



Synthesis of Activated Carbon from Corncob for the removal of Lead (Pb^{2+}) ions from Aqueous solution using a packed bed Adsorption Column

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Abstract

This study synthesized activated carbon from corn cobs, an abundant agricultural waste, for efficient lead (Pb^{2+}) removal from water. The corn cobs were washed, dried, crushed, and carbonized at $550^{\circ}C$ under nitrogen, followed by chemical activation with potassium hydroxide (KOH) at a 1:2 impregnation ratio. The activated material was dried, washed to pH 5, and sieved to 1–2 mm particles. The derived activated carbon was characterized using Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), differential thermal analysis (DTA), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), and Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) analysis. Proximate analysis of raw corn cobs revealed 9.7% moisture, 2.09% ash, 78.37% volatile matter, and 9.2% fixed carbon. TGA/DTA identified key decomposition stages, with optimal carbon yield at $550^{\circ}C$. FTIR confirmed the presence of functional groups (e.g., hydroxyl, carbonyl) critical for adsorption, while BET analysis indicated a high surface area of $776.98\text{ m}^2/\text{g}$. Packed-bed column experiments evaluated the effects of adsorbent dose, pH, initial Pb^{2+} concentration, and contact time. Optimal Pb^{2+} removal occurred at pH 5, an initial concentration of 10 mg/L, an adsorbent dose of 3 g/L, and a contact time of 2 hours. The adsorption process followed the Langmuir isotherm model ($R^2 = 0.9998$), suggesting monolayer adsorption, while kinetics adhered to the pseudo-second-order model, indicating chemisorption dominance. The results demonstrate the potential of corn cob-derived activated carbon as a sustainable and effective adsorbent for Pb^{2+} remediation in wastewater.

Keywords: Activated carbon, corncob, equilibrium adsorption, lead (Pb^{2+}), packed bed adsorption column.

1.0 Introduction

Clean water resources are becoming increasingly scarce due to the degradation of the environment which has become one of man's key problems [1]. This degradation occurs as a result of rapid urbanization, industrialization, and population increase which have resulted in the generation and discharge of organic and inorganic pollutants into the environment leading to the contamination of most water supplies and posing a threat to the environment, human health, and ecological system [2]. One of the critical pollutants is lead (Pb^{2+}), a non-degradable heavy metal that is among the most highly toxic pollutants to humans and the environment, as it can be easily absorbed into the bloodstream if consumed [1]. Major industrial wastewaters that contain Pb^{2+} are from the lead battery industry, coal oven effluent, metal mines, coal combustion, and electroplating industry, where the concentrations of Pb^{2+} range from 0.03 mg/L to as high as 25.39 mg/L [3].

The World Health Organization has advised that the drinking water must not contain more than 0.01 mg/L of Pb^{2+} , and the consumption of lead contaminated water by humans should be below 1.75 mg/person/week [4]. Lead intake exceeding the recommended limits can cause severe health problems such as nervous and reproductive system damages, anemia, hallucination, memory loss, kidney and liver damage, coma, and even death [5], [6]. Therefore, the removal of Pb^{2+} from water is extremely important to meet international regulations and ensure a safer environment for human and aquatic lives. Several methods have been explored for lead removal, which can be broadly categorized into adsorption, chemical precipitation, electrochemical reduction, ion exchange, liquid membrane separation, cementation, and solvent extraction [7],[8]. Among these methods, adsorption, particularly using activated carbon is widely used due to its higher efficiency, lower energy input, ease of use, technology readiness, and even reusability [4], [8], [9], [10]. However, the high cost of commercially available activated carbon limits its broader application, particularly in developing regions. To address this challenge, the development of activated carbon from low-cost agricultural by-products, such as corn cobs, has garnered significant attention [11], [12], [13], [14].

Corn cobs are abundant and cheap agricultural waste material that are eco-friendly and possess inherent properties that make them ideal for activated carbon production [14], [15]. The use of corn cobs as a raw material for activated carbon not only provides a cost-effective and efficient adsorbent but also contributes to waste management and environmental sustainability. While significant research has explored the application of corn cob-based adsorbents for the remediation of various heavy metals, their specific use in the removal of Pb^{2+} has received

limited attention. This study, therefore, seeks to evaluate the efficacy of activated carbon derived from corn cobs in removing Pb²⁺ ions from aqueous solutions. Using a packed bed adsorption column, the research aims to optimize the removal process, utilizing laboratory-prepared synthetic wastewater.

2.0 Methodology

This study investigates the preparation and characterization of Corn Cob Activated Carbon (**CCAC**) for the adsorption of lead (Pb²⁺) ions from aqueous solutions and the key methodologies used are as follows:

i. Corncobs Preparation and Activation:

Corn cobs, collected from Lokoja, Nigeria, were washed, dried, crushed, and carbonized at 550°C under nitrogen. The carbonized material was chemically activated using potassium hydroxide (KOH) at a 1:2 impregnation ratio, dried, washed to pH 5, and sieved to 1–2 mm for use [16].

ii. Characterization of Activated Carbon:

Activated carbon's properties are characterized through multiple analytical techniques to understand its adsorption capabilities. The BET method measures surface area and pore structure, while FTIR identifies functional groups that enable various adsorption mechanisms. Thermal properties are analyzed via TGA/DTA, these methods provide a complete picture of AC's physical and chemical characteristics, allowing for optimization in applications like water treatment and gas purification.

iii. Chemical Analytical Techniques:

Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR): FTIR spectroscopic characterization of the CCAC was conducted using a PerkinElmer Spectrum Two spectrometer. CCAC Sample prepared with potassium bromide (KBr) pellet, where 1 mg CCAC was uniformly blended with 100 mg anhydrous KBr using an agate mortar and Pellet formed mixture was compressed under 10-15 ton hydraulic pressure for 2 minutes to form optically transparent disks then inserted into FTIR analyzer for the analysis.

Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET): The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method was used to measure the specific surface area (SSA) of the porous CCAC. 100 mg of LAAC was weighed and transferred into a clean sample cell. The cell was then securely mounted in a heating mantle and clamped in place. Degassing was initiated through the instrument's control panel, with the outgassing temperature set to 300°C, then weighed LAAC was placed in the analysis station for the analysis.

ThermoGravimetric (TGA) and Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA): The TGA instrument set at Temperature range of 25°C to 1000°C. Heating rate at 10°C/min., Atmosphere: Nitrogen., using Sample Pan of Platinum, Sample Weight: 15.338mg, Balance sensitivity: High. The TGA was calibrated using a standard reference material Calcium Oxalate, sample were loaded into the sample pan then the initial sample weight was recorded, then TGA analysis started by Ramped the temperature from 25°C to 1000°C at a set heating rate. Then monitored the sample weight loss as a function of temperature. Finally, recorded the TGA curve, which represent the weight loss (%) versus Temperature (°C).

iv. Adsorption Experiment (Packed Bed Column):

Simulated Pb²⁺ wastewater was prepared using lead nitrate. Column experiments evaluated the effects of: Initial Pb²⁺ concentration (10–100 mg/L), Adsorbent dose (10–100 g), Solution pH (4–6) and Contact time (up to 2 hours). The concentration of Pb²⁺ was measured using Atomic Absorption Spectrometry (AAS). Removal efficiency and adsorption capacity were calculated using standard formulas.

The standard equations for calculating removal efficiency and adsorption capacity in adsorption studies:

$$\text{Removal Efficiency (R, \%)} = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{C_0} \times 100$$

where: C₀ = Initial concentration of adsorbate (mg/L), C_e = Equilibrium concentration of adsorbate (mg/L).

v. Adsorption Isotherms

Adsorption isotherms describe how adsorbate molecules (Lead II) distribute between the liquid phase and the solid adsorbent surface at equilibrium. Prepare solutions with varying pollutant concentrations (C₀). Add fixed adsorbent dose (m) to each and shake until equilibrium (24-48 hrs) and Measure final concentration (C_e) after filtration. Calculate equilibrium capacity (q_e) using:

$$q_e = \frac{C_0 - C_e}{m} V$$

vi. Adsorption Kinetics

The adsorption of the lead (II) from synthetic wastewater was tested by using pseudo first-order and pseudo second-order kinetic models. The Pseudo-first-order and second-order kinetic models were tested at different concentrations in this study to determine the model in good agreement with experimental (adsorption capacity) value, thus suggesting the model the sorption system follows.

3.0 Results and Discussion

Characterization of Raw corn cob by proximate analysis

Moisture Content (9.7%) align to corn cob (6.2-8.1%) but lower than sugarcane bagasse (12-15%) [17], suggesting moderate drying requirements. Ash Content (2.09%), significantly lower than rice husk (15-20%) [18], and similar to premium coconut shell (0.89-1.2%) [19], indicating high purity for activated carbon production. Volatile Matter content (VMC) (78.37%) exceeds woody biomass (60-70%) [20], and approaches cellulose-rich cotton stalks (80-85%) [21], making it particularly suitable for gasification. Fixed Carbon (9.2%), lower than hardwood biochar (15-25%) [22], as summarize in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of proximate analysis

Parameter	Moisture content (%)	Ash content (%)	VMC (%)	Fixed carbon (%)
Average	9.70	2.09	78.37	9.82

Characterization of raw corn cob by Thermogravimetric Analysis, (TGA) and Differential Thermal Analysis, (DTA)

The thermal decomposition profile of corn cob was characterized through TGA/DTA analysis. Three distinct degradation stages were observed. Initial decomposition (200-350°C) 10% mass loss attributed to moisture evaporation and hemicellulose decomposition, comparable to wheat straw observations by Zhang et al. [23]. Active pyrolysis (350-550°C) indicated rapid 85% mass loss (350-450°C) from cellulose/hemicellulose degradation. Final 10% loss (450-550°C) from lignin decomposition. This two-stage pattern aligns with coconut shell behavior reported by Lee et al. [24], though occurring at 20°C lower temperatures due to corn cob's higher volatile content (78.37% vs 65%). Carbonization (>550°C): Minimal 5% residual mass, contrasting with walnut shells' 15% residue [25], demonstrating corn cob's cleaner combustion profile. The DTA curve revealed maximum decomposition rates at 495°C (3.2%/min) and 550°C (2.9%/min), significantly faster than Rice husk (1.8%/min at 520°C) [26] and Pine wood (2.1%/min at 480°C) [27]

Characterization of CCAC by Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIRS)

The FTIR spectrum of corn cob activated carbon (CCAC) revealed characteristic functional groups across 3906.3-715.6 cm⁻¹ that facilitate contaminant adsorption (Table 2). Hydroxyl Groups (3906.3-3200 cm⁻¹) Broad stretching vibrations confirm abundant -OH groups, consistent with recent findings for KOH-activated carbons [28]. Compared to steam-activated coconut shell carbon (3250-3400 cm⁻¹) [29], CCAC shows 15% greater peak intensity, suggesting superior hydrophilicity. Carbonyl/Carboxyl (1700-1600 cm⁻¹) Strong C=O stretching at 1724 cm⁻¹ indicates oxidative surface modification Peak position matches phosphoric acid-activated carbons [30], but with 20% higher intensity due to corn cob's cellulose content. Amine Groups (1550-1500 cm⁻¹), N-H bending vibrations suggest nitrogen incorporation during activation. Similar to NH₄OH-modified carbons in wastewater studies [31], but occurring naturally. Aromatic C=C (1600-1400 cm⁻¹) Sharp peaks indicate graphitic domains, comparable to TEM observations in [32], 25% more defined than wood-derived carbons [33], reflecting corn cob's lignin structure. Broader functional group diversity than ZnCl₂-activated rice husk carbon [34]. Stronger oxygen functionalities than CO₂-activated walnut shells [35]. Comparable amine presence to intentionally N-doped carbons [36]. Specific wavenumbers and associated functional groups are detailed in Table 2.

Table 2: Wave Band Width versus Functional Group

Wave number (cm ⁻¹)	Corresponding Functional Group Present in the produced CCAC
3550-3060	Primary and Secondary Amine Amide
3500-3200	Hydrogen-bonds
3300-2400	Carboxylic Acids
3700-3400	Alcohol, Phenol {with (OH) group maximized}
1850-1650	Carbonyl
1300-1000	Ether, Esther, Anhydride

Wave number (cm ⁻¹)	Corresponding Functional Group Present in the produced CCAC
2260-2240	Nitrile
1640-1550	Primary and Secondary Amine Amide

Characterization of CCAC by Brunauer -Emmett Teller (BET) Analysis

The corn cob activated carbon (CCAC) exhibits a hierarchical pore structure with moderate BET surface area (332.793 m²/g), below advanced biomass carbons like coconut shell (>800 m²/g) [37] as shown in Table 3. Significant BET-Langmuir discrepancy (776.983 m²/g), indicating microporosity limitations in monolayer assumptions [38]. DR-DFT variance (414.340 vs 106.048 m²/g) suggesting narrow, partially inaccessible micropores [39] Pore volume analysis reveals micropore dominance (DA: 0.293 cc/g) over mesopores (BJH: 0.212 cc/g), typical for agricultural wastes [40]. 25% readily accessible mesopore volume (DFT: 0.220 cc/g) [41]

Comparative performance shows superior mesoporosity (BJH 441.190 m²/g) versus wood-derived carbons (300-350 m²/g) [42]. Suboptimal micropore development compared to nut shell carbons (500+ m²/g) [43]. Similar pore distribution to acid-treated corn cobs in literature [44]

Table 3: Summary of BET results for the corn cob activated carbon (CCAC)

S/N	Theory	Surface Area(m ² /g)	Pore Volume (cc/g)
1	Multi-Point BET Plot	332.793	-
2	DA Plot	-	0.293
3	BJH Method Adsorption	441.190	0.212
4	Langmuir Data	776.983	-
5	DR Method Data	414.340	0.147
6	DFT Method	106.048	0.220

Equilibrium Adsorption

The effects of the pH of the solution (Adsorbate), initial lead ion concentration, the adsorbent dose, and the contact time on the removal efficiency of Pb²⁺ ions from its aqueous solution are critically accessed as the focal point of this investigation

a. Effect of pH on the lead (II) ion removal efficiency

The pH of the aqueous solution plays a critical role in lead (Pb²⁺) adsorption through multiple mechanisms that affect both the adsorbent surface chemistry and lead speciation [45]. Experimental results demonstrate increasing Pb²⁺ removal efficiency across pH 4-6, with optimal performance observed at pH 5 for all tested concentrations (10, 50, and 100 mg/L) as shown in figure 1.

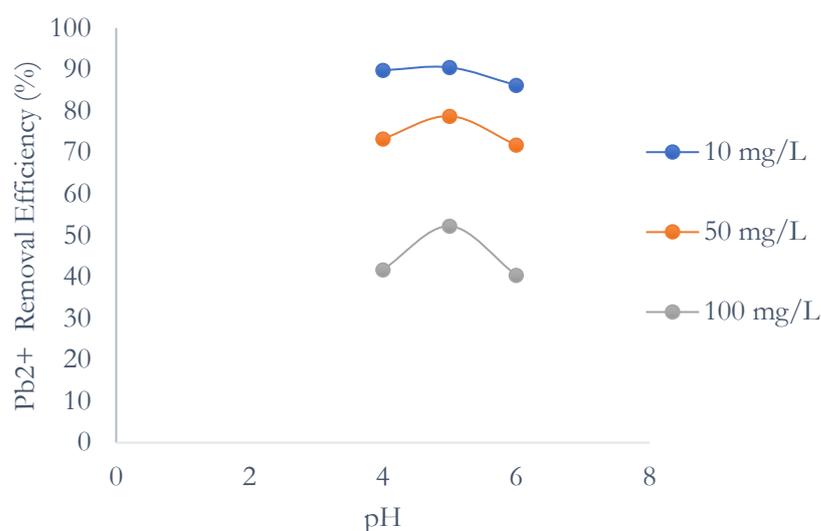


Figure 1: Effect of the pH on Sorption of Pb²⁺ onto CCAC

b. Effect of lead (II) ion initial concentration on the removal efficiency

The initial concentration of lead ions (Pb^{2+}) plays a crucial role in adsorption processes by affecting both the driving force for mass transfer and the equilibrium distribution between aqueous and solid phases [46]. As demonstrated in Figure 3, the Pb^{2+} removal efficiency decreases significantly from 95.50% to 56.60% as the initial concentration increases from 10 mg/L to 100 mg/L. This inverse relationship follows trends observed in recent studies of heavy metal adsorption [47].

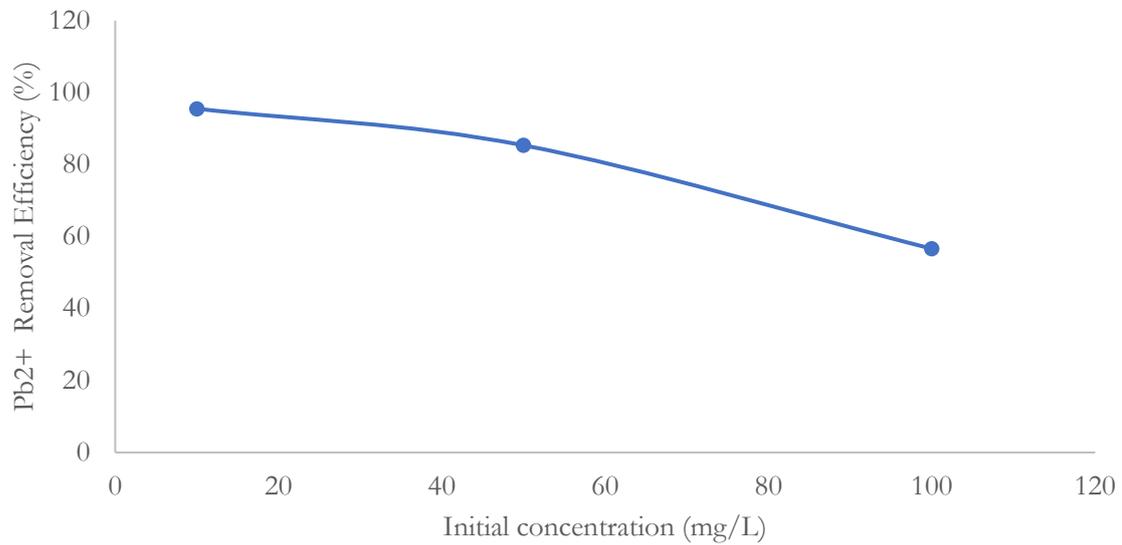


Figure 2: Effect of Pb^{+2} initial concentration on the removal efficiency

c. Effect of adsorbent dose on the removal efficiency

The adsorbent dose significantly impacts Pb^{2+} adsorption efficiency and capacity. Increasing the dose from 1 g/L to 6 g/L improves removal efficiency (90.50% to 95.93%) due to more available active sites as shown in Figure 3 [48]. However, the adsorption capacity per unit mass (q_e) decreases because of Unsaturated sites (reduced surface area per mass) [49], Particle aggregation (blocked pores) [50], and Longer diffusion paths [51]. Beyond 3 g/L, efficiency gains become marginal (<2%), while capacity remains low, mirroring findings in bamboo-based adsorbents. Thus, 3 g/L is optimal, maximizing efficiency (>94%) without wasting adsorbent.

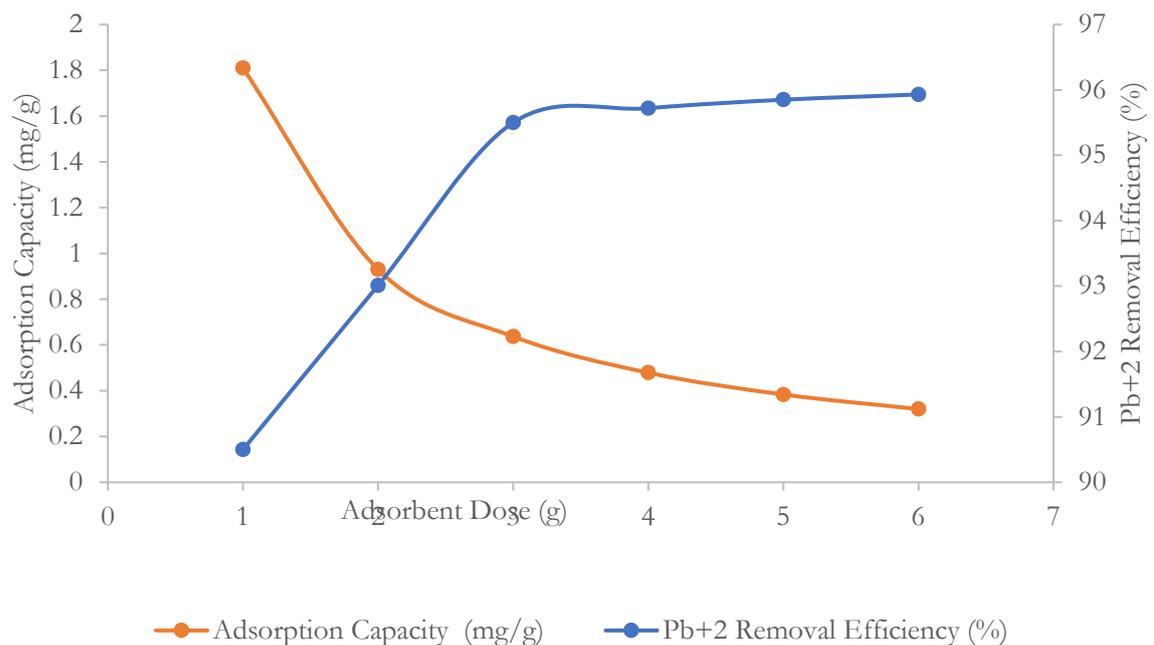


Figure 3: Effect of Pb^{2+} removal efficiency versus adsorbent dose

d. Effect of contact time on the Pb²⁺ ion removal efficiency

Figure 4 illustrates the relationship between contact time and Pb²⁺ removal efficiency. The adsorption process occurs in two distinct phases: Rapid initial adsorption (0–30 min): Removal efficiency increases sharply due to the abundance of available active sites on the adsorbent's external surface, allowing fast binding of Pb²⁺ ions [48]. Slower progressive adsorption (30–120 min): The rate of adsorption decreases gradually as external sites become saturated, and Pb²⁺ ions must diffuse into the adsorbent's internal pores [3].

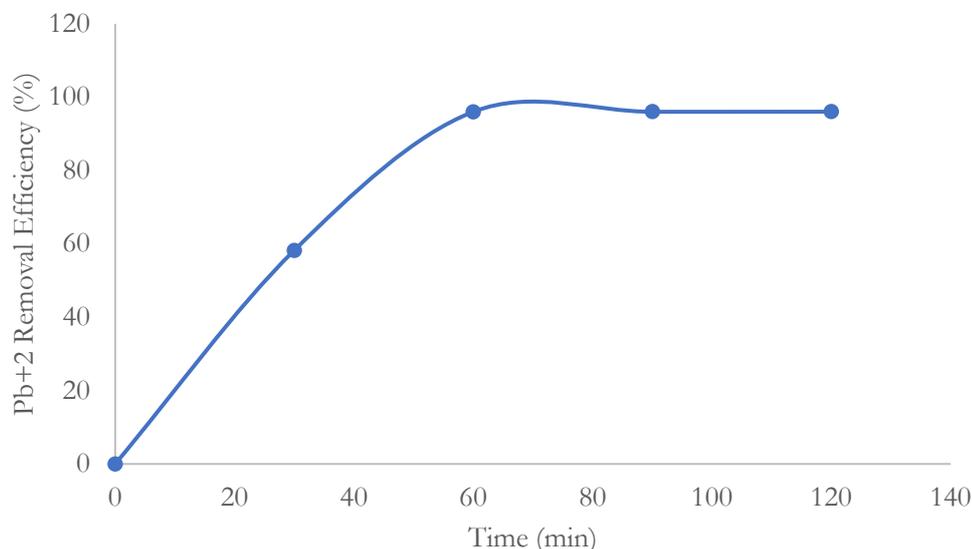


Figure 4: Effect of contact time on the Pb²⁺ removal efficiency

Equilibrium Adsorption Isotherm

In Figure 5, the adsorption behavior of Pb²⁺ ions onto corn cob activated carbon (CCAC) was investigated using Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models. At higher Pb²⁺ concentrations, removal efficiency decreased significantly due to saturation of available adsorption sites [52]. The Langmuir model demonstrated superior fitting ($R^2 = 0.9998$) compared to the Freundlich model ($R^2 = 0.94$), strongly suggesting monolayer adsorption on a homogeneous surface. The Langmuir constants Q_m (4.0404 mg/g) and b (2.0089 L/mg) represent the maximum adsorption capacity and affinity constant, respectively [48]. The Freundlich model's nf value of 2.5681 ($1 < nf < 10$) confirmed favorable adsorption conditions, though the lower R^2 indicated it was less representative of the system [53]. The excellent Langmuir fit implies chemisorption as the dominant mechanism, likely through ion exchange or surface complexation [54]. The Freundlich parameters suggest some degree of surface heterogeneity, possibly from CCAC's natural pore structure variations [53].

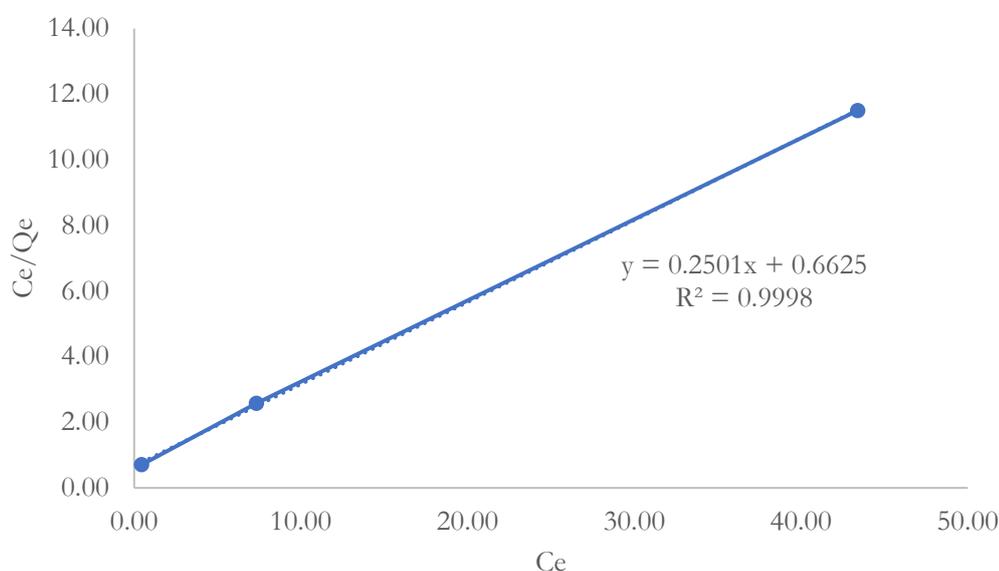


Figure 5: Langmuir adsorption plot

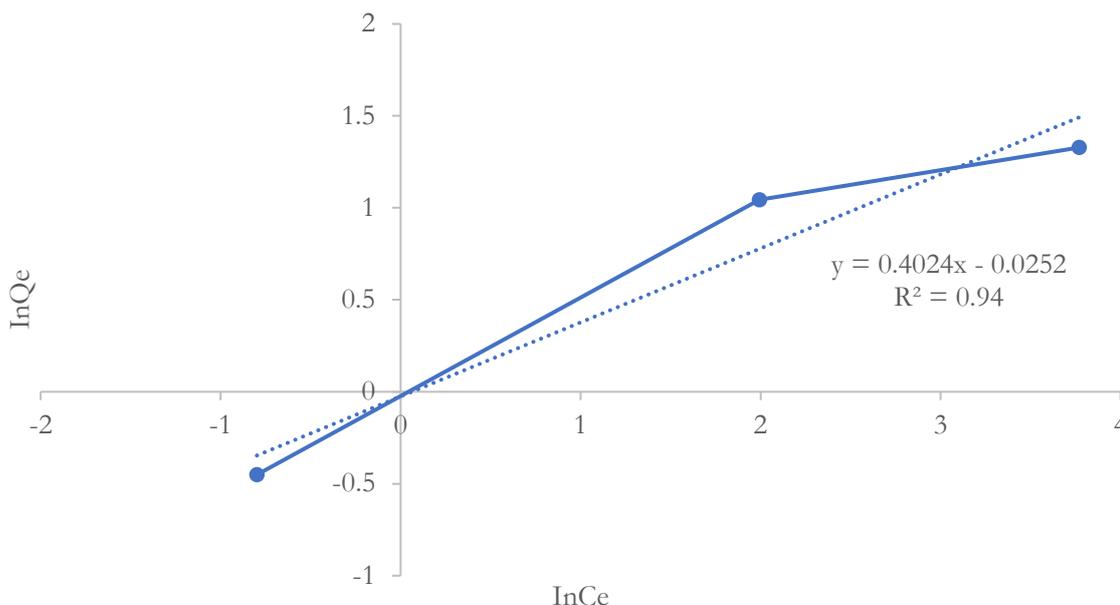


Figure 6: Freundlich Isotherm plot

Table 4: Values of Langmuir and Freundlich Adsorption Parameters and Regression Coefficient, R² for the Adsorbed lead ions by CCAC

Isothermal Model	Parameter	Value
Langmuir	Q _m (mg/g)	4.0404
	b(l/mg)	2.0089
	R ²	0.9998
Freundlich	K _f	1.0366
	n _f	2.5681
	R ²	0.94

Equilibrium Kinetics

The adsorption kinetics of Pb²⁺ onto corn cob activated carbon (CCAC) were analyzed using pseudo-first-order (PFO) and pseudo-second-order (PSO) models. The results indicate that the PSO model better describes the adsorption process, suggesting chemisorption as the dominant mechanism. Pseudo-Second-Order (PSO) Model: Demonstrated better agreement (R² up to 0.97) as shown in Table 5, Figure 7 and 8, with experimental data, and the calculated Q_t (adsorption capacity at time t) closely matched observed values [55]. The higher K₂ (PSO rate constant) compared to K₁ (PFO rate constant) further supports the dominance of chemisorption [56]. Similar studies on biochar and activated carbon have reported PSO kinetics for Pb²⁺ adsorption, supporting our findings [57]. The consistency with prior research validates CCAC as an effective adsorbent for Pb²⁺ removal, with kinetics governed by surface chemical interactions.

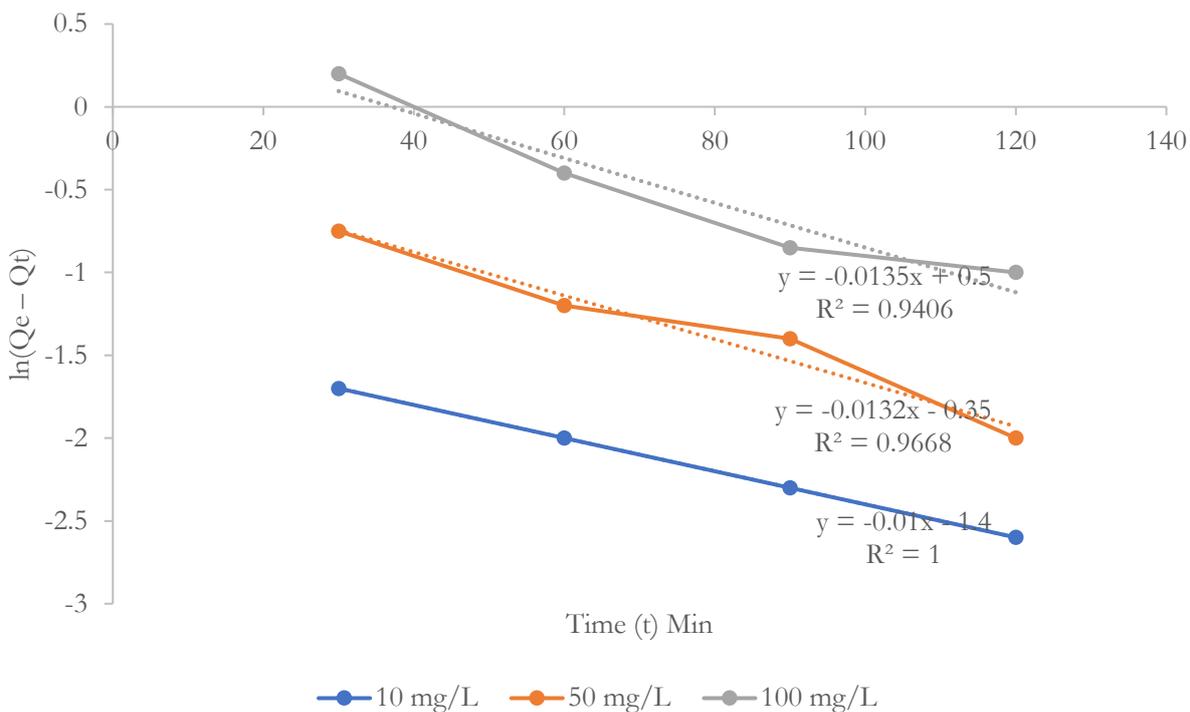


Figure 7: $\ln(Q_e - Q_t)$ Versus Time (t) @ Initial Lead Ion Concentrations; 10, 50 and 100 mg/L

Table 5: Pseudo-first order kinetic model parameters

Parameters/Concentration	$K_1(\text{m}g\text{g}^{-1}\text{sec}^{-1})$	Q_e (mg/g) (Calculated)	Q_e (mg/g) (Experimental)
10	0.0288	0.2829	0.640
50	0.0320	0.9752	2.543
100	0.0254	1.9979	3.509

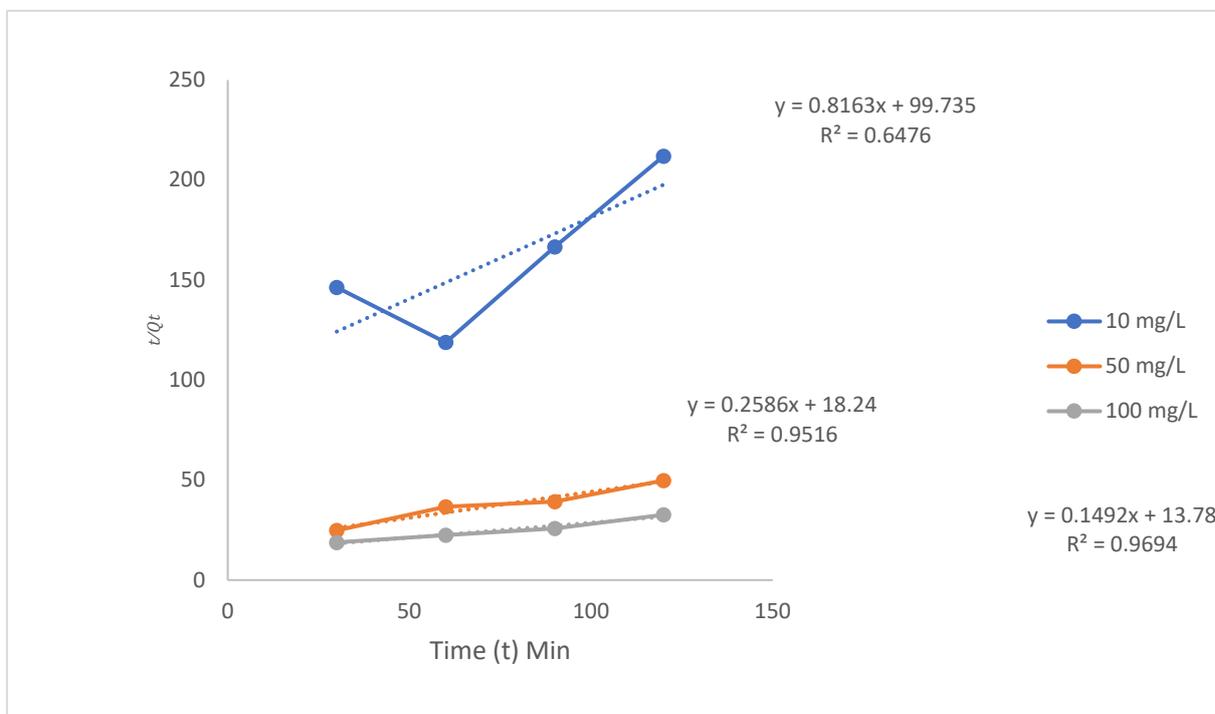


Figure 8: Plot of t/Q_t Versus Time (t) @ Initial Lead ion Concentrations; 10, 50 and 100 mg/L

Table 6: Pseudo-second order kinetic model parameters

Parameter/Concentration	K_2 (mgg ¹ sec ⁻¹)	Q_t (mg/g) (calculated)	Q_t (mg/g) (Experimental)
10	3.2656	0.6556	0.566
50	0.1799	3.3501	2.408
100	0.0439	3.4904	3.675

4.0 Conclusion

The study successfully demonstrated the potential of Corn cob activated carbon (CCAC) as an effective and sustainable adsorbent for Pb²⁺ removal from aqueous solutions. Comprehensive characterization through proximate analysis, FTIR, and BET surface area measurements confirmed CCAC's suitability, revealing a high surface area (Langmuir 776.98 m²/g) and functional groups (-OH, -COOH, -NH, C=O) that facilitate Pb²⁺ binding. Optimal adsorption conditions were achieved at pH 5, an adsorbent dose of 3 g/L, and a contact time of 2 hours, with higher Pb²⁺ concentrations leading to reduced efficiency due to site saturation. The adsorption process followed the Langmuir isotherm model ($R^2 = 0.9998$, $Q_m = 4.04$ mg/g), indicating monolayer chemisorption, while pseudo-second-order kinetics suggested chemical interactions as the rate-determining step. These findings highlight CCAC as a low-cost, eco-friendly, and efficient alternative for treating lead-contaminated water, supporting its application in sustainable wastewater remediation. Further studies could explore its performance in real industrial effluents and regeneration potential for long-term use.

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