

Fluoride Removal from Water by various techniques: Review

Sanghratna S. Waghmare¹ and Tanvir Arfin²

¹Senior Scientist, Environmental Materials Division, National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (CSIR), Nehru Marg, Nagpur-440020, India

²Scientist, Environmental Materials Division, National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (CSIR), Nehru Marg, Nagpur-440020, India

Abstract

This paper depicts the fluoride removal from drinking water can be accomplished by different methods, for example, coagulation-precipitation, membrane separation process, ion exchange, adsorption techniques and so on. Among these procedures, membrane and ion exchange processes are not extremely regular because of its high establishment and support price. Other two techniques are extremely regular in India. Nalgonda procedure is one of the well known strategies generally utilized for defluoridation of water as a part of developing nations, for example, India, Kenya, Senegal and Tanzania. Among different techniques utilized for defluoridation of water, the adsorption procedure is broadly utilized and offers acceptable results and is by all accounts more appealing technique for the removal of fluoride regarding expense, straightforwardness of outline and operation. It is apparent from the literature study that different methods have indicated novel potential for the removal of fluoride. Be that as it may, in any case there is a need to figure out the reasonable utility of such developed procedures on a business scale, prompting the change of contamination control.

Keywords: water treatment, fluoride removal, adsorption, ion exchange, review

1. Introduction

Nature of drinking water is a major task in advanced days because of expansion in pollution of water bodies [1]. Fluoride is one such pollutant that undermines living life forms, specifically people [2]. Fluoride is an vital in little amount for mineralization of bone and assurance against dental caries, higher intake reasons decay of teeth enamel called fluorosis. Fluoride enters aqueous environment by weathering of fluoride rich minerals and as through anthropogenic actions, for example, industrial drains [3]. The issue of fluoride in water bodies is serious for tropical nations, for example, such as India, Kenya, Senegal and Tanzania. The best way to bypass this issue is defluoridation. Various methods are accessible for the removal of fluoride from water, for example, precipitation-coagulation, membrane-based processes, ion-exchange and adsorption process. The precipitation-coagulation method makes vast amount of sludge and may include leaching of undesirable components; membrane procedure are lavish and fouling is an inescapable issue. Adsorption procedure have their own particular points of interest, for example, ease and minimized water disposal. In this review, a widespread list of procedures literature has been assembled. It is apparent from a literature study

of around 200 latest papers that minimal effort methods have exhibited extraordinary removal capacities for fluoride.

2. METHODS FOR DEFLUORODATION OF WATER

To conquer the hazardous wellbeing impact of fluorosis, different approaches for defluoridations are exists like coagulation – precipitation, membrane separation processes, ion exchange, adsorption techniques and others (electro-dialysis and electrochemical). Each approaches have their advantages and limitations and worked productively under ideal condition to remove fluoride to more noteworthy range. All the above approaches are examined briefly with their advantages and limitations.

2.1. COAGULATION AND PRECIPITATION METHOD

Lime and alum are the most usually utilized coagulants for Nalgonda technique for defluoridation of water. Expansion of lime prompts precipitation of fluoride as insoluble calcium fluoride and raises the pH value upto 11 – 12. As the lime leaves a leftover of 8.0 mg F/l, it is constantly connected with alum treatment to guarantee the best possible fluoride removal. As a first step, precipitation happens by lime dosing which is trailed by a second step in which alum is added to bring about coagulation. At the point when alum is added to water, basically two reactions happen. In the first reaction, alum reacts with an alkalinity's portion to deliver insoluble aluminium hydroxide $[Al(OH)_3]$. In the second reaction, alum reacts with fluoride ions in the water. Best fluoride removal is proficient at pH range of 5.5 – 7.5 [4]. Nalgonda technique created by NEERI is coagulation – precipitation method includes an expansion of aluminium salt, lime and bleaching powder took after by quick mixing, flocculation, sedimentation and filtration. Aluminum salt is utilized to remove fluoride from water. The dosage of fluoride relies on upon the concentration of fluoride proportionately. The dosage of lime is by and large 1/20th of the dose of alum. Lime serves to shape bigger and denser flocs for fast settling. Bleaching powder is included for cleansing at the rate of 3 mg/l [5]. It is the most generally utilized defluoridation method especially at community level [6-8]. The bucket defluoridation system based Naldonda technique has also been developed for

household utilize [9]. The process is suitable for 20 litres of water for one day utilization. The process produces water with leftover fluoride somewhere around 1 and 1.5 mg/l [10]. Fill and draw type defluoridation system based on Nalgonda technique has also been account for [9]. Nevertheless, co-precipitation methods in view of aluminium salts have a few point of interest and restriction:

Interest

1. Generally utilized technique.
2. Technique is more practical when contrasted with other defluoridation technique.
3. Technique is easy to understand.

Restriction

1. Required chemical dosages are high ($\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ upto 700 – 1200 mg/l).
2. Sludge transfer issue.
3. Cannot accomplish the passable furthest reaches of fluoride.
4. Prerequisite of talented labor
5. Release of aluminium in treated water which may bring about Alzheimer's syndrome.
6. Final concentration of fluoride in the treated water significantly relies on upon dissolvability of precipitated fluoride and calcium and aluminium salt.
7. The utilization of aluminium sulfate as coagulant expands the sulfate ion concentration greatly which prompting cathartic impacts in human

Nalgonda technique, disregarding introductory achievement, did not take off in light of some intrinsic issues as depicted previously. A contact precipitation defluoridation technique utilizing bone char combined with sodium dihydrogen phosphate and calcium chloride has been account for [10]. Narthasathy et al. contemplated the joined utilization of calcium salts and polymeric aluminium hydroxide for the defluoridation work. Chang and Liu examined coagulation –flocculation of calcium fluoride precipitates in combination with polyaluminium chloride and polyacrylic acid at lower dosage. To beat the restriction of chemical precipitation, granular calcite is utilized to catch fluoride present in water as calcium fluoride in a fluidized bed reactor by Aldaco et al. [31].

2.2. MEMBRANE PROCESS

The membrane separation process is more well known from industrial viewpoints for defluoridation of groundwater, wastewater treatment and sea water desalination [12]. In a membrane separation process, particles are isolated on the premise of their molecular size and shape with the utilization of extraordinarily composed semi-permeable membrane. The semi-permeable membrane is frequently a thin, nonporous or porous polymeric film, ceramic, or metal material or even a liquid

or gas. The membrane must not dissolve, disintegrate or break [13]. The most normally utilized membrane separation processes for removal of fluoride are reverse osmosis, nano-filtration, Donnan-dialysis and electro dialysis.

2.2.1 REVERSE OSMOSIS (RO)

RO is a physical process in which the anions are removed by applying pressure on the feed water to direct it through the semi permeable membrane. RO works at higher pressure with more prominent rejection of dissolved solids. The membrane rejects the ions taking into account the size and electrical charge. RO membrane process is the reverse of natural osmosis as a consequence of applied hydraulic pressure to the high concentration side of the solution, it forces solvent filter through the membrane, against a pressure gradient into the lower-concentration solution. In RO, utilizing a mechanical pump, pressure is applied to a solution via one side of the semi-permeable membrane to overcome inalienable osmotic pressure. The process likewise removes soluble and particulate matter, incorporating salt from seawater in desalination [14]. In the 80's, RO membrane separation technique was effectively connected for the treatment of industrial wastewater particularly for the removal and recovery of fluoride from its effluents. More than 90% of fluoride can be removed regardless of initial fluoride concentration using RO membrane separation process [15].

Ndiaye et al. was utilized RO separation process for defluoridation of industrial wastewater observed that the rejection of fluoride ion was regularly higher than 98%, considering that the RO membrane was completely recovered after every arrangement of analyses [15]. Berhanu Assefa et al. concentrated the fluoride retention of RO membranes of Ethiopian Rift Region were in the range of 94 to 99 % [16]. Diawara et al. utilized low pressure reverse osmosis for removing fluoride and salinity of brackish ground water of Senegal village where 97 to 98.9% of fluoride rejection happened [17]. Gedam et al. study uncovered that 95 to 98 % of fluoride was removed from ground water of Moradgaon village of Chandrapur district by using Polyamide RO membrane [18]. Schoeman had used RO for defluoridation of some provincial territories of South Africa expressed that fluoride can be removed with low pressure RO in the feed water concentration range from 10 to 17 mg/l to more or less 0.2 mg/l in the RO permeate and with high pressure RO from roughly 17 mg/l in the feed water to approximately 0.2 mg/l in the RO permeate [19]. Briao et al. used reverse osmosis for desalination of water from the Guarani Aquifer System for drinking purpose in southern Brazil. The rejection of 100% of fluoride, 97% of total dissolved solids (TDS) and 94% of sulphate ions was achieved by RO at 2MPa pressure and 1.61 m/s of cross-

section flow velocity. The recovery rate of 93% of drinking water was obtained by blended water created by mixing groundwater with permeate [20].

The point of interest and restriction of the RO membrane separation are given below:

Interest

1. Technique is profoundly compelling for fluoride removal.
2. RO membrane was completely recovered after every arrangement of examination.
3. This strategy can remove fluoride more than 90% regardless of initial concentration.
4. This strategy gives the synchronous removal of other dissolved solids.
5. It efforts under wide pH range.
6. No obstruction by different ions
7. No chemical oblige, least labor prerequisite and least operational expense.
8. The process allows the treatment and purification of water in one stage.
9. It guarantee steady water quality

Restriction

1. Non-attainable for rural regions.
2. Expensive technique.
3. Remove valuable minerals which are basically require for fitting development, remineralization is require after treatment.
4. Lot of water get squandered as saline solution and expendable of salt water is an issue
5. The water gets to be acidic and need pH improvement.

2.2.2 NANO FILTRATION MEMBRANE PROCESS

Nanofiltration (NF) is the later innovation among all the membrane processes utilized for defluoridation of water. The essential contrast in the middle of NF and RO membrane separation is that NF has somewhat bigger pores than those utilized for reverse osmosis and offer less resistance to entry of both solvent and of solute. As a outcome, pressures needed are much lower, energy prerequisites are less, removal of solute is substantially less thorough, and flow are faster [21]. Nanofiltration membrane removes essentially the larger dissolved solids when contrasted the RO making the process more prudent. Notwithstanding over, the permeability of nanofiltration membrane is higher than RO membrane, making the performance of NF in desalination more best for some brackish water [22]. In RO membrane separation 99% of salt present in water was rejected prompting the disposal of all the fluoride ion while NF membrane separation process give incomplete defluoridation of water and optimal fluoride concentration in water can be accomplished by changing the operation conditions.

Diawara et al. observed that NF membrane has given a fluorine retention rate differing somewhere around 63.3% and 71% in certain regions in Senegal [16]. Tahaikt et al. observed the attractive execution of two modules (NF90 and NF400) for fluoride concentration under 6 mg/l in single pass while double pass was important for higher fluoride concentration to convey down as far as possible [23]. Pontie et al. used NF90 for acceptable removing fluoride from brackish ground water of South of Morocco (Tan Tan City) [24]. Bejaoui et al. used nanofiltration (NF-90) and reverse osmosis (RO-SG) to lessened fluoride ions and total salinity of a metal packaging industrial effluent. The retention of fluoride was more than 90% by both the membranes. The Spiegler-Kedem model was to determine reflection coefficient of membrane (r) and solute permeability coefficient of ions (P_s) [25].

The point of interest and restriction of the NF membrane process are given below:

Interest

1. High productivity.
2. No chemicals are needed.
3. It lives up to expectations under wide pH range.
4. Interference because of the presence of other ion is not observed.
5. This process gives an effective barrier to suspended solids, all inorganic toxin, organic micro pollutants, pesticides and microorganism.

Restriction

1. Highly expensive technique when contrasted with other defluoridation techniques.
2. Prone to fouling, scaling or membrane degradation.
3. It removes all the ions present in water some of which are key for the ordinary development and henceforth remineralization of treated water is needed.

2.2.3 DIALYSIS

Dialysis separates solutes by transport of the solutes through a membrane instead of utilizing a membrane to hold the solutes while water goes through it as in reverse osmosis and nanofiltration. The membrane pores are a great deal less prohibitive than those for nanofiltration, and the solute can be driven through by either the Donnan effect or a connected electric field [26]. Donnan dialysis is otherwise called diffusion dialysis, is similar to ion exchange membrane however unique in relation to electro-membrane process in which the driving force is not an electric current, but rather basically a distinction in chemical potential. Concentration difference is the most obvious driving force for ion transport in Donnan dialysis. A negative ion can be driven out of a feed solution through Donnan dialysis is equipped with anion exchange membrane by utilizing a second alkaline stream. The

concentration difference of hydroxide ion between the two solutions compels the hydroxide ion to diffuse into feed solution. This makes an oppositely directed electrical field driving an extraction of negative ions from the feed solution [27]. Hichour et al. examined the Donnan dialysis process in a counter current system in which the anion-exchange membrane was loaded with sodium chloride and the feed was 0.001M NaF together with other sodium salts. Fluoride migrated into the receiver as other ions migrated into the feed. This technique was later used to defluoridate solutions made to recreate high fluoride Africa groundwater (>30mg/l fluoride) and whatever other ions were present the fluoride in the feed could be brought below 1.5 mg/l [27]. Grames et al. used hybrid method of adsorption on aluminium oxide and zirconium oxide and Donnan dialysis with Neosepta-ACS anion exchanger to treat fluoride water of 4mg/l from phosphate mining in Morocco and bring it to desirable level (i.e. 1.5mg/l) for drinking purpose [28]. Durmaz et al. studied the removal of fluoride from diluted solution with Neosepta AHA anion exchanger by Donnan dialysis. Neosepta AHA anion exchanger membrane was used for the removal of fluoride and the flux of fluoride with respect to the concentration, pH, and accompanying anions were obtained between $34 - 136.10^{-7}$ (m.mol.cm⁻².s⁻¹). The transport efficiencies of the membrane were found to be Neosepta AFN > Neosepta AHA > Polysulfone SB-6407. Alkan et al. used plasma modified and Prinstine and AFX anion exchange membrane by Donnan dialysis for removal of fluoride. The flux values and recovery factors for plasma modified AFX membrane were higher than that of Prinstine membrane which was clarified on the premise of progress of wettability and morphology in the plasma modified membrane [29]. Boubakri et al. studied the fluoride removal from dilute solutions by Donnan dialysis using full factorial design [30].

2.2.4 ELECTRO DIALYSIS

Electro-dialysis is the removal of ionic components from aqueous solutions through ion exchange membranes under the driving force of an electric. Electro-dialysis is like reverse osmosis, except current, rather than pressure, to separate ionic contaminants from water. In any case, electro-dialysis is not suitable for rural because of use of electricity. Adhikary et al. have treated defluoridation of brackish water having fluoride upto 10 ppm with TDS upto 5000 ppm with an energy necessity of < 1 KWh/Kg of salt removed and brought it to reasonable first reach of 600 ppm TDS and 1.5 ppm fluoride [31]. Amor et al. used electro-dialysis process to produce drinkable water from defluoridates brackish water containing 3000 ppm of total dissolved solids (TDS) and 3 ppm of fluoride [32]. Annouar et al. studied the fluoride removal of synthetic water and groundwater of the city of Youssoufla

on chitosan took after by electro-dialysis with the help of the CMX-ACS membranes and compares them to brought water inside WHO permissible limit [33]. Sahli et al. also used chitosan and electro-dialysis for defluoridation of brackish underground water of Morocco city and by coupling these two procedures; they were treated defluoridated water with 3000 mg/l of total dissolved solids and 3 mg/l fluoride [34]. Kabay et al. studied the removal of fluoride from aqueous solution by electro-dialysis under different operating parameters including applied voltage, feed flow rate, fluoride concentration and effects of sulphate and chloride ions. It was observed that the separation performance increases with initial fluoride concentration in feed solution increased and fluoride removal increased as applied potential increased. On the other hand, the performance was not affected by change in feed flow rate. A chloride ion impacts the performance of separation of fluoride while unaffected by sulphate ions [35]. Ergun et al. used electro-dialysis with SB-6407 anion exchanger membrane for removal of fluoride from water having 20.6 mg/l of fluoride and decrease it to 0.8 mg/l suitable for drinking purpose in spite of the presence of chloride and sulphate ions [36]. Lahnid et al. have made economical assessment of fluoride removal by electro-dialysis. The capital cost of €833,207 with operating cost of €0.154/m³ was evaluated for an industrial plant with a capacity of 2200 m³/d water consumption for 50,000 per capita according to Moroccan standards for rural areas [37].

The point of interest and restriction of the electro-dialysis are given below:

Interest

1. Inexpensive pre and post treatment
2. Flexible (seasonal operation)
3. Low chemical request
4. High water recovery

Restriction

1. Only separation of Ionic components
2. Potential formation of H₂ in the electrode rinse
3. Specific power consumption for Pumping
4. Necessity of concentrate treatment

2.3 ION-EXCHANGE PROCESS

Fluoride can be removed from water supplies with a strongly fundamental anion-exchange resin containing quaternary ammonium functional groups. The removal takes place according to the following reaction:

$$\text{Matrix-NR}_3 + \text{Cl}^- + \text{F}^- \longrightarrow \text{Matrix-NR}_3 + \text{F}^- + \text{Cl}^-$$

The fluoride ions substitute the chloride ions of the resin. This process proceeds until every one of the sites on the resin are possessed. The resin is then backwashed with water that is supersaturated with dissolved sodium chloride salt. New chloride ions then substitute the

fluoride ions prompting recharge of the resin and beginning the process once more. The driving force for the substitution of chloride ions from the resin is the stronger electronegativity of the fluoride ions. Chikuma et al. studied the removal of fluoride by utilizing anion exchange resin and modified anion exchange resin with lanthanum complex of Alizarin Fluorine Blue in batch and column mode [38]. Chikuma and Nishimura studied the fluoride removal by a chloride loaded anion exchanger, Amberlite IRA-400. The chloride ions held on the surface of this resin were exchanged for fluoride ions in aqueous solution [39]. Castel et al. have likewise studied the removal of fluoride by a two way ion exchange cyclic process [40]. Ho et al. had enhanced the ion exchange capacity by titanium oxohydroxide arranged by using dodecylamine as format. Zirconia and silica have been presented in the mesoporous titanium oxohydroxide to improve the ion exchange capacity because of its smallest particle size with high uniformity among the mesoporous materials prepared. Process is costly and membrane fouling problems was happened [41]. Chubar et al. have studied the removal of different anions like fluoride, chloride, bromide and bromate from instantaneous solutions on a novel ion exchanger taking into account twofold hydrous oxide ($\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot x \text{H}_2\text{O}$) [42]. Meenakshi et al. have studied the defluoridation capacity of a chelating resin, to be specific Indion FR 10 (IND) and Ceralite IRA 400 (CER). An anion exchange resin was looked at under various equilibrating conditions for the distinguishing proof of selective sorbent. The outcomes demonstrated that chelating resin is more selective than an anion exchange resin for fluoride removal [43]. Sundaram et al. used organic – inorganic type of ion exchangers for fluoride removal. The ion exchanger polyacrylamide was modified with $\text{Ce}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{ZrOCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$. Ce-Ex has somewhat higher defluoridation capacity than others (i.e. 2290 mg F-/kg). Likewise it was used for field trials to reduce level of fluoride concentration from 1.96 mg/l to the attractive level using 0.25 g of exchangers for 50ml of samples for 30 min of time of contact [44]. Ku et al. have studied the fluoride removal of water using aluminium loaded Duolite C-467 resin. The removal of fluoride from aqueous solution was found to be relatively steady over entire solution pH [45]. The point of interest and restriction of ion-exchange technique are given below:

Interest

1. High productivity (90-95 % fluoride removal).
2. Retains the superiority of water.

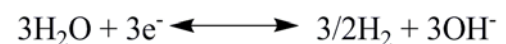
Restriction

1. Technique is exceptionally costly.
2. pH of treated water is low and contains high concentration of chloride.

3. Interference because of the presence of other anions like sulphate, carbonate, phosphate and alkalinity.
4. Regeneration of resin is a an issue on the grounds that it prompts fluoride rich waste, which must dealt with before last disposal.
5. It requires longer reaction period.

2.4 ELECTRO-COAGULATION (EC) PROCESS

Electrocoagulation is a technique for applying direct current to sacrificial electrodes that are submerged in an aqueous solution [46]. Electro-coagulation is a straightforward and efficient technique to remove the flocculating agent produced by electro-oxidation of a sacrificial anode and generally made of iron or aluminum. In this process, the treatment is performed without including any chemical coagulant or flocculants. In this way, diminishing the amount of sludge which must be disposed. Then again, electrocoagulation is in view of the in situ development of the coagulant as the sacrificial anode corrodes because of an applied current, while the concurrent advancement of hydrogen at the cathode takes into consideration contamination removal by flotation. This technique consolidates three fundamental associated processes, operating synergistically to remove pollutants: electrochemistry, coagulation and hydrodynamics. An examination of the chemical reactions happening in the electrocoagulation process demonstrates that the main reactions occurring at the electrodes (aluminum and iron electrodes) are:



Moreover, Al^{3+} and OH^- ions produced at electrode surfaces react in the bulk wastewater to form aluminum hydroxide:



Also the same chemical reactions occurring in the electrocoagulation process using iron electrodes:



The aluminum and iron hydroxide flocs for the most part go about as adsorbents and/or traps for metal ions. Thusly, they would remove with them from the solution. The core purpose of this investigation was to research of the electrocoagulation process productivity for fluoride removal from aqueous environments with iron and aluminum electrodes and determination of the impacts of

voltage, pH, initial concentration of fluoride and reaction time on the removal efficiency [47].

Electrocoagulation includes electrolytic oxidation of a proper anode material. Electro-coagulation reactor is comprised of an electrolytic cell with one anode and one cathode [48]. Yang et al. studied the electrochemical removal of fluoride by delivering aluminium sorbent in a parallel-plate electrochemical reactor. Defluoridation was done by anodic dissolution of aluminium electrodes in a dilute sodium chloride (NaCl) aqueous solution. The NaCl in the solution adequately diminished the power utilization and advanced the sorbent generation by depassivating the aluminium–water electrochemical system. The freshly created Al-sorbent had the capacity diminish fluoride concentration from 16 to 2 mg/l in 2 min. The final concentration was further lessened to 0.1 mg/l by partial neutralization of the mixture to pH 6.3. The sorbent generation and fluoride adsorption was incorporated into a solitary electrochemical reactor. The system had the capacity decrease the fluoride concentration from 16 to 6 mg/l in 2 min of treatment and to around 2 mg/l in 4 min. The effluent from the electrochemical system needs pH alteration to bring the fluoride concentration down to less than 1 mg/l. Feng Shen et al. studied consolidated procedure of electrocoagulation and electro-flotation for defluoridation of industrial water. By this process, the influent fluoride concentration of 15 mg/l, a value after lime precipitation, reduces to 2 mg/l in an effluent when the pH in the coagulation cell is around 6, charge loading is at 4.97 F/m³ water, and the residence time is 20 min. Indeed, even lower effluent concentration can be accomplished if 50 mg/l of Fe³⁺ or Mg²⁺ are included into the coagulation unit. The anions for the most part decrease the fluoride removal efficiency aside from Cl⁻ whose corrosion pitting of the electrode can bring about 130% present efficiency. The weakly acidic condition is satisfactory in the treatment, while too high or too low pH can influence the development of the Al(OH)₃ flocs [49]. Hu et al. studied a continuous bipolar electrocoagulation – flotation (ECF) system for the treatment of the high fluoride content wastewater following calcium precipitation with addition of addition of an anodic surfactant, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS). The dose of SDS in a continuous ECF system was higher than that in the batch system demonstrating the SDS acted not only as frother, but also as collector in the consistent system. The removal of suspended solids (SS) in the consistent system was not as much as that in the batch system in light of the fact that the scum was distributed by the flow of wastewater in the flotation tank [50]. Ghosh et al. examined the treatment of fluoride containing drinking water with concentration 2 to 10 mg/l by electrocoagulation using mono-polar and bipolar electrode connections. It was observed that the removal of fluoride

was preferred for bipolar connection than for mono-polar connection. The final recommendable breaking point of fluoride (1 mg/l) was obtained in 30 min at 625 A m⁻² using bipolar connection. The operational costs of mono-polar and bipolar connections were 0.38 and 0.62 US \$ m⁻³ respectively [51]. Drouiche et al. was completed the treatment of synthetic fluoride containing solutions by electrocoagulation method using aluminium electrodes for the treatment of wastewater from photovoltaic wafer production industry. EC was investigated for applied potential (10-30V), electrolysis time and supporting electrolyte (NaCl) concentration (0–100 mg/l). Our results showed that with increasing applied potential and electrolysis time, the Al³⁺ dosage increases too, and thereby favouring the fluoride ions removal. It was also observed that defluoridation is dependent on the concentration of supporting electrolyte. Un et al. studied the removal of fluoride from synthetic water made by NaF using iron cylindrical reactor as anode and a mechanical stirrer with two blades as cathode. Sodium sulphate (Na₂SO₄) was added to the aqueous solution to increase conductivity. It was observed that the most effective fluoride removal was occurred at pH is 6.0. The most noteworthy treatment efficiency was acquired for the largest current density and higher concentration of sodium sulphate. The initial fluoride concentration of 5 mg/l was reduced to the 0.70 mg/l with the removal efficiency of 85.9% at 3 mA/cm² [52]. Bennajah et al. studied the fluoride removal of synthetic solution using electrocoagulation – electro flotation method in two electrocoagulation cells (i.e. Stirred tank reactor and airlift reactor) of 20 litre capacity with aluminium electrodes. The air lift reactor is advantageous for carrying out the defluoridation removal process based on energy consumption. A variable order kinetic (VOK) derived from the Langmuir-Freundlich equation was created to simulate the kinetics of the defluoridation with EC using bipolar aluminium electrodes in the airlift reactor. The outcomes indicated good agreement between the predictive equation and the experimental data. The external-loop reactor is affirmed as a productive tool to accomplish complete flotation using only electrochemically-generated bubbles without the need for surfactants or compressed air to induce overall liquid circulation. Another favorable position for the external-loop reactor is the instantaneous recovery of the floc, contrasted with the instance of the stirred reactor where the recovery of the floc obtained by the EC needs quite a while or an additional secondary treatment (like filtration or sedimentation) [53]. Khatibikamal et al. studied the fluoride removal from industrial wastewater started from steel industry by electrocoagulation using aluminium electrode. The impact of different operating conditions such as temperature, pH, voltage, hydraulic retention time

(HRT), and number of electrodes between anode and cathode plates on removal of fluoride were studied. The outcome demonstrated that the fluoride concentration can be lessened from 4 to 6 mg/l to lower than 0.5 mg/l with the HRT of 5 minutes. They likewise examined the kinetics of fluoride removal, which complies the second-order kinetic model [54]. Vasudevan et al. studied the impact of alternating and direct current in electrocoagulation process on the removal of fluoride from water using an aluminium alloy as anode and cathode. It was observed that the utilization of direct current makes issue of formation of impermeable oxide layer on the cathode and corrosion of anode happened because of oxidation. Which lessened the efficiency of the electrocoagulation process as the current transfer between the anode and cathode was not productive. This disadvantage was overcome by utilizing alternating current. The removal efficiencies of 93 and 91.5% with energy consumption of 1.883 and 2.541 kWh kL^{-1} was accomplished at a current density of 1.0 A dm^{-2} and pH 7.0 using an aluminum alloy as electrodes using AC and DC, respectively. Langmuir adsorption isotherm was fitted and second order kinetics was taken after for both alternating and direct current. Temperature studies demonstrated that adsorption was exothermic and spontaneous in nature [55]. Emamjomeh et al. utilized a monopolar batch ECF reactor with aluminium as sacrificial electrode that was submerged in aqueous solution for removal of fluoride. Dissolving aluminium (Al^{3+}) is overwhelming in the acidic condition and aluminium hydroxide has propensity soluble. The defluoridation process was observed to be efficient for a pH ranging from 6 to 8. The residual fluoride may happen in different dissolved forms (F^- , AlF^{2+} , AlF^{4-}) or finely formed to solid (cryolite, $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_{3-x}\text{F}_x$). The mechanism of the fluoride removal was affirmed to be not just the aggressive adsorption between OH^- and F^- additionally the development of solid cryolite in the last pH range of 5–8 [46]. Bazrafshan et al. utilized aluminium and iron electrodes for removal of fluoride by electrocoagulation method. The outcome uncovered that the most extreme productivity of fluoride removal was acquired in steady electrolysis voltage of 40 V and reaction time of 60 minute [47]. Cui et al. studied the executive poly (aniline-co-o-aminophenol) (PAOA) modified carbon felt electrode reactor for fluoride removal in constant mode. This reactor was worked under a more extensive pH range due to coating with a copolymer PAOA ion exchange film. Electrode made up of porous carbon felt gave great electro-conductivity and subsequently acquired upgraded contaminants mass transfer from bulk solution to the electrode surface. Fluoride maintenance expanded as the terminal potential expanded from 0.8 to 1.2 V, and diminished as inlet flow rate and initial fluoride

concentration expanded. Optimal removal was seen at around 1.2 V, and the total amount of fluoride removal reached 10.5 mg/g at pH 7.2 with an initial fluoride concentration of 10 mg/L. The reactor was utilized upto seven cycles with back to back recovery [56]. Mumtaz et al. studied the performance of electrolytic defluoridation of synthetic solution of sodium fluoride by nonstop process with aluminium electrodes using direct current. The optimal defluoridation was happened at conditions of optimal pH of 6.5, optimal current of 3A and flow rate of 550 ml/min for residual fluoride concentration inside of as far as possible [57]. Naim et al. used batch electrocoagulation-floatation procedure for removal of fluoride from analar (AR) and commercial grade sodium fluoride solution using bipolar and monopolar ECF. Complete removal of fluoride was acquired after 5 min for AR grade (5mg/l) and for commercial grade (4.93 mg/l) solution without including any added substances. Monolayer configuration had more powerful removal than the bipolar one [58]. Babu et al. studied the defluoridation of distilled and ground water by using electrocoagulation – floatation method with mild steel electrodes. The maximum fluoride removal efficiency of distilled water was 84.9% and 79.4% in batch and constant mode respectively for the highest applied voltage of 25 V and pH of 6.42 in batch system. Removal efficiency from ground water was 79.6% and 28.7% in batch and consistent mode respectively [59]. Andey et al. studied performance the solar based electrolytic defluoridation plants by using aluminium plate electrodes with direct current. It was observed that electrolytic defluoridation create the treated water with fluoride under 1 mg/l and 90 - 99 % decrease in bacterial load from the raw water with the fluoride in the range of 2 to 5 mg/l and total coliform and fecal coliform counts in the range of 120 to 630 CFU/100 ml and 70 to 100 CFU/100 ml respectively in raw water, Reduction in hardness and nitrate is likewise seen in treated water. The repeating expanse for the treatment worked out for electrolytic defluoridation showing plant is \$ 0.4 / m^3 of treated water which is significantly more not exactly the treatment cost by some other defluoridation system accessible [60]. Tastaban et al. studied the fluoride removal of synthetic water through electrocoagulation by utilizing aluminium electrodes at acidic pH range. It was found that fluoride removal was more efficient for the pH range between 3 – 6.5 and fluoride concentration was get decreases from 5 mg/l to lower than 1 mg/l. First order kinetic model was fit for this study. Takdastan et al. studied defluoridation of drinking water by Electrocoagulation (EC) procedure utilizing iron and aluminum electrodes. The fluoride removal of 97.86% was accomplished by aluminum electrodes at optimum condition (pH of 7.5, applied voltage of 20V and contact time of 40 min) and discovered more than defluoridation

by utilizing iron electrodes. The fluoride removal efficiency was expanded by expansion of voltage, number of electrodes, reaction time as well as decrease of space between electrodes. The energy consumption of aluminum electrodes was not as much as iron electrodes [61]. Sandoval et al., 2014 studied the fluoride removal from synthetic drinking water (10 mg/l F⁻ in 0.5 g/l Na₂SO₄ and 1.5 mg/l ClO⁻ at pH 7.7 and conductivity 410 μScm⁻¹) by electrocoagulation with aluminum as sacrificial anode in a consistent filter press reactor combined with a flocculator and clarifier (Sludge settler). The treated water with fluoride under 1.5 mg/l was observed by electrocoagulation at optimum conditions (current density = 5-7 mA/cm² and linear flow velocity = 0.91-1.82 cm/s) gave aluminum doses between 19.28-52.67 mg/l. The fluoride removal from 10 mg/l to 1 mg/l was obtained along with minimum energy consumption of 0.37 kWh/m³ at current density of 5 mAcm⁻² and mean linear flow velocity of 1.8 cms⁻¹ [62]. Naim et al., 2015 studied the defluoridation of water by electrocoagulation (EC) technique by using bipolar aluminum electrodes. The complete fluoride removal from 6.44 mg/l analar sodium fluoride solution was accomplished inside of 15 min. The optimum minimum weight of NaCl for complete defluoridation from fluoride solution of 10 mg/l was observed to be 0.5g. The optimum pH and speed of agitation was 6 and 300 rpm. The defluoridation of water by EC was more for analar NaF solutions than commercial NaF solutions [63].

The point of interest and restriction of electrocoagulation are depicted as takes after [48]:

Interest

1. EC obliges basic equipment, simple to handle and less support cost.
2. EC treated water is consumable, colourless and odourless.
3. EC produces low sludge that is promptly settlable and simple to de-water since it essentially content metallic oxides or hydroxides.
4. EC produces more steady and effectively separated by filtration.

Restriction

1. The 'sacrificial electrodes' are dissolved into wastewater streams as an after effect of oxidation, and should be consistently supplanted.
2. The utilization of electricity may be lavish in numerous spots.
3. An impermeable oxide film may be framed on the cathode prompting loss of productivity of the EC unit.
4. High conductivity of the wastewater suspension is needed.
5. Gelatinous hydroxide may tend to solubilize now and again.

2.5 ADSORPTION

Adsorption is the bond of molecules species from bulk solution for a surface of of a solid by physical or chemical forces. Adsorption procedures include the water's entry through a contact bed where fluoride is removed by ion exchange or surface chemical reaction with the solid bed matrix. As contrast with different procedures of defluoridation, adsorption method is prominent because of its straightforwardness and also accessibility of extensive variety of adsorbents. Adsorption onto solid surface is straightforward, flexible and suitable procedure for treating drinking water systems, particularly for small groups. Adsorption technique is efficient and can remove ions over an extensive variety of pH to a lower leftover concentration than precipitation [64,65]. A few adsorbent materials have been attempted in the past to check their possibilities and techno-economic feasibility as defluoridating specialists. Activated alumina, activated carbon, activated alumina coated silica gel, calcite, activated saw dust, activated coconut shell powder, activated fly ash, groundnut shell, coffee husk, rice husk, magnesite, serpentine, tri-calcium phosphate, bone charcoal, activated soil sorbent, defluoron-1, defluoron-2 and so on various adsorbent materials reported in literature [66-74]. The most regularly utilized adsorbents are activated alumina and activated carbon. The fluoride removing efficiency of activated alumina gets influenced by hardness, pH and surface loading (the ratio of total fluoride concentration to activated alumina dosage). The adsorption procedure can remove fluoride up to 90% and the treatment is exceptionally practical. Regeneration is needed after at regular intervals of 4-5 months and viability of adsorbent for fluoride removal reduces after every regeneration cycle. Mckee and Johnston investigated the utilization of powdered activated carbon for fluoride removal and accomplished noble outcomes [75]. The procedure is pH dependent with noble results just at pH 3.0 or less. Hence, the utilization of this material is costly because of need of pH alteration. Activated alumina method for defluoridation is being proliferated in a few villages by the voluntary organizations funded by UNICEF or different agencies to give safe drinking water. Sarita Sansthan, Udaypur, Rajasthan is spreading the method with the viable help of UNICEF by giving a bucket (approximately 20 L capacity) fitted with a microfilter at the bottom containing 5 kg of activated alumina. The point of interest and restriction of adsorption are given below:

Interest

1. Ease of operation.
2. Adsorption procedure is worthwhile
3. High productivity for fluoride removal and can remove up to 90% fluoride.

4. Produce high quality water.
5. Regeneration is conceivable.

Restriction

1. Disposal of depleted adsorbents and concentrated regenerated makes issue.
2. Interference because of the vicinity of different anions may bring about competition for active sites on adsorbent.
3. Drop in removal effectiveness after regeneration step.
4. Highly pH subordinate.
5. High concentration of total dissolved salts (TDS) can bring about fouling of the alumina bed.

3. Conclusions and future perspective

This review has endeavored to cover an extensive variety of procedures which have been utilized so far for the removal of fluoride from the drinking water and industrial wastewater. The traditional system of removing fluoride from drinking water is liming and the attending precipitation of fluoride. Then again, the weaknesses of the vast majority of these strategies are high operational and upkeep costs, auxiliary contamination, for example, generation of toxic sludge and so on and intricately process included in the treatment. Distinctive technologies systems, utilized for defluoridation, were discriminately examined. It was reasoned that coagulation strategies have by and large been discovered compelling in defluoridation, however they are unsuccessful in conveying fluoride to fancied concentration levels. The quest for option and appropriate fluoride removal methods thusly still stays of curiosity.

References

- [1] S.S. Waghmare, and T. Arfin, “ Fluoride removal from water by calcium materials: a state-of-the-art review”, *International Journal of Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology*, 4(9), 2015, pp. 8090-8102.
- [2] S.S. Waghmare, T. Arfin, N. Manwar, D.H. Lataye, N. Labhsetwar, S. Rayalu, “Preparation and characterization of polyalthia longifolia based alumina as a novel adsorbent for removing fluoride from drinking water”, *Asian Journal of Advanced Basic Sciences*, 4(1), 2015, pp. 12-24.
- [3] S.S. Waghmare, and T. Arfin, “ Fluoride removal from water by mixed metal oxide adsorbent materials: a state-of-the-art review”, *International Journal of Engineering Sciences & Research Technology*, 4(9), 2015, pp. 519-536.
- [4] N. Razbe, R. Kumar, Pratima, and R., Kumar, “Various options for removal of fluoride from drinking water”, *IOSR Journal of Applied Physics*, 3 (2), 2013, pp. 40-47.
- [5] J.P. Padmashri, “Effectiveness of Low Cost Domestic Defluoridation”, *International Workshop on Fluoridation Water Strategies, Management and Investigation*. Bhopal, 2001, pp. 27–35.
- [6] W. G. Nawlakhe, and A. V. J. Rao, “Evaluation of defluoridation plant at Tartatur”, *Journal of Indian Water Works Ass* 13, 1990, pp. 287–290.
- [7] W.G. Nawlakhe, D.N. Kulkarni, B.N. Pathak, and K.R. Bulusu, “Defluoridation of Water by Nalgonda Technique”, *Indian J Environ Health*, 17, 1975, pp. 26-65.
- [8] K. R. Bulusu, B. B. Sunderasan, B. N. Pathak, W. G. Nawlakhe, D. N. Kulkarni, and V. P. Thergaonkar, “Fluoride in water, defluoridation methods and their limitations”, *Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India)* 60, 1979, pp. 1–25.
- [9] H. Mjengera, and G. Mkongo, “Appropriate defluoridation technology for use in fluorotic areas in Tanzania”, 3rd Water Net Symposium Water Demand Management for Sustainable Development, 2002.
- [10] E. Dahi, “Contact precipitation for defluoridation of water”, 22nd WEDC Conference New Delhi, India, 1996, pp. 266 – 268.
- [11] R. Aldaco, A. Garea, and A. Irabein, “Modeling of particle growth: Application to water treatment in a fluidized bed reactor”, *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 134, 2007, pp. 66-71.
- [12] R.C. Maheswari, and G. Hoelzel, “Potential of membrane separation technology for fluoride removal from underground water”, *Proceedings of the Water Environment Federation*, 17, 2002, pp. 620–636.
- [13] J.D. Seadar, and J.E. Heneley, “The Separation Process Principles”, second ed., NJ: Wiley, 2005, pp. 521–523.
- [14] S.J. Wimalawansa, “Purification of contaminated water with reverse osmosis – Effective solution of providing clean water for human needs in developing countries”, *International Journal of Emerging Technology and Advanced Engineering*, 3 (12), 2013, pp. 75-89.
- [15] P. I. Ndiaye, P. Moulln, L. Dominguez, J. C. Millet, and F. Charbit, “Removal of fluoride from electronic industrial effluent by RO membrane separation”, *Desalination* 173, 2005, pp. 25-32.
- [16] B. Assefa, “Defluoridation of Ethiopian rift valley region water using reverse osmosis membranes”, *Journal of EEA*, 23, 2006, pp. 1 – 6.
- [17] C. K. Diawara, S. N. Diop, M. A. Diallo, and M. A. Farcy, “Determination Performance of nanofiltration (NF) and low pressure reverse osmosis (LPRM) membranes in the removal of fluorine and salinity from brackish drinking water”, *Journal of Water Resource and Protection*, 3, 2011, pp. 912-917.
- [18] V. V. Gedam, J. L. Patil, S. Kagne, R. S. Sirsam and P. Labhassetwar, “Performance evaluation of polyamide reverse osmosis membrane for removal of contaminants in ground water collected from Chandrapur district”, *Journal of Membrane Science & Technology*, 2 (3), 2012, pp. 1 – 5.
- [19] J. J. Schoeman, “Water defluoridation, water denitrification and water desalination in rural areas in South Africa”, *Proceedings of the third IASTED*

- African Conference, Power and Energy System (AfricaPES 2010), Gaborone, Botswana, September 6-8, 2010, 244-247.
- [20] V. B. Briao, J. Magoga, M. Hemkemeier, E. B. Briao, L. Girardelli, L. Sbeghen, and D. P. C. Favaretto, "Reverse osmosis for desalination of water from the Guarani Aquifer System to produce drinking water in southern Brazil", *Desalination*, 344, 2014, pp. 402–411
- [21] M. Mohapatra, S. Anand, B.K. Mishra, D. E. Giles and P. Singh, "Review of fluoride removal from drinking water", *Journal of Environmental Management*, 91, 2009, pp. 67-77.
- [22] A. Lhassani, M. Rumeau, D. Benjelloun and M. Pontie, "Selective demineralisation of water by nanofiltration application to the defluoridation of brackish water", *Water Research*, 35, 2001, pp. 3260-3264.
- [23] M. Tahaikt, R. E. Habbani, A. A. Haddou, I. Achary, Z. Amor, M. Taky, A. Alami, A. Boughriba, M. Hafsi and A. Elmidaoui, "Fluoride removal from groundwater by nanofiltration", *Desalination*, 212, 2007, pp. 46-53.
- [24] M. Pontie, H. Dach, and J. Leparc, "Nanofiltration as a sustainable water defluoridation operation dedicated to large scale pilot plants for the future", 13th International Water Resource Association (IWRA) World Water Congress, Montpellier, France, 1-4 September 2008, pp. 1–6.
- [25] I. Bejaoui, A. Mnif, and B. Hamrouni, "Performance of Reverse Osmosis and Nanofiltration in the Removal of Fluoride from Model Water and Metal Packaging Industrial Effluent", *Separation Science and Technology*, 49, 2014, pp.1135–1145.
- [26] F.G. Donnan, "Donnan equilibrium and the physical properties of proteins", *The Journal of General Physiology*, 1911, pp. 667-690.
- [27] M. Hichour, F. Persin, J. Sandeaux, and C. Gavach, "Fluoride removal from water by Donnan dialysis", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 18 (1), 2000, pp. 1–11.
- [28] H. Grames, F. Persin, J. Sandeaux, G. Pourcelly and M. Mountadar, "Defluoridation of groundwater by a hybrid process combining adsorption and Donnan dialysis", *Desalination*, 145, 2002, pp. 287-291.
- [29] E. Alkan, E. Kir, and L. Oksuz, "Plasma modification of the anion-exchange membrane and its influence on fluoride removal from water", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 61, 2008, pp. 455–460.
- [30] A. Boubakri, N. Helali, M. Tlili, and M. B. Amor, "Fluoride removal from diluted solutions by Donnan dialysis using full factorial design", *Korean Journal of Chemical Engineering*, 31 (3), 2014, pp. 461-466.
- [31] S.K. Adhikary, U.K. Tipnis, W.P. Harkare, and K.P. Govindan, "Defluoridation during desalination of brackish water by electrodialysis", *Desalination*, 71(3), 1989, pp. 301-312.
- [32] Z. Amor, S. Malki, M. Taky, B. Bariou, N. Mameri, and A. Elmidaoui, "Optimization of fluoride removal from brackish water by electrodialysis", *Desalination*, 120(3), 1988, pp. 263-271.
- [33] S. Annouar, M. Mountadar, A. Soufiane, A. Elmidaoui, and M. A. Menkouchi Sahil, "Defluoridation of underground water by adsorption on the chitosan and by electrodialysis", *Desalination*, 165, 2004, 437.
- [34] M. A. M. Sahli, S. Annouar, M. Tahaikt, M. Mountadar, A. Soufiane, and A. Elmidaoui, "Fluoride removal for underground brackish water by adsorption on the natural chitosan and by electrodialysis", *Desalination*, 212 (1-3), 2007, pp. 37-45.
- [35] N. Kabay, O. Arar, S. Samatya, U. Yuksel, and M. Yuksel, "Separation of fluoride from aqueous solution by electrodialysis: Effect of process parameters and other ionic species", *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 153 (1-2), 2008, pp. 107-113.
- [36] E. Ergun, A. Tor, Y. Cengeloglu, and I. Kocak, "Electrodialytic removal of fluoride from water: Effects of process parameters and accompanying anions", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 64 (2), 2008, pp. 147-153.
- [37] S. Lahnid, M. Tahaikt, K. Elaroui, I. Idrissi, M. Hafsi, I. Laaziz, Z. Amor, F. Tiyal, and A. Elmidaoui, "Economic evaluation of fluoride removal by electrodialysis", *Desalination*, 230 (1-3), 2008, pp. 213-219.
- [38] M. Chikuma, Y. Okabayashi, T. Nakagawa, A. Inoue and H. Tanaka, "Separation and determination of fluoride ion by using ion exchange resin loaded with alizarin fluoride blue", *Chemical and Pharmaceutical Bulletin* 35 (9), 1987, pp. 3734-3739.
- [39] M. Chikuma, and M. Nishimura, "Selective sorption of fluoride ion by anion exchange resin modified with alizarin fluorine bluepraseodymium(III) complex", *Reactive Polymers*, 13, 1990, pp. 131–138.
- [40] C. Castel, M. Schweizer, M.O. Simonnot, and M. Sardin, "Selective removal of fluoride ions by a two-way ion-exchange cyclic process", *Chemical Engineering Science*, 55, 2000, pp. 3341-3352.
- [41] L.N. Ho, T. Ishihara, S. Ueshima, H. Nishiguchi, and Y. Takita, "Removal of fluoride from water through ion exchange by mesoporous Ti-oxhydroxide", *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 272, 2004, pp. 399-403.
- [42] N.I. Chubar, V.F. Samanidou, V.S. Kouts, G.G. Gallios, V. A. Strelko, and I. Z. Zhuravlev, "Adsorption of fluoride, chloride, bromide, and bromate ions on a novel ion exchanger", *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 291 (1), 2005, pp. 67-74.
- [43] S. Meenakshi and N. Viswanathan, "Identification of selective ion-exchange resin for fluoride sorption", *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 308, 2007, pp. 438-450.
- [44] C. S. Sundaram and S. Meenakshi, "Fluoride sorption using organic-inorganic hybrid type ion exchangers", *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 333, 2009, pp. 58-62.
- [45] Y. Ku, H. M. Chiou, and H. W. Chen, "Removal of fluoride from aqueous solution by aluminium-loaded Duolite C-467 resin", *Journal of the Chinese Institute of Engineers*, 34 (6), 2011, pp. 801-807.

- [46] M.M. Emamjomeh, M. Sivakumar and A.S. Varyani, "Analysis and the understanding of fluoride removal mechanisms by an electrocoagulation/flotation (ECF) process", *Desalination*, 275, 2011, pp. 102-106.
- [47] E. Bazrafshan, K.A. Ownagh, and A.H. Mahvi, "Application of Electrocoagulation process using iron and aluminium electrodes for fluoride removal from aqueous environment", *E-journal of Chemistry*, 9 (4), 2012, pp. 2297-2308.
- [48] M. Y. A. Mollah, R. Schennach, J. R. Parga and D. L. Cocks, "Electrocoagulation (EC) – science and applications", *Journal of Hazardous Materials B*, 84, 2001, pp. 29-41.
- [49] F. Shen, X. Chen, P. Gao, and G. Chen, "Electrochemical removal of fluoride ions from industrial wastewater", *Chemical Engineering Science*, 58, 2003, pp. 987-993.
- [50] C.Y. Hu, S.L. Lo, W. H. Kuan, and Y. D. Lee, "Treatment of high fluoride-content wastewater by continuous electrocoagulation-flotation system with bipolar aluminium electrodes", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 60, 2008, pp. 1-5.
- [51] D. Ghosh, C.R. Medhi, and M.K. Purkait, "Treatment of fluoride containing drinking water by electrocoagulation using monopolar and bipolar electrode connections", 73 (9), 2008, pp. 1393-1400.
- [52] U.T. Un, A. S. Koparal, and U. B. Ogutveren, "Electrochemical process for the treatment of drinking water", *Thirteenth International Water Technology Conference, IWTC 13, Hurghada, Egypt, 2009*, pp. 129-137.
- [53] M. Bennajah, M. Maalmi, Y. Darmane, and M.E. Touhami, "Defluoridation of drinking water by electrocoagulation/electroflotation –kinetic study", *Journal of Urban and Environmental Engineering*, 4 (1), 2010, pp. 37-45.
- [54] V. Khatibikamal, A. Torabian, F. Janpoor, and G. Hoshyaripour, "Fluoride removal from industrial wastewater using electrocoagulation and its adsorption kinetics", *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 179 (1-3), 2010, pp. 276-280.
- [55] S. Vasudevan, B.S. Kannan, J. Lakshmi, S. Mohanraj, and G. Sozhan, "Effects of alternating and direct current in electrocoagulation process on the removal of fluoride from water", *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*, 86, 2011, pp. 428-436.
- [56] H. Cui, Y. Qian, H. An, C. Sun, J. Zhai, and Q. Li, "Electrochemical removal of fluoride from water by PAOA-modified carbon felt electrodes in a continuous flow reactor", *Water Research*, 46(12), 2012, pp. 3943-3950.
- [57] N. Mumtaz, G. Pandey, P.K. Labhsetwar, and S.P. Andey, "Evaluation of operational parameters involved in electrolytic defluoridation process", *Environmental and Infrastructure Engineering Research and Development*, 2 (4), 2012, pp. 23-32.
- [58] M. M. Naim, A. A. Moneer, G. F. El-Said, "Defluoridation of commercial and analar sodium fluoride solutions without using additives by batch electrocoagulation-flotation technique", *Desalination and Water Treatment* 44, 2012, pp. 110–117.
- [59] J. M., Babu, and S., Goel, "Defluoridation of drinking water in batch and continuous-flow electrocoagulation systems", *Pollution Research*, 32 (4), 2013, pp. 727-736.
- [60] S. Andey, P.K. Labhsetwar, G. Khadse, P. Gwala, P. Pal, and P. Deshmukh, "Performance evaluation of solar power based electrolytic defluoridation plants in India", *International Journal of Water Resources and Arid Environments*, 2(3), 2013, pp. 139-145.
- [61] A. Takdastan, S. E. Tabar, A. Neisi, and A. Eslami, "Fluoride Removal From Drinking Water by Electrocoagulation Using Iron and Aluminum Electrodes, Jundishapur" *Journal of Health Science*, 6(3), 2014, pp. 39-44.
- [62] M. A. Sandoval, R. Fuentes, J. L. Nava, and I. Rodríguez, "Fluoride removal from drinking water by electrocoagulation in a continuous filter press reactor coupled to a flocculator and clarifier", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 134, 2014, pp. 163–170.
- [63] M. M. Naim, A. A. Moneer, and G. F. El-Said, "Predictive equations for the defluoridation by electrocoagulation technique using bipolar aluminum electrodes in the absence and presence of additives: a multivariate study", *Desalination and Water Treatment*, 2015, pp. 1–13.
- [64] S. Ghorai, and K.K. Pant, "Equilibrium, kinetics and breakthrough studies for adsorption of fluoride on activated alumina", *Separation and Purification Technology*, 42, 2005, pp. 265–271.
- [65] N. Das, P. Pattanaik, and R. Das, "Defluoridation of drinking water using activated titanium rich bauxite", *Journal of Colloid Interface Science*, 292, 2005, pp. 1–10.
- [66] H. Kariyanna, "Geological and geochemical environment and causes of fluorosis—possible treatment—a review", in *Proceedings Seminar on Role of Earth Sciences in Environment, Bombay, 1987*, 113–122.
- [67] J.P. Barbier, and P. Mazounie, "Methods of reducing high fluoride content in drinking water", *Water Supply* 2, 1984, SS 8/1-4.
- [68] K. Muthukumaran, and N. Balasubramanian, T.V. Ramakrishna, "Removal of fluoride by chemically activated carbon", *Indian Journal of Environmental Protection*, 15 (7), 1995, pp. 514–517.
- [69] W. Rongshu, H. Li, P. Na, and W. Ying, "Study of a new adsorbent for fluoride removal from waters", *Water Quality Research Journal of Canada* 30 (1), 1995, pp. 81–88.
- [70] Y. Min, T. Hashimoto, N. Hoshi, and H. Myoga, "Fluoride removal in a fixed bed packed with granular calcite", *Water Research*, 33 (16), 1999, pp. 3395–3402.
- [71] Y. Wang, and E.J. Reardon, "Activation and regeneration of a soil sorbent for defluoridation of drinking water", *Applied Geochemistry*, 16, 2001, pp. 531–539.

- [72] C.D. Nava, M.S. Rios, and M.T. Olguin, “Sorption of fluoride ions from aqueous solutions and well drinking water by thermally heated hydrocalcite”, *Separation and Purification Technology*, 38 (1), 2003, pp. 31–147.
- [73] S. Padmavathy, J. Amali, R.E. Raja, N. Prabavathi, and B. Kavitha, “A study of fluoride level in potable water of Salem district and an attempt for defluoridation with lignite”, *Indian Journal of Environmental Protection*, 23 (11), 2003, pp. 1244–1247.
- [74] V.P. Thergaonkar, and W.G. Nawalakhe, “Activated magnesia for fluoride removal”, *Indian Journal of Environmental Health*, 16, 1971, pp. 241–243.
- [75] R. Mckee, and W.S. Johnston, “Removal of fluorides from drinking water using low-cost adsorbent”, *Indian Journal of Environmental Health*, 41 (1), 1999, pp. 53–58.

AUTHOR BIBLIOGRAPHY



Sanghratna S. Waghmare is a working as a Senior Scientist at Environmental Materials Division, CSIR-National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (CSIR-NEERI), Nagpur. He has experience in condition assessment of RCC buildings and bridges using NDT and PDT techniques also engaged in development of building materials from wastes, design and development of instant houses and polymer composites from sisal fibers. Currently, Waghmare has been involved in defluoridation and carbon dioxide sequestration.



Tanvir Arfin is currently working as a Scientist at Environmental Materials Division, CSIR-National Environmental Engineering Research Institute (CSIR-NEERI), India. Dr. Arfin has been actively engaged in research related to various fields of electrochemistry, defluoridation, platinum group materials, polymer science, membrane, hybrid materials, graphite oxides and biomass energy. He has published more than 28 scientific peers reviewed journal papers and 9 book chapters