CIVE 3331 - ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING Spring 2003

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Purpose: Lecture #8 CIVE3331

Lakes and Reservoirs

Lakes and reservoirs experience a natural aging process called eutrophication. Human activity accelerates the process by adding wastes, agricultural runoff, etc. that supplies nutrients at a rate much greater than occurs in nature. The acclelerated process is called anthropogenic eutrophication.

Figure 1 is a sketch of the eutrophication process starting from a ogliotropic state to the eutrophic state.

Figure 1. Eutrophication Process

Factors that control eutrophication are:

- 1) Light penetration; related to water clarity (turbidity)
- 2) Nutrient supply

3) Depth

Sufficiently deep lakes have two zones, the euphotic zone (photosynthesis produces more O2 than used during respiration) and the profundal zone (respiration uses more O2 than produced by photosynthesis). The light penetration affects the location of the zonal interface and the depth of this interface is called the light compensation level.

Figure 2 is a sketch illustrating the relationship of light penetration and depth.
 $Z = 0$
 $Cy \neq 0$
 $Cy \neq 0$
 $Cz = 0$
 $Cy \neq 0$
 $Cz = 0$

Figure 2. Light Compensation Depth

Photosynthesis and Limiting Nutrients

The nutrient supply is a principal factor in lake health. Growth is limited by the least available nutrient. Engineering control of the limiting nutrient can control the rate of eutrophication. Control of nonlimiting nutrient is only useful if it can be reduced enough to become the limiting nutrient.

 l_{ℓ} ght 106 CO₂ + 16 NO₃ + HPO4² + 122H₂O+ 18H⁺ 1866 H₂₆₃0₁₁₀ N₁₆ P + 1380₂
contra
sovice

Figure 3. Photosynthesis Model

If we calculate the mass of N versus P in algae we will discover it takes 7 times more N than P (by mass) to produce algae. Thus control of P can greatly impact algae growth (a surrogate for eutrophication).

From such calculations the following rules-of-thumb are indicated:

- 1) $N \sim 10 \times P$, then P is the limiting nutrient
- 2) $N < 10x$ P, then N is limting nutrient
- 3) In addition to the relative abundance, if absolute abundance exceedes 0.3 mg/L-N and 0.015 mg/L-P then one expects algal blooms.

Simple Phosphorous Model

Usually modeling is used to estimate the amount of control to apply to reduce the eutrophication rate. Generally, if $P < 0.01$ mg/L then the system is OK, if $P > 0.02$ mg/L then too much

Figure 4. Simple Phosphorous Model

Figure 4 is a sketch of a lake that is used for elementary phosphorous modeling. If we write a mass balance in the water (note the settling velocity in the sketch) we can calculate the concentration of P in the water.

Inflow:

\n
$$
S + Q_i C_i
$$
\nOutflow (from water)

\n
$$
QC + v_s AC
$$

The second term on the outflow represents the fraction of P that settles out of the water column. P is known to attach to solids in the water and settle out with time. It can be considered as a mass transfer term in the equation. The Mass Rate Balance is then :

$$
\frac{dVC}{dt} = S + Q_iC_i - QC - v_sAC
$$

At equilibrium the time derivative vanishes and we can solve for the equilibrium concentration as

$$
C = \frac{S + Q_i C_i}{Q + v_s A}
$$

Figure 5. Example Simple P Model

This model neglects stratification, seasonal fluctuation in inputs, and mixing. Such features are beyond the scope of this lecture, but one should be aware of the existence of such processes.

Thermal Stratification

Water density-temperature dependence in not monotonic – it has a peak value at 4° C. At this temperature water "sinks" relative to cooler or warmer water and creates a distinct temperature layering in lakes that inhibits vertical mixing.

Figure 6. Density-temperature for water

Between spring and summer and summer and fall the vertical profile makes mixing (called overturn) possible. During the turnover materials in the sediment and lower layers are resuspended and mixed throughout the water column.

Figure 7. Temperature-depth profile(s) in a lake

Figure 8. Layer names in stratified lake

If turnover is rare then H2S CH4 and CO2 can build up in the hypolimnion region. The lake can "burp" and release large volumes of these gasses with catastrophic results.

Buffered Systems

Natural rainfall in equilibrium with atmospheric CO2 has a $pH \sim 5.6$. In recent years rainfall pH has declines, in some cases $pH < 4.0$. The reduced pH is caused by SO4 and Nox in the atmosphere changing the chemistry of the rainfall.

If a lake is poorly buffered, it too will experience a decline in pH as the acidic rainfall enters the lake system. Carbonate is one of many natural buffers.

Buffering Illustration

Consider two 1L samples. To one we add baking soda and compute its pH. Then we add NaOH to the other sample unitl it has the same pH. Now we add HCl to both and compute how much HCL is added to each sample. A system that takes a lot of acid (HCl) to cause a change in pH Is the "buffered" system. If you read ahead about alkalinity in the water treatment chapter the parallels should be obvious.

Analysis for Sample A after addition of baking soda, before addition of acid.

Baking soda has a very high solubility product, so it dissociates completely, therefore the

concentrations of [Na] is equal to the moles of soda added.

$$
[Na^+] = 10^{-3} M
$$

The only source of carbon is assumed to be the soda (ignore atmospheric C, the dissolution process is slow relative to the other equilibrium), so the total carbon balance is

$$
[H_2CO_3^{\text{*}}]+[CO_3^{2-}]+[HCO_3^-]=10^{-3}M
$$

Now the usual carbonate species

$$
H_2CO_3^* \Leftrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^- \quad K_1 = \frac{[H^+][HCO_3^-]}{[H_2CO_3^*]} = 4.47 \times 10^{-7} M
$$

$$
HCO_3^- \Leftrightarrow H^+ + CO_3^{2-} \quad K_2 = \frac{[H^+][CO_3^{2-}]}{[H\ CO_3^-]} = 4.68 \times 10^{-11} M
$$

Water dissociation

$$
H_2O \Leftrightarrow H^+ + OH^- \quad K_w = [H^+][OH^-] = 1 \times 10^{-14} M
$$

Finally the charge balance

$$
[H^+] + [Na^+] = [OH^-] + 2[CO_3^{2-}] + [HCO_3^-]
$$

Now solve for pH.

The trick is to use the carbon balance and the first equilibrium to express bicarbonate in terms of pH, then by successive guessing at pH solve the charge balance and remaining equilibria. The algebra is $H_2CO_3^{\rceil 3}$ + $[CO_3^{2-}]$ + $[HCO_3^-]$ = $10^{-3}M$ 3 2 3 * $[H_2CO_3^+] + [CO_3^{2-}] + [HCO_3^-] = 10^{-3} M$ Start with carbon balance

$$
\frac{[H^+][HCO_3^-]}{4.47 \times 10^{-7}} + \frac{[HCO_3^-]4.68 \times 10^{-11}}{[H^+]} + [HCO_3^-] = 10^{-3} M
$$
 Incorporate the two acid dissociation

equilibria.

$$
[HCO3-] = \frac{10^{-3}}{1 + \frac{[H^+]}{4.47 \times 10^{-7}} + \frac{4.68 \times 10^{-11}}{[H^+]}}
$$
 solve for bicarbonate

Now if we guess a value for pH, we can calculate the $HCO₃$ from the above equation, we can compute the the CO3 from its dissociation equation, OH from the water disassociation equation. With the known Na value and these just computed values, compute the value of the left hand side of the charge balance and the right hand side of the charge balance – at the correct pH these two value should be identical.

Figure 11. Spreadsheet with Calculations

Now we add HCl to lower the pH to 4.5 and determine how much HCl from the requirement that the moles of acid added produce a chloride concentration equal to the addition. We only need to change the charge neutrality calculation, and we force the pH value.

Thus the charge balance is

 $[H^+] + [Na^+] = [OH^-] + 2[CO_3^{2-}] + [HCO_3^-] + [Cl^-]$ H^+ $]+ [Na^+] = [OH^-] + 2[CO_3^{2-}] + [HCO_3^-] + [Cl^-]$

and the forced pH is 4.5. Now return the the spreadsheet and make the modifications and recompute.

	n	В	⌒				G	н			Κ	
	Closed Carbonate System - 1mM NaHCO3 - Add HCl to ph4.5											
ົ			[Na]	$1.00E-03$								
3	ㅎ			्रबु		37	03	ಸ	Ω 읖 శా ഩ		-2 [CO3] +l HCO3	王王
4	4.5	3.16E-05	$3.16E-10$	$1.00E-03$	1.02E-03	$9.86E-04$	1.39E-05	2.06E-11	1.00E-03	1.03E-03	1.03E-03	$0.00E + 00$

Figure 12. Acid addition to pH = 4.5

Now to summarize the results.

Start with 1L water add 1 mM baking soda, $pH = 8.3$. Then add 1.02 mM of HCl, $ph = 4.5$.

Now repeat the exercise with NaOH and HCl.

In this case we have only the water dissociation equilibrium, and charge

 b alance $H_2O \Leftrightarrow H^+ + OH^ K_w = [H^+] [OH^-] = 1 \times 10^{-14} M$ $_2O \Leftrightarrow H^+ + OH^ K_w = [H^+] [OH^-] = 1 \times 10^{-14} M$ Water Equilibrium

 $[H^+] + [Na^+] = [OH^-] + [Cl^-]$ Charge Balance

In the first addition, the value of Cl is zero and the set the pH=4.5 We discover that we added 2 x 10^{-6} moles of NaOH (not much). Then when we added acid, the amount of HCl needed (from the knowledge that HCl is a strong acid) is 3.4×10^{-5} moles to get to pH 4.5

	A	в	С	D	E		G	н	
$\overline{2}$		Water + NaOH to $pH = 8.3$							
3									
4									
							$1 + [C]$		
				<u>ैं क</u>	듕	[H]+[H]		雪	
5	동								
6	8.3	$5.01E-09$	2.00E-06	$2.00E - 06$	$0.00E + 00$	$2.01E-06$	$2.00E-06$		0.000000 Add NaOH
	4.5	3.16E-05	3.16E-10	$2.00E-06$	3.40E-05	3.36E-05	$3.40E-05$	0.000000 Add HCI	

Figure 13. Water without Buffer

Buffered to go from pH 8.3 to 4.5 we added 1.02 x 10^{-3} moles acid. Unbuffered (same pH change) we added 3.4×10^{-5} moles acid. Nearly 96% less acid! Thus a buffered system needs more acid (orders of magnitude) to cause a change in pH than an unbuffered system. Natural mountain lakes are essentially unbuffered and for this reason acidic rainfall is especially damaging to the health of the species that live in these lakes.

At very low pH certain metals play an important role in buffering.

 $\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$ + 3H^+ \Leftrightarrow $2\text{Al}_{3}+ +$ $2\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$ + H_2O (kaolinite) => Aluminum ions (toxic) Al(OH)3 + $3H^+ \Leftrightarrow Al_3+$ + $3H_2O$

(gibbsite) => Aluminum ions (toxic)