



An Overview of Nanomaterials in Waste Water Treatment

Pavan R, Manojkumar N, Nachikethan H, Nandish A, V C Chandrashekar

¹Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Dayananda Sagar College Of Engineering, Bengaluru-560078, India

² Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Dayananda Sagar College Of Engineering, Bengaluru-560078, India

³ Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Dayananda Sagar College Of Engineering, Bengaluru-560078, India

⁴ Student, Department of Civil Engineering, Dayananda Sagar College Of Engineering, Bengaluru-560078, India

⁵ Assistant Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, Dayananda Sagar College Of Engineering, Bengaluru-560078, India

ABSTRACT

Performance evaluations are necessary to determine whether water treatment plants (WTPs) and their components are capable of fulfilling potable water requirements and providing the required water demand. Although nanoparticles are critical in removing Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) from source water, only about 20% to 40% of the water is recovered from the input, resulting in a considerable volume of waste water. The need for water has been obvious throughout the previous five decades. To address this issue, the current study attempts to reuse nanomaterial-rejected water through the use of an advanced filter material known as Layered Double Hydroxide (LDH). Layered double hydroxide is a broad category of material that is quite simple to make. LDH has a large surface area, strong adsorption capacity, and ion exchange properties. The features listed make it an effective material for treating nanomaterial-rejected water and removing Total Dissolved Solids. This project is primarily focused on developing and implementing an effective, cost-efficient, and long-term treatment method. If the rejected water is effectively treated, the treated water can be used for a variety of residential applications. If the treated water passes the requirements for drinkable water, it can also be consumed.

Key Words: Layered Double Hydroxide (LDH), zinc, silver, Bibliometric Analysis, arsenite

INTRODUCTION

Water has always played a significant role in the evolution of individuals. People began to dwell in a location and grow crops for food adjacent to water supplies such as rivers, lakes, or ground-water springs at the earliest stages. Drinking, cooking, bathing, washing, irrigating crops, and a variety of other activities all require water, therefore complete access to this resource was vital. Throughout recorded history, water supplies have not always been pure, and have been treated in some way to improve the odor, tang, and clarity of the water, or to eliminate disease-causing bacteria. The processes used to make water more suited for a certain use are referred to as water treatment. It can be used for a variety of purposes, including residential, commercial, medical, and a variety of other things. All water treatment systems are designed to remove impurities from the water and make it safe to consume. Water treatment includes both the treatment of water before it is used and the treatment of waste water generated after it has been used. This area also includes sewage, household, agricultural, and industrial waste water management. A multitude of methods are available for the aforementioned categories of water treatment processes. All have benefits and drawbacks, as well as no difficulty in utilizing finances, performance, and the last portion, all of which effect the range.

Nanomaterials are materials with structural components that are sized (in at least one dimension) between 1 and 100 nanometers [1]. Nanomaterials' properties, such as mechanical, electrical, optical, and magnetic properties, change dramatically from those of normal materials due to their nanoscale dimension. Catalysis, adsorption, and high reactivity are all features of a wide range of nanomaterials. Nanomaterials have been the subject of intense research and development in recent decades, and they have been successfully employed in a variety of sectors, including catalysis [2], medicine [3], sensing [4], and biology [5]. The use of nanomaterials in water and wastewater treatment, in particular, has gotten a lot of interest. Nanomaterials have high adsorption capabilities and reactivity due to their small size and hence large specific surface areas. Furthermore, nanoparticles have a high mobility in solution [6]. Various types of nanomaterials have been found to successfully remove heavy metals [7], organic contaminants [8], inorganic anions [9], and microorganisms [10]. Nanomaterials show considerable promise for use in water and wastewater treatment, according to various research. Zero-valent metal nanoparticles, metal oxide nanoparticles, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and nanocomposites are now the most intensively studied nanomaterials for water and wastewater treatment.

METHOD

Sources of Information The Web of Science Core Collection [24, 25] includes most of the major publications and is widely used in a number of scientific subjects. Our data source was the Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI) database, which was used to collect qualified material on the issue of NNs in wastewater treatment. The search terms "nano*" and "sewage treatment" or "wastewater treatment" or "sewage disposal" or "wastewater disposal" were used to find credible and accurate documents. The search was completed on June 30, 2017, and publications were chosen from the years 1997 to 2016. After that, 2604 records were gathered.

BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Bibliometrics is a broad term that refers to a set of mathematical and statistical approaches for calculating quantitatively the distribution, variation, and relationships of publications using public databases [26]. Further study of literature features and underlying knowledge will be available once valid information has been split. For the representation and analysis of relational data, social network analysis is a helpful tool [27]. It offers a quantitative way for assessing complex links between various social positions. Gephi is a social network analysis prevalence software [28]. And it will be used in this study to show the cooperation networks between the most productive countries/territories and institutes.

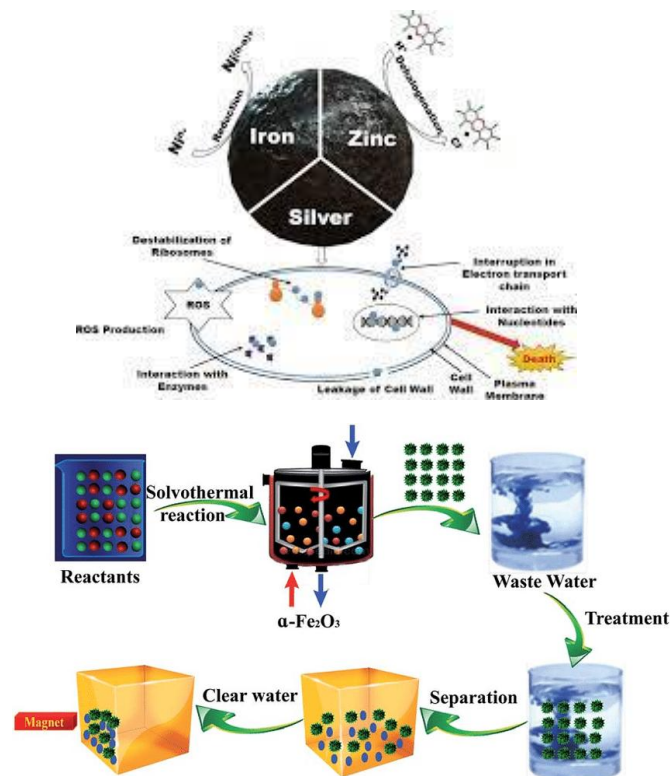


Fig- Nanomaterials

VISUALISATION ANALYSIS

The term "visualization analysis" refers to the use of various network modeling methods to portray a vast quantity of data on a map [23]. Cite Space will be used to investigate co-occurring terms in the following study. ArcGIS will also be used to visualize the spread of institutions around the world

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Publications' Characteristics

"Article" accounted for 91.90 percent (2393 records) of the 2604 records about NNs in wastewater treatment, while "Review" and "Proceedings Paper" provided 7.45 percent (194 records) and 5.45 percent (142 records), respectively. Meeting abstracts, book chapters, news items, editorial material, and corrections accounted for fewer than 1% of all data. Only one article is examined in this work. The percentage of articles printed in English was 98.96 percent, followed by 0.71 percent in Chinese. All other five languages, including French, German, Malay, Polish, and Spanish, accounted for less than 0.4 percent of the total. Both English and Chinese publications are selected since many Chinese writers contributed in the research of NNs in wastewater treatment. The histogram in Figure 1 depicts the fluctuations in articles about NNs in wastewater treatment from 1997 to 2016. The first

five years saw a low number of publications, with an average of five each year. Between 2002 and 2006, the average number of publications was over 25, a fivefold increase over the previous period. Following a steady rise from 48 in 2007 to 74 in 2009, the yearly publishing record surpassed 100 in 2011 and reached 138. The rate of publication increased dramatically during the next five years. As a result, it is clear that this topic has piqued the scientific community's curiosity. The fitting curves in Fig. 1 suggested that this domain would develop exponentially. And a mathematical form has been created to show the exact relationship between the year (x) and the number of publications (y).

ENVIRONMENTAL APPLICATIONS OF HT-LIKE LDHS

Because LDHs have a high anion exchange capacity and a large surface area, they can be used as anion exchangers and adsorbents for environmentally hazardous anions in dilute aqueous waste streams. In the research and development of LDHs for the removal of organic, inorganic, and radioactive pollutants from contaminated waterways, significant progress has been made.

Inorganic pollutants are removed from water during treatment. Cavani et al. (1991) proposed that LDHs be used to remove simple inorganic anions such Cl, Br, and SO₄ as well as bigger ions like oxo metalates and anionic transition metal complexes (Rives et al., 1999). LDHs' anion selectivity rises as anion charge density rises, with CO₃ being the most selective of the divalent ions (Miyata, 1983). Because LDHs have a strong attraction for carbonate ions, they are limited in their ability to remove and release anionic pollutants from carbonate-containing waste water. Calcination of LDHs in their carbonate state, on the other hand, improves their anion absorption capacity and regeneration ability (Ulibarri & Hermosn, 2001). LDHs generated under CO₂-free conditions that include easily exchangeable nitrate and chloride ions appear to be among the finest precursors for anion interchange processes. Ion-exchange favors or prevents ion-exchange depending on the pH of the fluid (Forano et al., 2006a).

Several studies on the adsorption of monoatomic anions by LDHs have been reported in recent years. Calcined M–Al–CO₃–LDHs (M = Mg, Zn, Ni) have been used to remove fluoride from wastewater contaminated by the glass, chemical, and electronics industries (Lv et al., 2006a). The calcined Mg–Al–LDH had a higher adsorption loading than the Zn and Ni equivalents, with a maximum removal of 98 percent. The amount of residual fluoride was within the World Health Organization's safe range for preventing fluorosis. The ion exchange with Zn–Al–NO₃–LDH and the reconstruction approach employing calcined LDHs (Ren et al., 2002; Lv et al., 2006b) were used to remove chloride (Lv et al., 2009). Thermodynamics of the ion exchange process revealed the process' spontaneity, and hence the efficacy of Zn–Al–NO₃–LDH in treating chloride-contaminated water from various sources. Mohanambe and Vasudevan revealed that Mg–Al–LDH functionalized by intercalation of cyclodextrin cavities adsorbs iodine from vapor and polar and nonpolar solutions (2004). Over grafted cyclodextrin in the galleries, the adsorbed neutral iodine is heterolytically decomposed to polyiodide species, which are not ion-exchangeable like the I⁻ ions in [Mg(1x)Alx(OH)₂][I]_x. Sulfide anion (S²⁻) removal capacity of chloride-containing Mg–Al–LDHs and their calcination products was investigated (Liu et al., 2006a). During structure reconstruction, calcined Mg–Al–LDH was demonstrated to efficiently remove S²⁻ (as HS under the experimental conditions) by simultaneous intercalation and oxidation of HS to thiosulfate and polysulfide anions.

LDHs' ability to remove hazardous oxyanions such arsenite, arsenate, chromate, phosphate, borate, nitrate, selenite, selenate, rhenate, technetate, iodate, molybdate, and vanadate has been thoroughly investigated (Goh et al., 2008). Phosphate removal from sea water by Zr-incorporating Mg–Fe–LDH (Chitrakar et al., 2010), nitrate removal (85.5 percent from synthetic nitrate solution) by Zn–Al–Cl–LDH (Islam & Patel, 2010) but with poor desorption and regeneration properties, and nearly complete removal of bromate ions by Fe–Al–LDH (Islam & Patel, 2010). (Chitrakar et al., 2011). Ay et al. (2007) recently characterized the boron absorption properties of several Mg–Al–LDHs, as well as pH-independent conversions of borate anions into energetically more advantageous polyborate anions in nano galleries (Ay et al., 2011c). Mg–Al–LDH–polymer complexes have been proposed as potential sorbent systems for heavy metal removal in both cationic and anionic forms (Iorio et al., 2010). Organic pollutants are removed from water during treatment. For anionic pesticides, layered double hydroxides are thought to be the best adsorbents. Batch sorption studies were carried out (Legrouri et al., 2005; Chao et al., 2008, and the references given therein) to see if LDHs could remove 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetate (2,4-D), a frequently used herbicide that exists in neutral and anionic forms in aqueous solutions. Another herbicide found in surface and subsurface water is glyphosate (Np hosphonomethyl glycine), which is commonly used in agriculture. The molecule has an amphoteric charge distribution, ranging from univalent positive to trivalent negative. The capacity of Mg–Al–LDHs with different interlayer anions (nitrate, carbonate, and chloride) to adsorb the organic herbicide glyphosate was tested (Li et al., 2005a, and the references cited therein). Because of their highly hydrophilic surface, LDHs appear to be less effective at binding hydrophobic chemical molecules. LDHs treated with anionic surfactants have been proven in numerous investigations to improve their sorptive ability for hydrophobic insecticides, phenols, and dyes (Cornejo et al., 2008). Chlorophenols are present in wastewater released by the petroleum, steel, refinery, dye, lumber, plastic, and pesticide sectors, and are known to be carcinogenic

CONCLUSION

New technologies that can improve water cleanliness and quality, whether for personal consumption, farming, or manufacturing, are in high demand. Many prospective commercial nanotechnology applications are now being refined and brought to market, as previously indicated. However, before these discoveries can make the leap from the lab to the mass market, they must first clear societal and financial constraints. Many of these applications are at a standstill in their development stages and may require extra testing to establish their consistency. Furthermore, existing water treatment facilities would be required to invest additional funds to update equipment and train employees in order to implement these advances. Despite the fact that proponents of nanotechnology are struggling to persuade classified and public organizations to pay the large upfront expenses of deploying innovative water purification technologies, Nanotechnology holds the promise of long-term benefits in the form of decreased prices for purifying the world's freshwater sources and the massive expenditures that will come with safe access to drinkable water in areas where there is currently a scarcity of suitable consumption and sanitation facilities.

REFERENCES

- [1] Suominen A, Li Y, Youtie J, Shapira P (2016) A bibliometric analysis of the development of next generation active nanotechnologies. *J Nanopart Res* 18(9):270
- [2] Sahoo SK, Parveen S, Panda JJ (2007) The present and future of nanotechnology in human health care. *Nanomed-Nanotechnol* 3:20–31
- [3] Celik I, Mason BE, Phillips AB, Heben MJ, Apul D (2017) Environmental impacts from photovoltaic solar cells made with single walled carbon nanotubes. *Environ Sci Technol* 51:4722–4732
- [4] Xiao HY, Ai ZH, Zhang LZ (2009) Nonaqueous sol-gel synthesized hierarchical CeO₂ nanocrystal microspheres as novel adsorbents for wastewater treatment. *J Phys Chem C* 113:16625–16630
- [5] Chen, Y., L. Wang, S. Jiang and H.J. Yu, 2003. Study on original antibacterial polymer materials research of zeolite antibacterial agents and antibacterial polymer composite and their antibacterial properties. *J. Polymer. Mater.* 20: 279-284.
- [6] Chohan, Z.H., C.T. Suparna and A. Scozzafava, 2004. Metalloantibiotics: Synthesis and antibacterial activity of nickel (II), cobalt (II), and zinc (II) complex of kefzol. *J. Enz. Inh. Med. Chem.*, 19: 79-84. 3. Colvin, V.L., 2003. The latent environmental impact of engineered nanomaterials. *Nature Biotech.*, 10: 1166-1170.
- [7] C. Buzea, I. I. Pacheco, and K. Robbie, “Nanomaterials and nanoparticles: sources and toxicity,” *Biointerphases*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. MR17–MR71, 2007.
- [8] V. Parmon, “Nanomaterials in catalysis,” *Materials Research Innovations*, vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 60–61, 2008.
- [9] X.-J. Liang, A. Kumar, D. Shi, and D. Cui, “Nanostructures for medicine and pharmaceuticals,” *Journal of Nanomaterials*, vol. 2012, Article ID 921897, 2 pages, 2012.
- [10] A. Kusior, J. Klich-Kafel, A. Trenczek-Zajac, K. Swierczek, M. Radecka, and K. Zakrzewska, “TiO₂–SnO₂ nanomaterials for gas sensing and photocatalysis,” *Journal of the European Ceramic Society*, vol. 33, no. 12, pp. 2285–2290, 2013.
- [11] B. Bujoli, H. Roussiere, G. Montavon et al., “Novel phosphate–phosphonate hybrid nanomaterials applied to biology,” *Progress in Solid State Chemistry*, vol. 34, no. 2–4, pp. 257–266, 2006.