

1 **Comments on “Effect of groundwater iron and phosphate on the efficacy of arsenic**  
2 **removal by iron-amended BioSand Filters”**

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8 In a recent study, Chiew et al. (1) reported on the performance of Kanchan arsenic filter  
9 (KAF) for arsenic and pathogen removal in rural Cambodia. As-contaminated groundwater  
10 sources were spiked with lab cultured E. coli and MS2 and filtered through KAF devices. The  
11 KAF, designed and distributed in Nepal by Ngai et al. (2), is rigorously a conventional  
12 BioSand filter (BSF) amended with a Fe-oxide-producing unit for arsenic removal ( $\text{Fe}^0$  unit).  
13 The results of Chiew et al. (1) partly revealed no significant difference between the KAF and  
14 the BSF as shown by a reference system without  $\text{Fe}^0$  unit. Therefore, the discussion on KAF  
15 efficiency based on Fe/P ratio is surprising for two reasons: (i) iron can not be expected to  
16 quantitatively dissolve at  $\text{pH} > 5$  (3), and (ii) Fe-oxides are a well known  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ -removing  
17 agent (4).

18 Upon proper designing, KAF should combine pathogen removal in the BSF and arsenic  
19 removal in the  $\text{Fe}^0$  unit (2). Furthermore, beside As, nitrate and pathogen should also be  
20 removed or inactivated in the  $\text{Fe}^0$  unit (5). The reported results contradict this theoretical  
21 prediction and the results achieved in Nepal (2). This discrepancy suggests the existence of  
22 experimental biases. A possible bias consisted in flushing influent water for 10 min. During  
23 this time, interactions of  $\text{O}_2$  (air) and dissolved  $\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}$  species may have afforded precipitation of  
24 iron hydroxides, possibly lowering the As concentration of the influent. In addition,  
25 introducing colloidal iron hydroxides in the  $\text{Fe}^0$  unit could impair  $\text{Fe}^0$  reactivity by covering  
26 its surface or filling the pore space. The conclusions of Chiew et al. (1) support the view of

27 Schmidt and Cairncross (6) that widespread promotion of household water treatment is  
28 premature.

29 On the other hand, the argument that added  $\text{Fe}^0$  (5 kg) were inefficient due to insufficient  
30 contact time with the water is not acceptable. In fact, only 1980 litres of water was filtered  
31 during the whole experiment (22 weeks). This volume corresponds at the most to 737 g As,  
32 yielding a molar ratio  $\text{Fe}/\text{As} \geq 8,364$ . Therefore, submerging the  $\text{Fe}^0$  bed could enable a better  
33 As removal efficiency provided the used material is of adequate reactivity. Accordingly, even  
34 though Chiew et al. (1) have not exactly reproduced the original KAF design (2), the reported  
35 discrepancy in As removal may be mostly attributed to the difference in the intrinsic reactivity  
36 of used iron nails ( $\text{Fe}^0$ ).

37 Despite large variability in microbial and chemical contaminant levels, natural waters used as  
38 drinking water could be regarded as low-level contaminated waters. In fact, contaminant  
39 concentrations are larger than accepted drinking water standards but still relatively low (here,  
40  $[\text{As}]_0 \leq 372 \mu\text{g/L}$ ). Dissolved species will certainly interact with forming and transforming  
41 iron oxides and will be removed from the aqueous solution by several mechanisms including;  
42 adsorption and co-precipitation (5). This conclusion, based on the state-of-art knowledge on  
43 contaminant removal in  $\text{Fe}^0/\text{H}_2\text{O}$  systems, shows that a well-designed iron filter can properly  
44 produce safe drinking water. The unique challenge is to find out efficient ways to characterize  
45  $\text{Fe}^0$  reactivity and proper selected material for domestic use.

46 The ability of  $\text{Fe}^0$  filters to produce safe drinking water has been already demonstrated in the  
47 framework of SONO filter development towards 3-Kolshi filters (7). In fact, the 3-Kolshi  
48 filters containing only 3 kg  $\text{Fe}^0$  were very efficient for arsenic removal but were abandoned  
49 because of rapid decrease of water flow rate (porosity loss). Because the porosity loss of the  
50 filter is due to the expansive nature of corrosion products formation, the 100 %  $\text{Fe}^0$  bed can be  
51 replaced by a bed containing an optimal proportion of  $\text{Fe}^0$  for efficient contaminant removal  
52 and an inert material as filling material. The theoretical ratio between the volume of corrosion

53 products and the volume of iron consumed during the corrosion process varies between 2.0  
54 for  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  and 6.40 for  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (8). Lowering the proportion of  $\text{Fe}^0$  in the filter will  
55 certainly extend its service life.  $\text{Fe}^0$  can be mixed with sand, gravel or pumice.

56 In conclusion the reported failure of KAF in Cambodia is mainly due to the paucity of  
57 scientific understanding of the complex chemical and physical processes involved in the  
58 process of aqueous contaminant removal by  $\text{Fe}^0$ . It is expected that immersing the  $\text{Fe}^0$  unit  
59 will increase the KAF treatment efficiency. However, the universal use of KAF filters  
60 depends on the ability of researchers to develop reliable strategies to accurately test the long-  
61 term reactivity of  $\text{Fe}^0$  material for these devices.

## 62 **References**

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