineering Division (EED)** Director, Walter Ivey, oversees several programs that make up the WV drinking water program. The following programs function as the multiple barrier approach in West Virginia:

- The **Source Water Assessment & Wellhead Protection (SWAP)** Program's mission is to assess, preserve, and protect the state's source waters which are used to supply water for the state's PWSs.
- The **Certification & Training (C&T)** Program provides training and/or testing to PWS operators, wastewater treatment works operators, backflow prevention assembly installers/testers, water well drillers, and monitoring well drillers to administer certifications.
- The **Infrastructure & Capacity Development (I&CD)** Program helps drinking water systems improve their finances, management, infrastructure, and operations so they can provide safe drinking water consistently, reliably, and cost-effectively.
- The **Compliance & Enforcement (C&E)** Program determines whether a PWS is in compliance with all state rules and federal regulations pertaining to the SDWA. Such determination is based on results of the chemical/contaminant monitoring required for each PWS. If a system is out of compliance, a violation is then issued requiring the PWS to do public notification activities to inform the public that there was a problem, what happened, and what they are doing to fix it.
- Data Management enters all data received from the **Monthly Operational Reports (MORs)**, bacteriological reports, and chemical reports into a specialized database called **Safe Drinking Water Information System (SDWIS)**. Each PWS monitors and samples their water for various chemicals and contaminants that have the potential to be a public health risk.

The entire WV drinking water program is based in the OEHS central office located at 350 Capitol Street, Room 313 in Charleston, WV 25301-3713. The OEHS central office phone number is (304) 558-2981 and fax number is (304) 558-0139. The OEHS website is www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed OEHS also has 5 district offices to provide technical and administrative support locally to PWSs across the state:

- **Wheeling District Office** (304) 238-1145
- **Fairmont District Office** (304) 368-2530
- **Kearneysville District Office** (304) 725-0348
- **Beckley District Office** (304) 256-6666
- **St. Albans District Office** (304) 722-0611

The OEHS not only enforces drinking water standards, such as those in the SDWA, but it is also responsible for establishing and enforcing standards and regulations for water system design, construction, operation and maintenance, well construction and placement, pumps, treatment processes, chemical addition, well abandonment, lab certification, and wellhead protection. To

ensure water systems meet these state requirements, water system owners are responsible for obtaining plan approvals from the OEHS for well construction, pump installation, well rehabilitation, chemical addition to water, water treatment, and new system capacity. Plan approvals help ensure that water suppliers provide a safe and dependable supply of water to their customers.

OEHS personnel enforce compliance with all appropriate codes and regulations by performing periodic on-site inspections of each system. These inspections are called sanitary surveys and their frequency depends upon the size and classification of the water system. During the sanitary survey, the OEHS representative will review the system's compliance and monitoring records and inspect the water system facilities. Following the inspection, the system owner will receive a written report listing any deficiencies or violations found. A PWS must respond within 45 days and establish time frames to correct the problem(s).

SAFE DRINKING WATER ACT

The **Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA)** sets permissible levels of substances found in water which could be hazardous to public health. These regulations include MCLs for inorganic and organic chemicals, radioactivity, turbidity and microbiological levels. Testing and monitoring requirements, reporting and record keeping schedules, and public notification are enforced by OEHS.

The SDWA gives the EPA the authority to set drinking water standards. Drinking water standards are regulations the EPA sets to control the level of contaminants in the nation's drinking water. There are two categories of water standards: the Primary Drinking Water Regulations and the Secondary Drinking Water Regulations.

A **National Primary Drinking Water Regulation (NPDWR)** is a legally-enforceable standard that applies to public water systems. Primary standards protect drinking water quality by limiting the levels of specific contaminants that can adversely affect public health and are known or anticipated to occur in water. They take the form of MCLs or **Treatment Techniques (TT's)**.

A **National Secondary Drinking Water Regulation (NSDWR)** is a non-enforceable guideline regarding contaminants that may cause cosmetic effects (such as skin or tooth discoloration) or aesthetic effects (such as taste and odor) in drinking water. EPA recommends secondary standards to water systems but does not require systems to comply.

A list of all the NPDWRs AND NSDWRs is located in the appendix.

Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL) and Maximum Contaminant Level Goal (MCLG)

A MCL is the highest level of a contaminant that is allowed in drinking water. Before setting a MCL for any health related drinking water contaminant, the SDWA requires EPA to set what are called MCLGs. The MCLG is the level of a contaminant in drinking water below which there is no known or expected risk to health. MCLGs allow for a margin of safety. MCLs are set as close to the MCLGs as feasible using the best available treatment technology. Realizing that, in some cases, it is not technologically or financially feasible to achieve the MCLG for all contaminants, EPA establishes MCLs for all regulated contaminants in drinking water. In doing so, they take into account such factors as health risk assessments, cost-benefit analysis, and BATs, in establishing acceptable levels. BAT refers to the technology currently available to detect and treat the contaminant of concern. MCLs are the "drinking water standards" that all public water systems must meet. It is important to remember that MCLs are not set in stone. As new health effects data becomes available, MCLs are adjusted either up or down, depending on what the latest data shows.

Treatment Technique (TT) Requirement

For some contaminants, establishing a specific MCL is either not possible or too costly to mandate. For such contaminants, EPA may also choose to require a specific water treatment process intended to reduce the level of a contaminant in drinking water, called a **Treatment Technique (TT)**, which, when implemented by the water system, would reasonably protect public health. Examples of TTs are corrosion control for reduction of lead and copper, and filtration for removal of particulates in surface water.

Secondary Maximum Contaminant Levels (SMCLs) which apply to public water systems and which, in the judgment of the Administrator, are requisite to protect the public welfare. The SMCL means the maximum permissible level of a contaminant in water which is delivered to the free flowing outlet of the ultimate user of public water system. Contaminants added to the water under circumstances controlled by the user, except those resulting from corrosion of piping and plumbing caused by water quality, are excluded from this definition.

Record Keeping Requirements

Public water systems must retain copies of their records for certain lengths of time depending on the type of record. Monitoring records must contain certain information and must remain on the premises or at a convenient location near the premises.

- The following is a general listing of the types of records and the length of time they must be kept:

Time Line	Records
2 years	Copies of Backflow Testing Results
3 years	Records of action to correct violation
3 years	Copies of Public Notices
5 years	Monthly Operational Reports
5 years	Bacteria Analysis
5 years	Records concerning a variance or exemption
10 years	Copies of written reports, summaries, or communications relating to sanitary surveys
10 years	Radiological, chemical and turbidity analysis
12 years	Lead and copper results and reports
Indefinitely	CT Benchmarking and Profiling results

SAFE DRINKING WATER RULES AND REGULATIONS

SDWA Rule	Risk Type	Coverage	Overview	Monitoring
Total Coliform Rule	Microbial	All PWS	Monitoring for coliform as indicator of potential contamination.	Sampling based on population; requires confirmation for positive coliform.
Surface Water Treatment Rule	Microbial	All PWS that use SW or GWUDI*	Establishes criteria when filtration is required. Systems must filter and disinfect or apply for reduced monitoring.	1. Inactivation Ratios 2. Residual Disinfectant Concentration (RDC) 3. Turbidity
Phase I, II, V Rule	Chemical and Radiological	CWS and NTNCWS	Establishes MCLs or treatment for 66 chemicals (IOC, VOC and SOC)	Nine Year compliance cycle with 3 year compliance period
Nitrate and Nitrite only	Chemical and Radiological	All PSW	Establishes MCLS or treatment	Once per year
Lead and Copper Rule	Chemical and Radiological	CWS and NTNCWS	Establishes treatment techniques for corrosion control, source water, and lead service line replacement and public education triggered by levels at consumer taps.	Consumer taps during each 6-month period. Two consecutive periods triggers corrosion control, or reduced monitoring.
Stage 1 Disinfection Byproducts Rule	Chemical and Radiological	CWS and NTNCWS	Reduce levels of disinfectants and DBPs. Sets MCLs for HAA5s, chlorite, bromate, and TTHMs and MRDL and MRDLG**	1. Monitoring for DBP. 2. For surface water and GWUDI, TOC and alkalinity.
Filter Backwash Recycling Rule (FBRR)	Microbial	PWS or GWUDI that use conventional or direct filtration	Requires systems to return backwash for filtration.	Complete upgrades by 6/8/06
Consumer Confidence Reports		All CWS	CCR to customers about the quality and health implications of community water supply.	Monitoring and results and violations must be reported.
Public Notification		All PWS	Divides Notification to Public for violations into 3 tiers: Tier 1-Serious Health Effect-within 12 hours Tier 2-Health Potential-within 30 days Tier 3-Not immediate health impact-one year	Tier monitoring results must be reported to public in timely manner.
Arsenic and New Source Contaminants	Chemical and Radiological	CWS and NTNCWS	Sets MCL and monitoring requirements for arsenic at 0.010 mg/L	Places arsenic monitoring with other IOCs***
Radionuclides Rule	Chemical and Radiological	CWS	MCL for monitoring at each entry point and reporting, sets public notification requirements	Places monitoring for gross alpha and Radium 226 and 228 and Uranium in standard framework. Also beta if affected.

SDWA Rule	Risk Type	Coverage	Overview	Monitoring
Interim Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule	Microbial	PWS and GWUDI that serves more than 10,000 persons	Sets requirements for microbial contamination including 2 log reduction of <i>Cryptosporidium</i> and prevents risk associated with DBP requirements	Combined filter effluent every for 4 hours; Continuous turbidity monitoring on each filter every 15 minutes; NTU ≤ 0.3 95% of time, Maximum level of 1 NTU Disinfection Profiling each week
Long Term 1 Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule	Microbial	PWS and GWUDI that serves less than 10,000 persons	Sets requirements for microbial contamination including 2 log reduction of <i>Cryptosporidium</i> and prevents risk associated with DBP requirements	Combined filter effluent every for 4 hours; Continuous turbidity monitoring on each filter every 15 minutes; NTU ≤ 0.3 95% of time, Maximum level of 1 NTU Disinfection Profiling each week
Groundwater Rule	Microbial	PWS that use GW	Sets requirements for viruses and bacteria	Sets inactivation levels for viruses (4-log)
Radon Rule	Chemical and Radiological	CWS that use GW, mixed GW or intermittently use GW	Regulates exposure to radon	Results trigger additional or reduced monitoring
Stage 2 Disinfection Byproduct (DBP) Rule	Microbial	CWS and NTNCWS that do not use UV	Works in combination with Long Term Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule	Initial Distribution System Evaluation to determine monitoring sites
Long Term 2 Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule	Microbial	PWS that use surface water and GWUDI	Regulates treatment for source water	For systems serving under 10,000; <i>Cryptosporidium</i> and <i>E. coli</i> monitoring

WHAT ARE SECONDARY STANDARDS?

The EPA has established National Primary Drinking Water Regulations that set mandatory water quality standards for drinking water contaminants. These are enforceable standards called "maximum contaminant levels" or "MCLs", which are established to protect the public against consumption of drinking water contaminants that present a risk to human health. An MCL is the maximum allowable amount of a contaminant in drinking water which is delivered to the consumer .

In addition, EPA has established National Secondary Drinking Water Regulations that set non-mandatory water quality standards for 15 contaminants. EPA does not enforce these "secondary maximum contaminant levels" or "SMCLs." They are established only as guidelines to assist public water systems in managing their drinking water for aesthetic considerations, such as taste, color and odor. These contaminants are not considered to present a risk to human health at the SMCL.

Since these contaminants are not health threatening at the SMCL, and public water systems only need test for them on a *voluntary* basis, then why it is necessary to set secondary standards? EPA believes that if these contaminants are present in your water at levels above these standards, the contaminants may cause the water to appear cloudy or colored, or to taste or smell bad. This may cause a great number of people to stop using water from their public water system even though the water is actually safe to drink. Secondary standards are set to give public water systems some guidance on removing these chemicals to levels that are below what most people will find to be noticeable.

There are a wide variety of problems related to secondary contaminants. These problems can be grouped into three categories: *Aesthetic effects* -- undesirable tastes or odors; *Cosmetic effects* -- effects which do not damage the body but are still undesirable; and *Technical effects* -- damage to water equipment or reduced effectiveness of treatment for other contaminants. The secondary MCLs related to each of these effects are given in Table 1.

Aesthetic Effects

Odor and Taste are useful indicators of water quality even though odor-free water is not necessarily safe to drink. Odor is also an indicator of the effectiveness of different kinds of treatment. However, present methods of measuring taste and odor are still fairly subjective and the task of identifying an unacceptable level for each chemical in different waters requires more study. Also, some contaminant odors are noticeable even when present in extremely small amounts. It is usually very expensive and often impossible to identify, much less remove, the odor-producing substance.

- **Standards related to odor and taste:** Chloride, Copper, Foaming Agents, Iron, Manganese pH, Sulfate, Threshold Odor Number (TON), Total Dissolved Solids, Zinc.

Color may be indicative of dissolved organic material, inadequate treatment, high disinfectant demand and the potential for the production of excess amounts of disinfectant by-products. Inorganic contaminants such as metals are also common causes of color. In general, the point of

consumer complaint is variable over a range from 5 to 30 color units, though most people find color objectionable over 15 color units. Rapid changes in color levels may provoke more citizen complaints than a relatively high, constant color level.

- **Standards related to color:** Aluminum, Color, Copper, Foaming Agents, Iron, Manganese, Total Dissolved Solids.

Foaming is usually caused by detergents and similar substances when water has been agitated or aerated as in many faucets. An off-taste described as oily, fishy, or perfume-like is commonly associated with foaming. However, these tastes and odors may be due to the breakdown of waste products rather than the detergents themselves.

- **Standards related to foaming:** Foaming Agents.

Cosmetic Effects

Skin discoloration is a cosmetic effect related to silver ingestion. This effect, called argyria, does not impair body function, and has never been found to be caused by drinking water in the US. A standard has been set, however, because silver is used as an antibacterial agent in many home water treatment devices, and so presents a potential problem which deserves attention.

- **Standard related to this effect:** Silver.

Tooth discoloration and/or pitting is caused by excess fluoride exposures during the formative period prior to eruption of the teeth in children. The secondary standard of 2.0 mg/L is intended as a guideline for an upper boundary level in areas which have high levels of *naturally occurring* fluoride. It is *not* intended as a substitute for the lower concentrations (0.7 to 1.2 mg/L) which have been recommended for systems which *add* fluoride to their water. The level of the SMCL was set based upon a balancing of the beneficial effects of protection from tooth decay and the undesirable effects of excessive exposures leading to discoloration.

- **Standard related to this effect:** Fluoride.

Technical Effects

Corrosivity, and *staining* related to corrosion, not only affect the aesthetic quality of water, but may also have significant economic implications. Other effects of corrosive water, such as the corrosion of iron and copper, may stain household fixtures, and impart objectionable metallic taste and red or blue-green color to the water supply as well. Corrosion of distribution system pipes can reduce water flow.

- **Standards related to corrosion and staining:** Chloride, Copper, Corrosivity, Iron, Manganese, pH, Total Dissolved Solids, Zinc.

Scaling and *sedimentation* are other processes which have economic impacts. Scale is a mineral deposit which builds up on the insides of hot water pipes, boilers, and heat exchangers, restricting or even blocking water flow. Sediments are loose deposits in the distribution system or home plumbing.

- **Standards related to scale and sediments:** Iron, pH, Total Dissolved Solids, Aluminum.

PUBLIC NOTIFICATION

In addition to monitoring requirements, the federal government realizes that an important element of public safety is keeping the customer informed about the quality of their drinking water. Two regulations that were enacted to accomplish this goal are the **Public Notification Rule** and the **Consumer Confidence Report**.

Whereas the Consumer Confidence Report is designed to provide information to customers on an annual basis, the Public Notification Rule specifies how water suppliers must inform their customers in the event of a MCL violation or emergency situation. This rule went into effect in May 2000 and established specific language, actions, time frames, and methods that must be used to notify the public in these situations. The Public Notification Rule establishes **Tiers** for each contaminant and the type of situation that resulted in the violation.

Public notification (PN) is intended to ensure that consumers will always know if there is a problem with their drinking water. PWSs must notify the people who drink their water if the level of a contaminant in the water exceeds EPA and State drinking water regulations, if there is a waterborne disease outbreak or any other situation that may pose a risk to public health, if the water system fails to test its water as required, or if the system has a variance or exemption from the regulations. Depending on the severity of the situation, water suppliers have from 24 hours to one year to notify their customers. PN is provided in addition to the CCR to provide customers with a more complete picture of drinking water quality and system operations.

EPA sets strict requirements on the form, manner, content, and frequency of public notices. Notices must contain:

- A description of the violation that occurred, including the potential health effects
- The population at risk and if alternate water supplies need to be used
- What the water system is doing to correct the problem
- Actions consumers can take
- When the violation occurred and when the system expects it to be resolved
- How to contact the water system for more information
- Language encouraging broader distribution of the notice

EPA specifies three categories, or tiers, of public notification. Depending on what tier a violation or situation falls into, water systems have different amounts of time to distribute the notice and different ways to deliver the notice:

Tier 1 Public Notice - Required Within 12 Hours

Any time a violation and situation with significant potential to have serious adverse effect on human health as a result of short-term exposure, water suppliers have 12 hours to notify people who may drink the water of the situation. Water suppliers must use media outlets such as television, radio, and newspapers, post their notice in public places, or personally deliver a notice to their customers in these situations.

Examples of Tier 1 Violations:

- Violation of the MCL for total coliform, when fecal coliform or **Escherichia coli (herein referred to as *E. coli*)** are present in the water distribution system, or failure to test for fecal coliform or *E. coli* when any repeat sample tests positive for coliform;
- Violation of the MCL for nitrate, nitrite, or total nitrate and nitrite; or when a confirmation sample is not taken within 24 hours of the system's receipt of the first sample showing exceedance of the nitrate or nitrite MCL;
- Exceedance of the nitrate **MCL (10 milligrams per liter (mg/L))** by non-community water systems, where permitted to exceed the MCL (up to 20 mg/L) by the primacy agency;
- Violations of the **maximum residual disinfection level (MRDL)** for chlorine dioxide when one or more of the samples taken in the distribution system on the day after exceeding the MRDL at the entrance of the distribution system or when required samples are not taken in the distribution system;
- Violation of the turbidity MCL of **1 nephelometric turbidity unit (NTU)**, where the primacy agency determines after consultation that a Tier 1 notice is required or where consultation does not occur in 12 hours after the system learns of violation;
- Violation of the TT requirement resulting from a single exceedance of the maximum allowable turbidity limit, where the primacy agency determines after consultation that a Tier 1 notice is required or where consultation does not take place in 24 hours after the system learns of violation;
- Occurrence of a waterborne disease outbreak, as defined in 40 CFR 141.2, or other waterborne emergency; and
- Other violations or situations with significant potential for serious adverse effects on human health as a result of short term exposure, as determined by the OEHS either in its regulations or on a case-by-case basis.

* If your system has any of these violations or situations, in addition to issuing public notice, you must initiate consultation with your primacy agency as soon as practical but within 24 hours after you learn of the violation or situation.

Tier 2 Public Notice - Required Within 30 Days (unless extended to 90 days by State)

Any time a violation and situation with potential to have serious, but not immediate, adverse effects on human health, water suppliers must supply notices within 30 days, or as soon as possible, with extension of up to three months for resolved violations at the discretion of the OEHS. Notice may be provided via the media, posting, or through the mail.

Examples of Tier 2 Violations:

- All violations of the MCL, MRDL, and TT requirements except where Tier 1 notice is required.
- Violations of monitoring requirements where OEHS determines that a Tier 2 public notice is required, taking into account potential health impacts and persistence of the violation.
- Failure to comply with the terms and conditions of any variance or exemption in place.

Tier 3 Public Notice - Required Within 1 Year

When water systems violate a drinking water standard that does not have a direct impact on human health, for all other violations not included in Tier 1 or Tier 2, the water supplier has up to a year to provide a notice of this situation to its customers. The extra time gives water suppliers the opportunity to consolidate these notices and send them with annual water quality reports (CCRs).

Examples of Tier 3 Violations:

- Monitoring violations, except where Tier 1 notice is required or the primacy agency determines that the violation requires a Tier 2 notice.
- Failure to comply with an established testing procedure, except where Tier 1 notice is required or the primacy agency determines that the violation requires a Tier 2 notice.
- Operation under a variance granted under §1415 or exemption granted under §1416 of the SDWA.
- Availability of unregulated contaminant monitoring results.
- Exceedance of the secondary maximum contaminant level for fluoride.

Tier Determination

In any of the above situations, the water supplier must notify OEHS as soon as possible for a determination of what Tier applies to a given situation. OEHS will make a determination and work with you to provide the appropriate language and steps you must take to notify the public. **“When in doubt, call the OEHS and find out.”**

What information must be included in a notice?

Your public notice must include specific information in order to be considered complete. Each notice must contain information addressing ten elements, including use of standard health effects language for MCL and treatment technique violations and standard language for monitoring violations. PWSs serving a large proportion of non-English speaking consumers are also required to include information in the notice in languages other than English.

For each violation and situation requiring notice (except for fluoride **secondary maximum contaminant level (SMCL)** exceedances, availability of unregulated contaminant monitoring data, and operation under a variance or exemption), you must provide a clear and easy-to-understand explanation of the following:

1. The violation or situation, including the contaminant(s) of concern, and (as applicable) the contaminant level(s);
2. When the violation or situation occurred;
3. Any potential adverse health effects from drinking the water, using mandatory language;
4. The population at risk, including subpopulations that may be particularly vulnerable if exposed to the contaminant in their drinking water;
5. Whether alternate water supplies should be used;
6. Actions consumers should take, including when they should seek medical help, if known;
7. What you are doing to correct the violation or situation;

8. When you expect to return to compliance or resolve the situation;
9. Your name, business address, and phone number or those of a designee of the PWS as a source of additional information concerning the notice; and
10. A statement encouraging notice recipients to distribute the notice to others, where applicable, using the standard language.

Some required elements may not apply to every violation or situation. However, you must still address these elements in your notice. For example, if it is unnecessary for consumers to boil their water or drink bottled water, you should tell them they do not need to do so. This is especially important for Tier 2 notices, where a violation may have been resolved by the time the notice is issued or may not be an immediate health risk.

Certification of Compliance

After you provide the notice to your consumers, you must, within 7 days, send OEHS a copy of each type of notice you distribute (e.g., newspaper article, press release to TV/radio, mail notices) and a certification that you have met all the public notification requirements

BOIL WATER NOTICE

Water treatment professionals must regard public health protection as the highest priority. Although every water treatment plant operator strives to produce high quality water, if a test result or a condition exists that may threaten public health, a boil water notice (BWN) must be considered.

Therefore, water professionals must develop BWN criteria and action plans **before** there is a problem, not during a crisis. BWNs require a considerable amount of thought if they are to be carried out in timely fashion. One of the most important aspects of BWN's is determining what circumstances will trigger the event, a few examples are:

- A violation of the total coliform rule;
- Loss of disinfection residuals at the point of entry;
- High filter effluent turbidities;
- Loss of pressure in the distribution system;
- Cross-connection/backflow incidents;
- Major water main breaks; or,
- Breaches in the integrity of water storage facilities.

There is no single perfect action plan for all utilities: each must be tailored to the specific system and situation. It is essential that plant staff focus on the challenge of fixing the problem that prompted the BWA thus protecting public health. Text of the public notification regulation can be found in the EPA Public Notification Handbook, on the OEHS website or by contacting your OEHS district office engineer.

Professional judgment and discretion are necessary in making decisions on the issuance of a notice. The water supplier is advised to consult with the local primacy agency to discuss the criteria for issuing public notices or BWNs. These discussions should include the actual wording and conditions for issuing the advisory.

DO NOT DRINK THE WATER WITHOUT BOILING IT FIRST. Bring all water to a boil, let it boil for one minute, and let it cool before using, or use bottled water. Boiled or bottled water should be used for drinking, making ice, brushing teeth, washing dishes, bathing, and food preparation **until further notice**. Boiling kills bacteria and other organisms in the water.

Once the criteria to issue a BWN have been met, prompt action is necessary. Failure to issue a timely BWN could lead to serious public health, financial, and public relations consequences. Customer confidence may be eroded or elevated depending on the timeliness and accuracy of the information they require. BWNs erode public confidence if they are not issued in time or issued too often.

The June 6, 2009, OEHS Environmental Health Procedures Manual Memorandum DW-23 addresses Boil Water Notices for PWSs. There is also the January 9, 2012 DW-18 *Guidance for Public Facilities Affected by Boil Water Notices*. Both policies are available at www.wvdhhr.org/phs/manual/Drinking_Water/index.asp

OPERATOR CERTIFICATION

Operator certification helps protect human health and the environment by establishing minimum professional standards for the operation and maintenance of PWSs. In 1999, EPA issued operator certification program guidelines specifying minimum standards for certification and recertification of the operators of community and nontransient noncommunity PWSs. While the specific requirements vary from state to state, the goal of all operator certification programs is to ensure that skilled professionals are overseeing the treatment and distribution of safe drinking water. Operator certification is an important step in promoting compliance with the SDWA.

The WV Operator Certification Program was approved by EPA on February 20, 2002. West Virginia requires all public water systems to have a certified operator to effectively operate the system. Certified operators play a crucial role in protecting the health and welfare of West Virginia citizens, which can be jeopardized if persons not properly qualified are allowed to operate water supply systems. There are many disease-causing organisms and chemicals that may enter a system through the source water or through problems in the distribution system. Most contaminants cannot be seen or smelled, so proper system maintenance and monitoring is required to ensure the protection of public health. Water users expect a safe and adequate water supply and rely on the system operator to notify them if problems occur.

The need for responsible water system operators is enormous. Competent water system operations require someone with skill, knowledge and experience in operating, maintaining and troubleshooting water sources, treatment and distribution systems. Even if the operator will not be the one to repair or replace broken equipment, he/she must be able to recognize potential problems and take action to have problems corrected. Any individual making process control/system integrity decisions about water quality or quantity must be certified.

West Virginia's Operator Certification Program:

- Provides applications and informational resources to prospective operators;
- Administers the examination process;
- Evaluates applicant experience and education;
- Evaluates training for continuing education; and,
- Tracks continuing education obtained by each operator.

To become a certified operator, an individual must:

1. Submit an application;
2. Attend any required training courses;
3. Pass a written examination specific for the size and type of system to be operated; and,
4. Meet minimum experience and education requirements;

Maintaining certification requires:

1. Applying for new renewal by submitting an application every 2 years;
2. Documented attendance at sufficient OEHS-approved continuing education courses (CEHs); and,
3. Continued employment as an operator in a public water system.

Continuing Education Hours

Our understanding of drinking water quality and chemical and biological contaminants in water is changing almost daily. Similarly, better laboratory methods to find small amounts of chemicals, and improvements in diagnosing and tracking disease, more clearly define water that is truly safe to consume. Along with increased knowledge of health threats, which may be in drinking water, we have also increased our ability to prevent their occurrence, and to detect and remove them. Special sample collection methods, monitoring schedules and treatment options exist for a variety of possible contaminants. All certified operators, as well as system owners and managers, have a responsibility to keep up with changes in monitoring and reporting requirements. Also, it is important you are aware of new information on water quality and treatment and they maintain a basic level of knowledge.

West Virginia requires all certified operators, except 1Ds, to obtain **continuing education hours (CEHs)**. Continuing education is essential to keeping up to date with water supply, treatment, maintenance, and monitoring information. The amount of continuing education that must be obtained depends on your certification classification.

- **Operators-in-Training (OITs) and Water Distribution (WD) operators are required to obtain 6 CEHs every 2 years.**
- **Class I operators are required to obtain 12 CEHs every 2 years.**
- **Classes II-IV are required to obtain 24 CEHs every 2 years.**

Operators are required to notify the OEHS in the event they are no longer the operator for a specific system. This is to emphasize the importance of having a certified operator at all times. A 30 day notice is required for voluntary terminations. Please complete and submit form EW-74 at least 30 days prior to quitting to stay in compliance with operator requirements and keep your certification. If you are fired, contact Certification & Training so they are aware your employment status has changed and provided them with your new or anticipated employment information.

Certification is personal. Each individual operator is responsible for keeping his/her certification current and ensuring all requirements are met. . Please contact the Certification and Training Section at: for water requests call (304) 356-4266, for wastewater requests call (304) 356-4334, for renewal request call (304) 356-4335, or WVRWA at (304) 201-1689 if you have any questions concerning your responsibilities as a certified public water system operator. The Certification and Training Section oversees information on more than 2,300 certified water operators in addition to wastewater operators, backflow prevention & assembly inspector testers, water well drillers, and monitoring well driller training in West Virginia. It is essential we work together and openly communicate.

Responsibilities of the Public Water System and OEHS

The public water system owner and operator, along with OEHS, work together to make sure that safe drinking water is provided to water system users and that all regulatory requirements are met. Providing safe drinking water requires a team effort from systems, operators, and OEHS.

Responsibilities of the Owner and Operator

The owner of a public water system is responsible for meeting all of the legal requirements that

apply to the water supply. An operator is a person who conducts day-to-day operational and technical activities related to the operation of a water supply. Although the owner may designate an operator, the owner is ultimately responsible for providing safe drinking water and meeting regulatory requirements. It is important that both the owner and operator work together to ensure

that the water system provides safe drinking water and meets all applicable requirements. **The ultimate goal for both the owner and operator is to provide safe drinking water to the public.**

The owners of public water systems shall:

- Employ a Chief Operator with a certification equal to or higher than the system classification, except for ID PWSs. A PWS may have more than one (1) Chief Operator if jurisdiction is bifurcated between the distribution system and treatment plant or otherwise approved in writing by the Commissioner based upon a written request;
 - In the case of a distribution system not under the direct jurisdiction of the treatment plant Chief Operator, employ an additional Chief Operator with WDS, Class I or higher certification and an adequate number of certified operators to operate the distribution system.
 - Place direct supervision of their PWS, including each treatment facility and distribution system, under the responsible charge of the Chief Operator holding an adequate certification.
- Employee and adequate number of certified operators to operate the system;
- Not employ more OITs than the number of employed certified operators, unless written permission is granted by the Commissioner;
- Notify the Commissioner within twenty-four (24) hours if a certified operator or OIT terminates employment for any reason;
- Submit a personnel status report by July 15 every year. The report is to be in a manner and form approved by the Commissioner and required information includes, at a minimum: a list of all certified operators employed, the Chief Operator, and the system owner;
- Post a copy of the current certification of all certified operators employed at the system in a conspicuous location in the plant or system office.
- The owner of a ID system shall ensure it is operated by a ID, Class I or higher water operator.
- The owner of a Class R system shall ensure it is operated by a Class R, Class I or higher water operator.
- The owner of a WDS system shall ensure it is operated by a WDS, Class I or higher water operator.

Operator's Responsibilities

An operator is the person who is, in whole or part, responsible for the operation of a water system. At times, he/she may be a manager, laboratory technician, mechanic, meter reader, and a public relations specialist. To become a competent operator one must have a strong interest and desire for the job. Becoming a competent operator means; being accountable, having the will to learn, and to work without supervision. Even though many aspects of a water system can be "out of sight", they should not be "out of mind" for the water treatment plant operator. By

properly maintaining the system, a competent operator provides a large degree of protection for a community's great investment in infrastructure. The operator also protects the health and well being of customers by producing a safe finished product, free of harmful bacteria and toxic materials.

A certified operator shall:

- Be responsible for their certification in accordance with all aspects of 64CSR04;
- Carry his or her current certification upon them at all times while operating;
- Not work under the certification of another person;
- Notify the Commissioner at least 30 days prior to quitting (EW-74)
- Comply with 64CSR03; and,
- Demonstrate data integrity by providing complete, accurate & true information;

A chief operator shall:

- Be responsible for the PWS operation;
- Be employed on a full-time basis at Class II-IV PWSs;
- Attend a Chief Operator course within 1 year of role;
- Encourage OIT applicants to submit EW-211 within 30 days of hire with their documentation support since experience gained for certification starts only upon the issued date of the OIT certificate;
- Be responsible for the training and job duty assignments of OITs and other certified operators;

The Commissioner may apply progressive enforcement actions against individual operator certifications such as:

1. Written warning with additional requirement (ie. specified training course(s) such as the Chief Operator or reporting information to OEHS for review)
2. Suspension (ie. 10 day or 30 day)
3. Revocation (reinstate-able after 1 year)
4. Revocation permanent
5. Fine penalty

Enforcement actions will progress with each occurrence unless the severity of action(s) warrants immediate and automatic revocation of operator certification to protect public health. The Commissioner will maintain the authority to suspend or revoke certification when seriousness of the violation merits without a written warning.

PUBLIC WATER SYSTEMS OPERATOR REGULATIONS

Title 64 Legislative Rule Bureau for Public Health Series 4 *Public Water Systems Operators* (64CSR4) governs the examination and certification of operators of public water systems. OEHS regularly reviews and revises this rule to ensure compliance with federal rule and clear, consistent statewide application. 64CSR04 was revised in 2007 and 2002, with the current version effective since May 2, 2012.

OEHS recognizes the importance of professionals in the drinking water industry and looks forward to working with each and every individual operator and system to successfully implement any new requirements on a reasonable timeframe. Please read the current version of 64CSR04 entirely. You can contact our office at 304-558-2981 to discuss these rules or if you would like a copy visit the WV Secretary of State website at <http://apps.sos.wv.gov/adlaw/csr/ruleview.aspx?document=2606> Periodic rule review and revision enables West Virginia to retain primary enforcement for the Safe Drinking Water Act. Without the PWS operator regulations administered by the operator certification program, one of the important barriers to preventing contamination of PWS' has been compromised.

CHIEF OPERATOR REQUIREMENTS & RESPONSIBILITIES

Every PWS owner must employ a chief operator with certification equal to or higher than the system classification, except at 1D and Class R systems. A certified chief operator is responsible for the day to day operation of the PWS to ensure the delivery of safe water at all times by complying with all state and federal regulations. The way this is accomplished is by the completing the following tasks. These tasks may vary depending on the size of your system, the type of water source and the complexity of treatment.

- Attend training to meet state primacy agency's continuing education requirements;
- Attend training programs and workshops to keep current of technical improvements;
- Be aware of all changes in regulations regarding water treatment;
- Be available to accompany regulatory officials for on-site inspections when given adequate notice;
- Collect or oversee the collection of water samples as specified by OEHS;
- Communicate with the owner, manager, or board about technical and financial needs of your system;
- Conduct frequent system and security inspections;
- Develop and maintain a plan for monitoring system process controls and meet all related goals;
- Educate other staff on emergency procedures and keep contact information up to date;
- Ensure that all samples are tested by a WVBPH certified lab;
- Ensure that all treatment equipment is maintained and operated properly according to the manufacturers' specifications and recommendations;
- Ensure that daily chemical analyses are properly measured and recorded;
- Ensure that OEHS approval has been obtained prior to starting treatment or changing chemical types and/or manufacturers;
- Inspect critical facilities and components, including door locks and fencing, as part of daily inspections;
- Inspect, flush, clean and disinfect the water distribution system as needed per OEHS regulations;
- Investigate water quality and quantity problems and take corrective measures as needed in a timely manner;
- Keep accurate operational records;
- Keep accurate records of repairs and routine maintenance performed on the treatment equipment;
- Keep accurate records of water analyses, repairs, maintenance and correspondence;
- Make all chemical adjustments and add all chemicals when necessary;
- Measure and record all chemical dosage rates as needed;
- Maintain a consumer complaint log, including how complaints are resolved;
- Oversee and monitor all repairs performed on the public water system;
- Review all water quality analyses for completeness prior to submission to OEHS;
- Report all violations to OEHS and issue public notices when needed;

- Update system maps when a significant change to the distribution system has been made; and,
- Utilize appropriate safety equipment.

Chief operators are also responsible for training of any Operators-in-Training (OITs) at their system. The Chief Operator must review and sign the OIT application (EW-211) recommended within 30 days of new employee hire as well as document in writing when the OIT has sufficient work experience to upgrade to a WD or Class I operator. Certified experience is the only experience counted towards upgrade so it is important to ensure all operators or individuals employed by the system conducting operator duties are currently certified. PWSs may not employ more OITs than the number of currently employed certified operators, unless written permission is granted by OEHS.

RENEWAL AND CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS

All operator certifications require renewal every 2 years. Although this is not new for all certifications, it adds clarification that OITs are also renewable. The experience requirements for all certifications are now measured in hours instead of years to help improve proper credit with a variety of employment schedules. For example, instead of 1 year (assuming full time) experience, it is listed as 2,000 hours for a Class I operator.

Federal guidelines require continuing education for all certified operators. The regulations require all certified operators (except 1D) continue to receive training related to water treatment and distribution to promote continued learning and professionalism, more efficient operation, and a better understanding of emerging technologies and trends.

OIT minimum education requirements can be waived by the Commissioner, in writing, to a minimum age of 16 and completion of the 10th grade with a current school transcript and 2.0/4.0 grade point average. The intent of this is to allow interested students to receive water treatment related training earlier in their academic career paths and help promote awareness of the water treatment field. OIT applicants must submit their renewal application at least 30 calendar days prior to their certificate's expiration date, in a manner approved by the Commissioner. The OIT shall attempt to pass the Class WD or I examination at least once during each 2 year renewal. The intent of the OIT CEH requirement is that if the OIT cannot pass the exam, CEHs may help them pass the next time around.

Class WD operators must obtain 6 hours of continuing education hours, Class I operators must obtain 12 hours of continuing education hours, and Class II through IV must obtain 24 hours of continuing education hours for renewal. Certified operators who qualify for Class WD certification in addition to a current Class I or higher certification shall hold the certifications concurrently, but only maintain the renewal requirements for the highest certification held.

The regulations also clarify that it is the duty of each certified operator to obtain the necessary amount of appropriate CEHs and retain documentation of attendance required for the renewal application. All certified operators must now ensure renewal applications are submitted no earlier than 60 days prior to expiration, in addition to the previous requirements, to facilitate proper data management and timely processing.

All continuing education units (CEUs) must be preapproved by the Commissioner for relevancy so that the applicant knows beforehand the courses are enough, or if additional course work will be needed. 100% credit will be awarded to CEUs deemed directly related to water treatment and distribution otherwise 50% credit will be awarded.

Keep in mind, **all operator certification requirements are based on federal and state regulations to ultimately protect public health.** Each certified PWS operator is responsible in providing adequate supply of safe, potable drinking water to consumers who are confident their water is safe to drink. It is essential these operators not only achieve these minimum requirements for certification but continue to gain knowledge and acknowledge the public health foundation of their career choice in the drinking water industry. Please contact the Certification and Training Program at any time to discuss any aspect of the operator certification program.

WATER DISTRIBUTION CERTIFICATION

EPA guidelines require all PWS operating personnel making process control/system integrity decisions about water quality or quantity that affect public health be done under the direction of a qualified, certified operator. This potential exists in both the treatment facility and distribution system. Therefore, a Water Distribution (WD) operator certification was added in 2007.

Some water utilities also have “split” responsibilities, where the water treatment plant may be under the direction of a certified PWS operator but the distribution system is not. This is no longer allowable under 64CSR04. The WD certification will allow two “chief operators” to be assigned under the above scenario and still meet the federal guidelines. Although a WD system is defined as a PWS that obtains all of its water from another PWS (also known as a purchase system), and is not owned or operated by the supplying PWS, an individual working in the distribution portion of any PWS must hold a WD or higher certification to ensure properly certified operator coverage.

Since WD operators collect water quality samples at the distribution system but not provide any treatment, much of the current Class I (and higher) operator certification training is not needed for distribution only systems or related work. Development of a WD training course and exam where only distribution activities are taught and tested, will eliminate the problem of a person having to study unneeded and unnecessary material in order to proficiently perform their job functions.

WD certification requires:

- 18 years of age
- High school diploma or GED
- Commissioner-approved WD course
- 1,000 hours (~6 months full-time) certified experience at a WD or higher PWS documented
- EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on WD exam
- Form EW-211 for certification

All of the requirements for WD operator certification are based on current EPA guidelines related to operator education, examination, experience, and continued training. Any operator collecting samples at a WD or higher system must hold a 1D or higher certification. This provision was added to give existing WD operators a chance to upgrade without going through the Operator-in-Training (OIT) process.

A Class I-IV certified operator may choose to be WD certified in addition to their higher classifications, however, it is not required. If both certifications are held, the requirements for the highest must be met. The Water Distribution Operator Certification Course is approved for 23 CEHs (CEH2008-052) so it may be taken for continued learning purposes instead certification if the individual chooses.

OPERATOR FORMS

Remember all forms must be complete, legible, signed and dated, and timely with all required documents attached (copy of diploma, CEH certificates, etc.) for processing. Also remember to use the most current version of each form. All forms are available on the OEHS website at www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed/swap/training&certification/forms.asp or by phone request from the Certification and Training Program at (304) 356-4335.

- EW-102 Request for Water or Wastewater Operator Certification Exam
- EW-211 Request for Water Operator Certification
- EW-212 Request for Water or Wastewater Operator Certification Renewal
- EW-104 Personnel Status Report
- EW-74 Water or Wastewater Operator Resignation Notice
- EW-126 Request for Certification Reinstatement
- EW-108 Request for Water or Wastewater Operator Certification from Another Jurisdiction
- EW-76 Request to be Included on the West Virginia's Contract Operator List
- EW-75 Request for Backflow Prevention Assembly Inspector/Tester (BPAIT) Certification
- EW-78 Operator Continuing Education Hour (CEH) Application

PUBLIC WATER SYSTEM CLASSIFICATION

The classification of PWS is determined by a descriptive definition based on source, population served, and treatment requirements. In general, the system complexity will continue to determine the required operator classification. All PWS classifications are reviewed as part of the sanitary survey conducted by District Office staff. This timeframe enables existing staff to reevaluate each system. Exceptions to this schedule will be made if requested in writing or if other problems arise. If reclassification occurs, systems must communicate with OEHS to ensure proper operator coverage. OEHS recommends operators at systems likely to change to start training and working towards the appropriate classification.

Class 1D

A transient non-community PWS that has groundwater only as a source, and does not use gaseous chlorine or chlorine dioxide as a means of disinfection, and does not treat for the removal of nitrate or nitrite, or both. A groundwater source that uses gaseous chlorine, chlorine dioxide as a means of disinfection or has treatment for removal of nitrate or nitrite, or both is at least a Class I PWS.

Water Distribution (WDS)

A PWS that obtains all of its water from another PWS, and is not owned or operated by the supplying PWS. A WDS does not have any other source of water other than water from the supplying PWS. A WDS may apply chlorine for supplemental disinfection but otherwise does not treat its water. A WDS that retreats with anything other than chlorine is at least a Class I PWS.

Class R

A non-transient PWS that retreats at the point of entry with anything other than chlorine another PWSs finished water for facility use and consumption only. A Class R that provides water to another PWS is at least a Class I PWS.

Class I

A community or non-transient non-community PWS with a GW source that serves a population of less than ten thousand (10,000), including consecutive connection population and does not treat for an identified primary contaminant. A transient non-community PWS that has a groundwater source that uses gaseous chlorine, chlorine dioxide as a means of disinfection or has treatment for removal of nitrate or nitrite, or both.

Class II

A community or non-transient non-community PWS with:

- A GW source that serves a population of less than ten thousand (10,000), including consecutive connections, and either treats for an identified primary contaminant, or has a treatment technique as identified in 40CFR141.73;
- A GW source that serves a population of at least ten thousand (10,000), including consecutive connections that does not treat for an identified primary contaminant; or,
- A GWUDI or SW source that serves a population of less than ten thousand (10,000), including consecutive connections.

Class III

A community or non-transient non-community PWS with:

- A GW source that serves a population of greater than ten thousand (10,000), including consecutive connections, and either treats for an identified primary contaminant, or has a treatment technique as identified in 40CFR141.73; or,
- A GWUDI or SW source that serves a population of at least ten thousand (10,000), but less than twenty thousand (20,000), including consecutive connections.

Class IV

A community or non-transient non-community PWS with a GWUDI or SW source that serves a population of at least twenty thousand (20,000), including consecutive connection population, and has treatment.

OPERATOR CERTIFICATION CHECKLIST

Since certified operators are a key component of any water system, it is important to understand what all goes into becoming a certified water operator. The Certification and Training Program is commonly asked how quickly an individual can become a certified water operator. The summary below was comprised to address this good question in writing. Feel free to use it as a checklist in the future.

Class R Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- Commissioner approved Class R course
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on Class R exam
- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 1 CEH using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

1D Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- Commissioner-approved 1D course
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on 1D exam
- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Operator-in-Training (OIT):

- 18 years old
 - May be waived upon written request to 16 with at least 2.0 GPA & 10th grade complete*
- High school diploma or GED.
 - May be waived upon written request to at least a 2.0 GPA & 10th grade complete OR enrolled in Adult Learning Program actively pursuing GED*
- Form EW-211
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 6 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Water Distribution (WDS) Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- Commissioner-approved WDS course
- 1,000 hours (~6 months full-time) certified experience at a WDS or higher PWS documented
- EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on WDS exam
- Form EW-211 for certification

- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 6 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Class I Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- Commissioner-approved Class I course
- 2,000 hours (~1 year full-time) certified experience at a PWS documented. *Experience from ID, WDS, or predominantly in maintenance and other non-operational or treatment duties shall not count for more than 600 hours.*
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on Class I exam
- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 12 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Class II Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- Commissioner-approved Class II course
- 4,000 hours (~2 years full-time) certified experience at a PWS with 2,000 of those at a Class II or higher PWS documented. *Experience from ID, WDS, or predominantly in maintenance and other non-operational or treatment duties shall not count for more than 600 hours.*
 - May substitute Class II or higher PWS experience with Commissioner approved course (Sacramento Courses Volumes I&II)*
 - May substitute maximum of 1 year experience with 45 CEUs upon written request*
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on Class II exam
- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 24 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Class III Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- 90 CEUs
 - May substitute maximum 45 CEUs with additional 1 year experience*
- 8,000 hours (~4 years full-time) certified experience at a PWS with 2,000 of those at a Class II or higher PWS documented. *Experience from ID, WDS, or predominantly in maintenance and other non-operational or treatment duties shall not count for more than 600 hours.*
 - May substitute maximum of 2 years experience with additional 90 CEUs upon written request*
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on Class III exam

- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 24 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

Class IV Water Operator:

- 18 years old
- High school diploma or GED
- 70 or better on Class IV exam
- 180 CEUs
 - *May substitute maximum 90 CEUs with additional 2 years experience*
- 10,000 hours (~5 years full-time) certified experience (3.18) at a PWS with 2,000 of those at a Class III or higher PWS documented. *Experience from ID, WDS, or predominantly in maintenance and other non-operational or treatment duties shall not count for more than 600 hours.*
 - *May substitute maximum 2.5 years experience with additional 135 CEUs upon written request*
- Form EW-102 for exam
- 70 or better on Class IV exam
- Form EW-211 for certification
- Renewal every 2 years with proof of 24 CEHs using form EW-212 30-60 days prior to expiration*

NOTE: A CEU is 10 CEHs or any higher education approved by OEHS. C&T reviews each course for relevancy and assigns CEUs on a case-by-case basis. The rules specify courses relevant to water treatment will count 100% towards CEUs. However, a course not directly related will receive 50% credit towards CEUs. Thus, a 3 credit hour Music Appreciation course taken at WVU will only be granted 1.5 CEUs. Also, keep in mind you cannot use your education for both minimum education requirements and experience substitution. Therefore, a person with a 4-year degree would be well advised to consider NOT using their degree for experience substitution if they plan to eventually become a Class III or IV operator.

Keep in mind, **all operator certification requirements are based on federal and state regulations to ultimately protect public health.** Each certified PWS operator is responsible in providing adequate supply of safe, potable drinking water to consumers who are confident their water is safe to drink. It is essential these operators not only achieve these minimum requirements for certification but continue to gain knowledge and acknowledge the public health foundation of their career choice in the drinking water industry. Please contact the Certification and Training Program at any time to discuss any aspect of the operator certification program.

GUIDANCE FOR CERTIFIED WATER OPERATORS

OEHS Certification and Training (C&T) Program staff takes pride in reviewing and processing each operator application based on quality, timeliness, and fulfillment of all current certification regulation requirements. However, if applications are incomplete or required information is not submitted or is illegible, our job is more difficult and timeliness of your certification is reduced. By adhering to the following guidelines, initial certification or renewal will proceed more effectively.

1. Know the rules and regulations for your profession and how to receive and maintain your certification(s). This includes knowledge of education and experience requirements and associated timelines. West Virginia Administrative Rules, Title 64 Series 4, *Public Water Systems Operators* are available online from the Secretary of State website at <http://apps.sos.wv.gov/adlaw/csr/ruleview.aspx?document=2606>. If you have any questions on these regulations, contact C&T for clarification.

2. Know the proper forms required to initially become certified and renew your certification (if required). Knowing what forms to use and having them available in your work area will facilitate meeting the required timelines. All current forms are available by calling us at (304) 356-4335. Always read carefully and complete the forms in their entirety, which includes a signature and date for proper documentation. Incomplete applications will be returned.

3. Make sure any classes you take toward certification upgrade or renewal are already approved by OEHS. All classes must be approved by the Commissioner and attendance documented by the operator before OEHS will accept the continuing education hours (CEHs) for operator renewal requirements. All approved CEHs have a unique, 7-digit CEH number. Taking unapproved classes and failing to provide class certificates upon completion may result in the need for you to take additional classes and delay processing your application. **Contact the instructor or their supervisor if you have not received appropriate certificates with the corresponding approved CEH number and course title for all of your training.** You may also contact us at (304) 356-4335 to ask if a course has been approved for CEHs.

4. Do not procrastinate on taking classes for renewal. Hundreds of classes have been approved, some indefinitely. By waiting until the last few months before your renewal, you increase the chance of the class being full, cancelled, possible sickness on your part, having to stay at work due to problems, etc. There are two (2) years in between certification renewals for all water and wastewater operators. Requesting extensions for more time to obtain required continuing education is unacceptable and indicates poor career management on your part.

5. Share good information. The articles you are reading often contain valuable information. Please ensure it is reviewed by staff and coworkers.

By following the above guidance, C&T can provide timely certifications and renewals for everyone. Please contact us with any questions or concerns at any time. We oversee approximately 5,000 individual certifications, which are each unique, personal, and very important. Open communication is essential in facilitating all operator certification needs and ultimately protecting drinking water.

PUBLIC WATER SYSTEMS IN WEST VIRGINIA

The jurisdiction of the drinking water program at the OEHS applies only to PWSs, those that service water to the public. This includes municipal water systems as well as facilities, such as mobile home parks or factories, that have their own source of water and that serve it to the public. Whether the system is privately owned or not, if it serves water to more than 25 people, it is considered a PWS and subject to the regulations of the SDWA.

West Virginia has over 1,100 active PWSs. This number constantly changes and varies year to year. Approximately 90% of all PWSs use groundwater, while only 10% use a surface water or groundwater under the direct influence of surface water source. However, this low number of surface water source PWSs serve large population centers such as the cities of Charleston, Morgantown, Huntington, and Clarksburg.

Water System Types

Public Water Systems (PWS) provide piped water for human consumption to 15 or more service connections or an average of at least 25 individuals each day for at least 60 days each year. The system includes the source water intake (such as a well), treatment, storage, and distribution piping. Human consumption of water includes drinking water and water used for cooking, food preparation, hand washing, bathrooms and bathing. A private home served by its own well is not a public water supply system since it serves only a single service outlet.

There are three categories of PWSs: **Community Water System (CWS); Non Transient Non Community Water System (NTNCWS); and, Transient Non Community Water System (TNCWS)**. A **Community Water System (CWS)** is defined as a public water system which serves at least 15 service connections used by year-round residents or it regularly serves at least 25 year-round residents. A public system that is not a community water system is a **Non-Community Water System (NCWS)**.

There are two types of non-community water systems, **Non-Community Non-Transient Systems (NTNCWS)** and **(TNCWS) Transient Non-Community Water Systems**.

Non-Community Non-Transient Water Systems (NTNCWS) are non-community public water systems that regularly serve at least 25 of the same people over 6 months of the year. Schools with their own groundwater supply are a good example of this type of system.

Transient Non-Community Water Systems (TWS) do not serve at least 25 of the same people on a regular basis over a 6 month period in a year. This category covers bars, restaurants, rest stops and campgrounds, to name a few.

PWSs are further classified into 6 distinct categories (1D, WD, or Class I, II, III or IV) to ensure each is regulated according to its population served, source water, and treatment complexity.

Purpose of Public Water Systems

The main purpose of PWSs is to provide water safe for human consumption. Other important purposes are to provide an adequate quantity of water of acceptable taste, odor and appearance;

and meet the needs of fire protection. Providing water service places owners and operators of water systems under an ethical and legal obligation to meet these needs.

Most people in the U.S. take safe, inexpensive drinking water for granted. We assume all water that comes from a tap is okay to drink, whether in a restroom, a gas station or a friend's home. Few of us realize the planning, monitoring, repair and maintenance required to obtain and protect adequate amounts of safe water.

Acute and Chronic Health Effects

These requirements are meant to protect the public from contaminants that may cause acute or chronic health effects.

Contaminants that may have an immediate impact on health after drinking small amounts of water must be dealt with in all public water systems. These are contaminants that cause acute health effects. Examples are disease-causing organisms and nitrates.

Contaminants that cause health effects if consumed over long periods of time must be dealt with in systems where the same residential or non-residential consumers have access to the water on a long-term basis. These are contaminants that cause chronic health effects. Examples include cancer-causing chemicals and chemicals affecting the nervous system or kidneys.

Responsibilities of Public Water Systems

Today with increasing regulatory requirements brought about with the 1996 Amendments to the SDWA, public water systems in West Virginia are finding themselves facing many challenges. Along with the increasing responsibilities in the area of treatment and compliance, there is also the issue of source water protection. Achieving and maintaining financial, technical, and managerial capacity is critical for public water systems. Capacity Development is a concept stated in the 1996 SDWA Amendments that pertains to the successful management and operation of a public water system. This concept illustrates the overlapping influence that each of these areas has upon the other. Capacity Development further implies that there is no static endpoint to success. That is, water systems must strive daily to do the best possible job in technical, financial, and managerial endeavors.

Given the increasing regulatory requirements and scarcity of resources that often exist with small systems, it is more important than ever to make certain that individuals directing and operating these systems have a thorough understanding of their system's operation. The basic responsibility of a water system is to furnish customers with potable drinking water that meets or exceeds customer demands. This responsibility is shared by every member of the utility's work force, from managers to operators and from clerical staff to field employees. Every member of the team should be aware of their duties and report any condition to the next in command that has the potential to adversely effect the system's ability to produce safe clean drinking water.

MULTIPLE-BARRIER APPROACH

Whether your tap water comes from surface or groundwater, all drinking water sources are vulnerable to a variety of contaminants from a variety of activities. The origin of contaminants might be in your neighborhood or many miles away. When rain falls or snow melts, it picks up and carries away pollutants, depositing them into lakes, rivers, wetlands, coastal and even underground sources of drinking water. Because we know these activities have the potential to contaminate the source of our drinking water, we have created four major barriers to protect our source water from contamination. Preventing pollution is critical to protecting drinking water from contamination and reducing the need for costly treatment. Community involvement and individual action are key to providing a safe supply of drinking water.

The Multiple-Barrier Approach of public health protection incorporates several independent steps to provide public health protection. The theory behind this concept is the more barriers between a contaminant and the consumer, the more likely an isolated failure in one of the steps will not result in adverse public health effects. For a public water system using groundwater, steps in the multiple-barrier approach include the following:

- Selection of the best source or source location;
- Development and implementation of a source water protection plan;
- Providing adequate treatment to remove or eliminate contaminants;
- Monitoring water quality to check the effectiveness of treatment or the occurrence of contaminants (there are also often multiple barriers within treatment processes);
- Providing sanitary surveys to identify deficiencies which might impact water quality or service; and
- Reporting to the public any contamination events, monitoring failures, or water treatment deficiencies.

Proper design and construction of a public water supply system has a critical role in public health protection. It is also an expensive process regardless of the size of the system. Investment dollars are protected if the system is engineered, constructed, operated and managed so that it is able to provide safe water for as long as possible. Monitoring water quality indicates if part of the system has failed, is leaking or is exposed to conditions which may shorten its useful life. Conditions which may affect the life of pipe include very hard water which might plug pipes, or corrosive water which “eats away” at the interior of pipes and tanks.

THE WATER CYCLE

The Earth's water is always in movement, and the water cycle, also known as the **hydrologic cycle**, describes the continuous movement of water on, above, and below the surface of the Earth. Since the water cycle is truly a "cycle," there is no beginning or end. Water is not gained or lost. Water changes states among liquid, vapor, and solid at various places in the water cycle continuously.

A drop of water:

- Evaporates as water vapor from the heat of the sun or other sources
- Condenses in the atmosphere
- Falls to the earth in the form of precipitation
- Leaches or infiltrates into the ground entering aquifers
- Recharges surface water
- Evaporates again beginning the cycle all over

This means all the water we have now is all we've ever had, and all we're ever going to have. When we look at all the water on earth, most of it (~97%) is in oceans and salty. Icecaps and glaciers make up 2% of earth's water supply. Therefore, there is only 1% or less fresh water available on the surface and in the ground to use.

As rain and snow fall to the earth, some of the water runs off the surface into lakes, rivers, streams and the oceans; some evaporates; and some is absorbed by plant roots. The rest of the water soaks through the ground's surface and moves downward through the unsaturated zone, where the open spaces in rocks and soil are filled with a mixture of air and water, until it reaches the water table. The water table is the top of the saturated zone, or the area in which all interconnected spaces in rocks, and soil are filled with water. The water in the saturated zone is called groundwater. In areas where the water table occurs at the ground's surface, the groundwater discharges into marshes, lakes, springs, or streams and evaporates into the atmosphere to form clouds, eventually falling back to earth again as precipitation.

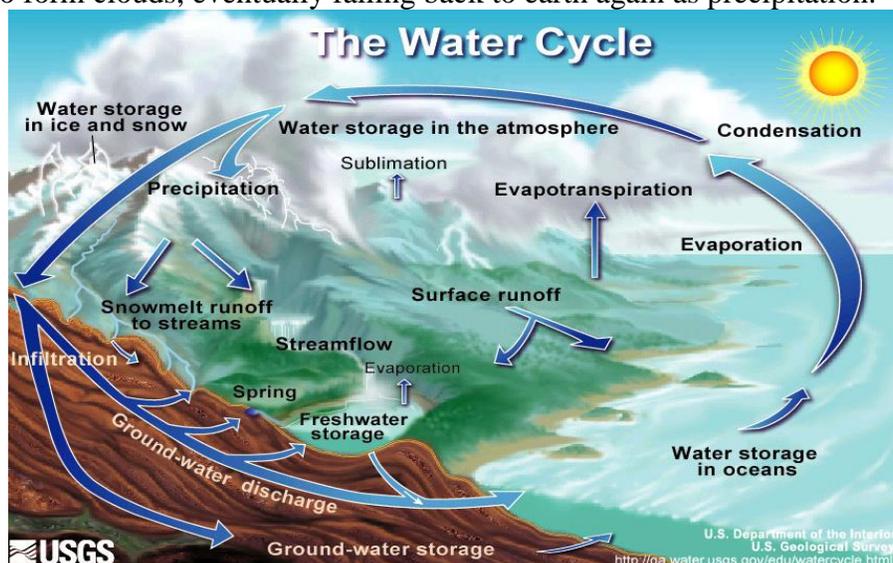


Illustration courtesy of the U.S. Geological Survey

DRINKING WATER SOURCES

Water exists in different forms and locations. The source of drinking water refers to where it comes from. There are three main sources of drinking water: surface water, groundwater, and “groundwater under the influence” of surface water. Surface water supplies about seventy-five percent of the water consumed by people in the U.S. Even though a larger number of water systems in the U.S. use a groundwater source, on the average, they are smaller and serve fewer people. Surface water is a more likely source for large cities.

Usually, the source of water will determine the type of treatment necessary. In most circumstances, groundwater requires little treatment. Groundwater quality problems include minerals, hardness, and dissolved gasses. Surface water and groundwater-under-the-influence quality issues are turbidity, taste, odor, and color. Surface water and “groundwater under the influence” usually require chemical treatment and filtration.

Surface Water

Surface water accumulates mainly as a result of direct runoff from precipitation (rain or snow) or recharge from groundwater. Therefore, surface waters are very susceptible to contamination. You name it - manure, gasoline, pesticides, fertilizers, industrial chemicals, bacteria, air pollution – it can enter surface waters. Because of their high susceptibility to contaminants, surface water sources must meet strict monitoring and treatment requirements for filtration and disinfection. While there are relatively few surface water systems in the world, they provide more water to more people than any other type of system. These systems are typically used by large cities that need a large volume of water to meet their needs.

In general, surface water is characterized by soft water, turbidity, suspended solids, some color and microbial contamination.

Groundwater

Groundwater occurs when water percolates down to a water table through the void spaces. Water in aquifers obtained from wells or springs is called groundwater. Groundwater is generally less susceptible to contamination than surface water. Groundwater’s susceptibility to contamination depends on the type and thickness of soil and rock layers, depth to the groundwater, and the type of contaminants. Some soils are very good at filtering out contaminants. Others are not. The central sands area and karst features are very susceptible to groundwater contamination. In contrast, areas with thick, rich soil and a good depth to groundwater are generally less susceptible to contamination. In some areas, groundwater may become contaminated with naturally occurring minerals in the soil and rock such as arsenic, lead, radium, radon gas and uranium. Groundwater systems generally have less restrictive monitoring and treatment requirements than surface water systems.

Groundwater, on the other hand is characterized by higher concentrations of dissolved solids, dissolved gases, lower levels of color, relatively high hardness, and freedom from microbial contamination.

Groundwater Under the Influence of Surface Water

Water that is obtained from an aquifer that may be intermixed with surface water is called “*groundwater under the influence of surface water*”, (GWUDI). This situation may occur when a well is placed next to a lake or river. As the well is pumped, some of the water from the lake or river enters the groundwater, which, in turn, can reach the well. In other words, the groundwater has a connection to the surface water.

This connection makes the groundwater susceptible to the same types of contaminants as the surface water. Groundwater under the influence of surface water is covered by the same regulations as surface water systems.

GROUNDWATER

Water beneath the land surface occurs in 2 different zones- the unsaturated zone and the saturated zone. The **unsaturated zone** is the area immediately beneath the surface that contains both water and air. Any water in the unsaturated zone is not officially considered groundwater. The **saturated zone** is the area beneath the unsaturated zone where all interconnected openings contain water. The top of the saturated zone is referred to as the water table and any water beneath is officially considered groundwater. The water table:

- Marks the zone of saturation, when rock openings are completely saturated with water and officially called groundwater
- Is the depth at which an aquifer is first found
- Is capable of varying from place to place, and with time
- Is one sign of how surface water and groundwater flow into (or recharge) each other

Groundwater is stored under many types of geologic conditions. Areas where groundwater exists in sufficient quantities to supply wells or springs are called **aquifers**, a term that literally means “water bearer”.

Aquifers store water in the spaces between particles of sand, gravel, soil and rock as well as cracks, pores, and channels in relatively solid rocks. An aquifer’s storage capacity is controlled largely by its **porosity**, or the relative amount of open space present to hold water. Its ability to transmit water or **permeability** is based in part on the size of these spaces and the extent to which they are connected.

Basically, there are two kinds of aquifers; confined and unconfined. If the aquifer is sandwiched between layers of less permeable materials (e.g. clay), it is called a **confined aquifer**. Confined aquifers are frequently found at greater depth than unconfined aquifers. Artesian wells originate from groundwater that is trapped between two impervious strata. As the water flows between these strata it becomes confined as recharge continues, the water backs up, creating pressurized conditions in the aquifer. Water in a well located in an artesian aquifer will rise above the point at which it is first located. If the water rises to the surface, it is a free-flowing artesian well. If not, it is called a non-flowing artesian well.

In contrast, **unconfined aquifers** are not sandwiched between these layers of relatively impermeable materials, and their upper boundaries are generally closer to the surface of the land. The water table is the upper most unconfined aquifer that is free to rise and fall with seasonal changes of recharge rate. The water level in a well located in an unconfined aquifer will not rise above the initial point of encounter because it is not under pressure. A **perched aquifer** is a very small, unconfined aquifer that doesn’t contain much water and is only recharged by local precipitation.

WELLS

The purpose of design standards and proper well development is to improve water quality and quantity and protect public health. WV Water Well Design Standards (Title 64-Series 46) are available from the Secretary of State's website at <http://apps.sos.wv.gov/adlaw/csr/ruleview.aspx?document=2799>. All water well drillers in West Virginia must be certified by the West Virginia Department of Health and Human Resources, Bureau for Public Health, Office of Environmental Health Services. As an operator, it is important to understand some basic water well terms instrumental in protecting ground water sources. The following section is only a brief overview.

All wells in WV, public and private, must be drilled by a certified well driller, be cased and grouted to prevent surface water contamination from entering the aquifer and to exclude undesirable ground water zones. Casing must be made of steel, concrete or a safe plastic such as PVC. The casing should extend from the aquifer to at least 18 inches above the ground surface. The hole should be at least 4 inches larger in diameter than the casing to allow for cement grout. The space between the casing and the wall of the hole is known as the annular space. The annular space is grouted with cement, neat cement, bentonite or a bentonite/cement mix to seal the casing against the borehole. Grout also protects the steel casing from contact with corrosive soils and waters, which would cause it to rust out. Although the depth of grout is determined on a case-by-case basis, it must be pumped into the well from the bottom to the top to prevent air from being trapped and ensure proper sealing of the cavity.

Well Screens

Many rock wells are not equipped with screens. Where water is obtained from water-bearing sands, some type screen must be provided. The selection and construction of this section of the well is most important. The life of the well depends to a large degree on the proper screen. The screen is just what the name implies—a device to hold back sand or any other foreign matter and let water through to the pump. The screen is placed in the well where it is not available for inspection and repair, but the life and performance of the well is dependent upon it. Therefore, serious consideration should be given to its selection.

Perhaps the two most important items for consideration in selecting the screen are the size of the sand encountered and the chemical characteristics of the water. The screen openings must be small enough to hold back the larger sand grains or gravel and at the same time be large enough so that resistance to the flow of water is reduced. The screen openings are determined after the particular sand size is measured. If the screen is improperly sized or ruptures and permits sand to pass, the pump, valves, and meters in the distribution system will be damaged and/or last only a short time. Meters will become plugged and inoperable or complaints of sand in the water will result.

Well Cap

Weatherproof and insect-proof water supply well covers are required. Electrical connections for the pump and any treatment installations also require weatherproof and insect-proof covers to prevent contamination of the well. Ground fault protectors would also be desirable.

Well Pad

The casing should extend at least 6 to 12 inches above the well pad, depending on whether the well is located in a well house or out in the open, to prevent standing water from entering the well. The **well pad** should be sloped away from the casing. Well housings should never be located in a pit.

Well Ventilation

Well casing and discharge column pipe vents should extend at least 18 inches above ground. An air vent is needed for most wells. This vent is usually part of the well cap. The outlets should be turned down to prevent rainwater from entering and screened to prevent contamination by insects, dust, debris, etc.

Sanitary Well Seal

A sanitary well seal is used instead of a well cap on wells that have piping exiting at the top of the casing. It consists of a rubber gasket that is sandwiched between an upper and lower metal plate and all fits inside the top of the casing. The sanitary well seal has openings on the top for piping. Two-piece top plate sanitary seals are only acceptable for wells located in an approved well house. One-piece top plate sanitary seals are acceptable for outdoor use. Well seals are usually made of rubber or neoprene. A welded seal is also approved and used in some cases.

Pitless Units and Pitless Adapters

A pitless adaptor or pitless unit is used to create a frost-proof connection between the well and the water service line. The water service line is attached to the fittings on the well underground – below the frost line, typically 18 to 36 inches below the surface. This is to prevent freezing during cold weather. A water service line connects the well to the water distribution system. Pitless adapters are fittings that can be installed using a hole through the well casing. Pitless units are more complex assemblies, which completely replace the well casing between the frost line and the top of the well.

Last but not least, it is very important to properly abandon water wells no longer in use in accordance with 64CSR46 to prevent future aquifer contamination.

Well Terms

The top of the water table or natural water level in the well while the pump is not running is called the **static water level or static head**. In most cases, the static water level rarely fluctuates much over time as the aquifer is recharged through the hydrologic water cycle. But in some cases, due to excess pumpage from the aquifer over time or drought, the static water level lowers as the aquifer becomes depleted.

The top of the water level in the well while the pump is running is called the **pumping water level**. This level is important because it is an indicator of the ability of the aquifer to supply water to the well.

The difference between the static water level and the pumping water level is known as the **drawdown** of the well. Drawdown is determined by the ability of the aquifer to replace the amount of water that is being pumped from the well. If there is an abundance of water in an aquifer and the water can move freely to the well, the drawdown will be fairly low, typical of

sand and gravel formations. Conversely, if the water cannot move through the formation quickly enough to replace the water being pumped, the drawdown can be quite high.

Well yield and **specific capacity** are two terms that refer to the measurement of the amount of water a well can produce. Well yield is generally expressed in gallons per minute (gpm). Specific capacity is the rate of water that discharges from a well per unit of drawdown (usually feet). It is determined by dividing the well yield by the drawdown and is usually expressed in gallons per minute per foot (gpm/ft). For example, if a well pumps 100 gpm and it has a drawdown of 30 feet, its specific capacity at that flow rate is 3.33 gpm/ft. By tracking the specific capacity of a well over time, an operator can identify well and aquifer performance problems.

As water is pumped from the well, a depression in the water table forms in the shape of an inverted cone called the **cone of depression**. If the drawdown is low, the cone of depression may only extend for a short distance away from the well. Conversely, if the drawdown is high, the cone of depression can extend for quite a ways out from the well, in some cases for hundreds of feet. The cone will continue to enlarge until the rate of groundwater flow or recharge equals the pumping rate, or sufficient leakage occurs between formations to equal the pumping rate, or the cone intercepts a surface water body (lake, stream, etc), or some combination of these occur.

Well Pumps

Most well pumps that are installed in public water systems are vertical turbine centrifugal pumps. The main difference between vertical turbines and other types of centrifugal pumps is that the vertical turbine impeller discharges water out of the top of the impeller. This water flows upward along the pump shaft, instead of at a right angle to the shaft. These pumps can generate the high discharge pressures needed to pump water several hundred feet out of the ground.

“Staging” or stacking several impellers on the shaft is how the high pressures are generated. As the water passes from the discharge of one impeller to the suction of the impeller above it, the pressure that the pump develops is increased. If five impellers that each generates 100 feet of head are staged in a pump, the pump will generate 500 feet of head pressure. Anytime pumps are operated in series, where one pump or impeller discharges to the suction of another pump; the pressure will increase while the flow remains constant.

In some very small, shallow wells airlift pumps may be used. These are normally not suitable for wells supplying most public water systems.

There are two kinds of vertical turbine pumps installed in wells. One of these is known as a submersible pump. A submersible pump will have the motor located beneath the pump. In a small well, it is the least expensive centrifugal well pump to purchase and install. Because there is no pump shaft running to the surface, the submersible is also the ideal pump installation in wells where vertical casing alignment problems exist.

SOURCE WATER ASSESSMENT AND PROTECTION

Virtually every stream, lake, river and aquifer in this country is used as a drinking water source. Protecting these source waters from contaminants is a major national priority in protecting public health through ensuring a clean, safe drinking water supply. Reducing the threat of waterborne illnesses helps save hundreds of millions of dollars annually by eliminating costly health care expenses, lost wages, work absences, decreased job productivity, and additional treatment costs incurred by PWSs required to meet federal drinking water quality standards. The Source Water Assessment and Protection Program (SWAP), authorized by the 1996 Amendments to the SDWA, outlines a comprehensive plan to achieve maximum public health protection.

Source Water Assessment and Protection Plans:

- Are an integral part of the multiple-barrier approach for public health protection.
- Are a preventive effort designed to eliminate unnecessary risk of contamination to the source of water used by a public water supply system.
- Are a community-based approach to protecting drinking water through a process that identifies the origins of certain contaminants and then determines the best way to manage them at the community level.
- Are achieved through the development and implementation of a SWAP plan.
- Can work very well with existing environmental programs by serving as a basis for prioritization for permitting, inspections, and enforcement.

The general concepts of SWAP are applied to public water supply systems using surface water, ground water (also known as Wellhead Protection), or water from a source with significant surface water / ground water interaction. Source water protection is an extension of the wellhead protection concept and includes systems using water from any type of source. Source water protection plan development is designed to manage a specific land area identified or delineated according to the local hydrology (for surface water systems) or hydrogeology (for ground water systems) to prevent ground or surface water contamination. According to the source water assessment and protection plan, it is essential that every community take these six steps:

Step 1- Delineate

Delineating the source water protection area (SWPA) shows the area to be protected and prescribes the boundaries of the area from which drinking water supplies are drawn. This step also designates the area within which contaminant source inventories are conducted, identifying substances or activities that may pose potential risks to the drinking water supplies within that area. Delineations may be performed using a variety of accepted methods (e.g., calculated fixed radius; computer modeling, etc.), and are most protective when they include all sources of water and potential contaminants and activities affecting them within the prescribed area.

Step 2- Inventory

The source inventory lists all documented and potential contaminant sources or activities of concern that may be potential threats to drinking water supplies. The source inventory indicates the level of concern assigned to each potential risk by ranking, rating, or prioritizing management measures to reduce or eliminate them.

Step 3- Determine the Susceptibility

Determining susceptibility of the public water supply (PWS) to inventoried threats relates the nature and severity of the threat to the likelihood of source waters serving that system being contaminated. Mitigating factors taken into account when determining susceptibility include potency or toxicity of the contaminant, volume of discharge or release, distance from wells or intakes, and the likelihood of entry of the contaminant into the source waters.

Step 4- Notify and Involve the Public

To ensure that the public has information necessary to control and modify their own actions to prevent contamination and to participate effectively in community activities to protect drinking water.

- Use plain English in reports
- Provide maps of the SWPA
- List, show or indicate potential sources/threats to the PWS identified within the SWPA
- List, rank, or otherwise prioritize importance of threats identified to the individual PWS and explains what it means to your water supply
- Reports are unique to each individual PWS
- Public meetings are effective methods of involving the community.

Step 5-Implement Management Measures

Using the information gathered from the assessments allows specific management measures to be formulated and put in place. By examining the results of the contaminant source inventory and the susceptibility determination for each PWS, these measures can be tailored to address each threat or array of risks specific to each PWS. A successful drinking water contamination prevention plan is tailored to the unique concerns and circumstances of the local community. Effective involvement is a critical component to a successful public health plan. Every PWS's source water is unique. Management measures need to tailor local actions to address threats to your water supplies. Early involvement in the source water protection process and consensus on need for action is essential — you can help!

Step 6-Develop Contingency Planning Strategies

In the event of short- or long-term water drinking water supply disruption as a result of natural causes (e.g., biological contamination or floods) or intentional destruction (e.g., vandalism or terrorism), water supply replacement strategies that coordinate all available efforts to restore service to single or multiple PWSs are an indispensable part of any drinking water protection program.

- Outline emergency plans for short or long-term drinking water supply replacement
- Direct plan towards water supply interruption due to contamination or physical damage to supply system
- Coordinate the efforts of water supply managers with those of civil defense, local emergency response, hazmat/spill cleanup, and local area disaster response networks

An initial SWAP report has been developed for every PWS in the state. Additional guidance and assistance for setting up a SWAP plan is available from OEHS, but local effort and initiative are key to developing a useful plan.

SANITARY SURVEY

A comprehensive sanitary survey is an important element in helping water systems protect public health. Sanitary surveys are carried out to evaluate: (1) the capability of a drinking water system to consistently and reliably deliver an adequate quality and quantity of safe drinking water to the consumer, and (2) the system's compliance with federal drinking water regulations. Much of the information generated by a sanitary survey helps identify existing and potential sanitary risks.

Conducting sanitary surveys on a routine basis is an important element in preventing contamination of drinking water supplies. EPA recognizes the importance of sound sanitary surveys in helping water systems protect public health. Sanitary surveys are an opportunity to work and communicate with water systems in a preventative mode.

Sanitary surveys also aid in the process of evaluating a public water system's progress in complying with federal and state regulations which require the improvement of the capabilities of the system to provide safe drinking water. Sanitary surveys provide the water system with technical and management information regarding the operation of the system from the water source, through the treatment facilities and the distribution system.

Sanitary surveys are a means by which a comprehensive inspection of the entire water delivery system and its operations and maintenance (O&M) can be performed. These surveys are structured to determine whether a system's source, facilities, equipment, operation, maintenance, and management are effective in producing safe drinking water. Sanitary surveys also evaluate a system's compliance with federal drinking water regulations, as well as state regulations and operational requirements. In addition, a sanitary survey evaluates water quality data and administrative issues and draws conclusions about the system's integrity and its capability for consistently and reliably delivering an adequate supply of safe drinking water to consumers. Conducting sanitary surveys on a regular basis is the best means of identifying potential problems and possible reasons for trends in finished water quality and demand that may need to be addressed by enhanced O&M or a system upgrade. Sanitary surveys play a fundamental role in ensuring that reliable and safe drinking water is provided to the public by public water systems.

Benefits of a Sanitary Survey

EPA believes that periodic sanitary surveys, along with appropriate corrective measures, are indispensable for assuring the long-term quality and safety of drinking water. Properly conducted sanitary surveys help public water systems protect public health. Sanitary surveys have many benefits for the operation and management of public water systems. Sanitary surveys may also provide support to enforcement actions by establishing a record of conditions and operations at a point in time.

EPA lists the following specific benefits of conducting sanitary surveys:

- Operator education;
- Source protection;
- Risk evaluation;
- Technical assistance and training;
- Independent, third party system review;

- Information for monitoring waiver programs;
- Identification of factors limiting a system's ability to continually provide safe drinking water;
- Reduction of monitoring requirements;
- Reduction of formal enforcement actions in favor of more informal action;
- Reduction of oversight by state monitoring and enforcement personnel;
- Increased communication between state drinking water personnel and public water system operators;
- Provision of contact personnel to notify in case of emergencies or for technical assistance;
- Improvement of system compliance with state drinking water regulations;
- Identification of candidate systems for enforcement action;
- Identification of candidates for Comprehensive Performance Evaluations;
- Verification of data validity;
- Validation of test equipment and procedures;
- Reduced risk of waterborne disease outbreaks;
- Encouragement of disaster response planning; and
- Improved system security.

WATER QUALITY CHARACTERISTICS

Water acquires certain characteristics from its surroundings – from the soils, rocks, minerals, and air that the water contacts, and from animals and people that contact and influence the water. Water quality and characteristics are important to consider when choosing a water source. The quality of water is determined by the measuring the concentrations of impurities in it. Water quality characteristics are classified into four broad categories:

- Physical
- Chemical
- Biological
- Radiological

Physical Characteristics

There are a number of physical characteristics of water that consumers notice because they can be seen, smelled or tasted. Generally, these physical characteristics are important only from an aesthetic standpoint, but are typically the basis for many consumer complaints. Interestingly, complaints regarding the aesthetic quality of the water are generally the driving force behind the installation of water treatment devices. If drinking water looks, smells or tastes bad, it may be rejected in favor of an unsafe source that does look, smell or taste good.

1. Temperature

Water temperature will dictate how it tastes, how easily it dissolves things, and whether it's effective for other uses such as cooling. Generally, surface water sources are warmer than groundwater sources. Groundwater sources typically have constant temperatures, although some may be warmer than others. Temperature is a useful tool for determining if groundwater is directly influenced by surface water.

2. Turbidity

Turbidity is caused by very small particles such as clay and silt that are suspended in the water. When water is cloudy, it is said to be turbid or have a high turbidity. Consumers will object to water that is highly turbid, even though it may be perfectly safe to drink. Removal of turbidity not only makes the water more pleasing from an aesthetic standpoint, but it also has public health implications.

High turbidity in finished water is a potential health risk, because viruses and bacteria can hide, within the turbidity-causing particulates making disinfection difficult. Removal/inactivation of these particulates reduces the chance of pathogenic microorganisms in finished water.

3. Color

If water is colored, it is less pleasing to the consumer and may be rejected in favor of a drinking water source that is less safe. Color occurs most frequently in surface water due to the decay of organic material. Color can be measured in the laboratory and, generally, a measurement of 15 color units or higher is objectionable.

4. Taste and Odor

The taste and odor of water are determined by the physical and chemical characteristics of water. Taste and odors can be caused by temperature, chemicals, minerals, decaying matter, or

dissolved gases. The most common cause of odor in drinking water is the presence of hydrogen sulfide, iron, or sulfur-reducing bacteria. However, most contaminants do not impart either and cannot be detected by just smelling or looking at a glass of water.

In a distribution system, the corrosion of pipe materials can also cause taste and odor. Even though taste and odor are more of an aesthetic concern than a health related one, their presence may be indicative of other contaminants harmful to public health.

Chemical Characteristics

Although the physical characteristics exhibited by the source water are readily discernable by sight, smell and taste, the chemical composition of water can, with a few exceptions, be determined only through chemical analysis. Consequently, laboratory testing is necessary. The importance of each chemical substance depends on the kind and amount of that substance found in the water and on the use for which the water is intended. The strictest standards apply to surface water used as a public drinking water supply. Chemical characteristics are broken down into three areas: inorganics, organics and minerals.

- Inorganics chemicals (IOC) include metals such as arsenic, lead and copper.
- Organic chemicals (OC) include: volatile organics (VOC) such as trichloroethylene and benzene; and synthetic organics (SOC) such as pesticides and aldicarb.
- Mineral constituents include alkalinity, calcium, chloride, copper, foaming agents, iron, magnesium, manganese, pH, sodium, sulfate, zinc, specific conductance, total dissolved solids, and hardness (calcium and magnesium).

Some of the more troublesome naturally occurring chemical constituents found in source waters are: calcium and magnesium (hardness), iron and manganese, hydrogen sulfide, nitrate, arsenic, sulfate and radiological contaminants.

1. pH

The acidic or basic nature of a solution is expressed as the pH. The pH scale ranges from 0 to 14, with 7 being neutral. Numbers below 7 are acidic and numbers above 7 are basic.

Natural waters rarely have a pH less than 6.0 or greater than 9.0. Treated water is usually between pH 6.5 and 8.5. At values less than 6.5, water can be corrosive causing the release of toxic metals into the water from piping. Higher pH can cause scaling or reduce the efficiency of chlorine.

2. Hardness

The term hardness may be one of the oldest terms used to characterize a water supply. The term was initially used to describe the difficulty in producing soapsuds in water. Water that required a lot of soap to produce suds was termed hard water, whereas water that easily produced suds was considered soft. If you have soft water, you might notice it takes a long time to rinse the soap off your hands. Soft water reacts with soap to produce a residue that feels like it is difficult to wash off.

Hardness is caused by the presence of magnesium and calcium deposits in water. The terms soft water and hard water are relative. Water is said to be soft if it has a low concentration of calcium and magnesium, and said to be hard if it has a high concentration of calcium and magnesium.

Typically, groundwater is harder than surface water.

Hard water can lead to calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) scale in hot water heaters and boilers. Low hardness contributes to the corrosive tendencies of water.

Water hardness is expressed in **milligrams per liter (mg/L)** of CaCO₃. mg/L is equivalent to **parts per million (ppm)**. Hardness can also be expressed in **grains per gallon (gpg)**; 1 gpg = 17.1 mg/L.

Table A: Hardness Scale

Soft water	0-75 mg/L
Moderately Hard	75-150 mg/L
Hard	150-300 mg/L
Very Hard	Over 300 mg/L

Hardness is not considered a health hazard. However, at levels of 200-300 mg/L or higher, it is common practice to soften the water for household use.

3. Alkalinity

Alkalinity is defined as the capacity of water to resist pH change. The term “to buffer” is used to describe this process. So water with significant alkalinity can buffer or resist pH change. Since a stable pH is desirable for smooth and consistent performance of several treatment processes, it is desirable to have significant alkalinity. Alkalinity of about 80 mg/L will provide adequate buffering capacity.

Most of the alkalinity is provided by carbonate and bicarbonate compounds. Alkalinity is expressed as mg/L of CaCO₃. Typically, groundwater will have adequate alkalinity but surface water sources usually have very low alkalinity and the pH can easily change. Alkalinity does not pose a health risk.

4. Iron and Manganese

Iron and manganese are common metals found in the earth’s crust. Water percolating through soil and rock can dissolve minerals containing iron and manganese and hold them in solution.

Iron will cause reddish-brown staining of laundry, porcelain, dishes, utensils and even glassware. Manganese causes a brownish-black stain. Soaps and detergents do not remove these stains, and the use of chlorine bleach may intensify the stains. At elevated levels, iron and manganese deposits may build up in pipelines, pressure tanks, water heaters, and water softeners. These deposits reduce the flow and pressure in water supply lines. Iron and manganese accumulations become an economic problem when deposits become serious enough to require replacement of piping and treatment equipment.

Many groundwater supplies in West Virginia have high levels of iron and manganese. The secondary MCL for iron is 0.3 mg/L and 0.05 mg/L for manganese. These levels correspond to approximate concentrations at which iron and manganese will cause aesthetic problems such as colored water, turbidity, staining, and bad taste.

5. Hydrogen Sulfide (H₂S)

Although H₂S gas is associated with groundwater supplies more often than with surface waters, it can also occur in lakes and reservoirs under ice cover in winter. It produces the offensive rotten egg or sulfur water odor and taste found in some groundwater and can affect the taste of coffee, ice cubes, and many foods prepared with water containing it. Silverware washed in water containing H₂S can turn black. In some cases, the odor may be noticeable only when the water is initially turned on or when hot water is used. Heat forces the gas into the air and may cause the odor to be especially offensive in a shower. Occasionally, a hot water heater is a source of H₂S odor.

H₂S is a corrosive gas that forms sulfuric acid, which is corrosive to metals such as iron, steel, copper and brass.

	Range of concentrations typically found in groundwater	Range of concentrations typically found in surface water
Total Hardness	300-400 ppm	75 - 200 ppm
Alkalinity	250-350 ppm	45 - 250 ppm
Dissolved Oxygen	near 0	2 - 14 ppm
Carbon Dioxide	1 - 10ppm	Low
Calcium Hardness	High	sometimes high, usually low
Magnesium Hardness	tends to be high	sometimes high, usually low

Biological Characteristics

A variety of aquatic organisms are routinely found in raw water sources. These include tiny microorganisms, such as bacteria, protozoa, and viruses, and a variety of visible organisms, such as algae, fresh water shrimp, and snails.

Although most do not pose a health risk, the presence of some microorganisms in drinking water can be devastating. In fact, providing drinking water that is microbiologically safe is the primary goal of all water providers.

As a general rule, surface water sources are more likely to contain greater numbers and more diverse populations of microorganisms than groundwater sources. This is because surface water can easily pick up microorganisms from contaminated areas as it flows across the earth's surface. On the other hand, the filtering action of aquifer material results in fewer microorganisms in groundwater. However, shallow wells and unprotected wellheads can provide an opportunity for contaminated surface water to enter the groundwater. Consequently, groundwater cannot be

assumed to be free of microorganisms. Disease-causing organisms are called **pathogens**. Water-borne pathogens include bacteria, protozoa and viruses. These pathogens can be transmitted from person to person through fecal contamination of drinking water. Consequently, disinfection is generally required for surface water sources and may be necessary for groundwater sources if they become contaminated.

Radiological Characteristics

Although the presence of radiological elements, or **radionuclides**, in drinking water may be attributed to human activities, they are most often a result of dissolution of naturally occurring radioactive elements in rock formations such as granites. Examples of radionuclides found in drinking water include radium 226, radium 228, uranium, and radon. When consumed at high levels, these radioactive contaminants are known to cause cancer in humans.

APPLIED MICROBIOLOGY

A variety of aquatic organisms are routinely found in raw water sources. These include tiny microorganisms, such as bacteria, protozoa, and viruses, and a variety of visible organisms, such as algae and zebra mussels.

Although most do not pose a health risk, the presence of some microorganisms in drinking water can be devastating. In fact, providing drinking water that is microbiologically safe is the primary goal of all water providers.

As a general rule, surface water sources are more likely to contain greater numbers and more diverse populations of microorganisms than groundwater sources. This is because surface water can easily pick up microorganisms from contaminated areas as it flows across the earth's surface. On the other hand, the filtering action of aquifer material results in fewer microorganisms in groundwater. However, shallow wells and unprotected wellheads can provide an opportunity for contaminated surface water to enter the groundwater. Consequently, groundwater cannot be assumed to be free of microorganisms. Disease-causing organisms are called pathogens. Water-borne pathogens include bacteria, protozoa and viruses. These pathogens can be transmitted from person to person through fecal contamination of drinking water. Consequently, disinfection is generally required for surface water sources and may be necessary for groundwater sources if they become contaminated.

Coliform Bacteria

Coliform bacteria live in soil or vegetation and in the gastrointestinal tract of animals. Coliforms enter water supplies from the direct disposal of waste into streams and lakes or from runoff from wooded areas, pastures, feedlots, septic tanks, and sewage plants into streams or groundwater. In addition, coliforms can enter an individual house via backflow of water from a contaminated source or carbon filters.

Coliforms are not a single type of bacteria, but a grouping of bacteria that includes many strains, such as *E. coli*. They are ubiquitous in nature, and many types are harmless. Therefore, it is not definitive that coliform bacteria will cause sickness. Many variables such as the specific type of bacteria present, and someone's own immune system's effectiveness will determine if there will be a sickness. In fact, many people become immune to bacteria that are present in their own water. Guests on the other hand, may not have developed an immunity to the water and may experience some gastrointestinal distress such as diarrhea or gastroenteritis.

Total coliforms are the standard by which microbial contamination is measured. Coliforms will be one of the first bacteria present in the water should contamination occur, and they will be in much larger quantities than some pathogenic microbes that may be present. Therefore, coliforms act as indicators of possible contamination. The presence of coliform bacteria does not necessarily mean that pathogenic microbes are also present. However, if large coliform quantities are detected, the presence of other microbes should be checked for.

Most bacterial pathogens are easily controlled with normal disinfection processes.

Giardia lamblia

Giardia has become more prevalent in the past few years as a waterborne disease, and a few large outbreaks that have occurred in the U.S. *Giardia* are flagellated protozoa that are parasitic in the intestines of humans and animals. They have two stages, one of which is a cyst form that can be ingested from contaminated water. Once the cyst enters the stomach, the organism is released into the gastrointestinal tract where it will adhere to the intestinal wall. Eventually the protozoa will move into the large intestine where they encyst again and are excreted in the feces and back into the environment.

Once in the body, the *Giardia* causes giardiasis, a disease characterized by symptoms such as diarrhea, abdominal cramps, nausea, weight loss, and general gastrointestinal distress. These symptoms last for about a week, however some people can undergo a more chronic infection with similar symptoms and an even greater degree of weight loss. Giardiasis is rarely fatal and can be treated medicinally by quinacrine, metronidazole, and furazolidone.

Giardia enters the water supply via contamination by fecal material. The fecal material can enter the water from:

- Sewage discharged into the water via cross contamination of sewage and water lines;
- Sewage directly discharged from small sewage plants into lakes or streams;
- Sewage discharged into lakes or streams from cabin toilets;
- Animals carrying the cysts, depositing their fecal material directly into the water; and,
- Rainfall moving the cysts deposited from animals on the soil into a body of water.

Once in the water, unsuspecting hikers or campers may drink infected water, exposing themselves to the cysts. Water from these lakes or streams may also be transported to municipal water supplies. If the municipal system uses filtration in addition to chlorination, the cysts should be removed. If chlorination is used without filtration, the chance for a *Giardia* infection increases. It is estimated that 20-65 million Americans are at risk due to this lack of filtration of surface water. It has been suggested that 40-45% of *Giardia* cases are associated with exposure to unfiltered water. Other sources of exposure include unsanitary conditions at day care facilities, exposure while traveling in developing countries, hikers or campers drinking infected surface water, and sexual practices involving fecal exposure.

Cryptosporidium

Cryptosporidium parvum is a protozoan parasite that causes cryptosporidiosis, which has gained notoriety in the past years. In 1993, over 400,000 people in Milwaukee, Wisconsin became ill with it after drinking contaminated water. Since this outbreak, there has been a greater impetus to remove the *Cryptosporidium* from municipal water supplies.

Cryptosporidium is spread by the transmission of oocysts via drinking water which has been contaminated with infected fecal material. Oocysts from humans are infective to humans and many other mammals, and many animals act as reservoirs of oocysts which can infect humans. Once inside of its host, the oocyst breaks, releasing four movable spores that attach to the walls of the gastrointestinal tract, and eventually form oocysts again that can be excreted. Symptoms occur 2 to 10 days after infection. These symptoms include diarrhea, headache, abdominal cramps, nausea, vomiting, and a low fever. There is no treatment against the protozoa, although

it is possible to treat the symptoms. After about 1-2 weeks, the symptoms subside as the immune system stops the infection. However, for persons with a compromised immune system such as infants, seniors, those with AIDS, or transplant patients, cryptosporidiosis may become life threatening.

Cryptosporidium infected fecal material enters the water supply either from cross contamination of sewage lines with water lines, or surface water infected with contaminated animal waste. Water treatment processes that utilize coagulation, sedimentation, filtration, and chlorination may remove it. However, due to its small size and its resistance to chlorination, these treatments may not work.

Protozoa

Protozoan go through a life cycle, one phase of which results in an extremely resistant form that makes them very difficult to control with normal disinfection.

Hepatitis A

Hepatitis A is an enteric virus that is very small. It can be transferred through contaminated water, causing outbreaks. The virus is excreted by a person carrying it, and if the sewage contaminates the water supply, then the virus is carried in the water until it is consumed by a host. Symptoms such as an inflamed liver, accompanied by lassitude, anorexia, weakness, nausea, fever and jaundice are common. A mild case may only require a week or two of rest, while a severe case can result in liver damage and possible death. Generally, water systems utilize chlorination, preceded by coagulation, flocculation, settling and filtration to remove the virus.

Iron Bacteria

One special group of bacteria, iron bacteria, causes problems with water supplies. If iron is present, it will promote the growth of these bacteria. Iron bacteria metabolize iron and will flourish when iron levels are high. During this metabolic process the bacteria will produce byproducts that give the water a metallic taste. Iron bacteria can also cause red water, clog well screens and reduce water production. If reddish or green slime builds up in your toilet flush tank you probably have an iron bacteria problem. Iron bacteria problems are very hard to eliminate. High dosages of chlorine must be used throughout the plumbing system to kill all of the bacteria. It may be necessary to feed chlorine continuously to prevent regrowth. A filter alone will not solve this problem.

Sulfur Bacteria

Once this mat of iron bacteria is established on steel pipes, such as the well casing, it may provide a haven for sulfur bacteria, another troublesome microorganism. Some sulfur bacteria convert sulfides to elemental sulfur, which combines with bacterial filaments to clog pipes. Another group of sulfur bacteria generate hydrogen sulfide gas, which is corrosive to pipes and has a foul smell like rotten eggs. Certain sulfur bacteria may produce sulfuric acid that can also cause corrosion of pipes. As mentioned above, the slime mat produced by the iron bacteria provides a favorable environment for the sulfur bacteria. This slime mat also encloses and supports sites of corrosion, which may be the cause of the odor, taste, and staining problems commonly encountered with well water.

CHEMISTRY

pH

pH is defined as the "negative log of the hydrogen ion concentration." This is actually a mathematical determination and is expressed as $\text{pH} = -\log_{10} [\text{H}^+]$. More simply, pH is a measure of the hydrogen ion concentration in water and can be considered as an "Index" of the amount of hydrogen ions present in a substance. This "Index" is important because it can be used quickly to determine if a substance is acidic, basic or neutral.

The pH scale is a numerical scale from 0 to 14, with 7 considered neutral. At a pH below 7, the water is acidic. An acidic solution is one that has a greater concentration of hydrogen ions than hydroxyl ions. At a pH above 7, the water is basic. A basic solution is one that has a greater concentration of hydroxyl ions than hydrogen ions.

Since pH is measured as a logarithm, a change of one (1) pH unit means a ten-fold increase or decrease in the hydrogen ion concentration. For example, pH 8.0 is ten times more basic than pH 7.0; pH 9.0 is ten times more basic than a pH 8.0 and pH 9.0 is 100 times more basic than pH 7.0. We see that as the pH increases, the number of hydrogen ions DECREASES.

Natural waters rarely have a pH less than 6.0 or greater than 9.0. Treated water is usually between pH 6.5 and 8.5.

The table below gives some common acids and bases and their pH values.

I. Acids	pH	Bases	pH
Hydrochloric acid	1.0	Sodium bicarbonate	8.4
Sulfuric acid	1.2	Ammonium hydroxide	9.2
Acetic acid	2.9	Sodium carbonate	11.4
Alum	3.2	Lime	12.3
		Sodium hydroxide	13.0

pH Control

There are a number of pH increase treatment options available to small systems to increase pH.

1. Lime

Lime or limestone is calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) and can be used to raise pH. As the lime is added to the water, it dissolves the CaCO_3 . Through a chemical reaction, similar to the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ resulting in a higher pH..

A possible drawback to the use of a lime is that calcium ions are also released into the water which increases hardness and scaling.

2. Soda Ash

Soda ash (Na_2CO_3) can also be used to raise the pH. The chemistry is similar to the use of lime and causes a higher pH. Soda ash is normally fed into the water system as a solution using a

liquid chemical feed pump. The feed equipment is almost the same as that used to feed hypochlorites.

3. Sodium Hydroxide

Sodium hydroxide (NaOH), commonly called caustic soda, is readily soluble in water and a very strong base. It can be used to raise pH in water systems, but it is extremely corrosive and can be very dangerous if mishandled. It is critical that workers who handle NaOH be well trained.

Diluted NaOH (30% or 50%) is normally fed into the water system using a liquid chemical feed pump similar to ones used to feed hypochlorites.

HARDNESS

The hardness of water relates to the amount of calcium, magnesium and sometimes iron in the water. The more minerals present, the harder the water. Soft water may contain sodium and other minerals or chemicals; however, it contains very little calcium, magnesium or iron.

Many people prefer soft water because it makes soap lather better, gets clothes cleaner and leaves less of a ring around the tub. Some municipalities and individuals remove calcium and magnesium, both essential nutrients, and add sodium in an ion-exchange process to soften their water.

ALKALINITY

Alkalinity is the capacity of water to neutralize acids. Alkalinity is the result of the waters content of carbonate, bicarbonate, and hydroxide. It is expressed as milligrams per liter equivalent calcium carbonate. Alkalinity is measured by titrating the sample to a pH of 4.5.

Influences of treatment

Lowers Alkalinity

Aluminum sulfate (alum)
Carbon dioxide
Chlorine gas
Ferric chloride
Ferric sulfate
Sulfuric acid

Increases Alkalinity

Calcium hypochlorite (HTH)
Caustic soda (sodium hydroxide)
Hydrated lime (calcium hydroxide)
Soda ash (sodium carbonate)

NITRATE

High levels are usually caused by concentrated sources of nitrogen such as animal feedlots, septic systems, or heavily fertilized cropland. Nitrates are the only chemical contaminant that represents an immediate health risk. High nitrate-containing water is a serious health concern for pregnant women and infants under the age of 6 months. Infants that consume water high in nitrates are susceptible to a life-threatening disease called **methemoglobinemia** or “**blue baby**” **syndrome**. Babies with this condition become oxygen starved because their red blood cells are unable to carry oxygen properly. This reduction of oxygen uptake in the bloodstream gives the skin a blue tint. Infants become less susceptible to the effects of nitrates after six months of age. The MCL for nitrate nitrogen is 10.0 mg/L and the MCL for nitrite is 1 mg/L. Public water systems that exceed this level are required to obtain a new water source or treat their water.

HYRDOGEN SULFIDE

Water containing hydrogen sulfide, commonly called sulfur water, has a distinctive "rotten egg" or swampy odor. Hydrogen sulfide is a gas formed by the decay of organic matter such as plant material. It is typically found in groundwater containing low levels of dissolved oxygen and a pH less than 6.0. Sulfur problems occur less frequently in surface waters because flowing water is aerated naturally so that the hydrogen sulfide reacts with oxygen and escapes as a gas or settles as a solid.

Sulfur bacteria are also found in many drinking water wells and household distribution systems. These harmless bacteria use natural sulfur compounds in water as a food source, thereby producing hydrogen sulfide. Although sulfur bacteria pose no health risk to humans, their presence in drinking water may cause objectionable tastes and odors.

A water heater may also produce a sulfur odor. The magnesium rod present in many water heaters can chemically change naturally occurring sulfates in water to hydrogen sulfide. If this occurs, the magnesium rod can be replaced with an aluminum rod or simply removed, although removing the rod may nullify the warranty on the water heater.

Hydrogen sulfide is not regulated, however, because it is considered a nuisance chemical and does not pose a health risk at concentrations typically present in household water. Concentrations high enough to be a health risk also make the water unpalatable. Conversely, concentrations as low as 0.5 milligrams per liter (mg/L) can add objectionable taste and a rotten egg odor to drinking water.

Continuous chlorination is a very common and effective method for oxidizing hydrogen sulfide, especially if the water pH is 6.0-8.0. Chlorine has the secondary advantage of being lethal to bacteria so it typically follows other treatment options to maintain a chlorine residual and prevent bacterial activity. Chlorine is usually administered as sodium hypochlorite, which reacts with sulfide, hydrogen sulfide, and bisulfide to form compounds that do not cause foul taste or odors in drinking water.

Another common treatment for sulfur water is aeration. Hydrogen sulfide is physically removed by agitating the water via bubbling or cascading and then separating or "stripping" the hydrogen sulfide in a container. The undesired hydrogen sulfide is removed as a volatile gas by venting it into a waste pipe or to the outdoors. Aeration is most effective when hydrogen sulfide concentrations are lower than 2.0 mg/L. At higher concentrations, this method may not remove all of the offensive odor unless the air is used to oxidize hydrogen sulfide chemically into solid sulfur, which is then filtered.

LEAD AND COPPER

Although copper is an essential micronutrient and is required by the body in very small amounts, excess copper in the human body can cause stomach and intestinal distress such as nausea, vomiting, diarrhea and stomach cramps. People with Wilson's disease, a rare genetic disorder, are more sensitive to the effects of copper.

Lead is a cumulative poison, meaning it accumulates in the body until it reaches toxic levels. Chronic exposure to low levels of lead over an extended period of time can have severe effects. Excess lead in the human body can cause serious damage to the brain, kidneys, nervous system and red blood cells. Young children, infants and fetuses are particularly vulnerable to lead poisoning. Since lead is accumulated and stored in the bones, continued exposure will allow blood lead levels to affect nerve tissue. This can then irreversibly impair a child's mental and physical development, resulting in learning disabilities or stunted growth.

Limits

The current enforceable action levels for copper is 1.3 mg/L (or 1.3 ppm) and for lead is 0.015 mg/L or 15 parts per billion (ppb).

Lead and Copper Removal Treatment

Each public water system must now target high-risk households (based on materials used in the delivery system and other factors) and analyze tap water samples from these households for lead and copper.

Lead and Copper Corrosion Control Options

Technically, the regulations state that a system will perform corrosion control studies that evaluate the following corrosion control treatments, either one or a combination of:

- 1) Alkalinity and pH adjustment;
- 2) Calcium hardness adjustment; and/or,
- 3) The addition of a phosphate or silicate based corrosion inhibitor at a concentration sufficient to maintain an effective residual concentration in all test tap samples.

APPLIED CHEMISTRY

This section is a brief overview of chemistry with respect to water treatment. Greater detail is provided in appropriate sections.

1. Aeration is the process of adding air to water either by passing air through water or by passing water through air resulting in degasification. Volatile compounds exist in lower concentrations in air than in water, so they tend to leave the water and move into the air. Examples of aeration in a water system are the:

- Release taste and odor causing substances such as hydrogen sulfide;
- Removes substances that may add to treatment costs such as carbon dioxide;
- Removes radon gas; and
- Remove volatile organic compounds.

Oxidation is the addition of oxygen and/or the removal of hydrogen or the removal of electrons to create a more stable substance. An example would be the oxidization of soluble minerals such as iron and manganese into solids to ease removal by traditional treatment.

Aeration and oxidation can be accomplished by the use of:

- Blowers which compress air into the water;
- Cascades and Sprays which are waterfall devices that pass water through air; and,
- Stripping is a combination of both by flowing water over packing and blowing air through the packing.

2. pH is the expression of the intensity of the basic or acidic condition of a liquid. Natural waters usually have a pH between 6.5 and 8.5. The best pH for coagulation is between 5.0 and 7.0.

Examples of treatment chemicals that **lower** pH are:

- Aluminum sulfate (Alum)
- Carbon dioxide
- Chlorine gas
- Ferric Chloride
- Hydrofluosilicic acid
- Sulfuric acid

Examples of treatment chemical that **raise** pH are:

- Calcium hypochlorite
- Caustic Soda
- Hydrated Lime
- Soda Ash
- Sodium Aluminate
- Sodium hypochlorite

3. Disinfection is the process designed to kill or inactivate most microorganisms in water, with chlorination being the most common. The factors that effect disinfection are:

- pH - chlorine disinfects much faster at a pH of 7.0 than at a pH of 8.0 or above, because at a level between 5 and 10 hypochlorous acid (free chlorine) and hypochlorite ions form. At a pH of 7.5 approximately 50 % of the chlorine is hypochlorous acid and 50 % is hypochlorite ion.
- Temperature - as the temperature increases the rate of diffusion of the disinfectant through the cell wall increases. The germicidal efficiency increases with temperature as the rate of diffusion increases. At lower temperatures a longer contact time is required to disinfect water.
- Turbidity - excessive turbidity will reduce the efficiency of the disinfecting process. Suspended matter can create a chlorine demand and decrease the effectiveness of the chemical.
- Organic matter - humic acids and bromides in the water can consume great amounts of chlorine and form harmful disinfection byproducts (THMs and HAA5s)
- Reducing Agents - chlorine combines with inorganic agents such as hydrogen sulfide, ferrous iron, manganous ions and nitrite ions and reduces available disinfection chemical.
- Microorganisms - the number and type of microorganisms greatly affect the concentration disinfecting chemical needed. Non-spore forming bacterial are less resistant than spore forming bacteria. Cysts and viruses can be very resistant to certain types of disinfectants

4. Corrosion is the process where metals are dissolved into surrounding water.

Chemical factors that effect corrosion are:

- Alkalinity - The carbonate and bicarbonate neutralize an acid or base. High concentration of carbonate and bicarbonate in water has a strong tendency to resist a change in pH.
- pH - at levels below 7.0, water tends to be corrosive and at levels above 7.5 water is protective of pipe materials. Very high pH levels have a tendency to deposit excessive amounts of scale
- Dissolved Oxygen - the most corrosive component of water chemistry. Oxygen reacts at both the anode and cathode to accelerate the rate of corrosion. So the higher the concentration of dissolved oxygen present then the greater the tendency for corrosion to occur.
- Dissolved Solids - the higher the dissolved solids content of the water the greater the potential for corrosion due to increased conductivity. A common method to determine TDS is to measure the conductivity of the water.
- Hardness - since hardness is made up of calcium and magnesium ions the most common corrosion control measure is the creation of a calcium carbonate film on the inside of the pipes
- Chloride and Sulfate - these ions keep the hardness ions in solution and inhibit the creation of a protective film. The alkalinity mg/L should be maintained at 5 times the sum of the chloride and sulfate ions mg/L.

Chemical tests used for detection of corrosion:

- Dissolved Oxygen - oxygen must be present for corrosion to occur. If samples are tested at various points in a distribution system you can calculate how much oxygen is used up. Loss could indicate the presence of organic matter or gross corrosion is occurring.
- Marble Test - used to determine the calcium carbonate saturation level.
- Langelier Index - most common index used to indicate how close a waters calcium carbonate content is in equilibrium to the hydrogen ion concentration.

Chemical compounds used for corrosion control:

- Zinc phosphates are capable of forming an effective cathodic film to control corrosion.
- Sodium Polyphosphates reduce corrosion enhancing products by forming positively charged particles of ferric oxide, calcium compounds and metaphosphates. At high pH and low dose they dissolve iron and calcium by a sequestering mechanism. **Note:** Polyphosphates should be fed before chlorine to effectively sequester iron and manganese due to chlorine's ability to oxidize.

COMMON NAMES & SYMBOLS FOR WATER TREATMENT CHEMICALS

<u>Chemical Name</u>	<u>Common Name</u>	<u>Chemical Formula</u>
Ammonia		NH ₃
Calcium bicarbonate		Ca(HCO ₃) ₂
Calcium carbonate	Limestone	CaCO ₃
Calcium hydroxide	Hydrated lime/slaked lime	Ca(OH) ₂
Calcium hypochlorite	HTH	Ca(OCl) ₂
Chlorine		Cl ₂
Fluosilicic acid	Hydrofluosilicic acid	H ₂ SiF ₆
Hydrochloric acid	Muratic acid	HCl
Hypochlorous acid		HOCl
Manganese dioxide		MnO ₂
Potassium permanganate		KMNO ₄
Sodium bicarbonate	Baking soda	NaHCO ₃
Sodium carbonate	Soda ash	Na ₂ CO ₃
Sodium fluoride		NaF
Sodium fluosilicate	Sodium silicofluoride	Na ₂ SiF ₆
Sodium hydroxide	Caustic soda/Lye	NaOH
Sodium hypochlorite	Bleach	NaOCl
Sodium phosphate		Na ₃ PO ₄ •12H ₂ O
Sodium silicofluoride	Sodium fluosilicate	Na ₂ SiF ₆
Sulfuric acid	Oil of vitriol	H ₂ SO ₄

WATER TREATMENT

The primary purpose of water treatment is to produce water that is safe to drink. Unfortunately, unless the water is also pleasant to drink, it may be rejected by the consumer in favor of an alternate supply that may not be safe. Consequently, water delivered to the consumer from a public water supply should meet certain basic requirements, such as:

- It should contain no disease-causing organisms;
- It should contain no toxic metals or chemicals;
- It should be colorless and clear ;
- It must taste good and be free from offensive odor;
- It should be non-corrosive;
- It must be free from objectionable gases, such as hydrogen sulfide;
- It should be free from objectionable staining minerals, such as iron and manganese; and,
- It should be plentiful and low in cost.

The type of treatment selected depends upon the contaminants that need to be inactivated or removed from the water. Contaminants, and other objectionable characteristics of water, which are of concern include the following categories:

- Turbidity and Particulate Matter;
- Microorganisms;
- Iron and Manganese;
- Color, Taste and Odor, and Other Organics;
- Objectionable Gases;
- Hardness;
- Nitrate;
- Corrosive Properties; and,
- Biological Nuisances (Algae, Iron Bacteria, etc.).

Some treatment methods may be applied to more than one category. There are many books and manuals that discuss the water treatment methods that are common to larger systems.

Operators interested in more detailed information should refer to the reference materials listed at the end of this manual.

PRETREATMENT

The pretreatment processes aim to improve the quality of the raw water prior to the main treatment process. Many of them seek to reduce the natural variations or extremes in water quality. A typical case is turbidity (measured as NTU), used to indicate how much suspended material is present in the water. During heavy rainfall and its run-off, rivers may reach levels of several hundred NTUs during such events, tending to overwhelm the filtration processes by the sheer volume of the solids to be removed.

Pretreatment processes may reduce the level of these solids by factors of ten or more, allowing a treatment plant to continue functioning rather than shutting down or damaging any treatment components.

Oxidation Processes

Aeration is the most common process for removing dissolved gases. Aeration is also used to help in precipitating dissolved iron and manganese. Sometimes the direct addition of an oxidizing chemical may be needed to help precipitate the metals. The following oxidizing chemicals are in common use:

- Chlorine, in any form, will oxidize ferrous iron to ferric iron, making it insoluble so that it precipitates out.
- Potassium permanganate is very effective at destroying some organic substances and oxidizing manganese. Again, the manganese is rendered insoluble and precipitates out.
- Ozone, usually used to oxidize taste and odor compounds because many of these compounds are very resistant to oxidation, but also used to oxidize iron and manganese.

POTASSIUM PERMANGANATE

Potassium permanganate, KMnO_4 , is described as an oxidizing agent. In aqueous solution, KMnO_4 provides solution oxygen to effect a chemical change in many organic and inorganic compounds. Potassium permanganate comes in a crystalline form and is stable indefinitely when stored in closed containers and is soluble at about 5% at room temperature.

When dissolved in water, KMnO_4 imparts a pink to purple color depending on the relative concentration of the chemical. In water treatment, the manganese in permanganate is reduced from the +7 to +4 state, which is insoluble manganese dioxide resulting in the color change is from pink or purple to yellow or brown, depending on the relative concentrations. The manganese dioxide byproduct is insoluble and is usually removed through coagulation, settling and filtration.

The prime requisite for the use of KMnO_4 is that the treatment process include filtration. The manganese dioxide produced by the reduction of permanganate is insoluble and should be removed. Otherwise the finished water may be colored and cause staining on laundry, bathroom and kitchen fixtures.

Often, manganese dioxide acts as a coagulant aid, reducing the amount of primary coagulant required to help clarify the water. Jar tests should be run to optimize the dosages of all chemicals, including KMnO_4 , required for the full treatment.

It may be necessary to adjust the pH of the water in order to obtain the optimum results, because KMnO_4 reactions can be affected by pH. Generally, as the pH increases, the KMnO_4 reactions go to completion in a shorter time.

Potassium permanganate should be fed as early as possible in the system and before the addition of other chemicals. Some plants are so designed that KMnO_4 can be fed at the intake of the plant. This permits the maximum time for oxidation. KMnO_4 should be fed ahead of chlorine where possible. Oxidation of these organics prior to chlorination may reduce the amount of chlorine being used and minimize the chances of forming disinfection byproducts. Carbon should also be applied after the KMnO_4 is consumed as the KMnO_4 consumption increases when carbon and KMnO_4 are fed together. If it is not possible to feed at the intake, the KMnO_4 should be introduced either ahead of or into the rapid mix.

It has been reported that plants feeding KMnO_4 have overdosed to the point where pink water passed through the filter. Although permanganate is not toxic at the levels used in water plants, care should be taken to feed only the proper amount to avoid any residual in the finished water. Activated carbon can be applied to the filters to remove any residual KMnO_4 that may be present in the settled water.

IRON AND MANGANESE CONTROL

Iron and manganese are common in groundwater supplies used by many small water systems. Exceeding the suggested maximum contaminant levels (MCL) usually results in discolored water, laundry, and plumbing fixtures. This, in turn, results in consumer complaints and a general dissatisfaction with the water utility. Surface water generally does not contain large amounts of iron or manganese, but iron and manganese are found frequently in water systems that use groundwater.

There are secondary standards set for iron and manganese, but these are not health related and are not enforceable. The secondary (aesthetic) MCLs for iron and manganese are 0.3 milligrams per liter (mg/l) and 0.05 mg/l, respectively. If water contains more than 0.05 ppm iron, or 0.01 ppm manganese, the operator should implement an effective hydrant-flushing program in order to avoid customer complaints.

Small water plants may choose to either sequestrate or remove iron and manganese. Sequestration only works for combined iron and manganese concentrations up to 1.0 mg/L and only in cases where the treatment is not permanent. Removal is usually achieved through ion exchange or oxidation/filtration. There are a number of chemical oxidants and filtration media available that can be used in various combinations.

Problems Associated with Iron and Manganese

Small amounts of iron are often found in water because of the large amount of iron present in the soil and because corrosive water will pick up iron from pipes. Clothing washed in water containing excessive iron may become stained a brownish color. The taste of beverages, such as tea and coffee, may also be affected by iron. Manganese produces a brownish color in laundered clothing, leaves black particles on fixtures, and—as with iron—affects the taste of beverages, including coffee and tea.

Groundwater from the faucet or tap is usually clear and colorless. However, when water containing colorless, dissolved iron is allowed to stand in a cooking container or comes in contact with a sink or bathtub, the iron combines with oxygen from the air to form reddish-brown particles (commonly called rust). Manganese forms brownish-black particles. These impurities can give a metallic taste to water or to food.

The rusty or brown stains on plumbing fixtures, fabrics, dishes, and utensils cannot be removed by soaps or detergents. Bleaches and alkaline builders (often sodium phosphate) can make the stains worse. Over time, iron deposits can build up in pressure tanks, water heaters, and pipelines, reducing the quantity and pressure of the water supply.

Iron and/or manganese in water creates problems common to many water supply systems. When both are present beyond recommended levels, special attention should be paid to the problem. How iron and manganese are removed depends on the type and concentration and this helps determine the best procedure and (possible) equipment to use.

Bacteria and Iron and Manganese

Iron and manganese in water also promote the growth of bacteria (including iron bacteria). These organisms obtain energy for growth from the chemical reaction that occurs when iron and manganese mix with dissolved oxygen. These bacteria form thick slime growths on the walls of the piping system and on well screens. These slimes tend to be rust-colored from iron and black-colored from manganese. Variations in flow can cause these slime growths to separate from pipe walls, resulting in dirty water in the system.

The growth of iron bacteria can be controlled by chlorination. However, when water containing iron is chlorinated, the iron is converted from the ferrous state to the ferric state--in other words, rust--and manganese is converted into black manganese dioxide. These materials form a coating on the inside of the water main and, when they break loose, a customer will sometimes complain of "dirty" water.

Iron bacteria will use even small amounts of iron present in the ferrous state, oxidize it, and then use the energy. Manganese is also used by other bacteria to form organics, which contribute to the iron bacteria slime in the well and/or water system. Iron bacteria are found anywhere a food source of iron is available. The presence of one bacterium is all that is needed to start an infestation in a well or a distribution system.

Iron and Manganese Removal

The majority of iron and manganese treatment systems employ the processes of oxidation/filtration. The oxidant chemically oxidizes the iron or manganese (forming a particle), and kills iron bacteria and any other disease-causing bacteria that may be present. The filter then removes the iron or manganese particles.

Oxidation followed by filtration is a relatively simple process. The source water must be monitored to determine proper oxidant dosage, and the treated water should be monitored to determine if the oxidation process was successful.

Aeration

Iron is easily oxidized by atmospheric oxygen. Aeration provides the dissolved oxygen needed to convert the iron and manganese from ferrous and manganous (soluble) forms to insoluble oxidized ferric and manganic forms. It takes 0.14 ppm of dissolved oxygen to oxidize 1 ppm of iron, and 0.27 ppm of dissolved oxygen to oxidize 1 ppm of manganese.

Aeration requires careful control of the water flow through the process. If water flow is too great, not enough air is applied to oxidize the iron and manganese. If water flow is too small, the water can become saturated with dissolved oxygen and, consequently, become corrosive to the distribution system. Corrosive water may lead to increased lead and copper levels at customers' taps.

During aeration, slime growths may develop on the aeration equipment, and if these growths are not controlled, they can produce taste and odor problems in the water. The growth of slime can be controlled by adding chlorine at the head of the treatment plant. The process should be inspected regularly to catch problems early.

A detention basin can be provided after aeration to allow complete oxidation. These basins should be cleaned regularly to avoid sludge accumulation. Detention time can also be provided with head on the filters rather than requiring a separate tank. Detention time before filtration should be at least 20 minutes, more if possible. The pH of the water influences how much time is needed for the reaction to be completed. After oxidation of the iron and manganese, the water must be filtered to remove the precipitated iron and manganese.

Oxidation of iron and manganese with air is by far the most cost-effective method since there is no chemical cost; however, there are disadvantages. The oxidation process can be slowed and the reaction tank has to be quite large (if there are high levels of manganese). In addition, small changes in water quality may affect the pH of the water and the oxidation rate may slow to a point where the plant capacity for iron and manganese removal is reduced.

Oxidation

Before iron and manganese can be filtered, they need to be oxidized to a state in which they can form insoluble complexes. Oxidation involves the transfer of electrons from the iron, manganese, or other chemicals being treated to the oxidizing agent. Ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) is oxidized to ferric iron (Fe^{3+}), which readily forms the insoluble iron hydroxide complex $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$. Reduced manganese (Mn^{2+}) is oxidized to (Mn^{4+}), which forms insoluble (MnO_2). The most common chemical oxidants in water treatment are chlorine, chlorine dioxide, potassium permanganate, and ozone. Oxidation using chlorine or potassium permanganate is frequently applied in small groundwater systems. The dosing is relatively easy, requires simple equipment, and is fairly inexpensive.

Chlorination is widely used for oxidation of divalent iron and manganese. However, the formation of trihalomethanes (THMs) in highly colored waters may be a problem. Chlorine feed rates and contact time requirements can be determined by simple jar tests. As an oxidant, potassium permanganate (KMnO_4) is normally more expensive than chlorine and ozone, but for iron and manganese removal, it has been reported to be as efficient and it requires considerably less equipment and capital investment. The dose of potassium permanganate, however, must be carefully controlled. Too little permanganate will not oxidize all the iron and manganese, and too much will allow permanganate to enter the distribution system and cause a pink color. Permanganate can also form precipitates that cause mudball formations on filters. These are difficult to remove and compromise filter performance.

Ozone (O_3) may be used for iron and manganese oxidation. Ozone may not be effective for oxidation in the presence of humic or fulvic materials. If not dosed carefully, ozone can oxidize reduced manganese to permanganate and result in pink water formation as well. Manganese dioxide particles, also formed by oxidation of reduced manganese, must be carefully coagulated to ensure their removal.

A low-cost method of providing oxidation is to use the oxygen in air as the oxidizing agent in a tray aerator. Water is simply passed down a series of porous trays to provide contact between air and water. No chemical dosing is required, which allows for unattended operation. This method is not effective for water in which the iron is complexed with humic materials or other large organic molecules. Oxygen is not a strong enough oxidizing agent to break the strong complexes

formed between iron and manganese and large organic molecules. Furthermore, the rate of reaction between oxygen and manganese is very slow below pH values of 9.5.

The presence of other oxidizable species in water hinders oxidation of the desired reduced compounds. Volatile organic chemicals, other organic compounds, or taste- and odor-causing compounds may result in an oxidant demand. This additional oxidant demand must be accounted for when dosing the oxidant. The expense of operation derives from the chemical use in most cases, and therefore is directly related to the source water quality.

Sequestering

Soluble iron and manganese can be stabilized, or sequestered, instead of removed. Sequestering keeps the iron and manganese in solution. This effectively eliminates the problem of staining because it is the insoluble precipitate that causes the staining. The process also delays the precipitation of oxidized iron and manganese, thereby greatly reducing the layer of scale that forms on the pipe. Red water can sometimes be prevented in this way.

Phosphate compounds are a family of chemicals that can surround minerals and keep them in solution. Pyrophosphate, tripolyphosphate, and metaphosphate may all be effective as iron and manganese sequestering agents. The most effective one, however, seems to be sodium phosphate in low concentrations. The proper dose and type of phosphate should be selected only after a qualified technician or consultant performs bench-scale testing.

Phosphate sequestering is effective where the water contains up to 0.3 mg/L of iron and less than 0.1 mg/L of manganese. The phosphate compounds must be added to the water at a point where the iron is still dissolved in order to maintain water clarity and prevent possible iron staining. This should be before your point of chlorination or as close to the well discharge point as possible.

Phosphate compound treatment is a relatively cheap way to treat water for low levels of iron and manganese. Since phosphate compounds do not actually remove iron, water treated with these chemicals will retain a metallic taste. In addition, too great a concentration of phosphate compounds will make water feel slippery.

If the total detention time in the distribution system exceeds 4 days, the phosphates may break down and release the iron and manganese in the outer portions of the system. If the detention is exceeded, the iron or manganese problem may not be resolved with phosphate.

Greensand Filtration

Oxidation/filtration can be used as a special case of pressurized granular-media filtration where the granular media catalyzes the oxidation and precipitation of iron and manganese. Manganese-oxide (MnOx) media, which include manganese greensand and pyrolucite, are commonly used in oxidation/filtration processes because of their unique adsorptive and catalytic capabilities. Greensand is manufactured by coating glauconite with manganese dioxide, while pyrolucite is a naturally mined ore composed of solid manganese dioxide. Greensand media has been shown to be capable of removing up to 80% of arsenic by oxidation/adsorption.

In oxidation/filtration processes, water is passed through a column of MnOx media which adsorbs and catalyzes the oxidation of the iron and manganese. The filtering capacity of the granular MnOx media then retains the precipitated iron, manganese, and arsenic until it is backwashed out of the column. Backwashing creates waste water and sludge, which the water system must properly dispose. Arsenic appears to be removed primarily by the iron precipitates as opposed to those of manganese. Water systems with low levels of influent iron (less than 1.5 mg/L or less than 20:1 ratio with arsenic) may want to consider adding ferric chloride prior to oxidation. It is generally recommended that green sand be preceded by a 12 inch anthracite cap to filter any precipitated iron particulates before the green sand.

In order for greensand to retain its adsorption and catalytic oxidation capabilities for iron and manganese removal, the media must be regenerated with permanganate or chlorine. Typically these oxidants are added ahead of the filter where they provided continuous oxidation of the contaminants as well as regeneration of the MnOx media. Arsenic adsorbs to the iron floc formed in this chemical oxidation step and is physically filtered

DISINFECTION

Disinfection is used to kill disease-causing (pathogenic) microorganisms in the water system; therefore, it should not be confused with sterilization, which is the destruction of all living microorganisms. The primary purpose of disinfection is to kill or inactivate pathogens in the water.

Pathogens are disease-causing organisms. Many of the largest disease outbreaks in history can be attributed to waterborne pathogens. Because of their propensity to kill large numbers of the population, these and all other pathogens should be controlled in the treatment process. In fact, the processes of coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation and filtration were developed to control pathogenic contamination in drinking water.

Pathogens, which are found in either the forms of bacteria, viruses, or protozoa, are not “removed” by disinfection. Some are killed, some are temporarily inactivated, and some are not affected at all by chemical disinfectants or biocides. Because of this fact, it is mandatory to optimize our disinfection processes.

The secondary purpose of disinfection is to provide a residual safeguard. After regulatory standards are met at the treatment process, it will degrade as it moves through the distribution system. The degree of water quality degradation is affected by its chemical and biological composition, as well as the physical condition of the distribution system it travels through. Proper management, which includes flushing, cleaning, pressure maintenance, backflow prevention, monitoring and line replacement programs is necessary to prevent substantial water quality degradation in the distribution system.

We maintain disinfectant residuals to provide a safeguard against pathogenic contamination that could develop in the distribution system. The regulated minimum disinfectant residual requirements are 0.2 mg/L for total chlorine. The **maximum residual disinfectant level (MRDL)** allowable in a distribution system is 4.0 mg/L for chlorine.

The operator also needs to be aware that changes in the pH may affect the ability of the chlorine to disinfect the water. The operator needs to understand:

1. **Point of Application (Injection point)** – whether the injection point and the method of mixing is designed so that the disinfectant can get into contact with all of the water to be disinfected.

The more thorough the mixing process, the quicker the chemical reaction will take place and the less contact time needed for effective disinfection.

2. **Contact time** – expressed as CT value, the residual disinfectant “C”oncentration in mg/L multiplied by the corresponding disinfectant contact “T”ime in minutes. The “C” concentration of the chemical and the “T” length of contact time needed to adequately kill or inactivate pathogens vary with different types of disinfectant.

The longer the contact time, the more effective the disinfection process will be. The disinfectant must physically come in contact with the pathogens or contaminants that we desire to disrupt. So the longer the disinfectant is allowed to react with the water, the more effective it will be as a disinfectant. Inadequate contact between chlorine and water

will not allow breakpoint chlorination to occur, which will greatly reduce the viability of the disinfection process and the control of pathogens.

3. **Effectiveness of upstream treatment processes** – the lower the turbidity (cloudiness) of the water, the more effective the disinfection.
4. **Temperature** – the warmer the water, the faster the chemical reactions take place. In the warmer months when the water is warmer, breakpoint chlorination can be more quickly achieved. But, because the dissipation of chlorine is driven by chemical reaction, free residuals will be harder to maintain in the summer months as opposed to the winter months.
5. **Dosage and type of chemical** – usually the higher the dose, the quicker the disinfection rate. The form of disinfectant (chloramines vs. free chlorine) and the type of chemical (gas vs. liquid) used influence the disinfection rate.
6. **pH** – the lower the pH, the better the disinfection action. A high pH impedes the formation of the hypochlorous acid and requires a higher dosage to obtain the proper residual.

When chlorine is initially added to water, the following may occur:

1. If the water contains iron, manganese, organic matter, or ammonia, the chlorine reacts with these materials and no residual is formed, meaning that no disinfection has taken place.
2. If additional chlorine is added at this point, it will react with the ammonia to form chloramines. The chloramines are considered a “combined” chlorine residual. As the chlorine is combined with other substances, it loses some of its disinfection strength. Combined residuals have less disinfection power than free (non-combined) residuals and may be the cause of taste and odor problems.
3. Some systems intentionally add ammonia to extend the life of the chlorine so residuals are carried to end-points in large distribution systems. The resulting combined chlorine is not as strong as free, but lasts longer.
4. With a little more chlorine added, the chloramines and some of the chlororganics are destroyed.
5. With still more chlorine added, free chlorine residual is formed, free in the sense that it can react quickly. Free also dissipates more quickly than combined.

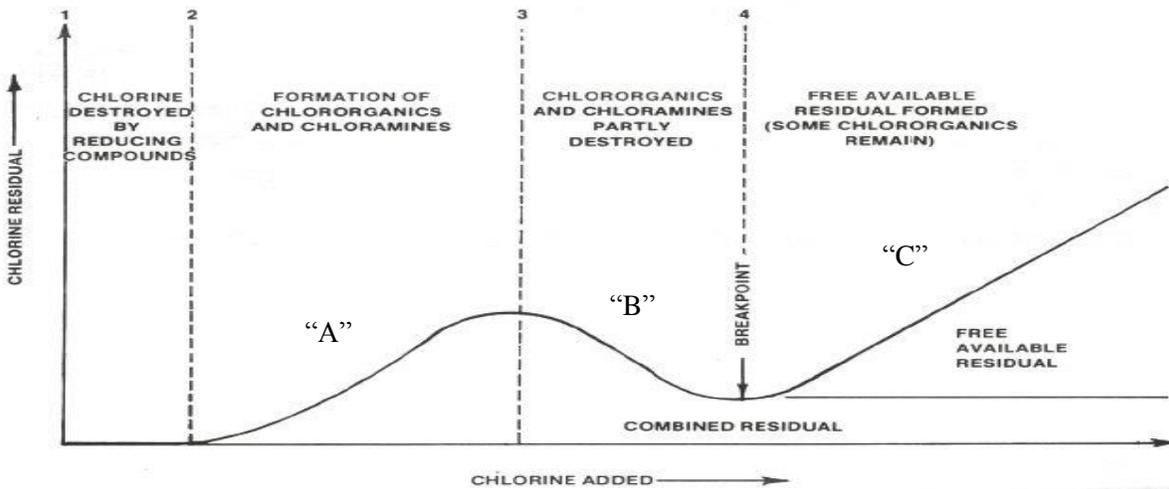
Most chlorine analyses are performed with the DPD method. DPD reagent will change color in the presence of chlorine when added to a water sample. A manual color comparator (color wheel held up to the light) or a colorimeter (digital readout) that automatically measures the intensity of the color is used to determine the concentration of chlorine residual in the water sample.

Disinfection Requirements

West Virginia requires some form of chlorine to be used during disinfection, in order, to maintain the required 0.2 mg/L of total chlorine residual in the distribution system. West Virginia requires a 4-log removal/inactivation of viruses for groundwater systems.

Breakpoint Chlorination

When chlorine is added to water that contains no ammonia, the residual that is obtained will be free available chlorine. If ammonia is present, and the demand has been satisfied, some of the free chlorine will react with the ammonia to form chloramines or combined chlorine residual. As more chlorine is added, it will breakdown the chloramines that have been formed and the combined residual will begin to drop. A point will be reached where the residual will begin to rise again after all of the chloramines, that can be, are destroyed. There may be some combined residual left in the water at this point. From this point, any additional chlorine dosage will result in the formation of only free chlorine residual. This is known as the "breakpoint". All water systems that chlorinate their water will, in fact, practice breakpoint chlorination. They will add enough chlorine to the water to achieve a free chlorine residual of at least 0.2-0.5 mg/L.



A common complaint received by many operators is that the water has a "chlorine odor." These odors are almost always caused by chloramines in the water rather than a free chlorine residual. Understanding the breakpoint curve may help solve this problem.

The initial reaction to this type of call may be to reduce the chlorine dosage to reduce the odors. This is actually the last thing that you would want to do. First, the problem may be remedied by simply flushing the line in the area of the complaint. The odors are usually a result of stale water sitting in the lines. The free chlorine that was originally present may have broken back down into chloramines. Flushing will remove the stale water and the odor problem, until the water gets stale again. If flushing doesn't correct the problem, look at the breakpoint curve before adjusting the chlorine feed rate.

If the current conditions place us on the left side of the breakpoint there is no free residual present. This can be confirmed with a residual test. That means the water is on the "B" portion of the curve. Decreasing the chlorine dosage will result in moving further to the left on the curve into the "A" portion. Here the chloramine concentration is even higher and the odors may become worse instead of better. If the dosage is increased to the point where free chlorine residuals are present again, the amount of chloramines (and their odors) will be kept to a minimum.

Chlorine Treatment Terms

Several terms are used to identify the various stages and reactions that occur when chlorine is used as a disinfectant. The basic unit of measurement for chlorination, or any other chemical treatment is mg/L or ppm. These are very small units reflecting concentrations that are essentially one part chemical for every million parts of water. To get some idea of how small a concentration this really is it should be pointed out that 1% is equal to 10,000 mg/L or ppm.

Chlorine Dosage

The chlorine dosage is the amount of chlorine that is added to the water. The dosage can be determined from the number of pounds of chlorine used and the number of millions of pounds of water treated.

Chlorine Demand

Chlorine is a very reactive oxidizing agent. It will react with a certain substances that may be found in water. This list includes; iron, manganese, hydrogen sulfide, ammonia and other inorganic or organic materials in the water. When chlorine reacts with these substances, it loses its disinfecting properties. This is referred to as the chlorine demand. For chlorine to be effective as a disinfectant, the dosage must always exceed the demand that is present in the water. The chlorine demand may vary from day to day in a surface water supply. It is usually fairly constant in a groundwater supply.

Chlorine Residual

The chlorine that remains in the water, after it has finished reacting with those substances that represent the demand, is known as the chlorine residual. There are two types of residuals that result from the chlorination of water. They are free chlorine residual and combined chlorine residual.

Free Chlorine Residual

Chlorine in this form has the highest disinfection ability. After the demand has been satisfied, any chlorine that is left will react with water to form hydrochloric acid and hypochlorous acid.

Combined Chlorine Residual

Chlorine reacts with water to form hypochlorous acid. If ammonia is present, the hypochlorous acid will react with it to form compounds known as chloramines. Chloramines are weak disinfectants. They require longer contact times and higher concentrations to achieve disinfection than free chlorine residual. However, they do not breakdown as quickly as free chlorine and remain in the system longer.

Total Available Chlorine

The total available chlorine is the sum of free available chlorine and combined available chlorine.

Testing for Chlorine Residuals

Chlorine residual determinations and reporting are an important responsibility of the operator.

Chlorine residual is most commonly measured using a **DPD** (Diethyl-p-Phenylene-Diamine) colorimeter test kit. This kit indicates the chlorine residual level by comparing the color produced with the DPD chemical addition to the water with a standardized color residual indicator. Not all test kits use a “color wheel”. Some kits consist of colorimeters or spectrophotometers for measuring the color intensity.

Forms of Chlorine

Chlorine is applied in one of three forms; chlorine gas, chlorine powder, or an aqueous solution like chlorine bleach.

Chlorine Gas

Chlorine gas is a greenish-yellow material with a penetrating and distinctive odor. It is more than two and a half times as heavy as air so will settle in low areas if it is released into the atmosphere. It is a poisonous gas and must be handled with care. Chlorine gas is not corrosive unless it is in a moist atmosphere or in contact with any moisture. It then becomes highly corrosive and is especially destructive to electrical equipment.

Chlorine gas (Cl_2) is compressed into a liquid for storage. It can be purchased in steel cylinders containing 100, 150 or 2000 pounds of the liquefied gas.

Chlorine Powder

Chlorine in its dry form is calcium hypochlorite, $\text{Ca}(\text{OCl})_2$, is a white solid which is available in powder, granular or tablet form. Only about 65 – 70% of $\text{Ca}(\text{OCl})_2$ is available as chlorine. The rest is calcium, which is not a disinfectant. It is normally dissolved in water and then injected into the drinking water using a solution feeder.

It is also most commonly known by the trade name **HTH (High Test Hypochlorite)**, Perchloron or Pitclor.

Calcium hypochlorite is a powerful oxidizing agent and must be handled with care, kept dry and away from combustible materials. It may start a fire if the white solid material comes into contact with organic materials, such as an oily rag.

Chlorine Bleach

Chlorine bleach is a aqueous solution of sodium hypochlorite, NaOCl , containing 5 to 15% available chlorine. The 5.25% solution is sold in grocery stores under trade names such as Clorox, Purex, etc. This form can be used for emergency disinfection and then flushed away, but is not usually used for continuous chlorination. Sodium hypochlorite can be conveniently added to water using a small solution feed pump.

CHLORINE POINTS OF APPLICATION

When chlorination of water was first employed for disinfection, terminal treatment of the plant effluent was almost invariably practiced. Now the use of chlorine in various stages of water treatment, and even in the distribution system, is common practice. Multiple or split chlorination schemes are increasingly employed for disinfection and other purposes and frequently enhance the efficiency of many-unit water-treatment processes. Fundamentally, the points at which chlorine is applied depend on the specific objectives of chlorination-technical, practical, safety, economic, and other considerations. In practice, various terms have come into common usage to specify the point and location at which chlorine is applied.

Plain or Simple Chlorination

Simple chlorination involves the application of chlorine to water that receives no other treatment. More than half of all existing water treatment plants in the U.S. fall in this category; thus, this treatment represents their sole public health safeguard. When applied to impounded or naturally elevated surface systems, chlorine usually is injected to the pipeline leading from such a gravity supply. When applied to water pumped into a system, chlorine usually is added at the pump suction, using pressure beyond the pump to operate the chlorine feeders.

Prechlorination

Prechlorination involves the application of chlorine to water prior to any other unit treatment process. Among benefits that can be achieved are improved filter operation by reduction and equalization of the bacterial and algal load and by control of slime and mud ball formation; improved coagulation; reduction of taste-, odor-, and color-producing materials by oxidation and retardation of decomposition (in settling units); and the provision of a safety factor in disinfecting heavily contaminated waters while keeping the chlorine residual in the distribution system at a minimum. When prechlorination is employed it usually is desirable to obtain a contact period that is as long as possible, preferably by applying chlorine to the raw water suction intake to provide contact during the entire purification process. The dosage, of course, depends on the objective. In some cases, free chlorine residuals may suffice. Care must be exercised to maintain the proper residual necessary to accomplish the desired objective.

Postchlorination

Postchlorination involves the application of chlorine to water following any other unit treatment process. The most important form of postchlorination is that following filtration for disinfection, to provide either a free or combined residual chlorine in a part of or the entire distribution system. The contact period provided to effect disinfection is an important consideration; chlorine is usually added to the filter effluent. When postchlorination follows prechlorination and precedes filtration, greater filter residual in the delivered water to a predetermined amount and thus reestablishes the portion of chlorine that had been consumed in the purification process.

Rechlorination

Rechlorination involves the application of chlorine to water, following the previous chlorination treatment, at one or more points in the distribution system. The practice, which may involve free or combined residual chlorination, is especially common where the distribution system is long and complex and where the plant effluent residual is insufficient to control bacterial and algal regrowth, red-water troubles, etc. The chlorine may be applied at the end of a long main in the

distribution system, at a point where a main supplies water to an outlying community, or at such places as a reservoir, standpipe, or booster pumping station.

Dechlorination

When combined residual chlorination or free residual chlorination is employed, chlorine residuals of a certain type and intensity must be attained to accomplish a particular objective. In some instances the residual might be of such magnitude that the water will be aesthetically or otherwise objectionable, and a portion of the residual will have to be removed. Dechlorination is the partial or complete reduction of residual chlorine in water by any chemical or physical treatment.

FULL-TIME CHLORINATION

PWSs must demonstrate that continuous disinfection is being practiced. The PWS operator must monitor daily the amount of chlorine being added (free chlorine) and the total chlorine residual obtained in the distribution system.

Chlorine Gas

When gas chlorine is used for continuous disinfection it is typically fed by use of a vacuum operated, solution feed chlorinator. For safety reasons, the chlorine is handled under vacuum so any leaks will leak air into the chlorinator instead of allowing chlorine to leak into the air. The vacuum is produced in an ejector in which a small stream of water is pressured through a nozzle orifice. The vacuum produced opens a check valve and an internal valve in the chlorinator allowing chlorine to feed from the tank into the ejector where it is mixed with the water stream from the nozzle. The resulting chlorine solution is mixed with the main stream of water to be disinfected. A variable orifice flow meter (rotometer) mounted on the chlorine gas cylinder indicates the chlorine flow rate with a small black ball suspended in a glass tube. When using a gas chlorinator, the ejector water is usually controlled either by a solenoid valve or by starting and stopping a booster pump so the chlorination system operates while the well pump is pumping and shuts down when the well pump is off.

If chlorine is drawn off from a cylinder too quickly, the temperature of the air surrounding the tank will drop and will cause frosting and lower gas flow. To prevent frosting, the draw off rate should be no greater than 40 pounds of gas/day from a 150 pound cylinder. If greater feed rate are required, several tanks can be connected using a manifold, which is a pipe joining the cylinders together so that chlorine gas is drawn from several cylinders at once.

The only accurate way to determine the feed rate of chlorine from a cylinder is to weigh the cylinder over time. By subtracting the tare weight (the weight of an empty cylinder), the operator can determine how much chlorine gas remains in the cylinder so that empty cylinders can be replaced in a timely manner. If the cylinders are weighed over time, the feed rate of chlorine can be determined to ensure that the proper concentration of chlorine is being added to the water.

Calcium or Sodium Hypochlorite

Hypochlorination, using either calcium hypochlorite or sodium hypochlorite, is often the most practical method of disinfection for small water systems.

Calcium hypochlorite is usually the least expensive of the two and is often selected for that reason. Typically, the hypochlorite is dissolved into a water solution and metered into the flowing water stream using a small diaphragm or plunger-type pump.

Calcium hypochlorite tablets will not dissolve readily in water colder than 41°F, so the availability and temperature of the mixing water must be considered. In hard water, calcium hypochlorite may form a calcium carbonate precipitate, which will interfere with the solution feed pump unless the chlorine solution is prepared in a separate tank and allowed to settle. The clear liquid is then siphoned to a storage tank for use.

Sodium hypochlorite may also form some precipitate but may not need to be settled and siphoned. Sodium hypochlorite is often fed at full strength from the container, allowing for fewer problems in handling.

Hypochlorination requires close attention by the operator as the pump and injection point often build scale. The scale will prevent the pump poppet valves from sealing and the pump will not move the solution into the water to be disinfected. Maintenance of the pump, and especially cleaning the pump valves, should be on a regular weekly schedule, or as often as experience indicates.

CHLORINE MONITORING

Chlorine monitoring assures proper residual at all points in the system, helps pace re-chlorination when needed, and quickly and reliably signals any unexpected increase in disinfectant demand. Monitoring chlorine levels in the system also can serve as a "surrogate" for detecting potentially threatening contamination, because many chemical and biological contaminants are known to combine with chlorine. Therefore, a significant decline or loss of residual chlorine could be an indication of potential threats to the system.

Monitoring for free residual chlorine and total residual chlorine (free available plus combined available chlorine) is a state requirement. The following sections outline the procedures for monitoring the residual chlorine levels in municipal water.

Chlorine concentrations can be measured either in the field using simple field kits or in the laboratory using more sophisticated procedures and equipment. Most field kits work from a similar principal where an indicator is added to a water sample and the color of the solution is compared to a set of colored standards. The colors in the standards have been calibrated in a laboratory to match set concentrations of chlorine. For instance, if a water sample is placed in a glass vial containing an indicator, and the solution turns dark red, this indicates a higher concentration than if the solution turns faint pink.

The limitation to field kits is their detection limits. The detection limit is typically 0.1 ppm. However, even though it cannot be quantified, these kits can identify trace concentrations of chlorine if a faint color is present. Laboratory methods, on the other hand, have lower detection limits, but are generally not applicable because the chlorine dissipates more quickly and will be lost during transport (unless it is in the combined chlorine form).

DPD Indicator

One kit uses **N, N-Diethyl-p-Phenylenediamine (DPD)** as the indicator solution. This method determines chlorine content according to the DPD Method 409F described in the 21th edition of *Standard Methods for Examination of Water and Wastewater*.

The water is collected in a sample tube and the indicator is added to this tube. It uses tablets or powder pillows to dye water samples to a degree proportional to the chlorine content in the sample. When the water in the tube changes color, the color is compared to 9 or 10 colors present in similar smaller tubes located on a color disk. The color disk is rotated until the color closely matches that inside the test tube. The disk color relates to a concentration. The method can differentiate between combined chlorine and free available forms by using different types of indicator. Fresh indicator should always be used as old DPD can give false readings. This type of kit detects from 0.1 to 5.0 ppm chlorine.

Spectrophotometers

There are a number of field spectrophotometers that can be used for measurement of residual chlorine levels. One model is a pocket-sized instrument that tests for free and total residual chlorine over the operating range of 0 to 4.0 ppm. The meter reads in 0.01 ppm increments with an accuracy of 0.05 ppm. The reagent used in these types of instruments is typically DPD, as described above.

Laboratory Analysis

Laboratory analysis for total residual chlorine in water is not recommended due to the very short storage time that a sample can remain stable, and the relatively long turnaround time for results. Chlorine dissipates from a water sample very quickly as a result of exposure to light, increased temperature, and agitation. According to the EPA standard laboratory techniques for residual chlorine analysis Method 4500-Cl, samples to be analyzed for residual chlorine should not be stored at all, but analyzed immediately. The EPA Standard Method 4500-Cl outlines different methods to detect residual chlorine, including:

- Iodometric Method;
- Amperometric Titration Method;
- Low-Level Amperometric Titration Method
- DPD Colorimetric Method;
- Syringaldazine (FACTS) Method; and
- Iodometric Electrode Technique.

The advantage of these methods is that the detection limits are as low as 0.010 mg/L (ppm or 10 µg/L (ppb), depending on the sophistication of the equipment.

It is recommended that sampling for free and total residual chlorine be completed in the field using a field testing kit to obtain the best results.

Interferences

The field methods used to measure total residual chlorine can give false readings in some circumstances. For example, the DPD indicator method is subject to interference by oxidized forms of manganese. The test may indicate chlorine is present when it is the interfering compound reacting with the indicator to give a false reading. High sample color and turbidity may also cause interference and give inaccurate readings.

When an interference is suspected, chlorine free samples should be measured to establish background readings. This can be done by taking a water sample and agitating the water for a few minutes to decrease chlorine levels in the sample, and then taking a chlorine reading on that sample. If the reading does not decrease repeat the agitation procedure a few more times. If a positive result is still obtained, it is likely that an interference is present, which must be taken into account during the monitoring program. For example, in the case of the pocket photometer the background reading can be subtracted from the reading obtained with the true sample for low turbidity samples, but not for samples that have a false positive interference.

Another interference may occur when the chlorine residual is a high enough concentration that the reagent (DPD) will bleach out and no color will develop. This will result in a false negative reading.

On-line Monitoring

All ground and surface water treatment plants designed to serve 3,300 people or more shall be equipped with recording chlorine analyzers and continuous recorders monitoring water entering the distribution system. The chlorine residual on-line monitoring requires a continuous flow of water through the flow cell. Every 2.5 minutes a sample is retained in the flow cell to measure

blank absorbance (color intensity) before reagents are added. This compensates for turbidity in the sample and provides an automatic zero reference point. Reagents are then added to the flow cell and a magnetic stirring motor mixes the sample. After color development, the color intensity is measured and compared to the reference. The difference between the two readings is used to calculate the chlorine concentration. Analyzing range is 0-5 mg/L. These units also require about three feet of wall space, 120 VAC, water supply and drain. The analyzer will need to be assembled according to manufacturer's instructions. Once the unit is assembled and installed the buffer and reagent will need to be installed following instructions in the manual. The system will prime itself and be ready for service. High and low chlorine alarms may be set as well. These alarms can be used to take pumps off line, if there is a problem with the chlorination equipment. A 4-20 mA is available for SCADA or chart recorder outputs. Over time, the analyzer can start to drift on the chlorine readings. The analyzer should be checked at least weekly with a grab sample. Depending on water conditions, the flow cell will need to be cleaned weekly. The buffer and reagent must be replaced once a month. The tubing will need to be changed annually.

CT

This stands for the **contact time (CT)** between disinfectant and microorganism and the concentration of disinfectant. CT is used to calculate how much disinfectant is required to adequately disinfect water. C refers to the final residual concentration of a particular chemical disinfectant in mg/L. T refers to the minimum contact time (minutes) of material that is disinfected with the disinfectant. Therefore, the units of CT are expressed in mg-min/L. For this discussion, chlorine will be used in place of disinfectant.

$$\text{CT} = \text{disinfectant concentration} \times \text{contact time} = \text{C mg/L} \times \text{T minutes}$$

When chlorine is added to water, it does not only react with pathogenic microorganisms, but also with other impurities, such as soluble metals, particles of organic matter and other microorganisms. The chlorine demand is created when the chlorine reacts with these substances. The chlorine demand must first be satisfied, before a chlorine residual concentration can be established. The chlorine concentration (or chlorine dose) that has to be added to water is made up by the sum of the chlorine demand and the chlorine residual. Once there is a chlorine residual, this chlorine residual has to be maintained during the required contact time to kill pathogenic microorganisms. To adequately disinfect the water it is therefore required to supply the water with a higher chlorine dose than the concentration required to kill pathogenic microorganisms. The time required to deactivate a particular microorganism decreases when the applied chlorine dose is increased.

The CT concept was developed specifically for surface water, with the assumption that PWSs would be trying to inactivate both *Giardia* and viruses. Since the CT required to provide 3-log inactivation of *Giardia* is at least enough to provide the required 4-log inactivation of viruses, the EPA just set the standard for *Giardia* and ignored viruses.

The CT is commonly used to determine the effectiveness of a particular disinfectant against a certain microorganism under specified conditions. There is a difference between the relative affectivity of chemical disinfectants against different microorganisms. Often a certain level is added to the CT, for example 99%. This means that 99% of the microorganisms are deactivated by the disinfectant.

The type of microorganism

Disinfectants can effectively kill pathogenic microorganisms (bacteria, viruses and parasites). Some microorganisms can be resistant. *E. coli* bacteria, for example, are more resistant to disinfectants than other bacteria and are therefore used as indicator organisms. Several viruses are even more resistant than *E. coli*. The absence of *E. coli* bacteria does not mean that the water is safe. Protozoan parasites like *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* are very resistant to chlorine.

Temperature

The temperature also influences the effectiveness of disinfection. Increasing temperatures usually increases the speed of reactions and of disinfection. Increasing temperatures can also decrease disinfection, because the disinfectant falls apart or is volatilized.

DISINFECTION BYPRODUCTS

There is no question that the use of chlorine as the primary disinfectant used for water treatment in the U.S. has had an enormous impact on the prevention of waterborne diseases. However, when free chlorine is added to surface waters containing **natural organic material (NOM)** chemical reactions will occur, which produce Disinfection Byproducts (DBP).

If consumed over long periods of time, some DBPs may cause undesirable health effects, including cancer. Consequently, regulatory standards have been established to limit the amount of various DBPs that are acceptable in a PWS.

Formation of Disinfection Byproduct

Natural organic matter is the precursors of disinfection byproduct formation. Natural organic matter in surface waters are generally naturally occurring organic substances, such as humic and fulvic acids. These acids belong to a family of compounds having similar structure and chemical properties and are formed during the decomposition of vegetation. Humic acids are hydrophobic or water repellent and a portion of these can be removed by coagulation and sedimentation. The fulvic portion is not amenable to conventional treatment. It is always more effective to remove precursors prior to disinfection.

Raw waters containing high levels of organic matter, such as lakes and ponds, are at a higher risk of forming DBPs than waters containing low levels of organic matter, such as most groundwater sources. Consequently, small systems utilizing chlorinated surface water sources are more likely to have DBP problems than those using chlorinated groundwater sources. Therefore, DBPs that result from chlorine disinfection have been studied more extensively than DBPs that might result from the use of alternative disinfectants such as ozone.

Trihalomethanes and Haloacetic Acids

Disinfection byproducts are groups of chemical compounds that are **trihalomethanes (THMs)** and **haloacetic acids (HAA5s)** produced by chlorine in the disinfection process when organic compounds are present.

Disinfection byproducts are produced by the reaction of free chlorine with organics in the source water. In this process the chlorine replaces hydrogen atoms with chlorine. THMs are a particular group of compounds where 3 of the 4 hydrogen atoms in a methane compound have been replaced by chlorine or bromine atoms. The bromine replacement in the methane compound is a particular reaction caused by free chlorine. Bromide compounds are typically present in surface water and chlorine oxidizes bromide ions resulting in the formation of free bromide that reacts with the organic material to produce bromoform, bromodichloromethane, dibromochloromethane, monobromoacetic acid and dibromoacetic acid. Three of these compounds are THMs and two of them are Haloacetic Acids. The S1DBPR regulates four specific Trihalomethane compounds and five specific Haloacetic acids or HAA5s. The additive concentrations in mg/L of these compounds are called **Total Trihalomethanes (TTHMs)** and HAA5s. The MCLs for TTHMs and HAA5s are 0.080 mg/L and 0.060 mg/L, respectively.

CHLORINE SAFETY

Although it is used as a disinfectant, it is a dangerous and potentially fatal chemical if used improperly. Chlorine, in any form, can be a difficult and hazardous chemical to handle in the concentrations used in water treatment.

Chlorine gas can be especially hazardous to handle and all personnel should be thoroughly aware of its hazardous properties. All personnel handling chlorine should know the location and use of the various pieces of personal protective equipment and be instructed in safety procedures. In a moist atmosphere, or in contact with any moisture, chlorine is highly corrosive and is especially destructive to electrical equipment. When combined with the moisture in mucous membranes of the nose and throat, and with the fluids in the eyes and lungs, a very small amount of chlorine gas in the air can be very irritating and can cause severe coughing. Heavy exposure can be fatal.

Chlorine gas leaks may be detected by passing an ammonia-soaked cotton swab near the suspected area. If chlorine gas is leaking and comes in contact with ammonia, a white smoke appears. Do not spray ammonia on the leak, because too much white smoke will be formed to see the leak area and may fill the room so that even the exit is difficult to find. If a chlorine cylinder is leaking, it should only be handled by a person equipped with and trained to use a proper **self-contained breathing apparatus (SCBA)** in good operating condition.

Chlorine gas storage rooms and rooms where chlorine gas is used are required to have mechanical exhaust systems that draw air from the room at a point no higher than 12 inches above the floor. This low height is necessary so the exhaust fan will remove the settling chlorine gas from the room.

Empty tanks, tanks in use and back-up tanks must be restrained using a chain or other means so that they cannot be knocked over.

Sodium and calcium hypochlorite are not as hazardous as gaseous chlorine and therefore are easier and safer to handle. This certainly should be one of the major considerations for a small system when determining which form of chlorine to use. Personal protective equipment (mask, apron, gloves) should be used when handling hypochlorite since it can cause damage to eyes and skin upon contact. If spilled on skin, the affected area should be washed quickly with large amounts of water. Hypochlorite solutions are very corrosive. Large volumes of water should be used to wash-down spills. Hypochlorite compounds are non-flammable; however, they can cause fires when they come in contact with organics (oily rags) or other easily oxidizable substances.

General Chlorine Safety

Chlorine is a greenish-yellow gas. It is 2.5 times heavier than air. Chlorine gas is very corrosive. It turns into hydrochloric acid when it comes in contact with moisture (in the water, in the chlorine lines, or in your eyes or lungs). It does not support combustion but can be harmful if inhaled in small quantities and fatal in larger doses. Chlorine leaks can be located using ammonia vapors.

Chlorinator Room

The chlorinator room should have a window in the door so that the operator in the room can be

seen from the outside. The light and vent switches should also be located outside the room. The room should have ventilation located at floor level since chlorine gas is heavier than air and will settle in the lowest spot in the room. The room should be kept between 60°F and 120°F. Below 60°F, chlorine gas forms chlorine hydrate, also known as “green ice,” when it comes in contact with water. This green ice can clog the injector and gas piping, creating a serious maintenance problem.

When a chlorine cylinder is full and at room temperature, it is about 85% full of liquefied chlorine. As the temperature rises, the liquid expands and takes up more space in the cylinder. At 157 °F the liquid will expand to occupy 100% of the cylinder. If the liquid expands any further the cylinder will rupture, causing a massive chlorine leak.

Chlorine Storage

The room where chlorine cylinders or HTH drums are stored must be kept dry and well ventilated. Chlorine should always be stored in a room separate from other chemicals. Chlorine cylinders that are empty should be separated from those that are full. All cylinders should be chained to the wall.

Chlorine Cylinders

NEVER remove the valve hood from a chlorine cylinder unless it is chained to the scales and ready to be put on the system. All cylinders should be chained to the wall or the scales unless they are being moved. Every system that operates a gas chlorine system should have an emergency kit or be able to get access to one on very short notice. To prevent the cylinder from rupturing when it gets too hot, every gas cylinder will have a “fusible plug” that is designed to melt at 157°F. There is one in the valve assembly of every 150 lb. cylinder and six (three on each end) in the body of every 1-ton cylinder. As one of these fusible plugs melts, it will allow the release of chlorine gas from the cylinder. This still represents a serious problem, but the release will be more gradual than it would if the tank ruptured.

Respiratory Protection

Anyone involved in handling chlorine should have access to respiratory protection equipment. There are two basic types of respiratory protection. One is the gas mask that uses a filtering device to remove chlorine. These are either a full-face mask or a mouth/nose type respirator. A respirator with its own air source is called a supplied-air respirator or **Self Contained Breathing Apparatus (SCBA)**. It consists of either a self-contained unit that the worker wears or a hose connecting a worker to a remote air source. The SCBA provides continuous positive air pressure into a facemask. Both of these devices may be rendered ineffective if the wearer has facial hair that interferes with the face-to-mask seal.

CHLORINE SAFETY PRECAUTIONS

Chlorine Gas

Chlorine gas is a hazardous substance and should be handled with care. The following list gives some general safety precautions that should be taken when handling 100 or 150-lb chlorine cylinders:

- Chlorine cylinders should be moved on properly balanced hand trucks, preferably with rubber tires. A clamp or chain support two-thirds of the way up the cylinder should be used to secure the container.
- Chlorine cylinders should be transported and stored in an upright position.
- Chlorine cylinders must be secured so that they cannot be tipped over
- Chlorine cylinders should not be dropped, allowed to strike forcefully against anything, or struck forcefully by other objects.
- Chlorine cylinders should be stored so that they can be moved in the event of a leak or fire.
- Chlorine cylinders should not be stored or used in an area below ground level, because chlorine gas is heavier than air and will settle into and remain in such areas.
- When receiving a shipment of chlorine cylinders, inspect the shipment before accepting it.
 - Check each cylinder for serious dents, cuts, or gouges that might decrease the wall thickness of the container.
 - Look for signs of corrosion or pitting that might be serious enough to weaken the cylinder.
 - Check for obvious bulges
 - Put your hand on each cylinder to see if it is hot to the touch. This could indicate internal moisture contamination. If there appears to be internal moisture, return the cylinder to the manufacturer or supplier
 - Visually inspect the valves and fusible plugs.
- If any of the chlorine cylinders appear of questionable status, return the cylinder to the manufacturer or supplier.
- Whenever there is any indication of a leak or other problem with the chlorine cylinders, take safety precautions immediately. Only authorized, trained personnel with suitable self-contained breathing apparatus should investigate; all other persons should be kept away from the affected area. When you suspect problems with a chlorine cylinder, the chlorine supplier should be contacted for emergency assistance.
- Chlorine can react, at times explosively, with a number of organic materials such as oil and grease from sources such as air compressors, valves, pumps, oil-diaphragm instrumentation, pipe thread lubricants, as well as wood and rags from maintenance work.
- Chlorine is neither explosive nor flammable. Chlorine will support combustion under certain conditions. Many materials that burn in oxygen (air) atmospheres will also burn in chlorine atmospheres.
- At ambient temperatures, dry chlorine, either liquid or gas, does not corrode steel. Wet chlorine is highly corrosive because it forms hydrochloric and hypochlorous

acids. Precautions should be taken to keep chlorine and chlorine equipment dry. Piping, valves, and containers should be closed or capped when not in use to keep out atmospheric moisture such as precipitation or humidity. If water is used on a chlorine leak, the resulting corrosive conditions will make the leak worse.

Chlorine Gas Cylinders

The typical 150-lb cylinder is equipped with one valve. The valve outlet threads are not standard pipe threads, but are special straight threads. These outlet threads are intended for securing the valve outlet cap and not for connecting unloading connections or other devices. Typical cylinder connections are made with a yoke and adapter. The valve is also equipped with a fusible metal pressure relief device or, as more commonly named, a fusible plug.

Each ton container is equipped with two identical valves near the center of one end. They are different from the typical cylinder valve in that they have no fusible metal plug and usually have a larger internal passage. Each valve connects to an internal eduction tube. Ton containers are equipped with fusible metal pressure relief devices. Most have six fusible metal plugs, three in each end.

A metal relief device or fusible plug is designed to yield or melt between 158°F and 165°F (70°C and 74°C) to relieve pressure and prevent container rupture if exposed to fire or other high temperature. The relief device is designed to activate only in the event of a temperature increase and will not prevent over-pressurization due to overfilling.

Calcium Hypochlorite

Hypochlorite solution can cause serious burn injuries and can cause permanent damage to the eyes. When working with Hypochlorite solution a great degree of caution should be exercised and protective eye goggles and clothing should be worn at all times. Hands should be protected from contact. The following steps should be taken when handling hypochlorite solution:

1. Protect skin, eyes, and respiratory tract from hypochlorite dust.
2. All containers should be covered to prevent evaporation and the release of fumes.
3. Content of hypochlorite drum must be kept dry, covered and stored in a cool dry area away from direct sunlight.
4. Protective gloves should be worn. Hypochlorite in contact with moisture will burn and damage skin.
5. When mixing a hypochlorite solution, the water should be put in the container before the hypochlorite powder is added.
6. All spills should be flushed away with large amounts of water.
7. The chlorine room should be well ventilated.
8. Calcium hypochlorite should not be stored where it can come in contact with organic matter. The reaction between the two can result in a fire.

While calcium hypochlorite is not as dangerous as chlorine gas, it should be handled according to the recommended procedures. The following is a short list of precautions than should be taken when working with this solid form of chlorine.

- Calcium hypochlorite should be stored only in the original container and away from moisture.

- Calcium hypochlorite is relatively stable but will decompose in storage. It can ignite or explode on contact with organic materials (oil, rags, or alcohol), and it should not be exposed to fire or elevated temperatures.
- When handling calcium hypochlorite, the operator should wear a protective apron, rubber gloves, eye protection, and a dust-protection respirator.

Sodium Hypochlorite

The following is a list of precautions to take when working with this liquid form of chlorine:

- Sodium hypochlorite should be stored in a cool, dark place to minimize decomposition.
- Always store sodium hypochlorite in a container made of a proper material, such as plastic, because the chemical is corrosive to many types of materials. The containers should be kept closed. Fumes escaping from the containers are corrosive.
- When working with this product, wear protective gloves, apron, and eye protection.

HOW TO HANDLE CHLORINE GAS SAFELY

Chlorine gas is greenish-yellow and smells like bleach. It is highly corrosive and irritating to the eyes, nose, throat, and mucous membranes. It reacts violently with petroleum products such as gasoline, diesel, oil, solvents and turpentine. Chlorine gas is about 2.5 times heavier than air and will settle in low-lying areas unless there is sufficient wind for dispersal. It can form phosgene (a toxic and corrosive gas) in the presence of carbon monoxide from a fire, and sulfuryl chloride (a toxic corrosive gas) in the presence of sulfur dioxide from auto exhaust.

Despite these hazards, chlorine does not have to be a serious risk to those who handle it if they are properly trained. Although not a substitute for formal training, this segment discusses chlorine handling and safety practices, particularly for small water treatment systems.

Emergency Help

Don't wait until you need a phone number. Make a list of all relevant contact numbers and keep them posted at several locations in the plant and office. The list should include the fire department that will respond to your facility and the police department, and any other facilities in the area that may be of help. Posting these numbers is especially important if you don't have 911-service in your area. Keep the numbers updated. The CHEMTREC toll free number (800) 424-9300 may be called any time for information on how to handle an emergency created by hazardous materials such as chlorine.

Inform local police and fire departments of the possible hazards associated with all the chemicals used in your plant, especially chlorine, so they can be prepared in the event of an emergency. Organize escape plans from areas where there might be chlorine emission. Taking short cuts may not only be dangerous, they could be deadly.

Protective Equipment

Systems using gas chlorine should have respiratory protection equipment that meets National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health requirements available where chlorine gas is handled. This equipment should be stored at a convenient location but not inside any room where chlorine is used or stored. The unit(s) should use compressed air, have at least a 30 minute capacity and be compatible with – or exactly the same – as the units used by the fire department that will respond to your water treatment plant. The unit(s) should also be tested and refreshed on a regular basis. Ask your fire department to inspect and test the unit(s).

The Buddy System

Having a second person at the plant when changing or handling chlorine is ideal. If one operator is incapacitated, the other can call for help. If you are working alone, let someone know when you are handling chlorine. Right before going into the chlorine room, call someone familiar with your work and location and then, when finished, call back so they know that you are all right

Separate Chlorine Room

A separate room for chlorine, especially gas chlorine, is important. Check with WV State Design Standards (WV 64CSR77) and the Chlorine Institute for requirements on inside storage and use of chlorine. The chlorine room should be enclosed, sealed and separated from other operating areas. It should have a shatter-resistant inspection window mounted in an interior wall

that is built to seal all openings between the chlorine room and the remainder of the plant. The room should have doors equipped with panic hardware that opens outward to the building exterior providing an easy escape.

Locate the chlorine room on the downwind side of the building—away from entrances, windows, louvers, walkways and so on. The room must be equipped with a ventilating fan that provides one complete air exchange per minute when the room is occupied. The fan should move air as far as practical from the door and air inlet, and discharge to the outside atmosphere. In addition, louvers should facilitate airtight closure for air intake near the ceiling and exhaust near the floor.

NEVER enter a chlorine facility without ventilating for several minutes first. The National Fire Code now requires that new gas chlorine facilities be equipped with a scrubber system that will remove chlorine gas that may be present in the ventilation exhaust. These systems must have a backup power supply to keep the scrubber running in the event of a power failure. Check with local Fire authorities before new chlorine facilities are built to make sure they will be in compliance.

Locate separate switches for the fan and lights outside the chlorine room and at the inspection window. Protect outside switches from vandalism. Provide a signal light indicating fan operation at each entrance when the fan can be controlled from more than one point.

The floor of the room should be finished in a non-slip surface, and floor drains are discouraged. If a floor drain is used, it should discharge to the outside of the building and should not be connected to other internal or external drainage systems. The end of the drain should discharge to the outside atmosphere, above-grade, so it does not contaminate air inlets or entrance doors to any rooms or structures. The room should be at least 60 °F and protected from excessive heat.

Chlorine Leak Detection

The room should have continuous leak detection equipment with sound and visual warnings that can be heard and seen throughout the treatment plant. This unit should be calibrated and tested at regular intervals and documented. A bottle of ammonium hydroxide, 56% ammonia solution, should be available for chlorine leak detection. A leak repair kit approved by the Chlorine Institute should be provided (Kit A for 150 pound cylinders and Kit B 1 ton for containers).

Response to a Chlorine Release

As soon as there is any indication of a chlorine release, immediate steps must be taken to correct the condition. Chlorine leaks always get worse if they are not promptly corrected. When a chlorine leak occurs, authorized, trained personnel equipped with respiratory and appropriate other PPE should investigate and take proper action. Personnel should not enter into atmospheres containing concentrations of chlorine in excess of the IDLH Concentration of 10 ppm without appropriate personal protective equipment and back-up personnel.

Response to a Fire

If fire is present or imminent, chlorine containers and equipment should be moved away from the fire, if it is possible to do so safely. If a non-leaking container or equipment cannot be moved, it should be kept cool by applying water on it.

Water should not be used directly on a chlorine leak. Chlorine and water react forming acids and the leak will quickly get worse. However, where several containers are involved and some are leaking, it may be prudent to use a water spray to help cool the non-leaking containers. Whenever containers have been exposed to flames, cooling water should be applied until well after the fire is out and the containers are cooled. Containers exposed to fire should be isolated and the supplier should be contacted as soon as possible.

CHEMTREC

During a chlorine emergency, any carrier, customer, or civil authority can obtain basic emergency information and contact information for the closest chlorine emergency group through CHEMTREC (U.S.) or their chlorine supplier. The emergency response call center, i.e. CHEMTREC provides immediate advice for those at the scene of emergencies. CHEMTREC will promptly contact the appropriate responder group as required. In many cases, the responder will be the shipper. However, in some cases, the designated response group is called and then the shipper is notified.

Employee Training

Safety in handling chlorine depends, to a great extent, upon the effectiveness of employee training, proper safety instructions and the use of suitable equipment. It is the responsibility of the employer to train employees and to document such training as appropriate and as required by regulation. It is the responsibility of employees to carry out correct operating procedures safely and to properly use the safety equipment provided.

Employee training should include but is not limited to:

- Instruction and periodic refresher courses in operation of chlorine equipment and handling of chlorine containers.
- Instruction in the properties and physiological effects of chlorine, including the information on the MSDS.
- A MSDS is provided by the chlorine supplier.
- Instruction to report to the proper authority all equipment failures and chlorine leaks.

Instruction and periodic drills regarding:

- Locations, purpose, and use of chlorine emergency equipment, fire fighting equipment, fire alarms and shut-down equipment such as valves and switches.
- Use and installation of emergency kits, such as the Chlorine Institute Emergency Kits A, B, or C and the recovery vessel if they are part of emergency equipment and planning at the location.
- Locations, purpose, and use of personal protective equipment.
- Locations, purpose, and use of safety showers, eye washes, or the closest source of water for use in emergencies.
- Locations, purpose, and use of any specialized first aid equipment.

Safety tips for 150 pound cylinders and one-ton containers

- Never lift a cylinder by its hood.
- Always keep the hood in place, except when the cylinder is being used.
- Never expose cylinder to heat or direct sunlight.

- Never drop a cylinder, or knock a cylinder over.
- Never tamper with a fusible plug.
- Always keep empty cylinders separate from full ones.
- Always secure empty and full cylinders with a cable or chain.
- Never store liquid or gas chlorine with ammonia.
- Do not move full one-ton containers with equipment designed to handle less than two tons.
- Do not connect liquid valves of two or more containers to a common manifold.
- Never store combustible or flammable materials near chlorine containers.
- Never attempt to weld an “empty” chlorine pipeline without purging it with air.
- Do not spray water on a leaking container. It will make the leak worse.
- Take shallow breaths in the chlorine room until you are sure there is not a chlorine leak.

CHLORINE FIRST AID

Inhalation

1. Remove victim from contaminated area.
2. Keep victim warm, in a reclining position with head and shoulders elevated.
3. Give artificial respiration, if necessary.
4. Administer oxygen as soon as possible.
5. Call a physician immediately.

Skin Contact

1. Shower victim, removing all contaminated clothing.
2. Wash affected area with soap and water.

Eye Contact

1. Irrigate eyes with water for 15 minutes, holding eyelids wide apart.
2. Call a physician immediately.
3. Irrigate a second 15 minute period if physician is not immediately available.

Health Effects

- Low concentrations: Burning eyes, nose and throat; redness in the face; sneezing and coughing.
- High concentrations: Tightness in the throat and difficulty breathing.
- 1,000 ppm is fatal after a few breaths.
- Even an hour later, 35-51 ppm can be fatal.

Chlorine Resources

2,500 pounds or more: The EPA regulates chlorine quantities of 2,500 pounds or more.

The Chlorine Institute has a variety of information on safe chlorine handling online at www.chlorineinstitute.org/

Changing 150-Pound Cylinders

1. Turn valve stem clockwise to close cylinder.
2. Allow float in flow meter to drop to zero. Indicator on front of gas feeder should indicate no gas.
3. Wait about one minute. Float should remain at zero. If float flutters or does not drop to zero, the valve may not be closed tightly. Make sure the valve is closed before proceeding.
4. Turn off ejector, and make certain the gas supply indicator stays in the “No Gas” position by turning the “Reset” knob. If the indicator resets, either gas pressure is still present or there is an air leak in the system. Refer to instruction manual if an air leak is evident.
5. Loosen gas feeder yoke screw. Remove gas feeder from valve.
6. Replace gas cylinder.
7. Remove old lead gasket. Inspect and clean mating surfaces of gas feeder and valve. Install new unused lead gasket.

8. Position gas feeder on new gas cylinder and tighten yoke screw. Do not tighten excessively.
9. Crack open gas cylinder valve and close quickly. Check for leaks. If leaks exist, turn on ejector and repeat steps 2, 3, 4, and correct leaks.
10. Leak test solutions: Ammonia.
11. Open gas cylinder valve, about ¼-turn only, and leave cylinder wrench on valve.
12. Turn ejector.

NOTES:

Contact your gas supplier if the cylinder valve or cylinder is considered to be defective.

Changing Ton Cylinders

1. Turn the valve stem clockwise to close ton container valve.
2. Allow float in flow meter to drop to zero. Indicator on front of gas feeder should show red indicating no gas. All liquid must be vaporized from the trap.
3. Wait about one minute. Float should remain at zero. If float flutters or does not drop to zero, valve may not be closed tightly. Make certain valve is closed before proceeding.
4. Turn off ejector and make certain the gas supply indicator stays in the “No Gas” position by turning the “Reset” knob. If the indicator resets, either gas pressure is still present or there is an air leak in the system. Refer to instruction manual if an air leak is evident.
5. Loosen gas feeder yoke screw. Remove gas feeder from valve.
6. Replace ton container. Make sure the full container is oriented with the valves in the vertical position, one valve above the other. The top valve will always supply gas chlorine and the bottom valve will give liquid chlorine.
7. Remove old lead gasket. Inspect and clean mating surfaces of gas feeder and valve. Install new unused lead gasket.
8. Position gas feeder on new gas cylinder and tighten yoke screw. Do not tighten excessively.
9. Be sure heater is plugged in and operating. An operating heater provides heat to vaporize any trapped liquid.
10. Crack open gas cylinder valve and reclose quickly. Check for leaks. If leaks exist, turn on ejector and repeat steps 2, 3, 4, and correct leaks.
11. Leak test solutions: Ammonia.
12. Open ton container valve slowly about ¼-turn only and leave cylinder wrench on valve.
13. Turn on ejector.

NOTES:

Contact your gas supplier if the cylinder valve or cylinder is considered to be defective.

FLUORIDATION

The fluoridation of water supplies has been described as one of the great advances in modern public health. Fluoridation is a process of adding a naturally occurring element, fluorine, to drinking water for the purpose of preventing tooth decay, using guidelines developed by scientific and medical research. The effectiveness of fluoridation depends on how consistently the water treatment operator maintains the optimal fluoride concentration.

Water fluoridation is the deliberate upward adjustment of the natural trace element, fluorine (in the ionic form of fluoride), using guidelines developed by scientific and medical research, for the purpose of promoting the public's health through the prevention of tooth decay. Fluoride is present in small but widely varying amounts in practically all soils, water supplies, plants, and animals, and thus is a normal constituent of all diets. The highest concentrations in mammals are found in the bones and teeth. All public water supplies in this country contain at least trace amounts of natural fluoride.

Few public health measures have been accorded greater clinical and laboratory research, epidemiologic study, clinical trial, and public attention-both favorable and adverse-than the fluoridation of public water supplies.

The most positive health effect of water fluoridation is the prevention of tooth decay. The diverse health effect from high levels of fluoride in the drinking water is dental fluorosis. Controversy over fluoridation continues to exist and many charges have been leveled against it; these changes are discussed in a later section.

Dental Fluorosis

Dental fluorosis is defined as the whitish to brownish spots seen on teeth. It has been clearly established that high levels of fluoride in the drinking water will cause fluorosis (or "mottled enamel", as it is sometimes called). Dental fluorosis has been recognized since the turn of the century in people with high exposure to naturally occurring fluoride in drinking water. It has always been more prevalent in fluoridated than non-fluoridated areas. Dental fluorosis occurs only during tooth formation and becomes apparent upon eruption of the teeth. It ranges from very; mild symmetrical whitish areas on teeth (very mild dental fluorosis) to pitting of the enamel, frequently associated with brownish discoloration (severe dental fluorosis). The very mild form is barely detectable even by experienced dental personnel. Moderate and severe forms of dental fluorosis, considered by some investigators as presenting a cosmetic problem, do not appear to produce adverse dental health effects, such as the loss of tooth function, and represents less than 6% of the cases of fluorosis nationally.

Maximum Contaminant Levels

The EPA has established regulatory limits on the fluoride content of drinking water. Based on a detailed review of health effects studies on fluoride, the EPA set a primary MCL of 4 mg/L in water systems to prevent crippling skeletal fluorosis. A secondary MCL of 2 mg/L has been established by EPA as the level above which dental fluorosis is likely to occur.

Fluoride Compounds

Three commonly used fluoride chemicals should meet the AWWA standards for use in water fluoridation-sodium fluoride (B701-90), sodium fluorosilicate (B702-90), and fluorosilicic acid (B703-90). Imported chemicals especially should be checked for compliance with these standards.

Sodium Fluoride

The first fluoride compound used in water fluoridation was sodium fluoride. Sodium fluoride (NaF) is a white, odorless material available either as a powder or in the form of crystals of various sizes. It is a salt that in the past was manufactured by adding sulfuric acid to fluorspar and then neutralizing the mixture with sodium carbonate. Sodium fluoride has a formula weight of 42.00, a specific gravity of 2.79, and its solubility is practically constant at 4.0 grams per 100 milliliters in water at temperatures generally encountered in water treatment practice.

The relatively constant 4% solubility of sodium fluoride is the basis for the design of the saturator. The pH (hydrogen-ion concentration) of a sodium fluoride solution varies with the type and amount of impurities, but solutions prepared from the usual grades of sodium fluoride exhibit a nearly neutral pH (approximately 7.6). It is available in purities ranging from 97 to over 98%, with the impurities consisting of water, free acid or alkali, sodium fluorosilicate, sulfites and iron, plus traces of other substances. Approximately 19 pounds of sodium fluoride will add 1 ppm of fluoride to 1 million gallons of water.

Sodium Fluorosilicate

Sodium fluorosilicate (Na_2SiF_6), also known as sodium silicofluoride is widely used as a chemical for water fluoridation. Sodium fluorosilicate is a white, odorless crystalline powder. Its molecular weight is 188.06 and its specific gravity is 2.679. Its solubility varies from 0.44 grams per 100 milliliters of water at 0° C to 2.45 grams per 100 milliliters at 100° C. The pHs of solutions are definitely on the acid side, with saturated solutions usually exhibiting a pH between 3.0 and 4.0 (approximately 3.6). Sodium fluorosilicate is available in purities of 98% or greater, the principal impurities being water, chlorides, and silica. Approximately 14 pounds of sodium fluorosilicate will add 1 ppm of fluoride to 1 million gallons of water.

Fluorosilicic Acid

Fluorosilicic acid (H_2SiF_6), also known as hydrofluosilicic, hexafluosilicic, or silicofluoric acid is a 20 to 35% aqueous solution with a formula weight of 144.08. It is a straw-colored, transparent, fuming, corrosive liquid having a pungent odor and an irritating action on the skin. Solutions of 20 to 35% fluorosilicic acid exhibit a low pH (1.2), and at a concentration of 1 ppm can slightly depress the pH of poorly buffered potable waters. It must be handled with great care because it will cause a “delayed burn” on skin tissue. The average density of 23% acid is 10.1 lbs/gal. Fluorosilicic acid (23%) will freeze at approximately 4° F or -15.5° C. It takes approximately 46 pounds (4.4 gallons) of 23 % acid to add 1 ppm of fluoride to 1 million gallons of water.

Hydrofluoric acid is an extremely corrosive material. Its presence in fluorosilicic acid, whether from intentional addition, i.e., “fortified” acid or from normal production processes demands careful handling. The hydrofluoric fumes from fluorosilicic acid are lighter than air, unlike chlorine fumes, which are heavier than air. Thus, the acid fumes will rise instead of settling to the floor.

Attempts to dilute the acid are subject to errors in measuring both the acid and the diluting water. It is much better to use the acid undiluted as it comes from the containers in which it is shipped. If the acid is too concentrated for the solution feeder to handle, then weaker solutions of other compounds are generally indicated—for instance, saturated solutions of sodium fluoride. CDC strongly recommends against the dilution of acid. If the acid must be diluted, care should be taken to avoid the formation of a precipitate of silica, which will appear despite the quality (hardness) of the water used for dilution. Dilutions between 10:1 and 20:1 (water: acid) are where insoluble silica precipitates are most likely to occur. Softening the water will not prevent this precipitation.

Optimal Fluoride Levels

In 1962, based on scientific studies showing that fluoride reduces tooth decay, the U.S. Public Health Service recommended the amount of fluoride in drinking water range from 0.7 to 1.2 milligrams per liter. Scientists set the range by taking into account different levels of children's fluid intake according to the average annual temperature in different regions of the US—less fluoride was added in warmer, southern climates where it was believed that people drank more water, and more was added in cooler, northern climates where it was believed that people drank less. Over the past several decades, many factors, including the advent of air conditioning, have reduced geographical differences in water intake.

In September 2010, the Department of Health and Human Services convened a panel of scientists from across the U.S. government to review new information related to fluoride intake and to develop new recommendations for community water fluoridation. The scientists reviewed the best available information on: the prevalence and trends in dental caries, water intake in children in relation to outdoor air temperature, changes in the percentage of U.S. children and adults with dental fluorosis, and the EPA new assessments of cumulative sources of fluoride exposure and risks of children developing severe dental fluorosis. This new information led HHS to propose changing the recommended level for community water systems to 0.7 milligrams per liter.

§64-3-8. Public Water System Fluoridation.

8.1. Average concentrations of fluoride present in the drinking water of a public water system which artificially adjusts fluoride levels shall be no less than 0.6 milligrams per liter and no higher than 0.8 milligrams per liter. The optimum level for artificially adjusted fluoride is 0.7 milligrams per liter.

8.2. Public water systems that plan to make long term changes in the method being used to artificially adjust fluoride levels, such as a change in the chemical composition or the dosage rate, shall notify the Commissioner prior to implementing the proposed change. The commissioner shall approve the change in writing before the public water system may begin implementation of the changes.

8.3. The drinking water of artificially adjusted fluoridated or defluoridated public water systems shall be monitored once each day for fluoride concentration. Records of the monitoring shall be maintained in accordance with Sections 9 and 10 of this rule.

8.4. At least once a month, any public water system that artificially adjusts the fluoride concentrations shall submit a sample of drinking water to the Commissioner or to a certified laboratory for fluoride analysis.

FLUORIDATION FEED SYSTEMS

Fluoride must be fed into the water supply system in liquid form or as a solution. This is true for both dry chemical feeders and solution feeders. Fluorides can be fed into a water supply in the following ways:

- **Dry Chemical Feeds** - The amount of dry chemical compound (usually sodium fluorosilicate) can be measured with a machine, then added to a mixing tank (solution tank) where it is thoroughly mixed and then delivered to the main flow of water, either by gravity or using a solution pump.
- **Acid Feed** - A small pump can be used to add solutions of fluorosilicic acid directly to the water supply system. This method can utilize the acid as delivered.
- **Saturated Solution Feed** - Saturated solutions of sodium fluoride in constant strengths of 4% can be produced in a saturator tank at almost any temperature of water encountered in the usual water plant. This saturated solution can be pumped with a small solution feeder directly into the main flow of water of a water supply system. This use of these devices eliminates the need for weighting sodium fluoride and stirring to ensure dissolving.
- **Unsaturated Solution Feed** - Unsaturated solutions of sodium fluorosilicate or sodium fluoride may be prepared by weighing amounts of the compounds, measuring quantities of water, and thoroughly mixing them together. This method of feeding fluorides is not very desirable and should be avoided.

Types of Equipment

Devices for feeding fluorides accurately have generally been adapted from those machines originally designed for feeding a variety of liquid or solid chemicals in water treatment and industrial plants. In many cases, the equipment is the same.

Fluoride chemicals are always added to a water supply as liquids, but they may be measured in either liquid or solid form. The solid form of fluorides must be dissolved into a solution before entering the water supply system. Chemical feeders can therefore be broadly divided into two types: (1) Metering pumps, which are essentially small pumps used to feed a measured quantity of liquid fluoride solution during a specific time; and (2) dry feeders, which deliver a predetermined quantity of the solid material during a given time interval. The term “metering pump” is used in this manual for the terms “solution pump,” “feed pump,” and “solution feeder.”

The choice of a feeder depends on the fluoride chemical used and the amount to be fed. The rate of feed will depend on the desired fluoride content of the treated water, the amount of water to be treated after passing a given point, and the fluoride content of the untreated water. In general, metering pumps (with acid or with saturators) are used for smaller water supply systems and dry feeders for larger systems. There is a wide range within which either type would be equally successful.

Metering Pumps

For feeding fluoride solutions, almost any type of metering pump that is used for feeding other water treatment chemicals can be used with, at most, only minor modification in construction details. If there is, indeed, any requirements for a fluoride metering pump that distinguishes it from metering pumps for other purposes, it is the accuracy and constancy of delivery. The

optimal fluoride level has been prescribed between very narrow limits and thus requires that fluoride be added in precise proportion to the quantity of water being treated. This requirement favors the positive displacement type of metering pump.

Most metering come equipped with plastic heads and resilient check valves, which are generally satisfactory for discharge pressures up to 150 psi. For higher pressures, corrosion-resistant alloys such as 316 stainless steel or Carpenter 20 alloy are required for metering pump head construction. The type of plastic the metering pump heads should be made of depends upon the fluoride chemical used. Acrylic, polypropylene, and PVC heads can be used for fluorosilicic acid as well as for sodium fluoride and sodium fluorosilicate. In addition, Kynar, Ryton, and Tril heads can be used with sodium fluoride and sodium fluorosilicate. Metering pump heads of stainless steel 316, as well as 20 series stainless steel alloys, can be used with all three fluoride chemicals.

The check valves can be made of ceramic, Teflon, or 316 stainless steel. If fluorosilicic acid is used, then the check balls and spring must be coated with Teflon or its equivalent. Note, do not use ceramic check balls, if fluorosilicic acid is used! The acrylic head is one of the most popular heads on metering pumps used in water fluoridation.

Diaphragm Metering Pumps

The diaphragm pump is by far the most common type of metering pump used in fluoridation. A flexible diaphragm is driven to alternately force solution out of a chamber, and on the return stroke, the diaphragm refills the chamber by pulling solution from a reservoir. In a typical diaphragm pump there is no chemical packing that would result in leaking through a packing gland. Typically, a diaphragm is made of hypalon, Teflon, polyurethane, or viton.

Diaphragm pumps are ideally suited for medium-pressure service-up to about 150 psi. They should not be used against pressure less than about 15 psi and never against a vacuum, such as that obtained in the suction side of a well pump. A constant positive pressure on the discharge is a guarantee of their continued accuracy. Some metering pumps are equipped with spring-or rubber-loaded discharge valves that assure the maintenance of such positive pressures. Negative suction heads should not exceed 4 feet. In other words, the metering pumps should be no more than 4 feet above the solution container.

Saturators

The saturator is a type of chemical feed equipment unique to fluoridation. The principle of a saturator is that a saturated fluoride solution will result if water is allowed to trickle through a bed containing a large amount of sodium fluoride. A small pump then delivers the solution of sodium fluoride into the water supply system. Saturated solutions of sodium fluoride can be manually prepared and is sometimes preferred.

Upflow Saturators

In an upflow saturator, the layer of sand and gravel is eliminated, and the bed of undissolved sodium fluoride is placed on the bottom of the tank. A spider type water distributor located at the bottom of the tank contains hundreds of very small slits. Water, forced under pressure through these slits, flows upward through the sodium fluoride bed at a controlled rate to assure the desired 4% solution. The metering pump intake line floats on top of the solution in order to

avoid withdrawal of undissolved sodium fluoride. The water pressure requirements are 20 psi minimum to 125 psi maximum, and the upward flow must not exceed 2 gpm. Since introduction of water to the bottom of the saturator constitutes a definite cross-connection, a mechanical siphon-breaker must be incorporated into the water line. Also, a minimum of 12 inches of sodium fluoride must be kept in the bottom of the tank.

Liquid Level Switches

Liquid level switches, or controllers, are used to automatically maintain preset (fluoride) liquid levels in sodium fluoride saturators. In rare instances, they are used with fluorosilicic acid tanks when these are filled from a bulk storage tank or used with dry feeder solution tanks. The switches keep the tanks from going dry or overflowing, and may also be used to prevent a metering pump from running dry. The switch may be of the manual (lower cost) or electrical (higher cost) type.

Softeners

When fluoridation system uses a sodium fluoride solution (primarily a saturator), remember that while sodium fluoride is quite soluble, the fluorides of calcium and magnesium are not. Thus, the fluoride ions in solution will combine with calcium and magnesium ions in the make-up water and form a precipitate, which can clog the metering pump, the injection point, the metering pumps suction line, the saturator bed, etc. The water pressure to the softener should be checked. Most manufacturers recommend operation between 20 psi and 100 psi. For this reason, water used for sodium fluoride saturators should be softened whenever the total hardness exceeds 50 ppm, or even less if the amount of labor involved in clearing stoppages or removing scale is objectionable. Remember-the entire water supply need not be softened-only the water used for solution preparation (the make-up water).

Two types of softening treatment are available: ion exchange and the use of polyphosphates (calgon, micromet, etc.). The ion exchange method removes all hardness. Polyphosphates are used for sequestering (keeping in solution) calcium and magnesium and other hardness elements. The polyphosphate may be added directly into the solution tank, or in some cases, a metering pump will be required.

Dry Feeders

Dry chemical feeders deliver a predetermined quantity of fluoride chemical in a given time interval. The two types of dry feeders are volumetric and gravimetric. The volumetric dry feeder delivers a measured volume of dry fluoride chemical per unit of time and the gravimetric dry feeders deliver a measured weight of chemical per unit of time. In fluoridation, dry feeders are used to feed sodium fluorosilicate almost exclusively. Very few water supply systems use sodium fluoride with dry feeders because the high cost of this chemical usually dictates the use of sodium fluorosilicate.

Volumetric Feeders

Volumetric feeders essentially consist of a combination of a driving mechanism for delivering a constant volume of dry compound, a hopper for holding the compounds, and a chamber for dissolving the compound before discharge into the water supply.

The chemical delivery mechanism distinguishes one type of volumetric feeder from another. Almost every manufacturer has a different design for feeding chemicals volumetrically and can be classified according to several types: rotating disk, oscillating pan, vibratory pan, rotating screw, rotating roller, star wheel, and combination of these types. More information about these types of feeders may be found in the Class I Water Operator Course Manual or the CDC Water Fluoridation: A Manual for Water Plant Operators.

Gravimetric Feeders

Gravimetric feeders discharge chemicals at a constant weight rather than at a constant volume during a given period of time. There are two general types of gravimetric dry feeders—those based on loss-in-weight of the feeder and those which are based on the weight of material on a section of a moving belt. Many gravimetric dry feeders also incorporate some of the features of volumetric feeders, in that they have rotary feed mechanism between the hopper and the weighing section, or use a mechanical vibrator to move chemicals out of the hopper. Since, ultimately, it is the weight of material per unit of time that is measured and regulated, such variables as material density or consistency have no effect on feed rate. This accounts for the extreme accuracy of which these feeders are capable.

Calibration of Dry Feeders

The rate of feed of a dry chemical feeder can be varied by adjusting the controls according to a scale. The numbers on the scale have no particular units and cannot be converted to ppm or mg/L until a calibration chart or curve has been prepared. A separate calibration chart is required for each machine and for each chemical fed by the machine. If it is possible to operate your water plant at more than one rate, then you must also have different calibration charts for each plant rate.

To calibrate a dry feeder, fill the hopper to the normal depth with the chemical to be fed. Be sure the chemical is dry, free-flowing, and contains no lumps. Set the machine adjustment on a low number—certainly lower than the normal operation. Allow the machine to run for a few minutes so that it feeds uniformly. Use a pan or cardboard box (which has been weighed empty), to catch the total discharge of chemical from the feeder for several minutes (say 5 minutes). Weigh the chemical on the laboratory balance (in grams) and record on a chart. Repeat the same operation for other scale settings on the machine—usually four or five different settings. Be sure to cover the full range at which the feeder will be operated. Post the calibration curves near the machine (be sure to label each curve for the right machine) so that they can be used without mistakes or loss of time.

The feed rate of a given machine, when operating at a given setting, will vary depending on machine wear, humidity, variation in texture of the chemical being fed, etc.; therefore, **a calibration curve should not be used over an extended period without verifying the accuracy of the curve.**

Fluoride Injection Point

The first consideration in selecting the fluoride injection point is that it must be a point through which all the water to be treated passes. In a water plant, this can be in a channel where the other water treatment chemicals are added, in a main coming from the filter, or in the clear well. If there is a combination of facilities, such as a treatment plant for surface water plus supplemental

wells, it must be at a point where all water from all sources passes. If there is no such common point, it means that separate fluoride feeding installations will have to be made for each water facility.

Another consideration in selecting a fluoride injection point is the question of fluoride losses in filters. Whenever possible, fluoride should be added after filtration to avoid the substantial losses that can occur, particularly with heavy alum doses or when magnesium is present and the lime-soda ash softening process is being used. There can be up to a 30% loss if the alum dosage rate is 100 ppm of alum. On rare occasions, it may be necessary to add fluoride before filtration, such as in the case where the clearwell is inaccessible or so far away from the plant that moving chemicals would not be economical, or to avoid a second separate injection point.

When other chemicals are being fed, the question of chemical compatibility must be considered. If any of these other chemicals contain calcium, the fluoride injection point should be as far away as possible in order to minimize loss of fluoride by precipitation. For example, lime (for pH control) is being added to the main leading from the filters, fluoride can be added to the same main but at another point, or it can be added to the clearwell. If the lime is being added to the clearwell, the fluoride should be added to the opposite side. If it is not possible to separate injection points, an in-line mixer must be used. If post-lime is added in treatment, it is preferable to use a sodium fluoride make-up water line before the lime is added.

In a single well system, the fluoride injection point will be in the discharge line of a pump. If there is more than one pump, it can be in the line leading to the elevated tank or other storage facility. In the surface water treatment plant and the water softening plant, the ideal location of the fluoride injection point is in the line from the rapid sand filters to the clearwell. This will provide maximum mixing. Sometimes the clearwell is located directly below the rapid sand filter, and discharging any chemicals directly to the clearwell is difficult.

At the fluoride injection point, the location of the chemical line should be 45° from the bottom of the pipe and protrude 1/3 of the pipe diameter into the pipe. This will allow better mixing without sediments collecting around the injection point. The fluoride injection point should never be located at the top of the line because of the air binding problems. A valve, injection nozzle, or corporation stop should be part of the installation. It is strongly recommended that an anti-siphon device always be included.

Equipment Installation

Fluoridation installation should be considered during the design stage. The decisions made during the design phase will greatly affect the installation. The best installation is one that incorporates as many of these factors as possible:

1. Simple, accurate feeding equipment
2. Minimum chemical handling
3. Consistent with the above two factors, the lowest overall cost based on amortization of equipment and cost of chemical
4. Ease in collecting reliable records
5. Minimum maintenance of feeder, piping, and injector equipment

A thorough knowledge of the types of equipment available is a must in order to determine the best installation.

Fluorosilicic Acid Installation

The simplest and easiest fluoridation installation is an acid feed system with a single well. The typical installation would include a carboy of acid (or drum), small metering pump, and scales. The carboy (or drum) should be vented to the outside and sealed around the pump intake line and vent line. If the room where the fluoride equipment is located is exposed to strong direct sunlight, the tubing pigment should be black. The black color screens out the ultraviolet rays, which can cause cracking of the translucent tubing.

The metering pump should be located on a shelf not more than 4 feet above the carboy or solution container, if possible. Note: Many manufacturers recommend that the pump be located so that it has a flooded suction line (low). This is not recommended in fluoridation. The suction line should be as short and straight as possible, there should be a foot-valve and strainer at the bottom and, if necessary, a weight to hold it down. The discharge line from the metering pump should be as short and straight as possible. Avoid sharp curves or loops in the line. Injecting solution into the top of a pipe should be avoided, since air collects there and can work its way into the metering pump check valve or the discharge line and cause air-binding. It is recommended that an anti-siphon valve be installed at the injection point. Many metering pumps come equipped with, or have available as an accessory, an anti-siphon discharge valve. This may be mounted directly on the pump head. If solution is to be fed into an open channel or a low-pressure pipeline, a "loaded" discharge valve should be used. This is a spring-loaded check or diaphragm valve, which will not open until the pump discharge pressure exceeds a certain fixed valve. A common setting is about 15 psi.

The installation of an acid feed system in a larger water plant that uses bulk storage is similar to the simple well installation with some exceptions. A day tank is necessary instead of a carboy. Under normal operating conditions, the day tank should not contain over a 2 days' supply of acid. The day tank must also be sealed around the outer lip of the container, the vent hole, the pump suction line opening, and the fill pipe entrance. There should be flexible connections in the bulk storage line and in the pump suction line (if it is not flexible tubing). This is to prevent inaccurate reading on the scales. The vent line should go from the day tank to the bulk storage tank (near the top), instead of just to an outside wall. The metering pump should discharge the acid into the line going into a clearwell. If the discharge is directly into the clearwell, the anti-siphon device is still needed at this discharge point. The bulk storage tank must be vented on top and should be surrounded by a containment wall in case of spills. The acid will freeze if exposed to sustained temperatures at or below 4° F.

Sodium Fluoride Installation (Saturators)

The sodium fluoride saturator is a very simple fluoridation system. It requires only a little more space and piping than the straight acid feed. Many of the same comments made on the acid feed installations apply to the saturator installations. The metering pump should be located not more than 4 feet over the low saturated water line in the saturator. The suction line should be as short as possible. The metering pump should be equipped with an anti-siphon valve. There also should be an anti-siphon valve at the fluoride injection point if the fluoride solution is injected into the water main.

The fluoride saturator does not need to be sealed as tightly as the acid carboy. Saturator systems should have a water meter and, if necessary, a water softener. The feed water line should contain a Y-strainer and sufficient unions to allow easy removal of piping. When mounting a metering pump on a shelf or platform above the saturator, it is advisable to offset it sufficiently to permit access to the container for filling and cleaning. Mounting the metering pump on the lid of the saturator is not recommended.

A saturator should never be pushed to its design capacity limit for any length of time. When a saturator's capacity is approached, then another method of fluoridation should be considered, such as the use of fluorosilicic acid. The upflow saturator installation is very similar to the downflow saturator installation, with some exceptions. If a liquid switch is used, CDC recommends that there be a solenoid valve and a vacuum breaker be installed. The vacuum breaker must be between the solenoid valve and the water inlet. Also, CDC recommends that a flow restrictor with a maximum flow of 2 gallons per minute be installed to allow adequate contact time. (Note: Many states allow flow restrictors of up to 4 gpm.) There must be a minimum water pressure in the inlet line of 20 psi.

The recommendation for a different kind of metering pump plug, with sign, to prevent connecting the metering pump into a "hot" electrical outlet is especially important with an upflow saturator installation. This is because a solenoid valve requires the "hot" electrical connection, and, it thus becomes easy to make a mistake.

Sodium Fluorosilicate Installation (Dry Feeders)

Only the installation on the volumetric dry feeder will be discussed because it is the most typical one used. The gravimetric feeder installation would be, in essence, the same. When installing a dry feeder, placement should be so that the solution from the solution tank can fall directly into the chemical feed channel, if possible. If other considerations dictate that the feeder be placed some distance from the point of application, the drain line should be as direct as possible, with adequate slope and sufficient size to preclude precipitation build-ups and subsequent stoppages.

Obviously, the dry feeder installation must be on a firm, level foundation if the scales are expected to perform satisfactorily. If there is a small hopper on the feeder, it must be readily accessible for filling, and if an extension hopper is used, it should extend vertically upward to the filling area, without angles that could trap material. For the water supply line to a volumetric feeder, there must be a section of flexible hose between the solution tank and the water pipe to permit free movement of the feeder and scald platform.

The water supply line to a dry feeder must be equipped with an air-gap or mechanical vacuum-breaker, or some other type of anti-siphon device. The air gap is the most positive protection against the dangers of a cross-connection. If water pressure is too high to permit the use of an air gap, one of the other devices may be used, but in any case, the vacuum breaker must be placed between the point of entry to the solution tank and any restrictive device in the pipeline, and must be installed in an elevated location.

Chemical Storage and Handling

A number of criteria govern the selection of a storage site for fluoridation chemicals: Dry chemicals must be kept dry and convenient to the hopper; preferably they should be isolated from other water treatment chemicals to preclude accidental intermixing; the storage area must be clean and well ventilated, and should be equipped with running water and a floor drain for ease in cleaning up spills.

Dry fluoride compounds, i.e., sodium fluoride and sodium fluorosilicate, have a tendency to compact or cake when exposed to moisture or when bags are stacked too high. Similar conditions can result from long periods of storage, so an oversupply of chemicals should be avoided. Store dry fluorides on pallets, in stacks preferably not more than six bags high. If fiber drums are used, keep the tops closed to prevent moisture absorption. Do not allow unauthorized personnel, especially small children, in areas where fluoride chemicals are fed or stored.

When fluoride sacks are handled carelessly, or if the bags are emptied too quickly, airborne fluoride dust levels may become dangerously high. Do not toss the bags. When opening the bags, cut an even slit across the top to avoid tearing the sides. Pour the contents of the bags gently into the feed hopper. Do not bellows the empty bag. Good ventilation is absolutely necessary in work areas, even if there is no visible dust production.

The disposal of empty fluoride containers has always been a problem. Do not re-use empty fluoride containers! The temptation to re-use fiber drums is strong, since the drums are convenient and sturdy. Paper bags are dusty and could cause a hazard if they are burned. The best approach is to rinse all empty containers with plenty of water—even the paper bags are strong enough to withstand repeated rinses. After all traces of fluoride are removed, the bags should be disposed of in a proper manner. Check with the solid waste division of your state's Environmental Protection Program for correct advice. Even supposedly well-rinsed drums should never be used where traces of fluoride could present a hazard. If possible, the storage area should be kept locked and not be used for any other purpose. Workers should particularly be warned against eating in a fluoride storage area.

Fluorosilicic acid presents particular storage problems, for the vapors are corrosive and will even etch glass. Containers must be kept tightly closed and vented to the outdoors. Large quantities of acid can be stored in underground or enclosed tanks equipped with outside vents. The 30% acid has a freezing point at 4° F. The 100% acid will freeze at -4° F. Do not store fluorosilicic acid containers in the hot sun where the containers can build hydrostatic pressure, or in open areas subject to winter freezing.

When fluorosilicic acid is purchased in bulk, tanks are necessary for storage. Bulk storage tanks can be made of fiberglass (coated with epoxy resin), polyethylene, or rubber-lined steel. The polyethylene should be manufactured from high density cross-linked material (cross-linked provides strength). The plastic should contain a minimum of 0.25% ultraviolet stabilizer to protect against sun light. The polyethylene storage tanks are still relatively new—so the longevity of the tank is yet to be determined. Fiberglass and rubber-lined steel tanks are used about equally for bulk storage of fluorosilicic acid. Fiberglass tanks usually will last about 7-10 years. Several years ago, fiberglass tanks were the most popular; then, the steel tanks became the most popular; now, the polyethylene bulk storage tanks are the most frequently purchased. The steel tanks are always lined with rubber. Most linings are made of natural rubber but can be made of

neoprene or butyl rubber. Butyl rubber is best, however, it's the most expensive. The steel-rubber-lined tanks will last about 20 years.

Safety

While fluoride is an extremely safe compound at the 1 ppm level found in water supplies, the operator may be exposed to much higher levels by handling the chemicals. Therefore the use of safety equipment is strongly recommended when handling fluoride compounds or performing maintenance.

Always wear protective safety gear when handling fluoride chemicals. The following is a list of protective clothing and equipment, which is the minimum recommended for each fluoride chemical. Protective clothing should always be worn whenever sodium fluoride/sodium fluorosilicate is handled and should be stored near the entrance to the area where the sodium fluoride is stored and used. This clothing should not be worn into other parts of the water plant to avoid spreading sodium fluoride dust. Handle bags of sodium fluoride/sodium fluorosilicate carefully. Wash your hands immediately after handling sodium fluoride, the fluoridation equipment, or your protective clothing. Never eat, drink, or smoke in areas where sodium fluoride is stored or used.

FLUORIDE SYSTEM TROUBLESHOOTING

If possible, inspect the equipment in the fluoridation system at least once a day. In the daily inspection, the equipment may be tested to ensure that it cuts on an off properly. At the same time look for signs that the equipment is not operating normally.

A sign that fluoridation equipment is not operating normally may be that there is an unusual sound or a change in a normal sound; an unusual odor or a normal odor that is stronger than usual; more heat than normal given off by any part of the equipment; and/or unusual vibrations, leaks, drips, or puddles.

To recognize these signs of trouble, the operator must know what the equipment is like when it is operating normally. Once the operator knows this, he/she will probably be quick to notice a change in it. Whenever anything seems different-no matter how small a change it may be-pay attention. Don't think that it will go away. Look for the cause. It may be a sign that something is wrong with the equipment.

The instructions that come with the fluoridation equipment may give information on troubleshooting, that is, finding out what has gone wrong. Some manufacturers have excellent troubleshooting charts, but they may not cover an entire fluoridation system. Also, the state water supply program is a good source for additional information on troubleshooting. The state engineers know a lot about what is likely to go wrong in a system like yours. They should be able to give good practical advice on how to find the cause of malfunctions.

The problems commonly encountered in the operation of a fluoridation system are related to low, high, or variable fluoride readings. Although slight over- or under-feeding fluoride for short periods actually is of no serious consequences, such variations should be investigated, since they may be indications of potential problems of a more serious nature.

When the fluoride concentration determined by analysis is consistently lower than that determined by calculation, a number of problems may be interference in the laboratory test procedure. If alum is used for flocculation, traces of aluminum in the finished water can interfere with colorimetric analysis by influencing the readings negatively. A high iron content can also cause low readings if the SPADNS method is used. In rare cases, chloride and alkalinity can also interfere, but their concentrations have to be extremely high.

A common cause of low readings is underdosing due to inadequate chemical depth in a saturator or incomplete mixing in a dissolving tank. Deposits of undissolved chemical in the dissolving tank of a dry feeder indicate incomplete mixing. This can be due to inadequate baffling or inadequate makeup-water flow rate. As the fluoride is dissolved, a high reading may result. Also, adding 100 pounds of sodium fluoride to a saturator at one time will result in a temporary higher fluoride concentration. Thus, it is better to add 50 pounds at a time.

Low chemical purity is another possible cause of low fluoride readings. Fluorosilicic acid has the most available purity and can be anywhere from 20 to 30% pure. The manufacturer usually specifies the purity of a given batch, but if there is some doubt, the acid should be analyzed according to directions given in the AWWA Standards. Sodium fluoride and sodium

fluorosilicate usually exhibit less variation in purity, but occasionally a relatively impure lot is produced.

If the fluoride level is low in a sample taken from the distribution system, it may be advisable to check for unfluoridated water entering at some point in the distribution system and diluting the water fluoridated at the plant.

If laboratory testing indicates a fluoride concentration consistently higher than that determined by calculation, several problems may be indicated. Polyphosphates can cause analytical error in the positive direction when using the SPADNS method. This type of error can be checked by using the electrode method or comparing results with the local or state health departments. Failure to eliminate chlorine from the water sample can also lead to high results in colorimetric analysis.

Failure to take into account the natural fluoride content of the raw water can result in adding more fluoride than is needed; surface supplies, which can show considerable variability, should be analyzed daily so that the correct dosage can be calculated. If the water supply comes from wells, the variability is much less, but in the case of a higher-than-calculated fluoride concentration, the possibility of a contribution from a high-fluoride well should be investigated.

The most difficult type of problem to solve is that of variable fluoride concentration when calculations show that the fluoride feed rate is of the required proportion. One possibility, however, that can be checked is the fluoride feeder. Verifications of the delivery rate with weight measurements at short intervals will reveal whether the feeder delivery rate is constant.

Almost all of the factors that can produce consistently low or high fluoride analyses can also produce variable errors if the analytical interference, chemical purity, raw water fluoride, or completeness of chemical solution is variable. In the last case, undissolved sodium fluorosilicate can eventually go into solution after a quantity of undissolved material accumulates at some point, and a solution feeder can begin drawing from a concentrated stratum after feeding from a dilute stratum in an improperly mixed solution tank.

One of the causes of varying fluoride content in a treated water system is the intermittent intrusion of unfluoridated water into the system. This situation usually occurs when fluoridation measures are instituted and no attempt has been made to fluoridate the reservoir separately. When no water is being pumped or the pumping rate is less than the demand, water flows into the system from the reservoir and, since this water has not yet been fluoridated, low fluoride readings will result, particularly at the sampling points nearest the reservoir. Eventually, with flow pattern reversals as the pumps operate intermittently, the reservoir contents will become displaced by fluoridated water. However, there have been cases involving large reservoirs, located at the end of a water system, where it has taken years before there was a complete turnover of the reservoir contents. The obvious solution to this type of problem is to fluoridate the reservoir separately at the time fluoridation of the system begins, if possible.

A similar situation occurs when an elevated tank or other storage facility merely rides on the system, and its contents rarely enter the system or at best there is only a slight intermixing. Sampling points near the tank will have varying fluoride concentrations-normal during pumping

and low when water is being drawn from the tank. The solution is to allow the tank contents to drain into the system before fluoridation begins and then not refill the tank until the entire system is up to the optimal fluoride level.

Cyclic fluoride levels can result when the feeder is operated intermittently, such as when capacity is reduced by the use of a cycle timer and when there is insufficient storage capacity between the feeder and the consumers. Detention time in mains or a storage facility between the feed point and the first consumer are important factors in providing homogeneous fluoridated water.

There are undoubtedly many other possible causes for fluoride levels below optimum, but it is certain that fluoride does not disappear in the pipelines, nor is it likely that fluoride will concentrate at points or become leached out of incrustations in the mains. Unlike chlorine, fluoride does not have the ability to dissipate and, even though trace amounts are incorporated into tubercles in pipelines, the extreme insolubility of these formations prevents subsequent dissolution. When there is an unexplained difference between the calculated and observed fluoride concentrations, the calculations are usually at fault. If calculations prove to be accurate and none of the previous possibilities apply or can be eliminated, common sense and knowledge of the individual system should enable the operator to locate and correct the cause of the trouble.

EMERGENCY PROCEDURES FOR FLUORIDE OVERFEED

RECOMMENDED ACTIONS

IF THE FLUORIDE CONTENT (mg/L) IS:	THEN, PERFORM THE FOLLOWING RECOMMENDED ACTIONS:
0.5 above the optimum to 2.0	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leave the fluoridation system on. 2. Determine what has malfunctioned and repair it.
2.0 to 4.0	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leave the fluoridation system on. 2. Determine what has malfunctioned and repair it. 3. Notify your supervisor Name/Phone _____ / _____ and report the incident to the appropriate county or state agencies. Name/Phone _____ / _____
4.0 to 10.0	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determine what has malfunctioned and repair it. 2. If the problem is not found and corrected quickly, turn off the fluoridation system. 3. Notify your supervisor Name/Phone _____ / _____ and report the incident to the appropriate county or state agencies. Name/Phone _____ / _____ 4. Take water samples at several points in the distribution system and test the fluoride content. (Save the part of the water samples not used.) 5. Determine what has malfunctioned and repair it. Then, with supervisor's permission, restart the fluoridation system.
10.0 or higher	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Turn off the fluoridation system immediately. 2. Notify your supervisor Name/Phone _____ / _____ and report the incident to the appropriate county or state agencies. Name/Phone _____ / _____ and follow their instructions. 3. Take water samples at several points in the distribution system and test the fluoride content. Save the part of the sample for the state lab to test. 4. Determine what has malfunctioned and repair it. Then, with supervisor's permission, restart the fluoridation system.

CORROSION CONTROL

Corrosivity can be defined as the tendency of water to dissolve metal. It can affect metal structures and equipment, such as pipes, valves and pumps parts. Water that has a strong tendency to do this is said to be highly corrosive, water that does not do so readily is said to be weakly corrosive or non-corrosive. Highly corrosive water (water having high corrosivity) poses both a health hazard and an economic burden. Undesirable metals dissolved by corrosive water may be detrimental to health. An example of this is lead and/or copper dissolved in water as a result of the corrosive action on copper pipes and lead-based solder. If corrosion goes unchecked metal pipes and equipment will be severely damaged or destroyed. Replacement of corrosion damaged material and equipment can be very costly.

Corrosion is an extremely complex phenomenon. Corrosion is affected by five water quality parameters; pH, hardness, alkalinity, temperature, and **total dissolved solids (TDS)**. Of these, pH has the greatest influence. Generally, the lower the pH the more corrosive the water will be. The presence of hardness and alkalinity tends to lessen the corrosivity, so water with higher hardness and alkalinity are usually less corrosive than water with lower hardness and alkalinity. TDS and temperature are less important, but an increase of either one tends to increase corrosivity.

As a general rule, surface water sources are more corrosive than groundwater sources. This is due to the fact that most surface water sources have low pH, low hardness, low alkalinity, and low TDS, whereas groundwater tends to be just the opposite; higher pH, higher hardness, higher alkalinity and higher TDS.

Since pH has the greatest impact, corrosivity can be controlled by the addition of chemicals to raise the pH. As it happens, the most common chemicals used to raise pH (lime and soda ash) also increase hardness and alkalinity, which help reduce corrosivity.

Corrosivity is considered a secondary contaminant with a SMCL of noncorrosive. The **Langelier Saturation Index (LSI)**, which takes into consideration pH, total dissolved solids, hardness, alkalinity, and temperature, is commonly used to determine if water is corrosive or not. The analytical lab doing your water tests can determine your LSI.

There are two strategies to reduce or control the corrosivity of water; adjustment of the chemical characteristics of the water (primarily, pH control), known as precipitation, and covering the surface of pipes with a protective coating, known as passivation.

Galvanic Corrosion

Whenever two dissimilar metals come in contact and are submerged in water, an electric current is generated. This type of reaction occurs in most storage batteries. It also occurs in a water system where different kinds of metal components are used, such as meter installations and service connections and couplings.

When these conditions exist, the electric current that is generated will pass from one metal surface to the other. Metal from one side of the connection will be plated onto the other side. This will eventually cause a piping failure as the threads of one side are plated on the other.

Electrolysis

When D.C. electric current enters a metal pipe, it runs down the pipe and, at some point, discharges into the ground. The passage of this current from the pipe into the ground will cause metal in the pipe to be plated into the surrounding soil. This type of corrosion is known as electrolysis. Any D.C. current machinery or telemetry equipment that is grounded to water lines will cause electrolysis. However, A.C. current, such as household current, can be grounded to water lines without causing electrolysis since alternating current will not plate the metal into the soil. The use of plastic pipe will eliminate electrolysis problems since plastic is a non-conductor.

Corrosive Soil

Metal pipe that is laid in highly acid soils may also encounter serious corrosion problems from the outside as well as the inside. If cast iron or ductile iron pipe is to be laid in corrosive soil it should be coated with tar or other protective coating to prevent it from being damaged.

pH Control

Of the five factors that affect corrosivity, pH is the most significant. Low pH contributes to the corrosivity of water. So raising the pH will reduce corrosivity. There are a number of pH increase treatment options available to small systems to increase pH.

Aeration

Some waters may have excess dissolved carbon dioxide (CO_2). This is most likely to happen in slow moving streams or lakes when metabolic activity releases CO_2 and the lack of turbulence allows the dissolved CO_2 to buildup. A buildup of CO_2 results in a low pH because of the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ equilibrium. An increase in CO_2 increases the carbonic acid (H_2CO_3), thus lowering the pH. If CO_2 is removed the process is reversed. CO_2 is most prevalent in groundwater although it can occur in surface water under ice cover. The aeration process, as described in Section 4.6b, scrubs the CO_2 from the water. The result is a higher pH and a decrease in corrosivity.

Limestone Contactors

A limestone contactor, sometimes called a neutralizing filter, can be used to raise the pH of water. Limestone is calcium carbonate (CaCO_3). As low pH water passes through the contactor it dissolves the CaCO_3 . Through a chemical reaction, similar to the $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ resulting in a higher pH and a decrease in corrosivity. A limestone contactor is an inline canister device that is convenient for small system applications. A possible drawback with the use of a limestone contactor is that calcium ions are also released into the water which increases hardness.

Soda Ash (Na_2CO_3) can also be used to raise the pH. The chemistry is similar to the use of and causes a higher pH and a decrease in corrosivity results. Soda ash is normally fed into the water system as a solution using a liquid chemical feed pump. The feed equipment is almost the same as that used to feed sodium or calcium hypochlorite.

Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH), commonly called caustic soda, is readily soluble in water and a very strong base. It can be used to raise pH in water systems, but it is extremely corrosive and can be very dangerous if mishandled. It is critical that workers who handle NaOH be well trained. Diluted NaOH is normally fed into the water system using a liquid chemical feed pump. The feed equipment is almost the same as that used to feed sodium or calcium hypochlorite.

Chemical Coatings prevent contact between the metal pipe surface and the corrosive water, providing a barrier to corrosion reactions. Corrosion can be inhibited by adding chemicals to the water that adhere directly to the pipe surface or in combination with naturally-occurring constituents in the water form films or coatings on the pipe surface.

Phosphates and Silicates are frequently used by small systems to form protective films on pipe surfaces. The protective coating prohibits the corrosive water from contacting the metal pipe. Sodium silicate and phosphate must be continuously added to the systems to be effective.

Carbonate Precipitates When calcium and magnesium carbonates precipitate they can form a protective coating on the inside of water pipe. Whether or not the carbonates will precipitate depends on the pH and amount of alkalinity and hardness present in the water. If they all are relatively high, precipitation is enhanced. Consequently, when limestone (CaCO_3) and soda ash (Na_2CO_3) are used to raise the pH there is a side benefit of the protective carbonate coating. In fact, some corrosion control strategies increase pH, alkalinity and hardness

LANGELIER SATURATION INDEX

The LSI is one of several tools used by water operators for stabilizing water to control both internal corrosion and the deposition of scale. The LSI is an equilibrium model derived from the theoretical concept of saturation and provides an indicator of the degree of saturation of water with respect to calcium carbonate. It can be shown that the LSI approximates the base 10 logarithm of the calcium saturation level. The Langelier saturation level approaches the concept of saturation using pH as a main variable. The LSI can be interpreted as the pH change required to bring water to equilibrium.

Water with a Langelier saturation index of 1.0 is one pH unit above saturation. Reducing the pH by 1 unit will bring the water into equilibrium. This occurs because the portion of total alkalinity present as CO_3^{2-} decreases as the pH decreases, according to the equilibria describing the dissociation of carbonic acid:

- If LSI is negative, then the water is under saturated with calcium carbonate and will tend to be corrosive in the distribution system. There is no potential to scale and the water will dissolve CaCO_3 .
- If LSI is positive, then the water is over saturated with calcium carbonate and will tend to deposit calcium carbonate. Scale can form and CaCO_3 precipitation may occur in the distribution system.
- If LSI is close to zero: then the water is just saturated with calcium carbonate and will neither be strongly corrosive or scale forming. Water quality or changes in temperature, or evaporation could change the index.

The LSI is probably the most widely used indicator of cooling water scale potential. It is purely an equilibrium index and deals only with the thermodynamic driving force for calcium carbonate scale formation and growth. It provides no indication of how much scale or calcium carbonate will actually precipitate to bring water to equilibrium.

The LSI is an approximate indicator of the degree of saturation of calcium carbonate in water. It is calculated using the pH, alkalinity, calcium concentration, total dissolved solids, and water temperature of a water sample collected at the tap.

It simply indicates the driving force for scale formation and growth in terms of pH as a master variable. In order to calculate the LSI, it is necessary to know the alkalinity (mg/L as CaCO_3), the calcium hardness (mg/l Ca^{2+} as CaCO_3), the total dissolved solids (mg/L TDS), the actual pH, and the temperature of the water ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). If TDS is unknown, but conductivity is, one can estimate mg/L TDS using a conversion table such as the one presented here. LSI is defined as:

$$\text{LSI} = \text{pH} - \text{pH}_s$$

Where:

pH is the measured water pH

pH_s is the pH at saturation in calcite or calcium carbonate and is defined as:

$$\text{pH}_s = (9.3 + \text{A} + \text{B}) - (\text{C} + \text{D})$$

Where:

$$\text{A} = (\text{Log}_{10} [\text{TDS}] - 1) / 10$$

$$B = -13.12 \times \text{Log}_{10} (^{\circ}\text{C} + 273) + 34.55$$

$$C = \text{Log}_{10} [\text{Ca}^{2+} \text{ as CaCO}_3] - 0.4$$

$$D = \text{Log}_{10} [\text{alkalinity as CaCO}_3]$$

However, there is some controversy concerning the correlation of these indices, and particularly the LSI, with the corrosivity of waters. While some sectors of the water management industry squarely use the indices as a measure of the corrosivity of their waters, more alert specialists are very cautious as to how far one can extrapolate the indices to such usage.

TASTE AND ODOR

Most customers judge the quality of drinking water by taste and odor. If the customer is satisfied with these qualities, it is assumed the water is safe to drink. Many harmful contaminants in water cannot be detected due to taste or smell and many of the contaminants found in drinking water that have a detectable taste or odor are not harmful. Sources of taste and odor problems can be found in surface water and groundwater.

Source water protection involves the prevention of contaminants from entering the source. Surface water or groundwater may become contaminated by pollutants such as gasoline, industrial solvents or a wide variety of volatile organics. The removal of contaminants from surface water or groundwater is costly and may involve the use of aeration, powdered activated carbon, or both.

If taste and odor must be controlled at the treatment plant, oxidation, aeration and adsorption can be effective in reducing taste and odor, and improved coagulation filtration.

Common Odors in Groundwater

Methane gas from the decomposition of organic matter tastes like garlic and the biggest danger from the presence of methane is its explosiveness. It can be removed by aeration.

Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) in water is a common problem that is therefore discussed separately from the other taste and odor problems. The most common method of removing hydrogen sulfide from water is by aeration. Carbon adsorption is also effective, but more expensive.

Common Odors in Surface Water

Most taste and odors in surface water are organic and derived from algae blooms. Algae growths can be influenced by the pollution from domestic waste, run-off from fertilizer, and animal, domestic, and industrial waste.

Algae are simple forms of plant life that exist in relatively clean water, are widely distributed in nature, and usually present in lakes, ponds, and streams. Most are microscopic in size and vary from single cells to filaments, chains or groups of cells. Their presence normally does not constitute a health risk. There are thousands of types of algae species; however, the most common types that cause taste and odors are:

- Cyanophyceae - These types are responsible for most taste and odor complaints. They are blue-green in color and float at or near the surface of a surface source;
- Diatomaceae - These are one-celled plants reproduce by splitting. The cell walls contain green and brown coloring matter. Dead organisms produce a fishy or geranium odor in the spring and fall; and
- Chlorophyceae - These are one-celled green algae that are mostly free floaters which produce a grassy or fishy odor or taste.

Since algae are aquatic plants, they require the same conditions (sunlight and nutrients) as land plants. Algae analysis has shown that as much as ten percent of the weight is nitrogen and that they contain significant amounts of phosphorus. Nitrogen and phosphorus are important components of fertilizers. The amount of run-off from farms and city lots may be the reason that

some bodies of water support heavy algae growths while others do not. Other factors, such as a water surface's size, shape, and depth also influence the growth of different types of algae.

- Protozoa - These microorganisms belong to the simplest form of animal life and some forms have characteristics from both the animal and plant kingdoms. Odors and tastes caused by protozoa have been described as fishy, aromatic, cucumber-like, or muskmelon-like.
- Schizomycetes - These microorganisms, known as iron and sulfur bacteria, cause hydrogen sulfide to be found in water supplies. They include crenothrix and beggiatoa. Most often found in groundwater supplies, they produce an offensive odor of decaying matter.
- Actinomycetes - Closely allied with microscopic plants, actinomycetes are one-celled, filamentous microorganisms occupying a separate group between fungi and bacteria, but more closely associated with the latter. They account for a large part of the microbial population of soils and bottoms of lakes and rivers. Odors associated with this group have been described as earthy or musty.

Most compounds that pollute surface water are organic. These materials can, under certain conditions, cause persistent difficulties even when present in only trace amounts. Many compounds used in industrial operations can cause problems for the operator even at very low levels. Even small concentrations of these compounds can cause problems. In most cases, the consumer will not be able to identify the exact chemical that is causing the problem, but will instead report a specific type of taste, such as medicinal or metallic. Phenols and related compounds are often the source of the medicinal taste.

The taste of phenols is intensified by the addition of chlorine. Refinery waste from a paper mill can cause a distinctive odor. Hydrocarbons from this waste form an oily film on the water; the waste of a paper mill using the sulfite process will have that characteristic paper-mill smell.

Zinc, copper, and other metals produce characteristic taste in water. Wastes from a metal industry can cause taste, but not odor, problems.

Domestic wastewater contains a mixture of organic material. In wastewater treatment, some of these compounds may be partially oxidized and produce an odor. When wastewater effluent chlorinated to control bacteria, it may develop a chlorine odor from the formation of chlor-organic compounds. Domestic wastewater may also contain a relatively high concentration of nitrogen compounds. During stabilization of nitrogen, ammonia is produced which will produce chloramines when combined with chlorine. These compounds have a very persistent swimming-pool odor.

TASTE AND ODOR CONTROL

Oxidation

In most cases, oxidation is the best method for controlling taste and odor problems. Oxidation can be carried out with the following chemicals:

- Potassium permanganate, most often used and is a very strong oxidant, a dosage range of 0.1 to 0.5 mg/L can control taste and odor problems.
- Ozone is also effective oxidizing of taste and odor compounds. Ozone changes the characteristics of the taste and odor in addition to reducing the level of the odor-producing compound. Ozone dosages of 2 to 5 mg/L have been used. Several pilot studies have shown that the combination of ozone and hydrogen peroxide may be superior to the use of ozone alone.
- Chlorine dioxide or chlorine are also effective methods of taste and odor control, but use as a control chemical must be evaluated carefully due to the formation of THMs and chlorophenol when organics are present.

Aeration

Aeration is a practical solution for taste and odor control when the problem is caused by volatile compounds, such as hydrogen sulfide. It is generally not the best method for controlling taste and odors that are caused by algae.

Adsorption

Adding powdered activated carbon to water or using of granular activated carbon (GAC) in the water filter can remove taste and odor. Powdered activated carbon (PAC) is the preferred method when the taste and odor is moderate and infrequent.

Two basic types of PAC feed systems are dry storage and dry feeding. If the hourly feed rate is less than 150 pounds, the feed system should be use a solution tank. If the hourly feed rate exceeds 150 pounds, a slurry system should be considered.

The powdered activated carbon dosage will vary from 1 to 50 mg/L. A dosage of 25 mg/L is considered by many industry experts to be the maximum dosage.

Granular activated carbon filters should be considered when moderate-to-severe taste and odor problems exist frequently. GAC is similar to normal filters; however, the bed contact time is very important. The contact time should range from 3-to-10 minutes for purposes of taste and odor control and the filter rate will range from 3 to 6 gpm/ft². When the GAC is exhausted, the total volume of the bed must be replaced with new or regenerated GAC, which can be created by heating and re-burning used GAC to destroy the material it removed.

HYDROGEN SULFIDE REMOVAL

Aeration

Aeration is both practical and effective in removing hydrogen sulfide if the total level of sulfides is less than 3 to 4 mg/L. It is essential to adjust the pH of the water to a level below 7 prior to aeration. Air-to-water flow ratio should be in the range of 80-100: 1 and hydraulic loading for the tray-type aerator should be 7 - 15 gpm/ft².

Chlorination

Chlorine is often used to oxidize hydrogen sulfide in groundwater. Therefore, 8.3 parts of chlorine are required to oxidize one part of hydrogen sulfide. Factors that affect this reaction are temperature, pH, and reaction time.

Potassium Permanganate

Potassium permanganate is a common oxidant that is often used in water treatment processes. As a result, 6.2 parts of potassium permanganate are required to oxidize one part of hydrogen sulfide. pH of the water plays an important role in the oxidation, with pH 6.5 to 7 being optimal.

TASTE AND ODOR REMOVAL FROM DISTRIBUTION

Taste and odors occurring in the distribution system are primarily the result of corrosion of pipe material and/or growth of iron bacteria, such as crenothrix and leptorix, the water main. If the water has high sulfates and is allowed to stand in dead ends, taste and odor problems may be compounded by sulfate-reducing bacteria.

These problems can be rectified only by proper design of the system, such as eliminating dead ends and providing adequate means of flushing the system. Maintenance crews must keep the water lines clean by regularly flushing out deposits and the microorganisms that accumulate within these deposits.

Water treatment plants can also minimize taste and odor problems by maintaining an adequate residual of chlorine to combat the growth of bacteria in the system and by using anti-corrosion measures, either by adjusting the pH of the water or by adding corrosion inhibitors to the finished water.

DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM

STORAGE

The distribution system is a network of storage tanks, pipes, valves, hydrants, service connections, and meters that are needed to get water from the point of production to the customer. The distribution system begins at the point where water enters the system at usable pressure. It ends at the customer's side of the meter installation.

Each water system has its own unique requirements for water storage. These depend on such factors as the system's pressure, normal water usage, low and peak demand, and fire protection requirements. Ground elevations in the area should be surveyed and the storage tanks located at the highest possible elevation to the area served. Ample storage capacity in a water distribution system will mean lower operating costs and fewer pressure problems for the operator.

Storage Tanks

The two primary purposes for the use of storage tanks within a water distribution system are to provide volume and pressure. Sufficient storage should be based on a typical operating day in any PWS involves varying demands for the water. The most common method of creating system pressure is through the use of an elevated water storage tank to develop the necessary feet of head to force water through the system. The operation of storage tanks is also critical to maintaining a continued flow of water to a distribution system for domestic, commercial, or industrial use and for fire protection.

Types of Storage Tanks

Water storage facilities come in a variety of tank types or configurations including:

- Gravity storage: ground storage, elevated tanks, standpipes, and
- Pressure storage: hydropneumatic or diaphragm (bladder) tanks.

Depending on their type, they are usually constructed of either steel or concrete. Their primary purpose is to store water during periods of low demand for distribution during periods of high demand.

Gravity Storage Tanks

Adequate ground and elevated storage tanks are essential for the proper operation of a water system. These tanks are necessary in order to provide an ample supply of water during peak demands, dependable fire protection, adequate water pressure to outlying areas, and lower pumping costs.

A gravity storage system offers several advantages over other (e.g., hydropneumatic) systems and should be considered where topographic conditions are favorable. The larger water systems have greater advantages. However, even smaller systems will have these advantages:

- Less variation in pressure
- Storage for fire fighting use
- One to two days storage to meet water requirements

- Greater flexibility to meet peak demands
- Use of lower capacity wells (pumping not necessary to meet peak system demand)
- Sizing of pumps to take better advantage of electric load factors
- Reduced on and off cycling of pumps
- Tie-in of several wells, each pumping at its optimal rate

Ground Storage Tanks

The purpose of ground storage is to hold enough water in reserve to compensate for fluctuation of the water demand in the system. Ground storage tanks are constructed of reinforced concrete, pre-stressed concrete, and steel and are circular or rectangular. Reinforced or pre-stressed concrete is the preferred material since it is more resistant to deterioration when in contact with water. Some ground storage tanks are built above ground while others may be partial or completely underground. Underground storage should be located above the local groundwater table. All tanks should be located so that surface and underground drainage is away from the structure. Tanks should never be located within the 100-year flood plain. Sewers, drains, standing water, and similar sources of possible contamination must be kept at least 50 feet from the tank.

The most common location of ground storage tanks is near the treatment plant. These storage tanks are usually referred to as clear wells. Ground storage tanks are also used to store additional water, which can be pumped into the system for fire fighting purposes. A ground storage tank should provide storage equivalent to 2 times average daily demand or 150 gallons per customer per day. This amount will usually permit a uniform pumping rate throughout the day. Ground storage tanks should contain additional storage for filter backwash water.

Ground storage tanks can provide system pressure if they are located on hills within or near the distribution system area. Such situations are ideal since ground storage tanks are usually less expensive to construct than elevated storage tanks.

Standpipe Tanks

Standpipes are essentially ground storage tanks constructed to a height that is greater than their diameter. Their diameter is constant from the ground to the top, and they are completely filled with water. In most installations, only the water in the upper portion of the tank will furnish usable system pressure. When the water level falls to less than 70 feet from the ground surface, there will be less than 30 psi of pressure. For this reason most standpipes are constructed with an adjacent pumping station that can be used to boost the pressure of water from the lower section of the standpipe when needed.

Elevated Storage Tanks

Elevated storage tanks are generally located where the land is flat. These water tanks are supported by towers (or legs) and are said to "float" on the system. This means that they are directly connected to a system main and hold large volumes of water high enough in the air to supply the system with an adequate and fairly uniform pressure during peak demands. In this type of storage tank the system pressure is provided by the height of the water above the ground. The overflow point of the tank is the maximum system pressure. One limitation of elevated storage tanks is that the pressure in the distribution system may vary with the water level in the

tank. In order to maintain a static pressure of 50 psi, water must be stored 115 feet above the customer.

General Operation of Ground and Elevated Storage Tanks

Water contained in a vessel or pipe 100 feet high will exert a pressure of 43.33 pounds per square inch at the bottom of the pipe. The pressure is constant no matter the diameter of the pipe. It could be one inch or ten feet in diameter, but the pressure at the bottom of this vessel will still be 43.33 pounds per square inch.

Pressure Storage

Pneumatic storage tanks are pressurized by a surcharge of air that forms a bubble in the tank. Pneumatic systems are very common for use in storing and distributing small quantities of water. They combine the energy from a pump with the principle of air pressure to force water into the distribution system. The compressed air maintains water pressure when use exceeds the pump capacity and keeps the pump from cycling off and on every time a faucet opens. Pneumatic tanks are also used in large systems as surge protection systems. As the pressure from water hammer surge enters the tank, the force is exerted against the air pocket. The air pocket is compressed and absorbs the energy to dampen the shock wave.

Understanding how a pneumatic system works requires understanding basic system operation and the role of system components.

- The pump starts up when the pressure inside the tank falls to a certain pressure (cut-in pressure), and it pumps water into the tank. The pocket of air in the tank gets smaller and the pressure inside the tank increases as more water is pumped into the tank.
- When the pressure builds to a certain point (cut-out pressure), the pump stops and the air forces the water into the distribution system, as it is needed.
- When the pressure becomes too low, the pump starts up again, and the cycle is repeated. The cycle rate is the number of times the pump starts and stops in 1 hour.

Pneumatic systems are a good, reliable source for providing water to a small number of customers. In West Virginia, they cannot serve more than 150 living units. The gross volume of the pneumatic tank (in gallons) shall be at least 10 times the capacity of the largest pump (rated in gallons per minute). For example, a 250 gallon per minute pump must have a 2,500 gallon pressure tank. They are not a good storage vessel for fire protection purposes due to the small volume of water within the vessel.

Cathodic Protection

When two dissimilar metal rods are connected to a voltage meter and submerged in water that contains dissolved salts, a very small voltage reading (less than 0.0001 volts) will occur. This is the way electric storage batteries work. In an elevated storage tank the impurities in the water and the tank itself can cause a voltage to be generated, with the tank giving up metal as the current flows into the surrounding water and to ground.

Cathodic protection systems can be installed to prevent this corrosion by reversing the flow of the electrical current from the water to the tank. The basic theory of cathodic protection is to supply current, from an outside source, through sacrificial anodes suspended in the tank and back into the tank. This electrical current is D.C. and the voltage should be just enough to compensate for the

natural voltage set up between the tank and the water. The tank is now the ground and will not become pitted.

The sacrificial anode is usually a piece of iron, magnesium, carbon, or aluminum that is 1-2 inches in diameter and 12 to 18 inches long. The anodes are designed to give up metal to the water instead of the tank. Therefore, they will eventually need replacing. They should be inspected every six months and usually replaced yearly. Installation and maintenance of a cathodic protection system can be hazardous work and should be done by a professional tank and tower company. The success of an installation depends on the proper spacing of the anodes so that all surfaces of the tank receive the flow of current equally. When cathodic systems run at too high a voltage, above 1.2v on a test cell, hydrogen gas can be generated between the tank and any coating material. This can result in blistering and peeling of the coating, which can also cause corrosion.

Level Indicators

Automatic pump controls are operated by signals from the storage tank that indicate that the water is at the lowest or highest desired level. A signal from the low-level indicator will start the pump. The pump will continue to run until the water fills the tank up to the high level. A signal will then go back to the pump to shut it off. There are three main types of liquid level control systems. They are electrode systems, float systems, and pressure sensing systems.

Electrode Systems

The use of electrodes is the most common system used today. Pump controls are activated as the water level rises above or drops below these electrodes. As the water level drops below the low-level electrode, the circuit is opened triggering a control signal to start the pump. As the water level rises to contact the high level electrode the circuit is closed triggering a control signal to shut off the pumps. The pump will not restart until the water level drops below the low-level electrode again.

Float Systems

Float systems are used primarily in ground storage tanks. As the float rises or falls with the water level, high level or low level switches are tripped activating the pump control circuit. This type of level control will have to be checked on a regular basis to prevent malfunctions. Freezing during the winter is always a problem with floats and electrodes due to damage caused as the water level (and the ice) rises and falls. Circulation of water inside the tank may help minimize ice buildup.

Pressure Sensing Systems

Pressure sensing controls are normally located near the bottom of the storage tank. This type of control is activated by the amount of head pressure in the tank. As the pressure increases, a spring or metal band is expanded tripping a micro-switch or a mercury switch that then activates the pump. The on and off levels on these switches are set by applying or decreasing the tension on the spring, or by setting manual control points on a dial for the mercury switch. These switches must be protected from freezing and extreme vibrations for proper operation. Pressure transmitters can also be used to control multiple wells or pumps and the signal can be converted into a tank level reading.

Disinfection of Water Storage Facilities

New storage facilities and ones that have been repaired or cleaned must be disinfected before being placed in service. The storage facilities must be disinfected in accordance with current

AWWA Standard C652. The following forms of chlorine may be used: gaseous chlorine, sodium hypochlorite or calcium hypochlorite.

There are several methods used for disinfection. Below is a brief description, the complete procedure can be found in Section 4: Alternative Methods of Chlorination of the AWWA Standard for Disinfection of Water-Storage Facilities (C652).

The three methods are:

1. Chlorination of the full storage facility such that, at the end of the appropriate retention period, the water will have a free chlorine residual of not less than 10 mg/L
2. Spraying or painting of all storage facility water-contact surfaces with a solution of 200 mg/L available chlorine
3. Chlorination of the full storage facility with water having a free chlorine residual of 2 mg/L after 24 hours.

The disinfection procedure (AWWA C652 chlorination method 3, section 4.3) that allows use of the chlorinated water held in the storage tank for disinfection purposes is not recommended. When this procedure is used, it is recommended that the initial heavily chlorinated water be properly disposed in order to prevent the release of water that may contain various chlorinated organic compounds into the distribution system.

After the chlorination procedure is completed and before the tank is placed in service, water from the full tank must be tested for bacteriological safety. Two or more successive sets of samples, taken at twenty-four (24) hour intervals, must be microbiologically satisfactory before the facility is placed into operation. If the test results are unsatisfactory, the process must be repeated.

The chlorine level must be reduced to acceptable levels before the water is used or discharged. Disposal of heavily chlorinated water from the tank disinfection process must be in accordance with the requirements of the WVDEP.

WATER MAINS

Water mains are the pipes that carry water from the source to the storage facilities and throughout the distribution system. The size of the main is an important factor. It will determine how well the main transmits water through the system. This is due to the fact that smaller pipes allow less water flow due to the size restriction and the friction loss. This is the friction created between the water and the inside of the pipe.

There are three general types of piping systems used by water utilities in the distribution system.

Transmission Mains

Transmission mains are designed to carry large quantities of water from the source of supply to the distribution mains. They usually run in a nearly straight line and have only a few side connections.

Distribution Mains

Distribution mains are the pipelines that carry water from the transmission mains and distribute it throughout the system. They have many side connections and are frequently tapped for customer connections and fire hydrants.

Service Lines

Service lines or “services” are small diameter pipe that run from the distribution mains to the customers homes.

WATER MAIN DESIGN

Pressure

All water mains, including those not designed to provide fire protection, must be sized after a hydraulic analysis based on peak flow demands and pressure requirements. The system must be designed to maintain a minimum pressure of 20 pounds per square inch (psi) at ground level at all points in the distribution system under all conditions of flow and 30 psi under static conditions. The normal working pressure in the distribution system must be designed based upon the pipe manufacturer’s recommendations and the applicable AWWA standards for the type of pipe.

Fire Protection

The minimum size of a water main for providing fire protection and serving fire hydrants must be of 6-inch diameter. Larger size mains will be required if necessary to allow the withdrawal of the required fire flow while maintaining the minimum residual pressures. Any departure from minimum 6 inch diameter requirements must be justified by hydraulic analysis and future water use, and can be considered only in special circumstances; however, no mains less than 2 inches are permitted.

When fire protection is to be provided, system design must be such that fire flows and facilities are in accordance with the requirements of the ISO. Under no circumstances must fire flows be less than 250 gallons per minute.

Dead Ends

In order to provide increased reliability of service and reduce head loss, dead ends must be minimized by making appropriate tie-ins whenever practical. Where dead-end mains occur, they must be provided with a fire hydrant if flow and pressure are sufficient, or with a flushing hydrant or blow-off, approved by the Environmental Engineering Division, for flushing purposes in order to prevent taste and odor problems. Flushing devices must be sized to provide flows that will give a velocity of at least 2.5 feet per second in the water main being flushed.

INSTALLATION OF WATER MAINS

Specifications must incorporate the provisions of the AWWA standards and manufacturers recommended installation procedures.

Bedding

A continuous and uniform bedding must be provided in the trench for all buried pipe. Backfill material must be tamped in layers around the pipe and to a sufficient height above the pipe to adequately support and protect the pipe. Stones found in the trench must be removed for a depth of at least 6 inches below the bottom of the pipe.

Depth

All water mains must be covered with sufficient earth or other insulation to prevent freezing. All distribution mains must be provided with a minimum of 36 inches of earth covering; 42 inches are recommended. All mains of less than 8 inches in diameter within 5 feet of a heavily traveled highway must be provided with at least 42 inches of cover.

Blocking

Water in motion can exert a tremendous pressure if it is suddenly stopped or there is a change in direction of flow. Wherever tees, bends, plugs and hydrants exist in a pipeline having flexible joints, the force (thrust) created by the water motion is likely to open the joints nearest the fittings, unless there is a backing block to resist the thrust. The purpose of the backing (thrust) block is to spread the thrust over an area large enough to absorb or restrain it. It is important for the block to be centered on the thrust force and to cradle the fitting to distribute the force. The magnitude of the thrust varies with the amount of bend, diameter of pipe, and the pressure inside the pipe. Pipelines should not be pressure tested until the thrust block has been set.

Pressure and Leakage Testing

All types of installed pipe must be pressure tested and leakage tested in accordance with AWWA Standard C600. This testing will determine if the pipe has been installed correctly and if it is ready for service. Hydrostatic testing is by far the most common and logical. Pressures for testing are normally at least 50 psi above normal operating pressure for operating pressures that do not exceed 200 psi. Where the operating pressure is greater than 200 psi, the test pressure should be 1.5 times the operating pressure, but no more than the design rating of the pipe and valves. This will disclose faulty pipes, bad joints, breaks, and other major defects. The duration of the test should be no less than 2 hours and no more than 24 hours.

When pressure tests reveal an excessive water loss, the source of the leakage must be found and corrected and additional tests made.

Disinfection

Disinfection will ensure that the water delivered to the customer is safe. The problems encountered with main disinfection will be lessened, if proper precautions are taken during pipe installation to prevent dirt, trench water, and other foreign material from entering the pipe.

All new, cleaned or repaired water mains must be disinfected in accordance with AWWA Standard C651-05. The following forms of chlorine may be used: gaseous chlorine, sodium hypochlorite or calcium hypochlorite. The disinfection procedure consists of three operations.

Below is a brief description:

- 1) Preliminary flushing. Mains must be flushed, prior to disinfection, by running a sufficient amount of water through them.
- 2) Disinfection. The chlorine dosage should be 50 mg/L for 3 hours or 10 mg/L for 24 hours.
- 3) Final flushing and testing. Mains should be flushed until there is a normal, operating chlorine residual (usually 1 mg/L). Bacteriological samples must be collected, 24 hours apart. Results must be negative for 2 consecutive days.

Disposal of heavily chlorinated water from the tank disinfection process must be in accordance with the requirements of the WVDEP.

Separation of Water and Sewer Lines

Adequate separation should always be maintained between water mains and sewer lines. The theory is that sewers are likely to leak and contaminate the soil with wastes. If at the same time the adjoining water main depressurizes, the wastes can be drawn into the water main. Water mains must be laid at least 10 feet horizontally from any existing or proposed sewer. The distance must be measured edge to edge. Water mains must cross above sewers and must be laid to provide a minimum vertical distance of 18 inches between the bottom of the water main and the top of the sewer.

Flushing

West Virginia recommends flushing of water mains twice a year from the source out to the dead ends with a minimum velocity of 2.5 feet per second (fps).

PIPING

Of the many types of pipe in use today, no one type fits all conditions of service. Knowledge of the different types of pipe will allow the operator to select the one that best fits the installation. Pipe is classified based on its composition: Cast Iron Pipe; Ductile Iron Pipe; Steel Pipe; Asbestos Cement Pipe; and Plastic Pipe.

Pipe Size and Location

Water mains should be placed in the public right of way or easements must be obtained if it becomes necessary to cross private property. The overall pattern of the system should provide for as many closed loops as possible. Long isolated lines terminating in dead ends without interconnections should be avoided.

The separation required to avoid contamination of the water main must be laid 10 feet from a sanitary sewer when they are running parallel. The distance must be measured edge to edge. Water mains must cross above sewers and must be laid to provide a minimum vertical distance of 18 inches between the bottom of the water main and the top of the sewer. At crossings, one full length (20 feet) of water pipe must be located so both joints will be as far from the sewer as possible. Special structural support for the water and sewer pipes may be required.

The size of the water main will depend on what services it will supply and the flow expected. When determining the water demand, pressure losses have to be taken into consideration. If fire protection is required, the minimum size of a water main must be six inches in diameter. Some utilities have adopted an eight-inch minimum size for the main network.

Service Lines

Services connect the customer to the main in the street. Services are installed using a tapping machine to drill and connect a corporation stop to the main. The tap is normally done while the main is under pressure. This is called a "wet" tap or "hot" tap. Taps can be made by inserting the corporation stop directly into the main or the corporation stop can be installed on a saddle that's strapped to the pipe. Taps should be made at a 45% angle from horizontal so that they are less likely to be pulled by a backhoe.

The service line is usually copper, PVC or polyethylene pipe. Galvanized and lead services should be replaced, since the former is prone to corrosion and the latter can cause lead problems if the water is corrosive. The service line should have a bend or goose neck in it at the corporation stop. This will allow the service to flex slightly if the trench or piping shifts after backfill. A curb stop should be installed in the easement so that the service can be isolated. Sometimes a meter stop on the yoke is used instead of a curb stop. A service line leak may require killing the main or using a crimping tool to isolate for maintenance when a meter stop is used. Service lines and meters must be laid below the frost line for the area or freezing will become a problem in the winter.

Service Line Design

The condition of the service lines is often an overlooked part of the water system. In most systems, the total length of service lines may nearly equal and sometimes even exceed the total length of the mains.

Service lines consist of two parts: the service connection that extends from the main in the street to the property line or curb stop; and the portion of the pipe that runs from the curb stop to the building. In most cities, the water operator needs to be concerned only with size, selection of pipe materials, and installation of the service connection.

Materials and installation practices apply equally to that portion of the service line located on the customer's property. Every water utility should have regulations consistent with the WV CSR Series 64 Title 77 requirements. These regulations shall cover such items as approved materials, depth of lines, installation procedures, inspections, responsibility for the work, responsibility for payment of costs, and other information necessary to provide an understanding of the requirements.

Service Line Parts

Each service connection consists of:

1. The connection at the main, which is made with the use of a corporation stop or valve to control the pressure during installation. This valve will generally be installed by a tapping machine and with the main pressurized, called a wet or hot tap.
2. A length of pipe long enough to reach from the water main to the property line, where another valve is installed to control the water service.
3. A shutoff valve at the property line to allow the water to be shutoff without having to dig in the street. In most cases, this valve remains the property of the utility. The shutoff valve can be operated only with a special wrench, preventing the property owner from operating the valve.
4. Meters installed to measure the amount of water supplied to the customer. In some cases, the meter is installed at the curb line, but in Minnesota the normal location of the meter is inside the customer's premises.

VALVES

Valves are mechanical devices used to stop flow, regulate water flows, reduce pressure, provide air and vacuum relief, blow off or drain water from the system, to prevent backflow and to isolate sections of the piping system for repair and maintenance.

Valve placement depends on the layout of the system, location of the customers, location of points susceptible to damage, and cost factors. The OEHS requires valve spacing of every 500 feet in commercial districts and at not more than 800 foot intervals in other districts. Where systems serve widely scattered customers and where future development is not expected, the valve spacing must not exceed 2,500 feet.

Valves are installed at enough points on a water system to minimize loss of water service during repairs. It is common to place valves at street intersections or at the extension of property lines. Valves are supplied with valve boxes or pits for maintenance.

Valves come in a variety of styles, shapes and sizes, but their main purpose is to regulate or stop the flow of water. Most of the valves in a distribution system are installed for isolation of sections of piping for maintenance and repair. Control valves are designed to control pressures and throttle flows to prevent damage to the system.

ISOLATION VALVES

Isolation valves are used throughout the system to stop the flow of water. They are usually gate valves or butterfly valves. Each branch line should have an isolation valve at the point of connection to the main line. The proper location of these valves is important in order to isolate small sections of line for repair in an effort to minimize the number of customers that are out of water.

Gate Valves

The most common type of valve used in a water distribution system is the gate valve. It receives its name because of its gate-like operation. When fully open, gate valves provide almost unrestricted flow. A gate valve is not well adapted for throttling flow or for frequent operation. Either will cause excessive wear on the seating edges of the discs and guides.

The number of turns needed to open or close a gate valve that is not gear reduced is equal to 3 times the diameter plus 1-3 turns to seat properly. So a 6" valve will take $3 \times 6 = 18 + 1-2$ or about 19-20 turns to close. Larger valves will take 2-3 extra turns.

Butterfly Valves

The butterfly valve consists of a shaft-mounted disc that rotates in a 90° arc from fully open to fully closed. Although butterfly valves are frequently used in place of gate valves to shut off services, the butterfly is also used in throttling or in automatic control of the flow of water. The valve will open, close, or throttle on command from a controller.

Ball Valves

Ball valves are similar to butterfly valves. They are the second most common type of valve used in most systems. Ball valves offer little or no resistance to the flow of liquids. One of its features is that a 90° turn quickly opens or closes the valve completely. The handle position also indicates whether or not the valve is in the opened or closed position. Its simple design allows the valve to operate easily and offers ease of repair. They are used as corporation stops on service lines and curb stops on meter setters.

Globe Valves

Globe valves are installed where there is to be a frequent change of operation and can be used as an isolation or control valve. It receives its name because the main body is globelike in shape. Because of its design, this type of valve offers a significant resistance to the flow of liquids but does provide a more positive shutoff. Except for some special service applications, the globe valves used in water systems are generally three inches or smaller. The high-pressure loss in this valve limits it to smaller sizes. Globe valves are commonly used for water faucets and other household plumbing.

CONTROL VALVES

Control valves are designed to control flows or pressures in the system. Control valves are usually one of the least understood components of a water system. They are designed to control the flow of water by reacting to changes in the system and automatically opening or closing the valve to compensate. They are globe valves. There are a number of different applications for the control valves that may be used in the system.

Check Valves

A check valve is designed to allow flow in only one direction. These types of valves are most commonly used on the discharge side of the pumps to prevent backflow when the power is turned off. Foot valves are a special type of check valve installed on the bottom of pump suction to prevent loss of prime when the pump is turned off.

Air Release Valves

Air release valves are used to allow air that may be trapped in the line to escape. The trapped air can create pressure and pumping problems, milky-water complaints, and pressure spikes that resemble water hammer. They are very useful in systems that are in hilly country. They should be located at the top of hills where the trapped air will collect.

Altitude Valves

An altitude valve is a control valve that is designed to close when an elevated storage tank is full. They are needed when there are several storage tanks at different elevations in a system. Altitude valves will be used on the lower tanks to prevent them from overflowing. Each valve will isolate its tank so that the top tank can be filled and not drain out through the lower tanks. This is one of the most common uses of control valves in water systems.

Pressure Reducing Valves

Another common use of a control valve is found in areas where the differences in elevation in the system create unacceptably high water pressures in the lower elevations. A control valve can

reduce and maintain a steady pressure on the downstream side of the valve. There is a maximum and minimum flow that a PRV can handle. When the flow drops too low the valve will chatter or start slamming open and closed. This will create severe water hammer problems. To avoid this problem, PRV's are sometimes installed in pairs with a small valve in parallel with the larger valve. The small valve is set at a higher pressure. This will allow it to handle the low flows and keep the large valve shut so it doesn't chatter.

Pressure Relief Valves

Pressure relief valves are similar to globe valves, but their disks are normally maintained by a spring. Pressure relief valves are used to provide protection against high pressures that may develop in the system. They should be located in any part of the system where pressure is controlled by a pressure-reducing valve. They are also used at booster pump stations. When the valve senses a high pressure upstream, it will open to pass enough water to drop the pressure back down to set point. The water is discharged to a storm sewer or ditch. If the pressure upstream drops, it will close automatically. The set point should be about 10-15 psi higher than the normal system pressure at that location.

Pressure Sustaining Valves

In some systems there are areas of very heavy water demand that can sometimes "rob" the pressure of upstream areas. The control valve will act to maintain the desired upstream pressure during these conditions and throttle the flow of water to the area of heavy demand.

Valve Operation and Maintenance

Valves normally suffer from a lack of operation, not wear. Valves four inches and larger should be exercised annually. Exercising valves means completely opening and closing the valve manually to assure they operate properly and easily. If not, they may become frozen and inoperative when isolation is necessary. Where the water carries small amounts of sand or silt, the valve seats may fill with deposited material unless operated at regular intervals to keep the valve seat clear.

When operating valves, they must be opened and closed slowly. If they are opened or closed rapidly a quick rise and fall of water pressure throughout the distribution piping system takes place. Also called a water hammer because it sounds like someone hammering on the pipe. Water hammer can cause serious damage to the distribution pipes and components. Water hammer results when a moving column of water is suddenly stopped by the closing of a valve.

FIRE HYDRANTS

Fire hydrants have a number of uses in the distribution system. Although fire protection is the most important, there are several other uses that are equally important in operating and maintaining the distribution system.

Types of Fire Hydrants

There are 2 types of fire hydrants used in water systems; wet barrel and dry barrel. A wet barrel hydrant is always pressurized and the main valve is at the top of the hydrant barrel. A dry barrel hydrant has the valve at the bottom of the barrel and a drain hole that drains the barrel when the hydrant is closed. These hydrants are used in areas where freezing occurs in the winter. An additional advantage to the dry barrel hydrant: it comes with special breakaway unions on the

stem and flanges on the upper barrel that allow it to break cleanly if hit by vehicle and that there is no flow of water from a broken hydrant because the main valve is underground.

Fire Hydrant Requirements

The size of the hydrant refers to the size of the opening in the valve. For example, a 4 inch hydrant has a 4 inch valve. Hydrants can be furnished with 1 to 4, 2.5-inch nozzles and 1 to 2, 4 inch steamer nozzles. The length of the hydrant is referred to as the depth of buries and is the distance from the surface of the ground to the bottom of the inlet pipe. It is also recommended that fire hydrants be installed with the nozzles at least 18 inches above grade. This is the clearance needed to operate a hydrant wrench when removing the nozzle. In West Virginia, fire hydrants must have a bottom valve size of at least 5 inches, on 4.5 inch pumper nozzle and 2, 2.5 inch nozzles.

Hydrant Operation and Maintenance

Regular flushing, recommended twice a year, of hydrants is important to ensure that they work and are in operational condition at all times. In addition, flushing can reveal information about the condition of the water system. When the system is flushed, the velocity has to be high enough (at least 2.5 ft/sec) to clear out any material that has accumulated in the system.

Hydrants should not be used to regularly fill tanks and should never be operated with the valve partially opened for throttling. A fire hydrant should be opened slowly and fully and then closed fully, in order to prevent water hammer.

Make sure fire hydrants are accessible. Fire hydrants provide water for fire fighting and are a means to flush the system. The hydrants should be easy to get to and highly visible. This includes removing snow drifts during the winter, tall grass or weeds during the summer, and painting the hydrants a highly visible color. Hydrants should be color coded according to the available fire flows. During inspection, be sure to check for tampering or vandalism. Record your findings in a log book. You should develop a log book to document your findings and standardize how these checks are made.

METERS

The meter is the primary piece of equipment in a water system that has a direct bearing on income. It is the cash register for the system. Many small systems do not have meters. Billing is based primarily on the size of the service and is a fixed rate. Water meters encourage conservation and distribute the cost of service in proportion to its use. Even though they are critical to maintaining the cash flow for a system, meters tend to be neglected more than any other piece of water equipment. An inaccurate meter cheats the water system and also all the customers whose meters are accurate.

When a meter becomes worn or broken it always under-registers and will give water away to the customer. This is not a good point to impress upon a customer who is sure he or she is being charged for too much water. Instead check the meter readings for the last month. It may be that an error has been made in reading the meter which can be corrected and re-reading the meter to make sure the books are straight.

Displacement Meters

The common small diameter service meter is of the displacement type. Displacement meters are capable of measuring small flows with relatively high accuracy. Water flowing through the meter is measured by counting the number of times the chamber is filled and emptied.

Velocity or Current Meters

A velocity meter, or current meter as it is more commonly called, registers the volume of water passing through it by measuring the velocity of the flow within a known cross-section area. The two basic current-meter types in use are the turbine and the propeller meters.

Compound Meters

In situations in which a customer's water use fluctuates regularly over a wide range, compound meters are used to accurately measure the water consumption. A compound meter is a combination meter with a turbine section for high flows and a displacement section for low flows. In normal operation, the low flows pass through the displacement section until the friction loss is so great that the valve opens, allowing the water to flow through the turbine section of the meter. A compound meter in good repair is capable of measuring flow with 98 percent accuracy over a wide range of flow conditions.

Meter Maintenance

Having meters installed at the customers' locations provides the only fair and equitable method of charging for water. This is one of the most economical means of reducing water waste. Meters are the "cash registers" of the water system and should be maintained in proper working order.

The maintenance of positive displacement meters consists of temporarily removing them from the customer's service, taking them apart, and thoroughly cleaning and inspecting all parts. Meters should be inspected and tested every 10 years. Residential meters should have an accuracy of between 98 – 102% or 100% +/- 2%.

Meter Records

A suitable meter record provides full and complete information about the installation repair and testing of each meter. Any record system should provide such basic data as the date of purchase, size, make, type, location of meter, and the data on all tests and repairs.

DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM HYDRAULICS

There are a number of issues related the dynamics of moving water through a distribution system. The pressures in the system are determined by how high water is stacked in the air when conditions are static. But when water begins to move through the system hydraulic factors can affect pressures, flow, and forces exerted against the piping.

FRICTION LOSS

When water flows through a pipe a certain amount of energy must be expended to overcome the friction between the water and the surface of the pipe. The determination of the friction loss in a water line is dependent on four factors:

- Pipe length
- Pipe diameter
- Flow through the pipe
- Coefficient of friction-“C” factor

A certain amount of friction loss results from any flow through any size or type of pipe, and this loss must be overcome, usually by increasing the pumping pressure, in order to maintain a given flow through the pipe. As metal lines get older their inner surfaces get rougher and the “C” Factor increases. Friction losses may be reduced by pigging the lines to remove scale or tuberculation caused by chemical stability problems.

WATER HAMMER

When water, that is moving through a water line, is suddenly stopped a pressure surge will be created in the line. This occurrence is known as a “water hammer.” The faster the water movement is stopped the greater pressure surge, or water hammer, will be. Water hammer can create a pressure surge up to 120 psi greater than the system pressure. Severe water hammer can cause ruptured lines and even lift water hydrants out of the ground. Once water hammer has been created it will travel down the line at a speed of 760 mph. To minimize the effect of water hammer all valves and hydrants in the system must be opened and closed slowly. Hydraulically operated check valves known as pump control valves also help to protect the pump and reduce water hammer. All bends and fittings on water mains should be backed by thrust blocks to protect them.

THRUST AT PIPE BENDS

Wherever a bend, elbow, tee, or dead end exists in a pipe-line having flexible joints, a force is exerted which tends to open the joints nearest the fittings. The magnitude of this force varies with the amount of bend, the diameter of pipe, and the pressure inside the pipe. When determining the resultant thrust for a given pipe it is advisable to use the maximum working pressure anticipated in the pipe plus an allowance for surges or water hammer.

Once the resultant thrust has been determined for a particular bend, it becomes necessary to provide a backing block of such size to resist the thrust. The thrust must ultimately be borne by the side of the pipe trench and the surrounding soil. The purpose of the backing block is to spread the thrust over an area sufficiently large that the undisturbed earth can support it. The supporting strength of most solid clay soils should vary between 1,500 and 4,000 pounds per square foot. Sandy soils may not support 1000 pounds per square foot.

PUMPS

Many different types of pumps can be used with the selection depending on the work that needs to be done. Pump selection depends on the maximum flow needed in gallons per minute (gpm) and the head it needs to pump against.

Pumps provide the means for moving water through the system at usable working pressures. The operation and maintenance of these pumps are some of the most important duties for many water utility operators. There are two basic types of pumps used in water and wastewater systems. The most common type of pump is the centrifugal pump. The other type is the positive displacement pump.

All pumps are rated by the flow they produce and the pressure they must work against. Centrifugal pumps are used for high flow and low head pressure applications. Booster pumps or primary service pumps are required to move high volumes of water and usually operated at low head pressures (200-300 feet of head for water and as little as 50 feet of head for wastewater applications). Centrifugal pumps are ideally suited to these types of applications and are much more efficient than positive displacement pumps of comparable size. Positive displacement pumps are used for low flow and high- pressure applications. High pressure water jet systems like those used for well screen or sewer line cleaning use positive displacement pumps since pressure in excess of 2500 feet of head are needed and the flows seldom exceed 100 gpm. Sludge pumps and chemical feed pumps are also likely to be positive displacement pumps. Piston pumps, diaphragm pumps, and progressive cavity screw pumps are the most common types of positive displacement pumps.

Another difference between centrifugal and positive displacement pumps has to do with how they react to changes in discharge pressure. When the pressure that a centrifugal pump has to work against changes, it causes the flow from the pump to change. As the pressure increases, the flow from the pump will decrease, and when the pressure drops the flow will increase. Positive displacement pumps do not react this way. The flow does not change when the discharge pressure changes. This is the main reason that positive displacement pumps are used for chemical feeding and sludge pumping. The operator knows that every time the pump strokes, it is pumping the same amount of fluid. This is important if accurate records are to be kept of chemical dosages and pounds of solids that are moving through the system.

System Pressure and Head

Head is a measurement of the pressure or force exerted by the water. Head is expressed in feet to represent the height of the water above some reference point such as a gauge.

Pressure Head is the amount of energy in water due to pressure. The reading of a pressure gauge can be converted to feet of water by multiplying it by 2.31. For example, the gauge reads 52 psi x 2.31 = 120 feet of head (water above the gauge).

Lift, or suction lift, is the vertical distance in feet from the water surface to the pump, plus friction losses in the pipe and fittings between the pump and the foot valve (this will be zero for a submersible pump).

Friction Head loss is the energy that water loses from friction while it is moving in the system through pipelines and valves. When water moves through a pipe, it must overcome resistance caused by friction from contact with the pipe walls and its own turbulence. The amount of

friction loss depends on the flow rate, pipe characteristics such as length, size and type of pipe, and on the number and type of pipe fittings.

Head loss can be significant if the pipe surface is roughened by corrosion (pitting), tubercules (crusty corrosion build-up), slime growth, or sediment. The amount of pipe roughness is referred to as the C factor. The higher the C factor, the smoother the pipe. Head loss can also be caused by water suddenly changing direction or velocity as a result of valves, bends, and reducers.

Elevation Head is the vertical distance in feet from the pump to the highest point of the water system, plus friction losses in pipe and fittings between pump and point of discharge.

Total Dynamic Head (TDH) is the total amount of energy that a pump has to deliver to move water from one point to another. Dynamic means the water is in motion rather than static. For example: the well pump has to lift water from a 150 ft pumping level and push it 120 ft up to the storage tank. Not factoring friction head loss, the total dynamic head would be 150 ft suction lift + 120 ft discharge head = 270 ft TDH.

Diaphragm pumps – the amount of chemical fed is determined by either adjusting the length of the stroke or the number of strokes per minute.

It is recommended that your diaphragm pump be equipped with a four function valve. The functions of this valve are:

1. Anti-siphon (automatic): prevents siphoning when pumping downhill or into a vacuum.
2. Backpressure (automatic): supplies approximately 25 psi backpressure to prevent over pumping when little or no system backpressure is present.
3. Pressure relief (automatic): if the discharge line is overpressurized, the valve opens sending the chlorine solution back to your supply tank.
4. Line depressurization (manual): by pulling both knobs, the discharge line will drain back to your supply tank.

The head of a chemical feed pump should generally be above the top of the liquid solution in the solution barrel, to prevent possible siphoning of the chemical that could create a potentially dangerous overfeed situation. It is also recommended to have a back-up pump.

Centrifugal pumps – are widely used in the water industry and consist of a pump casing and an impeller mounted on a rotating shaft. A motor turns the shaft, spinning the impeller. The impeller creates centrifugal force, which throws water into the outer casing or volute. Water is directed into the discharge.

- Vertical turbine pumps – commonly used for well installations and booster pumps. They are capable of producing high capacities at high head.
- Submersible pumps – common for well installations. The entire pump and motor assembly is submersed in water. The motor is mounted below the bowls (impeller housing) so the pump does not have as long a pump shaft as the turbine.

Centrifugal pumps major parts include:

- Casing – the housing that surrounds the impeller, often called a bowl, for turbine pumps.

- Shaft – the rod the impeller is mounted on and is turned by the motor.
- Impeller – rotating bladed disc that gives force to the water being pumped. Design can vary (enclosed, open, semi-enclosed). Design used depends on pumping requirements.
- Wear rings – brass or bronze rings placed on the impeller or casing to control leakage from discharge to suction side.
- Bearings – support and guide the shaft.
- Shaft seals – packing or mechanical seals are used to prevent air from being sucked into the pump along the shaft and to control water leakage along the shaft from the impeller.
- Motor – provides power to turn the impeller.

Pump Cavitation

Pump cavitation is the formation and collapse of gas pockets or bubbles on the blade of an impeller or the gate of a valve, causes the pump or valve to vibrate and sounds like chattering marbles. Commonly occurs in pumps when the pressure at the pump inlet drops below the pressure of the water being pumped. Cavitation may cause the formation of pits on the impeller and the eventual wearing away of the impeller and can be caused by allowing intakes to become clogged or by using a pump that discharges more water than it is designed to pump. To prevent cavitation:

- The intake of the pump must remain clear.
- If pump discharge is excessive, throttle with discharge valve.
- Coat the impeller and volute with epoxy-metallic materials.

Water Hammer occurs when moving water suddenly stops, such as by closing a valve too fast. Water oscillates in the pipe, causing a loud banging or hammering sound. Fluctuating pressures can damage piping and connections.

Pump Maintenance

Major areas of maintenance concern:

- Couplings must be properly aligned.
- Inspect and lubricate motor/pump bearings on a regular basis.
 - Reduce friction and wear to moving parts.
 - Prevent corrosion by sealing out dirt and contaminants.
 - Lubricating water should be of a quality equal to or greater than the pumped water.
 - Too much lubrication – high heat can result; too little lubrication – excessive wear can result.
 - Wrong kind of lubricant – may contaminate potable supply or may not provide adequate wear protection.
 - Contamination of lubricant – may result in excessive wear and high heat.
- Seals – mechanical or packing type.
 - Packing type must be allowed to leak a small amount (20 drops/min) for lubrication.
 - Mechanical type does not normally leak water.

Motor Maintenance:

- The motor should be properly lubricated.
- Motor should be kept clean, dry, and cool.
- Motor guards/ventilation screens must be in place.

PUMP HYDRAULICS

When a pump is installed, it is important to make sure that it is designed to pump the proper amount of water against the correct head pressure. Pumps that are not properly sized for a specific application will fail to give satisfactory performance. The majority of complaints regarding pump performance usually result from placing a pump in an application that requires it to operate outside its designed flow or pressure ratings.

In order to get the right pump for the job, you must know not only how much water must be moved, but also how much pressure it is going to have to pump against. Determining how much water needs to be pumped is the easy part. A pump dealer may have fifteen different pumps that are rated for 500 gpm. Some of them will pump 500 gpm against 500 feet of head and some will only pump 500 gpm against 50 feet of head pressure. The trick is figuring out how much pressure the pump will have to work against.

The following steps should be taken when sizing a pump:

1. Determine the gpm:

The pump should be able to meet the peak daily demand that will be encountered.

2. Determine the suction head:

The suction head is the vertical distance from the surface of the water supply to the centerline of the pump. If the water supply is below the centerline of the pump, the distance is negative suction head, or suction lift. If the water supply is above the centerline of the pump, it is known as positive suction head. The illustration shows both positive and negative suction heads of 20 feet. Atmospheric pressure and the ability of the pump to pull a vacuum limit negative suction head. At sea level the absolute maximum negative suction head is 33.8 feet. For most pumping applications negative suction heads should never exceed 20 feet.

3. Determine the discharge head:

The discharge head is the vertical distance from the centerline of the pump to the overflow of the storage tank.

4. Determine the total head:

- a. The total head can be determined by adding the a negative suction head to the discharge head; or
- b. By subtracting a positive suction head from the discharge head

5. Determine the friction loss:

The total head represents the vertical distance that the pump must lift the water. The horizontal distance the water must move will also impact the pressure against the pump. As water moves through a pipe, it rubs against the inside of the pipe. This creates friction that will reduce the available pressure at the end of the pipe. A pump must produce a pressure higher than total head to overcome this friction loss and still move the required amount of water. There are four factors to consider when determining friction loss. They are the size of the pipe, the flow through the pipe, the length of the pipe, and the "C factor". The "C factor" is also known as the coefficient of friction. It represents the roughness of the inside of the pipe wall.

6. Determine the Total Dynamic Head

Once the friction loss has been determined, it is added to the total head to calculate the total dynamic head. The total dynamic head (TDH) is the head at which the pump should be rated. The pump can now be sized according to the gpm demand and the total dynamic head that it must work against.

PUMP CHARACTERISTICS CURVES

Every pump has certain characteristics under which it will operate efficiently. These conditions can be illustrated with pump characteristic curves. The pump curve should show:

- The head capacity curve
- The brake horsepower curve
- The efficiency curve

The graph may contain a curve labeled “NPSH” (Net Positive Suction Head) instead of a BHp (Brake Horsepower) curve. NPSH represents the minimum dynamic suction head that is required to keep the pump from cavitating.

To use the pump curve:

1. Start at the particular head pressure that is desired and then travel across the chart to the point where it crosses the head capacity curve.
2. Drop a straight line from this point down to the bottom of the chart to determine the gpm output at that particular head pressure.
3. The brake horsepower can be determined by starting at the point where the vertical line crosses the horsepower curve and going across to the right side of the chart. Use the same procedure for NSPH if it is used instead of BHp.
4. The efficiency of the pump at this flow and pressure is determined by starting at the point where the vertical line crosses the efficiency curve and going over to the right side of the chart.

Shut Off Head

The highest head pressure that the pump will develop is called the “shut off head” of the pump. When a pump reaches shut off head, the flow from the pump also drops to 0 gpm. This is a valuable piece of information for conducting a quick check of the pump’s performance. If the pump cannot generate its rated shut off head, the pump curve is no longer of any real value to the operator. A loss of shut off head is probably caused by an increase in recirculation inside the pump due to worn wear rings or worn impellers.

There is another factor that might affect the shut off head of the pump. The pump curve assumes that the pump is running at design speed. If a pump that is supposed to spin at 1750 rpm and it is only turning at 1700 rpm, the shut off head will be lower than the pump curve too. However, if the pump speed is checked with a tachometer and found to be correct, the wear rings or impellers are probably in need of repair.

ELECTRIC MOTORS

Very few operators do electrical repairs or trouble shooting because this is a highly specialized field and unqualified operators can seriously injure themselves or damage costly equipment. For these reasons the operator must be familiar with electricity, know the hazards, and recognize his own limitations when working with electrical equipment. Most water systems use a commercial electrician for major problems. However, the operator should be able to explain how the equipment is supposed to work and what it is doing or not doing when it fails. Electric motors are commonly used to convert electrical energy into mechanical energy. A motor generally consists of a stator, rotor, end bells, and windings. The rotor has an extending shaft, which allows a

machine to be coupled to it. Most large motors will be three phase motors rated from 220 or 4160 volts.

Vertical turbine line shaft pumps will often have a hollow core or hollow shaft motor. The rotor is hollow and the motor shaft can slide up and down to allow adjustment of impeller clearance. This lateral adjustment is accomplished by raising and lowering the shaft with the adjusting nut on top of the upper bearing.

Phases

The term “phase” applies to alternating current (AC) systems and describes how many external winding connections are available from a generator, transformer, or motor for actual load connections. Motors are either single- phase or three-phase.

Single Phase Motors

Single-phase motors are normally operated on 110-220 volt A.C. single-phase systems. A straight single-phase winding has no starting torque so it must incorporate some other means of spinning the shaft. A single-phase motor requires a special start circuit within the motor to make sure it runs in the right direction. Several different types of starter windings are available in these motors. Single-phase power leads will have three wires, like a three-prong extension cord. The third

Three Phase Motors

Three-phase systems refer to the fact that there are three sets of windings in the motor and three legs of power coming in from the distribution system. This type of motor is used where loads become larger than single-phase circuits can handle. With three legs to carry power, more amps can be delivered to the motor. Three phase motors are the most common types used in water and wastewater systems. Three major types of three phase motors are the squirrel cage induction motor, synchronous motors, and wound rotor induction motors.

Squirrel cage induction motors are widely used because of its simple construction and relative low maintenance requirements. The windings are stationary and are built into the frame of the motor. The power supply is connected to the windings in the stator, which creates a rotating magnetic field. The rotor is made up of bars arranged in the shape of a cylinder and joined to form a “squirrel cage.” Squirrel cage induction motors make up approximately 90% of all motors used in industry today.

Three-phase motors do not use a start circuit. The direction of rotation is determined by how the three leads are wired to the motor. If any two of the leads are switched, the motor rotation will be reversed.

Single Phasing

Anytime a lead becomes grounded, a dead short develops, or one of the contacts opens in a three-phase motor, single phasing will result. When this occurs, the speed of the motor will drop and it will begin to overheat. The single phase will draw too many amps and it will quickly burn up. When single phasing occurs while the motor is not running, it simply will not start up again. Special circuit protection is available that will shut the motor off if single phasing occurs.

Circuit Protection

Motors need to be protected from power surges and overloads. Fuses and circuit breakers are designed to open the circuit when the current load threatens to damage the motor. Fuses are generally sized at 120-150% of motor capacity. Circuit breakers can be reset when they trip,

instead of being replaced like a fuse. Circuit breakers can react faster than fuses and are usually sized closer to the current rating of the motor.

PUMP & MOTOR MAINTENANCE

Maintenance is one of the most important and most often neglected tasks in water system operations. When money gets tight maintenance is often one of the first things to go. More and more water systems are finding that cutting maintenance to save money is false economy. Almost without fail, the cost to repair damage caused by lack of maintenance is much higher than the cost to maintain the equipment.

All systems should develop a preventive maintenance program. A preventive maintenance program allows virtually all maintenance to be performed during normal operating hours. Emergency maintenance is reduced to a minimum.

In maintaining a pump and motor there are three major areas of maintenance concern: the couplings, the bearings, and the pump stuffing box.

Couplings

Close-coupled pumps have no coupling with which to be concerned. All other pumps, in which the pump and motor are separate units, must have some device to attach the motor to the pump. Couplings are used for this purpose. Couplings perform some or all of these functions:

- Connect the motor to the pump to allow the motor to turn the pump.
- Flexible couplings allow for some pump to motor misalignment.
- Because of slack (called internal clearance) in bearings, the pump and motor shafts can move away from and toward each other. Couplings allow for this to happen without damage.
- Vibration can damage equipment. Couplings can reduce the amount of vibration transmitted from one piece of equipment to another.
- Electricity can flow from the motor to the pump causing pitting in bearings and their premature corrosion and failure. Couplings can be used that will insulate the pump shaft against stray current.
- Couplings absorb the torque created when the motor starts.

Energy transfer and compensation for misalignment are the two most important functions performed by a coupling. There are two types of couplings, rigid and flexible couplings. Rigid couplings do not compensate for any misalignment. Flexible couplings allow for small amounts of pump to motor misalignment.

Coupling Alignment

The key to maintaining a flexible coupling or rigid coupling is to monitor the alignment between the drive unit and the pump. Neglect or completely overlooking alignment will certainly result in early failure of the coupling, and result in damage to the motor and pump. The types of misalignment that may be encountered are: angular and parallel.

Angular Misalignment

Angular misalignment is the type most likely to cause severe damage to the pump and motor. A characteristic of this type of misalignment is that the motor is set at an angle to the pump. This angle can either be to the left or right, up or down. If the center lines of the motor and pump were

extended, they would cross each other, rather than run parallel. When aligning a pump and motor, angular alignment should be checked first.

Parallel Misalignment

Parallel misalignment occurs when the two center lines are parallel, but they are not in the same plane vertically or horizontally. Generally, parallel misalignment results in less vibration than angular misalignment. Parallel misalignment is also the easiest to detect. If parallel misalignment is beyond the tolerance limits, it is difficult, if not impossible, to join the coupling halves.

Combination Misalignment

The third type of misalignment encountered is combination misalignment. As the name implies, the motor is misaligned angularly, and at the same time is either displaced to the right or left, or on a different level than the pump.

In order to align the pump and motor, it is necessary to let either the pump or motor remain still, while moving the other to bring it into line. It is best to align the motor with the pump. Moving the pump will put stress on the piping system. As the pipe tries to pull back to relieve the stress, the pump will be shifted. If the pump is left in place while the motor is shifted, this problem will not occur.

How to Use a Dial Indicator* to Determine Pump & Motor Shaft Runout

(Determine if shaft is straight or bent).

1. Give the pump and motor shafts a rough, “eyeball,” alignment.
2. Check the pump and motor shaft for run out by placing the dial indicator clamp on the pump shaft.
3. Place the dial indicator in contact near the end of the motor shaft, insuring that the scale is reading off zero.
4. Rotate the dial indicator scale until it reads zero.
5. Rotate the pump shaft until the dial indicator gives its highest reading.
6. Put a mark on the pump shaft to insure this point on the pump shaft remains at the top.
7. Repeat this procedure on the motor shaft.

*(Dial Indicators are available from many machine shop supply houses and auto parts stores).

How to Use a Caliper to Determine Angular Misalignment Between a Motor & Pump

1. Measure the distance between the coupling halves at the top of the couplings.
2. Mark the coupling halves where the measurement was taken.
3. Rotate the coupling 90 degrees and measure again.
4. Rotate the coupling 90 degrees so that the marks are now at the bottom, and measure again.
5. Rotate the coupling 90 degrees and measure again.
6. If the motor is out of alignment horizontally, simply shift the motor toward the side on which the greatest gap is found. If the greatest gap was found at the top of the coupling, add shims to raise the rear of the motor.
7. If the greatest gap was found at the bottom of the coupling, add shims to raise the front of the motor. The shim thickness should be one half as thick as the gap is wide.

How to Check a Pump and Motor for Angular Misalignment Using a Dial Indicator

1. Give the pump and motor shafts a rough, “eyeball,” alignment.
2. Attach the dial indicator to the pump half of the coupling. Attach a block to the motor coupling half, contacting the dial indicator in such a way that the scale reads off zero.
3. Rotate the coupling halves so that the dial indicator is in the three o’clock position, reading the dial indicator.
4. Rotate the coupling halves so that the dial indicator is on the six o’clock position, read the dial indicator.
5. Rotate the coupling halves until the dial indicator is at the nine o’clock position; read the indicator.
6. Shift the motor or add shims to correct the alignment.
7. Re-check the alignment.

How to Use a Straight edge to Check for Parallel Misalignment

1. Lay a straight edge across the top of the coupling halves, insuring it is parallel to the shafts. Check for clearance using a thickness gage.
2. Mark the point at the top, where this measurement was made.
3. Rotate the coupling until the mark is in the 3 o’clock position. Place the straight edge at the marks, insuring the straight edge is parallel to the pump and motor shafts. Using the thickness gauges, measure any gap between the straight edge and either coupling.
4. Check the coupling in the 6 and 9 o’clock positions.
5. Make any corrections necessary in the motor’s position; re-check.

How to Use a Dial Indicator to Check for Parallel Misalignment

1. Attach the dial indicator to the pump half of the coupling.
2. Adjust the dial indicator to read off zero.
3. Rotate the dial indicator to read zero.
4. Check the dial indicator readings in the 12, 3, 6, and 9 o’clock positions.
5. Make any adjustments in the motor position and re-check the alignment.

Motor Maintenance

Maintenance of electric motors requires that extreme care be exercised to avoid harm to the person performing the maintenance and to avoid damage to the motor. When performing maintenance on motors be certain to always turn off the power supply. Also lock out the power supply to prevent someone from accidentally turning the power back on while you are working on the equipment.

Exterior maintenance of electric motors is fairly simple. It is a matter of keeping the exterior clean and painted. Do not allow the paint finish to deteriorate to the point that the motor’s exterior begins to corrode. Do not allow grease, dust, and dirt to build up on the motor body.

Do not allow paint to build up on the motor body. All of these things prevent the motor from radiating heat. Heat will build up and shorten the life of the motor. Blocking ventilation will also cause heat to build up. When painting a motor, be certain that the data plate is not damaged or covered with paint. The data plate should be readable.

A routine lubrication schedule should be set up and followed. For more information, consult the manufacturer's literature. The manufacturer's literature will have information on what type of lubricant, how much lubricant to use, and how often the equipment should be relubricated. Maintenance of the insulation in the inside of a motor is an important and difficult task. In order to maintain the motor insulation, keep it clean, dry and cool. The insulation should be free of contaminants such as dust, salt, chemicals, lint, and oil. To keep the inside of a motor clean and in working order, you need to:

- Select the motor enclosure type that is best suited to environmental conditions under which the motor must operate;
- Remove the source of contamination, if possible;
- Clean contamination from the windings; and,
- Clean the exterior and keeping the ventilation openings clear.

Insure that the insulation is kept dry. Some insulations are porous and can absorb water, causing failure to the motor. Dirt and other contaminants attract moisture. Proper enclosures can reduce or eliminate most moisture problems. In very cold or humid areas, it may be necessary to provide heaters to keep motors dry.

Contamination problems are generally attributable to the shoddy greasing practices or to water contamination from excessive packing leakage or flooding. Lubricants and all equipment associated with relubrication should be cleaned immediately after use, and inspected before use to insure it is clean. All grease fittings should be wiped off thoroughly with a clean cloth towel before attaching the grease gun.

An oil lubrication system is the simplest system to monitor. It requires the person performing maintenance to monitor and oil level frequently, and add oil to the machinery as needed.

Motor Lubrication

Lubrication is one of the simplest maintenance procedures to perform. It is also the maintenance procedure which is most often neglected or done incorrectly. It is estimated that about 70-80% of all bearing failures in water and wastewater systems are caused by improper lubrication.

Lubrication failures will normally fall into one of four categories:

- Too much lubricant;
- Too little lubricant;
- Wrong kind of lubricant; and
- Contamination of lubricant.

Too much, too little, and the wrong kind of lubricants are problems which are easily solved. Before relubricating the pump and motor, consult the manufacturer's literature. It will tell how much lubricant to use, how often to lubricate the equipment, and give recommendations as to which brands are compatible with the equipment and service.

Lubrication oil should be changed at the recommended interval. If for some reason the oil should become overly hot in operation, more frequent changing will be required. When choosing an oil the most important characteristic to look for is the viscosity. Viscosity, in simple terms, is a fluid's resistance to flow. Consult the manufacturer's handbook to determine the correct

viscosity for the pump or motor. If the viscosity is too high the machinery will have to work harder to turn, especially in cool weather. If the viscosity is too low, the bearing will break through the oil film and wear prematurely, and also build up heat.

To relubricate a pump or motor, using oil, follow this procedure. As in all maintenance procedures, consult the manufacturer's literature before doing the work.

How to Change the Oil in Pumps & Motors

The manufacturer's literature will indicate the proper type of oil, the correct amount, and any special information you may need. The oil should be brought up to operating temperature just prior to changing.

1. Turn off the equipment and lock out the power supply;
2. Remove the drain plug and allow all the old oil to drain out;
3. Replace the drain plug and refill with new oil until the oil level indicator shows the proper levels; and,
4. Return the equipment to service.

Because of adverse reactions due to different additives, DIFFERENT BRANDS of oils should never be mixed. If you must change brands of oil, follow this procedure:

1. Turn off and lock out the power supply;
2. Remove the drain plug, and allow all the old oil to drain out;
3. Replace the drain plug and fill to the proper level with the new brand of oil; and,
4. Operate the equipment until it reaches operating temperature; then repeat drain and fill procedure.

How to Change the Oil in Pumps & Motors

Relubrication procedures using greases depend on the type of fittings furnished. Most grease lubricated equipment is equipped with an alemite grease fitting, to which a grease gun can be attached. Remove the grease relief plug from the pump or motor housing during the relubrication process. This will allow the old grease to be flushed from the bearing housing. If the equipment does not have a grease relief plug, it is very important that the manufacturer's instructions be followed exactly. If the equipment is equipped with a grease relief port, relubrication can be accomplished with little fear of accidental overlubrication. Before relubricating with grease, the manufacturer's literature should be consulted to determine the correct brand, hardness, and amount of grease to be used. Some of the pieces of equipment equipped with grease fittings are also equipped with grease relief plugs.

Mechanical Seals

Water leakage must be controlled at the point where the shaft exits the pump body/volute. In addition to controlling the water that is trying to leak out, we can, at the same time, control air that is trying to get in. There are two ways to control this leakage: through the use of mechanical seals or pump packings.

There are a great variety of brands and styles of mechanical seals from which to choose. Mechanical seals offer several advantages over mechanical packings. Properly installed, mechanical seals control leakage so well that they appear not to leak at all. This eliminates the

mess and hazard usually associated with packings—that of having water leaking all over the floor.

Mechanical seals require no maintenance, as packing does. Probably the greatest advantage of mechanical seals is that they put very little demand for extra electricity to drive the pump. They are built with a high degree of precision and require extreme care and skill in installation. The pump must be at least partially disassembled to install or replace a mechanical seal. When they fail, they tend to fail completely and require immediate attention.

There are three key points to remember when deciding whether or not to use a mechanical seal. The first is that a mechanical seal should be installed only on a new pump, or a pump and motor which has been completely rebuilt. Never install a mechanical seal on a pump that has been in service for a time, without first reworking the pump.

The second point is to choose a seal with a multiple spring arrangement. Mechanical seals rely on springs to close the sealing faces. Seals are available with a single, large spring to close the faces. This type of arrangement results in unequal pressure on the sealing faces, resulting in premature failure. The multiple spring arrangement allows for more even pressure on the sealing faces, resulting in longer seal life.

The last consideration is to choose a mechanical seal that is hydraulically balanced. Seals that are hydraulically balanced tend to have a longer operational life.

Pump Packing

The second way to control the leakage around pump shafts is by the use of pump packings. Many types of pump packings are available. Most types of pump packings have been developed to meet specific needs and are not of interest to the water industry. Even so, there is still a large variety of packings from which to choose. Packing selection is simplified if packings are selected following these guidelines:

- Determine the pH of the water being pumped;
- Determine the pressure inside the stuffing box; and,
- Estimate the shaft speed in feet per minute.

Federal regulations require that drinking water pH be within a range of 6.5 to 8.0. Because of this narrow range for pH, pH is the least significant of the three factors under consideration for water system packing selection.

The stuffing box pressure is a factor which is difficult to measure so most people use a general rule of thumb that the stuffing box pressure is usually two-thirds of the pump discharge pressure. Therefore, to determine the stuffing box pressure, put a gauge on the discharge pipe to determine the discharge pressure. Then multiply the pump discharge pressure by 0.67. For example, a pump with a discharge pressure of 150 psi would have a stuffing box pressure of 150 psi X 0.67, or approximately 100 psi. The stuffing box on a pump must be allowed to leak, but the leakage should be controlled. The higher the stuffing box pressure, the more leakage there will be.

Example:

What is the stuffing box pressure on a pump with a discharge pressure of 200 psi?

Stuffing Box Pressure, psi = discharge pressure, psi x 0.67

Stuffing Box Pressure, psi = 200 psi x 0.67 = **134 psi.**

Packing comes in several weaves, from a very loose twisted packing to a moderately tight weave. In some instances it may be necessary to abandon woven packing material all together and use solid packing materials. Solid packing materials control leakage well in pumps with very high stuffing box pressures. Because of the abrasiveness associated with all packing materials, shaft speed is a very important factor to consider. The faster the shaft speed, the better and less abrasive the packing must be. To determine the shaft speed of a pump is a fairly simple matter:

First, multiply the shaft diameter in inches by 3.14. This will determine the shaft circumference in inches. Divide the shaft circumference in inches by 12 to determine the shaft circumference in feet. Next, multiply the shaft circumference in feet by the shaft speed in rpm or revolutions per minute. This will give us the shaft speed in feet per minute.

Example:

What would the shaft speed in feet per minute be for a pump with a 2 inch shaft, turning at 1,750 rpm?

Shaft circumference, in = Shaft diameter, in x 3.14

Shaft circumference, in = 2 in x 3.14 = 6.28 in

Shaft circumference, ft = Shaft circumference, in ÷ 12 (ft/in)

Shaft circumference, ft = 6.28 in ÷ 12 (ft/in) = 0.523 ft

Shaft speed, ft/min = Shaft circumference, ft x rpm

Shaft speed, ft/min = 0.523 ft x 1750 rpm = **912 ft/min**

To determine which packing material to use, determine the pH, stuffing box pressure, and shaft speed. Once these are determined, ask your supplier which packing is the best material to meet the indicated operating conditions. The available selection is too diverse to list all of them here.

Pump Packing Procedure

As in all maintenance procedures, the manufacturer's literature for the pump should be consulted. You should be able to find out how many packing rings are needed, what size packing is needed, and where the lantern ring should be placed in the stuffing box. Before going further it would be wise to stop and examine in more detail some of the pump parts we are going to be dealing with when we pack a pump. The four parts of the stuffing box are: the gland, the sleeve, the packing and the lantern ring (or seal cage).

There must be some way to control the leakage around where the shaft protrudes into the pump volute. In order to control leakage, a pump is provided with a stuffing box and related parts. The stuffing box and its parts allow us to use packing to control the leakage.

Controlling Water Leakage

Since any material used in the stuffing box to control leakage is going to be abrasive to some extent, and this abrasiveness will result in wear and damage to the pump shaft, most pump shafts are equipped with sleeves. The sleeve is a device, slipped over the portion of the pump shaft that passes through the stuffing box, designed to take the wear from the packing and prevent damage to the shaft. Sleeves are cheaper and more easily replaced than shafts.

In order to reduce wear and extend the life of the sleeve, the sleeve and packing must be lubricated. This is accomplished using water. Most centrifugal pumps have an inlet for clean water into the stuffing box. This is called a water seal. Water is injected into the stuffing box under pressure and this water flows out of the stuffing box between the packing material and sleeve. In so doing, friction between the packing and sleeve is reduced, the sleeve is cooled, and debris is flushed from the stuffing box.

In order for water to flow into the stuffing box unobstructed, a device called a lantern ring or seal cage is sometimes placed in the stuffing box under the water seal inlet port.

The lantern ring is designed to allow the water used for cooling and lubrication to flow into the stuffing box unimpeded. Seal cages also help keep air from entering the pump. In order to function properly the lantern ring must be placed in the correct location within the stuffing box. Consult the manufacturer's handbook.

The gland serves several functions in the stuffing box. The most obvious function is to hold the packing in. The pressure from the water leaking into the stuffing box from the impeller casing (volute) and the water being injected through the inlet port would push the packing out, if the gland were not there to hold the packing in place. The gland also allows for control of leakage from the stuffing box.

In no case should the gland be tightened to the point that water flow from the stuffing box is cut off completely. The gland should only be tightened enough to stop excessive leakage. A general rule to follow in determining the proper amount of leakage from the stuffing box, is to allow at least 20 drops per minute per inch of shaft diameter. For example, a two inch shaft would need 40 drops per minute to leak from the stuffing box.

The gland also serves as an indicator of packing wear. When the gland has been adjusted until it is flush with the stuffing box, it is an indication that the packing is worn out and it is time to change it.

How to Pack a Centrifugal Pump

In replacing the pump packing, first consult the manufacturer's literature. A general guideline to packing replacement is given below:

1. Turn off the pump and lock out the power supply.
2. Close the discharge and suction valves.
3. If there is a separate pump supplying the stuffing box with lubricating water, turn off this sealing water.

4. Remove the gland, and using the packing puller, remove the old packing material. Use proper packing tools, not ice picks, screwdrivers, or coat hangers. These can damage the sleeve or stuffing box housing, causing other problems.
5. Examine the old rings of packing material for damage or unusual wear.
6. Using a wash bottle, clean out all of the debris left in the stuffing box.
7. With a flashlight and mirror, check the sleeve for rust, burrs and wear. Make any necessary repairs to the sleeve or stuffing box before proceeding.
8. Using a straight edge and thickness gages or a dial indicator, check the pump and motor for proper alignment. These procedures are listed elsewhere in the text.
9. Cut the packing material. Packing that is not cut correctly will not function properly and will eventually cause damage to the pump. There are two methods you can use to cut packing correctly. Using a shaft, sleeve, or mandrill of the same size as the shaft as the pump to be packed, wrap either one wrap at a time, or the required number of rings around the sleeve or shaft. Using a sharp knife, make the cut. If no other device is available, wrap the packing around the shaft of the pump to be packed, and make the cut. The cut is critical. If it is not done correctly, the packing should not be used. An improperly cut piece of packing material will have a joint that will not seal tightly. This loose joint will allow water to flow through the joint, rather than forcing the water to flow between the ring of packing and the shaft.
10. Replace the packing rings individually, seating each ring completely. This will require a tamping tool, or a mandrill like the one shown in the photo.
11. As you replace the rings, do not line up the packing joints. Stagger them at about 90° to each other. It is a good idea to alternate the joints by placing them at 9, 12, 3 o'clock.
12. After placing the last ring of packing, install the gland, making certain that it is square with the stuffing box housing. Run the gland nuts up finger tight.
13. Using a wrench, snug up the gland. **DO NOT OVERTIGHTEN.**
14. Back off on the gland nuts and tighten again finger tight. Insure that each nut is tightened equally and the gland remains square with the housing.
15. Turn on the sealing water.
16. Turn on the pump.
17. Open the discharge and suction valves.
18. Check the leakage from the stuffing box to insure that it is neither excessive nor insufficient. If it is insufficient, loosen the gland nuts.
19. Allow the pump to operate for about 16 to 24 hours. If the pump is still leaking too much water, carefully tighten each gland nut about one-quarter turn. Wait about 1 to 2 hours. If the pump is still leaking excessively, give the gland nuts about one quarter turn each, insuring the gland remains square with the housing. Recheck in one to two hours and make adjustments as necessary until the proper leakage rate is reached.
20. Recheck daily to insure the leak rate remains acceptable, and make one-quarter turn adjustments as necessary.

BASIC ELECTRICITY

Electricity is the flow of invisible particles called electrons, through a conductor. That flow is controlled in an electric circuit. The knowledge that electricity is created by the flow of electrons, and the knowledge of how to capture electrons, makes electricity a convenient and convertible form of energy.

Electrons flow better in some things than in others. Conductors are substances in which electrons flow freely. Metals are excellent conductors. Water is a fair conductor. Since the human body is mostly water, it can conduct electricity fairly well, too. This is why it is important to be very careful when working around electricity.

Insulators are substances in which electrons cannot flow freely. Glass, plastic, and rubber are good insulators. Electrical wiring is always enclosed in a protective covering of plastic or rubber that serve as insulators.

In order to make electrons do useful work, the electrons must have a source of pressure to push on them and cause them to move. Also, the electrons must have a complete path or **circuit** to follow. The basic components of an electric circuit include the following:

- **Source**-The part that provides the electric force or pressure to move the electrons; such as a battery or generator
- **Load**-The part that does the work or uses the electricity; such as a light bulb, heater or motor
- **Conductor**-The part that carries the electricity around the circuit such as wire, cable, or power line.

Current Flow: Amperes

Current is the flow of electrons. To understand current, imagine an electric circuit as a chain. When all three components (source, load, conductor) exist in the circuit, the electrical force causes the electrons to move down the chain. This forced movement of electrons is called current and is measured in amperes. Current is measured with a test instrument called an ammeter. Two types of current flow are: **Direct Current (DC)** - The electrons flow in one direction; and **Alternating Current (AC)** - The electrons flow back-and-forth.

The AC you use at home changes direction 60 times per second. This means the electrons move back-and-forth 60 times per second. This flow in one direction, reversing, and flowing in the other direction is called a cycle. The term 60 cycles AC or 60 Hertz means 60 of these cycles occur each second.

Electrical Pressure: Volts

Electrical pressure is the force that causes electrons to move in a closed electric circuit. It is also referred to as voltage. The pressure or force is measured in volts by a test instrument called a voltmeter. In a DC circuit, a battery produces voltage and in AC circuit a generator produces voltage. A car battery is typically 12 volts DC. That means that the difference in electron pressure between the two terminals is 12 volts. The electric outlets in your well house are 120

volts or 240 volts AC. The voltage difference between the two prongs of the outlet is 120 V or 240 V.

Resistance: Ohms

Electrons do not flow freely in a conductor. There is a certain amount of resistance or friction to oppose the electron flow. This resistance is called ohms and is measured by a test instrument called an ohmmeter.

Water Flow Analogy of Electrical Circuit

The flow of electrons in an electric circuit can be compared to the flow of water through a closed loop piping system. Volts, amps, and watts measure electricity. Volts measure the pressure under which electricity flows. Amps measure the amount of electric current. Watts measure the amount of work done by a certain amount of current at a certain pressure or voltage.

To simplify the relationship, think of water in a hose. Turning on the faucet supplies the force, which is like the voltage. The amount of water flowing (gallons per minute) through the hose is like the amperage. You would use a lot of water that comes out fast (more watts) to wash off a muddy car. You would use less water that comes out more slowly (less watts) to fill a glass.

Water circuit vs. Electric circuit Source

- Water circuit - water pump produces water pressures (psi) to cause water to flow (gpm)
- Electric circuit - generator produces electrical force (volts) to cause electrons to flow (amps)

Flow measurement

- Water circuit - flow meter measures water flow in gpm
- Electric circuit - ammeter measures current in amperes (amps)

Load

- Water circuit - water wheel does work by rotating
- Electric circuit - light bulb does work by producing light and heat

Pressure loss

- To determine the loss of energy, pressure gauges installed before and after the water wheel can measure the loss of water pressure.
- A voltmeter measures voltage drop as the current goes through the light bulb (conversion of electrical energy to light and heat energy).

Conductor

- Water circuit - pipe that carries the flow of water
- Electric circuit - wire that carries the electrons

ELECTRICAL CURRENT

Electricity is a term used to describe the energy produced (usually to perform work) when electrons are caused to directional (not randomly) flow from atom to atom. In fact, the day-to-day products that we all benefit from, rely on the movement of electrons. This movement of electrons between atoms is called electrical current. how electrical current is produced and measured will be discussed on the following pages.

It is very important to have a way to measure and quantify the flow of electrical current. When current flow is controlled it can be used to do useful work. Electricity can be very dangerous and it is important to know something about it in order to work with it safely. The flow of electrons is measured in units called amperes. The term amps is often used for short. An amp is the amount of electrical current that exists when a number of electrons, having one coulomb of charge, move past a given point in one second. A coulomb is the charge carried by 6.25×10^{18} electrons. 6.25×10^{18} is scientific notation for 6,250,000,000,000,000,000. That is a lot of electrons moving past a given point in one second! Since we cannot count this fast and we cannot even see the electrons, we need an instrument to measure the flow of electrons. An ammeter is this instrument and it is used to indicate how many amps of current are flowing in an electrical circuit.

We also need to know something about the force that causes the electrons to move in an electrical circuit. This force is called **electromotive force (EMF)**. Sometimes it is convenient to think of EMF as electrical pressure. In other words, it is the force that makes electrons move in a certain direction within a conductor. But how do we create this “electrical pressure” to generate electron flow? There are many sources of EMF. Some of the more common ones are: batteries, generators, and photovoltaic cells, just to name a few.

Batteries are constructed so there are too many electrons in one material and not enough in another material. The electrons want to balance the electrostatic charge by moving from the material with the excess electrons to the material with the shortage of electrons. However, they cannot because there is no conductive path for them to travel. However, if these two unbalanced materials within the battery are connected together with a conductor, electrical current will flow as the electron moves from the negatively charged area to the positively charged area. When you use a battery, you are allowing electrons to flow from one end of the battery through a conductor and something like a light bulb to the other end of the battery. The battery will work until there is a balance of electrons at both ends of the battery. Caution: you should never connect a conductor to the two ends of a battery without making the electrons pass through something like a light bulb which slows the flow of currents. If the electrons are allowed to flow too fast the conductor will become very hot, and it and the battery may be damaged.

To understand how voltage and amperage are related, it is sometimes useful to make an analogy with water. Look at the picture here of water flowing in a garden hose. Think of electricity flowing in a wire in the same way as the water flowing in the hose. The voltage causing the electrical current to flow in the wire can be considered the water pressure at the faucet, which causes the water to flow. If we were to increase the pressure at the hydrant, more water would flow in the hose. Similarly, if we increase electrical pressure or voltage, more electrons would flow in the wire. Does it also make sense that if we were to remove the pressure from the

hydrant by turning it off, the water would stop flowing? The same is true with an electrical circuit. If we remove the voltage source, or EMF, no current will flow in the wires.

Another way of saying this is: without EMF, there will be no current. Also, we could say that the free electrons of the atoms move in random directions unless they are pushed or pulled in one direction by an outside force, which we call EMF.

There is another important property that can be measured in electrical systems. This is resistance, which is measured in units called ohms (Ω). Resistance is a term that describes the forces that oppose the flow of electron current in a conductor. All materials naturally contain some resistance to the flow of electron current. We have not found a way to make conductors that do not have some resistance.

If we use our water analogy to help picture resistance, think of a hose that is partially plugged with sand. The sand will slow the flow of water in the hose. We can say that the plugged hose has more resistance to water flow than does an unplugged hose. If we want to get more water out of the hose, we would need to turn up the water pressure at the hydrant. The same is true with electricity. Materials with low resistance let electricity flow easily. Materials with higher resistance require more voltage (EMF) to make the electricity flow.

The scientific definition of one ohm is the amount of electrical resistance that exists in an electrical circuit when one amp of current is flowing with one volt being applied to the circuit.

Resistance can be both good and bad. If we are trying to transmit electricity from one place to another through a conductor, resistance is undesirable in the conductor. Resistance causes some of the electrical energy to turn into heat so some electrical energy is lost along the way. However, it is resistance that allows us to use electricity for heat and light. The heat that is generated from electric heaters or the light that we get from light bulbs is due to resistance. In a light bulb, the electricity flowing through the filament, or the tiny wires inside the bulb, cause them to glow white hot. If all the oxygen were not removed from inside the bulb, the wires would burn up.

An important point to mention here is that the resistance is higher in smaller wires. Therefore, if the voltage or EMF is high, too much current will follow through small wires and make them hot. In some cases hot enough to cause a fire or even explode. Therefore, it is sometimes useful to add components called resistors into an electrical circuit to slow the flow of electricity and protect of the components in the circuit. Resistance is also good because it gives us a way to shield ourselves from the harmful energy of electricity.

Copper is considered to be a conductor because it “conducts” the electron current or flow of electrons fairly easily. Most metals are considered to be good conductors of electrical current. Copper is just one of the more popular materials that is used for conductors. Other materials that are sometimes used as conductors are silver, gold, and aluminum. Copper is still the most popular material used for wires because it is a very good conductor of electrical current and it is fairly inexpensive when compared to gold and silver. Aluminum and most other metals do not conduct electricity quite as good as copper.

Insulators are materials that have just the opposite effect on the flow of electrons. They do not let electrons flow very easily from one atom to another. Insulators are materials whose atoms have tightly bound electrons. These electrons are not free to roam around and be shared by neighboring atoms. Some common insulator materials are glass, plastic, rubber, air, and wood.

Insulators are used to protect us from the dangerous effects of electricity flowing through conductors. Sometimes the voltage in an electrical circuit can be quite high and dangerous. If the voltage is high enough, electric current can be made to flow through even materials that are generally not considered to be good conductors. Our bodies will conduct electricity and you may have experienced this when you received an electrical shock. Generally, electricity flowing through the body is not pleasant and can cause injuries. The function of our heart can be disrupted by a strong electrical shock and the current can cause burns. Therefore, we need to shield our bodies from the conductors that carry electricity. The rubbery coating on wires is an insulating material that shields us from the conductor inside. Look at any lamp cord and you will see the insulator. If you see the conductor, it is probably time to replace the cord.

Conductors have a very low resistance to electrical current while insulators have a very high resistance to electrical current. These two factors become very important when we start to deal with actual electrical circuits.

Probably the most important mathematical relationship between voltage, current and resistance in electricity is something called “Ohm’s Law”. This formula is used to calculate electrical values so that we can design circuits and use electricity in a useful manner. Ohm's Law is $I = V/R$, where I = current, V = voltage, and R = resistance. Ohm’s Law can also be written as $V = I \times R$ or $R = V/I$. All of these variations of Ohm’s Law are mathematically equal to one another.

Let’s look at what Ohm’s Law tells us. In the first version of the formula, $I = V/R$, Ohm's Law tells us that the electrical current flowing in a circuit is directly proportional to the voltage and inversely proportional to the resistance. In other words, an increase in the voltage will tend to increase the current while an increase in resistance will tend to decrease the current.

The second version of the formula tells us that if either the current or the resistance is increased in the circuit, the voltage will also have to increase. The third version of the formula tells us that an increase in voltage will result in an increase in resistance but that an increase in current will result in a decrease in resistance.

As you can see, voltage, current, and resistance are mathematically, as well as, physically related to each other. We cannot deal with electricity without all three of these properties being considered.

When we connect various components together with wires, we create an electric circuit. The electrons must have a voltage source to create their movement and, of course, they need a path in which to travel. This path must be complete from the EMF source, through the other components and then back to the EMF source.

The voltage for any electric circuit can come from many different sources. Some common examples are: batteries, power plants, fuel cells. When we plug an appliance into a wall outlet,

voltage and current are available to us. That voltage is actually created in a power plant somewhere else and then delivered to your house by the power wires that are on poles or buried underground.

As a matter of fact, since no current can flow unless there is a voltage source, we also refer to these sources as current sources. In other words, without the voltage source, there will be no current flowing. This makes it a current source instead of a voltage source.

Batteries create voltage through a chemical process. Power plants generate electricity from numerous mechanical methods, some burn coal or gas to create steam while others use water flowing through a dam on a lake. There are also nuclear-powered generating power plants. All of these power-generating systems turn large turbines that turn the shaft on a generator. All of these sources of electricity convert something called potential energy to kinetic energy. The potential energy is stored in the fuel, whether it is coal, gas, uranium, water in a dam, etc. When we utilize these fuels to generate electricity, they become kinetic energy. We might say that potential energy is waiting to be used while kinetic energy is being used.

In addition to the voltage source, we need to have wires and other components to build an electric circuit. Remember that copper wires are conductors since they can easily conduct the flow of electrons. We may also use resistors or other forms of loads to form a complete circuit. If we did not include resistors in our circuit, there may be too much current flowing to and from our voltage source and we could damage the voltage source.

Circuit diagrams are a pictorial way of showing circuits. Electricians and engineers draw circuit diagrams to help them design the actual circuits. A capacitor is used to store electrical charge. An example would be a timer.

Now that we have a fairly good understanding of basic electricity terms and concepts, let's take a closer look at some more details of the electrical current itself. The battery we have been using for a current/voltage source generates direct current, which simply means the current flows in only one direction.

As long as electrons are flowing through the atoms of the circuit, work is being done. We can see that work is being done in this circuit because it lights the light bulb. The actual amount of electrons that are flowing is determined by the type and size of the battery as well as by the size and type of the light bulb. We could reverse the polarity of the battery by switching the contacts (wires), and the current would flow in the opposite direction and the bulb would still light. Either way the battery is connected to the circuit, current can only flow in one direction. **Direct current (DC)** can also be generated by means other than batteries. Solar cells, fuel cells, and even some types of generators can provide DC current.

AC is short for **alternating current**. This means that the direction of current flowing in a circuit is constantly being reversed back and forth. This is done with any type of AC current/voltage source. The electrical current in your house is alternating current. This comes from power plants that are operated by the electric company. Those big wires you see stretching across the countryside are carrying AC current from the power plants to the loads, which are in our homes and businesses. The direction of current is switching back and forth 60 times each second.

PREPARATION OF AN OPERATION & MAINTENANCE PLAN

This plan should be developed by every public water supplier to provide a written source of material that can be easily referred to for guidance in operating a water system. This plan will be a valuable reference tool for the operating personnel because standard operating procedures for the system and guidelines for start-up and emergency situations will be at their fingertips. The plan will contain information regarding start-up and normal operating procedures and emergency operating procedures; descriptions of equipment and facilities; organization responsibilities; names, addresses, and phone numbers of all key personnel; all contractors and suppliers; and state and local officials.

The Operation & Maintenance (O&M) Plan will also provide a ready reference for all equipment data which is necessary for performing normal maintenance and for ordering replacement parts and supplies. It will be an organized system for keeping records of the operation of the system. These records are useful for monthly and annual reports, as supporting documentation of proper operation, and to support the need for replacement or upgrading of treatment facilities. It will have detailed instructions for water sampling and testing which are required for compliance with the Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) and for routine monitoring of the treatment process for compliance with generally accepted good waterworks procedures.

The O&M Plan will become a training manual to provide personnel with a handy source reference while they learn to operate the facilities. The O&M Plan will be used by experienced operating personnel to monitor normal procedures for changes or emergency conditions; as a source for names and phone numbers when emergency notification is required; and as a check of proper maintenance procedures.

How to Develop an Effective O& M Plan

O&M Plans are often prepared by engineers and managers; however, they must be certain that they obtain information from persons actually experienced in plant operation and maintenance. The procedures must be described in terms and language which are readily accepted and understood by the operators. Because of the technical nature of the water treatment process, a basic level of knowledge and understanding by the operators must be assumed. The experienced operator will usually refer to the O&M Plan for confirmation of normal operation and maintenance procedures and as a reference guide for unusual operating conditions. The entry level operator should frequently refer to the O&M Plan for guidance and instruction.

Some water suppliers may have O&M Plans or certain parts of O&M Plans established on their system. These may include Emergency Response Plans, Safety Programs, Water Conservation Programs, Cross-Connection Control Programs, or other formalized procedures. This guidance manual is not intended as a required format which must be followed, but as a presentation of procedures which can be considered for your use in the preparation of your O&M Plan. Plans and programs which have been accepted as good, operating procedures can be directly included in your O&M Plan without rewriting; however, it would be a good idea to review and update your procedures. Your O&M Plan will be a collection of plans and programs which will probably be stored in loose-leaf notebooks. The appearance of your plan is not as important as the availability of the information to the operating personnel and the ability to revise and update it.

O&M PLAN FOR WATER TREATMENT

Treatment of raw water is necessary in all public water systems to prevent the transmission of contaminants to the consumer. The contaminants could be toxic, cause disease, or have other long-term health effects for the consumer. Water also must be treated for aesthetic contaminants (i.e., color, turbidity, taste, odor, and corrosivity) so the consumer continues to have trust in the quality, taste, and odor of the drinking water. Because of this trust, the water supplier and operators have a continuing challenge to provide water of the highest possible quality at a time when there is an ever increasing possibility of contamination. Outlined in this section are typical examples of operations and maintenance procedures for water treatment processes. The water system may use these as guidelines for preparing similar descriptions for inclusion in an **Operation and Maintenance (O&M) Plan** or may want to develop customized information applicable to a particular process or system.

Chemical Addition and Handling

Chemical addition in the treatment process occurs at several different locations such as "pretreatment" at the head end of the plant; "in process" such as filter aids applied to the filter influent; and "post-treatment" applied to the clearwell. The large variety of chemicals available for water treatment is used for the following purposes: coagulants; pH adjustment; taste and odor control; disinfectants; corrosion control; polymers or filter aids; algae control; softening; and fluoridation. Chemicals also come in a variety of states, such as solid (granular, powder, or flakes), liquid (solutions), and gas. Because of their natures, each must be handled in their own special way. There is a large amount of written material available on this subject so only the more common chemicals and applications will be described. The most important consideration in the addition of a chemical to the treatment process is the determination of the dosage or rate of feed and how the chemical will react with other chemicals used in the process. It is good practice to maintain at least a 30 day supply of treatment chemicals on site. In addition, it is required that any treatment chemical that come into contact with drinking water must be certified and listed for conformance with the ANSI/NSF Standard 60. All chemicals, especially imported chemicals should be checked to be in compliance with AWWA Standards.

Taste and Odor Control Chemicals

The causes and locations of taste and odor problems are varied, so the chemicals used and the points of application are many and varied. The following list of chemicals includes some commonly used taste and odor controls.

- Powdered activated carbon (PAC) is a dusty, messy material to handle and should be converted to a slurry (mixed with water) as early in the process as possible. The dry material is fed by a dry chemical feeder (volumetric) into a tank of water having a mixer, and the slurry then is pumped into the treatment process. Because the carbon is highly combustible, it should be stored away from other chemicals, particularly potassium permanganate (KMnO₄) and HTH (high test hypochlorite). The amounts of activated carbon required have been described as up to 15 mg/L, but there is no specific test to determine the necessary amount. The trial and error method will best determine the quantity. Records of what was done in previous incidents could be used as a guideline. The activated carbon can be applied at the intake or at the rapid mix area of the plant, so there is time to react (adsorb) with

the taste and odor causing constituents before it reaches the filters which should remove any remaining carbon from the water.

CAUTION - Do not add chlorine at the same point or upstream from the activated carbon application since the activated carbon will adsorb the chlorine and neutralize the effectiveness of both chemicals.

- Potassium permanganate (KMnO_4) is supplied as dry, purple crystals which are readily dissolved in water. Potassium permanganate, a highly effective oxidizing agent, destroys tastes and odors, and readily oxidizes soluble iron and manganese into insoluble oxides. This chemical always should be applied upstream from filtration preferably at the intake or at the rapid mix basin. Potassium permanganate usually is applied in dosages up to 5 mg/L. Visual control is possible since it turns the water a pink-purple color. The dosage must be low enough so this color does not extend beyond the filters. This chemical comes in dry crystals and can be mixed with water and fed by dripping or by a solution pump.

Corrosion Control

Water sometimes is unstable due to low pH, high level of dissolved oxygen, and low alkalinity. This results in chemical reactions causing tuberculation which is the build-up of corroded materials on the inside of the pipes. Buildup reduces the cross sectional area of the pipe and available flow. The roughness of the buildup requires more energy, increasing pumping costs.

The corrosivity in water usually is evidenced by the visual observation of the effects of corrosion on metal pipes when they are excavated for repairs or replacement. Customer complaints of dirty water also is an indication that a corrosive condition exists in the system. Records of customer complaints plotted on a system map can help locate the problems.

Corrosion can cause metals in pipe materials, such as iron, copper and lead, to deteriorate and go into solution. These metals are carried by the water and then consumed by the customer. The iron in the water usually is noticeable in rust stains on clothing. Lead and copper in drinking water is not noticeable to the consumer, but is a serious health hazard when present in elevated levels.

Corrosion in pipes is caused by reactions between the water and the metal in the pipe. This appears as rust and tuberculation (buildup of rust). Some of the factors which affect the rate of corrosion are:

- Temperature - Higher temperatures cause more rapid chemical reactions (i.e., reactions which occur inside hot water tanks);
- Low pH;
- Low alkalinity;
- Velocity - Corrosive water at high velocity causes rapid pipe deterioration but shows little metal pick up. Low velocity with more contact time will have more metal pick up resulting in red water;
- Galvanic corrosion - When two different metals come into contact, there is a chemical reaction which produces a flow of electrons from one metal to the other causing corrosion; and
- Dissolved gases - Oxygen increases the rate of corrosion. Carbon dioxide reduces pH and increases corrosion. Nitrogen tends to lower corrosion rates.

Disinfection

The disinfection of water is the selective destruction of pathogenic organisms. The destruction of all organisms is called sterilization. This is too expensive and not practical in water treatment. The destruction of pathogenic organisms is the destruction of all disease-causing organisms. The Safe Drinking Water Act requirement is to destroy almost all coliform bacteria. The total coliform group merits consideration as an indicator of pollution because these bacteria always are present in the normal intestinal tract of humans and other warm-blooded animals and are eliminated in large numbers in fecal wastes. Thus, the absence of total coliform bacteria is evidence of bacteriologically-safe water.

Disinfection Chemicals

The chemicals commonly used for disinfection are chlorine, calcium hypochlorite, sodium hypochlorite, and sodium chlorite. There are other chemicals (i.e., iodine, bromine, and ozone) which will disinfect water, but are not as commonly used in water treatment.

Chlorine

Chlorine is a greenish-yellow gas which has a very penetrating, acrid odor that burns the eyes and the throat. Chlorine gas is 2 ½ times heavier than air and, therefore, tends to collect in low areas such as pits, basements, and sumps. Chlorine gas is supplied under pressure in 100 or 150 lb. cylinders or in 2000 lb containers. Chlorine also can be delivered by railroad car, but this is not common for water suppliers. The chlorine cylinders must be protected from exposure to heat because a rise in temperature can cause an increase in pressure which could rupture the steel cylinders. The cylinders are equipped with a fusible plug which softens and melts at 158°F to 165°F to prevent the buildup of pressure. Chlorine cylinders must be secured in an upright position to prevent falling over and damaging the valve. Also, the valve should be protected with a protective cap when not in use.

Method of Feeding

The chlorinators used to feed the chlorine are vacuum controlled so the chlorine gas only can be released when a vacuum is present. The chlorine gas then is injected into a stream of water at the injector. The flow of water, through a small orifice in the injector, creates the vacuum which draws the chlorine gas into the stream of water. The solution of chlorine and water then is conveyed to the point of application. A typical chlorinator has a pressure-reducing valve to lessen the pressure, a rate valve and rate meter to control the rate of flow, and a valve which shuts off the supply of chlorine gas when a vacuum is not present.

Determination and Control of Feed Rate

The amount of chlorine applied depends on the point of application and the expected result. For example, the amount of chlorine applied to raw water to control algae growth and prevent tastes and odors can be at relatively high rates because the organic materials in the water react with the chlorine. In this situation, the goal should be to carry a measurable chlorine residual to the filter influent water. This may require the application of chlorine at rates of 3 to 4 mg/L. The amount of chlorine applied to the clearwell should be adequate to maintain a detectable residual of free chlorine in all parts of the distribution system in the recommended amount of 0.2 mg/L.

The rate of feed in a gas chlorinator is controlled by a flow rate adjusting valve and a rate meter which indicates the rate of flow. In some installations there may be chlorine residual monitoring equipment which automatically paces the rate of feed to maintain a specific chlorine residual at a specified location downstream from the point of application.

Precautions and Abnormal Situations

- Chlorine gas is extremely toxic and can cause death when inhaled. All safety precautions must be observed.
- Exhaust fans must be used to ventilate the chlorine room in the event of a leak. Ideally, fans should push air into the room from the ceiling or a high point on a wall and the exhaust must be from close to floor level. This prevents the chlorine gas from passing over the fan and motor. Chlorine gas is very corrosive and can damage the fan and the motor.
- Self-contained breathing apparatus must be used if there is any suspicion of a leak.
- Chlorine leaks can be checked by using a rag on a stick dipped in ammonia. When passed near the chlorine leak, a white vapor will form.
- When a leak is suspected, always work with a backup person to help you out if you are overcome.
- When a leak cannot be repaired and could become a threat to the area, contact the fire department for help.
- If a chlorine cylinder or container is leaking, call the supplier for help.
- Avoid drawing more than 40 lbs of chlorine per day from any one cylinder. If more chlorine is required, the withdrawal should be from multiple cylinders manifolded together.

Calcium Hypochlorite and Sodium Hypochlorite

Calcium hypochlorite is a dry, white chemical in granular or tablet form. When used for disinfection, it should be mixed in a solution of water and fed by solution pump into the water to be treated.

Sodium hypochlorite is a light yellow liquid which is commonly used as bleach; however, the concentration of sodium hypochlorite used in water treatment is much higher (up to 15 percent). The liquid usually is supplied in five-gallon carboys; however, some smaller systems purchase one-gallon containers.

Method of Feeding

Both calcium hypochlorite and sodium hypochlorite solutions are fed by means of a metered solution pump. The powder or the liquid is diluted with water in a solution crock to a predetermined strength, usually about a one-percent solution.

Determination of Feed Rate

The amount of calcium hypochlorite or sodium hypochlorite applied to the water is determined by the free chlorine residual which is necessary to provide adequate disinfection of the water and maintain a total chlorine residual in the recommended amount of at 0.2 mg/L in all parts of the distribution system. Each system should develop criteria to determine the necessary chlorine residual at the point of application. However, the temperature, pH, and any organic substances in the water must be considered when setting application rates.

Precautions and Abnormal Situations

- Calcium hypochlorite is a dry powder which does not fully dissolve in water; therefore, a sediment of undissolved chemicals is present in the bottom of the solution tank. Therefore, the pump suction line should be kept off the bottom of the tank to prevent this sediment from being drawn into the pump.
- The hypochlorite solutions are very corrosive and should not be in contact with metals.
- The hypochlorite solutions are very strong alkali bleaches which can be a skin irritant. Eyes should be protected from solution splashes or airborne powder (dust).

Fluoridation Chemicals

Fluoride is added to water supplies for the purpose of preventing tooth decay. There are three common fluoridation chemicals -- sodium fluoride, sodium silicofluoride, and hydrofluosilicic acid.

Sodium fluoride and sodium silicofluoride are supplied as a dry, white powder usually in paper bags. The dust from these chemicals can irritate the nose and throat. These chemicals are fed either by dry chemical feeders where they are added to water to form a solution or, in the case of sodium fluoride, it is commonly fed through a saturator where water is passed through a layer of sodium fluoride and the chemical is dissolved into solution. These dry chemicals must be handled carefully when loading the feeders. If emptied too quickly, the airborne fluoride dust levels may become too high.

Hydrofluosilicic acid is a liquid supplied in carboys. Normally the chemical is fed at full strength directly from the carboy; however, if the liquid must be transferred, care must be taken to avoid splashes or spills. The liquid is very corrosive and irritates the skin and eyes. The fumes are pungent and irritating. The carboys should be vented to the outside so the fumes and odors do not accumulate. All storage areas should be well ventilated.

Fluoridation

The effect of fluoride in public water supplies is to reduce dental cavities. There have been many studies to support this theory and it is generally accepted by water suppliers and by the public. These studies have established that water with a fluoride content of about 1.0 mg/L causes a decrease in the number of cavities in children's teeth. Excessive fluorides in drinking water may produce mottling of teeth. The maximum contaminant level (MCL) for fluoride is based on the annual average of maximum daily air temperatures. The reason air temperature is used is because in warmer climates people drink much larger quantities of water than in the colder climates. This results in a larger daily intake of fluoride. Fluoride is available for use in water systems in three common chemical compounds: sodium fluoride, hydrofluosilicic acid, and sodium silicofluoride.

Sodium fluoride (NaF), a white, odorless material available in powder or crystal form, has the unique quality of solubility of 4.0 grams per 100 ml in water temperatures normally encountered in water treatment practice. The relative constant four percent solubility of sodium fluoride makes it ideally suited as the basis of design for the saturator type feeder where water slowly is passed through a bed containing a large amount of sodium fluoride.

Hydrofluosilicic acid (H_2SiF_6), a 20 to 35 percent aqueous solution, is a clear, straw colored, fuming, corrosive liquid with a pungent odor and the ability to irritate skin. Because

hydrofluosilicic acid contains a relatively high proportion of water, the shipping costs can be quite high for large quantities. Attempts to dilute the acid are subject to errors in measuring so it is better to use the acid undiluted from the container. If the acid is too concentrated for the solution feeder to handle, then weaker solutions of other chemical compounds are generally indicated. If the acid must be diluted, care should be taken to avoid formation of precipitate of silica.

Sodium silicofluoride (Na_2SiF_6) is converted from hydrofluosilicic acid to a dry material containing a high percentage of available fluoride. This material has eliminated the water content of the hydrofluosilicic acid, thus reducing the shipping costs. Sodium silicofluoride is a white, odorless, crystalline powder. Its solubility varies from 0.44 grams per mL at 0°C to 2.45 grams per 100 mL at 100°C so it is not suited for use in saturators. Sodium silicofluoride can be fed with a dry chemical feeder into a solution tank with a mixer and the solution is applied to the water supply.

Start-up

The start-up of chemical feeders, either dry feeders or solution pumps, should be simultaneous with the start-up of the water supply pumps, because the feeding of fluoride to water in the piping system when the water supply pumps are not running could result in harmful overfeed to the consumers. Most chemical feeders are normally wired into the control wiring of the water supply pump.

Normal Operations

The normal operation is to provide feeding of the fluoride compound to the finished water output of the treatment facility or well. Application should be at a point where all of the water produced passes. If there is multiple output and there is no common point, then a separate feeding arrangement will be necessary for each location. The point of application should be after the filtration process and as far away as possible from any other chemical applications which contain calcium since this could cause the loss of fluoride by precipitation.

Chemical Feed Equipment

1. Where saturator chemical feed equipment is used, the operation is similar for either upflow or downflow saturators. In downflow saturators, the water passes through a layer of sodium fluoride which is supported by layers of sand and gravel. There is an inverted cone on the bottom of the container which houses the solution pump suction line. The water dissolves the sodium fluoride to a four percent concentration. As the water passes through, the sand, gravel, and cone prevent particles of undissolved sodium fluoride from passing into the water system.

In the upflow saturator, the water is distributed to the bottom of the solution tank where it passes up through a layer of sodium fluoride. As it passes through the sodium fluoride, the water attains a four percent concentration of fluoride. The flow rate of water is slow enough so the undissolved sodium fluoride remains on the bottom of the solution tank. The solution pump suction is in a floating strainer and foot valve on the surface of the liquid.

2. Where a dry chemical feeder is used, the chemical is usually sodium silicofluoride and the feeders are either volumetric (by volume) or gravimetric (by weight) to deliver a uniform

amount of fluoride chemical per unit of time. The dry chemical drops into a solution tank where it is mixed with water, assisted by either a water jet or a mechanical mixer. A mechanical mixer is more dependable and provides better dissolution of the fluoride in the water. The water in the solution tank then flows, either by metering pump or by gravity, to the point of application.

3. When hydrofluosilicic acid is used, it is fed by a metering pump. Metering pumps are available in several types. The most common are: a diaphragm pump with a flexible diaphragm that moves to force a specific amount of liquid out of the pump chamber and alternately moves in the opposite direction and draws the liquid into the pump chamber from a reservoir; a piston metering pump with a piston that alternately moves forward and back, the forward stroke forcing the liquid out of the chamber and the back stroke drawing in liquid from a reservoir; and peristaltic pumps which force uniform amounts of liquid to flow through a flexible plastic tube by passing movable rollers along the tube. The diaphragm metering pump is the most common because it is economical to purchase and maintain. The piston metering pump is usually more rugged for larger installations. The peristaltic pump has the advantage of providing more uniform flow, eliminating the pulses caused by the diaphragm and piston type metering pumps. The suction line of the metering pump should be run into the acid carboy, which should be vented to the outside since the fumes from the hydrofluosilicic acid are pungent and corrosive.

Fluoride Feed Rates

The fluoride level in a water supply is accomplished by adding the proper concentration of a fluoride chemical at a consistent rate.

Records

Records of the operation of the fluoride chemical feed equipment should be kept on a daily basis. The records should show the quantity of the chemical applied each day and in the case of a saturator, the gallons of water fed through the saturator. In all cases, the records should contain enough information so the total amount of fluoride applied can be determined. The results of analysis for fluoride in the system should be recorded daily.

Monitoring

A sample should be taken from the system and an analysis of fluoride should be made in accordance with an accepted and approved method. The tap at the sample point should be run long enough so the sample is representative of the water in the main. Water samples should be taken and analyzed at least daily.

Maintenance

The proper maintenance of the fluoride feed equipment will insure the continued normal operation. The maintenance of the equipment always should be in accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations. The basic equipment used for feeding fluoride is the solution metering pump, the dry chemical feeder, and the mechanical mixer. The maintenance of these units generally consists of keeping the equipment clean and lubricated.

Electric motors usually come with a prescribed schedule for lubrication and many small motors do not require any lubrication. The right type and amount of lubrication is important. Gear boxes used for speed reduction usually require filling with a proper gear oil or lubricant.

Keeping the equipment clean and operative is of prime importance since the fluoride chemicals are very corrosive and tend to build up precipitates which interfere with the flow of water. Spare parts for solution pumps should be kept on hand and a spare pump should be available for use when a pump is being repaired.

Safety Precautions

Fluoride compounds are very corrosive and the fumes from hydrofluosilicic acid are pungent and irritating to the skin. The operators always should wear protective safety gear when handling fluoride chemicals. In the dry state, fluoride is dusty and respirators should be worn. Care should be taken that the dust does not get into any food consumed by the operators. When handling hydrofluosilicic acid, rubber gloves and a face shield should be used to protect against splashes on the face, hands, or arms. Any spills should be washed away with large amounts of water.

Abnormal Conditions

Overfeed incidents - There is always the potential for overfeeding; however, most overfeeds are not of serious consequence but must be recognized and corrected. In the case of serious overfeeds which produce concentrations greater than 2.0 mg/L, OEHS must be notified.

Aeration

Aeration is the introduction of air into water, naturally or by the treatment process. A good example of natural aeration is the tumbling of water over rocks in a stream bed. The turbulence brings the air into contact with the water and the air dissolves into the water.

The induction of air into water can help oxidize iron, manganese, and certain types of tastes and odors; raise the oxygen level in the water; reduce the carbon dioxide, hydrogen sulfide, and methane; and remove volatile organic compounds. Excess carbon dioxide in water can cause corrosion, can make iron removal more difficult, and can inhibit the lime softening process.

- Hydrogen sulfide is a poisonous gas which can be dangerous in water treatment. It has a rotten egg odor and affects the taste of coffee, tea, ice cubes, and other foods. The gas is corrosive to metals and will tarnish silverware.
- Methane, commonly called swamp gas, is flammable and explosive and will impart garlic-like taste into water.
- Iron and manganese in water can cause a metallic taste in addition to staining clothes and plumbing fixtures.
- Some tastes and odors in water can be removed or reduced by aeration if they are caused by volatile substances which are readily oxidized. Many taste and odor causing substances will only be partly reduced by aeration and must be removed by other processes.
- An increase in dissolved oxygen in water is beneficial because it improves the taste of otherwise flat tasting water from the lower portion of lakes or reservoirs. A large amount of dissolved oxygen in water is called saturation and this can cause problems in the treatment process such as corrosion, floating floc, and air binding of filters. The turbulence of a cascade type aerator can remove excess dissolved oxygen to the atmosphere. There are numerous volatile organic chemical compounds in water as a result of industrial pollution which are

known or suspected carcinogens. Also, chlorine tends to react with certain natural organic materials to form trihalomethanes.

General Description

Each type of aerator has its own characteristics and may be more effective for one constituent than another. There are many different types of aerators but they basically fall into the following categories:

1. Water into Air Aerators

In this type of aerator, the water flow is broken into small drops and falls through the air, creating intimate contact with the air. Different types are:

- Cascade Aerator - In a cascade aerator the water flows down a series of steps or circular rings stacked together with a central vertical feed pipe;
- Cone Aerators - A cone aerator is similar to stacked pans except the water flows from one pan to the next by means of specially-designed cone-shaped nozzles;
- Slat and Coke Tray Aerator - The slat and coke tray aerator usually has three to five trays which have spaced wooden slats. The trays are filled with pieces of coke rock, ceramic balls, or limestone. This creates a larger contact area between the air and the water;
- Draft Aerator - A draft aerator is similar to the slat and coke tray aerator with a positive upward air flow from a blower introduced at the bottom of the aerator. An induced draft aerator has a top-mounted blower which pulls an upward flow of air from the bottom of the aerator;
- Spray Aerator - A spray aerator disperses water out into a fine spray that falls through the air in a fountain effect. These are sometimes located within a structure to prevent windblown losses and reduce freezing problems. A spray aerator also may incorporate the effects of a cascade and a draft aerator for maximum effect.

2. Air into Water Aerators

This type of aerator mixes air into the water by either diffusers or draft tubes. They are:

- Diffuser Aerator - A diffuser aerator releases tiny bubbles of compressed air into the water, usually near the bottom of an aeration tank. These diffusers are usually mounted on a manifold pipe at a regular spacing to provide a rolling type mixing pattern to the water;
- Draft Tube Aerator - A draft tube aerator is a submersible pump with an air intake pipe. A partial vacuum is created by the eye of the impeller. The air and water are mixed by the turbine impeller and then discharged to the aeration tank.

3. Combination Aerators

This type of aerator produces air mixed in water by mechanical means or by applying water to compressed air or diffusing air into a pressure pipeline. They are:

- Mechanical Aerators - Mechanical aerators have a propeller mixing blade which is driven by a motor. The rapidly turning blade causes a violent mixing of the air and water. These have several different configurations: surface, submerged, combination (two blade), and draft tube;

- Pressure Aerators - Pressure aerators are of two basic types: water is sprayed into high pressure air within a pressure tank and air is diffused into water directly in a pressure pipeline.

4. Air strippers

This type of aerator forces air to flow upward through water which is flowing downward through a packed bed of small pieces of material. Packed tower air strippers which are a vertical column partially filled with small pieces of material use this process. As the flow of water trickles down through the material there is a countercurrent flow of air from a blower upward through the material.

Start-up/Shut-down

The start-up of aeration units should coincide with the start-up of the flow of water through the treatment process. With forced or induced draft the countercurrent flow of air should be established before the flow of water starts through the aerator. When the aerator is shut down the blower should continue to operate until all water has passed through the aerator facilities. On shut-down, all water pipes and bottom collection chambers should be effectively drained to prevent freezing.

Normal Operations

Normal operations should include visual inspection of the equipment for any damage due to corrosion.

Monitoring

During operation of the aeration facilities the following tests should be made:

- DO (dissolved oxygen);
- pH;
- Temperature;
- CO₂ (carbon dioxide);
- Manganese; and
- Taste and odor.

The DO test and the temperature will indicate possible over or under aeration of the water. The pH can be used as an indication of CO₂ removal or of the best pH range for removal of H₂S or iron and manganese. As the temperature increases, the dissolved oxygen levels decrease.

Frequency of testing would depend on the normal variations in the source water. In water with very little variation, daily testing may not be necessary.

Where aeration is used to remove volatile organic compounds, the analysis should be made by a laboratory certified for volatile organic compounds and, if necessary, for vinyl chloride. Analyses should be done a minimum of once each calendar quarter.

Records

Records should be kept for the number of hours of operation, the results of all water quality tests, and any major maintenance or operational problems.

Maintenance

The operator should maintain the pumps and blowers according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The operator should visually inspect the aerator for damage due to the corrosive atmosphere such as eroded paint, rust, and rotting of wooden parts. All damaged parts should be replaced as soon as possible and painted surfaces should be restored.

Caution: All paint used must be approved by OEHS and be certified as meeting the NSF Standard 61. The paint shall not transfer any substance to the water which will be toxic or cause foul tastes or odors.

Operation Problems

1. Too much dissolved oxygen (DO) can be added resulting in super-saturation which can cause corrosion of tanks and pipes, floating floc in clarifiers or sedimentation basins, and false clogging of filters. Monitoring of DO and temperature will alert the operator to this problem. As the temperature increases, the saturation concentration for oxygen in water decreases.

2. The growth of algae and slime on the aerators may occur during the summer months. These can be controlled by the addition of copper sulfate, chlorine, or other suitable chemicals.

3. Where diffusers are used, they can become partly clogged from dust, oil, debris, or chemical deposits. This can be prevented by cleaning air filters, not over-lubricating the blowers, and preventing the backflow of water into the diffusers. Diffusers should be cleaned according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

Adsorption

Water contains various organic compounds which can cause color, tastes, and odors. The threat to public health also is a concern in regard to organic compounds, particularly those compounds created by the reaction of chlorine with certain organic compounds (mostly humic materials) and to certain man-made organic compounds such as insecticides, herbicides, and cleaning solvents.

The naturally occurring compounds enter the water supplies due to the decay of animal and vegetable matter on the watersheds of surface supplies. The insecticides and herbicides present in the runoff from agricultural land and the man-made compounds, frequently found in ground-water sources, are the result of accidental spills, discharges, and uncontrolled disposal. Organic chemicals can be partially removed by using chlorine or potassium permanganate to oxidize the compounds or by aeration, by coagulation/flocculation, by sedimentation, and by filtration; however, these processes cannot remove some organic compounds as efficiently as adsorption.

Adsorption is the use of activated carbon for organics removal. Activated carbon is created by heating carbon (usually bituminous or lignite coal) to very high temperatures in the presence of steam. This creates a very porous surface on the particles whose surfaces attract and hold organics. Once the surface of the particles is covered with organics, it loses its ability to adsorb and must be replaced with fresh carbon.

Activated carbon is available as powdered activated carbon (PAC) and granular activated carbon (GAC). PAC typically is added to the treatment process, usually as near the beginning as possible to provide the greatest contact time, and is removed by the filters to prevent carryover to

the system. It usually is added only to the water for control of tastes and odors when necessary. GAC typically is used permanently in the treatment process as a filter material or as the media in GAC contactors for the removal of specific compounds such as trihalomethanes.

Powdered Activated Carbon (PAC)

PAC is a very fine dusty material which must be stored and handled with care. This material normally is purchased in 50-lb. bags or, at very large installations, it may be purchased in bulk. The hopper of the dry chemical feeder should be equipped so a bag of carbon can be hung on the open door of the hopper. The top of the bag is slit and the door is closed causing the bag to empty inside the hopper controlling the dust. The dry chemical feeder drops the dry material, at an adjustable rate, into a mixing tank where it is mixed into a slurry with large amounts of water. This slurry should be conveyed to the point of application as quickly as possible to prevent the carbon material from settling out and clogging pipes or troughs.

The PAC should be applied to the raw water or the rapid mix basin if possible and always should be fed ahead of any chlorination, because the chlorine will diminish the effectiveness of the PAC and the PAC will diminish the effectiveness of the chlorine. If possible, prechlorination should be discontinued when feeding PAC.

Start-up

Before starting the feeding of PAC, the jar test should be done to determine the beginning dose rate, and the prechlorination should be discontinued. Starting would consist of filling the feeder hopper, starting the flow of water in the mixing chamber, starting the solution feed pump and/or opening valves, and setting the indicated dose rate.

Normal Operations

Normal operations would be to refill the feeder hopper as necessary, adjust the dose rate as indicated by subsequent threshold odor tests on the filter effluent, checking mixing chamber and pipes or troughs for clogging, and cleaning up any carbon dust.

Monitoring

Monitoring consists of the threshold odor test on the filter effluent, making visual observations of the presence of carbon in the water at various locations in the treatment process. For example, it is desirable for most carbon to be settled out before the filters. Changes in the coagulant dose rate usually can correct this problem. The filters should be watched for shorter than normal filter runs since the PAC will cake on the surface of the filter or can penetrate through the filters. An effluent sample should be filtered through a membrane filter paper. If PAC is present, it will darken the filter paper surface. The free available chlorine residual in the plant effluent water must be monitored carefully since the PAC will reduce the effectiveness of the chlorine.

Records

Record keeping can provide a guideline for treatment of similar occurrences in the future, particularly for taste and odor problems. A record should include the dates of the occurrence, a description (i.e., "fishy", "septic", "musty", etc.), the treatment changes made, the jar test results, and the amount of PAC fed.

Maintenance

Maintenance of PAC feeding equipment is routine clean-up of carbon dust, and clearing of any caking or clogging in hoppers, mixing tanks, lines, or troughs. Routine maintenance of the chemical feeder, the mixer, and the solution pump should be in accordance with the manufacturer's recommendations. All electric motors and switches should be frequently cleaned on the outside. All electric equipment should be explosion-proof, so there should be no unnecessary opening of switch and terminal boxes.

Operating Problems

- a. The dust from the fine powder is a fire hazard. The black carbon is hard to remove from clothes and skin.
- b. PAC can pass through the filters and enter the distribution system causing "black water" complaints from customers.

O&M PLAN FOR DISTRIBUTION

The distribution system includes the conveyance of water from the source to the customer including pumping, transmission mains, distribution mains, valves, fire hydrants, customer service lines, and distribution system storage. The operation and maintenance of a water distribution system is a separate function in the operation and maintenance of a water system.

The water must be delivered in the same potable, ready-to-drink condition that it left the treatment facility. To protect the water quality, the water distribution workers must at all times protect the water from any type of pollution or degradation.

Plans and Records

A. Distribution System Maps

When water mains are installed, a plan of the pipe and fittings must be drawn to establish a record of the facilities installed. This information should be either added to the existing plans or a new plan should be started which would be referenced to the overall system plans. A system should be established for all distribution system plans so that they are of the same scale and fit together to cover the entire system.

The distribution plans become the records of the system showing the date installed, the work order or extension number, the material of the mains, the type of valve, the locations of the mains within the streets or rights-of-way, the location of services, fire hydrants, and valves.

B. Locations of Pressure Zones

On the system plans the normal operating pressures should be indicated at typical locations such as fire hydrants and customer services. These pressures are useful in comparing operating conditions when there is a suspected leak in the system.

Sometimes a water system must be divided into different pressure zones so that customers at higher locations have adequate pressures for the service they desire. Also, customers and the water system mains must be protected from excessively high pressures which could cause damage and break mains and customers' pipes. To establish these pressure zones, the water system may have booster pump stations which pump the water to a higher elevation or the water system may have pressure-reducing stations which reduce the high pressure to a lower, acceptable level. The pressure zones must be clearly marked on the system maps so that inadvertent flow between the zones does not occur. Also, all valves which should normally be closed to separate the zones should be clearly marked on the plans as normally closed.

A description of the operating procedures for each area of the distribution system including pumps, chlorinators, storage tanks and reservoirs, valves and pressure regulating valves should be included in the O&M Plan. This would describe how each part operates with the other parts of the system (i.e., what are the controlling conditions, how is the system monitored, and what records are maintained).

C. Updating and Correcting Plans

When additions or changes are made to the system, the plans should be updated and corrected. Initially, the field personnel such as the maintenance crew or the construction inspector make the changes in pencil on a working set of prints.

D. Production and Pumping Records

A record of the amount of water produced, the chemicals used in treatment, and the water pumped should be kept for the system. These records provide a history of the operation and indicate the demands of the system and the costs of operation. A comparison of records can be used to identify suspected system problems such as increased pumping or treatment costs, or possible loss of water.

These reports should reflect the water taken from all sources of supply such as wells, streams, rivers, and lakes, or purchased from another supplier. The records should indicate the water in the system storage facilities so a daily system use can be developed. A system of keeping records on a month-to-date basis and a daily average use basis can be compared to previous year's performance.

Distribution System Components

A. Transmission and Distribution Mains

There are many materials used in transmission and distribution mains. Some of the more common are as follows:

1. Cast Iron - Cast iron pipe has been used for water systems for over a century. The older pipe usually had bell and spigot joints which used jute and lead to make a watertight joint. Because of the labor and skills needed to pour a lead joint, this type of pipe is no longer commonly used; however, sometimes repairs are made using poured lead joints. Another factor to consider is the potential for lead contamination in the water. The more modern joints for cast iron pipe and ductile iron pipe are rubber gasketed joints which provide a simple seal which can be easily installed.
2. Concrete - Concrete pipe has been used for transmission mains because of its long life. It normally is available only in larger diameters and is difficult to make connections. The joints are usually sealed with an O-ring rubber gasket.
3. Asbestos Cement - Asbestos cement pipe was used extensively from 1940 to 1980 as a less expensive material. This pipe can release asbestos fibers to the water if the water is aggressive.
4. PVC (Polyvinyl chloride) - PVC pipe is the less expensive substitute for the ductile iron pipe. This pipe is light in weight and easy to handle and join. It is subject to damage by exposure to sunlight and petroleum products will penetrate the pipe.

B. Valves

Several types of valves normally are used in transmission and distribution systems. Some are used for normal control and others have special purposes.

1. Gate Valves - Gate valves are the most commonly used valve in waterworks systems. In a gate valve, there are double discs which by turning the stem are moved downward into the stream of water. When the gates are at the bottom of their movement, a wedge is engaged which spreads

the gates apart and forces them against the seats. By turning the stem in the opposite direction, the wedge pressure is released, allowing the gates to move away from the seats. Further turning of the stem raises the gates out of the stream of water to a fully opened position. These valves have proven to be reliable and maintenance free. Maintenance should consist of periodically exercising the valve to keep the threads clear of buildup and checking the valve stem seals.

2. Butterfly Valves - Butterfly valves frequently are used for the regulation of flow. They have a wafer which rotates in the water stream from fully open to fully closed. The wafer usually has a rubber gasket on its sealing edge. Maintenance consists of replacement of the gasket when it becomes worn.

3. Check Valves - Check valves are used to control the flow in only one direction. This is normally done by having a hinged flapper which the flow of water will move out of the water flow area. When the flow of water attempts to reverse, the flapper is returned across the flow on to the valve seat stopping the flow. The movement of the flapper is caused by the reverse flow of water, exterior springs, or gravity. There are other configurations of check valves which are designed for special purposes.

4. Pressure Relief Valves - Pressure relief valves are used to bleed off a flow of water and relieve a high pressure surge condition. Surges of water, such as from the start-up of a pump, can cause high pressures which could damage pipe and facilities. The pressure relief valve usually is kept closed by a spring pushing against the valve disc. The surge of high pressure overcomes the spring, releasing water. As the pressure is lowered to normal, the spring forces the disc closed.

5. Pressure Reducing or Pressure Regulating Valves - These valves normally are used to maintain a specific pressure on the downstream side of the valve. This action is accomplished by a diaphragm which controls the position of the valve disc. As the pressure on the downstream side drops, the diaphragm opens the disc to allow an increase in the flow of water. As the pressure increases on the downstream side, the diaphragm closes the disc, reducing the flow of water. These valves, because of their constant movement, require frequent maintenance to keep them working and in adjustment. The items needing attention are the strainers, needle valves, pilot valves, and the main diaphragm. These valves frequently are used to control the pressures in various sections of the distribution system.

6. Air Relief Valves - Air can cause serious pipeline problems by restricting the flow. Air can get into the water system through pumps, packing glands, and leaking joints. These valves are installed at the high points on the system and are simple float valves which release air until the water enters the valve body and raises the float.

7. Plug or Ball Valves - This type of valve normally is used on customer service lines and consists of a tapered plug or ball which has an orifice the full size of the water stream. When fully open, the orifice is in line with the water stream and, when fully closed, the orifice is at right angles to the water stream and the sides of the plug or ball completely stop the water flow. These valves are maintenance free and cause little flow resistance when fully open.

8. Globe Valves - Globe valves cause the water to flow up through an orifice. These valves rarely are used in waterworks systems due to their resistance to flow and high maintenance requirements.

9. Altitude Valves - Altitude valves are used to control the height of water in distribution storage tanks. These valves open when the system pressure drops and water flows out of the tank. When the system pressure increases, the water flows into the tank until the tank is nearly full. The altitude valve then closes. This valve is very similar in operation and maintenance to a pressure reducing valve. Maintenance consists of checking the strainers, diaphragms, small piping, and needle valves.

C. Fire Hydrants - Fire hydrants are used to provide access to the water system by fire fighting personnel. Fire hydrants have an underground valve and a barrel to deliver the water to hose nozzles above the ground. In cold climates, fire hydrants of the dry barrel type are used because of the danger of freezing. Dry barrel hydrants are designed to automatically drain the water from the barrel when the hydrant is shut off. The hydrant nozzles are usually 2 ½-inch diameter "steamers" and 4 ½-inch diameter "pumpers". Fire hydrants usually are manufactured so maintenance of the valve can be accomplished without excavation. All fire hydrants should be equipped with a gate valve on the lateral pipe leading from the water main. This valve will permit the water distribution crews to shut off the hydrant which is damaged or is malfunctioning. Fire hydrants should be flushed and checked at least semiannually for proper operation, particularly that they shut off completely and that the barrel drains.

Fire hydrants should be flushed and checked at least semi-annually for proper operation and for the following items:

1. Complete shut off;
2. Smooth and ease of operation;
3. External parts (i.e., paint, caps, chains);
4. Hydrant drain (does barrel drain completely).

Flushing the hydrants also help to clear any sediment from the distribution system. Fire hydrants require frequent maintenance because they are frequently operated, often by untrained personnel. The parts which often need attention are the valve seats, which are resilient rubber; the valve stem packing, which will leak; and the stems, which become twisted due to turning too hard to shut off.

A cooperative effort between the fire fighting personnel and the water system will help reduce hydrant damage and effect prompt repairs when needed. If a hydrant is taken out of service for repairs, the local fire company or municipality should be given notification. A record book should be kept specifically for hydrants taken out of service. It should contain information on the date the hydrant was taken out of service, the time, the hydrant number and location, the municipality, the employee's name who took it out of service, the name of the person from the municipality who was notified, the date returned to service, the time, and the person notified.

D. Blow-offs- Blow-offs area tee and valve arrangement at locations where fire hydrants do not adequately flush the system. These are usually dead ends or at locations which, due to topography, require frequent flushing such as at low points. These blow-offs must have their

flow directed so that no damage occurs. The blow-offs must be located deep enough to prevent freezing and the discharge pipe should be drilled to permit draining.

E. Records - Records of the locations of all valves, fire hydrants, and blow-offs must be indicated on the system plans. Records of the operation and any maintenance performed must be kept. This information is useful in planning replacement of facilities due to age.

F. A schedule and scheme for flushing the distribution system should be developed and included in the O&M Plan. The schedule should be at least semi-annual and the scheme should provide for flushing the system from the source towards the extremities of the system.

G. Schedules should be developed for the following:

1. Valve exercising, maintenance, and replacement;
2. Fire hydrant flushing, inspection, maintenance, and replacement;
3. Meter testing and replacement (includes master meters);
4. Main replacements;
5. Cleaning and inspection of distribution storage facilities including cathodic protection equipment;
6. Section 1, Chapter 3, has additional information regarding maintenance schedules and records.

Pumps

Pumps are used in water systems to move water or other solutions from one location to another and to add pressure to the water by pumping it to a higher elevation. The common uses of pumps in water systems are well pumps, raw water pumps, chemical feed pumps, backwash pumps, high service pumps, booster pumps, and fire service pumps.

A. Types of Pumps

Centrifugal pumps are the most common type of pump used in water systems. These pumps have the ability to adjust to varying head and flow conditions and are available in a wide variety of configurations manufactured to meet specific conditions. The other type of pump used is the positive displacement pump which is used for feeding chemicals. These are either diaphragm type or piston type which delivers a measured volume with each revolution or cycle.

B. Capacities and Purposes

The capacities (flow and head) of each type of pump should be matched to its purpose. The capacity of each pump should have been specifically selected when the design of the system or the component was done by the engineer. However, as system components and uses change, so do the capacities and operating conditions for pumps.

Therefore, the water system operator should know the flow and head (pressure) the pump was selected for and should periodically test the pumping unit for the present operating conditions. The operator should plot the results of the pump tests on the pump operating curve to determine if the operating point has changed from the design conditions and what the expected efficiency should be.

1. Well Pumps

Well pumps are usually of a vertical turbine configuration and have multiple stages. However, the small water systems that use low capacity wells are usually equipped with submersible pumps. The well pumps can be driven by a shaft extending down the column from a motor located on the surface or by a submersible motor attached directly on the pump and suspended in the well on the end of the column pipe. Well pumps should have their capacity matched to the capacity of the well so that the well is not overpumped, causing excessive drawdown of the aquifer which can cause a deterioration of the water quality. If the water is lowered to a level near the pump impellers, the pump also can be damaged. The capacity of the pump (flow and head) would have been selected at the time the well initially was pump tested and put in service. As the pumping level would lower due to depletion of the aquifer, the head would increase and the flow would decrease. The operator should be aware of the original conditions and should monitor the pumping water level in the well through the use of an air line or level sensing equipment.

2. Raw Water Pumps

Raw water pumps are used to transfer water from the stream or lake to the treatment facilities. These are usually vertical pumps with an open impeller so they will pump some small pieces of debris. These usually are low head and high capacity. Because these pumps are pumping raw water which contains grit and debris, they are subject to wear which will reduce their capacity. These pumps should be tested periodically for capacity and their efficiencies checked on the pump curve.

3. Chemical Feed Pumps

Chemical feed pumps usually are positive displacement type; however, they can be centrifugal. Since these pumps are comparatively small compared to other pumps and motors, operating efficiency is not usually a consideration for these pumps. Chemical feed pumps must reliably deliver specific volumes of solutions at required pressures; any failures could affect the treatment process. For this reason, the water supplier should have spare pumps and parts for repairs available.

4. High Service Pumps

High service pumps deliver the finished (potable) water from the clearwell to the transmission distribution system. These pumps are usually high capacity and high head. There should be at least duplicate units for reliability. The capacity of these pumps should be equal to the total capacity of the treatment facilities; however, at larger facilities the pumps may be of various capacities so combinations of pumps may be used for operational flexibility. The water pumped is clean and clear and should not produce any excessive wear on the pump parts. These pumps run for long periods of time; therefore, maintenance of bearings and shaft seals is important. The alignment between the pump and the motor also should be checked since misalignment can cause excessive wear on the pump and motor bearings.

5. Booster Pumps

Booster pumps are the same type of service as high service pumps except they usually are located at various points in the distribution system to pump water to higher pressure zones. The operation and maintenance of these pumps would be the same as high service pumps.

C. Reports of Operations and Maintenance

A record of the hours of operation for each pumping unit should be maintained. This record can be used for planning preventive maintenance of the units. A record of the maintenance and the cost of repairs will help to evaluate the units when they are being considered for repair/rebuilding or replacement.

D. Monitoring of Pumping Operations

There are many monitoring and control systems for pumping systems. These vary from very simple manual operation to complete automation.

The following are examples of typical monitoring and control systems:

1. The simplest system would be a manual on/off switch with an indicating pressure gauge and a water meter. This is typical of many small systems with a well, distribution system, and a tank. The operator usually knows the system very well and can adjust the pumping according to the system pressure.

2. A system with a tank level recorder, a pressure recorder, and a flow recorder with automatic pump operation turning the pump on at low tank level and off at nearly full would provide the operator with records and reliability of operation.

3. Where there are various pressure zones on a distribution system, the operation of booster pumps is used to transfer water from one part of the system to another. This type of system requires careful monitoring and usually automatic controls. The information on the operating conditions (tank levels, system pressures, pump flows) must be transmitted to an operations control center so the operator can make decisions which will be best for the entire system. There are electronic systems that review all system parameters on a frequent basis and report the data in a usable form at a central point. These systems also collect data for records and reports and, through the use of a computer, can make operating decisions on the system.

4. In the treatment process there should be monitoring systems in place to control the operation of the pumps. These can be simple visual observance of levels in the tanks or float level controls which indicate levels or can control the raw water pumps. There also are interlocking controls which will stop the pump operation if the water pressure on the suction side of the pump drops below a predetermined value. Another type of interlock is to shut off the pump if the discharge pressure exceeds a predetermined value. There are continuous monitors for turbidity and chlorine residuals which have the capability of interrupting the pumping operation when certain values are exceeded or not met.

Distribution Storage Facilities

Distribution storage facilities can be in-ground earthen, concrete, brick, or steel reservoirs, above ground steel or concrete tanks; or standpipe or elevated tanks. All these storage facilities are used to store treated water for use in the distribution system.

Distribution storage has several purposes such as to provide sufficient water for peak demands which may exceed the pumping capacity, to supply large volumes of fire protection water, and to provide reliability when pumps must be removed from service for maintenance.

A. Types of Reservoirs and Tanks

1. Ground Reservoirs

Ground reservoirs can be concrete, brick, or steel construction at ground level or below ground. Some typical installations are of concrete, masonry, or brick construction. These reservoirs must be properly constructed to prevent potential entry of any contaminants.

2. Ground Level Storage Tanks

Ground level storage tanks have a diameter greater than the height and are constructed of steel or concrete.

3. Standpipe

Standpipes are steel cylinders where the height exceeds the diameter. This tank can hold large amounts of water; however, the pressure does vary depending on the amount of water in the tank.

4. Elevated Storage Tanks

Elevated storage tanks are steel construction elevated on legs or a pedestal. The elevation of the storage capacity makes all of the capacity available at a usable pressure.

B. Maintenance

Maintenance of distribution storage reservoirs will depend on the type of material used for construction. All distribution storage facilities should be drained, cleaned, and inspected every five years.

The paint system should be inspected for damage, possibly due to ice, and the vent screens should be inspected and repaired to prevent birds and rodents from entering. After cleaning, the interior of the tank or reservoir must be disinfected as required by the WVCSSR Title 64 Series 77

1. Steel Reservoirs or Tanks

Steel reservoirs should be painted inside and out with an acceptable paint system. The paint system used on the interior surface of the tank must be certified as meeting the NSF Standard 61 and must be acceptable to OEHS. Some types of paint can transfer substances to the water which may be toxic or can cause foul tastes and odors in the water.

The paint system will protect the steel structure from deterioration and, thus, extend its useful life. A good paint system should last from eight to 15 years. The atmospheric conditions in the area can have an effect on the life of the paint system. For example, the paint will have a shorter life in industrial areas, and a longer life in rural areas.

Metal tanks are subject to corrosion from unstable water which can shorten the effective life of the paint system and attack the metal. The corrosion is caused by stray electrical currents, which are created by electrochemical reactions and the grounding of electrical systems. A cathodic protection system introduces a direct current into the corrosion cycle to offset and cancel out the corrosion-producing action.

Cathodic protection systems use an auxiliary anode of expendable metal which is immersed in the water. Electrical current flowing from the anode to the structure can counteract corrosion losses. Cathodic protection systems require at least annual scheduled maintenance by qualified technical personnel to check the condition of the sacrificial anodes and the wiring connections.

2. Concrete Tanks

Concrete tanks can be treated with a waterproofing system which will seal the surface cracks and stop any leakage and extend the life of the structure. Any coating system that is used must be approved by EPD. It is required that all products that come into contact with the drinking water must be certified as meeting the NSF Standard 61.

3. Ground Reservoirs

Ground reservoirs should be lined and covered to prevent leakage and contamination. The most common material for this purpose is a rubberized fabric. The structure should be checked for any deterioration, growth of weeds in cracks, etc., and the fabric cover should be checked for damage. These should be checked in the spring of the year since the winter ice can damage the fabric. The rain water, leaves, and debris should be removed periodically from the surface.

C. Safety Protection

Access to water system storage facilities can be a safety hazard. Proper precautions must be taken to protect the public and the employees from injury.

1. Where open storage reservoirs exist, there is the danger of someone falling into the water and drowning. All facilities such as this should be securely fenced to prevent unauthorized entrance. All employees working around these facilities should use life vests or other flotation devices.

2. All ladders on steel storage tanks should terminate at a safe distance above ground, be caged, and have a locked gate to prevent access by unauthorized personnel. All ladders should be caged for their full height or a safety harness should be provided.

3. No entrance to a tank should be made by any personnel without first checking for dangerous vapors, fumes, or gases. Also, do not enter a tank without a safety harness and rope tended by a fellow employee from the outside of the tank.

4. Fences around all storage facilities are recommended to prevent unauthorized access and possible vandalism.

D. Records

A record should be kept of the following:

1. The location, year built and by whom, elevation at the base of the tank and the top of the overflow pipe, the size of the diameter and the height, and the capacity in gallons;

2. Painting records of the interior and exterior showing the year painted, type of paint, and the square area for painting. This information will be useful when setting painting budgets;

3. Altitude Valve Records - The type and size of the altitude valve should be noted, along with the type and number of the leathers needed to make repairs, the date repairs were made, and any parts that were used.

Unaccounted-for Water

Unaccounted-for water is water which is produced but is not used or sold to the consumers. There are many factors which are considered in the determination of the percentage of unaccounted-for water.

This percentage is a measure of the efficiency of the system operation.

A. Factors to Consider

Factors to consider in the determination of the unaccounted-for water are:

1. The water produced - Is this quantity accurately determined, has the meter been calibrated, does the meter measure all of the water?
2. The water used for water system purposes such as chemical feed water, filter backwash water, fire hydrant and blow-off flushing - How is each of these uses measured? Careful accounting in the treatment plant is necessary because, in some plants, plant use water is used before the master meter and, in other plants or for other uses, it is used after the master meter.
3. The water sold or used by the consumer must be accurately accounted for. A meter testing program should be in place to periodically test the accuracy of the meters. All consumer use must be accounted for. For example, free water may be provided for parks, cemeteries, or municipal purposes at sewage treatment plants, borough buildings, and fire companies. All of this water must be measured and accounted for.
4. Water used for fire fighting purposes – This water only can be estimated, but some careful calculations by the fire company and the water system can develop a reasonable value.

B. Basic Calculation

The basic calculation is:

1. The water available for sale is the water produced adjusted for the company uses of water as follows:
 - a. Subtract any plant use water that is taken off the system after the master meter;
 - b. Subtract any water used on the distribution system for flushing fire hydrants and blowoffs, and for fire protection.
2. The water sold or used is the total quantity of water sold to customers through meters plus an estimate of all unmetered uses either to flat rate customers or for public purposes.
3. When making the calculation, the time interval must be considered since the amount of water sold only may be determined monthly, quarterly, or annually, and usually all meters are not read on the same day or at the same time. It is recommended that a one year (four quarters or 12 months) period be considered since this will level off the variables for meter reading, and seasonal variations. This calculation can be made on a monthly basis by using the totals for the previous 12 months,

C. Normal Operating Ranges

The normal operating range should not exceed 15 percent for a well maintained system. However, keep in mind that there are many factors that influence the percent of unaccounted-for water in a particular system. A number of these factors are:

1. The age and condition of the system. A very old water system which has deteriorated pipe will have many undetected leaks at joints and pinholes. Although the goal may be the 10 percent, it can only be accomplished by replacing large segments of the system. A range of 35 to 40 percent may not be unusual until funds for replacement of mains is available;
2. The pressure in the system can affect the rate of leakage. Thus, high pressure systems may have a higher percentage of unaccounted-for water;
3. The number of customers per mile of main can affect the unaccounted-for water. Therefore, if a system has a high ratio of miles of pipeline to the number of customers, the percentage of unaccounted-for water will increase;
4. Under-registration of customer meters or unauthorized use can increase the percentage of unaccounted-for water.

Control of Unaccounted-for Water

To reduce the percentage of unaccounted-for water, the following are suggested actions:

1. Calculate the cost of producing a thousand gallons or one hundred cubic feet of water and then calculate the amount of money which is being "lost" as unaccounted-for water each month. By identifying this cost, you can justify the cost of the programs to correct the problem;
2. A meter testing program should be installed to test the master meter and other system meters at least annually and to test all customer meters (on a continuing basis) at least every 20 years;
3. An adequate leakage control program:
 - a. A program of listening to all fire hydrant valves and services to detect leaks,
 - b. The use of detector type meters on fire lines,
 - c. Training of meter readers and service personnel to listen for leaks and to detect unauthorized use of water,
 - d. Review of meter readings to detect stopped meters or obvious under-registering meters;
4. A record of leaks repaired and the estimated amount of water lost at each leak can help to justify replacement of sections of mains which have a high incidence of leakage.

Maintenance of Water Mains and Services

The maintenance of water mains and services, in addition to the routine preventive maintenance of valves and fire hydrants, involves the repair of leaks and the thawing of frozen water mains and services. A description of the normal procedures should be included in the O&M Plan. The description should include a list of the staff, equipment, and materials normally available for this work, and where you can obtain help such as contractors and suppliers. You also should detail the notifications which are required such as utility locations and sensitive customers (i.e., hospitals, nursing homes, industries, fire companies, and police). You also should consider public notification through the news media for shutdowns of large areas or door-to-door notification for smaller areas.

A. Customer Complaints

Customer complaints are the normal indication that there is a problem in the distribution system. A record of customer complaints can help the water system identify and locate the problem. As an example, there may be a water system leak which will not surface. A number of low pressure and dirty water complaints in an area can indicate the area where a leak survey should begin. Another use for records of customer complaints is the justification for replacement of facilities. For example, a large number of complaints of dirty water on a dead end main may be justification to loop the main into another part of the system.

B. Water Main Repairs

The repair of water mains and services can be a very complex operation depending upon the conditions found in the field.

1. The location of water main and service leaks can be a major task since many times the water is flowing into underground passages or into sewers and does not surface. Locating the leaks involves a leak survey using sensitive listening equipment. Sometimes the drilling of holes in the pavement over the line of the water main will reveal the location. In some cases, exploratory excavation is necessary to find the exact location of the leak.
2. Once the leak is exposed, the water should be shut down so a detailed examination of the pipe, fittings, or services can be made to determine the extent of the damage. Frequently, the force of the leaking water causes additional damage to adjacent facilities. Because of the water leak, the earth in the trench frequently is saturated with water and unstable. The workmen should exercise extreme caution and install shoring and bracing as necessary since frequent cave-ins occur.
3. Once the extent of the damage is determined, a method of repair must be selected. This may involve a simple repair clamp or may involve the replacement of lengths of pipe, fittings, and valves.
4. The system operator must consider the area to be affected by the shutdown; the personnel, equipment, and materials required; and the amount of time necessary to complete the repair. Sometimes a temporary repair will permit proper planning and gathering of equipment and materials to effect a proper permanent repair with the minimum amount of customer inconvenience.
5. During the repair of the water main, the existing main and the repair materials can become contaminated. Before returning the facilities to service, the facilities must be disinfected, as required by WVCSR Series 64 Title 77.
6. After the repair of the water main, proper support and thrust blocking of the facilities must be provided. Any bends, tees, or end caps must have a thrust block to prevent movement due to water pressure. Because the surrounding earth usually is saturated with water and unstable, it should be removed and replaced with crushed stone or other suitable material. Care should be taken to tamp the crushed stone under the pipe to provide a good solid support. Heavy fittings and valves should be supported on concrete blocks to prevent settlement. The proper backfill of the trench including tamping will minimize the future maintenance of the excavated area.

7. The backfill material and the surface restoration may be specified by the municipality or the West Virginia DOT. A street or highway excavation permit may be required prior to any construction.

8. Upon completion of all repairs and restoration, a record should be made to document what was done. This record can establish the cost of repairs and provide justification for replacement of old and deteriorated facilities. This record can establish the prompt repair and proper notifications of the shutdown.

C. Thawing of Frozen Mains and Services

When water mains and services freeze because they are installed at too shallow a depth or because some of the original cover was removed after initial installation, they must be thawed to restore service. Frequently the freezing exerts sufficient internal pressure to break the pipe and after thawing, the main or service must be repaired.

1. The electrical thawing of frozen mains and services can be performed by special generators or welders; however, there is a danger of damage to customers' homes and electrical appliances and the possibility of causing a fire. For these reasons, the procedures for connecting the wires and disconnecting the customer's meter and any electrical connections must be detailed to limit the possibility of damage and liability for the water system.

2. Water mains and services can be thawed by use of steam generating equipment; however, this requires excavation or access to the facilities. These procedures also should be detailed to prevent injury.

O&M PLAN FOR LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

In a water treatment plant laboratory, fragile laboratory equipment and delicate instruments are used to detect and precisely measure very small concentrations of contaminants. Therefore, the proper maintenance and operation of the laboratory equipment and instruments is critical. The proper maintenance techniques vary between pieces of equipment which perform the same analyses but are supplied by different manufacturers. As a result, it is important to keep copies of the manufacturers' routine maintenance recommendations and operating manuals for the laboratory equipment in the O&M Plan and to follow these guidelines closely.

This section will outline some general maintenance and calibration procedures for the more widely-used pieces of laboratory equipment and instruments; however, the manufacturers' recommendations should always be referred to first. Recommended laboratory safety equipment will also be discussed. The routine maintenance plan for the water system should include a routine maintenance schedule for the laboratory equipment. The following information may be incorporated into the maintenance schedule.

Glassware

The following procedures should be used in the care and maintenance of lab glassware:

- Glassware should be examined with each use. Items with chipped edges or etched inner surfaces should be discarded. Chipped edges can cut hands, while scratches in the glass decrease visibility through it, possibly resulting in inaccurate analyses.
- Glassware should be cleaned as soon as possible after use to avoid the formation of stains. Do not allow dissolved matter to dry on glassware because future tests may be contaminated if glassware is not cleaned promptly after use.
- Good cleaning procedure involves a thorough washing and two rinses.

Laboratory Support Equipment

Hot Plate

- The heating surface should be cleaned after each use to avoid a buildup of stains and residue;
- Perform routine maintenance as recommended by the manufacturer.

Magnetic Stirrer

- After every use, the surface of the stirrer should be wiped clean. The stirring bar also should be thoroughly cleaned before and after use;
- Routine maintenance should be performed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

pH Meter

The pH meter consists of a sensitive voltmeter, a glass electrode, a reference electrode (made of either calomel or a silver/silver-chloride (Ag/AgCl) compound), and a temperature compensating device. In some units, the two electrodes are mounted in a single unit called a combined electrode. When the electrodes are immersed in the test solution, a circuit is completed through the voltmeter. The meter then converts the voltage change caused by the change in pH to a meter

reading expressed in pH units. The temperature compensating device is needed because the pH of a sample is affected by temperature.

Maintenance

Some precautions to be taken in the care and maintenance of the pH meter are:

- Glass electrodes should not be allowed to become dry during periods of inactivity. Follow the manufacturer's instructions for the storage of electrodes, since recommended solutions for short-term storage of electrodes vary with the type of electrode and the manufacturer. Generally, tap water is a better substitute than distilled water, but pH 7 buffer is best for the single glass electrode. Saturated KCl (potassium chloride) solution is preferred for calomel and Ag/AgCl reference electrodes;
- Keep the pH electrodes free of oil, grease, or precipitates. These materials coat the pH electrode and may interfere with pH readings by causing a sluggish response;
- Electrode troubles generally can be traced to a clogged junction which can be cleared by applying suction to the tip or by boiling the tip in distilled water until the electrolyte flows freely when suction is applied to the tip or pressure is applied to the fill hole.
- The electrode may have a crystal buildup and should be flushed with distilled water and refilled with proper solution.
- Routine maintenance should be performed in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

Calibration

Proper calibration (standardization) is essential for accurate pH measurements. The purpose of standardization is to adjust the response of the glass electrode to the instrument. When only occasional pH measurements are made, the instrument should be standardized before each measurement. When frequent measurements are made and the instrument is stable, standardize daily. If sample pH values vary widely standardize for each sample with a buffer having a pH within 1 to 2 pH units of the sample. Calibrate the electrode system against standard buffer solutions of known pH.

Because buffer solutions may deteriorate as a result of mold growth or contamination, prepare fresh solutions daily or when only occasional pH measurements are made, the instrument should be standardized before each measurement. When calibrating the pH meter, the following method should be used:

- Before use, remove electrodes from the storage solution, rinse with distilled water, and blot dry;
- Place the electrodes in the initial buffer solution with a known pH, set the meter scale or needle to the pH of the buffer, and adjust for temperature;
- Select a second buffer and bring sample and buffer to the same temperature;
- Remove the electrodes from the first buffer, rinse thoroughly with distilled water, blot dry, and immerse in the second buffer;
- Record the temperature of measurement and adjust the temperature dial on the meter so that the meter indicates the pH value of the buffer at the test temperature;

- Remove the electrodes from the second buffer, rinse thoroughly with distilled water, blot dry and immerse in a third buffer;
- The reading should be within 0.1 pH unit for the pH of the third buffer. If it is not, then look for trouble with the electrodes or potentiometer. Failure to obtain a correct value for the pH of the third reference buffer solution could indicate a cracked glass electrode, failure to maintain the KCl in the calomel electrode, or oily substances or precipitate coating the surface.

Specific Ion Meter

The unit consists of a millivolt meter and interchangeable electrodes. Each electrode is selectively sensitive to one particular constituent of the water and each specific ion test requires a different electrode. A pH meter with an expanded millivolt scale also can be used with the specific ion electrode.

Maintenance

- Routine maintenance should be performed according to the manufacturer's recommendations;
- When a selective ion probe appears to be malfunctioning, the trouble generally can be traced to a clogged junction which can be cleared by applying suction to the tip or by boiling the tip in distilled water until the electrolyte flows freely when suction is applied to the tip or pressure is applied to the fill hole;
- The electrodes should not be allowed to become dry during periods of nonuse and should be stored according to the manufacturer's instructions.
- The manufacturer's instructions should be followed for refilling the probe assembly with the appropriate solution.

Calibration

- When using the selective ion meter (or expanded scale pH meter), frequently recalibrate the electrode by checking the potential reading of the standard and adjust the calibration control.
- Always use manufacturer's instructions to calibrate the instrument.
- Commercial standards, often already diluted with buffer, are frequently supplied with the meter. The shelf-life of each standard which should be provided by the manufacturer should be checked and the solution discarded when the shelf-life has been exceeded. The stated concentrations of these standards should be verified by comparing them with standards prepared by the analyst for each ion to be analyzed.
- Recalibrate the meter after reading each unknown and also after reading each standard when preparing the standard curve.

Spectrophotometer

The spectrophotometer is an electronic device which measures the concentration of a constituent by measuring the intensity of a color. The unit's main components are a white light source, wavelength control unit, sample compartment, detector, and meter. The white light passes through a diffraction grating or prism to produce single-color light (light of a specific wavelength) which, in turn, passes through the sample contained in a glass tube (cuvette) located

in the sample compartment. The ratio of the light emerging from the liquid divided by the light entering the liquid is the percent transmittance (% +). This is sensed by the detector and indicated on the meter. The concentration of a measured constituent is found using a previously prepared calibration curve which must be prepared for each constituent to be measured.

Maintenance

Some precautions to be taken in the care and maintenance of the spectrophotometer are:

- Routine maintenance should be done according to the manufacturer's recommendations and, as a minimum, should consist of keeping the unit clean and replacing the lamp when needed. A supply of replacement lamps should be kept on hand;
- The instrument must be protected from high humidities and water vapor to avoid deterioration of the optical system;
- The matched sample cells should be kept very clean, free of scratches' fingerprints, smudges, and evaporated film residues. Clean sample cells after each use.
- Repair of the instrument requires special skills and, therefore, should be performed by a specially-trained service person.

Calibration

Check sensitivity and accuracy frequently by testing standard solutions to detect electrical, mechanical, or optical problems in the instrument and its accessories. Some recommendations are as follows:

- The preparation of a complete set of standards for each set of samples to be analyzed is unnecessary; however, with every group of samples a reagent blank (made by adding reagent to distilled water) and at least one standard near the sample concentration should be prepared or used to verify the constancy of the calibration curve. This precaution will reveal any unsuspected changes in the instrument, the reagents, or the technique;
- Permanent standards may be subject to fading or color alterations and their validity may depend on certain arbitrary lighting conditions. Therefore, frequently verify the accuracy of these curves or permanent standards by comparing them with standards prepared in the lab using the same set of reagents, the same instrument, and the same procedures as those used for analyzing samples.

Safety Equipment for the Laboratory

Fire Extinguishers - May prevent a large laboratory fire if used quickly on a small fire. All laboratories should have at least one all-purpose fire extinguisher that is capable of putting out small fires. All extinguishers should be checked routinely: visually inspected monthly and a maintenance check performed annually. There are four general types of fire extinguishers. Depending on potential hazards, a laboratory may have more than one type:

- Water-type Extinguisher - Useful for fires with ordinary combustibles like wood, paper, and rags;
- Dry Chemical-Type - Effective against most fires, but particularly those involving flammable liquids and metals, as well as electrical fires;

- Carbon Dioxide-Type - Useful for small fires involving flammable liquids and for limited use around electronic instrumentation and equipment;
- Halon Extinguisher - Good for fires involving electronic equipment because it leaves no residue and does not affect delicate instruments.

Fire Blanket - Its major purpose is to extinguish burning clothing, but it can be used to smother liquid fires in small, open containers. The blanket should be stored in a container mounted on a wall in the lab and arranged in the container so that it can be pulled out easily.

Safety Showers - Are an integral part of laboratory safety to be used in accidents involving acids, caustic or other harmful liquids, clothing fires, and other emergencies. The shower should be located in a convenient, easy-to-reach location in the lab, and the floor space under it should be kept uncluttered. It should be provided with a floor drain and a large, easy-to-grab pull chain ring. The shower, which should be designed so that once it is turned on it stays on until turned off by a separate valve, should be tested regularly.

Eye Wash - Can be bottles with an eye cup or spray nozzle and one liter reservoir used to flood the eye, or they can be permanent plumbing fixtures similar to a drinking fountain. Eye washes should be located at sinks for ease of location in the event of an emergency.

Personal Protective Equipment and Materials - The selection and use of this equipment is governed by the particular tasks to be performed. If it is determined that such are needed, it is the responsibility of the manager and the supervisor to ensure that they are used.

- Clothing - Personal clothing creates a barrier between the worker and the hazard. Employees using radioactive materials, suspected carcinogens, and pathogenic materials should change from street to laboratory clothing when entering the work area and should change again when leaving. This not only prevents the transportation of hazardous materials outside the area, but it also permits necessary handling and cleaning of the clothing. A laboratory coat and rubber apron should be available to the employees.
- Gloves - Appropriate gloves should be worn. The type of glove depends on the materials to be handled (i.e., rubber gloves should be worn when handling hazardous liquids, surgical gloves for pathogenic material, insulated gloves for handling hot or extremely cold objects, and white cotton gloves to protect instruments).
- Safety Shoes - Often safety shoes are required in labs where heavy objects or equipment are to be moved. No open-toed shoes or sandals should be worn in the laboratory.
- Safety Glasses - Safety glasses are worn to protect eyes from splashes, flying objects, powders, or ultraviolet exposure. For certain activities, such as working with acid or caustic materials, a face shield should be worn to protect the face as well as the eyes.

CROSS-CONNECTIONS AND BACKFLOW

Cross-connections are points in a piping system where it is possible for a nonpotable substance to come into contact with the potable drinking water supply. They can provide a pathway for backflow of nonpotable water into potable water. Backflow occurs from negative pressure in the distribution system (termed backsiphonage) or from increased pressure from a nonpotable source (termed backpressure). Backflow from a cross-connection can affect water quality and create health problems. Cross-connections can result in serious illness and even death.

Backflow

Backflow is defined as unwanted, reversed flow of liquid in a piping system. Backflow can be caused by backsiphonage, backpressure, or a combination of the two.

Backsiphonage

Backsiphonage is backflow caused by negative (sub-atmospheric pressure) in the distribution system or supply piping. When the system pressure becomes negative, atmospheric pressure on the distribution system, water columns (from buildings or other elevated piping), or other pressure sources will cause the direction of flow within portions of the system to reverse. If a cross-connection exists in the area where flow reverses direction, such as a main break, contaminants can be siphoned into the distribution system. The effect is similar to sipping a soda by inhaling through a straw.

Backpressure

Backpressure is backflow caused when the distribution system is connected to a nonpotable supply operating under a pressure higher than the distribution system, the direction of flow will reverse if there is no mechanism to stop the flow. A pump, boiler, elevation difference, or other means can create the higher pressure.

METHODS USED TO PROTECT AGAINST CROSS-CONNECTIONS

There are 5 basic assemblies/devices which are used to prevent or reduce the possibility of backflow in cross-connections: air gaps, atmospheric vacuum breakers, pressure-type vacuum breakers, double check valve assemblies, and reduced pressure backflow preventers. The type of protection required under WVCSR15 depends on the degree of hazard that exists or may exist, as determined by the public water system.

Air Gap

Of the 5 assemblies/devices listed, the air gap (physical separation of the potable and nonpotable systems by an air space) is most reliable backflow prevention measure to use when there is potential for a cross connection to an extreme hazard. The vertical distance between the supply pipe and the flood-level rim should be two times the diameter of the supply pipe, but never less than one inch. This type of backflow prevention can be used in situations in which potable water runs into a tank or a source, which is under atmospheric pressure. Obviously, this type of backflow prevention method cannot be used for a direct connection to a pressurized system.

Atmospheric Vacuum Breakers

Atmospheric Vacuum Breakers (AVB) do not prevent backflow due to backpressure. They must be installed on the discharge side of the last control valve. They must be installed 6 inches above the rim of the fixture they serve. In addition, they cannot be used under continuous pressure for a period of 8 hours or more. Atmospheric vacuum breakers are usually used with hose bibs or sill cocks in situations in which a hose is attached to a sprinkler system or is draining into a tank. Atmospheric vacuum breakers cannot be tested at any time.

Pressure Vacuum Breakers

Pressure vacuum breakers (PVB) are similar to atmospheric vacuum breakers except that these devices can be used under continuous pressure. They cannot prevent backflow due to backpressure and must be installed above the usage point to prevent backsiphonage. They must be installed at least 12 inches above the rim of the device that they are protecting.

Double Check Valve Assemblies

Double check valve assemblies (DCVA) are used for a direct connection between 2 potable water systems. These assemblies may be used to protect against both backsiphonage and backpressure. They can be used under continuous pressure but cannot be used to connect to a contaminated or high-hazard system. The assembly consists of 2 ordinary spring-loaded or balance-weight-assisted swing check valves mounted in series. They offer only a partial degree of protection because particles can prevent proper seating of the valves causing them to leak. Double check valves protect against backpressure and backsiphonage conditions. Once installed, they can be tested.

Reduced Pressure Principal Backflow Preventers

The reduced pressure principal (reduced pressure zone) backflow preventer (RPZ) provides the greatest protection against backflow-caused by backpressure and backsiphonage. The RPZ can be used under continuous pressure and in high-hazard conditions, such as a hospital. The RPZ is designed so it will operate even if both the check valves become fouled. A reduced pressure backflow preventer consists of 2 check valves with a zone of reduced pressure between the check valves. The reduced pressure chamber also has a spring-differential pressure relief valve. Such a backflow preventer can be put on each water line that is used to fill tank trucks. Many private facilities in communities allow farmers or others needing water to fill their tanks. These facilities should be inspected for approved backflow prevention assemblies/devices. In addition, the city must not allow tanks to fill from hydrants, which are not protected by backflow prevention equipment.

Thermal Expansion

When water is heated it expands in volume. Water in a residential water heater may expand about one-half gallon during each recovery period. In an open system this water will be easily absorbed. However, if a backflow preventer is placed in the service line to a residence it will create a closed system with no room for expansion. Since water is not compressible, it has to go someplace and that is generally out the water heater pressure relief valve. This is a dangerous situation since these relief valves are not designed for frequent operation. In addition, the pressures generated may cause an explosion.

Operators need to recognize the implication of placing a backflow preventer or a check valve

upstream of a water heater. If this must be done, installation of a small thermal expansion tank between the water heater and backflow preventer is the simple solution.

Inspection and Testing

All backflow prevention assemblies must be tested by a Certified Backflow Assembly Tester at the time of installation, repair, or relocation, and at least on an annual schedule thereafter. The cost of testing is incurred by the customer.

For more information, please refer to the:

- [Cross-Connection Fact Sheet](#) included.
- Cross-Connection and Backflow Prevention Manual (EW-114) – online at www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed/swap/training&certification/cross-connection&backflow/documents/Cross_Connection_Backflow_Prevention.pdf
- Cross-Connection and Backflow Control Manual – EPA online at www.epa.gov/safewater/pdfs/crossconnection/crossconnection.pdf
- Website www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/backflow/default.aspx to [Search for Certified Backflow Prevention & Assembly Inspector Testers in West Virginia](#)
- Website www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed/swap/training&certification/cross-connection&backflow/

INSTRUMENTATION

Like any other business, a water system spends a great deal of money on infrastructure and capital improvements. These expenses include piping, storage and all of the mechanical equipment required to produce, treat, and deliver water. A maintenance program is essential to insuring that the mechanical components of the system stay in good working order and provide the longest possible service life. A preventive maintenance schedule should be utilized to make sure that each piece of equipment gets the proper attention. Most preventive maintenance consists of inspecting, cleaning, and lubricating the equipment. The equipment operators can usually complete these tasks. Specially trained personnel that possess the necessary mechanical skills should handle major maintenance, including component replacement and overhaul.

Instrumentation in water systems allows the operator to maintain and monitor water levels, flows, pressures, and chemical feed rates at a distance. This use of telemetry gives constant readings of changes in the system and allows operational changes to be made from remote locations. This allows the operator to maintain better control and respond more quickly to changes in the process. The best instruments are those that provide stability, accuracy, and repeatability when monitoring these parameters. Instrumentation equipment can range from simple devices like float switches and pressure gauges to complex systems like on-line chemical analyzers.

Instrumentation is usually set up as either a “feed forward” or a “feedback” loop. An example of a feed forward loop would be a venturi flow meter sending a signal to change a chlorine dosage based on a change in well field flow. The meter would be located forward of the chlorine feed point and change the stroke when the flow changed. An example of a feedback loop would be a chlorine analyzer changing the chlorine dosage based on a change in residual downstream of the chlorinator. It would be located downstream and feed the information back to the chlorinator.

Three things determine the rate at which an instrument makes a change in the process. One is the amount of change for each reading. This is referred to as the span. Another is how often readings are taken. This is called the rate. The third is the deadband. Deadband means that there is a range around the set point where no action is taken. For instance, a chemical feed instrument may be set to maintain a pH of 7.0. But the deadband may be set so that no action is taken until the pH rises to 7.2 or falls below 6.8. If the rate is too fast or the span too large, the control conditions may fluctuate as the instrumentation “hunts” for the set point.

SUPERVISORY CONTROL AND DATA ACQUISITION (SCADA)

Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition (SCADA) refers to a system that collects data from various sensors at a plant or in other remote locations and then sends this data to a central computer which then manages and controls the data. As the name indicates, it is not a full control system, but rather focuses on the supervisory level. As such, it is a purely software package that is positioned on top of hardware to which it is interfaced, in general via **Programmable Logic Controllers (PLCs)**, or other commercial hardware.

Data Acquisition

Data acquisition refers to the method used to access and control information or data from the equipment being controlled and monitored. The data accessed are then forwarded onto a telemetry system ready for transfer to the different sites. They can be analog and digital information gathered by sensors, such as flowmeter, ammeter, etc. It can also be data to control equipment such as actuators, relays, valves, motors, etc.

Operational Considerations

SCADA can be used to monitor and control plant or equipment. The control may be automatic, or initiated by operator commands. The data acquisition is accomplished firstly by the **remote terminal units (RTUs)** scanning the field inputs connected to the RTU (RTU may also be called a PLC - programmable logic controller). This is usually at a fast rate. The central host will scan the RTU's (usually at a slower rate.)

The data is processed to detect alarm conditions, and if an alarm is present, it will be displayed on special alarm lists. Data can be of three main types. Analogue data (i.e. real numbers) will be trended (i.e. placed in graphs). Digital data (on/off) may have alarms attached to one state or the other. Pulse data (e.g. counting revolutions of a meter) is normally accumulated or counted.

The primary interface to the operator is a graphical display (mimic) usually via a personal computer screen which shows a representation of the plant or equipment in graphical form. Live data is shown as graphical shapes (foreground) over a static background. As the data changes in the field, the foreground is updated. A valve may be shown as open or closed. Analog data can be shown either as a number, or graphically. The system may have many such displays, and the operator can select from the relevant.

One of key processes of SCADA is the ability to monitor an entire system in real time. This is facilitated by data acquisitions including meter reading, checking statuses of sensors, etc that are communicated at regular intervals depending on the system. Besides the data being used by the RTU, it is also displayed to a human that is able to interface with the system to override settings or make changes when necessary.

In West Virginia, Environmental Health Procedures DW-36 *Operator Exception Requests for Automated Public Water Systems* (April 2012) outlines additional exceptions allowable for Class II – IV public water systems (PWS) only based on proven automation. This policy covers unattended operation with or without remote monitoring and does not allow for remote treatment changes. It is available online at www.wvdhhr.org/phs/manual/Drinking_Water/

BASIC LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

Using proper laboratory methods is essential for effective water treatment plant operation. In this module we will be exploring sample collection, laboratory procedures and measurements used in water treatment plant operation.

The objective in collection of any sample is to collect a small volume of material that can be conveniently transported to the laboratory while still accurately representing the material being sampled. *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater* is used universally by operators to ensure that sampling techniques are representative, provide accurate measurement of the substances being analyzed and can be compared to samples taken under like conditions at other facilities. *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater* was first published in 1905. Since that time, and through 20 editions, *Standard Methods* has included hundreds of analytical techniques for the determination of water quality. EPA approves by water sampling and testing according to the method that is used. The Federal Register of October 23, 2002 contains the most recent list of those *Standard Methods* test procedures approved for regulatory compliance.

All test methods require that the equipment used is calibrated on a regular basis. This regular calibration ensures that the results obtained are reasonable and accurate. Laboratory test equipment manufacturers will provide the calibration procedures as well as calibration standards that should be followed for each piece of equipment. As part of checking the methods and procedures used for in-house monitoring, the inspector should check the procedure for and the frequency of calibration. In addition, the calibration standards should be checked to determine whether or not the standard is usable based on the date of preparation. In some cases, calibration procedures and frequencies may be dictated by the state primary agency.

Types of Glassware

Laboratory vessels serve three functions: storage of reagents, measurement of solution volumes, and confinement of reactions. The mainstay of the modern analytical laboratory is a highly resistant borosilicate glass, such as that manufactured by Corning Glass Works under the name "Pyrex" or by Kimble Glass Co. as "Kimax." This glassware is satisfactory for all analyses.

Volumetric Analysis

By common usage, accurately calibrated glassware for precise measurements of volume has become known as volumetric glassware. This group includes volumetric flasks, volumetric pipets, and accurately calibrated burets. Less accurate types of glassware including graduated cylinders and serological and measuring pipets also have specific uses in the analytical laboratory when exact volumes are unnecessary.

The precision of volumetric work depends in part upon the accuracy with which volumes of solutions can be measured. There are certain sources of error that must be carefully considered. The volumetric apparatus must be read correctly; that is, the bottom of the meniscus should be tangent to the calibration mark. There are other sources of error, however, such as changes in temperature, which result in changes in the actual capacity of glass apparatus and in the volume

of the solutions. Thus solutions must be measured at the temperature at which the apparatus was calibrated. This temperature (usually 20°C) will be indicated on all volumetric ware.

Equipment listed below is applicable for both surface water and groundwater plants:

(1) Copy of the latest edition of “Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater”, American Public Health Association, Inc., 1015 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

(1) Colorimeter or Spectrophotometer capable of performing various tests to determine the chemistry of both raw and finished water. Tests could include; chlorine (free and total); iron, manganese (high and low range); aluminum; nitrates; phosphorus; fluoride; zinc; and pH. A good colorimeter or spectrophotometer should be capable of performing all of the tests listed in addition to several other parameters which could be applicable to the plant. Contact the WV Department of Health to determine the parameters required. Most manufacturers’ and suppliers offer technical assistance.

(As required) Reagents for tests to be performed with the colorimeter or spectrophotometer, EPA approved if possible.

(1) Bench type pH Meter, preferably with temperature compensation. The pH meter should include a stand for the probe and an electric stirrer. Also, a supply of pH 4, pH 7, and pH 10 buffer solutions should be on hand for calibrating the meter.

(1) Thermometer, -10 to 110 °C.

(As required) Alkalinity, Hardness, and Carbon Dioxide tests usually performed using one of two titration methods. The digital titrator method requires a digital titrator and the appropriate reagent set. The buret method may be purchased as complete outfit, or separately. When purchased separately the following items are required: buret support with large white porcelain base and a buret holder for assembling and steadying automatic burets. Each separate test will require one automatic buret, with stopcock, 50 mL or 100 mL, complete with rubber bulb and reservoir and, the appropriate reagents for each test.

(1) Balance, general laboratory, triple beam, in grams.

(1) Set, technical weights, metric, class C, 1 gram to 1,000 gram for balance calibration.

(1) Stopwatch.

(6) Measuring pipettes 10.0 mL capacity, 0.1 mL subdivisions.

(6) Measuring pipettes 1.0 mL capacity, 0.01 mL subdivisions.

(2) Pipette fillers.

- (2) Graduated cylinders, 100 mL capacity, 1.00 mL subdivisions.
- (1) Graduated cylinders, 500 mL capacity, 5.00 mL subdivisions.
- (1) Graduated cylinders, 1,000 mL capacity, 10.00 mL subdivisions.
- (4) Erlenmeyer flasks, 250 mL, wide mouth.
- (4) Casserole, porcelain, 210 mL.
- (6) Glass stirring rods, 3 mm diameter.

The following items are required in plants treating surface water, or in plants using groundwater under the influence of surface water. These items are in addition to the equipment already listed.

- (1) Turbidimeter.

(As required) Primary turbidity standards. Turbidimeters must be standardized using standards approved by the WVDHHR. At this time only Formazin, which you prepare as needed, and AEPA-1, already prepared but expensive, have been approved. The sealed Gelex standards which are furnished with most turbidimeters are to be used as secondary standards only, and must be checked against either Formazin or EPA-1.

- (1) Six position stirring apparatus for “jar tests” with variable speed control and light base.
- (6) Griffin beakers, 1,000 mL for “jar tests”.

Laboratory Facilities

Adequate laboratory space must be made available. As a guideline there should be approximately 150 to 200 square feet per person, regardless of tests. There should be approximately 15 linear feet of usable bench space including a sink with hot and cold water taps. Raw and post-settling water taps should be provided in the lab area for quality control monitoring. Sufficient electrical outlets must be provided for operating the lab equipment.

Glassware

The glassware purchased for lab use should be composed of Pyrex or Kimax type glass. This type of glass is more resistant to damage by heat, chemicals and abuse than regular soft glass. All volumetric glassware should be marked “Class A”, denoting that it meets federal specifications for volumetric glassware and need not be calibrated before use.

This list includes only the MINIMUM equipment needed to properly operate a water treatment plant. Every water plant is different and may need additional items. However, before purchasing large quantities of unknown lab equipment (as in a new plant) contact the WVDHHR.

Because of the difference in suppliers specific reagents are not listed. The manufacturer of lab equipment will provide a list of reagents that is compatible with their products.

Equipment & Techniques

Accurate measurement is necessary to make standard solutions and reagents. The volumetric flask should be used when the final volume of a solution is specified such as 1,000 mL rather than 1 L or when the used of the flask is specified.

Volumetric flasks are squat bottles with long necks. The neck is marked with a line to indicate the volume it contains.

Volumetric pipettes are used to accurately measure quantities of solutions for diluting to desired strengths. These pipettes are also used to add known volumes of solutions to other solutions. These pipettes are made to deliver specific volumes such as 1, 2, 5, 10 or 25 mL. The pipette is filled to above the zero mark by suction (rubber bulb). The upper end is closed by the index finger and the liquid is gradually lowered to the line by releasing finger pressure on the top. The liquid is allowed to flow into the receiving vessel by removing the finger completely from the top of the pipette. The tip of the pipette must touch the inside of the receiving vessel. The pipette is allowed to drain completely. If a pipette is marked **TD (to deliver)**, do not blow out the last drop of liquid remaining after the pipette drains. If a pipette is marked **TC (to contain)**, blow out the last drop into the receiving vessel.

Mohr pipettes are glass tubes graduated to deliver various quantities of solution up to the volume of the pipette. These pipettes are usually graduated to read 0.1 mL amounts. The pipette is filled in the same way as the volumetric pipette. The liquid level is lowered to the zero line. The desired amount of liquid is allowed to flow from the pipette to the desired volume slowly by releasing partial finger pressure on the top of the pipette and applying again when the desired volume is reached.

Graduated cylinders, commonly called graduates, are calibrated to measure up to 10, 25, 50, 100 and even 1,000 mL. Graduated cylinders are not as accurate as volumetric flasks and must not be used as a substitute for them. Graduated cylinders are used to measure “approximately accurate” volumes.

Burets are glass tubes graduated over their length from 1 to 10, 25, or 50 mL, usually in 0.1 mL increments. The tube has a valve at the lower end and a small tip like a pipette below the valve. The buret is used by clamping it onto a support stand, pouring the standard solution from a beaker into the top of the buret to well above the zero line and carefully draining the surplus solution out until the meniscus reaches zero. All air must be expelled from the valve and tip. Standard solution is added to the sample by opening the valve at the bottom. Solution may be added drop wise, full flow or just a fraction of a drop by manipulating the valve. Safety bulbs and pipette fillers are used to fill pipettes. Never fill a pipette with any liquid by mouth suction. Some pipette fillers may be left attached to the pipette during the zeroing and draining (measuring) procedures. Because liquid adheres to the glass walls of burets, pipettes, graduated cylinders, and volumetric flasks, the surface of the liquid forms a curve, known as the meniscus. Therefore, when reading all volumetric glassware, always read from the bottom of the curve, at eye level.

There are many types of balances and scales that may be used in a water laboratory. Rough balances and scales are used to weigh masses up to about one **kilogram (kg)** or 2 **pounds (lbs)** with accuracy of only about 0.1 **grams (g)** or more. Analytical balances usually weigh up to 200 g with an accuracy of 0.1 mg. The analytical balance, essential for preparing standard solutions, determining suspended matter, and conducting any test that requires accurate weighing of 0.1 mg to 200 g, is a delicate and expensive instrument and should be treated with care. No chemical is ever weighed directly on the balance pan; instead, it is put into a weighing bottle, crucible, watch glass, plastic or foil weighing pan; or weighing paper. Any article to be weighed must be at room temperature. This may require cooling or warming in a desiccator prior to weighing.

The above items cover the common glassware and laboratory equipment in common use in the average water treatment plant. Other equipment such as spectrophotometers and specialized glassware are used in some laboratories, but are beyond the scope of this class. The operator must refer to the manufacturer's instructions for the proper use of this equipment.

One thing that must be understood is how to properly clean glassware. No matter how the glassware is cleaned, it must be rinsed thoroughly. All glassware may be washed with laboratory detergents provided that they are rinsed with large volumes of distilled or deionized water. All glassware must be cleaned after each use and be kept clean in order to be used effectively. A sure sign that volumetric glassware needs to be cleaned is the absence of a meniscus when a solution is poured into the glassware. If, when the glassware is rinsed and drained, there are any drops of water adhering on the sidewalls of the glassware, it is not clean and the cleaning process must be repeated.

Techniques

The following are some techniques for using various pieces of lab equipment that will demonstrate the efficiency and the maximum benefit of the equipment.

Pouring a solution from one vessel to another without spatter is sometime difficult. One method that can be used to pour from a beaker, flask or other container, is to place a glass stirring rod held against the lip of the pouring vessel. The liquid will flow down this rod without spatter or dribble.

In reading a buret, an index card with the bottom half painted black (a felt tipped marker works well) will aid in reading the bottom of the meniscus. The method of reading is thus: Hold the index card behind the buret with the division line about one eighth inch below the bottom of the meniscus. Center your eye on the bottom of the meniscus. The dark portion of the card will cause the meniscus to appear black and distinct. Reader the upper encircling division for the full mL reading. Count these short division lines from the top down to the bottom of the meniscus. Each such division represents 0.1 mL.

SAMPLING

Importance of Good Sampling Procedures

The importance of obtaining samples by proper methodology cannot be emphasized enough. Proper sampling is a vital part of protecting the water supply. Without proper sampling techniques the laboratory data obtained from tests conducted on those samples are meaningless, and more importantly, any maintenance of the water supply based on that data could result in situation which would endanger human health.

Representative Sampling

Remember with sampling a small quantity of water is being used to evaluate a great quantity of water. Every precaution must be taken to ensure that the small quantity is a good representative sample of the greater quantity. A representative sample is a sample portion of material or water that is as nearly identical in content and consistency as possible to that in the larger body of material or water being sampled.

Grab Sampling

A grab sample is a single water sample collected at no specific time. A grab sample only represents the characteristics of that particular sample at that particular time. There may be times when a grab sample is preferred over a composite sample. These situations may include the following:

- The water to be sampled does not flow continuously;
- The characteristics of the water are relatively constant; and
- The water needs to be tested for water quality indicators that may change with time, such as dissolved gases, coliform bacteria, residual chlorine, temperature and pH.

Composite Sampling

A composite sample is a collection of individual samples obtained at regular intervals over a 24-hour period. The combined sample (the composite sample) forms a single larger representative sample and is analyzed to determine the average conditions during the sampling period. If the individual samples are combined in proportion to the rate of flow when the sample was collected, then it is called a flow proportional composite sample.

Sampling Locations

Sampling location usually depends on the type of system and the analyses required. The sampling locations to be used and the rationale behind selecting the sites are to be presented in a sample-site plan, which is to be submitted to the State for approval.

Water Taps

To collect samples from taps connected to water mains the service line must be flushed for a brief period of time before collecting the sample. The following precautions should be taken:

- Do not take samples from drinking fountains, restrooms, or taps with aerators.
- Do not take samples from taps surrounded by excess foliage such as leaves or flowers.
- Do not take samples from taps that are dirty, corroded, or are leaking.

- Never collect a sample from a hose or other attachment fastened to a faucet.
- Care should be taken that the person collecting the sample does not touch the faucet in any way that could contaminate the sample.

Sometimes, as in the collection of samples for lead and copper testing, a ‘first draw’ or ‘first flush’ sample will be required. For this, the water needs to stand in the pipes undisturbed for at least six hours before the sample is drawn. No water is flushed from the faucet before the sample is collected. Usually, this sample will be taken first thing in the morning before any water has been used.

Distribution Systems

The most representative samples of the water supply would be taken from the water main before any branching off occurs. Analyses of water main samples can be compared to analyses of tap samples to help pin point a possible problem for instance.

Sampling points should be selected so that the pathway of water from the source to the endpoint will be represented. Ideal sampling locations are those that provide a short, direct connection with the main and are made of corrosion-resistant material. Not just any faucet will do, and fire hydrants are not acceptable due to how they are constructed and their infrequent use. Allow the water line to flush long enough to replace the water in the lines twice. About 5 minutes is usually sufficient. Do not turn the faucet on wide open to make flushing quicker as this will stir up any deposits in the lines.

Sampling Containers, Preservation and Holding Times

The type of container used for collecting a sample depends on what tests need to be conducted on that collected sample. The Code of Federal Regulations, Protection of Environment, CFR 40, Part 136.3 contains a complete list of analyses that can be conducted along with information on approved sample containers, volume required, preservatives and maximum holding time between sampling and analysis.

The container must be clean and will usually be supplied by the laboratory performing the analysis. The container must be clearly labeled and at a minimum contain the following information:

- PWS ID Number
- Sample location
- Sample date
- Time of collection (exact time)
- Name of collector

BASIC SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Basic Sampling Procedures

The way you collect, store and transport your drinking water test sample affects the accuracy of your test results. Improper handling may show signs of drinking water contamination where it may not truly exist. The certified laboratory you have hired will give you detailed instructions for handling a drinking water test sample, including:

- Collection procedures;
- Containers to use, including those supplied by the laboratory;
- Labeling of samples;
- Completion and chain of custody forms;
- Transportation of samples; and
- Time periods for delivery of samples.

Carefully follow the instructions from the laboratory to ensure accurate results.

Location of sampling points

One objective of sampling is to assess the quality of the water supplied by the water purveyor and the point of use, so that samples of both should be taken. Any significant difference between the two has important implications for remedial strategies.

Samples must be taken from locations that are representative of the water source, treatment plant, storage facilities, distribution network, points at which water is delivered to the consumer, and points of use. In selecting sampling points, each locality should be considered individually; however, the following general criteria are usually applicable:

- Sampling points should be selected such that the samples taken are representative of the different sources from which water is obtained by the public or enters the system.
- These points should include those that yield samples representative of the conditions at the most unfavorable sources or places in the supply system, particularly points of possible contamination such as unprotected sources, loops, reservoirs, low-pressure zones, ends of the system, etc.
- Sampling points should be uniformly distributed throughout a piped distribution system, taking population distribution into account; the number of sampling points should be proportional to the number of links or branches.
- The points chosen should generally yield samples that are representative of the system as a whole and of its main components.
- Sampling points should be located in such a way that water can be sampled from reserve tanks and reservoirs, etc.
- In systems with more than one water source, the locations of the sampling points should take into account the number of inhabitants served by each source.
- There should be at least one sampling point directly after the clean-water outlet from each treatment plant.

Analytical quality assurance and quality control

Standard methods for drinking-water analysis should be tested under local conditions for accuracy and precision, agreed at national level, and applied universally by both water-supply

and regulatory agencies. However, the use of standard methods does not in itself ensure that reliable and accurate results will be obtained.

In the context of analytical work, the terms quality assurance and quality control are often treated as synonymous. In fact, they are different concepts. Analytical quality control is the generation of data for the purpose of assessing and monitoring how good an analytical method is and how well it is operating. This is normally described in terms of within-day and day-to-day precision.

Analytical quality assurance, by contrast, comprises all the steps taken by a laboratory to assure those who receive the data that the laboratory is producing valid results. Quality assurance thus encompasses analytical quality control but also includes many other aspects such as proving that the individuals who carried out an analysis were competent to do so, and ensuring that the laboratory has established and documented analytical methods, equipment calibration procedures, management lines of responsibility, systems for data retrieval, sample handling procedures, certification, and so on.

Field Analysis and Field Instruments

All field instruments should be calibrated according to the manufacturer's instructions prior to field use and documented in a calibration notebook to be kept with the instrument. Operation of field equipment varies depending on the manufacturer. Care must be taken to assure that each instrument is functioning properly and calibrated according to any calibration schedule.

Field measurements should be made in accordance with equipment manufacturer's instructions and at appropriate times and locations so that valid information is obtained.

Chain of Custody Procedure

Procedures for **Chain of Custody (COC)** require maintenance of permanent records for all sample handling and shipment. COC procedures must be used to ensure sample integrity as well as legal and technically defensible data.

Any samples collected must be submitted with a COC form and a signed affidavit. The lab has stated that one COC form per shipping container (ice chest) is sufficient. The COC form must have each analysis request checked and show a range of collection times.

The sample should be kept in view or in locked storage until custody is relinquished to the shipper and formal documentation of the transfer is completed. The person collecting a sample will start the COC procedure.

In completing the tag, care should be taken to insure that all necessary information is correct and legibly written on the tag with a black waterproof ink pen. The use of a fine point pen is discouraged because of possible problems in making legible photostatic copies.

Shipping of Samples

The water system is responsible for shipment of all routine samples to the laboratories so that analyses can be conducted in accordance with EPA methods. Each sample must be accompanied by a COC form.

When a sample is shipped to the laboratory, it must be packaged in a proper shipping container to avoid leakage and/or breakage. The laboratory must be able to associate each container in the ice chest with a COC form.

COC forms or other documents should be shipped inside the ice chest and must be placed in a plastic bag to prevent water damage. A good method is to use a zip-lock bag taped to the inside of the ice chest lid. All shipping boxes must be taped closed with shipping tape, strapping tape or fiber plastic tape, etc.

The complete address of the sender and the receiving laboratory must legibly appear on each container. When sent by U.S. Mail, register the package with a return receipt requested. When sent by a shipping service, obtain a copy of the bill of lading. Post office receipts and bills of lading may be used as part of the COC documentation.

Certified laboratories must conduct analyses within the prescribed holding times in order to produce valid compliance results. An even flow of samples must be maintained into the labs throughout each sampling period so as to assure that the laboratory capacity is not exceeded. This will require that the Contractor and each shipper carefully plan and coordinate the collection and shipment of samples. Samples must be shipped on a routine daily basis.

It is far better to spend extra funds on ice and shipping costs than to have an entire shipment of samples rejected at the lab because of the failure to meet temperature requirements due to ice melt.

How to store your sample and send it to the laboratory

- **Submit your drinking water test sample to the certified laboratory as quickly as possible after collection.** To give the most accurate results, testing for bacteria must begin within 30 hours of collecting the drinking water sample. Be sure to obtain clear instructions from the laboratory regarding sample submission drop-off time.
- **Refrigerate samples until ready for shipping.**
- **Ship your sample bottles or containers to the laboratory in coolers, or in foam pack containers, with ice or ice packs.** Don't pack the bottles with loose ice as this may contaminate the sample. If you only have loose ice, encase the sample/container in waterproof packaging or a sealed container. Be sure it is well protected from other samples that you may be sending to the laboratory at the same time (e.g. sewage samples).
- **Don't allow samples to freeze.** In winter, you may want to take advantage of heated shipping offered by some courier companies.
- **Package the completed COC form, provided by the certified laboratory, with the collected sample.** If sending it inside the cooler containing the sample, ensure that the form is enclosed inside a waterproof package (e.g., a new zip-lock bag).

Safety for Laboratory Personnel

The safety of staff undertaking analytical procedures, both in the field and in the laboratory, is of the greatest importance. All staff should be trained in safety procedures relevant to their work. In the laboratory, individual staff members should be authorized to undertake procedures involving

risk of any type only after appropriate training; unauthorized staff should not be allowed to undertake analyses.

All laboratories should formulate and implement a safety policy that should cover cleaning, disinfection, and the containment of hazardous substances. Safety equipment such as fire extinguishers, safety glasses, and first-aid kits should be suitably located, and readily available; they should be routinely checked and all staff should be trained in their use.

Sampling Safety - Preservation Chemicals

Acids of various types are the most common sample preservation materials that may pose a risk or hazard. Preservation chemicals must be handled with care and all appropriate safety procedures followed. You may feel that safety precautions are a burden; however, no amount of compensation can replace an eye or other body part damaged by acid. Material Safety Data Sheets are available wherever chemicals are stored.

It is your responsibility to use appropriate eye, hand, and clothing protection.

Also, if you are shipping samples that you know or suspect as a health hazard, include a warning note or letter in an appropriate location on the shipping container to minimize laboratory personnel exposure to an unknown health hazard.

PROCEDURES FOR MEASURING pH

Presently, pH measurements are part of routine tests done to check potable water quality. pH can be measured in several ways, of which 2 are widely used. One, simple and often precise enough, is the use of colorimetric (spectroscopic) methods. Second, more costly and more demanding in terms of procedure that have to be used, but giving much more precise results - is a potentiometric method with usage of pH electrodes and pH meters. pH measurements should be reported to +/- 0.1 units.

Colorimetric Method

The colorimetric method uses a sulfonphthalein indicator (Phenol Red) to determine pH based on color intensity of the chemical reaction. Phenol Red has a working range of pH 6.8 (yellow) to 8.2 (red). This is an indicator test, using a comparator. This test is the quickest and simplest method for testing pH. With this test, the reagent is added to a sample of water, coloring it red. The strength of color is measured against standard colors to determine the pH concentration. The stronger the color, the higher the concentration of pH in the water. Several kits for analyzing the pH in water are available commercially. The kits are small and portable.

1. Analyze samples for chlorine immediately after collection.
2. Fill a sample cell with 10 mL of sample (the blank).
3. Place the blank in the cell holder. Tightly cover the sample cell with the instrument cap.
4. Zero the instrument.
5. Fill another cell with 10 mL of sample.
6. Using a disposable dropper, add 1 mL of Phenol Red Indicator Solution to the cell (the prepared sample). Cap the sample cell and invert twice to mix.
7. Place the prepared sample into the cell holder. Tightly cover the sample cell with the instrument cap.
8. Analyze the results.

Reference: HACH, Water Analysis Handbook

Potentiometric Method

Depending on the pH meter and the electrode used, procedures can look slightly different, but in most cases pH measurement procedures will be at least very similar. First of all - remember, that the electrode should be always immersed. Thus between pH measurements it should be put into a beaker with pH buffer (preferably 7.0) or - much better - KCl solution (0.1M to 1M). Don't worry that you will destroy the electrode moving it between solutions. It can easily survive minute in the air, but don't let it dry. Second, equally important thing is - the electrode is very fragile, and thus you should treat your electrode with care.

Ensure that pH meter is on. If you want high precision of measurements it is better to let the pH meter to warm up to ensure it will not drift later. Before every single pH measurement, or before any series of uses, you must calibrate (standardize) the pH electrode. To calibrate the electrode you need at least two solutions (buffers) of known pH values which should bracket the pH of the sample. The most commonly used commercially available calibration buffers have pH of 4.01, 7.00 and 10.00. Rinse the electrode with distilled water from a wash bottle into an empty beaker before immersing it into new solution. You should do it every time electrode is moved from one solution to other to minimize contamination. Check if the working part of the electrode is

completely immersed in the buffer. Take care to not hit bottom of the beaker with the electrode. Wait for the reading to stabilize (it takes seconds usually, up to a minute sometimes). After calibration you are ready to measure pH. Rinse the electrode with distilled water and submerge it in the tested solution. Read the result and write it down in your lab notebook. Rinse the electrode and move it to the storage beaker.

Please remember, that above outline is very general. Different pH meters may require slightly different operating procedures. You should consult the manufacturer's manual to be sure how to proceed and how to maintain the electrode.

PROCEDURE FOR TESTING FREE CHLORINE RESIDUAL (using DPD Method)

The method recommended for the analysis of chlorine residual in drinking water employs *N,N*-diethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine, more commonly referred to as DPD. This is an indicator test, using a comparator. This test is the quickest and simplest method for testing chlorine residual. With this test, the reagent is added to a sample of water, coloring it red. The strength of color is measured against standard colors to determine the chlorine concentration. The stronger the color, the higher the concentration of chlorine in the water. Several kits for analyzing the chlorine residual in water are available commercially. The kits are small and portable.

Sample Collection, Storage and Preservation

1. Analyze samples for chlorine immediately after collection.
2. Free chlorine is a strong oxidizing agent and it is unstable in natural waters. It reacts rapidly with various inorganic compounds and more slowly oxidizes organic compounds.
3. Many factors, including reactant concentrations, sunlight, pH, temperature, and salinity influence decomposition of free chlorine in water.
4. Avoid plastic containers since these may have a large chlorine demand.
5. Pretreat glass sample containers to remove any chlorine demand by soaking in a dilute bleach solution (1 mL commercial bleach to 1 liter of deionized water) for at least 1 hour. Rinse thoroughly with deionized or distilled water.
6. If sample containers are rinsed thoroughly with deionized or distilled water after use, only occasional pre-treatment is necessary.
7. Do not use the same sample cells for free and total chlorine. If trace iodide from the total chlorine reagent is carried over into the free chlorine determination, monochloramine will interfere.
8. It is best to use separate, dedicated sample cells for free and total chlorine determinations.
9. A common error in testing for chlorine is not obtaining a representative sample.
10. If sampling from a tap, let the water flow for at least 5 minutes to ensure a representative sample.
11. Let the container overflow with the sample several times, then cap the sample containers so there is no headspace (air) above the sample.
12. If sampling with a sample cell, rinse the cell several times with the sample, then carefully fill to the 10-mL mark.
13. Perform the chlorine analysis immediately.
14. After adding reagent to the sample cell, a pink color will develop if free chlorine is present.
15. If the test over ranges, dilute the sample with a known volume of high quality, chlorine demand-free water and repeat the test. Some loss of chlorine may occur due to the dilution. Multiply the result by the dilution factor.
16. Wipe the outside of sample cells before each insertion into the instrument cell holder. Use a damp towel followed by a dry one to remove fingerprints or other marks.
17. Place the sample cell into the cell holder.
18. Fill a second round cell with 10 mL of sample.
19. Add the contents of one DPD Free Chlorine Powder Pillow to the sample cell. (This is the prepared sample).
20. Swirl the sample cell for 20 seconds to mix.
21. **Within one minute** of adding the reagent, place the prepared sample into the cell holder.
22. Compare results.

Reference: HACH, Water Analysis Handbook

PROCEDURE FOR TESTING TOTAL CHLORINE RESIDUAL (using DPD Method)

The method recommended for the analysis of chlorine residual in drinking water employs *N,N*-diethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine, more commonly referred to as DPD. This is an indicator test, using a comparator. This test is the quickest and simplest method for testing chlorine residual. With this test, the reagent is added to a sample of water, coloring it red. The strength of color is measured against standard colors to determine the chlorine concentration. The stronger the color, the higher the concentration of chlorine in the water. Several kits for analyzing the chlorine residual in water are available commercially. The kits are small and portable.

Sample Collection, Storage and Preservation

1. Analyze samples for chlorine immediately after collection.
2. Free chlorine is a strong oxidizing agent and it is unstable in natural waters. It reacts rapidly with various inorganic compounds and more slowly oxidizes organic compounds.
3. Many factors, including reactant concentrations, sunlight, pH, temperature, and salinity influence decomposition of free chlorine in water.
4. Avoid plastic containers since these may have a large chlorine demand.
5. Pretreat glass sample containers to remove any chlorine demand by soaking in a dilute bleach solution (1 mL commercial bleach to 1 liter of deionized water) for at least 1 hour. Rinse thoroughly with deionized or distilled water.
6. If sample containers are rinsed thoroughly with deionized or distilled water after use, only occasional pre-treatment is necessary.
7. Do not use the same sample cells for free and total chlorine. If trace iodide from the total chlorine reagent is carried over into the free chlorine determination, monochloramine will interfere.
8. It is best to use separate, dedicated sample cells for free and total chlorine determinations.
9. A common error in testing for chlorine is not obtaining a representative sample.
10. If sampling from a tap, let the water flow for at least 5 minutes to ensure representative sample.
11. Let the container overflow with the sample several times, then cap the sample containers so there is no headspace (air) above the sample.
12. If sampling with a sample cell, rinse the cell several times with the sample, then carefully fill to the 10-mL mark.
13. Perform the chlorine analysis immediately.
14. After adding reagent to the sample cell, a pink color will develop if free chlorine is present.
15. If the test over ranges, dilute the sample with a known volume of high quality, chlorine demand-free water and repeat the test. Some loss of chlorine may occur due to the dilution. Multiply the result by the dilution factor.
16. Wipe the outside of sample cells before each insertion into the instrument cell holder. Use a damp towel followed by a dry one to remove fingerprints or other marks.
17. Place the sample cell into the cell holder.
18. Fill a second round cell with 10 mL of sample.
19. Add the contents of one DPD Total Chlorine Powder Pillow to the sample cell. (This is the prepared sample).
20. Swirl the sample cell for 20 seconds to mix.
21. **Wait three minutes** after adding the reagent and place the prepared sample into the cell holder.
22. Compare results.

Reference: HACH, Water Analysis Handbook

WATER BACTERIOLOGICAL SAMPLING SUGGESTIONS

General Procedures –

1. Use only sterile bottles furnished by the State or County Health Department. These sample bottles have shelf life of six (6) months, after which they must be returned to the Office of Laboratory Services for reprocessing.
2. **Do Not Touch** the inside of the sample bottle or cap.
3. Do not collect samples from a storage tank, leaky faucet, aerators, or “purifiers”.
4. Allow cold water to run five (5) minutes to clean service line before sampling.
5. **Do Not Rinse Out The Bottle.**
6. Reduce water flow and fill bottle to the shoulder, leaving about one inch (1”) air space at the top to facilitate mixing. Samples can be rejected at the laboratory for insufficient air space.
7. Replace the sample bottle cap securely.

If tap cleanliness is questionable –

1. Apply a solution of sodium hypochlorite (100 mg NaOCl/L) to faucet before sampling.
2. Let water run an additional 2-3 minutes.

Sampling from a mixing faucet –

1. Remove faucet attachments, such as a screen or splashguard.
2. Run hot water for 2 minutes.
3. Run cold water for 2-3 minutes.

Sampling from a river, stream, lake or reservoir –

1. Hold bottle near its base in the hand and plunging it, neck downward, below the surface.
2. Turn bottle until neck points slightly upward and mouth is directed toward the current. If there is not current, as in the case of a reservoir, create a current artificially by pushing bottle forward horizontally in a direction away from the hand.

DIRECTIONS FOR BACTERIOLOGICAL SAMPLING

Collecting the Sample

1. Use only sterile sample bottle furnished by State or County Health Departments. These sample bottles have six-month shelf life after which they must be returned to the Office of Laboratory Services for reprocessing.
2. Do not touch the inside of the sample bottle or cap or otherwise contaminate outfit.
3. Do not collect from a storage tank, leaky faucet, aerators, or “purifiers”.
4. Allow water to run 5 minutes to clean service line before sampling.
5. Do not overflow or rinse sample bottle.
6. Fill sample bottle to the shoulder leaving about a 1-inch air space at the top.
7. Replace the sample bottle cap securely.

Completing the Sample History – Report Form

1. Complete all of the following information **IN INK** – make sure that all copies are legible.
2. Provide the following information:
 - a. County of water sample origin.
 - b. Public Supply (PWS) ID Number and name of water supply.
 - c. Who is to be charged for the sample examination?
 - d. Collector’s name, title, certification number, organization, and telephone number.
 - e. To whom the final report of examination is to be mailed? (DO NOT WRITE “SAME AS ABOVE” – This information appears in a window envelope.)
3. Complete the following sample collection data:
 - a. Sample type – Repeat samples and replacement samples must have the complete lab number of the previous sample that they are a repeat/replacement for. (Repeat samples are for samples that were previously positive, replacements samples are for samples that were previously unsatisfactory, laboratory accident or invalid.
 - b. Date and Time of sample collection. **COLLECTOR MUST INITIAL THE FORM.**
 - c. Give a specific description or location of the sampling point.
 - d. Is the water supply chlorinated? Chlorine residual.
 - e. pH
 - f. How the sample is to be transported to the laboratory and the transportation condition.

Mailing – Delivery to Laboratory

Samples must be sent or brought for receipt to the laboratory in time for examination during the following hours (South Charleston Laboratory: 8:00 am to 4:30 pm, Monday thru Friday. Kearneysville Laboratory: 8:00 am to 4:00 pm, Monday thru Wednesday and 8:00 am to 12:00 pm, Thursday) and **within 30 hours of collection.**

Check departure schedule of mail or delivery service from your area and plan for collections to be readied for shipment at that time.

Make sure postage is affixed to outer mailer.

ALL FIVE COPIES OF THE COMPLETED HISTORY FORM MUST BE ENCLOSED WITH THE SAMPLE.

SAMPLING CONTAINERS ARE THE PROPERTY OF THE STATE AND THEIR USE IS RESTRICTED ONLY FOR THE COLLECTIONS BY STATE AGENCIES OR THOSE DULY AUTHORIZED BY THE STATE.

FLUORIDE SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Water system personnel must monitor daily fluoride levels in the water distribution system daily (including weekend days). Samples that reflect the actual level of fluoride in the water system should be taken at points throughout the distribution. The sites where samples are taken should be rotated daily.

At least once a month, the public water system must submit a sample of drinking water to the commissioner or to a certified laboratory for fluoride analysis. The plant's and the state laboratory split sample results and the plant's self monitoring form averages must also correlate.

Sampling Procedure

1. Collect sample at a representative sample point in the distribution system.
2. Remove any screen, hoses and aerators from end of faucet.
3. Run COLD water for 3 to 5 minutes to make sure water has not been sitting for a long time in pipes or tanks and is fresh from the well.
4. Turn water down so it does not splash.
5. Uncap bottle and fill to shoulder with water. Screw the cap on tightly.
6. Fill out the required information on Chain of Custody form. **SIGN THE FORM!** The sample will not be processed unless the form has a signature! Also, it is always a good idea to include your printed name next to your signature. In most cases, signature alone cannot identify an individual.
7. Return bottle with completed paperwork to lab.
8. **SAMPLE MUST ARRIVE AT LAB WITHIN 28 DAYS OF COLLECTION!**

TOTAL NITRATES SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Total Nitrate Sampling Supplies

Before you begin sampling, it is important to have all of your supplies on hand. Here is a list of the suggested supplies you may need:

- Cooler for shipping and storage of your sample while in transit between collection point and lab.
- Bagged Ice for your shipping cooler.
- PVC or unsupported Neoprene gloves which are necessary to keep your hands safe from sample container preservative chemicals.
- Safety Goggles which are necessary to keep your hands and eyes safe from sample container preservative chemicals.
- Sample Container
- Lab slips, labels, and markers for sample container identification

Additional Recommended Items

- Paper towels for drying off the outside of your sample container after sampling.
- Plastic storage baggies for ice and sample container
- Sampling Containers
 - Although different sizes and types of sample containers can be used for Nitrate sampling, most laboratories supply 80mL sample bottles with concentrated Sulfuric Acid as a preservative
- As a general rule, proper washing of hands is highly recommended for the sample collector.
- Also, food, drink, and even 2nd hand cigarette smoke should never come into contact with the sample or its containers. These foreign objects have been suspected of causing false results in samples, so be sure to practice good clean sample collection procedures.
- Do not sample with any containers that appear to have been tampered with since this may cause an undesirable sample result.
- The laboratory that supplies the sampling containers may provide instruction with the kit for the type of monitoring being performed. Be sure to refer to those instructions when provided.

Important Safety Precautions

Safety goggles and gloves must be worn.

Wash hands before and after sampling.

Sampling Procedures

Sample containers may contain liquid preservatives. Liquid preservatives will cause burns. If it comes into contact with the skin or eyes, flush with liberal amounts of water and seek immediate medical attention.

1. Select a state approved sampling location if any have been designated. If none have been designated, contact your state or tribal drinking water program office. For a surface water system, the plant effluent tap might be an appropriate sampling location. For a well

discharging directly into a distribution system (entry point to the distribution system or EPTDS), a tap on the well's discharge piping after any treatment may be appropriate.

2. If possible, use a non-swivel faucet and remove all attachments, including any aerators, strainers and hoses. It is normally recommended not to take a sample at that location if all attachments cannot be removed because they may alter the sample results.
3. Turn on the water tap and run the water until the temperature has stabilized (use a thermometer if possible). This typically takes 2 to 3 minutes. Then reduce the flow so that the stream is approximately ¼ inch in diameter. Do not change the flow rate until after sampling is completed.
4. While the water is running for those 2-3 minutes, completely fill out the labels and lab slip. Be sure to clearly identify the system information, like the public water system identification number, exact sample location, date and time of collection, and the sampler's name.
5. If the sample collection point has a specific coded identification, include it on the label and sample submission form. Be sure to attach the label prior to sampling. A wet sample container may not allow the label to properly adhere.
6. Hold bottle at an angle and carefully fill it to its shoulder. Do not touch the interior of the bottle or the underside of the cap. Do not allow the bottle to touch the faucet, or allow water to splash up onto the faucet.
7. The sample container should be tightly capped.
8. Blot the sample container with a paper towel to dry it off.
9. It is recommended that you place the sample in a sealable plastic bag before shipping in a closed chest or box.
10. Since Ice is sometimes recommended for use in shipping, it is recommended that it be bagged separately to eliminate any contamination of the sample.
11. Samples must be delivered to the analytical laboratory within 3 days for proper testing

RECOMMENDED:

Taping of the chest prior to shipping is also recommended since the container could be mistakenly opened during shipment. Also be sure to tape the sample forms and any other sample documentation either inside or the outside of the lid. If the laboratory has any additional recommendations or requirements, they should be read and followed closely.

If you have any additional questions, please contact your state or tribal drinking water program office for assistance.

Following the proper drinking water sample collection procedures can lead to peace of mind, knowing that the test results truly represent the quality of water your customers are drinking.

LEAD AND COPPER SAMPLING PROCEDURES

1. **Sample must be first-draw after water has been motionless in the plumbing for a minimum of 6 hours.** An exception to the first-draw requirement can be granted to non-transient non-community systems that operate 24 hours per day. They must document that they are 24-hour operations and indicate the approximate length of time the water was motionless before sample was collected.
2. Samples must be from cold, untreated water taps in the kitchen or bathroom of residential buildings. Non-residential building samples must be collected from taps where water is typically drawn for consumption. Taps connected to a softener or other point-of-use device may not be used
3. Sample must be acidified immediately after collection. If not, the sample has to stand in the original bottle for 28 hours after acidification.
4. Label bottles and fill out laboratory request forms completely.
5. Be sure to take the required number of samples for your system. Refer to the included, *EPA Lead and Copper Rule: A Quick Reference Guide* to determine your system's sampling requirements and the 90th percentile. In general, the Lead and Copper Rule (LCR) established an action level of 0.015 mg/L (15 ppb) for lead and 1.3 mg/L (1300 ppb) for copper based on the 90th percentile level of tap water samples. Therefore, no more than 10 percent of samples can be above either action level.

To calculate the 90th percentile for a system that must only collect 5 samples:

- List the sample results ranking in order from the lowest to the highest value, numbering each from 1 up to the number of samples taken.
- Find the average of the values in the 4th and 5th positions.

To calculate the 90th percentile for a system that must collect > 5 samples:

- List the sample results ranking in order from the lowest to the highest value, numbering each from 1 up to the number of samples taken.
- The number of samples taken is multiplied by 0.9 to find the location of the value that is the 90th percentile. (Example: If a system collects from 20 sites, it sorts its results from the lowest to the highest concentration and reports the concentration it observed in the 90th sample (20 x 0.9) which is the value in the 18th position.

Example calculations:

1. A system collected 5 samples with the following results: 0.023 mg/L, 0.004 mg/L, 0.014 mg/L, 0.008 mg/L, and 0.019 mg/L. What is the 90th percentile?

Answer: 0.021 mg/L

2. If a system collected 50 samples, the 90th percentile would be in the _____ value place.

Answer: 45th

3. What is the 90th percentile for a system with the following sample results: 0.013 mg/L, 0.012mg/L, 0.019 mg/L, 0.02 mg/L, 0.013 mg/L, 0.007 mg/L, 0.011 mg/L, 0.022 mg/L, 0.017 mg/L, 0.015 mg/L?

Answer: 0.02 mg/L

DISINFECTION BYPRODUCTS SAMPLING PROCEDURES

TTHM/HAA5 Sampling Supplies

Before you begin sampling, it is important to have all of your supplies on hand. Here is a list of the suggested supplies you may need:

- Cooler for shipping and storage of your sample while in transit between collection point and lab.
- Bagged Ice for your shipping cooler.
- PVC or unsupported Neoprene gloves which are necessary to keep your hands safe from sample container preservative chemicals.
- Safety Goggles which are necessary to keep your hands and eyes safe from sample container preservative chemicals.
- Sample Container
- Lab slips, labels, and markers for sample container
- identification

Additional Recommended Items are:

- Paper towels for drying off the outside of your sample container after sampling.
- Plastic storage baggies for ice and sample container
- For this sampling Method, The laboratory normally sends either 2- 40 or 2- 60 milliliter glass vial containers. Some labs may provide ampules with acid for pH adjustment which is not covered in this presentation.
- Obtain specific instructions from the laboratory at the time empty containers are received.

As a general rule, proper washing of hands is highly recommended for the sample collector.

Also, food, drink, and even 2nd hand cigarette smoke should never come into contact with the sample or its containers. These foreign objects have been suspected of causing false results in samples, so be sure to practice good clean sample collection procedures.

Do not sample with any containers that appear to have been tampered with since this may cause an undesirable sample result.

Procedures

The laboratory that supplies the sampling containers may provide instruction with the kit for the type of monitoring being performed. Be sure to refer to those instructions when provided.

IMPORTANT: The laboratory supplying the sample containers may send trip blanks, sometimes called field reagent blanks, along with the sample containers. Trip blanks consist of sample containers filled at the laboratory, that must remain sealed and must be shipped back to the lab. This is done to check if samples were contaminated during shipment.

Important Safety Precautions

Safety goggles and gloves must be worn.

Wash hands before and after sampling.

Caution-Hazard

Sample containers may contain liquid preservatives. Liquid preservatives will cause burns. If it comes into contact with the skin or eyes, flush with liberal amounts of water and seek immediate medical attention.

Sampling Procedure

1. Select a state approved sampling location. Normally, this type of sample is collected at various locations throughout the distribution system.
2. If possible, use a non-swivel faucet and remove all attachments, including any aerators, strainers and hoses. It is normally recommended not to take a sample at that location if all attachments cannot be removed because they may alter the sample results.
3. Turn on the water tap and run the water until the temperature has stabilized (use a thermometer if possible). This typically takes 2 to 3 minutes. Then reduce the flow so that the stream is approximately ¼ inch in diameter. Do not change the flow rate until after sampling is completed.
4. While the water is running for those 2-3 minutes, completely fill out the labels and lab slip. Be sure to clearly identify the system information, like the public water system identification number, exact sample location, date and time of collection, and the sampler's name.
5. If the sample collection point has a specific coded identification, include it on the label and sample submission form. Be sure to attach the label prior to sampling. A wet sample container may not allow the label to properly adhere.
6. Remove the cap from the vial, keeping the vial upright to prevent spilling any preservatives. Do not put the cap face down or put it in your pocket. Do not allow the inside of the cap or the bottle threads to be touched by any object.
7. Hold the vial at an angle pointing away from your face and carefully fill it until it is completely full. Be careful not to rinse out the preservatives. If acid has been added to the vial by the laboratory, it will mix rapidly with the water and may splatter a bit.
8. Carefully complete filling the vial by putting water inside the cap and transferring it one drop at a time to the vial until completely full.
9. Screw the cap on the bottle being sure not to over tighten the cap.
10. Invert the bottle 2 or 3 times and check for air bubbles. If any are present, add additional water- just a drop or 2- seal and check again.
11. Remember that each "sample" consists of 2 to 3 filled vials. Repeat the previous steps to fill additional vials for each sample.

12. Complete all necessary forms supplied by the laboratory with the appropriate information. In many states, the same form that is filled out here will be used to report the analytical results. Also, you may need to complete a chain of custody form, if required.
13. Place the samples in a cooler. The trip blanks should still be in the cooler. Keep the samples at 2 degrees to 6 degrees Celsius (36 degrees to 43 degrees Fahrenheit) and keep them away from direct light or gasoline and solvent vapors. Pack the samples in a cooler with Ice. As a tip, it might be a good idea to bag up the sample and the ice separately in the cooler. This will help prevent leakage or contamination of the sample from the ice.
14. Deliver the samples to the laboratory or ship the samples by an overnight courier. This will ensure prompt testing for the most accurate results. It is recommended that all samples be received by the laboratory within 7 days.
15. If the laboratory has any additional recommendations or requirements, they should be read and followed closely.

If you have any additional questions, please contact your state drinking water program office at 304-558-2981 for assistance.

Following the proper drinking water sample collection procedures can lead to peace of mind, knowing that the test results truly represent the quality of water your customers are drinking.

Sample Containers, Preservation and Holding Times for Regulated Parameters

Parameter/ Method	Preservative	Sample Holding Time	Extract Holding Time and Storage Conditions	Suggested Sample Size	Type of Container
Metals (except Hg)	HNO ₃ pH<2	6 months		1 L	Plastic or Glass
Mercury	HNO ₃ pH<2	28 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Alkalinity	Cool, 4C	14 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Asbestos	Cool, 4C	48 hours		1 L	Plastic or Glass
Chloride	none	28 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Residual Disinfectant	none	immediately		200 mL	Plastic or Glass
Color	Cool, 4C	48 hours		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Conductivity	Cool, 4C	28 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Cyanide	Cool, 4C, Ascorbic acid (if chlorinated), NaOH pH>12	14 days		1 L	Plastic or Glass
Fluoride	none	1 month		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Foaming Agents	Cool, 4C	48 hours			
Nitrate (chlorinated)	Cool, 4C non-acidified	14 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Nitrate (non chlorinated)	Cool, 4C, non-acidified	48 hours		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Nitrite	Cool, 4C	48 hours		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Nitrate+ Nitrite	H ₂ SO ₄ pH<2	28 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Odor	Cool, 4C	24 hours		200 mL	Glass
pH	none	immediately		25 mL	Plastic or Glass
o-Phosphate	Cool, 4C	48 hours		100mL	Plastic or Glass

Parameter/ Method	Preservative	Sample Holding Time	Extract Holding Time and Storage Conditions	Suggested Sample Size	Type of Container
Silica	Cool, 4C	28 days		100 mL	Plastic
Solids (TDS)	Cool, 4C	7 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Sulfate	Cool, 4C	28 days		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
Temperature	none	immediately		1 L	Plastic or Glass
Turbidity	Cool, 4C	48 hours		100 mL	Plastic or Glass
502.2	Sodium Thiosulfate or Ascorbic Acid, 4C, HCl pH<2	14 days		40-120 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
504.1	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C,	14 days	4C, 24 hours	40 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
505	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C	14 days (7 days for Heptachlor)	4C, 24 hours	40 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
506	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days	4C, dark 14 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
507	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days(see method for exceptions)	4C, dark 14 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
508	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, Dark	7 days (see method for exceptions)	4C, dark 14 days	1 L	Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
508A	Cool, 4C	14 days	30 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
508.1	Sodium Sulfite HCl pH<2 Cool, 4C	14 days (see method for exceptions)	30 days	1 L	Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
515.1	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days	4C, dark 28 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap

Parameter/ Method	Preservative	Sample Holding Time	Extract Holding Time and Storage Conditions	Suggested Sample Size	Type of Container
515.2	Sodium Thiosulfate or Sodium Sulfite HCl pH<2 Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days	≤4C, dark 14 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
515.3	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days	≤4C, dark 14 days	50 mL	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
515.4	Sodium Sulfite, dark, cool ≤10C fro first 48 hr. ≤6C thereafter	14 days	≤0C 21 days	40 mL	Amber glass with PTFE lined septum
524.2	Ascorbic Acid or Sodium Thiosulfate HCl pH<2, Cool 4C	14 days		40-120 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
525.2	Sodium Sulfite, Dark, Cool, 4C, HCl pH<2	14 days (see method for exceptions)	≤4C 30 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
531.1, 6610	Sodium Thiosulfate, Monochloroacet ic acid, pH<3, Cool, 4C	Cool 4C 28 days		60 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
531.2	Sodium Thiosulfate, Potassium Dihydrogen Citrate buffer to pH 4, dark, ≤10C for first 48 hr, ≤6C thereafter	28 days		40 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
547	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C	14 days(18 mo.frozen)		60 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum

Parameter/ Method	Preservative	Sample Holding Time	Extract Holding Time and Storage Conditions	Suggested Sample Size	Type of Container
548.1	Sodium Thiosulfate (HCl pH 1.5-2 if high biological activity) Cool, 4C, Dark	7 days	≤4C 14 days	≥ 250 mL	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
549.2	Sodium Thiosulfate, (H ₂ SO ₄ pH<2 if biologically active) Cool, 4C, Dark	7 days	21 days	≥ 250mL	High Density Amber Plastic or Silanized Amber Glass
550, 550.1	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 4C, HCl pH<2	7 days	4C, Dark 550, 30 days 550.1, 40 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
551.1	Sodium Sulfite, Ammonium Chloride, pH 4.5-5.0 with phosphate buffer Cool, 4C	14 days		≥ 40 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined Septum
552.1	Ammonium chloride Cool, 4C, Dark	28 days	≤4C, dark 48 hours	250 mL	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
552.2	Ammonium chloride Cool, 4C, Dark	14 days	≤4C, dark 7 days ≤-10C 14 days	50mL	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap
555	Sodium Sulfite HCl, pH≤2 Dark, Cool 4C	14 days		≥ 100 mL	Glass with PTFE Lined cap
1613	Sodium Thiosulfate Cool, 0-4C, Dark		Recommend 40 days	1 L	Amber Glass with PTFE Lined Cap

Reference: Manual for the Certification of Laboratories Analyzing Drinking Water Criteria and Procedures Quality Assurance, Fifth Edition: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Office of Water Office of Groundwater and Drinking Water, EPA 815-R-05-004, January 2005.

TYPICAL CHEMICAL ANALYSIS LABORATORY REPORT

Most laboratories are providing a key on their forms to help explain what various abbreviations and acronyms stand for, but if an owner/operator does not understand what something on the report form means, they will not be able to respond appropriately to questions regarding the analyses. **If you do not understand what something on the report means or the significance of it, ask the laboratory to explain it to you. You are paying for this service; it is your report.** An explanation of the important items is listed below:

1. The time between sampling and analysis can be critical to the validity of the test. This data should be checked for accuracy, especially if the sample is rejected due to holding time problems related to sample preservation.
2. Flag Definitions: This section is provided as a courtesy by the laboratory. It defines the abbreviations and acronyms that appear on the form.
3. Your name, address, etc. **Double check the PWSID # to make sure the sample “belongs to you”. It is also a good idea to give each sample a “client sample ID” that is unique to your system to ensure that the results are definitely for your sample and there was no mix up at the laboratory.** The labs handle hundreds of samples each day and also run samples in groups. They are very careful about tracking samples and maintaining sample integrity, but you should always check this information to make sure sample identification is consistent with your records and PWSID.
4. Parameter: This is the chemical that was analyzed.
5. Result: The result is the concentration that was detected. Note that several do not have a numerical value listed. Instead <MDL is listed this means that for that particular parameter less than the Method Detection Limit was present.
6. Units: Note that the units are all mg/L for this particular analysis.
7. **MDL = Method Detection Limit.** This refers to the test method. All methods have a limit below which the actual concentration cannot be accurately determined. The number in this column lists the detection limit for each parameter using that particular method.
8. **MCL = Maximum Contaminant Level.** This column lists the MCL that is listed in the West Virginia State Drinking Water Regulations. If the number in the Result column exceeds the number in the MCL column, your sample has exceeded the concentration allowed under the regulations for that parameter.
9. Prep Method and Prep Date: If a sample required special preparation before analysis it would be described here.
10. Analysis Method: This column lists the analytical method used. This is important from a regulatory standpoint, because specific methods are called out in the Drinking Water Regulations. If the method used is not an .approved method, the sample results will not be valid for compliance purposes. The laboratories in West Virginia are very good about making sure the correct method is used if the sample is to be used for compliance purposes.
11. Analysis Date: This is the day the sample was analyzed.

RECORDKEEPING FOR COMPLIANCE SAMPLING

With a full set of SDWA regulations, the responsibility of keeping a PWS in compliance can seem overwhelming. The most important responsibilities are collecting water samples on schedule, keeping all of the laboratory test results in an orderly filing system, and submitting the proper paperwork. Organization is the key factor.

Here are a few suggestions to help. First, find an extra calendar, or generate a calendar on your computer. Put it up on a bulletin board or just on the wall, somewhere where it will be seen every day. Then go through the whole year and mark down the dates when required sampling needs to be completed. Sampling requirements are different for ground water, surface water and purchaser systems, and for community versus non-transient non-community systems. So look for the sampling guideline that your system receives each year in January or February from the Environmental Engineering Division (EED), central office. For a typical community surface water system you should now be collecting the following:

- Monthly total coliforms: don't forget to follow your sample site plan.
- Lead and Copper: usually one round every three years, between June 1 and September 30.
- Nitrates: be sure to collect the sample in the required calendar quarter.
- Inorganics: any time during the calendar year.
- Regulated VOCs: any time during the year.
- Regulated SOCs: usually only once every three years, but check your individual guidance printout from the EED.
- Disinfection By-Products: depending on your system's population, you may be collecting a quarterly sample or just one sample during the month of August. Be sure to collect the sample from the maximum residence time (MRT) location. You must have the sample analyzed for both TTHMs and HAA5s. Large systems must collect four samples every quarter.
- Raw and Treated Water TOCs: These must be sampled monthly, and reported quarterly on EW-90C.
- Don't forget to submit your Consumer Confidence Report before July 1 each year, and the certification form to confirm that you have distributed it to all of your customers as required, based on your system's population.
- Don't forget to send your monthly operational report in by the 10th of each month, including EW-90 (3 pages), EW-90A (2 pages), EW- 90B (1 page), EW-90C (quarterly, 1 page), EW-80 if you fluoridate, EW-103 (2 pages) and EW-210 (2 pages).

Be sure to send the lab results to the EED, central office, as soon as they are received from the lab, and keep a record of when they were sent. Keep each of the above referenced test results and reports in a separate manila folder, and keep all of the test results and reports for a given year in a common hanging file. The file will then be readily available when someone from the EED asks to look at them, and there will not be any more of those aggravating violation notices. A little bit of organization will also go a long way in assuring customers of the dedication and professionalism of the PWS and that they are being provided a safe, high quality drinking water.

COMPUTERS

A good basic **personal computer (PC)** for everyday office use can be purchased with a complete office software bundle and that includes a monitor and a printer and sometimes a scanner or a digital camera. A PC can be a tremendous management tool. The time savings, the many reporting capabilities, and the convenience of email, and the ability to download vital information from the worldwide web can enhance the effectiveness of any operation. Maintenance records and process control data can all appear with a click of a mouse. There is a veritable ton of information one can find about water treatment on the Internet. Another benefit of using a PC is recordkeeping. Imagine that the OEHS District Engineer visits the treatment plant to conduct a sanitary survey and asks to take a look at operational data. No problem, one click on a directory with this information will display everything in full detail. The need to frantically fumble through file cabinets and desk drawers will have been eliminated. With a spreadsheet program, an operator can easily graph data instead of pouring over a large spreadsheet with many numbers.

Components

The three main type's processors readily available include: the Athlon AMD, Pentium IV, and the Celeron. Intel manufactures both the Celeron and the Pentium IV. The Celeron is the least expensive but works quite well for most business applications. The Pentium IV is more expensive and better suited for graphic intensive applications such as video and mapping.

This **random access memory (RAM)** enables a PC to multi-task. More memory is equal to a more powerful PC. For everyday work, word processing, spreadsheets and e-mail, a PC with at least 512MB should be sufficient. Anything less will slow your work.

The hard drive is another critical component to consider before purchasing. Most drives now are being manufactured in excess of 80 GB and function at a speed of 7,200 rpm. This should be more than adequate hard drive space for most small offices.

A CD-RW or Recordable DVD Drive is standard on new PCs. A recordable DVD or CD-RW drive is essential for data storage and transfer. Both allows the back up of important documents (700MB on a CD, 4.7GB on a DVD), share files, and create custom audio or video CDs or DVDs. If you need to back up massive amounts of data or entire hard drives, choose the DVD option.

Many PCs now offer a pair of **Universal Serial Bus (USB)** ports. Be sure to purchase a machine those features USB 2.0 ports. This is high speed USB and many external devices such as mice, keyboards, scanners, digital cameras, printers, and flash drives require newer 2.0 interface to transmit data and function properly. USB's are also essential for information stored on the 1.44MB floppy disk drive, now that most PC manufacturers do not include floppy drives on new PCs.

Finally, look at the warranty. This is very important because most problems do not usually happen right away. Most PCs come with a 1-year warranty, which is adequate in most cases, but considering some of the environments where PCs are located in a water plant, a 2 or 3-year

warranty is a better option to protect your investment. When problems arise and they do, it can be very costly depending on the situation.

Also look for technical support. This can range between 1-year and lifetime support. Also look for 24 hour toll-free support because it will seem when you are having problems, everyone in the western hemisphere is also experiencing problems, so be prepared to spend some time on hold.

Software

Computer software, sometimes called programs, provides instruction that tell the computer how to operate. There are 2 main types of software. System software directs all the activities and sets all the rules for how the hardware and software work together. Application software is used to accomplish a specific task. Carefully examine the software bundles that come with your PC. Most PCs come from the factory with office software bundled with computer. The software most often used in the water industry are:

- A word processing program is an extremely useful tools, for typing documents such as memos, letters and letterhead, legal copies, reference documents Other word processing functions include "spell checking" (actually checks against wordlists), "grammar checking" (checks for what seem to be simple grammar errors), and a "thesaurus" function (finds words with similar or opposite meanings).
- Spreadsheet software performs complicated calculations quickly and efficiently. A spreadsheet program is also useful for maintaining and tabulating process control data and inventory. Many programs have chart and graph capability so you can easily visualize your data.
- A database program is a structured collection of records or data that is stored in a computer system. A database is used for keeping track of mailing lists, phone numbers, inventory, and maintenance items.
- A new document format has entered the internet scene- **Portable Document Format (PDF)**. **Hypertext Markup Language (HTML)** (the code behind Web pages) cannot maintain all the original formatting and presentation of many documents. In such cases, websites use a PDF. PDF documents maintain the look of the original document, and they can be viewed on any Macintosh, PC, or UNIX computer. First, however, download and install the free Adobe Reader program. Please use the most current reader from Adobe to ensure compatibility with all PDF files on EPA's site. The Adobe Reader is also sometimes referred to as the Adobe Acrobat Reader.

Cleaning and Organizing Your Computer

It is a good idea to think of the computer as an office. It stores files, programs and pictures. This can be compared to an actual office's files and machines. The operating system is the boss. With this in mind, think of an office that was slow and inefficient. There were probably many different reasons for the inefficiency. This is the same with a computer. There can be many items that slow down the computer. Perhaps the one most commonly overlooked is disorganization and clutter.

Disk Cleanup

An office can accumulate a lot of unnecessary files. The same is true for a computer. One of the best ways to keep this clutter under control is to perform a cleaning utility periodically. This cleaning utility will be called a “disk cleanup.” It removes a variety of unnecessary files depending on the selected options. This will include compressing old files, deleting temporary Internet files, emptying the recycle bin, etc.

Performing a disk cleanup is not very time consuming and it may save more time in the end by making the computer run faster. However, a disk cleanup should be run periodically rather than just once in a great while. One way to make this run periodically is to make it a scheduled task. This will allow the computer to run it automatically with the intervals and time of day determined. It can always run it periodically without creating a scheduled task.

Add or Remove Programs

The information given above may help rid the computer of some unnecessary files, but there is also a need to disregard unnecessary programs as well. It is a good idea to browse through the add or remove programs utility every once in a while just to make sure that all programs are of usefulness. If there are programs listed that are no longer used they should be uninstalled. In most cases, to finish uninstalling a program, it is wise to restart the computer.

Defragment

In a computer, the saved files are placed on the hard drive. However, they are placed according to the time that they were saved. So, if a word document is opened and saved as “file A” and then another document is opened and saved as “file B”, “file A” will be placed next to “file B.” This is fine, but when “file A” is opened later and saved again, the added information is saved next to “file B.” When files are broken up this way it is referred to as a fragmented file. This means that the computer must find the first part of the file and then find the second part of the file to open that one word document. This can make the computer run slower. Defragmenting the hard drive rearranges files on the hard drive and removes empty spaces so that they can be accessed quicker. It may take a while to finish this task depending on the speed of the computer and the amount of fragmented files. It could take from about 15-30 minutes or more. However, the computer can still use the computer while the disk defragmenter is working.

Computer Backup

All of this leads up to backing up your system. There is no need to backup unnecessary files. That is one reason to do Disk Cleanup. The other is just to eliminate files that are not needed. Computer backup is the storing copies of files on a medium other than the hard disk. The reason for making computer backups is to protect against the event that something happens to damage the files so they are no longer usable. With backups of files, then these files can be restored to the computer.

Computer backups can be made in very different formats. The traditional method of backing up computer files was the floppy disk. However, floppy disks are becoming increasingly obsolete. It is already not uncommon to not even see a new computer that includes a floppy disk drive, and it is becoming almost impossible to actually get a new computer that includes such a drive. Floppy disks can only hold 1.4 megabytes of data, and there are formats which can hold much more.

CD-Rs are CD-ROMs that you can actually write onto, and hold up to 800 megabytes of storage. You can also use CD-RW, which can be written onto more than once, unlike a CD-R. DVD burners are also becoming increasingly common, and a typical DVD-R can hold up to 4,700 megabytes, or 4.7 gigabytes.

Another new technology which is becoming common for computer backup is the key drive, also known as a flash drive, jump drive, or thumb drive. These are removable drives which are very small, the size of a key chain, and many in fact are designed to operate as key chains. They can hold up to gigabytes worth of data, not as much as a typical DVD-R but still a sizeable amount of data.

The easiest is a one-touch backup. The external backup drive and software are included with this purchase. Once this backup is set up, it really is one touch of the button on the hard drive to do a complete or partial backup of the internal hard drive.

Consult your billing software provided for this information. Backups can be made on hard drives, zip drives, CD-R, or CD-RW drives. An advantage of zip drives or CDs is that the copies can be stored off-site as is recommended.

EFFECTIVE WATER UTILITY MANAGEMENT

Recent events have highlighted the fundamental importance of sustaining our Nation's water infrastructure. Effective utility management is the key to achieving this goal. Effective management can help utilities enhance the stewardship of their infrastructure, improve performance in critical areas, and respond to other challenges. Addressing the Nation's water and wastewater infrastructure also calls for ongoing collaboration between government, industry, elected officials, and other stakeholders.

PWSs face common challenges, such as rising costs and workforce complexities, and need to focus attention on these areas to deliver quality products and services and sustain community support. Within this context, four primary building blocks of effective water utility management have been identified, which could become the basis of a future water utility sector management strategy. These building blocks, described below, are: Attributes of Effectively Managed Water Utilities, Keys to Management Success, Water Utility Measures, and Water Utility Management Resources.

Attributes of Effectively Managed Water Utilities

Ten attributes of effectively managed water sector utilities have been identified that provide a succinct indication of where effectively managed utilities focus and what they strive to achieve. Further, it was recommended that the water utility adopt and utilize these Attributes as a basis for promoting improved management. The attributes can be viewed as a continuum of, or a set of building blocks for, management improvement opportunities. The attributes, are deliberately not listed in a particular order; since the utility manager will determine their relevance and relative importance based on individual circumstances.

- **Product Quality:** Produces potable water, treated effluent, and process residuals in full compliance with regulatory and reliability requirements and consistent with customer, public health, and ecological needs.
- **Customer Satisfaction:** Provides reliable, responsive, and affordable services in line with explicit, customer-accepted service levels. Receives timely customer feedback to maintain responsiveness to customer needs and emergencies.
- **Employee and Leadership Development:** Recruits and retains a workforce that is competent, motivated, adaptive, and safe-working. Establishes a participatory, collaborative organization dedicated to continual learning and improvement. Ensures employee institutional knowledge is retained and improved upon over time. Provides a focus on and emphasizes opportunities for professional and leadership development and strives to create an integrated well-coordinated senior leadership team.
- **Operational Optimization:** Ensures ongoing, timely, cost-effective, reliable, and sustainable performance improvements in all facets of its operations. Minimizes resource use, loss, and impacts from day-to-day operations. Maintains awareness of information and operational technology developments to anticipate and support timely adoption of improvements.
- **Financial Viability:** Understands the full life-cycle cost of the utility and establishes and maintains an effective balance between long-term debt, asset values, operations and maintenance expenditures, and operating revenues. Establishes predictable rates—consistent with community expectations and

acceptability—adequate to recover costs, provide for reserves, maintain support from bond rating agencies, and plan and invest for future needs.

- **Operational Resiliency:** Ensures utility leadership and staff work together to anticipate and avoid problems. Proactively identifies, assesses, establishes tolerance levels for, and effectively manages a full range of business risks (including legal, regulatory, financial, environmental, safety, security, and natural disaster related) in a proactive way consistent with industry trends and system reliability goals.
- **Community Sustainability:** Is explicitly cognizant of and attentive to the impacts its decisions have on current and long-term future community and watershed health and welfare. Manages operations, infrastructure, and investments to protect, restore, and enhance the natural environment; efficiently use water and energy resources; promote economic vitality; and engender overall community improvement. Explicitly considers a variety of pollution prevention, watershed, and source water protection approaches as part of an overall strategy to maintain and enhance ecological and community sustainability.
- **Infrastructure Stability:** Understands the condition of and costs associated with critical infrastructure assets. Maintains and enhances the condition of all assets over the long-term at the lowest possible life-cycle cost and acceptable risk consistent with customer, community, and regulator-supported service levels, and consistent with anticipated growth and system reliability goals. Assures asset repair, rehabilitation, and replacement efforts are coordinated within the community to minimize disruptions and other negative consequences.
- **Stakeholder Understanding and Support:** Engenders understanding and support from oversight bodies, community and watershed interests, and regulatory bodies for service levels, rate structures, operating budgets, capital improvement programs, and risk management decisions. Actively involves stakeholders in the decisions that will affect them.
- **Water Resource Adequacy:** Ensures water availability consistent with current and future customer needs through long-term resource supply and demand analysis, conservation, and public education. Explicitly considers its role in water availability and manages operations to provide for long-term aquifer and surface water sustainability and replenishment.

Keys to Management Success

Five “Keys to Management Success” were also identified that foster utility management success.

- **Leadership:** Leadership plays a critical role in effective utility management, particularly in the context of driving and inspiring change within an organization. In this context, the term “leaders” refers both to individuals who champion improvement, and to leadership teams that provide resilient, day-to-day management continuity and direction. Effective leadership ensures the utility’s direction is understood, embraced, and followed on an ongoing basis throughout the management cycle.
- **Strategic Business Planning:** Strategic business planning helps utilities balance and drive integration and cohesion across, the Attributes. It involves taking a long-term view of utility goals and operations and establishing an explicit vision

and mission that guide utility objectives, measurement efforts, investments, and operations.

- **Organizational Approaches:** A variety of organizational approaches can be critical to management improvement. These approaches include establishing a “participatory organizational culture” that actively seeks to engage employees in improvement efforts, deploying an explicit change management process, and utilizing implementation strategies that seek early, step-wise victories to build momentum and motivation.
- **Measurement:** A focus and emphasis on measurement is the backbone of successful continual improvement management and strategic business planning. Successful measurement efforts tend to be viewed on a continuum, starting with basic internal tracking.
- **Continual Improvement Management Framework:** A “plan, do, check, act” continual improvement management framework typically includes several components, such as conducting an honest and comprehensive self-assessment; establishing explicit performance objectives and targets; implementing measurement activities; and responding to evaluations through the use of an explicit change management process.

Water Utility Measures

It has been strongly affirmed that measurement is critical to effective utility management. Utility measurement is complicated and needs to be done carefully to be useful. The challenges presented by performance measurement include deciding what to measure, identifying meaningful measures, and making sure that data are collected in a way that allows meaningful comparisons to be made. Consideration of these factors is important if the data are to be used to make real improvements and to communicate accurate information, and help ensure that the information is interpreted correctly.

Within this context, the Committee identified a set of high-level, illustrative example water utility measures related to the Attributes and recommended that, to simply get started on exploring this component of the future sector strategy, these or other example utility measures be made available. These *preliminary* example measures included, for instance, under Operational Optimization, the amount of distribution system water loss; under Operational Resiliency, whether the utility has a current all-hazards disaster readiness response plan; and, under Stakeholder Understanding and Support, whether the utility consults regularly with stakeholders.

It is recommended that a longer-term initiative to identify a cohesive set of targeted, generally applicable, individual water utility measures. The goal would be to provide robust measures for individual utilities to use in gauging and improving operational and managerial practices and for communicating with external audiences such as boards, rate payers, and community leaders.

Water Utility Management Resources

It is believed that water utilities are interested in tools that can support management progress, and that many utilities would benefit from a “helping hand” that can guide them to useful management resources, particularly in the context of the Attributes.

THE NEED FOR ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

It doesn't matter if a PWS is large or small; a clear and well-understood organizational plan is vital to its success and long-term viability. Sound organization promotes effective management by uniting the efforts of the governing board, the manager and the employees into the common purpose of operating a successful utility system that meets customer needs. At first glance, the idea of adopting an organizational chart or a chain of command may seem to relate more to larger systems, but in reality, the smaller the system, the more important organization becomes. In a small organization, each employee represents a larger percentage of the staff. Therefore, it is even more important to avoid the duplication of effort and eliminate confusion.

Developing and implementing a written organizational plan can help achieve those goals. Creating and maintaining an effective organizational plan requires time and careful study. It would be a good idea to involve decision makers, management, and employee representatives into the task. Input from different perspectives can lead to more well- rounded and thorough plan. Following implementation of such a plan, the governing body and management should understand that continuous development, adjustment, and review needs to take place. As the operation changes, the organizational plan should be revised. Any organizational plan needs to consider the ability, needs, and potential of employees. The following are some points to consider when establishing an organizational plan:

- Organization should be based upon the objectives to be achieved and the activities to be performed,
- Each individual should have one "boss" and all directions and guidance should come from that individual,
- Supervisors, at any level, should have a limited number of people for whom they are directly responsible, and
- The number of distinct levels of management should be kept to a minimum.

Delegation of authority should be an objective. This allows decisions to be made by the people who are the closest to the action for which the decision applies. Responsibilities, limits of authority, and the relationship of each organizational department should be clearly stated in approved job descriptions.

In order for any organizational plan to be successful, it must be relatively simple, flexible, and dynamic. That is, it should be a living document and should be regularly reviewed and amended. Once adopted, copies of the plan should be distributed to everyone involved and that includes distributing copies to all board members, managers, and employees. An organizational plan can be an excellent management tool for ensuring that personnel have a clear understanding of their role in the operations of the utility. This plan should be flexible enough to allow job shadowing and continuous staff development.

These elements are important for promoting morale and staff development and in helping employees feel more as a member of the team. Ensuring harmonious relationships while working toward more efficient job performance should be the goal of any organizational plan. Hopefully, the end results will include improved managerial and technical capacity that in turn will lead to improved financial capacity. Any time the three areas of capacity development can advance together in unison, the utility and its employees, and more importantly, the customers, all come out as winners.

MANAGEMENT COMPONENTS

Owning and operating a public drinking water system is a big responsibility. There are few things more important to maintaining good health than having access to safe drinking water. The purpose of this section is to assist owners/operators of small water systems to meet the requirements of state and federal drinking water laws, and ultimately to protect the health of their customers.

Much of this guide will be useful on a day-to-day basis. The guide can be used as a filing system for system personnel and can serve many purposes including providing a:

- central location for numerous water system records and system policies;
- process to evaluate present and future system deficiencies and improvements necessary for continued water system operation; and
- a list of operation and maintenance duties that can be reviewed, used and improved as necessary by existing and future water system personnel so they may effectively manage and operate the water system.

This section contains a description of content of the 18 elements. Some elements can be completed quickly (e.g., fill in information that should be readily available or attach documents you should have in your files). Other elements may take more effort (e.g., if one does not exist, create a service area and facility map or develop a cross connection control program).

Working through this section may appear challenging at first, but from the perspective of assuring effective long term management of the system, each element is important. **To help prioritize the efforts, please focus on the first five elements of this section first.** These elements primarily focus on accurate record keeping and water quality monitoring/reporting. They are absolutely essential and need immediate attention. Once these are completed, continue to work through the section and develop the other technical, managerial, and financial elements.

- **Water Facilities Inventory:** Provides information about the water system (e.g., source capacity, number of connections and population served, etc.).
- **Water Quality Monitoring Program:** Identifies the type, frequency and location of baseline water quality monitoring required for each existing, permanent and seasonal source and distribution system.
- **Consumer Confidence Report:** Creates an annual educational water quality report, for distribution to your customers, which summarizes monitoring results.
- **Preparing for Your Sanitary Survey:** Identifies things a system can perform to prepare for sanitary surveys.
- **Annual Operating Permit:** Provides a compliance status report to system to correct any identified problems.
- **Cross-Connection Control Program:** Documents cross-connection control program efforts to protect system from possible contamination.
- **Emergency Response Plan:** Contains phone numbers of parties to contact in case of a system emergency.
- **Service Area and Facility Map:** Contains service area boundaries and lists major system components.

- **Operation and Maintenance Program:** Lists system personnel information (name, title, phone #) and identifies functions, frequency (e.g., weekly, monthly), and location of component maintenance.
- **Wellhead Protection Program:** Summarizes the system's wellhead protection program.
- **Water Right Documentation:** Lists the right (Permit, Certificate, or Claim) that includes the number of acre-feet and gallons per minute allowed to be withdrawn.
- **Record of Source Water Pumped:** Charts the amount of water pumped from system sources.
- **Water Usage:** Charts the number of system users, the average consumption per user, and the estimate of total system usage.
- **Water Conservation Program:** Summarizes the system's conservation efforts that promote the wise use of water.
- **Component Inventory and Assessment:** Verifies component approval status. Inventories system components. Identifies possible system improvements in the next 6 years.
- **List of System Improvements:** Identifies the year, cost, and financing method for anticipated system improvements.
- **Budget:** Includes revenues, expenses and capital improvement financing.
- **System Management:** Documents the system's management practices including the decision making process.

FORMAL COMMUNICATION

Is there a formal communication linkage between the water system operator and one or more members of the governing board or board of directors? Formal communication puts in place a process to allow the governing board to be fully informed and in control of the water system decisions. Management capacity is enhanced when formal communication channels are created between governing board members (usually part time officers) and full time professional operations staff. For example, city councils may require their key operations staff to attend their monthly council meetings to report on water system activities, or a council may designate one of its members as the liaison or “point person” for water system issues.

System Policies

Good management will increase the ability of the system to achieve its mission, as well as reduce liability exposure. System policies help create the frames of reference necessary for the professional staff to determine the scope of authority granted by the governing board. Management teams that create written guidance documents also provide a measure of continuity and guidance for water system personnel. Good business practice demands that the policies listed below should be in written form, adopted and periodically reviewed by the water system management team. What is most important is that the written policy exists, that the content is appropriate for the size of the water system, and that the management team is committed to reviewing and updating the policy periodically. The content of the policies is more important than the structure.

The DWSRF loan application requirements identify the following 6 policies as indicators of management capacity. A general description of each type is also offered below.

System Operations Manual or Policy

This policy provides technical guidance on how the water system is operated. This manual or policy is likely to be the most detailed guidance document of the six listed here. Operations policies also include guidance for monitoring and reporting of water samples and testing results.

Board Governance Policy

The board governance policy reflects the protocols for the governing board’s activities. This policy includes qualifications for election of board members, the number of members who may serve and their terms of office, rules regarding the conduct of meetings, etc. Establishing board protocols can improve the efficiency of board meetings and result in effective use of officers’ time.

Personnel Policy

The personnel policy would include guidance regarding hiring, probation, dismissal and disciplinary procedures; provide detail on employee compensation and fringe benefits; establish requirements for conduct and performance; describe job descriptions and expectations, and explain procedures for employee evaluation.

Safety and/or Risk Management Policy

Accidents, experienced by both the water system staff and the customers they serve, can cause significant disruptions of water service as well as create unexpected financial liabilities. A safety

and risk management policy attempts to confine the scope of authority of employees and managers in order to reduce the risk of such negative financial exposure. A water system's insurance provider can offer assistance in establishing risk management guidelines to limit liability.

Operating Emergency Plan

Every public water system needs to know how it will react to natural disasters and other emergencies. Specifically, the water system management team needs to know what steps are to be taken and what actions are to be accomplished given a variety of threats to service delivery. Since the events of September 11, 2001, threat readiness and response is absolutely necessary to commit to written policy, especially in the face of terrorist threat to essential facilities such as public drinking water systems.

Customer Service Policy

A water system is in the business of providing service—safe drinking water—to its customers. A customer service policy strengthens the relationship between the water system and its customers because it clarifies how the water system will relate to those it serves. This policy should include public information guidance, complaint resolution procedures, problem response requirements, billing and other notification rules, and other actions the system can take to assure the customers that the water system is being run in the most professional manner possible.

Organizations exist to help provide guidance on the content of each of these policy documents. Water systems with limited staff capacity to create these policies can utilize and modify model policies in each category. Organizations such as the Rural Community Assistance Corporation, the West Virginia Rural Water Association and the American Water Works Association have excellent model policies. In addition, similar sized water systems may be good sources of sample policies.

Professional Support Regarding Engineering & Legal Services

Water system capacity in the areas of engineering and legal services (as well as other professional services such as accounting and auditing) is increasing essential to successful service delivery over time. While water systems can assure such capacity by hiring these professionals, most small systems can gain these capacities by retaining engineering and legal services by contract, or by hiring these professional services as necessary.

Legal and engineering services are specifically identified for capacity assessment purposes by the state of West Virginia. Each profession provides to the water system the capacity to keep pace with regulatory requirements and to advise response to changes in these regulatory requirements.

Record Keeping

A final indicator of management capacity used by the State of West Virginia is record keeping. Well-managed water systems are expected to have record keeping systems that can easily yield important records for review by the operations staff, the governing board members, customers (where appropriate), and regulatory agency staff of the OEHS and EPA. Record keeping systems create and preserve an important record of the water system's status and activities. For the

purposes of **Drinking Water State Revolving Fund (DWSRF)** loan applications, an evaluation of the condition and content of the record keeping system is made by OEHS.

For a water system seeking to demonstrate management capacity relative to record keeping, the following questions should be answered affirmatively:

- Does this water system have current “as built” engineering drawings of the system facilities?
- Does this water system effectively maintain system operating records for operator, board member, customer, EPA and OEHS reference?
- Does this water system effectively maintain records of correspondence with the appropriate agencies?
- Does this water system effectively maintain records of correspondence with the EPA?
- Does this water system effectively maintain records of the results from required water testing as well as CCRs?

COMPLIANCE MONITORING

Every water system has its own compliance monitoring schedule provided by OEHS by February each year. A general monitoring schedule is provided below. Each public water system is strongly encouraged to contact the OEHS to obtain the most up-to-date version of the chart for their system. It will indicate the most recent monitoring results on record, and subsequent samples that must be collected.

Monitoring Schedule

TESTING/PARAMETER	HOW OFTEN/HOW MANY/WHERE
BACTERIOLOGICAL	monthly/based on population served/distribution system
FREE CHLORINE RESIDUAL	every 4 hours/based on population served/point of entry
TOTAL CHLORINE RESIDUAL	daily/one/distribution system*
TURBIDITY	Every 4 hours/one/point of entry
NITRATES	annually/one/point of entry
NITRITES	annually/one/point of entry**
MORS	monthly/not applicable/send to OEHS
CROSS-CONNECTION DEVICES	annually/not applicable/distribution system
FLUORIDE	daily/one/distribution system***
LEAD & COPPER	every 3 years/based on population served/distribution
THM&HAA5	quarterly/based on population/distribution
TOC	monthly/two/one at raw and one at point of entry
IOC	annually/one/point of entry
VOC	annually/one/point of entry
SOC	Every 3 years/one/point of entry
RADIONUCLIDES	varies/one/point of entry

*Total chlorine residuals must be analyzed and recorded with bacteriological samples.

**If 1st sample is less than 1 mg/L, no further samples are required.

***Once a month a sample must be submitted to a certified laboratory.

MONTHLY OPERATIONAL REPORTS

The Compliance and Enforcement (C&E) Program of OEHS has noted that many PWSs have not been completing the **monthly operational reports (MOR's)** correctly, which will result in a violation being issued. Under the West Virginia Public Water Systems Regulations (64CSR3), monthly records are required to be submitted. The specific language of concern to operators is in § 64-3-12, Public Water System Reporting Requirements:

12.1. Unless otherwise specified in this rule or the federal regulations adopted in this rule, a public water system shall report to the Commissioner the results of any test, measurement or analysis required to be made by this rule or the federal regulations adopted in this rule within forty days of the system's receipt of the test, measurement or analysis.

12.2. A public water system shall submit a summary of the public water system operation, test data and other information as may be required by the Commissioner to the Commissioner at least once each month. The Commissioner may require more frequent reports in cases where there are public health concerns.

12.3. All reports and summaries required by this rule or federal regulations adopted in this rule shall be submitted in a manner or form approved by the Commissioner.

12.4. A public water system shall distribute a public notice for any failure to comply with this rule or the federal regulations adopted in this rule. The content, distribution, recordkeeping and reporting of the public notification shall be performed in a time and manner as specified in the federal rules adopted, by reference, in this rule with the exception of Tier 1 public notices. For Tier 1 public notices, the time required for initial public notices and consultation with the state shall be as soon as possible, but no more than twelve hours.

A review of the MOR's have been conducted over the past several months and letters have been mailed with items of concern noted to systems, which has had some positive effects, but there is still a high number of problems. The two major problems associated with the MOR's were inadequate treatment and/or unqualified operators, both having a high potential for adverse public health effects. When a PWS is accused of providing unsafe water, OEHS's position will be detrimental to the PWS if the monthly operational reports indicate that the water was not treated properly, or if an uncertified operator signed the report.

A plan has been devised to address this problem, each month, a number of PWS MOR's will be picked at random from all active systems. These reports will be reviewed in detail, violations issued accordingly, forwarded to the District Offices for one-on-one technical assistance, if appropriate, and forwarded to Certification and Training, if appropriate, for action against the operator. If problems are identified, the system will be tracked until no violations are noted. As systems are noted "in compliance" another system will be picked at random to take the compliant systems' place, until all MOR's have been reviewed, and systems are submitting satisfactory MOR's.

For your information, here is a breakdown of the top ten problems:

1. Inadequate free chlorine residual;

2. Chlorine residual not monitored daily;
3. All sheets required not submitted (EW-90);
4. Inadequate total chlorine residual;
5. Questionable location where a total chlorine residual was obtained;
6. Improper Operator Classification;
7. No location total chlorine;
8. No expiration date and/or classification noted;
9. No free chlorine recorded; and,
10. Expired certification.

Total chlorine residual is required to be monitored every day that water is available to the public and recorded on the MOR along with the sampler's initials. Free chlorine residual is required to be measured every day that water is treated.

A typical surface and ground water under the influence system problem is the EW-90A and/or EW-90B is not completed or not attached.

A minimum total chlorine residual of 0.2 mg/L is required throughout the distribution system. Many systems are reporting 0.0 mg/L or 0.1 mg/L.

The location is being asked to verify that it would represent a good location in the distribution system for District Office personnel, when a site visit is conducted. Most of these problems are where the location appears to be at the plant or entry point (or before), which would not represent the total chlorine residual in the distribution system.

Another typical problem is a Class II water system MOR signed by a manager or owner without certification. It is also a problem if no location was indicated on the MOR or if the MOR was signed, but no classification and/or no expiration date was noted. The assumption by C&E will be that the person signing does not hold a current certification. Similarly, if the MOR was signed, but based on the expiration date, the operator's certificate is not current, it is not considered within compliance.

Free chlorine residual is required to be measured each day that water enters the distribution system.

Other problems:

- no free chlorine residual recorded at all;
- the wrong form was submitted;
- the sampler's initials were not indicated;
- the MOR was not signed at all;
- no total chlorine residual was recorded at all;
- the chlorine residuals were placed in the amount of chlorine added;
- the chlorine residuals did not have a decimal;
- a rubber stamp for the operator's signature; and,
- one report with exceptionally high chlorine residuals (over 5.0 mg/L).

MORs require the signature of a certified operator

MONTHLY OPERATIONAL REPORTS:

- EW-103 Groundwater Systems Form
- EW-210 Purchase Systems Form
- EW-90 Surface Water Systems Form
- EW-80 Fluoride Form

Copies of these forms must be made and retained by the system and the original is sent to OEHS by the 10th of the next month. Remember all forms must be complete, legible, signed and dated. **The original MOR must be signed by a certified operator in ink.** Also remember to use the most current version of each form. All forms are available on the OEHS website at www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed/dm/mor.asp or by phone request from the Data Management at (304) 558-2981.

MINIMIZING REPORTING VIOLATIONS

According to Federal regulations, water systems are required to submit test results (and reports) to the OEHS no later than ten (10) calendar days from the end of each applicable monitoring period. Here are some ways your system can minimize the chance of receiving a reporting violation.

- Sample early in the monitoring period. This gives your system time to take another sample in the event the lab, post office, or both fail to provide test results in a timely manner.
- Submit your system's results via Certified Mail. If there are problems with delivery reliability in your area, consider sending us your results via Certified Mail, which provides the sender with a mailing receipt from the U.S. Postal Service.
- Make sure results are mailed to the correct address and be sure the "ATTN" line is addressed to Data Management.
- Always include the following information on each test result (or report sheet):
 - PWSID number;
 - Water system name;
 - Treatment plant name (if you have multiples); and,
 - Sample location name.
- Call Data Management to confirm receipt of test results.
- All test results must be submitted to the OEHS central office in Charleston, WV to receive credit for compliance within 40 days of receipt.
- Make sure your chief operator receives a copy of the current year's monitoring schedule. Monitoring schedules are mailed in late January each year. Your chief operator is responsible for arranging appropriate and timely testing during the correct compliance period and ensuring results and reports are submitted to the OEHS on time.

SAFE DRINKING WATER INFORMATION SYSTEM

Public drinking water information is stored in the Safe Drinking Water Information System (SDWIS), the EPA's Safe Drinking Water Information System. SDWIS contains information about public water systems and their violations of EPA's drinking water regulations, as reported to EPA by the states. These regulations establish maximum contaminant levels, treatment techniques, and monitoring and reporting requirements to ensure that water systems provide safe water to their customers. This query will help you to find your drinking water supplier and view its violations and enforcement history since 1993.

Information in the SDWIS database can be freely accessed at the following website: www.epa.gov/enviro/html/sdwis/sdwis_query.html through the use of a query. Queries that return a large volume of data may terminate prematurely due to system limitations. A few examples of constraints for a query are: a single session can be 15 minutes in duration; and a session may stay idle for 7.5 minutes, at which time it will be terminated. So it is important to develop queries that return small batches of data and terminate the session as soon as your queries have been executed, so others can access the database.

This query form allows you to retrieve Safe Drinking Water data from the SDWIS database in Envirofacts. This is a brief description to the Safe Drinking Water Query Form. For help understanding and using the data in this system, consult the [User's Guide](#). For national and state-by-state information, please see the [drinking water facts and figures page](#).

How to get information about your public water system?

Step 1: Find your water system

- Select the state where you live.
- At the line that says "Water System Name" select "containing" and then type the name of your water system is (it doesn't need to be the whole name) and press the search button, e.g. "Jonesville".
- Scan the list of water systems. Do any of these appear to be your system? Look carefully at the Water System Name, Principle County Served, and Population Served to determine if this is your water system.
- If this search also fails, try either a county search (which will show you all the water systems which principally serve a specific county) or a search by system size (where you can locate, for example, all the water systems in your state that serve over 100,000 people).
- If neither of these two searches work, try a water system name search again using less specific words, e.g., "Jones"

Step 2: View your water system

- Once you have located your water system, select it by clicking on the Water System ID number. This will take you to a screen which will list any violations your system has had of EPA safety standards for drinking water.
- If there aren't any violations listed, your water system meets all federal drinking water safety standards, and your water should be considered safe to drink.

Step 3: What if there are violations?

If there are violations, there are several key things you should look at:

- When did the violation occur? (Look at beginning and ending dates of the violation period to give you the time frame the violation occurred in.) Was the violation recent or did violations several years ago and not since then? Is there a pattern of violations?
- What type of violation occurred? Violations will be displayed in two tables. The first table lists "health-based violations." These violations occur when a water systems detects levels of a contaminant exceeding the safety level (called the maximum contaminant level) or when the water system fails to treat the water as required to remove particular contaminants (called a treatment technique violation). Other violations include monitoring and reporting violation (which indicate that the water system failed to complete are required sampling or to do so in a timely manner). Specific definitions for what each violation means are available by clicking on the column [Type of Violation](#).
- What contaminant was the violation for? Click on the contaminant name to see why each is regulated by EPA and what its health effects are at levels above EPA's safety standards.

Notes: For many contaminants, an exceedence of the EPA safety level (MCL) may not by itself be a cause for immediate concern. Many contaminants are only a concern if ingested at levels well in excess of the safety standards over many years.

Monitoring violations do not necessarily indicate that the drinking water is not safe. Monitoring violations can occur for many reasons; the best way to find out why your system has monitoring violations is to call your water system directly.

Step 4: If there were violations, what has been done about it?

This question is answered in the follow-up action section following each violation. Look to see if any actions have been taken. Actions can be taken by either the Federal Government (EPA) or by states. If no action has been taken for a violation, as recorded in SDWIS, one of four things has occurred: an informal action (not federally defined) was taken to correct the problem, a formal action (federally defined) was taken to correct the problem but not reported to EPA, no action was taken to correct the problem, or an action to correct the problem is pending.

If action has been taken and reported, look at:

- What action was taken? (By clicking on the column heading, [Action Taken](#), you can see what each individual action means).
- When was the action taken? (Enforcement Action Date)

Step 5: How can I find out more?

If you are concerned about the violations your system has, there are several things you can do to find out more information.

- Contact your water system to find out the latest testing results and what steps it may be taking to address violations. Look in the mail for a new annual water quality report (sometimes called a consumer confidence report) that your water system is required to prepare if it serves more than 25 people year-round.
- Contact OEHS and ask what the state is doing to address violations.

- Find out more about the Safe Drinking Water Act and EPA's Drinking Water Program by calling the Safe Drinking Water Hotline at 1-800-426-4791 or by looking at the Office of Ground Water and Drinking Water web site.
- Find out how you can get involved in protecting your drinking water.

NOTICE: EPA is aware of inaccuracies and underreporting of some data in the Safe Drinking Water Information System. We are working with the states to improve the quality of the data.

Reference: www.epa.gov/enviro/html/sdwis/

RECORD KEEPING

Importance of Records

Keeping of adequate records of performance is an integral part of good water treatment plant operation. Only by making a clear and concise memorandum of what has happened and what has been accomplished will the experiences be of assistance in meeting future operation situations. Pertinent and complete records are a necessary aid to control procedures. Above all, records should be used as a basis for plant operation and for interpreting the results of water treatment.

Records also provide an excellent check on things done or to be done, especially regarding maintenance problems. Equipment in water treatment plants requires periodic services; some daily, some weekly, and others monthly or yearly. Adequate records show when service was last performed and when the time for service approaches. Thus a schedule can be maintained, with nothing overlooked or forgotten.

Significant details of day-to-day experience provide a running account of plant operation and thus have an important historical value. When accurately kept, records provide an essential basis for the design of future changes or expansions of the treatment facilities for other locations where similar problems may be encountered. In the event of legal questions in connection with water treatment or plant operations, accurate and complete records would be urgently required as evidence of what actually occurred at any given time or over any particular period of time. Thus, records and their proper maintenance are essential in any type of water treatment. However, only those records should be kept which are known to be useful; the temptation to accumulate minutiae of no significant value must be guarded against.

In summary the main functions of records are to:

- Satisfy legal requirements
- Aid the operator in solving treatment problems
- Provide an alert for changing raw water quality
- Show that the final product is acceptable to the consumer
- Show that the final product meet plant performance standards
- Show that the final product complies with the WV Drinking Water Standards
- Determine equipment, plant, and unit process performance
- Aid in answering complaints
- Anticipate routine maintenance
- Provide cost analysis data
- Provide future engineering design data
- Provide the basis for monthly or annual reports

Information To Be Included

The extent to which record keeping should be practiced depends entirely upon their potential use. The type of treatment, the volume of water treated, and the kind and importance of installations auxiliary to the treatment plant will control the amount of necessary record keeping. Some of the basic items of information to be recorded are:

Source Water

Raw water temperature
Raw water quality
Air temperature
Rainfall data
Raw water quantity used
Capacity

Treatment

Amount of water treated
Chemical dosages
Total amount of chemical used
Amount of water filtered
Number of filters in service
Number of hours filters are in service
Final loss of head before filter was washed
Amount of wash water used
Length of backwash
Rate of backwash
Daily results of laboratory tests

Pumping Stations

Total amount of water delivered by each pump
Suction and discharge pressure
Number of hours of pump operation
Tank levels

Other

Maintenance schedules
Distribution system pressures
Master and individual meter readings
Valve and hydrant operation and maintenance

In addition to these basic data items, each water supply system should have:

- hydrant and valve maps for the distribution system
- a list of material and equipment suppliers
- a central file of instruction manuals for treatment equipment or processes
- all records required by the PWS Regulations
- a description of the basic functions of automatic control systems
- a safety program
- a cross-connection control plan
- engineering plans and specifications for past construction
- names, addresses, and telephone numbers of nearby operators and personnel of the city council, district, or regional health office
- copies of the watershed rules and the latest watershed inspection report
- the procedure for adjustments necessary in case of a major fire

The above are just a few of the many data items that make up good records. Each water supply system has its own critical areas for which data are necessary.

When laboratory determinations are made, it is essential that not only the final results of each test be recorded, but also that all of the test data, frequently called the working data, such as buret readings and the necessary computations, be noted for future reference. Although such details may seem superfluous, should any question arise as to the accuracy of final data obtained in the laboratory, the notes on technical procedures, if available, will be evidence of the accuracy or inaccuracy of the final result reported. Thus, for his own protection in maintaining the integrity of his work, the analyst in the laboratory should keep complete records in most cases. This means that full records of tests must be maintained in the laboratory, although the separate plant operation records will contain only the final result of such laboratory determinations.

Frequently, state and municipal regulations govern the operation of water treatment installations. These regulations require that certain operating records be maintained and reported to the supervising agency at specified intervals. These records must be kept, but should be in addition to adequate plant operating data and should not be considered a substitute for plant records.

MAINTAINING RECORDS & REPORTS

It is important that water system personnel maintain various reports and records for planning and proper management of the system operation. It is equally important to know the significance of each report and record because the operator is responsible for them. Technical reports and records are generally viewed as those dealing with the physical operation and maintenance of the water system's facilities. These reports, like financial reports, can be valuable tools for good decision-making and good day-to-day management, and can be used as a gauge to help determine the financial integrity and condition of the system.

Good records also allow operators to react to potential problems and plan for future expansion. Accurate historical data allows Board Members to make more informed decisions regarding projections for system improvements. This data can also be an invaluable asset in helping to recognize areas of preventative action. The following reports or records should be used by systems:

Daily Operating Report

This report lists such things as the amount of water purchased or produced, meter readings, and the amount of chemicals used in the treatment process. The report is completed on a daily basis. It is advisable to maintain these records in the files for ten years.

Water Loss Report

The term "water loss" is generally defined as the difference between the amount of water produced or purchased and the amount of water sold to the customers (as described above).

Operation and Maintenance Records

It is essential to know when equipment was installed or repaired, the number of hours operated or other maintenance performed. Operation and maintenance records cover all the physical facilities of the water system including storage tanks, meters, pumps, vehicles, fire hydrants, valves, etc. Operation and maintenance manuals should be available for all appurtenances.

Emergency Response

Emergency planning is an important responsibility for governing bodies of water systems. Mayors/Board Members should make sure that the water system has contingency plans to handle emergency situations. Good emergency planning includes guidelines to help the system initiate preventive measures directed toward potential emergencies. Several areas in which Mayors/Board Members should plan for emergency response and prevention include the following:

- Emergency and standby systems including supply options for contamination, main breaks, drought, flood, or other disasters.
- Mayors/Board members should have access to all federal and state disaster emergency service numbers in the event of an emergency.
- Emergency conservation plans.
- Plans for emergency staffing.

TOTAL COLIFORM RULE

The Total Coliform Rule (TCR) is the Federal regulation establishes a maximum contaminant level (MCL) based on the presence or absence of total coliforms and monitoring requirements for coliforms in drinking water. It requires every regulated system to periodically collect samples and analyze them for coliforms. The number of routine samples required each month depends on system size. Samples must be collected according to a written “Sample Site Plan” approved by the OEHS. The TCR applies to all public water systems.

Coliform bacteria and chlorine residual are routine sampling and monitoring requirements for all PWS in WV. The coliform bacteriological sampling is governed by the TCR of the SDWA. The TCR requires all PWSs to monitor their distribution system for coliform bacteria according to the written sample site plan for that system. The sample site plan identifies sampling frequency and locations throughout the distribution system that are selected to be representative of conditions in the entire system. Coliform contamination can occur anywhere in the system, possibly due to problems such as; low pressure conditions, line breaks, or well contamination, and therefore routine monitoring is required. A copy of the sample site plan for the system should be kept on file and accessible to all who are involved in the sampling for the water system.

The number of samples to be collected monthly depends on the size of the system. The TCR specifies the minimum number of coliform samples collected but it may be necessary to take more than the minimum number in order to provide adequate monitoring. This is especially true if the system consists of multiple sources, pressure zones, booster pumps, long transmission lines, or extensive distribution system piping. Since timely detection of coliform contamination is the purpose of the sample site plan, sample sites should be selected to represent the varying conditions that exist in the distribution system. The sample site plan should be updated as changes are made in the water system, especially the distribution system.

The sample site plan must be followed and all operating staff must be clear on how to follow the sampling plan. In order to properly implement the sample site plan, staff must be aware of how often sampling must be done, the proper procedures and sampling containers to be used for collecting the samples, and the proper procedures for identification, storage and transport of the samples to an approved laboratory. In addition, proper procedures must be followed for repeat sampling whenever a routine sample result is positive for total coliform.

Each water system should have specific procedures for TCR sampling to address the issues described. The sample site plan and sampling procedures must be readily available to all operations personnel at the facility. In order to prevent obtaining inaccurate sample results that could cause compliance problems, it is critical that the operator be aware of some key issues relating to the collection and transport of the total coliform samples.

HOW COMPLIANCE IS DETERMINED FOR THE TCR

- Compliance is based on the presence or absence of total coliforms.
- Compliance is determined each calendar month the system serves water to the public (or each calendar month that sampling occurs for systems on reduced monitoring).
- The results of ROUTINE and REPEAT samples are used to calculate compliance.

A Monthly MCL Violation is Triggered if:

- A system collecting fewer than 40 samples per month . . .Has greater than 1 ROUTINE/REPEAT sample per month which is total coliform-positive.
- A system collecting at least 40 samples per month . . . Has greater than 5.0 percent of the ROUTINE/REPEAT samples in a month total coliform-positive.

An Acute MCL Violation is Triggered if:

- Any public water system . . . Has any fecal coliform- or *E. coli*-positive REPEAT sample *or* has a fecal coliform- or *E. coli*-positive ROUTINE sample followed by a total coliform-positive REPEAT sample.

What are the Public Notification and Reporting Requirements?

- For a Monthly MCL Violation . . . The violation must be reported to the state no later than the end of the next business day after the system learns of the violation. The public must be notified within 30 days.
- For an Acute MCL Violation . . . The violation must be reported to the state no later than the end of the next business day after the system learns of the violation. The public must be notified within 12 hours.

TCR Sampling Considerations

- Samples must be collected in sterile containers provided by the approved laboratory that will be doing the coliform analysis. .
- All sample containers should be labeled with the date, time, and location of sample collection as well as the sign of the person who collected the sample.
- Use only clean sample taps. If cleanliness is questionable, apply a solution of sodium hypochlorite to the surface the tap before collecting the sample.
- The sample should be taken from a smooth nosed cold water tap if possible.
- Aerators, strainers, and hose attachments should be removed before collecting a sample.
- Samples should not be taken from:
 - Leaky taps that allow water to flow from around the stem and over the outside of the faucet;
 - Swivel faucets;
 - Houses with home treatment units; or
 - Taps with non-removable aerators, strainers, or hose attachments.
- The spout of the sampling tap should face the ground so that water cannot stand in the spout when the tap is shut off.

- Prior to collecting the sample, open the tap fully and flush to clear the service line.
- Ensure that there is a total chlorine residual before collecting the sample.
- Reduce the flow enough to prevent splashing, open and fill the sample container without rinsing, leaving a 1 inch space in the container.
- Do not rinse out the bottle, while collecting a bacteriological sample. The bottle contains sodium thiosulfate, which is a preservative used to neutralize the chlorine present in the sample.
- If sample will be in transport to the laboratory for more than 1 hour, use an iced cooler to maintain sample temperature of 4°C. Do not submerge the tops of the sample containers.
- Samples can be held for up to 30 hours before analysis if kept refrigerated.
- It may be necessary to mail the sample to a lab if the PWS is in a remote location. Insulation and mailing is acceptable as long as the time from collection to analysis is less than 30 hours and a chain of custody is maintained.

All of the information described above, relating to the TCR requirements, is readily available from local, state, and federal regulatory agencies. Include your state's monitoring requirements and policies on file with your sample site plan. There are a number of operator guidance manuals available describing the detailed requirements and procedures necessary to comply with the TCR. It is the operator's responsibility to obtain the necessary information to insure compliance.

Chlorine Residual Monitoring

The state of West Virginia requires total chlorine monitoring at the time of bacteriological sampling. Results of all microbiological quality samples must be submitted to OEHS. Certified laboratories must perform coliform analyses. **It is the responsibility of the owner or operator to send OEHS a copy of the results by the 10th day of the next month.** For example, results must be submitted by February 10th for samples collected in January. If the results are not received your system will receive a violation for failing to monitor. This shows how important it is to keep copies of all laboratory results. In West Virginia, copies of all microbiological monitoring results must be kept for a minimum of 5 years.

COLIFORM SAMPLING PLANS

A coliform sampling plan is a written document that public water systems should use to consistently and accurately perform sampling that is representative of drinking water in the system's distribution system. All public water systems must develop and implement a written coliform sampling plan. These plans need to be reviewed and approved by OEHS District Office Engineers during the on-site sanitary survey inspection.

The sampling sites should be representative of and provide adequate coverage of the distribution network and pressure zones. It is also important to select sampling sites that provide the least amount of negative influence on the water sample. Examples of sites to avoid include leaky or dirty faucets, sampling points in areas with little or no water use, swivel faucets, custodial or industrial use sinks, or any location you believe to be questionable. Many water systems utilize dedicated sampling stations in the distribution system that are used exclusively for sampling purposes, eliminating many outside influences that may potentially impact water samples. If, when you go to collect your routine sample, you find the water tap has been damaged or is leaking, use one of your alternate sites until you can repair the original. Likewise, if the sample bottle is damaged or you believe you may have contaminated it, do not use it. Select a clean one for your sample and return the other to the lab empty.

What should the sampling plan include?

The plan should include the following elements.

- A brief **narrative** of the water system that includes source, treatment, storage, distribution system maintenance, pressure zones, number of connections, population, etc.
- A **map** of the distribution system with the routine and repeat sampling sites identified, distribution piping locations, entry points, etc.
- A **sample site plan** that includes sample site addresses, the minimum number of samples collected, rotation schedule of sample sites, chlorine residual monitoring, contact person and phone number, sampling procedure or protocol, etc. In the event that a routine site sample tests positive for coliform or *E. coli*, the plan should list repeat sites for each routine site and should include a written procedure of what steps the water system will follow to investigate a positive sample.

TYPES OF COLIFORM SAMPLES

Testing for total coliforms is performed by collecting water samples. There are five types of samples that a NCWS generally takes. These are routine samples, repeat samples, additional routine samples, replacement samples, and special samples.

Compliance Samples

Routine Samples: Routine samples are those that you are required to take on a routine basis, whether that is monthly or quarterly. These samples, as well as the other types of samples noted below, are collected from representative locations throughout your water system in 125mL containers. These samples, as with all coliform samples, should be submitted to a certified laboratory for testing within **30 hours** after collection.

Repeat Samples: These compliance samples are required each time a coliform positive sample is detected and must be collected within 24 hours after you receive notification of a positive coliform result. These samples confirm any positive detection of coliform bacteria and help to identify the extent of the coliform contamination within your system, the type of coliform present, and the location or source of the contamination. Samples above and beyond the repeat sample requirement may be collected until either the system no longer detects the presence of any coliform bacteria or until the source of the contamination has been identified, eliminated, and/or prevented.

If any routine sample is total coliform-positive, repeat samples are required.

Within 24 hours of learning of a total coliform-positive ROUTINE sample result, at least 3 REPEAT samples must be collected and analyzed for total coliforms:

- One REPEAT sample must be collected from the same tap as the original sample.
- One REPEAT sample must be collected within five service connections upstream.
- One REPEAT sample must be collected within five service connections downstream.
- Systems that collect 1 ROUTINE sample per month or fewer must collect a 4th REPEAT sample anywhere in the system.

If any REPEAT sample is total coliform-positive:

- The system must analyze that total coliform-positive culture for fecal coliforms or *E.coli*.
- The system must collect another set of REPEAT samples, as before, unless the MCL has been violated and the system has notified the state.

Additional ROUTINE Sample Requirements

- A positive ROUTINE or REPEAT total coliform result requires a minimum of five ROUTINE samples be collected the following month the system provides water to the public unless waived by the state.

Non-Compliance Samples

Additional Samples: This type of sample refers to any additional non-compliance samples required by your state primacy agency in order to help identify the extent of the contamination,

provide better information about water quality, or to provide further monitoring of the water within the PWS.

Replacement Samples: If a compliance sample is collected and does not get analyzed, it may be replaced by a new sample. There are several reasons why a certified laboratory may not analyze samples:

- The sample may be outdated or too old;
- The sample container may be broken upon arrival at the lab;
- The sample container may have leaked;
- The sample amount may be not be enough (remember, 100mL is the minimum);
- The sample does not indicate a date or time to tell the lab how old it is; and
- The sample may have been frozen.

Special Samples: These, too, are non-compliance samples that are collected due to repairs, complaints, or maintenance reasons. Collection of these types of samples is often necessary to ensure that coliform has not entered your distribution system as a result of events such as water line repairs, line breaks, or routine maintenance.

UNACCOUNTED-FOR WATER

Unaccounted-for water is water which is produced but is not used or sold to the consumers. There are many factors which are considered in the determination of the percentage of unaccounted-for water. This percentage is a measure of the efficiency of the operation of the system.

Factors to Consider

Factors to consider in the determination of the unaccounted-for water are:

- The water produced - Is this quantity accurately determined, has the meter been calibrated, and does the meter measure all of the water?
- The water used for water system purposes such as chemical feed water, backwash water, fire hydrant and blow-off flushing - How is each of these uses measured? Careful accounting in the treatment plant is necessary because, in some plants, plant use water is used before the master meter, and in other plants, it is used after the master meter.
- The water sold or used by the consumer - A meter testing program should be in place to periodically test the accuracy of the meters. All consumer use must be accounted for. For example, free water may be provided for parks, cemeteries, or for municipal purposes at sewage treatment plants, borough buildings, and fire companies. All of this water must be measured and accounted for.
- Water used for fire fighting purposes - This water only can be estimated, but some careful calculations by the fire company and the water system can develop a reasonable value.

Basic Calculation

The basic calculation is:

$$\frac{(\text{Water Available for Sale}) - (\text{Water Sold or Used})}{\text{Water Available for Sale}} \times 100 = \text{Percent of Unaccounted for Water}$$

1. The water available for sale is the water produced, adjusted for the company uses of water, as follows:
 - Subtract any plant use water that is taken off the system after the master meter,
 - Subtract any water used on the distribution system for flushing fire hydrants and blow-offs and for fire protection.
2. The water sold or used is the total quantity of water sold to customers through meters plus an estimate of all unmetered uses either to flat rate customers or for public purposes.
3. When making the calculation, the time interval must be considered since the amount of water sold only may be determined monthly, quarterly, or annually, and usually all meters are not read on the same day or at the same time. It is recommended that a one-year (four-quarters or 12-months) period be considered since this will level off the variables for meter reading, and seasonal variations. This calculation can be made on a monthly basis by using the totals for the previous 12 months.

Normal Operating Ranges

The normal operating range should not exceed 15% for a well maintained system. There are many factors which should be considered when determining what an acceptable percent of unaccounted-for water is for a particular system. These are:

1. The age and condition of the system. A very old water system which has deteriorated pipe will have many undetected leaks at joints. Although the goal may be the 15%, it only can be accomplished by replacing large segments of the system. Therefore, a range of 35 to 40% may not be unusual until funds for replacement of mains are available.
2. The pressure in the system can affect the rate of leakage. Thus high pressure systems may have a higher percentage of unaccounted-for water.
3. The number of customers per mile of main can affect the unaccounted-for-water. Therefore, if a system has a high ratio of miles of pipeline to the number of customers, the percentage of unaccounted-for water will increase.
4. Under-registration of customer meters or unauthorized use can increase the percentage of unaccounted-for water.

Control of Unaccounted-for Water

To reduce the percentage of unaccounted-for water, the following are suggested actions:

1. Calculate the cost of producing 1,000 gallons or 100 cubic feet of water and then calculate the amount of money which is being "lost" as unaccounted-for water each month. By identifying this cost, you can justify the cost of the programs to correct the problem.
2. A meter testing program should be installed to test the master meter and other system meters at least annually and to test all customer meters (on a continuing basis) at least once every 10 years.
3. An adequate leakage control program includes:
 - A program of listening to all fire hydrants valves and services to detect leaks;
 - The use of detector type meters on fire lines;
 - Training personnel to listen for leaks and to detect unauthorized use of water; and
 - Review of meter readings to detect stopped meters or obvious under-registering meters.
4. A record of leaks repaired and the estimated amount of water lost at each leak can help to justify replacement of sections of mains which have a high incidence of leakage.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public relations is a way of promoting understanding, support, and goodwill between your water system and the public. You can influence the public's image of your system by following the public relations steps presented in this training guide.

Good public relations doesn't happen overnight. It must be developed over time. Moreover, once your system has gained the community's confidence, you must continue your efforts to ensure that the support you need will always be there.

The main purpose of public relations is to gain and keep the public's confidence and support. Good relations with the public can also:

- Strengthen the system's position in the community;
- Help the system form fair guidelines and policies;
- Promote goodwill between employees and customers;
- Educate the public about water use;
- Overcome misconceptions about the water system;
- Gain the support of local government;
- Weaken the impact of any negative publicity the system may receive; and
- Justify reasons for capital improvements or rate hikes.

Once you know *where you are* and *where you are going*, you need to determine the *public image* your system needs to have to accomplish your goals. Your public image is an accurate picture of your operation that spotlights key aspects of your work.

For example, if your system needs public support for a major purchase, it may help to let customers know about the complexity of water system operation. Most people don't realize that water system operation can be very difficult. Customers may be more likely to support water system improvements if they understand that water system operation is a demanding job that requires the best equipment available.

A different goal may be to build public confidence in your system. To do this, **let people know about the good work you are doing!** Assure them that system employees are well trained. You may wish to inform the public of any continuing education classes your employees have attended. Also make sure the public knows that their water is tested. You may even want to report the positive findings from state health agencies or labs.

Even though most water systems are organized as "nonprofits," they must operate like any business. Because the success of any business relies on its customers, systems should keep customers informed and respond promptly to their needs.

A good public relations practice to develop is to always let customers know when their service may be affected. This might include:

- Interruption of service;
- Repairs (especially when the streets are affected);
- Changes in water taste, odor, or pressure;

- Unusual findings during state health inspections;
- Proposed changes in rates; and
- New construction.

Explain what is happening, apologize for any inconvenience, and reassure the public that what is happening is in their best interest.

Early in this step of the public relations cycle, your system needs to select a representative. Your representative should be someone from the system that can communicate well with the public. This representative should also:

- Be well-respected in the community;
- Have a pleasant appearance;
- Be a good speaker;
- Get along with people; and
- Be knowledgeable about your system.

Select your representative carefully. In some cases, you may wish to choose more than one. Make sure the person you choose reflects the image you want for your system.

The two main forms of communication are **personal communication and written communication**. Personal communication is more than just talking to the public. A person's appearance, behavior and work habits are also important elements of personal communication. Specifically, personal communication is any direct professional contact between system personnel and the public they serve. Personal communication can occur in the office, in the field, or in any other public setting. Always practice positive personal communication in the office. Ask office staff to greet customers promptly and give them full attention.

The telephone is a powerful public relations tool. Not only is it much faster than written messages, but it also often eliminates the need to travel. A major disadvantage of the phone is that you can't see the person you're talking to. This may make it more difficult to tell how a caller is reacting to your conversation. You have to rely totally on the person's spoken message. Because the spoken message is so important, employees should be aware of how they answer and use the phone. Some guidelines for effective telephone communication are listed below.

Answering the Telephone

1. *Always answer the phone promptly.* Clearly state your name and the name of your system.
2. *Try to sound pleasant you are talking.* Some people actually smile when they are on the phone because it makes them sound more pleasant.
3. *Never interrupt callers.* This makes them feel that you are bored or disinterested.
4. *Listen carefully.* If you are unsure of what callers are talking about, repeat what they have said to make sure you have understood them.
5. *Don't put customers on hold for more than 30 seconds.* If you must search through records or discuss the subject with someone else, take the caller's name and number and call back as soon as you can.

Handling customer complaints

Complaints present an excellent opportunity to build positive customer relations. A customer whose complaint receives prompt attention can become a valuable supporter. When dealing with complaints in the office or on the phone:

- Listen and sympathize;
- Do NOT argue;
- Ask questions;
- Work to find an acceptable course of action for both sides; and
- Follow-up the complaint to make sure the problem is resolved.

No one enjoys receiving complaints, but resolving a complaint quickly and professionally can actually improve your image with the public.

Personal communication in the field

The way system employees act and appear when they are working can have a big impact on your system's public image. Employees should appear neat and clean whenever possible. They should also be encouraged to be patient and courteous to every customer. Pay special attention to the way employees work at construction sites:

- Has the system constructed barriers to prevent possible accidents?
- Have employees completed the job quickly and safely?
- What was the condition of the area after the work was finished?
- Did the system replace or repair any property that was affected by the job?

Each employee represents your system. Only by behaving and dressing professionally can they reflect a positive public image.

Personal communication door-to-door

The most visible people working for your system are the meter readers. Because of this, it is especially important that they have a professional appearance and a positive attitude. Sometimes it is necessary for other employees to go door-to-door. For example, they may need to inform customers when service is going to be interrupted. Ask them to take the time to explain what is happening and answer any questions the customer might have.

The condition of your system's facilities and equipment also affects your public image. Check all visible parts of the system. One of the first things visitors see is the storage tank. Keep it painted and free from graffiti. Hydrants are another highly visible part of the system. Make sure they are painted and free from obstructions such as weeds and trash. It is also important that vehicles and equipment are clean and in good repair. Check the system office and other buildings as well, such as garages, pump and well houses, and storage sheds. Keep these neat and well-maintained.

Reporting bad news

One of the hardest parts of public relations is giving customers bad news. Business letters can be an effective way to report bad news and make customers feel that their individual concerns are taken seriously. Report honestly and openly what has happened. Reassure people that their water system is working to correct the problem. It is up to you to work with the media and use other communication techniques to make sure the public really knows what has happened.

If you have a good working relationship with the media, you may also be able to participate in a feature story or an interview about the event. In either case, you have an opportunity to give your system's response to the situation and to reassure the public that you are working to solve the problem.

Interview tips

Whenever television or newspaper reporters create their own stories, they often prefer to conduct interviews. If you are going to be interviewed:

1. Be prepared. Make sure you know the subject you are supposed to talk about. Have the facts and figures to support your comments.
2. Stick to the subject.
3. Try not to answer questions with just "yes" or "no." These may cut your interview short.
4. Stay calm. Don't lose your temper or get pulled into an argument.
5. Keep your answers short but include all necessary information.
6. Speak in generalities whenever possible.
7. Keep in mind that you are reflecting your water system, not yourself.
8. Never lie or try to bluff the interviewer. If you don't know, say so.
9. If possible, practice. Sometimes the interviewer will rehearse with you if you ask.

Public relations work never ends. As long as your system is providing an essential service, you will need to communicate with customers and other members of the public about the good work you do.

CUSTOMER COMPLAINTS

When dealing with a customer complaint, a water utility must keep a full and complete record of all relative information. At a minimum, keep the:

1. Date of the complaint;
2. Name of complainant;
3. Nature of complaint; and,
4. What the utility did to resolve it.

If an informal complaint becomes a formal complaint case, the PSC will attempt to determine what the utility did during the informal complaint stages. Without proper documentation, there is not much of a defense.

The PSC frequently sends a representative to investigate or may ask the utility to send copies of their records. The PSC will want to look at the records to determine what the utility has already done. If the utility's actions seem to be complete and proper the PSC will be prone to join the utility in a statement that no further action is necessary, but if no record exists to show that the complaint has been investigated by the utility, the utility may lose because no investigation can be proven. Complaint records are kept primarily to protect the utility. The required information for water customers is in Water Rule 4.5. Once a formal complaint is filed against a utility, the Commission will issue an order for the utility to respond to the complaint within 10 days.

Based on the utility's response, PSC will conduct its investigation which may include a field investigation and/or a request for additional information from the complainant and/or the utility. If there is no settlement of issues, then the case will be set for an evidentiary hearing. Also, any formal complaint can result in a general investigation of the utility. One can easily see where good record keeping will be invaluable in such situations. Utilities are not required to keep a record of inquiries. The difference between a complaint and an inquiry hinges on whether the utility has to take some investigative or corrective action. If a customer calls and states that his/her water is off, to fix a leak or to flush lines, for example, then it is not a complaint. If a customer calls and says his/her bill is incorrect and in a phone conversation, it is determined that the customer was correct and the utility has to issue a corrected bill, then it was a complaint.

When handling complaints either over the phone or in person, it is a good idea to take notes. Another important point to remember is that after the customer has finished airing the complaint, repeat back the alleged complaint. This ensures that the problem has been identified correctly. Remember it is beneficial to practice good **public relations (PR)** to keep complaints at a minimum. Surprisingly, handling customer complaints can be one of the most effective opportunities to build positive customer relations. Handling a complaint promptly and courteously can turn a negative situation into a positive one and can cause an unhappy customer to become a valuable supporter. In this regard, when dealing with complaints, always strive to:

- Listen and sympathize;
- Not argue;
- Negotiate to find an acceptable solution; and,
- Follow up to make sure customer is satisfied and problem is resolved.

Complaint records are also a valuable management tool as it is a good idea to go through such records from time to time or at the end of the year to see what types of complaints were received

and note any patterns that may have developed. For example, several water quality complaints from the same area may indicate a problem that has gone undetected until the number and frequency of complaints are acknowledged. By dealing with one customer at a time, the immediate problem may be solved, but if that problem keeps recurring, then the underlying problem is not being identified or corrected.

All individual complaint records are to be kept until a year end summary has been prepared which is to be used as a permanent record. The summary has to show the character of the complaints made, the number of each type received in each month, and the disposition of the complaints.

POTABLE VS. PALATABLE

We have discussed at some length now various types of pathogens and methods of destroying them in the process of making water potable -- **safe to drink**. This is highly important, but it is not the whole story; for water must be palatable as well as potable. What makes water palatable? To be palatable water should be free of detectable taste and odors. Turbidity, sediment, and color also play important roles in determining whether water is palatable.

Various odors and tastes may be present in water. They can be traced to many conditions. Unfortunately, the causes of bad taste and odor problems in water are so many, it is impossible to suggest a single treatment that would be universally effective in controlling these problems.

Tastes are generally classified in four groups -- sour, salt, sweet and bitter. Odors, on the other hand, possess many classifications. There are some 20 of them commonly used, all possessing rather picturesque names. In fact, the names in many cases, are far more pleasant than the odors themselves, to name a few of them -- nasturtium, cucumber, geranium, fishy, pigpen, earthy, grassy, and musty. Authorities further classify these odors in terms of their intensity from very faint, faint, distinct and decided to very strong. All taste buds and olfactory organs are not necessarily of the same acuteness, but generally you should not be aware of any tastes or odors in water if there is to be pleasure in drinking it. If you are conscious of a distinct odor, the water is in need of treatment.

In many cases it is difficult to differentiate between tastes and odors. Both the taste buds and olfactory organs work so effectively together it is hard to determine where one leaves off and the other begins. To illustrate: hydrogen sulfide gives water an "awful" taste, yet actually it is the unpleasant odor of this gas that we detect rather than an unpleasant taste. Unfortunately there is little in the way of standard measuring equipment for rating tastes and odors. Tastes and odors in water can be traced to a number of factors. They include:

- Decaying organic matter;
- Living organisms;
- Iron, manganese and the metallic products of corrosion;
- Industrial waste pollution from substances such as phenol;
- Chlorination;
- High mineral concentrations; and,
- Dissolved gases.

In general, odors can be traced to living organisms, organic matter and gases in water. Likewise, tastes can be traced generally to the high total minerals in water. There are, however, some tastes due to various algae and industrial wastes. Now how can these objectionable tastes and odors be removed from water?

Some tastes and odors, especially those due to organic substances, can be removed from water simply by passing it through an activated carbon filter. Other tastes and odors may respond to oxidizing agents such as chlorine and potassium permanganate. Where these problems are due to industrial wastes and certain other substances, some of the above types of treatment may completely fail. In some cases, for example, chlorination may actually intensify a taste or odor problem. Potassium permanganate has been found to be extremely effective in removing many

musty, fishy, grassy and moldy odors. Two factors make this compound valuable: it is a strong oxidizing agent; and it does not form obnoxious compounds with organic matter. However, a filter must be used to remove the manganese dioxide formed when the permanganate is reduced.

In any case, you may have to try a number of methods in an attempt to rid a water of objectionable tastes and odors. If methods considered here do not work, it may be more economical to seek out a new source of drinking water.

COMMON INQUIRIES

Color, Taste and Odor Problems in Drinking Water

At times, water can have an unusual odor, taste or appearance. In most cases, these aesthetic characteristics do not pose a public health threat. The first step in solving a water quality problem is to identify whether it originates from the household plumbing or the water utility. One way to tell is to ask others in the service area if they have a similar problem. Below are typical concerns, their most common causes, and what to do about them.

Discolored Water

If the water changes color suddenly – no matter what color it becomes – it could indicate a public health concern. Do not use the water. Something likely has disturbed the direction or rate of water flow in the water main, such as a water surge caused by a power outage or use of a fire hydrant.

Avoid running hot water if the cold water is discolored. This will prevent filling the hot water tank with discolored water. If you are washing clothes, you can minimize the potential for staining by stopping the washer while it is full and waiting until clear water is available to finish.

Green or blue water is usually caused by corrosion of copper plumbing. If corrosion is occurring, dripping water will leave a bluish-green stain on porcelain fixtures. Certain metals, such as copper, that get into drinking water from corrosion may pose a health concern. The problem could be in the home's piping or corrosive water from the utility.

Black or dark brown water is usually due to manganese or pipe sediment and should clear up without further action when the sediment settles in the water main. Manganese does not pose a threat to human health. If it doesn't clear after a few minutes of flushing the cold water faucets and toilets, wait about an hour and try again.

Brown, red, orange or yellow water is usually caused by iron rust. Rusty water can be caused by galvanized iron, steel or cast iron pipes either in a home or business, or the water main. While unpleasant and potentially damaging to clothes and fixtures, iron in drinking water is not a human health concern.

Milky white or cloudy water is almost always caused by tiny d bubbles. If the water is white, fill a clear glass with water and set it on the counter. If the water starts to clear at the bottom of the glass first, the cloudy or white appearance is a natural occurrence. It is not a health threat and should clear in about 5 minutes.

Taste and Odor Problems

If the taste or odor occurs at every water faucet on the property, the cause could be the water supply. If it occurs only in certain faucets, the problem is with the fixture and pipe supplying those specific faucets. If the problem goes away after running the water for a few minutes, the problem is somewhere in your plumbing system.

Petroleum, gasoline, turpentine, fuel or solvent odor is rare and potentially serious. It is possible a leaking underground storage tank may be near your water supply. Do not use the water.

Metallic taste is usually due to minerals, such as iron or copper that can leach into water from pipes. Metals such as zinc and manganese are less common causes. Only a certified laboratory can analyze the water to determine if metals are present. Certain metals may have human health effects if consumed over long periods of time.

Chlorine, chemical or medicinal taste or odor is usually caused by the addition of chlorine to the water by your public water system, or the interaction of chlorine with a build-up of organic matter in your plumbing system. This is not a health threat. The best way to reduce taste and odor is to run the faucet for several minutes, put some water in a container, and store it in the refrigerator.

Sulfur or rotten egg taste or odor is most commonly caused by bacteria growing in your sink drain or water heater. But, in some cases, this smell is caused by naturally occurring hydrogen sulfide. To problem-solve the cause, put a small amount of water in a narrow glass, step away from the sink, swirl the water around inside the glass and smell it. If the water has no odor, then the likely problem is bacteria in the sink drain. If the water does have an odor, it could be your water heater. This occurs if the hot water has been unused for a long time, the heater has been turned off for a while, or the thermostat is set too low. If the drain or water heater have been ruled out, and the odor is definitely coming from the tap water, do not use the water.

Moldy, musty, earthy, grassy or fishy taste or odor is commonly caused by bacteria growing in a sink drain or from organic matter such as plants, animals or bacteria that are naturally present in lakes and reservoirs. To problem-solve the cause, put a small amount of water in a narrow glass, step away from the sink, swirl the water around inside the glass and smell it. If the water has no odor, then the likely problem is the sink drain. If it does have an odor, the source could be organic matter in your drinking water. Although harmless, it can affect the taste and smell of your drinking water even at very low concentrations. The best way to reduce taste and odor is to run the faucet for several minutes, put some water in a container, and store it in the refrigerator.

STANDARD OPERATING PROCEDURES

A **Standard Operating Procedure (SOP)** is a set of instructions or steps someone follows to complete a job safely, with no adverse impact on the environment (and which meets regulatory compliance standards), and in a way that maximizes operational and production requirements. Write SOPs for any processes an individual or group performs: unloading raw materials, manufacturing products, shutting down an operation, repairing a faulty electrical circuit, and thousands of other workplace activities.

Write different SOPs for people who perform jobs by themselves, people who work together on a job, and people who supervise other people doing a job. The primary audience for an SOP, however, is the person who will perform a particular job. Consider such factors as the age, education, knowledge, skills, experience and training of a person who will perform a job, and the "social culture" or work history within which the individual works. Some work cultures disdain SOPs so you must work to overcome rejection.

SOPs also can be used by managers, government safety inspectors, environmental regulators, lawyers, engineers, planners, vendors, contractors and customers. Sometimes the same SOP material is used to write a description of how a job is done—a process—which can be useful if a company representative must explain operations to the media and public.

Ideally, SOPs should be written before a job is begun. Test SOPs before putting them into final application. Revise SOPs after an on-the-job trial. Also revise SOPs when any changes or modifications are made to equipment, machinery, buildings or other structures, or procedures within the immediate work area that might affect performance of a job or the "environment" in which it is performed.

You can't write SOPs for every job overnight, so set priorities. Write SOPs when new equipment or processes create new work situations. Write or rewrite SOPs when new information suggests benefits from modifying work practices to improve performance. Accident investigations might show you that procedural, safety and environmental guidelines are insufficient, incomplete, or even missing for certain jobs or parts of jobs.

Systematically update all safety and environmental guidelines by asking workers to evaluate existing SOPs, work practice guidelines and other documents that contain work, safety and environment guidelines. Then rank these jobs as to which should be revised first through last. These procedures could be revised, perhaps by the groups that ranked them.

SOP writers often don't know how long an SOP should be. Sometimes writers are pressured by operations supervisors to "make it short" rather than comprehensive. Clearly these supervisors don't understand the purposes and audiences an SOP serves.

SOPs can be either long, short or both. Because SOPs are used for a variety of reasons and audiences, they first must be comprehensive, which means they are as long as necessary to cover a job. For long SOPs or for jobs performed infrequently, it pays to keep the long-form SOP handy. Once an employee is familiar with a process, he or she will most likely be able to perform a series of short SOP steps from memory. These steps can be written as a short-form SOP. If

someone is going to use a short-form SOP, it should be prepared after a full long-form SOP has been tested and approved and should be handed out after an employee has passed the appropriate training.

- Keep in mind that the average person is uncomfortable following a long list of steps for the following reasons:
- A long list looks formidable, which makes the task daunting and tedious for many people who then don't want to perform the steps.
- A long list is difficult for your eyes to follow. You forget where you are on the list and forgetting leads to mistakes.
- A long list scares people and makes them nervous or anxious to "get it over with."
- A long list can hide steps that should be done with caution.
- A long list is difficult for writers to write while ensuring that the step sequence is clear.

The solution to SOPs that involve a long list of steps is to break the steps into logical sections of about 10 steps per section, such as "Getting ready for the process," "Initial steps," "Final steps."

Most importantly, SOPs should be reviewed by several people qualified to evaluate the SOP in terms of its completeness and clarity of safety, environmental and operational components.

Write SOPs for the following reasons:

1. To provide individuals who perform operations with all the safety, health, environmental and operational information required to perform a job properly;
2. To ensure that operations are done consistently to maintain quality control of processes and products;
3. To ensure that processes continue and are completed on a prescribed schedule;
4. To ensure that no failures occur in manufacturing and other processes that would harm employees or anyone in the surrounding community;
5. To ensure that approved procedures are followed in compliance with company and government regulations;
6. To serve as a training document for teaching users about a process;
7. To serve as a historical record of the how, why and when of steps in a process for use when modifications are made to that process and when a SOP must be revised; and,
8. To serve as an explanation of steps in a process that can be reviewed in incident investigations that seek to improve safety practices and operating conditions.

What should be included in a standard operating procedure (SOP)?

Here are suggestions for what to include in an SOP. Be sure to modify as necessary. Use an organization that favors simplicity and ease of reading.

1. Write a title (with a descriptive verb) that defines the purpose of the SOP. Include the word "safety" in the title, if applicable.
2. Use document reference numbers and revision dates on the title or cover page and a second page such as the table of contents or first page of text.

3. Identify general and specific points of activity for which an SOP has been written.
4. State the purpose of the SOP including the specific audience (user) in one or two sentences. Include information about process and regulatory standards, and both desirable and undesirable consequences.
5. Write a "scope" statement that tells what related subjects the SOP will not cover if there is any chance someone will be confused and make a mistake. Use scope statements for two reasons: to focus your attention as a writer and to clarify things for a reader. Many SOPs do not require scope statements, but consider the value of one before dismissing it as too much trouble to write.
6. List by category, any items or tools required for following the SOP whenever they apply. Think of this list as being a "tools and parts kit" for doing a job. Use general terms for common tools and equipment. For example, instead of listing every tool, a chemist or technician might simply list "gas cylinder tools." Add other categories or subcategories as desired. Sometimes a table instead of a paragraph is an appropriate format for this information.
7. Give an overview of the steps in the SOP that describes the process in terms of its major functions. Include anticipated safety, health, environmental and operational results.
8. Describe the machinery, mechanism, processing system and major components. Complete operating instructions contain overall descriptions of the major system and its components so that readers can orient themselves to the system as a whole and to its major parts.
9. Define terms and concepts. If the SOP contains terms and concepts that readers may be unfamiliar with, define these in their own paragraph so that readers (1) know that there are unusual words or concepts, and (2) can find them easily for use when needed. A long list of terms may fit better in a glossary at the beginning of a document. If you decide that a simple list of terms and definitions is better, include the list within the write-up, perhaps right before the list of steps to be performed.
10. Place safety warnings, cautions and notes prominently within the SOP before the actual step to be described. Never place safety items at the end of a step. Depending on the SOP, a writer might include an overall warning or caution that describes the general safety concerns. This should be placed at the beginning of an SOP where it is the first thing read after the title on the first page of text. If more than one safety warning, caution or note exists, list them in boldface type at the beginning of the SOP. The purpose of placing the cautions first is to alert the reader to read the warnings first. Often a page of safety cautions appears immediately after the title page and before the first page of text. Write warnings and cautions in clear sentence form. If there are only one or two warnings, these might be best placed at the top of the first page of text rather than on a separate page. The goal is to place warnings where the reader will read them. Sometimes this placement is determined by the size of the final printed version of an SOP. It is easy to place several warnings on an 8-1/2"x11" sheet of paper, but not so easy to do on a pocket-size handbook. Write Notes to provide people with

information that can help them satisfy safety, health, environmental and operational procedural requirements. For example, if it is permissible to use an extension cord of a certain length, this information should be stated in the SOP.

11. List and explain the process steps in sequential order in which an SOP user should perform the steps.
12. If two steps must be done at once, explain them in a sentence that clearly says so. You may wish to highlight (with italics or underlining) the first part to differentiate it from the actual step.
13. Provide a more detailed explanation if a reader needs more information to fully understand the reason for performing a step.
14. Provide readers with alternative steps to take in case a desired step does not work.
15. When an SOP is time-dependent, indicate the times clearly.
16. When a step depends on informational input (data), include the source, reference document number and date if possible.
17. Decide where to use graphics (drawings, photographs and thumbnail icons) to communicate clearly. Well-labeled drawings often are better than text. Use drawings of labeled (named) parts of objects to show proper relations hips and orientations among the parts or other objects. Show the positioning of hand tools, other tools and even hands and feet if applicable when work is to be performed. For example, show the positioning of a wrench or direction for turning a valve. Show the individual parts of a device in a final assembled position. Consider using thumbnail graphics to visually alert readers that they have come to a safety item.
18. Write a reference and writers' section that includes a complete list of source material used for the SOP. If someone wants to confirm something, they will know where to look. List the names of those who wrote the SOP.
19. Test the SOP in the field and then develop troubleshooting instructions. Anyone who has ever assembled a consumer product knows there are always problems to solve either while trying to assemble something or after it has been assembled. Anticipate all these problems for a reader and include them in a troubleshooting section. Also incorporate troubleshooting tips at each step in a process where they actually occur.
20. One way to anticipate safety, health, environmental and operational problems is to ask an inexperienced person to "walk through" a mock (inactive) process (under close supervision of an expert) and try the steps. Such unknowledgeable person could ask questions or demonstrate behaviors that an experienced or familiar person would not.

SAFETY PROGRAMS

Every water system, regardless of size, needs to develop and implement a safety program to prevent injury to its employees and to avoid accidents involving the public. The development of a safety program should include information regarding potential job hazards, preventive safety measures, proper safety and emergency procedures for the use and operation of tools and equipment, and the proper methods of handling and reporting accidents and injuries. One person should be designated the responsibility for overseeing and maintaining the safety program.

A safety program is designed to maintain a safe workplace. All employees will be required to comply with all aspects of the safety program. The safety program should include a written safety plan designed to promote employee participation in the safety program. The Safety Plan should list procedures which have been established as part of the water system's safety program which identifies and describes water system hazards and provides safety measures.

The following sections will not outline the exact safety procedures that should be written in the Safety Plan. Rather, it will serve as a guide for recommended job activities for which safety procedures should be established and listed, as well as other general topics related to the safety program.

Identification and Description of Hazards

The safety hazards associated with water supply systems are numerous and varied. Water system personnel should be made aware of all hazards, where these hazards are present in the water system, and how they may affect the employees. The following list identifies some of the general hazards faced by water system employees:

1. Bodily injury caused by falls, improper lifting, improper use of tools and equipment, and accidents involving moving mechanical equipment;
2. Electrical shock and burns;
3. Injury caused by improper chemical handling;
4. Exposure to chlorine gas;
5. Injury caused by improper entrance into confined spaces; and
6. Trenching and shoring cave-ins.

The Safety Plan also should include a detailed description of each hazard, including where each hazard may be present and what the health risk from each hazard may be to the employee.

Recommended Safety Program

Once the job hazards have been identified and described, it is important to outline the proper safety procedures which should be used when performing each job task to reduce these hazards as much as possible. Therefore, the Safety Plan should provide detailed safe operating procedures for specific aspects of water system employee job responsibilities. Recommended safety procedures for each of these water system job tasks can be found in the AWWA's Manual M3, Safety Practices for Water Utilities, as well as in other reference materials on water supply system operation. Manufacturer's literature also may be a good source of safety procedures for some of the tools, equipment, and machinery.

MAINTENANCE PROGRAM

An important aspect of any effective and efficient water service organization is a maintenance program. The objectives of a maintenance program should be to eliminate the interruption of service caused by equipment failure and to extend the service life of all equipment for as long as practically possible and economically feasible. With this in mind, a good maintenance program will consist of a preventive maintenance plan, a general maintenance plan, an emergency maintenance plan, and a program evaluation. While each of these program topics will be discussed separately below, it is important to remember the effectiveness of the overall maintenance program will be determined by how closely each plan fits together.

Preventive maintenance provides a water system with three basic benefits:

1. Better service to all customers;
2. Increased equipment service life; and,
3. Efficient use of resources.

A preventive maintenance plan can be established by the use of planned work orders, planned work schedules and an evaluation process for all water system equipment. The use of planned work orders is an integral part of any preventive maintenance plan. Planned works orders should include the complete procedures to be performed, the total manpower (number of personnel, skill type, and total time) needed, and a list of materials required for the each preventive maintenance job. Compiling all planned work orders in an organized work schedule provides an efficient way of using the resources available to the water system, completing the work in a timely manner, and producing a framework for quality maintenance records. Equipment evaluation is one area overlooked when discussing a preventive maintenance plan. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of any preventive maintenance plan, a benchmark of the existing conditions of all equipment is required. When preventive maintenance work is completed, the water system should have the ability to evaluate equipment performance on both a short term and long term basis. Also, the preventive maintenance work itself can be evaluated to better improve the individual components of the plan. Preventative maintenance can be considered a time efficient and cost effective way of maintaining a water system. Scheduled preventative maintenance can lower total maintenance costs by allowing the system to purchase quality materials when time is available to obtain the best price. Scheduled preventative maintenance can be time efficient by the productive use of manpower and work schedules to complete the work while retaining some control over both the maintenance and operation of the equipment.

General maintenance is usually the largest component of any maintenance program. A general maintenance plan can be established by developing planned work orders, prioritizing work within daily, weekly, and monthly schedules, developing a material purchasing system, and evaluating the overall performance of all general maintenance work. As with the preventive maintenance plan, the use of planned work orders is vital to an effective general maintenance plan. Planning work in advance can assure that proper procedures are followed by each staff member, correct materials and supplies are available to complete the work, and a record of the completed work is available for filing in project and equipment files. Reviewing planned work orders will provide the water system with a means of fine tuning their general maintenance plan. Another key is a prioritized work schedule. Prioritizing work on a daily, weekly, and monthly basis creates a productive working environment for personnel. This results in more maintenance

being completed at a much lower overall cost. Efficient maintenance requires that adequate materials and supplies be available for use at a moment's notice. It is important that water systems realize the need for developing a material purchasing system. This system would include a complete material and supply inventory, standardized purchasing procedures, and a tracking method of all materials used by the water system. It is important to have a centralized area designated for the storage of all materials and supplies used by the water system. An evaluation process should be developed to determine the overall performance of all maintenance work along with its effectiveness over the service life of the equipment. Changes in the types of procedures and materials used can be detected and corrected during the evaluation process. Also, the efficiency of a water system's use of resources and manpower as they pertain to the general maintenance plan can be determined.

An emergency maintenance plan is an invaluable component of most maintenance programs. This specialized plan will save both time and money when utilized properly. The foundation in developing an emergency plan is knowing the capabilities and limitations of the water system's staff and resources. The next step is to formulate contingencies for all types of emergencies that your water system has encountered in the past or could encounter in the future. It is important to be as specific as possible in identifying the many emergencies that could occur. Finally, a comprehensive list of consulting engineers, contractors, technical sales representatives, and material supply companies should be developed. This list should contain information as to the contact people, phone numbers (business and emergency), and the specific time and reasons each would be contacted. This contact list and a material/supply inventory list should be updated as often as possible and readily available for use at any time. Experience and planning are the keys to assuring the emergency maintenance plan operates properly. When the dust has settled and normal operation has resumed, a comprehensive evaluation of all actions taken as a part of the emergency plan should occur in a timely manner. At this point, evaluating the actions taken will hopefully result in a better emergency plan and, thus, an improved response to the next emergency.

The final component of a comprehensive maintenance program is a program evaluation. The only way to improve a water system's maintenance program is to periodically evaluate it to ensure the main objectives of eliminating the interruption of service caused by equipment failure and extending the service life of all equipment for as long as practically possible and economically feasible are being met. By applying the knowledge and experience gained from successful and unsuccessful maintenance work along with proper planning and training, the evaluation process will improve the overall maintenance program by strengthening the individual preventive, general, and emergency plans. As more evaluations are conducted, the water system will find itself gaining more experience, performing improved maintenance work, increasing the service life of all equipment, benefiting from more productive work, saving more money, and providing the best possible water service to the customers.

Preventive Maintenance

Preventive maintenance involves the regular inspection, testing, and replacement or repair of equipment and operational systems. As a **best management practice (BMP)**, preventive maintenance should be used to monitor and inspect equipment and other conditions that could cause breakdowns or failures of structures and equipment. A preventive maintenance program

can prevent breakdowns and failures through adjustment, repair, or replacement of equipment before a major breakdown or failure occurs.

Preventive maintenance procedures and activities are applicable to almost all facilities. This concept should be a part of a general good housekeeping program designed to maintain a clean and orderly work environment. Preventive maintenance takes a proactive approach and seeks to prevent problems before they occur. Preventive maintenance programs can also save a facility money by reducing the likelihood of having a system breakdown. In addition, a preventive maintenance program can be an effective community relations tool.

The primary limitations of implementing a preventive maintenance program include:

- Cost;
- Availability of trained preventive maintenance staff technicians; and,
- Management direction and staff motivation in expanding the preventive maintenance program.

Key Program Components

Elements of a good preventive maintenance program should include the following:

- Identification of equipment or systems that may malfunction.
- Establishment of schedules and procedures for routine inspections.
- Periodic testing of plant equipment for structural soundness.
- Prompt repair or replacement of defective equipment found during inspection and testing.
- Maintenance of a supply of spare parts for equipment that needs frequent repairs.
- Use of an organized record-keeping system to schedule tests and document inspections.
- Commitment to ensure that records are complete and detailed, and that they record test results and follow-up actions. Preventive maintenance inspection records should be kept with other visual inspection records.

Implementation

The key to properly implementing and tracking a preventive maintenance program is through the continual updating of maintenance records. Update records immediately after performing preventive maintenance or repairing an item and review them annually to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the program. Then refine the preventive maintenance procedures as necessary.

No quantitative data on the effectiveness of preventive maintenance as a BMP is available. However, it is intuitively clear that an effective preventive maintenance program will result in improved water system.

Costs

The major cost of implementing a preventive maintenance program is the staff time required to administer the program. Typically, this is a small incremental increase if a preventive maintenance program already exists at the facility.

SAFETY

Based on past studies, the water and wastewater industry has one of the highest injury rates in the nation. Workers in these areas are involved in construction and excavations, confined spaces, hazardous chemicals, and mechanical equipment that pose a serious injury risk when proper training, equipment, and procedures are not utilized. The **Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA)** is responsible for developing regulations regarding worker safety and protection.

This section will introduce the topic of safety but is not intended to provide detailed information on all the safety topics important to operators. Each of us is responsible for his/her own safety and for the safety of others working in or entering our facilities. The water industry is one of the most hazardous, so it is very important for operators to be informed about situations that pose a safety risk.

Safety Conditions

You may encounter potentially hazardous conditions on a regular basis while operating, maintaining, and repairing water system equipment. You should be aware of these hazards and use good judgment when you encounter a potentially hazardous situation. The life you save may be your own.

Accident prevention is everyone's job, but it is the employer who is ultimately responsible for providing a safe workplace. Some of the hazards an operator may encounter include, but are not limited to:

- Lifting injuries
- Electric shock
- Slips and falls
- Chemical burns
- Eye injuries
- Excavation accidents (cave-ins)
- Construction accidents
- Inhalation accidents (dust, toxic gases and vapors)
- Oxygen deficient confined spaces (less than 19.5% oxygen)

Accidents are the result of unsafe actions by employees or unsafe conditions that exist in the water system. Unsafe actions include, but are not limited to:

- Removing or disabling machinery safety devices
- Failure to wear personal protective equipment
- Using equipment or tools not designed for the job
- Using defective equipment or tools
- Standing on or riding the outside of moving equipment
- Failure to secure or tie down heavy loads
- Operating vehicles, including heavy equipment, at an unsafe speed
- Failure to use lockout/tagout devices

Some of the more common unsafe conditions found at a small water system may include, but are not limited to:

- Poor housekeeping
- Improper storage of chemicals
- Doors removed from electrical panels
- Machinery guards or safety devices missing
- Fire and explosion hazards
- Low clearance hazards
- Improperly secured ladders or scaffolds
- Protruding objects
- Inadequate lighting
- Noise above safe decibel levels
- Lack of warning placards
- Confined spaces

You should keep your water system facilities clean and orderly. Emergency equipment and doorways should be kept clear and machine guards replaced after repairing equipment. Doors should be replaced on the electrical panels when you complete a wiring job or replace a breaker.

The door to the pump house or chlorine room should open outward for ease in entering and leaving the structure. Abnormal machine or equipment operation, electrical hazards or other unsafe conditions should be corrected promptly. Do not let unsafe conditions become commonplace. Eventually, an unsafe condition will result in an accident.

Unfortunately, it is often the 5 minute task that causes many injuries. Quick fixes usually promote unsafe acts. Do not let 5 minute tasks result in an injury to yourself or an employee.

Become skilled at recognizing unsafe conditions. Your knowledge of unsafe conditions and unsafe acts gives you foresight to correct a hazardous situation before an accident occurs. Together materials handling, falls, falling objects and machinery cause more than 60% of all workplace injuries.

Employers are responsible for providing employees with the proper safety equipment and training in its use. They are also responsible for development and implementation of safety policies for their workplace. The employees, after proper training, are responsible for recognizing the safety issues; following approved safety procedures, and properly utilizing the associated safety equipment.

Personal Protective Equipment (PPE) may be uncomfortable and increase stress, but is for your protection. When wearing PPE, the body's ability to cool is usually diminished. Nevertheless, PPE is frequently required to reduce the risk of injury. PPE includes steel-toed boots, safety glasses or goggles, face shields, earplugs, gloves or chemical protective clothing. The employer is responsible for providing PPE for their employees.

Respiratory protection equipment is commonly used because of the danger of inhalation, which provides a route of entry into the bloodstream for dangerous volatile chemicals. There are 2 types

of respiratory protection devices called respirators: air purifying and air supplying. Both consist of a face piece connected to either an air source or an air-purifying device. The air-purifying respirator uses cartridges with filters to purify air before it is inhaled. This type of protection is not adequate in an oxygen deficient atmosphere.

Hazard Communications

OSHA established the Hazard Communication Standard in 1986. The standard was created to provide an information system on hazardous chemicals for both employers and employees. The Haz-Com Standard requires employers to ensure their employees know what hazardous materials exist in the workplace, how to safely use these materials, and how to deal with any emergencies that arise during use. Employers are required to provide the proper safety equipment, train employees in the safe use of any hazardous materials on a jobsite, and maintain records of both.

Producers of hazardous materials are required to provide customers with a **Material Safety Data Sheet (MSDS)** for each individual chemical or material. MSDS's must be kept on file and available to employees. Employee training should also include how to read and understand the information on the MSDS. The hazards that are involved fall into two basic categories: Health Hazards and Physical hazards.

Health hazards refer to immediate or long-term harm to the body caused by exposure to hazardous chemicals. Physical hazards like flammability or corrosivity can also cause injury to skin, eyes and the respiratory system. MSDS's are divided into 8 sections.

1. Manufacturers Contact Information
2. Hazardous Ingredients/Identity Information
3. Physical/Chemical Characteristics
4. Fire and Explosion Hazard Data
5. Reactivity Data
6. Health Hazard/First Aid Information
7. Precautions for Safe Handling and Use
8. Control/Cleanup Measures

NFPA Color-Code Warning System

OSHA uses a system based on the **National Fire Protection Association (NFPA)** diamond warning symbol as part of the MSDS information. This code is also required for all container labels. The NFPA symbol has four color-coded diamond-shaped sections. The top (Red) diamond is the Flammability Hazard rating. The left (Blue) diamond is the Health Hazard rating. The right (Yellow) diamond is the Reactivity Hazard rating. The bottom (White) diamond contains special symbols to indicate properties not explained by the other categories. A number-based rating system is used for each section, ranging from 0 – least dangerous to 4 – extremely dangerous.

Lock out/tag out (LOTO) regulations deal with the need to isolate a machine from its energy source to prevent it from starting while work is being done in and around the equipment. Energy sources can include electrical energy, hydraulic energy, pneumatic energy, thermal energy, and chemical energy. This can be either active energy or stored energy. Stored energy can take many forms. Some examples of stored energy are; electrical energy stored in capacitors, pneumatic energy stored in a compressor tank, and hydraulic water pressure in an isolated line. Any stored

energy must be dissipated prior to working on the equipment. Employers are responsible for establishing an “Energy Control Plan” for LOTO work and supply each worker with their individual LOTO locking devices.

LOTO requires workers to isolate and de-energize these sources and lock and tag them prior to working on the equipment or process. Only trained personnel should conduct lock out/tag out procedures. Each individual involved in the work should attach their personal LOTO lock to the disconnect or isolation device. This assures that the equipment cannot be restarted until each individual is finished with their task and is clear of the equipment. Tags are used to provide information regarding the date and nature of the lockout and the individual responsible for removing the lockout. Tags are not substitutes for locks. Any isolation that can be locked must be locked and tagged. Lockout devices may also include chains, valve clamps, wedges, jacks, or key blocks.

Anyone who enters a LOTO work area must be informed that a LOTO situation exists. If they are to be involved in the work, they must also apply their own LOTO locks. Workers that leave a LOTO site must take their LOTO locks with them. If work is not completed at the end of a shift, all LOTO locks must be removed and be replaced with an equipment protection lock until work resumes. If equipment must be temporarily restarted, the LOTO must be removed during the restart and reapplied before work can continue.

Confined Space Entry

The water and wastewater industry has one of the highest numbers of confined space injuries per capita in the country. The vast majority of confined space related injuries result in fatalities. Another disturbing fact is that 40% of the confined space related fatalities are people who tried to rescue someone else from a confined space.

A confined space is defined by the following parameters. It must be large enough for a person to enter and do work. It has openings that make entry or exit difficult. It is not intended for continuous occupancy. Any open surface tank that is deeper than four feet is also considered a confined space. Confined spaces fall into two categories; permit required and non-permit required. A confined space becomes permit required when it has potential for a hazardous atmosphere, potential for engulfment, a hazardous internal configuration, or other recognized hazards such as dangerous equipment or hot work (welding, cutting torch, etc.) that is in progress.

All employees involved in confined space entries must have the proper training in entry procedures and use of safety equipment. An entry supervisor is responsible for conducting the testing and completing the permit. Atmospheric testing should include oxygen concentration, Lower Explosive Limit for explosives, and any toxic gases that may be present. The oxygen concentration must be between 19.5-23.5%. The alarm point for explosives is 10% of Lower Explosive Limit (LEL).

An attendant must be present and stationed outside the confined space to monitor the entrants while they are working. The attendant must maintain constant verbal and visual communications with the entrants. The attendant must also be prepared to instruct the entrants to exit the confined space should the equipment fail or the entrants exhibit impaired judgment.

Any confined space must be tested for a hazardous atmosphere before the entry. Monitoring must continue while the entrants are in the confined space. Permit required confined spaces also require ventilation during the entry and self-contained or supplied air must be used if ventilation fails to produce a safe atmosphere. Permit required confined space entries also require rescue equipment such as a harness and tripod for emergency rescues. If the space is configured in a way that prevents the use of self-rescue equipment, an emergency rescue team must be on-site during the entry. When the entry is completed, the entry supervisor must complete the permit form and file a copy with the appropriate supervisor and a confined space entry master file. Non-permit confined spaces must be reassessed periodically. Any non-permit space can be reclassified, as permit required, based on the results of these assessments.

Excavation Safety

Proper shoring or sloping of trenches and excavations is a major safety issue for many distribution system operators. New construction usually involves more controlled conditions than emergency repairs. Excavations for emergency repairs almost always involve digging and shoring in saturated soils and flooded trenches. A "competent person" must supervise all excavation operations. A competent person is someone who has extensive training in soil mechanics and shoring operations.

All trenches over 4 feet deep must have ladders from entry and exit. The ladders must extend at least 3 feet above the top of the trench and ladders must not be stationed more than 25 feet apart. Trenches over 5 feet deep must be properly shored or sloped to protect entrants from trench wall collapse and cave-ins. The competent person must determine the proper Maximum Allowable Slope, formerly referred to as Angle of Repose, for the given soils type. Soils are either Type 1, 2, or 3. Type 3 soils are the least stable and require the shallowest Maximum Allowable Slope. Spoil from the excavation must be placed at least 2 feet from the edge of the excavation (farther with more unstable soils.)

Shoring must be installed without worker entry into the excavation. Trench boxes are useful for long trenches where it can be moved along the trench. This saves some of the setup and breakdown time required with shoring. Ladders must be positioned so that workers can enter and exit without stepping outside the shoring or trench box. Excavations may become confined spaces if they are located close to a source of potentially hazardous gases (underground gas tanks, landfills, etc.)

Environmental Hazards

Heat Stress

Heat stress is caused by a number of interacting factors, including environmental conditions, clothing, workload, etc., as well as the physical and conditioning characteristics of the individual. Since heat stress is one of the most common illnesses associated with heavy outdoor work conducted with direct solar load and, in particular, because wearing PPE can increase the risk of developing heat stress, workers must be capable of recognizing the signs and symptoms of heat related illnesses. Personnel must be aware of the types and causes of heat-related illnesses and be able to recognize the signs and symptoms of these illnesses in both themselves and their coworkers.

Heat Rashes

Heat rashes are one of the most common problems in hot work environments. Commonly known as prickly heat, a heat rash is manifested as red papules and usually appears in areas where the clothing is restrictive. As sweating increases, these papules give rise to a prickling sensation. Prickly heat occurs in skin that is persistently wetted by unevaporated sweat, and heat rash papules may become infected if they are not treated. In most cases, heat rashes will disappear when the affected individual returns to a cool environment.

Heat Cramps

Heat cramps are usually caused by performing hard physical labor in a hot environment. These cramps have been attributed to an electrolyte imbalance caused by sweating. It is important to understand that cramps can be caused both by too much or too little salt. Cramps appear to be caused by the lack of water replenishment. Because sweat is a hypotonic solution (plus or minus 0.3% NaCl), excess salt can build up in the body if the water lost through sweating is not replaced. Thirst cannot be relied on as a guide to the need for water; instead, water must be taken every 15 to 20 minutes in hot environments.

Heat Exhaustion

Heat exhaustion occurs from increased stress on various body organs due to inadequate blood circulation, cardiovascular insufficiency, or dehydration. Signs and symptoms include pale, cool, and moist skin; heavy sweating; dizziness; nausea; headache; vertigo; weakness; thirst; and giddiness. Fortunately, this condition responds readily to prompt treatment. The signs and symptoms seen in heat exhaustion are similar to those of heat stroke, which is a medical emergency. Workers suffering from heat exhaustion should be removed from the hot environment, be given fluid replacement, and be encouraged to get adequate rest.

Heat Stroke

Heat stroke is the most serious form of heat stress. Heat stroke occurs when the body's system of temperature regulation fails and the body's temperature rises to critical levels. This condition is caused by a combination of highly variable factors, and its occurrence is difficult to predict. Heat stroke is a medical emergency. The primary signs and symptoms of heat stroke are confusion; irrational behavior; loss of consciousness; convulsions; a lack of sweating (usually); hot, dry skin; and an abnormally high body temperature. If body temperature is too high, it causes death. The elevated metabolic temperatures caused by a combination of workload and environmental heat load, both of which contribute to heat stroke, are also highly variable and difficult to predict. If a worker shows signs of possible heat stroke, professional medical treatment should be obtained immediately. The worker should be placed in a shady area and the outer clothing should be removed. The worker's skin should be wetted and air movement around the worker should be increased to improve evaporative cooling until professional methods of cooling are initiated and the seriousness of the condition can be assessed. Fluids should be replaced as soon as possible. The medical outcome of an episode of heat stroke depends on the victim's physical fitness and the timing and effectiveness of first-aid treatment.

Cold Stress

Cold stress normally occurs in temperatures at or below freezing, or under certain circumstances, in temperatures of 40°F. Extreme cold for a short time may cause severe injury to exposed body surfaces or result in profound generalized cooling, causing death. Areas of the body that have

high surface area-to volume ratio, such as fingers, toes, and ears, are the most susceptible. Two factors influence the development of a cold weather injury: ambient temperature and the velocity of the wind. For instance, 10 °F with a wind of 15 **miles per hour (mph)** is equivalent in chilling effect to still air at 18 °F.

Frostbite

Frostbite is the generic term for a local injury resulting from cold. Several degrees of tissue damage are associated with frostbite. Frostbite of the extremities can be categorized into:

- Frost Nip or Incipient Frostbite — characterized by sudden blanching or whitening of skin.
- Superficial Frostbite — skin has a waxy or white appearance and is firm to the touch, but tissue beneath is resilient.
- Deep Frostbite — tissues are cold, pale, and solid; extremely serious injury.

Systemic Hypothermia

Systemic hypothermia is caused by exposure to freezing or rapidly dropping temperature. It can be fatal. Its symptoms are usually exhibited in five stages:

- Shivering;
- Apathy, listlessness, sleepiness, and (sometimes) rapid cooling of the body to less than 95°F;
- Unconsciousness, glassy stare, slow pulse, and slow respiratory rate;
- Freezing of the extremities; and
- Death.

Trauma sustained in freezing or sub-zero conditions requires special attention because an injured worker is predisposed to secondary cold injury. Special provisions must be made to prevent hypothermia and secondary freezing of damaged tissues in addition to providing for first-aid treatment. To avoid cold stress, site personnel must wear protective clothing appropriate for the level of cold and physical activity. In addition to protective clothing, preventive safe work practices, additional training, and warming regimens may be utilized to prevent cold stress.

Biological Hazards

Portions of the field work will be conducted in grassy and wooded areas along the river. Numerous biological hazards may be present, including poison ivy, snakes, thorny bushes and trees, ticks, mosquitoes, and other pests.

Tick-Borne Disease

The following tick-borne diseases may present hazards when conducting field work. These diseases are transmitted primarily by the deer tick, which is smaller and redder than the common wood tick. The disease may be transmitted by immature ticks, which are small and hard to see. The tick may be as small as a period on this page.

Lyme Disease

The disease commonly occurs in the spring and summer and is transmitted by the bite of infected ticks. Symptoms of Lyme disease include a rash or a peculiar red spot, like a bull's eye, which expands outward in a circular manner. The victim may have headache, weakness, fever, a stiff neck, swelling and pain in the joints, and eventually, arthritis.

Tick repellent containing **diethyltoluamide (DEET)** should be used when working in tick-infested areas, and pant legs should be tucked into boots. In addition, workers should search the entire body every three or four hours for attached ticks. Ticks should be removed promptly and carefully without crushing, since crushing can squeeze the disease-causing organism into the skin. A gentle and steady pulling action should be used to avoid leaving the head or mouth parts in the skin.

Poisonous Plants Hazards

Poisonous plants may be present all along the river. Personnel should be alerted to their presence, and instructed on methods to prevent exposure. The main control is to avoid contact with the plant, cover arms and hands, and frequently wash potentially exposed skin. Particular attention must be given to avoiding skin contact with objects or protective clothing that have touched the plants. Treat every surface that may have touched the plant as contaminated, and practice contamination avoidance. If skin contact is made, the area should be washed immediately with soap and water, and observed for signs of reddening.

Snakes

The possibility of encountering snakes exists, specifically for personnel working in grassy, wooded, and vegetated areas. Snake venoms are complex and include proteins, some of which have enzymatic activity. The effects produced by venoms include neurotoxic effects with sensory, motor, cardiac, and respiratory difficulties; cytotoxic effects on red blood cells, blood vessels, heart muscle, kidneys, and lungs; defects in coagulation; and effects from local release of substances by enzymatic actions. Other noticeable effects of venomous snake bites include swelling, edema, and pain around the bite, and the development of ecchymosis (the escape of blood into tissues from ruptured blood vessels). To minimize the threat of snake bites, all personnel walking through vegetated areas must be aware of the potential for encountering snakes and the need to avoid actions which might lead to encounters, such as turning over logs, etc. If a snake bite occurs, an attempt should be made to safely kill the snake for identification. The victim must be transported to the nearest hospital within 30 minutes; first aid consists of applying a constriction band and washing the area around the wound to remove any unabsorbed venom.

Spiders

Personnel may encounter spiders during work activities along the river. Two spiders are of concern, the black widow and the brown recluse. Both prefer dark sheltered areas such as basements, equipment sheds and enclosures, and around woodpiles or other scattered debris. The black widow is shiny black, approximately one inch long, and found throughout the US. There is a distinctive red hourglass marking on the underside of the black widow's body. The bite of a black widow is seldom fatal to healthy adults, but effects include respiratory distress, nausea, vomiting, and muscle spasms. The brown recluse is smaller than the black widow and gets its name from its brown coloring and behavior. The brown recluse is more prevalent in the southern US. The brown recluse has a distinctive violin shape on the top of its body. The bite of the brown recluse is painful and the bite site ulcerates and takes many weeks to heal completely.

To minimize the threat of spider bites, all personnel walking through vegetated areas must be aware of the potential for encountering these arachnids. Personnel need to avoid actions that may

result in encounters, such as turning over logs and placing hands in dark places such as behind equipment or in corners of equipment sheds or enclosures. If a spider bite occurs, the victim must be transported to the nearest hospital as soon as possible; first aid consists of applying ice packs and washing the area around the wound to remove any unabsorbed venom.

System security

The three “D”s of security are: Deter, Detect and Delay. Intrusion should be deterred, and detected if it occurs. Intruders should be slowed down (delayed) as much as possible to allow more time for their apprehension.

Water system security steps include:

1. Vulnerability assessment - Identify vulnerabilities such as doors, windows, hatches and locations in remote areas.
2. Eliminate or mediate vulnerabilities - Install locks and use them. Install fences, alarms and security lights. Ask for police patrols. Consider asking neighbors to watch over your facilities for you (adopt-a-facility). Once a shift, operators should inspect facilities for evidence of unauthorized persons or unusual events.
3. Emergency response - Know who to call in an emergency. Create a list of emergency telephone numbers, such as:
 - Fire
 - Police
 - IDEM
 - Local health department
 - Critical users
 - Your boss
 - Government officials
 - Nearby water systems
 - Laboratories
 - Contractors
 - Chemical suppliers
 - Parts/equipment suppliers
 - Insurance agent
 - Local media (radio, TV and newspaper)

Plan ahead for your emergencies. Think about what might go wrong, and try to plan for it. Like a good scout, “be prepared.” Always remember, people come first, then property. Be safe and do not take unnecessary risks.

PERSONAL SAFETY

Sometimes you may be working in remote areas that could potentially put you at risk of getting lost or hurt. You should take the following steps to ensure you can work safely when conducting sanitary surveys and field visits in remote locations:

Plan Ahead

- Notify your supervisor or a fellow worker that you will be working in a remote area.
- Have a check-in time set up before you leave. A check-in/check-out procedure can be used so that it is known where you are and when you have safely returned at the end of the day.
- Carry a fully charged cell phone (available for checkout at the regions).
- Know your site's emergency call-in number or your supervisor's pager number.
- Always wear your ID badge to clearly identify yourself.
- Wear appropriate footwear for the conditions, such as non-slip soled shoes for rough trails, mossy or slippery rocks, uneven or slippery floors, ladders, etc.
- If you are injured or involved in an accident, report to your supervisor immediately and submit an Accident/Incident Report Form.

Vehicle Safety

- Always drive defensively and safely. Obey all driving laws, including wearing your seat belt. Be aware of other vehicles and surroundings.
- Know who to call if your vehicle breaks down.
- If someone bumps you from behind or is following you, don't pull over at that spot, especially if it is isolated. Go to a public place with lots of lights and people and report to your supervisor immediately or call 911.
- Driving precautions in rural areas: watch for debris and potholes; lanes are narrow, be aware of oncoming traffic; watch for surface changes; watch for slow going vehicles; be aware of unguarded railroad crossings; and watch for animals.

Methamphetamine (Meth) Labs

- Be alert to homes whose view to the interior is obstructed in some manner by blinds, or the windows are boarded over, etc. Some drug labs have excessive security (more than one deadbolt, metal security doors, bars on windows, or vicious dogs). They also may have yards filled with discarded propane tanks and glassware that could have been used in a meth lab operation.
- Meth labs can be identified by their strong smell, similar to stale cat urine.
- Be careful when walking in yards with discarded glassware that could have been used in a meth lab operation because the chemicals they contained can contaminate you. Also, there may be booby traps set around the premises of the building.
- You **SHOULD** leave if you suspect the area is a meth lab operation.

In the Event of an Assault

If you are attacked or threatened you have the right to defend yourself in any manner necessary proportionate to the threat. How you choose to defend yourself will depend on the circumstances of the assault and your abilities. Consider that you could be attacked and think about what you

can or are willing to do to protect yourself. There is no one guaranteed method of defense. You will need to consider alternatives and optional responses.

Trust Your Instincts

If you are feeling uncomfortable, cancel the visit, reschedule, or request back-up from another staff member or the police. If you are in a tight situation:

- Don't show fear. Watch their body language.
- Try not to show any facial expression.
- Control your breathing.
- Speak slowly and lower the pitch of your voice, talk from your diaphragm.
- Watch your hands so they don't move nervously. Maintain personal space.
- Maintain eye contact, but don't try to stare anyone down.
- Don't challenge, but be assertive, especially if lewd comments are made.
- Check your watch; say you need to call your office because they are waiting for your call.
- Repeat what you are there for.
- Stand up and leave.

INCOMPATIBLE CHEMICALS

The purpose of this section is to assist with the identification of chemicals in use at water treatment plants that should be stored separately. Several chemicals commonly used in water treatment are considered “incompatible” with one another. **The term “incompatible” applies to chemicals that could create a hazardous reaction (such as production of toxic gas, accelerated corrosion, or generation of excessive heat through an exothermic reaction, which could result in an explosion and fire) if mixed together in their concentrated form.** Depending on the type, form, concentration, and amount of chemical, this reaction could be catastrophic, resulting in a loss of life and rendering the water plant inoperable. It is therefore important to store chemicals in a manner that will prevent incompatible substances from coming into contact with one another.

Chemicals commonly used at water treatment plants can be divided into 6 broad groups of “incompatible” chemicals. To ensure the safety of system personnel and the system itself, each of these groups of chemicals is considered incompatible with the other and therefore should be stored separately. These groups are listed in the table below.

Group I	Acids
Group II	Bases
Group III	Salts & Polymers
Group IV	Adsorption Powders
Group V	Oxidizing Powders
Group VI	Compressed Gases

Examples of chemicals that should not be stored near each other, and the resulting consequence of improper storage including the following:

Incompatible Chemicals - Examples	Hazardous Reactions
Powdered Activated Carbon - PAC (an adsorption powder) mixed with Potassium Permanganate (an oxidizing powder.)	Excessive heat generation, with the possibility of explosion and fire. Note: PAC alone is extremely combustible
Calcium Hypochlorite (a combination base/oxidizer) exposed to moisture or mixed with a viscous fluid such as oil.	Excessive heat, fire or explosion possible. Can provide an ignition source for combustible materials
Concentrated Sulfuric Acid (a strong acid) mixed with Concentrated Sodium Hydroxide (a strong base)	Excessive heat and liquid explosion. Note: Highly concentrated acids and bases when mixed together, will have a much more hazardous reaction than weak acids and bases.
Calcium Oxide (a strong base that is only available in powdered form) exposed to moisture	Excessive heat, fire. Can provide an ignition source for combustible materials.

Liquid chemicals should be stored separately from dry chemicals, regardless of which their compatibility group. Certain concentrated dry chemicals will produce an exothermic reaction

when exposed to liquid or even small amounts of moisture. All chemicals should be stored in secure, well-ventilated areas that are free of moisture (especially dry chemicals), freezing conditions (especially liquid chemicals), excessive heat, ignition sources, and flammable/combustible materials. Products such as paint, antifreeze, detergent, oil, grease, fuel, solvent, and beverages should never be stored in the same area as water treatment chemicals.

Listed below are a number of chemicals commonly used in water treatment, listed by their compatibility group. Because there is a wide range of chemicals available and in use today, all chemicals used in the water industry may not included on the following tables. OSHA Regulation 29.CFR.1910.1200 (Hazard Communication) requires that all organizations that handle hazardous chemicals, including water systems, maintain a MSDS in their files for each chemical stored onsite. If there is a question regarding the properties or incompatibility of any chemical encountered at a plant, the appropriate MSDS should be reviewed.

Group I: Acids

Name	Common Name	Available Forms ⁽¹⁾
Acetic Acid	Ethanoic Acid	Liquid
Hydrofluosilicic Acid	Fluosilic Acid	Liquid
Hydrogen Fluoride Acid	Hydrofluoric Acid	Liquid
Hydrochloric Acid	Muratic Acid	Liquid
Nitric Acid	Nitric Acid	Liquid
Sulfuric Acid	Sulfuric Acid	Liquid

Group II: Bases

Name	Common Name	Available Forms ⁽¹⁾
Calcium Hydroxide	Hydrated Lime	Dry
Calcium Oxide	Quicklime	Dry
Calcium Hypochlorite	HTH	Dry
Sodium Bicarbonate	Sodium Bicarbonate	Dry
Sodium Carbonate	Soda Ash	Dry
Sodium Hydroxide	Caustic Soda, Lye	Liquid, Dry
Sodium Hypochlorite	Bleach	Liquid
Sodium Silicate	Water Glass	Liquid

Group III: Salts/Polymers

Name	Common Name	Available Forms ⁽¹⁾
Aluminum Sulfate	Alum	Liquid, Dry
Copper Sulfate	Blue Stone	Liquid, Dry
Ferric Chloride	Ferrichlor	Liquid, Dry
Ferric Sulfate	Ferrifloc	Dry
Ferrous Sulfate	Coppras	Liquid, Dry
Polyaluminum Chloride	PAC or PACl	Liquid
Polyelectrolytes (Cationic, Anionic, Non-ionic)	Polymer	Liquid, Dry
Sodium Aluminate	Soda Alum	Liquid, Dry
Sodium Fluoride	Sodium Fluoride	Liquid, Dry

Sodium Hexametaphosphate	Glassy Phosphate	Dry
Sodium Phosphate	Sodium Phosphate	Liquid, Dry
Zinc Orthophosphate	Zinc Ortho	Liquid

(1) Liquid and Dry chemicals should be stored separately even if they are in the same compatibility group. Certain concentrated dry chemicals, like calcium hypochlorite and calcium oxide (quicklime) will produce an exothermic reaction when exposed to liquid or even small amounts of moisture.

Group IV: Adsorption Powders

Name	Common Name	Available Forms
Powdered Activated Carbon	PAC	Dry
Granular Activated Carbon	GAC	Dry

Group V: Oxidizing Powders

Name	Common Name	Available Forms
Potassium Permanganate	Permanganate (PotPer)	Dry

Group VI: Compressed Gases⁽²⁾

Name	Common Name	Available Forms	Incompatible Chemicals Within This Category⁽³⁾
Ammonia	Ammonia	Liquid, Gas	Chlorine
Chlorine	Gas Chlorine	Liquid, Gas	Ammonia
Carbon Dioxide	Dry Ice	Liquid, Gas	-
Sulfur Dioxide	Sulfur Dioxide	Liquid, Gas	-

(2) Each compressed gas should have its own separate storage / feed area

(3) Chlorine and Ammonia

WATER SECURITY

Security practices should be incorporated into a utility's every day business functions. Activities such as fence cutting and lock picking, often dismissed as harmless, may be indications of more serious threats to a water or wastewater system. Utilities must be prepared to respond to this type of threat, as well as a wide range of other emergencies, including natural disasters. Improved security preparations provide for a more effective and efficient response.

Water and wastewater utilities are responsible for taking action to protect their infrastructure. The federal government and EPA are helping utilities to accomplish these actions by providing tools, trainings, and technical assistance.

Several resources designed specifically to help small drinking water and wastewater utilities better protect their systems are available through this site.

BIOTERRORISM ACT - On June 12, 2002, President Bush signed into law the Public Health Security and Bioterrorism Preparedness and Response Act of 2002 (PL 107-188, referred to as the Bioterrorism Act). In the Bioterrorism Act, Congress recognizes the need for drinking water systems to undertake a more comprehensive view of water safety and security. The Act amends the SDWA and specifies actions CWSs and the EPA must take to improve the security of the Nation's drinking water infrastructure.

The Bioterrorism Act defines small community drinking water systems as those serving a population of more than 3,300 but less than 50,000. If a community drinking water system serves more than 3,300 people, that utility must:

- Conduct a vulnerability assessment
- Certify to EPA that the assessment has been completed
- Send a copy of the assessment results to EPA
- Certify that the system has an emergency response plan.

VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENTS - Vulnerability assessments help water systems evaluate susceptibility to potential threats and identify corrective actions that can reduce or mitigate the risk of serious consequences from adversarial actions (e.g., vandalism, insider sabotage, terrorist attack, etc.). Such an assessment for a water system takes into account the vulnerability of the water supply (both ground and surface water), transmission, treatment, and distribution systems. It also considers risks posed to the surrounding community related to attacks on the water system. An effective vulnerability assessment serves as a guide to the water utility by providing a prioritized plan for security upgrades, modifications of operational procedures, and/or policy changes to mitigate the risks and vulnerabilities to the utility's critical assets. The vulnerability assessment provides a framework for developing risk reduction options and associated costs. Water systems should review their vulnerability assessments periodically to account for changing threats or additions to the system to ensure that security objectives are being met. Preferably, a vulnerability assessment is "performance-based," meaning that it evaluates the risk

to the water system based on the effectiveness (performance) of existing and planned measures to counteract adversarial actions.

The following are common elements of vulnerability assessments. These elements are conceptual in nature and not intended to serve as a detailed methodology:

1. Characterization of the water system, including its mission and objectives;
2. Identification and prioritization of adverse consequences to avoid;
3. Determination of critical assets that might be subject to malevolent acts that could result in undesired consequences;
4. Assessment of the likelihood (qualitative probability) of such malevolent acts from adversaries;
5. Evaluation of existing countermeasures; and
6. Analysis of current risk and development of a prioritized plan for risk reduction.

The vulnerability assessment process will range in complexity based on the design and operation of the water system itself. The nature and extent of the vulnerability assessment will differ among systems based on a number of factors, including system size, potential population affected, source water, treatment complexity, system infrastructure and other factors. Security and safety evaluations also vary based on knowledge and types of threats, available security technologies, and applicable local, state and federal regulations.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE PLANS - An **Emergency Response Plan (ERP)** is a documented plan that describes the actions that a CWS would take in response to various major events. A major event refers to:

- Credible threats, indications of terrorism, or acts of terrorism;
- Major disasters or emergencies such as hurricanes, tornadoes, storms, earthquakes, fires, flood, or explosion regardless of cause; and
- Catastrophic incidents that leave extraordinary levels of mass casualties, damage, and disruption severely affecting the population, infrastructure, environment, economy, and government functions.

Protecting public health is the primary goal of community drinking water systems, and having an up-to-date and workable ERP helps achieve this goal in any crisis situation. The ERP should be updated annually. The Bioterrorism Act amends the SDWA by adding, among other requirements, section 1433. Section 1433(b) requires community water systems serving populations greater than 3,300 to either prepare or revise an ERP that incorporates the results of its Vulnerability Assessment (VA). The ERP must include “plans, procedures, and identification of equipment that can be implemented or utilized in the event of a terrorist or other intentional attack” on the CWS. The ERP also must include “actions, procedures, and identification of equipment which can obviate or significantly lessen the impact of terrorist attacks or other intentional actions on the public health and the safety and supply of drinking water provided to communities and individuals.”

Core elements form the basis, or foundation, for responding to any major event. EPA has identified 8 core elements common to an ERP that you should plan to utilize or bring to bear during water emergencies:

1. System Specific Information;
2. CWS Roles and Responsibilities;
3. Communication Procedures: Who, What, and When;
4. Personnel Safety;
5. Identification of Alternate Water Sources;
6. Replacement Equipment and Chemical Supplies;
7. Property Protection; and
8. Water Sampling and Monitoring

Your ERP may contain sensitive information, so you should consider steps you need to take to ensure the security of your ERP. Sensitive information should be placed in appendices, or in sections that are not readily available to unauthorized personnel. The ERP, however, should be easily accessible to authorized personnel and should be easily identifiable during a major event. Steps taken to limit access by unauthorized persons should consider local and state **Freedom of Information Act (FOIA)** laws. Alternatively, you can opt to make your ERP general in nature so that everyone can use it and not include specific information about system vulnerabilities. A secure copy of your ERP should be maintained in an off-premises location in the event that your primary copy cannot be accessed.

WATER SYSTEM SECURITY: Threat & Emergency Response Guide Manual

What is an Emergency?

An emergency is an unplanned event which disrupts or impacts your water system.

What Causes an Emergency?

- Cross-connections
- Mis-communication
- Unspecified Responsibilities
- Equipment Failure
- Safety Violations
- Inadequate Maintenance
- Accidents
- Natural Disasters
- Acts of Vandalism or Terrorism
- Insufficient or Contaminated Source Water

How Can You Minimize the Impact of an Emergency?

Quick, responsible action is necessary during an emergency. Developing and implementing a written emergency plan and procedures, along with having trained personnel, will help your water system achieve this goal. This guide offers information which can be used to create such a plan for your system.

Guidelines to Determine Impact of an Emergency:

LEVEL 1—NORMAL

Trouble that can be handled routinely, including normal operator activity.

LEVEL 2—ALERT (Minor Emergency)

Trouble which can be handled by the system with oversight and guidance from OEHS and/or Rural Water Association. This could be an early sign to indicate that a system or part of a system could be lost.

LEVEL 3—Major Emergency

Problem(s) that are somewhat beyond the capability of system personnel and association capabilities. May require a declaration of emergency in order to authorize shortcut procedures. Would require mobilizing all system personnel who might seek help through activating mutual aid agreements or contacts. This level of emergency leaves no doubt that outside help is required because of a serious threat to the facilities of a system and the public health.

LEVEL 4—PROBLEMS CLEARLY AND IMMEDIATELY BEYOND THE CAPABILITY OF THE UTILITY

Recovery time will exceed one week. Cost will be great and large amounts of mutual aid will be required. A request for a declaration of emergency will be required. This level would normally affect many different services that may be lifelines to a water and/or wastewater system. Natural or man-made disasters at this level will cause both disruption over a large area of service and a severe health risk to the public.

HOMELAND SECURITY ADVISORY SYSTEM

Threat Condition Levels

The Homeland Security Advisory System consists of five Threat Condition Levels, each identified by a brief description and corresponding color. From lowest to highest, they are as follows:

LOW =GREEN
GUARDED= BLUE
ELEVATED = YELLOW
HIGH = ORANGE
SEVERE = RED

The higher the Threat Condition, the greater the risk of a terrorist attack. (Risk includes both the probability and severity of such an event.) The EPA has created a series of suggested preventive measures for water systems to use at each of these levels.

EIGHT COMPONENTS OF EMERGENCY RESPONSE PLANS
(Suggested by the EPA)

1) System Specific Information

- PWSID Number
- System Name
- Physical Address
- Phone Numbers, etc.

2) Water System Responsibilities

- Designate an Emergency Response Lead (ERL)
- Name an alternate ERL
- ERL's should be individuals who can be on call 24/7
- Maintain contact information for ERL's

3) Communication Procedures

- Details WHO, WHAT, and WHEN for distributing information
- Communicates with both internal and external customers
- Special plans for contacting various contingencies (first responders, hospitals, schools, etc.)

4) Personnel Safety

- Shelter in place procedures
- Evacuation of employee procedures
- Other actions to ensure safety of water system personnel during emergencies

5) Identify Alternate Water Sources

- List other water utilities or agencies which could be utilized in emergencies

6) Replacement Equipment and Chemical Supplies

- Sources for replacing equipment damaged as a result of emergency situation
- Sources of chemical supplies

7) Property Protection

- Measures taken to protect water system physical facilities

8) Water Sampling/Monitoring

- Listing of companies and facilities which can provide sampling and monitoring

WHAT SHOULD YOU DO IF...

- A threat is made against your water system?
- There is suspicious activity at your facilities?
- An intrusion or act of vandalism has occurred at your system?

IMMEDIATELY

1) CALL 911

If your area does not have 911 service, Then contact your local law enforcement agency

2) CALL WV WATCH: 1-866-989-2824

This number will connect you with the WV State Police

3) CALL THE OEHS DISTRICT OFFICE SERVING YOUR AREA

See Phone Numbers below. Ask to speak directly to a district office Representative

OFFICE OF ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

District Offices/Counties Served

Beckley (District 1) Phone: (304) 256-6666

COUNTIES SERVICED: Fayette, Greenbrier, McDowell, Mercer, Monroe, Nicholas, Raleigh, Summers, Wyoming

St. Albans (District 2) Phone: (304) 722-0611

COUNTIES SERVICED: Boone, Cabell, Calhoun, Clay, Jackson, Kanawha, Lincoln, Logan, Mason, Mingo, Putnam, Roane, Wayne, Wirt

Kearneysville (District 4) Phone: (304) 725-9453

COUNTIES SERVICED: Berkeley, Grant, Hampshire, Hardy, Jefferson, Mineral, Morgan, Pendleton

Wheeling (District 5) Phone: (304) 238-1145

COUNTIES SERVICED: Brooke, Doddridge, Hancock, Marshall, Ohio, Pleasants, Ritchie, Tyler, Wetzel, Wood

Fairmont (District 6) Phone: (304) 368-2530

COUNTIES SERVICED: Barbour, Braxton, Gilmer, Harrison, Lewis, Marion, Monongalia, Pocahontas, Preston, Randolph, Taylor, Tucker, Upshur, Webster

Charleston (Central Office) Phone: (304) 558-2981

THREAT AWARENESS

What Is A Threat?

A threat is any event which could result in contamination of your water system or cause a loss of water volume or pressure.

Types of Threats

- Intentional Acts from an EXTERNAL source (Example: Activist groups, Criminals, Cults, Domestic or International Terrorist Groups, Vandals)
- Intentional Acts from an INTERNAL source (Example: Disgruntled present or former employee of a system)
- Natural Disaster (Example: Acts of God or Nature, such as a flood)
- Unintentional Acts/Accidents/Incidents (NON-DELIBERATE acts due to such causes as equipment failure, human error, or other unplanned acts)

How Can A Threat Be Communicated?

- E-Mail (Example: Virus which can damage system)
- Fax
- In-Person (Example: A disgruntled employee threatens to damage a treatment plant)
- Phone (Example: Bomb threat)
- Suspicious openings or evidence of tampering involving structures such as manhole covers, buildings, or other equipment.

How Can I Increase Awareness?

- Encourage customers to communicate with you and your staff as to how they can be involved in protecting their water system.
- Work with the public and other local agencies such as law enforcement or citizens/neighborhood watch groups.
- Watch for suspicious activity involving system facilities, personnel, or vehicles.

Examples of Suspicious Activity

- Unidentified or unmarked vehicles (cars, trucks, etc.) parked or left near waterways or facilities for no apparent reason.
- Unidentified persons photographing or videotaping water system facilities, structures, equipment, dams, etc.
- People atop water tanks or climbing or cutting a utility fence.
- Unknown persons hanging around locks or gates.

IF YOU SUSPECT A THREAT, IMMEDIATELY:

1. CALL 911
If you do not have 911 in your area, call your local law enforcement agency.
2. CALL WV WATCH
1-866-989-2824 (WV State Police)
3. CALL THE OEHS DISTRICT OFFICE SERVING YOUR AREA
Ask to speak directly to a District Office Representative.

MATH

One difficulty in operator certification exams appears to be solving math problems. The BASIC MATH HANDBOOK was developed to assist operators with the math required to accomplish his or her everyday work and will be provided by the instructor to accompany this manual.

WATER OPERATOR EXAM FORMULA SHEET

9/1/15

1 minute (min) = 60 seconds (sec)
1 hour (hr) = 60 min
1 day = 24 hr = 1,440 min = 86,400 sec
1 inch (in) = 2.54 centimeters (cm)
1 ft = 12 in
1 ft = 0.433 pounds per square inch (psi)
1 psi = 2.31 ft
1 cubic foot (ft³) = 7.48 gallons (gal) = 62.38 pounds (lbs)
1 ft³ = 62.38 lbs
1 cubic yard = 27 ft³
1 gal = 8 pints
1 gal = 8.34 lbs
1 gal = 3.785 liters (L)
1 lb = 454 grams (g)
1 L = 1,000 milliliters (mL)
1 milligrams per liter (mg/L) = 1 part per million (ppm)
1 % = 10,000 ppm
1 cubic foot per second (cfs or ft³/sec) = 448 gallons per minute (gpm)
1 gpm = 1,440 gallons per day (gpd)
1 gpd = 2.63 mL/min
1 million gallons per day (MGD) = 694.4 gpm
1 grain per gallon (gpg) = 17.12 mg/L
1 ac-ft = 43,560 ft³
 π (pi) = 3.14
specific gravity (Sp Gr) of water = 1.00

ABBREVIATIONS

V = volume	A = area
v = velocity	D = diameter
Q = flow	r = radius
ft ² = square feet	C = circumference
W/W = weight/weight	W/V = weight/volume
DT = detention time	HP = horsepower

TEMPERATURE

Fahrenheit (°F) = (1.8 x °C) + 32
Celsius (°C) = (°F - 32) x 0.56

CIRCUMFERENCE, AREA & VOLUME

Circumference (C, ft) = π x D (ft)

Area of a rectangle (A, ft²) = length (ft) x width (ft)

Area of a circle (A, ft²) = 0.785 x D (ft)²

Area of a circle (A, ft²) = π x r (ft)²

Volume of a rectangle (V, ft³) = length (ft) x width (ft) x height (ft)

Volume of a rectangle (V, gal) = length (ft) x width (ft) x height (ft) x 7.48 (gal/ft³)

Volume of a cylinder (V, ft³) = 0.785 x D (ft)² x height (ft)

Volume of a cylinder (V, gal) = 0.785 x D (ft)² x height (ft) x 7.48 (gal/ft³)

DETENTION TIME

Detention time (DT, min) = volume (V, gal) ÷ flow (Q, gpm)

CHLORINATION

Chlorine dose (mg/L) = chlorine demand (mg/L) + chlorine residual (mg/L)

Total chlorine residual (mg/L) = free chlorine residual (mg/L) + combined chlorine residual (mg/L)

POUNDS, DOSAGE & FLOW

Dose (mg/L) = feed (lbs/day) ÷ flow (MGD) ÷ 8.34 (lbs/gal)

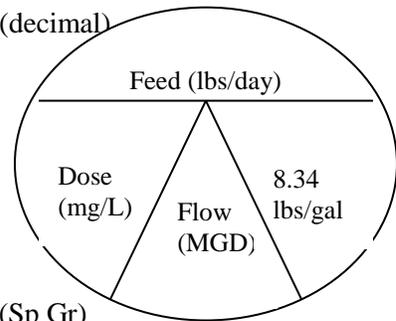
Feed (lbs/day) = dose (mg/L) x flow (MGD) x 8.34 (lbs/gal)

Feed (lbs/day) = dose (mg/L) x flow (MGD) x 8.34 (lbs/gal) ÷ % purity (decimal)

Flow (Q, gpm) = volume (V, gal) ÷ time (min)

Flow (Q, gps) = velocity (v, fps) x area (A, ft²) x 7.48 (gal/ft³)

Flow (Q, cfs) = velocity (v, fps) x area (A, ft²)



COAGULATION AND FLOCCULATION

Polymer (lbs) = $\frac{\text{polymer solution (gal)} \times 8.34 \text{ (lbs/gal)} \times \text{polymer (\%)} \times (\text{Sp Gr})}{100\%}$

FILTRATION

Filtration or backwash rate (gpm/ft²) = $\frac{\text{flow (Q, gpm)}}{\text{surface area (ft}^2\text{)}}$

Unit Filter Rate Volume (UFRV) (g/ft²) = filtration rate (gpm/ft²) x filter run (hr) x 60 (min/hr)

Backwash water (gal) = backwash flow (gpm) x backwash time (min)

Backwash (%) = $\frac{\text{backwash water (gal)} \times (100\%)}{\text{water filtered (gal)}}$

FLUORIDATION

Fluoride feed rate (lbs/day) = $\frac{\text{dose (mg/L)} \times \text{flow (MGD)} \times 8.34 \text{ (lbs/gal)}}{\text{Available Fluoride Ion (AFI)} \times \text{chemical purity (decimal)}}$

Fluoride feed rate (gpd) = $\frac{\text{dose (mg/L)} \times \text{flow (gpd)}}{18,000 \text{ mg/L}}$

Dose (mg/L) = $\frac{\text{fluoride feed rate (lbs/day)} \times \text{AFI} \times \text{chemical purity (decimal)}}{\text{flow (MGD)} \times 8.34 \text{ (lbs/gal)}}$

Dose (mg/L) = $\frac{\text{solution fed (gal)} \times 18,000 \text{ mg/L}}{\text{flow (gpd)}}$

Chemical	Formula	Available Fluoride Ion (AFI) Concentration	Chemical Purity
Sodium fluoride	NaF	0.453	98%
Sodium fluorosilicate	Na ₂ SiF ₆	0.607	98%
Fluorosilicic acid	H ₂ SiF ₆	0.792	23%

CHEMICAL DOSES

$$\text{Chemical feed setting (mL/min)} = \frac{\text{flow (MGD)} \times \text{alum dose (mg/L)} \times 3.785 \text{ (L/gal)} \times 1,000,000 \text{ (gal/MG)}}{\text{liquid alum (mg/mL)} \times 24 \text{ (hr/day)} \times 60 \text{ (min/hr)}}$$

$$\text{Dry chemical feeder (lbs/day)} = \frac{\text{chemical applied (lbs)}}{\text{length of application (day)}}$$

$$\text{Solution chemical feeder (lbs/day)} = \frac{\text{chem conc. (mg/L)} \times V \text{ pumped (mL)} \times 1,440 \text{ (min/day)}}{\text{time pumped (min)} \times 1,000 \text{ (mL/L)} \times 1,000 \text{ (mg/g)} \times 454 \text{ (g/lb)}}$$

$$\text{Average feed rate (lbs/day)} = \frac{\text{average feed rate (g/min)} \times 1,440 \text{ (min/day)}}{454 \text{ (g/lb)}}$$

DISINFECTION

$$\text{Hypochlorite flow (gpd)} = \frac{\text{container area (ft}^2\text{)} \times \text{drop (ft)} \times 7.48 \text{ (gal/ft}^3\text{)} \times 24 \text{ (hr/day)}}{\text{time (hr)}}$$

$$\text{Feed rate (gpd)} = \frac{\text{feed rate (lbs /day)} \times \text{feed dose (mg/L)}}{\text{feed solution (mg/L)}}$$

$$\text{Feed rate (lbs/day)} = \frac{\text{feeder setting (lbs/day)}}{24 \text{ (hr/day)}}$$

$$\text{CT (mg/L-min)} = \frac{V \text{ (gal)} \times (T_{10}) \times \text{free chlorine residual (mg/L)}}{\text{flow (gpm)}}$$

$$\text{Free chlorine residual (mg/L)} = \frac{\text{CT (mg/L-min)}}{T_{10} \text{ (min)}}$$

HORSEPOWER

$$Q \text{ (gpm)} = \frac{3.956 \text{ (HP)}}{\text{head (ft)} \times \text{Sp Gr}}$$

$$\text{HP} = \frac{\text{voltage} \times \text{current} \times \text{efficiency}}{746}$$

$$\text{Water (HP)} = \frac{\text{flow (gpm)} \times \text{lift (ft)} \times 8.34 \text{ (lbs/gal)}}{33,000 \text{ ft-lb/min-HP}}$$

$$\text{Power (kW-hr/day)} = \text{motor (HP)} \times 24 \text{ (hr/day)} \times 0.746 \text{ (kW/HP)}$$

MISC

$$\text{Percent (\%)} = \text{part} \div \text{whole} \times 100$$

$$\text{Part} = \text{whole} \times \text{percent} \div 100$$

$$\text{Average} = \frac{\text{sum of measurements}}{\text{number of measurements}}$$

$$\text{General ratio} \quad \frac{A1}{A2} = \frac{B1}{B2}$$

$$\text{Turnover or drawdown (ft)} = \text{pumping (ft)} - \text{static (ft)}$$

$$\text{Potassium permanganate dose (mg/L)} = (\text{Iron concentration mg/L}) + 2(\text{Manganese concentration mg/L})$$

$$\text{Alkalinity} = \frac{\text{mL of H}_2\text{SO}_4 \times 1,000}{\text{mL of sample}}$$

$$\text{Hardness} = \frac{\text{mL of EDTA} \times 1,000}{\text{mL of sample}}$$

$$\text{Reservoir Volume (V, gal)} = V \text{ (ac-ft)} \times 43,560 \text{ (ft}^3\text{/ac-ft)} \times 7.48 \text{ (gal/ft}^3\text{)}$$

$$\text{Feeder setting, \%} = \frac{\text{desired rate} \times 100\%}{\text{maximum rate}}$$

$$\text{Weight of substance (lbs/gal)} = \text{Sp Gr} \times 8.34 \text{ (lbs/gal)}$$

$$\text{Volume needed, } \mu\text{L} = \frac{\text{dose (mg/L)} \times \text{jar test beaker volume (L)}}{\text{Sp Gr} \times \text{Conc., \% (expressed as a decimal)}}$$

$$(\text{Volume, mL})_1 = \frac{(\text{concentration, mg/L})_2 (\text{volume, mL})_2}{(\text{concentration, mg/L})_1}$$

REFERENCE LIST

1. Water Treatment Plant Operation, A Field Study Training Guide, Volume 1; California State University, Sacramento.
2. Water Treatment Plant Operation, A Field Study Training Guide, Volume 2; California State University, Sacramento.
3. Water Distribution System Operation and Maintenance, Field Study Training Guide; California State University, Sacramento.
4. Utility Management, A field study training program; California State University, Sacramento.
5. Water System Security, Threat & Emergency Response Guidance Manual, WVDHHR, BPH, OEHS, EED.
6. Keller's Official OSHA Safety Handbook, 5th Ed., JJ Keller & Associates, Inc.
7. Water Fluoridation A Manual for Water Plant Operators, Center for Disease Control and Prevention, April 1994.
8. EPAs Interactive Sampling Guide for Drinking Water System Operators CDROM, Office of Water (4606M), EPA816-C-06-001, April 2006.
9. National Drinking Water Clearinghouse, Tech Briefs
10. Safe Drinking Water Act and all current Rules and Regulations from www.epa.gov/safewater
11. www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed

EXAM PREPARATION

The following is some information about the certification exam to hopefully make you a little less apprehensive. Use common sense when studying for the exam. Exams are not written by a disgruntled person trying to fail everyone, nor are 100% pass rates the goal. The Drinking Water Exam Review Committee (DWERC), which includes state regulators (OEHS Certification and Training Program staff), educators (WV Environmental Training Center and WV Rural Water Association representatives) and current Class IV water operators, develop all PWS operator certification exams to increase training and testing relevance and comply with EPA Operator Certification Program requirements. The DWERC continues to work towards multiple complete versions of each classification exam with references, organized by content areas to ensure all exam questions are based on what operators actually “need to know” to adequately prepare for and perform job duties and responsibilities associated with the treatment and distribution of drinking water. As new federal and state regulations and drinking water treatment technology advances are made, the DWERC will continue to review and revise all required PWS operator exams to ensure they are valid and relevant. For a Class II water operator, the DWERC has determined the following Class II Water Operator Certification Exam Content Areas. The percentages refer to the approximate portion of exam questions for each section.

- 1. Regulations (20%)**
State and federal, records and reports, sanitary survey
- 2. Source water (5%)**
SW, GW, GWUDI, SWAP report, Well construction
- 3. Chemistry (5%)**
pH, Fe/Mn, Alkalinity, Hardness, Basic principles, Solutions, Chlorine
- 4. Water treatment processes (20%)**
Coagulation, flocculation, sedimentation, filtration, disinfection, corrosion control, aeration, taste and odor control, fluoridation, iron and manganese
- 5. Plant operation (15%)**
Chemical feeds, lab procedures, daily tasks, sampling, monitoring
- 6. Distribution (10%)**
Main repairs, booster stations, tanks/reservoirs, lines, meters, cross connection, valves, hydrants/flushing, sampling, water quality
- 7. Cross-connection (3%)**
Basic applications, regulations, devices/assemblies
- 8. Maintenance (5%)**
Intakes, filters, pumps, motors, instrumentation, preventative, planning
- 9. Safety and security (10%)**
PPE, MSDS, ERPs, chemical handling, confined spaces, lockout/tagout, safe driving, environmental conditions, flagging, ergonomics, security, fire safety
- 10. Public relations (2%)**
CCRs, customer inquiries, field investigations, outreach, perform public relation activities, public notification/BWN,
- 11. Administration (5%)**
Sanitary Survey, MORs, Chief operator/management responsibilities, SOPs, QA/QC, Record Keeping, Water Loss, OEHS/PSC Forms

Mathematics throughout multiple sections.

Also, if a person is familiar with how the exam is conducted, he/she will be more comfortable with the exam process and more likely to pass the exam. This list will help you familiarize yourself with the certification exam.

1. Most exams have 100 questions, with each question worth one point. A score of 70 or above is passing.
2. All questions are multiple-choice. You will receive partial credit on the math problems, so make sure you **show all of your work**. It could mean the difference between passing and not passing.
3. You will be given 4 hours to complete the exam. This has proven to be plenty of time for people to complete the exam.
4. The exam is a closed-book exam. All equations and conversions needed for math problems will be given on a formula sheet with each exam so there is no need to memorize equations.
5. Overall, the percentage of people passing a given exam is good.
6. All applicants must complete and submit form EW-102 at least thirty (30) days prior to the requested exam date.
7. If you have any special learning needs, please notify the Certification and Training section so appropriate accommodations can be arranged in advance.
8. OEHS is required to notify applicants before the exam date with a confirmation letter by mail. Bring this confirmation letter, a photo ID, a pencil, and a calculator to the exam with you.
9. Exam scores are valid for 5 years, so you must fulfill the experience requirement to upgrade to a Class I within that timeframe or reapply and retake the exam.
10. If you do not make a passing grade on the exam, you must wait at least 60 days before reapplying for reexamination.
11. Once certified, a Class I operator must acquire at least 12 hours of continuing education credits (CEHs) every two years to maintain certification.
12. CEHs are training classes pre-approved by the OEHS based on their relevancy to the drinking water industry. Operators must provide copies of class certificates with their renewal application (EW-212).

**HERE'S A QUICK SUMMARY OF TEST-TAKING STRATEGIES
YOU NEED TO KNOW!**

- ◆ Be on time and try to relax.
- ◆ Pace yourself, so you have time to answer all of the questions.
- ◆ Read the instructions carefully and look at both side of each page.
- ◆ Consider doing easier questions first and coming back to harder, more time-consuming questions such as those with calculations.
- ◆ Read each question carefully.
- ◆ Read all of the answers so that you can pick the best one.
- ◆ There's no penalty for wrong answers, so answer every question, even if you have to guess.
- ◆ If you have to guess, improve your odds by eliminating obviously wrong answers.
- ◆ Take a break if you need one.
- ◆ Recheck your answers after you've finished the exam.
- ◆ Watch out for distracting information in the questions and answers. Some of the information you're given may be irrelevant or may even lead you to the wrong answer. Make it a point to determine what the question is really asking.
- ◆ Beware of extreme modifiers (like "all" or "never"). There are exceptions to most rules, so be careful about any statement that expresses an absolute truth.
- ◆ Some answers may be partially correct, so be sure that you read every answer and then pick the best one.
- ◆ Make a drawing or sketch if it will help you understand the question.
- ◆ Be aware that another question may contain the answer to a question you are not sure of.
- ◆ Underline key points in a question such as variables in a math problem.

GLOSSARY

ABSORPTION - Taking in or soaking up of one substance into the body of another by molecular or chemical action (as tree roots absorb dissolved nutrients in the soil).

ACCOUNTABILITY - When a manager gives power/responsibility to an employee, the employee ensures that the manager is informed of results or events.

ACCURACY - How closely an instrument measures the true or actual value of the process variable being measured or sensed.

ACIDIC - The condition of water or soil which contains a sufficient amount of acid substances to lower the pH below 7.0.

ACTION LEVEL - The level of lead or copper which, if exceeded in over 10% of the homes tested, triggers treatment or other requirements that a water system must follow.

ACTION PLANS - Specific plans designed to be used during the response to a threat or incident. Action plans should be easy to use and contain forms, flow charts, and simple instructions to support staff in the field or decision officials during management of a crisis.

ACTIVATED CARBON - Adsorptive particles or granules of carbon usually obtained by heating carbon (such as wood). These particles or granules have a high capacity to selectively remove certain trace and soluble materials from water.

ACUTE - Effects of an exposure which causes severe symptoms to occur quickly.

ACUTE CONTAMINANT - A harmful substance that has a rapid effect on humans and/or animals.

ACUTE HEALTH EFFECT - An immediate (i.e., within hours or days) adverse health effect that may result from exposure to certain drinking water contaminants (e.g., pathogens).

ADSORPTION - The collection of a gas, liquid, or dissolved substance on the surface or interface zone of another material.

AERATION - The process of adding air to water. Air can be added to water by either passing air through water or passing water through air.

AEROBIC - A condition in which “free” (atmospheric) or dissolved oxygen is present in the water.

AESTHETIC - Attractive or appealing.

AESTHETIC QUALITIES - The taste, odor and appearance of drinking water.

AIR BINDING - A situation where air enters the filter media. Air is harmful to both the filtration and backwash processes. Air can prevent the passage of water during the filtration process and can cause the loss of filter media during the backwash process.

AIR GAP - An open vertical drop of vertical empty space that separates a drinking (potable) water supply to be protected from another water system in a water treatment plant or other location. This open gap prevents the contamination of drinking water by backsiphonage or backflow because there is no way raw water or any other water can reach the drinking water.

AIR STRIPPING - A treatment process used to remove dissolved gases and volatile substances from water. Large volumes of air are bubbled through the water being treated to remove (strip out) the dissolved gases and volatile substances.

ALKALINE - The condition of water or soil which contains a sufficient amount of alkali substances to raise the pH about 7.0

ALKALINITY - The capacity of water to neutralize acids. This capacity is caused by the water's content of carbonate, bicarbonate, hydroxide, and occasionally borate, silicate, and phosphate. Alkalinity is expressed in milligrams per liter of equivalent calcium carbonate. Alkalinity is not the same as pH because water does not have to be strangely basic (high pH) to have a high alkalinity. Alkalinity is a measure of how much acid can be added to a liquid without causing a great change in pH.

ALTERNATING CURRENT - An electric current that reverses its direction (positive/negative values) at regular intervals.

ALTITUDE VALVE - A valve that automatically shuts off the flow into an elevated tank when the water level in the tank reaches a predetermined level. The valve automatically opens when the pressure in the distribution system drops below the pressure in the tank.

AMBIENT TEMPERATURE - Temperature of the surrounding air (or other medium). For example, temperature of the room where a gas chlorinator is installed.

AMPERE - The unit used to measure current strength. The current produced by electromotive force of one volt acting through a resistance of one ohm.

ANAEROBIC - A condition in which "free" (atmospheric) or dissolved oxygen is NOT present in water.

ANALYZER - A device which conducts periodic or continuous measurement of some factor such as chlorine, fluoride turbidity. Analyzers operate by any of several methods including photocells, conductivity or complex instrumentation.

ANNULAR SPACE - A ring-shaped space located between two circular objects, such as two pipes.

ANODE - The positive pole or electrode of an electrolytic system, such as battery. The anode attracts negatively charged particles or ions.

AQUIFER - A natural underground layer of porous, water-bearing materials (sand, gravel) usually capable of yielding a large amount or supply of water.

ARSENIC RULE - EPA has issued a rule that applies to all community water systems and non-transient, non-community water systems, which sets the maximum contaminant level of arsenic at 10 milligrams per liter.

ARTESIAN - Pertaining to groundwater, a well, or underground basin where the water is under a pressure greater than atmospheric and will rise above the level of its upper confining surface if given an opportunity to do so.

AS-BUILT MAPS - Maps or drawings depicting the actual installation of pipes and equipment. Also called record drawings. As-builts often differ from original plans.

AUDIT, WATER - A thorough examination of the accuracy of water agency records or accounts (volumes of water) and system control equipment. Water managers can use audits to determine their water distribution system efficiency. The overall goal is to identify and verify water and revenue losses in a water system.

AVAILABLE SUPPLY - The maximum amount of reliable water supply, including surface water, groundwater, and purchases under secure contracts.

AVERAGE-DAY DEMAND - A water systems average daily use based on total annual water production (total annual gallons or cubic feet divided by 365); multiple years can be used to account for yearly variations.

AVERAGE DEMAND - The total demand for water during a period of time divided by the number of days in that time period. This is also called the AVERAGE DAILY DEMAND.

BACK PRESSURE - A pressure that can cause water to backflow into the water supply when a user's water system is at a higher pressure than the public water system.

BACKFILL - To refill an excavated area with removed earth; or the material itself that is used to refill an excavated area.

BACKFLOW - A reverse flow condition, created by a difference in water pressures, which causes water to flow back into the distribution pipes of a potable water supply from any source or sources other than an intended source. Also see BACKSIPHONAGE.

BACKFLOW PREVENTION - The best defense for backflow is a proactive backflow prevention program requiring backflow preventers in areas where backflow can occur.

BACKFLOW PREVENTION ASSEMBLY INSTALLER/TESTER (BPAIT) - An individual who meets all the requirements of 64CSR25 and is certified to inspect and test

backflow prevention assemblies or methods.

BACKSIPHONAGE - A form of backflow caused by a negative or below atmospheric pressure within a water system. Also see BACKFLOW.

BACTERIA - Bacteria are living organisms, microscopic in size, which usually consist of a single cell. Most bacteria use organic matter for their food and produce waste products as a result of their life processes.

BASE - Any substance which contains hydroxyl (OH) groups and furnishes hydroxide ions in solution; a molecular or ionic substance capable of combining with a proton to form a new substance; a substance that provides a pair of electrons for a covalent bond with an acid; a solution with a pH of greater than 7.

BATCH PROCESS - A treatment process in which a tank or reactor is filled, the water is treated or a chemical solution is prepared, and the tank is emptied. The tank may then be filled and the process repeated.

BEST AVAILABLE TECHNOLOGY (BAT) - The water treatment(s) that EPA certifies to be the most effective for removing a contaminant. The best technology treatment techniques, or other means which the Administrator finds, after examination for efficacy under field conditions and not solely under laboratory conditions, are available (taking cost into consideration). For the purposes of setting MCLs for synthetic organic chemicals, any BAT must be at least as effective as granular activated carbon.

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (BMPs) - Structural, nonstructural and managerial techniques that are recognized to be the most effective and practical means to control nonpoint source pollutants yet are compatible with the productive use of the resource to which they are applied. BMPs are used in both urban and agricultural areas.

BIOLOGICAL GROWTH - The activity and growth of any and all living organisms.

BIOTERRORISM ACT - The Public Health Security and Bioterrorism Preparedness and Response Act of 2002.

BLOWOFF - A controlled outlet on a pipeline, tank, or conduit which is used to discharge water or accumulations of material carried by the water.

BOIL WATER NOTICE - A directive issued to water system users to boil their water because of known or suspected bacteriological contamination.

BREAKPOINT CHLORINATION - Addition of chlorine to water until the chlorine demand has been satisfied. At this point, further addition of chlorine will result in a free residual chlorine that is directly proportional to the amount of chlorine added beyond the breakpoint.

BUFFER - A solution or liquid whose chemical makeup neutralize acids or bases. This is a measure of the capacity of water for offering a resistance to changes in pH.

C FACTOR - A factor or value used to indicate the smoothness of the interior of a pipe. The higher the C Factor, the smoother the pipe, the greater the carrying capacity, and the smaller the friction or energy losses from water flowing in the pipe. To calculate the C Factor, measure the flow, pipe diameter, distance between two pressure gages, and the friction or energy loss of the water between the gages.

CALCIUM CARBONATE (CaCO₃) EQUIVALENT - An expression of the concentration of specified constituents in water in terms of their equivalent value to calcium carbonate. For example, the hardness in water which is caused by calcium, magnesium and other ions is usually described as calcium carbonate equivalent.

CALIBRATION - A procedure which checks or adjusts an instrument's accuracy by comparison with a standard or reference.

CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT - The process of determining the managerial, financial and technical capacities of a water system.

CARCINOGEN - Any substance which tends to produce cancer in an organism.

CATHODE - The negative pole or electrode of an electrolytic cell or system. The cathode attracts positively charged particles or ions (cations).

CATHODIC PROTECTION - An electrical system for prevention of rust, corrosion, and pitting of metal surfaces which are in contact with water or soil. A low-voltage current is made to flow through a liquid (water) or a soil in contact with the metal in such a manner that the external electromotive force renders the metal structure cathodic. This concentrates corrosion on auxiliary anodic parts which are deliberately allowed to corrode instead of letting the structure corrode.

CAVITATION - The formation and collapse of a gas pocket or bubble on the blade of an impeller or the gate of a valve. The collapse of this gas pocket or bubble drives water into the impeller or gate with a terrific force that can cause pitting on the impeller or gate surface. Cavitation is accompanied by loud noises that sound like someone is pounding on the impeller or gate with a hammer.

CENTRIFUGAL PUMP - A pump consisting of an impeller fixed on a rotating shaft that is enclosed in a casing, and having an inlet and discharge connection. As the rotating impeller whirls the water around, centrifugal force builds up enough pressure to force the water through the discharge outlet.

CERTIFIED OPERATOR – An individual holding a valid West Virginia public water system certification in accordance with Section 6 of 64CSR4.

CHAIN OF COMMAND - A clear and definitive structure of authority.

CHAIN OF CUSTODY - A written record that shows who handled a sample over what periods of time from the beginning to the end of the sampling and testing process.

CHECK VALVE - A special valve with a hinged disc or flap that opens in the direction of normal flow and is forced shut when flows attempt to go in the reverse or opposite direction of normal flow.

CHIEF OPERATOR - The certified operator whom the owner designates who is responsible for managing the daily operational activities of an entire public water system or a water treatment facility, or a distribution system in a manner that ensures meeting state and federal safe drinking water rules and regulations.

CHLORAMINES - Compounds formed by the reaction of hypochlorous acid (or aqueous chlorine) with ammonia.

CHLORINATION - The application of chlorine to water, generally for the purpose of disinfection, but frequently for accomplishing other biological or chemical results (aiding coagulation and controlling tastes and odors).

CHLORINATOR - A metering device which is used to add chlorine to water.

CHLORINE DEMAND - The difference between the amount of chlorine added to water and the amount of residual chlorine remaining after a given contact time. Chlorine demand may change with dosage, time, temperature, pH, and nature and amount of the impurities in the water.

CHLORINE DOSE - The total amount of chlorine fed into a volume of water by the chlorine feed equipment is referred to as dosage and is calculated in milligram per liter (mg/L).

CHRONIC - Effects of an exposure which causes symptoms to continue for a long time.

CHRONIC HEALTH EFFECT - The possible result of exposure over many years to a drinking water contaminant at levels above its Maximum Contaminant Level.

CIRCUIT BREAKER - A safety device in an electrical circuit that automatically shuts off the circuit when it becomes overloaded. The device can be manually reset.

CHRONIC - Effects of an exposure which causes symptoms to continue for a long time.

CIRCLE OF INFLUENCE - The circular outer edge of a depression produced in the water table by the pumping of water from a well. Also see CONE OF INFLUENCE AND CONE OF DEPRESSION.

CIRCUIT - A path through which an electrical current can flow when the path is complete.

CLEAR WELL - A reservoir for the storage of filtered water of sufficient capacity to prevent the need to vary the filtration rate with variations in demand. Also used to provide chlorine contact time for disinfection.

COLIFORM - A group of bacteria found in the intestines of warm-blooded animals (including humans) and also in plants, soil, air and water. Fecal coliforms are a specific class of bacteria which only inhabit the intestines of warm-blooded animals. The presence of coliform bacteria is an indication that the water is polluted and may contain pathogenic organisms.

COLORIMETRIC MEASUREMENT - A means of measuring unknown chemical concentrations in water by measuring a sample's color intensity. The specific color of the sample, developed by addition of chemical reagents, is measured with a photoelectric colorimeter or is compared with "color standards" using, or corresponding with, known concentrations of the chemical.

COMBINED AVAILABLE RESIDUAL CHLORINE - That portion of the total residual chlorine remaining in water, sewage or industrial waste at the end of a specified contact period, which will react chemically and biologically as chloramines or organic chloramines.

COMBINED DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM - The interconnected distribution system consisting of the distribution systems of wholesale systems and of the consecutive systems that receive finished water from those wholesale system(s).

COMMUNITY WATER SYSTEM (CWS) - A public water system which serves at least 15 service connections used by year round residents or regularly serves at least 25 persons year-round residents. Also see non-community water system, transient water system and non-transient non-community water system.

COMPLIANCE - The act of meeting all state and federal drinking water regulations.

COMPLIANCE SAMPLES – Required sample your system takes to comply with regulations. Compliance samples are identified in your monitoring plan. All compliance samples identified in your monitoring plan must be included in your compliance calculations, even if you take more than the minimum number of samples.

COMPOSITE - A composite sample is a collection of individual samples obtained at regular intervals, usually every one of two hours during a 24-hour time span. Each individual sample is combined with the others in proportion to the rate of flow when the sample was collected. The resulting mixture (composite sample) forms a representative sample and is analyzed to determine the average conditions during the sampling period.

COMPOUND - A substance composed of two or more elements whose composition is constant. For example, table salt (sodium chloride -NaCl) is a compound.

COMPOUND METERS - These meters are used where there is a need to measure both high and low flows, like in a hotel, school, or a commercial account where both domestic use and production use need to be measured by one meter. They are typically available in sizes from 2" through 6".

CONDENSATION - The process of water vapor in the air turning into liquid water.

CONDUCTANCE - A measure of the conducting power of a solution equal to the reciprocal of the resistance. The resistance is expressed in ohms.

CONDUCTIVITY - The ability of a material to carry current or heat.

CONE OF DEPRESSION - The depression, roughly conical in shape, produced in the water table by pumping of water from a well. Also see **CIRCLE OF INFLUENCE** and **CONE OF DEPRESSION**.

CONFINED AQUIFER - The saturated formation between low permeability layers that restrict movement of water vertically into or out of the saturated formation. Water is confined under pressure similar to water in a pipeline. In some areas confined aquifers produce water without pumps (flowing artesian well).

CONFINED SPACE - A space defined by the concurrent existence of the following conditions:

1. Existing ventilation is insufficient to remove dangerous air contamination and/or oxygen deficiency which may exist or develop, and
2. Ready access or egress (getting out) for the removal of a suddenly disabled employee (operator) is difficult due to the location and/or size of the opening(s).

CONFIRMED - A stage in the threat evaluation process in which there is definitive evidence and information to establish that an incident or major event has occurred.

CONSECUTIVE SYSTEM - Includes all systems that buy or otherwise receive some or all of their finished water from another public water system on a regular basis.

CONSUMER CONFIDENCE REPORT (CCR) - All community water systems are required to deliver to their customers an annual report. This report must contain information on the quality of the water delivered by the system and characterize the risks, if any, from exposure to contaminants detected in the drinking water in an accurate and understandable manner. Systems shall deliver their reports no later than July 1 annually. Each report must contain data collected during, or prior to, the previous calendar year. A community water system that sells water to another community water system shall deliver the applicable information noted above to the buyer system no later than April 1 annually.

CONTAMINANT - Anything found in water (including microorganisms, minerals, chemicals, radionuclides, etc.) which may be harmful to human health.

CONTAMINATION - The introduction into water of microorganisms, chemicals, toxic substances, wastes, or wastewater in concentration that makes the water unfit for its next intended use.

CONTINUOUS SAMPLE - A flow of water from a particular place in a plant to the location where samples are collected for testing. This continuous stream may be used to obtain grab or composite samples. Frequently, several taps (faucets) will flow continuously in the laboratory to provide test samples from various places in a water treatment plant.

CORPORATION STOP - A water service shutoff valve located at a street water main. This valve cannot be operated from the ground surface because it is buried and there is not valve box. Also called a CORPORATION COCK.

CORROSION - The gradual decomposition or destruction of a material by chemical reaction. Corrosion may be caused by (1) stray current electrolysis, (2) galvanic corrosion caused by dissimilar metals, or (3) differential-concentration cells. Corrosion starts at the surface of a material and moves inward.

CORROSION INHIBITORS - Substances that slow the rate of corrosion.

CORROSIVE - Having the capability or tendency to cause corrosion

CORROSIVITY - An indication of the corrosiveness of water. The corrosiveness of water is described by the water's pH, alkalinity, hardness, temperature, total dissolved solids, dissolved oxygen concentration, and the Langelier Index.

COUPON - A steel specimen inserted into water to measure the corrosiveness of water. The rate of corrosion is measured as the loss of weight of the coupon (in milligrams) per surface area (in square decimeters) exposed to the water per day.

CREDIBLE - A stage in the threat evaluation process in which there is information to corroborate a threat.

CROSS-CONNECTION - A connection between a drinking (potable) water system and an unapproved water supply. For example, if you have a pump moving nonpotable water and hooking into the drinking water system to supply water for pump seal, a cross-connection or mixing between the two water systems can occur. This mixing may lead to contamination of the drinking water.

CROSS-CONNECTION CONTROL DEVICE - Any device or assembly, approved by the Commissioner for construction on or installation in water supply piping, which is capable of preventing contaminants from entering the public water supply distribution system.

CROSS-CONNECTION HAZARD - Any customer facility which, because of the nature and extent of activities on the premises, or the materials used in connection with the activities or stored on the premises, would present an immediate or potential danger or health hazard to customers of the public water supply should backflow occur.

CRYPTOSPORIDIUM - A microorganism commonly found in lakes and rivers which is highly resistant to disinfection. *Cryptosporidium* has caused several large outbreaks of gastrointestinal illness, with symptoms that include diarrhea, nausea, and/or stomach cramps. People with severely weakened immune systems are likely to have more severe and more persistent symptoms than healthy individuals.

CT or CT_{calc} - The product of “residual disinfectant concentration” (C) in mg/L determined before or at the first customer, and the corresponding “disinfectant contact time” (T) in minutes, i.e., “C” x “T”. If a public water system applies disinfectants at more than one point prior to the first customer, it must determine the CT of each disinfectant sequence before or at the first customer to determine the total percent inactivation or “total inactivation ratio”. In determining the total inactivation ratio, the public water system must determine the residual disinfectant concentration of each disinfection sequence and corresponding contact time before any subsequent disinfection application point(s). “CT_{99.9}” is the CT value required for 99.9 Percent (3-log) inactivation of *Giardia* cysts. CT_{99.9} a variety of disinfectants and conditions appear in Tables 1.1- 1.6, 2.1, and 3.1 of section 141.74(b)(3) in the code of Federal Regulations. CT_{99.9} is the inactivation ratio. The sum of the inactivation ratios, or total inactivation ratio shown as $E = (CT_{calc}) / (CT_{99.9})$ is calculated by adding together the inactivation ratio for each disinfection sequence. A total inactivation ratio equal to or greater than 1.0 is assumed to provide a 3-log inactivation of *Giardia lamblia* cysts.

CURRENT - A movement of electrons through a conductor. Measured in amperes.

CUSTOMER SERVICE LINE - The pipeline from the public water supply to the: (1) First tap, fixture, receptacle, or other point of customer water use; or (2) Secondary source of supply or pipeline branch in a building.

DAY TANK - A tank used to store a chemical solution of known concentration for feed to a chemical feeder. A day tank usually stores sufficient chemical solution to properly treat the water being treated for at least one day. Also called an AGE TANK.

DECOMPOSITION - The conversion of chemically unstable materials to more stable forms by chemical or biological action. If organic matter decays when there is no oxygen present (anaerobic conditions or putrefaction), undesirable tastes and odors are produced. Decay of organic matter when oxygen is present (aerobic conditions) tends to produce much less objectionable tastes and odors.

DEGASIFICATION - A water treatment process which removes dissolved gases from the water. The gases may be removed by either mechanical or chemical treatment methods or a combination of both.

DENSITY - A measure of how heavy a substance (solid, liquid, or gas) is for its size. Density is expressed in terms of weights per unit volume, that is, grams per cubic centimeter or pounds per cubic foot. The density of water (at 4°C or 39°F) is 1.0 gram per cubic centimeter or about 62.4 pounds per cubic foot.

DENTAL FLUOROSIS - The whitish to brownish spots seen to appear on teeth caused by high levels of fluoride in the drinking water. Also known as “mottled enamel”

DETENTION TIME - The time allowed for water to collect in a settling tank. Theoretically detention time is equal to the volume of the tank divided by the flow rate.

DEWATER - To remove or separate a portion of the water present in a sludge or slurry. To dry sludge so it can be handled and disposed of. To remove or drain the water from a tank or trench.

DIRECT CURRENT - Electrical current flowing in one direction only and essentially free from pulsation.

DISCHARGE HEAD - The pressure (in pounds per square inch or psi) measured at the centerline of a pump discharge and very close to the discharge flange, converted into feet.

DISINFECTION - The process designed to kill most microorganisms in water, including essentially all pathogenic (disease-causing bacteria). There are several ways to disinfect, with chlorine being most frequently used in water treatment. Compare with **STERILIZATION**.

DISINFECTION BYPRODUCTS - A contaminant formed by the reaction of disinfection chemicals (such as chlorine) with other substances such as plant matter and other naturally occurring materials in the water. These byproducts may pose health risks in drinking water.

DISINFECTANTS/DISINFECTION BY-PRODUCTS RULE (DBPR) - The purpose of this rule is to reduce public exposure to three chemical disinfectants (chlorine, chloramines, and chlorine dioxide) and many disinfection by-products (total trihalomethanes, haloacetic acids, chlorite, and bromate).

DISINFECTANT RESIDUAL - Lingering disinfectant in the water distribution system to kill any other bacteria that might enter the distribution system later.

DISPLACEMENT METERS - These are used for measurement of low and intermediate flows, like domestic use applications. They are typically available in sizes from 5/8" through 2".

DISSOLVED SOLIDS - The total amount of dissolved material, organic and inorganic, contained in water. Excessive dissolved solids make water unpalatable for drinking and unsuitable for industrial use. Measurements are expressed as ppm or mg/L.

DISTRIBUTION FACILITIES - Pipes, treatment, storage and other facilities used to distribute drinking water to end users.

DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM - A network of pipes leading from a treatment plant to customers plumbing systems.

DOUBLE CHECK VALVE ASSEMBLY - A type of backflow prevention device. This device or assembly is composed of two tightly closing shut-off valves surrounding two independently acting check valves, with four test cocks, one upstream of the four valves, and one between each of the four check and shut-off valves.

DPD - A method of measuring the chlorine residual in water. The residual may be determined by either titrating or comparing a developed color with color standards. DPD stands for N,N-diethyl-p-phenylene-diamine.

DRAWDOWN - The drop in the water table or level of water in the ground when water is being pumped from a well. The amount of water used from a tank or reservoir. The drop in the water level of a tank or reservoir.

DRINKING WATER PRIMACY AGENCY - The agency that has primary enforcement responsibility for national drinking water regulations, namely those promulgated under the Safe Drinking Water Act as amended. Drinking water primacy for a particular State may reside in one of a variety of agencies such as the State Health Agency, the State Environmental Agency, or the EPA regional office. In West Virginia, this is WVDHHR/BPH/OEHS.

DROUGHT - A sustained period of inadequate or subnormal precipitation that can lead to water supply shortages, as well as increased water usage.

ESCHERICHIA COLI (E. COLI) - Microorganisms commonly found in the lower intestine of warm-blooded animals. An ideal indicator organism to test environmental samples for fecal contamination from human and animal waste. Can cause gastrointestinal illness (e.g., diarrhea, vomiting, cramps).

EFFLUENT - Water or other liquid - raw, partially or completely treated - flowing FROM a reservoir, basin, treatment process or treatment plant.

EJECTOR - A device used to disperse a chemical solution into water being treated.

ELEMENT - A substance which cannot be separated into its constituent parts and still retain chemical identity. For example, sodium (Na) is an element.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE PLAN - A document that describes the actions that a drinking water utility would take in response to various emergencies, disasters, and other unexpected incidents.

END POINT - Samples are titrated to the end point. This means that a chemical is added, drop by drop, to a sample until a certain color change (blue to clear, for example) occurs. This is called the END POINT of the titration. In addition to a color change, an end point may be reached by the formation of a precipitate or the reaching of a specified pH. An end point may be detected by the use of an electronic device such as a pH meter.

EPA - U. S. Environmental Protection Agency.

ENTERIC - Of intestinal origin, especially applied to wastes or bacteria.

ENTRAIN - To trap bubbles in water either mechanically through turbulence or chemically through a reaction.

EPIDEMIC - A disease that occurs in a large number people in a locality at the same time and spreads from person to person.

EPIDEMIOLOGY - A branch of medicine which studies epidemics (diseases which affect

significant numbers of people during the same time period in the same locality). The objective of epidemiology is to determine the factors that cause epidemic diseases and how to prevent them.

EVAPORATION - The process by which water or other liquid becomes a gas (water vapor or ammonia vapor)

EVAPOTRANSPIRATION - The process by which water vapor passes into the atmosphere from living plants. Also called **TRANSPIRATION**.

EXEMPTION - State or EPA permission for a water system not to meet a certain drinking water standard. An exemption allows a system additional time to obtain financial assistance or make improvements in order to come into compliance with the standard. The system must prove that: (1) there are compelling reasons (including economic factors) why it cannot meet EPA health standards (Maximum Contaminant Levels or Treatment Techniques); (2) it was in operation on the effective date of the requirement; and (3) the exemption will not create an unreasonable risk to public health. The state must set a schedule under which the water system will comply with the standard for which it received an exemption.

FECAL COLIFORM - Fecal coliform microorganisms come from human and animal fecal waste. Can cause gastrointestinal illness (e.g. diarrhea, vomiting, cramps).

FINISHED WATER - Water that has passed through a water treatment plant, and when all the treatment processes are completed or “finished”. This water is ready to be delivered to consumers. Also call **PRODUCT WATER**.

FLUORIDATION - The addition of a chemical to increase the concentration of fluoride ions in drinking water to a predetermined optimum limit to reduce the incidence (number) of dental caries (tooth decay) in children. Defluoridation is the removal of excess fluoride in drinking water to prevent the mottling (brown stains) of teeth.

FLUSHING - A method used to clean water distribution lines. Hydrants are opened and water with a high velocity flows through the pipes, removes deposits from the pipes, and flows out the hydrants.

FOOT VALVE - A special type of check valve located at the bottom end of the suction pipe on a pump. This valve opens when the pump operates to allow water to enter the suction pipe but closes when the pump shuts off to prevent water from flowing out of the suction pipe.

FREE AVAILABLE RESIDUAL CHLORINE - That portion of the total available residual chlorine composed of dissolved chlorine gas (Cl_2), hypochlorous acid (HOCl), and/or hypochlorite ion (OCI^-) remaining in water after chlorination. This does not include chlorine that has combined with ammonia, nitrogen, or other compounds.

FRICITION LOSSES - The head, pressure or energy (they are the same) lost by water flowing in a pipe of channel as a result of turbulence caused by the velocity of the flowing water and the

roughness of the pipe, channel walls, and restrictions caused by fittings. Water flowing in a pipe loses pressure or energy as a result of friction losses. Also see HEAD LOSS.

GASTROENTERITIS - An inflammation of the stomach and intestine resulting in diarrhea, with vomiting and cramps when irritation is excessive. When caused by an infectious agent, it is often associated with fever.

Giardia lamblia - Commonly referred to as *Giardia*. Flagellate protozoan which is shed during its cyst stage into the feces of man and animals. A microorganism frequently found in rivers and lakes, which, if not treated properly, may cause diarrhea, fatigue, and cramps after ingestion. When water containing these cysts is ingested, the protozoan causes a severe gastrointestinal disease called giardiasis. People with severely weakened immune systems are likely to have more severe and more persistent symptoms than healthy individuals.

GIARDIASIS - Intestinal disease caused by an infestation of *Giardia* flagellates.

GRAB SAMPLE - A single sample collected at a particular time and place which represents the composition of the water only at that time and place.

GRADE - (1) The elevation of the invert (lowest point) of the bottom of a pipeline, canal, culvert, or similar conduit. (2) The inclination or slope of a pipeline, conduit, stream channel, or natural ground surface; usually expressed in terms of the ratio or percentage of number of units of vertical rise or fall per unit of horizontal distance. A 0.5 percent grade would be a drop of one-half per hundred feet of pipe.

GREENSAND - A sand which looks like ordinary filter sand except that it is green in color. This sand is a natural ion exchange mineral which is capable of softening water.

GROUNDWATER RULE (GWR) - EPA rule to protect public health from waterborne microorganisms present in groundwater sources (i.e., sources unaffected by surface water). The GWR specifies the appropriate use of disinfection in groundwater and establishes a strategy to identify groundwater systems at high risk for contamination and requires a 4-log removal for viruses.

GROUNDWATER UNDER THE DIRECT INFLUENCE (GWUDI) OF SURFACE WATER - Any water beneath the surface of the ground with: 1) significant occurrence of Insects or other macroorganisms algae. or large-diameter pathogens such as *Giardia* or, 2) significant and relatively rapid shifts in water characteristics such as turbidity, temperature, conductivity, or pH which closely correlate to climatological or surface water conditions. Direct influence must be determined for individual sources in accordance with criteria established by the State. The State determination of direct influence may be based on site-specific measurements of water quality and/or documentation of well construction characteristics and geology with field evaluation.

HALOACETIC ACIDS (FIVE) (HAA5) - A group of disinfection by-products. The sum of the concentrations in milligrams per liter of the haloacetic acid compounds (monochloroacetic acid,

dichloroacetic acid, trichloroacetic acid, monobromoacetic acid, and dibromoacetic acid), rounded to two significant figures after addition.

HARD WATER - Water having a high concentration of calcium and magnesium ions. A water may be considered hard if it has hardness greater than the typical hardness of water from the region. Some textbooks define hard water with a hardness of more than 100 mg/L as calcium carbonate.

HARDNESS, WATER - A characteristic of water caused mainly by the salts of calcium and magnesium, such as bicarbonate, carbonate, sulfate, chlorine, and nitrate. Excessive hardness in water is undesirable because it causes the formation of soap curds, increased use of soap, deposition of scale in boilers, damage in some industrial processes, and sometimes causes objectionable tastes in drinking water.

HEAD - The vertical distance (in feet) equal to the pressure (in psi) at a specific point. The pressure head is equal to the pressure in psi times 2.31 ft/psi.

HEAD LOSS - The head, pressure or energy (they are the same) lost by water flowing in a pipe or channel as a result of turbulence caused by the velocity of the flowing water and the roughness of the pipe, channel walls or restrictions caused by fittings. Water flowing in a pipe loses head, pressure or energy as a result of friction losses. Also see FRICTION LOSSES.

HEALTH ADVISORY - An EPA document that provides guidance and information on contaminants that can affect human health and that may occur in drinking water.

HOSE BIB - Faucet. A location in a water line where a hose is connected.

HYDRAULIC GRADE LINE (HGL) - The surface or profile of water flowing in an open channel or pipe flowing partially full. If a pipe is under pressure, the hydraulic grade line is at the level water would rise to in a small vertical tube connected to the pipe. Also see ENERGY GRADE LINE.

HYDROLOGIC CYCLE - The process of evaporation of water into the air and its return to Earth by precipitation (rain or snow). This process also includes transpiration from plants, groundwater movement, and runoff into rivers, streams and the ocean. Also called the WATER CYCLE.

HYDROSTATIC PRESSURE - The pressure at a specific elevation exerted by a body of water at rest, or in the case of groundwater, the pressure at a specific elevation due to the weight of water at higher levels in the same zone of saturation.

HYPOCHLORINATION - The application of hypochlorite compounds to water for the purpose of disinfection.

IMPELLER - A rotating set of vanes in a pump designed to pump or lift water.

IMPERMEABLE - Not easily penetrated. The property of a material or soil that does not allow, or allows only with great difficulty, the movement or passage of water.

INDICATOR - A substance that gives a visible change, usually of color, at a desired point in a chemical reaction, generally at a specified end point.

INFLUENT - Water or other liquid - raw or partially treated - flowing INTO a reservoir, basin, or treatment process of treatment plant.

INORGANIC - Material such as sand, salt, iron, calcium salts and other mineral materials. Inorganic substances are of mineral origin, whereas organic substances are usually of animal or plant origin. Also see ORGANIC.

INSECTICIDE - Any substance or chemical formulated to kill or control insects.

INVERT - The lowest point of the channel inside a pipe, conduit, or canal.

LANGELIER INDEX - An index reflecting the equilibrium pH of water with respect to calcium and alkalinity. This index is used in stabilizing water to control both corrosion and the deposition of scale.

LEGIONELLA - A genus of bacteria, some species of which have caused a type of pneumonia called Legionnaires Disease.

LOCAL EMERGENCY PLANNING COMMITTEE (LEPC) - Established by the Emergency Planning and Community Right-to-Know Act, LEPCs have the job of increasing community hazardous materials safety through public education, emergency planning, responder training, conducting exercises, and reviewing actual responses to releases.

MACROSCOPIC - Organisms big enough to be seen by the eye without the aid of a microscope.

MASTER METERING - Large meter at a point of distribution to multiple uses or users that could be further sub metered.

MATERIAL SAFETY DATA SHEET - A document which provides pertinent information and a profile of a particular hazardous substance or mixture. An MSDS is required to be made available to employers and operators whenever there is the likelihood of the hazardous substance or mixture being introduced into a workplace.

MAXIMUM CONTAMINANT LEVEL (MCL) - The largest allowable amount. The highest level of a contaminant that is allowed in drinking water. MCLs are set as close to the MCLG as feasible using the best available treatment technology and taking cost into consideration. MCLs are enforceable standards. MCLs for various water quality indicators are specified in the National Interim Primary Drinking Water Regulations (NIPDWR).

MAXIMUM CONTAMINANT LEVEL GOAL (MCLG) - The level of a contaminant in drinking water below which there is no known or expected risk to health. MCLGs allow for a margin of safety. MCLGs are non-enforceable health goals.

MAXIMUM-DAY DEMAND - Total production for the water system on its highest day of production during a year.

MAXIMUM RESIDENCE TIME (MRT) – location where samples are collected for routine monitoring for TTHM and HAA5. The point of MRT for each plant is an active point (that is, the location is currently providing water to customers) in the distribution system where the water has been in the system the longest. This active point may not necessarily be the same as the most distant point from the treatment plant. Many factors can affect the location or locations determined to represent MRT, including the number of plants operating at the time of monitoring and seasonal variations in population.

MAXIMUM RESIDUAL DISINFECTION LEVEL (MRDL) - The highest level of a disinfectant allowed in drinking water. There is convincing evidence that the addition of a disinfectant is necessary for control of microbial contaminants.

MAXIMUM RESIDUAL DISINFECTANT LEVEL GOAL (MRDLG) - The level of a drinking water disinfectant below which there is no known or expected risk to health. Maximum Residual Disinfectant Level Goals do not reflect the benefits of the use of disinfectants to control microbial contaminants.

MENISCUS - The curved top of a column of liquid (water, oil, mercury) in a small tube. When the liquid wets the sides of the container (as with water), the curve forms a valley. When the confining sides are not wetted (as with mercury), the curve forms a hill or upward bulge.

METER - An instrument for measuring and recording water volume.

METER MAINTENANCE PROGRAM - Scheduled program whereby meters are tested and repaired before there is a noticeable drop in consumption.

MICROBIAL GROWTH - The activity and growth of microorganisms such as bacteria, algae, diatoms, plankton and fungi.

MICROORGANISMS - Living organisms that can be seen individually only with the aid of a microscope.

MILLIGRAMS PER LITER (mg/L) - A measure of the concentration by weight of a substance per unit volume. For practical purposes, one mg/L of a substance in fresh water is equal to one part per million parts (ppm).

MONITORING - Testing that water systems must perform to detect and measure contaminants. A water system that does not follow EPA's monitoring methodology or schedule is in violation, and may be subject to legal action.

NATIONAL PRIMARY DRINKING WATER REGULATIONS (NPDWR) - Legally enforceable standards that apply to public water systems. These standards protect drinking water quality by limiting the levels of specific contaminants that can adversely affect public health and which are known or anticipated to occur in public water supplies. Also known as Primary Standards.

NATIONAL SECONDARY DRINKING WATER REGULATIONS (NSDWR) - Non-enforceable federal guidelines regarding cosmetic effects (such as tooth or skin discoloration) or aesthetic effects (such as taste, odor, or color) of drinking water. Also known as Secondary Standards.

NIOSH - The *National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health* is an organization that tests and approves safety equipment for particular applications. NIOSH is the primary Federal agency engaged in research in the national effort to eliminate on-the-job hazards to the health and safety of working place. The NIOSH Publications Catalog contains a listing of NIOSH publications mainly on industrial hygiene and occupational health. To obtain a copy of the catalog, write to NIOSH Publications, 4676 Columbia Parkway, Cincinnati, Ohio 45226.

NON-ACCOUNT WATER - Metered source water less metered water sales.

NON-COMMUNITY WATER SYSTEM (NCWS) - A public water system that is not a community water system. There are two types of NCWSs: transient and non-transient.

NONPOINT SOURCE - A runoff or discharge from a field or similar source. A point source refers to a discharge that comes out the end of a pipe.

NONPOTABLE - Water that may contain objectionable pollution, contamination, minerals, or infective agents and is considered unsafe and/or unpalatable for drinking.

NON-RESIDENTIAL CUSTOMER - A commercial or industrial utility customer.

NON-TRANSIENT NON-COMMUNITY WATER SYSTEM (NTNCWS) - A public water system that regularly serves at least 25 of the same nonresident persons per day for more than six months per year.

NPDES PERMIT - National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System permit is the regulatory agency document designed to control all discharges of pollutant from point sources in U.S. waterways. NPDES permits regulate discharges into navigable waters from all point sources of pollution, including industries, municipal treatment plants, large agricultural feed lots and return irrigation flows.

ODOR THRESHOLD - The minimum odor of a water sample that can just be detected after successive dilutions with odorless water. Also called THRESHOLD ODOR.

OHMS - A unit of electrical resistance equal to that of a conductor in which a current of one ampere is produced by a potential of one volt across its terminals.

OLFACTORY FATIGUE - A condition in which a person's nose, after exposure to certain odors, is no longer able to detect the odor.

OLIGOTROPHIC - Reservoirs and lakes which are nutrient poor and contain little aquatic plant or animal life.

OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE COSTS - The ongoing, repetitive costs of operating a water system; for example, employee wages and costs for treatment chemicals and periodic equipment repairs.

ORGANIC - Substances that come from animal or plant sources. Organic substances always contain carbon. (Inorganic materials are chemical of mineral origin.) Also see INORGANIC.

ORGANICS - A term used to refer to chemical compounds made from carbon molecules. These compounds may be natural materials (such as animal and plant source) or man-made materials (such as synthetic organics). Also see ORGANIC.

ORGANISM - Any form of animal or plant life. See also BACTERIA.

OXIDANT - Oxidants are most often used for the oxidation of reduced iron and manganese, destruction of taste and odor causing organic contaminants. Many oxidants act as coagulant aids and are used as part of an overall program for the control of potentially harmful disinfection byproducts.

OXYGEN DEFICIENCY - An atmosphere containing oxygen at a concentration of less than 19.5 percent by volume.

PALATABLE - Water at a desirable temperature that is free from objectionable tastes, odors, colors, and turbidity. Pleasing to the senses.

PARTICULATE - A very small solid suspended in water which can vary widely in size, shape, density, and electrical charge. Colloidal and dispersed particulates are artificially gathered together by the processes of coagulation and flocculation.

PARTS PER MILLION (PPM) - Parts per million parts, measurement of concentration on a weight or volume basis. This term is equivalent to milligrams per liter (mg/L) which is the preferred term.

PASSIVATION - Covering the surface of pipes with a protective coating

PATHOGENIC ORGANISMS - Organisms, including bacteria, viruses or cysts, capable of causing diseases (typhoid, cholera, dysentery) in a host (such as a person). There are many types of organisms which do NOT cause disease. These organisms are called non-pathogenic.

PATHOGENS - Pathogenic or disease-causing organisms.

PEAK DEMAND - The maximum momentary load placed on a water treatment plant, pumping

station or distribution system. This demand is usually the maximum average load in one hour or less, but may be specified as the instantaneous or with some other short time period.

PER-CAPITA USE - Total use divided by the total population served.

PERISTALTIC METERING PUMP - A positive displacement pump that uses the alternating waves of contraction and dilation of a plastic tubing to move liquid through the tubing into the water line.

PERMEABILITY - An aquifer characteristic measure of how fast water can travel through material. A measure of interconnectivity of pore spaces.

PERSONAL PROTECTIVE EQUIPMENT (PPE) - Equipment and supplies designed to protect employees from serious injuries or illnesses resulting from contact with chemical, radiological, biological, or other hazards. PPE includes face shields, safety glasses, goggles, laboratory coats, gloves, and respirators.

pH - pH is an expression of the intensity of the basic or acid condition of a liquid. Mathematically, pH is the logarithm (base 10) of the reciprocal of the hydrogen ion activity.

PHENOLPHTHALEIN ALKALINITY - The alkalinity in a water sample measured by the amount of standard acid required to lower the pH to a level of 8.3, as indicated by the change in color of phenolphthalein from pink to clear. Phenolphthalein alkalinity is expressed as milligrams per liter equivalent calcium carbonate.

PITLESS ADAPTER - A fitting which allows the well casing to be extended above the ground while having a discharge connection located below the frost line. Advantages of using a pitless adapter include the elimination of the need for a pit or pump house and it is a water-tight design, which helps maintain a sanitary water supply.

PITOT GAUGE - Measures pressure of flowing water.

PLUG FLOW - A type of flow that occurs in tanks, basins or reactors when a slug of water moves through a tank without ever dispersing or mixing with the rest of the water flowing through the tank.

POINT SOURCE - A discharge that comes out of the end of a pipe. A nonpoint source refers to runoff or a discharge from a field or similar source.

POSITIVE DISPLACEMENT PUMP - A type of piston, diaphragm, gear or screw pump that delivers a constant volume with each stroke. Positive displacement pumps are used as chemical solution feeders.

PORE - A very small open space in a rock or granular material.

POROSITY - A measure of the spaces or voids in a material or aquifer. The ratio of the volume of spaces in a rock or soil to the total volume. This ratio is usually expressed as a percentage.

POSSIBLE - A stage in the threat evaluation process in which available information indicates there is an opportunity for an incident (i.e., the threat is possible).

POSTCHLORINATION - The addition of chlorine to the plant effluent, FOLLOWING plant treatment, for disinfection purposes.

POTABLE WATER - Water that does not contain objectionable pollution, contamination, minerals, or infective agents and is considered satisfactory for drinking.

POTASSIUM PERMANGANATE (KMnO₄) - A strong chemical oxidizer which can be used to destroy many organic compounds, both natural and manufactured, present in water supplies. Permanganate is also used to oxidize iron, manganese, and sulfide compounds and is often used in conjunction with aeration for the control of these and other taste- and odor-producing substances.

PRECHLORINATION - The addition of chlorine at the headworks of the plant PRIOR TO other treatment process mainly for disinfection and control of tastes, odors and aquatic growths. Also applied to aid in coagulation and settling.

PRECISION - The ability of an instrument to measure a process variable and to repeatedly obtain the same result. The ability of an instrument to reproduce the same results.

PRECURSOR - Natural organic compounds found in all surface and groundwaters. These compounds MAY react with halogens (such as chlorine) to form trihalomethanes; they MUST be present in order for THMs to form.

PRESSURE CONTROL - A switch which operates on changes in pressure. Usually this is a diaphragm pressing against a spring. When the force on the diaphragm overcomes the spring pressure, the switch is actuated (activated).

PRESSURE HEAD - The vertical distance (in feet) equal to the pressure (in psi) at a specific point. The pressure head is equal to the pressure in psi times 2.31 ft/psi.

PRESSURE REGULATOR - A post-meter device used to limit water pressure.

PRESSURE VACUUM BREAKER (PVB) - A type of backflow prevention device. A device or assembly containing an independently operating internal loaded check valve and an independently operating loaded air inlet valve located on the downstream side of the check valve for relieving a vacuum or partial vacuum in a pipeline.

PRIMACY - Primary enforcement authority for the drinking water program. Under the Safe Drinking Water Act, states, U.S. territories, and Indian tribes that meet certain requirements, including setting regulations that are at least as stringent as EPA's, may apply for, and receive, primary enforcement authority, or primacy.

PRIMACY AGENCY – The state agency that has been granted primary enforcement responsibility for administration and enforcement of primary drinking water regulations and related requirements applicable to public water systems within a state (40 CFR 142.2)

PRIME - The action of filling a pump casing with water to remove the air. Most pumps must be primed before startup of they will not pump any water.

PRODUCTION METER - Meters on wells for water leaving the plant or pumping station.

PROTOZOAN - Any of a large group of single-celled, usually microscopic, eukaryotic organisms, such as amoebas, ciliates, flagellates, and sporozoans.

PUBLIC NOTIFICATION - An advisory EPA or the state requires a water system to distribute to affected consumers when the system has violated Maximum Contaminant Levels or other regulations. The notice advises consumers what precautions, if any, they should take to protect their health.

PUBLIC WATER SYSTEM (PWS) - A system for the provision to the public of piped water for human consumption, If such system has at least fifteen service connections or regularly least 60 days out of the year. Such term includes: 1) any collection, treatment, storage, and distribution facilities under control of the operator of such system and used primarily in connection with such system, and 2) any collection or pretreatment storage facilities not under such control which are used primarily in connection with such system. A public water system is either a “community water system” or a “non-community water system.”

PUMPING WATER LEVEL - The vertical distance in feet from the centerline of the pump discharge to the level of the free pool while water is being drawn from the pool.

QUALITY ASSURANCE - An integrated system of management activities involving planning, implementation, documentation, assessment, reporting, and quality improvement, to ensure that a process, item, or service is of the type and quality needed and expected by the client.

QUALITY CONTROL - The overall system of technical activities that measures the attributes and performance of a process, item, or service against defined standards to verify that they meet the stated requirements established by the client; operational techniques and activities that are used to fulfill requirements for quality.

QUICKLIME - A material that is mostly calcium oxide (Ca) or calcium oxide in natural association with a lesser amount of magnesium oxide. Quicklime is capable of combining with water, that is, becoming slaked. Also see HYDRATED LIME.

RADIONUCLIDE - An unstable form of a chemical element that radioactively decays, resulting in the emission of nuclear radiation. Prolonged exposure to radionuclides increases the risk of cancer. All of the radionuclides known to occur in drinking water are currently regulated, except for radon and naturally-occurring uranium, both of which were proposed for regulation in October 1999.

RADON RULE - Developed to reduce public radon exposure and applies to all community water systems that use groundwater or mixed ground and surface water. The regulation does not apply to non-transient non-community public water supplies or to transient public water supplies.

RANNEY COLLECTOR - This water collector is constructed as a dug well from 12 to 16 feet (3.5 to 5 m) in diameter that has been sunk as a caisson near the bank of a river or lake. Screens are driven radially and approximately horizontally from this well into the sand and the gravel deposits underlying the river.

RATE - Monies collected for water provided. Every water utility must receive sufficient total revenue to ensure proper operations and maintenance, development and perpetuation of the system, and the preservation of the utility's financial integrity.

RATER STRUCTURE - Means of establishing charges for water usage.

RAW WATER - Water in its natural state, prior to any treatment. Usually the water entering the first treatment process of a water treatment plant.

REAGENT - A pure chemical substance that is used to make new products or is used in chemical tests to measure, detect, or examine other substances.

RECHARGE - Replenishment of groundwater.

REDUCED PRESSURE ZONE ASSEMBLY (RPZ) - A device composed of two tightly closing shut-off valves surrounding two independently acting pressure reducing check valves that, in turn, surround an automatic pressure differential relief valve, and four test cocks, one upstream of the five valves and one between each of the four check and shut-off valves. The check valves effectively divide the structure into three chambers; pressure is reduced in each downstream chamber allowing the pressure differential relief valve to vent the center chamber to atmosphere should either or both check valves malfunction.

RESIDUAL CHLORINE - The amount of free and/or available chlorine remaining after a given contact time under specified conditions.

REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLE - A sample portion of material or water that is as nearly identical in content and consistency as possible to that in the larger body of material or water being sampled.

RESERVIOR - Any natural or artificial holding area used to store; regulate, or control water.

RETAIL WATER METER - Meters to monitor large customer water usage.

REVENUE-PRODUCING WATER - Water metered and sold.

ROTAMETER - A device used to measure the flow rate of gases and liquids. The gas or liquid being measured flows vertically up a tapered, calibrated tube. Inside the tube is a small ball or bullet-shaped float (it may rotate) that rises or falls depending on the flow rate. The flow rate

may be read on a scale behind or on the tube by looking at the middle of the ball or at the widest part or top of the float.

SAFE DRINKING WATER ACT - Commonly referred to as SDWA. An Act passed by the U.S. Congress in 1974. The Act establishes a cooperative program among local, state, and federal agencies to insure safe drinking water for consumers.

SAFE YIELD - The annual quantity of water that can be taken from a source of supply over a period of years without depleting the source permanently (beyond its ability to be replenished naturally in “wet years”).

SAMPLE - The water that is analyzed for the presence of EPA-regulated drinking water contaminants. Depending on the regulation, EPA requires water systems and states to take samples from source water, from water leaving the treatment facility, or from the taps of selected consumers.

SANITARY SURVEY - A detailed evaluation and/or inspection of a source of water supply and all conveyances, storage, treatment and distribution facilities to insure its protection from all pollution sources.

SATURATED ZONE - Area beneath the unsaturated zone where all interconnected openings contain water, and is officially considered groundwater.

SATURATOR - A device which produces fluoride solution for the fluoridation process. The device is usually a cylindrical container with granular sodium fluoride on the bottom. Water flows either upward or downward through the sodium fluoride to produce the fluoride solution.

SEPTIC - A condition produced by bacteria when all oxygen supplies are depleted. If severe, bottom deposits and water turn black, give foul odors, and the water has greatly increased chlorine demand.

SEQUESTRATION - A chemical complexing (forming or joining together) of metallic cations (such as iron) with certain inorganic compounds, such as phosphate. Sequestration prevents the precipitation of the metal (iron). Also see CHELATION.

SHORING EQUIPMENT - Equipment installed in trenches to prevent the collapse of the trench.

SHORT-CIRCUITING - A condition that occurs in tanks or basins when some of the water travels faster than the rest of the flowing water. This is usually undesirable since it may result in shorter contact, reaction, or settling times in comparison with the theoretical (calculated) or presumed detention times.

SOFT WATER - Water having a low concentration of calcium and magnesium ions. According to U.S. Geological Survey guidelines, soft water is water having a hardness of 60 milligrams per liter or less.

SOLE SOURCE AQUIFER - An aquifer that supplies 50 percent or more of the drinking water of an area.

SOLUTION - A liquid mixture of dissolved substances. In a solution it is impossible to see all the separate parts.

SOURCE-OF-SUPPLY - Facilities used to extract and/or store raw water prior to transmission and distribution.

SOURCE METER - A meter used to record water withdrawn from a surface water or groundwater source, or purchased from a wholesale supplier.

SOURCE WATER - Water in its natural state, prior to any treatment for drinking. See finished water.

SOURCE WATER ASSESSMENT - Provides information about the potential contaminant threats to public drinking water sources.

SPECIFIC CAPACITY - Expresses the productivity of a well. Specific capacity is obtained by dividing the well discharge rate by the well drawdown while pumping. It is calculated by dividing the production of the well in gallons per minute by the feet of drawdown between the static water level and the pumping water level. Water levels need to stabilize before measurements are made. The gallons per minute should be the normal production rate of the well and pumping equipment.

SPECIFIC YIELD - The quantity of water that a unit volume of saturated permeable rock or soil will yield when drained by gravity. Specific yield may be expressed as a ratio or as a percentage by volume.

STAGE 1 DISINFECTANTS/DISINFECTION BY-PRODUCT RULE (S1DBPR) - The purpose of this rule is to reduce public exposure to three chemical disinfectants (chlorine, chloramines, and chlorine dioxide) and many disinfection by-products (total trihalomethanes, haloacetic acids, chlorite, and bromate).

STANDARD

STANDARD METHODS FOR THE EXAMINATION OF WATER AND WASTEWATER - A joint publication of the *American Public Health Association*, *American Water Works Association*, and the *Water Pollution Control Federation* which outlines the procedures used to analyze the impurities in water and wastewater.

STATE REVOLVING FUND (SRF) - State loan funds for water utilities established under the Safe Drinking Water Act.

STATIC HEAD - When water is not moving, the vertical distance (in feet) from a specific point to the water surface. The static pressure in psi is the static head in feet times 0.433 psi/ft. Also see DYNAMIC PRESSURE and STATIC PRESSURE.

STATIC PRESSURE - When water is not moving, the vertical distance (in feet) from a specific point to the water surface. The static pressure in psi is the static head in feet times 0.433 psi/ft. Also see DYNAMIC PRESSURE and STATIC PRESSURE.

STATIC WATER LEVEL - The elevation or level of the water table in a well when the pump is not operating. The level or elevation to which water would rise in a tube connected to an artesian aquifer, or basin, or conduit under pressure.

STERILIZATION - The removal or destruction of all microorganisms, including pathogenic and other bacteria, vegetative forms and spores. Compare with DISINFECTION.

SUCTION LIFT - The NEGATIVE pressure [in feet (meters) of water or inches (centimeters) of mercury vacuum] on the suction side of the pump. The pressure can be measured from the centerline of the pump DOWN TO (life) the elevation of the hydraulic grade line on the suction side of the pump.

SURFACE WATER - All water naturally open to the atmosphere (rivers, lakes, reservoirs, streams, impoundments, seas, estuaries, etc.) and all springs, wells, or other collectors which are directly influenced by surface water.

TELEMETRY - The electrical link between the transmitter and the receiver. Telephone lines are commonly used to serve as the electrical line.

THREAT - An indication that a harmful *incident*, such as contamination of the drinking water supply, may have occurred. The threat may be direct, such as a verbal or written threat, or circumstantial, such as a security breach or unusual water quality.

THREAT EVALUATION - Part of the threat management process in which all available and relevant information about the threat is evaluated to determine if the threat is 'possible' or 'credible', or if an incident has been 'confirmed.' This is an iterative process in which the threat evaluation is revised as additional information becomes available. The conclusions from the threat evaluation are considered when making response decisions.

THREAT MANAGEMENT - The process of evaluating a contamination threat and making decisions about appropriate response actions. The threat management process includes the parallel activities of the *threat evaluation* and making *response decisions*. The threat management process is considered in three stages: 'possible', 'credible', and 'confirmatory.' The severity of the threat and the magnitude of the response decisions escalate as a threat progresses through these stages.

THREAT WARNING - An occurrence or discovery that indicates a threat of a malevolent act and triggers an evaluation of the threat.

THRUST BLOCK - A mass of concrete or similar material appropriately placed around a pipe to prevent movement when the pipe is carrying water. Usually placed at bends and valve structures.

TITRATE - To TITRATE a sample, a chemical solution of known strength is added on a drop-by-drop basis until a certain color change, precipitate, or pH change in the sample is observed (end point). Titration is the process of adding the chemical reagent in increments until completion of the reaction, as signaled by the end point.

TOTAL COLIFORM - Coliforms (including fecal coliform and *E. coli*) are naturally present in the environment. Fecal Coliforms and *E. coli* come from human and animal fecal waste. Total Coliform are used as an indicator that other potential harmful bacteria may be present.

TOTAL DISSOLVED SOLIDS (TDS) - All of the dissolved solids in a water. TDS is measured on a sample of water that has passed through a very fine mesh filter to remove suspended solids. The water passing through the filter is evaporated and the residue represents the dissolved solids. Also see SPECIFIC CONDUCTANCE.

TOTAL DYNAMIC HEAD (TDH) - When a pump is lifting or pumping water, the vertical distance (in feet) from the elevation of the energy grade line on the suction side of the pump to the elevation of the energy grade line on the discharge side of the pump.

TOTAL RESIDUAL CHLORINE - The amount of available chlorine remaining after a given contact time. The sum of the combined available residual chlorine and the free available residual chlorine. Also see RESIDUAL CHLORINE.

TOXIC - A substance which is poisonous to an organism.

TUBERCULATION - Development or formation of small mounds of corrosion products on the inside of iron pipe. These tubercles roughen the inside of the pipe, increasing its resistance to water flow.

TRANSIENT WATER SYSTEM - A non-community water system that does not serve 25 of the same nonresident persons per day for more than six months per year. Also called a transient non-community water system (TNCWS).

TRANSMISSION FACILITIES - Pipes used to transport raw or treated water to distribution facilities.

TRANSPIRATION - The evaporation of water from plants.

TREATED WATER - Water treated to meet drinking water standards.

TREATMENT TECHNIQUE - A required process intended to reduce the level of a contaminant in drinking water.

TRICHALOMETHANES (THM) - A byproduct of drinking water disinfection. Can cause liver, kidney, or central nervous system problems, as well as increase the risk of cancer.

TUBERCULE - A protective crust of corrosion products (rust) which builds up over a pit caused by the loss of metal due to corrosion.

UNACCOUNTED-FOR WATER - The amount of non-account water less known or estimated losses and leaks.

UNCONFINED AQUIFER - The saturated formation in which the upper surface fluctuates with addition or subtraction of water. The upper surface of an unconfined aquifer is called the water table. Water, contained in an unconfined aquifer, is free to move laterally in response to differences in the water table elevations. Also known as a water table aquifer.

UNSATURATED ZONE - Area immediately beneath the earth surface that contains both water and area, and is not considered groundwater.

UN-METERED WATER - Water delivered but not measured for accounting and billing purposes.

VARIANCE - State or EPA permission not to meet a certain drinking water standard. The water system must prove that: (1) it cannot meet a Maximum Contaminant Level, even while using the best available treatment method, because of the characteristics of the raw water, and (2) the variance will not create an unreasonable risk to public health. The state or EPA must review, and allow public comment on, a variance every three years. States can also grant variances to water systems that serve small populations and which prove that they are unable to afford the required treatment, an alternative water source, or otherwise comply with the standard.

VELOCITY - A measure of how fast water flows, usually expressed in feet/second or (distance/time).

VENTURI METER - A flow measuring device placed in a pipe. The device of a tube whose diameter gradually decreases to a throat and then gradually expands to the diameter of the pipe. The flow is determined on the bases of the differences in pressure (caused by different velocity heads) between the entrance and throat of the Venturi meter.

VIOLATION - A failure to meet any state or federal drinking water regulation.

VIRUS - The smallest form of microorganisms capable of causing disease. Especially, a virus of fecal origin that is infectious to humans by waterborne transmission.

VOLATILE - A substance that is capable of being evaporated or easily changed to a vapor at relatively low temperatures. For example, gasoline is a highly volatile liquid.

VOLTAGE - The electrical pressure available to cause a flow of current (amperage) when an electrical circuit is closed. Also called ELECTROMOTIVE FORCE (E.M.F.)

VULNERABILITY ASSESSMENT - An evaluation of drinking water source quality and its vulnerability to contamination by pathogens and toxic chemicals. A systematic process for evaluating the susceptibility of critical facilities to potential threats and identifying corrective actions that can reduce or mitigate the risk of serious consequences associated with these threats.

WATER AUDIT - A thorough examination of the accuracy of water agency records or accounts

(volumes of water) and system control equipment. Water managers can use audits to determine their water distribution system efficiency. The overall goal is to identify and verify water and revenue losses in a water system.

WATERBORNE DISEASE OUTBREAK - The significant occurrence of acute infectious illness, epidemiologically associated with the ingestion of water from a public water system that is deficient in treatment, as determined by the appropriate local or state agency.

WATER CONTAMINATION INCIDENT - A situation in which a contaminant has been successfully introduced into the system. A water contamination incident may or may not be preceded by a water contamination threat

WATER CONTAMINATION THREAT - A situation in which the introduction of a contaminant into the water system is threatened, claimed, or suggested by evidence. Compare *water contamination threat* with *water contamination incident*. Note that threatening a water system may be a crime under the Safe Drinking Water Act as amended by the Bioterrorism Act.

WATER CYCLE - Also known as the hydrologic cycle, describes the continuous movement of water on, above, and below the surface of the Earth. Processes include precipitation, condensation, interception, runoff, infiltration/percolation, transpiration and evaporation.

WATER HAMMER - The sound like someone hammering on a pipe that occurs when a valve is opened or closed very rapidly. When a valve position is changed quickly, the water pressure in a pipe will increase and decrease back and forth very quickly. This rise and fall in pressure can do serious damage to the system.

WATER RIGHT - A property right or legal claim to withdraw a specified amount of water in a specified time frame for a beneficial use.

WATERSHED - A regional land area, defined by topography, soil, and drainage characteristics, within which raw waters collect and replenish supplies.

WATER TABLE - The upper surface of the zone of saturation of groundwater in an unconfined aquifer. All water beneath is considered groundwater.

WELL LOG - A record of the thickness and characteristics of the soil, rock and water-bearing formations encountered during the drilling (sinking) of a well.

WELLHEAD PROTECTION AREA - The area surrounding a drinking water well or well field which is protected to prevent contamination of the well(s).

WET CHEMISTRY - Laboratory procedures used to analyze a sample of water using liquid chemical solutions (wet) instead of, or in addition to, laboratory instruments.

WHOLESALE WATER - Water purchased or sold for resale purposes.

WHOLESALE SYSTEM - A public water system that treats source water as necessary and then delivers finished water to another public water system. Delivery may be through a direct connection or through the distribution system of another consecutive system.

YIELD - The quantity of water (expressed as a rate of flow - GPM, GPH, GPD, or total quantity per year) that can be collected for a given use from surface or groundwater sources. The yield may vary with the use proposed, with the plan of development, and also with economic consideration. Also see SAFE YIELD.

ZETA POTENTIAL - In coagulation and flocculation procedures, the difference in the electrical charge between the dense layer of ions surrounding the particle and the charge of the bulk of the suspended fluid surrounding this particle. The zeta potential is usually measured in millivolts.

ZONE OF SATURATION - The soil or rock located below the top of the groundwater table. By definition, the zone of saturation is saturated with water. Also see WATER TABLE.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AA	Atomic Absorption
AC	Alternating Current
AOP	Advance Oxidation Process
ART	Average residence time
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
ANSI	American National Standards Institute
AVB	Atmospheric Vacuum Breaker
AWWA	American Water Works Association
BAT	Best Available Technology
BMP	Best Management Practice
BPH	Bureau for Public Health of WVDHHR
C&E	Compliance & Enforcement Section of OEHS
C&T	Certification & Training Section of OEHS
CCL	Contaminant Candidate List
CCR	Consumer Confidence Report
CDC	Center for Disease Control
CDS	Combined Distribution System
CEH	Continuing Education Hour
CEU	Continuing Education Unit
CFE	Combined Filter Effluent
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
COC	Chain of Custody
CPE	Comprehensive Performance Evaluation
CT	Contact Time
CWS	Community Water System
DAF	Dissolved Air Flotation
DC	Direct Current
DCVA	Double Check Valve Assembly
D/DBP	Disinfectants/Disinfection Byproducts
DBP	Disinfection Byproduct
DBPFP	Disinfection Byproduct Formation Potential
DBPR	Disinfection Byproduct Rule
DE	Diatomaceous Earth
DI	Deionized
DOC	Dissolved Organic Carbon
DPD	<i>N,N</i> -diethyl- <i>p</i> -phenylenediamine
DWSRF	Drinking Water State Revolving Fund
EBCT	Empty Bed Contact Time
EC	Enhanced Coagulation
EDTA	Ethylenediamine Tetraacetic Acid
EED	Environmental Engineering Division of OEHS
EMF	Electromotive force
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
ERL	Emergency Response Lead

ERP	Emergency Response Plan
FOIA	Freedom of Information Act
GAC	Granulated Activated Carbon
GC	Gas Chromatograph
GIS	Geographic Information System
GCPD	Gallons Per Capita Per Day
GWR	GroundWater Rule
GWUDI	Groundwater under the direct influence of surface water
HAA5	Haloacetic Acids, group of 5: mono-, di-, and trichloroacetic acids; and mono- and dibromoacetic acids
HAAFP	Haloacetic Acid Formation Potential
HDPE	High Density Polyethylene
HTH	High Test Hypochlorite
HTML	Hypertext Markup Language
I&CD	Infrastructure & Capacity Development Section of OEHS
ICR	Information Collection Rule
IDHL	Immediately Dangerous to Health or Life
IDSE	Initial Distribution System Evaluation
IESWTR	Interim Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule
IFE	Individual Filter Effluent
IOC	Inorganics Chemicals
LEL	Lower Explosive Limit
LEPC	Local Emergency Planning Committee
LOTO	Lock Out/Tag Out
LRAA	Locational Running Annual Average
LSI	Langelier Saturation Index
LT1ESWTR	Long Term 1 Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule
LT2ESWTR	Long Term 2 Enhanced Surface Water Treatment Rule
MCL	Maximum Contaminant Level
MCLG	Maximum Contaminant Level Goal
M-DBP	Microbial-Disinfectants/Disinfection Byproducts
MRDL	Maximum Residual Disinfection Level
MRDLG	Maximum Residual Disinfectant Level Goal
MF	Microfiltration
MOR	Monthly Operational Reports
MRDL	Maximum Residual Disinfectant Level
MRDLG	Maximum Residual Disinfectant Level Goal
MRL	Minimum Reporting Level
MRT	Maximum Residence Time
MSDS	Material Safety Data Sheets
MWC	Molecular Weight Cutoff
NFPA	National Fire Protection Association
NCI	National Cancer Institute
NF	Nanofiltration
NFPA	National Fire Protection Association
NIOSH	National Institute for Occupational Safety & Health
NOM	Natural Organic Matter

NPDWR	National Primary Drinking Water Regulation
NPSH	Net Positive Suction Head
NSDWR	National Secondary Drinking Water Regulation
NSF	National Sanitation Foundation
NTNCWS	Non-transient, Non-community Water System
NTU	Nephelometric Turbidity Unit
O&M	Operation and Maintenance
OC	Organic Chemicals
OEHS	Office of Environmental Health Services
OIT	Operators-in-Training
OSHA	Occupational Safety & Health Association
PAC	Powdered Activated Carbon
PACl	Polyaluminum Chloride
PC	Personal Computer
PDF	Portable Document Format
PE	Performance Evaluation
PLC	Programmable Logic Controller
PN	Public Notification
PODR	Point of Diminishing Return
PPE	Personal Protective Equipment
PR	Public Relations
PSC	West Virginia Public Service Commission
PVB	Pressure Vacuum Breaker
PVC	Polyvinyl Chloride
PWS	Public Water System
PWSID	Public Water System Identification
RAA	Running Annual Average
RAM	Random Access Memory
RO	Reverse Osmosis
RPZ	Reduced Pressure Zone Assembly
RTU	Remote Terminal Units
SCBA	Self-Contained Breathing Apparatus
SCADA	Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition
SDS	Simulated Distribution System
SDWA	Safe Drinking Water Act
SDWIS	Safe Drinking Water Information System
SEER	Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results
SMCL	Secondary Maximum Contaminant Level
SOC	Synthetic Organic Chemical
SPADNS	Sodium 2-(parasulfophenylazo)-1,8-dihydroxy-3,6-naphthalene disulfonate
SSS	System-Specific Study
SUVA	Specific Ultraviolet Absorption
SWAP	Source Water Assessment and Protection
SWTR	Surface Water Treatment Rule
TC	To Contain
TCR	Total Coliform Rule

TD	To Deliver
TDS	Total Dissolved Solids
TDT	Theoretical Detention Time
THM	Trihalomethane
TTHFP	Total Trihalomethane Formation Potential
TNCWS	Transient Non-community Water System
TOC	Total Organic Carbon
TOX	Total Organic Halides
TOXFP	Total Organic Halides Formation Potential
TT	Treatment Techniques
TTHM	Total Trihalomethanes
UEL	Upper Explosive Limit
UF	Ultrafiltration
USB	Universal Serial Bus
USGS	United States Geological Survey
UV	Ultraviolet
UV-254	Ultraviolet absorbance at a wavelength of 254 nm
VOC	Volatile Organic Chemical
VSS	Very Small System
WD	Water Distribution
WHPA	Wellhead Protection Area
WTP	Water Treatment Plant
WVDEP	West Virginia Department of Environmental Protection
WVDHHR	West Virginia Division of Health and Human Resources

CONTACTS

OFFICE OF ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH SERVICES

Environmental Engineering Division
350 Capitol Street, Room 313
Charleston, West Virginia 25301-3713
www.wvdhhr.org/oehs/eed/default.asp

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District Offices

Beckley District Office	Phone: 304-256-6666	Fax: 304-256-6672
Kearneysville District Office	Phone: 304-725-9453	Fax: 304-725-3108
Fairmont District Office	Phone: 304-368-2530	Fax: 304-367-2755
St. Albans District Office	Phone: 304-722-0611	Fax: 304-722-0615
Wheeling District Office	Phone: 304-238-1145	Fax: 304-238-1002

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Infrastructure & Capacity Development Program

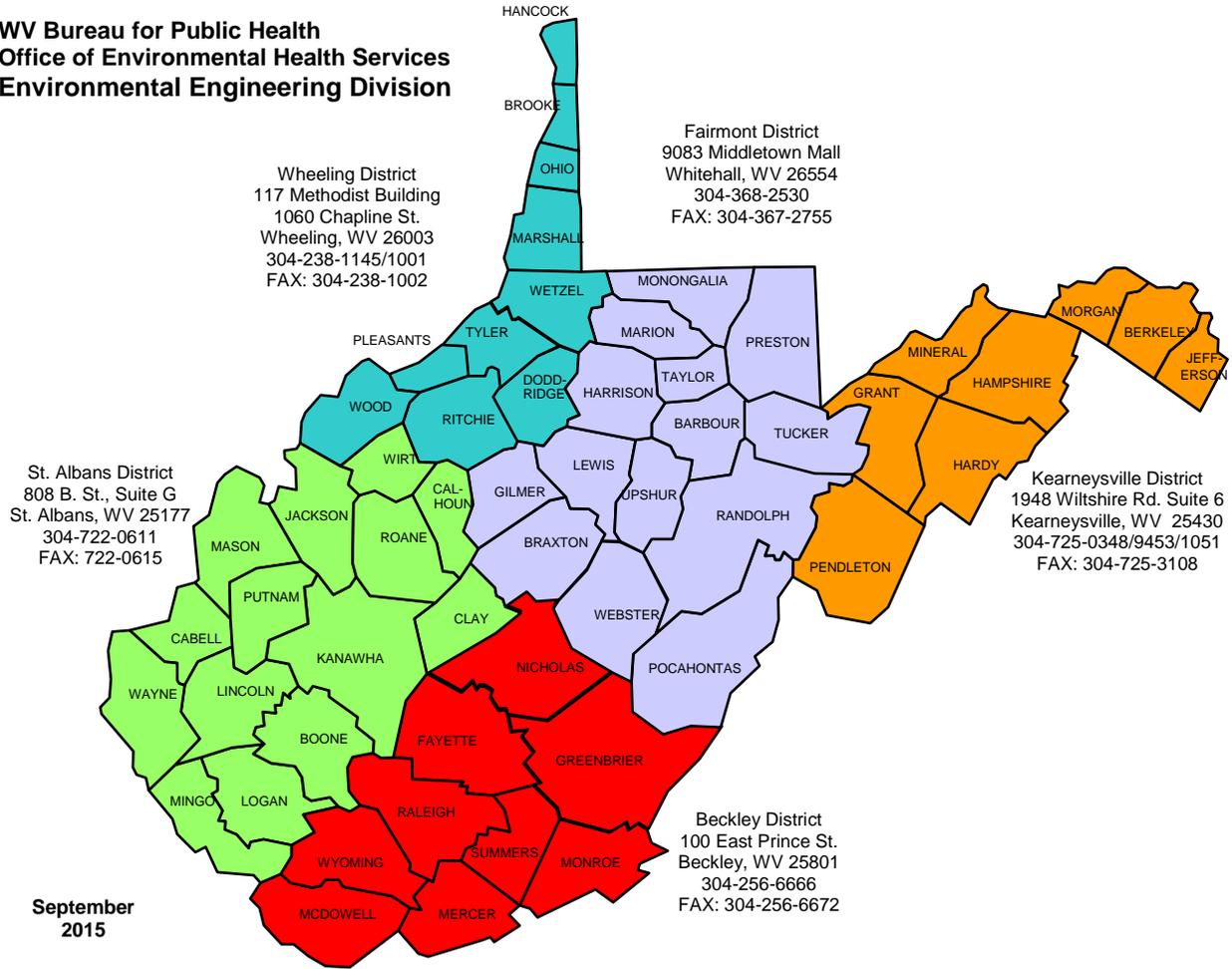
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**WV Bureau for Public Health
Office of Environmental Health Services
Environmental Engineering Division**



**September
2015**

ADDITIONAL CONTACTS

OFFICE OF LABORATORY SERVICES

167 Eleventh Avenue
South Charleston, WV 25303
(304) 558-3530

www.wvdhhr.org/labservices

OLS is part of the WV Department of Health and Human Resources Bureau for Public Health. OLS is dedicated to the promotion and protection of WV's public health by supporting state and local infectious disease control efforts through diagnostic testing, preventing metabolic disorders detectable at birth, and assuring the quality of testing in clinical and environmental laboratories. OLS's duties include water quality laboratory certification.

WEST VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION

601 57th Street, S.E.
Charleston, WV 25304
(304) 926-0441

www.dep.wv.gov

WVDEP's Division of Water and Waste Management's mission is to preserve and enhance WV's watersheds for the benefit and safety of all. The Division of Water and Waste Management strives to meet its mission through implementation of programs controlling surface and groundwater pollution caused by industrial and municipal discharges as well as oversight of construction, operation and closure of hazardous and solid waste and underground storage tank sites. In addition, the Division works to protect, restore, and enhance WV's watersheds through comprehensive watershed assessments, groundwater monitoring, wetlands preservation, inspection and enforcement of hazardous and solid waste disposal and proper operation of underground storage tanks. Very generally speaking, PWS chief operators may be involved with them for any system discharges to streams or waste management issues, among other things.

WEST VIRGINIA DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

Division of Highways
Building 5, Room A-110
1900 Kanawha Boulevard, East
Charleston, WV 25305-0430
(304) 558-3505

www.wvdot.com

WV DOT's Division of Highways is responsible for planning, engineering, right-of-ways acquisition, construction, reconstruction, traffic regulation and maintenance of more than 34,000 miles of state roads. Contact information was included because very generally speaking, PWS chief operators must coordinate with them during any activity (ie. repairs or main line extensions) on right-a-ways.

WEST VIRGINIA ENVIRONMENTAL TRAINING CENTER

HC 88, Box 21
Ripley, WV 25271
(304) 372-7878

www.wvetc.org

WVETC was established in 1983 under the administration of the WV Department of Education. Federal grant funds were obtained from the EPA to construct and equip the facility for the purpose of providing training to wastewater and water plant operators. Continued operation is overseen by the WVDE through Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) V.

WEST VIRGINIA PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION

201 Brooks Street
P.O. Box 812
Charleston, WV 25323
(304) 340-0300

www.psc.state.wv.us

PSC contact information was included because very generally speaking, PWS chief operators may be involved with them for line extensions, rate changes, and construction, among other things. The Water and Wastewater Division, formerly the Public Service District Division, was renamed on September 6, 1996, by Commission General Order No. 195.30. The Division was renamed to meet the directives of Senate Bill 568, enacted during the 1996 regular legislative session, which required the Commission to provide advice and assistance to Class III cities and Class IV towns or villages upon their request. By General Order No. 195.30, the Commission also delegated the Public Service District Division the responsibility for processing cases for municipalities and homeowner associations. The Public Service District Division, in the same General Order, was renamed the Water and Wastewater Division. On December 1, 2005, the Commission issued General Order 195.53, which placed the financial regulatory responsibility for all water and wastewater utilities in the Division. Employees include a director, two managers, two supervisors, two secretaries, and nineteen staff members with various technical and educational backgrounds. These employees are assigned to two operating sections: Case Control and Assistance. A delineation of the Water and Wastewater Division's current responsibilities for all water and sewer utilities include:

- Investigating formal cases and making recommendations to the Commission;
- Performing detailed management and operation audits known as Focused Management Audits;
- Participating in hearings before the Commission and offering evidence and testimony regarding revenue requirements, operating performance, quality of service, and construction activities;
- Investigating informal complaints and responding to customer requests for information; and,
- Responding to water and wastewater utility inquiries for technical, operational, financial, and regulatory assistance.

WEST VIRGINIA RURAL WATER ASSOCIATION

100 Young Street
Scott Depot, WV 25560
(304) 201-1689 / 1 (800) 339-4513

www.wvrwa.org

Created in 1985, WVRWA's mission is to provide WV public water and wastewater systems with responsive, comprehensive and high quality leadership and support services. WVRWA offers free training and technical assistance to all public utilities in WV and has an extensive library of technical materials that utilities can take advantage of. There are circuit riders who travel the state visiting utilities and offering their expertise in water and wastewater needs. In addition, WVRWA conducts over eighty training sessions each year in an effort to keep utility system employees informed in all matters concerning water and wastewater. WVRWA works in conjunction with the WVDHHR and the Rural Utilities Services in providing the needed expertise for all utility systems and their employees. WVRWA is committed to providing the training and technical assistance wherever it is needed.

WEST VIRGINIA RURAL COMMUNITY ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

2 Hale Street, Suite 100
Charleston, WV 25301
(304) 347-2277

www.wvcommunityactionpartnership.org/rcap.html

WVRCAP is part of a national network of service providers offering technical services on a local level to small rural communities, primarily in the development and/or management of water and wastewater facilities. WVRCAP strives to improve the overall living conditions for rural communities by assisting their community efforts to insure safe drinking water and sanitary wastewater treatment. The national RCAP program began in 1969 with roots in rural America and the early federal anti-poverty efforts resulting in the formation of 6 regional RCAP organizations across the U.S. to provide technical support on a local level.

MISS UTILITY OF WEST VIRGINIA

5608 MacCorkle Ave. S.W.
South Charleston, WV 25309
1 (800) 245-4848

www.muwv.org

Effective July 15, 1996 (modified June 10, 2006), WV Chapter 24-C, Underground Facility Damage Prevention act became law. The state law provides for the certification and operation of a statewide one call system. Miss Utility of West Virginia, Inc. (MUWV), a not-for-profit, private corporation and in operation since 1981, meets all requirements to function in this capacity. Its purpose is to receive notification of proposed excavation, demolition or other earth disturbing activities from persons planning to do such work. MUWV will relay this information to member owners/operators of underground facilities in order for them to determine the location of and mark their facilities. Damage to underground facilities is prevented, the general safety of the public is maintained and unnecessary lost time is avoided by the excavator. MUWV can be contacted 24 hours a day, 7 days a week by calling toll free 1-800-245-4848. Whenever possible, it is best to call between 7AM and 5PM, Monday through Friday. Routine 48 hour notifications

can be made via Fax, Email or MUWV provided software. The statute is an effort to provide for public and worker safety in WV by providing certain requirements before excavation and/or demolition work can take place near underground facilities. The law makes it a requirement to notify the state one call system before any excavation or demolition activities are done and now provides for monetary penalties (up to \$5,000) for non-compliance.

TROUBLESHOOTING GUIDES

1. Groundwater Sources
2. Submersible Well Pump Systems
3. Storage Facilities
4. Hypochlorination Problems
5. Distribution Systems
6. Cross-connections
7. Sampling and Monitoring

Troubleshooting guide for groundwater sources		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Well pump won't start.	Circuit breaker or overload relay tripped.	Reset breaker or manual overload relay.
	Fuse is burned out.	Check for cause and correct, replace fuse(s).
	No power to switch box.	Check incoming power supply. Contact power company.
	Short, broken or loose wire.	Check for shorts and correct, tighten terminals, replace broken wires.
	Low voltage.	Check incoming line voltage. Contact power company if low.
	Defective motor.	Contact electrical contractor.
	Defective pressure switch.	Check voltage of incoming electric supply with pressure switch closed. Contact power company if voltage low. Perform maintenance on switch if voltage normal.
Well pump won't shut off.	Defective pressure switch.	Check switch for proper operation. Replace switch.
	Cut-off pressure setting too high.	Adjust setting.
	Float switch or pressure transducer not functioning.	Check and replace components or cable as needed.
Well pump starts and stops too frequently (excessive cycle rate).	Pressure switch settings too close.	Adjust settings.
	Pump foot valve leaking.	Check for backflow. Contact well contractor.
	Water-logged hydropneumatic tank.	Check air volume. Add air if needed. If persistent, check air compressor, relief valve, air lines and connections, and repair if needed.
Sand sediment in the water.	Problems with well screen or gravel envelope.	Contact well contractor.
Well pump operates with reduced flow.	Valve on discharge partially closed or line clogged.	Open valve, unclog discharge line.
	Well is over-pumped.	Check static water level and compare to past readings. If significantly lower, notify well contractor.
	Well screen clogged.	Contact well contractor.

Troubleshooting guide for groundwater sources (Cont.)

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Well house flooded without recent precipitation.	Check valve not operating properly.	Repair or replace check valve.
	Leakage occurring in discharge piping or valves.	Inspect and repair or replace as necessary.
Red or black water complaints.	Water contains excessive iron (red brown) or manganese (black water).	Test for iron and manganese at well. If levels exceed 0.3 mg/L iron or 0.005 mg/L manganese, contact our regional office, your technical assistance provider or water treatment contractor.
	Complainant's hot water needs maintenance.	Check hot water heater and flush if needed.
Raw water appears turbid or a light tan color following rainfall.	Surface water entering or influencing well.	Check well for openings that allow surface water to enter. Check area for sinkholes, fractures, or other physical evidence of surface water intrusion. Check water turbidity. Contact our regional office if >0.5 NTU. Check raw water for coliform bacteria. Contact our regional office immediately if positive.
Coliform tests are positive.	Recent flooding, recent well or well pump maintenance, or loss of power.	Contact our regional office immediately.
	Sanitary protection of well has been breached or wellhead is observed to be damaged	Contact our regional office immediately.

Troubleshooting guide for submersible well pump systems

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Pump won't start.	No power to switch box.	Check position of main electrical disconnect arm (main switch) and ensure that it is in the up (energized) position. If main power supply is interrupted, auxiliary power system (generator) should be started.
	Circuit breaker or overload relay tripped.	Reset breaker or overload relay. If pump does not start, start motor by turning the Hand/Off/Automatic (HOA) Switch to the HAND (manual) position for about 2 to 5 minutes (do not over pressurize the distribution system). If motor runs, return the HOA switch to the AUTO position. If motor does not run, see other probable causes below.
	Fuses burned out.	Check for cause and replace fuses with correct type and size fuses. Make sure to pull down (de-energize) the main electrical disconnect arm (main switch) before opening the panel and replacing the fuses.
	Defective pressure switch or automatic control system.	Turn the HOA Switch to the HAND (manual) position for a short period. If pump starts, the problem is in the automatic control system. Contact electrician experienced with industrial controls to repair automatic control system. Pump can be operated in manual position to supply water; however, the operator must monitor the discharge pressure (pressure on the distribution system) and ensure that the normal working pressure is not exceeded.
	All of the above checked and pump won't run.	Contact electrician experienced with industrial controls.
Pump won't shut off.	Defective pressure switch or automatic control system. High pressure cut-off switch may need adjustment.	Turn the HOA Switch to the OFF position. If pump stops, the problem is in the automatic control system. Contact electrician experienced with industrial controls to repair automatic control system. Pump can be operated in manual position to supply water; however, the operator must monitor the discharge pressure (pressure on the distribution system) and ensure that the normal working pressure is not exceeded. The pump should not be left in the OFF position, long enough to allow the distribution system pressure to drop below the normal minimum working pressure.

Troubleshooting guide for submersible well pump systems (Cont.)

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Pump starts too frequently.	Leaking foot valve or check valve.	During the OFF cycle, listen for water running back into the well and check the water flow meter to see if it is running backward. If there is a swing-type check valve in the discharge pipe in the well station it may be stuck in the open position. With the well pump running (on), try manually lifting and lowering the operating arm on the check valve. With the well pump off, slowly and gently push the operating arm to the closed position. If the problem persists, contact well service company.
	Defective pressure switch or automatic control system. High- or low-pressure cutoff switches may need adjustment.	Contact electrician experienced with industrial controls.
Fuses blow, circuit breaker or overload relays trip when pump is in operation.	Insufficient discharge head causing a high amperage (electrical current) draw.	Check water flow meter to see if the discharge rate is much higher than normal and the discharge pressure gauge to see if the pressure is lower than normal. If so, the water system could be out of water (no pressure) or there could be a very large leak in discharge line or in the distribution system. At the well station, with the pump running, try throttling back on the discharge gate valve until the pressure reached the normal operating pressure. DO NOT close the valve completely or operate the pump for an extended period time against a throttled valve. Immediately notify your supervisor.
	Incorrect voltage, excessive heat in control panel, motor overloaded, incorrect fuses, breakers, or overload relays.	Contact electrician experienced with industrial controls.
Pump won't deliver normal amount of water.	Discharge valve partially closed.	Fully open discharge valve and see if pump rate increases. Make sure pump does not break suction.
	Pump breaking suction, water level in well near or below pump intake. Air may be present in water drawn from sample tap.	Partially throttle discharge valve. The discharge rate may actually decrease, but the water level in the well should rise and the pump should no longer break suction. Contact well service company.
	Pump worn, hydraulic problems, intake plugging.	Contact well service company.

Troubleshooting guide for submersible well pump systems (Cont.)		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Sand in the water.	Problems with well screen or gravel envelope.	Partially throttle discharge valve until sand reduces or disappears. Contact well service company.
Air in the water.	If there is a check valve between the well pump and the hydropneumatic tank, and air is present on the well side of the check valve, then the pump may be breaking suction. In this case the water level in well is near or below the pump intake.	Partially throttle discharge valve. Contact well service company.
Auxiliary power system (generator) won't activate during loss of power supply.	Automatic transfer switch (ATS) is not functioning.	Manually start the auxiliary power system.
	No fuel.	Check fuel and add if necessary.
	Dead battery.	Jump-start or charge battery.
	Mechanical problem with engine/generator.	Contact auxiliary power system service company.

Troubleshooting guide for storage facilities

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Loss of disinfectant residual.	Long detention time. Increase in temperature. Depletion of disinfectant from exposure to sunlight. Entry of chlorine demanding contaminants.	Cover reservoir. Reduce detention time with baffles, recirculation, inlet diffuser, mechanical mixer, pumps. Relocate inlet/outlet in tank. Size facility for more frequent turnover. Check screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Clean and disinfect storage facility.
Increase in heterotrophic plate count.	Loss of chlorine residual or contaminant entry.	Prevent loss of chlorine residual (see above) and rechlorinate storage tank. Check seals on hatches and screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Clean and disinfect storage facility.
Coliform bacteria occurrence.	Loss of chlorine residual. Contaminant entry. Sediment or biofilm build-up.	Check seals on hatches and screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Clean and disinfect storage facility.
Disinfection byproducts formation.	Long detention time. Increase in pH or chlorine residual. Boosting chlorine. Organic matter contamination or algae growth.	Reduce detention time with baffles, recirculation, inlet diffuser, mechanical mixer, pumps. Relocate inlet/outlet in tank. Size facility for more frequent turnover. Look at alternative disinfectants.
Nitrification	Long detention time.	Reduce detention time with baffles, recirculation, inlet diffuser, mechanical mixer, pumps. Relocate inlet/outlet in tank. Increase turnover rate or size facility for more frequent turnover.
Sediment build-up	Excess suspended materials, lime, iron or manganese in source water. Minimal velocities allowing depositions. Contaminant entry.	Improve influent water quality. Reduce detention time with baffles, recirculation, inlet diffuser, mechanical mixer, pumps. Avoid scouring. Inspect and clean tank more frequently.
Floating material or surface film.	Build-up of iron or manganese sediments. Growth of iron or manganese forming bacteria.	Improve influent water quality. Avoid scouring. Inspect and clean tank more frequently.
Taste and odor complaints.	Long detention time. Growth of algae or other organisms. Contaminant entry. Leaching from internal coatings or new concrete tank. Source water potential for taste and odor such as high levels of hydrogen sulfides.	Cover open reservoirs. Check seals on hatches and screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Improve influent water quality. Chlorinate. Flush distribution system. Clean and disinfect storage tank.

Troubleshooting guide for storage facilities (Cont.)		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Growth of algae or other biological organisms.	Exposure to sunlight. Loss of chlorine residual. Long detention time. Sediment or biofilm build-up.	Cover open reservoirs. Check seals on hatches and screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Improve influent water quality. Flush distribution system. Clean and disinfect storage tank.
Contaminant entry.	Uncovered reservoirs or improper design of floating cover. Damaged or missing screens on vents and entry of bats, birds, rodents, or insects. Cross connection at drain or overflow.	Cover open reservoirs. Check seals on hatches and screens on vents. Install bird wires and fences if necessary. Flush distribution system. Clean and disinfect storage tank.
Increase in pH.	Long detention time in concrete storage.	Provide coating on concrete walls. Increase turnover rate. Fluctuate water levels more frequently.
Biodegradation of internal coatings.	Loss of chlorine residual allowing biological growth. Selection of wrong internal coating.	Prevent loss of chlorine residual. Chlorinate. Clean and disinfect storage tank.
Biofilm growth.	Loss of chlorine residual. Nutrients from coatings or contaminants. Corrosion of surface promoting biological and algae growth. Bacterial seeding.	Prevent loss of chlorine residual. Chlorinate. Clean and disinfect storage tank. Flush distribution system.
Color.	Decaying vegetative material. Algae growth in uncovered reservoirs. Sediment scouring. Iron or manganese.	Improve source water quality. Install treatment for iron and manganese. Increase cleaning frequency.
Red water.	Metals uptake from metal surfaces from lack of or improper cathodic protection. Iron or manganese.	Provide proper corrosion treatment. Install or calibrate cathodic protection. Use sequestering agent. Apply coatings properly.
Build-up of iron and manganese.	Iron and manganese in source water and long detention times. Oxidation and settling of iron or manganese. Improper sequestering agent dose.	Improve source water quality. Install or optimize sequestering system. Increase cleaning frequency.

Troubleshooting guide for hypochlorination problems		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Chemical feed pump won't run.	No power.	Check to see if plug is securely in place. Ensure that there is power to the outlet and control systems.
	Electrical problem with signal from well pump or flow sensor.	Check pump motor starter. Bypass flow sensor to determine if pump will operate manually. If you have a liquid level control, check the low-level cut-off switch. Repair or replace if necessary.
	Motor failure.	If the motor is cool and the power is on, the motor may have to be repaired or replaced. Check manufacturer's information.
	Motor overheating.	The motor is over-heated. The overload protection in the motor has opened. The motor will start again when it cools. Make sure that you have a proper voltage supply. Try to turn the motor shaft. If it does not turn, check for a binding pump mechanism.
Motor runs but diaphragm doesn't move.	The stroke adjustment may be set at zero.	Reset stroke adjustment control knob.
	The gear train may be stripped.	Replace any defective parts.
Motor runs, diaphragm moves but no solution is pumped.	Solution tank may be empty.	Check the solution level in the tank. If it is too low refill the tank.
	The pump may not be primed.	If not, prime it.
	Suction line may have an air lock.	Check the suction line for air locks. If there is an air lock, remove the anti-siphon spring from the discharge valve until the air lock is removed.
	The fittings may be loose.	Remove the fittings, clean off the old tape, put on new teflon tape, and replace FINGER tight.
	Leaks from the pump housing.	If there is solution dripping from the pump housing just behind the pump head, replace the diaphragm.

Troubleshooting guide for hypochlorination problems (Cont.)

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Motor runs, diaphragm moves but no solution is pumped.	Valves and O-rings may be dirty.	Check the valves. Clean them if they are dirty. Replace the O-rings if they are damaged. Make sure they are well- seated.
	Discharge line is blocked.	Check the discharge line for kinks or blockages.
Abnormal noise.	The chlorinator is probably mechanically damaged.	Check with your service representative. Switch operation to back up chlorinator.
Motor starts and stops.	The motor may be overheating.	If it is, a thermal protection switch may be causing the start- stop action. Check with the service representative
Low chlorine residual at point of entry.	Improper procedure for running chlorine residual test or expired chemical reagents.	Check expiration date on chemical reagents. Check test procedure as described in test kit manual. Speed or stroke setting too low.
	Pump not feeding an adequate	Damaged diaphragm or suction leak.
	Change in raw water quality.	Test raw water for constituents that may cause increased chlorine demand, such as iron and manganese.
	Pump air bound.	Check foot valve.
	Chlorine supply tank empty.	Fill supply tank.
	Reduced effectiveness of chlorine solution.	Check date that chlorine was received. Sodium hypochlorite solution may lose effectiveness after 30 days. If that is the case, the feed rate must be increased to obtain the desired residual.
	Damaged suction or discharge lines (cracks or crimps).	Clean or repair lines with problems.
	Connection at point of injection clogged or leaking.	Flush line and connection with mild acid such as acetic or muriatic. Replace any damaged parts that may be leaking.
Discharge line is blocked.	Speed and stroke setting inadequate.	Check manufacturer's recommendations for proper settings to prime pump.
	Suction lift too high due to feed pump relocation.	Check maximum suction lift for pump and relocate as necessary.

Troubleshooting guide for hypochlorination problems (Cont.)		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Discharge line is blocked.	Discharge pressure too high.	Check well pump discharge pressure. Check pressure rating on chemical feed pump.
	Suction fitting clogged.	Clean or replace screen.
	Trapped air in suction line.	Ensure all fittings are tight.
Loss of prime.	Suction line not submerged in solution.	Add chlorine solution to supply tank.
	Solution tank empty.	Fill tank.
	Air leaks in suction fittings.	Check for cracked fittings.
Excessive chlorine residual at point of entry (POE).	Foot valve not in vertical position.	Adjust foot valve to proper position.
	Air trapped in suction tubing.	Check connections and fittings.
	Pump speed or stroke setting too high.	Verify dose rate and calibrate pump to get desired dose.
Failure to pump against pressure.	Siphoning from solution tank.	Ensure the 4-in-1 anti-siphon valve on chemical feed pump is operating properly.
	Low well pump discharge pressure.	Ensure well pump discharge pressure is at least 25 psi.
Failure to pump against pressure.	Worn seal rings.	Worn seal rings and cartridge valves may need to be replaced. Use spare parts kit.
	Pumps maximum pressure rating to pump against may be exceeded by injection pressure.	Injection pressure cannot exceed the pump's maximum pressure. See information plate on pump.
	Ruptured diaphragm.	Replace pump diaphragm.
	Incorrect stroke length setting.	Check zero on pump and re-zero pump. See manufacturer's instructions.
	Tubing run on discharge is too long.	Longer tubing runs may create friction loss sufficient to reduce the pump's pressure rating. Consult manufacturer for more information.
Failure to pump against pressure.	Clogged foot valve strainer.	Remove foot valve strainer when pumping slurries or when solution particles cause the strainer to clog.

Troubleshooting guide for distribution systems		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Dirty water complaints.	Localized accumulations of debris, solids/particulates in distribution mains.	Collect and preserve samples for analysis if needed. Isolate affected part of main and flush.
Red water complaints.	Cross connection between water system and another system carrying non-potable water.	Collect and preserve samples for analysis if needed. Conduct survey of system for cross connections. Contact our regional office.
	Iron content of water from source is high. Iron precipitates in mains and accumulates.	Collect and test water samples from water source and location of complaints for iron. If high at both sites, contact our regional office, your technical assistance provider, consulting engineer or water conditioning company for help with iron removal treatment.
	Cast iron, ductile iron, or steel mains are corroding causing rust in the water.	Collect and analyze samples for iron and corrosion parameters. Contact our regional office, your technical assistance provider, consulting engineer or water conditioning company for help with corrosion control treatment.
No or low water pressure.	Source of supply, storage or pumping station interrupted.	Check source, storage and pumping stations. Correct or repair as needed.
	System cannot supply demands.	Check to see if demands are unusually high. If so, try to reduce demand. Contact our regional office, your technical assistance provider or consulting engineer.
	Service line, meter or connections shutoff or clogged with debris.	Investigate and open or unclog service.
	Broken or leaking distribution pipes.	Locate and repair break or leak.
	Valve in system closed or broken.	Check and open closed isolation and pressure-reducing valves. Repair or contact contractor if valves are broken.

Troubleshooting guide for distribution systems (Cont.)

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Excessive water usage.	More connections have been added to the system.	Compare increase in usage over time with new connections added over same period. If correlation evident, take action to curtail demand or increase capacity if needed. Contact our regional office, your, technical assistance provider or consulting engineer.
	Excessive leakage (>15% of production) is occurring, meters are not installed or not registering properly.	Conduct a water audit to determine the cause. If leakage is the cause, contact our regional office, your consulting engineer or leak detection contractor.
	Illegal connections have been made.	Conduct survey to identify connections.

Troubleshooting guide for cross connections

Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Sudsy or soapy water.	Hose connected to an unprotected hose bib with the other end in a bucket or sink of soapy water.	Equip all hose bibs with an Atmospheric Vacuum Breaker.
Positive coliform.	Hose connected to an unprotected hose bib with the other end lying on the floor of the pump house, on the ground in the car wash area, in the wading or swimming pool or other nonpotable liquid.	Equip all hose bibs with an Atmospheric Vacuum Breaker.
	Unprotected potable water line feeding a lawn irrigation system.	Install a backflow preventer on the potable water line feeding the irrigation system.
	Submerged inlet, e.g. faucet submerged.	Relocate faucet above flood level.
Color in the water (unusual colors such as bright blue).	Backflow from toilet.	Get help. Bring in someone who understands cross-connections to evaluate your system.
Organic odors.	Handheld pesticide/herbicide applicator attached to unprotected hose.	Don't use these devices.

Troubleshooting guide for sampling and monitoring		
Problem	Possible cause	Possible solution
Positive total coliform.	Improper sampling technique.	Check distribution system for low-pressure conditions, possibly due to line breaks or excessive flows that may result in a backflow problem.
	Contamination entering distribution system.	Ensure all staff are properly trained in sampling and transport procedures as described by lab procedures.
	Inadequate chlorine residual at the sampling site.	Check the operation of the chlorination system. Refer to issues described in the chapter on pumps and hypochlorination systems. Ensure that residual test is performed properly.
	Growth of biofilm in the distribution system.	Thoroughly flush affected areas of the distribution system. Superchlorination may be necessary in severe cases.
Chlorine taste and odor.	High total chlorine residual and low free chlorine residual.	The free chlorine residual should be at least 85% of the total chlorine residual. Increase the chlorine dose rate to get past the breakpoint to destroy some of the combined residual that causes taste and odor problems. Additional system flushing may also be required.
Inability to maintain adequate free chlorine residual at the furthest points of the distribution system or at dead end lines.	Inadequate chlorine dose at treatment plant.	Increase chlorine feed rate at point of application.
	Problems with chlorine feed equipment.	Check operation of chlorination equipment.
	Ineffective distribution system flushing program.	Review distribution system flushing program and implement improvements to address areas of inadequate free chlorine residual.
	Growth of biofilm in the distribution system.	Increase flushing in area of biofilm problem.