

Role of Nanomaterials in Environment Clean Up technologies: Toward a Sustainable Tomorrow

Nitya Garg

Assistant Professor, Department of Physics, Sarala Birla University, Ranchi, Jharkhand-835103, India.

(Corresponding author: Nitya Garg) (Received 18 April 2021, Revised 29 May 2021, Accepted 25 June 2021) (Published by Research Trend, Website: www.researchtrend.net)

ABSTRACT: Nanotechnology has a major part to play in providing novel and fruitful solutions to a wide array of environmental problems including soil, water and atmosphere pollution caused by various human activity or industrial processes. In recent years application of nanomaterials has been found as a new method for the removal of contaminants from water, soil and air due to their infinitesimal size, huge surface-area-to-volume ratio, great reactivity, high mobility, quantum size effect, great biocompatibility and strong adsorption property. Among all present nanomaterials, carbon-based nanomaterials (fullerenes, carbon nanotubes and graphene), zero-valent metal nanoparticles (silver, iron) and metal oxide nanoparticles (titanium dioxide, zinc oxide and iron oxide) have captivated a great deal attention due to their capability of monitoring, sensing and treating such small amounts of environment contaminants. This critical review discusses the role of engineered nanomaterials for different technologies linked with environmental clean-up process. The technical challenge associated with the use of engineered nanomaterials is to produce them in desired shape and size with the use of advanced physical, chemical and biosynthesis techniques and once used for any application study its effect on ecosystem. This paper also highlights the potential risks linked with the discharge of nanomaterials into the environment and possible solutions of nanomaterial discharge implications in order to revolutionize nanotechnology in environmental applications.

Keywords: Nanotechnology; contaminants; soil; water; air

I. INTRODUCTION

During the past few years, increase in global population has forced rapid development of industrialization in order to provide a better quality of life to each citizen. In developed country, the atmosphere is occupied by various pollutants present in the form solid particles liquid droplets and gases such as carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides, carbon dioxide, heavy metals (arsenic, chromium, lead, cadmium, mercury, zinc), volatile organic compounds and sulphur oxide generated by several human activities include burning of coal or by industrial processes. The existence of nitrogen and sulphur oxide in the air produce acid rain that pollute the soil. Water pollution is induced by countless factors such as sewage, oil spills, leaking of fertilisers, pesticides and from by-products of burned fossil fuels. Presence of different types of contaminants in environment cause various diseases such as cancer, neurological disorder, nausea, muscular weakness and many other harmful effects on human health [1]. Research has shown that nanotechnology possess the ability to block, minimize, identify and treat environment pollution by controlling the matter at the nanoscale level with at least one dimension between 1-100 nm. Nanomaterials are synthesized by three important methods such as physical (high energy ball milling, electron beam lithography, inert gas condensation, laser pyrolysis method, melt mixing, physical vapor deposition, sputter deposition, electric arc deposition, molecular beam epitaxy), chemical (chemical coprecipitation, sol-gel, spin coating, dip coating, solvothermal. electrochemical deoposition. microemulsion, hydrothermal)and biological methods (bacteria, yeast, fungi and plant extracts) [2-5]. In the past few years, nanomaterials are found to be useful in various fields such as biomedical [6], energy [7], agriculture [8], information and communication technology [9], environment [10] and many more. Presently, nanomaterials such as titanium dioxide, zinc oxide have been used as an additive in food products, cosmetics and paints, fullerene composites are used in solar cells, medicine and tennis rackets, silica nanoparticles are used as solid lubricants, silver nanoparticles are used in food storage, textiles, disinfectants, soaps, bandages and carbon nanotubes are used in in solar panels [11]. It has been found that currently worldwide nanotechnology products requirement appears to be 17% in soils, 21% in water and 2.5% in air and the rest appearing in landfills[12]. In particular, tiny size, large surface-to-volume ratio, strong adsorption and high reactivity of nanomaterials has drawn wide attention for the detoxification of vast pollutants. variety of environmental Reported contaminants that successfully eliminated in environment by the use of different types of nanomaterials are heavy metals (arsenic, lead, mercury, copper, cadmium, chromium, nickel), radioactive, organic (polychlorinated biphenyls, benzoic, phenols, dves) and microbial contaminants (bacteria, viruses) [13]. Literature review indicated that zero valent metal nanoparticles, carbon and metal oxide based

nanomaterials are considered to be potential candidates for the treatment of polluted water, air, soil [14]. These are found to be very attractive for the fabrication of nanosensors, nanofilters, nanoadsorbents and nanomembranes [15]. Conceptually, any technology which satisfy following conditions must be considered effective for environmental clean-up process: (1) operation flexibility (2) final productivity (3) recovery of treatment agents (4) ecological clean and (5) economical and the incorporated engineered nanomaterials must possess the following properties: (i) high reactivity and longevity (ii) sufficient mobility within porous media and (iv) low toxicity [16-17].

Numerous studies have indicated that nanomaterials show great promise in decomposing chemicals present in the form of pollutants into less toxic species. This technology also called as green technology as it helps in minimizing the production of harmful wastes obtained during manufacturing process by using less material quantity and less toxic compounds. This paper presents an overview of nanomaterials extensively used for decontamination mainly comprise zero-valent metal nanoparticles (silver, iron), metal oxides nanoparticles (TiO₂, ZnO and iron oxide)and carbon nanomaterials. Advantages of current nanotechnology over traditional environmental clean-up methods, potential risks associated with the release of nanomaterial into the environment together with possible solutions to overcome its implications are explored in order to achieve a better future.

II. NANOMATERIALS USED IN DIFFERENT TECHNOLOGIES FOR TREATING ENVIRONMENTAL POLLUTION

Availability of fresh, affordable and fast delivery of clean water is one of the greatest problems that today people are facing in our country. Its demand is continuously rising because of increase in population and industrialization. Different pollutants present in water, waste water, ground water, oil spill and soil cannot be removed effectively via traditional methods includes (a) filtration (b) osmosis (c) coagulation (d) pump and threat (e) permeable reactive barriers (f) soil vapour extraction (g) soil washing [18]. These methods are quite expensive, time consuming and not able to detect and treat contaminants concentration at ppb levels [19]. Nanotechnology enhances the productiveness of remediation methods to a large extent through the use of nanoscale particles due to its tunable physical, chemical, electrical, magnetic and structural properties. Nanoadsorbents. photocatalysis, nanofilters. nanomembranes and nanosensors are found to be useful for prevention, control and reduction of pollution. These applications are discussed below which are either in the stage of laboratory or field research together with role of applied nanomaterials.

A. Nanoadsorbents

Nanotechnology facilitates the possibility of solving many problems related to water quality using nanoadsorbents. Traditional adsorbents such as activated carbon possess small surface area, lack of selectivity and slow adsorption kinetics which limit its efficiency. Nanoadsorbents overcome all these limitations by providing extremely high adsorption capacity, high selectivity, high surface area, short intraparticle diffusion distance, improved sensitivity, fast kinetics and tunable pore size making it suitable for industrial use. Factors that determine the adsorption capacity of any nanomaterial are surface area, pore volume, and average pore diameter [20-21]. They offer design flexibility either install as fixed-bed reactors in the form of pellets/beads doesn't require future separation process or can be integrated in the powder form in slurry reactors but need secondary unit to collect the nanoparticles. Nanoadsorbents made up carbon nanomaterials and metal oxides (iron oxide) are proven to be powerful for transporting of different types of environmental contaminants. It has been reported that as the particle size of nanoadsorbents decreases, metal adsorption capacity increases [22]. The large adsorption power, easy separation and regeneration make carbon based and metal oxide based nanoadsorbents technologically beneficial.

(a) Carbon Nanoadsorbents

Carbon nanostructures like fullerenes, carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and graphene are considered to be the most fascinating and promising materials for molecule adsorption due to their unique morphology, extremely high surface area, abundant porous structure, high strength and good electrical properties. CNTs are made by rolling up graphene sheets in cylindrical shape having diameter as small as 1 nm [23]. CNTs structure is classified into two types (1) multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) containing different stacks of concentric cylinders with a separation of about 0.34nm between the neighbouring stacks and (2) single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) containing single layers of graphene sheets turn round into cylindrical dimension [24]. Presently, both MWCNTs [25-27] and SWCNTs [28] have been used for the degradation of contaminants in water.

Fullerenes are fabricated by burning of benzene in an oxygen-argon flame with careful control of gas flow [29]. The adsorption capacity of fullerenes against organic pollutants such as organic and organometallic compounds [30], polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon [31] and naphthalene and 1.2-dichlorobenzene [32] in aqueous solutions have been reported. Investigation has shown that compared to traditional adsorbents, CNTs act as better adsorbents for the adsorption of various bulky molecules organic such as dichlorobenzene [33], ethyl benzene [34], dyes [27] and heavy metals include Zn²⁺[25], Pb²⁺, Cu²⁺, Cd²⁺ [26] due to diverse contaminant CNTs interactions and fast adsorption kinetics [35]. Conventional adsorbents carry notable number of small pores unreachable to sizeable organic molecules such as many antibiotics and pharmaceuticals [36] and possess small uptake tendency for low molecular weight polar organic compounds. Graphite oxide is a good alternative for CNTs due to its low cost and wide spectrum nature. Regeneration and reuse are the important factors that decide the practical effectiveness of any absorbent. Adsorbed metal ions on carbon nanoadsorbents can be recover by decreasing the pH of solution. Studies have shown that using SWCNTs and MWCNTs adsorption of zinc ions reduces to 25% after 10 regeneration cycles whereas using activated carbon, it reduces to 50% after one regeneration cycle [37]. They are often incorporated with other types of materials to enhance the adsorption, dispersibility, surface area, mechanical, optical and electrical properties [38]. Some review papers suggested that addition of CNTs with iron oxide nanomaterials was successfully able to eliminate chromium from water which can be easily isolated from water by using external magnetic field. Carbon nanomaterials are found to display good antibacterial properties, However, possible mechanisms accountable for such toxicity are not clearly known [23]. Regardless of the extraordinary properties of CNTs, its production and applications are mainly bounded by high cost and requirement of supporting medium to form structural components [39].

(b) Iron oxide nanoadsorbent

Iron oxide possess innumerable fascinating properties that can be use in diverse applications such as catalysis [40-42], environment protection [43-44], magnetic sensors [45], data storage media [46] and biomedicine [47]. In recent years, iron oxide nanomaterials have shown great potential for environment protection by the removal of different types of contaminants present in water and soil due to its simplicity of design, easy availability, low toxicity, low cost, easy regeneration with the assistance of external magnetic field, strong adsorption capacity, chemical inertness, excellent magnetic properties, superpara magnetism and great biocompatibility. Different forms of iron oxide such as magnetite (Fe_3O_4), maghemite (y- Fe_2O_3) and hematite (a-Fe₂O₃) are generally used as nanoadsorbents. Among all iron oxides, magnetite (Fe₃O₄) is of great interest because of its excellent magnetic properties. Magnetite (Fe₃O₄) has a cubic inverse spinel structure in which oxygen establishing face centered closed packed geometry and Fe cations reside interstitial tetrahedral sites and octahedral sites [48]. Hematite is extremely stable at ambient conditions and maghemite is metastable with respect to hematite. Hematite is weakly ferromagneticat room temperature and changes to an antiferromagnetic state at 260 K [49] and has a Curie temperature of 956 K, above which it shows paramagnetic state. Magnetite is ferrimagnetic at room temperature and has a Curie temperature of 850 K [50]. Maghemite is ferrimagnetic at room temperature and loses its magnetization with time and temperature [51].

It has been investigated that synthesis techniques play a crucial role in controlling the shape, size surface chemistry of nanomaterials [52]. Numerous studies show that chemical stability and dispersibility of iron oxide nanomaterials can be increase by surface modification with suitable ligands containing wide array of functional groups, such as phosphonic acids, carboxylic acid, biomolecules, polymer, organic molecules and amine to ensure the properties of iron oxide nanoparticles are intact. Different structures of iron oxide such as nanocrystals [53-55], particles [56-57], cubes [58], spindles [59], rods [60-61], wires [62], tubes [63], flakes [64] and 3D flower [65] have been favorably produced by different techniques. The adsorption capacity and efficiency of these materials is higher than bulk material due to the highly porous structure and high surface area [43-44]. Based on the chemistry involved iron-based technologies for environmental remediation can be classified into two groups: sorptive or stabilisation technologies in which

iron is used as a sorbent to immobilise contaminant agent and reductive technologies in which iron is used as an electron donor to transform pollutants into less poisonous form. It is well known that multiple technologies utilise both operation for both in-situ and ex-situ applications.

The small size of iron oxide nanomaterials is beneficial for the dispersal of metal ions from emulsion onto the active sites of the adsorbents surface. It has been reported that carbon-encapsulated magnetic nanoparticles were found to be very functional for the disposal of copper, cadmium metals [66] and Fe₃O₄ hollow nanospheres for removal of red dye in water [67]. Lot of research has been done on arsenic removal which shows that nanosized magnetite have superior adsorption performance compared to activated carbon due to sticking nature of iron oxide [68-69]. The ascorbicacid-coated Fe₃O₄ having diameter less than 10 nm and Fe₂O₃nanoparticles in cellulose matrix display superior adsorption capacity for arsenic [70-71]. Iron oxide nanoadsorbents containing amine group on their surface possess the capacity of taking away 98% copper from polluted river and tap water [72]. α-Fe₂O₃ were able to eliminate, a common azo-dye Orange II, used in the fabric industry due to the electrostatic attraction between the iron oxide surface and the Orange II species in solution. Furthermore, the iron oxide carrying Orange II could be reproduced by catalytic combustion at 300 ℃ in air for 3h, and the recovered a-Fe₂O₃ material were found to bear the same adsorption performance [65].

(c) Dendrimers and Aerogels based nanoadsorbents

Nanoscale dendrimers containing highly branched polymers used in ultrafiltration system are employed to capture heavy metals and organic compound. The interior shells of dendrimers usually made nonpolar for adsorption of organic compounds while the outer shell can be customized to different functional groups (e.g., hydroxyl- oramine-terminated) for adsorption of heavy metals. Mechanism responsible for adsorption phenomenon is constructed on the ground of complexation, electrostatic interactions, hydrophobic and hydrogen bonding effect [73].

Aerogels are used to solve the problem of oil spills in seawater leading harmful effect on environment. They act as a sponge and absorb very large amount of oil due to large surface area which can be easily removed from seawater. The drawback of this technique is that used materials are very costly, so possible substitute materials are in search.

B. Nanomembranes

The main objective of nanomembranes and nanofilters for water treatment is to eliminate unwanted materials from water. It provides a physical fencing for the separation of components based on their size. Benefit of using this technology is that it offers upper level of computerization, needed small area of land and the movable layout permit flexible structure. The main limitation of this method is high energy consumption, expensive clean-up and change of membranes during membrane fouling. Membrane fouling is created by discarded colloids, chemicals and microbes [74]. Nanomembrane performance, structure and functionalities depend on material properties.

Nanomaterials can be incorporated into membranes for enhancement of flux, membrane permeability. mechanical, thermal stability and for reducing fouling resistance. Used nanomaterials are metal oxide nanoparticles (e.g., Al₂O₃, TiO₂, silica and zeolite) and antibacterial nanoparticles (e.g., nano-Ag and CNTs). Nanomembranes can be constructed by gathering tailored nanoparticles into permeable membranes [75] or combining them with polymeric or inorganic membranes [76]. Membranes manufactured using metal oxide nanoparticles yield extra applicability that can catalysed reactions to decay foulants during oxidizing state. Existing literature review shows that excessive bacterial suppression has been accomplished using 3wt% polyvinyl-N-carbazole-SWNT nanocomposite [77]. Fabrication of thin film nanomembrane is in progress that integrate nanomaterials into the thin film sheet of composite membranes resulting in higher dye rejection .Thin film nanomembrane have been manufactured in situ by interfacial integration of TiO₂ nanoparticles functionalized with amine and chloride compounds along the boundary of copolyamide network on a polyimide support [78]. The membrane penetrability and refinement depend on the type, size and quantity of used nanoparticles. Nano-zeolites have shown great capacity in improving the permeability of thin film composite membranes.

Studies have suggested that iron oxide ceramic membranes and reverse osmosis (RO) membrane are used for the extraction of organic waste in water and seawater desalination. Reverse osmosis (RO) membrane is fabricated of cross-linked array of polymers embedded with nanoparticles constructed in such a way that it attracts water ions but repel bacteria and organics. Compared with traditional RO membrane, nanomembranes are less inclined to choking and have larger lifetime. However, lot of attempts have been made to grow low-fouling membranes using different nanomaterials, future research work is still required to interpret the potential of nanoparticles in design and operation of membranes.

(a) Zero-Valent Iron nanoparticles (nZVI)

Nano size zero-valent iron nanoparticles (nZVI)is another class of extensively studied nanomaterial that could address viable outcome of few environmental clean-up issues. It is extremely useful for the treatment of insitu and exsitu contaminated groundwater and surface water as shown in Fig. 1. It acts as a strong reducing agent because of moderate reduction potential (-0.440) [79]. Zero-valent zinc nanoparticles also has a moderate reduction potential (-0.762) but Fe is preferred over Zn for ground water contamination treatment applications because it leads to adsorption, oxidation, reduction and precipitation in the existence of dissolved oxygen, possess favourable quantum size properties and increased transport efficiency [80].

In the oxidation-reduction reaction between nZVI and contaminants, under anaerobic conditions, Fe^{0} can be oxidized by H₂O or H⁺ and generates Fe^{2+} and H₂, both of which act as potential reducing agent for contaminants. With increase of solution pH, Fe^{2+} may undergo further oxidative transformation to Fe^{3+} , which can make $Fe(OH)_{3}$, an effective flocculant for the elimination of contaminants, for example, Cr(VI) [81]. In the presence of dissolved oxygen, Fe^{0} will be oxidized to

Fe²⁺ by transferring two electrons to O_2 to produce H_2O_2 which can be reduced to H_2O by Fe⁰. Further, the addition of H_2O_2 and Fe²⁺ (known as Fenton reaction) can produce hydroxyl radicals having powerful oxidizing capacity with respect to large number of organic compounds [82].

Fe^0 + 2H ₂ O \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + H ₂ + 2OH ⁻	(1)
$Fe^0 + 2H^+ \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + H_2$	(2)
$Fe^0 + O_2 + 2H^+ \rightarrow Fe^{2+} + H_2O_2$	(3)
Fe^0 + H_2O_2 + $2H^+ \rightarrow Fe^{2+}$ + $2H_2O$	(4)
$Fe_{a}^{2+} + H_2O_2 \rightarrow Fe^{3+} + HO^{-} + OH^{-}$	(5)
<u> </u>	

Fe²⁺ has found to be the supreme dangerous iron state for microorganisms and get quickly change to Fe³⁺in the framework of neutral and alkaline conditions. In deficiency of oxygen, Fe⁰ is likely to be changed into either magnetite (Fe₃O₄) or maghemite (Fe₂O₃, γ -Fe₂O₃) based on oxidation ambient [83].

The potentiality of the nZVI core to function as an electron donor for reductive immobilization and the oxide shell offer adsorptive sites by the formation of precipitates during corrosion makes nZVI one of the most technically mature and multifunctional remediation agent [84]. Zero-valent iron particle having size in the micron range is by no means very beneficial for waste water treatment due to its low reactivity and decrease in reactivity with time nZVI have several advantages such as easy availability, inexpensive and non-toxic nature. Its chemical reactivity can be improved further by using bimetallic iron nanoparticles in which the iron nanoparticles are covered with a secondary metal such as Fe/Pd [85], Fe/Pt[86], Fe/Ag [87] and Fe/Ni [88] proven to be more active and stable than nZVI. Application of bimetallic iron systems show improved reaction rates, more saturated end products and result in small build-up of chlorinated intermediates [89]. Compared to the currently available techniques, such as centrifugation and filtration systems, this method is found to be simple and does not require electricity found to be apt for remote areas having limited access to power supply. The utility of this technology is not just bounded to laboratory scale but can be successfully applied for real water contaminated sites in commercial scale.





Discovery of nZVI was led by Gillham and O'Hannes in, who found that iron permeable-reactive barriers (PRB) filled with bulk zero valent iron particles were possess the capacity to convert a group of acyclic halogenated compound present in groundwater into less toxic compound [90]. PRB is not consider beneficial for long term use for processing deep aquifers or contaminated area due to its decrease permeability and high installation costs. Decrease in permeability is because of the deposition of iron oxidation products. nZVI are considered by many as an alternative option to PRB owing to their small size [91]. nZVI can be introduced straight into the origin of contaminated groundwater under pressure and by gravity as slurry for in situ treatment or it can be utilized in membranes for ex situ applications offering a highly flexible treatment technology. This technology is found to be very effective for deactivating heavy metals and radionuclides. The nanoparticles continue to remain active around contaminants present in soil and water for prolonged span of time (>4-8 weeks). The reaction mechanism of nZVI for contaminant transformation has been extensively studied [92].

nZVI has been identified as exceptionally fruitful for the detoxification of large variety of chemical pollutants such as azo dyes [93], chlorinated solvents (PCE, TCE, DCE) [94], pesticides (lindane, DDT) [95], halogenated organic compounds [96], nitroaromatic compounds [97], phenols [98], heavy metals such as chromium, copper, lead, arsenic, cadmium [99-104], inorganic anions such as phosphates, nitrates [105-106], metalloids [107], and radio elements such as uranium, plutonium [108]. These particles were also found to be useful for inactivation and control of certain gram-positive bacteria (Bacillus subtilis) and gram-negative bacteria (Pseudomonas fluorescens) [109].

nZVI can be synthesized by two approaches top-down and bottom-up. Bottom-up approaches require chemical reduction of ferrous or ferric salts [110]. Borohydride reduction of ferrous salts is the most commonly explore synthesis process. This approach generate considerably reactive and often polydisperse nanoparticle which may susceptible to agglomeration [111]. Expensive reagents, involvement of various separation steps, creation of huge amount of wastewater and hydrogen gas restricted its commercial application [112]. nZVI procured by making use of borohydride reduction method was effectively employed for the elimination of cobalt ion Co2+ over a wide concentration range. In order to minimize the cost production, it is synthesized by the ball milling method [113]. The degradation of iron pentacarbonyl (Fe(CO)₅) in organic solutions in the proximity of high-intensity ultrasonic waves was also used to synthesized nanoscale particles. This method produces ultrafine iron (10-20nm) with small size disperion but not useful for industrial applications due to highly toxic nature of precursor [114]. Presently, commercial-scale production is achieved by electrolytic reduction of ferrous iron employing an applied current [115]. In recent years, the synthesis of iron nanoparticles from tea leaves and sorghum bran extracts that contain polyphenolic compounds has drawn much attention [116].

Inspite of numerous benefits of using nZVI, it carries certain drawbacks, such as aggregation, easily oxidation upon exposure to air and difficulty of isolating from degraded system. In order to enhance its performance, it is coated with layer of polyelectrolytes, surfactants and dispersed in oil-water emulsions [117]. nZVI has been fortunately conjugated to a range of

supports including silica, clays, zeolites and reverse osmosis membranes [118]. Surface-stabilization of nZVI has also been achieved with polymer [119], carbon [120] and noble metal [121] to provide control over shape, size and core-shell morphology of particles. Emulsified nZVI is used for treating dense nonaqueous phase liquid [122]. Future researchers need to develop effective clean-up scheme by working on the following key areas: mechanism of material reactivity with wide spectrum of contaminants, methods to improve colloidal stability by mitigating aggregation, construction of models to determine the transport properties in porous media, connecting laboratory investigations to field implementation and studying its release effects on ecosystem and human health.

(b) Zero-Valent Silver Nanoparticles (Nano-Ag)

Nanotechnology has shown that antimicrobial nanomaterials are found to be very effective for disinfection and microbial control in wastewater treatment. Traditional disinfectants used for water cleaning such as chlorine can result toxic disinfection by-products. Application of antimicrobial nanomaterials can increase the power of disinfection by minimizing formation of toxic by-products. Examples of effective antimicrobial nanomaterials are nano-Ag, nano-ZnO, nano-TiO2, nano-Ce2O4, CNTs and fullerenes. Among all, Nano-Ag is the most extensively utilized nanomaterial. Highly toxic nature, being simple to use and broad antimicrobial spectrum made it a favourable choice for the treatment of large variety of microorganisms includes viruses [123], bacteria [124] and fungi [125]. Considerable research on silver nanoparticles shows that several theories have been presented to understand the exact mechanism of antimicrobial activity but precisely not published and will remain interesting topic of current research. Presently it is well admitted that the antimicrobial activity of nano-Ag mainly originates from the discharge of silver ions which can destroy the cell membrane and hence responsible for the destruction of cells [126]. It is also reported that silver ions can be attach with thiol groups of many vital proteins, producing enzyme damage and can destroy cell normal functions [127]. Studies have suggested that the release rate of silver ions play crucial part in determining the antimicrobial activity. The release kinetics of silver ions based on the size, shape and type of ligand used. The existence of ordinary ligands minimizes the bioavailability of silver ions and hence its toxicity [126]. It is reported that small application of silver ions results in increasing the growth of E. coli [128]. Direct use of nano-Ag pose some difficulty in existing cleaning technology due to their tendency of aggregation in aqueous media [129]. It is found to be useful in improving the performance of filters and membrane by providing barrier against waterborne pathogens. It has been reported that application of colloidal nano-Ag can eliminate Escherichia coli in the rate between 97.8% and 100% [130].

C. Nano-Sensors

It is a sensitive device used for fast identification of foreign matter and bacteria with molecular accuracy for the safety of human health and environment by producing a digital electronic signal. It is generally employed for the detection of poisonous chemical compounds present at ultra-low levels (ppm and ppb) in

commercial products and in biological systems. Sensors made up of nanomaterials are more accurate, have high selectivity, high sensitivity, high speed, allow multiplex target detection, able to detect very lower concentration of targeted analyte (e.g. bacteria) and permit continuous, real-time monitoring due to their exceptional physical, chemical, optical, and magnetic properties. Conventional sensors are deliberate and unsuccessful in detecting the existence of arising pathogens particularly with respect to viruses and bacteria. Nanosensors are generally made up of magnetic nanoparticles, quantum dots, noble metals, dye-doped nanoparticles and carbon nanotubes. Broad absorption and narrow emission spectra of quantum dots make it worthy for multiplex detection by employing single excitation light source. The emission spectrum of quantum dot is luminous and more stable than conventional dyes.

D. Photocatalysis

Photocatalysis seems to be one of the emerging and promising green technologies as it converts solar energy into chemical energy being used for solving many problems related to energy and environment such as photodegradation of pollutants, water purification, hydrogen production, carbondioxide photoreduction, photoelectric sensing and photodynamic therapy [131]. Semiconducting nanomaterials such as titanium dioxide (TiO₂), zinc oxide (ZnO) have been widely used for the removal of microbial pathogens and trace contaminants using photocatalytic oxidation method due to its high photocatalytic activity, low toxicity, chemical stability, biological stability and low cost. These materials generate electron-hole pair on absorption of photon having energy of the range of material band gap. The generated electron-hole pair travel individually to the semiconductor surface, take part in the redox reactions through charge transfer to organic contaminants and produce less harmful low molecular weight by-products such as CO₂, H₂O [132] as shown in Fig. 2. In this way several semiconductors can photodegrade numerous toxic compounds into be products by employing light.



Fig. 2. Mechanism of TiO₂ photocatalytic process.

The major drawback of this technology is its slow kinetics due to limited range of light absorption of the solar spectrum and fast recombination of charge carriers. Recently, lot of research has been done to improve the photocatalytic activity with the help of nanotechnology by following ways:

1. By doping with noble metals to prevent the fast recombination of electrons and hole in the semiconductor and enhances the performance of the photocatalysis process.

2. By surface modification with organic or inorganic dyes.

3. By optimizing the shape and size of nanoparticles.

It has been presented that on reducing the particle dimension of TiO₂, tendency of electron-hole recombination decreases which further help in improving interfacial charge carrier transfer [133]. TiO₂ nanotubes were proven to be more effective than TiO₂ nanoparticles for degradation of organic compound [134]. Existed literature shows that WO₃ and Amino fullerene can decay pharmaceutical compounds and make viruses immobile under visible light irradiation in photocatalytic water treatment process [135].

(a) Titanium dioxide (TiO_2)

The commonly used photocatalysts are metal oxide semiconductor nanomaterials, among which TiO₂ is one of the most investigated photocatalytic material due to little contaminant selectivity. Three main crystalline phases of TiO₂ are anatase, rutile and brookite. Numerous studies reveal that anatase phase of TiO2 exhibit large photocatalytic activity in contrast to other crystalline phases of TiO₂ [136]. A lot of effort has been made in order to improve photocatalytic activity but still not yet able to be achieved due to the fast electron-hole pair recombination and large band gap ($E_q > 3.2 \text{ eV}$) [137]. Wide band gap nature of TiO₂ shows that light absorption is possible for wavelength below 388 nm (ultra-violet range) constituting only 7% of solar spectrum [138]. Key for making TiO₂ a powerful visible light photocatalyst is to minimize its band gap energy. Extensive work has been done to understand the photocatalytic mechanism of TiO₂ [139-140], impact of the photocatalysis operational variables with the change of TiO₂ characteristics [141-142] and applications of TiO₂ photocatalyst in large scale. TiO₂ produce reactive oxygen species and hydroxyl radicals on intake of UV light which can entirely deteriorate all types of contaminant in very short response time. It has been reported distinct nanostructures (0D, 1D and 2D) of TiO₂ may produce diverse photocatalytic properties which can be attained by using large range of synthesis techniques [143-144]. TiO_2 nanoparticles can be synthesized by hydrolysis, calcination, and flame furnace reactor method by ignition of vaporizable compounds (e.g., TiCl₄), emerge as one of the most effective industrial method for gas-phase synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles [145-146].

The photocatalytic activity depends on various factors such as initial concentration of titanium precursor, pH of the solution, temperature, treatment time, oxygen content and the type of chemical species being utilized [147]. Parameters responsible for reducing photocatalytic activity of TiO2 are fast recombination of charge carriers and non-absorption of visible light [148-149]. In order to overcome these drawbacks, various methods have been suggested to use it for visible light and to impede electron-hole recombination such as surface modification with metals (iron, cobalt, chromium, silver, platinum and gold), non-metals copper. (carbon,nitrogen, sulphur) and coupling with other semiconductor materials [150-152].

It has been demonstrated that doping with metallic atoms help in producing localized energy levels between the valence band and the conduction band which facilitates electron-hole separation and increase

visible photocatalytic activity [153]. Among all, Ag is immensely studied due to its easy production, antibacterial properties and economical nature [154]. Different techniques have been explored such as chemical reduction, UV irradiation, hydrothermal method and electrospinning to fabricate Ag/TiO₂ nanostructures. It has been reported that addition of Ag nanoparticles prevents the recombination of photo-generated electronhole pairs in TiO_2 and cause a red shift of TiO_2 absorption edge wavelength [155-157]. Enhancement of visible photocatalytic process by doping with chromium metal is possible due to the absorption of Cr³⁺ ions on the surface of TiO₂ because of high surface energy, strong electrostatic interaction which lead to gradual diffusion of ions into the bulk of TiO₂ grains and then finally get inserted into the Ti4+ vacancy. This charge transfer band ($Cr^{3+} \rightarrow Ti^{4+}$) result in reducing the band gap of TiO₂ and hence increases the absorption for visible light [158]. Electron-hole pair separation using platinum photocatalyst is also reported [159]. In spite of the fact that metal-TiO₂ catalysts act effective visible photocatalyst, still they are not preferred as to suffer from multiple demerits such as high cost, difficult to recover, receptive to gas poisoning and produce harmful impact on the atmosphere. In order to recover TiO₂ easily from the treated system, research on integrating it with membrane and filtration technology has drawn much attention in recent years [160-161]. Existing publications shows that TiO₂ is also doped with nonmetals (Carbon materials and nitrogen) in order to reduce the cost of this technology as demanded by industrial applications. Lot of work has been done on nitrogen doped TiO₂ photocatalyst because of its huge stability and little ionization energy [162-163]. For TiO₂ to work as effective visible light photocatalyst, it is also coupled with small band gap semiconductor includes WO₃, SnO₂, FeO₃ and CdS [164-165].

The TiO₂ based photocatalyst can be employed in diverse environmental and energy storage applications such as wastewater treatment, hydrogen generation, water disinfection and photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ into energy fuel. Various kinds of organic and inorganic contaminants have been released into the environment through water pollution caused by textile, agriculture and other industries. Different types of dyes including methylene blue [166], methyl orange [167], rodamine B [168], brilliant green [169], phenol [170] and acid red [171] have been photodegraded using visible TiO₂ based photocatalyst. It can also be used for destroying a large number of microorganisms present in water such as fungi, algae, protozoa and viruses [172]. It has been reported that Cu-TiO₂ photocatalyst synthesized using electrochemical anodization can effectively remove 97% lead from the environment [173]. This technology can also be used to produce hydrogen directly from water and from the decomposition of polluted effluents. Three Mechanisms responsible for hydrogen production are alcohol dehydrogenation, Water splitting, and alcohol [174-176]. Despite achieved reforming high photocatalytic efficiency in laboratory scale using different methods, TiO₂ is not considered very useful for large scale commercial applications. Hence, more efforts are required in investigating new effective methods to enhance the photocatalytic performance of TiO_2 in the visible light span for large applications.

(b) Zinc Oxide (ZnO)

In wastewater treatment usina photocatalytic technology, besides TiO₂, ZnO has come out another potential member because of its direct, wide band gap nature, powerful oxidation ability, strong antimicrobial property and low cost [177-178]. The photocatalytic efficiency of ZnO is limited by the absorption of small range of solar spectrum and fast recombination of photogenerated charge carriers due to photo corrosion [179]. To increase its photocatalytic activity, ZnO is doped by various types of metal and couple with different types of semiconductor materials such as CdO [180], CeO₂ [181], SnO₂ [182], TiO₂ [183]. grapheneoxide (GO) [184] and reduced graphene oxide (RGO) [185].

III. IMPLICATIONS OF USING NANOMATERIALS

Although use of nanotechnology proved to be beneficial for environmental remediation, but there are many uncertainties associated with its use. Application of nanomaterials could lead adverse effects on ecosystem and on people wellness. Ecological hazards linked with the utilization of nanomaterial include (i) dispersal in the environment due to high mobility(ii) ecotoxicity (iii) persistency due to small size (iv) bioaccumulation (v)ability to inverse their initial entry from atmosphere [186].

The major ecosystem concern is that nanoparticles due to small size remain present in atmospheric frame damaging drinking aqua bodies and thus effecting the stamina of humans and animals. Human health risks are caused by the inhalation of nanoparticles through polluted air, water and through the application of cosmetics products [187]. Exposure of nanomaterial cause a number of harmful effects on human health such as oxidative stress, genotoxicity, lung diseases, inflammation, pulmonary pathological changes etc [188-189].These implications may confine the large-scale implementation of nanomaterials for environmental decontamination. Hence, in order to build this technology more efficient than dangerous additional research is required to perform sooner than later.

IV. POTENTIAL SOLUTIONS OF NANOMATERIAL IMPLICATIONS

After reviewing the implications of nanomaterial on ecosystem and on human health. This section presents sustainable solutions to solve problems associated with discharge of nanomaterials into environment.

1. Use of green technology for formation of nanoparticles from various plant parts. For example: extracts of green tea leaves, oak, pomegranate having huge anti-oxidant capacities have been employed for the synthesis of nZVI [190-191]. Benefit of using this method is its simplicity, environmentally friendly nature, low cost, prolonged reactivity, easily availability of plant extracts and release of less toxic by-products into the environment causing less harm to aquatic and human health.

2. Use of biological method for synthesis of nanoparticles using microorganisms (bacteria, yeast and fungi) [192].

3. Application of emulsified zero valent iron particles in which iron particles are confined in a biodegradable oil

membrane result in breaking insoluble pollutants into harmless compounds.

4. Development of effective and fast analytical tools that can measure nanomaterials dispersion in water and soil.

5. Development of 'smarter' nanomaterials by providing coatings of suitable functional groups which can improve durability, transport and reactivity of nanoparticles [193-194].

6. Need to install persistent, semi-persistent or detachable permeable iron barriers combine with nZVI for shallow aquifers.

7. Need to watch the usage of nanomaterials in the ecosystem by local legal and national regulatory bodies rigorously.

8. Need to do valid testing of regulations specific to each nanomaterial with the requirement to revise them regularly and follow strictly to give accurate ecotoxicological information.

9. Requirement of integrated approach of modern research, people awareness programs, media exposure and statutory provisions in order to make nanotechnology an eco-friendly, sustainable and economical technology in environmental applications [187].

V. CONCLUSION

Nanotechnology being one of the fastest expanding section of world resources has guided the evolution of a large range of unique technologies in both household and commercial scale for the processing of organic, inorganic and bacterial contaminants present in atmosphere through water, soil and air. Nanomaterials such as carbon nanomaterials, metal oxides (TiO₂, ZnO and iron oxides) and zero valent metal nanoparticles (Ag and Fe) undoubtedly considered to be promising candidates over conventional materials for environmental applications because of its small size, large sensitivity, unique physical, chemical, electrical and magnetic properties. Traditional methods of environmental remediation such as discharge to landfill, pump-and-treat are not endurable whereas use of nanomembranes, nanofilters and nanosensors are found to be highly effective and versatile. The efficiency of different technologies depends on the properties of used nanomaterials which in turn depends on their synthesis techniques and enhancements in surface stability.

In future, lot of research is required in overcoming the drawbacks of discussed nanomaterials such as aggregation and oxidation of nanoscale zero valent iron particles, limited ultraviolet light adsorption by TiO_2 and ZnO nanoparticles and high production cost of carbon nanotubes.

It can be concluded that nanotechnologies provide the opportunity to minimize the environmental pollution through various process such as reducing the production of waste product during manufacturing processes, use of less harmful chemicals, minimize material usage, reduction in used amount of energy, minimize release of green house gases during fuel buring and utilization of biodegradable plastics. For field applications, these methods need to be cost effective and capable to treat low contaminant concentrations. Generation, utilization and discharge of nanomaterials will surely cause their appearance in air, water and soil. The unknown risks or impact linked with the usage of nanomaterials on people wellness and on ecosystem need to be addressed before their large scale application. At present there is requirement to make strict guidelines related to its implementation for remediation technology. In future, complete evaluation of the toxicity, economical efficiency and reactivity of different nanomaterials will remain an interesting subject of research for ensuring real field environmental applications.

VI. FUTURE SCOPE

As discussed, contaminants present in environment mainly comes from industrial, agricultural pesticides and medical waste. Experimentally, several techniques are found to be effective for control of pollution includes nanoadsorbents, photocatalysis, nanofilters, nanomembranes and nanosensors. However, still there are bottlenecks of mentioned technologies such as low conversion efficiency of light energy in photocatalysis method due to the presence of large factors in environment (pH, ionic strength) [195].

In the future, following work can be proposed for increasing the efficiency of laboratory based nanotechnologies:

1. Production of green, economical nanomaterials of desired shape and size.

2. Once synthesized, potential hazards associated with its use need to be investigated.

3. The effect of different environmental parameters on different nanotechnologies should be investigated.

4. Though ab initio models and simulation models, behaviour of the nanomaterial during the design of technology can be study.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Author is thankful to Sarala Birla University, Ranchi for providing infrastructural facility.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the review reported in this paper.

REFERENCES

[1]. Mandal, B. K., & Suzuki, K.T. (2002). Arsenic round the world: a review, *Talanta*, *58*(1): 201–235.

[2]. Kulkarni, S.K. (2015).Synthesis of Nanomaterials—I (Physical Methods). In Nanotechnology: Principles and Practices, Springer, Cham 55-76.

[3]. Kulkarni, S.K., (2015). Synthesis of Nanomaterials— II(Chemical Methods). In Nanotechnology: Principles and Practices, Springer, Cham 77-109.

[4]. Rajput, N. (2015). Methods of preparation of nanoparticles–A Review, *International Journal of Advances in Engineering & Technology*, 7(6): 1806.

[5]. Das, R. K., Pachapur, V. L., Lonappan, L., Naghdi, M., Pulicharla R., Maiti, S., Cledon, M., Dalila, L. M. A, Sarma, S. J. & Brar, S. K. (2017). Biological synthesis of metallic nanoparticles: plants, animals and microbial aspects, *Nanotechnology for Environmental Engineering*, *2*(1): 18. [6]. Kwon, O. J., & Park, J. M. (2011). Iron oxide-based superparamagnetic polymeric nanomaterials: design, preparation, biomedical application, *Progress in polymer Science*, Vol *36*(1): 168-189.

[7]. Luo, B., Shaomin, L. & Linjie, Z., (2012). Chemical approaches toward grapheme-based nanomaterials and their applications in energy-related areas, *Small*, 8(5): 630-646.

[8]. Mukherjee, A., Sanghamitra, M., Servin, A. D., Pagano, L., Dhankher, O. P., & White, J.C., (2016). Carbon nanomaterials in agriculture: a critical review, *Frontiers in plant science*, Vol *7*: 172.

[9]. Ermolov, V., Heino, M., Karkkainen, A., Lehtiniemi, R., Nefedov, N., Pasanen, P.,Radivojevic, Z., Rouvala, M., Ryhanen, T., Seppala, E. & Uusitalo, M. A. (2007). Significance of nanotechnology for future wireless devices and communications, IEEE 18th International Symposium on Personal, Indoor and Mobile Radio Communications, 1-5. IEEE

[10]. Dasgupta, N., Ranjan, S. & Ramalingam, C. (2017). Applications of nanotechnology in agriculture and water quality management, *Environmental chemistry letters*, *15*(4): 591-605.

[11]. Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering, Nanoscience and nanotechnologies: Opportunities and uncertainties, (2004).

http://www.nanotec.org.uk/report/summary.pdf

(accessed on 03.04.14).

[12]. Keller, A.A. & Lazareva, A. (2013). Predicted release of engineered nanomaterials: from global to regional to local, *Environmental Science & Technology Letters*, *1*(1): 65–70.

[13]. Noubactep, C. & Schoener, A. (2010). Metallic iron: dawn of a new era of drinking water treatment research?*Fresenius Environmental Bulleti*, vol *19*(8): 1661–1668.

[14]. Lu, H., Wang, J., Stoller, M., Wang, T., Bao, Y. & Hao, H. (2019). An overview of nanomaterials for water and wastewater treatment, *Advances in Materials Science and Engineering*, 2016: 1-10

[15]. Qu, X., Alvarez, P.J., & Li, Q. (2013). Applications of nanotechnology in water and wastewater treatment, *Water research*, *47*(12): 3931-3946.

[16]. Zhang, L., & Fang, M., (2010). Nanomaterials in pollution trace detection and environmental improvement, *Nano Today*, vol: *5*(2): 128–142.

[17]. Oller, I., Malato S., and Sánchez-Pérez, J. (2011).Combination of advanced oxidation processes and biological treatments for wastewater decontamination: a review, *Science of the total environment*, *409*(20)4141–4166.

[18]. Overview and Comparison of Conventional and Nano-Based water treatment technologies. Meridian Institute Global Dialogue on Nanotechnology and the Poor: Opportunities and Risks. http:// www.merid.org/nano/watertechpaper.

[19]. Pillay, K., Cukrowska, E. M., & Coville, N. J. (2009). Multi-walled carbon nanotubes as adsorbents for the removal of parts per billion levels of hexavalent chromium from aqueous solution, *Journal of hazardous materials*, vol: *166*(2-3) 1067-1075.

[20]. Gupta, V. K., & Saleh, T. A. (2013).Sorption of pollutants by porous carbon, carbon nanotubes and fullerene - An overview, *Environmental science and pollution research, 20*(5) 2828-2843.

[21]. Ren, X., Li, J., Tan, X., & Wang, X. (2013). Comparative study of graphene oxide, activated carbon and carbon nanotubes as adsorbents for copper decontamination, *Dalton Transactions*, *42*(15): 5266-5274.

[22]. Yean, S., Cong, L., Yavuz, C.T., Mayo, J. T., Yu, W. W., Kan, A. T., Colvin V. L. & Tomson M. B. (2005). Effect of magnetite particle size on adsorption and desorption of arsenite and arsenate, *Journal of Materials Research*, *20*(12): 3255-3264.

[23]. Chatterjee, A., & Deopura, B. L. (2002). Carbon nanotubes and nanofibre: an overview, *Fibers and Polymers*, *3*(4): 134–139.

[24]. Zhao, Y. L., & Stoddart, J. F. (2009). Noncovalent functionalization of single-walled carbon nanotubes, *Accounts of ChemicalResearch*, *42*(8) 1161–1171.

[25]. Cho, H. H., Wepasnick, K., Smith, B.A., Bangash, F. K., Fairbrother, D. H., & Ball W. P. (2010). Sorption of aqueous Zn[II] and Cd[II] by multiwall carbon nanotubes: the relative roles of oxygen-containing functional groups and graphenic carbon, *Langmuir*, 26(2) 967–981.

[26]. Li, Y. H., Ding, J., Luan, Z., Di, Z., Zhu, Y., Xu, C., Wu, D., & Wei, B. (2003). Competitive adsorption of Pb^{2+} , $Cu^{2+}and Cd^{2+}$ ions from aqueous solutions by multiwalled carbon nanotubes, *Carbon*, 41(14): 2787–2792.

[27]. Madrakian, T., Afkhami, A., Ahmadi, M., *and* Bagheri, H., (2011).Removal of some cationic dyes from aqueous solutions using magnetic-modified multi-walled carbon nanotubes, *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *196*: 109–114.

[28]. Yang, C.M., Park, J. S., An, K.H., Lim, S. C., Seo, K., Kim, B., Park, K. A., Han, S., Park, C. Y., & Lee, Y.H., (2005). Selective removal of metallic single-walled carbon nanotubes with small diameters by using nitric and sulfuric acids. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, *109* (41): 19242–19248.

[29]. Howard, J. B., McKinnon, J. T., Johnson, M. E., Makarovsky, Y. & Lafleur, A. L. (1992). Production of C60 and C70 Fullerenes in Benzene–Oxygen Flames. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry*, 96: (16)6657–6662.

[30]. Ballesteros, E., Gallego, M., and Valcarcel, M., (2000). Analytical potential of fullerene as adsorbent for organic and organometallic compounds from aqueous solutions, *Journal of Chromatography A.*, *869*(1-2):101-110.

[31]. Yang, K., Zhu, L., & Xing, B. (2006). Adsorption of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons by carbon nanomaterials, *Environmental science & technology*, *40*(6): 1855-1861.

[32]. Cheng, X., Kan, A. T. & Tomson, M. B. (2005). Uptake and sequestration of naphthalene and 1,2-dichlorobenzene by C60, *Journal of Nanoparticle Research*, *7*(4-5): 555-567.

[33]. Lu, C., Su, F., & Hu, S. (2008). Surface modification of carbonnanotubes for enhancing BTEX adsorption from aqueoussolutions. *Applied Surface Science*, *254*(21):7035–7041.

[34]. Yang, K., & Xing, B. (2010). Adsorption of organic compounds by carbon nanomaterials in aqueous phase: Polanyi theory and its application, *Chemical Reviews*, *110*(10): 5989-6008.

[35]. Ji, L., Chen, W., Duan, L., & Zhu, D., (2009). Mechanisms for strong adsorption of tetracycline to carbon nanotubes: a comparative study using activated carbon and graphite as adsorbents, *Environmental Science and Technology*, *43*(7): 2322-2327.

[36]. Lu, C., Chiu, H., & Liu, C. (2006). Removal of zinc(II) from aqueous solution by purified carbon nanotubes: kinetics and equilibrium studies, *Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research*, *45*(8): 2850-2855.

[37]. Ray, P.Z., & Shipley, H. J. (2015). Inorganic nanoadsorbents for the removal of heavy metals and arsenic: a review, *RSC Advances*, *5*(38): 29885–29907.

[38]. Lyon, D.Y., Fortner, J. D., Sayes, C. M., Colvin, V. L., & Hughes, J. B. (2005). Bacterial Cell Association and Antimicrobial Activity of a C60 Water Suspension, *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, *24*(11): 2757–2762.

[39]. Machado, F.M., Fagan, S.B., da Silva, I.Z., & de Andrade, M. J. (2015). Carbon Nanoadsorbents, C.P. Bergmann and F.M. Machado (eds.), Carbon Nanomaterials as Adsorbents for Environmental and Biological Applications, *Springer International Publishing Switzerland*, 11-32.

[40]. Shekhah, O., Ranke, W., Schule, A., Kolios, G., & Schlogl, R. (2003). Styrene synthesis: high conversion over unpromoted iron oxide catalysts under practical working conditions, *AngewandteChemie International Edition*, *42*(46): 5760-5763.

[41]. Brown, A.S., Hargreaves, J. S., & Rijniersce, B. (1998). A study of the structural and catalytic effects of sulfation on iron oxide catalysts prepared from goethite and ferrihydrite precursors for methane oxidation, *Catalysis Letters*, *53*(1-2): 7-13.

[42]. Ping, Li., Miser, D.E., Rabiei, S., Yadav, R.T. & Hajaligol, M.R. (2003). The removal of carbon monoxide by iron oxide nanoparticles, *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, 43(2): 151-162.

[43]. Oliveira, L. C., Petkowicz, D. I., Smaniotto, A., & Pergher, S. B. (2004). Magnetic zeolites: a new adsorbent for removal of metallic contaminants from water, *Water Research, 38*(17): 3699-3704.

[44]. Chen, J., Xu, L., Li, W., & Gou, X., (2005). A-Fe₂O₃ nanotubes in gas sensor and lithium-ion battery applications, *Advanced Materials*, *17*(5):582-586.

[45]. Zeng, H., Li, J., Liu, J.P., Wang, Z. L., & Sun, S. (2002). Exchange-coupled nanocomposite magnets by nanoparticle self-assembly, *Nature*, vol 420(6914):395.

[46]. Jordan, A., Scholz, R., Maier-Hauff, K., Johannsen, M., Wust, P., Nadobny, J., Schirra, H., Schmidt, H., Deger, S., Loening, S., & Lanksch, W. (2001). Presentation of a new magnetic field therapy system for the treatment of human solid tumors with magnetic fluid hyperthermia. *Journal of magnetism and magnetic materials*, *225*(1-2) :118-26.

[47]. Klotz, S., Steinle-Neumann, G., Strassle, T., Philippe, J., Hansen, T., & Wenzel, M. J. (2008). Magnetism and the Verwey transition in Fe₃O₄ under pressure, *Physical ReviewB*, *77*(1): 012411.

[48]. Morin, F.J. (1950). Magnetic susceptibility of α fe₂o₃ and α fe₂o₃ with added titanium, *Physical Review*, 78(6): 819-820.

[49]. Cornell, R. M. & Schwertmann, U. (2003). The Iron Oxides: Structure, Properties, Reactions, Occurrences and Uses, John Wiley & Sons. [50]. Murad, E., Stucki, J. W., Goodman, B.A, Schwertmann, U. (1985). (Eds.), Series C: Mathematical and Physical Sciences.

[51]. Dronskowski, R., (2001). The little maghemite story: A classic functional material, *Advanced Functional Materials*, vol 11(1): 27-29.

[52]. Jeong, U., Teng, X., Wang, Y., Yang, H., & Xia, Y. (2007). Superparamagnetic colloids: controlled synthesis and niche applications, *Advanced Materials*, *19*(1) 33–60.

[53]. Sun, S., Zeng, H., Robinson, D.B., Raoux, S., Rice, P.M., Wang, S. X., & Li, G. (2004). Monodisperse MFe₂O₄ (M= Fe, Co, Mn) nanoparticles, Journal of the *American Chemical Society*, *126*(1): 273-9.

[54]. Li., Z., Sun, Q., andGao, M., (2005). Preparation of water-soluble magnetite nanocrystals from hydrated ferric salts in 2-pyrrolidone: mechanism leading to Fe_3O_4 , *AngewandteChemie International Edition*, 44(1):123-126.

[55]. Park, J., An, K., Hwang, Y., Park, J.G., Noh, H.J., Kim, J.Y., Park, J.H., Hwang, N.M.,andHyeon, T., (2004). Ultra-large-scale syntheses of monodisperse nanocrystals, *Nature materials*, vol 3(12):891.

[56]. Deng, H., Li, X., Peng, Q., Wang, X., Chen, J., andLi, Y., (2005). Monodisperse magnetic single-crystal ferrite microspheres, *AngewandteChemie*, vol *117*(18) :2842-2845.

[57]. Sapieszko, R.S., and Matijević, E., (1980). Preparation of well-defined colloidal particles by thermal decomposition of metal chelates. I. Iron oxides, *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, vol 74(2) :405-22.

[58]. Hamada, S. and Matijević, E., (1981). Ferric hydrous oxide sols. IV. Preparation of uniform cubic hematite particles by hydrolysis of ferric chloride in alcohol—Water solutions. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, vol 84(1): 274-277.

[59]. Ozaki, M., Kratohvil, S., and Matijevic, E. (1984). Formation of monodispersed spindle-type hematite particles. *Journal of colloid and interface science*, vol *102*(1): 146-51.

[60]. Vayssieres, L., Sathe, C., Butorin, S.M., Shuh, D.K., Nordgren, J., & Guo, J. (2005). One-dimensional quantum-confinement effect in α -Fe₂O₃ ultrafine nanorod arrays, *Advanced Materials*, *17*(19): 2320-3.

[61]. Woo, K., Lee, H.J., Ahn, J. P., & Park, Y.S., (2003). Sol–gel mediated synthesis of Fe_2O_3 nanorods, *Advanced Materials*, *15*(20): 1761-1764.

[62]. Wen, X., Wang, S., Ding, Y., Wang, Z. L., & Yang, S. (2005). Controlled growth of large-area, uniform, vertically aligned arrays of α -Fe₂O₃ nanobelts and nanowires. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 109(1): 215-220.

[63]. Jia, C.J., Sun, L.D., Yan, Z.G., You, L.P., Luo, F., Han, X.D., Pang, Y. C., Zhang, Z., & Yan, C.H. (2005). Single-crystalline iron oxide nanotubes, *Angewandte Chemie International Edition*, *44*(28): 4328-33.

[64]. Zhu, Y.W., Yu, T., Sow, C.H., Liu, Y.J., Wee, A. T., Xu, X.J., Lim, C.T., & Thong, J.T. (2005). Efficient field emission from α -Fe₂O₃ nanoflakes on an atomic force microscope tip, *Applied Physics Letters*, *87*(2):023103.

[65]. Zhong, L.S., Hu, J.S., Liang, H.P., Cao, A.M., Song, W.G., and Wan, L.J. (2006). Self-Assembled 3D Flowerlike Iron Oxide Nanostructures andTheir Application in Water Treatment, *Advanced Materials*, *18*(18): 2426–2431.

[66]. Bystrzejewski, M., Pyrzyńska, K., Huczko, A., & Lange, H. (2009). Carbon-encapsulated magnetic nanoparticles as separable and mobile sorbents of heavy metal ions from aqueous solutions, *Carbon*, *47*(4): 1201–1204.

[67]. Iram, M., Guo, C., Guan, Y.,Ishfaq, A., & Liu, H., (2010). Adsorption and magnetic removal of neutral red dye from aqueous solution using Fe_3O_4 hollow nanospheres, Journal of hazardous materials, *181*(1-3): 1039-50.

[68]. Deliyanni, E.A., Bakoyannakis, D.N., Zouboulis, A. I., & Matis, K. A. (2003).Sorption of As(V) ions by akaganeite-type nanocrystals, *Chemosphere*, *50*(1) : 155-163.

[69]. Mayo, J.T., Yavuz, C., Yean, S., Cong, L., Shipley, H., Yu, W., Falkner, J., Kan, A., Tomson, M., & Colvin, V.L., (2007). The effect of nanocrystalline magnetite size on arsenic removal, *Science and Technology of Advanced Materials*, *8*(1-2): 71-75.

[70]. Feng, L., Cao, M., Ma, X., Zhu, Y., & Hu, C., (2012). Superparamagnetic high-surface-area Fe₃O₄nanoparticles as adsorbents for arsenic removal. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol 217-218 :439–446.

[71]. Yu, X., Tong, S., Ge, M., Zuo, J., Cao, C., & Song, W., (2013). One-step synthesis of magnetic composites of cellulose@iron oxide nanoparticles for arsenic removal. *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, *1*(3): 959–965.

[72]. Hui, L.I., Xiao, D. L., Hua, H.E., Rui, L. I., & Zuo, P. L. (2013). Adsorption behavior and adsorption mechanism of Cu (II) ions on amino functionalized magnetic nanoparticles, *Transactions of Nonferrous Metals Society of China*, *23*(9) 2657–2665 (2013).

[73]. Crooks R.M., Zhao, M., Sun, L., Chechik, V., & Yeung, L.K., (2001). Dendrimer-encapsulated metal nanoparticles: synthesis, characterization, and applications to catalysis, *Accounts of Chemical Research*, vol *34*(3):181-190.

[74]. AWWA membrane technology research committee, (2005). Committee Report: Recent Advances and research needs in membrane fouling, Journal of American Water Works Association, vol *97*(8):79-89.

[75]. Kim, S.H., Kwak, S.Y., Sohn, B.H., and Park, T.H., (2003). Design of TiO_2 nanoparticle self- assembled aromatic polyamide thin-film-composite (TFC) membrane as an approach to solve biofouling problem, *Journal of Membrane Science*, *vol 211*(1):157-65.

[76]. Bottino, A., Capannelli, G. andComite, A., (2002). Preparation and characterization of novel porousPVDF-ZrO₂ composite membranes, *Desalination*, vol 146(1-3):35-40.

[77]. Ahmed, F., Santos, C.M., Vergara, R.A., Tria, M.C., Advincula, R., and Rodrigues, D.F.,(2012). Antimicrobial applications of electroactive PVK-SWNT nanocomposites. *Environmental Science and Technology*, vol *46*(3): 1804-1810.

[78]. Peyravi, M., Jahanshahi, M., Rahimpour, A., Javadi, A., and Hajavi, S. (2014). Novel thin film nanocomposite membranes incorporated with functionalized TiO₂nanoparticles for organic solvent nanofiltration, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, vol (241) :155–166.

[79]. Bratsch, S.G., (1989).Standard electrode potentials and temperature coefficients in water at 298.15K. *Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference Data*, vol *18*(1):1–21 (1989).

[80]. Tosco, T., Papini, M.P., Viggi, C.C. and Sethi, R., (2014). Nanoscale zero valent iron particles for groundwater remediation: a review. *Journal of cleaner production*, vol (77):10-21.

[81]. Wang, Y., Fang, Z., Kang, Y., and Tsang, E.P., (2014). Immobilization and phytotoxicity of chromium in contaminated soil remediated by CMC-stabilized nZVI, *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol (275): 230–237.

[82]. Fu, F., Dionysiou, D.D., and Liu, H., (2014). The use of zero-valent iron for groundwater remediation and wastewater treatment: a review. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol (267):194–205.

[83]. Grieger, K.D., Fjordøge, A., Hartmann, N.B., Eriksson, E., Bjerg, P.L., and Baun, A., (2010).Environmental benefits and risks of zero-valent iron nanoparticles (nZVI) for in situ remediation: risk mitigation or trade-off?.*Journal of Contaminant Hydrology*, vol *118*(3-4):165-83.

[84]. Yan, W., Herzing, A.A., Kiely, C.J., and Zhang, W.X., (2010). Nanoscale zero-valent iron (nZVI): aspects of the core-shell structure and reactions with inorganic species in water, *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology*, vol *118*(3-4):96-104.

[85]. Elliott, D.W., and Zhang, W.X., (2001). Field assessment of nanoscale biometallic particles for groundwater treatment, *Environmental Science & Technology*, (35):4922–4926.

[86]. Zhang, W.X., Wang, C.B., and Lien, H.L. (1998).Treatment of chlorinated organic contaminants with nanoscale bimetallic particles, *Catalysis today* vol 40(4) 387-95.

[87]. Xu, Y., and Zhang, W.X. (2000). Subcolloidal Fe/Ag particles for reductive dehalogenation of chlorinated benzenes, *Industrial & engineering chemistry research* vol *39*(7):2238–2244.

[88]. Schrick, B., Blough, J.L., Jones, A.D., andMallouk, T.E., (2002). Hydrodechlorination of trichloroethylene to hydrocarbons using bimetallic nickel–iron nanoparticles, *Chemistry of Materials*, vol *14*(12):5140-7.

[89]. Muftikian, R., Fernando, Q., and Korte, N., (1995). A method for the rapid dechlorination of low molecular weight chlorinated hydrocarbons in water, *Water Research*, vol *29*(10): 2434-2439.

[90]. Gillham, R.W. and Ohannesin, S.F., (1994). Enhanced degradation of halogenated aliphatics by zero-valent iron, *Groundwater*, vol *32*(6):958-67.

[91]. Karn, B., Kuiken, T., and Otto, M., (2009).Nanotechnology and in situ remediation: a review of the benefits and potential risks, *Environmental health perspectives*, vol *117*(12):1813-1831.

[92]. EPA (US Environmental Protection Agency), 2003c. Databases of innovative technologies. http://www.epa.gov/tio/databases/.

[93]. Fan, J., Guo, Y., Wang, J., and Fan, M., (2009). Rapid decolorization of azo dye methyl orange in aqueous solution by nanoscale zerovalent iron particles. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol (166): 904-910.

[94]. Wang, C.B., and Zhang, W.X., (1997). Synthesizing nanoscale iron particles for rapid and complete dechlorination of TCE and PCBs. *Environmental science & technology*, *31*(7): 2154–2156. [95]. Elliot, D.W., Lien, H.L. and Zhang, W.X., (2009). Degradation of lindane by zero-valent iron nanoparticles, *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, vol 135(5):317-324.

[96]. Liang, D.W., Yang, Y.H., Xu, W.W., Peng, S.K., Lu, S.F., and Xiang, Y., (2014). Nonionic surfactant greatly enhances the reductive debromination of polybrominated diphenylethers by nanoscale zero-valent iron: mechanism and kinetics, *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol (278) 592–596.

[97]. Xiong, Z., Lai, B., Yang, P., Zhou, Y., Wang, J., and Fang, S., (2015). Comparative study on the reactivity of Fe/Cu bimetallic particles and zero valent iron (ZVI) under different conditions of N_2 , air or without aeration. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, (297): 261– 268.

[98]. Wang, X., Zhu, M., Liu, H., Ma, J., and Li, F., (2013).Modification of Pd–Fe nanoparticles for catalyticdechlorination of 2,4 dichlorophenol, *Science of the Total Environment*, vol (449)157–167.

[99]. Arancibia, M.N., Baltazar, S.E., Garcia, A., Muñoz-Lira, D., Sepúlveda, P., Rubio, M.A., and Altbir, D. (2016). Nanoscale zerovalent supported by Zeolite and Montmorillonite: template effect of the removal of lead ion from an aqueous solution. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, vol (301):371–380.

[100]. Klimkova, S., Cernik, M., Lacinova, L., Filip, J., Jancik, D., and Zboril, R., (2011). Zero-valent iron nanoparticles in treatment of acid mine water from in situ uranium leaching, *Chemosphere*, vol 82(8):1178–1184.

[101]. Scott, T.B., Popescu, I.C., Crane, R.A., & Noubactep, C., (2011). Nano-scale metallic iron for the treatment of solutions containing multiple inorganic contaminants. *Journal of hazardous materials*, vol *186*(1):280–287.

[102]. Ponder, S.M., Darab, J.G., Bucher, Caulder, J.D., Craig, I., Davis, L., Edelstein, N., Lukens, W.,Nitsche, H., Rao, H.L., and Shuh, D.K. (2001). Surface chemistry and electrochemistry of supported zerovalent iron nanoparticles in the remediation of aqueous metal contaminants. *Chemistry of Materials*, vol *13*(2):479– 486.

[103]. Burghardt, D., Simon, E., Knöller, K., and Kassahun, A. (2007). Immobilization of uranium and arsenic by injectible iron and hydrogen stimulated autotrophic sulphate reduction. *Journal of contaminant hydrology*, vol *94* (3-4) 305–314.

[104]. Li, X.Q., and Zhang, W.X. (2007). Sequestration of metal cations with zerovalent iron nanoparticles: a study with high resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (HR-XPS), *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, vol *111*(19):6939–6946.

[105]. Markova, Z., Siskova, K.M., Filip, J., Cuda,, J., Kolar, M., Safarova, K., Medrik, I., and Zboril, R., (2013). Air stable magnetic bimetallic Fe-Ag nano particles for advanced antimicrobial treatment and phosphorus removal, *Environmental Science and Technology*, vol *47*(10):5285–529.

[106]. Muradova, G., Gadjieva, S., Di Palma, L., and G. Vilardi, (2016). Nitrates removal by bimetallic nanoparticles in water, *Chemical Engineering Transactions*, vol (47): 205–210 (2016).

[107]. Ling, L., Pan, B., and Zhang, W.X., (2015).Removal of selenium from water with nanoscale

zero-valent iron: mechanisms of intraparticle reduction of Se (IV), *Water Research*, vol (71):274–281.

[108]. Ling, L., and Zhang, W.X. (2015). Enrichment and encapsulation of uranium with iron nanoparticle. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, vol *137*(8) 2788–2791.

[109]. Diao, M. and Yao, M. (2009). Use of zero-valent iron nanoparticles in inactivating microbes, *water research*, vol 43(20):5243 – 5251.

[110]. Glavee, G.N., Klabunde, K.J., Sorensen, C.M., and Hadjipanayis, G.C., (1995). Chemistry of borohydride reduction of iron (II) and iron (III) ions in aqueous and nonaqueous media. Formation of nanoscale Fe, FeB, and Fe₂B powders, *Inorganic Chemistry*, 34(1):28-35.

[111]. Sun, Y.P., Li, X.Q., Cao, J., Zhang, W.X., and Wang, H.P., (2006). Characterization of zero-valent iron nanoparticles, vol *120*(1-3):47-56.

[112]. Hoch, L.B., Mack, E.J., Hydutsky, B.W., Hershman, J.M., Skluzacek, J.M., and Mal-louk, T.E., (2008). Carbothermal synthesis of carbon-supported nanoscale zero-valent iron particles for the remediation of hexavalent chromium. *Environmental science & technology*, v42(7): 2600–2605.

[113]. EPA, 2010. http://www.clu-in.org/conf/tio/nanoiron 121410/ (accessed 21.09.11).

[114]. Suslick, K.S., Choe, S.B., Cichowlas, A.A. and Grinstaff,M.W.,(1991).Sonochemical synthesis of amorphous iron. *Nature*, vol *353*:(6343) 414–416.

[115]. Capek, I., (2004). Preparation of metal nanoparticles in water-in-oil (w/o) microemulsions. *Advances in colloid and interface science*, vol *110*: (1-2)49-74.

[116]. Hoag, G.E., Collins, J.B. Holcomb, J.L., Hoag, J.R., Nadagouda, M. N. and Varma, R.S. (2009). Degradation of bromothymol blue by 'greener' nanoscale zero-valent iron synthesized using tea polyphenols. *Journal of Materials Chemistry*, *19*(45):8671-7.

[117]. Sun, Y.P., Li, X.Q., Cao, J., Zhang, W.X., and Wang, H.P. (2006). Characterization of zero-valent iron nanoparticles. *Advances in colloid and interface science*, *120*(1-3): 47-56.

[118]. Wang, W., Zhou, M., Mao, Q., Yue, J., and Wang X. (2010). Novel NaY zeolite-supported nanoscale zero-valent iron as an efficient heterogeneous Fenton catalyst,. *Catalysis Communications*, *11*(11):937-41.

[119]. Wilson, J.L., Poddar, P., Frey, N.A., Srikanth, H., Mohomed, K., Harmon, J.P., Kotha, S., and Wachsmuth, J. (2004). Synthesis and magnetic properties of polymer nanocomposites with embedded iron nanoparticles. *Journal of Applied Physics*, vol *95*(3):1439-43.

[120]. Rudge, S.R., Kurtz, T.L., Vessely, C.R., Catterall, L.G., and Williamson, D.L., (2000). Preparation, characterization, and performance of magnetic iron–carbon composite microparticles for chemotherapy, *Biomaterials*, *21*(14):1411-20.

[121]. Guo, Z., Moldovan, M., Young, D.P., Henry, L.L. and Podlaha, E.J., (2007). Magnetoresistance and annealing behaviors of particulate Co–Au nanocomposites. *Electrochemical and Solid-State Letters*, vol *10*(12):E31-5. [122]. Berge, N.D., and Ramsburg, C.A., (2009). Oil-inwater emulsions for encapsulated delivery of reactive iron particles. *Environmental Science & Technology*, vol *43*(13): 5060–5066.

[123]. Borrego, B., Lorenzo, G., Mota-Morales, J.D., Almanza-Reyes, H., Mateos, F., López-Gil, E., de la Losa, N.,Burmistrov, V.A., Pestryakov, A.N., Bru, A. and Bogdanchikova, N., (2016). Potential application of silver nanoparticles to control the infectivity of Rift Valley fever virus in vitro and in vivo. *Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine*, vol *12*(5) 1185– 1192.

[124]. Kalhapure, R.S. Sonawane, S.J., Sikwal, D.R., Jadhav, M., Rambharose, S., Mocktar, C. and Govender, T., (2015). Solid lipid nanoparticles of clotrimazole silver complex: an efficient nano antibacterial against Staphylococcus aureus and MRSA, *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces,* vol (136): 651–658.

[125]. Krishnaraj, C., Ramachandran, R., Mohan, K., and Kalaichelvan, P.T., (2012). Optimization for rapid synthesis of silver nanoparticles and its effect on phytopathogenic fungi, Spectrochimica Acta—Part A: *Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, vol (93): 95– 99.

[126]. Xiu, Z.M., Ma, J. and Alvarez, P.J. (2011). Differential effect of common ligands and molecular oxygen on antimicrobial activity of silver nanoparticles versus silver ions, *Environmental Science and Technology*, vol *45*(20):9003-9008.

[127]. Liau, S.Y., Read, D.C., Pugh, W.J., Furr, J.R., and Russell, A.D., (1997). Interaction of silver nitrate with readily identifiable groups: relationship to the antibacterial action of silver ions, *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, vol *25*(4):279-283.

[128]. Xiu, Z.M., Zhang, Q.B., Puppala, H.L., Colvin, V.L., and Alvarez, P.J., (2012). Negligible particle-specific antibacterial activity of silvernanoparticles, *Nano Letters* vol *12*(8): 4271-4275.

[129]. Li, X., Lenhart, J.J., and Walker, H.W., (2011). Aggregation kinetics and dissolution of coated silver nanoparticles. *Langmuir*, *28*(2):1095–1104.

[13]. Oyanedel-Craver, V.A., and Smith, J.A., (2007). Sustainable colloidalsilver-impregnated ceramic filter for point-of-use wate rtreatment. *Environmental science & technology*, vol *42*(3):927-33.

[131]. Patil, S.M., Dhodamani, A.G., Vanalakar, S.A., Deshmuk, S.P., and Delekar, S.D., (2018). Multi-applicative tetragonal TiO₂/SnO₂ nanocomposites for photocatalysis and gas sensing, *Journal of Physics and Chemistry of Solids*, vol (115): 127-36.

[132]. Linsebigler, A.L., Lu, G., and Yates, Jr J.T. (1995). Photocatalysis on TiO₂ surfaces: principles, mechanisms and selected results, *Chemical reviews*, *95*(3) 735-58.

[133]. Zhang, Z., Wang, C.C., Zakaria, R., andYing, J.Y., (1998). Role of particle size in nanocrystalline TiO₂-based photocatalysts. *Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, vol *102*(52), 10871-10878.

[134]. Macak, J.M., Zlamal, M., Krysa, J., and Schmuki, P., (2007). Selforganized TiO₂ nanotube layers as highly efficient photocatalysts, *Small*, 3(2) 300-304.

[135]. Lee, J., Mackeyev, Y., Cho, M., Wilson, L.J., Kim, J.H., and Alvarez, P.J., (2010).C(60) aminofullerene immobilized on silica as a visiblelight- activated

photocatalyst. *Environmental Science and Technology*, *44*(24): 9488-9495.

[136]. Van der Meulen, T., Mattson, A., and Österlund, L., (2007). A comparative study of the photocatalytic oxidation of propane on anatase, rutile, and mixed-phase anatase–rutile TiO₂ nanoparticles: Role of surface intermediates, *Journal of Catalysis*, *251*(1):131-44.

[137]. Yang, D., Sun, Y, Tong, Z., Tian, Y., Li Y., Y., and Jiang, Z. (2015). Synthesis of Ag/TiO₂ nanotube heterojunction with improved visible-light photocatalytic performance inspired by bioadhesion. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, vol *119*(11):5827-35.

[138]. Wang, M., Pang, X., Zheng, D., He, Y., Sun, L., Lin, C., and Lin, Z., (2016). Nonepitaxial growth of uniform and precisely size-tunable core/shell nanoparticles and their enhanced plasmon-driven photocatalysis, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, *4*(19):7190-9.

[139]. Low, J., Cheng, B., and Yu, J., (2017). Surface modification and enhanced photocatalytic CO_2 reduction performance of TiO₂: a review, *Applied Surface Science*, vol (392)658-86.

[140]. Farner Budarz, J., Turolla, A., Piasecki, A.F., Bottero, J.Y., Antonelli, M., M.R. and Wiesner, M.R., (2019). Influence of aqueous inorganic anions on the reactivity of nanoparticles in TiO₂ photocatalysis, *Langmuir*, vol *33*(11): 2770-9.

[141]. Hadnadjev-Kostic, M., Vulic, T., Marinkovic-Neducin, R., Lončarević, D., Dostanić, J., Markov, S. and Jovanović, D. (2017). Photo-induced properties of photocatalysts: a study on the modified structural, optical and textural properties of TiO₂–ZnAl layered double hydroxide based materials. *Journal of cleaner production*, vol (164): 1-18.

[142]. Bhanvase, B.A., Shende, T.P., and Sonawane, S.H., (2017). nanocomposite photocatalyst for water and wastewater treatment. *Environmental Technology Reviews*, vol *6*(1):1-4.

[143]. Testino, A., Bellobono, I.R., Buscaglia, V., Canevali, C., D'Arienzo, M., Polizzi, S., Scotti, R., and Morazzoni, F. (2007). Optimizing the photocatalytic properties of hydrothermal TiO₂ by the control of phase composition and particle morphology. A systematic approach. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, vol *129*(12): 3564-75.

[144]. Nakade, S., Matsuda, M., Kambe, S., Saito, Y., Kitamura, T., Sakata, T., Wada, Mori, Y.H., and Yanagida, S. (2002). Dependence of TiO₂ nanoparticle preparation methods and annealing temperature on the efficiency of dye-sensitized solar cells. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B.*, vol *106*(39):10004-10.

[145]. Pottier, A., Chanéac, C., Tronc, E., Mazerolles, L., Jolivet, J.P., (2001.) Synthesis of brookite TiO₂nanoparticlesby thermolysis of TiCl₄ in strongly acidic aqueous media. *Journal of Materials Chemistry*, vol *11*(4):1116-1121.

[146]. Biswas, P. and Wu, C.Y. (2005). Nanoparticles and the Environment. *Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association*, vol *55*(6):708-46.

[147]. Ahmed, S., Rasul, M.G., Brown, R., Hashib, M.A., (2011). Influence of parameters on the heterogeneous photocatalytic degradation of pesticides and phenolic contaminants in wastewater: a short review. *Journal of environmental management*, vol *92*(3):311-30.

[148]. Wang, J., Wang, P., Cao, Y., Chen, J., Li, W., Shao, Y., Zheng, Y., and Li, D. (2013). A high efficient photocatalyst Ag₃VO₄/TiO₂/graphene nanocomposite with wide spectral response. *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, vol (136): 94-102.

[149]. Kim, D.H., Hong, H.S., Kim, S.J., Song, J.S., and K.S. Lee, K.S., (2004). Photocatalytic behaviors and structural characterization of nanocrystalline Fe-doped TiO₂ synthesized by mechanical alloying. *Journal of Alloys and Compounds*, vol 375(1-2):259-64.

[150]. Cai, J.,Huang, J., and Lai, Y., (2017). 3D Audecorated $BiMoO_6$ nanosheet/TiO₂ nanotube array heterostructure with enhanced UV and visible-light photocatalytic activity, *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, vol 5(31) 16412-21.

[151]. Kumar, R.V. and Coto, M., (2018).Visible Light-Active Photocatalysis: Nanostructured Catalyst Design, Mechanisms, and Applications, 499-526.

[152]. Kim, I.Y., Lee, J.M., Kim, T.W., Kim, H.N., Ki, H.I., Choi, W., and Hwang, S.J., (2012). A Strong Electronic Coupling between Graphene Nanosheets and Layered Titanate Nanoplates: A Soft-Chemical Route to Highly Porous Nanocomposites with Improved Photocatalytic Activity, *Small*, vol *8*(7):1038-48.

[153]. Choi, W., Termin, A., and Hoffmann, M.R., (1994). The role of metal ion dopants in quantum-sized TiO₂: correlation between photoreactivity and charge carrier recombination dynamics. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry*, vol *98*(51)13669-79.

[154]. Yao, Y.C., Dai, X.R., Hu, X.Y., Huang, S.Z. and Jin, Z., (2016). Synthesis of Ag-decorated porous TiO₂ nanowires through a sunlight induced reduction method and its enhanced photocatalytic activity, *Applied Surface Science*, vol *387*:469-76.

[155]. Guo, G., Yu, B., Yu, P., and Chen, X., (2009). Synthesis and photocatalytic applications of Ag/TiO₂-nanotubes, *Talanta*, vol *79*(3): 570-5.

[156]. He, X., Cai, Y., Zhang, H., and Liang, C., (2011). Photocatalytic degradation of organic pollutants with Ag decorated free-standing TiO_2 nanotube arrays and interface electrochemical response. *Journal of Materials Chemistry*, vol *21*(2) :475-80.

[157]. Liu, R., Wang, P., Wang, X., Yu., H., andYu, J., (2012). UV-and visible-light photocatalytic activity of simultaneously deposited and doped Ag/Ag (I)-TiO₂ photocatalyst. *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, vol *116*(33):17721-8.

[158]. Źhu, J., Deng, Z., Chen, F., Zhang, J., Chen, H., Anpo, M., Huang J. and Zhang, L., Hydrothermal doping method for preparation of Cr^{3+} -TiO₂ photocatalysts with concentration gradient distribution of Cr^{3+} . *Applied Catalysis B: Environmental*, vol *62*(3-4) 329-35.

[159]. Sakthivel, S., Shankar, M.V., Palanichamy, M., Arabindoo, B., Bahnemann, D.W., and Murugesan,V. (2004). Enhancement of photocatalytic activity by metal deposition: characterisation and photonic efficiency of Pt, Au and Pd deposited on TiO₂ catalyst, *Water research*, vol *38*(13): 3001-3008.

[160]. Meng, S., Mansouri, J., Ye, Y., and Chen,V. (2014). Effect of templatingagents on the properties and membrane distillation performance of TiO₂-coated PVDF membranes, *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol 450: 48–59.

[161]. Razmjou, A., Mansouri, J., Chen, V., Lim, M., and Amal, R., (2011). Titanianano composite polyethersulfone ultrafiltration membranes fabricated using a low temperature hydrothermal coating process, *Journal of Membrane Science*, vol 380(1-2):98–113.

[162]. Wang, X., Zhang, K., Guo, X., Shen, G., and Xiang, J. (2014). Synthesis and characterization of N-doped TiO₂ loaded onto activated carbon fiber with enhanced visible-light photocatalytic activity, *New Journal of Chemistry*, vol *38*(12):6139-46.

[163]. Kim, C.H., Kim, B.H., and Yang, K.S., (2012). TiO_2 nanoparticles loaded on graphene/carbon composite nanofibers by electrospinning for increased photocatalysis, *Carbon*, vol *50*(7):2472-81.

[164]. Kuang, S., Yang, L., Luo, S., and Cai, Q. (2009). Fabrication, characterization and photoelectron chemical properties of Fe_2O_3 modified TiO₂ nano tube arrays. *Applied Surface Science*, vol 255(16):7385-8.

[165]. Ren, G., Gao, Y., Yin, J., Xing, A., and Liu, H.U.,(2011). Synthesis of high activity TiO₂/WO₃ photocatalyst via environmentally friendly and microwave assisted hydrothermal process. *J. Chem. Soc. Pak*, vol *33*(5)666.

[166]. Tahir, K., Ahmad, A., Li B., Nazir, S., Khan, A.U., Nasir, T., Khan, Z.U., Naz, R., and Raza, M. (2016). Visible light photo catalytic inactivation of bacteria and photo degradation of methylene blue with Ag/TiO₂ nanocomposite prepared by a novel method. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*, vol (162):189-198.

[167]. Dong, S., Zhang, X., He, F., Dong, S., Zhou, D., and Wang, B. (2015). Visible-light photocatalytic degradation of methyl orange over spherical activated carbon-supported and $Er^{3+:}$ YAIO³ doped TiO₂ in a fluidized bed. *Journal of Chemical Technology & Biotechnology*, vol *90*(5):880-887.

[168]. He, M. Q., Bao, L. L., Sun, K. Y., Zhao, D. X., Li, W. B., Xia, J. X., & Li, H. M. (2014). Synthesis of molecularly imprinted polypyrrole/titanium dioxide nanocomposites and its selective photocatalytic degradation of rhodamine B under visible light irradiation. *Express Polymer Letters*, *8*(11).

[169]. Jain, A.K., Benjamin, S., and Ameta, R. (2015). Use of n, s-codoped nano titania as photocatalyst fordegradation of brilliant green, *Octa Journal of Environmental Research*, 3(1).

[170]. Zhang, D., Wei, A., Zhang, J., and Qiu, R. (2015). The photocatalytic interaction of Cr (VI) ions and phenol on polymer-modified TiO₂ under visible light irradiation. *Kinetics and Catalysis*, *56*(5):569-73.

[171]. Sabar, S., Nawi, M.A., andNgah, W.S., (2016). Photocatalytic removal of Reactive Red 4 dye by immobilised layer-by-layer TiO₂/cross-linked chitosan derivatives system, *Desalination and Water Treatment*, vol *57*(13): 5851-7.

[172]. Foster, H.A., Ditta, I.B., Varghese, S., and Steele, A., (2011). Photocatalytic disinfection using titanium dioxide: spectrum and mechanism of antimicrobial activity. *Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, vol 90(6): 1847–1868.

[173]. Sreekantan, S., Zaki, S.M., Lai, C.W., and Tzu, T.W. (2014). Post-annealing treatment for Cu-TiO₂ nanotubes and their use in photocatalytic methyl orange degradation and Pb (II) heavy metal ions removal. *The European Physical Journal Applied Physics*, vol *67*(1):10404.

[174]. Higashimoto, S., Tanaka, Y., Ishikawa, R., Hasegawa, S., Azuma, M., Ohue, H. and Sakata, Y., (2013). Selective dehydrogenation of aromatic alcohols photocatalyzed by Pd-deposited CdS–TiO₂ in aqueous solution using visible light. *Catalysis Science & Technology*, vol *3*(2):400-3.

[175]. Hagiwara, H., Higashi, K., Watanabe, M., Kakigi, R., Ida, S., and Ishihara, T., (2016). Effect of porphyrin molecular structure on water splitting activity of a $KTaO_3$ photocatalyst. *Catalysts*, vol *6*(3):42.

[176]. Kennedy, J., Jones, W., Morgan, D.J., Bowker, M., Lu, L., Kiely, C.J., and Wells, P.P., Dimitratos, N. (2015). Photocatalytic hydrogen production by reforming of methanol using Au/TiO₂, Ag/TiO₂ and Au-Ag/TiO₂ catalysts, *Catalysis, Structure & Reactivity*, vol 1(1):35-43.

[177]. Janotti, A., and Van deWalle, C.G, (2009). Fundamentals of zinc oxide as a semiconductor. *Reports on Progress in Physics*, vol 72(12):126501.

[178]. Reynolds, D.C., Look, D.C., Jogai, B., Litton, C.W., Cantwell, G., and Harsch, W.C. (1999). Valenceband ordering in ZnO. *Physical Review B.*, vol *60*(4):2340–2344.

[179]. Gomez-Solis, C., Ballesteros, J.C., Torres-Martinez, L.M., Juárez-Ramírez, I., Torres, L.D., Zarazua-Morin, M.E., and Lee, S.W., (2015). Rapid synthesis of ZnO nano-corncobs from Nital solution and its application in the photodegradation of methyl orange. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology A: Chemistry*, vol (298):49–54.

[180]. Samadi, M., Pourjavadi, A., and Moshfegh, A.Z. (2014). Role of CdO addition on the growth and photocatalytic activity of electrospun ZnO nanofibers: UV vs. visible light. *Applied Surface Science*, vol (298):147–154.

[181]. Liu, I.T., Hon, M.H., and Teoh, L.G. (2014). The preparation, characterization and photocatalytic activity of radical-shaped CeO₂/ZnO microstructures. *Ceramics International*, *40*(3):4019–4024.

[182]. Uddin, M.T., Nicolas, Y., Olivier, C., Toupance, T., Servant, L., M-ller, M.M., Kleebe, H.J., Ziegler, J., and Jaegermann, W.,(2012). Nanostructured SnO₂-ZnO heterojunction photocatalysts showing enhanced photocatalytic activity for the degradation of organic dyes. *Inorganic Chemistry*, vol *51*(14):7764–7773.

[183]. Pant, H. R., Park, C. H., Pant, B., Tijing, L. D., Kim, H. Y., & Kim, C. S. (2012). Synthesis, characterization, and photocatalytic properties of ZnO nano-flower containing TiO₂ NPs. *Ceramics International*, *38*(4), 2943-2950.

[184]. Dai, K., Lu, L., Liang, C., Dai, J., Zhu, G., Liu, Z., Liu, Q. and Zhang, Y.,Graphene oxide modified ZnO nanorods hybrid with high reusable photocatalytic activity under UV-LED irradiation, *Materials Chemistry and Physics*, vol *143*(3): 1410–1416. [185]. Zhou, X., Shi, T., and Zhou, H., (2012). Hydrothermal preparation of ZnO-reduced graphene oxide hybrid with high performance in photocatalytic degradation. *Applied Surface Science*, vol *258*(17): 6204–6211.

[186]. Grieger, K.D., Fjordøge, A., Hartmann, N.B., Eriksson, E., Bjerg, P.L. and Baun, A., Environmental benefits and risks of zero-valent iron particles (nZVI) forin situ remediation: Risk mitigation or trade-off? *Journal of Contaminant Hydrology*, *118*(3-4): 165-83

[187]. Wang, J., Gerlach, J.D., Savage, N., *and* Cobb, G.P. (2013). Necessity and approach to integrated nanomaterial legislation and governance, *Science of the total environment*, vol (442): 56-62.

[188]. Sayes, C.M., Gobin, A.M., Ausman, K.D., Mendez, J., West, J.L., and Colvin, V.L. (2005). Nano-C60 cytotoxicity is due to lipid peroxidation, Biomaterials, *26*(36): 7587–7595.

[189]. Sharma, C. S., Sarkar, S., Periyakaruppan, A., Barr, J., Wise, K., Thomas, R., Wilson, B. L., and Ramesh, G.T. (2007). Single-walled carbon nanotubes induces oxidative stress in rat lung epithelial cells. *Journal of nanoscience and nanotechnology*, *7*(7) : 2466-2472.

[190]. Hoag, G.E., Collins, J.B., Holcomb, J.L., Hoag, J.R., Nadgouda, M. N., and R.S. Varma, R.S. (2009). Degradation of bromothymol blue by 'greener' nanoscale zero-valentiron synthesized using tea polyphenols. *Journal of Materials Chemistry*, *19*(45): 8671–8677.

[191]. Kharissova, O. V., Dias, H. R., Kharisov, B.I., Pérez, B.O. and Pérez, V. M. (2013). The greener synthesis of nanoparticles, *Trends in biotechnology*, *31*(4): 240-248.

[192]. Yadav, K.K., Singh, J. K., Gupta, N., and Kumar, V. (2017). A Review of Nanobioremediation Technologies for Environmental Cleanup: A Novel Biological Approach. *Journal of Materials and Environmental Sciences*, *8*(2): 740-757.

[193]. Thatai, S., Khurana, S.P., Boken, J., Prasad, S., and Kumar, D. (2014). Nanoparticles and core-shell nanocomposite based new generation water remediation materials and analytical techniques: A review. *Microchemical Journal*, (116): 62-76.

[194]. Von der Kammer, F., Ferguson, P.L., Holden, P. A., Masion, A., Rogers, K. R., Klaine, S. J., Koelmans, A. A., Horne, N. and Unrine, J. M. (2012). Analysis of nanomaterials in complexmatrices (environment and biota): general considerations and conceptual case studies. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, *31*(1): 32-49.

[195]. Guan, G., Ye, E., You, M., & Li, Z. (2020). Hybridized 2D nanomaterials toward highly efficient photocatalysis for degrading pollutants: current status and future perspectives. *Small*, *16*(19), 1907087.

How to cite this article: Garg, N. (2021). Role of Nanomaterials in Environment Clean Uptechnologies: Toward a Sustainable Tomorrow. *International Journal on Emerging Technologies*, *12*(2): 192–206.