

Hard water

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Not to be confused with [heavy water](#).

Hard water is [water](#) that has high [mineral](#) content (in contrast with "[soft water](#)"). Hard water is formed when water [percolates](#) through deposits of [calcium](#) and [magnesium](#)-containing minerals such as [limestone](#), [chalk](#) and [dolomite](#).

Hard [drinking water](#) is generally not harmful to one's health,^[1] but can pose serious problems in industrial settings, where water hardness is monitored to avoid costly breakdowns in [boilers](#), [cooling towers](#), and other equipment that handles water. In domestic settings, hard water is often indicated by a lack of [suds](#) formation when [soap](#) is agitated in water, and by the formation of [limescale](#) in kettles and water heaters. Wherever water hardness is a concern, [water softening](#) is commonly used to reduce hard water's adverse effects.



A tub faucet with built-up calcification from hard water in Southern Arizona. 

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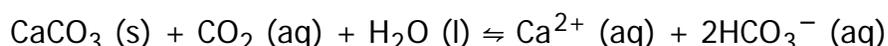
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Sources of hardness [edit]

Water's hardness is determined by the **concentration** of **multivalent cations** in the water. Multivalent cations are cations (positively charged **metal complexes**) with a charge greater than 1+. Usually, the cations have the charge of 2+. Common cations found in hard water include Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} . These ions enter a water supply by leaching from minerals within an **aquifer**. Common **calcium**-containing minerals are **calcite** and **gypsum**. A common **magnesium** mineral is **dolomite** (which also contains calcium). **Rainwater** and **distilled** water are **soft**, because they contain few **ions**.^[2]

The following **equilibrium reaction** describes the **dissolving** and formation of **calcium carbonate** :



The reaction can go in either direction. Rain containing dissolved carbon dioxide can react with calcium carbonate and carry calcium ions away with it. The calcium carbonate may be re-deposited as calcite as the carbon dioxide is lost to atmosphere, sometimes forming **stalactites** and **stalagmites**.

Calcium and magnesium ions can sometimes be removed by water softeners.^[3]

Temporary hardness [edit]

See also: **Carbonate hardness**

Temporary hardness is a type of water hardness caused by the presence of **dissolved bicarbonate minerals** (**calcium bicarbonate** and **magnesium bicarbonate**). When dissolved these minerals yield calcium and magnesium **cations** (Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+}) and carbonate and **bicarbonate anions** (CO_3^{2-} , HCO_3^-). The presence of the metal cations makes the water hard. However, unlike the **permanent hardness** caused by **sulfate** and **chloride compounds**, this "temporary" hardness can be reduced either by boiling the water, or by the addition of **lime** (**calcium hydroxide**) through the softening process of **lime softening**.^[4] Boiling promotes the formation of carbonate from the bicarbonate and precipitates calcium carbonate out of solution, leaving water that is softer upon cooling.

Permanent hardness [edit]

Permanent hardness is hardness (mineral content) that cannot be removed by **boiling**. When this is the case, it is usually caused by the presence of **calcium sulfate** and/or **magnesium sulfates** in the water, which do not precipitate out as the **temperature** increases. Ions causing permanent hardness of water can be removed using a water softener, or **ion exchange column**.

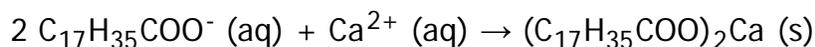
Total Permanent Hardness = Calcium Hardness + Magnesium Hardness

The calcium and magnesium hardness is the concentration of calcium and magnesium ions expressed as equivalent of calcium carbonate.

Total permanent water hardness expressed as equivalent of CaCO_3 can be calculated with the following formula: Total Permanent Hardness (CaCO_3) = $2.5(\text{Ca}^{2+}) + 4.1(\text{Mg}^{2+})$.^[*citation needed*]

Effects of hard water ^[*edit*]

With hard water, soap solutions form a white precipitate (**soap scum**) instead of producing **lather**, because the 2+ ions destroy the **surfactant** properties of the soap by forming a solid precipitate (the soap scum). A major component of such scum is **calcium stearate**, which arises from **sodium stearate**, the main component of **soap**:



Hardness can thus be defined as the soap-consuming capacity of a water sample, or the capacity of precipitation of soap as a characteristic property of water that prevents the lathering of soap. Synthetic **detergents** do not form such scums.

Hard water also forms deposits that clog plumbing. These deposits, called "**scale**", are composed mainly of **calcium carbonate** (CaCO_3), **magnesium hydroxide** ($\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$), and **calcium sulfate** (CaSO_4).^[2] Calcium and magnesium carbonates tend to be deposited as off-white solids on the inside surfaces of pipes and **heat exchangers**. This precipitation (formation of an insoluble solid) is principally caused by thermal decomposition of bicarbonate ions but also happens in cases where the carbonate ion is at saturation concentration.^[5] The resulting build-up of scale restricts the flow of water in pipes. In boilers, the deposits impair the flow of heat into water, reducing the heating efficiency and allowing the metal boiler components to overheat. In a pressurized system, this overheating can lead to failure of the boiler.^[6] The damage caused by calcium carbonate deposits varies on the crystalline form, for example, **calcite** or **aragonite**.^[7]



A portion of the ancient Roman **Eifel aqueduct** in Germany. In service for about 180 years, a deposit of scale up to 20cm thick built up within it.

The presence of **ions** in an **electrolyte**, in this case, hard water, can also lead to **galvanic corrosion**, in which one metal will preferentially **corrode** when in contact with another type of metal, when both are in contact with an electrolyte. The softening of hard water by ion exchange does not increase its **corrosivity** *per se*. Similarly, where lead plumbing is in use, softened water does not substantially increase **plumbo**-solvency.^[8]

In swimming pools, hard water is manifested by a **turbid**, or cloudy (milky), appearance to the water. Calcium and magnesium hydroxides are both soluble in water. The solubility of the hydroxides of the alkaline-earth metals to which calcium and magnesium belong (**group 2 of the periodic table**) increases moving down the column. Aqueous solutions of these metal hydroxides absorb carbon dioxide from the air, forming the insoluble carbonates, giving rise to the turbidity.

This often results from the pH being excessively high (pH > 7.6). Hence, a common solution to the problem is, while maintaining the chlorine concentration at the proper level, to lower the pH by the addition of hydrochloric acid, the optimum value being in the range of 7.2 to 7.6.

Softening [edit]

Main article: [water softening](#)

It is often desirable to soften hard water. Most detergents contain ingredients that counteract the effects of hard water on the surfactants. For this reason, water softening is often unnecessary. Where softening is practised, it is often recommended to soften only^[*why?*] the water sent to domestic hot water systems so as to prevent or delay inefficiencies and damage due to scale formation in water heaters. A common method for water softening involves the use of [ion exchange resins](#), which replace ions like Ca²⁺ by twice the number of monocations such as [sodium](#) or [potassium](#) ions.

Washing soda ([sodium carbonate](#) - Na₂CO₃) is easily obtained and has long been used as a water softener for domestic laundry, in conjunction with the usual soap or detergent.

Health considerations [edit]

The [World Health Organization](#) says that "there does not appear to be any convincing evidence that water hardness causes adverse health effects in humans".^[1] In fact, the [United States National Research Council](#) has found that hard water can actually serve as a dietary supplement for calcium and magnesium.^[9]

Some studies have shown a weak [inverse relationship](#) between water hardness and [cardiovascular disease](#) in men, up to a level of 170 mg calcium carbonate per litre of water. The World Health Organization has reviewed the evidence and concluded the data was inadequate to allow for a recommendation for a level of hardness.^[1]

Recommendations have been made for the maximum and minimum levels of calcium (40–80 [ppm](#)) and magnesium (20–30 ppm) in drinking water, and a total hardness expressed as the sum of the calcium and magnesium concentrations of 2–4 mmol/L.^[10]

Other studies have shown weak correlations between cardiovascular health and water hardness.^{[11][12][13]}

Some studies correlate domestic hard water usage with increased [eczema](#) in [children](#).^{[14][15][16]}

The [Softened-Water Eczema Trial](#) (SWET), a multicenter randomized controlled trial of ion-exchange softeners for treating childhood [eczema](#), was undertaken in 2008. However, no meaningful difference in symptom relief was found between children with access to a home water softener and those without.^[17]

Measurement [edit]

Hardness can be quantified by [instrumental analysis](#). The total water hardness is the sum of the

molar concentrations of Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} , in mol/L or mmol/L units. Although water hardness usually measures only the total concentrations of calcium and magnesium (the two most prevalent **divalent** metal ions), **iron**, **aluminium**, and **manganese** can also be present at elevated levels in some locations. The presence of iron characteristically confers a brownish (**rust**-like) colour to the calcification, instead of white (the color of most of the other compounds).

Water hardness is often not expressed as a molar concentration, but rather in various units, such as degrees of general hardness (**dGH**), German degrees ($^{\circ}\text{dH}$), parts per million (ppm, mg/L, or American degrees), grains per gallon (gpg), English degrees ($^{\circ}\text{e}$, *e*, or $^{\circ}\text{Clark}$), or French degrees ($^{\circ}\text{fH}$, $^{\circ}\text{f}$ or $^{\circ}\text{F}$; lowercase *f* is used to prevent confusion with degrees **Fahrenheit**). The table below shows conversion factors between the various units.

Hardness unit conversion.

	mmol/L	ppm, mg/L	dGH, $^{\circ}\text{dH}$	gpg	$^{\circ}\text{e}$, $^{\circ}\text{Clark}$	$^{\circ}\text{fH}$
mmol/L	1	0.009991	0.1783	0.171	0.1424	0.09991
ppm, mg/L	100.1	1	17.85	17.12	14.25	10
dGH, $^{\circ}\text{dH}$	5.608	0.05603	1	0.9591	0.7986	0.5603
gpg	5.847	0.05842	1.043	1	0.8327	0.5842
$^{\circ}\text{e}$, $^{\circ}\text{Clark}$	7.022	0.07016	1.252	1.201	1	0.7016
$^{\circ}\text{fH}$	10.01	0.1	1.785	1.712	1.425	1

For example: 1 mmol/L = 100.1 ppm and 1 ppm = 0.056 dGH.

The various alternative units represent an equivalent mass of calcium oxide (CaO) or calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) that, when dissolved in a unit volume of pure water, would result in the same total molar concentration of Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} . The different conversion factors arise from the fact that equivalent masses of calcium oxide and calcium carbonates differ, and that different mass and volume units are used. The units are as follows:

- *Parts per million (ppm)* is usually defined as 1 mg/L CaCO_3 (the definition used below).^[18] It is equivalent to **mg/L** without chemical compound specified, and to **American degree**.
- *Grains per Gallon (gpg)* is defined as 1 **grain** (64.8 mg) of calcium carbonate per **U.S. gallon** (3.79 litres), or 17.118 ppm.
- a *mmol/L* is equivalent to 100.09 mg/L CaCO_3 or 40.08 mg/L Ca^{2+} .
- A *degree of General Hardness (dGH or 'German degree ($^{\circ}\text{dH}$, *deutsche Härte*)'* is defined as 10 mg/L CaO or 17.848 ppm.
- A *Clark degree ($^{\circ}\text{Clark}$) or English degrees ($^{\circ}\text{e}$ or *e*)* is defined as one **grain** (64.8 mg) of CaCO_3 per **Imperial gallon** (4.55 litres) of water, equivalent to 14.254 ppm.
- A *French degree ($^{\circ}\text{fH}$ or $^{\circ}\text{f}$)* is defined as 10 mg/L CaCO_3 , equivalent to 10 ppm.

Hard/soft classification [\[edit\]](#)

Because it is the precise mixture of minerals dissolved in the water, together with the water's **pH** and temperature, that determine the behavior of the hardness, a single-number scale does not adequately describe hardness. However, the **United States Geological Survey** uses the following

classification into hard and soft water,^[19]

Classification	hardness in mg/L	hardness in mmol/L	hardness in dGH/°dH	hardness in gpg	hardness in ppm
Soft	0–60	0–0.60	0-10.7	0-3.50	less than 60
Moderately hard	61–120	0.61–1.20	10.8-21.4	3.56-7.01	60-120
Hard	121–180	1.21–1.80	21.5–32.1	7.06-10.51	120-180
Very hard	≥ 181	≥ 1.81	≥ 32.1	≥ 10.57	> 180

Seawater is considered to be very hard due to various dissolved salts. Typically seawater's hardness is in the range of 6630 ppm. On the contrary, freshwater has hardness in the range of 15 - 375 ppm^[20]

Indices ^[edit]

Several indices are used to describe the behaviour of calcium carbonate in water, oil, or gas mixtures.^[21]

Langelier saturation index (LSI) ^[edit]

The Langelier saturation index (sometimes Langelier stability index) is a calculated number used to predict the calcium carbonate stability of water. It indicates whether the water will precipitate, dissolve, or be in equilibrium with calcium carbonate. In 1936, Wilfred Langelier developed a method for predicting the pH at which water is saturated in calcium carbonate (called p_{Hs}). The LSI is expressed as the difference between the actual system pH and the saturation pH:

$$\text{LSI} = \text{pH (measured)} - \text{pHs}$$

- For LSI > 0, water is super saturated and tends to precipitate a scale layer of CaCO₃.
- For LSI = 0, water is saturated (in equilibrium) with CaCO₃. A scale layer of CaCO₃ is neither precipitated nor dissolved.
- For LSI < 0, water is under saturated and tends to dissolve solid CaCO₃.

If the actual pH of the water is below the calculated saturation pH, the LSI is negative and the water has a very limited scaling potential. If the actual pH exceeds p_{Hs}, the LSI is positive, and being supersaturated with CaCO₃, the water has a tendency to form scale. At increasing positive index values, the scaling potential increases.

In practice, water with an LSI between -0.5 and +0.5 will not display enhanced mineral dissolving or scale forming properties. Water with an LSI below -0.5 tends to exhibit noticeably increased dissolving abilities while water with an LSI above +0.5 tends to exhibit noticeably increased scale forming properties.

It is also worth noting that the LSI is temperature sensitive. The LSI becomes more positive as the water temperature increases. This has particular implications in situations where well water is used. The temperature of the water when it first exits the well is often significantly lower than the

temperature inside the building served by the well or at the laboratory where the LSI measurement is made. This increase in temperature can cause scaling, especially in cases such as hot water heaters. Conversely, systems that reduce water temperature will have less scaling.

Water Analysis:

pH = 7.5

TDS = 320 mg/L

Calcium = 150 mg/L (or ppm) as CaCO₃

Alkalinity = 34 mg/L (or ppm) as CaCO₃

LSI Formula:

LSI = pH - p_{Hs}

p_{Hs} = (9.3 + A + B) - (C + D) where:

A = (Log₁₀[TDS] - 1)/10 = 0.15

B = -13.12 x Log₁₀(oC + 273) + 34.55 = 2.09 at 25°C and 1.09 at 82°C

C = Log₁₀[Ca₂₊ as CaCO₃] - 0.4 = 1.78

(Ca₂₊ as CaCO₃ is also called Calcium Hardness and is calculated

as=2.5(Ca₂₊))

D = Log₁₀[alkalinity as CaCO₃] = 1.53

Ryznar Stability Index (RSI) [[edit](#)]

The Ryznar stability index (RSI) uses a database of scale thickness measurements in municipal water systems to predict the effect of water chemistry.

Ryznar saturation index (RSI) was developed from empirical observations of corrosion rates and film formation in steel mains. It is defined as:

$$\text{RSI} = 2 \text{ pHs} - \text{pH (measured)}$$

- For 6,5 < RSI < 7 water is considered to be approximately at saturation equilibrium with calcium carbonate
- For RSI > 8 water is under saturated and, therefore, would tend to dissolve any existing solid CaCO₃
- For RSI < 6,5 water tends to be scale forming

Puckorius Scaling Index (PSI) [[edit](#)]

The Puckorius Scaling Index (PSI) uses slightly different parameters to quantify the relationship between the saturation state of the water and the amount of limescale deposited.

Other indices [[edit](#)]

Other indices include the Larson-Skold Index,^[22] the Stiff-Davis Index,^[23] and the Oddo-Tomson Index.^[24]

Regional information [[edit](#)]

The hardness of local water supplies depends on the source of water. Water in streams flowing over volcanic (igneous) rocks will be soft, while water from boreholes drilled into porous rock is

normally very hard.

Hard water in Australia [edit]

Analysis of water hardness in major Australian cities by the Australian Water Association shows a range from very soft (Melbourne) to very hard (Adelaide). Total Hardness levels of calcium carbonate in ppm are: **Canberra**: 40;^[25] **Melbourne**: 10–26;^[26] **Sydney**: 39.4–60.1;^[27] **Perth**: 29–226;^[28] **Brisbane**: 100;^[29] **Adelaide**: 134–148;^[30] **Hobart**: 5.8–34.4;^[31] **Darwin**: 31.^[32]

Hard water in Canada [edit]

Prairie provinces (mainly **Saskatchewan** and **Manitoba**) contain high quantities of calcium and magnesium, often as **dolomite**, which are readily soluble in the groundwater that contains high concentrations of trapped **carbon dioxide** from the last **glaciation**. In these parts of Canada, the total hardness in ppm of calcium carbonate equivalent frequently exceed 200 ppm, if groundwater is the only source of potable water. The west coast, by contrast, has unusually soft water, derived mainly from mountain lakes fed by glaciers and snowmelt.

Some typical values are: **Montreal** 116 ppm,^[33] **Calgary** 165 ppm, **Regina** 496 ppm,^[34] **Saskatoon** 160-180 ppm,^[35] **Winnipeg** 77 ppm,^[36] **Toronto** 121 ppm,^[37] **Vancouver** < 3 ppm,^[38] **Charlottetown, PEI** 140–150 ppm,^[39] **Waterloo Region** 400 ppm, **Guelph** 460 ppm.^[40]

Hard water in England and Wales [edit]

Information from the British Drinking Water Inspectorate^[47] shows that drinking water in **England** is generally considered to be 'very hard', with most areas of England, particularly east of a line between the Severn and Tees estuaries, exhibiting above 200 ppm for the calcium carbonate equivalent. Water in London, for example, is mostly obtained from the **River Thames** and **River Lea** both of which derive significant proportion of their dry weather flow from springs in limestone and chalk aquifers. **Wales**, **Devon**, **Cornwall** and parts of **North-West England** are softer water areas, and range from 0 to 200 ppm.^[48] In the **brewing** industry in England and Wales, water is often deliberately hardened with **gypsum** in the process of **Burtonisation**.

Generally water is mostly hard in urban areas of England where soft water sources are unavailable. A number of cities built water supply sources in the 18th century as the **industrial revolution** and urban population burgeoned. **Manchester** was a notable such city in North West England and its wealthy corporation built a

Hardness water level of major cities in the UK

Area	Primary source	Level ^[41]
Manchester	Lake District (Haweswater, Thirlmere) Pennines (Longendale Chain)	1.750 °clark / 25 ppm ^[42]
Birmingham	Elan Valley Reservoirs	3 °clark / 42.8 ppm ^[43]
Bristol	Mendip Hills (Bristol Reservoirs)	16 °clark / 228.5 ppm ^[44]
Southampton	Bewl Water	18.76 °clark / 268 ppm ^[45]
London (EC1A)	Lee Valley Reservoir Chain	19.3 °clark / 275 ppm ^[46]

number of reservoirs at [Thirlmere](#) and [Haweswater](#) in the [Lake District](#) to the north. There is no exposure to [limestone](#) or [chalk](#) in their [headwaters](#) and consequently the water quality in Manchester is rated as 'very soft'.^[42] Similarly, tap water in [Birmingham](#) is also soft as it is sourced from the [Elan Valley Reservoirs](#) in Wales.

Hard water in Ireland [\[edit\]](#)

The EPA has published a standards handbook for the interpretation of water quality in Ireland in which definitions of water hardness are given.^[49] In this section, reference to original EU documentation is given, which sets out no limit for hardness. In turn, the handbook also gives no "Recommended or Mandatory Limit Values" for Hardness. The handbooks does indicate that above the mid-point of the ranges defined as "Moderately Hard", effects are seen increasingly: "The chief disadvantages of hard waters are that they neutralise the lathering power of soap.... and, more important, that they can cause blockage of pipes and severely reduced boiler efficiency because of scale formation. These effects will increase as the hardness rises to and beyond 200 mg/l CaCO3."

Hard water in the United States [\[edit\]](#)

A collection of data from the United States found that about half the water stations tested had hardness over 120 mg per litre of calcium carbonate equivalent, placing them in the categories "hard" or "very hard".^[19] The other half were classified as soft or moderately hard. More than 85% of American homes have hard water.^[50] The softest waters occur in parts of the [New England](#), South Atlantic-Gulf, [Pacific Northwest](#), and [Hawaii](#) regions. Moderately hard waters are common in many of the rivers of the Tennessee, [Great Lakes](#), and Alaska regions. Hard and very hard waters are found in some of the streams in most of the regions throughout the country. The hardest waters (greater than 1,000 ppm) are in streams in Texas, New Mexico, Kansas, Arizona, and southern California.^[51]

See also [\[edit\]](#)

- [Carbonate hardness](#)
- [dGH](#)
- [Water softener](#)
- [Water quality](#)
- [Water treatment](#)
- [Water purification](#)



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External links [\[edit\]](#)

- Akzo Nobel, [Langelier Saturation Index \(LSI\) Calculator](#) 
- Water hardness unit converter, [Converter for hardness of water](#) 

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