

DECOLORIZATION OF CAUSTIC WASH LIQUORS FROM
CHLORINE-BLEACHED, SULFATE, WOOD PULP

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I. INTRODUCTION

Laws have been passed which control the amount of waste material that can be released into the rivers and streams in this state, thus restricting industrial stream pollution by chemical industries. This investigation was concerned with the problem of color abatement or removal for the pulp and paper industry.

The paper industry uses large quantities of water in its operations of cooking, washing, and bleaching of the wood fibers and thus produce large volumes of highly colored waste. Although the wastes have been treated to reduce the biochemical oxygen demand, the treatments have had little effect on the color. The color is chiefly caused by resinous and lignous compounds that are extracted when the cooked and bleached pulp is washed. The color is objectionable to the eye but does not affect aquatic life. Although the objections are aesthetic in nature, the stream is considered polluted by the public, and the pulp and paper companies have taken steps to reduce the stream pollution through research in waste treatment.

Various methods of treatment to remove color have been investigated in the laboratory and the degree of removal compared and evaluated by determining the light transmittancies of samples with a spectrophotometer. The treatments were principally chemical in nature. The use of both crystal aluminum sulfate and of papermakers alum slurry to coagulate the colloidal particles in the caustic waste has been suggested. Flocculating aids, synthetic, long chain polymers, that carry a charge opposite to that of the colloidal particles, should

coalesce the floc. They may be used in very dilute solutions and may be economical. Laboratory tests should serve to evaluate their usefulness in treating this waste. Pilot plant tests of such size that their performance data may be extrapolated to full scale also would be desirable.

The purpose of this investigation was to study the practical application of various treatments of caustic wash liquor from chlorine-bleached, sulfate, wood pulp and to design and evaluate a pilot plant for testing further, the most promising possibility for its decolorization.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review for this investigation consists of six parts:

(1) pulp manufacturing processes, (2) stream pollution outlook, (3) chemistry of wood with respect to pulping and pulp purification, (4) color, (5) chemical treatment of waste to remove color, and (6) industrial waste treatment and disposal.

Pulp Manufacturing Processes

The following sections contain a general description of the major methods of pulp and paper manufacture in industry: (1) Mechanical process, (2) Semi-chemical process, (3) Sulfite process, (4) Soda process, and (5) Sulfate process. Also included are a discussion of the pulp washing and bleaching processes, waste streams from pulp bleaching, and of production activities at West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company at Covington, Virginia.

(23)
Mechanical Process. In the mechanical process the wood log is transformed into the fibrous state without the aid of chemicals. This is done by holding the logs with pressure against the surface of a grinding stone. A stream of water continuously washes away the loosened fibers. The pulp is used to make the lower grade of paper products such as wrapping paper and magazines.

(98)
Semi-chemical Process. There are many steps in this process but less chemical treatment is required than found in the three common chemical processes. A sodium sulfite solution is usually used. The

chief products made from this semi-chemical pulp are container board and coarse wrapping paper.

(34)

Sulfite Process. The sulfite process is essentially an acid process since an acidic liquor is used to remove the undesirable constituents of the wood.

The sequence of operations in the sulfite process is as follows:

"(1) Sulfur dioxide gas is produced by burning either sulfur or pyrites (FeS_2) in air under controlled conditions, (2) The resulting gas is freed from dust and cooled, (3) The gas is absorbed in a tower containing limestone, magnesium carbonate or milk lime. This is done with maximum efficiency, all waste gases being reabsorbed, and the resulting weak liquor is re-fortified with the waste sulfur dioxide evolved from the digesters. The acid liquors are then passed to storage tanks ready for use, (4) The acid and charge of wood are mixed in the digesters, (5) After digestion, the pressure is relieved, and the excess of sulfur dioxide gas evolved at this stage is recovered and reused, (6) The pulp and waste liquors are dropped into a chest below the digester. The liquor is removed through a perforated bottom, and (7) The pulp goes forward for washing, screening, and bleaching."

(34)

Soda Process. The soda process is one of two types of alkaline processes for cooking wood pulp. The sulfate, or kraft process, is the other. The important feature of the alkaline process is the recovery and reuse of the digester liquor and washings after digestion. This serves the double purpose of economy and elimination of the trouble of disposing of an objectionable effluent. The function

of removal of the non-fibrous constituents of the wood is common with that of the sulfite process.

(34)
Any type of wood may be converted into pulp by an alkaline process, (spruce is better for sulfite process).

For the soda and sulfate processes, the woods processed and the types of paper for which the pulps are used differ considerably.

The essential difference between the two alkaline processes is (34)
that in the soda process the wood is cooked with sodium hydroxide, the residual liquor being evaporated, and the residue burnt which leaves sodium carbonate. When lime is added to a solution of this, sodium hydroxide is regenerated, and this is used in a subsequent digestion. During this operation, some sodium compounds are lost (in washings, or dust from furnace), so only a part of the original alkali added is recovered. Therefore, it is necessary to add a little alkali to each batch so as to maintain the strength for the subsequent digestions, and sodium hydroxide or soda ash is used for this purpose. The latter is added before the lime, so that it is eventually converted into the former.

(74)
Sulfate Process. The sulfate, or kraft process, is the youngest of the three major methods for making chemical pulpwood and was first utilized in this country in 1910. In 1952, the capacity for making kraft pulp was increased to 9.5 million tons and represented 50 per cent of the total woodpulp capacity for all grades.

(74)
Raw materials for kraft pulp and paper mills consist of pulp wood (chiefly resinous), water, sodium sulfate, lime, sulfur, chlorine, hypochlorites, chlorine dioxide, peroxides, sodium hydroxide, starch,

rosin, wax, alum clay, talc, calcium and barium sulfates, titanium dioxide, zinc sulfide, calcium carbonate, pigments, and dyes. The raw materials of greatest significance in relation to waste effluents are the pulp wood, water, and sodium sulfate.

Kraft pulp is made by cooking the debarked and chipped wood in digesters under steam pressure in a solution known as kraft white liquor. Sodium hydroxide and sodium sulfate are the essential ingredients of the white liquor. The spent cooking liquor, dark brown in color and known as black liquor, is separated from the cooked pulp by washing, filtering, and pressing operations ⁽⁷⁴⁾.

The dissolved wood substances and the spent cooking chemicals are in the black liquor which is processed by evaporation and incineration so as to recover the chemicals and to utilize the heating value of the dissolved wood substance contained therein.

⁽⁷⁴⁾
Sodium sulfate is added during this recovery process to replace the small proportion of chemicals lost in the various steps of the process. After this addition and the incineration of the material, the smelt is dissolved in water to form green liquor. The chemical compounds in the green liquor are converted to the desired cooking chemicals by the addition of lime which forms white liquor and a lime mud composed chiefly of calcium carbonate. The white liquor is returned to the cooking operation and the lime mud is calcined to form calcium oxide which is re-used in converting green liquor to white liquor.

The cooked pulp which is separated from the spent cooking liquor ⁽⁷⁵⁾ is screened and subjected to various refining operations, following

which it may be bleached. Then it is transported to the paper machine where the fibers are formed into products such as paperboard.

(75)

In order to produce one ton of kraft pulp two tons of pulpwood are necessary. The pulping operation dissolves the non-fibrous portion of the wood, leaving behind the fiber. The non-fibrous portion of the coniferous type of wood used in kraft pulping amounts to 50 per cent. This non-fibrous portion is roughly 60 per cent lignin, 30 per cent carbohydrates, 7 per cent resins and fats, and the remainder is protein and other minor compounds. During the cooking operation, the reactions in the digester consist essentially of the hydrolysis of the lignin and carbohydrates, resulting in the formation of water soluble salts or an excess of alkali. Fats and resins are saponified and are dissolved or carried in suspensions in the black liquor. Some wood alcohol is formed from the hydrolysis of liquor and is released in the digester relief gases along with recoverable amounts of turpentine and small amounts of dimethyl sulfide, methyl mercaptan, and ketones. Sodium salts of formic, acetic, and lactic acid are formed by the oxidation of the carbohydrates. The black liquor contains in addition to the turpentine, recoverable amounts of the sodium salts of resin and fatty acids which separate upon the concentration and cooling of the black liquor. This material is called crude sulfate soap and after skimming from the black liquor, it is treated with acid to form tall oil.

In an efficiently operated kraft mill, the loss of the dissolved wood substance amounts to less than 57 per cent of the total dissolved wood substances, or about 90 pounds per ton of pulp produced. This loss is found in the kraft mill effluent .

(75)

Present day water usage is in the range of 20-30,000 gallons of
(75)
water per ton of unbleached kraft pulp .

(34)
The odors produced in the sulfate process are particularly objectionable. They arise from the organic sulfur compounds produced by the action of the sulfide on the wood.

(34)
Washing. After cooking , the pulp is washed in diffusers, (large vertical cylindrical tanks of a volume about equal to the digester). At the top is the inlet, below which is an umbrella or cone-shaped spreading device which breaks the force of the fall of the charge. Washing sprays are under the diffuser top. Across the base are perforations which lead to an outlet to the recovery plant. The pulp settles on the false bottom and is usually removed through a hole in the side of the diffuser by high-pressure steam and water jets from the opposite side of the diffuser. The diffusers are usually placed in a circle around the digester, so any one may be connected to at will by the swiveling discharge pipe from the digester. The washed pulp falls into a common pit.

The washing operations are important and occur several times during the process of making pulp. Besides the washing after cooking, there is washing between bleaching stages which is an essential feature of multi-stage bleaching processes. In the washing after bleaching, the pulp is diluted by the addition of a considerable quantity of water (pulp consistency of 1 to 2 per cent) and then concentrating it again so that water content is reduced to 75 per cent.

Washing removes those substances which degrade the color and strength of the paper on storage. Acids, or compounds which may

produce acids, subsequently are particularly detrimental to the performance of the paper.

Bleaching. The pulp must be purified to the desired quality. The purification and bleaching of pulp is the second basic step in pulp production. Bleaching may be defined as the destruction or solubilizing of coloring matter to make possible removal of the color. Two principal reactions take place during bleaching: solubilization and removal of color, and changing the colored matter to a colorless form.

Bleaching has developed through the years from batch operations to the present multi-stage operations which consist of chlorination, alkaline extraction, hypochlorite treatment, and in many mills chlorine dioxide treatment. Each stage is followed by a water wash to remove the chemicals used and formed in the previous stage.

The use of chlorine as a delignifying agent is principally a purification process rather than a true bleaching process. Chlorine acts rapidly on lignin chiefly through substitution with the resulting formation of hydrochloric acid. Only a small part of the resulting chlorinated products is water soluble so that the washing stage following the chlorination removes the hydrochloric acid formed and the soluble matter, but still leaves a colored pulp.

The colored chlorinated compounds are soluble in alkaline solutions and the extraction of the chlorinated pulp is carried out with a weak caustic sodium hydroxide solution to remove the chlorinated lignins, natural dyestuffs, and water insoluble organic acids. The chief materials removed by alkali extraction are the chlorinated lignins

of high molecular weight. The effluent from the caustic extraction stage is very dark, appearing almost black in color. This effluent is considered waste and it is this stream that is the subject of this investigation.

(28)

The chlorinated pulp that has been extracted with weak caustic still has a dark color due to the presence of residual chlorinated lignin and other colored substances. The function of the hypochlorite treatment is to remove the colored residues in the pulp by oxidation. The hypochlorite stage, which is usually the final stage in the bleaching, may actually consist of two stages. In this event, the first stage is a strong hypochlorite bleach for a short period of time, followed by a weak treatment for a longer period.

In some pulp mills the pulp is given a final treatment with acid to impart special properties to the pulp. Also, some mills wash the pulp with a reducing agent to remove any excess active chlorine.

Recently there has been considerable interest in the use of chlorine dioxide as a commercial bleaching agent. At present, due to its high cost, it is used primarily as the final stage in multi-stage bleaching when it is desirable to produce a sulfate pulp of very high brightness.

Waste Streams from Pulp Bleaching. Two dissimilar wastes are produced: the acid waste from the chlorine and hypochlorite stages which contain the hydrochloric acid formed by chlorination, the excess bleaching agent and water soluble lignin compounds; and the alkaline wash, or caustic extraction waste, which separates the two chlorine additions and is very highly colored. If these waste streams are

(29)

mixed, they react to produce a waste substantially neutral and with a volume of from 30,000 to 60,000 gallons per ton of bleached pulp. There are about 1,500,000 gallons of the caustic extractions waste per day.

West Virginia Pulp and Paper Co. Operations at Covington, Virginia.

Operations at Covington are those of a completely integrated pulp and paper mill (71). The processes involved are: wood handling and storage, log de-barking, chipping, chemical digestion of chips, pulp washing and screening, evaporation, and recovery of spent chemicals (black liquor), mechanical heating of pulp, chemical conditioning and proportioning of pulps, and papermaking. Six paper machines and three board machines, with a rated daily capacity of 700 tons, produce board for corrugated boxes. Other processes produce these by-products and chemicals: activated carbon, tall oil, caustic soda, and calcium hypochlorite.

Seven waste streams total about 25,000,000 gallons per day. Biological oxygen demand reductions are similar in activated sludge pilot plants treating bleached and unbleached wastes. However, unbleached kraft wastes lose over one-half their color while the bleaching wastes go through the activated sludge processes almost unchanged.

Stream Pollution Outlook

One of the most serious problems facing industry today is the disposal of liquid wastes from the many manufacturing and processing plants. The problem of water pollution is not a new one but its

importance has been greatly magnified by the huge growth of industry and by population increases and movements. The problem is even worse away from the ocean and where streams are small. Many people do not look beyond the surface of a river before pronouncing it grossly polluted, so practically all objections to color are aesthetic in nature and this makes the problem difficult (78). Pressure has been brought against industry in an attempt to force a solution to problems that have accumulated in some cases over a long period of time.

(2)
What Constitutes Pollution. A substance is a pollutant if it reduces the oxygen content of the receiving water, adds toxic ingredients, tends to cause obnoxious accumulation of decomposing materials, causes floating scums or otherwise makes the water unpleasant to eye or nose, renders the water unsafe for human or animal consumption without expensive treatment, renders the stream incapable of supporting fish life, or in any way renders the stream unsuitable for any of its normal uses.

(78)
Aquatic Biology. Like all living things, fish need oxygen but they live in an atmosphere where oxygen is measured in almost infinitesimally small quantities. Oxygen is very slightly soluble in water; at 20 °C only about 75 pounds of it is dissolved in 1,000,000 gallons of water. When the amount of oxygen dissolved in the water is reduced much below 40 per cent of this saturation level (69) by the oxidation of waste material, fish life is endangered. Warm water fish are tolerant of much lower oxygen concentrations (77) than commonly supposed.

(63)

The turbidity of a stream has no direct effect upon fish, in fact, many of the best fishing streams in the world are turbid. However, turbidity by cutting off some sunlight does reduce the amount of plant life in a stream.

Biochemical Oxygen Demand. The biochemical oxygen demand is the

(32)

amount of oxygen required to oxidize biologically the organic matter in a waste over a stated period time. It is actually a measure of the demand of the organic waste on the oxygen resources of the stream.

Chemical oxygen demand, on the other hand, is a measure of the demand of chemicals in the waste on the available oxygen. The complete depletion of dissolved oxygen (70) results in anaerobic decomposition, and in by-products which may have noxious odors.

Reducing agents such as hydrogen sulfide, sulfur dioxide, soluble sulfite salts, sulfoxylates, and ferrous iron salts resemble organic pollutants (36) in that they consume oxygen from the stream and so may cause anaerobic or septic conditions. The standard biochemical oxygen demand test includes both types of reaction. Since the inorganic reducing chemicals react rapidly with the oxygen, its loss can be designated as "immediate oxygen demand" (IOD).

The major constituents of the coffee-colored kraft effluent which cause pollution and exert a biochemical oxygen demand are the organic materials composed of wood sugar, hemi-cellulose, and cellulose degradation products. Lignins and tannins exert little or no biochemical oxygen demand and they are the chief source of color. Kraft mill effluents exhibit no toxic or inhibitory quantities.

The Jackson River. The Covington, Virginia, mill of the West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company is located on the Jackson River, a highly fluctuating mountain stream. It is the headwaters of the James River and eventually empties into the Atlantic Ocean (83). At certain times of the year the Jackson River reaches a low flow of 40,000,000 gallons per day which approaches the total fresh water usage of the mill. Due to the low flow and the constantly increasing mill production, a means had to be found to reduce pollution of the stream. An activated sludge waste treatment plant was developed and installed. This plant is discussed in greater detail in another section of this literature review.

(75)

Reduction of Industrial Pollution. "The most effective measure in the abatement of stream pollution is the prevention of discharge of pollutants rather than their treatment."

The industry has spent huge sums for savealls, improved chemical recovery and water reuse systems. This is in addition to the millions spent for the construction and operation of waste treatment facilities. (54)

Process Equipment Changes. Waste problems can frequently be solved by radically changing the process. In some cases the cost of waste treatment over a period of time would justify process changes that would prevent or reduce the amount of waste. The amount of waste can usually be reduced at the source; for instance, surface condensers can be used in place of steam or water jet condensers.

The use of multi-stage, vacuum washers for draining and washing pulp prevents cooking liquor losses to the sewer (76). This type of washing system operates as a closed system with a wash water entering

the system and flowing counter-current to the pulp flow. No wash water is discharged and the concentration of dissolved matter increases to the point where it is economical to evaporate it for the recovery of the spent cooking chemicals.

(76)

Another type of equipment that has reduced sewer losses is the foam trap which prevents foam from spilling over and allowing the entrained liquor to find its way to the sewer.

An improvement in the multiple body evaporator has resulted in

(76)

the practical elimination of black liquor carryover due to foaming and entrainment during the evaporation of black liquor.

"Save-alls" clarify white water and recover fibers for reuse and are located primarily on the paper machine.

Waste Treatment. Industry has had to install expensive water and

(2)

waste treatment plants in order to fight pollution. The activated sludge process appeared to offer the best method of reducing the oxygen demand of pulp and paper effluents. However, no economical process has yet been found for removing a satisfactory amount of color from the waste streams from the paper mills.

(83)

Segregation of Water Streams. The segregation of uncontaminated

water from contaminated water is often the simplest and most effective

(81)

way of reducing the magnitude of a water pollution problem. The size of the treatment facilities may then be greatly reduced.

Water Conservation. With the accelerating growth of industry,

industrial wastes are increasing, as is the need for greater supplies of a vital commodity, clean water.

"Water conservation practice has a definite effect upon, and in
(76)
association with, effluent quality improvement . Reuse of water is
an important aspect of water conservation, but introduces problems,
especially those dealing with the continual build-up of some of its
constituents."

(81)
"By proper education and policing policies , the amount of
process water can be greatly reduced." In some cases waste process
water which is only slightly contaminated can be reused. Also,
after much money has been spent in treating waste water, it is a
pity to discharge it all into a stream.

Paper mills practicing strict water conservation may reduce fiber
losses significantly, resulting in less load on the stream or treatment
facility. Continuing research can probably solve many of the remaining
problems.

Public Reaction. Just as people have begun to take care of the
(54)
wastes from cities , industry has had to begin the job of cleaning
up its wastes.

(31)
An attempt to estimate how much color producing material a
paper mill could release into a river without producing an adverse
public reaction must be based upon an assumption of how much color in
the river would "get by" the public. "The layman often judges the
(63)
condition of a water sample by its color but color in itself is not
necessarily harmful."

(2)
Water is supposed to be returned to a stream in the same volume
and condition as when it was removed.

(3)

It is becoming common practice to design the waste treatment facilities of a plant and have these approved by the governing authorities before plant construction is begun.

National Council for Stream Improvement. The National Council for Stream Improvement is a non-profit research and service corporation organized by the pulp, paper, and paperboard industry for the purpose of developing solutions to the industry's waste disposal and utilization problems. The paper industry has taken the initiative in fighting the stream pollution problem that is affecting all industries .

(77)

Chemistry of Wood with Respect
to Pulping and Pulp Purification

The reasons for and sources of color in the waste stream include a study of the chemistry of wood with respect to pulping and pulp purification. The following sections contain the results of this phase of the literature and is divided chiefly into (1) Composition of Wood and (2) Bleaching of Pulp.

(93)

Composition of Wood. Wood is a complex material that is produced in the living tree by synthesis and oxidation-reduction reactions from carbon dioxide and water. A number of very complex chemical substances are formed by these reactions which complement one another and form the living tree. The physical and chemical methods of the pulping and purification processes remove the nonfibrous portion of these substances and leave a fibrous pulp which is purified to the desired degree depending upon its intended use. Wood contains five principal materials; cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin, mineral matter and extractives. Cellulose and hemicellulose are called holocellulose while the mineral matter and extractives may be considered extraneous materials.

Chemistry of the Holocellulose Fraction. The holocellulose fraction consists of a complex mixture of long-chain molecules which are classified into three chemical groups: the polyuronides, the cellusans, and cellulose. The polyuronides, which contain one or more uronic acid groups in addition to many hexose or pentose, are readily attached by aqueous alkali and pass into solution as sodium salts due to the presence of the carboxylic acid group. The cellusans are carbohydrates

closely associated with cellulose and believed to be free of uronic acid groups. Cellulose⁽⁹⁴⁾ is the fibrous portion of wood and which is the object of the pulping process. It forms the principal constituent of nearly all plant cells. The name cellulose is often used, however, to denote the fibrous product obtained in pulping processes. This is not pure cellulose but contains a mixture of polyanhydroglucoses. While glucose units are the primary building unit in cellulose, it has been shown that cellulose⁽¹⁰¹⁾ from coniferous woods contains appreciable amounts of mannose units and small amounts of xylose units.

(19)

Chemistry of Lignin. Lignin is one of the major substances in wood, but relatively little is known of the fundamental chemical and physical properties of the compound. It is a complex, non-cellulosic, non-carbohydrate material that cements the fibers together in wood and which is dissolved along with the xylans in the papermaking process. It is dissolved away from the cellulose chiefly by the action of sodium hydroxide. Lignin is a high molecular weight polymer whose exact molecular weight is unknown, but is considered to be a multiple of 840. It may constitute as much as 30 per cent of the wood, where the breakdown for coniferous wood is approximately 63.5 per cent carbon, 6.0 per cent hydrogen, 15 per cent methoxyl, and the remainder miscellaneous substances. Some aromatic rings and phenolic groups are apparently present. The lignin bond of the wood is released by the action of high pressure steam which activates the lignin so it can be used as a plastic binder. It may be used as a filler and extender in the

compounding of plastics of the phenolformaldehyde type, and as a raw material for some organic products.

A great amount of work has been carried out in studying the degradation products of lignin. As a result of this work, Brams (10) has shown a structural formula which may be accurate. (28)

In the sulfate pulping process, sulfur enters the lignin molecule and forms alkali-soluble thioglignin. Under the relatively mild conditions used in commercial bleaching processes, lignin is converted into water or alkali-soluble products. Several of the reactions of lignin are discussed in the following paragraphs.

(11)
Halogenation of Lignin. The reaction of chlorine with lignin is the oldest of the reactions of halogens with lignin and the most important technically because of its use in the bleaching of pulp. A lignin from a commercial kraft liquor chlorinated in a water suspension for 12 hours gave a chlorolignin with 18.6 per cent (12) chlorine. In an attempt to find a use for spent sulfite liquor from a coniferous wood, a liquor of 25 Be' was treated by passing chlorine into it. The liquor consumed 35-40 per cent of its weight of chlorine, and formed hydrochloric acid to such an extent that a 20 per cent acid was obtained which caused the chlorinated ligno-sulfonic acid to separate as an orange-yellow powder.

The Hydrolysis of Lignin. In the soda and sulfate pulping (14) process, lignin is dissolved in the alkaline solution from which it can be obtained in a solid form by acidification. The lignin from a soda cook is called alkali lignin, and from a sulfate cook is called (15) thioglignin. In the sulfate process the material precipitated on

acidification is actually a mixture of alkali lignin and thiolignin.

The chemistry of the process is discussed in the next section and only hydrolysis of separated lignin will be discussed here.

(16)

Treatment of hydrochloric acid spruce lignin with sodium sulfide gave a clear reddish brown solution. On acidification of the solution, a light grayish brown thiolignin was precipitated. Acid and couxam lignins were completely dissolved when subjected to an alkaline hydrolysis with sodium hydroxide. The lignin was almost quantitatively recovered from the dark red-brown solution on acidification with carbon dioxide or mineral acid.

(13)

Sulfonation of Lignin. The sulfonation of lignin is technically one of the most important lignin reactions because it is the basis of the production of sulfite cellulose. Concentrated and fuming sulfuric acids completely destroy lignin by splitting off water and causing carbonization.

(102)

Lignosulfonic Acids. These compounds have been reviewed by Wise. When wood is heated with a solution of sulfurous acid and acid sulfites, the lignin goes into solution. The solution containing the lignin, for instance the sulfite waste liquor from pulp mills, has been the subject of numerous investigations.

The chemistry of the various reactions that take place, whereby the lignin is rendered soluble in the sulfite cooking liquor, is rather obscure. Lindsey and Tollens were the first to demonstrate that the lignin in sulfite waste liquor was present in the form of a calcium salt of a sulfonic acid (previously suggested by Pedersen). Streeb, working in Tollen's laboratory, found that the lignosulfonic acids could be

desulfonated by treatment with alkali. Lignosulfonic acids are mixtures (confirmed by Melander et al). Melander precipitated the lignosulfonic acids from sulfite waste liquor with sodium chloride and found that only a portion of the total lignin derivations were thus precipitated such as alpha-ligno-sulfonic acid; however, beta-ligno-sulfonic acid was not precipitated.

This alpha-lignin-sulfonic acid apparently differed materially from the alpha-lignin-sulfonic acid of Klason who used calcium chloride in place of sodium chloride because the excess precipitant could be removed with alcohol.

Of the total ligno-sulfonic acids in the sulfite waste liquor, approximately two-thirds was alpha-acid and one-third beta-acid, which according to Klason, contains an acrylic acid group.

Lignin, according to Klason, combines with four molecules of sulfur dioxide, only two of which are present in the form of the sulfonic acid.

The rate of dissolution of the lignin is directly related to the pH of the cooking liquor. Lignin does not behave like a true unsaturated compound.

(17)

Lignosulfonic acids of a low molecular weight have a relatively high sulfur content. Fluorescence is caused by solid lignosulfonic acid in unbleached pulp. Isolated lignosulfonic acid also shows a strong deep violet fluorescence.

(103)

Wood Resins. The non-volatile portion of the ether extract from wood contains the resin and fatty acids, fats, phytosterols, waxes, and resins when they are present. They are soluble in

alcohol or alcohol-benzene mixtures and in petroleum ether to a lesser extent.

(22)

Resins in wood are objectionable in papermaking because they form pitchy deposits on the paper machine, and tend to cause discoloration of paper on aging. In the sulfate process most of the resin and fatty acids are recovered as tall oil.

(103)

Resin acids (oxidation products of the diterpenes) are monobasic and have the empirical formula $C_{20}H_{30}O_2$. They are optically active and give addition compounds similar to the terpenes. Abietic acid and d-Pimaric acid are the best known. Both have two double bonds but some uncertainty exists concerning their location in the molecules.

Resins find extensive use in the paper, soap, paint, and varnish industries. The resin acids possess a multitude of melting points : d-Pimaric acid (211, 211-212, 213, 218-219) $^{\circ}C$, 1-Pimaric acid (148-150, 150, 150-152) $^{\circ}C$, and 1-Abietic acid (156-160, 172-173) $^{\circ}C$.

(22)

Tannins. Tannins are soluble in water and usually removed in the pulping liquor. They are complex polyhydric phenols, which precipitate gelatin and alkaloids from solution, are astringent, and give color reactions with iron salts. Tannins are easily oxidized in alkaline solutions. They range in color from light straw to a dark reddish-brown.

(22)

Coloring Matters of Wood. All woods contain a small percentage of organic coloring matter which is partially removed in pulping, however, most of this coloring matter is removed when the pulp is bleached. Many of the coloring matters are crystalline substances of known structure, but the constitution of others is largely unknown.

(24)

Bleaching of Pulp. The principal colored matter in pulp is lignin, although other coloring matter may be present. The principal bleaching and purifying agents used for bleaching pulp are chlorine and hypochlorite. In the following paragraphs is discussed the chemistry involved in the use of each of these bleaching agents.

(99)

Chlorination. Under suitable conditions, chlorine is capable of reacting with organic compounds in three ways; substitution, addition, or oxidation. Results indicate that the main reaction involved in the chlorination of pulp is substitution, and that oxidation occurs as a side reaction. The thio-lignin residues in kraft pulp seem to have hydrogen atoms in the phenolic nucleus capable of replacement by chlorine and after the double bonds in the molecule are saturated with chlorine, the excess chlorine enters the lignin molecule, ortho to a methoxyl group. This results in a simultaneous cleavage of the methoxyl group. The chlorination of lignin increases the solubility of the molecule in an alkaline solution but not a great extent the solubility in acidic solutions in water. The accepted practices in the bleaching of sulfate pulp is to partially chlorinate the lignin, and remove the chlorolignin by dissolving it in alkali. Some of the chlorinated residues in sulfate pulp are insoluble in dilute alkali and are removed by hypochlorite treatment.

(25)

Hypochlorite Treatment. Hypochlorite bleaching is mainly an oxidation process which decolorizes and solubilizes the lignin, coloring matter, and other impurities in the pulp fibers. Lignin is subject to both oxidation and chlorination, either of which can occur in hypochlorite treatment, depending upon the pH. At the high pH values

normally used in hypochlorite bleaching, the reaction is considered to
(26)
be primarily oxidation. Sulfate pulp can not be satisfactorily
bleached with single state hypochlorite treatment.

COLOR

In the following sections will be included a discussion of color and how it affects this investigation. The topics include theory of light, factors of structure affecting removal of color, source of color in pulp and effluents, measurement of color, transmittance and absorbance of light, and methods of removing color.

(18)

Theory of Light. The visible spectrum of radiant energy when arranged according to wavelength produces to the eye, a series of color sensations which, as observed in the rainbow or spectroscope, shade through violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, and red.

(80)

White light (actually a composition of all colors) contains radiant energy in the form of photons which, although they travel at the speed of light, may possess various wave lengths or frequency waves. When radiant waves strike a liquid such as dye water they are either unaffected by the liquid (liquid appears transparent) or are altered by the dye waste (liquid appears colored). The chemical structure of the dye compound which absorbs certain wave lengths is the determining factor in the final color of the solution. Most modern theories agree that there are at least two important structural groups that must be present in a compound in order to develop visible color. These are discussed in the following paragraphs.

One of the types of groups that contribute to the color is an unsaturated group such as $(-N = O)$, $(C = C)$, $(-N = N -)$, $(C = O)$, or $(C = N -)$. This is called a chromophore group.

The other compound affecting color is a saturated, salt-forming group ⁽⁸⁰⁾ such as $(-OH)$, $(-N \begin{smallmatrix} H \\ | \\ H \end{smallmatrix})$, $(-N \begin{smallmatrix} H \\ | \\ R \end{smallmatrix})$, $(-N \begin{smallmatrix} R \\ | \\ R \end{smallmatrix})$ and is called an auxochrome. The oscillation of electrons from the chromophores to the auxochromes is currently believed to be the direct cause of color. The more powerful the auxochrome group in a given compound, the more intense will be the resulting color. "The important fact to remember about auxochromes is that any reduction in their ability to contribute oscillating electrons to the compound will reduce the length of the radiant wave which the compound exhibits at maximum transmission." This means that the resulting color will usually consist of shorter wave lengths and will be less objectionable when discharged to the river.

Intrinsic Factors of Structure Affecting Removal of Color. The intrinsic factors affecting color removal are: "(1) longer chain length of colored compound reduces surface tension and are easily coagulated, (2) concentration of solute in surface film also alters surface tension, (3) number and strength of individual electrical charges on the surface of colored compounds, (4) amphoteric nature of the colored matter, (5) total electric charge of the colored matter (solute), greater charge indicates increased solubility, (6) solubility of colored matter (solute), this is usually a function of the length of the carbon chain, i. e. longer chains contain more non-polar groups rendering it less soluble in water. Temperature also affects the solubility, (7)

the tendency of the colored matter to form ionic micelles, (8) the isoelectric point of the solute, and (9) the pH of foreign ions, radicals, or colloids in the medium may affect the changes on the colloidal micelle or interfere with chemical or biological treatment of the colored compound." These factors illustrate the complexity of the problem of the color reduction (79) .

(26)
Source of Color in Pulp. Freshly made sulfate pulp has a light-brown, grayish color, but on contact with air is oxidized to a dark brown color which is difficult to remove. The coloring matter acts as an indicator since the pulp becomes lighter in color in acid solution and darker in alkaline solution.

(105)
The color of kraft pulp was at one time attributed to the fact that brown dyes were obtained by roasting organic material in the presence of sodium sulfide. It was found that coloring materials extractable from the kraft pulp were lignin degradation products formed in cooking.

The bleaching of pulp is carried out to remove these coloring matters. Only a small part of the reaction products of lignin and chlorine (97) are soluble in water, leaving a dark colored pulp. The effluent from the chlorination stage is a light, clear brown. The chlorinated colored compounds are soluble in alkaline solution, and (27) are removed by extraction with weak caustic solution. The chief materials (28) removed by alkali extraction are chlorinated lignins of (27) high molecular weight, natural dyestuffs and water-insoluble organic acids. The effluent from the caustic extraction is very dark, almost black, in color. This stream is the subject of this investigation.

The pulp from the alkali extraction still has some brown color, most of which is removed by hypochlorite treatment which oxidizes the coloring matters.

Color in Pulp Mill Effluents. The color bodies in kraft effluents are mainly lignin compounds which are formed through the dissolving action of the cooking and bleaching chemicals used in the manufacturing process. Approximately 95 per cent of these dissolved lignin compounds are recovered and burned in the chemical recovery system of the pulping process. The remainder are found in the mill effluents which are discharged. Kraft effluent color bodies increase in intensity with increasing pH. They become more insoluble at pH values in the acid range.

(78)

The nature of the receiving stream has an effect on the apparent color of the effluent, inasmuch as water in deep pools appears much darker than the same water flowing over shoals. This is true not only on account of the "white water" produced by the rapids, but also because in deep pools, mere depth of water is available to absorb the incident light.

(43)

There is no relationship between the color of a waste solution and the oxygen demand or the dissolved matter present. Also, there is no relation between the pH and the amount of color present.

(64)

Measurement of Color. Rudolfs & Hanlon have described accurate spectrophotometric and filter photometric methods of determining color in industrial waste in terms of the dominant wavelength (which defines the hue or kind of color), luminance (which defines the degree of brightness) and purity (which defines saturation, i. e. pastel, pale, etc.).

The procedure is given in the latest edition of the American Public Health Association Standard Methods.

(66)

Many instrumental methods of determination of pollution are finding increasing application in pollution problems. Such a method is chromatography, a method of separating substances (especially mixtures of complex closely related organic material) by passage of the sample in a suitable solvent through a vertical column of an absorbent (generally alumina). Another method is absorption spectroscopy, which is a measurement of the optical density of a substance at different wavelengths, generally in the ultra-violet region, by using a spectrophotometer. Other methods are emission spectroscopy, flame photometry, polarography, physical titration methods, and oxidation-reduction potential. The chemical methods are mainly volumetric (titrimetric) and colorimetric.

(66)

There are several instruments available for measuring the intensity and quality of colored solutions. These include the spectrophotometer, filterphotometer, and the color comparator such as that made by Hellige. The measurement is made with transmitted light.

High color water has a color exceeding 20 parts per million
(82)
of platinum. The Technical Association of the Pulp and Paper Industry suggest tolerances of five parts per million for high grade projects and only 15 parts per million for lower grades.

(82)

Depth of color is measured by visual comparison with American Public Health Association color standards. The primary standard contains 500 parts per million platinum and 250 parts per million

cobalt and is slated to have a color of 500 parts per million. Other standards are made by diluting this primary standard.

Measurement of Suspended Solids, Dissolved Solids and Total

Solids. The Gooch crucible method involves filtration by suction of a known volume of the sample through a specially prepared asbestos mat in a Gooch crucible, which is then dried at $(100 - 105) ^\circ\text{C}$.

The filtrate from the Gooch crucible can be used for a determination of dissolved solids or soluble solids by evaporating a known volume to dryness. This determination includes all suspended colloidal matter present.

Total solids can be determined by evaporating a known volume of the well shaken sample to dryness on the water bath and drying it at $(100 - 105) ^\circ\text{C}$.

Transmittance of Light. To describe color as seen by the eye, it is probably best to use transmittance ⁽¹⁷⁾, since this method of notation tends to emphasize the observed color. The ratio of the transmitted light to the incident light is the transmittance, which when multiplied by 100, is the per cent of light transmitted.

In relatively clear solutions a large per cent change is required in the concentration of colored material produced. 'This is evident from Beer's Law ⁽³¹⁾, which states that the negative log of the transmittancy varies as the concentration of the substance. For a solution showing a transmittancy of 0.900 (90 per cent) the negative log of the transmittancy is 0.0458. A solution having only half the concentration of this solution would therefore have a negative log of transmittance of 0.0229 and a corresponding transmittance of

0.949 (94.9 per cent)." Also, just as for relatively clear solutions, a large percentage change in concentration is required before any appreciable change in transmittancy is obtained.

(31)
A strong dye (or digester liquor) solution , and the same solution diluted with an equal volume of water, will appear to the eye to have the same intensity of color. If a sample of highly colored mill waste water allows a transmittance of ten per cent, and if the sample were diluted with an equal volume of colorless water, the new transmittance would be 31.6 per cent; but to the eye the original and diluted samples would appear identically black.

In the receiving stream, the color is a function of the color (37) intensity of the original waste and of the dilution available. However, there are other factors involved: the depth of the water, the light absorbing properties of the stream bottom, the suspended solids in the waste, the nature and hue of the light source, and the angle of observation. "The effect of depth can be calculated on the basis of transmissivity. For example, 90 per cent transmission of light in a 50-millimeter test cell would be $\frac{305}{50}$ (0.90) or only 53 per cent transmittant in a 305-millimeter, or one foot depth." In a stream, light must pass twice through the water depth, instead of once as in the laboratory, therefore, the dark appearance is even more pronounced.

(85)
Rudolfs and Hanlon found that light transmittancy properties vary with the type of waste. The variation is due to a difference in chemical structure, hence the chemical structure of wastes is the factor which governs the type of treatment effective for color

reduction. The measurement of transmitted light is useful in determining the effectiveness of color removal by treatment.

(1)

Absorbance. The absorbance is the negative logarithm to the base 10 of the transmittance. The absorbance is obtained by comparison with a standard as its transmittance.

Determination of Color with the Spectrophotometer. The spectrophotometer was used primarily as a research tool by providing a means of measuring and correlating the transmittance of light with other physical and chemical properties.

(92)

A spectrophotometer consists of the following parts: a source of light, a device for obtaining relatively monochromatic light, an absorption cell for the sample and the standard (distilled water in our experiments), and a means of measuring the difference of absorption between the sample and the standard.

Color Removal by Various Methods. The methods of color removal mentioned include chlorination, chemical treatment and coagulation, heat treatment under pressure, absorption, light treatment, and biological treatment.

Effect of Waste Concentration. The degree of color reduction was approximately the same regardless of the dilution .

(89)

(87)

Chlorination. Chlorination has been used rather extensively for color removal processes, commonly referred to as bleaching.

When chlorination is in the acid region below pH 3, the color reduction of wastes is practically instantaneous. However, the rate of color reduction obtained at pH 7 is somewhat slower .

(88)

(88)

Chlorination effectively reduces the color of various industrial wastes, but tests showed that the quantity of color return increased with increasing color reduction. Results indicated that the color reduction was a result of chemical substitution and not necessarily a breakdown of a complex structure .

(89)

Experiments were performed to determine the degree of chlorine loss in open chlorination systems . There was a significant loss of chlorine from the open system; therefore, there was less color reduction in the open system. At the point of maximum color reduction the chlorine loss to the atmosphere was about 35 per cent.

(89)

"A color return of from 5 - 15 per cent of the color removed from an industrial waste by chlorination may be expected within a 10-day holding period."

(89)

The effectiveness of chlorination for industrial waste color reduction varies with the form of chlorine and the pH of the waste solution. In general the rate of reaction of chlorine with industrial wastes increases with decreasing pH. Studies are now being made at Virginia Polytechnic Institute to determine the effectiveness of chlorine in removing color from caustic waste.

(80)

Chemical Treatment and Coagulation. Chemical treatment

has been used to some degree to remove color from various industrial wastes. Little attention has been paid to the chemical structure of the colored compound being treated. The first step is to ascertain the structure of a given colored compound. Then chemical and physical methods can be applied on a scientific basis to decrease the

oscillation of electrons within the molecule. This should not be too difficult a task because the textile and paper dye chemists are constantly at work doing just the opposite; that is, increasing the oscillation of electrons to develop brighter, more saturated hues in their dyes.

Various chemical treatments using hydrated lime, alum, ferric chloride, chlorinated copperas, phosphoric acid, waste pickle liquor, and a barium alumina silicate compound have been experimented with and have yielded varying degrees of color removal from kraft effluents (72).

Critical examination of results showed that in all cases the quantity of chemicals needed to achieve the desired degree of color reduction was uneconomical (72). However, recovery of the color-removal spent chemicals, if done economically, would overcome, to a large degree, the disadvantage of high treatment cost. Moggio concluded that hydrated lime, because of its abundance and low price, offered the greatest possibility for eventual success. Even though hydrated lime dosages are high, it offered the best recovery and reuse possibilities.

(33)

Foushee reported that 90 per cent of the color in the paper mill caustic extraction waste could be removed by alum coagulation using 1.5 grams alum per liter of waste at a pH of 6.

Heat Treatment Under Pressure. "When waste sludge is heated under a pressure of about 150 pounds per square inch to a temperature of about 360 °F for 45 minutes (68), its gel structure is completely broken down." This conditioning process is so effective that, after cooling, the sludge can be easily densified by a simple settlement

and then dewatered in filter presses to yield a cake of low moisture content. It is possible that a more dilute waste may also be effectively treated.

(63)

Adsorption. Activated carbon is often very effective in reducing or removing the color of a waste but usually large amounts are required. Foushee (33) found that NUCAR CEE-N activated carbon treatment of caustic extraction waste did not remove a significant amount of color. Chumney (30) evaluated fluorite as an adsorbing medium for the treatment of caustic extraction waste and found that it did remove some of the color, but was uneconomical because of the amount of adsorbent used and the activation treatment involved.

(86)

Effect of Light on Certain Wastes. Sunlight is an effective agent for the bleaching of color in natural reservoir water supplies. A study was undertaken to determine the effect of sunlight and ultraviolet rays on color characteristics of industrial waste liquors. "It is believed that the most effective light energy for color reduction originates in the ultraviolet region of sunlight. Greater displacement of outer electrons from molecules with greater energy occur in the ultraviolet region."

For general stream conditions, presence of highly colored waste has little effect on the rate and extent of temperature rise caused by sunlight absorption (86).

Biological Treatment of Wastes. Laboratory studies were made to determine the effects of biological treatment. It was found that the effect of such treatment on the color characteristics of industrial wastes varied with the type of waste (90).

Chemical Treatment of Waste to Remove Color

Studies in flocculation have shown that there is a direct relation between color and the amount of chemical such as alum (43) necessary to remove it. Very finely divided suspended matter (45) must be rendered settleable by the addition of coagulants. The combination of flocculation and sedimentation is called chemical precipitation.

Types of Coagulants. There are many available coagulants on the market today (39), as shown in Table I, page 37.

"The most widely used coagulant is aluminum sulfate, but ferrous sulfate and chlorinated copperas are also used (82)." Alum is cheap and generally available, both in solid form and in solution. Hydrated lime is also used extensively.

"Alum is marketed in lump, ground, rice, or powdered form and is shipped in 100 and 200-pound bags, 325 and 400-pound barrels, 100 and 250-pound drums, and in carloads. It is light tan to gray-green in color, dusty, and astringent (48)." It is only slightly hygroscopic. It weighs 60 - 75 pounds per cubic foot and contains 17 per cent aluminum oxide as a minimum. It is best fed as ground rice alum because the powder is dusty and therefore arches in hoppers. Suitable handling materials are iron, steel, and concrete for dry alum; and lead, rubber, duriron, and stainless steel 316 for alum solutions. It is usually dissolved in water before being added to the waste.

(41)
Flocculating Aids. Suspended particles can assist coagulation by acting as a nuclei for floc formation. Lime, soda ash, and sulfuric

TABLE I

Coagulants Available on the
Market Today

Name	Formula
Aluminum Sulfate (Alum)	$\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 14\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Ferric Sulfate	$\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Ferric Chloride	FeCl_3 and $\text{FeCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Chlorinated Copperas	FeCl_3 and $\text{Fe}(\text{SO}_4)_3$
Ferrous Sulfate (Copperas)	$\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Hydrated Lime	$\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$
Quicklime	CaO
Activated Silica	SiO_2

Haney, P. D.: Principles of Flocculation Related to Water
Treatment, Journal of the Hydraulics Division,
Proceedings of the Amer. Soc. of Civil Eng.
HY₄, 82, 8-(1036-1) (1956)

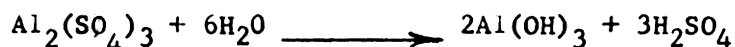
acid are aids in the sense that they can be used when necessary for pH adjustment. Addition of chlorine ahead of the coagulation process has been reported advantageous.

(41)
 Polyelectrolytes are a recent development of interest and are available commercially. They are synthetic organic compounds and it (55)
 has been shown that long chain linear polymers act as coagulants. Some commercial flocculating aids have been especially designed for rapid flocculation of solids present in an aqueous phase. The use of these flocculating aids should be studied and evaluated in the laboratory and the results, to be useful, just as in the case of the coagulants, must be interpreted in terms of actual plant performance.

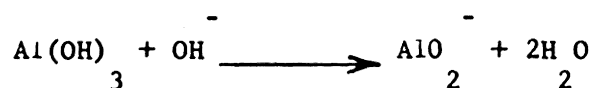
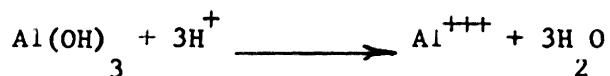
Chemical Reactions. When alum is dissolved in water, it ionizes yielding aluminum ions bearing a high positive charge and negatively (39)
 charged sulfate ions.



Alum also hydrolyzes readily:



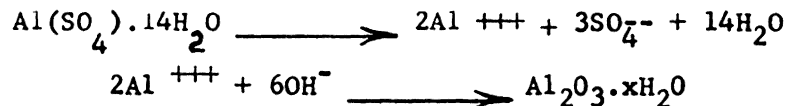
The sulfuric acid formed by this reaction is neutralized when an alkaline agent is present. Aluminum hydroxide is an amphoteric substance; therefore it is dissolved by a surplus of either hydrogen ions or hydroxyl ions:



Alum is classified as an acid salt because upon hydrolysis there is an increase in hydrogen ion concentration resulting in a reduction of

the pH value of the aqueous solution. "Because of its amphoteric nature, the solubility of alum floc is sensitive to the pH value of the water and pH adjustments are required to achieve optimum conditions for precipitation."

The reaction for aluminum sulfate can also be expressed as
(47)
follows :



The pH of relative insolubility of the alum floc is 5-7.

Precipitates formed by iron coagulants do not exhibit amphoteric behaviour, at least not the extent shown by those formed from alum.

(38)
Colloidal Particles. Colloidal particles play an important role in coagulation. Some of the significant characteristics of colloidal suspensions are large specific surface area, particle size, high adsorptive capacity, and particle charge.

Surface Area. Colloidal particles have a large specific surface
(40)
area . "If water contains 200 parts per million of a material colloiddally dispersed as sperical particles of 1.0 millimicron diameter, and has a specific gravity of 2.5, then each 1,000 gallons of water would contain 6×10^{20} particles and their surface area would be approximately 45 acres."

(40)
Particle Size. Colloidal particles are arbitrarily considered to be those falling in the diameter range of 1.0 to somewhat less than 500 millimicrons. Colloidal dispersions consist of a homogeneous medium such as water and particles dispersed therein. "In general, colloidal

particles are not microscopically resolvable nor can they be readily separated from water by means of filtration." There is a "continuous transition" from suspensions through colloids and on to so-called true solutions. The smaller the particle the greater the total surface area and the greater is the adsorptive capacity.

(40)

Particle Charge. "Colloidal particles normally carry a charge and the stability of many colloids is explained by the fact that the particles carry like charges thus repelling each other and continuing the dispersion." Ions possessing a charge opposite to those borne by the colloidal particles (38) tend to precipitate the colloid.

(46)

When the ions causing the charge on colloids are acidic or basic ions, a change in the pH toward neutralization will promote coagulation. Increasing the concentration of the negative ions in the waste will aid coagulation of the positively charged aluminum oxide colloids. The effectiveness of the ions increases with the number of their charges. Sulfate ions are therefore better than chloride ions; in fact, they are 100 times more effective. Aluminum ion is roughly 500 times more effective than the sodium ion for precipitating a negatively charged colloidal particle. "The greater (40) the concentration of dissolved mineral salts (ionic strength), the more readily precipitation occurs."

(41)

Mechanism of Coagulation. The coagulant furnishes trivalent aluminum or ferric ions with a high plus charge capable of neutralizing the negative charge on colloidal particles of color and turbidity. If the coagulation reaction occurs below pH 7, the result of the initial action of the coagulant is the formation of positively charged particles

of color. Then the flocculation phase involves further adsorption, charge neutralization, and finally agglomeration of the micro-flocs into larger and larger particles.

With regard to flocculating aids, apparently the most effective polyanionic polymers (polyelectrolytes) contain a mixture of both ionic and unionized hydrophilic groups⁽⁵⁵⁾. These groups are probably adsorbed on the particle surface, and the ionized groups keep the polymer in an extended position; this leads to particle bridging and coagulation.

(82)

The Floc-forming Process. The raw waste enters the mixing chamber of the floc-former where it is rapidly and well mixed with the coagulating chemicals. The treated water then flows through successive floc-former chambers, each of which is fitted with agitators which are controlled to give a slow and gently rolling mix. The coagulated waste then flows to a baffled settling basin or tank. The bulk of the floc is discharged through a sludge-removal system after settling to the bottom. Filters or centrifuges perform the dewatering of the sludge prior to incineration and chemical recovery.

Important factors in the coagulation process are pH, mixing, temperature, and time-concentration.

pH Control. The pH of water solutions affects "(1) the solubility of precipitates formed by aluminum and iron, (2) the time required for floc formation, and (3) the charge on the colloidal particles⁽⁴¹⁾." Therefore, pH control is important. According to Garner⁽⁶⁷⁾, the

optimum formation of floc when waste water is coagulated with alum occurs between pH 6.3 and 6.5. Other workers have found it around pH 5.

Mixing. There are "rapid" or "flash" mixers for the few seconds of rapid mixing when the coagulating chemical is first added to the raw waste. The coagulant must be evenly distributed throughout the waste to be treated. Once the floc growth ⁽⁴²⁾ has begun, the rate of stirring should be controlled with a "slow" mixer so as not to break up the floc that has formed. Opportunity for coalescence is greatly enhanced by slow mixing. The amount of alum or ferric salts ⁽⁵⁾ required for coagulation of paper mill waste is 0.2 to 0.4 pound per 1,000 gallons. Iron salts produce a heavier floc than alum does and settle more rapidly.

For practical operating control there is no substitute for trial determination of coagulant dosage conducted with laboratory stirring equipment.

Temperature. The principal effect of temperature is its influence on the rate of floc formation. Generally, the lower the temperature, the longer the time required to produce good flocculation ⁽⁴¹⁾.

Time-Concentration. "A high concentration ⁽⁴¹⁾ of coagulant produces results in less time than a low concentration."

Sedimentation. Flocculent suspensions ⁽⁴⁴⁾ are composed of particles that form larger and larger masses, or flocs, as they settle because the particles stick together when faster moving solids catch up with slower moving ones; this is true in substantially quiescent tanks. "Opportunity for particles to come together is best when their concentration is high, difference in settling velocities of the

individual particles is great, and the surface area is large. Vertical, upward flow ⁽⁴⁵⁾, in a tank may be favorable because the treated waste rises through the settling and suspended flocs as if it were pushing its way through a filter." To obtain larger floc growth does not imply improvement in its settling velocity ⁽⁴⁴⁾ because the entrainment of water and the consequent reduction in the specific weight of the floc cut down its settling velocity at the same time. Water offers viscous resistance to the settling of small, light particles (Stoke's Law) and eddying resistance (Newton's Law) to that of heavy ones.

(49)

Sludge. The volume of sludge by chemical precipitation is large because "(1) greater amounts of solids are removed, (2) the precipitants themselves form part of the sludge, and (3) the water content of the sludge is high." Wet sludge ⁽⁵⁰⁾ will flow by gravity in open or closed conduits and can be pumped over short or long distances. Sludge paste should be transported on belt conveyors because it tends to cake and ball in screw conveyors ⁽⁵⁰⁾. If the moisture in the sludge is to be reduced to less than 10 per cent, as required for commercial fertilizer, ⁽⁵²⁾ heat must be applied.

Cost of Chemicals. The type of chemical chosen should produce the desired result with the least amount added and with the least overall cost. Polymeric coagulants (polyelectrolytes) are more expensive than the commonly used coagulants, but the amounts required are quite small. It would be advantageous if any industry near the waste treatment plant turned out wastes containing chemicals useful as coagulants ⁽⁵⁵⁾.

Industrial Waste Treatment and Disposal

Relatively few successful full-scale waste treatment plants have been constructed for the abatement of industrial pollution. Much has been accomplished in reducing biochemical oxygen demand but no economical method has been devised for the removal of color from paper mill waste streams although there are some promising processes under investigation. Activated sludge treatment, a discussion of color removal equipment, the dewatering of sludge, and the development of a low cost treatment plant will be included in the following sections.

Activated Sludge Treatment Plant. The West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company installed a \$2,000,000 nutrient fed activated sludge waste disposal plant which started operation in May, 1955⁽⁸³⁾. "The mountainous terrain at Covington, Virginia, precluded the possibility of lagooning the wastes and diminished the attractiveness of trickling filters as a means of pollution abatement."

Plant Design. Its maximum capacity is 24 million gallons per day with a design capacity of 16 million gallons per day, about two-thirds⁽⁸³⁾ of the total waste flow from the mill. This flow includes all the wastes from the woodyard to about halfway through the bleaching process. Most of the remaining wastes from the mill are high-volume, low biochemical oxygen demand effluents for which this type of treatment would be superfluous. There is a primary settling tank, 100 feet in diameter, having a side-water depth of 12 feet and a theoretical retention time of two hours. This clarifier treats about two-thirds of the total flow while the remaining one-third, low in suspended

solids concentration, is by-passed into a mixing chamber. The mixing chamber collects the total influent after solids removal. From here there is an equal split of flow to two combination aeration and settling units operating in parallel. These units provide a circular secondary clarifier surrounded by an annular shaped aeration chamber. The clarifiers are 175 feet in diameter, while the aeration chambers around the units are 25.5 feet in width and 15 feet deep, providing a theoretical three-hour retention. The inner settlers have a 2-1/2-hour detention period. The effluent from the final clarifier goes directly to the river and the settled activated sludge is pumped back to the mixing chamber. There are storage facilities for the activated sludge which is converted into a by-product, activated carbon.

The nitrogen and phosphorus nutrients are added in the form of 30 per cent aqueous ammonia and 75 per cent phosphoric acid solution.

Instrumentation for the plant is quite complete and virtually every operation is controlled from one central control panel.

(83)

Achievement. The plant treats about 70 per cent of the mill waste, and removes 75 to 80 per cent of the biochemical oxygen demand. In suspended solids removal, the plant has an efficiency of 85 to 90 per cent. The waste which enters the primary clarifier is a very dark grey in color while the bleaching wastes are an intense red brown. Their combination yields a dark grey-black color which undergoes little or no reduction during passage through the treatment plant. The color cannot be filtered out and is so intense that it cannot even be measured properly.

Research for the improvement of the process is being carried out in the development of means to remove the color from the effluent. Sixty per cent of the total color is contributed from the caustic extraction stage of bleaching (83), but is only ten per cent of the total volume of the plant. Therefore, all effort is being concentrated upon developing a method of removing this color. A research fellowship has been granted Virginia Polytechnic Institute to perform basic research on the problem. Foushee (33) evaluated the use of NUCHAR activated carbon and aluminum sulfate as agents for removing a significant amount of color from the caustic extraction waste. He found the carbon did not remove an appreciable amount of color but alum coagulation would decrease the color content approximately 90 per cent (33). He filtered the sludge from the alum coagulation of the waste through a sand bed and also through a pre-coated rotary vacuum filter.

Color Removal Equipment. Color removal equipment usually consists of chemical feeders, mixing, coagulating, and settling units, and filters or centrifuges.

Feeders. Either wet or dry feeders may be used and the controllers may be either constant rate or proportionating (82). Constant rate controls are used if water flow (waste flow) is fairly steady, but when the waste flow is variable, proportionating controls are used to feed chemicals in proportion to the flow rate of the waste. The equipment must resist the corrosive action of the chemicals (57). It is becoming common practice to feed the chemical in ahead of the mixing chamber but it can also be introduced near the mixer.

Alum Rate Regulator. To regulate the alum solution flow rate, an orifice type flow meter controller (84) is mounted in the waste inlet line. "The linear electric control (proportional to waste flow rate) from this meter is transmitted to a thymotrol panel. This panel automatically varies the speed of the controlled volume alum pump in direct response to the flow meter controller signal."

Mixing. The rapid mixing of coagulant and sewage can be accomplished by the use of motor-driven vertical or inclined shafts (58) submerged in the waste, to which one or more impellers or paddles are attached.

Flocculators. The flocculator must allow enough detention time (82) for complete coagulation with the formation of large, tough floc (58).

One of the simplest types of flocculators consists of one or more horizontal shafts, which are placed longitudinally in the tank beneath the surface of the waste. Attached to each shaft is a series of paddles, which rotate slowly and impart a circulatory motion to the waste.

(58)
Another type provides for a reverse current which carries a portion of the floc back toward the inlet of the tank to serve as nuclei for floc formation.

Paddle blades decrease in width toward the outer end of the tank (58) so that mixing gradually decreases. Mixing can be further reduced by lowering the speed of the paddles. Some types of equipment handle both the mixing and the flocculating in the same unit.

Settling Tanks. Their purpose is to settle out the bulk of the floc so to ease filter or centrifuge load.

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A sedimentation tank should be designed so that the velocity of the flocculated waste entering the tank is rapidly reduced. In all parts of the tank the velocity should be nearly the same.

(53)

Imhoff states that the most important inlet consideration is that the velocity be started off in a horizontal direction. At the inlet, a perforated or slotted baffle which comprises a diffusion wall is also recommended at the outlet end of the basin. Density currents are less prominent in deep tanks than in shallow ones. With too little inlet energy, the tank is liable to have severe shortcircuiting and large dead zones. "In tank design, the settling velocity must be greater than the tank depth divided by the detention period, or the settling particles will not reach the tank bottom in the time allowed for sedimentation."

(45)

(56)

The factors encountered in the design of the settling tank are: "(1) the dimensions of the tank; depth, ratio of length to width and depth, and surface area, (2) the shape of the tank, (3) the sludge removal system, (4) the baffles, (5) the inlets and outlets, (6) the velocity of flow, (7) the detention period, (8) the specific gravity and viscosity of the liquid waste, and (9) the solid content of the waste; concentration of solids, coalescence of solids, shape of the solids, and their size."

Two or more settling tanks should be provided so one is available when the other is being cleaned or repaired.

Sludge Pumps. Pumps are usually necessary to remove the settled

(6)

sludge from sedimentation tanks. The sludge deposited should be removed continuously in an amount equal to its deposition. The plunger

type of pump with adjustable stroke offers the greatest advantage in control. These pumps are equipped with electric time-clock controls, set to start and stop the pump at given intervals, run it for a short period, and then let it rest for another period.

(7)

The centrifugal pump with open impellers is recommended for pumping the untreated waste and effluents.

(59)

Dewatering of Sludge. The chief reason for dewatering sludge is to reduce the quantity of material that has to be disposed of.

(73)

However, in some of the more promising processes for color removal, dewatering has been the major obstacle. Several methods of reducing the moisture content of the sludge are discussed in the following sections.

(61)

Factors Affecting Sludge Filtration. The factors to be considered include: "(1) the type of sludge, (2) its physical and chemical characteristics, (3) the amount and kind of coagulant, (4) the amount of cake produced, (5) the moisture in the cake, and (6) the character of the filtrate."

(60)

Vacuum Filtration. A popular vacuum filter is the Oliver filter consisting of a partially submerged horizontal drum, supported in a steel tank. The wet sludge is fed into the filter tank through a pipe connection at the bottom of the tank. As the drum rotates, suction is applied to successive compartments immersed in the sludge. Water is drawn through the filter cloth while the adhering cake is freed from the revolving drum by a scraper. Vacuum filters require considerable accessory equipment. Precoats (filter-aid) on the revolving drum enhance filtration.

Centrifuging. Technological progress has made centrifuges (9)
available that can handle sludge dewatering problems. Bird
manufacturers a continuous centrifuge that can be fed slurries
containing as little as three per cent solids or very thick flows
with ease and efficiency. The capacities of the centrifuges are
available in the range of 400 or more gallons per hour.

(91)
Sharples manufactures a centrifuge , PY-14 "Super-D-Canter"
which applies high centrifugal force for separation in combination
with an internal screw conveyor for continuous removal of solids.
There is also continuous discharge of clarified liquor. Capacities
in the range of 2,000 gallons per hour are available.

Freezing and Thawing. An entirely new principle in sludge (68)
dewatering consists of alternate freezing and thawing . The
thawed sludges can be readily filtered giving sludge cakes which are
porous and friable, and which have a high solids content.

(68)
Heat Driers. Various heat dryers have been used for conversion
of wet sludge from centrifuges and sludge cake from filters into a dry
product which can be subsequently incinerated or used as a fertilizer.

According to combustion engineers, at 70 per cent moisture (91)
content the waste solids from paper mill wastes are burnable .

(4)
Flash drying of feed , the most modern method, is especially
satisfactory when fresh sludge is mixed with a sufficient quantity of (52)
previously dried sludge to reduce the moisture content of the
incoming sludge to about 50 per cent. The temperature of the drying
gases is usually about 1,000 °F and the exhaust gases leave at about
250 °F. Countercurrent flow conserves heat and also part of the

required heat may be obtained from waste heat from an adjoining
(4)
incinerator . The dust carried out by the gases is collected in
cyclones.

(52)
Incinerators. Heat drying must precede incineration .

Some supplementary fuel may be required for chemically precipitated
sludge. Incineration is one of the best methods of disposal of
sludge, but for it to be economical, as much water as possible must be
removed from the sludge. The operation of various types of incinerators
(62)
is described in the literature .

(8)
Development of a Low-Cost Plant. The factors concerning the
development of a low cost of operation are listed as follows: "(1)
initial cost of the plant; cost of necessary equipment and apparatus,
cost of installation of equipment, cost of excavation (if necessary),
cost of preparing ground at site (pilings), cost of special design work,
concrete, electric connections (wiring, controls), cost of land, cost
of covering tanks (if necessary), (2) cost of operation of the plant;
cost of electric power required daily, cost of chemicals, cost of
maintenance of equipment, cost of labor, cost of repairs and supplies,
(3) fixed charges; interest on investment in plant, and
amortization for plant obsolescence." All of the above factors should
be taken into consideration for each promising treatment process found
for decolorization of the waste. This method provides for rapid
evaluation of the process and will insure that at least the most
economical treatment will be used.

III. Experimental

The experimental section of this thesis contains the purpose of the investigation, plan of investigation, lists of materials and apparatus, experimental procedure, data, and results obtained during the investigation.

Purpose of Investigation

The purpose of this investigation was to study the practical application of various treatments of caustic wash liquor from chlorine-bleached, sulfate, wood pulp, and to design and evaluate a pilot plant for testing further, the most promising possibility for its decolorization.

Plan of Investigation

The plan of investigation consisted of three phases, the first being a literature review of pulp manufacturing processes, wood chemistry, color, stream pollution, methods of chemical treatment of waste, and chemical waste treatment plants; the second was a bench scale study of coagulants and flocculating aids and their effect on the caustic waste; and the third was the design and evaluation of a waste treatment plant for decolorization of the caustic waste.

Literature Review. A study was made of the source and composition of the waste, and of past work that was done here and by others elsewhere. In order to gain a deeper insight into the problem, a review of both color and of stream pollution was

made. Types of chemical and other treatments were reviewed with emphasis put on coagulation. Finally, the literature was scanned so to become familiar with waste treatment plants such as the one installed by the West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company at Covington, Virginia, the types of equipment necessary, and the essential factors for determining the feasibility of a process.

Preliminary Studies. Tests were performed to determine whether or not the coagulation of the caustic waste with alum would be enhanced by the addition of flocculating agents. The following commercial flocculating aids were evaluated: Separan, Guartec, Burtonite, Good-rite K-720S, Good-rite K-721S, Orzan P, and Lytron X-886.

The data for settling rates, volume of sludge, rate of filtration of sludge, effect of varying pH, transmittance of the supernatant liquors, and the amount of dry solids both before and after ashing were collected. Solutions of chemically pure aluminum sulfate and the papermakers alum solution, hereafter called alum slurry, containing finely divided clay were used with the flocculating aids to determine their relative effectiveness as a coagulant. Alum treatment, with and without flocculating aids, was compared with chlorine treatment, concentrated acid treatment, ferrous sulfate coagulation, and modifications of these procedures.

Large Scale Tests. After studying and correlating the data from the preliminary tests, a series of tests were performed

that were 16 times larger in magnitude than the first tests. From this information, and after a thorough consideration of the literature, a pilot plant for decolorization of the caustic waste was designed and evaluated by comparison with other processes.

Materials

The materials used in the experiments were as follows:

Acid, Sulfuric. Reagent, A. C. S. Standard, Lot No. 6137 CP, 96.5 per cent. Obtained from J. T. Baker Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. Used in dilute form to adjust the pH of the caustic extraction waste and in concentrated form to treat the waste.

Air, Compressed. Available at 15 pounds per square inch, gage. Used to exert pressure on the feed into the Sharples centrifuge.

Aluminum Sulfate. $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 18\text{H}_2\text{O}$ crystals, CP, Catalog No. A-613, Lot No. 511104. Manufactured and distributed by the Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used as a coagulant to precipitate solids and decolorize the caustic extraction waste.

Aluminum Sulfate Slurry. An aqueous solution of 18 weight per cent $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ containing fine clay particles and traces of other dissolved impurities. Obtained from West Virginia Pulp and Paper Co., Covington, Va. Used as a coagulant to precipitate solids and decolorize the caustic extraction waste.

Buffer Solution. Type 3581, concentrated pH 7, to be diluted 25 fold. Obtained from Beckman Division of Beckman Instruments, Inc., Fullerton, Calif. Used to standardize the pH meter.

Burtonite. Water-soluble vegetable colloid, polyelectrolyte, No. 78. Obtained from The Burtonite Co., Nutley 10, N. J. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of the caustic waste.

Calcium Hydroxide. Reagent grade. Obtained from J. T. Baker Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. Used to raise the pH of the treated waste after the addition of alum.

Ether. Anhydrous, A. C. S. Standard, Lot No. 6436. Obtained from J. T. Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. Used to partially dissolve crystals obtained from treatment of caustic extraction waste with concentrated sulfuric acid.

Filter Paper. Whatman No. 1, 32.0 centimeters, chemically prepared. Distributed by the Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to filter the liquor from the sludge obtained from the treatment of the caustic waste.

Foil, Aluminum. Reynolds Wrap, pure aluminum foil. Manufactured and distributed by the Reynolds Metals Co., Louisville, Ky. Used as a cover for the settling basin.

Good-rite K-720S. Water soluble synthetic resin, polyelectrolyte. Obtained from the B. F. Goodrich Co., 3135 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of the caustic waste.

Good-rite K-721S. Water-soluble synthetic resin, polyelectrolyte. Obtained from the B. F. Goodrich Co., 3135 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of the caustic waste.

Guartec. Vegetable colloid, polyelectrolyte. Obtained from General Mills, Inc., Special Commodities Division, 400 Second Avenue South, Minneapolis 1, Minn. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of caustic waste.

Lytron X-886. Water soluble calcium salt, polyelectrolyte. Obtained from Monsanto Chemical Co., Plastics Division, Springfield, Mass. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of caustic waste.

Orzan P. Sixty per cent lignin sulfonic acids, precipitated from dilute solutions by the addition of alum. Obtained from the Crown Zellerbach Corp., Chemical Products Division, Camas, Washington. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of caustic waste.

Potassium Fluoride. Purified, anhydrous, code 2091, Lot No. 6360. Obtained from General Chemical Division, Allied Chemical and Dye Corp., New York, N. Y. Used in quantitative analysis of sludge for alum determination.

Separan 2610. Synthetic water-soluble polymer, polyelectrolyte. Lot No. 427. Obtained from the Dow Chemical Co., Midland, Mich. Used as a flocculating agent in the treatment of caustic waste.

Sodium Carbonate. Anhydrous, A. C. S. Standard Lot No. 4295. Obtained from J. T. Baker, Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. A ten per cent weight solution was used to raise the pH of highly acidified waste.

Sodium Hydroxide. A. C. S. Standard, Lot No. 9127. Obtained from J. T. Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. Used to neutralize strongly acidic waste solutions and in treating acid solutions containing aluminum ions.

Sulfate, Ferrous. Reagent grade. Obtained from J. T. Baker Co., Phillipsburg, N. J. Used as a coagulant to precipitate solids and decolorize the caustic waste.

Waste, Caustic Extraction. See Table IV, page 72. Received from the West Virginia Pulp and Paper Co. Used in all waste treatment tests and is the waste which is to be decolorized.

Waste, Hydrochloric Acid. See Table IV, page 72. Received from the West Virginia Pulp and Paper Co. Used to lower the pH of the caustic waste.

Water, Distilled. Distilled in a Barnstead still, equipped with an electric heater and a tin condenser. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used in making all chemical solutions and in final washing of glassware.

Water, Tap. Used in trial runs of the Sharples super centrifuge.

Apparatus

The apparatus used in the experiments was as follows:

Agitator. Six positions, six paddles, ac-dc variable speed motor, 115 v. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to agitate treated caustic waste samples.

Balance, Analytical. "Chainomatic," capacity 200 grams, one-milligram graduations with vernier for tenth mg. Manufactured by Seederer-Kohlbusch, Inc., Jersey City, N. J. Used to weigh samples.

Centrifuge, Sharples Super. Laboratory size, type T-41-23, Serial No. 381A312, semi-continuous. Manufactured by Sharples Specialty Co., 23rd and Westmoreland Streets, Philadelphia, Pa. Used to dewater the sludge from the settling tank.

Crucible, Gooch. Coors porcelain, without covers, perforated bottoms for filtering, size No. 2. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used with an asbestos mat to filter treated waste under vacuum.

Funnel, Sintered Glass. Coarse and medium. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to filter samples of treated waste with the aid of an air aspirator.

Glassware, Pyrex. Assorted: beakers, burettes, erlenmeyer flasks, funnels, graduated cylinders, condenser, pipettes, round reaction flasks, stirrers, and weighing dishes. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used in the waste treatment experiments.

Heater, Electric. Plate type, No. ROPH7066, 120 v.

Manufactured by Edwin L. Wiegand Co., Pittsburgh, Pa. Used to heat samples of caustic waste.

Mixing and Settling Tank. Twenty-liter capacity, pyrex glass beaker, 11-1/2 in. diam., 11-1/2 in. high, 3/16 in. thick walls. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to mix and settle the alum treated waste.

Oven, Electric Utility. Model No. CV-8, serial No. 8-270, 110 v, ac, 5 amp. Obtained from Model Electric Laboratories, Chicago, Ill. Used to dry apparatus, samples, and chemicals.

Furnace, Electric. Type FD 204C, serial No. 34928, 110 v, 30.9 amp. Manufactured by Hoskin Mfg. Co., Detroit, Mich. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to reduce samples of treated waste to ash.

pH Meter, Beckman. Glass electrode, model H-2, serial No. 87327, 0-14 pH units, 0.1 graduations. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to measure pH of waste samples before, during, and after treatment.

Spectrophotometer. Model B, serial No. 70554, transmittance range from 0-100 per cent, sensitivity adjustments from 1-4, wave length adjustable from 310-1,020 mu, slit opening variable from 0.0-1.5. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to measure the transmittance of treated waste samples.

Stirrer. Magnetic, variable speed type, 100 v, ac, 50 cy. Obtained from Laboratories, Inc., Chicago, Ill. Used to agitate caustic waste samples during addition of sulfuric acid and alum.

Thermometer. Laboratory, mercury in glass; range, -10 to 400 °C, subdivisions, 1 °C. Obtained from Fisher Scientific Co., Silver Spring, Md. Used to measure the temperature of the waste during various phases of treatment.

Method of Procedure

The method of procedure for carrying out this investigation is given in the following sections which include the flocculation of the alum treated waste, the preparation of the flocculating aid solutions, the measurement of sludge, filtration of sludge, large scale tests, centrifuging of the sludge, spectrophometric analysis, determination of per cent solids, treatment of caustic waste with concentrated sulfuric acid, and quantitative analysis for alum in centrifuge bowl scrapings.

General Procedure. A series of tests were planned to obtain data concerning the effect of various commercial flocculating aids when used with alum on each of the following: the transmittance of the supernatant liquor, the rate of sludge settling, and rate of filtration. In other tests, for comparison, alum alone was used. Stock sulfuric acid of 0.5 N strength was used to adjust the pH of the caustic waste. However, in several tests, waste hydrochloric acid from the chlorination bleach stage was used in place of the C. P. sulfuric acid solution. Both a C. P. alum solution and papermakers' alum slurry from West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company, in Covington, Virginia, were used as coagulants. A series of tests showed the alum slurry to be more effective of the two.

The transmittances of the test samples were obtained both before and after treatment using a spectrophotometer. The height of the sludge was recorded at fixed time intervals so that the rate of sludge settling could be determined. After the supernatant liquor was decanted, the various sludges were filtered so that the effect of the flocculating aids on the rate of filtration of the alum treated waste could be determined.

The general procedure in treating the waste was to first adjust the pH of the waste to the desired value, then to add the flocculating aid while agitating at a rate of 75 revolutions per minute. Then, the desired amount of alum was added and the agitation continued at the same speed for another minute; after which the rate of mixing was decreased to 20-25 revolutions per minute and continued for 15 minutes. The stirrers were then stopped and the sludge allowed to settle.

Preparation of 0.5 N Sulfuric Acid. To 986.2 milliliters of distilled water was added 13.8 milliliters of concentrated sulfuric acid. (96.5 weight per cent, specific gravity of 1.84). This solution was prepared and stored in a one-liter volumetric flask and used as a 0.5 N stock solution to acidify the waste.

Preparation of Alum Slurry Solution from Alum Slurry as Received. A ten weight per cent alum solution was prepared by adding 400 milliliters of distilled water to 500 milliliters of alum slurry as received from West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company. This diluted solution was used chiefly in the flocculating aid tests. In the other tests, the alum slurry was used as recieved.

Preparation of Burtonite Solution. A 0.1 weight per cent solution of Burtonite was prepared by adding one gram of Burtonite to 999 milliliters of water. This mixture was stirred at 110 revolutions per minute for 25 minutes. One milliliter of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of caustic waste represent one part per million.

Preparation of Good-rite Solution. A 0.01 weight per cent solution of Good-rite K-720S was prepared by adding 0.05 gram of the Good-rite to 500 milliliters of distilled water. This mixture was stirred at 110 revolutions per minute for 25-30 minutes. The solution of Good-rite K-721S was prepared in the same way. Ten milliliters of these solutions added to 1000 milliliters of waste represent one part per million.

Preparation of Quartec Solution. A 0.1 weight per cent solution of Quartec was prepared by adding 500 milligrams of Quartec to 500 milliliters of distilled water. This mixture was stirred for 25-30 minutes at 110 revolutions per minute. One milliliter of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of waste represents one part per million.

Preparation of Lytron X-886 Solution. A 0.01 weight per cent solution of Lytron X-886 was prepared by adding 0.05 gram of the Lytron to 499 milliliters of distilled water. This mixture was stirred at 50 revolutions per minute for one hour. Ten milliliters of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of waste represents one part per million.

Preparation of Orzan P Solution. A 0.005 weight per cent solution of Orzan P was prepared by adding 0.05 grams of Orzan P to 999.9 grams of distilled water very slowly and stirred at 50 revolutions per minute for 45 minutes. Twenty milliliters of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of waste represent one part per million.

A 0.01 weight per cent solution of Orzan P was prepared by adding 0.50 gram of Orzan P to 499.9 milliliters of distilled water which was heated first to 60 °C. This mixture was stirred at 50 revolutions per minute for 30 minutes. Ten milliliters of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of waste represent one part per million.

Preparation of Separan Solution. A 0.001 weight per cent solution of Separan was prepared by adding 0.005 gram of Separan to 500 milliliters of distilled water. This mixture was stirred at 110 revolutions per minute for two hours. One hundred milliliters of this solution added to 1000 milliliters of waste represent one part per million.

Spectrophotometric Analysis. A Beckman spectrophotometer was used for measuring and comparing the color content of the treated waste samples. The color content was expressed as per cent transmittance, relative to 100 per cent transmittance for distilled water. The transmittance of the waste was obtained both before and after treatment.
(1)
A standard operating procedure was followed in all determinations of transmittance. Preliminary studies revealed that a wavelength of 580 millimicrons provided a satisfactory operating range.

Properties and Composition of the Caustic Waste, Acid Waste, and the Aluminum Sulfate Slurry. The light transmittance of the waste samples was determined by using a spectrophotometer and their pH was obtained with a pH meter. The density, per cent dry solids and per cent non-volatile solids of the acid waste and alum slurry were obtained by standard operating procedures. The caustic waste was titrated with the acid waste to determine how much acid waste was required to lower its pH.

Treatment of Caustic Waste with Concentrated Acids. To 100 grams of caustic waste was added one milliliter of concentrated sulfuric acid. The mixture was stirred and the particles of precipitate allowed to coagulate and settle. The resulting mixture was filtered under vacuum through a pre-ignited, pre-weighed Gooch asbestos lined crucible. The crucible and sample were dried at 120 °C and weighed and then ignited in an electric oven at 700 °C and the crucible reweighed. The per cent dry solids and non-volatile solids were determined.

Also, ten liters of caustic waste were treated with 100 milliliters of concentrated sulfuric acid. A portion of the dried solids from this batch were purified by dissolving them and then re-precipitating the solids. The dried solids were dissolved with 1.0 N sodium hydroxide and heated to 98 °C. The solids were re-precipitated by acidification with both dilute and concentrated sulfuric acid. The sludge was filtered, washed, and dried, and the per cent recovery of solids determined.

The waste was also treated with other acids. These included nitric acid, hydrochloric acid, and phosphoric acid. In most cases 100

milliliters of waste was treated. Sludge settling data were collected and the transmittances of the supernatant liquors obtained.

Measurement of Sludge. Both the height of the sludge and the height of the supernatant liquor and the sludge were measured with a scale. The measurements were made at least three times within 24 hours and in many tests were made each 15 minutes during the first hour. The measurements were recorded and calculations made so that the sludge volume was given in milliliters.

Filtration of Sludge. As much supernatant liquor as possible was siphoned from each sample, taking care not to disturb the sludge. The sludge was then stirred so that it was well mixed with the remaining liquor. The mixture was then poured carefully onto a No. 1, thirty-two-centimeter filter paper on a glass funnel. The volume of collected filtrate was observed and recorded at designated times.

Large Scale Tests. Sixteen liters of caustic waste were acidified with 0.5 N sulfuric acid in a 20-liter glass tank. The desired amount of alum slurry was then added and the mixture agitated for one minute at 75 revolutions per minute, then mixed for 15 minutes at 15-20 revolutions per minute. The particles were allowed to settle and the rate of settling was determined by frequent measurements. After the settling was complete, the supernatant liquor was siphoned off and the volume of liquor and sludge measured and recorded. The solids content of both the liquor and the sludge was determined and part of the sludge centrifuged.

Centrifuging the Sludge. The sludge obtained from the coagulation of the caustic waste with alum slurry was fed from a calibrated feed

tank to the feed nozzle at the bottom of the Sharples super centrifuge by the combination of gravity flow and five to ten pounds per square inch, gage, of air pressure. The centrifuge bowl was eight inches high and 1-3/4 inches in diameter. The hold-up of the bowl, using ring dam No. 5 C, was about 175 milliliters when in motion. When operating correctly the sludge was dewatered, packing the inner wall of the bowl with wet solids and yielding a clear effluent through the two nozzles. During the several tests, by varying the steam pressure from 25 to 40 pounds per square inch, gage, the speed of the centrifuge bowl was varied from 3000 to 7000 revolutions per minute. The average rate of feed was about 75 milliliters per minute. Occasionally, the feed line plugged but was cleared by increasing the air pressure. The average time for a test was about 15 minutes.

During the tests there was some leakage from the bottom of the bowl. Also, when the test was completed and the centrifuge bowl had come to rest, all of the hold-up drained out. All of the streams; the feed, effluent (both clear and cloudy), leakage, drainage, and scrapings from the bowl were sampled and their weight or volume recorded. The solids content of the samples was determined.

The data obtained from centrifuging the sludge and the analyses of the samples for solids and per cent aluminum sulfate recovery was pertinent in the design of the treatment plant.

Analysis of Samples for Solids Content. Samples of treated waste and of streams entering and leaving the centrifuge were analyzed for total solids, insoluble solids, and non-volatile solids. Standard weighing, drying, and igniting procedures were followed in all tests.

Quantitative Analysis for Aluminum Sulfate in Scrapings from the Centrifuge Bowl. A sample of about five grams of bowl scrapings was weighed accurately on an analytical balance. The sample was placed in a round bottom flask and 25.0 grams of distilled water added. Then 5.514 grams of concentrated sulfuric acid was added. The flask was fitted with a reflux condenser and heated to boiling and allowed to remain at the boiling point for one hour. The mixture was then allowed to cool at room temperature and filtered. The filtrate was diluted to 100 milliliters with the wash water that passed through the filter paper. Then, 100 milliliters was divided into four equal parts using a 25-milliliter pipette. Two of the aliquots were titrated with standardized 0.9940 N sodium hydroxide as they were. One gram of potassium fluoride was dissolved in each of the other two aliquots and then these were titrated in the same way. A potassium fluoride blank was also titrated. The difference in volume of sodium hydroxide solution of known normality represented an equivalent amount of aluminum sulfate. The purpose of the potassium fluoride was to tie up the aluminum sulfate ions so they would not be titrated.

Data and Results

The following section contains the data and results obtained from the investigation of various treatments of caustic wash liquor from chlorine-bleached, sulfate, wood pulp.

Flocculating Aids. The data for the tests using Separan are shown in Table II, and graphically in Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12.

The data for the tests using Burtonite, Good-rite K-720S, Good-rite K-721S, Quartec, Lytron X-886, and Orzan P are shown in Table III, and is shown graphically in Figures 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19.

Coagulation with C. P. Alum and Alum Slurry. The data for the tests using C. P. alum and alum slurry are shown in Tables II and III, and shown graphically in Figures 20, 21, 22, and 23.

Properties and Composition of the Caustic Waste, Chlorination Stage Acid Waste, and the Aluminum Sulfate Slurry. The data showing the properties and composition of the caustic waste, acid waste, and the aluminum sulfate slurry are shown in Tables IV and V.

Data for pH Titration of Caustic Extraction Waste Streams with Hydrochloric Acid Waste. The data obtained from the titration of the caustic waste with the acidic waste from the chlorination bleach stage are shown in Table VI.

Quantities of Chemical Added in Large Scale Coagulation of Caustic Waste. The data representing the amounts of chemicals added in the treatment of the caustic waste are shown in Table X.

Results of Centrifuge Tests. The data for the tests in which the sludge resulting from alum coagulation of the waste are shown in Table XI.

Determination of Per Cent Solids in Streams Entering and Leaving the Centrifuge. The data for the determination of per cent total solids, insoluble solids, and non-volatile solids of the various streams entering and leaving the centrifuge are shown in Table XII.

Quantitative Analysis to Determine the Per Cent Alum Recovery after Centrifuging. The data for the tests to determine the recovery of alum are shown in Table XIII.

TABLE II
Experimental Conditions and Results From Treatment of Caustic
Wash Liquors with Alum and Separan

Sample & Test No.	pH			Acid Added GM/L	Alum Added GM/L	Separan Added PPM	Temperature °C	Settling Test								Filtration Test							Transmittance		Remarks			
	of Waste	After Add- ing Acid	After Add- ing Alum					Total Vol. Ml.	Time Hr.	Sludge Vol. Ml.	Sludge %	Time Hr.	Sludge Vol. Ml.	Sludge %	Time Hr.	Sludge Vol. Ml.	Sludge %	Volume Decanted Ml.	Volume of Filtrate After							Before Add- ing Alum %	After Settling %	
																			1 min. Ml.	2 min. Ml.	4 min. Ml.	10 min. Ml.	12 min. Ml.	20 min. Ml.				
IV	10.40	6.00	4.10	0.893	1.49	0.015	30.0	1052.8	0.5	510	48.5	6.00	319	30.3	23.00	288	27.4	711	30.0	49.5	75.2	121.0	126.0			10.8	80.0	pH was adjusted to 4.00-4.30 For tests IV through XIII after addition of alum and before addition of
V	10.40	6.00	4.07	0.878	1.50	0.030	30.4	1053.8	0.5	447	42.4	5.67	271	25.7	22.50	246	23.4	680	15.0	29.1	51.0	90.0	93.0			11.3	80.0	
VI	10.40	6.00	4.05	0.920	1.50	0.045	31.8	1057.0	0.5	536	50.8	5.33	316	29.9	22.33	284	26.9	652	17.0	31.0	55.0	99.0	104.0			9.5	79.2	
VII	10.40	6.00	4.10	0.925	1.50	0.060	31.8	1058.6	0.5	474	44.8	4.90	291	27.5	22.00	243	23.0	712	30.0	48.0	72.0	113.8	126.0			10.5	79.8	
VIII	10.40	6.00	4.10	0.913	1.50	0.120	28.5	1064.1	0.5	359	33.7	5.50	210	19.7	19.00	186	17.5	786	37.5	58.0	83.0	126.5	138.0			10.9	78.0	Separan
IX	10.40	6.05	4.10	0.907	1.50	0.240	30.0	1076.0	0.5	350	32.5	4.80	226	21.0	18.50	200	18.6	806	19.0	34.0	54.0	90.0	102.0			10.8	78.0	
X	10.40	6.00	4.12	0.957	1.50	0.000	28.6	1054.0	0.5	407	38.6	4.20	229	21.7	17.75	204	19.3	710	21.0	36.0	64.0	108.0	120.0			10.8	75.0	Amount of Separan added was varied at pH of
XI	10.40	6.00	4.30	0.898	1.50	0.480	29.0	1099.6	0.5	360	32.7	3.50	282	25.6	22.00	240	21.8	810	30.0	49.0	74.0	118.0	127.0	155.0		10.8	80.0	
XII	10.40	5.95	4.30	0.903	1.50	0.960	29.0	1147.8	0.5	337	29.4	3.16	275	24.0	21.67	230	20.0	885	25.0	40.0	62.0	96.0	104.0	133.0		10.8	81.0	
XIII	10.40	6.00	4.30	0.878	1.50	2.000	30.0	1250.8	0.5	333	26.5	2.84	269	21.5	21.33	238	19.0	935	26.0	44.0	70.0	114.0	125.0	161.0		10.9	84.0	
I-C	10.40		5.80		1.50	0.480	28.5	1063.0	0.5	381	35.8	8.00	349	32.8	24.00	285	26.8	690	13.0	22.0	31.5	52.0			74.0	8.0	7.0	5.80 for I-C & II-C and at pH 5.73 for I-D through IV-D.
II-C	10.40		5.80		1.50	0.960	29.0	1111.0	0.5	458	41.2	8.00	380	34.2	24.00	289	26.0	734	13.0	22.0	31.5	52.3				8.0	8.0	
I-D	10.10		5.70		1.50	0.000	25.4	1015.0	0.5	599	58.0	7.50	306	30.1	18.00	294	29.0									8.0	8.0	
II-D	10.20		5.73		1.50	0.120	25.8	1027.0	0.5	513	50.0	7.16	332	32.4	17.67	317	30.8									8.0	8.0	
III-D	10.18		5.73		1.50	0.240	26.0	1039.0	0.5	418	40.3	6.84	263	25.3	17.33	239	23.0									8.0	8.0	0.5 N H ₂ SO ₄ added to Tests I-B through IV-D to bring pH to 4.00-4.70 after alum and Separan had been added.
IV-D	10.20		5.73		1.50	0.480	26.4	1063.0	0.5	525	49.4	6.50	334	31.4	17.00	302	28.4						76.0	97.5		8.0	88.0	
I-E		4.70		0.140			28.0	1020.7	0.5	574	56.2	12.50	348	34.1	22.50	336	32.9	550	18.0	28.0	42.0					9.0	85.0	
II-E		4.50		0.169			28.0	1033.9	0.5	602	58.1	12.33	370	35.8	22.16	355	34.3	482	19.0	33.0	50.0			89.5	114.5	9.0	92.0	
III-E		4.35		0.230			28.6	1048.4	0.5	404	38.5	12.09	323	30.8	21.91	307	29.3	580	18.0	29.0	44.5			81.0	103.5	9.0	92.0	Amount of alum used in Tests I-A through V-A
IV-E		4.03		0.340			28.4	1075.4	0.5	407	37.8	11.84	347	32.3	21.67	331	29.8									9.4	44.0	
I-A	10.30	6.00	5.45	0.918	0.375	0.015	32.0	1042.7	0.5	no sludge	no sludge	5.80	no sludge	no sludge	18.50	no sludge	no sludge									9.4	44.0	
II-A	10.32	6.00	4.50	0.946	0.750	0.015	32.0	1047.6	0.5	280	26.7	5.67	268	25.6	18.33	195	18.6									10.0	77.0	
III-A	10.30	6.00	4.13	0.938	1.500	0.015	31.0	1054.8	0.5	415	39.3	5.67	264	25.0	18.00	227	21.5									9.5	70.0	and tests I-K through IV-K was varied.
IV-A	10.30	6.00	4.00	0.953	3.000	0.015	32.2	1079.4	0.5	421	39.0	5.67	240	22.2	17.75	236	21.9									9.5	72.0	
V-A	10.28	6.00	3.90	0.957	6.000	0.015	31.8	1100.5	0.5	412	38.4	5.25	263	23.9	17.30	249	22.6									9.8	cloudy	
I-K	10.10	6.00	4.50	0.844	0.750	0.480	23.2	1089.9	0.5	211	19.3	12.00	189	17.3	24.20	133	12.2									9.8	84.0	
II-K	10.10	6.00	4.15	0.818	1.500	0.480	23.0	1036.4	0.5	374	34.1	11.67	265	24.2	23.80	248	22.6									9.8	84.0	Amount of alum and the pH varied for tests I-B through IV-B.
III-K	10.10	6.00	4.00	0.848	3.000	0.480	22.6	1112.6	0.5	325	29.2	11.33	278	25.0	23.50	262	23.6									10.0	79.0	
IV-K	10.10	6.00	3.80	0.829	6.000	0.480	22.2	1141.8	0.5	398	34.8	11.00	286	25.0	23.20	270	23.6									10.0	70.0	
I-B	10.40	7.88	6.00	0.543	0.750	0.015	29.7	1031.1	0.5	98	9.5	5.67	85	8.3	18.50	85	8.3	585	22.0	40.0	61.0	111.0			10.2	86.0		
II-B	10.40	8.00	4.75	0.526	1.500	0.015	29.7	1032.0	0.5	535	51.8	5.33	304	29.4	18.00	280	27.1	545	18.0	33.0	51.0	91.0				9.8	92.0	pH was varied for tests I-E through III-E, I-G through III-G, I-H through III-H, and I-J through III-J.
III-B	10.40		4.50		3.000	0.015	29.8	1031.5	0.5	516	50.0	5.00	381	36.9	18.00	356	34.5									9.8	86.0	
IV-B	10.40		4.30		6.000	0.015	29.6	1061.5	0.5	388	36.5	4.75	325	30.6	17.67	288	27.1	605	14.0	27.0	41.0			121.0	150.0	8.0	84.0	
I-E	10.30	7.90	4.75	0.486	1.500	0.480	27.5	1082.8	0.5	516	47.6	6.16	290	26.8	24.67	264	24.4	630	24.0	42.0	60.0			84.0	105.0	9.0	88.0	
II-E	10.30	7.00	4.50	0.626	1.500	0.480	28.0	1088.1	0.5	427	39.2	5.84	256	23.5	24.33	220	20.2	715	17.0	28.5	41.0			96.5	124.5	10.0	82.0	through III-H, and I-J through III-J.
III-E	10.30	6.00	4.25	0.915	1.500	0.480	28.5	1100.3	0.5	334	30.4	5.54	222	20.2	24.00	198	34.8	740	21.0	35.0	54.0					7.0	93.0	
I-G	10.10	8.00	4.80	0.427	1.500	0.480	29.5	1080.4	0.5	524	48.5	11.25	376	34.8	23.25	272												

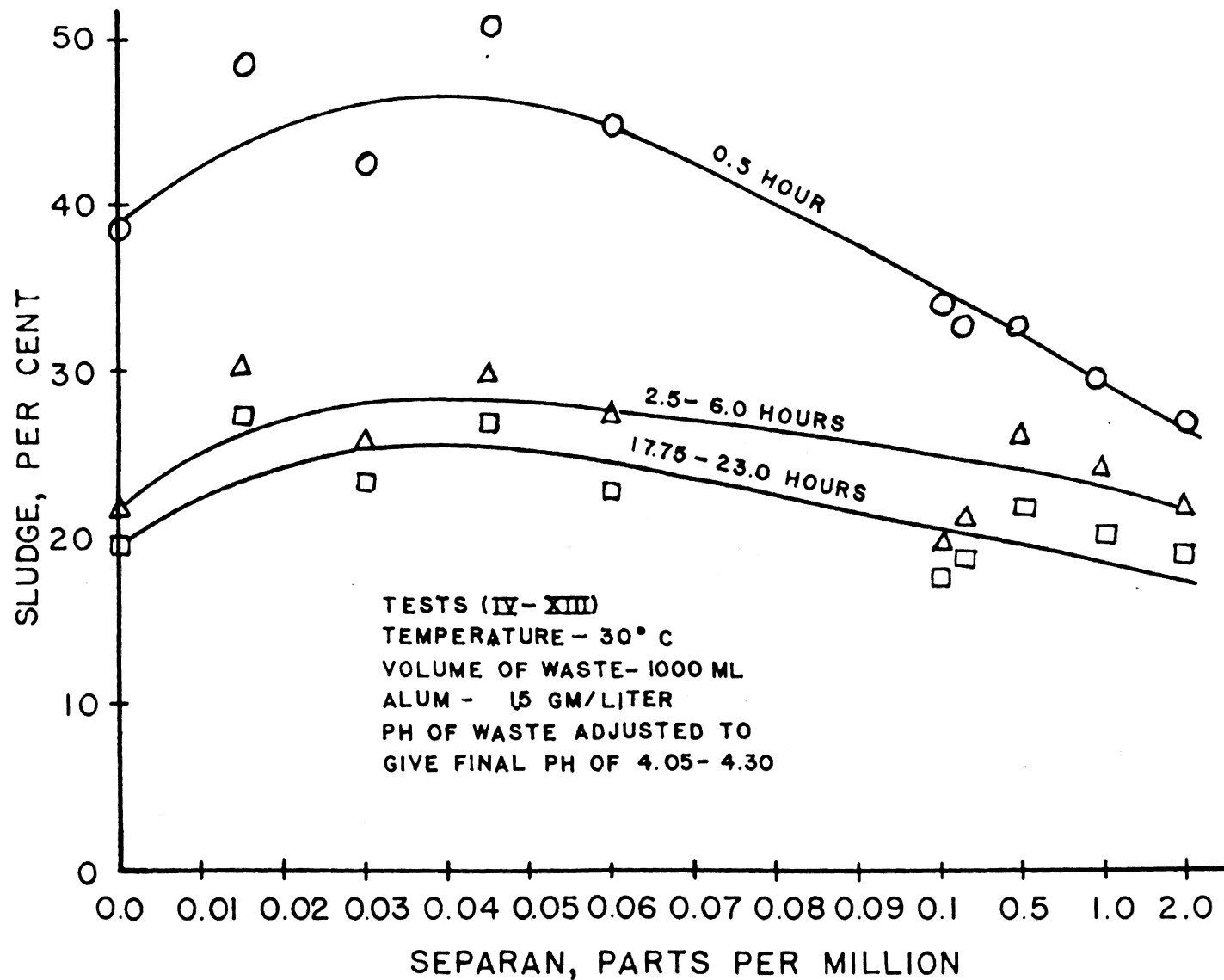


FIGURE 1 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF SEPARAN
 ON VOLUME OF SETTLED SLUDGE
 AT PH OF 4.05- 4.30

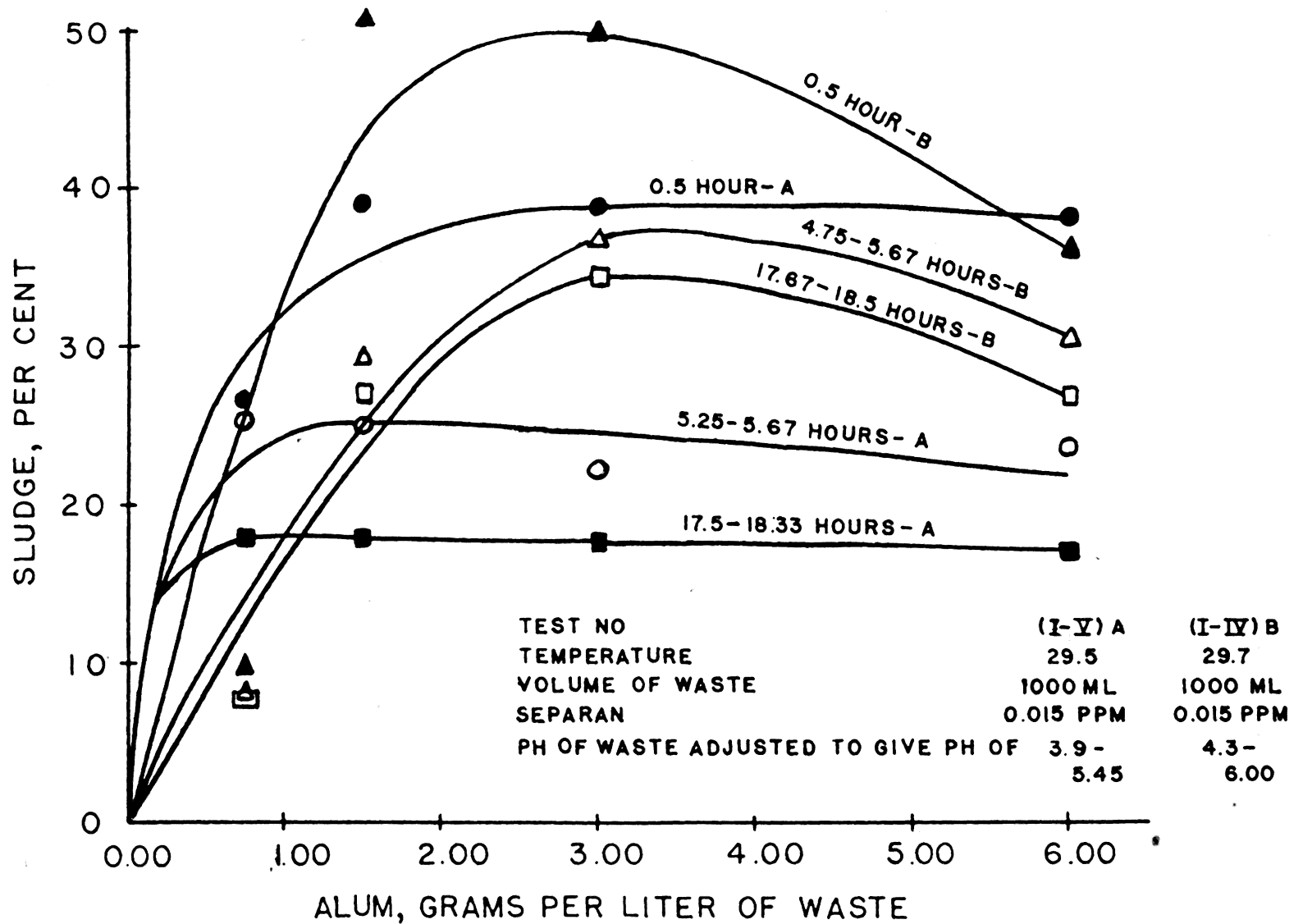


FIGURE 2 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF ALUM
ON VOLUME OF SLUDGE
USING 0.015 PPM SEPARAN

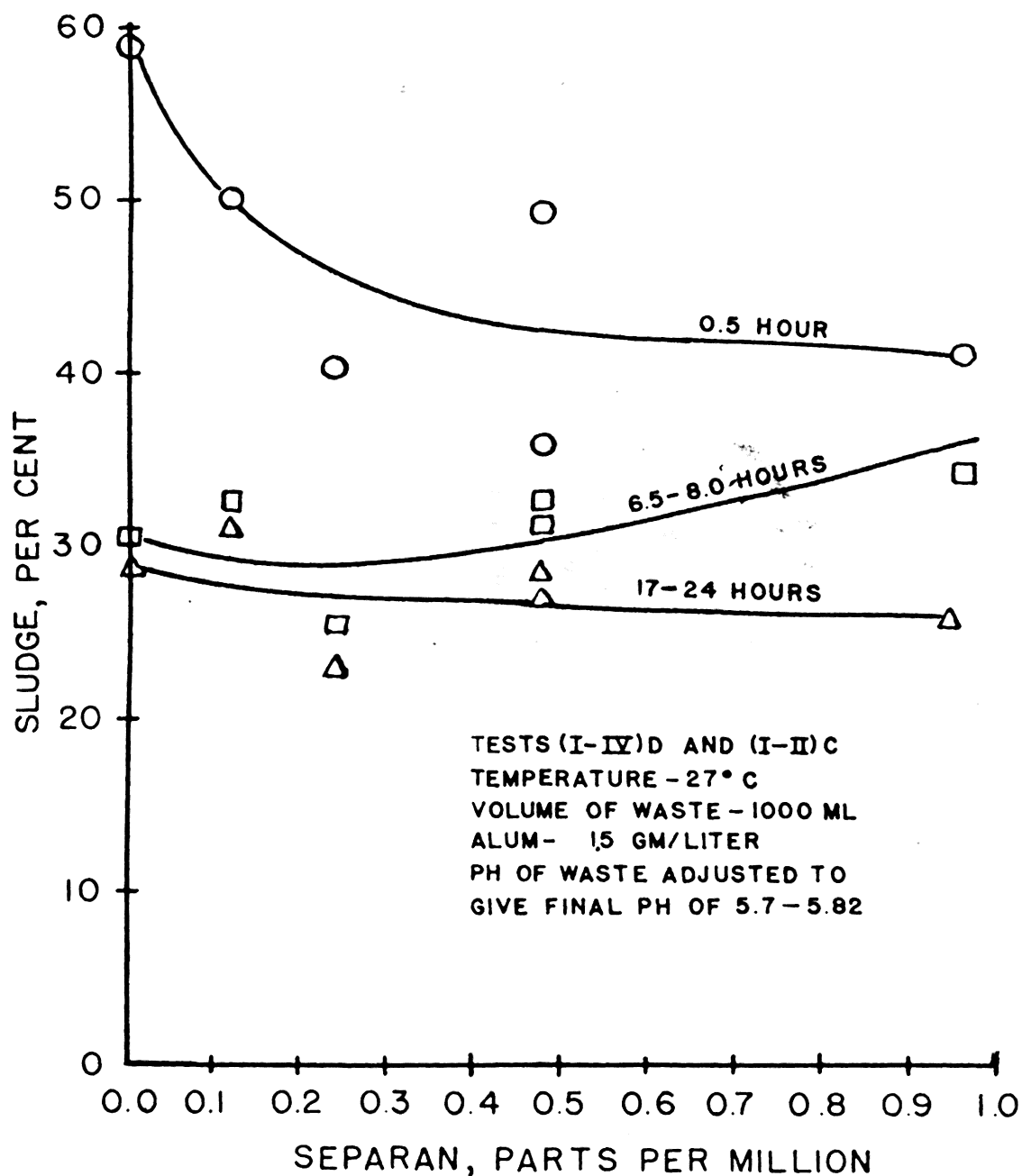


FIGURE 3 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF SEPARAN
 ON VOLUME OF SETTLED SLUDGE
 AT PH OF 5.7-5.82

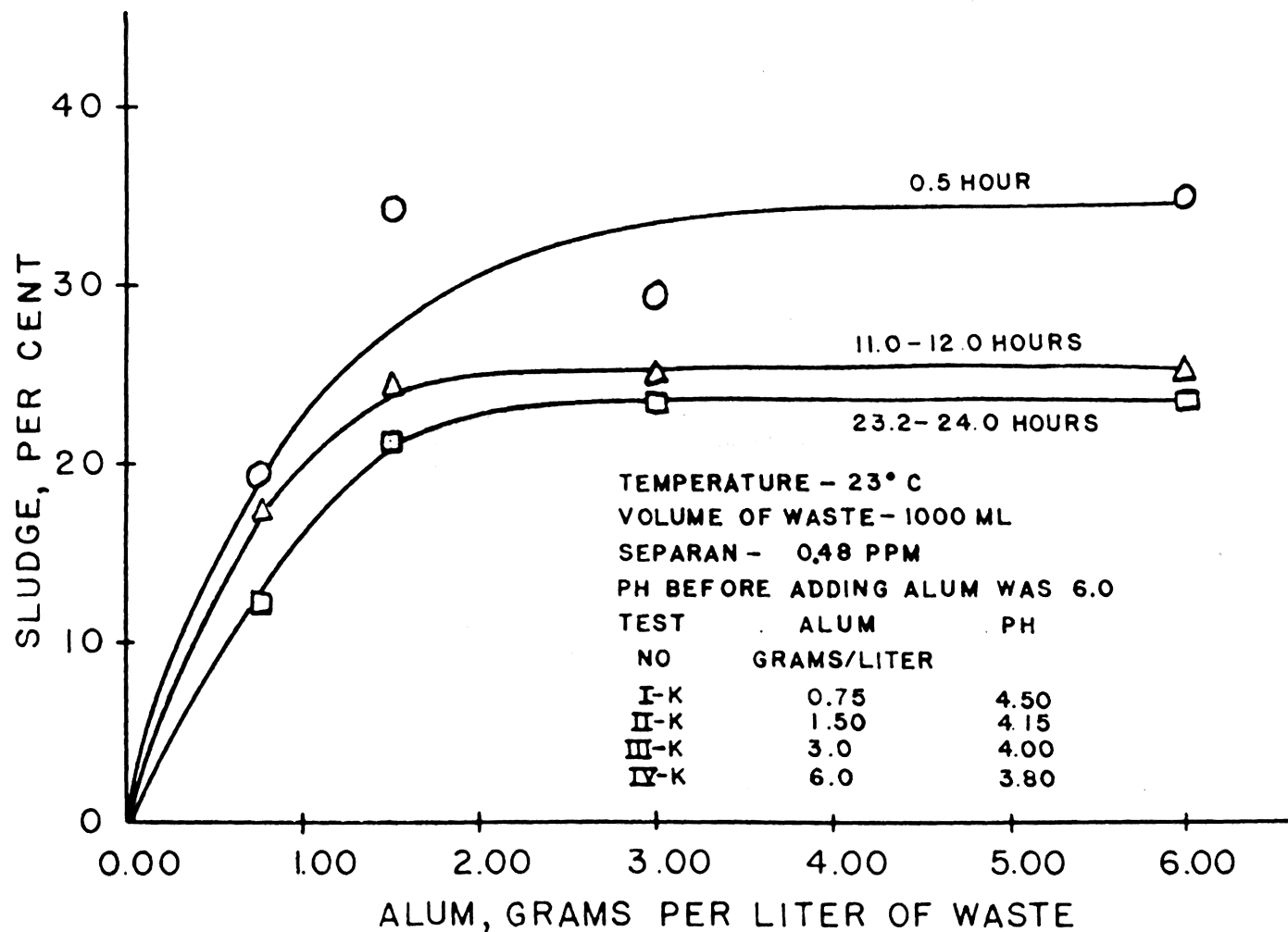


FIGURE 4 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF ALUM
 ON VOLUME OF SLUDGE
 USING 0.5 PPM SEPARAN

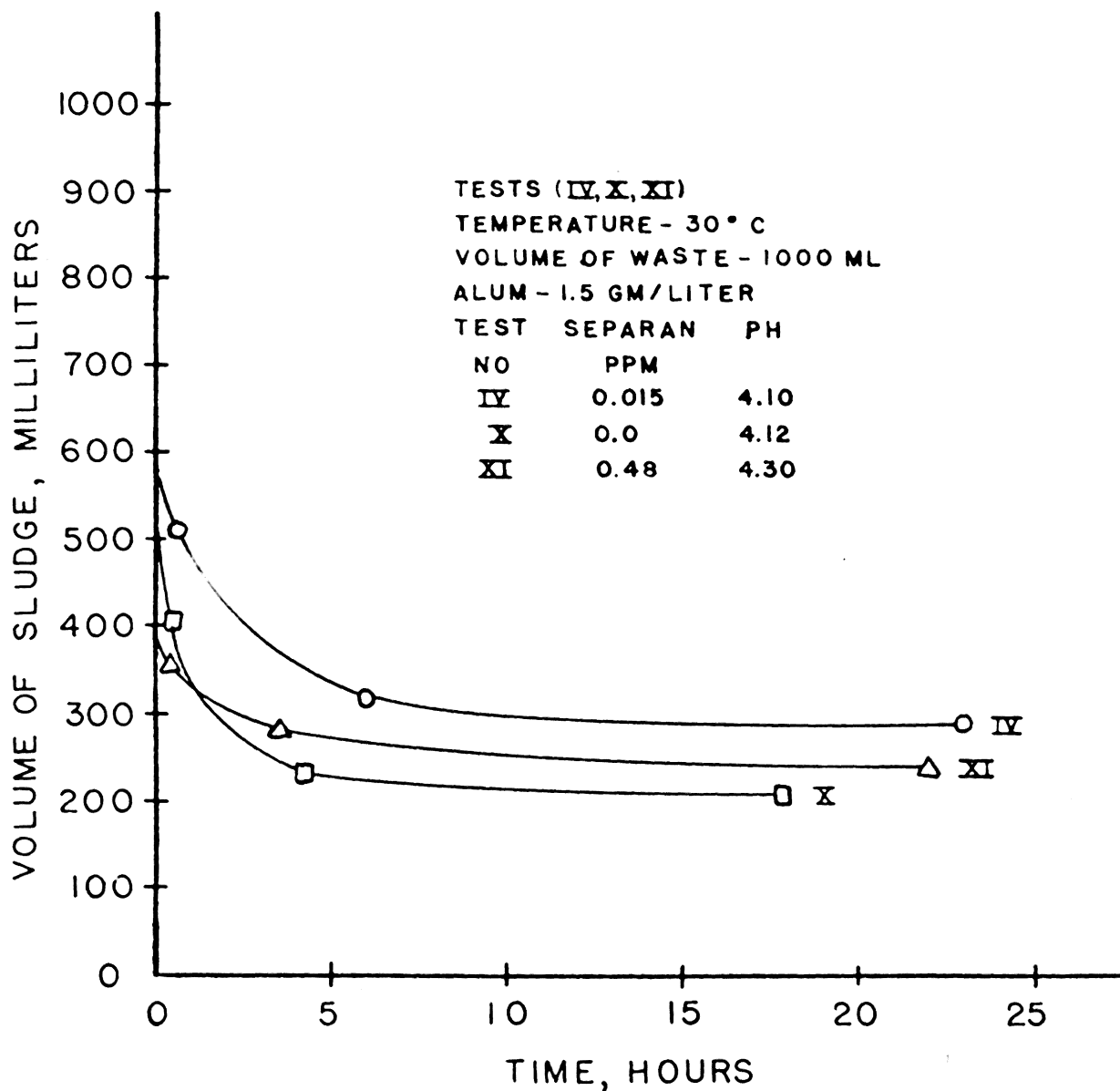


FIGURE 5 EFFECT OF SEPARAN ON
 SETTLING OF SLUDGE

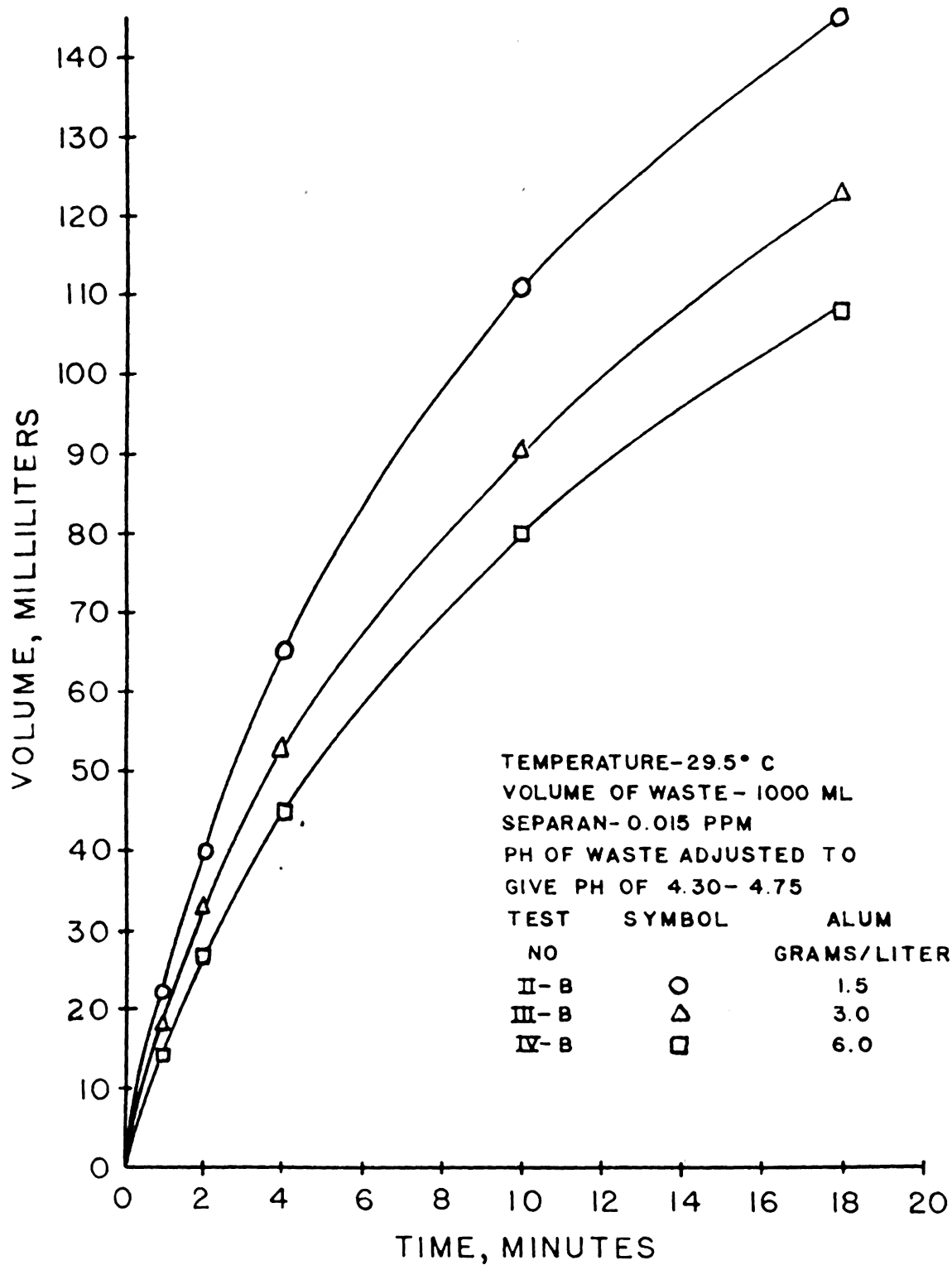


FIGURE 6 EFFECT OF VARYING AMOUNT OF ALUM
 ON RATES OF FILTRATION

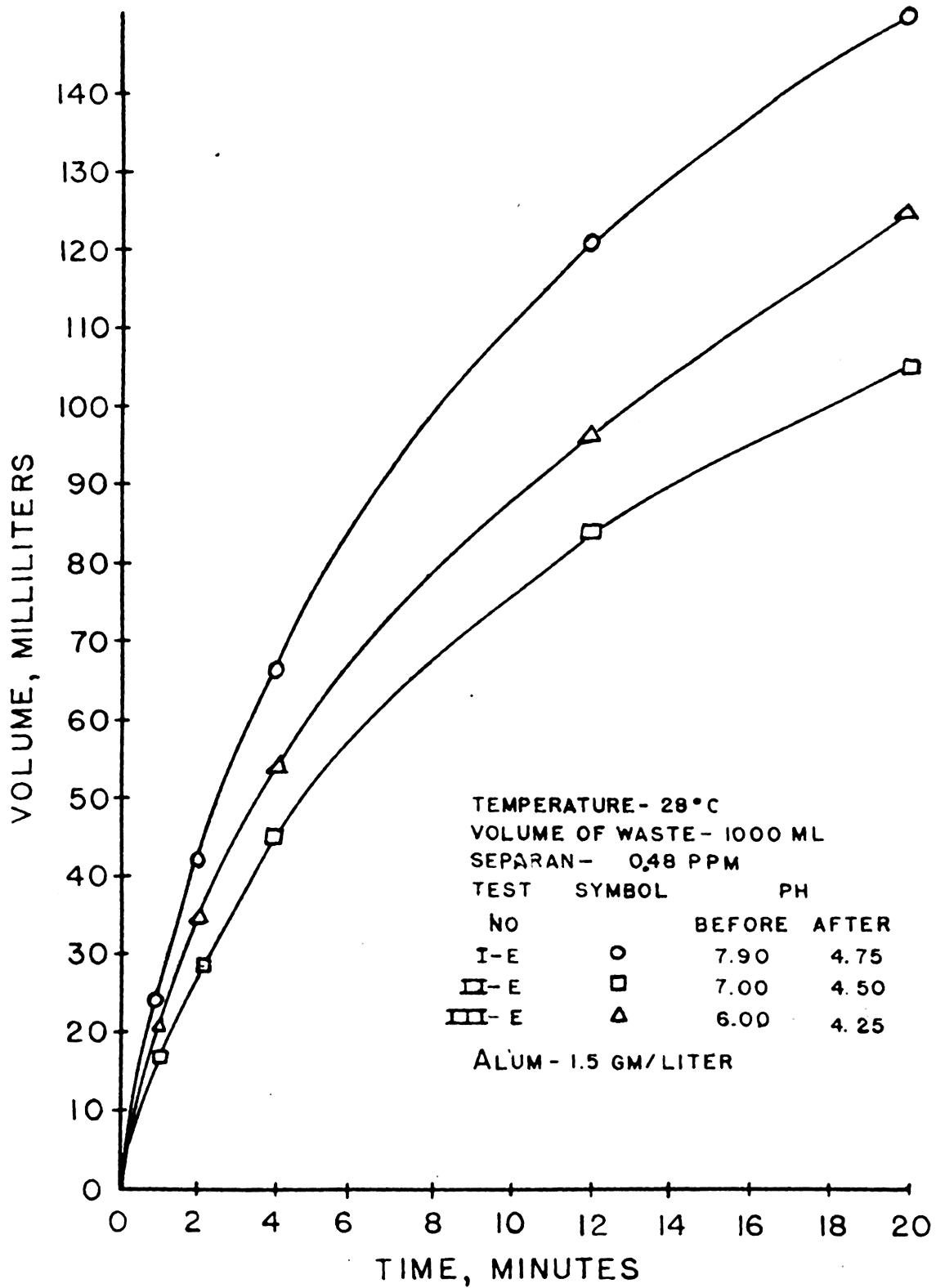


FIGURE 7 EFFECT OF VARYING PH ON RATES OF FILTRATION

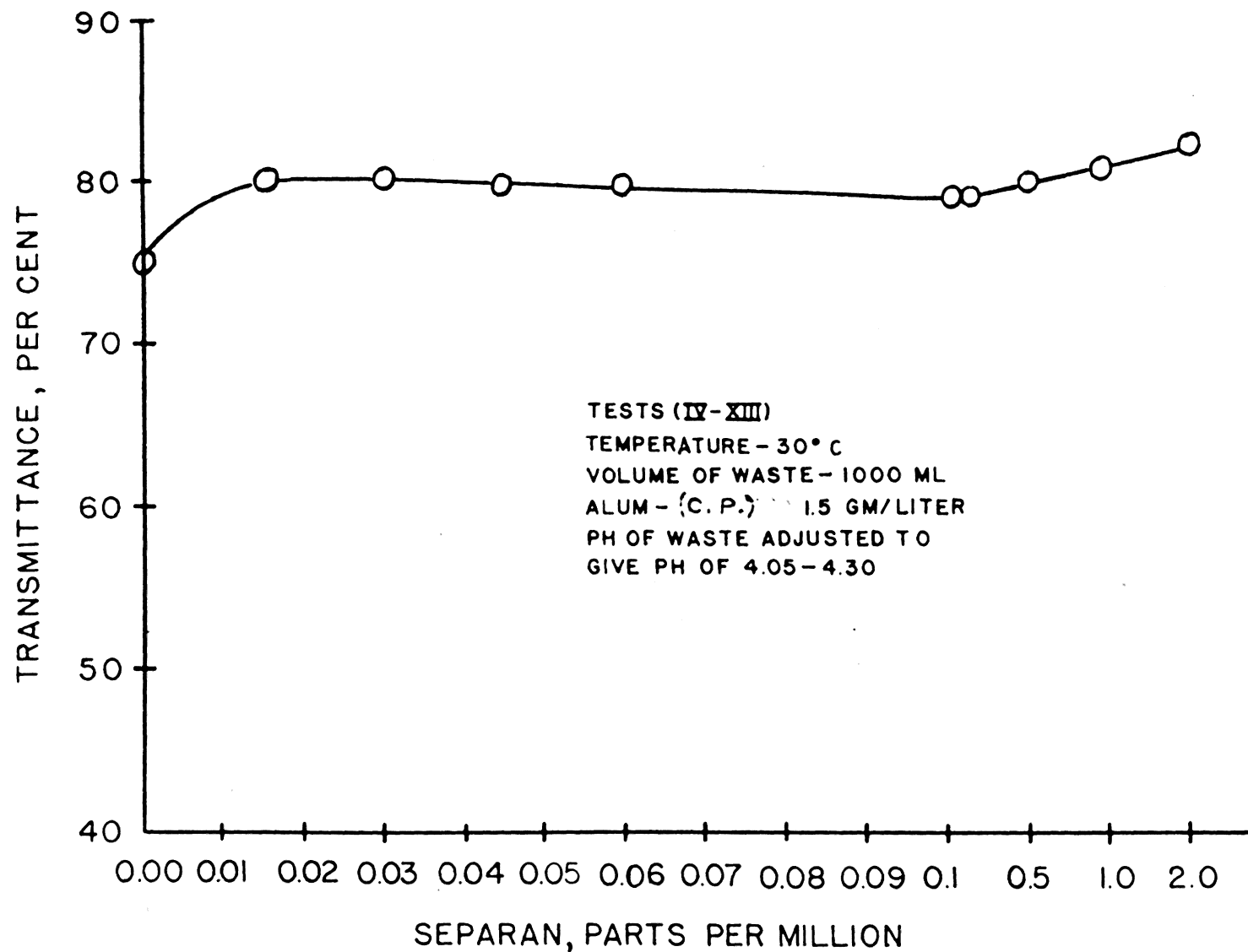


FIGURE 8 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF SEPARAN ON THE TRANSMITTANCE
OF THE SUPERNATANT LIQUOR

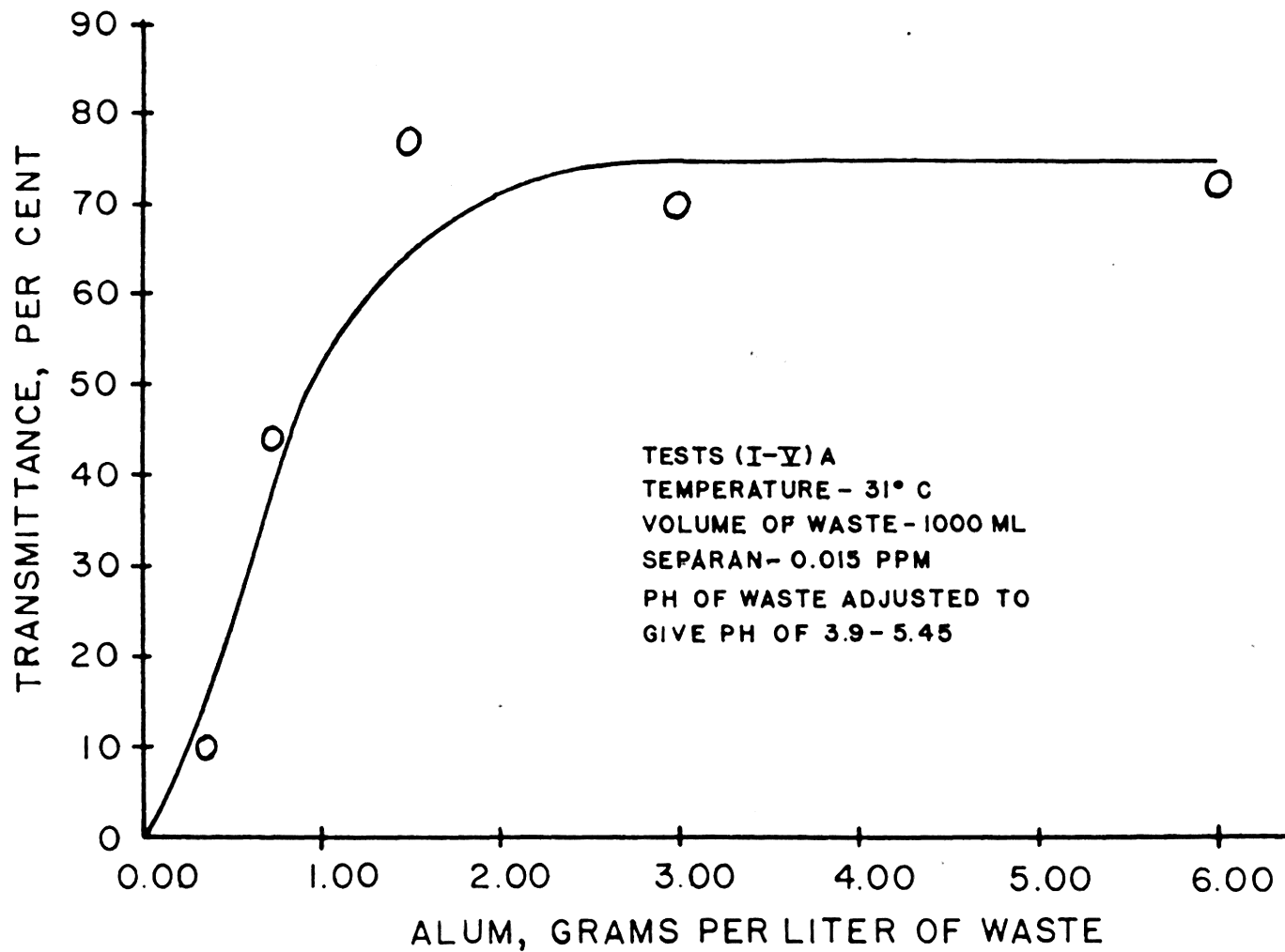


FIGURE 9 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF ALUM ON THE TRANSMITTANCE
OF THE SUPERNATANT LIQUOR
AT PH OF 3.9-5.45

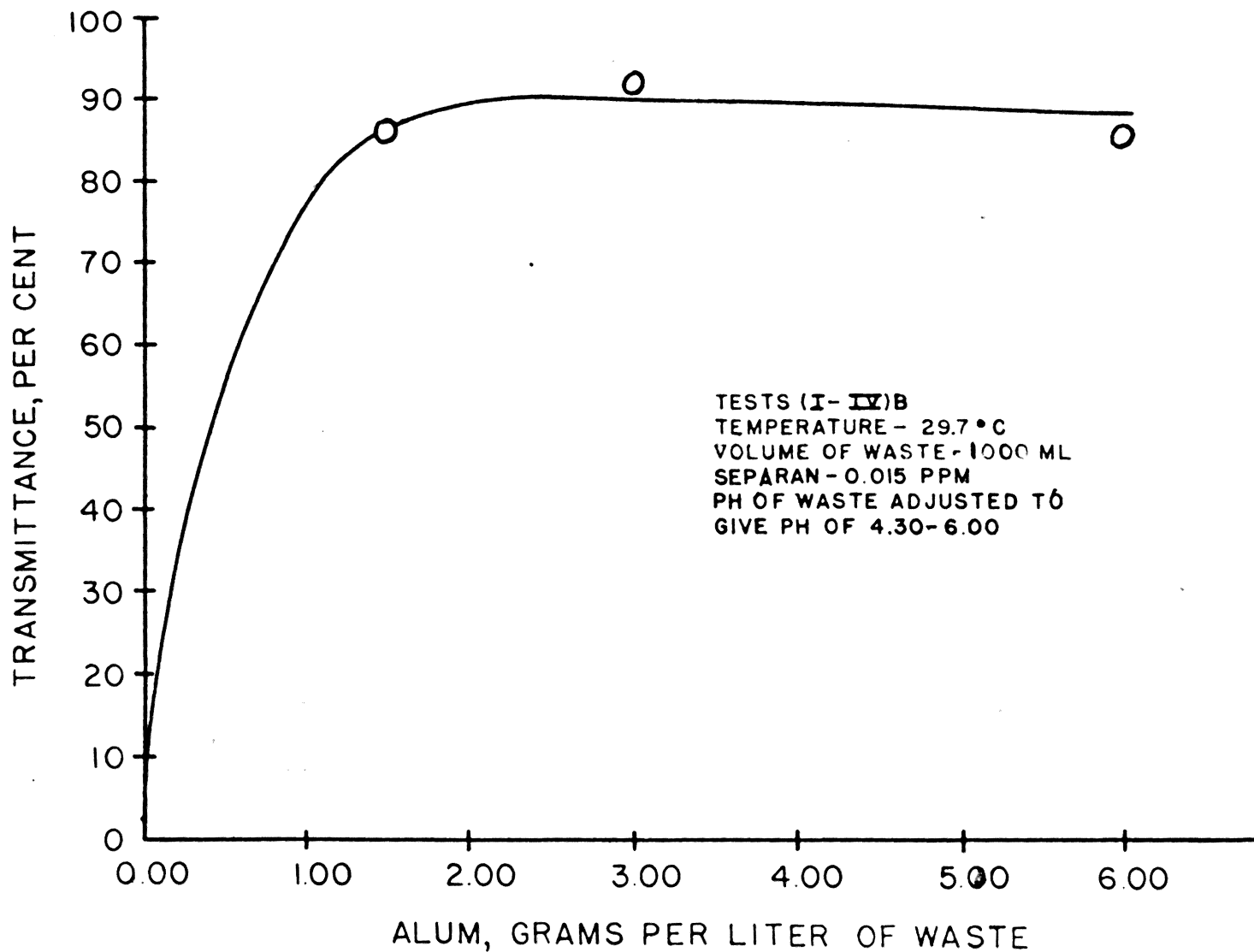


FIGURE 10 EFFECT OF AMOUNT OF ALUM ON THE TRANSMITTANCE
OF THE SUPERNATANT LIQUOR
AT PH OF 4.30-6.00

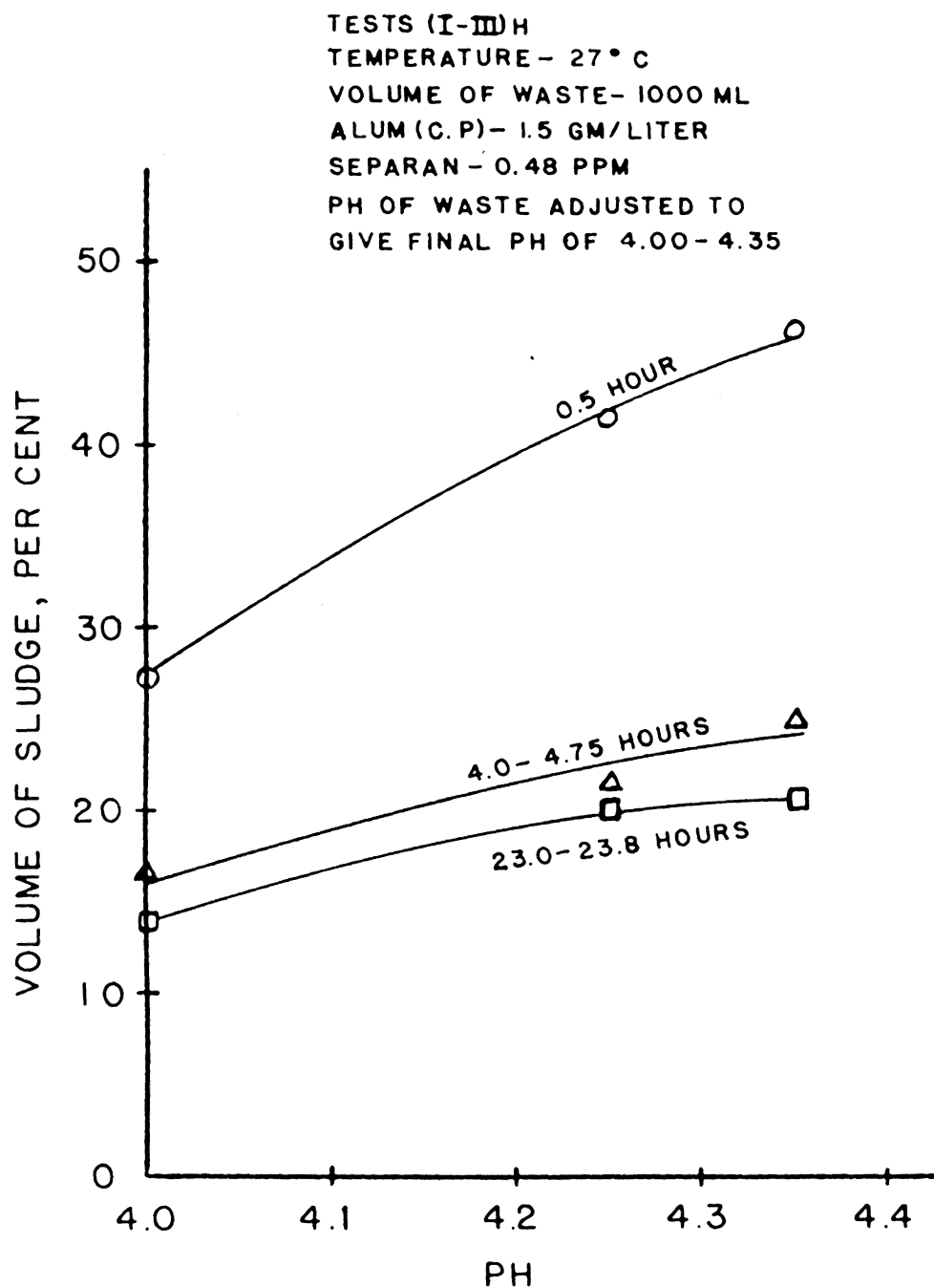


FIGURE II EFFECT OF PH ON VOLUME OF SLUDGE
USING WASTE ACID FROM CHLORINE
BLEACH AND C. P. STOCK ALUM

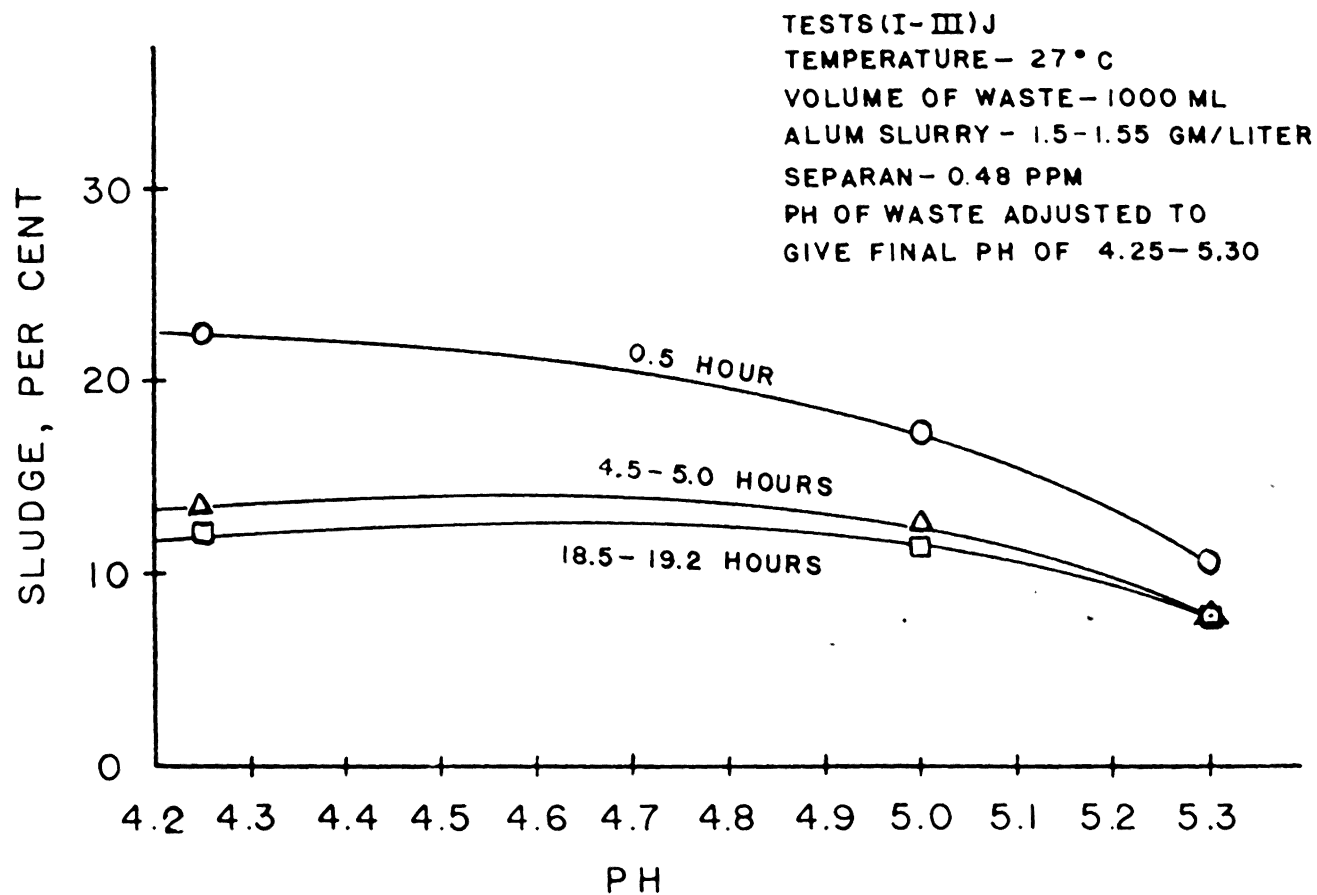


FIGURE 12 EFFECT OF PH ON VOLUME OF SLUDGE
USING WASTE ACID AND ALUM SLURRY

TABLE III.
Experimental Conditions and Results from Various Treatments
of Caustic Liquor to Remove Color

Book 817		pH		Quantity		Temperature		Settling Tests										Filtration Tests							Transmittance		Remarks																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																					
Test	Page	of Waste ^a	After Adding 0.5 N Sulfuric Acid	After Adding C.P. Alum or Alum Slurry	Acid Added Gm/Lb	Alum Added Gm/L	Flocculating Agent or Cl ₂ Added ppm	When chemicals added, during mixing and settling °C	Total Volume Ml	Sludge						Volume Decanted Ml	Volume of Filtrate After:						Before Treatment %	After Treatment %																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																								
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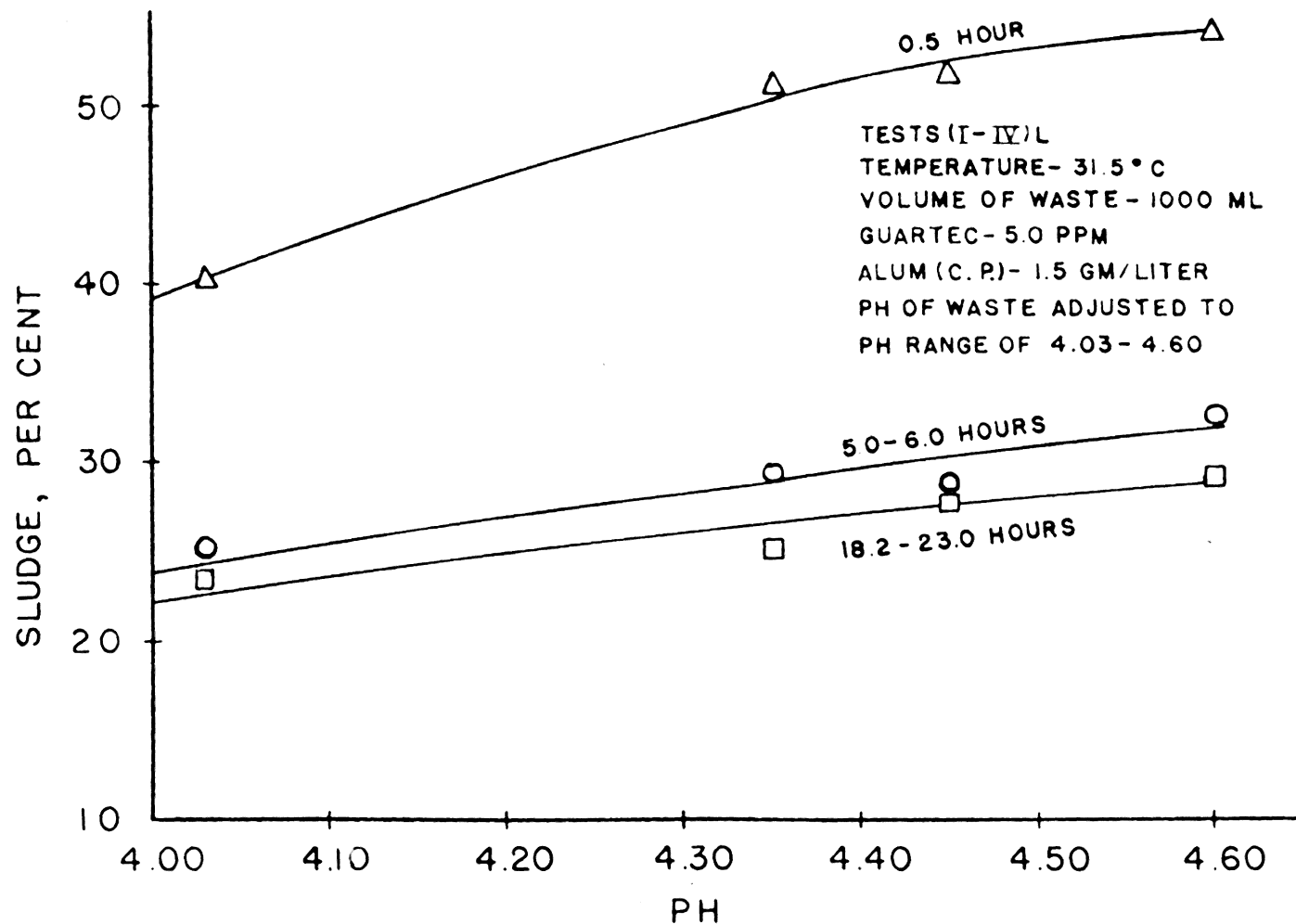


FIGURE 13 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING GUARTEC
ON VOLUME OF SETTLED SLUDGE

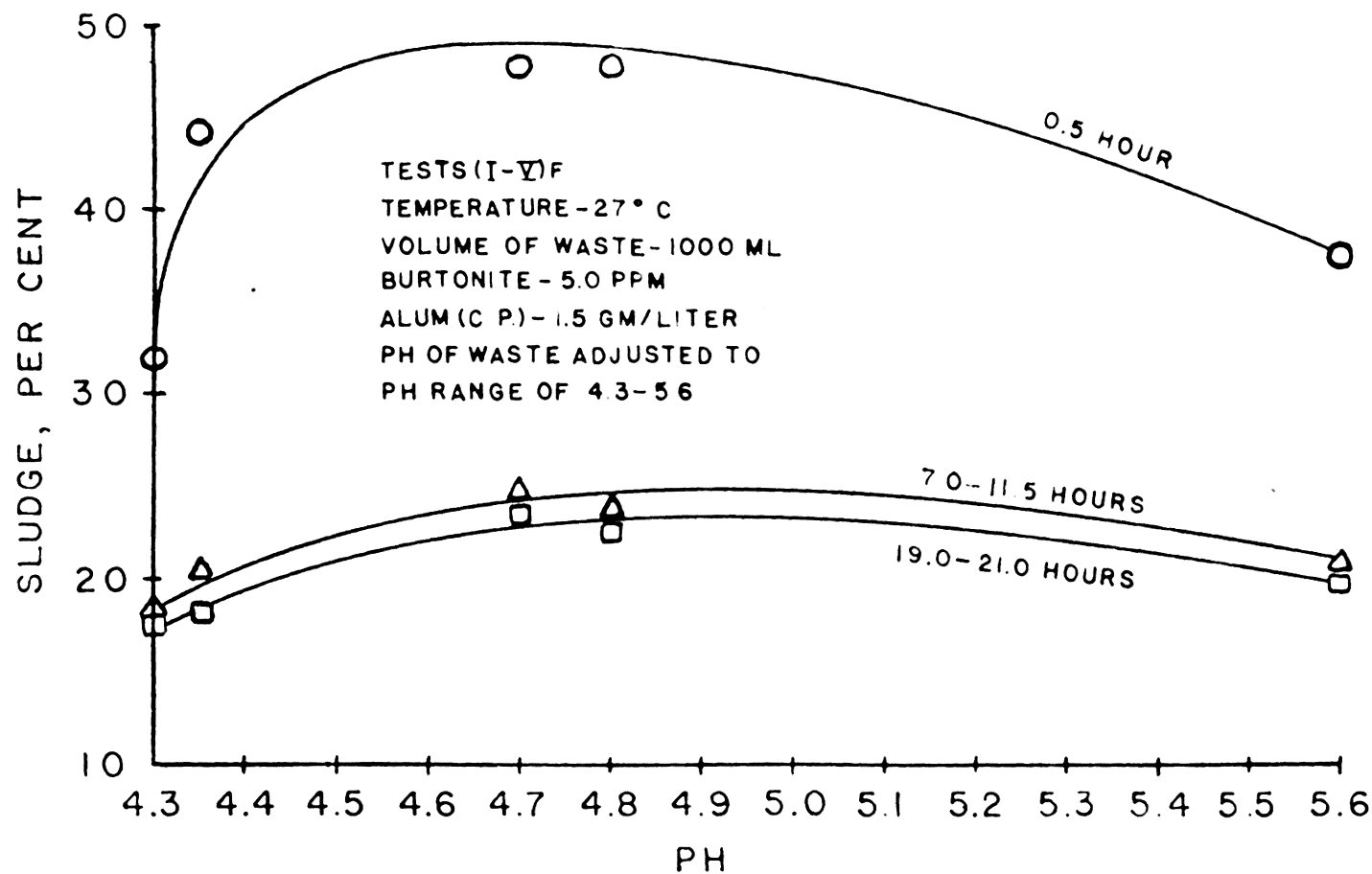


FIGURE 14 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING BURTONITE
ON VOLUME OF SETTLED SLUDGE

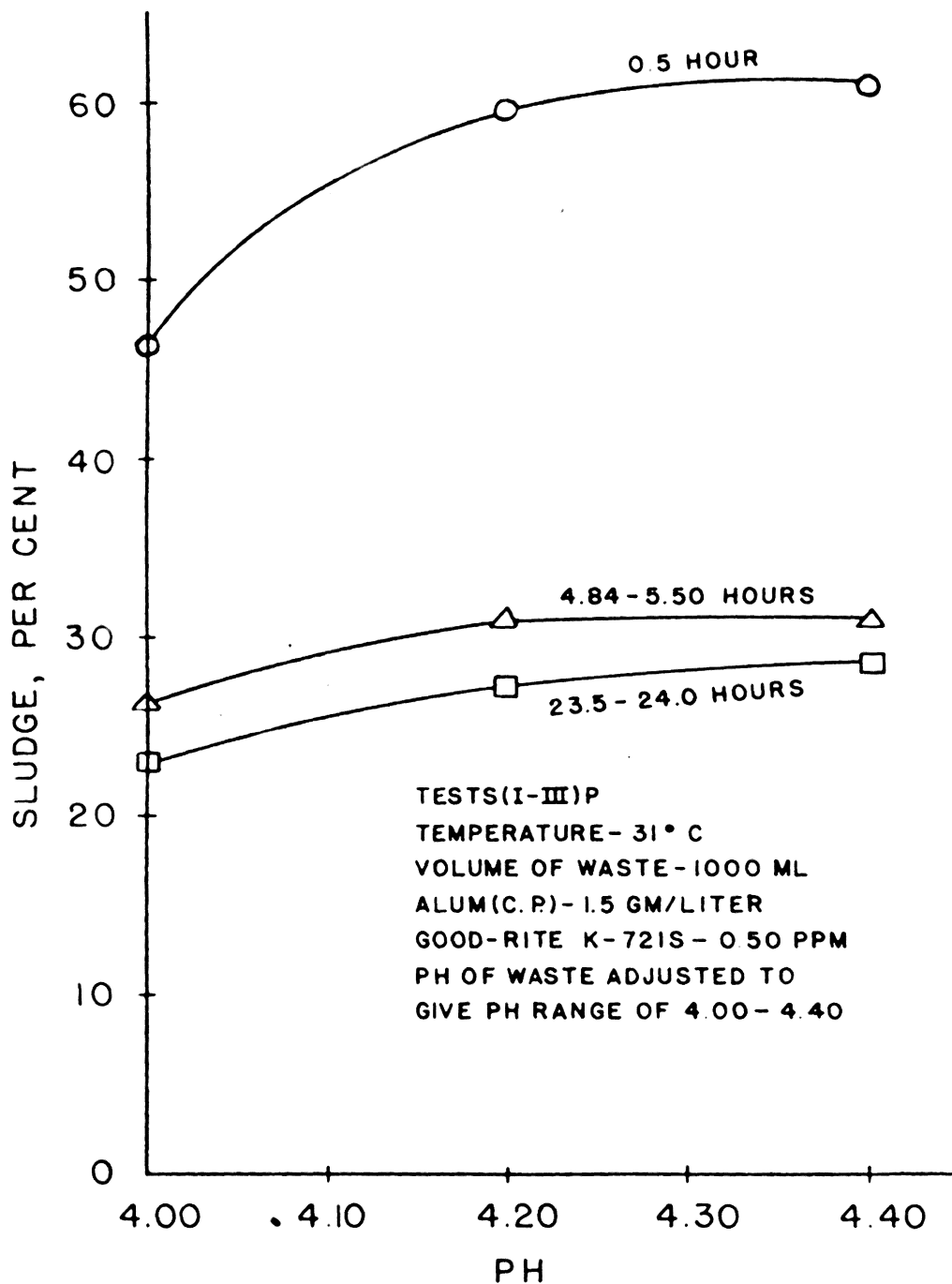


FIGURE 15 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING
 GOOD-RITE K-72IS ON VOLUME
 OF SETTLED SLUDGE

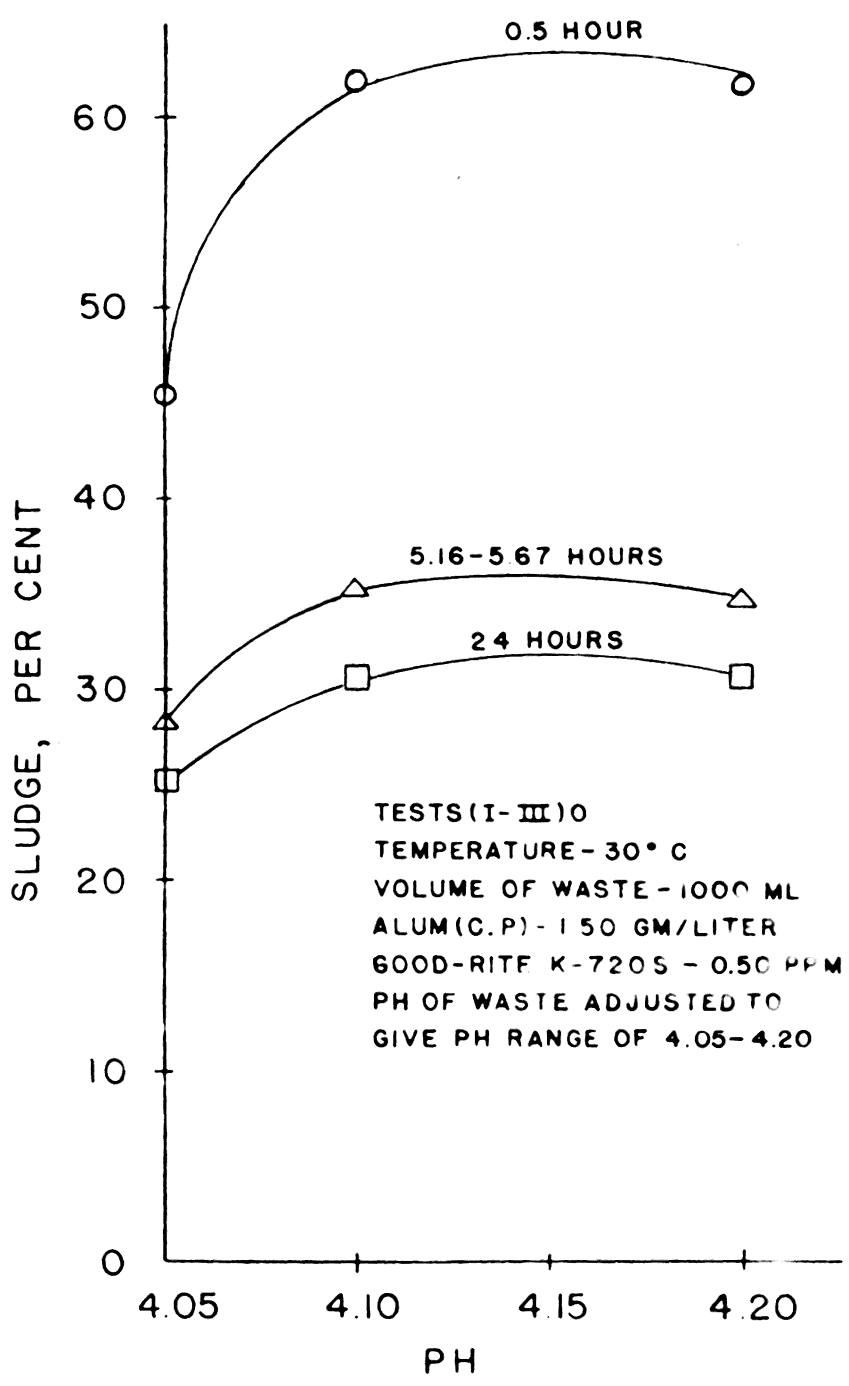


FIGURE 16 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING
GOOD-RITE K-720S ON VOLUME
OF SETTLED SLUDGE

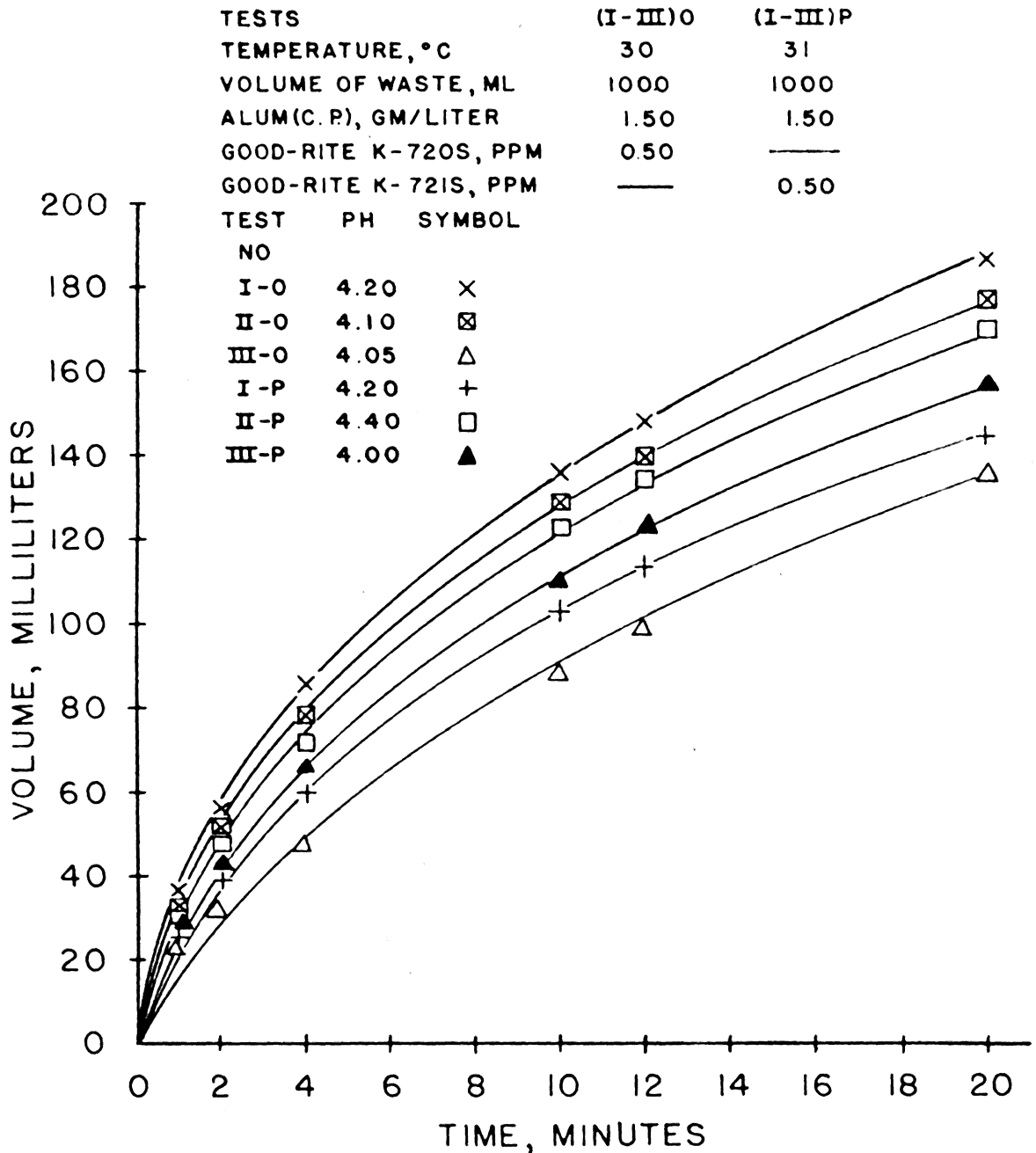


FIGURE 17 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING
GOOD-RITE K-720S AND K-72IS ON
RATES OF FILTRATION

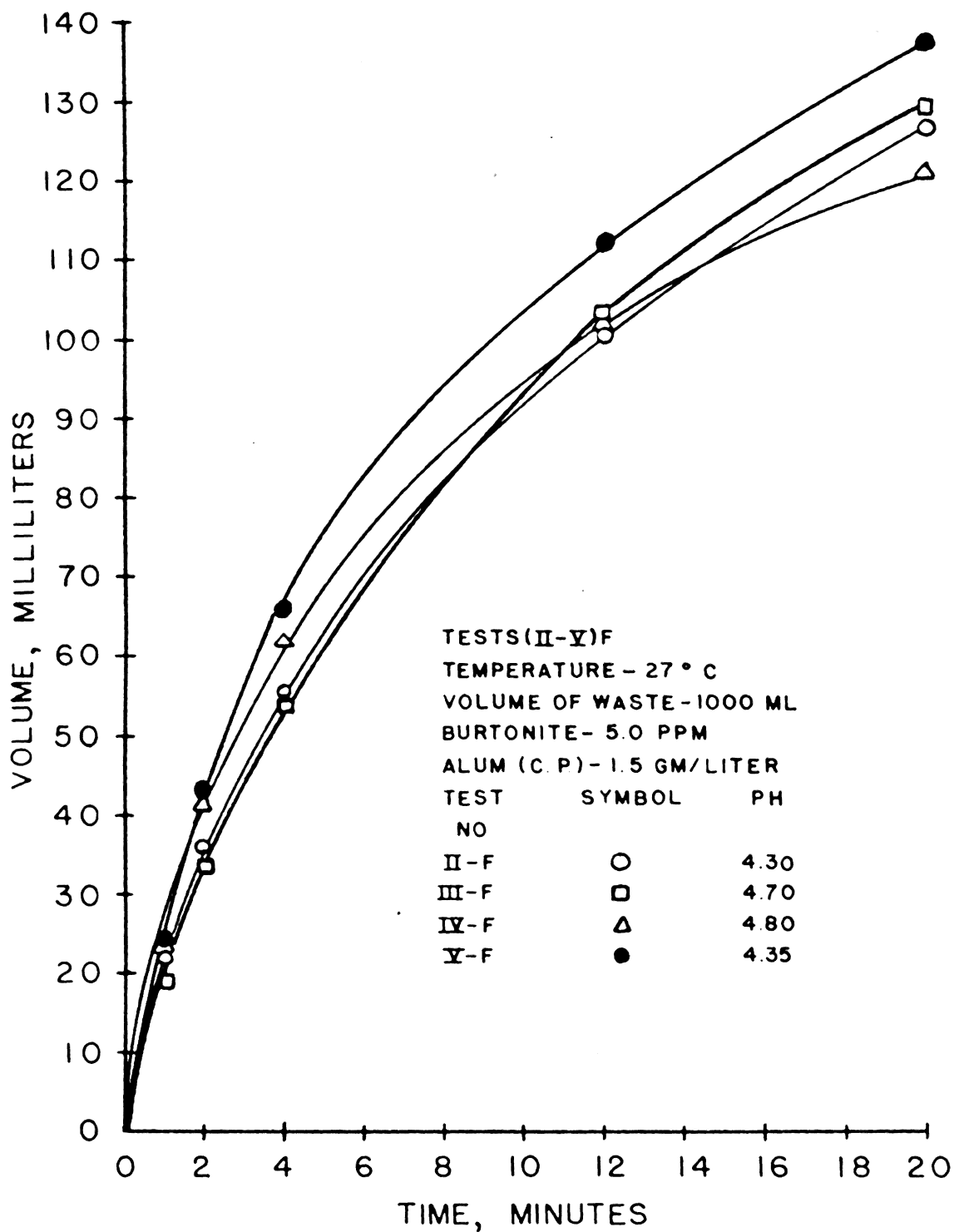


FIGURE 18 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING BURTONITE
 ON RATES OF FILTRATION

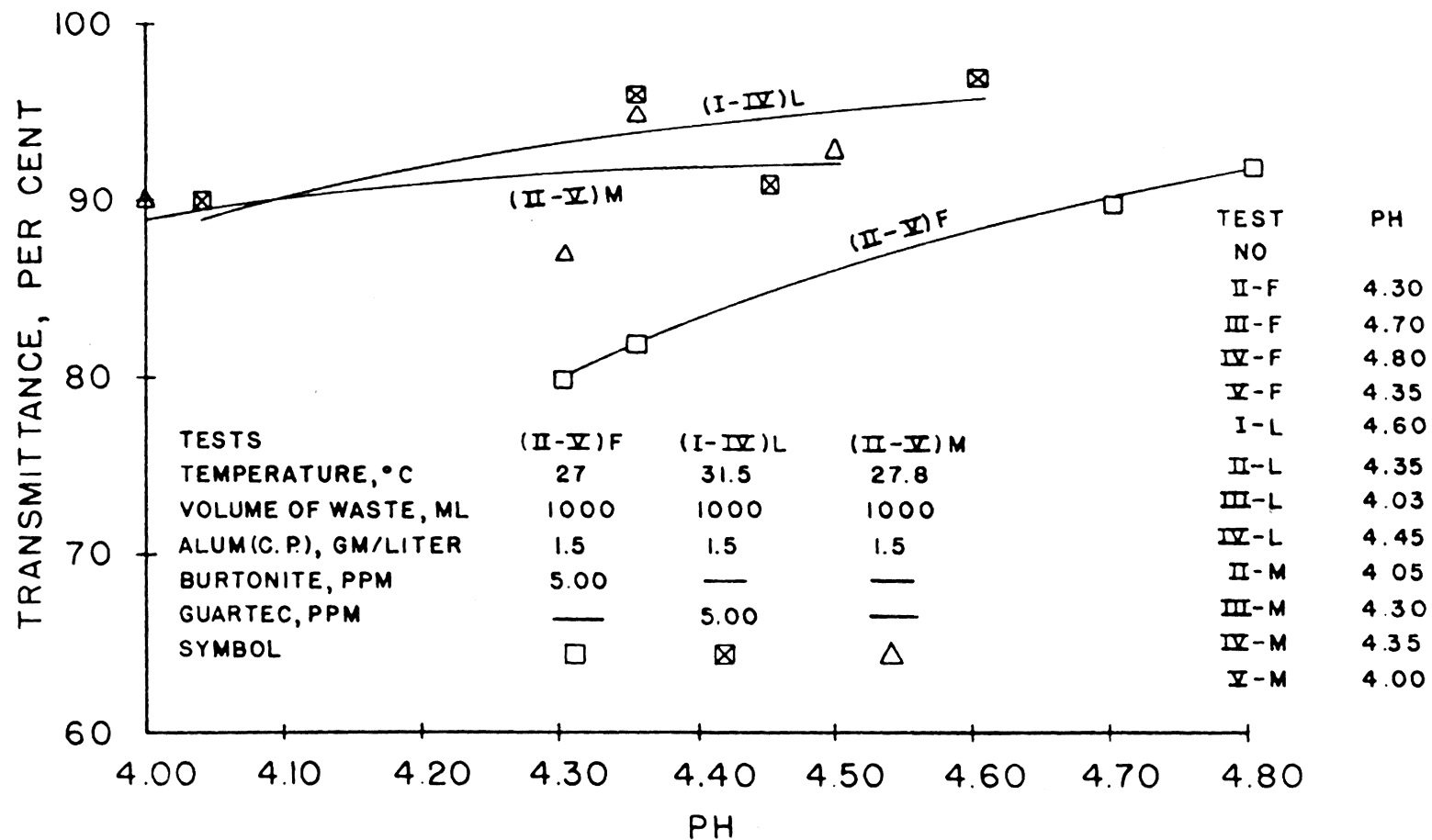


FIGURE 19 EFFECT OF VARYING PH ON TRANSMITTANCE OF SUPERNATANT LIQUOR USING BURTONITE, GUARTEC, AND STOCK ALUM (C.P.)

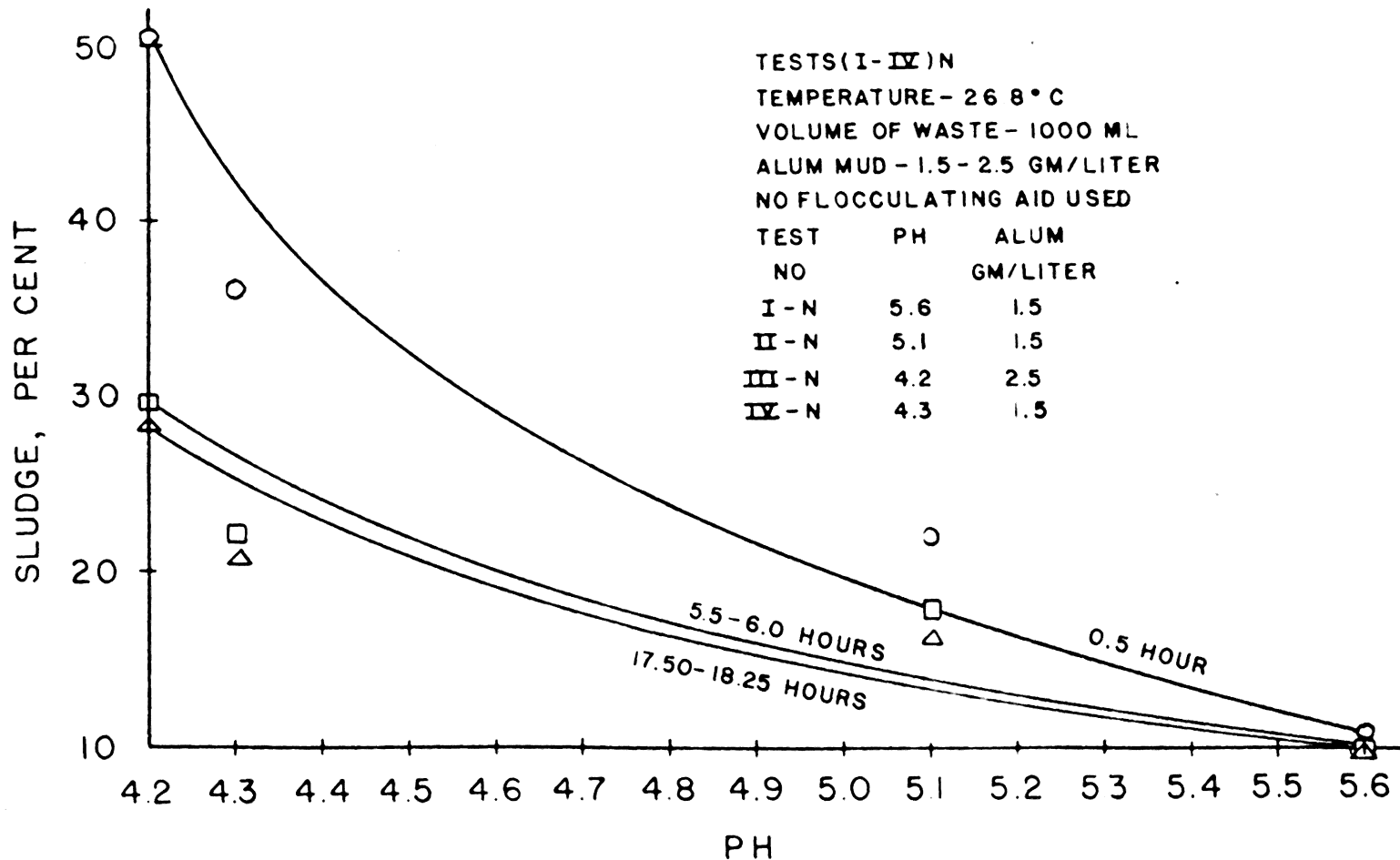


FIGURE 20 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING ALUM SLURRY
 ON VOLUME OF SETTLED SLUDGE

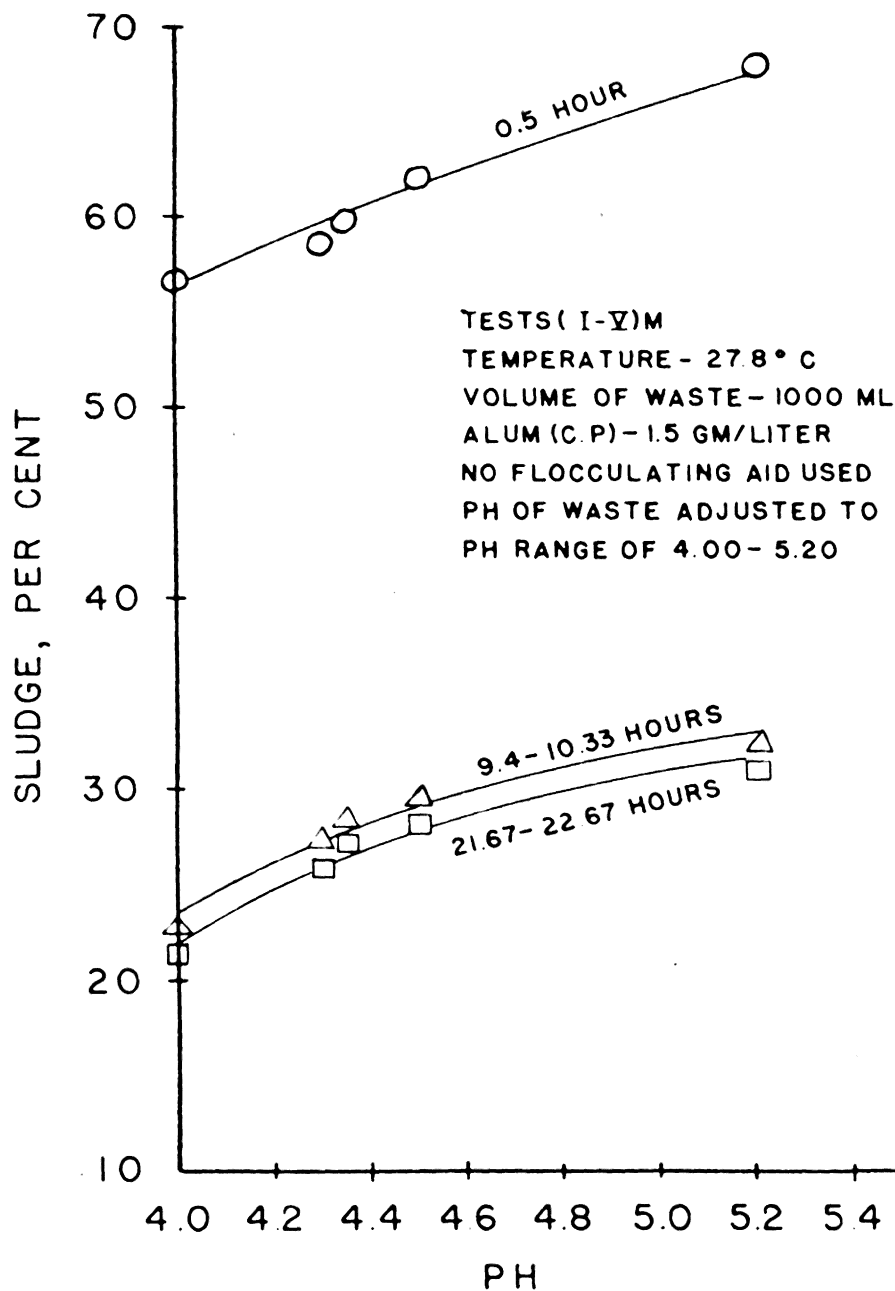


FIGURE 21 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING
C.P. STOCK ALUM ON VOLUME OF
SETTLED SLUDGE

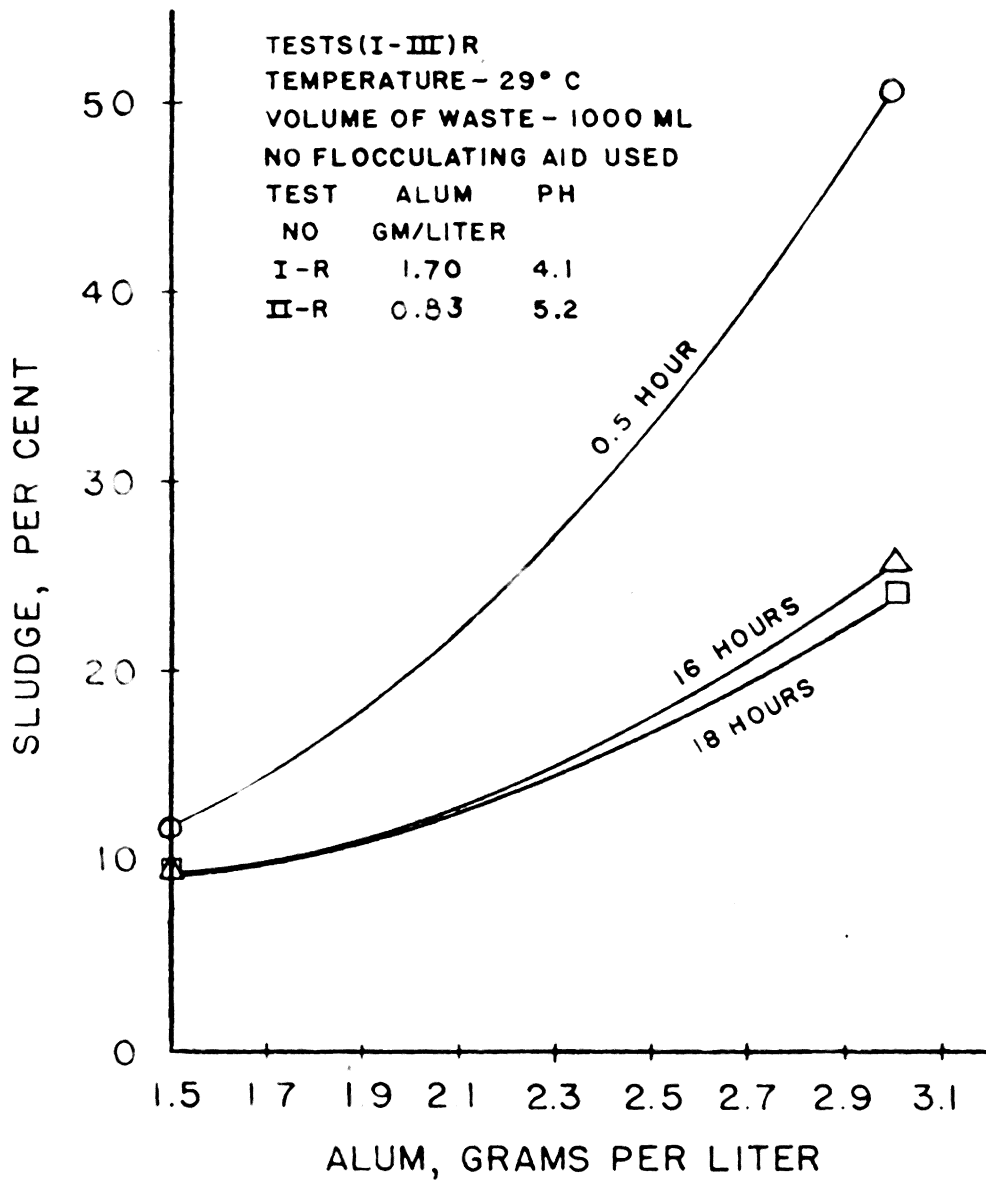


FIGURE 22 EFFECT OF VARYING THE AMOUNT OF
 ALUM SLURRY AND PH ON VOLUME
 OF SETTLED SLUDGE

TESTS	(II-V)M	(III-IV)N	I-R
TEMPERATURE, °C	27.8	26.8	29
VOLUME OF WASTE, ML	1000	1000	1000
ALUM(C. P.), GM/LITER	1.5	—	—
ALUM SLUDGE, GM/LITER	—	1.50-2.50	3.00
NO FLOCCULATING AID USED			

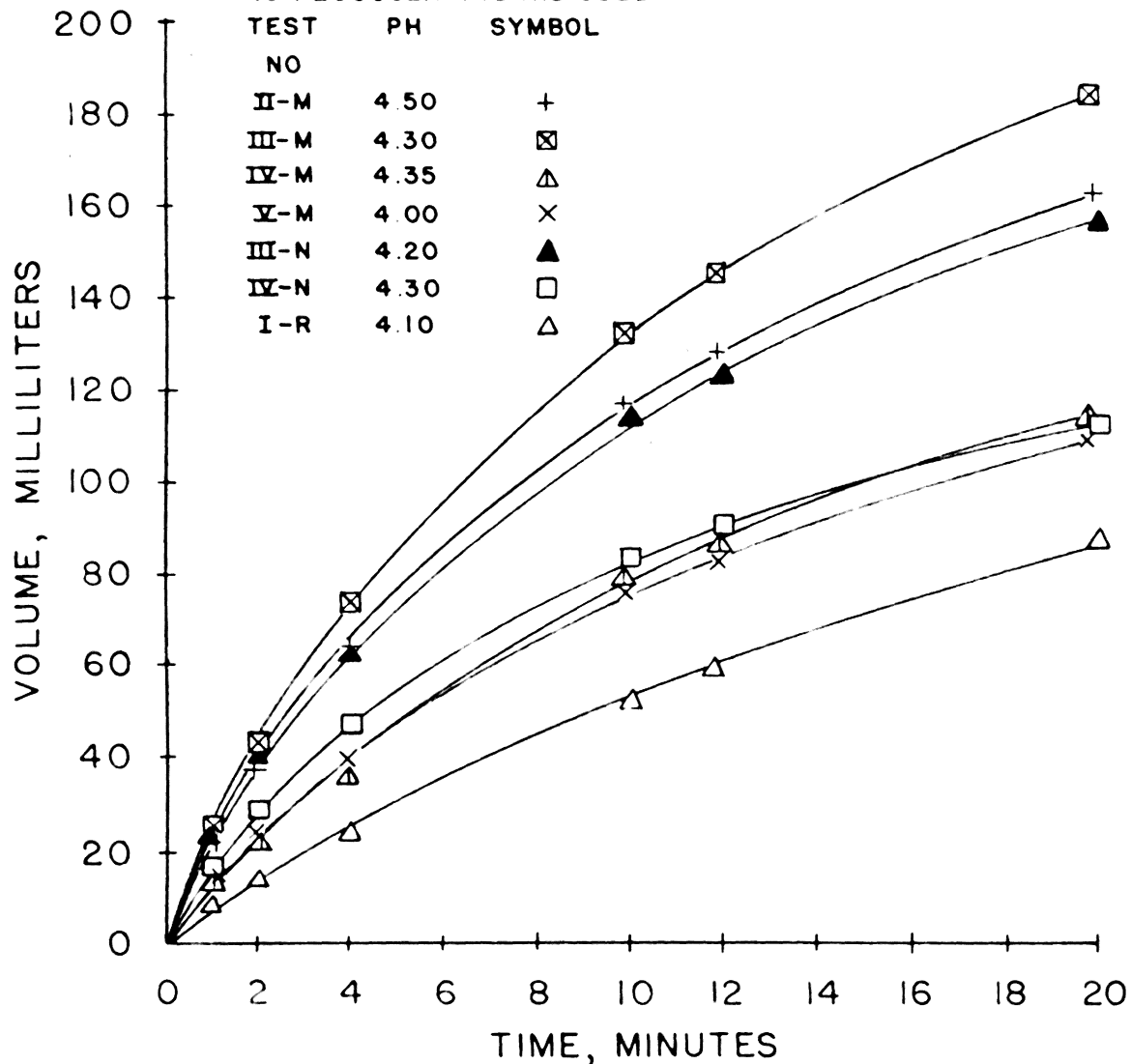


FIGURE 23 EFFECT OF VARYING PH USING C.P.
ALUM AND ALUM SLURRY ON RATES
OF FILTRATION

TABLE IV.

Properties and Composition of the Caustic and
Hydrochloric Acid Waste Streams from
^a
the Pulp Bleaching Process

	Caustic Waste	Acid Waste
Light transmittance, %	10	12
pH	10.3	1.9
Density, g/ml	0.998	----
Dry solids, %	0.495	----
Non-volatile solids, %	0.001	----

^a

As received from West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company.
The hydrochloric acid waste stream results from washing the sulfate, pine pulp after it has been treated with chlorine in the first stage of the pulp bleaching process.

The caustic extraction waste results from washing the chlorine-bleached, sulfate, pine pulp after caustic (sodium hydroxide) treatment in the second stage of the pulp bleaching process.

TABLE V.

Properties and Composition of the
^a
Aluminum Sulfate Slurry

Density, g/ml	1.174
Aluminum sulfate - $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$, %	18.0
Aluminum oxide (equivalent), %	4.35
Dry solids (residue at 120 °C), %	22.2
Water (volatile at 120 °C), %	77.8
Clay residue (by difference), %	4.2

^a

As received from West Virginia Pulp and Paper Company,
who produce it for use in the papermaking process.

TABLE VI

Data for pH Titration of Caustic Extraction Waste Stream
with Hydrochloric Acid Waste from the
Chlorination Bleach Stage

Volume of Acid Added ^a ml	pH	Volume of Acid Added ml	pH
0	10.10	52	7.09
1	10.06	54	6.99
2	10.02	56	6.90
3	10.00	60	6.75
4	9.97	65	6.60
5	9.94	70	6.48
7	9.90	75	6.35
10	9.80	80	6.30
15	9.68	85	6.20
20	9.51	90	6.10
22	9.45	95	6.00
25	9.34	100	5.86
30	9.10	105	5.70
32	8.98	110	5.51
34	8.81	115	5.32
36	8.62	120	5.10
38	8.40	125	4.90
40	8.13	130	4.70
42	7.85	135	4.51
44	7.63	140	4.35
46	7.48	145	4.20
48	7.33	150	4.07
50	7.22		

^aThe volume of caustic waste treated was one liter.

TABLE VII

The Treatment of Caustic Extraction Waste with
Concentrated Sulfuric Acid

Sample	Test No.			
	A-1	A-2	A-3	B
Weight of waste sample gm	100.0	100.0	100.0	10000.0
Volume of conc. H ₂ SO ₄ , ml	1.0	1.0	1.0	100.0
Weight of conc. H ₂ SO ₄ , gm	1.84	1.84	1.84	184.0
Weight of solids, gm				
after drying at 120 °C	0.082	0.083	0.080	8.65
after igniting at 700 °C	0.001	0.000	0.001	----
Dry solids, % at 120 °C	0.082	0.083	0.080	0.0865
Non-volatile % at 700 °C	0.001	0.000	0.001	----

TABLE VIII

Purification of Dried Sludge Obtained from Sulfuric

Acid Treatment of Caustic Waste

Weight of dried solids from Test B, gm	1.0055
Volume of 1-N NaOH added, ml	25.00
pH of resulting mixture,	12.40
Temperature after heating, °C	98.0
Volume of 0.5-N H ₂ SO ₄ added, ml	52.0
Temperature after cooling, °C	24.0
pH of resulting mixture,	3.70
Volume of concentrated H ₂ SO ₄ added, ml	5.00
Final pH of treated sample,	0.60
Weight of filtered, washed, dried solids, gm	0.304
Recovered solids, %	30.23

The known properties of the purified dry solids obtained from the concentrated sulfuric acid treatment of the caustic waste are as follows:

- (1) Melting point greater than 345 °C,
- (2) Insoluble in ether,
- (3) Insoluble in acid solution,
- (4) Insoluble in water,
- (5) Soluble in alkali,
- (6) After ignition, the per cent non-volatile solids is negligible.

LD
5655
V855
1958
c.2

TABLE IX

Effect of Acid on Waste from Alkali Wash of Chlorine-Bleached Kraft Pulp

Acid Used	Volume of Acid ml.	Volume of Waste ml.	Other Chemicals Used	Time, Minutes											pH	Liquor Transmittance	
				10	15	20	30	40	50	60	70	90	120	1440			
				Settling (ml. of Waste Containing Sludge)													
				ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.	ml.		%		
HNO ₃	1	100	None	70-95 0-37	-	70-90 0-30	70-85 0-30	30	28	26	24	-	-	12	1.1	64	
H ₂ SO ₄	2	100	None	85-100 0-55	90-100 0-30	90-100 0-28	-	25	23	-	21	20	19	12	0.60	78	
H ₂ SO ₄	1	100	None	80	71	42-60 0-35	35	30	27	25	23	-	-	12	0.95	66	
H ₂ SO ₄	1	100	1 ml. of 0.001 % Separan	90	-	57	40	35	31	29	-	-	-	14	0.95	67	
H ₂ SO ₄	1	100	0.0905 gm. powdered Zinc	80	40	32	20	17	15	14	-	-	-	10	1.0	73	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.5	100	None	35	-	25	22	20	18	17	-	-	-	12	1.35	51	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.4	100	None	80	70	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	10	1.30	49	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.3	100	None	(a)	(b)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	(d)	7	1.50	17	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.2	100	None	100	-	(c)	(c)	(c)	(c), (d)	(c), (d)	(c), (d)	(c), (d)	(c), (d)	2	1.70	0	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.1	100	None	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.30	13	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.05	100	None	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.90	4	
H ₂ SO ₄	0.01	100	None	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.50	2	
HCl	1	100	None	-	74	62	40	31	28	25	24	-	-	12	1.25	56	
H ₃ PO ₄ (e)	1	100	None	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	1.90	11	
H ₃ PO ₄ (e)	1	50	None	no coagulation										2	1.60	19	
H ₃ PO ₄ (e)	1	25	None	coagulation but no settling										8	25	1.3	58

-
- (a) Coagulation could be observed.
 (b) No settling took place.
 (c) Coagulation observed.
 (d) Majority of particles contained in volume given but some still suspended.
 (e) Color changed to clear dark red but only slight precipitate was formed.

TABLE X

Quantities of Chemicals Added in Large Scale
Coagulation of Caustic Waste^a

Sample	Test No.			
	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Book 817, page No.	145	173	223	278
Volume of waste treated, l	16	16	16	16
Volume of 0.5-N sulfuric acid added, ml	405	471	350	600
Volume of alum slurry added, ml	240	250	235	107

^aSee also Table III.

TABLE XI.

Results of Centrifuging the Sludge Obtained from
Coagulation of Caustic Waste with Alum Slurry

	I-A	I-B	III-A	IV-A
Book 817, page No.	148	158	265	280
Volume of sludge, ml	1000	1000	1000	2620
pH of sludge,	4.10	4.15	4.15	4.60
Steam pressure, lb/sq in., g	25	30	40	35
Centrifuge speed, rpm	3000	7000	7000	4000
Average feed rate, ml/min	75	50	100	90
Volume of effluent				
Clear: upper nozzle, ml	65	--	25	55
lower nozzle, ml	250	--	41	
Total: upper nozzle, ml	167	155	25	300
lower nozzle, ml	455	143	41	
Unused feed sludge, ml	35	250	255	1000
Leakage from bowl, ml	63	192	420	1100
Drainage from bowl, ml	150	184	190	175
Weight of scrapings, gm	35	25	59	65

a

The data concerning the production of the sludge used in the above tests can be obtained from Table III, page 83, tests I, III, and IV. The same sludge was used in centrifuge tests I-A and I-B.

TABLE XII

Per Cent Total Solids, Insoluble Solids, and Non-volatile
Solids in the Various Streams Entering and
Leaving the Sharples Centrifuge

Total Solids:				Streams		
Dry, %	Feed	Leak- age	Drain- age	Upper Nozzle	Lower Nozzle	Scrap- ings
Test No. I-B	1.26	----	1.27	0.509	0.491	5.75
III-A	2.62	1.82	0.75	0.520	0.570	18.40
IV-A	1.70	1.098	0.75	0.450 ^a 0.650	0.450 0.650	12.90
Insoluble, %						
Test No. I-B	1.02	----	0.991	0.173	0.202	5.52
III-A	----	----	-----	0.000	0.020	----
IV-A ^b	----	----	-----	-----	-----	----
Non-Volatile , %						
Test No. I-B	----	----	-----	-----	-----	----
III-A	1.44	----	-----	0.410	-----	9.23
IV-A	0.96	0.47	-----	-----	-----	5.60

^a
The clear effluent from the upper and lower nozzles contained 0.45% dry solids; the cloudy effluent from the two nozzles contained 0.65% dry solids.

^b
The total dry solids determination was made at a temperature of 120 °C while the non-volatile determinations were made at a temperature of (700-1000) °C.

TABLE XIII

Determination of Alum Recovery by Digestion of
Scrapings from the Centrifuge Bowl Using
Concentrated Sulfuric Acid

Sample	Test No.	
	III-A	IV-A
Weight of scrapings, gm	5.007	5.339
Weight of distilled water added, gm	30.00	25.00
Weight of concentrated sulfuric acid added, gm	5.514	5.514
Heating period, min	60	60
Volume of diluted filtrate, ml	100.0	100.00
Titration: using 0.9940-N NaOH		
Average volume of base used for aliquots no. 1, 2; ml	24.85	25.00
Weight of potassium fluoride added to aliquots no. 3, 4; gm	1.000	1.000
Average volume of base used for aliquots no. 3, 4; ml	22.50	23.75
Difference in volume of 0.9940 N NaOH, ml	2.35	1.25
Volume of base to neutralize a 1.0 gm KF blank, ml	1.05	0.005
Total volume of 0.9440 N NaOH used to back titrate aliquot, ml	2.40	1.30

Sample Calculations

In the following sections are the sample calculations employed in this investigation.

Aluminum Sulfate in Treated Waste. The following are calculations for the amount of alum in the slurry used in treating one liter of waste:

$$R = \frac{D A X}{W V}$$

where: D = density of alum slurry, grams per milliliter

A = concentration of aluminum sulfate, per cent

X = volume of alum slurry, milliliters

V = volume of caustic waste, liters

W = density of caustic waste, grams per milliliter

R = grams alum per liter of waste.

Using data from pages 72, 96, and 101,

$$\frac{(1.174) (0.18) (107.0)}{(0.998) (16.0)} = 1.415 \text{ grams alum per liter waste.}$$

Material Balance about the Settling Tank. The following section contains the material balance about the settling tank:

$$W + A + DY = S + E + L$$

where: W = weight of caustic waste, grams

A = weight of 0.5 N sulfuric acid, grams

Y = volume of alum slurry, milliliters

D = density of alum slurry, grams per milliliter

S = weight of settled sludge, grams

E = weight of supernatant liquor, grams, and

L = loss, grams.

Using data from pages 83, 96, and 101,

$$16,000 + 600 + (1.174) (107.0) = 2620 + 14,080 + L$$

$$L = 26 \text{ grams.}$$

Material Balance about the Centrifuge. The following is the material balance about the centrifuge:

$$F = E + L_1 + D + S + U + L_2$$

where: F = weight of feed sludge from settling tank, grams

E = weight of effluent, grams

L_1 = weight of bowl leakage, grams

D = weight of bowl drainage, grams

S = weight of bowl scrapings, grams

U = weight of unused feed, grams and

L_2 = loss, grams.

Using data from page 102,

$$2,620 = 275 + 1,000 + 175 + 65 + 1,100 + L_2$$

$$L_2 = 5 \text{ grams.}$$

Determination of Amount of Alum in Feed per Gram of Dry Solids.

The following is the determination of the amount of alum in the settled sludge per gram of dry solids:

$$\frac{B C M}{V M_1 X_1} = W_2$$

where: B = volume of caustic waste, liters

C = ratio, grams of alum per liter of waste

M = molecular weight of aluminum oxide, grams per gram-mol

M₁ = molecular weight of aluminum sulfate, grams per gram-mol

V = total weight of settled sludge, grams

X₁ = dry solids in feed sludge, grams per 100 grams, and

W₂ = grams of aluminum oxide per gram of dry solids.

Using data from pages 83, 101, 103, and 105,

$$\frac{(16.0) (1.415) (102)}{(2620) (342) (0.017)} = W_2$$

W₂ = 0.152 grams aluminum oxide per gram dry solids.

Determination of Amount of Alum in Scrapings from the Centrifuge

Bowl. The following is the calculations for the determination of the amount of alum in the scrapings per gram of dry solids:

$$\frac{K N M A M'}{P 1,000 S M X} = W_1$$

where: K = volume of 0.994 N sodium hydroxide, milliliters

N = normality of sodium hydroxide solution, equivalents per liter

M = molecular weight of aluminum sulfate, grams per gram-mol

A = number of aliquot samples containing aluminum sulfate

M' = molecular weight of aluminum oxide, grams per gram-mol

P = stoichiometric number of mols of sodium hydroxide

S = weight of sample of scrapings, grams

X = dry solids in scrapings, grams per 100 grams sample, and

W₁ = ratio, grams of aluminum oxide per gram of dry solids.

Using data from pages 103 and 104,

$$\frac{(1.30) (0.994) (342) (4) (102)}{(6) (1,000) (5.339) (342) (0.129)} = W_1$$

W₁ = 0.127 grams aluminum oxide per gram dry solids.

Determination of Per Cent Aluminum Sulfate Recovery. The following section contains the calculations for the amount of aluminum sulfate recovered;

$$\frac{W_1}{W_2} = R$$

where: W_1 = ratio, grams of aluminum oxide per gram of dry solids
in feed sludge

W_2 = ratio, grams of aluminum oxide, per gram of dry solids
in centrifuge scrapings

R = aluminum oxide recovery or the equivalent of aluminum,
per cent.

Using data from pages 108 and 109,

$$\frac{0.127}{0.152} \times 100 = 83.7 \text{ per cent.}$$

Heat Balance about Rotary Calciner. The following section is the heat balance about the rotary calciner based on a million gallons of waste per day:

$$W H + Q = W_1 C_1 \Delta T + W_1 \lambda_1 + (W_2 C_2 + W C_3 + W_4 C_4) \Delta T$$

where: W = weight of lignous matter, pounds

H = heat of combustion, btu per pound

Q = heat to be added as fuel, btu

W_1 = weight of water in sludge, pounds

W_2 = weight of clay in sludge, pounds

W_4 = weight of aluminum oxide in sludge, pounds

C_1 = specific heat of water, btu per pound per degree Fahrenheit

C_2 = specific heat of clay, btu per pound per degree Fahrenheit

C_3 = specific heat of lignous matter, btu per pound per degree Fahrenheit

C_4 = specific heat of aluminum oxide, btu per pound per degree Fahrenheit

ΔT = difference in temperature between sludge in and solids out, degrees Fahrenheit

λ = latent heat of steam at one atmosphere, btu per pound.

Using data from pages 124 and 128,

$$(10,680) (8,000) + Q = (109,900) (1.0) (112)$$

$$+ (109,900) (970) + (2700) (0.22) (112)$$

$$+ (10,680) (0.3) (112) + (2,900) (0.18) (112)$$

Q = 34,243,100 btu added per million gallons of waste.

Determination of Quantity of Natural Gas Required as Fuel for the
Dryer and Incinerator. The following section contains the determination
of the volume of natural gas required on a basis of a million gallons of
waste per day.:

$$\frac{Q}{H E} = V$$

where: Q = heat to be added by fuel, btu

H = lower heating value of natural gas,
btu per cubic foot

E = burner efficiency, per cent, and

V = volume of gas, cubic feet .

Using data from page 111,

$$V = \frac{34,243,000}{(1050) (0.50)} = 65,250 \text{ cubic feet .}$$

Determination of Quantity of Concentrated Sulfuric Acid Required per Day to Regenerate Spent Alum. The following section contains the determination of the quantity of concentrated sulfuric acid required per million gallons of waste to regenerate aluminum sulfate from the aluminum oxide:

$$\frac{A N M}{M_1} = W$$

where: A = weight of aluminum oxide, pounds

M₁ = molecular weight of aluminum oxide, pounds per pound-mol

N = number of pound-mols of sulfuric acid required to react with one mol of aluminum oxide

M = molecular weight of sulfuric acid, pounds per pound-mol

W = weight of sulfuric acid required, pounds.

Using data from page 124,

$$W = \frac{(2900) (3) (98)}{(102)}$$

W = 8,350 pounds.

IV. DISCUSSION

The following section contains a discussion of the results obtained from this investigation, recommendations for future study, and the limitations imposed upon this experimentation.

Discussion of Results

This section contains a discussion of the results which includes the effects of various addition agents and treatments on the caustic waste and a discussion concerning the proposed treatment plant for color removal.

Effect of Various Addition Agents on the Caustic Waste. From previous work it was found that 1.50 grams of alum per liter of the waste caustic wash liquor caused significant removal of color and yielded a supernatant liquor with a light transmittance of 85 to 90 per cent. Flocculating aids were recommended for study and evaluation to determine their value as a supplement for alum treatment.

Several commercial flocculating aids were tried with the alum treated waste, and the settling rates, the volume of sludge, filtration rates of the sludge, and transmittance of the supernatant liquor were measured, using both chemically pure alum and papermakers alum slurry.

Effect on Settling. Separan did not improve the rate of settling of the sludge appreciably in the pH range from 4.05 to 4.30 or from 5.70 to 5.82 (Figures 1, 3, 5 on pages 71, 73, and 75). The effect of varying the amount of chemically pure alum with Separan on the volume

of sludge is shown by tests that were run at pH's in the range from 3.9 to 5.45, 3.80 to 4.50 and 4.30 to 6.00 (Figures 2 and 4 on pages 72 and 74). The least volume of sludge (17 per cent), was obtained using 0.015 parts per million of Separan at an initial pH of 3.9 to 5.45. Tests were also performed with no flocculating aid using chemically pure alum and alum slurry (Table III, page 83 and Figures 21 and 22, pages 92 and 93). The comparison of the results of these tests showed that alum slurry alone produced a volume of sludge comparable to that formed by chemically pure alum alone or any combination of alum and Separan. Other flocculating aids were tried and appeared to exert their maximum effect at pH values specific for each.

Guartec did not decrease the amount of sludge formed (Figure 13, page 84). The effect of Burtonite, Good-rite K-720S, and Good-rite K-721S on the volume of sludge was determined (Figures 14, 15, and 16 on pages 84, 85, and 86). Only Burtonite produced results that were comparable with alum slurry and there was no appreciable improvement over the use of alum slurry alone.

Lytron X-886 and Orzan-P produced no appreciable improvement in settling rates or decrease in the volume of sludge formed (Table III, page 83).

The effect of pH on the volume of sludge formed using both chemically pure alum and alum slurry and using waste acid from the chlorination stage of the pulp bleaching process for neutralizing was determined (Figures 11 and 12, on pages 81 and 82). Larger volumes of sludge were formed because the chlorination stage waste was used

but use of alum slurry resulted in a smaller volume of sludge than was obtained when chemically pure alum was used. These test proved that alum slurry, when added to the waste (1.50 grams of alum per liter of waste) at a pH of about 6.0, yielded a sludge volume comparable to or less than any tests using chemically pure alum or flocculating aids. The mud in the alum slurry apparently improves the rate of settling and decreases the final volume of the sludge.

Effect on Filtration of Sludge. Separan does not affect the rate of filtration of the sludge appreciably (Tests IV - XIII, Table III, page 83). Apparently, as the amount of alum is increased the rate of filtration decreases. Again, this is probably due to the increased amount of clay present.

Filtration rates when Separan was added were highest at a pH of 4.75 (Figure 7, page 77). The rate of filtration obtained using Good-rite K721S at a pH of 4.2 was better than that obtained using Separan at 4.75 (Figure 17, page 88). The highest rate obtained when using Burtonite at a pH of 4.3 (Figure 18, page 89) was lower than that obtained using Good-rite K721S. The use of chemically pure alum yielded a higher filtration rate at a pH of 4.30 than when alum slurry was used (Figure 23, page 94). The reason for the lower rates when the alum slurry was used is apparently caused by the clogging effect of the clay solids. Therefore, although the use of alum slurry is advantageous with respect to settling of sludge, its use results in slower filtration rates.

Effect on Clarification. The addition of Separan to waste treated with chemically pure alum does not appreciably increase the transmittance (Figure 18, page 78). Apparently Separan fails to coalesce the colloidal particles that escape being settled by the hydrated aluminum oxide floc. The alum treatment yielded higher transmittances in the pH range 4.30 - 6.00 (Figures 9 and 10, pages 79 and 80). The addition of 1.50 grams of alum slurry produced a transmittance of 8.5 per cent, comparable to that obtained using chemically pure alum. After approximately 2.25 grams of alum have been added to a liter of waste, the addition of more alum fails to increase the transmittance past 90 per cent.

Burtonite, at a pH of 4.8, produced a supernatant of 90 per cent transmittance (Figure 19, page 90). However, the transmittance decreased as the pH was decreased. Quartec produced the same transmittance at lower values of pH and maintained it over the pH range 4.00 to 4.80.

Good-rite K-720S and K-721S produced supernatant of consistently higher clarity than other treatments over the range of pH from 4.10 to 4.40 (Table III, page 83). The transmittance of the supernatant was not appreciably improved by using either Orzan P or Lytron S-886 (Table III, page 83).

Summary of Results with Flocculating Agents. In summary, the flocculating agents used in this investigation failed to increase appreciably the rate of settling of alum treated waste or to decrease the volume of sludge.

Also, the filtration rates of the sludge were not appreciably improved by their use. Several of the flocculating aids such as Burtonite and Good-rite improved the transmittance from five to ten per cent, but all of them failed completely to supplement the required alum dosage.

Summary of Conditions Concerning Alum Coagulation. The use of alum slurry alone to coagulate the waste produced a sludge volume comparable or less than any formed by chemically pure alum alone or by any combination of alum and flocculant.

The use of alum slurry to coagulate the caustic waste after acidification with acid waste produced a smaller volume of sludge (five to ten per cent) than that obtained when chemically pure alum was used.

The use of chemically pure alum produced sludge that filtered at appreciably faster rates than sludge formed using alum slurry.

Neither chemically pure alum or alum slurry appear to possess a decided advantage over the other with respect to the light transmittance of the supernatant liquor.

Effect of Acid Treatment on the Waste. Various concentrated acids (sulfuric, nitric, phosphoric, and hydrochloric) were used to coagulate the waste. Sulfuric acid produced the best transmittance of any of the acids. However, the transmittance was only 78 per cent (Table VI, page 97). The addition of a flocculating aid caused a decrease of eleven per cent in transmittance of the supernatant liquor (Table IX, page 100). No solids in the ignited sludge from sulfuric acid treatment were less than 0.001 per cent non-volatile. Therefore, the sludge is

nearly 100 per cent volatile. After alum treatment, the sludge contained nearly 1.0 per cent non-volatile solids after ignition. Comparison of these tests shows that the residue contains a negligible amount of organic matter. The remainder must be all aluminum oxide and clay.

Purification of the dry solids obtained from the sulfuric acid treatment of the waste indicate that a material similar or related to rosin acids is being separated.

Effect of Ferrous Sulfate on Waste. A freshly made, 8.8 per cent solution of ferrous sulfate added to the waste at various acidities produced unsatisfactory results, since the supernatant liquor was colored and cloudy. In these tests, the pH of one-liter waste samples was adjusted to 6, 7, 8, and 9, and 1.00 and 1.50 grams of ferrous sulfate were added (Table III, page 83).

Effect of Initially Chlorinating the Waste. Tests were performed to discover what the alum requirements of the waste would be if it were first chlorinated. Transmittances of 87 and 82 per cent were obtained and settling rates were increased by the chlorine treatment (Table III, page 83). However, 350 to 400 cubic centimeters of chlorine gas were used and 1.39 grams of alum per liter of waste were still required. In test E-1, hydrochloric acid was used to acidify the caustic waste to a pH of 5.45 before the addition of the chlorine. The chlorine further reduced the pH to 2.60 at which pH the alum was ineffective. This proves that the alum cannot be added at low pH values and satisfactory coagulation obtained. Such

initial chlorine treatment before alum addition appears quite uneconomical.

Various Modifications of Waste Treatment. In the following paragraphs, the effects of order of addition of the chemicals to the waste, heating the waste, retarding the rate of addition of the alum slurry, and using waste hydrochloric acid in place of 0.5 N sulfuric acid are discussed.

The effect of reversing the order of addition of alum and Burtonite had no effect on the transmittance and almost negligible effect on settling and filtration rates (Tests (1-V) F, Table III, page 83). When varied amounts of alum were added before the acid or Good-rite K-720S, cloudy mixtures were produced. It appears that the order in which the chemicals are added does not affect the sludge volume, settling rates, filtration rates, or transmittance.

The effects of temperature of the waste before treatment was studied (Table III, page 83). The waste was heated to about 50 °C and the transmittance and settling rates determined, using varied amounts of alum slurry and adding 5.0 weight per cent calcium hydroxide to raise the pH after alum treatment hoping to reduce the amount of alum required. The settled liquor was cloudy. Tests (I - IV) were performed at room temperature and again the use of calcium hydroxide failed to produce a clear supernatant liquor.

The waste was heated to 50 °C, acidified to a pH of about 6.0 with 0.5 N sulfuric acid, and treated with 1.18 to 1.48 grams of alum (Tests (I - III) Table III, page 83). A transmittance of 82 per cent was obtained but this was no better than when the waste was not heated.

When the waste was heated to 90 °C, (Test (I - IV) G), a transmittance of 80 per cent was obtained. These resulted in a significant reduction in the amount of alum (from 1.48 to 1.39 grams per liter) required. However, if the waste is not discharged hot, it may not be practical to heat the waste to this temperature. Another significant fact is that there was a substantial increase in settling rates and a decrease in the sludge volume after heating. This may follow from the fact that the heated floc particles were larger than when the waste was not heated.

Tests were performed to determine whether or not the rate of addition of the alum to the waste affected the degree of color removal (Test F in Table III, page 83). When the alum slurry was added dropwise to the acidified waste, a transmittance of 85 per cent was obtained. The alum particles in the slurry came into more thorough contact with the colloidal waste particles. The reduction in alum requirement, as a result of the slow rate of addition, amounted to 0.98 gram per liter of waste. The same degree of reduction of alum resulted from heating the waste to 90 °C.

A large scale test was performed in which the alum slurry (1.395 grams of alum per liter instead of 1.48) was added slowly. The floc formed uniformly and grew into large particles throughout the coagulated waste and attempted to settle although swept up again by the slowly revolving paddle. The transmittance of the supernatant liquor was 85 per cent. This shows that 1.395 grams of alum per liter of waste is effective in removing a satisfactory amount of the color when the alum is added slowly and continuously. This slow rate of addition would

require a hold-up time of several minutes to insure optimum contact time between the alum and waste particles. The longer the hold-up period, the lesser the degree of agitation should be, or the newly-formed floc would be destroyed before it could increase in size. The final choice of what detention time is required must be determined by larger scale experiments.

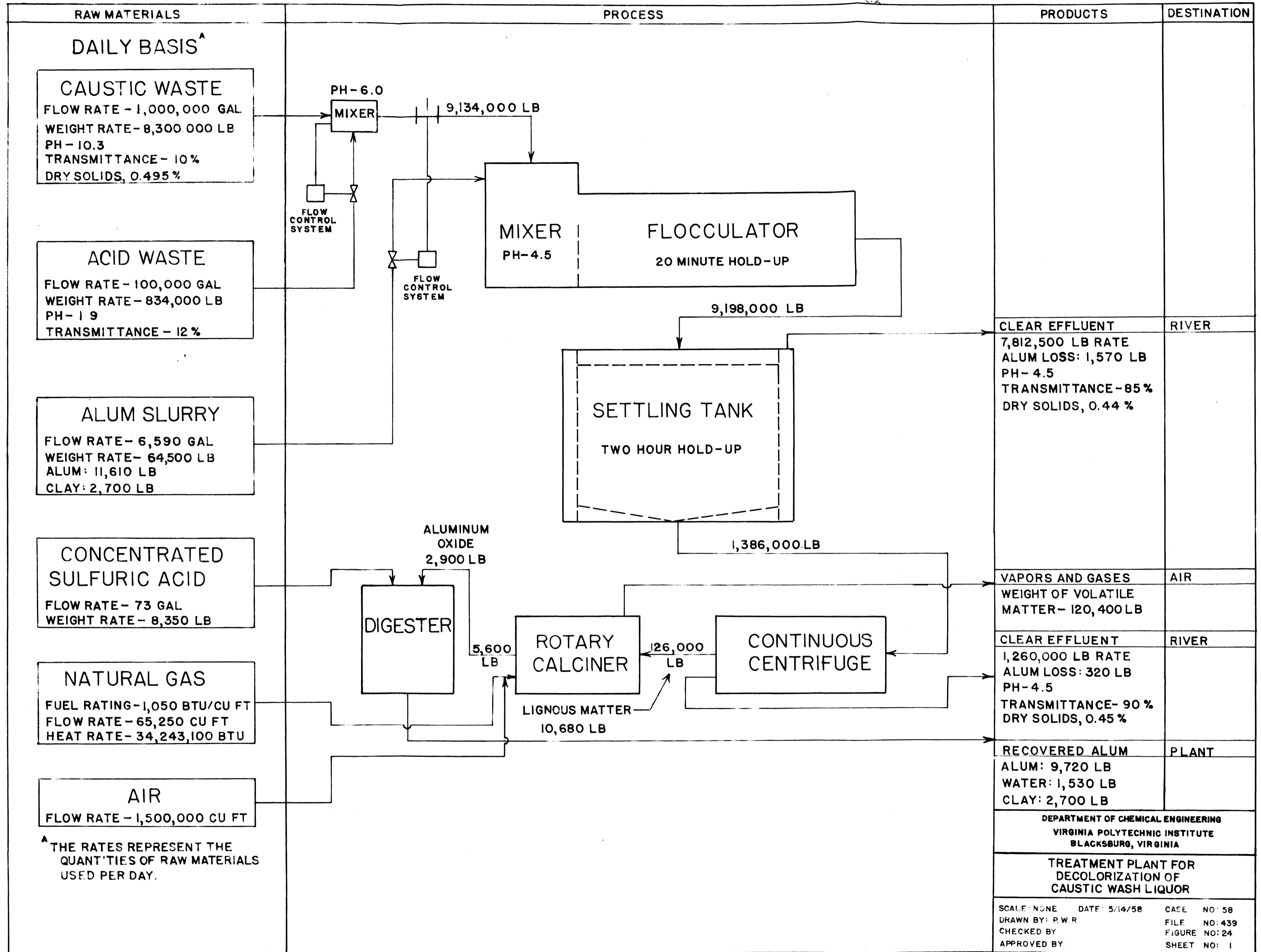
To make the color removal as economical as possible, waste hydrochloric acid from the bleaching process was substituted for 0.5 N sulfuric acid, was used to reduce the pH of the caustic waste before adding the alum slurry. It has been shown that alum is most effective when added to waste that has been acidified to a pH of 6.0 (Table III, page 83). By titration, it was found that 95 milliliters of acid waste will lower the pH of one liter of caustic waste from 10.10 to 6.00 (Table VIII, page 99). The comparison of Figures 22 and 23, pages 93 and 94, indicates that the volume of the sludge will be five to ten per cent greater when using the acid waste. The addition of the acid waste to the caustic waste also introduced some colored particles. This dilution effect would account for reduction in transmittance from 85 to 80 per cent using the same amount of alum per liter of caustic waste. This test was performed before the effect of adding the alum at a slower rate was known. Therefore, a treatment consisting of using the combined waste and adding about 1.415 grams of alum per liter at the slower rate and mixing it well, should produce a satisfactory transmittance.

The Treatment Plant for Color Removal. For decolorization of the caustic waste, the choice of equipment was based on the results of the

laboratory tests. A flow sheet showing materials, quantities, process equipment, streams, products, and their destination was prepared (Figure 24, page 124). Calculations involving the approximate size of the equipment were based on: (1) 1,000,000 gallons of caustic waste per day, (2) pH adjusted to 6.0 with 100,000 gallons of chlorination acid waste per day, (3) coagulation with 6,600 gallons of alum slurry per day, (4) a two - three-minute hold-up for mixing, (5) a twenty-minute hold-up for flocculation, (6) a two-hour hold-up for settling, (7) 25 per cent of waste volume, as sludge, centrifuged per hour and, (8) a reduction of volatile matter in the calciner from 87 per cent to zero.

The caustic waste, as received, had a dry solids content of 0.495 per cent. So, on the basis of 1,000,000 gallons, or 8,300,000 pounds, all but 42,500 pounds were water. Thus, the magnitude of the dewatering problem is easily recognized. The acid waste, added to reach a pH of 6.0, contains very few solids, being quite similar in that respect to the caustic waste. Therefore, the amount of water to be removed in the dewatering processes is increased by about 100,000 gallons by addition of acid waste. In this proposed process, the water is removed by the following methods: ordinary evaporation to the atmosphere, as effluent from the settling tank and centrifuges, and that driven off from the sludge in the rotary calciner. Therefore, two of the chief factors in the economics of the process are the volume of sludge that settles out in the settling tank and the amount of moisture in the sludge from the centrifuge. The more compact the sludge is, the

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higher is its solids content; and, therefore, a greater quantity of a clearer supernatant liquor is discharged. The same is true of the centrifuged sludge. The more compact it is, the less water there is entering the calciner. Less fuel would then be required to evaporate the water in the sludge.

Returning to the next step in the proposed process, the pH of the waste is lowered to 4.5 by the addition of alum slurry in a rapid mixer. Papermakers alum slurry was chosen as the coagulant for this process because: (1) the clarification, settling rates, and volume of sludge obtained using it were comparable with or better than that obtained with chemically pure aluminum sulfate, and (2) because it is already being produced nearby. Therefore, there is an abundant and cheap supply available where the waste will be treated.

Some of the alum would be lost in the several effluents, probably because of the slight solubility of aluminum compounds. Flocculating aids apparently failed to precipitate the very small particles and thus were of no help in improving the decolorization of the waste.

The purpose of the mixer is to bring the waste particles, which are colloidal in size, into contact with the hydrated aluminum oxide nuclei. After consideration of the colloidal properties of the waste and flocculent, and the amount of waste to be treated, it appears that a rapid mixer of 3,000 gallons capacity with a hold-up period of about three minutes is necessary. The length of the hold-up period would depend on the rate of floc formation and results from further large scale studies. Flocculation occurs after the introduction of the highly charged aluminum ions into the waste mixture containing the very small

particles. Since the coagulation reaction occurs below pH 7, positively charged particles are formed. Then the flocculation phase involves further adsorption, charge neutralization, and finally coalescence of the micro-flocs into larger and larger particles.

The flocculator is the next step after rapidly mixing the waste and alum, and it should have a hold-up period of twenty minutes or a capacity of 18,000 gallons. This length of residence time should allow sufficient contact during the much slower mixing and promote optimum particle growth.

The transfer from the flocculator to the settling tank should be as gentle as possible so to minimize the breaking-up of the floc that has formed. In the proposed process, a 100,000-gallon tank would be necessary to handle the flow of waste and furnish a two-hour hold-up period, required as shown by experimental settling tests. Another tank of the same size would serve as a spare when the other was being cleaned. It is desirable to reduce the bulk of the floc so as to decrease the amount of dewatering required by centrifuging and calcining. The clear effluent having a transmittance of 85 per cent could be reused or discharged into the river. The volume of sludge resulting from chemical precipitation is large since the coagulant (alum in this process) forms part of the sludge.

In the proposed process, 6,950 gallons of sludge would be discharged per hour from the settling tanks and pumped to centrifuges. Two continuous centrifuges, with a five-minute hold-up period each, would be required to handle the sludge. To dewater this sludge various methods were considered before the choice of centrifuging was made.

After reviewing the literature concerning chiefly the methods of vacuum filtration and centrifuging and the results of Foushee's (33) vacuum filtration tests , and after studying the results of the centrifuge tests (Table XI, page 102), it was decided that the continuous centrifuge offered the most advantages. Continuous centrifuges continually produce both a concentrated sludge and a clear effluent. The Sharples centrifuge used in this investigation produced an effluent with transmittances up to 90 per cent. The same centrifuge yielded scrapings containing 12.9 and 18.4 per cent dry solids for different feed sludges. The reason for the large difference in the amount of solids is that different amounts of alum slurry were added to the waste when it was coagulated. This also means that a different amount of clay was present in each sludge. A modern, continuous centrifuge should produce a sludge containing less water and more solids than the centrifuge used in this investigation.

It is proposed that after the sludge is centrifuged, that the concentrated sludge be dried and burned in a rotary calciner. In the proposed process, 635 gallons of sludge would be fed to a rotary calciner per hour. A combination of drier and incinerator such as a rotary calciner, appears more economical. The fuel value of the combustible material in the sludge would be significant and help support combustion. However, as shown by the heat balance on page 111, and by the calculations on page 112, an additional amount of fuel (62,250 cubic feet of natural per day) would be required. The heating

values for the combustible (probably lignous) material in the sludge (70, 105) and for the natural gas were obtained from the literature .

The values for the specific heats of the clay, alum, and combustible (70) material in the sludge were estimated . The calculations

for the amount of gas required were based on a calciner efficiency of only 50 per cent and 12.9 per cent dry solids in the sludge. A (70) rough estimate indicates that about 1,500,000 cubic feet of air per day would be necessary to support combustion of the sludge and natural gas and still furnish a 20 per cent excess of oxygen. The calciner would discharge 5,600 pounds of ash per day and the economics of the proposed process would depend upon the amount of alum recovered.

The procedure used in digesting the ash with sulfuric acid to regenerate the alum is found on page 67. Sample calculations on pages 110 and 112, show that 8,350 pounds of 96.5 weight per cent sulfuric acid are required to recover 83.7 per cent of the alum. This would result in a recovery of almost 9,700 pounds of alum per day, while nearly 1,890 pounds of the alum would be lost in the several effluents. It was assumed that none of the insoluble clays present in the alum slurry was lost in the process. The ash residue, consisting essentially of aluminum oxide and clay, could be sent directly to the plant where the papermakers alum slurry is made. The cost of the raw materials are considered in the following paragraphs.

Cost of Raw Materials. The pH of the caustic waste can be lowered by the addition of another waste produced by the pulp bleaching process. The alum slurry used for coagulation is cheap and available in abundant

quantities; also, a large proportion, at least 83.7 per cent, of the alum is recoverable.

The quantity of concentrated sulfuric acid required per day to regenerate the alum is relatively small.

Natural gas is cheap and abundant, but the large amount required (65,250 cubic feet per million gallons of waste per day) could be decreased by reducing the moisture content in the sludge to be burned and by calcining with greater than 50 per cent efficiency.

Equipment Costs. The equipment cost is the major economic factor. Hold-up tanks for the caustic waste, acid waste, alum slurry, and concentrated sulfuric acid would probably all be necessary. An agitator would be necessary to mix the caustic and acid waste streams where they converge early in the process. A controller would be necessary to regulate the addition of acid waste if the caustic waste rate should change. An orifice and flow controller would be necessary to regulate the amount of alum slurry if the acidic waste rate were to change. The major prices of equipment for the process include a mixer, flocculator, two settling tanks (only one used at a time), two centrifuges (used simultaneously), a rotary calciner of sufficient size to handle 635 gallons of wet sludge per hour, and a digester, unless the ash is sent directly to the paper makers alum slurry plant.

Recommendations

On the basis of the information obtained during this investigation, the following recommendations are made.

Large Pilot Plant Tests. The largest amount of caustic waste acidified and then coagulated with alum slurry was 16 liters. The results of the tests with respect to the transmittance of the supernatant liquor, settling rates, volume of sludge and centrifuging of the sludge were encouraging. Therefore, larger tests should be performed using a Dorr thickener. The resulting sludge should be concentrated in a borrowed or rented Bird or Sharples continuous centrifuge.

High-Pressure Steam Treatment of Caustic Waste. A study should be made of the effect of steam at pressures in the range of 500 to 1,000 pounds per square inch, gage, on the color of the caustic waste.

Heat Treatment of Sludge under Pressure. The treatment of sludge under high pressure and temperature completely breaks down the gel structure, so that after cooling, the sludge can be easily settled and dewatered. Sludge produced by coagulation of the caustic waste should be pressure treated at higher temperatures to evaluate the effect of the above treatment.

Decolorization with Clay. Further experiments on decolorizing (29) with clay, which has been previously reported by Chumney, , should be performed. The revitalizing of the clay by burning off the absorbed color material should be evaluated.

LIMITATIONS

The limitations under which this investigation was made were as follows.

Pressure. All tests were conducted under atmospheric pressure.

Temperature. The majority of the waste treatment tests were performed at room temperature which varied from 25 to about 30 °C. Some of the tests were performed using waste that had been heated to 50 °C and 90 °C.

Quantities of Caustic Waste Treated. One liter of waste was treated in two-liter beakers in most of the tests. In four larger scale tests, 16 liters of waste were treated in 20-liter containers.

Waste Used. The pH of the caustic waste was 10.3 and its transmittance was ten per cent as received.

The pH of the hydrochloric acid waste from the bleaching process was 1.9 and its transmittance was 12 per cent as received.

Agitation. After acidification and alum treatment of the caustic waste, the stirring rates were 75 revolutions per minute for one minute followed by 15 minutes of stirring at 20 - 25 revolutions per minute.

Centrifuging. A laboratory size Sharples super centrifuge was used to concentrate the sludge from the settling tank. The hold-up of the centrifuge bowl was about 175 milliliters when revolving 4,000 to 7,000 revolutions per minute. Sludge feed rates above 100 milliliters per minute resulted in a cloudy effluent. The average feed rate was 75 milliliters per minute.

Calculations used to design a waste color removal plant were based on 1,000,000 gallons of caustic waste per day of the concentration and transmittance of the samples used in this investigation.

V. CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the experiments performed with the purpose of studying the application of various treatments for decolorizing caustic wash liquor, the following conclusions were drawn.

1. The caustic extraction waste resulting from washing the chlorine-bleached, sulfate, pine pulp after caustic treatment has a ten per cent transmittance and a pH of 10.3. It can be decolorized to yield a transmittance of 85 to 90 per cent, by acidification to a pH of 6.0 with waste hydrochloric acid from the chlorination stage of the bleaching process and by the controlled rate of addition of 1.415 grams of alum per liter of caustic waste, mixing for one minute at 75 revolutions per minute and then at 10 - 25 revolutions per minute for 15 minutes.

2. Flocculating aids do not appreciably increase the rate of settling, volume of the sludge, rate of filtration of the sludge, or the transmittance of the supernatant liquor from alum treatment of the caustic waste.

3. Alum slurry improves the rate of settling and is as effective as chemically pure alum in decolorization of the caustic waste.

4. Use of dilute waste hydrochloric acid from the chlorination stage of the bleaching process can be used for acidification of the caustic waste but results in an increased volume of liquor treated and of settled sludge.

5. The most noticeable effect of treating the waste at temperatures of 50 and 90 °C was to increase the settling rate of the sludge and decrease the volume of the sludge by ten per cent.

6. Further study of the process for decolorizing the waste caustic wash liquor from chlorine-bleached, sulfate, pine pulp on a larger scale appears to be warranted from the results obtained.

VI. SUMMARY

Previous investigation at Virginia Polytechnic Institute proved that a significant amount of color could be removed from the caustic by coagulation with aluminum sulfate. It was recommended that commercial flocculating aids be used with alum to determine their value as a supplement for alum treatment. Therefore, it was the purpose of this investigation to study the practical application of various treatments of caustic wash liquor from chlorine-bleached sulfate, pine pulp, and to design and evaluate a pilot plant for testing further the most promising possibility for its decolorization.

Preliminary tests were performed to obtain data for settling rates of the alum coagulated waste, volume of sludge, rate of filtration of sludge, effect of varying pH, transmittance of the supernatant liquor, and amounts of dry solids before and after ashing. The coagulating properties of C. P. Aluminum sulfate and papermakers alum slurry were compared both with and without flocculating aids. Laboratory tests showed that other methods of treating the waste, such as chlorination of the waste before the addition of the alum, coagulation with various concentrated acids, and coagulation with ferrous sulfate, were of no advantage over plain alum treatment. The tests also showed that the flocculating aids failed to decrease the quantity of alum required or to appreciably increase the transmittance of the resulting effluent. These tests proved that waste acid from the chlorination stage of the pulp bleaching process could be used to lower the pH of

the caustic waste to the desired level of 6.0 at which pH the addition of alum afforded the most effective coagulation.

Sixteen-liter tests were performed to produce larger quantities of sludge for dewatering by means of centrifugation. As a result of these dewatering tests, a plant was designed to produce an effluent whose light transmittance would be 85 per cent when treating 1,000,000 gallons of caustic waste per day. The pH of the highly colored waste (light transmittance of ten per cent) would be adjusted to 6.0 by the addition of 100,000 gallons of the acid waste and then coagulated with 6,600 gallons of alum slurry (18 per cent aluminum sulfate). Treatment of the dried sludge would recover 83.5 per cent of the alum being used.

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