

Adsorption of phosphorus by alkaline Tunisian soil in a fixed bed column

Rihab Beji, Wissem Hamdi, Aida Kesraoui and Mongi Seffen

ABSTRACT

The present study evaluates the phosphorus (P) adsorption by alkaline soil in fixed bed column mode operation. The effects of flow rate, bed height, and initial P concentration on breakthrough curves were evaluated. Data confirmed that both the breakthrough and exhaustion time increased in parallel with the rise in bed height and the decline in flow rate and initial P concentration. The adsorption capacity was observed to increase with decreasing flow rate and bed height and increasing initial concentration. Moreover, continuous adsorption experiments were conducted using three salts (NaCl, KCl and CaCl₂) with the same concentration (0.01 M) to investigate the P adsorption behavior in saline conditions. The results showed that all three salts improve the P adsorption in the soil column. Consequently, the bed performance was significantly enhanced with salts addition. The maximum adsorption capacity of 13.47 mg g⁻¹ for P, 16.13 mg g⁻¹ for P-NaCl, 22.10 mg g⁻¹ for P-KCl, 30.05 mg g⁻¹ for P-CaCl₂ was attained at an initial influent concentration of 300 mg g⁻¹, bed height of 22 cm, and flow rate of 10 mL min⁻¹. The CaCl₂ addition was therefore the most effective in increasing P adsorption. Thomas, Yoon-Nelson and Clark models were applied to experimental results to forecast the breakthrough curves by nonlinear regression analysis. Meanwhile, the bed depth service time model was employed to examine the effective model parameters in scaling up the process using linear regression analysis. The values of correlation coefficient (R²) and the sum of squared error evidenced that the Thomas model is the most appropriate model to fit the experimental data. The reusability experiment showed that the adsorbent material still had high P adsorption capacity, and tolerable desorption efficiency.

Key words | adsorption, breakthrough curve, modeling, phosphorus, salts, soil

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NOMENCLATURE

C_0	Influent P concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	q_{eq}	Weight of P adsorbed per gram of adsorbent from experiment (mg g ⁻¹)
C_r	Phosphorus removal concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	q_{total}	Total weight of P adsorbed by adsorbent in column (mg)
C_t	Effluent P concentration (mg L ⁻¹)	Q	Volumetric flow rate (mL min ⁻¹)
K_α	Rate constant in bed depth service time (BDST) model (L mg ⁻¹ min ⁻¹)	r	Clark model constant
K_{Th}	Kinetic rate constant of Thomas model (mL min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)	t	Effluent time (min)
K_{YN}	Rate constant of Yoon-Nelson model (min ⁻¹)	t_{total}	Total flow time (min)
m	Weight of adsorbent packed within the column (g)	Y	Removal percentage of P (%)
n	Freundlich parameter	τ	Time essential for 50% adsorbate breakthrough from Yoon-Nelson model (min)
N_0'	Adsorption capacity from BDST model (mg L ⁻¹)	τ_{exp}	Time essential for 50% adsorbate breakthrough from experiments (min)
P_{total}	Total amount of P entering the column		
q_0	Equilibrium P uptake per gram of adsorbent from Thomas model (mg g ⁻¹)		

INTRODUCTION

Phosphorus (P) is an essential crop nutrient, extensively used in many industrial and agricultural applications. It is generally present at a low concentration in the environment, being the limiting factor for aquatic plant growth (Rout *et al.* 2014). However, the increasing discharge of P is taking place through human population growth, urbanization, and agricultural and industrial expansion. The enormous inputs of P to aquatic ecosystems has resulted in serious environmental issues such as eutrophication, which affects the quality of domestic, agricultural, and recreational water resources (Huang *et al.* 2013). The drawbacks of eutrophication include harmful algal blooms, ecological and economic losses of impacted waters, loss of oxygen, and fisheries habitat destruction (Yang *et al.* 2008). Therefore, the importance of reducing P inputs in order to control eutrophication, promote fertilization, and save drinking water supplies has been widely recognized (Conley *et al.* 2009).

Recently, numerous studies have investigated ways and means for P removal from aqueous solutions, including chemical precipitation, physical processes, biological treatment and adsorption-based processes. Of the various processes, adsorption is a promising technique that has the benefit of high removal efficiency, easy availability of an extensive range of adsorbents and effective operation (Zhou *et al.* 2015). Soil possesses the potential to be utilized for cost-effective removal of P thanks to its cheapness, easy availability, and great adsorptive capacity (Ioannou *et al.* 2013). In the present study, we focused on evaluating the P adsorption potential and the effect of three salts (NaCl, KCl, CaCl₂) used with the same concentration (0.01 M) in a fixed bed column. During previous studies (Hamdi *et al.* 2015), phosphorus adsorption kinetics in soils was investigated via batch tests. The use of soils as potential adsorbents for P removal has been proved. However, batch adsorption is inappropriate for utilization in industry, as huge treatment volumes are continuously generated. It is necessary to evaluate fixed bed adsorption data to obtain more realistic results. Moreover, continuous flow experiments can provide valuable information for increasing the design and operation of phosphorus adsorption processes. As a continuation of the previous batch studies (Hamdi *et al.* 2015), the present investigation concerns the performance evaluation of soils for P removal in column mode of operation. The effects of parameters such as bed height, flow rate and initial P concentration on breakthrough curves were examined. The

fixed-bed adsorption data were validated by various dynamic models such as Thomas model, Yoon-Nelson model, and Clark model using non linear regression analysis. Error analysis was carried out to examine the adequacy and accuracy of the model equations. A regeneration experiment was undertaken to check the adsorbent reusability.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Adsorbent

The P adsorption investigation was carried out using soil samples of the semi-arid areas of Chott Meriem (40° 3' N 9° 10' E), Tunisia. The soil was washed with distilled water to eliminate surface-adhered particles and dried at 100 °C. Subsequently, the adsorbent was ground and sieved and particle sizes of 2 mm were used as adsorbent in the adsorption study. The adsorbent physicochemical properties are shown in Table 1. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were used to determine the quantitative mineralogical analysis.

Table 1 | Physicochemical properties of sampled soils (Hamdi *et al.* 2015)

Properties and composition	Value
pH	8.12
Particle size	<2 mm
Organic matter (%)	1.5
P (ppm)	90
Cation exchange capacity (meq per 100 g soil)	19.72
C _{org} (mg kg ⁻¹)	10,980
Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)	5,450
Al (mg kg ⁻¹)	76
K (mg kg ⁻¹)	491
Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	57.50
Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	9.15
Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	33.57
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	3.64
Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	2.74
Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	410.10
Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.05
Clay %	12.80
Sand %	49.20
Silt %	15.40

Adsorbate

The P stock solution of $1,000 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ was obtained using dihydrogen phosphate (KH_2PO_4) powders (analytical reagent grade, Panreac 99%). This solution was diluted using distilled water in order to prepare experimental working solutions with various concentrations. A synthetic P solution of 300 mg L^{-1} was utilized for optimizing operating parameters in continuous adsorption studies. The P-NaCl, P-KCl and P- CaCl_2 solutions were prepared by adding 0.01 M of NaCl, KCl, and CaCl_2 (Sigma-Aldrich 98–100.5%) to the prepared P solution.

Chemical and physical analysis

Soil analysis was performed on the air-dried and sieved samples. The pH of this adsorbent was accessed using distilled water in a 1:2 (mass) soil:solution ratio. The pipette method allows the determination of particle size distribution. The specific surface area was obtained by a porosimeter accelerated surface area and porosimetry system (model ASAP 2010). The Walkley-Blac procedure (Hamdi et al. 2015) allows the determination of the organic carbon (C_{org}). The solution was titrated against ammonium ferrous sulfate [$\text{Fe}(\text{NH}_4)_2(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$], using diphenylamine indicator. The concentrations of P, Ca, Mg, K, Fe, Na, Al, Cd, Cu and Mn were obtained using Mehlich-III methods (Mehlich 1984) by equilibrating 2.5 g of air-dried soil with the extracting solution of Mehlich-III (25 mL) for 5 min and percolating through Whatman No. 40 filter paper. An inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrophotometer (Perkins Elmer, Model 4300DV) was used to determine the concentrations of the different elements of the extract. Powder XRD data were recovered to establish the mineralogical analysis using an internal standard for each mineral. The clay fraction was quantified after purification and based on a pure standard clay mineral. Panalytical CubixX' Pert Pro diffractometer, with CuK_α radiation, $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ in the 2θ angle range of 2° – 40° was adopted to obtain the powder XRD patterns (Hamdi et al. 2015).

FTIR studies

Surface functional groups of the adsorbent were analyzed using Fourier transform infrared spectrometry (FTIR, Perkin Elmer Spectrum Two) for the $4,000$ – 400 cm^{-1} spectrum range. The transmission spectrum was achieved with 4 cm^{-1} resolution and corrected for a KBr background. Infra-red spectra of pure and P-adsorbed adsorbent were recorded.

Fixed bed column studies

Fixed bed column adsorption experiments were executed using a copper column of 1.5 cm inner diameter and 50 cm height. At the top and bottom of the column, a porous sheet was placed followed by a glass wool to prevent loss of the material and avoid outlet clogging. The column was filled with the adsorbent, and distilled water was infiltrated through the bed. Adsorption experiments were achieved in the down flow mode through the fixed bed column using a peristaltic pump (easy-Load 07516–00). Effluent solutions were gathered until exhaustion. Operating parameters including the initial concentration of P solutions (100 , 300 and 500 mg L^{-1}), bed height (13 , 22 and 31 cm), and flow rate (8 , 10 and 12 mL min^{-1}) were varied. The residual P concentration was determined using a spectrophotometer (Biochrome Libra S22) at maximum wavelength 868 nm .

Mathematical description

The data acquired from column studies were used to obtain the breakthrough curves by plotting C_t/C_0 (the ratio of effluent and influent phosphate concentration) vs. time (t). For a desired initial concentration and flow rate, the quantity of total P adsorbed in the fixed bed column (q_{total}) can be accessed from the area under the breakthrough curve using the following formula:

$$q_{\text{total}} = \frac{Q}{1000} \int_{t=0}^{t=t_{\text{total}}} C_r dt \quad (1)$$

where Q is the volumetric flow rate (mL min^{-1}) and $C_r = C_0 - C_t$ is the P removal concentration (mg L^{-1}).

The equilibrium phosphate adsorption capacity of the column, q_{eq} (mg g^{-1}), is obtained as follows:

$$q_{\text{eq}} = \frac{q_{\text{total}}}{m} \quad (2)$$

where m is the weight of adsorbent packed within the column (g).

The total amount of P entering the column (P_{total}) can be acquired using the equation given below:

$$P_{\text{total}} = \frac{C_0 Q t_{\text{total}}}{1000} \quad (3)$$

where t_{total} is the exhaustion time (min).

The removal percentage of P (Y) can be acquired as the following:

$$Y(\%) = \frac{q_{\text{total}}}{P_{\text{total}}} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

The effluent P concentration remaining in residual solution can be calculated using the following equation:

$$C_t = \frac{P_{\text{tot}} - q_{\text{total}}}{V_{\text{eff}}} \quad (5)$$

where V_{eff} is the effluent volume (mL) that can be calculated as $V_{\text{eff}} = Q \times t_{\text{total}}$

The mass transfer zone (MTZ), is the region of the bed where most of the adsorption occurs and moves up the bed with time and can be calculated from:

$$\text{MTZ} = L \frac{t_e - t_b}{t_e} \quad (6)$$

where L is the bed height (cm), t_b is the time required to reach the breakthrough point (min), and t_e is the time required to reach the exhaust point (min).

The time of contact between the water phase and the adsorbent is termed as empty bed contact time (EBCT). EBCT (min) basically measures the critical depth and the contact time for an adsorbent. It can be calculated as per the following equation:

$$\text{EBCT} = \frac{V}{Q} \quad (7)$$

where V = adsorbent bed volume (mL).

Modeling of column adsorption data

The prediction of the concentration–time profile from the breakthrough curves provides successful design of a continuous adsorption process. In order to examine the dynamic performance of P adsorption onto soil of Chott Meriem region, several models were introduced to fit the column experimental data, namely bed depth service time (BDST), Thomas, Clark and Yoon-Nelson.

Thomas model

The Thomas equation is applied to evaluate the performance theory of the adsorption process in a fixed-bed column. The

model supposes that reversible reactions follow the second-order kinetics and the Langmuir isotherm. This model can be well used notably in the absence of internal and external diffusion resistances (Azzaz et al. 2017).

The form of the Thomas model is depicted using the following equation:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp \left[K_{\text{Th}} \left(\frac{q_0 m}{Q} - C_0 t \right) \right]} \quad (8)$$

where C_t is the effluent P concentration at time t (mg L^{-1}), C_0 is the influent P concentration (mg L^{-1}), Q is the flow rate (mL min^{-1}), m is the weight of adsorbent in the column (g), t is the time (min), K_{Th} is the kinetic rate constant for the Thomas equation ($\text{mL mg}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$), and q_0 is the equilibrium P uptake per gram of adsorbent from Thomas equation (mg g^{-1}).

Clark model

Clark (1987) used the mass-transfer concept jointly with the Freundlich isotherm in favor of describing a new simulation of breakthrough curves as:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \left(\frac{1}{1 + Ae^{-rt}} \right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}} \quad (9)$$

From a plot of C_t/C_0 against t at a given flow rate and bed height using nonlinear regressive analysis, the Clark model parameter A and the rate of mass transfer r were obtained.

Yoon-Nelson model

Yoon-Nelson is applied to predict the saturation time and the performance of removal process for a known adsorbate concentration. This model supposes that the rate of decline in the probability of adsorption for each adsorbate molecule is directly proportional to the probability of the adsorbate molecule adsorption and the adsorbate breakthrough on the adsorbent. The Yoon-Nelson model is less complicated than other models and necessitates no detailed data regarding the physicochemical properties of adsorbate and adsorbent (Gong et al. 2015). The mathematical expression of the model is expressed as:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{\exp(K_{\text{YN}}t) - \tau K_{\text{YN}}}{1 + (\exp(K_{\text{YN}}t) - \tau K_{\text{YN}})} \quad (10)$$

where K_{YN} is the rate constant of Yoon-Nelson model (min^{-1}), and τ (min) is the time essential for 50% breakthrough point.

The approach involves a plot of C_t/C_0 vs. sampling time (t) according to Equation (10). The values of K_{YN} and τ can be obtained using the nonlinear regressive method.

BDST model

The BDST model is assigned to the physical measurement of bed capacity at various values of percentage breakthrough. The BDST model constants provide the process enlargement for other flow rates and concentrations without further experimentations. It is applied to predict the dynamic performance of any bed length, if data for some depths are recognized. It supposes that the bed depth, Z , and service time, t , of a column show a linear relationship. The model supposes that the rate of adsorption is under control of the surface reaction between the adsorbate and the unused capacity of the adsorbent (Dissanayake *et al.* 2016).

The BDST equation can be made explicit as follows:

$$t = \frac{N'_0}{C_0 F} Z - \frac{1}{K_\alpha C_0} \ln \left(\frac{C_0}{C_t} - 1 \right) \quad (11)$$

where C_0 is the influent P concentration (mg L^{-1}), C_t is the effluent P concentration at time t (mg L^{-1}), N'_0 is the bed adsorption capacity (mg L^{-1}), F is the linear velocity (cm min^{-1}), t is the effluent time (min), Z is the column bed depth (cm), and K_α is the rate constant in the BDST model ($\text{L mg}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$).

A plot of t versus Z should exhibit a linear relationship where N'_0 and k_α can be obtained from the slope and intercept of the plot, respectively.

Linear and nonlinear regression analyses were performed in order to determine the fixed-bed model parameters for the experimental and predicted data of C_t/C_0 for each model. Sum of squared error (SSE; Equation (12)) and R^2 values were adopted in order to validate the most applicable model that would describe the adsorption performance of the breakthrough curves in

the fixed-bed column.

$$\text{SSE} = \frac{\sum [(C_t/C_0)_c - (C_t/C_0)_e]^2}{N} \quad (12)$$

where $(C_t/C_0)_c$ is the ratio of effluent and influent P concentrations acquired from the model calculation, $(C_t/C_0)_e$ is the ratio of effluent and influent P concentrations acquired from the experiment and N is the number of experimental points.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Characterization of the adsorbent

The physicochemical composition of the soil of Chott Meriem region is illustrated in Table 1. The pH value was 8.12 revealing that the soil is alkaline. The basic nature of the studied adsorbent is associated with the great concentration of some basic cations, specifically calcium and magnesium, from the different horizons of the soils (Hamdi *et al.* 2015). It was reported in our previous work (Beji *et al.* 2017) that phosphate ions can react with Fe and Al-oxides by ligand exchange forming inner-sphere complexes whereas the presence of Ca ions facilitates P removal via precipitation. The soil was rich in exchangeable calcium representing $5,450 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$. The mechanism of P immobilization by calcium may be the formation of calcium phosphate precipitation by the reaction of dissolved Ca^{2+} with the phosphate in the solution (Hamdi *et al.* 2015). Moreover, mineral analysis in Table 2 indicates that the texture was dominated by the sand.

FTIR studies

Figure 1 presents the FTIR spectrum of soil sample of Chott Meriem. The infrared spectra present a large number of peaks, which prove the complex nature of the studied adsorbent. The absorption band at $3,430.15 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ is assigned to OH groups' stretching vibration (Franco *et al.* 2017). The band appearing at $1,632.61 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ corresponds to HOH

Table 2 | Soil mineralogical composition (Hamdi *et al.* 2015)

	Kaolinite	Quartz	Calcite	Smectite	Illite	chlorite
Abundance of mineralogy	+	+++	+	+	—	—

+++ abundant, + poorly abundant.

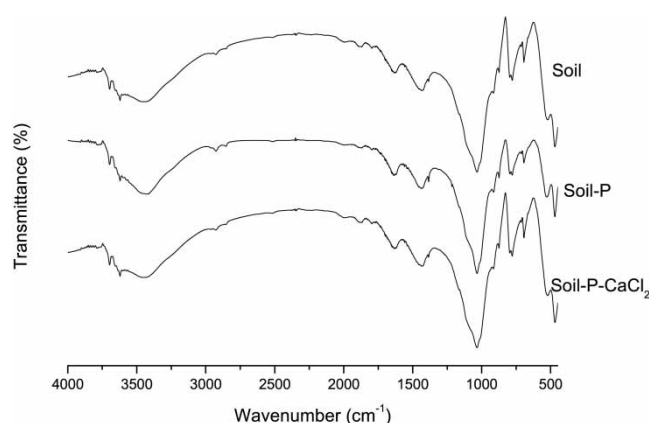


Figure 1 | Spectra of soil, soil-P, and soil-P-CaCl₂.

deformation of adsorbed water (Saikia & Parthasarathy 2010). The peak at $1,432.89\text{ cm}^{-1}$ is ascribed to carbonate stretching vibration (Li *et al.* 2015). The band located at $1,033.46\text{ cm}^{-1}$ is attributed to P=O stretching vibration (Alimohammadi *et al.* 2016). The band at 778.72 cm^{-1} is assigned to Si-O stretching of quartz (Saikia & Parthasarathy 2010). In addition, the peak present at 532.25 cm^{-1} is associated with P-O bending (Wang *et al.* 2010). The peak at 469.92 cm^{-1} corresponds to Si-O-Si deformation (Saikia & Parthasarathy 2010). Reaction with P and P-CaCl₂ caused a shift in these absorption bands. The strengthening intensity of the peaks related to P-O and P=O bending after adsorption indicates the P addition (from 35.31% to 37.31% and from 14.23% to 19.81%, respectively) (Beji *et al.* 2017). The addition of P-CaCl₂ also causes a rise in the intensity of these bands (from 35.31% to 48.4% in the case of P-O bending and from 14.23% to 30.99% in the case of P=O stretching), which confirms P adsorption. These results are in agreement with the findings reported in our earlier work (Beji *et al.* 2017). On the other hand, the two latter absorption bands were present even before P exposure, indicating the presence of these functionalities in the adsorbent surface.

Fixed bed column studies

Effect of bed height

In order to examine the impact of bed height on the fixed bed removal of P, bed heights were varied as 13, 22 and 31 cm with a constant flow rate of 10 mL min^{-1} and initial P concentration of 300 mg L^{-1} . The related breakthrough curves are introduced in Figure 2. It is clear from the figure that with increasing bed heights (from 13 to 22 to 31 cm), breakthrough and exhaustion times were extended.

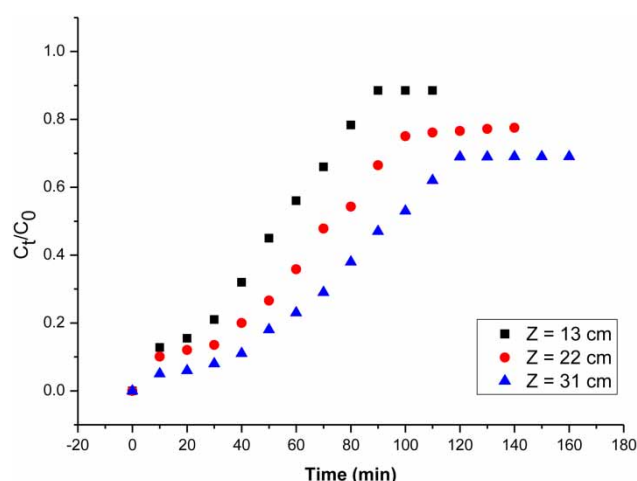


Figure 2 | Breakthrough curves: the effect of different bed depths on P adsorption ($C_0 = 300\text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $Q = 10\text{ mL min}^{-1}$).

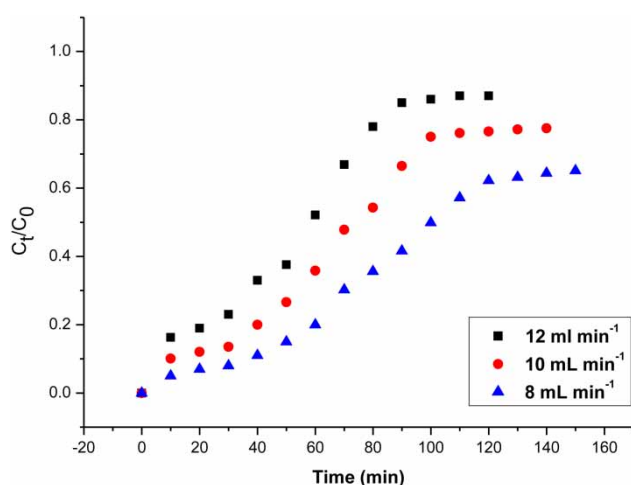
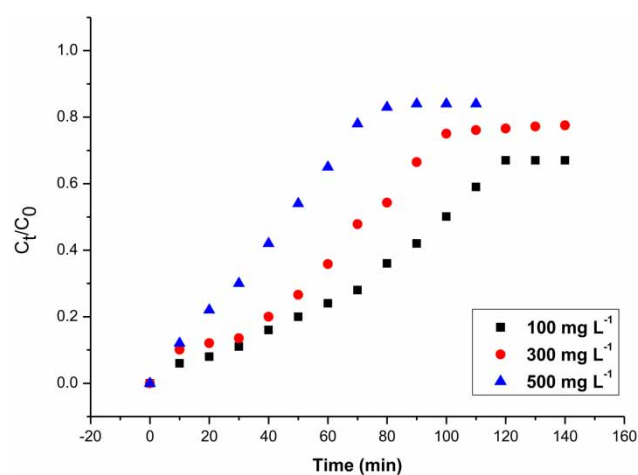
This result could be explained by the longer bed height providing further EBCT between the adsorbent and the adsorbate (Table 3). In addition, the breakthrough curve slopes declined with rising bed heights, leading to a broadened mass transfer zone. The increase in P removal efficiency with the increase of bed height (Table 3) could be attributed to a greater amount of soil present in the fixed bed, which implies that there are more binding sites available for P adsorption (Zhou *et al.* 2015).

Effect of different flow rates

The breakthrough curves at different flow rates of 8, 10 and 12 mL min^{-1} are introduced in Figure 3. The results showed that when the flow rate rose from 8 to 12 mL min^{-1} , the breakthrough and exhaustion times were reduced notably. This could be attributed to the increase of rate of mass transfer with flow rate increasing. As evidenced in Table 3, with a rise of flow rate, the percentage removal and adsorption capacity declined from 62.32 to 38.86% and from 14.02 to 10.24 mg g^{-1} , respectively. The EBCT decreased with the increase of flow rate (Table 3). Therefore, the lower flow rate provided greater adsorbate-adsorbent interaction and diffusion of P within the adsorbent, exploiting the biggest portion of the adsorbent bed (Rout *et al.* 2014). As a result, exhaustion time increased, which promotes better column performance (Xu *et al.* 2014). Similar outcomes were recorded by Banerjee *et al.* (2017) when investigating Cr(VI) removal by shells in a fixed bed column system.

Table 3 | Adsorption breakthrough data for different bed heights, flow rates, and initial P concentrations

C_0 (mg L ⁻¹)	Q (mL min ⁻¹)	Z (cm)	Y (%)	q_{eq} (mg g ⁻¹)	C_t (mg L ⁻¹)	MTZ (cm)	EBCT (min)
100	10	22	66.80	5.01	33.20	21.23	3.8
300	10	22	55.26	13.47	134.10	21.10	3.8
500	10	22	50.77	14.27	257.00	21.11	3.8
300	8	22	62.32	14.02	113.10	21.29	4.8
300	12	22	38.86	10.24	183.60	21.07	3.2
300	10	13	52.91	14.28	141.30	12.10	2.2
300	10	31	59.90	10.36	120.30	30.28	5.4

**Figure 3** | Breakthrough curves: the effect of flow rate on P adsorption ($C_0 = 300$ mg L⁻¹, $Z = 22$ cm).**Figure 4** | Breakthrough curves: the effect of influent concentration on P adsorption ($Q = 10$ mL min⁻¹, $Z = 22$ cm).

Effect of influent P concentration

The breakthrough curves under varying influent P concentration as 100, 300 and 500 mg L⁻¹ are presented in Figure 4. It is evident from the figure that both breakthrough and saturation time declined with increasing influent P concentration. At higher influent concentration, the breakthrough curves were sharper and breakthrough occurred quicker as compared to the case of lower influent concentration where flatter breakthrough curves and slower bed exhaustion were obtained. This can be illustrated by the fact that higher adsorbent sites were being occupied with the rise of P concentration. These results prove that the change of concentration gradient influences the breakthrough time as well as the saturation rate (Han *et al.* 2009). In addition, an increase in P uptake capacity (from 5.01 to 14.27 mg g⁻¹) can be observed for an increasing of initial P concentration from 100 to 300 mg L⁻¹.

Effect of salts on the bed performance

New experiments were performed with P, P-NaCl, P-KCl and P-CaCl₂ solutions (0.01 M of all salts) to explore the effect of salts on the bed performance at the same experimental conditions. The results are introduced in Figure 5 and Table 4. It is evident that the three salts added to the P solution provide improvements on the breakthrough curves. The most considerable enhancement was noticed when P-CaCl₂ was used. In this case, breakthrough time reaching saturation increased, the maximum adsorption capacity grew from 13.47 to 30.05 mg g⁻¹ and the removal percentage rose by 28% (compared with the P control sample) (Table 4). The results emphasize that all three salts could increase the P adsorption in the soil column compared with the control sample. This can be explained on the basis that addition of salts increases the soil ionic strength. Thus, P adsorption tended to increase (Curtin *et al.* 1993). On the other hand, at greater values of pH,

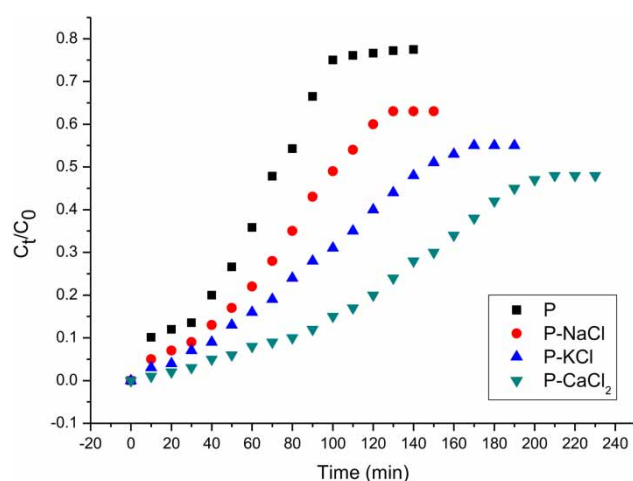


Figure 5 | Breakthrough curves: the effect of three salts on P adsorption ($C_0 = 300 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $Q = 10 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$, $Z = 22 \text{ cm}$).

Table 4 | Parameters of the dynamic models in the fixed bed adsorption of P, P-NaCl, P-KCl, P-CaCl₂ by the alkaline soil

Models	Adsorbate			
	P	P-NaCl	P-KCl	P-CaCl ₂
Thomas				
$K_{Th} (\times 10^4), \text{ L mg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.5
$q_e, \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	14.49	20.53	29.05	39.94
R^2	0.966	0.965	0.953	0.967
$SSE (\times 10^3)$	3.02	2.01	1.91	0.68
$Y, \%$	51.31	66.17	69.3	80.13
$q_{e(\text{exp})}, \text{ mg g}^{-1}$	13.47	16.13	22.10	30.05
Clark				
A	22.88	10.93	5.75	14.97
$r (\times 10^2), \text{ min}^{-1}$	3.6	2.3	1.46	1.38
R^2	0.962	0.968	0.962	0.971
$SSE (\times 10^3)$	3.47	1.84	1.54	0.91
Yoon-Nelson				
$K_{YN} (\times 10^3), \text{ L min}^{-1}$	2.61	1.44	2.06	1.08
$\tau, \text{ min}$	377.82	488.36	698.39	949.94
R^2	0.942	0.974	0.981	0.973
$SSE (\times 10^3)$	5.22	1.47	0.75	0.78
$\tau_{\text{exp}}, \text{ min}$	66.16	75.46	90.99	130

salts can neutralize the negatively charged phosphate molecule and the negatively charged surface of soil, facilitating the latter to adsorb more phosphate molecules (Ip et al. 2009).

Considering q_{eq} and Y values, it can be concluded that all salts were favorable for the continuous adsorption of

P. Due to salt addition, the bed performance was increased as exhibited in Figure 5 and Table 4.

Table 4 shows that the salt addition generally improves the adsorption of P on the soil; moreover, this is carried out in a descending order: $\text{P-CaCl}_2 > \text{P-KCl} > \text{P-NaCl} > \text{P}$. These results can be attributed respectively to the low, medium, and high solubility of Ca-phosphates, K-phosphates, and Na-phosphates (Beji et al. 2017). Furthermore, this arrangement of salts to enhance P removal can be linked with the valence degree and hydration of cations brought with chloride (Ca^{2+} , K^+ , Na^+). One possible reason is that divalent cations can fit into cavities of adsorbed phosphate ions (Beji et al. 2017). This behavior favors the adsorption of P ions on Ca^{2+} cations. In addition, potassium and sodium are two monovalent cations with different hydrated radii (3.31 and 3.58 Å respectively). Sodium is more hydrated than potassium such that water molecules are more bound in the inner sphere hydration shell in the Na^+ case. Dykstar et al. (2016) found that potassium ions are preferentially adsorbed over sodium considering their greater mobility.

It was verified in Table 4 that CaCl_2 exhibited the best performance to be applied in fixed bed adsorption of P. In this work, using a column with a height of 50 cm and a diameter of 1.5 cm, flow rate of 10 mL min^{-1} , and influent P concentration of 300 mg L^{-1} , the maximum adsorption capacity value was 30.05 mg g^{-1} (Table 4). Rout et al. (2014) evaluated the adsorption of phosphate by a mixture of ground burnt patties and red soil in a fixed bed column. They used a column with a diameter of 4.5 cm and studied the effect of initial concentration (5 and 15 mg L^{-1}), flow rate (2.5, 5 and 7.5 mL min^{-1}) and bed height (10, 15 and 20 cm). Under these conditions, the q_{eq} values ranged from 0.858 to 2.112 mg g^{-1} . This result demonstrates that the soil studied in presence of CaCl_2 can be an option for fixed bed adsorption of P.

To establish the relative efficiency of Chott Meriem soils relative to others used to remove phosphorous from aqueous solutions, a comparison was made on the basis of the maximum adsorption capacity (q_{eq}). The comparison (Table 5) revealed that soils of Chott Meriem region could be considered as a promising material to remove phosphorus when compared to volcanic ash soil (Nguyen & Maeda 2016), ground burnt patties and red soil (Rout et al. 2014), zirconium loaded okara (Nguyen et al. 2015), and slag filter media (Lee et al. 2014). The higher adsorption capacity reveals that our adsorbent had a better potential of adsorption relative to other adsorbent materials.

Table 5 | Comparison of adsorption capacities between Chott Meriem soils and other studied adsorbents

Adsorbents	Adsorption capacity (mg g ⁻¹)	References
Volcanic ash soil	5.57	Nguyen & Maeda (2016)
Ground burnt patties and red soil	2.11	Rout et al. (2014)
Zirconium loaded okara	12.21	Nguyen et al. (2015)
Slag filter media	0.018	Lee et al. (2014)
Chott Meriem soils	16.56	This study

Breakthrough curve modeling

Analysis using the Thomas model

The column data were fitted to the Thomas model to determine the Thomas rate constant (K_{Th}) and maximum solid-phase concentration (q_0) using nonlinear regression analysis. The Thomas model parameters and the values of R^2 and SSE at different experimental conditions are introduced in Tables 4 and 6.

It is clear from Table 6 that as the influent concentration increased, q_0 values decreased while K_{Th} values increased. This is related to the driving force difference for adsorption that follows the concentration gradient. When the flow rate increased, q_0 values increased while K_{Th} values decreased. Thus, lower flow rate and higher influent concentration provided better adsorption efficiency. Additionally, it was found that q_0 values, predicted using the Thomas model, are close to the q_{eq} values accessed from experimental data for given experimental conditions. As indicated in the data (Table 4), K_{Th} values varied with chemical modification and the following

classification was exhibited: $P > P-NaCl > P-KCl > P-CaCl_2$. On the other hand, it is clear that q_{eq} values were enhanced with salts addition and the following classification was exhibited: $P-CaCl_2 > P-KCl > P-NaCl > P$.

The elevated R^2 values (0.952 to 0.991) and low SSE values (0.00068 to 0.00317) (Tables 4 and 6) revealed the suitability of fit between the experimental results and corresponding predicted values using the Thomas model.

Analysis using the Clark model

The Freundlich constant values ($n=2.24$ (P); $n=1.87$ (P-NaCl); $n=1.68$ (P-KCl); $n=1.83$ (P-CaCl₂)) obtained from the batch experiments in our previous work were used to calculate the parameters in the Clark model. The values of A and r in the Clark model were obtained from Equation (9) using nonlinear regression analysis and are introduced in Tables 4 and 7.

From Table 7, as both flow rate and influent P concentration increased, the rate of mass transfer (r) increased. However, with the bed height increase, r values decreased. Also, it is clear from Table 4 that A and r values declined with the addition of the following salts: NaCl, KCl and CaCl₂. The elevated values of R^2 (0.947–0.99) and low values of SSE (0.00091–0.00366) advocated that the Clark model presented a convenient correlation on the effects of evaluated parameters.

Analysis using the Yoon-Nelson model

A simple theoretical model as presented in Equation (10) was applied to evaluate the breakthrough performance of P removal in column mode. K_{YN} and τ values are listed in Tables 4 and 8.

Table 6 | Parameters of Thomas model using nonlinear regression analysis and the equilibrium P uptake (q_{eq}) and total removal percentage (Y) for P adsorption at various bed-heights, flow rates, and initial P concentrations

C_0 , mg L ⁻¹	Q , mL min ⁻¹	Z , cm	K_{Th} ($\times 10^4$), mL min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹	q_0 , mg g ⁻¹	R^2	SSE ($\times 10^3$)
100	10	22	2.8	6.35	0.983	0.99
300	10	22	1.1	14.49	0.966	3.02
500	10	22	0.9	15.09	0.970	3.17
300	8	22	0.9	16.15	0.964	2.26
300	12	22	1.5	12.77	0.981	2.06
300	10	13	1.7	16.56	0.991	0.99
300	10	31	1.0	11.60	0.952	2.44

Table 7 | Parameters of the Clark model using nonlinear regression analysis at various bed heights, flow rates, and initial P concentrations

C_0 , mg L^{-1}	Q , mL min^{-1}	Z , cm	A	r ($\times 10^2$), min^{-1}	R^2	SSE ($\times 10^3$)
100	10	22	32.15	3.08	0.980	1.17
300	10	22	22.88	3.6	0.962	3.47
500	10	22	15.92	5.01	0.965	3.66
300	12	22	30.85	2.87	0.945	2.63
300	8	22	21.42	4.79	0.979	2.20
300	10	13	27.56	5.37	0.990	1.12
300	10	31	31.17	3.14	0.962	2.87

As shown in Table 8, the bed height increase leads to the increase of τ values and the decrease of K_{YN} values. On the other hand, K_{YN} values increased whereas τ values declined with rising flow rate and influent P concentration. The increase of K_{YN} value was due to the increased driving force of mass transfer in the liquid film (Liu *et al.* 2017), which explains the result that the breakthrough and saturation occurred faster at higher flow rate and initial concentration. These findings are similar to those obtained by earlier researchers in fixed-bed adsorption studies (Tsai *et al.* 2016). Also, the data (Table 4) indicated that K_{YN} values were reduced with the addition of salts and the following decreasing arrangement was determined: $P > P\text{-NaCl} > P\text{-KCl} > P\text{-CaCl}_2$. It is observed in Table 8 that τ values obtained from the model were much higher than those obtained from experiments under all experimental conditions, revealing that the Yoon-Nelson model is unsuitable in predicting the τ values due to its relative simplicity. The high values of nonlinear regression coefficient (0.913–0.981) and low values of error (0.00075–0.00926) indicated the accuracy of the Yoon-Nelson equation to fit the obtained experimental data using nonlinear regression.

Table 8 | Yoon-Nelson parameters using nonlinear regression analysis at various bed heights, flow rates, and initial P concentrations

C_0 , mg L^{-1}	Q , mL min^{-1}	Z , cm	K_{YN} ($\times 10^3$), L min^{-1}	τ , min	R^2	SSE ($\times 10^3$)	τ_{exp} , min
100	10	22	2.26	447.40	0.981	1.16	83.10
300	10	22	2.61	377.82	0.942	5.22	66.10
500	10	22	3.37	280.88	0.913	9.26	40.00
300	10	22	2.13	474.25	0.968	1.98	78.71
300	8	22	3.22	299.58	0.942	6.32	53.65
300	12	13	3.62	271.68	0.966	3.95	51.89
300	10	31	2.29	442.83	0.964	2.72	77.63

Analysis using the BDST model

The BDST plots for P removal at 20, 40 and 60% breakthroughs for a flow rate of 10 mL min^{-1} and initial phosphate concentration of 300 mg L^{-1} are shown in Figure 6. The adsorption capacity (N_0') and rate constant were accessed from the slope and intercept of the obtained plots. Table 9 exhibits that there was a consistent rise in the slopes from the breakthroughs of 20–60% and a subsequent enhancement in the corresponding values of adsorption capacity (from 1,841 to $4,059 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$). This result can be explained by the fact that at a lower breakthrough value, some active sites of the adsorbent were still not covered by phosphate anions; thus, it remained unsaturated. The fixed bed adsorption capacity at such a low breakthrough position was therefore lower than the total column adsorption capacity of the material. It is evident that R^2 values were above 0.99 indicating the adequacy of the BDST model to describe the present continuous system. Additionally, the obtained BDST model constants can be useful to scale-up the process for other flow rates and concentrations without further experimentation runs.

Comparison of Thomas, Yoon-Nelson and Clark models

The statistical parameters R^2 and SSE were employed to determine the best mathematical model out of Thomas, Yoon-Nelson and Clark models. As listed in Tables 4 and 6–8, the range of R^2 values from the Thomas model (0.952–0.991) were the highest, followed by the Clark and Yoon-Nelson model with respective values of 0.945–0.99 and 0.913–0.981 at the same operating conditions. Similarly, SSE values from the Thomas model (0.00068–0.00317) were lower than that of Clark (0.00091–0.00366) and Yoon-Nelson (0.00075–0.00926) models. Thus, it was concluded that the Thomas model was the most appropriate to describe the process of P adsorption rather than the Clark and

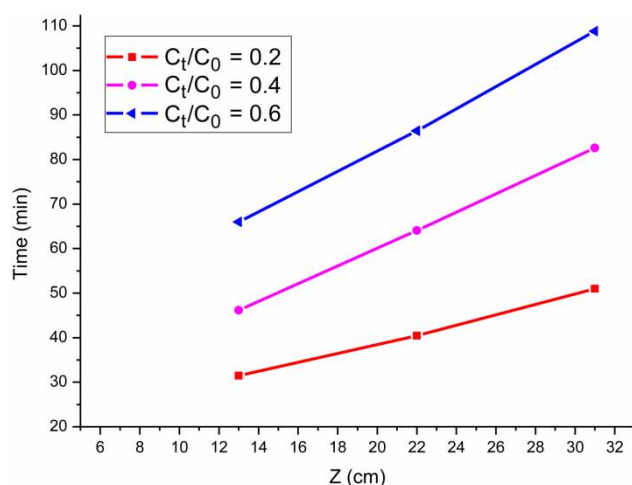


Figure 6 | BDST model for different bed heights ($C_0 = 300 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $Q = 10 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$), $C_t/C_0 = 0.2, 0.4, 0.6$ correspond to 20%, 40%, 60% breakthrough values.

Table 9 | Calculated constants of the BDST model for the adsorption of P ($C_0 = 300 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, $Q = 10 \text{ mL min}^{-1}$)

C_t/C_0	a, min cm^{-1}	b, min	$K_a \times 10^4$, $\text{L mg}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$	N_0 , mg L^{-1}	R^2
0.2	1.08 ± 13.1	17.1 ± 0.04	2.70	1,841.68	0.996
0.4	2.02 ± 0.5	19.77 ± 0.02	0.68	3,449.74	0.999
0.6	2.38 ± 1.4	34.71 ± 0.06	-0.38	4,059.03	0.998

Yoon-Nelson models. The elevated R^2 values and low SSE values demonstrated that all applied models are useful to predict the fixed bed column adsorption process following the order as: Thomas > Clark > Yoon-Nelson.

P adsorption/desorption and reusability

The fixed bed column was subjected to a desorption process after saturation to regenerate the material for consecutive reuse. In this study, desorption experiments were executed by passing distilled water through the saturated bed at a flow rate of 10 mL min^{-1} . Figure 7 presents the results of adsorption/desorption cycles. The P adsorption capacity in the first cycle was 13.47 mg g^{-1} and it gradually declined to 10.82 mg g^{-1} after three cycles, which is almost 80.5% of the original adsorption capacity. The capacity loss by extending the number of adsorption/desorption cycles is associated with the occupancy of some adsorbent active sites by the non-desorbed P and the destruction of the layered structure of the material. On the other hand, desorption capacity was maintained well above 90% of the original capacity in the third cycle, proving the reusability of the adsorbent.

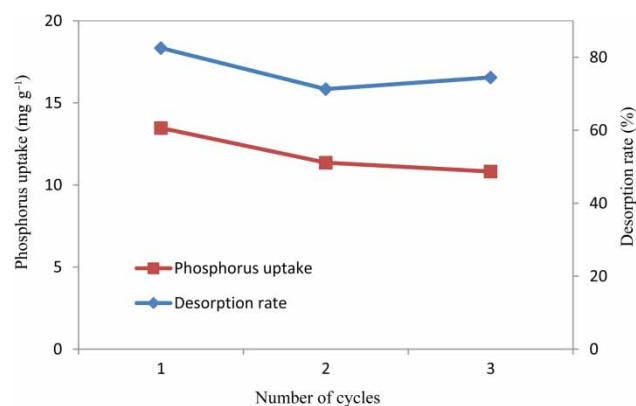


Figure 7 | Phosphorus uptake and reusability in cycle assays ($C_0 = 300 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$, 10 mg L^{-1} , $Z = 22 \text{ cm}$).

CONCLUSION

The soil sampled from the Chott Meriem region was found to be a favorable cost-effective adsorbent for P adsorption in column mode. The experimental data revealed that the fixed bed adsorption of P was dependent on the flow rate, initial P concentration, bed height and type of dissolved salt. The increase in bed height affected the column performance by delaying the exhaustion time. However, the increase in flow rate and initial P concentration tended to speed up the exhaustion of the column. The total removal percentage of P was increased with the increase of bed height and decrease in flow rate and initial P concentration. Moreover, results revealed that all three types of salt addition were favorable to increase the bed performance in the P adsorption. The BDST model with a perfect linear plot (>0.99), adequately predicts the breakthrough curves. It was found that the Thomas, Yoon-Nelson and Clark models fitted well the continuous adsorption data. The best fitting of the models to the experimental data followed the order: Thomas > Clark > Yoon-Nelson. Exploring the adsorption/desorption capacity of the material demonstrated that the capacity did not notably decline after three consecutive adsorption/desorption cycles. These results support the use of this material for P removal from aqueous solution in continuous systems and show that these soils can retain P and adapt well to fertilization.

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