5. POTASSIUM PERMANGANATE

Potassium permanganate (KMnO₄) is used primarily to control taste and odors, remove color, control biological growth in treatment plants, and remove iron and manganese. In a secondary role, potassium permanganate may be useful in controlling the formation of THMs and other DBPs by oxidizing precursors and reducing the demand for other disinfectants (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). The mechanism of reduced DBPs may be as simple as moving the point of chlorine application further downstream in the treatment train using potassium permanganate to control taste and odors, color, algae, etc. instead of chlorine. Although potassium permanganate has many potential uses as an oxidant, it is a poor disinfectant.

5.1 Potassium Permanganate Chemistry

5.1.1 Oxidation Potential

Potassium permanganate is highly reactive under conditions found in the water industry. It will oxidize a wide variety of inorganic and organic substances. Potassium permanganate (Mn 7+) is reduced to manganese dioxide (MnO₂) (Mn 4+) which precipitates out of solution (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). All reactions are exothermic. Under acidic conditions the oxidation half-reactions are (CRC, 1990):

\[
\begin{align*}
MnO_4^- + 4H^+ + 3e^- & \rightarrow MnO_2 + 2H_2O \quad E^\circ = 1.68V \\
MnO_4^- + 8H^+ + 5e^- & \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + 4H_2O \quad E^\circ = 1.51V
\end{align*}
\]

Under alkaline conditions, the half-reaction is (CRC, 1990):

\[
MnO_4^- + 2H_2O + 3e^- \rightarrow MnO_2 + 4OH^- \quad E^\circ = 0.60V
\]

Reaction rates for the oxidation of constituents found in natural waters are relatively fast and depend on temperature, pH, and dosage.

5.1.2 Ability To Form a Residual

It is not desirable to maintain a residual of KMnO₄ because of its tendency to give water a pink color.

5.2 Generation

Potassium permanganate is only supplied in dry form. A concentrated KMnO₄ solution (typically 1 to 4 percent) is generated on-site for water treatment applications; the solution is pink or purple in color. KMnO₄ has a bulk density of approximately 100 lb/ft³ and its solubility in water is 6.4 g/mL at 20°C.
Depending on the amount of permanganate required, these solutions can be made up in batch modes, using dissolver/storage tanks with mixers and a metering pump for small feed systems. Larger systems will include a dry chemical feeder, storage hopper and dust collector configured to automatically supply permanganate to the solution dissolver/storage tank.

$\text{KMnO}_4$ solution is made up of dry crystalline permanganate solids added to make-up water and then stirred to obtain the desired permanganate concentration. The cost of $\text{KMnO}_4$ ranges from $1.50$ to $2.00$ per pound (1997 costs), depending on the quantity ordered. Shipment containers are typically buckets or drums. Potassium permanganate is supplied in various grades. Pure $\text{KMnO}_4$ is non-hygroscopic but technical grades will absorb some moisture and will have a tendency to cake together. For systems using dry chemical feeders, a free-flowing grade is available that contains anti-caking additives (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992).

Potassium permanganate is a strong oxidizer and should be carefully handled when preparing the feed solution. No byproducts are generated from making the solution. However, this dark purple/black crystalline solid can cause serious eye injury, is a skin and inhalation irritant, and can be fatal if swallowed. As such, special handling procedures include the use of safety goggles and a face shield, an MSA™/NIOSH approved dust mask, and wearing impervious gloves, coveralls, and boots to minimize skin contact.

### 5.3 Primary Uses and Points of Application

Although potassium permanganate can inactivate various bacteria and viruses, it is not used as a primary or secondary disinfectant when applied at commonly used treatment levels. Potassium permanganate levels that may be required to obtain primary or secondary disinfection could be cost prohibitive. However, potassium permanganate is used in drinking water treatment to achieve a variety of other purposes including:

- Oxidation of iron and manganese;
- Oxidation of taste and odor compound;
- Control of nuisance organisms; and
- Control of DBP formation.

#### 5.3.1 Primary Uses

##### 5.3.1.1 Iron and Manganese Oxidation

A primary use of permanganate is iron and manganese removal. Permanganate will oxidize iron and manganese to convert ferrous (2+) iron into the ferric (3+) state and 2+ manganese to the 4+ state. The oxidized forms will precipitate as ferric hydroxide and manganese hydroxide (AWWA, 1991). The precise chemical composition of the precipitate will depend on the nature of the water, temperature, and pH.
The classic reactions for the oxidation of iron and manganese are:

\[
3\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{KMnO}_4 + 7\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 3\text{Fe(OH)}_3(s) + \text{MnO}_2(s) + K^+ + 5\text{H}^+
\]

\[
3\text{Mn}^{2+} + 2\text{KMnO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 5\text{MnO}_2(s) + 2K^+ + 4\text{H}^+
\]

These reactions show that alkalinity is consumed through acid production at the rate of 1.49 mg/L as CaCO$_3$ per mg/L of Fe$^{2+}$ and 1.21 mg/L as CaCO$_3$ per mg/L of Mn$^{2+}$ oxidized. This consumption of alkalinity should be considered when permanganate treatment is used along with alum coagulation, which also requires alkalinity to form precipitates.

The potassium permanganate dose required for oxidation is 0.94 mg/mg iron and 1.92 mg/mg manganese (Culp/Wesner/Culp, 1986). In practice, the actual amount of potassium permanganate used has been found to be less than that indicated by stoichiometry. It is thought that this is because of the catalytic influence of MnO$_2$ on the reactions (O’Connell, 1978). The oxidation time ranges from 5 to 10 minutes, provided that the pH is over 7.0 (Kawamura, 1991).

### 5.3.1.2 Oxidation of Taste and Odor Compounds

Potassium permanganate is used to remove taste and odor causing compounds. Lalezary et al. (1986) used permanganate to treat earthy-musty smelling compounds in drinking water. Doses of potassium permanganate used to treat taste and odor causing compounds range from 0.25 to 20 mg/L.

### 5.3.1.3 Control of Nuisance Organisms

**Asiatic Clams**

Cameron et al. (1989) investigated the effectiveness of potassium permanganate to control the Asiatic clam in both the juvenile and adult phases. The adult Asiatic clam was found to be much more resistant to permanganate than the juvenile form. Potassium permanganate doses used to control the juvenile Asiatic clam range from 1.1 to 4.8 mg/L.

**Zebra Mussels**

Klerks and Fraleigh (1991) evaluated the effectiveness of permanganate against adult zebra mussels. Continuous potassium permanganate dosing of 0.5 to 2.5 mg/L proved to be the most effective.

### 5.3.1.4 DBP Control

It is anticipated that potassium permanganate may play a role in disinfection and DBP control strategies in water treatment. Potassium permanganate could be used to oxidize organic precursors at the head of the treatment plant minimizing the formation of byproducts at the downstream disinfection stage of the plant (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). Test results from a study conducted at two water treatment plants in North Carolina (Section 5.5.1) showed that pretreatment with permanganate reduced chloroform formation; however, the reduction was small at doses typically used at water...
treatment plants. The study also indicated that pre-oxidation with permanganate had no net effect on the chlorine demand of the water (Singer et al., 1980).

### 5.3.2 Points of Application

In conventional treatment plants, potassium permanganate solution is added to the raw water intake, at the rapid mix tank in conjunction with coagulants, or at clarifiers upstream of filters. In direct filtration plants, this oxidant is typically added at the raw water intake to increase the contact time upstream of the filter units (Montgomery, 1985). In all cases, potassium permanganate is added prior to filtration.

Potassium permanganate solution is typically pumped from the concentrated solution tank to the injection point. If the injection point is a pipeline, a standard injection nozzle protruding midway into the pipe section is used. Injection nozzles can also be used to supply the solution to mixing chambers and clarifiers. Permanganate is a reactive, fast-acting oxidizer and does not require special mixing equipment at the point of injection to be effective.

#### 5.3.2.1 Impact on Other Treatment Processes

The use of potassium permanganate has little impact on other treatment processes at the water treatment facility. See Section 5.7 for permanganate operational considerations.

### 5.4 Pathogen Inactivation and Disinfection Efficacy

Potassium permanganate is an oxidizing agent widely used throughout the water industry. While it is not considered a primary disinfectant, potassium permanganate has an effect on the development of a disinfection strategy by serving as an alternative to pre-chlorination or other oxidants at locations in a treatment plant where chemical oxidation is desired for control of color, taste and odor, and algae.

#### 5.4.1 Inactivation Mechanisms

The primary mode of pathogen inactivation by potassium permanganate is direct oxidation of cell material or specific enzyme destruction (Webber and Posselt, 1972). In the same fashion, the permanganate ion ($\text{MnO}_4^-$) attacks a wide range of microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, viruses, and algae.

Application of potassium permanganate results in the precipitation of manganese dioxide. This mechanism represents an additional method for the removal of microorganisms from potable water (Cleasby et al., 1964). In colloidal form, the manganese dioxide precipitant has an outer layer of exposed OH groups. These groups are capable of adsorbing charged species and particles in addition to neutral molecules (Posselt et al., 1967). As the precipitant is formed, microorganisms can be adsorbed into the colloids and settled.
5.4.2 Environmental Effects

Inactivation efficiency depends upon the permanganate concentration, contact time, temperature, pH, and presence of other oxidizable material. Several of the key parameters are discussed below.

5.4.2.1 pH

Alkaline conditions enhance the capability of potassium permanganate to oxidize organic matter; however, the opposite is true for its disinfecting power. Typically, potassium permanganate is a better biocide under acidic conditions than under alkaline conditions (Cleasby et al., 1964 and Wagner, 1951). Results from a study conducted in 1964 indicated that permanganate generally was a more effective biocide for E. coli at lower pHs, exhibiting more than a 2-log removal at a pH of 5.9 and a water temperature of both 0 and 20°C (Cleasby et al., 1964). In fact, Cleasby found that pH is the major factor affecting disinfection effectiveness with potassium permanganate. As such, natural waters with pH values of 5.9 or less would be conducive to potassium permanganate disinfection, particularly as a substitute for prechlorination. Moreover a study conducted at the University of Arizona found that potassium permanganate will inactivate *Legionella pneumophila* more rapidly at pH 6.0 than at pH 8.0 (Yahya et al., 1990a).

These results are consistent with earlier results concerning the effects of pH on commercial antiseptic performance (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). In general, based on the limited results from these studies, disinfection effectiveness of potassium permanganate increases with decreasing pH.

5.4.2.2 Temperature

Higher temperatures slightly enhance bactericidal action of potassium permanganate. The results from a study conducted on polio virus showed that oxidation deactivation is enhanced by higher temperatures (Lund, 1963). These results are consistent with results obtained for *E. coli* inactivation (Cleasby et al., 1964).

5.4.2.3 Dissolved Organics and Inorganics

The presence of oxidizable organics or inorganics in the water reduces the disinfection effectiveness of this disinfectant because some of the applied potassium permanganate will be consumed in the oxidation of organics and inorganics. Permanganate oxidizes a wide variety of inorganic and organic substances in the pH range of 4 to 9. Under typical water conditions, iron and manganese are oxidized and precipitated and most contaminants that cause odors and tastes, such as phenols and algae, are readily degraded by permanganate (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992).

5.4.3 Use as a Disinfectant

A number of investigations have been performed to determine the relative capability of potassium permanganate as a disinfectant. The following sections contain a description of the disinfection efficiency of potassium permanganate in regards to bacteria, virus, and protozoa inactivation.
5.4.3.1 Bacteria Inactivation

High dosage rates were required to accomplish complete inactivation of bacteria in three studies. Early research showed that a dose of 2.5 mg/L was required for complete inactivation of coliform bacteria (Le Strat, 1944). In this study, water from the Marne River was dosed with potassium permanganate at concentrations of 0 to 2.5 mg/L. Following mixing, the samples were placed in a darkened room for 2 hours at a constant temperature of 19.8°C.

Banerjea (1950) investigated the disinfectant ability of potassium permanganate on several waterborne pathogenic microorganisms. The investigation studied Vibrio cholerae, Salm. typhi, and Bact. flexneri. The results indicated that doses of 20 mg/L and contact times of 24 hours were necessary to deactivate these pathogens; however, even under these conditions the complete absence of Salm. typhi or Bact. flexneri was not assured, even at a potassium permanganate concentration that turned the water an objectionable pink color.

Results from a study conducted in 1976 at the Las Vegas Valley Water District/Southern Nevada System of Lake Mead water showed that complete removal of coliform bacteria were accomplished at doses of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 mg/L (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). Contact times of 30 minutes were provided with doses of 1 and 2 mg/L, and 10 minutes contact times were provided for higher dosages in this study.

5.4.3.2 Virus Inactivation

Potassium permanganate has been proven effective against certain viruses. A dose of 50 mg/L of potassium permanganate and a contact time of 2 hours was required for inactivation of poliovirus (strain MVA) (Hazen and Sawyer, 1992). A “potassium” permanganate dose of 5.0 mg/L and a contact time of 33 minutes was needed for 1-log inactivation of type 1 poliovirus (Yahya et al., 1990b). Tests showed a significantly higher inactivation rate at 23°C than at 7°C; however, there was no significant difference in activation rates at pH 6.0 and pH 8.0.

Potassium permanganate doses from 0.5 to 5 mg/L were capable of obtaining at least a 2 log inactivation of the surrogate virus, MS-2 bacteriophage with E. coli as the host bacterium (Yahya et al., 1989). Results showed that at pH 6.0 and 8.0, a 2-log inactivation occurred after a contact time of at least 52 minutes and a residual of 0.5 mg/L. At a residual of 5.0 mg/L, approximately 7 and 13 minutes were required for 2-log inactivation at pHs of 8.0 and 6.0, respectively. These results contradict the previously cited studies that potassium permanganate becomes more effective as the pH decreases.

5.4.3.3 Protozoa Inactivation

No information pertaining to protozoa inactivation by potassium permanganate is available in the literature. However, based on the other disinfectants discussed in this report, protozoa are significantly more resistant than viruses; therefore, it is likely that the dosages and contact times required for protozoa inactivation would be impractical.
5.4.3.4 **CT Curves**

Table 5-1 shows CT values for the inactivation of bacteriophage MS-2. These data have been provided as an indication of the potential of potassium permanganate. These values are somewhat inconsistent and do not include a safety factor and should not be used to establish CT requirements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residual (mg/L)</th>
<th>pH 6.0</th>
<th>pH 8.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>27.4 (a)</td>
<td>26.1 (a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>32.0 (a)</td>
<td>50.9 (b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>53.5 (c)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>63.8 (a)</td>
<td>35.5 (c)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: 1 Letters indicate different experimental conditions.

A 1990 study investigated CT values for *Legionella pneumophila* inactivation. CT values for 99 percent (2-log) inactivation of *Legionella pneumophila* at pH 6.0 were determined to be 42.7 mg min/L at a dose of 1.0 mg/L (contact time 42.7 minutes) and 41.0 mg min/L at a dose of 5.0 mg/L (contact time 8.2 minutes) (Yahya et al., 1990a).

### 5.5 Disinfection Byproduct Formation

No literature is available that specifically addressed DBPs when using potassium permanganate. However, several studies have been conducted with water treatment plants that have replaced the pre-chlorination process with potassium permanganate and relocated the point of chlorine addition for post-treatment disinfection. Pretreatment with permanganate in combination with post-treatment chlorination will typically result in lower DBP concentrations than would otherwise occur from traditional pre-chlorination (Ficek and Boll, 1980; and Singer et al., 1980). Under this approach, potassium permanganate serves as a substitute for chlorine to achieve oxidation and may also reduce the concentration of natural organic matter (NOM). However, systems should evaluate the impact on CT values before moving the point of chlorination. The following subsections summarize the outcomes of two studies.

#### 5.5.1 Chapel-Hill and Durham, North Carolina Water Treatment Plants

An investigation was conducted at the Chapel-Hill and Durham Water Treatment Plants to evaluate the effects of potassium permanganate pretreatment on trihalomethane formation (Singer et al., 1980). The Chapel-Hill Water Treatment Plant uses pre-chlorination prior to the rapid mix tank. At the Durham Water Treatment Plant, chlorine is not added until after the sedimentation basin prior to the filtration. Both are surface water treatment plants, treating water with low concentrations of...
5. **Potassium Permanganate**

alkalinity. Both sources of water are known to have high trihalomethane formation potentials (Young and Singer, 1979).

Raw water samples taken from Chapel-Hill were found to contain relatively high turbidities, ranging from 46 to 110 NTU and total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations ranging from 5.6 to 8.9 mg/L. The Durham samples were coagulated then allowed to settle, which resulted in better water quality than the Chapel-Hill samples. Following settling, this sample had a turbidity of 6.4 NTU and a TOC of 2.9 mg/L. Sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide were used to adjust the sample pH to either 6.5 or 10.3. These pH values were selected because they encompass the pH range typically found in surface water coagulation-filtration and lime-softening treatment plants.

Potassium permanganate doses of 2 and 5 mg/L were found to be totally consumed within 1 and 4 hours, respectively, by the Chapel-Hill samples. At doses of 2 and 5 mg/L, the potassium permanganate demand of the Durham samples after 4 hours were approximately 1.3 and 1.8 mg/L, respectively.

This difference in permanganate demands between the Chapel-Hill and Durham samples may be attributed to the water quality of the samples, in particular the TOC concentrations. TOC measurements before and after the application of permanganate were approximately equal; however, it is likely that the TOC after disinfection was at a higher oxidation state. Results of this study also showed that permanganate is more reactive as an oxidant at higher pH values.

Despite the high degree of permanganate consumption, the reaction of permanganate appears to have relatively little effect on chlorine demands. For example, consumption of 6 mg/L of permanganate resulted in a chlorine demand reduction of approximately 1 mg/L. This observation suggests that permanganate reacts with water impurities in a different manner, or at different sites, than chlorine. One other possible explanation is that permanganate oxidizes certain organic substances, thereby eliminating their chlorine demand and only partially oxidizing other organic substances making them more reactive to chlorine.

Both the Chapel-Hill and Durham samples were tested for their chloroform formation potential. This measurement is based on the amount of chloroform produced after seven days. The potential of the Durham sample was reduced by 30 and 40 percent at pH 6.5 and 10.3, respectively, as a result of the application of 10 mg/L of potassium permanganate for a period of 2 hours. Similar results were obtained for the Chapel-Hill samples; however, the results at pH 6.5 did not show a reduction in chloroform formation potential at low doses.

Two experiments were conducted on Chapel-Hill raw water to further explore the effects of low doses of permanganate. The results indicated that permanganate has no effect on chloroform production at doses up to 1 mg/L. At higher doses, chloroform formation potentials were reduced.

In summary, the key results obtained from the studies conducted at the Chapel-Hill and Durham Water treatment plants were:
• The reactivity of permanganate is a function of pH, permanganate dose, and raw water quality.

• Permanganate reduces chloroform formation potentials. The reduction in the chloroform formation potential is proportional to the amount of permanganate available after the initial demand is overcome. Doses up to 1 mg/L were found to have no effect on chloroform formation potentials.

• At pretreatment doses typically employed at water treatment plants, the effect of permanganate on the overall chloroform production is relatively small. If permanganate is to be used specifically to reduce trihalomethane formation, larger doses will be required. However, one advantage for using permanganate for pretreatment is that the point of application of chlorine can be shifted downstream of the sedimentation basins. This is likely to result in fewer trihalomethane compounds.

5.5.2 American Water Works Association Research Foundation TTHM Study

Another investigation examined the impacts of potassium permanganate addition on byproduct formation at four water treatment plants (Ficek and Boll, 1980). All were conventional plants using pre-chlorination in the treatment process. Plant design capacities ranged from 4.5 to 15 mgd. Process modifications were made at each plant to replace the pre-chlorination facilities with oxidation facilities for potassium permanganate addition. After the modifications were complete, an AWWARF research team conducted a study to determine the impact of potassium permanganate addition on total trihalomethane (TTHM) concentrations (George et al., 1990).

Prior to switching from pre-chlorination to pre-oxidation with potassium permanganate, average daily TTHM concentrations at all four plants were between 79 and 99 µg/L. The average TTHM concentration for all four plants was 92 µg/L. Following the conversion to potassium permanganate, three of the four plants experienced greater than 30 percent reduction in TTHM concentrations. In addition to TTHM reduction, potassium permanganate was found to oxidize taste and odor causing compounds, iron and manganese, organic and inorganic matter, and reduce algal growth. Results from the study also showed that the simultaneous application of potassium permanganate and chlorine can increase THM formation.

5.6 Status of Analytical Methods

The atomic adsorption spectrophotometry method for the measurement of manganese is the preferred method for measuring permanganate concentrations. Two colorimetric methods, persulfate and periodate are also available (Standard Methods, 1995).

5.7 Operational Considerations

In utilizing potassium permanganate in water treatment, caution should be taken to prevent overdosing, in which case, excess manganese will pass through the treatment plant. Proper dosing
5. Potassium Permanganate

should be maintained to ensure that all of the permanganate is reduced (i.e., forming MnO$_2$ solids) and removed from the plant upstream of, or within, the filters. If residual manganese is reduced downstream of the filters, the resulting solids can turn the finished water a brown/black color and precipitate in the homes of consumers on heat exchange surfaces such as hot water heaters and dishwashers.

Use of potassium permanganate can also be a source of manganese in the finished water, which is regulated in drinking water with a secondary maximum contaminant level of 0.05 mg/L. Under reducing conditions, the MnO$_2$ solids accumulated in filter backwash water and settling basins can be reduced to soluble Mn$^{2+}$ and pass through the filters thereby remaining in the finished water.

Also, under these conditions, soluble Mn$^{2+}$ in return water from settling basin dewatering facilities and filter backwash water recycled to the head of the plant are potential sources of manganese that will have to be treated and/or controlled to minimize finished water manganese levels (Singer, 1991).

Overdosing of permanganate in conventional plants is generally corrected by settling the excess MnO$_2$ solids in the settling basin. Removal of the excess permanganate can be monitored qualitatively by observing the disappearance of the pink color characteristic of permanganate. In plants that do not utilize flocculation and sedimentation processes permanganate dosing should be closely monitored (Montgomery, 1985).

In general, potassium permanganate does not interfere with other treatment processes or plant conditions. Permanganate can be added downstream of, or concurrently with, coagulant and filter polymer aids. Powdered activated carbon (PAC) and permanganate should not be added concurrently. PAC should be added downstream of permanganate because it may consume permanganate, rendering it unavailable for the oxidation of target organics. (Montgomery, 1985).

The space requirements for permanganate feed equipment vary depending on the type and size of feed system. Dry feed systems require about half the floor area of batch systems because batch systems typically have two dissolving tanks for redundancy. However, the head space requirements are greater for dry feed systems where the storage hopper and dust collector are stacked on top of the dry feeder (Kawamura, 1991). On-site storage of potassium permanganate also warrants some consideration. Per OSHA requirements, oxidants such as permanganate should be stored separate from organic chemicals such as polymers and activated carbon.

5.8 Summary

5.8.1 Advantages and Disadvantages of Potassium Permanganate Use

The following list highlights selected advantages and disadvantages of using potassium permanganate as a disinfection method for drinking water. Because of the wide variation of system
size, water quality, and dosages applied, some of these advantages and disadvantages may not apply to a particular system.

**Advantages**

- Potassium permanganate oxidizes iron and manganese.
- Potassium permanganate oxidizes odor and taste-causing compounds.
- Potassium permanganate is easy to transport, store, and apply.
- Potassium permanganate is useful in controlling the formation of THMs and other DBPs.
- Potassium permanganate controls nuisance organisms.
- The use of potassium permanganate has little impact on other treatment processes at the water treatment facility.
- Potassium permanganate has been proven effective against certain viruses.

**Disadvantages**

- Long contact time is required.
- Potassium permanganate has a tendency to give water a pink color.
- Potassium permanganate is toxic and irritating to skin and mucous membranes.
- No byproducts are generated when preparing the feed solution, however this dark purple/black crystalline solid can cause serious eye injury, is a skin and inhalation irritant, and can be fatal if swallowed. Over-dosing is dangerous and may cause health problems such as chemical jaundice and drop in blood pressure.

**5.8.2 Summary Table**

More research is needed regarding the disinfection properties and oxidation byproducts of permanganate in water treatment. Also, a CT credit needs to be assigned to permanganate if it is to be utilized as a disinfectant. However, given that alternative oxidants, such as ozone and chlorine dioxide, demonstrate much greater efficacy in microbial control, permanganate is not likely to be utilized as a primary oxidant for precursor control. Table 5-2 summarizes the information presented in this chapter regarding the use of potassium permanganate in the drinking water treatment process.
### Table 5-2. Summary of Potassium Permanganate Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consideration</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generation</td>
<td>Product supplied in dry form in buckets, drums, and bulk. On-site generation of solution is required using chemical mixing and feed equipment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary uses</td>
<td>Control of odor and taste, remove color, control biological growth, and remove iron and manganese.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactivation efficiency</td>
<td>Not a good disinfectant. Can serve better as an alternative to chlorine or other disinfectants where chemical oxidation is desired.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byproduct formation</td>
<td>No literature was found that specifically addressed DBP formation from potassium permanganate oxidation. Pretreatment with permanganate in combination with post-treatment chlorination will typically result in lower DBP concentrations than would otherwise occur from traditional pre-chlorination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>Not a good disinfectant; primarily used for pretreatment to minimize chlorine usage and byproduct formation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points of application</td>
<td>Conventional Treatment: raw water addition, rapid mix tank in conjunction with coagulants, clarifiers upstream of filters. Direct Filtration: raw water intake. In all cases permanganate should be added upstream of filters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special considerations</td>
<td>Caution should be taken to prevent overdosing. More research is needed to determine disinfection properties and oxidation byproducts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 5.9 References


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Table 5-2. Summary of Potassium Permanganate Use