

To Study the Need of Systemic Formwork for Waste Water Treatment at Fish Processing Plant' (A Review)

Vijaya Gurupadgol^{1*}, Prof. Rajvardhan Patil²

¹ PG Student, Dept of Civil Engg, DYPCOE, Pune, Maharashtra, India

Email: mivijaya05@gmail.com

² Professor, Dept of Civil Engg, DYPCOE, Pune, Maharashtra, India

Abstract - Waste water from angle preparation enterprises originates from several sources, including emptying angles, dressing, liquefying water from ice dissolution, washing equipment and utensils, treating with additional substances, and cleaning and disinfecting offices and spaces. Water is used not only to clean angles but also to wash blood, sludge, and offal from the surfaces of various handling equipment, utensils, floors, and sump pumps. The majority of computerized handling supplies come with a water shower framework that may clean hardware and remove offal.

The emergence of these forms in tall water use also leads to the mixing of blood and offal in the wash water. Fish handling waste water is full of significant pollutants that are colloidal, soluble, and particulate. Features of waste water produced depend on the type of angle used for preparation, the preparation method, and the final object placed. When handling operations such as minor (angle washing or cleaning), mild (angle filet preparation), and severe (surimi planning), the degree of defilement can change.

Fish waste water must have exceptionally high levels of nitrogen, fat, oil, and oil (Mist), as well as biochemical oxygen demand (BOD). In order to reduce shameful waste transfer in the environment, this extended show introduces angle waste management processors to the concepts of fishery waste categorization and the many types of treatment used. This topic includes many aspects of angle waste, separate management of fluid angle waste and strong waste using chemicals, Indore composting technique, and suitable transfer.

Keywords: Fish processing, Waste water treatment ,result

-----X-----

INTRODUCTION

Problems Due To Fish Processing Waste Water:

It is anticipated that the need for food, water, and energy would rise quickly in order to keep up with the world population growth. Fresh water availability has a major impact on food sustainability and safety. The over use of fresh water and the environmental risks related to the food production industry are the two main issues facing contemporary food production systems. With an estimated annual consumption of about 7,600 m3 of fresh water, agriculture and animal production are currently thought to be responsible for 60% of all fresh water withdrawals worldwide.

The amount of freshwater needed to produce food and livestock is expected to rise by 65% during the next 30 years. Wastewater is released during food processing and contains a variety of components that are valuable

for nutrition as well as other elements. Serious environmental risks are caused by the careless release of untreated wastewater into the environment. Furthermore, it's estimated that 1.3 billion tons, or roughly one-third, of the food produced worldwide is lost or discarded; this food waste includes more than 50% organic materials that can decompose. Appropriate waste management, including the treatment of effluents, is one step toward producing clean food while preventing pollution of the environment and food component loss.

From an economic and environmental perspective, recovering resources from waste streams can lower losses and increase the overall sustainability of food production. The purpose of this review is to highlight the environmental issues raised by wastewater from seafood processing as well as the advantages of their value-adding. Proper processing yields several

benefits, including preservation of the environment, water conservation, ingredient recovery, and biofuel production. The article also highlights new approaches based on microbial biotechnology for valuing wastewater from the seafood industry in the direction of a circular bioeconomy.

Production of The seafood industry Fish Processing Waste Water

Includes both aquaculture and capture fisheries to supply the preferred finfish and shellfish for consumers. In 2018, the total amount of seafood produced worldwide was 178.5 million tons (MT). Finfish (pollock, tuna, herring, mackerel, whiting, and others), crustaceans (shrimp, krill, crab, and lobster), bivalves (mussels, oysters, clams, and scallops), and cephalopods (squid and cuttlefish) are among the marine seafood options. From 2001 to 2016, the aquaculture industry grew at an annual rate of 5.8%, with a production of 82.1 MT in 2018.

Major products of freshwater aquaculture are carp, tilapia, and shellfish species; Atlantic salmon, sea bass, and sea bream are also frequently raised in mariculture. Approximately 78% of the crop is processed by the industry into a variety of goods, including things that are frozen, chilled, smoked, dried, fermented, marinated, and other items. Popular consumer goods that are traded in many foreign marketplaces include chilled fish, finfish fillets and steaks, shrimp products, and fish protein items like squirmly (mechanically deboned, water-washed, minced fish meat). Capture fisheries and aquaculture play complimentary roles in boosting the supply of seafood for human consumption and health benefits.

Still, not all of the fish that is served is consumed. Wastes come from a variety of sources, including garbage ashore, by-catch on board, and disposals. Up to 40% of the raw material produced is wasted due to processing, including skins, heads, frames, viscera, fillet cutoffs, and other items. An increasing amount of offal is produced by the expanding aquaculture activities.

An estimated 8% of the seafood produced each year is wasted, with 7.3 MT lost between 1992 and 2001. Compared to urban garbage, fishery wastes decompose more quickly because they include higher levels of proteins and other nitrogenous components. On a dry weight basis, the average composition of gross seafood wastes is roughly 60% proteins, 19% fat, and 21 percent ash. The amount of fishing wastes, including effluents, has expanded due to the growing seafood sector, raising concerns about the environment around the world. Solid waste is often disposed of by placing it in land fills and using it to make fertilizer, fishmeal, and silage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Group 1: (Importance of Waste Water Treatment for Fish Industry)

(Gleick, 2020; Pedrero et al., 2020). Reusing treated wastewater (TWW) for crop irrigation can significantly reduce the amount of water that must be extracted from fresh water sources, such as rivers and groundwater, in addition to reducing the amount of wastewater that is ejected into the environment, since agriculture uses nearly 70% of the world's water resources.

(Sheidaei et al., 2019). Because of this, freshwater supply is scarce in many regions of the world, which poses a significant challenge to agriculture. Due to global water scarcity, many large urban centers that were previously assumed to have adequate water resources are adopting and using unconventional waters, such as treated municipal wastewater, saline drainage water, and other types of wastewater.

(Dixon et al., 2019; Weizhen and Andrew, 2023; Junying et al., 2024). The current paper examines research conducted by a number of authors, reviews the literature on wastewater reutilization for agricultural irrigation, compares the use of waste water in various industries, and examines the effects on farmers' willingness to adopt this technology.

A field experiment was conducted by Lahhama et al., (2023) to investigate the effects of irrigation with treated wastewater on tomato fruit quality characteristics and contamination in 1999 and 2000. The size and weight of the tomato fruits in both kinds increased as the percentage of treated wastewater increased, according to the results. Reusing home wastewater that has been cleaned in macrophyte ponds to irrigate eggplant and tomatoes in semi-arid areas Africa's West

Irenikatche et al., (2021). According to the study, the amount of nutrients supplied by the treated wastewater varied according on the element and year. The results of the treated wastewater and fertilizer were additive, with the tomato crop responding better to the mineral fertilizer (52% for tomato and 82% for eggplant).

Group 2: Process of Waste Water Treatment

Manjuntha et al., (2015) Also investigated the effects of wastewater from engineering artificial wetland treated and untreated on brinjal crop yield, water productivity, and economics. In 2015, a field experiment at the University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad, examined the performance of brinjal crop when treated wastewater from engineering constructed wetland was applied, compared to alternative water sources. Application of the domestic wastewater resulted in higher net returns and B:C ratio (2,18,355/ha and 2.68) followed by conjunctive use of engineered constructed wetland treated wastewater and domestic wastewater irrigation (2,17,035/ha and 2.67).

Busaidi and Ahmed (2017) examined the optimal application of treated wastewater in farming. The study's objective was to optimize the use of treated

wastewater reuse in conjunction with groundwater or any other available water resource by accounting for the quantity and quality of each as well as the agronomic, economic, and environmental aspects.

Tripathi et al., (2019). Three different crop kinds were used in the Sultan Qaboos University in Oman study (eggplant, radish, and okra). When plants treated their effluent, there was a noticeable boost in plant output. The impact of reusing municipal wastewater in some vegetable crops through micro-irrigation systems on the prevalence of coliforms was investigated by Two vegetable crops that were irrigated with wastewater—cauliflower and eggplant—were tested for the presence of coliforms in the soil and produce. Study results revealed that, the critical role of subsurface drip irrigation in reducing the load of coliform both in the soil and the crop produce ensuring safety of the consumers against health hazard Effects of citrus sinensis irrigation with treated wastewater on microbiological quality of soil and fruits were studied by

Monia Trad Raïs (2019). The purpose of the study was to assess bacterial contamination of orange fruits and soil when secondary TWW were irrigated. The research was conducted in northeastern Tunisia. Drip irrigation was used to irrigate the orchard. Salmonella was not found in samples of fruit or soil. Fruit contamination by faecal markers was hardly noticeable, indicating that TWW may be helpful as an

Group 3: Integrated System for Waste Management for Fish Industry

Almas and Scholz (2014) discovered that using waste stabilization ponds (WSP) for wastewater treatment is an extremely effective, affordable, and low-maintenance process. This essay addresses the topic of reusing wastewater for various irrigation techniques and provides an overview of the social, religious, and political factors contributing to the current water issue.

Platzer et al., (2004). In order to deploy this technology in the form of an integrated project that combines the treatment of domestic wastewater with its reuse for crop production in small and medium size communities, the first subsurface flow wetland (SSFW) system for roughly 1,000 PE was built in Nicaragua in 1996. All requirements outlined in the national legislation for wastewater reuse in agriculture are met by the SSFW effluent, with the exception of faecal coli forms, which are present at an average concentration of 7×10^4 MPN/100 ml. Acceptance and financial readiness of farmers in western Iran to use treated wastewater for crop irrigation

Zoherh et.al. (2020). Farmers' willingness to use treated wastewater for crop irrigation can be effectively increased by the use of suitable incentives, such as price reductions for treated wastewater based on quality, testing for physico-chemical properties and microbial contamination of treated wastewater, and

extension training programs. Farmers' perceptions on the quality of the water

Jordan Carr et al., (2011) Reusing treated wastewater, or reclaimed water, for irrigation is a great way to make the most of the water resources that are available, but the water's sometimes poor quality can provide difficulties for farmers. The quality of reclaimed water may influence farmers' opinions, but other factors should be taken into account as well, such as their ability to handle the problems that come with using it for agriculture (salinity, damage to irrigation systems, produce marketing), their perceived and actual ability to control where and when to use reclaimed water, and their ability to affect the quality of the water that is delivered to the farm.

Blanca and Navarro (2017) explains the benefits and drawbacks of using wastewater for agricultural crops in terms of human health. It is concluded that sound policies must be established in order to address the present and future effects of the widespread use of wastewater irrigation in low-income regions. These policies must preserve advantages (livelihoods and food security) in an affordable and realistic manner while controlling health and environmental risks in a way that allows the situation to gradually improve. The effluent standards for sewage treatment plants are displayed in the following table.

SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the issues with the biggest effects on the environment has been the handling of fish waste. Public concern has grown over fish farming's negative effects on the marine environment in particular. The raw material, source of utility, and unit procedures used in fish processing differ amongst plants. Waste, both liquid and solid, is produced by the majority of processing industries, including fish processing operations. Organic pollutants are present in this waste as particles, colloids, and solutions.

Undefined mixes primarily composed of organic materials are the source of pollution in fisheries waste water. The sources of waste water in the fish processing industry include unloading fish, dressing, ice-melt water, washing equipment and utensils, treating with additives, and cleaning and disinfecting buildings and grounds. Water is used not only to clean fish but also to remove slime, blood, and offal from the surfaces of processing equipment, utensils, floors, drains, and sump pumps. Most automated processing equipment has a water spray system installed, which can clean the machinery and remove offal. Due to the fact that these procedures require a lot of water and mix the rinse water with blood and offal. Waste water from seafood processing facilities contains a significant amount of soluble, colloidal, and particle pollutants.

CONCLUSION

The management of waste is a major issue everywhere in the world. The amount of waste that is both biodegradable and non-biodegradable is a result of all businesses, and the seafood industry is no exception. Seafood waste entered the surrounding water bodies and sewers straight up until the past ten years. However, waste production back then did not occur on the same magnitude as it does now. The trash produced by the modern seafood industry has increased significantly, with the majority of it not degrading at the rate of deposition. Therefore, we need to search for more advanced waste management systems. Numerous sectors are currently in high demand for the solid waste from the industry, which includes bycatch, stomach pieces, and shells. When there are no takers, the liquid waste is a constant pain. The industry management is need to devise their own strategies to eradicate it. For wastewater purification, the majority of them rely on anaerobic, aerobic, and reverse osmosis filters.

REFERENCES

1. Al-Lahhama, O., N.M. El Assib, and M. Fayyadc (2003) Impact of treated wastewater irrigation on quality attributes and contamination of tomato fruit. *Agricultural Water Management* 61 51–62.
2. Almas, A. A. M. and M. Scholz (2006) Potential for wastewater reuse in irrigation: case study from Aden (Yemen). *International Journal of Environmental Studies*. 63:2, 131-142.
3. Atif Mustafa (2013) Constructed Wetland for Wastewater Treatment and Reuse: A Case Study of Developing Country. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Development*, Vol. 4, No.1, February 2013. Page no 20-24.
4. Blanca J. and I. Navarro (2017) Wastewater Use in Agriculture: Public Health Considerations. *Encyclopedia of Environmental Management* DOI: 10.1081/E-EEM-120046689.
5. Busaidi A. A. and M. Ahmed (2017) Maximum Use of Treated Wastewater in Agriculture. *Springer Water*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-51856-5_21
6. Carr G., R. B. Potter and S. Nortcliff (2011) Water reuse for irrigation in Jordan: Perceptions of water quality among farmers. *Agriculture Water management* 98 page no. 847-854.
7. Dixon, A. Butler D. and A. Fewkes (1999) Water saving potential of domestic water reuse systems using greywater and rainwater in combination. *Water Science and Technology*. 39(5): 25-32.
8. Irenikatché Akponikpea P.B., Wima K., Yacouba H. and A. Mermoudc (2011) Reuse of domestic wastewater treated in macrophyte ponds to irrigate tomato and eggplant in semi-arid West-Africa: Benefits and risks. *Agricultural Water Management* 98(2011): 834-840.
9. Jaramillo, M.F. and I. Restrepo. (2017) Wastewater Reuse in Agriculture: A Review about Its Limitations and Benefits Sustainability, 9, 1734 page no-1-19.
10. Jiménez B. and I. Navarro (2012) Wastewater Use in Agriculture: Public Health Considerations. *Encyclopedia of Environmental Management* DOI: 10.1081/E-EEM-120046689 Copyright © 2012 by Taylor & Francis.
11. Junying C. Jining C. and C.W.P. Fu (2004) wastewater reuse potential analysis: implications for China's water resources management. *Water research* 38(11): 2746-2756.
12. Manjuntha M.V., Hebbara, M., Prasanna kumara, B.H., Satyareddi S. and G.S.Dasog (2017) Effect of untreated and engineered constructed wetland treated wastewater on yield, water productivity and economics of brinjal. *Green Farming Vol. (3):* 676-679.
13. Monia Trad Raïs (2019) Effects of Citrus sinensis Irrigation with Treated Wastewater on Microbiological Quality of Soil and Fruits. *IJISSET - International Journal of Innovative Science, Engineering & Technology*, Vol. 6 Issue 6, June 2019 ISSN (Online) 2348 – 7968 Page no:- 86-96. Wastewater use in Fars Province , Iran. *Water Policy* 18(2): 355-367
14. Tripathia V.K., Singh Rajput T.B., Patel, N. and L. Nain Impact of municipal wastewater reuse through micro-irrigation system on the incidence of coliforms in selected vegetable crops (2019) *Journal of Environmental Management* 251 Page no 1-10.
15. Weizhen L. and A.Y.T. Leung (2003) A preliminary study on potential of developing shower/laundry wastewater reclamation and reuse system. *Chemosphere* 52(9): 1451-1459.
16. Zoherh D.H., Bagheria, A., Fotourehchib Z. and C. A. Damalas (2020) Farmers' acceptance and willingness to pay for using treated wastewater in crop irrigation: A

- survey in western Iran. *Agricultural Water Management*. Vol 239 (2020) 106262 Page no-1-10.
19. Antonie, R.L.; 1978. Design criteria for applications of the rotating biological contactor to domestic and industrial wastewater treatment, *International Environment Colloquium*, May 16-17, Liege, Belgium. API (American Petroleum Institute), 1959. *Manual for disposal of refinery wastes*; API, New York, U.S.A.
20. Bauman, F.J.; 1974. Dichromat Reflux Chemical Oxygen Demand. A Proposed Method for
21. Chlorine Correction in Highly Saline Wastes. *Analytical Chemistry* 46:1336-1338.
22. Balslev-Olesen, P., Lynggaard, A. and Nickelsen, C.; 1990. Pilot-Scale experiments on Anaerobic Treatment of Waste-water from a Fish Processing Plant. *Water Science and Technology* 22:463-474.
23. Eckenfelder, W. W; 1980. *Principles of Water Quality Management*; CBI Publishing Co.; Boston, U. S.A.
24. EPA (Environmental Protection Agency), 1978. Construction costs for municipal wastewater treatment plants: 1973-1977. Technical Report MCD-37, U.S. E.P.A. Washington, D. Ertz, D.B; 1980. Dissolved Air Flotation Treatment of Seafood Processing Wastes. An Assessment, in *Proc. 8th. Natl.Symp. on Food Processing Wastes*, Cincinnati, Ohio, U.S.A.
25. *Advances in Fish Science and Technology*, J.J. Conell, Ed. Fishing News Books, Ltd. Surrey, England. the College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Nihon University, Japan 33:468-475.
26. Nishide, E.; 1977. Coagulation of Fishery wastewater with Inorganic Coagulants; *Bulletin of the College of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Nihon University, Japan* 34:291-294.
27. Ramalho, R.S.; 1977. *Introduction to Wastewater Treatment Processes*; Academic Press, Inc.; New York, U.S.A.
28. Rich, L. G.; 1980. *Low Maintenance, Mechanically Simple Wastewater Treatment Systems*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York; U.S.A.
29. Stover, E. L. and Jover, R.N.; 1980. High Level Ozone Disinfection of Wastewater for Shell Fish Discharges; *Ozone Science and Engineering*; 1:335-346.
30. Sorensen, P. E.; 1974. *Fiskeriindustri-Vandproblemer*; Vandkvalitetinstituttet, Copenhagen, Denmark.
31. Uluatam, S. S.; 1991. Cost models for small wastewater treatment plants. *International Journal of Environmental Studies*; 37:171-181.
32. Wright, D.G. and Woods, D.R.; 1993. Evaluation of capital cost data. Part 7. Liquid waste disposal with emphasis on physical treatment; *Canadian Journal of Chemical Engineering* 71:575-590.
33. Ziminska, H.; 1985. Protein Recovery from Fish Wastewaters; *Proceedings of the Fifth International Symposium on Agricultural Wastes*; p 379; American Society of Agricultural Engineering; St. Joseph, MI, U.S.A.

Corresponding Author

Vijaya Gurupadgol*

PG Student, Dept of Civil Engg, DYPCOE, Pune, Maharashtra, India

Email: mivijaya05@gmail.com