Low-cost biosorbents from pines wastes for heavy metals removal from wastewater: adsorption/desorption studies.

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ABSTRACT

The use of inexpensive materials such as agricultural by-products and industrial waste has received considerable attention because of their high efficiency for heavy metal retention, low cost and availability. This study aimed to investigate the technical feasibility of residual biomass from pines (cones and leaves) for Cr(VI) and Cu(II) removal from aqueous solutions. The effect of various parameters, such as pH, metal concentration, contact time, temperature and biosorbent/solution ratio was examined. Biosorbents were characterized using scanning electron microscopy combined with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy and Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy. The specific surface area was evaluated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller isotherm. The equilibrium data showed better fitting to the Langmuir model, indicating the monolayer adsorption behavior. The Langmuir model predicted a maximum adsorption capacity of 27.78 mg g⁻¹ of Cu(II) on pine cones and 64.04 mg g⁻¹ of Cr(VI) on pine leaves. The kinetic study revealed that the pseudo-second-order model fitted the experimental data. The thermodynamic study showed that the biosorption process was endothermic for Cu and exothermic for Cr(VI). The biosorbent can be reactivated with 0.1 mol L⁻¹ HNO₃ allowing the recovery of the metals and the recycling of the biosorbent. These results showed that pine waste materials can be used as efficient, economic and eco-friendly biosorbent for Cu(II) and Cr(VI) recovery from contaminated effluents.

Keywords: Biosorption; Desorption; Langmuir isotherm; Pine biomass; Chromium; Copper

1. Introduction

Water pollution by heavy metals is one of the major environmental issues around the globe that have received widespread attention due to the high toxicity of most metallic species on aquatic organisms and the potential risk for human health. The origin of heavy metal contamination is often associated with various mining and industrial activities, as well as the lack of an appropriate waste management system. Heavy metals are commonly detected in wastewater from the mining and electroplating industries, smelting and petroleum refining, tanneries and battery manufacture [1–4]. Metals are non-biodegradable in nature and they can be persistently accumulated in the food chain, thus
posing a serious threat to the health of living organisms and the natural environment as a whole [5–7].

Among various heavy metals, chromium is recognized to be highly toxic. Chromium exists in several oxidation states (from +2 to +6) but the most stable form is the trivalent cation (Cr³⁺) and the hexavalent anions (chromate and dichromate). Compared to Cr(III), Cr(VI) is more mobile, bioavailable and, hence more toxic. It is considered carcinogenic and mutagenic for most organisms [8]. Human exposure to chromium may cause several diseases such as liver damage, allergic skin reactions, bronchitis and bronchogenic carcinoma [9,10]. Copper (Cu) has been considered as one of the most harmful ions, especially when its concentration exceeds the maximum contamination level of 1.3 mg L⁻¹ (USEPA, 2009). Acute exposure to large doses of Cu is associated with several diseases like kidney damage, pancreas and heart diseases, gastrointestinal irritation and it increases the risk of lung cancer [11,12]. Thus, the removal of these metal ions from wastewater prior to its discharge into natural water is of utmost interest.

Several conventional processes such as solvent extraction [13], flotation [14], coagulation [15], electrochemical treatment [16], ion exchange [17] and membrane separation [18] have been tested and implemented for removing heavy metals from industrial effluents. However, the application of these technologies is limited by their high cost and complicated operation, inefficiency at low concentrations and the generation of toxic wastes.

Biosorption stands out as a potent alternative technology given to its low cost, ease of operation, high efficiency, even at low metal concentration, no formation of chemical wastes, and the possibility of recycling the adsorbent [19–21].

In the last few decades, several research works have been devoted to looking for promising cost-effective adsorbents. Agricultural wastes have been recognized as an important source of promising biosorbents due to its good retention capacity, availability, low cost, and the possibility of their regeneration and reuse [3,22]. Heavy metals are retained in the biosorbents by binding through functional groups such as carbonyl, phenolic, amino, etc. [7,23]. Various biosorbents produced from agricultural wastes were efficiently used for heavy metals recoveries such as rice husk [24], peanut shell [25], banana peel [26], olive stones [27] and sawdust [28].

The aim of this work is to investigate the potential capacity of pine waste materials, that is, pine leaves and pine cones, as biosorbents for removing chromium (VI) and copper (II) from synthetic wastewater. The influence of various variables in the adsorption process was studied: metal concentration, adsorbent dose, pH, contact time and temperature. The adsorption isotherm as well as the adsorption kinetics and the thermodynamic behavior were investigated. The surface morphology of the biosorbents was determined by scanning electron microscopy/energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM/EDS). The possible functional groups and the potential binding sites were evaluated by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis. The specific surface area was evaluated by the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) isotherm. Desorption studies on the pine waste materials were performed to determine the possibility of regeneration and reuse of the biosorbent.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and analytical methods

Potassium dichromate (K₂Cr₂O₇), copper(II) sulfate pentahydrate (CuSO₄·5H₂O), and ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Spain). Other chemicals used were of analytical grade and supplied by Panreac (Spain). Stock solutions (1 g L⁻¹) of chromium and copper were prepared by dissolving the required amount of K₂Cr₂O₇ or CuSO₄·5H₂O in 1 L of deionized (DI) water. Working concentrations ranging from 10 to 1,000 mg L⁻¹ were prepared by dilution of the stock solutions. The pH of the metal solutions was measured with a CyberScan PC 510 pH-meter (Eutech Instruments, USA). The pH was adjusted when necessary by adding hydrochloric acid (HCl, 0.1 mol L⁻¹) or sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 0.1 mol L⁻¹). The concentration of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) in the solutions was determined by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES) at the Analysis Center CACTI of the University of Vigo. The concentration of Cr(VI) was determined by UV-Vis spectrophotometry at 540 nm with the 1,5-diphenylcarbazide method. The reagent 1,5-diphenylcarbazide form a violet complex with Cr(VI) which is then measured in a spectrophotometer at 540 nm.

2.2. Adsorbents preparation

Pine tree cones and leaves were collected from the area of the University of Tunis, El Manar, Tunis (NW Tunisia). They were washed with distilled water to remove impurities, and dried in an oven at 70°C for 24 h. Dried biomass was grounded and passed through a sieve of 150 µm size. The fraction smaller than 150 µm was collected and stored in an airtight plastic container for future use.

2.3. Adsorbent characterization

The surface morphology of the two adsorbents was observed by SEM combined with an EDS analyzer (Thermo Scientific™ Quanta™ 200 SEM) with an accelerating voltage of 20 kV. FTIR spectra before and after the biosorption tests were measured by the Perkin Elmer Spectrum 100 analyzer over the 4,000–400 cm⁻¹ wavenumber range. Samples were prepared using the KBr pellet method. Specific surface area, particle size, and pore diameter were measured from the N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherm at 100°C using ASAP 202 (Micromeritics, USA) apparatus. The pH at point of zero charge (pHₚz) of the prepared sorbents was estimated by the salt addition method [29]. A series of 100 mL Erlenmeyer flasks, 0.15 g of pine cones (PC) or pine leaves (PL) powders were dispersed in 50 mL of NaCl solution (0.01 mol L⁻¹). The initial pH (pH₀) of NaCl solution was fixed in the range of 2–12. The mixture was vigorously stirred for 24 h and the final pH (pHₐ) was measured. The isoelectric point is the intersection between the bisector and the plot of pHₐ vs. pH₀.

2.4. Adsorption Experiment

Batch adsorption experiments were performed in 50 mL Erlenmeyer flasks adding 0.4 g of biosorbent to 40 mL of
solution of the target heavy metal ion (Cr(VI) or Cu(II)). The mixture was kept under agitation at a constant temperature (20°C) using an orbital shaker with agitation and temperature control (CORNING LSE 49 L) until the adsorption equilibrium was reached. The biosorbent suspensions were filtered through filter paper. Filtrates were collected and analyzed for residual metal concentration.

The effects of adsorbent dose (0.1–1.2 g), initial concentration of metal (10–1,000 mg L\(^{-1}\)) and pH (1–10) on the adsorption process were investigated. Kinetic study and the effect of contact time were carried out for 48 h and the results were fitted to pseudo-first-order, pseudo-second-order and intraparticle diffusion models. The effect of temperature and thermodynamic study were carried out in the range of 10°C–60°C. The amount of metal adsorbed in the equilibrium \(q_e\) (mg g\(^{-1}\)) was evaluated using Eq. (1).

\[
q_e = \frac{(C_0 - C_e)V}{W}
\]

where \(C_0\) (mg L\(^{-1}\)) is the initial metal concentration in the liquid phase, \(C_e\) (mg L\(^{-1}\)) is the metal concentration in the equilibrium in the liquid-phase, \(V\) is the volume of the liquid phase (L), and \(W\) is the adsorbent dose (g).

2.5. Desorption experiments

A desorption study was carried out to regenerate/recycle the biosorbent used for copper and chromium adsorption. The experiments were conducted using different reagents: HNO\(_3\), HCl, EDTA, NaOH (0.1 mol L\(^{-1}\)). The metal-loaded biosorbent was mixed with 40 mL of each regeneration solution and shaken at 180 rpm and 20°C overnight. The liquid phase was separated by filtration and analyzed for metal (Cr(VI) or Cu(II)) concentration.

The metal-loaded biosorbent was mixed with 40 mL of each regeneration solution and shaken at 180 rpm and 20°C overnight. The mixture was kept under agitation at a constant temperature (20°C) using an orbital shaker with agitation and temperature control (CORNING LSE 49 L) until the adsorption equilibrium was reached. The biosorbent suspensions were filtered through filter paper. Filtrates were collected and analyzed for residual metal concentration.

The physical properties, that is, surface area, pore volume and pore size of PC and PL have been investigated. The results showed that the BET surface area, the pore volume and the average pore size were 5.50 m\(^2\) g\(^{-1}\), 0.0104 cm\(^3\) g\(^{-1}\) and 10.84 nm respectively for the pine cones. BET surface area of PL was found to be 3.04 m\(^2\) g\(^{-1}\), pore volume and pore size of PL were 0.0027 cm\(^3\) g\(^{-1}\) and 7.23 nm, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of the adsorbents

3.1.1. SEM, EDS and BET analysis

The morphology of pine cones (PC) and pine leaves (PL) was investigated by SEM. Fig. 1a–c revealed that PC biomass has a relatively smooth surface structure with fibrillary packing. The external surface of pine leaves showed a rough and coarse morphology with some wrinkles and pores (Fig. 1e–g). After Cu adsorption, the PC surface appeared with some scars which may be related to the deposition of copper on the surface (Fig. 1d). The surface of pine leaves after Cr(VI) loading has not significantly changed.

The elemental composition of prepared sorbents before and after heavy metal sorption was investigated and the results are shown in Fig. 2. The EDS detected the main elements in pine cones being the most abundant element carbon (76.90% wt.), followed by oxygen (27.55% wt.), aluminum (0.97% wt.), calcium (0.39% wt.) and silicon (0.18% wt.) (Fig. 2a). Elemental composition analysis of PL surface revealed the presence of C, O, Na, Mg, Si, S, Cl and Ca (Fig. 2c). The adsorption of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) onto PC and PL was confirmed by EDS results as shown in Fig. 2b and d.

3.1.2. FTIR analysis

FTIR analysis was performed to reveal the functional groups of the biosorbent surface and to identify their interaction with metal ions. Fig. 3 shows FTIR spectra analyses of PC and PL before and after adsorption of Cu(II) or Cr(VI). Fig. 3a (PC spectra) revealed a broadband at 3,335.64 cm\(^{-1}\) assigned to hydroxyl (–OH) or amine (–NH) groups. The peak at 2,926 cm\(^{-1}\) corresponds to the stretching vibration bands of the C–H groups. The band at 1,604.13 cm\(^{-1}\) is characterized by the stretching vibration of a carboxyl group (–COOH). The peaks at 1,264.1 and 1,024.21 cm\(^{-1}\) corresponds to the stretching vibrations of the CO group.

The band observed at 667.83 cm\(^{-1}\) may be related to C–Cl group. These results indicated the presence of some functional groups such as hydroxyl, carboxyl and amino on PC surface. The FTIR spectra of the Cu-loaded PC showed that the peaks expected at 3,335.9; 2,930.0; 1,613.9; 1,263.4 and 1,024.9 cm\(^{-1}\) have shifted to 3,327.6; 2,920.1; 1,613.6 and 1,029.4 cm\(^{-1}\), respectively. These changes suggested that the corresponding functional groups (–OH, –NH, –COOH, CO) may be involved in Cu adsorption.

In the case of pine leaves (Fig. 3b), the stretching vibration band of –OH, –NH, –COOH, and CO functional groups had shifted to 3,327.6; 2,920.1; 1,613.6 and 1,029.4 cm\(^{-1}\), respectively. Similarly, it is assumed that these functional groups may be involved in the biosorption of Cr(VI).

3.1.3. Determination of the pH of point zero charge

The pH\(_{pzc}\) estimated for PC and PL was found to be 6.6 and 4.4 respectively (Fig. 4). For pH < pH\(_{pzc}\), the active sites of the adsorbent are protonated and have a positive charge. However, pH > pH\(_{pzc}\), the surface charge of the adsorbent is negative [30]. The charge of the solid surface will have an impact in the adsorption of cations or anions. It is hypothesized that Cu will be more effectively adsorbed at pH above the pH\(_{pzc}\) whereas dichromate anions will be preferably adsorbed at pH below the pH\(_{pzc}\).

3.2. Selection of adsorbent

Pine waste materials (cones and leaves) were tested as adsorbents for the removal of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) (Fig. S1). Higher removal of Cu(II) was achieved with pine cones. About 76% of the initial Cu(II) was removed with PC whereas PL retained only 13% of Cu(II). Cr(VI) showed
Fig. 1. SEM of pine cones samples: before Cu(II) adsorption (a) magnification x 150, (b) magnification: x 1000, (c) magnification: x 2500; after Cu(II) adsorption at initial concentration of 250 mg L\(^{-1}\) (d) magnification x 2500. SEM of pine leaves samples: before adsorption (e) magnification x 300, (f) magnification x 1000, (g) magnification x 2500; after Cr(VI) adsorption at initial concentration of 250 mg L\(^{-1}\) (h) magnification x 2500.

Fig. 2. Energy spectrum by EDS of: (a) pine cones before adsorption, (b) pine cones after Cu(II) at an initial concentration of 250 mg L\(^{-1}\), (c) pine leaves before Cr(VI) adsorption and (d) pine leaves after Cr(VI) adsorption at an initial concentration at 250 mg L\(^{-1}\).
different behavior. Pine leaves were much more effective retaining Cr(VI) (87% of the initial chromium was adsorbed) than pine cones, which retained only 44% of the initial chromium. Thus, PC was selected in this study for the adsorption of Cu(II) whereas PL was used as an adsorbent for Cr(VI).

3.3. Adsorption of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) in batch tests

3.3.1. Effect of pH

pH solution is one of the most important parameters for adsorption since it has a critical influence on heavy metal speciation and binding to the solid surface of the adsorbent. pH affects the properties of the adsorbate and adsorbent, such as the surface charge and the ionic state of functional groups in the adsorbent, and the speciation of the adsorbate [31]. The effect of pH on Cr(VI) adsorption was studied in the range from pH = 1 to 10, whereas Cu(II) adsorption was studied from pH = 1 to 8 due to the lack of stability of Cu(II) in alkaline solutions.

As depicted in Fig. 5a, the adsorbed Cu(II) increased from 20% to 98% when the pH increased from pH 2 to 6.4. This can be interpreted in terms of the activity of the hydronium ions (H$_3$O$^+$). At low pH, H$_3$O$^+$ will compete with metal ions for the active sites. Most of the biosorbent sites would be occupied by protons resulting in an increase in positive charges on the adsorbent surface. Thus, repulsive forces will be created, which in turn, reduce copper sorption. As pH increases, the concentration of H$_3$O$^+$ decreases, resulting in an increasing amount of negative charges on the surface. Thus, the interaction between Cu(II) and
binding sites increases, which results in higher Cu(II) removal from the solution [21,32,33]. This was also confirmed by the pH_{pzc} since the estimated value was 6.6 and below this pH, the surface of pine cones was positively charged thus, Cu(II) sorption was not favored. For pH higher than 6.6, pine cones surface was negatively charged favoring Cu(II) sorption by electrostatic attraction. At pH above 6, there is a decrease in adsorption capacity due to the precipitation of copper as Cu(OH)₂ [34]; thus, copper ions are not available in the solution to be adsorbed onto PC.

In the tests with chromium, the adsorption capacity increases up to pH 6, and then decreases from pH 6 to 10. Maximum Cr(VI) adsorption (88.5%) was achieved at pH 6 (Fig. 5a). Cr(VI) exists in different forms: H₂CrO₄, HCrO₄⁻, CrO₄²⁻, and Cr₂O₇⁻² depending on the pH of the solution. At low pH, the predominant forms are HCrO₄⁻ and CrO₄²⁻. As the pH increases, the predominant form shifts to CrO₄²⁻. As a result, the divalent CrO₄⁺ ion is the dominant species in alkaline conditions [35–37].

In acidic solutions, the surface of the adsorbent is protonated acquiring positive charges, favoring the electrostatic attraction between the negatively charged ions (chromate and dichromate) and the binding sites. In addition, lower pH favors the binding of HCrO₄⁻ to acidic functional groups. Therefore, Cr(VI) adsorption was enhanced at low pH [9,38]. Similar behavior of Cr(VI) adsorption has been also reported in the literature [39–41].

The highest removal efficiency of Cr(VI) was identified in the pH range 5–6 which is in disagreement with results reported in the literature [38,42]. This may be explained by the main anion-exchange mechanism involved in the sorption of Cr(VI) on pine leaves [9]. Above pH 6, a decrease in Cr(VI) adsorption has been observed. This can be ascribed to the competition between the hydroxyl ions (OH⁻) and Cr(VI) ions and the decrease in electrostatic attraction [4,43]. The pH_{pzc} of pine leaves was found to be 4.4. At pH lower than 4.4, pine leaves surface was positively charged favoring Cr(VI) sorption via electrostatic attraction with the negatively charged chromium species. For pH > pH_{pzc}, Cr(VI) sorption was not favored due to the electrostatic repulsion between the negatively charged chromium species and the negatively charged pine leaves surface.

3.3.2. Effect of adsorbent dose

The effect of adsorbent dose on Cr(VI) and Cu(II) adsorption was investigated varying the amount of adsorbent from 0.1 to 1.2 g per 40 mL of metal solution. The results are shown in Fig. 5b. The Cr(VI) removed from the solution increased from 30.1% to 99.9% with the increase in adsorbent dose from 0.1 to 1.2 g.

The same behavior was observed with copper. The biosorbent dose increased the removal of Cu(II) from 28.1% to 99.9% with the increase in adsorbent dose from 0.1 to 1.2 g per 40 mL of metal solution, at the initial metal concentration of 1,000 mg L⁻¹. The results are due to the higher amount of adsorption sites in the biosorbent [44].

3.4. Adsorption isotherms

3.4.1. Effect of initial concentration

The effect of initial metal concentrations was investigated from 10 to 1,000 mg L⁻¹. The results are given in Fig. 5c and d. Fig. 5c shows that the metal ion adsorption increases sharply with the initial concentration until getting a maximum value. The increase of the metal concentration in the solution led to a higher concentration gradient between the solution and the biosorbent surface. This concentration gradient acts as a driving force for the transport of metal ions between the aqueous and the solid phase. Thus, the metal adsorption is enhanced until the saturation of the biosorbent [45,46]. However, the removal of metal from the solution decreased as the initial concentration of metal ion increased as shown in Fig. 5d. For instance, the removal of copper from the solution decreased from 98.3% to 27.1% when the initial metal concentration increased from 10 to 1,000 mg L⁻¹ (Fig. 5d). At low metal concentrations, there are enough active binding sites in the biosorbent surface for the metal ions in solution. However, when the amount of metal ions in the liquid phase increases, the relative abundance of active sites in the biosorbent decreases, and hence, the fraction of metal removed from the liquid phase decreases.

3.4.2. Adsorption isotherm models

Isotherm models are a valuable tool for describing the interaction between the adsorbent and adsorbate. Four isotherm models namely: Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin and Dubinin–Radushkevich, were used to fit the experimental adsorption data (Table 1, Fig. 6). Langmuir isotherm is based on the presumption of adsorption homogeneity [39]. It describes monolayer adsorption onto the surface of adsorbent, with no interaction between adsorbate molecules [37]. The non-linear Langmuir isotherm model can be written as Eq. (3).

\[
q_e = \frac{K_L q_{max} C_e}{1 + K_L C_e}
\]

where \(q_e \) (mg g⁻¹) is the amount of metal ion adsorbed per unit mass of adsorbent, \(q_{max} \) is the maximum adsorption capacity (mg g⁻¹), \(C_e \) is the metal concentration in the liquid phase at the equilibrium (mg L⁻¹) and \(K_L \) is the Langmuir constant related to the energy of adsorption (L mg⁻¹).

The Langmuir isotherm is characterized by a dimensionless constant called equilibrium parameter \(R_L \) used to predict the affinity between the adsorbate and adsorbent. This parameter is calculated with Eq. (4):

\[
R_L = \frac{1}{1 + K_L C_e}
\]

Based on the value of \(R_L \), the nature of adsorption could be either unfavorable (\(R_L > 1 \)), linear (\(R_L = 1 \)), favorable (\(0 < R_L < 1 \)) or irreversible (\(R_L = 0 \)) [46].

Freundlich isotherm assumes the multilayer sorption of adsorbate in heterogeneous surfaces, with sites with different energies involved in the adsorption process [37,47]. Eq. (5) shows the non-linearized from of the Freundlich isotherm.

\[
q_e = K_f C_e^{1/n}
\]
where $q_e$ is the equilibrium adsorption capacity (mg g$^{-1}$), $K_F$ is the Freundlich isotherm constants related to adsorption capacity, and $n$ is the adsorption intensity.

The Temkin isotherm model is represented by Eq. (6). This model assumes that the adsorption energy decreases linearly with the surface coverage [48].

$$q_e = \frac{RT}{b_T \ln(A_t C_e)}$$

where $B = RT/b_T$, $b_T$ expressed as J mol$^{-1}$, is the Temkin constant related to the heat of adsorption. $R$ is the universal gas constant (8.314 J mol$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$). $T$ (K) is the absolute temperature and $A_t$ (L mg$^{-1}$) is the equilibrium binding constant corresponding to the maximum binding energy.

The last isotherm model evaluated was proposed by Dubinin–Radushkevich [Eq. (7)]. This model describes an adsorption process with a Gaussian energy distribution onto heterogeneous surface [49].

$$q_e = q_D \exp \left(-\beta \varepsilon^2 \right)$$

where $q_D$ is the Dubinin–Radushkevich constant (mg g$^{-1}$), $\beta$ is the constant related to the free energy and $\varepsilon$ the Polanyi potential which is defined as $\varepsilon = RT \ln(1 + 1/C_e)$.

The sorption energy $E$ was calculated using Eq. (8).
The $E$ (kJ mol$^{-1}$) value provides information about the nature of adsorption. If $E$ lies between 8 and 16 kJ mol$^{-1}$, the sorption process is considered chemisorption, whereas if $E < 8$ kJ mol$^{-1}$, the sorption process is considered physisorption [50].

As it can be seen in Table 1, Langmuir model shows the highest correlation coefficient $R^2$ among the four isotherm models for Cu(II) in pine cones and Cr(VI) in pine leaves. Values of $R_L$ ranging between 0 and 1 ($R_L = 0.052$ for Cu(II), and $R_L = 0.24$) indicating that the adsorption was favorable. Freundlich, Temkin and Dubinin–Radushkevich showed $R^2$ values lower than that for Langmuir model, suggesting that the latter fitted better the experimental data and that the adsorption process of Cr(VI) and Cu(II) onto pine wastes was a monolayer sorption without interaction between adsorbate molecules.

### 3.5. Adsorption kinetics

#### 3.5.1. Effect of contact time

The effect of contact time on the biosorption of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) was studied up to 48 h at the initial metal concentration of 250 mg L$^{-1}$. The temperature was 20°C and the adsorbent dose was 0.4 g. As shown in Fig. 5e, the amount of adsorbed metal increased with the contact time. The adsorption rate was faster in the beginning of the test, when all the active sites are vacant, and then the adsorption rate decreases with the contact time. For example, in 30 min, the adsorbed amount was 19.4 mg g$^{-1}$ for Cu(II), and 15.3 mg g$^{-1}$ for Cr(VI). In 90 min, the adsorbed amount only increased up to 21.3 mg g$^{-1}$ for Cu, and 16.07 mg g$^{-1}$ for Cr(VI). This is due to the reduced fraction of vacant sites in the biosorbent surface as the adsorption progressed [21].

#### 3.5.2. Kinetic study

Kinetic experimental data were fitted to the pseudo-first-order, pseudo-second-order, and intraparticle diffusion models (Fig. 7a–c) to investigate the possible adsorption mechanism and the rate controlling step in the adsorption of Cu(II) and Cr(VI) in pine cones and leaves. The pseudo-first-order equation (Lagergren’s equation) $E = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\beta}}$ (8)
describes the adsorption of a liquid-solid system on the basis of adsorbent capacity. It suggests that one metal ion react with one sorption site on the surface of the adsorbent [51]. The Lagergren model and its integrated form can be expressed by Eqs. (9) and (10).

\[ q_t = q_e (1 - \exp(-k_t t)) \]  
\[ \log(q_e - q_t) = \log(q_e) - \left( \frac{k_t}{2.303} \right) t \]  

where \( k_t \) is the pseudo-first-order rate constant of adsorption (min\(^{-1}\)), \( q_t \) is the amount of metal ion adsorbed in the equilibrium, and \( q_e \) (mg g\(^{-1}\)) is the metal adsorbed at any time \( t \) (min).

The pseudo-second-order kinetic model can be expressed by Eqs. (11) and (12).

\[ q_t = \frac{t}{k_{id} q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} \]  
\[ \frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_{id} q_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} \]  

where \( k_{id} \) is the pseudo-second-order adsorption rate constant (g mg\(^{-1}\) min\(^{-1}\)).

Table 1 shows the parameters for each kinetic model and the correlation coefficient \( R^2 \). The pseudo-second-order kinetic model correlates better the experimental data (\( R^2 \) values of pseudo-second-order model (Cu(II):0.942, Cr(VI): 0.914) were higher the \( R^2 \) values of pseudo-first-order model (Cu(II):0.810, Cr(VI): 0.743). Moreover, the \( q_e \) values calculated from the pseudo-second-order model were in good agreement with experimental values of \( q_e \) (21.62 mg g\(^{-1}\) for Cu(II) and 21.36 mg g\(^{-1}\) for Cr(VI)); whereas the pseudo-first-order kinetic model predicts lower values.

The Weber–Morris intraparticle diffusion model was used to investigate the diffusion mechanism in the porous structure of the adsorbent, and its influence in the adsorption rate. The intraparticle diffusion model equation is expressed by Eq. (13).

\[ q_t = k_{id} t^{1/2} + C \]  

where \( k_{id} \) is the intraparticle diffusion rate constant (mg g\(^{-1}\) min\(^{1/2}\)) and \( C \) is the value of intercept in a plot of \( q_t \) vs. \( t^{1/2} \) [52].
The linearity of the plot $q_t$ vs. $t^{1/2}$ informs about the diffusion mechanism. If the plot is linear and passes through the origin, then the intraparticle diffusion is the only rate limiting step. A multiple linear plot suggests that the adsorption process is governed by more than one step [49,53,54]. The plots $q_t$ vs. $t^{1/2}$ for the adsorption of Cu/pine cones or Cr/pine leaves (Fig. 7c) showed a multilinear plot suggesting that the intraparticle diffusion was not the only rate limiting step. As depicted in Fig. 7c, chromium adsorption process occurred in three phases. The first linear segment indicates surface or film diffusion rate control, the second linear segment represents a gradual biosorption where pore or intraparticle diffusion were rate limiting step, and the third segment is the final equilibrium. Fig. 7c shows that copper adsorption took place on two steps. The first step corresponded the intraparticle diffusion. The second step was attributed to the final equilibrium stage [21]. The intra-particle rate constant $k_{a2}$ and intercept $C$ are given in Table 1. The value of $C$ describes the boundary layer effect. The larger the intercept value the greater the boundary layer effect [54]. For both Cu(II) and Cr(VI), $C$ values were different from 0, meaning that the intraparticle diffusion is not the exclusive rate controlling step [4,39].

3.6. Effect of temperature and thermodynamic study

The effect of temperature was investigated over the range of 10°C–40°C and the results are shown in Fig. 5f. As can be seen, the biosorption rate of copper decreased from 85.0% to 61.2% by increasing the temperature from 10°C to 30°C. These results suggested the decrease of randomness at the solid-solution interface as result of Cu(II) adsorption in pine cones [37]. Houhoune et al. [55] reported that the negative $\Delta S^\circ$ suggested the decrease of randomness at the solid-solution interface [42]. The exothermic nature of chromium biosorption process, and the positive value of $\Delta S^\circ$ also suggested the increase of randomness at the solid-solution interface [42]. The exothermic nature of copper biosorption was confirmed by the negative value of $\Delta H^\circ$. The negative value of $\Delta S^\circ$ suggested the decrease of randomness at the solid-solution interface as result of Cu(II) adsorption in pine cones [37]. Krobba et al. [56] have also reported that a negative activation entropy $\Delta S^*$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase. Krobba et al. [56] have also reported that a negative activation entropy $\Delta S^*$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase.

The thermodynamic parameters of chromium and copper adsorption on pine leaves and cones were determined and listed in Table 2. The positive value of $\Delta H^\circ$ confirmed the endothermic nature of chromium biosorption process, and the positive value of $\Delta S^\circ$ also suggested the increase of randomness at the solid-solution interface [42]. The negative value of $\Delta H^\circ$. The negative value of $\Delta S^\circ$ suggested the decrease of randomness at the solid-solution interface as result of Cu(II) adsorption in pine cones [37]. Hounoune et al. [55] reported that the negative $\Delta S^\circ$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase. Krobba et al. [56] have also reported that a negative activation entropy $\Delta S^*$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase. Krobba et al. [56] have also reported that a negative activation entropy $\Delta S^*$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase.

3.7. Desorption and reuse study

The regeneration and the reuse of biomass are of key importance in any large scale application of metal removal from wastewater. Desorption of metals and possible reuse of the biomass for further metal adsorption was studied. The desorption experiments were conducted with five solvents/solutions: deionized water, NaOH, HCl, HNO$_3$, and EDTA, at 20°C. Fig. 8a showed that nitric acid was the most efficient extractant for Cr (55.4%) after 2 cycles of desorption, followed by hydrochloric acid (38.3%), and EDTA (19.7%). Only 8.8% of chromium was released using NaOH. The Cr(VI) desorbed with water was negligible. These results confirm the stability of the metal adsorbed in the pine leaves at neutral or alkaline pH, and the necessity

$$\ln K_c = \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R} \frac{-\Delta H^\circ}{RT}$$

(15)

$$K_c = \frac{C_s}{C_e}$$

(16)

where $\Delta G^\circ$ is the free energy change, $R$ is the universal gas constant, $T$ is the absolute temperature (K), $K_c$ represents the equilibrium constant for adsorption, $C_s$ is the metal concentration in the solid phase in equilibrium (mg L$^{-1}$), $C_e$ (mg L$^{-1}$). $\Delta H^\circ$ is the enthalpy change (kJ mol$^{-1}$), $\Delta S^\circ$ is the entropy change (kJ mol$^{-1}$ K$^{-1}$). Enthalpy and entropy are determined from the slope and intercept plotting $\ln K_c$ vs. 1/$T$ (Fig. S2).

The thermodynamic parameters of chromium and copper adsorption on pine leaves and cones were determined and listed in Table 2. The positive value of $\Delta H^\circ$ confirmed the endothermic nature of chromium biosorption process, and the positive value of $\Delta S^\circ$ also suggested the increase of randomness at the solid-solution interface [42]. The exothermic nature of copper biosorption was confirmed by the negative value of $\Delta H^\circ$. The negative value of $\Delta S^\circ$ suggested the decrease of randomness at the solid-solution interface as result of Cu(II) adsorption in pine cones [37]. Hounoune et al. [55] reported that the negative $\Delta S^\circ$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase. Krobba et al. [56] have also reported that a negative activation entropy $\Delta S^*$ value suggests that release of water from the firmly bound hydration of Na+ contributes to the exchange process as it moves from adsorbent to solution phase.
of an acid environment to mobilize the metal. The reuse of pine leaves for the adsorption of Cr(VI) showed 50% loss of capacity. Copper could also be removed for the pine cones (Fig. 8b), being HNO3 the most efficient extractant (79.4% of Cu(II) was removed), followed by HCl (74.9% of Cu(II)). In this case, pine cones only showed a loss of adsorption capacity of about 25% for Cu(II). These results have an enormous interest for large scale application in real effluents.

4. Conclusions

The adsorption of Cr(VI) on pine leaves and Cu(II) on pine cones revealed that the pine waste materials are potentially suitable for the retention of these metals from aqueous solutions. pH, biosorbent dose, contact time and initial metal ion concentration affected the adsorption results. Complete adsorption of Cu and Cr was observed with 0.8 g of biosorbent and 40 mL of 250 mg L\(^{-1}\) of metal solution. The adsorption is very fast, and the equilibrium is reached in less than 1 h of contact. Langmuir model fitted the adsorption of Cr(VI) and Cu(II). The maximum adsorption of metals pine cones and leaves were found to be 27.78 mg g\(^{-1}\) for Cu and 64.04 mg g\(^{-1}\) for Cr(VI). Analysis of kinetic data showed that the adsorption process followed the pseudo-second-order model for both metals. The thermodynamic study confirmed that the adsorption of Cu(II) in pine cones was exothermic whereas Cr(VI) adsorption in pine leaves was endothermic. The desorption of the metals with nitric acid allowed for the reuse of the biosorbent although a significant loss of adsorption capacity in the reused biomass was observed. Overall, it can be concluded that pine waste materials (cones and leaves) were an effective eco-friendly biosorbent for the removal of copper and chromium from wastewaters.

Symbols

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Definition/Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( T )</td>
<td>Definition, Units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( A_r )</td>
<td>Equilibrium binding constant for the maximum binding energy, L mg(^{-1})</td>
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<tr>
<td>( b_r )</td>
<td>Heat biosorption constant, J mol(^{-1})</td>
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<td>( C )</td>
<td>Value of the intercept of the plot ( q_s ) vs. ( t^{1/2} ), mg g(^{-1})</td>
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<td>( C_0 )</td>
<td>Initial metal concentration in the liquid phase, mg L(^{-1})</td>
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<td>( C_s )</td>
<td>Metal concentration in the liquid-phase in the equilibrium, mg L(^{-1})</td>
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<tr>
<td>( C_{se} )</td>
<td>Metal concentration in the solid phase in equilibrium, mg L(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( E )</td>
<td>Sorption energy, kJ mol(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( k_1 )</td>
<td>Pseudo-first-order rate coefficient of adsorption, min(^{-1})</td>
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<tr>
<td>( k_2 )</td>
<td>Pseudo-second-order rate coefficient of adsorption, g mg(^{-1}) min(^{-1})</td>
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<td>Equilibrium constant for adsorption, –</td>
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<tr>
<td>( K_i )</td>
<td>Freundlich isotherm constant related to adsorption capacity, mg(^{1+1/n}) L(^{1/n}) g(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( K_L )</td>
<td>Langmuir constant related to energy of adsorption, L mg(^{-1})</td>
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<tr>
<td>( q_i )</td>
<td>Adsorption intensity (Freundlich isotherm), –</td>
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<td>Maximum adsorption capacity, mg g(^{-1})</td>
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<td>Correlation coefficient, –</td>
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<td>Equilibrium constant related to energy of adsorption, L mg(^{-1})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Time, min</td>
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<td>Absolute temperature, K</td>
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<td>( V )</td>
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<td>Adsorbent dose, g</td>
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<td>Constant related to the free energy, mol(^2) kJ(^{-1})</td>
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<td>( \Delta H^0 )</td>
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<td>( \Delta G^0 )</td>
<td>Free energy change, kJ mol(^{-1})</td>
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<td>( \Delta S^0 )</td>
<td>Entropy change, kJ mol(^{-1}) K(^{-1})</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Polyni potential, –</td>
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References


