

Correlating the polysaccharide and protein contents of five plant-derived coagulants with turbidity removal

Zahraa Hasan Mutar^{1*}, Siti Rozaimah Sheikh Abdullah²,
Israa Abdulwahab Al-Baldawi³

¹ Department of Architecture Engineering, College of Engineering, Wasit University, 52001 Wasit, Iraq

² Department of Chemical and Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and Built Environment, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 UKM Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

³ Department of Civil Engineering, College of Engineering, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

* Corresponding author's e-mail: zahraa.mutar@uowasit.edu.iq

ABSTRACT

In an effort to address the issues related to chemical coagulants, the recent paradigm in wastewater treatment has shifted towards encouraging industries to adopt and implement sustainable solutions in their activities. This study aims to evaluate the polysaccharide and protein contents of five different plant coagulants derived from the leaves of cassava (*Manihot esculenta*), cow grass (*Axonopus compressus*), kaduk (*Piper sarmentosum*), moringa (*Moringa oleifera*) and petai belalang (*Leucaena leucocephala*) and compare their coagulation performances in turbidity removal in a kaolin suspension. Jar tests were conducted with varying biocoagulant doses (0–0.1 mg/L) and pH values (4–10). Results showed that moringa had the highest polysaccharide (8.65 ± 0.001 g/L) and protein (2.89 ± 0.001 g/L) contents. After moringa, petai belalang had the next-highest polysaccharide content (7.08 ± 0.001 g/L) and kaduk had the next-highest protein content (1.28 ± 0.003 g/L). Under the optimal conditions of a dose ratio of 0.01 and pH of 4, the petai belalang and moringa coagulants achieved the highest turbidity removal rates, which exceeded 90% and 87%, respectively. These promising outcomes may encourage further exploration to examine the appropriate approach for the extraction of active ingredients and the optimal operation parameters.

Keywords: plant-derived coagulants, extraction, optimal dose, suspended solids.

INTRODUCTION

The United Nations predicts that the number of people living in areas of physical water scarcity will increase to 1.2 billion by 2025 with the deterioration of freshwater quality in conjunction with the marked decline in rainfall rates associated with climate change and unsustainable water consumption [1]. Water resources with deteriorated quality are typically characterised by high turbidity levels and abundant in natural organic matter, including pathogenic microorganisms, as well as precursors of potentially carcinogenic, teratogenic and mutagenic disinfection by-products [1, 2]. Poor-quality water increases disease rates worldwide, with 800 000 annual mortalities due to gastrointestinal diseases caused by unsafe drinking water [3]. Accordingly, wastewater

generated from human activities requires comprehensive treatment to meet the global population's growing demand for clean water [1, 2]. The safe reuse of treated wastewater contributes to the circular economy and addresses food insecurity, particularly in areas transitioning between urban and rural, where effluent represents an essential nutrient-rich irrigation water resource [4].

Coagulation–flocculation is a fundamental process in water treatment that reduces turbidity and improves the transparency of water [5, 6]. This process involves the addition of certain chemical salts, such as aluminium sulphate or ferric chloride to reduce the turbidity of wastewater by destabilising the dissolved and suspended solid particles creating large, heavy flocs that easily settle [7]. However, the consequences of using chemical coagulants are grave; for instance,

aluminium residues are not biodegradable, resulting in environmental complications related to the treatment and disposal of the generated sludge [8]. Therefore, strict standards for residual aluminium levels in drinking water have been established. According to the World Health Organisation, aluminium levels should not exceed 0.2 mg/L; moreover, they should not exceed 0.1 mg/L in Japan and 0.05 mg/L in the USA [9]. Therefore, an urgent need for other potential alternatives to minimise the use of aluminium salts has emerged [10].

Efforts to produce natural biocoagulants from plant residues are relentless [11–13]. Several biocoagulants have been derived from various plant materials, including wheat starch [10], chickpea (*Cicer arietinum*) [14], cotton seeds [15], prickly pear peels [16], *Ceratophyllum* [17], *Garcinia kola* [18], cassava (*Manihot esculenta*) peels [13, 19, 20] and *Margaritarea discoidea* [21].

The strength of plant-based coagulants is believed to lie in the selection of indigenous plants used by rural societies [22]. However, most previous studies have focused on specific species, particularly moringa (*Moringa oleifera*) [8, 23–34]. Therefore, further research can be conducted to discover other nontoxic plant species that can be used in mass production [22].

Identifying the active ingredients that determine the underlying mechanisms of coagulation is necessary to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the prevailing conditions during coagulation–flocculation using plant-based coagulants. Polysaccharides are polymers with skeletal frameworks containing monosaccharides and their derivatives. The polysaccharides' skeletal framework might be linear or branched, containing either one monosaccharide type (homopolysaccharides) or more than one monosaccharide type (heteropolysaccharides). This structure provides a sufficient number of active sites for particle adsorption and charge neutralisation in coagulation–flocculation operations [21]. Moreover, the chemical compounds present in plant-based coagulants, such as protein, may be responsible for coagulation activities in water clarification [10, 35].

This study focuses on determining the polysaccharide and protein contents of five tropical plant species, namely, cassava, cow grass (*Axonopus compressus*), kaduk (*Piper sarmentosum*) and moringa. Moreover, it evaluated the efficiency of the extracts of these plants as ecofriendly

coagulants. It also aims to assess the effects of biocoagulant doses (0–0.1 mg/L) and pH values (4–10) on the removal of suspended solids and turbidity in synthetic kaolin wastewater.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Source of turbid water

Synthetic turbid water (approximately 600 NTU) was prepared in accordance with Alnawajha et al. [36] by mixing kaolin powder with tap water at 60 rpm for 30 min to ensure the full hydration of kaolin and subsequent formation of colloidal particles.

Quantification of the protein and polysaccharide contents of plant extracts

The protein and polysaccharide contents present in the structures of the plant extracts were quantified by using extracts with concentrations of 10–100 g/L. Each concentration was prepared separately by accurately weighing the required amount of the dried powder of each plant and dissolving it in 100 mL of distilled water. The resulting solution was homogeneously mixed for 1 h, centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 7 min (5810, Eppendorf, Germany) and decanted through a Buchner funnel lined with 0.45 µm filter paper (Whatman, Germany). Protein was quantified in accordance with the Bradford protein assay adopted by Shah et al. [13]. In brief, 0.5 mL of each concentration of the freshly extracted plant solution was agitated at room temperature with 2.5 mL of Bradford reagent for 5 min to obtain a colorimetric protein solution. Protein content was measured by quantifying the intensity of the blue protein–dye complex solution with a UV spectrophotometer (DR3900, HACH Company, the USA) at a wavelength of 595 nm, and the results were compared with the bovine serum albumin standard curve. The polysaccharide content of the plant extracts was determined in accordance with the acid phenol method by following Alnawajha et al. [12]. Equal volumes (1 mL) of freshly prepared plant solutions and phenol (5%) were mixed with 5 mL of concentrated H₂SO₄. The mixture was left for 10 min prior to the measurement of absorbance (488 nm). The results were compared with the standard curve of glucose solution.

Preparation of coagulant stock solutions

Branches of kaduk, cow grass, cassava, moringa and petai belalang (*Leucaena leucocephala*) were collected from Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia. Leaves were washed and oven-dried (BS100, Protech, Malaysia) at 40 °C for three days. The dried leaves were ground by using a blender (Panasonic, Malaysia) into fine powders, sieved through 200–500 µm meshes, then stored in confined containers for subsequent use. Coagulants with a dose of 10 g/L (Figure 1) were freshly prepared before every jar test experiment by dissolving 5 g of the dry powder of each plant separately in 500 mL of distilled water. The solution was homogeneously mixed for 1 h, centrifuged (5810, Eppendorf, Germany) and decanted through a Buchner funnel lined with a 0.45 µm filter paper (Whatman, Germany).

Jar test experiments

Coagulation–flocculation experiments were conducted by using a jar test flocculator (VELP, Malaysia) with six 500 mL beakers (Iwaki, Germany). The one-variable-at-a-time approach was conducted to optimise the dose ratio and pH value with fixed operation parameters, including a rapid mixing gradient of 200 rpm for 1 min, slow mixing gradient of 15 rpm for 30 min and settling time of 30 min. The dose ratio represents the mass ratio of a coagulant to wastewater [37]. Accordingly, each beaker was filled with 450 mL of wastewater and 50 mL of a coagulant in a dose ratio between 0 to 0.1 in accordance with Equation 1:

$$\text{Dose ratio} = \frac{C_c \times V_c}{TSS_{ww} \times V_{ww}} \quad (1)$$

where: C_c is the concentration of the biocoagulant, V_c is the volume of the biocoagulant, TSS_{ww} is the initial measured value of the total suspended solids (TSS) in wastewater and V_{ww} is the volume of wastewater.

Analytical methods

The performance of the plant-based coagulants was evaluated by measuring the turbidity, TSS and colour of wastewater. The turbidity of wastewater was measured with a turbidimeter (2100AN, HACH, China). TSS and colour were analysed by using a spectrophotometer (DR3900, HACH Company, the USA). The removal rates for turbidity, TSS and colour were calculated in accordance with Equation 2 [38]:

$$\text{Removal (\%)} = \frac{C_i - C_t}{C_i} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where: C_i represents the initial concentration of wastewater, and C_t is the final concentration of the treated wastewater.

Statistical analysis using ANOVA

The results of this study were statistically analysed by using SPSS software version 21 (IBM, the USA) with a confidence interval of 95%. One-way ANOVA followed by a post hoc test (Turkey's HSD) was conducted to determine the significant effects of coagulant dose and pH

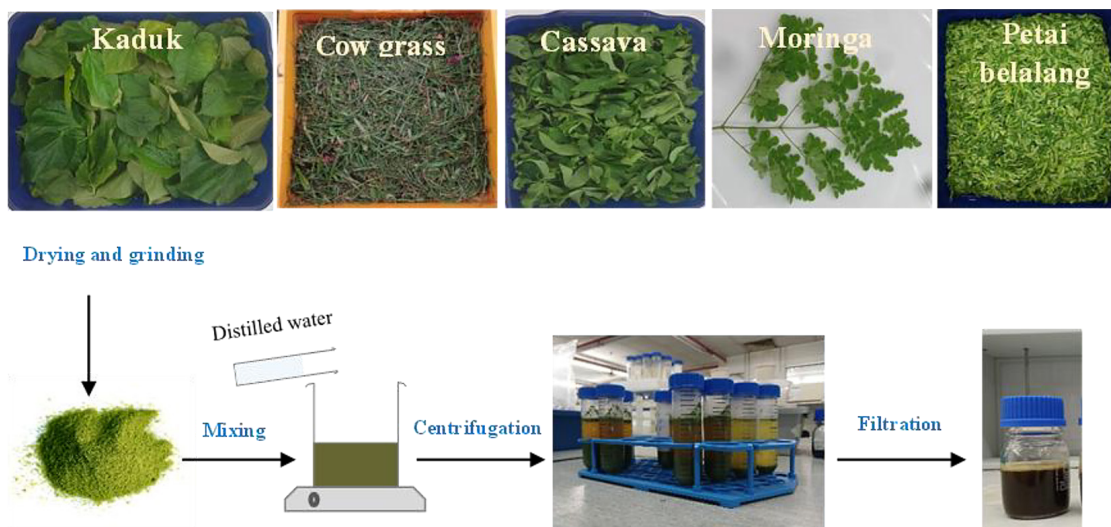


Figure 1. Preparation of plant-based coagulants

on coagulation performance, which was represented by the removal rates for turbidity, TSS and colour [39].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Analysis of the protein and polysaccharide contents of plants

The extracted solutions of plant leaves were characterised by quantifying the protein and polysaccharide contents of extracts of different concentrations (10–100 g/L), as presented in Figure 2. As an initial observation, all tested plant extracts had higher polysaccharide contents than protein contents. This finding appears to be consistent with the presence of diverse polysaccharides, such as cellulose, hemicellulose and pectin, in the cell wall. Miscellaneous polysaccharides are often the most abundant macromolecules in plants. Polysaccharides have distinct structures and functions that contribute to wall mechanics and influence plant morphogenesis [13, 40, 41]. By contrast, proteins are usually minimally involved in plant cell walls because they are limited to structural roles or function as enzymes [35, 42].

Considerable variation in polysaccharide and protein contents were observed amongst the plant extracts within the same concentration range. Moringa had a higher polysaccharide content (8.65 ± 0.001 g/L) than petai belalang (7.08 ± 0.001 g/L), kaduk (6.29 ± 0.01 g/L), cassava (5.28 ± 0.001 g/L) and cow grass (3.28 ± 0.063 g/L). The amount of polysaccharides extracted from the plants gradually increased as the extract concentration increased from 10 g/L to 70 g/L,

then insignificantly fluctuated at high concentrations (> 70 g/L). The polysaccharide contents of kaduk, grass, cassava, moringa and petai belalang peaked at concentrations of 100, 70, 100, 90 and 90 g/L, respectively.

Moringa had higher protein contents (2.89 ± 0.001 g/L) than kaduk (1.28 ± 0.003 g/L), grass (0.93 ± 0.005 g/L), cassava (0.48 ± 0.003 g/L) and petai belalang (0.37 ± 0.001 g/L). The protein contents of kaduk, grass, cassava, moringa and petai belalang peaked at concentrations of 80, 70, 100, 80 and 70 g/L, respectively. Shah et al. [13] reported a similar result given that the protein contents of cassava steadily increased from 5 g/L (340 ± 14.1 mg/L) to 80 g/L (5833.3 ± 1130.3 mg/L). Protein content (6151.7 ± 274.6 mg/L) peaked at 70 g/L then significantly dropped (1576.9 ± 88.7 mg/L) at 90 g/L. Shah et al. [13] attributed this phenomenon to the hydration effect. The concentration of salts, especially calcium, markedly increases in conjunction with the increase in plant extract concentration. Calcium in leaf extracts is preferentially hydrated and adsorbed onto negative surfaces over other positively charged ions. Therefore, the increasing salt level enhances the aggregation and precipitation of proteins due to their decreasing solubility [13, 43, 44].

Effect of dose ratio

In this study, the effect of varying dose ratios on the removal of turbidity, TSS and colour in synthetically prepared wastewater at pH 7.4 was investigated. Five types of water-extracted biocoagulants were screened to identify the most efficient coagulant. The comparison of the performances of

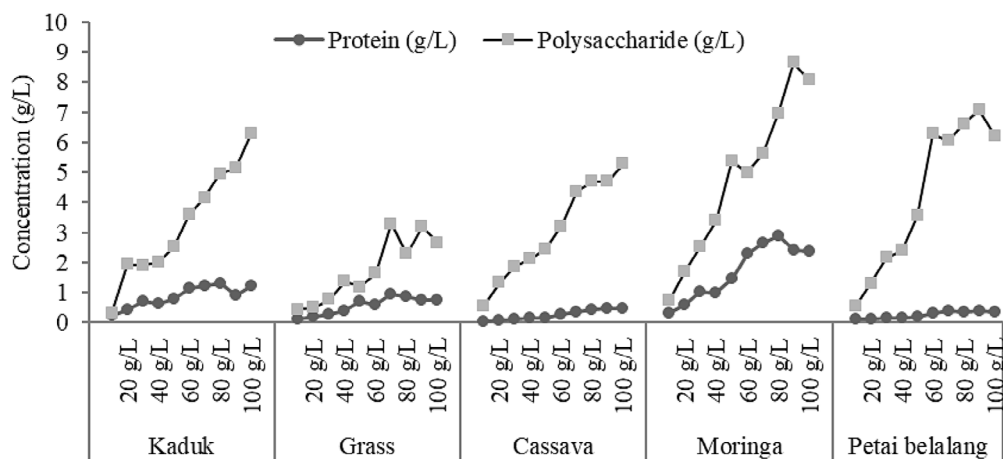


Figure 2. Protein and polysaccharide contents of plants

the prepared biocoagulants is illustrated in Figure 3. Jar test experiments showed that compared with the control, the tested coagulants achieved a statistically significant reduction in turbidity, TSS and colour levels. However, the moringa-based coagulant had no statistically significant effect on colour reduction. The cow grass coagulant achieved

the highest turbidity removal rates, which ranged from 27% to 37%, followed by the cassava (23–32%), kaduk (18–28%), moringa (15–22%) and petai belang (16–22%) coagulants. The results clearly revealed that all coagulants achieved the highest turbidity removal rates at the lowest dose ratio (0.01). Petai belang, which exhibited

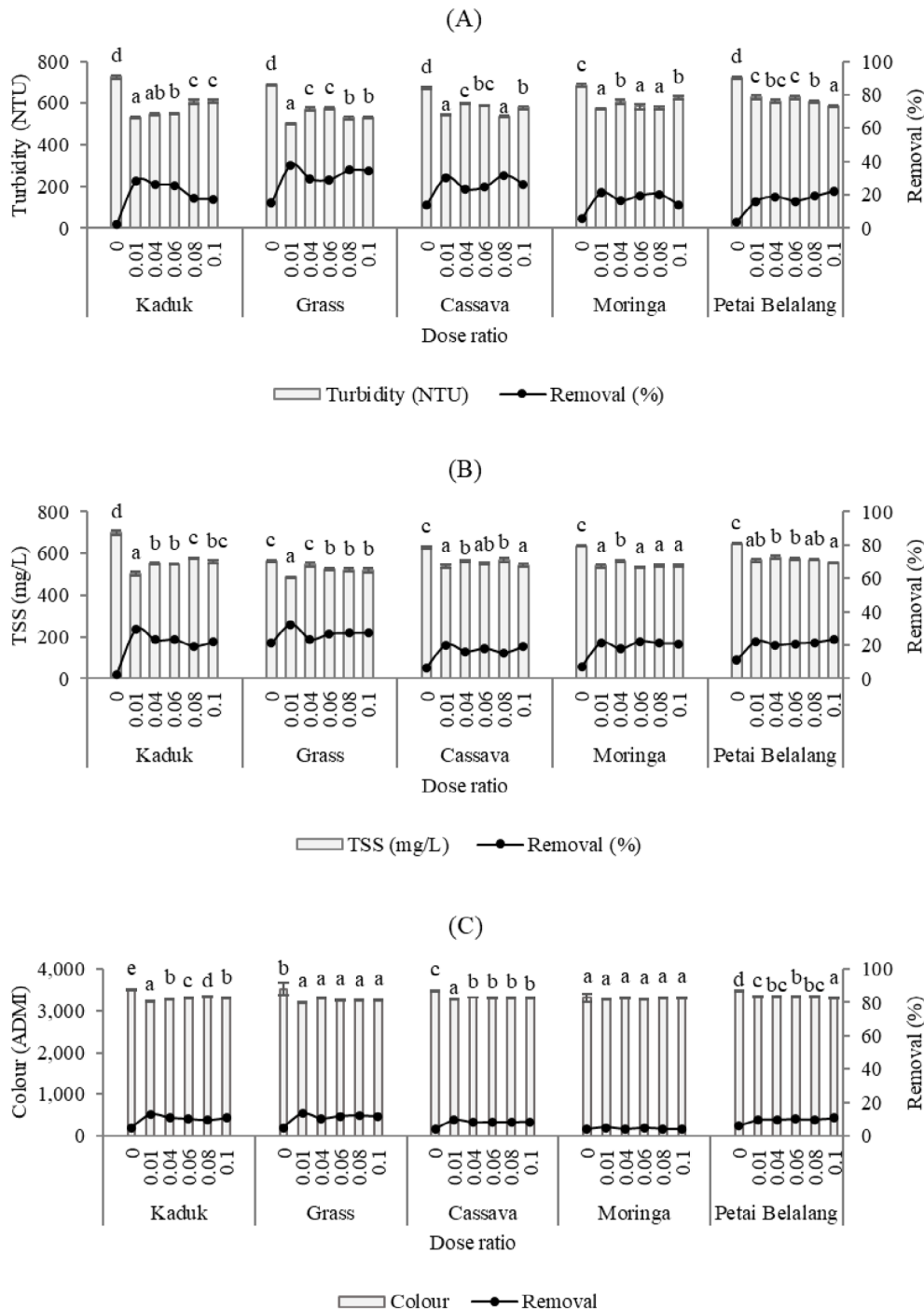


Figure 3. Effect of the mass ratio of the tested plant-based coagulants on the removal of (A) turbidity, (B) TSS and (C) colour. Different letters represent statistically significant differences in the turbidity removal ability of each coagulant at each concentration ($p < 0.05$)

the highest turbidity removal rate at the highest dose ratio (0.1), was the sole exception (Figure 3A). The cow grass coagulant obtained the highest removal rates for TSS (23.57–32.35%), followed by the moringa (28.24–32.18%), cassava (26.35–30.49%), kaduk (19.30–29.37%) and petai belalang (20.05–23.48%) coagulants. All the tested plant-derived coagulants significantly reduced the levels of TSS at the dose ratio of 0.01. However, the levels of TSS significantly increased when the dose ratio of the kaduk and grass coagulants increased (Figure 3B). These results are in line with the results reported by Putra et al. [45], who reported that increasing the dose of biocoagulant extracted from jackfruit seed initially enhanced the removal of turbidity; however, the removal declined in conjunction with dose increasing beyond the optimal dose. It is believed that overdosing causes particle restabilization which can hinder floc formation and sedimentation [45]. TSS levels clearly oscillated when the cassava, moringa and petai belalang coagulants were used at dose ratio > 0.01. Increasing the dose ratio of the kaduk and cassava coagulants (> 0.01) had a negative effect on colour levels (Figure 3C), whereas increasing those of the grass and moringa coagulants from 0.01 to 0.1 had no significant effect on colour levels. The results also revealed that the petai belalang coagulant followed different trends, wherein increasing its dose ratio from 0.01 to 0.1 had a positive effect on colour reduction.

Effect of pH

In this study, the plant-based coagulants were tested at the dose ratio of 0.01 and different pH values ranging from 4 to 10. Figure 4 depicts the removal rates and final concentrations of turbidity, TSS and colour in wastewater at different pH values. The initial pH value of wastewater had a strong effect on turbidity removal rates and other parameters to different extents. The results revealed that an extremely acidic condition (pH 4) significantly enhanced the removal of turbidity, TSS and colour ($90.33\% \pm 0.40\%$, $90.52\% \pm 0.41\%$ and $88.26\% \pm 2.16\%$, respectively) by the petai belalang coagulant relative to the neutral ($15.33\% \pm 3.04\%$, $21.07\% \pm 0.19$ and $5.70\% \pm 0.81\%$, respectively) and alkaline conditions ($9.42\% \pm 2.12\%$, $22.12\% \pm 0.15\%$ and $14.94\% \pm 0.81\%$, respectively). The moringa, grass and kaduk coagulants followed a pattern similar to that of the petai belalang coagulant but had low

removal rates. The reduction in turbidity achieved by the moringa, grass and kaduk coagulants at pH 4 was significantly higher ($87.28\% \pm 0.53\%$, $59.11\% \pm 0.15\%$ and $47.82\% \pm 1.34\%$, respectively) than that at pH 7.4 ($18.88\% \pm 1.61\%$, $7.911\% \pm 2.59\%$ and $19.20\% \pm 3.36\%$, respectively) and pH 10 ($4.88\% \pm 2.39\%$, $9.11\% \pm 0.27\%$ and $21.95\% \pm 2.15\%$, respectively). The moringa, grass and kaduk coagulants significantly reduced the levels of TSS at pH 4 ($83.18\% \pm 0.13\%$, $57.98\% \pm 0.15\%$ and $50.74\% \pm 2.92\%$, respectively) relative to at pH 7.4 ($18.38\% \pm 0.26\%$, $18.84\% \pm 0.07\%$ and $24.33\% \pm 0.07\%$, respectively) and pH 10 ($22.81\% \pm 0.26\%$, $18.57\% \pm 0.07\%$ and $26.94\% \pm 0.07\%$, respectively). The reductions in colour levels by the moringa, grass and kaduk coagulants at pH 4 were significant ($78.53\% \pm 0.27\%$, $52.79\% \pm 1.11\%$ and $44.97\% \pm 0.83\%$, respectively) relative to those at pH 7.4 ($9.23\% \pm 0.27\%$, $12.29\% \pm 1.67\%$ and $19.27\% \pm 0.27\%$, respectively) and pH 10 ($9.78\% \pm 2.05\%$, $13.96\% \pm 1.11\%$ and $18.99\% \pm 5.58\%$, respectively). According to Nigussie and Habtu [50], the acidic conditions (pH 4) improve the protonation of functional groups, including carboxyl and amine groups, of biocoagulants, raising their capacity to bind with negatively charged particles [50]. Notably, the alteration in pH conditions during the jar test had no significant effect on the reduction in turbidity, TSS and colour by the cassava coagulant.

The improvement in turbidity removal and other parameters under the neutral and alkaline conditions observed in this study agrees with the results reported by Saritha et al. [46], who found that sago coagulant achieved the highest reduction in turbidity and other parameters at pH 7. Similar findings were also reported by Shah et al. [13], who reported that the removal of TSS and turbidity by plant-based coagulants was greater at pH 7 than at the original pH of 3.4. Lek et al. [14] suggested that the protein solubility of a plant-based coagulant (chickpea) increased after pH 4, accounting for the observed improvement in palm oil mill effluent treatment at high pH values.

Comparison with previously reported coagulants

Several studies have discussed the performance of most of the plant extracts involved in this study, except for grass, in the treatment of wastewater with different origins, as

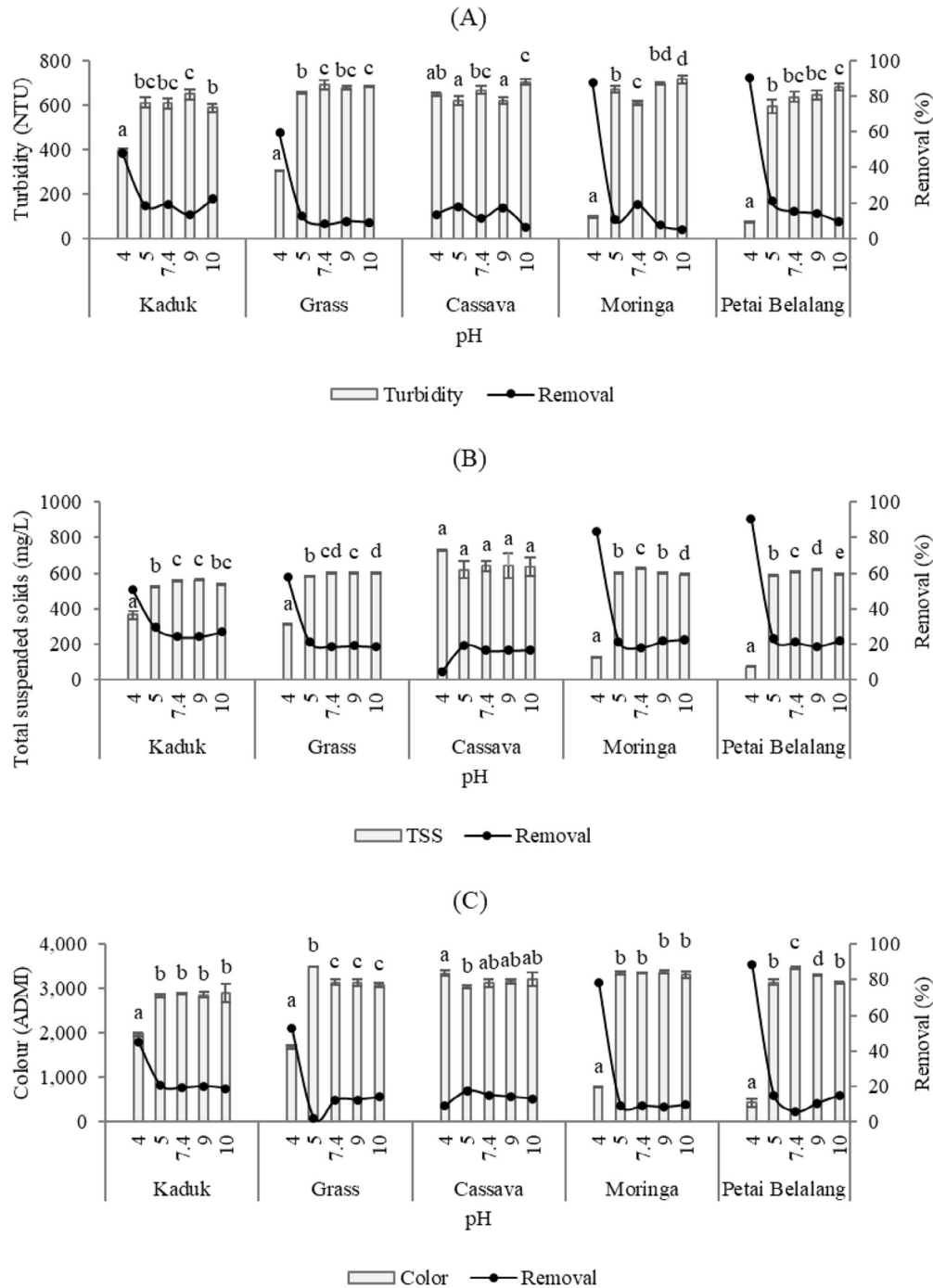


Figure 4. Effect of the initial pH on the removal rates for (A) turbidity, (B) TSS and (C) colour. Different letters represent statistically significant differences in the ability of each concentration of each plant coagulant to remove turbidity ($p < 0.05$)

summarised in Table 1. Protein in plant extracts contributes to charge neutralisation and bridging mechanisms in removing colloidal particles, whereas polysaccharides contribute to the bridging mechanism [36]. The results of this study indicate a strong correlation between the polysaccharide content and coagulation performance of the five plant extracts. The two plant extracts

(petai belalang and moringa) that showed the highest coagulation performance also possessed the highest polysaccharide content, suggesting that high polysaccharide content enhances adsorption and bridging coagulation and charge neutralisation [21]. Alnawajha et al. [47] reported on the good performance of petai belalang seed extract, which reduced the turbidity, TSS

Table 1. Performance of plant-based coagulants derived from kaduk, cassava, moringa and petai belalang in previous studies

Plant-based coagulant	Type of wastewater	Removal rate	Reference
Kaduk leaves	Coffee effluent	51.0% (TSS) 66.9% (turbidity)	[13]
Cassava leaves	Domestic wastewater	High TSS removal	[48]
	Landfill leachate	6.7% (aluminium content removal)	[49]
	Coffee effluent	>60% (turbidity)	[13]
Cassava peel starch	Institutional wastewater	77.48% (turbidity) 77.34% (TSS) 56.89% (COD)	[19]
Moringa (seeds and leaves)	Kaolin suspension	36.7% (TSS) 34.8% (turbidity)	[11]
Moringa seeds	Raw water	98.83% (turbidity)	[50]
	Bentonite suspension	93% (turbidity)	[27]
	Municipal sewage	~90% (coagulation performance)	[31]
	Dairy industry	96.8% (turbidity) 90.3% (colour)	[51]
Petai belalang seeds	Kaolin suspension	93.05% (turbidity)	[36]
Petai belalang seeds	Aquaculture effluent	96.32% (turbidity) 92.85% (TSS) 86% (colour)	[47]
Kaduk leaves	Kaolin suspension	47.82% (turbidity) 50.74% (TSS) 44.97% (colour)	Present study
Cassava leaves		17.78% (turbidity) 19.42% (TSS) 17.39% (colour)	
Cow grass		59.11% (turbidity) 57.98% (TSS) 52.79% (colour)	
Moringa leaves		87.28% (turbidity) 83.18% (TSS) 78.53% (colour)	
Petai belalang leaves		90.33% (turbidity) 90.52% (TSS) 88.26% (colour)	

and colour of aquaculture effluent by 96.32%, 92.85% and 86%, respectively. They found that the promising performance of the coagulant was correlated with the protein and polysaccharide contents (1001 and 1803 mg/L, respectively) of the extract. In another study by Alnawajha et al. [36], petai belalang seed extract, with protein and polysaccharide contents of approximately 1082 and 2257 mg/L, respectively, reduced the turbidity of a kaolin suspension by 93.05%. Shah et al. [13] reported that kaduk removed 51.0% and 66.9% of TSS and turbidity, respectively, in coffee effluent.

CONCLUSIONS

This study focused on natural alternatives for coagulation by screening five plant-derived

coagulants. These coagulants were extracted from cassava leaves, cow grass, kaduk leaves, moringa leaves and petai belalang leaves by using water. All tested plants had considerably higher polysaccharide contents than protein contents most likely due to the involvement of polysaccharides, including cellulose, hemicellulose and pectin, in the cell wall. Compared with the other coagulants, the petai belalang and moringa coagulants exhibited superior performance in the removal of turbidity, TSS and colour of the prepared kaolin suspension, especially under acidic conditions. Coagulation performance was influenced by coagulant dose, wherein increasing the dose ratio to beyond 0.01 caused a marked decline in the coagulation efficiency of all screened biocoagulants, except for petai belalang, which achieved the highest removal efficiency for turbidity and TSS at a dose ratio of 0.1.

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