

Kinetics, Equilibrium and Thermodynamic Studies on Adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 from Aqueous Solution Using Activated Tamarind Kernel Powder

Adams A. D.^{*1}, Magaji I.Y.¹, Kadanga B.², Kabuk A. D.², Opara H. O.² ¹Department of Polymer and Textile Science, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. ²Department of Science Technology, Nigerian Institute of Leather and Science Technology Zaria, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

Activated tamarind kernel powder (ATKP) was prepared from tamarind fruit (Tamarindus indica); and utilized for the removal of Reactive Orange 20 (RO20) from its aqueous solution. The powder was activated using 4N nitric acid (HNO_3) . The adsorbent was characterised using infrared spectroscopy, bulk density, Ash content, pH, moisture content and dry matter content measurements. The effect of various parameters which include; temperature, pH, adsorbent dosage, ion concentration, and contact time were studied. Four different equilibrium Isotherm models were tested on the experimental data but the Temkin isotherm model was best-fitted into the experimental data. The pseudo-first order and pseudo-second order kinetic models were also fitted into the graphs, but pseudo-second order was best fitted into the experimental data. The thermodynamic parameters showed that the adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 unto activated tamarind kernel powder is a physical process, feasible and spontaneous, exothermic in nature and there is decreased randomness at the solid/solution interphase during the adsorption process. Therefore, activated tamarind kernel powder has proven to be a very good adsorbent for the removal of Reactive Orange 20 from industrial waste water.

INTRODUCTION

Environmental pollution control is said to be a matter of utmost concern in many countries. However, air and water pollution constitute the major environmental pollution in several countries. Consequently, open burning leads to air pollution, while industrial effluent and domestic sewage leads to water pollution. Water pollution results to bad effects on public water supplies which can cause health problem, while air pollution can cause lung diseases, burning eyes, cough, and chest tightness. The environmental issues surrounding the presence of colour in effluent is a continuous problem for dye stuff manufacturers, dyers, finishers, and water companies [18]. Textile and dyeing industry are among important sources for the continuous pollution of the aquatic environment. Because they produce approximately 5% of them end up in effluents. The textile and dyeing industries effluents are discarded into rivers, ponds and lakes; they affect the biological life various organisms [16]. Dye-containing effluents are undesirable wastewaters because they contain high levels of chemicals, suspended solids, and toxic compounds. Colour causing compounds can react with metal ions to form substances which are very toxic to aquatic flora and fauna and cause many water borne diseases [36]. Due to the

ARTICLE INFO

Article History Received: May, 2019 Received in revised form: July, 2019 Accepted: August, 2019 Published online: September, 2019

KEYWORDS

Reactive Orange 20, Isotherms, Kinetics, Tamarind,

chemical structure of dye, they are act as a resistant to many chemicals, oxidizing agents, and heat, and are biologically non-degradable. So it is difficult to decolorize the effluents, once released into the aquatic environment. Many of the methods are available for the removal of pollutants from water, the most important of which are reverse osmosis, ion exchange, precipitation and adsorption. Of these methods, adsorption technique is a most versatile and widely used technique [24], because of its inexpensive nature and ease of use. Activated carbons are widely used because of their high adsorption abilities for a large number of organic compounds. However, the price of activated carbons is relatively high, which limits their usage [7]. This has led many researchers to search for cheaper substitutes such as coal, fly ash, silica gel, wool wastes, agricultural wastes, wood wastes, and clay materials. They have been applied with varying success in dye removal [2]. The present study was performed to investigate the surface morphology of activated tamarind kernel powder (ATKP) using various methods viz. FT-IR spectroscopy and exploitation for removal of Reactive Orange 20 from aqueous solution. The parameters such as pH, initial concentration, contact duration and adsorbent dosage with different temperature were studied. Adsorption



isotherm (Freundlich, Temkin, Dubinin Radushkevich and Langmuir) and adsorption kinetics (Pseudo first-second-order) were also analysed in this explored.

EXPERIMENTATION Sample Collection, Identification and Treatment

Tamarind kernel fruit was collected from the local market at Samaru, Sabon gari Local Government Area of Kaduna state. After collection it was taken to Biological Sciences Department of Ahmadu Bello University where it was identified as Tamarindus indica using the method described by Prescott (1977). The Tamarind kernel seeds were washed thoroughly with water to remove the adhering materials. Then, the reddish testa of the seeds was removed by heating seeds in an oven at 80 °C for 2 hours. The kernels were tamped and placed in the oven at a temperature of 300 °C for 3 hours for the tamped powder to carbonize completely. The powder was sieved through 400 microns to get uniform geometrical size for use. The Reactive Orange 20 dye sample was supplied by Sigma Aldrich Company. Stock solution (1.0 g/l) of Reactive Orange 20 was prepared by dissolving about 1gram of the dye in 1 litre of distilled water. All test solutions of the desired concentrations were prepared by successive dilutions to get the required initial experimental concentration (20-100 mg/L).

Characterization of the Adsorbent

The surface morphology of activated tamarind kernel powder was determined using infrared spectrophotometry. The pH of the adsorbent was obtained using standard test method ASTM D3838-80 [3] and the ash content was determined using standard test method ASTM E1755-01 [4] as reported by Okoli *et al.*, [26]. The moisture and dry matter content of the adsorbent was determined using the method described by Gimba *et al.*, [14].

Batch Adsorption Experiment

The adsorption experiment was carried out by batch method. The experiment was done using 50 ml of adsorbate at ambient temperature $(27 \, ^{\circ}C)$ with a basic reciprocating shaker using 120 ml glass bottle as the reactor. The effect of initial dye concentration was analysed using an initial working dye concentrations are 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 mg/L. The experiment was carried out using 0.2 g of the adsorbent, pH6 and at a contact time of 120 mins. The effect of the adsorbent dosage was determined at a constant pH of 6, initial dye concentration of 20 mg/L and agitation time of 2 hours. The adsorbent dosage was varied as follows: 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0 and 1.2 g.

The effect of initial pH was determined by altering the pH at constant temperature (27 0 C), adsorbent dosage (0.2 g), initial concentration (20 mg/L) and agitation time (2 hours). The pH was varied at 2,4,6,8 and 10 using 0.1M HCl and 0.1M NaOH to either increase or decrease the pH of the solution.

The effect of contact time is an important factor in adsorption studies as it helps in the study of the kinetics of adsorption. The effect of contact time was determined by agitating the mixture at varied time intervals. The agitation was carried out at constant temperature ($27 \, {}^{\circ}C$), adsorbent dosage (0.2 g), initial concentration (20 mg/L) and pH (pH 6). The contact time was varied at 20,40,60,80 and 100 mins.

The effect of Temperature is important to this study as it helps in generating the data needed for adsorption thermodynamic study. This was determined by agitating the mixture at varying temperatures and initial dye concentrations. The agitation was carried out at constant adsorbent dosage (0.2 g), and pH (pH 6) and contact time. The different temperatures used were 298, 308, 318, 323 and 328 K.

The concentration of the dye remaining in the solution was determined using an Agilent Cary 300 UV/visible spectrophotometer. The amount of dye adsorbed was calculated using the equation:

(1.1)

 $q = V \frac{(c - c)}{W}$ where q_{0} is the amount of d

where q_e is the amount of dye adsorbed by the adsorbent, V is the volume of the solution, C_o is the initial dye concentration, C_e is the residual dye concentration and W is the weight of the adsorbent. The percentage dye removed (% Rem) was determined using the equation:

$$\%R_{1} = \frac{(c - c)}{c} \times 100$$
 (1.2)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Physico-chemical parameters obtained are presented in table 1. The moisture content of a sample can be seen as the amount of water present in that sample. It has been reported that moisture content dilutes the activated carbon as such increases its weight during treatment process [25]. For this reason, it can be said that the lower the moisture content of an activated carbon the better its adsorptive capacity. Activated TKP is seen to possess 3.45% of moisture and 96.55% of Dry matter. The percentage of moisture was lower when compared to values obtained from Khaya senegalensis fruit (6.17 %), walnut shell (4.18 %), Delonix regia (6.286 %), and Locust bean husk (8.20 %) as reported by Gimba et al., [14]; Abechi,



[1]; Ocholi, (2006); and Oladunni et al., (2012) respectively. The low moisture and high dry matter content of the ATKP indicates that the adsorbent is an excellent material for adsorption processes. The bulk density of activated Tamarind kernel powder was found to be 0.4g/cm³ which showed some variation with that reported by Oladunni et al., (0.49 g/cm³) for locust bean husk, 0.26 g/cm³ for saw dust of Dalbergia sisso (Shakirullah et al., 2006); 0.81 g/cm³ for Khaya senegalensis fruits (Gimba et al., 2009); 1.1034 g/cm³ for walnut shell [1]; 0.73 g/cm³ for rice husk carbon [23]; 0.48 g/cm³ for Euphorbia antiquorum [29]; 0.28 g/cm³ for Enteromorpha prolifera [33]; and 0.5494 g/cm³ for mosambi peel [21]. The amount of ash depends on the carbon sources or biomass [27]. The percentage ash content of the activated tamarind kernel powder was found to be 5.30%. Thus, the low ash content value indicates that the ATKP has

low inorganic content and high fixed carbon. 2.08 % was reported for Cornelian cherry, 2.21 % for Apricot stone and 2.14 % for Almond shells by Erhan et al., [12]; 23.0 % was reported for Mosambi peel by Ladhe et al., [21]; 3.72 % for Enteromorpha prolifera by Deshuai et al., [11]; 6.5 % for saw dust carbon and 45.97 % for Rice husk carbon by Malik [23]; 13.4 % for Euphorbia antiquorum L by Palanisamy et al [29]; 2.58 % for Wheat shells by Bulut and Aydin [8] and 3.50 % for locust bean husk by Oladunni et al., [25]. The pH the activated Tamarind kernel powder was 6.45, and this happens to fall within the acceptable pH range for an ideal adsorbent. Dada et al., [10], reported pH 6.30 for rice husk carbon; pH 7.7 for Mosambi peel by Ladhe et al., [21]. Erhan et al., [12]; reported pH 6.20, 6.25 and 5.80 for Cornelian cherry, Apricot stone and Almond shell respectively.

Parameters	АТКР
Dry matter content (%)	96.55
Moisture content (%)	3.45
рН	6.40
Bulk Density (g.cm ⁻¹)	0.40
Ash content (%)	5.30

FTIR Analysis of ATKP

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) study was carried out to study and identify the functional groups present in the adsorbents ranging from 650cm⁻¹ to 4000cm⁻¹. The adsorption capacity or potential of an adsorbent depends upon its porosity as well as the chemical reactivity of the functional groups at the adsorbent surface [34]. The spectra showing the functional groups and their peaks on the activated tamarind kernel powder and dye treated activated tamarind kernel powder are presented. Furthermore, the results show the presence of Phosphates (P-O-C), (-C=C-Stretch alkenyl), (-C=C- Stretch conjugated), alkanes (C-H stretch), alkenes (=C-H stretch), alkynes (-C=C-), carboxylic acids (O-H bend), aromatic amines (C-N), nitrites (C≡N stretch), aromatics (C-H stretch), alkyl halides, (C-O Stretch, Primary alcohol) etc. An observed shift in the wave number of dominant peaks associated with the spectra indicates the various functional groups activities on the activated tamarind kernel powder surface as reported by Okoli et al., [26]. These activities have been characterized by the

interaction between the functional groups on the surface of the adsorbent and the functional groups in the dye molecule. A shift from 3261.4 cm⁻¹ on the ATKP spectrum (O-H stretch, carboxylic acid) to 3257.7 cm⁻¹ on RO20 spectrum signifying an O-H (broad) stretch H-bonded, Hydroxyl group. A shift from 2922.2 cm⁻¹ on the ATKP spectrum signifying H-C-H stretch alkanes to 2926.4 cm⁻¹ on the RO20 indicating methyl spectrum C-H asymmetric/symmetric stretch. A shift from 1699.7 cm ⁻¹ on ATKP spectrum indicating the presence of -C=C- stretch alkenyl to 1703.4 cm⁻¹ on RO20 spectrum indicating the presence of aromatic combination bands. A shift from 1237.5 cm ⁻¹ on ATKP spectrum indicating the presence of C-N stretch aromatic amines to 1241.2 cm⁻¹ on RO20 spectrum indicating the presence aromatic ethers, Aryl-O stretch or aromatic phosphates (P-O-C stretch). The presence of hydroxyl groups, carbonyl groups, ethers, and aromatic compounds is an evidence of the lingo-cellulosic structure of tamarind kernel powder which was also observed in other materials such as coconut shell [3] and cotton stalks [13]; In: [26].

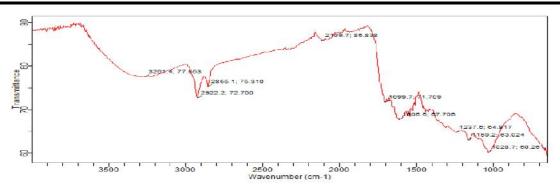


Figure 1: FTIR Spectrum of Activated Tamarind Kernel Powder

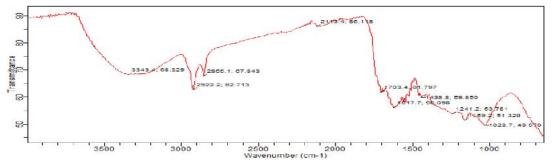


Figure 2: FTIR Spectrum of Reactive Orange 20 Treated TKP

BATCH ADSORPTION STUDIES Effect of pH

The effect of pH on the adsorption of RO20 dye unto activated tamarind kernel powder was studied between the ranges of 2-10. The percentage of dye adsorbed decreased from 80.00% to 9.00% for Reactive orange 20 as compared to Reactive Blue 29 and Acid Red 1 dyes. It was observed that the percentage removal of dye increases rapidly with an increase in contact time initially, and thereafter, beyond a contact time of about 80 min, no noticeable change in the percentage removal was observed. When the contact time was increased from 20 min to 100 min the percentage dye removal increased from 20.0% to 30.0%.

The initial concentration of adsorbate plays an important role, as a given mass of adsorbent can adsorb only a certain amount of a solute. The percentage removal of the dye depreciated with increase in initial dve concentration i.e. from 31.0% to 20.0%. The result indicated that the more the concentration of the solution, the smaller the percentage of dye that a given mass of adsorbent can adsorb as reported by Okoli et al., [26]. This is due to the fact that at lower concentrations, the amount of available adsorption sites are more, while at higher concentrations, the available sites become less. The adsorption sites take the available dye molecules more rapidly at lower concentrations

while at higher concentrations the molecules are required to diffuse to the adsorbent surface by intra particle diffusion [25]. Thus, the percentage of dye removal was dependent upon the initial concentration.

The results obtained from this experiment as presented indicated that as the adsorbent dosage increased (from 0.4g to 1.2g), the percentage of dye adsorbed increased also from 40.0% to 60.0%. The percentage of adsorption increased up to 1.0g of adsorbent after which no significant changes in the percentages of dye adsorbed was observed with an increasing amount of the adsorbent. Joseph and Philomena, [17] reported that for every given initial concentration of an adsorbate, the adsorbent dosage determines the capacity of an adsorbent. Okoli et al., [26] also reported that the increase in adsorption efficiency is as a result of the increased number of adsorption sites and surface. However, from the experiment, it was observed that equilibrium was attained after 1.0 g of adsorbent was used for the analysis. This confirmed what was reported by Okoli et al., [26] where it was stated that "most of the adsorbents studied attained equilibrium around 1.0g of dosage" but further increase in the adsorbent dose resulted in the reduction in the amount of dye removed from the solution. This resulted from the overlapping of the adsorption sites as a result of overcrowding of the highest adsorbent dosage which has imposed a screening



effect on the dense outer layer of the cells, thereby shielding the binding site from the dyes

[25].

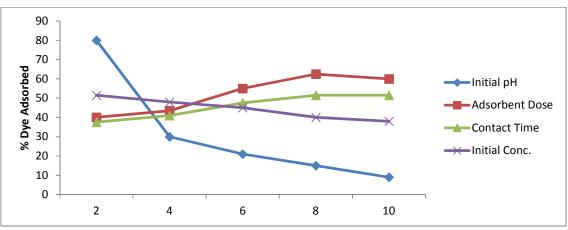


Figure 3: Effect of different parameters on % dye adsorbed

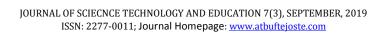
Langmuir Isotherm Model

The non-linear expression of Langmuir isotherm model can be illustrated as Equation (1) (Langmuir, 1916):

$$q_e = q_m K_L C_e / 1 + K_L C_e$$
(1.3)

Where C_e is the concentration of solution at equilibrium (mg/L); qe is the corresponding adsorption capacity (mg/g); qm (mg/g) and KL (L/mg) are constants which are related to adsorption capacity and energy or net enthalpy of adsorption, respectively. Linear forms of the isotherms models are also widely adopted to determine the isotherm parameters or the most fitted model for the adsorption system due to the mathematical simplicity. The linear form of the Langmuir is as follows: $C_e/q_e = 1/q_m K_L + C_e/q_m$ (1.4)

 $C_e/q_e = 1/q_m K_L + C_e/q_m$ (1.4) Langmuir constants b and q_m represent the adsorption equilibrium constant and the maximum adsorption capacity, respectively. A straight line graph with slope of 1/qm and intercept b was obtained when C_e/q_e was plotted against C_e . From the figures it could be seen that the plots are linear and the correlation coefficient (R²) values were found to be 0.907, 0.825, 0.930, 0.901, and 0.974 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively which indicate that the graphs follow the Langmuir isotherm model. The maximum adsorbate uptake (qm) for Reactive Orange 20 were 10.01 (mg/g), 9.01 (mg/g), 9.35 (mg/g), 9.61 (mg/g), and 8.54 (mg/g) at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively. From the results it could be seen that qm, which also signifies the number of sites available for adsorption, is decreasing as the temperature increased from 298K to 328K. The constant b relating to the coefficient of affinity of Reactive Orange 20 to activated tamarind kernel powder at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K is 0.01 (l/mg), 0.02 (l/mg), 0.03 (l/mg), 0.03 (l/mg), 0.06 (I/mg) respectively.



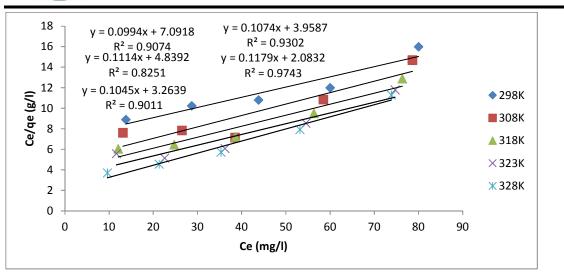


Figure 4: Langmuir Isotherm Model

Separation Factor RL

The equilibrium parameter R_L , which is a dimensionless constant, is referred to as separation factor and is given by:

$$R_L = \frac{1}{1 + (1 + bC_0)} \tag{1.5}$$

Where; C_0 is the initial concentration and b is the Langmuir equilibrium constant. The R_L values indicate the adsorption to be favourable if

(0< R_L<1), unfavourable if (R_L>1), linear if (R_L=1) or irreversible if (R_L=0). The R_L values issued from this study were ranged from 0.45 to 0.13 for RO20 dye with the increase in temperature from 298K to 328K. The result obtained from separation factor (R_L) calculation showed that adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 dye is favourable on activated tamarind kernel powder.

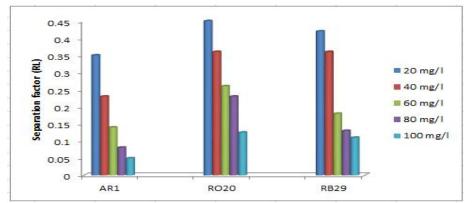


Figure 5: Separation Factor

Freundlich Isotherm

The Freundlich adsorption isotherm(Ozacar, 2003) is given by: $q_e = K_f C_e^{1/n}$ (6)A linear form of the expression above is written as: $\log q_e = \log K_f + 1/n \log C_e$ (7)

Where q_e is the amount of adsorbate per unit weight of adsorbent, K_F is Freundlich constant measuring adsorption capacity, C_e is the equilibrium concentration of the adsorbate in solution, n is a constant related to adsorption efficiency and energy of adsorption intensity of adsorbent. K_f and n can be obtained from the intercepts and slopes of the linear plot of $logq_e$ against $logC_e$. From the figures it could be seen that the plots are linear and the correlation coefficient (R²) values were found to be 0.964, 0.860, 0.915, 0.856, and 0.898 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively which indicate that the graphs follow the Freundlich isotherm model. The adsorption capacity (K_f) of the activated tamarind kernel powder for Reactive Orange 20 were 4.09 (I/g), 2.75 (I/g), 2.06 (I/g), 1.72 (I/g), and 1.00 (I/g) at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively. From the results it could be seen that K_f, which also signifies the adsorption



capacity of the adsorbent, is increasing as the temperature increased from 298K to 328K. The constant n relating to the adsorption efficiency of

activated tamarind kernel powder for Reactive Orange 20 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K is 1.39, 1.51, 1.63, 1.68, and 2.12 respectively.

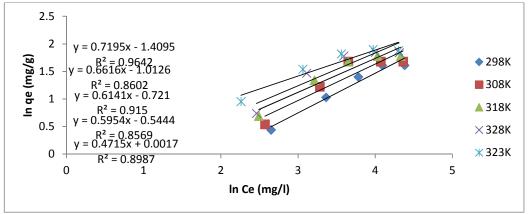


Figure 6: Freundlich Isotherm Model

Temkin Isotherm

The linear form of Temkin isotherm can be expressed as:

 $q_e = (RT/b_T) \ln A_T + (RT/bT) \ln C_e$ (1.8) Where A_T is the Temkin isotherm equilibrium binding constant (L/g); b_T is the Temkin isotherm constant; R is the universal gas constant (8.314J/mol/K); T is the temperature at 298K; and C_e is the equilibrium concentration (mg/L). Temkin isotherm constant b_T and Temkin isotherm equilibrium binding constant A_T are obtained from the intercepts and slopes of the linear plot of q_e versus ln C_e .

The Temkin isotherm equation assumes that the heat of adsorption of all the molecules in a unit layer decreases linearly with coverage due to adsorbent-adsorbate interactions, and that the adsorption is characterized by a uniform distribution of the bonding energies, up to some maximum binding energy.

Temkin isotherm constant $b_{\rm T}$ and Temkin isotherm equilibrium binding constant $A_{\rm T}$ were obtained from the intercepts and slopes of the

linear plot of qe versus InCe. The Temkin adsorption isotherm models for Reactive Orange 20 at a temperature range of 298K to 328K respectively. From the figures it could be seen that the plots are linear and the correlation coefficient (R²) values were found to be 0.969, 0.865, 0.950, 0.910, and 0.928 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively which indicate that the graphs follow the Temkin isotherm model. The adsorption capacity (A_T) of the activated tamarind kernel powder for Reactive Orange 20 were 7.11 (I/g), 5.22 (I/g), 4.61 (I/g), 4.01 (I/g), and 2.37 (I/g) at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively. From the results it could be seen that AT, which also signifies the equilibrium binding constant corresponding to the maximum binding energy of the adsorbent, is decreasing as the temperature increased from 298K to 328K. The constant b⊤ relating to the heat of adsorption of activated tamarind kernel powder for Reactive Orange 20 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K is 1138.0 (J/mg), 1167.0 (J/mg), 1158.1 (J/mg), 1292.3 (J/mg), and 1312.0 (J/mg) respectively.

JOURNAL OF SCIECNCE TECHNOLOGY AND EDUCATION 7(3), SEPTEMBER, 2019 ISSN: 2277-0011; Journal Homepage: www.atbuftejoste.com

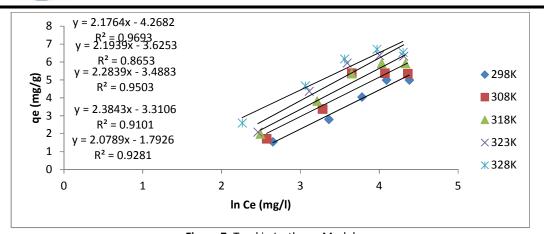


Figure 7: Temkin Isotherm Model

Dubinin-Radushkevich (D-R) Isotherm

This considers that adsorbent size is comparable to the micropore size and the adsorption equilibrium relation for a given adsorbate-adsorbent combination can be expressed independent of temperature by using the adsorption potential (ϵ)

$$\varepsilon = \operatorname{RTln}(1 + \frac{1}{\varepsilon}) \tag{1.9}$$

The D-R isotherm assumes a Gaussiantype distribution for the characteristic curve and the model can described as follows $lng_e = lng_s - B\epsilon^2$ (1.10)

 $\begin{aligned} & \ln q_e = \ln q_s - B\epsilon^2 & (1.10) \\ & & Where \ q_s \ is \ the \ D-R \ constant \ (mol/g) \ and \\ B \ gives \ the \ activation \ energy \ E_A \ (kJ/mol) \ per \\ & molecule \ of \ adsorbate \ at \ the \ moment \ of \ its \\ transfer \ to \ the \ solid \ surface \ from \ the \ bulk \ solution \\ & and \ can \ be \ computed \ using \ the \ equation: \end{aligned}$

$$E_A = \frac{1}{(2B)^2}$$
(1.11)

Values of q_s and B can be determined through linearization of the D-R isotherm by plotting ln q_e versus ϵ^2 . The activation energy E_A reveals the nature of adsorption. Thus, if the value of activation energy E_A is less than 8KJ/mol, adsorption process is physical; but if it is ranged from 8 to 16KJ/mol, it is a chemical adsorption.

The Dubinin-Radushkevich parameters BD and qp (theoretical isotherm saturation capacity) were calculated from the slopes and intercepts of the linear plots of lng_e versus ε^{2} . The Dubinin Radushkevich adsorption isotherm models for Reactive Orange 20 at a temperature range of 298K to 328K respectively. From the figures it could be seen that the plots are linear and the correlation coefficient (R²) values were found to be 0.923, 0.950, 0.963, 0.989, and 0.964 at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively which indicate that the graphs follow the Dubinin Radushkevich isotherm model. The saturation capacity constant (q_D) of the activated tamarind kernel powder for Reactive Orange 20 were 4.64 (mg/g), 5.53 (mg/g), 5.88 (mg/g), 6.50 (mg/g), and 6.51 (mg/g) at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K respectively. From the results it could be seen that q_D, is decreasing as the temperature increased from 298K to 328K. The constant B_D relating to the mean free energy of adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 on activated tamarind kernel powder at 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K is -4x10⁻⁵ (mol²/J²), -3x10⁻⁶ (mol²/J²), -3x10⁻⁶ (mol²/J²), -2x10⁻ ⁶ (mol²/J²), and -1x10⁻⁷ (mol²/J²) respectively.

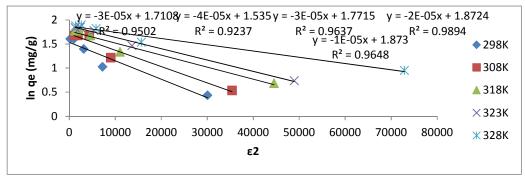


Figure 8: Dubinin Radushkevich Isotherm Model

^{*}Corresponding author: Adams, A. B. 🖾 <u>abrahamdanladiadams@gmail.com</u> 🖾 Department of Polymer and Textile Science, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria. © 2019 Faculty of Technology Education, ATBU Bauchi. All rights reserved



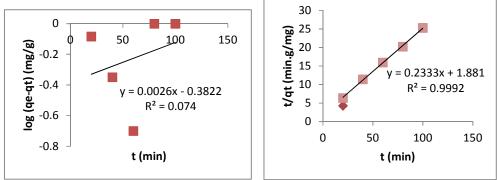
Adsorption Kinetics

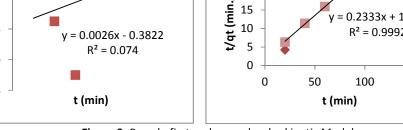
Fitting an experimental data into different kinetic models enables us to study the adsorption rate, model the process and predict information about adsorbent/adsorbate interaction (Amanda et al., 2013).

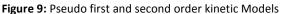
In this study, two different models were used such as the pseudo-first-order (Hashem and El-Khiraigy, 2013; Qui et al., 2010) and the pseudo-secondorder (Ho and McKay, 1999; Hameed et al., 2008). Pseudo-first order and pseudo-second order kinetic models described above were used to test the equilibrium data in order to investigate the mechanism of adsorption and potential rate controlling step of the adsorption process. However, in selecting optimum conditions for carrying out full scale batch dye removal processes, information on the kinetics of dye adsorption is required. A kinetic study at different time intervals, constant initial dye concentration and adsorbent dosage was performed and the results obtained.

The pseudo-first and pseudo second order kinetics modelling of Reactive Orange 20 adsorption unto ATKP are presented. The experimental adsorption capacity of Reactive Orange 20 is 1.50 mg/L. The adsorption capacity by using pseudo-first order model was calculated and presented as 3.43 mg/L while that of pseudosecond order model is 2.44 mg/L. The calculated adsorption capacity of the dye by pseudo-second

order model was seen to be very close to its respective experimentally determined adsorption capacity. But when the adsorption capacities obtained from the pseudo-first order kinetics where compared with the experimentally determined value, a large difference was observed. The values obtained for the correlation coefficients, R², of the pseudo-first order adsorption model was 0.347. For pseudo-second order kinetics we have R² value as 0.847. From the above result it could be seen that the R² value obtained from the Pseudo-second order kinetic plot is higher than that obtained from the Pseudofirst order adsorption kinetic plot. Thus, the correlation coefficient value and calculated adsorption capacities of all the dyes did not follow the pseudo-first order kinetic model, which suggest that the adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 on activated tamarind kernel powder is dependent on initial concentration. Hence, pseudo-second order adsorption model is more suitable to describe the adsorption kinetics of Reactive Orange 20 unto ATKP and this relies on the assumption that adsorption may be the ratelimiting step [15]. The obtained kinetic information has a significant practical value for technological applications, since kinetic modelling successfully replaces time and material consuming experiments necessary for process equipment design [15].







Adsorption Thermodynamics

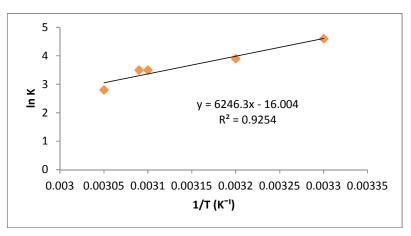
Thermodynamic considerations of an adsorption process are necessary to conclude whether the process is spontaneous or not. The Gibb's free energy change, ΔG , indicates the feasibility and spontaneity of a chemical reaction and therefore is an important criterion for spontaneity determination. Both enthalpy (ΔH) and entropy (Δ S) factors must be considered in order to determine the Gibb's free energy of the process. Reactions occur spontaneously at a given temperature if ΔG is a negative quantity (Papita

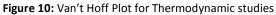
and Shamik, 2011). ΔH determines if the process is exothermic or endothermic; and ΔS determines the increase or decrease in randomness of the process at the solid/solution interface. Reactions occur spontaneously at a given temperature if ΔG is a negative quantity (Abdessalem et al., 2012; Okoli, 2015). The temperatures used in the thermodynamic study were 298K, 308K, 318K, 323K and 328K. The values ΔH and ΔS were obtained from the slopes and intercepts respectively of the Van't Hoff plots. The negative ΔG values indicate that the process is



thermodynamically feasible and spontaneous. The negative ΔH values indicate that the nature of the adsorption process is exothermic indicating that heat is released during the adsorption process. This is also supported by the decrease in the value of adsorption capacity of the adsorbent with the

increase in temperature. The negative values of ΔS pointed to a decreased disorder of the solid/solution interface during the adsorption process. However, similar results were obtained by Okoli *et al.*, (2012).





CONCLUSION

In this research, adsorption of C.I Reactive Orange 20 using activated carbonized tamarind kernel powder was successfully carried out. The characterization analysis carried out on the activated carbon indicated that all parameters namely: bulk density, pH, ash content and dry matter were within acceptable range. The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopic analysis carried out on the raw activated tamarind kernel powder indicated the presence of functional groups which include: Hydroxyl, alkanes, alkenes, alkynes, carboxyl, phenols, phosphates, carbonyl, primary and secondary amines, etc.; which constitute very important adsorption sites on the adsorbent surface. The FTIR analysis carried out on the dyeadsorbed activated tamarind kernel powder indicated the presence of some functional groups which did not appear in the FTIR spectrum of raw ATKP. They include: open chain azo groups, quinones, conjugated ketones, sulphonates, aromatic ethers, aromatic nitro groups etc. The effect of the different parameters namely: pH, adsorbent dosage, initial dye concentration, contact time and temperature indicated that the adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 from wastewater using activated tamarind kernel powder is dependent on this factors. From the four equilibrium isotherms tested in this research the order in which the data obtained best fits the isotherm models are Temkin > Langmuir > Dubinin Radushkevich > Freundlich.

From the Adsorption kinetic models, Pseudo-Second order kinetic model offered the

best description of the adsorption kinetics modelling carried out. From the thermodynamic studies, it could be inferred that the adsorption of Reactive Orange 20 on activated tamarind kernel powder is a physical process (physisorption) due to the fact that the activation energy (E_A) value was less than 8kJ/mol and hence the adsorbent can be easily regenerated and re-used. It is also feasible and spontaneous due to negative value of the Gibb's free energy (Δ G). The negative change in enthalpy (Δ H) value revealed the exothermic nature of the adsorption process. The negative change in entropy (ΔS) values of the system suggests the decrease in adsorbate concentration in solid-solution interface indicating thereby the increase in adsorbate concentration onto the solid phase. This is the normal consequence of the physical adsorption phenomenon, which takes place through electrostatic interactions as reported by Seswati and Uday, [31].

REFERENCE

- Abechi, S.E. (2006). Adsorption Characteristics of Ti (IV) and Zn(II) Oxide Coated Activated Carbon from Walnut Shells. An M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Chemistry, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria.
- Akbal F., (2005). Heterogeneous Do-Do Models of water Adsorption on Carbons. Journal of Colloid and Interface Science, 286: 455-458
- Andre, L. C., Alexandro, M. M., Eurica, M. N., Marcos, H. K., Marcos, R.G., Alessandro, C. N., Tais, L. S., Juliana, C. G., and Victor, C. A.



(2011). Activated Carbon of High Surface Area Produced from Coconut Shell: Kinetics and Equilibrium Studies from the Methylene Blue Adsorption. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 174: 117-125.

- American Society for Testing and Materials (1996): Standard Method for the Determination of pH value in Biomass, Philadelphia, P. A.: 11, (05).
- 5. American Society for Testing and Materials (2003): Standard Method for the Determination of Ash in Biomass, Philadelphia, P. A.: 11, (05).
- Bhatti, I., Qureshi, K., Kazi, R. and Ansari, A.K (2007) Physical and Chemical Analysis of Activated Carbon Prepared from sugarcare Dagasse and Use for sugar Decolonization. *World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*, **34**:194-198.
- Bhattacharyya and Sharma, (2005). Photocatalytic Degradation of two selected Dye derivatives, Chromotrope 2B and Amido Black 10B, in aqueous Suspensions of Titanium Dioxide. Journal of Dyes and Pigments, 65(1): 1-88.
- 8. Bulut, Y., and Aydin H., (2006). A Kinetics and Thermodynamics Study of Methylene Blue Adsorption on Wheat Shells. *Elsevier Journal of Desalination*, 194: pp. 259-267.
- 9. Cheremisinoff, N. P. and Chermisinoff, P.N. (1993). Carbon Adsorption for Pollution Control; Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Dada, A.O., Olalekan A.P., Olatunya, A.M., and Dada, O., (2012). Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin and Dubinin-Radushkevich Isotherms Studies of Equilibrium Sorption of Zn²⁺ unto Phosphoric Acid Modified Rice Husk. *IOSR Journal of Applied Chemistry*, 3(1): pp. 38-45.
- 11. Deshuai, S., Zhongyi Zhang, Mengling W., and Yude W., (2013). Adsorption of Reactive Dyes on Activated Carbon Developed from *Enteromorpha prolifera*. *American Journal of Analytical Chemistry*, 4: pp. 17-26.
- Erhan, D., Kobya, M., Elif, S., and Tuncay, O., (2004). Adsorption Kinetics for the Removal of Chromium (VI) from Aqueous Solutions on the Activated Carbons Prepared from Agricultural Wastes. *Journal of Water Research*, 30 (4): 533-540.
- 13. El-Hendawy, A. A., Alexander, R. J., and Andrews, G. F., (2008). Effect of Activation Schemes on Porous Surface and Thermal Properties of Activated Carbons Prepared from Cotton Stalk. *Journal of Analytical Applied Pyrolysis*, 82: 272-278.
- 14. Gimba, C.E. Ocholi, O.J., Egwaikhide, P.A., Muyiwa, T. and Akporhonor, E.E., (2009) New

Raw Material for Activated Carbon. I. Methylene Blue Adsorption on Activated Carbon Prepared from *Khaya senegalensis* fruits. *Nigerian Journal of Scientific Research*, 36(1): 107-114.

- 15. Gupta, V.K. and Rastogi, A. (2007). Biosorption of Lead from Aqueous Solutions by Green Algea Spirogyra Species. Kinetics and Equilibrium Studies. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 296: 59-63.
- 16. Ho, Y.S. and G. McKay, (2003). Pseudo-second order model for Sorption Processes. *Process Biochemistry Journal*, 34(5): 451-465.
- Joseph. T. N. and Philomena, K. I., (2011). Copper (II) Uptake by Adsorption Using Palmyra Palm Nut. Journal of Advance Applied Science Research, 2(6): 166-175.
- Kesari, K. K., Verma, H. N., and Behari, J. (2011), Physical Methods in Wastewater Treatment: Sono Chemistry: Environmental Science and Engineering Application in Wastewater, LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing, 152.
- Krishnaiah, A., Kayani, F., Sankara R.V.S., Boddu, V.M. and Subbaiah, M.V., (2008). Biosorption of Cr(VI) from Aqueous Solutions using *Trametes versicolor* Polyporus Fungi. *Electronic Journal of Chemistry*, 5(3): 499-510.
- Langmuir, I. (1916). The constitution and fundamental properties of solids and liquids. *Journal of American Chemical Society*, 38: 2221–2295.
- 21. Ladhe, U.V., Wankhede, S.K., Patil, V.T., and Patil P.R., (2011). Adsorption of Erichrome Black T from Aqueous Solutions on Activated carbon Prepared from Mosambi peel. *Journal of Applied Sciences in Environmental Sanitation*, 6: 149-154.
- 22. Mahamadi, C., and Torto, N., (2007). A Comparative Study of the Kinetics of Nickel Biosorption by River System. *Electronic Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 5(2): 275-285.
- 23. Malik, P.K. (2003). Use of Activated Carbons Prepared from Sawdust and Rice Husk for Adsorption of Acid Dyes: a Case Study of Acid Yellow 36. *Elsevier Journal of Dyes and Pigments*, 56: 239-249.
- 24. Mattson, J. S., and Mark, H. B. (1971) Water Quality Measurement: The Modern Analytical Techniques (Pollution Engineering and Technology). Marcel Dekker Publishers, New York.
- Oladunni, N., Agbaji, E.B., and Idris, S.O., (2012). Removal of Pb²⁺ and Ni²⁺ from aqueous solutions by adsorption onto

activated locust bean (*Parkia Biglobosa*) husk. *Archives of Applied Science Research*, 4(5): 2161-2173.

- 26. Okoli, C.A., Onukwuli, C.D., Okey-Onyesolu, C.E. and Okoye C.C., (2015). Adsorptive Removal of Dyes from Synthetic Waste water using Activated Carbon from Tamarind Seed. *European Scientific Journal*, 11(18): 190-221.
- 27. OMRI (2002). Activated carbon processing. National Organic standards board of technical advisory panel review for the USDA. National Organic Program, 1-14.
- 28. Ozacar M. and Sengil I.A. (2003). Adsorption of reactive dyes on calcined alunite from aqueous solutions. *Journal Hazardous Materials*, 98: 211-224.
- 29. Palanisamy P.N., Agalya A. and Sivakumar P., (2013). Equilibrium uptake and sorption Dynamics for the Removal of Reactive Dyes from Aqueous Solution using Activated Carbon prepared from *Euphobia tirucalli* L wood. *Indian Journal of Chemical Technology*, 20: 245-251.
- 30. Pons, M.P. and Fuste, C.M. (1993). Uranium uptake by immobilized cells of pseudomonas strain. *Journal of Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 39(4-5): 661-665.
- Saswati G., and Uday C.G., (2005). Studies on adsorption behaviour of Cr(VI) onto synthetic hydrous stannic oxide. Water Resources (www.wrc.org.za), 13(4): 597-602
- 32. Shanthi and T. Mahalakshmi (2012) Studies on the Removal of Malachite Green and Methylene Blue Dyes from Aqueous Solutions of their Binary Mixture by Adsorption over Commercial Activated Carbon and Tamarind Kernel Powder. International Journal of Research in Pharmacy and Chemistry, 2 (2): 289-298
- Sun, Q. and L. Yang, (2003). The Adsorption of Basic Dyes from Aqueous Solution on Modified Peat-Resin Particle. *Elsevier Journal* of Water Research, 37 (7): 1535.
- Suresh, D.S., Thomas, K. A., Mohan, P. N., and Damodaran, A. D., (1994). Alteration of Ilmenite in the Manavalakurichi Deposit, India. *Clays and Clay Minerals* Journal, 42 (5): 567 -571.
- 35. Saradhi, B.V., Rao, S.R.K., Kumar, Y.P., Vijetha, P., Rao, K.V., and Kalyami, G. (2010). Applicability of Langmuir and Freundlich theory for Biosorption of Chromium from Aqueous Solution using test of Sea Urchins. International Journal of Chemical Engineering Research, 2(2): 139-148
- 36. Vijayakumar G., Tamilarasan R., and Dharmendirakumar M., (2012). Adsorption,

Kinetic, Equilibrium and Thermodynamic studies on the removal of Basic Dye Rhodamine-B from aqueous solution by the use of natural Adsorbent. *Journal of Material and Environmental Science*, 3(1): 157-170.