

Review Article

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A Review on Biodegradation of Toxic Dyes of South Gujarat, India

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ABSTRACT

"Degradation of toxic dyes by isolation and Development of Microbial consortia" provides a comprehensive overview of the environmental impact of textile dye effluents, the historical usage of dyes, the classification of textile dyes, methods for textile dye removal, and the future prospects for enhancing dye biodegradation outcomes. It emphasizes the need for further research to improve dye biodegradation outcomes, including the identification of relevant microorganisms, experimental factor limitations, bioremediation sites, and degradation pathways prior to deploying microorganisms in the field. The document also discusses the characteristics of textile effluents, including the presence of various metals, dyes, and other contaminants, and the differences between simulated and real industrial wastewater. Additionally, it highlights the hazardous nature of industrial wastewater, particularly in terms of organic matter concentration and the presence of metals such as cadmium, lead, zinc, and chromium. The survey conducted to assess the biodegradability of industrial textile wastewater is also mentioned, focusing on specific conductivity, pH, TC, total phosphorus, total nitrogen, and chloride content. Overall, the document underscores the importance of understanding degradation pathways, environmental conditions, and kinetics influencing contaminant removal, and the need to ensure minimal harm to plants and aquatic life during the degradation process.

Keywords

Textile dye,
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Introduction

The textile and paper industries are particularly problematic among the numerous industrial sectors because they produce large amounts of wastewater that, if released untreated into the environment, could have negative effects. Different chemicals released by industry end up contaminating the environment over time. Many chemicals, such as dyes, pigments, and aromatic molecular structure compounds, were widely employed

in many industrial applications, such as textiles, printing, pharmaceuticals, food, toys, paper, plastic, and cosmetics, as a result of the fast industrialization and urbanization of the world (Mohana *et al.*, 2008). The excessive use of dyes is the primary cause of the environmental issues related to textile activity (Tang *et al.*, 2022). Colors influence consumer preferences as well as several sectors. It also enhances a product's aesthetic quality, which encourages customers to buy and hence promotes economic expansion. The dyes that were used

are frequently the source of the many colors and tones that we notice. When compared to synthetic dyes, natural dyes are the more secure and sustainable choice (Saxena & Raja, 2014). Water pollution is one of the most serious environmental pollutants endangering biodiversity, with dye-based sectors such as the textile industry being the primary source of effluents into water bodies (Chanwala *et al.*, 2019). Surface and ground waters near dyeing industries are severely contaminated by the brightly colored wastewater from the textile industries, which include colors ranging from 2% for basic dyes to 50% for reactive dyes (O'Neill, 1999).

Wastewater from the standard cotton textile sector is generally distinguished by high pH, color, and biological and chemical oxygen demand (BOD and COD). Untreated dye wastewaters have a high BOD and color, which lowers the dissolved oxygen content and light penetration in receiving water bodies, respectively. If these wastewaters weren't properly treated, they would devastate the natural aquatic ecosystem (Banat, 1996). Colors can be eliminated by using bacteria; novel bacterial strains that are able to decolorize a wide range of colors have also been discovered and studied. Even though a lot of research has been done on how bacteria decolorize dye, more work needs to be done to isolate novel bacteria that can break down a variety of structurally distinct colors. It's also crucial to research their physiological traits and the underlying processes of dye biodegradation at particular pH and temperature ranges (Wang *et al.*, 2009).

On the other hand, a large range of microorganisms, including yeast, fungi, bacteria, and algae, can degrade azo dyes (McEldowney *et al.*, 1993). Dyes can be collapsed by them and transformed into CO₂ and H₂O (Lade, 2012). Thus, it is now becoming clear that the mineralization and purification of azo dyes through biodegradation is a useful strategy (Willet, 2019). In the current situation, microbial or enzymatic therapy provides an essential, economical, and environmentally friendly way to restore ecosystems contaminated by azo dyes. It may also assist to cut down on the massive amount of water required in comparison to physicochemical techniques. Current studies are concentrated on treating this source of pollution effectively through the use of various biotechnological techniques (Rai, 2005). Numerous microorganisms, such as bacteria, fungi, yeasts, actinomycetes, and algae, may break down azo dyes. Of these, bacterial cells are a cheap and effective method for eliminating different azo dyes

from textile dye effluents. It has been documented that certain bacteria, either in pure cultures or in consortiums, are capable of decolorizing dyes (Dafale, 2008).

Dye removal from wastewater effluent has been accomplished using a variety of physicochemical techniques. The use of physical/chemical methods, however, has several inherent disadvantages, including the fact that they are not economically feasible due to the increased energy and chemical requirements, that they cannot completely remove the azo dyes and/or their organic metabolites, that they produce a large amount of sludge that could lead to secondary pollution issues, and that they involve complex procedures (Forgacs *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2004).

In contrast to physicochemical treatment approaches, microbial or enzymatic decolorization and degradation is an ecologically friendly and economically competitive substitute for chemical decomposition processes that may assist minimize water use (Rai *et al.*, 2005; Verma and Madamwar, 2003). This paper examines different approaches to treating textile effluent that contains azo dyes and highlights the significance of biological approaches, primarily bacterial in nature. Furthermore, we concentrate on the impact of the physical and chemical surroundings, the enzymatic processes involved in bacterial decolorization, and the toxicity of the breakdown by products.

History of Dyes

Since prehistoric times, color has been used as a means of expression, a form of visual communication, and a symbolic art of society. It has also been linked to the cultural evolution of humans, as the use of color in various prehistoric environments has been linked to individual development on the artistic and cognitive levels (Mohadi *et al.*, 2017). The prehistoric record shows that the usage of various colors increased over time, albeit in varied ways depending on the period and location.

The Middle Stone Age/Middle Paleolithic in Africa and Europe is when pigments were first used (150,000–30,000 BC) (Hovers *et al.*, 2003). Though the latest known paintings were created in the fifteenth century in various caves and caverns on the island of Mona, the usage of these colors in cave art dates back further (Samson *et al.*, 2017). Because of the advent of agriculture, prehistoric man's lifestyle shifted from

nomadic to sedentary, resulting in the late Neolithic period (6000–3500 BC) and the Bronze Age (3000–1200 BC) marking the beginning of human civilization (Chekalin *et al.*, 2019). Pigments also emphasized the relief of cuneiform tablets, which were created during the emergence of Mesopotamian civilization (3000–2000 BC). However, the pigment created varied in composition according to its intended use. For instance, the red pigment used for black and red decorations in the Mayan civilization (2000 BC–900 AD) contained cerium, whereas the pigment used to adorn pots with red line designs was enhanced with iron and chrome (Pugh *et al.*, 2012). It was challenging to obtain colors in primitive times other than ochre and black. As an illustration, the color blue, which is regarded highly and costs as much as gold, was formerly exclusively found in lapis lazuli reserves in Afghanistan [68], which caused other civilizations to devise methods for producing the colors. The color blue was connected by the ancient Egyptians with the sky and water. They were the first to create Egyptian blue, an artificial blue dye that was created between 2900 and 2750 BC of the fourth dynasty (2630 BC under Sneferu the pharaoh and 2500 BC under Shepseskaf the pharaoh) (Berke, 2002 and Abel, 2012).

The color purple had an impact on many civilizations as well, and it was so unique that only powerful or wealthy individuals could afford to wear clothing dyed in that hue. The Phoenicians were notable for their skill in processing and commercializing the purple color known as "Tyrian," which they derived from either *Murex trunculus* or *Murex brandaris* snails. It is thought that this color first appeared towards the end of the Bronze Age (1550–1200 BC) (Jensen, 1963). In order to produce diverse colors from minerals, vegetables, or insects, it was a constant endeavor for the various civilizations to obtain pigments or dyes. The use of color during the Medieval Ages (the fifth to the fifteenth century) was vivid, distinct, and well-defined.

In contrast to improvements in the dying technique and the movement of colorants around Europe during that era, there was little invention of new dyes during that time (Barnett *et al.*, 2006). Cornelius Drebbel combined tin with cochineal red, which is derived from insects, in 1630 to increase the stability of natural dyes and create the first dye that was mistakenly labeled as manmade (Cornelius, 1630). Carl Scheele created the Emerald Green, also known as Scheele Green, pigment in 1788. Because it was made of copper aceto-arsenite, it was extremely hazardous and wasn't used again until 1960.

Because it was made of copper aceto-arsenite, Carl Scheele created the highly deadly Emerald Green, or Scheele Green, pigment in 1788. It wasn't used again until 1960 (Barnett *et al.*, 2006). In 1854, Henry Perkin created and patented Mauveine, the first synthetic color made from coal tar. Perkin's resolution of the production issue signaled the start of new processes for creating artificial colors (Abel, 2012 and Johnston, 2008). The production of new colors was made possible by the use of components derived from coal tar; by 1869, inexpensive synthetic dyes had taken the place of some natural dyes, like alizarin. Subsequently, the synthesis of dyes has expanded, with over 100,000 synthetic ones reported (Abel, 2012 and Paz *et al.*, 2017). The production of dyes was centered in Europe at the start of the 20th century. China and India are currently the world's two biggest manufacturers and suppliers of textiles (Tkaczyk *et al.*, 2020).

Classification of Dyes

Textile dyes have been classified according to their chemical structural (Azo dyes, Nitro dyes, Indigo dyes, Anthraquinone dyes, Phthalein dyes, Triphenyl methyl dyes, Nitrated dyes, etc.) or their industrial application.

Azo dyes

Scientists who have been verified as credible estimate that around one million tons of azo dyes are produced worldwide each year. It comes in a variety of shapes and sizes, and there are currently over 2,000 azo dyes in use that differ fundamentally from one another (Fatima *et al.*, 2017). A single azo linkage exists in monoazo dyes, although azo bond linkages ($-N=N-$) can occur more than once. Whereas triazodyes have three connections and diazo dyes have two, respectively.

Azole dyes make up about 70% of all dyes used in industry. The textile, cosmetic, leather, pharmaceutical, paper, paint, and food industries all make extensive use of them. The textile, food, paper, printing, leather, and cosmetic sectors are the main businesses that employ azo dyes, which account for over half of all synthetic dyes.

Although azo dyes have a variety of structures, the presence of azo linkage, or $N=N$, is the most significant structural characteristic. Since this bond can occur more than once, monoazo dyes contain one azo linkage, diazo dyes have two, and triazo dyes have three (Chang & Lin, 2001).

Reactive dyes

Although they are more effective at achieving a high wet strength than the less costly direct dyes, their employment is not always feasible due to the challenges associated with achieving adequate unison. Because reactive dyes are the only textile colorants intended to form a covalent bond with the substrate during the manufacturing process, they have a slightly lower chlorine-fastness and excellent light-fastness under extreme conditions than vat dyes. Reactive dyes also provide a wide range of shades with good light-fastness and excellent wash-fastness on cotton. These characteristics put this category of dyes at the premium end of the market (Farouk & Gaffer, 2013). The first commercial reactive dyes for cotton were based on the dichloro-s-triazine reactive group. These dyes are the second largest classes of dyes because of their wide spectrum of colors, great wet fastness, and brilliance, reactive dyes have grown increasingly popular (Zhang *et al.*, 2005).

Vat dyes

The vat dyes are designed to be applied to cellulosic fibers, particularly cotton, which exhibits exceptional fastness to various agents such as washing, bleach, light, and so on. This is primarily because the dyes are insoluble in water (Burkinshaw *et al.*, 2013). Vat dyes are rarely, if ever, used on other kinds of fiber, where alternative dye classes are preferred. In fact, when it comes to synthetic fibers, vat dyes are rarely used because of their generally low substantivity and the generally pale depths of hues that result from their limited diffusional behaviour within the fibers. They are mainly soluble in hot water and some are soluble in the presence of little Na_2CO_3 . The most significant natural vat dye is called indigo, or indigotin, which is present in different species of the indigo plant *Indigofera* as its glucoside, indican. When extremely high light- and wet-fastness qualities are needed, vat dyes are employed (BenkhayaM'rabet & El Harfi, 2020).

Sulphur dyes

The first sulphur dye has been prepared in 1873 by Croissant and Bretonnière (Holme, 2006). The most important natural vat dye is known as indigo, or indigotin, and it can be found in several species of the *Indigofera* plant as the glucoside indican. Vat dyes are used when very high light- and wet-fastness requirements

are met (Nguyen & Juang, 2013). Sulphur dyes accounted for 9.1% of all US dye output in 1966 and 15.8% of dyes used on cellulosic fibers (Mohadi *et al.*, 2017). Global production was estimated to be between 110,000 and 120,000 tons annually. Vat dyes include the sulfur dyes (Benkhaya, M'rabet & El Harfi, 2020).

Direct dyes

A variety of factors, including chromophore, fastness qualities, and application features, are used to categorize direct dyes. These are the main chromophoric types: formazan, anthraquinone, quinolone, thiazole, and other minor chemical classes including azo, stilbene, phthalocyanine, and dioxazin (Burkinshaw, 1995). Based on a variety of factors, including chromophore, fastness qualities, and application features. The chromophoric category of direct dyes consists of oxazine, phthalocyanine, stibene, and azo, as well as some thiazole and copper complex azo dyes (Pillai *et al.*, 2011). The moderate wash-fastness of these dyes, despite their wide shade gamut and ease of application, has caused them to be somewhat replaced by reactive dyes, which have substantially higher wet and washing fastness qualities on cellulose substrates.

Characteristics of Textile Dye Effluent

The textile plant's general effluent is often averaged to reflect the textile wastewater characteristics reported in literature. Although Yaseen and Scholz (2019) focused on the fragmented data pertaining to simulated textile wastewater, they did provide a critical analysis of the literature that is currently accessible regarding typical and genuine characteristics of the textile effluents. It is noteworthy to mention that numerous experimental studies on simulated textile wastewater, if not in single dye or model dye mixtures, have been conducted in the literature on dye removal. The treatment of simulated wastewater differs significantly from that of real industrial wastewater, as demonstrated by Bilinska *et al.*, in (Wrebiak *et al.*, 2014).

A variety of metals, dyes, and other contaminants can be found in the wastewater released by the dye industry. Industrial wastes can be classified as either liquid or solid, depending on the type of waste generated during the manufacturing process. These wastes comprise any substance that can be decreased during the product manufacturing process. Because liquid waste (also known as wastewater released by industry) contains

many hazardous elements, it poses a threat to both the environment and living things currently in existence. However, the kind of production method and goods used determine the nature and features of industrial effluent (Saxena and Bharagava, 2017).

Metals and their complexes, which are either dissolved or present in various forms in actual water effluents, are recognized as one of the main contaminants in wastewater treatment. The most hazardous metals discovered in wastewater from textile industry manufacturing processes include cadmium, lead, zinc, and chromium, among others (Hussein, 2013).

Wet process effluent from the dye industry is characterized by significant differences in a number of characteristics, including pH, total solids (TS), biological oxygen demand, chemical oxygen demand (COD), water use, and color. Wastewater with a BOD/COD ratio of 0.25 indicates that it is industrial wastewater with a high concentration of organic matter that is not biodegradable.

A survey was conducted to assess the biodegradability of industrial textile wastewater from various dyehouse operations, including specific conductivity, pH, COD, BOD, TC, TOC, total phosphorus, total nitrogen, and chloride content (Bilińska, Gmurek and Ledakowicz, 2016). Biodegradability was determined based on BOD₅/COD, N/P, BOD₅/N/P, and toxicity towards activated sludge microorganisms.

Based on this, it was determined that dye effluent streams needed to be divided based on how biodegradable they were. This is in line with the recommendations of the revised BREF document (December 2019) (European Commission, 2019) and the July 2003 (The European Commission, 2003) European Commission Integrated Pollution Prevention and Control (IPPC) Reference Document on Best Available Techniques for the Textiles Industry (The European Commission, 2003)—decentralized treatment on site of specific, segregated single wastewater streams.

Methods Used in Textile Dyes Removal

These days, protecting aquatic life in water bodies through the development of cost-effective treatment solutions for wastewater discharge from textile businesses is the main priority. Thus, the techniques could be biochemical, physio-chemical, or any combination of the two, which will provide efficient

strategies for eliminating impurities from wastewater originating from the textile industries.

Physicochemical Methods

A combination of chemical and physical methods is known as physico-chemical degradation. A physico-chemical treatment is a procedure in which chemical changes may or may not occur at different stages of the process, but physical changes remain constant (Karimifard and Alavi Moghaddam, 2018).

Despite the fact that physico-chemical wastewater treatment techniques are simple to apply, they might not necessarily be economical or environmentally beneficial (De Gisi *et al.*, 2016). Due to the production of numerous byproducts and sludge that cannot be recycled, a high electricity consumption with a low output is necessary (Khandare and Govindwar, 2015; Demirbas, 2009). These techniques involve a multistage treatment approach with a lengthy retention period rather than a single phase. Physical approaches that rely on the coagulation-flocculation of colors work well for removing mostly sulfur and dispersed dyes, but they have very minor effect on acid, direct, reactive, and vat dyes. Furthermore, the implementation of these procedures is limited by the high amount of sludge produced and low color removal efficacy (Vandevivere *et al.*, 1998). Several physical approaches, including ion-exchange, oxidation, radiation, filtration, and adsorption, are frequently employed in wastewater treatment and have yielded beneficial results (Aplin and Waite, 2000). The increased efficacy of adsorption techniques in eliminating a broad spectrum of dyes has attracted significant attention. High affinity, capacity for target chemicals, and the potential for adsorbent regeneration are among the qualities that go into choosing an adsorbent (Subramaniam *et al.*, 2009). Because of its expensive cost, activated carbon (AC) is not frequently employed even though it is a very good adsorbent for many kinds of dyes (Robinson *et al.*, 2001). Some researchers use inexpensive adsorbent materials for the color removal of dye wastewater, such as peat, bentonite clay, fly ash, polymeric resins, ion exchangers, and many biological materials like corn/maize cobs, maize stalks, and wheat straw, in order to make the process more economically viable (Vandevivere *et al.*, 1998). However, difficulties with their regeneration or disposal, significant sludge production, poor efficacy with a wide range of dyes, and high cost have restricted the practical utilization of these adsorbents (Anjanayelu *et al.*, 2005;

Karcher *et al.*, 2001). Researchers shed light on the adsorption method's limitations in handling undissolved dye compounds and the need for a different desorption technique. The irradiation process demands a high concentration of dissolved oxygen, yet it has the ability to treat modest volumes of colored water. On the other hand, when various additives are present in the same wastewater, the ion exchange systems respond inadequately and show more deteriorating results when treating different dyes (Bousher *et al.*, 1997; Abu-Saiyed *et al.*, 2013). Reverse osmosis, nanofiltration, and ultra filtration are a few examples of filtration techniques that have been applied to chemical recovery and water reuse. Membranes are a useful tool in the textile industry for separating hydrolyzed colors and dyeing auxiliaries that simultaneously lower wastewater's color, BOD, and COD levels. They are also excellent for bleaching and mercerizing wastewater. Under this method, the kind and porosity of the filter are chosen based on the chemical makeup of the wastewater and the particular temperature needed for the operation (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2007). Membranes, however, have a number of serious disadvantages, such as high investment costs, the possibility of membrane fouling, and the creation of secondary waste streams that require additional treatment (Dos Santos *et al.*, 2007; Robinson *et al.*, 2001).

A variety of chemical treatment techniques are used to eliminate both organic and inorganic contaminants found in wastewater. Chemical oxidation techniques allow dye molecules to be destroyed or broken down. These techniques involve a variety of oxidizing chemicals, including hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and ozone (O₃), and manganese oxide (MnO₄). These oxidizing agents cause alterations in the chemical composition of a substance or a combination of compounds, making the dye molecules more prone to degradation (Metcalf *et al.*, 2003). Nevertheless the actual implementation of this technology is limited by its short life, ineffectiveness against dispersed dyes and those insoluble in water, low capacity to remove COD, and high cost of ozone (Anjaneyulu *et al.*, 2005).

Biological Methods

Pollutants can be broken down biologically, which is environmentally benign and results in full mineralization of organic compounds with little sludge production. According to several studies this approach is the most successful (Varjani *et al.*, 2015; Bhatia *et al.*, 2017; Varjani *et al.*, 2019; Kumar *et al.*, 2020). Anaerobic or

aerobic environments can be used for biological deterioration. To decolorize and break down dyes, a variety of microorganisms including bacteria, fungus, yeast, and algae were employed (Ajaz *et al.*, 2020; Ali *et al.*, 2010). An important field of study in the environmental sciences is bioremediation, or the employment of microbial methods to treat pollutants. These methods allow bacteria to spontaneously adapt to the hazardous wastes, giving rise to new, resistant strains that subsequently change different toxic compounds into less dangerous versions. The activity of the biotransformation enzymes is the basis for the biodegradation of resistant substances in the microbial system (Saratale *et al.*, 2007). Studies have shown the significance of enzymes including azoreductase, laccase, peroxidase, and exo-enzymes in the breakdown of dyes. The biological technique aids in the elimination of color by breaking down synthetic dyes into a relatively less hazardous inorganic substance by the breakdown of bonds (i.e., chromophoric groups) (Babu *et al.*, 2015). Several biotechnological approaches have drawn attention as viable environmentally acceptable ways to reduce the pollution caused by azo dyes. These strategies mostly include the utilization of bacteria and frequently involve physicochemical processes as well. The azo dyes are broken down into amines in two stages: first, the colors undergo azo bond breaking, and then, in an aerobic environment, the aromatic amines are further catabolized into small, non-toxic molecules (Chequer *et al.*, 2011).

In order to fully degrade the azo linkages created inside the dyes, methods are being developed to take advantage of bacteria's capacity to live in both aerobic and anaerobic environments. The two-phase approach, in which anaerobic processes precede aerobic processes in the first phase, has been shown to be successful and beneficial in the development of biological technologies for decolorization in the future (Muda *et al.*, 2013).

Azo dyes are xenobiotics by nature and resistant to biodegradation; hence, the following benefits can be obtained by treating textile effluent with microbes or enzymes to completely decolorize and degrade these colors: The advantages of this process over physicochemical approaches include: (1) being less water-intensive; (2) producing less sludge; (3) being cost-competitive; (4) yielding end products that are non-toxic or have complete mineralization; and (5) being environmentally benign (Banat *et al.*, 1996; Rai *et al.*, 2005).

Table.1 Azo dye (Sharma *et al.*, 2021)

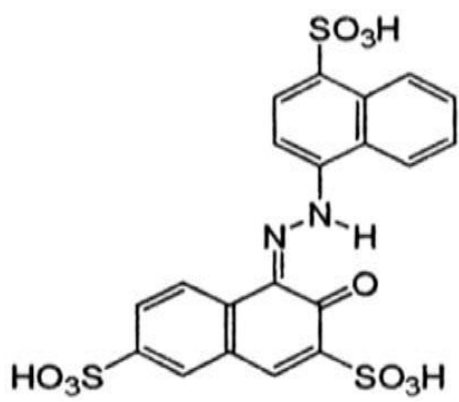
Dye	C.I No.	Class	Chemical Structure
C.I. Acid Red	C.I.16185	Azo	

Table.2 Reactive dye (Khatri *et al.*, 2014a, b)

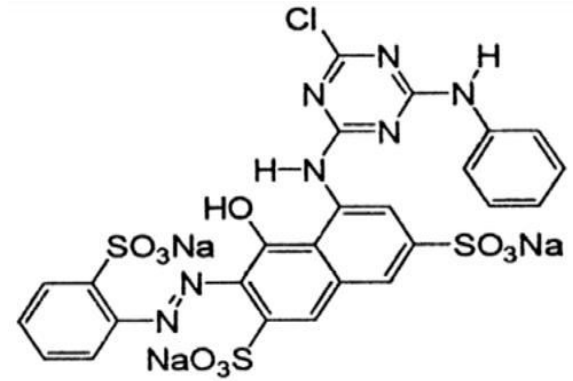
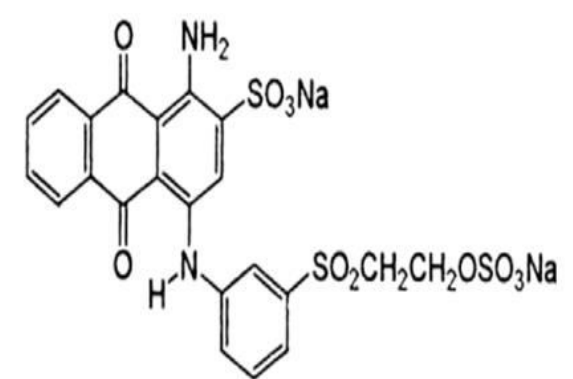
Dye	C.I No.	Class	Chemical Structure
C.I. Reactive Red 3	C.I.18159	Azo	
C.I. Reactive Blue 19	C.I. 61200	Anthraquinones	

Table.3 Vat dye (Hihara *et al.*, 2002; Sirianuntapiboon *et al.*, 2006; Sanchez, 2015).

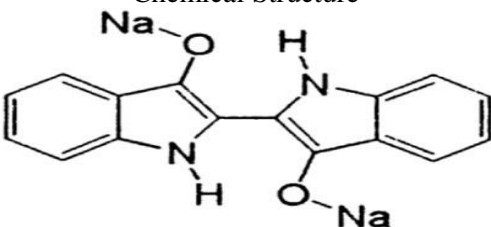
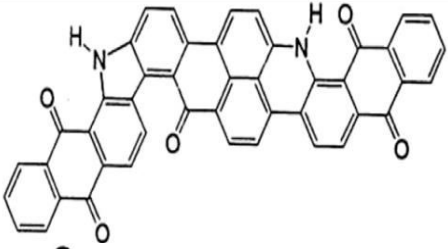
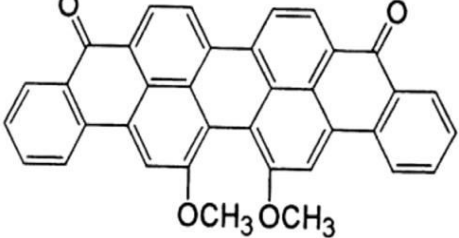
Dye	C.I.No.	Class	Chemical Structure
C.I. Vat Blue 1	C.I.73001	Indigo class	
C.I. Vat Black 25	C.I.69525	Anthraquinones	
C.I. Vat Green 1	C.I.59825	Violanthrone	

Table.4 Sulfur dye (Zinatloo-Ajabshir and Salavati-Niasari, 2016).

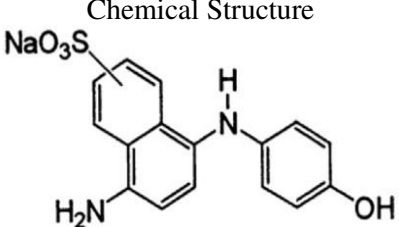
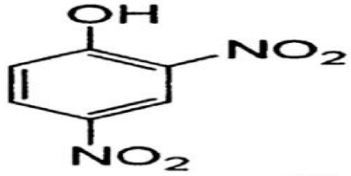
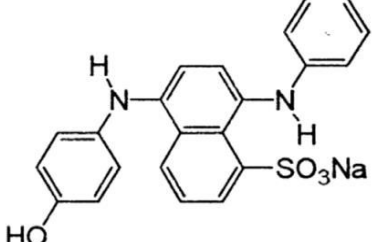
Dye	C.I. No.	Chemical Structure
C.I. Sulfur Blue 15	C.I.53540	
C.I. LeucoSulfur Black1	C.I.53185	
C.I. Sulfur Green 3	C.I.53570	

Table.5 Direct dyes (Lorimer *et al.*, 2021)

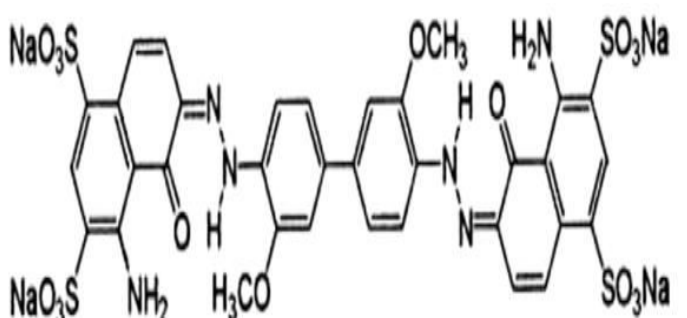
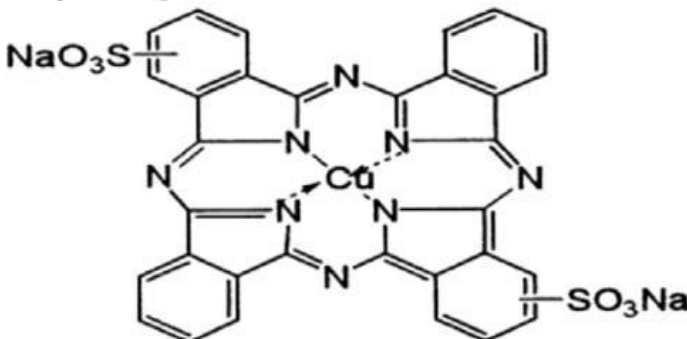
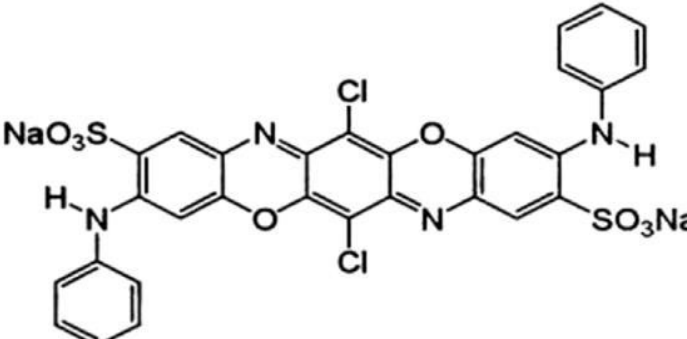
Dye	C.I No.	Class	Chemical Structure
C.I. Direct Blue 1	C.I.24410	Azo	
C.I. Direct Blue 86	C.I.74180	Phthalocyanine	
C.I. Direct Blue 106	C.I.51300	Triphenodioxazine	

Table.6 Current development in processes used in dye removal

Processes	Current Development	References
Adsorption	Synthesizing of new, efficient, nature-based, or waste-originating adsorbents, kinetic, equilibrium and thermodynamic studies on biosorption.	(Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Bonetto <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Maruthanayagam <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Radwan <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Coagulation/Flocculation	Creation of novel, effective, naturally occurring, or waste-producing coagulants and use of magnetic fields to speed up sedimentation	(Kristianto <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Mateus <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Reck <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Padhiyar <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Puteri <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Garvasis <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Electro-coagulation	Ultrasound aid, nanofilms on cathodes, and solar power	(Ozyonar <i>et al.</i> , 2020;

	utilization.	Akhtar <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Phalakornkule <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Rodrigues <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Criado <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Electrochemical Oxidation	Novel materials and electrode coatings, membrane anodes, air-diffusion cathodes, and the electro-peroxone process	(dos Santos <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Ghalebizade <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Di <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Qaseem <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Membrane Filtration	Novel membrane materials stabilized by biomacromolecules and enhanced by the inclusion of grapheme	(Nawaz <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Meng <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Vatanpour <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Zeng <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Mehrjo <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
Ozonation	Addition of the catalyst, improvement through ultrasonography, and hydrodynamic cavitation	(Khataee <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Choksi <i>et al.</i> , 2020; (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Muniyasamy <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Bilinska <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
O ₃ / UV	Membranes with photocatalytic activity	(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
O ₃ /H ₂ O ₂	Proposal for degradation mechanism enhancement using electrolysis and heterogeneous catalyst addition.	(Sun <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Sadhegi <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Abdi <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
UV/H ₂ O ₂	Changes in cytotoxicity, mutagenicity, and phytotoxicity were measured, and a degradation process was proposed. Different UV sources were compared.	(Muneer <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Emadi <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Ding <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Murcia <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Aristizábal <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Laftani <i>et al.</i> , 2019)
Photocatalytic oxidation	Green catalyst production using nanoparticles or difunctional catalysts that are efficient under visible light.	(Fattahimoghaddam <i>et al.</i> , 2021; He <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Hui <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Rambabu <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Shi <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
Fenton	Fenton-like heterogeneous catalysts such as zero-valent iron catalysts, green or one-spot catalyst synthesis, fixed bed reactor application, and use of sulphate radical anions that allow dye degradation over a broad pH range.	(Morshed <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Qian <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Punathil <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Kumar <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Nwanji <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Photo-Fenton	Fenton-like heterogeneous catalysts that allow dye degradation in the presence of light, catalysts derived from waste, and a degradation mechanism suggestion	(Wu <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Mushtaq <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Tan <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Silva, E.D.N. <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Chen, J <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Ain, Q.U., <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Electro-Fenton	Analysis of dynamics and expenses, creation of nanocomposite electrodes, air-diffusion cathode, mechanism and degradation paths suggested, innovative orbiting electrode reactor, and recirculating flow-through reactor	(Suhan, M.B.K. <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Setayesh, S.R. <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Marquez <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Zahrani and Ayati, 2020; Ergan and Gengec, 2020; Jiao, Y <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Bacterial Treatment	Isolation of novel strains or consortiums from activated	(Ayed <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Guo <i>et</i>

	sludge, oxide ditch, palm oil mill effluent, or desert soil; application of alkali-, halo-, and thermophilic strains; consortium with algae; immobilization of bacteria; addition of co-substrates; mechanism and pathway suggestions; genome and transcriptome analysis.	<i>al.</i> , 2020; Dhaouefi <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Louati <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Pandey <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Reddy <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Shi <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Franca <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Thanavel <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Montañez-Barragán <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Fungal Treatment	Implementation of microbial consortiums, such as yeast consortiums capable of lignin valorization, dye treatment, and biodiesel generation, as well as fungus immobilization and strain isolation from plant roots or effluent sites.	(Agrawal <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Ali <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Gao <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Laraib <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Habeeb <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Noman <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Al-Tohamy <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Chatterjee <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Šlosarčíková <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Khan <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Enzyme Treatment	Enzyme synthesis, immobilization, metabolite optimization, and toxicity evaluation optimization.	(Sosa-Martínez <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Vineh <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Navas <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Yin <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Uber <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Algal Treatment	Immobilization, genetic manipulation of algae and cyanobacteria, co-contaminant impact on dye biodegradation, addition of graphene oxide, and lipid synthesis.	(Abou-El-Souod, G.; Hamouda, R.A.; El-Sheekh, M, 2020; Han, S. <i>Et al.</i> , 2020; Mahajan, P. and Kaushal, J., 2020; Oyebamiji <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Behl, K. <i>Et al.</i> , 2020)
Activated and Anaerobic Sludge	Anaerobic core with an aerobic shell granule formation, metagenomic analysis in anaerobic MBR, resuscitation-promoting factor addition, anaerobic and aerobic reactor integration, halotolerant yeast addition, and magnetic field	(Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Berkessa <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Cai <i>et al.</i> , 2021; Gadow, S.I. and Li, Y.Y, 2020; Tang <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Zhuang <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Nguyen <i>et al.</i> , 2020; . Shoukat, R.; Khan, S.J. and Jamal, Y., 2019; Carvalho <i>et al.</i> , 2020)
Biofilms	New biocarrier applications, co-substrate addition, kinetic analysis, process optimization, biomass acclimatization, and anoxic/aerobic sequencing batch moving bed bioreactor optimization	(Hameed, B.B. and Ismail, Z.Z., 2020; Hameed, B.B. and Ismail, Z.Z., 2020; Cui <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Ong, C.; Lee, K.; Chang, Y., 2020; Castro <i>et al.</i> , 2020)

Factors Affecting Bacterial Degradation

In addition to being practically and financially feasible,

microbe-based treatments for the degradation of hazardous environmental pollutants also aid in the management of environmental contaminants (Varjani and

Upasani, 2019). Wastewater from the dye industry contains a variety of azo dyes as well as other dye materials with distinct structural characteristics. According to reports, metals, salts, and other substances impede the decomposition of dyes and are harmful to bacterial growth (Ghosh *et al.*, 2020). Factors like temperature, pH, dissolved oxygen, nutrients, dissolved organic matter, metals and organic pollutants influence water quality.

Environmental Factors Affecting Degradation

Temperature

The temperature of the water has an impact on processes that occur there, like mineralization, diffusion, and chemical reactions that raise the pH of the water (Delpla *et al.*, 2009). The ideal temperature for bacterial culture is typically believed to be between 30 and 40 degrees Celsius for the majority of bacteria. This will result in a faster rate of dye breakdown. Reactive green 19 was broken down by a bacterial consortium consisting of *Bacillus pumilus* HKG212 and *Zobellellataiwanensis* AT 1-3, Das and Mishra (2017) found that the maximum degradation occurred at 32.04°C. Nevertheless, there aren't many thermophilic microorganisms known to degrade azo dye at high temperatures (Das and Mishra, 2017). The decolorization rate of azo dyes was shown to increase until it reaches the ideal temperature, at which point the decolorization activity marginally decreases. Denaturation of an azo reductase enzyme or the loss of cell viability are the two possible causes of this decrease at higher temperatures (Chang, 2017).

pH

pH is essential for bacterial growth and is also required for the treatment of wastewater (Varjani and Upasani, 2019). The rate of color removal is higher at the optimum pH, and tends to decrease rapidly at strongly acid or strongly alkaline pH. The type of dyes and salts employed can determine whether the pH is neutral, acidic, or alkaline. The pH of the effluent containing dye can alter the rate of dye breakdown.

The issue can be resolved by either (a) choosing a microbial species that can flourish at the pH of the effluent or (b) changing the effluent's pH to encourage the growth of bacteria that break down dyes (Al-Amrani *et al.*, 2014).

Changes in pH that fall between 7.0 and 9.5 usually have minimal impact on the dye degradation process.

Chang *et al.*, (2001b), on the other hand, discovered that the dye reduction rate became insensitive to pH in the range of 7.0–9.5, but it rose almost 2.5 times as the pH was elevated from 5.0 to 7.0 (Chang *et al.*, 2041)

Oxygen and Agitation

Dye degradation and decolorization are directly impacted by environmental factors. There is literature out there that claims agitation and oxygen have an impact on microbial metabolism (Varjani and Upasani, 2017). Microorganisms require varied environments, including aerobic, anaerobic, and semi-anaerobic. Shaking contributes to oxygen supply and aeration. Shaking can help with oxygenation. Reductive enzyme activity is thought to be able to increase in anaerobic conditions.

Additionally, it was noted that azo dye decolorization performed under strictly anaerobic circumstances was far better, albeit it also took place in semi-anaerobic environments (Knapp and Newby, 1807). Although it is thought that reductive enzyme activity are higher in anaerobic environments, oxidative enzymes that break down azo dyes also need a tiny quantity of oxygen.

Nutrients

Soluble Salts

Although significant concentrations of salt are used in the dyeing process, wastewater from the dye business has a high electric conductivity, which can be measured using a conductivity meter. In order to enhance the ionic strength and facilitate the growth of color fixation on textiles, dye baths typically contain salts such as Na₂SO₄, NaCl, and NaNO₃. Salts are discharged into industrial effluent together with dye contaminants. High salt content dyes may slow down the process of biodegradation by limiting biological mobility (Basutkar and Shivannavar, 2019).

Carbon and Nitrogen

Microorganisms require nutrient supplements for quick degradation of pollutants (Varjani and Upasani, 2019). It has been observed that both pure cultures and mixed cultures can quickly and efficiently degrade dyes when

using organic supplies such as peptone, yeast extract, or a blend of carbohydrates and complex organic sources. The addition of glucose can improve the efficiency of dye breakdown.

Reducing equivalents from diverse carbon sources have been seen to be transferred to the dye during the decolorization process of azo dyes by reduction of azo bonds. Additionally, it was shown that in anaerobic consortia, acidogenic bacteria transform soluble substrates like carbohydrates into volatile organic acids or alcohols like methanol and acetic acid. These substances then serve as rival substrates for bacteria that are methanogenic, sulfate-reducing, and acetogenic (Georgiou *et al.*, 1975). Phosphorus has 360 been reported as very important factor for growth of microorganism.

Future Prospects

Further research is required to improve dye biodegradation outcomes. This includes determining the (a) relevant microorganisms, (b) experimental factor limitations, (c) bioremediation site, and (d) degradation pathways prior to deploying microorganisms in the field.

As this study makes clear, a great deal of research has been done on the distinct chemical oxidation and biodegradation of dyes as well as integrated techniques that combine the two processes.

Comparable deductions could be made concerning the biodegradation of colors. A thorough investigation was conducted into the biodegradation mechanisms, encompassing the metabolic pathways of intermediates. Additionally, research should be done on the pollutants' competition for chemical oxidants as well as the kinetics of different substrates and co-substrates in biological mixed cultures.

The goal of upcoming research on dye degradation should be to lessen the constraints placed on microbial activity.

An effective biodegradation method should take into account degradation pathways, environmental conditions, degradation rates, and degradation processes that influence contaminant removal. It would be crucial to make sure that neither plants nor aquatic life will be harmed by the deteriorated goods.

To better understand bacterial degradation kinetics,

processes and hypotheses for dye wastewater breakdown by bacteria should be studied (Varjani *et al.*, 2020).

Author Contribution

Aishwarya Bharucha: Investigation, formal analysis, writing—original draft. Sumaiya A. Shaikh: Validation, methodology, writing—reviewing. Arti Gaur:—Formal analysis, writing—review and editing.

Data Availability

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethical Approval Not applicable.

Consent to Participate Not applicable.

Consent to Publish Not applicable.

Conflict of Interest The authors declare no competing interests.

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