# Biodegradation Modeling Of Phenol Using Light Crude Petroleum Oil in Seawater

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#### Abstract

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> Copyright: © G€GGÅWang MĚlV®i•Åis•ÅæÅ[]^}Ĕæ&&^••Åækis&[^Åäi•clià`c^åÅ`}å^lÅc@^Å c^\{ {•Å[-hc@^ÅÔ]^æciç^ÅÔ[ { { [}•ÅtŒclià`ci[]ÅŠi&^}•^ÈÅ \_®&@Å]^\{åc•Å`}}^•cli&c^åÅ use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and absorption, ion exchange, incineration, chemical activated carbon absorption, oxidation, and liqid extraction. bever, both physical and chemical processes are typically expensive, and the maprity of

Reported that rather than ammonia concentration or volumetric ow velocity separately, the nitri cation activity of RSFs was controlled by the ammonia loading rate. Ammonia and DOM loading rates a ect the activities of nitrifying and heterotrophic bacteria in RSFs, which may a ect how quickly OMPs degrade. However, nothing is known about how primary substrate loading rates a ect the rate of OMP biodegradation. Here, we put up two theories increased nitri cation activity is caused by higher ammonia loading rates, which may improve the autotrophic co-metabolism of OMPs. By raising the activity of the heterotrophic community, increasing the DOM loading rate both increases OMP biodegradation and decreases it owing to substrate competition. Changing the volumetric ow velocity causes variable empty bed contact periods with a constant sand bed height. EBCT has a signi cant impact on OMP biodegradation. Because increasing substrate loading rates promote microbial activity and might make up for decreased contact time between OMPs and bio lms, shorter EBCT might be advantageous for the biodegradation of readily biodegradable chemicals. As a result, a prolonged EBCT may be bene cial for the biodegradation of slowly biodegradable OMPs but has little to no e ect on, or perhaps has a detrimental impact on, their removal. ree columns were run concurrently using three distinct feeding plans: control no ammonia and DOM, DOM only, and ammonia only.

## Conclusion

Dynamic loading rates of ammonia, DOM, and OMPs as well as EBCTs were used in various operating phases by altering either the starting substrate concentrations or volumetric ow velocity. Pseudo- rst-order kinetic models were used to calculate the OMP biodegradation kinetics of each phase. e ndings deepen our understanding of OMP biodegradation mechanisms and provide light on how tough it is to employ RSFs to biodegrade OMPs, despite growing interest in this area due to the complexity of OMP biodegradation patterns under various operational settings. is is the rst work that, to the best of our knowledge, examines OMP biodegradation behaviours in relation to substrate and contaminant loading patterns. Non-hazardous microorganisms are used in microbial biodegradation to detoxify or remove harmful substances. Water supplies are contaminated by Direct Red81, a hazardous and cancer-causing dye released into wastewater from the textile industry. Sampling and sample preparation are necessary for the o ine spectrophotometric techniques frequently employed to track biodegradation. ev fail to take into account how created products and changes in the composition of the medium might a ect the method's selectivity. Potentiometric sensors provide a straightforward, portable, inline, and real-time analysis tool. No potentiometric sensor for online monitoring of an ongoing microbial-biodegradation process has, to our knowledge, been published. A recent study used Candida albinos to study the biodegradation of DR81. e researchers routinely removed samples to track changes in the UV-visible spectrum of DR81. A portable and selective solid-state device is optimised and validated in this work. Azo dyes are synthetic colours used in the textile, printing, and leather, cosmetic, culinary, and pharmaceutical sectors. ey include one or more azo bonds. During processing, water is used extensively in the textile and dyeing industries. When discharged into the environment, such e uent contains signi cant volumes of wasted dyestu, which poses a substantial pollution hazard. If dye-rich e uents are not adequately handled, they can impair both the aquatic environment and human health. Textile wastewater can result in bleeding, gaseousness, skin rashes, dermatitis, and skin ulcers. Many azo-dyes have breakdown products that are mutagenic and carcinogenic to

aquatic life. Untreated discharge of textile dyes has the potential to cause bioaccumulation, which might a ect human health by entering the food chain. erefore, it is essential to get rid of harmful substances. Industries are required to treat sewage containing dyes separately due to environmental rules limiting the appearance of colour in discharged wastewater. Furthermore, dyeing wastewater treatment and reuse have become essential to prevent environmental dangers and lower production costs due to a lack of supply and rising water prices in the industrial sector. Textile wastewater has been treated using a variety of physicochemical techniques, such as electrokinetic coagulation, advanced oxidation processes, coagulation- occulation, adsorption, membrane ltration, ion exchange, and radiation. ese techniques. however, have a number of drawbacks because of their high cost, poor e cacy, signi cant sludge production, and problems with secondary contamination. As alternative, biological processes involving bacteria, fungus, yeast, actinomycetes, algae, and plants convert, degrade, or mineralize azo dyes. Some hazardous materials are reduced through biodegradation.

## Acknowledgement

None

## Con ict of Interest

None