# Adsorption of pollutants in sanitary landfill leachate using granular activated carbon and bentonite clay

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Received 5 August 2021; Accepted 30 December 2021

## ABSTRACT

Organic and inorganic pollutants in sanitary landfill leachates are harmful to the environment and human health and must be removed before reaching receptive waterbodies. Thus, this study aimed to determine the adsorption capacity of granular activated carbon (GAC) mixed with bentonite clay (BC) for the removal of chemical oxygen demand (COD), ammoniacal nitrogen (N-NH<sub>3</sub>), and total chromium (Cr) from the leachate generated in the Sanitary Landfill of Campina Grande, Paraíba, Brazil. Different compositions of these materials were tested, and the best one was determined based on central composite rotational design (CCRD) type 2<sup>2</sup>. From this result, batch adsorption tests (isotherm and kinetics) were conducted using an adsorbing material:leachate ratio of 1:10, agitated at 130 rpm at  $26^{\circ}C \pm 2^{\circ}C$ . The isothermal behavior of the adsorption process was evaluated using linear, Langmuir, and Freundlich models, whereas the sorption mechanisms and rates were evaluated by pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order kinetic models. The CCRD results indicated that the best composition for the batch adsorption tests was 75% GAC + 25% BC. The maximum adsorption capacities obtained were approximately 29.00, 2.60, and 0.78 mg g<sup>-1</sup> and the removal efficiencies were 80%–94%, 16.8%–30.4%, and 96.7%–99.7%, for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr, respectively. The Freundlich model exhibited the best adjustment for COD, N-NH<sub>2</sub>, and Cr. Moreover, the pseudo-first-order kinetic model exhibited an acceptable adjustment only to COD, whereas the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was better adjusted to N-NH<sub>2</sub>, and Cr results.

Keywords: Adsorption isotherms; Adsorption kinetics; Removal efficiency; Chemical oxygen demand; Ammoniacal nitrogen; Chromium

## 1. Introduction

The leachate of sanitary landfills contains several pollutants that are harmful to the environment and to public health [1–3], such as organic matter, ammoniacal nitrogen (N–NH<sub>3</sub>), and heavy metals [4]. Thus, before disposal in water bodies, the leachate must be treated to reach the necessary conditions to avoid contamination. However, the adequate treatment of leachate is an expensive process that needs to be environmentally sustainable, which is a challenge for environmental sanitation professionals and sanitary landfill managers [5–7].

The disposal of inadequately treated leachate in the environment negatively impacts the soil and surface and groundwater [8–10] and may impact public health and the

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<sup>1944-3994/1944-3986</sup>  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{C}}$  2022 Desalination Publications. All rights reserved.

quality of life of the population [11]. Studies indicate that leachate pollutants produce cumulative and harmful effects to the growth of aquatic organisms, food chains disturbances, and severe public health problems, such as carcinogenic effects, acute toxicity, and genotoxicity [12–14]. Several studies have focused on different treatments (physical–chemical, biological, or their combination) to minimize the aforementioned impacts [1,15–22].

In the Sanitary Landfill of Campina Grande (SLCG), Paraíba State (PB), Brazil, the leachate undergoes natural evaporation and recirculation to cells in operation, which results in an effluent with high concentrations of chemical oxygen demand (COD), ammoniacal nitrogen (N–NH<sub>3</sub>), and total chromium (Cr), in disagreement with the current environmental laws [6]. A frequently applied treatment to the reduction of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr concentrations in sanitary landfill leachates is the adsorption by activated carbon (AC) [7,11,23–26]. However, AC has a high cost and requires for periodical reactivations [14,27]. To address these issues, several low-cost adsorbents have been utilized, such as bentonite clay (BC) [28–32].

BC has a high cationic exchange capacity (CEC) and specific surface [33–35]; in addition, BC is a low-cost material available in several regions worldwide [36], which favors its use in the removal of heavy metals from aqueous systems [37,38]. In this regard, the city of Boa Vista, 17 km distant from the SLCG, is one of the main producers of BC in Brazil [39]. In contrast, AC is efficient in the removal of organic pollutants in aqueous phase [23,40,41] and can also reduce the amount of heavy metals when applied in the correct dosage [26].

Most part of the available studies focused on evaluating the adsorption of AC and BC individually [26,32,42–47], mainly utilizing synthetic solutions. Chen et al. [29] investigated the adsorption behavior of Cr<sup>3+</sup> in aqueous solution by Gaomiaozi bentonite and obtained a maximum adsorption capacity of 4.68 mg g<sup>-1</sup> at a pH 7 and equilibrium time of 120 min. Baylan and Meriçboyu [48] verified the adsorption of metals (Pb<sup>2+</sup> and Cu<sup>2+</sup>) in simple and binary solutions with bentonite and AC from grape seeds and observed that AC had a lower adsorptive capacity compared to that of bentonite. Mohammad-Pajooh et al. [26] evaluated the efficiency and adsorptive performance of several types of granular activated carbon (GAC) in the removal of COD and metals to identify the ideal experimental conditions and determine future strategies for leachate treatment. Ferraz and Yuan [46] used AC from spent coffee grounds to remove COD from synthetic and real leachates in adequate conditions (adsorbent dosage: 20 g L<sup>-1</sup>, pH 4, temperature: 20°C) and obtained a removal percentage above 90% using real leachate.

Considering the exposed, studies evaluating the combined use of GAC and BC in an adequate dosage to the treatment of leachate pollutants from sanitary landfills, as well isotherm and kinetics adsorption studies, are still scarce, particularly in Brazilian semiarid regions. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the adsorptive process of commercial GAC combined with calcium BC for the removal of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr from the leachate generated in the SLCG, such as to reduce the cost of the adsorption process and provide technical and scientific criteria to help professionals in the decision process related to the treatment of this effluent.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Characterization of the sanitary landfill leachate

The leachate used in this study was collected in the SLCG (Fig. 1). This landfill has an area of 64 ha and started operating in July 2015 (age > 5 y); during this study, it received approximately 600 t d<sup>-1</sup> of urban solid waste (USW) from 57 cities. In addition, it is located in the Brazilian semiarid region, which is characterized by: (i) average annual precipitation of 800 mm; (ii) aridity index up to 0.5; (iii) high risk of drought or extension of the dry season (>60%) [49]. Considering water resources, there is an intermittent natural watercourse in the direct influence area of this landfill, classified as class 3 according to resolution n° 357 of March 17, 2005 of the National Environment Council (CONAMA) [50].

The SLCG leachate was collected in April 2021. Approximately 5 L of effluent were collected from the leachate treatment lagoon No. 1 (L1) (Fig. 1), following the protocols recommended by the American Public Health Association (APHA), American Water Works Association (AWWA), and Water Environment Federation (WEF) [51]. The L1 has dimensions of  $25 \text{ m} \times 36 \text{ m} \times 3 \text{ m}$  (width, length, and depth), and stores the in nature effluent generated by all the USW confined in the SLCG, such that it evaporates.

After collecting, the leachate was transported to the Environment Geotechnics Laboratory (LGA) of the Federal University of Campina Grande (UFCG), in which tests of pH (method 4500-H<sup>+</sup>), COD (method 5220 C), N–NH<sub>3</sub> (method 4500-NH<sub>3</sub> C), and Cr (method 3111 B) were conducted following the procedures of APHA, AWWA, and WEF [51].

## 2.2. Dosage of adsorbing materials

Commercial GAC and calcic BC were investigated for the removal of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr from the leachate collected at SLCG. The GAC was produced from the carbonization of wood, and had a grain size ranging from 1 to 4 mm. The BC was extracted from a quarry located in Boa Vista, Paraíba, and provided by the company Bentonit União Nordeste Industria e Comércio LTDA, with particles sizes ranging from 0.03 to 56  $\mu$ m.

Several tests were conducted to characterize the commercial GAC and calcic BC, such as  $pH_{water'}$   $pH_{KCP'}$  CEC [52], chemical composition by energy-dispersive X-ray fluorescence (EDX) (spectrometer Shimadzu, model EDX-720), and mineralogical composition by X-ray diffraction (DRX, Shimadzu, model XRD-6000).

An adsorption test was conducted for three compositions of GAC and BC with different proportions (m/m) using the central composite rotational design (CCRD) type  $2^2$ , using software STATISTICA 12.0. The CCRD enabled to determine the removal efficiency for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub> and Cr, and define the best dosage of adsorbent materials for the batch adsorption tests (isotherm and kinetics).

For the CCRD, the BC content and the reaction time (RT) were set as independent variables, whereas the removal



Fig. 1. SLCG location.

percentages of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr were set as dependent variables. The inferior and superior limits of the independent variables were 15% and 25% for the BC content and 25 and 120 min for the RT, respectively, which were set based on other studies [23,48,53,54].

Thus, the CCRD had two factors and two levels, with four axial points ( $P_A$ ) and the triplicate of the central point ( $P_c$ ) to ensure the reproducibility of the experimental data. A total of 11 tests were conducted, and the responses were the removal efficiencies of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr. Tables 1 and 2 present the variables and levels of CCRD and the test planning, respectively. The values –1, 0, +1, and ±1.41 refer to the inferior limit,  $P_{cr}$  superior limit, and  $P_{Ar}$  respectively.

For the CCRD, suspensions were prepared in 125 mL Erlenmeyer flasks, with 10 g of the adsorbing compositions and 100 mL of the collected leachate, resulting in an absorbing material:leachate ratio of 1:10. In sequence, the suspensions were shaken (shaker table SOLAB, model SL 180) at 130 rpm and  $26^{\circ}$ C ±  $2^{\circ}$ C. In pre-established times (Table 1), the Erlenmeyer flasks were removed from the shaker table and let still for 30 min, to enable sedimentation of the solid fraction. In sequence, portions of the supernatant were pipetted to determine the corresponding COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr concentrations, following the procedures of APHA, AWWA, and WEF [51]. The removal efficiency of these pollutants was calculated using Eq. (1):

$$RE(\%) = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{C_0} \times 100$$
 (1)

Table 1 Variables and levels defined for CCRD

Factors		Levels					
	-1.41	-1	0	+1	+1.41		
BC content (%)	12.9	15.0	20.0	25.0	27.1		
RC (min)	5.3	25.0	72.5	120.0	139.7		

where RE is the removal efficiency (%), and  $C_0$  and  $C_e$  are the initial and final concentrations (mg L<sup>-1</sup>), respectively.

Although COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were analyzed, the composition for the batch adsorption tests (isotherm and kinetics) was determined based on the results for the removal of Cr, because of the higher affinity of the studied materials to adsorb cations. Detho et al. [7], Daud et al. [11] and Rosli et al. [55] also used a similar criterium to determine the best composition to be used for the batch adsorption test.

#### 2.3. Batch adsorption test – adsorption isotherms

The methodology employed for the batch adsorption tests was adapted from the technical document EPA/530/SW-87/006-F [56] and Directive D4646 [57]. To estimate the adsorptive capacity of COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub>, the leachate from SLCG was diluted in distilled water in concentrations (v/v) of 5%, 10%, 20%, 40%, 80%, and 100%, because there was a high concentration of these pollutants. For Cr,

Table 2	
CCRD p	lanning matrix

Experiments	Independent variables		Dependent variables		
	BC content (%)	RT (min)	COD removal (%)	N–NH <sub>3</sub> removal (%)	Cr removal (%)
1	-1	-1	R1	R1	R1
2	-1	1	R2	R2	R2
3	1	-1	R3	R3	R3
4	1	1	R4	R4	R4
5	-1.41	0	R5	R5	R5
6	1.41	0	R6	R6	R6
7	0	-1.41	R7	R7	R7
8	0	1.41	R8	R8	R8
9	0	0	R9	R9	R9
10	0	0	R10	R10	R10
11	0	0	R11	R11	R11

R: Response.

synthetic leachates (SL) were prepared from the dissolution of chromium(III) chloride analytical reagent grade (CrCl<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) in distilled water. Initially, a standard solution was prepared with 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> of Cr. From this solution, pre-determined volumes, determined using stoichiometric calculations, were pipetted to prepare SL solutions with concentrations of 0.2, 7.0, 17.0, 33.0, 62.0, and 82.0 mg L-1, named  $SL_{0.2'}$   $SL_{7.0'}$   $SL_{17.0'}$   $SL_{33.0'}$   $SL_{62.0'}$  and  $SL_{82.0'}$  respectively. As the pH of these solutions was below 6, which is the value recommended in D4646 [57], no correction was necessary. Although the Cr contents adopted were higher than those reported in the literature for sanitary landfill leachates [8,58], this extrapolation was necessary to evaluate the adsorption behavior and enable the measurement of this element by atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS, spectrometer Agilent, model AA240) after contact with the adsorbing material.

As the leachate studied had Ni (0.21–0.37 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) and Cu (1.22–1.34 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) [6] contents higher than the limits set by Brazilian environmental resolutions [50,59], these elements were added to SL<sub>0.2</sub> and SL<sub>82.0</sub> in the same concentrations as in Cr, such as to reproduce the ionic competition among these heavy metals. The stock solutions containing 1 g L<sup>-1</sup> of nickel (N<sup>2+</sup>) and copper (Cu<sup>3+</sup>) were prepared with nickel(II) nitrate (Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) and copper(II) chloride (CuCl<sub>2</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O) analytical reagent grade.

The batch adsorption tests were conducted by mixing 2 g of the combination of GAC and BC and 20 mL of the natural leachate or  $SL_{0.2}$ - $SL_{82.0}$  in 125 mL Erlenmeyer flasks, which were sealed with Parafilm and placed in a shaker table (SOLAB, model SL 180) at 130 rpm and 26°C ± 2°C during 24 h.

After the equilibrium time set (24 h), the suspensions were transferred from the Erlenmeyer flasks to 50 mL Falcon tubes and centrifuged (Centrifuge Novatecnica, model NT 815), at 605 g during 15 min. The resulting supernatants were filtered in a 0.45  $\mu$ m membrane and the corresponding COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr concentrations were determined, following the methods indicated by APHA, AWWA, and WEF [51]. The amount of solute (COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr)

adsorbed in the composition of commercial GAC and calcium BC was determined by Eq. (2):

$$q = \frac{\left(C_0 - C_e\right) \cdot V}{M} \tag{2}$$

where *q* is the adsorption capacity (mg g<sup>-1</sup>),  $C_0$  is the initial solute concentration, before exposure to the adsorbing material (mg L<sup>-1</sup>),  $C_e$  is the equilibrium solute concentration, after exposure to the adsorbing material (mg L<sup>-1</sup>), *M* is the dry mass of the absorbing material (g), and *V* is the volume of the solution (L).

Based on the results of the batch adsorption tests, the experimental isotherms were plotted and adjusted by the theoretical models of linear adsorption, Langmuir, and Freundlich, as shown in Eqs. (3)–(5), respectively, using Excel 2019 and STATISTICA 12.0. The best model was chosen based on the analysis of the determination coefficient ( $R^2$ ) and the sum of squared residuals (SSR).

$$q = K_d C_e \tag{3}$$

$$q = \frac{K_L b C_e}{1 + \left(K_L C_e\right)} \tag{4}$$

$$q = K_F C_e^N \tag{5}$$

where *q* is the adsorption capacity (mg g<sup>-1</sup>),  $K_{a'}$ ,  $K_L$ , and  $K_F$  are the distribution (L g<sup>-1</sup>), Langmuir (L mg<sup>-1</sup>), and Freundlich (L g<sup>-1</sup>) coefficients, respectively,  $C_e$  is the equilibrium concentration (mg L<sup>-1</sup>), *b* is the maximum adsorption capacity (mg g<sup>-1</sup>), and *N* is the slope of the curve, which reflects the sorption intensity with the increase of  $C_e$  (–).

#### 2.4. Batch adsorption test – adsorption kinetics

The kinetics study was conducted for the combination GAC + BC with the highest removal percentage of Cr determined using CCDR. The methodology employed was similar to that in the isotherm study, in which the leachate from SLCG (characteristics in Table 3) was used for COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub>, whereas  $LS_{82.0}$  was used for Cr. Thus, 10 g of the adsorptive composition and 100 mL of the contaminant liquid (leachate with pH = 8.28 or  $LS_{82.0}$  with pH = 3.37) were mixed in 125 mL Erlenmeyer flasks. In sequence, the mixture was agitated at 130 rpm during 5–200 min [60–62] at 26°C ± 2°C using a shaker table. In specific time intervals, the solutions were extracted and centrifuged at 605 g during 15 min. The COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub> were determined by the methods 5220 C and 4500-NH<sub>3</sub> C, respectively [51]. The measurement of the remaining Cr<sup>3+</sup> was conducted by AAS (method 3111 B) [51].

Pseudo-first-order [Eq. (6)] [63] and pseudo-secondorder [Eq. (7)] [64] kinetic models were adjusted to the experimental data to analyze the sorption rates and mechanisms of COD, N–NH<sub>2</sub>, and Cr<sup>3+</sup>:

$$\log(q_e - q_t) = \log(q_e) - \left(\frac{K_1}{2.303}\right)t \tag{6}$$

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \left(\frac{1}{K_2 q_e^2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{q_e}\right) t \tag{7}$$

where  $q_e$  and  $q_t$  are the adsorption capacities in equilibrium and time (mg g<sup>-1</sup>), respectively, for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr<sup>3+</sup>; *t* is the time (min);  $K_1$  is the constant rate of pseudo-first-order (min<sup>-1</sup>), determined from the slope of  $\log(q_e - q_i)$  vs. *t*; and  $K_2$  is the constant rate of pseudo-second-order (g mg<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>), calculated from the graph of  $t/q_i$  vs. *t*.

## 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Leachate characterization

The characterization of the leachate from the SLCG is presented in Table 3.

The characteristics of the studied leachate are typical of the methanogenic phase of USW degradation, as indicated by Souto and Povinelli [58]. The effluent has an alkaline pH and Cr concentration of 0.71 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. pH values ranging from neutral to alkaline contribute to reducing the leaching of heavy metals in sanitary landfills [6,65]. The Cr content was lower than those obtained by Tsarpali et al. [66], Narayan et al. [67], and Chaouki et al. [68]. In contrast, the concentration was 14 times higher than the maximum concentration set by resolution n° 357 [50] for freshwater bodies class 3. Moreover, COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were 4,022.99 and 1,512.00 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, and the N–NH<sub>3</sub> content was higher than the reference values set by Brazilian environmental resolutions n° 357 and 430 [50,59].

Thus, the disposal of this effluent in waterbodies can alter the water quality [67] and pollute surface and ground-water [69]. The toxicity of gaseous ammonia ( $NH_3$ ) causes damages to cell tissues and potential risks to the human health and affects aquatic species [70,71].

### 3.2. Characterization of adsorptive materials

The chemical composition of GAC and BC is presented in Table 4. Both GAC and BC had as major oxides silicon Table 3

Characterization of leachate from the SLCG

Indicator/Parameter	Values
рН	8.28
COD (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	4,022.99
$N-NH_{3} (mg L^{-1})$	1,512.00
Cr (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.71

Table 4

Chemical composition of adsorptive materials

Elements	GAC (%)	BC (%)
SiO <sub>2</sub>	63.71	61.50
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	10.70	20.58
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	8.87	11.11
MgO	2.22	3.08
CaO	3.61	1.37
$P_2O_5$	2.38	ND
K <sub>2</sub> O	5.90	0.66
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.76	1.26
SO <sub>3</sub>	1.40	0.28
WO <sub>3</sub>	0.29	ND
Other oxides	0.16	0.16

ND: Not detected.

dioxide (SiO<sub>2</sub>), aluminum oxide (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), and iron oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>). Low percentages of potassium (K<sub>2</sub>O), magnesium (MgO), calcium (CaO), phosphorus (P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), titanium (TiO<sub>2</sub>), sulfur (SO<sub>3</sub>), and tungsten (WO<sub>3</sub>) oxides were also obtained.

Some of the properties of BC are listed in Table 5. As observed, the pH<sub>water</sub> value was higher than the pH<sub>KCl</sub> value, resulting in  $\Delta pH = -0.98$ . This result indicates the predominance of negative charges in the surface of bentonite particles, favoring the adsorption of cations. The GAC had a  $\Delta pH$  of 0.63 (pH<sub>water</sub> = 9.39 and pH<sub>KCl</sub> = 10.02), indicating the prevalence of anionic exchange. However, the GAC + BC composition in the proportion 3:1, employed in the adsorption test (isotherm and kinetics) and defined based on CCDR, exhibited a  $\Delta pH = -0.49$ . The CEC of BC was 66.73 cmol kg<sup>-1</sup>, with interlaying cations consisting mainly of Mg<sup>2+</sup> and Ca<sup>+</sup>, and in lower concentrations, Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup>, which can be easily exchanged by other cationic ions [72], such as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and heavy metals, resulting in the reduction of their content in liquid media.

The DRX test (Fig. 2) was conducted to evaluate the mineralogical properties of the adsorbents. The GAC spectrum exhibited an amorphous halo, with quartz peaks (Q) at  $2\theta = 20.70^\circ$ ,  $26.51^\circ$ , and  $36.36^\circ$ . For BC, montmorillonite (M) was detected in a content of 73.9% ( $2\theta = 5.84^\circ$ ,  $17.60^\circ$ , 19.60°,  $36.50^\circ$ , and  $54.26^\circ$ ), quartz with 11.5% ( $2\theta = 20.83^\circ$ , 26.61°,  $34.45^\circ$ , and  $45.75^\circ$ ), and traces of vermiculite, albite, and feldspar. Mohajeri et al. [72] indicated that the high CEC of bentonite is a result of the high content of montmorillonite, which is responsible for its adsorptive capacity for heavy metals. Because of the water absorption in the layers



Fig. 2. DRX spectra of CAG and BC.

10

15

of this clay mineral, leading to a considerable swelling, the metal ions are adsorbed in the internal and external surfaces owing to the arrangement of Al–O and Si–O groups and the cationic exchange mechanism, respectively [60,61].

. 20

2 theta (°)

25

. 30 35

40

#### 3.3. Dosage of adsorptive materials

Table 6 presents the results of the CCRD. The removal efficiencies varied from 10.0% to 42.9% for COD, 5.0%-12.5% for N-NH<sub>2</sub> and 45.2%-69.0% for Cr for the different experimental conditions analyzed. The higher removal percentages in the RTs considered in the CCRD were achieved for Cr, reaching a value of 69.0% in experiment 6 (Table 6) for the composition 72.9% GAC + 27.1% BC. As observed, the Cr removal was directly proportional to the increase in the BC percentage. This behavior may be explained by the availability of sorption sites and the chemical affinity between the Cr3+ ions and the predominantly negative surfaces of BC clay minerals [37]. Chen et al. [29] observed that the removal of Cr<sup>3+</sup> in aqueous solution for a Chinese bentonite was proportional to the increase in the bentonite content, from 79% to 96% when the amount of bentonite increased from 0.4 to 2.0 g in 50 mL of solution. Ray et al. [60] also observed a similar behavior for two Indian bentonites using a synthetic solution of  $Pb^{\scriptscriptstyle 2+}\!\!\!\!$  , with a gradual increase in the removal from 50.4% to 98.0% (bentonite 1) and from 28.7% to 97.3% (bentonite 2).

The lowest removal percentages were observed for N–NH<sub>3</sub>, with no significant relation with the BC content and RT (Table 7). This may have occurred because of the nature of the adsorptive materials employed: the BC has a negative charge and tends to adsorb cations, whereas GAC has an a polar surface because of the high-temperature fabrication process, and exhibits a weak interaction with some polar adsorbents, such as N–NH<sub>3</sub> [23]. Moreover, the GAC surface is hydrophobic, which favors the adsorption of organic substances [23], resulting in higher removal percentages of COD compared to those of N–NH<sub>3</sub>.

Table 7 shows the *p*-values obtained from analysis of variance (ANOVA). From the table, the factors BC content



Table 5 Properties of BC

Property	BC
pH <sub>water</sub>	7.82
pH <sub>KCl</sub>	6.84
$Mg^{2+}$ , cmol kg <sup>-1</sup>	31.91
Ca <sup>2+</sup> , cmol kg <sup>-1</sup>	26.83
Na <sup>+</sup> , cmol kg <sup>-1</sup>	7.65
K⁺, cmol kg⁻¹	0.34
H⁺, cmol kg⁻¹	0.00
Al <sup>3+</sup> , cmol kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.00
CEC, cmol kg <sup>-1</sup>	66.73
OC, g kg <sup>-1</sup>	3.60
OM, g kg <sup>-1</sup>	6.20
EC, μS cm <sup>-1</sup>	1,300.00

CEC: cationic exchange capacity (CEC); OC: organic carbon; OM: organic matter; EC: electrical conductivity.

and RT, in both quadratic and linear fractions, had a significant influence (p < 0.1) on the removal efficiency of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr. The BC content had a significant influence on the removal of COD, whereas this influence was not significant for N–NH<sub>3</sub> (p > 0.1). However, this variable favored the removal of Cr, which was defined as the reference to choose the composition to be adopted to the batch adsorption tests.

Fig. 3 shows the response surfaces, indicating the influence of the variables BC content and RT on the removal efficiencies of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr. For higher BC contents, there was a slight reduction in the removal of COD (Fig. 3a); the increase in RT contributed to higher removal percentages of N–NH<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 3b); the increase in the BC content and RT favored Cr removal (Fig. 3c), reaching efficiencies of 45% to 69%. These results validate the choice of a composition with high BC content (75% GAC + 25% BC) for the batch adsorption tests (isotherm and kinetics).

Intensity (u.a)

400

200

0

Table 6	
CCRD responses	

Experiments	Factor	s	Responses		
	BC content (%)	RT (min)	COD removal (%)	N–NH <sub>3</sub> removal (%)	Cr removal (%)
1	15.00	25.00	14.30	6.30	55.00
2	15.00	120.00	10.00	7.50	62.00
3	25.00	25.00	14.30	12.50	64.80
4	25.00	120.00	28.60	12.50	67.70
5	12.90	72.50	14.30	8.80	62.00
6	27.10	72.50	14.30	5.00	69.00
7	20.00	5.32	14.30	11.30	45.20
8	20.00	139.70	42.90	12.50	65.10
9	20.00	72.50	28.60	6.30	63.60
10	20.00	72.50	35.70	8.80	59.10
11	20.00	72.50	42.80	6.30	61.60



Fig. 3. Response surfaces: (a) COD removal, (b) N–NH $_3$  removal and (c) Cr removal.

Variable	DF		<i>p</i> -value		
		COD removal (%)	N–NH <sub>3</sub> removal (%)	Cr removal (%)	
BC content (L)	1	0.4550	0.2790	0.0576	
BC content (Q)	1	0.0585	0.9596	0.1134	
RT (L)	1	0.1300	0.5331	0.0269	
RT (Q)	1	0.2560	0.0546	0.1092	
BC content with RT	1	0.3232	0.7045	0.4484	
Lack of adjustment	3	0.4587	0.1546	0.2267	

Table 7 *p*-values obtained from ANOVA for CCRD

DF: Degree of freedom.

The  $R^2$  values for the models analyzed were 0.8048, 0.5320, and 0.8529 for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr, respectively, for a significance level of 10% (p < 0.1), indicating that approximately 80%, 53%, and 85% of the variability of the removal processes of these pollutants can be explained by the models.

## 3.4. Batch adsorption test – adsorption isotherm

The experimental isotherms of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr adjusted using linear, Langmuir, and Freundlich models, as well as the removal percentages obtained for the composition 75% GAC + 25% BC, are shown in Figs. 4–6. The Langmuir model did not provide a good adjustment for COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub>; thus, these isotherms were not plotted in Figs. 4a and 5a.

From Figs. 4a, 5a, and 6a, the maximum adsorption capacities experimentally obtained for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr were 28.97, 2.59, and 0.84 mg g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, and the removal efficiencies (Figs. 4b, 5b, and 6b) were in the ranges 80%–94%, 16.8%–30.4%, and 96.7%–99.7%, respectively. The high removal percentages, particularly for Cr<sup>3+</sup>, may be related to BC characteristics (Table 5 and Fig. 2), such as the high CEC and montmorillonite content [60,61,72]. Moreover,

the high values of adsorption capacity and removal efficiency obtained for COD and Cr<sup>3+</sup> indicate that these pollutants are less likely to leach and contaminate soils and surface and groundwater [73].

The main removal mechanisms of the pollutants analyzed are physical or chemical adsorption, hydrogen bonds, ionic exchange, and hydrophobic bonds [23,62,72]. Seruga et al. [62] used bentonite with 85% montmorillonite (a higher content than that of the BC in this study) and achieved a N–NH<sub>3</sub> removal efficiency of 52.3% after agitation during 180 min at 120 rpm and initial concentration of 0.8 ± 0.2 g L<sup>-1</sup>. Halim et al. [23] used AC to remove COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub> from the leachate of the sanitary landfill Pulau Burung, Malaysia, and obtained maximum adsorptive capacities of 37.88 and 6.08 mg g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. From Figs. 4b, 5b and 6b, the removal efficiencies

From Figs. 4b, 5b and 6b, the removal efficiencies started to reduce from the third concentration of the leachate from SLCG and SL, which was caused by the increase in the concentrations of COD,  $N-NH_y$  and Cr in solution. Thus, the active sites for the adsorption of these pollutants in the adsorbent surfaces were not sufficient [35,74].

Based on the adjustment criteria for the linear, Langmuir, and Freundlich models, presented in Table 8, it is observed that the Freundlich model exhibited the best



Fig. 4. COD: (a) linear and Freundlich isotherm models (b) removal efficiencies.



Fig. 5. N–NH<sub>2</sub>: (a) linear and Freundlich isotherm models (b) removal efficiencies.



Fig. 6. Cr: (a) linear, Langmuir, and Freundlich isotherm models (b) removal efficiencies.

adjustment for the data of COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr, with  $R^2$  values of 0.996, 0.968, and 0.994, and SSR values of 35.352, 0.352, and 0.006, respectively. The Freundlich model describes the process in a heterogeneous level, in which the concentration of the adsorbate in the adsorbent increases with the increase of the initial concentration of the solution [7,75].

Based on the Langmuir coefficients (Table 8), the dimensionless separation factor ( $R_L$ ) was calculated to analyze whether the adsorptive process of composition 75% GAC + 25% BC was favorable or not. The  $R_L$  values for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr<sup>3+</sup> were –1.05 × 10<sup>-7</sup>, –2.05 × 10<sup>-7</sup>, and 0.302, respectively, indicating irreversible ( $R_L < 0$ ) and favorable ( $0 < R_L < 1$ ) adsorption [60,61,76]. Moreover, the values of the parameter N of the Freundlich model were within 0 and 1, which represents a favorable adsorption behavior of the chemicals analyzed, as indicated by Lázaro et al. [77] and Bavaresco et al. [78]. Although one model provided better results compared to the others, all the isotherm models

evaluated significantly represented the adjusted data, as all the *p*-values were lower than the adopted significance level (p < 0.05) [79], except Langmuir for COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub>.

The results indicate that the composition of GAC and BC analyzed can be potentially applied in reactive barriers for the treatment of the SLCG leachate, and can also be considered for other sanitary landfills in Brazilian semiarid regions. In addition, this composition is a sustainable, lowcost alternative for the reduction of pollutants concentration in leachates, particularly Cr, such that the leachate can reach adequate concentrations to be disposed in waterbodies.

### 3.5. Batch adsorption test – adsorption kinetics

The pseudo-first-order and pseudo-second-order kinetic models are illustrated in Fig. 7a and b, respectively. Table 9 presents the sorption kinetic coefficients determined for COD, N–NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr<sup>3+</sup> using the composition 75% GAC + 25% calcium BC.

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Indicator	Models	Coefficients	Estimated value	Standard deviation	р	$R^2$	SSR
	Linear	$K_{d}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	0.042	0.004	0.0001	0.928	74.088
	Langmuir	$K_{L}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	-13,137.700	$2.859 \times 10^{9}$	0 1024	0.000	526 229
COD		<i>b</i> (mg g <sup>-1</sup> )	13.700	6.912	0.1034	0.000	550.220
	Froundlich	$K_{F} ({ m mg g}^{-1})$	0.480	0.360	0.0004	0.966	35.352
	Fleununch	Ν	0.620	0.120	0.0004		
	Linear	$K_{d}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	0.002	0.0002	0.0001	0.943	0.624
	Langmuir	$K_{L}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	-3,864.600	$8.184 \times 10^{8}$	0.1203	0.000	5.635
N–NH <sub>3</sub>		$b (mg g^{-1})$	1.330	1.000			
	Freundlich	$K_{F} ({ m mg g}^{-1})$	0.015	0.014	0.0005	0.968	0.352
		Ν	0.736	0.138	0.0005		
	Linear	$K_{d}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	0.698	0.064	0.0001	0.952	0.048
Cr <sup>3+</sup>	Langmuir	$K_{L}$ (L g <sup>-1</sup> )	1.929	0.889	0.0002	0.085	0.015
	Langinun	$b (mg g^{-1})$	1.075	0.194		0.965	0.015
	Ensue dli de	$K_{F} (L g^{-1})$	0.701	0.025	a aaaa <b>a</b>	0.004	0.007
	Freundlich	Ν	0.553	0.054	0.00003	0.994	0.006

Table 8 Adjustment criteria for the isotherm models



Fig. 7. Kinetic models applies to composition 75% GAC + 25% calcium BC: (a) pseudo-first-order and (b) pseudo-second-order.

Table 9			
Kinetic coefficients of	pseudo-first-order and	pseudo-second-order r	nodels

Kinetic model	Coefficients	COD	N–NH <sub>3</sub>	Cr <sup>3+</sup>
Pseudo-first-order	$q_{e} ({ m mg g^{-1}})$	26.1939	0.3127	0.0043
	$K_1$ (min <sup>-1</sup> )	0.0205	0.0104	0.0193
	$\mathbb{R}^2$	0.8805	0.0632	0.8212
Pseudo-second-order	$q_{e} ({ m mg \ g^{-1}})$	35.7143	2.1858	0.8158
	$K_2 (g mg^{-1} min^{-1})$	0.0001	-0.7752	19.0201
	$R^2$	0.0286	0.9351	1.0000
Practical acquisition	Experimental $q_e$	16.2218	2.6158	0.8156

According to the results in Fig. 7a and Table 9, the  $R^2$ values obtained for the pseudo-first-order kinetic model were 0.88, 0.06, and 0.82, and the calculated adsorptive capacities  $(q_e)$  were 26.19, 0.31, and 0.04 mg g<sup>-1</sup>, for COD, DQO, N-NH<sub>3</sub>, and Cr<sup>3+</sup>, respectively. Thus, the pseudofirst-order model exhibited an acceptable adjustment only for COD, considering the  $R^2$  value (0.88) and the agreement between the calculated and experimental  $q_e$  (16.22 mg g<sup>-1</sup>) values. N-NH<sub>2</sub> and Cr<sup>3+</sup> were better adjusted to the pseudo-second-order (Fig. 7b and Table 9), with  $R^2$  values of 0.94 and 1.00 and estimated adsorptive capacities of 2.19 and 0.82 mg g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, which is in agreement with the adoption equilibrium values obtained experimentally (2.62 mg  $g^{-1}$  for N–NH<sub>3</sub> and 0.82 mg  $g^{-1}$  for Cr<sup>3+</sup>). These data indicate that the adsorption of N–NH<sub>3</sub> and  $Cr^{3+}$  for the composition 75% GAC + 25% calcium BC completely follows the pseudo-second-order kinetic reaction, which is based on the assumption that the chemisorption is the limiting phase of the sorption rate, directly depending on the adsorption capacity rather than the adsorbate concentration [80]. Halim et al. [23] and Foo et al. [44] also observed good adjustment to the pseudo-first-order model for COD using GAC or BC, and to the pseudo-second-order model for N-NH<sub>2</sub> [62] and Cr<sup>3+</sup> [29].

#### 4. Conclusions

The study demonstrated that the combination of GAC and calcium BC in the proportion 3:1 (GAC:BC) exhibited the following tendency for pollutants removal:  $Cr > COD > N-NH_3$ . The maximum experimental adsorption capacities of the 75% GAC + 25% BC composition were 29.0 mg g<sup>-1</sup> (COD), 2.6 mg g<sup>-1</sup> (N-NH<sub>3</sub>), and 0.84 mg g<sup>-1</sup> (Cr<sup>3+</sup>), and Cr<sup>3+</sup> was the pollutant with the highest removal percentage (96.7% to 99.7%).

The removal percentages of COD and N–NH<sub>3</sub> from the sanitary landfill leachate were better adjusted using the Freundlich isotherm model. For the removal of Cr<sup>3+</sup>, Langmuir and Freundlich models exhibited good adjustments, with similar determination coefficients, but the Freundlich model was more representative.

The pseudo-first-order kinetic model exhibited acceptable adjustment ( $R^2 = 0.88$ ) to the adsorption of COD for the materials analyzed; in contrast, pollutants N–NH<sub>3</sub> Cr<sup>3+</sup> were better adjusted to the pseudo-second-order model.

The composition 75% GAC + 25% calcium BC showed potential to be used to the removal of COD and Cr from the leachate of sanitary landfills located at the Brazilian semiarid region. Nonetheless, column studies are recommended to provide more details regarding other important parameters.

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