

QATAR UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

EFFECT OF PHENOL AS A CONTAMINANT ON THE WILD PEARL OYSTER

PINCTADA IMBRICATA RADIATA IN QATAR: ECOTOXICOLOGICAL

APPROACH AND USE OF OYSTER SHELL STRUCTURE AS A POTENTIAL

MITIGATION TOOL FOR PHENOLS REMOVAL FROM WATER

BY

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ABSTRACT

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Title: Effect of Phenol as a Contaminant on the Wild Pearl Oyster *Pinctada Imbricata Radiata* in Qatar: Ecotoxicological Approach and Use of Oyster Shell Structure as a Potential Mitigation Tool for Phenols Removal From Water.

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Phenol removal is a vital environmental concern due to its toxicity and hazard effects. The current study investigates the removal of phenol by Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* for the first time in this region.

The first objective of this study was to investigate the ecotoxicity of Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* for different concentrations of phenol by measuring the activity of some biomarkers of oxidative stress such as Catalase (CAT) and Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) activities. The biometric analysis of the maintained *Pinctada imbricata radiata* showed that the dominated size class was (4.5 cm -5.5 cm) in length representing 70% of the population. Furthermore, the biometric relations (length, width, and height versus weight) between size classes of *Pinctada imbricata radiata* showed negative allometric growth. The total proteins values decreased over time during the 96h acute toxicity experiment with no significant differences ($p > 0.001$). CAT and SOD enzymatic activities for both gills and digestive glands showed an increase in values compared to the control organisms with significant differences ($p < 0.001$). These results indicated that Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* is an excellent bioindicator of phenol pollution and should be used for other pollutants indicator and in marine environmental pollution monitoring programs.

The second objective was to use silver-impregnated oyster shell nanoparticles

(OSNP-S) as a novel technique for the detoxification of phenol from water. Pearl oyster shell nanoparticles (OSNP) were prepared by a simple ball-milling process and impregnated with silver. A batch adsorption study was conducted at different pH values, temperatures, and initial phenol concentrations. The physical and chemical characterization of both OSNP and OSNP-S were determined with Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometer (FTIR). The surface area, pore radius, and pore volume were measured with Brunauer, Emmett, & Teller (BET) and Transmission electron microscope (TEM). Batch adsorption isotherms (Langmuir isotherm, Freundlich isotherm, Temkin isotherm, and Dubinin-Radushkevich isotherm models) were used. The results indicated that BET surface area, Langmuir surface area and pore volume of the OSNP were the highest comparing to OSNP-S. However, OSNP-S had the highest average pore volume (145.4 Å³). The results of the batch analysis that was conducted at pH 6 were in favor of OSNP in terms of adsorbing the highest amount of phenol removal (36.98%). Whereas, at pH 10, the removal result was in favor of OSNP-S (25.89%). The highest phenol removal occurred at room temperature (25° C) at both pH conditions. The highest phenol removal of real olive wastewater was at pH 10 and room temperature by OSNP-S (56.78%). Based on the adsorption isotherm model, the adsorption capacity decreased by temperature and the coefficient of determination R^2 of the Freundlich adsorption isotherm model showed the best equilibrium data for phenol adsorption with the physical interaction adsorption process. R^2 at both pH 6 and pH 10 ranged from (0.9318- 0.9954). The Gibbs free energy ΔG° was in negative sign, indicating that the adsorption process was thermodynamically feasible, spontaneous, and chemically controlled at all temperatures and both pH 6 and pH 10. The thermodynamic parameters of OSNP-S, positive ΔH° , and negative ΔS° at pH 6 showed that the adsorption process was endothermic with the

decrease in the process randomness and the reduced confusion at solid-solution interface. Nevertheless, this was in reverse at pH 10. The phenol desorption was 97.44% and 98.64% by reacting 0.1 M NaOH and 0.1 M HCl respectively.

DEDICATION

*This thesis is dedicated to my beloved family, my friends and to those who inspired,
encouraged and supported me to catch up the world-building process.*

May Allah bless them all.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1.Introduction

Recently the scarcity and purity issues of water increased due to the huge and rapid population and economic growth. Water covers more than 71% of the world, however, only 1% of water is drinkable. The rest suffer from different types of contaminations caused by anthropogenic activities (human activities and industrialization). The main contaminations are heavy and toxic metals, organic compounds, and microorganisms, which even in trace amounts cause many environmental and health problems (Singh et al., 2018).

Phenol is a simple aromatic compound that is considered one of the primary organic pollutants found in industrial wastewater. Phenol is found in the discharged wastewater and sewage sludge of several industries such as petroleum refining, coal gasification, steel and perfume production, agriculture by-products, and pharmaceutical manufacture. Many chemical spills introduce different organic pollutants such as phenol in the ocean and aquatic environment resulting in severe problems to both ecological and human health due to its toxicity and hazard effects even at minute concentrations (Subhanet al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2011; Gong et al., 2016). Phenol's toxicity levels are generally in the range of 9 mg/L –25 mg/L for humans and aquatic life (Villegas et al., 2016; Kulkarni, 2013). The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) determined the toxicity of phenol to saltwater aquatic life at the concentrations lower than 5,800 µg/L for sensitive species and 3.5 mg/L for human (EPA, 1980). Acute exposure to phenol can cause different health problems such as gastrointestinal discomfort and diarrhea, skin irritation, excretion of dark urine, and headaches. It is also toxic to the heart, kidneys, liver, and nervous system. Furthermore, daily exposure to Phenol affects pregnant women's health and fetal growth

(Messerlianet al., 2018; Jamal et al., 2020). Phenol is also toxic for fishes and plants (Kulkarni et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2011).

Till now different processes and methods have been used for phenol removal, degradation, and treating. Various physical, chemical, and biological processes and techniques have been developed to reach the desired sustainable goals which are cost efficiency, simplicity, and environmental friendly (Gong et al., 2016; Shaban et al., 2013; Hoyos-hernandez et al., 2014). Many conventional processes and techniques have been used for the phenol removal from the discharged wastewater such as precipitation, flocculation, adsorption, reverse osmosis, combustion, and chemical oxidation along with the biological degradation methods. However, these methods face several limitations and boundaries regarding cost, effectiveness, and competence (Subhan et al., 2018). Hence, finding an appropriate sustainable method and technique to solve these limitations is vital. Physicochemical processes have been used to treat phenolic wastewater by using ozone, Ultra Violet (UV), and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). However, these processes are much more costly and not helpful in treating large volumes of wastewater, besides its harmful to the environment. On the other hand, the biodegradation of phenol is much cheaper and environmentally friendly though it is limited by the salinity of the industrial wastewater. Phenol co-exists with inorganic salts in industrial wastewater (Li et al., 2019). Among these methods and processes of phenol removal, adsorption is the most efficient (Popoola, 2019) due to the ease of operation and cost-effectiveness (Kim, Sing, & Smith, 2020). In addition, several studies resulted in the efficiency of adsorption processes for different concentrations of phenol in aqueous solutions. Hence, different natural and synthetic materials have been used as adsorbents of phenol (Hadi et al., 2016). Oyster shells can be reused as a source of biogenic calcium carbonate to treat industrial wastewater and purify it from toxic

compounds such as Phenol (Wu et al, 2014)

Oysters are typical saltwater bivalve mollusks that live in marine aquatic environments and they commercially used all around the world. Oysters are hermaphrodites and can change their sex through their different life stages. Oysters are vital for the marine ecosystem, they filter out pollutants from the water and easily adapt to new environments. Hence, they are considered a good model species to use for testing the phenolic toxicity impact on invertebrates (Luo et al., 2017; Caplat et al., 2016). Oysters are filter-feeding animals that can cope the harsh and changeable environmental conditions. Oysters can handle both biotic and abiotic pressures and stresses by forming a complex immune system with notable discriminatory properties, which can fight different pathogens and stresses (Wang et al., 2018). Oysters accumulate high concentrations of toxins and have the ability to tolerate the sub-lethal impacts of these toxins. However, they are considered vectors that transfer these toxins to humans through consumption. Vectored toxins from contaminated oysters can cause different diseases such as diarrhetic poisoning, amnesic poisoning, paralytic poisoning and neurotoxic poisoning (Farabegoli et al., 2018; Robledo et al., 2019).

Bivalves filter-feeders such as *Pinctada imbricata radiata* are commercially and ecologically important sentinel species and are used as models in ecotoxicology. Their filtering capacities make them bioindicators of marine pollution and contamination (Khan et al., 2019). Different biological processes in the species bodies result in redox reactions. Biological redox reactions generate potentially harmful reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as peroxide and free radicals. Exposure to toxicants can cause inequity in the concentration of ROS, leading to many oxidative stresses in the tissues which could lead to many diseases; such as cancer, atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, respiratory system (lung) diseases, chronic inflammatory and

diabetic Mellitus (Lowe, 2014). In general, biomarkers of oxidative stress are categorized by (1) molecules that undergo modification when interacted with ROS in micro-environments and by (2) molecules of the antioxidant system that change due to the increase in redox stress (Ho et al., 2013). Oxidative stress is the main cause of many diseases. Several methods are developed to identify the quantity and nature of oxidative stress of diseases in DNA, proteins, lipids, carbohydrates and amino acids (Frijhoff et al., 2015). The most favorable biomarker analysis is the one correlated with the pathophysiological process of the diseases (Ho et al., 2013). Oxidative stress markers are catalase (CAT), glutamine S-transferase (GST), superoxide dismutase (SOD), peroxidation (LPO), and immunotoxic effects (R. Cao et al., 2018). Oxidative stress in marine bivalve species is influenced by seasonal and environmental conditions. The enzymes play a vital role in protecting the marine bivalve species against the ROS produced during exposure to environmental toxicants or abiotic factors (Concetta et al., 2020).

1.2.Objectives

Qatar and its neighbors the Arabian Gulf countries suffer from scarcity of pure drinkable water due to the topography and geological characteristics of the land along with the lack of precipitation (Babiker et al., 2019). Statistical studies indicated significant downward trends in the level of precipitation. This negative trend could continue for the upcoming years due to climate change (Mamoon & Rahman, 2015). The huge industrialization and population growth for the past few years along with the poor water management led to more water calamities, therefore more desalination has been constructed (Ahmad & Al-ghouti, 2020)Al-Ghouti et al, 2017). However, the critical need and demand for other sources of pure water other than desalination of seawater resulted in applying new advanced technologies for improving the reuse of

the treated wastewater effluents in agriculture and industrial sectors (Jasim et al., 2016).

The objectives of this work are as follows:

- 1) To characterize the Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* biometry, population size-classes distribution and determine the length-weight relationships in the summer season.
- 2) To investigate phenol ecotoxicity through biomarker analysis and oxidative stress measurements in gills and digestive gland of *Pinctada imbricata radiata* under different Phenol concentrations, namely (0, 1, 2, 5, 10) mg/L.
- 3) To use oyster shell nanoparticles (OSNP) toward developing the most efficient way of phenol removal from water in a way to reduce the negative environmental impacts and to add valorization to waste material.
- 4) To impregnate OSNP with silver in terms of using it as a novel technique for detoxification of phenol from water. Furthermore, to find the optimal conditions for phenol removal by OSNP and OSNP-S by investigating the different physicochemical conditions of Phenol such as initial concentration, pH, and temperature.

To achieve these objectives, several specific objectives were carried out:

- a) Sampling and laboratory maintenance of the oyster population from Qatar marine environment.
- b) Investigating the ecotoxicity and monitoring the variation intake of phenol by oyster shells.
- c) Studying the batch adsorption isotherms for the uptake of phenol onto OSNP and OSNP-S under the effect of different conditions such as the initial phenol concentration, pH, and temperature.

- d) Studying the physical and chemical characterization of OSNP and OSNP-S by using a scanning electron microscope (SEM) and Fourier-transform infrared spectrophotometer (FTIR) to determine the morphology and the functional groups of the adsorbents before and after adsorption. The size and shape of the nanoparticles were analyzed by using a transmission electron microscope (TEM) and Brunauer, Emmett, and Teller (BET). The pH of the solutions was examined. The UV–VIS spectroscopic studies were carried out by using a UV–VIS spectrometer to determine the concentration of the phenol.
- e) Applying different isotherm models (Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin, and Dubinin-Radushkevich) to understand the interactions between the adsorbate and adsorbent.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Aquatic Marine Ecotoxicology

Aquatic ecotoxicology is considered a multidisciplinary field, which assimilates toxicology, aquatic ecology, and aquatic chemistry (Rand & Petrocelli, 1985). Aquatic ecotoxicology is the study of the effect of different natural and anthropogenic chemicals and activities on aquatic organisms, populations, and ecosystems (Wells, 2020). Furthermore, the increase in the improvement of this knowledge was through establishing new methods in monitoring and measuring the potential hazards and risks associated with human exposure to contaminated aquatic environments and organisms (Jones, 2009). Anthropogenic chemicals and activities pollute the aquatic system with water sewage, metals, pharmaceutical drugs, and pesticides. which cause abiotic and biotic deterioration (Lomartire, 2021). Most organisms that live in aquatic environments are exposed to constant waterborne pollutants, which resulted in a high risk of absorption, bioaccumulation, and toxicity (Chen, 2020). The aquatic marine is considered a dumpster for industrial and domestic wastes. Since the beginning of the 20th century, the dead zones in the oceans have increased fourfold due to pollution and climate change. Human activities are the source of 80% of marine pollutants (Lloyd-smith, 2018).

2.2. Types of Marine Toxicants

Toxicants are chemical contaminants with the potential to exert toxicity to the marine environment at certain concentrations. Toxicants are classified as directly toxic to biota or indirectly toxic which could cause changes in the biological diversity and the usefulness of the marine ecosystem to humans (Water & Management, 2000). Many marine toxicants at low concentrations (trace amounts) are considered essential and beneficial for many organisms, populations, and communities of the marine ecosystem.

However, we are just becoming aware of the types and capacity of these toxicants and their harmful effects on the marine ecosystem and human health (Lloyd-smith, 2018). In low concentrations, some elements such as copper, zinc, phosphorus, and nitrogen are essential for functioning the biota (Water & Management, 2000). To understand the effect of the different contaminant types on aquatic organisms and human health, many considerable efforts by researchers have been done (Wells, 2020). The main types of toxicants are:

- Emerging Contaminants
- Microplastics
- Heavy/Toxic Metals
- Organic Pollutants
- Crude Oil Spills

2.2.1. *Emerging Contaminants*

Emerging contaminants are defined as “*naturally occurring, manufactured or manmade chemicals or materials which have now been discovered or are suspected [to be] present in various environmental compartments and whose toxicity or persistence is likely to significantly alter the metabolism of a living being*” (Sauvé & Desrosiers, 2014). Emerging contaminants are new aquatic pollutants that are recently considered harmful to environmental and human health. Emerging contaminants are still not regulated by environmental laws (Baldwin et al., 2020). Hundred thousands of chemicals that are used commercially enter the aquatic marine ecosystem through the atmosphere, water run-off, and direct disposal. Industrial waste releases tons of hazardous wastes into the environment which eventually go to the marine system (Lloyd-smith, 2018). A wide amount of emerging organic toxicants such as aromatic hydrocarbons, pesticides, pharmaceuticals, and personal products are released into the

marine ecosystem (Lomartire, 2021). Many anthropogenic substances are considered emerging contaminants due to their impact on the environment being ambiguous (Munari et al., 2019). The release of uncontrolled novel pollutants (emerging pollutants) rise an environmental concern (Rathi et al., 2020).

2.2.2. Microplastics

Plastic production globally increased from 1.5 million tons since the 1950s to 335 million tons in 2016. Plastics' massive production resulted in the accumulation of plastic remains in the environment and toxic impacts on biota (Gideon & Faggio, 2019). Plastic waste is entering the aquatic marine environment daily. Plastics undergo weathering and degradation in the marine by breaking down into smaller and smaller pieces and help in removing other toxicants from the seawater by adsorption on their surface (Lloyd-smith, 2018). During the weathering and degradation process, many organic chemicals and toxicants are released, such as polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), dichloro-diphenyl-trichloromethane (DDTs), alkylphenols, and bisphenol A. These hazardous toxicants beside the plastic debris pose ecotoxicological and toxicological risks respectively to the marine ecosystem and human health (Gideon & Faggio, 2019). Microplastics are any plastic that is less than 5 mm. However, plastics of less than 1 μm have been reported and they are easily eaten by zooplankton and transferred through the whole trophic web (Robledo et al., 2019). Many types of research resulted that the presence of plastics and microplastics in the marine environment are eaten mistakenly as food by many species and furthermore, toxicants attached to the microplastics are transferred to other organisms (Baldwin et al., 2020).

2.2.3. Heavy/Toxic Metals

Heavy metals are inorganic toxicants affecting the aquatic ecosystem and humans even in trace quantities. Arsenic, aluminum, cadmium, copper, chromium, lead, iron, zinc, mercury, and nickel are the most concern for aquaculture. Heavy metal is most toxic in its free (hydrated and dissolved) metal ions form in an aquatic ecosystem (Water & Management, 2000). Heavy metals are much concerned due to their toxicity, persistence, non-degradability, and posing potential risks to the environment and human health. Mine tailing (waste leftovers of mineral extraction from rock) is the main source of heavy metals (Häder et al., 2020). Seafood consumption (e.g. fish and shellfish) is the main source of toxicity with heavy metals with the level of concentrations that pose risk to human health (Lloyd-smith, 2018).

2.2.4. Organic Pollutants

Organic pollutants are types of chemicals such as detergents, surfactants, petroleum hydrocarbons, pesticides, polychlorinated biphenyls, and phenolic compounds. Organic pollutants are generated from different human activities such as domestic, agriculture, industrial, and aquaculture activities (Water & Management, 2000). Organic pollutants are toxic compounds that persist in the environment for a long time. Organic pollutants bio-accumulate in different organisms such as aquatic species and can move through the food chains (Lloyd-smith, 2018; Wells, 2020). Many studies reported that different disease developments in humans (cardiovascular, diabetes, and neurodegenerative) could be due to exposure to organic pollutants (Wu et al., 2020).

2.2.5. Crude Oil Spills

Oil spills accidents from tankers, runoffs, boats, and harbors can destroy and harm the marine environment and result in economic losses (Water & Management,

2000; Alameri et al., 2019). Crude oil spills consist of mixtures of thousands of hydrocarbon substances (Alameri et al., 2019; Lloyd-smith, 2018). Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are an important component of crude oil. PAHs accumulate in the marine water and soil for a long time and pose many risks to aquatic organisms (Lloyd-smith, 2018). Researchers have worked on studying seafood contamination with PAHs and their associated human risks for decades. PAHs have been a great environmental concern since they have proto-carcinogenic/ carcinogenic properties (Farrington, 2020). The weathering and degradation processes mainly influence the toxicity of spilled oil on marine organisms. Since weathering processes change the characteristics of the oil components over time (Singh et al., 2020).

2.3. Sources of Marine Toxicants

The main sources of marine pollution are 44% from land via runoffs and wastewater discharges, 33% from the atmosphere via airborne emissions from land, 12% from shipping activities and accidents, 10% from sewage and solid waste dumping, and 1% from offshore mining (Potters, 2013). Demographic expansion along with industrialization especially in coastal areas and river banks increases the anthropogenic pollution generation causing numerous serious environmental problems (El et al., 2018). River networks ease the transport of toxins into the oceans (Lloyd-smith, 2018). Sewage wastewater discharge from industrial, municipal, households are either partially treated or untreated, and they pose many risks to the marine ecosystem. The degree of risks depends on the type of discharged wastewater, the volume, and the predominant hydrographic regime of the sites. Usually freshwater, sediments, nutrients, pathogens, and endocrine disruptors are the main component of sewage discharge (Häder et al., 2020). Mine tailing is the main source of the heavy metals contaminant. Storing the tailing near the coastal areas release metal toxicants contaminant to the

sediments and the marine biota especially in the intertidal zones (Häder et al., 2020). Sediments that are contaminated with heavy metals and hydrophobic organic compounds are hardly remediated (Water & Management, 2000).

2.4. Effect of the Toxicants on the Marine Organisms

Many researchers studied the effect of the anthropogenic toxicants on fertilization in marine spawning invertebrates due to that the early life stages of organisms are much more sensitive to toxicants than the adult organisms. Most of the studies proved that there was a high reduction in fertilization due to the toxicants and this led to high concern of the long-term effects on the population of the spawners (Marshall, 2006). Marine mammals affected by toxicants challenge the reduction in individual viability and reproduction, and population persistence is also threatened. Some toxicants such as PAHs bio-accumulate in the blubber and tissues of mammals with different patterns between males and females due to the vertical toxicant transfer from mother to offspring (Noonburg et al., 2010; Kottuparambil & Agusti, 2020). Chemical toxicants are well known for increasing the susceptibility of marine organisms to infections and diseases (Matranga, 2006). Toxicants negatively affect marine organisms causing birth morbidity and many fatalities. Most toxicants disrupt the nervous system whereas other toxicants affect protein phosphorylation and disrupt synaptic transmission (Tubaro et al, 2012).

2.5. Consumption of Aquatic Foods and Human Health

Seafood is highly consumed by people all around the world and is well known for its nutrients beneficial. However, the consumption of seafood species stuffed with accumulated toxicants could lead to several devastating diseases (Matranga, 2006). Marine toxicants are cooking and freezing resilient and cause intoxications with different effects which are mostly lethal. Several hazards to human health have been

related to shellfish food poisoning such as paralytic effects, amnesic, neurotoxic, and diarrheic (Daguer et al., 2018). Toxicants such as heavy metals and organic compounds accumulate in many aquatic species' bodies such as in bivalve mollusks; hence the World Health Organization (WHO) considers several codes and measurements to protect consumers. The WHO measurements for aquatic species are based on the Acceptable Daily Intake (ADI) or Acceptable Weekly Intake (AWI). The biological contamination is measured by the concentration of contaminant in water (cells/L) or by the level of consumption of the edible tissue (mg/Kg) (Water & Management, 2000).

2.6. Biological Markers (Biomarkers) of Oxidative Stress

The National Institutes of Health defined the term biomarker as “*a characteristic that is objectively measured and evaluated as an indicator of normal biological processes, pathogenic processes, or pharmacological responses to a therapeutic intervention*” (Zhang et al., 2001; Ho et al., 2013). In healthy organisms, different biological processes result in redox reactions that result in generating potential harmful reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as peroxide and free radicals. The ROS is formed and scavenged continuously in cells (Qu et al., 2019). Many studies resulted that living organisms use free radicals, such as the superoxide anion radical ($*O_2$), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), peroxy radicals ($*ROO$), and nitrogen oxide ($*NO$) for the advantage of biological effects. However, some of the leached ROS can result in damaging the cellular components of the organism. ROS accumulation can cause damage to cell structure, lipid, proteins, and nucleic acids and furthermore cause dysfunction of the whole immune system. Many enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants mechanisms work as a protective method in the biological systems against oxidative damage. (Valavanidis et al., 2006). In the oxidative phosphorylation process, the leached electrons either reduce molecular oxygen incompletely to active oxygen or

reduce it completely to water. At the same time, many antioxidant enzymes work to stop these reduction processes, such as catalase (CAT) and glutathione peroxidase (GPx), which neutralize H₂O₂ to water and lipid peroxides to their corresponding alcohols. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) which neutralizes superoxide radicals to (H₂O₂). The glutathione reductase (GR) is used to convert the oxidized glutathione to the reduced glutathione and glutathione-S- transferase (GST) is used for exogenous xenobiotics removal (Bal et al., 2021). Exposure to toxicants can cause inequity in the concentration of ROS, leading to many oxidative stresses in the tissues which could lead to cytotoxicity and genotoxicity and many diseases; such as cancer, atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease, respiratory system (lung) diseases, chronic inflammatory including type 2 diabetes mellitus (Lowe, 2014). In general, biomarkers of oxidative stress are categorized by (1) molecules that undergo modification when interacting with ROS in micro-environments and (2) molecules of the antioxidant system that change due to the increase in redox stress (Ho et al., 2013). Several methods are developed to identify the quantity and nature of oxidative stress of diseases in DNA, proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, and amino acids (Frijhoff et al., 2015). The most favorable biomarker analysis is the one correlated with the pathophysiological process of the diseases (Ho et al., 2013). Oxidative stress markers are catalase (CAT), glutamine-S-transferase (GST), superoxide dismutase (SOD), lipid peroxidation (LPO), and immunotoxin effects (Cao et al., 2018). Oxidative stress in marine bivalve species is influenced by seasonal and environmental conditions. The enzymes play a vital role in protecting the marine bivalve species against the ROS produced during exposure to environmental toxicants or abiotic factors (Concetta et al., 2020).

2.6.1. Superoxide Dismutase (SOD)

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) is an antioxidant enzyme that exists in all

organisms and plays an important and crucial role in protecting the biological systems against leached free radicals. (SOD) acts as a first-line defense system component against reactive oxygen species (ROS). SOD converts radicals such as superoxide radical (*O_2) or singlet oxygen radical ($^1\text{O}_2^-$) that are generated in organs through cells metabolism to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and molecular oxygen. However, accumulated H_2O_2 is toxic to body cells and tissues. SOD requires a metal cofactor for its activity such as iron (Fe), zinc (Zn), copper (Cu), and manganese (Mn). (Ighodaro & Akinloye, 2018).

2.6.2. *Catalase (CAT)*

Catalase (CAT) is an antioxidant enzyme that exists in all aerobic organisms. CAT enzyme converts hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) to water (H_2O) and oxygen (O_2) in terms of reducing the ROS levels and stopping the death of the cells and tissues. In animals, the *CAT* gene controls CAT enzymes (Raza et al., 2021). In enzymology, CAT is one of the highest and fastest turnover numbers and rates of all enzymes. CAT molecules can turn millions of H_2O_2 to water and molecular oxygen (O_2) in one second (Nicholls, 2016). CAT uses Iron (Fe) or manganese (Mn).

2.6.3. *Glutamine-S-Transferase (GST)*

Glutathione transferase (GST) is a protein, which acts as an enzyme and as a binding protein in many detoxication processes. GST is localized in the cytosol and the endoplasmic reticulum (Sandamalika et al., 2019). GST is one of the most important detoxication enzymes. It catalyzes glutathione to electrophilic compounds, which are produced from exogenous xenobiotics through biotransformation and from endogenous substances. (Tsuchida, 1997). GST is induced mostly in the hepatopancreas of shellfish since the hepatopancreas is believed to be a major site of toxins accumulation (Chen et al., 2011).

2.6.4. *Glutathione Peroxidase (GPx)*

As mentioned earlier, the antioxidant defense system in tissues and cells consists of antioxidant enzymes. These enzymes play an essential role in cellular homeostasis maintenance and antioxidant defense by removing the excess ROS from the cells (Jo et al., 2008). GPx is well known for its ability to eliminate H₂O₂, which is generated by the action of the first antioxidant line (Freitaset al., 2020).

2.6.5. *Lipid Peroxidation (LPO)*

Lipid peroxidation (LPO) is the main chemical process in the oxidative stress associated with pathogens (Repetto et al., 2012). LPO is a process where oxidants such as free radicals or nonradical species attack lipids which contain unsaturated carbon-carbon double bonds (e.g. polyunsaturated fatty acids) (Ayala et al., 2014). LPO is a marker for oxidative damage of cell membrane in invertebrates and causes the loss of cell function. LPO is commonly estimated as malondialdehyde levels (MDA) or thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) and is usually used to study the adverse effects of contaminants on the bivalve mollusks (Zanette et al., 2011).

2.7. Ecotoxicology of Oysters

Bivalve mollusks such as oysters have been recently used in many ecotoxicological studies as sensitive bioindicators for aquatic pollutants. Oysters can accumulate pollutants, hence giving scientists a vital bioindicator for phenolic compounds. Variations in pollutant concentrations in bivalves have been related to the bioavailability of pollutant and the biological variables such as sex, weight and reproductive cycle (Valavanidis et al., 2006). Usually oxidative stress occurs due to different seasonal events, nutrients availability, temperature, reproductivity cycle and other environmental factors (Concetta et al., 2020). The digestive glands of oyster are the main organ for toxin accumulation and detoxification (Cao et al., 2018). Hence,

many researchers investigated and measured the physiological and biochemical parameters in this tissue. Oysters have been used in many ecotoxicological studies, in terms of deducing the temporal and spatial contaminations in aquatic environments. They accumulate contaminants through body surfaces and feeding. Hence, they are ideal for ecotoxicological studies (Opiyo et al., 2021).

2.8. Phenol Properties and its Potential for Contamination

2.8.1. Phenol Properties

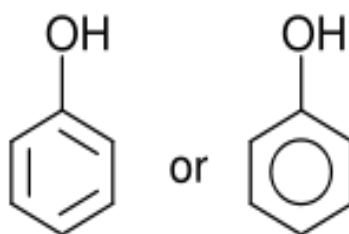


Figure 1: Structure of Phenol.

Phenol (phenic acid or carbolic acid) is a hydroxybenzene compound that is used in many common products such as preservatives, disinfectants, and plasticizers (Meena et al., 2015; Rolland et al., 2020). Natural or anthropogenic phenols are planar organic compounds formed of a six-carbon aromatic (benzene) ring and attached with a hydroxyl group (-O-H) (Stewart et al., 2008). Phenol at normal temperature and pressure is crystalline solid and white when pure. Phenol is highly soluble in ether, ethyl alcohol, hydrocarbons (e.g. benzene), and other polar solvents. However, it is low soluble in water and works as a weak acid. Liquid phenol is corrosive toward plastic, rubber, and coatings. Whereas, hot liquid phenol attack several metals such as lead, aluminum, magnesium, and zinc. Phenol is a combustible compound and is

characterized by a tar-like odor (Busca et al., 2008). The different physicochemical properties are the main cause of the adsorption and extraction difficulties of Phenol. This is mainly occurring at low Phenol concentrations. Many types of sorbents are available but not efficient in Phenol sorption, hence many researchers are working on using and developing new and better materials (Sobiesiak, 2017). Some physical and chemical properties of phenol are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Chemical and Physical Properties of Phenol (“TOXICOLOGICAL PROFILE FOR PHENOL,” 2008)

Property	Information
Molecular weight	94.111
Color	Colorless to light pink
Physical state	Crystalline solid-liquid (w/ 8% H ₂ O)
Melting point	40.89 °C
Boiling point	181.87 °C
Density at 20 °C/4 °C	1.0545 at 45 °C/4 °C
Vapor density	3.24
Odor	Distinct aromatic, somewhat sickening, sweet and acrid odor
Solubility:	
Water at 25 °C	8.28 × 10 ⁴ mg/L
Organic solvent(s)	Soluble in water and ethanol, very soluble in ether, miscible with acetone and benzene
Partition coefficients:	
Log K _{ow}	1.46
Log K _{oc}	1.21-1.96
Vapor pressure at 25 °C	0.35 mmHg
Henry's law constant	3.0 × 10 ⁷ atm m ³ mol
Autoignition temperature	715 °C
Flashpoint, open cup	85 °C
Flashpoint, closed cup	79 °C
Flammability limits (in air by %v)	1.7-8.6 %

atm= atmosphere; v= volume; w= weight

2.8.2. Phenol Potential for Contamination

Phenol along with its derivatives from anthropogenic activities poses negative impacts to human and aquatic ecosystem health. Since phenol (phenylic acid, carboic acid, and phenic acid) and its derivatives such as nitrophenol, chlorophenol, and bisphenol A are widely used in several industrial sectors (petrochemicals, pharmaceuticals, plastics, steel manufacturing, and food processing) and due to its toxic nature, many reports and studies have addressed the environmental importance of the phenolic pollution (Raza et al., 2019). Many epidemiological studies concluded that the concentration of phenolic compounds is higher in women than men due to the high consumption of cosmetics and care products (Jamal et al., 2020). Hence the toxicity of phenol is mostly concerned due to its significant effects on pregnant women and fetuses (Chao et al., 2020). Phenol is a priority pollutant by US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) because it is toxic, carcinogenic, and mutagenic (Agostini et al., 2011). Phenols pose many genotoxic effects to animals and humans such as neurotoxicity, respiratory effects, liver and kidney malfunction and growth retardation. Phenol accumulate in aquatic organisms and transport through the food chain (Agostini et al., 2011).

2.9. Presence of Phenol in Aquatic Environments

Phenol as mentioned earlier is toxic, carcinogenic, and mutagenic. Continuing exposure to phenol affects the central nervous system and damages the lungs and the kidneys. Hence, phenol is classified as class 2 water hazardous pollutants in many countries (Iurascu et al., 2009). Since the concentration of 1 mg/L or above affects the aquatic ecosystem and may result in affecting human health, the release of phenol in the aquatic environment through wastewater discharges is globally restrictive. And the limit of phenolic effluent discharge is limited to less than 0.5 mg/L (Agostini et al.,

2011). The World Health Organization (WHO) reports stated that the total phenol content of water to be chlorinated should not exceed 0.001 mg/L (WHO, 2011). Guidelines for chemical compounds in water that contaminate the fish flesh and other aquatic organisms estimated the phenol threshold level in water by 1.0–10.0 mg/L. Table 2 shows levels of toxicity that affect and cause mortality of some aquatic species. Reports indicate the presence of phenol in aquatic organisms resulting in the food chain bioaccumulation (Water & Management, 2000).

Table 2: Test End-Points Reported in the Literature for Aquatic Organisms Exposed to Phenol.

Species group	-Common name -Scientific name	-Effect -Test endpoint	Toxic concentrations (mg/L)	References
Fish	-Hooknose -Agonus cataphractus	Mortality 96 h *LC50	10	(Franklin, 1980)
	-Minnow -Phoxinus phoxinus	Mortality 96 h LC50	9.5	(Oksama & Kristoffersson, 1979)
	-Mozambique tilapia -Oreochromis mossambicus	Mortality 96 h LC50	19	(Burbank, 1970)
	-European flounder -Platichthys flesus	Mortality 96 h LC50	20.94	(Smith, Furay, Layiwola, & Filho, 1994)
Crustaceans	-Sand Shrimp -Crangon crangon	Mortality 48 h LC50	10-33	(Franklin, 1980)
	-Scud -Gammarus duebeni	Mortality 96 h LC50	89.5-183.2	(Oksama & Kristoffersson, 1979)
	Mollusks	-Marine bivalve -Katelaysia opima	Mortality 48 h LC50 96 h LC50	128 117

*LC: Lethal concentration 50

2.9.1. Sources

Phenol is mostly generated from the distillation of fossil fuels and the degradation of pesticides (Water & Management, 2000). Phenol genotoxic effects are frequently observed in areas of the petroleum industry (Agostini et al., 2011). The main natural sources of phenol in the aquatic marine ecosystem are animal wastes and organic wastes from anthropogenic activities, mostly wastewater from manufacturing industries such as plastic, adhesives, resins, rubber,...etc. and wastewater discharges from synthetic fuel industries (“TOXICOLOGICAL PROFILE FOR PHENOL,” 2008).

2.9.2. Phenol as Potential Contaminant of Marine Oyster

Oysters as part of the bivalves’ family accumulate toxicants in their tissues. Hence, they are considered dependable references for marine toxicant concentration and used in environmental risk assessment (Acosta et al., 2015). Oysters are exposed to several organic toxicants from different chemical families. Some of these toxicants are regulated and have been found at far lower concentrations than the regulatory thresholds. However, there is a lack of data for some other organic toxicants from several sources such as toluene, xylene, ethylbenzene, and phenols from offshore oil industries, accidental spills, water process, mine tailing process, and illegal discharges (Amiard et al., 2011).

2.10. Phenol Removal Technologies

The technologies used for phenol removal from industrial wastewater are classified as conventional and advanced techniques. Steam distillation, adsorption, liquid-liquid extraction, solid-phase extraction, biodegradation, wet air oxidation, and catalytic wet air oxidation are the conventional techniques used for phenol removal. Whereas, electrochemical oxidation, membrane processes, photo-oxidation, Fenton

reaction, ozonation, UV/H₂O₂, and enzymatic treatments are advanced technologies used for phenol removal (Villegas et al., 2016). The advantages and disadvantages of some of these technologies are listed in Table 3.

Table 3: Advantages and Disadvantages of Some Phenol Removal Technologies.

Removal Technologies	Advantages	Disadvantages	References
Distillation	High enthalpy High activity Economical Ecofriendly	High energy demand	(Villegas et al., 2016)
Adsorption	Simple Wide range of adsorbents High removal efficiency	High cost for *AC adsorbent Low adsorptive capacity for AC alternatives	(Kulkarni, 2013) (Le et al., 2020) (Khraisheh et al., 2020)
Solvent extraction	Simple technique	High Cost Hazardous by-products High solvent consumption	(Shaban et al., 2013) (Gharaati, 2019)
Membrane separation	Reliable Economically feasible Low Energy demand High quality effluent	Membrane fouling	(Villegas et al., 2016)
Reverse Osmosis	Low energy demand High packing density Low thermal damage	Pressure fluctuation Clogging	(Mujtaba, 2017) (Anwar et al., 2021)
Enzymatic methods	High efficiency Low cost	Non- reusability Instability in harsh conditions	(N. Singh & Singh, 2007)

*AC: Activated carbon

2.10.1. Adsorption Technology

Adsorption is considered a surface phenomenon and is also known as adsorbent-adsorbate interaction. Amongst numerous water purification and recycling technologies, adsorption is considered the fastest, cheapest, and most common method.

Inexpensive adsorbents are available in nature and they can be used for the removal of pollutants with a removal efficiency of 90–99% (Ali & Gupta, 2006). Adsorption can be applied for water purification and many industrial purposes. In the adsorption process interaction of pollutant (adsorbate) by adhering to the solid surface (adsorbent) occurs. This interaction is affected by many parameters such as temperature, nature of adsorbate and adsorbent, pH, size of the particle, and many other experimental conditions (Dotto & Mckay, 2020).

2.10.2. Adsorbents

Adsorbents are the key elements of the adsorption process. Choosing, developing, and characterization of the adsorbent control the adsorption process. Hence, it is vital to find the most suitable adsorbent with specific criteria such as (low cost and availability, chemical and mechanical stability, good textural and physicochemical characteristics, high adsorption capacity, high efficiency, fast kinetics, and potential for regeneration and reuse) (Dotto & Mckay, 2020). Table 4 summarizes some adsorbents used in phenol removal with their % Removal.

Table 4: Comparative Adsorption % Removal of Phenol by Different Adsorbents.

Adsorbent	Substrate	% Removal	Reference
Biochar (Pin wood)	α -FeOOH	100	(Zhao et al., 2022)
Silica nano particles (from rice straw)	Peroxidase (from rice straw)	99.92	(Naguib & Badawy, 2020)
Clay mineral (Kaolinite)	Sphingomonas sp. GY2B	96	(Gong et al., 2016)
Clay (Diatomit)	Aluminum chloride/ Cationic surfactants	99	(Musleh et al., 2014)
Natural phosphate ore (hydroxyapatite)	Aluminum oxide	-	(Bouiahya et al., 2019)
Activated Carbon	Iron	98	(Majid et al., 2019)
Pumice (raw)	-	89.14	(Heydari & Karimyan, 2018)
Pumice (Activated)	Manganese	100	(Heydari & Karimyan, 2018)
Nano-zeolite	Iron	82.5	(Le et al., 2020)
Calcium carbonate	Catechol	70	(Shan et al., 2007)
Calcium carbonate (Pearl oyster shell)	-	36.98	Current study
Calcium carbonate (Pearl oyster shell)	Silver	25.89	Current study

2.11. Nanotechnology

According to the definition of the “National Nanotechnology Initiative”, the term nanotechnology can be applied for any maneuvering of materials possessing at least one dimension sized 1 to 100 nm (Ganji & Kachapi, 2015). Therefore, all sorts of studies that deal with the properties of matter below the stated size are described as nanotechnology. Dealing with such a tiny size, (approaching the molecular scale), enhances the ability to manufacture highly functioning products from the bottom up by using new techniques and tools. Nanotechnology is a revolutionizing and interesting technology with great benefits to human beings (Cruz et al., 2020). The scale of nanotechnology covers several science fields such as organic chemistry, physics, medical diagnostic, molecular engineering, molecular electronics, surface science...etc.

These days, nanotechnology dominated plentiful sectors such as food, medicine, electronics, solar and fuel cells, chemical sensors, sporting products ...etc. (Dutta & Das, 2020)

2.11.1. Nanomaterials (nanoparticles, NPs)

Nanoparticles, and as per the previous definition are materials that have one of the dimensions being less than 100 nm (Ganji & Kachapi, 2015) (Subramani et al., 2019). Nanomaterials with these nanoscale dimensions, thus, have specific properties (e.g. photoemission, optical, catalytic activity, and antimicrobial activities). These properties have the capability of improving characteristics such as permeability, hydrophilicity, selectivity and mechanical properties. This issue, in turn, would expand the potential applications of NPs in many fields, like biomedical purposes, electronics, communications, and other fields. Nanoparticles made of metal or metal oxides are commonly used for this purpose (Chung et al., 2015). It has been estimated that there will be an increase in global nanomaterials production by half a million tons. These nanomaterials will be developed with specific characteristics and will be used in different applications and sectors (Albuquerque et al., 2020).

2.11.2. Oyster Shell Adsorbent for Phenol Removal From Wastewater

The most important mollusks used commercially are the ones that belong to the classes Bivalvia, Gastropoda, and Cephalopoda (Duncan & Coast, 2003). Edible (true) oysters are the type of oysters that have a central adductor muscle. The adductor muscle is the soft part (flesh) that is eaten with the visceral mass. The outer shell of the oyster is composed of several layers of foliated microstructure and lenses of calcium carbonate (chalk) (Checa et al., 2018). Bivalves such as clams, oysters, mussels, scallops, and cockles are the most known class in the food market. Bivalves' structure consists of paired shell controllers that are joined at a dorsal hinge and a sessile filter-feeding way

of life characterizes them. Bivalves' internal body contains adductor muscles (edible parts) for shell closure (Duncan & Coast, 2003), gills, a visceral mass including the digestive gland, the digestive and circulatory system and the gonads. Biogenic carbonates such as the oyster shell have been known for their advantages over the geological carbonate (Wu et al., 2014). Oyster shells consist of aragonite (natural crystal form of carbonate) which is very tough and strong but very light. Oyster shell composition is also high in magnesium and calcium carbonate phase and easily found since it is produced and consumed in thousands of tons yearly all around the world. An oyster shell can be used in different environmental and industrial applications because they have several geochemical and mineral properties. Oyster shell properties include high reactive surface area, absorbability, and exchange capacity (Wu et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2011). Many research studies applied waste oyster shells to remove different pollutants from wastewater such as dissolved cations: copper (Wu et al., 2014), fluoride (Chang et al., 2019), arsenic (Fan et al., 2015), natural organic matters (humic acids) (Alipour et al., 2014), boron (Tsai et al., 2011), and other anthropogenic pollutants. Although the different methods of oyster shell recycling used in these studies showed great efficiency in wastewater pollutant removal nevertheless, the methods used to generate many spent adsorbents, which are considered secondary pollutants. Hence, more effective methods needed to be investigated for the reusing and recycling of oyster shell waste (Tsai et al., 2011). Oyster shell composed of biogenic calcium carbonates (CaCO_3), which considered a great substituted to geological CaCO_3 as an adsorbent. The main advantage of oyster biogenic CaCO_3 over the geological CaCO_3 is that it does not need mining and exploitation. Oyster shell biogenic carbonate has a twisted open aragonite structure and consists of three layers: the outer cuticle layer, which is composed of cutin and organic matter, the middle prismatic layer that forms the most

of the shell and finally the inner nacreous layer (Figure 2). Both prismatic and nacreous layers are made of >80% of CaCO₃ (Helm & Bourne, 2004; Wu et al., 2014). Oyster Shell is used in many environmental and industrial applications due to its mineralogical and geochemical properties. Oyster shell properties include high absorbability, reactive surface and exchange capacity (Wu et al., 2014).

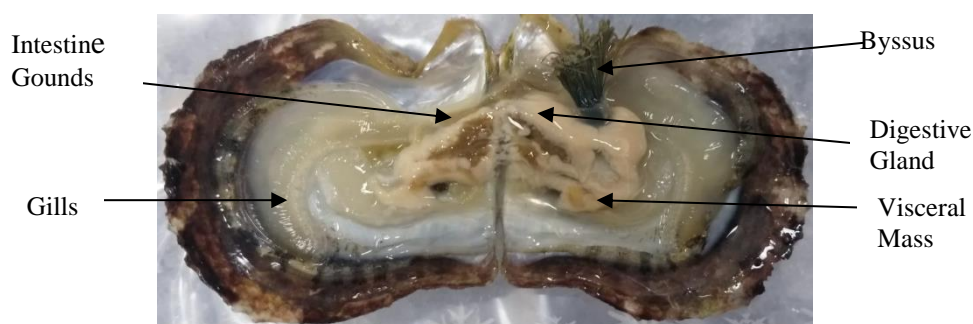


Figure 2: Internal features of shell valve of hard shell

2.11.3. Why Calcium Carbonate/Silver (OSNP-S) is a Nanocomposite?

Silver nanoparticles (Ag NPs) are metallic nanoparticles are considered feasible adsorbents with great chemical and physical characteristics. Ag NPs have high catalytic activity, biocompatibility, and high adsorption capacity, which is due to their high surface area. Ag NPs, can be easily separated and reused (El-tawil et al., 2019). Ag NPs have fascinated extensive researchers due to their countless beneficial applications. Ag NPs are used in surface-enhanced Raman scattering substrates (SERS), optical sensors, catalysts, and biomarkers. Ag NPs could reduce the environmental risks and potential adverse effects of chemical-based methods on the environment (Rahimi et al., 2020). To attain better performance and higher adsorption capacity, different techniques such as fabrication of metal/metal oxides, surface functionalization, and magnetic induction are used to modify adsorbents' surfaces. In this research, Silver ions were used to

modify calcium carbonate (oyster shell) due to the previous reasons and due to it is considered eco-friendly and cost-effective with no need for high pressure, temperature, energy, and toxic chemicals.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Wild Pearl Oyster Sampling Site.

The wild Pearl oyster population investigated in this research was sampled in Al-Wakra oyster- beds in the subtidal zone between 5 and 7 meters depth (Figure 3).

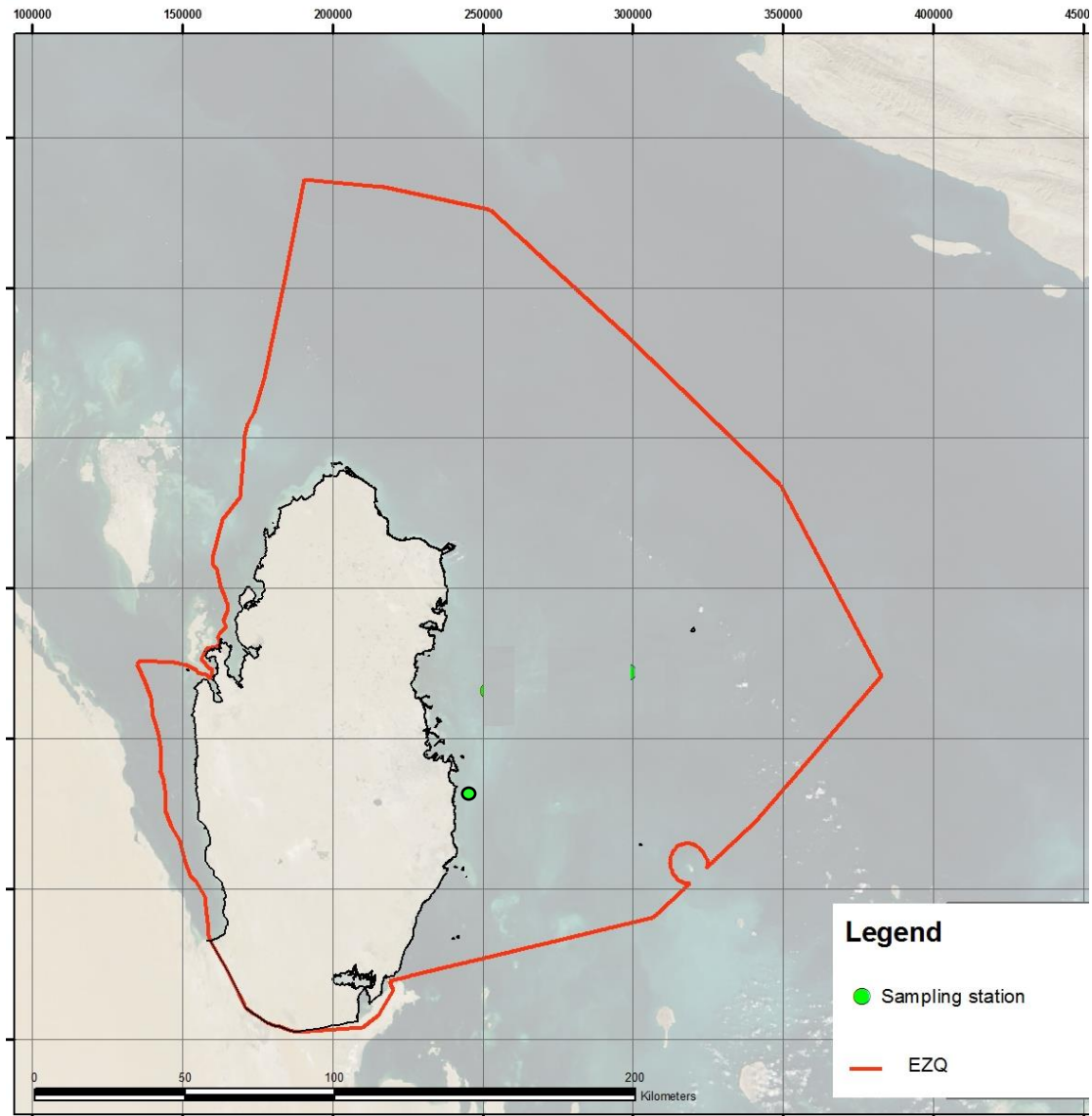


Figure 3: Marine map of Qatar showing the Economic Exclusive Zone (EEZ) and the Pearl oyster sampling site at Al-Wakra.

3.2. Chemicals and Materials

All chemicals were analytical grade and used without further purification. Phenol, silver nitrate (AgNO_3), ethanol and Sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4), sodium phosphate buffer, Triton X-100, and ultra-pure H_2O . Hydrochloric acid (HCl), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) were used for the pH adjustment. For the ecotoxicology part, 15 aerated aquaria with dimensions of 60 × 40 × 30 cm, a digital Vernier caliper for the biometry analysis and ultratorax for homogenizing the tissues with buffer were used.

3.3. Ecotoxicology Part

3.3.1. *Oyster Cultivation and Experimental Design*

Random samples of 300 oysters of the same sizes ranging from 50 and 70mm were transferred to the laboratory after removing the epiphytes attached to them and preparing them for cultivation. The oysters were prepared by adding running seawater for one day until the specimens were adapted to the laboratory conditions. The specimens were used for the phenol toxicity test. The specimen's culture was carried on by randomly placing 15 oysters in 5 individual aquarium tanks in triplicates as shown in the experimental design (Figure 4). Five treatments were used, control (seawater at 40 psu), 1 mg/L, 2 mg/L, 5 mg/L and 10 mg/L phenol. Seawater temperature, salinity, and pH of the tanks were maintained at 24 – 25 °C (sampling temperature), 40 ± 1 psu salinity (Qatar water salinity), and $\text{pH } 8.2 \pm 0.1$ (normal seawater pH). The seawater in the tanks was aerated. Prior to biomarker analysis, the adult oysters have been exposed to different concentrations of phenols during 96h in triplicates versus a control. Daily, three random oyster samples from each aquarium were anesthetized in ice at 0 °C for 5-10 minutes, in terms of reducing the stress on the oysters and preserving their metabolic characteristics and activity. Each oyster was weighed by semi-analytical balance (0.01 g). The biometry (height, length, and width) of each sample was measured by using a Digital Vernier caliper (0.01 mm) before any

dissection and analysis.

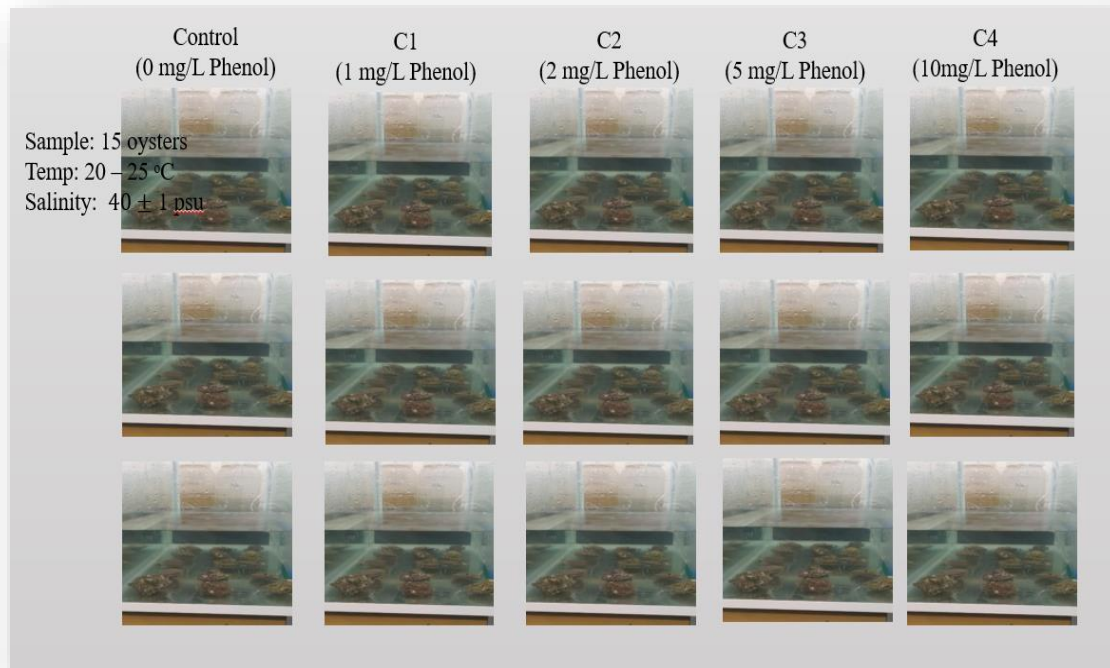


Figure 4: Oyster cultivation and experimental design.

3.3.2. Biometric Analysis of Oyster Population

The biometry (height, length, and width) of each sample was measured by using a Digital Vernier caliper (0.01 mm). The biometry data was used for the analysis of the oyster population. Biometric relationship analyses were done on the length, width, and height of the oyster shell. Length-weight, width-weight, and height-weight relationships were analyzed through quadratic equations with the formula:

$$Y = aX^b$$

Where: Y = weight (g), X = the length or width or height (thickness) of the shell (cm), a (intercept) and b (slope) parameters.

The biometric data analysis was performed by using Microsoft Excel 2016. The growth model of the oyster samples (isometric or allometric), was determined by the value of

(b). Oyster growth is considered isometric if ($b = 3$) and allometric if ($b \neq 3$). If the value of ($b < 3$), then there is negative allometric and if ($b > 3$) there is positive allometric (Kalesaran et al., 2018). The composite of the Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* was distributed into four separate size classes with lengths of 3.5-4.5; 4.5-5.5; 5.5-6.5, and 6.5-7.5 cm, respectively.

3.3.3. Biomarker Analysis and Oxidative Stress

During the experiment, the gills and digestive glands of each oyster sample were weighed and were kept for biomarker and oxidative stress analysis. The gills and digestive glands tissues from each *Pinctada imbricata radiata* sample were taken and homogenized at 4 °C using an ultratorax in a phosphate buffer solution (100mM) containing: Solution (A): 35.8 g of $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (358 g.mol⁻¹) in 1 liter of ultrapure distilled water and solution (B): 3.4g of KH_2PO_4 (136 g.mol⁻¹) in 250 ml of ultrapure water. Then, solution (A) was adjusted to pH 7.8 with solution (B). Finally, 0.1% of Triton X-100 (e.i: for 50 mL add 50 μ L) is added to the Phosphate Buffer Solution and mixed well with a magnetic bar. The homogenate was centrifuged at 9000 g for 30 min at 4 °C. Furthermore, the resulting supernatant was divided into several aliquots and was stored at -80 °C until total protein and biomarker analysis.

3.3.3.1. Total Protein

The protein content of all samples was analyzed according to the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976), by using 50 μ L sample protein and bovine serum albumin as a standard. The measured parameters were normalized for the total protein concentration of each sample. The assay was analyzed in a microplate reader using 96 well plates and concentration proteins were expressed in mg/g wet weight.

3.3.3.2. Catalase (CAT) Activity Measurement

Catalase (CAT) is an enzyme that catalyzes the decomposition of H_2O_2 formed by Superoxide dismutase (SOD) in molecular water (H_2O) and molecular oxygen (O_2). CAT activity was estimated through the quantification and the rate of disappearance of H_2O_2 at 240 nm for 20 min (Claiborne, 1985). 50 μL of the sample was added to 50 μL of 30% H_2O_2 and 950 μL of 75 mM phosphate buffer at pH = 7: the results are expressed as CAT activity in U/mg protein

3.3.3.3. Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Activity Measurements

SOD activity was measured according to (McCord & Fridovich, 1969) as follow: 10 μL of sample sample was combined with 1960 μL of $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{NaHCO}_3$ buffer (50 mM) at a pH = 10.2 and 10 μL of catalase bovine with 20 μL of epinephrine. The SOD activity was measured at 480 nm using a spectrophotometer and expressed as SOD activity in U/mg protein.

3.3.4. Statistical Analysis

Excel 2016 was used for all statistical analyses. All data were expressed as means \pm standard deviation (SD) of duplicate experiments (n = 2). The statistical analysis of data to test the effects of phenol concentrations were performed by two-way ANOVA in term of verifying the significant differences between the dose concentrations (ppm) and time (hr) versus controls. Data were log-transformed to meet the ANOVA assumption significant when $p \leq 0.001$.

3.4. Adsorption Part

3.4.1. Oyster Shells Collection and Preparation for Adsorption

To prepare the adsorbent for the phenol adsorption experiment, oyster shells intended for waste disposal were collected from a local pearl diver. The fresh organic part (flesh) of the oyster was removed and the shell was soaked in 50% sulfuric acid to dissolve any organic matters attached. Then the shells were scrubbed cleaned and washed several times with alcohol and ultra-pure water to remove sand and other impurities. Finally, the oyster shells were air-dried at 60 °C overnight. The raw oyster shell was then powdered grinded and sieved through 0.125 mm (125 µm) mesh particle size then dried again at 60 °C overnight, stored, and kept for ball milling (type of the instrument).

3.4.2. Preparation of Oyster Shell Nanoparticle, OSNP

Ball milling was used as a physical process to prepare the nanoparticles. The raw oyster shell was ball milled in CryoMill grinder for 48 h at 800 RPM by using mixed agate balls (15×6 mm and 7×8 mm) in 4×50 ml agate jars.

3.4.3. Modification of OSNP With Silver

The silver-activated oyster shell nanoparticles OSNP-S were prepared by reacting 10 g of OSNP and 5.7 g KOH with 100 mL distilled water for 1 h at a temperature of 60 °C in term of changing the OSNP surface to negative charge . Then, 1.695 g of AgNO₃ was added to the solution for another 1 h. After that, the resulting solid was again reacted with 5.7 g KOH for another 1 h and then the formed brown solid (OSNP-S) was left overnight for further oxidation. The OSNP-S was washed with plenty of water to remove the excess alkaline, centrifuged for 15 min at 4000 RPM,

dried at 60°C for overnight, and stored in glass bottles for analysis and further experiments (Alhaddad et al., 2021).

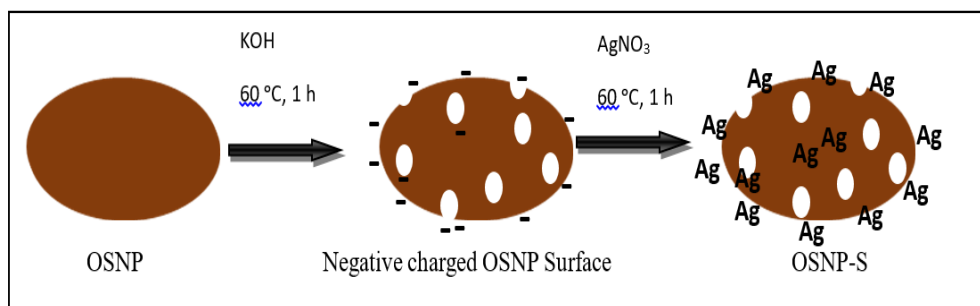


Figure 5: Proposed mechanism of OSNP-S formation.

3.4.4. Characterization of OSNP and OSNP-S

The physical and chemical characterization of OSNP and OSNP-S were determined by using different instruments (SEM, BET, FTIR, and TEM). SEM is a multipurpose instrument used for the characterization of 2D and 3D materials. It is used to characterize the physical properties of different materials by measuring the particle size and describing the morphology and the aspect ratio (Hassan et al., 2020). In this research paper, images of OSNP and OSNP-S before and after adsorption were taken by using Nova nanoSEM 450 at a 5kV voltage and 5–100 microns to characterize their physical properties. In this research paper, OSNP and OSNP-S adsorbents were prepared; and to determine their pore surface area distribution along with the particle size before and after phenol adsorption, Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) model Aim Sizer-AM301 was used. BET Theory seeks to explain the physical adsorption of gas molecules onto solid surfaces. The BET equation was applied to the P/P_0 ranges of the N_2 isotherms.

$$\frac{1}{V\left[\left(\frac{P_0}{P}\right) - 1\right]} = \frac{C - 1}{VmC} \left(\frac{P}{P_0}\right) + \frac{1}{VmC}$$

Where V = adsorbed gas quantity, P_0 = saturation pressure of adsorbate, P = equilibrium pressure of adsorbate and C = BET constant.

To study morphology and functional groups of the adsorbents OSNP and OSNP-S before and after adsorption, Fourier-transform infrared spectrophotometer (FTIR) was used. The spectra were collected from 4000 to 400 cm^{-1} with a Spectrum 400 FTIR PerkinElmer- UATR. The size and shape of the nanoparticles were analyzed by using a transmission electron microscope (TEM) Make-FEI; Model-Tecnai G2 FEG 200 KV. The pH of the solutions was examined.

3.4.5. Phenol Solutions Preparation

For the adsorption experiment part, phenol stock solution (1000 ppm) was prepared in ultra-pure distilled water. Then different experimental solutions were prepared by diluting the stock solution to the different concentrations, namely 5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80, 100 mg/L. The final phenol concentrations were measured by using UV-1900i UV/Vis spectrophotometer.

3.4.6. Batch Adsorption Experiments

A batch system was used to carry out the adsorption study by using a 100 mL lab bottle under different pH values, temperature, and initial phenol concentrations. For each bottle experiment, 50 mL phenol stock solution and 0.1 N HCl or 0.1 N NaOH were used to adjust the pH, and then the OSNP or OSNP-S adsorbent was added (0.05 g). Two trials and a blank of each batch experiment were conducted to ensure quality control. The samples of each batch experiment were stirred under a constant speed of 165 rounds per minute (rpm) for 24 hrs. After each batch experiment, filtration was carried out. The filtered solutions were analyzed under a UV/VIS spectrophotometer to determine the final concentration. The filtrate (adsorbents) was kept at room temperature for dryness and further analysis using SEM, FTIR, surface area, porosity,

and bulk density techniques. The adsorption process was studied as a pH (2, 4, 6, 8 and 10), temperature (25°C, 35°C and 45°C), initial phenol concentration (5, 10, 15, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80 and 100 mg/L) and adsorbent dose (0.05 g/L) for 24 h. The adsorption capacity (q , mg/g) and percentage removal was calculated by using the following equations:

$$q_e = \left[\frac{C_0 - C_e}{M} \right] \times V$$

$$\% \text{ removal} = \left[1 - \frac{C_e}{C_0} \right] \times 100\%$$

Where C_0 and C_e (mg/L) are the concentration of liquid phase adsorbate at an initial time and at equilibrium before and after adsorption (mg/L), V is the experimental volume (L) and M is the adsorbent mass (g). The concentration of phenol in an aqueous solution was analyzed by UV analysis performed on a UV–visible spectrophotometer (at wavelength = 270 nm) (Adebayo & Areo, 2021; Hadi et al., 2016).

3.4.7. Adsorption Isotherms

Equilibrium isotherms are essential keys for designing an adsorption experiment. Constructing an adsorption isotherm can estimate the adsorption characteristics of an adsorbent (Hadi et al., 2016). The isothermal models explain all the data related to the concentration, and their parameters give an understanding of the adsorption ability and explain characteristics of the overall adsorption process (Adebayo & Areo, 2021). Isotherms are performed by fixing the mass of an adsorbent (OSNP or OSNP-S) and changing the concentration of the adsorbate (phenol) over a suitable range. The four isotherm models used in this study were Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin, and Dubinin–Radushkevich. To understand the equilibrium study of adsorption process and the adsorption behavior of phenol molecules onto OSNP and OSNP-S, the isotherm models equations were used. For all results of the experiments,

the double factor two way ANOVA was done by the use of the Microsoft excel. The two-way ANOVA test is conducted to determine the differences between samples means and whereas these differences are significant or not. Furthermore, to determine the interactions between the dependent and independent variables.

3.4.7.1. Langmuir Isotherm Model

The Langmuir isotherm model is used to describe the formation of the monolayer uniform adsorption on the outer surface of the adsorbent (Chang et al., 2019). The adsorption was plotted by using $\frac{C_e}{q_e}$ Vs C_e , whereas q_m and K_l parameters were calculated.

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{1}{q_m \cdot K_l} + \frac{C_e}{q_m}$$

Here, q_e is the amount of adsorbed to the solid (mg/g), q_m is the maximum monolayer uniform coverage capacity (mg/g), b (K_l) is the Langmuir constant (L/mg) and C_e is the equilibrium concentration.

The separation factor (R_L) of the Langmuir isotherm model for all concentrations was determined by using the following equation:

$$R_L = \frac{1}{1 + K_L C_0}$$

Where C_0 is the initial concentration of Phenol before the adsorption process. For a favorable process, R_L should be between 0 and 1 (Majid et al., 2019).

3.3.7.2. Freundlich Isotherm Model

The Freundlich isotherm model is used for heterogeneous surfaces and envisages that an increase in the concentration of substances in the liquid phase result in an increase in the concentration of the ions substances adsorbed on the surface of the solid (Léon & Matos, 2018) and its linear equation is:

$$\log q_e = \log k_f + \frac{1}{n} \log C_e$$

OR

$$\ln q_e = \ln k_f + \frac{1}{n} \ln C_e$$

K_f and n are Freundlich constants. Moreover, they represent the adsorption capacity and intensity. Higher the K_f value greater the heterogeneity. Larger the value of n ($n > 1$), the more spontaneous the adsorption process. The adsorption was plotted by using $\ln q_e$ Vs $\ln C_e$, whereas $\frac{1}{n}$ and k_f parameters were calculated.

3.4.7.3. Temkin Isotherm Model

The Temkin isotherm model is used to study the interactions occurring between the adsorbent surface molecules and the adsorbate molecules. This model neglects concentrations values that are extremely low or high. It also assumes that due to the adsorbent-adsorbate interaction on the surface, the heat of adsorption of the molecules is likely to decrease linearly (Ugraskan et al., 2022; Léon & Matos, 2018). In this paper, the following Temkin isotherm equation was used:

$$q_e = \left(\frac{RT}{b_T}\right) \ln K_T + \left(\frac{RT}{b_T}\right) \ln C_e$$

The R is the universal gas constant, and T is the temperature in Kelvin. The K_T is the Temkin adsorption potential (L/g), while b_T is constant. The plot q_e Vs $\ln C_e$ used to show the uniform distribution of the binding energies. The calculated parameters were b_T and K_T (Al-trawneh et al., 2021; Léon & Matos, 2018).

3.4.7.4. Dubinin–Radushkevich Isotherm Model

D-R model is mainly used to determine the mechanism of adsorption that occurs on heterogeneous surfaces (Fathy et al., 2020). Hence it is superior to the Langmuir isotherm model, which assumes a homogeneous surface. The isotherm model is

commonly used to determine the type of adsorption, whether it is physical, chemical, or ion exchange (Ugraskan et al., 2022). The isotherm model explains the structure of the adsorbent porous and assumes that the adsorption happens by filling the pore walls layer by layer (adsorption potential theory) (Hu & Zhang, 2019). The D-R isotherm model parameters are calculated by using the following equations:

$$\ln q_e = \ln q_{(D-R)} - \beta \varepsilon^2$$

$$\varepsilon = RT \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{C_e} \right)$$

$$E = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-2\beta}}$$

The q_e is the phenol adsorbed amount per unit mass of adsorbent (mg/g), $q_{(D-R)}$ (mg/g) is the maximum theoretical adsorption capacity obtained from the D-R isotherm model, ε (kJ mol⁻¹) is the adsorption potential and β (mol² /KJ²) is the D-R isotherm constant related to the adsorption energy E. The adsorption was plotted by using $\ln q_e$ Vs ε^2 , whereas $-\beta$ and $q_{(D-R)}$ parameters were calculated.

3.4.8. Adsorption Thermodynamics

The thermodynamics are vital for investigating the nature of the temperature-dependent adsorption process to find if it is spontaneous or not and if the adsorption nature is endothermic or exothermic. This process of Phenol adsorption at different temperatures was investigated by calculating the Gibbs free energy change (ΔG°) (kJ/mol), by Van't Hoff equation:

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K_e^\circ$$

T is the temperature (Kelvin), R is the universal gas constant (8.314 J K⁻¹ mol⁻¹), and K_e° is the thermodynamic equilibrium constant of adsorption or Langmuir constant (L/mg).

The relation between free energy change (ΔG°), enthalpy (ΔH°) (kJ/mol), and

entropy change (ΔS°) (J/Kmol) is shown in the following equation:

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ$$

To plot the graph between ΔG° vs. T(K) in terms of determining the values of ΔH° and ΔS° respectively, the ΔG° is calculated from the equation (Tang et al., 2015; Lima et al., 2020). If ΔH° is positive, then the adsorption process is endothermic and if it is negative, then the process is exothermic. While for ΔS° , positive sign indicates the spontaneity of the adsorption process (Hassan et al., 2020).

3.4.9. Reusability of Adsorbent - Desorption Studies

Desorption and the reuse ability of the spent adsorbent were investigated. To regenerate the adsorbent (OSNP-S), 10 ml of 0.1 M sodium hydroxide and 0.1 M hydrochloric acid solutions were added to 0.01g of the spent adsorbent from the adsorption experiment (100 ppm, pH10, 35 ° C). This was done in duplicate. The mixtures were stirred at 165 RPM and room temperature for 24 h. Then filtrated and their absorbance values were measured using a UV–Visible spectrophotometer at 270 nm.

3.4.10. Real Wastewater Sample Evaluation

To examine the feasibility of OSNP and OSNP-S adsorption, a real phenol-containing wastewater sample generated from olive was used. Olives were soaked in water, the phenol content was measured by using UV-spectrophotometer, the concentration was calculated and the real sample was used for the adsorption process. OSNP/OSNP-S adsorbents (0.05 g) were added to 50 ml of the real wastewater sample in two trials. The samples of each batch experiment were stirred under a constant speed of 165 rounds per minute (rpm) for 24 hrs. After each batch experiment, filtration was carried out. The filtered solutions were analyzed under a UV/VIS spectrophotometer to determine the final concentration.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Ecotoxicology Part

4.1.1. Biometric Analysis of Oyster Population

Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* collected in the oyster bed of Al-Wakra seawaters, varied from 3.55 to 7.11 cm long with a mean shell length of 5.08 cm. As shown in Table 5, the length size was separated into four classes with a class interval of 1.0 cm. Figure 6 indicates that Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* of Al-Wakra waters was dominated by size class (4.5-5.5 cm) with 70.64% of the total samples measured. Then the following results of size class (5.5-6.5) with 17.43%, size class (3.5-4.5) with 10.09%, and size class (6.5-7.5) with 1.84%. The biometry (size) analysis does not show distinct length/ age groups (Aideed et al., 2015). Nevertheless, in this study, the biometry of the size analysis of the samples shows that the population of Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* was dominated by samples of (4.5-5.5 cm) length, which probably represent the mature population. The small individuals (3.5-4.5 cm) seem to cover the population of Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* that belong to the relatively young population. In the current study, it was noticed that three classes (4.5-5.5, 5.5-6.5, and 6.5-7.5 cm) match the age groups (classes) reported by (Mohammed, 2003), who distributed the composite of the Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* in Qatari water into four separate age groups with the mean lengths of 5.68, 6.58, 7.75, and 8.47 cm respectively. Moreover the unimodal distribution of the pearl size-classes confirm that the Al-Wakra oyster bed zone is dominated by an unique population of *Pinctada imbricata radiata*.

Table 5: Population's Size Classes of Pearl Oyster *Pinctada Imbricata Radiata* from the Oyster Bed of Al-Wakra.

Class of shell length (cm)	Number of Individuals	% Percentage
3.5-4.5	22	10.09
4.5-5.5	154	70.64
5.5-6.5	38	17.43
6.5-7.5	4	1.84
Total	218	100

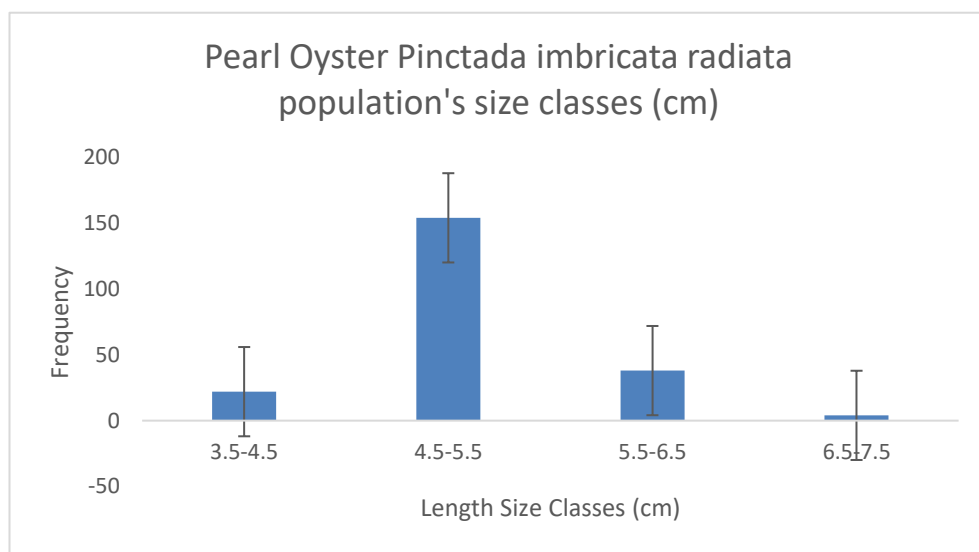


Figure 6: Length frequency distribution of Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* from oyster bed of Al-Wakra.

4.1.2. Biometric Relationships

Biometric relationships are used to differentiate between size classes, where the length-weight, width-weight, and length-weight relationships are required in population dynamics and to predict the growth patterns of aquatic organisms. Furthermore, the rate of increase in weight shows how the ecological parameters affect the living organism in specific habitat (Mohammed, 2003). Figure 7 show the relationships between the length-weight, width-weight and height-weight of *Pinctada imbricata radiata* from

Qatari waters with the resultant respective formulas:

$$y = 0.5099x^{2.4522} \text{ and a regression coefficient } R^2 = 0.5457$$

$$y = 0.8739x^{2.135} \text{ and } R^2 = 0.3802$$

$$y = 14.038x^{1.0235} \text{ and } R^2 = 0.4316$$

All the relationships indicate negative allometric growth of the *Pinctada imbricata radiata* oyster, due to that the slope (b) values were less than three (Kalesaran et al., 2018). It is obvious that the oyster samples were growing faster in their shell sizes rather than their weight (Aideed et al., 2015). The results showed that there is a strong correlation between length, width, height versus weight.

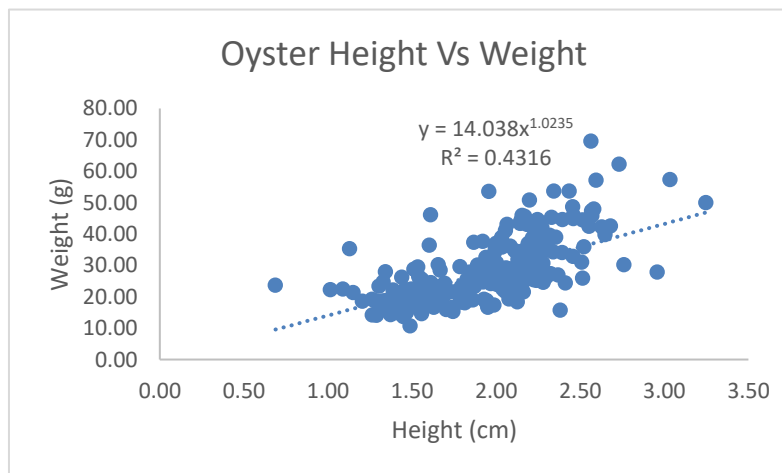
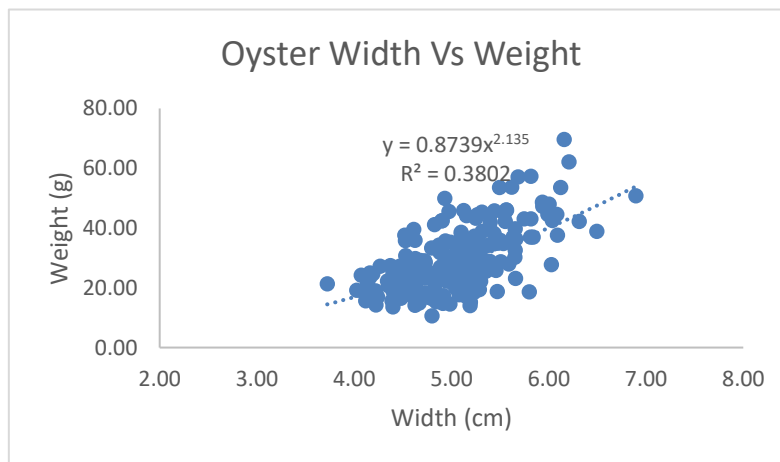
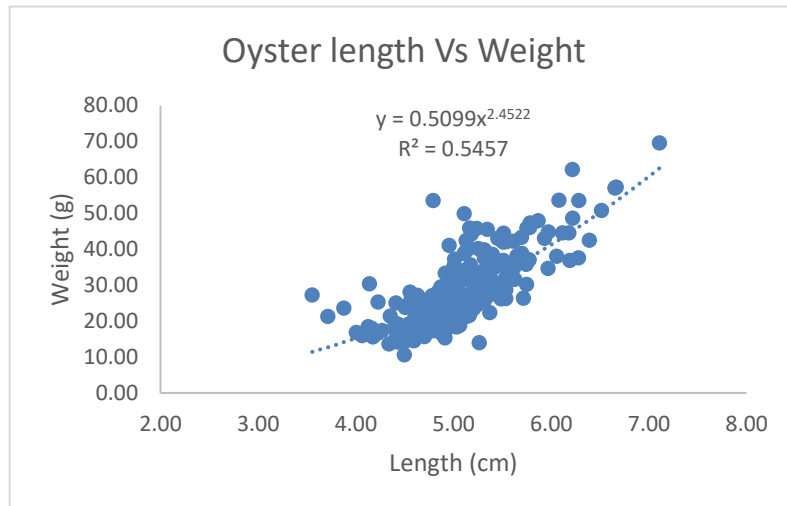


Figure 7: Length, width and height-weight relationship of the pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* (N = 218).

4.1.3. Biomarker Analysis and Oxidative Stress

The total protein and antioxidant enzymes (CAT and SOD) analysis were performed on cytosolic fractions of gills and digestive gland of *Pinctada imbricata radiata* exposed to different phenol concentrations at different times. The CAT and SOD enzymatic activities and analysis from both gills and digestive glands increased compared to the control organisms. Whereas, the total protein slightly decreased over time. Table 6 and Figure 8 show the results for gills. At 0 hr the total protein was the highest for all samples and the lowest was at 96 hr time. However, there were no significant differences between the total proteins averaged values ($p > 0.001$) as commonly there are no big changes for this parameter. The results for CAT and SOD analysis of gills showed that Treatment (concentration of phenol), the Time of Treatment, and also Treatment \times Time have all a positive impact and there is a significant difference with ($p < 0.001$) in all cases. The activity of CAT in gills increased until the 4th day in 1 and 10 ppm Phenol exposure and the difference was significant ($p < 0.001$). The SOD activity in gills showed increasing through the whole treatment period with a significant difference.

Table 6: Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* Gills Total Protein and Antioxidant Enzymes (CAT and SOD) Analysis.

Oyster Gills Total Protein (mg/g wet weight)							
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	21.23	20.58	19.82	17.47	15.18	18.86	2.50
1 ppm	21.23	20.72	19.77	17.28	15.00	18.80	2.61
2 ppm	21.48	20.88	20.25	16.93	14.98	18.91	2.81
5 ppm	20.99	20.73	20.10	16.85	14.67	18.67	2.78
10 ppm	21.33	21.30	20.07	17.17	14.77	18.93	2.88
CAT Activity in the Gills (U/mg protein)							
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	57.10	57.28	57.62	57.33	58.00	57.47	0.35
1 ppm	58.33	57.75	60.08	65.58	70.08	62.37	5.31
2 ppm	59.50	60.37	62.78	68.33	73.40	64.88	5.88
5 ppm	58.42	60.45	64.60	71.15	76.08	66.14	7.39
10 ppm	57.77	59.58	63.63	71.70	76.43	65.82	8.00
SOD Activity in Gills (U/mg protein)							
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Mean	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	28.78	29.03	29.68	30.45	30.83	29.76	0.88
1 ppm	30.23	30.80	34.98	35.85	37.68	33.91	3.25
2 ppm	30.90	32.38	38.65	39.98	42.68	36.92	5.06
5 ppm	31.10	33.18	40.02	43.53	47.38	39.04	6.86
10 ppm	30.64	31.70	42.98	48.07	52.12	41.10	9.63

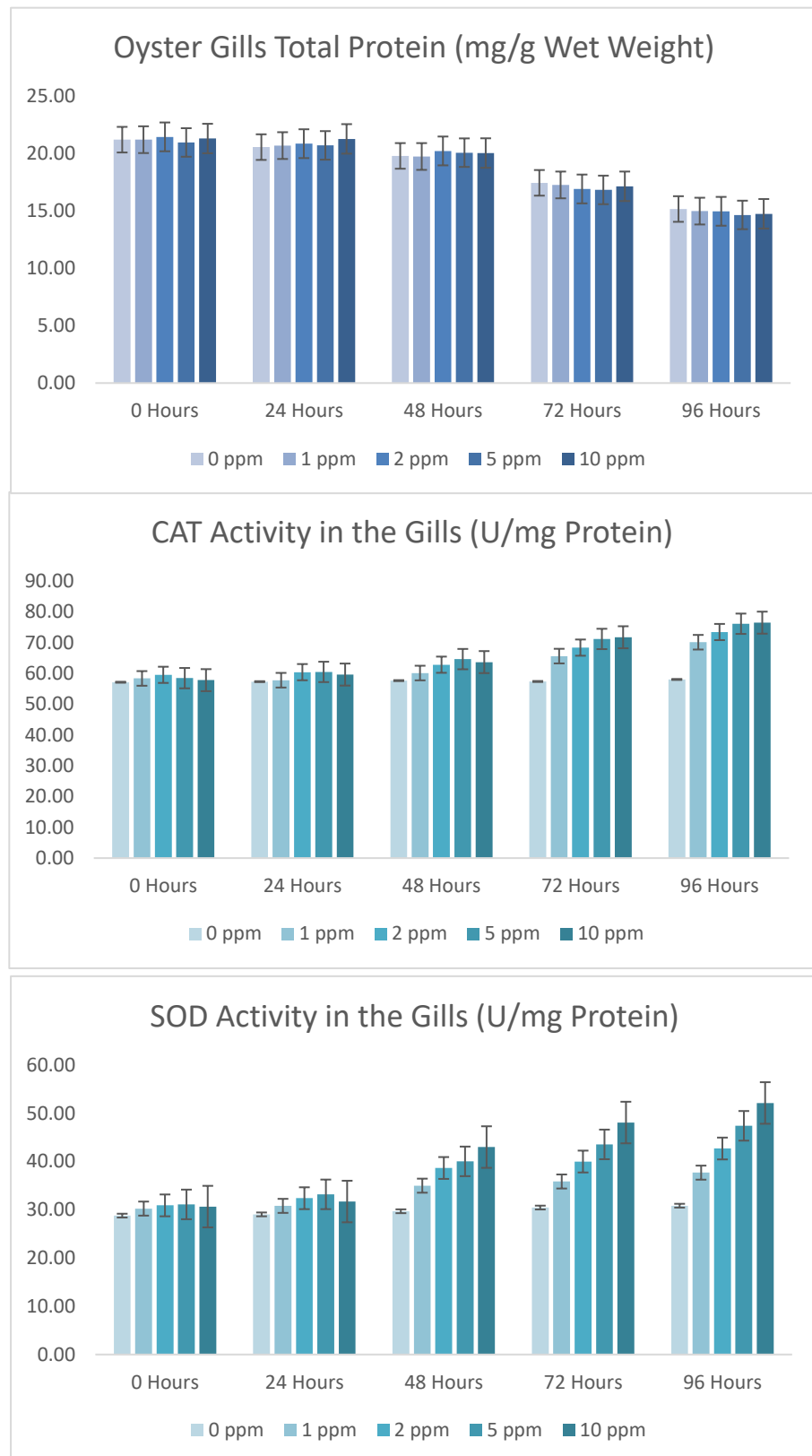


Figure 8: Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* Gills Total protein, CAT and SOD analysis.

Results of Total proteins and enzymatic activities for the digestive gland are shown in Table 7 and Figure 9. The results showed that the activity of total protein decreased over time but there were no significant differences between the total proteins averaged values (p-value > 0.001). This decrease can be explained by the fast imposed on the pearl oysters during our experiment. The results for CAT and SOD analysis showed that Treatment (concentration of phenol), the Time of Treatment, and also Treatment \times Time interaction have all a positive impact and there is in all cases a significant difference compared to the control (p-value < 0.001). The activity of CAT and SOD in digestive glands increased with a significant difference (p-value < 0.001). Furthermore, the results showed that CAT analysis of gills and digestive glands gives the highest mean values of 66.14 and 63.32 U/mg protein after 4 days period of 5 ppm and 10 ppm treatments respectively. The difference and variation in all enzymatic activities and analysis are related to the phenol concentration, exposure time, and the interaction between treatment concentration and time.

Table 7: Pearl Oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* Digestive Glands Total Protein and Antioxidant Enzymes (CAT and SOD) analysis.

Oyster Digestive Gland Total Protein (mg/g wet weight)						
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	48.11	48.27	48.27	43.28	41.52	3.25
1 ppm	48.84	47.00	47.00	43.60	41.50	2.97
2 ppm	48.36	48.32	48.32	44.00	41.98	3.01
5 ppm	48.24	47.94	47.94	43.70	41.05	3.24
10 ppm	46.83	47.80	47.80	42.72	40.67	3.27
CAT Activity in the Digestion Gland (U/mg protein)						
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	50.94	51.62	52.13	52.18	52.72	0.67
1 ppm	50.97	51.80	53.25	52.67	54.60	1.39
2 ppm	50.74	51.82	54.85	53.83	57.60	2.68
5 ppm	51.02	52.13	55.65	56.07	60.07	3.58
10 ppm	51.01	53.38	57.47	58.80	63.32	4.80
SOD Activity in Digestion Gland (U/mg protein)						
Phenol Concentration	0 Hours	24 Hours	48 Hours	72 Hours	96 Hours	Standard Deviation
0 ppm	18.99	19.58	20.03	20.82	21.20	0.90
1 ppm	20.58	21.72	23.70	26.40	27.17	2.86
2 ppm	20.28	23.77	26.90	29.42	31.67	4.51
5 ppm	20.86	22.08	29.44	32.27	34.88	6.20
10 ppm	20.80	22.22	32.08	35.95	40.32	8.53

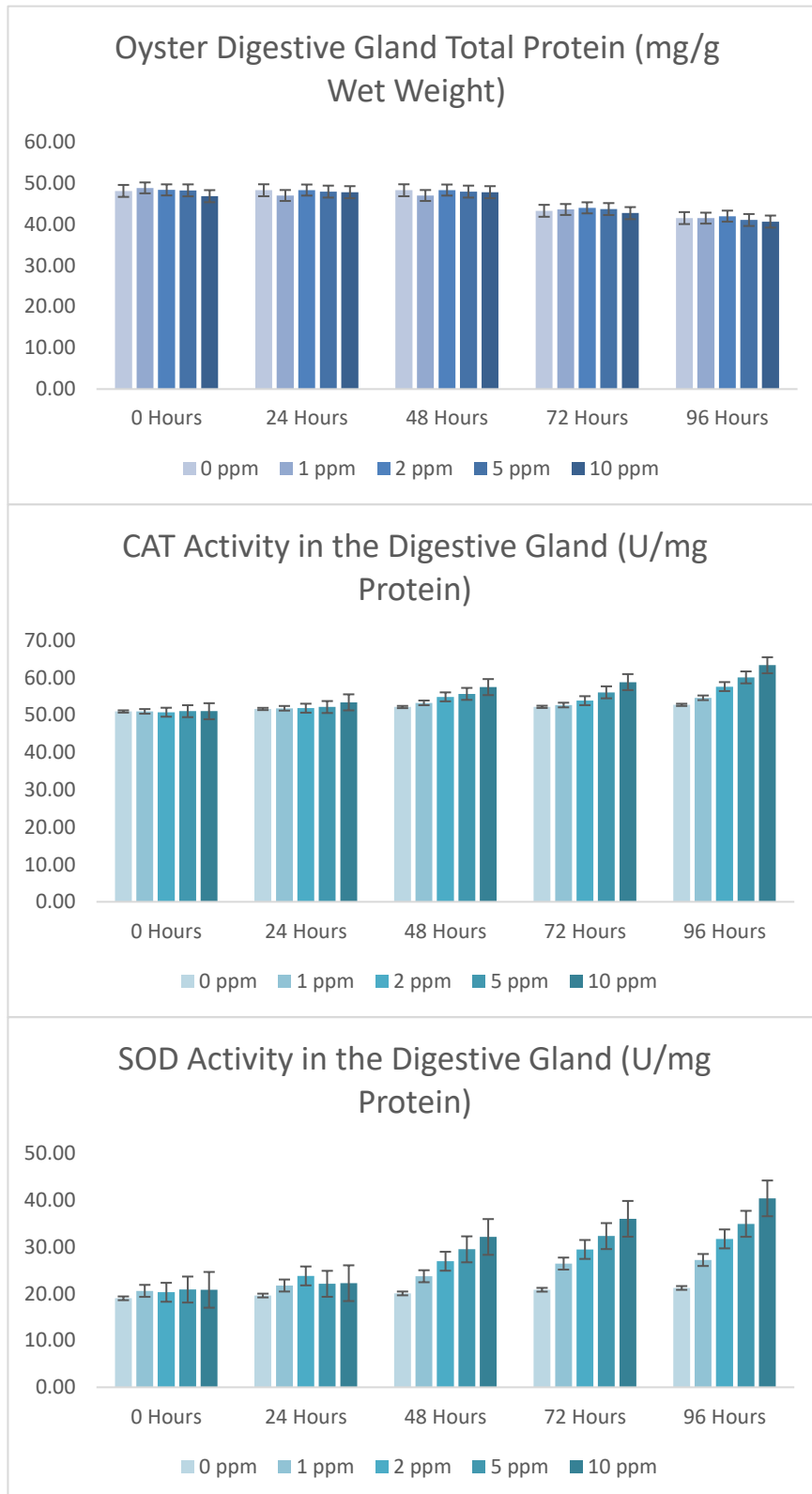


Figure 9: Digestive gland Total protein, CAT and SOD analysis.

4.2. Adsorption Isotherm Part

4.2.1. *The Possible Mechanism of OSNP-S Formation*

The oyster shell is made of layers of the microstructure of calcium carbonate (Checa et al., 2018). The formation of OSNP-S starts by reducing the size of the oyster shell to nanoparticles by ball milling technique. Reducing the size of oyster shell particles to nano-size increases the surface area, allowing for more silver deposition. Adding alkaline solution turns the OSNP surface to negative charge, which interacts with the positively charged silver ion and forms the OSNP-S as shown in Figure 5.

4.2.2. *Adsorbent Characterization*

To identify the physical and chemical characterization properties of the OSNP and OSNP-S, several analyses such as BET, SEM, TEM, and FTIR techniques were adopted.

4.2.2.1. *BET isothermal analysis*

The physical characterization and structural properties such as surface area and pore volume, which were determined by BET help in determining the activity of the adsorbents (Dehmani et al., 2020). The results of nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherm analysis for both OSNP and OSNP-S are shown in Table 8 and Figure 10. The analysis indicated that OSNP is an IV type of adsorption isotherms with an H1 hysteresis loop that is according to IUPAC is characteristic of typical mesoporous material. The desorption isotherm curve on top of the adsorption curve went along with the production of the hysteresis loop (Wang, 2018). The OSNP mesoporous structure makes it a highly efficient candidate for activation with many different cations. The BET and Langmuir Surface Area of OSNP were 40.339 and 44.063 m²/g respectively, while the Total Pore Volume was 0.1823 m³/g and the average pore radius was 90.4 Å. For OSNP-S, the BET and Langmuir surface areas were 15.917 m²/g and 20.198 m²/g,

respectively, while the total pore volume was 0.1157 m³/g and the average pore radius was 145.4 Å.

Table 8: BET Isothermal Analysis of OSNP and OSNPS.

Adsorbent	BET Surface Area (m ² /g)	Langmuir Surface Area (m ² /g)	Total Pore Volume (m ³ /g)	Average Pore Radius (Å)
OSNP	40.339	44.063	0.1823	90.4
OSNP-S	15.917	20.198	0.1157	145.4

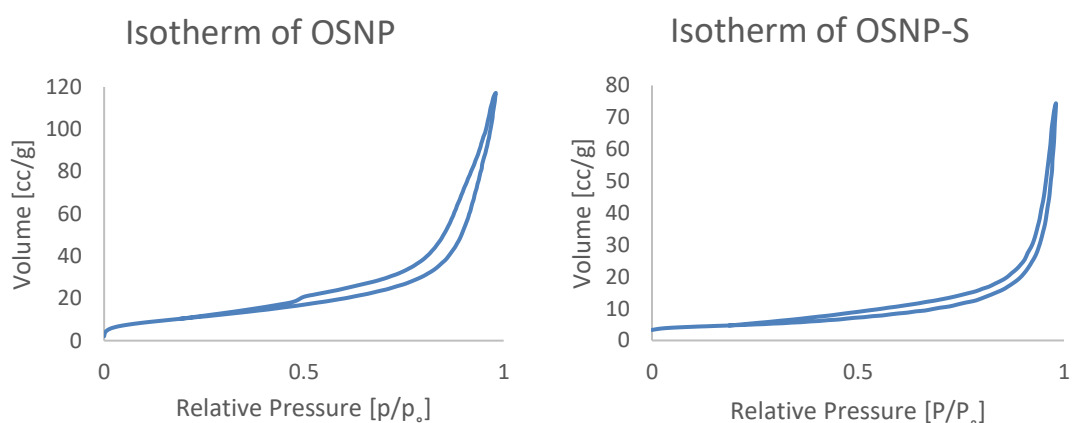


Figure 10: BET isothermal analysis of OSNP and OSNP-S.

4.2.2.2. SEM analysis

To find the microstructure of both OSNP and OSNP-S (Morphology characterization), high resolution scanning electron micrograph SEM was used in both 25000× and 50000×. Figure 11 (a -d) shows the SEM photomicrograph for row and activated oyster shells and indicates that there is a high concentration of heterogeneous distribution of fine particles along with some larger particles. The shape of OSNP-S (Figure 11c, d) is more irregular than the OSNP (Figure 11a, b). The irregularity of the particles could be related to the unreacted OSNP with silver. It is always favorable to

have irregular and imperfect surface since pollutants can be trapped, hosted, and interacted with the active adsorption sites (Navarro et al., 2016).

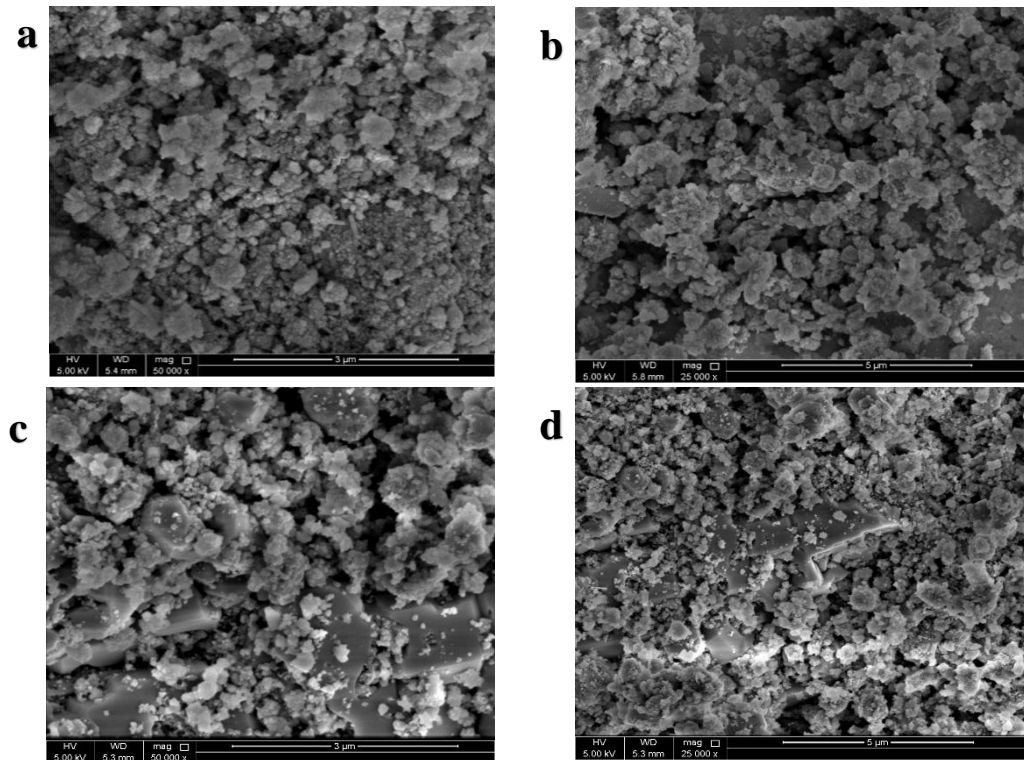


Figure 11: SEM figures of OSNP (a,b) and OSNP-S (c,d).

4.2.2.3. TEM analysis

To determine the microstructure of OSNP (Figure 12a-c) and OSNP-S (Figure 12d-f), the compounds were observed by TEM. The TEM images of OSNP-S (figure 6d, f) show spheroidal and chain-like particles of calcite along with spherical uniform distributed Silver particles covering its surface with notable agglomeration. The high resolution of OSNP and OSNP-S (Figure 6c, f) shows the lattice plane.

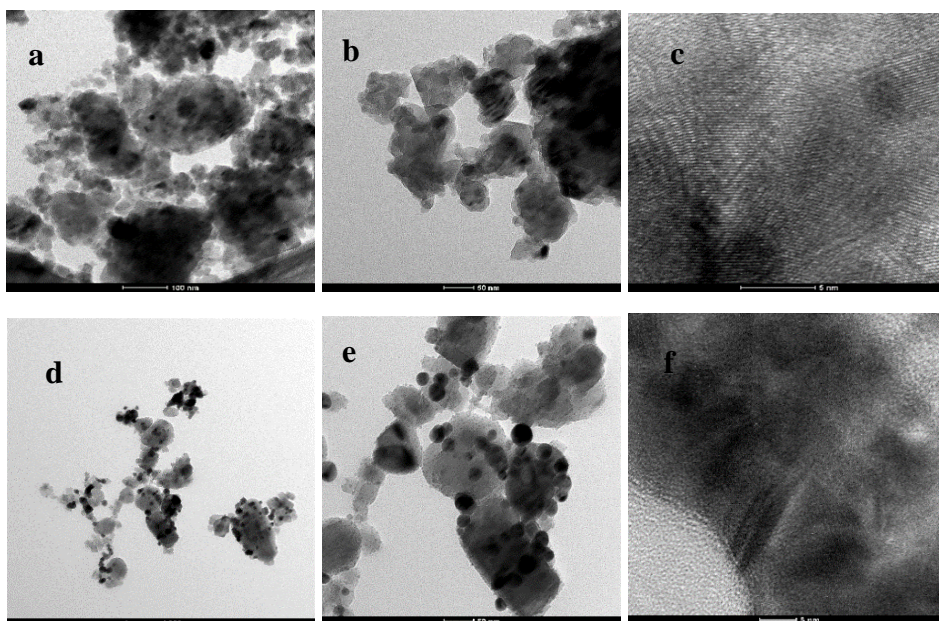


Figure 12: TEM figures OSNP (a, b, c) and OSNP-S (e, f, g).

4.2.2.4. FTIR analysis

The Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy FTIR provides some useful information on the chemical composition and structure of the adsorbents. The functional groups of OSNP and OSNP-S are represented in Figure 13. The FTIR spectrums were attained over the region 400 cm^{-1} to 4000 cm^{-1} . The spectrums indicate a decrease in the peak intensity of OSNP-S due to amendment with silver. The OSNP spectrum shows eight main characteristic peaks at 2500 , 1788 , 1446 , 1157 , 858.98 , 712 , 676.85 and 597.48 cm^{-1} . The OSNP-S spectrum shows six main characteristic peaks 2500 , 1788 , 1408 , 1083 , 856 , and 712 cm^{-1} . These peaks represent the stretching carbon functional groups in calcite (Hajji et al., 2017; Rodriguez-blanco et al., 2010). The Silver metal interactions are observed at region bands 500 to 900 cm^{-1} . The peaks in this region were disappeared in OSNP-S (Chang et al., 2019). Region bands 700 - 900 cm^{-1} represent Ca-O whereas 1300 - 1500 cm^{-1} represent C-O bands.

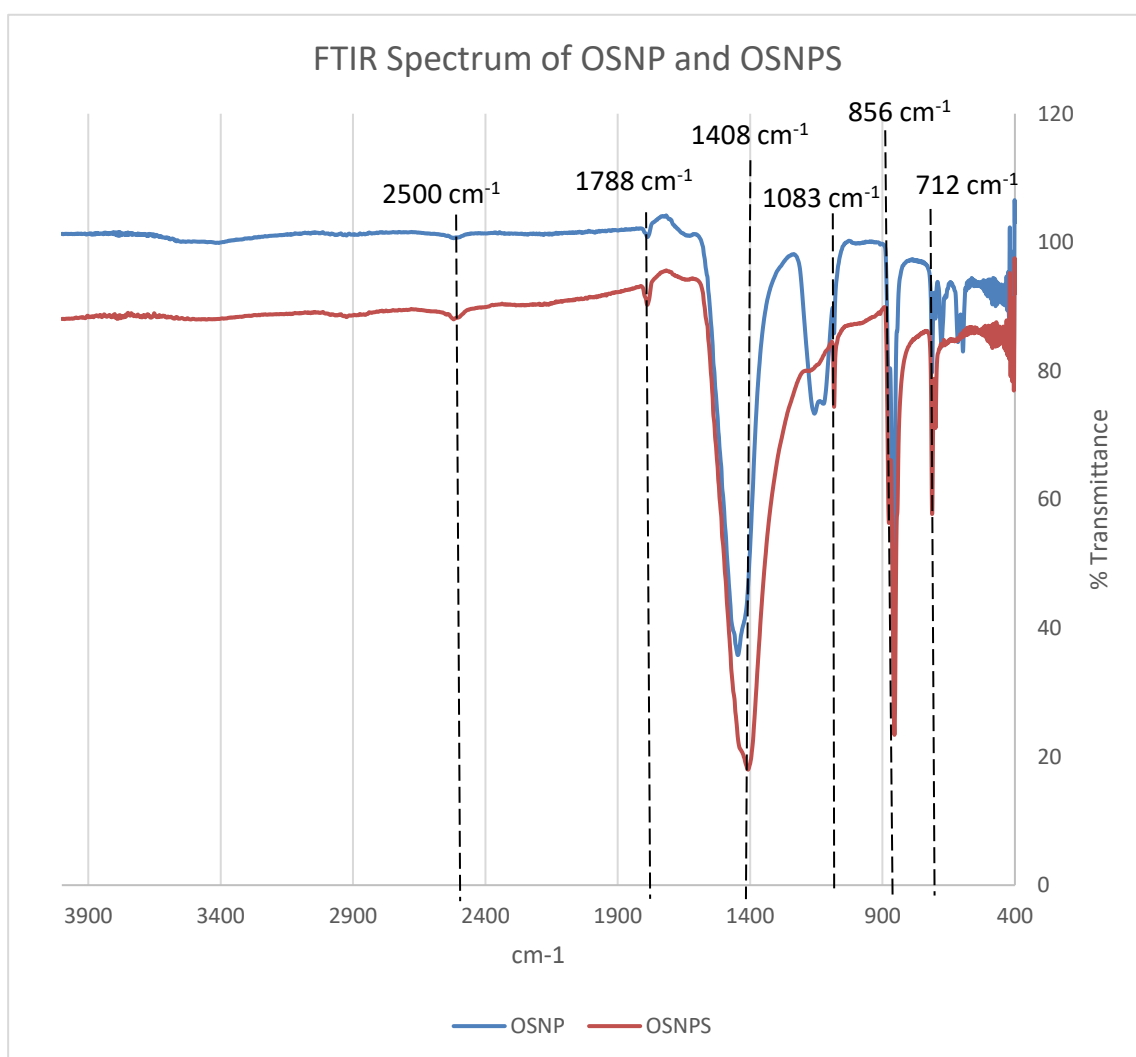


Figure 13: FTIR spectrum of OSNP and OSNP-S.

4.2.3. Adsorption Process

The adsorption process mainly occurs on the surface of a solid substance. Adsorption occurs when a soluble substance in an aqueous solution is transfer onto the bulk of a solid substance. The solid substance is called adsorbent whereas the soluble substance is called adsorbate. Studying the adsorption process and finding its optimal conditions is very important due to its role in purifying aqueous solutions such as wastewater and gas streams. Adsorption is an effective method with low infrastructure and operating costs, mainly when recyclable and sustainable materials are used. Hence,

it is broadly used in industry. As a result, it is critical to do further studies and research in this field to develop and design optimal adsorption systems (Guo & Wang, 2019; Azizian et al., 2018). The adsorption mechanism depends on the mass transport process and the different physiochemical characteristics of the adsorbent. Generally, adsorption undergoes different main processes where the molecule of adsorbate transfer from the solution to the surface of the adsorbent and diffuse through the surface layers and go into the pores of the adsorbent. Furthermore, it accumulate in the active sites of the adsorbent. The mechanism of phenol adsorption undergoes many interactions such as hydrogen bonding, dispersion, Van der Waals, hydrophobic bonding, electron donor-acceptor complex, and polar interaction (Adebayo & Areo, 2021). In Figure 14 the proposed adsorption mechanism of phenol adsorption on OSNP surface is most likely to undergo hydrogen bonding, whereas it is electrostatically bonded to OSNP-S.

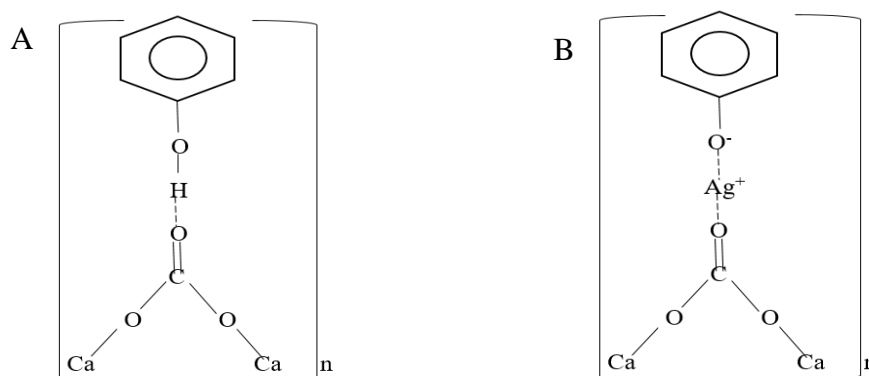


Figure 14: Proposed adsorption mechanism of phenol on (A) OSNP surface and (B) OSNP-S.

4.2.4. Adsorption Parameters

4.2.4.1. Effect of pH

Removal of phenol from an aqueous solution is highly affected by pH. The adsorption strength is changed by changing the pH, this is mostly due to the changes in

the surface properties of the adsorbent along with the ionization state and ionic forms of Phenol (Dehmani et al., 2020). The point of zero charges (pHpzc) is very important for knowing the processes taking place at the mineral-water interface, counting adsorption dissolution, precipitation, and colloid formation. Minerals display a negative surface charge above the pHpzc, whereas a positive charge occurs below the pHpzc. The amount of surface charge in different pH conditions for different minerals depends on the nature of the surface reaction. Whereas the occurrence of pHpzc indicates a change in surface electrochemical properties. The measurements of calcite surface interaction forces propose that pHpzc equals 9.5 ± 0.1 (Hurchill et al., 2004). The effect of pH on the adsorption was studied over the range of pH 2-10. The analysis result is shown in Figure 15. The highest percentage removal was at the lower pH 2 for both OSNP and OSNP-S. The acidic media increase the electrostatic attraction with the phenolate ions which leads to high Phenol adsorption (Bwatanglang et al., 2021) (Ouallal et al., 2019). The interaction of minerals and water has an important impact on the adsorption properties of Phenol. Hence the high phenol adsorption at low pH could be due to π - π interactions along with hydrogen bonding interaction between the prepared adsorbate and phenol molecules (Hurchill et al., 2004). By increasing to pH 4 the adsorption dropped heavily, due to the weak electrostatic attraction force between the positively charged surface of adsorbate and the negatively charged phenol (Sahu et al., 2017). Since Phenol is acidic with pH around 5-6 and relatively well water-soluble, hence at pH 6 intermolecular hydrogen bond between Phenol molecules dominates in the aqueous leading to low Phenol adsorption. The decrease in Phenol adsorption in higher pH values is related to the presence of a huge amount of positive Hydrogen ions (H^+) which contest the Silver positive ions on the surface of the adsorbate in OSNP-S (Dehmani et al., 2020). It was also reported that the OH^- in the aqueous solution

compete for the phenol molecules for the sorption sites changing the OSNP-S surface to negative charge, hence resulting in repulsion with phenolate ions ($C_6H_5O^-$) and decreasing the phenol uptake (Sharan et al, 2009; Ouallal et al., 2019). At pH 10, the phenol removal decrease due to the that both phenolate ions and the surface of the adsorbent are negatively charged producing an electrostatic repulsion (Sobiesiak, 2017). Several types of research reported that the removal of phenol decreases by an increase of pH value. This was related to the positive oxonium ions on the surface of the adsorbent, resulting in an increase in water adsorption and cluster formation. Thus, decreasing in the availability of active sites on the adsorbent surface occurs along with the blocking of the entrance of fine pores with the adsorbed molecules of phenol (Sobiesiak, 2017). Two pH values were adapted in the current adsorption experiment, pH 6 and 10. This is to study and compare the uptake of Phenol in typical wastewater pH value and in the basic pH value.

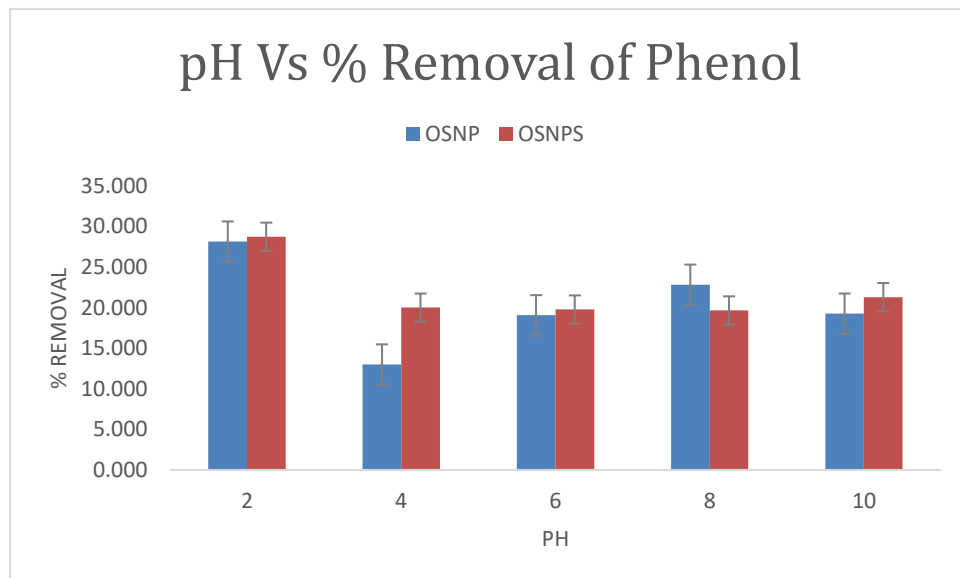


Figure 15: Effect of pH on % removal of phenol.

4.2.4.2. Effect of Concentration and Temperature

In this study, the adsorption capacity by the OSNP and OSNP-S initial concentration at both pH 6 and 10 are shown in Table 9, Figures 16 and 17. For pH 6, at room temperature, the results show that OSNP is a higher adsorbent than OSNP-S. The highest phenol removal by OSNP was at the concentration of 10 ppm (36.98%). Whereas OSNP-S showed less uptake in all concentrations (< 30%). At 35° C, the uptake was almost the same for both OSNP and OSNP-S at all concentrations and almost less than 20% removal except for OSNP-S at 10 ppm (20.71%). At 45°C, the highest uptake was at 5 ppm for both OSNP and OSNP-S (33.73%) and (28.40%) respectively. There was a notable reduction from the lowest concentration all the way to the highest concentration of the adsorbates. The sum of the results indicate that there are variations in the removal percent of phenol by both adsorbents at different initial concentrations and temperature, but it was indicated that the adsorption reduces with higher temperature. The highest phenol removal at pH 10 was dominated by OSNP-S. The results of the analysis indicated that the highest adsorption at all assigned temperatures was at 20 ppm and 10 ppm for OSNP-S and OSNP, respectively, and verified that adsorption of phenol reduces with higher temperature due to the mass transfer, since higher temperature cause higher kinetic movement and result decrease in the phenol uptake. Hence, it is recommended to do the experiment at room temperature. At pH 10, the removal was higher for OSNP-S than at pH 6. Phenol removal by 20 ppm OSNP-S at room temperature, 35°C, and 45°C was 25.89%, 23.22%, and 21.01% respectively whereas the removal by 10 ppm OSNP at the same temperatures was 20.12%, 21.30%, and 19.53% respectively.

Table 9: Highest Percentage Removal of Phenol by OSNP and OSNP-S at pH(6, 10) and Temperatures (25°, 35°, 45° C).

pH		Temperature					
		25° C		35° C		45° C	
		OSNP	OSNP-S	OSNP	OSNP-S	OSNP	OSNP-S
6	Ci, ppm	10	100	30	10	5	5
	%Removal	36.98	17.90	18.05	20.71	33.73	28.4
10	Ci, ppm	10	20	10	20	10	20
	%Removal	20.18	25.89	21.3	23.22	19.53	21.01

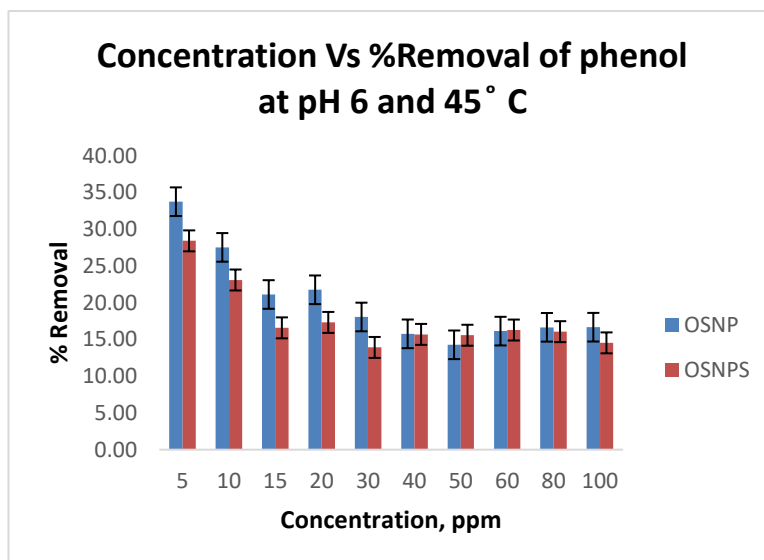
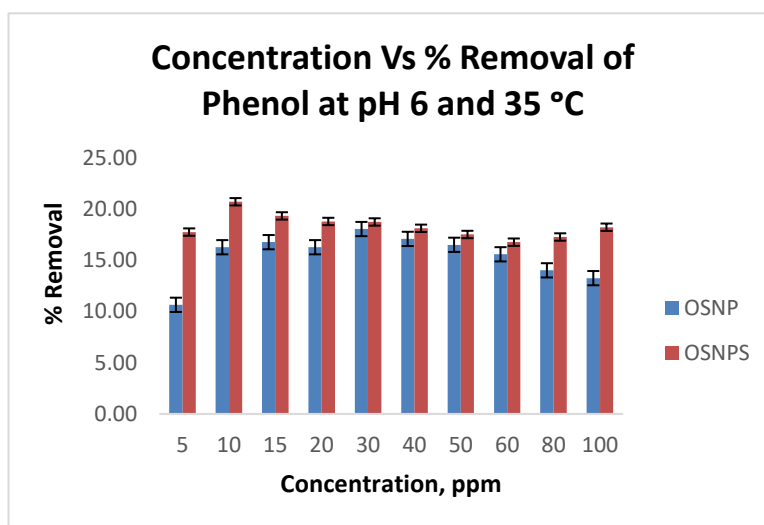
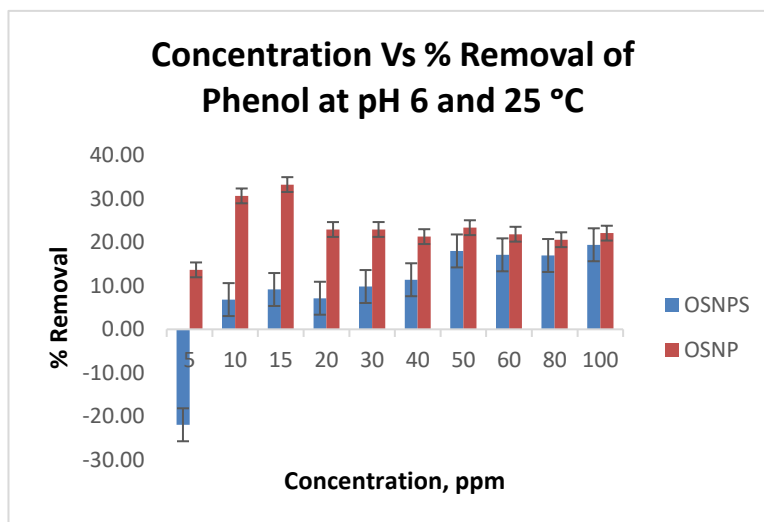


Figure 16: Adsorption capacity by the OSNP and OSNPS initial concentration at pH 6 at different temperatures.

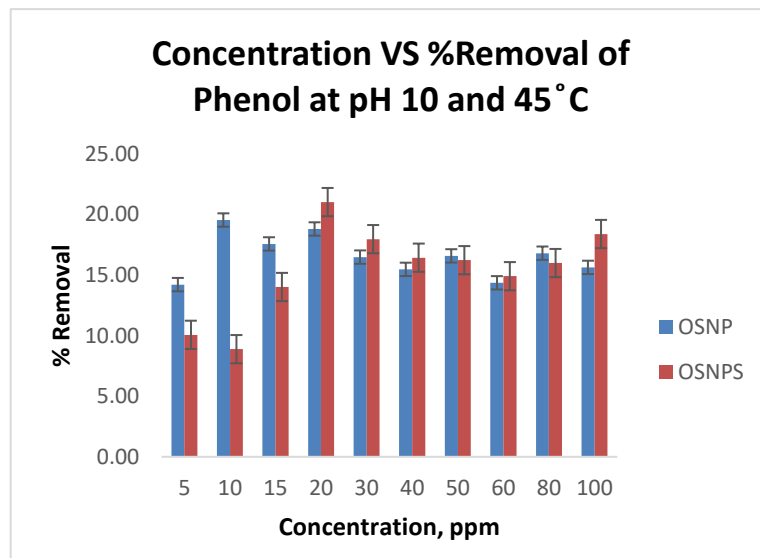
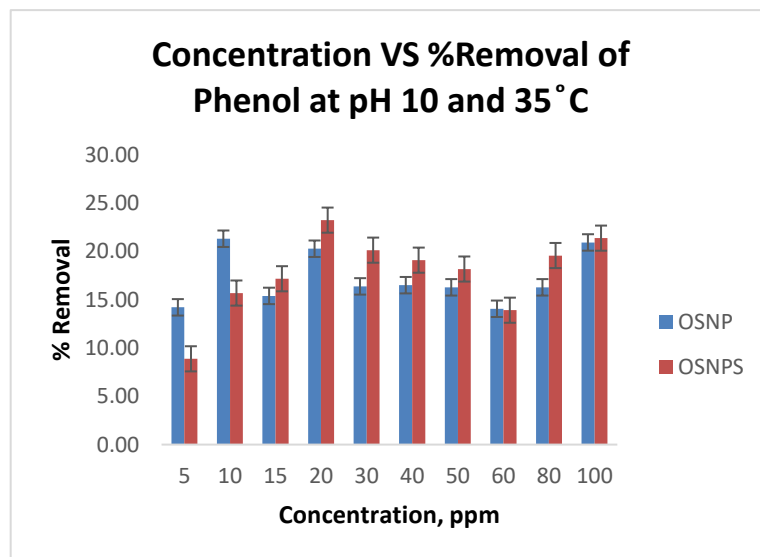
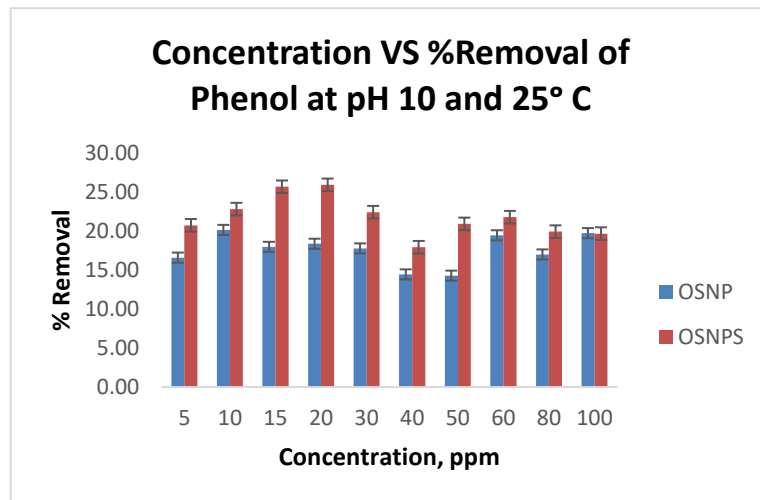


Figure 17: Adsorption capacity by the OSNP and OSNPS initial concentration at pH 10 at different temperatures.

4.2.4.3. SEM of Adsorbent After Phenol Adsorption

SEM micrograph of OSNP and OSNP-S after phenol adsorption at different pH values and temperatures are shown in Figure 18. From the SEM analysis can be seen changes in the adsorbents morphology after adsorbing phenol. The micrographs show many nonbonding agglomerates and voids, which increase in parallel with temperature. The agglomerates and nonbonding are due to strong particle-particle (electrostatic) interaction occurring on OSNP causing the detachment of unembedded particles (Cao et al., 2016; Eletta et al., 2020). In the OSNP-S micrograph at pH 10 and 25°C, regular particles with less nonbonding and voids were observed. The de-agglomeration of OSNP-S was due to surface modification, which reduces the surface energy along with a reduction in electrostatic forces of attraction. This indicates that at these conditions more adhesion of phenol on the surface of the OSNP-S occurs due to its physical characteristics, which facilitate the interaction of phenol in the active sites. Furthermore, it is recommended to accomplish this experiment at high basic pH and at room temperature.

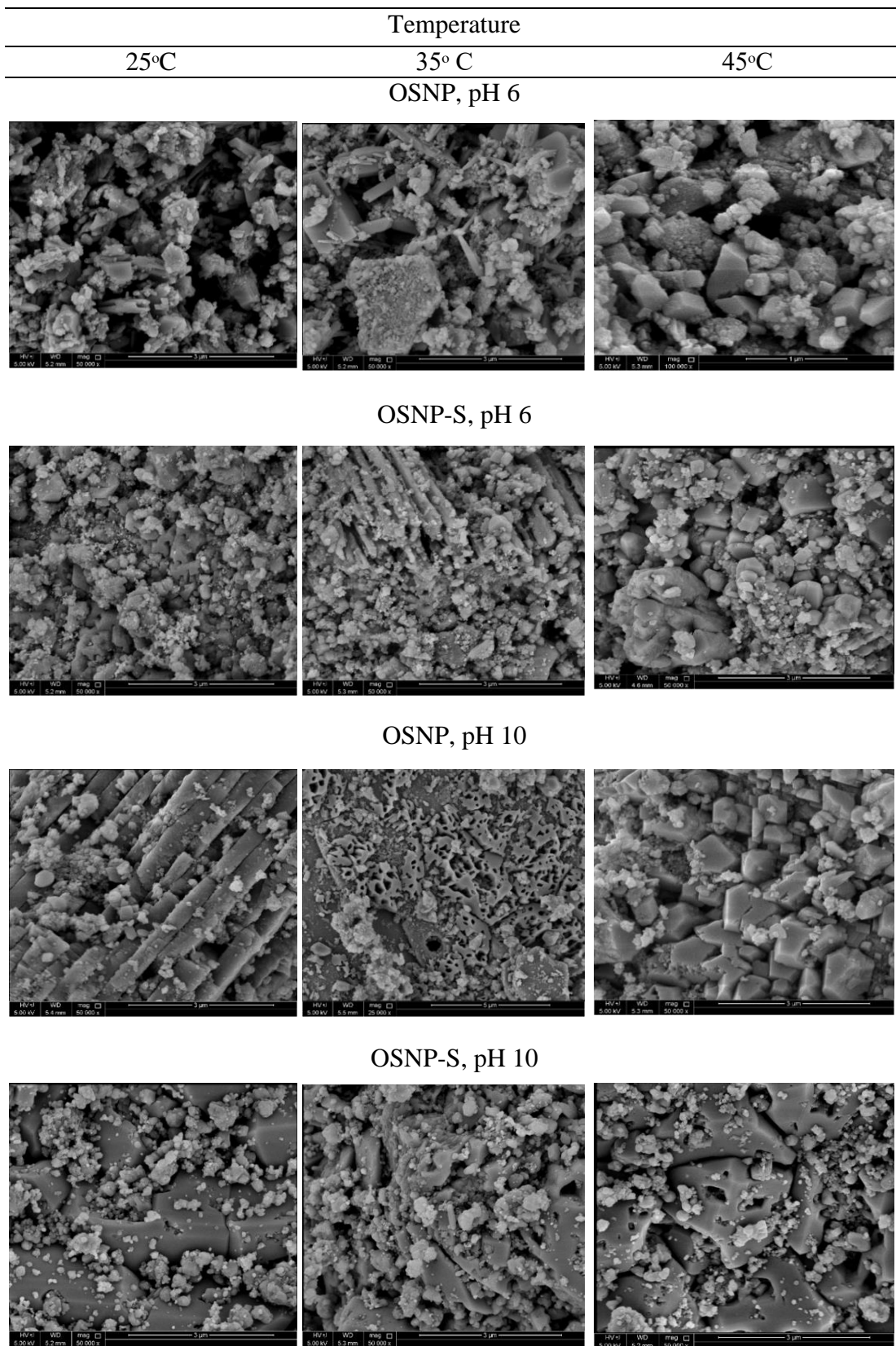
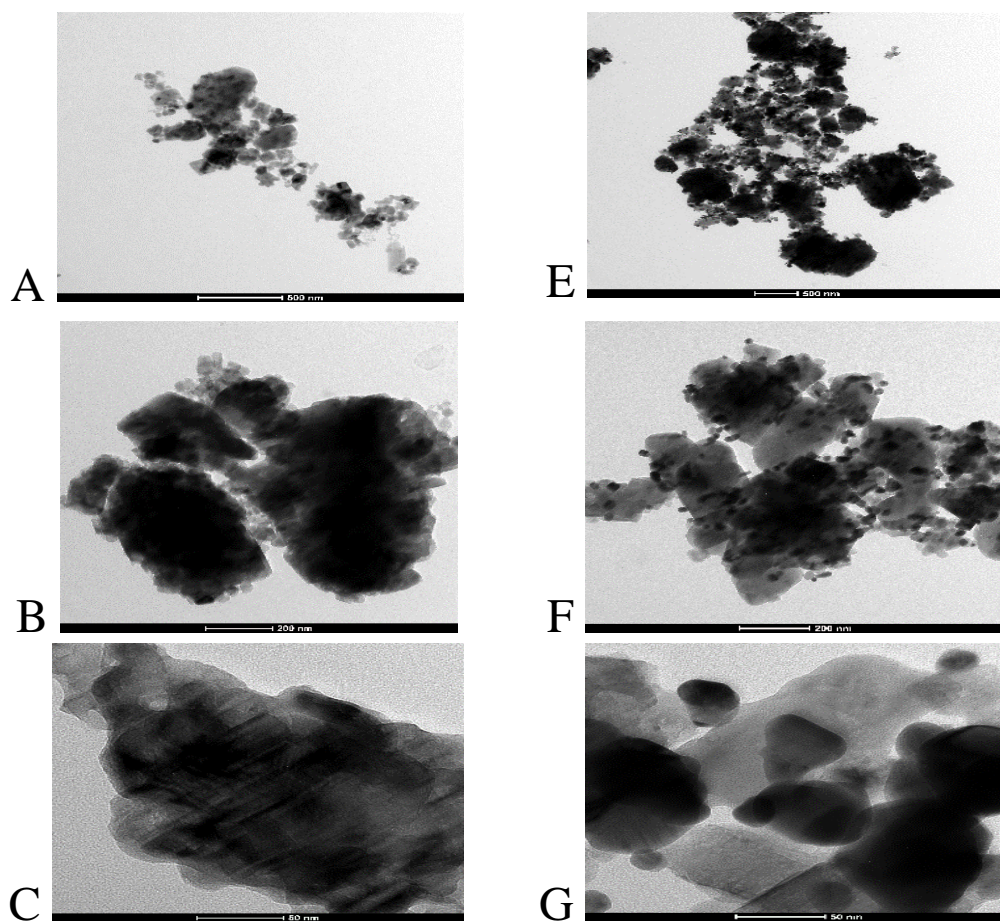


Figure 18: SEM images of higher phenol adsorption at different concentrations.

4.2.4.4. TEM of Adsorbents After Phenol Adsorption

The microstructure of OSNP and OSNP-S after phenol adsorption at pH6 and pH 10 was further observed by TEM. The images in Figures 19 and 20 show the deposit of phenol on the surface of adsorbents. The low magnification (500 nm) of TEM images indicated that OSNP-S is successfully coated with phenol more than what is seen in OSNP images, this result was proved by enlarged TEM images. To get the optimum result, it is recommended to carry on with the phenol adsorption process at high basic pH and room temperature.



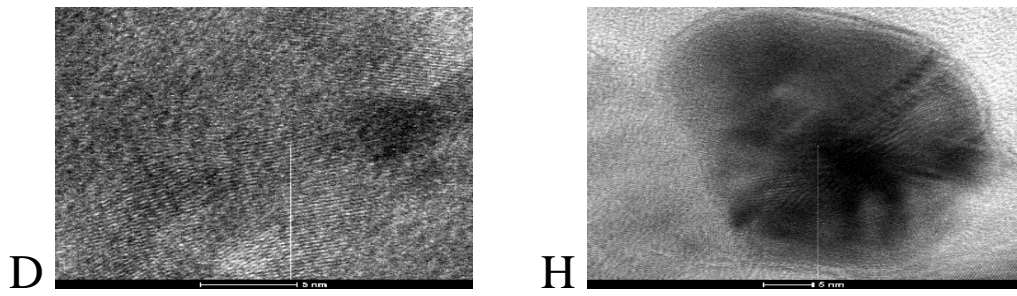


Figure 19: Low and high magnification TEM images of OSNP(A-D) and OSNP-S (E-H) at pH6 and room temperature.

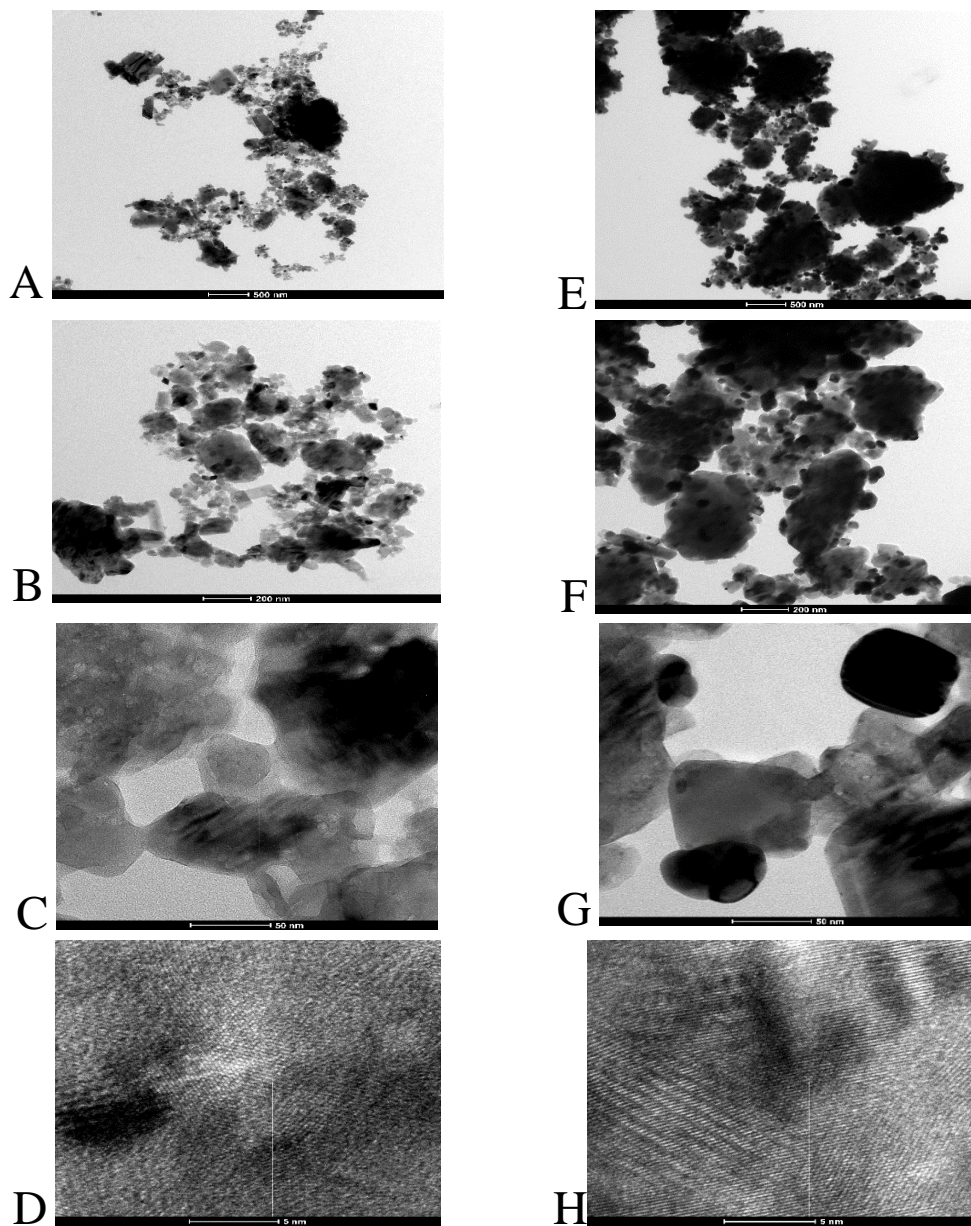


Figure 20: Low and high magnification TEM images of OSNP(A-D) and OSNP-S (E-H) at pH10 and room temperature.

4.2.4.5. FTIR of adsorbents after Phenol adsorption

To confirm the adsorption of phenol on the surface of OSNP and OSNP-S, FTIR analysis was conducted. The results in Figures 21 showed the appearance of vibration of -OH broad peak from 3000 cm^{-1} - 3700 cm^{-1} with low intensity. This range indicates the presence of an intermolecular bonded hydroxyl group (Adebayo & Areo, 2021). The -OH band is larger intensity in OSNP compared to OSNP-S due to the adsorption of phenol on OSNP was more. The appearance of very low and minute intense bands was notable between 2800 cm^{-1} - 3000 cm^{-1} , which indicates the presence of -CH bond (Piazza et al., 2019). From the FTIR spectra, the intensity of whole bands increased after phenol adsorption.

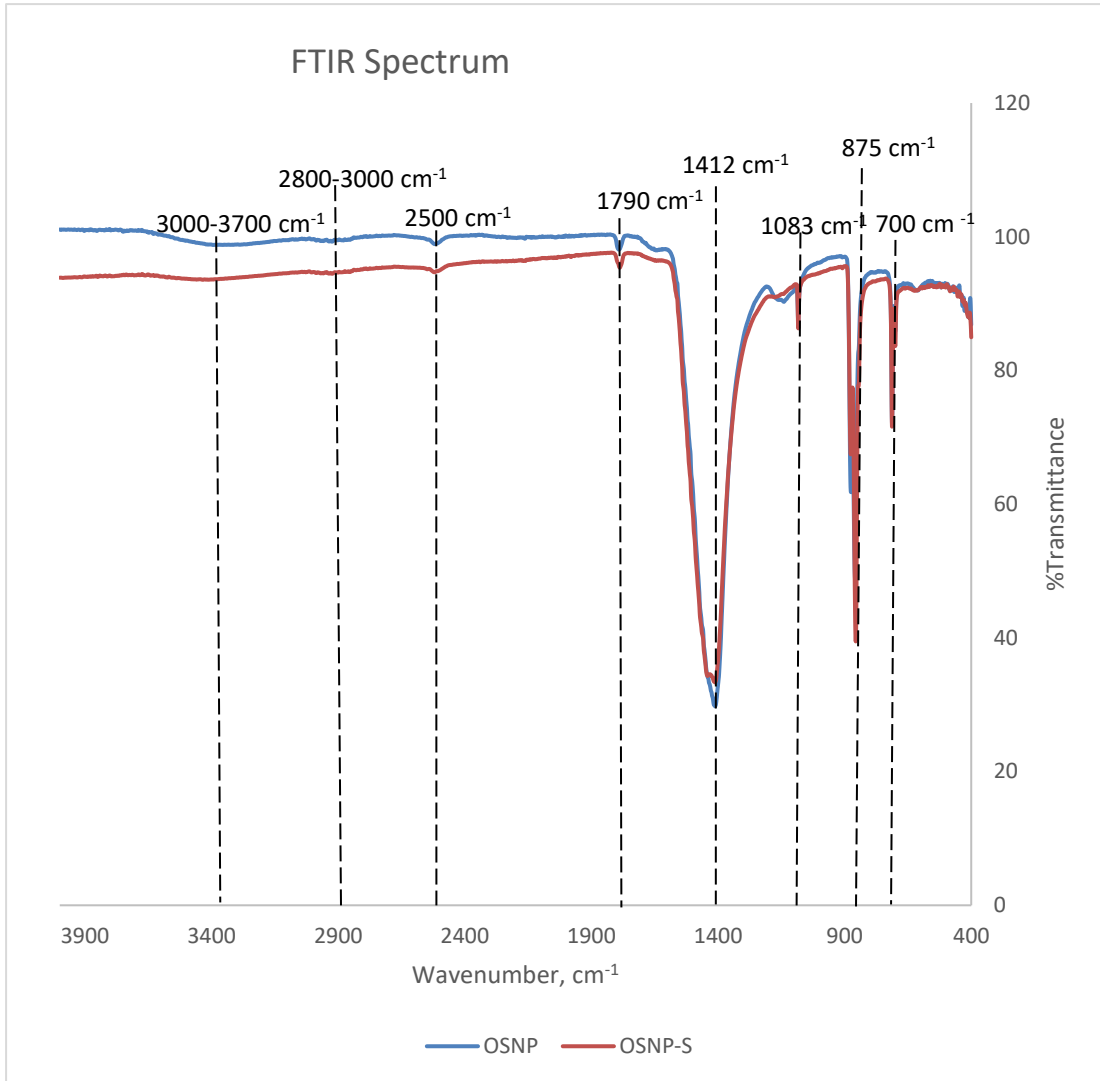


Figure 21: FTIR spectrum of OSNP and OSNP-S after phenol adsorption.

4.2.5. Adsorption of Real Phenol sample

A batch adsorption experiment was carried on for phenol removal from a real sample of olive wastewater at room temperature by using 0.05 g of OSNP and OSNP-S, 50 mL of the real sample, and shaking at 165 RPM for a duration of 24 h. The filtrate was measured by UV-spectrophotometer. Since the UV absorbance value was very high (4), hence the wastewater was diluted by dilution factor $D_F = 10$. There was no indication of phenol removal at pH 6. Hence, the experiment was conducted at pH 10 and the calculation resulted in the percent phenol removal by 16.22% and 56.78% for

OSNP and OSNP-S respectively. For OSNP-S, the removal percentage of phenol was much higher than the removal in the batch adsorption experiment. This could be due to other parameters that were available in wastewater, which enhanced the attachment of phenol to OSNP-S and furthermore made the adsorption process more effective. There are several components in olive wastewater such as sugars, phenolics, nitrogenous compounds, and organic acids along with tannins, pectins, and carotenoids (Campaniello et al., 2021). The wide range of phenolic compounds in olive wastewater is phenolic alcohols, secoiridoid derivatives, phenolic acids, lignans, flavonoid and hydroxytyrosol (La et al., 2017). (Apalangya et al., 2014) reported that calcium carbonate/Ag nanocomposite exhibits high antimicrobial activity due to its hydrophilic nature and the dispersion of +ve silver ions in an aqueous solution. This could be the reason that no phenol was removed by OSNP-S at pH 6, since the surface was occupied with the bacteria and microorganisms in the real sample. However, at pH 10, the high alkalinity leads to denaturation of the bacteria and the microorganisms, causing it to detach from the OSNP-S surface. Furthermore, allowing phenol to be absorbed on OSNP-S surface. (Tanget al., 2020) indicated that reduction of the bacteria adsorption onto the mineral surface was seen at high pH.

4.2.6. Adsorption Isotherm

To understand the adsorption mechanism of phenol by OSNP and OSNP-S, the adsorbate- adsorbent interaction should be understood in addition to the parameters of the Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin, and Dubinin-Radushkevich isotherm models. These models are useful in understanding the adsorption behavior of phenol molecules onto OSNP and OSNP-S. In the case of finding the best model for phenol adsorption on the surface of OSNP and OSNP-S, these models were tested by using the experimental data obtained from the batch adsorption experiment at different initial concentrations and

temperatures. Figures 22, 23, 24, and Table 10, show the different isotherm models used at different initial concentrations of phenol along with different temperatures and pH 6. Furthermore, Figures 25, 26, and, 27 along with Table 12, show the results at pH 10. These adsorption parameters were calculated from the slopes and intercepts of the linear plots.

4.2.6.1. Adsorption Isotherms at pH 6

Based on the results of the Langmuir model, the adsorption capacity (Q_m) of phenol on the OSNP and OSNP-S decreases with temperature. The K_L large values indicate that there is a strong interaction between adsorbate and adsorbent while a smaller value implies a weak interaction. The separation factor (R_L) value for almost all the concentrations of phenol in the Langmuir model was between 0 and 1 as shown in Table 11. This indicates that the isotherm adsorption is favorable for phenol. The R_L values were between -0.00048 and 0.968. The decrease in adsorption could be due to the diminution of the adsorptive interaction between the active sites of adsorbate and adsorbents. If $0 < R_L < 1$, the adsorption process is favorable, if $R_L = 0$, the process is irreversible, if $R_L = 1$ then the process is linear (depends on the amount and the concentration adsorbed), if $R > 1$, then the process is unfavorable and most desorption occur (Gouamid et al., 2013). On other hand, the coefficient of determination R^2 of the Freundlich adsorption isotherm model showed the best equilibrium data for Phenol adsorption on the surfaces of OSNP and OSNP-S. The results of $1/n$ were less than one in most of the data calculated, indicating and proving the surface heterogeneity. The closer to zero the more heterogeneous (Inthapanya et al., 2019). The favorable adsorption process in Freundlich adsorption isotherm is when $0 < 1/n < 1$, and a cooperative adsorption process occurs when $1/n > 1$. Furthermore, if $n = 1$ then there is a linear adsorption process occurring, if $n > 1$, then physical interaction adsorption

process occurring, and if $n < 1$, then chemical interaction adsorption processing (Ragadhita et al., 2021). The results of almost all the concentrations indicated $n > 1$, which is evidence of a favorable adsorption process with physical interaction. In Temkin isotherm, the adsorption heat constant (B_T) is positive and less than 8 KJ/mol for all samples, which proves that the adsorption process is endothermic and occurs physically (Ragadhita et al., 2021; Ugraskan et al., 2022).

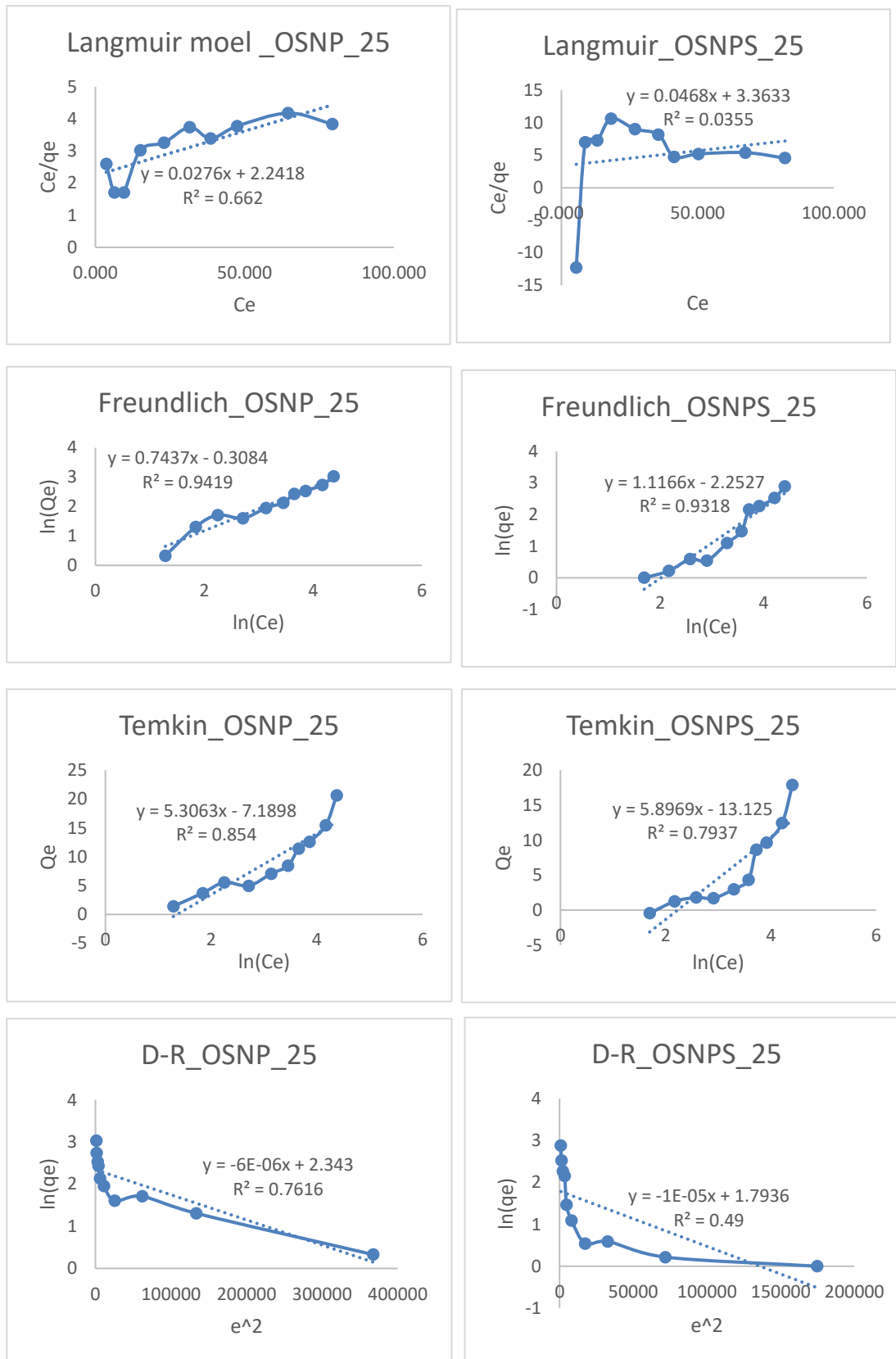


Figure 22: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 25°C and pH 6.

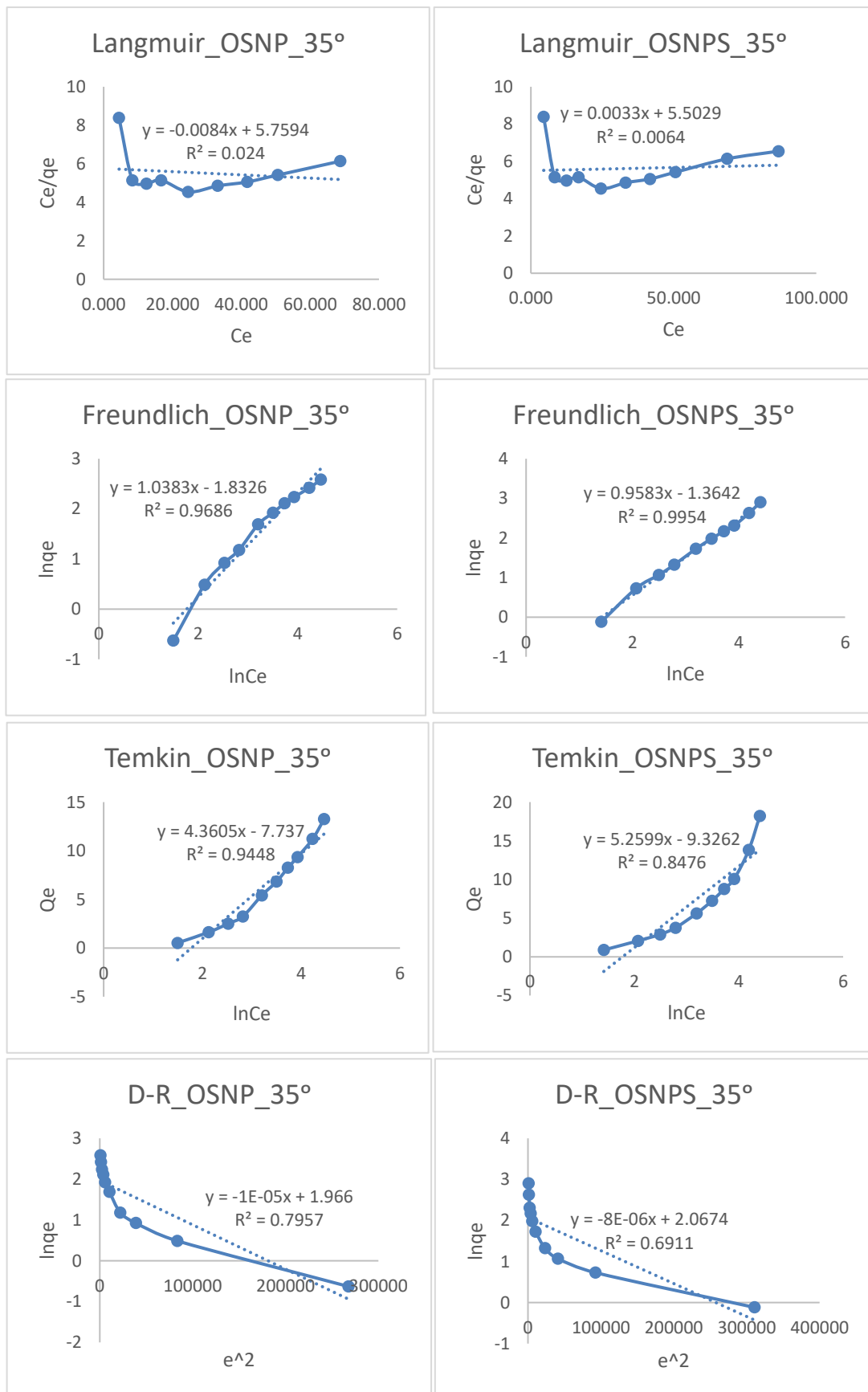


Figure 23: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 35°C and pH 6.

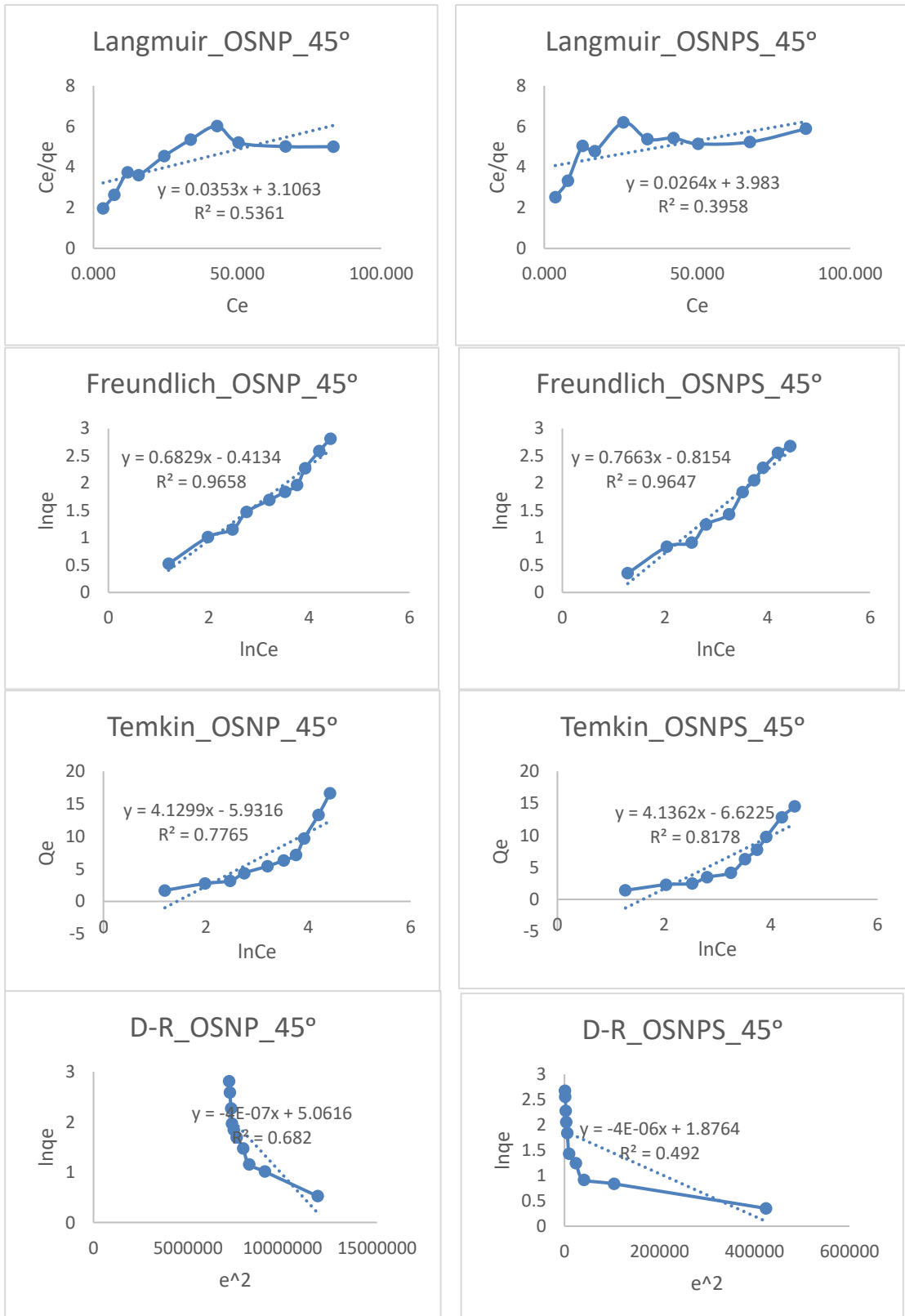


Figure 24: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 45°C and pH 6.

Table 10: Different Isotherm Parameters of the Phenol Adsorption onto OSNP and OSNP-S at 25 °C, 35 °C and 45 °C (w = 0.05 g, V = 50 mL, pH 6, 165 rpm, agitation time 24 hr).

Model	Parameter	25°C		35°C		45°C	
Langmuir		OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS
	Q _m (mg/g)	0.4461	0.2973	0.1736	0.1817	0.3219	0.2511
	K _L (L/mg)	16.162	6.3531	-20.670	55.067	9.1197	9.5101
	R ²	0.662	0.0355	0.024	0.0064	0.5361	0.3958
Freundlich							
	K _F (mg ^(1-1/n) *L ^(1/n) /g)	1.3613	0.1051	6.2501	0.2556	0.6614	0.4425
	1/n	0.7437	1.1166	1.0383	0.9583	0.6829	0.7663
	n	1.3446	0.8956	0.9631	1.0435	1.4643	1.3050
	R ²	0.9419	0.9318	0.9686	0.9954	0.9658	0.9647
Temkin							
	Bt(J/mol)	5.3063	5.8969	4.3605	5.2599	4.1299	4.1362
	At(L/mg)	0.2580	0.1080	0.1696	0.1698	0.2378	0.2017
	R ²	0.854	0.7937	0.9448	0.8476	0.7765	0.8178
Dubinin- Radushkevich							
	Q _{D-R} (mg/g)	10.4124	6.01105	7.14205	7.90425	157.843	6.5300
	E _{D-R} (KJ/mol)	288.675	223.607	223.607	250.000	1118.03	353.553
	R ²	0.7616	0.49	0.7957	0.6911	0.682	0.492

Table 11: Separation Factor (R_L) at Different Initial Concentrations, Temperatures and at pH 6.

C_0 (ppm)	R_L					
	25°C		35°C		45°C	
	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS
5	0.012223	0.030520	-0.00977	0.597688	0.021460	0.020597
10	0.006149	0.015496	-0.00486	0.747034	0.010846	0.010406
15	0.004108	0.010385	-0.00324	0.815518	0.007257	0.006961
20	0.003084	0.007809	-0.00242	0.854821	0.005453	0.005230
30	0.002058	0.005219	-0.00162	0.898198	0.003642	0.003493
40	0.001544	0.003920	-0.00121	0.921617	0.002734	0.002622
50	0.001236	0.003138	-0.00097	0.936277	0.002188	0.002099
60	0.001030	0.002617	-0.00081	0.946317	0.001824	0.001749
80	0.000773	0.001964	-0.00061	0.959180	0.001369	0.001313
100	0.000618	0.001572	-0.00048	0.967070	0.001095	0.001050

4.2.6.2. Adsorption Isotherms at pH 10

At pH 10 and as shown in Table 12, the results of the Langmuir model showed that the adsorption capacity (Q_m) of phenol on the surface of OSNP was almost constant whereas, for OSNP-S decreases in Q_m with temperature was noticed. At higher K_L a strong interaction between adsorbate and adsorbent is indicated while a smaller value indicates a weak interaction. The separation factor (R_L) value for almost all the concentrations of phenol in the Langmuir model was less than one ($R_L < 1$). Hence, the isotherm adsorption is favorable for phenol (Gouamid et al., 2013). The coefficient of determination R^2 of the Freundlich adsorption isotherm model showed the best equilibrium data for Phenol adsorption on the surfaces of OSNP and OSNP-S. The R^2 Freundlich adsorption isotherm model ranged from 0.9468 to 0.9832 and the second best R^2 value was in the Temkin model (0.7301-0.8854). Furthermore, the results of $1/n$

were less than one in most of the data calculated, indicating and proving the surface heterogeneity and favorability of the adsorption process (Inthapanya et al., 2019). For n values, the results of almost all the concentrations indicated $n > 1$, which is evidence of a favorable adsorption process with physical interaction (Ragadhita et al., 2021). In Temkin isotherm, the adsorption heat constant (B_T) is positive and less than 8 KJ/mol for all samples, which proves that the adsorption process is endothermic and occurs physically (Ragadhita et al., 2021; Ugraskan et al., 2022). As far as the OSNP-S as an adsorbent, we have not found any study that embedded silver on oyster shell surface for phenol removal. However, the maximum adsorption capacity of phenol on OSNP and OSNP-S at both pH values 6 and 10 were low compared to other adsorbents used in different studies presented in Table 14. Furthermore, the Q_m results were close to a previous study done on the Oyster shell (Chitosan)/TiO₂ nanocomposite which, had a low adsorption capacity of 1.699 mg/g for phenol at 25° C (Etimet al., 2015).

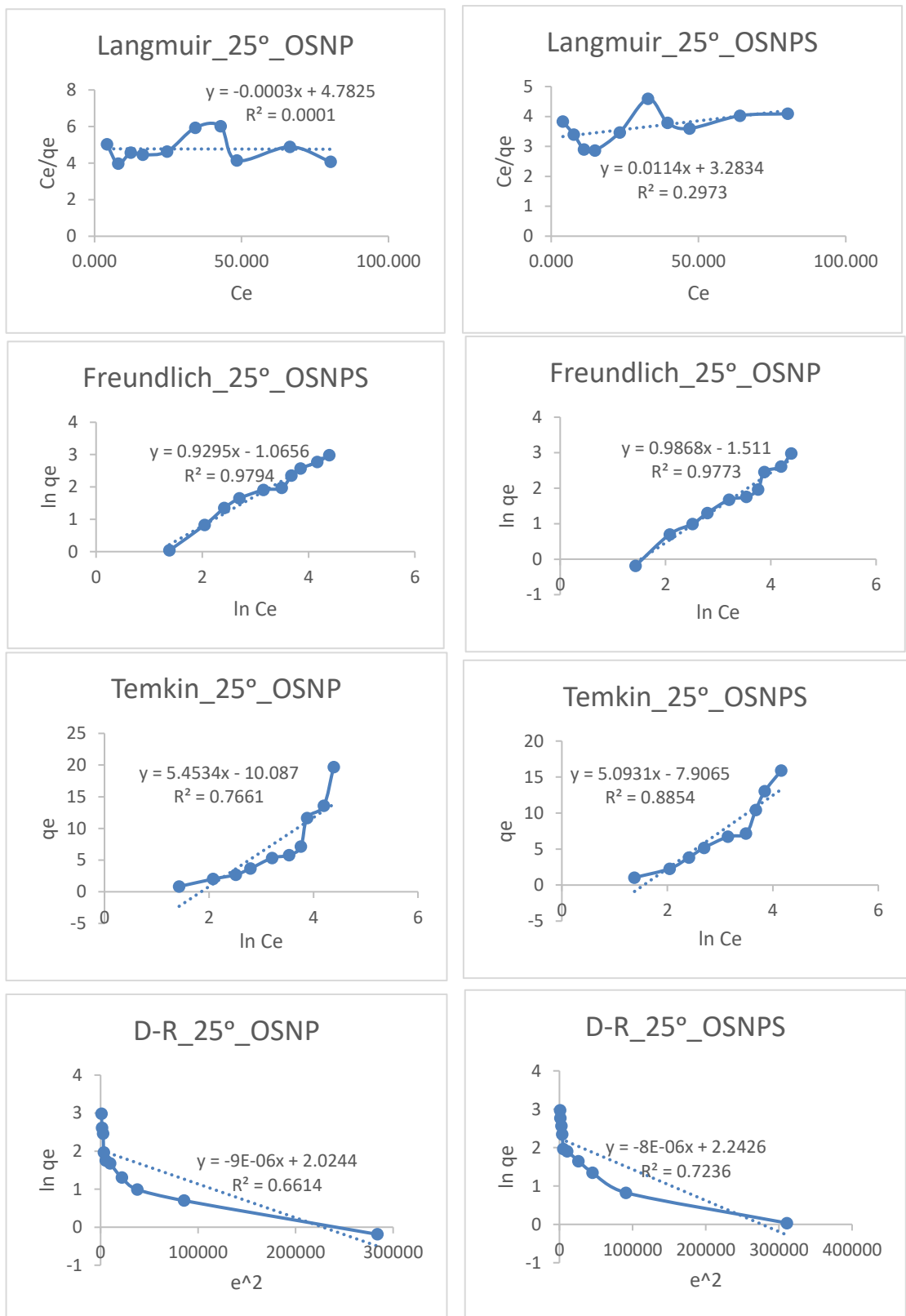


Figure 25: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 25°C and pH 10.

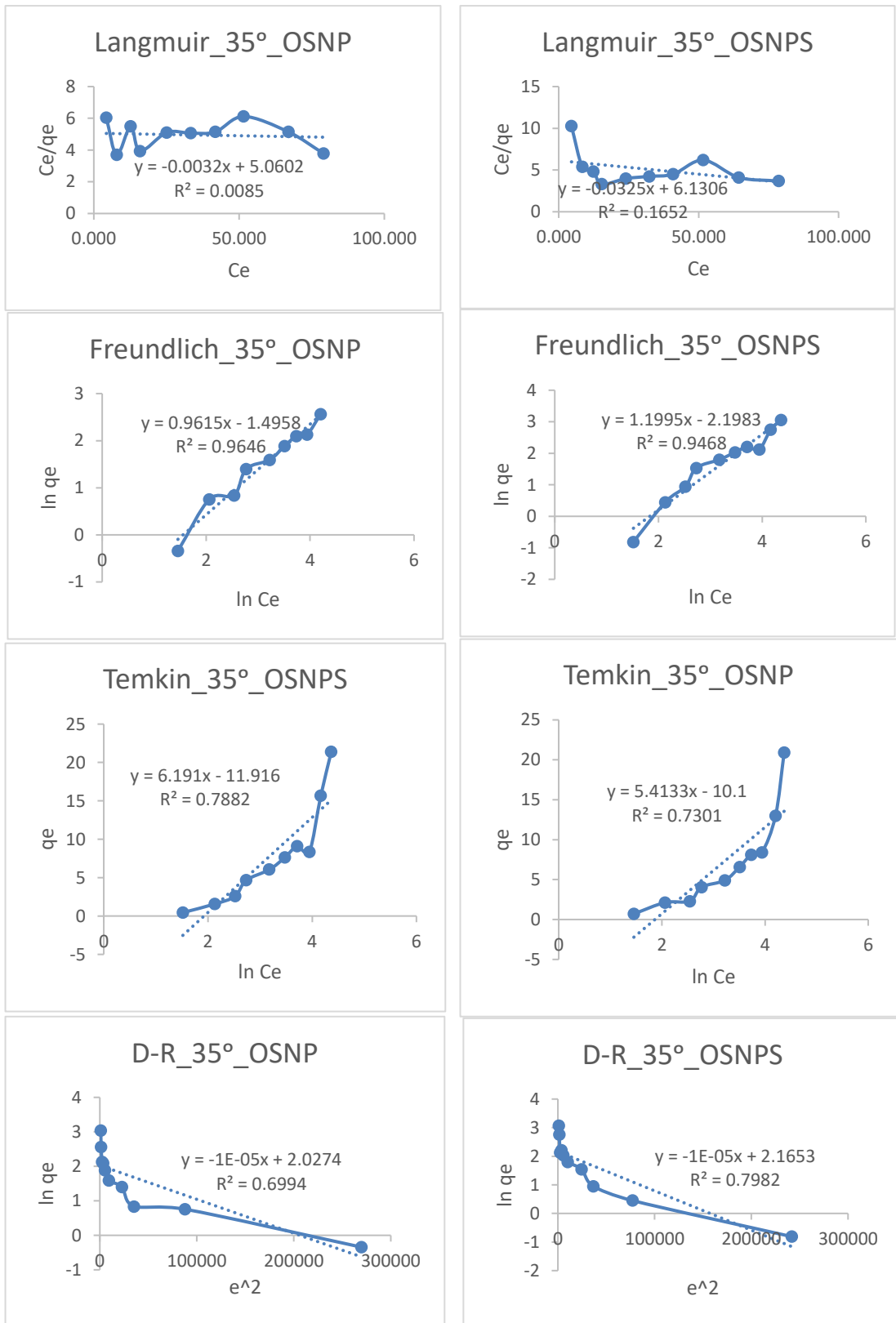


Figure 26: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 35°C and pH 10.

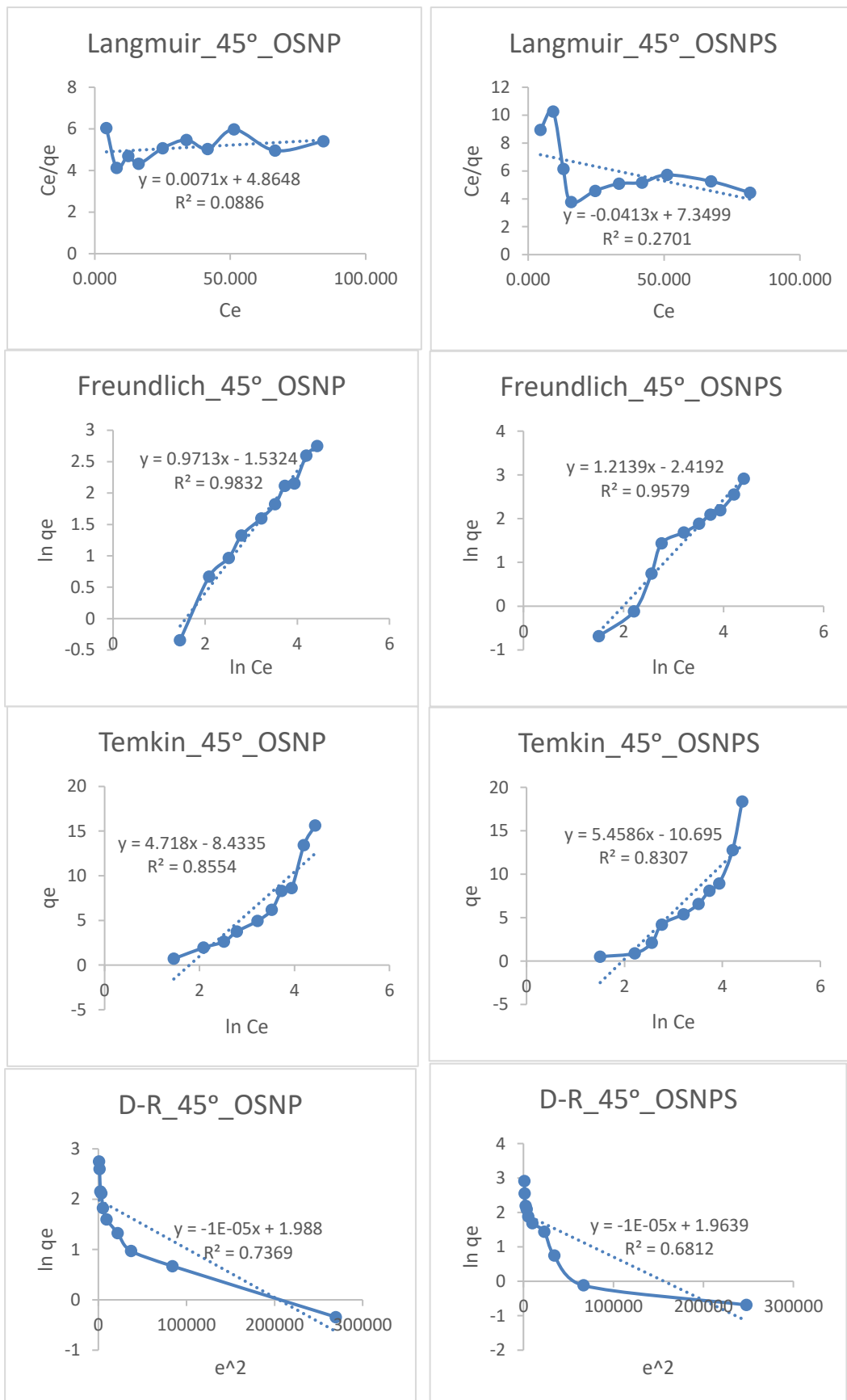


Figure 27: Adsorption isothermal graphs for OSNP and OSNP-S at initial concentrations, 45°C and pH 10.

Table 12: Different Isotherm Parameters of the Phenol Adsorption onto OSNP and OSNP-S at 25 °C, 35 °C and 45 °C (w = 0.05 g, V = 50 mL, pH 10, 165 rpm).

Model	Parameter	25°C		35°C		45°C	
		OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS
Langmuir	Q _m (mg/g)	0.2091	0.3046	0.1976	0.1631	0.2056	0.1361
	K _L (L/mg)	-696.986	26.716	-61.757	-5.019	28.952	-3.294
	R ²	0.0001	0.2973	0.0085	0.1652	0.6886	0.2701
Freundlich	K _F (mg ^(1-1/n) *L ^(1/n) /g)	0.2207	0.3445	0.2241	0.1110	0.2160	0.0890
	1/n	0.9868	0.9295	0.9615	1.1995	0.9713	1.2139
	n	1.0134	1.0759	1.0409	0.8337	1.0296	0.8238
	R ²	0.9773	0.9794	0.9646	0.9468	0.9832	0.9579
Temkin	Bt(J/mol)	5.4534	5.0931	5.4133	6.1910	4.7180	5.4586
	At(L/mg)	0.1573	0.2117	0.1548	0.1459	0.1674	0.1410
	R ²	0.7661	0.8854	0.7301	0.7882	0.8554	0.8307
Dubinin-Radushkevich	Q _{D-R}	7.5716	9.4178	7.5943	8.7172	7.3009	7.1271
	E _{D-R}	235.702	250.000	223.607	223.607	223.607	223.607
	R ²	0.6614	0.7236	0.6999	0.7982	0.7369	0.6812

Table 13: Separation Factor (R_L) at Different Initial Concentrations, Temperatures and at pH 10.

C_o ,(ppm)	R_L					
	25°		35°		45°	
	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS	OSNP	OSNPS
5	-0.00029	0.007431	-0.00325	0.998561	0.006861	-0.06463
10	-0.00014	0.003729	-0.00162	0.99928	0.003442	-0.03131
20	-7.2E-05	0.001868	-0.00081	0.99964	0.001724	-0.01541
30	-4.8E-05	0.001246	-0.00054	0.99976	0.00115	-0.01022
40	-3.6E-05	0.000935	-0.0004	0.99982	0.000863	-0.00765
50	-2.9E-05	0.000748	-0.00032	0.999856	0.00069	-0.00611
60	-2.4E-05	0.000623	-0.00027	0.99988	0.000575	-0.00508
80	-1.8E-05	0.000468	-0.0002	0.99991	0.000432	-0.00381
100	-1.4E-05	0.000374	-0.00016	0.999928	0.000345	-0.00304

Table 14: Comparison of Maximum Adsorption Capacity (Q_m) of Phenol on Different Adsorbents.

Adsorbent	Q_m (mg/g)	Temperature (°C)	pH	Reference
OSNP	0.4461	25	6	Current study
OSNP-S	0.2973	25	6	Current study
OSNP	0.2091	25	10	Current study
OSNP-S	0.3046	25	10	Current study
Activated Clay	15.00	23	5	(Djebbaret al., 2012)
Diphenyldiquinoline	15.15	25	4	(Al-trawneh et al., 2021)
Activated carbon/Iron	20	25	7	(Majid et al., 2019)
Fly ash	142.86	25	8	(Sharan et al., 2009)
Coconut shell -clay	1665	25	2	(Adebayo & Areo, 2021)
Oystershell (Chitosan)/TiO ₂	1.699	25	6	(Etim et al., 2015)
Seaweed (Saragassum sp.)	82.1	25	10	(Navarro et al., 2016)
(Chaetomorpha)	17.7			

4.2.7. Thermodynamics

Adsorption thermodynamics were plotted in graphs representing temperature (Kelvin) Vs ΔG° (KJ/mol) (Figure 28). The values of energy change (ΔG°), standard enthalpy (ΔH°), and standard molar entropy (ΔS°) at pH 6 and pH 10 are given in Table 15. ΔG° was calculated from van't Hoff equation whereas; ΔH° and ΔS° were indicated from the intercept and slope of the graphs respectively. The ΔG° values were in negative sign, indicating that the adsorption process is thermodynamically feasible, spontaneous, and chemically controlled in all temperatures and pH conditions 6 and 10. The ΔH° and ΔS° values for OSNP at pH 6 were -20.42 and 0.0525 KJ mol⁻¹ respectively. The negative sign of ΔH° indicates that the nature of the adsorption process is exothermic while the positive value of ΔS° indicates the increase in disorder at the adsorbate-adsorbent interface during the adsorption process. At pH 6 values of the thermodynamic parameters of OSNP-S, ΔH° and ΔS° were 14.23 and -0.0687 KJ mol⁻¹ respectively. The adsorption process was endothermic due to the positive ΔH° value whereas, the negativity of ΔS° represents the decrease in the adsorption process randomness and the reduced confusion at solid-solution interface (Dehmani et al., 2020). At pH 10, the thermodynamic parameters for OSNP and OSNP-S had opposite signs of the values indicated in pH 6. For OSNP, ΔH° and ΔS° were 134.1 and -0.4449 KJ mol⁻¹ respectively and for OSNP-S, the values were -128.1 kJ mol⁻¹ and 0.4070 kJ mol⁻¹. The results showed scattered points due to the non stable bonding occurring during the adsorption and desorption process. In (Daraei et al., 2013) study, the thermodynamic parameters results for the adsorption of phenol on eggshell (calcium carbonate) at different temperatures indicated that the adsorption was spontaneous, feasible and undergoes an exothermic process. Furthermore, the adsorption was indicated physical in nature.

Table 15: Thermodynamics Parameters Results of OSNP and OSNP-S at pH 6 and pH 10.

Adsorbent	pH	T (K)	ΔG° (KJ mol ⁻¹)	ΔH° (KJ mol ⁻¹)	ΔS° (KJ mol ⁻¹)
OSNP	6	298	-6.894		
		308	0	-20.42	0.0525
		318	-5.844		
OSNP-S	6	298	-4.581		
		308	-10.265	14.23	-0.0687
		318	-5.955		
OSNP	10	298	0		
		308	0	134.1	-0.4449
		318	-8.898		
OSNP-S	10	298	-8.140		
		308	0	-128.1	0.4070
		318	0		

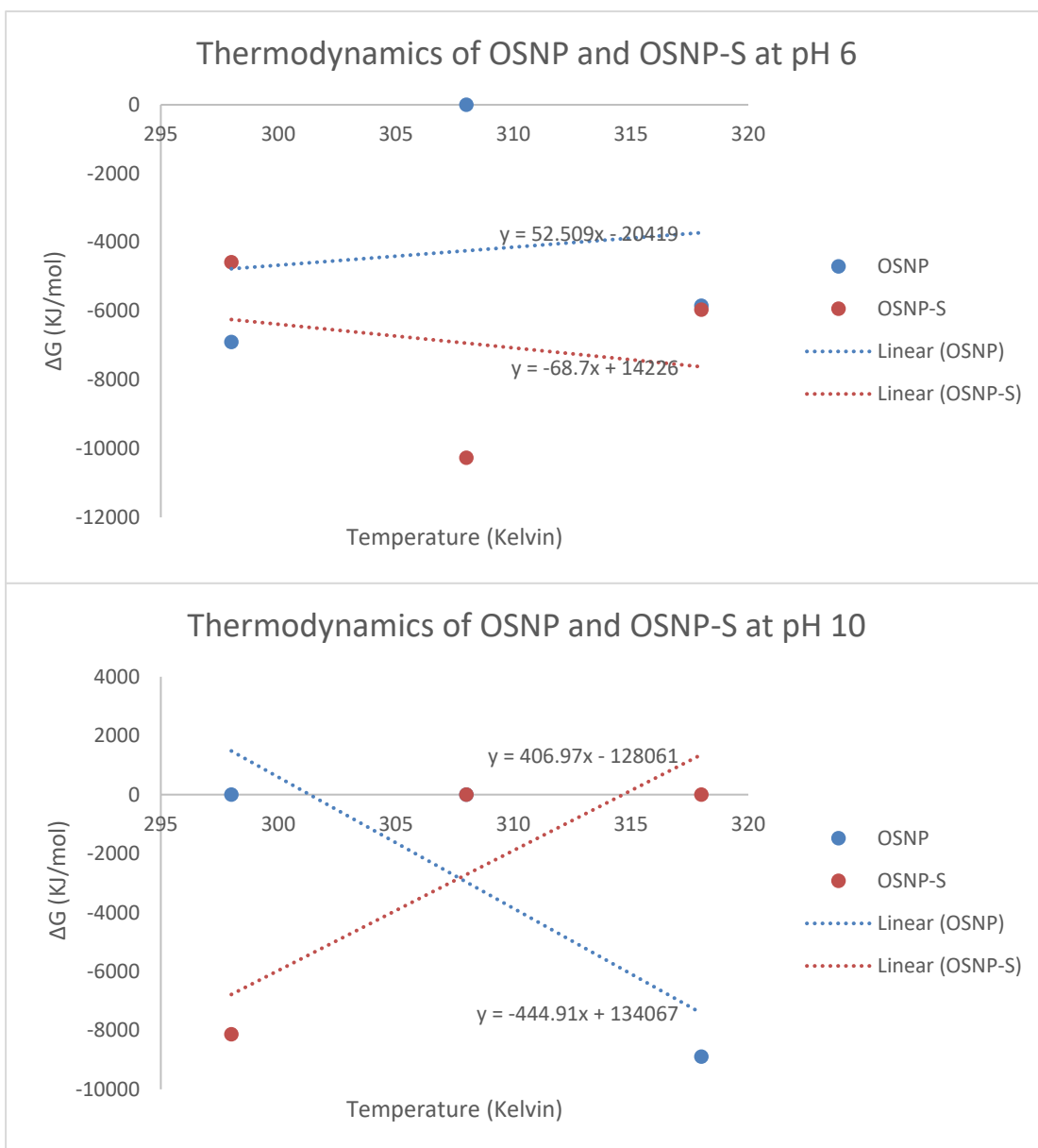


Figure 28: Thermodynamics graphs of OSNP and OSNP-S at pH 6 and pH 10.

4.2.8. Reusability of Adsorbent - Desorption Studies

The desorption phenomenon is the release of a substance from or through a surface. The process is the opposite of sorption (adsorption or absorption). The adsorbents used in adsorption processes get saturated by time due to occupying all adsorption sites, hence, the adsorption reaches equilibrium, gets totally inactive, and is stated as exhausted and spent. To overcome the spent adsorbent problem, the

regeneration process is used. Desorption breaks the bond between adsorbent-adsorbate in ease to liberate adsorbate from solution. (Patel, 2021). Desorption should be compared to adsorption performed under the same parameters and conditions of solution composition and ionic strength in term to predict fixation, which adsorbate equate with non-exchangeability (Baveye & Steenhuis, 2004). In phenol desorption, phenol is released from loaded OSNP-S by contact with NaOH or HCl solutions. The results of desorption of phenol with 0.1 M NaOH and 0.1 M HCl were 97.44% and 98.64% respectively. The high phenol removal by NaOH and HCl solutions indicates that by converting phenol molecules into phenolate anions, the adsorbed phenol would be easily desorbed (Aklet al., 2014). As mentioned earlier, we have not found any study regarding oyster shell/silver nanocomposite for phenol removal. However, in an adsorption study of phenol on polymer surface (Ghafariet al., 2019), the phenol desorption with NaOH was 86% recovery. Whereas (Mojoudi et al., 2019), reported that the NaOH solution had better regeneration performance compared to the HCl solution and this was explained by the fact of formation of soluble salt $C_6H_5O^-Na^+$ which, eases the desorption of phenol from the adsorbent.

4.2.9. Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis results of data two-way ANOVA without replication for testing the phenol concentrations and temperature effect on the adsorption process showed that at pH 6 the temperature significant effect for both OSNP and OSNP-S ($p < 0.05$) whereas, the concentration was not significant ($p > 0.05$). At pH 10, concentration had a significance effect on both adsorbents and temperature had a significant effect only on OSNP-S.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

In this paper and for the first time in the Arabian Gulf region, the Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* was used as a bio-indicator of phenol pollution.

The first objective was to investigate the ecotoxicity and monitor the activity of some biomarkers of oxidative stress such as Catalase (CAT) and Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) for the Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* organs such as the gills and the digestive gland under different increasing concentrations of phenol. Hence, fresh adult Pearl oysters *Pinctada imbricata radiata* were maintained in the laboratory in 15 aquaria in natural conditions of permanent aeration, at 25°C, 40 psu salinity, and 12:12 photoperiod. Then, after acclimation, the oysters were exposed to different concentrations of phenols (1, 2, 5, and 10 ppm), during 96h in triplicates versus control (0 ppm). To characterize our pearl oyster population from Al-Wakra oyster beds, the biometric analysis of individual shell size and weights, showed that the dominated size class was (4.5-5.5 cm) length with 70% of the population. Furthermore, the biometric relations (length, width, and height versus weight) between size classes of *Pinctada imbricata radiata* showed negative allometric growth. The Total proteins values decreased over time but there were no significant differences between the total proteins averaged values (p-value > 0.001) as commonly there are no big changes for this parameter due to the fast imposed to the pearl oyster during the 96h experiment. CAT and SOD enzymatic activities for both gills and digestive glands showed an increase in values compared to the control organisms with positive impact and there is a significant difference with a p-value < 0.001 in all cases when we consider the phenol treatment (concentration) the time of exposure and both treatment and time combined. These results indicated that Pearl oyster *Pinctada imbricata radiata* is an excellent bioindicator of phenol pollution and should be used for other pollutants indicator and

in marine environmental pollution monitoring programs as other bivalves such as the mussels, *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and the Pacific giant oyster, *Cassostrea gigas* (Opiyo et al., 2021; Vilhena et al., 2021).

The second objective was to use silver-impregnated oyster shell nanoparticles OSNP-S as a novel technique for the detoxification of phenol from water. Pearl oyster shell nanoparticles (OSNP) were prepared by a simple Ball-milling process and then impregnated with silver. A Batch system was used to carry out the adsorption study at different pH values, temperature, and initial phenol concentrations. The Phenol intake level was measured by the Ultra Violet-Visible spectroscopy method. The physical and chemical characterization of both OSNP and OSNP-S were determined with Scan Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometer (FTIR). To study the surface area, pore radius, and pore volume, Brunauer, Emmett, & Teller (BET) and Transmission electron microscope (TEM) were used. Batch adsorption isotherms (Langmuir isotherm, Freundlich isotherm, Temkin isotherm, and Dubinin-Radushkevich isotherm models) were used to study the efficiency of the adsorbents in removing phenol and to describe the adsorbent-adsorbate interaction system. The results indicated that BET surface area, Langmuir surface area, and pore volume of the OSNP was the highest. The batch analysis that was conducted at pH 6 were in favor of OSNP in term of adsorbing the highest amount of phenol from the aqueous solutions at different concentrations. However, at pH 10, the removal results were in favor of OSNP-S. The highest phenol removal occurred at room temperature. Furthermore, the highest phenol removal of real olive wastewater was at pH 10 and the room temperature was by OSNP-S (56.78%). Based on adsorption isotherm models, the values of the coefficient of determination R^2 of the Freundlich adsorption isotherm model showed the best equilibrium data for Phenol adsorption on the surfaces of OSNP and OSNP-S.

The results of $1/n$ were less than one in most of the data calculated, indicating and proving the surface heterogeneity and favorability of the adsorption process whereas, the n values ($n > 1$) indicated the physical interaction adsorption process. The adsorption thermodynamics parameter ΔG° values, were in negative sign, indicating that the adsorption process is thermodynamically feasible, spontaneous, and chemically controlled in all temperatures and both pH conditions 6 and 10. At pH 6 values of the thermodynamic parameters of OSNP-S, indicated that the adsorption process was endothermic due to the positive ΔH° value whereas, the negativity of ΔS° represents the decrease in the adsorption process randomness and the reduced confusion at solid-solution interface. At pH 10, the thermodynamic parameters for OSNP and OSNP-S had opposite signs of the values indicated in pH 6. The statistical analysis results of data two-way ANOVA showed that at pH 10 both concentration and temperature had a significant effect on the phenol removal by OSNP-S ($p < 0.05$). Since the current study indicated an increase in oxidative stress that could affect pearl oysters *Pinctada imbricata radiata* that could lead to their disease or mortality, it is recommended to conduct more studies to further examine the effects of phenol on *Pinctada imbricata radiata*. Moreover, the endemic pearl oyster should be considered as a key species in marine pollution coastal monitoring programs and ecotoxicological studies in Qatar seawaters and at a regional scale in the Arabian Gulf. Furthermore, since there are minute studies regarding the phenol removal by the oyster shell nanoparticles and oyster shell/silver hence, more studies on the adsorption of phenol by oyster shell are needed.

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APPENDIX

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Gills Total protein

SUMMARY	0 h	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Total
<i>0 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	125.9	123.5	118.9	104.8	91.1	564.2
Average	20.98333	20.58333	19.81667	17.46667	15.18333	18.80667
Variance	0.213667	0.233667	0.373667	0.118667	0.389667	5.161333
<i>1 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	127.8	124.3	118.6	103.7	90	564.4
Average	21.3	20.71667	19.76667	17.28333	15	18.81333
Variance	0.332	0.181667	0.566667	0.153667	0.396	5.990851
<i>2 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	130.1	125.3	121.5	101.6	89.9	568.4
Average	21.68333	20.88333	20.25	16.93333	14.98333	18.94667
Variance	1.285667	0.393667	0.271	0.102667	0.165667	7.148092
<i>5 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	125.1	124.4	120.6	101.1	88	559.2
Average	20.85	20.73333	20.1	16.85	14.66667	18.64
Variance	0.423	0.398667	0.436	0.311	0.526667	6.64869
<i>10 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	127.9	127.8	120.4	103	88.6	567.7
Average	21.31667	21.3	20.06667	17.16667	14.76667	18.92333
Variance	0.349667	1.244	0.446667	0.170667	0.650667	7.330816
<i>Total</i>						
Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	636.8	625.3	600	514.2	447.6	
Average	21.22667	20.84333	20	17.14	14.92	
Variance	0.536506	0.485989	0.395172	0.200414	0.401655	

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
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Treatment	1.774933	4	0.443733	1.094557	0.362254	2.444174
Time	879.3163	4	219.8291	542.2523	6.29E-78	2.444174
Treatment × Time	6.1224	16	0.38265	0.943883	0.521786	1.725034
Within	50.675	125	0.4054			
Total	937.8886	149				

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Digestive glands Total protein

SUMMARY	0 h	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Total
<i>0 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	287.8	289.6	283.1	259.7	249.1	1369.3
Average	47.96667	48.26667	47.18333	43.28333	41.51667	45.64333
Variance	1.954667	2.854667	2.341667	1.301667	0.753667	9.294264
<i>1 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	293	282	277.3	261.6	249	1362.9
Average	48.83333	47	46.21667	43.6	41.5	45.43
Variance	4.962667	2.24	1.661667	0.32	0.356	8.56769
<i>2 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	284.1	289.9	281.8	264	251.9	1371.7
Average	47.35	48.31667	46.96667	44	41.98333	45.72333
Variance	0.279	5.613667	6.674667	2.324	2.037667	8.685989
<i>5 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	292.5	286.2	276.2	262.2	246.3	1363.4
Average	48.75	47.7	46.03333	43.7	41.05	45.44667
Variance	1.671	6.66	6.834667	1.384	2.059	11.21844
<i>10 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	276.6	286.8	276.6	256.3	244	1340.3
Average	46.1	47.8	46.1	42.71667	40.66667	44.67667
Variance	0.404	3.04	4.32	1.997667	2.138667	9.030126
<i>Total</i>						
Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	1434	1434.5	1395	1303.8	1240.3	
Average	47.8	47.81667	46.5	43.46	41.34333	

Variance 2.651724 3.753161 4.00069 1.460414 1.474954

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Treatment	20.66293	4	5.165733	1.951258	0.106067	2.444174
Time	990.8743	4	247.7186	93.57098	1.23E-36	2.444174
Treatment × Time	35.30107	16	2.206317	0.833394	0.645877	1.725034
Within	330.9233	125	2.647387			
Total	1377.762	149				

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Gills CAT

SUMMARY	0 h	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Total
<i>0 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	346	343.7	345.7	344	348	1727.4
Average	57.66667	57.28333	57.61667	57.33333	58	57.58
Variance	2.394667	1.397667	1.193667	0.802667	0.572	1.165793
<i>1 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	346.4	346.5	360.5	393.5	420.5	1867.4
Average	57.73333	57.75	60.08333	65.58333	70.08333	62.24667
Variance	3.942667	5.523	1.385667	3.849667	1.997667	27.25499
<i>2 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	356.8	362.2	376.7	410	440.4	1946.1
Average	59.46667	60.36667	62.78333	68.33333	73.4	64.87
Variance	0.390667	1.050667	3.905667	1.342667	1.396	30.067
<i>5 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	350	362.7	387.6	426.9	456.5	1983.7
Average	58.33333	60.45	64.6	71.15	76.08333	66.12333
Variance	2.918667	0.863	1.524	6.631	8.349667	48.94461
<i>10 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	344.8	357.5	381.8	430.2	458.6	1972.9
Average	57.46667	59.58333	63.63333	71.7	76.43333	65.76333

Variance	2.394667	2.973667	1.442667	1.596	1.242667	55.59275
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<i>Total</i>						
Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	1744	1772.6	1852.3	2004.6	2124	
Average	58.13333	59.08667	61.74333	66.82	70.8	
Variance	2.622299	3.85292	8.374264	30.66855	50.08138	

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	1509.919	4	377.4798	154.4997	2.21E-47	2.444174
Time	3465.265	4	866.3163	354.5768	3.51E-67	2.444174
Treatment × Time	957.0587	16	59.81617	24.48231	5.11E-31	1.725034
Within	305.405	125	2.44324			
Total	6237.648	149				

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Digestive gland CAT

SUMMARY	0 h	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Total
<i>0 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	306	309.7	312.8	313.1	316.3	1557.9
Average	51	51.61667	52.13333	52.18333	52.71667	51.93
Variance	0.536	0.217667	0.302667	0.373667	0.477667	0.678034
<i>1 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	302.8	311.4	319.5	316	327.6	1577.3
Average	50.46667	51.9	53.25	52.66667	54.6	52.57667
Variance	0.326667	0.552	0.431	0.390667	1.116	2.44392
<i>2 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	301.2	311.9	329.1	323	345.6	1610.8
Average	50.2	51.98333	54.85	53.83333	57.6	53.69333
Variance	0.208	0.977667	0.879	0.970667	3.168	7.637885
<i>5 ppm</i>						
Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	302	312.8	333.9	336.4	360.4	1645.5
Average	50.33333	52.13333	55.65	56.06667	60.06667	54.85

Variance	0.578667	1.234667	1.575	0.734667	1.118667	12.72052
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10 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	307	320.3	344.8	352.8	379.9	1704.8
Average	51.16667	53.38333	57.46667	58.8	63.31667	56.82667
Variance	1.362667	1.157667	0.474667	0.932	2.089667	19.7234

Total

Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	1519	1566.1	1640.1	1641.3	1729.8	
Average	50.63333	52.20333	54.67	54.71	57.66	
Variance	0.669195	1.103092	4.203552	6.771966	16.18662	

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	453.4297	4	113.3574	127.7372	3.57E-43	2.444174
Time	867.2404	4	216.8101	244.3133	4.63E-58	2.444174
Treatment × Time	274.7403	16	17.17127	19.3495	1.66E-26	1.725034
Within	110.9283	125	0.887427			
Total	1706.339	149				

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Gills SOD

SUMMARY	0 h	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Total
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0 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	174	174.2	178.1	182.7	185	894
Average	29	29.03333	29.68333	30.45	30.83333	29.8
Variance	0.872	0.462667	0.509667	0.995	0.982667	1.224138

1 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	181.8	184.8	209.9	215.1	226.1	1017.7
Average	30.3	30.8	34.98333	35.85	37.68333	33.92333
Variance	1.688	1.204	3.593667	0.271	0.473667	9.906678

2 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	184.1	194.3	231.9	239.9	256.1	1106.3
Average	30.68333	32.38333	38.65	39.98333	42.68333	36.87667

Variance 4.821667 0.881667 0.527 4.089667 3.969667 24.20047

5 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	187.3	199.1	240.1	261.2	284.3	1172
Average	31.21667	33.18333	40.01667	43.53333	47.38333	39.06667
Variance	0.877667	3.901667	2.401667	0.474667	0.329667	39.91264

10 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	186.6	190.2	257.9	288.4	312.7	1235.8
Average	31.1	31.7	42.98333	48.06667	52.11667	41.19333
Variance	0.788	0.936	3.985667	1.118667	2.113667	76.38961

Total

Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	913.8	942.6	1117.9	1187.3	1264.2	
Average	30.46	31.42	37.26333	39.57667	42.14	
Variance	2.219724	3.383034	23.59826	39.49151	58.25834	

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	2392.45	4	598.1124	353.7508	4.01E-67	2.444174
Time	3108.247	4	777.0618	459.5896	1.04E-73	2.444174
Treatment × Time	1077.779	16	67.36118	39.84046	2.75E-41	1.725034
Within	211.3467	125	1.690773			
Total	6789.822	149				

Anova: Two-Factor With Replication Digestive gland SOD

SUMMARY 0 h 24 h 48 h 72 h 96 h Total

0 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	114.2	117.5	120.2	124.9	127.2	604
Average	19.03333	19.58333	20.03333	20.81667	21.2	20.13333
Variance	0.194667	0.377667	0.274667	0.205667	0.196	0.862299

1 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	123.3	130.3	142.2	158.4	163	717.2
Average	20.55	21.71667	23.7	26.4	27.16667	23.90667

Variance	0.451	1.333667	0.896	0.292	0.274667	7.377195
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2 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	120	142.6	161.4	176.5	190	790.5
Average	20	23.76667	26.9	29.41667	31.66667	26.35
Variance	0.636	0.610667	0.68	0.653667	1.126667	18.21914

5 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	124.3	132.5	178.8	193.6	209.3	838.5
Average	20.71667	22.08333	29.8	32.26667	34.88333	27.95
Variance	0.505667	1.837667	1.792	2.166667	3.029667	34.06397

10 ppm

Count	6	6	6	6	6	30
Sum	123.7	133.3	192.5	215.7	241.9	907.1
Average	20.61667	22.21667	32.08333	35.95	40.31667	30.23667
Variance	0.581667	1.017667	1.197667	0.611	0.977667	61.69206

Total

Count	30	30	30	30	30	
Sum	605.5	656.2	795.1	869.1	931.4	
Average	20.18333	21.87333	26.50333	28.97	31.04667	
Variance	0.81454	2.757885	19.84447	28.16769	45.04533	

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	1808.07	4	452.0174	515.523	1.24E-76	2.444174
Time	2550.027	4	637.5068	727.0724	1.67E-85	2.444174
Treatment × Time	884.5963	16	55.28727	63.05477	7.13E-52	1.725034
Within	109.6017	125	0.876813			
Total	5352.295	149				

Anova: Two-Factor Without Replication (OSNP , pH6)

<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
0 ppm	3	72.19	24.06333	143.6997
10 ppm	3	80.76	26.92	107.4871
15 ppm	3	74.75	24.91667	112.0282
20 ppm	3	62.87	20.95667	18.87613

30 ppm	3	59.57	19.85667	9.792133
40 ppm	3	53.92	17.97333	7.687433
50 ppm	3	53.55	17.85	19.4943
60 ppm	3	52.66	17.55333	8.776933
80 ppm	3	49.96	16.65333	6.969733
100 ppm	3	50.56	16.85333	13.71803
Temperature				
25° C	10	254.76	25.476	42.29749
35° C	10	154.46	15.446	4.844671
45° C	10	201.57	20.157	37.9168

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	372.0918	9	41.34353	1.891484	0.119411	2.456281149
Temperature	503.6206	2	251.8103	11.52043	0.0006	3.554557146
Error	393.4389	18	21.85772			
Total	1269.151	29				

Anova: Two-Factor Without Replication (OSNP-S, pH 6)

<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
0 ppm	3	37.27	12.42333	368.7296
10 ppm	3	56.22	18.74	31.2663
15 ppm	3	47.93	15.97667	13.58653
20 ppm	3	44.68	14.89333	30.44123
30 ppm	3	42.61	14.20333	19.33663
40 ppm	3	44.67	14.89	13.6087
50 ppm	3	50.35	16.78333	1.135633
60 ppm	3	49.11	16.37	0.13
80 ppm	3	48.89	16.29667	0.768133
100 ppm	3	50.65	16.88333	4.179233
Temperature				
25° C	10	111.81	11.181	59.84285
35° C	10	183.21	18.321	1.296166
45° C	10	177.36	17.736	20.29898

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	80.87745	9	8.986384	0.248066	0.981091	2.456281
Temperature	314.2995	2	157.1498	4.33806	0.028997	3.554557
Error	652.0646	18	36.22581			

Total	1047.242	29
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Anova: Two-Factor Without Replication (OSNP, pH10)

<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
5 ppm	3	44.97	14.99	1.8723
10 ppm	3	60.95	20.31667	0.812233
15 ppm	3	50.88	16.96	1.9123
20 ppm	3	57.4	19.13333	1.019633
30 ppm	3	50.59	16.86333	0.592133
40 ppm	3	46.37	15.45667	1.071233
50 ppm	3	47.1	15.7	1.5777
60 ppm	3	47.83	15.94333	9.140133
80 ppm	3	50.03	16.67667	0.132133
100 ppm	3	56.24	18.74667	7.704133
Temperature				
25° C	10	175.51	17.551	4.167077
35° C	10	171.52	17.152	7.245329
45° C	10	165.33	16.533	3.041668

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	83.68108	9	9.297898	3.606509	0.009877	2.456281
Temperature	5.262287	2	2.631143	1.020579	0.380318	3.554557
Error	46.40558	18	2.578088			
Total	135.3489	29				

Anova: Two-Factor Without Replication (OSNP-S, pH 10)

<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Count</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Variance</i>
5 ppm	3	39.65	13.21667	42.46063
10 ppm	3	47.34	15.78	48.31
15 ppm	3	56.8	18.93333	36.23093
20 ppm	3	70.12	23.37333	5.971233
30 ppm	3	60.46	20.15333	4.929233
40 ppm	3	53.4	17.8	1.7764

50 ppm	3	55.27	18.42333	5.523733
60 ppm	3	50.55	16.85	18.2476
80 ppm	3	55.44	18.48	4.7164
100 ppm	3	59.37	19.79	2.2519
Temperature				
25° C	10	217.49	21.749	6.473388
35° C	10	177.14	17.714	16.87043
45° C	10	153.77	15.377	13.56325

ANOVA

<i>Source of Variation</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>F crit</i>
Treatment	199.1447	9	22.12719	2.994232	0.022789	2.456281
Temperature	207.8173	2	103.9086	14.06083	0.00021	3.554557
Error	133.0189	18	7.389937			
Total	539.9808	29				