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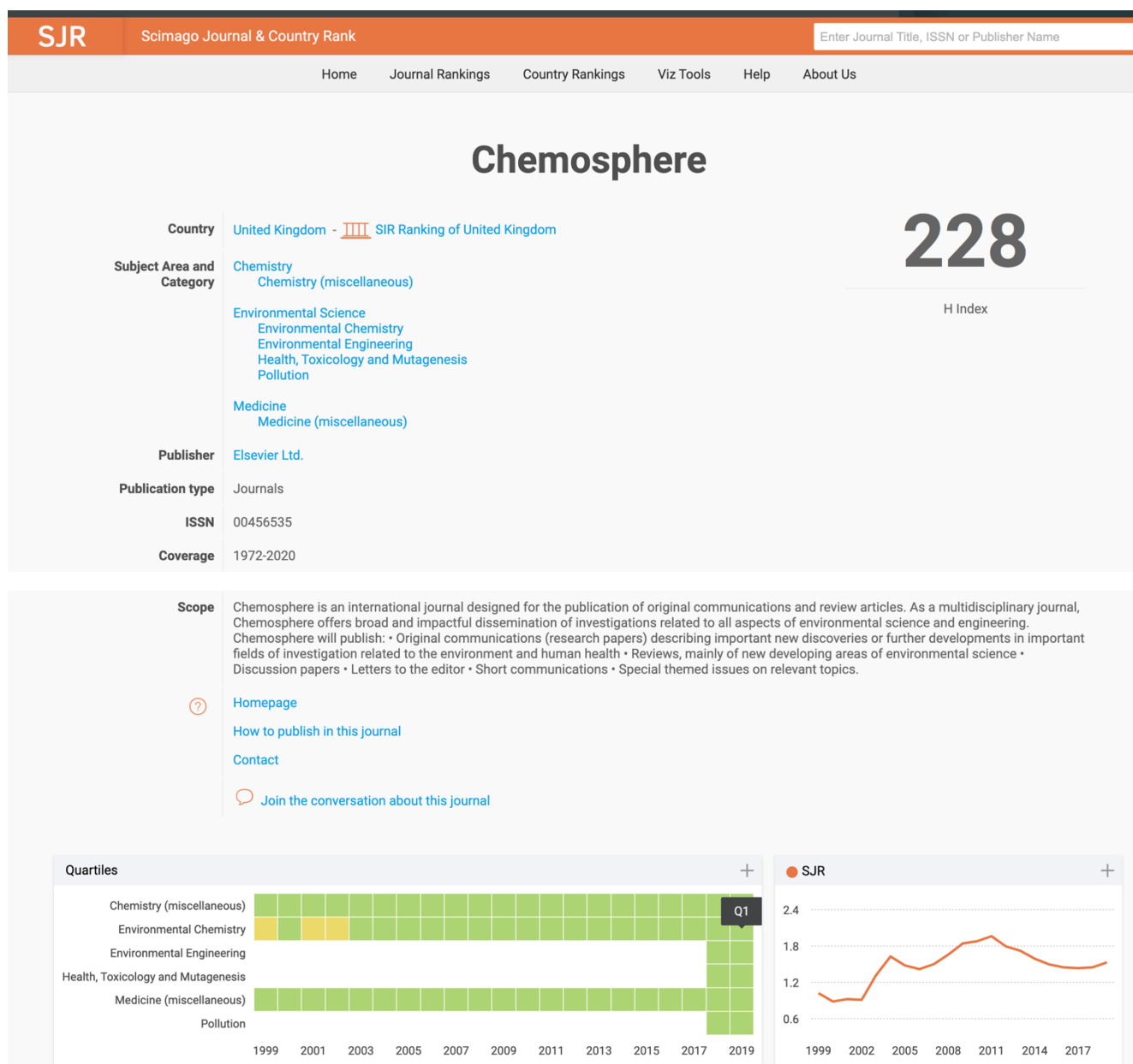
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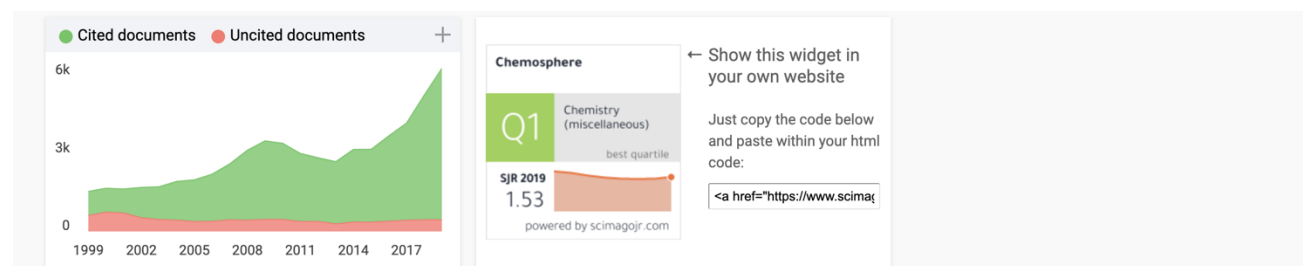
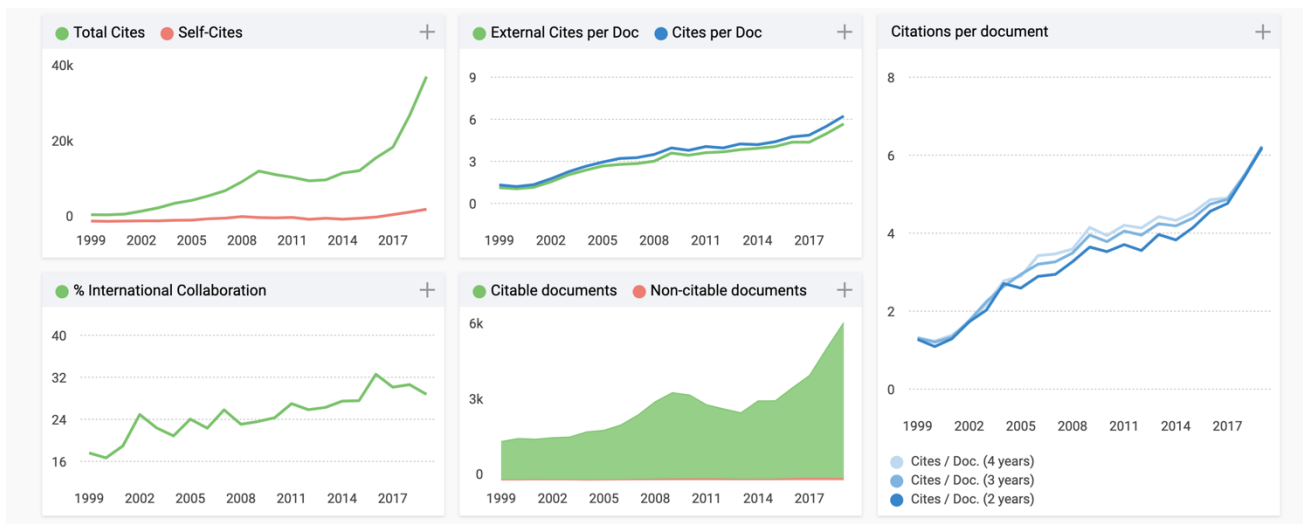
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Preparation of biochar from biomass waste soybean dreg using a one-pot method for methylene blue adsorption from water

Abstract:

Soybean dreg is a by-product of bean products production, with a large consumption in China. Low utilization value leads to random discarding, which is one of the important sources of urban pollution. In this work, porous biochar was synthesized using a one-pot method and potassium bicarbonate (KHCO₃) with low-cost soybean dreg (SD) powder as the carbon precursor to investigate the adsorption of methylene blue (MB). The prepared samples were characterized with scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), elemental analysis (EA), Brunner-Emmet-Teller (BET), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy (Raman), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The obtained SDB-K-3 showed a high specific surface area of 1620 m² g⁻¹, a large pore volume of 0.7509 cm³ g⁻¹, and an average pore diameter of 1.859 nm. The results indicated that the maximum adsorption capacity of SDB-K-3 to MB could reach 1273.51 mg g⁻¹ at 318 K. The kinetic data were most consistent with the pseudo-second-order model and the adsorption behavior was more suitable for the Langmuir isotherm equation. All standard Gibbs free energy change (ΔG°) values were negative, while the standard enthalpy change (ΔH°) values and the standard entropy change (ΔS°) values of SDB-K-3 were positive, indicating that the adsorption was a feasible, spontaneous, and endothermic process in nature. This study demonstrated that the porous biochar adsorbent can be prepared from soybean dreg by high value utilization and it could hold significant potential for dye wastewater treatment in the future.

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Article Type: Research paper

Section/Category: Treatment and Remediation

Keywords: soybean dreg; porous biochar; methylene blue; adsorption

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Preparation of biochar from biomass waste soybean dreg using a one-pot method for methylene blue adsorption from water

Zhiwei Ying^a, He Li^{a,*}, Xinqi Liu^{a,*}, Chi Zhang^a, Jian Zhang^a, Guofu Yi^a

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Highlights

A novel biochar was prepared from soybean dreg with KHCO_3 using a one-pot method.

The prepared adsorbent has a high specific surface area and large pore volume.

The maximum adsorption capacity for methylene blue at 318 K reached $1273.51 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$.

The adsorption data were well fitted with the pseudo-second-order kinetic model.

The adsorption behavior was suitable for the Langmuir isotherm.

1 **Preparation of biochar from biomass waste soybean dreg using a**
2 **one-pot method for methylene blue adsorption from water**

3
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42 utilization and it could hold significant potential for dye wastewater treatment in the
43 future.

44 **Keywords:** soybean dreg, porous biochar, methylene blue, adsorption

45

46 **1. Introduction**

47 The increasing demand for dyes in different industries exacerbates the discharge of
48 dye wastewater (Corso et al., 2012), as well as their toxic effect on the environment and
49 organisms, inducing significant concern from society as a whole (Nethaji et al., 2010).
50 For example, the discharge of dye wastewater into forests or fields will directly damage
51 the soil productivity, and the presence of dyes in water can affect light penetration and
52 photosynthesis of aquatic plants (Vilar et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2018). Some organic
53 dyes and their products display mutagenicity or carcinogenicity toward humans (Liu et
54 al., 2012), which may cause different degrees of damage to some organs, including
55 kidney, brain, reproductive system and liver, etc (Kadirvelu et al., 2003; Dincer et al.,
56 2007; Shen et al., 2009). In the dye industry, the cationic dye MB is an aromatic
57 heterocyclic compound that can burn the eyes of people and animals, and may stimulate
58 the gastrointestinal tract (Senthilkumaar et al., 2005), causing symptoms such as
59 dyspnea, vomiting, diarrhea, insanity, and methemoglobin after ingestion (Tan et al.,
60 2008a; Tan et al., 2008b). Therefore, the effective removal of dye from wastewater and
61 prevent it from polluting the environment is a significant challenge for industrial
62 production that requires an urgent solution.

63 In the early stage of dye wastewater treatment, only simple balancing and
64 precipitation treatment methods were adopted. Currently, conventional dye removal
65 methods that include biological, chemical, and physical approaches are used for the
66 treatment of dye wastewater (Katheresan et al., 2018), such as biodegradation (Banerjee

67 and Chattopadhyaya, 2017), membrane separation (Ciardelli et al., 2000), coagulation
68 and flocculation (Thongchai and Somkid, 1986), photocatalytic degradation (Dong et al.,
69 2010), and adsorption (Wang et al., 2011). Among the above removal methods,
70 adsorption has become one of the preferred technologies for the treatment of dye
71 wastewater because of its low cost, good adsorption and convenient operation (Liu et al.,
72 2012). In the current study, a large number of biomass waste products, such as
73 pineapple crown leaves (Astuti et al., 2019), wood chips (Khattri and Singh, 2009),
74 bamboo (Li et al., 2020), walnut shells (Wang and Liu, 2017), bagasse (Juan et al., 2002)
75 and orange peel (Arami et al., 2005) are used as raw ingredients in preparing carbon
76 materials that can absorb dye wastewater.

77 Of all types of biomass waste products, most of them have little or no significant
78 economic value, and the follow-up treatment is also a big problem, especially for the
79 waste with large output such as soybean dregs. China has 5,000 years of soybean
80 cultivation history, which is a major oil-bearing crop, as well as one of the important
81 food crops and essential in the human diet (Zhu et al., 2011). In recent years, China
82 produced more than 80,000 tons of SD waste annually. SD is a by-product of the
83 production of soybean products, and since only a small portion of the residue is directed
84 at poultry and livestock feed, great majority of it is wasted or carelessly discarded in the
85 fields (Zhu et al., 2012). Processing the considerable amounts of SD produced every
86 year has become a significant challenge in the soybean industry. Furthermore, SD
87 contains about 50 dietary fiber, 25 protein, and 10 lipids and other nutrients (Li
88 et al., 2012), which can satisfy the standards of high-value utilization and environmental

89 protection of biomass waste. Moreover, the abundance, low cost, and high fiber content
90 of SD make it an excellent raw ingredient source for the carbon materials.

91 Currently, the conventional methods of biochar preparation are mainly pyrolysis
92 and hydrogen carbonization (Kumar et al., 2017). The two methods mainly have two
93 steps: (1) precarbonization of biomass waste; (2) activation of pre-carbonized samples
94 (physical or chemical activation). Comparatively, chemical activation is chosen by more
95 researchers to treat samples, because satisfactory pore structure materials can be
96 obtained, but at the same time, more energy and wastewater are consumed in the
97 production process. The most common activators in chemical activation are KOH,
98 $ZnCl_2$, H_3PO_4 , K_2CO_3 and $KHCO_3$ (Ioannidou and Zabaniotou, 2007; Deng et al., 2015).
99 Considering the cost of production and environmental sustainability, the one-pot
100 synthesis is an ideal choice.

101 In this study, porous biochar is prepared using a one-pot method with SD as the
102 carbon precursor and $KHCO_3$ as an activator for the adsorption of MB. The structure
103 and composition of the material were characterized by SEM, TEM, EA, BET, XRD,
104 Raman, FTIR, and XPS. The adsorption mechanism is discussed via the study of kinetic
105 and thermodynamic models, and the analytical rate of the material is evaluated.

106 **2. Materials and methods**

107 *2.1. Materials and reagents*

108 SD was obtained from the Shandong Yuxin Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Shandong
109 Province. The SD was first dried in a vacuum oven (GZX-9030MBE, Shanghai Boxun
110 Industrial Co., Ltd. Medical Equipment Factor) at 105°C for 48 h to obtain the starting

111 material. All chemicals, including KHCO_3 , MB, and hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37 wt%)
112 were of analytical grade, purchased from the Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd.
113 and used as received.

114 2.2. Preparation of SDB-K-X

115 The SD was mixed with KHCO_3 (SD/ KHCO_3 weight ratio=1:2, 1:3, 1:4, and 1:5)
116 and ground evenly, after which it was activated at 800°C at a heating rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$
117 in a N_2 (99.999 %) atmosphere for 90 min. After the temperature had cooled to room
118 temperature, the subsequent material was placed in a 5 wt% HCl solution and stirred
119 continuously for 24 h, after which it was filtered and separated. The residue was washed
120 with DI water until a neutral pH was reached, and dried at 105°C for 24 h. The activated
121 material that was obtained was labeled as SDB-K-X X=2, 3, 4, 5 referring to the
122 SD/ KHCO_3 weight ratio=1:2, 1:3, 1:4, and 1:5, respectively and finally preserved in a
123 desiccator until further use.

124 2.3. Characterization of SDB-K-X

125 The morphology of SD and SDB-K-X was performed using SEM (JEOL
126 JSM-6700F, Japan), while the hole wall microstructure was performed with TEM (JEOL
127 JEM-2100F, Japan) operated at 200 kV. The EA (C, H, O, N, and S) of the samples were
128 acquired with an elemental analyzer (Elementar Vario EL III, Germany). The nitrogen
129 sorption isotherms of the samples were carried out at 77 K using a nitrogen adsorption
130 apparatus (BET, Quantachrome AUTOSORB IQ, USA). The crystallinity of the samples
131 was acquired using XRD (Rigaku Ultima IV, Japan), while the Raman spectra were
132 obtained using Raman (Bruker Optics SENTERRA, Germany, excitation-beam

133 wavelength: 532 nm). The organic structure of SDB-K-X was characterized by FTIR
134 (SHIMADZU Type 2000, Japan) recorded in a wavenumber range of 4000-400 cm⁻¹.
135 The surface element composition and chemical state of the samples were obtained with
136 spectra recorded using XPS (Thermo Scientific Escalab 250Xi, USA).

137 2.4. Adsorption experiments

138 All batches were tested in a Water-bathing Constant Temperature Vibrator (WE-3,
139 Tianjin Ounuo Instrument Co., LTD, China). Then, 0.025 g adsorbent was added to a 25
140 mL MB aqueous solution of 1000 mg L⁻¹, 1500 mg L⁻¹, and 2000 mg L⁻¹, and oscillated
141 at 150 rpm for 2 h at 298 K. Furthermore, to investigate the MB adsorption kinetics,
142 0.025 g of SDB-K-3 was added to 25 mL MB aqueous solution at concentrations of
143 1000 mg L⁻¹, 1500 mg L⁻¹, and 2000 mg L⁻¹, respectively, at a temperature of 298 K and
144 a speed of 150 rpm. At a preset time point (from 0 min to 600 min), a small amount of
145 the sample was removed with a pipette gun for determination. The MB of the isothermal
146 adsorption experiments at three different temperatures (298 K, 308 K, and 318 K), and
147 0.025 g SDB-K-3 were added into 25 mL of 250, 500, 750, 1000, 1250, 1500, 1750, and
148 2000 mg L⁻¹ MB, respectively. The adsorption was performed for 2 h at 150 rpm, after
149 which the suspension was centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 10 min. Then, the supernatant
150 was filtered through a 0.22 μm filter to measure its adsorption value (UV-vis, Agilent
151 Cary-60, USA) at the maximum value of 664 nm for MB. The adsorption capacity Q
152 (mg g⁻¹) and removal efficiency R (%) of MB on the adsorbent were separately
153 calculated with the following formulation:

$$154 \quad Q(\text{mg/g}) = \frac{(C_0 - C)V}{m} \quad (1)$$

155
$$R(\%) = \frac{C_0 - C}{C_0} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

156 where Q (mg g^{-1}) is the amount of MB adsorbed on the adsorbent, C_0 (mg L^{-1}) and
157 C (mg L^{-1}) are the initial concentration and the equilibrium concentration of MB,
158 respectively, V (L) is the volume of the MB solution, m (g) is the mass of the
159 adsorbent used, and R (%) is the removal efficiency of the dye.

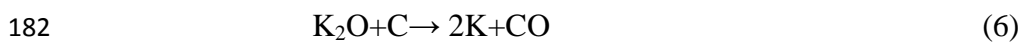
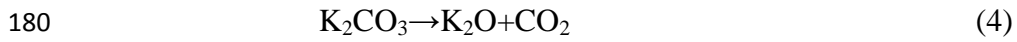
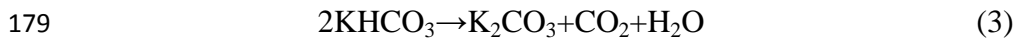
160 **3. Results and discussion**

161 *3.1. Characterization*

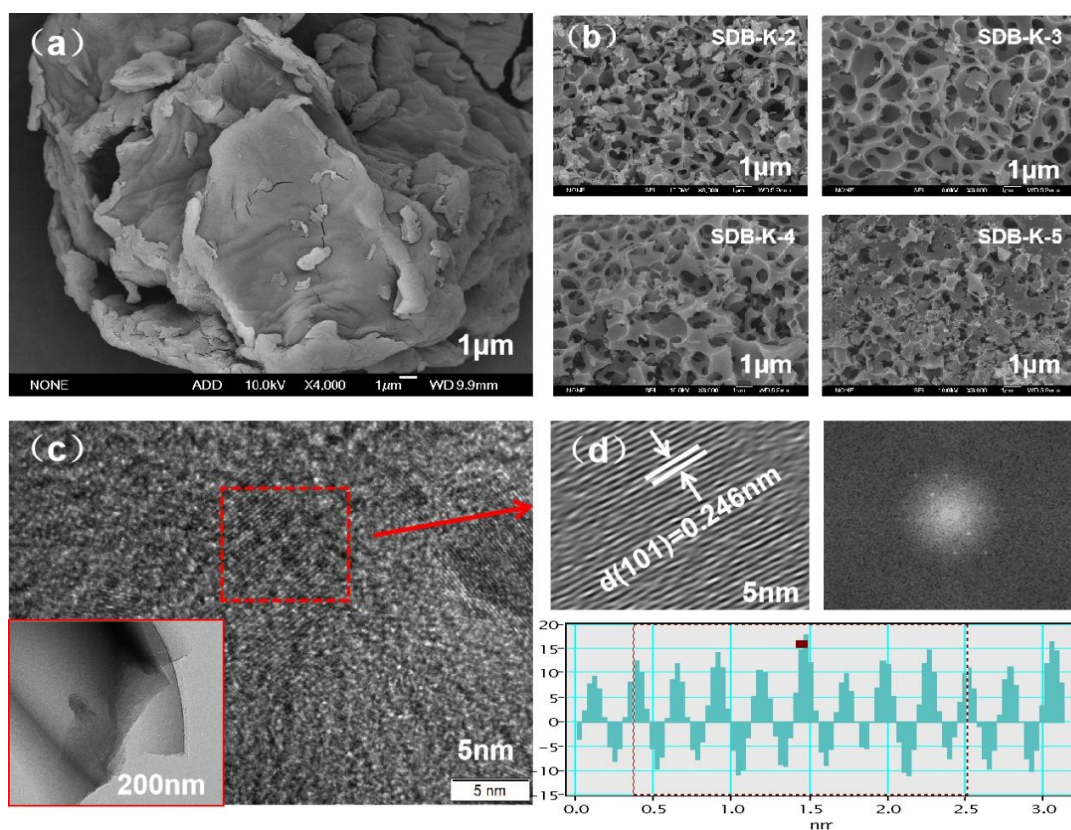
162 *3.1.1. SEM and TEM*

163 SEM and TEM characterized the porous structure. According to the SEM image
164 (Fig. 1a, 1b), the surface of the SD appeared as an irregular fold layered structure,
165 which was relatively smooth and dense with no apparent pores (Hu et al., 2018).
166 However, after high-temperature activation with KHCO_3 , an abundance of pore
167 structures was evident on the surface of the SDB-K-X, showing a 3D framework with
168 randomly opened pores, indicating that KHCO_3 played a positive role in the pore
169 formation of biochar. The generation and release of gas during the high-temperature
170 pyrolysis activation reaction caused the SD skeleton to form abundant pores. In addition,
171 metal potassium, reduced by carbon, was converted into gaseous potassium when the
172 activation temperature reached 800°C , which infiltrated the inner structure of the
173 biochar, forming a larger specific surface area and abundant hierarchically porous
174 structures. The possible activation reactions between SD and KHCO_3 are as follows (eq
175 3-7). SDB-K-3 (Fig. 1b) showed the most uniform pore structure, while the pores of
176 SDB-K-2, SDB-K-4, and SDB-K-5 contained blocky impurities, which could be

177 attributed to the different proportions of SD and activators, resulting in an incomplete
178 reaction or skeleton collapse and pore blockage.



184 According to the pore structure analysis with SEM, the low-resolution microscopic
185 image (inset of Fig. 1c) revealed the thick carbonaceous sheets of the material.
186 Furthermore, the high-resolution TEM image (Fig.1c) of SDB-K-3 demonstrated its
187 internal graphitic structure. The pores, indicated by white arrows in Fig. 1d were
188 distributed throughout SDB-K-3, showing distinct lattice fringes with a distance of
189 0.246 nm, corresponding to the graphite (101) plane. The structure consisted of graphite
190 particles embedded in disordered carbon, which denoted the precursors of graphene and
191 heated sufficiently for the particles to form large sheets of graphene.



192

193 **Fig. 1.** SEM images of SD (a) and SDB-K-X (b). The TEM image (c) and the high-resolution TEM
 194 image (d) of SDB-K-3.

195 3.1.2. EA and BET

196 The C, O, H, N, and S content of SD and SDB-K-X were measured using an
 197 elemental analyzer. The results in Table S1 showed that, after high-temperature
 198 activation with KHCO_3 , the biochar yield of the samples exceeded 15%, among which
 199 SDB-K-3 reached the highest yield of up to 15.61%. The C content of SDB-K-X
 200 increased from 41.14% to over 66%, while the O, H, N, and S content all decreased.
 201 The O content of SDB-K-X decreased from 46.63% to about 26% and was probably due
 202 to the influence of different KHCO_3 ratios and the formation of gas during the reaction.

203 The porous structure of SD and SDB-K-X was characterized by nitrogen sorption
 204 isothermal analysis. As illustrated in Fig. 2a, SDB-K-X exhibited a typical type I
 205 adsorption-desorption isotherm, indicating the microporous structure mainly existed.

206 Fig. 2b showed that the pores of SDB-K-X were evenly distributed, and mainly
 207 concentrated at 0.75-1.75 nm. With the interaction between substances and the release
 208 of gas products in the reaction process, the framework of SDB-K-X was etched to
 209 produce a large number of micropores, thus forming a developed layered porous
 210 structure (Norouzi et al., 2018). The summary in Table 1 indicates that as the ratio of SD
 211 to KHCO_3 increased, all the SDB-K-X samples displayed extremely high specific
 212 surface areas, exceeding $1500 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$. When the mass ratio of SD to KHCO_3 was 1:3, the
 213 subsequent SDB-K-3 exhibited the maximum specific surface area and pore volume of
 214 up to $1620 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.7509 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$. As such, the specific surface area first increased
 215 and then decreased with the SD to KHCO_3 ration became higher, and could be attributed
 216 to the degree in which KHCO_3 responded to SD. The analysis was consistent with the
 217 SEM results. In general, materials with a more extensive specific surface area contain
 218 more active sites, and a considerable number of micropores are used as the active
 219 adsorption sites, which is conducive to the removal of dyes (Parshetti et al., 2014).

220 **Table 1.** Specific surface area, pore volume, and average pore size of SDB-K-X.

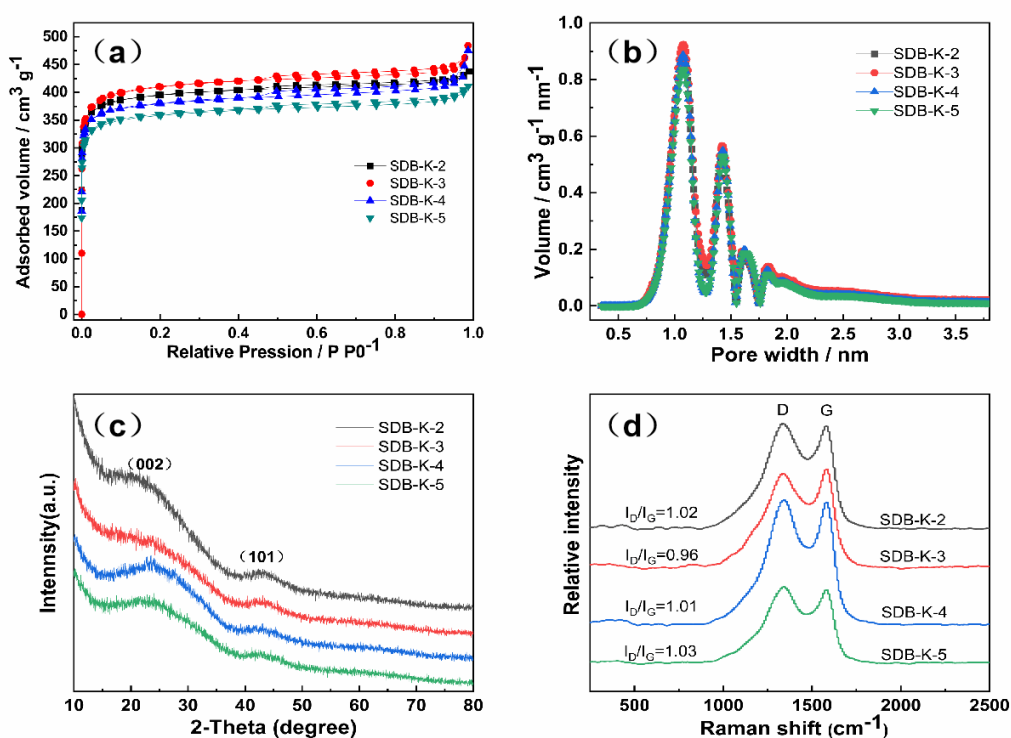
Sample	BET ($\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Vtot ($\text{cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$)	Average pore diameter (nm)
SDB-K-2	1572	0.6786	1.727
SDB-K-3	1620	0.7509	1.859
SDB-K-4	1510	0.7375	1.953
SDB-K-5	1425	0.6376	1.790

221 *3.1.3. XRD and Raman*

222 The SDB-K-X were subjected to XRD analysis to characterize the crystalline
 223 structures. The SDB-K-X samples all displayed typically disordered amorphous carbon,
 224 as suggested by the low-intensity and broadened peaks in the XRD patterns (Fig. 2c).
 225 There were two main diffraction peaks around 24° and 43° , corresponding to the (002)

226 and (101) plane diffraction (PDF#41-1487), respectively (Zhang et al., 2019).

227 The Raman spectra (Fig. 2d) further confirmed the formation of a graphitized SD
228 structure. Two distinct bands were located at around 1341 cm^{-1} (D band) and 1585 cm^{-1}
229 (G band), providing information regarding the disorder and crystallinity of sp^2 carbon
230 materials (Ferrari, 2007). The I_D/I_G value is usually used to represent the degree of
231 graphitization. All the SDB-K-X samples contained graphitized structures at different
232 degrees, among which the I_D/I_G of SDB-K-3 was the smallest (0.96), indicating that the
233 graphitization degree of SDB-K-3 was relatively high and the structural defects were
234 fewer. This result can be attributed to activators at different quality levels affecting the
235 graphite structure, leading to the formation of a defective texture.



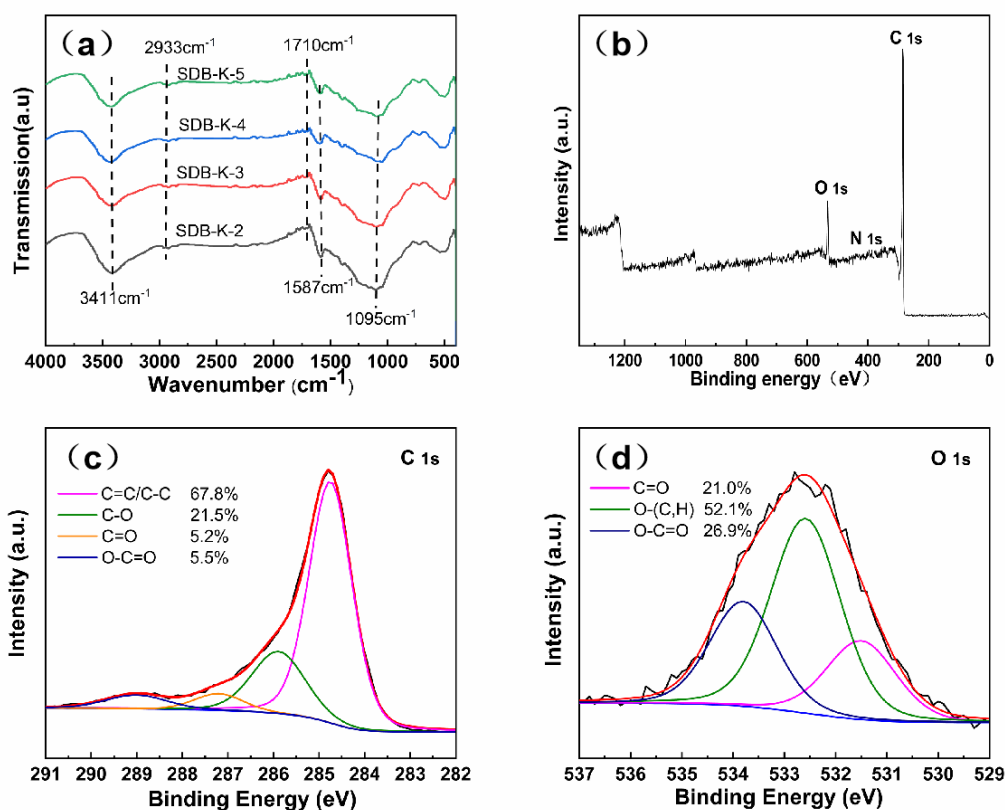
236

237 **Fig. 2.** The N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms (a), and pore size distribution (b) of SDB-K-X. The
238 XRD image (c) and the Raman image (d) of SDB-K-X.

239 *3.1.4. FTIR and XPS*

240 The FTIR spectra of SDB-K-X are illustrated in Fig. 3a, indicating that functional
241 groups exist on the surface of biochar, which is different from SD. This may be caused
242 by the volatilization of water and organic matter, as well as the interaction between
243 functional groups during high-temperature activation. The band at 3411 cm^{-1} was
244 ascribed to -OH stretching vibration (Wang and Liu, 2017), while the peak at 2933 cm^{-1}
245 was attributed to C-H stretching vibration. Carboxyl C=O stretching vibrations and C=C
246 peaks were identified at 1710 and 1587 cm^{-1} , the peak at 1095 cm^{-1} was ascribed to the
247 C-OH stretching vibration (Yu et al., 2019). Therefore, the samples contained abundant
248 functional groups, which is conducive to improving the adsorption performance of
249 organic dyes.

250 Based on the structural characterization analysis of SDB-K-X, XPS was used to
251 evaluate the elemental composition and surface groups of SDB-K-3, which primarily
252 contained C and O, as well as a small amount of N. These results corresponded well
253 with the EA findings (Fig. 3b) after the peak-differentiating-imitating analysis to
254 identify the high-resolution spectra of C1s and O1s. As shown in Fig. 3c, and Fig. 3d,
255 the C 1s spectrum was deconvoluted into four peak components at 284.7 eV , 285.6 eV ,
256 287.2 eV , and 289.0 eV , which were attributed to C-C/C=C (67.8 %), C-O (21.5 %),
257 C=O (5.2 %) and O-C=O (5.5 %) groups, respectively (Choudhary et al., 2013). The O1s
258 peaks confirmed the presence of C=O (21.0 %), O-(C, H) (52.1 %), and O-C=O (26.9 %) at
259 531.5 eV , 532.6 eV , and 533.8 eV (Datsyuk et al., 2008), respectively. These results
260 were consistent with those of the FTIR characterization, indicating that the SDB-K-3
261 surface contained a considerable number of oxygen-containing functional groups.



262

263 **Fig. 3.** FT-IR spectra (a) of SDB-K-3, XPS survey (b), high-resolution spectra of C1s (c), and
 264 high-resolution spectra of O1s (d) for SDB-K-3.

265 **3.2. The adsorption process**

266 Combined with the structural characterization of biochar, SDB-K-3 was selected as
 267 the best adsorbent for the removal of MB, which was attributed to its highest specific
 268 surface area, suitable pore volume, and abundant oxygen-containing functional groups.
 269 The adsorption of SDB-K-3 at different initial concentrations (1000 mg L^{-1} , 1500 mg L^{-1} ,
 270 and 2000 mg L^{-1}) was investigated, indicating that the adsorption capacity increased from
 271 999.54 mg g^{-1} to $1175.20 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$. The adsorption kinetics, adsorption equilibrium, and
 272 adsorption thermodynamics of SDB-K-3 for MB are further illustrated in the following
 273 sections.

274 **3.2.1. Adsorption kinetics**

275 To investigate the effect of the sorption behavior mechanism of SDB-K-3 on MB,
276 kinetic adsorption data were simulated using the pseudo-first-order and
277 pseudo-second-order models. The equations of the two models are expressed as follows
278 (Luo et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2015):

$$279 \quad \ln(q_e - q_t) = \ln q_e - k_1 t \quad (\text{pseudo-first-order}) \quad (8)$$

$$280 \quad \frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \quad (\text{pseudo-first-order}) \quad (9)$$

281 where q_t and q_e (mg g^{-1}) are the amounts of MB adsorbed at time t and equilibrium,
282 respectively, while k_1 (per min) and k_2 (g mg^{-1} per min) is the pseudo-first-order and
283 pseudo-second-order model rate constants of adsorption, respectively.

284 Fig. 4a shows that the adsorption efficiency increased with the extension of
285 adsorption time, while the adsorption process reached a balance, and the adsorption
286 sites were saturation, maintaining an equilibrium in the adsorption capacity (Yu et al.,
287 2019). As the concentration increased, the mass transfer driving force rose, the
288 interaction between SDB-K-3 and MB improved, and the adsorption capacity increased
289 until reaching the adsorption saturation. The maximum absorption Q (mg g^{-1}) amounts
290 of 1000 mg L^{-1} , 1500 mg L^{-1} , and 2000 mg L^{-1} MB were 996.29 mg g^{-1} , $1130.00 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$,
291 and $1179.26 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, and the removal efficiency R (%) were 99.63 , 75.33 and
292 58.96 , respectively. The adsorption efficiency of SDB-K-3 to MB increased rapidly
293 within 0.5 h and reached the adsorption equilibrium within 2 h. The rapid adsorption
294 process may be ascribed to the existence of effective binding sites, as well as the
295 formation of a hierarchical porous structure with a high SDB-K-3 surface area (Wang et
296 al., 2016).

297 The model regarding the relevant kinetic parameters for MB adsorption is provided
 298 in Table 2, while Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c illustrate the kinetic plots. Therefore, the
 299 pseudo-second-order model displayed higher R^2 values (>0.99998) in the three MB
 300 concentrations than the pseudo-first-order model. Notably, the pseudo-second-order
 301 model can describe the adsorption process better than the pseudo-first-order model,
 302 meaning that the chemical effect was also involved in the adsorption of MB on
 303 SDB-K-3 (Yu et al., 2019). This result can be ascribed to the high surface area and
 304 surface abundance of functional groups contributing to the diffusion of organic dye
 305 molecules from the water to the surface of the adsorbent. Furthermore, the calculated
 306 values of the adsorption amounts at equilibriums of 1000 mg L^{-1} , 1500 mg L^{-1} , and 2000
 307 mg L^{-1} MB onto SDB-6-K from the pseudo-second-order model were $1000.00 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$,
 308 $1131.31 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, and $1179.96 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, respectively, which were approximately the same
 309 as those from the experimental results (996.29 mg g^{-1} , $1130.00 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$, and 1179.26 mg
 310 g^{-1}). These findings suggested that the pseudo-second-order kinetic model was more
 311 suitable for describing the adsorption behavior of MB onto SDB-K-3.

312 **Table 2.** Kinetic model parameters for the adsorption of MB on SDB-K-3.

Sample	C_0 mg L^{-1}	$q_{e, \text{exp}}$ mg g^{-1}	Pseudo-first-order			Pseudo-second-order		
			$q_{e, \text{cal}}$ $(\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	K_1 (min^{-1})	R^2	$q_{e, \text{cal}}$ $(\text{mg} \cdot \text{g}^{-1})$	K_2 $(\text{g} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1} \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$	R^2
SDB-K-3	1000	996.29	18.98	0.00779	0.85332	1000.00	0.00224	1
	1500	1130.00	34.83	0.01065	0.77671	1131.31	0.00120	1
	2000	1179.26	57.35	0.00679	0.70865	1179.96	0.00062	0.99998

313 3.2.2. Adsorption equilibrium

314 The adsorption isotherm is used to describe the interaction between adsorbate and
 315 adsorbent, indicating the distribution of adsorption molecules between the liquid and

316 solid phase when the adsorption process reaches an equilibrium state. To analyze the
317 adsorption mechanism of the MB on the surface of SDB-K-3, the adsorption data were
318 fitted using the Langmuir (Langmuir, 1918) and Freundlich (Freundlich, 1907) isotherm
319 models, respectively. The Langmuir adsorption isotherm assumes that adsorption occurs
320 in a single-layer at a specific homogeneous site inside the adsorbent. The Freundlich
321 isotherm is an empirical equation suggested for adsorption systems on the
322 heterogeneous surface. The linear form of the Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm
323 equations can be written as:

$$324 \quad \frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{q_m} + \frac{1}{k_L q_m} \quad (10)$$

$$325 \quad \ln q_e = \ln k_F + \frac{1}{n_F} \ln C_e \quad (11)$$

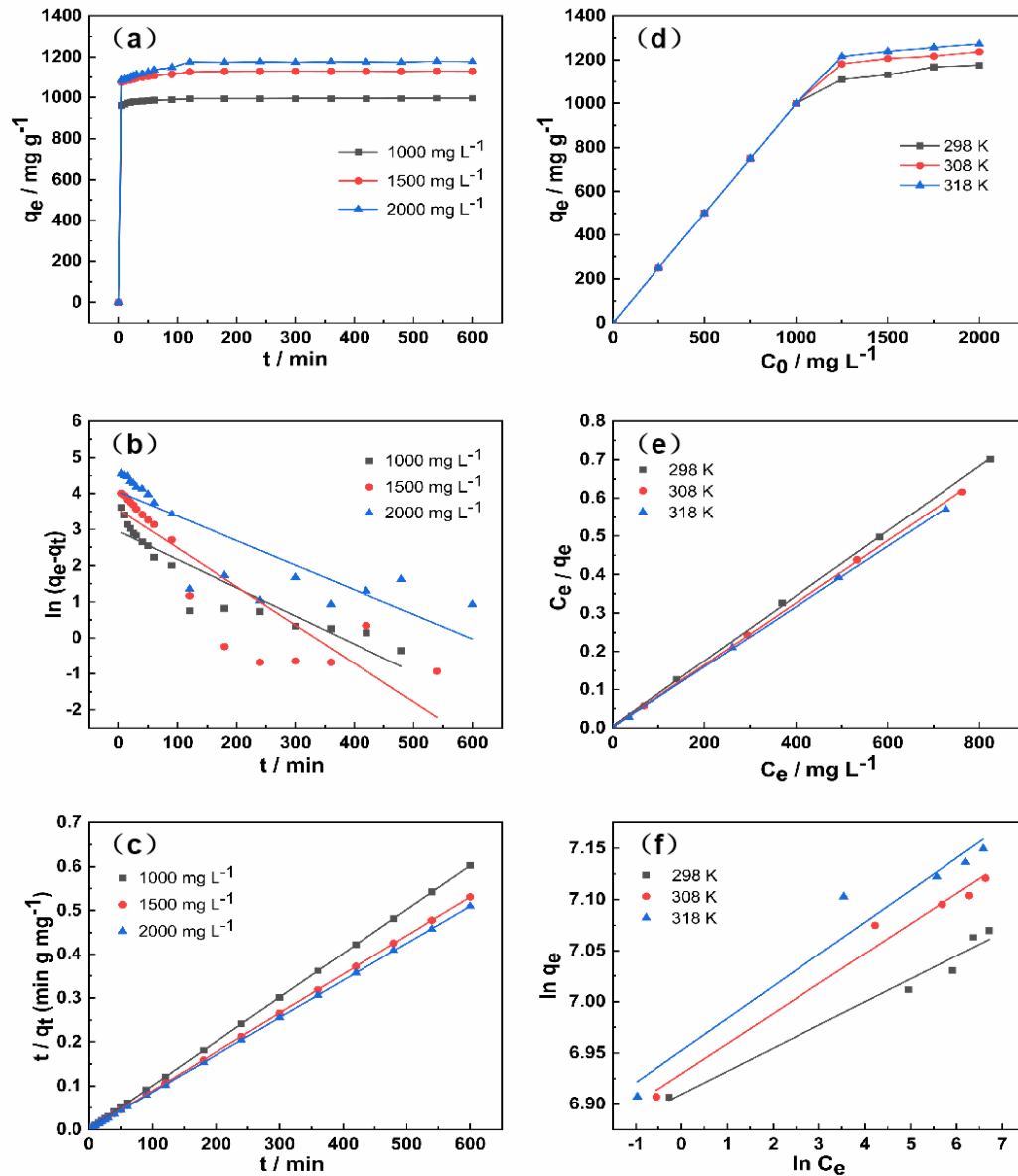
326 where C_e (mg g^{-1}) and q_e (mg g^{-1}) are the concentrations of MB in the solution and
327 the adsorbent at the adsorption equilibrium, respectively. q_m (mg g^{-1}) is the MB
328 monolayer adsorption capacity, k_L is the adsorption constants, which are related to the
329 free energy of adsorption. n_F and k_F are Freundlich adsorption constants related to
330 adsorption capacity and sorption intensity, respectively.

331 The adsorption isotherms of SDB-K-3 for MB at different initial dye
332 concentrations and temperatures are shown in Fig. 4d. By increasing the initial
333 concentration of MB at a specific temperature, q_e gradually increased, and then
334 approached saturation adsorption. With the increase of temperature, the saturation
335 adsorption capacity (q_m) increases accordingly, confirming the active influence of
336 temperature on adsorption capacity. Therefore, it can be inferred that the adsorption of
337 SDB-K-3 on MB is an endothermic process.

338 The curves simulated in Fig. 4e, indicate that the curves of the Langmuir model are
 339 more suitable for fitting the adsorption data than those of the Freundlich isotherm model
 340 (Fig. 4f). Therefore, the k_1 and q_e values were calculated from the plots provided in
 341 Table 3, indicating that the correlation coefficients ($R^2 > 0.999$) of the Langmuir model
 342 for all initial MB concentrations were more significant than those found when using the
 343 Freundlich model. The results indicated the adsorption process of SDB-K-3 on MB
 344 occurred in a single-layer.

345 **Table 3.** Isotherm model parameters for the adsorption of MB on SDB-K-3.

Sample	T/K	Langmuir			Freundlich		
		$q_m(\text{mg}\cdot\text{g}^{-1})$	$K_L(\text{L}\cdot\text{mg}^{-1})$	R^2	n	K_F	R^2
SBD-K-3	298	1179.80	0.1477	0.99954	44.35	1001.83	0.96722
	308	1235.49	0.2891	0.99977	34.08	1022.17	0.97325
	318	1271.95	0.3657	0.99983	31.89	1045.62	0.93420



346

347 **Fig. 4.** The effect of the contact time on MB adsorption by SDB-K-3 (a). Kinetic fitting curves for
 348 the MB adsorption by SDB-K-3, pseudo-first-order(b), and pseudo-second-order (c). Conditions: T =
 349 298 K; m=0.025 g; V=25L; C₀=1000 mg L⁻¹, 1500 mg L⁻¹, and 2000 mg L⁻¹. The effect of the initial
 350 concentration and temperature of the dye on the adsorption performance (d). Linearized Langmuir
 351 isotherms for 2000 mg L⁻¹ MB adsorption by SDB-K-3 (e) and linearized Freundlich isotherms for
 352 2000 mg L⁻¹ MB adsorption by SDB-K-3 (f). Conditions: T = 298 K, 308 K, and 318 K; m=0.025 g.

353 3.2.3. Thermodynamic analysis

354 To estimate the type of adsorption for SDB-K-3 on MB, the thermodynamic
 355 adsorption parameters, such as the ΔG (kJ·mol⁻¹), the ΔH (kJ·mol⁻¹), and the ΔS
 356 (J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹) were calculated. The thermodynamic parameters can be obtained with the

357 following equations (Manasi et al., 2014):

$$358 \quad \ln K_c = \frac{-\Delta H}{RT} + \frac{\Delta S}{R} \quad (12)$$

$$359 \quad \Delta G = -RT \ln K_c \quad (13)$$

$$360 \quad K_c = \frac{q_e}{c_e} \quad (14)$$

361 where R is the gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$); K_c is the thermodynamic
362 equilibrium constant, and T (K) is the sorption temperature.

363 The ΔH and ΔS values can be calculated from the slope and intercept of the linear
364 plot of $\ln K_c$ and $1/T$. The obtained thermodynamic parameters are shown in Fig. S1 and
365 Table S2. All acquired ΔG values were negative at all temperatures, indicating that the
366 adsorption of MB on SDB-K-3 was spontaneous and feasible, suggesting a
367 physisorption process (Zhang et al., 2020). The positive ΔH values implied the
368 endothermic nature of the adsorption interactions. Furthermore, the positive ΔS value
369 illustrated the adsorbent and the adsorption properties of some structural changes, while
370 indicating the randomness of solid-liquid interface in the process of adsorption was
371 increased (Yao et al., 2011).

372 *3.3. Adsorption performance comparison with other adsorbents*

373 The comparison of the maximum adsorption capacities of MB using various
374 previously reported adsorbents is summarized in Table S3, showing that the adsorption
375 capacity of SDB-K-3 for MB was higher than those of other adsorbents, such as garlic
376 peel (Hameed and Ahmad, 2009), banana peel (Liu et al., 2014), seaweed (Ahmed et al.,
377 2019), coconut shells (Islam et al., 2017b), wood (Danish et al., 2018), rattan (Islam et
378 al., 2017a) and wheat straw (Li et al., 2016), which are considered naturally available

379 and cost-efficient. Different adsorbents exhibit different adsorption properties for MB,
380 which may be caused by the variances in raw material composition and preparation
381 methods, resulting in the composition and pore structure of biochar. Consequently,
382 considering its low cost and comparable adsorption capacity, SDB-K-3 is assumed to be
383 a promising adsorption material to remove MB from water.

384 **4. Conclusions**

385 In this study, the porous biochar prepared from SD shows a highly specific BET
386 surface area ($1620 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$), large pore volume ($0.7509 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$), and rich
387 oxygen-containing hydrophobic groups. As a cost-effective dye adsorbent, it has
388 significant application potential. SDB-K-3 exhibits excellent adsorption capacity for
389 MB, with a maximum capability of $1273.51 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$ for MB at 318K. Combined with the
390 detailed characterization of SDB-K-3, this superior result can be ascribed to the 3D
391 framework structure and active adsorption site, suggesting that the combination of
392 chemical adsorption and physical adsorption, π - π interaction, hydrogen bonding, and
393 electrostatic interaction may be possible adsorption mechanisms. These results
394 demonstrate that the excellent adsorption performance of SDB-K-3 to MB is a possible
395 option for practical industrial wastewater treatment. Further investigation should focus
396 on optimizing the preparation method, reducing production costs, and realizing
397 industrial applications.

398

399 **Declaration of competing interest**

400 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
401 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
402 paper.

403

404 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

405 **Zhiwei Ying:** Data curation and writing-original draft. **He Li:** Writing-review &
406 editing. **Xinqi Liu:** Supervision and project administration. **Chi Zhang:** Software and
407 Methodology. **Jian Zhang:** Formal analysis. **Guofu Yi:** Investigation.

408

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412

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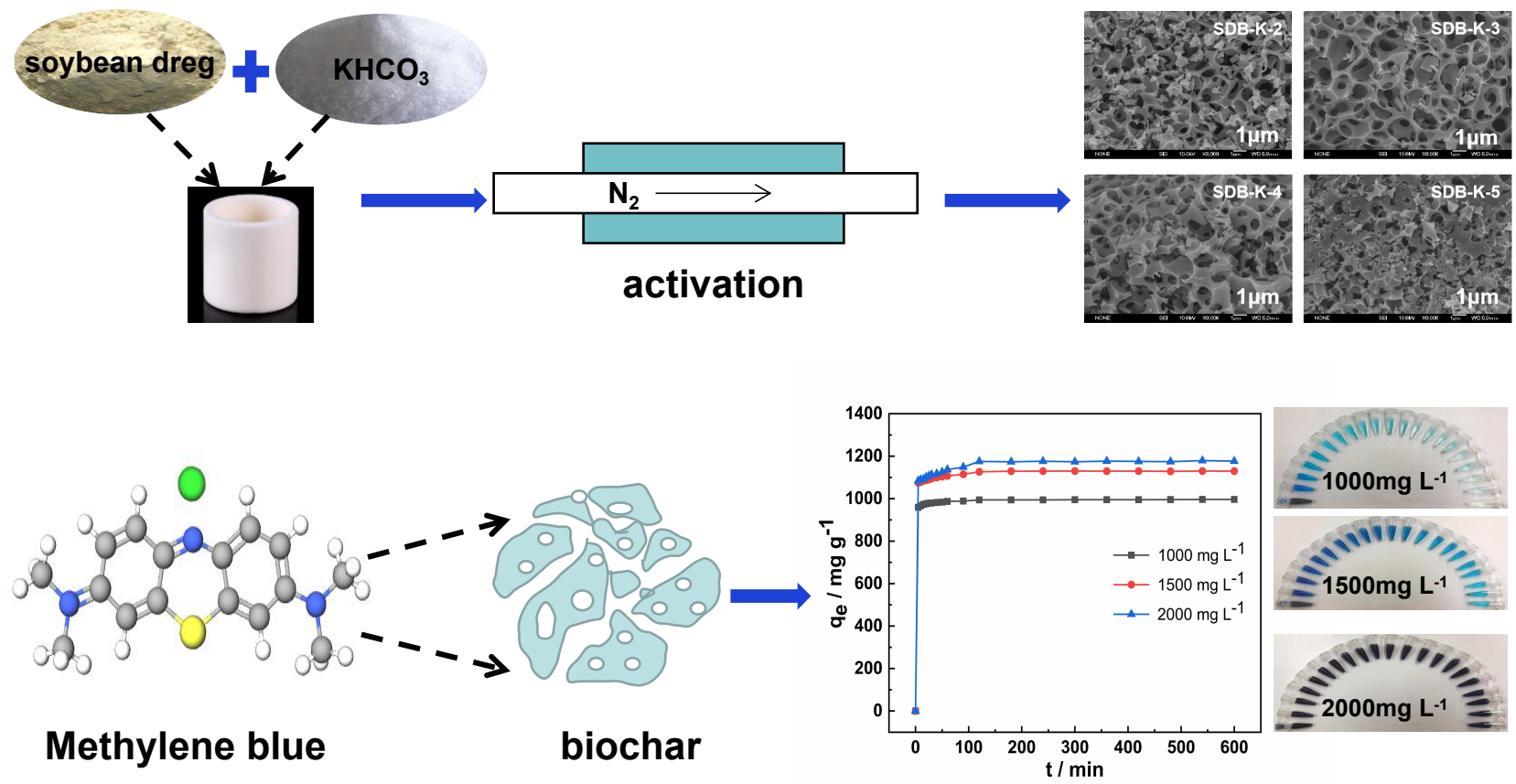
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