

1 **Revision 2**

2
3 **Characterization of modified mineral waste material adsorbent as affected by**
4 **thermal treatment for optimizing its adsorption of lead and methyl orange**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Thermal treatment is one of the most common processes in mineral modification and
13 this process has been applied to the modification of mineral waste material to improve
14 its adsorption ability of methyl orange (MO) and lead (Pb) in this study. The
15 properties of modified mineral waste material (MMWM) before and after thermal
16 modification were characterized by using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) N₂
17 adsorption/desorption measurement, field emission scanning electron microscope
18 (FESEM) coupled with energy dispersive X-ray (EDX), X-ray diffraction (XRD) and
19 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). Phase transformation related to the
20 change in surface morphology and dehydroxylation that occurred in MMWM samples
21 during the process of thermal treatment were investigated. To study adsorption
22 performances of Pb and MO onto the newly modified MMWM, a number of
23 experiments were carried out under different adsorption conditions and the results
24 were determined using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry

25 (ICP-OES) and UV-Vis spectrophotometry. The thermally treated MMWM samples
26 showed morphological transformation, and an increasing trend in BET specific
27 surface area (SSA) up to 500 °C followed by a decreasing trend till 1000 °C. Thermal
28 modification of MMWM had successfully improved Pb adsorption from 349 to 515
29 mg/g, corresponding to the MMWM modified at 600 °C, and the methyl orange (MO)
30 adsorption from 68 to 87.6 mg/g at 400 °C. The adsorptions of Pb and MO were
31 mainly chemisorption and monolayer coverage, as the pseudo-second-order model
32 and the Langmuir equation displayed good correlations for Pb and MO adsorption
33 data.

34 **Keywords:** Adsorption, dehydroxylation, lead (Pb), methyl orange (MO), modified
35 mineral waste material (MMWM)

36 Introduction

37 The modified mineral waste material (MMWM) is a mixed clay mineral type of
38 adsorbent that was originally derived from industrial mineral waste after physical and
39 chemical modifications (Jiang et al. 2013a). It can be used as a low-cost,
40 environmentally safe adsorbent and found to have strong adsorption abilities (Jiang et
41 al. 2013b). Consisting primarily of smectite and illite, MMWM shows great ability in
42 adsorbing pollutants from water, soil and air which have been applied in our previous
43 experiments for removing environmental pollutants (Jiang et al. 2014; Lu et al. 2016).
44 These investigations have confirmed that the MMWM has better adsorption abilities

45 of heavy metals (lead (Pb), copper (Cu) and cadmium (Cd)) in solution than activated
46 carbon (AC) (Lu et al. 2016). MMWM was also found to have the ability to adsorb
47 organic compounds from wastewater such as organic phosphate (Jiang et al. 2014).
48 The adsorptive efficiency of some organic pollutants is found to be even better than
49 AC.

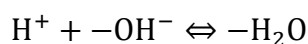
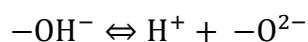
50 As one of the main components in MMWM, the smectite group of clays (e.g.
51 montmorillonite) is normally abundant and has extraordinary properties which make it
52 a compelling and reasonable precedent for a low cost and effective adsorbent
53 (Rathnayake et al. 2017). Smectite is comprised of a number of clay minerals
54 consisting of tetrahedral-octahedral-tetrahedral (t-o-t) layers of both dioctahedral and
55 trioctahedral types (Hurlbut and Klein 1977; Bhattacharyya and Gupta 2008). Similar
56 to smectite (e.g. montmorillonite), illite is another kind of clay mineral in MMWM. It
57 can be defined as the mineral occurring in the clay fraction with Al-K, is non-
58 expanding, di-octahedral with mica-type properties, and is a mineral that is commonly
59 used in the traditional ceramic industry and can be applied in the removal of heavy
60 metals in solution (Srodon and Eberl 1984; Ozdes et al. 2011; Csáki et al. 2017;
61 Húlan et al. 2017). On the other hand, the swelling properties of the 2:1-layer silicates
62 (e.g. montmorillonite) result in an increased water and contaminants retention ability,
63 which is dependent on the interlayer spacing upon the charge of layer, hydration
64 energy, chemical potential and relative humidity (Tambach et al. 2004; Fonseca et al.
65 2017).

66 Investigations pertaining to the use of mineral related adsorbents have a long
67 history, and the high adsorption capabilities of clay minerals are the result of the net
68 negative charges on the lattice of minerals. These negative charges will be neutralized
69 by the adsorption of positively charged contaminants, providing clay adsorbents the
70 ability to attract and hold cations such as heavy metals (Bailey et al. 1999). The
71 maximum adsorption capacity of Pb for natural goethite is observed to be 109.2 mg/g
72 (Lounis et al. 2012). The maximum adsorption capacities of kaolinite (Cd 11.4 mg/g,
73 Cr (VI) 13.9 mg/g, Pb 82.65 mg/g) and montmorillonite (Cd 33.2 mg/g, Pb 31.3 mg/g)
74 are achieved after activation of these minerals (Alvarez-ayuso and Garcia-Sanchez
75 2003; Adebowale et al. 2008; Sen and Bhattacharyya 2008). Ozdes et al. (2011)
76 reported that the maximum adsorption capacity of illite towards Pb (239 mg/g) can be
77 achieved when the adsorption is conducted at pH = 4 and room temperature for 240
78 mins. A group of modified mineral adsorbents has been used in removing Pb from
79 aqueous solution and the adsorption capacities of the clays for Pb are 22.7 mg/g and
80 6.3 mg/g for acid-activated montmorillonite and kaolinite respectively (Bhattacharyya
81 and Gupta 2008). Bhatnagar et al. (2006) reported that the adsorption of Pb on
82 adsorbents prepared from industrial wastes (blast furnace sludge) is as high as 227
83 mg/g. The maximum adsorption capacity of beidellite for Pb is 86.9 mg/g, and the
84 polymer/montmorillonite clay nanocomposite, imprinted by zinc ion, can adsorb a
85 maximum of 301 mg/g Pb (Etcı et al. 2010; Msaadi et al. 2017). The adsorption of Pb
86 on rectorite is mainly dominated by surface complexation and cation exchange, with

87 the equilibrium adsorption capacity being 17.9 mg/g (Msaadi et al. 2017). Beside
88 metal pollutants, mineral adsorbents are also applied for removal of organic
89 contaminants such as dyes. Methyl orange (MO) is a kind of anionic dye that has been
90 widely applied in the printing industry, but it is unfortunately toxic and carcinogenic
91 (Eljiedi et al. 2017). One new material, uncalcined glycerol-modified nanocrystalline
92 Mg/Al layered double hydroxides, is applied as a good adsorbent for MO removal
93 (Yao et al. 2017). Habiba et al. (2017) suggested that the removal of MO in
94 wastewater could be predominated by adsorption at low initial concentrations,
95 whereas flocculation was observed at high concentrations.

96 A number of methods have been developed for the modification of clay mineral
97 adsorbents. Mechanochemical activation such as the grinding treatment is used for
98 kaolinite modification. The process can be identified as the creation of a new
99 amorphous material with the destruction of kaolinite, and then an agglomerated
100 material is produced by the aggregation of the ground particles (Kelley 1957;
101 Takahashi 1959; Frost et al. 2004). Dehydroxylation, which results in the release of
102 physically and chemically bounded water, is one of the most significant phenomena
103 occurring during thermal treatment of clay mineral. By investigating the kinetic of
104 dehydroxylation in clay mineral, the dehydroxylation concept of kaolinite can be
105 expressed as a result of the interaction between two hydroxyl groups to form a water
106 molecule by proton transfer, leaving chemically bonded oxygens (oxide anion) in the

107 lattice (Miller and Oulton 1970). The reactions are shown as the following (Frost et al.
108 2004):



109 The hysteresis occurred during the hydroxylation and dehydroxylation processes of
110 intercalated cations. Some studies conclude that the transition from two- to one-layer
111 hydroxylated montmorillonite is harder than that from one water layer to completely
112 dehydroxylate, which is joined by a diminishing of the basal spacing and a change in
113 the contrary ion and the water atoms, other than the arrangement of hydrogen bonds
114 being obviously weak (Fonseca et al. 2017). The transition of montmorillonite is
115 temperature dependent. Dehydroxylation and desorption of physically adsorbed water
116 molecules occur between 30 and 150 °C, decomposition of ammonium cations and
117 dehydroxylation of structural water between 400 and 600 °C, and transformation of
118 intercalated hydroxylated species to metal oxides at above 750 °C (Ruan and Gilkes
119 1996; Elkhalfah et al. 2013; Martinez et al. 2017). GuccnNnnrtr et al. (1978) reported
120 that the dehydroxylation of dioctahedral 2:1-layer silicates (e.g. muscovite) is not a
121 homogeneous process, the strength of the Al-OH bond can be greatly affected by the
122 coordination number of neighbouring polyhedra. This can be classified by using a
123 muscovite dehydroxylation model, the loss of hydroxyl groups of neighbouring
124 polyhedra in octahedral coordination occurs more than five-fold at lower temperatures,
125 which results in the distribution of oversaturated apical oxygens that also affect the

126 proton position and the Al-OH bond strength (GuccnNnnrtr et al. 1978). For
127 dehydroxylation of illite at temperature intervals from 450 to 700 °C, the initial step
128 can be comprised of the condensation of OH- groups inside the octahedral layer and a
129 resulting 1-D dispersion of the simply framed water atoms through tetrahedral rings
130 into an interlayer region; and the second step can be represented by a 2-D dispersion
131 of water particles far from the interlayer space (Csáki et al. 2017; Húlan et al. 2017).

132 The aims of this research are to figure out the most suitable conditions for thermal
133 modification of MMWM to improve its adsorption ability, and the characterization of
134 physicochemical and mineralogical properties of MMWM before and after thermal
135 treatment in relation to the dehydroxylation process and phase transformation; and to
136 investigate the abilities and kinetics of adsorptions of Pb and MO, which are the
137 representatives of metals and organic compounds, onto this newly modified MMWM.

138 **Experimental and analytical methods**

139 **Mineral waste material collection and modification**

140 The modified mineral waste material (MMWM) was obtained from a commercial
141 company in Hong Kong after an initial physical and chemical treatment (Jiang et al.
142 2013a; Lu et al. 2016). The sample was ground with an agate mortar and sieved to
143 0.015 mm, packaged in air-tight polyethylene (PE) bags and reserved in a vacuumed
144 desiccator.

145 For thermal treatment, MMWM sub-samples were heated at temperatures from 300
146 to 1000 °C with a 100 °C increment between samples for 120 mins in a vacuumed
147 tube oven. To prevent reintroducing moisture, once the samples were cooled down to
148 200 °C inside the oven they were immediately transferred into a desiccator for further
149 cooling down to room temperature. These samples were kept in polyethylene (PE)
150 bags and reserved in a vacuumed desiccator before analysis. The un-heated MMWM
151 sample was labelled as “MM un-heated” and the heated MMWM samples were
152 labelled as MM 300, MM 400, etc., where the MM denoted MMWM and the number
153 denoted the thermal treatment temperature.

154 **Analysis of chemical composition of MMWM**

155 A homogenized sample (approximately 200 mg) was first mixed with 10 ml of
156 strong acid (4:1 concentrated 65% HNO₃ and 40% HF (v/v)) in an airtight Teflon tank
157 (effective volume 50 mL) and was then heated at 180 °C in the microwave digester
158 (Sineo, MDS-10, Shanghai, China) for 20 mins. After cooling down to room
159 temperature, the supernatant was separated from the solid particles by vacuum
160 filtration through a 0.22 µm filter and diluted to 100 mL with deionized (DI) water.
161 The concentrations of metals (calcium (Ca), iron (Fe), aluminum (Al), magnesium
162 (Mg), titanium (Ti), manganese (Mn), strontium (Sr), zinc (Zn), rubidium (Rb),
163 barium (Ba), copper (Cu), etc.) in the digested solutions were determined using

164 inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Perkin-Elmer
165 Optima 2100 DV, USA).

166 **Investigation of the properties of MMWM**

167 *Burnauer, Emmett, and Teller (BET) specific surface area*

168 The specific surface area (SSA) of MMWM was determined by the BET method
169 (thirteen-point liner plot) using nitrogen adsorption. Prior to measurements, samples
170 were outgassed at 120 °C for 12 hrs. The SSA was detected and calculated by using
171 Beckman Coulter, SA3100 surface area analyzer; the adsorption isotherms achieved a
172 p/p_0 range of 0.009-0.25.

173 *Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy*

174 Fourier transform infrared absorption spectra of samples were obtained by using a
175 PerkinElmer Frontier FT-IR/NIR spectrometer. The MMWM samples were dispersed
176 in potassium bromide (KBr) with a KBr:MMWM ratio of 100:1. The mixtures were
177 ground to fine powder and pressed into lamellar forms to make disks. A wavenumber
178 range between 4000 and 450 cm^{-1} was recorded at a resolution of 4.0 cm^{-1} and 32
179 scans. The spectral manipulation including baseline adjustment, smoothing and
180 normalization was performed using Origin Pro 2017 (OriginLab Corporation,
181 Northampton, MA 01060 USA)

182 ***Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM)***

183 A representative portion of MMWM sample was sprinkled onto a double-sided
184 carbon tape mounted on a SEM stub. All the samples were sprayed with a coat of gold
185 before analysis. The FESEM measurements were performed on a high-resolution
186 LEO 1530 field emission scanning electron microscope coupled with an energy
187 dispersive X-ray detector from OXFORD.

188 ***X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis***

189 Sub-samples of un-heated and heated MMWM were prepared for XRD by grinding
190 500 mg of each sample and back filling in a quartz plate holder. Analysis was
191 conducted via XRD by using non-monochromatic Cu $K\alpha$ radiation on a computer-
192 controlled Bruker AXS D8 advanced X-Ray diffractometer. The step time of scans
193 was 53.1 s and the step size was $0.02^\circ 2\theta$. Patterns were recorded from 10 to $75^\circ 2\theta$.

194 **Adsorption experiments**

195 ***Methyl orange adsorption***

196 Batch experiments were carried out to determine the adsorption ability of MMWM
197 towards MO. An initial experiment was conducted to determine the maximum
198 adsorbent dosage of MO per unit of MMWM. For this purpose, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04
199 and 0.05 g of adsorbents were dispersed in 50 ml of 100 mg/L MO solutions. The
200 mixture in the flask was agitated on a shaker at room temperature (25°C) for 480, 540,

201 600, 660 and 720 mins and filtered with a 0.22 μm filter. The solution was analyzed
202 using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Thermo, Evolution 220, USA) coupled with an
203 auto sampler with the detector being operated at 465 nm.

204 After the initial experiment, the adsorption capacity of MMWM was calculated,
205 and the MMWM with the highest MO adsorption ability (0.04 g) was selected and
206 categorized according to the design of intercalation method and kinetic and isothermal
207 experiments. Adsorption kinetic experiment performed at room temperature (25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$)
208 and at pH = 7 was conducted by dispersing 0.04 g of the adsorbent in 50 ml of 100
209 mg/L MO solution in a flask. The amount of adsorbent selected was based on
210 approximately 80% of MO being removed from solution at the equilibrium point.
211 Then all the flasks were capped and placed in a shaker bath maintained at 25 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
212 shaken at a speed of 300 rpm. The samples after MO adsorption were collected at
213 different time intervals (1, 2, 3, 5, 15, 20, 30, 60, 120, 180, 240, 300, 360, 420, 480
214 and 540 mins) and filtered with a 0.22 μm filter to collect the supernatants.
215 Adsorption isotherm studies were carried out by placing 0.04 g of MMWM in various
216 volumes (15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, and 50 mL) of 100 mg/L MO solutions under the
217 same temperature and shaking speed as for the kinetic experiment. The samples after
218 MO adsorption were collected at 540 mins and filtered with a 0.22 μm filter to collect
219 the supernatants. The collected supernatants of both kinetic and isotherm experiments
220 were analyzed using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Thermo, Evolution 220, USA)
221 coupled with an auto sampler with the detector being operated at 465 nm.

222 ***Lead adsorption***

223 Similar to the MO adsorption, an initial experiment of Pb adsorption was
224 undertaken to find out the optimal adsorbent dosage of Pb per unit of MMWM. For
225 this purpose, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04 and 0.05 g of adsorbents were dispersed in 50 ml
226 of 350 mg/L Pb solutions. The mixture in the flask was agitated on a shaker with a
227 shaking speed of 300 rpm for 840 mins at room temperature (25 °C), and then filtered
228 with a 0.22 µm filter. The solution after filtration was analyzed using ICP-OES
229 (Perkin Elmer Optima 2100DV, USA).

230 After the initial experiment, the MMWM with the highest Pb adsorption ability
231 (0.02 g) was selected and categorized according to the design of intercalation method
232 and kinetic and isothermal experiments. Adsorption kinetic experiment performed at
233 room temperature (25 °C) and at pH = 7 was conducted by dispersing 0.02 g of the
234 selected adsorbent in 50 ml of 350 mg /L Pb solution. Then all the flasks were capped
235 and placed in a shaker bath with the temperature set at 25 °C and shaken at a speed of
236 300 rpm. The samples after Pb adsorption were collected at different time intervals (5,
237 10, 20, 30, 60, 120, 180, 240, 300, 360, 420, 480, 560 and 840 mins) and filtered with
238 a 0.22 µm filter to collect the supernatants. Adsorption isotherm studies were carried
239 out by placing 0.02 g of MMWM in various volumes (5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45,
240 and 50 mL) of 350 mg/L Pb solutions. The mixture in the flask was agitated on a
241 shaker with a shaking speed of 300 rpm for 840 mins at room temperature (25 °C).
242 The samples after Pb adsorption were collected at 840 mins and filtered with a 0.22

243 μm filter to collect the supernatants. The Pb concentrations in the collected
244 supernatants of both kinetic and isotherm experiments were determined using ICP-
245 OES.

246 *Analysis of adsorption kinetics*

247 The amount of Pb and MO adsorbed onto the sample at different periods (q_t) can
248 be calculated by the equation (1);

$$249 \quad q_t = \frac{(C_0 - C_t) \times V_0}{m} \quad (1)$$

250 where C_0 and C_t are the concentrations of Pb or MO at initial and different time
251 intervals (mg/L), respectively; V_0 is the volume of Pb or MO solution (L) added, and
252 m is the amount of adsorbent (g) added.

253 To model the kinetic of Pb and MO adsorptions, the adsorption data were fitted to
254 the pseudo-second-order model, which can be described using equations (2) and (3)
255 (Frost et al. 2004)

$$256 \quad \frac{t}{q} = \frac{1}{kq_e^2} + \frac{1}{q_e} t \quad (2)$$

257 which can be rewritten as:

$$258 \quad q = \frac{kq_e^2 t}{1 + kq_e t} \quad (3)$$

259 Where q_e and q are the amounts of Pb or MO adsorbed by adsorbent at initial and
260 different time t (min) intervals (mg/g), respectively; k is the adsorption rate constant
261 of the pseudo-second-order model.

262 For the isotherm study, the equilibrium adsorption capacity (q_e) can be calculated
263 by the equation (4);

$$264 \quad q_e = \frac{(C_0 - C_e) \times V_0}{m} \quad (4)$$

265 Where C_0 and C_e are the initial and equilibrium Pb or MO concentration in solution
266 (mg/L); V_0 is the volume of Pb or MO solution (L) added and m is the mass of
267 adsorbent (g) added.

268 The Langmuir equation models the monolayer adsorption on the adsorbent
269 surface (Langmuir 1917). Freundlich equation is based on the assumption that the
270 adsorbent has a heterogeneous surface composed of different adsorption sites
271 (Freundlich 1907). The equilibrium data were fitted to the Langmuir and Freundlich
272 isotherm models shown in equations (5) and (6), respectively.

$$273 \quad \text{Langmuir equation: } q_e = q_m K_l \frac{C_e}{1 + K_l C_e} \quad (5)$$

$$274 \quad \text{Freundlich equation: } q_e = K_f C_e^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (6)$$

275 where C_e (mg/L) is the Pb or MO concentration of solution at equilibrium point, q_e
276 (mg/g) is the adsorption capacity of adsorbent at equilibrium point, q_m (mg/g) is the
277 maximum adsorption capacity and K_l is the Langmuir adsorption equilibrium constant
278 related to adsorption capacity and energy or net enthalpy of adsorption. K_f and n are
279 the constants in the Freundlich isotherm model, which measure the adsorption
280 capacity and intensity, respectively.

281

Results and discussion

282 **Chemical composition of MMWM**

283 The metal concentrations of MMWM determined by ICP-OES after microwave
284 assisted digestion are shown in Table 1. Calcium, Fe, Al and Mg were the four most
285 abundant metals. As expected, these four important metals in MMWM were present
286 in over 98.7% of the total metal content. These results are similar to that of Jiang et al.
287 (2013a), who reported that calcium silicate hydrate ($\text{Ca}_6\text{Si}_6\text{O}_{17}(\text{OH})_{17}$) and calcium
288 aluminum silicate hydrate ($\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$) were the two most abundant chemical
289 compounds in MMWM, and Ca, Fe, Al and Mg were also the major metal
290 compositions of montmorillonite, illite and chlorite. Krupskaya (2017) characterized
291 the chemical composition of acid modified montmorillonite and found that Ca, Mg,
292 Fe, and Al were the four most abundant metals. Aluminum is the main constituent of
293 the octahedral layer $[\text{AlO}_3(\text{OH})_3]^{6-}$, and Ca, Mg are the compositions of the
294 exchangeable interlayer. The remaining metals, such as Ti, Mn, Sr, Zn, Rb, Ba and Cu
295 that were detected at very low or trace concentrations, were present in less than 1.2%
296 of the total metal content.

297 **Change in property after thermal modification**

298 ***Change in Burnauer, Emmett, and Teller (BET) specific surface area (SSA)***

299 To investigate the variation of SSA of MMWM as affected by thermal treatment,
300 N₂-adsorption /desorption was carried out for each sample. Figure 1 demonstrates the
301 variation of SSA of MMWM before and after thermal treatment at different
302 temperatures. The appearance of thermally treated MMWM samples that were
303 changing corresponded to the variations in temperature. The color of samples turned
304 from white grey into pink grey and more obvious changes in color was observed at
305 higher temperatures. It was clearly demonstrated that the SSA of thermally treated
306 samples increased from 4.070 to 6.496 m²/g when the temperature was increased to
307 500 °C (Fig. 1). This could be attributed to the loss of water molecules and the change
308 in mineral layer structures, e.g. amorphous and/or meta-phases formed during thermal
309 transformation of minerals (Ruan and Gilkes 1996; Martinez et al. 2017). The SSA
310 then decreased to 0.874 m²/g after heating to 1000 °C, where the reformation of
311 crystal structures occurred. The MMWM samples used in this study consisted mainly
312 of clay minerals. Hydroxylation and dehydroxylation may occur easily in these typical
313 mineral structures, particularly on the surface structures. It is expected that the
314 changes in mineral surface structure can greatly enhance its adsorption ability.
315 Although the SSA of MMWM was much smaller than that of a typical activated
316 carbon (AC), the adsorption of metal pollutants per unit amount was always much
317 higher than that of AC (Lu et al. 2016). This study suggests that the greater adsorption

318 ability of MMWM could be contributed by the hydroxyls on the mineral surface. The
319 chemical bonding of adsorption formed by the release of loosely bonded water
320 molecules and the enlargement of surface area during thermal treatment at 500 °C and
321 lower temperatures also contributed to elevate the absorption ability of MMWM. It is
322 believed that such changes in structure, including the creation of defects in mineral
323 surface, may provide more adsorption sites and further increase its affinity for
324 adsorption (Ruan and Gilkes 1996).

325 *Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) analysis for chemical bonding*

326 Infrared spectra are plotted to characterize the surface properties of MMWM, the
327 changes in bonded water molecules on the surface, and in the interlayer and mineral
328 structure during thermal modification. The infrared spectra of MMWM in the
329 vibrational range of 4000-450 cm^{-1} are displayed in Fig. 2. The changes in infrared
330 spectra are obviously observed from MM un-heated to MM 1000. The disappearance
331 of a band at 1639 cm^{-1} first occurs in the spectrum of MM 300, and the intensity of
332 the band at 1428-1415 cm^{-1} decreases with increasing temperatures (MM 300, MM
333 400, MM 500, MM 600, and MM 700 of Fig. 2) and completely disappears in the
334 spectrum of MM 700. Another broad band can be observed at 3448-3442 cm^{-1} from
335 the spectra of MM un-heated and MM 300, but it disappears when the thermal
336 treatment temperature reaches higher than 400 °C. This can be attributed to the release
337 of absorbed or loosely bonded surface water. One intense water bending band at 1639

338 cm^{-1} and three intense hydroxyl deformation bands at 875-726 cm^{-1} are observed and
339 assigned to different OH modes. Two fundamental vibrational modes of adsorbed
340 water molecules on MMWM are observed in FTIR spectra: a group of symmetric O-
341 H stretching vibrations in the spectral regions of 3448-3442 cm^{-1} , and another group
342 of H-O-H bending vibrations at the range of wavenumber 1428-1415 cm^{-1} .

343 **O-H stretching vibration of MMWM.**

344 It is noted that the sharp intense band at 3643 cm^{-1} was overlapped with the broad
345 band of vibrations of water (Fig. 3a). This is attributed to O-H stretching vibrations
346 for the structural hydroxyl groups of MMWM (MM un-heated, MM 300, MM 400
347 and MM 500), which appeared at 3643 cm^{-1} . However, such O-H stretching vibrations
348 disappeared in the spectra of MMWM being thermal treated at temperatures higher
349 than 600 °C (MM 600, MM 700, MM 800, MM 900, and MM 1000). This suggests
350 that the structural O-H groups were retained in clay interlayers when thermal
351 treatment temperature was increased up to 600 °C, but they were removed when the
352 temperatures of thermal treatment were higher than 600 °C. A prominent broad band
353 of vibration of water could only be observed in MM un-heated and MM 300 with the
354 center at 3448-3442 cm^{-1} while the intensity of this band decreased significantly with
355 increasing temperatures. The loosely bonded water molecules in MMWM were
356 removed when heated to 400 °C, and then the structural hydroxyl groups were

357 removed when temperatures rose above 600 °C. These findings are consistent with
358 those reported by Elkhalfah et al. (2013) and Martinez et al. (2017).

359 **H-O-H bending vibration of MMWM**

360 When considering vibrations of water molecules (Fig. 3b), the changes of FTIR
361 spectra in both regions of O-H stretching and H-O-H bending were due to the
362 reduction of hydrogen bonded water molecules with increasing temperature during
363 thermal treatment, changing the surface properties from hydrophilic to hydrophobic.
364 This phenomenon was due to the reduction of water content in MMWM by losing
365 hydroxyl groups of hydrated interlayers. The FTIR spectrum of MMWM
366 dehydroxylated at the highest temperature (i.e. 1000 °C) in this study exhibits the
367 lowest band intensity in terms of more water molecules being released (see MM 1000
368 of Fig. 2).

369 In summary, the O-H stretching and H-O-H bending vibrations of hydrogen
370 bonded water in MMWM provide evidence for the change in surface affinity from
371 hydrophilic to hydrophobic (Rathnayake et al. 2017). This phenomenon of surface
372 variation from the dehydroxylation of MMWM could correspond to the increase in
373 adsorption capacity. We assume that the absence of infrared bands represents the
374 process in which MMWM performed partial to total loss of hydroxylation water due
375 to heating at different temperatures. This change in property of the MMWM as a
376 result of losses in water molecules, in particular those on the mineral surface, is an

377 important process to make the dehydroxylated MMWM a superior adsorbent over the
378 non-dehydroxylated MMWM. Calcination of MMWM at suitable temperatures can
379 certainly improve its adsorption capacity by removing the physically and chemically
380 bonded water molecules and turning the surface properties from hydrophilic into
381 hydrophobic. However, metal oxides that formed on the mineral surface at high
382 temperatures that were observed in this study, may reduce the adsorption capacity of
383 MMWM.

384 ***Morphological change observed by field emission scanning electron microscopy***
385 ***(FESEM)***

386 Figure 4 shows the FESEM images of MMWM before and after thermal treatment,
387 as well as the EDX results of MMWM prior to dehydroxylation. The bulk of the
388 material consists mainly of schistose substances with various particle sizes being
389 observed from Fig. 4(a & c) which are associated with blurry and lamellar layers
390 being found at a high amplification. Moreover these small schistose substances also
391 congregate into a rough surface as shown in Fig. 4(d). In addition, the area scanning
392 results of EDX displayed in Fig. 4(b) indicate that the MMWM sample shown in Fig.
393 4(a) (mainly containing Ca, Si, Al and Fe, apart from the organic components O and
394 C) are consistent with the results of ICP-OES. The MMWM used in this study is
395 mainly composed of clay minerals and its shape primarily presents a schistose
396 appearance. The images shown in Fig. 4(e-i) reflect the effects of thermal treatment
397 on the morphological changes of MMWM. The images in Fig. 4(e, f & g) show the

398 increases in amorphous particles that corresponded to thermal treatment temperatures
399 at 300, 400, and 500 °C. Blurry edges and some cloud-like particles are also observed.
400 Meanwhile a number of crystals were separated into several pieces, like the
401 amorphous substances forming the poorly crystalline minerals in MMWM. When
402 MMWM was heated to 500 °C, the MMWM mass clearly revealed small pieces of
403 schistose layers (less than 100 nm), composed mainly of granular and schistose
404 crystals. When the thermal treatment temperature was increased to 600 °C as seen in
405 Fig. 4(h), the surface morphology differed slightly as some crystalline particles were
406 forming due to recrystallization during phase transformation. The schistose
407 appearances became increasingly evident when the temperature was increased from
408 700 to 1000 °C, and the schistose layers increased to larger than 500 nm (Fig. 4(i-l)).
409 This is probably due to the formation of new phases during transformation. It is
410 consistent with the results reported by Kremer et al. (2008). The external appearances
411 of the thermally treated MMWM samples heated at 600 °C and higher (Fig. 4 (h-l))
412 were different from those of non-dehydroxylated MMWM samples (Fig. 4 (a, c-d))
413 and dehydroxylated MMWM at lower temperatures (Fig. 4 (e-g)). The thermal
414 modification at the appropriate temperatures (e.g. 300-700 °C) may provide a mass of
415 layers, rough surface and large surface area which would improve the adsorption
416 ability of MMWM.

417 ***Change in X-Ray diffraction (XRD) pattern***

418 Figure 5 displays the XRD patterns of MMWM before and after thermal treatment.
419 The reflections at 20.71° and 26.45° correspond to quartz detected in MMWM
420 samples (Fig. 5) and it can be used as an internal standard for d-spacing manipulation.
421 The peaks observed in the XRD patterns of MMWM were identified as a series of
422 minerals compared to the standard patterns. The mineral compositions of MMWM
423 used in this study include montmorillonite (Clay) (ICSD (00-002-0239), illite (ICSD
424 (00-002-0056)), kaolinite (ICSD 01-078-2110), muscovite (ICSD (00-002-0056)),
425 mica (ICSD (00-002-0051), feldspar (ICSD (01-08908575)), quartz (ICSD (00-046-
426 1045)), calcite (ICSD (00-005-0586)) and rectorite (allevardite) (ICSD (00-029-
427 1495)). The MMWM samples that consisted of a series of clay minerals reveal their
428 great potential ability in contaminant adsorption, most of which can be further
429 modified by sintering to achieve better adsorption capacity (Alvarez-ayuso and
430 Garcia-Sanchez 2003; Adebowale et al. 2008; Sen and Bhattacharyya 2008; Etc et al.
431 2010; Msaadi et al. 2017). All the peaks showed decreases in intensity with increasing
432 temperature, and then some small peaks disappeared as the temperature reached
433 900 °C. Reflection of microcline (ICSD (00-019-0926)) at 27.08° was observed for
434 MM un-heated, MM 300, MM 400, MM 500, and MM 600 samples, but it
435 disappeared as temperatures reached 700 °C. The reformation of mineral structures
436 during thermal treatment might contribute to the fading away of microcline. Two new
437 reflections at 30.02° and 31.33° with low intensity were observed in the spectrum of

438 MM 1000, which were attributed to the generation of magnesian gehlenite after
439 comparing with the standard pattern (ICSD (01-079-2422)). According to Traoré et al.
440 (2008), micro-composite microstructure at the micron scale is obtained by sintering
441 clay (kaolinite) and calcite at 1100 °C, where the formation of gehlenite occurs. The
442 sintering modification of MMWM resulted in the formation of new minerals at a high
443 temperature (1000 °C) but contributed less to adsorption ability. The study therefore
444 suggests that the improvement of adsorption ability of MMWM after thermal
445 treatment is seldom contributed by the crystal reformation.

446 ***Improvement of adsorption ability after modification***

447 ***Adsorption capacity of methyl orange***

448 The maximum amounts of MO adsorbed by MMWM samples heated at different
449 temperatures are plotted in Fig. 6. These MMWM samples showed various adsorption
450 abilities towards MO, changing from 24.9 to 87.6 mg/g, which minimized in the MM
451 1000 sample and maximized in the MM 400. The MMWM sample heated at 400 °C
452 showed a better MO adsorption capacity than those of bottom ash and de-oiled soya
453 from the soya oil industry with the adsorption capacity of each adsorbent being 3.61
454 and 16.66 mg/g, respectively (Mittal et al. 2007). According to Liu et al. (2011),
455 organic-montmorillonite adsorbent treated by microwave irradiation reaches a
456 maximum value of MO adsorption of approximately 50 mg/g. Our results indicated
457 that the adsorption capacity of MMWM on MO was increased by 28.43% from 68.21

458 to 87.60 mg/g with the increase in temperatures up to 400 °C during thermal treatment,
459 corresponded to a 59.61% enlargement of SSA at this temperature (Fig. 1). When the
460 thermal treatment temperature was increased to higher than 400 °C, the adsorption
461 capacity showed a decreasing trend and minimized at 1000 °C with a value of 24.96
462 mg/L, which was only 28.5% of the value at 400 °C. The MO adsorption capacity
463 followed a similar trend with the loss of structural O-H groups and the change in SSA,
464 suggesting that the adsorption of MO was mainly attributed to the functional groups
465 performing affinity of adsorption in the interlayers of dehydroxylated MMWM in
466 conjunction with the increase in SSA. The FTIR spectra of MM 400 before and after
467 MO adsorption were selected to be demonstrated in Fig. 7. Two new bands at 1633
468 and 3432 cm⁻¹ were observed in the MO adsorbed MM 400, but the band at 3643 cm⁻¹
469 was overlapping and shifting to 3623 cm⁻¹. Referring to the band fitting for spectra of
470 Fig. 8 (a & b), the band at 3643 cm⁻¹ cannot be found in the MO adsorbed MM 400,
471 whereas absorbance bands are found at 3623 and 3232-3230 cm⁻¹. Meanwhile, the
472 intensity of the band at 3435 cm⁻¹ increases conspicuously after MO absorption. Fig.
473 8(d & e) demonstrates band fitting spectra of MM 400 before and after MO
474 adsorption in the range of 1750-1350 cm⁻¹. Three hidden bands are found in each
475 spectrum, bands at 1634 and 1462/1464 cm⁻¹ remain unchanged but the band at 1434
476 cm⁻¹ shifts to 1420 cm⁻¹ after MO adsorption. The shift of vibrational frequency is
477 believed to be due to the change in surface property from hydrophobic to hydrophilic
478 after MO adsorption (Rathnayake et al. 2016). The disappearance of O-H stretching

479 vibration at 3643 cm^{-1} for the structural hydroxyl groups of MM 400 after MO
480 absorption is observed and comes with the appearance of a new vibration at 3435 cm^{-1} .
481 This phenomenon was caused by MO molecules bonded to the -OH group on the
482 interlayer of MM 400 surface, and the newly appeared vibration was contributed by
483 the MO molecule. Thus, adsorption of MO by dehydroxylated MMWM was mainly
484 contributed by combining MO molecules with the functional groups on mineral
485 surface, where more affinity sites were created during phase transformation resulting
486 from the dehydroxylation process. According to Chen et al. (2012), the adsorption of
487 MO onto heat-treated clay mineral is controlled by two mechanisms: hydrogen
488 bonding between oxygen groups of -SO_3^- (anionic head of MO) and H^+ of coordinated
489 water ($<300\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), and electrostatic interaction between dye and negatively charged
490 surface of heat-treated clay ($>400\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). In conclusion, the enhancement of MO
491 adsorption capacity of thermally treated MMWM (e.g. MM 400) is caused by the
492 appearance of O-H groups after losing loosely bond water molecules and the
493 increasing surface area of dehydroxylated MMWM, during which the process of
494 hydrogen bonding is dominant (Chen et al. 2012). The gradual loss of structural
495 hydroxyl groups of dehydroxylated MMWM resulted in the decline of MO adsorption
496 ability from 65.24 to 24.96 mg/g when thermal treatment temperature was increased
497 from 500 to 1000 $^\circ\text{C}$, during which the process of electrostatic interaction was
498 dominant associated with the decrease in SSA of MMWM, showing a similar trend
499 identical to the variation of temperature (Chen et al. 2012). In addition, the SEM (Fig.

500 4) results show that the structure of MM 400 is looser, which could facilitate the
501 adsorption of MO onto surface (Liu et al. 2011). Hence, the increase or decrease in
502 MO adsorption capacity of dehydroxylated MMWM are contributed by both the
503 changes in surface properties such as SSA and morphology and phase transformation
504 during dehydroxylation at different stages of thermal treatment corresponding to
505 heating temperature.

506 The amounts of MO adsorbed by the MMWM heated at 400 °C as a function of
507 adsorption time is shown in Fig. 9. The MO adsorption onto MM 400 increased
508 rapidly during the first 100 minutes and then slowed down until MO adsorption
509 reached 87.6 mg/g after 420 mins, where the adsorption equilibrium point was
510 achieved. The equilibrium uptake per unit mass of the adsorbent was higher than
511 bentonite (6.7 mg/g) but lower than palygorskite (95.9 mg/g) (Chen et al. 2012;
512 Leodopoulos et al. 2012). Compared with the organic-montmorillonite (49.8 mg/g)
513 pre-treated by microwave irradiation, MM 400 showed a shorter equilibrium time and
514 doubled the adsorption capacity (Liu et al. 2011). The adsorption curve was fitted by
515 using the pseudo-second-order model. The corresponding parameters and correlation
516 coefficient (R^2) showed that the experimental data were well fitted to the pseudo-
517 second-order kinetic model with $R^2 = 0.994$, suggesting that the MO adsorption onto
518 MM 400 is chemisorption dominated. According to Chen et al. (2012), a pseudo-
519 second-order model provided the best correlation of the experimental kinetic data to

520 the MO adsorption of clay mineral. This is also consistent with the previous results
521 from FTIR spectra of MMWM in this study.

522 Figure 10 shows the Langmuir and Freundlich adsorption isotherms of MM 400
523 in the solution with various initial MO concentrations at room temperature (25 °C). A
524 high correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.964$) was derived from the fitting data of
525 adsorption experiment into the Langmuir isotherm model, as well as the comparison
526 with that of the Freundlich isotherm model ($R^2 = 0.724$). This suggests that the
527 observed feature of adsorption onto MM 400 can be assigned to monolayer coverage.
528 Similar results for heat-treated clay minerals were reported by Chen et al. (2012) and
529 Luo et al. (2015), in which the adsorption isotherms of MO onto clays could be best
530 described by the Langmuir equation.

531 *Adsorption capacity of Lead*

532 The amounts of Pb adsorbed by MMWM samples at 25 °C before and after
533 thermal treatment at different temperatures are plotted in Fig. 11. The MMWM
534 samples showed various adsorption abilities towards Pb adsorption, increasing from
535 349.3 (un-heated) to 518.9 mg/g when the treatment temperature was increased to
536 600 °C. However, the adsorption capacity then decreased to 45.5 mg/g when heating
537 temperature was increased up to 1000 °C, where the reformation of crystal structures
538 occurred. The MMWM sample heated at 600 °C (MM 600) showed much better Pb
539 adsorption capacity than those of the adsorbents prepared from industrial wastes (blast

540 furnace sludge, 227 mg/g) and clay minerals (acid-activated kaolinite (6.3 mg/g) and
541 acid-activated montmorillonite (22.7 mg/g)) (Bhatnagar et al. 2006; Gupta and
542 Bhattacharyya 2005). In addition, the MM 600 showed greater adsorption capacity
543 than those of natural goethite (109.2 mg/g), modified illite (239 mg/g), kaolinite
544 (82.65 mg/g) and activated-montmorillonite (31.3 mg/g) (Alvarez-ayuso and Garcia-
545 Sanchez 2003; Ozdes et al. 2011; Lounis et al. 2012). The EDX results of MM 600
546 after Pb adsorption is exhibited in Fig. 12, where Pb is observed as the second most
547 abundant element (W: 37.4%) on the MMWM surface. The study suggests that the
548 adsorption of Pb on MMWM was mainly performed by surface adsorption, and the
549 variations in Pb adsorption capacity can be attributed to the enlarged surface area
550 where more adsorption sites could have been provided. This is associated with the
551 changes in surface property where variations in bonding were due to the performance
552 of functional groups and to the alteration in surface charges and porosity related to
553 phase transformation of minerals during the process of dehydroxylation.

554 The Pb adsorption capacity of the heated MMWM sample (MM 600) as a
555 function of adsorption time is shown in Fig. 13. The Pb adsorption onto MM 600
556 increased rapidly during the first 80 minutes and then changed gradually until the
557 amount of Pb adsorbed reached 510 mg/g after 420 mins, where the adsorption
558 equilibrium was attained. As the adsorption kinetics were described using the pseudo-
559 second-order model, the corresponding parameters and correlation coefficient (R^2)
560 showed that the experimental data were well fitted to the pseudo-second-order kinetic

561 model with $R^2 = 0.941$, suggesting that the Pb adsorption onto MM 600 was
562 chemisorption. This is consistent with the previous results in this study that MM 600
563 can adsorb a large amount of Pb onto its surface although the surface area of MMWM
564 is rather small. This could be attributed to the increase in negative charges on the
565 lattice of the mineral surface, especially during the process of dehydroxylation,
566 dominating the adsorption. Moreover, the rate constant k of the pseudo-second-order
567 fitting plot of MM 600 was $0.0375 \text{ g mg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$, which is close to that of kaolinite
568 ($0.035 \text{ g mg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$) but smaller than that of montmorillonite ($0.084 \text{ g mg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$)
569 (Naseem and Tahir 2001). Therefore, MM 600 exhibited a dramatically enhanced Pb
570 removal performance, including much higher Pb adsorption capacity and faster
571 adsorption with a high adsorption rate. Herein, MM 600 was chosen for further Pb
572 adsorption isotherm study.

573 Figure 14 shows the Langmuir and Freundlich Pb adsorption isotherms of MM 600
574 in various initial concentrations in solution at room temperature ($25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). A high
575 correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.971$) was derived from fitting the experimental
576 adsorption data into the Langmuir isotherm model, as well as a comparison with the
577 Freundlich isotherm model ($R^2 = 0.881$). This suggests that the observed feature of
578 adsorption onto MM 600 can be assigned to monolayer coverage, which is in
579 agreement with the previous findings that the interaction between Pb and the schistose
580 adsorbent is endothermic in nature (Frost et al. 2004). Moreover, MM 600 possessed a
581 considerable adsorption capacity compared to other clay minerals (acid-activated

582 montmorillonite, 22.7 mg/g; beidellite, 86.9 mg/g) or mixed metal-modified clay
583 mineral adsorbents (Zn-imprinted polymer/montmorillonite, 301 mg/g) (Etc et al.
584 2010; Msaadi et al. 2017).

585 **Implications**

586 Modification on the properties of MMWM to increase its adsorption capacity can
587 be achieved by thermal treatment. Property characterization revealed that the changes
588 in surface morphology of MMWM can be clearly observed at different stages of the
589 thermal process. Different levels of phase transformation are related to the variations
590 in mineral properties of MMWM as affected by dehydroxylation. The capacities of
591 MMWM on adsorption of MO (MM 400, 87.60 mg/g) and Pb (MM 600, 514 mg/g)
592 have been successfully optimized after thermal modification. The increase in
593 adsorption capacity is attributed to the enlarged SSA where more adsorption sites
594 were generated, to the change in surface property where variation of bonding is due to
595 the performance of functional groups, and to the alteration of surface charge. The MO
596 and Pb adsorption curves of MMWM can be well fitted to the pseudo-second-order
597 kinetic model, to which the MO and Pb adsorptions by MMWM are mainly
598 chemisorption. Adsorption isotherms are better fitted to the Langmuir model than to
599 the Freundlich one, suggesting that adsorptions of MO and Pb onto MMWM could be
600 assigned to monolayer coverage. Thus, thermally treated MMWM is confirmed to be
601 a good adsorbent for the removal of contaminants, especially for Pb in solution. The

602 results of this study may provide information for the production of adsorbent derived
603 from mineral waste material that can be applied to environmental remediation and
604 useful to the integrated management of solid waste materials.

605 **Acknowledgement**

606 This research was financially supported by the Beijing Normal University-Hong
607 Kong University United International College (UIC), under the Research Project
608 R201710 and the Zhuhai Key Laboratory Research Fund R1053. The XRD and
609 FESEM used in this work was supported by the Institute of Advanced Materials (IAM)
610 with funding from the Special Equipment Grant from the University Grants
611 Committee of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (SEG_HKBU06))

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825 Table

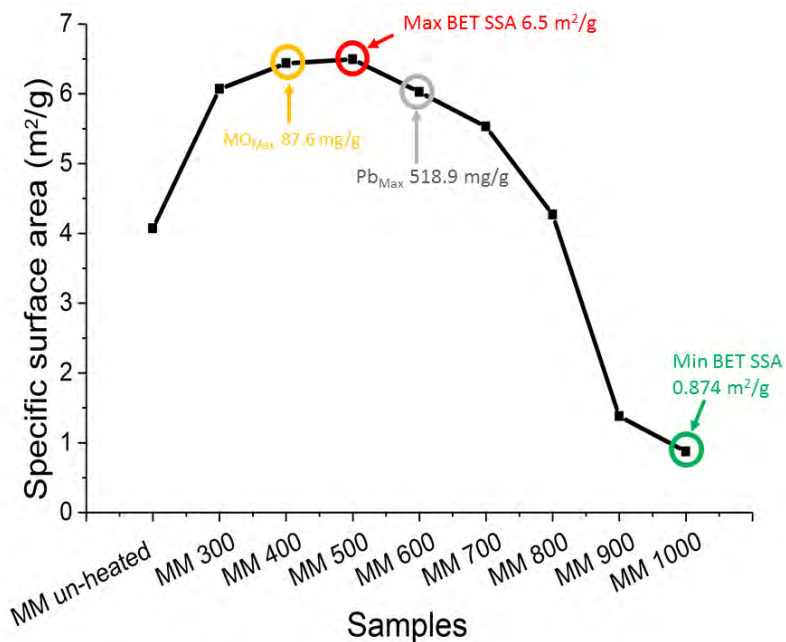
826 Table 1. Metal content of MMWM

	Ca	Fe	Al	Mg	Ti	Mn	Sr	Zn	Rb	Ba	Cu	Other
%	74.87	11.52	8.64	3.67	0.62	0.31	0.08	0.06	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.10

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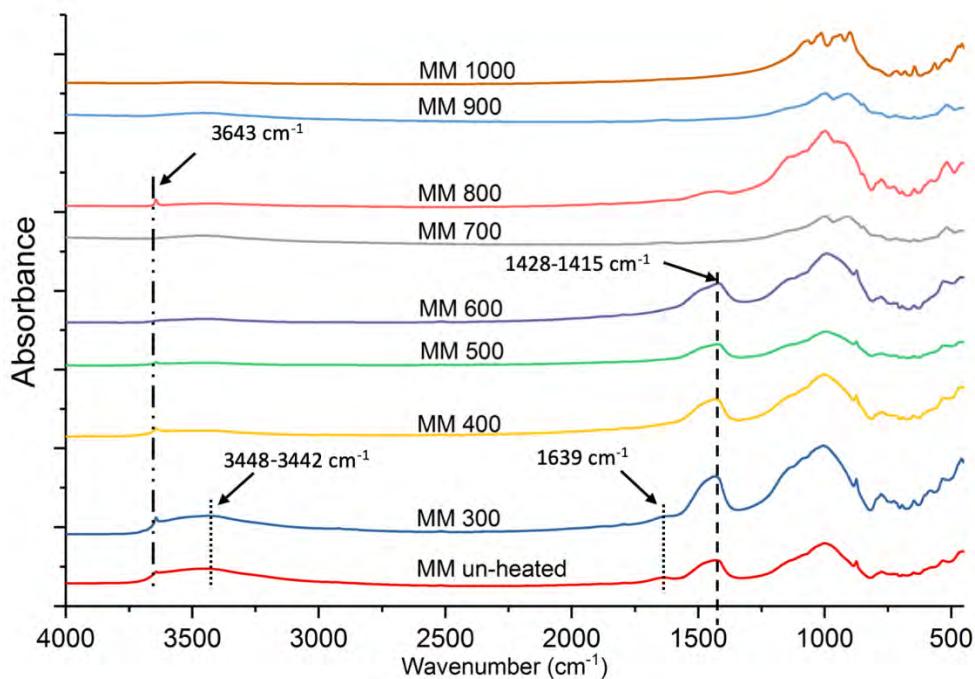
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Figures



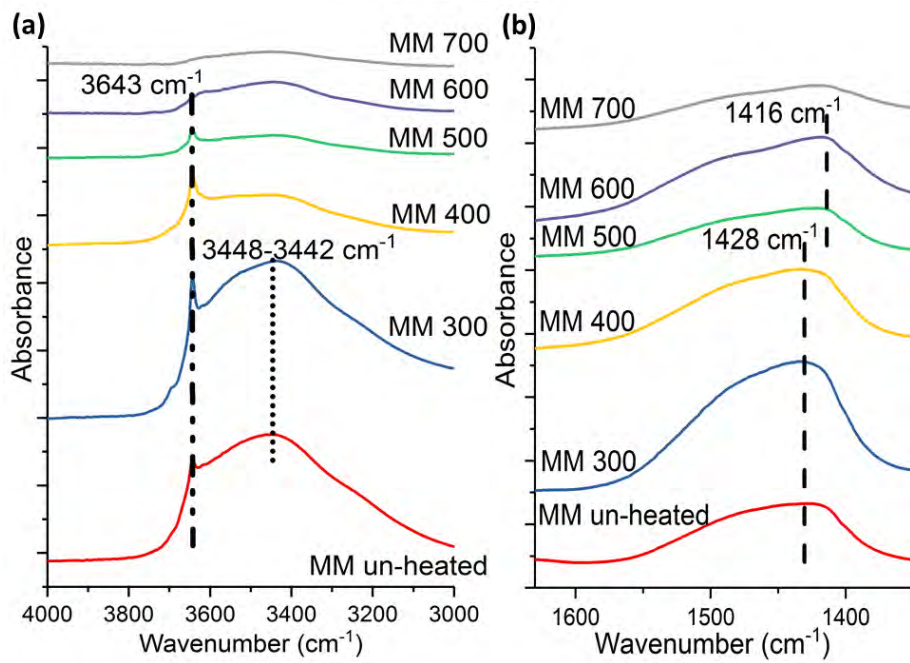
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Figure 1 BET SSA of MMWMM heated at different temperatures.



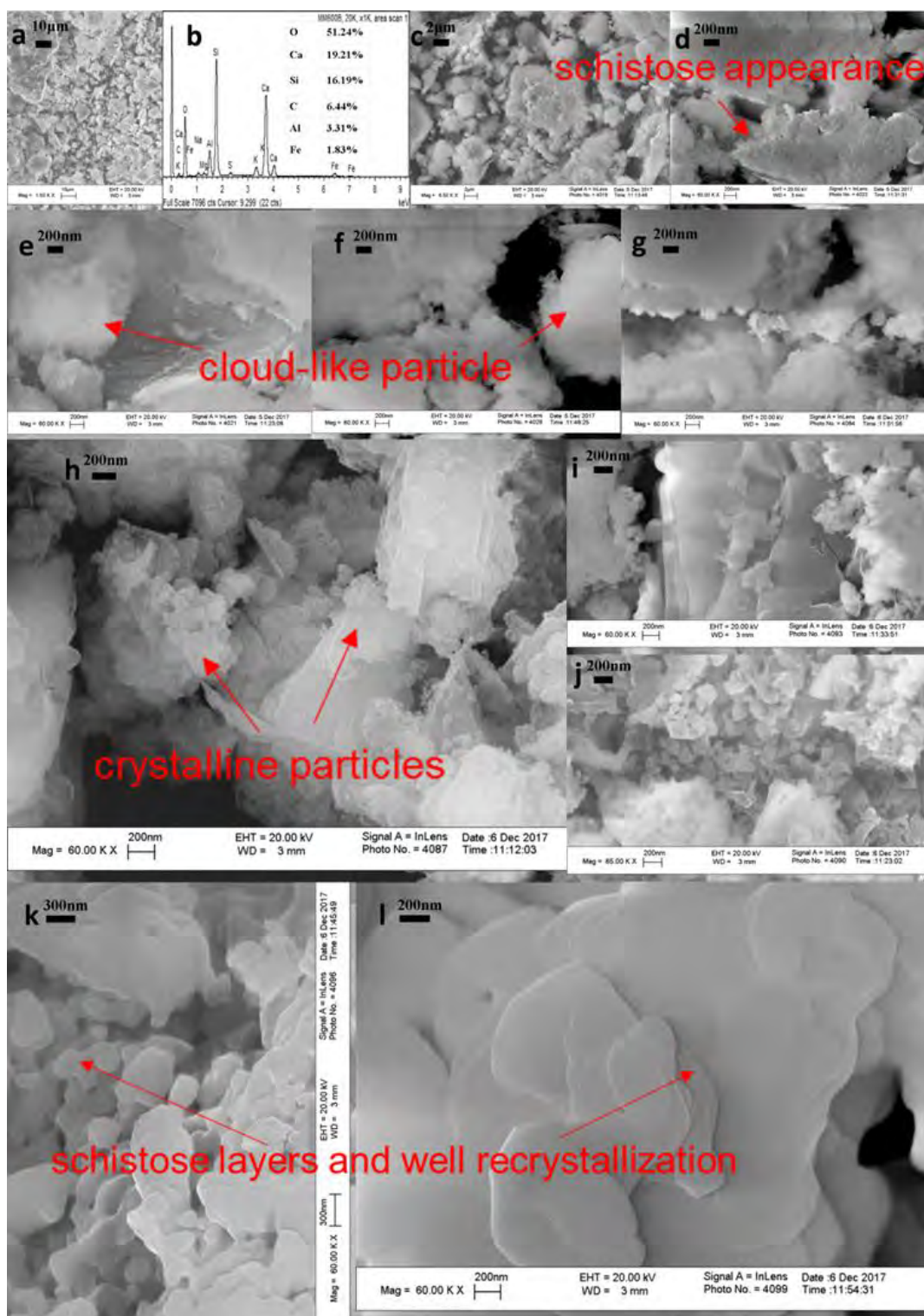
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Figure 2 FTIR spectra of thermally treated MMWMM at different temperatures in the vibrational range of 4000-450 cm⁻¹



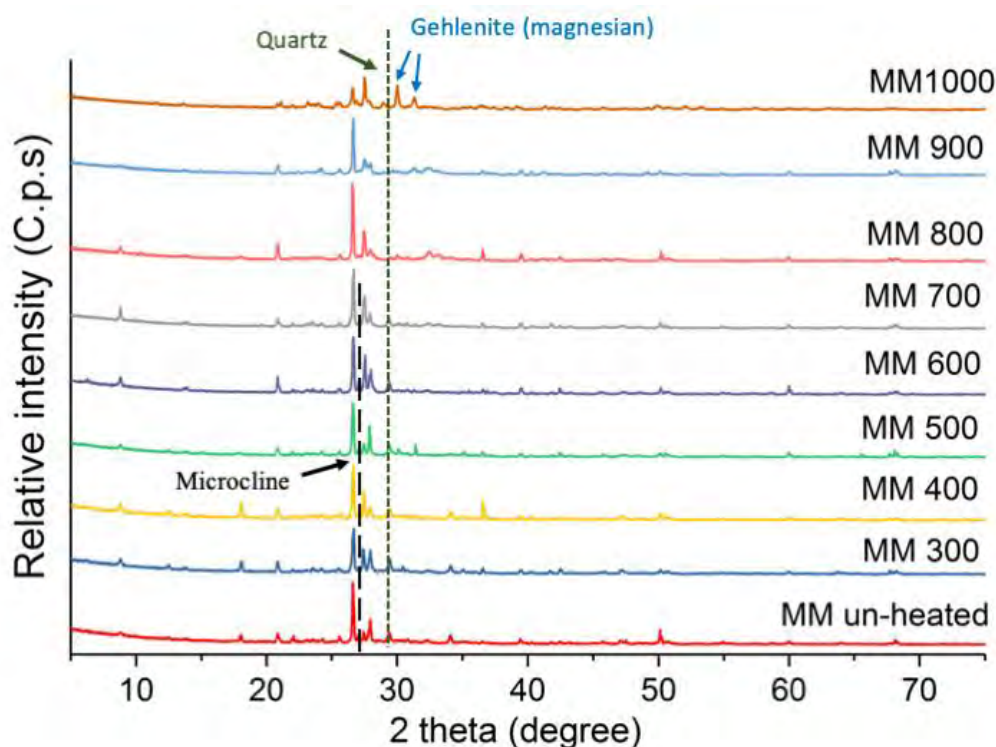
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Figure 3 FTIR spectra of thermally treated MMWM at different temperatures, (a) spectra in the range of 4000-3000 cm⁻¹; (b) spectra in the range of 1650-1350 cm⁻¹



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Figure 4 FESEM images of MM un-heated (a (1.5 K X), b (EDX), c (6.5 K X), d (60.0 K X)) and MMWM after thermal treatment at 300 °C (e), 400 °C (f), 500 °C (g), 600 °C (h), 700 °C (i), 800 °C (j), 900 °C (k), and 1000 °C (l)



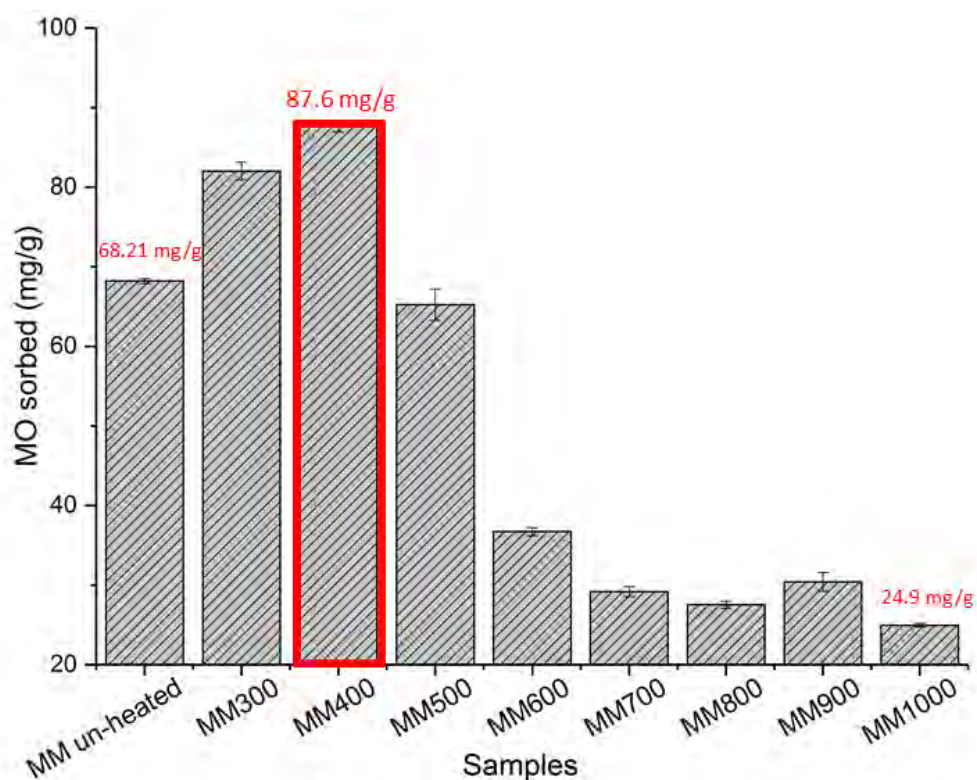
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Figure 5 XRD patterns of MMW before (MM un-heated) and after (MM 300-1000) thermal treatment.

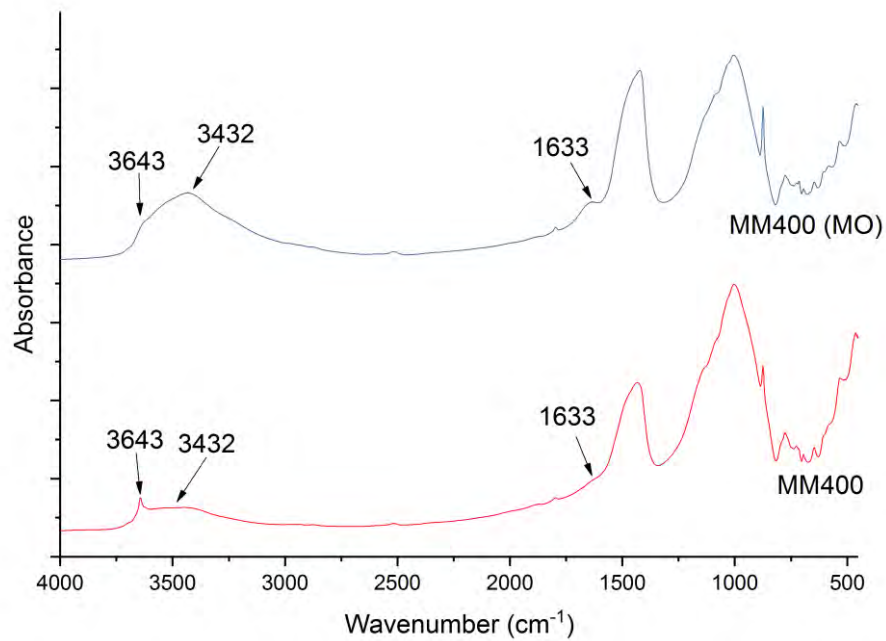


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Figure 6 The maximum amounts of MO adsorbed by MMW samples at 25 °C before (MM un-heated) and after (MM 300-1000) thermal treatment

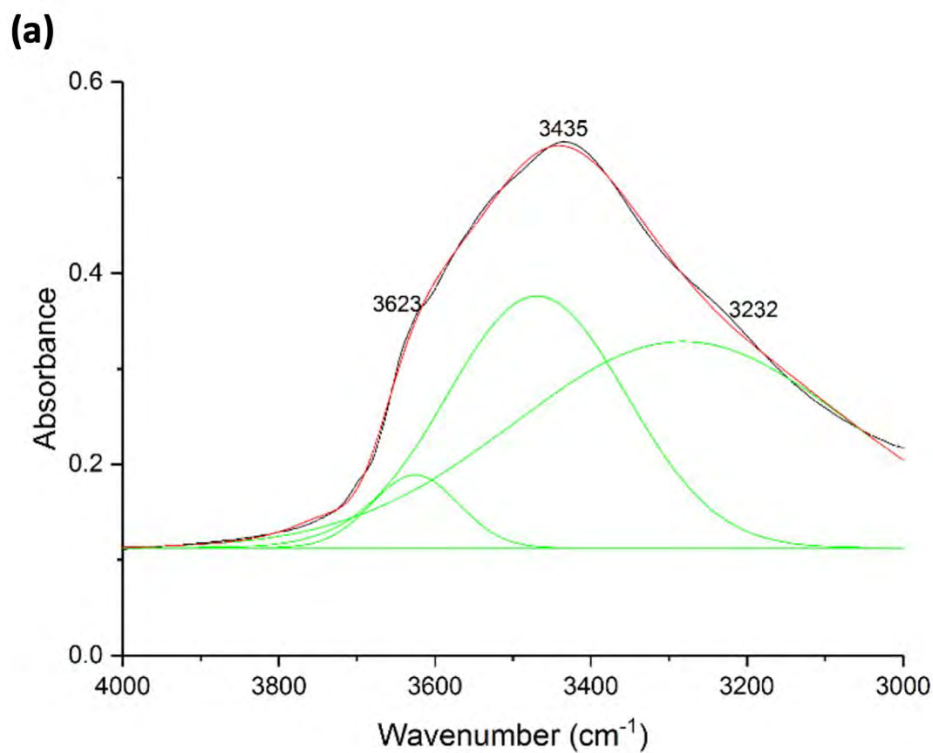


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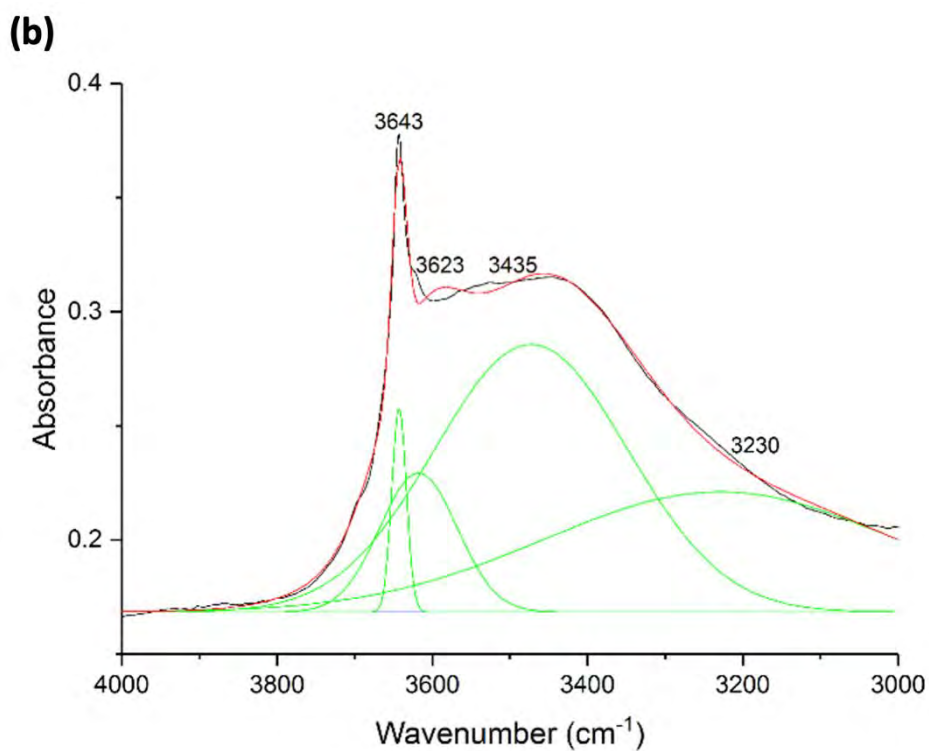
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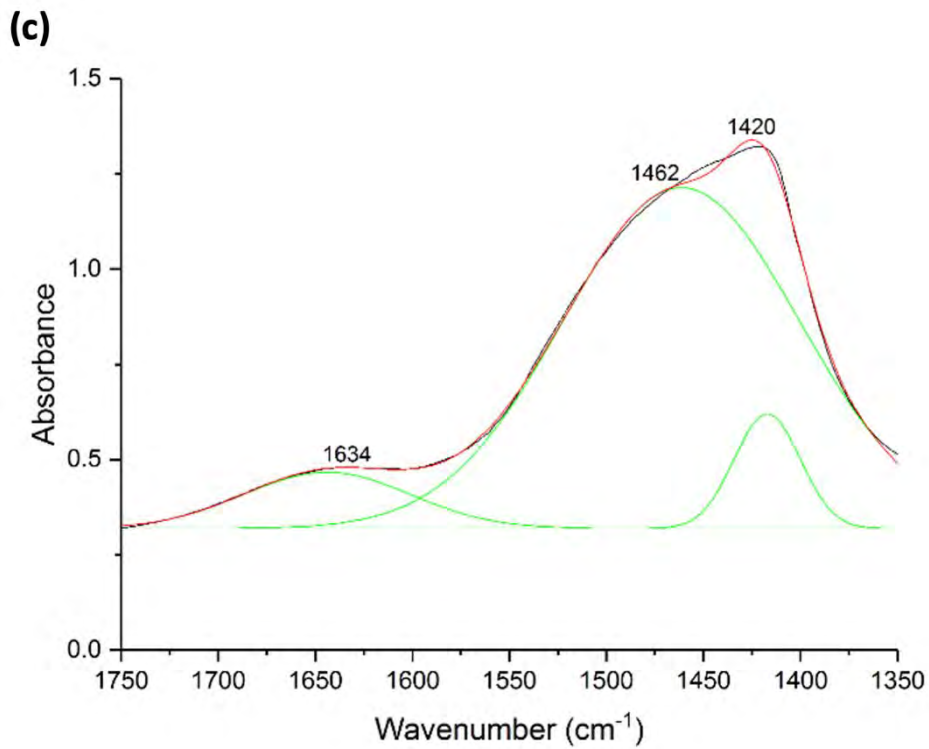
Figure 7 Comparison on the FTIR spectra of MM 400 before and after methyl orange (MO) adsorption



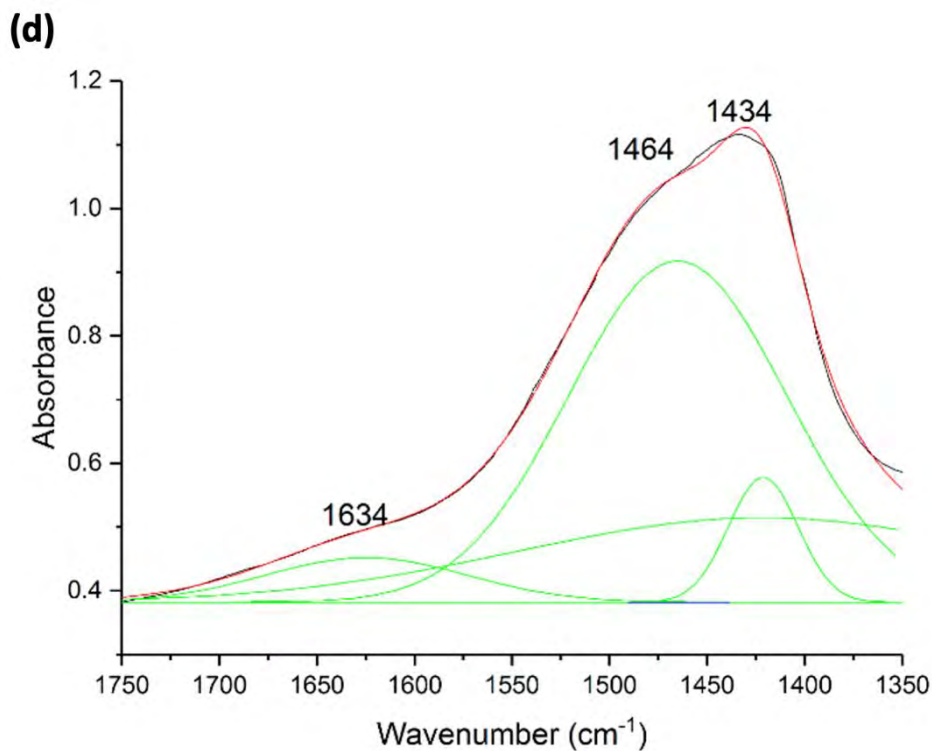
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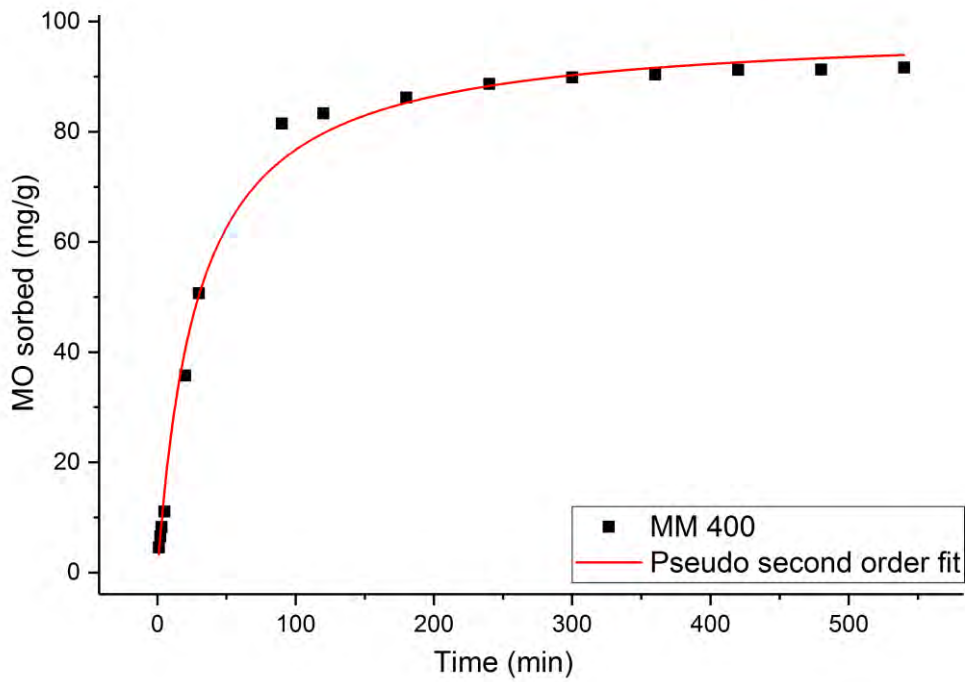
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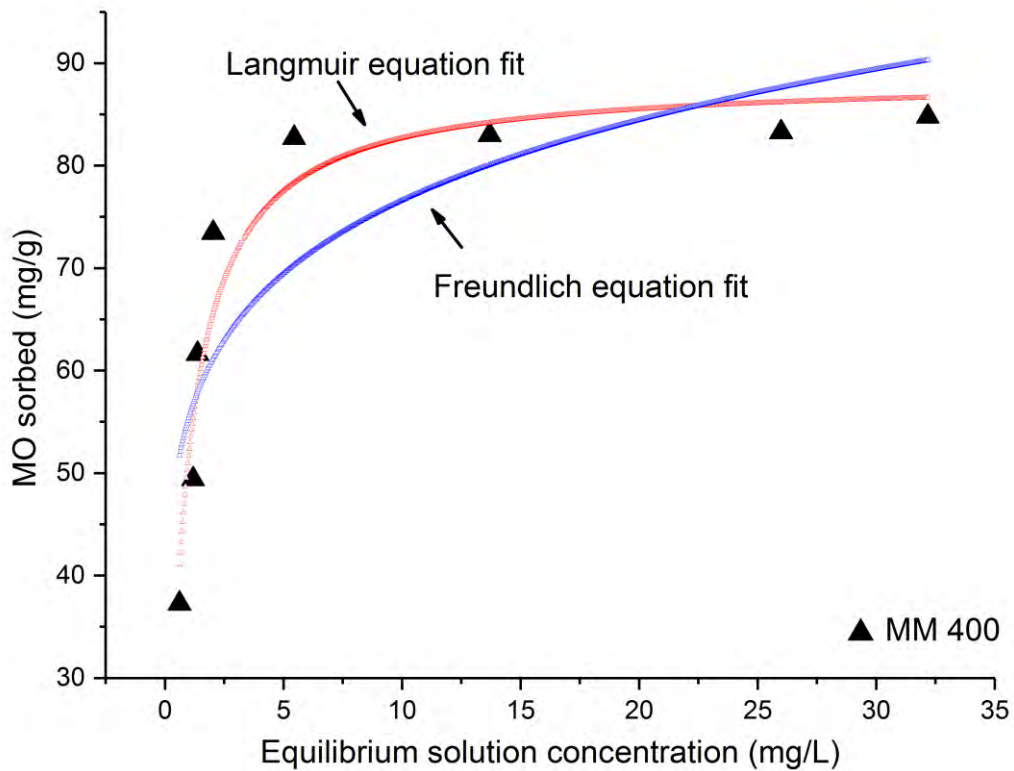
Figure 8 Band fittings of FTIR spectra, (a) MM 400 after MO adsorption, and (b) MM 400 before adsorption in the range of $4000\text{-}3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$; (c) MM 400 after MO adsorption, and (d) MM 400 before adsorption in the range of $1750\text{-}1350\text{ cm}^{-1}$



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863 Figure 9 Pseudo-second-order fitting plot of MO adsorption onto MM 400 at room
864 temperature (25 °C)

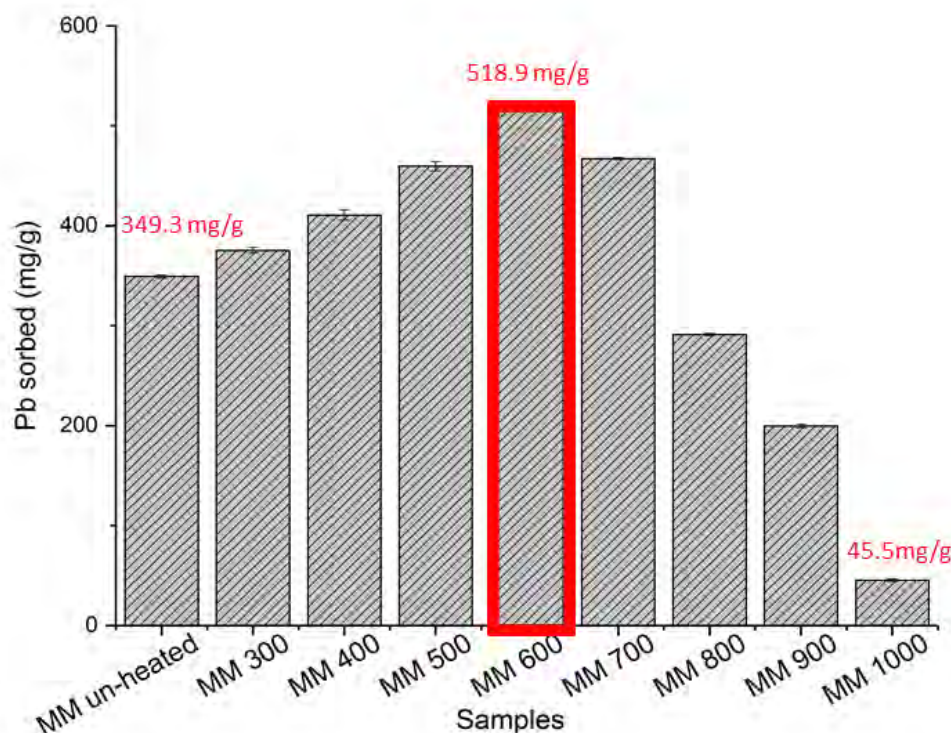
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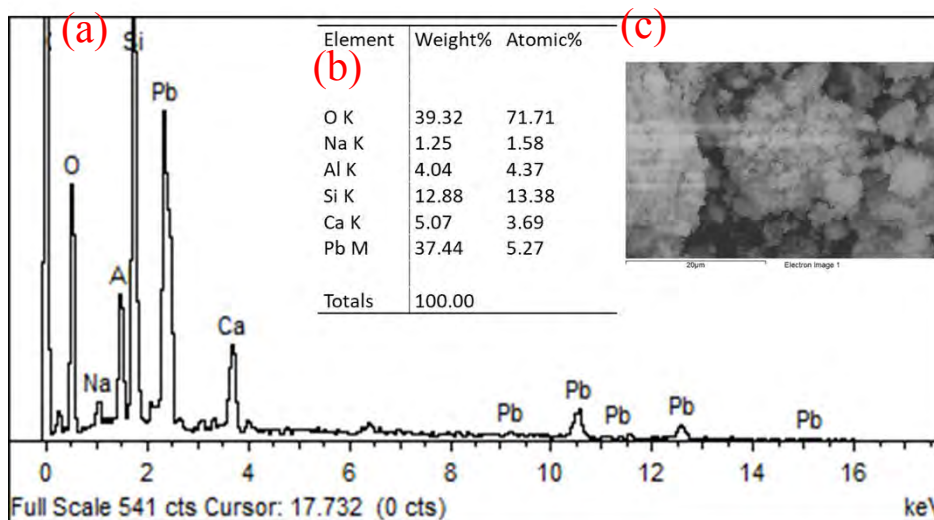
867 Figure 10 Langmuir and Freundlich fitting plots of MO adsorption isotherms of MM
868 400 at room temperature (25 °C)

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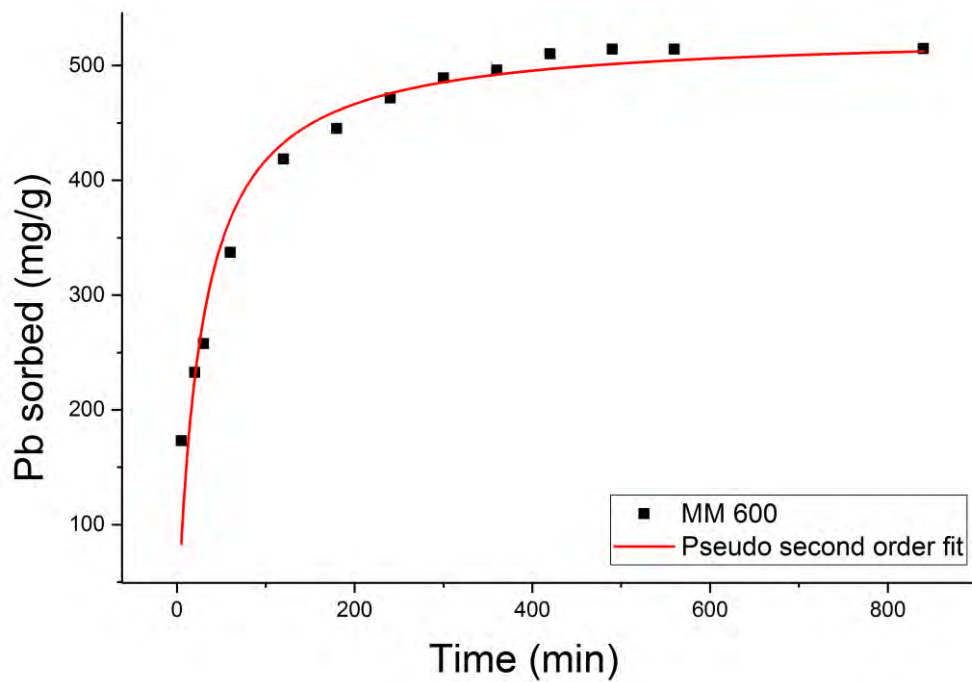
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Figure 11 The maximum amounts of Pb adsorbed by MMW samples at 25 °C before (MM un-heated) and after (MM 300-1000) thermal treatment



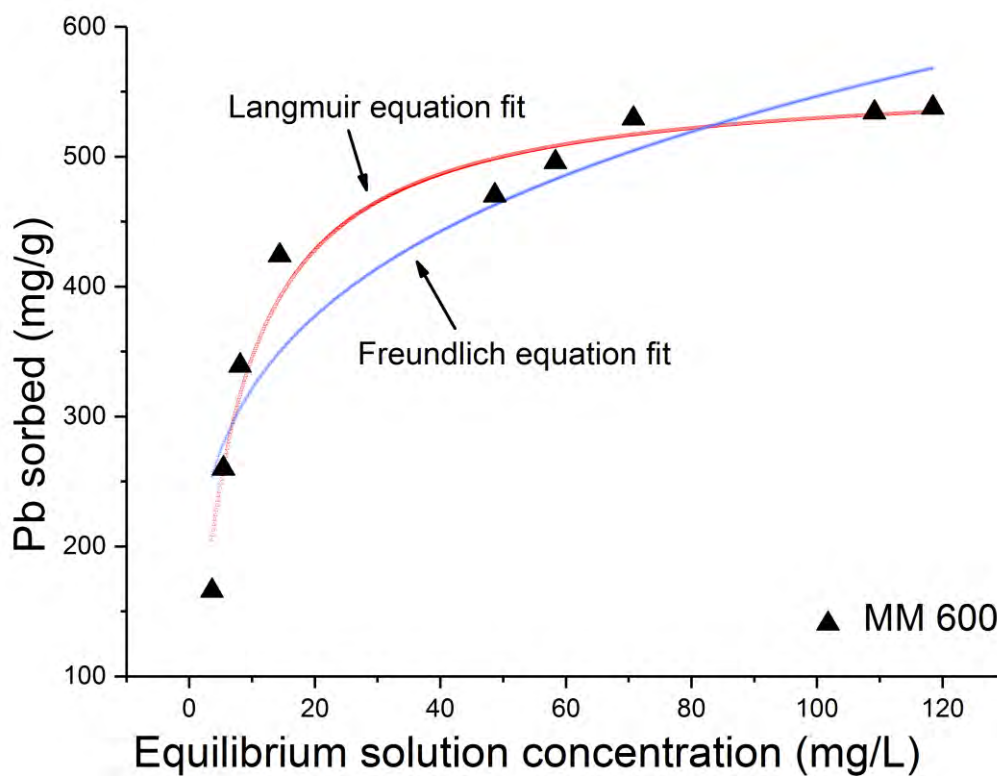
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Figure 12 The EDX results of MM 600, (a) spectrum after Pb adsorption, (b) element content and (c) SEM image (amplification 6.0K) used for EDX analysis.



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Figure 13 Pseudo-second-order fitting plot of Pb adsorption onto MM 600 at room temperature (25 °C)



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Figure 14 Langmuir and Freundlich fitting plots of Pb adsorption isotherms of MM 600 at room temperature