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HIGHLIGHTS

Tubular Technologies

Physico-Chemical

Carbon Sequestration

Chemical Analysis



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Expandable Tubular Technologies ‘Technology Gaps and the Way Forward’

By Aladeitan, Yetunde Mariam, Adejoh, Adu Zakariah

University of Abuja, Nigeria

Abstract - Expandable tubular technologies (ETT) enable operators to explore in remote geologic regions and exploit reserves once considered unprofitable if drilled with conventional technology. In the past few years ETT has moved from a concept to a commercially viable way to solve variety of well challenges. In comparison to conventional well construction, expandable tubular technology has the potential of reducing the cost of well construction significantly and to give life to existing wellbores through capabilities for selective water shut-off, damaged casing and tubular repair by cladding. Results from practical application of ETT using various techniques have indicated that it can be applied in well bore construction, remediation and completion, all of which are main segments in well constructions. ETT's application to multilateral wells can be achieved successfully with the use of formed metal technology. Some noticeable gaps associated with ETT include connections, corrosion, collapse, expansion force and annular sealing. Solutions are however being provide to eliminate these shortcomings.

Keywords : *Expandable tubular technologies, Expandable tubular, slotted expandable tubular, solid expandable tubular, annular sealings, material selection, pressure intensifiers, swelling elastomers and multilateral well junction stability*

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Expandable Tubular Technologies 'Technology Gaps and the Way Forward'

Aladeitan, Yetunde Mariam ^a, Adejoh, Adu Zakariah ^a

Abstract - Expandable tubular technologies (ETT) enable operators to explore in remote geologic regions and exploit reserves once considered unprofitable if drilled with conventional technology. In the past few years ETT has moved from a concept to a commercially viable way to solve variety of well challenges. In comparison to conventional well construction, expandable tubular technology has the potential of reducing the cost of well construction significantly and to give life to existing wellbores through capabilities for selective water shut-off, damaged casing and tubular repair by cladding. Results from practical application of ETT using various techniques have indicated that it can be applied in well bore construction, remediation and completion, all of which are main segments in well constructions.

ETT's application to multilateral wells can be achieved successfully with the use of formed metal technology. Some noticeable gaps associated with ETT include connections, corrosion, collapse, expansion force and annular sealing. Solutions are however being provide to eliminate these shortcomings.

Keywords : Expandable tubular technologies, Expandable tubular, slotted expandable tubular, solid expandable tubular, annular sealings, material selection, pressure intensifiers, swelling elastomers and multilateral well junction stability.

1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of expandable tubing is not particularly regarded as a new one. In fact it is said to have been used for many years in the boiler industry as a core technology, (Benzie et al, 2000). The use of expandable tubing in downhole applications back to the late 1800's (Benzie et al, 2000). Expandable tubing nevertheless became more prominent in the oil and gas industry due to the increasing pressure to provide reasonably priced oil from mature fields such as the north sea and in high cost areas such as deepwater in order to meet the increasing demand for hydrocarbons which has continuously been upward over the years.

It is interesting to note that despite the rapidly evolving technologies, important issues that challenge the oil and gas industry include conservation of hole size, economic feasibility of crude production and maximisation of well life. It seems therefore that the development of expandable tubular technologies (ETT) which is although short but fast paced and commenced by Shell, in the 1980's so as to overcome the telescopic

nature of well designs which has been a limitation since wells were first drilled in the mid-nineteenth century was envisioned by Shell engineers as a technology that would eventually result in a single-diameter wellbore that would deliver well cost savings in the order of 30% to 50% long term, (Wright 2003). ETT was initiated by the need to reduce the cost of drilling wells, to enable operators to access reservoirs that could otherwise not be reached economically without the use of expandable wellbore tubulars and to increase the production of tubing constrained wells. Furthermore, the significant losses of internal diameter experienced by operators in the course of normal drilling process, during re-entry and deepening of existing wells, or during installation of additional casing string to remediate well problems are largely curtailed through ETT. Other reasoning underpinning the development of ETT includes its proven ability to improve safety; and minimise environmental cuttings handling and drilling rig footprints.

Since the development of expandable tubular technologies, its application has moved rapidly from a deepwater technology to a technology that has been embraced by operators in many basins. As at present only 22% of the installations have been in deepwater whilst more than 65% of its utilisation been on land. (Wright 2003)

In comparison to conventional well construction which requires telescoping of the well size from the well head down to the reservoir thereby resulting into large expensive surface casing, wellhead trees and other operating equipment, this method can result in an unworkable small hole size at the required depth. Expandable tubular technology has the potential of reducing the cost of well construction significantly and to give life to existing wellbores through capabilities for selective water shut-off, damaged casing and tubular repair by cladding. ETT therefore allow operators to explore in remote geologic regions and exploit reserves once considered unprofitable if drilled with conventional technology.

A common practice in the process of ETT is the use of "specially designed pigs or mandrels" to expand tubular diameter in order to reduce well tapering while preserving borehole sizes. This way the life of mature field is increased by internally cladding existing wellbores to isolate troublesome zones. Expandable pipe or tubulars therefore shares the ability for expansion after downhole installation. In simple terms,

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the process involves expanding the steel by cold working it downhole to the desired diameter. Expandable technologies refer to both **slotted and solid expandable tubular**, associated tools and accessories, and systems used to expand the specially manufactured pipe.

In summary, the technological development of expandable was driven from a business perspective by offshore high-pressure/high temperature activities (Stewart 1999) and initiated by a need to:

- Increase depth and reach capability of well designs to access reservoirs, which are impossible or difficult to reach (e.g. high pressure zones, deepwater environments and troublesome subsalt zone) with the use of conventional well design.
- Reduce the cost of drilling by a large percent.
- Increase the production capability of tubing constrained wells.

II. FUNDAMENTALS OF EXPANDABLE TUBING

The five major components of the expandable solid tubing system are the expansion cone, threads, material, annular seal and expansion mechanisms. Each one of them affects the performance of the other components. The basic principle is such that when expanded tubing is forced over the expansion cone during expansion process, the expansion cone radius and angle as well as the material characteristics would determine the amount of surplus expansion and the amount of the subsequent relaxation of the material expanded. Combination of expansion cone radius, materials, gauge tolerance of the openhole or casing within which the tubing is to be expanded all determine the expansion forces and tolerances, or fit of the final expanded product in the wellbore.

The two major types of expandable tubular are expandable slotted tubular and expandable solid tubular.

Expandable slotted tubulars (EST) are usually made from steel; they have slots which are in an overlapping periodic pattern, cut in axial direction. Unlike expandable solid tubular (SET), EST require a much lower expansion force, the slots open and the plastic deformation is concentrated around the fingers at the end of the slots. EST technology has been made available to the industry through conventional service companies like Petrolina. The expansion principle is based on bending the metal strips between 2 overlapping slots, and expansion forces are consequently low (approximately 10 tonnes). Bending the strip allows the slots to open into diamond shape resulting in an increased pipe diameter while wall thickness remains the same; the length is reduced by about 2%. Expandable slotted tubular technologies are a metal-to-rock expansion which has 3 major applications i.e. expandable sand screen system;

alternative borehole liners and expandable completion liners.

Expandable solid tubulars are wellbore tubulars that are produced from ductile steel of conventional strength. Its ductility is as such that its diameter can be increased by tens of percent downhole. Expandable solid tubulars (SET) can also be made of titanium or aluminium because of their ductile nature.

III. PRINCIPLES OF SOLID TUBULAR EXPANSION

For a solid tubular to expand, a conventional material selection criteria like corrosion resistance and strength is required. The ductility of the material from which it is made should be able to sustain tens of percent of plastic deformation and should be able to strike a balance with regards to expansion and post expansion processes. It is worth noting that the metallurgical process that increases strength in the solid tubulars tends to reduce its ductility. As a result a suitable alloy compositions and heat treatment procedures have to be chosen to ensure a combination of high ductility and strength of the expandable well bore tubular. The basic piece of equipment that underlies solid expansion technology is a mechanical expansion device known as an expansion cone (Stewart et al) which is propagated through downhole tubulars using hydraulic pressure. Cone movement expands the tubulars to the desired internal and external diameters in a plastic-deformation process known as cold-forming. To ease the expansion process, the inside diameter of the tubing must be lubricated to allow the expansion cone to move smoothly through the tubing thus minimising the chance of galling and reducing frictional force. Below are some expected capabilities of downhole expansion:

- Expand long section of tubulars at high rates.
- Maintains integrity of expanding tubulars connections.
- Achieve constant diameter and wall thickness of the expanded tubular over whole length of expanded section.
- Expansion of tubular to desired diameter without damaging or bursting the tubular.
- Maintaining hydraulic capabilities of the expanded tubular to provide sufficient resistance to burst and collapse loads in service.

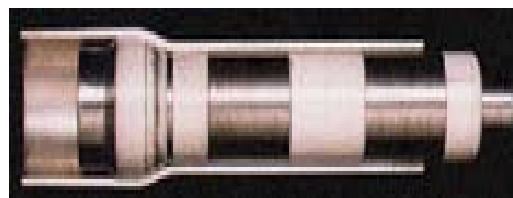


Fig 1 : Early expansion cone used to expand solid expandable tubulars (Fillipov et al 1999)

Table 1: illustrates the differences between expandable solid tubular and expandable slotted tubular

	Expandable slotted tubular	Expandable solid tubulars
Slots	Consists of periodic overlapping slots cut in axial direction	No Slots present
Expansion force	Less force	Higher expansion force
Wall thickness after expansion	reduces	constant
Tubular length after expansion	Reduces	constant
Concentration of plastic deformation	Finger at the end of the slots	Entire wall thickness

IV. WELL DESIGN WITH EXPANDABLE TUBULAR

Because the production capacities of most wells are halved through the use of production tubular, the constructions of large wells are therefore design to install relatively small production casings which results in pronounced telescopic profile of conventional well designs and thereby offering limited scope for major reductions in the cost of well construction.

It is obvious that in order to reduce well construction costs by tens of percent the implementation of radically new well designs are required. Expandable wellbore tubulars forms the basis of one such concept.

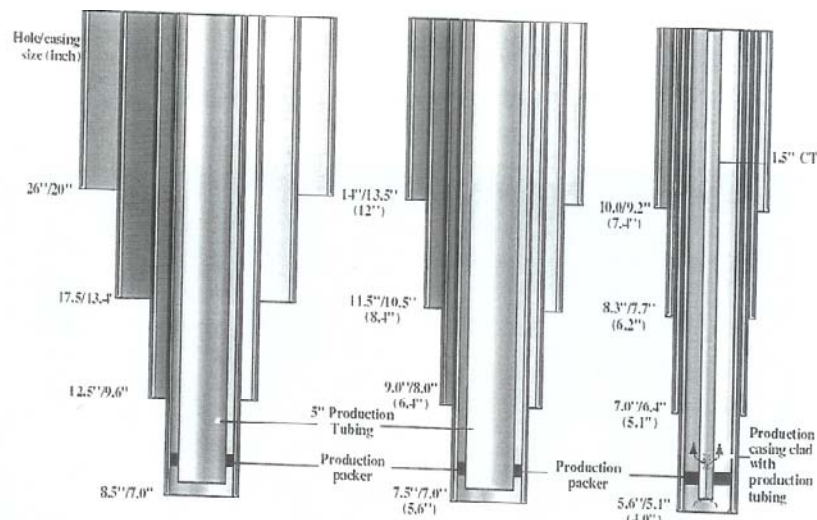


Fig 2: a comparison of well designs with the same production capability. (Stewart et al 1999)

Left: Conventional telescopic well design

middle: Well design with casing expanded by 25% in outer diameter.

Right: Well design with expanded casing and clad production

V. APPLICATIONS OF EXPANDABLES

There are various applications for expandable tubing. Some of these applications include casings, liners sand screens etc. Even though expandable products are unique and very interesting in their concept and installation, they have little value if cost effective applications are not the end result of the development of this technology. The application of the technology in the subsurface environment has the potential of significantly reducing surface and subsurface costs and increasing the return on investments of the operating companies. Probably the most important advantage of expandable technology is that it is an "enabling" technology considering the fact that currently certain wells cannot be drilled to their objectives without solid expandable tubular technology. Expandable tubular technology can be applied in these three main application segments.

(i) Well bore construction; (ii) Remediation and (iii) Completions

Well bore construction: Expandable tubing can be used in the open liner hole as a temporary drilling liner or as permanent liner tied back to the previous casing string. Where a contingency liner is required, temporary liners can be used. A good example of these may include deepwater and high pressure wells where there is very low tolerance between the formation pressure and fracture pressure. In this case the temporary liner used allows the operator to reach total depth without losing hole size. Expandable tubing can thus be used as a permanent liner and include a tie back into the previous liner or casing thereby replacing the conventional liner hanger.

Remediation: Application of ETT for remediation purposes deals with the repairing of casing, production

tubing or sand screens, it can also be used for sealing off perforations. In which case the solid tubing are expanded inside the casing to seal leaks or in the repair of corroded or eroded sections of casing or tubing. In remediation process, "clads" whether light weight or heavy weight can be used to shut off perforations in cased hole and also used to shut off non-producing zones in the sand screens or to repair damaged sand screens.

Completions: Sand exclusion mechanism was one of the first commercial usages of expandable tubing well completions. In sand exclusion mechanism, the slotted tubing is expanded against the sand face, this mechanism is an improvement over the conventional sand exclusion mechanism because of the higher productivity and this is possible because of the larger effective in-flow area provided by the expandable screen, and the reduced chance of premature screen failure given the close tolerance between the expanded screen and the sand face.

VI. GAP ANALYSIS

In order to reveal the weakness and strength of expandable tubular technologies, a gap analysis is conducted so as to have a better understanding of the dynamics of the exploration and production competitive environment and to develop ways of staying ahead in the area of technological development. The gap between the conventional technology and the already existing expandable tubular technologies would be identified, after which suggestions would be provided to close the existing gap by developing a process of change and ways of managing the process of change from the already existing technologies to the improved technologies. Thereafter, the process of change is monitored so as to ensure that the same gap does not appear again and, if possible to open a favourable gap with the competition. (Ambrosini et al 1998)

Some pertinent issues arising from the literature, practical application of expandable tubular technologies which can be considered as a gap and therefore worth analysing are as follows:

a) Connections

Most connections available are not gas tight connections i.e. there are always gas leakages from the connection and would therefore be a worthwhile issue to analyse in order to find suitable solution to this apparent set of expandable tubular technologies.

b) Collapse

This is a very important issue in the oil and gas industry. Although expandable tubulars are made of highly ductile material to enable it expand however, its main problem is the post expansion characteristics of the expandable tubular i.e. the strength and wall thickness, the collapse of tubular increases after expansion, this make it weak to withstand pressure exerted on it. The material used to make the tubular can

also be altered so as to reduce the collapse of the post expanded tubular.

c) Expansion force

The fact that very high pressures are required to expand the tubulars and the cost of generating the required pressure can be very high and therefore makes it imperative to find a good solution and one such good solution that can be applied is the use of pressure intensifiers to increase the applied pressure. By so doing only the pressure applied to the pressure intensifier will be needed and this pressure is in turned increased. This method can help cut cost in the oil and gas sector.

d) Corrosion

Since the oil and gas industry place so much emphasis on safeguarding exploration and production equipment from quick and immediate corrosion, the implication of expandable tubulars during expansion as the cone rubs against the tubular is such that metal is been removed and deposited. This phenomenon is known as galling. The exposed surface where metal removal has taken place now becomes susceptible to corrosion. Corrosion can be very expensive and cost the oil and gas industry millions of dollars. A way of saving cost and combating this problem is to electroplate the metal surface with chrome in order to prevent galling and consequently preventing corrosion to takes place.

e) High temp high pressure well

Unfavourable conditions like high temperature and high pressure can pose a lot of problems like tubular collapse, corrosion amongst others.

f) Multilateral wells junction stability

Expandable tubular technology can be applied successfully in well completion but there are a few issues that can complicate the process. A very crucial issue to be considered is sealing of the multilateral junction. Depending on the construction method, the junction can offer either or both mechanical integrity (a barrier between formation and well bore pressure)(Ohmer et al 2001). The ultimate goal is a junction with full mechanical and hydraulic integrity provided by the casing itself, without the aid of cement. Multilateral junction connectivity failures have been identified as a recurring risk when deploying junctions featuring casing windows in unstable formations. When a junction experiences a connectivity problem, usually because unstable formations induce mechanical loads, solids can intrude and expected junction geometry can deteriorate. Borehole stability has been the subject of study for more than two decades now because of a great number of problems associated with the construction of petroleum boreholes and the subsequent production or injection of fluids, (Fuentes, J.A et al 1999). If two cylindrical bodies intersect at a very shallow angle, the junction geometry amplifies pre-existing mechanical stresses that are generated in the course of drilling and production operations. This

phenomenon suggests that the geo-mechanical forces at a junction may be a root cause of junction collapse.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The foregoing analysis indicates that the development of expandable tubular technology was in part driven from a business perspective and also initiated by a need to increase depth and reach capability of well designs to access reservoirs, which are impossible or difficult to reach (e.g. high pressure zones, deepwater environments and troublesome subsalt zone) with the use of conventional well design; to reduce the cost of drilling by a large percent and to increase the production capability of tubing constrained wells. The potential benefits of expandable tubing extend far beyond the advantages outlined above. In practice this technology has replaced the conventional technology in wellbore construction and this may not be unconnected to its advantages.

Whilst expandable tubular technology promises to be an enabling technology that leads to standardised well and allows the concept of disposable exploration well to be realised, it is however associated with varied problems. Nevertheless, the technology could be advanced further and improved upon.

There are various areas in which the technology of expandable tubular technology can be improved and they include the following;

a) Annular sealing

The use of expanding cements for improving the sealing efficiency of annulus cementing has been considered for a long time as a possible solution to the existing problem of leakages and fluid loss. This is important because environmentally compatible, safe and economical production from oil and gas wells depends in an essential manner on flawless cementation of the installed casing string whose function is the prevention of fluid and gas flow through the annuli among other items. The requirements of annulus cementing can be satisfied only if the cement ensures an impermeable bond between the casing string and the surrounding rock and exhibits sufficient compressive and shear bond strength until the ultimate plugging of the well. Gas and fluid motions in the annulus are continual but often slow processes which are consequently detected late or not at all. It is not uncommon for migration from the payzone to build-up at the wellhead. In practice, definite effects of leakage can occur in comparatively short liner cementation in gas wells and in combination with insufficient sealing of the liner hanger, the gas often can easily penetrate into the production tubing. The formation of voluminous $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ and $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ crystals on the surface of the cement particles which resulted in matrix expansion by more than 10% even under a hydrostatic pressure of 120Mpa and at borehole temperatures up to 175°C.

Calcium oxide(CaO) and magnesium oxide(MgO) additives exhibit effective matrix expansion, even under hydrostatic pressures up to 120Mpa. The improved shear bond strength values of such cements indicate effective bonding of the cement at the interfaces with the casing and formation, and that superior sealing action can thus be achieved. The permeability studies on the system comprising the hardened cement paste and steel pipe essentially confirm this conclusion (Ghofrani and Plack 1993).

b) Swelling elastomers

Swelling elastomers are used extensively throughout the industry (Braas et al 2003). A swelling elastomer has been identified as a potential method of increasing the sealing OD range of openhole clad. The swelling is based on contact between the elastomer and has the potential of doubling the seal thickness after downhole deployment. The swelling rate downhole is determined by pressure and temperature as well as the composition of wellbore fluids. Fast rates of swelling are preferred, to reduce waiting time to a minimum before the seal becomes effective. Swelling rates should however not be too fast, as this might prevent running the OHC to depth.



Fig 3 : Swelling elastomers. Original thickness: steel 4mm, rubber 3.6mm (left); 66% swelling (middle); 118% swelling (right), (Braas et al 2003).

Better annular sealing can also be achieved chemically by the use of production chemistry processes which affect the formation. A good example of this is the use of permeability modifier to modify the permeability of the formation in order to prevent fluid loss.

c) Galling prevention

This can be done by thin dense chrome plating. It is achieved by chrome plating the tubular in thickness ranging from 0.000025 to 0.0005 (0.000635-0.0127 mm). The electro-alloy thin dense plating process is an alternative to standard chrome plating, which may develop tiny cracks and thereby allow a corrosive liquid or gas to penetrate to the base metal and attack it. Thin dense chrome is hard chrome which is so thin and it has not yet built up enough stress to cause cracking and therefore has good corrosion resistance. It uniformly deposits dense, high chromium, non-magnetic alloy on the surface of any metal without measurably changing the micro-inch value of the base metal. This process of chrome plating offers design engineers an efficient means of improving the performance of the expansion process of expandable tubulars. In addition to preventing galling it perform the following functions.

- Lengthens service life
- Increases lubricity
- Permits use of similar opposing surface
- Results in significant savings in time, labour and replacement parts.

Among other things it is characterised by:

- Remarkable wear resistance
- Extremely low coefficient of friction
- Smooth sliding properties
- Excellent anti-seizure characteristics
- Beneficial corrosion resistance.

The plating can be applied in thickness ranges from 0.000025 to 0.0005 inch with a tolerance of (+/-) 10%. The precision electro-chemical deposition takes place in a special fluoride bath to assure a positive, lasting bond between the base metal and the surface. The minimum deposition thickness prevents hydrogen build-up that often plagues plating. This deposition takes place at low temperatures, generally less than 140°F, and is applicable to all ferrous and non-ferrous metals without causing distortion. A uniform electro-alloy can be applied to the internal and external surfaces of metal parts having varied configurations. The plating's main attribute in wear resistance is its low coefficient of friction which means less drag and therefore less heat is generated as the expansion cone rubs against the expandable tubular. It is applicable to virtually any environment ranging from -425°F to greater than 1150°F ambient. It can be used to treat base metal for improved performance, or it may be combined with a less expensive base metal as a substitute for corrosion resistant steel, thereby generating considerable savings in material cost. The three important advantages which are put to use in a wear situation are that it is very hard; it is very slippery; and it is resistant to most industrially corrosive environment.

d) Pressure intensifiers

In this case the hydraulic pressure intensifiers can be used to increase the pressure applied to the expansion cone in order to expand the expandable tubular, they are used for creating pressures up to 100,000psi. Since generation of such high pressure onshore or offshore will involve the use of very special pumps which are very expensive. A very good way to reduce cost is to use pressure intensifiers during the deployment of the expansion cone down the expandable tubular. This way a lower pressure can be easily generated by the pumps and in turn could be multiplied by the pressure intensifier. Pressure intensifiers are used for creating pressure greater than those ordinarily obtained directly from either hand operated pumps or motor driven pumps, while it is unintended for high volumetric capacity, their simplicity of design makes them an economic means of obtaining high pressure

e) Material selection

Material selection is a very important factor for solid tubular expansion. A low yield material with high ductility is selected to ease the expansion process. The required energy use to expand a solid tube is approximately proportional to its yield strength. Similarly, the expansion ratio, which is the ratio of the post expansion outside diameter of the pre-expanded outside diameter, is also approximately proportional to the expansion force for a given material. The preferred range of yield strengths is between 40,000psi and 70,000 psi. It is important that the manufacturing quality of the material needs to be of a higher specification than conventional API tubing, particularly with respect to allowable defects, wall thickness, yield strength, ductility and uniformity along the length and the circumference of the tubing. During the expansion process, the material strength increases since the expansion process is a cold working of the material. However, the collapse strength of post expanded material is less than that of the pre-expanded material. This is due to a combination of factors which includes the increase in diameter, reduction in wall thickness and material changes due to the cyclic working e.g. expansion decreases the collapse rating of tubular goods, probably as a result of Baushinger effect. The Baushinger phenomenon occurs when the plastic flow in one direction (expansion) lowers the applied stress at which plastic flow begins in the reverse direction (collapse) (Choi H.J. 2009). The test data for grade L-80 indicate that, if the pre-expansion and post-expansion dimensions are the same, collapse resistance should decrease by about 30% as a result of the expansion process. Collapse test data on 5 ½ inch x 17lb/ft grade L-80 show that post-expansion collapse resistance was near or slightly below the minimum required by API Bulletin 503. Fortunately, studies have shown that a significant portion of material's initial collapse resistance can be recovered in situ through a special process under development. For example, application of this process to 20% expanded L-80 casing resulted in a 48% increase in post expansion collapse resistance. The expansion process appears to have no detrimental effects on burst strength. Burst pressure of expanded L-80 casing meets or exceeds general formulae expectations, and the fracture surface of all samples tested has shown ductile fracture behaviour. (Choi H.J.2009).

Since the collapse strength of the post expanded material is less than the collapse strength of the pre-expanded material, it implies that the low collapse strength of the post expanded material will constitute a major problem. A very good way to increase the collapse strength of the post expanded material is to increase the wall thickness of the pre-expanded solid tubular. By so doing, after expansion, the post expanded material will have a higher collapse strength and therefore prevents the solid expandable tubular from collapse.

Selection of the proper materials for the mandrel or pig assembly is very crucial. The working piece, the cone is subjected to high interfacial stresses as it expands the pipe. The shape of the cone and lubrication of the cone that interface with the tubular product are also critical to successful performance.

Materials for the components of the expansion assembly are chosen for sufficient strength, ductility, impact toughness, and resistance to galling, wear, and environmental cracking.

The performance of standard grades of steel tubulars after its subjection to permanent expansion (up to 20%) was previously unknown. Initial laboratory experiments included flaring tests, much more meaningful than tensile tests for determining the suitability of the various API 5CT grades for expansion. Seam-Welded products were the initial expansion studies because their wall thickness is more easily controlled. The knowledge of post expansion mechanical properties is imperative for the accurate service rating of the tubular product under evaluation. Post expansion strength, ductility, impact toughness, collapse, and burst have been studied for selected sizes of pipe and compared to the same values for the pipe as received. The data show that the expansion process does, indeed affect the mechanical properties of the material. Ultimate tensile strength tends to increase, and elongations tend to decrease, with expansion- natural results of cold-working the metal.

The convergence of a number of technologies will further advance the technology and application of expandable tubing, an example of this convergence is the use of formed metal technology in multilateral wells, this in turn create the desire to begin the process of designing fit for purpose wells using expandables as the enabling technology. The continued use of expandable products and the rapid development of a broader range of solutions will lead to the use of expandables more and more on a well design basis rather than on a contingency basis.

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Physico-Chemical Characteristics of Water from Hand Dug Wells in Tudun Wada, Kaduna-Nigeria

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Abstract - Physico - chemical characteristics of water from five different hand dug wells in Tudun wada, Kaduna-Nigeria (Mando road, Rigasa road, Jada road, ungwan sanusi and Faskari road) in Tudun wada, Kaduna were investigated. The results of the physical parameters (pH, temperature, turbidity, conductivity and total dissolved solids) of the water samples analyzed suggest the suitability of the water for domestic and other uses. However, results from the analysis of the chemical properties such as total hardness, sulphates, chloride and nitrates give values above the world health organization standard for drinking water quality for some wells.

Keywords : Hand dug well, Physico-chemical characteristics, water quality.

GJRE Classification : FOR Code: 050299



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Abdullahi, M. E^a, Abdulkarim, B. I^a, Adejoh, A. Z^b

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Keywords : Hand dug well, Physico-chemical characteristics, water quality

I. INTRODUCTION

According to WHO (2007) about 1.1 billion people lack access to an improved drinking water supply. In most cities, towns and villages in Nigeria, valuable man-hours are spent on seeking and fetching water, often of doubtful quality from distant sources (Efe et al., 2005). Tudun Wada is a densely populated district of Kaduna, in north western Nigeria. The high population density, poor sanitation habits and lack of enforcement of environmental sanitation laws have contributed immensely to the pollution of water sources. This problem of acute water supply have resulted in proliferation of hand dug wells with some located within the proximity of soakaways and pit latrines.

The quality of a water resource depends on the management of anthropogenic discharges as well as the natural physico-chemical characteristics of the catchments areas (Efe et al, 2005; Saba and Baba, 2004). Also, depending on the geology of an area, underground waters are typically rich in dissolved solids especially carbonates and sulphates of calcium and magnesium. Other ions may also be present including chlorides and bicarbonates (wikipedia, 2010; Fair and Geyer, 1957). Hence, it is necessary to obtain physico-chemical characteristics of water so as to monitor water quality and to determine the type of treatment that may be required before use (Odigure and Adeniyi, 2001). Therefore, the main objective of this research is to ascertain the quality of water samples from hand dug

wells in Tudun Wada, Kaduna and to recommend measures that would enhance good water quality.

II. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

The water samples were obtained from five different wells from different parts of Tudun Wada, Kaduna. This includes Mando road, Rigasa road, Jada road, ungwan sanusi and Faskari road denoted as well 1, well 2, well 3, well 4 and well 5 respectively. The well water samples were collected using sterilized plastic containers and were covered to avoid contamination.

III. ANALYSIS OF WELL WATER SAMPLES

pH, temperature, dissolved oxygen and conductivity were measured immediately at the point of sample collection to avoid changes over time. A mercury thermometer was used to determine the temperature of the samples while a digital pH meter (model ELE 3071) was used to measure the pH of the samples. METRO HM 644 conductivity meter was used to measure electrical conductivity. The turbidity of the samples was also determined using a turbidity meter. To determine the total dissolved solids (TDS), about 100 ml of each sample was filtered, and the weight of the filtrate was measured in clean dried evaporating dish of known initial weight. The filtrate was evaporated to dryness on a hot water bath and then cooled in desiccators for about 10 minutes and weighed with its content using an electronic weighing balance (METTLER COLLEGE 30). The total dissolved solid of each sample was calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Total dissolved solids} = (A - B)/V \times 100$$

Where A = Final weight of evaporating dish; B = Initial weight of evaporating dish;

V = Volume of water sample taken (ml).

The sulphate, nitrate and chloride content of the various water samples were determined using a programmable spectrophotometer (DR -2000 HACH). Total hardness was determined by titration method. 50ml of water sample was taken into a 250ml conical flask and 2-3 drops of erichrome black T indicator was added. The sample was then titrated against 0.1 EDTA solution (ethylene diamine tetra acetate) until a definite blue colour was obtained. The total hardness was calculated from the formula;

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$$\text{Total Hardness (mg/l)} = \frac{\text{vol. of titrate} \times 0.1 \text{ EDTA}}{\text{Vol. of sample}} \times 10^6$$

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physical characterization of well water samples in Tudun Wada, kaduna suggests the suitability of the water for domestic and other uses. The physical

parameters analyzed in this research include pH, temperature, turbidity, conductivity and total dissolved solids (TDS). The pH of the well water samples was in the range of 6.8 to 7.5 as recommended by the world health organization (1971).

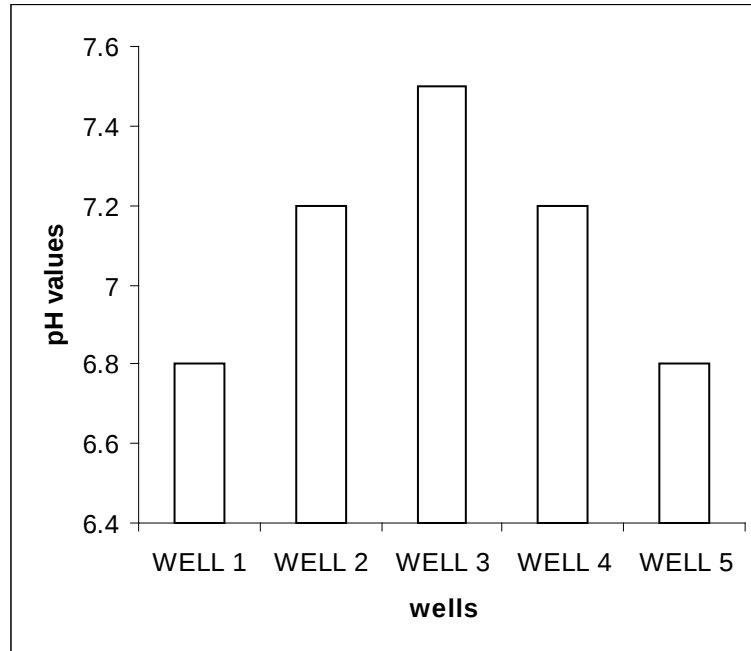


Figure 1 : pH values for the various hand dug well samples

The result obtained from the physical analysis shows that the temperatures of the well water are within the range of 24.8 °C to 26°C which is also within WHO acceptable limit of

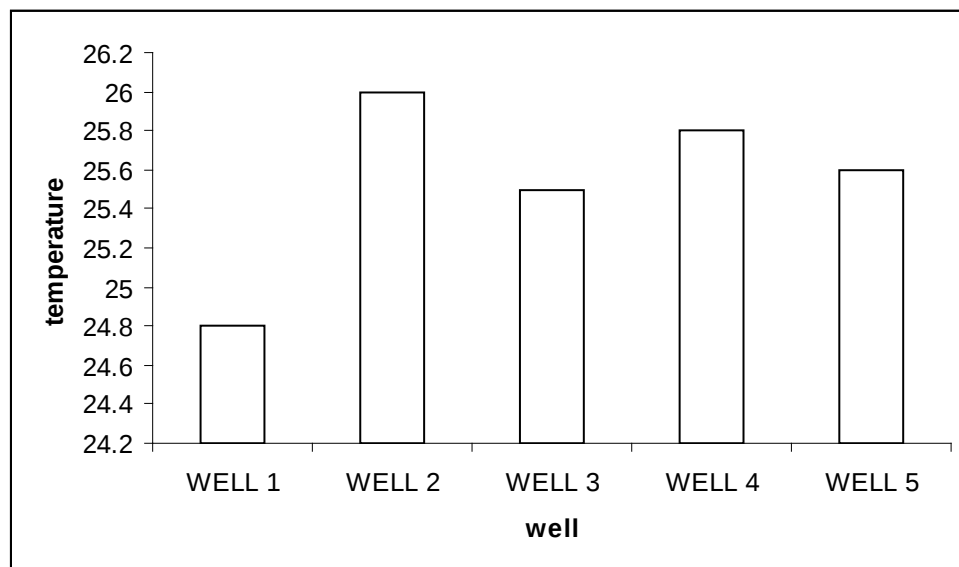


Figure 2 : Temperature values for the various hand dug well samples

From figure 3, the turbidity level of the samples ranges from 0.65 NTU in well 3 to 1.2 NTU in well 5 which are all less than the maximum allowable value of 5 NTU stipulated by the World Health Organisation. This shows absence colloidal particles.

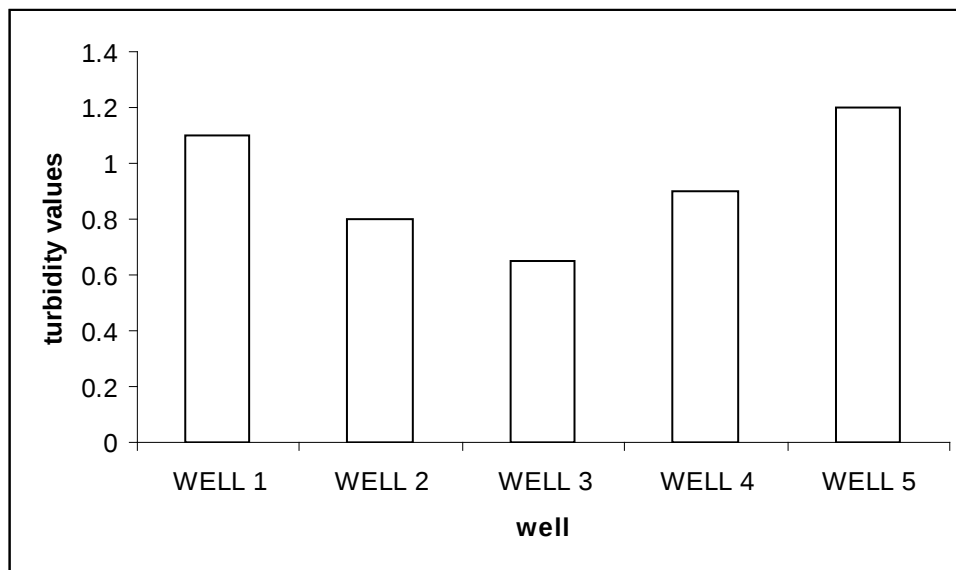


Figure 3 : Turbidity values for the various hand dug well samples

The conductivity values of the samples were generally low with the highest value of 0.22 us/cm in well 4 as indicated in figure 4.

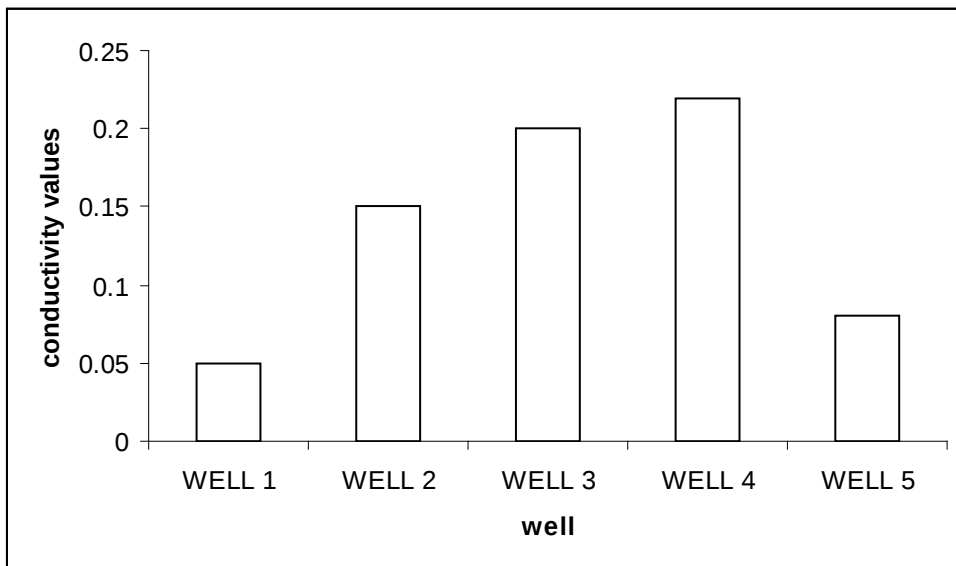


Figure 4 : Conductivity values for the various hand dug well samples

The total dissolved solid (TDS) is an indication of the degree of dissolved substances such as metal ions in the water. The TDS values for the samples are less than the maximum permissible level of 500mg/l.

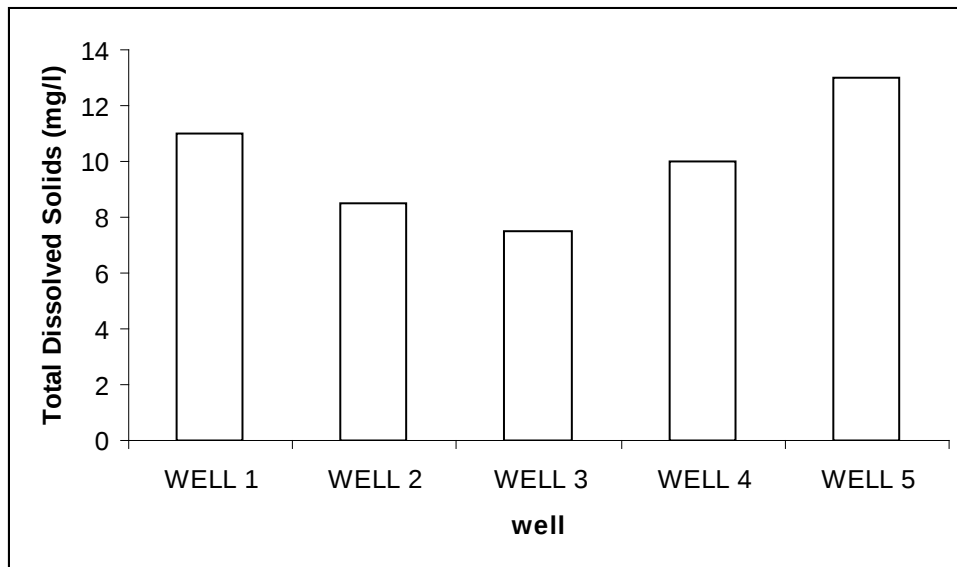


Figure 5 : Total Dissolved Solids values for the various hand dug well samples

The presence of some compounds such as bicarbonates of calcium and magnesium and sulphates, chlorides, nitrates of calcium and magnesium makes the water not to foam lather readily, such water is said to be hard. Well 1 has a high value of total hardness of 232 mg/l as compared to other samples

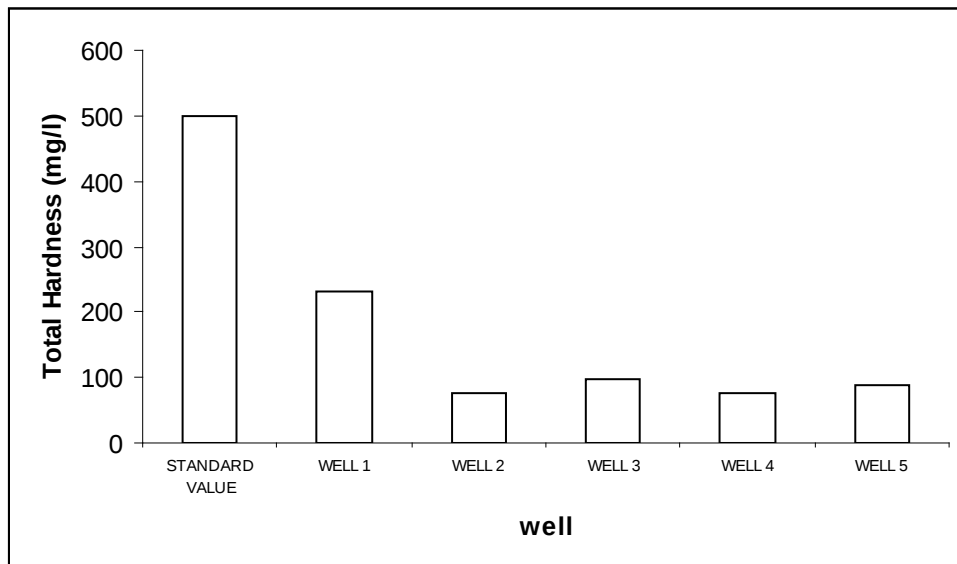


Figure 6 : Total hardness values for the various hand dug well samples

The Sulphate and nitrate concentrations in water from well 1 were also observed to be 23.2 mg/l and 53 mg/l respectively which are above the maximum permissible level for sulphate and nitrate. This is clearly indicated in figure7 and 9.

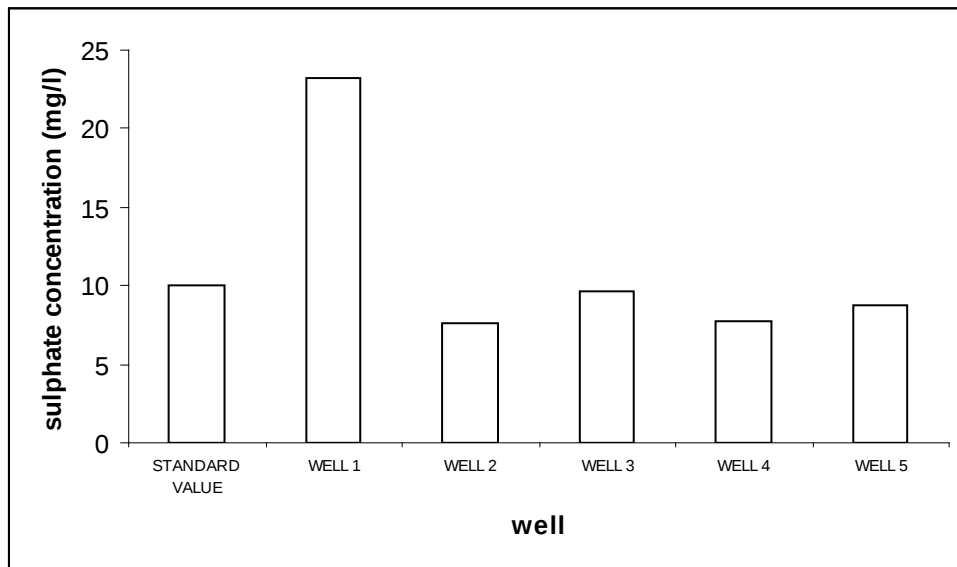


Figure 7 : Sulphate concentration for the various hand dug well samples

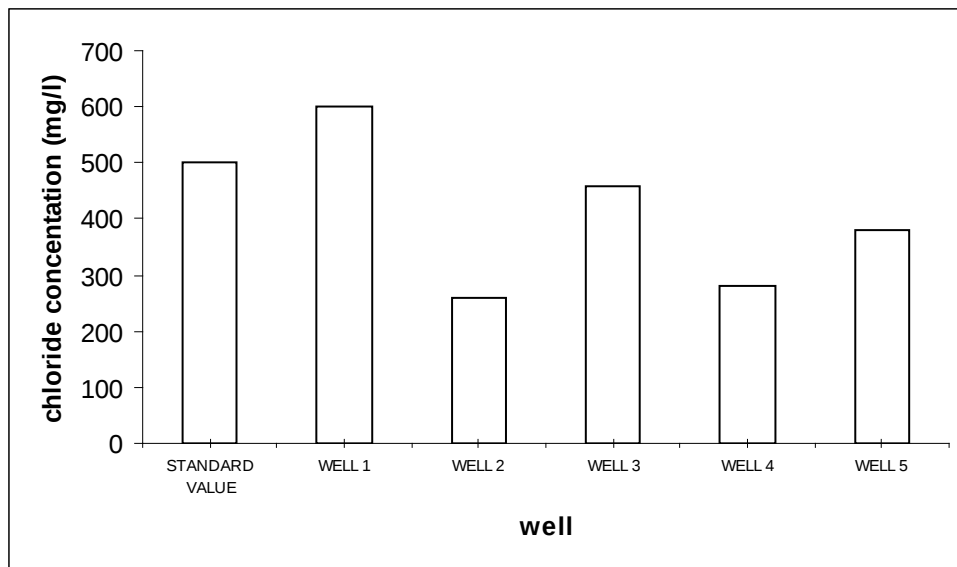


Figure 8 : Chloride concentration for the various hand dug well samples

This may due to the geological nature of the area. However, samples from the other wells have values below the permissible level.

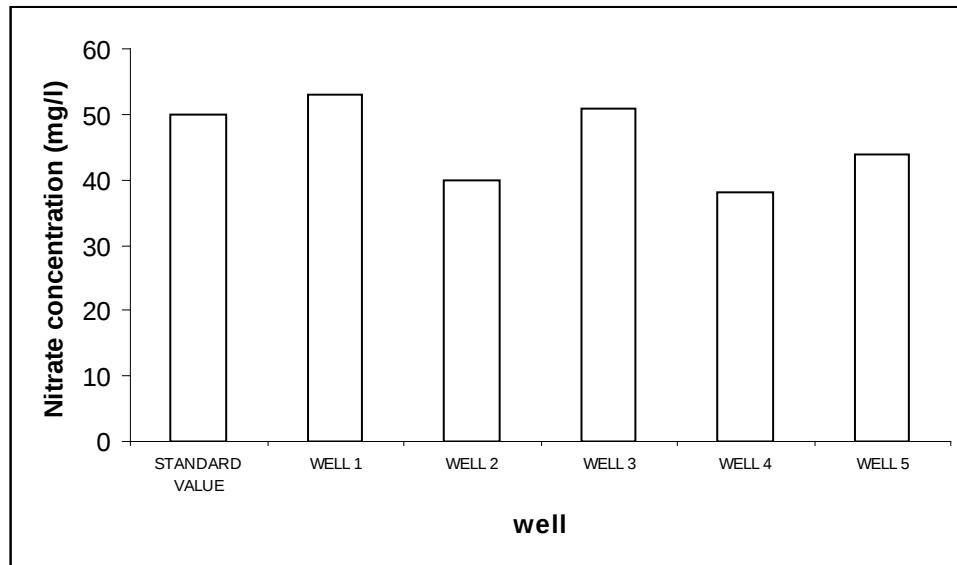


Figure 9 : Nitrate concentration for the various hand dug well samples

V. CONCLUSION

The results show high level of total hardness, nitrate and sulphate concentration in well water from Tudun Wada Kaduna. Therefore it can be concluded that there is need to subject well water in Kaduna to modern treatment process to improve its suitability for domestic and other uses.

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Potentiality of Carbon Sequestration in Six Year Ages Young Plant from University Campus of Aurangabad

By Chavan B. L., Rasal G. B.

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Abstract - Carbon sequestration in urban sectors and forest areas is of great attention due to its concerns about global climate change. In the present investigation aboveground carbon sequestration potential of six year young age *Emblica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* species from the university campus of Aurangabad is measured. The aboveground biomass rate of carbon sequestered was estimated using ash method. The percentage of carbon content in the aboveground and below ground biomass i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Emblica officinalis* were 43.67%, 52.89%, 53.91%, 53.59% and 55.68% respectively, in *Mangifera indica* were 49.28%, 50.65%, 50.43%, 52.11 and 53.88% carbon respectively, in *Tamarindus indica* were 53.47%, 57.53%, 56.84%, 55.85% and 54.63% carbon respectively, in *Achras sapota* were 53.63%, 52.4%, 53.72%, 48.42% and 49.52% carbon respectively, *Annona reticulata* were 53.67, 57.24%, 55.24 53.08% and 51.62% respectively, *Annona squamosa* there were 52.08%, 55.09%, 55.33%, 56.01% and 52.04 respectively. The total above ground biomass carbon stalk per hectare as estimated for *Emblica officinalis* was 33.07 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Mangifera indica* it was 30.6 Kg C ha⁻¹ and in *Tamarindus indica* it was 36.96 Kg C ha⁻¹ and in *Achras sapota* were 12.86 Kg C ha⁻¹ in *Annona reticulata* was 83.1 Kg Cha⁻¹ and for *Annona squamosa* it was 73.5 Kg C ha⁻¹ in University campus.

Keywords : Aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, carbon sequestration potential, climate change, carbon stock.

GJRE Classification : FOR Code: 050299



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I. INTRODUCTION

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is a major contributing gas to the green house effect. It is one of the dominant greenhouse gases among them. The Kyoto Protocol prepared by the United Nations in the Framework of Convention on Climate Change stipulates Clean Development Mechanisms (CDM) and its Joint Implementation whereby storage of carbon in various terrestrial sinks may be acceptable for insertion in national greenhouse gas inventories of each nation. The increasing carbon emission is of major concerns all over the world and it has been well addressed in Kyoto protocol (Ravindranath et al., 1997; Chavan and Rasal,

2010). The rate of carbon storage increases in young tree species, while it declines after full growth as the stand ages (Jana, et al., 2009). Carbon sequestration is a natural method for the removal of carbon from the atmosphere by storing it in the biosphere (Dhruba, 2008; Chavan and Rasal, 2010). Biomass is defined as the total amount of aboveground living organic matter in trees expressed as oven-dry tons per unit area that reduces the concentration from atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (Brown, 1997; FORDA and JICA, 2005; Ravindranath and Ostwald, 2008). The atmospheric carbon dioxide is captured and stored in plants, soils, oceans, or atmosphere in the forms of biomass by photosynthesis process.

The amount of carbon sequestered continuously by a tree increases substantially over the time and age of tree till it matures. The process of carbon capture in photosynthesis is influenced by different factors including the tree age, leaf area and photosynthetic efficiency. The increasing carbon emission is of major concerns all over the world; it has been well addressed in Kyoto protocol (Ravindranath et al., 1997; Chavan and Rasal, 2010). The rate of carbon storage increases in young tree species, while it declines after full growth as the stand ages (Jana, et al., 2009). Above Ground Biomass (AGB) of tree includes all living biomass of all its parts above the soil, while Below Ground Biomass (BGB) includes all the plant biomass of live roots excluding the fine roots of sizes <2mm diameter (Ravindranath and Ostwald, 2008). Carbon sequestration in growing forests is known to be a cost-effective option for mitigation of global warming and global climatic change. The objective of this study is to measure carbon sequestered from selective tree species of *Emblica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* grown in the University campus in Aurangabad city, Maharashtra in India.

II. METHODOLOGY

a) Site and study area

The study area selected in present investigation for the estimation of above ground biomass and below ground biomass and carbon sequestration was the University campus of Aurangabad, which is located at

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the latitude 19°53'47"N and longitude 75°23'54"E. The university campus is lush green and covers about 140 hectares area under the plantation program for selected tree species. The tree species *Emblica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* selected for present investigation are from the plots grown on the university campus. The weather of Aurangabad is dry and moderately extreme. The average day temperature ranges from 27.7° C to 38.0° C. It falls from 26.9°C to 20.0°C during night. Relative humidity is extremely low for major part of the year and ranges between 30% and 50%, while it is highest 85% during monsoon. The average rainfall is about 90 cm. It is rather variable from year to year (ESRAM, 2009).

b) *Estimation of carbon sequestered in different parts of six year tree species*

The tree biomass includes the total of Above Ground Biomass (AGB) and Below Ground Biomass (BGB). The above ground biomass studied includes all above ground materials covering stem, branches, leaves, bark and below ground biomass consist coarse roots and stumps. The estimation of biomass in the plant was performed by measuring the tree height and diameter of plant species. Weight of the wood biomass has been calculated by multiplying the volume of biomass and specific gravity (SG) of the plant. The specific gravity (SG) considered is the ratio of oven dry weight and green volume of plant.

The organic carbon storage in selected tree species of *Emblica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* was estimated by Ash Method as described elsewhere (Allen, et al., 1986; Negi, et al., 2003; Jana, et al., 2009). The leaves, stem, sub branches, bark and root of each species were separated to estimate carbon by Ash method. The fresh weight of each part of all species washed with distilled water and dried with tissue paper immediately was taken then oven dried for moisture removal at 80°C for 24 hrs. Oven dried sample were taken in pre-weighed crucible. The crucibles were placed in the Muffle furnace adjusted at 400°C, ignition was carried out for 2.30 hrs. The crucible was cooled slowly inside the desiccators. After cooling the crucible with ash were weighed and percentage of organic carbon were calculated as formulae given by Allen et al, (1986).

$$C\% = (100 - Ash\%) \times 0.58 \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Where, C is the organic carbon; W_1 is weight of crucibles, W_2 is weight of oven-dried grind samples with Crucibles, and W_3 the weight of ash with Crucibles.

In the present study we have estimated the aboveground biomass stocks, belowground biomass and carbon stocks taking volume of biomass and specific gravity (SG) of the tree, as described by many researchers (Rajput et al., 1996; Jana et al., 2009; Negi et al., 2003).

$$SG = \frac{\text{Oven dry weight}}{\text{Green volume}} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$\text{Biomass} = \text{Volume of Biomass} \times \text{Specific Gravity} \dots (3)$$

$$\text{Carbon} = \text{Biomass} \times \text{Carbon}\% \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The estimation of the above biomass in the selected tree species was performed by estimating carbon percentage and by knowing the tree height, diameter, and girth size.

Biomass carbon content: The Aboveground biomass (AGB) and Belowground biomass (BGB) of the tree such as leaves, stems, branches (including sub-branches), bark and root have been collected and dried at laboratory. The results of biomass analysis by ash method are presented in Figures. Total carbon stalk of a tree has been evaluated by the sum of all the carbon contents of leaves, stem, sub-branches and bark of the tree. The carbon concentration of different tree parts was rarely measured directly, but generally assumed to be 50% of the dry weight (Losi et al., 2003; Jana et al., 2009). The content of carbon in woody biomass any component of forest on average is around 50% of dry matter (Paladinic et al., 2009). The percentage of carbon in fresh biomass and in each component of the tree, as well as in the whole tree were calculated based on percentage of carbon in the dry biomass of the aboveground and belowground of all components of the leaves, stem, branches, bark, and root. Based on these results, the capacity to stored carbon in individual parts of the tree, in the whole tree and in fresh and dry biomass was compared.

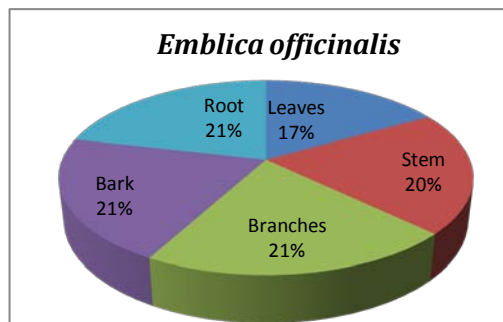
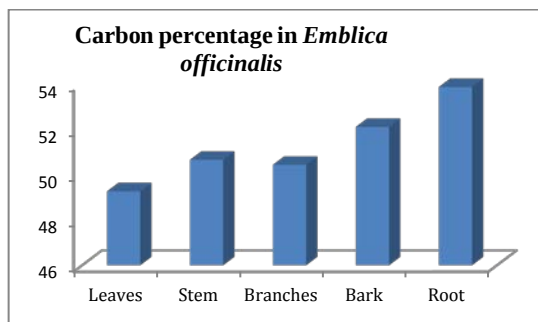


Fig.1: Carbon percentage in components of young *Emblica officinalis* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram).

It is observed for the percentage of carbon content in the aboveground and below ground biomass i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Emblica officinalis* were 43.67%, 52.89%, 53.91%, 53.59% and 55.68% respectively. The highest carbon percentage was shown in branches, bark and root it was 21%

belowground biomass than the aboveground. The carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Emblica officinalis* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.1).

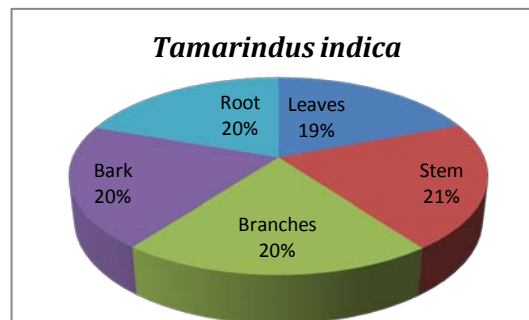
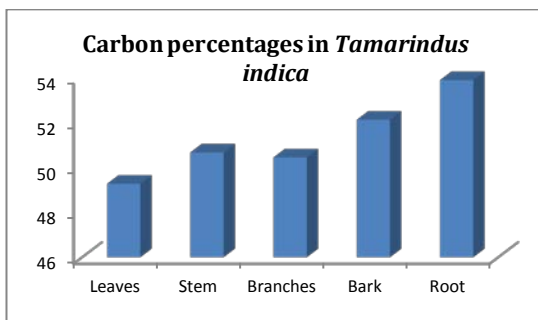


Fig.2 : Carbon percentage in components of young *Tamarindus indica* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram).

The percentage of carbon content in the ABG and BGB i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Tamarindus indica* carbon percentage were 53.47%, 57.53%, 56.84%, 55.85% and 54.63% respectively. The highest carbon percentage was noticed in the leaves in aboveground than the belowground plant parts. The

carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Tamarindus indica* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.2).

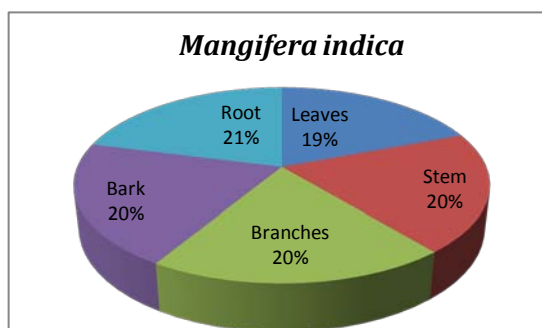
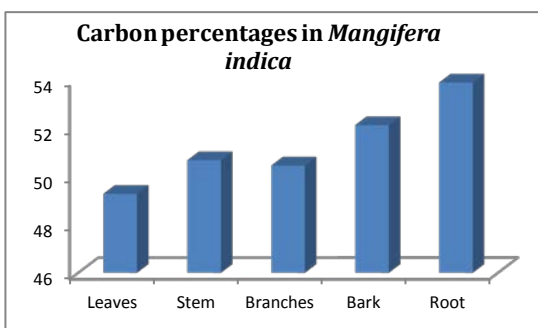


Fig.3 : Carbon percentage in components of young *Mangifera indica* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion in whole tree components (Pie diagram).

The percentage of carbon content in the ABG and BGB i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Mangifera indica* in its different parts were 49.28%, 50.65%, 50.43%, 52.11 and 53.88% carbon respectively. The highest carbon percentage was observed in

belowground plant part in root than the aboveground plant parts. The carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Mangifera indica* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.3).

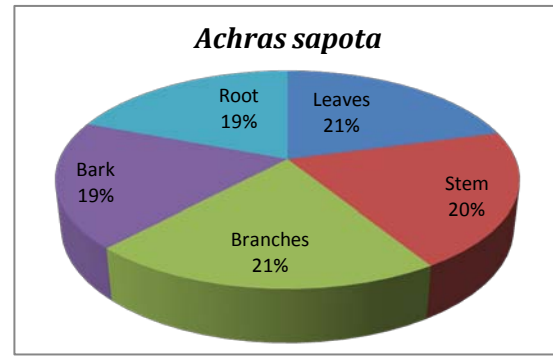
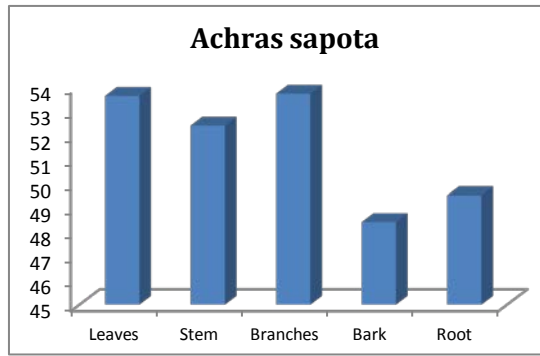


Fig.4: Carbon percentage in components of young *Achras sapota* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram).

The percentage of carbon content in the ABG and BGB i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Achras sapota* were 53.63%, 52.4%, 53.72%, 48.42% and 49.52% carbon respectively. The highest carbon percentage was observed in stem in ABG than BGB

plant parts. The carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Achras sapota* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.4).

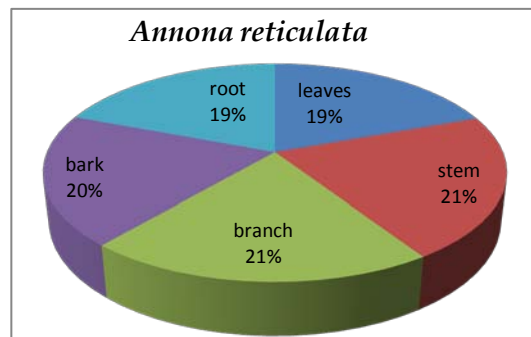
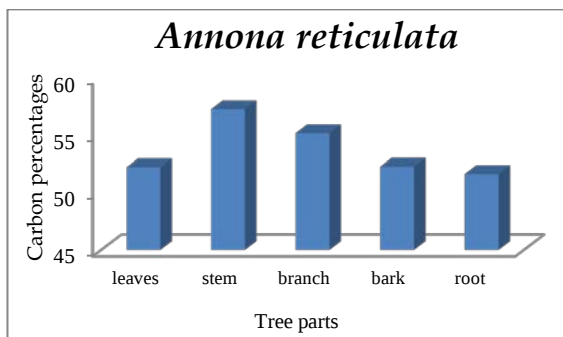


Fig.5: Carbon percentage in components of young *Annona reticulata* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram).

It is observed for the percentage of carbon content in the aboveground and below ground biomass i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Annona reticulata* were 53.67, 57.24%, 55.24, 53.08% and 51.62% respectively. The highest carbon percentage was observed in stem in AGB than BGB plant parts

(Fig.4). The carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Annona reticulata* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.5).

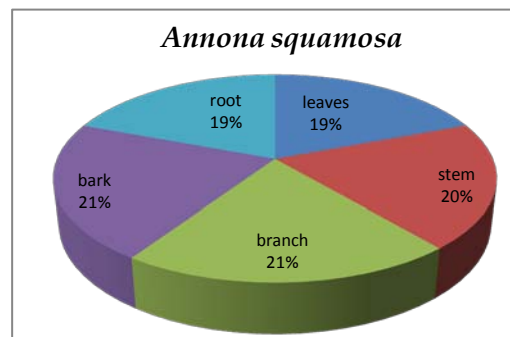
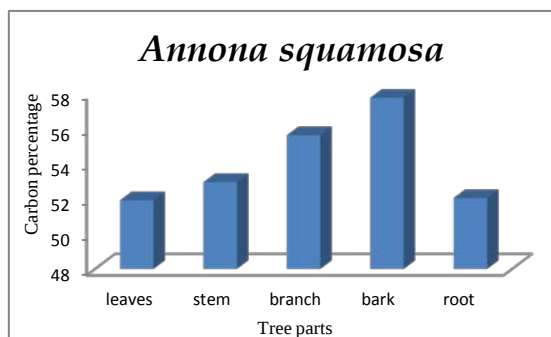


Fig.6: Carbon percentage in components of young *Emblica officinalis* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram).

The carbon percentage in components of ABG and BGB i.e. leaves, stem, branches, bark and root of *Annona squamosa* there were 52.08%, 55.09%, 55.33%, 56.01% and 52.04 respectively. The highest carbon percentage was observed in bark in AGB than BGB

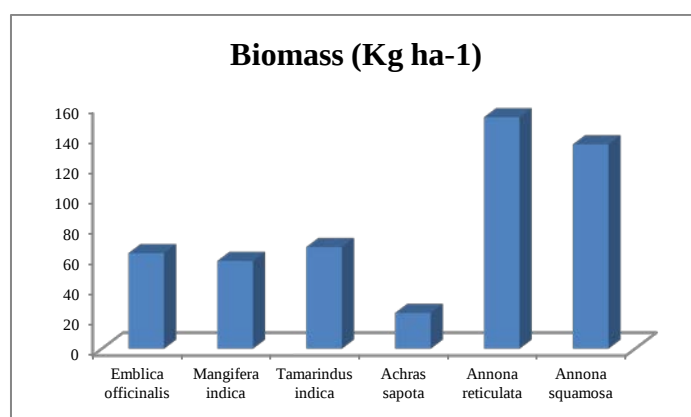
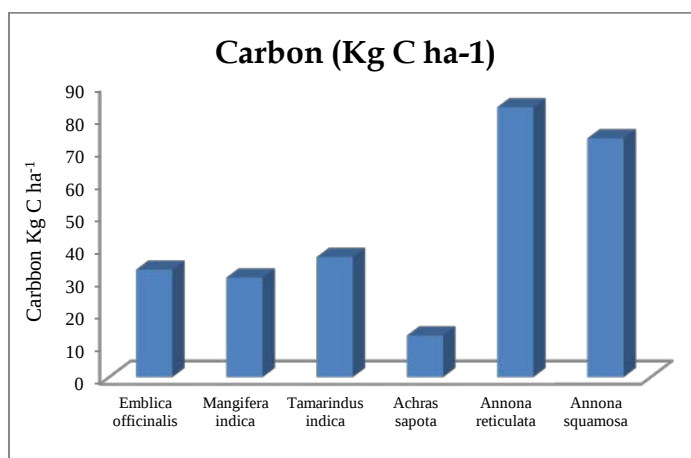
plant parts. The carbon percentages in the components of six year young *Annona reticulata* tree parts (Bar chart) and proportion of whole tree components (Pie diagram) (Fig.6).

Table 1: Total biomass and carbon in trees of six year age

Tree species	Specific gravity	Biomass (Kg/tree)	Biomass (Kg ha ⁻¹)	Carbon (Kg C ha ⁻¹)
<i>Embllica officinalis</i>	0.63	0.067	63.31	33.07
<i>Mangifera indica</i>	0.56	0.038	58.14	30.6
<i>Tamarindus indica</i>	0.50	0.051	67.32	36.96
<i>Achras sapota</i>	0.54	0.057	23.65	12.86
<i>Annona reticulata</i>	0.43	0.102	153	83.1
<i>Annona squamosa</i>	0.50	0.090	135	73.5

The estimation of total amount of stored carbon in a tree should be based on biomass of components of whole tree. Using data collected from a typical tree, the fresh biomass of the tree components were determined, while the dry biomass of the component was estimated

using sample analysis. The specific gravity, total biomass and total carbon content after six years of age in *Embllica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* is shown in Table 1.

Fig. 7: Total biomass in young tree species (Kg ha⁻¹)Fig. 8: Total carbon content in young tree species (Kg C ha⁻¹)

It is evident that the total of aboveground biomass and Belowground biomass content together as in *Embllica officinalis*, *Mangifera indica*, *Tamarindus indica*, *Achras sapota*, *Annona reticulata* and *Annona squamosa* for per hectare observed were 63.31 Kg ha⁻¹, 58.14 Kg ha⁻¹, 67.32 Kg ha⁻¹, 23.65 Kg ha⁻¹, 153 Kg ha⁻¹ and 135 Kg ha⁻¹ respectively (Table 1 & Fig. 7).

As per Table 1 & fig. 8 the total of aboveground biomass and belowground biomass together as sequestered carbon stalk per hectare as estimated for *Embllica officinalis* was 33.07 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Mangifera indica* it was 30.6 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Tamarindus indica* it was 36.96 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Achras sapota* it was 12.86 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Annona reticulata* it was 83.1 Kg C ha⁻¹ and in *Annona squamosa*, it was 73.5 Kg C ha⁻¹.

IV. CONCLUSION

The total carbon content of from Dr. B. A. M. University area were The total of AGB and BGB together as carbon stalk per hectare as estimated for *Emblica officinalis* was 33.07 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Mangifera indica* it was 30.6 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Tamarindus indica* it was 36.96 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Achras sapota* it was 12.86 Kg C ha⁻¹, in *Annona reticulata* it was 83.1 Kg C ha⁻¹ and in *Annona squamosa*, it was 73.5 Kg C ha⁻¹ respectively.

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A Study On Chemical Analysis Of Drinking Water From Some Communities In Nandyal Rural Areas Of Kurnool District Andhra Pradesh. INDIA

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Abstract - This study consisted of the determination of the trace metal ions and some physiochemical properties in drinking water samples from the neighboring villages of Nandyal region, Kurnool district, where drinking water samples are not treated before it is consumed. The purpose was to ascertain the quality of water from these sources. Samples were taken from ten sampling points and analyzed for the following parameters Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, Al, pH, EC, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and F⁻ using the procedure outline in the plain test photometer method. The data showed the variation of the investigated parameters in samples as follows: pH 5.47-7.39, conductivity (EC) 49-1168 μ S/cm, turbidity 4.68-73.34JTU, F⁻ 0.54 to 1.29mg/L, NO₃⁻ 11.19 to 39.76 mg/L, SO₄²⁻ 41.2 to 73.0 mg/L, Cu 1.25 to 2.96 mg/L, Fe 0.08-0.94mg/L, Zn 5-19 mg/L, Mn 0.004-0.016 mg/L and Al 0.07-0.18 mg/L, The concentrations of most of the investigated parameters in the drinking water samples from Nandyal region were within the permissible limits of the World Health Organization drinking water quality guidelines.

Keywords : *drinking water, Nandyal Rural region areas, World Health Organization, Trace metals, physiochemical Properties.*

GJRE Classification : *FOR Code: 050299*



A STUDY ON CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF DRINKING WATER FROM SOME COMMUNITIES IN NANDYAL RURAL AREAS OF KURNOOL DISTRICT, ANDHRA PRADESH, INDIA

Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of :



A Study On Chemical Analysis Of Drinking Water From Some Communities In Nandyal Rural Areas Of Kurnool District ,Andhra Pradesh. INDIA

Mohemmad Rafi.K ^α, Rmachar.T ^α, Umamahesh.M ^β

Abstract - This study consisted of the determination of the trace metal ions and some physiochemical properties in drinking water samples from the neighboring villages of Nandyal region, Kurnool district, where drinking water samples are not treated before it is consumed. The purpose was to ascertain the quality of water from these sources. Samples were taken from ten sampling points and analyzed for the following parameters Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, Al, pH, EC, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and F- using the procedure outline in the plain test photometer method. The data showed the variation of the investigated parameters in samples as follows: pH 5.47-7.39, conductivity (EC) 49-1168 μ S/cm, turbidity 4.68-73.34JTU, F - 0.54 to 1.29mg/L. NO₃⁻ 11.19 to 39.76 mg/L, SO₄²⁻ 41.2 to 73.0 mg/L Cu 1.25 to 2.96 mg/L, Fe 0.08-0.94mg/L, Zn 5-19 mg/L, Mn 0.004-0.016 mg/L and Al 0.07-0.18 mg/L, The concentrations of most of the investigated parameters in the drinking water samples from Nandyal region were within the permissible limits of the World Health Organization drinking water quality guidelines.

Keywords : drinking water, Nandyal Rural region areas, World Health Organization, Trace metals, physiochemical Properties.

I. INTRODUCTION

Good drinking water quality is essential for the well being of all people. Unfortunately in many countries around the world, including India, some drinking water supplies have become contaminated, which has impacted on the health and economic status of the populations. Contaminants such as bacteria, viruses, heavy metals, nitrates and salt have found their way into water supplies as a result of inadequate treatment and disposal of waste industrial discharges, and over-use of limited water resources. Even other chemicals can be harmful to human health. Unfortunately, this problem arose because the groundwater was extracted for drinking without a

detailed chemical investigation. The natural water analyses for physical and chemical properties including trace element contents are very important for public health studies. These studies are also a main part of pollution studies in the environment (Kot., *et al.*, 2000; Soylak. *et al.*, 2002 a). According to our literature review some physical and chemical properties of the samples were determined by using standard analytical methods.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Sample collection

The drinking water samples were collected in prewashed (with detergent, diluted HNO₃ and doubly de-ionized distilled water, respectively) polyethylene bottles. pH and conductivity of the samples were measured while collecting the samples. Each water sample was taken four times at four different sampling periods approximately three months apart. Samples were collected in January, April, July and October ;2009. The determinations of the physical and other chemical properties of the water samples were performed on the same day of sampling. For surface water sampling, the bottles and caps were rinsed three times with water to be sampled during sampling and for ground water, the samples were obtained directly from the water pump after allowing the water to run for at least five minutes and each sample bottle and its cap rinsed three times. These samples were subsequently stored at 4 °C for as short a time as possible before analysis to minimize physicochemical changes (Anonymous, 1996). Because very little particulate matter was present in the sample, filtration was not considered necessary.

b) Methodology

Analytical water test tablets (photometer grade) reagents for specific test were used for the preparation of all solutions. Each sample was analyzed for Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn, Al, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, and F- using procedure^S outline in the Palintest Photometer Method (Palintest Photometer 5000) for the examination of water and waste water.

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III. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The average physical and chemical properties of the drinking water samples including pH, electrical conductivity, turbidity, fluoride, nitrate, sulphate from these sample points (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10) were given in Table 1. The pH values were in the range of 5.47 to 7.39. Minimum pH (5.47) was observed from an well in Panyam rural area (1) and a maximum of (7.39) was observed from the Panyam stream (2) at Nandyal Rural area. The pH levels were lower than permissible limit (6.5-8.5) in 10% villages, the rest were within optimum limit. The recommended permissible limit for electrical conductivity (EC) is 300 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$. By analyzing the results 80% villages showed EC lower than permissible limit. The value for EC ranged from 49 to 275 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$, except that of the groundwater samples from Konidedu (4) and Alamur (7) which recorded 963 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ and 1168 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ respectively. Turbidity is a measure of the cloudiness of water. It has no health effects. However, turbidity can interfere with disinfection and provide a medium for

microbial growth. Turbidity may indicate the presence of disease causing organisms. These organisms include bacteria, viruses, and parasites that can cause symptoms such as nausea, cramps, diarrhea, and associated headaches. All the samples have turbidity values greater than the WHO permissible value of 10 JTU except that of the groundwater sample from Neravada (5) and Kowluru (6) villages which recorded values of 5.38 JTU and 4.68 JTU respectively. Fluoride (F^-) varied from 0.54 to 1.29 mg/L. Minimum (0.54 mg/L) and maximum (1.29 mg/L) concentration of F^- was observed from Odugandla (9) and Balapanuru (10) villages respectively (Table 1). Permissible limit for F concentration is 1-1.5 mg/L according to WHO (2003). The data revealed that 50% villages are within limit. Nitrate in the investigated samples were found to be in a range of 11.19 to 39.76 mg/L. The range of sulphate (SO_4^{2-}) in the samples was 41.2 to 73.0 mg/L but was negligible at Maddur (8) throughout the area.

Table 1: The physical and chemical parameters of the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	pH	EC $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	6.78	67
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	7.37	129
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	7.17	184
Konidedu	4	Ground	5.47	963
Neravada	5	Ground	6.23	213
Kowlur	6	Ground	6.68	198
Alamur	7	Ground	7.12	1168
Maddur	8	Tap Water	7.43	95
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	7.29	102
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	7.09	116

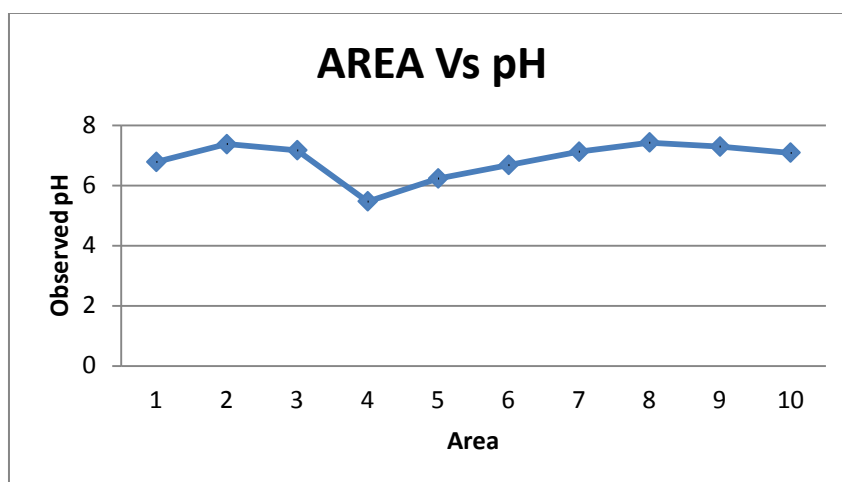


Figure: 1: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed pH

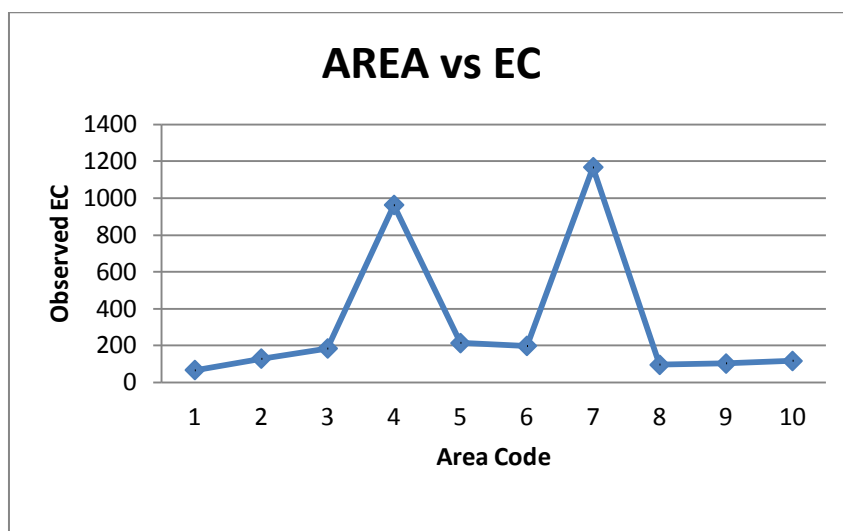


Figure: 2 : Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed EC

Table 2 : The physical and chemical parameters of the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	Turb. NTU	F (mg/l)
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	36.0	1.03
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	43.67	1.18
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	51.53	0.99
Konidedu	4	Ground	62.98	0.68
Neravada	5	Ground	5.35	0.92
Kowlur	6	Ground	4.68	0.74
Alamur	7	Ground	73.34	1.05
Maddur	8	Tap Water	32.76	1.23
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	26.88	0.54
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	29.0	1.29

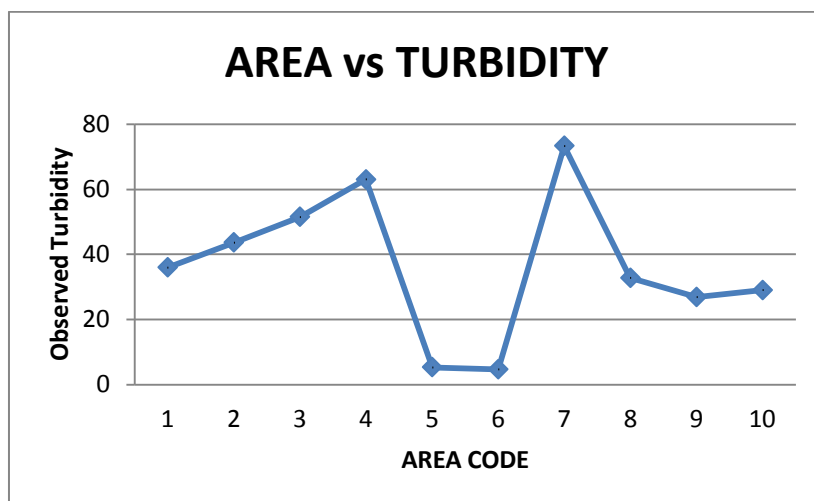


Figure: 3: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Turbidity

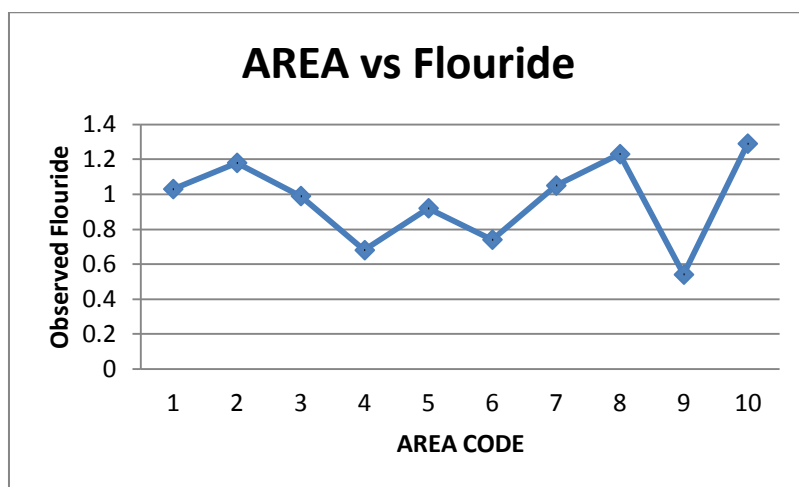


Figure 4: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Flouride

Table 3: The physical and chemical parameters of the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	NO ₃ ⁻ (mg/l)	SO ₄ ²⁻ (mg/l)
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	11.19	41.9
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	18.12	54.5
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	27.07	41.2
Konidedu	4	Ground	24.37	59.2
Neravada	5	Ground	32.49	68.7
Kowlur	6	Ground	19.45	53.4
Alamur	7	Ground	22.56	52.9
Maddur	8	Tap Water	39.76	--
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	32.88	73.0
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	29.69	48.4

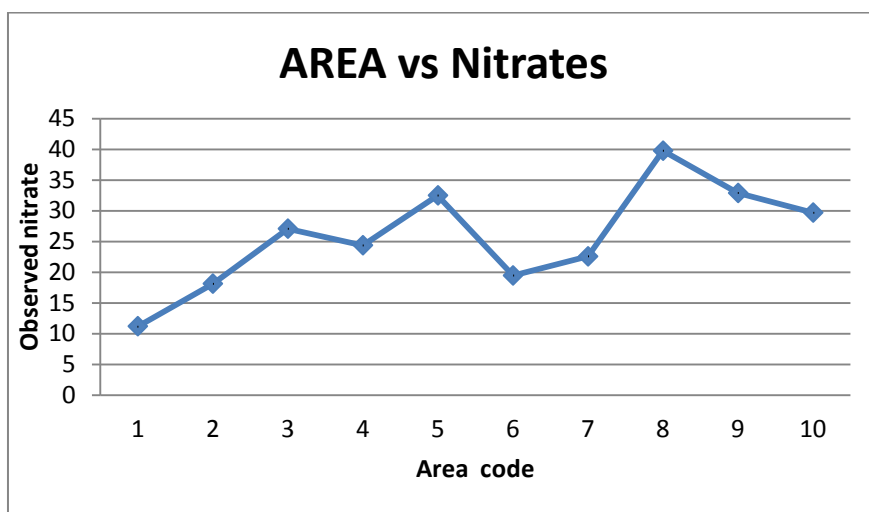


Figure 5: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Nitrates

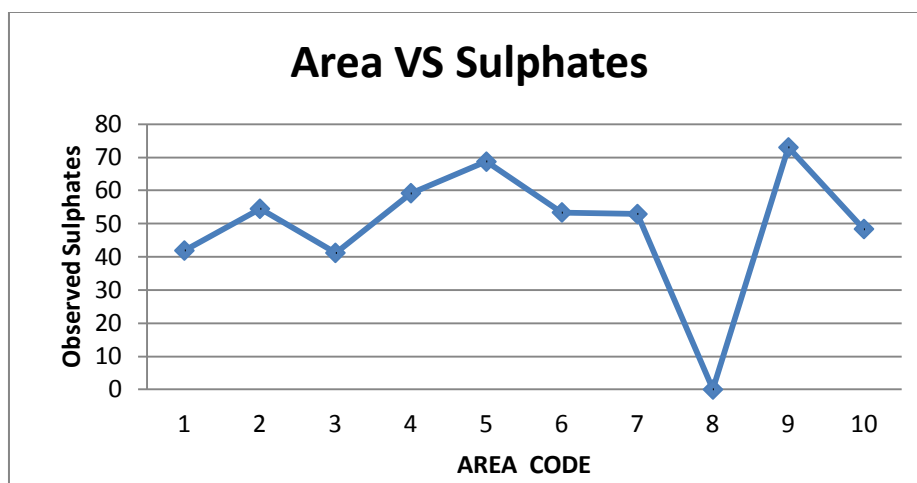


Figure 6 : Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Sulphates

The concentrations of the major ions were below the permissible limits given by the WHO. The concentrations of trace metals (Cu, Fe, Zn, Al and Mn) ions in the drinking water samples are presented in Table 2. The lowest and the highest levels of trace metals detected ranged between 0.004 mg/L - 0.016mg/l for manganese in the sample from Konidedu and 2.96 mg/L for copper from the K.c.canal at Maddur villages. The highest level of total trace metals ions were found in the water sample from K.C Canal at Maddur. Average copper concentrations in the drinking water samples were in the range of 1.25 to 2.96 mg/L. The levels in all the stations were above the limit of 1.0 mg/L permitted by WHO in drinking water. This indicates that the local mineral deposit in the catchment area studied may have high levels of copper. Copper is an essential nutrient, but at high doses it has been shown to cause stomach and intestinal distress, liver and kidney damage, and anemia (US EPA, 2003). The highest iron level was found in the sample from Kowlur as 0.94 mg/L and the lowest in Panyam as 0.08 mg/L, almost all the samples contain higher amount of iron except in Panyam where it was below the acceptance limit of iron which is 0.1 mg/ L permitted by the WHO. The levels of

zinc in the samples were in the range of 5 mg/L to 19 mg/L . 80% village are between limit according to WHO . Average manganese levels were found to be in the range of 0.042 mg/L to 0.63 mg/L. 70% villages water samples were with in the WHO permitted limit. Aluminum concentration in the drinking water samples were in the range from a limit which is 0.05 mg/L. Aluminum concentration in the drinking water samples were in the range from a minimum of 0.07 mg/L from Panyam stream canal stream at Balapanur to a maximum of 0.18 mg/L from the river at Nandyal rural area. Aluminum was considerable below the limit of 0.5 mg/L permitted by WHO in drinking water. A linear regression correlation test was performed to investigate correlations between metal concentrations. The whole data were subjected to statistical analysis and correlation matrices were produced to examine the interrelationships between the investigated metal concentrations. Correlations between metal concentrations in water samples have been widely studied by a number of authors (Mohmood,*et al*, 1998 and Asubiojo, *et al*, 1997).

Table 4 : The concentration of trace metals ion in the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	Cu	Zn
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	1.25	8
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	1.76	5
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	1.98	7
Konidedu	4	Ground	1.47	12
Neravada	5	Ground	2.38	16
Kowlur	6	Ground	2.67	11
Alamur	7	Ground	2.12	19
Maddur	8	Tap Water	2.96	9
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	1.98	8
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	2.25	13

AREA vs Cu

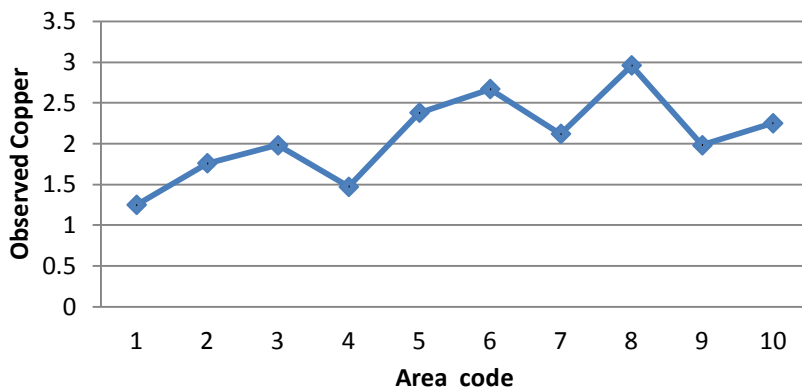


Figure: 7: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Copper

AREA vs Zn

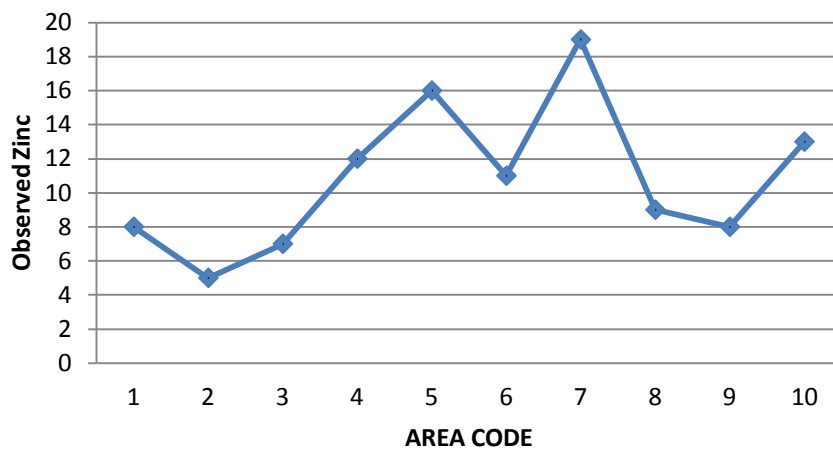


Figure: 8: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Zinc

Table 5 : The concentration of trace metals ion in the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	Mn	Fe
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	0.042	0.08
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	0.054	0.12
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	0.23	0.25
Konidedu	4	Ground	0.058	0.76
Neravada	5	Ground	0.63	0.68
Kowlur	6	Ground	0.08	0.94
Alamur	7	Ground	0.39	0.89
Maddur	8	Tap Water	0.066	0.27
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	0.414	0.34
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	0.313	0.48

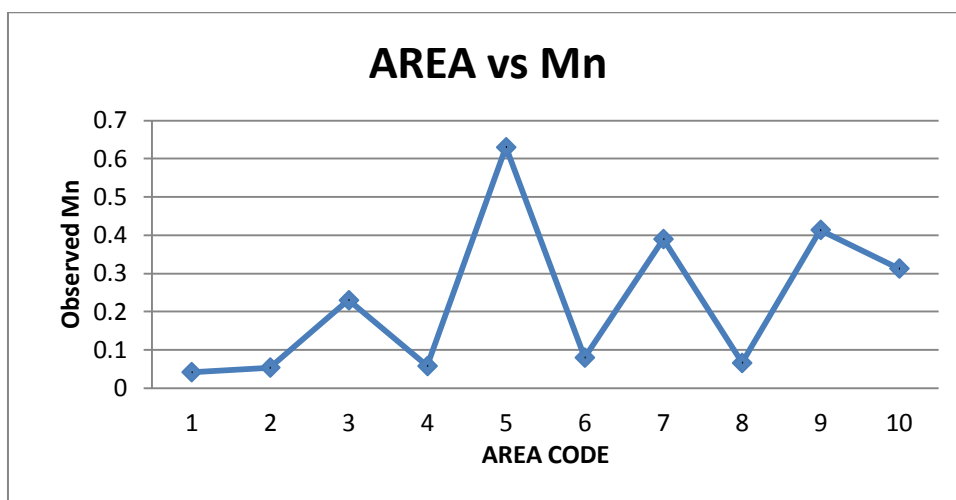


Figure 9 : Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Manganese

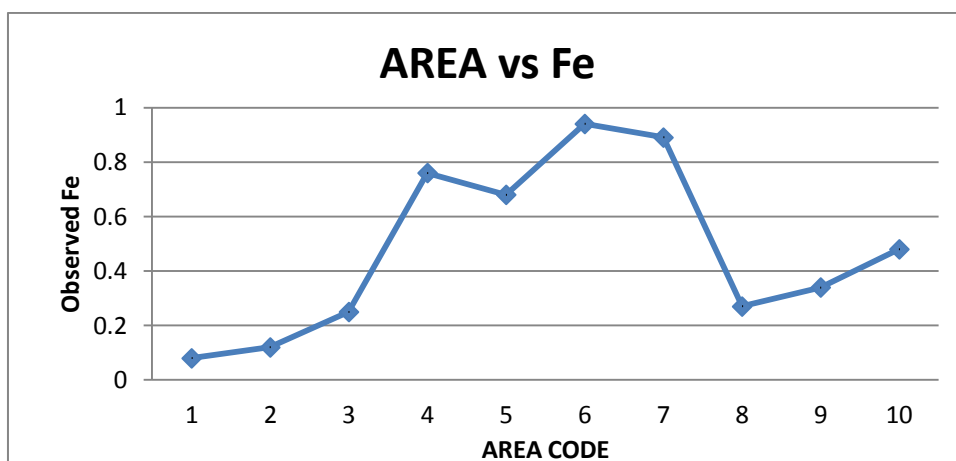


Figure 10: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Fe

Table 6 : The concentration of trace metals ion in the drinking water samples

Sampling site	Sample site code	Water Type	Al
Panyam Rural area	1	Surface	0.10
Panyam Stream	2	Surface	0.07
Panyam Lake	3	Surface	0.09
Konidedu	4	Ground	0.08
Neravada	5	Ground	0.11
Kowlur	6	Ground	0.15
Alamur	7	Ground	0.14
Maddur	8	Tap Water	0.12
Odiguntla	9	Tap Water	0.16
Balapanur	10	Tap Water	0.18

AREA vs AI

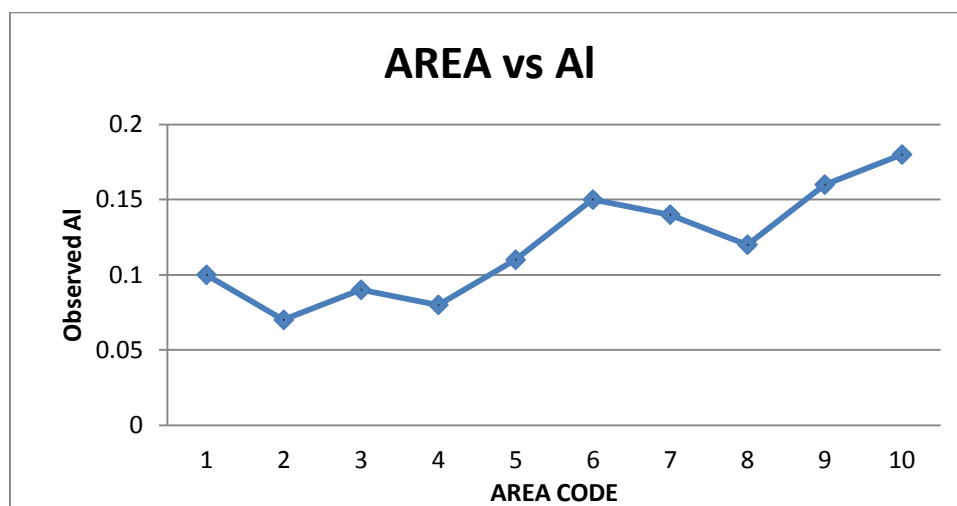


Figure: 11: Graphical representation between Area Vs Observed Aluminium

IV. DISCUSSION AND COLCLUSION

In conclusion, the concentrations of the investigated major ions and trace metal ions in the drinking water samples from these communities in the Nandyal region, Iddia were found below the guidelines for drinking waters given by the World Health Organization (WHO). Further research on other communities in this region for drinking water analyses is required as levels of contaminants may vary due to different soil types, water chemistry and different human activities. No correlations were found between metal concentrations in the drinking water samples.

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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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