Review



## Review on Dye Removal from Its Aqueous Solution into Alternative Cost Effective and Non-Conventional Adsorbents

Sara Dawood, Tushar K Sen\*

Department of Chemical Engineering, Curtin University, Perth, GPO Box U 1987, 6845 Western Australia, Australia

\*Corresponding author: Tushar K Sen, Department of Chemical Engineering, Curtin Universit, Perth, GPO Box U 1987, 6845 Western Australia, Australia; Tel: +61892669052; Email: t.sen@curtin.edu.au

Received Date: September 19, 2914 Accepted Date: November 13, 2014 Published Date: November 17, 2014

**Citation:** Tushar K Sen, et al. (2014) Review on Dye Removal from Its Aqueous Solution into Alternative Cost Effective and Non-Conventional Adsorbents. J Chem Proc Engg 1: 1-11

## Abstract

Dyes are complex organic compounds which are used by various industries to colour their products. These dyes are purged from various industrial sources such as textile, cosmetic, paper, leather, rubber and printing industries. Wastewater effluents contain dyes which may cause potential hazards to the environment. Some of these dyes are toxic, carcinogenic and can cause skin and eye irritation. Therefore, many researchers have been studied the effectiveness of dyes removal from aqueous solution by different separation methods. Different separation techniques have been used for the treatment of dye-bearing wastewater such as adsorption, coagulation/flocculation, advanced oxidation technologies, ozonation, and membrane-filtration, aerobic and anaerobic degradation. All dye separation techniques have their own limitation in terms of design, operation efficiency and total cost. This review paper provides extensive literature information about dyes, its classification and toxicity together with various treatment methods into dye adsorption characteristics of several non-conventional cost effective sustainable adsorbents. The mechanism and the effects of various physio-chemical process parameters on dye adsorption are presented here.

Keywords: Dye adsorption; Kinetic study; Adsorbents; Activated carbon; Agricultural by-products

## Introduction

Dye bearing effluent is a significant source of water pollution. Dyes are used in textile, paper, printing, carpet, plastic, food and cosmetic industries. Dyes are mainly classified into cationic, anionic and non-ionic dyes. The removal of anionic dyes is to be considered as the most challenging task as they are water soluble and produce very bright colours in water with acidic properties. It has been estimated that the total dye consumption in textile industry worldwide is more than 10,000 tonnes per year and about 10-15% of these dyes are released as effluents during the dyeing processes [1, 2]. These effluents can cause potential pollutants to human beings and to aquatic life. Various Physical, Chemical and Biological separation technologies are used in the removal of these effluent[3]. All of these methods have their own advantages and disadvantages. However, adsorption process is considered to be a very effective physical separation technique in wastewater treatment in terms of simplicity of design, ease of operation and insensitivity to toxic substances provided ad-

©2013 The Authors. Published by the JScholar under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License http://creativecommons.org/licenses/ by/3.0/, which permits unrestricted use, provided the original author and source are credited.

sorbents are locally available with little or no value[4-7]. The current research seeks various cost effective sustainable alternative to commercial activated carbon adsorbents therefore, research has been grown into this direction since last decades. Various review articles in the removal of different dyes are available such as article by Salleh et al., (2011), Yagub et al., (2014) and Srinivasan and Viraraghavan., (2010) [8-10] but sometime these review article is very much specific in specific dye removal research. However these articles are very much helpful to develop our current review article which is more general and up-to-date dye adsorption information by various adsorbent has been compiled here. Another new aspect of this review article is to compile the scattered available literatures in dye removal by various physiochemical, chemical and biological separation techniques. Also, this review article focuses on dye adsorptive mechanism under various physicochemical process parameters.

## Dyes sources and their classifications

Dye's molecules are consisted of chromophores and auxochromes components where chromophores (OH, NH2, NHR, NR2, Cl and COOH) are responsible for the production of colours and auxochromes (NO2, NO, N=N) enhance the affinity of the dye toward the fibres[9].Dye bearing effluents from these industries are characterized by its high colour, organic content and hazardous as well. Dyes can be produced from natural or synthetic sources as shown below.

## Natural dyes

Natural dyes are organic compounds used to colour various products. In Prior to the year of 1856, natural dyes are extracted from plants, animals, insects and minerals sources. Natural dyes are such as Turmeric, Weld, Onion, Jackfruit, henna, eucalyptus are used in the early textile industry. Due to the increase in population and industrial activities, natural dyes do not meet the industrial demand and their applications have

Natural dyes	Scientific names	Chemical structure
Turmeric	Curcuma Longa	
Weld	Reseda Luteola	
Eucalyptus	Eucalyptus globules	
Cutch	Acacia Catechu	HO CH OH
Onion	Alium cepa	НО ОН ОН
Flos sophorae	Sophora japonica	
Henna	Lawsonia inermis	OH OH
Teak	Tectona grandis	
Berberry	Berberis aristata	Contraction of the second seco
Indigo	Indigofera tinctoria	L L C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C C
Jackfruit	Artocarpus hetero- phyllus	
Cochineal	Dacylopius Coccus	
Indian Rhubarb	Rheum emodi n natural dyes used in text	R1 OH OH R2

been limited mainly in food industry. The most common natural dyes used in textile industry are presented in Table.1 along with their scientific names and chemical structures.

## Synthetic dyes

The first synthesis dye was discovered by William Henry Perkin in 1856.Dye effluents are produced because dyes do not have a complete degree of fixation to fiber during dyeing and finishing processes[11].Dye based effluents can cause a serious hazards to the water stream and environment due to their synthetic origin and complex molecular structures which decrease their ability to biodegrade. There are various types of dyes used in various industries such as acid dyes, reactive dyes, basic dyes, azo dyes, direct dyes, vat dyes and disperse dyes[12]. All dyes are water soluble except disperse dyes and vat dyes. All dyes contain traces of metals such as copper, zinc, lead, chromium and cobalt in their aqueous solution except vat and disperse dyes. Dye bearing effluents from these industries are characterized by its high colour, organic content and hazardous as well. It is estimated that more than 100,000commercial dyes are known with an annual production of more than 7x105 tonnes per year[2]. Dyes are broadly classified into cationic, anionic and non-ionic dyes. Anionic dyes include various dyes' groups such as acid dyes, reactive dyes, azo dyes

Dyes	Examples of dyes	Chemical structure's example	Applica- tions of dyes
Acid dyes	Congo red Methyl (orange and red) Orange (I,II) Acid (blue, black, violet, yellow)	Acid blue 25	Wool Silk Nylon ( Poly- amide) Polyurethane fibers
Di- rect dyes	Martius yellow Direct black Direct orange Direct blue Direct violet Direct red	here the second	Cotton Wool Flax silk Leather in (alkaline or netural bath)
Reac- tive dyes	Reactive red Reactive blue Reactive yellow Reactive black Remazol (blue, yellow, red, etc)	Reactive black 5	Cellulosic fibres Wool Polyamide
dis- perse dyes	Disperse blue Disperse red Disperse orange Disperse yellow Disperse brown	Disperse red 17	Polyamide fibers Polyesters Nylon polyacryloni- triles
Vat dyes	Indigo, Benzanthrone Vat blue Vat green	Vat green 6	Wool Flax Wool Rayon fibers
Basic dyes	Methylene blue Basic red Basic brown Basic blue Crystal violet Aniline yellow Brilliant green	$CH_{D,L} = \sum_{i,j \\ i,j \\ $	Polyester Wool Silk Mod-acrylic nylon

Fable 2: Classification of synthetic dyes based on applications [13, 23, 79]

and direct dyes while cationic dyes are the basic dyes. Dye's classifications and their applications are presented in Table.2.

## Dyes and their toxicity effects

Cationic dyes are also called basic dyes due to the presence of positive ions in the molecule's structure. Basic dyes are water soluble and they are highly visible in water even at very low concentration. Basic dyes consist of monoazoic, diazoic and azine compounds [13]. Cationic dyes are used to colour wool, silk, nylon, mod-acrylic and polyester materials. Cationic functionality is found in various types of dyes such as cationic azo dyes, methane dyes, anthraquinone, di- and tri-arylcarbenium, phthalocyanine dyes, polycarbocyclic and solvent dyes [9].Basic dye are toxic and can cause allergic dermatitis, skin irritation, mutations and even cancer [14]. Also, cationic dyes can cause increased in heart rate, shock, vomiting, cyanosis, jaundice, quadriplegia, heinz body formation and tissue necrosis in humans [15]. Anionic dyes have negative ions due to the excess presence of the OH- ions in aqueous solution. Anionic dyes are water soluble and they include acid dyes, azo dyes, direct dyes and reactive dyes. Reactive dyes attach to their substrates by a chemical reaction (hydrolysis of the reactive groups in the water) that forms a covalent bond between the molecule of dye and that of the fibre[12]. Anionic dyes removal is the most challenging task as they produced very bright colours in water and show acidic properties. Reactive dyes contain reactive groups such as vinyl sulphone, chlorotriazine, trichloropyrimidine, and difluorochloropyrimidine that covalently bonded with the fiber during the dyeing process [16]. Moreover, azo dyes represent the largest class of reactive dyes used in the textile industry followed by anthraquinone and phthalocyanine classes [17]. Azo dyes have the largest variety of dyes and under anaerobic conditions, the dye's linkage can be reduced to form aromatic amines which are colourless but can be toxic and carcinogenic [18]. It was estimated that 130 of 3,200 azo dyes in use can form carcinogenic aromatic amines during degradation process [18].

## Dye separation techniques

Wastewater effluents contain synthetic dyes which may cause a potential hazard to the environment. Due to the environmental and health concerns associated with the wastewater effluents, different separation techniques have been used in the removal of dyes from aqueous solutions. The separation methods can be divided into physiochemical, chemical and biological methods. Each separation technique has its own limitation in terms of design, dye separation efficiency and total cost. A summary of dye removal separation techniques is presented with their advantages and disadvantages in Table.3.

## Physiochemical separation technique

There are various types of physio-chemical methods used in the removal of dyes as part of water and waste water treatments.

## Adsorption

The process of adsorption involves the ions, atoms or molecules of the adsorbate to transfer and adhere to the surface of the adsorbent creating a thin film. The adsorbate can be in

Separation Technique	Advantages	Disadvantages		
Physiochemical	- <b>-</b>			
Adsorption	High adsorption capacity for all dyes.	High cost of adsorbents. Need to dispose of adsor- bents. Low surface area for some adsorbents.		
Ion exchange	No loss of sorbents.	Not effective for disperse dyes.		
Membrane filtration	Effective for all dyes with high quality effluent.	Suitable for treating low volume and production of sludge.		
Electrokinetic coagulation	Economically feasible.	Need further treatments by flocculation and filtration and production of sludge.		
Chemical				
Fenton reagent	Effective process and cheap reagent.	Sludge production and disposal problems.		
Ozonation	No production of sludge.	Half-life is very short (20 min) and high operational cost.		
Photocatalyst	Economically feasible and low operational cost.	Degrade of some photocata- lyst into toxic by-products.		
Biological				
Aerobic degra- dation	Efficient in the re- moval of azo dyes and low operational cost.	Very slow process and pro- vide suitable environment for growth of microorganisms.		
Anaerobic degradation	By-products can be used as energy sources	Need further treatment under aerobic conditions and yield of methane and hydrogen sulfide.		

**Table 3:** The advantages and disadvantages of various dye removal techniques[10, 11]

gas, liquid or dissolved solute phases. Adsorption technique can be divided into physical and chemical adsorption. Physisorption is an another term of physical adsorption process and it is controlled by physical forces such as Van der Waals forces, hydrophobicity, hydrogen bond, polarity, static interaction, dipole –dipole interaction,  $\Pi$ -  $\Pi$  interaction etc. In the physical adsorption, pollutants get accumulated on adsorbent surface by the above mentions interactions while chemical adsorption (Chemisorption or Langmuir adsorption) is defined when the adsorbate is chemically bound to the adsorbent's surface due to the exchange of electrons[19]. The extent of adsorption depends on the nature of adsorbate such as molecular weight, molecular structure, molecular size, polarity and solution concentration. It is also depends on the surface properties of adsorbent such as particle size, surface area, surface charge etc. [20]. charge etc. [20]. Adsorption process is a very effective separation technique and it is considered to be superior compared to other available techniques for wastewater treatment in terms of initial cost, simplicity of design, ease of operation and insensitive to toxic substances [4, 21]. The efficiency of adsorption process depends on the physical and chemical properties of the adsorbents and adsorbate. Adsorbent's selectivity is based on the adsorption capacity, surface area, availability and total cost. Commercial activated carbon is used as an adsorbent in the removal of dyes. However due to the high cost associated with its production and regenerating, researchers are developing alternative cost effective and nonconventional potential adsorbents in the removal of dye from its aqueous solution. Various adsorbents such as commercial activated carbon [22], mineral [23], Clay [24], agricultural solid wastes [25-27] and agricultural solid waste based activated carbon [28-30] have been used in the removal of dyes from wastewater.

Raw and treated agricultural solid wastes in dye removal: The high cost associated with use and regenerate of commercial activated carbon (CAC) in adsorption leads the researchers to investigate and develop cost effective sustainable agricultural waste adsorbents.Agricultural wastes usually have high molecular weight due to the presence of lignin, cellulose and hemicelluloses components [9]. These solid wastes are renewable sources and they are available in large quantities with little or no valueand often cause a disposal problem. The use of agricultural waste helps to reduce the waste and produce a better waste minimization plan. Various cost effective adsorbents have been successfully used in the removal of textile dyes from

Adsorbents	Dyes	Adsorption capacity	Reference
		qmax (mg/g)	
Peroxide treated rice husk	Malachite Green	26	[106]
Raw coffee residue	Basic blue 3G	251	[32]
Coffee waste	Toluidine Blue	142.5	[33]
Raw coffee residue	Remazol Blue	232	[32]
Pine cone	Congo red	19.18	[27]
Acid treated pine cone	Congo red	40.19	[27]
Eucalyptus wood	Congo red	66.7	[107]
Date Stones	Methylene blue	43.5	[108]
Palm-Trees	Methylene blue	39.5	[108]
Palm shell	Reactive red 141	14	[61]
Palm shell	Reactive blue 21	24.7	[61]
Acid treated papaya seed	Methylene blue	250	[109]
Papaya seed	Methylene blue	200	[109]
Papaya seed	Congo red	71	[109]
Acid treated papaya seed	Congo red	59	[109]
Peanut hull	Reactive black 5	55.6	[110]
Pine cone	Methylene blue	109.9	[4]
Pine tree leave	Methylene Blue	126.6	[3]
Neem bark	Malachite green	0.36	[111]
Mango bark	Malachite green	0.5	[111]
Pine cone	Acid Black 26	62.9	[31]
Pine cone	Acid Green 25	43.3	[31]
Pine cone	Acid Blue 7	37.4	[31]
Pine tree leaves	Basic red 46	71.9	[26]
palm kernel fiber	Crystal violet	78.9	[112]
palm kernel fibre	Methylene blue	95.4	[112]
Organo-attapulgite	Congo red	189.4	[65]
Garlic peel	Methylene blue	142.9	[113]
Rice husk	Indigo Carmine	65.9	[62]
Yellow Passion fruit	Methylene blue	44.7	[114]
Soy meal hull	Direct red 81	120.5	[115]
Soy meal hull	Acid blue 92	114.9	[115]
Soy meal hull	Acid red 14	109.9	[115]
Rice husk	Methylene blue	40.6	[15]
Sugar cane bagasse	Congo red	38	[116]

**Table 4:** Compilation results on the removal of various dyes by various raw and treated agricultural by-product waste adsorbent

wastewater such as coffee waste, eucalyptus wood, Organo-attapulgite, pellets of trametes versicolour, pine cone, palm shell etc.[31-33]. Table 4 presents the compilation results on various agricultural by-product adsorbent in the removal of dyes from aqueous solution. Readers are encouraged to go through review articles on the removal of dyes by agricultural wastes adsorbents by Salleh et al., (2011) and Yagub et al., (2014).[8, 9].

Biomass based activated carbon in dye removal: Activated carbon (AC) is produced from a non-renewable source such as coal and it is used as an adsorbent in the removal of toxic dyes by adsorption. The effectiveness of this versatile adsorbent is due to its high external surface area, pores structure, high adsorption capacity and high degree of surface reactivity. Micropores AC are responsible for the active sites for dyes or ions adsorption while mesopores AC act as transportation routes[34]. Activated carbon is produced in granular and powder forms. Activated carbon has various effluent treatment applications in oil and gas, food, chemical industries, solvent recovery, air pollution control and in hydrometallurgy industry for the recovery of gold and silver [35]. In the recent years, growing research interests are focusing on the agricultural solid residual biomass based AC. Biomass waste offers cost effective and renewable source for the production of AC. These waste materials have little or no economic value and often present a disposal problem [21]. Therefore, there is a need to valorise these low cost by-products. This conversion into AC will add economic value, help to reduce the cost of waste disposal and provide a potentially inexpensive alternative adsorbent to commercial activated carbons. Ribas et al.,(2014) compared the effectiveness of reactive violet dye removal using a cocoa based activated carbon and commercial activated carbon[36]. Biomass based activated carbon is synthesized by either a physical or a chemical activation method. Previous studies on the use of commercial activated carbon (CAC) and biomass based AC in the removal of different dyes is presented in Table 5.

Chemical activation of adsorbents: Reagents such as phosphoric acid, zinc chloride, potassium hydroxide, potassium carbonate and sodium hydroxide are used in the chemical activation of carbon under different conditions [37,38]. Alkali hydroxides and zinc chloride are not preferred due to their corrosive natures and the harmful effects associated with the disposal [39]. Potassium carbonate is used as a food addictive thus it is safe to use it as an activating agent in the production of activated carbon. AC production depends on the precursor properties, reagent used, impregnation ratio, activation time and temperature. Chemical activation has more advantages than physical activation because it is carried out in single step i.e. carbonization and activation are united at relatively lower temperature operation and higher yield [37,38]. Various researchers [28,30,38-40]have successfully reported the production of chemically activated biomass based AC in the dye removal.

**Physical activation of adsorbents:** Physical activation method is used to improve the porosity of AC by exposing carbonaceous material to carbon dioxide gas, air mixture or steam under high temperature profile. An abundance of pores, particularly micropores, were generated after activation due to the

Material	Dye	Adsorption capacity qmax(mg/g)	Refer- ence
Commercial activated carbon	Reactive Violet 5	517.1	[35]
Commercial activated carbon	Acid Red 97	52	[3]
Commercial activated carbon	Acid Orange 61	169	[3]
Commercial activated carbon	Acid Brown 425	222	[3]
Commercial activated carbon	Congo red	300	[22]
Commercial activated carbon	Remazol red B	145	[115]
Pine cone based AC	Congo red	500	[30]
Cocoa shell AC	Reactive Violet 5	603.3	[35]
Bael shell based AC	Congo red	98	[41]
Waste tea based AC	Acid blue 29	596	[28]
Bamboo based AC	Methylene blue	454	[116]
Cattail based AC	Neutral red	192	[117]
Cattail based AC	Malachite green	196	[117]
Pomelo skin based AC	Acid blue 15	444	[58]
Pomelo skin based AC	Methylene blue	501	[58]
Date stone based AC	Methylene blue	316	[39]
Olive stone based AC	Remazol red B	9	[115]
Rice husk based AC	Methylene blue	442	[118]
Rambutan peel based AC	Malachite green	329	[119]
Rubber seed coat based AC	Malachite green	227	[120]
Myrtus communisbased AC	Congo red	19	[121]
Pomegranate based AC	Congo red	10	[121]

Table 5: Removal of dyes by Commercial activated carbon (CAC) and biomass based activated carbon (AC)

oxidation of partial carbon atoms by carbon dioxide gas and steam (Liu et al., 2013). Physical activation involves carbonization of a carbonaceous material followed by activation of the resulting charcoal at high temperature in the presence of suitable oxidizing gases where oxidization agents such as steam has shown the best potential for producing activated carbons with high surface area and good pore ratio (Sahin and Saka, 2013). Biomass based activated carbon (AC) through physical activation and its adsorptive behaviour has been reported by various researchers [29,41,42].

Inorganic materials in dye removal: Metal oxides nanoparticles, clays and minerals are also used as adsorbents in the removal of dyes from its aqueous solution.

Metal oxides nanoparticles: Metal oxides and core/shell composite nanoparticles are used in wastewater treatment industry. Iron oxides nanoparticles with a particle average size of 20-100 nm have attracted the researcher's attention due to their excellent magnetic properties, high surface area, high adsorption capacity, nanoparticle size and easy magnetic separation of solids after adsorption[43]. The behaviour of magnetic nanoparticles strongly depends on size, surface chemistry, state of aggregation and preparation methods. Co-precipitation, mechanical attrition and hydrothermal methods are used in the preparation metal oxides. Microemulsion water in oil method has been used widely in the preparation of metal oxides nanoparticles[44-47]. Magnetite (Fe3O4) and Maghemite ( $\gamma$ -Fe2O3) are the common types of iron oxides used in the dye removal due to their super-magnetic properties. Microemulsion water in oil method is a mixture of immiscible water and oil phases. Surfactant and co-surfactant are used to thermodynamically stabilise the mixture and form a clear and totally soluble solution. Water droplets are slowly dispersed 4

and collided in the oil and surfactant solution forming a nano reactor which is driven by the Brownian motion[48, 49]. Saha et al.,(2011) have reported the removal of different dyes such as erichrome black-T, bromophenol blue and bromocresol green using iron oxide nanoparticles which are ferromagnetic in nature at both room and low temperature[50].Also, Zn-Fe2O4 spinel ferrite nanoparticles has been successfully used in the removal of Acid Red 88 dye from aqueous solution by adsorption[51]. Weng et al., reported the removal of an acid dye (new coccine) from aqueous solutions using magnetic Fe3O4 nanoparticles [52]. Furthermore, porous Ni0.6Fe2.4O4 nanoparticles has been successfully synthesized and used as an adsorbent in the separation of Congo red dye [53]. These nanoparticles present high adsorption rate compared to other known adsorbents. Modified magnetic nanoparticles with aminoguanidine were successfully synthesized in the removal of Acid Green, Acid Violet, Acid Orange, Acid Red and Methyl blue dyes [54] by adsorption.

Clay Minerals: Clays are natural aluminosilicate with the presence of small amount of metal ions and organic compounds. Clays are available as the colloidal fraction in soils, sediments, rocks and water. The use of clays is considered to be a good adsorbent because of its large surface area, high cations exchange capacity, chemical and mechanical stability and layered structure [55]. Also, they are abundantly available at lower cost in compare to other high cost adsorbents such as commercial activated carbon. Natural clays are usually used for the removal of cationic dyes such as methylene blue due to their natural negative charged; however modifications to the surface of clay using surfactants can change the surface charge of clay from negative to positive [24]. These modifications enhance the adsorption of anionic dyes. Researchers studied various type of clays in the removal of textile dyes and metal ions such as Reactive red 120 by raw clay [24], Brilliant green dye by red clay [56], Congo red by sodium bentonite, kaolin and zeolite [57], zinc ions by kaolin [55] and Methylene blue by montmorillonite clay [58]. Readers are encourage to go through a review article reported by Yagub et al., (2014) [8].

## Effect of various physico-chemical process parameters on adsorption

Effect of solution pH: The pH of a solution is a measure of molar concentration of hydrogen ions. Acidic solution occurs when the solution pH < 7 where a solution pH > 7 indicates a basic solution. The change in solution pH is an important parameter for solute adsorption because of change in surface characteristics of adsorbent and change in chemistry of dye. Thus, the adsorption capacity of dye depends on the pH of the solution. Generally, low pH solution results in an increase in the percentage of anionic dye removal because of the electrostatic attraction between anionic dye and the positive surface charge of the adsorbent [9]. At higher solution pH, electrostatic repulsion is found between the negatively charged surface and dye molecules, thus decreasing the adsorption capacity and percentage removal of anionic dyes [59]. From previous studies, the optimum solution pH on the removal of anionic dyes such as Congo red by nut shells charcoal [60], Acid blue 15 by Pomelo skin [59], Congo red by raw and acid modified

pine cone [27] and Reactive blue by chitosan [61] was between (pH 2-4). Furthermore, high solution pH solution results in an increase in the percentage of cationic dye removal because the positive charge on the solution interface will decrease and the adsorbent surface appears negatively charged [9]. From previous studies, the optimum solution pH on the removal of cationic dyes such as Methylene blue by pine tree leave [3] and Basic red 46 by Pine tree leaves [26] was between (pH 9-11). Yagub et al., (2014) reported a review article on effect of various physico-chemical process parameters on dye adsorption and readers are encouraged to go through this article.

Effect of adsorbent dose: The effectiveness of various adsorbent doses on both anionic and cationic dyes removal is reported by many researchers to determine the most economical minimum dosage. In general, the dye removal percentage is increasing with the increase of the adsorbent dosage [9]. It was reported that the amount of Methylene blue dye removal by pine cone was increased from 62.9% to 97.2% with the increase of adsorbent mass from 0.01 to 0.05 g [4]. Also, that the amount of Indigo carmine dye removal by rice husk was increased from 36% to 96% with the increase of adsorbent dose from 2-20 g/L [62]. According to [63], the amount of Congo red dye removal increased from 56.3% to 99.3% for an increase in adsorbent dose from 5 to 30 g/L.

Effect of temperature: The temperature of the solution plays an important role on the adsorption capacity. If the adsorption capacity increases with increasing temperature then the adsorption is an endothermic process. The dye removal percentage of various dyes such as Congo red by modified hectorite [64], Congo red by organo-attapulgite [65] Congo red by raw pine cone and biomass based activated carbon respectively [27, 30] were increased with the increase of solution temperature. However, the dye removal of Methylene blue by pine cone [4] and Methylene blue by montmorillonite clay [58] was reported to decreases with the increase of solution temperature therefore the adsorption process is an exothermic process.

Effect of initial dye concentration and contact time: The effect of the initial dye concentration plays a significant role in the amount of dye adsorbed qt (mg/g) and percentage of dye removal. Generally, increasing the initial dye concentration leads to decrease the percentage of dye removal which may be due to the saturation of adsorption sites on the adsorbent surface [9, 30]. The amount of dye adsorption qt (mg/g) increases with increasing contact time at all initial dye concentrations as reported by various researchers [4, 22, 59]. This is so because the initial dye concentration provides the driving force to overcome the resistance to the mass transfer of dye between the aqueous and the solid phase.

#### Ion Exchange method

Ion exchangers are solid materials or liquid solutions which are able to absorb positively or negatively charged ions from aqueous electrolyte solutions and at the same time release other ions of equivalent amount into the aqueous solution [66]. Most synthesis resins are polymeric structures. The synthetic ion exchange materials can be classified into four main groups of solid membranes, solid sheets, organic solvent solution of liquid ion exchangers and solid particle [66]. Commercial anion exchange resins have the potential to possess excellent adsorption capacity and show high regeneration property for the removal and recovery of reactive dyes [17]. The applications of the ion exchange in the field of wastewater treatment, sugar and alcohol processing, pharmaceutical applications such as biological recovery and purification and hydrometallurgy industry [67] has been reported. Also, ion exchange is used to remove toxic dyes from wastewater such as removal of anionic dye Orange-G [16] and cationic dye Methyl violet 2B [17]. Ion exchange is a good method to separate toxic and soluble dyes from water effluents although the high capital cost associated with this process limited its use.

#### Membrane Filtration technique

Filtration is used to separate ion independent particles from solution. Some undesirable particles may pass into the filtrate solution depend on the pore size and thickness of the filter membrane. Filtration is used to remove dyes in the wastewater treatment. Microfiltration, ultrafiltration and nanofiltration are considered to be one of the economical and critical technologies in chemical and biochemical processing due to their availability with higher flux and lower process cost [68]. Nanofiltration membrane is a combination of reverse osmosis and ultrafiltration processes and it is used in the removal of textile dyes such as Methylene blue [69] and cotton dye effluent [70]. Nanoporous membranes with cellulose nanocrystals is also used in the removal of various dyes such as Victoria Blue, Methyl Violet and Rhodamine dyes [71]. The disadvantages of this process such as the high pressure needed, clogging of the membrane's pores and incapability to treat large volume of effluents limit its uses [72]. Also during the operation, various suspended particles such as dyes and organic matter tend to accumulate within a thin boundary layer adjacent to the membrane surface and result in membrane fouling[73]

#### **Electrokinetic Coagulation**

Electrokinetic coagulation (EC) is a physio-chemical process used in the wastewater treatment. EC technique uses a direct current source between metal electrodes such as aluminium and iron immersed in water effluent to cause the dissolution of metal plates into wastewater[74]. The metal ions form coagulated for particulates flocculating which cause metal hydroxides to precipitate and chemically adsorb dissolved contaminants[75]. EC process provides a simple, reliable and low cost method for the removal of dyes such as direct red(81) from wastewater[74], reactive blue 140 [76] and disperse red [77]. The main advantages of electro coagulation in compare to other conventional technique such as chemical coagulation are the compact of equipment used and no generation of secondary pollution [76]. The disadvantages associated with this process are the need for further treatment by flocculation and filtration and high amount of sludge produced.

### **Chemical Methods**

#### Advanced Oxidation Technologies (AOTs)

Oxidation process is one of the traditional methods used for the removal of inorganics/organics from wastewater. The effectiveness of advanced oxidation technologies (AOTs) are based on the generation of oxidizing reagent( $\bullet$ OH) radicals as they attack the Chromophores leading to the production of organic peroxide radicals and finally convert to CO2, H2O and inorganic salts [78]. Chemical oxidation is very effective but the efficiency strongly influenced by the type of oxidant[79]. ATOs include the use of oxidants such as chloride, ozone, Fenton and Fenton-like reagents and chlorine dioxide. Fenton's reagent is also known as hydrogen peroxide and it is more effective if applied at acidic solution. Iron ions such as Fe+2 and Fe+3 are the most common reagents used in Fenton activation. Fenton's reagent is cheap and easy to handle compared to other reagents. The decomposition of Fenton-like reagent is presented in the following equations [80]

$Fe^{3+} + H_2O_2 \leftrightarrow Fe^{III} (HO_2)^{2+} + H^+$	(1)
$Fe^{III} (HO_2)^{2+} \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + HO_2$	(2)
$Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2 \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + \bullet OH + OH^-$	(3)

The iron(III) reacts with hydrogen peroxide to form iron (III) peroxo complex. The complex is decomposed to produce iron (II) then it reacts with hydrogen peroxide to yield the oxidant, hydroxyl radicals. The removal efficiency of this process depends on the production of the oxidant, hydroxyl radicals which exhibit higher removal percentage at higher dyes concentration. This process has its own limitations as these reagents are toxic and may cause more harm to the biological treatment system used for the post treatment than the original textile dyes [81]. Also, the large volume of sludge formation and the hazards associated with its disposal limits the use of this process in industrial scale. Previous studies of Fenton and Fenton-like reagents are used to remove textile dyes such as reactive red, acid blue and direct blue [79], acid orange and reactive blue [81] and Reactive Black 5 ,Reactive Orange 16 and Reactive Blue 2 [82]. Ozonation is another type of AOT's oxidation used in the removal of synthesis dyes from wastewater effluents. It is a very effective technology in treating wastewater and is considered to be a good method in the decolourization of textile effluents as ozone (O3) attacks the nitrogen conjugated double bonds which are often associated with colours [83, 84]. Ozonation reactions can be classified into direct reaction and indirect reaction based on the pH of the solution. The decomposition rate of ozone is affected by solution pH and initial dye concentration. At basic medium, ozone rapidly decomposes to yield the hydroxyl radical but in acidic conditions, ozone can directly react with organic substrates as an electrophile[84]. Ozonation process does not form a sludge because of complete decomposition of dyes thus reduce the toxicity of by-products [85]. However, the half-life of ozone is very short and it requires a high voltage to run a continuous ozonation process thus increases the capital cost and limits its uses in the industrial scale [86].

#### Photocatalyst

Photocatalyst is a process used in the removal of organics contaminations such as dyes from wastewater. It is also used in the production of hydrogen by water spilling method. Band gap can be described as a region between the valence band and the conduction band of the semiconductor. Photon energy equal or higher than the band gap energy is required to excite the electrons from the valence band to the conduction band and the movement of the electrons leave holes with positively charged ions (H+)in the valence band[87]. The positively charged holes are powerful oxidants and can destroy adsorbed organic pollutants where the electrons at the conduction band react with the oxygen molecules to form strong oxidative radicals that also cause the decomposition of organic and inorganic contaminations in wastewater [88].Current studies are focused on the production of various photocatalyst such as cucurbit[6] uril- polyoxometallates(CB[6]-POMs) composite,  $\alpha$ -Keggin type polysilicon tungstate anions KH[SiW<sub>12</sub>O<sub>40</sub>] [Ni(H<sub>2</sub>O)6]CB[6]•7H<sub>2</sub>O [88], Bi-based oxyhalide Bi4TaO8I [89], Ternary nanocomposite of grapheme TiO<sub>2</sub>-Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>(GTF) [90], a-bismuth molybdite a-Bi2Mo3O12[91] and Bismuth phosphate BiPO<sub>4</sub>[92]. Also, photocatalyst is used in the removal of dyes from wastewater such as Methyl Orange [88, 89], Reactive red and direct green [93]. Photocatalyst selection depends on dye's chemical properties as some dyes are resistant to photo-degradation process [94]. Photocatalyst has feasible applications in wastewater treatment as it can operate at ambient temperature and pressure with complete mineralization thus reduce total operating cost [95]. On the other hand, some photocatalyst are degraded along the process and generate toxic products. Readers are encourage to go through a review article on photocatalyst water treatment technology by Chong et al., (2010)[95]

#### **Biological Methods**

#### **Aerobic Degradation**

Bacteria and fungi are the most microorganisms used in the decolourization of dyes under aerobic conditions. Bacteria are able to culture and grow more quickly than fungi as they are able to metabolize chlorinated and other organic contaminants and use them as carbon or energy source [96]. Bacteria are classified as mono-oxygenase or di-oxygenase enzymes and they are used to catalyse the incorporation of oxygen from O2 into the aromatic ring of organic compounds such as azo dyes and reactive dyes[97]. Many researchers have investigated the use of bacteria for the decolourization of dyes such as removal of Blue Bezaktiv dye BB150 by lyophilised bacterial consortium[98]. The use of fungi in the removal of dyes is more effective compared to bacteria and algae. Many results have been reported such as the removal of azo dyes by Candida tropicalis [99] and acid red B by Pichia sp TCL[100]. Fungi have high capacity of biodegradation of dyes as they are able to deplete complex organic compounds by producing extracellular ligninolytic enzymes including laccase, manganese peroxidase and lignin peroxidise [99].White-rot fungi such as Dichomitus, squalens, Daedalea flavida, Irpex flavus and Polyporus sanguineus have been used widely in the decolourization and degradation of textile waste of many chromophoric groups of dyes [101]. The use of bacteria and fungi for the complete decolourization and degradation of dyes from textile effluent have the advantages of low cost process compared to other methods and the ability to complete mineralization of dyes with nontoxic by-products [102]. However, this process is not applicable for real textile wastewater treatment because it is a very slow process and provides a suitable environment for the growth of autochthonous microorganisms[72]. Sometimes the effluent temperature does not favour for microorganism enhanced dye removal. Bacteria and fungi strains commonly used in the biodegradation of textile dyes are presented in Table 6.

Culture	Dye	Dye removal	Refer-
		(%)	ences
P. chrysosporium fungi	Coracryl violet	100	[101]
P. chrysosporium fungi	Coracryl pink	100	[101]
D. squalens fungi	Coracryl pink	100	[101]
T.versicolor ATCC 20869	Remozol blue	98	[124]
P. chrysosporium ATCC 24725	Remozol red	97	[124]
P. chrysosporium ATCC 24725	Remozol blue	95	[124]
Aspergillus niger fungi	Direct violet	92	[125]
Bacteria consortium SKB-II	Congo red	90	[126]
C. polyzona MUCL 38443	Acid blue 62	90	[127]
Trametes species CNPR 4783	Remazol blue	89	[124]
T.Versicolor ATCC 20869	Remozol red	85	[124]
Bacteria consortium SKB-I	Blue BCC	74	[126]
P. sanguineus fungi	Coracryl black	67	[101]
Lyophilised bacterial con- sortium	Blue Bezaktiv 150	62	[98]
Trametes species CNPR 4801	Remazol blue	58	[124]
D. flavida fungi	Coracryl pink	53	[101]
T. versicolour DSM 11269	Disperse red 1	50	[113]
Myrioconium sp. UHH 1-6-18-4	Disperse blue 1	43	[113]
S.rugosoannulata DSM 11372	Reactive red 4	31	[113]

Table 6: Bacteria and Fungi strains commonly used in dye biodegradation

#### Anaerobic Degradation

Anaerobic degradation process occurs in the absence of oxygen. Anaerobic digestion process is able to decompose complex organic compounds so that they can be further treated either aerobically or by other dye removal methods [96]. The biodegradation process consists of decolourization stage where the microorganism breaks the dye azo linkage of nitrogen double bond followed by second stage involves the degradation of the aromatic amines [103]. The decolourization stage occurs usually under anaerobic conditions. Researchers investigated the use of bacteria for dye reduction under anaerobic conditions such as removal of Methyl orange (MO) and Naphthol green B (NGB) by Shewanella oneidensis MR-1[104] and Reactive red by Halomonas variabilis and Halomonas glaciei [96]. The disadvantages of this process include the need for further treatment under aerobic conditions and production of toxic by-products. Thus a combination of anaerobic and aerobic process is recommended for the biodegradation of textile dye.

## **Conclusion and Future recommendations**

An extensive literature information on various dye removal techniques have been discussed here. Further a wide range of adsorbents such as raw and treated agricultural by-products, activated carbon, biomass-based activated carbon, biosorbents, various other inorganic oxides, and clay minerals in the removal of dyes from aqueous solution has been reviewed here. The mechanism and the dye adsorption behaviour of various adsorbents under various physio-chemical process parameters have been critically analysed. This comprehensive review analysis identified few research gaps for which further studies required.

Actual colour bearing effluents contains mixed dye pollutants including presence of salts. Therefore much work is necessary to predict the performance of dye adsorption from real industrial effluents under wide range of operating conditions.

No literature is available to apply the well-developed surface reaction based dye adsorption model to obtain the effect of ionic strength or solution pH on adsorption.

In most of the reported studies, few attempts were made to relate the characterization results with the performance of adsorbents for the removal of dyes from aqueous solution under various physico-chemical conditions.

Leaching of industrial wastes, agricultural solid wastes in water is very important in order to see the dissolution of the various substances present in the wastes. This interference will lead to erroneous results in the adsorption experiments. Therefore more research work should be performed in this direction.

## References

1) Gómez V, Larrechi MS, Callao MP (2007) Kinetic and adsorption study of acid dye removal using activated carbon. Chemosphere 69: 1151–1158.

2) Gupta VK, Kumar R, Nayak A, Saleh TA, Barakat MA (2013) Adsorptive removal of dyes from aqueous solution onto carbon nanotubes: a review. Adv Colloid Interface Sci 193-194: 24-34.

3) Yagub MT, Sen TK, Ang HM (2012) Equilibrium, kinetics, and thermodynamics of methylene blue adsorption by pine tree leaves. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution 223: 5267-5282.

4) Sen TK, Afroze S, Ang HM (2011) Equilibrium, kinetics and mechanism of removal of methylene blue from aqueous solution by adsorption onto pine cone biomass of Pinus radiata. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution 218: 499-515.

5) Mohammad M, Maitra S, Ahmad N, Bustam A, Sen TK, et al. (2010) Metal ion removal from aqueous solution using physic seed hull. J Hazard Mater 179: 363-372.

6) Abd EI-Latif MM, Ibrahim AM, EI-Kady MF (2010) Adsorption equilibrium, kinetics and thermodynamics of methylene blue from aqueous solutions using biopolymer oak sawdust composite. J Am Sci 6: 267-283.

7) Yao Z, Wang L, Qi J (2009) Biosorption of methylene blue from aqueous solution using a bioenergy forest waste: Xanthoceras sorbifolia seed coat. Clean (Weinh) 37: 642–648.

8) Yagub MT, Sen TK, Afroze S, Ang HM (2014) Dye and its removal from aqueous solution by adsorption: a review. Adv Colloid Interface Sci 209: 172-184.

9) Salleh MAM, Mahmoud DK, Karim WAWA, Idris A (2011) Cationic and anionic dye adsorption by agricultural solid wastes: A comprehensive review. Desalination 280: 1–13.

10) Srinivasan A, Viraraghavan T (2010) Decolorization of dye wastewaters by biosorbents: a review. J Environ Manage 91: 1915-1929.

11) Pang YL, Abdullah AZ (2013) Current Status of Textile Industry Wastewater Management and Research Progress in Malaysia: A Review. Clean (Weinh) 41: 751–764.

12) Demirbas A (2009) Agricultural based activated carbons for the removal of dyes from aqueous solutions: a review. J Hazard Mater 167: 1-9.

13) Le Coz, C.J., Dyes, in Encyclopedia of Toxicology (Second Edi-

tion), W. Editor-in-Chief: Philip, Editor 2005, Elsevier: New York. p. 104-114.

14) Eren E (2009) Investigation of a basic dye removal from aqueous solution onto chemically modified Unye bentonite. J Hazard Mater 166: 88-93.

15) Vadivelan V, Kumar KV (2005) Equilibrium, kinetics, mechanism, and process design for the sorption of methylene blue onto rice husk. J Colloid Interface Sci 286: 90-100.

16) Labanda J, Sabaté J, Llorens J(2009) Modeling of the dynamic adsorption of an anionic dye through ion-exchange membrane adsorber. J Memb Sci 340: 234–240.

17) Wu Jeng-Shiou, Liu Chia-Hung, Chu KH, Shing-Yi Suen (2008) Removal of cationic dye methyl violet 2B from water by cation exchange membranes. J Memb Sci 309: 239–245.

18)Yaneva ZL, Georgieva NV (2012) Insights into Congo Red adsorption on agro-industrial materials - spectral, equilibrium, kinetic, thermodynamic, dynamic and desorption studies. A review. International Review of Chemical Engineering 4: 127-146.

19) Artioli, Y., Adsorption, in Encyclopedia of Ecology, J. Editors-in-Chief: Sven Erik and F. Brian, Editors. 2008, Academic Press: Oxford. p. 60-65.

20) Slejko, F.L., Adsorption technology: A step-by-step approach to process evaluation and application Vol. chemical industries series/19. 1985: Tall Oaks Publishing, Inc. 223.

21) Abd EI-Latif MM, Ibrahim AM, EI-Kady MF (2010) Adsorption equilibrium, kinetics and thermodynamics of methylene blue from aqueous solutions using biopolymer oak sawdust composite. J Am Sci 6: 267-283.

22) Purkait MK, Maiti A, DasGupta S, De S (2007) Removal of congo red using activated carbon and its regeneration. J Hazard Mater 145: 287-295.

23) Hernández-Montoya V, Pérez-Cruz MA, Mendoza-Castillo DI, Moreno-Virgen MR, Bonilla-Petriciolet A (2013) Competitive adsorption of dyes and heavy metals on zeolitic structures. J Environ Manage 116: 213-221.

24) Errais E, Duplay J, Elhabiri M, Khodja M, Ocampo R (2012) Anionic RR120 dye adsorption onto raw clay: Surface properties and adsorption mechanism. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 403: 69–78.

25) Reddy MC, Sivaramakrishna L, Reddy AV (2012) The use of an agricultural waste material, Jujuba seeds for the removal of anionic dye (Congo red) from aqueous medium. J Hazard Mater 203-204: 118-127.

26) Deniz F, Karaman S (2011) Removal of Basic Red 46 dye from aqueous solution by pine tree leaves. Chem Eng J 170: 67–74.

27) Dawood S, Sen TK (2012) Removal of anionic dye Congo red from aqueous solution by raw pine and acid-treated pine cone powder as adsorbent: equilibrium, thermodynamic, kinetics, mechanism and process design. Water Res 46: 1933-1946.

28) Auta M, Hameed BH (2013) Coalesced chitosan activated carbon composite for batch and fixed-bed adsorption of cationic and anionic dyes. Colloids Surf B Biointerfaces 105: 199-206.

29) Poinern GEJ, Senanayake G, Shah N, Thi-Le XN, Parkinson GM (2011) Adsorption of the aurocyanide, View the MathML source complex on granular activated carbons derived from macadamia nut shells – A preliminary study. Miner Eng 24: 1694–1702.

30) Dawood S, Sen TK, Phan C (2014) Synthesis and characterisation of novel-activated carbon from waste biomass pine cone and its application in the removal of congo red dye from aqueous solution by

adsorption. Water, Air, & Soil Pollution 225: 1818.

31) Mahmoodi NM, Hayati B, Arami M, Lan C (2011) Adsorption of textile dyes on Pine Cone from colored wastewater: Kinetic, equilibrium and thermodynamic studies. Desalination 268: 117–125.

32) Kyzas GZ, Lazaridis NK, Mitropoulos ACh (2012) Removal of dyes from aqueous solutions with untreated coffee residues as potential low-cost adsorbents: Equilibrium, reuse and thermodynamic approach. Chem Eng J 189–190: 148–159.

33) Lafi r, Fradj AB, Hafiane A, Hameed BH (2014) Coffee waste as potential adsorbent for the removal of basic dyes from aqueous solution. Korean J Chem Eng 1-9.

34) Skodras G, Diamantopoulou I, Zabaniotou A, Stavropoulos G, Sakellaropoulos GP (2007) Enhanced mercury adsorption in activated carbons from biomass materials and waste tires. Fuel Processing Technology 88: 749–758.

35) Sugumaran P, Susan VP, Ravichandran P, Seshadri S (2012) Production and characterization of activated carbon from banana empty fruit bunch and Delonix regia fruit pod. Journal of Sustainable Energy & Environment 3: 125-132.

36) Ribas MC, Adebayo MA, Prola LDT, Lima EC, Cataluña R (2014) Comparison of a homemade cocoa shell activated carbon with commercial activated carbon for the removal of reactive violet 5 dye from aqueous solutions. Chem Eng J 248: 315–326.

37) Tay T, Ucar S, Karagöz S (2009) Preparation and characterization of activated carbon from waste biomass. J Hazard Mater 165: 481-485.

38) Fathy NA, Ahmed SAS, El-enin RMMA (2012) Effect of Activation Temperature on Textural and Adsorptive Properties for Activated Carbon Derived from Local Reed Biomass: Removal of p-Nitrophenol. Environmental Reseach, Engineering and Management 59: 1.

39) Gurten II, Ozmak M, Yagmur E, Aktas Z (2012) Preparation and characterisation of activated carbon from waste tea using K2CO3. Biomass Bioenergy 37: 73–81.

40) Foo KY, Hameed BH (2011) Preparation of activated carbon from date stones by microwave induced chemical activation: Application for methylene blue adsorption. Chem Eng J 170: 338-341.

41) de Luna MDG, Flores ED, Genuino DAD, Futalan CM, Wan Meng-Wei (2013) Adsorption of Eriochrome Black T (EBT) dye using activated carbon prepared from waste rice hulls—Optimization, isotherm and kinetic studies. J Taiwan Inst Chem Eng 44: 646-653.

42) Ahmad R, Kumar R (2010) Adsorptive removal of congo red dye from aqueous solution using bael shell carbon. Appl Surf Sci 257: 1628-1633.

43) Giri SK, Das NN, Pradhan GC (2011) Synthesis and characterization of magnetite nanoparticles using waste iron ore tailings for adsorptive removal of dyes from aqueous solution. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 389: 43-49.

44) Lakshmanan R, Okoli C, Boutonnet M, Järås S, Rajarao GK (2014) Microemulsion prepared magnetic nanoparticles for phosphate removal: Time efficient studies. Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering 2: 185–189.

45) Vidal-Vidal J, Rivas J, López-Quintela MA (2006) Synthesis of monodisperse maghemite nanoparticles by the microemulsion method. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 288: 44-51.

46) Chin AB, Yaacob II (2007) Synthesis and characterization of magnetic iron oxide nanoparticles via w/o microemulsion and Massart's procedure. J Mater Process Technol 191: 235–237.

47) Wongwailikhit K, Horwongsakul S (2011) The preparation of iron (III) oxide nanoparticles using W/O microemulsion. Mater Lett 65: 2820–2822.

48) Lu T, Wang J, Yin J, Wang A, Wang X, et al. (2013) Surfactant effects on the microstructures of  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$  nanoparticles synthesized by microemulsion method. Colloids Surf A Physicochem Eng Asp 436: 675–683.

49) Boutonnet M, Lögdberg S, Svensson EE (2008) Recent developments in the application of nanoparticles prepared from w/o microemulsions in heterogeneous catalysis. Curr Opin Colloid Interface Sci 13: 270-286.

50) Saha B, Das S, Saikia J, Das G (2011) Preferential and enhanced adsorption of different dyes on iron oxide nanoparticles: a comparative study. J Phys Chem C 115: 8024–8033.

51) Konicki W, Sibera D, Mijowska E, Zofia LB, Narkiewicz U (2013) Equilibrium and kinetic studies on acid dye Acid Red 88 adsorption by magnetic ZnFe2O4 spinel ferrite nanoparticles. J Colloid Interface Sci 398: 152-160.

52) Weng CH, Lin YT, Yeh CL, Sharma YC (2010) Magnetic Fe3O4 nanoparticles for adsorptive removal of acid dye (new coccine) from aqueous solutions. Water Sci Tech 62: 844-851.

53) Suyuan Zeng , Shengxia Duan , Rongfeng Tang , Lei Li , Caihua Liu, et al. (2014) Magnetically separable Ni0.6Fe2.4O4 nanoparticles as an effective adsorbent for dye removal: Synthesis and study on the kinetic and thermodynamic behaviors for dye adsorption. Cheml Engg J 258: 218-228.

54) Li DP, Zhang YR, Zhao XX, Zhao BX, et al. (2013) Magnetic nanoparticles coated by aminoguanidine for selective adsorption of acid dyes from aqueous solution. Cheml Engg J 232: 425-433.

55) Aries F, TK Sen (2009 Removal of zinc metal ion (Zn2þ) from its aqueous solution by kaolin clay mineral: a kinetic and equilibrium study. Colloids Surf A 348: 100-108.

56) Rehman, MSU, Munira M, Ashfaqa M, Rashid N, Nazar MF, et al. (2013) Adsorption of Brilliant Green dye from aqueous solution onto red clay. Cheml Engg J 228: 54-62.

57) Vimonses V, Lei S, Jin B, Chow CWK, Saint C (2009) Kinetic study and equilibrium isotherm analysis of Congo red adsorption by clay materials. Chem Eng J 148: 354.

58) Almeida CA, Debacher NA, Downs AJ, Cottet L, Mello CA (2009) Removal of methylene blue from colored effluents by adsorption on montmorillonite clay. J Colloid Interface Sci 332: 46-53.

59) Foo KY, BH Hameed (2011) Microwave assisted preparation of activated carbon from pomelo skin for the removal of anionic and cationic dyes. Chem Eng J 173: 385-390.

60) Kaur S, S Rani, RK Mahajan (2013) Adsorption Kinetics for the Removal of Hazardous Dye Congo Red by Biowaste Materials as Adsorbents. Journal of Chemistry.

61) G Sreelatha, V Ageetha, J Parmar, P Padmaja (2011) Equilibrium and kinetic studies on reactive dye adsorption using palm shell powder and chitosan. J Chem Eng Data 56: 35-42.

62) Lakshmi UR, Srivastava VC, Mall ID, Lataye DH (2009) Rice husk ash as an effective adsorbent: Evaluation of adsorptive characteristics for Indigo Carmine dye. J Environ Manage 90: 710-720.

63) Kumar P, S. Ramalingam, C. Senthamarai, M. Niranjanaa, P. Vijayalakshmi et al. (2010) Adsorption of dye from aqueous solution by cashew nut shell: Studies on equilibrium isotherm, kinetics and thermodynamics of interactions. Desalination 261: 52-60.

64) Xia C, Jing Y, Jia Y, Yue D, Ma Y et al. (2011) Adsorption properties of congo red from aqueous solution on modified hectorite: Kinetic and thermodynamic studies. Desalination 265: 81-87.

65) Chen H, Zhao J (2009) Adsorption study for removal of Congo red anionic dye using organo-attapulgite. Adsorption 15: 381-389.

66) Haddad PR (2005) ION EXCHANGE | Overview, in Encyclopedia of Analytical Science (Second Edition) Elsevier: Oxford. p. 440-446.

67) Rousseau RW (1987) Handbook of Separation Process Technology. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

68) Nandi BK, Uppaluri R, Purkait MK (2008) Preparation and characterization of low cost ceramic membranes for micro-filtration applications. Appl Clay Sci 42: 102–110.

69) Cheng S, Oatley DL, Williams PM, Wright CJ (2012) Characterisation and application of a novel positively charged nanofiltration membrane for the treatment of textile industry wastewaters. Water Research 46: 33–42.

70) Avlonitis SA, Poulios I, Sotiriou D, Pappas M, Moutesidis K (2008) Simulated cotton dye effluents treatment and reuse by nanofiltration. Desalination 221: 259–267.

71) Karim Z, Mathew AP, Grahn M, Mouzon J, Oksman K (2014) Nanoporous membranes with cellulose nanocrystals as functional entity in chitosan: removal of dyes from water. Carbohydr Polym 112: 668-676.

72) Toor MK (2010) Enhancing adsorption capacity of Bentonite for dye removal: Physiochemical modification and characterazation in Department of Chemical Engineering. University of Adelaide. p. 209.

73) Alventosa-deLara E, Barredo-Damas S, Zuriaga-Agustí E, Alcaina-Miranda MI, Iborra-Clar MI (2014) Ultrafiltration ceramic membrane performance during the treatment of model solutions containing dye and salt. Sep Purif Technol 129: 96–105.

74) Aoudj S, Khelifa A, Drouiche N, Hecini M, Hamitouche H (2010) Electrocoagulation process applied to wastewater containing dyes from textile industry. Chemical Engineering and Processing: Process Intensification 49: 1176–1182.

75) Chen G (2004) Electrochemical technologies in wastewater treatment. Sep Purif Technol 38: 11–41.

76) Phalakornkule C, Polgumhang S, Tongdaung W, Karakat B, Nuyut T (2010) Electrocoagulation of blue reactive, red disperse and mixed dyes, and application in treating textile effluent. J Environ Manage 91:918-926.

77) Merzouk B, Gourich B, Madani K, Vial Ch, Sekki A (2011) Removal of a disperse red dye from synthetic wastewater by chemical coagulation and continuous electrocoagulation. A comparative study. Desalination 272: 246–253.

78) Antoniadis A, Takavakoglou V, Zalidis G, Darakas E, Poulios I (2010) Municipal wastewater treatment by sequential combination of photocatalytic oxidation with constructed wetlands. Catal Today 151: 114–118.

79) Forgacs E, Cserháti T, Oros G (2004) Removal of synthetic dyes from wastewaters: a review. Environ Int 30: 953-971.

80) Jiang C, Gao Z, Qu H, Li J, Wang X, et al. (2013) A new insight into Fenton and Fenton-like processes for water treatment: Part II. Influence of organic compounds on Fe(III)/Fe(II) interconversion and the course of reactions. J Hazard Mater 250-251: 76-81.

81) Arslan-Alaton I, Gursoy BH, Jens-Ejbye Schmidt (2008) Advanced oxidation of acid and reactive dyes: Effect of Fenton treatment on aerobic, anoxic and anaerobic processes. Dyes Pigm 78: 117–130.

82) Chia-Chi Su, Pukdee-Asa M, Ratanatamskul C, Ming-Chun Lu (2011) Effect of operating parameters on decolorization and COD removal of three reactive dyes by Fenton's reagent using fluidized-bed reactor. Desalination 278: 211–218.

83) Gao M, Zeng Z, Sun B, Zou H, Chen J, et al. (2012) Ozonation of azo dye Acid Red 14 in a microporous tube-in-tube microchannel reactor: decolorization and mechanism. Chemosphere 89: 190-197.

84) Turhan K, Durukan I, Ozturkcan SA, Turgut Z (2012) Decolorization of textile basic dye in aqueous solution by ozone. Dyes Pigm 92: 897–901.

85) Sharma S, Buddhdev J, Patel M, Ruparelia JP (2013) Studies on Degradation of Reactive Red 135 Dye in Wastewater using Ozone. Procedia Engineering 51: 451–455.

86) Robinson T, McMullan G, Marchant R, Nigam P (2001) Remediation of dyes in textile effluent: a critical review on current treatment technologies with a proposed alternative. Bioresour Technol 77: 247-255.

87) Pai MR et al. (2012) 14 - Fundamentals and Applications of the Photocatalytic Water Splitting Reaction, in Functional Materials. Elsevier: London. p. 579-606.

88) Cao M, Lin J, Lü J, You Y, Liu T, et al. (2011) Development of a polyoxometallate-based photocatalyst assembled with cucurbit[6] uril via hydrogen bonds for azo dyes degradation. J Hazard Mater 186: 948-951.

89) Jing Fan, Xingyun Hu, Zhiguang Xie, Kelei Zhang, Jianji Wang (2012) Photocatalytic degradation of azo dye by novel Bi-based photocatalyst Bi4TaO8I under visible-light irradiation. Chem Eng J 179: 44-51.

90) Yue Lin, Zhigang Geng, Hongbing Cai, Lu Ma, Jia Chen, et al. (2012) Ternary Graphene–TiO2–Fe3O4 Nanocomposite as a Recollectable Photocatalyst with Enhanced Durability. Eur J Inorg Chem 28: 4439–4444.

91) Martínez-de la Cruz A, Obregón Alfaro S (2009) Synthesis and characterization of nanoparticles of  $\alpha$ -Bi2Mo3O12 prepared by coprecipitation method: Langmuir adsorption parameters and photocatalytic properties with rhodamine B. Solid State Sciences 11: 829-835.

92) Yan-Fang LIU, Xin-Guo MA, Xin YI, Yong-Fa ZHU (2012) Controllable synthesis and photocatalytic performance of bismuth phosphate nanorods. Acta Physico-Chimica Sinica 28: 654-660.

93) Wawrzyniak B, Morawski AW (2006) Solar-light-induced photocatalytic decomposition of two azo dyes on new TiO2 photocatalyst containing nitrogen. Appl Catal B 62: 150-158.

94) Kabra K, Chaudhary R, Sawhney RL (2004) Treatment of hazardous organic and inorganic compounds through aqueous-phase photocatalysis: A review. Ind Eng Chem Res 43: 7683-7696.

95) Chong MN, Jin B, Chow CWK, Saint C (2010) Recent developments in photocatalytic water treatment technology: A review. Water Research 44: 2997–3027.

96) Balamurugan B, Thirumarimurugan M, Kannadasan T (2011) Anaerobic degradation of textile dye bath effluent using Halomonas sp. Bioresour Technol 102: 6365-6369.

97) dos Santos AB, Cervantes FJ, van Lier JB (2007) Review paper on current technologies for decolourisation of textile wastewaters: perspectives for anaerobic biotechnology. Bioresour Technol 98: 2369-2385.

98) Khouni I, Marrot B, Amar RB (2012) Treatment of reconstituted textile wastewater containing a reactive dye in an aerobic sequencing batch reactor using a novel bacterial consortium. Sep Purif Technol 87: 110-119.

99) Tan L, Ning S, Zhang X, Shi S (2013) Aerobic decolorization and degradation of azo dyes by growing cells of a newly isolated yeast Candida tropicalis TL-F1. Bioresour Technol 138: 307-313.

100) Qu Y, Cao X, Ma Q, Shi S, Tan L, et al. (2012) Aerobic decolorization and degradation of Acid Red B by a newly isolated Pichia sp. TCL. J Hazard Mater 223-224: 31-38.

101) Chander M, Arora DS (2007) Evaluation of some white-rot fungi for their potential to decolourise industrial dyes. Dyes Pigm 72: 192-198.

102) Dawkar VV, Jadhav UU, Tamboli DP, Govindwar SP (2010) Efficient industrial dye decolorization by Bacillus sp. VUS with its enzyme system. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf 73: 1696-1703.

103) van der Zee FP, Villaverde S (2005) Combined anaerobic-aerobic treatment of azo dyes--a short review of bioreactor studies. Water Res 39: 1425-1440.

104) Cao DM, Xiao X, Wu YM, Ma XB, Wang MN, et al. (2013) Role of electricity production in the anaerobic decolorization of dye mixture by exoelectrogenic bacterium Shewanella oneidensis MR-1. Bioresour Technol 136: 176-181.

# Submit your manuscript to a JScholar journal and benefit from:

- Convenient online submission
- Rigorous peer review
- Immediate publication on acceptance
- Open access: articles freely available online
- High visibility within the field
- Better discount for your subsequent articles

Submit your manuscript at http://www.jscholaronline.org/submit-manuscript.php