

Analysis of infrared optical polishing effluents and reduction of COD and TSS levels by Ultrafiltration and Coagulation/Flocculation

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Abstract

Samples of polishing effluent produced during infrared optics manufacture were analyzed. Their particle size, composition, Zeta potential, Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD), Total Suspended Solids (TSS) and Settable Solids (SetSol) were determined. Feasibility of ultra-filtration and coagulation/flocculation were investigated as treatment methods to reduce both COD and TSS. It was found that effluents consisted of a suspension of micro and nano particles. Effluent particle size distribution reflected the removal rate of the originating polishing process. Their composition was primarily germanium and other polished substrates as well as polishing abrasives. The effluent Zeta potential was highly negative and prevented particle settling. COD of all specimens was very high; which prevented sewage discharge. Laboratory scale trials using Ultra-Filtration (UF) showed substantial COD abatement of up to 74.1%. TSS was reduced to zero after UF. Comparable coagulation/flocculation COD abatement was demonstrated for the highest COD sample.

Keywords: Polishing effluents, industrial, wastewater treatment, analysis, industry, effluent

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1 Introduction

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High value optics manufacture is an established industry in the UK. A wide range of scientific and technological worldwide industries such as medical, defense and aerospace rely on these precise elements.

Manufacture of high value optics relies heavily on polishing processes. Conventional polishing employs slurries containing abrasive particles that flow between the surface being polished and a pad. The slurry may have a specific pH to generate a slight etching of the surface that in combination with the suspended abrasives removes material from the substrate [1]. Polishing of optical components usually employs a series of progressively finer abrasive media to grind away the higher points of a surface profile until this becomes “smooth”. The different polishing stages can be generally classed by the abrasive size employed. For example, larger abrasive particles, of typical average of up to 45 μm , are used for rapid stock removal. Subsequent lapping operations may employ “mid-range” abrasive sizes ranging from 14 to 6 μm . Final polishing is typically achieved using abrasives ranging from 4.5 μm to submicron. Common slurry abrasives include diamond, silicon carbide, alumina and silica. Polishing slurries can be both oil, soluble or emulsions.

Although polishing slurries can be re-circulated and are commonly reused, there is a critical point where their abrasive concentration falls below optimum. At this point, polishing efficiency is severely affected [2]. Consequently, these “worn” slurries are disposed and a “fresh” batch is prepared. Due to the industry growth [3] and diversification [4, 5] effluent volume from optical polishing is increasing and it needs to be disposed responsibly.

41 This study focuses on the polishing effluent generated by the Infra-red (IR) optical industry. This
42 forms a substantial portion of the UK high value optics industry. The substrate materials
43 typically polished are germanium, silicon, gallium arsenide, zinc selenide, zinc sulphide, glasses
44 and other miscellaneous IR materials. Night vision systems are the most common applications of
45 these materials. Approximately 10,000 liters of wastewater are generated per year at this
46 facility by 10 dedicated machines included in this study.

47 Currently, there are a large number of publications related to disposal management of chemical
48 mechanical polishing (CMP) effluents from the semiconductor industry. Effluent disposal in the
49 photovoltaic industry has also registered a growing interest [6-9] . However, literature relating
50 to the physical or chemical properties, composition and disposal of IR polishing effluents is still
51 scarce. In this work, we set to determine the composition, particle size distribution, SetSol, COD,
52 TSS and Zeta potential of optical IR polishing effluents from “worn” slurry samples collected
53 from a major European facility. To simplify this analysis, the scope of the research has been on
54 reduction of COD and TSS within local sewage regulations. Ultra-filtration and
55 coagulation/flocculation have been initially investigated as routes to achieve this. In England
56 and Wales, sewage effluent disposal must conform to the water industry act 1991 [10]. Local
57 consent limits issued for these effluents are of 1000 and 500 mg/l for COD and TSS, respectively.
58 Other elements detailed in the consent are copper, zinc, cadmium, lead, chromium and iron. All
59 of these are limited to 2mg/l.

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2 Experimental

64 6 different waste slurry samples, A to F, were collected from a large UK Infrared specialist
65 optical polishing facility. The samples were collected at the end of 6 different production lines.
66 These polishing processes ranged from rapid material removal to final polishing for a range of
67 different substrate materials. Table 1 illustrates some of the sample characteristics noted at an
68 initial visual assessment following their collection. Table 1 also gives the polishing processes
69 originating the samples and abrasive type used.

70 Characterization of the effluent composition, particle size distribution, COD, SetSol, TSS, and
71 Zeta potential enabled specification of feasible routes for treatment. Prior to characterization
72 each sample was thoroughly homogenized by shaking it for 30 seconds before a subsample was
73 taken. This procedure was determined by initial microscopy homogenization studies.

74 **2.1 Particle size distribution and composition of polishing slurry** 75 **effluents**

76 Characterization of the slurry particle size distribution is critical for effective treating of polishing
77 slurries. This is even more important if treatment techniques such as ultra-filtration are to be
78 considered. In the present work, particle size distribution was performed using Dynamic Light
79 Scattering (DLS) techniques [11]. This was conducted in 2 stages to ensure best resolution.
80 Initially a Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, Worcester, UK) was used to characterize the
81 sample solids down to 1 μ m. Median and quantiles were calculated. After this, the particle
82 distributions were further characterized using a Nanosizer (ZS Malvern Instruments, Worcester,

83 UK). Prior to this, the samples were filtered to remove all particles over 1 μm . Each sample was
84 characterized at least three times to ensure repeatability. In addition, optical and Scanning
85 Electron Microscopy (SEM) were used to complement the DLS characterization.

86 The slurry samples were also analyzed to accurately establish their chemical composition. This
87 was conducted using both Energy Dispersive Analyses (EDS) and X-Ray Diffraction (XRD). Slurry
88 dry-powder specimens were prepared. Typically, 140 ml subsamples of each of the slurries were
89 set in an oven at 105 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ until all fluid had evaporated leaving a dry powder. These analyses also
90 identified unexpected or hazardous residual elements that required special treatment.

91 **2.2 Characterization of polishing effluent COD, SetSol, TSS and Zeta** 92 **Potential**

93 COD is a measure of the amount of oxygen used in chemical oxidation of inorganic and organic
94 matter contained in wastewater. COD together with other wastewater parameters such as TSS,
95 is widely considered an indicator of pollution degree and environmental impact. In order to
96 comply with effluent discharge regulations, wastewater effluents often require treatment to
97 abate COD and TSS prior to sewer disposal.

98 COD values were calculated for all samples using a standard procedure [12] for the examination
99 of water and wastewater. For this, the test effluent is heated up to 148 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 2 h with
100 potassium dichromate ($\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$) and concentrated sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4) in the presence of
101 silver (Ag) as catalyst. After cooling, the COD values were measured by photometry (NOVA 60 by
102 MERCK, Darmstadt, Germany). Results were expressed in mg/l.

103 Settleable solids (SetSol) were measured using an Imhoff cone in accordance with standard
104 procedures [13]. One liter of each of the samples after thoroughly mixing was allowed to settle.
105 After one hour, the volume of solids (ml) that settled at the cone apex was measured.
106 Following this procedure, the total suspended solids (TSS) was measured [14] 100 ml of each
107 effluent sample without settleable solids were filtered using a Buchner flask and paper filter
108 with particle retention of 1.2 μm (Whatman type GF/C glass-fiber, Leicester, UK). Following
109 filtration, the paper was dried at 105 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ in an oven for 2h. The net weight of the retained
110 particles was measured using an analytical balance to determine the TSS of each sample:

111 **Equation 1**

$$TSS = \frac{w_2 - w_1}{V}$$

112
113 TSS total suspended solids in mg/l
114 w_2 paper filter + dried suspended solids residual weight (mg)
115 w_1 paper filter weight
116 V volume of sample filtered (l)

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118 Zeta potential is the electrical potential that exists at the shear plane of a particle. It describes
119 the electrostatic interactions of particles in a fluid and can be used as a measure of its
120 flocculation state. The Zeta potential was measured with a Zetasizer (Malvern Instruments,
121 Worcestershire, UK) at ambient temperature.

122 Each experiment was repeated at least twice for repeatability.

123 **2.3 Ultra-filtration**

124 From a manufacturing point of view, ultra-filtration (UF) provides a simplified approach and
125 automation potential for efficient effluent disposal. Successful treatment of some
126 semiconductor chemical-mechanical polishing effluents using UF and reverse osmosis (RO) [15]
127 and UF preceded by chemical treatment have been previously reported [6]. UF trials were
128 conducted at laboratory scale. The cross flow filtration pressurized (N₂) system removed micro
129 and nano size particles using a porous membrane. Commercially available membranes
130 (Polyethersulfone BiomaxTM, PB, MERCK, Darmstadt, Germany) with 67nm pore size were used.
131 These membranes were chosen based on results from the previous particle size distribution
132 measurement. The pressure was set to 0.7 atm. as specified by the membrane manufacturer.
133 Polishing slurry subsamples of 350ml were filtrated. All experiments were conducted 3 times to
134 verify repeatability. Following filtration, the COD of the samples was measured to analyze the
135 effect of the filtration process.

136 **2.4 Coagulation/flocculation**

137 Coagulation/flocculation can be potentially a cost effective way of disposing IR polishing
138 effluents. Coagulation/flocculation is the separation of fine suspended solids brought about
139 using charge neutralization via a coagulant. Coagulation [16, 17] and more recently
140 electrocoagulation [18-20] have been recently employed to investigate turbidity, total organic
141 carbon (TOC) and COD abatement in semiconductor effluents. Similar techniques have been
142 applied in the photovoltaic industry [7] .

143 The effectiveness of coagulation/flocculation was demonstrated for sample F. This was chosen
144 because of its high COD (6645 mg/l) and Z potential (-25.1 mV).

145 In order to ascertain the coagulation mechanisms of polishing effluents, initial titration tests
146 were conducted. Ferric $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ was used as the coagulant. $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ is widely used in
147 wastewater treatment [21] and it was readily available to the researchers. Coagulation tests
148 were undertaken on a multi-jar tester. Samples of polishing slurry effluent were dosed with
149 varying amounts of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ relating to different Zeta potentials. Conditions involved rapid mix
150 at 300 rpm for 1 minute, a 15 min 30 rpm flocculation stage and a 15 min settlement period
151 [22].

152 **3 Results and discussion**

153 All polishing slurry samples typically had a cloudy appearance consistent with that of particles in
154 suspension. The samples color varied and this reflected particular components involved in each
155 of the polishing processes i.e. the substrate material, abrasive particles and solvents. The foam
156 reported on some of the slurry samples (see table 1) is attributable to aeration occurring during
157 slurry re-circulation in the polishing machine. Antifoams are commonly added to polishing
158 slurries to remedy excessive foaming that sometimes occurs. This was confirmed subsequently
159 for samples C, D and E at the optical factory shop. These antifoams may also contain oils.
160 However, a separate oily phase was not observed in any of these samples. Therefore it was
161 assumed that any oils were in emulsion.

162 **3.1 Particle size distribution and composition**

163 Figure 1 illustrates an example of the particle size distribution of a polishing effluent F. A narrow
164 distribution around a mean of 1.15 μm is observed for this sample. This is consistent with the
165 process origin of this sample being in lapping. This mean particle size is typical of a process with
166 a very low rate of material removal. In general, the particle size distribution from each of the
167 samples reflected the polishing process in which they were employed. Table 2 shows cumulative
168 particle size distribution parameters. As seen, the median particle size for polishing effluent
169 ranged from 100 to 1 μm approximately. The processes with greater rates of material removal
170 yielded larger particle sizes and vice versa. Table 2 also illustrates the median and range of the
171 submicron particle size distribution for all samples. For this measurement, the effluent mean
172 particle size ranged from 460-180 nm. Figure 2 shows the submicron particle size distribution of
173 sample F.

174 Figure 3 is a scanning electron microscope (SEM) image for sample D. A continuous layer of
175 particulate ranging from 2 to 4 μm can be observed. This correlates well with the particle size
176 distribution previously obtained (Table 2).

177 Figure 4 shows a summary of the elements found in the EDS analysis conducted for each of the
178 samples. A dominant presence of Germanium (Ge) was found. This was expected as Ge was the
179 main substrate polished in most machines when the effluent samples were collected. Other
180 substrates polished in the same machines included Silicon (Si), Zinc Selenide (ZnSe) and Zinc
181 sulphide (ZnS) and these were also present in the analyses. Further elements found were
182 related to the additives present in the polishing slurry. This was confirmed by their datasheets.

183 XRD analysis revealed the presence of GeO₂. This was confirmed by SEM microscopy. Figure 5
184 shows an image of GeO₂ nano-crystals found as precipitates in sample A. These were most likely
185 related to the abrasives used during the polishing process. Their approximate size is 500 nm.
186 Similar nano-crystals were also found on samples B and E.

187 In addition to the polished substrates, Carbon (C) and oxygen (O) were also present as chemical
188 species in all the results. Samples A and E showed small percentages of up to 4.21% of Zinc (Zn)
189 attributable to polished substrate residuals. Iron (Fe) was present in the analysis for sample C in
190 smaller amounts of up to 0.15%. This was not entirely unexpected. Metallic polishing-machine
191 tooling is often made of steel alloys.

192 In General, the EDS and XRD analysis did not return unexpected elements or compounds. These
193 analyses were clearly dominated by components relating to either to the polishing substrates or
194 the slurry abrasive used.

195 **3.2 Polishing effluent COD, SetSol, TSS and Zeta Potential**

196 Table 3 gives a summary of all effluents parameters calculated. The measured COD of all
197 samples as received ranged from 1789 to 6645 mg/l. This was much higher than the local
198 consent limit, currently set at 1000mg/l.

199 The measured TSS values of the samples A, E and F were compliant with the current discharge
200 consent limit at 500mg/l. samples B and C, showed TSS values that were close to this limit, while
201 that of sample D was many times over this limit at 4893 mg/l. These results correlated well with
202 the particle size distribution measurements previously conducted. The effluents whose
203 distribution overlapped the 1.2 µm filter pore size used, had a larger number of particles filtered

204 out and, a result a lower TSS. In contrast, sample D had a smaller submicron particle
205 distribution, and therefore a lower number of particles filtrated out. COD was re-measured
206 following the TSS procedure to observe the effect of filtration. Although a significant reduction
207 was observed for samples A and B, 54 and 55% respectively, the new COD values remained
208 greater than current local sewer discharge consent. The COD reduction observed in effluents A
209 and B was primarily due to their particle size distribution. These samples had the largest particle
210 sizes (see table 2), with a large number of these above the 1.2 μm filter pore size. In contrast for
211 samples C-F a lower COD reduction was observed. The polishing processes in which these
212 effluents originated are the finer removal stages in optical finishing. Therefore a large number
213 of particles in these effluents were in the nm range and meant they had a considerable
214 influence in determining the effluent COD. In view of these observations, it was confirmed that
215 ultra-filtration and coagulation/flocculation were viable treatment routes. Ultra-filtration
216 processes provide enhanced particle retention and an improved chance to abate COD and TSS
217 levels.

218 The very high negative Z potential values observed contributed to the low SetSol values
219 measured (Table 3). This was consistent with the initial visual assessment that reported that
220 almost or no precipitates observed. Therefore employing a settlement tank previous to effluent
221 treatment was not considered advantageous.

222 SEM sample dry preparation lead to the discovery of an oil phase in samples C, D and F. It was
223 subsequently confirmed that oil, antifoams and other additives had been used on these slurries.
224 As shown in Table 2 the samples with the higher COD had an oil phase. The effect of this oil
225 phase on the samples COD was investigated. Oils were extracted from the polishing effluents

226 and their concentration determined using the isolate SPE columns procedure [23]. After this,
227 COD was re-measured. The extraction procedure resulted in COD improvements of 11.1, 10.4
228 and 9.7 % for samples C, D and F, respectively. Oil concentration was estimated at 780 and 863
229 mg/l for samples C and F, respectively. A value for sample D could not be obtained, due to
230 column blockage.

231 **3.3 Ultra-filtration trials**

232 UF trials were conducted at laboratory scale using a N₂ pressurized cross flow filtration system.
233 In view of the particle size distribution obtained, a 64 nm pore size membrane was selected for
234 all effluents. This provided economical means of operation and sufficient level of filtration for
235 most particles. Figure 6 shows the COD values for each effluent sample before and after ultra-
236 filtration. As seen there is a significant improvement for all samples. Samples A, B, C, D and F
237 showed distinctive COD improvements ranging from 60 to 75%. Sample E, which had the lowest
238 COD at collection (1789 mg/l), observed a smaller but still favorable 34% abatement. Following
239 UF trials, samples A, B and E closely approached the current sewage discharge consent COD
240 limit at 1000 mg/l. We have attributed this to the substantial removal of solids after UF, including
241 some oxidizable, as shown in the EDS and XRD analyses. Further research is necessary establish its
242 fundamental mechanism.

243 Following UF, the samples appearance was clean and transparent. Due to the level of filtration
244 used, all particles larger than 1.2 µm were removed. Therefore the TSS for all samples after UF
245 was of 0 mg/l, within limits set for sewage discharge consent. This was expected. The results
246 were considered an experimental validation of compliance.

247 A similar treatment strategy was followed by Juang et.al [15] . Polishing effluents from the
248 semiconductor industry in Taiwan were treated by filtration first (1 μm), followed by UF (40nm).
249 Further reverse osmosis allowed the water permeate to meet tap industrial water reuse
250 standards. For photovoltaic effluents, Drouiche et al. [6] demonstrated feasibility of UF
251 preceded by chemical pretreatment for the regeneration of cutting fluids.

252 Laboratory trials have confirmed UF to be an effective method for treatment of IR effluent,
253 including samples found to have an oily phase (samples C, D and F). Permeation flux decline
254 caused by fouling and concentration-polarization effects of oils [24-26] and antifoams agents
255 [27] in metal working fluids have been previously reported. Clearly, these effects need to be
256 specifically investigated for IR effluents prior to widespread application of UF processes.

257 **3.4 Coagulation/Flocculation**

258 Prior to coagulation/flocculation, titration experiments were conducted to investigate the
259 relation between the amount of coagulant solution (ferric $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$) and the resulting zeta
260 potential of sample F. Figure 7 shows the titration curve obtained. Zeta potential (mV) was
261 plotted in relation to the volume of $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ solution (μl) used. It was observed that when the
262 coagulant solution volume exceeded 14 μl , larger positive Z potentials of over 10 mV were
263 obtained. Conversely, when less than 4 μl were used the Zeta potential was largely negative and
264 approached those of the initial sample measurements. Based on the observed behavior, a multi-
265 jar test was conducted. Four beakers were used with varying amounts of coagulant
266 corresponding to Z potentials of -10, -5, 0 and 5 mV. SetSol, TSS and COD were re-measured
267 after coagulation/flocculation. The jar test results are shown in table 6. As seen, when a Zeta

268 potential of +5mV was achieved, resulted in the highest SetSol, the lowest TSS and COD. This
269 was close to the optimum range of the Zeta potential previously observed between -11 and +3
270 mV using this coagulant for raw water [28] . Also, at +5 mV, the SetSol value improved from the
271 initial 0 to 367 ml/l, with a large amount of particles settling and the sample losing its
272 turbidness. The initial TSS value of sample F was already below legal discharge consent as
273 received (153mg/l), however, this was further reduced to 51 mg/l. In total, the COD was
274 reduced up to 68%, from 6645 to 1980 mg/l. A very similar reduction was previously obtained
275 using ultrafiltration, as shown in figure 6.

276 **3.5 Discussion summary**

277 When compared, ultrafiltration and coagulation/flocculation, they both exhibit great potential
278 for treatment of polishing effluents from the IR industry. COD improvement was virtually the
279 same. Ultrafiltration achieved a further TSS reduction, virtually of 0 mg/l as opposed to the low
280 51 mg/l obtained with coagulation/flocculation. Nonetheless, this value is well under current
281 discharge consent at 500 mg/l.

282 Although the COD abatement was substantial, sewage discharge consent level was not achieved
283 by either of the techniques used during this initial work. Further studies should be conducted to
284 optimize both ultrafiltration and coagulation/flocculation parameters. For example, COD
285 improvement can be potentially achieved by further particle removal via reverse osmosis, as
286 previously demonstrated by Juang et. al [15]; or chemical pretreatment as demonstrated by
287 Drouiche et al. [6]. Small scale dilution can also be applied as a simple procedure for samples A,
288 B and E, since their UF COD was very close to the sewage disposal consent. COD of these will be

289 proportionally reduced to the water volume used for dilution. Evidently the main disadvantage
290 of this is the increase of the volume rate to discharge into the sewer. Nonetheless, The COD and
291 TSS improvements obtained using both UF and coagulation may potentially bring substantial
292 benefits to the environment while leading to cost effective polishing effluent disposal too.
293 Currently, disposal of these IR polishing effluents is mostly subcontracted and largely relies on
294 techniques such as high volume dilution.

295 IR optics manufacture involves a number of abrasive polishing processes and a range of
296 substrate materials. It has been found that these produce a range of effluents having different
297 composition, physical and chemical properties. As a result, characterization and disposal of the
298 IR effluents cannot be simply generalized.

299 Significant COD abatement has been achieved by the use of both ultrafiltration and
300 coagulation/flocculation. In terms of plant operational costs, ultrafiltration appears to incur the
301 highest costs compared with the simple tank process of electrocoagulation/flocculation. These
302 costs are associated with the supply of pressurized fluids, fouling, membrane replacement, etc.

303 [29]

304 It is clear from the present study that after use of UF and coagulation/flocculation there is no
305 need for large scale dilution, with reduction in the potential costs incurred and the volume of
306 effluents to be disposed.

307 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

308 1. Particle distribution in optical IR polishing effluents is made of a large number of particles
309 both in the micro and nano range. Measurements performed showed the particles size

310 ranged from a maximum of approximately 480 μm down to a few nm. The particle size
311 distribution was influenced by the polishing process removal rate in which the slurries were
312 used. Higher removal processes yielded larger particle sizes and vice versa.

313 2. The chemical composition of Optical IR polishing effluents is primarily dominated by the
314 polished substrate. Carbon and oxygen presence was also significant in the analyses. In
315 some of effluents, GeO_2 abrasive nano-crystals were found. Antifoam agents and other
316 polishing slurry additives used in some of the effluents produce residual oils. These had a
317 detrimental effect on their COD.

318 3. All samples as collected had high COD values that far exceed the local sewage disposal
319 consent. The effluent Z potential was highly negative for most samples. This influenced the
320 low settleable solids and the high turbidity observed.

321 4. Ultra-filtration is a powerful process for COD abatement in polishing slurries. For all
322 polishing slurries investigated, the COD was substantially reduced. Turbidity in post
323 ultrafiltration effluents was removed.

324 5. Coagulation/flocculation was demonstrated to be an effective process for COD reduction
325 and is comparable with ultra-filtration.

326 6. TSS were reduced to zero by the use of ultrafiltration. All particles larger than 1.2 μm were
327 filtered out.

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407 **table legends:**

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409 **Table 1- Polishing effluent samples: Visual assessment at collection, process origin and abrasive type used**

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411 **Table 2- Particle size distribution by sample/process**

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413 **Table 3- COD, TSS, SetSol and Zeta potential results summary**

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415 **Table 4- sample F results after coagulation**

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429 **Figure legends:**

430 **Figure 1- Particle size distribution obtained using Malvern Mastersizer, sample F**

431 **Figure 2-Submicron particle size distribution, sample E**

432 **Figure 3-SEM image for sample D showing effluent particulates**

433 **Figure 4- Summary of elements found by sample**

434 **Figure 5- GeO₂ nano-crystals found in sample A after evaporation**

435 **Figure 6- COD results by sample before and after ultra-filtration and coagulation/flocculation**

436 **Figure 7- Titration curve for sample F**

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Analysis of infrared optical polishing effluents and reduction of COD and TSS levels by ultrafiltration and coagulation/flocculation

Durazo-Cardenas, Isidro

Taylor & Francis

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