



An Overview of the Chemistry and Utilization of Detergents, both Soap and Non-Soap

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ABSTRACT

This analysis explores the fundamental contrasts between detergent soaps and non-soap detergents, concentrating on their chemical makeup, cleaning methods, environmental impact, and applicability for diverse uses. Traditional soaps are made from natural fats and oils, which results in a biodegradable cleaning agent. Non-soap detergents, on the other hand, are made synthetically and frequently have better cleaning capabilities, but their limited biodegradability may cause environmental issues. In order to determine the best option depending on particular cleaning requirements, this study examines the trade-offs between these two cleaning chemicals, taking into account variables including water hardness, skin sensitivity, and sustainability consequences. According to this overview, the dynamic development, formulation, and use of soaps and soapless detergents are primarily driven by chemistry and chemical principles. The aim of this study therefore, is to conduct extensive survey on the chemistry and utilization of detergents, both soap and non-soap.

INTRODUCTION

The goal of this review is to give readers a thorough grasp of the distinctions between soap and non-soap detergents so they may choose the best cleaning product for their particular cleaning task. The last ten years have seen significant changes in the soap and non-soap detergent industries, which have profited from chemistry's increased usefulness, eco-friendliness, and adaptability. In order to ascertain the chemical makeup, production process, and most current advancements of soaps and non-soap detergents, this paper summarizes recent research. A vital component of modern cleaning methods, soaps and non-soap detergents serve as a bridge between chemistry and living. These compounds' primary chemical characteristics are linked to their capacity to reduce water's surface tension, which makes it simple to emulsify oils, dirt and other amphiphilic materials. For millennia, people have utilized basic bar soaps, which are

traditionally made from fats and oils through the saponification process with alkali (McCoy, 2015). However, the effectiveness of soaps, particularly in hard water, has made the use of non-soap detergents necessary. Synthetic detergents are also referred to as non-soap detergents; these are created from among others petrochemical and oleochemical chemicals and due to chemical difference from soaps, they can work in varying water hardness (Mukerjee, 2017). Because they don't create insoluble ions, these detergents function better in hard water than soaps because they always have a long non-polar hydrocarbon tail and a short polar hydrocarbon head (Schwarzenbach, 2020). The variety of non-soap detergents has increased, not just as cleaning agents in households but also as a functional aid in many industrial and textile and personal care products. An analysis of the physical, chemical, and engineering components of soap reveals an intriguing history that

crosses the boundaries between science and technology, in addition to its application in personal and home hygiene practices. This essay examines the fundamental principles of soap making, including the role of glycerides, the relationship between saturated and unsaturated fatty acids, and the intricate process of soap making. Fundamentally, soap is a substance that is created by reacting saturated and unsaturated fatty acids with carbon numbers C10–C18 with sodium hydroxide or potassium hydroxide. Natural triglyceride oils are the source of these fatty acids in a four-blended form. Unlike direct neutralization of a fatty acid blend, most manufacturers make soap directly from a blend of oil.

This technique produces soap, glycerin, and a lot of heat by neutralizing glyceride oils with concentrated sodium hydroxide. The challenge is the requirement to separate soap from the glycerin byproduct, which may or may not be necessary. The triglyceride molecules in oils or fats are made up of both saturated and unsaturated alkyl chains, which defines the classification of oils. Alternatively, triglyceride oil can be hydrolyzed by applying high temperature and pressure to split the fats and oil into fatty acids and glycerin to facilitate separation and then form soap through alkaline solution (Hall 2016). These distinctions are crucial for food applications, but they are less important for soap production, where the focus is placed by the ratio of saturated to unsaturated fatty acids and the chain lengths of the fatty acids.

The IUPAC defines soap as a fatty acid salt with a hydrocarbon component that contains more than eight carbon atoms. According to Wickham (2010) and Schmidt (2020), soap is used as a cleanser by reducing the surface tension of water to oil and creating soap-based micelles that capture insoluble pollutants. Cleaning soap adds cleaning properties to diluted solutions and is a member of the detergent and surfactant group. Modern detergents like ABAS or alkyl benzene sulfonates, however, have greater cleaning qualities than soap even in hard water because of their improved solubility. As a result, the range of products referred to as detergent is wider.

However, soap has a history and includes the history of people's washing (IUPAC, 2014). Millions of people use soaps and nonsoap detergents every day, and both saponification and nonsaponification surfactants serve these purposes. Due to their capacity to emulsify oil and suspend and dissolve in water, detergents, which are typically made from salts of natural fatty acids, have been used for washing since ancient times. But in the last ten years, synthetic or non-soap detergents have become a necessary substitute, particularly in places with hard water where regular soaps are ineffective. The fundamental chemistry of soaps is saponification, which is the reaction of triglycerides with alkalis to yield glycerol and soap. This reaction is highly critical in the manufacture

of soap which is made utilizing the sodium or potassium fatty acid salts, Wolkoff & Wolkoff, (2022). Conversely, non-soap detergent is made up of unique substances called surfactants, which can be either oleochemical or petrochemical in origin. According to Rosen and Kunjappu (2012), these surfactants are appropriate for usage in a variety of industries and homes, including care, health, and textiles, because they have enhanced cleaning robustness and do not precipitate in hard water. The care, health, and textile industries all use soaps and non-soap-based detergents. While non-soap detergents are utilized in formulas that require specific washing, soaps are employed in the personal care industry as gentle and biodegradable solutions. It is preferable to have both passive stiffness in quiescent conditions and active stiffness that can execute a specific action and stability in a variety of situations. However, Sevilla (2012) states that the environmental impact of these substances is concerning, and attempts are being made to identify alternatives to these chemicals that are both healthy and environmentally benign (Kosswig, 2012). In addition to focusing on social interfaces, knowledge of the chemistry of soaps, non-soap emulsifying agents, and their applications should also attempt to expand present technology in order to find answers to today's problems. Soap and Detergent Chemistry According to conventional wisdom, soaps are the end result of saponifying a triglyceride with a potent base, such potassium or sodium hydroxide. In the chemistry of detergents that aren't soaps, and their uses should not be only be confined to their societal functions, but should also be aimed at extending current technology for the provision of technologies for today's problems

Chemistry of Soaps and Detergent

According to traditional definitions, soaps are salts of fatty acids that are usually made by a process called saponification, which involves triglycerides reacting with a strong alkali such as potassium or sodium hydroxide. Neem seed oil, castor oil, and shea butter oil are among the natural oils that have been identified by recent research as feedstocks for the generation of biodiesel. For example, research has demonstrated that soap made from neem seed oil has special skin-care and cleansing qualities that meet international accepted quality criteria (Owoicho et al., 2021). The hardness and transparency of castor oil-based soaps have been enhanced, similar to several other vegetable oil-based soaps (Sitorus & Haryaiti, 2014). Nowadays, a lot of people employ plant extracts and functional ingredients to improve the properties of soap. For example, antibacterial properties are infused using lemongrass extracts; this was discussed by Rahayu in 2023.

Glycerol and sodium hydroxide, for example, were combined to create a cold method that allowed active nutrients to adhere to the enhanced skin moisture retention properties (Chen et al., 2015). The process of saponification, which is an alkaline digestion of fats and oils that turns them into fatty acid and glycerol salts,

produces soap. The cleaning agent produced by this reaction is effective in neutral water, but when it reacts with hardness, calcium and magnesium ions mix with the soap to form insoluble salts, which results in soap scum (Kurnia et al., 2017)

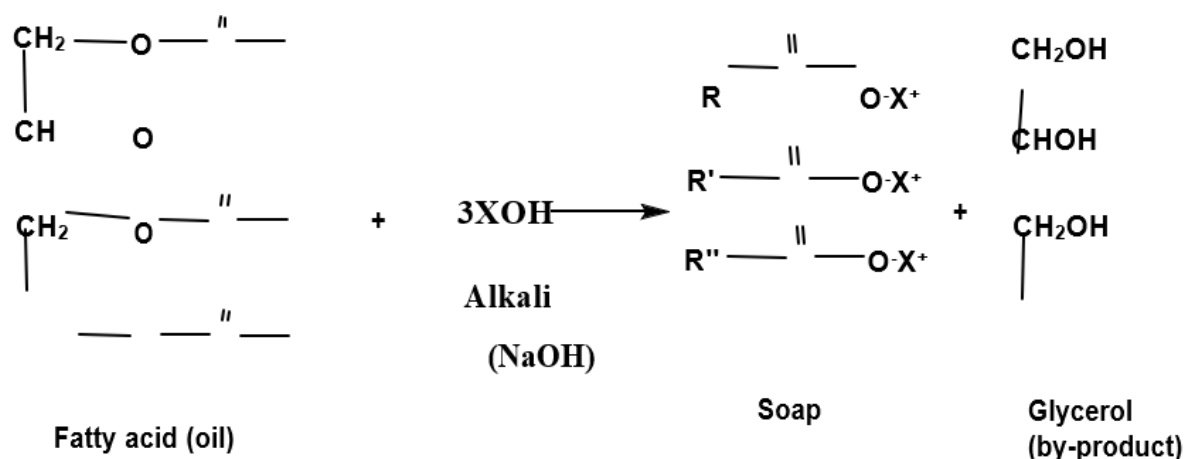


Figure 1: Saponification reaction of a triglyceride and alkaline to produce soap

Salts of the carboxylic acids

Detergents are designed to get over these restrictions, especially synthetic ones. They remain soluble and effective even in hard water because they include sulfate or sulfonate groups. These surfactants have distinct chemical behaviors and uses and can be divided into four categories: amphoteric, cationic, nonionic, and anionic (Kirsner & Froelich, 1998). Non-soap detergents, as opposed to soaps, use artificial surfactants such cocamidopropyl betaine or sodium lauryl sulfate (SLS). The creation of soap scum in hard water is one of the drawbacks of conventional soaps that these molecules are intended to address. In order to obtain better cleaning efficiency and foam stability, recent research has concentrated on optimizing the surfactant mix (Singh & Singh, 2019). Liquid detergents with many surfactants have proven to be quite effective at removing grease and cleaning fabrics in both home and commercial settings. Innovations include the integration of green surfactants derived from agro-wastes, enhancing environmental sustainability (Adetuyi, 2016).

Surfactant and Structure of Soaps

While non-soap detergents use synthetic surfactants with a variety of molecular architectures to improve cleaning performance in hard water, soaps are made of fatty acid salts. While non-soap detergents can improve this process by adding extra cleaning agents like builders and enzymes, soaps function by reducing surface tension through micelle production.

Hydrophobic and Hydrophilic Groups

Because of their role in lowering surface tension, producing foam, and facilitating the removal of debris, surfactants are crucial components in the production of soap. Surfactants can mix with water and oils because they always have hydrophobic and hydrophilic ends. Alpha lauryl butaine is one such surfactant that is said to be less irritating while simultaneously making soaps more soapy and foamy, demonstrating how the surfactant's structure affects soaps. Bromination of the surfactant molecules alters the surface tension, adsorption rate, and foam stability, as demonstrated in another work (Lee et al. 2019). The qualities of surfactants in soap include being hydrophilic or water-repellent, and hydrophobic or water repellent, and hydrophilic or water attracting, so as to address both oil and water.

While the hydrophilic component is an ionic moiety like sulfate, sulfonate, or carboxylate, the hydrophobic component can be a lengthy hydrocarbon group. The structure of a surfactant can change, affecting how it forms soap. Long-chain hydrocarbons make constitute the hydrophobic tail of many surfactants, whereas polar groups in the hydrophilic head enable them to form micelles and reduce surface tension. According to Jurado et al. (2013), these structures aid in the emulsification of oils and the removal of dirt. Furthermore, several surfactants employ hydroxyl groups in the hydrophilic portion to encourage hydrogen bonding, which improves foaming characteristics. Compounds such as d-gluconic

acetal surfactants exhibit this structural variation, which impacts foam stability and surface activity (Chen et al., 2022). The hydrophilic component of oligomeric surfactants can be larger than the hydrophobic part, differ from conventional surfactants. This unique structure improves solubilization, enhancing performance in applications such as oil recovery (Chou & Bae, 2019).

Analysis of Soap from Oil Blends

In a noteworthy study, Baba et al. (2017) evaluated the pH, fatty matter, and moisture content of soap manufactured from blends of soy and neem oil. The balanced formulation of the blend produced soaps that were structurally stable and had typically high cleaning qualities. Yadav et al. (2021) conducted more research on the saponification value and lathering characteristics of soaps made from a blend of castor and coconut oils, demonstrating better quality metrics when compared to soaps made from only one oil. Culinary oil blends have promise for soap production as well. In order to improve the functionality of soaps prepared from coconut, palm, peanut, and groundnut oils, Sura et al. (2020) evaluated blends of these oils for their fatty acid composition and nutritional advantages. enhancing the functionality of soaps made from these oils.

Sanaguano-Salguero et al. (2018) demonstrated an effective recycling method in soap manufacture by using leftover cooking oil to create eco-friendly soaps. The incorporation of unconventional oils is the subject of several investigations. Perifanova-Nemška et al. (2022), for instance, discovered that adding 10–30% palm kernel oil to soap compositions enhanced their fatty matter content and foaming capacity. Rusli (2018) described an alternative method that used essential oils. They investigated patchouli oil for its antibacterial properties in solid soap, producing formulations with durable physical characteristics. Formulations that use essential oils for additional health advantages are among the other noteworthy contributions.

For example, a blend of vetiver, lavender, eucalyptus, lemongrass, and phlail oils was studied by Chaiwong et al. (2023) for its anti-inflammatory and antioxidant qualities, which are advantageous in cosmetic soaps. Furthermore, Widyasanti et al. (2019) created liquid soap infused with castor oil and white tea, attaining adequate pH balance and antibacterial qualities in compliance with quality standards. In recent years, there has been a significant increase in interest in the examination of oil blends, especially in industrial and environmental contexts. Numerous oil mixtures have been studied in order to maximize their physical, chemical, and functional qualities for a range of uses, from the creation of biodiesel to the formulation of lubricants. Grover et al. (2020) conducted a significant study that evaluated the fatty acid

composition and quality of blended oils, with a particular emphasis on linseed oil combinations.

The study sought to balance shelf stability and nutritional content by varying blending ratios, emphasizing the potential for linseed blends to retain quality over time. Through simulation-based modifications in API gravity and sulfur concentration over more than 60 scenarios, Naji et al. (2021) optimized Iraqi oil blends, resulting in improved stability and compatibility for refining applications. Rahman et al. (2018) also investigated oil blending to enhance engine performance, combining essential oils with diesel. Despite using more gasoline, this blend maintained competitive thermal efficiency, proving to be a good substitute fuel. Models for crude oil blending were created by Hou et al. (2015) and Kumar et al. (2018) with the goal of achieving lower viscosity and less fouling, both of which are necessary for effective distillation. Guimares et al. (2018) made blends of castor and leftover frying oil and reported improvements in acidity and compliance with biodiesel quality criteria, marking further developments in the manufacturing of biodiesel. This study offers insights into sustainable fuel options, as does Balaka and Gunawan's (2021) analysis of the combustion characteristics of spent cooking oil mixed with pyrolysis oil. Finally, Yu et al. (2017) evaluated mineral-vegetable oil mixes for dielectric stability and described how oil blends have been customized for transformer insulation applications. This method improves electrical equipment's longevity and thermal endurance, which is a major advancement in transformer design.

Synthetic Detergent

Three essential ingredients—surfactants, builders, and additives—all contribute differently to the cleaning effectiveness of detergent mixtures. Surfactants make it easier for the detergent to penetrate stains and fibers by reducing surface tension. Alkyl aryl sulfonates and ethoxylated fatty alcohols are two of the most well-known types of surfactants. Both of these substances effectively soften oil and grime so that they are easily removed by washing. Nonionic surfactants, such as ethoxylated fatty alcohols, are frequently used in liquid detergent formulations because they provide excellent cleaning effectiveness and high foaming qualities in a variety of settings (Broze et al., 2017). For detergents to be more effective at cleaning, builders are required.

They help in the following ways: They help prevent debris buildup and lower the hardness of the water. Aluminosilicates and phosphates are common builders that help chelate calcium and magnesium ions to prevent soap scum from forming. For example, to enhance performance, detergent compositions may include builders like phosphate at weight percentages less than 15% (Tang et al., 2018).

Additives

Although none of the extra components should be harmful to the user or the environment, enzymes, bleaching agents, and suds boosters can aid with other issues. While oxygen bleaching agents aid in whitening and brightening textiles, enzymes improve stain removal by breaking down proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates (Holderbaum et al., 2018). Every one of these elements functions in a way that offers a cooperative relationship to accomplish the necessary cleaning efficiently under various circumstances.

Applications

In addition to their industrial applications, soaps and detergents are used for bathing and washing. It is crucial for the healthcare and textile care sectors as well as for preventing the spread of disease. The development of fully transparent soaps and liquid soaps satisfies certain consumer demands for the soap's handling and look (M. Sitorus & Hetty Haryaiti, 2014). This is why the topic and functional relationship of soap and non-soap detergent delivery and application continue to be important research areas. The idea behind modern soap development is to provide a product with multiple uses. Opalescent glycerin-based soaps have gained popularity due to their usefulness and aesthetic appeal through the use of substrates like sodium lauryl ether sulfate (Agustina, 2017). However, the manufacturing of single-use soaps that incorporate palm cooking oil with additional fragrances is being informed by innovations of convenience and smell (Handayani, 2023). Liquid soaps also have developments of their own; for example, a formulation that contains natural extract like Sembukan leaves has demonstrated strong antibacterial activity against pathogens such as *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Evy & Syarifah, 2022). Additionally, ampholytic surfactants have been used to increase the hard water stability of soaps so they can function under challenging conditions (Fang et al., 2015).

Specialty Soaps and their Applications

Natural and Organic Soaps: Research on natural and organic soaps focuses on how they affect both the environment and the skin. One study examines the production of transparent soaps made from natural materials, highlighting how people rely on using eco-friendly substances for their health and well-being (Babić, 2019). In essence, another study looked into cocoa pod husk potash soap and found that it has skin benefits over synthetic soaps, which may contain a lot of chemicals that are bad for the skin (Gyedu-Akoto et al., 2015). Another type of soap is handmade and contains glycerin, which is known to moisturize the skin more than other commercial

soaps that can make the skin dry (Sukawaty and Warnida, 2021). Furthermore, studies have been conducted on the adulteration of oils with plant extracts in soaps; for instance, soaps made from citronella extract and green betel leaf show strong antioxidant properties that improve skin health while adhering to quality standards (Aznury et al., 2022); similarly, CPF's locally produced natural soaps made using neem seed oil and shea butter oil also meet physicochemical requirements and are suitable for skin application (Owoicho, 2021). All of these studies have examined and proven that natural and organic soaps are safer and superior to synthetic ones as they have anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, and moisturizer qualities.

Herbal Soaps

Since herbal soaps are a viable alternative to and possibly even preferred over commercial ones, their use of herbs offers various skin benefits. Such soaps contain natural components such as botanical extracts which exhibit antiseptic, antibacterial and anti-inflammatory benefits. For instance, a polyherbal soap with ingredients like aloe vera, neem, and basil has strong antibacterial properties and is suggested for use in psoriasis, eczema, and acne. Due to their lack of harsh chemicals and artificial fragrances, these soaps are perfect for sensitive skin (Bhujbal et al., 2023). Research has demonstrated that herbal soaps derived from plants such as *Borassus flabellifer* and *Curcuma zedoaria* have strong antibacterial and antioxidant qualities that support both daily skincare routines and therapeutic applications (Nisha et al., 2021). According to another study, the use of extracts from *Piper betel* and *Nathopanax scutellarium* in soap formulations has antibacterial properties and is environmentally friendly because it decomposes naturally (Rosa et al., 2020). All things considered; it is undeniable that herbal soaps have therapeutic qualities in addition to being able to cleanse the skin. As a result, they can be used in place of store-bought soaps to improve human skin health. According to research, herbal bath soaps made using Ayurvedic plant extracts showed promising physicochemical qualities and efficacy, indicating that they could be used as substitutes for traditional medicinal soaps (GanaManjusha et al., 2019). Another study shown how herbal soap constituents like neem, basil, and aloe vera can help prevent infections at times when hand washing occurs frequently. In order to lessen skin dryness and improve overall skin health, moisturizing soaps are carefully researched and created. The following lists some of the formulations' main active ingredients along with their attributes, backed by pertinent research: Some important formulations and their characteristics, backed by pertinent research, are listed below: Glycerin soaps with aloe vera extract; Aloe Vera extract and glycerin, as in the case of a moisture-retaining whitening handcrafted

soap, are the two most common constituents in moisturizing soaps. These components aid in the process of moisturizing and whitening the skin. The natural plant-based solution guarantees little irritation and is appropriate for prolonged usage (Su Jianli, 2012). Fermented Compound Soaps: some of the soaps made by employing fermentation technology have very moisturizing properties.

Moisturizing Soaps

They make the skin smooth and moist. This prevents the common issue of skin tightness and dryness after washing (Zhang Shulian et al., 2015). Spirulina-Enriched Soaps: When added to soap preparations, the edible microalgae *Spirulina platensis* increases the soap's frothing ability, stability, and moisturizing effect. These formulations often display a distinctive color and fragrance, which enhances the user experience (Hadiyanto et al., 2023). Glycerin-Rich Handmade Soaps: Some commercial soaps may remove the glycerin in soap, but all handmade soaps contain this substance because it is a natural humectant. Glycerin keeps the skin supple, retaining moisture and reducing dryness, making these soaps a great option for skin hydration (Sukawaty & Warnida, 2021).

Antibacterial Soaps

Common soaps used to remove bacteria from the skin; their components, efficacy, and impact on bacterial resistance have all been disputed. These soaps highlight several hazards by encouraging AMR and imply that antibacterial medicines like triclosan have the ability to reduce the bacterial burden. Changes in bacterial efflux pumps or target enzymes are among the factors of bacterial resistance that reduce the efficacy of antibacterial soap. Research shows that although antibacterial substances like triclosan, which are frequently present in these soaps, can successfully lower the bacterial load, they also carry some danger because they can lead to the emergence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR). The effectiveness of the antibacterial soap is diminished by resistance mechanisms, which frequently entail alterations in target enzymes or mutations in bacterial efflux, (Kamilia et al., 2017).

Additionally, several antibacterial agents have been restricted by the FDA due to the lack of data supporting their efficacy above regular soap and water. Because they disrupt the human hormone system and persist in the environment, there has been discussion about the effects of these compounds on the environment and human health (Paudey et al., 2020). Despite the rise in resistance, it is becoming increasingly beneficial to consider natural antibacterial agents such as plant derivatives or oil extracts. It has been observed that the two choices may

reduce bacterial populations without developing resistances (Bastos & colleagues, 2017).

Medicated Soaps

Due to their superior effectiveness in treating and preventing skin infections, inexpensive medicated soaps have won a lot of attention. Several investigations describe the effectiveness, preparations, and potential adverse reactions of these soaps. Medicated soaps usually contain materials such as triclosan, triclocarban, and chloroxylenol, as it has antibacterial functions. For instance, studies have shown that African black soaps exhibit significantly better antibacterial activity than standard medicated soaps, making them effective alternatives for treating bacterial infections. Similarly, soaps containing cl. otrimazole have demonstrated notable drug release rates and have been found to treat dermal infections effectively without causing skin irritation. Medicated soaps come in different formulations but what is typically incorporated are ingredients such as propolis extract and essential oils due to their wound healing and skin care properties.

The efficacy, preparation methods, and possible negative effects of these soaps are described in a number of studies. Because they have antibacterial properties, triclosan, triclocarban, and chloroxylenol are frequently used in medicated soaps. African black soaps, for example, have been found to have substantially more antibacterial activity than conventional medicaps, making them viable substitutes for the treatment of bacterial illnesses. Similarly, clotrimazole-containing soaps have been shown to have significant drug release rates and to effectively cure cutaneous infections without irritating the skin ([Patil et al., 2016]). Although medicated soaps come in a variety of formulas, propolis extract and essential oils are frequently used because of their ability to promote wound healing and promote skin care.

These ingredients support the soaps' antibacterial and skin-nourishing qualities (Mao et al., 2012). Excellent cleansing effectiveness and antibacterial properties were demonstrated in a study on herbal bath soaps made with methanolic extracts of Ayurvedic herbs, indicating that these soaps could be used as substitutes for over-the-counter medicinal soaps (Manjusha et al, 2019). Although medicated soaps with triclosan or other antifungal compounds work well against germs and fungi, their highly concentrated active components have serious environmental issues if used unregulated. Antiseptic soap research has shown how important it is to exercise caution in order to avoid long-term health concerns and environmental hazards (Marisco et al., 2019).

Research has shown that charcoal soaps, particularly those made with natural charcoal, have a number of benefits, including antibacterial activity. Most charcoal

soaps have significant antibacterial qualities, particularly those that contain herb extracts, which makes them perfect for use on skin that is sick. As per Bhujbal et al. (2023), the use of antibacterial agents in the manufacture of polyherbal soaps offers a safer substitute for commercial soaps that might include hazardous ingredients. Likewise, natural substances such as phycocyanin derived from microalgae have been added to antibacterial soaps, providing skin advantages and lowering the possibility of adverse effects often linked to stronger antibacterial agents (Pramadhanti & Dianursanti, 2019).

Charcoal soaps

When made with natural substances like herbal extracts, charcoal soaps have fewer adverse effects than conventional medicated soaps. For instance, it has been discovered that African black soap, which is mild and hypoallergenic and ideal for sensitive skin, has antibacterial qualities against Staphylococcal and Streptococcal organisms due to its natural charcoal and plant extracts (Ogunbiyi & Enechukwu, 2021). Thus, when combined with herbal extracts, charcoal soaps have balancing properties for skin care that reduce inflammation and get rid of microorganisms. In an attempt to counteract the effects of hard water where lime soaps are deposited, many of today's developed soaps use amphoteric or synthetic materials. For instance, sodium methyl alkylbenzoylsulfopropionate and alkylaryl sulfonamide derivatives applied lime soap dispersants, boosting detergency and compatibility concerning to builders (Marmer and Bistline, 1974). Liquid soaps with skin conditioners that include glycerin, vitamins, and plant extracts are used for a variety of purposes, such as hand washing during the coronavirus outbreak. These formulations also satisfy the consumer's criteria for mildness and environmental friendliness (Chetta Aradhitya Sufi et al., 2023).

Dirt Removal Chemistry of Soaps and Detergents

Mechanism of Emulsification in the Action of Dirt Removal

The basis of rinsing is the dissolution and emulsification of lipids in a surface wash when surfactants are present. Surfactants make it easier for oily debris to be encapsulated into micelles or emulsions by lowering the interfacial tension between water and oil. Studies showed that when surfactants produce structures like microemulsions at the plane of contact between the dirt and the washing solution, oily soils are effectively washed off. Since the HLB of non-ionic surfactants makes it easier to remove oily filth from the washing solution without breaking up smaller micelles that are less effective at

removing oil, they are especially excellent at achieving this process. Dirt Removal Chemistry of Soaps and Detergents

Mechanism of Solubilization in Dirt Removal Action

The solubilization technique in dirt removal involves the use of surfactants to move hydrophobic dirt particles from the oil phase into the water phase. Micelle formation is the mechanism by which the hydrophilic end of the surfactant molecules dissolves in water after the hydrophobic portion of the molecules around the oily filth captures it within the core. For instance, a solubilization-emulsification technique is used to wash greasy pollutants while cleaning fabrics. Because of their dual hydrophilic and lipophilic qualities, which allow for the formation of microemulsions or liquid crystal at the oil-water interface during the washing process, non-ionic surfactants are the most effective. Because the dirt is dissolved in the solution rather than just dispersed, this intermediate phase maximizes the removal of soil (Miller and Raney, 2023). Furthermore, the biochar-supported systems including sulfidated nano zero-valent iron (S-nZVI) improves solubilization by desorption of pollutant like nitrobenzene from the soil and can easily reduce and removed from environment (Gao et al., 2022).

Mechanism of Dispersion in Dirt Removal Action

The procedure in Dispersants, also known as surfactants, are used to reduce dirt subsections into smaller pieces and disseminate them in a cleaning medium that is contaminated, usually water, in order to remove dirt by dispersion. Instead of the dirt particles settling on the surfaces, these compounds allow the gravitationally acting particles to float in the water. The way the dispersants work is by making the dirt particles less charged so they can't group together and stay in the water. In addition to its non-scaling property, Gao et al. (2019) have filed a patent for a dirt dispersion agent that contains polyaspartic acid copolymers, praising its enhanced dispersibility and biodegradability. This specific substance enhances the dispersion of debris within the water. In addition, Shukla and Chauhan (2017) give a mathematical formula which addresses a role of dispersion in pollutant removal showing that dispersion processes may be modeled to give insight to the distribution of contaminants during clean-up operations.

Environmental Impact of Soaps and Detergents

Including Biodegradability, Toxicity, and Sustainability

The environmental impact of soaps and detergents centers around three key aspects: biodegradability, toxicity and sustainability. Biodegradability means Susceptibility of soap and detergent compounds to microbial degradation. The fact that soaps are derived from natural fats and oils they are therefore more

biodegradable than the synthetic detergents. But this common product usually involve non-degradable surfactants known as alkyl benzene sulfonate (ABS), whereby it applies. Today's versions have moved to more ways that are easy to degrade in the environment such as the linear alkylbenzene sulfonate (LAS). Other issue is toxicity because they disrupt the cell membranes of living organisms and bioaccumulate in water, which is lethal for fishes and other water inhabitants. Some of the pollutants that have been eradicated from the markets but used in the past include phosphates which are used in production of detergents promote the spread of eutrophication in water bodies hence promoting growth of bad alga. It has, therefore, prompted many countries to take legal measures to reduce their uptake. In as much as the social aspect is concerned, there are some challenges of soaps and detergent production and usage, especially with respect to resource use, for example palm oil and consumption of soap an important resource that, if not well utilised and utilised sustainably such as the provision of palm oil for soaps, may lead to other adverse impacts of production that include deforestation. The current advance is largely aimed at the environmental impact and seek to replace the less sustainable material, use natural resources, and reduce the usage of water and energy during the manufacturing process. Such green certifications as EU Ecolabel are used to facilitate the process of sustaining the environmentally friendly tendency in the production of detergents and soaps by setting the high environmental standards.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, because of their different chemical compositions, soaps and non-soap detergents are both very important in today's cleaning applications. Because they can emulsify dirt and oils, natural soaps manufactured from fats and oils perform well in soft water. However, they have trouble in hard water because they create insoluble salts. These shortcomings have been replaced by synthetic non-soap detergents, which maintain their cleaning power in both soft and hard water. Hard water was said to be a drawback since it prevented soaps from foaming. This characteristic results from recently created chemically designed surfactant molecules that can handle a wide range of dirt and stains. However, the environmental impact of soaps and detergents concerning biodegradability and toxicity have caused formulation of better alternatives. Not to mention that new biodegradable surfactants are being developed and that phosphates have been outlawed. The future of soaps and detergents will be in reaching the necessary standards for their efficiency while also being able to represent a modest harm to our environment, as they are currently essential goods in our everyday life. The use of oil

blends in soapmaking is a revolutionary strategy for maximizing soap sustainability and quality. Through oil blending, soap makers can produce products that combine the inherent advantages of different oils for skin health with their special qualities, such as improved cleansing, moisturizing, and foaming capabilities. Research indicates that mixed oils, including blends of neem and soya bean oil or coconut and castor oil, contribute to soaps with superior lathering, stability, and desirable pH levels. Additionally, essential oils like vetiver and patchouli are added to oil blends, giving soaps antibacterial, antioxidant, and anti-inflammatory qualities that make them both useful and good for the skin. The quality of the soap is enhanced by this trend, which also fits with consumers' increasing desire for natural and environmentally friendly products. According to research, using blended oils in soap manufacturing helps produce sustainable, multipurpose soaps with health advantages, satisfying consumer demand for premium, eco-friendly goods. In conclusion, the move toward oil-blended soaps meets both functional and environmental needs, establishing this method as a cutting-edge development in contemporary soap manufacturing that satisfies customer expectations and performance standards.

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