

Sustainable nanotechnology based wastewater treatment strategies: achievements, challenges and future perspectives

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Abstract

Nanotechnology being an emerging science for water treatment requires more research emphasis and depth knowledge. For wastewater treatment, different forms of nanomaterials are used based on the type of contaminants and treatment efficiency desired. With the development in the field of nanomaterials, novel and emerging nanomaterials are coming into existence. The nanomaterials used for wastewater treatment can be carbon, single-walled carbon nanotubes, multiple walled carbon nanotubes, covalent organic frameworks, metal and metal oxides based nanoparticles. Graphene based nanoparticles, their oxides (GO) and reduced graphene oxide (rGO) find tremendous applicability to be used in wastewater treatment purposes. Due to the introduction of graphene oxide nanoparticles in the adsorbent materials, their adsorption capacities have considerably risen and such materials have also improved the mechanical stability of the adsorbent. Ferric oxide shows greater adsorption capacity for organic pollutants. Furthermore, magnetic nano-powder confers a low adsorption capacity for phenols. Pyrrolidone reduced graphene oxide (PVP-RGO) nanoparticles have been used as adsorbents for the elimination of inorganic target contaminant Copper, with great adsorption (1698 mg/g). The present study comprehensively reviews nanotechnology as a wastewater treatment method besides enlightening its safety issues and efficiency. The novelty of this article is that it highlights the overview of various types of nanomaterials based on recent research works in the last decades. Such an approach will be helpful to get insights into technological advances, applications and future challenges of nanotechnology implementation for wastewater treatment.

Keywords: Environmental pollution; Nanotechnology; Covalent organic frameworks; Metal nanomaterials; carbon footprints and Wastewater treatment.

1 Introduction

Water is one of the most essential and critical resources of human society for all lives on earth (Morrison, Shields et al. 2020, Rubilar, Hubbard et al. 2020). The increasing necessity of water and mounting water pollution are major issues of water management (Elbeltagi, Azad et al. 2021). Earth is the only habitable planet in the solar system with around 70% of its surface covered by water (Pradeep 2009). However, only 2.5% of the water present on the earth is fresh and the rest is saline (Oki and Kanae 2006). Of the total freshwater present, only a small percentage is present as surface water in the river, lake, etc. as freshwater. Hence, surface water is an indispensable resource for human kind (Bhat, Pandit et al. 2017). Today, the availability of safe potable water has become a global problem because of substantial water pollution (Acharya, Blackburn et al. 2020, Ponce-Rodríguez, Verdú-Andrés et al. 2020). Various anthropogenic activities lead to the contamination of fresh water thereby, leaving it unfit for use in domestic and other agricultural uses. Nature journal highlights on its website that "things in the world are getting worse and more than one trillion people lack access to clean water" in relation to the potential global water crisis (Jiang, Carrijo et al. 2019, Edokpayi, Makungo et al. 2020).

The industrialization and disposal of electronic wastes further complicate the problem. Several environmentally degrading substances and toxic metals such as lead, mercury, arsenic, cobalt, nickel, etc. end up in water bodies (Yadav, Chowdhary et al. 2017). Additionally, at low concentrations, emergent pollutants can be harmful to habitats and human health (Basheer 2018). There are several conventional methods (coagulation-flocculation, electrochemical treatment, adsorption, ion-exchange, chemical precipitation and membrane filtration) in addition to advanced methods (ultrafiltration, adsorption, chemical precipitation, biological oxidation, coagulation,

micro screening and biosensor) for the treatment of contaminated water (Shah, Dar et al. 2020). However, conventional techniques prove inefficient for water treatment besides being expensive. Industrial wastewater usually is known to contain toxic heavy metals (Liu, Zhu et al. 2020, Wu, Shi et al. 2020). Therefore, the treatment of wastewater requires adoption of a technology that is cost-effective and requires low energy.

Nanotechnology has emerged as a novel technology to address the problem of water scarcity and wastewater treatment. The multifunctional and highly effective nanotechnology-enabled wastewater treatment provides new treatment capabilities that could allow the commercial use of unconventional water sources to increase water supply. (Olvera, Silva et al. 2017, Wong, Tan et al. 2019, Deshpande, Agrawal et al. 2020). Nanomaterials remove hazardous metals from water and thus play a significant role in wastewater treatment (Deshpande, Agrawal et al. 2020). The past few decades have seen a remarked advancement in the field of nanotechnology that has encouraged researchers to explore new research areas. The unique properties of nanostructured materials could provide more sustainable solutions to existing wastewater management problems (Lu, Wang et al. 2016). Nanomaterials, due to their distinctive characteristics such as greater aspect ratio, electrostatic properties, tunable pore volume, reactivity, hydrophobic and hydrophilic reaction have several unique properties (Das, Ali et al. 2014).

Nanotechnology-based waste-water treatment techniques present significant challenges to the current techniques. The current technologies are efficient to a great extent for pollutant removal from wastewaters, although they are time-consuming and cost-intensive. Nanotechnology solves several environmental problems and helps to reduce labour, time and investment demanded by the

wastewater treatment industry (Kanchi 2014). The advantages and significance of nanotechnology include; it plays a vital role in the manufacturing of new materials, transform energy into various ways as energy storage and generation like solar power devices, take part in Phyto-toxicity, for environmental pollution control following green synthesis of nanomaterial with low cost, High surface area, greater adsorption capacity chemically stable, easily activated by light and degraded the pollutant from wastewater and gives better result to improves the antimicrobial activity(Cheriyamundath, Vavilala et al. 2021). Moreover, various limitations associated with conventional water treatment methods are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Conventional water treatment methods and associated limitations.

Conventional methods	Limitations
Distillation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Majority of the contaminants remain behind - Inefficient for pollutants with high boiling points (>100 °C)
Coagulation and flocculation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less accurate method - Needs the addition of alkaline additives for lowering pH
Chemical transformation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Excess reagents are required
Ultraviolet irradiation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inefficient for heavy metals removal - Expensive method
Biological treatment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Difficult control over microorganisms - Expensive - Time-consuming
Reverse osmosis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Energy-intensive - Inefficient for volatile organics and pharmaceuticals - Acidic nature of treated water
Carbonfilter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Susceptible to mould - Frequent changing of filters - Clogging
Ultrafiltration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Susceptible to particulate plugging - Inefficient for dissolved inorganics

Microfiltration	- Regular cleaning, less sensitive to microbes esp. viruses,
	- Inefficient for fluorides, nitrates, metals, etc.
Nanofiltration	- Membrane fouling
	- High energy
	- Pretreatment requirement

Generally, nanomaterials are classified as materials smaller than 100 nm in at least one dimension (Chhabra and Kumar 2020). Nanomaterials can transform their structures into specific functionalities, making them more promising for wastewater treatment (Karthigadevi, Manikandan et al. 2021). The small size of nanomaterials gives rise to several unique properties specific to nanomaterials as compared to bulk materials. The high surface area to volume ratio of these nano based materials gives rise to more surface dependent properties. Nanomaterials have proven to be quite effective in the removal of several contaminants due to their excellent adsorbent properties and beneficial physicochemical properties (Das, Ali et al. 2014). Nanotechnology is being explored as a promising technology and has demonstrated remarkable accomplishments in various fields including wastewater treatment. Nanostructures offer unparalleled opportunities to make more effective catalysts and redox active media for wastewater purification, owing to their small size, large surface area, and ease of functionalization. Nanomaterials are effective in the elimination of several pollutants from wastewater such as heavy metals, organic and inorganic solvents, color as well as biological toxins, and pathogens that cause diseases like cholera and typhoid.

The multifunctional and highly effective nanotechnology-enabled wastewater treatment offers a new treatment capacity that could allow the commercial use of unconventional water sources to increase water supply. Nanotechnology-based wastewater treatment is a trending topic and is

attracting researchers from various fields. The number of published works related to this field has shown a spike by growing from a merely 5% in 2005 to more than 80% by 2019. Currently, the application of nano-based multi-dimensional covalent organic framework (COF) has proved to be a promising material for capturing various types of pollutants from aqueous solutions (Liu, Pang et al. 2021). Further, Graphitic carbon nitride as a metal-free and emerging material finds tremendous applications to be used as an effective heavy metal scavenger from aqueous phases (Hu, Wang et al. 2021). The material has high chemical and thermal stability besides being low cost and eco-friendly in nature. The development of novel materials with highly efficient and excellent selectivity for capturing U(VI) from nuclear-related wastewater and seawater is highly desirable. The recent advances of perovskite-based photocatalysts in environmental clean up were comprehensively highlighted by Wang et al., (Wang, Zhang et al. 2021), which are crucial for the application of perovskite-based photocatalysts for highly efficient removal of various environmental pollutants in environmental remediation. The expertise in the field of nanotechnology offers great potential for continuous improvement in environmental quality and water conservation.

Therefore, this review highlights nanotechnology-based wastewater treatment methods being developed for physicochemical as well as bio-decontamination of water i.e., bio-sorption and nano-adsorption of contaminants using various types of carbon based nano materials and other metal oxides. It also signifies the role of nano based antimicrobials viz. Nano-oxides of silver and titanium used for disinfection purposes and the adoption of nano photocatalysts for chemical degradation of contaminants. The review also highlights the safety concerns and risks associated with nanomaterials and their impacts on the environment. Furthermore, it also presents an

overview of the major environmental implications of nanotechnology by analysis of published research works from all aspects and a detailed overview of the recent development in the field of nanotechnology-based wastewater treatment.

2 Role of nanomaterials

Different materials such as zeolites, activated carbon, pillared clays, mesoporous oxides, metal-organic frameworks and polymers have been developed and employed for water treatment (Madannejad, Shoaie et al. 2019). These materials have shown variable degrees of potential for removing different harmful contaminants.

2.1 Carbon-based materials used for removal of organic and inorganic pollutants

Carbon-based materials have been proved to be the best adsorbents for removing these organic and inorganic pollutants (Kadam, Saratale et al. 2019, Kalaitzidou, Zouboulis et al. 2020, Wang, Tang et al. 2020). Carbon-based nanomaterials such as activated carbon, graphene, fullerenes and carbon nanotubes (CNT) exhibit high specific surface area, high porosity, adjustable pore size, high electronic conductivity and good chemical stability in acid/alkaline conditions (Wang, Ng et al. 2012, Lam and Luong 2014). Metal organic frameworks (MOFs) derived-carbons comprise of carbon skeletons encapsulating metal or metal oxide nanoparticles, non-metal doped carbon hybrid materials, metal-free porous carbons and other composites (Hao, Qiu et al. 2020). These carbon-based frameworks are prepared by self-assembly of metal clusters and organic ligands. Metal clusters in these multi-dimensional structures are used as linkage point and organic ligands are used as supports. High specific surface area, abundant pore structure, adjustable morphology and versatility of carbon-based MOFs have attracted extensive research interest and their application in the fields of gas storage, sensing, energy storage, adsorption and catalysis (Fan, Wang et al. 2018, Li, Wang et al. 2018, Man, He et al. 2019, Solis, Kwon et al. 2020, Tang and Wang 2020).

The inherent diversity of MOFs provides the basis for precise control of the physical and chemical properties of materials. The changes in organic ligands, functional monomers and carbonization conditions create more possibilities for doping heteroatoms and improving performance, greatly expanding the types of materials (Fan, Du et al. 2018, Ren, Tao et al. 2018, Lai, Wang et al. 2019, Su, Ru et al. 2019, Pandi, Prabhu et al. 2020). Further, the recovery of heavy metals like uranium from wastewater using strong carbon-based adsorbents like graphitic carbons has been widely achieved. The development of carbon-based novel materials with highly efficient and excellent selectivity for capturing U(VI) from nuclear-related wastewater and seawater is highly desirable (Qiu, Liu et al. 2021). These materials have been widely used as effective adsorbents; however, the wide-scale application is still limited by the high costs of wastewater treatment and there is a growing emphasis to design low-cost adsorbents (Hu, Ai et al. 2020).

2.2 Graphene-based nanomaterials

The use of graphene as a carbon-based nanomaterial for pollutant removal depends on its production cost, removal efficiency and environmental impacts. The low manufacturing cost of graphene oxide (GO) based environmental technologies makes them comparable to pristine graphene. Graphene is a superior material and an alternate to CNT for waste-water treatment. The usage of graphene-based materials as adsorbents offers various advantages in contrast to CNTs. The first layer of graphene nanomaterials has two basal planes for the adsorption of contaminants. Comparatively, the adsorbents cannot reach the innermost walls in CNTs (Sitko, Zawisza et al. 2013).

Furthermore, the chemical exfoliation of graphite was used to synthesize graphene oxide (GO) and reduced graphene oxide (RGO), without any prerequisite for metallic catalysts or sophisticated machinery. Therefore, the graphene produces are free of catalyst residues and do not require further treatment. The application of graphene-based materials has raised research interest not only in the field of chemistry but also in environmental water quality management. Graphene has numerous π - bonds and functional groups containing sufficient oxygen besides having a large surface area (Lu, Jin et al. 2018). For the adsorption of graphene-based nanomaterials five different interactions could occur; π - π bonds, hydrophobic effects, electrostatic, hydrogen and covalent bonds as shown in Fig. 1 (Zhu, Murali et al. 2010).

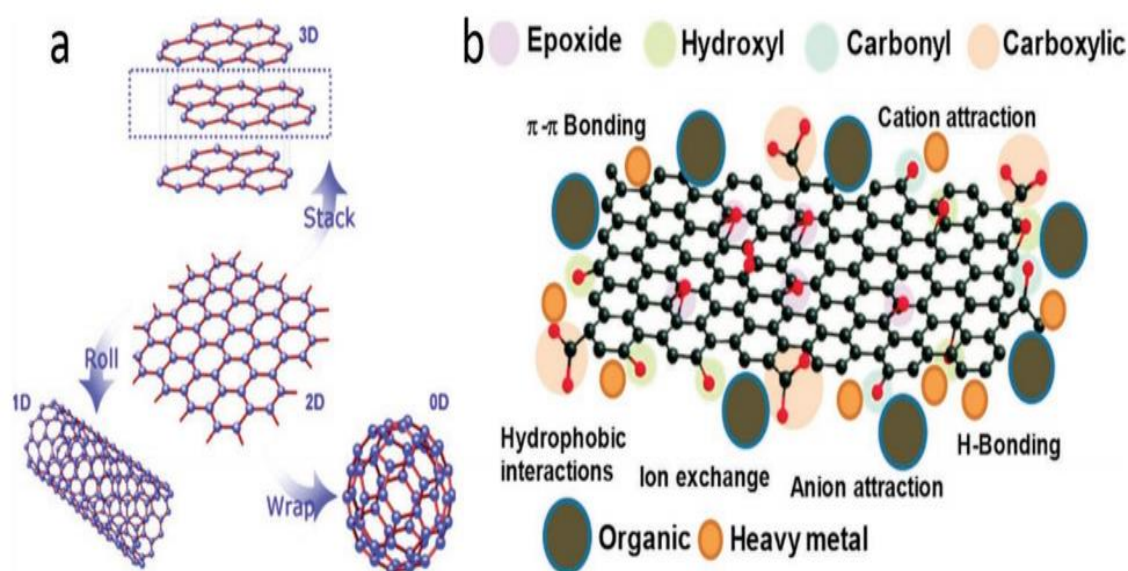


Fig. 1. Significant properties of graphene-based nanoparticles; (a) Dimension shapes i.e., 0D inwrap, 1D in Roll, 2D in sheet, 3D in Stack shapes and (b) attractions (Zhang, Chi et al. 2014, Yin, Cui et al. 2020).

Fig. 1 illustrates a strong sigma “ σ ” bond of graphene is formed in a 2-dimension plane due to share three of four valence shell electrons while weak pi “ π ” bond formed in the 3D when valence electron is delocalized among all atoms (Bhattacharyya and Gupta 2011). Adsorption depends

upon the contribution of provided surface area and the number of functional groups to adhere pollutants. Although the chemical bonding of organic and CNT/graphene are done by the functional group such as hydroxyl-OH or carbonyl – COOH group (Wadhawan, Jain et al. 2020). Physiochemically, graphene and its oxides boost hydrophilic nature and the adsorption capacity of certain pollutants. The oxidation method helps in the stability of physical as well as chemical properties of graphene (Yang, Guo et al. 2020). Normally, for the removal of various pollutants from wastewater, graphene based nanomaterials are more preferred some of the relevant studies are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Applications and modification of graphene as adsorbents for removal of an inorganic contaminant.

Target contaminant	Adsorbent	Adsorption capacity (mg/g)	Mechanism	Reference
Methylene blue	G-CNT	81.97	Self-induced interaction	π - π (Ai and Jiang 2012)
Methylene blue, and Rhodamine B	RGO-hydrogels	7.85, and 29.44, respectively	Anion–cation interactions, Strong π - π interaction	(Tiwari, Mahesh et al. 2013)
Pb(II)	RGO/PAM	1000	Ion exchange	(Yang, Xie et al. 2013)
Cu(II)	PVP-RGO	1689	Cation- π interaction, physisorption	(Zhang, Chi et al. 2014)
Cr(VI)	PEI-GO	539.53	π -electrons, electrostatic interaction	(Chen, Li et al. 2014)

Pb(II), As(III), and As(V)	GO-MnFe ₂ O ₄	673, 146, and 207, respectively	Cation exchange reaction	(Kumar, Nair et al. 2014)
Fuch sine	GMN	89.4	Van der Waals interactions	(Wang, Zhang et al. 2011)

Table 2 shows the application results of graphene, their oxides and reduced graphene oxide. PVP-RGO has shown a relatively high absorption value compared to others. The target contaminant for adsorption of PVP-RGO was Copper. It has been observed that PVP-RGO increased the surface area which gives rise to the high value of adsorption of Cu target contaminant. The higher adsorption rate and higher surface area are developed due to “Cu” cation and functional group “ π ” pi bond interaction (Zhu, Murali et al. 2010, Zhang, Chi et al. 2014). The availability of the active site and surface area are directly proportional to each other. The decrease in the removal of target contaminant is due to the limitation of the active site, no matter how much pollutant concentration is high (Zhang, Chi et al. 2014, Yin, Cui et al. 2020). G-CNT has shown the lowest adsorption value for target contaminated methylene blue compared to the PVP-RGO. The pi “ π - π ” pi interaction occurred due to a decrease in spacing between G-CNT hybrid henceforth adsorption values were observed. At initial stage, the adsorption rate is high as a result of an increase in the driving force of concentration rise to overcome the mass transfer between two phases i.e. solid phase and the aqueous phase (Yin, Cui et al. 2020).

2.3 Carbon nanotubes

Nanotubes of carbon can be categorized into three types, namely, carbon nanotube composite, multi-walled carbon nanotube (MWCNT) and single-walled carbon nanotube (SWCNT) (Fenati, Sherrell et al. 2021, Mudasir and Naqash 2021). Because of their one-dimensional form, CNTs

have excellent physical properties, such as electrical, thermal and mechanical properties (Thostenson, Ren et al. 2001, Huang, Singer et al. 2021). In deciding the features of the CNTs, dimensional characteristics play a major role. It has been stated that CNTs show an improvement in metal removal efficiency with an increase in surface modification. Reasonable surface modifications by appropriate functional groups can be made to allow the efficient accessibility of different contaminants into carbon nanotubes (Chen, Feng et al. 2012). Several experiments showed that heavy metal ions are adsorbed by carbon nanotubes with very potent nanomaterials, including Pb^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Zn^{2+} and Cd^{2+} (Xu, Cao et al. 2018, Abukhadra, Bakry et al. 2019). The methods of surface modification in carbon nanotubes are chemical grafting, oxidization, and physical modification like coating (Yu, Huang et al. 2011). Four potential adsorption sites constitute the outermost wall, interstitial channels, inner cavities, and CNT grooves (Kumar, Nair et al. 2014).

The mechanism of adsorption in CNTs is similar to that of graphene. Adsorption, even in certain instances, relies on the functional dimensions of CNTs, where porous nature plays an important role (Den, Liu et al. 2006). Carbon nanotubes have traditionally been used as a combination of condensed solids, so it is often challenging to distinguish them from water effectively. New granular carbon nanotubes/ Al_2O_3 composites are prepared for two pharmaceuticals (carbamazepine and diclofenac sodium) with suitable sorption efficiency, mechanical strength, heat resistance and hydrophilicity. During the regeneration process, the adsorbed pharmaceuticals can be decomposed (Wei, Deng et al. 2013). This process of hybridization influenced the creation of granular composites based on CNTs. The environmental functions of different CNTs are listed in Table 3. It can be inferred that several problems still exist and arise from the environmental

application of CNTs and further research for novel CNT adsorbents such as new forms of composites of CNTs is required.

Table 3. Diversity of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) used for organic contaminant removal.

Type of CNTs	Target Contaminants	Removal rate/ adsorption capacity	Reference
SWCNTs	17 α -ethinyl estradiol and Bisphenol A	EE2 (95–98%), BPA (75–80%)	(Joseph, Heo et al. 2011)
MWCNT	Polychlorinated biphenyls, Phenols and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs	80–99%	(Ghaedi, Shokrollahi et al. 2011)
Granular CNTs	Diclofenac sodium (DS) and carbamazepine (CBZ)	DS:106.5 μ mol/g CBA:157.4 μ mol/g	(Wei, Deng et al. 2013)
MWCNTs	Eriochrome cyanine R (ECR)	73.18 mg/g	(Ghaedi, Shokrollahi et al. 2011)
MWCNTs	5-(4-dimethyl amino benzylidene) rhodamine	15.52 mg/g	(Ghaedi, Ghobadzadeh et al. 2013)
MWCNTs	Humic acid (HA)	80–85%	(Yang, Hu et al. 2011)
MWCNTs	Direct Red 23	85.5 mg/g	(Konicki, Pelech et al. 2012)

2.4 Metal and metal oxides nanoparticles

For heavy metal reduction from wastewater during treatment, zero-valent metals are considered the best adsorbent for remediation due to having high reactivity, degradation abilities, magnetic properties, and reduction of catalytic activity by oxidization and agglomeration of zerovalent metal. Among all zero-valent metals like Fe⁰, Sn⁰, Ti⁰, Ni⁰, Al⁰, Zn⁰, Mg⁰ and Pd⁰ (Rambabu,

Bharath et al. 2021); remarkably the fourth most abundant element in this earth crust zero-valent iron is most commonly used due to having high reactivity and adsorption properties. Heterogenous catalyst i.e., Fe zero-valent metal (ZVI) eliminates organic and inorganic pollutants from the environment by wastewater treatment. ZVI activates the peroxymonosulfate (PMS) for reduction of levofloxacin (LEV) (Tan, Ruan et al. 2021), degrade dyes, removal of uranium (Zhang, Ruan et al. 2019), phenol(Pang, Ruan et al. 2019), and bisphenol (Ma, Cui et al. 2018) from wastewater. Due to low stability and mobility limitations, zero-valent metals are synthesized into zero-valent metal nanoparticles (ZVM NPS). It enhances the stability, adsorption power, high surface area, degradation ability, magnetic properties and electrostatic properties (Liu et al., 2018; Diao, et al., 2016). For example, ZVI Sn NPS (zero-valent tin nanoparticles) (Mahmoud and Abdelwahab 2021) is used to remove heavy metals such as lead from waste water. So far, different nanomaterials are used for waste water treatment by removal of various sorts of effluent or organic and inorganic pollutants.

2.4.1 Nano metal oxides

Nano-sized metal oxides (NMOs), including aluminium oxides, ferric oxides, manganese oxides, titanium oxides, and cerium oxides are the promising ones among the available adsorbents for pollutant removal (Agrawal and Sahu 2006). This is partially due to the size quantization effect caused by their high activity and large surface area (El-Sayed 2001). Current studies have proposed that various nano metal oxides e.g. iron oxide, manganese oxide shows a high affinity for heavy metal removal thus, making them possible to comply with ever more stringent regulations (Deliyanni, Peleka et al. 2009). However, it has been reported that an increase in surface energy effects stability. The size of metal oxides decreases from micrometre to nanometer because it

shows poor stability due to surface energy (Pradeep 2009). NMOs are vulnerable to aggregation, and the high potential and acuteness of NMOs would be greatly reduced or even lost.

Due to poor mechanical strength and excessive pressure drops, the NMOs in fixed beds or any other flow through systems have been reported to be inefficient. The applicability of NMOs for wastewater treatment can be enhanced by combining them in large porous supports and thus obtain composites (Pan, Pan et al. 2009). The commonly used porous supports comprise of natural materials, activated carbon and polymeric synthetic hosts. In comparison to traditional NMOs, magnetic nano metal oxides can easily detach from water when exposed to a magnetic field (Mahdavian and Mirrahi 2010). Magnetic composite adsorbents based on NMOs allow easy isolation from aqueous recycling or regeneration solutions. Such simple separation is important for improving the quality of operations and reducing the costs of wastewater treatment. As there are various forms of NMOs used for the removal of heavy metals, comparing their capacity is significant.

Nevertheless, the experimental conditions in the different sources varied considerably, therefore, a straightforward analysis of the reported findings seems to be a little futile. For example, due to the various synthetic methods of a given NMO, its size and surface chemistry are difficult to maintain constant. Additionally, the operating conditions, such as the temperature, chemistry of the solution (pH, ion types and their strength), experimental process (batch or column runs) are very different. A simple comparison has been made here about NMOs for metal removal as summarized in Table 4. It is observed that at the same temperature, different adsorbents show

different adsorption capacities against the adsorbate. By Ferric oxide (Fe_2O_3) 2.6 mg/g while by ferric oxyhydroxide 149.25 mg/g adsorption capacity was observed at 25 °C.

2.4.2 Nanometal oxides act as supporting material

Nanometal oxides (NMOs) have been found quite successful for the removal of different contaminants. There are, however, certain limitations associated with the use of NMOs due to the presence of fine and ultra-fine particles. The limitations lead to issues such as the lack of operation due to agglomeration, excessive pressure drops and difficult separation when applied in flow-through systems (Cumbal and SenGupta 2005). A successful way to deal with these limitations is to create hybrid adsorbents by combining NMOs particles into/onto permeable membranes of bigger size (Hansen, Kwan et al. 2001). The broadly utilized supports incorporate normal hosts, for example, bentonite, sand and metallic oxide materials. Some host-upheld NMOs for the expulsion of heavy metals are listed in

Table 4.

Table 4. Adsorption capacities to remove heavy metal ions using nanometal oxides as support materials.

Metal oxide	Adsorbate	Support material	Adsorbents	Adsorption capacity (mg/g)	Temperature (°C)	Reference
Iron oxide		Treated urban sludge waste	Pb (II) and Cd (II)	42.4 and 14.7		(Agouborde and Navia 2009)
Fe_3O_4		Cyclodextrin	Cu (II)	47.2		(Badruddoza, Tay et al. 2011)
Fe_2O_3		Sepiolite	Pb (II) and Cd (II)	18.30		(Lazarevic, Janković-

					Castvan et al. 2010)
Manganese oxide	Diatomite	Ni (II)	99.0 and 27.86		(Khraisheh, Al-degs et al. 2004)
Goethite	Sand	Pb (II) and Cd (II)	702 and 704 401.14		(Lai, Chen et al. 2001)
	—		26.8	25	(Wadhawan, S., et al.2020)
Pb (II)	—	TiO ₂	9.2	25	
Cu (II)	—	Fe ₂ O ₃	6.7	28	(Yang, X., et al.2020)
Pd (II)	—	CeO ₂	84.46	28	(Ai, L. and J. Jiang.,2012)
Pd (II)	—	ZnO	149.25	25	(Tiwari, J.N., et al 2013)
Cu (II)	—	Hematite (α-Fe ₂ O ₃)		25	(Yang, Y., et al.2013)
Cu (II)		Goethite (α-FeOOH)			

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337 The efficient and specific adsorption to various aquatic contaminants is shown by nano metal
338 oxides (NMOs). However, these are typically present as small or ultra-fine particles, often leading
339 to problems such as lack of activity due to agglomeration, difficult isolation, and extreme pressure
340 decreases when added to flow through structures. The manufacture of hybrid adsorbents on larger
341 porous supports by impregnating or covering NMO particles is an efficient way to solve these
342 technical bottlenecks (Jones, Ray et al. 2008). Natural hosts such as bentonite (Hu, Jimmy et al.
343 2003, Ebrahimpour, Pliekhova et al. 2021), metallic oxide compounds such as membranes of
344 Al₂O₃ (Yu, Jimmy et al. 2005, Singh, Juneja et al. 2021), the complex porous manganese oxide

(Wang, Zhang et al. 2011) and hosts of synthetic polymers such as cross-connected resins for ion exchange (Liu, Ye et al. 2010, Wang, Shi et al. 2011) are commonly used supports. **Error! Reference source not found.** summarizes several host-supported NMOs for removing heavy metals.

Table 5. Organic contaminants removal using nano metal oxides as supporting material.

Adsorbents	Organic pollutants	Adsorption capacity (mg/g)	Reference
SiO ₂ /γ-Fe ₂ O ₃ /chitosan composite	MO	34.29	(Zhu, Jiang et al. 2011)
Magnetic nanopowder	Phenols	13.50	(Mihoc, Ianoş et al. 2014)
γ-Fe ₂ O ₃ /2C nanocomposite	Phenols	42.34	(Istratie, Stoia et al. 2019)
Fe ₃ O ₄ @SiO ₂ /SiCRG	Metoprolol (MTP)	447	(Soares, Simões et al. 2016)
SiO ₂ /SiCRG	MTP	393	(Soares, Simões et al. 2016)
Silica gel	MTP	68.40	(Kutzner, Schaffer et al. 2014)
α - Fe ₂ O ₃	Congo red	413.22	(Satheesh, Vignesh et al. 2016)
Fe ₃ O ₄ MNPs	Crystal violet	166.67	(Muthukumaran, Sivakumar et al. 2016)

Until now, metal oxides (MOs) are broadly investigated as exceptionally effective adsorbents for the expulsion of contaminants from water and wastewater. They display different favourable

merits, for example, quick energy, high adsorption limit, and best sorption towards contaminations in wastewater. Metal oxides have been considered quite effective for the removal of pollutants from contaminated waters. They have several unique properties such as high adsorption capacity, affinity towards pollutants and fast kinetics. However, to promote the large scale applicability of metal oxides, there is a serious need to solve various limitations associated with the technicalities involved. For example, metal oxides aggregate to form large size particles and lose their pollutant removal efficiency when applied in aqueous solutions. The treatment process for contaminants from wastewater remains a subject of discussion and research. There is also an urgent need for the production of new metal oxide-based adsorbents to solve the technicalities associated with pollutant removal using metal oxides.

However, the associated research works with the development of composite adsorbents still seem to be in a development phase performed either on a lab or pilot scale. Recently, magnetic adsorbents for water treatment have attracted several researchers due to their simple separation mechanism. The pollutant removal problems associated with graphene can be overcome with the incorporation of magnetic particles into GO or GNs. The incorporation of magnetic nanoparticles can also reduce the possibility of restacking and agglomeration and thus provide a high surface area and increase pollutant adsorption capacity (Shen, Huang et al. 2015). Thermodynamics, adsorption kinetics, and equilibrium were investigated by Liu et al., (Liu, Bai et al. 2010) due to the addition of Fe₃O₄/GO composite (M/GO) magnetite to extract Co²⁺ from aqueous solutions. After adsorption, M/GO could be recovered by magnetic separation and was therefore found to have greater adsorption than Fe₃O₄.

MnFe₂O₄-G ferrites have been widely applied for the efficient removal of Cd and Pb ions from wastewaters. The monolayer adsorption capacity of Cd and Pb on MnFe₂O₄-G was reported as 76.90 and 100 mg/g at pH of 7 and 5, respectively. The pseudo-second-order kinetic model was followed for the adsorption of Cd and Pb ions on MnFe₂O₄-G surface. As shown in Fig. 2, MnFe₂O₄-G was also reported to be very effective for *E.coli* populations and a loss of 82% viability with 100 mg/L for 2 hours was observed (Xiong, Zhang et al. 2010). It is observed that Fe₂O₃ ferric oxide shows greater adsorption capacity for organic pollutants like for congo red 413.22 and phenols 42.34. Meanwhile, magnetic nanopowder showed a low adsorption capacity for phenols which was 13.50 mg/g.

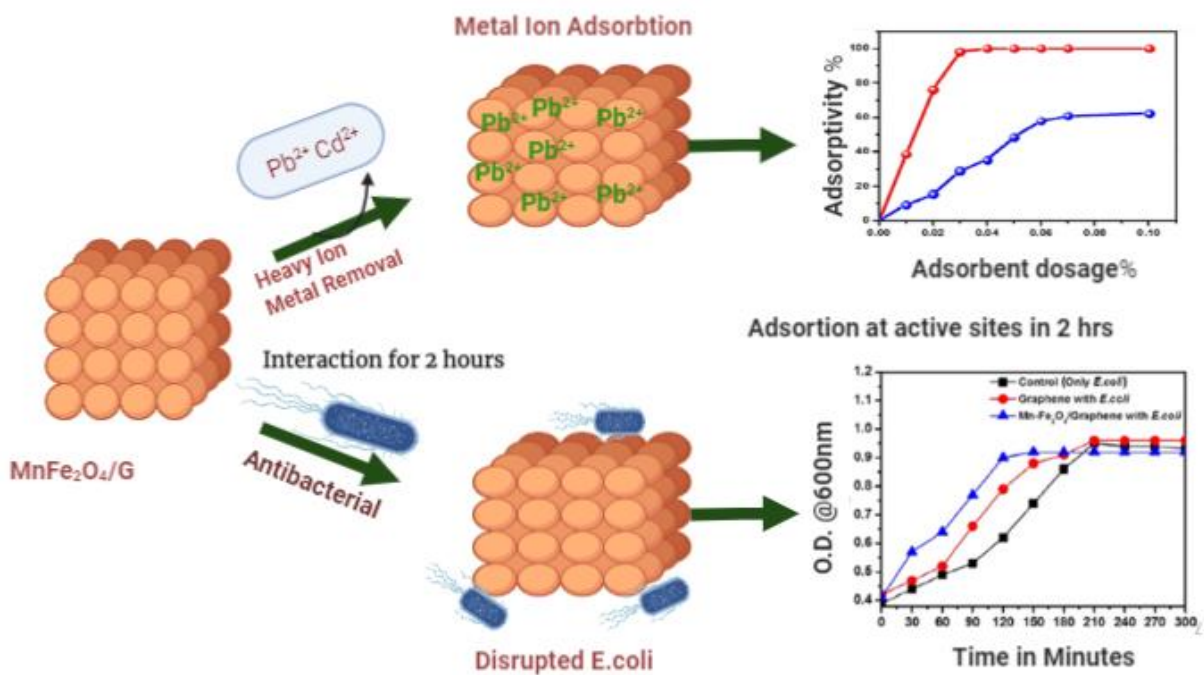


Fig. 2. The effect of MnFe₂O₄-G on adsorption activity (Chella, Kollu et al. 2015).

Furthermore, Fig. 2 demonstrates the effect of manganese ferrite/graphene ($\text{MnFe}_2\text{O}_4\text{-G}$) nanoparticles on adsorption. The antibacterial activity of manganese ferrite/graphene ($\text{MnFe}_2\text{O}_4\text{-G}$) nanoparticles is also shown with respect to time. Maximum adsorption capacity is shown in both aspects either for removal of heavy metal or antibacterial activity. The use of nanoparticles of metal oxides for water treatment and other applications is growing rapidly (Srivastav, Patel et al. 2020). However, certain harmful effects of metal oxide nanoparticles need to be assessed on living organisms. There are numerous studies on the toxicity and cytotoxic potential of metal oxide nanoparticles (Taju, Majeed et al. 2014). Eco-friendly metal oxide nanoparticles with reduced adverse effects and improved performance are therefore a challenge today.

3 Nanomaterials as photocatalysts

Photocatalytic degradation has been reported as an effective method for the treatment of various toxic organic compounds in recent decades (Table 6). The photodegradation of dyes with TiO_2 nanoparticles under visible or UV irradiation has been widely experimented as a result of the ineffectiveness of biological conventional treatment methods for degrading pollutants in wastewater (Zou, Zhang et al. 2011, Lee, Hong et al. 2012). The method of degradation of dyes with photocatalyst materials is described by several proposed mechanisms (Lázaro-Navas, Prashar et al. 2015). Adsorption on the photocatalyst surfaces of organic compounds and reaction by exciting superficial e^-/h^+ pairs or OH radical forming ending products are also indicated by another mechanism (Rico-Oller, Boudjemaa et al. 2016). The type of reaction mechanism taking place depends on both solution-phase species and the surface adsorbed resulting in the differences in photodegradation kinetics.

Anatase, rutile and brookite are the three crystalline phases of TiO₂, with electronic band gap energies of 3.2, 3.0 and 3.2 eV respectively. By electronically connecting a narrow band gap semiconductor to TiO₂, semiconductor heterojunctions allow visible light exciton generation. The small bandgap allows low-energy photons to produce electron/hole pairs, which can then be introduced into TiO₂ based on the redox potential of the conduction (CB) and valence (VB) bands. (Marand and Almasi). With an onset wavelength of 385 nm, unmodified TiO₂ has a wide optical bandgap and thus does not absorb light in the visible range, resulting in a stark, white colour. Visible light-driven photocatalytic oxidation of VOCs in the gas phase usually takes one of two approaches; (1) using a particular semiconductor as a catalyst or sensitizer with a narrower bandgap and (2) doping TiO₂ to establish inter-band states that allow electron transfer to the conduction band in several.

Table 6. Preparation and use of photocatalysts based on TiO₂ and other nanomaterials in the degradation of organic compounds.

Pollutants	Catalysts	Preparation method	Reference
Rhodamine B	TiO ₂ /RGO	Hydrothermal	(Wang, Shi et al. 2011)
Methyl orange	Kaolinite/TiO ₂	Calcined at 200 °C	(Wang, Shi et al. 2011)
Rhodamine B	TiO ₂	Electrospinning	(Liu, Ye et al. 2010)
Methylene blue	TiO ₂ /GO TiO ₂	Low-temperature hydrolysis	(Liu, Bai et al. 2010)
Methylene blue	Grapheme/TiO ₂	One-pot solvothermal	(Zou, Zhang et al. 2011)
Methylene blue	Grapheme/TiO ₂	Non-hydrolytic sol–gel approach	(Lee, Hong et al. 2012)
Rhodamine B	TiO ₂ /SnO ₂	Sol–gel	(Abdel-Messih, Ahmed et al. 2013)
Methylene blue	TiO ₂ /Ti-F	Titanium isopropoxide and NaF with nitric acid at pH 2	(Lázaro-Navas, Prashar et al. 2015)
Methylene blue	TiO ₂ /Zn/Pd	Isopropoxide of titanium and nitrate of zinc with nitric	(Rico-Oller, Boudjemaa et al. 2016)

		acid at pH 2 and reaction with [Pd(cod)Cl ₂] co-precipitation	
Methylene blue	CuO		
Methylene blue	CuO	natural irradiation method	(Vasantharaj, Shivakumar et al. 2021)
Methylene blue	Zinc acetate dehydrate and cetrimide	co-precipitation	(Mydeen and Vasantha 2019)
Dye wastewater	Zn (NO ₃) ₂ and NaOH	Wet chemical method	(Aremu, Akintayo et al. 2021)
Methylene blue	Fe ₃ O ₄ /Polyacrylic acid Cadmium		
Congo red (CR) and Methylene blue (MB) dyes	ZnO-ZnFe ₂ O ₄	Bio-hydrothermal method /Batch adsorption method	(Sahoo, Panigrahi et al. 2021)
Cationic dye/ Methylene blue	doping of Samarium, ZnFe ₂ O ₄	co-precipitation method	
			(Keerthana, Yuvakkumar et al. 2021)

423

424 The adsorption of organic compounds is an important parameter for evaluating the degradation

425 rates of photocatalytic oxidation (Zhang, Zhang et al. 2012). Semiconductor-based nanomaterials

426 have been found to have effective photocatalytic activity for removing different organic pollutants

427 from wastewaters. Among the most common semiconductors, ZnO arises as one of the most

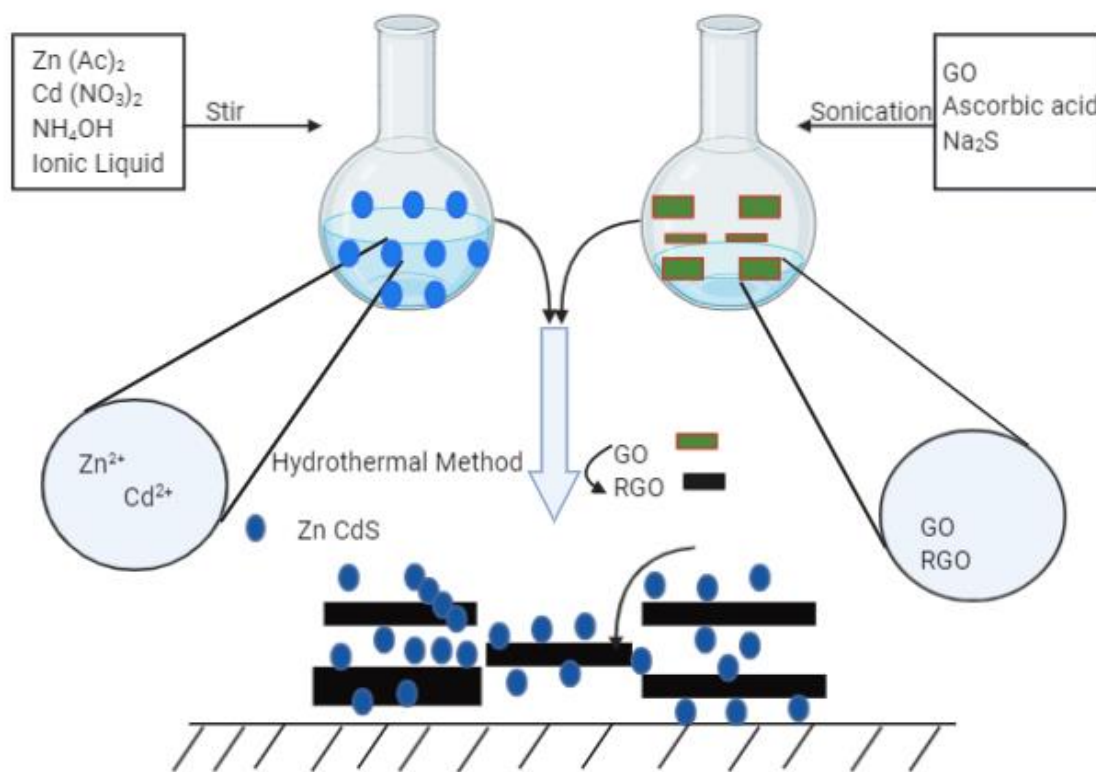
428 promising materials for photocatalysis. Some appealing properties of ZnO are its strong oxidation

429 capability, insolubility in water, low production costs, and photocatalytic activity in the near-UV

spectral region (Zhong. et al., 2021). Although ZnO is a good photocatalyst, there is room for improvement, such as making it easy to recover from an aqueous phase. The preparation of ZnO embedded into a magnetic substrate may become an interesting option to explore. The ternary oxide ZnFe₂O₄ is an appropriate choice as it presents magnetic properties, as well as photocatalytic and antibacterial action. This ternary oxide is also able to maintain its magnetic properties even at high temperatures (Maynez-Navarro et al., 2020)

However, due to its unstable nature or inefficient illuminations application of the commercial visible light photocatalyst adoption becomes limited. Many studies investigated novel materials with high stability and high-quality degradation of organic contaminants as highly effective material under visible light, and active photocatalysts (Chen, Xiao et al. 2012). ZnCdS nanoparticles coated with reduced graphene oxide (RGO) sheets were prepared and were measured their photocatalytic activities on the 2D platform to photo-degrade organic dyes. Fig. 5 shows the experimental method used to prepare RGO-ZnCdS.

447



448

449 **Fig. 3.** The experimental procedure for the preparation of RGO-ZnCdS (Shen, Huang et al. 2015).

450 **4 Antimicrobial nanomaterials**

451 Disinfection methods currently available can effectively remove pathogens when applied to
 452 drinking water (Kidd, Westerhoff et al. 2020). The research works carried in recent decades have
 453 filled gaps in the water treatment methods between disinfection and disinfection by-products
 454 (DBPs) (Mazhar, Khan et al. 2020, Srivastav, Patel et al. 2020), (Tang, Long et al. 2020). Chlorine,
 455 ozone and chloramines are commonly used disinfectants in the water treatment industry. These
 456 disinfectants can, however, react with other substances and can lead to the generation of harmful
 457 DBPs, mostly carcinogenic (Verma and Balomajumder 2020). The antimicrobial techniques of
 458 such nanomaterials, their benefits, demerits, utility and significant research requirements for water

treatment are carefully considered in these review articles (Kidd, Westerhoff et al. 2020, Verma and Balomajumder 2020).

4.1 Antimicrobial action of TiO₂ nanoparticles

Titanium dioxide is a highly prevalent form of nanoparticle in drinkable water, surface water, and other water supplies for inactivating microbes. The antibacterial function of titanium dioxide is due to reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced. The created ROS damage protein and DNA, destroy the plasmic membranes and release dangerous ions, interrupt electron flow and interfere with the function of the respiratory system. The activation of titanium dioxide occurred by solar radiation due to which high UV-absorbance was observed which significantly increased solar disinfection. Titanium dioxide-based solar disinfection is a very slow method that can have a low proportion of UV absorption in sunlight. The solar disinfection of titanium dioxide is important for the application of solar disinfection of titanium dioxide to enhance the visible light absorption of titanium dioxide or UV-A (Gao, Zheng et al. 2019, Wang, Lin et al. 2020). Bacterial death in the dark was also shown by the titanium dioxide nanomaterial, suggesting that such mysterious pathways could be feasible.

4.2 Antimicrobial action of silver nanoparticles

Ever since ancient times, silver has been known for its antimicrobial effect. The use of silver nanoparticles is diverse in manufacturing uses, both in medical care and in external medicine. As an antifungal nanomaterial, silver nanoparticles have been used in recent years. The substance used for water decontamination is as follows: high and wide-ranging antimicrobial activity, health and growth (Albukhari, Ismail et al. 2019, Kumar, Mishra et al. 2020, Metreveli, David et al. 2020, Najafpoor, Norouzian-Ostad et al. 2020). Nano-silver particles deactivate essential enzymes due to the absorption of ions. These ions are formed by bonding silver and hydrogen -SH groups when

silver is ionized into water. The antimicrobial action of silver is illustrated in Fig. 3. Silver has the ability to break the cell membrane and prevent the mechanism of replication of DNA, as shown in Fig. 5. The toxicity of the silver nanoparticle depends on the rate at which silver ions are released. Silver ion release is influenced by the form, scale, padding and crystallographic facets. Pervasive ligands have higher toxicity and bioavailability when they are present. In ceramic micro-filters that can be used in developing countries silver nanoparticles have been used to shield bacteria.

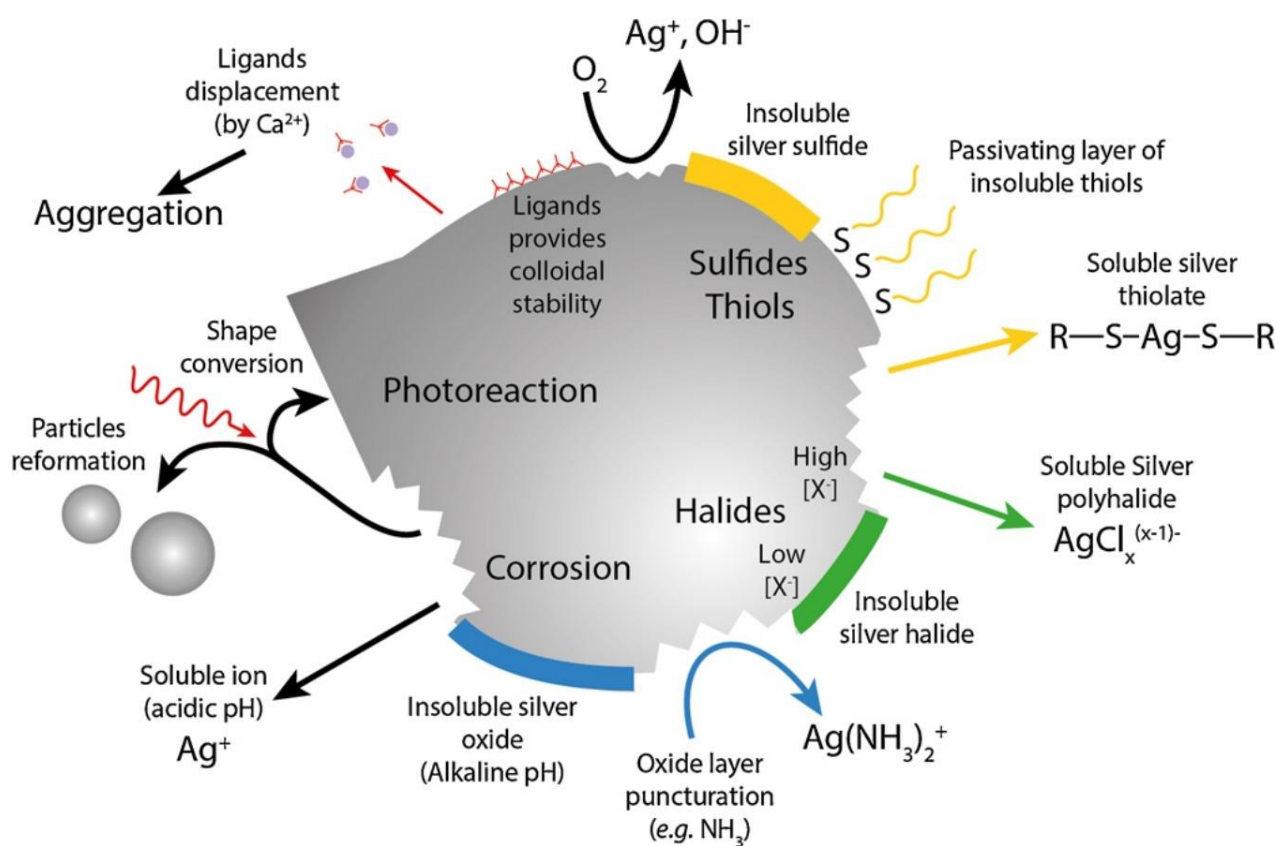


Fig. 4. Antimicrobial activity of silver nanoparticles (Le Ouay and Stellacci 2015).

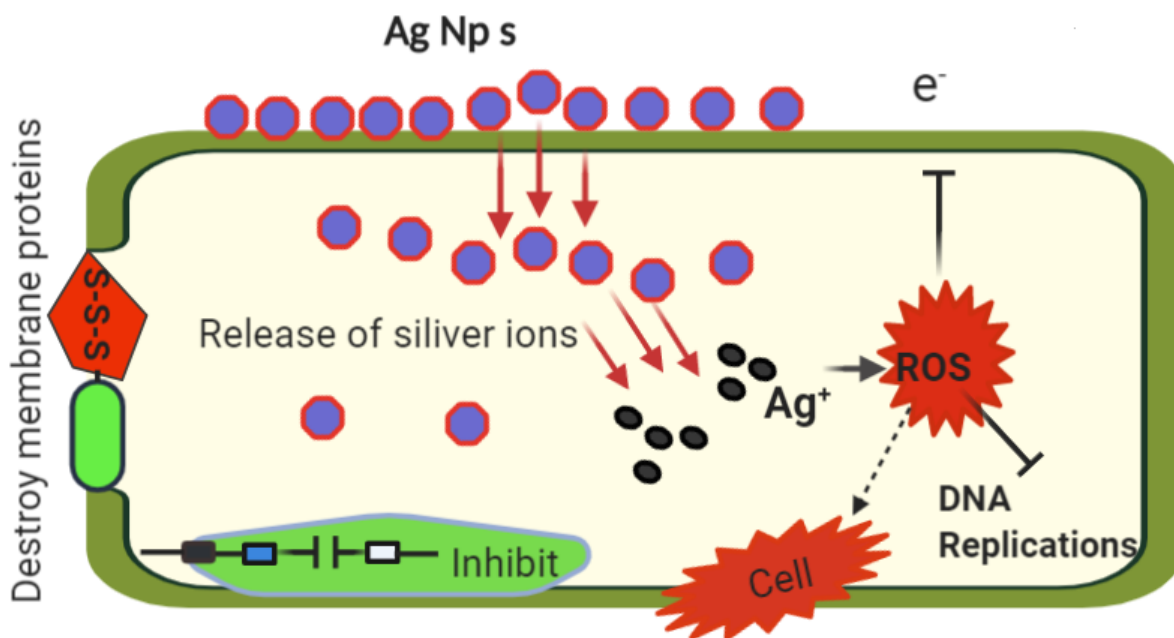


Fig. 5. Schematic diagram showing the mechanism of silver nanoparticles (Hamad et al., 2020).

4.3 Antimicrobial action of ZnO nanoparticles

Due to the high UV absorption potential and transparency of visible light, zinc oxide nanoparticles have been used in sunscreen lotions, paints and coatings. In a wide variety of bacteria, the nanoparticles of zinc oxide demonstrate excellent antibacterial efficacy. The photocatalytic production of H₂O₂ for the antimicrobial activity of zinc oxide has been proposed. Although there is an antibacterial activity of zinc oxide and Zn²⁺ nanoparticles, water species can be very susceptible to dissolved zinc (Rupa, Anandapadmanaban et al. 2019, Shkir, Al-Shehri et al. 2020). Due to vulnerable or insoluble characteristics, zinc oxide nanoparticles demonstrate a limitation in the treatment of drinking water.

5 Nanomaterials for heavy metal recovery

The development of nuclear energy has mitigated energy crisis and air pollution to a large extent. However, the excessive utilization of heavy metals like cadmium and uranium has resulted in the

release of these constituents into subsurface environments, leading to environmental contamination (Dong, Dai et al. 2018, Bayramoglu and Arica 2019). Thus, the recovery of these heavy elements from wastewater is important to ensure the sustainable development of nuclear-related energy and reduce its negative consequences on the environment. For the recovery of heavy metals, the traditional methods employed viz. ion-exchange, solid-liquid extraction, biological enrichment and reductive precipitation, sorption as a convenient method were extensively used (Sholl and Lively 2016). However, these methods had limited practical applications for expensive costs, complex operation, and low treatment efficiency (Tabushi, Kobuke et al. 1979). This paved a way to the development of nanomaterial-based adsorbents with highly efficient and superior selectivity that are significantly desirable (Yuan, Yu et al. 2019, Yuan, Niu et al. 2020).

Nanomaterial like metal-free graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) material has been demonstrated to be an effective heavy metal scavenger due to low cost, eco-friendly, high chemical and thermal stability (Hao, Chen et al. 2018, Hao, Zhang et al. 2019). Industrial wastewater containing heavy metals Like Hg, Cd and U are usually acidic, so it requires adsorbents of high stability. Advanced covalent organic frameworks (COFs) are connected by numerous strong covalent bonds that are highly stable in a range of aqueous phases. The regular channels and adjustable pore size make it easier for the adsorbed heavy metal ions to diffuse in COFs uniformly and be captured effectively. Huang et al., (Huang, Zhai et al. 2017) synthesized an extremely stable TAPB-BMTTPA-COF by integrating the methyl sulfide units onto the edge of the phenyl groups and then introducing S-containing functional groups onto the COF skeleton. The active sulfur sites could be fully exposed to capture Hg²⁺ with a saturated adsorption capacity of 734 mg/g (Dinari and Hatami 2019)

synthesized a novel N-enriched COF material through the condensation of triazine and trialdehyde that could easily coordinate with Cd^{2+} .

In recent years, there have been a few reports about COFs being used as adsorbents for heavy metals. Jiang et al. (Cai, Jiang et al. 2019) synthesized Q-graphene (QG)-scaffolded COFs to detect Cu^{2+} in solution and blood. Liu et al. (Jiang, Liu et al. 2019) synthesized TpPa-NH₂@EDTA by using EDTA to modify COF. TpPa-NH₂@EDTA has a good adsorption effect on metal ions, such as soft Lewis acid (Ag^+ , Pd^{2+}), borderline Lewis acid (Cu^{2+} , Ni^{2+}) and hard Lewis acid (Fe^{3+} , Cr^{3+}) with removal efficiencies of >85% within 5 min. Zhong et al. (Zhou, Zhong et al. 2018) synthesized a fluorescent thio-ether functionalized COF(TTB-COF) to pre-concentrate Au selectively in low concentrations with excellent stability. The strong coordination interaction between Au ions and S atoms in the thio-ether groups dominates the high Au adsorption (560 mg/g). (Yang, Chang et al. 2020) synthesized EB-COF: Br and applied it to remove As(V) from nearly neutral water. The $=\text{N}^+$ sites could produce electrostatic interaction with arsenate anions through the formation of hydrogen bonds with C-C=O groups.

6 Reuse and retention of nanomaterials

Reuse and retention of nanomaterials are two important parameters for the design of the nanotechnology-enabled device. This has come into a scenario because of the amount and related public health concerns. The application of separation devices or immobilization of nanomaterials in the treatment system has proven to help achieve this goal. Out of the separation processes, membrane filtration allows continuity in processing or continuous processing with small chemical use leaving behind a small footprint as well. Poly catalytic or catalytic ozonation shows more resistance to UV (Chin, Chiang et al. 2006, Hossain 2021) and chemical oxidants, ceramic

membranes which have proven to be more advantageous than polymeric membranes. As the suspended particles can be retained by the membrane, these particles in a receiving system are detrimental to the membrane hybrid reactor system and hence reduce the reaction efficiency significantly.

Thus, to reduce the turbidity, initial water treatment is usually required. Other platforms like resins and membranes can also be used to immobilize nanomaterials to avoid further separation, but these techniques have led to a notable reduction in treatment efficiency. The need of the hour is the developmental research for simple and low-cost methods for nanomaterial immobilization and separation so that separation efficiency and performance are not compromised. One of the efficient methods is low field magnetic separation. However, it can be only applied to magnetic nanoparticles. To date, science has succeeded in learning just a bit about the release of nanomaterials from nanotechnology products although large expectations are there regarding the potential release depending on the method of immobilization and separation mechanism used. The nanomaterials embedded in a solid matrix are expected to have a minimal release until disposal.

Nanomaterials treated on a treatment system, surfaces are more likely to be released in a relatively fast and complete manner without applying downstream separation. Nanomaterials dissolution may release metal ions, and hence the careful control is needed (like by coating and size and shape optimization). The major technical hurdle that has remained challenging is the detection of nanomaterial release for risk assessment. Information about detection methods is outside the reach of this paper and the subject is alluded to in many recent reviews (Tiede, Boxall et al. 2008, Linley and Thomson 2021). In complex aqueous matrices, few advanced and expensive methods can

detect nanomaterials, but these usually have several limitations. The development of quick, sensitive and selective nanomaterial analytical methods is the broad need of the present time.

7 Safety, toxicity and environmental impact of nanomaterials

Despite numerous benefits, the effect on humans and the ecosystem of nanoparticles remains one of the serious issues of nano-technology based water treatment due to their toxic nature (Table 7) (Gardner and Dhai 2014). This is due to a lack of knowledge and our less understanding of the behavioural consequences and future nanotechnology (Gardner and Dhai 2014). The key issues are danger and vulnerability to harm, along with the chemical and biological effects on humans and the environment. Hazards include leakage, spillage, circulation and nanoparticle aggregation. The properties such as shape, sizing (dimension), reactivity, etc. can make them harmful to living organisms, although these are the properties that actually make them useful (Hillie and Hlophe 2007, Eldessouky and Ali 2021). Nanoparticle introduction into the bloodstream or through skin, inhalation, ingestion, etc. can travel to various vital organs and eventually damage them (Ali 2012). The toxic nature of the nanoparticles leads to strong reactivity of chemicals and the development of ROS possible only from metal oxides and CNTs.

This results in damage to membranes, DNA and proteins due to oxidative stress and inflammation due to generated ROS (Nel, Xia et al. 2006, Eldessouky and Ali 2021). When absorbed on the body surface, nanoparticles can alter enzyme mechanisms and certain proteins (Hubbs, Mercer et al. 2011). By agglomeration, nanoparticles demonstrate their environmental toxicity. Risk evaluation is necessary because scientists lack awareness of the ecological threat of nanoparticles (Gardner and Dhai 2014). Before the use of nanoparticles begins on a wide scale in water purification, it is important to address major challenges, such as safety assessment, large-scale

manufacturing facilities, safe waste disposal and energy proficiency (Gardner and Dhali 2014). The behaviour of nanoparticles in the human body needs to be known and addressed. More time is taken to address the concerned challenges, more will be the large-scale usage of nanoparticles delayed in water treatment.

Table 7. Self-toxic effect of nanomaterials.

Nanomaterial	Self-toxic effect observations	Reference
Carbon black Composite/TiO ₂ /Al ₂ O ₃	More toxic at the level of microns	(Hubbs, Mercer et al. 2011)
Au/Carbon composite	Lower-range non-toxic	(Jia, Wang et al. 2005)
Carbon, Al ₂ O ₃ composites, and metal	Concentration- and time-dependent.	(Ajadary, Moosavi et al. 2018)
Ag/Carbon composite	Dose and time-dependent but toxic	(Karlsson, Cronholm et al. 2008)
CdSe quantum dots	Acute toxicity observed	(Ray, Yu et al. 2009)
Hexadecylcetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB)	Extremely poisonous in certain concentrations	(Takahashi, Niidome et al. 2006)
Fe ₂ O ₃ and composite carbon nanotubes	Toxic effects and damage to DNA at the lowest concentrations	(Karlsson, Cronholm et al. 2008)
Single and multi-walled carbon nanotubes	Increase in toxicity at concentrations above 15 µg/cm	(Taju, Majeed et al. 2014)

8 Conclusion and future recommendations

Nanotechnology has emerged as a suitable and ideal method in the scenario of developing water treatment technologies. Nanomaterials present great opportunities in the field of water treatment due to their distinctive characteristics and convergence that could efficiently remove organic compounds, microorganisms and metal ions from water. Carbon-based nanoparticles viz. activated carbons, multiwall carbon nanotube, metal bases and COFs find tremendous applications to be used for the removal of wastewater pollutants including heavy metals. The development of modified nano-materials, their oxide and hybrid nano-based frameworks is the need of the hour to mitigate waste-water treatment issues. The challenges related to nanotechnology-based water treatment strategies include high cost, technical constraints and potential risk to humans and the environment. To address these challenges, and extensive research collaboration among government, research centres, industries and investors is desired. Overcoming the mentioned limitations would meet the criteria of green and sustainable chemistry. Further, nanotechnology-based water treatment technologies need to be developed continuously which could provide robust solutions to address the problems of water treatment. In future, nanomaterials are expected to offer great scope in environmental remediation and wastewater treatment.

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