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1           **Sorptive removal of ibuprofen from water by natural porous**  
2           **biochar derived from recyclable plane tree leaf waste**

3  
4 Xu Yang<sup>a,b</sup>, Xinbo Zhang<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Huu Hao Ngo<sup>c,a,\*</sup>, Wenshan Guo<sup>c,a</sup>, Jiangbo Huo<sup>a,b</sup>, Qing Du<sup>a,b</sup>,  
5 Yufeng Zhang<sup>a,b</sup>, Chaocan Li<sup>a,b</sup>, Fei Yang<sup>a,b</sup>

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7 <sup>a</sup>*Joint Research Centre for Protective Infrastructure Technology and Environmental Green Bioprocess,*  
8 *School of Environmental and Municipal Engineering, Tianjin Chengjian University, Tianjin 300384, China*

9 <sup>b</sup>*Tianjin Key Laboratory of Aquatic Science and Technology, Tianjin Chengjian University, Jinjing Road 26,*  
10 *Tianjin 300384, China*

11 <sup>c</sup>*Centre for Technology in Water and Wastewater, School of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University*  
12 *of Technology Sydney, Sydney, NSW 2007, Australia*

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24 \*Correspondence authors: Email: [zxbcj2006@126.com](mailto:zxbcj2006@126.com) (X. B. Zhang);

25 [ngohuuhao121@gmail.com](mailto:ngohuuhao121@gmail.com) (H. H. Ngo)

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26 **Abstract**

27 To remove ibuprofen (IBP) in water efficiently and economically, plane tree leaf-derived  
28 biochar (P-BC) as a new adsorbent was prepared via pyrolysis at 600 °C. Textural  
29 characterizations of P-BC exhibited a porous structure and abundant hydroxyl groups. The  
30 results of FTIR and XPS indicated that -OH functional groups played a key role in the  
31 adsorption process. Batch adsorption studies were carried out at pH values of 2 to 8, adsorbent  
32 dosage of 0.1 to 2.0 g/L and initial concentrations of 500 to 5000 µg/L. Adsorption results  
33 showed that P-BC (1.0 g/L) could remove as much as 96.34% of ibuprofen (2000µg/L) in a  
34 strong acidic environment (*i.e.* pH 2). The adsorption of ibuprofen by P-BC was found to be  
35 more consistent with the pseudo-second order kinetic model and Langmuir isothermal model  
36 with higher correlation coefficients of 0.999 and 0.996, respectively. Its maximum adsorption  
37 capacity was up to 10410 µg/g. A mechanism analysis demonstrated that the -OH functional  
38 groups on the surface of P-BC could form hydrogen bonds with IBP as donors and acceptors,  
39 respectively. It played a predominant role in removing IBP. In particular the fabricated P-BC is  
40 an effective and recyclable sorbent and its efficiency in removing ibuprofen can still reach more  
41 than 70% after five regenerations. The total production cost of P-BC is 4.05 USD / kg, which  
42 is equivalent to the treatment cost of only 0.004 USD/L wastewater. The results revealed that  
43 P-BC is an environment-friendly, low-cost and efficient adsorbent for removing IBP from water.

44 **Key words:** Biochar; Hydrogen bonding; Ibuprofen; Plane tree leaf; Regeneration

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## 46 1. INTRODUCTION

47        Pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs), including antibiotic, painkillers, hair  
48 dyes, antiseptics and so on, have been widely used in agriculture, industry, medicine and  
49 people's daily necessities [1]. With the increasing consumption of PPCPs, it is difficult to  
50 efficiently remove PPCPs from wastewater by conventional wastewater treatment processes,  
51 resulting in the release of large amounts of untreated PPCPs into the environment. This  
52 consequently poses a potential threat to the natural environment and human health [2,3].

53        Ibuprofen (IBP), one of the world's most widely consumed nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory  
54 drugs among PPCPs, is commonly used to relieve symptoms of arthritis, pain and fever. It also  
55 exhibits a state of "pseudo-persistence" in water due to its relative stability and hydrophilicity  
56 [4]. It is also the most common drug detected in water bodies and can even reach the mg/L level  
57 in the case of pharmaceutical industry wastewater [5,6]. It has been reported that IBP can alter  
58 the cardiac physiology and hemodynamics of embryos, impair cardiovascular development in  
59 zebrafish, reduce the reproductive rate of crustaceans, and possibly induce compensatory  
60 hypogonadism in males [7-9]. For these reasons, removing IBP from water is of great  
61 importance for maintaining the good health of the environment and people.

62        In the past few decades, more and more technologies have been invented to remove IBP  
63 from water, including constructed wetland, biodegradation, photocatalysis, ozone oxidation,  
64 and adsorption [10-14]. Among the currently available methods, adsorption is one of the most  
65 promising strategies for trace IBP retention [15]. Activated carbon, clay and carbon nanotubes  
66 have been used to adsorb IBP from water [16-18]. Generally, the preparation of carbon

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67 nanomaterials requires chemical reaction steps and produced nanomaterial further requires  
68 purification steps. Therefore, it is necessary to find an alternative adsorbent material that can  
69 be simply prepared without any chemical modification [19].

70 Biochar is a kind of high carbon content solid product obtained by pyrolysis of biomass  
71 materials (such as plant straw, municipal sludge, etc.) under limited oxygen conditions. It has  
72 the advantages of helping save the environment, low cost, high efficiency, and a lot of potential  
73 in terms of environment pollutants removal due to the characteristics of high specific surface  
74 area, abundant functional groups [20]. Over the past couple of years, various biochars have  
75 been reported to use for removing IBP from wastewater. Essandoh et al. [21] reported that the  
76 adsorption capacity of pine wood biochar prepared at 425 °C for IBP in water was 10.74mg/g  
77 under the conditions of pH3 and a dosage of 4g/L. Mondal et al. [22] treated mung bean shell  
78 biochar by steam activation, and the maximum adsorption capacity of IBP in water was  
79 59.76mg/g at pH2 and a dosage of 0.1g/L. In another study, Chakraborty et al. [23] also carried  
80 out steam activation treatment on wood apple shell biochar. It was found that the removal rate  
81 of IBP in water by biochar increased from 82% to 85.5% with the adsorption capacity of 12.658  
82 mg/g. Moreover, Show et al. [23] investigated the adsorption effect of IBP by acid-base  
83 modification of terminalia katappa shell biochar. The results exhibited the alkali modified  
84 biochar processed better adsorption capacity of IBP of 9.52mg/g. Among them, mung bean husk  
85 biochar and wood apple biochar used steam to be activated in the preparation process, and  
86 terminalia katappa shell biochar was prepared by acid and alkali treatments. Therefore, these  
87 additional steps not only complicated the preparation process, but also increased the production

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88 cost of biochar. Furthermore, the effect of coexisting ions on IBP adsorption by biochar needs  
89 to be explored due to various ions in the actual wastewater, which may effect on the adsorption  
90 performance of the adsorbent. Consequently, the novel green biochar need to be further  
91 explored with simple preparation process, cost-effective, high efficiency and ion interference  
92 resistance, so as to be more potential for practical applications.

93         Nowadays, green landscaping waste (such as fallen leaves, tree pruning, etc.) is mainly  
94 disposed of by composting, burning or landfill, which not only pollutes the environment, but  
95 also increases the burden of garbage treatment plants. Therefore, the proper disposal and  
96 resource-based utilization of green landscaping waste has become a fairly widespread concern  
97 [25,26]. Kim et al. [19] examined maple leaf-derived biochar as a sorbent in IBP elimination  
98 from aqueous medium. They found that the adsorption capacity of maple leaf-derived biochar  
99 prepared at 750 °C for tetracycline in water was as high as 407.3 mg/g due to metal  
100 complexation, hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interactions. Therefore, using landscaping  
101 waste to prepare biochar and remove pollutants from water is a "win-win" solution.

102         In this study a biochar was prepared to remove IBP from water through resource utilization  
103 of plane tree fallen leaves. The surface structure, composition and functional groups of biochar  
104 before and after IBP adsorption were characterized. In addition, the influencing factors and  
105 mechanism for removing IBP from water by plane tree leaf-derived biochar were investigated  
106 and explored, and the reuse of biochar was evaluated experimentally. Finally, the economic  
107 evaluation and safe disposal of P-BC were discussed to improve its applicability. It provides  
108 theoretical and data support for the practical removal of IBP in water by P-BC. This

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109 investigation can pave the way for better resource utilization of biomass, and a low-cost and  
110 green adsorbent for IBP from water.

## 111 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 112 *2.1. Materials and chemicals*

113 The raw materials for biochar were sourced from the fallen leaves of French plane trees  
114 grown by the landscaping of Tianjin Chengjian University (Tianjin, China). IBP (ibuprofen)  
115 was purchased from Beijing Solarbio Technology Co., Ltd (Beijing, China). Methanol was  
116 obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). Absolute ethanol and glacial acetic acid were  
117 obtained from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Share Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China). NaCl, NaNO<sub>3</sub>,  
118 Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and Na<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> used in the experiment were obtained from Tianjin Damao Chemical  
119 Reagent Factory (Tianjin, China). All chemicals or reagents used are of analytical purity or  
120 higher purity.

### 121 *2.2. Preparation of biochar*

122 The preparation method of biochar has changed to some extent in the preparation methods  
123 of Kim et al [19] and Zhang et al. [27]. In general, the collected fallen leaves from the plane  
124 tree were washed with distilled water, and then dried in an oven at 70 °C until constant weight  
125 was achieved. The oven dried materials were sieved (50 mesh) after crushing. Appropriate  
126 amounts of leaf powder were taken and placed in a crucible, sealed with aluminum foil paper  
127 and placed in a muffle furnace, with a heating rate of 5 °C/min, reaching a final temperature of  
128 600 °C and a residence time of 2 h. Following this the biochar was cooled to room temperature  
129 and passed through a 100-mesh sieve. Then it was washed several times with deionized water,

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130 dried and sealed for storage, and given the name P-BC.

### 131 *2.3. Characterization of biochar*

132 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Regulus 8100, Japan) was conducted to observe  
133 the morphology and structure of P-BC. The surface functional groups of P-BC were identified  
134 using Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) (NiciletiS10, USA) at 400 to 4000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$   
135 with 32 scans being taken at a 4  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  resolution. After vacuum degassing at 573.15 K for 4 h,  
136 specific surface area and pore volume of P-BC were measured by  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption/desorption  
137 isotherms using a specific surface area and porosity analyzer (TristarII3020, USA) at 77 K.  
138 After heating P-BC at 800 °C for 4 h, the ash content was determined by calculating the mass  
139 loss before and after. The carbon, hydrogen and nitrogen contents of biochar were determined  
140 using an elemental analyzer (Vario EL cube, Germany) while the oxygen content was calculated  
141 from mass conservation. The surface composition of P-BC before and after IBP adsorption was  
142 performed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, K-alpha, UK). The zeta potential of  
143 biochar at different pH levels was measured by Zeta potential analyzer (Zetasizer Nano ZS,  
144 Malvern, UK).

### 145 *2.4. Batch experiments of IBP adsorption*

146 IBP stock solution (20 mg/L) was prepared by dissolving IBP in ultrapure water. P-BC  
147 (0.1 g) was added to the IBP solution (100 mL) in a 250 mL conical flask. IBP concentration  
148 was determined by sampling after 24 h oscillation on a 150 rpm constant temperature shaker at  
149 25 °C. In order to explore the effect of pH on adsorption, 0.1 g P-BC was put into 100 mL IBP  
150 solution (2000  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ), and the solution pH values were adjusted to 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8,

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151 respectively. To explore the effect of dosage on the adsorption, amounts of 0.01, 0.05, 0.10,  
152 0.12, 0.15 and 0.20 g P-BC, respectively, were placed into 100 mL IBP solution (2000  $\mu\text{g/L}$ ,  
153 pH 2). The effect of coexisting ions on adsorption was studied by adding 0.1 g P-BC into 100  
154 mL IBP solution (2000  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , pH 2), and then NaCl (0.0584g), NaNO<sub>3</sub> (0.0850g), Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>  
155 (0.1420g) and Na<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> (0.1639g) were added to the solution, respectively. These steps were  
156 repeated and 0.0058, 0.0584 and 0.5844g NaCl were added to the solution, respectively. Since  
157 the volume of coexisting ions added were relatively small, the volume of IBP was uniformly  
158 calculated with 100 ml for convenience of calculation. The samples after adsorption were taken  
159 to determine the IBP concentration.

#### 160 *2.5. Regeneration procedure*

161 P-BC (0.1 g) was added to the 100 mL IBP solution (2000  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , pH 2) and the conical  
162 flask was oscillated at 25 °C and 150 rpm for 24 h. The adsorbed P-BC was ultrasonically  
163 cleaned twice with a small amount of ethanol for 5 min each time. After that, it was washed  
164 with deionized water several times and dried in the oven, and then the above regeneration  
165 process was repeated 5 times.

166 The solution was filtered with an 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  organic membrane after adsorption and detected  
167 by Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography (UPLC, SIL-30AC, Japan). A C18 column (3.5  
168  $\mu\text{m}$ , 2.1 $\times$ 100 mm) and UV-visible detection (wavelength of 220 nm) were selected. Ultrapure  
169 water-1% glacial acetic acid: methanol = 3:7 was used as the mobile phase for low-pressure  
170 gradient elution with a total flow rate of 0.4 mL/min. Three groups of parallel experiments were  
171 operated and the detection results were averaged. The removal efficiency and equilibrium

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172 adsorption capacity of IBP by P-BC were calculated by Eqs. (1) and (2), respectively.

173 
$$R(\%) = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{C_0} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$
 Where,

174  $R$  is the IBP removal efficiency (%),  $C_0$  is the initial concentration of IBP ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ), and  $C_e$  is the  
175 concentration of IBP at adsorption equilibrium ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ).

176 
$$q_e = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{m} \times V \quad (2)$$

177 Where,  $q_e$  is the adsorption capacity of P-BC at adsorption equilibrium ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ),  $m$  is the mass of  
178 P-BC (g), and  $V$  is the volume of IBP solution (L).

### 179 2.6. Adsorption kinetics

180 The pseudo-first order, pseudo-first order, elovich and intra-particle diffusion kinetic  
181 models served to evaluate the adsorption kinetics in this study and calculated by Eqs. (3), (4),  
182 (5) and (6), respectively.

183 Pseudo-first-order:  $\ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - k_1 t \quad (3)$

184 Pseudo-second-order:  $\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \quad (4)$

185 Elovich:  $q_t = \left(\frac{1}{b}\right) \ln ab + \left(\frac{1}{b}\right) \ln t, t_0 = \frac{1}{ab} \quad (5)$

186 Intra-particle diffusion:  $q_t = k_i t^{0.5} + C_i \quad (6)$

187 Where,  $q_t$  ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ) is the amount of IBP adsorbed by P-BC at time  $t$  (min),  $q_e$  is the amount of  
188 IBP adsorbed by P-BC at adsorption equilibrium ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ),  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are the rate constants of  
189 pseudo-first order kinetics ( $\text{min}^{-1}$ ) and pseudo-second order kinetics ( $\text{g} \cdot \mu\text{g}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ ),  $a$  is the rate  
190 constant of chemisorption,  $b$  is the constant of the surface coverage,  $k_i$  is intra-particle diffusion  
191 rate constant ( $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-0.5}$ ), and  $C_i$  is a constant ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ).

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## 192 2.7. Adsorption isotherm

193 To further explore the adsorption mechanism of P-BC, the Langmuir, Freundlich, Temkin  
194 and Redlich-Peterson models were employed to evaluate the adsorption capacity of P-BC and  
195 calculated by Eqs. (7), (8), (9) and (10), respectively.

196 Langmuir: 
$$Q_e = \frac{Q_m K_L C_e}{1 + K_L C_e} \quad (7)$$

197 Freundlich: 
$$Q_e = K_F C_e^{1/n} \quad (8)$$

198 Temkin: 
$$Q_e = \left(\frac{RT}{b_T}\right) \ln(K_T C_e) \quad (9)$$

199 Redlich-Peterson: 
$$Q_e = \frac{K_R C_e}{(1 + a_R C_e^{\beta_R})} \quad (10)$$

200 where,  $Q_e$  is the amount of IBP adsorbed by P-BC at adsorption equilibrium ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ),  $Q_m$  denotes  
201 the maximum adsorption capacity of IBP ( $\mu\text{g/g}$ ),  $K_L$  stands for the Langmuir constant ( $\text{L}/\mu\text{g}$ ),  
202 and  $C_e$  represents the equilibrium concentration of IBP ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ),  $K_F$  is a constant representing the  
203 adsorption capacity of P-BC and  $1/n$  is a constant indicating the intensity of the adsorption.  $R$   
204 and  $b_T$  are universal gas constant ( $8.314 \text{ J}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ ) and Temkin constant,  $T$  is temperature in  
205 terms of Kelvin, and  $K_T$  is equilibrium bond constant related to the maximum energy of bond,  
206  $K_R$ ,  $a_R$  and  $\beta_R$  are Redlich–Peterson constants and the exponent,  $\beta_R$ , lies between 0 and 1.

207

## 208 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 209 3.1. Physicochemical properties of P-BC

210 The yield of P-BC prepared by pyrolysis at  $600 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  was 34.3%, and this was probably due  
211 to the fact that most of the cellulose and hemicellulose decomposed at higher temperature,  
212 resulting in a smaller yield [28]. The elemental composition (i.e., C, H, O, and N) of plane tree

213 leaves and P-BC are shown in [Table 1](#). P-BC showed an increase in C and a decrease in H, O,  
 214 and N compared to the original plane tree leaves. The ratios of O/C, H/C, and (N+O)/C were  
 215 indicators of hydrophilicity, aromaticity, and polarity. While the decreased ratios of O/C, H/C,  
 216 and (N+O)/C suggested that pyrolysis of plane tree leaves was a process involving less  
 217 hydrophilicity and polarity. However, aromaticity was increased [29].

218

219

220

221 **Table 1**

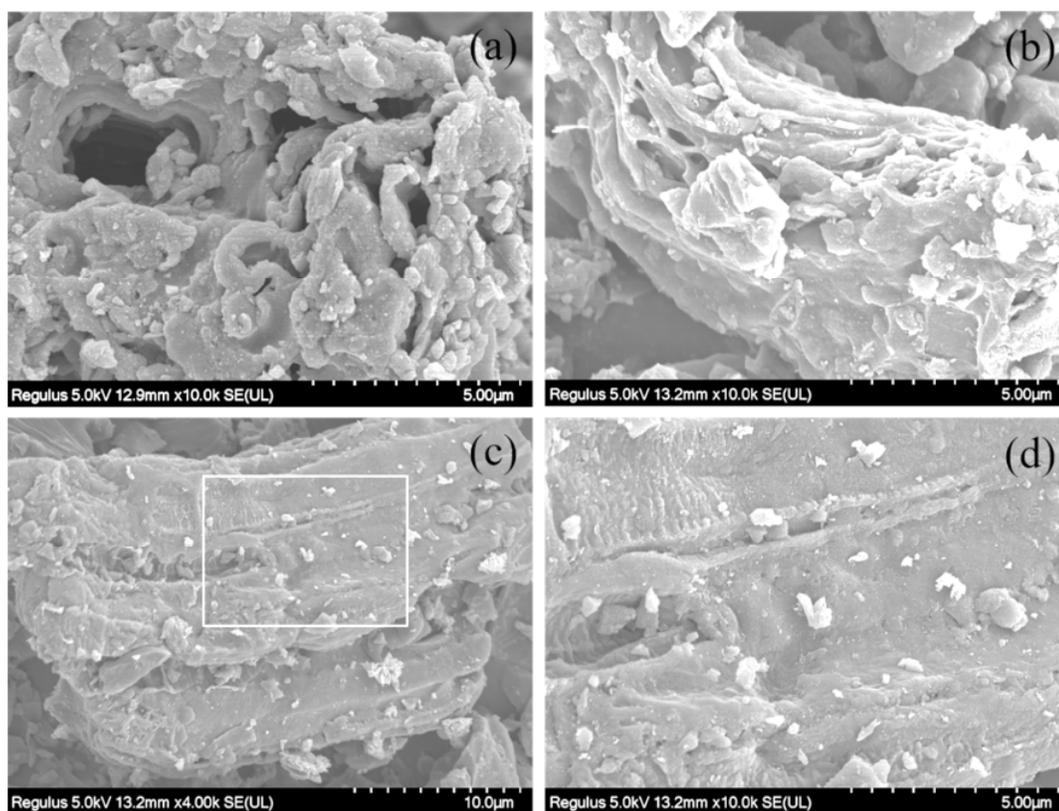
222 Physicochemical properties of plane tree leaves and P-BC.

| Sample            | Ash content (%) | Elemental composition (%) |      |      |     |     |     |      | (N+O)/C | Specific surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /g) | Pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> /g) | Pore diameter (nm) |
|-------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|------|---------|---|----------------------------------|--------------------|
|                   |                 | C                         | H    | O    | N   | H/C | O/C |      |         |   |                                  |                    |
| Plane tree leaves | 3.74            | 47.2                      | 10.2 | 36.5 | 2.2 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.82 | -       | -   | -                                |                    |
| P-BC              | 13.62           | 72.4                      | 2.13 | 10.2 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.16 | 249.09  | 0.0379                                    | 3.92                             |                    |

223

224 Based on what can be seen in [Fig. 1a](#) and [b](#), the surface of P-BC was rough with an irregular  
 225 stacking structure and arranged irregular pore structure, which increased the surface adsorption  
 226 active sites. As can be observed [from Fig. 1c](#) and [d](#), some irregular substances were added to

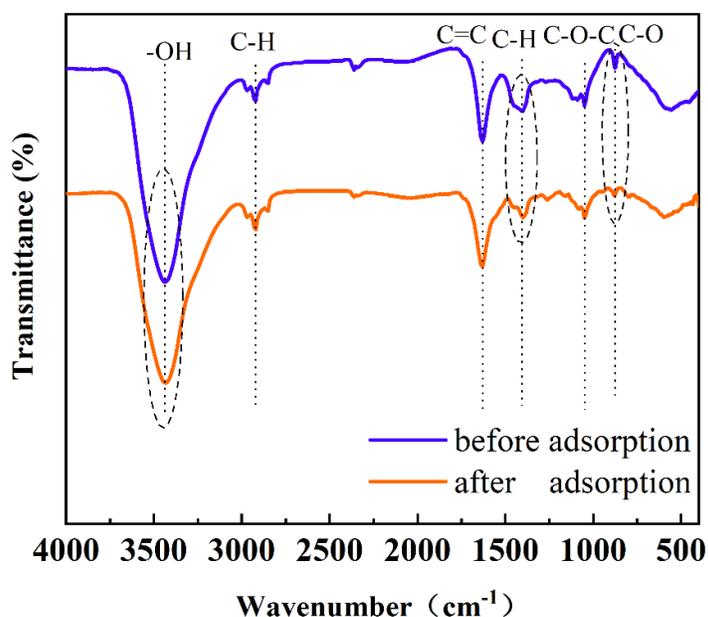
227 the surface of P-BC, which proved that IBP molecules were adsorbed on this particular surface.



228

229 **Fig. 1.** SEM analysis of P-BC (a, b) before adsorption and (c, d) after adsorption.

230 The FT-IR spectra of P-BC are shown in Fig. 2, with a broad and sharp peak at 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  
231 <sup>1</sup>, indicating that P-BC contains -OH functional groups. The stretching vibration peaks were  
232 around: 2800~3000 cm<sup>-1</sup> as well as 1390 cm<sup>-1</sup> for saturated C-H; 1630 cm<sup>-1</sup> for possible C=C;  
233 1000 ~1100 cm<sup>-1</sup> for possible C-O-C stretching vibration; and 870 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the v<sub>2</sub> absorption  
234 peak in calcite crystal, which was related to the bending vibration of C-O bond [19,30]. The -  
235 OH absorption vibration peak at 3400 cm<sup>-1</sup> of P-BC was weakened after adsorbing IBP. The  
236 absorption vibration peaks of C-H at 1390 cm<sup>-1</sup> declined and slightly shifted while the C-O at  
237 880 cm<sup>-1</sup> also weakened. This consequently indicated that -OH, C-H and C-O played a key role  
238 in the adsorption of IBP onto P-BC [31].



239

240 **Fig. 2.** FTIR analysis of P-BC before and after IBP adsorption.

241 The surface composition of P-BC before and after IBP adsorption was analyzed by XPS.

242 As can be seen from Fig. 3a, various compositions including C1s, O1s, N1s, and Ca2p emerged

243 through the survey scan of P-BC. The C1s spectra of P-BC were deconvoluted into three peaks

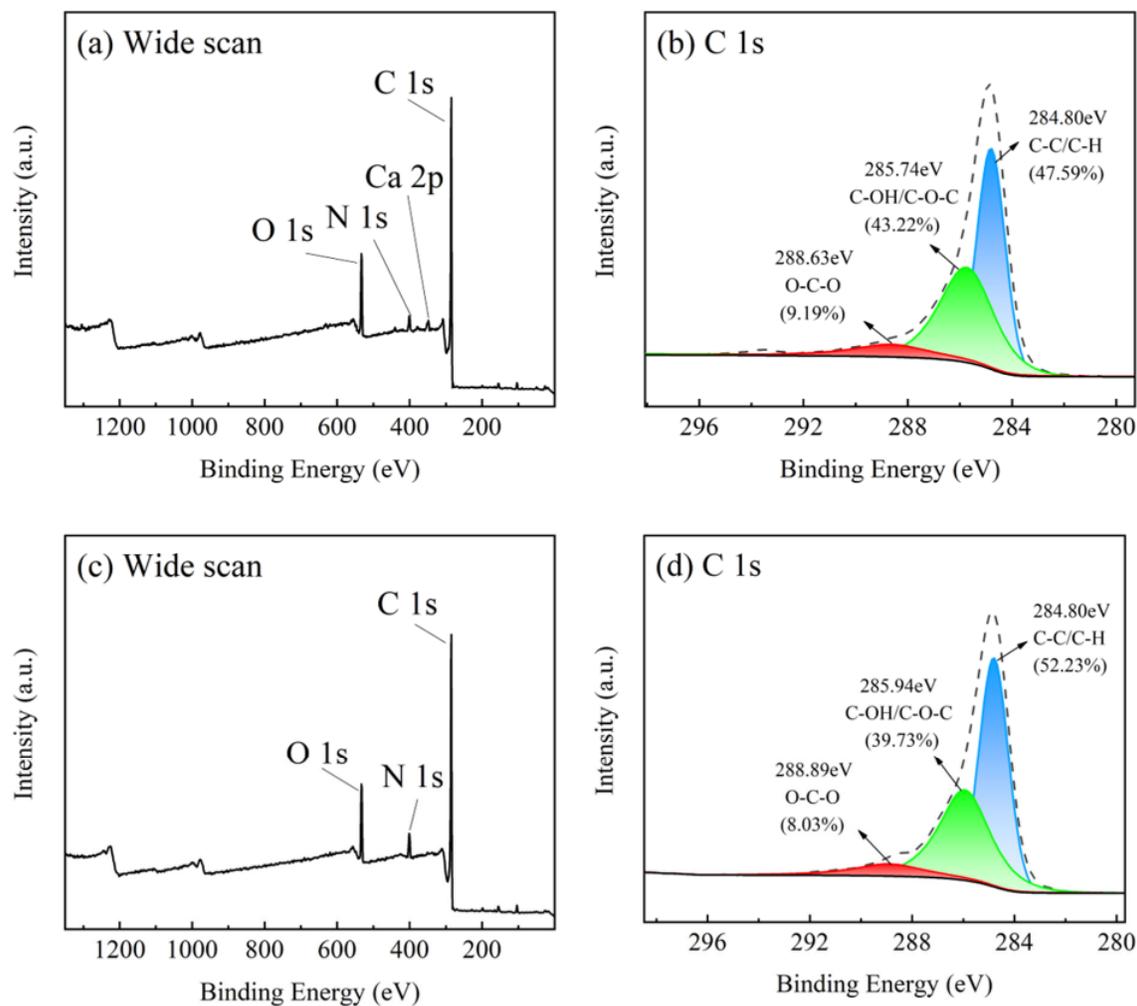
244 at 284.80, 285.74 and 288.63 eV, which were assigned to C-C/C-H (47.59%), C-OH/C-O-C

245 (43.22%) and O-C-O (9.19%), respectively (exhibited in Fig. 3b). After IBP adsorption, the

246 decrease of Ca may be due to chemical adsorption such as metal complexation (see Fig. 3c).

247 Furthermore, the decrease of C-OH/C-O-C after adsorption was contributed as active sites of

248 IBP adsorption (shown in Fig. 3d) [19].



249

250 **Fig. 3.** Wide scan and deconvoluted C 1s XPS spectra of P-BC (a, b) before adsorption and (c,  
 251 d) after adsorption.

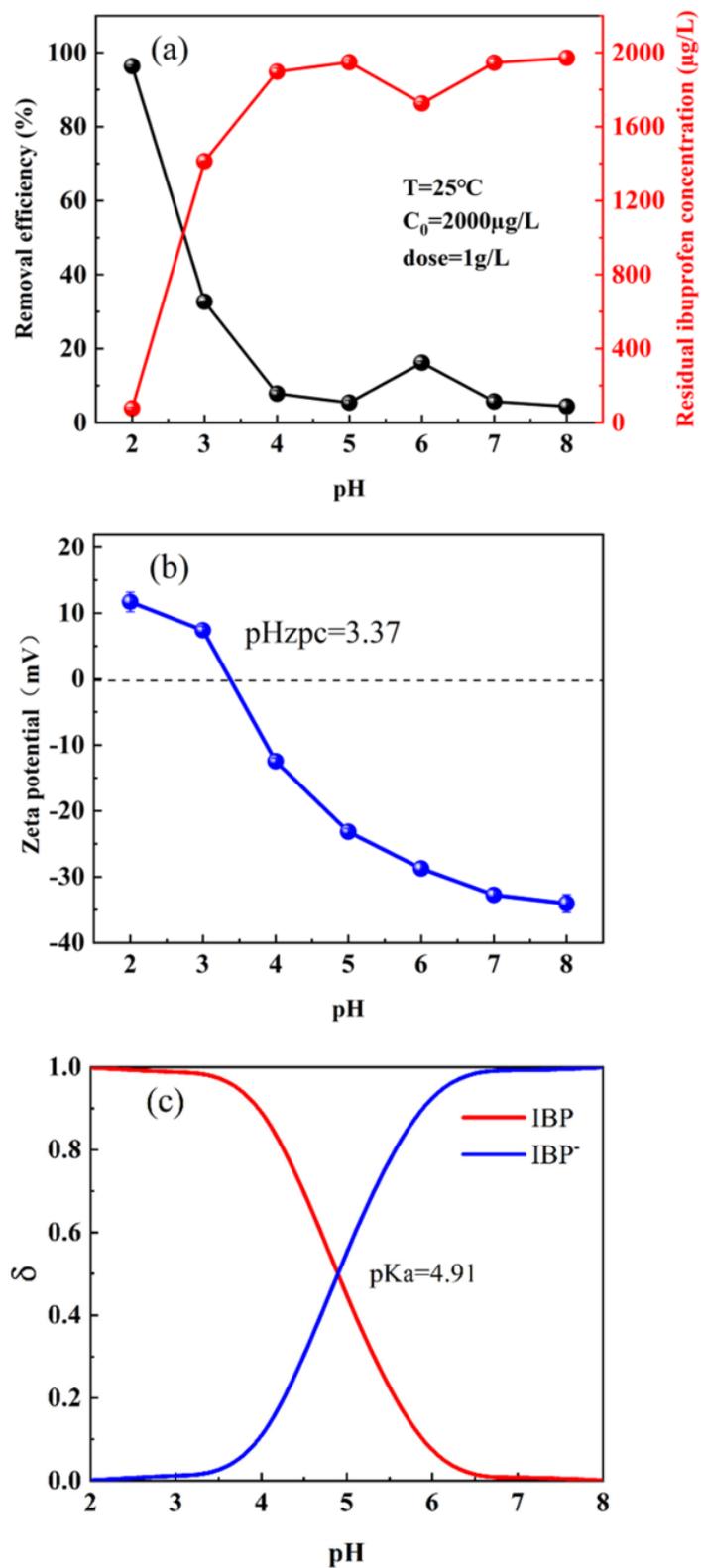
252 *3.2. IBP adsorption by P-BC*

253 *3.2.1. Effect of pH on IBP adsorption*

254 The effect of different pH on the adsorption of IBP by P-BC is depicted in Fig. 4a. As can  
 255 be seen, the removal efficiency of IBP is up to 96.34% at pH 2, and it decreases with the increase  
 256 of pH. This is due to two factors,  $pH_{zpc}$  of P-BC and  $pK_a$  of IBP. The  $pH_{zpc}$  of P-BC and  $pK_a$  of  
 257 IBP were 3.4 and 4.9, respectively (see Fig. 4b and c). At pH 2, the IBP mainly existed as a  
 258 molecule, accounting for more than 99 mol%. At pH higher than 4, IBP gradually took on an

---

259 anionic form, accounting for 11 mol% and 55 mol% at pH of 4 and 5, respectively. When the  
260 pH reached 7, the form of IBP anion was more than 99 mol% [32]. The pH level can affect the  
261 chemical morphology of ions presenting in the solution, and alter the charge on the P-BC  
262 surface by protonation of surface functional groups. Therefore, as the pH of the solution was  
263 less than the  $pH_{zpc}$  of P-BC, a positive charge arose on the P-BC surface. Inversely, the P-BC  
264 surface developed a negative charge [33]. As a result, under the conditions of pH less than the  
265  $pK_a$  of IBP, the nonionized IBP interacted strongly with the P-BC surface [34]. While the pH  
266 was larger than the  $pK_a$  of IBP, the proportion of IBP existed in the form of carboxylate anions  
267 ( $R-COO^-$ ) and increased gradually. In addition, with the increase of the pH, the electrostatic  
268 repulsion between the P-BC surface and carboxylate anions intensified, leading to diminished  
269 IBP removal efficiency [21].



270

271 **Fig. 4.** (a) Effect of solution pH on IBP adsorption (b) Zeta potential analysis of P-BC (c)

272 Distribution function of IBP in water.

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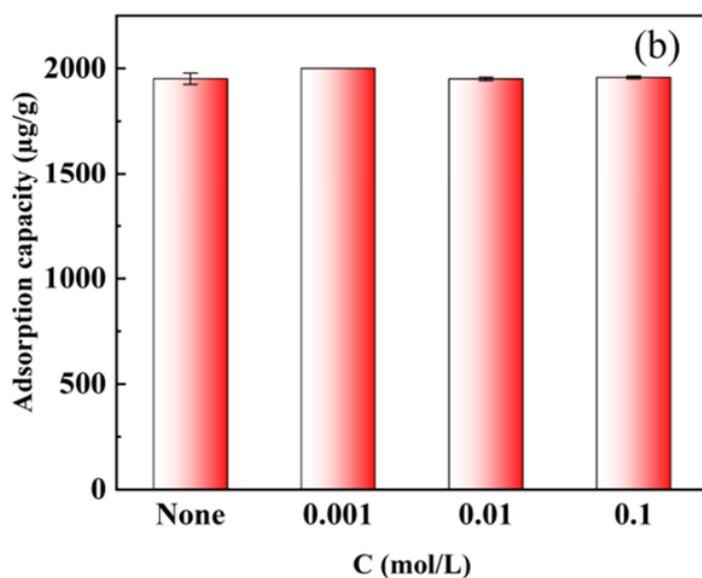
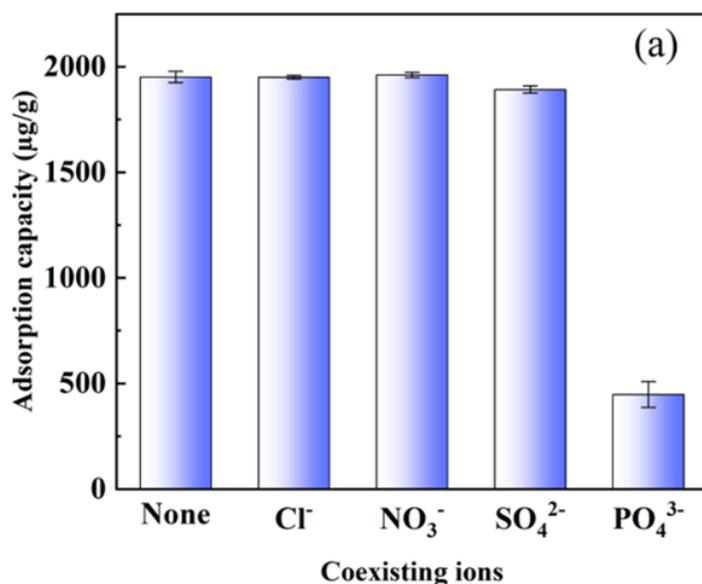
273 3.2.2. *Effect of P-BC dosage on IBP adsorption*

274 The effect of adsorbent dosage on IBP adsorption is shown in Fig. S1. When the dosage  
275 of P-BC rose from 0.1 g/L to 1.0 g/L, the removal rate of IBP increased rapidly. The removal  
276 rate of IBP reached as high as 94.50% at the P-BC dosage of 1.0 g/L. After that, the removal  
277 rate of IBP continued to rise slowly as the dose increased, and the IBP was not detected after  
278 adsorption when the dosage reached 2.0 g/L. The explanation for this is that with an increase in  
279 P-BC dosage, the active sites for adsorbing IBP increased. However, as the dosage continuously  
280 increased, the active sites of the adsorbents overlapped, resulting in a large diminishment of  
281 adsorption efficiency [23]. Therefore, taking into account the removal efficiency as well as  
282 economic issues, a dose of 1.0 g/L was selected as the best possible P-BC dosage for IBP  
283 removal.

284 3.2.3. *Effect of coexisting ions on IBP adsorption*

285 There are many salt species in actual wastewater. It contains not only target ions, but also  
286 many other coexisting ions, which affect the adsorption capacity of the adsorbent. Therefore,  
287 chloride ( $\text{Cl}^-$ ), nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), sulphate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ) and phosphate ( $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ) (0.01 mol/L) were  
288 selected to investigate the effect of coexisting anions on IBP adsorption (see Fig. 5a). The results  
289 showed that  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  did not interfere much with the adsorption of IBP by P-BC, and the  
290 presence of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  inhibited the adsorption of IBP. In the presence of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ , the adsorption  
291 capacity of IBP by P-BC dropped to 448  $\mu\text{g/g}$ . This may be due to the pH increase of the solution  
292 from 2.0 to 7.9 after the addition of  $\text{Na}_3\text{PO}_4$ , which inhibited IBP adsorption by P-BC due to  
293 electrostatic repulsion. The effects of ionic strength on the adsorption of IBP by P-BC were

294 investigated with NaCl solution of 0.001 mol/L, 0.01 mol/L and 0.1 mol/L. It can be seen from  
295 Fig. 5b that NaCl solution promoted the adsorption of IBP by P-BC due to the salting out effect.  
296 The coexisting ions competed with IBP for adsorption sites by binding with water molecules,  
297 and weakened the hydrogen bond between IBP and water molecules. This led to the decline in  
298 IBP solubility in aqueous solution, which was conducive to the diffusion of IBP on the surface  
299 of P-BC and increased the adsorption of IBP by P-BC [35].



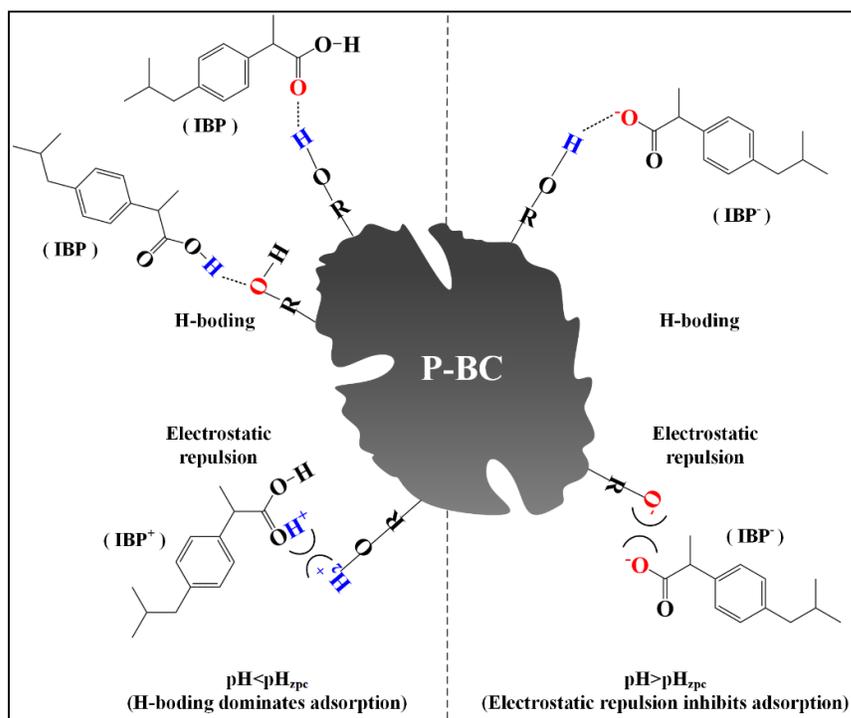
300

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301 **Fig. 5.** The effects of different (a) coexisting ions and (b) NaCl concentrations on the adsorption  
302 of IBP by P-BC under the conditions of pH = 2, T= 25 °C, C<sub>0</sub>=2000 µg/L and P-BC dosage = 1  
303 g/L.

### 304 3.3. Adsorption mechanism

305 The main adsorption mechanism of IBP adsorption by P-BC is shown in Fig. 6. The -OH  
306 functional groups on the surface of P-BC could form hydrogen bonds with IBP as donors and  
307 acceptors, respectively, which was the main mechanism of IBP adsorption by P-BC. Solution  
308 pH played a pivotal role in the adsorption of IBP. When the solution pH was less than the p*H*<sub>zpc</sub>  
309 of P-BC, the P-BC surface was positively charged. There was, additionally, more H<sup>+</sup> in the  
310 solution and the protonated IBP could form electrostatic repulsion with P-BC. However, the  
311 hydrogen bonding force between P-BC and IBP was stronger than the electrostatic repulsion  
312 and dominated at this point [21,36]. When the solution pH was larger than the p*H*<sub>zpc</sub> of P-BC,  
313 the acidic groups on the surface of P-BC were ionized and the surface was negatively charged.  
314 The proportion of IBP anions increased gradually. At this time, the electrostatic repulsion was  
315 dominant, resulting in waning adsorption efficiency. It is worth noting that the phenolic  
316 hydroxyl groups on P-BC surface were not ionized at pH 6. They could form hydrogen bonds  
317 with IBP and its carboxylate anions, so there was an adsorption peak at pH 6 [21].



318

319 **Fig. 6.** Adsorption mechanism of IBP by P-BC.

320 *3.4. Adsorption kinetics and isotherm*

321 The kinetic curve fits and parameters of IBP adsorption by P-BC are exhibited in [Fig. S2](#)  
 322 and [Table S1](#). The pseudo-first order, pseudo-second order, elovich and intra-particle diffusion  
 323 kinetics models were fitted through the experimental data. As shown here, the adsorption  
 324 capacity of IBP by P-BC increased with contact time, rapid adsorption occurred in the first 60  
 325 min (1 h), and the adsorption reached equilibrium after 1440 min (24 h). The fitting results of  
 326 intra particle diffusion model indicated that the internal diffusion of adsorbent was not the only  
 327 control step of adsorption, which may be dominated by surface adsorption and intra particle  
 328 diffusion [19]. By comparing the fitting results of pseudo first-order, pseudo second-order,  
 329 elovich and intra particle diffusion kinetic models, the pseudo second-order kinetic model can  
 330 better describe the adsorption process of IBP by P-BC ( $R^2=0.999$ ), while the calculated

331 equilibrium adsorption capacity was very close to the experimental one. This indicated that the  
332 adsorption of IBP by P-BC was mainly controlled by chemical adsorption.

333 The fitting parameters of IBP adsorption isotherm by P-BC are shown in [Fig. S3](#) and [Table](#)  
334 [S2](#). The Langmuir model is based on the following assumptions: adsorption occurs in a  
335 complete monolayer on a homogeneous surface. The Freundlich isotherm is used to describe  
336 heterogeneous and reversible multilayer adsorption, and lateral interaction occurs between  
337 adsorbed molecules [37]. It was also found that the Langmuir ( $R^2=0.996$ ) isotherm model could  
338 better describe the adsorption of IBP by P-BC. It also showed that monolayer adsorption  
339 occurred on the homogeneous surface of P-BC. The adsorption capacity of IBP by P-BC  
340 increased when the equilibrium concentration also increased. According to the fitting results of  
341 the Langmuir model, the theoretical maximum adsorption capacity of IBP by P-BC was 10410  
342  $\mu\text{g/g}$ . Compared with biochars of other raw materials in [Table 2](#), the adsorption capacity of IBP  
343 by P-BC was comparable, and it exhibited several advantages including environmental  
344 friendliness, simple preparation, and not requiring any modification.

345

346 **Table 2**

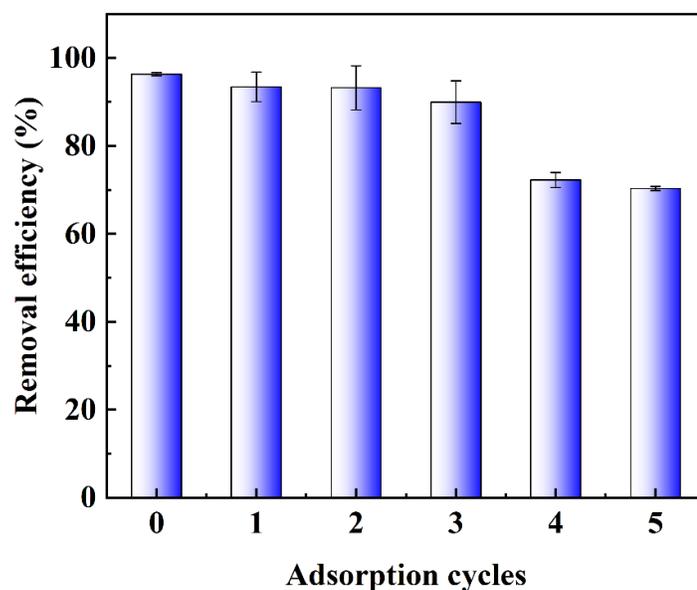
347 Adsorption capacity of different kinds of biochars for IBP in water.

| Raw material     | Pyrolysis        |          | Initial concentration (mg/L) | Optimum pH | Adsorption capacity (mg/g) | References |
|------------------|------------------|----------|------------------------------|------------|----------------------------|------------|
|                  | temperature (°C) | Modifier |                              |            |                            |            |
| Pine wood        | 425              | -        | 25~100                       | 3          | 10.74                      | [21]       |
| wood apple shell | 650              | -        | 3~45                         | 3          | 5                          | [23]       |

|                             |     |  |        |   |            |            |
|-----------------------------|-----|--|--------|---|------------|------------|
| Terminalia<br>katappa shell | 550 | H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> ;<br>NaOH | 5~25   | 2 | 8.77; 9.52 | [24]       |
| Parthenium<br>hysterophorus | 500 | NaOH                                     | 5~100  | 2 | 90.46      | [32]       |
| Chili seeds                 | 600 | -  | 5~1000 | 7 | 26.13      | [38]       |
| Plane tree leaves           | 600 | -  | 0.5~5  | 2 | 10.41      | This study |

### 348 3.5. Regeneration of P-BC

349 Due to the high solubility of IBP in organic solvents, absolute ethanol was used as eluent.  
 350 As can be seen from Fig. 7, the removal ratios of IBP by five cycles adsorption were 93.42%,  
 351 93.22%, 89.95%, 72.25%, and 70.32%, respectively. The removal efficiency of IBP employing  
 352 P-BC declined after five adsorption cycles, but it was nonetheless still at a higher level. This  
 353 reusability is an advantage of its low cost, improving its application potential.



354

355 **Fig. 7.** Cyclic adsorption of IBP by P-BC through absolute ethanol regeneration at pH = 2, T=  
 356 25 °C, C<sub>0</sub>=2000 µg/L and P-BC dosage = 1 g/L.

357 Additionally, although P-BC processed good regeneration, the safe disposal of the

358 biochar absorbent need to be concerned after repeated recycle use. However, previous studies  
 359 rarely reported the treatment methods of adsorbents. In consideration of environmental  
 360 protection, the adsorbent adsorbed with IBP needs to be properly treated, otherwise the  
 361 pollutants will be released into the environment again. A report issued by the World Health  
 362 Organization (WHO) put forward the methods of safe disposal of drugs such as waste packaging  
 363 and incineration, which could safely dispose of used adsorbents [38]. Therefore, inert fixation  
 364 can be carried out by landfill. Water, cement and lime can be mixed to encapsulate the waste P-  
 365 BC, and then buried underground.

### 366 3.6. Economic feasibility

367 The production of biochar is proposed based on environmental benefits, but the economic  
 368 cost remains the key for whether it can have sustained practical applications. Biochar  
 369 production costs are mainly based on the acquisition costs of raw materials, processing costs  
 370 and other overhead expenses. The production costs of 1 kg P-BC are shown in Table 3.

371

372 **Table 3**

373 Estimated costs for producing 1 kg P-BC.

| Particulars    | Sub sections | Cost analysis        | Amount/(USD) |
|----------------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|
| Raw material   |              | Free collection from | 0            |
| processing     |              | gardens              |              |
| Preparation of | Drying cost  | Hours × unit × per   | 3.37         |

|                    |   |       |
|--------------------|---|-------|
| biochar from plane | unit cost <sup>1</sup> =24×1.8×         |       |
| tree leaves        | 0.078                                   |       |
|                    | Hours×unit×per                          |       |
| Carbonization cost | unit cost=2×2×                          | 0.312 |
|                    | 0.078                                   |       |
| Other costs        | 10% of total cost=<br>(3.370+0.312)×10% | 0.368 |
| Total cost         | 3.370+0.312+0.368                       | 4.05  |

374

375 As shown in [Table 3](#), the overall production cost of P-BC is 4.05 USD/kg. Under the best  
376 conditions, 1 g/L of P-BC could effectively remove 2000 µg/L of IBP solution, which is  
377 equivalent to the treatment cost of only 0.004 USD/L wastewater. According to the research of  
378 Show et al. [24], the removal rate of IBP by shell biochar was as high as 92.46%, and the  
379 removal cost was 0.012 USD/L without considering regeneration. Compared to it, the cost of  
380 removing IBP from water by P-BC in this work is lower. Regenerated by ethanol elution, P-BC  
381 could be reused at least five times and the removal rates were all higher than 70%. The  
382 regeneration costs were much lower than the production costs, suggesting its potential in  
383 practical application.

384 Currently, the rate of resource utilization for landscaping waste is low and advances in  
385 developing it for reuse are few and far between. The lack of a reward mechanism is one of the  
386 important reasons for this situation. Due to the risks associated with entrepreneurship and the

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<sup>1</sup> per unit cost: cost of electricity per kilowatt-hour.

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387 adoption of new products, government subsidy policies should be seriously considered in order  
388 to reduce this problem. Guided by documented economic benefits, giving subsidies and support  
389 to enterprises to promote the development of circular bioeconomy using this product must  
390 commence as soon as possible [39].

#### 391 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

392 In summary, a low-cost plane tree leaf-derived biochar was prepared by high-temperature  
393 pyrolysis at 600 °C. It can efficiently remove ibuprofen from water and realize the utilization  
394 of waste as a resource for other processes. P-BC is able to remove a large amount of IBP at  
395 96.34% in acidic conditions, and exhibits the maximum adsorption capacity towards IBP of  
396 10410 µg/g calculated from the Langmuir model. Mechanism analysis verified that the  
397 hydrogen bonding interaction was mostly involved in IBP adsorption. P-BC still possessed the  
398 ability to adsorb IBP after five regeneration cycles. Overall, P-BC emerges as an  
399 environmentally friendly, low-cost, and efficient adsorbent for removing IBP from water, and  
400 this study may offer a reference for biomass disposal and resource utilization.

401

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406

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