# **Evaluation of Activated Carbon from Waste Tyre for the Adsorption of 2-chlorophenol**

KANCHANA MANIRAJAH

BACHELOR OF CHEMICAL ENGINEERING UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA PAHANG

©KANCHANA MANIRAJAH (2017)



# **Thesis Access Form**

No	Location					
Author :	Author :					
Title :						
Status of access (	DPEN / RESTRICTED / CC	NFIDENTIAL				
Moratorium period	l:years, endir	ng/	200			
Conditions of acce	ess proved by (CAPITALS):	: <u>Supervisor Nam</u>	ne			
Supervisor (Signa	ture)					
Faculty:						
Author's Declarati	on: I agree the following co	onditions:				
OPEN access wor allowed to reprodu	k shall be made available i uce for any purposes.	n the Universiti N	Aalaysia Pahang only and not			
The statement itse	elf shall apply to <b>ALL</b> copie	S:				
This copy has be no quotation from	en supplied on the under n the thesis may be publi	rstanding that it shed without p	is copyright material and that roper acknowledgement.			
Restricted/confic written permission	lential work: All access an from the University Head of	id any photocopy of Department ar	ring shall be strictly subject to ad any external sponsor, if any.			
Author's signatu	re	Date: .				
users declaratior <i>I undertake to u</i>	users declaration: for signature during any Moratorium period (Not Open work): <i>I undertake to uphold the above conditions:</i>					
Date Na	Date         Name (CAPITALS)         Signature         Address					

# **Evaluation of Activated Carbon from Waste Tyre for the Adsorption of 2-chlorophenol**

## KANCHANA MANIRAJAH

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements For the award of the degree of Bachelor of Chemical Engineering

## Faculty of Chemical & Natural Resources Engineering UNIVERSITI MALAYSIA PAHANG

DECEMBER 2016

© KANCHANA MANIRAJAH (2017)

## SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

We hereby declare that we have checked this thesis and in our opinion, this thesis is adequate in terms of scope and quality for the award of the degree of Bachelor of Chemical Engineering.

Signature	:
Name of main supervisor	: DR. NURUL AINI MOHAMED RAZALI
Position	: LECTURER
Date	:

## STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work in this thesis is my own except for quotations and summaries which have been duly acknowledged. The thesis has not been accepted for any degree and is not concurrently submitted for award of other degree.

Signature:Name: KANCHANA MANIRAJAHID Number: KA 13102Date: 15 DECEMBER 2016

Dedication

To my parents, lecturers, and God.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to extend my sincere gratitude and appreciation to the following individuals and organizations in their contributions towards making this research a success

- I. First and foremost my supervisor, Dr. Nurul Aini Mohamed Razali for her patience, guidance and mentorship. Her knowledge and undying support and encouragement were the main drive for me to complete this thesis successfully.
- II. My family for their understanding of my journey and their extraordinary support.
- III. My partner in undergraduate research project (PSM), Miss Sheela Sukumaran for her constant support and for willing to spend time during odd hours to discuss and share technical and theoretical knowledge.
- IV. Mr Adib Ronalto for all trainings given in operating and handling the various equipments related to this research.
- V. My friends for their unwavering moral support and companionship.
- VI. The Faculty of Chemical and Natural Resources Engineering's Gas Engineering Lab and its staffs for providing the necessary infrastructure, expertise and chemicals in order for me to complete my research.

#### ABSTRACT

A mesoporous carbon developed from waste rubber tire, characterized by chemical analysis where firstly reported with X-ray diffraction (XRD) indicating the presence of activated carbon and revealed a predominantly amorphous structure of the tire-derived activated carbon. Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM) images resulted in surface structure of the activated carbon. Fourier transform Infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) showed the presence of functional group. Hence, in this research activated carbon was used as an adsorbent for the removal of 2-chlorophenol. Surface area, porosity, and density were determined. The adsorption of the 2-chlorophenol over the prepared adsorbent was achieved under different adsorbate concentration, pH and adsorbent dosage. By percolating the 2-chlorophenol solution through UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, the bulk removal of the chlorine was carried out and necessary parameters were determined to find out the percentage removal. The synthesized activated carbon as an effective adsorbent dosage for the removal of 2-chlorophenol due to its excellent stability and chemical inertness and is known to be biocompatible.

#### ABSTRAK

Karbon dibuat daripada sisa tayar getah, ciri-ciri analisis kimia di mana pertama dilaporkan dengan sinar-X pembelauan (XRD) menunjukkan kehadiran karbon diaktifkan dan mendedahkan struktur terutamanya amorfus karbon diaktifkan tayar yang diperolehi. Field Pelepasan Scanning Electron Microscope imej (FESEM) menyebabkan struktur permukaan karbon yang diaktifkan. Fourier spektroskopi inframerah (FTIR) menunjukkan kehadiran kumpulan berfungsi. Oleh itu, dalam kajian ini karbon diaktifkan digunakan sebagai penjerap untuk penyingkiran 2-klorofenol. kawasan permukaan, keliangan dan ketumpatan ditentukan. Penjerapan 2-klorofenol lebih penjerap disediakan telah dicapai di bawah kepekatan bahan terjerap yang berbeza, pH dan penjerap dos. Oleh penelusan penyelesaian 2-klorofenol melalui UV-vis meresap pantulan spektroskopi, penyingkiran sebahagian besar daripada klorin telah dijalankan dan parameter yang perlu ditentukan untuk mengetahui penyingkiran 2-klorofenol kerana kestabilan.

#### VIII Abstract Abstrak IX Table of Contents Х List of Figures XI List of Tables XII List of Abbreviations XIII **CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION** 1.3 Background of the study 14 1.3 Motivation 16 1.3 **Problem Statement** 16 1.3 Objectives 17 Scopes of study 17 1.3 **CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW** 2.1 2-Chlorophenol 18 2.2 Definition of Activated carbon 19 2.3 Pyrolysis 20 2.4 Activation 23 2.5 Nickel / Zirconia / Activated carbon as adsorbent 24 **CHAPTER THREE - MATERIALS AND METHODS** 3.1 Materials 28 3.2 Method 29 **CHAPTER FOUR – RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS** 4.1 Overview 39 4.2 Adsorbent Characterization 39 Screening of Best Range of Parameters 4.3 45 **CHAPTER FIVE – CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS** 5.1 Overview 48 5.2 Conclusion 48 5.3 Recommendations 49 **CHAPTER SIX – REFERENCES** 50 **CHAPTER SEVEN – APPENDICES** 47

## **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Title	Page
Figure 1	World tyre global production (European Tyre & Rubber	14
	Industry, 2011)	
Figure 2.1	Pore structure of activated carbon (Sushrut Chemicals,	20
	2006)	
Figure 2.2	Types of activated carbon (Medaad Advance Chemical &	21
	Technical Solutions, n.d.)	
Figure 2.3	An example of production of activated carbon from waste	23
	tire.	
Figure 2.4	Two-dimensional representation of carbon activation (Lehmann, 1998)	24
Figure 2.5	Flow sheet of activated carbon production by physical	25
	activation (Antoniou, 2014)	
Figure 2.6	Flow sheet of activated carbon production by physical activation (Antoniou, 2014)	26
Figure 3.1	Flowchart of methodology	29
Figure 3.2	Activated Carbon extracted from waste tyres	31
Figure 3.3	Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope	32
Figure 3.4	Fourier transform infra-red spectrometry	33
Figure 3.5	Bragg-Brentano parafocusing geometry	34
Figure 3.6	Calculated diffraction patterns for various	35
Figure 3.7	UV-Visible spectrophotometer	38
Figure 4.1	Complete XRD patterns for Activated Carbon	40
Figure 4.2	FESEM images	41
Figure 4.3	FTIR spectrum of AC	42
Figure 4.4	Typical adsorption/desorption isotherm for AC	43
Figure 4.5	Effect of concentrations	45
Figure 4.6	Effect of pH on removal efficiency of 2-CP	46
Figure 4.7	Effect of adsorbent dosage on removal efficiency of 2-CP	47

## LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Title	Page
Table 2.1	Pore Sizes of Activated Carbon (Reinose, 1985)	20
Table 2.2	List of local producer commercial activated carbons in Malaysia	22
Table 3.1	Properties of materials used and their applications	28
Table 3.2	Summary of analytical instruments used	36
Table 4.1	Functional group according to wavenumber	42
Table 4.2	Estimates Of BET Specific Surface Area, Pore Volume % Average Pore Diameter for Adsorbents Researched	44

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Activated Carbon
2-CP	2- Chlorophenol
DCM	Dichloromethane
Zr	Zirconia
VOC	Volatile organic compound
PAC	Powder Activated Carbon
GAC	Granulated Activated Carbon
КОН	Potassium Hydroxide
HCL	Hydrochloric Acid
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Hydrogen Peroxide
N <sub>2</sub>	Nitrogen Gas
CO <sub>2</sub>	Carbon Dioxide
HNO <sub>3</sub>	Nitric Acid
BET	Brunauer-Emmet-Teller
EDX	Energy dispersive X-ray spectroscope
SEM	Scanning electron microscopy micrographs
FTIR	Fourier Transform Infrared
XRD	X-ray diffraction
UV-Spectrometer	Ultraviolet Spectrometer
EI	Electron Impact

### **CHAPTER 1**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

Generally, almost every ground transportation need is met through vehicles of any kind. Subsequently, a gigantic measure of utilized tires is produced each year all inclusive. Recent statistical data show a 5% increase of global tyres production in 2011, compared to 2010, reaching 14.68 million tons (Jatma, 2012). Asia and Oceania represent very nearly 60% of the worldwide production (Fig. 1).



Figure 1: World tyre global production (European Tyre & Rubber Industry, 2011)

The ever growing transportation industry induced serious pollution issues to the environment. The disposal of tyres represents a major environmental issue throughout the world, since the same properties that make them desirable as tyres, most notably durability, also make their disposal and reprocessing difficult. Hazards associated with scrap tires causes both health and environmental problems since most of the waste rubber tires are stockpiled (O.S. Chan, 2011).

Fire hazards in large stockpiles could consequently cause uncontrollable burning and air pollution where it will be emitting large amounts of thick black smoke and noxious gases including carcinogens. Besides that, due to the high cost of legal disposal for tyres, illegal dumping may increase and disposal of tyres is becoming more expensive, while this trend is likely to continue as landfill space becomes scarcer (Edward, 2004).

Although they constitute a problem, at the same time they provide valid opportunities for resources conservation, since they represent waste materials with great potentials as for recovering of valuable materials and fuels (Vermeulen, 2011). As waste rubber tires embodied with high amount of carbon, they were recycled likely to convert them to valuable products such as carbonaceous adsorbents. These are very extensively used in the adsorption of organic and inorganic solutes from aqueous solution. The properties of an adsorbent that are important to adsorption processes depend on the starting material and on the method used in their preparation.

Accordingly, the use of inexpensive materials such as wastes with such an aim will certainly lower the production cost of the adsorbent. At present, in fact, low- cost adsorbents are being frequently tested for heavy metal removal from contaminated water. Recycling waste tyres is definitely a challenge due to both their highly complex structure and their diverse composition (Sienkiewicz, 2012). Waste tyres can be employed as additives in road pavement or in other applications such as playground surfaces, rubber roofs, drainage systems and energy generation (Manchón-Vizuete, 2005).

Therefore, waste tyres will be used as a source for activated carbon. Some studies showed the activation of the tyre char could actually result in a product with reasonable desirable properties such as high surface area and porosity as the commercially available activated carbon (Gonzalez, 2006). It is widely accepted that the tyre chars possess higher reactivity with steam activation than carbon dioxide and the steam activated carbon had a higher BET surface area (Guillermo, 2003). The extraction of activated carbon from waste rubber tires lower the production cost and it increase the demand of activated carbon in waste water treatment industry (Gusain, 2014).

#### 1.2 Motivation

In this study, activated carbon chosen as an efficient adsorbent for removal of 2-chlorophenol due to its high surface area, large pore volume and high adsorption efficiency. Activated carbon will be extracted from waste rubber tire as it was considered an attractive source for generating activated carbon as the process was doubly effective solution for the environmental pollution where it reducing waste in a green way. Moreover, due to high content of carbon AC from waste tires effectively removes the chlorine content in 2-chlorophenol. Besides, lowering the production cost of the activated carbon, extracting activated carbon from waste gives a chance to add values to waste rubber tires and developed attractive, economical alternative to existing treatment methods.

## **1.3 Problem Statement**

Among the highest priority pollutants, chlorophenols represent an important class of very common water pollutants. Most of those recalcitrant pollutants are considered highly toxic to pose a human health hazard, due to their estrogenic, mutagenic or carcinogenic effects on mammalian as well as aquatic life. Hence for the removal of chlorophenol, activated carbon will be used as an adsorbent.

Instead of dispose the waste rubber tires which lead to ozone layer depletion, it was recycled to be used as a source for activated carbon due to high cost of activated carbon. Meanwhile, waste tires will be used as a source for activated carbon in order to protect the environment. (Dobrzyńska, 2010). One of the fundamental difficulties in extracting activated carbon from waste tires is high amount of energy will be utilized in this process.

The main purpose of the present work is to prepare highly mesoporous activated carbon from waste tyres which is suitable for adsorbing relatively large molecules. Therefore, effects of activated carbon from waste tyre for the removal of 2-chlorophenol will be investigated in this study.

## 1.4 Objectives

• To evaluate the performance of activated carbon from waste tyre for the removal of chlorine from 2-chlorophenol.

## 1.5. Scopes of study

The following are the scopes of this research:

- To investigate the performance of activated for removal of chlorine from 2chlorophenol in order to establish the optimum conditions for producing effective adsorbent.
- The performance of the activated carbon in producing the best adsorbent was investigated by manipulating the concentration of the solution at 10ppm, 30ppm, 50ppm and 100ppm and adsorbent dosage at 0.05g, 0.1g, 0.3g and 0.5g.
- In order to remove chlorine from 2-chlorophenol by using activated carbon, pH of the solution manipulated at pH 3, pH 5, pH 7 and pH 10.
- Adsorbent characterization is crucial prior experiment. Equipment such as BET Surface Area Analyzer, X-Ray Diffraction (XRD), Field Emission Scanning Microscopy (FESEM) and Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) will be used.

#### **CHAPTER 2**

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 2-chlorophenol

Many phenolic compounds are regulated as priority pollutants for environmental control because of their high toxicity to human beings even at low concentration exposure (Yagu, 2014). Chlorophenols (CPs) constitute an important class of aquatic pollutants that are present in aquatic ecosystems at concentration levels of ng/L and mg/L. Due to their toxicity and adverse effects upon human and biota, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) has classified them as toxics or hazardous pollutants (WHO, 1989).

2-Chlorophenol (2-CP), a low chlorine-substituted phenol and the precursor of the highersubstituted CPs, has been introduced into the environment *via* anthropogenic activities. Chlorophenols have been extensively used in the production of fungicides, herbicides, insecticides, pharmaceuticals, preservatives, glue, paint, fibers, leather, and as intermediates in chemical synthesis (Huong, 2016). Exposure to 2-CP may cause carcinogenic and teratogenic properties in humans and the environment.

Additionally, high amounts of chlorinated solvents were found to cause dizziness, reduce the ability to concentrate and remember, damage the nervous system, and produce an irregular heartbeat. Various treatment strategies have been applied for the removal of 2-CP from wastewater. Some of the treatment processes engaged for the removal of chlorophenols from waste water include adsorption (Gao, 2015), catalytic wet oxidation (Chaliha, 2008), biodegradation (Steinle, 2000), ozonation and electrochemical degradation (Lim, 2013). Adsorption process has been proven globally as one of the best and most effective water treatment technologies. 2-chlorophenol (2-CP) were chosen as the adsorbates in this work because of their persistence in environment as well as being characterized as carcinogenic, having strong odour and inability to biodegrade easily (Ren, 2011). Therefore, removing them from the water is very crucial.

#### 2.1.1 Adsorption

Techniques engaged for the removal of chlorophenols from wastewater include adsorption (Gao, 2015), catalytic wet oxidation (Chaliha, 2008), biodegradation (Steinle, 2000), ozonation and electrochemical degradation (Lim, 2013). Among them, adsorption technology has become an efficient and universal method of water purifications. The removal of impurities from gases and liquids by activated carbon takes place by adsorption. Adsorption is a term which describes the existence of a higher concentration of a substance at the interface between a fluid and a solid than is present in the fluid. The cost effectiveness of this technology is due to the use of effective adsorbents by converting solid waste to value-added products (T.Saleh, 2013). Moreover, adsorption technique also one of the potential method used for evaluate the performance of activated carbon on removal of 2-CP due to its high efficiency and ability to separate wide range of chlorinated compounds (Mittal, 2005).

## 2.2 Definition of Activated carbon

Increasing demand for adsorption processes in the water treatment industry enhance more researches in the production of activated carbon from alternative precursors including industrial wastes and agricultural by-products. Activated carbons with developed porous texture and high surface area have been widely used as pollution control adsorbents to adsorb a range of pollutant gases from flue gas streams (Amal, 2016).

Activated carbon was selected as effective adsorbent for removal of 2-CP due to its high adsorption capability and high porosity which can help to enrich the organic substrate around the adsorbent, promoting the pollutant transfer process and hence increasing the efficiency (Youji Li M. M., 2008). Besides their high relative abundance and easy processing costs, such precursors have been identified to have high carbon content, are insoluble in nature, have good chemical stability, high mechanical strength and also have a favorable surface

chemistry (V.Gupta, 2014). Pore structure of activated carbon (from TEM) is shown in Figure 2.1



Figure 2.1 : Pore structure of activated carbon

<b>Table 2.1</b> :	Pore Sizes	of Activated	Carbon	(Reinose,	1985)
--------------------	------------	--------------	--------	-----------	-------

Macro pores	Pores with diameters larger than 50 nm	
Mesopores	Pores with diameters between 2 nm and 50 nm	
Micropores	Pores with diameters less than 2 nm	

## 2.2.1 Types of activated carbon and its applications

Activated carbons are complex products that are difficult to classify on the basis of their behaviour, surface characteristics, and preparation methods. However, some broad classification is made for general purpose based on their physical characteristics. The types of activated carbon are powder, granular and pellet. It is classified according to its particle sizes and shape, and each type has its specific application.

The size of the powder activated carbon (PAC) is less than 1.0 mm with an average diameter between 15 and 25 mm. Thus they present a large surface-to-volume ratio with a small diffusion distance. PAC is made up of crushed or ground carbon particles. PAC is not commonly used in a dedicated vessel, owing to the high head loss that would occur. PAC is generally added directly to other process units, such as raw water intakes, rapid mix basins, clarifiers, and gravity filters. Powdered activated carbons are mainly used in liquid phase adsorption and flue gas treatment (New World Encyclopedia, 2009).

Granulated activated carbon (GAC) has a relatively larger particle size compared to powdered activated carbon and consequently, presents a smaller external surface. The size range is from 0.5 to 4.0 mm. This type of activated carbons is commonly used in water treatment facilities where it removes organic constituents and residual disinfectants in water supplies. This not only improves taste and minimizes health hazards. GAC is a favoured water treatment technique because of its multifunctional nature and the fact that it adds nothing detrimental to the treated water (DeSilva, 2000).

Meanwhile, pellet activated carbon consists of extruded and cylindrical shaped activated carbon with diameters in the range of 4-7 mm and 8-15 mm length. Pellets activated carbon is mainly used for gas phase applications because of their low pressure drop, high mechanical strength and low dust content (New World Encyclopedia, 2009).



Figure 2.2: Types of activated carbon

## 2.2.2 Various sources of activated carbon

Activated carbons consist of interconnected cavities between defective graphene layers, which result in a high degree of porosity and an extended internal surface area. It is well known that the porosity and the surface chemistry of the activated carbons depend on the raw material from which they are made and the manufacture process. Various sources for production of activated carbon-like material such as peanut shell, bagasse, sawdust, bamboo, cherry stones, and waste tire rubber have been developed by researchers for various applications (O.S. Chan, 2011).

Name of producer	Raw material used	Type of activated carbon	Surface area (m²/g)
<b>Century Chemical</b>	Sawdust	Sawdust	800-1000
Works,	charcoal	charcoal	
Penang			
Effigen Sdn Bhd	Coconut	Granular and	-
	shell	powder form	
Laju Carbon	Coconut shell	Granular, pellets	500-2500
Product Sdn.		and powder form	
Bhd (LCP),			
Selangor.			

Table 2.2: List of local producer commercial activated carbons in Malaysia

## 2.2.3 Waste tires as source of activated carbon

An interesting environmental and sustainable concept is to convert waste materials to activated carbons which are then used in pollution control applications. In this study, activated carbon will be extracted from waste rubber tires. Tire rubber is a mixture of different elastomers such as natural rubber, butadiene rubber, and styrene butadiene rubber plus other additives like carbon black, sulphur, and zinc oxide. Approximately 32% by weight of the waste tire is mainly constituted of carbon black in which the carbon content is as high as 70–75 wt. % (Saleh T. A., 2013). As waste rubber tires consists high amount of carbon, they were recycled. Recycling

waste tires is definitely a challenge because of both their profoundly complex structure and their diverse composition (Sienkiewicz, 2012).

Some studies showed the activation of the tire char could actually result in a product with reasonable desirable properties such as high surface area and porosity as the commercially available activated carbon (Gonzalez, 2006). It is widely accepted that the tire chars possess higher reactivity with steam activation than carbon dioxide and the steam activated carbon had a higher BET surface area in excess of 1000m2/g (Miguel, 2002). The use of inexpensive materials such as wastes with certainly lower the production cost of the activated carbon and it increase the demand for activated carbon in waste water treatment industry (Gupta, 2012). This can add great value to this low-cost material and also have dual-environmental benefit.



Figure 2.3: An example of production of activated carbon from waste tire.

## **2.3** Pyrolysis

The terms pyrolysis means to convert organic matter to elemental carbon at high temperature in the absence of oxygen. The thermal decomposition of the organic matrix in the pyrolysis yields three types of products as chars, tars and gases. The char obtained from pyrolysis has a high carbon content that can be suitable to use in the activated carbon production. This process drives off the volatiles matter to form char. The char obtained normally has low surface area and adsorption capacity since the porous structure is not well developed. This pyrolysis process must take place at 400–700°C (Ahmad, 2006).

## **2.4** Activation

Previous studies suggested that the activation process consisted of micropore formation, followed by pore enlargement in which the resulting carbons will have high BET surface area. At 40% burn-off, the micropore volume reached the maximum, and beyond this point mesopores grew at the expense of micro- pores but exhibits an increasing trend in the BET surface area. A similar phenomenon, reported by different researchers, stated that pores developed on highly activated samples, with a burn-off of 80–90%, will be mainly mesoporous and macro porous since both activation will be widened the existing pores and created new porosity. There are two main activation process; physical activation and chemical activation (Edward, 2004). The activation process creates or increases porosity on the activated carbon surface as illustrated in Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.4: Two-dimensional representation of carbon activation (Lehmann, 1998)

#### **2.4.1** Physical Activation

Physical activation using carbon dioxide or steam as oxidizing agents are the most commonly used processes in the production of tire carbons. It is a conventional manufacturing process of activated carbon. The overall process usually consists of two steps: thermal pyrolysis at a relatively low temperature (typically 400-600C) in the presence of nitrogen or helium to break down the cross-linkage between carbon atoms, and activation with activating gas at 800-1000 °C for further development of the porosity of carbon.

Initially, the raw material undergoes a size- reduction process and then is fed to the pyrolysis reactor for its de-volatilization. Subsequently, the received product is activated in a second reactor with steam (or  $CO_2$ ); the produced activated carbon is cooled and further treated, according to the physical form requested, either granular (Granular Activated Carbon – GAC) or powdered (Powdered Activated Carbon – PAC). If a pelletized activated carbon is proposed to be produced, modifications (additional mechanical equipment) on the process are required. The process is presented in a simplified flow sheet (Antoniou, 2014).



Figure 2.5: Flow sheet of activated carbon production by physical activation (Antoniou, 2014)

## **2.4.2** Chemical Activation

During chemical activation, the raw material is impregnated with the activating agent, mostly KOH and H3PO4; ZnCl2 is not used in current practice, due to environmental concerns regarding Zn emissions to environment. Chemical activation presents several advantages and disadvantages compared to physical activation. The main advantages are the higher yield, lower temperature of activation, less activation time and generally, higher development of porosity. Among the disadvantages, the activating agents are more expensive (KOH and NaOH vs. CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O) and it is also necessary an additional washing stage (Macia, 2014). The process is presented in a simplified flow sheet (Antoniou, 2014).



Figure 2.6: Flow sheet of activated carbon production by physical activation (Antoniou, 2014)

## **2.5** Activated carbon as adsorbent

From findings, waste tires have been a agricultural waste materials with plausible chance of being a good precursor material for activated carbon productions. Activated carbon will be resulted in increasing the surface properties which might be attributed to the increase in microporosity (as confirmed by the reduction in average pore diameter) (Khayoon, 2013). To the best of our knowledge no study has been done on the adsorption applications of pure activated carbon from waste tires using potassium hydroxide as chemical activating agent for the removal of 2-cp.

## CHAPTER 3

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## 3.1 Materials

Reagents	Molecular	State of	Application	
	Weight, g/mol	material		
Potassium	56.1056	Liquid	Carbon Activation	
Hydroxide				
Hydrochloric	36.4609	Liquid	Pre-treatment of adsorbent	
Acid				
Hydrogen	34.0147	Liquid	Pre-treatment of activated	
Peroxide			carbon	
Activated	-	Solid	Preparation of adsorbent	
carbon				
Nitrogen Gas	14.007	Gas	Carbon Activation	
2-	128.56	Liquid	Adsorption process	
Chlorophenol				

# **Table 3.1:** Properties of materials used and their applications

## 3.2 Method

Figure 3.1 summarises the overall methodology in order to extract activated carbon from waste rubber tires and preparation of adsorbent



Figure 3.1: Flowchart of methodology

#### **3.2.1** Preparation of activated carbon

In this work, the activated carbons produced from the waste materials were prepared by pyrolysis followed by chemical activation with alkali metals. Pyrolysis was carried out in an electrical furnace. The reactor will be fully instrumented in terms of gas flow control, furnace temperature control and temperature monitoring throughout. Briefly, waste rubber tires will be cleaned by removing the iron wires from the tire. Then, the waste rubber tires cut into small pieces and washed thoroughly with deionized water, and then dried in an oven at 100 °C for 2h (Tawfik, 2016). Then, the granules heated up to 300 °C in furnace for 3 h to separate the black tire crude oil, distilled diesel oil and produced oil.

As shown in figure 3.2, the waste tyre held in a sample crucible within the furnace and heated at a temperature of 500°C for 5 h in the presence of nitrogen gas to break down the cross-linkage between carbon atoms (200 ml min<sup>-</sup>1). Typical characteristics of the derived pyrolysis char have been reported previously with the char consisting of 78.8 wt.% fixed carbon, 2.0 wt.% volatiles and a high ash content of 18.9 wt. %. Elemental analysis of the char will be 70.1 wt. % carbon, 0.3 wt. % hydrogen, 0.83 wt. % nitrogen and 4.78 wt. % sulphur (Al-Rahbi, 2016).

Then, the chars recovered from the pyrolysis reactor oxidized all adhering impurities on the surface of the adsorbent upon treatment with a hydrogen peroxide solution. For this purpose, the product treated with  $H_2O_2$  (6% concentration) with a ratio of 1 g/20 mL carbon/ $H_2O_2$ . The mixture (carbon and acid solution) stirred and heated at 60°C for 24 h in oven. Then, the chars washed thoroughly with deionized water and dried at 110°C for 2h.

The chars ground and sieved to 1.5–2mm particle size and dried at a temperature of 105°C overnight. Although a wide variety of activating agents are known, using KOH in making carbons has become popular in recent studies (Sun, 1997). The char physically soaked with KOH at 30°C for 30 minutes with a weight ratio of 1:3. Chars dried in oven at 60°C for 2h. The activations was take place at an activation temperature of 700°C in the presence of nitrogen gas (200 ml min<sup>-1</sup>). In this case, a higher activation temperature will be chosen for treating samples so that a shorter activation period could be applied. The activation period was set at 2h 30 minutes. The authors also reported that a smaller particle size (0.4 mm) of the tyre

rubber will be used and favourable as it would allow good surface contact with KOH (Edward, 2004).

The impregnation ratio = weight (KOH) (g) / weight (char) (g)

Further modification was accomplished via HCl treatment in order to develop oxygen surface groups on the rubber tire carbon. For this purpose, the product treated with HCl (37M concentration). The mixture (carbon and acid solution) stirred and heated at 100°C for 24 h. Then, it washed thoroughly with deionized water and dried at 100°C (T.Saleh, 2013).



Figure 3.2: Activated carbon extracted from waste tyres

## 3.2.2 Adsorbent characterization

Analysis done to evaluate carbon bond formed in adsorbent using certain instruments for reaction study. Adsorbent characterisation is important as it enables the study of the adsorbent's chemical & physical properties and their effects in reaction kinetics under various conditions. The following are the instruments used in the catalyst characterisation part.

## 3.2.2.1 Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET)

The textural properties such as surface area, pore volume and average pore diameter of the developed adsorbent characterized by nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms at  $-197 \circ C$  using Micrometrics ASAP 2020 surface area and porosity analyser (Micrometrics Instruments Corporation, USA) (Khayoon, 2013). Prior to nitrogen adsorption, samples were prepared on the degassing unit of the device for removal of water from the surface of the carbon. All the products were outgassed at 120°C for 4h, which would not result any structural changes on the samples.

## 3.2.2.1 Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)

FESEM is used to produce images of a sample by scanning it with a focused beam of electrons. The electrons interact with atoms in the sample, producing various signals that can be detected provides information about the sample's surface topography and composition. Activated carbon sent to the Central Lab of University Malaysia Pahang to be scanned. The analysis instrument that will be used there is the JEOL/JSM-7800F Thermal FESEM instrument with accelerating voltage employed to be in the range of 5-15 kV. Figure 3.9 shows an example of an image taken by the FESEM unit.



Figure 3.3: Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope

## **3.2.3.4 Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR)**

The performance of surface functional groups will be identified. The IR spectra for the synthesized c will be collected on Perkin- Elmer System 2000 spectrometer using the KBr disk method. The spectra will be recorded in the range of 2000–400 cm–1 (Khayoon, 2013)



Figure 3.4: Fourier transform infra-red spectrometry

#### 3.2.3.5 X-ray diffraction XRD

X-ray diffractometer (XRD) is an instrumental technique which involves phase identification, and quantitative and qualitative analysis of materials. It is based on the interference of monochromatic x-rays and crystalline sample (Cullity & Stock, 2001). Figure 3.8 shows the schematic of XRD. The generated rays were initially generated by a cathode ray tube (F), and the x-rays will be filtered to produce monochromatic radiation (SS1) aligned and concentrated towards the sample (S). The interference produced (SS2) were corresponded to Bragg's Law (Equation 3.1) (Lachance & Claisse, 1995). After detecting (AS) the diffracted x-rays, the sample was scanned through a range of 20 angles to identify all possible diffraction directions of the sample's crystal lattice structure.



Figure 3.5: Bragg-Brentano parafocusing geometry (Jenkins, 2000)

The mean crystallite size can be calculated via the Scherrer equation (Equation 3.2)

$$D = \frac{k_{Sch}\lambda}{\beta_d \cos\theta} \tag{3.2}$$

Where D is the crystallite size (Å),  $k_{Sch}$  is the Scherrer constant,  $\lambda$  is the wavelength is x-ray,  $\beta_d$  is the angular width if half-maximum intensity (degree) and  $\theta$  is Bragg's angle (degree). In current research, the samples were irridated by Ni-filtered CuK $\alpha$  with a wavelength of 1.542 Å at 40mA and 45kV and scanning was done from 10°C (283K) to 80°C (353K) at 4 min<sup>-1</sup>. The XRD equipment that was used was Rigaku Miniflex II.

The crystalline structure of the catalyst may be determined by the following method suggested by (Cullity & Stock, 2001). Each of the four common cubic lattices types is recognizable by their characteristic sequence of diffraction lines, and these in turn are explained by their sequential s values.

Simple cubic: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, ...
Body-centered cubic: 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, ...
Face-centered cubic: 3, 4, 8, 11, 12, 16, ...
Diamond cubic: 3, 8, 11, 16, ....
For simplicity, the sequences are explained in the Figure 3.8



Figure 3.6: Calculated diffraction patterns for various lattices (Cullity & Stock, 2001)

NO	Application	Purpose	Location
1	Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET)	<ul> <li>Surface area, pore volume, average pore diameter will be characterized</li> </ul>	FIST Lab
2	Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM)	• Surface morphology of the developed adsorbent	Central Lab
3	Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR)	<ul> <li>Performance of surface functional groups identified</li> <li>Change in modified surface of adsorbent</li> </ul>	FKKSA Lab
4	X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)	Crystalline structure of adsorbent investigated	FIST Lab
5	UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy	Concentration removal     of 2-chlorophenol	FKKSA LAB

Table 3.2: Summary of analytical instruments used

## 3.2.4 Adsorption of 2-chlorophenol

The equilibrium adsorption studied by using batch mode adsorption. A constant mass of adsorbent (0.1 g) was contacted with 50 mL of 2-CP solutions of different initial concentration from 10 to 100 mg/L. The bottles were sealed and placed in a shaker until equilibrium was reached. The time required for reaching an equilibrium 2-chlorophenol concentration is the equilibrium time for adsorption. Samples were then withdrawn by syringe, filtered through 0.22m syringe filter, diluted to the appropriate level.

The effect of initial pH (3–10) on the adsorption of the 2-CPs by AC was conducted by adjusting the solution pH with 0.1M HCl and 0.1M KOH solutions and measured using a pH metre (Martini instrument, Mi 150). The 2-CPs initial concentration was 10mg/L with AC dosage of 0.1g at temperature of 30°C. Experiment repeated by varying the adsorbent dosage at (0.05g, 0.1 g, 0.3g and 0.5g) with constant concentration of 10mg/L at pH 5. The percentage removal of CPs (R%) calculated using Eq 1.

#### 3.2.5 Analysis of 2-Chlorophenol

Samples were analysed using a Varian Cary 1E UV/Vis spectrophotometer at their maximum wavelength of 284nm. The percentage removals (% R) is to determine the residual equilibrium liquid-phase 2-CP concentration. The equilibrium adsorption capacity, qe (mg/g), at different 2-CP concentrations. The percentage removals (% R) of the adsorbates (CPs) were calculated using Eq. (1).

$$CPsremoval (\%) = \frac{Co - Ce}{Co}$$
 Equation 1

where Co and Ce are the liquid-phase concentrations at initial and equilibrium states (mg/L), respectively. The equilibrium amount of CPs adsorbed per unit mass of adsorbent, qe (mg/g), was calculated by Eq. (2):

$$qe = \frac{(\text{Co} - \text{Ce})\text{V}}{W}$$
 Equation 2

where qe (mg/g) is the equilibrium amount of adsorbate (CPs) adsorbed per unit mass of adsorbent (AC); V (L) is the volume of the solution and W(g) is the mass of the adsorbent used.



Figure 3.7: UV-Visible spectrophotometer

#### **CHAPTER 4**

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## 4.1 Overview

This chapter details out the results and discussions of the adsorption of 2-CP using activated carbon from waste tires as adsorbent. Adsorbent characterization will be discussed using established techniques such as, X-Ray Diffraction (XRD), Field Emission Scanning Microscopy (FESEM), Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) and BET Surface Area Analysis. The reaction study will be outlined the optimal conditions for the adsorption process to take place.

## 4.2Adsorbent Characterization

## 4.2.1 X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-Ray Diffraction was employed for phase identification in terms of qualitative and quantitative analysis on the fresh adsorbent. The XRD analysis was done using the Rigaku Mniflex II with the notion of determining the adsorbent's crystalline phase. Figure 4.1 shows the complete pattern of adsorbent.



Figure 4.1: Complete XRD patterns for Activated Carbon

Based on Figure 4.1, pattern exhibits peaks similar to crystalline structures. Peaks at 20-30° and 40-50° indicated presence of AC which is disorderly stacked up by carbon rings. Thus, the activated carbon obtained can be identified as the carbon with amorphous structure, there are massive microcrystal with turbostratic graphite structure in the activated carbon prepared, and the two obvious diffraction peaks represent, respectively.

It can also be seen from figure, in the diffraction spectrum of the activated carbon prepared, its microcrystalline crystal face appears at  $2\theta = 25.43$  and 43.89. From Bragg equation  $2dhkl\sin\theta = n\lambda$ , we can see that plane spacing *d* of diffraction crystal face for activated carbon is relatively larger, indicating that the turbostratic degree of the activated carbon prepared is relatively apparente. The (1 0 0) crystal surface peak of activated carbon prepared is more gentle and stronger.

As analyzed above, the microcrystalline structure of activated carbon tended to mess stratification and carbon structure appears disordering, thus more developed pore structure of the activated carbon was formed, at the same time, the adsorptive ability was enhanced (Tang, 2012).

## 4.2.2 Field Emission Scanning Microscopy (FESEM)

The morphology of the activated carbon produced from waste rubber tires was characterized by FESEM, Fig. 4.2.



Figure 4.2: FESEM images under magnification (a) 1000x (b) 30000x and (c) 80000x

The FESEM image shows the porous structure of the activated carbon. The image exhibits three distinct morphologies. First morphological region is granular (the granules are 0.5  $\mu$ m diameter), and second and third morphological region can be observed in the image (the granules are 100nm diameter respectively). High resolution of the image of the developed activated carbon indicates that there are different pore structures in the adsorbent. The basic parameters for an effective adsorbent are high surface area and pore structure. When the porosity increases, the surface area also increases (T.Saleh, 2013).

#### 4.2.3 Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR)

FTIR spectroscopy is an analytical tool for qualitatively determine the chemical changes and functional group in the adsorbent. The FT-IR spectrum of AC adsorbent is illustrated in Fig. 4.3

Wavenumber (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Functional Group
1030 - 1155	C- 0
1550 - 1650	NH <sub>2</sub>
600 - 400	Aromatic ring
2500 - 3500	О-Н
2880 - 2500	C-H
3300 - 3500	N-H

Table 4.1: Functional group according to wavenumber (Li et al., 2008)



Figure 4.3: FTIR spectrum of AC

Figure 4.3 shows FTIR spectrum of AC. The first peak at 2665.16 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates the strong bonded functional group of O-H and C-H stretching absorption. Next, the band centered on 1992.51 cm<sup>-1</sup> indicates enhancement in the aromatic C=C groups (carbonization). Then the peak at 996.76 cm<sup>-1</sup> represents C-O stretching functional group. Fingerprint region occurs towards the end. Fingerprint region is the region consists of absorptions due to all other single bonds (except H-Z), making it often a complex region that is very difficult to analyze.

#### 4.2.4 Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area measurements

The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area of AC was obtained from the results of  $N_2$  adsorption/desorption measurements at 77 K using Thermo-Scientific Surfer. Figure 4.4 shows the adsorption/desorption isotherms for the researched adsorbent. Based on the isotherm data, the surface area, pore volume and pore diameter were determined with the equations covered in Chapter 3.



Figure 4.4: Typical adsorption/desorption isotherm for AC

The isotherms produced by AC showed type IV adsorption characteristics according to IUPAC classification (Gao, 2015). The hysteresis loop was determined to be type H3 due to the type of capillary condensation taking place in its mesopores. Type IV isotherm is usually attributed to monolayer-multilayer adsorption since it follows a similar part of the corresponding part of a Type II isotherm obtained with the given adsorptive on the similar surface area as the adsorbent in a non-porous form (Sing, 1982). Table 4.2 summarizes the BET surface area and pore volume and pore diameter of the researched adsorbent. The BET specific surface area was analyzed using the BET method while the pore volumes and average pore diameters were computed by BJH method which analysis result was available along with the BET test results. According to the results, AC possesses high specific surface area and pore volume the other adsorbents. However, the average pore diameter for the current researched adsorbent is slightly lower than other adsorbents.

		<b>_ _ _ _</b>		
Adsorbents	BET specific surface	Pore volume	Average pore	Researchers
	area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	(cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	diameter (Å)	
AC	62.3489	0.9592	615.383	(T.Saleh,
				2013)
ACZnO	15.1786	0.3041	801.6115	(T.Saleh,
				2013)
ZrSAC4	115.07	0.08	N/A	(P.Suresh,
				2014)
AC	207.8876	0.581670	126.476	Current
				Research

 Table 4.2: Estimates Of BET Specific Surface Area, Pore Volume % Average Pore

 Diameter for Adsorbents Researched

# 4.3 Screening of the Best Range of Concentration, pH and Adsorbent dosage on removal of 2-chlorophenol

This study is done to determine the best range for all parameters for further optimization process. Basically, the low and high levels of every parameter were examined. The parameters involved in this study were Concentration, pH and enzyme concentration.

## 4.3.1 Effect of Concentration

The effect of concentration on the adsorption capacity of chlorinated hydrocarbons by using AC at different concentrations is illustrated in Figure 4.5. The adsorption of chlorinated hydrocarbons rapidly increased with contact time and then proceeded at a slower rate until the equilibrium was achieved. The rapid adsorption was achieved at 10 mg/L. The adsorption process takes place rapidly at the initial step on the external surface of the adsorbent followed by a slower internal diffusion process (Gialamouidis, 2010). The rapid adsorption at the initial step is due to the presence of a large number of vacant active sites observed after a certain time indicated that the uptake of the solute molecules was made difficult due to the repulsive forces between the solute molecules on the surface of the AC as well as in the bulk phases. Thus it takes some time to reach equilibrium (Mall, 2005).



Figure 4.5: Effect of concentrations

#### 4.3.2 Effect of pH on adsorption

Figure 4.6 indicates the influences of pH on adsorption of 2-CP. Removal of chlorinated hydrocarbons were examined in pH range between 3 and 10. Adsorption was attributed to the acidic character of the solute molecules. In terms of pH, it signifying that endothermic nature of the process with acidic solution pH being the most favorable for the adsorption where its capacity increase at pH 5 because 2-CP is a weak acid and it associated with the electron withdrawal effect of the chlorine substitution on the aromatic ring thus reducing the overall electron density of the aromatic ring of the adsorbate (László, 2004).



Figure 4.6: Effect of pH on removal efficiency of 2-CP

#### 4.3.3 Effect of adsorbent dosage

The amount of the adsorbent is considered a significant factor because it can identify the capacity of the adsorption for a given initial concentration of the adsorbate. The effect of AC dosage on the adsorption of chlorinated hydrocarbons illustrated in Figure 4.7. Various adsorbent dosage utilized for adsorption of 2-CP at initial concentration 10 mg/L, temperature 25 °C and shaking time 30 min. Figure 4.8 shows that as the adsorbent dosage increased, the percent removal of chlorinated hydrocarbons increased from 96.98% to 99.43%. As seen in figure below, increase in adsorption sites for a constant concentration relatively increase the performance on AC on adsorption of 2-CP.



Figure 4.7: Effect of adsorbent dosage on removal efficiency of 2-CP

#### **5** CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Overview

This chapter provides the overall conclusions to the current research based on significant results obtained from adsorbent physicochemical studies and reaction studies of AC. Besides that, recommendations for future research were also included.

## 5.2 Conclusions

This research has notably demonstrated that wet impregnation-synthesized AC adsorbent was effective for removal of chlorine from 2-chlorophenol.

XRD patterns exhibited peaks which indicated presence of AC and through further analysis it was deduced that the crystalline structure of the adsorbent is face-centered cubic (FCC). Furthermore, N<sub>2</sub> physisorption results showed that the pore volume and average pore diameter of the researched adsorbent is relatively small compared to other researched adsorbents which confirms that the type of alumina used consisted mainly of alpha typed particles. The BET surface area was the highest. The adsorbent was found to show type IV adsorption FESEM images also supported the BET surface area results and at the same time illustrated the amorphous crystal structure of the researched adsorbent. In addition, FTIR analysis indicates the strong bonded functional group of O-H and C-H stretching absorption.

Adsorption studies showed that rapid adsorption was achieved at 10 ppm (mg/L) whereby it removed high amount of 2-CP. In terms of pH, it signifying that endothermic nature of the process with acidic solution pH being the most favourable for the adsorption where its capacity increase at pH 5 because 2-CP is a weak acid and it associated with the electron withdrawal effect of the chlorine substitution on the aromatic ring. Performance of AC effective at 0.5g of adsorbent dosage where it AC removed larger amount of chlorine from 2-CP. The studies reveal that AC derived from waste rubber tires possess high adsorption capacity hence it could be employed effectively as low-cost adsorbents for removal of chlorophenols.

## 5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings from this research, some suggestions are proposed in order to explore and strengthen the prospects of adsorption of 2-CP. The suggestions are as follows;

- In the current study AC was used as the adsorbent. It is suggested that different types of promoters to be researched for this process as well such as other group metals such as Zn, Zr and cerium in order to obtain the best yields. Similar work has been done for sorption of DCM using AC/ZnO by (Tawfik, 2015) and it is suggested that similar methods to be tried for adsorption.
- In the current study, adsorbent characterization and reaction studies were researched. Nevertheless, more research could have been done on the adsorbent studied. It is suggested that used adsorbent characterization and longevity tests to be explored to reinforce this adsorbent's credibility.

#### 6.1 **REFERENCES**

- Al-Rahbi, A. S. (2016). Thermal decomposition and gasification of biomass pyrolysis gases using a hot bed of waste derived pyrolysis char. *Bioresource Technology*, 204, 71-79.
- Amal. (2016). Production of activated carbons from waste tyres for low temperature NOx control. Waste management (New York, N.Y.), 49, 188-95.
- Antoniou. (2014). Activation of end of life tyres pyrolytic char for enhancing viability of pyrolysis – Critical review, analysis and recommendations for a hybrid dual system. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 39*, 1053-1073.
- Cazorla. (2004). Activation of coal tar pitch carbon fibres: Physical activation vs. chemical activation. *Carbon, 42*, 1361-1364.
- Chaliha. (2008). Catalytic wet oxidation of 2-chlorophenol, 2,4-dichlorophenol and 2,4,6-trichlorophenol in water with Mn(II)-MCM41. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, *139*, 575-588.
- Chan, O. (2011). Preparation and characterisation of demineralised tyre derived activated carbon. *Carbon, 49*, 4674-4687.
- Deo, I. (2005). Adsorptive removal of malachite green dye from aqueous solution by bagasse fly ash and activated carbon-kinetic study and equilibrium isotherm analyses. *Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects*, 264, 17-28.
- Díaz. (2007). Activated carbon supported Ni-Ca: Influence of reaction parameters on activity and stability of catalyst on methane reformation. *Fuel*, *86*, 1337-1344.
- Dobrzyńska. (2010). Chlorinated Volatile Organic Compounds—Old, However, Actual Analytical and Toxicological Problem. *Critical Reviews in Analytical Chemistry*, 40, 41-57.
- Edward. (2004). Production of active carbons from waste tyres—a review. *Carbon, 42*, 2789-2805.
- *European Tyre & Rubber Industry*. (2011). Retrieved from http://www.etrma.org/uploads/Modules/Documentsmanager/20120612-etrmastatistics-2011.pdf
- Fidalgo. (2010). Synthesis of carbon-supported nickel catalysts for the dry reforming of CH4. Fuel Processing Technology, 91, 765-769.

- Gao. (2015). Optimization of high surface area activated carbon production from Enteromorpha prolifra with low-dose activating agent. *Fuel Processing Technology*, 132, 180-187.
- Gialamouidis, D. (2010). Equilibrium, thermodynamic and kinetic studies on biosorption of Mn(II) from aqueous solution by Pseudomonas sp., Staphylococcus xylosus and Blakeslea trispora cells. *Journal of Hazardous Material*.
- González. (2006). Preparation of activated carbons from used tyres by gasification with steam and carbon dioxide. *Applied Surface Science*, 252, 5999-6004.
- Guillermo. (2003). A study of the characteristics of activated carbons produced by steam and carbon dioxide activation of waste tyre rubber. *carbon*.
- Gupta. (2013). Chromium removal from water by activated carbon developed from waste rubber tires. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 20, 1261-1268.
- Gusain. (2014). Abatement of chromium by adsorption on nanocrystalline zirconia using response surface methodology. *Journal of Molecular Liquids*, 197, 131-141.
- Huong. (2016). Improved removal of 2-chlorophenol by a synthesized Cu-nano zeolite. *Process Safety and Environmental Protection, 100, 272-280.*
- Janda. (2004). Kinetic models for volatile chlorinated hydrocarbons removal by zerovalent iron. *Chemosphere*, *54*, 917-925.
- J, S. (1997). Adsorbed natural gas storage with activated carbons made from Illinois coals and scrap tires. *Energy Fuels*.
- Joo, J. C. (2013). Photocatalytic degradation of trichloroethylene in aqueous phase using nano-ZNO/Laponite composites. *Journal of hazardous materials*.
- Khayoon. (2013). Solventless acetalization of glycerol with acetone to fuel oxygenates over Ni–Zr supported on mesoporous activated carbon catalyst. *Applied Catalysis A: General*, 464-465, 191-199.
- Lemus. (2012). Removal of chlorinated organic volatile compounds by gas phase adsorption with activated carbon. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 211-212, 246-254.
- Li, Y. (2008). Preparation and photocatalytic activity of TiO2-carbon surface composites by supercritical pretreatment and sol-gel process. *Catalysis Communications*, 9, 1583-1587.

- Lim. (2013). Simultaneous 4-chlorophenol and nitrogen removal inmoving bed sequencing batch reactors packed with polyurethane foam cubes of various sizes. *Bioresource Technology*.
- Mall, I. D. (2005). Adsorptive removal of malachite green dye from aqueous solution by bagasse fly ash and activated carbon-kinetic study and equilibrium isotherm analyses. *Colloids and Surfaces A: Physicochemical and Engineering Aspects*.
- Manicone, P. F. (2007). An overview of zirconia ceramics: basic properties and clinical applications. *Journal of dentistry*.
- Miguel, S. (2002). Porosity and surface characteristics of activated carbons produced from waste tyre rubber. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol*.
- Mittal. (2005). Use of waste materials Bottom Ash and De-Oiled Soya, as potential adsorbents for the removal of Amaranth from aqueous solutions. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *117*, 171-178.
- Mnachon-Vizuate. (2005). Adsorption of mercury by carbonaceous adsorbents prepared from rubber of tyre wastes. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *119*, 231-238.
- *New World Encyclopedia.* (2009, June 5). Retrieved from http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Activated\_carbon
- Nguyen, T. (2014). Phosphorus elimination from aqueous solution using 'zirconium loaded okara' as a biosorbent. *Bioresource Technology*, *170*, 30-37.
- P.Suresh. (2015). Photocatalytic degradation of textile dyeing wastewater through microwave synthesized Zr-AC, Ni-AC and Zn-AC. *Transactions of Nonferrous Metals Society of China (English Edition)*, 25, 4216-4225.
- Ramaiah. (2013). Removal of hazardous chlorinated VOCs from aqueous solutions using novel ZSM-5 loaded PDMS/PVDF composite membrane consisting of three hydrophobic layers. *Journal of hazardous materials*.
- Ren. (2011). Preparation and evaluation of cattail fiber-based activated carbon for 2,4dichlorophenol and 2,4,6-trichlorophenol removal. *Journal of Chemical Engineering*.
- Serrano-Ruiz. (2008). Preparation and characterization of CeO2 highly dispersed on activated carbon. *Materials Research Bulletin, 43*, 1850-1857.
- Shestakova. (2013). Removal of dichloromethane from ground and wastewater: A review. *Chemosphere*, *93*, 1258-1267.
- Sienkiewicz. (2012). Progress in used tyres management in the European Union: A review. *Waste Management, 32*, 1742-1751.

- Steinle. (2000). Effect of environmental factors on the degradation of 2,6dichlorophenol in soil. *Environmental Science & Technology*, *34*, 771-775.
- T.Saleh. (2013). Adsorption of lead ions from aqueous solution using porous carbon derived from rubber tires: Experimental and computational study. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 396, 264-269.
- T.Saleh. (2016). Influence of acidic and basic treatments of activated carbon derived from waste rubber tires on adsorptive desulfurization of thiophenes. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers, 60*, 460-468.
- Tang, Y.-b. (2012). Preparation and characterization of activated carbon from waste ramulus mori. *Chemical Engineering Journal*.
- Tawfik. (2015). Evaluation of AC/ZnO composite for sorption of dichloromethane, trichloromethane and carbon tetrachloride: kinetics and isotherms. *Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers*, 55, 159-169.
- V.Gupta. (2014). Potential of activated carbon from waste rubber tire for the adsorption of phenolics: effect of pre-treatment conditions. *Journal of colloid and interface science*, *417*, 420-30.
- Vaibhav. (2016). Reaction of dichloromethane under non-oxidative conditions in a dielectric barrier discharge reactor and characterisation of the resultant polymer. *Chemical Engineering Journal*, 290, 499-506.
- Vermeulen. (2011). Automotive shredder residue (ASR): reviewing its production from end-of-life vehicles (ELVs) and its recycling, energy or chemicals' valorisation. *Journal of hazardous materials, 190*, 8-27.
- WHO. (1989). Environmental Health Criteria 93. Chlorophenols Other than Pentachlorophenol.
- Yagu. (2014). Dye and its removal from aqueous solution by adsorption: A review. Advances in Colloid and Interface Science, 209, 172-184.

## 7.1 APPENDICES

## **Activation of Carbon**

The char was physically mixed with the potassium hydroxide, KOH with a weight ratio of 1:3.

The impregnation ratio = weight (KOH) (g) / weight (char) (g)

*Chars* = 7.5368g

 $KOH = 7.5368 \times 3 = 22.6104g$ 

$$H20 = \frac{22.6104}{0.428} - 22.6104 = 30.2176ml$$

 $\approx 31 m l$ 

31 ml of H<sub>2</sub>O diluted with KOH for the activation of carbon at 700°C for 2h 30 minutes.

## **HCl treatment**

HCl treatment in order to develop oxygen surface groups on the rubber tire carbon. For this purpose, the product treated with HCl (37M concentration).

Specific Gravity, SG of HCl = 1.18

Moleculat weight of HCl = 36.5 g/mol

Assume 300ml of HCl,

$$\frac{37}{100} \times \frac{1.18}{L} \times \frac{mol}{36.5g} = 11.96 \approx 12 \frac{mol}{L}$$

M1V1 = M2V2

12MV1 = 1M(300ml)

V1 = 25ml (25ml of water needed for the dilution of HCl)

## 7.2 Adsorbent Physicochemical Data



**Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET)** 

Full Report Set

ASAP 2020 V3.04 H Unit 1 Serial #: 1255 Page 1

Sample: WASTE TYRE

Operator: HALIM

Submitter: UMP

File: C:\2020\DATA\001-745.SMP

Started:12/2/2016 5:43:33PMAnalysis Adsorptive:N2Completed:12/3/2016 12:25:19AMAnalysis Bath Temp.:-195.798 °CReport Time:12/5/2016 8:54:02AMThermal Correction:NoSample Mass:0.1104 gWarm Free Space:26.9547 cm³ MeasuredCold Free Space:81.4976 cm³Equilibration Interval:5 sLow Pressure Dose:NoneAutomatic Degas:Yes

Summary Report

Surface Area

Single point surface area at P/Po = 0.301047861: 204.2270 m<sup>2</sup>/g

BET Surface Area: 207.8876 m²/g Langmuir Surface Area: 327.2321 m²/g t-Plot Micropore Area: 23.9874 m²/g t-Plot External Surface Area: 183.9002 m²/g

BJH Adsorption cumulative surface area of pore between 17.000 Å and 3000.000 Å diameter: 183.962 m<sup>2</sup>/g

BJH Desorption cumulative surface area of pores between 17.000 Å and 3000.000 Å diameter:  $225.5099 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ 

### Pore Volume

Single point adsorption total pore volume of pores less than 1248.743 Å diameter at P/Po = 0.984250780: 0.497927 cm<sup>3</sup>/g

Single point desorption total pore volume of pores less than 922.562 Å diameter at P/Po = 0.978555023: 0.572724 cm<sup>3</sup>/g

t-Plot micropore volume: 0.011641 cm<sup>3</sup>/g

BJH Adsorption cumulative volume of pores between 17.000 Å and 3000.000 Å diameter:  $0.581670 \text{ cm}^{3}/\text{g}$ 

BJH Desorption cumulative volume of pores between 17.000 Å and 3000.000 Å diameter: 0.597867 cm<sup>3</sup>/g

Pore Size

Adsorption average pore width (4V/A by BET):	95.8070 Å
Desorption average pore width (4V/A by BET):	110.1987 Å
BJH Adsorption average pore diameter (4V/A):	126.476 Å
BJH Desorption average pore diameter (4V/A):	106.047 Å

Full Report Set

ASAP 2020 V3.04 H Unit 1 Serial #: 1255 Page 1

Sample: WASTE TYRE

Operator: HALIM

Submitter: UMP

File: C:\2020\DATA\001-745.SMP

Started: 12/2/2016 5:43:33PM	Analysis Adsorptive: N2
Completed: 12/3/2016 12:25:19AM	Analysis Bath Temp.: -195.798 °C
Report Time: 12/5/2016 8:54:02AM	Thermal Correction: No
Sample Mass: 0.1104 g	Warm Free Space: 26.9547 cm <sup>3</sup> Measured
Cold Free Space: 81.4976 cm <sup>3</sup>	Equilibration Interval: 5 s
Low Pressure Dose: None	Automatic Degas: Yes

## Isotherm Tabular Report

## Quantity

Relative	Absolute	Adsorbed	Elapsed	Satura	ntion
Pressure	Pressure	(cm³/g	Time	Pressure	
(P/Po)	(mmHg)	STP)	(h:min)	(mmHg	g)
1.#QNAN00	000 1.#Q	NAN0 1	.#QNB	01:08	759.266785
0.00991623	1 7.53003	39 37.898	39 01:2	2 1.#	QNAN0
0.029986144	4 22.7710	63 43.12	55 01:2	25 1.#	QNAN0
0.064825307	7 49.2288	06 47.78	82 01:2	28 1.#	QNAN0
0.079458225	5 60.3428	23 49.29	46 01:3	31 1.#	QNAN0

0.099968974	75.920670	51.2421	01:33	1.#QNAN0
0.120000836	91.135399	53.0316	01:35	1.#QNAN0
0.140002936	106.328087	54.7279	01:37	1.#QNAN0
0.160005709	121.522972	56.3478	01:40	1.#QNAN0
0.180083581	136.773209	57.9214	01:41	1.#QNAN0
0.200128884	152.000397	59.4747	01:43	1.#QNAN0
0.248755071	188.937836	63.1894	01:46	1.#QNAN0
0.301047861	228.662308	67.1208	01:49	1.#QNAN0
0.351759107	267.185211	70.9492	01:51	1.#QNAN0
0.399892725	303.751617	74.5803	01:53	1.#QNAN0
0.449787347	341.660187	78.4203	01:56	1.#QNAN0
0.499718975	379.595459	82.4623	01:58	1.#QNAN0
0.549740695	417.604431	86.7263	02:01	1.#QNAN0
0.599537162	455.440186	91.3861	02:03	1.#QNAN0
0.649486274	493.397858	96.7056	02:06	1.#QNAN0
0.699489979	531.399109	102.8875	02:09	1.#QNAN0
0.739469252	561.786743	108.8585	02:12	1.#QNAN0
0.769635011	584.714966	114.2554	02:14	1.#QNAN0
0.799350015	607.307190	120.6863	02:17	1.#QNAN0
0.819776740	622.843689	125.8443	02:20	1.#QNAN0
0.839230727	637.641968	131.8000	02:23	1.#QNAN0
0.859301285	652.909546	139.1215	02:26	1.#QNAN0
0.874441508	664.437866	145.7629	02:30	1.#QNAN0
0.889324968	675.765686	153.3897	02:33	1.#QNAN0
0.903868889	686.842468	162.6189	02:37	1.#QNAN0
0.914410457	694.878601	170.7648	02:41	1.#QNAN0
0.924495941	702.568726	179.3932	02:45	1.#QNAN0

0.931984774	708.279480	187.0028	02:48	1.#QNAN0
0.939488685	714.008606	195.0598	02:52	1.#QNAN0
0.945580231	718.658081	203.0941	02:55	1.#QNAN0
0.952092395	723.640869	213.1440	03:00	1.#QNAN0
0.958070541	728.211487	223.5061	03:04	1.#QNAN0
0.962650741	731.719849	233.4506	03:08	1.#QNAN0
1.#QNAN0000	) 1.#QNAN	1.#QN	B 03:10	760.123413
0.967018014	735.065674	244.5262	03:14	1.#QNAN0
0.970803288	737.955688	256.2840	03:18	1.#QNAN0
0.974400535	740.706055	267.8124	03:23	1.#QNAN0
0.976302584	742.161499	276.9927	03:26	1.#QNAN0
0.979932149	744.939819	294.2594	03:32	1.#QNAN0
0.981469342	746.121216	303.8680	03:36	1.#QNAN0
0.984250780	748.251770	321.9078	03:41	1.#QNAN0
0.985509272	749.224609	333.4781	03:46	1.#QNAN0
0.988440558	751.472473	357.3195	03:52	1.#QNAN0
0.987628998	750.858704	358.9161	03:53	1.#QNAN0
0.990378064	752.971375	380.0972	04:00	1.#QNAN0
0.978555023	743.992065	370.2636	04:03	1.#QNAN0
0.972370856	739.306152	353.5433	04:08	1.#QNAN0
0.967295548	735.463135	335.7095	04:13	1.#QNAN0
0.962877091	732.119385	320.0136	04:18	1.#QNAN0
0.958739987	728.992554	305.0226	04:24	1.#QNAN0
0.951523825	723.524292	283.9226	04:30	1.#QNAN0
0.948092431	720.930603	273.1993	04:35	1.#QNAN0
0.936780068	712.350098	248.2934	04:42	1.#QNAN0
0.927636322	705.415161	232.2846	04:48	1.#QNAN0

0.926222001	704.345703	229.2606	04:50	1.#QNAN0
0.909682121	691.788757	210.9675	04:57	1.#QNAN0
0.895764422	681.216431	199.3674	05:01	1.#QNAN0
0.891573730	678.038208	195.7396	05:04	1.#QNAN0
0.870899394	662.326843	184.7568	05:08	1.#QNAN0
0.848967061	645.658203	175.1834	05:12	1.#QNAN0
1.#QNAN0000	0 1.#QNAN	1.#QN	B 05:14	4 760.528625
0.841363521	639.881042	171.0631	05:16	1.#QNAN0
0.815252453	620.022827	162.8098	05:20	1.#QNAN0
0.788300005	599.524719	154.1117	05:23	1.#QNAN0
0.769972411	585.586060	148.0919	05:27	1.#QNAN0
0.739509752	562.418335	138.7328	05:31	1.#QNAN0
0.699980763	532.355408	127.6449	05:35	1.#QNAN0
0.649765848	494.165527	115.4705	05:40	1.#QNAN0
0.599701970	456.090515	105.7617	05:44	1.#QNAN0
0.550441672	418.626648	98.1431	05:47	1.#QNAN0
0.500424180	380.586914	91.6307	05:51	1.#QNAN0
0.454083508	345.343506	81.3400	05:56	1.#QNAN0
0.399164608	303.576111	75.3714	05:59	1.#QNAN0
0.335176371	254.911224	70.1672	06:02	1.#QNAN0
0.301379756	229.207932	67.5028	06:04	1.#QNAN0
0.250170539	190.261856	63.5017	06:07	1.#QNAN0
0.200230512	152.281036	59.5767	06:09	1.#QNAN0
0.140149180	106.587463	54.7250	06:14	1.#QNAN0

# Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR)



## FESEM

## At 3,000 magnification



# At 6,000 magnification



At 30,000 magnification



At 100,000 magnification



## XRD



# Analysis Results

### Measurement conditions

X-Ray	30 kV , 15 mA	Scan speed / Duration time	1.0000 sec
Goniometer		Step width	0.0200 deg.
Attachment	-	Scan axis	2theta/theta
Filter		Scan range	10.0000 - 80.0000 deg.
CBO selection slit	-	Incident slit	0.625 deg.
Diffrected beam mono.	Fixed Monochromator	Length limiting slit	-
Detector	MiniFlex2 counter	Receiving slit #1	1.25 deg.
Scan mode	STEP	Receiving slit #2	0.3mm

Qualitative analysis results				
Phase name	Formula	Figure of merit	Phase reg. detail	DB card number
Phase name	Formula	Space group	Phase reg. detail	DB card number