

Original Article



Review on the Application of Novel Materials for Microplastics and Nanoplastics Removal in Drinking Water Treatment Systems

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Abstract:

The contamination of drinking water by microplastics (MPs) and nanoplastics (NPs) presents a formidable public health challenge that conventional treatment processes fail to adequately address. This review provides a systematic and critical evaluation of emerging materials engineered for MP and NP remediation, with a specific focus on drinking water treatment. Four principal classes of materials are assessed: (1) sustainable biomass-derived adsorbents, (2) advanced membrane separation technologies, (3) solar-driven photothermal systems, and (4) innovative electrochemical technologies. Fundamental removal mechanisms, material properties, and performance metrics for each class are analyzed to reveal inherent trade-offs between removal efficiency, energy consumption, cost, and technological readiness. Moreover, the analysis highlights overarching challenges to practical implementation, including scalability, long-term stability in complex water matrices, and the risk of secondary pollution. It is concluded that future progress will critically depend on the development of multifunctional hybrid systems and the strategic integration of these novel technologies into existing treatment frameworks. Ultimately, translating laboratory innovations into viable, large-scale solutions requires a concerted, multidisciplinary approach focused on material durability, cost-effectiveness, and comprehensive life cycle assessment to ensure the safety and security of global drinking water.

Keywords: microplastics; nanoplastics; drinking water treatment; novel materials;

1. Introduction

The proliferation of global plastic pollution has established microplastics (MPs, particles <5 mm) and nanoplastics (NPs, <1 μm) as pervasive environmental contaminants that pose significant threats to ecological safety and human health (Bourzac, 2019; Gerdes et al., 2019; Ivleva et al., 2017; Jamieson et al., 2019; Napper et al., 2020; Naqash et al., 2020; Park and Park, 2021; Rakowski and Grzelak, 2020; Rillig and Lehmann, 2020). MPs originate from both primary sources, such as microbeads in industrial products, and the environmental degradation of larger plastic debris (Samsonowska and Kaszuba,

2022). Their ubiquitous presence, confirmed in remote ecosystems from the Mariana Trench to the snowpack of Mount Everest, underscores their alarming dispersal capacity and designates them a global environmental concern (Jamieson et al., 2019; Ju et al., 2023; Lei et al., 2024; Ma et al., 2024; Napper et al., 2020).

This contamination extends critically to drinking water supplies (Kirstein et al., 2021; Pivokonsky et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2023). Studies consistently reveal high MP prevalence in municipal drinking water globally, with contamination rates reported between 78.1% and

81.1% (Chai *et al.*, 2021; Kosuth *et al.*, 2018). These MPs often originate from pipe abrasion, source water pollution, and breakthrough from upstream treatment plants. A national study in China further quantified this issue, reporting a mean MP concentration of 440 ± 275 particles/L in tap water derived from surface sources (Tong *et al.*, 2020). Critically, these analyses concur that particles of smaller dimensions ($<50 \mu\text{m}$) constitute the predominant fraction ($\geq 85\%$), and environmental assessments indicate that NPs are even more abundant than their larger counterparts (Alonso-Vázquez *et al.*, 2023; Pivokonsky *et al.*, 2018).

The potential health hazards of these plastics are a focus of intense scientific scrutiny (Lei *et al.*, 2024; Park and Park, 2021). NPs, in particular, are of high concern due to their ability to penetrate biological barriers, such as cell membranes, and translocate into the bloodstream, lymphatic system, and vital organs (Holloczki and Gehrke, 2019; Ng *et al.*, 2018; Zhu *et al.*, 2018). Ingestion of MPs and NPs may lead to adverse health outcomes, including impaired nutrient absorption, gastrointestinal disturbances, and chronic inflammation (Holloczki and Gehrke, 2019; Roy *et al.*, 2023; Stapleton, 2021). For instance, polystyrene (PS) MPs have been demonstrated to induce intestinal inflammation and disrupt red blood cells (Jin *et al.*, 2019; Peng *et al.*, 2019; Roy *et al.*, 2023; Xu *et al.*, 2024). Furthermore, MPs and NPs can act as vectors for other environmental toxins, such as heavy metals and persistent organic pollutants, by adsorbing them onto their surfaces and amplifying their toxicity upon ingestion (An *et al.*, 2024; Kumar *et al.*, 2022; Naqash *et al.*, 2020).

Conventional drinking water treatment trains—typically comprising coagulation, sedimentation, filtration, and disinfection—were not designed to address MP and NP contamination and thus exhibit significant limitations (Acarer, 2023; Barbier *et al.*, 2022; Z. F. Wang *et al.*, 2020; Xu, 2020). While effective at removing larger MPs ($>20 \mu\text{m}$), their efficiency declines sharply for smaller particles and is particularly low for NPs (Na *et al.*, 2021). This inefficiency is rooted in the physicochemical properties of smaller plastics, whose high surface area-to-volume ratio enhances their colloidal stability and resistance to removal (Ivleva *et al.*, 2017; Park and Park, 2021).

Consequently, the entire conventional process faces overarching challenges, including suboptimal removal efficiency for NPs, the risk of secondary contamination from treatment chemicals, prohibitive operational costs for advanced methods, and a lack of selectivity for diverse plastic types (Lei *et al.*, 2024; Park and Park, 2021).

Therefore, developing materials and strategies specifically engineered for MP and NP removal from drinking water is a pressing priority. Although numerous reviews have covered MP/NP removal in the context of wastewater treatment, a dedicated and systematic review focusing on drinking water systems is conspicuously absent. Existing literature provides limited insight and fails to adequately categorize and evaluate the growing arsenal of novel materials for this specific application. To bridge this critical gap, this review examines the application of emerging materials for MP and NP removal in drinking water treatment. We concentrate on novel material categories, including biomass-derived adsorbents, advanced membranes, photothermal materials, electroactive materials, and multifunctional composites. This review aims to: (1) elucidate the design principles and underlying removal mechanisms of these materials; (2) compare their structural features and functional properties to foster a deeper understanding of their performance; and (3) provide a critical assessment of the advantages and limitations of each material class. Finally, we identify key challenges and propose future research directions in this vital field.

2 Novel Materials for the Removal of MPs and NPs

2.1 Biomass-derived Adsorbents

Biomass-derived adsorbents have emerged as a highly promising class of materials for aqueous MP and NP remediation, prized for their sustainability, low cost, and impressive adsorption capabilities (Liu *et al.*, 2024; Qiana *et al.*, 2024; Wu *et al.*, 2024; Wu *et al.*, 2024). Natural polymers such as chitin, cellulose, and their derivatives are particularly advantageous, featuring abundant surface functional groups and inherently hierarchical porous structures that facilitate efficient pollutant capture.

2.1.1 Material Design and Performance

The design of these adsorbents often leverages the unique properties of pristine or modified biopolymers. Chitin, the second most abundant polysaccharide in nature, is a prime example. Recent innovations have focused on engineering its structure to maximize MP/NP interaction. For instance, Wu *et al.* (2024) developed a novel chitin nanofibrous foam (β/α -CT) from seafood waste. Through a simple process of hydrogen bond rearrangement, they created a material with a hierarchical porous architecture capable of removing MPs across a wide size range (80 nm–5 μ m) with exceptional efficiency (e.g., 98.7% for 80 nm particles).

To further enhance performance and versatility, researchers have explored the creation of biopolymer composites. Sun *et al.* (2020)

developed a robust chitin/graphene oxide (GO) sponge that demonstrated excellent reusability. In a subsequent breakthrough, Wu *et al.* (2024) fabricated a self-assembled chitin-cellulose (Ct-Cel) foam from squid-derived β -chitin and cotton cellulose. This composite material showcased remarkable removal efficiency (98.0–99.9%) for various MPs (PS, polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polypropylene (PP)) in real water samples and maintained over 95% efficiency after five regeneration cycles. As summarized in Table 1, these materials achieve high adsorption capacities, particularly for smaller particles, underscoring their potential for treating nano-scale contamination.

Table 1. Performance of representative biomass-derived adsorbents for MP/NP removal

| Adsorbent material | Key features | Target pollutants (Size, Type) | Adsorption capacity (mg g^{-1}) | Removal efficiency (%) | Reference |
|-------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|--|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Chitin/GO Sponge | Robust, porous, reusable | PS variants (size not specified) | Not reported | 89.8% (after 3 cycles) | Sun <i>et al.</i> (2020) |
| β/α -CT Foam | Hierarchical pores, functional groups (–OH, –NHCO–) | PS (80 nm–5 μ m) | 411 (for <1 μ m PS) | 98.7% (for 80 nm PS) | Wu <i>et al.</i> (2024) |
| Ct-Cel Foam | Positively charged, porous (97%), cross-linker-free | PS, PMMA, PET, PP (100 nm–3 μ m) | 349.7 (100 nm PS)-633.2 (3 μ m PS) | 98.0–99.9% (in real water) | Wu <i>et al.</i> (2024) |

Note: GO: graphene oxide; Ct-Cel: chitin-cellulose; CT: chitin; PS: polystyrene; PMMA: polymethyl methacrylate; PET: polyethylene terephthalate; PP: polypropylene;

2.1.2 Multi-level Removal Mechanisms

The efficacy of these biomass adsorbents stems from a synergistic combination of physical and

chemical interactions, as illustrated in Figure 1.

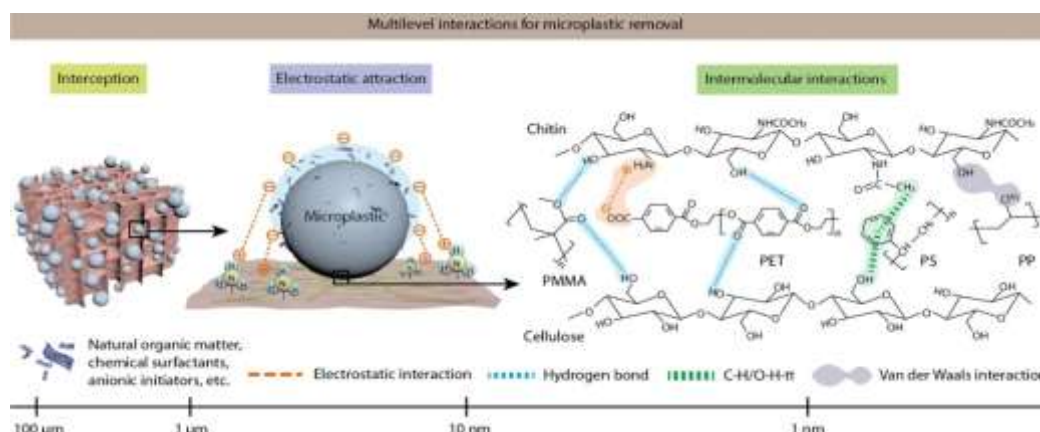


Figure 1 Microplastic removal by the biomass fibrous foam

MP removal by the biomass fibrous foam via multilevel interactions (physical interception, electrostatic attraction, and multiple intermolecular interactions) due to the abundance of reactive functional groups

The primary mechanisms include:

1. Physical interception and sieving: the multi-scale porous structure physically traps larger MPs, with removal efficiency often increasing with particle size.
2. Electrostatic attraction: materials like the Ct-Cel foam are engineered to have a positive surface charge (e.g., from protonated amine groups, $-\text{NH}_3^+$), which strongly attracts common, negatively charged MPs (like PS).
3. Hydrogen bonding: abundant hydroxyl ($-\text{OH}$) and amide ($-\text{NHCO}-$) groups on the biopolymer chains act as hydrogen bond donors and acceptors, forming strong connections with polar MPs containing ester or carboxyl groups (e.g., PET, PMMA).
4. Van der Waals (vdW) and π -Interactions: these forces are crucial for adsorbing nonpolar plastics (e.g., PP) and those with aromatic rings (e.g., PS), where $\text{C}-\text{H}\cdots\pi$ or $\text{O}-\text{H}\cdots\pi$ interactions can occur.

Computational studies have validated these synergistic effects, confirming that a combination of strong vdW forces and hydrogen bonding governs the adsorption process, making these materials effective against a broad spectrum of plastic types.

2.1.3 Challenges and Future Outlook

Despite these promising advancements, practical

application of biomass-derived adsorbents faces several hurdles. Key challenges include ensuring long-term structural stability in dynamic flow systems, improving selective adsorption in complex water matrices containing natural organic matter, and developing scalable and cost-effective manufacturing processes to move from the laboratory to industrial production (Lee *et al.*, 2018; Su *et al.*, 2024; Verma *et al.*, 2024; Wang, 2023). Future research should therefore focus on optimizing material durability, enhancing selectivity through targeted surface functionalization, and designing efficient regeneration techniques to support a circular economy approach.

2.2 Membrane separation for MPs and NPs Removal in Drinking Water Treatment

Membrane separation technology serves as a formidable physical barrier in water treatment, offering precise size-exclusion capabilities that are highly effective for removing MPs and NPs (Acarer, 2023; Bodzek and Pohl, 2023; Li *et al.*, 2023; Luogo *et al.*, 2022). Unlike conventional methods, pressure-driven membrane processes, including microfiltration (MF), ultrafiltration (UF), nanofiltration (NF), and reverse osmosis (RO), can provide a more absolute barrier to these contaminants, with performance being intrinsically linked to the membrane's material and structural properties (Table 2).

Table 2 Membrane separation for MPs and NPs removal in tap water treatment

| Membrane type | Treatment plant type/Location | material | Pore size range | Operating pressure | Removal efficiency | | Main advantages | Main limitations | Reference |
|---------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| | | | | | MP | NP | | | |
| MF | Laboratory | PVDF,PC,CA, PTFE,SiC | 0.1-10 μm | 1-5 bar | 81.5-99.8 % | 20-44 % | Low energy, high flux | Limited removal of small particles | Pramanik <i>et al.</i> , 2021 Pizzichetti <i>et al.</i> , 2021 |
| UF | Laboratory | PES,SiC and ZrO ₂ ,PVDF | 1-100 nm | 1-10 bar | 96-100 % | 74 % | Balanced removal & flux | Severe membrane fouling | Luogo <i>et al.</i> , 2022 Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2019 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-------------|------------------------------|---------------------|------------|------------------|----------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| NF | DWTP/France | polypiperazine-amide and PSf | 1-10 nm | 5-20 bar | 99-100 % | 92-98.6% | Removal of multivalent ions | High energy, high cost | Barbier et al., 2022 |
| RO | DWTP/Spain | - | ~1 nm | 10-100 bar | 54±27% | 95-100% | Comprehensive removal | Highest energy, susceptibility to | Abdel-Fatah, 2018 Dalmau-So et al., 2021 |
| MBR | - | - | Depends on membrane | 0.5-3 bar | Highly efficient | | Biological & physical synergy | High investment & operation | Li et al., 2023 Pizzichetti et al., 2021 |

Note: MF: microfiltration; UF: ultrafiltration; NF: nanofiltration; RO: reverse osmosis; MBR: membrane bioreactor; DWTP: drinking water treatment plant; ZrO₂: zirconia; SiC: silicon carbide; PVDF: polyvinylidene fluoride; PES: polyethersulfone; PA: polyamide.

2.2.1 Membrane Materials: from Conventional Polymers to Advanced Composites

The choice of material is fundamental to membrane performance. Polymeric membranes, fabricated from compounds like polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF), polyethersulfone (PES), and polyamide (PA), dominate the market due to their relatively low production cost and processability (Alvi et al., 2019; Gebru and Das, 2017; Yin et al., 2022). However, they are often susceptible to chemical degradation and fouling.

In contrast, inorganic (ceramic) membranes, typically made from materials such as alumina (Al₂O₃), zirconia (ZrO₂), or silicon carbide (SiC), offer superior thermal, chemical, and mechanical stability (He et al., 2019; Hofs et al., 2011). Their high hydrophilicity can lead to higher water flux, and their narrow pore size distribution enhances separation efficiency. Despite a longer operational lifespan (>10 years), the inherent brittleness and high manufacturing cost of ceramic membranes have limited their widespread adoption in municipal drinking water treatment plants (DWTPs).

To bridge this gap, a major research thrust is the development of polymer-based nanocomposite membranes. This strategy involves embedding small quantities of inorganic nanomaterials into a polymer matrix, aiming to synergistically combine the cost-effectiveness of polymers with the enhanced stability and performance of ceramics (Nikita et al., 2019; Polisetti and Ray, 2021; Poon et al., 2023). This approach represents a critical frontier in developing next-generation membranes

with high flux, selectivity, and fouling resistance.

2.2.2 Performance of Pressure-Driven Membrane Processes

As summarized in Table 2, the removal efficiency of membrane processes is primarily dictated by pore size, creating a clear trade-off between contaminant removal and energy consumption.

- Microfiltration (MF), with the largest pores (0.1–10 μm), effectively removes the bulk of larger MPs (>81.5%) but demonstrates limited efficacy for NPs (<44%) (Pramanik et al., 2021). Its primary vulnerability is the potential for sharp-edged or flexible MPs to penetrate the membrane pores under pressure (B. D. P. Luogo et al., 2022; Pizzichetti et al., 2021).
- Ultrafiltration (UF) offers a significant improvement, with pore sizes (1–100 nm) small enough to retain nearly all MPs (>96%) and a moderate fraction of NPs (B. Ma et al., 2019). However, this enhanced retention comes at the cost of increased susceptibility to fouling, where MPs can block pores and drastically increase transmembrane pressure, often necessitating pre-treatment like coagulation to aggregate particles for easier removal (Li et al., 2021; Luogo et al., 2022).
- Nanofiltration (NF) and Reverse Osmosis (RO) represent the tightest membrane barriers. With pore sizes in the low nanometer range, they can theoretically achieve near-complete removal of both MPs and NPs (Barbier et al., 2022). However, their application is constrained by substantial energy

requirements, increasing treatment costs by 60–150% (Abdel-Fatah, 2018). Furthermore, full-scale plant studies have shown counterintuitive results; one DWTP using RO reported only $54 \pm 27\%$ MP removal, potentially due to the longitudinal penetration of fibrous MPs through membrane seals or defects, a challenge not observed in lab-scale tests (Dalmau-Soler *et al.*, 2021).

2.2.3 Hybrid Systems: Membrane Bioreactors (MBR)

MBR systems integrate biological treatment with membrane filtration (typically MF or UF), offering a synergistic approach to removal. The biofilm developed in the reactor can enhance retention by capturing MPs that might otherwise pass through the membrane, leading to very high removal efficiencies ($>96.8\%$) (Li *et al.*, 2023; Pizzichetti *et al.*, 2021). The primary drawbacks are the high operational costs and the issue of secondary pollution, as the retained MPs become concentrated in the sewage sludge, which requires careful disposal (Aslam *et al.*, 2022).

2.2.4 The Overarching Challenge: Membrane Fouling

Across all membrane types, fouling remains the most significant operational barrier. The accumulation of MPs and other substances on the membrane surface or within its pores reduces water flux, increases energy consumption, and necessitates frequent chemical cleaning. This cleaning regimen (e.g., using NaOH, NaClO) not only adds to operational costs but also degrades the membrane material over time, shortening its effective lifespan by 30–50% and compromising long-term performance (Gan *et al.*, 2021). Developing novel anti-fouling materials and strategies is therefore paramount for the sustainable application of membrane technology in water treatment.

2.3 Solar-Driven Photothermal Removal

Leveraging sunlight as its sole energy source, solar-driven photothermal evaporation has emerged as a sustainable and energy-efficient technology for water purification, particularly for removing non-volatile contaminants like MPs and NPs (Cui *et al.*, 2023). Its operational simplicity and independence from external power grids make it highly suitable for decentralized drinking water treatment in remote or resource-limited settings (Zhang *et al.*, 2025).

2.3.1 Principle of Solar-Driven Separation

The core of this technology is phase-change separation. Water is selectively evaporated at a photothermally-active interface, leaving MPs, NPs, salts, and other contaminants behind. As illustrated in Figure 2, several synergistic mechanisms ensure the retention of plastic particles:

1. **Size Exclusion:** At the most fundamental level, MPs and NPs are physically blocked from entering the vapor phase due to their immense size relative to water molecules.
2. **Surface Phenomena:** The hydrophobic nature of most plastics creates an energy barrier (driven by surface tension) that opposes their transition across the liquid-air interface.
3. **Thermophoresis:** The intense, localized heating of the photothermal material creates a steep temperature gradient, driving particles to migrate away from the hot evaporation zone toward the cooler bulk water below (Rekha *et al.*, 2022).
4. **Crystalline Encapsulation:** In hard water, the precipitation of minerals like CaCO_3 can physically entrap MPs and NPs within the crystal lattice, effectively immobilizing them and preventing their escape (Ding *et al.*, 2023).

Collectively, these mechanisms enable solar evaporators to achieve high removal efficiencies ($>90\%$) for a broad range of MP and NP sizes.

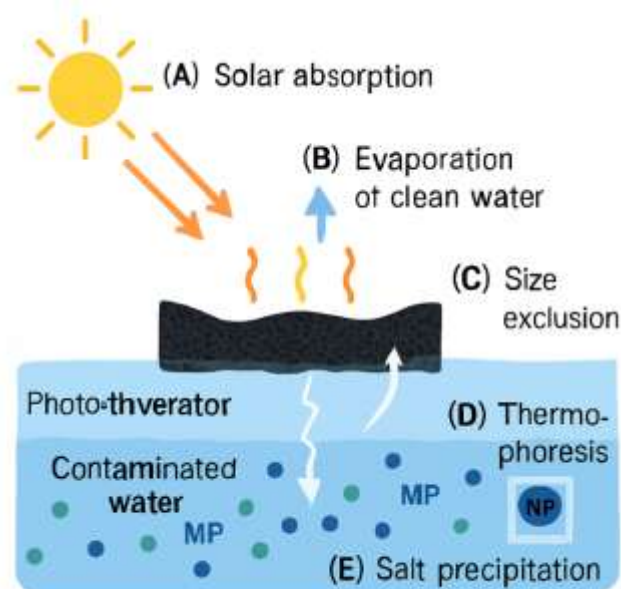


Figure 2. Schematic of solar-driven photothermal evaporation for MP/NP Removal

A solar-driven evaporator, composed of a porous photothermal material, floats on contaminated water. (A) Incoming sunlight is absorbed, generating localized heat. (B) Clean water evaporates from the surface, leaving contaminants behind. The removal is facilitated by multiple mechanisms: (C) Physical size exclusion at the liquid-vapor interface, (D) thermophoretic forces pushing particles toward the cooler bulk liquid, and (E) encapsulation of particles within precipitating salt crystals.

2.3.2 Advanced Photothermal Materials and Structures

The efficiency of solar evaporation is critically dependent on the light-absorbing materials and their architecture. Research is focused on several key categories:

Materials:

- Carbon-based materials: Graphene, carbon nanotubes (CNTs), and biochar are favored for their broad-spectrum light absorption, excellent thermal conductivity, and low cost (Li *et al.*, 2021).
- Plasmonic metals: Nanoparticles of gold (Au) or silver (Ag) exhibit surface plasmon resonance, leading to intense and highly efficient localized heating (Chang *et al.*, 2023).
- Semiconductors: Materials like MoS₂ or TiC offer tunable band gaps for optimized light absorption. Some, like TiO₂, can also provide photocatalytic functions (Chang *et al.*, 2023).
- Conductive polymers: Polypyrrole (PPy) and polyaniline (PANI) are promising due to their cost-effectiveness, flexibility, and ease of processing (Chang *et al.*, 2023).

Structural Designs:

- Porous architectures: Increase the surface area for evaporation and facilitate water transport.
- Graded structures: Help to minimize heat loss to the underlying bulk water, concentrating thermal energy at the evaporation surface.
- Janus surfaces: These are asymmetric surfaces (e.g., hydrophilic on the bottom for water wicking, hydrophobic on top to prevent fouling) that enhance evaporation while resisting the accumulation of salt and MPs.

2.3.3 System Performance and Integration

Optimized solar-driven systems have demonstrated exceptional performance, achieving >95% removal efficiency for both MPs and NPs while simultaneously removing co-pollutants like heavy metals and organic dyes. Practical water production rates of 1.5–2.5 L/(m²·h) under standard 1-sun illumination (1 kW/m²) have been reported, sufficient for meeting household drinking water needs (Cui *et al.*, 2023).

Recent studies showcase advanced system designs. For example, Ouyang *et al.* (2025) developed a 3D solar evaporator from biomass (starch, cuttlefish ink, carbonized

bamboo) that achieved a high evaporation rate of $3.31 \text{ kg m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ while preventing salt accumulation. In a hybrid approach, Meng *et al.* (2021) created a reactor using a reduced graphene oxide/titanium dioxide (rGO/TiO₂) composite that not only removed 97.9% of PE MPs but also photocatalytically converted them into valuable chemicals like formic acid. Such integrated systems, which combine evaporation with adsorption or photocatalysis, can offer enhanced purification and even resource recovery.

2.3.4 Challenges and Future Directions

Despite significant progress, scaling this technology for widespread use presents challenges. Ensuring long-term operational stability, especially against fouling from biological matter or high salt concentrations, remains a primary concern. The potential environmental impact and lifecycle of some advanced nanomaterials must also be rigorously assessed (Zhao *et al.*, 2020).

Future research should prioritize the development of durable, low-cost, and eco-friendly photothermal materials derived from sustainable sources. Optimizing system design to minimize heat loss and integrating these systems with self-cleaning or anti-fouling mechanisms are crucial next steps. With continued innovation, solar-driven purification holds immense promise as a resilient and sustainable solution to the global challenge of MP and NP contamination in drinking water.

2.4 Innovative Applications of Electrochemical Technology in MP/NP removal

Electrochemical technologies are emerging as a powerful and highly controllable approach for MP

and NP remediation in drinking water. Their primary advantage lies in using electron-driven reactions to degrade or aggregate contaminants, minimizing the need for chemical additives and reducing the risk of secondary pollution (Chen *et al.*, 2022; Say, 2022).

2.4.1 Core Electrochemical Mechanisms

The removal of MPs and NPs in electrochemical systems is governed by several distinct mechanisms, as illustrated in Figure 3:

1. **Direct Oxidation:** In this process, the MP or NP particle directly contacts the anode and undergoes electron transfer, leading to the scission of its polymer chains. This requires a high anode potential but offers a direct degradation pathway.
2. **Indirect Oxidation:** This is often the dominant mechanism, where the system uses water or other ions in the solution to generate highly reactive species. At the anode, water is oxidized to form powerful hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), or other radicals (e.g., $\text{SO}_4^{\cdot-}$, $\text{Cl}\cdot$) are generated, which then attack and degrade the plastic particles in the bulk solution (Cai *et al.*, 2024).
3. **Electro-sorption:** This non-destructive mechanism leverages electrostatic forces. By applying a specific voltage, an electrode (typically a high-surface-area material like activated carbon) can be given a surface charge that attracts and adsorbs oppositely charged MPs or NPs. Xiong *et al.* (2020) demonstrated this by using activated carbon electrodes to achieve a high adsorption capacity of 0.707 g g^{-1} for negatively charged polystyrene NPs.

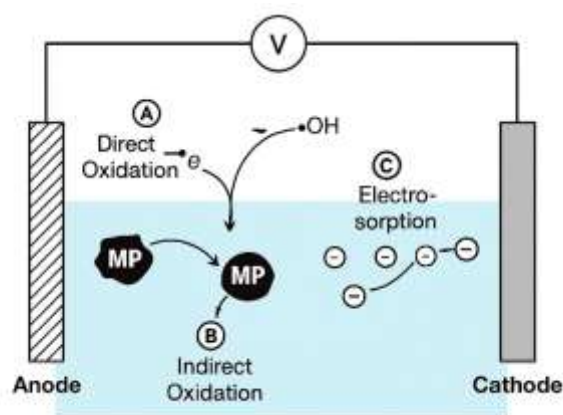


Figure 3. Schematic of key electrochemical mechanisms for MP/NP removal

An electrochemical cell showing different removal pathways. (A) Direct Oxidation: An MP particle directly transfers an electron to the anode surface. (B) Indirect Oxidation: Water is oxidized at the anode to produce a hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$), which then attacks an MP particle in the solution. (C) Electro-sorption: A positively charged electrode electrostatically attracts and adsorbs negatively charged NPs.

2.4.2 Key Electrode Materials

The success of these mechanisms is fundamentally dictated by the choice of electrode material (Table 3).

- Boron-doped diamond (BDD) electrodes are considered the "gold standard" due to their exceptional chemical stability, wide potential window, and high efficiency in generating $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals. Lu *et al.* (2022) showed that BDD anodes could degrade over 40% of PS MPs via indirect oxidation. However, their high cost is a major barrier.
- Metal oxide electrodes, such as antimony-doped tin oxide ($\text{SnO}_2\text{-Sb}$) and lead dioxide (PbO_2), provide more cost-effective alternatives with robust catalytic activity.
- Innovative composite electrodes are being designed to enhance specific reactions. For example, Miao *et al.* (2020) developed a TiO_2 /graphite composite cathode that facilitated an electro-Fenton process, achieving 75% dechlorination of PVC by generating H_2O_2 in situ.

2.4.3 Advanced system designs and hybrid approaches

Moving beyond simple plate electrodes, advanced reactor designs and hybrid systems are being developed to boost efficiency:

- 3D electrochemical systems, which use particle electrodes or packed beds, significantly increase the active surface area and improve mass transfer between the contaminants and the electrodes. A system using tourmaline particle electrodes enhanced PVC degradation by creating more reaction interfaces (Zheng, 2022).
- Hybrid systems integrate electrochemistry with other technologies for synergistic effects. Electro-Fenton systems, which combine H_2O_2 generation at the cathode with Fe^{2+} catalysis, are particularly effective, with one study reporting 86.8% PS degradation in just 40 minutes (Kiendrebeogo *et al.*, 2021). Other promising hybrids include photoelectrocatalysis (using light to boost radical generation) and ultrasonic-assisted electrolysis (using sound waves to improve particle dispersion). These advanced systems have achieved >95% MP removal in lab settings with practical energy consumption rates (0.5–1.5 kWh/m³).

Table 3. Performance of representative electrochemical systems for MP/NP removal

| Electrochemical system | Electrode material(s) | Target MP/NP | Key performance metric | Reference |
|---------------------------|---|--------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| Anodic Oxidation | BDD | PS | >40% degradation in 72 h | Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2022 |
| Electro-Fenton | TiO_2 /graphite cathode | PVC | 75% dechlorination in 6 h | Miao <i>et al.</i> , 2020 |
| Electro-sorption | AC | PS | 0.707 g g ⁻¹ adsorption capacity | Xiong <i>et al.</i> , 2020 |
| 3D Electrochemical System | Ti/RuO ₂ -IrO ₂ cathode, tourmaline particles | PVC | 51.9% degradation in 12 h | Zheng, 2022 |
| Hybrid Electro-Fenton | Not specified | PS | 86.8% degradation in 40 min | Kiendrebeogo <i>et al.</i> , 2021 |

Note: BDD: boron-doped diamond; AC: activated carbon; PS: polystyrene; PVC: polyvinyl chloride;

2.4.4 Challenges and future outlook

Despite their high efficiency, significant hurdles remain for the large-scale application of

electrochemical technologies in drinking water treatment. Key challenges include the high cost and long-term stability of electrode materials like BDD, the potential formation of harmful disinfection byproducts (e.g., chlorinated organics) in certain water matrices, and reduced efficiency due to interference from natural dissolved organic matter.

Future research must focus on developing low-cost, durable, and eco-friendly electrode materials (e.g., modified biochar or non-noble metal catalysts). Optimizing reactor designs for continuous-flow operation and integrating electrochemical stages with conventional filtration or adsorption processes will be crucial for creating robust, multi-barrier treatment trains. Addressing these challenges will be essential to transition electrochemical technologies from promising lab-scale demonstrations to practical and reliable solutions for safeguarding drinking water.

3. Comparative assessment and future

perspectives

The preceding sections have systematically reviewed four distinct classes of emerging technologies for the remediation of MPs and NPs. While each approach demonstrates considerable potential, a holistic and critical assessment is required to contextualize their respective advantages and to identify the shared barriers that currently impede their transition from laboratory curiosities to viable, full-scale treatment solutions. This chapter presents a comparative evaluation of these technologies, elucidates the overarching challenges to their practical implementation, and proposes strategic directions for future research.

3.1. Comparative Evaluation of Novel Technologies

A direct comparison of the four technology platforms reveals a series of fundamental trade-offs between removal efficacy, energy consumption, cost, and technological maturity, as summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. A comparative matrix of novel MP/NP removal technologies

| Technology category | MP removal | NP removal | Energy consumption | Cost (Capital & Operations) | Scalability / TRL* | Core advantage | Key limitation |
|----------------------------|------------|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Biomass adsorption | High | Medium-High | Very Low | Very Low | Medium | Sustainable; low-cost | Finite capacity; regeneration |
| Membrane separation | Very high | Medium-very High | Medium-High | High | High | Proven physical barrier | Fouling; energy intensity |
| Solar-driven systems | High | High | None | Medium-High | Low | Zero operational energy | Intermittency; material stability |
| Electrochemical technology | High | High | High | High | Low-Medium | High efficiency; destructive | Cost; energy; byproduct formation |

Note: *TRL: technology readiness level

Pressure-driven membrane separation, particularly NF and RO, stands out for its high Technology Readiness Level (TRL) and its capacity to serve as a reliable physical barrier to nearly all plastic particulates. This high efficiency, however, is intrinsically linked to significant energy demands and the persistent operational challenge of membrane fouling. Similarly, advanced electrochemical oxidation can achieve high

degradation rates but is presently constrained by the high capital cost and limited operational lifespan of high-performance electrode materials.

Conversely, biomass adsorption and solar-driven processes epitomize a paradigm of sustainability and low operational cost. Biomass-derived adsorbents are notable for their low cost and derivation from renewable resources, yet their utility is circumscribed by finite adsorption

capacities and challenges associated with material regeneration. Solar-driven systems offer the compelling advantage of zero-energy input but remain at a low TRL, with performance contingent on climatic conditions and unresolved questions regarding the long-term stability of photothermal materials.

3.2. Overarching Challenges to Practical Implementation

Beyond their individual limitations, all these emerging technologies confront a set of common, formidable challenges that must be addressed to enable their practical application in drinking water treatment.

3.2.1. Scalability and Complex Water Matrices

A significant gap persists between performance in controlled laboratory settings and that in real-world operational environments. Firstly, scalability remains a critical barrier; the cost-effective fabrication of advanced materials at the scale required for municipal water treatment is a major engineering hurdle. Secondly, the vast majority of published studies utilize idealized water matrices. The performance in real drinking water—a complex aqueous solution containing natural organic matter (NOM), inorganic ions, and microorganisms—is often substantially lower due to phenomena such as competitive adsorption, surface passivation, and catalyst poisoning.

3.2.2. Long-term operational stability and durability

The operational lifespan of these novel materials is a crucial yet underexplored aspect. Most research is confined to short-term experiments, offering limited insight into the materials' long-term stability. The physicochemical integrity and performance degradation of these materials under continuous operation, including exposure to hydraulic stress and chemical cleaning regimens, must be systematically investigated to determine their true life cycle and economic feasibility.

3.2.3. Ultimate Fate and Potential for Secondary Pollution

A critical consideration is the ultimate environmental fate of the removed MPs and NPs.

- Non-degradative technologies (adsorption, membrane filtration) concentrate the pollutants into a secondary waste stream (e.g.,

saturated adsorbent, membrane concentrate). The management and disposal of this contaminated stream pose a significant challenge, with a risk of re-releasing pollutants into the environment.

- Degradative technologies (solar-driven, electrochemical) raise concerns about incomplete mineralization. The formation of potentially more hazardous or bioavailable transformation byproducts must be rigorously investigated to ensure that the treatment process does not inadvertently increase the overall toxicity of the water.

3.3. Strategic Directions for Future Research

To bridge the gap between current potential and future application, research efforts should be strategically focused on the following areas:

3.3.1. Advanced Material Development

Future work should prioritize the design of multifunctional materials that integrate complementary processes, such as adsorption and subsequent in-situ catalytic degradation. A strong emphasis should be placed on developing materials from sustainable and low-cost precursors (e.g., waste biomass, earth-abundant metals) and engineering anti-fouling or self-cleaning surfaces to enhance operational durability.

3.3.2. System Integration and Hybrid Processes

Rather than viewing these technologies as standalone solutions, future research should explore their role within hybrid systems. Integrating a novel process as a pre-treatment or polishing step within a conventional treatment train may offer the most pragmatic path to implementation. Concurrently, the establishment of standardized testing protocols is urgently needed to enable meaningful and direct comparison of performance data across different studies.

3.3.3. Environmental Safety and Life Cycle Assessment

A comprehensive evaluation of the most promising technologies requires a Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) to quantify their overall environmental footprint. Furthermore, a dedicated research focus on the toxicological assessment of transformation byproducts generated during

degradation processes is essential to guarantee the biological safety of the treated effluent.

4. Conclusion

The escalating contamination of global water resources by micro- and nanoplastics constitutes a significant environmental and public health challenge. The novel materials and technologies surveyed in this review—spanning biomass adsorption, advanced membrane separation, solar-driven systems, and electrochemical processes—represent significant advancements in the scientific effort to address this issue. While their potential is undeniable, their pathway to practical application is contingent upon resolving critical challenges related to scalability, long-term stability, and the management of secondary pollutants.

The ultimate solution will likely not be a single, monolithic technology but rather the strategic integration of multiple processes into robust, multi-barrier treatment frameworks. Advancing this field requires a concerted, multidisciplinary effort focused on developing materials that are not only highly efficient but also sustainable, cost-effective, and demonstrably safe over their entire life cycle. Through such a strategic approach, the innovations of materials science can be effectively translated into tangible technologies that protect the integrity of our global drinking water supply.

Compliance with ethical standards

The author hereby confirms that this research complies with all applicable ethical standards and guidelines.

Conflict of interest

The author declares no potential or actual conflicts of interest concerning the research, authorship, and publication of this study.

Author contributions

Jun Yang performed formal analysis, investigation, and project administration, while also contributing to resources, visualization, and the original draft. Yueya Chang was responsible for conceptualization, data curation, investigation, software implementation, and resources, as well as taking the lead in manuscript preparation, revision, and editing.

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