

# 1 **Surfactants-based remediation as an effective approach for removal** 2 **of environmental pollutants—a review**

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## 15 **Abstract**

16 Deterioration of environmental quality and equilibrium by rampant industrial expansion,  
17 accelerated urbanization and unchecked population growth has become a high-priority  
18 concern. The release of an alarming number of toxic polluting agents such as volatile  
19 organic compounds, dyes, heavy metals, pharmaceuticals, pesticides, industrial wastes,  
20 and personal care products due to natural or anthropogenic activities pose direct adverse  
21 effects on human health and living entities. This issue is inescapably increased because  
22 of the lack of efficient technologies for the proper disposal, management, and recycling  
23 of waste. It is of paramount importance to track alternative solutions to address these  
24 pollution problems for an eco-sustainable environment. Conventional remediation

25 techniques are either inefficient, cumbersome or restricted due to certain techno-  
26 economic limitations. Environmental compatibility and high pollutant-removal efficacy  
27 make surfacnats valuable for removal of organic pollutants and toxic heavy metal ions  
28 from different mediums. In this review, we present recent and up-to-date information on  
29 micelles/surfactants-assisted abatement of a vast number of toxic agents of emerging  
30 concern from water/wastewater including volatile organic compounds, personal care  
31 products, pharmaceutically active residues, toxic metals, dye pollutants, pesticides, and  
32 petroleum hydrocarbons. Based on the literature survey, it can be concluded that  
33 micelles-assisted water and soil treatment technology can have a better future on large-  
34 scale decontamination of wastewater. Though bio-surfactants are environmentally  
35 friendlier matrices and have successfully been employed for environmental  
36 decontamination; their large-scale applicability is challenging owing to high costs.  
37 Additional research efforts on the development and employment of novel bio-surfactants  
38 might render wastewater treatment technology greener, smarter and economical.

39 **Keywords:** Pollutants; Environmental impact; Removal strategies; Micelles;  
40 Biosurfactants; Volatile organic compounds; Pesticides; Petroleum hydrocarbons

41

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 Although the industrialization is inextricably linked with the progress of any country, these  
44 are often criticized as the major source of releasing hazardous wastes into the aquatic  
45 ecosystems. The controlled and/or uncontrolled discharge of industrially polluted  
46 wastewater results in assimilating toxic contaminating agents to the groundwater, surface  
47 water, and subsurface soils. The presence of dye pollutants, pharmaceuticals and

48 personal care products, toxic metals, volatile organic compounds, pesticides, and  
49 petroleum hydrocarbons in industrial wastewater undesirably compromise the quality of  
50 water and manifests a serious menace to human beings and aquatic creatures [1-5]. A  
51 range of conventional techniques including adsorption, precipitation, membrane  
52 separation, solvent extraction, reverse osmosis, adsorptive ultrafiltration (UF),  
53 electrochemical, and ion exchange are being employed for the treatment of wastewater  
54 [6-9]. Environmentally compatible surfactant based approaches have received great  
55 attention for removal of pollutants from different mediums because of their eco-  
56 sustainability, high pollutant-removal efficiency, versatility, and work based on “green  
57 chemistry” principles [10-13].

58 Micellar enhanced ultrafiltration (MEUF) integrates the enhanced processing efficiency of  
59 ultrafiltration and higher selectivity of reverse osmosis [14]. In the process of MEUF, the  
60 addition of surfactants into the polluted water samples above their critical micelle  
61 concentration (CMC) result in the formation of micelles, an aggregate of large amphiphilic  
62 surfactants. Organic contaminants are solubilized in the micelles hydrophobic core using  
63 hydrophobic interfaces, whereas the metals tend to adsorb on the oppositely charged  
64 surface through electrostatic attractions [15-17]. Surfactants are a unique class of  
65 amphiphilic molecules comprising of head and tail, which exhibit a robust attraction for  
66 polar and non-polar species. They operate in solvents by reducing their surface tension  
67 as they accumulate on the surface and play a role of a bridge between the air and liquid.  
68 In water-based solutions, the surfactants tend to accumulate at critical micelles  
69 concentration [18, 19], and such aggregates are composed of 50-100 monomers [20].  
70 Recently, the application of biosurfactants has achieved a lot of attention from

71 environmental scientists and researchers. They have gained priority than synthetic  
72 surfactants owing to their high effectivity, non-toxicity, biodegradability, renewability, and  
73 wide environmental acceptability [21]. An array of various contaminants of emerging  
74 concern including pharmaceutically active residues, VOCs, personal-care products, toxic  
75 metals, organic contaminants, dyes, pesticides, and petroleum hydrocarbons can be  
76 removed by the use of (bio) surfactants [22-25]. The pollutants-coupled micelles are then  
77 separated by ultrafiltration owing to their larger size than the actual pores of the filter. In  
78 this review, we have presented the literature survey related to micelles/surfactants-  
79 assisted abatement of an array of toxic agents of emerging concern from  
80 water/wastewater.

## 81 **2. Literature survey and selection criteria**

82 The multi-purpose/multifunctional wastewater treatment should be represented as a shift  
83 from one to more than pollutant control in wastewater according to the environmental  
84 protection strategies and global sustainable development approaches [26]. Greater  
85 interest should be devoted to technologies and new materials for treating a wide range of  
86 wastewaters such as dyeing and printing manure, domestic sewage, industrial waste  
87 effluent and pharmaceutical wastewater via real-time elimination of co-existing  
88 contaminants including organic moieties, pathogens, and inorganic compounds. At  
89 contemporary, an accelerated interest has been shown by researchers, around the globe,  
90 to deal with the environmental pollutants accompanied by the development of  
91 sophisticated technologies/materials in removing these contaminants. These  
92 developments are being carried out through synergism and multi-functional  
93 nanotechnology techniques/tools/agents used for wastewater treatment [27, 28].

94 A detailed bibliographic study was carried out by using different keywords. Several  
95 databases (Science Direct, Francis & Taylor, PubMed, Scopus, Google Scholar, Web of  
96 Science, SciELO, SciFinder, Wiley, Springer, Google) were explored for collecting  
97 information. Various concerned books, full text manuscripts and abstracts were consulted  
98 and details were collected for this review article.

### 99 **3. Wastewater; pollutants sources and health hazard effects**

100 Various pollutants including volatile organic compounds (VOCs), natural organic matter  
101 (NOM) commonly known as dissolved organic matter (DOM), nutrient ions (phosphate  
102 and nitrate) personal care products, pharmaceuticals products, petroleum hydrocarbons,  
103 pesticides, dyes and heavy metal ions *etc* are responsible to contaminate the water.  
104 These toxic substances destroy the water quality and make it unsuitable for irrigation and  
105 domestic purposes. This review focused on potential role of micelles and surfactants for  
106 wastewater treatment. The ground and surface water from reservoirs and rivers is  
107 available as drinking water. Therefore, geographical divisions through which water flows  
108 may contain organic and inorganic pollutants. Similarly, the water can also be  
109 contaminated by manmade chemicals or the presence of microorganisms. Up till now,  
110 several human activities have increased the water pollution; these actions may be  
111 categorized as sewage treatment, industries, and agricultural runoff. The NOM involves  
112 the materials generated after the transformation and decomposition of dead animals and  
113 plants due to microbial activity. These contaminants may be present in the form of  
114 undissolved and dissolved organic matter (DOM) that can be distinguished on the basis  
115 of separation techniques. The organic materials that easily pass through 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  filtration  
116 membrane are known as DOM. Whereas the material left behind on the membrane is

117 termed as particulate organic matter (POM). Generally, the DOM is originated from  
118 terrestrial and soil-based materials, synthetic organic substances and surface water  
119 derived phytoplankton/algal materials *etc.* Likewise, the presence of DOM in groundwater  
120 reduces the optical clarity of water due to enhancement in turbidity. On the other hand,  
121 inorganic pollutants such as phosphate, nitrates and heavy metal ions are also present  
122 to a significant concentration in wastewater. Only a small amount of these pollutants can  
123 be removed by existing wastewater treatment processes. Intrinsically, the amount of  
124 these chief nutrients are still on the higher side in treated sewage compared with the  
125 irrigation water from other sources. In agriculture areas pesticides are responsible for  
126 water contaminations and they also pose serious health issues.

127 Similarly, hydrocarbons and petrochemicals are also present as pollutants in wastewater  
128 causing severe health risks to aquatic and human health. There is another class of  
129 pollutants, which also plays an important role in water pollution known as “emerging  
130 pollutants” (EPs) EPs occur naturally or synthetically during the preparation of various  
131 chemicals which are not monitored on regular basis in the environment. Preparation and  
132 disposal of new and existing chemicals can generate new sources of EPs respectively.  
133 The main reasons for these contaminants are wastewater treatment plants, verbose  
134 sources of atmospheric deposition, crop or animal dumps, and their production services.  
135 The main classes of these may include disinfection byproducts, pharmaceuticals,  
136 industrial chemicals, pesticides, dyes, etc. Nevertheless, their existence is supposed to  
137 exert substantial adverse effects on the environment and humans.

138 More than 700 toxic constituents have been listed by WHO in marine environments that  
139 can be characterized as EPs, including their transformation and metabolite products.

140 Furthermore, the presence of heavy metals and dyes posture a serious concern for the  
141 quality of water. Waterborne mercury (Hg), copper (Cu), arsenic (As) and chromium (Cr)  
142 are major contaminants as their existence in drinking water is described to cause various  
143 types of diseases such as peripheral vascular disease, hyperkeratosis and human  
144 cancers (lung, skin, liver and probably bladder), etc [29-41]. The occurrence of  
145 manganese and iron at greater concentrations also causes significant turbidity and  
146 discoloration in water [42]. Figure 1 illustrate the life cycle distribution of various  
147 contaminants.

#### 148 **4. Removal of organic pollutants by using surfactant**

##### 149 **4.1. General facts and removal strategies**

150 A class of amphiphilic molecules comprising of head and tail amphiphilic are known as  
151 surfactants. These molecules have a robust attraction for polar and non-polar species.  
152 They operate in solvents by reducing their surface tension as they gather on the surface  
153 and play a role of a bridge between the air and liquid. The micellar aggregates have  
154 different sizes and shapes above CMC while no micellar structure exists below CMC  
155 (Figure 2). The removal of various contaminants of emerging concern including, volatile  
156 organic compounds (VOCs), pharmaceuticals and personal care products, toxic metals,  
157 organic contaminants, dyes, pesticides and petroleum hydrocarbons can be carried out  
158 by the use of surfactants as eliminating moieties. Many surfactants have already been  
159 reported for the removal of these contaminants. For example, Rodríguez-Escales et al.  
160 (2013) [43] utilizes the non-ionic surfactants (Tween Crew, BS-400, and 80Gold) for the  
161 removal of a mixture of pyrene phenanthrene, fluorene, and anthracene. The group  
162 explored a removal range of 57 to 99% for the soils with <15% fine materials, while the

163 soil having 20% of fine materials has less eliminating ability. It was observed that the  
164 surfactant can only interact with certain PAHs in the mixture. In consequence, increasing  
165 the concentration of surfactant may not certainly increase the removal of PAH. On the  
166 other hand, synergically using biodegradation and desorption ensures improved PAH  
167 removal equated to approaches like “pump and treat”, which separate remediation and  
168 desorption. Likewise, the same surfactants were used for pyrene desorption in soils  
169 having different grain sizes. The amount of materials and surfactants to be added should  
170 closely relate with one another. The results obtained by Tween 80 show the highest  
171 desorption compared with Gold crew and BS-400 [44]. In another approach, Hussein and  
172 Ismail (2013) [45] investigated the role of TX-100 and Tween 80 for the enhanced removal  
173 of pyrene, anthracene, and fluorine, where the desorption capacity of TX-100 was higher  
174 than that of Tween 80. Therefore, it can be concluded that the hydrophobicity of PAHs  
175 plays a vital role in controlling the desorption of soil. Synthetic surfactants including SDS,  
176 Brij 35, and Tween 80 have been meticulously assessed for their character in the  
177 remediation of contaminated soils. These surfactants successfully carried out the  
178 elimination process of PAHs. The only concern was their toxicity and non-  
179 biodegradability. Therefore, more emphasis is being retained on bio-surfactants.

#### 180 **4.2. Removal of volatile organic compounds by surfactants**

181 Plants, microbes, animals, industrial and environmental activities are producing volatile  
182 organic compounds (VOCs) (ethyl-benzene, benzene, xylene, toluene, poly-  
183 chloroethylenes, poly-chloromethanes, and poly-chloroethanes) which are well-known  
184 pollutants responsible for causing infertility, respiratory diseases and mutagenicity. These  
185 are also responsible for the formation of smog by triggering various photochemical

186 reactions [46]. Despite known damaging effects of VOCs on the environment and health  
187 of living organisms, many industries are still using and producing them. Therefore, it is  
188 important to remove VOCs from contaminated soil and wastewater before their  
189 evaporation in air. Different methods including biological, physical and chemical are in  
190 practice for making sure the VOC-free environment [47]. Among all methods, the most  
191 efficient removal process under consideration is the surfactant-based absorption process  
192 for VOCs.

#### 193 **4.2.1. Removal of Chlorinated VOCs**

194 By using three different surfactants; sodium dodecyl-benzenesulfonate (SDBS), Turkey  
195 red oil sodium salt (TROS) and polyoxyethylene sorbitan monolaurate (Tween 20), a  
196 composite adsorbent was synthesized for the removal of chlorinated VOCs from gases  
197 exhausts. Comparatively, TROS has low surface tension so they showed 85% elimination  
198 of chloro-benzene in comparison to SDBS and Tween 20 [48]. For removal of 2,4,6-  
199 trichlorophenol (TCP) from waste materials of petroleum refineries, a batch-adsorption  
200 method was introduced by using surfactant modified bentonite (SMB). SMB showed  
201 improved adsorption potential for TCP by 2.3 times. From an initial concentration of 10  
202 mmol/L, the synthesized adsorbent showed the high potential of TCP removal (>99.0%).  
203 The monolayer potential of prepared adsorbent found to be 70.42 mmol/g, which was  
204 higher than commercially activated carbon (52.63 mmol/g) [49]. For effective removal of  
205 VOCs and carbon tetrachloride, the iron-based nanoparticle suspended carbon  
206 micro/nanofibers have been synthesized. Iron ions were found segregated and mono-  
207 dispersed by surfactants [50]. By spreading the silica-nanoparticles within the active layer  
208 of composite-membranes by a surfactant (Tween 40); an active hybrid membrane was

209 developed. High-penetration flux and maximum selectivity were observed by the  
210 membrane with 2 wt% concentration of surfactant [51].

211 For the removal of pentachlorophenol (PCP), the zerovalent iron composite with  
212 magnetic-biochar (ZVI-MBC) has been used. This composite material was found effective  
213 for efficient adsorption and dechlorination of PCP in discharge, which led to complete  
214 removal of PCP. Different tests (aging and leaching) endorsed the stability and durability  
215 of ZVI-MBC [52]. Saponins were employed for n-hexane remediation in a biotrickling  
216 filter (BTF),. When the n-hexane loading rate was decreased ( $120.0$  to  $47.80 \text{ g}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ), the  
217 removal potential was increased from 56.8-62.8% and 83.3-91.3% for BTF2 (without  
218 saponins) and BTF1 (with saponins) ,respectively. The removal efficiency increased  
219 (38.3-61.4% for BTF2 and 64.5-88.4% for BTF1) after increase of gas-empty bed contact  
220 times (7.5-30.0 s) [53]. In a small-bubble column, the absorption mechanism of benzene  
221 has been investigated [54].

#### 222 **4.2.2. Removal of phenyl ring based VOCs**

223 Different methods have been used for the removal of aniline from the wastewater [55]. By  
224 using poly(ether sulfone) membrane and an anionic surfactant SDS, an efficient and cost-  
225 effective methodology (MEUF) was developed for the remediation of low-molecular-  
226 weight organic contaminants (aniline). Because of lower CMC values, the anionic and  
227 non-ionic mixed surfactants (SDS and Brij 35) showed maximum (~80%) removal of  
228 aniline as compared to individual surfactants [56]. The same group of scientists also  
229 employed the MEUF method for simultaneous removal of the aniline and nickel from  
230 wastewater by employing the synthesized polysulfone-membrane and also commercially  
231 accessible NP010 and UFX5 membranes for highlighting the importance of micellar-size.

232 High elimination of nickel (97%) and aniline (70%) was obtained by small pore size NP010  
233 membrane as compared to UFX5 and polysulfone membranes. Results described that  
234 the aniline is encapsulated into the micellar core and interaction of cations with negative  
235 charged-exterior of DS micelle as portrayed in Figure 3. It is interesting to note that  
236 togetherness of nickel and aniline causes high removal of both of them as compared to  
237 their independent existence in solution [57]. MEUF methodology showed promising  
238 results for the removal of aniline from the wastewater matrix despite that complete  
239 removal of aniline was not obtained.

240 Different industries are releasing toluene-based contaminants that are highly toxic and  
241 can damage the nervous system, liver, kidney. Surfactants play an excellent role in bio-  
242 removal of toluene because they can solubilize hydrocarbons (HOCs) in aqueous  
243 systems [58,59]. Surfactants-enhanced remediation (SER) is also a potent method for the  
244 abatement of VOCs from contaminated soil and wastewater. This technique increases  
245 the VOCs solubility because reversible-surfactants have two active redox groups (Fc14  
246 and Fc12) above and below their CMC under both reducing ( $I^+$ ) and oxidizing ( $I^{2+}$ )  
247 conditions [60]. By ferrocenyl surfactants, the solubilization of toluene, benzene, and  
248 ethyl-benzene have been reported. The toluene solubilization was surfactant ferrocenyl  
249 in  $I^+$  was found 30% greater as compared to achieved in  $I^{2+}$  as well as by CTAB, SDS and  
250 Triton X-114 [61].

251 PCB can be removed from soil by mutual use of bio-surfactant and chemical-biological  
252 treatment phenomena. Application of microbial-surfactant (PS-17) and synergistic  
253 chemical-biological treatment by using  $H_2O_2$  and natural-group of microorganisms  
254 devastator polluted soil with PCB and insulating-oil have been studied. This treatment

255 resulted in a 47-50% removal of PCB. Combined application of bio-surfactant, oxidizing  
256 molecules and micro-organisms resulted in improved respiration of soil and activity of  
257 dehydrogenase (shown in Figure 4) as compared to the alone application of  
258 microorganisms [62]. An electro-dialytic-remediation methodology has been developed  
259 by using iron-based nanoparticles, saponins and Tween-80 surfactants for de-  
260 chlorination of PCB-polluted soil [63]. A group of scientists developed a potential method  
261 for remediating the soil polluted with PCBs. In this method, by using polyoxyethylene  
262 lauryl ether (Brij35) and hydroxypropyl- $\beta$ -cyclodextrin (HPBCD) first PCBs were extracted  
263 from soil by washing method and then degradation was carried out with titanium dioxide  
264 photocatalysis. According to the results of studies, the extraction percentage can be  
265 potentially increased by PCB chlorination and following HPBCD provides effective  
266 photocatalytic degradation of PCBs [64]. Similarly, another interesting electrokinetic  
267 technology linked with engineered-nanoparticles has been developed for the treatment of  
268 PCB-polluted soil. Three different surfactants, anionic (SDBS), non-ionic (Brij35) and a  
269 biosurfactant (rhamnolipid) were incorporated independently with nano-Pd/Fe stabilized  
270 by xanthan-gum for improving the solubilization of soil PCBs. With new stabilized  
271 nanoparticles, the maximum removal potential was obtained as compared to SDBS and  
272 rhamnolipid [65]. S, S-ethylenediamine succinic acid (EDDS) and saponin as combined  
273 surfactants were employed for PCBs extraction from polluted soil. Due to the synergistic  
274 performance of these surfactants, high removal efficacy was obtained. Enhanced  
275 solubility of PCB in saponin-micelle was attributed to EDDS [66]. By using the micro-  
276 emulsion technique, a composite material lecithin nano Ni/Fe was synthesized and tested  
277 on PCB-77 pollutant. Lecithin proved environment-friendly- biosurfactant and operated as

278 a vital part of micro-emulsion, which proved efficient for agglomeration of organic  
279 pollutants. Removal of PCB-77 occurred at a higher rate as compared to blank-carrier  
280 because composite material has characteristics of lecithin and bimetal [67]. Another soil  
281 remediation method was developed, which is called foam flushing, in which washings  
282 mobility is controlled by the foam. The solubilization phenomenon is involved in the  
283 removal of PCB by foam flushing. The combined usage of flushing, foam, water, and  
284 surfactant solution showed that this method potentially integrates the solution  
285 solubilization characteristics and foam's mobility control. From coarse sand, almost  
286 94.7% of PCB was eliminated [68]. Scientists determined the effect of foam-mobility upon  
287 elimination of PCBs along with various concentrations of the Triton X-100 (surfactant) and  
288 also contents of gas by two different sand samples. Foam flushing enhanced the PCB  
289 removal by flushing through grainy (79.4-85.1%) and fine (64.2-79.1%) sand. Presence  
290 of foam responsible for decrease the mobility and enhancement of sweep-efficacy results  
291 in increased removal of PCBs [69].

#### 292 **4.2.3. Removal of Phthalates**

293 Phthalates are volatile organic contaminants that destroy the environment and have  
294 adverse effects on human and animal health [70]. Mixed hemi-micelles solid phase  
295 extraction (MHSPE) had great potential for pre-concentration, extraction and  
296 determination of phthalates even at minor concentrations. The MHSPE method was  
297 developed with nanoparticles-capped mesoporous silica ( $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4/\text{meso-SiO}_2$  NPs) that  
298 worked as an excellent adsorbent for phthalates removal from polluted water. This  
299 method proved efficient for extraction and removal of phthalates (di-n-butyl phthalate,  
300 butyl benzyl phthalate, di-n-octyl phthalate, and di(2-Ethylhexyl phthalate). This may be

301 attributed to unique characteristics of adsorbent like large surface-area (570 m<sup>2</sup>/g),  
302 uniform mesopore size (2.8 nm) and superparamagnetism [71]. From the wastewater, the  
303 effective adsorption of diethyl-phthalate was obtained on SDS covered nano-sized  
304 alumina as compared to SDS-covered microsized alumina. This is attributed to a smaller  
305 size and increased surface binding energy. Adsorption phenomena were further  
306 facilitated due to the hydrophobic nature of mixed-hemimicelles [72].

#### 307 **4.2.4. Degradation of residual surfactants used for elimination of VOCs**

308 The micellar solution of surfactants play great role in removal of VOCs. Usage of surface-  
309 active agents as detergents and soaps cause damage to aquatic life and human health  
310 and disturb the ecosystem [73]. So it is important to protect the environment from  
311 hazardous effects of residual surfactants. So removal of residual surfactants is important  
312 phenomena. Colomer and his colleagues [74] determined the cytotoxicity and  
313 environmental-fate of lysine-based surfactant. This surfactant was pH sensitive and the  
314 sensitivity was found adjustable by changing their chemical structures using erythrocyte  
315 and fibroblast cells. By increasing the hydrophobicity and charge density of surfactant,  
316 the toxicity for erythrocytes was increased and *vice versa* results were observed in the  
317 case of fibroblasts.

318 Effective biodegradation of these surfactants occurred under aerobic conditions through  
319 the CO<sub>2</sub> headspace test (biodegradability test). On zebrafish larvae, the effects of cationic  
320 (1227), anionic (SDS) and non-ionic (AEO) were determined. Non-ionic and cationic  
321 surfactants were found toxic (1 µg/mL) to the locomotive activity of larvae, while anionic  
322 surfactant showed no effects. Exposure to nonionic AEO surfactant led to stunted height,  
323 smaller head size, and reduced eye size as compared to 1227 and SDS. Less expression

324 of *krox20* because of inhibited cell growth is responsible for the shorter size of the head  
325 [75]. Toxicity of three pre-manufactured and three commercially available detergents was  
326 assessed through different degradation tests as biodegradability (OECD301F),  
327 mutagenicity, *Vibrio fischeri*, and *Daphnia magna* toxicity tests. No mutation was  
328 observed in bacteria by detergents. Furthermore, little increase of micronucleus  
329 frequency was induced in the root cells of *A. cepa* by commercially available detergent  
330 (eco-labeled). The destruction of DNA was also noted by all tested pre-manufactured  
331 surfactants and also one commercial in human leukocytes. Further studies and testing  
332 are required for evaluating the mutagenic and toxic characteristics and degradation of  
333 detergents [76]. Biodegradation of surfactants is the safest method for the removal from  
334 marine and land environments [77]. Surfactants-based biological degradation may be  
335 carried out through microorganisms that consume these molecules and use them as  
336 carbon and energy sources. Two different steps are involved in the biodegradation of  
337 surfactants. During the first step, structural variations occur, which involves the  
338 breakdown of the hydrocarbon chain. During the second step, the primarily degraded  
339 products are converted into minerals, water and carbon dioxide [78]. Studies suggeste  
340 that degradation capacity of biosurfactants and their stability in soil was higher as  
341 compared to synthetic surfactants [79]. The oxidation of surfactant nonylphenol-  
342 decaethoxylate (NP-10) by two different methods (photo-Fenton and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/UV-C  
343 methods) was studied. Also, degradation products and toxicity levels were investigated.  
344 Less toxicity was found in the photo-Fenton method (12% inhibition) as compared to  
345 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/UV-C, which showed 27% inhibition. This was determined based on  
346 photoluminescence inhibition tests [80]. Anionic surfactants mainly linear alkyl-

347 benzenesulfonates (LAS) are very important in detergents and as well as in cosmetic  
348 products, however, their bioremediation to manage the pollution in the environment by  
349 conservative activated sludge methodology proved not so productive due to little  
350 production of foam and less degradation potential of microorganisms. Twenty different  
351 bacteria were isolated for degradation of LAS from the soil, which was surfactant polluted  
352 by taking the help of enrichment culture technique. Two bacterial strains; *Pseudomonas*  
353 *aeruginosa* (L12) ( $81.81\pm 0.8\%$ ) and *Pseudomonas nitroreducens* (L9) ( $81.33\pm 0.7\%$ )  
354 showed high degradation efficacy. At pH 7-7.5, these bacteria showed degradation of  
355 LAS concentration up to 0.05 g/L [81]. Researchers conducted a study to determine the  
356 degree of biodegradation of nonionic and anionic surfactants by a combination of  
357 ozonation and biodegradation method for excluding the surfactants especially linear  
358 alkylbenzene sulfonates (LAS) and alkylpolyglucosides. Benzene ring containing anionic  
359 surfactant was earlier oxidized as compared to non-ionic surfactant. Both surfactants  
360 showed reduced mineralization due to primary attack of ozone on CO<sub>2</sub> during the  
361 ozonation process. This phenomenon corroborated the efficacy of combined implication  
362 of biodegradation and ozonation for surfactant remediation [82]. Tehrani-Bagha  
363 investigated the degradation of synthetic surfactants as sodium dodecylbenzene  
364 sulfonate and a nonylphenol ethoxylate having 40 oxyethylene units by employing UV  
365 and ozonation method. Total organic carbon and chemical oxygen demand (COD)  
366 decreased 2-times *via* UV treatment and ozonation *vs* each process separately. This  
367 indicates partial oxidation and reduction of mineralization of surfactant solutions [83]. A  
368 series of four cationic surfactants (dicephalic) having different alkyl chain length (*n*C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>19</sub>  
369 to *n*-C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>31</sub>) along with various counterions as bromide, methylsulfate, and chlorides were

370 used to investigate their toxicity and bio-degradability. Below 1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> concentration,  
371 the tested cationic surfactants showed no antimicrobial activity against *Pseudomonas*  
372 *putida*, *Escherichia coli* (Gram-negative bacteria), *Rhodotorula glutinis*, and  
373 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (yeasts). Moderate activity was observed against *Bacillus*  
374 *subtilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Gram-positive bacteria). The chain length of the  
375 alkanoyl group in surfactants was responsible for variation in toxicity against *Vibrio*  
376 *fischeri* and EC<sub>50</sub> values in the range of 2.6-980 mg/L [84]. The degradation of LAE (non-  
377 ionic linear alcohol-ethoxylate) surfactant was studied under anaerobic conditions by  
378 adding 4.7-107.4 mg/L LAE to 535-882 mg/L synthetic organic substrate. Almost 98.5%  
379 of degradation of LAE was obtained [85]. Enhancement of solubility of fatty acid-based  
380 surfactants can be done by incorporating counter-ion choline as compared to sodium,  
381 and potassium soaps. It also enabled the long-chain derivatives to perform at ambient-  
382 temperature. The choline-based fatty acid soaps are highly biocompatible due to  
383 degradability of choline, but choline is prohibited in the cosmetic industry because they  
384 are classified as quaternary ammonium ion [86].

#### 385 **4.3. Elimination of personal care products and pharmaceuticals by surfactants**

386 Pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs) are a vast group of emerging  
387 pollutants [87]. These products are important because of their extensive presence in the  
388 environment and large production and consumption. Their improper removal from waste-  
389 water may diffuse into the soil and move to water reservoirs [88,89]. PPCPs are  
390 biologically active compounds that can persist and accumulate in organisms and posing  
391 serious health issues and cause ecological-toxicity. They are also called endocrine-  
392 disrupting chemicals as they cause estrogenic effects [90]. Pharmaceuticals include

393 veterinary and human-beings drugs used for illness treatment and these drugs consist of  
394 3000 various active ingredients [88]. Pharmaceuticals are released in the environment  
395 either as parent molecules or as transformed secondary metabolites. Personal-care  
396 products also consist of a broad range of compounds e.g. parabens, triclosan,  
397 benzophenones, and bisphenols, etc. These are used in many household products  
398 including detergents, plastics, disinfectants, toothpaste, sunscreens, shampoos,  
399 conditioners, lotions, preservatives, and some other products that are released in the un-  
400 altered condition in the environment [90]. Advanced technologies are required to remove  
401 PPCPs from sewage as conventional treatment plants failed to remove them effeciently  
402 because of their slow degradation [89,91]. The role of surfactants have been found  
403 promising for the removal of PPCPs. Emulsion-liquid membrane (ELM) integrating  
404 surfactants is gaining importance to eliminate PPCPs from wastewater. Selective  
405 permeability of solutes through membranes is based on this methodology. It comprised  
406 of emulsion globules consisting of internal phase trapped inside the membrane phase  
407 that only allows selective solutes from the external phase, which is the aqueous phase.  
408 In ELM, surfactants play a role to enhance the stability of emulsion to avoid the issue of  
409 rupture of membrane. Surfactants also inhibit leakage of emulsion [92,93]. Daas and his  
410 colleague reported the removal of ketoprofen and ibuprofen (>90%) from mineral, pure  
411 and sea-water medium with the help of emulsion-liquid membrane by using SPAN 80 as  
412 a surfactant, hexane (diluent) and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (internal phase). Another study reported the  
413 removal of paracetamol with ELM using surfactant Span 80 and an inner aqueous solution  
414 of potassium chloride [94]. Different studies were conducted [95-98], which showed that  
415 SPAN 80 (sorbitan monooleate) is the most efficient surfactant for removal of PPCPs by

416 using ELM system. Kerosene and hexane played the best role as membrane-phase or  
417 diluents mixed with surfactants. Sodium carbonate and sodium hydroxide were found  
418 preferable as internal phases at different concentrations. The role of extractants/carriers  
419 has also been studied to enhance the solute transfer to the internal phase [98]. For better  
420 selectivity and multiplicity, this ELM method is beneficial. Activated granular-carbon is a  
421 common choice for adsorption phenomena as it can potentially remove organic pollutants  
422 [99]. Different synthetic and natural adsorbents modified with the addition of surfactants  
423 to increase the adsorption of PPCPs have been reported especially with kaolinite,  
424 vermiculite, bentonite clays [100,101]. Clays are hydrophilic in their natural form, and are  
425 not effective for adsorbing non-polar organic and anionic pollutants [102]. Surfactants  
426 modify the surface-properties of such materials to boost up the adsorption of organic  
427 contaminants [103]. Hari and coworkers [2005] [104] reported the adsorption of different  
428 pharmaceutical drugs as norfloxacin, acetaminophen, nalidixic acid and carbamazepine  
429 in a natural subsurface material. Surfactants such as cetylpyridinium chloride (cationic)  
430 and Tergitol NP9 (ethoxylated nonionic) were employed. Surfactants enhanced the  
431 adsorption capacity of carbamazepine and acetaminophen. The adsorption of nalidixic  
432 acid was increased at a high pH level with the help of a cationic surfactant. Surfactant-  
433 assisted elevated removal of sulfonamide and tetracycline have also been inspected by  
434 using benzyldimethylhexadecylammonium (BDMHDA) micelles (cationic surfactants),  
435 which were pre-adsorbed on montmorillonite clay [105]. These have been reported as  
436 efficient candidates for organic contaminants removal [106]. Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)  
437 surfactant (anionic surfactant) has been documented for adsorptive removal of amoxicillin  
438 (antibiotic drug) from aqueous solution. An effective removal of 87.7% was recorded at

439 the optimal surfactant-concentration (10 mg/mL) for amoxicillin (4 mg/mL) in 40 min at pH  
440 4 and 50 °C [107]. Removal of PPCPs from complex matrices has been reported with  
441 surfactant-modified synthetic adsorbents. Cabrera- Lafaurie, and coworkers (2014) [108]  
442 incorporated the cetylpyridinium (cationic surfactant) together with transition metal ( $\text{Ni}^{2+}$ ,  
443  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ) into a Y-zeolite by controlling its hydrophilic character for better selectivity and  
444 uptake of carbamazepine and salicylic acid in wastewater. The adsorptive capacity of  
445 zeolite was increased from 0.03 to 3.9 mg/g after modification. Dong and coworkers  
446 [2010] synthesized zeolites from coal-fly ash and HDTMA and maximum adsorption  
447 potential for bisphenol (114.9 mg/g) was obtained as compared to zeolite fly-ash. For the  
448 removal of PPCPs, the surfactants have also been used in electro-coagulation flotation  
449 (ECF) [109]. Cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (cationic surfactant) has been employed  
450 for the removal of ketoprofen, ibuprofen, and diclofenac from wastewater. Without the  
451 addition of surfactant, the removal efficiency of ECF was found lower for ibuprofen,  
452 diclofenac, and ketoprofen (44%, 14%, and 10%), respectively. While surfactant addition  
453 significantly enhanced the removal capacity from 12% to 97%, 12% to 88%, and 6% to  
454 82% for diclofenac, ibuprofen, and ketoprofen, respectively [110].

#### 455 **4.4. Removal of toxic metals by surfactants**

456 The presence of heavy metals in aqueous system poses long-lasting dangerous effects  
457 for plants, aquatic life, humans, micro-organisms and animals. Metallurgy,  
458 pharmaceutical, leather, pesticide, fertilizer industries are the main cause of heavy metal  
459 contaminations. Weathering, erosion and fuel-burning also play the role of heavy metal  
460 adulterations [111,112]. Thirteen different metals Pb, Cu, Zn, As, Cr, Ni, Cd, and Hg are  
461 the most persistent pollutants listed by the United States Environmental Protection

462 Agency (USEPA) [113-115]. The free or bound form of these heavy metals has high  
463 water-solubility and mobility along with high toxicity and mutagenicity. Biodegradation of  
464 organic contaminants is reduced by metal contamination and it affects the ecology and  
465 physiology of microbes and responsible for reducing soil fertility [115]. Application of  
466 surfactants in the removal of heavy metals has been studied by using different  
467 methodologies as soil-washing/extraction/desorption and phytoremediation, etc.  
468 Surfactants also showed capacity in ultra-filtration method, which can be increased by  
469 membrane pretreatment with surfactants/biosurfactants for metal ion removal. Similarly,  
470 the surfactant modified activated carbon showed 2-4 times higher potential for removal of  
471 metal ions as compared to plain carbon [116]. Biosurfactant's scope for the removal of  
472 metals is emerging because of their superior characteristics such as low toxicity, good  
473 biocompatibility, better degradation, and excellent stability in a wide range of pH and  
474 temperature with enhanced foaming quality (Figure 5).

#### 475 **4.5. Remediation of metal-contaminated soil by surfactants**

476 The role of surfactants for soil washing for the removal of metals is well known. Toxic  
477 metals can be removed by washing soil with pure-water along with various chelating  
478 agents, chemical additives and solvents. However, the treatment duration and low-  
479 availability because of interaction with particles of soil are the major limitations. For this  
480 concern, surfactants proved to minimize the time requirement and increase the  
481 effectiveness of the followed methodology. *Ex-situ* or *in situ* treatments may be included  
482 for the washing of soil with surfactants (Figure 6). In *Ex-situ* treatment, the soil is dug out  
483 and placed in a proper place, then the process is followed by washing with the help of a  
484 solution of surfactant/biosurfactant. While in the *in situ* treatment, firstly soil is treated with

485 surfactant followed by its relatively stable complexation with oppositely charged metal  
486 ions and then the movement of the resultant complex due to reduced interfacial tension.  
487 An ion exchange mechanism is used by charged surfactants, and micelles use  
488 electrostatic interaction [117]. Metals can be permanently eliminated, and recycled with  
489 less consumption of time [118]. Surfactant- enhanced soil washing for treatment of soil  
490 polluted with a high concentration of different metals (Cd, Ni, Cu, As, Zn and Pb) from  
491 industrial wastes by using 11 various kinds of surfactants has been studied [119]. Anionic  
492 surfactant Texapon N-40 showed higher removal of Zn (86.6%), Cu (83.2%) and Ni  
493 (82.8%). Tween 80 removed a high amount of Cd (85.9%), Zn (85.4%) and Cu (81.5%)  
494 and Polafix CAPB potentially removed the Zn (83.2 %), Ni (79%) and As (49.7%). By  
495 using additives as complexing agents or by varying the pH, the metals desorptions with  
496 surfactants can be supplemented. Wen and Marshall [120] reported that the use of  
497 ethylene-diaminedisuccinic acid (EDDS) (as an additive) with surfactant can mobilize Cd,  
498 Ni, As, Cr and Zn as well as organic pollutants during the washing process, whereas Ca,  
499 Fe, Cu, and Mn were found in residual-fraction. Washing treatment aided with  
500 ultrasonication can increase the removal of metals from soil. When EDDS was used at  
501 higher pH values, the removal of Zn and Pb was less efficient because of the formation  
502 of anionic hydroxide complex, while Cu and As were not lowered because of their  
503 association with iron oxides. Similarly, different surfactants as Triton X-100, SDS (anionic)  
504 and cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (cationic) were studied for their potential to remove  
505 metal ions in the presence of diphenylthiocarbazone (DPC), EDTA and at increasing pH  
506 level [121]. Under acidic conditions, the cationic surfactants showed excellent efficacy.  
507 Anionic and non-ionic type surfactants showed high desorption of Pb, Cd, and Zn. The

508 addition of EDTA increased the metal desorption efficacy while DPC inclusion lowered  
509 (2-4 times) the capacity. An increase in pH also decreased the metal removal capacity of  
510 surfactants [121]. Slizovskiy and coworkers reported the effect of pH on the removal of  
511 heavy metals by using 1-dodecyl pyridinium chloride (DPC) (cationic), oleyl dimethyl  
512 benzyl ammonium chloride, ammonyx KP (nonionic), and rhamnolipid surfactants. Up to  
513 95% of metals (Pb, Zn, Cd, and Cu) removal capacity was enhanced by acidification with  
514 EDTA or citric acid buffer [122]. Shin and Barrington [123] reported a combination of SDS  
515 and Triton X-100 with iodide ligand for the desorption of cadmium from polluted soil.  
516 Cadmium removal was augmented by an increase in the concentration of iodide ligand  
517 and surfactant, but no effect was detected on other metals (Pb, Cu, and Zn).

#### 518 **4.6. Removal of dye pollutants by surfactants**

519 There is number of dyes being used up in the textile industry during the dyeing and  
520 bleaching process of fiber [124]. It has been estimated that 10-20% of the dyes after being  
521 used find their way to wastewater while 50% of that reach the ecosystem after passing  
522 through different treatment steps [125]. All types of available dyes have different chemical  
523 structures with many stable aromatic functionalities that resist their degradation during  
524 the typical treatments [126]. Even a small quantity of these waste dyes cause serious  
525 toxicity for the water bodies. The process of photosynthesis in water is being affected and  
526 slowed down by the wastewater with some dye concentrations of even less than 1 ppm  
527 [127,128]. Furthermore, this exposure of dyes to the anaerobic reductive bacteria  
528 generate many carcinogenic compounds. Therefore, the effective removal of these dye  
529 pollutants is very meaningful. There are different methods for the removal of dyes, in  
530 which adsorption methods have been proved to be useful [126,128]. A very common dye

531 named Congo red (CR) was studied under different experimental conditions in a batch-  
532 mode sorption process. Different solutions of 20, 40 and 100 mg/L were made at pH 6.8  
533 at 30 °C and the effect of concentration on dye sorption was observed. Dye sorption per  
534 unit of soil mass was observed with respect to time, and equilibrium reached in 40 min.  
535 The results showed that the sorption process was rapid during the first 2 min and removal  
536 efficiency was about 63%, but it increases up to 91% after 10 min, by keeping the pH,  
537 temperature, and concentration of dye constant while the dose of sorbent between 0.1 to  
538 10 g. It shows that by increasing sorbent, the removal of dye increases because of the  
539 existence of more sorption sites and increased surface area of micropores [128]. A 2.5 g  
540 sorbent dose showed the best possible efficiency of dye removal up to 94% while further  
541 increase did not exhibit any difference [127]. The results showed the appropriateness of  
542 the sorption procedure for the deletion of dyes. By using surfactants, an increased dye  
543 removal efficiency was achieved. For this purpose, a surfactant named sawdust (SD)  
544 modified with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) was used to absorb the  
545 abstraction of CR. The effect contact time, solution pH, dose amount and starting  
546 concentration of the dye on the CR removal efficiency of CTAB. SD with CTAB  
547 modification at pH 6-8 removed maximum CR (around 98-99 %). Adsorption of CR dye  
548 molecule with negative charge increase due to enhanced positive sites by modified  
549 sawdust surface [129], Further study reveals that an adsorption system of three  
550 parameters sips was developed to make a model of adsorption data of two selected dyes  
551 (yellow and red dye), against a mesoporous alkoxy silane silica gel with sodium  
552 dodecylbenzene sulfonate (DBS) at 25-55 °C. The presence of attractive forces among  
553 dye and surfactant results in micellar aggregates of different sizes and stability levels,

554 they offer a mechanism about the attractive force between dye and fiber and also  
555 smoothens the dye adsorption onto the fiber surface [130,131]. CSL is a lipopeptide  
556 biosurfactant, which is extracted from a corn steep liquor [132]. It can form a sphere  
557 around the adsorbent, was added as enclosed beads of calcium alginate into the  
558 biocomposites based on biowastes. Several kinetic models were used to calculate the  
559 bio adsorption capacity of several biocomposites (modified by surfactants). These  
560 calculation results revealed that the adsorption capacity of the dye for a hydrogel consists  
561 of the hydrolyzed vineyard pruning waste and it can be increased by using natural  
562 detergents modified with biosurfactants. Due to the formation of a sphere of the surfactant  
563 around biocomposite, the rejection of a dye compound enhances up to 10%. The  
564 phenomenon of bioadsorption usually follows the model of pseudo-second-order kinetics  
565 in which the bioadsorption process involved the diffusion of both intraparticle and liquid  
566 film. Therefore, the biosurfactants are the most trustworthy candidates for the production  
567 of eco-friendly adsorbents for pollutant adsorption, specifically dyes. Evidence of sorption  
568 is an increase of the area of bio-surfactant modified biopolymer up to 26% was observed.  
569 Hence, we can conclude that adsorption causes biocomposites to grow in size as larger  
570 ones and to regulate the shape as well [133].

571 Ionic dyes with a high solubility level in wastewater make them a huge threat to the  
572 aqueous system [134-136]. Many types of dyes have been reported as a danger for  
573 human beings, flora and fauna [137-140]. Therefore, the proper treatment of some dyes  
574 (cationic Methylorange or MO, and anionic methylene blue or MB) is considered to be a  
575 must dealt issue before their release. Hence, the property of reverse micelles for the  
576 solvation of MO and MB dyes in the sodium dodecyl benzenesulfonate (SDBS)

577 hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (HTAB) in amyl alcohol medium were studied.  
578 Different concentrations of surfactants and dyes were studied for the removal of dyes  
579 from wastewater. Studies reveal that the elimination of dyes from the water phase to the  
580 organic phase majorly depends on the electrostatic force of attractions among ionic head  
581 groups of surfactant clusters and the oppositely charged dye molecules. The elimination  
582 of dye efficiency enhances by the enhancement of surfactant concentration.  
583 Encapsulation of more dye molecules takes place due to the increasing numbers of  
584 reverse micelles [141,142]. An increase in the surfactant amount along with 3% CaCl<sub>2</sub> as  
585 compared to 1% CaCl<sub>2</sub> enhances the removal efficiency of MO [143]. This behavior is  
586 constant with the salting-out effect, which causes the lower down of the CMC of  
587 surfactant. The complex formation of rhamnolipid with methylene blue and CTAB was  
588 analyzed to make a quantitative model for the study of all the rhamnolipid molecules in  
589 liquid samples [144]. Different molar ratios of rhamnolipid to combined methylene blue  
590 and CTAB was studied. Higher absorbance was observed with molar ratios of 1:1 and  
591 1:2, while a constant step increases all between the 200-800 nm wavelength range.  
592 Mostly, the absorbance increase recommends the colloidal nature of ion-paired  
593 complexes. Higher molar ratio 3.15:1 did not show any step increase of absorbance and  
594 a further increase of the ratios decrease the absorbance and cause a shift of 664 nm  
595 absorbance peaks to slightly shorter wavelengths.

596 A hybrid named as rhamnolipid-functionalized graphene oxide (RL-GO) was used for the  
597 elimination of MB from artificial as well as real wastewaters. The effect of the RL-GO  
598 quantity on the adsorption of MB can be observed in Figure 7. The MB removal  
599 percentage gradually enhanced by improving the quantity of RL-GO up to a specific limit,

600 but further increase in adsorbent amount caused a little increase in removal percentage.  
601 This is certainly because of the higher adsorbent amount, which is followed by a huge  
602 excess of the active sites, hence continuing to the lower use of the sites with a selective  
603 amount of MB solution [145,146]. It has been also investigated that the RL-GO is better  
604 than GO due to the sorption of MB under the specific experimental conditions because of  
605 bigger layer spacing and excessive oxygen-containing functional groups present in RL-  
606 GO as compared to GO. Spontaneity and endothermicity affiliated to the physisorption  
607 and chemisorption processes with respect to MB adsorption can be associated with the  
608 electrostatic attraction,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interaction, and hydrogen bonding between RL-GO and MB.  
609 The RL-GO is useful and potentially efficient adsorbent due to its recycling and higher  
610 capability for the removal of MB from wastewaters [147].

611 Oakes et al. studied the interaction of surfactant models and the azo dye at molecular  
612 level and briefly described the surfactant-dye interaction chemistry [148]. Different types  
613 of azo-dye interactions were investigated by changing the chain length and main  
614 functional head group of nonionic and ionic surfactants. A chain of prepared azo dye  
615 model was set to acquire the tautomeric types of the aqueous systems. The dyes possess  
616 a single pKa value, which was affected due to the presence of surfactant micelles [149].  
617 For the detection of the changes in tautomeric forms, the UV-vis spectroscopic technique  
618 was found to be very sensitive and it measures the pKa values of the dyes [150]. In this  
619 study, the nonionic surfactant C12EO5 was used primarily along with SDS as the anionic  
620 surfactant.

621 A UV-vis spectrum of 1-aryl azo-2-naphthol in water system with 10 pH and 25 °C showed  
622 a  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  at 484 nm confirmed the presence of this dye in the hydrazine tautomeric form

623 [150]. One more dye named as N-methylated orange 1 has structural similarity with 1-aryl  
624 azo-2-naphthol, depicts the decrease in the absorbance capacity of the main band by  
625 showing the appearance of an absorption peak at 420 nm that indicates the presence of  
626 equilibrium among the bulk dye in solution and it is solubilized in the micelles. By  
627 increasing the micelles concentrations, the equilibrium moves towards solubilized dye.  
628 The concentration of the nonionic surfactant was calculated by keeping the CMC value  
629  $6.5 \times 10^{-5}$  M and micelle aggregation number 100. This calculation helped with the  
630 complete solubilization and incorporation of a single dye molecule per micelle. No spectral  
631 changes were taking place by introducing a nonionic surfactant beyond CMC, which  
632 shows that it is unlikely that micelles contain more than one dye. Solubilization of the dye  
633 micelles and its spectral shifts towards a shorter wavelength shows a rich azo character.  
634 Further studies showed that the dye has an attraction for the nonionic micelles and it  
635 increases with the p-substituent in the order of p-CH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> > p-CH<sub>3</sub> ≈ p-Cl > H > p-OCH<sub>3</sub>.  
636 While it decreases when negatively charged substituents were introduced, such as p-  
637 SO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and p-CO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. Due to the electrostatic repulsion among sulfonate groups and  
638 micelles of SDS with a negative charge, the dye has less attraction for SDS micelles. For  
639 nonionic and anionic micelles, the pKa values increased above the CMC, which suggests  
640 that micelles possess a higher level of attraction for the undissociated dye. Several  
641 substituents are reluctant towards the dye with a more hydrophilic environment of  
642 polyoxymethylene shell of nonionic micelles with hydrazine tautomeric form.  
643 Contrariwise, a dye with a polar substituent make some way to penetrate the hydrocarbon  
644 center of nonionic micelles and undertake the azo tautomeric form. Some specific dyes

645 with azo tautomeric form in nonionic micelles represent a typical spectrum of the  
646 hydrazine tautomeric form in SDS micelles [150].

#### 647 **4.7. Role of Surfactants for removal of pesticides**

648 Pests are being controlled/destroyed by the pesticides and a huge number of benefits are  
649 linked with the pesticide use. However, they have drawbacks as well, especially toxic  
650 pollutants cannot be ignored. There are many common pesticides (pesticides is a  
651 common term used for the control or destruction of pests) that are very hard to remove  
652 from the contaminated soils due to their low solubility in water. Thus the remediation  
653 technique with the addition of a surfactant may prove useful. For this purpose, bentazone  
654 is a selective herbicide, because it destroys only plants that cannot metabolize it. In one  
655 report, soil polluted with bentazone were studied for the soil cleaning purpose by using  
656 three surfactants alkyl polyoxyethylene, with the same hydrophobic chain but different  
657 oxyethylene groups [151]. These surfactants showed a better pesticide recovery.  
658 Deactivation of the remaining bentazone was made by doing the photocatalytic treatment  
659 of the wastes in which the  $\text{TiO}_2$  particles with simulated irradiation of sunlight, which  
660 degrade the bentazone in a fixed period. Brij was considered to be the most effective  
661 surfactant with a fast reduction time for bentazone removal from the waste materials  
662 [151]. Biodegradation of hexachlorocyclohexane (HCH) is restricted due to  
663 biopersistence, low absorptivity, and solubility on the soil surface. Therefore, the HCH  
664 biodegradation might be improvised by using biosurfactants, in which the effect of  
665 surfactant is measured by the solubility, bioavailability and bio-deactivation of the HCH  
666 isomers. The effect of different biosurfactants was studied including rhamnolipid,  
667 sophorolipid, and trehalose lipid. Results showed that the solubility of the HCH isomers

668 increases sharply up to 3-9 folds by using sophorolipid and rhamnolipids with maximum  
669 HCH isomer yield at a concentration of 40 µg/mL. On the other hand, trehalose-containing  
670 lipid yielded maximum solubility at 60 µg/mL. Out of three surfactants, sophorolipid  
671 showed the maximum solubility and highest HCH isomer removal in the soil [151].  
672 Tributyltin (TBT, an organotin) is a natural pollutant used in pesticides. Due to its toxic  
673 effects, the removal of contamination is necessary [152].  
674 Tributyltin with its metabolites named dibutyltin (DBT) and monobutyltin (MBT), both acted  
675 as polar materials in the soil which have a small concentration of organic carbon where  
676 ion exchange is the main adsorption mechanism. For the enhanced desorption of  
677 butyltins, sodium dihexylsulfosuccinate (SDHS) was found better. More amount of SDHS  
678 is needed, while the TBT desorbed gave a synergistic effect, which is harmful to the  
679 bacterial life present in the soil. SDHS is less harmful, while below the CMC did not  
680 enhance the TBT desorption but increase the bacterial deactivation of TBT. Due to the  
681 formation of the complexes between TBT and SDHS monomers, the soil and TBT  
682 bacteria involvement was expected to improve. Hence, anionic surfactants at or it's below  
683 the level the CMC considered to be useful for the removal of TBT-contaminated soil [152].  
684 As anionic and ionic surfactants have their benefits, so Guo et al. [2009] [153] studied the  
685 combined effect of a surfactant by mixing nonionic/anionic surfactant solutions. (i.e.,  
686 sodium dodecylbenzene sulfonate (SDBS) and Tween 80) for p-nitro chlorobenzene  
687 (pNCB) removal of contamination from the soils. Out of many common vital chemical  
688 intermediates, pNCB is being used up in many organic synthesis procedures i.e  
689 pesticides, pharmaceuticals, dyes, and rubbers. But USEPA and china state  
690 environmental protection agency (SEPA) have mentioned pNCB in the hazardous

691 environmental pollutants list due to its harmful nature and non-degradability. Due to the  
692 low vapor pressure and aqueous solubility, pNCB easily gets adsorbed on the soil  
693 particle's surface. Research about the removal of pNCB from the polluted soil is limited  
694 and very small work has been reported [153], in which surfactant mixture e.g.  
695 SDBS/Tween 80 were used for the removal of pNCB from the soil. Results revealed that  
696 the amount of surfactant and the mixture SDBS/Tween 80 ratios majorly affects the  
697 solubility of water and the distribution constant of soil-water mix matrix, removal of pNCB  
698 and the absorption of soil's surfactant. As the mixed micelles form due to the addition of  
699 SDBS and it becomes more effective as compared to the Tween 80. Infact, SDBS  
700 increases the solubility of water and restricts the surfactant sorption on the soil. The low  
701 dosage of surfactant i.e <2 g/L of Tween 80 restricts the removal of pNCB while a greater  
702 amount of Tween 80 enhances the desorption of p-NCB from the soil. According to the  
703 reported work, the maximum p-NCB removal took place with equal ratios of SDBS/Tween  
704 80 mixture as 1:1 and showed potential for the removal of pNCB and similar chemicals  
705 [153].

#### 706 **4.8. Role of Surfactants for removal of petroleum hydrocarbons**

707 Petroleum hydrocarbons such as PAHs are some natural contaminators that are very  
708 problematic to remove. They are carcinogenic, and thus highly important to remove from  
709 the soil. We cannot ignore the importance of petroleum products as an energy source but  
710 their leakage and accidental spills are the reason behind the soil contamination. To  
711 overcome their pollution, temporary solutions are being adopted such as mechanical and  
712 burial methods. Surfactants are a good option for the cleaning of soil from petroleum  
713 contamination. A study about soil washing of the diesel contamination was made by

714 Khalladi et al. by using anionic surfactants and SDS [154]. The effect of SDS was found  
715 suitable above the 8 mM concentration. Diesel content remained constant even after 4-  
716 hour treatment of the soil with a surfactant solution, which shows that a specific time is  
717 required for the best interaction of surfactant with soil. Diesel fuel contamination from soil  
718 was removed 97% by keeping the rate at 3.2 mL/min. While biodegradability remains with  
719 artificial surfactants and SDS. Therefore, the removal ability of SDS was compared with  
720 biosurfactants such as rhamnolipid and saponin. The comparison showed that SDS was  
721 more competent for the elimination of crude oil from the soil than rhamnolipid and saponin.  
722 However, different surfactants have a different level of affiliation with components of crude  
723 oil, such as SDS can remove aliphatic hydrocarbons more efficiently, while saponin can  
724 interact well with aromatic hydrocarbons [155]. If we compare the cost then SDS is more  
725 expensive than biosurfactants but is more efficient. Similarly, Lai et al. (2009) [156]  
726 compared two biosurfactants i.e rhamnolipid and surfactin with artificially made  
727 surfactants (Tween 80 and Triton X-100) for the complete removal of petroleum  
728 hydrocarbons from polluted soils. They used 0.2% mass of biosurfactants i.e.  
729 rhamnolipids, surfactin and artificial surfactants i.e Tween 80 and Triton X-100. Results  
730 showed that the removal ability of total petroleum hydrocarbons from polluted soil was  
731 23%, 14%, 6%, and 4%, respectively, which proved that biosurfactants are far better than  
732 artificial surfactants. Han and co-workers [157] studied the effect of biosurfactants on  
733 weathered crude oil-contaminated soils (COCSs) [158]. A new class of nonionic  
734 surfactants named alkyl polyglucosides (APGs), which can be synthesized by recyclable  
735 sources e.g. sugars and fatty acids. Owing to their high biodegradability and low toxicity,  
736 APGs have gained substantial interest [158]. APG1214 with long alkyl chains were

737 considered to be more active as compared to APG0810 for the removal of crude oil. The  
738 crude oil removal efficiency (CORE) of APG1214 was further enhanced by adding the  
739 inorganic sodium salts. Investigation about various cleaning parameters e.g. time,  
740 temperature, speed and ratio between solution and soil was adjusted by using an  
741 orthogonal design, where at appropriate conditions, the CORE value reached up to 97%.  
742 GC/MS analysis showed that the amount of smaller n-alkanes (i.e., C16–C23) in the  
743 leftover crude oil elevated slowly. Moreover, the interaction of APG1214 with inorganic  
744 salts removes the bigger n-alkanes effectively while using them separately, an opposite  
745 effect was observed [158]. Natural gums are another option to be used as biosurfactants.  
746 They are very common polysaccharides present in woody plants or seed coatings and  
747 immensely involved in the industrial processes due to their emulsifying, stabilizing and  
748 microencapsulating features. Their use as biosurfactants was found suitable for the  
749 cleaning of soil due to diesel contamination by accidental pipeline leakage. The results of  
750 these biosurfactants were compared with synthetic ionic and nonionic surfactants [159].  
751 Natural gums were found effective as biodegradation enhancers after carrying out the  
752 biodegradation experiments. Especially, the guar gums with a very low concentration of  
753 2-ppm showed extraordinary results by showing 82% TPH diesel cleaning rate.  
754 Therefore, guar gums are the cost-effective alternatives for biodegradation-enhancers.  
755 The actual target of the surfactant enhancer's cleaning strategy is to remove the  
756 hydrophobic contaminant. Surfactant use for soil cleaning processes states about the  
757 cleaning ability of the surfactants in terms of their efficiency to form the contaminants  
758 concentrates in the liquid phase of effluents. Although the objective of the soil cleaning  
759 processes is to recover the original and clean sand, the ability of these pollutant removals

760 should be specific towards the sand. In addition, fractions of clay and silt are usually highly  
761 contaminated and need to be disposed off. The ideal way could be to concentrate these  
762 contaminants in these polluted sand fractions as opposed to the liquid effluent. It is found  
763 in one specific study that soil cleaning solution was analyzed on soil contaminated due to  
764 TPH and the results revealed that the most appropriate surfactant for the cleaning of  
765 gravel and sand was Sea Power 101, which were noted 54% and 65% improved over  
766 water-only cleaning/washing [160]. Also, Sea Power 101 removed 94% of the  
767 contaminants into the salt fractions. On the other hand, Tween 80 moved 95% extra TPH  
768 in the effluent phase as compared to the water-only washing, but it did not enhance the  
769 TPH cleaning abilities from the sand and gravel fractions. Therefore, if the amounts of  
770 contaminants are needed to be in the solid phase, the best and suitable surfactant should  
771 be chosen. The contaminant must be disposed off properly after getting removed from  
772 the soil. However, the liquid effluent from the surfactant enhanced removal process  
773 contains not only the pollutants but also surfactants. That is why for the removal of  
774 surfactants from effluents, bacteria may be used. But it is also important to note that  
775 surfactants might be harmful to the living microorganisms. Therefore, the surfactants must  
776 be treated biologically and their concentrations in the matrix should not increase more  
777 than 1 g/dm<sup>3</sup> because this amount is harmful to the removal of microorganisms and  
778 creates extra foam in the aerated bioreactors. Due to this reason, an extra method must  
779 be used for the disposal of the surfactants. For this purpose, pretreatments are planned  
780 for surfactant removal. One of those pretreatments is the Fenton reaction, which is an  
781 advanced oxidation process (AOP), in which an iron (II) salts mixture and hydrogen  
782 peroxide are mixed with wastewater. The advantage of this AOP is to form the highly

783 reactive oxygen species (ROS), which are suitable for the degradation of pollutants in  
784 wastewater [158]. Moreover, the Fenton reaction is cost-effective and tells the usefulness  
785 of biosurfactants. Although synthetic surfactants are more efficient than the biosurfactants  
786 but the overall method can be optimized by selecting the naturally existing biosurfactants.  
787 Biosurfactants could be the most appropriate and cost-effective for the removal of the  
788 contaminants from the petroleum-contaminated soils without using the additional Fenton  
789 reaction processes.

## 790 **5. Conclusions and future recommendations**

791 Herein, the rigorous efforts are being put forward for the removal of hazardous  
792 contaminants from wastewater. Conventional techniques used for the remediation of  
793 water/wastewater have certain limitations such as high cost, incompatibility, lack of  
794 versatility and their own environmental risks for the real-time elimination of organic,  
795 inorganic and metal-based pollutants, which hinder their wide range use in various fields  
796 of environmental decontamination. These allegations can easily be addressed by the use  
797 of surfactants-based remediation technologies, which can facilely encounter the stringent  
798 environmental regulations. These remediation technologies have the capacity of  
799 sustaining the requirements of integrity and stability of the systems. The wastewater  
800 treatment technologies advocate that surfactants can prove the future for treatment of  
801 wastewater. Because the micelles architecture can capture hydrophobic organic  
802 pollutants in their core and inorganic pollutants in their exterior. A wide number of  
803 surfactants have already proved a promising candidate for the decontamination of soil  
804 and wastewater from pharmaceuticals, heavy metals, personal care products, and dyes.  
805 The removal efficacy of the surfactants is greatly influenced by many factors including

806 micellar size, pH, soil chemistry, electrolyte content, ion-exchange capacity,  
807 concentration and nature of pollutant and aeration state. With the help of micellar  
808 structure of ionic and non-ionic surfactants, the production of clean water accompanied  
809 by the recovery of valued metals from industrial wastewater can be achieved without  
810 harnessing the environment. Based on the extraction percentage and distribution ratio,  
811 we can conclude that micelles-assisted water and soil treatment technology can have a  
812 better future on large scale decontamination of wastewater. On the contrary, the bio-  
813 surfactants are environment friendlier matrices and have successfully been employed for  
814 the purpose, however, their large scale applicability is still a challenging task owing to  
815 their high costs. Advance research on cost-affordability and development of bio-  
816 surfactants can make wastewater treatment technology greener and economical.

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#### 819 **Conflict of interest**

820 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

821

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1327 **Figure 1.** Life-cycle distribution of emerging (micro)-pollutants from sources to receptors  
1328 viewpoint. Potential ECs sources and pathways of ground and surface water pollution.  
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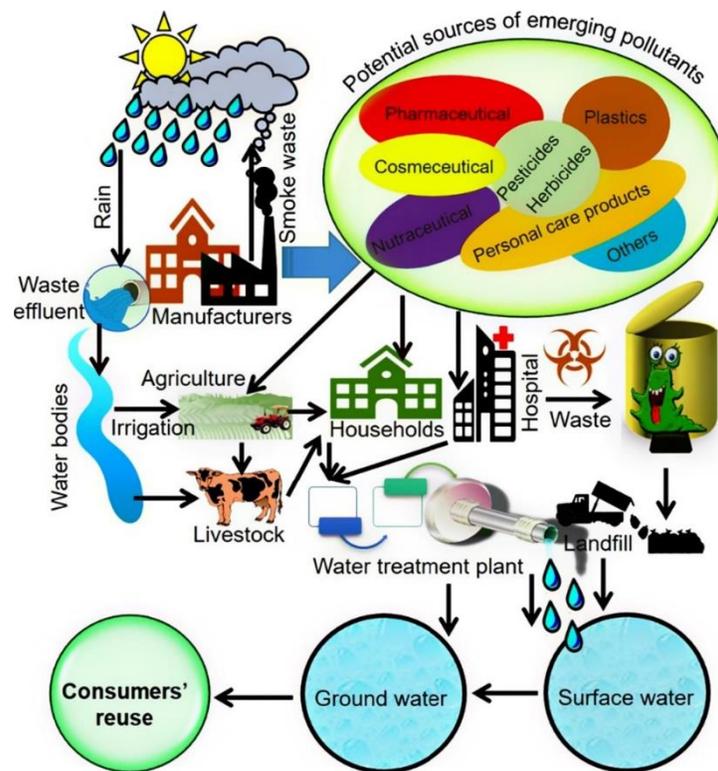
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1345 **Figure 7.** Effect of adsorbent dosage on adsorption capacity of MB (initial MB  
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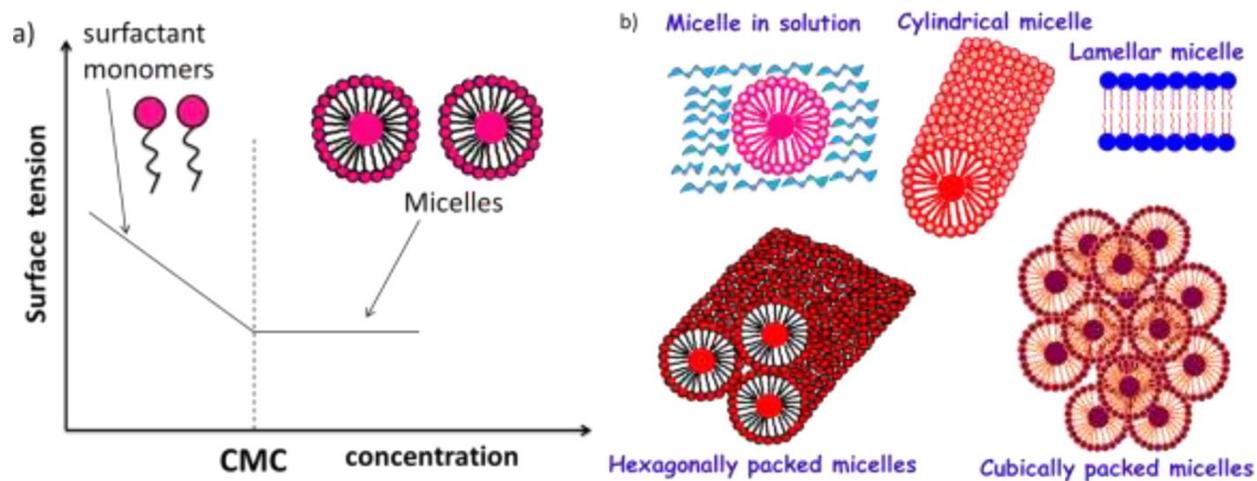
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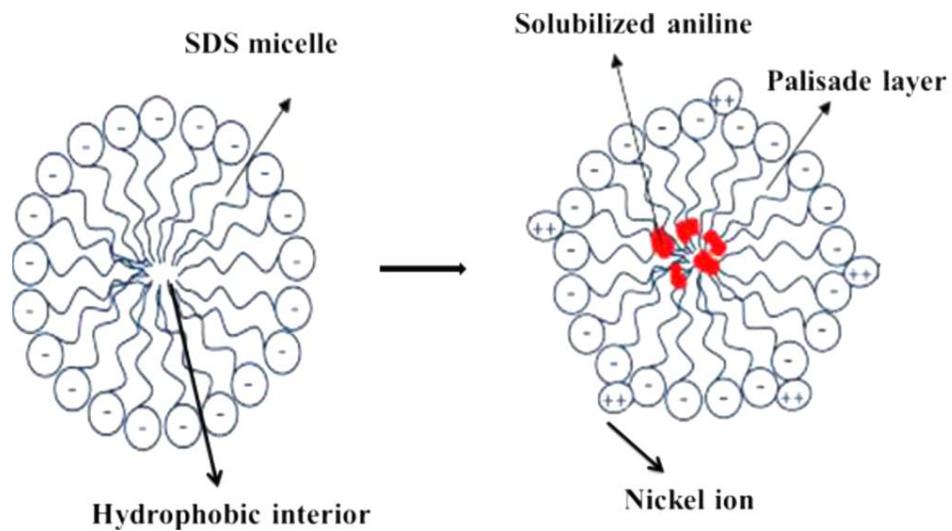
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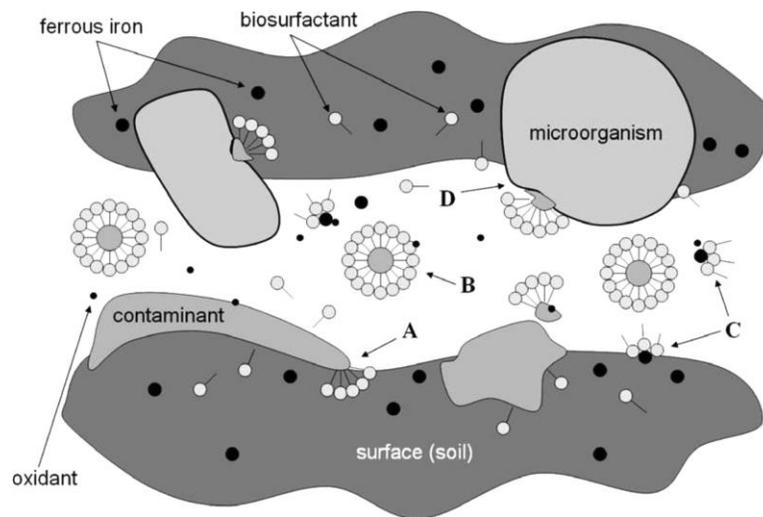
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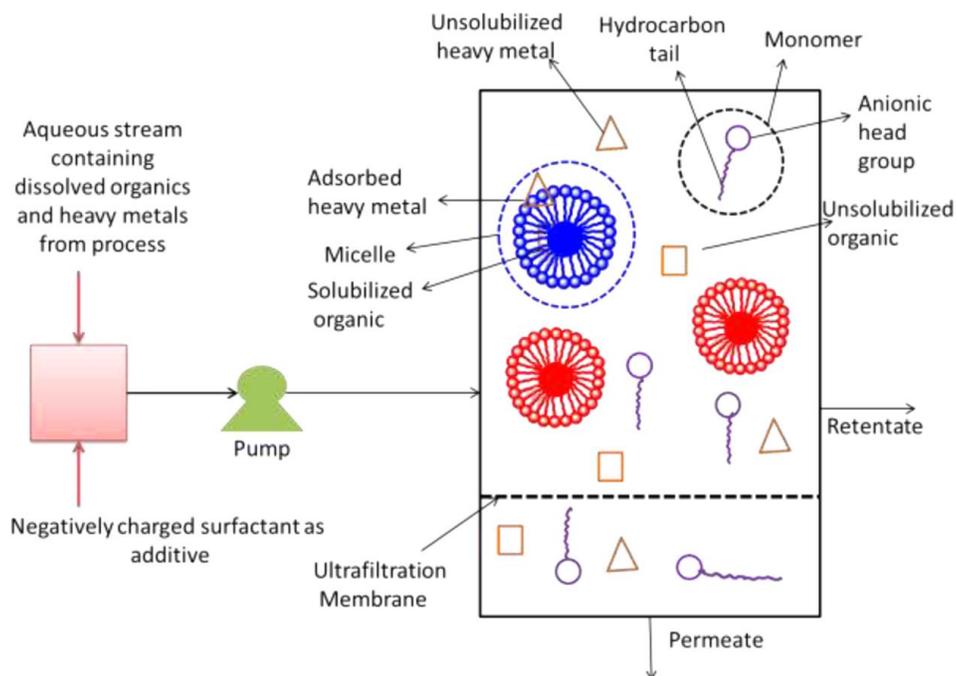
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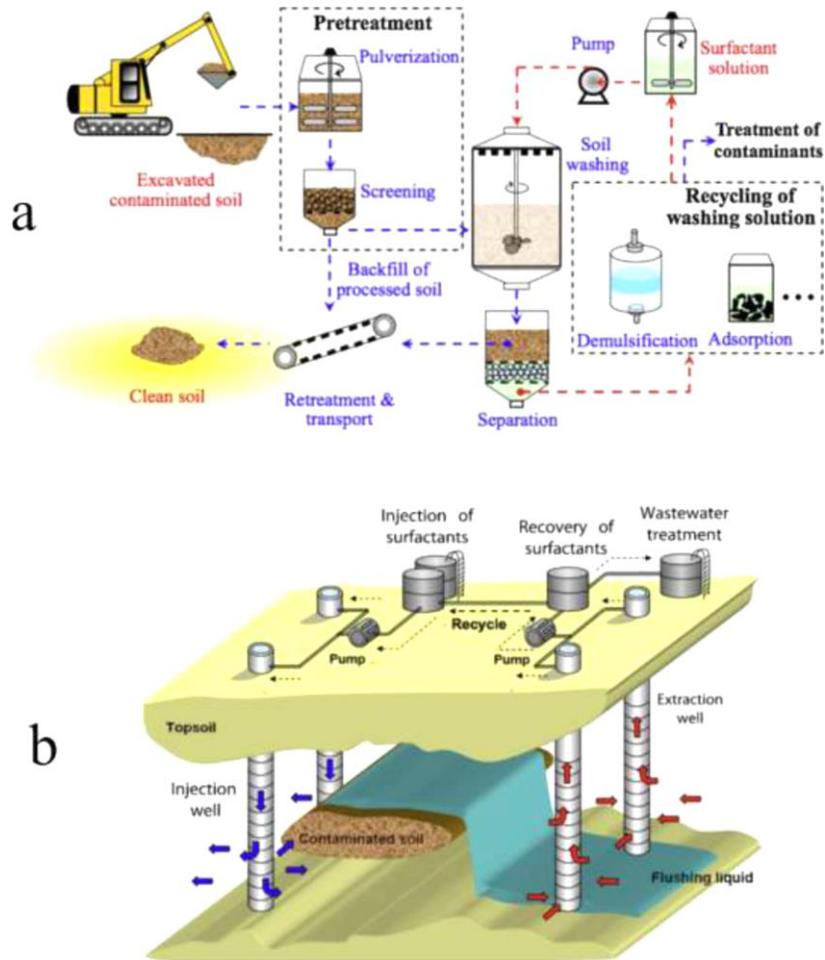


1380 **Figure 5.** Schematic representation of MEUF for the removal of heavy metals and organic  
1381 contaminants. Reprinted with permission from ref [41]. Copyright 2016 American  
1382 Chemical Society.

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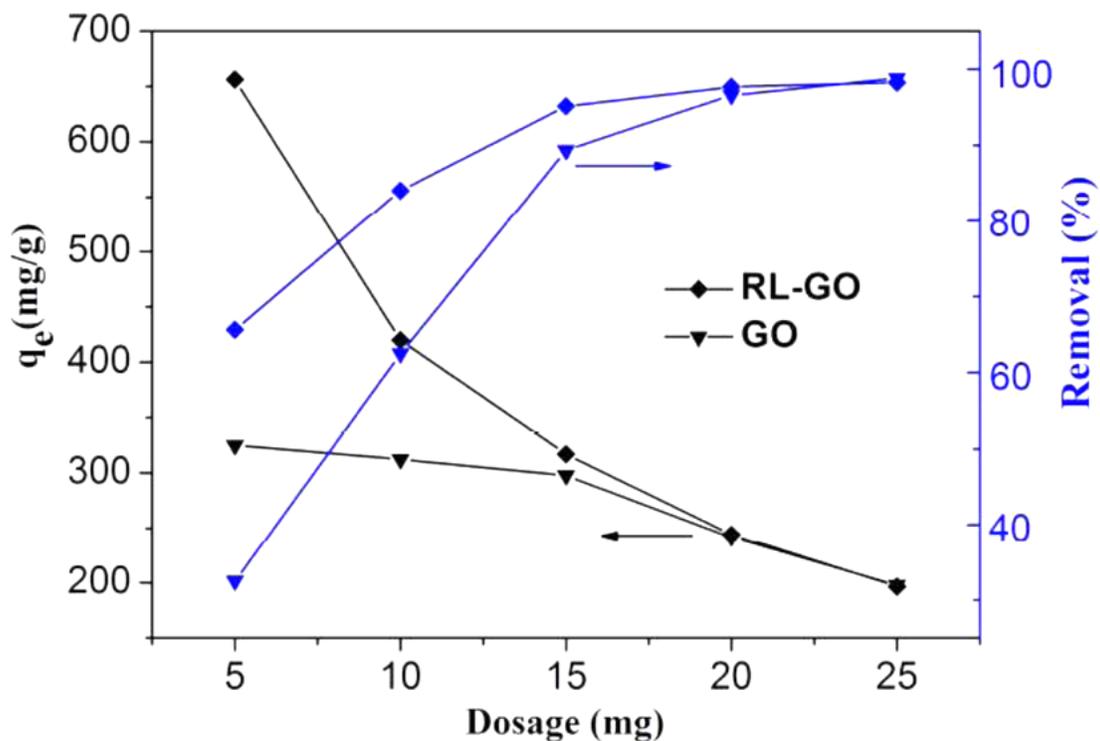
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1387 **Figure 6.** General method of (a) ex situ washing and (b) in situ flushing for soil  
1388 decontamination and recovery of surfactants. Reprinted with permission from ref [117b].

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1394 **Figure 7.** Effect of adsorbent dosage on adsorption capacity of MB (initial MB  
 1395 concentration 200 mg/L; temperature 298 K; pH value 7.3; and contact time 24 h).  
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