

Critical Review on The Development in Waste Water Treatment Technologies

Asha Rani<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Chemistry, Mukand Lal National College, Yamunanagar-135001

*Abstract*

Presently, anthropogenic compounds like domestic and agricultural waste and industrial wastewater are contaminating numerous water resources. Nowadays, more concern is rising about how wastewater contamination affects the environment and health. The contamination has been removed using a number of standard wastewater treatment procedures, such as chemical coagulation, adsorption, and activated sludge, but there are still significant drawbacks, particularly the high operating costs. Due to its inexpensive operation and upkeep, aerobic wastewater treatment is becoming more popular as a reductive medium. Additionally, it is simple to obtain, efficient and capable of pollutant degradation. The principal pollutants in wastewater, such as halogenated hydrocarbon compounds, heavy metals, dyes, pesticides and herbicides are removed from wastewater using wastewater treatment technologies which are reviewed in this paper.

*Keywords:* Anthropogenic compounds, Aerobic, Waste water Treatment, Waste Water Treatment Technologies.

**Introduction**

The establishment and maintenance of a variety of human activities depend on a steady supply of clean water. Aquatic life and agricultural irrigation are two ways that water resources provide useful food. The majority of the world's water sources are, however, contaminated by the liquid and solid wastes that are produced by industry and human activity. Water will become one of the most in-demand resources in the 21<sup>st</sup> century as a result of rapid growth in the global population (Day D., 1996). A large portion of the world's population will reside in cities by the year 2013. (UN, 1997). There will be 23 megacities with populations of over 10 million by the year 2000, with 18 of them located in the developing world (Black, 1994). The issues with delivering municipal services and water sector infrastructure, including the provision of both freshwater resources and sanitation services are at the heart of the urbanization phenomenon. At this time, it is extremely difficult for engineers, planners and politicians to provide housing, healthcare,

social services and access to basic human requirements infrastructure including clean water and effluent disposal (Black, 1994; Giles and Brown, 1997). As the population of humans grows, more demands will be made on the resources already available, posing a larger threat to environmental resources. According to a report by the Secretary-General of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD, 1997), neither developing nor developed countries are currently using fresh water sustainably and global water usage has been increasing at a rate of more than three times that of global population growth, which has a negative impact on a variety of social, economic and environmental issues.

Despite just making up 3.29 million km<sup>2</sup> (2.4 percent of the world's land area), India is home to more than 15% of the world's population. Additionally, India is home to 500 million animals or nearly 20 percent of all livestock worldwide. However, the nation's entire annual utilizable water resources are only 1086 km<sup>3</sup> or 4% of the world's total water resources (Kumar et al., 2005). Groundwater and surface water combined have annual utilizable resources of 690 and 396 km<sup>3</sup>, respectively (Ministry of Water Resources, 1999). India's water resources are under increasing stress as a result of the country's rapid population increase and rising water consumption and the amount of water available per person is steadily declining. Surface water availability per person in India was 2300 m<sup>3</sup> (6.3 m<sup>3</sup>/day) in 1991 and 1980 m<sup>3</sup> (5.7 m<sup>3</sup>/day) in 2001; however, it is predicted that this will drop to 1401 and 1191 m<sup>3</sup> by the years 2025 and 2050, respectively (Kumar et al., 2005). The country's predicted total water use in 2050 is 1450 km<sup>3</sup>, which is more than the 1086 km<sup>3</sup> that is currently available.

The discharge of waterborne waste from the home, industrial and non-point sources transporting undesirable and unrecovered compounds is a major way that civilization's wastes end up in water bodies (Welch, 1992). Despite the fact that wastewater has been collected since the beginning of time, its treatment is a relatively new invention that dates to the late 1800s and early 1900s (Chow et al., 1972). However, the well-recognized instance of John Snow in 1855 in which he established that a cholera outbreak in London was caused by sewage-contaminated water supplied from the Thames River, is where modern knowledge of the necessity for sanitation and treatment of polluted waters began (Cooper, 2001). Treatment and discharge policies may differ dramatically across developed nations, between consumers in rural and urban areas and between users in high- and low-income metropolitan areas (Doorn et al., 2006). The most widely used

wastewater treatment methods in industrialized countries are lagoons and centralized aerobic wastewater treatment plants for both residential and commercial wastewater.

In the majority of developing nations, the levels of wastewater treatment vary. Domestic wastewater can be processed in closed or open sewers, pit latrines, septic systems or centralized facilities before being dumped into uncontrolled lagoons or waterways (UNEP, 2002). While major industrial facilities may have thorough in-plant treatment, there are occasions where industrial effluent is released directly into bodies of water (Carter et al., 1999; Doorn et al., 2006). The majority of domestic and industrial wastewater is released untreated or merely after initial treatment in many developing nations. Around 15% of the collected wastewater in Latin America is treated there (with varying levels of actual treatment). In Venezuela, 97% of the sewage is released directly into the environment (Caribbean Environment Programme, Technical Report, 1998). Even in a highly industrialized nation like China, sewage is discharged without treatment in roughly 55% of cases (The People's Daily, Friday, November 30, 2001). The bulk of Tehran's population, which lives in a Middle Eastern nation that is comparatively developed, has completely untreated sewage poured into the city's groundwater (Tajrishy and Abrishamchi, 2005). Momba et al. (2006) reported that in South Africa, where some level of wastewater treatment is observed, the poor operational state and inadequate maintenance of most of the municipalities' sewage treatment works have resulted in the pollution of various water bodies, posing very serious health and socioeconomic threats to the dependents of such water bodies. The vast majority of sub-Saharan Africa lacks wastewater treatment (Sci-Tech. Encyclopaedia, 2007).

Given its rapid technological advancement and expanding economic system, modern civilization is increasingly threatened by its own actions that pollute the environment (Singh et al. 1989). With a total territory of 3.29 million square kilometers and a population of over One billion, 29 percent of whom reside in metropolitan areas scattered among 5162 towns, India is the seventh-largest country in the world. India has the second-largest population of technical and scientific professionals in the world, thanks to its abundant natural resources and expanding economy. Indian regulators are faced with a difficult choice between economic development and environmental sustainability due to pollution by small-size businesses. Urban regions' unchecked

population development has made designing and expanding sewage and water systems increasingly challenging and expensive (Looker, 1998).

On a small scale, bio-scrubbers called aerobic-activated sludge reactors have been utilized to remove odorous air (Bowker, 2000). Little information is known on the actual performance of these systems, with a wide range of worries about lowering settling efficiency due to changes in filamentous organisms and bacterial flocks, despite multiple good reports from full-scale installations in North America (Burgess et al. 2001). These worries are allayed in MBRs, where physical filtration takes the place of the microbial solution's gravitational settling. Additionally, contact time, bubble size and reactor design all affect how odorous gases diffuse and bio-convert (Burgess et al. 2001). Submerged MBRs use gas and liquid scouring to clean the membrane surface and embed the membrane unit within the bioreactor. Booster fans can be added to modern livestock farms that already have ventilation and blowing systems to raise the outflow pressure. When biofilter beds (compost and wood chips) were examined for their ability to remove odors, this idea was investigated in earlier studies (Mann et al. 2002).

### **Status of wastewater technology in India**

16,652.5 MLD of wastewater were produced by 299 class-1 cities. About 59 percent of this is produced by 23 metro areas. Roughly 23 percent of the wastewater produced in class-1 cities is contributed by the state of Maharashtra alone and about 31 percent comes from the Ganga river basin. Only 72% of the generated treated wastewater is collected. Out of 299 class-1 cities, 160 have sewerage systems that cover more than 75% of the population and 92 have systems that cover more than 50% of the population. Sewage facilities are available to 70 percent of class-1 cities' total population, up from 48 percent in 1988. Open, closed or piped sewer systems are the three different types. Only 4037.2 MLD (or 24 percent) of the 16,662.5 MLD of wastewater generated is treated before release; the remaining 12,626.30 MLD is disposed of in an untreated manner. Only forty-nine cities have primary and secondary treatment facilities, compared to twenty-seven that only have primary treatment facilities.

### **Why is there a need for sewage treatment?**

In order to clean wastewater, complex organic molecules must be broken down into simpler, stable and odorless substances using either physical, chemical or biological methods (biological

treatment). The following are the negative environmental effects of discharging untreated wastewater into groundwater, surface water bodies, and/or lands:

1. A significant amount of foul gases may be produced as a result of the organic compounds in wastewater decomposing.
2. If untreated wastewater (sewage) with a lot of organic matter is dumped into a river or stream, the stream's dissolved oxygen will be used up to meet the waste-water's Biochemical Oxygen Demand (BOD), which will lead to fish deaths and other unpleasant impacts.
3. Nutrients found in wastewater may also encourage the development of aquatic plants and algal blooms, eutrophication lakes and streams.
4. Many pathogenic or disease-causing microorganisms and poisonous substances that live in the human digestive tract or may be present in some industrial waste are typically present in untreated wastewater. Where such sewage is disposed off, it could contaminate the land or the aquatic body.

#### **Domestic, industrial and municipal wastewater reuse**

The irrigation of road plantings, parks, playgrounds, golf courses and other municipal applications of treated wastewater are only a few examples (Bouwer, 1993). Cooling systems, agricultural uses (irrigation and aquaculture), the food processing industry and other high-rate water uses are examples of industrial wastewater reuse (Bouwer, 1993b; Khouri et al. 1994; Asano and Levine, 1996). Dual distribution systems will soon supply high-quality, treated effluents for toilet flushing to hotels, commercial buildings etc. in Middle Eastern nations where water is scarce (Shelef and Azov, 1996).

Wastewater is being used in India for flushing, air conditioning system cooling, irrigation, gardening, boiler feed and process water for businesses (Chawathe and Kantawala, 1987). The development of water-efficient technology is encouraged in China and recovered urban wastewater is encouraged to be used first in agriculture before being used for industrial and municipal purposes (Zhongxiang and Yi, 1991). In order to generate "urban amenities" like green space, reclaimed wastewater is used in Japan for toilet flushing, industry, stream restoration and flow augmentation (Asano, Maeda, Takaki, 1996).

Starting at the household level, a practical and long-lasting wastewater management plan is mostly based on the "software" or the human element (Khoury et al., 1994). Planning and execution won't be successful until the neighborhood/user level has absorbed the perception of need and perhaps even anticipation for a wastewater reuse system (Khoury et al., 1994). Assistance for a treatment and recovery program at the local level might spur proactive institutions and governmental vertical support. The future of wastewater reuse depends on public acceptance of reuse initiatives and the effects of a negative public image could jeopardize future wastewater reuse programs (Asano and Levine, 1996). For the treatment of wastewater contaminated with organic materials, a number of traditional treatment procedures have been taken into consideration. For reducing the organic load, commercial activated carbon is thought to be the most effective material. Unconventional adsorbents, such as fly ash, peat, lignite, wood and sawdust, have been used for the removal of refractory materials, although with different degrees of effectiveness due to their high cost and around 10-15 % loss during regeneration. Ionic liquids have the potential to be a more advantageous substitute for hazardous solvents (Sheldon et al., 2001)

Many researchers, including Nelson et al. (1969); Eye et al. (1970); Johnson et al. (1965); Deb et al. (1966); Gupta et al. (1978,1990); Mott et al. (1992); and Viraraghavan et al., have recently developed an interest in the removal of organic waste by adsorption (1994). They have looked into using fly ash as an adsorbent to treat wastewater and get rid of harmful substances and colors. By using fly ash as an adsorbent, Pandey et al. (1985) suggested a method for removing copper from wastewater. The removal of phosphorus from home wastewater has been proposed by Johansson et al. (1998) and Drizo et al. (2006) using active filtration via alkaline media. Given that it is more unstable than chlorine (1.36 V) and has a higher reduction potential (2.07 V), ozone is a particularly effective oxidizing agent (1.78V). Since the early 1970s, it has been employed in wastewater treatment and has the capacity to degrade a variety of contaminants, including phenols, pesticides and aromatic hydrocarbons (Robinson et al. 2001, Zbelge et al. 2002, Pera-Titus et al. 2004). Ozone has a limited half-life and decomposes in 20 minutes, making constant ozonation necessary, which makes this process expensive to implement (Slokar et al., 1998, Robinson et al., 2001).

Without the use of air or pure oxygen, anaerobic wastewater treatment is a biological wastewater treatment method. Applications are focused on the elimination of organic contaminants from sludge, slurries and wastewater. Because the effluent quality of anaerobic treatment systems is subpar, a complete transition from aerobic to anaerobic technology is not yet feasible. In Colombia, Brazil, and India, the anaerobic treatment method has been used in place of the more expensive activated sludge procedures. It is regarded as a pretreatment approach. Different digesters are available; some have been tried and true over time, while others are still being studied. The UASB is one of the best digesters for tropical climates (Up-flow Anaerobic Sludge Blanket).

A self-sustaining sewage treatment system using a UASB as a pretreatment unit and an aerobic reactor Down flow Hanging Sponge (DHS) reactor as a post-treatment unit has been proposed by Harada et al. (2007, 2006, 2005, and 2002). Due to their low cost, ease of operation, and overall sustainability, the suggested anaerobic-aerobic bio conenoses of UASB and DHS satisfy the demand for a simplified treatment system for poor countries.

### **Conclusion**

In this paper, a variety of approaches for the treatment, recovery and reuse of wastewater are reviewed. It is clear that many solutions are practical for usage in underdeveloped countries. It is even more apparent that several low-tech options can be combined to achieve extremely high efficiency. Environmental managers are showing a lot of interest in natural treatment technologies. Natural treatment methods are viable because they have minimal initial costs are simple to maintain, may have longer life spans and can recover a wide range of resources, such as treated effluent for irrigation, organic humus for soil improvement and biogas for energy. The size of the collection and treatment systems was the subject of this report's analysis of new problems and technological possibilities. The idea that recycling loops should be reduced from the point of generation (such as the household) to the point of treatment and reuse is gaining favor.

## References

Asano, T. and A. D. Levine, 1996. Wastewater reclamation, recycling and reuse: Past, present and future. *Water Science and Technology*, 33:1-14.

Black, M., 1994. *Mega - slums: The coming sanitary crisis*. London: WaterAid.

Boller, M., 1997. Small wastewater treatment plants - A challenge to wastewater engineers. *Water Science and Technology*, 35: 1-12.

Bouwer, H., 1993a. From sewage to zero discharge. *European Water Pollution Control*, 3: 9-16.

Bouwer, H., 1993b. Urban and agricultural competition for water and water reuse. *Water Resources Development*, 9: 13-25.

Bowker, R.P.G., 2000. Biological odour control by diffusion into activated sludge basins. *Water Science and Technology*, 41: 127-132.

Burgess, J.E., S.A. Parsons and R.M. Stuetz, 2001. Developments in odour control and waste gas treatment biotechnology: A review. *Biotechnology Advances*, 19: 35-63.

Caribbean Environment Programme Technical Report #40 1998. *Appropriate technology for sewage pollution control in the wider Caribbean Region*.

Carter, C.R., S.F. Tyrrel and P. Howsam, 1999. Impact and sustainability of community water supply and sanitation programmes in developing countries. *Journal of the Chartered Institution of Water and Environmental Management*, 13: 292-296.

Census of India 2001: Analysis and Articles on Population and Literacy Rates, Office of the Registrar General, India, Ministry of Home Affairs.

Chawathe, S. D. and D. Kantawala, 1987. Reuse of water in city planning. *Water Supply*, 15: 17-23.

Chow, V.T., R. Eliason and R.K. Linsley, 1972. *Development and trends in wastewater engineering*. In *Wastewater Engineering* McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York, St. Louis,



Dusseldorf, Johannesburg, Kuala Lumpur, London, Mexico, Montreal, New Delhi, Panama, Rio de Janeiro, Singapore, Sydney, Toronto. pp. 1-11.

Cooper, P.F., 2001. Historical aspects of wastewater treatment. In Decentralized sanitation and reuse concepts, systems and Implementation. Eds., Lens P., Zeeman G., and G. Lettinga. IWA Publishing. London. pp. 11-38.

Day, D., 1996. How Australian social policy neglects environments. Australian Journal of Soil and Water Conservation, 9: 3-9.

Deb, P.K., A.J. Rubin, A.W. Launder and K.H. Mancy, 1966. Removal of COD from wastewater by fly ash. In proceeding of the 1966. 21st Indiana Waste conference. D.E. Bloodygood Ed. Published by Purdue University, W. Lafayette, Indiana. pp: 848 – 860.

Denny, P., 1997. Implementation of constructed wetlands in developing countries. Water Science and Technology, 35: 27-34.

Doorn, M.R.J., S. Towprayoon, S. Maria, M.Vieira, W.Irving,C.Palmer,R.Pipatti and C.Wang, 2006. Wastewater treatment and discharge. In 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories. WMO, UNEP. Pp.5:1-6

Drizo, A., C. Forget, R.P. Chapuis and Y. Comeau, 2006. Phosphorus removal by electric arc furnace steel slag and serpentinite. Water Research, 40: 1547– 1554.

Eye, D.J. and T.K. Basu, 1970. The use of fly ash in municipal waste treatment. Journal of the Water Pollution Control Federation, 42: 125-135.

Frijns, J. and M. Jansen, 1996. Institutional requirements for appropriate wastewater treatment systems. In A. Balkema, H. Aalbers and E. Heijndermans (Eds.), Workshop on sustainable municipal waste water treatment systems, Leusdan, the Netherlands. ETC in cooperation with WASTE. 12-14 November, 1996. pp: 54-66.

Giles, H. and B. Brown, 1997. And not a drop to drink. Water and sanitation services in the developing world. Geography, 82: 97-109.

Gupta, G.S., G. Prasad, and V.N. Singh, 1990. Removal of chrome dye from aqueous solutions by mixed adsorbents: fly ash and coal. *Water Research*, 24: 45–50.

Harada, H. and I. Machdar, 2002. Combination of a UASB Reactor and a Curtain-type DHS(Downflow Hanging Sponge) Reactor as Cost-effective Sewage Treatment System for Developing Countries. *Water Science and Technology*, 42: 83-88.

Harada, H., A. Tawfic and A. Ohashi, 2006. Sewage treatment in a combined up-flow sludge blanket (UASB)-down flow hanging sponge (DHS) system. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 29: 210-219.

Harada, H., M. Tandulkar and A. Ohashi, 2007. Performance comparison of a pilot-scale UASB and DHS system and activated sludge process for the treatment of municipal wastewater. *Water Research*, 132: 166-172.

Harada, H., M. Tandulkar, S. Uemura and A. Ohashi, 2005, A low-cost municipal sewage treatment system with a combination of UASB and the Fourth Generation Down flow Hanging Sponge (DHS) reactors. *Water Science and Technology*, 52: 323-329.

Johansson, L. and L. Hylander, 1998. Phosphorus removal from waste water by filter media: retention and estimated plant availability of sorbed phosphorus. *Journal of polish Academy of Science*, 458: 397-410.

Johnson, G.E., L.M. Hunka and J.H. Field, 1965. Use of coal and fly ash as adsorbents for removing organic contaminants from secondaryIndustrial and Engineering Chemistry Process Design and Development, 4: 323-327.

Khouri, N., J.M. Kalbermatten and C. Bartone, 1994. The reuse of wastewater in agriculture: A guide for planners. UNDP - World Bank Water and Sanitation Program. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Kumar, R., R.D. Singh and K.D. Sharma, 2005. Water resources of India. *Current Science*, 89: 794-811.

Looker, N., 1998. Municipal Wastewater Management in Latin America and the Caribbean, R.J. Burnside International Limited, Published for Roundtable on Municipal Water for the Canadian Environment Industry Association.

Mann, D.D., J.C. DeBruyn and Q. Zhang, 2002. Design and evaluation of an open biofilter for treatment of odour from swine barns during sub-zero ambient temperatures. Canadian Biosystems Engineering, 44: 21-26.

Mara, D. and S. Cairncross, 1989. Guidelines for the safe use of wastewater and excreta in agriculture and aquaculture. Geneva: United Nations Environmental Programme/World Health Organization.

Ministry of Water Resources, 1999. Integrated water resources development a plan for action, Report for the National Commission for Integrated Water Resource Development.

Momba, M.N.B., A.N. Osode and M. Sibewu, 2006. The impact of inadequate wastewater treatment on the receiving water bodies case study: Buffalo City and Nkonkonbe Municipalities of the Eastern Cape Province. Water S.A., 32: 687-692.

Mott, H.V. and W.J. Weber, 1992. Sorption of low molecular weight organic contaminants by fly ash. Environmental Science and Technology, 26: 1234 – 1242.

Nelson, M. and C.F. Guarino, 1969. The use of fly ash in municipal waste treatment. Journal of the Water Pollution Control Federation, 41: 1905-1911.

Özbelge, T.A., O.H. Ozbelge and S.Z. Baskaya, 2002. Removal of phenolic compounds from rubber-textile wastewaters by physico-chemical methods. Chemical Engineering and Processing, 41: 719-730.

Pandey, K.K., G. Prasad and V.N. Singh, 1985. Copper Removal from aqueous solution by fly ash. Water Research, 19: 869-873.

Pera-Titus, M., V. García-Molina, M.A. Banos, J. Giménez and S. Esplugas, 2004. Degradation of chlorophenols by means of advanced oxidation processes: a general review. Applied Catalysis B. Environmental, 47: 219-256.

Robinson, T., G. McMullan, R. Marchant and P. Nigam, 2001. Remediation of dyes in textile effluent. *Bioresource Technology*, 77: 247-55.

Sci-Tech.Encyclopaedia, 2007. <http://www.answers.com/topic/sewagetreatment>.

Sheldon, R., 2001. Catalytic reactions in ionic liquids. *Chemical Communications*, 23: 2399-2407.

Shelef, G. and Y. Azov, 1996. The coming of era of intensive wastewater reuse in the Mediterranean Region. *Water Science and Technology*, 33: 115-126.

Singh, B., S.P.S. Brar and S. R. Bishnoi, 1998. Quality of drain water of Punjab, *Indian Journal of Environmental Health*. 31: 262-266.

Slokar, Y. M. and A.M. Le Marechal, 1998. Methods of Decolouration of Textile Wastewaters. *Dyes and Pigments*, 37: 335-356.

.Tajrishi, M. and A. Abrishamchi, 2005. Integrated Approach to Water and Wastewater Management for Tehran, Iran, "Water Conservation, Reuse and Recycling: Proceedings of an Iranian-American Workshop 2005", the National Academies Press, Washington, D.C.

The People's Daily, Friday, November 30, 2001, Beijing. World Bank supports China's wastewater treatment.

United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development, 1997. Comprehensive assessment of the fresh water resources of the world: A report of the Secretary-General. [www.un.org/dpcsd/dsd/freshwat.htm](http://www.un.org/dpcsd/dsd/freshwat.htm).

United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2004. U.S. EPA. Primer for Municipal Wastewater treatment systems. Washington, DC. EPA 832-R-04-001.

Veenestra, S. and G. Alaerts, 1996. Technology selection for pollution control. In A.Balkema, H. Aalbers and E. Heijndermans (Eds.), Workshop on sustainable municipal waste water treatment systems. Leusdan, the Netherlands. ETC in co-operation with WASTE. 12-14 November, 1996. pp: 17-40.

Viraragharan, T. and M.M. Dronamraju, 1992. Utilization of coal ash. Water pollution control. Journal of Environmental Studies, 40: 79-85.

Welch, E.B., 1992. Ecological effects of wastewater: applied limnology and pollutant effects. Chapman and Hall, New York.

Yu, H., Tay, J. and F. Wilson, 1997. A sustainable municipal wastewater treatment process for tropical and subtropical regions in developing countries. Water Science and Technology, 35: 191-198.

Zhongxiang, Z. and Q. Yi, 1991. Water saving and wastewater reuse in China and recycle in sChina. Water Science and Technology, 23: 2135-2140.